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Innovative Food Science and Emerging Technologies

Application of PEF- and OD-assisted drying for kiwifruit waste valorisation

Keywords:	Kiwifruit waste valorisation; emerging processing; fruit snack; drying
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Application of PEF- and OD-assisted drying for kiwifruit waste valorisation

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Abstract

The production of dried snacks with high nutritional value represents a valid alternative to use the kiwifruit waste as undersized fruits, with a positive economic impact on the entire production chain. Therefore, this work aimed to evaluate the effect of pulsed electric field - PEF (200 V/cm) and/or osmotic dehydration – OD pre-treatments on drying kinetics (50, 60, 70°C), texture, colour, and sensorial properties of yellow kiwifruit snacks. The drying kinetics were significantly influenced both by applied treatment and drying temperature. The firmness of the kiwifruit snacks was improved by the combination of PEF/OD pre-treatments. In general, drying temperature of 70°C and the use of combined pre-treatments seem to be a good compromise to reduce drying time and obtain products with high quality in terms of colour, firmness, and overall acceptability.

Keywords

Kiwifruit waste valorisation, emerging processing, fruit snack, drying

33 **Introduction**

34 In the food system, the way of production and distribution, as well as the kind of foods we we
35 choose to consume has a certain effect on the planet where we are living on and the society
36 which we are living in. Moreover, the food waste valorisation, which is a part of the food waste
37 management is an important issue and challenge for the food industries (Otles & Kartal, 2018).
38 Concerning kiwifruit, agriculture and industrial processing of raw material generate a large
39 amount of waste and kiwifruit by-products, including leaves, flowers, stems and roots
40 (agricultural wastes) and culled fruit, pomace, peels and seeds as industry side stream
41 (Chamorro et al., 2022; Sanz et al., 2021). Furthermore, kiwifruits with a weight lower than 65
42 g are considered waste and poorly paid as they are used in the production of fruit juices or in
43 the energy supply chain (The Publications Office of the European Union (EC) No 1673/2004,
44 2004). Nevertheless, they are rich in vitamin C and other bioactive compounds, which
45 contributes to their high antioxidant activity (Lintas et al., 1991), helping to fight against heart,
46 vascular and central nervous system diseases, cancer and diabetes (Tyagi et al., 2015).

47 A recent study indicates that consumers prefer food with high nutritional properties and, at the
48 same time, with elevated convenience and shelf-stability (Ramírez-Jiménez et al., 2018). In
49 alternative to the high-calory snacks available on the market, dried fruits are considered a
50 healthier substitute and are included in the dietary guidelines of many countries (Morais et al.,
51 2018). Fruit snacks prepared by innovative technologies and valorising the resources already
52 available could meet the challenges posed by the changes in eating habits and the ones related
53 to the development a sustainable food system (Cieurzyńska et al., 2019; Jeszka-Skowron et al.,
54 2017; Villalobos et al., 2018).

55 Fruit snacks are usually prepared by drying the fruit slices, and one of the most available and
56 employed commercial drying methods is hot air drying. Hot air drying consists in the transfer
57 of heat from the hot air to the product by convection, similarly, the evaporated water is
58 transported to the air also by convection (Antal, 2015; Lewicki, 1998). However, the drying
59 processes consume an appreciable part of the total energy used in the food industry, and it is
60 very important to develop new hybrid drying technologies for energy saving and food quality
61 preservation (Chou & Chua, 2001). Some pre-treatments could be used before the drying
62 process such as osmotic dehydration (OD) and pulsed electric field (PEF) to accelerate the
63 drying time and create attractive snack products (Mannozi et al., 2020; Tylewicz et al., 2020;
64 Witrowa-Rajchert et al., 2014). OD causes partial dewatering of the product at room
65 temperature, due to the concentration gradient between the product and osmotic hypertonic
66 solution, giving, therefore, the possibility to reduce the drying time (Bialik et al., 2020;

67 Dermesonlouoglou, Chalkia, Dimopoulos, et al., 2018) and to preserve the quality of the final
68 product by making them more appreciable to the consumers, especially when a sour or
69 underripe raw material is used (Nowacka et al., 2018; Panarese, Tylewicz, et al., 2012).
70 Concerning the PEF application, those with high and moderate electric field strengths have
71 been proposed for the enhancement of the drying process, allowing to decrease processing time,
72 temperature, and energy consumption (Lammerskitten et al., 2020; Lebovka et al., 2007). The
73 application of PEF pre-treatment at 10 kV/cm and 50 pulses provoked a decrease of drying time
74 of up to 12 % on apples (Wiktor et al., 2013). Moreover, when these two mentioned treatments
75 are combined further beneficial effects, in terms of drying time reduction, better preservation
76 of the colour and bioactive compounds, were observed in carrots (Amami et al., 2008), apples
77 (Amami et al., 2005), red bell pepper (Ade-Omowaye et al., 2003), kiwifruit (Mannozi et al.,
78 2020), goji berry (Dermesonlouoglou, Chalkia, & Taoukis, 2018) and cranberries (Nowacka et
79 al., 2019).

80 In this context, to compare the pre-treatments effects on drying, mathematical modelling
81 appears as a unique tool to help quantifying and interpreting the corresponding data, and
82 evaluate rate constants (Le Feunteun et al., 2021). Moreover, the high complexity of products
83 preparation and of the concerned processes (e.g. chemical and enzymatic reactions,
84 physicochemical phenomena, mechanism of interaction between molecules/ingredients) is the
85 main reason of the development of modelling in food engineering (Trystram, 2012). The
86 literature presents different approaches for modelling various drying processes. In general, the
87 models for the drying of food materials can be categorised into two major groups: (a) those
88 involving empirical equations and (b) those based on the fundamental physics of the drying
89 processes (Sabarez, 2015). Perhaps, the simplest empirical equation is the Newton model that
90 only considers a kinetic constant (k). The higher the drying velocity, the higher is the constant
91 k . As far as the Page model is concerned, it considers the kinetic constant (k) and introduces an
92 empirical exponent (n) to overcome the shortcomings of the Newton model (also known as the
93 exponential model) (Simal et al., 2005). Finally, the Weibull model considers the scale
94 parameter (α) and the shape parameter (β). The scale parameter is the kinetic constant of the
95 model and represents the time needed to accomplish approximately 63% of the drying. The
96 reciprocal of α could be compared to the effective diffusion coefficient of the diffusion model
97 since those two parameters are the kinetic constants for each model (García-Pascual et al.,
98 2006). On the other hand, the shape parameter is related to the velocity of the mass transfer at
99 the beginning of the drying (the lower is β , the faster is the drying rate at the beginning).

101 Therefore, this work aimed to evaluate the effect of PEF and/or OD pre-treatments, as well as
102 their application sequence, on drying kinetics at different temperatures and on physicochemical
103 parameters (firmness and colour) and sensorial properties of yellow kiwifruit snacks. Moreover,
104 different models were compared to describe in the best way the drying kinetics and evaluate the
105 effect of different pre-treatments on the velocity of the drying process.

106

107 **2. Materials and Methods**

108 2.1. Raw material handling

109 Yellow kiwifruits *Actinidia chinensis* (cv. Jintao) with a weight below 65 g were provided by
110 Jingold Consortium (Cesena, Italy). The fruits were washed, hand-peeled and cut into slices.
111 Seven 3 ± 1 mm slices were obtained from each kiwifruit central part with the diameters in the
112 range between 30 and 35 mm. For each combination of treatments, the amount of 21 kiwifruit
113 slices was used, randomly selected from different kiwifruits. All obtained samples with related
114 abbreviations are shown in table 1. The endpoint of drying process was established until a target
115 water activity of 0.2 was reached, in order to ensure the microbial stability.

116

117 2.2. Pulsed electric field (PEF) treatment

118 Seven kiwifruit slices of each sample were placed into a rectangular treatment chamber (5 x 5
119 x 5 cm) and subjected to PEF treatment applying 1000 rectangular pulses with an electric field
120 strength of 200 V/cm and a fixed pulse width of 10 μ s. The pulses frequency and total treatment
121 time were of 100 Hz and 10 s, respectively. Tap water with a conductivity of 421 μ S/cm,
122 determined by EC-Meter basic 30+ conductivity meter (Crison Instruments, s.a., Barcelona,
123 Spain), was used as a conductivity medium inside the treatment chamber. The PEF treatments
124 were applied using a pulse generator S-P7500 60A 8kV (Alintel SRL., Bologna). The total
125 energy input was 1.92 kJ/kg.

126

127 2.3. Osmotic dehydration (OD) treatment

128 The OD treatment was carried out by immersing the kiwifruit in 40% (w/w) trehalose
129 (EXACTA + OPTECH Labcenter S.p.A., Italy) solution for 150 min at 35°C, with the product:
130 solution ratio of 1:4, as reported by Mannozi et al., (2020).

131

132 2.4. Hot air drying

133 Untreated and differently pre-treated kiwifruit slices were subjected to hot air drying by using
 134 a hot air cabinet dryer (POL-EKO-APRATURA SP.J., PL). Three different drying temperatures
 135 were used 50, 60 and 70°C. The air velocity was 2 m/s, and an air renewal fee of 50% was used.
 136

137 Table 1. Samples abbreviations and description of the pre-treatments applied for kiwifruit slices
 138 at each drying temperature (50, 60 and 70°C)

Sample code	Description
C	Non-treated samples (control)
OD	OD treated samples
PEF	PEF treated samples
OD/PEF	OD treated samples followed by PEF treatment
PEF/OD	PEF treated samples followed by OD treatment

139

140 2.4. Analytical determinations

141 2.4.1. Moisture content

142 Moisture content was determined gravimetrically by drying the samples at 70°C until a constant
 143 weight was achieved (AOAC, 1996).

144 The analyses were carried out in five repetitions from each sample at each drying temperature.
 145

145

146 2.4.2. Modelling of drying kinetics

147 Three different mathematical models were applied to drying kinetics to evaluate the effect of
 148 different pre-treatments on the velocity of the drying process at each temperature (Table 2).
 149

149

150 Table 2: Selected mathematical models used to fit the drying kinetics

Model Name	Model equation	Reference
Newton (Lewis)	$MR = e^{(-k.t)}$	(Sarimeseli, 2011)
Page	$MR = e^{(-k.t^n)}$	(Sarimeseli, 2011)
Weibull	$MR = e^{-\left(\frac{t}{\alpha}\right)^\beta}$	(Corzo et al., 2008)

151

152 Drying curves were plotted as a function of dimensionless moisture ratio (MR) during drying.

153 The MR was calculated as the gradient of the sample moisture content at any time of drying

154 (M_t , kg water/kg dry matter) to both initial moisture content (M_0 , kg water/kg dry matter) and

155 equilibrium moisture content (M_e , kg water/kg dry matter), according to the equation 1.

156

$$157 \quad MR = \frac{M_t - M_e}{M_0 - M_e} \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

158

159 Regression analysis was performed using the Curve Fitting app from Matlab. In order to explain
160 the goodness of fit of each model, the correlation coefficient (R^2), root mean square error
161 (RMSE) and sum squared errors (SSE) were calculated. The higher R^2 values (near 1), the lower
162 RMSE and SSE indicate that the model fits better to experimental data.

163

164 2.4.3. Texture

165 The texture analysis was performed using a Texture Analyser mod. TA-HDi500 (Stable Micro
166 Systems, Surrey, Godalming, UK), equipped with a 5 N load cell. A stainless-steel sharp blade
167 was used for the cutting test. Force vs. distance curves were obtained using a test speed of
168 1.0 mm/s and the results are expressed in firmness or hardness (N).

169 The analyses were carried out in ten repetitions from each sample at each drying temperature.

170

171 2.4.4. Colour

172 The colour parameters were investigated using the CIE $L^*a^*b^*$ scale in a Colorflex spectro-
173 photocolimeter (Hunterlab, USA) using the D65 illuminant and the 10° standard observer.
174 The instrument was calibrated with a black and white tile ($L^* 93.47$, $a^* 0.83$, $b^* 1.33$) before
175 the measurements. Results were expressed as green/red index- a^* , blue/yellow index- b^* and
176 total colour difference (ΔE)

177

$$178 \quad \Delta E = \sqrt{(\Delta L^*)^2 + (\Delta a^*)^2 + (\Delta b^*)^2} \quad (\text{eq.2})$$

179

180 where:

181 ΔL^* , Δa^* , Δb^* are the differences of mean L^* , a^* and b^* parameters, respectively, between
182 non-treated and treated kiwifruit samples (Radojčin et al., 2015).

183 The analyses were carried out in ten repetitions from each sample at each drying temperature.

184

185 2.4.5. Sensory analysis

186 Untreated and differently pre-treated samples were subjected to sensory evaluation by a
187 descriptive quantitative analysis (QDA) with a panel test of 12 trained panellists.

188 A sensory evaluation was done using the hedonic sensory scale (where 9 – like extremely and
 189 1 – dislike extremely). The acceptability threshold value was set to 5 on the scale, according to
 190 the preliminary training. The attributes included integrity of the samples, colour, odour, taste
 191 intensity, sweetness, acidity, hardness and overall acceptability.

192

193 2.4.6. Statistical analysis

194 The data relating to moisture ratio, firmness and colour were evaluated and discerned by using
 195 an analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey’s HSD post hoc test to compare the
 196 means at the level of confidence of 95% ($p < 0.05$). The analysis was performed using the
 197 software STATISTICA 6.0 (Statsoft Inc., Tulsa, UK).

198

199 3. Results and discussion

200 3.1. Modelling of drying kinetics

201 As expected, the different pre-treatments and drying temperatures affected the drying kinetics.
 202 The MR after 60 min of drying is presented in table 3. For the samples dried at 50°C, it can be
 203 seen that the control sample has a significantly higher MR as compared to the pre-treated
 204 samples, on the other hand, the lowest MR corresponds to the sample treated with PEF followed
 205 by OD, and just OD-treated samples. For the samples dried at 60°C, the behaviour seems to be
 206 more or less the same, showing the highest values for the control sample, and the lowest for the
 207 PEF and PEF/OD samples ($p < 0.05$). Finally, also at 70°C the highest value was obtained in
 208 the control sample, while no significant differences were observed between all the pre-treated
 209 samples.

210

211 Table 3. Moisture ratio of samples dried at different temperatures (after 60 min of drying).
 212 Different lowercase letters in columns indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between each
 213 sample at the three drying temperatures.

Sample	50°C	60°C	70°C
C	0.46 ± 0.05 ^c	0.33 ± 0.03 ^d	0.048 ± 0.003 ^b
OD	0.133 ± 0.002 ^a	0.182 ± 0.015 ^b	0.027 ± 0.002 ^a
PEF	0.32 ± 0.03 ^b	0.122 ± 0.012 ^a	0.021 ± 0.003 ^a
OD/PEF	0.270 ± 0.009 ^b	0.240 ± 0.014 ^c	0.0241 ± 0.0013 ^a
PEF/OD	0.09 ± 0.02 ^a	0.126 ± 0.012 ^a	0.025 ± 0.003 ^a

214

215 Mathematical modelling is important regarding the scale-shift of the process, from the

216 laboratory to the industrial scale. The model that best fits the experimental data can be used to
 217 predict the processing time sufficient to dry the product to particular water content (Wiktor et
 218 al., 2013). In tables 4 and 5 the regression results of the three models evaluated are presented.
 219 All mathematical models presented a good fit of the experimental data; R^2 values were between
 220 0.785 and 0.981; RMSE and SSE were in the range of 0.011-0.101 and 0.002-0.237
 221 respectively.

222

223 Table 4. Goodness of fit of Newton, Page and Weibull model

Sample	Temp.	Newton			Page			Weibull		
		RMSE	SSE	R^2	RMSE	SSE	R^2	RMSE	SSE	R^2
C	50°C	0.066	0.106	0.932	0.068	0.106	0.932	0.065	0.131	0.894
OD	50°C	0.064	0.132	0.894	0.065	0.131	0.894	0.068	0.106	0.932
PEF	50°C	0.101	0.237	0.785	0.071	0.111	0.899	0.026	0.016	0.983
OD/PEF	50°C	0.032	0.020	0.984	0.032	0.019	0.985	0.071	0.111	0.899
PEF/OD	50°C	0.037	0.027	0.972	0.031	0.019	0.981	0.031	0.019	0.981
C	60°C	0.024	0.011	0.991	0.024	0.011	0.992	0.031	0.015	0.984
OD	60°C	0.050	0.043	0.953	0.028	0.012	0.987	0.028	0.016	0.986
PEF	60°C	0.020	0.009	0.992	0.011	0.003	0.997	0.025	0.008	0.990
OD/PEF	60°C	0.064	0.103	0.897	0.019	0.009	0.991	0.032	0.019	0.985
PEF/OD	60°C	0.057	0.078	0.915	0.026	0.016	0.983	0.030	0.018	0.987
C	70°C	0.045	0.043	0.962	0.028	0.016	0.986	0.019	0.009	0.991
OD	70°C	0.011	0.002	0.998	0.011	0.002	0.998	0.018	0.005	0.995
PEF	70°C	0.020	0.006	0.994	0.012	0.002	0.998	0.011	0.002	0.998
OD/PEF	70°C	0.032	0.018	0.983	0.018	0.005	0.995	0.024	0.011	0.992
PEF/OD	70°C	0.044	0.028	0.967	0.025	0.008	0.990	0.012	0.002	0.998

224

225

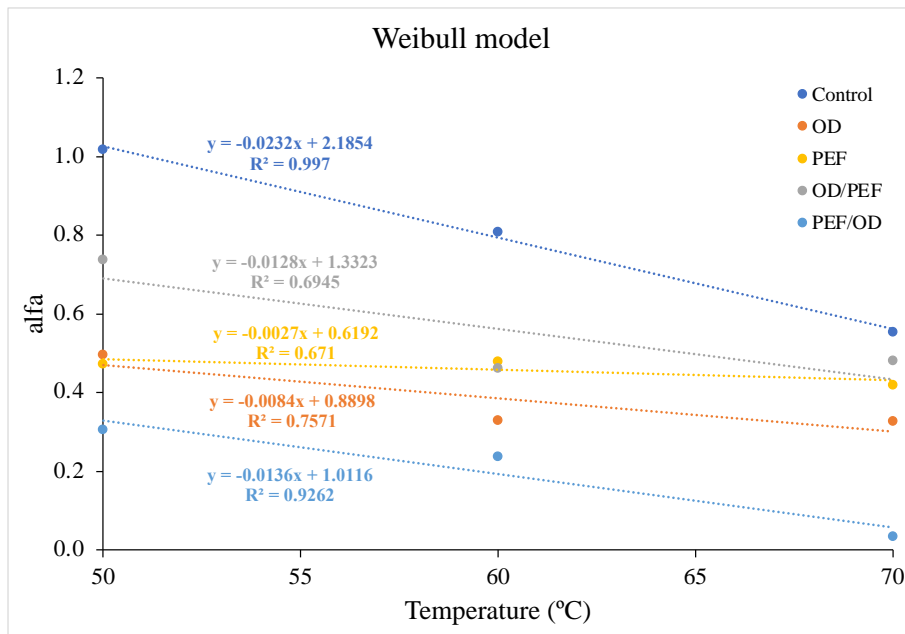
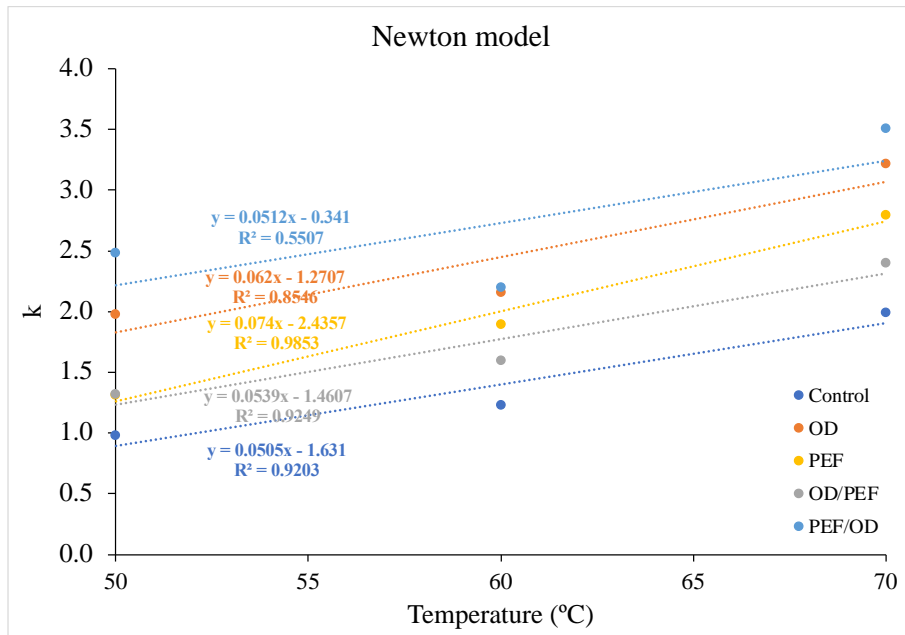
226 Table 5. Constant values for each model

Sample	Temp.	Newton	Page		Weibull	
		k	k	n	a	b
C	50°C	0.982	0.983	0.998	1.018	0.998
OD	50°C	1.977	1.934	0.943	0.497	0.943
PEF	50°C	1.314	1.399	0.450	0.474	0.450
OD/PEF	50°C	1.323	1.322	0.925	0.740	0.925
PEF/OD	50°C	2.486	2.121	0.637	0.307	0.637
C	60°C	1.230	1.225	0.953	0.808	0.953
OD	60°C	2.154	1.750	0.505	0.330	0.505
PEF	60°C	1.897	1.740	0.755	0.480	0.755
OD/PEF	60°C	1.596	1.440	0.475	0.464	0.475
PEF/OD	60°C	2.197	1.724	0.379	0.238	0.379
C	70°C	1.993	3.291	2.017	0.554	2.017
OD	70°C	3.217	3.438	1.109	0.329	1.110
PEF	70°C	2.793	3.971	1.593	0.421	1.594
OD/PEF	70°C	2.401	3.824	1.841	0.483	1.841
PEF/OD	70°C	3.510	2.406	0.261	0.035	0.261

227

228 Although the models could fit the relationship between average moisture content and drying
 229 time, they do not take into account the fundamentals of the drying process and their parameters
 230 have no physical meaning (Simal et al., 2005). Therefore, they cannot give a clear and accurate
 231 overview of the important processes and phenomena occurring during drying. Despite these
 232 considerations, the knowledge of the drying kinetics and subsequently the selection of an
 233 appropriate drying model can be used to understand and predict drying times and thus optimize
 234 the drying process for greater efficiency (Olanipekun et al., 2015).

235 In general, in Table 5 it can be seen that the lowest kinetic constant corresponds to the control
 236 sample, while when a pre-treatment like OD or PEF is applied, the drying process is accelerated.
 237 For almost all the models, at every temperature, the PEF/OD sample was the one that has the
 238 highest drying rate. In order to evaluate the relationship between the kinetic parameter and air-
 239 drying temperature, the kinetic constants were plotted against temperature and a linear
 240 regression was calculated (Figure 1; only the best two models are shown).



243

244

245 Figure 1. Kinetic parameter of Newton and Weibull models and air-drying temperature
 246 relationship.

247

248 As expected, the kinetic parameter has a linear correlation with temperature. These linear
 249 regressions could be used to predict the drying rate at other temperatures between 50-70°C.
 250 Taking into account the correlation coefficient, the Weibull model explained better the
 251 relationship between temperature and drying rate for the control and PEF/OD sample while the
 252 Newton model fitted better the changes related to the temperature for OD, PEF and OD/PEF.
 253 Besides, the Weibull plot showed a different rate of change for the *alfa* parameter as the
 254 temperature increases. From the slope of each sample, it is possible to see that the greatest

255 change on the kinetic parameter as the temperature change has been observed for the control
256 sample, whereas for the pre-treated samples the temperature had a lower effect on the drying
257 rate. This finding was also reported by Mannozi et al., (2020), as they showed that the pre-
258 treatments caused a higher reduction in drying time at 50°C but the increasing temperature did
259 not allow an increased reduction in the drying time. This trend could be related to the fact that
260 the different pre-treatments change the initial solute/water content by osmotic dehydration
261 and/or could enhance the mass transfer rate by PEF. As a consequence, the resulting drying
262 response no longer depends only on temperature but even on the combined effect of temperature
263 and applied pre-treatment.

264

265 3.2. Texture

266 Figure 2 shows the results of firmness obtained on differently treated kiwifruit slices after the
267 drying process. Fresh kiwifruit samples had a firmness value of 6.42 ± 1.09 N. Pre-treatment
268 with OD slightly decrease the kiwifruit firmness to values of 5.53 ± 1.26 N; however, this
269 decrease was not statistically significant. Samples treated with PEF instead presented a
270 significant decrease of firmness (1.59 ± 0.21 N), which was even more pronounced in samples
271 treated by the combined treatments OD/PEF and PEF/OD with the values of 1.26 ± 0.08 and
272 1.43 ± 0.12 N respectively.

273 As expected, after drying the firmness of all the kiwifruit samples increased due to the loss of
274 water (Lewicki & Jakubczyk, 2004; Tylewicz et al., 2019). The relation between the increase
275 of the firmness and stiffness with the decrease of the water activity was studied by Castagnini
276 et al., (2020). They explained that this increase is due to the non-uniform distribution of the
277 water molecules in the fruit matrix but rearranged within the structure. This anti-plasticizing
278 effect of water is reflected in the reduction of the volume existing between the different cell
279 structures, making more difficult the collapse of the structure. Moreover, the increase of
280 hardness and crispness values could be related to the decrease of the samples T_g , due to the
281 slight increase in the soluble solid phase (Zou et al., 2013). Kiwifruit pre-treated with both OD
282 and PEF alone presented a lower firmness in comparison to the untreated dried samples. In
283 general, the application of OD causes vacuole shrinkage, loss of cell turgor pressure and
284 consequently softening of tissue, due to the structural changes such as distortion and decrease
285 in size of cell walls, cell wall breakdown, increase of intercellular spaces, solubilizing of
286 chelator-soluble pectin of the middle lamella . (Fernandes et al., 2008; Panarese, Laghi, et al.,
287 2012). PEF treatment can also affect the plant tissue softening, due to the permeabilization of
288 the cell membrane, which promotes the alteration of the membrane permeability (Tylewicz et

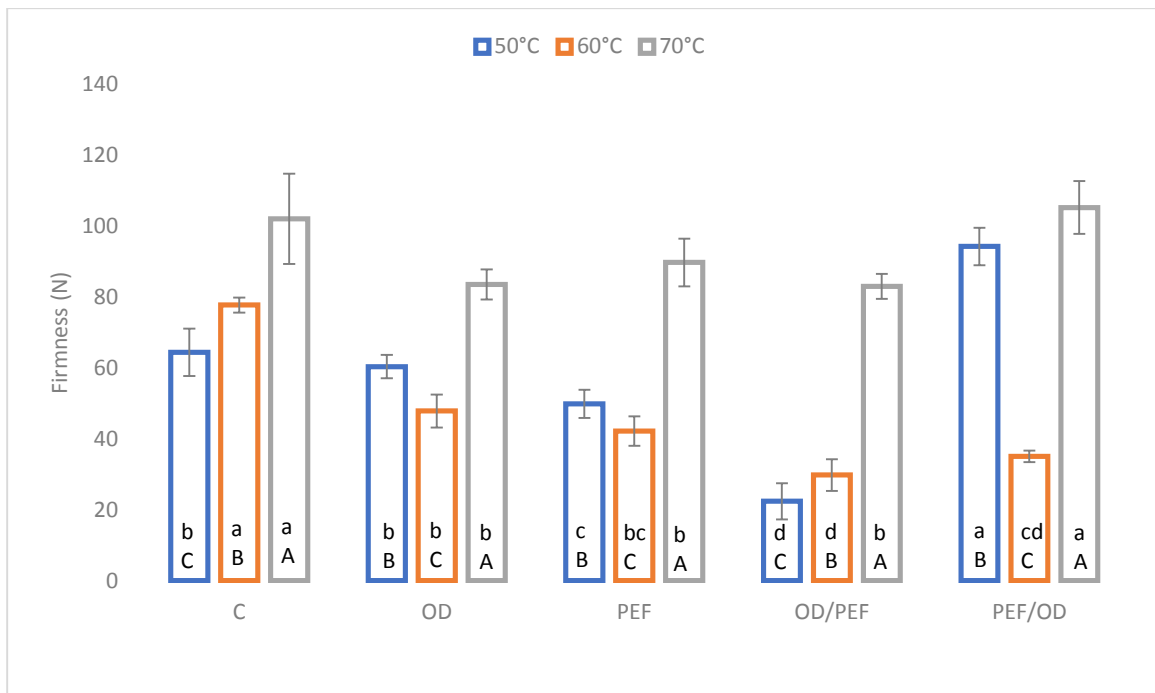
289 al., 2017, 2019; Wiktor et al., 2016). In the present work, the combination of OD followed by
290 PEF further reduced the firmness parameter, showing the lowest values, when the low
291 temperature of drying (50 and 60°C) was used, while the inverted sequence (PEF followed by
292 OD treatment) resulted in the highest firmness (apart for the samples dried at 60°C), compared
293 to other pre-treated samples. Dermesonlouoglou et al., (2016) also observed that combined
294 treatment with PEF and OD resulted in a higher firmness of semi-dried kiwifruits, relating this
295 phenomenon with the humidification of the tissue by the cellular juice coming from the
296 electroporated cells. Probably this thin layer of cellular juice formed on the kiwifruit tissue was
297 sufficient to protect the cell from softening during OD. When PEF was applied on partially
298 dewatered tissue (OD/PEF) probably, the cell disintegration was higher, promoting at the same
299 time the lowering of the texture parameter.

300 In general, the highest temperature of drying (70°C) promoted a significant increase in the
301 firmness of all the considered samples, followed by the samples dried at 50°C, while samples
302 dried at 60°C showed the lowest firmness. Indeed, Lewicki & Jakubczyk, (2004) observed that
303 the drying temperature could strongly influence the mechanical properties of the final products,
304 however, they noticed this relationship only when the drying temperature increased from 70 to
305 80°C.

306 In the untreated samples, the increase in firmness was proportional to the increasing
307 temperature. Similar results related to the crispness were observed by Cortellino et al., (2011)
308 in pineapple samples, even if they tested the air-drying temperature increase from 70 to 80°C.

309

310



311
 312 Figure 2. Firmness of untreated and differently pre-treated kiwifruit snacks dried at the
 313 temperatures of 50, 60 and 70°C. Different lowercase letters indicate significant differences (p
 314 < 0.05) between all considered samples at each drying temperature, while capital letters indicate
 315 significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between each sample at the three drying temperatures.

316
 317 3.3. Colour

318 Table 6 shows the colour parameters a^* and b^* and the total colour difference (ΔE), obtained
 319 on differently treated kiwifruit slices after the drying process. Fresh kiwifruit samples were
 320 characterized by a^* and b^* colour parameter values equal to 1.63 ± 0.5 and 21.5 ± 2.3 ,
 321 respectively. Drying of kiwifruit slices at all temperatures tested increased these values. As it
 322 can be seen from Table 6, the colour parameter a^* did not change in the untreated and treated
 323 samples when dried at 50°C, while the significant decrease of this parameter, in the treated
 324 samples, were observed at 60°C. With the highest temperature of drying the PEF samples were
 325 those with the highest red index.

326 In general, the significant decrease of yellow b^* index was observed in all treated samples when
 327 compared to the untreated one, showing the lowest values in the samples treated by combined
 328 treatment (OD/PEF and PEF/OD).

329 The ΔE is used to describe the overall changes in samples colour in reference to the untreated
 330 fresh sample. The visible changes are defined by the ΔE threshold, which usually depends on
 331 the initial optical properties of the product, and this threshold is in the range from 2 for products
 332 with low colour intensity like blood oranges Choi et al., (2002) to 6-7 for products with high

333 colour intensity like blueberries (Stojanovic & Silva, 2007).

334 All the pre-treated samples presented lower colour differences in comparison to the untreated
335 ones. This was particularly true for the samples dehydrated at low temperatures (50 and 60°C).
336 The lowest colour differences were observed in samples treated with OD/PEF and dried at
337 50°C. OD treated dried samples showed ΔE values of 5.78 - 6.74. Similar values were observed
338 by Nowacka et al., (2017) and Tylewicz et al., (2020) for kiwifruit subjected to the osmotic
339 dehydration treatment.

340 When PEF treatment was applied alone or in combination with OD it was possible to observe
341 that the highest drying temperature (70°C) promoted higher changes in the colour. The negative
342 effect on kiwifruit colour related to the combination of PEF pre-treatment and high drying
343 temperature could be due to the electroporation of the cell membrane, which caused both the
344 increased release of enzymes and their substrates for the enzymatic browning reactions
345 (Mannozi et al., 2020) and pigments oxidation by thermal decomposition (Engin, 2020).

346

347 Table 6. Colour parameters a^* , b^* and total colour difference (ΔE) of untreated and differently
 348 pre-treated kiwifruit snacks dried at the temperatures of 50, 60 and 70°C. Different lowercase
 349 letters in rows indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between all considered samples at each
 350 drying temperature, while capital letters in columns indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$)
 351 between each sample at the three drying temperatures.

Sample	Temp.	a^*	b^*	ΔE
C	50°C	5.5 ± 0.6 ^{aAB}	29 ± 3 ^{aA}	9.2 ± 0.5 ^{aA}
OD	50°C	4.6 ± 0.8 ^{aA}	27 ± 3 ^{abA}	6.6 ± 0.3 ^{bA}
PEF	50°C	5.4 ± 0.8 ^{aA}	26 ± 2 ^{bA}	5.9 ± 0.3 ^{cB}
OD/PEF	50°C	4.8 ± 0.9 ^{aB}	22 ± 1 ^{cA}	4.4 ± 0.2 ^{dC}
PEF/OD	50°C	5.2 ± 0.5 ^{aA}	24 ± 2 ^{bcA}	6.8 ± 0.5 ^{bB}
C	60°C	6.4 ± 0.9 ^{aA}	29 ± 2 ^{aA}	8.7 ± 0.6 ^{aA}
OD	60°C	5.3 ± 0.8 ^{abA}	27 ± 3 ^{abA}	6.7 ± 0.4 ^{bA}
PEF	60°C	5.1 ± 0.5 ^{bA}	25 ± 2 ^{bA}	4.8 ± 0.6 ^{cC}
OD/PEF	60°C	4.8 ± 0.9 ^{bB}	24 ± 2 ^{bA}	5.7 ± 0.4 ^{cB}
PEF/OD	60°C	5.1 ± 0.8 ^{bA}	24 ± 2 ^{bA}	5.3 ± 0.3 ^{cC}
C	70°C	5.0 ± 0.9 ^{bB}	26 ± 3 ^{abB}	6.0 ± 0.4 ^{bB}
OD	70°C	4.9 ± 0.6 ^{bA}	25 ± 3 ^{aA}	5.8 ± 0.4 ^{bB}
PEF	70°C	6.3 ± 0.9 ^{aA}	28 ± 2 ^{aA}	7.8 ± 0.6 ^{aA}
OD/PEF	70°C	5.7 ± 0.4 ^{abA}	25 ± 2 ^{aA}	7.0 ± 0.2 ^{aA}
PEF/OD	70°C	4.8 ± 0.8 ^{bA}	22 ± 1 ^{bA}	7.6 ± 0.7 ^{aA}

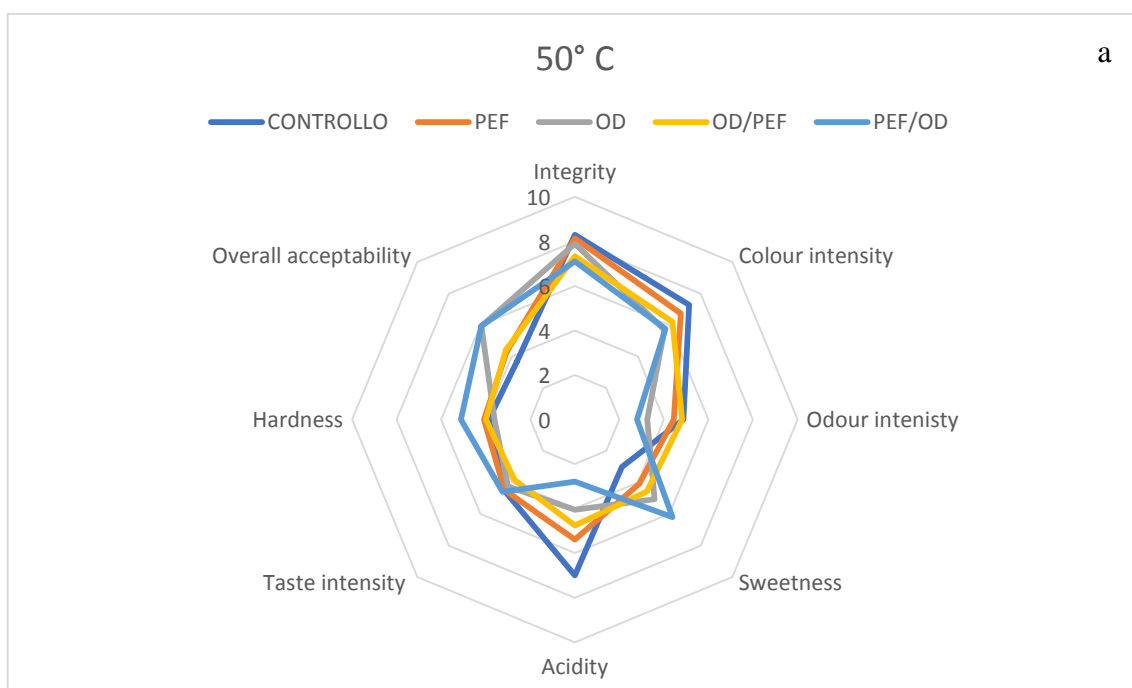
352

353 3.4. Sensory analysis

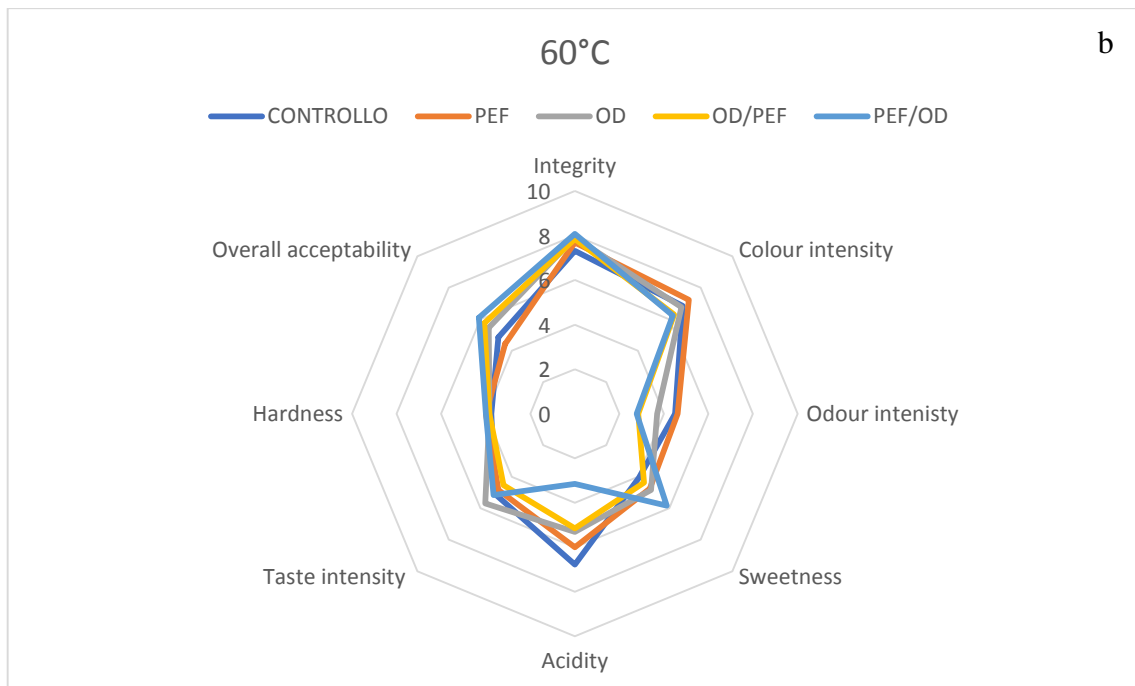
354 Figure 4 a, b, c shows the results of the sensory analysis carried out on differently treated
 355 kiwifruit slices after the drying process at the temperature of 50, 60 and 70°C, respectively. The
 356 samples treated with OD/PEF and then dried at 70°C was the one with the highest score for
 357 overall acceptability, while untreated control sample dried at 50°C showed the lowest
 358 acceptability level, under the acceptability threshold, which was fixed to 5 according to
 359 preliminary training. In general, with increasing the treatment temperature an increase in the
 360 overall acceptability of the samples was observed, regardless of the treatment used; while for
 361 samples dried at a lower temperature only the samples pre-treated with OD alone or in
 362 combination with PEF presented an acceptable value of this parameter, probably thanks to the
 363 increased sweetness of the samples, as observed by the panel.

364 Concerning the singular sensory parameters, the integrity of the slices was high for all the
365 samples, suggesting that the preliminary operations did not affect significantly the cell structure.
366 The untreated samples had the highest acidity, regardless of the drying temperature used, and a
367 high score for parameters such as colour, odour and taste intensity. The last three parameters
368 obtained also a good score in PEF and OD pre-treated samples alone. Kiwifruit slices pre-
369 treated with OD followed by PEF, when dried at a lower temperature (50 and 60°C) showed an
370 intermediate value of all parameters, while when dried at 70°C, in addition to having the highest
371 score for the overall acceptability, showed also the highest texture and a good balance between
372 the sweetness and acidity level. Finally, samples treated first with PEF and then with OD
373 presented the highest sweetness and the lowest acidity and therefore were upper the overall
374 acceptability threshold value, regardless the drying temperature applied.

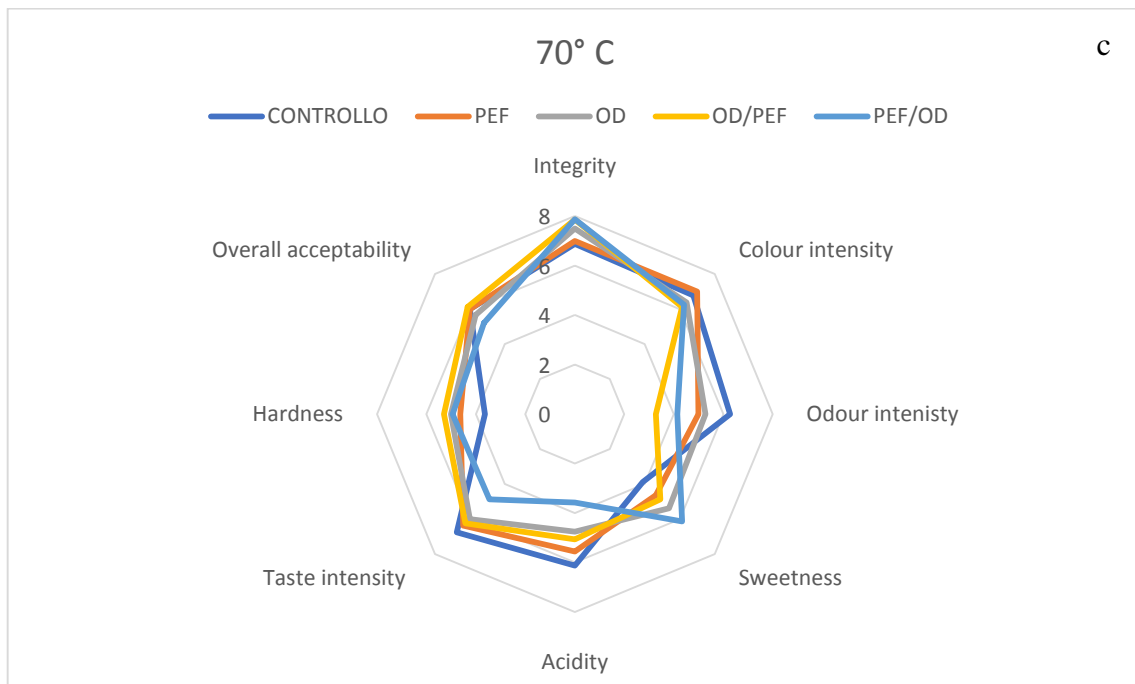
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377



378



379

380 Figure 4. Sensory analysis of untreated and differently pre-treated kiwifruit snacks dried at the
 381 temperatures of 50 (a), 60 (b) and 70 (c)°C.

382

383 **4. Conclusions**

384 The drying kinetics of kiwifruit snacks samples were significantly influenced both by the
 385 applied treatments and the drying temperature. Among the three different models (Lewis, Page
 386 and Weibull) used, the Lewis and Weibull models presented the best goodness of fit. In general,
 387 in the pre-treated samples drying response was no longer dependent only on temperature, as in

388 the untreated ones, but also on the combined effect of temperature and applied pre-treatment.
389 At every investigated temperature, the PEF/OD sample showed the highest drying ratio.
390 Moreover, PEF/OD pre-treated kiwifruit snacks also presented the highest firmness and good
391 overall quality and acceptability evaluated by the sensory panel, while the lowest impact on
392 colour was observed in samples treated by PEF alone or applied after OD. This observation was
393 more accentuated when low temperature of drying was used, while using the high temperature
394 of drying (70°C) the differences among pre-treated samples were almost neglected.
395 The obtained results showed that by using the combination of PEF/OD as a pre-treatment to
396 drying there is potential to achieve more sustainable processes, guaranteeing the nutritional
397 features and the tasty flavour of obtained fruit snack products.

398

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402

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Application of PEF- and OD-assisted drying for kiwifruit waste valorization

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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