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Encapsulation of carrot waste extract by freeze and spray drying techniques: An optimization study --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>Carotenoids were recovered from carrot processing waste using sunflower oil. Simplex centroid mixture design was applied for the optimization of wall material formulations (whey protein/maltodextrin/inulin) for the encapsulation of carrot waste extract by freeze drying (FD) and spray drying (SD). The optimal wall materials were 100% whey protein, and 71% whey protein-29% inulin mixture, respectively, showing total carotenoids of 1.31 and 0.87 mg β-carotene/100 g, encapsulation efficiencies of 63.69% and 53.78%, and β-carotene bleaching antioxidant capacities of 70.06 and 41.23 μmol TE/100 g. The freeze dried encapsulate showed the best hygroscopicity, oxidative stability and colour properties, while the spray dried encapsulate had the lowest water activity, moisture content and particle size. The morphological properties of the optimal encapsulates were assessed. The techniques and the formulations tested showed a big potential for the preparation of functional food with improved nutritional, colour and bioactive properties.</p>
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Dear Editor

Please find enclosed our manuscript “Encapsulation of carrot waste extract by freeze and spray drying techniques: an optimization study” which we wish to submit for consideration as a research article in Food Science and Technology.

In this study, carotenoids were recovered from carrot processing waste using sunflower oil and the obtained carrot waste extract was encapsulated by freeze drying and spray drying techniques. After characterization of sunflower oil and carrot waste extract, response surface methodology was employed to determine the optimal wall material formulations (whey protein/maltodextrin/inulin). The responses considered for the optimization trials were total carotenoid content, encapsulation efficiency, and β -carotene bleaching antioxidant capacity.

The physico-chemical characteristics of the optimal encapsulates were then assessed. The techniques and the formulations tested showed a remarkable potential for the preparation of functional food with improved nutritional, colour and bioactive properties. Additionally, this research was developed using renewable resources, in agreement with the concepts of sustainable green extraction and biorefinery.

Due to relatively high number of applied techniques and performed assays to determine the quality of obtained formulations, the length of the manuscript is exceeding the word limit given by Journal’s instructions. All other requirements from Journal’s instruction for authors were strictly followed.

Additionally, our experience in scientific publishing has shown that reviewers usually insist on detailed description of all methods used in experimental work, which always results in exceeding the word limit after revision. If necessary, detailed explanations of experimental methods could be merged to supplementary file, if Editor insists on cutting the length of the manuscript.

I hope our research will be suitable for publication in Food Science and Technology,

Looking forward to further word in due time, I remain

yours sincerely

Vanja Šregelj

Highlights

- Carotenoid extracted with sunflower oil from juice carrot waste were encapsulated
- Wall materials for freeze drying (FD) and spray drying (SD) were optimized
- In FD, 100% whey protein gave best carotenoid, antioxidant capacity, efficiency
- In SD, best performance was obtained with a 71% whey protein - 29% inulin mixture
- FD encapsulate had better hygroscopicity, oxidative stability, colour properties

1 **Encapsulation of carrot waste extract by freeze and spray drying techniques: An**
2 **optimization study**

3

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16 **ABSTRACT**

17 Carotenoids were recovered from carrot processing waste using sunflower oil. Simplex centroid mixture
18 design was applied for the optimization of wall material formulations (whey protein/maltodextrin/inulin)
19 for the encapsulation of carrot waste extract by freeze drying (FD) and spray drying (SD). The optimal
20 wall materials were 100% whey protein₂ and 71% whey protein-29% inulin mixture, respectively,
21 showing total carotenoids of 1.31 and 0.87 mg β -carotene/100 g, encapsulation efficiencies of 63.69%
22 and 53.78%, and β -carotene bleaching antioxidant capacities of 70.06 and 41.23 μ mol TE/100 g. The
23 freeze dried encapsulate showed the best hygroscopicity, oxidative stability and colour properties, while
24 the spray dried encapsulate had the lowest water activity, moisture content and particle size. The
25 morphological properties of the optimal encapsulates were assessed. The techniques and the formulations
26 tested showed a big potential for the preparation of functional food with improved nutritional, colour and
27 bioactive properties.

28

29 **Keywords:** antioxidant capacity; inulin; maltodextrin; whey protein; response surface methodology

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31

32 **1. Introduction**

33 Large amounts of waste and by-products are generated annually by the food industry and are extensively
34 used as cheap animal feed and fertilizers. Recent studies indicate that waste from fruits and vegetable
35 processing still contains valuable molecules (antioxidants, dietary fibres, natural colorants, aroma
36 compounds, etc.) which can be reused as functional ingredients in food, pharmaceutical, cosmetic, and
37 health-care products (Ravindran & Jaiswal, 2016).

38 The worldwide trend toward the use of natural colorants as alternatives to synthetic colours in
39 food applications is boosted by legislative actions and consumer concerns (Mahdavi, Jafari, Assadpoor &
40 Dehnad, 2016). The interest and the scientific research in carotenoid pigments have increased in recent
41 years, mainly due to the role that natural antioxidants can have on health quality. To recover valuable
42 compounds from plant matrices, conventional methods are usually employed; however, as the food
43 industry emphasizes the need for environment-friendly and sustainable processes, new methods are being
44 developed. One promising alternative to the traditional methods for carotenoids extraction is the use of
45 edible oils as solvents (Li, Fabiano-Tixier, Tomao, Cravotto, & Chemat, 2013; Sachindra &
46 Mahendrakar, 2005).

47 The oil extracts are however susceptible to oxidation and isomerization, owing to the high
48 number of conjugated double bonds in the chemical structure of fatty acids and carotenoids, leading to
49 significant deterioration of sensory characteristics and drastic reduction in nutritional and functional
50 values. Encapsulation is an effective method to improve the phytochemical stability by entrapping the
51 core material with a coating agent (wall material). Encapsulation also modifies the solubility of targeted
52 compounds (most carotenoids are lipophilic) and hence its application may be limited; to facilitate it,
53 standardization, handling and storage settings could be improved (Indrawati, Sukowijoyo, Indriatmoko,
54 Wijayanti & Limantara, 2015).

55 The selection of an encapsulation method depends upon specific applications and parameters,
56 such as particle size, physicochemical properties of the core and coating materials, release mechanisms,
57 costs, etc. Some of the most suitable preservation methods for carotenoids are the freeze and spray drying

58 processes; their main advantages over other encapsulation techniques are simplicity, continuity,
59 effectiveness, availability, and applicability (Nedović, Kalušević, Manojlović, Petrović & Bugarski,
60 2013). Freeze drying is the most useful method for the encapsulation of thermosensitive substances,
61 because minimises thermal degradation reactions. Although freeze drying is a time-intensive and costly
62 method, it is widely used for the encapsulation of different oils (Ogrodowska, Tanska & Brandt, 2017).
63 On the other hand, spray drying is a very attractive technique for the food industry because it is cheap and
64 flexible. Over the last years, the applicability of spray drying for carotenoids encapsulation, e.g. for chia
65 oil (Us-Medina, Julio, Segura-Compos, Ixtaina & Tomas, 2018), soybean oil (Jones et al., 2013), etc., has
66 been frequently tested.

67 The wall material (WM) plays a crucial role in the encapsulation process. The different types of
68 wall materials include polysaccharides (starches, maltodextrins, and gum Arabic), lipids (stearic acid,
69 mono- and diglycerides) and proteins (gelatin, casein, milk serum, soy and wheat); the structure and
70 characteristics of each coating agent impart different physicochemical properties to the encapsulate
71 (Mahdavi, Jafari, Assadpoor & Dehnad, 2016). Maltodextrin is widely used because of its great water
72 solubility, low viscosity and low sugar content; its greatest drawback is the low emulsifying capacity,
73 therefore is often used in blends with other wall materials (Šturm et al., 2019). Another coating agent,
74 whey protein (WP), has high nutritional qualities (e.g. great protein content, with abundant essential
75 amino acids) and excellent bioavailability. Additionally, β -lactoglobulin and α -lactalbumin (the main
76 components of whey protein) provide good emulsification and protective film-forming abilities that meet
77 the demands of encapsulation (Khan, Wang, Sun, Killpartrick & Guo, 2019). Inulin, a polysaccharide
78 obtained from chicory root (*Cichorium intybus*), is widely known for its prebiotic effects, dietary fibre
79 action, and improvements of calcium bioavailability (Šturm et al., 2019). Supplementing inulin in foods
80 does not increase their glycemic index, which makes inulin a potential ingredient in diabetic foods
81 (Fernandes, Boares, Botrel & de Oliveira, 2014). However, like maltodextrin, it has low emulsifying
82 capacity and poor water solubility, and consequently is rarely used alone.

83 The aim of the present study was to identify optimal wall material formulations to encapsulate
84 carrot waste extracts by the freeze and spray drying techniques by comparing total carotenoid content,
85 encapsulation efficiency and antioxidant capacity of the formulations. Furthermore, the physicochemical
86 properties of optimal encapsulates were determined, to assess their stability and their possible utilization
87 as food additives.

88

89 **2. Materials and methods**

90 *2.1. Materials*

91 The carrot waste, acquired from the "Nectar" beverage industry (Bačka Palanka, Serbia), was
92 immediately packed, freeze-dried and stored at -20 °C. The sunflower oil used for carotenoid extraction,
93 purchased from a local supermarket, was from the edible oil manufacturing company "Dijamant"
94 (Zrenjanin, Serbia). The whey protein concentrate was purchased from Olimp Laboratories (Debica,
95 Poland), having 77 g/100 g minimum protein content. The maltodextrin was from Battery Nutrition
96 Limited (London, U.K.) and the inulin was purchased from Elephant Pharma (Belgrade, Serbia).

97

98 *2.2. Preparation of carrot waste extract*

99 Briefly, freeze dried carrot waste and sunflower oil (1:10 w/v) were mixed with by stirring for 30
100 min at 25 °C with a B800E high-speed blender (Gorenje, Velenje, Slovenia), using time shifts of 10 min
101 blend and 5 min pause to avoid heating. The mix was then centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 10 min (model
102 Lace 24, Colo Lab Experts, Novo Mesto, Slovenia), the supernatant was recovered and was stored in a
103 dark glass bottle, wrapped in foil, at 4 °C for further use.

104

105 *2.3. Experimental design for the optimization of wall material formulations*

106 Response surface methodology was used to evaluate the effect of different wall materials and
107 their combinations on the response variables total carotenoid content (TCar), encapsulation efficiency
108 (EE) and β -carotene bleaching (BCB) assay for the two encapsulation techniques (freeze drying and spray

109 drying). The experiments were carried out following a simplex centroid mixture design (SCMD),
110 considering three wall materials (maltodextrin, whey protein, and inulin). The SCMD for each technique
111 consisted of 8 trials with 7 different formulations and one replicated point. To avoid systematic errors, the
112 experiments were performed randomly.

113

114 2.3.1. *Preparation of the emulsions for encapsulation*

115 The wall materials formulations, defined by experimental design, were prepared as follows: for
116 freeze drying, 5 g/10 mL distilled water at 60 °C kept under stirring until the temperature reached 30 °C;
117 for spray drying, 12.5 g/100 mL distilled water, prepared in the same way. Eight different formulations
118 were prepared, for freeze drying by the addition of 3 mL carrot oil extract, and for spray drying by the
119 addition of 7.5 mL carrot oil extract. The wall material-carrot oil extract solutions were homogenized at
120 11000 rpm for 3 min at room temperature and dried.

121

122 2.3.2. *Freeze drying encapsulation*

123 The formulations were kept overnight at -80 °C in a deep freezer (Snijders Labs, Tilburg, the
124 Netherlands) and then freeze dried (Christ Alpha 2-4 LSC, Martin Christ, Germany) at -40 °C for 48 h,
125 to ensure complete drying. The freeze dried encapsulates were stored at -20 °C until further use.

126

127 2.3.3. *Spray drying encapsulation*

128 The formulations were spray dried using a lab-scale spray dryer (Büchi mini B-290, Büchi
129 Labortechnik, Switzerland) at an inlet temperature of 130 °C and an outlet temperature of 65 ± 2 °C. The
130 spraying air flow rate and rate of liquid feed were 600 L/h and 8 mL/min, respectively. The spray dried
131 encapsulates were stored at -20 °C until further use.

132

133 2.4. *Chemical and physical analyses*

134 The sunflower oil and the carrot waste extract were analysed for carotenoids, tocopherols and
135 fatty acids content. For carotenoids determination the oil samples were diluted in
136 methanol:dichloromethane (50:50 v/v), filtered through a 0.2 μm PTFE membrane, and immediately
137 analysed by reverse phase HPLC as detailed in Alfieri, Hidalgo, Berardo & Redaelli (2014). All carotenes
138 were quantified using the β -carotene standard curve. The tocopherols were analysed by normal phase
139 HPLC (Varas Condori et al., 2020). Carotenoid and tocopherol contents (mg/kg) are the average of two
140 analyses. Fatty acid methyl esters were prepared from the extracted lipids by transesterification using
141 14% boron(III)-fluoride in methanol (Karlović et al., 1996). The samples were analysed by a GC Agilent
142 7890A system with FID according the method of Csengeri et al. (2013).

143 The response variables, total carotenoid content of encapsulates (TCar) and encapsulation efficiency (EE)
144 were determined following Barbosa, Borsarelli & Mercadante (2005). The determination of the
145 carotenoid levels for these purposes were carried out by a spectrophotometric method (Nagata &
146 Yamashita, 1992). The antioxidant capacity was evaluated by the β -carotene bleaching assay (Al-Saikhan,
147 Howard & Miller, 1995), and expressed as μmol Trolox equivalent (TE) per 100 g sample.

148 The water activity (a_w) was determined by placing approximately 3 g encapsulate in the sample
149 holder of a LabSwiftawmeter “Novasina” (Switzerland) at 25 °C. The moisture content of the
150 encapsulates was measured by the air oven drying at 105 °C until a constant weight was obtained. To
151 gauge the hygroscopicity, the samples of each encapsulate (about 2 g) were placed at 25 °C in an airtight
152 plastic container filled with NaCl saturated solution (75.29% RH); after 1 week, the hygroscopic moisture
153 (hygroscopicity) was measured and expressed as g moisture per 100 g dry solids (g/100 g). The solubility
154 of the encapsulates was evaluated based on the method described by Yamashita et al. (2017). The particle
155 size distribution of the powders was determined using the Mastersizer 2000 laser diffraction size analyzer
156 (Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, UK) equipped with a Scirocco2000 dispersion unit. The size
157 distribution, quantified as relative volume of particles in size bands, was presented as size distribution
158 curves using the Mastersizer 2000 Software. The bulk density (Db), tapped density (Dt), compressibility
159 index (CI), and Hausner Ratio (HR) were determined as outlined by Šeregelj et al. (2019). The

160 classification of the encapsulate flowability and cohesiveness was made according to Jinapong,
161 Supphantharika, & Jamnong, 2008. The colour measurements were made with a Minolta reflectance
162 colorimeter (Minolta ChromaMeter CR-300, Minolta, Osaka, Japan) considering the CIELab colour
163 system. Chroma or saturation (C^*), and hue angle (h°) were calculated according to the formulas:
164 $C^* = \sqrt{a^{*2} + b^{*2}}$ and $h^\circ = \arctan(b^*/a^*)$. The oxidation stability of the carrot waste extract and the
165 encapsulated carrot waste extract were investigated by induction time (h) on a Rancimat 670 equipment,
166 at 100 and 110 °C and air flow of 18-20 L/h (ISO 6886:2016). FTIR spectra were recorded by an
167 IRAffinity-1 spectrometer (SHIMADZU, Japan). The solid samples were compressed into pellets with
168 KBr, while the carrot oil extract was analysed on the surface of the blank KBr pellet. Measuring
169 parameters were: spectral range 4000-500 cm^{-1} ; resolution of 4 cm^{-1} . Raman spectra were acquired using
170 XploRA Raman spectrometer from Horiba Jobin Yvon under the following conditions: laser at 785 nm
171 (power reduced at 25%); grating of 1800 gr/mm; 20 s acquisition time; long working distance microscope
172 objective (magnification $\times 50$). The spectra were smoothed (Savitzky–Golay filters with 10 points and a
173 second-order polynomial function) and baseline corrected using the Spectragryph software. The
174 morphological properties of the encapsulates were assessed by JEOL JSM-6390LV scanning electron
175 microscope (SEM). Before the analysis, the samples were covered with Au using a Baltec scd 005 sputter
176 coater (30mA for 100s).

177

178 2.5. Statistical analysis

179 The results were analysed by one-way analysis of variance or by *t*-test, when applicable, at a
180 significance level was $p < 0.05$, by using the OriginPro 8 SR2 software (OriginLab Corporation, MA,
181 USA). The optimizations were carried out using Design-Expert version 10 (Stat- Ease, Inc., MN, USA).
182 The data are presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) of three independent experiments.

183

184 3. Results and discussion

185 3.1. *Chemical characterization of sunflower oil and carrot waste extract*

186 Due to their non-toxicity, the vegetable oils are considered as green solvents in the extraction
187 processes of carotenoids; depending on their composition and fatty acid profile, their consumption might
188 even improve the human health. However, the relatively high viscosity of vegetable oil presents a limiting
189 factor for their effective application in the extraction process, because a high solvent viscosity is generally
190 associated with heightened solvent migration through the matrix, which affects the extraction efficiency.
191 Sachindra & Mahendrakar (2005) studied the extractability of carotenoids from shrimp wastes and
192 observed that the highest yield was obtained using sunflower oil; therefore, in this study sunflower oil
193 was selected as the “green” solvent for the recovery of carotenoids from carrot processing waste. The
194 carotenoids, tocopherols, fatty acids composition, and antioxidant capacity of sunflower oil and carrot
195 waste extract are presented in Table 1.

196 The carotenoids were completely absent in sunflower oil. Similarly, Rafalowski, Zegarska,
197 Kuncewicz & Borejszo (2008) reported the nonexistence of carotenoids in sunflower, grapeseed, and
198 sesame oils, but spotted a high β -carotene content in pumpkin seed oil and linseed oils. The presence of
199 carotenoids in edible oils is very important because of the natural antioxidant properties; that is why
200 sunflower oil is a perfect medium for carotenoids enrichment from carrot waste. The total carotenoid
201 content in the carrot waste extract was 65.64 mg/kg oil; the β -carotene was predominant (45.10 mg/kg),
202 followed by α -carotene (13.97 mg/kg), and cis β -carotene (6.56 mg/kg). Li et al. (2013) used ultrasound-
203 assisted extraction and sunflower oil to isolate carotenoids from fresh carrots, and obtained the highest β -
204 carotene yield (334.75 mg/l) after 20 min; additionally, β -carotene represented 97% of the total
205 carotenoid content, while the other carotenoids (α -carotene, lutein, and 9-cis-carotene) were scarce.

206 In sunflower oil, α -tocopherol was the most abundant tocol (559.41 mg/kg), followed by β -
207 tocopherol (22.8 mg/kg) and γ -tocopherol (4.86 mg/kg). Zaunschirm et al. (2018) found higher levels of
208 α - and γ -tocopherol (788.0 and 35.7 mg/kg, respectively), and β -tocopherol was not analysed, while da
209 Silva et al. (2020) identified only α -tocopherol (149.76 mg/100 g). A total tocopherol content between
210 303.8 and 1187.9 mg/kg for different sunflower varieties grown in various French locations is reported;

211 the tocopherols content is modified by genotype and meteorological conditions, and the tocopherol
212 content is highly correlated to temperature (Ayerdi Gotor et al., 2015). No significant differences for β -
213 and γ -tocopherols were found between sunflower oil and carrot waste extract, while α -tocopherol
214 decreased from 559.41 to 488.82 mg/kg. After the enrichment of sunflower oil with β -carotene from
215 carrots, a slight decrease in α -tocopherol content was detected (da Silva et al., 2020).

216 No significant differences for fatty acids content were observed between sunflower oil and carrot
217 waste extract. Linoleic acid (~ 54.5 %) was the predominant fatty acid, followed by oleic acid (~ 35.5%),
218 while only traces of palmitic, stearic, and palmitoleic acids were found. A similar fatty acid composition
219 was reported for sunflower oil (Panda, Sridhar, Prakash, Rama Rao & Raju, 2016), that is constituted by
220 about 90% unsaturated fatty acids (linoleic and oleic acid) and 10% saturated acids (palmitic and stearic
221 acid). The fatty acid composition, which affects the physical and chemical characteristics of the oils, is
222 influenced by species, environment and growing conditions. Studying sunflowers grown in the East
223 Mediterranean region, Akkaya, Cil, Cil, Yuce & Kola (2019) reported that high temperatures and low
224 amounts of rains during the seed filling period increase oleic acid content. A high oleic acid content
225 improves oil resistance to high temperatures and oxidation, an advantageous feature for the food industry.

226 The β -carotene bleaching assay (Table 1) has a high specificity for lipophilic compounds. The
227 highly unsaturated β -carotene is oxidized by the free radicals, but this process can be minimized by the
228 presence of antioxidants. In fact, the enrichment of sunflower oil with carotenoids from carrot waste led
229 to a significant increase, from 31.69 to 159.54 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100\text{ g}$, in antioxidant capacity. The α -tocopherol
230 is considered as an efficient antioxidant in a hydrophobic milieu because inhibits lipid peroxidation and
231 scavenges lipid peroxy radicals, thus preventing the propagation of free radical-mediated chain reactions.
232 The β -carotene and α -tocopherol can act synergistically as an effective “radical-trapping antioxidant”, and
233 the lipid peroxidation inhibition by a combination of the two fat-soluble antioxidants is superior to the
234 sum of their individual inhibitions (Fiedor & Burda, 2014).

235

236 *3.2. Evaluation of the experimental design for optimization of wall material formulations*

237 The properties of the wall material and the drying parameters are the main factors that can affect
238 the efficiency of encapsulation (Jafari, Assadpoor, He, & Bhandari, 2008). Hence, response surface
239 methodology was applied to determine the optimal wall material formulations for the encapsulation of the
240 carotenoids from carrot waste extract by freeze and spray drying. The experimental design performed by
241 SCMD, along with the responses (T_{car}, EE, and BCB), is given in Table 1. Maltodextrin and whey
242 protein were chosen as coating agents based on a previous study (Šeregelj et al., 2017), while inulin was
243 used due to its promising encapsulation potential and prebiotic nature. The freeze drying technique was
244 selected because of its suitability for heat-sensitive molecules, and the spray-drying because of its
245 simplicity, cheapness, usefulness and wide practical use (Özkan & Bilek, 2014)

246 All the models were significant, with the exception of BCB for spray drying (p=0.0516). The
247 regression coefficients and significance test results are reported in Supplementary Table 1 and the
248 response surface plots are shown in Fig. 1. All the characteristics for freeze and spray dried encapsulates
249 were significantly influenced by the wall formulation. The combination maltodextrin + inulin increased
250 T_{car} and BCB in both processes, particularly in freeze drying. The combination whey protein + inulin had
251 a positive effect on spray dried encapsulates and a negative influence on freeze dried encapsulates. The
252 special cubic term (maltodextrin + whey protein + inulin) was significant only for spray drying. With
253 reference to the encapsulation efficiency, all the models were linear, depicting the positive and relevant
254 influence of whey protein on both encapsulates.

255 As seen in Table 2 and Fig. 1, in freeze dried encapsulates T_{car} ranged from 0.68 to 1.35 mg β-
256 carotene/100 g; the WM3 formulation (pure whey protein) exhibited the highest content. On the other
257 side, in spray dried encapsulates the highest T_{car} (0.93 mg β-carotene/100g) was from a binary whey
258 protein and inulin blend (WM4). Generally, the T_{car} values for spray dried samples are significantly
259 lower than those for freeze dried encapsulates. During spray drying, the atomization of the feed material
260 results in a very fine mist which increases the surface area, more exposed to heat; additionally, parts of
261 the wall material may be removed from the core material even after homogenization. Such partially
262 covered encapsulates are easily affected by heat. On the other hand, the freeze-dried samples after

263 homogenization were dried without atomization and heat exposure (Saikia, Mahnot & Mahanta, 2015).
264 The pure maltodextrin formulation (WM5) exhibited the lowest Tcar for both techniques; the
265 encapsulation efficiency results for this formulation indicated that the carotenoids remained on the
266 particle surface and were susceptible to faster degradation. Pure maltodextrins present a very low surface
267 activity, leading to poor encapsulation; therefore, maltodextrins are usually blended to materials with
268 good emulsifying properties (Cano-Higuaita, Velez & Teliz, 2015). The best encapsulation efficiency was
269 achieved by the whey protein-inulin blend (WM4) and the pure whey protein (WM2 and WM6)
270 formulations. The encapsulates changes in antioxidant capacity under the influence of the wall material
271 mixtures were comparable to those for Tcar for both encapsulation techniques. The ability of the
272 carotenoids to inhibit the bleaching of β -carotene by linoleic acid was reported also by Hanachi &
273 Naghavi (2016), and by Hidalgo et al. (2019).

274 To identify the optimal wall materials for carrot waste encapsulation, the maximum values of the
275 response variables within the ranges of the independent variables were considered. The multicriteria
276 methodology (multi-response), was used to find an optimal point considering different responses at the
277 same time. The multi-response optimization of wall materials with predicted and observed response
278 variables is presented in Table 3. The most suitable wall material for freeze drying was 100% whey
279 protein; the predicted values of Tcar, EE, and BCB were 1.33 mg β -carotene/100 g encapsulates, 59.21%,
280 and 69.64 μ mol TE/100g encapsulate, respectively. On the other hand, the most suitable wall material for
281 the spray drying technique was 71% whey protein and 29% inulin; the predicted values of Tcar, EE, and
282 BCB were 0.92 mg β -carotene/100 g encapsulate, 50.74%, and 41.58 μ mol TE/100 g encapsulate s,
283 respectively. To validate the accuracy of the optimization model, the Tcar, EE, and BCB observed values
284 of the optimal freeze dried (FDE Opt) and optimal spray dried (SDE Opt) encapsulates were compared
285 with the predicted values: all the observed response values were not significantly different from the
286 predicted values at $p < 0.05$.

287

288 *3.3. Physicochemical characterization of FDE Opt and SDE Opt*

289 Table 4 shows the water activity (0.18 and 0.16) and moisture content (4.05 and 3.35%.) of FDE
290 Opt and SDE Opt respectively: their low values contribute to a long shelf life of the encapsulates, due to
291 decreased chemical reactions, enzymatic activity and inhibition of microorganisms growth.
292 Ramakrishnan, Adzahan, Yusof & Muhammad (2018) reported that low moisture content and water
293 activity are desirable to prevent agglomeration and caking, which may result in wet powders, bioactive
294 compounds degradation, and flowability and dispersion hindrance, in order to extend the shelf life of the
295 powders. The moisture content and a_w values of the spray dried samples were lower than those obtained
296 by freeze drying. Similar results were reported by Quispe-Condori, Aranda Saldana & Temelli (2011),
297 which concluded that at higher inlet temperature the heat transfer rate is greater and provides the driving
298 force for moisture evaporation.

299 Since water mobility causes a high rate of enzymatic or chemical reactions and results in some
300 quality deteriorations and changes in the physical properties in the encapsulates, hygroscopicity is one of
301 the main factors to predict stability. FDE Opt showed a low hygroscopicity: after seven days, water
302 absorption was 2.10 g/100 g encapsulate; SDE Opt instead exhibited an hygroscopicity four-time higher
303 than FDE Opt, indicating its stronger capacity to attract water molecules when in contact with the
304 surrounding air. Tonon, Brabet & Hubinger (2008) reported that the low-moisture spray dried
305 encapsulates has the greatest capacity to absorb water from the environment and hence were more
306 hygroscopic. However, the moisture–hygroscopicity relationship cannot be generalized for all
307 commodities. In fact, Ahmed, Akter, Lee & Eun (2010) found that the hygroscopicity of spray-dried
308 sweet potato was greatly affected by wall material, with no direct relationship to varying moisture
309 content, while Caparino et al. (2012) reported that maltodextrin greatly influences the hygroscopicity of
310 spray-dried mango powder. Our findings are in agreement with their conclusions, because the wall
311 material with inulin and whey protein influenced the hygroscopicity of the spray-dried sample, probably
312 for the high water affinity of inulin, which has hydrophilic groups that strongly bind to water (Fernandes,
313 Boares, Botrel & de Oliveira, 2014). With respect to solubility, i.e. the ability of powders to form a

314 solution in water, which is considered as the key determinant that influences functional characteristics of
315 encapsulates in food systems, the results of both samples were similar (>50%).

316 Particle size and its distribution are the most important characteristics of encapsulates,
317 influencing the properties of intermediate and final products. In some cases, large particles can be
318 undesirable because of unpleasant mouthfeel, while in others they may be desired, like when the goal is to
319 obtain products with visible elements. Particle size, particle size distribution, as well as span values
320 showed significant variation according to the encapsulation technique (Table 4) ($p < 0.05$); the FDE Opt
321 showed greater particle size (from 46.33 to 465.98 μm) than the SDE Opt (from 7.12 to 54.52 μm).
322 Similar results were published for wild blueberry pomace extracts encapsulated with soy protein isolate
323 (Correia et al., 2017) and beetroot juice encapsulated with pumpkin oil cake protein (Čakarević et al.,
324 2020). The greater particle size of freeze-dried samples can be explained by the low processing
325 temperature and the lack of strength to break the frozen drops or to alter the surface during drying (Chen,
326 Chi & Xu, 2012). Conversely, the smaller and more uniform particles of the spray dried samples are due
327 to the transit through a nozzle before entering the drier chamber that initiates the formation of relatively
328 uniform particles (Correia, Grace, Esposito & Lila, 2017). The polydispersity of encapsulates also has a
329 critical impact on the release kinetics of encapsulated ingredients, as similar particles tend to have the
330 same release rate (Ramos, 2011). The Span values, that summarise polydispersity, were >1 , indicating a
331 very broad distribution of particle sizes for both encapsulates.

332 Flowability measures the free-flow characteristics of the encapsulates, and its knowledge is
333 important for handling and processing operations, for the design of reliable storage systems, for the
334 packaging and for the conditions of distribution. Encapsulates flowability is tested by bulk and tapped
335 density, compressibility index and Hausner ratio (Table 4). The bulk and tapped density of FDE Opt (0.26
336 and 0.38 g/mL, respectively) were significantly lower ($p < 0.05$) than those of SDE Opt (0.34 and 0.49
337 g/mL, respectively). Generally, the results were expected to follow a common trend, influenced by
338 different drying parameters. Calín-Sanchez et al. 2015 reported that freeze dried pomegranate rind
339 samples exhibited the lowest bulk density, followed by connective, vacuum microwave and combined

340 dried rinds, due to their low shrinkage. The trend in the increase of bulk and tapped density is also
341 followed by smaller particle sizes. Similar results were reported by Šeregelj et al. (2019) and by Caliskan
342 & Dirim (2016). In addition, Fernandes, Boares, Botrel & de Oliveira, (2014) reported that encapsulates
343 produced at greater inulin concentration showed the highest bulk and tapped density. A higher proportion
344 of small inulin particles increases the density, as their accommodation in the inter-particles spaces is
345 easier. The encapsulates flowability and cohesiveness, based on the Compressibility index and Hausner
346 ratio, showed that both samples had fair flowing properties and high cohesiveness. Generally, the
347 flowability depends on the properties of wall materials. Thus, in the study of Kulthe, Thorat, & Mhalaskar
348 (2016) the β -carotene encapsulated with maltodextrin showed good flow characteristics, while the β -
349 carotene encapsulated with potato starch and gelatin showed fair flow characteristics.

350 The colour is a parameter influencing sensory attractiveness and is an important quality indicator,
351 especially for supplemented products where encapsulates are used as colorant. FDE Opt was
352 characterized by lower lightness ($L^*=82.44$) and greenness ($a^*=-0.10$), as well as greater yellowness
353 ($b^*=37.72$) compared to SDE Opt ($L^*=89.04$, $a^*=-2.12$, $b^*=24.90$). The darker colour and superior
354 yellowness of FDE Opt may be explained by the higher surface oil content; additionally, the colour
355 differences may be related to particle size diversity, because smaller particles increase lightness and
356 decrease yellowness. A similar trend was observed by Ogradowska, Tanska, Brandt & Czaplicki (2019),
357 who investigated the influence of the same drying techniques on bio-oil encapsulates quality. The chroma
358 (C^*), or degree of colour saturation, was higher for FDE Opt, confirming its higher colour intensity. The
359 hue angle (h°) range was within the 90° region, hinting to an apparent yellow colour. Our results agreed
360 with those of mango pulp encapsulates (Sharma, Kadam, Chadha, Wilson & Gupta, 2013), and of
361 pumpkin seed oil encapsulates (Ogradowska, Tanska & Brandt, 2017).

362 The oxidative stability is represented by the induction time values: a greater induction time
363 indicate a greater oxidative stability. The pure carrot waste extract showed induction times of 6.1 and 3.0
364 h at 100°C and 110°C , respectively. According to EN141112 (2003), an oil can be considered stable if
365 has at least 6 h induction time, measured with a Rancimat equipment, thus our carrot waste extract

366 complied to the rule. The induction time of the optimal encapsulates was higher than that of the oil,
367 proving that the carrot waste extract was indeed encapsulated. FDE Opt had a larger impact on oxidation
368 delay, increasing the induction time ~30%, while SDE Opt raised it only ~15%, probably because of
369 lower carotenoid content. A greater induction time increase for the freeze dried sample when
370 encapsulating non-dewaxed propolis with different wall materials by different techniques is reported
371 (Šturm et al., 2019). Oxidative stability and induction time may be influenced by the wall materials: the
372 oxidative stability of the pitaya seed oil encapsulated by spray drying showed variations of the induction
373 time from 5.20 to 38 h, depending on the wall material (Lim, TanBakar & Ng, 2012).

374 Fig. 2A shows the FTIR spectra of inulin, WP and carrot sunflower oil extract, and of the
375 corresponding encapsulates i.e. FDE Opt and SDE Opt. Our results indicate that bands assigned to
376 carotenoids are overlapped primarily by bands from the extraction medium i.e. sunflower oil, and this
377 trend can be noticed also in the spectra of the encapsulates. Additionally, the bands from WP, as dominant
378 carrier, further overlapped the spectra of the encapsulated carrot extract. Considering the chemical
379 properties of carriers and carrot extract, and the results of FTIR analysis, the compounds most probably
380 formed a physical mixture inside the encapsulates, without significant chemical interactions. Also, in our
381 previous research on spray drying and freeze drying as encapsulation methods we found that certain
382 amounts of carriers are necessary for a successful finalization of the encapsulation process and an
383 adequate protection of the carotenoids (Šeregelj et al., 2019).

384 Raman microscopy was employed in order to evaluate the efficiency of the encapsulation process
385 through the analysis of surface-bounded extract. Since the carriers (i.e. maltodextrin, WP and inulin)
386 dominate in formulations, we used their “marker” bands to distinguish them from the carrot extracts
387 bands. The bands from inulin and WP clearly separate these two carriers from carrot oil extract,
388 dominated by bands originated from sunflower oil (Fig. 2B). However, the 1157 cm^{-1} and 1525 cm^{-1}
389 bands in the spectrum of carrot oil extract are due to the carotenoids, while the characteristic carotenoid
390 band at ~1008 cm^{-1} is probably overlapped by the spectra of sunflower oil and WP (~1006 cm^{-1})
391 (Camorani et al., 2015), close to the position of the phenylalanine band (Zhao, Ma, Yuen & Phillips,

2004). Raman spectra of FDE Opt and SDE Opt mainly exhibited the bands from sunflower oil and extracted carrot carotenoids, indicating the presence of active compounds on the surface of encapsulates. This is expected since both encapsulation techniques provide encapsulates with a certain amount of surface-bound active compounds. Nevertheless, the addition of sufficient quantity of carriers provides an efficient protection and minimizes the loss due to free active compounds on the surface of encapsulates.

Fig. 3 presents the SEM micrographs of the FDE and SDE optimal encapsulates. The FDE sample did not have a specific shape. Generally, the irregularities (dents and wrinkles) on the surface of freeze-dried samples may be associated with a low drying temperature Moayyedi et al., 2018). On the other side, the formation of concavities on the surfaces of the spray dried encapsulates is attributed to the shrinkage of the particles due to a dramatic moisture loss after cooling (Silva, Stringheta, Teófilo & de Oliveira, 2013). Both samples appear agglomerated, possibly for the presence of surface oil.

403

4. Conclusion

The carrot waste extract was successfully encapsulated by freeze and spray drying techniques with different wall materials. The optimization study to find the most suitable wall material for these techniques was performed by simplex centroid mixture design. The optimal wall materials which predict the highest values for the analysed responses (T_{car}, EE, and BCB) were 100% whey protein for freeze drying, and a 71% whey protein - 29% inulin mixture for spray drying. The physicochemical characteristics of the optimal carrot waste encapsulates were significantly affected by the different drying techniques: thus, freeze drying gave a better encapsulate in terms of encapsulation efficiency, antioxidant capacity, hygroscopicity, and oxidative stability, while spray drying provided an encapsulate with lower water activity, moisture content and particle size. The high temperature of spray drying influenced the colour properties of encapsulates, who had higher L^* (lightness) than the freeze-dried samples. The techniques and the formulations used in the present study are appropriate to obtain carotenoid-rich additives in encapsulated form, particularly appropriate for the preparation of functional food with improved nutritional, colour and bioactive properties.

418

419 **Declaration of interests**

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

422

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426

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606

607 **Figure captions**

608

609 **Fig. 1** - Response surface plots for total carotenoid content (Tcar, mg β -carotene/100 g encapsulate),
610 encapsulation efficiency (EE, %), and BCB (β -carotene bleaching assay (μ mol TE/100 g encapsulate) as a
611 function of wall material formulation (A, maltodextrin; B, whey protein; C, inulin) for carrot waste oil
612 encapsulation by freeze drying and spray drying techniques.

613

614 **Fig. 2** - FTIR spectra (A) and Raman spectra (B) of inulin (a), WP (b), carrot oil extract (c),
615 optimal spray dried encapsulates (SDE Opt) (d), and optimal freeze dried encapsulates (FDE Opt) (e).

616

617 **Fig. 3** - Scanning electron morphology of optimal freeze dried encapsulates (FDE Opt) magnified 190X
618 (A) and 400X (B), and of optimal spray dried encapsulates (SDE Opt) magnified 190X (C) and 1500X
619 (D).

Table 1. Carotenoids, tocopherols, fatty acids composition, and antioxidant activity of sunflower oil and carrot waste extract. The results are presented as means \pm standard deviation.

Characteristics	Sunflower oil	Carrot waste extract
<i>Carotenoids (mg/kg)</i>		
α -carotene	nd	13.97 \pm 1.49
β -carotene	nd	45.10 \pm 2.80
cis β -carotene	nd	6.56 \pm 0.70
<i>Tocopherols (mg/kg)</i>		
α -tocopherol	559.4 ^a \pm 6.69	488.82 ^b \pm 4.19
β -tocopherol	22.8 ^a \pm 1.54	21.13 ^a \pm 0.63
γ -tocopherol	4.86 ^a \pm 0.12	4.76 ^a \pm 0.01
<i>Fatty acids (%)</i>		
C 16:0 (Palmitic)	5.84 ^a \pm 0.13	5.95 ^a \pm 0.12
C 16:1 (Palmitoleic)	0.07 ^a \pm 0.01	0.08 ^a \pm 0.01
C 18:0 (Stearic)	3.47 ^a \pm 0.06	3.21 ^a \pm 0.04
C 18:1n9c (Oleic)	35.84 ^a \pm 0.24	36.42 ^a \pm 0.11
C 18:2n6c (Linoleic)	54.78 ^a \pm 0.33	54.33 ^a \pm 0.26
<i>Antioxidant activity (μmol TE/100g oil)</i>		
BCB	31.69 ^a \pm 1.71	159.54 ^b \pm 6.95

Different letters in the same row indicate a significant difference among means ($p < 0.05$) following *t*-test; nd - not detectable; BCB - β -carotene bleaching assay; TE – Trolox equivalents.

Table 2. Experimental design and results for total carotenoid contents encapsulation efficiency, and antioxidant capacity of wall material mixtures for freeze and spray drying encapsulation of carrot waste extract.

WM formulation	Independent variables Share in WM			Response variables		
	Maltodextrin	Whey protein	Inulin	TCar	EE	BCB
<i>Freeze drying</i>						
WM1	0.5	0	0.5	1.13 ^{bcd} ± 0.14	15.00 ^b ± 0.82	65.89 ^c ± 1.50
WM2	0	1	0	1.35 ^d ± 0.10	54.03 ^{cd} ± 3.32	69.43 ^c ± 2.76
WM3	0.33	0.33	0.33	1.01 ^{bc} ± 0.17	47.89 ^c ± 1.17	52.41 ^b ± 1.73
WM4	0	0.5	0.5	0.94 ^{ab} ± 0.03	59.77 ^d ± 3.52	51.21 ^b ± 1.33
WM5	1	0	0	0.68 ^a ± 0.07	0.00 ^a ± 0.00	37.94 ^a ± 1.12
WM6	0	1	0	1.30 ^{cd} ± 0.12	56.14 ^d ± 1.58	69.85 ^c ± 3.10
WM7	0.5	0.5	0	1.00 ^{bc} ± 0.06	21.59 ^b ± 3.29	49.63 ^b ± 1.21
WM8	0	0	1	0.99 ^b ± 0.10	21.80 ^b ± 4.81	48.52 ^b ± 1.52
<i>Spray drying</i>						
WM1	0.5	0	0.5	0.62 ^c ± 0.05	3.56 ^b ± 0.01	32.85 ^d ± 1.54
WM2	0	1	0	0.69 ^c ± 0.08	65.81 ^g ± 0.32	32.42 ^d ± 1.31
WM3	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.58 ^{bc} ± 0.01	36.00 ^d ± 0.41	27.42 ^c ± 0.89
WM4	0	0.5	0.5	0.93 ^d ± 0.02	49.87 ^e ± 0.21	41.90 ^f ± 1.13
WM5	1	0	0	0.35 ^a ± 0.1	0.00 ^a ± 0.00	12.44 ^a ± 1.90
WM6	0	1	0	0.68 ^c ± 0.03	62.97 ^f ± 0.54	31.45 ^d ± 1.30
WM7	0.5	0.5	0	0.71 ^c ± 0.04	29.64 ^c ± 0.31	37.07 ^c ± 1.25
WM8	0	0	1	0.42 ^{ab} ± 0.09	0.00 ^a ± 0.00	20.04 ^b ± 0.51

WM: Wall material, TCar: Total carotenoid content (mg β -carotene/100 g encapsulates), EE: Encapsulation efficiency (%), BCB: β -carotene bleaching assay (μ mol TE/100 g encapsulates), Values sharing the same letter in the same column are not significantly different at the 0.05 level.

Table 3. Multi-response optimization of wall material (WM) for freeze and spray drying encapsulation of carotenoids present in carrot waste extract.

	Predicted share in WM			Predicted response variables			Observed response variables		
	MDx	Whey protein	Inulin	TCar	EE	BCB	TCar	EE	BCB
<i>Freeze drying</i>	0	1	0	1.33	59.21	69.64	1.31±0.02	63.69±3.69	70.06±5.13
<i>Spray drying</i>	0	0.71	0.29	0.92	50.74	41.58	0.87±0.01	53.78±1.26	41.23±2.69

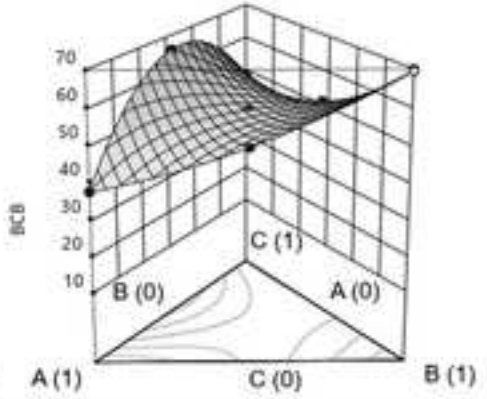
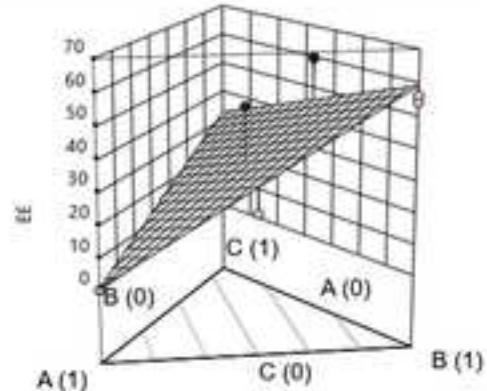
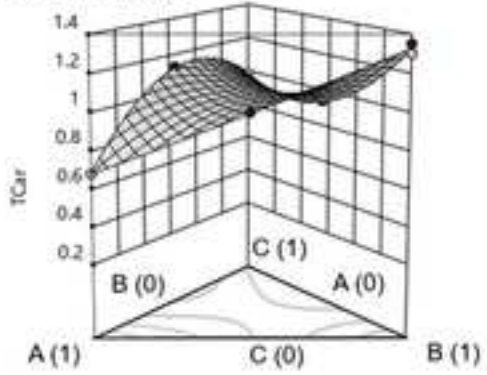
MDx: maltodextrin, TCar: Total carotenoid content (mg β -carotene/100 g encapsulates), EE: Encapsulation efficiency (%), BCB: β -carotene bleaching assay (μ mol TE/100 g encapsulates).

Table 4. Physicochemical characteristics of optimal freeze dried (FDE Opt) and spray dried (SDE Opt) encapsulates.

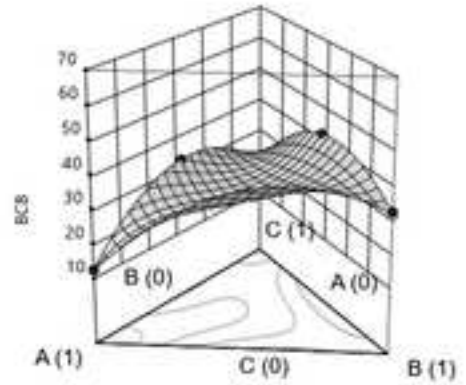
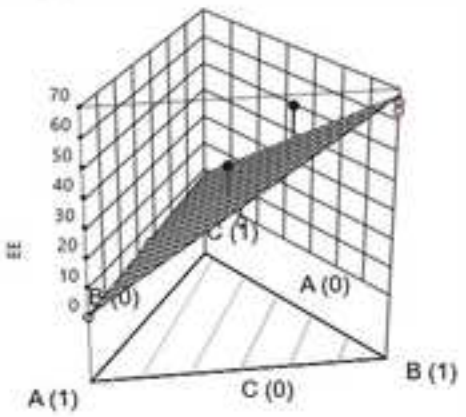
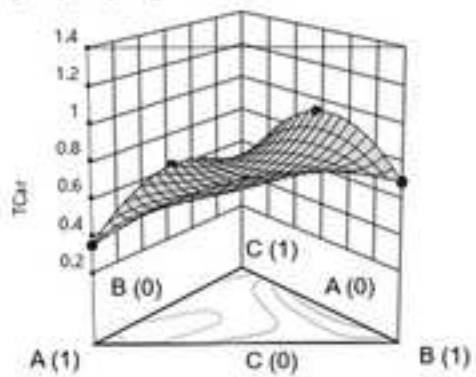
Characteristics		FDE Opt	SDE Opt
Water activity (aw)		0.18 ^b ± 0.00	0.16 ^a ± 0.00
Moisture content (%)		4.05 ^b ± 0.03	3.35 ^a ± 0.01
Higroscopicity (g/100 g)		2.10 ^a ± 0.01	8.45 ^b ± 0.11
Solubility (%)		58.72 ^b ± 0.27	56.79 ^a ± 0.98
Mean diameter; Dsr (µm)		195.97	20.94
d(0.1)		46.33	7.12
d(0.5)		118.61	13.23
d(0.9)		465.98	54.52
Polydispersity index (Span)		3.54	3.58
Bulk density; Db (g/mL)		0.26 ^a ± 0.02	0.34 ^b ± 0.06
Tapped density; Dt (g/mL)		0.38 ^a ± 0.04	0.49 ^b ± 0.05
Compressibility index; CI (%)		31.58 ^b ± 0.05	30.61 ^a ± 0.07
Hausner ratio; HR		1.46 ^a ± 0.05	1.44 ^a ± 0.07
Flowability		Fair	Fair
Cohesiveness		High	High
CIE Lab			
<i>L</i> *		82.44 ^a ± 0.03	89.04 ^b ± 0.00
<i>a</i> *		-0.10 ^a ± 0.03	-2.12 ^b ± 0.01
<i>b</i> *		37.72 ^b ± 0.07	24.90 ^a ± 0.05
<i>C</i> *		37.72 ^b ± 0.04	24.99 ^a ± 0.05
<i>h</i> ^o		90.15 ^a ± 0.04	94.86 ^b ± 0.01
Oxidative stability (h)			
Temperature	Carrot waste oil extract	FDE Opt	SDE Opt
100 °C	6.10 ± 0.03 ^a	8.55 ^c ± 0.4	7.10 ^b ± 0.3
110 °C	3.00 ± 0.2 ^a	4.25 ^c ± 0.2	3.50 ^b ± 0.1

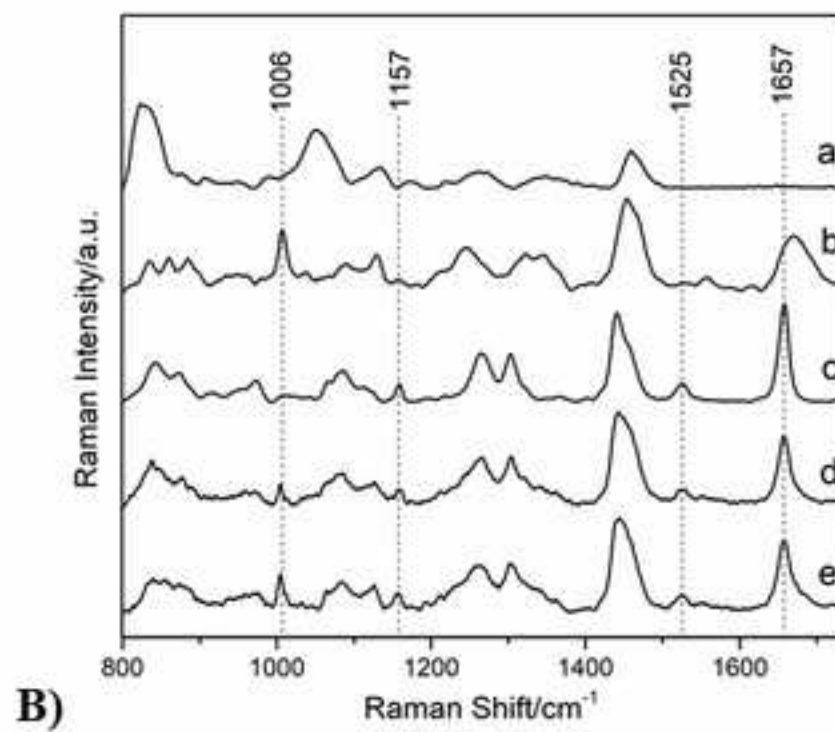
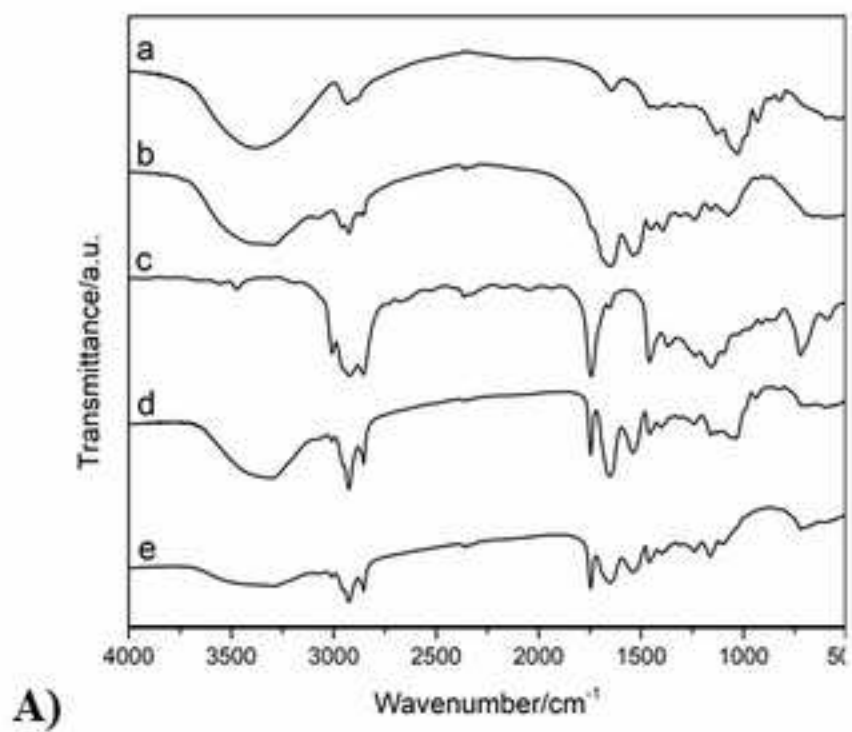
Values sharing the same letter in the same row are not significantly different at the 0.05 level.

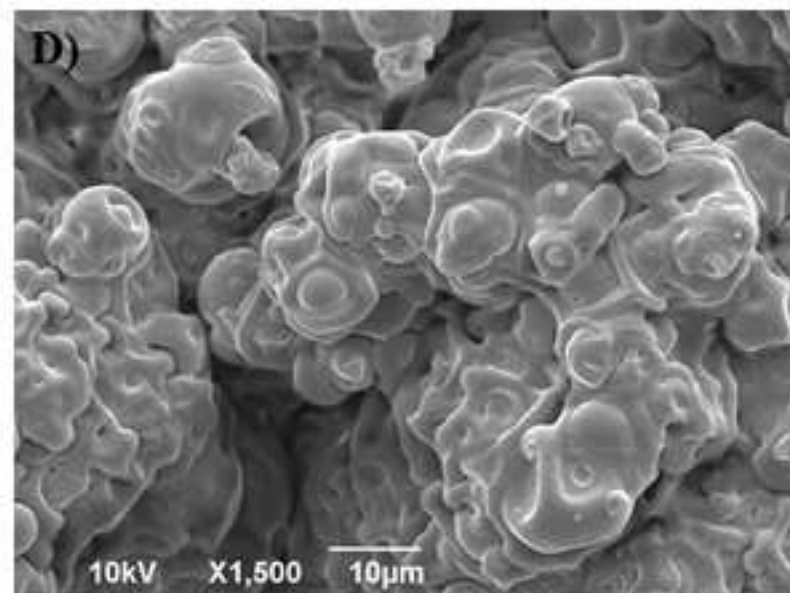
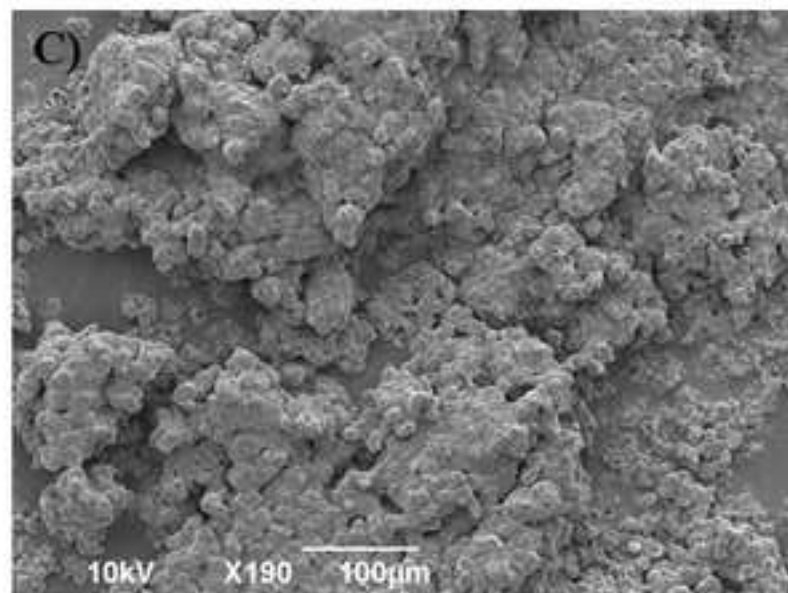
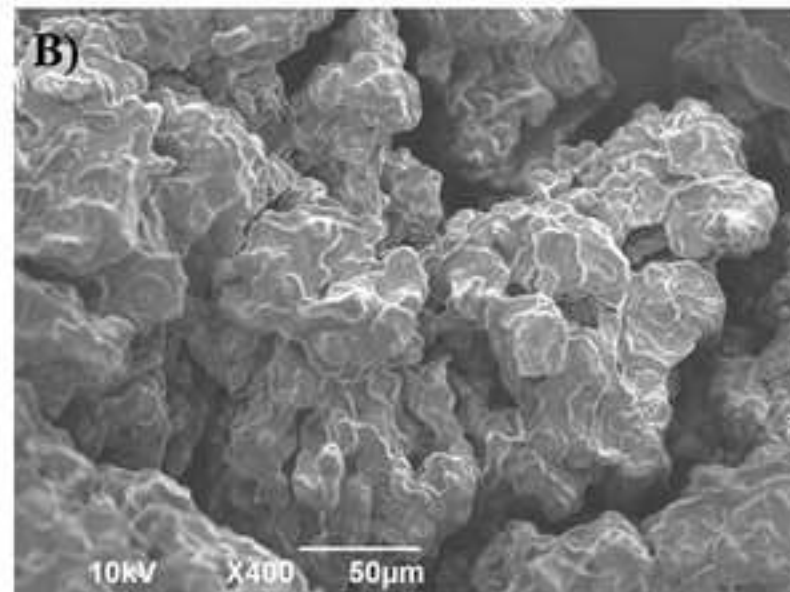
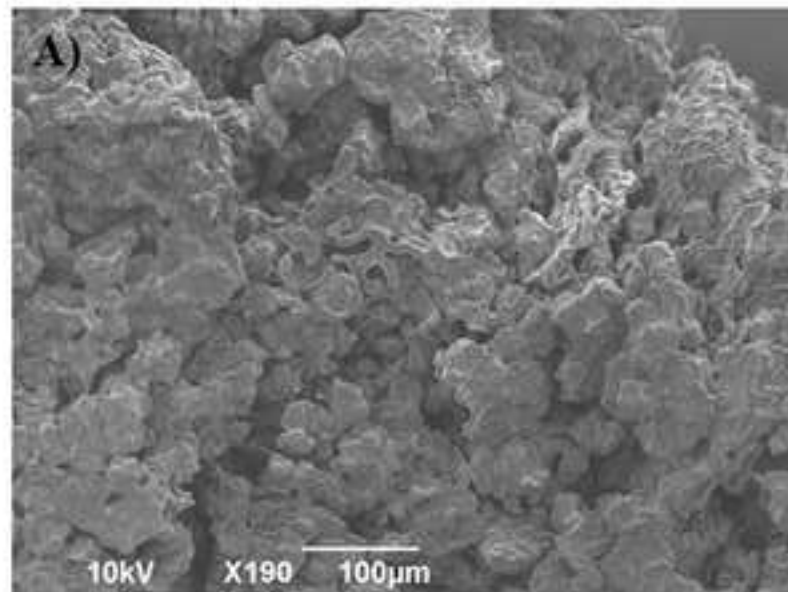
Freeze drying



Spray drying









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Supplementary Material
Supplementary Table 1.docx

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.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: