



Drying kinetics and water adsorption properties of jalapeño pepper seeds (*Capsicum annuum* L.): A study aiming at their recovery and integral exploitation

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

By-products
Equilibrium moisture content
Mathematical modeling
Sorption heat
Water activity

ABSTRACT

Drying kinetics (DK) and water adsorption isotherms (WAI) of Jalapeño pepper seeds (JPS) were evaluated and modeled at different temperatures. The proximate composition, flavonoid content (FC), and total phenolic compounds (TPC) of JPS were determined. Furthermore, JPS oil was extracted and characterized. Five mathematical models were tested to describe the JPS drying kinetics at five temperatures (40–80 °C) as well as the effective diffusion coefficient (D_{eff}) and activation energy (E_a) were calculated. The WAI of the JPS was determined at nine temperatures (8–72 °C) and five mathematical models were fitted to JPS adsorption data. Thermodynamic properties were also estimated. The JPS presented TPC (30.9 mg GAE/g), FC (17.4 mg catechin equivalents/g), fibers (54.8 g/100 d.b.), lipids (22.2 g/100 d.b.), and proteins (15.5 g/100 d.b.). The study on drying kinetics pointed out that the Weibull model best fitted to drying kinetics data, D_{eff} increased directly to temperature, and the $E_a = 30.302$ kJ/mol. The GAB model presented good accuracy in describing the WAIs that were classified as BET Type II. The net isosteric heat of adsorption and differential entropy decreased with increasing EMC. Enthalpy-entropy compensation theory was corroborated and characterized the adsorption of JPS as enthalpy-driven and spontaneous.

1. Introduction

Currently, in the agro-industrial sector, the trend is to recover and use all industrial by-products generated, aiming for sustainable food production, in line with efforts to reduce carbon emissions to zero (Valdez-Morales et al., 2021). The jalapeño pepper (*Capsicum annuum* L.) stands out as a crop of notable global importance due to its culinary and industrial versatility (Moreno-Escamilla et al., 2015). Approximately.

20 % of pepper is consumed in its natural form and 60 % of production is destined for processed products such as spices, canned products, and sauces (Nip, 2005; Sandoval-Castro et al., 2017). After processing, the jalapeño pepper by-product is a mixture of 95 % seeds and 5 % of peels, stalks, and unused pulp (Valdez-Morales et al., 2021) that are generated at different stages of industrial processing.

Jalapeño pepper seeds are sources of fiber (≈ 43 %, d.b.), proteins (≈ 20 %, d.b.), and lipids (≈ 17 %, d.b.) (Sandoval-Castro et al., 2014, 2017). Their high content of fibers demonstrates the potential of these seeds to be recovered and incorporated as ingredients in processed foods (Bouaziz et al., 2020; Garcia et al., 2020). The protein content appears to be recoverable, which is consistent with global trends toward the utilization of plant-based proteins as an excellent nutritious source for the human diet (Sá et al., 2020). Azabou et al. (2017) presented the high added value of red pepper seeds (*Capsicum annuum*) owing to their chemical composition, including dietary fiber, crude proteins, and crude oil at around 60.96 %, 18.30 %, and 11.04 %, respectively. Sandoval-Castro et al. (2017) analyzed the bioactive compounds and antioxidant activity of the by-product of Jalapeño pepper (*Capsicum annuum*) for potential food and non-food applications. The ethanolic extract (80 %) of the by-product exhibited similar levels of total phenolics

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2024.116452>

Received 16 February 2024; Received in revised form 2 June 2024; Accepted 24 June 2024

Available online 5 July 2024

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compared to fresh pepper, with notable compounds such as epicatechin, rutin, and catechin. The oxidative activity was lower for by-products compared to fresh pepper. However, the byproduct still stands out in terms of antioxidant capacity, thanks to its higher content compared to tomato by-products.

The nutraceutical characteristics of pepper seed oil have been increasingly studied (Chen et al., 2024; Chouaibi et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2019a; Sangroula et al., 2024). Jalapeño pepper seed oil is a source of important lipophilic nutraceuticals such as β -carotene, essential fatty acids, capsaicin, α -tocopherol, and dihydrocapsaicin (Lu et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2019b; Sandoval-Castro et al., 2017) and has a pleasant flavor similar to sunflower oil (Jarret et al., 2013). Additionally, the proportion of fatty acids found closely resembled that of soybean and palm oil, predominantly composed of polyunsaturated fatty acid, specifically linoleic acid (Azabou et al., 2017). Sharma et al. (2013) highlights the importance of the capsaicin component present in the oil due to its nutraceutical characteristics and its medicinal applications in the areas of dermatology, gastrointestinal health, obesity, and cancer treatment.

With all the benefits mentioned above, the development of new nutritional products with the addition of pepper flour or seed oil remains scarce in the literature. (Cvetković et al., 2022; Valdez-Morales et al., 2021) mentioned several potential products: chocolate spreads, breakfast sauces, bakery items, and soup thickeners.

Despite of this trend towards valuing agro-industrial residues and converting them into high-value products, there are few studies in the literature evaluating the processing conditions for their stabilization, making it difficult to size the required operations adequately and efficiently before this conversion. Due to the high cost of energy, one of the most difficult aspects of employing by-products is the necessity for drying. This unit operation aims to enhance the stability against oxidative and enzymatic processes, as well as microbial spoilage while also reduces mass and volume, thus, lowering storage and transportation costs for by-products (Polachini et al., 2016; Rosa et al., 2021).

Knowledge and modeling of the drying kinetics and water sorption properties of JPS are essential to understand the interaction of the water with the dry matter of Jalapeño pepper seeds, thus, enhancing the correct equipment sizing, control, and the drying and storage processes of this by-product. Thus, ensuring its integrity and availability for further applications. This is the first study to present data regarding the drying kinetics and the water adsorption properties of jalapeño pepper seeds (*Capsicum annuum* L.) aiming for their recovery and full use. Thus, the main objectives of this study were to determine and model the drying kinetics and water sorption properties of jalapeño pepper seeds (*Capsicum annuum* L.) under storage and drying conditions.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Raw material

Fresh jalapeño peppers (*Capsicum annuum* L.) were purchased at a local supermarket (São José do Rio Preto, SP, Brazil) and transported to the Physical Measurements Laboratory at Unesp (Campus São José do Rio Preto). The peppers were washed with distilled water and had their stalk removed. Then, the seeds were manually separated, placed in low-density polypropylene bags, and stored under refrigeration at 4 °C.

2.2. Characterization of jalapeño pepper seeds (JPS)

2.2.1. Proximate composition of JPS

Lipids were determined by Soxhlet following the Ai 3–75 method (AOCS, 2009). The determination of fiber, protein and ash contents were conducted following the (AOAC, 2007) methodologies. The total fiber content which is the sum of the insoluble and soluble fiber fractions was determined according to method 991.43 based on enzymatic removal of starch and protein for further separation into soluble and insoluble fiber fractions by centrifugation. The total nitrogen was determined by

micro-Kjeldahl (method 981.10) and the conversion factor equal to 6.25 were used to calculate the protein content. Ash content was determined by incineration in a muffle furnace (method 923.03) at 550 °C until white ashes were obtained. Carbohydrates were obtained by difference.

2.2.2. Total phenolic compounds (TPC) and flavonoids content (FC) of JPS

Total phenolic compounds were determined using the spectrophotometric method and the absorbance was measured at a wavelength of 740 nm (Singleton et al., 1999). The calibration curve was constructed using gallic acid (Dinâmica, Brazil) as standard reagent and the results were presented in mg of gallic acid equivalent per 100 g of sample (mg GAE/100 g). The total flavonoid content was determined using the spectrophotometric method based on the protocol described by (Zhishen et al., 1999) using a methanolic $AlCl_3$ solution. Catechin was used as a reference flavonoid and the results were presented in mg of catechin equivalents per g of seed extract.

2.2.3. Extraction and physicochemical characterization of JPS oil

The preparation and extraction of oil from jalapeño pepper seeds were carried out following the protocol described by (Rosa et al., 2021). The dried seeds at 60 ± 2 °C were grounded in a rotary mill (model MA340, Marconi, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) and sieved through a 30 mesh sieve to obtain a powder with particles lower than 595 μ m in size. This step was done aiming to enhance the oil extraction of the seeds. Filter paper cartridges containing 10 g of JPS powder were put inside to perform oil extraction using petroleum ether (40–60 °C for 6 h) in a Soxhlet extractor as described by the Ai 3–75 method (AOCS, 2009). The solvent was removed from the oil at 60 °C under vacuum and stored in an amber glass bottle at –18 °C. The JPS oil was characterized and evaluated according to its iodine index (g of I_2 /100 g) (Cd method 1–25), refractive index at 40 °C (Cc method 7–25), free fatty acids content (% in oleic acid w/w) (Ca 5a-40 method), peroxide value (mEq peroxide/kg) (Cd 8–53 method), acid value (mg KOH/g) and saponification matter (mg KOH/g) (method of Cd 3–25). The methods mentioned above are described in the official methods for oils of the American Oil Chemists' Society (AOCS, 2009). The unsaponifiable matter (%) was performed according to (Lozano et al., 1993).

2.3. Convective hot air drying of JPS

A pilot-scale convective dryer with a process control system operated with Fieldbus technology (SMAR Industrial Equipment Ltda., Sertãozinho, Brazil) was used to study the drying kinetics of JPS. The same equipment was previously used and described in previous studies (Nicoleti et al., 2007; Rosa et al., 2015, 2021). The JPS drying kinetics were carried out at temperatures of 40, 50, 60, 70, and 80 °C with a constant dry air speed of 1.3 m/s. At least 30 min were spent for the set points to the dryer reached permanent conditions and then, the samples were evenly put in the chamber as a thin layer (layer thickness: 8 ± 0.1 mm). Each experiment used weighed 200 ± 0.5 g. The initial moisture content of JPS was determined at the beginning of the experiment using vacuum oven drying (method 950.46) according to (AOAC, 2007) procedure. The moisture content at each time was calculated in dry basis (d. b.) using the weight loss and dry solid weight of JPS and drying experiment was finished when the sample achieved the equilibrium moisture content (EMC). The relative humidity (RH) was recorded at the end of each test to calculate the water activity (a_w) using the relationship $a_w = RH/100$. The Newton, Page, Henderson and Pabis, Logarithmic, and Weibull models (Equations (1)–(5)) were fitted to the drying kinetics experimental data.

$$MR = \exp(-kt) \quad (1)$$

$$MR = \exp(-kt^n) \quad (2)$$

$$MR = a \bullet \exp(-kt) \quad (3)$$

$$MR = a \bullet \exp(-kt) + c \quad (4)$$

$$MR = \exp \left[- \left(\frac{t}{\alpha} \right)^\beta \right] \quad (5)$$

in which: a , c , n : model coefficients; k : drying constant; α : scale parameter (min); β : shape parameter; t : drying time (min). The drying rate (DR) for each temperature was also estimated using Equation (6).

$$DR = \frac{MC_{t_1} - MC_{t_2}}{t_2 - t_1} \quad (6)$$

where MC_{t_1} and MC_{t_2} are the moisture contents in kg/kg d.b. at drying times t_1 and t_2 , respectively.

2.3.1. Effective diffusion coefficient (D_{eff}) and activation energy (E_a)

The coefficients at different temperatures were determined using the solutions of Fick's second law for flat slab proposed by Crank (1975) truncated in the twelfth term via nonlinear regression (Equation (7)). The activation energy (E_a) was determined by using the linearized form of the Arrhenius model (Equation (8)) aiming to assess the dependence of D_{eff} on temperature.

$$MR = \frac{8}{\pi^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n+1)^2} \exp \left(\frac{-(2n+1)^2 \pi^2 D_{eff} t}{4l^2} \right) \quad (7)$$

$$D_{eff} = D_0 \exp \left[\frac{E_a}{RT} \right] \quad (8)$$

in which, n is the number of terms of the series, t is the time, l is the half thickness of the slab, D_0 is the pre-exponential factor of the Arrhenius equation (m^2/s); T is the absolute air temperature (K) and R is the universal gas constant (8.314 J/mol/K).

2.4. Water adsorption isotherms of JPS

The water adsorption isotherms of Jalapeño pepper seeds were determined using the Spiess and Wolf (1983) static gravimetric method at seven temperatures that simulate storage conditions (8 °C, 16 °C, 24 °C, and 32 °C) and drying conditions (40 °C, 48 °C, 56 °C, 64 °C, and 72 °C). For this, eleven saline solutions saturated with different salts (LiBr, LiCl, LiI, $K_2C_2H_3O_2$, $MgCl_2$, $Mg(NO_3)_2$, NaBr, $NaNO_3$, NaCl, KBr, and KCl) were used and placed in glass desiccators. These saturated saline solutions were used to achieve a relative humidity range between 4.8 % and 92.1 %. Storage temperatures were simulated in a BOD chamber (MA415, Marconi, Piracicaba, Brazil), and drying temperatures were simulated in an oven (MA030, Marconi, Piracicaba, Brazil). The water activities (a_w) of saline solutions at different temperatures (Table S1) were prepared according to data correlations presented by Labuza (1963) and Martins et al. (2023). The GAB, Peleg, Oswin, Halsey and Henderson models (Equations (9)–(13)) were fitted to the adsorption experimental data.

$$EMC = \frac{X_m C k a_w}{(1 - k a_w)(1 + (C - 1) k a_w)} \quad (9)$$

$$EMC = k_1 a_w^{n_1} + k_2 a_w^{n_2} \quad (10)$$

$$EMC = M \left(\frac{a_w}{1 - a_w} \right)^N \quad (11)$$

$$EMC = (-h_1 \ln(a_w))^{-\frac{1}{h_2}} \quad (12)$$

$$EMC = \left(-\frac{\ln(1 - a_w)}{H_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{H_2}} \quad (13)$$

in which: X_m represents the monolayer moisture content (kg of water/kg dry matter), C , k , k_1 , n_1 , k_2 , n_2 , M , N , h_1 , h_2 , H_1 , and H_2 are constants of the models, EMC is the equilibrium moisture content, and a_w is the water activity.

2.4.1. Thermodynamic properties of JPS adsorption

The models that best fit the experimental data of the adsorption isotherms at nine temperatures were used to determine water activity at a given equilibrium humidity. The values of $\ln(a_w)$ were plotted as a function of $1/T$ for each EMC to calculate the net isosteric heat of adsorption (q_{st}) or enthalpy of sorption and differential entropy (ΔS). The q_{st} is the amount of energy needed to adsorb the water molecules into the active sites of the food matrix. It can be used to evaluate the dependence of the adsorption phenomenon on temperature and be accessed through the angular coefficients of Equation (14) known as the Clausius-Clapeyron equation (Rizvi, 2014).

$$\left. \frac{\partial(\ln a_w)}{\partial \left(\frac{1}{T} \right)} \right|_{EMC} = -\frac{Q_{st} - \lambda}{R} = -\frac{q_{st}}{R} \quad (14)$$

The differential entropy (ΔS) is proportional to the number of available sorption sites at a given energy level being associated with attraction-repulsive forces in the system (Yogendrarajah et al., 2015). According to Taghnamas et al. (2021), the linear relationship between ΔS and q_{st} can be described by Equation (15). Moreover, the enthalpy-entropy mechanism can be assessed by Equation (16), again, by linear regression according to Leffler (1955).

$$(-\ln a_w)|_{EMC} = \frac{q_{st}}{RT} - \frac{\Delta S}{R} \quad (15)$$

$$q_{st} = T_B \Delta S + \Delta G_B \quad (16)$$

in which ΔG_B is the Gibbs's free energy at the isokinetic temperature (T_B) obtained. The isokinetic temperature is the temperature at which all the reactions regarding sorption proceed at the same rate (Červenka et al., 2015). According to Krug et al. (1976a), Krug et al. (1976b), the compensation theory is valid only if T_B differs from the harmonic mean temperature (T_{hm}), calculated by Equation (17). To evaluate if T_B is significant different from T_{hm} , Equation (17) was used to calculate an interval of confidence of 95 %.

$$T_{hm} = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n (1/T_i)} \quad (17)$$

$$T_B = T_B \pm t_{m-2; 0.025} \sqrt{\text{Var}(T_B)} \quad (18)$$

in which n is the number of adsorption curves, m represents the number of data pairs (ΔH , ΔS) and t is the Student's t -value at 0.025.

2.5. Statistical analysis

The five drying models and five water sorption models were fitted to the drying kinetics and water adsorption experimental data using OriginPro 2022 software (OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, MA). The accuracy of the fittings was evaluated analyzing the coefficient of determination (R_{adj}^2) and reduced chi-square (χ^2) of each regression. A good fit presents R_{adj}^2 close to one and χ^2 close to zero (Vega-Gálvez et al., 2010). Furthermore, Akaike information criteria (AIC) and Bayesian information criteria (BIC) were calculated by Equations (19) and (20) to select the most suitable model to represent the drying and adsorption curves (Akaike, 1974; Schwarz, 1978).

$$AIC = -2 \log \mathcal{L}(\hat{\theta}) + 2p \quad (19)$$

$$BIC = -2 \log \mathcal{L}(\hat{\theta}) + p \ln(n) \quad (20)$$

where, n is the quantity of experimental points, p is the quantity of parameters of the model, and $\mathcal{L}(\hat{\theta})$ is the value of the likelihood function considering the parameters of the obtained model. The AIC considers both the number of model parameters and the R^2_{adj} , but, as the AIC values decreases as the number of data points tend to infinity, thus, it is not a "consistent" information criterion and cannot ensure that the best model will be chosen (Wagenmakers & Farrell, 2004). When compared to the AIC, the BIC is considered to be a more "consistent" information criterion because it pursues a penalty term for the quantity of data points and a penalty term for the parameters (Schwarz, 1978). Better predictability of the models is indicated by the lowest values of AIC and BIC (Wolfinger, 1993).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Chemical composition

The JPS presented in dry basis: total fibers (52.967 ± 0.574 % of insoluble fibers and 1.821 ± 0.066 % of soluble fibers); lipids (22.225 ± 0.393 %); proteins (15.497 ± 1.010 %); ashes (3.677 ± 0.502 %). The high total fiber content (mainly insoluble fiber) demonstrates the great potential of jalapeño pepper seeds to be recovered and incorporated as ingredients in processed foods (Bouaziz et al., 2020; Garcia et al., 2020), such as meat products, which are deficient in dietary fiber. Regarding lipid content, when considering ordinary oilseed crops such as soybeans (18–20 %) and corn (3.1–5.7 %) (O'Brien, 2009), the high lipid content of JPS may turn them economically feasible for industrial extraction thus indicating the JPS potential as source of edible oil. Protein content also appears to be viable for recovery, as peas contain 20–25 % of proteins (Lu et al., 2019); amaranth (*Amaranthum*) contains approximately 14.5 % proteins (López et al., 2018); and quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa*) contains approximately 13 % proteins (Mattila et al., 2018). Some authors have studied the extraction and functional properties of proteins isolated from pepper seeds (*Capsicum annuum* L. var. Annum) of other varieties (Li et al., 2018), showing the potential of pepper seeds as a source of protein, which meets global trends in food science and technology for the use of plant-based proteins as an excellent nutritional source for the human diet (Sá et al., 2020).

The seeds also presented total phenolic compounds (30.911 ± 2.021 mg of gallic acid equivalents/g of seed extract) and flavonoids (17.467 ± 1.605 mg of catechin equivalents/g of seed extract). Sora et al. (2015) studied the antioxidant activity of fruits and seeds of peppers of the genus *Capsicum* and reported that seed extracts exhibited higher antioxidant capacity than extracts of the pulps. This shows the potential of seeds for the extraction and application of antioxidant compounds as natural ingredients in products, aiming to replace synthetic additives as well as promising ingredients for "clean label" products.

3.2. Chemical characterization of jalapeño pepper seed (JPS) oil

Table 1 presents the results of chemical characterization of the oil

Table 1
Chemical characteristics of jalapeño pepper seeds (JPS) oil.

Quality parameter	Values ^a
Iodine index (g I ₂ /100 g of oil)	168.003 ± 1.791
Refractive index (40 °C)	1.469 ± 0.007
Free fat acids (%)	0.452 ± 0.008
Peroxide index (mEq peroxide/kg)	2.304 ± 0.033
Acid index (mg KOH/g oil)	0.597 ± 0.010
Saponification index (mg KOH/g oil)	201.332 ± 2.845
Unsaponifiable matter (%)	0.907 ± 0.039

^a Mean value $\pm$ standard deviation.

extracted from the JPS. Azabou et al. (2017) studying the red pepper seed oil presented similar results. The iodine index is a parameter that measures the unsaturation of the oil. The JPS oil had an iodine index of 168.003 ± 1.791 (g I₂/100 g of oil) that was higher than those found in Arjan seed oil (*Amygdalus reuteri*) which was 100 ± 1.5 (g I₂/100 g of oil) and in *Amygdalus scoparia* seed oil which was 101 ± 1.7 (g I₂/100 g of oil) (Tavakoli et al., 2018), indicating a higher level of unsaturation of fatty acids present in JPS oil. The refractive index is characteristic for each type of oil, being related to the degree of unsaturation, number of double bonds, and conjugations. The JPS oil had a refractive index of 1.469 ± 0.007 which is similar to the refractive indexes of the corn, sunflower, and soybean oils (Jorge et al., 2005). The JPS oil also presented 0.452 ± 0.008 % of free fatty acids. This parameter is an indicator of the hydrolysis of triglycerides in edible oils and the higher this index, the greater the concentration of free fatty acids which promote the oxidation process, reducing their shelf-life (Tavakoli et al., 2018). Furthermore, JPS oil had a peroxide index of 2.304 ± 0.033 (mEq peroxide/kg) that is a sensitive indicator index that measures the initial oxidation state of an oil. Rosa et al. (2021) used the same extraction conditions for papaya seed oil (*Carica papaya* L.) and it presented a higher level of free fatty acids (1.26 ± 0.04 %) and a higher level of peroxides (5.36 ± 0.10 mEq peroxide/kg) when compared to JPS oil. JPS oil also presented an acid value of 0.597 ± 0.010 (mg KOH/g), a saponification index of 201.332 ± 2.845 (mg KOH/g oil), and an unsaponifiable matter of 0.907 ± 0.039 %, similar to those reported for extra virgin olive oil (Tavakoli et al., 2018) emphasizing its high quality. The phenolic and flavonoid compounds present in JPS oil contributes to its high quality because these compounds are important natural antioxidant and have been associated with the oxidative stability of edible oils (Hashemi et al., 2017).

3.3. Drying curves of JPS and kinetics modeling

The chemical composition highlighted above not only reveals promising opportunities for its use, but also demonstrates the easily degradable nature of JPS. The chemical and physical instability due to components susceptible to degradation highlights the need for the drying process as an essential step for their stabilization. Preserving the integrity of JPS is crucial to maximizing their appreciation potential before any attempt is made to convert them into value-added products. Fig. 1a presents the moisture ratio curves as a function of time for JPS, with an initial moisture content equal to 9.721 g/100 g w.b. at the temperatures studied (40 °C, 50 °C, 60 °C, 70 °C, and 80 °C). As expected, the greatest water loss occurred in the initial stages of drying and the moisture content of the samples drastically decreased with increasing drying time. This behavior demonstrates that mass transfer was greater in the initial drying periods. It was noted that after 768 min (12.8 h) of drying, the moisture contents of the samples at 40 °C, 50 °C, 60 °C, 70 °C and 80 °C were equal to 4.743, 3.933, 2.773, 2.280, and 1.843 g/100 g w.b., respectively, showing that drying time is reduced for about 2.5 times when doubling the drying temperature. The plots of the drying rates (DR) at the five studied temperatures as a function of the moisture content of JPS are presented in Fig. 1b. At high moisture contents, the DRs are higher than at medium and low moisture contents. The drying rate decreasing from the beginning to the end of the drying process indicates the absence of a constant rate period or the presence of a constant rate for a brief period in comparison to the whole drying process (Keneni et al., 2019), thus, an indicative of diffusion as the main phenomenon of the process.

Table 2 shows the coefficients and the fitting parameters of the models adjusted to the experimental data of drying. The Weibull and Page models presented the highest R^2_{adj} and χ^2 lowest when compared to the other models, at all the temperatures studied. The AIC and BIC values of the Weibull model were lower than those calculated for Page, thus, the Weibull model was selected to describe the drying curves of

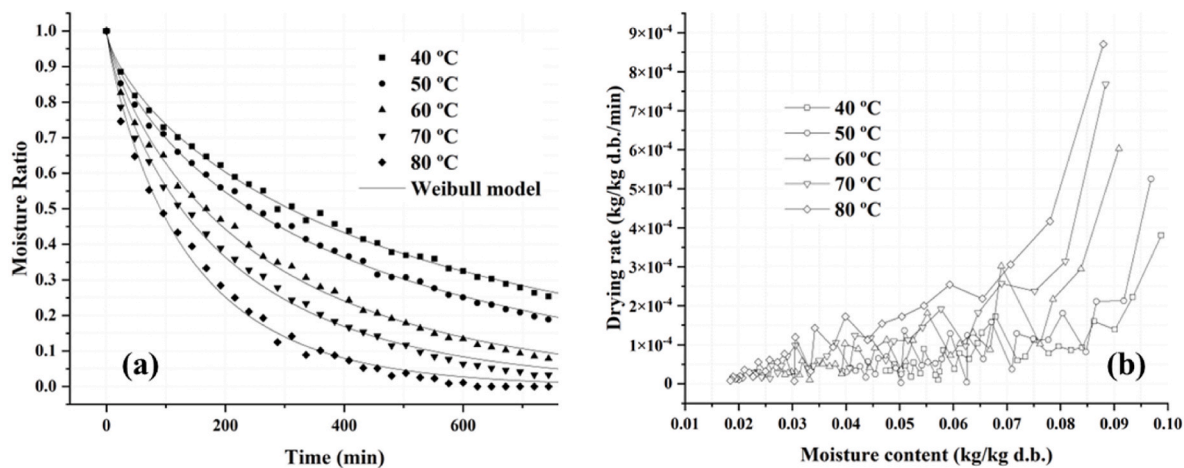


Fig. 1. Comparison between the experimental moisture ratios of Jalapeño pepper seeds and those predicted by the Weibull model at different temperatures.

Table 2
Coefficients and fitting parameters of the models applied to the drying kinetics data of JPS.

Model	Parameters	Temperature (°C)				
		40	50	60	70	80
Newton	$k \cdot 10^3$	2.070	2.550	3.720	4.790	6.920
	R^2_{adj}	0.9451	0.9550	0.9756	0.9782	0.9877
	$\chi^2 \cdot 10^5$	215	207	142	134	78.0899
	AIC	-199.269	-200.540	-212.892	-214.932	-232.733
	BIC	-196.676	-197.947	-210.299	-212.339	-230.140
Page	$k \cdot 10^3$	10.580	11.46	11.4	13.48	13.51
	n	0.730	0.748	0.806	0.815	0.873
	R^2_{adj}	0.9968	0.9971	0.9955	0.9941	0.9929
	$\chi^2 \cdot 10^5$	12.416	13.339	26.228	36.134	45.112
	AIC	-292.037	-289.670	-267.357	-256.800	-249.469
Henderson and Pabis	BIC	-288.375	-286.008	-263.695	-253.138	-245.807
	a	0.898	0.893	0.905	0.903	0.931
	$k \cdot 10^3$	1.770	2.210	3.330	4.300	6.430
	R^2_{adj}	0.9837	0.9871	0.9914	0.9911	0.9925
	$\chi^2 \cdot 10^5$	63.923	59.655	50.501	54.804	48.031
Logarithmic	AIC	-237.959	-240.239	-245.736	-243.038	-247.391
	BIC	-234.297	-236.577	-242.074	-239.376	-243.729
	a	0.766	0.811	0.886	0.899	0.934
	$k \cdot 10^3$	2.700	3.000	3.670	4.410	6.230
	$c \cdot 10^3$	167.980	114.400	32.130	7.790	-8.470
Weibull	R^2_{adj}	0.9908	0.9922	0.9921	0.9909	0.9925
	$\chi^2 \cdot 10^5$	35.992	35.872	46.382	55.971	47.637
	AIC	-255.395	-255.505	-247.025	-240.824	-246.144
	BIC	-250.837	-250.948	-242.468	-236.266	-241.587
	α	510.081	393.376	258.065	197.571	138.547
Weibull	β	0.730	0.749	0.807	0.817	0.875
	R^2_{adj}	0.9968	0.9971	0.9955	0.9941	0.9929
	$\chi^2 \cdot 10^5$	12.415	13.337	26.221	36.116	45.099
	AIC	-292.039	-289.674	-267.366	-256.800	-249.470
	BIC	-288.377	-286.012	-263.704	-253.138	-245.808

JPS. This model was also used to describe the drying kinetics of peanut (Xie et al., 2022), red kidney bean (Doymaz, 2016), and pomegranate seeds (Doymaz, 2012). The scale (α) and shape (β) parameters of the Weibull model were both influenced by the temperature (Table 4). The α is the time required to complete approximately 63 % of the process (Corzo et al., 2008) and it reduced from 510.081 min at 40 °C to 138.547 min at 80 °C evidencing that loss of moisture at the beginning of the drying process is faster when increasing temperature. In contrast, β increased from 0.730 at 40 °C to 0.875 at 80 °C though being little affected by temperature. Corzo et al. (2008) reported that different values of β resulted in very different curves and could therefore describe several mechanisms such as convection, diffusion, and relaxation. Moreover, all the drying process happened under falling rate phase,

which may have affected the values of the shape parameter.

3.3.1. Moisture diffusivity and activation energy

The solution of the second Fick's law for flat slab ($l = 4$ mm) with twelve terms was used to estimate the effective moisture coefficients (D_{eff}) through non-linear regression. In Table 3 are presented the D_{eff} and R^2_{adj} at each studied temperature. The model showed good accuracy to the experimental data ($R^2_{adj} > 0.995$) at all temperatures and D_{eff} rose directly with temperature from $1.648 \cdot 10^{-10}$ to $6.103 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m²/s, which is typical of foodstuff (Kamal et al., 2020; Perea-Flores et al., 2012; D. Zhang et al., 2023). The influence of temperature on D_{eff} can be related to the quick migration of water molecules to the JPS surface due to the elevation of its internal vapor pressure which also increases

Table 3
Calculated effective diffusion coefficient and adjusted coefficient of determination of the linear regression at different temperatures of drying.

Temperature (°C)	D _{eff} (m ² /s)	R ² _{adj}
40	1.648 •10 ⁻¹⁰	0.9971
50	2.108 •10 ⁻¹⁰	0.9985
60	3.201 •10 ⁻¹⁰	0.9977
70	4.173 •10 ⁻¹⁰	0.9981
80	6.103 •10 ⁻¹⁰	0.9950

Table 4
Coefficients and fitting parameters of the models applied to the adsorption data of JPS.

Model		Temperature (°C)								
		8	16	24	32	40	48	56	64	72
GAB	X _m	0.083	0.078	0.058	0.055	0.050	0.049	0.046	0.045	0.039
	C	7.439	7.483	8.842	8.937	9.010	8.799	8.309	9.678	7.129
	k	0.680	0.640	0.725	0.711	0.719	0.707	0.706	0.7688	0.6856
	R ² _{adj}	0.9981	0.9974	0.9971	0.9973	0.9883	0.9920	0.9982	0.9928	0.9947
	χ ² • 10 ⁵	0.770	0.660	0.595	0.428	1.447	0.839	0.161	0.161	0.567
	AIC	-118.348	-120.050	-121.189	-135.390	-111.415	-117.410	-135.560	-127.391	-126.350
	BIC	-123.423	-125.125	-126.264	-140.465	-116.490	-122.485	-140.635	-132.467	-131.425
Peleg	k ₁	0.144	0.140	0.102	0.117	0.113	0.093	0.084	0.074	0.029
	n ₁	0.642	0.689	0.589	0.697	0.734	0.642	0.631	0.593	0.338
	k ₂	0.093	0.058	0.085	0.062	1.715	0.056	0.050	0.062	0.080
	n ₂	3.678	4.390	3.463	5.402	21.412	4.091	3.277	3.387	1.349
	R ² _{adj}	0.9985	0.9976	0.9973	0.9991	0.9901	0.9912	0.9989	0.9956	0.9973
	χ ² • 10 ⁵	0.610	0.625	0.550	0.151	1.228	0.922	0.103	0.350	0.191
	AIC	-115.046	-114.781	-116.183	-130.445	-111.415	-117.410	-135.560	-127.391	-126.350
Oswin	BIC	-125.057	-124.792	-126.194	-140.456	-116.490	-122.485	-140.635	-132.467	-131.425
	M	0.095	0.083	0.073	0.069	0.062	0.060	0.056	0.053	0.051
	N	0.349	0.364	0.401	0.404	0.416	0.420	0.431	0.444	0.451
	R ² _{adj}	0.9665	0.9747	0.9876	0.9881	0.9851	0.9874	0.9935	0.9947	0.9894
	χ ² • 10 ⁵	13.293	6.499	2.509	1.897	1.842	1.330	0.586	0.418	0.750
	AIC	-90.961	-98.833	-109.303	-112.380	-112.704	-116.283	-125.303	-129.024	-122.581
	BIC	-93.196	-101.068	-111.538	-114.615	-114.939	-118.518	-127.538	-131.259	-124.816
Halsey	H ₁ • 10 ³	2.930	3.330	4.860	5.08	5.500	5.780	6.280	7.040	7.270
	H ₂	2.278	2.097	1.852	1.791	1.700	1.660	1.597	1.531	1.499
	R ² _{adj}	0.9174	0.9319	0.9583	0.9570	0.9610	0.9624	0.9690	0.9756	0.9634
	χ ² • 10 ⁵	32.735	17.519	8.416	6.844	4.825	3.958	2.790	1.919	2.581
	AIC	-81.048	-87.925	-95.989	-98.264	-102.109	-104.289	-108.134	-112.248	-108.990
	BIC	-83.283	-90.160	-98.224	-100.499	-104.344	-106.524	-110.369	-114.483	-111.225
	H ₁	2.930	3.330	4.860	5.080	72.633	81.030	84.175	84.184	86.547
Henderson	H ₂	0.003	0.003	0.005	0.005	1.710	1.723	1.698	1.666	1.649
	R ² _{adj}	0.9978	0.9976	0.9968	0.9991	0.9898	0.9932	0.9993	0.9959	0.9967
	χ ² • 10 ⁵	0.982	0.689	0.711	0.159	1.266	0.715	0.067	0.322	0.235
	AIC	-119.621	-123.522	-123.165	-139.654	-116.824	-123.111	-149.087	-131.899	-135.363
	BIC	-121.856	-125.757	-125.400	-141.889	-119.059	-125.346	-151.322	-134.134	-137.598

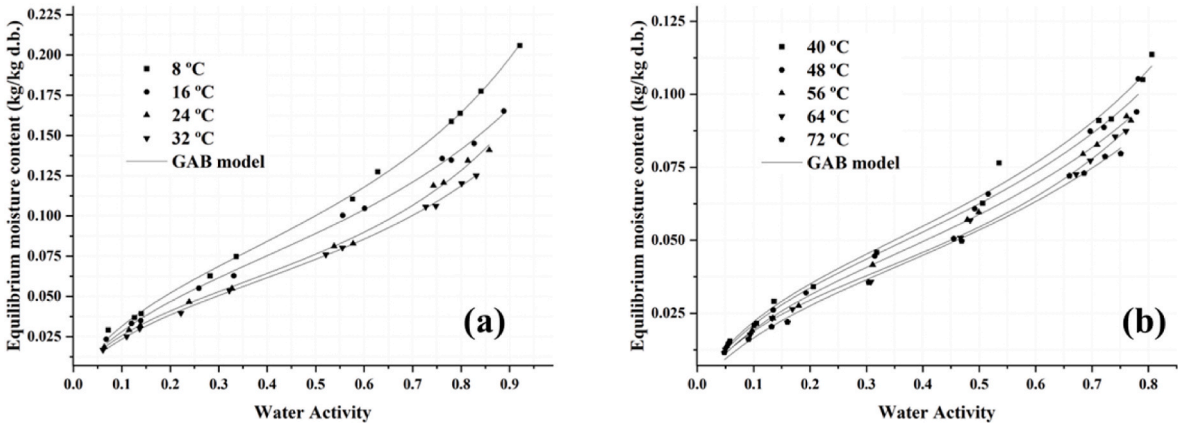


Fig. 2. Comparison between the experimental equilibrium moisture contents of Jalapeño pepper seeds and those predicted by the GAB model at storage (a) and drying (b) temperatures.

3.4. Water adsorption isotherms of JPS and modeling

As shown previously, the drying curves reinforce the importance of stabilizing the JPS before proceeding with any other recovery step. Therefore, the evaluation of sorption isotherms offers a better understanding of the moisture adsorption behavior of JPS under different temperature conditions, being important data for the correct design of the drying and storage process. Fig. 2 presents the variation of EMC as a function of the water activity of JPS at different storage (8 °C, 16 °C, 24 °C and 32 °C) and drying (40 °C, 48 °C, 56 °C 64 °C and 72 °C) temperatures. The EMC of JPS ranged from 0.0115 to 0.2058 kg/kg d.b. and the a_w varied from 0.048 to 0.921. These values were lower than the values found for papaya seeds (0.179–0.969 kg/kg d.b.) in a temperature range of 20–80 °C (Rosa et al., 2021). This fact may be related to the capsaicin present in JPS once that the sorption capacity of the food matrix is dependent on its structure and chemical composition (Arslan-Tontul, 2020). JPS have a high amount of capsaicin that are molecules whose chemical structure has a slightly polar character (Castro-Muñoz et al., 2022; Rezazadeh et al., 2022) that may probably make the water adsorption of JPS more difficult when compared to papaya seeds.

When analyzing the isotherms at constant temperature, it is noted that there was an increase in the EMC of the JPS due to the increase in water activity. In contrast, at the same water activity, increasing temperature reduced the EMC of JPS, showing that JPS became less hygroscopic with increasing sorption temperature, at constant a_w . The increase in temperature probably increased the kinetic energy and the water molecules excitation state which caused a reduction in the binding forces between the water molecules and the sorption sites, resulting in a loss of the EMC of the JPS to the environment (Al-Muhtaseb et al., 2002). Moreover, the impact of temperature on JPS adsorption isotherms is more pronounced at temperatures that simulate storage conditions (8, 16, 24, and 32 °C) when compared to drying conditions (48, 48, 56, 64, and 72 °C).

According to the classification by Brunauer et al. (1940), the adsorption isotherms of JPS (Fig. 2) can be classified as type II, due to its S or sigmoid shape. This sorption behavior has also been found in papaya (Rosa et al., 2021), chia (Arslan-Tontul, 2020), and melon (Mallek-Ayadi et al., 2020) seeds. Rosa et al. (2021) and Polachini et al. (2016) reported three regions in type II isotherms: the first region is associated with the monolayer moisture content (X_m) under conditions of $a_w \leq 0.3$ in which water molecules are strongly bounded to the food matrix, justifying the low moisture sorption in this region when compared to regions with higher a_w values; the second region is characterized by multilayer water, which shows an almost linear behavior and is at an a_w between 0.3 and 0.6; and the third region under conditions of $a_w \geq 0.6$ where the water molecules are weakly bounded to the JPS matrix and available for microbiological and chemical reactions.

The estimated coefficients and fitting parameters obtained from the adjustment of the mathematical models to the adsorption experimental data at storage and drying temperatures are shown in Table 4. The Halsey model showed the lowest R_{adj}^2 and the highest χ^2 , AIC, and BIC values, followed by the Oswin model. Hence, GAB, Peleg, and Henderson models showed a better fit. Comparing the BIC values of the GAB, Peleg, and Henderson models, it was observed that the Henderson model presented the lowest BIC values at six temperatures. The GAB model is the second-best model to represent the adsorption isotherms because it shows BIC values slightly higher than the Henderson model but lower than the other ones at six temperatures. Due to the physical meaning of the coefficients of the GAB model (X_m , C, and K), versatility when applied to food sorption, and mathematical simplicity when compared to Henderson model, the GAB model was chosen to describe the WAI of JPS as well as for thermodynamic properties estimations. The monolayer moisture content (X_m) is the quantity of water strongly adsorbed by active sites on the food surface and is recognized as a crucial factor in

guaranteeing food stability (Kurozawa et al., 2015). The X_m decreased from 0.083 kg/kg d.b. at 8 °C to 0.039 kg/kg d.b. at 80 °C, and it can be associated with temperature rising. The water molecules become more activated with temperature increase causing an increase in the energy levels, destabilizing them that escape from the water binding sites of the JPS, resulting in a reduced monolayer moisture content (Zhang et al., 2022). These values, combined with the JPS drying curves, can be used to optimize the process, avoiding excessive energy expenditure without achieving adequate levels of moisture reduction.

3.4.1. Thermodynamic properties of JPS adsorption

Fig. 3a shows the net isosteric heat of adsorption (q_{st}) plotted as a function of an interval of EMC from 0.07 to 0.13 kg/kg d.b. It is noted that q_{st} exponentially increased from 4105 to 9588 J/mol with decreasing EMC suggesting that the energy required to bind water molecules to sorption sites was higher than the energy required to retain water molecules together in the liquid phase (Choudhury et al., 2011). It is worth noting that the moisture content at which the highest enthalpy and entropy values were achieved are very close to the monolayer moisture values estimated by the GAB model. This is due to the existence of highly active polar sites that bind water, incorporating water into the food matrix monolayer (Al-Mahasneh et al., 2012). Raw pinhão (Cladera-Olivera et al., 2008), whole chia (Arslan-Tontul, 2020), and papaya (Rosa et al., 2021) seeds presented similar results. The Riedel model showed a good fit to the calculated data ($R_{ij}^2 = 0.9996$) and coefficients C_r and B_r equal to 22812.216 J/mol and 12.399, respectively (Fig. 3a). Differential entropy is proportional to the quantity of possible sorption sites at a given level of energy as well as the spatial configuration of the water and food matrix (Silva et al., 2021). The differential entropy (ΔS) reduced practically linearly from 24.990 to 13.352 kJ/mol/K with rising EMC (Fig. 3b), because as the sorption sites become occupied, there is a loss of rotational movement of water molecules, resulting in a drop in entropy and a rise in moisture content, hence, a system disorder (Kurozawa et al., 2015). The influence of EMC on ΔS can be described by a first-order polynomial in which the slope and the intercept are equal to −194.521 and 38.128, respectively.

A strong linear correlation was observed when plotting q_{st} against ΔS , indicating the existence of an enthalpy-entropy mechanism of compensation. Linear regression using Equation (15) were performed and provided a $R_{adj}^2 = 0.9993$. The intercept of the line is equal to the Gibbs free energy, $\Delta G = -1189.20$ J/mol at the isokinetic temperature, this being equal to the slope, $T_B = 428.19$ K. The interval of confidence of 95 % for T_B proposed by (Krug et al., 1976a; Krug et al., 1976b) and the harmonic mean temperature were estimated at 11.35 and $T_{hm} = 311.78$ K, respectively. The negative sign of ΔG pointed out that the adsorption phenomenon was spontaneous. The T_B was higher than T_{hm} characterizing the adsorption process as enthalpy-driven (Spada et al., 2013). In addition, T_B is out of the interval of confidence, corroborating the existence of a compensation enthalpy-entropy mechanism.

4. Conclusion

The JPS are a source of insoluble fibers, lipids, proteins, antioxidant agents, and phenolic compounds, highlighting their potential as raw material for the development of value-added products. The JPS oil presented high levels of unsaturation of fatty acids and quality parameters comparable to olive oil. The drying experiments were conducted in the falling-rate period; thus, diffusion was the major mechanism of moisture transfer. The moisture loss of JPS can be best predicted by the Weibull model due to its great fit to the drying kinetics data. The effective diffusivity coefficient increased from $1.648 \cdot 10^{-10}$ to $6.103 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m²/s with the drying temperature and hence the drying time decreased. The activation energy for moisture diffusion was equal to 30.302 kJ/mol. The adsorption isotherms of JPS presented a sigmoid shape and, thus, classified as BET Type II. The GAB and Henderson

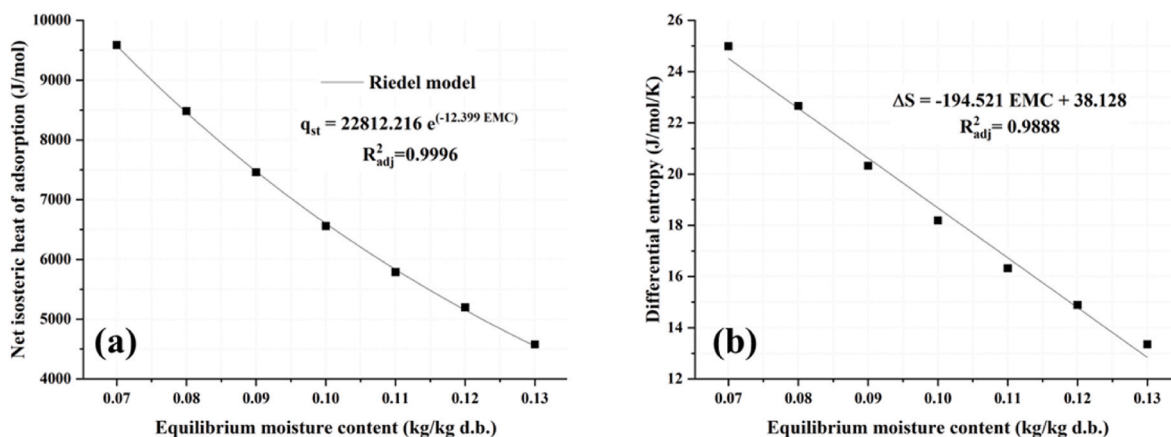


Fig. 3. Net isosteric heat of adsorption (a) and differential entropy (b) as function of equilibrium moisture content.

models are appropriate for describing the adsorption process. The net isosteric heat of adsorption exponentially increased from 3699.98 to 8482.77 kJ/mol with decreasing EMC. Similar behavior was observed in the ΔS which decreased almost linearly from 24.990 to 13.352 kJ/mol/K with rising EMC. The enthalpy-entropy compensation mechanism was validated and the provided information allowed us to characterize the adsorption as enthalpy-driven and spontaneous. All this data collected can contribute to extending the shelf life of jalapeño pepper seeds, targeting future industrial applications and contributing to sustainability and efficiency in the food and bioproducts industry.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

André Luiz Borges-Machado: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Marcio Augusto Ribeiro-Sanches:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Formal analysis. **Maria Júlia Neves Martins:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Formal analysis. **Mario Luna-Flores:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Resources, Methodology, Investigation. **Guadalupe Luna-Solano:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Resources, Methodology, Investigation. **Silvio José Ferreira de Souza:** Writing – review &

editing, Resources, Methodology, Investigation. **Javier Telis-Romero:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

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

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior - Brasil (CAPES) - Finance Code 001 and the Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq) - Award Number: 314459/2021-9.

NOMENCLATURE

JPS	Jalapeño pepper seed
MR	Moisture ratio
MC	Moisture content
DR	Drying rate
a, c, n	Drying models coefficients
k	drying constant
α	scale parameter
β	shape parameter
t	drying time
D_{eff}	Effective diffusion coefficient
E_a	activation energy
LiBr	Lithium bromide
LiCl	Lithium chloride
$MgCl_2$	Magnesium chloride
NaI	Sodium iodide
K_2CO_3	Potassium carbonate
$Mg(NO_3)_2$	Magnesium nitrate
NaBr	Sodium bromide
KI	Potassium iodide
NaCl	Sodium chloride
$(NH_4)_2SO_4$	Ammonium sulfate

KCl	Potassium chloride
KNO ₃	Potassium nitrate
K ₂ SO ₄	Potassium sulfate
AIC	Akaike information criterion
a _w	Water activity
BIC	Bayesian information criterion
C	Constant of GAB model
GAB	Guggenheim-Anderson-de Boer
h ₁ and h ₂	Constants of Halsey model
H ₁ and H ₂	Constants of Henderson model
k	Constant of GAB model
k ₁ and k ₂	Constants of Peleg model
m	Number of (ΔH, ΔS) data pairs
M and N	Constants of Oswin model
n	Number of isotherms
n ₁ and n ₂	Constants of Peleg model
C _r	Isosteric heat of sorption at the first water molecule
B _r	Constant of Riedel's model
Q _{st}	Integral heat of sorption
q _{st}	Net isosteric heat of sorption
R	Universal gas constant (8.314 J/mol•K)
R _{adj} ²	Adjusted coefficient of determination
RMSE	Root mean square error
RH	Relative humidity
T	Temperature
T _B	Isokinetic temperature
T _{hm}	Harmonic mean temperature
EMC	Equilibrium moisture content
X _m	Monolayer moisture content
λ	Heat vaporization of pure water
ΔG _B	Free Gibbs energy at isokinetic temperature
$\overline{\Delta H}$	Average enthalpy
ΔH	Differential enthalpy of sorption
$\overline{\Delta S}$	Average entropy
ΔS	Differential entropy of sorption
χ ²	Reduced chi-square

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2024.116452>.

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