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Stéphanie Passot, Stéphanie Cenard, Inès Douania, Ioan Cristian Trelea,  
Fernanda Fonseca

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1     **Critical water activity and amorphous state for optimal preservation of lyophilized**  
2                              **lactic acid bacteria**

3  
4     Stéphanie Passot\*, Stéphanie Cenard, Inès Douania, Ioan Cristian Tréléa, Fernanda Fonseca  
5     UMR 782 Génie et Microbiologie des Procédés Alimentaires, AgroParisTech / INRA,  
6                              78 850 Thiverval-Grignon, France

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\* Corresponding author. Tel. : +33 1 30 81 59 40 ; fax : +33 1 30 81 55 97.  
E-mail address : [spassot@grignon.inra.fr](mailto:spassot@grignon.inra.fr) (S. Passot)

11   **Abstract (150 words maxi)**

12   The aim of this study was to investigate the influence of the water activity on the stability of  
13   lyophilized lactic acid bacteria, especially in the solid glassy region. *Lactobacillus bulgaricus*  
14   CFL1 was co-lyophilized with sucrose and stored under controlled relative humidity at 25°C.  
15   Glass transition temperature (Tg), water activity, water content and loss of specific  
16   acidification activity during storage were determined. The rates of bacteria degradation were  
17   analyzed as a function of water activity and as a function of the temperature difference  
18   between storage temperature and Tg. Above Tg, the degradation rate appeared related to the  
19   physical changes of the amorphous matrix. Below Tg, the optimal stability of the lyophilized  
20   bacteria was observed in the intermediate water activity range 0.1 – 0.214. An integrated  
21   analysis of the relationships between water activity, Tg, water content and biological activity  
22   appeared as a promising approach for optimizing the freeze-drying process and predicting the  
23   storage stability.

24

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26   **Keywords:** water activity, lactic acid bacteria, freeze-drying, glass transition, storage  
27   stability, lyophilisation, residual moisture

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29

30      **1. Introduction**

31      Lactic acid bacteria (LAB) are widely used as starters for manufacturing cheeses,  
32      fermented milks, meats, vegetables and breads products. Several species have been shown to  
33      exhibit probiotic properties i.e. positive effects on human health (Naidu et al., 1999). The  
34      preparation of starter cultures requires production and maintenance techniques that maximise  
35      viability, activity and storage stability of bacterial cells. While frozen concentrates of lactic  
36      acid bacteria exhibit maximal survival in liquid nitrogen, the expense of these storage  
37      conditions limits the use of this method. Freeze-drying (or lyophilisation) appears as an  
38      alternative method for long time preservation of bacteria and yeasts.

39      When lactic acid bacteria are used as components of commercial starters, they are often  
40      freeze-dried in the presence of sugars and embedded in amorphous matrices (Abadias et al.,  
41      2001; Carvalho et al., 2004; Castro et al., 1997; Champagne et al., 1991; Leslie et al., 1995;  
42      Meng et al., 2008). The bacteria are so stabilized against physical and/or chemical  
43      degradation during dehydration and storage (Santivarangkna et al., 2008). The stability of  
44      bacteria in an amorphous sugar matrix is considered to depend mainly on the following two  
45      factors: the sugar it self and the physical state of the matrix. The extent of the stabilizing  
46      effect of the sugar varies with the specific sugar used (Kurtmann et al., 2009b; Miao et al.,  
47      2008; Zayed & Roos, 2004; Zhao & Zhang, 2005). For instance, lactose is currently used as  
48      protective sugar through the addition of skim milk. However, lactose as a reducing sugar  
49      reacts with milk proteins, thus inducing Maillard reaction (nonenzymatic browning). Non-  
50      reducing disaccharides such as sucrose or trehalose are reported to be among the most  
51      effective protective molecules for freeze-drying bacteria (Conrad et al., 2000; Crowe et al.,  
52      1988; Crowe et al., 1996). The other factor affecting bacteria preservation is the physical  
53      stability of the amorphous sugar matrix: when an amorphous sugar is exposed to high  
54      temperature or high humidity above the glass transition, various properties of the materials

55 change resulting in subsequent loss of the stabilizing effect of the amorphous sugar (Crowe et  
56 al., 1998; Patist & Zoerb, 2005; Pikal, 1999; Slade & Levine, 1991; Sun & Davidson, 1998).  
57 The most important changes are an exponential increase of molecular mobility and decrease  
58 of viscosity, which govern time-dependent structural changes such as collapse, sugar  
59 crystallisation and diffusion-controlled chemical reactions such as nonenzymatic browning  
60 (Buera & Karel, 1995; Buera et al., 2005; Jouppila & Roos, 1994a; Roos, 2002).

61 State diagrams have been proposed to describe the different region of the physical state of  
62 material and associated with sorption isotherms have often been related to the dried product  
63 quality and used for predicting the product stability during processing and storage (Fonseca et  
64 al., 2001; Roos, 1995). For instance, the critical water content and water activity values  
65 leading to physical changes of the amorphous material may be identified and used for process  
66 and storage design. When considering biological products such as proteins or bacteria, the  
67 effect of water on the solid state stability of glassy systems is complex, since water can play  
68 not only the role of plasticizer in a degradation process but also the role of reactant and  
69 solvent. These different roles of water suggest that progressively greater stability should be  
70 observed at lower moisture contents. The empirical rule “the drier, the better” is commonly  
71 used for designing dehydration process. However, some exceptions have been reported for  
72 dried proteins, viruses, bacteria (Breen et al., 2001; Chang et al., 2005b; Croyle et al., 2001;  
73 Greiff, 1970; Hsu et al., 1992; Pikal et al., 1992; Scott, 1958; Zayed & Roos, 2004).  
74 Moreover, very few studies have investigated the effect of residual water content on the  
75 stability of dehydrated bacteria, especially in the glassy region.

76 Our objective was thus to deeper investigate the effect of moisture content and water  
77 availability on the stability of freeze-dried lactic acid bacteria and to propose a useful tool  
78 combining state diagram, sorption isotherm and bacterial biological activity for designing an  
79 optimal freeze-drying process.

80

81   **2. Materials and methods**

82   *2.1. Production of lyophilized lactic acid bacteria*

83   The lactic acid bacteria strain, *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* sbsp. *bulgaricus* CFL1, was  
84   obtained from the stock culture of the Laboratoire de Génie et Microbiologie des Procédés  
85   Alimentaires (INRA, Thiverval-Grignon, France) and used for all experiments. Inocula were  
86   stored at -80°C. Cultures were grown in supplemented whey medium (60 g/L whey, 20 g/L  
87   lactose, 5 g/L yeast extract) in a 2, 15 or 75 liters fermentor at 42°C. The pH was controlled at  
88   5.5 by addition of 1.44 M NaOH. Cells were harvested by centrifugation (17000×g, 30 min,  
89   4°C) at the end of the exponential growth phase, when the NaOH consumption rate started to  
90   decrease. After an intermediate storage period for 30 minutes at 4°C, concentrated cells were  
91   re-suspended at 4°C in a 1:2 cells/protective medium ratio. The protective medium was  
92   composed of 200 g/L of sucrose and 0.15 M of NaCl. The final protected bacterial  
93   suspensions were aliquoted into 50 mm diameter stainless steel container (15 ml filled  
94   volume). The samples were frozen at -80°C in a cold air chamber and then transferred to a  
95   pre-cooled shelf at -50°C in a SMH 90 freeze-dryer (Usifroid, Maurepas, France). After a  
96   holding step of 1 hour at -50°C, the chamber pressure was decreased to 20 Pa and the shelf  
97   temperature was increased to -20°C at 0.25 °C/min to initiate the sublimation phase. After 40  
98   hours of sublimation, the shelf temperature was increased to 25°C at 0.25 °C/min to initiate  
99   the desorption phase. After 10 hours of desorption, the vacuum was broken by injection of air  
100   and the samples were packed under vacuum in aluminium bags and stored at -80°C until their  
101   use for storage experiments. Five fermentations were performed to generate various batches  
102   of lyophilized lactic acid bacteria.

103

104   *2.2. Storage experiments*

105       The lyophilized sample of lactic acid bacteria were reduced in powder in a chamber of  
106       very low relative humidity (around 5%) and then put in the containers used for the  
107       measurement of water activity. The containers were placed in hermetic glass box containing  
108        $P_2O_5$  or saturated salt solutions with  $a_w = 0.06$  (LiBr),  $a_w = 0.11$  (LiCl),  $a_w = 0.22$   
109       ( $CH_3COOK$ ),  $a_w = 0.32$  ( $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ ),  $a_w = 0.44$  ( $K_2CO_3$ ),  $a_w = 0.53$  ( $Mg(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ ),  $a_w =$   
110       0.75 (NaCl),  $a_w = 0.84$  (KCl). After one week of equilibration at 25°C, the samples reached a  
111       constant weight and were packed under vacuum in aluminium bags and stored at 25°C for  
112       different storage times. For each relative humidity condition, three samples were prepared: the  
113       first one was used for measuring water activity and water content, the second one for  
114       measuring water activity and glass transition temperature and the third one for measuring  
115       water activity and biological activity of lactic acid bacteria (viability and acidification  
116       activity).

117

### 118       *2.3. Water activity and water content measurements*

119       The moisture content of the samples was measured by the Karl Fisher titration method  
120       using a Metrohom KF 756 apparatus (Herisau, Switzerland). At least 20 mg of powder were  
121       mixed with 2 mL of dry methanol and titrated with Riedel-deHaen reagent (Seelze, Germany)  
122       until the end point was reached. The water activity of the samples was measured at 25°C  
123       using an  $a_w$  meter labMaster-aw (Novasina, Precisa, Poissy, France).

124

### 125       *2.4. Glass transition temperature measurement*

126       Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurements were performed on two different  
127       power compensation DSC equipments (Perkin Elmer LLC, Norwalk, CT, USA) depending on  
128       the moisture content of the samples: a Pyris 1 equipped with a mechanical cooling system for  
129       the low moisture content samples exhibiting thermal events at the higher temperatures (>0°C)

130 and a Diamond equipped with liquid nitrogen cooling accessory (CryoFill) for the high  
131 moisture content samples (lower temperatures). Temperature calibration was done using  
132 cyclohexane (crystal-crystal transition at -87.1°C), mercury (melting point at -38.6°C) and  
133 indium (melting point at 156°C) for the Diamond; and cyclohexane (melting point at 6.5°C),  
134 n-octodecane (melting point at 27.8°C) and indium for the Pyris 1. About 10 mg of each  
135 sample was placed in 50 µl Perkin Elmer DSC sealed aluminium pans. An empty pan was  
136 used as a reference. Linear cooling and heating rates of 10°C min<sup>-1</sup> were used. The  
137 characteristic glass transition temperature (Tg) of samples was determined as the midpoint  
138 temperature of the heat flow step associated with glass transition with respect to the ASTM  
139 Standard Method E 1356-91. Results were obtained from at least four replicates.

140

141 *2.5 Biological activity measurement*

142 The samples were rehydrated in skim milk to the initial dry matter of the protected  
143 bacterial suspension before freeze-drying. Viability of *Lactobacillus bulgaricus* CFL1 was  
144 determined by plate assays on MRS (Biokar Diagnostics, France) agar plates. The Petri dishes  
145 were incubated under anaerobic conditions (GENbox96124, BioMérieux, Marcy l'Etoile,  
146 France) at 42°C for 48 h before counting.

147 The acidification activity of 100-µl samples was measured in milk at 42°C, in triplicate,  
148 using the CINAC System (Corrieu et al., 1988). The time necessary to reach the maximum  
149 acidification rate in milk ( $t_m$ , in minutes) was used to characterise the acidification activity of  
150 the bacterial suspensions. The higher the  $t_m$ , the longer the latency phase and the lower the  
151 acidification activity. The acidification activity was measured after equilibration of the  
152 samples at various relative humidity conditions and after various time of storage at 25°C of  
153 the equilibrated samples.

154

155 **3. Results and discussion**156 *3.1. Sorption isotherm and glass transition of the lyophilized bacterial matrix*

157 Figure 1 displays the glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) and the water content of the  
158 lyophilized *Lb bulgaricus* CFL1 in sucrose matrix as a function of water activity ( $a_w$ ) at 25°C.  
159 The  $T_g$  decreased with water absorption by the matrix. The decrease was linear as water  
160 activity increased from 0.1 to 0.7, which is typical of various amorphous foods (Roos &  
161 Karel, 1991; Roos, 1987). The relationship between water content and water activity was  
162 modelled using the well-known equations of Brunauer-Emmet-Tellet (BET) and  
163 Guggenheim-Anderson-de Boer (GAB):

164 GAB equation:  $m = \frac{M_M C_{G/B} K a_w}{(1 - a_w)(1 - K a_w + C_{G/B} K a_w)}$  Equation 1

165 Where  $m$  is the water content (g/g or g/100g, in dry or wet solid),  $M_M$  is the monolayer  
166 water coverage (or the moisture content at fully occupied active sorption sites with one  
167 molecule of water),  $C_{G/B}$  and  $K$  are adjustable parameters. The BET equation corresponds to  
168 the equation 1 with the parameter  $K$  equal to 1.

169 By using the sorption isotherm, it is possible to calculate the water content value for each  
170 experimental value of glass transition temperature. The Gordon and Taylor's equation was  
171 used to model data on  $T_g$  of the lyophilized bacterial matrix:

172 
$$T_{gm} = \frac{X_w T_{gw} + k_{GT}(1 - X_w)T_{gs}}{X_w + k_{GT}(1 - X_w)}$$
 Equation 2

173 Where  $T_{gm}$ ,  $T_{gs}$ , and  $T_{gw}$ , are the glass transition temperatures (K) of the mixture, of the  
174 solids and the water, respectively,  $X_w$  is the mass fraction of water, and  $k_{GT}$  is a constant. The  
175 glass transition temperature of pure water was taken as  $T_{gw} = -135^\circ\text{C}$ .

176 The resulting parameters of the GAB, BET and Gordon and Taylor equations are reported  
177 in Table 1. The table was completed with data from literature works on bacteria, proteins and  
178 sugars.

179 Using the relationships between water activity, water content and glass transition  
180 temperature, the physical storage stability of the lyophilized product can be predicted.  
181 Referring to the critical T<sub>g</sub> of 25°C, corresponding to storage at ambient temperature, the co-  
182 lyophilized matrix of *Lb bulgaricus* CFL1 and sucrose showed a critical value of water  
183 activity of 0.241 corresponding to a critical value of water content of 3.9%. This critical a<sub>w</sub>  
184 value is in accordance with previous work reported on LAB freeze-dried in sugar matrix  
185 (around 0.25) and slightly higher than the critical a<sub>w</sub> value of pure sucrose (0.235). This small  
186 effect of bacteria was previously observed by (Fonseca et al., 2001). The low value observed  
187 for the matrix LAB + sucrose + Md 12 (0.145) may be ascribed to the presence of  
188 maltodextrin resulting in changes in sorption properties.

189 The parameters, M<sub>M</sub> and C<sub>B</sub>, of the BET equation have both physical significance: the  
190 amount of water needed to achieve monolayer coverage and the energy term related to overall  
191 energy of absorption, respectively. For *Lb bulgaricus* CFL1 co-lyophilized with sucrose or  
192 fermented medium composed of various sugars, M<sub>M</sub> tended to be lower than that expected  
193 value based on contributions of the pure bacteria and protective medium. This deviation  
194 suggests that the interaction of amorphous sugars and bacteria in the solid state reduces the  
195 availability of water-binding sites. The M<sub>M</sub> value, lower than expected, may also be  
196 considered as evidence of the water replacement mechanism proposed for preservation of  
197 dehydrated biological systems: i.e. hydrogen bonding between the sugar and the  
198 biomolecules, especially the membrane proteins, when water is removed during drying  
199 (Carpenter & Crowe, 1989; Costantino et al., 1998; Crowe et al., 1988; Prestrelski et al.,  
200 1993). Furthermore, a number of physicochemical properties change at the monolayer water  
201 coverage: heat capacity, protein conformational state, etc (Lechuga-Ballesteros et al., 2002).  
202 The mobility of water is restricted below M<sub>M</sub> and water molecules are tightly bound to others  
203 molecules (proteins, polymers, small solutes) at such hydration levels (Lechuga-Ballesteros et

204 al., 2002). It has been suggested that the onset of internal protein flexibility correlated well  
205 with the attainment of monolayer coverage of water (Hageman, 1992). Thus freeze-dried  
206 proteins might exhibit increased instability above the monolayer coverage, and therefore BET  
207 monolayer water coverage appears as a useful physical property for protein formulation  
208 development (Costantino et al., 1997, 1998). Some other studies have suggested that the  
209 optimal water content for stability corresponds to the water content needed for monolayer  
210 coverage of the available surface (Hsu et al., 1992; Karel & Labuza, 1967). Concerning lactic  
211 acid bacteria, it seems interesting to verify if the relationship between  $M_M$  and the optimal  
212 water content is the same as for proteins.

213

214 *3.2. Effect of water activity on the acidification activity of freeze-dried bacteria*

215 Figure 2 displays the evolution of the acidification activity characterized by the  
216 parameter  $t_m$  as a function of the water activity of the freeze-dried bacterial suspension just  
217 after  $a_w$  equilibration of the samples, and after 7, 10 and 29 days of storage at 25°C. The lower  
218 the  $t_m$  value, the higher the acidification activity. An inversed bell-shape curve was observed  
219 with a minimal  $t_m$  value, and thus a maximal acidification activity around a value of water  
220 activity of 0.2 whatever the storage time. As expected, the  $t_m$  value increased with the storage  
221 time and that increase appeared more pronounced for the high values of water activity. The  
222 degradation of the acidification activity can be ascribed to the cell death and/or to cell  
223 membrane damages leading to higher latency phase. In order to combine the viability and the  
224 acidification activity, the specific acidification activity ( $t_{spe}$ , in min/log(CFU/ml)) was defined  
225 as the ratio of  $t_m$  to the corresponding log of cell concentration (Streit et al., 2007). Figure 3  
226 showed the evolution of the specific acidification activity ( $t_{spe}$ ) with the storage time for three  
227 relative humidity conditions. Whatever the water activity of the samples, the parameter  $t_{spe}$   
228 increased linearly with storage time according to the following relationship:

229                    $t_{spe} = k_{spe} \times \text{Storage time} + A$                    Equation 3

230                 Where  $k_{spe}$  is the slope of the regression line (in (min/(log(CFU/ml))/day or  $t_{spe}/\text{day}$ )  
231                 and represents the rate of loss in specific acidification activity during storage. A higher slope  
232                 indicated a faster decrease of the specific acidification activity and, consequently a lower  
233                 resistance to storage under various relative humidity conditions. Previous works have already  
234                 described the acidification activity loss with storage time as a linear relationship for frozen  
235                 lactic acid concentrates (Fonseca et al., 2000; Streit et al., 2007). The rate constants of loss of  
236                 specific acidification activity  $k_{spe}$  at storage temperature of 25°C are plotted as function of  
237                 water activity in Figure 4. The water activity threshold between glassy and rubbery states as  
238                 well as the values of the temperature difference between the storage temperature and the glass  
239                 transition temperature ( $T_{storage}-T_g$ ) are shown. Storage of the co-lyophilized matrix of *Lb*  
240                 *bulgaricus* CFL1 and sucrose below  $T_g$ , where the molecular mobility is sharply reduced due  
241                 to the very viscosity of the amorphous state, resulted in very low rates of loss of specific  
242                 acidification activity, lower than 2  $t_{spe}/\text{day}$ . The specific acidification activity loss rate did not  
243                 sharply increase with increasing water activity, as would be expected given the plasticizing  
244                 effect of water on  $T_g$  and thus on mobility. The acceleration of the degradation reactions  
245                 starts at water activity higher than 0.33 and  $T_{storage}-T_g$  higher than 10°C. Furthermore, for  
246                 water activity around 0.5-0.6, the degradation rate tends to decrease. This unpredicted event  
247                 can be ascribed to a physical change in the matrix, probably related to the sugar  
248                 crystallization. After this event, the rate of loss of specific acidification activity sharply  
249                 increases, probably due to the H- bonding breakage between the protecting sugar and cell  
250                 biomolecules (like membrane proteins and phospholipids).

251                 Many works have related the glass transition to the kinetics of diffusion-controlled  
252                 chemical reaction such as Maillard reaction or nonenzymatic browning (NEB), a very  
253                 important chemical reaction in foods (Bhandari & Howes, 1999; Buera & Karel, 1995;

254 Karmas et al., 1992; Lievonen et al., 2002; Roos & Himberg, 1994; Schebor et al., 1999).  
255 Even if a non reducing sugar (sucrose) was used in the protective medium added to the *Lb*  
256 *bulgaricus* CFL1 suspension before freeze-drying, some browning of the powder was  
257 observed for the  $a_w$  values higher than 0.5. That browning could be ascribed to the residual  
258 fermented medium containing reducing sugars (lactose, glucose, galactose) in the  
259 concentrated bacterial suspension and/or to the hydrolysis of sucrose in acidic conditions.  
260 Several authors have investigated the Maillard reaction rate in milk powders or dehydrated  
261 model systems and have shown relationships between the reaction rates and the physical state  
262 of the amorphous matrix (Buera & Karel, 1995; Karmas et al., 1992; Pereyra Gonzales et al.,  
263 2010; Schebor et al., 1999). A large increase in the nonenzymatic browning rate was reported  
264 at a range of 2°C to 40°C above Tg (Karmas et al., 1992; Lievonen et al., 1998; Pereyra  
265 Gonzales et al., 2010; Roos et al., 1996). Water plasticization increases molecular mobility,  
266 which may also result in the conversion of sugars such as sucrose and lactose from the  
267 amorphous state to the crystalline state (Roos & Karel, 1992). In closed systems,  
268 disaccharides crystallization will induce an increase in  $a_w$  due to the release of water from  
269 amorphous sugar, thus accelerating deteriorative changes such as NEB (Jouppila & Roos,  
270 1994a; Vuataz, 2002). Above glass transition temperature, the nonenzymatic browning rate in  
271 model systems appeared to be influenced by the temperature difference (T-Tg) (Buera &  
272 Karel, 1995). Furthermore, nonenzymatic browning has been showed to proceed at the slow  
273 rate even well below the glass transition temperature (Karmas et al., 1992; Lievonen et al.,  
274 1998; Roos & Himberg, 1994; Schebor et al., 1999), which could explain the small losses of  
275 specific acidification activity observed at low moisture content (T < Tg). .

276 The inactivation of freeze-dried lactic acid bacteria during storage almost certainly  
277 resulted not only from the nonenzymatic browning but also from other complex chemical  
278 reactions such as oxidation, protein denaturation etc (Kurtmann et al., 2009a; Lai & Topp,

279 1999; Teixeira et al., 1996). The mechanism of diffusion limited chemical reaction associated  
280 to the glassy state does not allows to wholly explain the complex bacteria inactivation  
281 behavior. The various works on freeze-dried lactic acid bacteria revealed that the bacteria  
282 inactivation rate increased with water content and that storage of the samples in the glassy  
283 state led to a better survival of bacteria(Higl et al., 2007; Kurtmann et al., 2009b; Pehkonen et  
284 al., 2008; Schoug et al., 2010; Selma et al., 2007). However, there is no common acceptance  
285 to identify the glass transition temperature as a stability threshold. Some authors reported the  
286 acceleration of the degradation rate for temperature lower than T<sub>g</sub> and others authors for  
287 temperature well above the T<sub>g</sub>. Furthermore, the inactivation rate appears to depend on the  
288 strain of the lactic acid bacteria and on the composition of the protective medium. For  
289 instance, the inactivation rate of bacteria freeze-dried in a lactose matrix was reported higher  
290 than the inactivation rate of bacteria freeze-dried in a sucrose matrix (Kurtmann et al., 2009b).

291 Among the various works investigating the stability of freeze-dried lactic acid bacteria  
292 (Higl et al., 2007; Kurtmann et al., 2009b; Pehkonen et al., 2008; Schoug et al., 2010; Selma  
293 et al., 2007; Zayed & Roos, 2004), very few have focused on the study of the inactivation rate  
294 at low moisture content and below T<sub>g</sub>. Figure 5 displays the relationships between water  
295 activity, water content, glass transition temperature and the rate of specific acidification  
296 activity loss. Additional sets of experimental data on bacteria stability have been included.  
297 The three batches of freeze-dried bacteria differed in the physiological state of the bacteria  
298 obtained after the fermentation process. The values of a<sub>w</sub> corresponding to the monolayer  
299 water coverage (M<sub>M</sub>) and to the threshold between glassy and rubbery states (T<sub>storage</sub>-T<sub>g</sub> = 0)  
300 are reported in the figure. Whatever the batch, very low rates of loss of specific acidification  
301 activity were observed for water activities lower than the a<sub>w</sub> value corresponding the  
302 monolayer water coverage M<sub>M</sub> (a<sub>w</sub> = 0.214) and the rates tended to increase for a<sub>w</sub> value  
303 lower than 0.1. The optimal range of water activity and water content for *Lb bulgaricus* CFL1

freeze-dried in sucrose matrix appears to be 0.1 – 0.241 and 2.5 – 3.7%, respectively. For values of  $a_w$  comprised between 0.214 (corresponding to  $M_M$ ) and 0.241 (corresponding to  $T_{storage}$ - $T_g = 0^\circ\text{C}$ ), the rate of loss of specific acidification activity slightly increased. And the increase of loss rate became more pronounced for  $a_w$  values higher than 0.241. The mobility of water is restricted below  $M_M$  since water molecules are tightly bound to biomolecules surface at such hydration levels. Moreover, at constant temperature, the water mobility above  $M_M$  and below the amount of water required to depress  $T_g$  to the storage temperature is increased, but remains lower than the mobility in rubbery state.

Research works mentioning optimal storage stability at intermediate moisture content for freeze-dried biological product such as protein, viruses, gene vectors, DNA lipoplex formulation and lactic acid bacteria (*Lb bulgaricus*, *Lb rhamnosus* and *Lb salivarius*) are rare but do exist (Breen et al., 2001; Chang et al., 2005b; Croyle et al., 2001; Greiff, 1970; Hsu et al., 1992; Pehkonen et al., 2008; Pikal et al., 1992; Scott, 1958; Teixeira et al., 1995; Yu & Anchordoquy, 2009; Zayed & Roos, 2004). Teixeira et al., 1995 also reported greatest survival rate for *Lb bulgaricus* spray dried with skim milk stored at 4°C and 20°C for  $a_w$  values of 0.11 and 0.23, respectively. According to Chang et al., 2005a, optimal stability at intermediate water content appears to support the water substitute mechanism for protein stabilization. That is, the water substitute concept states that the hydrogen bonding between water and protein is critical to the thermodynamic stability of protein. At low to intermediate water level, the water may be binding to the hydrogen-bonding sites on the surface of protein which have not been occupied by the sugars. Therefore the stability can be improved with the addition of small amount of water. Furthermore, no antioxidant was added to the *Lb bulgaricus* CFL1 concentrated suspension before freeze-drying. In very dry formulations, different oxidation pathways appear to dominate protein and lipid degradation (Yu & Anchordoquy, 2009). The rate of oxidation is observed to have a minimum at the monolayer

329 hydration level, and to increase at lower and higher water contents (Labuza, 1980; Lai &  
330 Topp, 1999; Pikal et al., 1991). This antioxidant effect of water has been ascribed to its  
331 interaction with functional groups, which blocks these reaction sites, thereby preventing them  
332 from interacting with oxygen (Lechuga-Ballesteros et al., 2002). The losses of specific  
333 acidification activity observed at low  $a_w$  values may then be ascribed to oxidative membrane  
334 mechanisms (Kurtmann et al., 2009a; Teixeira et al., 1996).

335

336 **4. Conclusion:**

337 The stability of lactic acid bacteria in a glass or rubbery sucrose matrix at different  
338 water activity environments was analyzed. The physical properties of the matrix were  
339 determined by means of state diagram and sorption isotherm. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller  
340 (BET) equation was used to describe the sorption properties and to determine the monolayer  
341 water coverage  $M_M$ , reported as the optimal value of water content for product stability. When  
342 plotting the loss rate of specific acidification activity of *Lb bulgaricus* CFL1 as a function of  
343 water activity and positioning the  $a_w$  values corresponding to the  $M_M$  parameter ( $a_w(M_M)$ ) and  
344 to  $T_{storage} - T_g = 0^\circ\text{C}$  ( $a_w(T_g)$ ), the  $a_w(M_M)$  appears as a threshold value for bacteria stability.  
345 Above  $a_w(M_M)$ , the degradation rate slightly increased and this increased was more  
346 pronounced above  $a_w(T_g)$ , attributable to the physical changes of the matrix. Furthermore, a  
347 slight increase of the degradation rate was also observed for very low value of  $a_w$  (<0.1),  
348 probably caused by oxidative mechanisms and slow but still present Maillard reaction.

349 Our experimental results and especially the very low value of  $M_M$  compared to the  
350 value of the pure sugar provide some evidences of a protective mechanism of sucrose: direct  
351 interaction with the bacteria by establishing hydrogen bonding with the membrane proteins  
352 and/or the lipid bilayer. Further studies are in progress to verify this mechanism and also to  
353 generalize this approach with other protective medium including polymers or

354 polysaccharides. The concept of monolayer water coverage provides an interesting framework  
355 for describing effects of water on the stability of glassy solids and is useful in the  
356 development of freeze-dried biological products. Overdrying may be detrimental to the  
357 stability of bacteria in the dried state, even when formulated with disaccharides. Combining  
358 the relationships between water activity and glass transition temperature, water content and  
359 biological activity appeared as a promising approach allowing a rational optimization of the  
360 freeze drying process and the prediction of storage stability of lactic acid bacteria.

361

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366

367

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- 558
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- 561

562 **Table captions**

563

564 **Table 1.** Estimated values of the parameters of the BET, GAB and Gordon and Taylor  
565 equations for the concentrated suspension *Lactobacillus bulgaricus* CFL1 lyophilized in a  
566 sucrose matrix and for selected bacterial suspensions and pure solutes.

567

568

569

570 **Figure Captions**

571

572 **Fig. 1.** Relationships between glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ), water activity ( $a_w$ ) and water  
573 content (m) for bacterial suspension freeze-dried in a sucrose matrix. Lines indicate the  
574 location of critical  $T_g$ ,  $a_w$  and m values at 25°C.

575

576 **Fig. 2.** Acidification activity ( $t_m$ ) of lyophilized *Lactobacillus bulgaricus* CFL1 in a sucrose  
577 matrix as a function of water activity for different storage times (ts) at 25°C.

578

579 **Fig. 3.** Specific acidification activity ( $t_{spe}$ ) of lyophilized *Lactobacillus bulgaricus* CFL1 in a  
580 sucrose matrix as a function of storage time (ts) at 25°C for different values of water activity  
581 (0.177; 0.326; 0.551).  $k_{spe}$ : rate of loss of specific acidification activity during storage at 25°C  
582 ((min/(log(CFU/ml))/day);  $t_{spe} = 0.2 \times ts + 40.7$  ( $a_w = 0.177$ );  $t_{spe} = 1.5 \times ts + 46.4$  ( $a_w =$   
583 0.326));  $t_{spe} = 8.1 \times ts + 77$  ( $a_w = 0.551$ )).

584

585 **Fig.4.** Rate of loss of specific acidification activity during storage at 25°C of lyophilized  
586 *Lactobacillus bulgaricus* CFL1 in a sucrose matrix ( $k_{spe}$ , in (min/(log(CFU/ml))/day)) as a  
587 function of water activity ( $a_w$ ). A vertical line indicates the threshold value of  $a_w$  between the  
588 glassy and the rubbery states. In bold under the x axis, are reported the values of the  
589 temperature difference  $T - T_g$ , (with  $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$ ) corresponding to the  $a_w$  values.

590

591 **Fig. 5.** Relationships between rate of loss of specific acidification activity during storage at  
592 25°C ( $k_{spe}$ , in (min/(log(CFU/ml))/day)), glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ), water activity ( $a_w$ )  
593 and water content (m) for bacterial suspension freeze-dried in a sucrose matrix.

594 Vertical/horizontal dotted lines indicate the threshold value of  $a_w$  between the glassy and the  
595 rubbery states, as well as the corresponding values of Tg and m. Vertical/horizontal bold grey  
596 lines indicate the values of  $a_w$ , Tg and m corresponding to the water monolayer coverage  $M_M$   
597 (estimated from the BET equation). In bold under the x axis, are reported the values of the  
598 temperature difference  $T-T_g$ , (with  $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$ ) corresponding to the  $a_w$  values.

599

**Table 1**

	BET		GAB			$a_w$ critical (Tg = 25°C)	Gordon Taylor		References
	M <sub>M</sub>	C <sub>B</sub>	M <sub>M</sub>	C <sub>G</sub>	K		Tgs	k <sub>GT</sub>	
LAB <sup>a</sup> + sucrose	3.67	13.53	4.87	3.80	0.97	0.241	66.3	7.6	This work
LAB <sup>a</sup> + fermented medium			10.6	0.682	1.005	0.24	33.6	4.5	(Fonseca et al., 2001)
Fermented medium			15.8	0.724	0.998	0.14	33.7	4.6	
LAB <sup>b</sup>			8.7						(Selma et al., 2007)
LAB <sup>b</sup> + M17 broth			11.8			0.083	50		
LAB <sup>b</sup> + M17 broth + protective medium			5.6			0.250	64		
LAB <sup>b</sup> + M17 broth + protective medium + gelatine			6.9			0.283	83		
LAB <sup>c</sup> + lactose						0.26			(Higl et al., 2007)
LAB <sup>d</sup> + sucrose + MD 12						0.145			(Kurtmann et al., 2009b)
LAB <sup>d</sup> + lactose + MD 12						0.228			
Glucose	5.4	0.3					31/36	4.52	(Zhang & Zografi, 2000)
Dextran	6.2	13.5					200		
Trehalose	6.4	5.0					115		
Starch	6.6	17.9					225		
Sucrose	6-7*					0.236	62	5.42	(Roos, 1993, 1997)
Lactose	6.29	3.55	4.91	4.33	1.18	0.37	97	6.7	(Jouppila & Roos, 1994a, , 1994b)
Skim milk	5.47	11.30	5.10	12.11	1.08	0.37	92	6.7	
Isolated Soy	3.5								(Teng et al., 1991)
Lipase	5.1								
Protein	5-7								(Costantino et al., 1998)
Protein + trehalose	5								

<sup>a</sup> *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* ssp. *bulgaricus* CFL1

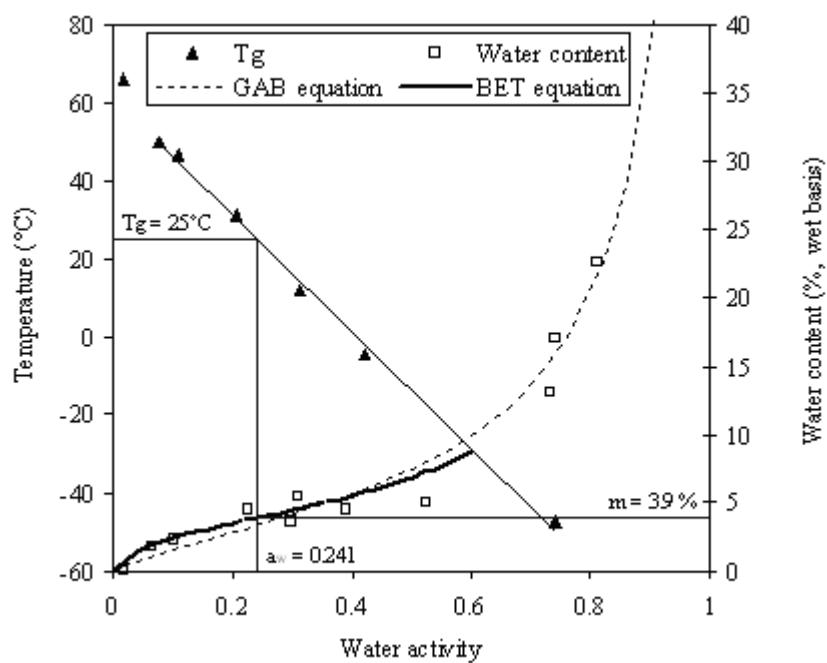
<sup>b</sup> *Streptococcus thermophilus* S. Bo1 ; the protective mesium was composed of skim milk, sucrose and L-ascorbic acid.

<sup>c</sup> *Lactobacillus paracasei* ssp. *paracasei* (F19)

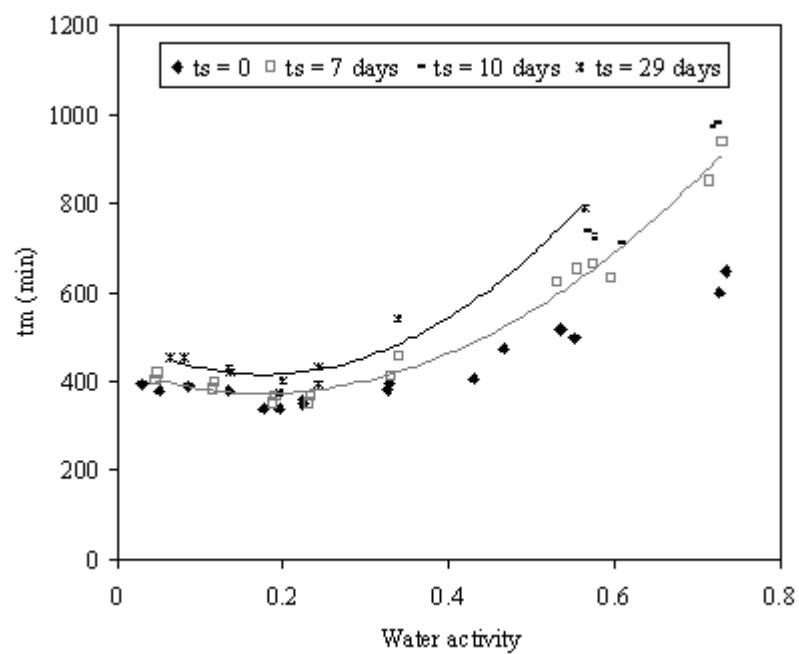
<sup>d</sup> *Lactobacillus acidophilus* (La-5), MD 12: maltodextin with a dextrose equivalent of 12.

\* Estimated from (Costantino et al., 1998)

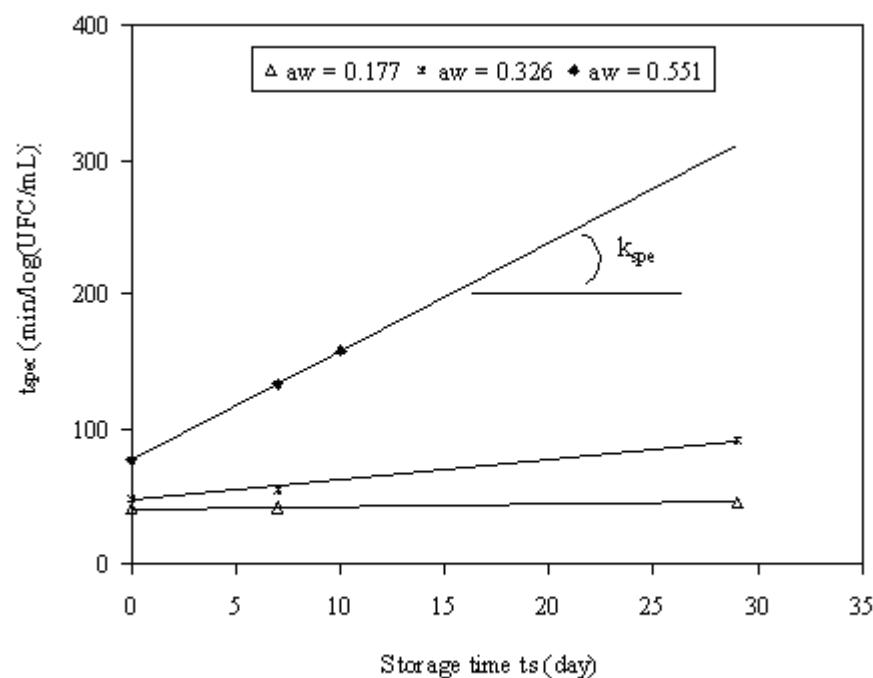
**Figure 1**



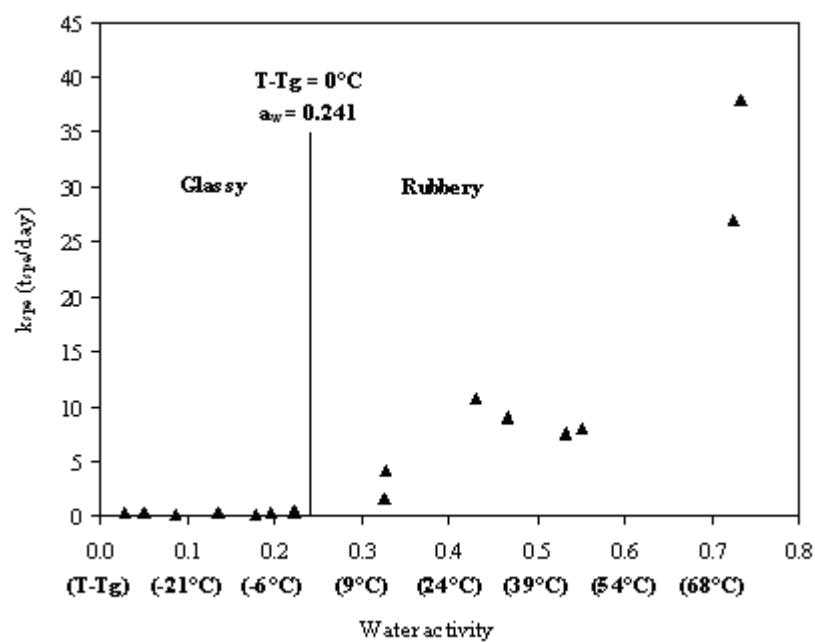
**Figure 2**



**Figure 3**



**Figure 4**



**Figure 5**

