



UNIVERSITÀ
DEGLI STUDI
DI UDINE

Università degli studi di Udine

Structural characterisation and sorption capability of whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-drying or supercritical drying

Original

Availability:

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/11390/1210247> since 2025-01-15T12:06:50Z

Publisher:

Published

DOI:10.1016/j.foodhyd.2021.107117

Terms of use:

The institutional repository of the University of Udine (<http://air.uniud.it>) is provided by ARIC services. The aim is to enable open access to all the world.

Publisher copyright

(Article begins on next page)

Food Hydrocolloids

Structural characterization and sorption capability of whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-drying or supercritical drying

--Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	
Article Type:	Research paper
Keywords:	whey protein isolate; freeze-drying; supercritical-CO ₂ -drying; microstructure, absorption, delivery systems
Corresponding Author:	Stella Plazzotta Department of Agricultural, Food, Environmental and Animal Sciences, University of Udine Udine, Udine Italy
First Author:	Lara Manzocco
Order of Authors:	Lara Manzocco Stella Plazzotta Jeffery Powell Auke de Vries Dérick Rousseau Sonia Calligaris
Abstract:	<p>Whey protein isolate (WPI) hydrogels were converted into aerogels by freeze-drying (FD) or supercritical drying (SCD). SCD resulted in denser aerogels, with a network of closely-associated WPI microgel aggregates, and pore size < 1 µm in diameter. In the FD aerogels, individual aggregates were fused and formed a self-supporting protein matrix with larger pores (2-5 µm in diameter). Both aerogels showed a glass transition at 161 ± 4 °C and maintained their original porosity at room temperature at an equilibrium relative humidity < 80 %. The kinetics of both water and oil uptake were slower in the SCD aerogel than in the FD aerogel. While water absorption caused aerogel swelling and destructuring, the oil-loaded aerogels retained their integrity and adsorbed up to 75 % (w/w) oil. The oil-loaded aerogels showed differences in firmness and oil holding capacity (OHC) depending on the drying procedure applied: SCD samples presented a higher firmness (~ 30 N) and OHC (~ 96 %) than the FD samples (~ 19 N, OHC ~ 45 %). This study demonstrates that the drying technique used can substantially alter the functional attributes of whey protein aerogels.</p>
Suggested Reviewers:	Isabella Jung Hamburg University of Technology: Technische Universität Hamburg isabella.jung@tuhh.de Expert in development and characterization of bioaerogels
	David Andlinger Technical University of Munich: Technische Universität München david.andlinger@tum.de Expert in development and characterization of protein bioaerogels
	Alejandro Marangoni University of Guelph amarango@uoguelph.ca Expert in physical properties of foods and food ingredients
	Carlos Garcia Gonzalez Universidad de Santiago de Compostela: Universidade de Santiago de Compostela carlos.garcia@usc.es Expert in development and characterization of bioaerogels

Dear Editor,

We send to your attention the research article "**Structural characterization and sorption capability of whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-drying or supercritical drying**" by Lara Manzocco, Stella Plazzotta, Jeffery Powell, Auke de Vries, D errick Rousseau, and Sonia Calligaris.

All authors concur with the submission. Following, we report the Abstract:

Whey protein isolate (WPI) hydrogels were converted into aerogels by freeze-drying (FD) or supercritical drying (SCD). SCD resulted in denser aerogels, with a network of closely-associated WPI microgel aggregates, and pore size < 1 μm in diameter. In the FD aerogels, individual aggregates were fused and formed a self-supporting protein matrix with larger pores (2-5 μm in diameter). Both aerogels showed a glass transition at 161 ± 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and maintained their original porosity at room temperature at an equilibrium relative humidity < 80 %. The kinetics of both water and oil uptake were slower in the SCD aerogel than in the FD aerogel. While water absorption caused aerogel swelling and destructuring, the oil-loaded aerogels retained their integrity and adsorbed up to 75 % (w/w) oil. The oil-loaded aerogels showed differences in firmness and oil holding capacity (OHC) depending on the drying procedure applied: SCD samples presented a higher firmness (~ 30 N) and OHC (~ 96 %) than the FD samples (~ 19 N, OHC ~ 45 %). This study demonstrates that the drying technique used can substantially alter the functional attributes of whey protein aerogels.

The authors believe that the current research article is perfectly in line with the topics covered by the Food Hydrocolloids. We hope that this article could satisfy the requirements of this Journal, so that you might consider it for publication.

Best regards,

Stella Plazzotta, PhD

Section of Food Chemistry and Technology

Department of Agricultural, Food, Environmental and Animal Sciences, University of Udine

Via Sondrio 2/A

33100 Udine, Italy

stella.plazzotta@uniud.it

1 **Highlights**

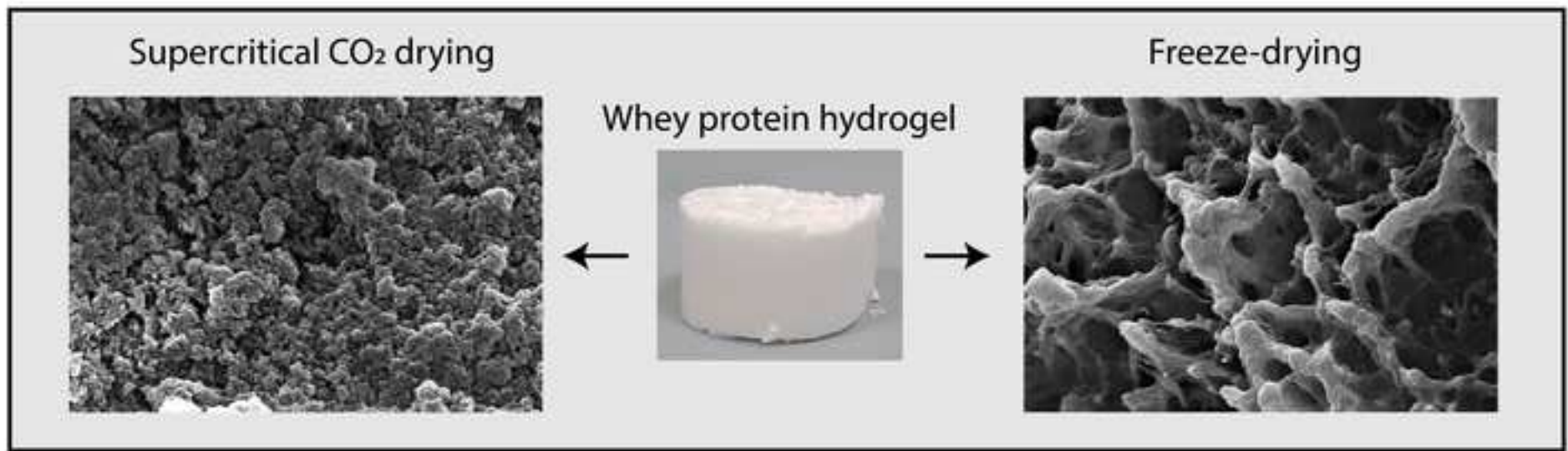
2 Whey protein microgels can be converted into aerogels

3 Aerogel porosity lower with supercritical drying versus freeze-drying

4 Aerogels undergo destructuring upon water absorption

5 Oil-loaded aerogels hold up to 75% of their mass as oil

6 Aerogel firmness and oil retention higher with supercritical drying



1 **Structural characterization and sorption capability of whey protein aerogels obtained by**
2 **freeze-drying or supercritical drying**

3 **Lara Manzocco¹, Stella Plazzotta^{1*}, Jeffery Powell², Auke de Vries², D errick Rousseau²,**
4 **Sonia Calligaris¹**

5 ¹ Department of Agricultural, Food, Environmental and Animal Sciences, University of Udine,
6 Via Sondrio 2/A, 33100 Udine, Italy

7 ² Department of Chemistry and Biology, Ryerson University, 350 Victoria St., Toronto,
8 Ontario, Canada M5B 2K3

9 *Corresponding author

10 e-mail: stella.plazzotta@uniud.it

11

12 **Abstract**

13 Whey protein isolate (WPI) hydrogels were converted into aerogels by freeze-drying (FD) or
14 supercritical drying (SCD). SCD resulted in denser aerogels, with a network of closely-
15 associated WPI microgel aggregates, and pore size $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter. In the FD aerogels,
16 individual aggregates were fused and formed a self-supporting protein matrix with larger pores
17 (2-5 μm in diameter). Both aerogels showed a glass transition at $161 \pm 4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and maintained
18 their original porosity at room temperature at an equilibrium relative humidity $< 80 \%$. The
19 kinetics of both water and oil uptake were slower in the SCD aerogel than in the FD aerogel.
20 While water absorption caused aerogel swelling and destructuring, the oil-loaded aerogels
21 retained their integrity and adsorbed up to 75 % (w/w) oil. The oil-loaded aerogels showed
22 differences in firmness and oil holding capacity (OHC) depending on the drying procedure
23 applied: SCD samples presented a higher firmness ($\sim 30 \text{ N}$) and OHC ($\sim 96 \%$) than the FD
24 samples ($\sim 19 \text{ N}$, OHC $\sim 45 \%$). This study demonstrates that the drying technique used can
25 substantially alter the functional attributes of whey protein aerogels.

26 **Keywords:** whey protein isolate; freeze-drying; supercritical- CO_2 -drying; microstructure,
27 absorption, delivery systems

28

29 **1 Introduction**

30 Aerogels are nanostructured solid materials with low density, open porosity, and high surface
31 area, which are obtained by removing the liquid from a gel. This operation is typically
32 performed by using supercritical carbon dioxide-assisted drying, but freeze-drying is also
33 applied when water is the solvent (Garcia-Gonzalez et al., 2019). These methods generate
34 aerogels with considerably different structures. While supercritical CO₂ drying generally allows
35 for the preservation of polymeric structures by avoiding the formation of liquid-vapour
36 interfaces and presence of capillary tension, freeze-drying commonly results in water expansion
37 upon solidification, often causing macropores and cracks following sublimation (Baudron et
38 al., 2019; Betz et al., 2012; Rodríguez-Dorado et al., 2019). The unique features of aerogels are
39 being explored in many industrial fields, for biomedical, environmental, cosmetic and food
40 applications (www.cost-aerogels.eu; Manzocco et al., 2021). Contrary to other sectors,
41 however, the potential of aerogels in foods remains under-reported.

42 Protein aerogels have recently attracted attention due to their potential as templates for loading
43 functional ingredients and as delivery systems for human consumption (Ahmadi et al., 2016;
44 Andlinger et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2013; Kleemann et al., 2018, 2020; Plazzotta et al., 2020;
45 Selmer et al., 2015, 2019). For instance, aerogels made of egg-white and dairy proteins have
46 been proposed for the encapsulation and controlled release of fish oil (Ahmadi et al., 2016;
47 Kleemann et al., 2020; Selmer et al., 2019), while whey protein aerogel particles have shown
48 promising results for loading vegetable oils (Plazzotta et al., 2020).

49 The starting point to prepare protein aerogels is the formation of a hydrogel (Andlinger et al.,
50 2021; Kleemann et al., 2018; Selmer et al., 2015), which is usually obtained by heating a protein
51 solution to induce protein denaturation and form a gel stabilised by disulphide bonds, hydrogen
52 bonding and hydrophobic interactions (Clark et al., 2001; Shimada & Cheftel, 1988). It is
53 known that pH strongly affects the characteristics of the hydrogel and the resulting aerogel
54 (Betz et al., 2012; Clark et al., 2001; Errington & Foegeding, 1998). In the case of whey
55 proteins, a heat treatment near their isoelectric point (5.7) induces the formation of spherical
56 particles ~ 100 nm in diameter. Since these globular structures consist of a hydrated protein
57 network, they are considered microgels (Donato et al., 2011; Nicolai, 2016; Nicolai & Durand,
58 2013). By increasing the protein concentration, the strands of the microgels randomly associate
59 into larger aggregates, forming self-supporting hydrogels (Nicolai and Durand, 2013), which
60 can then be converted into aerogels by freeze-drying or supercritical CO₂ drying.

61 Aerogel loading may be easily performed by immersing the aerogel into a target liquid that
62 permeates into the aerogel pores and saturates its internal volume. The liquid retention is
63 generally in the range of 0.2-5.6 g liquid/g aerogel (Kleemann et al., 2020; Plazzotta et al.,

2020; Selmer et al., 2019). Although some aerogels show excellent stability upon liquid uptake (Sharma et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2016), the immersion liquid may interact with the polymer chains and either reinforce or weaken their architecture. If chain-chain interactions are favoured in the presence of the liquid, significant network contraction can occur along with stiffening of the material (Ahmadi et al., 2016; Manzocco et al., 2017). When the immersion in the liquid disrupts chain-chain interactions in favour of chain-solvent interactions, porosity may decrease and compromise the structural integrity of the aerogel (Antonyuk et al., 2015; Manzocco et al., 2017; Subrahmanyam et al., 2015). Structural integrity upon liquid loading strongly affects the feasibility of exploiting aerogels as delivery systems in foods. In fact, the capability of an aerogel to withstand water or oil environments is a pivotal characteristic not only for the effective entrapment of hydrophilic or lipophilic components, but also for its ability to resist breakdown during food processing, storage and *in vivo* delivery. In this study, we investigated the potential of whey protein aerogels as delivery materials in foods. Aerogels obtained by freeze-drying (FD) or supercritical drying (SCD) were first characterized for their structural features followed by oil or water loading. The results show the remarkable range of aerogel functional attributes possible depending on the preparation technique applied.

81

82 **2 Materials and methods**

83 **2.1 Whey protein hydrogels**

84 Whey protein gels were made according to the method of Betz et al. (2012). An amount of 20
85 % (w/w) whey protein isolate (WPI, 94.7 % protein content; 74.6 % β -lactoglobulin, 23.8 % α -
86 lactalbumin, 1.6 % bovine serum albumin, Davisco Food International Inc., Le Sueur, MN,
87 USA) was dissolved in double-distilled water, under continuous stirring at room temperature
88 for 2 h and stored overnight at 4 °C, to ensure complete protein hydration. The pH of the WPI
89 suspension was then adjusted to 5.7 (pH-Meter BASIC 20, Crison, Barcelona, Spain) using a 1
90 M HCl. Aliquots of 30 mL were then introduced in 50 mL plastic tubes with screwcaps and
91 heated at 85 °C for 30 min using a temperature-controlled water bath to induce protein
92 denaturation. The resulting protein gels were cooled in ice water, stored overnight at 4 °C and
93 cut in cylinders with a height of ~ 1.5 cm and diameter of ~ 2.5 cm.

94 **2.2 Freeze-dried aerogels**

95 Hydrogel cylinders were frozen at -80 °C for 24 h and freeze-dried for 72 h at 4,053 Pa using
96 a pilot plant freeze dryer (Mini Fast 1700, Edwards Alto Vuoto, Milan, Italy). The resulting
97 freeze-dried aerogels were stored in a desiccator containing P₂O₅ at room temperature until use.

98 **2.3 Supercritical-CO₂-dried aerogels**

99 Hydrogel cylinders were converted into alcogels (Manzocco et al., 2017). They were kept at
100 room temperature for 24 h in aqueous solutions of ethanol with increasing concentrations (25,
101 50, 75 % v/v). Finally, samples were introduced into absolute ethanol twice (for 8 h and then
102 24 h) to remove residual water before drying using supercritical CO₂. Alcohol removal at 11 ±
103 1 MPa for 8 hr and 45 °C resulted in the supercritical-CO₂ dried aerogels, which were stored in
104 a desiccator containing P₂O₅ at room temperature until use.

105 **2.4 Aerogel analysis**

106 **2.4.1 Image acquisition**

107 Sample images were acquired using an image acquisition cabinet (Immagini & Computer,
108 Bareggio, Italy) equipped with a digital camera (EOS 550D, Canon, Milano, Italy). The camera
109 was placed on an adjustable stand positioned 50 cm above a black cardboard base where the
110 samples were placed. Light was provided by 4 x 100 W frosted photographic floodlights,
111 organized to minimize shadow and glare.

112 **2.4.2 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)**

113 Images of the aerogels were obtained using a ThermoFisher Scientific Quattro S field emission
114 gun environmental scanning electron microscope (SEM) (ThermoFisher, Eindhoven,
115 Netherlands). Samples were prepared for imaging using a Quorum PP3010 Cryo-SEM
116 preparation system (Quorum Technologies, East Sussex, UK). The aerogels were fractured and
117 mounted to aluminium stubs using a carbon tape adhesive (double-sided carbon tape, Electron
118 Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, Pennsylvania, U.S.A.). The samples were quenched in slushed
119 liquid nitrogen (-220 °C) and inserted into the cryo-preparation chamber. Each sample was
120 sublimated at -90 °C for 5 minutes to remove adsorbed water crystals and then sputter-coated
121 using a Pt target at 5 mA for 60 seconds to reducing electron charging effects. Samples were
122 then transferred to the ESEM chamber and imaged under high vacuum at 140 °C using a
123 secondary electron detector.

124 **2.4.3 Volume and density**

125 Sample volume was calculated as the volume of the cylinder whose diameter and height were
126 measured with CD-15APXR digital calliper (Absolute AOS Digimatic, Mitutoyo Corporation,
127 Kanagawa, Japan). Volume changes following conversion of the hydrogel to an aerogel and
128 following oil absorption were expressed as the percentage ratio between the variation of sample
129 volume to the volume of the corresponding hydrogel. Density was then calculated as the ratio
130 between aerogel weight and sample volume.

131 **2.4.4 Firmness**

132 Firmness was measured by uniaxial compression test using an Instron 4301 (Instron LTD., High
133 Wycombe, UK). The instrumental settings and operation were accomplished using the software

134 provided by the manufacturer. Samples were tested using a 6.2 mm diameter cylindrical probe
135 mounted on a 1000 N compression head at a 25 mm/min crosshead speed. Force-distance curves
136 were obtained from the compression tests and firmness was taken as the maximum force (N)
137 required to penetrate the sample for 5 mm.

138 **2.4.5 Water vapour sorption**

139 Aerogel samples were weighed and transferred into weighing bottles that were placed in
140 desiccators containing LiCl, CH₃COOK, MgCl₂, K₂CO₃, NaNO₃, NaCl, KCl, and K₂SO₄
141 saturated solutions with equilibrium relative humidity (ERH%) values of 11, 25, 32, 43, 65, 75,
142 86, and 96 %, respectively. Samples were kept inside desiccators until a constant weight was
143 reached. The empirical Freundlich model (Ayawei et al., 2017) (Eq. 1) was used to fit the
144 experimental sorption data.

$$145 \quad M = k \cdot a_w^{1/n} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

146 where M is the equilibrium moisture content on a dry basis (g H₂O/g d.m.), a_w is water activity,
147 k (g H₂O/g d.m.) is the adsorption capacity, and n is a model constant inversely related to extent
148 of adsorption.

149 **2.4.6 Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)**

150 Thermal analysis was carried out using a differential scanning calorimeter (DSC 3 Star^e System,
151 Mettler-Toledo, Greifensee, Swiss) equipped with a Star^e software (ver.16.10, Mettler-Toledo).
152 Heat flow calibration was achieved using indium (heat of fusion 28.45 J/g). Temperature
153 calibration was carried out using hexane (m.p. -93.5 °C), water (m.p. 0.0 °C) and indium (m.p.
154 156.6 °C). Samples were prepared by carefully weighing ~ 5 mg in 40 µL aluminium DSC
155 pans, which were then hermetically sealed. An empty pan was used as a reference in the DSC
156 cell. Aerogel samples equilibrated at different a_w values were heated from -40 to 150 °C at 10
157 °C/min. The glass transition temperature (T_g , °C) was determined from the onset temperature
158 of the glass transition of aerogels.

159 **2.4.7 State diagram and modified state diagram**

160 Aerogel state diagrams were obtained by plotting the T_g values for samples equilibrated at
161 different ERH% as a function of the mass fraction of the sample. The obtained curve was fitted
162 using the Gordon-Taylor equation (Eq. 2) (Gordon & Taylor, 1952).

163
$$T_g = \frac{w_1 T_{g1} + k w_2 T_{g2}}{w_1 + k w_2} \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

164 where T_{g1} (°C) is the glass transition temperature of the amorphous solute, T_{g2} (°C) is the glass
165 transition temperature of the solvent (-137.5 °C), w_1 and w_2 are the mass fraction of the solute
166 and the solvent, respectively, and k is an experimental constant. The modified state diagram
167 was then obtained by plotting the T_g values for samples equilibrated at different ERH% as a
168 function of their a_w value.

169 **2.4.8 Water and oil absorption kinetics**

170 Aerogel samples were placed into 250 mL beakers filled with 125 mL of water or sunflower oil
171 at room temperature (22 °C). At defined time intervals, samples were withdrawn, the surface
172 was carefully blotted dry with absorbent paper, and weighed until a constant weight in three
173 consecutive measurements was reached. Absorbed water or oil was expressed as the ratio
174 between weight gain at time t (min) to the initial weight of the aerogel sample.

175 **2.4.9 Oil content**

176 The oil content of the samples was defined as the % ratio between the amount of oil at the
177 absorption plateau value and the sample weight.

178 **2.4.10 Oil holding capacity**

179 Around 100-200 mg of sample was placed into 1.5 mL microtubes between two pieces of
180 absorbing paper. Samples were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm (15,871 x g) for 30 min using a
181 microcentrifuge (Mikro 120, Hettich Zentrifugen, Andreas Hettich GmbH and Co, Tuttlingen,
182 Germany). Oil holding capacity (OHC) was computed as the % ratio between the weight of oil
183 retained in the aerogel after centrifugation and the total weight of oil in the sample before
184 centrifugation.

185 **2.5 Data analysis**

186 Data were expressed as the mean \pm standard error (SE) of at least two measurements from two
187 experimental replicates ($n \geq 4$). Statistical analysis was performed by using R v. 3.0.2 (The R
188 Foundation for Statistical Computing). Student's t-test was used to determine statistically
189 significant differences between means ($p < 0.05$). Non-linear regression analysis of M values
190 as a function of aerogel a_w and of T_g values as a function of aerogel mass fraction was performed
191 by using TableCurve2D software (Jandel Scientific, ver. 5.01). The goodness of fit was
192 evaluated based on statistical parameters of fitting (R^2).

193

194 3 Results and discussion

195 Figure 1 shows the visual appearance and microstructure of whey protein aerogels obtained by
196 freeze-drying (FD) or supercritical CO₂-drying (SCD). In agreement with the findings of Betz
197 et al. (2012), both aerogels appeared visually opaque. FD aerogels showed an uneven surface
198 with evident cracking. The SCD aerogel appeared more homogeneous without large cracks or
199 crevices.

200 Important morphological differences between the samples were observed via SEM. The
201 microstructure of the FD samples (Figures 1B and 1C) suggested an open protein matrix
202 consisting of large pores, in agreement with other studies (Betz et al., 2012; Jin et al., 2004;
203 Nazarov et al., 2004). This morphology may have resulted from ice crystal formation during
204 hydrogel freezing, which forced the whey protein microgels to freeze-concentrate. When these
205 ice crystals are sublimated during FD, liquid-vapour interfaces and capillary surface tension are
206 avoided (Fricke & Tillotson, 1997). It is likely that the protein network structure was altered
207 during the freezing phase, with limited effect of the subsequent sublimation of ice crystals. The
208 structural rearrangement resulted in larger pores and a larger void volume.

209 A compact and homogeneous matrix was observed in SCD samples at low magnification
210 (Figure 1E). At higher magnification (Figure 1F), we observed the presence of a particulate
211 network of interconnected spherical aggregates, similar to whey protein microgels in aqueous
212 environments (Donato et al., 2011; Nguyen et al., 2016). This suggested that supercritical
213 drying preserved the structure and organisation of the original microgel particles. The result of
214 this assembly was a 3D network with pores in the low-micron range and a smaller void volume.
215 Table 1 highlights key aerogel properties. Conversion of the hydrogels into aerogels resulted in
216 volume shrinkage, which was significantly greater for the SCD aerogels (~ 39 %) compared to
217 the FD aerogels (~ 15 %). Accordingly, the FD aerogels were significantly softer than SCD
218 samples and also presented a 25 % lower density (Table 1). It is likely that in the SCD aerogels,
219 the polarity of the environment surrounding whey protein microgel progressively decreased due
220 to water substitution by ethanol, and ethanol removal by CO₂. Such a change in polarity likely
221 weakened the interactions between the proteins and solvent and favoured those among whey
222 proteins chains, resulting in contraction of the gel (Ganesan et al., 2018). However, the original
223 particulate microstructure would not be lost, providing the architecture observed by SEM
224 (Figure 1).

225 Table 1. Volume contraction, firmness, density, and experimental regression coefficient
 226 estimates k and n for the Freundlich model (Eq .1) of aerogels obtained by freeze-drying (FD)
 227 and supercritical-CO₂-drying (SCD).

Drying technique	Volume contraction (%) [*]	Firmness (N)	Density (g/cm ³)	k (g H ₂ O/g d.m.)	n
FD	-14.67 ± 5.08 ^a	15.9 ± 0.2 ^b	0.22 ± 0.01 ^a	0.312 ± 0.012	0.401 ± 0.031
SCD	-38.64 ± 3.86 ^b	47.5 ± 0.3 ^a	0.29 ± 0.02 ^b	0.603 ± 0.047	0.148 ± 0.020

228 ^{a,b}: Means in the same column indicated by different letters are statistically different ($p < 0.05$)

229 * Volume contraction is expressed in relation to original hydrogel

230

231 To better understand the capacity of aerogels to interact with water vapour, aerogels were
 232 equilibrated at increasing relative humidity. Figure 2 shows aerogel moisture adsorption as a
 233 function of a_w . The increase in the relative water vapour pressure was associated with a limited
 234 but progressive increase in moisture. Such behaviour can be described by type III isotherms,
 235 indicating that both samples had a limited capacity of interacting with water molecules. Water
 236 would be mostly adsorbed due to interactions with previously adsorbed water layers rather than
 237 with the aerogel surface. Such isotherms are typically modelled with the Freundlich model (De
 238 Smedt et al., 2015) which, here, closely fitted the experimental data ($R^2 > 0.97$) with significant
 239 parameter estimates ($p < 0.001$). Although the model parameters for the two aerogels resulted
 240 in the same order of magnitude, the adsorption capacity (k) was higher in the SCD vs. the FD
 241 aerogels whereas the adsorption intensity (n) was greater in the FD than in the SCD aerogels
 242 (Table 1). Over the a_w range, the FD aerogels showed a higher adsorption ability at a_w values
 243 below 0.80, while above this value, the SCD samples showed a higher adsorption capacity.
 244 Such differences were likely to be due to the different surface areas of the two samples (Figure
 245 1). The limited ability of the aerogels to interact with water vapour was probably due to the
 246 changes in protein conformation upon heat-induced gelation. According to Iglesias, Chirife,
 247 and Lombardi (1975), the formation of hydrogen bonds among whey proteins might reduce
 248 their availability for surface interaction between proteins and water. The availability of surface
 249 hydrogen groups would be further decreased by the engagement of protein functional groups in
 250 protein-protein interactions, which are the basis for self-supporting aerogels.

251 The drying technique did not affect the thermal stability of the dried aerogels. Both types of
 252 aerogels underwent a glass transition at 161 ± 4 °C (Figure 3). Glass transition temperature data
 253 were modelled as a function of mass fraction using the Gordon-Taylor equation (Gordon &
 254 Taylor, 1952). Non-linear regression analysis showed good determination coefficients (≥ 0.97)
 255 and significant ($p < 0.001$) values of the model experimental constant (k). No significant

256 differences in k values ($p \geq 0.05$) between the FD and SCD aerogels were detected. This showed
257 that the physical stability of the aerogels at different relative humidity values was mainly
258 controlled by the intrinsic properties of the whey proteins rather than by their porosity. A similar
259 effect was previously observed in aerogels made with κ -carrageenan (Manzocco et al., 2017),
260 which presented considerably different microstructures but comparable isotherms and glass
261 transitions. Figure 3 also shows that at 20 °C, both aerogels were in the glassy state and turned
262 to a rubbery state when they adsorbed an amount of water equal to ~ 20 % of the aerogel sample
263 mass. Whey protein aerogels would thus remain physically stable and maintain their original
264 porosity at room temperature if kept at ERH lower than ~ 80 %. Based on these considerations,
265 the present whey protein aerogels may be regarded as materials easy to store and manage,
266 thereby providing an advantage for use as food ingredients.

267 The loading potential of the aerogels was investigated by immersing them in water or oil (Figure
268 4). Water absorption by aerogels was associated with swelling and loss of the original shape of
269 the samples (Figure 4A). Although both samples swelled, the FD aerogel showed faster water
270 uptake, given its higher porosity (Figure 1) and water vapour adsorption (Figure 2).

271 Oil absorption by the FD aerogels occurred in less than 1 minute, but was more gradual in the
272 SCD aerogel, levelling off after 100 minutes (Figure 4B). Despite these differences, the final
273 oil uptake was ~ 75 % for both aerogels (Table 2). There was no obvious link between oil
274 loading and aerogel swelling or surface solubilisation (Figure 4B). However, a remarkable
275 contraction in sample volume was observed in the SCD aerogel, suggesting that its protein
276 network further shrank upon oil absorption (Table 2). Oil entrapment also significantly
277 decreased aerogel firmness (Tables 1 and 2, $p < 0.05$), indicating that the presence of oil
278 weakened the protein network, similar to the water absorption results. By contrast, there was
279 near instantaneous and sponge-like absorption of oil in the FD aerogel, which was accompanied
280 by minimal volume contraction (-7 % as compared to the starting aerogel) and firmness values
281 similar to the unloaded aerogel (Table 1). The dissimilar oil adsorption kinetics likely resulted
282 from the different pore sizes present in the aerogels (Figure 1), and were consistent with smaller
283 void fractions resulting in a higher plateau adsorption value being reached at a slower rate
284 compared to a material with a larger void volume (Khosravi & Azizian, 2016).

285 Table 2. Volume contraction, firmness, oil content and oil holding capacity (OHC) of oil-loaded
 286 aerogels obtained by freeze-drying (FD) and supercritical-CO₂-drying (SCD).

Drying technique	Volume contraction (%)*	Firmness (N)	Oil content (%)	OHC (%)
FD	-21.46 ± 0.90 ^a	18.5 ± 0.2 ^a	73.5 ± 0.1 ^a	44.7 ± 0.9 ^a
SCD	-54.14 ± 0.29 ^b	29.5 ± 0.2 ^b	76.5 ± 0.6 ^a	96.3 ± 0.9 ^b

287 ^{a,b}: In the same column, means indicated by different letters are statistically different (p < 0.05)

288 * Volume contraction is expressed in relation to original hydrogel

289

290 **Conclusions**

291 The morphology and porosity of aerogels obtained by freeze-drying or supercritical drying were
 292 remarkably different. The former resulted in aerogels with larger pores and a greater void
 293 volume compared to the latter. Such differences suggested that it would be possible to modify
 294 the material performance towards a target application by choosing a different drying technique.

295 If fast dissolution of an aerogel upon contact with water is the targeted application, freeze-dried
 296 aerogels should be selected. By contrast, when oil is to be tightly retained within the protein
 297 network structure, the use of supercritical dried protein aerogels could be an option.

298 Given their ability to absorb oil, future studies will examine the potential of whey protein
 299 aerogels as transport matrices for labile, oil-soluble compounds. Such studies will determine
 300 how aerogels may protect ingredients during shelf life studies and during passage within the
 301 digestive tract. This approach will be used to maximize their performance both in food products
 302 and, eventually, *in-vivo*.

303

304 **Funding**

305 Work carried out in the framework of COST Action CA18125 “Advanced Engineering and
 306 Research of aeroGels for Environment and Life Sciences” (AERoGELS), funded by the
 307 European Commission". Funding from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council
 308 of Canada is acknowledged.

309

310 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

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

313

314 **References**

315 Ahmadi, M., Madadlou, A., Akbar, A., & Saboury, A. A. (2016). Whey protein aerogel as

316 blended with cellulose crystalline particles or loaded with fish oil. *Food Chemistry*, 196,
317 1016–1022. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2015.10.031>

318 Andlinger, D. J., Bornkeßel, A. C., Jung, I., Schroeter, B., Smirnova, I., & Kulozik, U.
319 (2021). Microstructures of potato protein hydrogels and aerogels produced by thermal
320 crosslinking and supercritical drying. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 112, 106305.
321 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2020.106305>

322 Antonyuk, S., Heinrich, S., Gurikov, P., Raman, S., & Smirnova, I. (2015). Influence of
323 coating and wetting on the mechanical behaviour of highly porous cylindrical aerogel
324 particles. *Powder Technology*, 285, 34–43.
325 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.powtec.2015.05.004>

326 Ayawei, N., Ebelegi, N., & Wankasi, D. (2017). *Modelling and Interpretation of Adsorption*
327 *Isotherms*. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/3039817>

328 Baudron, V., Gurikov, P., Smirnova, I., & Whitehouse, S. (2019). Porous starch materials via
329 supercritical-and freeze-drying. *Gels*, 5, 9–13. <https://doi.org/10.3390/gels5010012>

330 Betz, M., García-González, C. A., Subrahmanyam, R. P., Smirnova, I., & Kulozik, U. (2012).
331 Preparation of novel whey protein-based aerogels as drug carriers for life science
332 applications. *Journal of Supercritical Fluids*, 72, 111–119.
333 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2012.08.019>

334 Chen, H. B. B., Wang, Y. Z. Z., & Schiraldi, D. A. (2013). Foam-like materials based on
335 whey protein isolate. *European Polymer Journal*, 49, 3387–3391.
336 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eurpolymj.2013.07.019>

337 Clark, A. H., Kavanagh, G. M., & Ross-Murphy, S. B. (2001). Globular protein gelation-
338 Theory and experiment. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 15, 383–400.
339 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0268-005X\(01\)00042-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0268-005X(01)00042-X)

340 De Smedt, C., Ferrer, F., Leus, K., & Spanoghe, P. (2015). Removal of pesticides from
341 aqueous solutions by adsorption on zeolites as solid adsorbents. *Adsorption Science and*
342 *Technology*, 33, 457–485. <https://doi.org/10.1260/0263-6174.33.5.457>

343 Donato, L., Kolodziejczyk, E., & Rouvet, M. (2011). Mixtures of whey protein microgels and
344 soluble aggregates as building blocks to control rheology and structure of acid induced
345 cold-set gels. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 25, 734–742.
346 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2010.08.020>

347 Errington, A. D., & Foegeding, E. A. (1998). Factors determining fracture stress and strain of
348 fine-stranded whey protein gels. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 46, 2963–
349 2967. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf980112y>

350 Fricke, J. U., & Tillotson, T. (1997). Aerogels: production, characterization, and applications.

351 *Thin Solid Films*, 297, 212–223. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0040-6090\(96\)09441-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0040-6090(96)09441-2)

352 Ganesan, K., Budtova, T., Ratke, L., Gurikov, P., Baudron, V., Preibisch, I., Niemeyer, P.,
353 Smirnova, I., & Milow, B. (2018). Review on the production of polysaccharide aerogel
354 particles. *Materials*, 11, 1–37. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma11112144>

355 Garcia-Gonzalez, C. A., Budtova, T., Durães, L., Erkey, C., Del Gaudio, P., Gurikov, P.,
356 Koebel, M., Liebner, F., Neagu, M., & Smirnova, I. (2019). An opinion paper on
357 aerogels for biomedical and environmental applications. *Molecules*, 24, 1815.

358 Gordon, M., & Taylor, J. S. (1952). Ideal copolymers and the second-order transitions of
359 synthetic rubbers. i. non-crystalline copolymers. *Journal of Applied Chemistry*, 2, 493–
360 500. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/jctb.5010020901>

361 Iglesias, H. A., Chirife, J., & Lombardi, J. L. (1975). Comparison of water vapour sorption by
362 sugar beet root components. *International Journal of Food Science & Technology*, 10,
363 385–391. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.1975.tb00044.x>

364 Jin, H., Nishiyama, Y., Wada, M., & Kuga, S. (2004). Nanofibrillar cellulose aerogels.
365 *Colloids and Surfaces A: Physicochemical and Engineering Aspects*, 240, 63–67.
366 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfa.2004.03.007>

367 Khosravi, M., & Azizian, S. (2016). A new kinetic model for absorption of oil spill by porous
368 materials. *Microporous and Mesoporous Materials*, 230, 25–29.
369 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micromeso.2016.04.039>

370 Kleemann, C., Schuster, R., Rosenecker, E., Selmer, I., Smirnova, I., & Kulozik, U. (2020).
371 In-vitro-digestion and swelling kinetics of whey protein, egg white protein and sodium
372 caseinate aerogels. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 101, 105534.
373 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2019.105534>

374 Kleemann, C., Selmer, I., Smirnova, I., & Kulozik, U. (2018). Tailor made protein based
375 aerogel particles from egg white protein, whey protein isolate and sodium caseinate:
376 Influence of the preceding hydrogel characteristics. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 83, 365–374.
377 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2018.05.021>

378 Manzocco, L., Mikkonen, K. S., & García-González, C. A. (2021). Aerogels as porous
379 structures for food applications: Smart ingredients and novel packaging materials. *Food*
380 *Structure*, 28, 100188. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foostr.2021.100188>

381 Manzocco, L., Valoppi, F., Calligaris, S., Andreatta, F., Spilimbergo, S., & Nicoli, M. C.
382 (2017). Exploitation of κ -carrageenan aerogels as template for edible oleogel
383 preparation. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 71, 68–75.
384 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2017.04.021>

385 Nazarov, R., Jin, H. J., & Kaplan, D. L. (2004). Porous 3-D scaffolds from regenerated silk

386 fibroin. *Biomacromolecules*, *5*, 718–726. <https://doi.org/10.1021/bm034327e>

387 Nguyen, B. T., Balakrishnan, G., Jacquette, B., Nicolai, T., Chassenieux, C., Schmitt, C., &
388 Bovetto, L. (2016). Inhibition and promotion of heat-induced gelation of whey proteins
389 in the presence of calcium by addition of sodium caseinate. *Biomacromolecules*, *17*,
390 3800–3807. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.6b01322>

391 Nicolai, T. (2016). Formation and functionality of self-assembled whey protein microgels.
392 *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces*, *137*, 32–38.
393 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2015.05.055>

394 Nicolai, T., & Durand, D. (2013). Controlled food protein aggregation for new functionality.
395 *Current Opinion in Colloid and Interface Science*, *18*, 249–256.
396 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cocis.2013.03.001>

397 Plazzotta, S., Calligaris, S., & Manzocco, L. (2020). Structural characterization of oleogels
398 from whey protein aerogel particles. *Food Research International*, *132*, 109099.
399 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2020.109099>

400 Rodríguez-Dorado, R., López-Iglesias, C., García-González, C. A., Auriemma, G., Aquino, R.
401 P., & Del Gaudio, P. (2019). Design of aerogels, cryogels and xerogels of alginate:
402 Effect of molecular weight, gelation conditions and drying method on particles’
403 micromeritics. *Molecules*, *24*. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24061049>

404 Selmer, I., Karnetzke, J., Kleemann, C., Lehtonen, M., Mikkonen, K. S., Kulozik, U., &
405 Smirnova, I. (2019). Encapsulation of fish oil in protein aerogel micro-particles. *Journal*
406 *of Food Engineering*, *260*, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2019.04.016>

407 Selmer, I., Kleemann, C., Kulozik, U., Heinrich, S., & Smirnova, I. (2015). Development of
408 egg white protein aerogels as new matrix material for microencapsulation in food. *The*
409 *Journal of Supercritical Fluids*, *106*, 42–49.
410 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2015.05.023>

411 Sharma, V., Shahnaz, T., Subbiah, S., & Narayanasamy, S. (2020). New insights into the
412 remediation of water pollutants using nanobentonite incorporated nanocellulose chitosan
413 based aerogel. *Journal of Polymers and the Environment*, *28*, 2008–2019.
414 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10924-020-01740-9>

415 Shimada, K., & Cheftel, J. C. (1988). Texture characteristics, protein solubility, and
416 sulfhydryl group/disulfide bond contents of heat-induced gels of whey protein isolate.
417 *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *36*, 1018–1025.
418 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf00083a029>

419 Subrahmanyam, R., Gurikov, P., Dieringer, P., Sun, M., & Smirnova, I. (2015). On the road
420 to biopolymer aerogels-Dealing with the solvent. *Gels*, *1*, 291–313.

421 <https://doi.org/10.3390/gels1020291>
422 www.cost-aerogels.eu. AERoGELS COST Action. Retrieved May 2, 2021, from [https://cost-](https://cost-aerogels.eu/)
423 [aerogels.eu/](https://cost-aerogels.eu/)
424 Zhang, H., Li, Y., Xu, Y., Lu, Z., Chen, L., Huang, L., & Fan, M. (2016). Versatile
425 fabrication of a superhydrophobic and ultralight cellulose-based aerogel for oil spillage
426 clean-up. *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, *18*, 28297–28306.
427 <https://doi.org/10.1039/c6cp04932j>

428 **Figure captions**

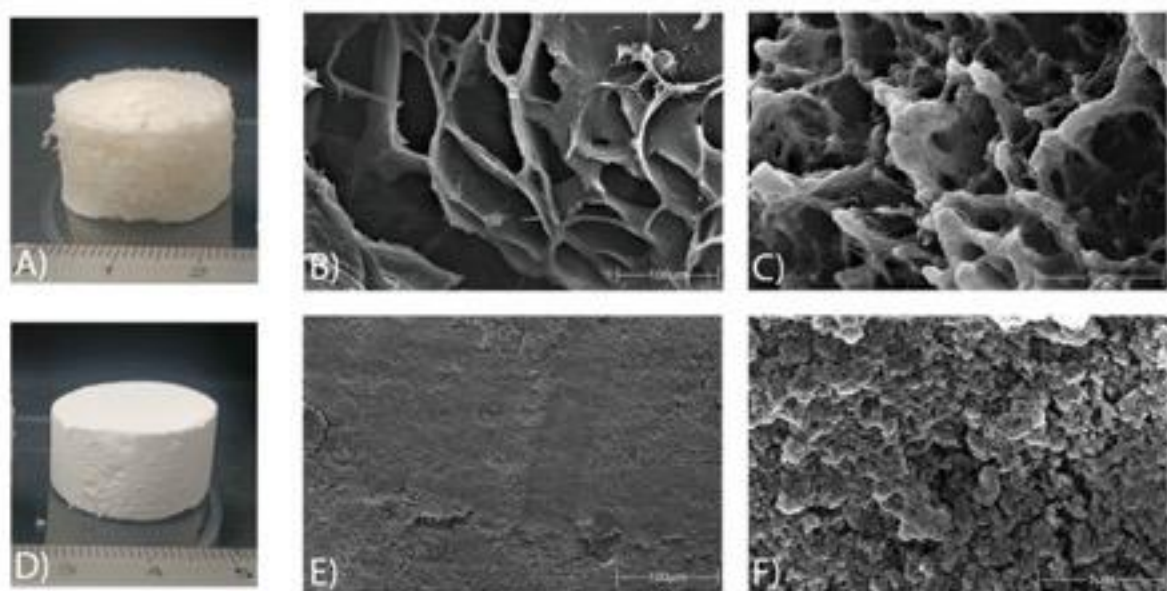
429 Figure 1. Visual appearance and SEM images of whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-
430 drying (FD) and supercritical CO₂-drying (SCD). FD: A) Visual appearance; SEM images at
431 1000 x and 30 kV (B) and 25000 x and 30 kV (C); SCD: D) Visual appearance; SEM images
432 at 1000 x and 10 kV (E) and 25000 x and 20 kV (F). Size bar in images B) & E): 100 μm; C)
433 & F): 5 μm.

434 Figure 2. Moisture adsorption as a function of a_w of whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-
435 drying (FD) and supercritical CO₂-drying (SCD). Symbols: experimental data; Lines: estimated
436 by the Freundlich model.

437 Figure 3. Glass transition temperature of whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-drying (FD)
438 and supercritical-CO₂-drying (SCD) as a function of weight fraction. Symbols: experimental
439 data; Lines: estimated by Gordon-Taylor equation.

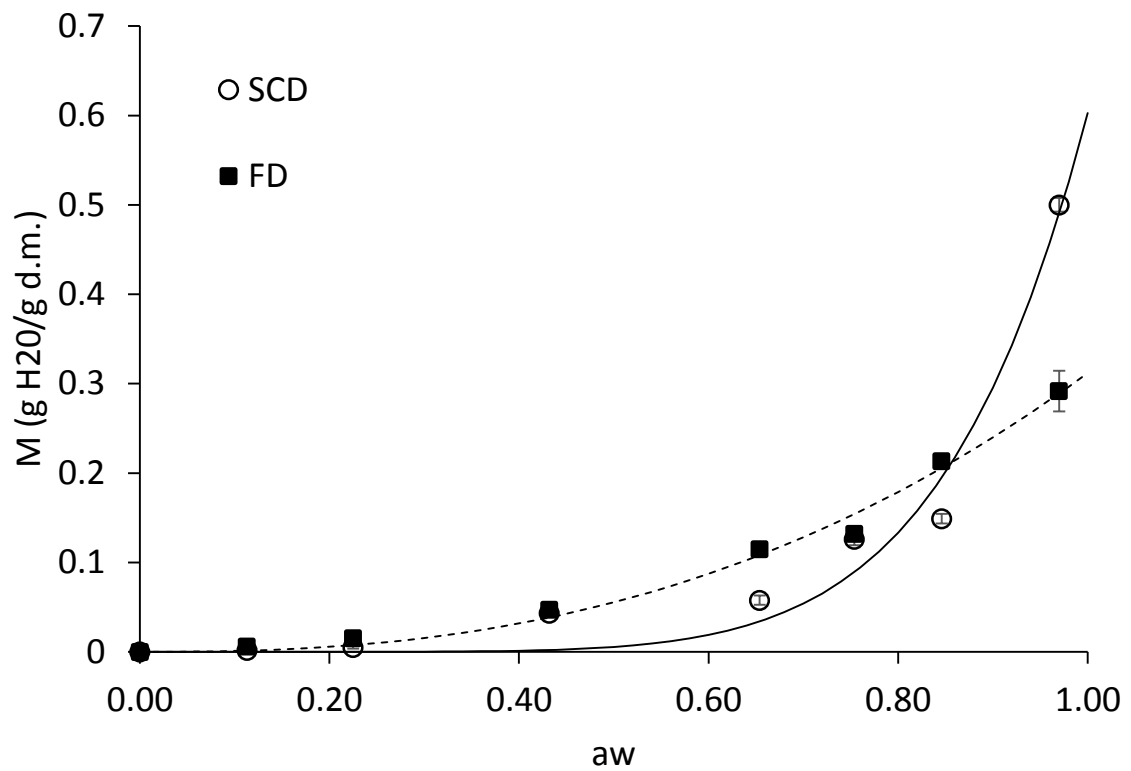
440 Figure 4. Water (A) and oil (B) absorbed by whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-drying
441 (FD) and supercritical-CO₂-drying (SCD) as a function of time. The visual appearance of the
442 aerogels upon absorption is also shown.

443 Colour is not required for any figures in print.



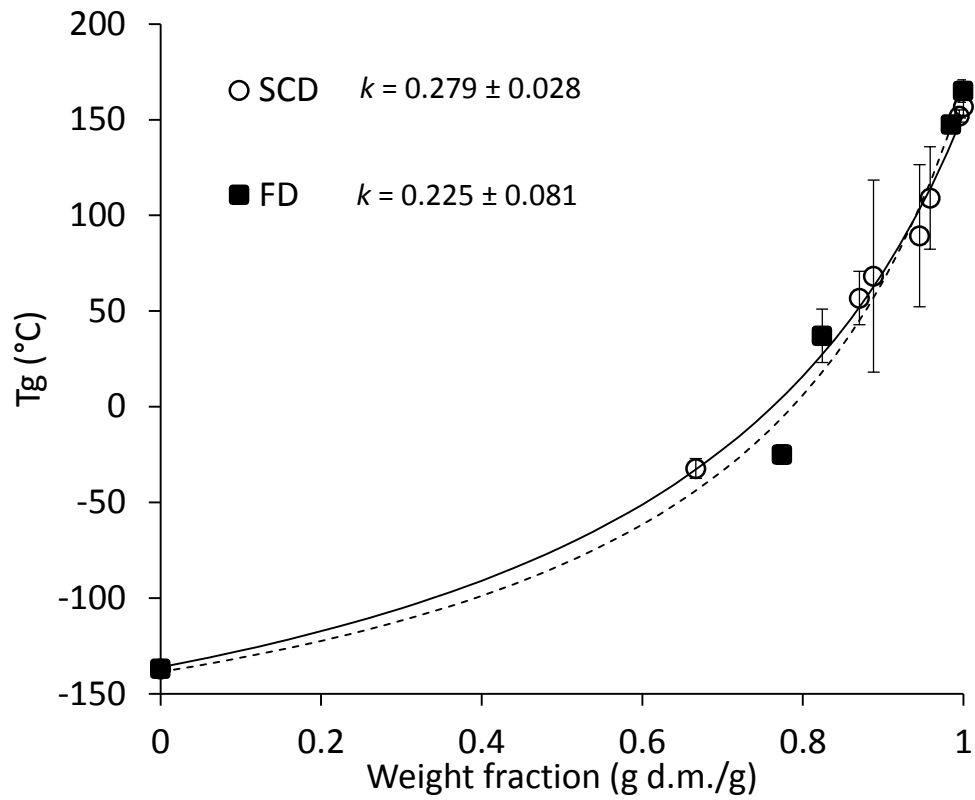
1

2 Figure 1. Visual appearance and SEM images of whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-
3 drying (FD) and supercritical CO₂-drying (SCD). FD: A) Visual appearance; SEM images at
4 1000 x and 30 kV (B) and 25000 x and 30 kV (C); SCD: D) Visual appearance; SEM images
5 at 1000 x and 10 kV (E) and 25000 x and 20 kV (F). Size bar in images B) & E): 100 μm; C)
6 & F): 5 μm.



1

2 Figure 2. Moisture adsorption as a function of a_w of whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-
3 drying (FD) and supercritical CO₂-drying (SCD). Symbols: experimental data; Lines: estimated
4 by Freundlich model.

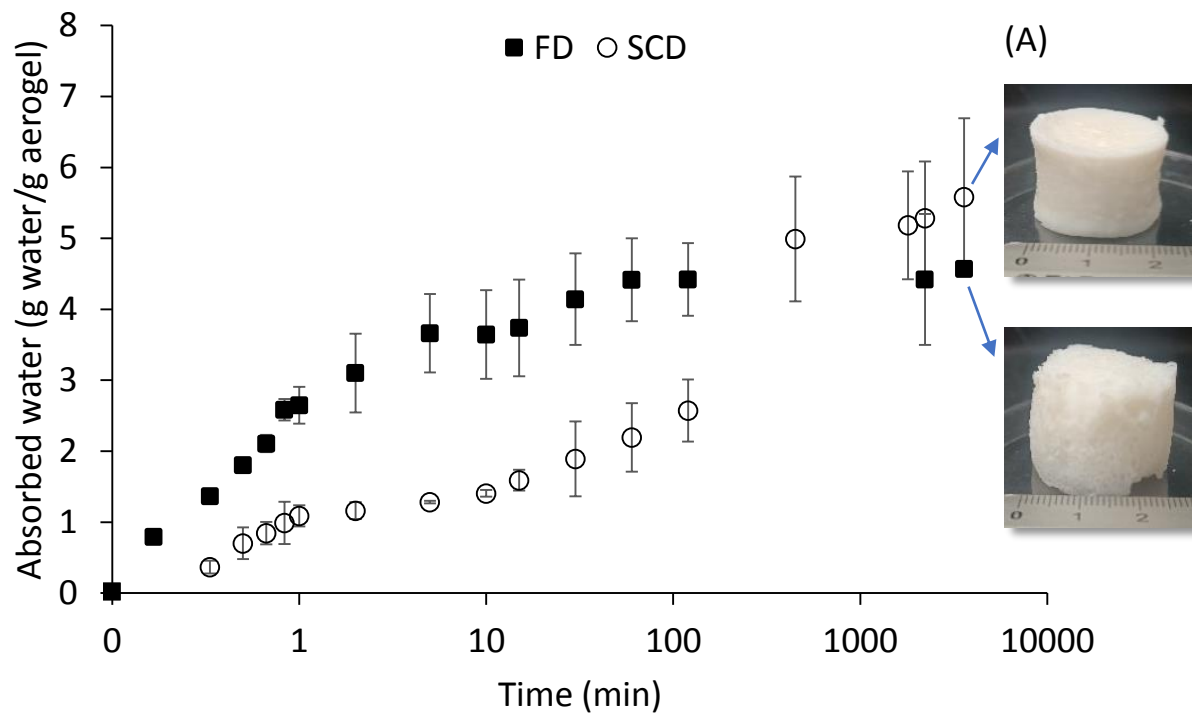


1

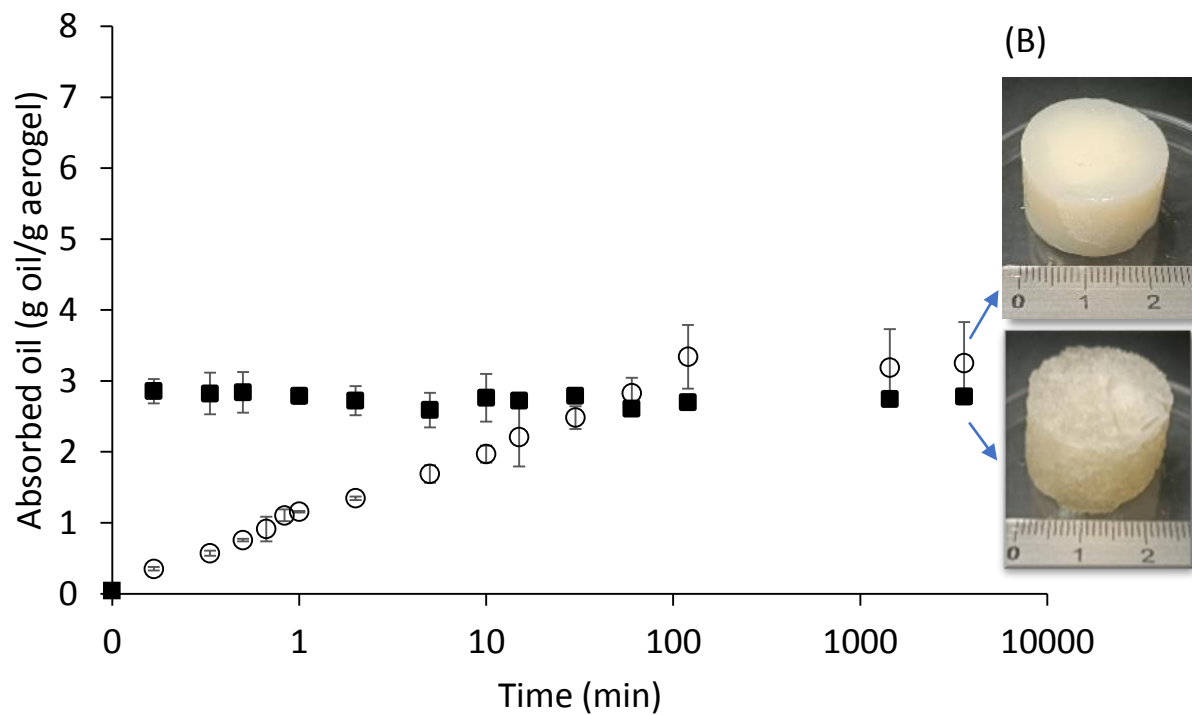
2 Figure 3. Glass transition temperature of whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-drying (FD)

3 and supercritical-CO₂-drying (SCD) as a function of weight fraction. Symbols: experimental

4 data; Lines: estimated by Gordon-Taylor equation.



1



2

3 Figure 4. Water (A) and oil (B) absorbed by whey protein aerogels obtained by freeze-drying
 4 (FD, filled squares) and supercritical-CO₂-drying (SCD, open circles) as a function of time. The
 5 visual appearance of the aerogels upon absorption is also shown.

Conflict of Interest and Authorship Conformation Form

The Authors declare that:

- ✓ All authors have participated in (a) conception and design, or analysis and interpretation of the data; (b) drafting the article or revising it critically for important intellectual content; and (c) approval of the final version.
- ✓ This manuscript has not been submitted to, nor is under review at, another journal or other publishing venue.
- ✓ The authors have no affiliation with any organization with a direct or indirect financial interest in the subject matter discussed in the manuscript

CRedit authorship contribution statement

S.C. and L.M. conceived the original idea; S.P. and L.M. planned the experiments, S.P. carried out the experiments and performed data analysis; L.M. wrote the manuscript draft with support from other authors. J.P, A.d.V. and D.R. performed microscopic analyses and revised the manuscript. All the authors revised the final manuscript. S.C. and L.M. supervised the project.