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Full Length Research Paper

The influence of the combined microwave power and hot air ventilation on the drying kinetics and colour quality of tomato slices

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Tomato is one of the most important fruit used as an ingredient in different foods in food processing and preparation. Fresh tomato consists of about 91% of moisture. Tomato has to pass through all three rates of drying (constant, first and second falling rate period) during drying, using hot air ventilation, and requires prolonged time with much of quality changes. In this study, microwave assisted hot air ventilation drying of tomato slices had been considered. Microwave oven working at 2450 MHz, using different power densities (1, 2 and 3 W g⁻¹) was combined with hot air ventilation at 50°C and hot air ventilation drying without microwave power at 40, 50, 70 and 80°C to dry tomato slices down to 10% moisture content. The drying characteristic curve was analyzed to determine the drying time. The tomato slice sample dried faster when subjected to microwave heating, coupled with hot air ventilation at 50°C. The drying times required for tomato slices to reach 10% moisture content were found to be 3.2, 2.5 and 1.3 h, using 1, 2 and 3 W g⁻¹ microwave power densities, coupled with 50°C hot air ventilation, respectively. On the other hand, the drying time of tomato slices to 10% moisture content required 20.5, 13.1, 9.6, 6.8 h for drying at 40, 50, 70 and 80°C, using hot air ventilation without supplementing heating with microwave power. Microwave drying maintained the superior colour of tomato slices after drying period, compared to the other treatments.

Key words: Microwave, tomato slice, drying equation, colour, drying rate, moisture content.

INTRODUCTION

There is sufficient market demand for dehydrated fruits and vegetables worldwide (Zhang et al., 2006). Dehydration removes the majority of water from fruits and vegetables, and highly improves the shelf life of the final dried products, resulting from reduced water activity. Drying of fruit and vegetables, using high temperature and for long drying time by conventional heating, results in the damage of quality of the final dried products (Viswanathanl et al., 2003). This is partly attributed to the fact that fruits and vegetables are subjected to low drying rate during the falling drying rate period in many of the conventional drying methods such as airflow drying, vacuum drying, and freeze-drying (Zhang et al., 2003, 2005; Clary et al., 2005). The most important fruit and

vegetables quality known to be affected by high temperature drying for long time includes nutritional value, structural properties and sensory attributes. In conventional hot air ventilation heating or drying, long exposure time is required to reduce food water content down to lower safe moisture content. The acceptability (visual appeal, taste, aroma, flavour and texture), structural property and nutritional value of fruit and vegetables are highly affected (Warchalewski et al., 1998; Krokida and Maroulis, 2001). Zhang et al. (2003, 2005) indicated that exposure to elevated hot air ventilation temperature may result in substantial degradation of fruits and vegetables quality attributes. Generally, hot air ventilation drying of produce at high temperature for long time causes a significant damage to nutritional value as well as sensory quality of fruits and vegetables. However, microwave drying of fruits and vegetables results in high temperature efficiency, shorter

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drying time, and result in better product quality compared to conventional hot air ventilation drying (Viswanathanl et al., 2003; Prabhanjan et al., 1995; Ren and Chen, 1998; Mullin, 1995).

In recent years, microwave drying has gained popularity as an alternative drying method for a wide variety of food and agricultural products. Zhang et al. (2003, 2005) reported a review of trends in microwaverelated drying of fruits and vegetables, indicating the advantages of combining conventional drying methods with microwave heating. The review also clearly indicated that combination of drying methods leads to better drying processes than using microwave or conventional drying methods alone. Microwave heating is based on the transformation of alternating electromagnetic field energy into thermal energy by affecting the polar molecules of a material. Heating of bulk foods can easily be achieved by microwave heating than by conventional heating, which is one of the most important characteristics of this drving technology (Mullin, 1995; Zhang et al., 2006). The convective mode of heat transfer is used in conventional heating, which is followed by conduction where heat must diffuse in from the surface of the material, deep into fruits and vegetables. However, microwave leads to a volumetric heating which means that all the materials can be heated to the desired temperature at the same time. In microwave heating, microwave energy is directly absorbed and converts it into heat inside fruits and vegetables. The heat is generated throughout the material, leading to faster heating rates, compared to conventional heating where heat is usually transferred from the surface to the interior (Poonnoy et al., 2007). Microwave drying is caused by water vapour pressure differences between interior and surface regions, which provide a driving force for moisture transfer. Microwave treatment can greatly reduce the drying time of the biological products without quality degradation. Based on these analysis, the present study was aimed at the microwave assisted hot air ventilation drying of a fixed thickness tomato slices. The objective of this study is therefore to look at the drying characteristics and determination to drying time required to reduce the moisture content of fixed thickness (5 mm) tomato slices to low safe moisture content during drying, using hot air ventilation and combined microwave with hot air ventilation drying.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Raw material and drying process

Ripe red and firm tomato (cultivars Marglobe) was used for the drying experiment. The drying tests were conducted using 5 mm thickness tomato slices weighing 60 \pm 2g. The 5 mm tomato slices were prepared using kitchen slicer. Firm and ripe red tomatoes were purchased from local farmer's market. The fresh ripe tomato samples were stored in a storage room with inside air temperature (13°C) until drying experiment, which was done within 2 to 3 days

period. Before drying trial, the materials were taken out and kept at room temperature for about 12 h over night, for thermal equilibrium. The initial moisture content of the tomato samples was determined in an oven, at a temperature of 105°C for 24 h. The initial moisture content was 94.01% for tomatoes. A 5 mm thickness tomato slice samples was prepared before each drying runs. All sliced samples were taken from the central region of tomato fruits for uniformity. Each slice of tomato was subjected to drying at a specific temperature (40, 50, 60, 70 and 80°C) and microwave power density (1.13, 2.08 and 3.11 W g⁻¹, combined with 50°C). During each run, one slice was placed as a single layer on the base of the sample holder. Before starting each run, the data acquisition system was switched on and air temperature was then set to the experimental desired temperature value. During each run, inlet air and modulated air temperature, sample weight and sample temperature were recorded continuously by the data acquisition system. The drying process was finished when the sample reached the moisture content of 10%.

Tomato slices drying

Series of two different tests under constant drying conditions were performed (Table 1). All combinations of microwave power density (1.13, 2.08 and 3.11 W g⁻¹) combined with 50°C hot air ventilation and hot air drying without microwave heating, at drying air temperature (40, 50, 60, 70 and 80°C) with air velocity of 1.0 m s⁻¹. There were 24 distinct experimental runs with seven duplications. About 60 ± 2 g of tomato slice were used for each run. From the starting of the drying, the change in the sample weight was recorded at time intervals of 2 min. The drying tests were terminated when the moisture content indicated 10%. The final moisture content of each sample was measured in order to calculate the moisture content at each weighing interval. Drying tests were replicated three times at each inlet air temperature, and averages are reported.

Microwave drying system and measurements

The microwave assisted hot air ventilation heating or drying system introduced by Cheng et al. (2006) was used to dry tomato slices at different power density and different drying air temperatures. During the drying study, inlet air temperature, modulated air temperature, sample weight, sample temperature, and air velocity resulting of air ventilation through heating resistance from the bottom of sample holder were monitored through data acquisition systems. Thermocouples were used to record the inlet and modulated air temperatures during the drying period of each runs. To maintain the modulated air temperature at pre-set temperature, a proportional, integral and derivative controller was used through controlling the supplied power to heating resistance coil. A Strain gauge was used to continuously monitor the sample weight during each run.

Colour analysis

The tomato slices colour measurement was performed using a chromameter (CR-300X, Minolta Camera Company Limited, Japan) and using the procedure described by Cheng et al. (2006). The calibration of the chromameter was done using a standard white plate. The L* coordinate ranged from 0 (black) to 100 (white), the a* coordinate indicated red-purple colour or bluish green colour and the b* coordinate indicated yellow colour or blue colour (Cheng et al., 2006; McGuire, 1992). The reading was performed on the sliced surface of the pericarp tissue of tomato slices. For statistical purpose, the colour reading was done at three randomly selected different locations and the mean of those three readings from the

Drying treatment	Time (h)	Percentage reduction in drying time						
Hot air ventilation drying								
40°C	20.5	0						
50°C	13.3	35						
60°C	9.70	53						
70°C	8.13	60						
80°C	6.93	66						
Micro	owave assisted hot a	air ventilation drying						
50°C+0 W g ⁻¹	13.3	35						
50°C+0 W g ⁻¹ 50°C+1.13 W g ⁻¹	3.3	84						
50°C+2.08 W g ⁻¹	1.4	93						
50°C+3.11 W g ⁻¹	1.1	95						

Table 1. Effects of different drying air temperature and power densities on drying time of tomato slices.

same sample was reported.

Theory modelling drying curves

There are two types of thin-layer models in use: Diffusion models and empirical models. The accuracy of diffusion models to predict moisture content depends on having good assumptions concerning the geometry, moisture diffusivity and temperature profile of the pieces of food. The diffusion models need more computation time and computer memory than the simpler empirical models. According to Bruce (1985), the diffusion models are more accurate and allow internal moisture movement to be modelled. However. same author noted that in simulations of deep-bed drying, the simpler models are expected to be useful where economy of computation is concerned. Perry and Green (1984) concluded that empirical models are more applicable for control technology to drying, because less time is required for computation. Therefore, it was decided to look at widely used simpler models. By assuming that diffusion only takes place at the surface, Lewis (1921) developed an equation, analogous to Newton's law of cooling, of the form:

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = -k(m - m_e) \tag{1}$$

Integrating equation (3) gives the following equation:

$$MR = \frac{m - m_e}{m_o - m_e} = \exp(-kt) \tag{2}$$

Several research reports that the values of the equilibrium moisture content (m_e) are relatively small when compared to the instantaneous moisture content (m) and initial moisture content (m_o) (Doymaz, 2004). Thus, the Lewis model can be written as follows:

$$MR = \frac{m}{m_o} = \exp(-kt) \tag{3}$$

For foods, several empirical drying equations have been developed by adding some factors to the Lewis model. Page (1949) proposed an equation similar to the Lewis model with the addition of the power factor n to the time variable to improve prediction of the drying characteristics:

$$MR = \exp(-kt^n) \tag{4}$$

Page's model has been widely used to describe drying behaviour of a variety of biological materials (Doymaz, 2004; Soysal, 2004; Alibas, 2007). Similarly, the values of the equilibrium moisture content are relatively small, compared to instantaneous moisture content and initial moisture content, and the moisture ration can be simplified to m/mo:

$$MR = \frac{m}{m_o} = \exp(-kt^n) \tag{5}$$

Henderson and Pabis (1961), as presented in Akpinar et al. (2003), proposed a two term equation:

$$MR = a \exp(-kt) \tag{6}$$

This equation was used to predict sun drying moisture loss kinetic of figs, and found to be one of best model which predicts the moisture loss with small standard error and high correlation coefficient (Doymaz, 2005). In all the equations above, a, b, n are the drying coefficients, k is the temperature dependent drying constant (min $^{-1}$), MR is the moisture ratio (dimensionless) and t is the drying time (min).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Drying characteristics curves

The relationship between dimensionless moisture content and drying time of tomato slices, subjected to microwave assisted hot air drying and hot air ventilation drying alone is given in Figures 1 and 2. In this case, microwave assisted hot air ventilation drying during the whole drying period was applied. It is apparent that dimensionless moisture content decreases continuously with drying

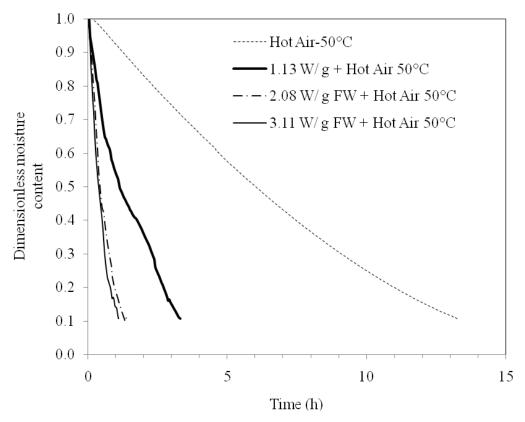


Figure 1. Moisture content of tomato slices changes with microwave power density and time.

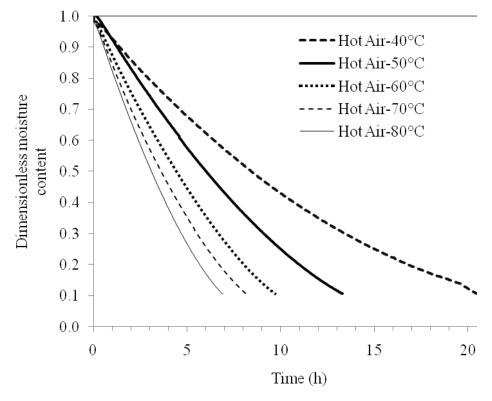


Figure 2. Moisture content of tomato slices changes with drying air temperature and time.

time. As can be seen from the data presented, the time required to dry tomato slice to 10% moisture content decreased with increase in microwave power density from 1.13 to 3.12 W g⁻¹, combined with hot air at 50°C air ventilation. The drying time varied between 1.1 and 3.3 h as the microwave power density increased from 1.13 to 3.12 W g⁻¹. A rapid drying was observed in dimensionless moisture content in this study, which is in agreement with the previous findings (Prabhanjan et al., 1995; Drouzas and Schubert, 1996; Alibas, 2007; Queiroz et al., 2004). The tomato slices experienced both constant and falling drying rate period (Figures 3 and 4). The constant rate drying period was found to be for very short period of about 2.5 min when microwave power density of 1.13 W g⁻¹ was used to assist heating tomato slices with air at 50°C temperature, which significantly increased the drying rate. Internal heating, using microwave, was found to be an effective method for drying enhancement in this study, which is in agreement with the previous report (Itaya et al., 2002). Heat is generated when microwave interacts with the polar water molecules in fruits and vegetables, and significantly high drying rate was achieved when compared to air drying alone (Doymaz and Pala, 2002). The time was reduced from 13.3 to 3.3 h during the drying of tomato slices using 50°C hot air ventilation coupled with 1.13 W g⁻¹ microwave power densities. Increasing the microwave density to 2.08 and 3.11 W g⁻¹ further decreased the required drying time to 1.4 and 1.1 h, respectively, in order to lower the tomato slices to moisture content of 10%. In general, the time required to reduce the dimensionless moisture content to any given level was highly dependent on the drying conditions being the highest at 50°C, and then lowest at microwave power density of 3.11 W g⁻¹ coupled with hot air ventilation drying at 50°C drying air temperature.

The drying time for tomato slices at other hot air temperature, 40, 60, 70 and 80°C were 20.5, 9.70, 8.13 and 6.93 h, respectively. Consequently, the effect of hot air temperature in forced air ventilation drying has been reflected in drying rate. However, as the drying air temperature increased the dried product freshness quality characteristics losses (Doymaz, 2004; Mulet et al., 1987; Goula and Adamopoulos, 2006; Madamba et al., 1996). Several research reports also showed that there is quality deterioration as the drying air temperature increases during drying of tomato slices or pulp (Goula and Adamopoulos, 2006; Wang et al., 2007; Singh et al., 2008; Askari et al., 2009). As the drying temperature increases, the quality attributed to dried products deteriorates, which is one of the most important disadvantages of hot air ventilation drying system (Prabhanjan et al., 1995; Dzdemir and Devres, 1999). In general, increasing air temperature by 10°C, starting from 40, 50, 60, 70 or 80°C reduced the drying time by 35, 53, 60 and 66%, respectively, compared to the drying time required to reduce moisture content to 10% at 40°C drying air temperature. Microwave assisted hot air (50°C)

ventilation drying of tomato slices reduced drying times by 84, 93 and 95% at power density of 1.13, 2.08 and 3.11 W g⁻¹, respectively. However, the changes in overall appearance quality of drying tomato slices remain smaller for all the power density used in this study.

Material temperature

Figure 5 shows the internal tomato slices temperature for drying at microwave power densities of 1.13, 2.08 and 3.11 Wg⁻¹, combined with 50°C drying air temperature during ventilation, as well as hot air temperature of 40, 60, 70, 80°C. The internal tomato slice temperature changes with levels of power density and drying air temperature. The internal material air temperature rapidly increased during the first few minutes and seemed to remain almost constant. The temperature curve during microwave assisted hot air ventilation drving was categorized into three different zones. The material temperature dropped slowly after reaching the maximum value, followed by a steady temperature period. As shown in drying rate curves (Figure 5a), the first and second temperature zones approximately corresponded to the constant drying rate region where most moisture loss occurred. On the other hand, two distinct zones were observed in temperature curve during phase-controlled microwave assisted (MWA) drying, a gradual temperature rising zone followed by a stable temperature zone, the first zone nearly matches the constant drying rate region. However, in the case of hot air ventilation drying, the temperature sharply increased to the peak value depending on the set temperature, and remained almost constant with small variations thereafter during the first 4 to 5 h (Figure 5b). In the case where the drying air temperature was set to 40 and 50°C, the material internal temperature showed a slight increase and remained to be below 30°C. Whereas, for 60, 70 and 80°C drying air temperature for hot air ventilation heating alone, the internal tomato slice temperature sharply increased to maximum temperatures of about 60, 69 and 79°C, and remained constant thereafter.

Modelling of the drying curves

Evaluation of the models in order to determine moisture content as the function of drying time, the simple diffusion Lewis (Equation 3), empirical Page (Equation 4) and Henderson and Pabis (Equation 6) were fitted and correlation coefficients (R^2) were calculated. The estimated model parameters and correlation coefficients for the three models are presented in Table 2. The R^2 for Lewis equation varied between 0.976 and 0.994, while for Page equation, R^2 values vary between 0.986 and 0.999. Similarly, the R^2 values for Henderson and Pabis equation vary between 0.983 and 0.997 (Table 2).

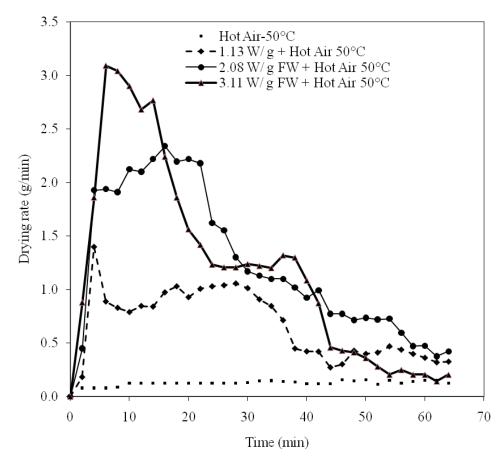


Figure 3. Drying rate of tomato slices changes with drying time (similar trends).

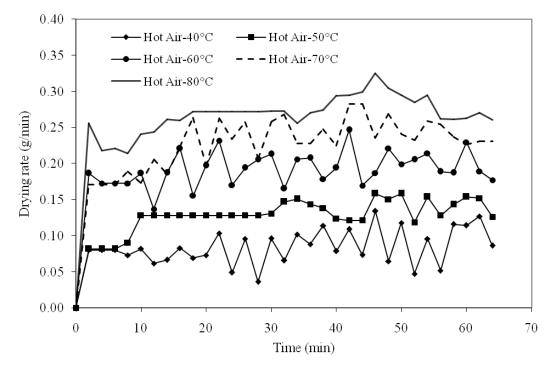
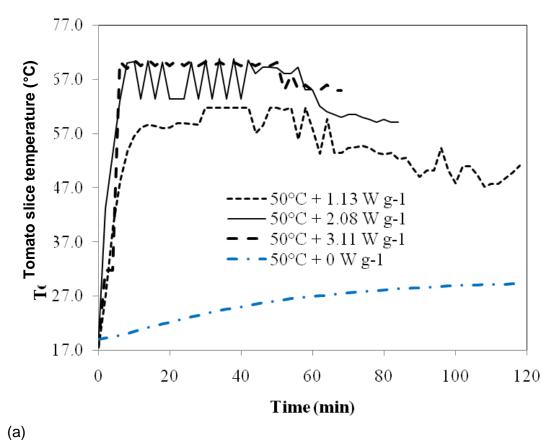


Figure 4. Drying rate of tomato slices changes with drying time.



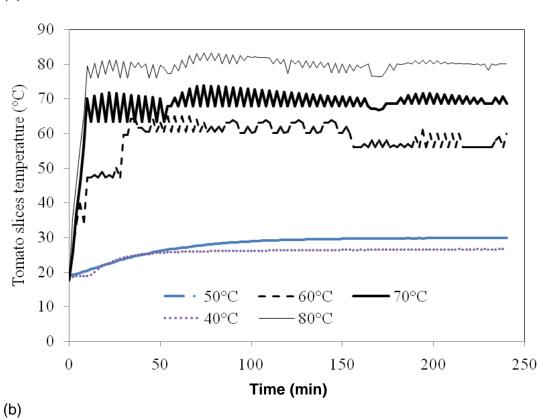


Figure 5. Tomato slice temperature during drying with air velocity at 1.0 m/s, air temperature at 40, 50, 60, 70 and 80°C, and power density at 1.13, 2.08 and 3.11 W g^{-1} .

Table 2. Non-linear regression analysis results of Lewis's, semi-empirical Page's, and Henderson and Pabis's equations for microwave assisted hot air ventilation drying and hot air ventilation drying of tomato slices.

Model	Drying treatment	Coefficient	Drying constant	Exponent	Coefficient of determination	
		(α)	(k) min ⁻¹	(n)	R ²	
Lewis	1.13 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	-	1.592	-	0.991	
	2.08 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	-	1.914	-	0.993	
	3.11 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	-	0.584	-	0.984	
	40°C	-	0.086	-	0.989	
	50°C	-	0.124	-	0.991	
	60°C	-	0.172	-	0.994	
	70°C	-	0.21	-	0.978	
	80°C	-	0.246	-	0.976	
Overall					0.987	
Page	1.13 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	-	0.606	0.93	0.986	
	2.08 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	-	1.668	1.14	0.997	
	3.11 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	-	2.066	1.122	0.998	
	40°C	-	0.059	1.167	0.999	
	50°C	-	0.067	1.321	0.998	
	60°C	-	0.106	1.289	0.997	
	70°C	-	0.144	1.256	0.997	
	80°C	-	0.171	1.275	0.997	
Overall					0.996	
Henderson and Pabis	1.13 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	0.967	0.56	-	0.986	
	2.08 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	1.057	1.692	-	0.996	
	3.11 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	1.048	2.019	-	0.997	
	40°C	1.092	2.092	-	0.993	
	50°C	1.089	0.14	-	0.985	
	60°C	0.072	0.187	-	0.983	
	70°C	1.066	0.227	-	0.986	
	80°C	1.066	0.266	-	0.984	
Overall					0.989	

Overall, the value of R² (0.996) obtained from empirical Page equation are higher than those overall correlation coefficient that was found for Lewis (0.987) and Henderson and Pabis equations (0.989). In general, the Page equation best fitted to the experimental dimensionless moisture content data, followed by the Henderson and Pabis equation. Queiroz et al. (2004) reported that drying curves could be well adjusted by the Page model and the model parameters were correlated as functions of drying conditions. Statistical analysis of experimental data showed that temperature was the main factor affecting drying rate. However, Henderson and Pabis equation seems to over predict the initial dimensionless moisture content, while the Lewis equation over predicts the dimensionless moistures content towards the end of drying period, although the other two also seemed to slightly over predict the dimensionless moisture content in this study. According to R² values, all

the three drying models were the best in predicting the dimensionless moisture content of tomato slices during drying under different conditions and drying systems, which is in agreement with several findings (Warchalewski et al., 1998; Sogi et al., 2003; Akpinar, 2006; Wang et al., 2007; Singh et al., 2008; Askari et al., 2009).

The comparison between the experimental and predicted (calculated) data using all the models for oven drying of tomato slices at 3.11 Wg⁻¹ combined with 50°C drying air temperature and 40°C are indicated in Figures 6 and 7. The figures show conformity between the experimental and predicted (calculated) dimensionless moisture content, since the same path is followed for the experimental and predicted values for all models. This shows the suitability of the model in predicting the drying characteristics of tomato slices. Figures 8 and 9 displays the predicted (calculated) versus the experimental

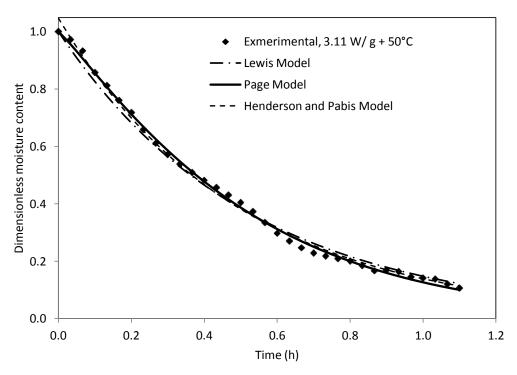


Figure 6. Comparison of experimental and predicted dimensionless moisture content of tomato slices as a function of drying time (T = 50°C and microwave power density of 3.11 W g⁻¹).

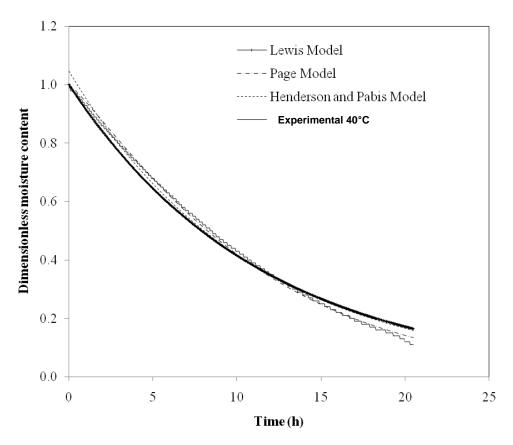


Figure 7. Comparison of experimental and predicted dimensionless moisture content of tomato slices (T = 40°C).

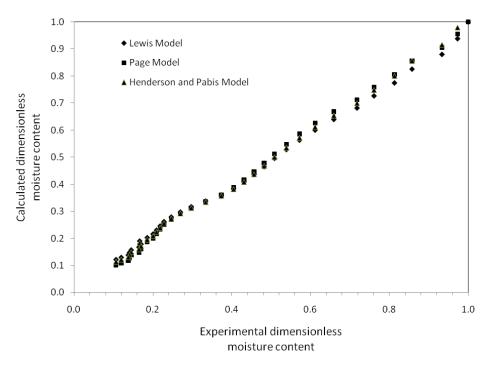


Figure 8. Comparison of experimental and predicted (calculated) dimensionless moisture content of tomato slices ($T = 50^{\circ}C$ and microwave power density of 3.11 W g⁻¹).

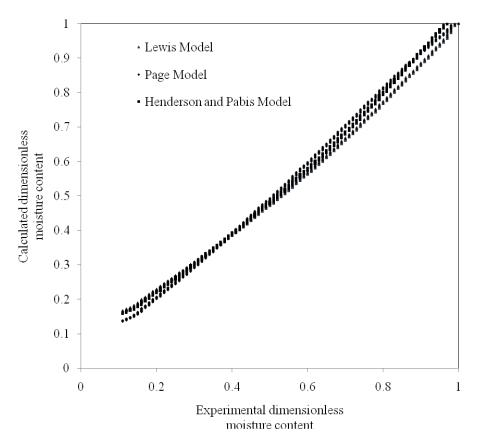


Figure 9. Comparison of experimental and predicted (calculated) dimensionless moisture content of tomato slices $(T = 40^{\circ}C)$.

Table 3. Colour changes during drying of tomato slices using different microwave power density and drying air temperature.

Drying treatment	L*	±SD	a*	±SD	b*	±SD
Fresh	52.78 ^a	1.27	14.15 ^a	0.28	12.68 ^f	0.52
3.11 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	43.11 ^e	1.05	10.96 ^d	0.93	17.80 ^c	0.37
2.08 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	45.00 ^d	0.13	13.01 ^b	0.12	13.45 ^{edf}	0.03
1.13 W g ⁻¹ +50°C	47.89 ^b	0.63	12.76 ^{cb}	0.6	13.04 ^{ef}	0.06
40°C	47.57 ^{cb}	1.74	12.79 ^b	0.1	13.95 ^{ed}	0.08
50°C	48.07 ^b	1.1	12.85 ^b	0.16	13.96 ^{ed}	0.07
60°C	46.02 ^{cd}	0.94	12.06 ^c	0.02	14.18 ^d	0.17
70°C	45.06 ^d	0.95	10.29 ^{ed}	0.52	20.21 ^b	1.12
80°C	39.09 ^f	1.01	9.70 ^e	0.17	21.71 ^a	1.35
Significance						
P		≤0.0001		≤0.0001		≤0.0001
R^2		0.944		0.938		0.975
CV		2.308		3.559		3.985
RMSE		1.063		0.429		0.624
LSD _{0.05}		1.824		0.737		1.07
EMS		1.13		0.184		0.389

Different letters in a column indicate significant differences at $P \le 0.05$.

dimensionless moisture content data. As can be observed, good agreement between the variables was found, which is in agreement with previous findings by Madamba et al. (1996) for drying garlic slices, by Doymaz and Pala (2002) for grape drying and by Doymaz (2004) for carrots drying.

Colour of fresh and dries tomato slices

Among several subjective quality attributes of dried tomato slices, the colour is an important one, which indicates the level of effects of different drying methods or conditions. The colour plays a crucial role, especially when it comes to consumer's preference. Table 3 displays the change in colour of fresh and dried tomato slices that were subjected to different levels of microwave power density and drying air temperature during hot air ventilation drying. The data clearly showed that the dried tomato slices were found to be relatively darker than fresh ones, as the result 'L*' value decreased for all dried samples when compared to 'L*' values for fresh tomato slices. The drying conditions had highly significant (P ≤ 0.0001) effects on the changes in colour of tomato slices. However, the colour of tomato slices subjected to 60, 70, 80 and 3.11 W g⁻¹ microwave power density coupled with 50°C air temperature drying were found to be significantly $(P \le 0.0001)$ darker than the others. Drving, using 1.13 and 2.08 W g⁻¹ microwave power densities coupled with 50°C hot air ventilation, produced brighter and less dark tomato products. Similarly, drying using hot air at 40 and 50°C produced same standard quality in terms of colour after drying, which was found to be brighter and less dark when compared to dried tomato slices subjected to 60, 70 and 80°C temperatures. Drying, using 1.13 W g coupled with 50°C hot air ventilation and by hot air ventilation at the temperatures of 40 and 50°C without microwave heating, was found to be the best in terms of maintaining the colour quality of the tomato slices. Drying treatments had significant (P ≤ 0.0001) effect on the 'a*' values of the slices. In this case also, the higher 'a*' values of slices were maintained in tomato samples subjected to 1.13 and 2.08 W g⁻¹ coupled with 50°C hot air ventilation, as well as very low temperature drying at 40 and 50°C but the 'b*' value increased after drying compared to the 'b*' values for fresh slices. The reduction in 'b*' values were saviour in tomato slices subjected to high temperature and high microwave power density treatments, which is in agreement with the findings of Sacilik et al. (2006).

Conclusion

Drying kinetic of tomato slices was investigated at various microwave output powers and air temperature. Drying time decreased considerably with increase in microwave power density and with increase in hot air temperature. Drying took place in a constant rate period followed by the falling rate period after a short heating period. Hot air ventilation drying relatively involved exposure of the tomato slices to long drying times. In this drying study, microwave assisted hot air drying treatment greatly reduce the drying time of the tomato slices by greater

than 84%, when compared to drying at 50°C drying air temperature. Microwave assisted low temperature air ventilation drying could be considered as an alternative drying method for tomato slices as it also maintains the superior quality in terms of colour.

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