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Original

Availability: This version is available http://hdl.handle.net/11390/1110133 since 2020-07-15T17:02:55Z

Publisher:

Published DOI:10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2017.04.027

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1 Effect of high pressure homogenization and high power ultrasound on some physical properties

2 of tomato juices at different concentration levels

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- Francesca Bot¹, Sonia Calligaris^{*1}, Giovanni Cortella², Francesco Nocera¹, Donatella Peressini¹,
 Monica Anese¹
- ¹Dipartimento di Scienze AgroAlimentari, Ambientali e Animali, Università di Udine, via Sondrio
 2/A, 33100 Udine, Italy
- ⁸ ²Dipartimento Politecnico di Ingegneria e Architettura, Università di Udine, via delle Scienze 206,
- 9 Udine 33100, Italy
- 10 * Direct correspondence to: Sonia Calligaris
- 11 Tel +390432558571
- 12 Fax +390432558130
- 13 e-mail: Sonia.calligaris@uniud.it

15 Abstract

The effect of high pressure homogenization (HPH) and ultrasound (US) on some physical properties 16 of tomato juices with different soluble solids content (5.0, 7.5, 10.0 °Brix) was studied. Samples were 17 subjected to HPH up to 150 MPa or US up to 30 min. The energy efficiency associated to the 18 processes was evaluated. Results showed that stress type and product concentration influenced the 19 20 changes of tomato juice physical properties induced by HPH and US processing. In particular, HPH and US treatments led to similar increases in G' and consistency of 5.0 and 7.5 °Brix juices. These 21 changes were accompanied with redness loss and attributed to cell disruption and consequent increase 22 of inter-particle interactions. Increasing tomato juice concentration to 10.0 °Brix, HPH treatments 23 were more effective than US in changing sample consistency and gel-like properties. The process 24 25 energy efficiency showed that lower energy was involved in HPH in comparison to US.

26

Keywords: high pressure homogenization, high power ultrasound, tomato juice concentration,
physical properties, energy efficiency

29

31 Highlights

32

- 33 HPH and US caused physical modifications in tomato juice.
- 34 Tomato juice concentration greatly affected process performances.
- HPH caused greater changes in physical properties of 10.0 °Brix tomato juice than US.
- 36 HPH and US were compared in terms of energy efficiency.

High pressure homogenization (HPH) and high power ultrasound (US) are nowadays proposed as 40 novel techniques to steer desirable structure and functionality of plant-based foods. Changes in the 41 physical properties of biopolymers, such as cellulose, starch, pectin and protein, have been described 42 in fruits and vegetables (e.g. banana, mango, pineapple, peach, tomato, broccoli, carrot) derivatives 43 subjected to HPH and US (Bengtsson and Tornberg, 2011; Calligaris et al., 2012; Kubo et al., 2013; 44 Lopez-Sanchez et al., 2011a; Lopez-Sanchez et al., 2011b; Rojas et al., 2016; Silva et al., 2010). 45 These effects are attributable to the intense mechanical stresses suffering the vegetable matrix during 46 47 HPH and US processes. In particular, during HPH process, a fluid, which is pumped through a narrow gap valve by means of a pressure intensifier, undergoes intense mechanical forces and elongational 48 stresses at the valve entrance and in the valve gap, while turbulence, cavitation and impacts with the 49 50 solid surface occur at the gap outlet (Floury et al., 2004a; Floury et al., 2004b). During US treatment, mechanical wave propagation into a fluid may cause cavitation phenomena, which is the spontaneous 51 52 formation and collapse of bubbles, that leads to the generation of local extreme temperatures and pressures, which in turn produce turbulence and shear stresses (Barbosa-Cánovas and Rodrigues, 53 2002; Leighton, 1995; Mason, 1998). It has been speculated that the intense stresses delivered by 54 55 HPH and US lead to cell disruption with leakage of plant constituents, including biopolymers, in the serum. Moreover, processes would modify biopolymer structure by inducing conformational changes 56 as well as reducing polymer size. As a consequence, more polymer chain would be available for 57 58 bonding, giving rise to novel inter-particle interactions and a different type of network, which is accompanied by a change of the rheological properties (Colle et al., 2010; Seshadri et al. 2003; Thakur 59 60 et al., 1995). Modification of biopolymers physical properties are reported to highly depend on matrix characteristics and HPH and US intensity, that is pressure level and number of passes applied during 61 HPH, or ultrasonication time (Anese et al., 2013; Augusto et al., 2012; Augusto et al., 2013; Lopez-62 Sanchez et al., 2011b; Tan and Kerr, 2015; Vercet et al 2002a; Yu et al., 2016). From an industrial 63

point of view, the choice between HPH and US to steer plant food material physical properties goes 64 65 through the evaluation of advantages and drawbacks of each technology. Final product characteristics as well as energy and ownership costs would represents the driving criteria. The energy exchanges 66 involved during HPH and US processes are represented by the energy density, which is the amount 67 of energy provided to the fluid per unit volume during the process, as well as the power demand and 68 energy consumption of the equipment (Raso et al., 1999). To our knowledge, very few data are 69 70 available in the literature about HPH and US energy aspects (Baumann et al., 2005; Bermudez-Aguirre and Barbosa, 2012; Donsì et al., 2013; Mañas et al., 2000; Stang et al., 2001). Cortés-Muñoz 71 et al. (2009) and Calligaris et al. (2016) evaluated the energy density in HPH for an oil/water emulsion 72 73 by considering the pressure drop. Toma et al. (2011) investigated the energy conversion efficiency in US for organic solvents, and claimed that it is strongly dependent upon the fluid as well as sonication 74 equipment (e.g. its geometry), and the operation mode (e.g. temperature, amplitude of the US field). 75 76 Tomato is one of the most worldwide consumed crops. Due to its high versatility, tomato as raw material is widely used to obtain different derivatives, such as juice, puree, pulp, paste, that can be 77 78 directly consumed or used as ingredients in many food formulations (Gould, 1991). Therefore, it has 79 high relevance for food industry. It has been already demonstrated that both HPH and US might modify tomato physical properties (Anese et al., 2013; Colle et al., 2010; Kubo et al., 2013; Panozzo 80 81 et al., 2013; Tan and Kerr, 2015). In particular, parameters such as viscosity, consistency, red color and particle size were observed to change in tomato products subjected to HPH and US processes 82 (Anese et al., 2013; Augusto et al., 2012; Augusto et al., 2013; Bayod et al., 2008; Kubo et al., 2013). 83 84 The application of US in combination with heating (thermosonication) and pressure (manothermosonication) allowed to increase the sole effect of US (Vercet et al., 2002; Wu et al., 85 2008). 86

To our knowledge, HPH and US performances in the attempt to deliver functionality of plant-based foods are hardly comparable due to scarce information. Moreover, data on the role of tomato solids concentration in affecting changes in physical properties as induced by HPH or US are fragmentary

(Bayond et al., 2008; Bayod and Tornberg, 2011; Valencia et al., 2003). Therefore, the aim of this 90 study was to investigate the effect of HPH and US on some physical properties of tomato juices with 91 different soluble solids contents. To this purpose, tomato juices with 5.0, 7.5, 10.0 °Brix were 92 subjected to HPH and US for increasing pressure levels or treatment time, respectively, and the 93 changes in their viscoelastic properties, Bostwick consistency, precipitate weight ratio, pectin 94 esterification degree and microstructure were studied. Finally, estimation of the energy density 95 transferred to the juice during processing, as well as measurement of electrical energy consumption 96 of the laboratory devices were performed to compare HPH and US processes from the point of view 97 of energy efficiency. 98

99

100 2. Material and Methods

101 2.1. Sample preparation

Tomato juice at 5.0, 7.5 and 10.0 °Brix (corresponding to 5.2±0.1, 8.3±0.1 and 10.7±0.1 % dry matter,
respectively) was obtained by dilution of commercial tomato paste (21 °Brix) in distilled water. The
pH of the juice was 4.5±0.1.

105

106 2.2. Treatments

107 2.2.1. High pressure homogenization

A continuous lab-scale high-pressure homogenizer (Panda Plus 2000, GEA Niro Soavi S.p.a., Parma, Italy) supplied with two Re+ type tungsten carbide homogenization valves, with a flow rate of 2.5 cm^{3}/s , was used. The first valve was the actual homogenization stage and was set at increasing pressures from 20 to 150 MPa. The second valve was set at the constant value of 5 MPa. Aliquots of tomato juice were introduced into the equipment at 10 ± 1 °C and cooled using an ice bath just after the treatment. The maximum temperature reached by the sample was 45 ± 2 °C.

114

115 2.2.2. *High power ultrasound*

An ultrasonic processor (Hieschler Ultrasonics GmbH, mod. UP400S, Teltow, Germany) with a 116 titanium horn tip diameter of 22 mm was used. The instrument operated at constant frequency and 117 ultrasound amplitude of 24 kHz and 100 µm, respectively. Aliquots of 150 mL of tomato juice were 118 introduced into 250 mL capacity (110 mm height, 60 mm internal diameter) glass vessels. The tip of 119 the sonicator horn was placed in the centre of the solution, with an immersion depth in the fluid of 120 250 mm. Treatments were carried out for increasing time periods, up to 30 min. During the treatments, 121 the temperature was controlled using a cryostat set at 4 °C to dissipate the heat generated during 122 treatment. Temperature never exceeded 45±2 °C. Following the treatments, the samples were cooled 123 in an ice bath. 124

125

126 *2.3. Energy density estimation*

127 The energy density (E_{ν} , MJ/m³) transferred from the homogenization value to the sample was 128 determined as described by Stang et al. (2001), according to eq. (1):

129

$$130 \quad E_{\nu} = \Delta P \tag{1}$$

131

132 where ΔP is the pressure difference operating at the nozzles.

The power density (P_{ν} , kW/m³) transferred from the ultrasound probe to the sample was determined calorimetrically by recording the temperature (T, K) increase during the treatment, following eq. (2) (Raso et al., 1999).

136

137
$$P_{v}(T) = mc_{p}(\partial T/\partial t)/V$$
 (2)

138

where *m* is the sample mass (kg), c_p is the sample heat capacity (kJ/kg K), *V* is the sample volume (m³), and *t* (s) is the time frame of treatment considered. The heat capacity was estimated on the basis of sample composition and as a function of the temperature, based on the correlations by Choi and Okos (1986). Power density is markedly affected by temperature, and its measurement should be performed at adiabatic conditions, which however occur only at the very beginning of the treatment (Raso et al., 1999). In order to achieve at least an estimation of the energy density over the whole treatment while including the effect of temperature, the power density was measured as a function of temperature for a separate test with thermal insulation and without temperature control, up to the maximum temperature of 45 °C.

- Later on, the energy density was estimated by integration of the power density as:
- 149

150 $E_{\nu} = \int P_{\nu}(T) dt = \sum (P_{\nu}(T)\Delta t)$ (3)

151

152 on the whole treatment time.

153

154 *2.4. Electrical energy consumption measurement*

For both the HPH and US treatments the energy requirement was estimated by measuring the 155 156 electrical consumption at the mains supply. The high pressure homogenizer was supplied with threephase 400 V electrical power. Thus a three-phase energy logger was inserted (Kilo Box, Electrex, 157 Reggio Emilia, Italy) to measure the electrical consumption (MJ/m³) as active power, that is the 158 effective power used by the apparatus, and the power factor, that is the ratio between the "active 159 power" and the "apparent power" related to the power supplied by the net. The power factor is in the 160 161 range 0-1 and it should be as high as possible for optimal exploitation of the electrical energy supplied. The ultrasonic processor was instead supplied with single-phase 230 V electrical power, and a power 162 meter (PC-300, Lafayette, Taiwan) was connected to measure the electrical power and thus calculate 163 the electrical energy (MJ/m^3) for the whole treatment. 164

165

166 2.5. Analytical determinations

167 2.5.1. Soluble solids (°Brix)

The soluble solids (°Brix) were measured using a hand Refractometer (Unirefrax, S.A Bertuzzi,
Milan, Italy). Measurements were performed at 25 °C. The refractometer prism was cleaned with
distilled water before each analysis.

171

172 2.5.2. *Temperature measurement*

The sample temperature was measured just before and immediately after (i.e. before the cooling step)
each treatment by a copper-constantan thermocouple probe (Ellab, Hillerød, Denmark) immersed in
the tomato juice, connected to a portable data logger (mod. 502A1, Tersid, Milan, Italy).

176

177 2.5.3. Colour

Colour analysis was carried out using a tristimulus colorimeter (Chromameter-2 Reflectance, Minolta, Osaka, Japan) equipped with a CR-300 measuring head. The instrument was standardised against a white tile before measurements. Colour was expressed in L*, a* and b* scale parameters and a* and b* were used to compute the hue angle (arctan b*/a*). An increase in hue angle is an index of redness loss.

183

184 2.5.4. Rheological properties

185 Rheological measurements were carried out using a controlled stress rheometer (SR5, Rheometric Scientific, Germany) equipped with serrated parallel plate geometry (40 mm diameter, 2 mm gap). 186 The temperature was maintained constant at 25 °C using a Peltier system. Samples were placed 187 188 between the plates of the rheometer and left to rest 5 min after loading before testing. This resting time was sufficient for the sample to relax and reach a constant temperature. Dynamic strain sweep 189 tests were carried out at 1 Hz between 0.1% and 100% strain to determine the linear viscoelastic 190 range. Frequency sweep tests were performed from 0.1 to 10 Hz within the linear viscoelastic range. 191 Data obtained were storage modulus (G'), loss modulus (G'') and tan δ (G''/G'). Statistical 192 comparisons were made at 0.1 Hz. 193

195 2.5.5. Bostwick flow index

Samples were placed into Bostwick consistometer (RG Strumenti srl, Parma, Italy). This empirical test consists in allowing the sample to flow under its own weight along a sloped stainless steel tray for 30 s at room temperature (23 °C). The distance (cm) covered by the sample was recorded and the inverse of the distance (cm⁻¹) was used to express the Bostwick consistency index. An increase of this parameter is associated to high sample consistency.

201

202 2.5.6. Precipitate weight ratio

Precipitate weight ratio was determined using the method of Colle et al. (2010), with minor modifications. Tomato juice (25 g) was centrifuged (Beckman, Avant J-25 centrifuge, Palo Alto, California, USA) at 45000 g for 30 min at 15 °C. The percentage of precipitate weight ratio of the pellet was calculated as:

207

208
$$P = (W_p/W_t) \cdot 100$$
 (4)

209

where W_p and W_t are the precipitate and tomato juice weights, respectively.

211

212 2.5.7. Determination of degree of esterification

The determination of the degree of esterification was carried out using the method of Chou and Kokini (1987). 60 g of tomato juice were centrifuged (Beckman, Avant J-25 centrifuge, Palo Alto, California, USA) at 7500 g for 15 min at 20 °C. The supernatant was filtered under vacuum through filter paper (RPE ACS, Carlo Erba, Milano, Italy) and an equal volume of 2-propanol was added to the filtrate to precipitate the isopropanol-insoluble pectins. After 15 min stirring, the suspended solids in the water-isopropanol mixture were centrifuged at 7500 g for 15 min at 20 °C and isopropanol was removed by means of vacuum dehydration (Laborota 4001 Efficient, Hedolph Instruments, Schwabach, Germany). The water-soluble pectins were decoloured by acetone:pentane solution (2:1).
10 mL 1% decoloured pectin solution were titrated with 0.05 N NaOH (titration A). Afterwards,
20 mL 0.5 N NaOH were added to de-esterify the pectin and, after 30 min, 20 mL 0.5 N HCl were
added to neutralise the NaOH. This mixture was titrated with 0.1 N NaOH (titration B), using
phenolphthalein as indicator. The degree of esterification (DE), expressed as a percentage, was
calculated using the following equation:

226

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227 DE = [B/(A+B) \cdot 100] (5)
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228

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229 2.5.8. Images
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Tomato juice images were captured using a digital camera (Nikon D3, Nikon Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) mounted on an adjustable stand positioned 50 cm above a black cardboard base where the sample was placed. Light was provided by two 250 W frosted photographic floodlights in a position allowing minimum shadow and glare. Images were saved in the jpg file format.

234

235 2.5.9. *Microstructure*

Tomato juice microstructure was analysed using an optical microscope (Leica DM 2000, Leica
Microsystems, Heerburg, Switzerland) connected to a Leica EC3 digital camera (Leica
Microsystems, Heerburg, Switzerland). The images were captured using the 200× objective
magnification.

240

241 2.6. Data analysis

The results are the average of at least two measurements carried out on two replicated experiments ($n\geq4$). Data are reported as mean value \pm standard error. Statistical analysis was performed using R v.2.15.0 (The R foundation for Statistical Computing). Bartlett's test was used to check the homogeneity of variance, one way ANOVA was carried out and Tukey test was used to determine statistically significant differences among means (p<0.05).

247

248 **3. Results and discussion**

249 **3.1 Effect of HPH and US processing on tomato juice physical properties**

Fig. 1 shows the macroscopic images of 7.5 °Brix untreated as well as 150 MPa HPH and 30 min US treated tomato juices. Dramatic differences in tomato appearance can be observed between the untreated and treated samples.

Tomato juices with 5.0, 7.5 and 10.0 °Brix were subjected to HPH for increasing pressures up to 150 253 MPa or US for increasing time periods up to 30 min, and then undergone to dynamic, small 254 deformation tests to acquire information on structure. Both storage (G') and loss (G'') moduli were 255 256 frequency dependent and a prevalence of G' over G'' was found, indicating a weak gel-like behaviour of tomato juice (Augusto et al., 2013) (data not shown). The storage modulus and tan δ at a constant 257 frequency (0.1 Hz) were used to compare samples subjected to HPH and US processing (Fig. 2). As 258 a rule, the higher G' and the lower tan δ the more elastic and solid-like the material. G' and tan δ 259 values of HPH and US treated tomato juices were respectively always greater and lower than those 260 261 of the untreated samples (p<0.05). This suggests a higher number of elastic interactions in processed tomato juices, which resulted in a stronger structure. The extent of changes in viscoelastic properties 262 263 increased with the increase in juice concentration. In particular, a significant G' increase was found for the 5.0 and 7.5 °Brix tomato juices subjected to HPH up to 50 MPa, while no further increase in 264 265 storage modulus was observed at higher pressures. By contrast, G' of the 10.0 °Brix tomato juice increased progressively with the increase of pressure, reaching at 150 MPa 4 times higher values than 266 267 the untreated sample, in agreement with literature (Augusto et al., 2013). Similarly, the storage modulus and tan δ of the 5 min US treated tomato juices, at all concentrations, were respectively 268 higher and lower than those of the untreated samples (p<0.05). No significant changes in the 269

viscoelastic properties were observed among samples subjected to increasing US times (p>0.05). 270 271 Tomato juice consistency was also evaluated by Bostwick consistometer, which is a widely used tool for quality control at the industrial level. HPH and US induced a significant increase in juice 272 consistency, in agreement with the data relevant to the storage modulus (p<0.05) (Fig. 3). Results 273 suggest that both HPH and US were responsible for modifications in the physical properties of tomato 274 samples, which are attributable to cell rupture. As shown in Fig. 4, HPH caused a progressive cell 275 disruption and no intact cells were found upon 150 MPa, while some intact cells were still present in 276 277 the 30 min US treated sample. As a consequence of cell rupture, the surface area of the suspended particles increased and tomato constituents were released in the medium. In these conditions, novel 278 279 inter-particle interactions could have been favoured. These events were accompanied by sample colour bleaching (Table 1). Both technologies induced a significant decrease in tomato juice redness 280 at the lesser pressure or time. By increasing the HPH pressure, the colour fading progressively 281 282 increased, whereas US treatment times higher than 5 min did not cause further colour modifications. No differences in colour bleaching were found among samples with different solids content. It can be 283 inferred that carotenoids were no more protected by cell integrity and underwent to isomerization and 284 oxidation due to cell membrane disruption and their dispersion in the medium (Colle et al., 2010). It 285 can be inferred that HPH and US by disrupting cell membrane caused carotenoids dispersion in the 286 287 medium, where they underwent to isomerization and oxidation being not more protected by cell integrity (Colle et al., 2010). 288

To support this hypothesis, the precipitate weight ratio of untreated and treated tomato juices was determined (Table 2). This measure provides an indication of the capacity of the matrix to hold water in the macromolecular network (Colle et al., 2010). The higher the precipitate weight ratio the stronger the network and its water holding capacity. Specifically, increases from 10% to 22% and from 14% to 36% were found for 5.0 and 7.5 °Brix HPH processed tomato juices, respectively. A greater increase up to 46% in the precipitate weight ratio was obtained for the 10.0 °Brix sample subjected to HPH for increasing pressures. Similarly, US treatments caused significant changes of this indicator compared to the untreated samples in all the tomato juices considered. Treatment times higher than 5 min did not induce further changes of precipitate weight ratio, in agreement with the other indexes previously described for the US processed samples.

Measurement of the pectin esterification degree of the HPH or US processed tomato juices showed that this parameter did not change in comparison with that of the untreated samples, regardless the tomato juice concentration and intensity of process applied (data not shown). This result is in agreement with the literature in the framework of the effect of HPH and US on pectin molecule (Shpigelman et al., 2015; Anese et al., 2013). Thus, the modifications of colour, rheological properties and water holding capacity of tomato juice upon HPH and US treatments can be mainly attributed to physical events than to chemical ones.

Discrepancies in the observed physical properties between samples subjected to HPH and US are 306 likely attributable to differences in modalities of force transmission during processing and thus in 307 308 mechanical stresses generated by the two technologies. Considering the 5.0 and 7.5 °Brix tomato juices, similar structure modifications were obtained by applying HPH or US, regardless the process 309 310 intensity. By subjecting to HPH the tomato juice with the highest solids concentration (10.0 °Brix), a 311 dramatic change in the viscoelastic properties was observed. On the contrary, these modifications were not found for the 10.0 °Brix US treated sample. The changes in physical properties of the HPH 312 processed tomato juice suggests that higher particle-particle interactions took place leading to the 313 formation of a stronger network. It can be inferred that the crowding in the homogenization valve 314 increased by increasing the number of suspended material in the sample, thus favouring interactions 315 and, consequently, inducing an increase in consistency as well as gel-like properties. In these 316 conditions the magnitude of mechanical stresses acting on the particles during the flow through the 317 valve could have become much higher, thus increasing the extent of cell disruption. Our findings 318 highlight that stress magnitude in combination with product concentration is crucial for structure 319 development using HPH. Differently, the particle number increase is expected to reduce the efficacy 320

of ultrasonication, because the high initial product consistency could hinder wave propagation(Earnshaw, 1998).

323

324 **3.2** Energy density and electrical energy consumption of HPH and US lab equipment

To estimate HPH and US processes efficiency the energy density and electrical energy consumption were evaluated. Table 3 shows the power density measured at ambient temperature at the beginning of the US treatment, as well as the energy density values for both processes. It appears that the energy density values for the US process were higher than those for the HPH treatment, even if the former are possibly underestimated because of their calculation procedure.

Values of the electrical energy consumption for HPH and US devices are summarised in Table 4. As 330 far as energy consumption of HPH is concerned, the electrical energy values were calculated 331 considering that the lab-scale high pressure homogenizer was capable to treat 2.5 cm³/s of product. 332 An almost linear correlation between pressure and both electrical energy and power factor was found. 333 334 Moreover, sample concentration did not affect these parameters. This result was also confirmed by treating deionised water in the high pressure homogenizer. Energy consumption of the US treatment 335 was estimated by integrating the measurements of the instantaneous electric power supplied during 336 the whole treatment. According to Table 4, also US energy consumption did not change significantly 337 with sample solids concentration. 338

These results show that at laboratory scale the high pressure homogenizer presents quite lower energy consumption than the US device, even if the HPH apparatus employed in this case gave rise to significantly low power factors which call for correction in order to comply with the requirements from the energy supplier.

343

4. Conclusions

Results of this study highlighted the influence of stress type and food solids concentration on the changes in tomato juice physical properties induced by HPH and US processing.

From an industrial feasibility perspective, these results provide information useful to select the most 347 appropriate process to steer physical properties of tomato derivatives. For tomato juices with 348 concentration equal or lower than 7.5 °Brix, the choice between HPH and US should not be performed 349 350 on the basis of the induced structure modifications because both technologies led to comparable effects. In this context, equipment and total ownership costs would drive the choice. Despite the study 351 was performed on lab-scale equipment, the estimated energy density transferred to the juice during 352 353 processing and the equipment electrical energy consumption here reported can be used to compare HPH and US processes from the point of view of operating costs, being higher those relevant to the 354 US technology. 355

On the contrary, for tomato juices with higher concentration (10.0 °Brix), HPH treatments resulted very effective in changing sample consistency and gel-like properties, in an extent that was not achievable by applying the US process. Thus, the criteria for technology selection should be based on a product perspective rather than on process costs.

360

361 Acknowledgments

MA and SC conceived the study and carried out the experiments in conjunction with FB and FN. DP carried out the rheological measurements in conjunction with FN. GC carried out energy computations. All authors participated in manuscript revision and discussion, coordinated and critiqued by MA and SC.

366 Captions for Figures

367

Fig. 1. Images of 7.5 °Brix untreated (A), 150 MPa HPH (B) and 30 min US (C) treated tomato juices.

Fig. 2. Storage modulus (G') and tan δ at 0.1 Hz of 5.0, 7.5 and 10.0 °Brix tomato juices subjected to
high pressure homogenization (HPH) (A, C) and ultrasound (US) (B, D) processes.

- Fig. 3. Bostwick consistency of 5.0, 7.5 and 10.0 °Brix tomato juices subjected to high pressure
 homogenization (HPH) (A) and ultrasound (US) (B) processes.
- Fig. 4. Micrographs of 5.0 °Brix untreated (A), and HPH (B: 20 MPa, C: 50 MPa, D: 100 MPa, E:150
 MPa) and US (F: 5 min, G: 15 min, H: 30 min) processed tomato juices.
- 377

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Table 1. Hue angle (arctan b*/a*) of 5.0, 7.5, 10.0 °Brix tomato juices subjected to high pressure
homogenization (HPH) and ultrasound (US) processes. Data relevant to untreated samples are also
shown.

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Total soluble			H	PH	US			
solids content	-	Pressure (MPa)				Time (min)		
(°Brix)	Untreated	20	50	100	150	5	15	30
5.0	21 ^e	24 ^d	27 ^c	29 ^b	30 ^a	25 ^d	24 ^d	24 ^d
7.5	23°	27 ^b	29 ^a	29 ^a	29 ^a	23°	24 ^c	23 ^c
10.0	22 ^d	23 ^c	24 ^b	26 ^a	26 ^a	23 ^{dc}	22 ^{cd}	22 ^{dc}

494

495 ^{a, b, c, d, e}: means with different letters in the same row are significantly different (p < 0.05)

496 Standard error<1

497

Table 2. Precipitate weight ratio (%) of 5.0, 7.5, 10.0 °Brix tomato juice at subjected to high pressure
homogenization (HPH) and ultrasound (US) treatments. Data relevant to untreated samples are also
shown.

Total soluble			HP	Н	US			
solids content		Pressure (MPa)				Time (min)		
(°Brix)	Untreated	20	50	100	150	5	15	30
5.0	10±2 ^d	14±0 cd	18±1 bc	20±2 ^{ab}	22±1 ^a	14±0 ^{bc}	15±0 ^{bc}	17±1 ^{bc}
7.5	$14\pm1^{ m f}$	23 ± 1 ^{cd}	27 ± 1^{bc}	30±2 ^b	36±1 ^a	20 ± 0^{de}	22 ± 1^{ef}	19±1 ^{de}
10.0	19±0 ^e	29±1 ^d	37±1°	42±3 ^{ab}	46±2 ^a	23±0 ^{de}	23±0 ^{de}	22±0 ^{de}

504 ^{a, b, c, d, e,f}: means with different letters in the same row are significantly different (p < 0.05)

		HPH		US			
Total soluble							
	E	Energy dense	ity				
solids content		2		Power density	Energy density		
		(MJ/m^3)			2		
(°Brix)				(kW/m^3)	(MJ/m^3)		
	50 MPa	100 MPa	150 MPa				
	= 0	100	1.50	500			
5.0	50	100	150	533	612		
75	50	100	150	016	625		
1.5	30	100	130	910	055		
10.0	50	100	150	1316	659		
10.0	50	100	150	1510	0.00		

Table 3. Energy density values generated during HPH and US of 5.0, 7.5 and 10.0 °Brix tomato
juices, and power density at ambient temperature relevant to the US treatment.

		US					
Total soluble							
	El	ectrical ener	gy		Power facto		
solids content							Electrical energy
	(MJ/m^3) (-)						
(°Brix)							(MJ/m^3)
	50 MPa	100 MPa	150 MPa	50 MPa	100 MPa	150 MPa	
5.0	317	480	644	0.29	0.41	0.51	1369
7.5	310	464	648	0.28	0.40	0.52	1171
10.0	312	462	645	0.28	0.40	0.51	1250

511 Table 4. Electrical energy consumption of the HPH and US lab devices, during tomato juice512 processing.



- **Fig. 1**. Images of 7.5 °Brix untreated (A) and 150 MPa HPH (B) and 30 min US (C) treated tomato
- 518 juices.
- 519
- 520



Fig. 2. Storage modulus (G') and tan δ at 0.1 Hz of 5.0, 7.5, 10.0 °Brix tomato juices subjected to
high pressure homogenization (HPH) (A, C) and ultrasound (US) (B, D) processes.



Fig. 3. Bostwick consistency of 5.0, 7.5, 10.0 °Brix tomato juices subjected to high pressure
homogenization (HPH) (A) and ultrasound (B) processes.





Fig. 4. Micrographs of untreated (A) and 20 MPa (B), 50 MPa (C), 100 MPa (D), 150 MPa (E) HPH

547 processed and 5 min (F), 15 min (G), 30 min (H) US processed 5.0 °Brix tomato juices.

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