

1 **Dehydrated strawberries for probiotic delivery: Influence of**

2 **dehydration and probiotic incorporation methods**

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 In this study, dehydrated strawberries have been proposed as probiotic carriers. Strawberries were cut into halves, incorporated with probiotic *Bacillus coagulans* BC4 by two alternative methods (impregnation and alginate coating) and submitted to two alternative drying methods (freeze drying - FD - and oven drying - OD). Six treatments were carried out, namely: FD and OD (no probiotic), I-FD, I-OD, C-FD, and C-OD (I- and C- meaning impregnation and coating respectively). While the probiotic incorporation method affected a few properties of the resulting products (mainly the probiotic viability on processing), the drying methods resulted in remarkable differences. The freeze-dried strawberry halves presented higher retention of chemical (ascorbic acid and anthocyanin contents) and physical properties (shape, color, and firmness) as well as a better acceptance and higher probiotic viability, resulting in higher probiotic release into the small intestine. The I-FD treatment resulted in the highest probiotic viability after processing and through a 6-month storage (neat 8 log $\cot(1.9^{-1})$.

 Keywords: *Fragaria × ananassa*; food dehydration; non-dairy probiotic foods; edible coatings.

 The global market for probiotics is expected to reach USD 76.7 billion by 2027, motivated by the growing consumer awareness regarding their health benefits, including their expected positive effects on the immune responses to covid-19 (Meticulous Research, 2020) . The global sales for probiotic foods has far outweighed that of probiotic supplements (USD 41 billion *versus* USD 3.8 billion, in 2015) (Feldman, Lowery, Zambetti, & Madit, 2018) . Dairy foods are still the most common probiotic food products, but there has been an increasing demand for non-dairy products, which meet the needs of people with dietary restrictions to dairy foods (including vegans and vegetarians as well as people with lactose intolerance or allergy reactions to milk proteins), and a variety of non-dairy matrices has demonstrated potential as probiotic carriers, as reviewed elsewhere (Min, Bunt, Mason, & Hussain, 2019) .

 Most studies with probiotic food products use bacteria from the *Lactobacillaceae* family or *Bifidobacterium* genus (Dias et al., 2018; Ester et al., 2019; Ribeiro et al., 2020; Vivek, Mishra, & Pradhan, 2020) , most of which do not form spores, which makes them sensitive to harsh processing conditions. Spore-forming probiotic bacteria, on the other hand, have increased resistance to environmental stresses. Those are usually from the *Bacillus* genus (Salvetti et al., 2016) , including *Bacillus coagulans*, which produces coagulin, a bacteriocin with a broad antimicrobial activity (Kapse, Engineer, Gowdaman, Wagh, & Dhakephalkar, 2019) . *B. coagulans* BC4 has exhibited a high stability on storage and digestion of a dried date paste (Marcial-Coba, Pjaca, Andersen, Knøchel, & Nielsen, 2019) . When compared to a *Lactobacillus*

 acidophilus control, *B. coagulans* MTCC 5856 was about five times more resistant to simulated digestion conditions (Shinde et al., 2019) .

 A number of fruit products has been proposed for probiotic delivery, including fruit juices (Dias et al., 2018; Olivares, Soto, Caballero, & Altamirano, 2019) and fruit powders (Alves et al., 2017; Paim, Costa, Walter, & Tonon, 2016; Vivek, Mishra, & Pradhan, 2020) . Dehydrated fruits have also been presented as probiotic carriers, the probiotics being usually incorporated by impregnation from a probiotic suspension, including simple impregnation at atmospheric pressure (Akman, Uysal, Ozkaya, Tornuk, & Durak, 2019; S. Rodrigues, Silva, Mulet, Cárcel, & Fernandes, 2018; Valerio et al., 2020) , vacuum impregnation (Cui et al., 2018; Noorbakhsh, Yaghmaee, & Durance, 2013; Valerio et al., 2020) , or osmotic dehydration-assisted impregnation (Emser, Barbosa, Teixeira, & Morais, 2017; Rascón et al., 2018). Probiotic-carrier coatings, on the other hand, have been more commonly applied to minimally processed (Bambace, Alvarez, & Moreira, 2019; Khodaei & Hamidi-Esfahani, 2019; F. J. Rodrigues, Cedran, & Garcia, 2018) rather than dehydrated fruits. While the impregnation approach is simpler, coatings have the advantages of providing some barrier to water vapor, oxygen, and volatiles, being thus expected to reduce moisture absorption, loss of nutrients and flavor by dehydrated fruits. Alginate is especially interesting as a matrix for probiotic-containing coatings, due to its polyanionic character that may provide a pH-responsive protection of the bacteria in stomach and release in the small intestine (Mei et al., 2014) .

 The world production of strawberries was around 8.3 million tons in 2018 (FAO, 2018) . Strawberries are very popular fruits, due to their peculiar flavor properties.

 However, they are highly perishable due to tenderness (which makes them extremely susceptible to mechanical damages), high respiration rates and susceptibility to fungal deterioration (Céline et al., 2020) , and that is the main reason why strawberries have been frequently commercialized as frozen or dehydrated fruit in order to extend their shelf life.

83 The objective of this study was to obtain dehydrated strawberry halves containing probiotic *B. coagulans* by two alternative probiotic incorporation methods (i.e. impregnation and coating) and two drying methods (freeze drying and oven drying). The performance of each method combination was comparatively evaluated in terms of physical, chemical, and structural properties of dehydrated strawberries, as well as on their sensory acceptance and capacity to deliver probiotics to the small intestine. This is the first study to compare the performance of impregnation and coating as probiotic incorporation methods, and also the first one to propose *B. coagulans* as a probiotic in dehydrated fruits.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Preparation of the probiotic strain

 Freeze-dried *Bacillus coagulans* BC4 50 MLD spores (lot C235515A) standardized 95 with maltodextrin and containing about 10^{11} cfu.g⁻¹ were provided by Sacco (Cadorago, Italy). A stock culture was prepared by inoculating 1 g of the freeze-dried culture in 10 mL of tryptone glucose yeast extract (TGY) broth, incubating it in a shaker (37°C, 150 rpm, 48 h), centrifuging it, then inoculating the biomass into 45 mL of TGY broth, incubating it again (37°C, 150 rpm, 48 h), centrifuging it, and finally inoculating

 the biomass into 40 mL of TGY broth added with 10 mL glycerol. The stock culture was stirred in vortex tubes and transferred onto cryogenic tubes for storage at −80°C.

 A 25 mL sample of the frozen stock culture was transferred to 225 mL of TGY medium, incubated for 24 h at 39°C in an incubator shaker at 200 rpm, and centrifuged (3000 *g*, 15 min). The supernatant was discarded, and the bacterial biomass was inoculated in 225 mL of a spore-forming medium (composed of: Corn Steep Liquor, 5 mL/L; dextrose, 1 g/L; manganese sulfate, 0.056 g/L; calcium carbonate, 0.05 g/L; and ammonium sulfate, 0.5 g/L) at 39°C, 200 rpm for 48 h. The culture medium was then centrifuged (3000 *g*, 15 min) and washed twice with 40 mL sterile distilled water. The bacterial biomass was then suspended in 40 mL sterile distilled water, in an amount 110 previously calculated for a probiotic concentration of 10 log cfu.mL $^{-1}$. The viable cell counting consisted of immersing 1 mL samples (in triplicate) into 9 mL of a sterile peptone saline solution (0.85% NaCl, 0.1% peptone), vortex-homogenizing it for 10 s, 6-fold serially diluting in saline solution, and plating (in triplicates) on TGY agar (TGY broth supplemented with 1.5% agar) to determine the viable cell counts (spread plate method). The plates were incubated at 37°C, and colonies were counted after 48 h.

116 The spore culture was then stored at -18°C until use for impregnation suspensions or coating dispersions.

2.2. Processing of probiotic strawberries

 The strawberries were purchased from a single supplier in São Carlos, SP, Brazil. They were washed with neutral detergent, rinsed, disinfected with chlorinated water (100 mg/L) for 5 min, rinsed with distilled water, and superficially dried by using sterile

 gauze. The calyces were then removed, and the strawberries were longitudinally cut into halves.

 The probiotic bacteria was included in both an impregnation suspension (without a biopolymer) and a coating dispersion (with alginate). The first one consisted on 500 mL of sterile distilled water containing an amount of the bacterial biomass calculated 127 so as to provide the suspension with a cell count of 8 log cfu.mL $^{-1}$. The suspension was homogenized with a mechanical stirrer (Ika Eurostar 60 Control, IKA-Werke GmbH, Staufen, Germany) at 650 rpm for 20 min. The coating dispersion consisted of a 1% (w/v) sodium alginate (TICA-algin 400 F, lot 41369, Tic Gums, White Marsh, MD, USA) dispersed in sterile distilled water containing 30 wt% sorbitol (on an alginate basis), and homogenized at 15,000 rpm for 15 min in an Ultra-Turrax T18 homogenizer (IKA-Werke, Staufen, Germany). After homogenization, an amount of the bacterial 134 biomass was added so as to provide the dispersion with a cell count of 8 log cfu.mL $^{-1}$, and homogenized for 20 min in the Eurostar 60 Control mechanical stirrer at 650 rpm.

 The strawberry halves were divided into six groups, each one containing 1.2 kg. Two groups were the controls (not incorporated with probiotics), while two were the impregnation groups, and the other two were the coating groups. The fruit pieces of the impregnation groups were dipped into the impregnation probiotic suspension for 30 min with stirring (60 rpm). The strawberry halves of the coating groups were dipped 141 into the sodium alginate/probiotic dispersion for 1 min, then into a 1% CaCl₂ solution (w/v) in sterile distilled water for 1 min, and rinsed in sterile distilled water for 10 s to remove any remaining CaCl² (not involved in crosslinking with alginate).

 From each two groups that received the same probiotic incorporation protocol, one 145 group was pre-frozen in an ultra-freezer at -25°C for 24 h, then freeze-dried in a Liotop L101 freeze-dryer (Liotop, São Carlos, SP, Brazil) at 41°C for 8 days. The other group was oven-dried in a Solab SL102 air-circulating oven (Solab, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) for 48 h at 50°C.

 The six groups/treatments (Figure 1) are hereafter referred to as: FD (freeze-dried, no probiotic incorporation); OD (oven-dried, no probiotic incorporation), I-FD (impregnated with probiotic and freeze-dried), I-OD (impregnated with probiotic and oven-dried), C-FD (coated with alginate/probiotic dispersion and freeze-dried), and C- OD (coated with alginate/probiotic dispersion and oven-dried). After processing, the strawberry halves from all treatments were packed into zip-lock low density polyethylene bags (0.1 mm in thickness) and stored at a climatic chamber (420-2TS, Ethik Technology, Vargem Grande Paulista, SP, Brazil) at 25°C and 50% RH.

2.3. Sensory acceptance

 Since the gathering restrictions imposed by the covid-19 pandemic stopped the team from conducting a conventional sensory analysis in a laboratory with individual cabins, a simplified acceptance test was carried out by delivering packages containing six small plastics bags, each containing a sample coded with 3 random digits, along with instructions for the analysis. Fifty-two consumers with ages ranging from 18 to 65 years participated in the test by filling an online form, indicating their degree of overall 164 acceptance of each sample by using a 5-point hedonic scale (from $1 =$ extremely disliked to 5 = extremely liked). The form included space for comments about what the consumers liked or disliked about each sample. The study was reviewed and approved

 by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the Centro Universitário Central Paulista (CAAE 18628019.9.0000.5380).

2.4. Characterization of probiotic strawberry halves for changes on processing and storage

 The following determinations were made before and after dehydration, in order to evaluate the effect of processing (dehydration) on them. Moreover, the determinations were made after 6 months of storage at 25°C (except for viable cell counting, which was carried out monthly for the 6 months of storage).

2.4.1. Viable cell counting

 The changes in viability of the probiotic bacteria along the processing and storage of strawberries were monitored by viable cell counting on samples of all probiotic- containing treatments (I-FD, C-FD, I-OD, and C-OD). Three 2.5 g samples were homogenized into 247.5 mL peptone saline water (0.85% NaCl, 0.1% peptone) in a 180 stomacher for 2 min, then 5-fold serial dilutions (from 10^{-3} to 10^{-7}) were plated (in triplicate) on TGY agar to determine the viable cell counts by the spread plate method. The plates were incubated at 37°C, and colonies were counted after 48 h. All the viable 183 cell counts were expressed as $ctu.g^{-1}$ (on a dry basis).

2.4.2. Strawberry skin color

 The color measurements were made from the strawberry external surface (on the skin), using a Konica Minolta CR-400 colorimeter (Konica Minolta, Osaka, Japan) equipped with a C illuminant, using the CIELAB scale. Measurements were taken from 188 five strawberry halves, in triplicate for each one. The total color difference (ΔE^*) was

189 calculated according to Eq. 1. ΔE^* for processing (ΔE^* P) was defined as representing 190 the difference between the processed samples (just after dehydration) and fresh 191 strawberries, whereas ΔE^* for storage (ΔE^* s) represented the difference between the 192 end (6 months) and the beginning of storage.

193
$$
\Delta E^* = [(\Delta L^*)^2 + (\Delta a^*)^2 + (\Delta b^*)^2]^{1/2}
$$
 (1)

194 where ΔL^* , Δa^* , and Δb^* are the differences in L^* , a^* , and b^* average values between 195 processed and fresh strawberries (for processing, ΔE^*P) or between end and 196 beginning of storage (ΔE^*s) .

197 2.4.3. Anthocyanins

198 The anthocyanin contents were determined (in triplicate) by the single pH method 199 based on the 535 nm absorbance measured at pH 2, as previously described 200 (Soquetta, Schmaltz, Wesz Righes, Salvalaggio, & Terra, 2018) .

201 2.4.4. Ascorbic acid

 The ascorbic acid determinations were made according to the method proposed by Bresolin & Hubinger (2014) . Weighed (0.1 g) samples were transferred into 10-mL 204 graduated flasks and made up to 10-mL mark with metaphosphoric acid 3% (w/v), then filtered through a disposable hydrophilic Teflon filter (0.45 μm) and placed in a vial covered with aluminum foil. The samples (30 µL) were injected into theHIgh Performance Liquid Chromatograph (HPLC) Varian with dual pumps (Pro Star 210) and an UV-Vis detector (Pro Star 325) adjusted for 245 nm. The mobile phase was phosphate buffer pH 2.5, with a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min. Separation was performed on

210 an Agilent C18 (2.5 x 25 mm, 5 µm) column. The L-ascorbic acid (purity ≥ 99.0 %) used as a standard was obtained from Sigma Life Science (V000200).

2.4.5. Firmness

 Firmness (expressed as N) was measured using a texturometer (Stable Micro System, model TA-XT.Plus, Surrey, UK) with a 4 mm plunger at a shearing speed of 1 mm s⁻¹ to a depth of 5 mm. Five measurements were taken for each treatment (one strawberry half per measurement).

2.4.6. Scanning electron micrography (SEM)

218 Sections (10 mm², 1 mm in thickness) were dissected from the strawberry surfaces for scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The specimens were fixed to aluminum stubs using conductive carbon tape and sputter-coated with a 10 nm-thick gold layer by using the ACE600 Sputter Coater (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany). The fractured surfaces were obtained by submerging strawberry halves in liquid nitrogen for 5 min and fracturing with tweezers. The specimens were mounted onto aluminum stubs with the fractured surface facing upward, using conductive carbon tape, then sputter-coated with a 10 nm-thick gold layer. The specimens were observed under a JSM 6510 (Jeol, Tokyo, Japan) microscope at 10 kV, the surfaces and fractures at $5,000 \times$ and 100 \times magnifications respectively.

2.5. Viability of the probiotic strain on Simulator of Human Microbial Ecosystem (SHIME®)

 SHIME® is a dynamic model composed of five double-jacketed vessels representing stomach (vessel 1), small intestine (vessel 2), as well as ascending, transverse and

 descending colon (vessels 3-5 respectively) of the human gastrointestinal tract. In this study, only the vessels 1 (stomach) and 2 (small intestine) were used. The system is connected with a software that controls the pH, residence time, and temperature of each vessel, as previously described (Molly, Woestyne, Smet, & Verstraete, 1994) .

 The feeding medium was composed of corn starch (3 g/L), pectin (2 g/L), mucin (4 g/L), xylan (1 g/L), peptone (1 g/L), arabinogalactan (1 g/L), glucose (0.4 g/L), yeast extract (3 g/L), and cystein (0.5 g/L) in distilled water. Strawberry samples (6 g) from 239 the probiotic-containing treatments were diluted to $10²$ in this medium, homogenized 240 in a stomacher at 230 rpm for 2 min, and transferred to the vessel 1, where it was kept for 2 h at 37°C at a pH of 2.5-2.9. The content of vessel 1 was then transferred to the vessel 2 and incubated for 4 h at 37°C. The small intestine conditions were simulated 243 by adding artificial pancreatic juice (12.5 q/L of NaHCO₃, 6 q/L of Oxgall, and 0.9 q/L of pancreatin) at a rate of 4 mL/min for 15 min. The homogeneity of the samples in each vessel was maintained by using a magnetic stirrer.

 At the end of the process, samples of strawberry fragments (1 g) and the small intestine fluid (1 mL) were collected (in triplicate) and suspended into 9 mL of a sterile peptone saline solution (0.85% NaCl, 0.1% peptone), then submitted to the viable cell counting as previously described.

2.6. Data processing and statistical analyses

 The changes on processing were evaluated by comparing the properties of the processed strawberry halves with those of the fresh strawberries (on a dry basis). The changes on storage, on the other hand, were assessed by comparing the properties

 of the strawberry halves at the end of the storage time with those just after processing (storage time 0).

 The data were analyzed using the general linear model (two-way Anova) of Minitab® statistical software v. 19 (Minitab Inc., State College, PA, USA). When significant differences were found (p < 0.05) for a categorical factor (type of processing or form of probiotic incorporation), comparisons were made (Tukey's multiple comparisons test for comparison of three groups, or t-tests for comparison of two groups, p<0.05). When a continuous variable was involved (time of storage), regression analysis and Anova were performed in order to asses the significance of the factors.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Microstructure of the dehydrated strawberry halves

 The dehydration methods produced quite different microstructures on both surfaces and fractures of strawberry halves (Figure 2). Whereas the oven dried samples exhibited rougher surfaces (visible especially at the surface of OD) and collapse of the fruit structure, freeze dried strawberries presented large pores, demonstrating the preservation of cell structures, corroborating previous results with banana and mango (Zotarelli, Porciuncula, & Laurindo, 2012) . Those differences are consequences of the damages to the fruit tissues by oven drying, which involves destruction of the porous structure due to capillary forces, whereas freeze drying avoids the liquid/vapor interface and involves sublimation at the solid/vapor interface, eliminating capillary forces (Wang, Fang, Ye, Zhang, & Feng, 2020) . The surfaces of impregnated samples were covered by bacteria, while the coated ones (especially the C-FD)

 exhibited the contours of bacteria embedded in the alginate matrix as clusters rather than a uniform bacterial layer, similarly to lactic acid bacteria in whey protein (Pereira et al., 2016) and starch/carboxymethylcellulose films (Li et al., 2020) .

3.2. Sensory acceptance

 The acceptance of strawberry halves was significantly affected by the processing method (Figure 3), the freeze-dried samples being better accepted than the oven-dried ones, since freeze-drying is a technique that minimizes the thermal damages promoted by oven drying on flavor and color compounds as well as in physical cell structure (An et al., 2016; Torres, Díaz-Maroto, Hermosín-Gutiérrez, & Pérez-Coello, 2010) . Indeed, the appearance of freeze dried samples was much more similar than that of oven dried ones (Figure 1). Negative comments on the appearance, texture, and flavor of oven-dried samples were frequent (Figure 3), whereas the only negative comment on freeze dried samples was the "styrofoam-like" texture, which may be ascribed to the porous, honeycomb-like cellular structure resulting from freeze drying. Positive comments, on the other hand, were frequent for freeze dried samples. The probiotic incorporation method did not affect the acceptability of the products.

3.3. Chemical and physical changes on processing and storage

 One of the problems of thermal processing methods is the thermal degradation of heat-sensitive compounds, including nutrients (such as ascorbic acid) and pigments (such as anthocyanins), thus reducing sensory, nutritional, and antioxidant values of foods. Indeed, whereas the mean losses of anthocyanins and ascorbic acid on oven drying of strawberry halves were about 77% and 85% respectively, those losses were around 39% and 15% for the freeze dried samples (Figure 4), corroborating previous

 studies reporting much lower losses of heat-senstitive compounds on freeze drying than oven drying (Samoticha, Wojdyło, & Lech, 2016) . The method of probiotic incorporation also affected the losses of both anthocyanins and ascorbic acid on processing. Surprisingly, coating or impregnation with probiotics increased the mean losses on processing, which may be ascribed to leaching by the probiotic suspension or coating dispersion, since both anthocyanins and ascorbic acid are water-soluble. An additional explanation is dilution by the probiotic bacteria and/or coating materials, since the losses were calculated on a dry basis of fresh strawberries (without coating or probiotics); in this case, the losses would be rather apparent than real losses.

 The losses on storage, on the other hand, presented unusual variations. Whereas freeze dried strawberry halves exhibited much higher anthocyanin losses when compared to those of oven dried samples, their ascorbic acid losses were slightly (but significantly) lower. Their higher anthocyanin losses may be ascribed to their higher surface area-to-volume ratio due to the high porosity of the fruit pieces, promoting an increased O² exposure, leading to anthocyanin oxidation (Sarkis, Jaeschke, Tessaro, & Marczak, 2013) . On the other hand, it is hypothesized that their lower ascorbic acid losses on storage is partially explained by the protecting effect of antioxidant compounds that may have been more retained on the freeze dried strawberry tissues than on oven dried ones (Dorta, Lobo, & González, 2012) . The method of probiotic incorporation influenced the ascorbic acid losses on storage, the coating method having decreased the losses, probably by decreasing oxidation promoted by the $O₂$ exposure (Sarkis et al., 2013) , since alginate, being hydrophilic, has a reasonable barrier against O2.

 After processing, the freeze dried strawberry halves tended to be brighter (higher L^* , Figure 5A) due to increased light scattering by the pores formed on sublimation (Ceballos, Giraldo, & Orrego, 2012) , with increased redness (a*, Figure 5B) and decreased yellowness (b*, Figure 5C) due to increased anthocyanin concentration by water removal. The oven dried samples were darker, with decreased a*, due to 327 browning reactions and anthocyanin degradation. The total color changes (ΔE^*) were higher on oven drying than freeze drying, and not affected by the method of probiotic incorporation. The main color change on storage of all samples was the decreased a* 330 (Figure 5B), related to anthocyanin loss (Figure 4), but the ΔE^* on storage was not significantly affected by the processing method or probiotic incorporation.

 The firmness of strawberry halves (Figure 6) was noticeably affected by the processing method, the oven dried samples being much firmer, which is ascribed to the shrinkage of the solid matrix resulting from the rapid water removal causing microstructural stresses (Pei et al., 2014; Zotarelli et al., 2012) , whereas freeze drying results in a porous and less dense texture, with the cell structures mostly intact (An et al., 2016) . In contrast, the firmness of the freeze dried samples was more affected by storage than the firmness of oven dried ones (although the final firmnesses of freeze dried strawberries have still been a fraction of those of the oven dried strawberries), due to a partial collapse of the porous structure. The method of probiotic incorporation did not affect the firmness changes on processing, but the impregnation method resulted in a lower increase in firmness on storage when compared to the other probiotic incorporation methods, which may be ascribed to some structuring role of the impregnated bacteria, imparting some robustness to the matrix (Santivarangkna, Aschenbrenner, Kulozik, & Foerst, 2011) .

3.4. Changes in probiotic viability on processing and storage

 Even though *B. coagulans* is spore-forming, its viability (Figure 7) was more affected by the thermal drying method (oven drying) than freeze drying, since even spores are affected (although in a lower extent than vegetative cells) by higher temperatures (Luu- Thi, Khadka, & Michiels, 2014; Somavat, Mohamed, & Sastry, 2013) . Moreover, the impregnation method resulted in lower viability losses than coating. Although the coating approach involves a matrix to protect the probiotic cells (Espitia, Batista, Azeredo, & Otoni, 2016) , the higher effectiveness of the impregnation technique to protect the probiotic may be ascribed to the bacteria penetrating more deeply into the strawberry tissues, and being thus protected by the fruit matrix itself (Ester et al., 2019) . The viability was not significantly affected by storage time, but only by the processing and probiotic incorporation methods, as direct consequences from the differences on processing. The I-FD treatment was the one that kept the highest 359 probiotic cell counts after processing and throughout storage (near 8 log cfu.g⁻¹).

3.5. Probiotic viability on SHIME®

 After the passage through SHIME®, the probiotic cell counts made it clear that the probiotics survived well the passage though the stomach, which is not surprising, given the spore-forming ability of *B. coagulans*, and corroborates previous findings (Marcial- Coba et al., 2019; Shinde et al., 2019) . It was recently observed that *B. coagulans* survived under fed and fasted gastrointestinal conditions, and the highest spore germination was detected in small intestine in an *in vitro* simulated model of the gastrointestinal tract (Ahire, Neelamraju, & Madempudi, 2020) .

 Although the strawberry fragments kept high cell counts, the bacteria have also been widely released to the small intestine fluid. The freeze dried samples released significantly more probiotics than the oven dried ones, but there was no significant differences between the probiotic incorporation methods. Anyway, the strawberry halves of all treatments were able to release probiotics in counts higher than 6 log cfu.g⁻¹ to the small intestine.

4. Conclusions

 There were noticeable differences between drying methods in terms of the resulting properties of strawberry halves, freeze drying having provided the fruit pieces with a better preservation of their properties on processing, including higher retention of ascorbic acid, anthocyanins, shape, color, and firmness. Moreover, freeze drying kept a higher probiotic viability when compared to oven drying, resulting in higher viable cell counts released to the small intestine. Additionally, the freeze dried samples presented better sensory acceptance. The *B. coagulans* BC4 in the product was able to keep its viability unchanged throughout storage, and was also resistant to the passage through stomach and small intestine. The combination of impregnation and freeze drying was the one that resulted in the highest probiotic viability through storage 385 (neat 8 log cfu.g⁻¹ along 6 months).

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6. Conflicts of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

7. References

Figure 1. Treatments on strawberry halves and visual appearance.

 Figure 2. Scanning electron micrographs of surfaces and fractures of strawberry halves submitted to the treatments. OD: oven dried (no probiotic); C-OD: alginate- probiotic-coated and oven dried; I-OD: impregnated with probiotic suspension and oven dried; FD: freeze dried (no probiotic); C-FD: alginate-probiotic-coated and freeze dried; I-FD: impregnated with probiotic suspension and freeze dried.

 Figure 3. Sensory acceptance of strawberry halves from the different treatments and frequent comments by evaluators. FD: freeze dried (no probiotic); C-FD: alginate- probiotic-coated and freeze dried; I-FD: impregnated with probiotic suspension and freeze dried; OD: oven dried (no probiotic); C-OD: alginate-probiotic-coated and oven dried; I-OD: impregnated with probiotic suspension and oven dried.

 Figure 4. Anthocyanin (A) and ascorbic acid (B) contents of strawberry halves (on a dry basis) and statistical analyses of losses on processing and storage. FD: freeze dried (no probiotic); C-FD: alginate-probiotic-coated and freeze dried; I-FD: impregnated with probiotic suspension and freeze dried; OD: oven dried (no probiotic); C-OD: alginate-probiotic-coated and oven dried; I-OD: impregnated with probiotic suspension and oven dried.

Figure 5. Color changes on processing and storage.

Figure 6. Firmness changes on processing and storage.

600 **Figure 7.** Changes in viability of *B. coagulans* on processing and storage of strawberry 601 halves.

602 **Figure 8.** Probiotic viable cell counts on strawberry fragments and the small intestine 603 fluid after the passage through the simulator of human microbial ecosystem 604 (SHIME®) .

m 100 100

 $100 \mu m$

SURFACE

 100μ

100 μ

m 100 m **m**

m **m**

m **m**

m 100

FRACTURE

Losses on storage

Losses on processing

Losses on storage

Δ **E*** (skin color) on processing

Δ **E* (skin color) on storage**

Changes on storage

÷.

ANOVA - Losses on processing

Regression analysis/ANOVA - Viability on storage

ANOVA - Cell counts on the intestine fluid

