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40	Abstract	<p>Phytosterols are lipophilic compounds contained in plants and have several biological activities. The use of phytosterols in food fortification is hampered due to their high melting temperature, chalky taste, and low solubility in an aqueous system. Also, phytosterols are easily oxidized and are poorly absorbed by the human body. Formulation engineering coupled with microencapsulation could be used to overcome these problems. The aim of this study was to investigate the feasibility of encapsulating soybean oil enriched with phytosterols by spray-drying using ternary mixtures of health-promoting ingredients, whey protein isolate (WPI), inulin, and chitosan as carrier agents. The effect of different formulations and spray-drying conditions on the microcapsules properties, encapsulation efficiency, surface oil content, and oxidation stability were studied. It was found that spherical WPI-inulin-chitosan phytosterol-enriched soybean oil microcapsules with an average size below 50 μm could be produced with good encapsulation efficiency (85%), acceptable level of surface oil (11%), and water activity (0.2–0.4) that meet industrial requirements. However, the microcapsules showed very low oxidation stability with peroxide values reaching 101.7 meq O_2/kg of oil just after production, and further investigations and optimization are required before any industrial application of this encapsulated system.</p>
41	Keywords separated by ' - '	Phytosterols - Microencapsulation - Spray drying - Inulin - Chitosan - Whey protein isolate - Emulsion
42	Foot note information	

Development and Characterization of Phytosterol-Enriched Oil Microcapsules for Foodstuff Application

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Abstract Phytosterols are lipophilic compounds contained in plants and have several biological activities. The use of phytosterols in food fortification is hampered due to their high melting temperature, chalky taste, and low solubility in an aqueous system. Also, phytosterols are easily oxidized and are poorly absorbed by the human body. Formulation engineering coupled with microencapsulation could be used to overcome these problems. The aim of this study was to investigate the feasibility of encapsulating soybean oil enriched with phytosterols by spray-drying using ternary mixtures of health-promoting ingredients, whey protein isolate (WPI), inulin, and chitosan as carrier agents. The effect of different formulations and spray-drying conditions on the microcapsules properties, encapsulation efficiency, surface oil content, and oxidation stability were studied. It was found that spherical WPI-inulin-chitosan phytosterol-enriched soybean oil microcapsules with an average size below 50 μm could be produced with good encapsulation efficiency (85%), acceptable level of surface oil (11%), and water activity (0.2–0.4) that meet industrial requirements. However, the microcapsules showed very low oxidation stability with peroxide values reaching 101.7 meq O_2/kg of oil just after

production, and further investigations and optimization are required before any industrial application of this encapsulated system.

Keywords Phytosterols · Microencapsulation · Spray drying · Inulin · Chitosan · Whey protein isolate · Emulsion

Introduction

Phytosterols are members of the triterpene family, natural occurring bioactive compounds found in plants and vegetables. Rice bran oil, soybean oil, corn oil, sesame seeds, wheat germ oil, nuts, and pistachios are some natural sources of plant sterols (Moreau et al. 2002; Bacchetti et al. 2011; Gupta et al. 2011; Alemany et al. 2014). The most common plant sterols, campesterols, β -sitosterols, stigmasterols, and ergosterol, are presented in Fig. 1 (Fernandes and Cabral 2007). The chemical structure of phytosterols is similar to cholesterol, with minor differences in relative position of ethyl and methyl groups at C-24 or a double bond at C-22. This similarity explained their interfering with the uptake of both dietary and biliary cholesterol from the intestinal tract. It is well established that high intakes of plant sterols can lower serum total and LDL cholesterol concentrations in humans. Moreover, phytosterols present other benefits, such as a strong anti-inflammatory and anti-diabetic activity and the involvement in the prevention of colon, breast, and prostate cancer (Gabay et al. 2010; Grattan 2013; Panda et al. 2009). For example, Botelho et al. (2014) reported that a daily consumption of 2 g of plant sterols results in a reduction of up to 8.8% of the plasma level of LDL cholesterol. In the wake of these results, in recent years, the production of foods fortified with plant sterols has increased (García-Llatas and Rodríguez-Estrada 2011). These include margarines and dairy products.

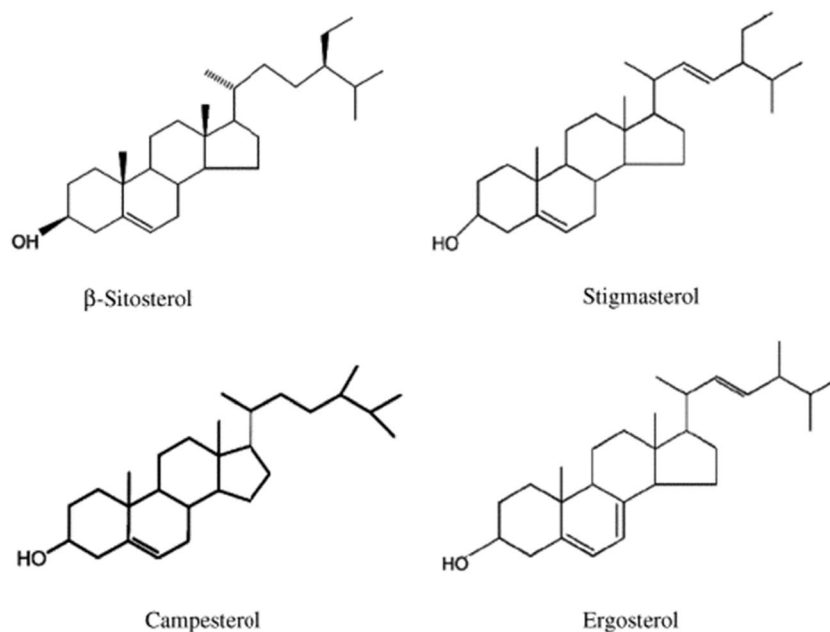
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Fig. 1 Molecular structure of some representative phytosterols (Fernandes and Cabral 2007)



63 However, the incorporation of phytosterols into food products
 64 is still limited due to their susceptibility to oxidation, especial-
 65 ly during high-temperature processing and storage (Fujiwara
 66 et al. 2013; Botelho et al. 2014). The oxidation rate also in-
 67 creases with exposure to air, light, chemical agents, and en-
 68 zymes (Ryan et al. 2009) and leads to the formation of com-
 69 pounds, known oxidation products of phytosterols (POPs).
 70 POPs have no beneficial effect and also can cancel out the
 71 cholesterol-lowering action of phytosterols (García-Llatas
 72 and Rodríguez-Estrada 2011; Liang et al. 2011). For example,
 73 cholesterol oxidation products (COPs) have harmful effects
 74 such as atherogenic, cytotoxic, mutagenic, and carcinogenic
 75 (Valenzuela et al. 2003; Hur et al. 2007). There are few studies
 76 that focused on POPs but as a consequence of the structural
 77 similarity between plant sterols and cholesterol, the unfavor-
 78 able effects of COPs to health can be also expected from POPs
 79 (Alemany et al. 2014). Other challenges related to the incor-
 80 poration of phytosterols in food include their chalky taste and
 81 water insolubility (Izadi et al. 2012). These challenges could
 82 be overcome through formulation and microencapsulation
 83 (“micro packaging”) in protective matrices. Spray drying is
 84 the most common method used for microencapsulation in
 85 food industry (Ghosh 2006, Tolve et al. 2016). Before the
 86 spray-drying process, the stability of feed emulsion has to be
 87 taken into account owing to hydrophobic nature of core ma-
 88 terial (Gharsallaoui et al. 2007). The first step of the microen-
 89 capsulation process is the selection of the appropriate wall
 90 materials for the core material. Carbohydrates with shorter
 91 chains act as matrix formers. Among this, inulin is an inter-
 92 esting polymer. Inulin acts in the body like a dietary fiber,
 93 contributing to the improvement of the gastrointestinal system
 94 conditions and positively modulating cholesterol metabolism

(Costa et al. 2015). Unfortunately, inulin, like most carbohy- 95
 96 drates, lacks any emulsifying properties and is being increas-
 97 ingly studied for use in polymeric mixtures or in combination
 98 with other encapsulant polymers, like proteins (Botrel et al.
 99 2014; Fernandes et al. 2014). Proteins are often used as oil
 100 encapsulants due to their excellent emulsifying and film-
 101 forming properties (Gharsallaoui et al. 2007). Whey protein
 102 isolate (WPI), an important by-product of cheese production,
 103 is widely used in the food industry, both for their emulsifying
 104 properties and for their nutritional aspects (Pal et al. 2010).
 105 WPI has unsurpassed nutritional quality and inherent func-
 106 tional properties that meet the demands of encapsulation
 107 (Ezhilarasi et al. 2013). During the emulsification step, these
 108 proteins change their conformation and position themselves in
 109 the oil-water interface contributing to the production of a sig-
 110 nificantly more stable emulsions (Fernandes et al. 2017). The
 111 microencapsulation of lipophilic molecules with WPI has led
 112 to the production of thick coatings with low porosity and
 113 excellent gas barrier against oxygen (Lin and Zhao 2007;
 114 Mehvar et al. 2014). Chitosan is a polysaccharide known for
 115 its excellent film-forming properties, antioxidant activity, and
 116 cholesterol-lowering and emulsion properties already used for
 117 the microencapsulation of some lipophilic ingredients such as
 118 vitamin D₂, astaxanthin, and olive oil (Rodríguez et al. 2002;
 119 Kim and Thomas 2007; Klaypradit and Huang 2008). The use
 120 of a combination of wall materials for desired properties in-
 121 creases efficiency of microencapsulation process (da Silva
 122 et al. 2014). Recently, inulin with arabic gum was used for
 123 microencapsulation of lipophilic molecules, and good results
 124 have been found both in terms of yield and emulsion stability
 125 (Turchiuli et al. 2014). Moreover, the highest oil encapsula-
 126 tion efficiencies were obtained with protein in combination

127	with carbohydrates, when compared to the formulation containing only protein (Drusch and Mannino 2009). Emulsions made with a mixture of WPI and chitosan had showed higher stability than that made using only WPI (Speiciene et al. 2007). Considering the well-known characteristics of phytosterols and the lack of studies on its microencapsulation, this study evaluated the feasibility of spray-drying microencapsulation process using inulin, WPI, and chitosan as wall materials. Soybean oil rich in PUFA enriched with phytosterol was used as a core material. The oxidative stability of core material and the retention of phytosterols were evaluated after drying for time zero (t_0) and after a refrigerated storage for 5 months (t_1). The effects of different inlet air temperatures as well as the wall material and the phytosterol concentration on the properties of powder were studied.	174
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142	Material and Methods	
143	Materials	
144	Phytosterols (Phytopin®, DRT, France) and soybean oil (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) were used as microcapsules' core materials. Whey protein isolate (WPI, protein content 90%, Tecnoblend, Italy), inulin (Orafti® HPX, Belgium), and chitosan (Sigma-Aldrich, Italy) were used as coating materials. Ultra pure water (UPW) was used for analysis whereas distilled water was used for the preparation of microcapsules. Asolectin from soybean (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) was used as processing aid to increase the solubility of phytosterols in soybean oil. All the other chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Italy) and all of them were of analytical grade.	
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155	Preparation of Emulsions	
156	Stable oil in water emulsions were produced and spray dried to generate microcapsules. Three different formulations (WI, WIC, and WI2C) with two different phytosterol levels were prepared by mixing different concentration of WPI, inulin, chitosan, asolectin, and phytosterols. The aqueous phase was obtained by mixing a stock solution of WPI with inulin solution containing or not containing chitosan to get the concentrations and the total solid concentration reported in Table 1. In detail, WPI stock solution at 9% (w/w) was prepared by mixing WPI powder with distilled water using a magnetic stirrer, keeping overnight at room temperature to ensure complete protein dissolution. The pH of the solution was then adjusted to 6.7 using NaOH (1 M) or 3 using HCL (1 M). Chitosan 0.125% (w/w) in the formulation was obtained from a 2% (w/w) chitosan stock solution made by dissolving chitosan in distilled water containing 1% of acetic acid with the aid of a magnetic stirrer. Inulin solution was prepared as 1% (w/w) and 2% (w/w) by dissolving inulin in water or in chitosan solution. Inulin or inulin containing chitosan was added to WPI solution, and the pH adjusted at 3 or 6.7 according to the presence or absence of chitosan. The oil phase was prepared by dissolving the phytosterols in 25 g soybean oil in order to obtain 5 and 10% (w/w) solution, with or without asolectin as processing aid. It should be noted that phytosterols also showed relatively low solubility in soybean oil, and a homogeneous oil phase with 10% (w/w) phytosterols could not be achieved without asolectin. The solution was heated at 70 °C until the phytosterols were completely dissolved. Fine emulsions (aqueous/oil phase at 4:1 ratio (w/w)) were produced by a homogenizer (Silverson, L4R, Silverson Machines Limited, Buckinghamshire, UK) at 8000 rpm for 4 min. As reported in Table 1, each formulation is characterized by a different concentration of total solids which range from 25.76 to 27.32% (w/w).	191
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	Emulsion Characterization	190
	The microstructure of O/W emulsions was examined with an optical upright microscope (Leica Model DM 2500 microscope base, Wetzlar, Germany). The particles' size and size distribution of the emulsions were measured using a laser light diffraction instrument, Mastersizer (Malvern Instruments Ltd., UK). All measurements were carried out at 20 °C, and the results reported are averages of three readings. The stability of emulsions was evaluated over time, by measuring the change in size distribution with time using the Mastersizer as described above. The rheological measurements were carried out on an advanced rheometer AR 2000 (TA Instruments, USA) equipped with a cone and plate geometry. The rotating cone was 60 mm acrylic plate geometry. All the measurements were carried out at 20 °C.	
	Microencapsulation by Spray Drying	205
	Spray-drying process was performed in a laboratory-scale Mini Spray Dryer Büchi B-290 (Büchi, Swiss) equipped with a 0.7-mm nozzle. The emulsions were co-current fed into the main chamber through a peristaltic pump. The flow rate of the emulsion and the compressor air pressure were kept constant at 2 mL/min and 6 bars respectively for all the experiments. Technical data and a scheme of the drying apparatus can be found elsewhere (Mini spray dryer B-290 technical data sheet). Three different inlet air temperatures were used (125 ± 4, 155 ± 4, and 185 ± 4 °C), and the outlet air temperature results were 67 ± 5, 95 ± 5, and 115 ± 5 °C, respectively. During the spray-drying process, the emulsions were gently magnetically stirred to prevent creaming of the emulsion droplets. The finished microcapsules were stored in containers sealed with screw caps until further used and analysis.	206
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t1.1 **Table 1** Composition of feed
t1.2 emulsions and total solid
t1.3 concentration

Feed suspension	Water phase			Oil phase		Total solid concentration (wall material + oil) [%w/w]
	WPI [%w/w]	Inulin [%w/w]	Chitosan [%w/w]	Asolectin [%w/w]	Phytosterols [%w/w]	
WI-P5	6.75	1	–	–	5	25.76
WI-P10	6.75	1	–	0.25	10	26.6
WIC-P5	6.75	1	0.125	–	5	25.84
WIC-P10	6.75	1	0.125	0.25	10	26.28
WI2C-P5	6.75	2	0.125	–	5	26.48
WI2C-P10	6.75	2	0.125	0.25	10	27.32

221 Characterization of the Microparticles

222 The morphology of the microparticles was observed using
223 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) apparatus (Philips-FEI
224 ESEM XL30). A water activity meter (AquaLab PawKit,
225 Decagon Devices, USA) was used to measure a_w of the
226 spray-dried powders. All measurements were carried out at
227 25 °C. The moisture content was determined based on
228 AOAC method (AOCS 2000). Specifically, 2-g samples were
229 weighed and dried in oven at 105 °C until its weight is constant.
230 Real density (g cm^{-3}) values were measured using a helium
231 pycnometer (Micromeritics AccuPyc II 1340). Approximately
232 0.20-g samples were weighted and placed in the testing cup,
233 and then, 10 readings for the density were taken over 20 cycles
234 of pumping and evacuating helium on the sample.

235 Encapsulation Yield

236 The encapsulation yield (EY%) was determined as the ratio of
237 the amount of powder collected after every spray-drying ex-
238 periment to the initial amount of solids contained in the feed
239 suspensions (Eq. (1)):

$$EY = \frac{\text{mass of powder collected}}{\text{mass of solid fed}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

242

240

243 Surface Oil and Encapsulation Efficiency

244 The amount of total oil and surface oil were determined to
245 calculate the encapsulation efficiency (EE). The total oil con-
246 tent of the powder was determined by Soxhlet apparatus. A
247 known weight of microcapsules was put into an extraction
248 thimble which was closed with glass wool and then placed in
249 a Soxhlet extractor. A condenser was installed on top of the
250 Soxhlet and fed with cooling water at a temperature of 60 °C;
251 the round evaporation flask was filled with 300 ml of petroleum
252 ether and connect to the Soxhlet extractor. The petroleum ether
253 was heated to boiling point and run for 5.5 h. Afterwards, the
254 evaporation flask was put into a rotary evaporator and the

255 petroleum ether was evaporated at 60 °C. A water vacuum
256 pump was used to accelerate the process. Then, the oil
257 contained in the evaporation flask was weighed. The amount
258 of surface oil was determined by a modified method described
259 by Carneiro et al. (2013). Hexane (75 ml) was added to 2 g of
260 powder followed by stirring for 10 min at room temperature.
261 After filtration through a filter paper, the solvent was evaporat-
262 ed in a rotary evaporator (at 60 °C) until constant weight. The
263 non-encapsulated oil was determined by mass difference be-
264 tween the initial clean flask and that containing the extracted
265 oil residue. The ratio of the amount of encapsulated oil to the
266 initial oil amount is defined as the encapsulation efficiency (EE)
267 and was expressed as a percentage (%) according to the Eq. (2):

$$EE = \frac{\text{mass of total oil} - \text{mass of surface oil}}{\text{mass of total oil}} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

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Peroxide Value

271

272 Peroxide value (PV) of the encapsulated soybean oil enriched
273 with phytosterols, as extracted above, was measured accord-
274 ing the method of the American Oil Chemist's Society
275 (AOCS) Official method Cd 8–53 (AOCS 1989) as follows:
276 2 g of soybean oil was weighed into a 250-mL Erlenmeyer
277 flask, 25 mL acetic acid/chloroform mixture (3:2 v/v) was
278 added, and the mixture was swirled for the dissolution of
279 soybean oil. One milliliter of fresh saturated aqueous potassi-
280 um iodide solution was added; the flask was gently mixed for
281 1 min and left to stand in darkness for 5 min at room temper-
282 ature. Then, 75 mL distilled water was added and the content
283 was titrated against 0.01 N sodium thiosulphate ($\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3$)
284 (using starch indicator). PV, expressed as milliequivalents of
285 active oxygen per kilogram of oil (meq O_2/kg), was calculated
286 as follows (Eq. (3)):

$$PV = \frac{S + N}{m} \times 1000 \quad (3)$$

289

290 where S is titrant volume (mL), m is sample weight (g), and N
291 is normality of $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3$.

292 Loading Capacity

293 The loading capacity (LC) of microcapsules was performed
 294 by estimating the amount of phytosterols loaded in dried par-
 295 ticles. Hence, the quantification of encapsulated phytosterols
 296 was carried out by calibration curve method using the
 297 Liebermann-Burchard reagent. A phytosterol standard solu-
 298 tion was prepared by dissolving 10 mg of phytosterols in
 299 10 mL of chloroform. 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1, or 1.5 ml of this
 300 standard solution was pipetted out into 6 test tubes. Then,
 301 2 mL of the Liebermann-Burchard reagent was added to all
 302 tubes. The volume was adjusted to 5.5 ml with chloroform.
 303 The samples remained at room temperature, protected from
 304 light for 15 min. After this period, concentrations were mea-
 305 sured in a spectrophotometer (Cary 1E, Varian, Australia) at
 306 640 nm. The procedure was performed in triplicate. The
 307 Liebermann-Burchard reagent was prepared in a 500-mL am-
 308 ber glass bottle fitted with a polyseal cap where 220 mL of
 309 cold acetic anhydride and 200 mL of glacial acetic acid were
 310 mixed by inversion followed by the addition of 30 ml of cold
 311 concentrated sulfuric acid (Kim and Goldberg 1969). The en-
 312 capsulated phytosterols were measured by adding 2 mL of
 313 Liebermann-Burchard reagent into 2 mL of oil extracted from
 314 the microparticles. The final volume was completed to 5.5 mL
 315 with chloroform, and the absorbance of the samples was mea-
 316 sured in the same conditions as for the standard (Fujiwara
 Q2 317 et al. 2013). Phytosterol concentration was determined by refer-
 318 ence to the standard curve whereas the loading capacity was
 319 evaluated from the following equation (Eq. (4)):

$$LC = \frac{\text{mass of encapsulated phytosterols}}{\text{mass of powder}} \times 1000 \quad (4)$$

322
320

323 Statistical Analyses

324 The results obtained were analyzed using a three-way analysis
 325 of variance (ANOVA) in order to evaluate the effect of three
 326 different formulations, two phytosterol concentrations, and three
 327 Inlet air-drying temperatures on the obtained microparticles. The
 328 post hoc test LSD was performed on the mean value for each
 329 factor. All statistical procedures were computed using the statisti-
 Q3 330 cal package SYSTAT for Windows (ver. 10, 2003) (Systat
 331 Software, Chicago, IL).

332 Results and Discussion

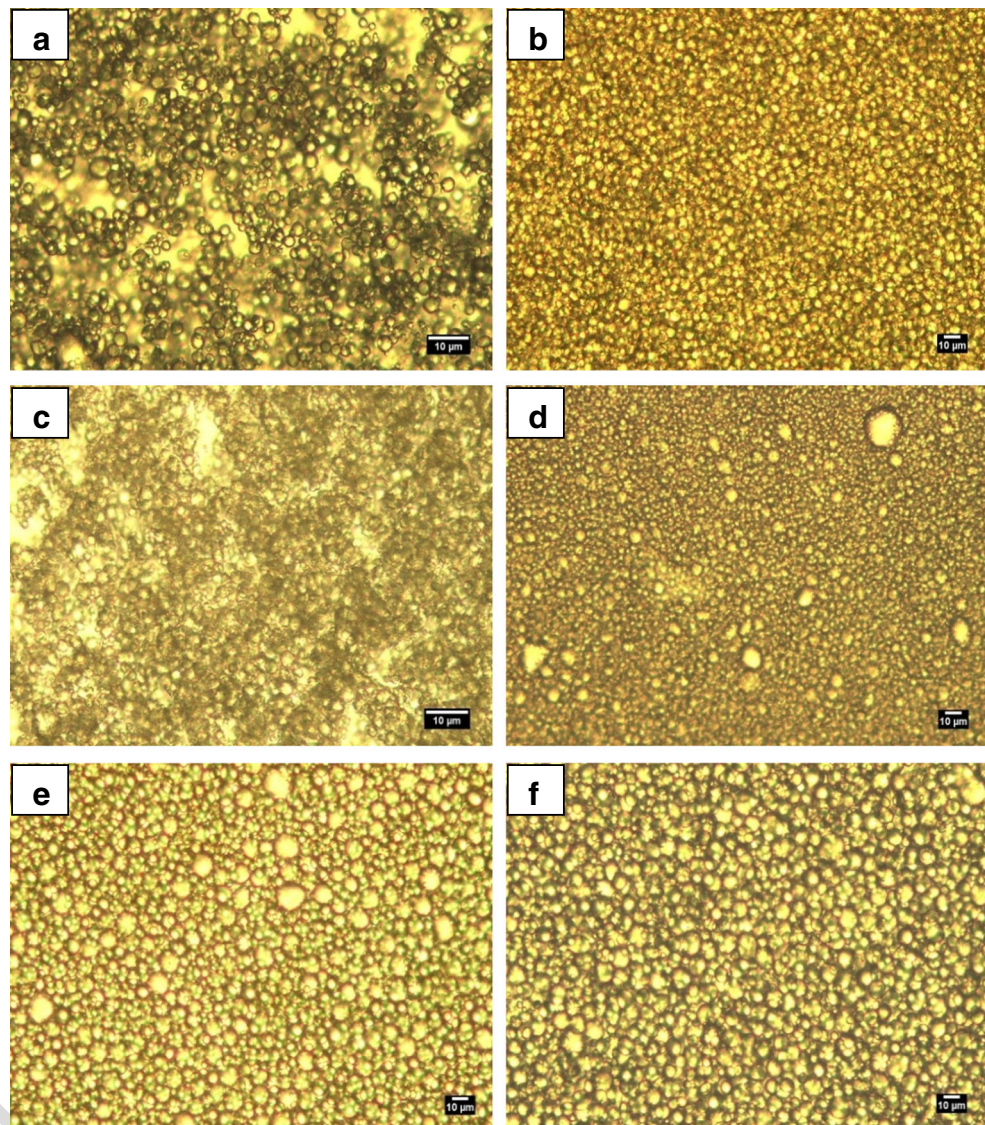
333 Emulsion Characterization

334 Different formulations of soybean oil in water emulsions
 335 were made. The soybean oil was fortified with 5 or 10% of

336 phytosterols, and the aqueous phase contained 6.75% (w/w) 336
 337 WPI, 0.125% (w/w) chitosan, and 1% or 2% (w/w) in- 337
 338 ulin. The percentage of solids was within the wall material 338
 339 concentration recommended for oil encapsulation from 20 339
 340 to 40% and the typical wall to core material ratio of 4:1 (w/w) 340
 341 (Jafari et al. 2008a). Figure 2 is a typical light micro- 341
 342 graph showing the microstructure of these emulsions. 342
 343 Although the micrographs show a droplet size < 10 μm, 343
 344 the Mastersizer analysis revealed larger particle size with a 344
 345 bimodal or trimodal character depending on the phytosterol 345
 346 concentration in the oil phase (Fig. 3). This discrepancy 346
 347 could be explained by a lack of information about the opti- 347
 348 cal properties of the emulsions. Although a refractive index 348
 349 of 1.45 reported in the literature for emulsions stabi- 349
 350 lized by whey protein isolate (Sun and Gunasekaran 2010) 350
 351 was chosen for the size measurement by the Mastersizer, 351
 352 the emulsions in this study also contain inulin and chito- 352
 353 san. WPI is known to form aggregates when treated at high 353
 354 temperature such as 70 °C used for the preparation of 354
 355 emulsions. Particle size below 2 μm could be attributed 355
 356 to these protein aggregates. Moreover, the formation of 356
 357 WPI aggregates and network around the droplet surface 357
 358 at high temperature may have also accounted for the ap- 358
 359 parent larger droplet size revealed by the Mastersizer. 359
 360 Figure 3 also shows a reduction in the percentage of 360
 361 protein aggregates with the increase in inulin concentra- 361
 362 tion. A shift from a trimodal to a bimodal particle size 362
 363 distribution could be seen when the concentration of phy- 363
 364 tosterols was increased in the formulation. This was pre- 364
 365 sumably due to the presence of asolectin in formulation 365
 366 with 10% phytosterols. 366

367 The emulsion stability has been reported to have an 367
 368 influence on microencapsulation efficiency and on proper- 368
 369 ties of spray-dried oil powders (Tan et al. 2005). For this 369
 370 reason, the emulsions must remain stable during the spray- 370
 371 drying process. In the present study, the time taken to com- 371
 372 plete a spray-drying process for one batch was approxi- 372
 373 mately of 60–90 min during which no coalescence and 373
 374 change in oil droplet size or in the emulsion particle size 374
 375 distribution were observed (Table 2). The viscosity of the 375
 376 emulsions was measured to find out the effect of the dif- 376
 377 ferent formulations on the viscosity which is known to 377
 378 affect the particle size of the spray droplets and the prop- 378
 379 erties of the resultant powders (Fig. 4). Apparent viscosi- 379
 380 ties of the emulsions, at 145 s⁻¹ shear rate, are presented in 380
 381 Table 2. Table 2 also contains the values for power law 381
 382 model and shows the empirical consistency and flow be- 382
 383 havior indices. This model suitably explains the experi- 383
 384 mental data where *r*² values ranged from 0.924 to 0.976. 384
 385 The consistency index provides an indication of the flow 385
 386 properties of the feed suspension, and the flow behavior 386
 387 index (*n*) indicates how close the feed suspension is to 387
 388 Newtonian. The flow behavior index of the feed 388

Fig. 2 Optical micrograph of different emulsions obtained by mixing soybean oil, fortified with 5 or 10% of phytosterols, with different wall materials: WI-P5 (a), WI-P10 (b), WIC-P5 (c), WIC-P10 (d), WI2C-P5 (e), WI2C-P10 (f)



389 suspensions was ranging from 0.1916 and 0.8072, which
 390 was considered to be pseudoplastic or shear-thinning fluids
 391 ($n < 1$). The consistency index increased with increasing
 392 the phytosterol concentration whereas formulation WI2C-
 393 P5 exhibited the lower consistency index (0.003 mPa.sⁿ)
 394 while WIC-P10 showed the highest one (2.578 mPa.sⁿ).
 395 Moreover, the increase in viscosity could not be explained
 396 only by the increase in the total solid mass as sample for-
 397 mulated with 10% phytosterols and 1% inulin showed
 398 higher viscosity (WIC-P10) than that with the same phy-
 399 tosterol concentration but formulated with 2% inulin.
 400 Inulin is known to form complex with whey proteins
 401 (Schaller-Povolny and Smith 2002). Therefore, it may be
 402 postulated that more interaction between inulin and whey
 403 proteins occurred at 2% inulin via hydrophobic interaction
 404 or Maillard reactions between amino groups and the reduc-
 405 ing groups of inulin during the emulsion production at

70 °C. This hampered protein-protein interaction in the 406
 aqueous phase resulting in the observed lower viscosity. 407

Characterization of the Microparticles 408

Figure 5 is a typical SEM microphotograph of the produced 409
 microparticles. The particles are mostly spherical with smooth 410
 surface and no visible large pores or fissures. These results 411
 indicate that the microparticles could have lower permeability 412
 to gases. However, the particle size distribution was very 413
 broad which is one of the drawbacks of the spray-drying tech- 414
 nology (Carneiro et al. 2013). Water activity (a_w) and moisture 415
 content are important indices for spray-dried powder since 416
 they can affect the powder shelf life. Generally, food with 417
 $a_w < 0.6$ is considered as microbiologically stable and if there 418
 is any spoilage occur, it is induced by chemical reactions rather 419
 than by microorganism. From the results (Table 3), the a_w 420

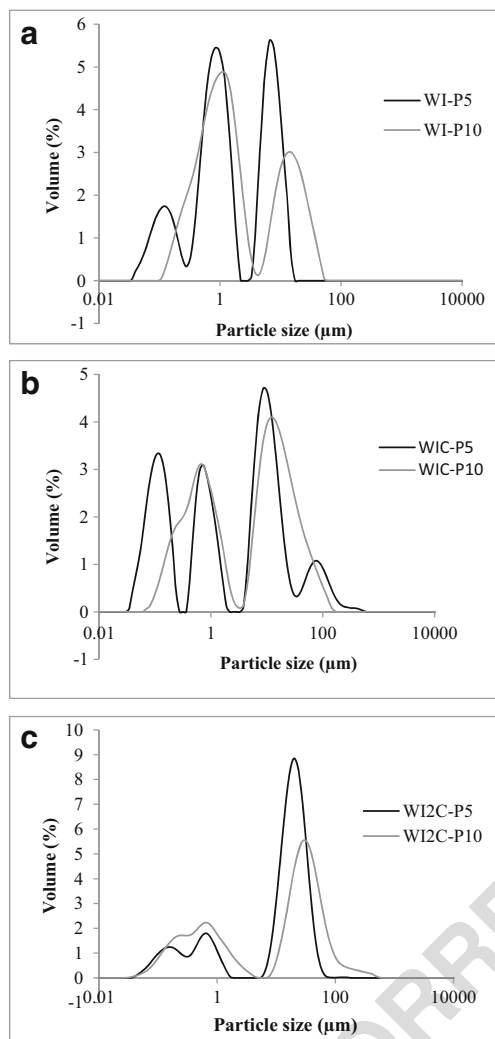


Fig. 3 Particle size distribution of emulsion WI-P5 and WI-P10 (a), WIC-P5 and WIC-P10 (b, d), and WI2C-P5 and WI2C-P10 (c)

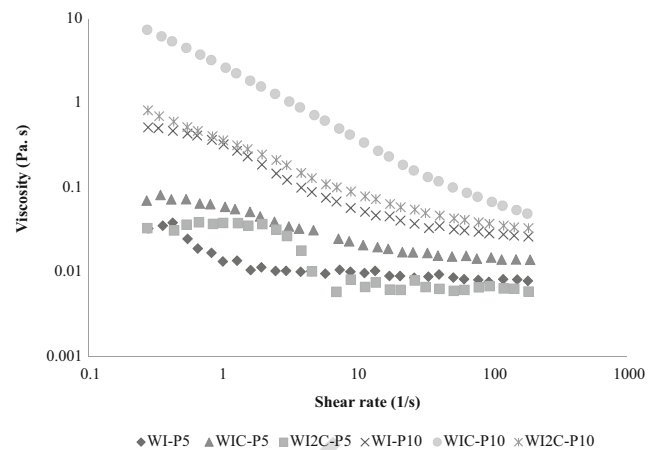


Fig. 4 Log-log plot of viscosity as function of share rate of the emulsion obtained from soybean oil, enriched with different phytosterol concentrations, inulin, and WPI in different concentrations, with or without chitosan

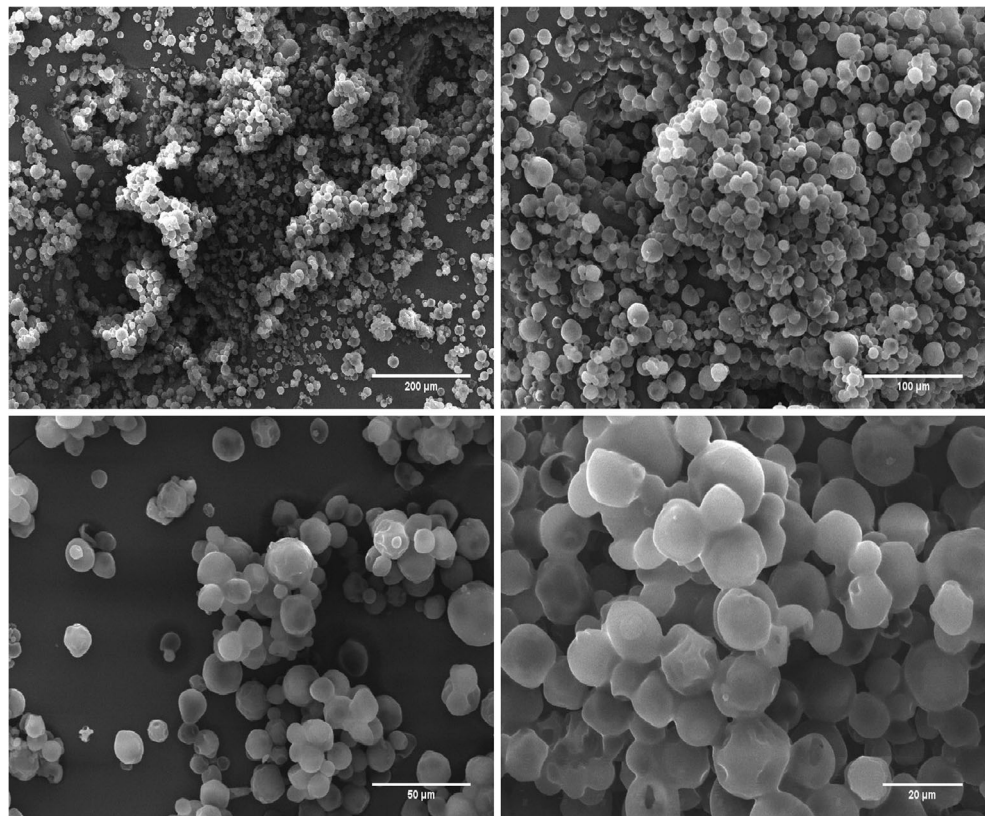
421 of the samples was in the range of 0.24–0.44. This means that
 422 the spray-dried powders produced were relatively microbio-
 423 logically stable. As shown in Table 4, the a_w of the powders
 424 significantly changed with spray-drying inlet air temperature
 425 ($p < 0.05$). Also, the coating formulation which is related to

the total solid concentration significantly affect the a_w value 426
 ($p < 0.05$). The lowest a_w value was found in powder 427
 produced by feeding spray dryer at 185 °C with the emulsion 428
 with the lowest total solid concentration, made by using from 429
 6.75% WPI and 1% inulin as core material and fortified soy- 430
 bean oil with 5% of phytosterols. The highest a_w was found in 431
 powder obtained by feeding spray dryer at 125 °C with the 432
 emulsion characterized by the highest total solid concentra- 433
 tion, produced with 6.75% WPI, 2% inulin, 0.125% chitosan 434
 as core material, and fortified soybean oil with 10% of phy- 435
 tosterols. Also, the phytosterol concentration affected the a_w 436
 and significantly lower value has been obtained for the formu- 437
 lation characterized by a higher phytosterol concentration 438
 ($p < 0.05$). The moisture of the microcapsules ranged from 439
 2.6 to 5% and was affected by the inlet air-drying tempera- 440
 tures, the formulation, and the phytosterol concentration 441
 ($p < 0.05$). Lower humidity values were found in powders 442
 produced by feeding spray dryer at 185 °C. The lowest mois- 443
 ture content value was found in powder produced by feeding 444
 spray dryer with the emulsion made by using from 6.75% 445
 WPI and 1% inulin as core material and fortified soybean oil 446
 with 5% of phytosterols. The highest moisture content value 447

Q4 t2.1 **Table 2** Rheological parameters, apparent viscosity, and particle size distribution for the feed suspensions produced with the different wall materials

t2.2	Feed suspension	Rheological parameters			Apparent viscosity at 145 s ⁻¹ (Pa.s)	Particle size distribution parameters			
		Consistency index, k (Pa.s ⁿ)	Flow behavior index, n	r ²		D[4.3] (μm) (mean ± SD)	d50 (μm) (mean ± SD)	d90 (μm) (mean ± SD)	Span (mean ± SD)
t2.4	WI-P5	0.017	0.807	0.976	8.144 * 10 ⁻³	3.554 ± 0.001	1.205 ± 0.001	9.666 ± 0.001	7.897 ± 0.004
t2.5	WI-P10	0.474	0.255	0.940	26.98* 10 ⁻³	5.779 ± 0.039	1.254 ± 0.005	18.498 ± 0.120	14.493 ± 0.044
t2.6	WIC-P5	0.027	0.638	0.924	14.09* 10 ⁻³	15.160 ± 0.508	2.606 ± 1.476	30.326 ± 5.084	13.167 ± 4.151
t2.7	WIC-P10	2.578	0.192	0.945	54.26* 10 ⁻³	30.913 ± 4.271	13.822 ± 2.365	80.073 ± 5.219	5.835 ± 0.600
t2.8	WI2C-P5	0.003	0.641	0.925	6.332* 10 ⁻³	15.290 ± 0.170	15.104 ± 0.142	30.364 ± 0.179	1.996 ± 0.008
t2.9	WI2C-P10	0.340	0.481	0.971	33.87* 10 ⁻³	26.281 ± 1.301	17.515 ± 0.328	56.662 ± 1.426	3.227 ± 0.028

Fig. 5 Microphotographs of particles produced at 185 °C utilizing formulation WI-P5 taken at ×250, ×500, ×1000, and ×2000



448 was found in powder obtained by feeding spray dryer with an
449 emulsion produced with 6.75% WPI, 2% inulin, 0.125%

chitosan as core material, and fortified soybean oil with 10%
of phytosterols. Also, the phytosterol concentration affected

450
451

t3.1 **Table 3** Characteristics of the generated microcapsules using different wall materials at different drying air temperatures

t3.2 Sample	Inlet drying temperatures (°C)	a_w	Moisture content (%)	Encapsulation efficiency of oil (%)	Surface oil (%)	Loading capacity (%)	Peroxide value (meq O ₂ /kg)	Real density (g/cm ³)	
t3.3	WI-P5	125	0.26 ± 0.00	4.3 ± 0.1	68 ± 5	17.33 ± 0.15	0.42 ± 0.01	29.66 ± 0.67	1.10 ± 0.00
t3.4		155	0.26 ± 0.02	3.3 ± 0.2	78 ± 7	14.70 ± 1.10	0.39 ± 0.01	34.27 ± 0.62	1.08 ± 0.00
t3.5		185	0.24 ± 0.02	2.6 ± 0.2	79 ± 2	12.46 ± 0.75	0.55 ± 0.01	41.16 ± 0.81	1.08 ± 0.00
t3.6	WI-P10	125	0.35 ± 0.02	4.8 ± 0.1	69 ± 4	18.39 ± 0.64	0.49 ± 0.01	41.49 ± 0.05	1.07 ± 0.00
t3.7		155	0.32 ± 0.01	4.2 ± 0.0	61 ± 3	16.43 ± 0.70	0.40 ± 0.01	43.94 ± 0.90	1.07 ± 0.00
t3.8		185	0.31 ± 0.02	4.0 ± 0.0	65 ± 1	13.74 ± 0.34	0.78 ± 0.02	45.51 ± 0.40	1.08 ± 0.00
t3.9	WIC-P5	125	0.38 ± 0.01	4.6 ± 0.0	71 ± 0	18.87 ± 0.09	0.51 ± 0.01	56.89 ± 1.43	1.06 ± 0.00
t3.10		155	0.38 ± 0.01	4.1 ± 0.0	76 ± 2	15.69 ± 0.33	0.48 ± 0.01	58.01 ± 0.74	1.03 ± 0.00
t3.11		185	0.28 ± 0.01	3.7 ± 0.0	79 ± 0	13.97 ± 0.69	0.50 ± 0.00	62.51 ± 3.99	1.07 ± 0.00
t3.12	WIC-P5	125	0.40 ± 0.01	4.8 ± 0.0	73 ± 2	18.43 ± 0.62	0.64 ± 0.00	62.42 ± 0.35	1.10 ± 0.00
t3.13		155	0.38 ± 0.02	4.4 ± 0.0	66 ± 1	17.66 ± 0.31	0.85 ± 0.01	81.97 ± 2.63	1.08 ± 0.00
t3.14		185	0.32 ± 0.02	4.2 ± 0.0	74 ± 4	15.42 ± 0.68	0.95 ± 0.01	101.74 ± 4.18	1.07 ± 0.00
t3.15	WI2C-P5	125	0.41 ± 0.01	5.0 ± 0.0	69 ± 0	16.92 ± 0.71	0.54 ± 0.03	44.50 ± 0.77	1.10 ± 0.00
t3.16		155	0.42 ± 0.01	4.5 ± 0.0	72 ± 2	15.20 ± 0.33	0.53 ± 0.01	49.68 ± 0.47	1.08 ± 0.00
t3.17		185	0.40 ± 0.01	4.3 ± 0.0	76 ± 1	13.96 ± 0.01	0.54 ± 0.04	60.89 ± 4.07	1.09 ± 0.00
t3.18	WI2C-P10	125	0.44 ± 0.01	5.2 ± 0.0	80 ± 0	13.43 ± 0.72	0.94 ± 0.01	60.07 ± 1.23	1.10 ± 0.00
t3.19		155	0.37 ± 0.02	4.6 ± 0.0	83 ± 0	11.49 ± 0.71	0.86 ± 0.01	67.72 ± 5.59	1.09 ± 0.00
t3.20		185	0.37 ± 0.01	4.5 ± 0.0	85 ± 1	9.68 ± 0.34	0.85 ± 0.06	69.41 ± 0.82	1.09 ± 0.04

Results are expressed as mean ± SD

Table 4 Characteristics of the generated microcapsules taking into account three different formulations, two phytosterol concentrations, and three inlet drying temperatures

Factors		Loading capacity (%)		Encapsulation efficiency (%)		a_w	Moisture content(%)		Peroxide value (meq O ₂ /kg)		
		<i>p</i>		<i>p</i>		<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>		<i>p</i>		
Formulation	WI	< 0.005	0.50 ^a		70 ^b	0.29 ^c		3.9 ^c		39.34 ^c	
	WIC		0.66 ^b	< 0.005	73 ^b	< 0.005	0.36 ^b	< 0.005	4.3 ^b	< 0.005	58.71 ^b
	WI2C		0.71 ^c		77 ^a		0.40 ^a		4.7 ^a		70.59 ^c
Phytosterol concentration	P5	< 0.005	0.50 ^a	n.s.	73 ^a	< 0.005	0.34 ^b	< 0.005	4.1 ^b	< 0.005	48.62 ^b
	P10		0.71 ^b		74 ^a		0.36 ^a		4.5 ^a		63.81 ^a
Inlet air drying temperatures (°C)	125 °C	< 0.005	0.59 ^a		72 ^b		0.32 ^b		3.9 ^c		49.18 ^c
	155 °C		0.59 ^a	< 0.005	73 ^b	< 0.005	0.36 ^a	< 0.005	4.2 ^b	< 0.005	55.93 ^b
	185 °C		0.70 ^b		76 ^a		0.37 ^a		4.8 ^a		63.53 ^c

For each column, means with different superscript letters are significantly different (LSD test at $p < 0.05$)

the a_w and significantly lower value has been obtained for the formulation characterized by a higher phytosterol concentration ($p < 0.05$).

Encapsulation Yield and Encapsulation Efficiency

Encapsulation yield and encapsulation efficiency are key aspects that must be considered in microencapsulation process. The yield of microcapsules produced by spray drying depends on the experimental conditions (inlet air temperature, flow rate, and compressed air flow). In the present study, the microcapsules' yield ranged from 38.6 to 67.57% (Fig. 6) and mainly influenced by the inlet air temperature. Increased product yield was obtained with an increase in inlet air temperature from 125 to 185 °C, which can be attributed to the greater efficiency of heat and mass transfer processes and to decrease of the powder moisture and stickiness that resulted in a reduced adhesion on the inner surface of the drying chamber. This is in agreement with the results published by Cai and Corke (2000) and Tonon et al. (2008). The encapsulation

efficiency (EE%) is commonly determined indirectly by extracting the non-encapsulated oil present on the surface of microcapsules through washing powders with an organic solvent (Velasco et al. 2003). The presence of free oil influences adversely the physical properties of spray-dried powders; in particular, it could induce more rapid lipid oxidation (Bae and Lee 2008). The surface oil contents were in the range of 9.68–18.78% whereas the EE % were from 51.28 to 86.03% (Table 2). The highest encapsulation efficiency was found for the formulation WI2C-P10 with the highest total solid content and was significantly related to the inlet air drying temperatures. Also, Jafari et al. (2008b) have found that the total solid concentration had a positive effect on the encapsulation efficiency. This could be explained by the kinetics of crust formation at the surface of the droplet. A higher solid content increases the rate of the crust formation, reducing the diffusion of the oil to the drying particle surface. This is supported by the decrease in the quantity of surface oil with the increased of the inlet air drying temperatures. These findings corroborate the results from the study of inlet air temperature on the microencapsulation of flaxseed oil by spray drying (Tonon et al. 2008).

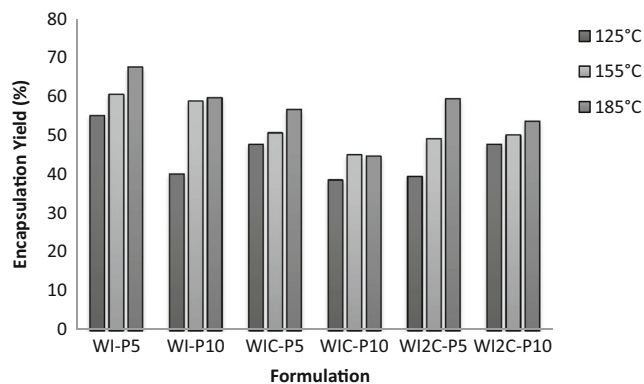
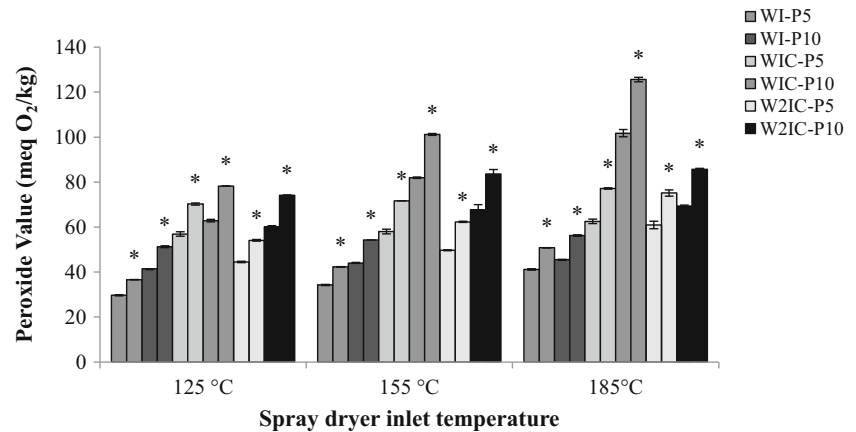


Fig. 6 Encapsulation yield (%) of powder obtained by different formulations at different inlet drying temperatures (°C)

Peroxide Value

The evaluation of the lipid oxidation in microencapsulated oils is important because it results in loss of nutritional value and development of undesirable reactions. The oxidative stability of the encapsulated soybean oil was evaluated by measuring the peroxide value immediately after drying and after 5 months of storage at 4 °C. Figure 7 shows peroxide values between 29.63 and 101.7 meq O₂/kg of oil with higher values obtained from microcapsules formulated with higher phytosterol concentration (10% w/w when compared to 5% w/w) or spray dried at higher inlet air temperature. High oxidation values

Fig. 7 Peroxide values (meq O_2/kg) of phytosterol microcapsules prepared with different formulations at different inlet drying temperatures, during storage at 4 °C in a refrigerator



*after 5 months of storage

503 were also observed in the controls, obtained without adding
 504 phytosterols in the oily phase. These values ranged from 32.85
 505 to 51.60 meq O_2/kg of oil at t_0 and from 40.67 to 62.72 meq
 506 O_2/kg of oil at t_1 . Therefore, it was assumed that this increase
 507 could also be attributed to the oxidation of the oil. After
 508 5 months, as expected, there was a sharp increase in the oxida-
 509 tion rate of the microcapsules obtained from all the emul-
 510 sions with peroxide values in the range of 36.63–125.6 meq
 511 O_2/kg of oil. These higher values of peroxide were unexpected
 512 and are very different from those presented in the literature.
 513 Carneiro et al. (2013) reported a peroxide value ranging from
 514 6.12 to 8.77 meq O_2/kg oil for flaxseed oil microencapsulated
 515 using different wall materials. Significantly lower values were
 516 also reported by Bae and Lee (2008). These researchers eval-
 517 uated the oxidative stability of avocado oil microencapsulated
 518 by spray-drying technique, using maltodextrin and WPI as
 519 wall material. Similarly, Partanen et al. (2008), evaluating
 520 the effect of storage conditions on the oxidative stability of
 521 flaxseed oil encapsulated by spray drying using WPI as wall
 522 material, have reported a very low lipidic oxidation in the
 523 encapsulated samples. Given that there was no significant dif-
 524 ference between the density of all that samples and that the
 525 microcapsules were spherical and smooth with no apparent
 526 pores, the high level of oxidation observed in this study could
 527 be attributed to the following conditions: (1) the high temper-
 528 ature (70 °C) in combination with a high shear mixing in-
 529 volved in the production of the emulsions, which may have
 530 initiated and accelerated the oxidation; (2) the oil extraction
 531 made with Soxhlet apparatus with exposure of the microcap-
 532 sules at 60 °C for 5.5 h; (3) the presence of phytosterols which
 533 might have acted as a pro-oxidant, resulting in the increase in
 534 the oil oxidation rate as demonstrated by Winkler and Warner
 535 (2008) with 1 and 2.5% phytosterols added to heated stripped
 536 soybean oil; and (4) the combination of (1), (2), and (3). These
 537 conditions will be investigated in further studies. The hypoth-
 538 esis (3) could also confirm that of Yoshida and Niki (2003)

539 who suggested a possible pro-oxidant effect of some
 540 hystosterols, such as stigmasterol. Based on the abovementioned
 541 literature, it could be speculated that the combination
 542 of high emulsification temperature with the pro-oxidant effect
 543 of phytosterols at relatively low concentration might have sig-
 544 nificantly contributed to the observed high oxidation of the
 545 encapsulated samples. Moreover, it is to be excluded that high
 546 oxidation value observed in this study could be correlated with
 547 a high value of unencapsulated oil as reported by other re-
 548 searchers (Bae and Lee 2008; Tonon et al. 2011). The surface
 549 oil values observed in this study ranged between 9.68 and
 550 18.78% and were comparable with those presented in the lit-
 551 erature. In fact, the surface oil reported by Bae and Lee (2008)
 552 was in the range of 11.39–15.75%, with a level of peroxide
 553 value always lower than 5 meq O_2/kg of oil both at t_0 and after
 554 8 weeks of storage at 4 or 25 °C.

Loading Capacity

555 The amount of loaded phytosterols was determined using the
 556 Liebermann-Burchard reaction, often used for the steroid deter-
 557 mination. Sterols react with strong acids to give colored prod-
 558 ucts. The linearity of the method was established using phytos-
 559 terol standard solution. The analytical curve showed a Pearson
 560 regression coefficient (R^2) of 0.9847. Loading capacity, obtain-
 561 ed by the ratio between the phytosterols concentration and the
 562 mass of the powder collected, ranged from 0.39 to 0.95%. The
 563 results showed a significant effect of the formulation and the
 564 air-drying temperatures. As expected, the LC% increased as a
 565 function of initial phytosterol content in the emulsion. The
 566 presence of chitosan and higher inulin concentration in the
 567 emulsions formulation resulted in the increase in the loading
 568 capacity. Again, this could be explained by the relatively high
 569 viscosity of this formulation, which resulted in a reduced oil
 570 migration to the surface at early stages of the drying, thus im-
 571 proving the encapsulation and loading efficiency.
 572

573 **Conclusion**

574 WPI-inulin-chitosan microcapsules containing phytosterols
 575 solubilized in soybean oil were successfully produced. The
 576 resultant microparticles were spherical and uniform, with an
 577 average size lower than 50 μm . A significant effect of the
 578 formulation, the phytosterol concentration, and of the inlet
 579 air-drying temperature on the microcapsules properties was
 580 found. An oil encapsulation efficiency of 85% with phytoster-
 581 ol loading of 0.95 g/g of powder was achieved. However,
 582 although a lower level of surface oil was obtained, the perox-
 583 ide values of the microcapsules were unexpectedly relatively
 584 high even just after the production. It was hypothesized that a
 585 combination of high temperature emulsification and the pro-
 586 oxidant capacity of phytoestorols could be the main contribu-
 587 tor to this high oil oxidation. This hypothesis will be investi-
 588 gated in further studies.

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AUTHOR QUERIES

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