

1 **Pulsed electric field and mild thermal processing affect the**
2 **cooking behaviour of carrot tissues (*Daucus carota*) and the**
3 **degree of methylesterification of carrot pectin**

4 **Authors:** Lucie G. Moens^{1*}, Elien De Laet¹, Joséphine Van Wambeke¹, Ann Van Loey¹, Marc E.G.
5 Hendrickx^{1**}

6 **Author's affiliations:**

7 ¹Laboratory of Food Technology, Leuven Food Science and Nutrition Research Centre (LFoRCe),
8 Department of Microbial and Molecular Systems (M²S), KU Leuven, Kasteelpark Arenberg 22 postbox
9 2457, 3001 Leuven, Belgium

10 **Author's email addresses:**

11 Lucie G. Moens: lucie.moens@kuleuven.be

12 Elien De Laet: elien.delaet@kuleuven.be

13 Joséphine Van Wambeke: josephine.v.wambeke@gmail.com

14 Ann M. Van Loey: ann.vanloey@kuleuven.be

15 Marc E.G. Hendrickx: marceg.hendrickx@kuleuven.be

16 * author to whom correspondence should be addressed during submission process:

17 Lucie G. Moens

18 Email: lucie.moens@kuleuven.be

19 Telephone: +32 16 37 30 41

20 ** author to whom correspondence should be addressed after publication:

21 Marc E.G. Hendrickx

22 Email: marceg.hendrickx@kuleuven.be

23 Telephone: +32 16 32 15 72

24

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27 **Abstract**

28 For the first time, the effect of pulsed electric field (PEF) and mild thermal processing on the texture of
29 cortex and vascular carrot tissue during subsequent thermal processing (i.e. cooking behaviour) was
30 compared and the degree of methylesterification (DM) of pectin from the pretreated tissues was
31 investigated. The PEF and mild thermal pretreatment slowed down the cooking behaviour of the carrot
32 tissues, especially when the pretreatments were combined. The DM of pectin from vascular tissue was
33 lowered after both types of pretreatments, the effect being most pronounced in the case of the
34 combination of the PEF and mild thermal pretreatment. In contrast, the DM of cortex pectin only
35 decreased after the mild thermal pretreatment and after the combination pretreatment. This study
36 demonstrates that besides mild thermal pretreatments also PEF pretreatments can be considered in the
37 context of texture preservation of thermally processed fruits and vegetables.

38

39 **Keywords:** pulsed electric fields, thermal processing, texture, pectin, carrot

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Pulsed electric field (PEF) is an emerging non-thermal technology used in food technology. PEF is able
43 to improve diffusion processes in plant tissues, with effects on drying and extraction unit operations
44 (Vorobiev & Lebovka, 2008). It can also be used to inactivate microorganisms in liquid food products
45 (Pagan & Manas, 2006) without the detrimental effects of high temperatures on food quality attributes,
46 such as sensorial and nutritional value (Janositz & Knorr, 2010). During the treatment, pulses of high
47 voltage are applied for very short time periods (ms- μ s) to biological cell material placed between two
48 electrodes in a batch or continuous treatment chamber, filled with a conductive medium. The application
49 of an external electric field results in an increased transmembrane potential of the cell membranes
50 (plasma membrane and tonoplast), structural changes, and the reversible or irreversible formation of
51 pores in the membranes. This phenomenon is called cell electroporation. The cell membrane
52 permeabilisation is irreversible when the electric field is exceeding a critical electric field strength
53 (Botero-Uribe et al., 2017; Pagan & Manas, 2006; Puértolas et al., 2012; Toepfl et al., 2006). The
54 mechanism of cell electroporation is still under discussion. Although several theories exist, the
55 electromechanical instability theory is the most accepted one (Kanduser & Miklavcic, 2009; Pagan &
56 Manas, 2006; Toepfl et al., 2006). The efficiency of the PEF treatment depends on process parameters
57 (electric field strength, treatment time, specific energy, pulse width and shape, frequency and
58 temperature) as well as product (cell size and shape, orientation in the electric field, conductivity) and
59 medium characteristics (conductivity, composition, pH) (Ben Ammar et al., 2011; Kanduser &
60 Miklavcic, 2009; Puértolas et al., 2012; Vorobiev & Lebovka, 2008). The ranges of electric fields used

61 typically vary between 0.7-3 kV/cm for permeabilisation of plant cells and 10-15 kV/cm for inactivation
62 of the smaller microbial cells (Toepfl et al., 2006). Although this technology is already in use, both for
63 tissue and liquid treatments, its ability to disrupt the cell membrane may also be interesting for texture
64 engineering purposes of food products consisting of fruit and vegetable tissue.

65 Texture is an important quality attribute of fruits and vegetables and is mainly determined by the turgor
66 pressure in the cell, the strength of the cell wall and forces holding the cells together (Fincan & Dejmek,
67 2003; Gonzalez & Barrett, 2010; Jackman & Stanley, 1995; Sila et al., 2004). The main polysaccharides
68 of the cell wall are pectin, hemicellulose and cellulose. While cellulose fibrils provide rigidity to the
69 cell wall, hemicellulose and pectin provide plasticity (Christiaens et al., 2016). The middle lamella, the
70 glue between adjacent cell walls, mainly consists of pectin. Therefore, the structure of this
71 polysaccharide and its modifications during processing are important texture determining factors.
72 Homogalacturonan (HG) is an important pectin building block and consists of galacturonic acid (GalA)
73 residues that can be methylesterified and acetylated, depending on the plant source. HG can be
74 demethylesterified enzymatically by plant pectinmethylesterase (PME), resulting in blocks of
75 demethylesterified GalA residues, and by microbial PME, resulting in randomly distributed
76 demethylesterified GalA residues. The degree (DM) and pattern of HG methylesterification are
77 important characteristics determining the functionality of the polysaccharide. Blocks of negatively
78 charged demethylesterified GalA residues can bind divalent cations such as Ca^{2+} and form intra- and
79 intermolecular pectin crosslinks, referred to as the egg-box model. This results in improved cell
80 adhesion and a firmer texture (Christiaens et al., 2016; Mohnen, 2008; Ridley et al., 2001; Willats et
81 al., 2006). Thermal processing at temperatures higher than 80 °C induces the chemical depolymerisation
82 of HG by beta-elimination, resulting in a softer texture of the plant tissue. The demethylesterification
83 and ionic crosslinking of HG slows down this depolymerisation reaction, resulting in a slower texture
84 degradation during thermal processing (i.e. cooking behaviour) (Christiaens et al., 2016). It is already
85 known that a mild thermal pretreatment at 60 °C alters the cooking behaviour of carrots, especially in
86 Ca^{2+} rich media (Lemmens et al., 2009; Sila et al., 2005; Smout et al., 2005). This temperature is optimal
87 for PME activity and causes cell membrane disruption, facilitating enzymatic pectin
88 demethylesterification and the formation of ionic crosslinks, and resulting in a slower texture
89 degradation during subsequent thermal processing (Gonzalez & Barrett, 2010; Sila et al., 2004; Sila et
90 al., 2005).

91 The effect of PEF on the texture of fresh plant tissues has already been studied. The electroporation of
92 the cell membrane by an external electric field facilitates the mass transport of intracellular compounds,
93 lowers the turgor pressure, softens the texture, and reduces the cutting force (Boussetta et al., 2013;
94 Fincan & Dejmek, 2003; Leong et al., 2014). As for now, no clear effects of PEF on the cell wall
95 structure in fresh plant tissues have been reported (Ben Ammar et al., 2011; El-Belghiti & Vorobiev,
96 2005; Fincan & Dejmek, 2002; Janositz & Knorr, 2010; Jemai & Vorobiev, 2002) and studies on the

97 structural changes of pectin after application of PEF are lacking. However, since PEF induces cell
98 membrane permeabilisation, we hypothesised that this technology may also affect the cooking
99 behaviour of plant tissues. The PEF treatment may facilitate the transport of intracellular compounds
100 such as ions to the cell wall, the site of PME action. Moreover, the activity of PME, that is ionically
101 bound to pectin, increases with cation concentration as cations compete with PME to bind the negatively
102 charged demethylesterified carboxyl groups of pectin, releasing PME and allowing the enzyme to bind
103 and demethylesterify additional GalA residues (Alonso et al., 2003; Christiaens et al., 2016; Nari et al.,
104 1991). Consequently, the PEF treatment may facilitate PME activity, resulting in a lower DM, an
105 increase of ionic pectin crosslinking and thus a slower cooking behaviour during subsequent thermal
106 processing. The different tissues found in plant organs may have a different susceptibility to cell
107 electroporation by PEF (Faridnia et al., 2015) and a different ionic composition. Therefore, it is
108 interesting to know how these different tissues react at the combination of PEF and thermal processing.
109 Studies considering the effect of PEF on the texture after thermal processing are scarce. In a study of
110 Leong, Du, & Oey (2018) carrot cortex that underwent a mild thermal pretreatment at 60 °C and a PEF
111 pretreatment prior to a 5 minutes blanching step at 100 °C had a similar texture. This suggests that not
112 only mild thermal processing but also PEF may have an effect on the cooking behaviour of plant tissues.

113 Unlike previous studies on the effect of PEF on texture, this paper focuses on the effect of PEF on
114 texture after thermal processing and on the pectin structure as texture determining factor. Therefore,
115 this paper compares the effect of PEF and mild thermal processing on the cooking behaviour of carrot
116 tissues and investigates the link with pectin structural changes, in particular its degree of
117 methylesterification (DM). Since carrots contain relatively high amounts of pectin and show relatively
118 high PME activity (Alonso et al., 2003; Houben et al., 2011), this matrix represents a good choice to
119 study the effect of the different processing techniques on the relationship between textural changes and
120 changes in the DM of pectin. A distinction was made between the two main types of carrot tissue: outer
121 cortex and inner vascular tissue. Firstly, the parameters of the PEF treatment leading to effective cell
122 electroporation of cells in both tissues were selected. Secondly, the cooking behaviour of the carrot
123 tissues submitted to a PEF pretreatment, a mild thermal pretreatment and a combination of PEF and
124 mild thermal pretreatment was determined and compared. The DM of pectin from the raw pretreated
125 tissues was measured and linked to the cooking behaviour.

126

127 **2. Materials and methods**

128 **2.1 Plant materials**

129 Carrots (*Daucus carota*) of the variety Nerac were purchased from a local shop in Belgium and stored
130 in a plastic bag at 4 °C for maximum one week before use (De Roeck et al., 2010). Different batches of

131 the same variety with similar texture (data not shown) were used. Carrots with cracks or bruises were
132 excluded from the study.

133

134 2.2 Selection of pulsed electric field treatment parameters

135 2.2.1 Carrot sample preparation

136 The carrots were manually peeled and approximately 2-3 cm of both the crown and root end parts of
137 the carrots were discarded to produce a carrot sample with 17 cm length. The carrots were washed in
138 tap water and blotted dry with tissue paper (Leong et al., 2014).

139

140 2.2.2 Pulsed electric field equipment and treatment parameters

141 A batch pulsed electric field unit Cellcrack III of Elea-DIL (German Institute for Food Technologies,
142 Quackenbrück, Germany) was used for the PEF treatments. The PEF unit was equipped with a treatment
143 chamber consisting of two parallel stainless steel electrodes (24 x 22.5 x 0.5 cm, w x h x t) with an
144 interelectrode distance of 29.7 cm. The insulator material had a thickness of 2 cm and the total volume
145 of the treatment chamber was 12 l. Five carrots were positioned in the treatment chamber so that the
146 carrot longitudinal axis (fibre direction) was perpendicular to the electrodes, ensuring a uniform
147 distribution of the electric field through the five carrots (Leong et al., 2014). Standardised water (0.6156
148 g NaCl/l and 0.0923 g CaCl₂.H₂O/l) (Willemsen et al., 2017) with 1400 µS/cm conductivity at 25 °C
149 (Ben Ammar et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2017) was added as treatment medium until the carrots were
150 completely immersed. The total weight of the carrots and medium was 3.5 kg, with the weight ratio of
151 carrot and medium being approximately 3:7.

152 The carrots were submitted to 0-60 exponential monopolar pulses with a pulse amplitude of 30 kV,
153 resulting in an electric field strength of 1.01 kV/cm, which is the applied voltage divided by the
154 interelectrode distance. The energy input per pulse of 450 J/pulse was defined as the energy provided
155 by the capacitor with 1 µF capacitance and 30 kV voltage, and the specific energy input per pulse of
156 129 J/kg·pulse was calculated as the energy input per pulse divided by the total mass in the treatment
157 chamber, being 3.5 kg. Therefore, the total specific energy input was calculated as the specific energy
158 input per pulse multiplied by the amount of pulses. The frequency of the pulses was 2 Hz, the pulse
159 width was 145 ± 9 µs (TBS 1102B-EDU digital oscilloscope, Tektronix, Köln, Germany) and the
160 treatment temperature was approximately 20 °C. Within five minutes after the treatment, the carrots
161 were vacuum packed and placed in a fridge at 4 °C, where they were stored for maximum 6 h before
162 use.

163

164 2.2.3 *Carrot cylinder preparation*

165 Carrot cylinders (1 cm diameter, 1 cm height) were excised from the cortex and vascular tissue of
166 untreated and PEF treated carrots, parallel with the fibre direction, using a stainless steel bore. For each
167 total specific energy input tested, 24 cylinders were excised from the five carrots that were submitted
168 to the same treatment. Three times eight carrot cylinders were encapsulated in stainless steel tubes (110
169 mm length, 13 mm internal diameter, and 1 mm thickness), that were filled with demineralised water
170 (De Roeck et al., 2010) and equilibrated to 20 °C for 20 min.

171

172 2.2.4 *Texture measurement*

173 The texture measurements of the carrot cylinders were performed using the TA.XT2i Texture Analyzer
174 (Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, United Kingdom) with a 25 kg load cell and heavy duty platform.
175 The texture of the carrot cylinders was measured by means of a compression test, using an aluminum
176 cylindrical probe with 25 mm diameter (P25, Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, United Kingdom) and
177 test speed 1 mm/s. The force as a function of compression time was monitored by Texture expert exceed
178 software (version 2.64, Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, United Kingdom). The hardness was defined
179 as the peak force required to compress one cylinder to a 30% strain level (De Roeck et al., 2010).

180

181 2.3 *Cooking behaviour of carrot tissues after pulsed electric field and mild thermal pretreatment*

182 The cooking behaviour of carrot cortex and vascular tissue was evaluated after four types of
183 pretreatment: no pretreatment (untreated), PEF pretreatment causing cell permeabilisation (PEF) (Pagan
184 & Manas, 2006), mild thermal pretreatment at the optimal temperature (60 °C) for PME activity (T60)
185 (Smout et al., 2005) and a combined PEF and mild thermal pretreatment (PEF-T60).

186

187 2.3.1 *Pulsed electric field treatment*

188 The carrots were prepared as indicated in 2.2.1, and submitted to 20 exponential monopolar pulses (total
189 specific energy input of 2.571 kJ/kg) with the same characteristics as described in 2.2.2. Within five
190 minutes after the treatment, the carrots were vacuum packed and placed in a fridge at 4 °C, where they
191 were stored for maximum 16 h before use.

192

193

194

195 2.3.2 *Thermal treatments*

196 2.3.2.1 *Carrot sample preparation*

197 Carrot cylinders (1 cm diameter, 1 cm height) were excised from the cortex and vascular tissue of
198 untreated and PEF treated carrots and encapsulated in stainless steel tubes (110 mm length, 13 mm
199 internal diameter, and 1 mm thickness) filled with demineralised water, as explained in 2.2.3 (De Roeck
200 et al., 2010).

201

202 2.3.2.2 *Thermal treatments*

203 The carrot cylinders, encapsulated in stainless steel tubes, were thermally pretreated in a temperature-
204 controlled water bath at 60 °C for 20 min (including 3 min come up time) to promote PME activity
205 (Smout et al., 2005).

206 Both the thermally pretreated and non-thermally pretreated carrot cylinders, encapsulated in stainless
207 steel tubes, were transferred to a temperature-controlled water bath at 95 °C. The carrot cylinders were
208 heated for 0-420 min holding time at 95 °C and at each holding time, three tubes containing eight carrot
209 cylinders were withdrawn. The sample with holding time 0 min was withdrawn after a come up time of
210 5 min (De Roeck et al., 2010). After the treatment, the cylinders were immediately cooled for 5 min in
211 an ice bath and conditioned in a water bath at 20 °C for 20 min before texture measurement.

212

213 2.3.2.3 *Texture measurement*

214 The texture measurements were performed as indicated in 2.2.4. The relative hardness was calculated
215 as the ratio of the absolute hardness at a certain holding time and the absolute hardness of the raw
216 untreated carrot tissue.

217

218 2.4 Degree of methylesterification of pectin

219 The degree of methylesterification (DM) of carrot pectin was determined analyzing thin sections of raw
220 pretreated carrot tissue using Fourier-transformation infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy (Shimadzu FTIR-
221 8400S, Japan). The sections with thickness 50 µm (approximately 7 x 7 mm) were cut transversally
222 from raw pretreated carrot cortex and vascular tissue using a cryomicrotome (Reichert, Austria) and
223 were stored in 70% ethanol at 4 °C until analysis. Each type of pretreatment was performed on five
224 different carrots and repeated twice. Hence, sections were cut from raw pretreated tissues derived from
225 ten different carrots. Before analysis, the sections were washed, firstly in phosphate buffered saline
226 solution (PBS) at pH 7.4 containing 40 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 8.0 mM Na₂HPO₄ and 1.5 mM KH₂PO₄

227 (Christiaens et al., 2011), and secondly in demineralised water. The sections were dried on a parafilm
228 after applying a drop of 70% ethanol and were analysed by the method of Kyomugasho, Christiaens,
229 Shpigelman, Van Loey, & Hendrickx (2015). The ratio of the absorbance at 1740 cm^{-1} ($-\text{COOCH}_3$) and
230 the sum of the absorbances at 1600 cm^{-1} ($-\text{COO}^-$) and 1740 cm^{-1} ($-\text{COOCH}_3$) was determined. The DM
231 was calculated using the calibration curve of Kyomugasho et al. (2015) linking this ratio to the DM.

232

233 2.5 Characterisation of carrot tissues

234 Differences in cell size, conductivity, calcium content, dry matter content and PME activity of cortex
235 and vascular tissue were investigated in the attempt to explain differences in texture and the DM of
236 pectin after processing. Therefore, cortex and vascular tissue were excised from 13 fresh untreated
237 carrots, cut in cubes, frozen and stored at $-40\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ until analysis.

238

239 2.5.1 Determination of cell size in cortex and vascular tissue

240 The cryosections of cortex and vascular tissue excised from ten raw untreated carrots (2.4) were
241 visualised under the microscope (Olympus BX-41, Optical Co. Ltd., Hamburg, Germany) under
242 magnification 10x. The cell diameter of ten cells per cryosection was determined using the arbitrary
243 line function in cellSens software (version 2.3, Olympus, Hamburg, Germany), resulting in an average
244 cell size representative for 100 cells in the cortex and vascular tissue.

245

246 2.5.2 Conductivity of carrot puree

247 The conductivity of carrot puree from cortex and vascular tissue was measured for two reasons. Firstly,
248 a difference in conductivity between cortex and vascular tissue may result in a different susceptibility
249 to cell electroporation by the PEF treatment (Ben Ammar et al., 2011; Puértolas et al., 2012). Since we
250 were not able to measure the conductivity of the intact tissues, and the conductivity of the tissue may
251 change during the PEF treatment (Ben Ammar et al., 2011), the conductivity of puree consisting of one
252 of the untreated tissues was measured to compare the conductivity between the tissues. Secondly, the
253 conductivity of the purees was used as an indicator of the ionic cell content that can possibly migrate to
254 the cell wall after cell electroporation and affect cell wall chemistry. Therefore, the frozen untreated
255 tissues were homogenised (Grindomixer GM200, Retsch, Germany) and thawed in a $20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ water bath.
256 The conductivity at $20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ was measured in triplicate using the Testo 240 conductivity meter (Ternat,
257 Belgium).

258

259 2.5.3 Calcium content

260 The frozen untreated tissues were homogenised (Grindomixer GM200, Retsch, Germany) and
261 freeze-dried for 22 h (Christ Alpha 2-4 LSC, Osterode, Germany). The dried puree was grinded using a
262 mortar and vessel, obtaining a fine powder. Ten mg of the powder was ashed in triplicate in porcelain
263 crucibles placed in a muffle furnace (Nabertherm Controller P330, Lilienthal, Germany) at 550 °C for
264 20 h. The cooled ashes were dissolved in 9.9 ml ultrapure water (organic free, 18 MΩ·cm resistance),
265 acidified with 0.1 ml of 65% nitric acid and left overnight at 4 °C. Next, the solutions were filtered
266 using a 0.45 µm membrane filter (Chromaphil® A-45/25, Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) and
267 analysed using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (iCAP 7400 ICP-OES Duo
268 spectrometer, Thermo Scientific, USA). The calcium content was measured radially at 318 nm and
269 calibration was performed using SPS-SW2 certified standard (Gwala et al., 2020). The calcium content
270 was calculated in mg per g carrot powder.

271

272 2.5.4 Dry matter determination

273 The frozen untreated tissues were homogenised using the grindomixer (GM200, Retsch, Germany) and
274 thawed in a 20 °C water bath. The dry matter content of the purees was determined in triplicate using a
275 method slightly modified from Nguyen et al. (2016). The puree was dried in porcelain crucibles placed
276 in a vacuum oven (UniEquip 1445-2, Planegg, Germany) at 70 °C under 0.8-0.2 bar pressure with
277 pressure reduction steps of 0.2 bar every hour, followed by overnight drying at 40 °C and atmospheric
278 pressure.

279

280 2.5.5 Pectin methylesterase extraction and activity measurement

281 PME was extracted in duplicate, based on the extraction procedure of Ly-Nguyen et al. (2003) with
282 some adjustments. The frozen untreated tissues were homogenised (Grindomixer GM200, Retsch,
283 Germany) and washed twice by mixing the puree with 0.05% cold sodium bisulfite (0.6 l per kg puree)
284 and centrifuging the mixture 30 min at 10 000g at 4 °C (Beckman Coulter J2-HS, Fullerton, United
285 States). The cell wall bound enzyme was extracted by adding 0.2M tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane
286 buffer at pH 8.0 containing 1M NaCl to the washed pellet (1.3 l per kg puree) and overnight end-over-
287 end rotation at 4 °C. The mixture was centrifuged 30 min at 18 000g at 4 °C and the pellet was removed.
288 The supernatant was rotated end-over-end 30 min at 4 °C with a 30% ammonium sulfate concentration
289 and centrifuged 1 h at 18 000g at 4 °C to precipitate large proteins. Ammonium sulfate was added to
290 the supernatant to obtain a 80% concentration to precipitate PME. After 30 min end-over-end rotation
291 at 4 °C, the mixture was centrifuged 1 h at 18 000g at 4 °C. The pellet was dissolved in 0.02M
292 tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane buffer at pH 7.0 and stored at -40 °C until activity measurement.

293 The PME activity of each extract was measured in duplicate using an automatic pH stat titrator (718
294 STAT Titrino, Metrohm, Herisau, Switzerland) with cryostat (DC Haake) at 22 °C (Ly-Nguyen et al.,
295 2003). The PME extract was mixed with 30 ml 0.35 % (w/v) apple pectin solution (DM 70.3%)
296 containing 0.117 M NaCl at pH 6.5 that acted as substrate for PME. Demethoxylation of pectin by PME
297 generates COO⁻ groups, lowering the pH. The pH of the mixture was kept at 7 for 1000 s by adding
298 0.01 M NaOH. The PME activity was calculated from the rate at which NaOH was added to maintain
299 the neutral pH. The activity was expressed in units: one unit PME activity was defined as the amount
300 of enzyme necessary to generate 1 μmol COO⁻ groups per minute at 22 °C and pH 7 (Ly-Nguyen et al.,
301 2003). As cortex and vascular tissue may differ in dry matter content, the PME activity was expressed
302 in U/g dry matter.

303

304 2.6 Statistical data analysis

305 The hardness of the carrots submitted to the PEF treatments with increasing total specific energy input
306 was fitted to a fractional conversion model using the nonlinear regression procedure in SAS software
307 (version 9.4, SAS Institute, Belgium). This model describes the exponential decrease in hardness when
308 enhancing the total specific energy input, reaching a residual hardness: $H = H_r + (H_0 - H_r) \cdot \exp(-k \cdot W_T)$
309 with H = hardness of carrot tissue submitted to total specific energy input W_T (N), H_0 = hardness of
310 untreated tissue (N), H_r = residual hardness (N), k = exponential factor expressing the sensitivity of the
311 carrot texture for tissue softening by the total specific energy input of the PEF treatment (kg/kJ) and W_T
312 = total specific energy input (kJ/kg). The corrected correlation coefficient was calculated as $R^2_{corr} = 1$
313 $- (m-1)(1 - SSR/SST)/(m-j)$ with m = number of observations, j = number of model parameters, SSR =
314 sum of squares due to regression and SST = total sum of squares (De Roeck et al., 2010). The model
315 parameters of the fractional conversion model of both tissues were compared using their 95%
316 confidence intervals.

317 The texture evolution during cooking (cooking behaviour) of the carrot tissues was modelled using the
318 fractional conversion model, as was reported earlier (De Roeck et al., 2010; Smout et al., 2005): $H =$
319 $H_r + (H_0 - H_r) \cdot \exp(-k \cdot t)$ with H = relative hardness of carrot tissue at holding time t (% raw untreated),
320 H_0 = initial hardness at $t = 0$ min (% raw untreated), H_r = residual hardness (% raw untreated), k = rate
321 constant of texture degradation at 95 °C (min⁻¹) and t = holding time at 95 °C (min). The corrected
322 correlation coefficient of each model was calculated and the model parameters were compared using
323 their 95% confidence intervals. Differences in raw hardness ($t = -5$ min) of the pretreated tissues relative
324 to the hardness of the raw untreated tissues were determined using the Tukey honest significant
325 difference (HSD) test at significance level 5% using JMP Pro (version 14.2.0, SAS Institute, Belgium).

326 Significant differences in DM between both tissues and treatments were investigated using the Tukey
327 HSD test with a significance level of 5%. A relationship between the rate constants of the fractional

328 conversions models describing the cooking behaviour of the pretreated carrot tissues, and the DM of
329 the raw pretreated tissues was found using an exponential model: $k = k_0 \cdot \exp(b \cdot DM)$ with k = rate
330 constant of texture degradation at 95 °C of pretreated carrot tissue (min^{-1}), DM = degree of
331 methylesterification of raw pretreated carrot tissue (%), k_0 = rate constant of texture degradation at 95°C
332 if $DM = 0\%$, b = exponential factor expressing the sensitivity of the rate constant of texture degradation
333 of carrot tissue at 95 °C for the DM of carrot pectin. The data were modelled using the nonlinear
334 regression procedure in SAS software and the corrected correlation coefficient was calculated.

335 Differences in cell size, conductivity, calcium content, dry matter content and PME activity between
336 the two tissues were investigated using the Student's t-test in JMP Pro (version 14.2.0, SAS Institute,
337 Belgium) with a significance level of 5%.

338

339 3. Results and discussion

340 3.1 Selection of pulsed electric field treatment parameters

341 The hardness of cortex and vascular carrot tissue was measured as a function of the total specific energy
342 input of the PEF treatments (**Figure 1**). As expected, the PEF treatments reduced the hardness of both
343 tissues. This may be due to cell electroporation and the loss of turgor pressure (Fincan & Dejmek, 2003).
344 The decrease in hardness was exponential, reaching a constant residual hardness when further
345 increasing the total specific energy input. Hence, the data were modelled using the fractional conversion
346 model (**Figure 1**) and the model parameters were estimated (**Table 1**). Untreated cortex was harder than
347 untreated vascular tissue. In contrast, vascular tissue remained harder than the cortex after the PEF
348 treatments. This suggests that the cell walls and the forces holding the cells of vascular tissue together
349 are stronger compared to the cortex. Based on the larger cell size and higher conductivity of vascular
350 tissue (**Table 2**), one would expect the vascular tissue to be more susceptible to membrane
351 electroporation (Ben Ammar et al., 2011; Faridnia et al., 2015; Kanduser & Miklavcic, 2009). Instead,
352 the exponential factors describing the sensitivity of the tissue to softening by the PEF treatments were
353 not significantly different for both tissues. Since there were only few datapoints in the exponential
354 region to estimate the exponential factor of vascular tissue, the standard error of this estimate was quite
355 large. Also the corrected correlation coefficient for vascular tissue was small (**Table 1**). As it was only
356 possible to increase the total specific energy input with steps of 0.129 kJ/kg, the amount of datapoints
357 that could be measured within the exponential phase of the curve was limited.

358 Considering these results, the total specific energy input of the PEF treatments used for the
359 determination of the cooking behaviour after the PEF and combined PEF and thermal pretreatment was
360 set at 2.571 kJ/kg. The plateau value of hardness reached at this intensity was assumed to represent
361 effective and maximal cell electroporation in both tissues.

3.2 Cooking behaviour of carrot tissues after pulsed electric field and mild thermal processing

The PEF pretreatment, the mild thermal pretreatment and the combined PEF and mild thermal pretreatment reduced the raw hardness of both cortex and vascular tissue (**Figure 2**). This was expected as cell permeabilisation can occur during these pretreatments: the application of electric pulses can result in structural changes in the cell membrane and the formation of electropores (Pagan & Manas, 2006), while mild preheating at 60 °C can result in thermal cell membrane destabilisation (Gonzalez et al., 2010; Gonzalez & Barrett, 2010; Sila et al., 2004). This will lead to loss of turgor pressure and a reduced hardness (Fincan & Dejmek, 2003; Gonzalez & Barrett, 2010). It seems that PEF reduces the hardness of raw tissue to a larger extent than the thermal pretreatment, for both tissues. The effects of the PEF and the thermal pretreatment on the texture of raw cortex tissue were not cumulative, suggesting both pretreatments may alter the same texture determining factor of raw tissue. In the case of vascular tissue, on the other hand, the combined pretreatment resulted in the lowest hardness.

The cooking behaviour of untreated and PEF and/or thermally pretreated carrot cortex and vascular tissue at 95 °C was modelled using the fractional conversion model and is shown in **Figure 3**. The parameter estimates describing the texture degradation kinetics are given in **Table 3**.

The initial hardness (holding time = 0 min) of the pretreated tissues was higher than the initial hardness of the untreated tissues (**Table 3**), although the hardness of the raw pretreated tissues was lower than the hardness of the raw untreated tissues (**Figure 2**). This suggests that the pretreated tissues are less susceptible to texture degradation during the come up phase, and possibly also during further heating at 95 °C.

No difference in rate constant between the untreated cortex and vascular tissue was observed (**Table 3**). The PEF treated cortex showed a similar cooking behaviour compared to the untreated tissue. The texture degradation of the PEF treated vascular tissue, on the other hand, was almost four times slower compared to the untreated tissue. The preheating at 60 °C slowed down the texture degradation at 95 °C for both cortex and vascular tissue. The effect of the PEF treatment on the cooking behaviour of vascular tissue was larger compared to the effect of the thermal pretreatment. The combined PEF and thermal pretreatment resulted in the slowest cooking behaviour for both types of tissue. Furthermore, the PEF pretreatment had a larger effect on the texture degradation kinetics of vascular tissue compared to cortex, as the texture degradation of vascular tissue that was submitted to the PEF pretreatment and to the combination pretreatment was slower compared to the texture degradation of cortex after the same pretreatments.

The pretreatments didn't affect the residual hardness of the cortex (**Table 3**). The texture of vascular tissue, on the other hand, may remain harder after the combination pretreatment and prolonged heating. However, it may also be that the real residual hardness is lower than the estimated residual hardness as there were only few datapoint to estimate this parameter.

397 3.3 PEF and mild thermal pretreatment facilitate pectin demethylesterification

398 In order to investigate the influence of pectin demethylesterification on the cooking behaviour of the
399 untreated and pretreated tissues, the DM of pectin from raw untreated and pretreated cortex and vascular
400 tissue was determined (**Figure 4**). The untreated cortex and vascular tissue contained pectin with a
401 similar DM. Moreover, the DM of pectin from PEF treated cortex was similar to the DM of pectin from
402 untreated cortex. This was consistent with the observed cooking behaviour of cortex that remained
403 unchanged after the PEF pretreatment (**Table 3**). The DM of pectin from PEF treated vascular tissue,
404 on the other hand, was lower than the original DM (**Figure 4**). This could explain the slower texture
405 degradation after the PEF treatment of vascular tissue (**Table 3**). This difference in DM between PEF
406 treated cortex and vascular tissue could not be explained by the difference in the activity of PME that
407 was extracted from both tissues (**Table 2**), as the PME activity in the extract from vascular tissue was
408 lower compared to its activity in the extract from cortex. On the other hand, the activity of the extracted
409 enzyme may not be representative for the activity *in situ*. It seems that, even at suboptimal temperatures
410 for PME activity, and in contrast with cortex, pectin from vascular tissue can be demethylesterified after
411 cell electroporation. The disintegration of the membrane by PEF may improve the transport of
412 intracellular ions (Puértolas et al., 2012; Toepfl et al., 2006) to the cell wall, the site of PME action. As
413 PME activity increases with ionic strength (Alonso et al., 2003; Christiaens et al., 2016; Nari et al.,
414 1991), the PEF pretreatment may facilitate pectin demethylesterification. The higher *in situ* PME
415 activity in vascular tissue after cell electroporation compared to the activity in the cortex after the same
416 pretreatment may be explained by a higher ionic strength at the cell wall in vascular tissue, indicated
417 by the higher conductivity of the puree from vascular tissue (**Table 2**).

418 Pectin from both cortex and vascular tissue had a lower DM after the mild thermal pretreatment at 60
419 °C compared to the pectin from untreated tissues (**Figure 4**). Demethoxylation of pectin during such
420 pretreatment was already observed by Lemmens et al. (2009), Sila et al. (2005) and Smout et al. (2005)
421 among others, where the combination of cell permeabilisation, decompartmentalisation of the cell and
422 an optimal temperature for PME activity could explain the decrease in DM. In contrast with the cooking
423 behaviour after the PEF pretreatment, the slower cooking behaviour after the thermal pretreatment was
424 similar for cortex and vascular tissue (**Table 3**). Surprisingly, the texture degradation of vascular tissue
425 after the PEF treatment was slower than the texture degradation after the thermal pretreatment, although
426 both pretreatments resulted in a similar DM of vascular pectin. It was already found that cell
427 electroporation by PEF has a greater effect on the permeability of plant tissue than a mild thermal
428 treatment (Jemai & Vorobiev, 2002). Possibly, more Ca²⁺ ions become available after cell
429 electroporation compared to thermal destabilisation of the cell membrane, crosslinking pectin and
430 slowing down texture degradation. Also, the slower cooking behaviour of vascular tissue may be linked
431 to its higher calcium content compared to the cortex (**Table 2**). On the other hand, too high
432 concentrations of cations, in particular divalent cations, may also counteract PME activity (Christiaens

433 et al., 2016). Therefore, a better understanding of the effect of PEF and mild thermal processing on ion
434 availability at the cell wall, and the role of *in situ* ions on PME activity and Ca²⁺ crosslinking is
435 necessary.

436 The use of a PEF pretreatment prior to a mild thermal pretreatment had a different effect on the DM of
437 pectin from both tissues (**Figure 4**). Since the DM of cortex pectin after the PEF and mild thermal
438 pretreatment was similar to the DM after the mild thermal pretreatment, it seems that the DM was only
439 affected by the thermal pretreatment, even when this step was preceded by PEF. This is in contrast
440 with the slower texture degradation of cortex after the combination pretreatment compared to the texture
441 degradation after the mild thermal pretreatment (**Table 3**). Hence, extra research is necessary to
442 completely understand the differences in cooking behaviour after the PEF and mild thermal
443 pretreatment, including the possibility of other enzymatic reactions that may alter the structure of pectin
444 and strengthen the cell wall (e.g. phenolic crosslinks). In contrast, the DM of pectin from vascular tissue
445 was lowest after the combination pretreatment (**Figure 4**). It seems that in vascular tissue the PEF
446 treatment lowers the DM, additionally to the mild thermal pretreatment. Correspondingly, the texture
447 degradation of vascular tissue was the slowest after the combination of the PEF and mild thermal
448 pretreatment (**Table 3**).

449 An exponential relationship between the DM of pectin from the untreated and pretreated tissues and the
450 rate constant of texture degradation of the corresponding tissues at 95 °C was found (**Figure 5**). It is
451 clear that the rate constant decreases exponentially when lowering the DM. However, not all differences
452 in cooking behaviour could be explained by differences in DM. Therefore, more research needs to be
453 done on the effects of PEF and mild thermal processing on the structure and organisation of pectin.

454

455 **4. Conclusion**

456 In this paper the effect of PEF on the cooking behaviour of carrot tissues and on the DM of carrot pectin
457 was investigated for the first time and compared to the effect of mild thermal processing on the texture
458 and the DM. From this study it is clear that both PEF and mild thermal processing can slow down the
459 cooking behaviour of carrot tissues, especially when the pretreatments are combined. Whereas the mild
460 thermal pretreatment reduces the DM of carrot pectin from both cortex and vascular tissue, the PEF
461 pretreatment only seems to affect the DM of pectin from vascular tissue. Further research is necessary
462 to completely understand the mechanism behind the promotion of PME activity after cell
463 electroporation and the tissue dependency of this phenomenon. The reduction of the DM leads to slower
464 chemical depolymerisation of pectin during cooking. Moreover, an exponential relationship between
465 the rate constant for texture degradation during thermal processing and the DM of pectin was found.
466 However, not all differences in cooking behaviour could be explained by differences in DM. Possibly,
467 a detailed study about the consequences of cell permeabilisation due to PEF and mild thermal processing

468 on PME activity, ionic pectin crosslinking, and other enzymatic reactions crosslinking pectin (e.g.
469 phenolics) and strengthening the cell wall could clarify the observed differences in cooking behaviour
470 between the carrot tissues after the different pretreatments.

471 Finally, the observation that a PEF pretreatment affects the texture of carrot tissue during subsequent
472 thermal processing may be of great importance for the food processing industry. The PEF treatment not
473 only leads to a softer texture of fresh fruit and vegetable tissues, reducing the cutting force (Leong et
474 al., 2014), it is also slowing down texture degradation during cooking. Therefore, PEF may be
475 considered as a technology for fruit and vegetable processing if a harder texture after thermal processing
476 is desirable. Nevertheless, the use of PEF may also imply the loss of small molecules such as minerals,
477 colorants, sucrose, phenolics and oils (Faridnia et al., 2015; Puértolas et al., 2012). Consequently, the
478 advantages and disadvantages of using PEF as a technique for texture preservation during a specific
479 production process should be taken into account.

480

481 **Declaration of competing interest**

482 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

483

484 **Acknowledgement**

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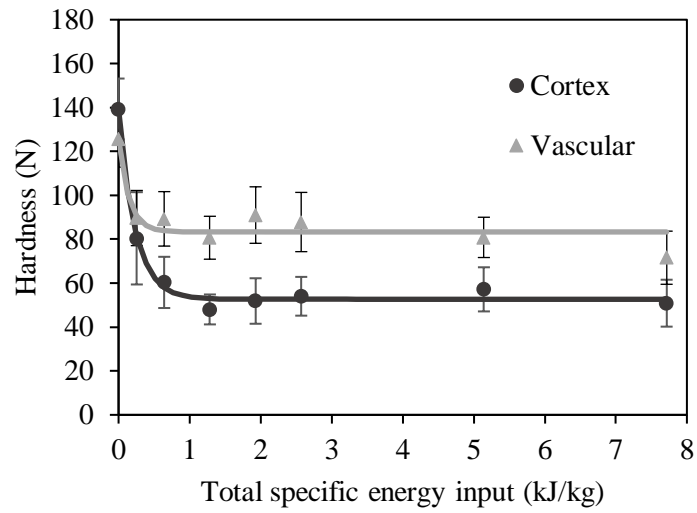
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606 **Figure 1:** Hardness decay of carrot cortex and vascular tissue after PEF treatments with different total
 607 specific energy inputs at electric field strength 1.01 kV/cm, modelled using the fractional conversion
 608 model. Error bars represent the standard deviations of the texture measurements per treatment intensity.

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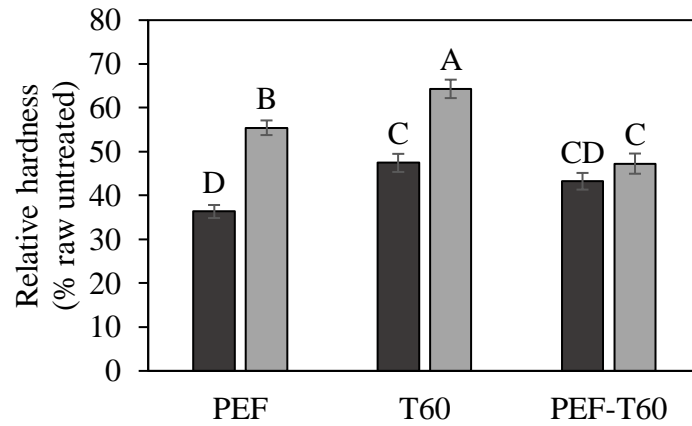
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626 **Figure 2:** Hardness of raw carrot cortex (■) and vascular tissue (■) after PEF treatment (PEF), after
 627 mild thermal processing at 60 °C (T60) and after the combined PEF and thermal pretreatment (PEF-
 628 T60), relative to the hardness of the raw untreated tissue. Error bars represent standard errors on texture
 629 measurements. Different letters indicate significant differences between relative hardness based on the
 630 results from the Tukey HSD test with significance level 5%.

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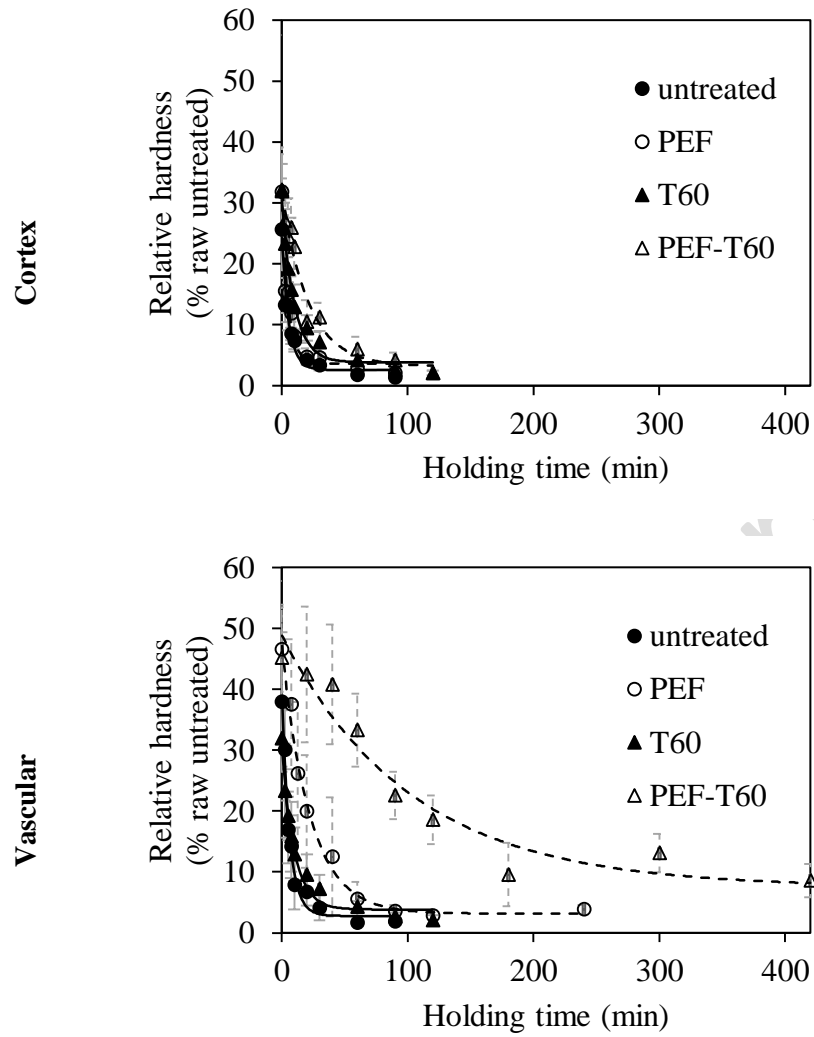
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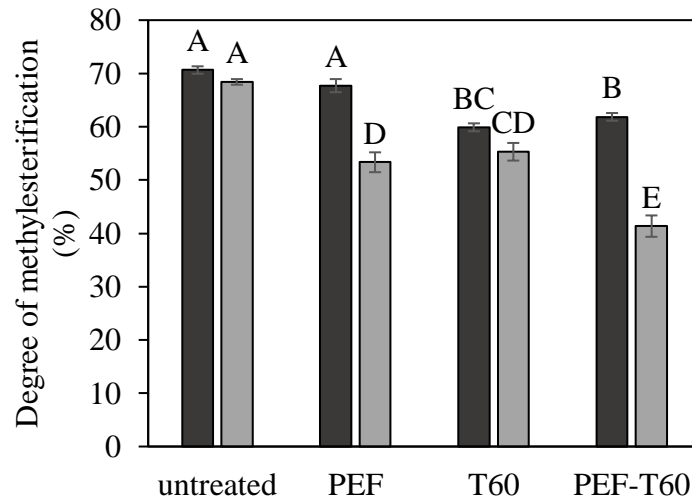
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649 **Figure 3:** Cooking behaviour of carrot cortex and vascular tissue: relative hardness as a function of
 650 holding time at 95 °C. PEF: pretreatment with pulsed electric fields, T60: mild thermal pretreatment at
 651 60 °C, PEF-T60: combined PEF and thermal pretreatment. The data were modelled using the fractional
 652 conversion model. Error bars represent standard deviations of the texture measurements.

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655 **Figure 4:** Degree of methylesterification (DM) of pectin from untreated and pretreated raw cortex (■)
 656 and vascular (▨) carrot tissue. PEF: pretreatment with pulsed electric fields, T60: mild preheating at
 657 60 °C, PEF-T60: combined PEF and thermal pretreatment. Error bars represent standard errors on the
 658 DM measurements. Letters indicate significant differences in DM, corresponding to the Tukey HSD
 659 test results with significance level 5%.

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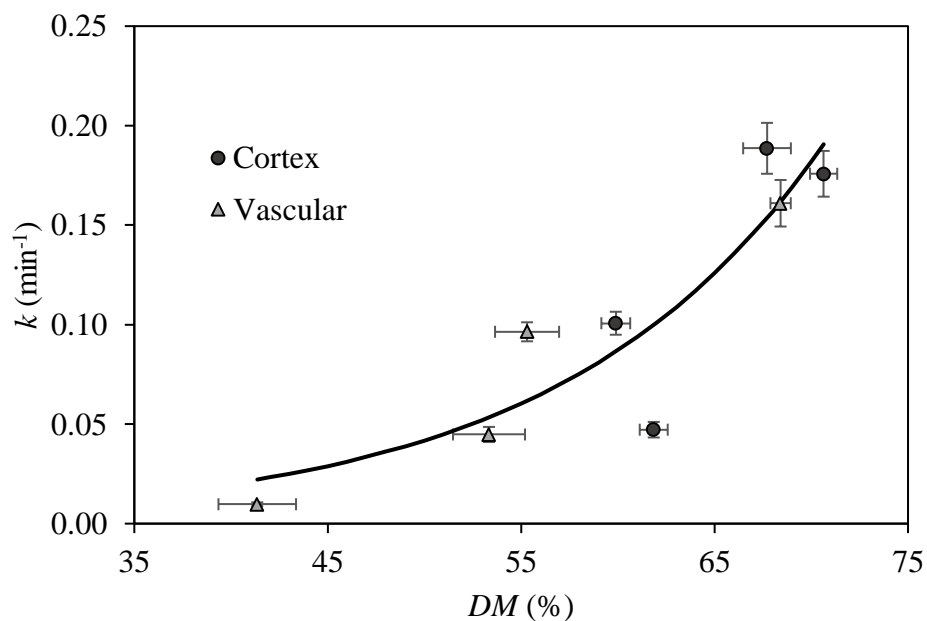
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678 **Figure 5:** Correlation between the rate constant k of texture degradation at 95 °C and the degree of
 679 methylesterification (DM) of pectin from carrot tissues: $k = 0.001_{(\pm 0.001)} \cdot \exp(0.074_{(\pm 0.020)} \cdot DM)$ with R^2_{corr}
 680 = 0.941 and subscripts representing standard errors of regression. Error bars represent standard errors
 681 on the estimated rate constant k and the measured DM .

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Tissue	H_0 (N)	k (kg/kJ)	H_r (N)	R^2_{corr}
Cortex	139.20 ± 2.52^A	4.311 ± 0.364^A	52.64 ± 1.11^B	0.842
Vascular	125.50 ± 3.53^B	6.843 ± 1.571^A	83.33 ± 1.14^A	0.418

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697 **Table 1:** Kinetic parameter estimates with their standard error for the hardness decay of cortex and
698 vascular tissue after PEF treatments with increasing total specific energy input, using the fractional
699 conversion model. H_0 : hardness of untreated tissue, k : exponential factor expressing the sensitivity of
700 the tissue to softening by PEF treatments with different total specific energy input, H_r : residual hardness,
701 R^2_{corr} : corrected correlation coefficient. Different letters indicate significant differences between
702 parameters of cortex and vascular tissue, based on the overlap of their 95% confidence intervals.

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	Cortex	Vascular
Cell diameter (μm)	$89 \pm 1^{\text{B}}$	$163 \pm 3^{\text{A}}$
Conductivity puree (mS/cm)	$19.0 \pm 0.4^{\text{B}}$	$23.2 \pm 0.4^{\text{A}}$
Calcium content (mg/g)	$0.334 \pm 0.210^{\text{B}}$	$1.933 \pm 0.175^{\text{A}}$
Dry matter content (%)	$12.35 \pm 0.09^{\text{A}}$	$12.01 \pm 0.04^{\text{B}}$
PME activity (U/g dry matter)	$14.62 \pm 1.26^{\text{A}}$	$6.32 \pm 0.03^{\text{B}}$

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722 **Table 2:** Characterisation of carrot tissues: cell diameter, conductivity of puree, calcium content, dry
723 matter content and PME activity, together with their standard error. Different letters indicate significant
724 differences between cortex and vascular tissue, based on results of the Student's t-test with significance
725 level 5%.

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	Pretreatment	H_0 (% raw untreated)	k (min ⁻¹)	H_r (% raw untreated)	R^2_{corr}
Cortex	untreated	24.33 ± 0.60 ^D	0.1758 ± 0.0115 ^A	2.59 ± 0.34 ^B	0.838
	PEF	30.05 ± 0.76 ^C	0.1886 ± 0.0128 ^A	3.60 ± 0.43 ^B	0.827
	T60	30.43 ± 0.58 ^C	0.1007 ± 0.0058 ^B	3.83 ± 0.36 ^B	0.882
	PEF-T60	31.72 ± 0.67 ^C	0.0472 ± 0.0039 ^C	3.21 ± 0.65 ^B	0.832
Vascular	untreated	38.88 ± 1.09 ^B	0.1610 ± 0.0117 ^A	2.78 ± 0.64 ^B	0.810
	PEF	47.11 ± 1.37 ^A	0.0448 ± 0.0038 ^C	3.16 ± 0.88 ^{AB}	0.806
	T60	45.21 ± 0.76 ^A	0.0964 ± 0.0048 ^B	4.58 ± 0.49 ^{AB}	0.911
	PEF-T60	48.82 ± 1.24 ^A	0.0097 ± 0.0010 ^D	7.48 ± 1.38 ^A	0.766

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744 **Table 3:** Kinetic parameter estimates with their standard error describing the texture degradation
745 kinetics of untreated and pretreated carrot cortex and vascular tissue at 95 °C, using the the fractional
746 conversion model. H_0 : initial hardness, relative to the hardness of raw untreated carrot tissue, k : rate
747 constant of texture degradation at 95 °C, H_r : residual relative hardness, R^2_{corr} : corrected correlation
748 coefficient. PEF: pretreatment with pulsed electric fields, T60: mild thermal pretreatment at 60 °C, PEF-
749 T60: combined PEF and thermal pretreatment. Significant differences between tissues and
750 pretreatments are indicated with different letters, based on the comparison of the 95% confidence
751 intervals of the estimated parameters.

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