

รายงานวิจัยฉบับสมบูรณ์

โครงการ การพัฒนาผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งของไทยให้ทนต่อการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย

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สนับสนุนโดยสำนักงานกองทุนสนับสนุนการวิจัย

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กิตติกรรมประกาศ

งานวิจัยการพัฒนาผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งของไทยให้ทนต่อการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายสำเร็จลุล่วง ไปได้ด้วยดีจากการสนับสนุนทุนพัฒนานักวิจัย ของสำนักงานกองทุนสนับสนุนการวิจัย ผู้วิจัยจึงใคร่ ขอขอบคุณมา ณ ที่นี้ ขอขอบคุณผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร. น้ำฝน ลำดับวงศ์ ภาควิชาเทคโนโลยีและการบรรจุ คณะอุตสาหกรรมเกษตร ที่ให้ความอนุเคราะห์ในการใช้เครื่อง high performance size exclusion chromatography ขอขอบคุณบุคลากร นิสิตปริญญาโท-เอก และภาควิชาวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยีการ อาหาร คณะอุตสาหกรรมเกษตร มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์ ที่ให้ความช่วยเหลือ อำนวยความสะดวกและ สนับสนุนอุปกรณ์และเครื่องมือในการวิจัย

> รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร. สงวนศรี เจริญเหรียญ 15 มิถุนายน 2557

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บทคัดย่อ

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ชื่อโครงการ การพัฒนาผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งของไทยให้ทนต่อการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย ชื่อนักวิจัยและสถาบัน รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร. สงวนศรี เจริญเหรียญ ภาควิชาวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี การอาหาร คณะอุตสาหกรรมเกษตร มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์

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งานวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาการเปลี่ยนแปลงด้านเนื้อสัมผัสของผลไม้ไทยจากการแช่เยือกแข็ง และทำละลาย เพื่อเป็นข้อมูลในการพัฒนาให้ผลไม้ไทยทนต่อการแช่เยือกแข็ง โดยในงานวิจัยได้ศึกษาการ เปลี่ยนแปลงใน 3 ระดับ คือ ระดับเนื้อเยื่อ (การวัดเนื้อสัมผัส) ระดับเซลล์ (การตรวจสอบโครงสร้างของเซลล์ ้ด้วยกล้องจุลทรรศน์) และระดับโมเลกุล (การวิเคราะห์องค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์และการกระจายตัวของมวล โมเลกุล) โดยใช้มะม่วงและมะละกอเป็นตัวแทนผลไม้ไทย ผลการทดลอง พบว่า ทั้งมะม่วงและมะละกอให้ผล คล้ายคลึงกัน คือ ระดับความสุกและพันธุ์มีผลต่อเนื้อสัมผัสของผลไม้ เมื่อระดับความสุกเพิ่มขึ้น ความแน่นเนื้อ ของมะม่วงและมะละกอลดลง เมื่อนำตัวอย่างมะม่วงและมะละกอไปแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย พบว่า ความ แน่นเนื้อลดลงจากก่อนแช่เยือกแข็งอย่างมาก สอดคล้องกับการเปลี่ยนแปลงของเซลล์และผนังเซลล์ซึ่ง ตรวจสอบด้วยจุลทรรศน์แบบแลงส่องผ่านและกล้องจุลทรรศน์อิเล็กตรอนแบบสองผ่าน พบว่า เซลล์เกิดการฉีก ขาดมากขึ้น ผนังเซลล์เกิดการบวมและพับทบไปมา และมีการสลายของมิดเดิลลาเมลลาที่บริเวณผนังเซลล์ การเปลี่ยนความแน่นเนื้อและลักษณะเซลล์เกิดมากขึ้นเมื่อระดับความสุกเพิ่มขึ้น และเมื่อมีการแช่เยือกแข็งและ ละลายน้ำแข็งซ้ำ ส่วนการเปลี่ยนแปลงองค์ประกอบผนังเซลล์ในระดับโมเลกุล พบว่า การแช่เยือกแข็งและทำ ละลายมีผลทำให้ปริมาณเพคตินที่ละลายน้ำเพิ่มขึ้นเมื่อเทียบกับตัวอย่างก่อนการแช่เยือกแข็ง นอกจากนี้ โมเลกุลเพคตินที่ละลายน้ำได้ยังมีลักษณะการกระจายตัวของมวลโมเลกุลต่างไปด้วย คือ พีคที่แสดงถึงโมเลกุล ขนาดยาวที่ออกมาในช่วงแรกมีขนาดเล็กลง และมีพีคที่ออกมาในช่วงหลังเพิ่มขึ้นซึ่งแสดงถึงการแตกตัวของ สายโมเลกุล สำหรับในมะละกอ พบการแตกตัวของโมเลกุลเฮมิเซลลูโลสด้วย ผลการการวิเคราะห์เอนไซม์ที่ เกี่ยวข้องกับการสลายของผนังเซลล์ พบว่า เอนไซม์เหล่านี้ยังคงมีกิจกรรมอยู่หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำ ละลาย ดังนั้นจึงอาจสรุปได้ว่า สาเหตุการเปลี่ยนแปลงเนื้อสัมผัสของผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งเกิดจาก (1) ผลึกน้ำแข็ง ้ที่เกิดขึ้นในระหว่างการแช่เยือกแข็งซึ่งทำให้เกิดการฉีกขาดของเซลล์ ทำให้เมื่อทำละลายเซลล์ไม่สามารถเก็บ กักน้ำหรือของเหลวในเซลล์ได้ ทำให้สูญเสียความเต่ง และเนื้อเยื่อผลไม้นิ่มเละ และ (2) เอนไซม์ที่สลาย เพคตินและเฮมิเซลลูโลส ซึ่งยังคงมีกิจกรรมเหลืออยู่หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย จากงานวิจัยต่อยอด พบว่า สามารถลดการเปลี่ยนแปลงเนื้อสัมผัสของมะม่วงพันธุ์น้ำดอกไม้แช่เยือกแข็งได้โดยการใช้ชิ้นมะม่วงที่มี ความสุกระดับยังไม่สุกเต็มที่แช่ในสารละลายน้ำตาลซูโครส 50% ผสมแคลเซียมแลคเตด 1% เป็นเวลา 1 ชั่วโมง ก่อนนำไปแช่เยือกแข็ง

<u>คำหลัก</u>: มะม่วง มะละกอ การแช่เยือกแข็ง เนื้อสัมผัส ผนังเซลล์

ABSTRACT

Project Code: RSA 5480020

Project Title: Improving Thai frozen fruits to resist freeze-thaw process

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The objective of this research was to investigate the effect of freezing and thawing on textural properties of Thai fruits at tissue (determination of texture), cellular (viewing by microscope) and molecular (determination cell wall composition and its molecular mass distribution) levels. Mango and papaya were selected as representatives of Thai fruits. Both fruits gave similar results. Ripening stages and cultivars affected fruit texture. During ripening, firmness significantly decreased. Frozen-thawed mango and papaya exhibited lower firmness which corresponding to changes of cellular and cell wall investigated using light and transmission electron microscopy. Frozen-thawed mango and papaya exhibited a swelling and folding of the cell wall as well as loss of cell wall materials in the middle lamella. These changes were more obvious with increasing ripen stage and freeze-thaw cycles. Changes at molecular level as determined by high performance size exclusion chromatography showed that there was a decrease in the molecular mass of pectic and hemicellulose polymers in frozen-thawed fruits which indicated that these molecules were subjected to depolymerization. Determination of cell wall degrading enzyme activity in frozen-thawed mango and papaya disclosed that these enzymes were reactive again after thawing. It can be concluded that the cause of changes in texture of frozen-thawed fruits were (1) ice crystal formation during freezing which damaged the fruit cells. As the cells were unable to hold the liquid inside, the cells and tissues irreversibly lost its turgor and were softening, and (2) cell wall degrading enzyme activity during and after thawing. Using this information, the experiment for improving the texture of frozen mango was designed. The results showed that using mango at ripening stage of partially ripe with immersion in 50% sucrose and 1% calcium lactate solution for 1 hr before freezing would reduce the softening of the frozen-thawed mango.

Keywords: mango, papaya, freezing, texture, cell wall

บทน้ำ

ประเทศไทยนับเป็นประเทศที่มีศักยภาพสูงในการผลิตผลไม้เมืองร้อน ผลไม้ไทยมีลักษณะรูปร่าง เนื้อ สัมผัส รสชาติ เป็นเอกลักษณ์เฉพาะตัวที่เป็นที่ชื่นชอบของทั้งชาวไทยและชาวต่างประเทศ นอกจากนี้ผู้บริโภค ในปัจจุบันยังให้ความสำคัญต่อสุขภาพและคุณค่าทางโภชนาการของอาหาร ทำให้มีความต้องการผักและผลไม้ เพื่อบริโภคเพิ่มสูงขึ้นกว่าในอดีต อย่างไรก็ตามผลไม้ของไทยยังเป็นผลผลิตทางการเกษตรที่ให้ผลผลิตออก ตามฤดูกาลจึงมักประสบปัญหาภาวะลันตลาด มีราคาต่ำ และเกิดการสูญเสียเป็นจำนวนมากในแต่ละปี เนื่องจากมีผลิตผลออกสู่ตลาดเป็นจำนวนมากในเวลาเดียวกันและมีอายุการเก็บรักษาสั้น ดังนั้นการยืดอายุการ เก็บรักษาผลไม้ไทยโดยการแปรรูปจึงเป็นสิ่งที่ควรสนับสนุน เพราะนอกจากจะลดการสูญเสียแล้วยังเป็นการ เพิ่มโอกาสทางการตลาด เพิ่มมูลค่าแก่ผลิตผลทางเกษตร และเพิ่มรายได้ให้แก่เกษตรกรและประเทศชาติอีก ทางหนึ่งด้วย

ในปัจจุบันมีการผลิตผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งเพิ่มขึ้น เนื่องจากเป็นกระบวนการแปรรูปที่ไม่ทำให้กลิ่น รสชาติ ลักษณะ และคุณค่าทางโภชนาการเปลี่ยนแปลงมากเหมือนการแปรรูปแบบอื่น นอกจากนี้ยังสามารถเก็บได้ นานถึง 6-12 เดือน และสามารถนำมาบริโภคได้ทันทีโดยไม่ต้องผ่านขั้นตอนการเตรียม เช่น การปอกและหั่นที่ เสียเวลา อย่างไรก็ตามเนื่องจากผลไม้สดมีน้ำเป็นองค์ประกอบหลักอยู่ถึง 80-90% เมื่อผ่านการแช่เยือกแข็งจึง เกิดผลึกน้ำแข็งจำนวนมาก ทำให้ผนังเซลล์และเนื้อเยื่อของผลไม้ได้รับความเสียหาย เมื่อนำมาทำละลายผลไม้ จะมีคุณภาพลดลงโดยเฉพาะลักษณะเนื้อสัมผัส ดังนั้นหากสามารถลดการเปลี่ยนแปลงเนื้อสัมผัสหรือการนิ่ม เละของผลไม้ไทยหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย จะเป็นการช่วยขยายตลาดผลไม้ไทยทั้งภายในและ ต่างประเทศได้เป็นอย่างมาก อย่างไรก็ตาม การจะปรับปรุงให้ผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งมีเนื้อสัมผัสที่ดีขึ้นจำเป็น จะต้องอาศัยความรู้ความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับการเปลี่ยนแปลงของผลไม้ในระหว่างการแช่เยือกแข็งและการทำละลาย ในระดับเนื้อเยื่อ ระดับเซลล์ และระดับโมเลกุล ตลอดจนความเชื่อมโยงผลเหล่านี้กับพันธุ์ของผลไม้ เพื่อเป็น องค์ความรู้ที่จะช่วยเอื้อแก่นักปรับปรุงพันธุ์ เพื่อสร้างพันธุ์ที่เหมาะสมแก่การแช่เยือกแข็งในอนาคต

จากอดีตจนถึงปัจจุบันมีงานวิจัยจากนักวิจัยหลายกลุ่มที่สนใจศึกษาเกี่ยวกับผลของการแช่เยือกแข็งต่อ ลักษณะเนื้อสัมผัสผลไม้

<u>กลุ่มแรก</u> ศึกษาผลของอัตราเร็วในการแช่เยือกแข็งต่อเนื้อสัมผัสและโครงสร้างระดับจุลภาคของผลไม้ เช่น Sousa และคณะ (2006) ศึกษาผลของอัตราการแช่เยือกแข็งที่อุณหภูมิ -18, -24, -40 และ -80° ซ ต่อเนื้อ สัมผัสของราสเบอรี่และแบล็คเบอรี่ พบว่าการแช่เยือกแข็งด้วยในโตรเจนเหลวที่อุณหภูมิ -40° ซ สามารถรักษา เนื้อสัมผัสของผลไม้ทั้งสองชนิดได้ดีเมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับผลราสเบอรี่และแบล็คเบอรี่สด ทั้งนี้เนื่องจากการแช่ เยือกแข็งอุณหภูมิดังกล่าวเกิดผลึกน้ำแข็งขนาดเล็กจำนวนมากทั้งภายในและภายนอกของเซลล์ ซึ่ง Van Bergenhout และคณะ (2008) ที่ศึกษาผลของอัตราการแช่เยือกแข็งต่อโครงสร้างระดับจุลภาคของสตรอเบอรี่ แช่เยือกแข็งก็ให้ผลคล้ายคลึงกัน จะเห็นได้นักวิจัยกลุ่มนี้มาจากหลากหลายประเทศและคัดเลือกผลไม้ที่จะ ศึกษาแตกต่างกัน ทำให้ขาดความเชื่อมโยงของผลการศึกษาในแต่ละระดับ

<u>กลุ่มที่สอง</u> ศึกษาการเปลี่ยนแปลงขององค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์ของผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็ง ซึ่งยังมี การศึกษาไม่มากนัก ได้แก่ Simandjuntak และคณะ (1996) ศึกษาโดยใช้แตง muskmelon เป็นตัวอย่าง พบว่า การแช่เยือกแข็งมีผลต่อองค์ประกอบของสารพอลิแซ็คคาไรด์ของผนังเซลล์ ส่วน Chassagne-Berces และ คณะ (2009) ศึกษาการเปลี่ยนแปลงผนังเซลล์ในแอปเปิ้ลแช่เยือกแข็ง พบว่าหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งผลไม้ องค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์มีสัดส่วนเปลี่ยนแปลงไป ซึ่งชี้ให้เห็นว่าองค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์มีสมบัติการ ละลายและสายพอลีเมอร์เปลี่ยนแปลงไปหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย อย่างไรก็ตามการเปลี่ยนแปลงของ ผนังเซลล์ผลไม้หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งมีงานวิจัยค่อนข้างน้อย

กลุ่มที่สาม นักวิจัยกลุ่มนี้ไม่ได้ศึกษาในผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งแต่ศึกษาในผลไม้สด โดยศึกษาผลของ กิจกรรมของเอนไซม์ชนิดต่าง ๆ ต่อการเปลี่ยนแปลงของเนื้อสัมผัสและโครงสร้างของผนังเซลล์ในระหว่างการ สุกของผลไม้ Vicente และคณะ (2007) พบว่าในช่วงการสุกของผลไม้ boysenberry เพคตินในผนังเซลล์มี ขนาดโมเลกุลสั้นลง และสมบัติในการละลายเพิ่มขึ้น ซึ่งสัมพันธ์กับกิจกรรมของเอนไซม์ pectin methylesterase และ polygalacturonase ในขณะที่ Abu-Goukh และ Bashir (2003) พบว่าในขณะที่ผลฝรั่งสุก กิจกรรมของเอนไซม์ cellulase เพิ่มสูงขึ้น และไปย่อยโครงสร้างระหว่าง cellulose-hemicellulose ทำให้ความ แน่นเนื้อของฝรั่งสุกลดลง อย่างไรก็ตามจากการสำรวจเอกสารยังไม่พบงานวิจัยที่ศึกษากิจกรรมของเอนไซม์ที่ มีผลต่อเนื้อสัมผัสหรือผนังเซลล์ของผลไม้ในระหว่างการแช่เยือกแข็งและการทำละลาย

งานวิจัยที่กล่าวมาข้างต้นล้วนแต่เป็นงานวิจัยจากต่างประเทศ สำหรับงานวิจัยเกี่ยวกับผลไม้แช่เยือก แข็งของไทยนั้นเท่าที่ตรวจเอกสารพบว่ายังมีการศึกษาและตีพิมพ์เผยแพร่ค่อนข้างน้อย กลุ่มวิจัยที่มีการศึกษา อย่างเป็นระบบ ได้แก่ คณะวิจัยของ ศ.ดร.นิธิยา รัตนาปนนท์ และ รศ.ดร. รัตนา อัตตาปัญญา (2550) ซึ่ง ศึกษาหาระดับความสุกที่เหมาะสมของมะม่วงมหาชนกและโชคอนันต์ในการนำมาผลิตมะม่วงแช่เยือกแข็ง และ ศึกษาปริมาณแคโรทีนอยด์ในตัวอย่างตลอดจนศึกษาผลของการยับยั้งกิจกรรมของเอนไซม์ที่มีผลต่อปริมาณ แคโรทีนอยด์และการเกิดสีน้ำตาลในชิ้นมะม่วงแช่เยือกแข็ง งานวิจัยดังกล่าวเน้นทางด้านคุณค่าทางโภชนาการ (แคโรทีนอยด์) และสีของชิ้นมะม่วงเป็นหลัก

นอกจากนี้ยังมีงานวิจัยของ ศรีสุวรรณ (2533) ศึกษาผลของการแช่สารละลายแคลเซียมคลอไรด์ต่อ คุณภาพของเงาะและลิ้นจี่แช่เยือกแข็ง ซึ่งพบว่าการแช่สารละลายแคลเซียมคลอไรด์ทำให้ความแน่นเนื้อ เพิ่มขึ้น และงานวิจัยของ ประภาพรรณ (2545) ศึกษาปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อกระบวนการผลิตขนุนแช่เยือกแข็ง ซึ่ง พบว่าการแช่สารละลายแคลเซียมคลอไรด์ช่วยเพิ่มความแน่นเนื้อของขนุนแช่เยือกแข็งได้

แนวคิดในงานวิจัยนี้ คือ ชนิดและพันธุ์ของผลไม้มีผลต่อการเปลี่ยนแปลงของลักษณะเนื้อสัมผัสผลไม้ แช่เยือกแข็งทั้งในระดับเนื้อเยื่อ ระดับเซลล์ และระดับโมเลกุล ดังนั้นในงานวิจัยนี้จึงวางแผนศึกษา (1) องค์ประกอบของมะม่วง และมะละกอ (เป็นตัวแทนของผลไม้ไทย) ได้แก่ ปริมาณน้ำตาล กรด สารประกอบ เพคติน และเอนไซม์ต่างๆ ที่มีผลต่อการเปลี่ยนแปลงของผนังเซลล์ โดยจะศึกษาผลไม้ทั้งสองที่ระดับความสุก ต่าง ๆ ทั้งก่อนและหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย (2) การเปลี่ยนแปลงของผลไม้เหล่านี้หลังการแช่เยือก แข็งและทำละลายในระดับเนื้อเยื่อ (ลักษณะเนื้อสัมผัส) ระดับเซลล์ (โครงสร้างของเซลล์จากกล้องจุลทรรศน์) และระดับโมเลกุล (องค์ประกอบของเพกติน และผนังเซลล์) และ (3) นำผลที่ได้จากข้อ 1 และ 2 มาประมวล เพื่อเป็นข้อมูลองค์ประกอบหลักที่มีอิทธิพลในการเปลี่ยนแปลงลักษณะเนื้อสัมผัสของผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งทั้งสอง ซึ่งข้อมูลดังกล่าวจะมีประโยชน์แก่อุตสาหกรรมผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งของไทยที่จะคัดเลือกพันธุ์ที่เหมาะสมในการ นำมาแปรรูปด้วยการแช่เยือกแข็ง นอกจากนี้ข้อมูลดังกล่าวจะเป็นประโยชน์อย่างยิ่งแก่นักปรับปรุงพันธุ์ในการ คัดเลือก/ปรับปรุงพันธุ์ผลไม้ให้ทนต่อการเปลี่ยนแปลงจากการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายได้

วิธีการทดลอง

โครงการวิจัยนี้แบ่งการทดลองออกเป็น 6 ส่วนดังนี้

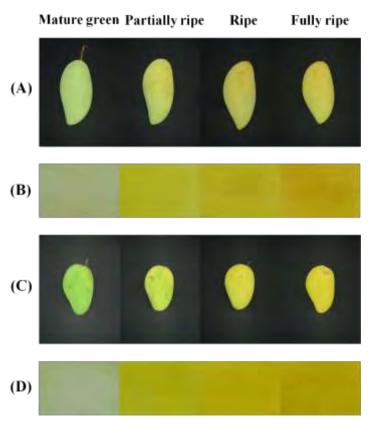
- 1. วิเคราะห์องค์ประกอบและสมบัติของมะม่วงและมะละกอที่ระดับความสุกต่าง ๆ องค์ประกอบที่ศึกษา ได้แก่ ปริมาณของแข็งที่ละลายได้ทั้งหมด ปริมาณกรดและความชื้นตามวิธีของ AOAC (1995) สมบัติของตัวอย่างที่ศึกษา คือ เนื้อสัมผัส วิเคราะห์ด้วยเครื่องวิเคราะห์เนื้อสัมผัส (texture analyzer) และค่า สีในระบบ CIE LAB โดยวัดเป็นค่า L*, a* และ b* ด้วยเครื่อง UltraScan XE (HunterLab)
- 2. ศึกษาผลของระดับความสุกต่อคุณภาพของมะม่วงและมะละกอแช่เยือกแข็ง คุณภาพที่ศึกษาได้แก่ องค์ประกอบของผลไม้ โดยศึกษาปริมาณปริมาณของแข็งที่ละลายได้ทั้งหมด ปริมาณกรดและ ความชื้นตามวิธีของ AOAC (1995) องค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์และเพกตินตามวิธีของ McFeeters and Armstrong (1984) และคุณภาพทางกายภาพ ได้แก่ ปริมาณน้ำปริมาณน้ำที่สูญเสียหลังการ ละลาย (drip loss) ตามวิธีของ Lowithun and Charoenrein (2009) และเนื้อสัมผัสด้วยเครื่องวิเคราะห์ เนื้อสัมผัส (Texture Analyzer) และ การประเมินทางประสาทสัมผัสด้วยผู้ทดสอบ
- 3. ศึกษาการเปลี่ยนแปลงในระดับเซลล์ของเนื้อเยื่อม่ะม่วงและมะละกอจากการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย ด้วยกล้องจุลทรรศน์แบบใช้แสง (light microscope: Leica DME, Leica Microsystems Inc., USA) และกล้องจุลทรรศน์อิเล็กตรอนแบบส่องผ่าน (transmission electron microscope: JEOL-JEM-1220 TEM, JEOL Ltd., Japan)
- 4. ศึกษาการเปลี่ยนแปลงในระดับโมเลกุลขององค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์ของม่ะม่วงและมะละกอจากการ แช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายโดยการสกัดผนังเซลล์และเพกตินและนำมาวิเคราะห์การกระจายตัวของมวล โมเลกุลของเพคติน ตามวิธีของ Phothiset and Charoenrein (2014) ด้วยเครื่อง high performance size exclusion chromatography ซึ่งประกอบด้วย ปั๊ม (Waters 600) เครื่องขจัดแก๊ส (degasser) เครื่องฉีดสารตัวอย่าง (injector) เครื่องตรวจชนิดของสารแบบวัดการหักเหของแสง (differential refractive index detector, Waters 410) และคอลัมน์ ซึ่งประกอบด้วย คอลัมน์ปกป้อง (guard column; Shodex OH SB-G), คอลัมน์ที่ 1 (Shodex OHpak SB-806M HQ และคอลัมน์ที่ 2 (Shodex OHpak SB-804 HQ)
- 5. ศึกษากิจกรรมของเอนไซม์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับเพกตินและเซลลูโลสในมะม่วงและมะละกอทั้งก่อนละหลังการ แช่เยือกแข็งและละลาย เอนไซม์ที่สกัดและศึกษากิจกรรม ได้แก่ polygalacturonase ตามวิธีของ Abu-Bakr and Bashir (2003), pectinmethylesterase ตามวิธีของ Hagerman and Austin (1986), ß galacturonase ตามวิธีของ และ cellulase ตามวิธีของ Ross et al. (1993) Abu-Bakr and Bashir (2003))
- 6. ประมวลผลเพื่อหาสาเหตุที่ผลไม้มีการเปลี่ยนแปลงด้านเนื้อสัมผัส และนำเสนอข้อมูลกลไกการเกิดการ เปลี่ยนแปลงด้านเนื้อสัมผัสของผลไม้

ผลการทดลองและวิจารณ์ผล

1. มะม่วง

1.1 องค์ประกอบของมะม่วงที่ระดับความสุกต่าง ๆ

พันธุ์มะม่วงที่ศึกษา ได้แก่ พันธุ์น้ำดอกไม้ (NDM) และโชคอนันต์ (CA) ระดับความสุกของแต่ละพันธุ์ 4 ระดับ คือ mature green, partially ripe, ripe และ fully ripe โดยดูจากสีผิวและสีเนื้อมะม่วงดังแสดงในภาพที่ 1 เมื่อพิจารณาค่าสีในระบบ CIE LAB ซึ่งวัดเป็นค่า L*, a* และ b* (ตารางที่ 1) พบว่า มะม่วงทั้งสองพันธุ์มีค่า สีผิว L*, a* และ b* เพิ่มขึ้นเมื่อระดับความสุกเพิ่มขึ้น โดยพันธุ์โชคอนันต์มีค่า b* เพิ่มขึ้นเด่นชัดกว่าพันธุ์ น้ำดอกไม้ ในส่วนสีของเนื้อมะม่วงนั้น เมื่อระดับความสุกเพิ่มขึ้น ทั้งสองพันธุ์มีค่า L* ลดลง แต่มีค่า a* และ b* เพิ่มขึ้นอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ ($P \le 0.05$) จากผลการวิเคราะห์องค์ประกอบของตัวอย่างมะม่วง ได้แก่ ปริมาณกรด ปริมาณของแข็งที่ละลายได้ทั้งหมด ความซึ้น ค่าความแน่นเนื้อ เพคตินทั้งหมดและเพคตินที่ละลายน้ำได้ของ มะม่วงทั้งสองพันธุ์ที่ระดับความสุกต่าง ๆ ดังแสดงในตารางที่ 2 พบว่า มะม่วงพันธุ์โชคอนันต์มีความแน่นเนื้อ มากกว่าพันธุ์น้ำดอกไม้ และเมื่อระดับความสุกเพิ่มมากขึ้น ความแน่นเนื้อลดลงอย่างชัดเจน นอกจากนี้มะม่วง ทั้งสองพันธุ์เมื่อระดับความสุกเพิ่มมากขึ้น ยังมีปริมาณกรดลดลงและปริมาณของแข็งที่ละลายได้ทั้งหมด ปริมาณเพคตินทั้งหมดและเพคตินที่ละลายน้ำได้เพิ่มขึ้นอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ ($P \le 0.05$) ในขณะที่ปริมาณ ความชื้นไม่แตกต่างอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ (P > 0.05)



<u>ภาพที่ 1</u> Change in mango peel and pulp color during ripening; (A-B) Nam Dok Mai; (C-D) Chok Anan.

ตารางที่ 1 Changes in mango peel and pulp color during ripening. (NDM; Nam Dok Mai and CA; Chok Anan)

| Color | Cultivar | Ripening stage | | | | | | |
|-------|----------|------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Color | Cultivar | Mature green | Partially ripe | Ripe | Fully ripe | | | |
| Peel | | | | | | | | |
| L* | NDM | 69.60 ^{aA} ± 1.40 | 70.40 ^{aA} ± 1.12 | $70.30^{aA} \pm 0.42$ | 71.42 ^{aA} ± 1.23 | | | |
| | CA | 55.49 ^{bB} ± 0.45 | $69.03^{aA} \pm 0.94$ | 70.33 ^{aA} ± 1.02 | 70.07 ^{aA} ± 0.69 | | | |
| a* | NDM | $-4.09^{dA} \pm 0.57$ | 1.06 ^{cB} ± 0.36 | $6.08^{bB} \pm 0.60$ | $7.79^{aB} \pm 0.12$ | | | |
| | CA | $-7.24^{dB} \pm 0.13$ | $6.02^{cA} \pm 0.78$ | 11.04 ^{bA} ± 0.20 | 12.43 ^{aA} ± 0.49 | | | |
| b* | NDM | 28.73 ^{cA} ± 0.47 | 30.81 ^{bB} ± 1.48 | $34.74^{aB} \pm 0.67$ | $35.72^{aB} \pm 0.92$ | | | |
| | CA | $23.33^{\text{dB}} \pm 0.17$ | 43.18 ^{cA} ± 0.32 | $45.34^{bA} \pm 0.39$ | $48.08^{aA} \pm 0.69$ | | | |
| Pulp | | | | | | | | |
| L* | NDM | 83.56 ^{aA} ± 0.52 | 74.71 ^{bA} ± 0.19 | 71.29 ^{cA} ± 0.41 | 68.58 ^{dA} ± 1.17 | | | |
| | CA | $83.89^{aA} \pm 0.30$ | 71.33 ^{bB} ± 1.35 | 67.31 ^{cB} ± 0.74 | $64.06^{\text{dB}} \pm 0.85$ | | | |
| a* | NDM | $-0.96^{dA} \pm 0.13$ | 7.09 ^{cA} ± 1.34 | 10.54 ^{bA} ± 1.81 | 13.40 ^{aA} ± 0.38 | | | |
| | CA | $-2.94^{dB} \pm 0.18$ | 7.81 ^{cA} ± 1.43 | 12.28 ^{bA} ± 0.17 | 14.66 ^{aA} ± 0.77 | | | |
| b* | NDM | 22.97 ^{cA} ± 0.29 | 50.61 ^{aB} ± 0.82 | 48.38 ^{bB} ± 0.91 | 50.18 ^{aA} ± 0.84 | | | |
| | CA | 21.83 ^{bA} ± 1.07 | 54.45 ^{aA} ± 0.89 | 51.43 ^{aA} ± 1.04 | 54.33 ^{aA} ± 4.29 | | | |

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (a–d) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$). Mean values in the same column in each attribute followed by different letters (A–B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$).

<u>ตารางที่ 2</u> Changes in fruit properties of two mango cultivars during ripening. (NDM; Nam Dok Mai and CA; Chok Anan)

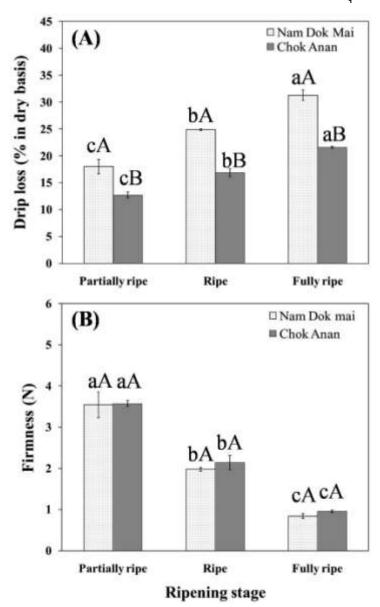
| Durantina | 0145 | | Ripening | g stage | _ |
|-------------------------------|----------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Properties | Cultivar | Mature green | Partially ripe | Ripe | Fully ripe |
| %TA (as malic acid) | NDM | 2.67 ^{aA} ± 0.28 | 1.10 ^{bA} ± 0.28 | 0.53 ^{cA} ± 0.18 | 0.19 ^{cA} ± 0.05 |
| | CA | $2.57^{aA} \pm 0.39$ | $0.92^{bA} \pm 0.21$ | $0.26^{cA} \pm 0.03$ | 0.21 ^{cA} ± 0.01 |
| TSS (°Brix) | NDM | $8.67^{cA} \pm 0.25$ | 15.53 ^{bA} ± 0.12 | $16.47^{aA} \pm 0.35$ | 16.53 ^{aA} ±0.12 |
| | CA | $7.37^{cB} \pm 0.15$ | 14.87 ^{bA} ± 0.47 | $15.60^{bB} \pm 0.40$ | 17.20 ^{aA} ± 0.50 |
| Moisture (%) | NDM | $83.75^{\text{bB}} \pm 0.22$ | 83.25 ^{bA} ± 0.11 | 83.81 ^{bA} ± 0.23 | 84.58 ^{aA} ± 0.45 |
| | CA | 84.44 ^{aA} ± 0.20 | 81.82 ^{bB} ± 0.66 | $82.50^{bB} \pm 0.28$ | 82.00 ^{bB} ± 0.81 |
| Firmness (N) | NDM | 153.94 ^{aB} ± 8.81 | 10.47 ^{bB} ± 0.71 | $8.92^{bA} \pm 0.58$ | $5.20^{cB} \pm 0.42$ |
| | CA | 277.48 ^{aA} ± 18.65 | 14.47 ^{bA} ± 0.76 | $8.55^{bA} \pm 0.32$ | $7.33^{bA} \pm 0.14$ |
| AIR (mg g ⁻¹ dry | | | | | |
| basis) | NDM | 513.01 ^{aB} ± 11.27 | $109.70^{bB} \pm 8.69$ | 98.40 ^{bcB} ± 2.83 | $93.37^{cB} \pm 0.93$ |
| | CA | 640.32 ^{aA} ± 26.13 | 125.78 ^{bA} ± 2.84 | 125.40 ^{bA} ± 2.63 | 120.76 ^{bA} ± 2.93 |
| TP (µg mg ⁻¹ AIR) | NDM | $34.65^{dB} \pm 3.08$ | 117.08 ^{cB} ± 4.68 | 133.21 ^{bA} ± 2.22 | 139.81 ^{aA} ± 2.73 |
| | CA | 56.75 ^{bA} ± 12.50 | 126.05 ^{aA} ± 2.70 | 133.00 ^{aA} ± 1.47 | 131.55 ^{aB} ± 4.39 |
| WSP (µg mg ⁻¹ AIR) | NDM | $7.64^{dA} \pm 0.17$ | 71.90 ^{cB} ± 1.28 | 105.61 ^{bB} ± 2.16 | 119.94 ^{aA} ± 1.54 |
| | CA | 8.09 ^{cA} ± 0.34 | 96.09 ^{bA} ± 6.46 | 117.34 ^{aA} ± 3.11 | 123.93 ^{aA} ± 3.88 |

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (a–d) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$). Mean values in the same column in each attribute followed by different letters (A–B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$).

1.2. ผลของระดับความสุกต่อคุณภาพมะม่วงแช่เยือกแข็ง

เมื่อนำมะม่วงทั้งสองพันธุ์ที่ระดับความสุก partially ripe, ripe และ fully ripe มาแช่เยือกแข็ง พบว่า มะม่วงทั้งสองพันธุ์มีปริมาณน้ำที่สูญเสียหลังการละลาย (drip loss) มากขึ้น เมื่อระดับความสุกเพิ่มขึ้น (ภาพที่ 2A) โดยพันธุ์โชคอนันต์มีค่าน้อยกว่าพันธุ์น้ำดอกไม้ ส่วนค่าความแน่นเนื้อ (firmness) ที่ได้จากเครื่องมือวัด (texture analyzer) พบว่าเมื่อแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายแล้วมะม่วงทั้งสองพันธุ์มีค่าความแน่นเนื้อใกล้เคียงกัน โดยลดลงจากก่อนแช่เยือกแข็งอย่างชัดเจน (ภาพที่ 2B) โดยที่ระดับความสุก fully ripe ลดลงมากที่สุด คือ เหลือความแน่นเนื้อเพียง 12.9-16.1% เทียบกับก่อนการแช่เยือกแข็ง ในขณะที่ ripe และ partial ripe ลดลง เหลือ 22.2-25.0 และ 24.7-33.8% ตามลำดับ นอกจากนี้จากการประเมินทางประสาทสัมผัสด้วยผู้ทดสอบที่ไม่ ผ่านการฝึกฝนจำนวน 30 คน (ตารางที่ 3) พบว่า ทั้งมะม่วงน้ำดอกไม้และโชคอนันต์แช่เยือกแข็งที่ระดับความสุก partially ripe และ ripe ได้รับคะแนนการยอมรับโดยรวมสูงกว่าตัวอย่างที่ระดับความสุก fully ripe ในขณะ ที่ระดับความสุก ripe ได้รับคะแนนด้านกลิ่นและรสชาติที่สูงกว่า partially ripe ส่วนมะม่วงในระดับ partially ripe ได้รับคะแนนการยอมรับด้านเนื้อสัมผัสสูงกว่าตัวอย่างระดับ ripe อย่างมีนัยสำคัญ (P ≤ 0.05) ใน ภาพรวมมะม่วงพันธุ์น้ำดอกไม้ได้รับคะแนนความชอบสูงกว่าพันธุ์โชคอนนันต์เล็กน้อย เมื่อพิจารณาผลของ

องค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์และเพกตินที่ละลายน้ำได้ (ตารางที่ 4) พบว่า หลังจากแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย ปริมาณเพกตินที่ละลายน้ำได้มีค่าเพิ่มขึ้น และมีปริมาณมากขึ้นเมื่อระดับความสุกมากขึ้น



<u>ภาพที่ 2</u> Changes in frozen-thawed mango drip loss (A) and fruit firmness (B) of Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan at various ripening stages. Means with the different letters (a-c) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$) between ripening stages. Mean with the different letters (A-B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$) between cultivars.

<u>ตารางที่ 3</u> Mean sensory scores of two different cultivars of frozen-thawed mangoes at various ripening stages. (NDM; Nam Dok Mai, CA; Chok Anan)

| Sensory | 0145 | | Ripening stage | • |
|---------------|----------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| attributes | Cultivar | Partially ripe | Ripe | Fully ripe |
| Appearance | NDM | 7.18 ^{aA} ± 1.42 | 6.72 ^{aA} ± 1.41 | 5.67 ^{bA} ± 1.53 |
| | CA | $6.95^{aA} \pm 1.26$ | 6.03 ^{bB} ± 1.16 | 5.22 ^{cA} ± 1.35 |
| Color | NDM | $6.88^{aA} \pm 1.67$ | 6.93 ^{aA} ± 1.11 | 5.87 ^{bA} ± 1.45 |
| | CA | $6.59^{aA} \pm 1.44$ | $6.32^{aB} \pm 1.20$ | 5.24 ^{bA} ± 1.37 |
| Texture | NDM | $6.63^{aA} \pm 1.58$ | 6.03 ^{bA} ± 1.40 | 4.27 ^{cA} ± 1.57 |
| | CA | $5.90^{aA} \pm 1.45$ | 5.32 ^{bA} ± 1.71 | 4.03 ^{cA} ± 1.59 |
| Flavor | NDM | $5.78^{aA} \pm 1.63$ | 6.17 ^{aA} ± 1.43 | 5.57 ^{aA} ± 1.19 |
| | CA | $5.53^{aA} \pm 1.50$ | 5.68 ^{aA} ± 1.37 | 5.37 ^{aA} ± 1.44 |
| Taste | NDM | $5.34^{aA} \pm 1.97$ | 6.23 ^{aA} ± 1.51 | $5.68^{aA} \pm 1.36$ |
| | CA | 5.44 ^{aA} ± 1.48 | 5.60 ^{aA} ± 1.35 | 5.15 ^{aA} ± 1.47 |
| Overall | NDM | 6.26 ^{aA} ± 1.55 | 6.33 ^{aA} ± 1.26 | 5.20 ^{bA} ± 1.34 |
| acceptability | CA | 6.16 ^{aA} ± 1.37 | 5.55 ^{bB} ± 1.48 | 4.78 ^{cA} ± 1.48 |

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (a–c) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$). Mean values in the same column in each attribute followed by different letters (A–B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$).

<u>ตารางที่ 4</u> Alcohol insoluble residue (AIR), water soluble pectin (WSP) and total pectin (TP) of frozen-thawed mangoes. (NDM; Nam Dok Mai, CA; Chok Anan)

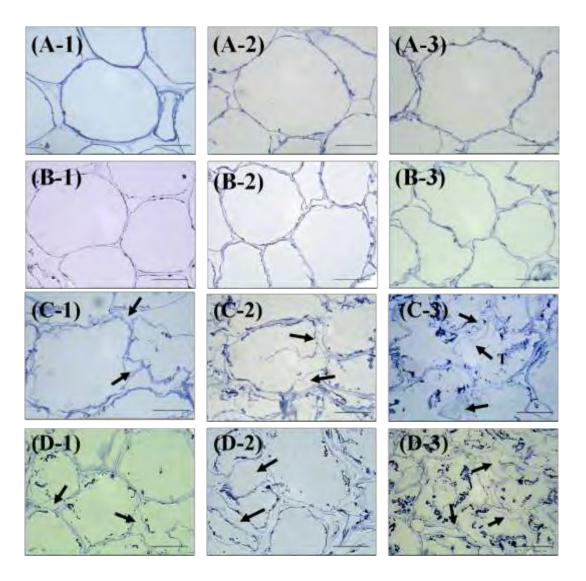
| Everen thoused comple | Cultivar | Ripening stage | | | |
|------------------------------------|----------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| Frozen-thawed sample | Guitivar | Partially ripe | Ripe | Fully ripe | |
| AIR (mg g ⁻¹ dry basis) | NDM | 109.26 ^{aB} ± 2.18 | 89.60 ^{bB} ± 0.39 | 87.15 ^{bB} ± 2.56 | |
| | CA | 122.37 ^{aA} ± 0.28 | 118.68 ^{bA} ± 0.46 | 117.16 ^{cA} ± 0.17 | |
| TP (μg mg ⁻¹ AIR) | NDM | 118.75 ^{cB} ± 0.23 | 131.12 ^{bA} ± 1.74 | 139.42 ^{aA} ± 1.27 | |
| | CA | $127.06^{aA} \pm 0.29$ | 130.78 ^{aA} ± 1.49 | 131.17 ^{aB} ± 1.11 | |
| WSP (µg mg ⁻¹ AIR) | NDM | $76.99^{cB} \pm 0.84$ | $107.39^{bB} \pm 0.45$ | 128.43 ^{aA} ± 1.74 | |
| | CA | 97.84 ^{cA} ± 0.85 | 118.72 ^{bA} ± 0.52 | 125.66 ^{aA} ± 1.95 | |

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (a–c) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$). Mean values in the same column in each attribute followed by different letters (A–B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$).

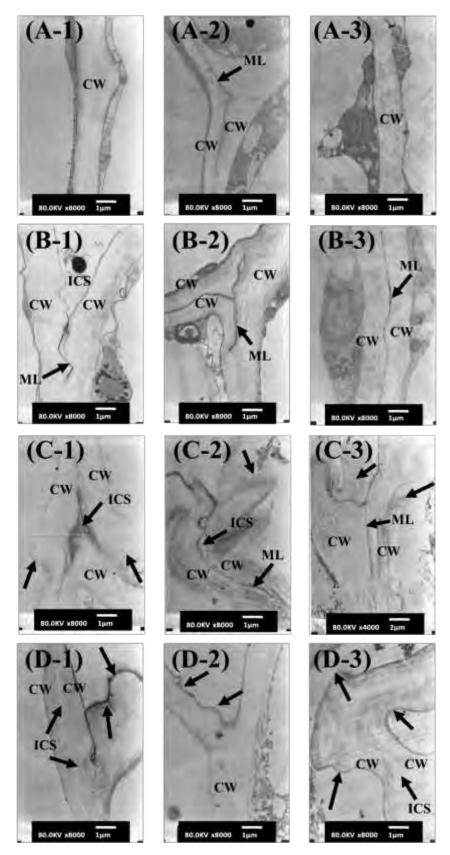
1.3. การเปลี่ยนแปลงในระดับเซลล์ของเนื้อเยื่อมะม่วงจากการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย

เมื่อนำมะม่วงก่อนและหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งไปตรวจสอบการเปลี่ยนแปลงโครงสร้างของเนื้อเยื่อระดับ เซลล์ด้วยกล้องจุลทรรศน์แบบแสงส่องผ่าน พบว่า ลักษณะของเซลล์มะม่วงสดทั้งสองพันธุ์ในแต่ละระดับความ สุกมีความแตกต่างกันอย่างเห็นได้ชัด ที่ระดับความสุก partially ripe เซลล์มีรูปร่างกลมและผนังเซลล์เรียบกว่า ระดับ ripe และ fully ripe (ภาพที่ 3 A1-A3 และ B1-B3) การแช่เยือกแข็งมีผลทำให้ผนังเซลล์เกิดการบวมและ พับทบไปมา และที่ระดับการสุกมากขึ้น (ripe และ fully ripe) เซลล์เกิดการฉีกขาดมากขึ้น (ภาพที่ 3 C1-C3 และ D1-D3) ซึ่งสามารถอธิบายผลของเนื้อสัมผัสที่นิ่มลงและปริมาณน้ำที่สูญเสียหลังการละลายที่เพิ่มมากขึ้น เมื่อมะม่วงแช่เยือกแข็งมีระดับความสุกมากขึ้น

เมื่อนำมะม่วงก่อนและหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งไปตรวจสอบการเปลี่ยนแปลงโครงสร้างของผนังเซลล์ด้วย กล้องจุลทรรศน์อิเล็กตรอนแบบสองผ่าน พบว่า ก่อนการแช่เยือกแข็งเห็นผนังเซลล์และมิดเดิ้ลลาเมลล่าชัดเจน แต่เมื่อผ่านการแช่เยือกแข็งผนังเซลล์และมิดเดิลลาเมลลาเปลี่ยนไปจากเดิม (ภาพที่ 4) ผนังเซลล์เปลี่ยนรูปไป และสูญเสียการยึดเกาะติดกันระหว่างเซลล์ มีการสลายของมิดเดิลลาเมลลาที่บริเวณผนังเซลล์ และการบวม ของผนังเซลล์จากการแช่เยือกแข็ง ผนังเซลล์ของมะม่วงทั้งสองพันธุ์ที่ระดับความสุก partial ripe เกิดการ เปลี่ยนแปลงน้อยกว่าที่ระดับ ripe และ fully ripe



<u>ภาพที่ 3</u> Light microscopy images of fresh and frozen mangoes. (A) Fresh Nam Dok Mai, (B) Fresh Chok Anan, (C) Frozen Nam Dok Mai and (D) Frozen Chok Anan. (1) Partially ripe, (2) Ripe and (3) Fully ripe stage. Arrows indicate the swelling of cell walls caused by freezing damage. T = torn cell wall. Bar = 50 µm.



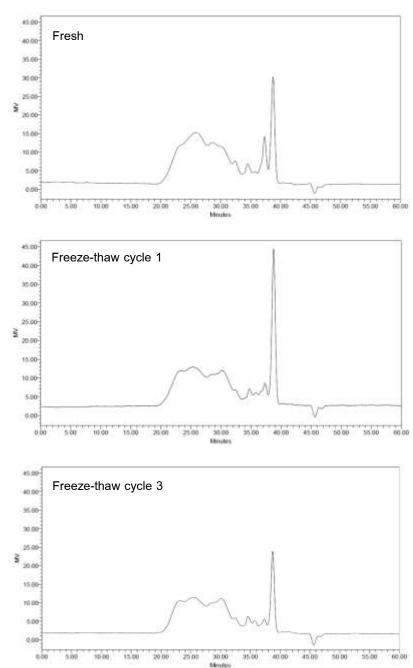
<u>ภาพที่ 4</u> TEM images of two cultivars of fresh and frozen mangoes. (A) Fresh Nam Dok Mai, (B) Fresh Chok Anan, (C) Frozen Nam Dok Mai and (D) Frozen Chok Anan. (1) Partially ripe, (2) Ripe and (3) Fully ripe stage. Arrows indicate the swelling and folding of cell walls caused by freezing damage. CW = cell wall, ML = middle lamella, ICS = intercellular space. Bar = 1µm (C-3 image bar = 2µm).

1.4. <u>การเปลี่ยนแปลงในระดับโมเลกุลขององค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์ของมะม่วงจากการ</u> แช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลา<u>ย</u>

จากการนำเนื้อเยื่อมะม่วงก่อนและหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายมาสกัดผนังเซลล์ และแยก เพคตินส่วนที่ละลายน้ำได้ (water soluble pectin, WSP) นำมาวิเคราะห์การกระจายตัวของมวลโมเลกุลด้วย เครื่อง high performance size exclusion chromatography ผลแสดงดังภาพที่ 5 พบว่า เมื่อผ่านการแช่เยือก แข็งและทำละลาย 1 รอบ เพกตินที่ละลายน้ำได้มีลักษณะการกระจายตัวของมวลโมเลกุลต่างจากตัวอย่างก่อน การแช่เยือกแข็งอย่างเห็นได้ชัด พีคมีลักษณะการกระจายตัวมากขึ้นและใช้เวลาอยู่ในคอลัมน์นานขึ้น แสดงว่า เกิดเป็นโมเลกุลที่มีขนาดเล็กลง และเมื่อมะม่วงผ่านการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย 3 รอบ เพกตินที่ละลายน้ำได้แสดงพีคเล็ก ๆ ในช่วงเวลานานขึ้นชัดเจนขึ้น พีคเหล่านี้แสดงถึงการแตกตัวของโมเลกุลเพคตินในส่วนที่ ละลายน้ำได้ที่มากขึ้น ซึ่งผลดังกล่าวนี้สอดคล้องกับปริมาณเพคตินที่ละลายน้ำได้ที่เพิ่มขึ้นหลังการแช่เยือกแข็ง และทำละลาย

1.5. <u>เอนไซม์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับเพคตินและเซลลูโลสในมะม่วงระหว่างการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำ</u> <u>ละลาย</u>

จากการวิเคราะห์แอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการสลายผนังเซลล์ ได้แก่ polygalacturonase (PG), pectinmethylesterase (PME), ß galacturonase (ß-G). และ cellulase (CEL) ในมะม่วงก่อนและหลัง การแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย (ตารางที่ 5) พบว่า หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายเอนไซม์ส่วนใหญ่มี แอคติวิตีลดลงเพียงเล็กน้อย คือคงเหลืออยู่ในช่วง 83 – 93 % ของแอคติวิตีก่อนการแช่เยือกแข็ง ยกเว้น PG ที่มีแอคติวิตีลดลงมากกว่าเอนไซม์อื่น คือเหลือ 71 % ผลดังกล่าวนี้แสดงให้เห็นว่า แม้การแช่เยือกแข็งจะทำให้ เอนไซม์ที่สลายเพคตินและเซลลูโลสหยุดชะงักเพราะอุณหภูมิต่ำ แต่แอคติวิตีไม่ได้หายไปและสามารถแสดง กิจกรรมได้หลังการละลายน้ำแข็ง นอกจากนี้เมื่อนำมะม่วงไปแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายซ้ำจนถึงรอบที่ 3 และ นำมาวิเคราะห์แอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์เหล่านี้ พบว่าแอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์มีค่าลดลงจากรอบที่ 1 อีกเพียง เล็กน้อย การคงอยู่ของแอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการสลายผนังเซลล์หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายแสดงว่า การนิ่มหรือเละของเนื้อมะม่วงแช่เยือกแข็งนั้นส่วนหนึ่งน่าจะมีผลมาจากกิจกรรมของเอนไซม์ เหล่านี้ที่กลับคืนมาในระหว่างการละลายน้ำแข็ง นอกจากนี้ผลการคงอยู่ของแอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์เหล่านี้ยัง สามารถอธิบายถึงผลการแตกตัวของโมเลกุลเพคตินที่ละลายน้ำหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายมะม่วงในข้อ 1.4 การเปลี่ยนแปลงในระดับเซลล์ในข้อ 1.3 และปริมาณของเพคตินที่ละลายในน้ำที่เพิ่มขึ้นในข้อ 1.2 ได้



<u>ภาพที่ 5</u> Molecular mass distribution profiles of water soluble pectin from fresh and frozen-thawed mango.

<u>ตารางที่ 5</u> Changes in cell wall-degrading enzyme activities (PG, PME and β -Gal; μ mole·min mg·protein protein mg·protein mg·p

| Sample | PG | PME | β-G | CEL |
|--------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|
| Fresh | 27.99±2.01 | 8.41±0.37 | 16.91±0.43 | 12.47±0.23 |
| FT 1 | 19.90±0.83 | 7.78±0.80 | 14.25±0.38 | 10.35±0.38 |
| FT 3 | 17.81±0.39 | 6.39±0.52 | 11.24±0.90 | 9.43±0.31 |

Data are shown as mean \pm standard deviation. Means with different superscript letters in the same column indicate they are significantly different (Duncan's new multiple ranges test, P<0.05). PG = polygalacturonase, PME = pectin methylesterase, β -Gal = β -galactosidase, CEL = cellulase, FT 1 = freeze-thaw cycle 1, FT 3 = freeze-thaw cycle 3

2. มะละกอ

2.1. องค์ประกอบของมะละกอที่ระดับความสุกต่าง ๆ

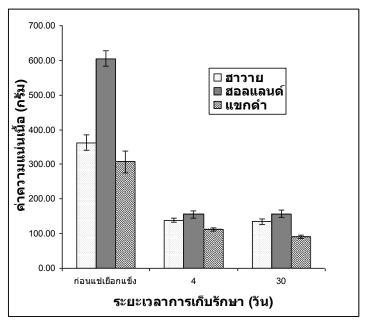
จากการศึกษาเบื้องต้นถึงผลของพันธุ์มะละกอที่เหมาะสมในการแช่เยือกแข็ง ได้ศึกษาพันธุ์มะละกอ 3 พันธุ์ ได้แก่ พันธุ์แขกดำ ฮอลแลนด์ และฮาวาย (ภาพที่ 6) โดยในแต่ละพันธุ์คัดเลือกผลที่มีขนาดใกล้เคียงกัน และมีความสุกใกล้เคียงกัน คือ สุกระดับสำหรับรับประทาน จากการวัดค่าเนื้อสัมผัสด้วยเครื่องมือ texture analyzer พบว่า ก่อนการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย มะละกอฮอลแลนด์มีเนื้อสัมผัสสูงที่สุด รองลงมาคือ ฮาวายและแขกดำตามลำดับ หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย มะละกอทั้งสามพันธุ์มีค่าความแน่นเนื้อลดลง อย่างชัดเจน แต่พันธุ์ฮอลแลนด์ยังมีค่าแน่นเนื้อสูงกว่าพันธ์แขกดำและฮาวาย ส่วนคุณภาพโดยการประเมิน ทางประสาทสัมผัสโดยผู้ทดสอบให้คะแนนความเข้ม (ตารางที่ 6) พบว่า พันธุ์ฮอลแลนด์ได้รับคะแนนความเข้ม ด้านสี ความแน่นเนื้อสูงกว่าพันธุ์ฮาวายและแขกดำ (P ≤ 0.05) ส่วนด้านความหวาน พบว่า พันธุ์ฮาวายได้รับ คะแนนสูงสุด รองลงมาคือ พันธุ์ฮอลแลนด์และแขกดำ และเมื่อนำมะละกอทั้งสามพันธุ์ไปแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย พบว่า ทุกพันธุ์มีสีของเนื้อเพิ่มขึ้น ความแน่นเนื้อลดลง ในขณะที่ความหวานใกล้เคียงกับตัวอย่างก่อน แช่เยือกแข็ง

ส่วนคะแนนความชอบโดยแบ่งเป็นความชอบด้านสี ความแน่นเนื้อ รสชาติ และความชอบรวมนั้น พบว่า สำหรับ คะแนนความชอบด้านสี พันธุ์ที่ได้คะแนนเฉลี่ยสูงสุด ได้แก่ พันธุ์ฮอลแลนด์ ฮาวาย และแขกดำ ตามลำดับ (ตารางที่ 7) ส่วนคะแนนความชอบด้านความแน่นเนื้อของตัวอย่างสด พบว่า พันธุ์ฮอลแลนด์ได้ คะแนนสูงสุด รองลงมาคือ พันธุ์แขกดำและฮาวาย ตามลำดับ ขณะที่ตัวอย่างแช่เยือกแข็งที่เก็บ 4-30 วัน นั้น พบว่า พันธุ์ฮาวายได้คะแนนความชอบสูงสุดในด้าน สี เนื้อสัมผัส และความชอบรวม (P ≤ 0.05) เมื่อ พิจารณาผลการทดลอง สามารถสรุปได้ว่า ในมะละกอสามพันธุ์นี้ ฮอลแลนด์เหมาะสมในการแช่เยือกแข็งที่สุด เนื่องจากภายหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย ตัวอย่างมีความแน่นเนื้อสูงกว่าและได้รับความชอบโดยรวม มากว่าพันธุ์ฮาวายและแขกดำตามลำดับ

การทดลองขั้นถัดไป คือ การศึกษาองค์ประกอบของมะละกอที่ระดับความสุกต่าง ๆ ซึ่งในส่วนนี้ ช่วง ระยะเวลาที่ทำการศึกษานั้น เป็นช่วงเวลาที่มะละกอพันธุ์ฮอลแลนด์และฮาวายขาดตลาด (และเป็นที่น่าสังเกตุ ว่า ในปัจจุบัน มะละกอพันธุ์ฮาวายได้หายไปจากตลาดผลไม้ของไทย) ดังนั้นผู้วิจัยจึงได้ศึกษาองค์ประกอบของ มะละกอที่ระดับความสุกต่าง ๆ โดยใช้มะละกอพันธุ์แขกดำที่ระดับความสุก 3 ระดับ (ภาพที่ 8) จากการ วิเคราะห์องค์ประกอบในเนื้อมะละกอที่มีระดับความสุกต่างกัน (ตารางที่ 8) พบว่า เมื่อระดับความสุกเพิ่มขึ้น ปริมาณความชื้นลดลง ปริมาณของแข็งที่ละลายทั้งหมดจะเพิ่มขึ้น ส่วนคุณภาพด้านเนื้อสัมผัสของมะละกอ พบว่า ความแน่นเนื้อจะมีค่าลดลง เมื่อระดับการสุกเพิ่มขึ้น (ตารางที่ 9) โดยมีความสอดคล้องกับปริมาณของแข็งที่ไม่ละลายในแอลกอฮอล์ และเพคตินทั้งหมดลดลง ส่วนปริมาณเพคตินที่ละลายได้ในน้ำและใน สารละลาย EDTA (WSP และ CSP) เพิ่มขึ้น (ตารางที่ 10) ซึ่งแสดงว่าในระหว่างการสุกของมะละกอมีการ เปลี่ยนแปลงในโมเลกุลของเพคติน จากในรูปที่ไม่ละลาย เปลี่ยนเป็นเพคตินในรูปที่ละลายได้ โดยเกิด depolymerization ของเพคติน ทำให้โมเลกุลขององค์ประกอบเพคตินมีขนาดสั้นลง ทำให้มีการละลายเพิ่มขึ้น ส่งผลทำให้เมื่อระดับการสุกเพิ่มขึ้นความแน่นเนื้อจึงลดลง



<u>ภาพที่ 6</u> Papaya used in the experiment.



<u>ภาพที่ 7</u> Firmness analyzed by texture analyzer of fresh and frozen-thawed Hawaii, Holland and Kaegdum papaya

<u>ตารางที่ 6</u> Mean scores of sensory attribute test of frozen-thawed Hawaii, Holland and Kaegdum papaya.

| Attribute | Variativ | Dofeso froming | Frozen storage (days) | | |
|-----------|----------|---------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Attribute | Variety | Before freezing - | 4-7 | 30 | |
| Color | Hawaii | 2.88 ^{aB} ± 0.88 | 3.43 ^{aA} ± 1.26 | 2.91 ^{bB} ± 1.21 | |
| | Holland | $3.00^{aB} \pm 0.72$ | $3.60^{aA} \pm 0.96$ | $3.66^{aA} \pm 0.89$ | |
| | Kaegdum | 1.95 ^{bB} ± 0.75 | 2.58 ^{bA} ± 0.84 | $2.36^{cA} \pm 0.84$ | |
| Firmness | Hawaii | $2.43^{bA} \pm 0.78$ | $2.23^{\text{bAB}} \pm 0.86$ | $2.13^{bAB} \pm 0.68$ | |
| | Holland | $3.44^{aA} \pm 0.83$ | $3.19^{aAB} \pm 0.75$ | $2.84^{aB} \pm 0.95$ | |
| | Kaegdum | 1.95 ^{cA} ± 0.72 | 1.53 ^{cB} ± 0.55 | 1.55 ^{cB} ± 0.46 | |
| Sweetness | Hawaii | $3.78^{aA} \pm 0.70$ | $3.33^{aB} \pm 0.94$ | $3.34^{aB} \pm 0.74$ | |
| | Holland | $2.96^{bA} \pm 0.89$ | 2.99 ^{bA} ± 0.65 | $2.55^{bB} \pm 0.72$ | |
| | Kaegdum | 2.29 ^{cA} ± 0.55 | 1.85 ^{cB} ± 0.62 | 1.55°C ± 0.51 | |

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (A–C) are significantly different ($P \le 0.05$). Mean values in the same column followed by different letters (a–c) are significantly different ($P \le 0.05$).

<u>ตารางที่ 7</u> Mean scores of sensory preference test of frozen-thawed Hawaii, Holland and Kaegdum papaya.

| A 44 | Vaniate | Defens for a single | Frozen storage (days) | | |
|-----------------------|---------|---------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Attribute | Variety | Before freezing - | 4-7 | 30 | |
| Color | Hawaii | 6.24 ^{bA} ± 1.30 | 5.89 ^{bA} ± 1.31 | 6.09 ^{bA} ± 1.48 | |
| | Holland | 7.45 ^{aA} ± 1.26 | $7.20^{aAB} \pm 1.22$ | $6.91^{aAB} \pm 1.42$ | |
| | Kaegdum | 5.63 ^{cA} ± 1.23 | 5.50 ^{bA} ± 1.36 | 5.78 ^{bA} ± 1.46 | |
| Firmness | Hawaii | 4.73 ^{bA} ± 1.77 | 3.98 ^{bA} ± 1.80 | 4.51 ^{bA} ± 1.41 | |
| | Holland | 6.33 ^{aA} ± 1.37 | 5.73 ^{aAB} ± 1.57 | 5.16 ^{aB} ± 1.52 | |
| | Kaegdum | 5.95 ^{aA} ± 1.50 | 2.60°C ± 1.22 | 3.10 ^{cC} ± 1.43 | |
| Taste | Hawaii | 6.53 ^{aA} ± 1.63 | 5.30 ^{bB} ± 1.74 | 6.05 ^{aC} ± 1.66 | |
| | Holland | 6.36 ^{aA} ± 1.45 | 6.08 ^{aA} ± 1.25 | 5.38 ^{aB} ± 1.53 | |
| | Kaegdum | 5.35 ^{bA} ± 1.42 | $3.88^{cB} \pm 1.45$ | 3.55 ^{bB} ± 1.52 | |
| Overall acceptability | Hawaii | $6.05^{bA} \pm 1.52$ | 5.13 ^{bB} ± 1.54 | $5.63^{AAB} \pm 1.37$ | |
| | Holland | 6.65 ^{aA} ± 1.14 | 6.26 ^{aA} ± 1.19 | 5.69 ^{aB} ± 1.24 | |
| | Kaegdum | 5.93 ^{bA} ± 1.07 | 3.48°C ± 1.22 | $4.05^{bB} \pm 1.30$ | |

Mean sensory scores ranged from "1 = dislike extremely" to "9 = like extremely"

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (A–C) are significantly different ($P \le 0.05$).

Mean values in the same column followed by different letters (a–c) are significantly different ($P \le 0.05$).







under ripe (stage 9)

ripe (stage 8)

over ripe (stage 7)

ภาพที่ 8 Papaya fruit and pulp color at three ripening stages.

<u>ตารางที่ 8</u> Moisture, total soluble solid (TSS) and firmness of under ripe, ripe and over ripe papaya dices before and after frozen storage times

| | Maturities | Moisture (%) | TSS (^o Brix) | Firmness (N) |
|----------------|------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| | stage | | | |
| Unfrozen | Under ripe | 90.17 ^a ±0.64 | 9.57 ^{cB} ±0.03 | 90.83 ^{aA} ±0.37 |
| | Ripe | 89.44 ^{ab} ±0.40 | 10.38 ^{bB} ±0.11 | 14.90 ^{bA} ±0.95 |
| | Over ripe | 88.57 ^{abAB} ±1.61 | 11.45 ^a ±0.07 | 8.36 ^{cA} ±0.40 |
| Frozen 1 month | Under ripe | 90.57 ^a ±0.11 | 9.58 ^{cB} ±0.11 | 16.88 ^{aB} ±2.98 |
| | Ripe | 89.36 ^b ±0.02 | 10.53 ^{bAB} ±0.32 | 4.62 ^{bB} ±0.43 |
| | Over ripe | 87.12 ^{cB} ±0.50 | 11.68 ^a ±0.39 | 1.80 ^{cB} ±0.08 |
| Frozen 3 month | Under ripe | 90.03±0.03 | 10.30 ^A ±0.57 | 15.23 ^{aB} ±2.17 |
| | Ripe | 89.18±0.02 | 10.85 ^A ±0.07 | 3.27 ^{bB} ±0.86 |
| | Over ripe | 89.64 ^A ±0.04 | 11.30±1.41 | 1.31 ^{cB} ±0.68 |

a, b, ... means with the same letter indicate there is no significant difference (DMRT's test: P<0.05) between ripening stage

A,B,C... means with the same letter indicate there is no significant difference (DMRT's test: P<0.05) between storage times

2.2. ผลของระดับความสุกต่อคุณภาพมะละกอแช่เยือกแข็ง

เมื่อนำมะละกอพันธุ์แขกดำที่ระดับความสุก 3 ระดับ คือ under ripe, ripe และ over ripe มาแช่เยือก แข็งเป็นเวลา 1 เดือนและทำละลาย พบว่า ค่าความแน่นเนื้อ (firmness) ที่ได้จากเครื่องมือวัด (texture analyzer) มีค่าลดลงจากก่อนแช่เยือกแข็งอย่างชัดเจน (ตารางที่ 8) ที่ระดับความสุก over ripe ลดลงเหลือ ความแน่นเนื้อเพียง 1.80 นิวตัน ในขณะที่ ripe และ under ripe ลดลงเหลือ 4.62 และ 14.88 นิวตัน ตามลำดับ และเมื่อเวลาเก็บรักษาเพิ่มขึ้นเป็น 3 เดือน พบว่า ค่าความแน่นเนื้อของแต่ละระดับความสุกลดลง อีกเพียงเล็กน้อย เมื่อพิจารณาผลขององค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์และเพกตินที่ละลายน้ำได้ (ตารางที่ 9) พบว่า หลังจากแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย ปริมาณเพกตินที่ละลายน้ำได้และที่ละลายในสารละลาย EDTA มีค่าเพิ่มขึ้น และมีปริมาณมากขึ้นเมื่อระดับความสุกมากขึ้น และเมื่อเวลาเก็บรักษาเพิ่มขึ้นเป็น 3 เดือน พบว่า ค่าปริมาณ เพกตินที่ละลายน้ำได้และที่ละลายในสารละลาย EDTA ของแต่ละระดับมีค่าไม่ต่างจาก 1 เดือนอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ (P > 0.05)

<u>ตารางที่ 9</u> AIS and pectin fractions of under ripe, ripe and over ripe papaya dices before and after freezing (1 and 3 month of frozen storage times)

| Condition | Pectin fractions | | Maturities stage | | | |
|----------------|---|-----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--|--|
| Condition | Pectin fractions | Under ripe | Ripe | Over ripe | | |
| Unfrozen | AIS (mg g ⁻¹ dry fresh sample) | 158.88 ^{aA} ±3.29 | 130.62 ^{bA} ±1.40 | 119.36 ^{cA} ±3.9′ | | |
| | WSP (mg g ⁻¹ dry AIS) | 222.04 ^{cB} ±0.69 | 248.92 ^b ±0.63 | 256.87 ^{aB} ±2.7 | | |
| | CSP (mg g ⁻¹ dry AIS) | 42.65 ^{cB} ±0.27 | 54.26 ^{bB} ±0.64 | 58.99 ^{aB} ±2.33 | | |
| | Total pectin (mg g ⁻¹ dry AIS) | 512.29 ^{aA} ±2.33 | 509.71 ^{aA} ±3.71 | 494.43 ^{bA} ±7.5 | | |
| Frozen 1 month | AIS (mg g ⁻¹ dry fresh sample) | 152.93 ^{aAB} ±3.60 | 125.25 ^{bB} ±2.67 | 106.99 ^{cB} ±2.2 | | |
| | WSP (mg g ⁻¹ dry AIS) | 228.10 ^{aA} ±1.72 | 251.53 ^b ±2.52 | 288.37 ^{aA} ±4.4 | | |
| | CSP (mg g ⁻¹ dry AIS) | 51.84 ^{cA} ±0.72 | 58.87 ^{bA} ±1.13 | 67.83 ^{aA} ±1.14 | | |
| | Total pectin (mg g ⁻¹ dry AIS) | 499.70 ^{aB} ±4.51 | 476.58 ^{bB} ±6.05 | 440.79 ^{cB} ±5.5 | | |
| Frozen 3 month | AIS (mg g ⁻¹ dry fresh sample) | 151.33 ^{aB} ±0.59 | 123.98 ^{bB} ±1.99 | 100.32 ^{cB} ±0.5 | | |
| | WSP (mg g ⁻¹ dry AIS) | 228.88 ^{cA} ±1.33 | 250.80 ^b ±1.38 | 290.62 ^{aA} ±2.7 | | |
| | CSP (mg g ⁻¹ dry AIS) | 51.58 ^{cA} ±0.99 | 60.20 ^{bA} ±1.55 | 67.41 ^{aA} ±1.34 | | |
| | Total pectin (mg g ⁻¹ dry AIS) | 492.82 ^{aB} ±7.52 | 472.36 ^{bB} ±4.44 | 438.49 ^{cB} ±5.6 | | |

^{a, b,c} Means with different letter indicate there is significant difference (P<0.05) between maturities stage

2.3. <u>การเปลี่ยนแปลงเนื้อสัมผัสและเนื้อเยื่อในระดับเซลล์ของมะละกอจากการแช่เยือกแข็ง</u> <u>และทำละลาย</u>

ในการศึกษาหาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการเปลี่ยนแปลงของมะละกอแช่เยือกแข็งในระดับเนื้อเยือ และระดับเซลล์นั้น ได้ใช้มะละกอพันธุ์ฮอลแลนด์ที่ระดับความสุกสำหรับรับประทานเป็นตัวอย่าง และได้แช่ เยือกแข็งและทำละลายซ้ำ 1-5 รอบ เนื่องจากในทางปฏิบัติหลังจากอาหารผ่านการแช่เยือกแข็งแล้ว มักจะผ่าน ช่วงการเพิ่มและลดของอุณหภูมิทั้งในระหว่างการขนส่ง การขนย้ายเข้าห้องเย็นเพื่อเก็บรักษาระหว่างรอ

A,B,C Means with different letter indicate there is significant difference (P<0.05) between storage times

จำหน่าย ตลอดจนช่วงที่อยู่ในมือผู้บริโภค เมื่อพิจารณาค่าความแน่นเนื้อที่ได้จากเครื่องมือวัด (texture analyzer) พบว่าเมื่อแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายแล้วตัวอย่างมีค่าความแน่นเนื้อลดลงจากก่อนแช่เยือกแข็งอย่าง ชัดเจน (ตารางที่ 10) คือมีความแน่นเนื้อเหลือเพียง 63.6 % ของค่าก่อนการแช่เยือกแข็ง และเมื่อตัวอย่างผ่าน การแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายซ้ำ 2-5 รอบ พบว่า ค่าความแน่นเนื้อลดลงต่อเนื่องอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ (*P*<0.05) ส่วนปริมาณน้ำที่สูญเสียหลังการละลาย (drip loss) พบว่า มีค่ามากขึ้น เมื่อเพิ่มรอบของการแช่เยือกแข็งและ ทำละลาย ซึ่งแสดงถึงการเปลี่ยนแปลงและเกิดความเสียหายของเนื้อเยื่อมะละกอหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำ ละลาย เมื่อพิจารณาผลขององค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์และเพกตินส่วนต่าง ๆ ได้แก่เพคตินที่ละลายน้ำได้ (WSF) เพกตินที่ละลายใน สารละลาย EDTA (ESF) เพกตินที่ละลายในสารละลาย Na₂CO₃ (NSF) รวมถึงเฮมิ เซลลูโลสที่ละลายในสารละลาย 4% และ 24% KOH (4KSF และ 24KSF) พบว่า หลังจากแช่เยือกแข็งและทำ ละลาย ปริมาณผนังเซลล์ (AIS) ลดลงแสดงว่า ผนังเซลล์บางส่วนสูญหายไปเนื่องจากการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำ ละลาย และเมื่อพิจารณาปริมาณเพกตินที่ละลายในน้ำและสารละลาย EDTA และ 4% KOH พบว่า มีค่า เพิ่มขึ้น ในขณะที่ปริมาณเพคตินที่ละลายใน Na₂CO₃ มีค่าลดลง ซึ่งแสดงว่า หลังจากการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำ ละลาย โมเลกุลเพคตินเกิดการเปลี่ยนแปลงทำให้ละลายในน้ำและ EDTA ง่ายขึ้น Inari and Takeuchi (1997) ได้เสนอว่า การที่ WSF และ ESF มีปริมาณเพิ่มขึ้นนั้น อาจเกิดจากการที่เพคตินที่ยึดด้วยพันธะโควาแลนต์ใน NSF เปลี่ยนมาเป็นเพคตินที่ยึดเหนี่ยวอย่างหลวม ๆ ใน WSF และ ESF และสามารถละลายได้ง่ายขึ้น ในขณะที่เฮมิเซลลูโลสส่วน 4KSF มีปริมาณเพิ่มขึ้น และ ส่วน 24KSF มีปริมาณลดลง หลังการแช่เยือกแข็ง และทำละลาย แสดงว่าส่วนของเฮมิเซลลูโลสที่ยึดไว้อย่างแน่น (24KSF) ซึ่งเชื่อมระหว่างสายเซลลูโลสบางส่วน ได้เปลี่ยนเป็นส่วนของเฮมิเซลลูโลสที่ยึดแน่นอย่างหลวม ๆ (4KSF) และเมื่อมีการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย ช้ำ ผลการเปลี่ยนแปลงขององค์ประกอบเหล่านี้เห็นชัดเจนยิ่งขึ้น การเปลี่ยนแปลงของเพคตินและเฮมิเซลลูโลส ส่วนต่าง ๆ นี้สามารถอธิบายได้ด้วยผลของกิจกรรมของเอนไซม์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการสลายของผนังเซลล์ในหัวข้อ ถัดไป

เมื่อนำมะละกอก่อนและหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งไปตรวจสอบการเปลี่ยนแปลงโครงสร้างของ เนื้อเยื่อระดับเซลล์ด้วยกล้องจุลทรรศน์แบบแสงส่องผ่าน พบว่า การแช่เยือกแข็งมีผลทำให้เซลล์และผนังเซลล์ ของมะละกอผิดรูปไปจากเมื่อก่อนแช่เยือกแข็ง เซลล์เกิดความเสียหายและฉีกขาด นอกจากนี้ผนังเซลล์เกิดการ บวม มีช่องว่างระหว่างเซลล์เพิ่มขึ้น และเมื่อแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายซ้ำเซลล์เกิดการฉีกขาดมากขึ้น (ภาพที่ 9A-9D) ซึ่งผลดังกล่าวนี้สามารถอธิบายผลของเนื้อสัมผัสที่นิ่มลงและปริมาณน้ำที่สูญเสียหลังการละลายที่เพิ่ม มากขึ้นเมื่อมะละกอผ่านการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายซ้ำหลายรอบ

เมื่อนำมะละกอก่อนและหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งไปตรวจสอบการเปลี่ยนแปลงโครงสร้างของผนังเซลล์ด้วย กล้องจุลทรรศน์อิเล็กตรอนแบบสองผ่าน พบว่า ก่อนการแช่เยือกแข็งเห็นผนังเซลล์และมิดเดิ้ลลาเมลล่าชัดเจน แต่เมื่อผ่านการแช่เยือกแข็งผนังเซลล์และมิดเดิลลาเมลลาเปลี่ยนไปจากเดิม ลักษณะที่เห็นจางลงแสดงถึงการ สูญเสียส่วนของผนังเซลล์ไป (ภาพที่ 10) ผนังเซลล์เปลี่ยนรูปไป และสูญเสียการยึดเกาะติดกันระหว่างเซลล์ มีการสลายของมิดเดิลลาเมลลาที่บริเวณผนังเซลล์ และการบวมของผนังเซลล์จากการแช่เยือกแข็ง และเมื่อแช่ เยือกแข็งและทำละลายซ้ำผนังเซลล์เกิดการเปลี่ยนแปลงมากขึ้น

<u>ตารางที่ 10</u> Effect of freezing and thawing on firmness and % drip loss of papaya tissues

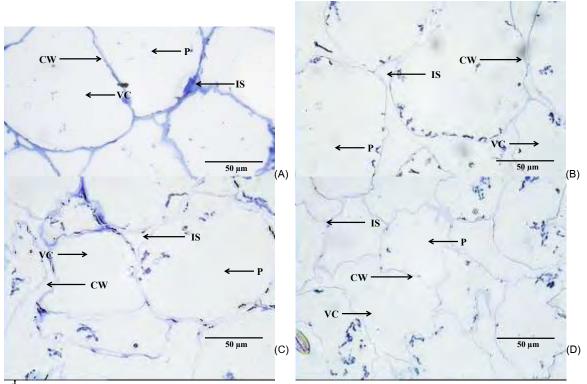
| Sample | Firmness (N) | % Drip loss |
|--------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Fresh | 12.00 ^a ±0.28 | - |
| FT 1 | 7.63 ^b ±0.20 | 17.01°±0.68 |
| FT 3 | 2.89°±0.12 | 36.85 ^b ±0.75 |
| FT 5 | 0.48 ^d ±0.03 | 47.24 ^a ±0.89 |

Data are shown as mean \pm standard deviation. Means with different superscript letters in the same column indicate they are significantly different (Duncan's multiple range test, (P<0.05). FW = Fresh weight, FT 1 = Freeze-thaw cycle 1, FT 3 = Freeze-thaw cycle 5

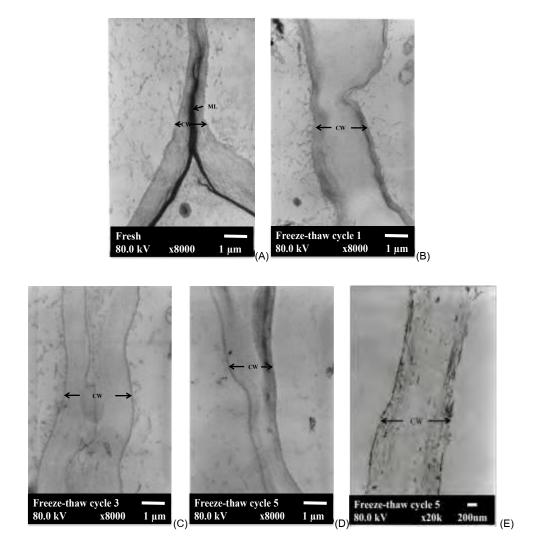
<u>ตารางที่ 11</u> Effect of freezing and thawing on alcohol-insoluble solids, uronic acid contents in pectin fractions and neutral sugar contents in hemicellulose fractions of papaya tissues

| Sample | AIS | WSF | ESF | NSF | 4KSF | 24KSF |
|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| | (mg.g ⁻¹ FW) | (ug.mg ⁻¹ AIS) |
| Fresh | 157.42 ^a ±0.99 | 143.92 ^d ±1.81 | 49.44 ^d ±2.89 | 18.77 ^a ±0.42 | 121.70°±2.40 | 369.80 ^a ±9.51 |
| FT 1 | 153.68 ^b ±1.30 | 163.98°±1.79 | 57.59°±0.87 | 17.12 ^b ±0.23 | 132.88 ^b ±1.77 | 340.38 ^b ±1.59 |
| FT 3 | 144.66°±0.67 | 174.34 ^b ±0.73 | 63.32 ^b ±0.93 | 15.31°±0.80 | 137.18 ^b ±0.37 | 340.18 ^b ±1.19 |
| FT 5 | 137.91 ^d ±0.87 | 181.85 ^a ±2.56 | 71.73 ^a ±2.02 | 12.39 ^d ±0.58 | 147.47 ^a ±1.17 | 309.59°±9.95 |

Data are shown as mean \pm standard deviation. Means with different superscript letters in the same column indicate there are significantly different (Duncan's multiple range test, (P<0.05). FT 1 = Freeze-thaw cycle 1, FT 3 = Freeze-thaw cycle 3, FT 5 = Freeze-thaw cycle 5, AIS = Alcohol-insoluble solids, WSF = Water-soluble pectin, ESF = EDTA-soluble fraction and NSF = Na₂CO₃-soluble fraction, 4KSF = 4%KOH-soluble fraction and 24KSF = 24%KOH-soluble fraction



<u>ภาพที่ 9</u> Light microscopic images of fresh papaya and frozen-thawed papaya tissue stained with toluidine blue (1.5 µm thickness) (A) Fresh papaya tissue, (B) Freeze-thaw cycle 1, (C) Freeze-thaw cycle 3, and (D) Freeze-thaw cycle 5. CW = Cell wall, IS = Intercellular spaces, VC = Vacuoles, P = protoplast.



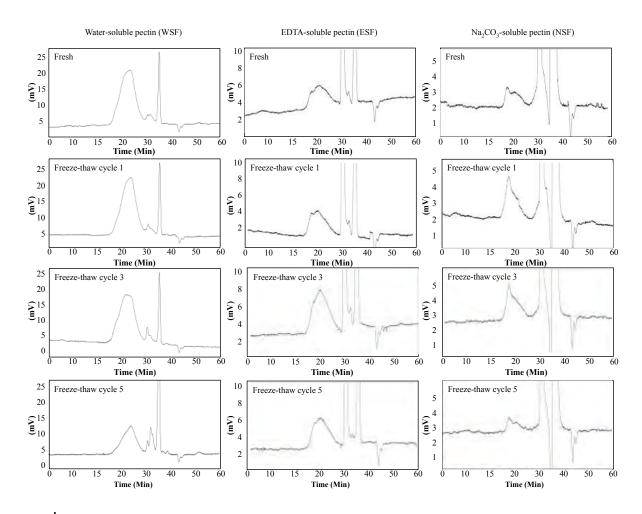
<u>ภาพที่ 10</u> Transmission electron microscopic images of fresh papaya and frozen-thawed papaya tissue stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate (70 nm thickness) (A) Fresh papaya tissue, (B) Freeze-thaw cycle 1, (C) Freeze-thaw cycle 3, and (D) Freeze-thaw cycle 5 (×8000) (E) Freeze-thaw cycle 5 (×20,000). CW = Cell wall and ML = Middle lamella

2.4. <u>การเปลี่ยนแปลงในระดับโมเลกุลขององค์ประกอบของผนังเซลล์ของมะละกอจากการ</u> <u>แช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย</u>

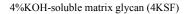
จากการนำเนื้อเยื่อมะละกอก่อนและหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายมาสกัดผนังเซลล์ แยกเพค ดิน และเฮมิเซลลูโลสส่วนต่าง ๆ แล้วนำแต่ละส่วนมาวิเคราะห์การกระจายตัวของมวลโมเลกุลด้วยเครื่อง high performance size exclusion chromatography ผลแสดงดังภาพที่ 11 และ 12 พบว่า เมื่อผ่านการแช่เยือก แข็งและทำละลาย 1-5 รอบเพกตินที่ละลายน้ำได้มีลักษณะการกระจายตัวของมวลโมเลกุลต่างจากตัวอย่าง ก่อนการแช่เยือกแข็งอย่างเห็นได้ชัด พีคมีลักษณะการกระจายตัวมากขึ้นและใช้เวลาอยู่ในคอลัมน์นานขึ้น แสดงว่าโมเลกุลแตกเป็นโมเลกุลที่มีขนาดเล็กลง โดยเฉพาะหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายในรอบที่ 5 พีค ที่ออกมาในช่วงประมาณ 20 นาทีมีขนาดเล็กลง และพีคที่ออกมาตามหลังมีขนาดใหญ่ขึ้นรวมทั้งแตกเป็นพีค เล็ก ๆ เพิ่มขึ้น พีคเหล่านี้แสดงถึงการแตกตัวของโมเลกุลเพคตินในส่วนที่ละลายน้ำได้ที่มากขึ้น ซึ่งผลดังกล่าว นี้สอดคล้องกับปริมาณเพคตินที่ละลายน้ำได้ที่เพิ่มขึ้นหลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย สำหรับผลการ กระจายตัวของมวลโมเลกุลเพคตินส่วนที่ละลายใน EDTA และ Na₂CO₃ นั้น พบการเปลี่ยนแปลงไปจากก่อน การแช่เยือกแข็งเล็กน้อยแต่ไม่ชัดเจนเหมือนในกรณีเพคตินที่ละลายน้ำได้ ส่วนกระจายตัวของมวลโมเลกุลเฮมิ เซลลูโลสพบว่า หลังการแต่เขือกแข็งและทำละลายพิคที่แสดงถึงโมเลกุลขนาดยาวที่ออกมาในช่วงแรกมีขนาด เล็กลง ซึ่งแสดงถึงการแตกตัวของสายโมเลกุล และเมื่อช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายซ้ำ พบว่า การเปลี่ยนแปลง ดังกล่าวเห็นชัดขึ้น ซึ่งการแตกตัวของโมเลกุลเพคตินและเฮมิเซลลูโลสนี้ น่าจะมาจากผลของการเกิดผลึก น้ำแข็งและกิจกรรมของเอนไซม์มที่เกี่ยวกับการสลายของผนังเซลล์

2.5. <u>เอนไซม์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับเพคตินและเซลลูโลสในมะละกอระหว่างการแช่เยือกแข็งและ</u> ทำละลาย

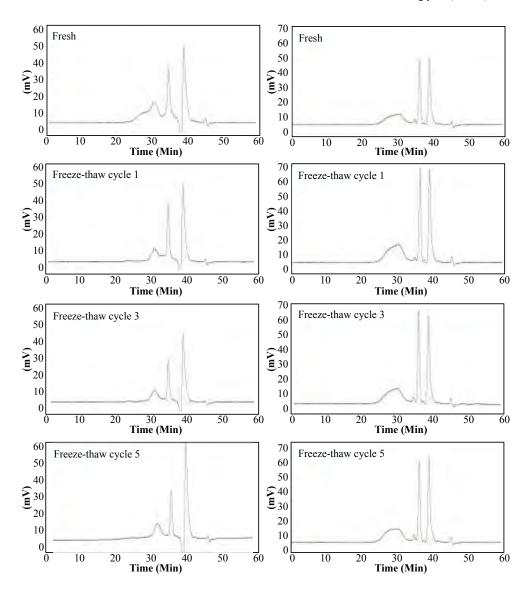
จากการวิเคราะห์แอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการสลายผนังเซลล์ ได้แก่ polygalacturonase (PG), pectinmethylesterase (PME), ß galacturonase (ß-G). และ cellulase (CEL) ในมะละกอก่อนและ หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย (ตารางที่ 12) พบว่า หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายเอนไซม์ส่วนใหญ่มี แอคติวิตีลดลงเพียงเล็กน้อย คือคงเหลืออยู่ในช่วง 86 – 98 % ของแอคติวิตีก่อนการแช่เยือกแข็ง ผลดังกล่าวนี้ แสดงให้เห็นว่า แม้การแช่เยือกแข็งจะทำให้เอนไซม์ที่สลายเพคตินและเซลลูโลสหยุดชะงักเพราะอุณหภูมิต่ำ แต่แอคติวิตีไม่ได้หายไปและเอนไซม์สามารถแสดงกิจกรรมได้หลังการละลายน้ำแข็ง นอกจากนี้เมื่อนำมะละกอ ไปแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายซ้ำจนถึงรอบที่ 5 และนำมาวิเคราะห์แอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์เหล่านี้ พบว่าแอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์มีค่าลดลงจากรอบที่ 1 อีกเพียงเล็กน้อย การคงอยู่ของแอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการ สลายผนังเซลล์หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายแสดงว่า การนิ่มหรือเละของเนื้อมะละกอแช่เยือกแข็งนั้นส่วน หนึ่งน่าจะมีผลมาจากกิจกรรมของเอนไซม์เหล่านี้ที่กลับคืนมาในระหว่างการละลายน้ำแข็ง นอกจากนี้ผลการคง อยู่ของแอคติวิตีของเอนไซม์เหล่านี้ยังสามารถอธิบายถึงผลการแตกตัวของโมเลกุลเพคตินที่ละลายน้ำหลังการ แช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายมะละกอ การเปลี่ยนแปลงในระดับเซลล์ และปริมาณของเพคตินที่ละลายในน้ำที่ เพิ่มขึ้นได้



<u>ภาพที่ 11</u> Molecular mass distribution profiles of water-, chelating agent- and Na_2CO_3 -soluble pectin fractions from fresh papaya and frozen-thawed papaya



24%KOH-soluble matrix glycan (24KSF)



<u>ภาพที่ 12 Molecular mass distribution profiles of 4%KOH- and 24%KOH-soluble hemicellulose fractions from fresh</u> papaya and frozen-thawed papaya

ตารางที่ 12 Changes in cell wall-degrading enzyme activities (PG, PME and β -Gal; μ mole·min mg protein protein mg protein protein protein mg protein protein mg protein mg

| Samples | PG | PME | eta-Gal | CEL |
|---------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Fresh | 23.16 ^a ±1.77 | 17.95 ^a ±1.03 | 30.67 ^a ±0.81 | 11.60 ^a ±0.41 |
| FT 1 | 21.15 ^b ±1.05 | 17.48 ^a ±0.65 | 29.88 ^a ±1.08 | 10.48 ^b ±0.51 |
| FT 3 | 20.01 ^b ±0.36 | 17.58 ^a ±0.42 | 27.60 ^b ±0.26 | 9.98 ^c ±0.59 |

Data are shown as mean \pm standard deviation. Means with different superscript letters in the same column indicate they are significantly different (P<0.05). PG = polygalacturonase, PME = pectin methylesterase, β -Gal = β -galactosidase, CEL = cellulase, FT1 = Freeze-thaw cycle 1 and FT 5 = Freeze-thaw cycle 5.

2.6. กลไกการเปลี่ยนแปลงเนื้อสัมผัสของผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็ง

จากการประมวลผลการเปลี่ยนแปลงเนื้อสัมผัสของผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งระดับเนื้อเยื่อ เซลล์และโมเลกุล ทำให้สามารถคาดคะเนสาเหตุการเปลี่ยนแปลงเนื้อสัมผัสของผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งได้ว่า เกิดจาก (1) ผลึกน้ำแข็ง ที่เกิดขึ้นในระหว่างการแช่เยือกแข็ง ผลึกน้ำแข็งเหล่านี้ทำให้เกิดการฉีกขาดของเซลล์ ทำให้เมื่อทำละลายเซลล์ ไม่สามารถเก็บกักน้ำในเซลล์ได้ และสูญเสียความเต่ง ทำให้เนื้อเยื่อผลไม้นิ่มเละ มีปริมาณน้ำที่สูญเสียหลังทำละลาย (2) เอนไซม์ที่สลายเพคตินและเฮมิเซลลูโลส ซึ่งยังคงมีกิจกรรมเหลืออยู่หลังการแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลาย ทำให้สายโมเลกุลเพคตินและเฮมิเซลลูโลสมีขนาดเล็กลง เกิดการแตกตัวของโมเลกุล ทำให้ผนังเซลล์ สูญเสียความแข็งแรง มีผลทำให้เซลล์เปลี่ยนแปลงและเนื้อสัมผัสนิ่มลง

อนึ่งจากความรู้ที่ได้รับจากงานวิจัยนี้ ผู้วิจัยได้ทำงานวิจัยต่อยอดเพื่อพัฒนาปรับปรุงเนื้อสัมผัสของ มะม่วงพันธุ์น้ำดอกไม้แช่เยือกแข็งให้มีเนื้อสัมผัสดีขึ้น ซึ่งสรุปได้ว่า การใช้ชิ้นมะม่วงที่มีความสุกระดับยังไม่สุก เต็มที่ (partially ripe) แช่ในสารละลายน้ำตาลซูโครส 50% ผสมแคลเซียมแลคเตด 1% เป็นเวลา 1 ชั่วโมง และ นำไปแช่เยือกแข็ง ทำให้เนื้อสัมผัสของมะม่วงหลังแช่เยือกแข็งและทำละลายดีขึ้น รายละเอียดอยู่ในบทความที่ 4 (ภาคผนวก)

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Output ที่ได้จากโครงการ

1. ผลงานวิจัยที่ตีพิมพ์ในวารสารวิชาการระดับนานาชาติ

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หมายเหตุ บทความที่ 1 เกิดจากการทดลองศึกษาการเปลี่ยนแปลงของผลไม้ไทยชนิดต่าง ๆ เนื่องจากการ แช่เยือกแข็ง ส่วนบทความที่ 3 เกิดจากการต่อยอดงานวิจัยโดยอาศัยความรู้ที่ได้จากงานวิจัยโครงการนี้

2. การนำผลงานวิจัยไปใช้ประโยชน์

- เชิงพาณิชย์ (มีการนำไปผลิต/ขาย/ก่อให้เกิดรายได้ หรือมีการนำไปประยุกต์ใช้โดยภาคธุรกิจ/ บุคคลทั่วไป) ไม่มี
- เชิงนโยบาย (มีการกำหนดนโยบายอิงงานวิจัย/เกิดมาตรการใหม่/เปลี่ยนแปลงระเบียบ ข้อบังคับหรือวิธีทำงาน) ไม่มี
- เชิงสาธารณะ (มีเครือข่ายความร่วมมือ/สร้างกระแสความสนใจในวงกว้าง)
 วางแผนจะจัดทำบทความสำหรับเผยแพร่ในวารสารภาษาไทยโดยใช้ข้อมูลจากงานวิจัยนี้และ
 ผลงานต่อยอดเพื่อเป็นข้อมูลและประโยชน์แก่อุตสาหกรรมผลไม้แช่เยือกแข็งของไทย
- เชิงวิชาการ (มีการพัฒนาการเรียนการสอน/สร้างนักวิจัยใหม่)
 งานวิจัยนี้เป็นประโยชน์ต่อการเรียนการสอนด้านวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยีการอาหารทั้งใน
 ระดับปริญญาตรี (วิชา เทคโนโลยีการแช่เยือกแข็งอาหาร ภาควิชาวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี
 การอาหาร คณะอุตสาหกรรมเกษตร มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์) และบัณฑิตศึกษา (นิสิต
 ระดับปริญญาโท จำนวน 2 คนและระดับปริญญาเอก จำนวน 2 คนร่วมในโครงการวิจัยนี้)

- 3. อ**ื่น ๆ** (เช่น ผลงานตีพิมพ์ในวารสารวิชาการในประเทศ การเสนอผลงานในที่ประชุมวิชาการ หนังสือ การจดสิทธิบัตร) **การเสนอผลงานในที่ประชุมวิชากา**ร
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ภาคผนวก

ผลงานตีพิมพ์ จำนวน 4 เรื่อง

บทความที่ 1

Freezing characteristics and texture variation after freezing and thawing of four fruit types



Songklanakarin J. Sci. Technol. 34 (5), 517-523, Sep. - Oct. 2012



Original Article

Freezing characteristics and texture variation after freezing and thawing of four fruit types

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Abstract

One major problem with frozen fruits is a loss of texture. Therefore this study investigated the effects of the freezing process on the freezing profiles, texture, and drip loss of apple, mango, cantaloupe, and pineapple fruit samples. All frozen-thawed fruits varied in these three properties because of diversity in the fresh fruits. Mango had the highest total soluble solids content and the lowest freezing point, whereas pineapple showed the highest freezing rate. The highest firmness and crunchy texture were found in fresh apple, and these properties were absent in the other fresh fruits. The firmness of all frozen fruits significantly decreased by different percentages as compared to those of the fresh fruits. The drip loss of each fruit type was also significantly different with apple samples having the highest firmness decrease and drip loss. This study shows that freezing characteristics and frozen fruit properties depend on type of fruit.

Keywords: freezing, fruit, freezing rate, texture, drip loss

1. Introduction

The use of the freezing process to increase the length of fruit viability has gained widespread attention since the reduction of available water due to ice crystal formation and subzero temperatures provides an environment which favors reduced chemical reactions leading to increased storage stability (Zaritzky, 2006). However, freezing is not a perfect method of preservation since even at low temperatures food quality deterioration may still occur. The formation of ice can result in textural changes and disruption of cell compartments causing the release of chemically reactive components (Lim et al., 2004).

Due to the high water content of many fruit types, fruits are one of the most difficult of all food products to freeze without causing changes in appearance, texture, flavor, and color of the freeze-thawed product. In particular,

one major effect of fruit freezing is a loss of tissue firmness (Coggins and Chamul, 2004), but the related loss of water holding capacity can also be a problem for many types of frozen fruit. Fruit samples which exhibit excessive drip loss on thawing may lack the proper juiciness when chewed leading to a perceived reduction in fruit quality (Kerr, 2004).

The effects of the freezing process on many fruit types have already been reported. For example, Marin *et al.* (1992) examined the chemical and biochemical changes in mango after air blast freezing at -40°C and during storage at -18°C for a 4 month period. They found that freezing mango slices did not lead to changes in moisture content or soluble solids content, however, the titratable acidity of the slices decreased due to the freezing process. Bartolomé *et al.* (1996) studied the sugar content and composition of pineapple after being frozen and stored in a cold room at -18°C for a 12 month period. They reported that freezing the pineapple fruit slices led to minimal changes in soluble solids and sugar content (fructose, glucose and sucrose) after 1 year of frozen storage. Simandjuntak *et al.* (1996) studied changes in the composition, drip loss and color of cantaloupe and honey

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dew melon stored for 5 and 10 months at -23°C. They reported a negative correlation between drip loss and total neutral sugar content and a positive correlation between drip loss and the pectin fraction yield as storage time increased. Jie et al. (2003) measured the freezing points (during freezing at -30°C) and soluble solids of 11 types of fruit. They found a high negative correlation between soluble solids and freezing point. Chassagne-Berces et al. (2009) reported the effects of three different freezing protocols (at -20°C, -80°C and -196°C) on the mechanical properties of apple cylinders. They found that freezing at -20°C and being immersed in liquid nitrogen were the protocols which most affected the fruit texture. Studies on the effect of the freezing process on the quality of strawberry (Delgado and Rubiolo, 2005; Modise, 2008), muskmelon (Maestrelli et al., 2001), raspberry (Antonio, 2003), and kiwi (Talens et al., 2003) have also been reported. These diverse studies show that the freezing process has both chemical and physical effects on the properties of frozen fruits. However, most previous research studies examined only one type of fruit. Consequently, the comparison of results between the different research projects is complicated because of the variation in preparation and analytical methods of each research.

Therefore, the objective of the present work was to consistently investigate the freezing point and freezing rate of several fruits (apple, mango, cantaloupe, and pineapple) and the effect of the freezing process on the texture of these frozen fruits

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Raw materials

Apples (cv. Fuji), mangoes (cv. Nam Dok Mai), cantaloupes (cv. Sunlady), and pineapples (cv. Smooth Cayenne) were purchased from the Si Mum Muang central market in Bangkok, Thailand, during February to March 2010. The fruits were selected for uniformity in size, maturity based on the peel and flesh color, and total soluble solids content. The measured total soluble solids contents at 25°C were in the ranges of 11–14 °Brix for apples, 16–19 °Brix for mangoes, 9–11 °Brix for cantaloupes, and 13–15 °Brix for pineapples.

2.2 Sample preparation

Twenty percent of the total fruit length from the stem and blossom ends of each fruit was discarded since these segments are known to have highly diverse fruit properties, particularly the firmness and sweetness. Only the central segments of the fruit samples were used to help minimize variation within the samples. All of the fruit samples were washed, peeled, cut into 1.5 cm cubes and packed in plastic bags.

2.3 Freezing and thawing process

Thermocouples (K type, Omega engineering, USA.) were inserted into the center of the fruit cubes and adhesive tape was used to fix the thermocouples. All of the fruit cubes were frozen at -40°C in a cryogenic freezer (Minibatch 1000L, Bangkok Industrial Gas Co., Thailand), which allowed the flow rate of liquid nitrogen to be adjusted, until the central temperature of the samples reached -25°C. The frozen samples were then stored at -18°C in a chest freezer (Sanyo refrigerator, model SF-C1497, Japan) for 30 days before being thawed at 8°C in a low temperature incubator (Low Temperature Incubator, IPP400, Memmert, Germany) prior to the analysis of the frozen-thawed samples. The central temperature of the fruit cubes during the freezing and thawing process were recorded every 1 min using the thermocouples and a data logger (Presica 2002). The central temperatures, which were the sample's warmest point, were recorded for two sample cubes in each replication. The experiments were repeated twice.

The approximate initial freezing points for all of the fruit samples were estimated from the freezing profile, using the first obviously observed change in slope. The freezing rate of the samples was expressed as the rate of temperature decrease from the initial temperature (25°C) to -18°C per minute (°C/min) (adapted from Chassagne-Berces *et al.*, 2010).

2.4 Moisture content and total soluble solids content

The moisture contents of all of the fresh fruit samples were analyzed by drying the samples in a vacuum oven at 70°C until the samples reached a constant weight (AOAC., 1999). For the total soluble solids content, the fresh fruits were first blended and then crushed through cheesecloth. The total soluble solids were then measured from the resulting fruit juices using a hand refractometer (Digital Hand-held Pocket Refractometer, PAL-1, Atago, Japan). The measurements were done in triplicate for each treatment.

2.5 Texture

The texture of the fresh and frozen-thawed samples was determined using a Texture Analyzer (TA.XT2, Stable Micro Systems, UK) with a 36 mm cylindrical flat head probe (P36). The firmness was measured using a compression of 50% strain and a compression rate of 1 mm/s. The maximum peak force was expressed as a firmness value in Newton. Ten pieces of fruit were tested for each treatment. The firmness decrease was calculated using the following equation:

Firmness decrease (%) =
$$(F_i - F_f) \times 100 / F_i$$

where F_i is the firmness of the fresh fruit cubes, and F_f is the firmness of the frozen-thawed fruit cubes.

2.6 Drip loss

The drip loss of the frozen samples was measured using the method outlined by Lowithun and Charoenrein (2009). Four frozen sample cubes were laid over absorbent paper and placed into a double layered zip lock plastic bag to eliminate evaporation during thawing. Then the samples were thawed at 8°C. The drip loss was measured by periodically weighing the absorbent paper until a constant value was reached. The measurements were done in triplicate for each treatment and the results were calculated using the following equation:

Drip loss (%) =
$$(W_t - W_0) \times 100 / W_s$$

where W_0 is the weight of the absorbent paper prior to thawing, W_t is the weight of the absorbent paper after thawing and W_t is the weight of the sample.

2.7 Statistical analysis

The collected data were analyzed using a one-way analysis of variance with SPSS for Windows. Duncan's multiple range test was used to compare the means (p<0.05).

3. Result and Discussion

3.1 Freezing point and freezing profile

The temperature of each fruit sample was recorded during the freezing process at -40°C. The freezing profiles of the four types of fruit are shown in Figure 1. The approximate initial freezing points of all of the fruits were estimated from the freezing profile, where the first clear change in slope was observed. The initial freezing points of all of the fruit samples were in the range of -1.6 to -3.0°C (Table 1). Some previous reports on the initial freezing point of fruits found values between -2.20 to -2.32°C for apple (Jie *et al.*, 2003) and -1.4 to -2.0°C for pineapple (Hayes, 1987). These values were

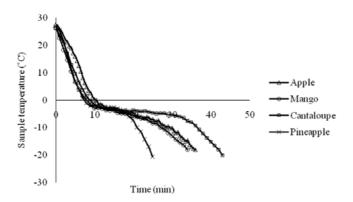


Figure 1. Freezing profile of fruit samples frozen at -40°C. The temperature of two sample cubes was recorded for each replication. The data were averaged from 2 replications.

slightly different from our freezing point results (-1.6 and -2.1°C for apple and pineapple, respectively). These slight differences are most likely due to diversity in fruit varieties or environmental differences in fruit cultivation which could affect the chemical composition of fruits especially the total soluble solids content.

For these four fruits, mango displayed the lowest initial freezing point (-3.0°C) followed by pineapple (-2.1°C), with the others showing a similar value (-1.6°C). The total soluble solids of these four fruits were also significantly different (p<0.05). The highest total soluble solids value was found in mango followed by pineapple, then apple, and cantaloupe. Higher total soluble solids contents imply higher sugar contents which result in a lower freezing point. From these results, the initial freezing points seem to have a negative relation to the total soluble solids content of the fruit samples. Similar findings were reported by Jie et al. (2003). They reported a high negative correlation between the total soluble solids of 11 fruits and the freezing point values. However, the differences in freezing points of the various fruits may also be due to factors other than the total soluble solids content including the type of sugar used, sugar content, and

A correlation between freezing points and total soluble solids content had previously been reported by Chen et al. (1990) and Auleda et al. (2011). Chen et al. (1990) studied the depression of the freezing points of mixed solutions of sugar and acid at various concentrations (0-60 °Brix). Their results showed that the freezing points of these solutions decreased as concentrations (°Brix) increased. Most notably, the freezing point values decreased for concentrations higher than 30 °Brix. Auleda et al. (2011) studied the freezing point of apple juice, pear juice and peach juice at various concentrations within the range of 10-40 °Brix. Their results confirmed that the freezing point values of the juices decreased with increasing concentrations. However, their studies were carried out in fruit juice systems with the addition of sugar and acid, while our study used four fresh fruits.

3.2 Freezing rate

The freezing rates of the tested fruits are shown in Table 1. These results show that pineapple had the highest freezing rate (p<0.05) and cantaloupe had the lowest. The compositions of the fruit initial moisture contents were found to have a significant effect on the freezing rate. Previously it had been found that food products with higher initial freezing points, lower initial water contents and higher unfreezable water contents had shorter freezing times (Hsieh *et al.*, 1977). For that reason, the higher moisture contents of the cantaloupe samples were most likely what caused the lower freezing rate (Table 1).

The apple and pineapple samples had similar moisture content values but pineapple was found to have a significantly higher freezing rate (p<0.05) than that of apple. Differ-

| Table 1. | Properties, freezing rate, and initial freezing point of the apple, mango, cantaloupe |
|----------|---|
| | and pineapple samples. |

| Fruit | Moisture content (g/100g sample) | TSS (°Brix) | Freezing rate (°C·min ⁻¹) | Initial freezing point (°C) |
|------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Apple | 86.54 ^b ±0.70 | 12.9 ^b ±0.03 | $1.3^{a} \pm 0.1$ $1.3^{a} \pm 0.2$ | -1.6 |
| Mango | 82.43 ^a ±0.60 | 17.6 ^d ±0.34 | | -3.0 |
| Cantaloupe | 91.64°±1.12 | 10.0°±0.00 | $1.0^{a}\pm0.1$ | -1.6 |
| Pineapple | 85.61°±0.87 | 13.9°±0.04 | $1.9^{b}\pm0.2$ | -2.1 |

Data are recorded as the mean \pm standard deviation as measured from 2 replications. In each column, values followed by different letters are significantly different (p<0.05).

ences in thermal conductivity are another explanation for the different freezing rate values. Pineapples have been reported to have higher thermal conductivity values than that of apples at 28°C with a moisture content of 84.9% (Sweat, 1974). These data could possibly explain the slower decrease in temperature of the apple cube samples as compared to the pineapple cubes during the cooling above the initial freezing point (Figure 1). Moreover, the lower density values of the apple samples probably also further reduced the thermal conductivity because of voids in the fruits (Sweat, 1974).

In comparison between mangoes and pineapples, the freezing rate of mango samples was significantly lower (p<0.05) than that of pineapples even though the mangoes had a slightly lower moisture content. Laohasongkram *et al.* (1995) reported that the thermal conductivity of mangoes (for moisture contents in the range of 79–81%) at -18°C was 0.925 W/m·°C whereas the thermal conductivity of pineapple (for moisture contents in the range of 80–85%) at -18°C was 1.11 W/m·°C (Chaiwanichsiri *et al.*, 1996). The high thermal conductivity of pineapples supports the difference in freezing rate between these two types of fruit.

3.3 Firmness

The firmness of both the fresh and frozen-thawed fruits was measured using a compression test (Table 2). This

compression test is a general measurement of the deformability of the tissue taken as a whole (Bourne, 2002). In order to better understand the texture of all four fruit types, the texture profiles of both the fresh and frozen-thawed fruits are shown in Figure 2.

The firmness values of all the fresh fruit samples were significantly different (p<0.05) from each other. The fresh apple samples had the highest firmness values, follow by cantaloupe, pineapple, and the lowest firmness value was found for mango. With respect to texture profiles, the fresh apple and cantaloupe samples had the highest maximum peak force which indicates that these fruits have a firm texture, whereas the fresh mango profile showed a low maximum peak force which indicates a soft texture. The texture profile of the fresh apple samples also showed a large number of small fracture peaks which indicates the samples had a rigid and crunchy texture. These textural properties were not found in the other fruits (Figure 2).

The firmness values of all of the frozen-thawed fruit samples decreased with respect to that of the fresh fruit samples (Table 2). During freezing, the water in the samples partially formed ice crystals which negatively damaged the cellular integrity of the cellular compartments reducing the turgor pressure and firmness values of the samples.

The type of fruit also exhibited an effect on %firmness decrease after the freezing and thawing process. For apple,

Table 2. Drip loss and firmness of both fresh and frozen-thawed apple, mango, cantaloupe and pineapple cubes.

| Fruit | Firmness (N) | | Firmness | Drip loss | |
|------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--|
| Truit | Fresh | Frozen-thawed | decrease (%) | (%) | |
| Apple | 68.81 ^d ±1.41 | 11.10 ^b ±0.69 | 83.87 ^d ±0.66 | 44.04 ^d ±1.48 | |
| Mango | $4.77^{a}\pm0.18$ | $1.61^{a}\pm0.24$ | $66.32^{\circ}\pm3.75$ | $18.70^{a}\pm2.16$ | |
| Cantaloupe | 27.61°±2.20 | $21.66^{\circ}\pm1.90$ | $21.58^{a}\pm0.60$ | $26.71^{b} \pm 1.33$ | |
| Pineapple | $18.37^{b}\pm2.77$ | $9.10^{b}\pm0.27$ | 49.97 ^b ±6.12 | $38.00^{\circ}\pm1.51$ | |

Data are recorded as the mean \pm standard deviation from 2 replications. In each column, values followed by different letters are significantly different (p<0.05). Ten and four sample cubes were used for the firmness and drip loss measurement, respectively.

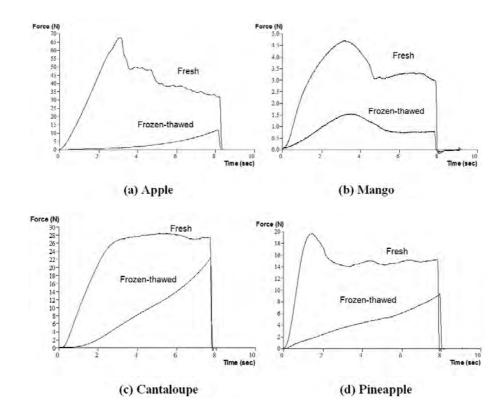


Figure 2. Texture profiles of both fresh and frozen-thawed (a) apple cubes, (b) mango cubes, (c) cantaloupe cubes, and (d) pineapple cubes, respectively. Ten sample cubes were used for each measurement. The experiments were done in 2 replications.

the frozen-thawed samples showed the highest level of %firmness decrease after freezing and thawing (p<0.05) in spite of fresh apple having the highest firmness level. This result is most likely due to the rigid structure, high firmness value, and crunchiness of fresh apple in comparison with the other fruits.

The freezing and thawing process affected both the maximum peak forces and the texture profiles of all of the fruit samples. For the frozen-thawed samples, the change in texture profiles of the apple, cantaloupe, and pineapple samples followed the same trend (Figure 2a, 2c, and 2d), while a dissimilar texture profile was found for frozen-thawed mangoes (Figure 2b). For the three similar texture profiles, the force was found to increase with increasing time or distance of compression and showed a maximum peak force at the end of the compression process. This phenomenon implies that there was no turgor force from tissue layers during the compression of the probe on the fruit cubes. The maximum force resulted from the compression of the damaged tissues caused by the freezing and thawing process. In the case of the frozen-thawed mango, the maximum peak force decreased in comparison with that of fresh mango; however, the texture profiles of both mango samples showed the same trend with the maximum peak force in the middle of the compression process. After that the force decreased and tended to be rather constant through to the end of the compression. Most likely some mango tissues were destroyed by the freezing

and thawing process, but some of the tissues still had turgor pressure to resist the compression force from the probe. Our results show that fresh fruits with firm textures tend to have less resistance to deterioration by ice crystals during freezing and thawing than fresh fruits with a soft texture.

These types of effects of the freezing process on fruit texture have not been previously reported. However, reductions in firmness values subsequent to freezing and thawing of apple, mango, melon, and pineapple have been reported. The study of Maestrelli et al. (2001) also reported on the effect of freezing using an air blast freezer at -48°C on the texture of muskmelon spheres. Their results showed that the freezing process caused a 30% reduction of the maximum forces of cultivar Rony, while it did not influence those of cultivar Mirado. They confirmed that the effects of freezing on texture of these two melon cultivars were quite different. Ramallo and Mascheroni (2010) reported on the firmness and turgor loss of pineapple induced by ice crystal formation during freezing at -31.5°C. Chassagne-Berces et al. (2010) studied the effect of freezing on the texture of frozen apple and mango cylinders (1.2 cm in diameter and 2 cm in height). They found that the impact of the freezing protocol (-20°C vs -80°C, and immersion in liquid nitrogen) was much higher for apple than for mango. They suggested that their results could be related to differences in the textures of apple and mango in the fresh state. This finding is similar to the texture results for frozen apple and mango found in our study.

3.4 Drip loss

The ice crystals which form during the freezing process are known to damage fruit cells. Then during the thawing process, liquid can leak from the interior to the exterior of the cells resulting in drip loss. Different types of fruit have different levels of drip loss with our results showing that the drip loss after being frozen-thawed was not related to the % firmness decrease after being frozen-thawed (Table 2). Also the drip losses of all four fruit types were significantly different (p<0.05) from each other. Subsequent to freezing and thawing, apple showed the highest drip loss and mango had the lowest value. The reason for this is most likely due to the severe damage in the apple tissues after freeze-thawing. The drip loss of the frozen-thawed mango also showed a significantly lower value (p<0.05) than that of cantaloupe and pineapple. These differences in drip loss were most likely due to the high moisture content of cantaloupe and the juicy texture of pineapple in comparison with mango.

Drip loss is typically attributed to three main factors: high internal pressure in the product, formation of ice crystals in the product and the irreversibility of water removal from cells (Jul, 1984). However, Jul (1984) claimed that none of these factors completely explained the phenomenon of drip loss. Simandjuntak *et al.* (1996) proposed that an increase in drip loss indicated a greater loss of liquid cellular components and may be caused by either mechanical or enzyme-catalyzed disruption of cell walls and membranes during frozen storage. In addition, the ice crystal growth which may occur during frozen storage could lead to crystal formation which might also cause mechanical damage by physically rupturing cell walls.

Chassagne-Berces *et al.* (2010) reported a decrease in water content after freezing and thawing of apple cylinders whereas they found that no significant change in water content occurred after freezing and thawing of mango cylinders. These results are in agreement with the results of Marin *et al.* (1992) on other mango varieties. All of these reports correspond well to our finding that apple had the highest drip loss while mango had the lowest drip loss.

4. Conclusion

Among the four fruits studied in this research, mango showed the highest total soluble solids and the lowest freezing point, whereas, pineapple showed the highest freezing rate. In the case of apple, frozen apple had the highest value for both %firmness decrease and drip loss after thawing, in spite of the fact that fresh apple exhibits the highest firmness and crunchy texture which was not found in our mango, cantaloupe, and pineapple samples. Our results show that the properties of fresh fruit (moisture content, total soluble solids content, and texture) have a considerable effect on the freezing characteristics, drip loss and firmness values of frozen-thawed fruits.

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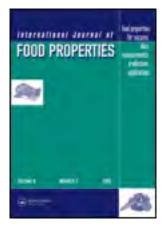
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Effect of Cultivar and Ripening Stage on Quality and Microstructure of Frozen Mangoes (Mangifera indica Linn.)

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EFFECT OF CULTIVAR AND RIPENING STAGE ON QUALITY AND MICROSTRUCTURE OF FROZEN MANGOES (MANGIFERA INDICA LINN.)

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The aim of this work was to investigate the quality and microstructure of different frozen mango cultivars. Since freezing can cause severe textural damage to fruit, the proper selection of a ripening stage and cultivar can reduce such damage. Two mango cultivars (Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan) were allowed to ripen for four ripening stages. During ripening, titratable acidity, alcohol-insoluble residues, and firmness significantly decreased while total soluble solids, total pectin, and water-soluble pectin levels increased. Mangoes from the three final ripening stages were frozen until the temperature of the samples reached -25°C. After thawing, the partially ripe mango samples exhibited the highest firmness, lowest drip loss, lowest water-soluble pectin, and the highest sensory firmness scores. The microstructure found using light microscopy and transmission electron microscopy showed that all frozenthawed mangoes exhibited a swelling and folding of the cell wall due to freezing damage. The cell walls of fully ripe mangoes were dramatically damaged, which explained the low firmness values. Tissue and cell wall damage in Nam Dok Mai were the greatest, which contributed to the large drip loss. The cheaper Chok Anan cultivar was more resistant to freezing damage than Nam Dok Mai.

Keywords: Freezing, Mango, Ripening, Cultivar, Texture, Microstructure.

INTRODUCTION

Mango is an important fruit from the tropics and subtropical regions. It is a good source of nutrients, particularly rich in vitamin A and contains reasonable amounts of vitamins B and C and dietary fiber.^[1] Many mango cultivars are commercially grown in Thailand. Nam Dok Mai cultivar is a famous export mango of Thailand.^[2] It is a fiberless mango with smooth flesh and a deliciously unique flavor. In contrast to most mango cultivars, the Chok Anan cultivar has the ability to produce off-season flowering without chemical induction.^[3] This generates additional income for farmers by reducing the labor peak at harvest.

The ripening process of the mango fruit involves both physical and biochemical changes, which alters respiration, ethylene production, flavor, texture, aroma, and nutritional values.^[4] The change in color during the ripening process is caused by the

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degradation of chlorophyll and the accumulation of carotenoids. Medlicott et al. [5] observed a rapid destruction of chlorophyll in the Tommy Atkins cultivar. Carotenoid levels increased during ripening whereas anthocyanin levels gradually decreased. Also, carbohydrates and starch converted into sugars, resulting in an increase in sweetness. Increases in the total soluble solids and total soluble sugars have also been reported in ripening Alphonso mangoes,^[6] which correlated with a similar observation in ripening Keitt mangoes.^[7] The cells in the pulp of the fruit are large and can lose their integrity due to cell wall hydrolysis during fruit ripening. The most common changes in the cell wall structure during ripening are related to pectins, which are the major components of primary cell wall and middle lamella. Softening of the fruit observed during ripening is due to the hydrolytic change of protopectin to pectin. The enzymatic demethylation and depolymerization of protopectin, such as pectin methylesterases and polygalacturonase, lead to the formation of low molecular weight compound with less methoxyl groups. [8] For some tropical fruits, the alcohol-insoluble residue (AIR) and texture declined rapidly during ripening. [9] It is known that fruit softening generally is accompanied by a decrease in the content of insoluble pectic substances with a concomitant increase in soluble polyuronides. [6] The increase in total pectin, reported for ripe mangoes, was a consequence of higher free carboxylic groups due to de-esterification of pectins. [6] In raspberries, although the proportion of total pectin in the AIR measurements did not change dramatically during ripening, there were modifications in the relative solubility of the pectin polymers. The water-soluble pectin (WSP) increased as the fruit ripening progressed.[10]

Mango is a highly perishable fruit that possesses a limited shelf life. Mangoes can be stored without perishing for 4 to 8 days at room temperature and 2–3 weeks in cold storage at 13°C and 85–90% relative humidity. This short shelf life seriously limits the ability to commercially transport this fruit long distances. Therefore, preservation of the fruit could help to extend shelf life and support the growing popularity of off-season consumption.

Freezing is one of the most commonly used processes for preserving a wide range of foods both commercially and domestically. It delays spoilage and keeps foods safe by preventing microorganisms from growing and by slowing down enzyme activity. However, this process can cause texture degradation by causing freezing injuries to cell tissues. This tissue damage can be due to the presence of large amounts of water in fresh fruits, which turn into ice crystals after freezing. Freezing has been shown to induce significant changes in the texture, color, and soluble solids of mango and apple. The values of the studied texture parameters also decreased significantly after freezing.^[12] To limit these problems, some research projects have attempted to improve the texture quality of frozen mango by using various pre-treatments. One previous research indicated that initially less ripe mangoes could be softened somewhat by osmotic treatment, with firmness and cohesiveness maintained through frozen storage. [13] Recently, Sriwimon and Boonsupthip [14] reported that the use of partially ripe mango with impregnation of mango juice and sugar were better able to tolerate freezing damage than in ripe mangoes. Partially ripe mangoes better resisted the texture damage caused by ice crystals as a result of a stronger structure.

Microscopy is increasingly being used to study the influence of processing conditions and ingredients on food structure and structural research on some fruits affected by the freezing process has been reported in many studies. Shomer et al.^[15] observed ultrastructural injuries in both the exocarp and the mesocarp cells of thawed Madjhoul dates as viewed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). The damaged cell walls appeared torn or crushed resulting in the formation of intracell-wall spaces. Fava et al.^[16] also found ultrastructural cell changes in blueberries during processing. These results from

light microscopy (LM) and TEM demonstrate that folding and compression of the cell wall of the epicarp can occur during the freeze-thaw process. Furthermore, frozen-thawed apple slices presented the highest microstructure damage as compared to unfrozen and the other pre-treatments studied. LM results showed that the apple cells appeared irregular in shape and tissue distortion was observed due to the growing of ice crystals with cell separation. [17] Otero et al. [18] also found major damage in mango tissues due to the formation of ice crystals. Their LM micrographs indicated that there was also damage in the surface zone of the samples, which presented as broken cells.

Although several studies have focused on the ultrastructural changes in fruit tissues as a result of the freezing process and some researchers have attempted to improve the texture quality of frozen fruits by using various ripening processes, there have been no combination studies on how cultivar type, ripening stage, and freezing affect the microstructure and textural changes of mango tissues. Therefore, the objective of this study was to investigate the effect of cultivar and ripening stage on the quality and microstructure of frozen mangoes. Cell wall damage was examined using complementary microscopic techniques, i.e., LM and TEM. In this study, two cultivars (Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan) and three ripening stages of mango were used to determine the conditions most resistant to freezing damage.

EXPERIMENTAL

Material

Two mango (Mangifera indica Linn.) cultivars Nam Dok Mai #4 and Chok Anan were purchased from a commercial orchard in Nakorn Ratchasima and Suphan Buri province, respectively. Mangoes were harvested at 16 weeks after fruit set. The experiment was carried out in March-April of 2011. The fruits were immediately transported to the laboratory at Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand. The fruit weight ranges were 400-450 g (cv. Nam Dok Mai) and 290-340 g (cv. Chok Anan). Nam Dok Mai was 19-20 cm in length and 9-10 cm in width, while Chok Anan was 14-15 cm in length and 9-10 cm in width. The uniform maturity index was tested by floating mangoes in a NaCl solution. The mangoes, which sank in 10 g Kg⁻¹ NaCl solution and floated in 30 g Kg⁻¹ NaCl solution, were allowed to ripen at room temperature (32 \pm 2°C, 70–75% relative humidity). The characteristics of mango fruit were observed after 0, 3, 4, and 5 days of ripening and 10-15 fruits were randomly sampled. The ripening stage was divided into four stages by visual characteristics, which were mature green (newly harvested, 100% green), partially ripe (30–60% yellow), ripe (60–99% yellow), and fully ripe (100% yellow) stages. Ranges of visual color index were based on peel color of six fruits at each ripening stage. The color was measured at the surface of the peel and pulp of mangoes in terms of L* (lightness), a* (greenness-redness), and b* (blueness-yellowness) using an UltraScan XE (HunterLab, Reston, VA, USA) based on the CIELAB color system. The L*, a*, and b* values were measured on six fruits at three different positions (stem, equatorial, and blossom end) of each fruit.

Total Soluble Solids (TSS) and Total Titratable Acidity (TA)

Total soluble solids (°Brix) were measured using a pocket digital refractometer (Type PAL-1, Atago, Tokyo, Japan). Total titratable acidity was determined according to the AOAC methods.^[19]

Freezing and Thawing

Mangoes at three different ripening stages (partially ripe, ripe, and fully ripe) were used in the freezing process. Approximately 20% from both the stem and the blossom end of the fruit were discarded, since those parts tend to be highly diverse in terms of fruit properties. Only the central parts (60%) of the fruits were used to minimize any variations within the samples. The samples were then washed, peeled, and cut into cubes of 1.5 cm in length. Eight cubes were then packed and sealed in each plastic pouch (NY/LLDPE, 70 μm , 100 \times 150 mm). The weight of samples in each pouch was 28–30 g. The initial temperature of the samples was controlled at 23 \pm 2°C. Samples were frozen at -40° C in a cryogenic freezer (Minibatch 1000L, Bangkok Industrial Gas Co., Thailand) until the temperature of the samples reached -25° C. In this study, the approximate freezing time of frozen mango was 30 min. Frozen mangoes were kept at -18° C in a chest freezer (Sanyo refrigerator, model SF-C1497, Sanyo Electric Co., Ltd., Osaka, Japan) for 15 days. Thawing was performed at 4°C after 5 h in a low-temperature incubator (Memmert, model IPP 400, Germany). The experiments were done in two trials.

Instrumental Textural Analysis

The firmness of fresh and frozen—thawed mango cubes was measured using a compression test Texture Analyzer (TA.XT. plus, Stable Micro Systems, UK). Firmness was performed using a cylindrical probe of 36 mm diameter with a 50 Kg load cell and 50% strain. The speed of the pre-test, test, and post-test were 1.5, 1.5, and 10 mm s⁻¹, respectively. Firmness was determined by the maximum peak force. At least 12 mango cubes were measured for each stage analyzed.

Alcohol-Insoluble Residue and Cell Wall Fractions

The alcohol-insoluble residue (AIR) was extracted from approximately 30 g of fresh and frozen tissue (mesocarp) using 95% ethanol, 70% ethanol and acetone, respectively. [20] The AIR was dried overnight at 40°C and weighed. Ten milligrams of AIR was solubilized in H₂SO₄ and then were assayed colorimetrically for total pectin (TP). [21] Absorbance readings were evaluated against a standard curve of galacturonic acid. The results were expressed as micrograms of galacturonic acid per milligram of AIR.

Approximately 50 mg of AIR from each sample was suspended in 25 mL of water and stirred at room temperature for 30 min. The samples were then centrifuged at $7000 \times g$ and 4° C for 15 min, the supernatant was filtered through Whatman no. 1 filter paper. The procedure was repeated three times. The filtrate was designated the water-soluble fraction and assayed for water-soluble pectin (WSP) as described above.

Drip Loss

Frozen samples were placed over absorbent paper in zip-lock plastic bags and thawed at 4°C for 5 h. Drip loss was determined by a method adapted from Lowithun and Charoenrein.^[22]

Microstructure

For light and transmission electron microscopy observations. Sections of fresh and frozen mango mesocarp ($1 \times 1 \times 2$ mm) were obtained from the inner part of the fruit at a distance of ~ 1.5 cm from the center of the seed with a razor blade. Samples were

prefixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde in a 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) overnight at 4°C. After washing with a phosphate buffer, the samples were then postfixed with 2% osmium tetroxide for 2 h at room temperature. The fixed tissues were washed three times with distilled water and dehydrated stepwise with an ethanol series (30–100%) and propylene oxide. The dehydrated tissues were infiltrated with propylene oxide: Spurr's resin (2:1, 1:1 and 1:2) and 100% Spurr's resin, each for overnight, respectively. Then tissues were polymerized in Spurr's resin for 7 h at 80°C.

Sections were cut using an ultramicrotome (Leica Ultracut UCT, Vienna, Austria) at a $1.5~\mu m$ thickness and stained with 1% toluidine blue for observation under a light microscope (Leica DME, Leica Microsystems Inc., NY, USA). For the transmission electron microscope, ultra-thin sections (60 nm) were obtained using an ultramicrotome, stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate, and examined using a JEOL–JEM–1220 TEM (Tokyo, Japan) at 80~kV. Five specimens from each ripening stage of the two cultivars were examined. At least 500~cells of each sample were viewed under a light microscope. Mean cell size in length and diameter were measured on 50~cells of partially ripe mango in both cultivars. During TEM examination, six cells were randomly chosen to measure the thickness of cell walls for each ripening stage of both cultivars. The thickness of cell walls was measured from the outer part of cell to cell using three points. The average thickness was calculated as the average value of three points measurement divided by two.

Sensory Evaluation

Sensory attributes were evaluated using a liking score (appearance, color, flavor, taste, texture, and overall acceptability) on a 9-point hedonic scale (1 = dislike extremely, 5 = neither like nor dislike, and 9 = like extremely) by 30 untrained panelists.

Statistical Analysis

A completely randomized design was used in this experiment. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's new multiple range test were used to determine statistically significant differences ($P \le 0.05$) of the mean values.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Mango Ripening Characteristic

The four ripening stages of the two cultivars (Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan) were categorized using a visual characteristic and color measurement as mature green, partially ripe, ripe, and fully ripe stage (Fig. 1). The visual skin color of the two different cultivars changed noticeably during fruit ripening. The peel color changed from green to yellow due to the degradation of chlorophyll and the presence of carotenoids. [6] The pulp color changed from a light white-green to yellow or orange due to carotenoids synthesis. Color changes in the peel and pulp are presented as L^* , a^* , and b^* values. The data are shown in Table 1. During the peel color development of both cultivars, the peel a^* and b^* values were found to increase from mature green to fully ripe stage. The L^* value of Chok Anan was revealed to increase from mature green to partially ripe stage, with no increase afterward. In contrast, the L^* value of Nam Dok Mai was not significantly different (P > 0.05) between ripening stages. Chok Anan cultivar had higher peel a^* and b^* values than that of Nam Dok Mai cultivar throughout ripening, whereas the peel L^* value was not significantly different (P > 0.05) between cultivars.

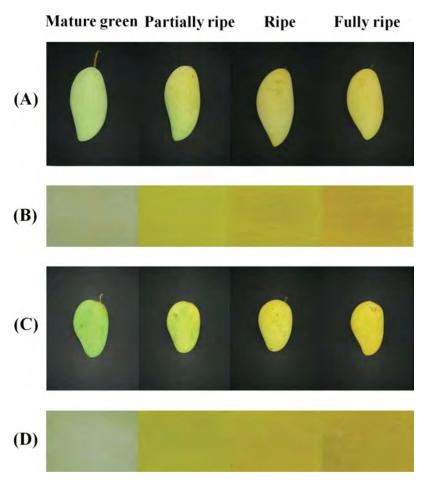


Figure 1 Change in mango peel and pulp color during ripening: (a and b) Nam Dok Mai; (c and d) Chok Anan. (Color figure available online.)

In both cultivars, the L^* value of mango pulp was found to decrease slightly during mango ripening, while the a^* and b^* value of mango pulp increased (Table 1). There was a gradual increase in the a^* value through the ripening process, while the b^* value revealed a rapid increase from mature green to partially ripe stage with no increase afterward. These results indicated that the mango pulp potentially developed a full yellow color during the early stages of ripening, however continued to accumulate red pigments (carotenoids) until the full ripe stage is attained, as indicated by the deep orange color of the mango pulp. ^[5] The increases in the a^* and b^* values appeared to correlate well with the visual color development as shown in Fig. 1. In addition, Chok Anan had a lower L^* value and higher b^* value of mango pulp than Nam Dok Mai during ripening, while the a^* value was not significant difference (P > 0.05) between cultivars.

The amount of %TA significantly decreased although the TSS increased during the fruit ripening process (Table 2). In both cultivars, fruit firmness decreased with each ripening stage. Similar results were found in different mango cultivars during fruit ripening. [23] Chok Anan had a significantly higher firmness value than Nam Dok Mai at all ripening stages except the ripe stage ($P \le 0.05$). In addition, Jarimopas and Kitthawee [24] also found

Table 1 Changes in mango peel and pulp color during ripening.

| | | | Ripening stage | | | | |
|-------|----------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|--|
| Color | Cultivar | Mature green | Partially ripe | Ripe | Fully ripe | | |
| Peel | | | | | | | |
| L* | NDM | $69.60^{aA} \pm 1.40$ | $70.40^{aA} \pm 1.12$ | $70.30^{aA} \pm 0.42$ | $71.42^{aA} \pm 1.23$ | | |
| | CA | $55.49^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 0.45$ | $69.03^{aA} \pm 0.94$ | $70.33^{aA} \pm 1.02$ | $70.07^{aA} \pm 0.69$ | | |
| a* | NDM | $-4.09^{\mathrm{dA}} \pm 0.57$ | $1.06^{cB} \pm 0.36$ | $6.08^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 0.60$ | $7.79^{aB} \pm 0.12$ | | |
| | CA | $-7.24^{\mathrm{dB}} \pm 0.13$ | $6.02^{cA} \pm 0.78$ | $11.04^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.20$ | $12.43^{aA} \pm 0.49$ | | |
| b* | NDM | $28.73^{cA} \pm 0.47$ | $30.81^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 1.48$ | $34.74^{aB} \pm 0.67$ | $35.72^{aB} \pm 0.92$ | | |
| | CA | $23.33^{\mathrm{dB}} \pm 0.17$ | $43.18^{cA} \pm 0.32$ | $45.34^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.39$ | $48.08^{aA} \pm 0.69$ | | |
| Pulp | | | | | | | |
| L* | NDM | $83.56^{aA} \pm 0.52$ | $74.71^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.19$ | $71.29^{cA} \pm 0.41$ | $68.58^{dA} \pm 1.17$ | | |
| | CA | $83.89^{aA} \pm 0.30$ | $71.33^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 1.35$ | $67.31^{\text{cB}} \pm 0.74$ | $64.06^{\mathrm{dB}} \pm 0.85$ | | |
| a* | NDM | $-0.96^{dA} \pm 0.13$ | $7.09^{cA} \pm 1.34$ | $10.54^{\text{bA}} \pm 1.81$ | $13.40^{aA} \pm 0.38$ | | |
| | CA | $-2.94^{\mathrm{dB}} \pm 0.18$ | $7.81^{cA} \pm 1.43$ | $12.28^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.17$ | $14.66^{aA} \pm 0.77$ | | |
| b* | NDM | $22.97^{cA} \pm 0.29$ | $50.61^{aB} \pm 0.82$ | $48.38^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 0.91$ | $50.18^{aA} \pm 0.84$ | | |
| | CA | $21.83^{\mathrm{bA}} \pm 1.07$ | $54.45^{aA} \pm 0.89$ | $51.43^{aA} \pm 1.04$ | $54.33^{aA} \pm 4.29$ | | |

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (a–d) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$). Mean values in the same column in each attribute followed by different letters (A–B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$).

NDM: Nam Dok Mai; CA: Chok Anan.

Table 2 Changes in fruit properties of two mango cultivars during ripening.

| | | Ripening stage | | | |
|---------------------------------|----------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Properties | Cultivar | Mature green | Partially ripe | Ripe | Fully ripe |
| %TA (as malic acid) | NDM | $2.67^{aA} \pm 0.28$ | $1.10^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.28$ | $0.53^{cA} \pm 0.18$ | $0.19^{cA} \pm 0.05$ |
| | CA | $2.57^{aA} \pm 0.39$ | $0.92^{bA} \pm 0.21$ | $0.26^{cA} \pm 0.03$ | $0.21^{cA} \pm 0.01$ |
| TSS (°Brix) | NDM | $8.67^{cA} \pm 0.25$ | $15.53^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.12$ | $16.47^{aA} \pm 0.35$ | $16.53^{aA} \pm 0.12$ |
| | CA | $7.37^{\text{cB}} \pm 0.15$ | $14.87^{\mathrm{bA}} \pm 0.47$ | $15.60^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 0.40$ | $17.20^{aA} \pm 0.50$ |
| Moisture (%) | NDM | $83.75^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 0.22$ | $83.25^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.11$ | $83.81^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.23$ | $84.58^{aA} \pm 0.45$ |
| | CA | $84.44^{aA} \pm 0.20$ | $81.82^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 0.66$ | $82.50^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 0.28$ | $82.00^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 0.81$ |
| Firmness (N) | NDM | $153.94^{aB} \pm 8.81$ | $10.47^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 0.71$ | $8.92^{bA} \pm 0.58$ | $5.20^{\mathrm{cB}} \pm 0.42$ |
| | CA | $277.48^{\mathrm{aA}} \pm 18.65$ | $14.47^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.76$ | $8.55^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.32$ | $7.33^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.14$ |
| AIR (mg g^{-1} dry basis) | NDM | $513.01^{aB} \pm 11.27$ | $109.70^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 8.69$ | $98.40^{bcB} \pm 2.83$ | $93.37^{\text{cB}} \pm 0.93$ |
| | CA | $640.32^{aA} \pm 26.13$ | $125.78^{\text{bA}} \pm 2.84$ | $125.40^{\text{bA}} \pm 2.63$ | $120.76^{\text{bA}} \pm 2.93$ |
| $TP (\mu g \; mg^{-1} \; AIR)$ | NDM | $34.65^{\mathrm{dB}} \pm 3.08$ | $117.08^{\text{cB}} \pm 4.68$ | $133.21^{\text{bA}} \pm 2.22$ | $139.81^{aA} \pm 2.73$ |
| | CA | $56.75^{\text{bA}} \pm 12.50$ | $126.05^{aA} \pm 2.70$ | $133.00^{aA} \pm 1.47$ | $131.55^{aB} \pm 4.39$ |
| WSP ($\mu g m g^{-1} AIR$) | NDM | $7.64^{dA} \pm 0.17$ | $71.90^{\text{cB}} \pm 1.28$ | $105.61^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 2.16$ | $119.94^{aA} \pm 1.54$ |
| | CA | $8.09^{cA} \pm 0.34$ | $96.09^{\text{bA}} \pm 6.46$ | $117.34^{aA} \pm 3.11$ | $123.93^{aA} \pm 3.88$ |

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (a–d) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$). Mean values in the same column in each attribute followed by different letters (A–B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$).

NDM: Nam Dok Mai; CA: Chok Anan.

that the Chok Anan cultivar was firmer than the Nam Dok Mai throughout the development period. Although fruit firmness can be affected by several factors, predominantly fruit textural changes are thought to be a consequence of changes in the composition of the cell wall.^[12]

To determine the changes in cell wall composition, the AIR, WSP, and TP values were analyzed (Table 2). The AIR values decreased markedly from the mature green to the fully ripe stage of Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan from 513.01 to 93.37 and 640.32 to 120.76 mg g⁻¹ dry basis, respectively. These values may indicate that large alcoholinsoluble polymers are being degraded to shorter alcohol-soluble polymers during fruit ripening. In addition, the decrease in AIR may be due to the conversion of starch to soluble sugars and conversion of fiber to alcohol-soluble solids. [9] The degradation of starch during ripening Keitt mangoes involved with enzymes, such as α -amylase and β -amylase. The soluble sugars found in the fruit are glucose and fructose, but in lower amounts than sucrose. [25] An apparent decrease in AIR during fruit ripening was also reported in the Dashehari mango, [26] Zebda and Baladi mango, [9] and the Tommy Atkins and Keitt mangoes. [27] In this study, we also found that the softening of mangoes during ripening (Table 2) was accompanied by a rapid decrease in AIR. Accordingly, a recent study on the blueberry reported that fruit firmness and AIR decreased as blueberry ripening progressed. [28] TP increased markedly from the mature green to fully ripe stage in both mango cultivars, while the fruit firmness decreased. Pectin is the major carbohydrate of ripe fruits, whereas starch constituted the bulk of the AIR of mature green fruits. The increase in pectin content with ripening was a consequence of the generation of a higher proportion of free carboxylic groups due to de-esterification of pectins.^[6] A clear increase in WSP fraction was observed in the Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan cultivars through the different ripening stages. A similar observation in the ripening of Alphonso mangoes showed that WSP had undergone a drastic depolymerization during mango ripening, which contributed to the tissue softening and textural changes.^[6] However, Chok Anan retained a significantly higher firmness than Nam Dok Mai at all ripening stages, except the ripe stage. These textural differences between the two cultivars may be the result of differences in cell wall composition and a greater amount of the AIR in the Chok Anan variety.

Quality of Frozen Mangoes

In this study, the freezing rate by cryogenic freezer was approximately 1.5°C min⁻¹. The drip loss of the frozen-thawed Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan samples increased with increasing ripening stage (Fig. 2a). The fully ripe mango samples had a lower firmness value than the ripe and partially ripe samples, which likely contributed to the increased drip loss. Similar results have also been found in the thawing process of thornless blackberries for which drip loss is more extensive in fully ripe than in slightly under-ripe fruit. [29] Wenzel et al. [30] also reported that drip losses of thawing strawberries increased in riper fruits. Furthermore, Sistrunk^[31] observed greater drip losses with over-ripe than with ripe strawberries, which he attributed to the release of pectic enzymes in the over-ripe fruit. However, the Nam Dok Mai cultivar had a higher drip loss than the Chok Anan at all ripening stages. At the fully ripe stage, which has the highest drip loss, many of the thawed mango pieces had collapsed, giving these samples an unattractive appearance. This result could be due to tissue damages during freezing as a result of the higher moisture content and lower firmness value of fresh Nam Dok Mai. These results are supported by microstructure results in which Nam Dok Mai appeared to have more cell wall damage than in the Chok Anan samples after thawing.

A texture measurement of the frozen-thawed mangoes showed that the firmness value decreased with the increasing ripening stage (Fig. 2b). The firmness value of both cultivars at the fully ripe stage was extremely low. These results suggest that partially ripe mangoes

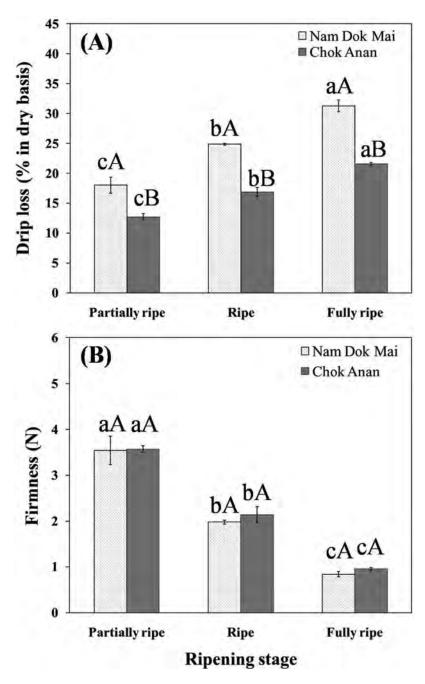


Figure 2 Changes in frozen-thawed mango drip loss (a) and fruit firmness (b) of Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan at various ripening stages. Means with the different letters (a–c) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$) between ripening stages. Mean with the different letters (A–B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$) between cultivars.

can maintain a higher firmness value for frozen-thawed samples than for any of the other ripening stages. Although the firmness value of Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan were relatively similar between cultivars, drip losses were significantly different ($P \le 0.05$) at all ripening stages.

After freezing and thawing, the decrease in AIR of the ripe and fully ripe mangoes was more pronounced than that of the partially ripe mangoes (Table 3). This suggests that changes were taking place in the cell wall material during the frozen-thawed process. The changes in AIR were also associated with a loss of firmness. It has been reported in green beans, peaches, and strawberries that changes in pectic material was a consequence of freezing and frozen storage. [32] TP values were relatively similar in the fresh samples for all ripening stages, whereas WSP values increased. This may indicate that no changes occurred in TP content. However, this does not mean that there were no changes in the cell wall composition. The increase in WSP contents of Nam Dok Mai at all ripening stages were significantly different ($P \le 0.05$) between fresh and frozen samples, while the increase in WSP contents of Chok Anan mango were not significantly different (P > 0.05). The increase in WSP may be due to the solubilization or depolymerization of the cell wall composition caused by ice crystal formation during freezing and ice melting during the thawing process. Frozen-thawed mango Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan at the fully ripe stage had the highest WSP values. These results correspond with the texture results, i.e., lower firmness values correlate with higher WSP values. Although, Chok Anan had higher WSP values than Nam Dok Mai at the partially ripe and the ripe stage, the fruit firmness of the frozen-thawed mangoes had no significant differences (P > 0.05) in either cultivar. In frozen cherries, texture changes have been associated with the composition of the pectin fractions and not with the quantity of pectin in the fruit.^[33] Further study of the composition of pectin fractions in frozen mango is in progress.

Microstructure of Fresh and Frozen Mangoes

The microstructure of frozen and unfrozen mango tissues was observed using LM and TEM. The observation using LM showed that during the ripening of Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan mango, the initially round shaped cells became wavy (Figs. 3a and 3b) with the fully ripe stage exhibiting the most wavy wall surface (Figs. 3a-3, 3b-3). The structural

Table 3 Alcohol insoluble residue (AIR), water soluble pectin (WSP), and total pectin (TP) of frozen-thawed mangoes.

| Frozen-thawed sample | Cultivar | Partially ripe | Ripe | Fully ripe |
|------------------------------------|-----------|---|---|---|
| AIR (mg g ⁻¹ dry basis) | NDM CA | $109.26^{aB} \pm 2.18$ $122.37^{aA} \pm 0.28$ | $89.60^{\text{bB}} \pm 0.39$ $118.68^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.46$ | $87.15^{\text{bB}} \pm 2.56$ $117.16^{\text{cA}} \pm 0.17$ |
| $TP \ (\mu g \ mg^{-1} \ AIR)$ | NDM CA | $118.75^{\text{cB}} \pm 0.23$ $127.06^{\text{aA}} \pm 0.29$ | $131.12^{bA} \pm 1.74$ $130.78^{aA} \pm 1.49$ | $\begin{array}{c} 139.42^{aA} \pm 1.27 \\ 131.17^{aB} \pm 1.11 \end{array}$ |
| WSP ($\mu g m g^{-1} AIR$) | NDM CA | $76.99^{\text{cB}} \pm 0.84$ $97.84^{\text{cA}} \pm 0.85$ | $107.39^{\text{bB}} \pm 0.45$ $118.72^{\text{bA}} \pm 0.52$ | $128.43^{aA} \pm 1.74$ $125.66^{aA} \pm 1.95$ |

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (a–c) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$). Mean values in the same column in each attribute followed by different letters (A–B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$).

NDM: Nam Dok Mai; CA: Chok Anan.

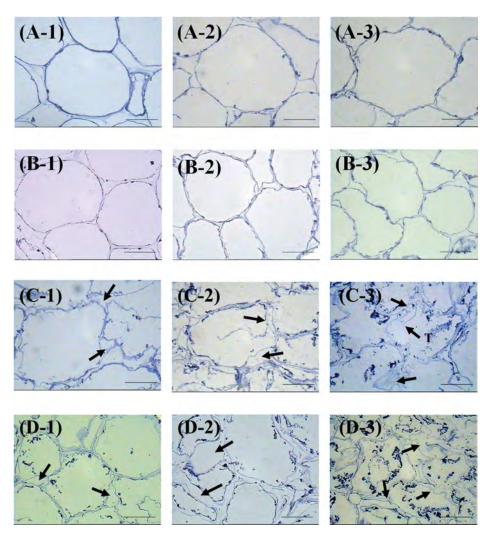


Figure 3 Light microscopy images of fresh and frozen mangoes. (a) Fresh Nam Dok Mai, (b) fresh Chok Anan, (c) frozen Nam Dok Mai, and (d) frozen Chok Anan. (1) Partially ripe, (2) ripe, and (3) fully ripe stage. Arrows indicate the swelling of cell walls caused by freezing damage. T = torn cell wall. Bar $= 50 \mu m$. (Color figure available online.)

changes, which occurred in the middle lamella and primary cell wall during ripening, lead to cell separation and softening of the tissues. [34] The mean cell sizes of Nam Dok Mai were 141 \pm 26 μm in length and 101 \pm 18 μm in diameter while the mean cell sizes of Chok Anan were 124 \pm 18 μm in length and 89 \pm 16 μm in diameter. The cell sizes were measured at the partially ripening stage in both cultivars. Chok Anan cultivar, which had smaller cell sizes and cells that were relatively more compact than Nam Dok Mai cultivar, also showed a higher firmness value.

After the freezing process, the swelling and folding of the cell wall appeared in both mango cultivars (Figs. 3c and 3d). These irregular shapes can be observed by light microscope in the frozen tissue. Chok Anan sample at the ripe and fully ripe stages showed a larger swelling of the cell wall than in the Nam Dok Mai sample. This dramatic cell wall damage (i.e., cell separation in the middle lamella and cell wall rupture) was found in the

fully ripe stage of both frozen mango cultivars (Figs. 3c-3, 3d-3) resulting in a reduction in the firmness values. This can be explained by the ice crystals that formed in the extracellular medium propagating via the cytoplasm when the cell membrane lost permeability. The decompartmentalization caused by these ice crystals prevented water from returning to the intracellular medium during thawing, which caused a loss of turgidity and, hence, the change in fruit texture.^[35]

TEM micrographs of the fresh and frozen mango samples are shown in Fig. 4. In the unfrozen tissue, the cell wall and middle lamella are obviously intact (Figs. 4a and 4b). However, after freezing, cell wall damage can be observed in both Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan samples (Figs. 4c and 4d). This cell wall damage can be explained by the dissolution of middle lamella, which was caused by ice crystals. It was correlated with an increase in WSP content of frozen mango. The dissolution of the middle lamella led to the loss of cell adhesion and cell-to-cell contact, which resulted in the formation of intercellular spaces. The swelling and folding of cell walls were observed in the frozen tissue, which were possibly due to cell wall loosening and cell wall expansion. TEM observation revealed that the cell wall thickness of fresh Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan samples ranged from 0.5 to 1.0 and 0.8 to 1.6 μm, respectively. After freezing, the cell wall thickness of Nam Dok Mai and Chok Anan was increased in the range from 1.0 to 2.0 and 1.0 to 3.0 μm, respectively. The cell walls at the partially ripe stage for both cultivars appeared less damaged than in the other stages. Severe cell wall damage was found in the fully ripe stage of both cultivars (Figs. 4c-3, 4d-3). Nam Dok Mai at all ripening stages seemed to have more cell wall damage than Chok Anan. This result may relate to the higher drip loss in the Nam Dok Mai cultivar (Fig. 2a) even though both cultivars had relatively similar moisture contents. From the microstructure and textural results, it is clear that the loss in firmness in the mango tissues after freezing and thawing can be attributed to changes in the middle lamella and cell wall.

Sensory Evaluation

The sensory attributes of the frozen-thawed mangoes were evaluated by 30 untrained panelists (Table 4). These results showed that Nam Dok Mai at the partially ripe and ripe stages had improved appearance, color, and overall acceptability scores than for the fully ripe stage. The flavor and taste scores of Nam Dok Mai were not significantly different (P > 0.05) between any of the ripening stages. However, the partially ripe stage presented the highest texture score. In Chok Anan, the partially ripe and ripe stage had higher color scores than for the fully ripe stage. In addition, the flavor and taste scores for all ripening stages of Chok Anan were not significantly different (P > 0.05). The partially ripe Chok Anan samples had the highest appearance, texture, and overall acceptability scores. The different ripening stages used in the freezing process affected the sensory attributes of both mango cultivars. The sensory attributes at the partially ripe and fully ripe stage were not significantly different between cultivars (P > 0.05). However, Nam Dok Mai at the ripe stage had a higher appearance, color, and overall acceptability score than that found in Chok Anan.

CONCLUSION

The ripening stage had a significant effect on the firmness values, drip loss, WSP, microstructure, and sensory attributes of both frozen-thawed mango cultivars. The partially

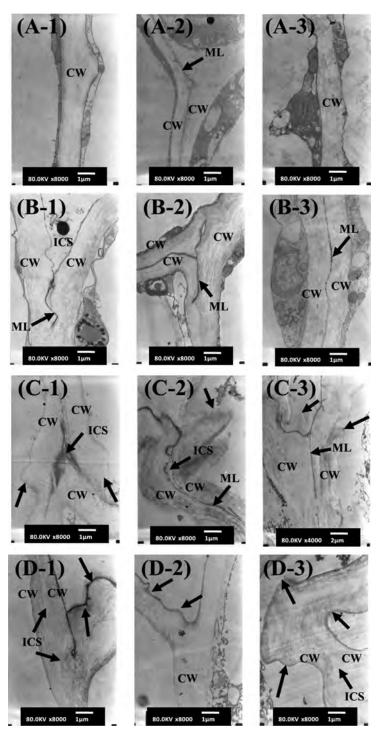


Figure 4 TEM images of two cultivars of fresh and frozen mangoes. (a) Fresh Nam Dok Mai, (b) fresh Chok Anan, (c) frozen Nam Dok Mai, and (d) frozen Chok Anan. (1) Partially ripe, (2) ripe, and (3) fully ripe stage. Arrows indicate the swelling and folding of cell walls caused by freezing damage. CW: cell wall; ML: middle lamella; ICS: intercellular space. Bar = $1 \mu m$ (C-3 image bar = $2 \mu m$).

| Table 4 Mean sensory | scores of two different of | cultivars of frozen-thawed | d mangoes at various ripening stages | s. |
|----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|----|
|----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|----|

| | | Ripening stage | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------|--|--|--|--|
| Sensory attributes | Cultivar | Partially ripe | Ripe | Fully ripe | |
| Appearance | NDM | $7.18^{aA} \pm 1.42$ | $6.72^{aA} \pm 1.41$ | $5.67^{\text{bA}} \pm 1.53$ | |
| | CA | $6.95^{aA} \pm 1.26$ | $6.03^{\text{bB}} \pm 1.16$ | $5.22^{cA} \pm 1.35$ | |
| Color | NDM CA | $6.88^{aA} \pm 1.67$ $6.59^{aA} \pm 1.44$ | $6.93^{aA} \pm 1.11$ $6.32^{aB} \pm 1.20$ | $5.87^{\text{bA}} \pm 1.45$ $5.24^{\text{bA}} \pm 1.37$ | |
| Texture | NDM CA | $6.63^{aA} \pm 1.58$ $5.90^{aA} \pm 1.45$ | $6.03^{\text{bA}} \pm 1.40$ $5.32^{\text{bA}} \pm 1.71$ | $4.27^{cA} \pm 1.57$ $4.03^{cA} \pm 1.59$ | |
| Flavor | NDM CA | $5.78^{aA} \pm 1.63$ $5.53^{aA} \pm 1.50$ | $6.17^{aA} \pm 1.43$ $5.68^{aA} \pm 1.37$ | $5.57^{aA} \pm 1.19$ $5.37^{aA} \pm 1.44$ | |
| Taste | NDM CA | $5.34^{aA} \pm 1.97$ $5.44^{aA} \pm 1.48$ | $6.23^{aA} \pm 1.51$ $5.60^{aA} \pm 1.35$ | $5.68^{aA} \pm 1.36$ $5.15^{aA} \pm 1.47$ | |
| Overall acceptability | NDM CA | $6.26^{aA} \pm 1.55$ $6.16^{aA} \pm 1.37$ | $6.33^{\mathrm{aA}} \pm 1.26$ $5.55^{\mathrm{bB}} \pm 1.48$ | $5.20^{\text{bA}} \pm 1.34$ $4.78^{\text{cA}} \pm 1.48$ | |

Mean values in the same row followed by different letters (a–c) are significantly different (DMRT's test: $P \le 0.05$). Mean values in the same column in each attribute followed by different letters (A–B) are significantly different (ANOVA test: $P \le 0.05$).

NDM: Nam Dok Mai; CA: Chok Anan.

ripe stage exhibited a higher firmness value, higher sensory scores, and lower drip loss than the other stages. This stage also appeared to have less cell wall damage caused by the freezing and thawing process. The use of the partially ripe stage of mangoes can be recommended in the freezing process to maintain higher texture quality. In addition, the results found here were relatively similar for the two cultivars studied. However, Chok Anan demonstrated a high resistance to freezing damage and had a very low drip loss and less cell wall damage as compared to Nam Dok Mai.

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Effects of freezing and thawing on texture, microstructure and cell wall composition changes in papaya tissues

Suphatta Phothiset and Sanguansri Charoenrein*

Abstract

BACKGROUND: During storage, frozen fruit may be thawed and refrozen many times before consumption, which may be extremely damaging to the texture of the frozen fruit and reverse the advantage of fast freezing. The effects of freezing and thawing on texture, microstructure and cell wall composition changes in papaya tissues were investigated.

RESULTS: The frozen-thawed papayas had an increase in drip loss and a decrease in firmness with increasing number of freeze-thaw cycles. Light microscopy showed irregular shapes and cell damage in parenchyma cells of frozen-thawed papayas, whereas transmission electron microscopy showed loss of cell wall materials in middle lamella. Moreover, destruction of cell wall was observed after being subjected to five freeze-thaw cycles. These changes related with a significant decrease in alcohol-insoluble solids, Na₂CO₃- and 24% KOH-soluble fractions and an increase in the water-, EDTA- and 4% KOH-soluble fractions. This was due to a decrease in the molecular mass of pectic and hemicellulosic polymers in frozen-thawed papayas using high-performance size-exclusion chromatography.

CONCLUSION: The freezing and thawing processes caused fine structural damage and cell wall composition changes which contributed to a loss of drip volume and firmness of papaya tissues.
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Keywords: cell wall; freezing; microstructure; papaya; thawing

INTRODUCTION

The freezing process has been considered to be one of the best methods available for preserving the quality characteristics of food because it can delay spoilage and keep food safe by preventing microorganisms from growing and by slowing down chemical activity. In addition, it better preserves flavor, color and nutritional values of food than canning or drying processes. Normally, fast freezing better preserves food structure. It induces the production of a large number of small ice crystals which leads to less breakage of cell walls, and also consequently less texture deterioration. However, especially in the case of fruits, freezing process usually results in textural changes leading to fruit softening.

The textural properties of fruit tissue are also related to the cell wall component.⁴ Generally, fruit cell walls are composed of cellulose and hemicellulose embedded in a matrix of pectins. The solubilization and depolymerization of those components were suggested to be responsible for fruit softening during ripening.⁵ In frozen—thawed fruits, studies have shown that the degradation and solubilization of those components contribute to reduced cell adhesion resulting in textural changes which lead to fruit softening in apple,⁶ strawberry,⁷ muskmelon⁸ and sweet berry.⁹ When fruits are frozen, the quality loss of frozen fruits should be minimized not only during the freezing step but also during frozen storage and thawing. Physical changes during subsequent frozen storage may result in textural changes in frozen fruits.⁸ Over time, frozen fruit may be thawed and refrozen many times before consumer consumption. This may be extremely damaging to the texture of

the frozen fruit and reverse the advantage of fast freezing. From an extensive review of the literature, and with the exception of one report on mangoes, 10 there has been no research done on the effects of multiple freeze-thaw cycles on the textural and structural changes of frozen fruits and vegetables. Owcharoen and Charoenrein¹⁰ only reported the effect of freeze-thaw cycles on the textural and pectin content changes of mangoes. In general, the textural properties of biological tissues depend on contributions from the different levels of structure, i.e. at the molecular level, the cellular level and the organ level.⁴ Therefore, to gain information about the physical and chemical changes taking place inside the fruit tissue after freezing in the freeze-thaw cycle to reduce the changes in texture in frozen-thawed fruits, the objective of the current study was to investigate the effect of freezing and thawing on texture, microstructure and cell wall composition changes in fruit tissues. In this study, the effect of the freeze – thaw cycle repeated up to five cycles was investigated because, during storage, frozen fruits may be thawed and refrozen many times, i.e. storage and transportation, repacking in a smaller retailer, retail display and repeated storage by consumers. This study used

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papaya (*Carica papaya* L. cv. Holland) as a model because it exhibits textural changes that can be detected easily.¹¹

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Papaya (*Carica papaya* L. cv. Holland) samples were obtained from Pathum Thani province, Thailand, during April and May 2011. They were selected to be homogeneous in size, peel and flesh color, and in total soluble solids content. The total soluble solids at 25 $^{\circ}$ C were in the range 14–16 $^{\circ}$ Brix and the moisture content was in the range 86–87%, respectively. ¹²

Sample preparation

Papayas were washed with tap water and then air-dried. They were cut into $1.5\times1.5\times1.5$ cm cubes. Eight cubes were packed and sealed in each plastic pouch (NY/LLDPE, $70\,\mu\text{m},\ 100\times150$ mm). The samples were then frozen at $-40\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ in a cryogenic freezer (Minibatch 1000 L; Bangkok Industrial Gas Co., Thailand) until the temperature of the samples reached $-25\,^{\circ}\text{C}$. After that, the frozen papayas were stored in a chest freezer (Sanyo refrigerator, SF-C 1497, Sanyo Electric Co., Ltd, Japan) at $-20\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 72 h and then thawed at 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 4 h in a low-temperature incubator (IPP400, Memmert, Germany). This freeze—thaw cycle was then repeated for up to five cycles. The experiments were undertaken in two trials.

Drip loss measurement

The drip loss of frozen—thawed papayas was measured according to the method of Lowithun and Charoenrein. Six frozen cubes were laid over absorbent paper and placed into a double-layered zip lock plastic bag. The samples were then thawed at 4° C in a low-temperature incubator. The drip loss was evaluated by periodic weighing of the absorbent paper until a constant value was reached. The percent drip loss was calculated as follows:

% Drip loss =
$$\frac{\text{Initial weight of fresh papaya}}{\text{Initial weight of fresh papaya cubes}} \times 100$$

Texture measurement

The texture of the fresh and frozen-thawed papaya tissues was measured with a texture analyzer (TA-XT.plus, Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, UK) fitted with a 36 mm cylindrical flat-head probe (P/36R). The samples were compressed at 0.1 mm s⁻¹ until a 15% strain was reached (adapted from Chassage-Berces *et al.*⁶). The maximum peak force was recorded and expressed as a firmness value in newtons (N). The mean values of 12 papaya cubes were reported.

Light and transmission electron microscopy

For microscopy observations, fresh and frozen–thawed papaya tissues approximately $1 \times 1 \times 2$ mm were pre-fixed in 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde in 0.1 mol L⁻¹ phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) at 4 °C overnight and then washed with 0.1 mol L⁻¹ phosphate buffer (pH 7.2). Thereafter, the samples were post-fixed with 2% osmium tetroxide for 2 h at room temperature. The fixed samples were washed three times with distilled water and gradually dehydrated in acetone (30–100%, v/v). After that, the dehydrated samples were rinsed in propylene oxide (three times, 30 min each), followed by

infiltration in propylene oxide–Spurr's resin in a decreasing ratio from 2:1 (two parts propylene oxide:one part Spurr's resin) to 1:2, each for 4 h. The samples were then suspended in pure Spurr's resin overnight. After that, they were placed in the oven at 80 °C for 7 h for polymerization and then they were sectioned with an ultramicrotome (Leica Ultracut UCT, Austria) at 1.5 μm thickness and stained with 1% (w/v) toluidine blue for observation under a light microscope (Leica DME, Leica Microsystems Inc., Buffalo Grove, IL, USA). In addition, they were sectioned with the ultramicrotome at 70 nm thickness and stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate for observation with a transmission electron microscope (JEM-1220 TEM, JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) at an accelerating voltage of 80 kV.

Cell wall analysis

Isolation of cell wall materials

The cell wall materials were isolated as alcohol-insoluble solids (AIS), which are a composite of salts, starch and non-starch polysaccharides such as pectins, hemicelluloses and celluloses, 14 as described by the method of McFeeters and Armstrong. 15 Samples of approximately 30 g fresh and frozen—thawed papaya were immediately placed in 95% (v/v) ethanol and were then homogenized in a Waring blender. The suspension was filtered through a filter paper and then the residues were sequentially washed with 70% (v/v) ethanol and acetone. The residues were air-dried overnight at 40 $^{\circ}$ C and then weighed. Results were expressed as mg g $^{-1}$ fruit weight. The AIS were ground using a mortar and pestle and stored in a desiccator until further use.

Extraction and quantification of cell wall fractions

Fractions of different cell wall components were obtained by sequential chemical extraction of the AIS according to the method of Vicente et al., 16 which allows its separation into several fractions; water extraction solubilizes loosely bound pectins which have low or no binding to the other cell wall components, 17 whereas ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) and sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃) extractions allow the enrichment of fractions with ionically and covalently bound pectins, respectively. Diluted and concentrated KOH solubilize mainly loosely and tightly bound hemicelluloses, respectively. Approximately 200 mg of AIS from each sample was sequentially extracted with (i) distilled water, (ii) EDTA in $0.05 \,\text{mol}\,\text{L}^{-1}$ sodium acetate pH 6.5, (iii) $0.05 \,\text{mol}\,\text{L}^{-1}$ Na_2CO_3 containing 0.02 mol L⁻¹ $NaBH_4$, (iv) 4% (w/v) KOH containing 0.1% (w/v) NaBH₄ and (v) 24% (w/v) KOH containing 0.1% (w/v) NaBH₄. The fractions were obtained by suspending the AIS powder in 25 mL of the extraction solvent and stirring for 12 h at room temperature. Solubilized material was separated by centrifugation at $6000 \times g$ for 20 min. All extracted fractions were filtered through filter paper. The water-soluble fraction was designated WSF, the EDTA-soluble fraction as ESF, the Na₂CO₃soluble fraction as NSF, the 4% KOH-soluble fraction as 4KSF and the 24% KOH-soluble fraction as 24KSF.

The uronic acid (UA) contents of the WSF, ESF and NSF fractions were estimated by the m-hydroxyldiphenyl method using galacturonic acid (GA) as the standard¹⁸ and expressed as $\mu g mg^{-1}$ AIS. The neutral sugar (NA) contents of the 4KSF and 24KSF fractions were estimated by the anthrone method using glucose as the standard¹⁹ and expressed as $\mu g mg^{-1}$ AIS.

Analysis of molecular mass distribution

All the above extracts were dialyzed in tubing having a pore size of 3500 nominal molecular weight cut-off against water at 4° C for at



least 16 h and were then lyophilized. The lyophilized samples were suspended in 0.05 mol L⁻¹ sodium nitrate containing 0.02% (w/v) sodium azide. Prior to determination, each suspension (1 mg mL $^{-1}$) was filtered through a 0.22 µm filter and then the molecular mass distribution profile was determined using high-performance sizeexclusion chromatography (HPSEC). The system consisted of a Waters 600 pump with degasser, an injector and a Waters 410 differential refractive index detector (Waters, Milford, MA, USA). This work used the column in series with a Shodex OH SB-G guard column, a Shodex OH-Pak SB-804 HQ (7.6 mm imes 30 cm) and a Shodex OH-Pak SB 805 HQ (7.6 mm × 5 cm) (Shimadze, Kyoto, Japan). The molecular mass distribution profile was performed with 0.05 mol L⁻¹ sodium nitrate containing 0.02% (w/v) sodium azide at a flow rate of 0.6 mL min⁻¹. Dextran standards (50, 150 and 270 kDa) and glucose (molecular weight 180) were used to calibrate the column and establish a standard curve.

Data analysis

Data were subjected to analysis of variance, and mean comparisons were carried out using Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT). Statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 12.0 for Windows, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Effect of freezing and thawing on drip loss and firmness of papaya tissues

After the first freeze–thaw cycle, the percent drip loss of thawed papaya tissue was 17.01% (Table 1). This result indicated that freezing and thawing caused a loss of water from the thawed papaya tissue. This was probably because ice crystals disrupt the cell membrane and also cell walls, leading to cell damage. During thawing, the water from the damaged cells is released, which leads to drip loss. With increasing freeze–thaw cycles, the percent drip loss of thawed papaya was progressively increased (P < 0.05) compared with first freeze–thaw cycle. This indicated that the repeated melting and reformation of ice crystals could damage more cellular membranes and cell walls. $^{1,20-22}$ It allowed more cell collapse and also water from damaged cells could be released from the cells after thawing.

As can be seen from Table 1, after the first freeze – thaw cycle the firmness of thawed papaya was decreased (P < 0.05) compared with fresh papaya. The decrease in firmness indicated that the ice crystals formed during freezing affect the integrity of the cell membrane and cell walls, leading to a loosening or weakening of thawed fruit tissue.²³ Similar observations have also been reported in apple,6,24 melon,8 muskmelon25 and pineapple.26 Moreover, when increasing the number of freeze - thaw cycles, the firmness of thawed papaya was progressively decreased (P < 0.05) compared with the first freeze - thaw cycle. These results indicated that the repeated melting and refreezing of the ice crystals caused an increase in a loss of tissue integrity and a loss of cell turgor pressure which led to a loosening or softening of the thawed papaya tissues. Therefore, the freezing and thawing caused a loss of tissue integrity together with a loss of drip volume from damaged cells following cell collapse which resulted in a loosening and softening of the thawed papaya.

Effect of freezing and thawing on microstructure of papaya tissues

The microstructures of fresh and frozen papaya subjected to five freeze-thaw cycles were observed using light microscopy (LM)

and transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and the results are shown in Figs 1 and 2, respectively. Under LM, the parenchyma cells of fresh papaya showed a uniform distribution of cells with regular shapes (Fig. 1a). Vacuoles of fresh papaya were visible and filled the cell volume. After the first freeze – thaw cycle, parenchyma cells of frozen-thawed papaya showed irregular shapes and damages (Fig. 1b), with large intercellular spaces. Moreover, they showed no intact vacuoles in cells. It was previously reported that the freezing process caused a loss of apple vacuole and a loss of the tonoplast which surrounds the vacuole.⁶ In this result, the loss of vacuole caused a loss of turgor pressure and led to the irregular shapes and cell damage, resulting in large intercellular spaces and individual papaya cells having less cohesion amongst one another (Fig. 1b). This indicated that the loss of vacuoles together with the irregular shapes and cell damage caused cell collapses during thawing resulting in the loss of cell water-holding capacity, which in turn led to an increase in drip volume (Table 1) and also a decrease in firmness (Table 1). At the third freeze-thaw cycle, the parenchyma cells of frozen-thawed papayas showed more irregular shapes and damage (Fig. 1c). Contact between cells was weak and collapsed and also cell shrinkage was evident. In addition, at the fifth freeze-thaw cycle the parenchyma cells showed more cell shrinkage and cell collapse, leading to fewer intercellular spaces (Fig. 1d). This indicated that more repeated melting and refreezing formation of ice crystals caused more irregularity in the cell shape and more damage: loosening, collapse and shrinkage. These changes were associated with an increase in the drip volume and also a decrease in firmness (Table 1).

The TEM images of fresh papaya subjected to five freeze-thaw cycles are shown in Fig. 2. The cell walls of the fresh papaya showed strong, dark staining in the center zone of the cell walls (Fig. 2a), whereas the cell wall of the frozen-thawed papaya after the first freeze-thaw cycle showed less staining of the center zone of the cell wall (Fig. 2b). This indicated that freezing and thawing caused a loss of cell wall material in the middle lamella. The results were similar in carrot²⁷ and melon.²⁸ The loss of some cell wall materials in the middle lamella of the cell wall caused a loss of integrity of cells and was followed by the collapse of cells, which led to larger intercellular spaces, as shown in the LM images (Fig. 1b). TEM images following the increase in the number of freeze-thaw cycles showed that the thickness of the cell wall was progressively decreased (Fig. 2c, d). Moreover, magnification after the fifth freeze-thaw cycle showed there was destruction of the cell walls (Fig. 2e). This indicated that the freeze – thaw cycle caused a loss of cell wall materials in the middle lamella and also caused disorganization of the cell walls. This might have contributed to the loss of cell-to-cell adhesion and contact.²⁹ Again, this resulted in a loss of tissue integrity, which was related to a decrease in firmness and an increase in the drip volume (as discussed earlier).

Effect of freezing and thawing on cell wall composition of papaya tissues

To determine the changes in the cell wall materials, analysis of the AIS was undertaken. The AIS content of fresh papaya was approximately 157.43 mg g $^{-1}$ fresh weight. After the freezing and thawing processes, the amount of AIS was significantly (P < 0.05) decreased (2.38%). This result was consistent with the observation of Simandjuntak *et al.*8 Moreover, increasing the number of freeze–thaw cycles resulted in a significant (P < 0.05) progressive decrease in the AIS. This indicated that the cell wall materials of papaya tissue could be lost after repeated freezing and thawing processes. This was probably due to ice crystal



Table 1. Effect of freezing and thawing on firmness, percent drip loss, alcohol-insoluble solids and uronic acid contents in pectin fractions of papaya tissues

| Sample | Firmness (N) | % Drip loss | AIS (mg g ⁻¹ FW) | WSF (μg mg ⁻¹ AIS) | ESF (μg mg ⁻¹ AIS) | NSF (μg mg ⁻¹ AIS) |
|--------|-------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Fresh | $12.00a \pm 0.28$ | _ | $157.42a \pm 0.99$ | $143.92d \pm 1.81$ | $49.44d \pm 2.89$ | 18.77a \pm 0.42 |
| FT 1 | $7.63b \pm 0.20$ | $17.01c \pm 0.68$ | $153.68b \pm 1.30$ | $163.98c \pm 1.79$ | $57.59c \pm 0.87$ | $17.12b \pm 0.23$ |
| FT 3 | $2.89c\pm0.12$ | $36.85b \pm 0.75$ | $144.66c \pm 0.67$ | $174.34b \pm 0.73$ | $63.32b \pm 0.93$ | 15.31c \pm 0.80 |
| FT 5 | $0.48\text{d} \pm 0.03$ | $47.24a\pm0.89$ | $137.91d \pm 0.87$ | $181.85a\pm2.56$ | $71.73a\pm2.02$ | $12.39\mathrm{d}\pm0.58$ |

Data are shown as mean \pm standard deviation. Means with different letters in the same column indicate significant difference (Duncan's multiple range test (P < 0.05). FW, fresh weight; FT 1, freeze–thaw cycle 1; FT 3, freeze–thaw cycle 3; FT 5, freeze–thaw cycle 5; AIS, alcohol-insoluble solids; WSF, water-soluble fraction; ESF, EDTA-soluble fraction; NSF, Na₂CO₃-soluble fraction.

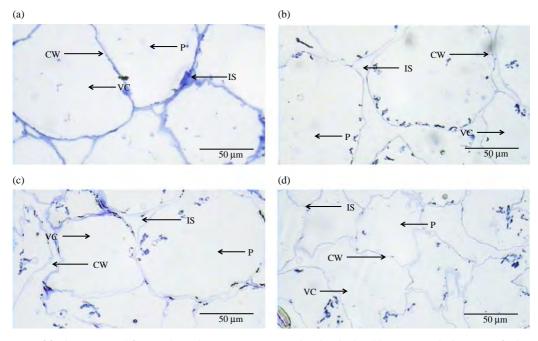


Figure 1. LM images of fresh papaya and frozen-thawed papaya tissue stained with toluidine blue (1.5 μm thickness): (a) fresh papaya tissue; (b) freeze-thaw cycle 1; (c) freeze-thaw cycle 3; (d) freeze-thaw cycle 5. CW, cell wall; IS, intercellular spaces; VC, vacuoles; P, protoplast.

formation and the repeated melting and reformation of ice crystals, causing cell membrane and cell wall damage, with large cell wall polymers being degraded to shorter cell wall polymers, causing its oligopolymer to be dissolved in ethanol during extraction and resulting in a decrease in cell wall materials. This indicated that the freezing and thawing processes caused the loss of cell wall materials. Van Buren³⁰ mentioned that cellulose has the function of providing rigidity and resistance to tearing, whereas pectin and hemicellulose contribute to plasticity and the ability to stretch. Thus, a decrease in cell wall materials was a most likely contributor to the loss of the firmness.

To understand more about the changes in the cell wall components, the AIS were subjected to sequential chemical extraction, which was designed to enrich particular subclasses of cell wall polymers as described by Vicente *et al.* ¹⁶ and Rose *et al.* ³¹ The results showed that the uronic acid content in the AIS of fresh papaya contained predominantly WSF, a substantial amount of ESF and a low amount of NSF. After the first freeze—thaw cycle, the uronic acid contents in the WSF and ESF were significantly (P < 0.05) increased (by 13.94% and 16.48%, respectively), whereas uronic acid content in the NSF was significantly (P < 0.05) decreased (8.79%). When the number of freeze—thaw cycles

was increased, the uronic acid contents in the WSF and ESF were significantly (P < 0.05) and progressively increased, whereas the uronic acid content in NSF was significantly (P < 0.05) and progressively decreased. Inari and Takeuchi³² mentioned that an increase in the WSF and ESF possibly derived from the NSF. This indicated that ice crystals formed during freezing and the repeated melting and reformation of ice crystals might cause the covalently bound pectin in the NSF to transform to loosely bound pectin in the WSF and ESF, respectively. A decrease in the number of pectin molecules originally held in the wall by covalent bonds caused weak binding of the pectin in the wall, resulting in a loss of firmness. Moreover, these changes might occur as a result of cell wall-degrading enzymes. The enzyme activity is slowed at temperatures below -18 °C; it can become activated again during the thawing process³³ and it hydrolyzed long-chain pectic substances to short-chain pectic substances. This led to the pectin located in the middle lamella and held in the wall by covalent bonding being easily extracted in water and chelating agent, resulting in a decrease in the NSF and an increase in the WSF and ESF. The changes in the pectin fractions of frozen-thawed papaya correlated with the loss of staining in the center zone and



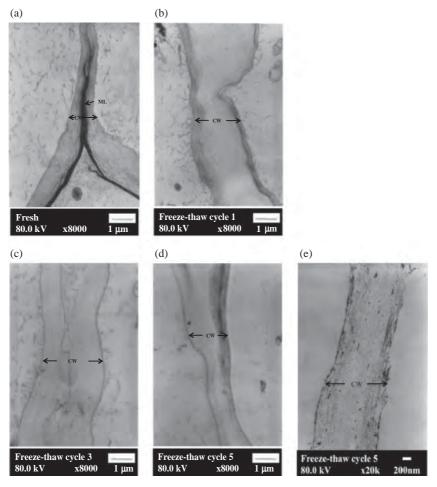


Figure 2. TEM images of fresh papaya and frozen—thawed papaya tissue stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate (70 nm thickness): (a) fresh papaya tissue; (b) freeze—thaw cycle 1; (c) freeze—thaw cycle 3; (d) freeze—thaw cycle 5 (×8000); (e) freeze—thaw cycle 5 (×20 000). CW, cell wall; ML, middle lamella.

disorganization of the cell wall, as can be seen in the TEM images (Fig. 2b-d).

To understand the effect of freezing and thawing on the matrix glycan (formerly known as hemicellulose), the neutral sugar contents in 4KSF and 24KSF were analyzed and the results are shown in Table 2. These results showed that after freezing and increasing the numbers of freeze-thaw cycles the neutral sugar contents in 4KSF were significantly (P < 0.05) and progressively increased, whereas in 24KSF they were significantly (P < 0.05) and progressively decreased. This indicated that ice crystals formed during the freezing, and the repeated melting and reformation of ice crystals caused a tightly bound matrix glycan (24KSF), which bridge cellulose microfibrils in the pectin matrix,³⁴ to be transformed to the loosely bound matrix glycan (4KSF). Moreover, these changes might also be associated with cell wall-degrading enzymes, especially β -galactosidase (EC 3.2.1.23) and cellulase (EC 3.2.4). The β -galactosidase enzymes act on side chains of pectic or hemicellulosic polysaccharides and thereafter the tightly bound matrix glycan (24KSF) became a loosely bound matrix glycan (4KSF). These allowed the matrix glycan (hemicellulose) bridge cellulose network to loosen, which led to a higher amount of neutral sugar in the loosely bound matrix glycan (4KSF). In addition, loosening of the matrix glycan-cellulose network caused some parts of the cell wall to swell. These changes in the matrix glycan are thought to be a major contributor to the reduced rigidity

Table 2. Effect of freezing and thawing on neutral sugar contents in hemicellulose fractions of papaya tissues

| Sample | 4KSF (μg mg ⁻¹ AIS) | 24KSF (μg mg ⁻¹ AIS) |
|--------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Fresh | 121.70c ± 2.40 | $369.80a \pm 9.51$ |
| FT 1 | $132.88b \pm 1.77$ | $340.38b \pm 1.59$ |
| FT 3 | $137.18b \pm 0.37$ | $340.18b \pm 1.19$ |
| FT 5 | $147.47a \pm 1.17$ | $309.59c \pm 9.95$ |

Data are shown as mean \pm standard deviation. Means with different letters in the same column indicate significant difference (Duncan's multiple range test (P < 0.05). FT 1, freeze—thaw cycle 1; FT 3, freeze—thaw cycle 3; FT 5, Freeze—thaw cycle 5; 4KSF, 4%KOH-soluble fraction; 24KSF, 24% KOH-soluble fraction.

of the cell wall, especially during ripening, due to its important structural role of cross-linking cellulose in the walls. In the current study, changes in the matrix glycan after repeated freezing and thawing correlated with a decrease in firmness and changes in the microstructure (as discussed in earlier).

To understand more about the effect of freezing and thawing on depolymerization of the cell wall components, the molecular mass distribution of the pectic and hemicellulosic polysaccharide fractions were determined by HPSEC and the results are shown



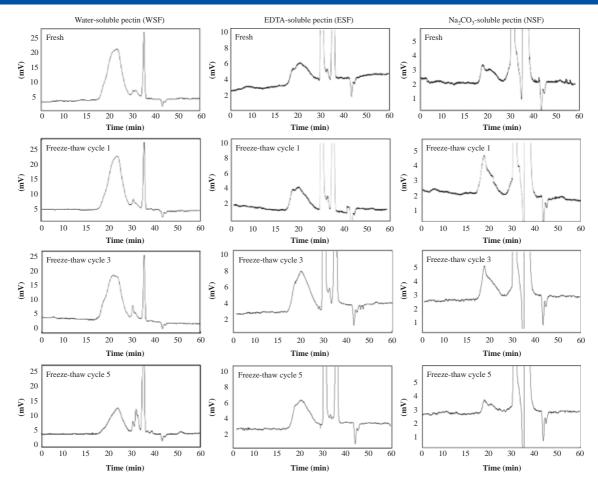


Figure 3. Molecular mass distribution profiles of water-, chelating agent- and Na_2CO_3 -soluble pectin fractions from fresh papaya and frozen-thawed papaya.

in Figs 3 and 4. After the first freeze-thaw cycle, the molecular mass distribution profiles of all pectin fractions (WSF, ESF and NSF) were changed from those in a fresh sample. At an elution time of approximately 20-30 min, two peaks of the WSF profile were transformed to one peak, the height of the ESF peak profile was decreased and the second peak of the NSF profile was lost. Moreover, when the number of freeze – thaw cycles was increased, the molecular mass distribution profiles of the WSF, ESF and NSF continuously changed (Fig. 3). These changes indicated that ice crystals formed during freezing and the repeated melting and reformation of ice crystals caused pectin depolymerization. It caused highly branched pectic polymer side chains to be transformed into fewer branched pectic polymer side chains and led to long-chain pectic polymers being transformed into short-chain pectic polymers. In addition, these changes might also have been caused as a result of cell wall-degrading enzymes. These enzymes hydrolyzed highly branched pectic polymer side chains to short-branched pectic polymer side chains and longchain pectic polymers to short-chain pectic polymers, which led to a downshift of the molecular mass distribution profiles.

Analysis of the molecular mass distribution profiles of the matrix glycans (4KSF and 24KSF) showed that after the first freeze-thaw cycle at an elution time of approximately 25 min the molecular mass distribution profiles of the 4KSF showed a reduction of high molecular mass to low molecular mass, while the molecular mass distribution profile of the 24KSF was slightly changed. The loss of the high-molecular-mass peak while the

low-molecular-mass peak remained indicated that the ice crystals formed during freezing affected matrix glycan depolymerization. The depolymerization of matrix glycan caused the relaxation of the hemicellulose-cellulose network, which led to reduced rigidity of the cell walls,⁵ resulting in a loss of fruit firmness. When the number of freeze-thaw cycles was increased, the molecular mass distribution profiles of the 4KSF and 24KSF did not change noticeably, whereas the neutral sugar contents in the 4KSF and 24KSF changed continuously (Table 2). These results indicated that the repeated melting and reformation of ice crystals did not affect the matrix glycan depolymerization but did affect the neutral sugar contents in the 4KSF and 24KSF. It was possible that after the first freeze-thaw cycle some matrix glycan was completely degraded to fragments small enough to be lost during cell wall preparation and extraction.³⁴ In addition, it was possible that with increasing freeze-thaw cycles the expansin - non-enzymatic proteins in the cell wall - would act on the linkage between the hemicellulose and cellulose microfibrils, 6 leading to a loosening or weakening of the hemicellulose-cellulose network. This leads to an increase in loosely bound matrix glycan in 4KSF, while there is a decrease in tightly bound matrix glycan in 24KSF (Table 2). However, apparently the molecular mass distribution of the matrix glycan in both fractions (4KSF and 24KSF) did not obviously change after increasing the number of freeze-thaw cycles (Fig. 4). Unfortunately, there have been no other studies on the effect of freezing and thawing on depolymerization of cell wall fraction changes



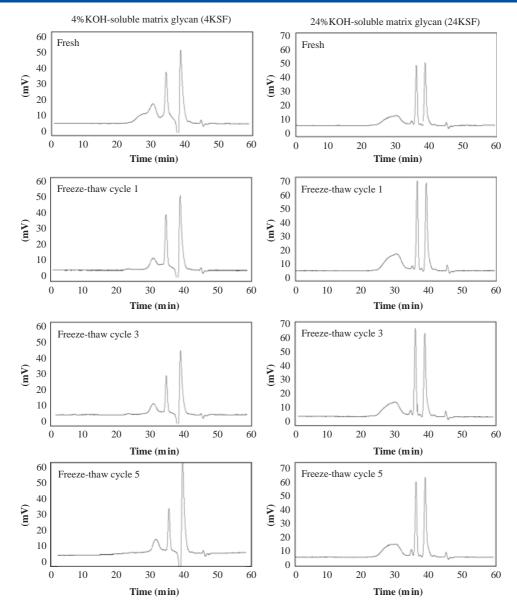


Figure 4. Molecular mass distribution profiles of 4% KOH- and 24% KOH-soluble hemicellulose fractions from fresh papaya and frozen – thawed papaya.

in frozen fruits with which the results of the current study may be compared.

CONCLUSION

Changes in texture, microstructure and cell wall composition of papaya tissues can be induced by freezing and thawing. These changes were more pronounced with an increase in the number of freeze—thaw cycles. The ice crystals formed during freezing and the repeated melting and reformation of ice crystals caused textural, microstructural and cellular changes in papaya tissues. The freeze—thawing processes caused an increase in pectic and hemicellulosic depolymerization and an increase in soluble pectin and loosely bound hemicellulose, as well as a decrease in insoluble pectin and tightly bound hemicellulose. Furthermore, it also caused a loss of vacuoles, and damage to cell membranes and cell walls, with resultant cell shrinkage that was associated with a decrease in firmness and an increase in drip volume. In addition to the effect of ice crystal formation, changes in the solubilization

and depolymerization of pectic and hemicellulosic substances may have been a result of some cell wall-degrading enzymes which can be reactivated after thawing. Thus, further investigation on the effect of freezing and thawing on cell wall-degrading enzyme activity in fruit tissues could help elucidate the changes in the texture of freeze—thawed fruit tissue.

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Original article

Effect of ripening stage and infusion with calcium lactate and sucrose on the quality and microstructure of frozen mango

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Summary

The effect of the ripening stage and infusion with calcium lactate and sucrose on the quality and microstructure of frozen mango was investigated. Partially ripe and ripe mangoes cubes were infused in 1% calcium lactate solution or a combination of 1% calcium lactate and 50% sucrose solution for 1 h before freezing at $-20~^{\circ}\text{C}$ and stored for 14 days. After thawing, both the partially ripe and ripe mangoes treated with the combination of calcium lactate and sucrose exhibited the highest firmness value, sensory firmness score and lowest drip loss. Light microscope images also illustrated less damage to the cell wall of mango pretreated with calcium and sucrose. The calcium-reinforced structure of the fruit and osmotic dehydration with sucrose reduced the freezable water content and consequently limited ice crystal damage. Furthermore, partially ripe mango was more suitable for freezing than ripe mango due to its stronger cell wall structure.

Keywords

Calcium, frozen mango, microstructure, osmotic dehydration, ripening, sucrose, texture.

Introduction

Mango (Mangifera indica Linn.) is one of the most important and popular tropical and subtropical fruits. It is greatly relished for its succulence, exotic flavour and delicious taste. Mango is also a rich source of carotenoids and has a high vitamin A content (Pott et al., 2003). The 'Nam Dok Mai' cultivar is famous and is widely cultivated in Thailand. Its ripe fruit is golden yellow with a deep yellow flesh. The fruit is fibreless with smooth flesh and a deliciously unique flavour.

Mango fruit is climacteric and ripens rapidly after harvest. Because of its perishability, a freezing process is an alternative method to help extend its shelf life and preserve its original attributes, such as the colour and flavour as well as the nutritional value. Frozen mango can be used as ingredients in several desserts such as fruit salads, ice cream and mango with sticky rice. The fruit structure similar to fresh mango is preferred in these products. However, a major problem of frozen mango is texture loss due to the formation of ice crystals during the freezing process which causes the destruction of cellular tissue (Sirijariyawat *et al.*, 2012). Thus, prefreezing treatments have been used to improve the texture quality of frozen mango, such as the use of calcium as a texture enhancer and sucrose

as a cryoprotectant (Sriwimon & Boonsupthip, 2010; Sirijariyawat *et al.*, 2012).

The addition of calcium has been reported to have beneficial effects on maintaining fruit firmness. Calcium interacts with pectins in the cell wall to form a cross-linked polymer network that increases the mechanical strength and forms firmer molecular bonding between cell wall constituents (Alandes et al., 2006). Calcium chloride was reported frequently as a successful firming agent for fruits and vegetables (Trindade et al., 2003; Sirijariyawat et al., 2012). Although beneficial for product texture, calcium chloride has been found to impart bitterness or flavour differences (Lunar-Guzman & Barrett, 2000). Calcium lactate, an organic calcium salt, is an alternative source of calcium which could prevent cut surface browning and tissue softening of fruits and vegetables without providing undesirable bitterness (Lunar-Guzman & Barrett, 2000; Manganaris et al., 2005; Alandes et al., 2006). Moreover, it has relatively high solubility and bioavailability which could enhance the nutritional value of foods (Barrera et al., 2009). The addition of calcium lactate to improve fruit firmness has been studied mainly in fresh-cut, minimally processed or processed fruits. Nevertheless, there have been studies on the infusion of calcium lactate in frozen fruits, but no research has been reported that studied frozen mango.

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Osmotic dehydration is widely used for the partial removal of water from fruits and vegetables by immersion in a concentrated solution. It is an effective technique to maintain the texture quality of agricultural products after freezing and thawing. As fresh agricultural products contain large amounts of water which would turn into ice crystals during freezing, resulting in cell damage after thawing (Pearce, 2001). The osmotic dehydration technique could reduce texture deterioration from ice crystal damage by decreasing the freezable water content of frozen products (Ohnishi & Miyawaki, 2005; Lowithun & Charoenrein, 2009).

The type of osmotic solution plays an important role in dehydration by affecting the rate of water loss and the solid gain in food, as well as the sensory characteristics of products. The beneficial effects of using sucrose as an osmotic agent have been reported by many researchers. El-Aouar et al. (2006) found that osmodehydrated papaya with sucrose had higher weight reduction, water loss and solid gain compared with corn syrup. Osmodehydrofreezing of carrot and broccoli pieces with sucrose showed higher texture retention, less cell damage and lower drip loss than the untreated sample (Ohnishi & Miyawaki, 2005). Moreover, osmotic pretreatment of rambutan with sucrose showed the highest scores in terms of taste, texture and sensory acceptability compared with trehalose and maltitol (Lowithun & Charoenrein, 2009). Therefore, osmotic dehydration with sucrose before freezing might help improve the quality of frozen mango.

Besides the prefreezing treatments, ripening stages of mangoes also have an effect on the texture quality of frozen mango. Rimkeeree & Charoenrein (2014) studied the quality of frozen mango at different ripening stages and found that after freezing and thawing process, the partially ripe stage of mango exhibited a higher firmness value, higher sensory scores, lower drip loss and less cell wall damage compared with the other stages. Moreover, Sriwimon & Boonsupthip (2010) utilised partially ripe mango as an alternative to ripe mango for freezing preservation. They found that the partially ripe mango was more suitable for freezing than ripe mango, and its taste and odour could be improved by an infusion of a mixture of mango juice and sugars.

Although some researchers have studied the effect of the ripening stage or infusion with calcium and sucrose on the quality of frozen mango, there are few studies on how ripening stage and the prefreezing treatments affect the microstructure and textural changes of frozen mango tissues. In addition, there have been no studies on the incorporation of calcium lactate and sucrose infusion to improve the quality of frozen mango. Therefore, the objectives of this study were to investigate the effect of ripening stage and prefreezing treatments with calcium lactate and sucrose on the

physical properties, sensory evaluation and microstructure of frozen mango.

Materials and methods

Materials

Mango ('Nam Dok Mai' cultivar) fruits at two different ripening stages (partially ripe and ripe) were purchased at a wholesale market in Bangkok, Thailand, during November–December 2012. The mangoes were carefully picked for homogeneous properties in terms of colour and size. The ripening stages of mangoes were classified following the method of Rimkeeree & Charoenrein (2014), in which partially ripe and ripe mangoes showed 75% and 90% surface yellow in colour, respectively. The mangoes were selected and immediately transported to the laboratory at Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand. The uniform maturity index was tested by floating each mango in a NaCl solution. The mangoes which sank in 2% (w/w) NaCl solution were allowed to use for analysis.

Sample preparation

The selected partially ripe and ripe mangoes were washed and peeled. Approximately, twenty percentage from both the stem and the blossom ends of the fruit were discarded, as those parts tend to be highly diverse in terms of fruit properties. Only the central parts of the fruit were used to minimise any variations within the samples. The samples were then cut into cubes $(1.5 \times 1.5 \times 1.5 \text{ cm})$.

Calcium and sucrose infusion

The mango cubes were infused in 1% (w/w) calcium lactate solution or a combination of 1% (w/w) calcium lactate and 50% (w/w) sucrose solution at room temperature (25 \pm 2 °C) for 1 h. Untreated mangoes were used as a control.

Total soluble solids and Total titratable acidity

Total soluble solids (TSS) (^oBrix) were measured using a pocket digital refractometer (Type PAL-1; Atago, Tokyo, Japan). Total titratable acidity (TA) was determined according to the method of AOAC (1995).

Freezing and thawing

The cube samples were packed and sealed in plastic pouches (NY/LLDPE, 70 μ m, 100 \times 200 mm), frozen at -20 °C in a chest freezer (Sanyo refrigerator, model SF-C1497; Sanyo electric Co., Ltd, Osaka, Japan) and stored for 14 days. Thawing was performed at 4 °C

after 5 h in a low-temperature incubator (Memmert, model IPP 400, Germany). The trials were duplicated.

Textural analysis

The firmness of the fresh and freeze-thawed samples was measured using a compression test texture analyser (TA.XT. plus; Stable Micro Systems, Surrey, UK) with a cylindrical probe of 36 mm diameter and 50% strain. The speed of the pretest, test and post-test was 1.5, 1.5 and 10 mm s⁻¹, respectively. Firmness was determined by the maximum peak force. At least 16 samples were analysed for each treatment.

Drip loss

Drip loss was determined by a method adapted from Lowithun & Charoenrein (2009). Frozen samples were placed over absorbent paper in zip-lock plastic bags and thawed at 4 °C for 5 h. The results were calculated as drip loss percentage on a dry basis, according to the following equation (Marani *et al.*, 2001):

Drip loss (%) =
$$\frac{W_t - W_0}{W_s \times TS} \times 100$$
 (1)

where $W_{\rm o}$ is the weight of absorbent paper before thawing, $W_{\rm t}$ is the weight of absorbent paper after thawing, $W_{\rm s}$ is the weight of the sample and TS is the percentage dry matter of fruit after thawing.

Microstructure

Fresh and frozen mango cubes were prefixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde in a 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) overnight at 4 °C. After washing with a phosphate buffer, the samples were then postfixed with osmium tetroxide for 2 h at room temperature. The fixed tissues were washed three times with distilled water and dehydrated stepwise with an acetone series (30–100%). The dehydrated tissues were infiltrated with acetone: Spurr's resin (2:1, 1:1 and 1:2) and 100% Spurr's resin, respectively, overnight. Then, tissues were polymerised in Spurr's resin for 7 h at 80 °C. Sections (1.5 µm) thickness) were cut using an ultramicrotome (Leica Ultracut UCT, Vienna, Austria) and stained with 1% toluidine blue for observation under a light microscope (Leica DME, Leica Microsystems Inc., New York, NY, USA).

Sensory evaluation

The samples were evaluated for firmness intensity and sensory attributes (appearance, colour, flavour, taste, texture and overall acceptability). The firmness intensity score was evaluated using a quantitative descriptive analysis (QDA) test on a three-point category

scales (extremely soft to extremely firm) by seven trained panellists. The sensory attributes were examined using a liking score on a nine-point hedonic scale (dislike extremely to like extremely) by thirty untrained panellists.

Statistical analysis

A completely randomized design was used in this experiment. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's new multiple range test were used to determine statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) of the mean values.

Results and discussion

Characteristics of partially ripe and ripe mangoes

The moisture content, total soluble solids (TSS), titratable acidity (TA) and firmness value of partially ripe and ripe mangoes with different prefreezing treatments are reported in Table S1. The percentage of moisture content of partially ripe and ripe mangoes was not significantly different between the treatments. However, the prefreezing treatment with calcium lactate solution caused an increase in the moisture content of both partially ripe and ripe mangoes. This was probably due to water diffusion from the calcium lactate solution to the fruit. In contrast, the moisture content of mango pretreated with the combination of calcium lactate and sucrose solution decreased due to osmotic dehydration with sucrose. During osmotic dehydration, the two major simultaneous countercurrent transport phenomena of the water and the osmotic solute are the water flow from the fruit into the solution and the flow of solute from the solution into the fruit. In addition, a third minor transfer process may occur, which is the leaching of fruit soluble solutes into the solution (Raoult-Wack, 1994).

The TSS value was not significantly different between partially ripe and ripe mangoes. The TSS value was significantly different between the treatments, with the calcium lactate-treated samples showing the lowest TSS, while the samples treated with a mixture of calcium lactate and sucrose showed the highest TSS (P < 0.05). The decrease in the TSS of calcium lactate-treated mango was due to water diffusion to the fruits and leaching of fruit soluble solutes such as sugars and organic acids to the solution. The increase in the TSS of mango treated with calcium lactate and sucrose was due to the osmotic dehydration of sucrose.

The %TA value of ripe mango was significantly lower than the partially ripe mango. The decrease in the %TA with ripeness was likely due to their utilisation of the acid as substrates for respiration (Medlicott

& Thompson, 1985). In addition, the %TA of both partially ripe and ripe mangoes treated with calcium lactate decreased due to water diffusion to the fruits and the organic acid leaching. However, %TA of the mangoes treated with the combination of calcium lactate and sucrose was not significantly different from the untreated samples.

The firmness value of ripe mango was lower than in partially ripe mango with each treatment due to biochemical dissolution of the middle lamella pectic polysaccharides during ripening (Waldron et al., 1997). The firmness value of ripe and partially ripe mangoes pretreated with calcium lactate was not significantly different from the untreated mango. Similar result was found by Alandes et al. (2006) who studied the cell wall stability of fresh-cut fuji apples treated with calcium lactate. They reported that the firmness value of calcium lactate-treated apple was not significantly different from the untreated apple within 2 weeks of storage. However, after the second week, the firmness value of apple treated with calcium lactate was higher than those of the untreated apple due to the structural stability improvement of calcium lactate. In addition, mango pretreated with the mixture of calcium lactate and sucrose had a higher firmness value than in the other treatments, with partially ripe mango treated with calcium lactate and sucrose having the highest firmness value (P < 0.05). The osmotic dehydration with sucrose caused more elastic and more resistant to deformation to the fruit as well as the addition of calcium lactate promoted the structural preservation of fruit cellular structure (Pereira et al., 2007) resulted in the higher firmness value.

Quality of frozen mango

The drip loss of mango pretreated with the combination of calcium lactate and sucrose was significantly lower than that of all samples (Fig. S1a). The osmotic pretreatment reduced the moisture content of frozen products; thus, the cellular damage from freezing was reduced (Marani *et al.*, 2001). However, the samples pretreated with calcium lactate appeared to have a higher drip loss compared with the untreated samples. The higher moisture content of the samples caused a substantial amount of ice crystal formation during freezing, and this resulted in a higher drip loss after thawing.

The firmness values of all samples decreased when compared with the unfrozen samples (Fig. S1b, Table S1). The firmness values of frozen-thawed mango treated with calcium lactate were not significantly different from the untreated samples ($P \ge 0.05$). Although calcium in calcium lactate can bind with pectin chains and form calcium pectate egg-box model which help promote the cellular structure of fruit, the

effect of higher amount of moisture content from water migration during immersion which would turn into the large amount of ice crystals caused the cellular damage and texture loss to the mango. However, the firmness values of mango treated with the mixture of calcium lactate and sucrose were the highest (P < 0.05). This was due to the combined effect of calcium lactate, sucrose and water content reduction. Calcium can maintain the cell wall structure in fruit by interacting with the plant cellular matrix, forming bonds between pectins and other cellular wall components (Gras et al., 2003). In addition, osmotic dehydrofreezing with sucrose can reduce the freezable water content, so the texture loss from ice crystal damage was decreased (Ohnishi & Miyawaki, 2005). These results are supported by microstructure results which will be described in the next section.

Although the texture measurements of frozen-thawed, partially ripe and ripe mangoes treated with the mixture of calcium lactate and sucrose were not significantly different, the partially ripe mango treated with calcium appeared to have the firmest texture. Similar results were also reported by Sriwimon & Boonsupthip (2010), who founded that after freezing and thawing, partially ripe mango had a firmer texture than that of ripe mango due to the structure of the fresh partially ripe mango being initially firmer than in the ripe mango. Moreover, the partially ripe mango stage can maintain a higher firmness value for frozen-thawed samples than any of the ripe or fully ripe stages (Rimkeeree & Charoenrein, 2014).

In addition, the firmness intensity of the frozenthawed mangoes was evaluated by seven trained panellists (Fig. S1c). The result showed similar trends to the firmness value which was measured by texture analyser (Fig. S1b).

Microstructure of fresh and frozen mango

Light microscope images of frozen and unfrozen mango tissues are shown in Fig. S2. The microstructure of fresh, partially ripe and ripe mangoes was composed of well-defined circular to elliptical and regular cells (Fig. S2a-1, b-1). The cell walls were uniformly stained as a consequence of the close packaging of the cellulose fibrils, and the plasmalemma was kept near the cell wall. As a result of the ripening, the morphological changes occurred which resulted in more compact and rigid cell wall at the partially ripe stage appeared loosely structured at the ripe stage. The structural changes which occurred in the middle lamella and primary cell wall during ripening lead to cell separation and softening of the tissues (Bartley & Knee, 1982).

After the freezing process, dramatic cell wall damage (i.e. cell separation in the middle lamella and cell wall rupture) was observed in untreated mango, especially in the ripe stage of frozen mango (Fig. S2b-2). This observation corresponded to the reduction in the firmness value of frozen-thawed untreated mango. This can be explained by the formation of ice crystals in an extracellular medium propagating via the cytoplasm when the cell membrane lost permeability. The decompartmentalization caused by these ice crystals prevented water from returning to the intracellular medium during thawing, which caused a loss of turgidity and hence the change in fruit texture (Reid, 1993).

The microstructures of frozen calcium-pretreated samples are showed in Fig. S2a-3, b-3. Although some zones of the cell walls were folded, they showed less damage compared with the untreated samples. The cell wall damage was attenuated by calcium prefreezing treatment due to the divalent bridge between residues of galacturonic acid in the adjacent pectin chains, which caused gelling of part of the pectic material in the cell wall (Alonso et al., 2005). However, the firmness values of frozen-thawed, calcium-treated mango were not significantly different from the untreated samples. This study suggested that the beneficial effect of calcium to maintain the cell wall cannot overcome the formation of large amounts of ice crystals which were formed from the copious amounts of water that diffused to the fruits during calcium infusion, leading to the texture softening.

The cell wall of frozen mango treated with calcium lactate and sucrose was most similar to those of fresh mango (Fig. S2a-4, b-4) with a circular shape and strong cell-cell contact. Moreover, the frozen tissues of partially ripe mango treated with calcium and sucrose showed a strongly stained cell wall compared with ripe mango. The polysaccharide components of the primary cell wall and middle lamella were degraded during the fruit ripening process, resulting in a weakening of the cell wall structure (Brummell, 2006). However, cell plasmolysis could be clearly observed due to the osmotic dehydration (Fig. S2a-4). The plasmalemma shrank because of the cell water loss, but no shrinkage of the cellular wall was observed. The water flowing out through the plasmalemma (with selective permeability) during osmotic dehydration caused the cell plasmolysis. The water loss was replaced by osmotic solution from the intercellular spaces in the cellular cavity, thus avoiding the cell wall deformation observed in osmosed tissue (Martinez-Monzo et al., 1998). Therefore, the most intact cell wall compared with the other samples corresponded to the firmest texture of the partially ripe mango pretreated with calcium lactate and sucrose.

Sensory evaluation

The sensory attributes of the frozen-thawed mango were evaluated by 30 untrained panellists (Table S2).

These results showed that the utilisation of the partially ripe mango had improved the appearance and colour attributes of frozen-thawed mangoes. The stronger structure of the partially ripe mango can better withstand ice crystal damage (Sriwimon & Boonsupthip, 2010). Therefore, the mango's shape could be maintained after the freezing and thawing process. The colour scores of mangoes treated with calcium lactate or with the mixture of calcium lactate and sucrose were higher than for untreated mango due to the beneficial effect of the calcium lactate preventing browning of the cut surface (Manganaris et al., 2005). The flayour scores of mango pretreated with calcium lactate and sucrose were not significantly different from those of untreated mangoes $(P \ge 0.05)$. The infusion with calcium lactate did not provide undesirable bitterness, and the infusion with sucrose helped to mask the sourness of partially ripe mango, resulting in a similar taste score to that of ripe mango. Moreover, the scores for texture and overall acceptability were highest for mango treated with the combination of calcium lactate and sucrose (P < 0.05). Calcium reinforced the structure of the fruit by interacting with the pectin in the cell wall (Alonso et al., 2005), and osmotic dehydration with sucrose reduced the freezable water content, leading to the reduction in ice crystal damage (Marani et al., 2001).

Although the texture and overall acceptability of the frozen-thawed, partially ripe and ripe mangoes treated with the calcium lactate and sucrose were not significantly different, the partially ripe mango had the highest preference scores. Therefore, partially ripe mango could be used as an alternative for ripe mango in freezing preservation, and its sensory qualities could be improved by the calcium lactate and sucrose infusion.

Conclusion

Partially ripe mango could be utilised in freezing preservation as an alternative for using ripe mango. Mango quality could be improved by a prefreezing treatment with a combination of calcium lactate and sucrose. The combined effect of the stronger structure of partially ripe mango, the maintenance of the cell wall structure by the calcium lactate and the osmotic dehydration with sucrose produced higher firmness, higher sensory scores, lower drip loss and less cell wall damage. Therefore, the use of partially ripe mango pretreated with calcium lactate and sucrose can be recommended in the freezing process to maintain higher quality of frozen mango.

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Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

- Figure S1. Changes in frozen-thawed mango drip loss (a), fruit firmness measured by a texture analyser, (b) and fruit firmness scores evaluated by seven trained sensory panellists using a quantitative descriptive analysis (QDA) test on a three-point category scales (extremely soft to extremely firm) (c) of partially ripe and ripe mangoes with different prefreezing treatments.
- **Figure S2.** Light microscope images of fresh and frozen mangoes ($40 \times$, bar = $50 \mu m$).
- **Table S1.** Fruit characteristics comparison for partially ripe and ripe mango with different prefreezing treatments.
- **Table S2.** Mean scores of sensory preference test of frozen-thawed, partially ripe and ripe mango after different prefreezing treatments.