

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FREEZING RATE AND MEAN ICE CRYSTAL SIZE FOR COFFEE EXTRACTS

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Coffee extracts—10, 20 and 40% solids content—were uni-directionally frozen. The parameters characterizing freezing kinetics, such as the rate of fall of temperature and the velocity of ice front, were determined experimentally and compared with the predictions of Neumann's model. Freeze dried samples were subsequently observed under a fluorescence microscope and the mean size of ice crystals were determined from the mean hydraulic radius of the pores. A model linking the mean hydraulic radius with freezing kinetics was developed, and the following equation was obtained: $r_H = n \exp(-mX_s) [2\delta^2 \alpha_1 / s_i]^{-0.25} [(T_m - T_p) s_i^{-1}]^{-0.5}$. Here, X_s is solid content, δ is Neumann's dimensionless constant, t is time, T_m is the initial freezing point of the extract, T_p is the freezing temperature, α_1 is the thermal diffusivity of the frozen region, s_i is the position of the ice front and finally n and m are material related constants. Experimental data and model predictions were found to be in satisfactory agreement.

Keywords: coffee; food; freezing; ice crystal size.

INTRODUCTION

A knowledge of ice crystal size distribution in frozen products is necessary in order to assess the effect of freezing on product quality. If the product is subsequently freeze dried, the drying kinetics and the quality of the dried product is also critically dependent on the ice crystal size distribution, since it influences the nature of the pores left behind by the subliming crystals¹. Even though it is widely recognized that the ice crystal size distribution generated during freezing is critically dependent on freezing rates, there are relatively few studies that have focused quantitatively on their interrelationship, particularly for food products. This article aims to develop a model that links ice crystal size distribution with freezing kinetics for coffee extracts containing different levels of total solids.

The kinetics of freezing has been widely studied, and the determination of freezing times requires analysing conductive heat flow through frozen and unfrozen layers. The most common analyses are either based on Plank or Neumann's models which are valid for unidirectional freezing^{2,3}. While Plank's model assumes quasi-steady state heat transfer, the Neumann's model is more generally applicable and is based on unsteady state conduction through frozen and unfrozen layers. Bomben and King⁴ suggested the use of Plank's model to describe freezing kinetics of apple tissues and deduced a relationship between freezing rates and mean crystal size. On the other hand, Woinet *et al.*⁵ have used Neumann's model to establish the link between freezing kinetics and ice crystal size for low concentration gelatin solutions (1%). Both these studies base their theories on an earlier work by Rohatgi and Adams⁶ who investigated ice

crystallization from dilute salt solutions. In the context of coffee extracts, there are some studies linking freezing rates with the quality of the freeze dried product, but the relationship has largely been described on a qualitative basis⁷⁻⁹. In the present study, ice crystal sizes in frozen coffee have been determined by image analysis, and linked with freezing rates described by Neumann's model.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Coffee Solution

Nescafé coffee granules were used to prepare solutions of three different concentrations ($X_s = 0.1, 0.2$ and 0.4 kg solids/kg solution). The granules were dissolved in deionized water. The concentration of the samples was measured with a digital refractometer and the Brix data were converted into concentration figures using the tables reported by Sivetz and Desrosier¹⁰. The freezing point of each of the samples was determined by differential scanning calorimetry—peak temperature—and expressed as follows to within $\pm 0.4^\circ\text{C}$:

$$T_m = 4.18X_s^2 - 21.03X_s + 273.15 \quad (1)$$

Determination of Freezing Kinetics

Coffee solutions (30 g) were frozen uni-directionally in Perspex cylinders of internal diameter 50 mm. The bottom of the cylinder was fixed to an aluminium tray and the upper end was covered with an insulating cap after pouring the sample. Four thermocouples were introduced through the wall of the cylinder in order to record the temperature at

the following axial positions measured from the bottom end: 2, 7, 12 mm and the last thermocouple was positioned on the top of the cylinder with its tip covered by the liquid coffee. Due to differences in density between samples with different solute concentration, it is assumed that the positions of the last thermocouple were 16, 15 and 14 mm for the samples with solute concentration 10%, 20% and 40%, respectively. The cylinder wall was then insulated and the tray was placed in contact with a metallic surface that could be maintained at the following temperatures: -18°C , -30°C and -70°C . Temperatures were recorded every minute until solidification was complete.

Determination of Ice Crystal Size

The size of ice crystals was characterized by determining the pore size left after freeze drying the samples. The solid material, after freezing, was separated from the Perspex cylinder while maintaining its shape, and cooled to -70°C using dry ice. A thin frozen layer was removed from the top in order to eliminate end effects on subsequent measurements¹¹. The frozen cylindrical samples were then freeze dried in a Stokes freeze dryer at a maximum pressure of 93 Pa. Latent heat for sublimation was provided by radiation from two plates maintained below 20°C , one placed above the sample, and the other, below it. Conditions were set to avoid melting and/or collapse of the samples, therefore, the ice front temperature was maintained below -20°C which has been determined as the glass transition temperature of the amorphous solid in the frozen coffee. The sample weight was recorded at regular intervals, and drying continued until no change in weight was observed over a period of at least one hour. The dried samples were subjected to image analysis.

A Zeiss fluorescence microscope (Axioscope II) fitted with a Zeiss camera (AxioCam) and image analysis software (Axiovision) was used to obtain images of the pores as viewed from the top of the cylinder. Digital images with a resolution of 1030×1300 pixels were analyzed using Scion image software (Beta 4.0.2) as shown in Figure 1. Three images from each sample were analysed. At least 150 pores were identified manually on each image; and the distribution of pore areas, A , and perimeters, p_r , were obtained. Data from all three images were normalized to give cumulative distribution parameters. The mean was taken to be the value that gave a distribution of 0.5. This procedure was repeated for three separate samples to yield the mean and standard

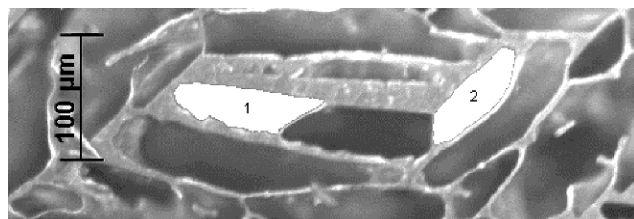


Figure 1. Digital image of the surface of the freeze-dried sample magnified $10\times$. The lightly shaded region represents amorphous solid matrix, while the darker regions represent the pores left after the sublimation of ice. Regions marked 1 and 2 represent two typical pores, which have been highlighted. The Scion image software measures the area and perimeter of such highlighted regions by counting pixels. The area of this image represents 1/20 of the total area of one microphotograph.

deviation of the pore areas and perimeter. The mean pore size was characterized in terms of a hydraulic radius (r_H) defined as:

$$r_H = \frac{2A}{p_r} \quad (2)$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Freezing Kinetics

A typical temperature profile during freezing is shown in Figure 2. The solid lines represent values estimated by Neumann's model², according to which, temperatures at any position in the frozen and unfrozen zones are respectively given by:

$$T_1 = T_p + (T_m - T_p) \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{x}{2\sqrt{\alpha_1 t}} \right) / \operatorname{erf}(\delta) \quad (3)$$

$$T_2 = \frac{T_0}{\operatorname{erfc}(\delta/\gamma\bar{\alpha}^{0.5})} + (T_m - T_0) \operatorname{erfc} \left\{ \alpha^{-0.5} \left[\frac{x}{2\sqrt{\alpha_1 t}} + \frac{(1-\gamma)\delta}{\gamma} \right] \right\} \quad (4)$$

The thermophysical properties used in the model have been averaged over the intervals $[T_p, T_m]$ for the frozen layer and $[T_m, T_0]$ for the unfrozen layer. The methods used to estimate these properties are explained in Appendix 1. Neumann's model gives a satisfactory prediction of temperature variations, although deviations are observed below T_m which are probably due to the assumption made by the model in respect of the geometry of the sample (i.e. semi-infinite) and the negligible thickness of the solidification front. It is necessary to note that Neumann's model, like any other moving boundary model, is ideal and limited in its description of a real process such as the freezing of coffee extracts. In addition to the inherent deficiency of the Neumann's model, the thermophysical properties were averaged and this could also have influenced the result to some extent. Nevertheless, the prediction of the movement of the ice front—i.e. the time at which the temperature at any axial position attains T_m —is more relevant to this work, and Neumann's model describes this movement satisfactorily.

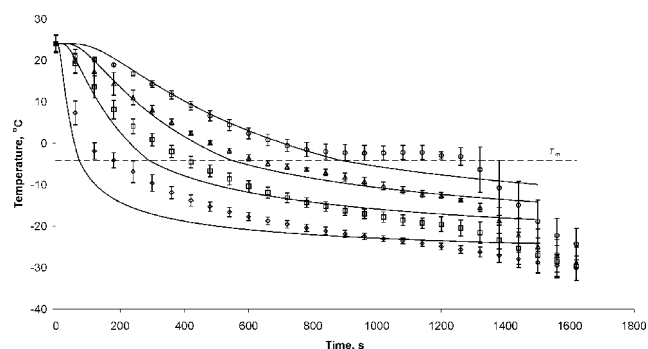


Figure 2. Temperature profiles at different positions upon a typical unidirectional freezing process ($x_{so} = 0.2$, $T_p = -30^{\circ}\text{C}$). Axial positions measured from the bottom end of the sample: (\diamond) 2 mm, (\square) 7 mm, (\triangle) 12 mm (\circ) 15 mm. Broken horizontal line represent the initial solidification point. Solid lines represent temperature profiles calculated from Neumann's model.

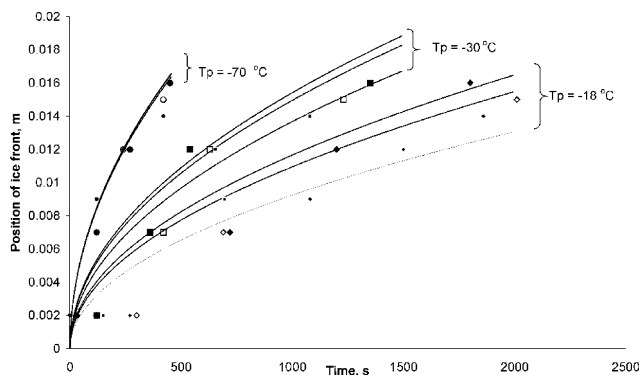


Figure 3. Position of ice front as a function of time: a comparison between predictions of Neumann's model and experimental data. The solid lines correspond to the estimated data from the model. In each temperature group the solid lines are organized depending on the initial solid content in the following order from top to bottom: 10%, 20% and 40%.

Key	Solid content %	Plate temperature °C
◆	10	-18
◇	20	-18
♦	40	-18
■	10	-30
□	20	-30
▪	40	-30
●	10	-70
○	20	-70
•	40	-70

As explained above, the movement of the freezing front can be determined using T_m (see equation (1)) as an indicator. In practice, whenever a thermocouple achieved T_m , the position of the thermocouple was taken to be the ice front position at that instant. Figure 3 shows the experimentally determined position of the ice front reconciled against values determined by Neumann's model. According to the model, the position of the ice front is given by:

$$s_i = 2\delta\sqrt{\alpha_1 t} \quad (5)$$

where δ is a characteristic dimensionless constant obtained as a solution of:

$$\Delta H_f = \frac{C_{p1}(T_m - T_p)}{\sqrt{\pi}\delta \exp(\delta^2) \operatorname{erf}(\delta)} - \frac{C_{p2}(T_0 - T_m)}{\sqrt{\pi}\delta/\gamma\bar{\alpha}^{0.5} \exp(\delta^2/\bar{\alpha}) \operatorname{erfc}(\delta/\bar{\alpha}^{0.5})} \quad (6)$$

Here ΔH_f is the effective latent heat of fusion, which has been corrected to account for the fraction of freezable water present in the sample (0.429 kg water/kg solids) in the following way $\Delta H_f = \Delta H_i (1 - 1.429X_s)$. The experimental data at all three freezing temperatures show no significant effect of coffee concentration on the movement of the ice front, although Neumann's model predicts some difference at low freezing rates. This can also be attributed to the assumption made in estimating thermophysical properties.

Tables 1 and 2 predict freezing times that are lower than those observed by 5–20%. Overall, the model under-predicts freezing time by an average of 11%. Additionally, there are discrepancies relating to the position of the ice front, especially around the top and bottom extremes of the sample. The explanation for the discrepancy observed in the bottom layers lies in the assumption that this layer freezes as soon as it makes contact with the bottom plate. With regard to the top layers, surface convection influences heat transfer despite the use of insulation, which the semi-infinite assumption of the model fails to consider.

Regardless, Figure 3 demonstrates that the Neumann's model is able to predict the rate of movement of the ice front at all times and all the freezing temperatures, especially in the range of low freezing plate temperatures. This can be further confirmed by fitting the experimental data on the transient position of the ice front to an equation of the type:

$$s_i = c_f \sqrt{t} \quad (7)$$

and comparing the values of c_f with $2\delta\sqrt{\alpha_1}$ (see equation (5)). As evident in Table 1, the two values are in satisfactory agreement. The statistical validity of these results is established in Table 2.

In addition to the movement of ice front, it is also useful to compare the freezing rates (F) determined experimentally and from Neumann's model. Although there are different ways of defining freezing^{12,13}, the most appropriate definition for the purpose of this work is to regard it as the rate of change of temperature at the instant when the freezing front reaches the point where the pores are to be measured (in this case, the surface of the cylinder). In the case of unidirectional freezing, F , can be readily calculated using the following equation¹⁴:

$$F_{\text{exp}} = \left. \frac{dT}{dt} \right|_{t=t_f} = RG \quad (8)$$

Table 1. A comparison between experimentally determined freezing kinetic parameters and the values estimated from Neumann's model.

X_s	T_p K	Experimental					Model				
		t_f s	δ	$c_f \times 10^4$ $\text{ms}^{-0.5}$	$R \times 10^6$ ms^{-1}	$F \times 10^3$ Ks^{-1}	t_f s	δ	$c_f \times 10^4$ $\text{ms}^{-0.5}$	$R \times 10^6$ ms^{-1}	$F \times 10^3$ Ks^{-1}
0.10	255.1	1980	0.22	4.50	5.06	5.04	1883	0.18	3.69	4.20	4.18
0.10	243.1	1320	0.28	5.60	7.71	13.46	1077	0.24	4.88	7.40	12.92
0.10	203.1	420	0.43	8.90	21.71	92.20	435	0.37	7.67	18.00	76.43
0.20	255.1	2040	0.26	5.10	5.65	8.29	1886	0.18	3.45	4.00	5.87
0.20	243.1	1230	0.29	5.60	7.98	18.11	1010	0.25	4.72	7.40	16.79
0.20	203.1	420	0.45	8.90	21.71	95.50	374	0.39	7.75	20.00	87.96
0.40	255.1	1860	0.26	4.50	5.22	3.84	2294	0.17	2.92	3.00	2.21
0.40	243.1	1080	0.34	5.70	8.67	13.81	1048	0.26	4.32	6.68	10.64
0.40	203.1	420	0.47	8.20	20.01	89.03	326	0.45	7.75	21.50	95.68

Experimental value of δ has been estimated from $c_f \alpha_1^{-0.5}/2$.

Table 2. Slope and correlation coefficient for the parity plot of freezing kinetic parameters.

	Correlation coefficient R^2	Slope
t_f	0.93	0.89
c_f	0.96	0.91
R	0.96	0.97
δ	0.95	0.89
F	0.98	1.03

where $R = dx/dt|_{x=x_i}$ and $G = (T_m - T_p)/x_i$. It is evident that R represents the final rate of movement of the ice front and G represents the temperature gradient of the frozen region at this instant. R can be determined from the experimental data by differentiating equation (7) with respect to time and setting $t = t_f = x_i^2/c_f$. Thus, the experimental value of R can be determined from the following equation:

$$R_{\text{exp}} = \frac{c_f}{2\sqrt{t_f}} = \frac{c_f^{1.5}}{2s_i} \quad (9)$$

It is also possible to determine R , independently, from Neumann's model by differentiating equation (5) with respect to time and setting $t = t_f = s_i^2/4\delta^2\alpha_1$. This yields:

$$R_{\text{model}} = \frac{2\delta^2\alpha_1}{s_i} \quad (10)$$

By substituting R_{exp} and R_{model} from equations (9) and (10) into equation (8) it is possible to determine experimental and model freezing rates, which are compared in Tables 1 and 2. It is clear from these tables that Neumann's model tends to over predict freezing times by 11% and under predict F by 3%. Nevertheless, given the assumptions made in respect of the thermophysical properties, these differences are acceptable, and reinforce the use of Neumann's model to predict freezing rates defined by equation (8).

Crystal Size

The cumulative crystal size distributions observed for different solid content and under different freezing conditions are shown in Figure 4. In Table 3 the inter-quartile range of the ice crystal size is shown for each experimental condition, which indicates the dispersion or spread of the data. The mean hydraulic radius (see equation (2)) is plotted against experimental freezing rate (equation (8)) in Figure 5. As seen from the error bars (\pm one standard deviation) in this figure, the variability in the observed mean crystal size tends to increase as freezing rate decreases in the same manner as the spread in the crystal size distribution. This can be attributed to the greater influence which crystal defects have on crystal growth at lower freezing rates than at higher freezing rates¹⁵. Therefore, at higher freezing rates the growth tends to be more organized and the variation in the mean crystal size is lower. It is clear from Figure 5 that experimental data can be correlated as follows:

$$r_H = c_1 F^{c_2} \quad (11)$$

where c_1 and c_2 are values that appear to be influenced by the solute concentration. Values of c_1 are found to vary in

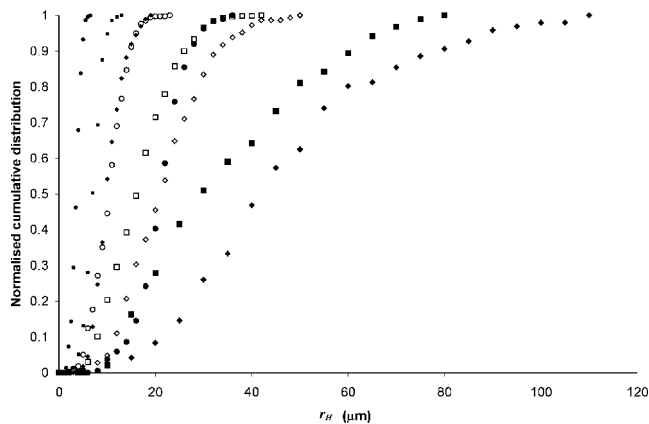


Figure 4. Cumulative crystal size distribution under different processing conditions.

Key	Solid content %	Plate temperature °C
◆	10	-18
◇	20	-18
♦	40	-18
■	10	-30
□	20	-30
▪	40	-30
●	10	-70
○	20	-70
•	40	-70

the interval $[1.7 \times 10^{-6}, 1.2 \times 10^{-5}]$, and those of c_2 vary over a narrow range $[-0.23, -0.32]$ under the authors experimental conditions. The usefulness of these constants is limited, unless they are related to a more fundamental model.

Earlier studies have characterized ice crystal growth during freezing in terms of a characteristic interdendritic distance, L , where ice dendrites are considered to be parallel needles growing opposite to the direction of heat transfer (see Figure 6)^{4,6,16}. As ice crystal grows, there is a rejection of solute (coffee solids) and heat from the moving interface into the remaining unfrozen liquid. Due to this movement of solute and heat, concentration gradients and thermal gradients are created in the interdendritic region, and consequently supersaturation and supercooling occur. As heat transfer rates are normally much greater than mass transfer rates, solute diffusion tends to control the growth of the

Table 3. Inter-quartile ranges of the ice crystal size distribution at different processing conditions.

X_s	T_p °C	$H_{r1} \times 10^5$ m	$H_{r2} \times 10^5$ m
10	-18.0	3.0	5.6
10	-30.0	1.9	4.6
10	-70.0	1.8	2.4
20	-18.0	1.5	2.7
20	-30.0	1.1	2.1
20	-70.0	0.8	1.3
40	-18.0	0.8	1.2
40	-30.0	0.6	0.8
40	-70.0	0.3	0.4

H_{r1} and H_{r2} are the lower and upper limits of the inter-quartile range, and correspond to the normalized cumulative distribution values of 0.25 and 0.75 respectively.

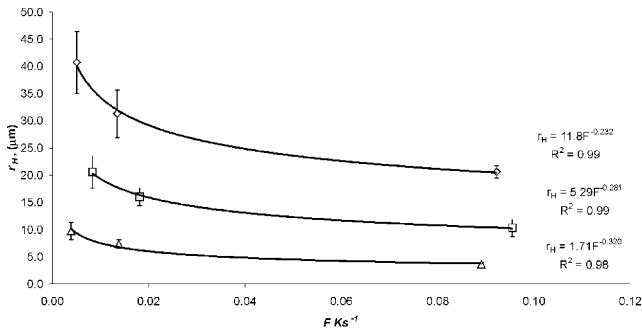


Figure 5. The variation of mean pore hydraulic radius (indicating ice crystal size) with freezing rate. (\diamond) 10% solids, (\square) 20% solids, (\triangle) 40% solids. The solid lines represent best fit curves of the form given by equation (11).

ice crystal. On the basis of this supercooling, theoretical equations to describe the interdendritic spacing have been proposed. Using a criterion known as growth at the extremum (i.e. minimum undercooling and maximum ice front velocity). Rohatgi and Adams⁶ have theoretically shown, using Fick's second law, that in very dilute solutions, $L = (8D\Delta T_0)^{0.5}F^{-0.5}$. Given that $L \approx 2r_H$ in such solutions, it can be concluded that Rohatgi's and Adams' theory postulates:

$$r_H = (2D\Delta T_0)^{0.5}F^{-0.5} \quad (12)$$

Bomben and King⁴ and Woinet *et al.*⁵ showed that experimental data on the freezing of apple tissues and low concentration gelatin solutions, supported Rohatgi's and Adams' theory.

According to Kurz and Fischer¹⁴, dendrite morphology is defined by sinusoidal perturbations at the solid-liquid interface. The wavelength of these perturbations is dependent on R , G and the degree of supercooling. There exists a threshold wavelength, which leads to the formation of stable dendrites; below this wavelength, the perturbations disappear. This limit is known as the limit of morphological stability and is used to define the crystal size in relation to freezing kinetics. On the basis of this theory and assuming $R > GD\Delta T_0^{-1}k^{-1}$, Kurz and Fisher¹⁶ showed that:

$$L = 4.3 \left(\frac{\Delta T_0 D \Gamma}{k} \right)^{0.25} R^{-0.25} G^{-0.5} \quad (13)$$

where ΔT_0 is the supercooling between dendrites, D is the binary diffusion coefficient, Γ is Gibbs Thompson parameter related to interfacial energy and k is the partition coefficient between the liquid and solidified sample.

If the data presented in Figure 4 is examined in the light of Rohatgi's and Adams' theory (see equation (12)), it is

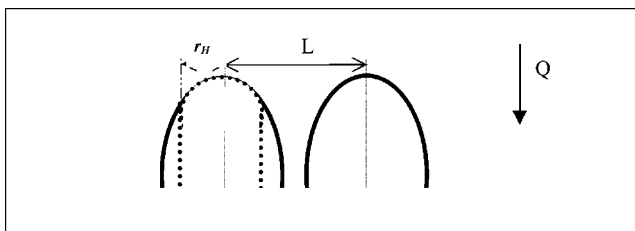


Figure 6. Growth of ice dendrite during freezing. L is the interdendritic spacing and r_H is the hydraulic radius. Q represents the direction of heat transfer. For dilute solutions $L = 2r_H$.

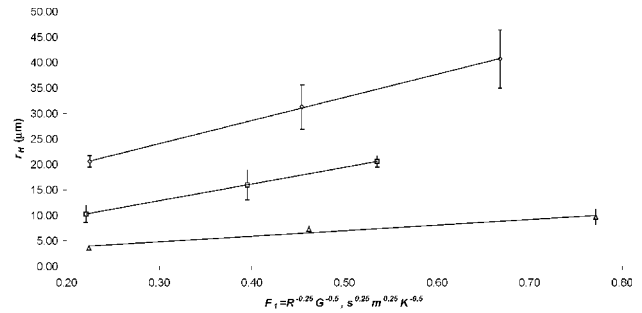


Figure 7. The variation of mean hydraulic radius of pores with $F_1 = R^{-0.25}G^{-0.5}$. (\diamond) 10% solids, (\square) 20% solids, (\triangle) 40% solids.

evident that the theory does not account for the observations. First of all, the data are sensitive to coffee concentration. Moreover, the exponent on F according to the theory should be -0.5 whereas the fit of experimental data yields values around 0.3 . On the other hand, if r_H is plotted against $G^{-0.5}R^{-0.25}$ (see equation (13)), a linear relationship is observed for each of the solid contents used in this work (see Figure 7). This suggests that Kurz and Fisher's theory applies better to the freezing of coffee extracts. Further, it is also possible to extend Kurz and Fisher's equation empirically to relate the hydraulic radius with freezing rate for coffee extracts of different solid contents. Since the ratio $r_H/(G^{-0.5}R^{-0.25})$ was found to decrease exponentially with solute concentration, the mean hydraulic radius can be represented as:

$$r_H = n \exp(mX_{so})R^{-0.25}G^{-0.5} \quad (14)$$

Experimental data were fitted to the above equation and the values of n and m were found to be 1.23×10^{-4} and -5.36 , respectively, with $R^2 = 0.97$. Given that G and R can be deduced from Neumann's model (see equation (10)), it is possible to relate the mean hydraulic radius of ice crystals with the freezing condition as follows (i.e. by combining equation (14) with equations (5) and (10)):

$$r_H = n \exp(-mX_{so}) \left[\frac{2\delta^2 \alpha_1}{s_i} \right]^{-0.25} \times [(T_m - T_p)s_i^{-1}]^{-0.5} \quad (15)$$

Hydraulic radii determined from equations (15) are compared with experimental data in Figure 8. On average,

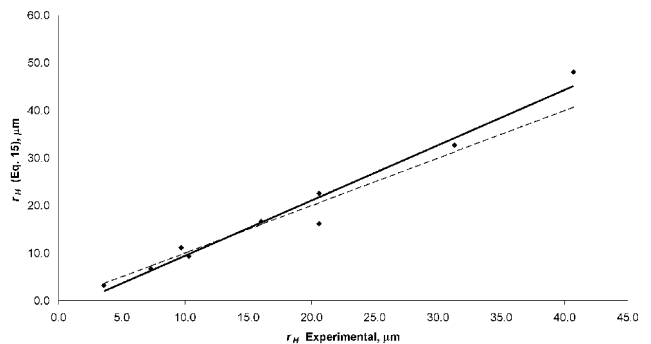


Figure 8. Parity plot: Mean hydraulic radius of ice crystal size, determined from equation (15) are plotted against experimental data. The broken line represents $y=x$, while the solid line is the regression line.

the model is found to over predict the mean hydraulic radius by 19%. A closer examination of this parity plot suggests that the average deviation is strongly influenced by one of the experimental conditions: 10% solute content and freezing temperature of -18°C , which resulted in the largest radius observed in this study. If the value corresponding to this condition in the regression analysis is neglected, then the overall difference between experimental and calculated values falls below 3% with $R^2 > 0.96$. It can, therefore, be concluded that equation (15) can be used to predict the mean hydraulic radius of ice crystals as a function of freezing conditions for coffee extracts. It is clear from equation (15) that the mean hydraulic radii are dependent on the position of the ice front. This is due to the variation of freezing rate with distance from the freezing plate, as demonstrated by the model and experimental data. However, due to the brittleness of the sample it was not possible to measure the axial variation of pore size, and this may be attempted in future.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

- (1) The movement of ice front during unidirectional freezing of coffee extracts follows the well-known Neumann's model, which satisfactorily predicts freezing rates. The model is, however, more sensitive to solid content than the experimental data appear to suggest.
- (2) The mean hydraulic radius of ice crystals is proportional to $R^{-0.25} G^{-0.5}$ where R is the final rate of movement of ice front and G is the temperature gradient at this point. This proportionality is consistent with Kurz and Fisher's¹⁶ theory for solidification of metal alloys.
- (3) The following equation satisfactorily predicts the mean hydraulic radius of ice crystals formed during freezing of coffee extracts at different freezing rates: $r_H = n \exp(-mX_{so}) [2\delta^2 \alpha_1 / s_i]^{-0.25} [(T_m - T_p) s_i^{-1}]^{-0.5}$. Here X_{so} is the solid content of the coffee extract, δ is Neumann's dimensionless constant, t is time, T_m is the initial freezing temperature, T_p is the freezing temperature and s_i is the position of the ice front, finally, n and m which are material dependent constants take the values 1.23×10^{-4} and 5.36 respectively for the coffee used in this study.

APPENDIX 1

Estimation of Thermophysical Properties

Intrinsic properties of coffee and water were used to estimate the thermo-physical of the composite sample as suggested by Woinet, Andreiu and Laurent¹⁷. The water

was assumed to freeze at a temperature, T_m , given by equation (1) and the concentration of unfrozen water was taken to be 0.42 kg water/kg solid¹⁸. Thermophysical properties of water were obtained from Choi and Okos¹⁹ tables and those of coffee were estimated using Costherm²⁰ assuming the composition of the coffee solids to be as reported by^{9,21}. The thermal properties of coffee solids determined as function of temperature were expressed in the form $Y = aT^2 + bT + c$. The relevant constants are listed in Table A1. The following equations were used to calculate the composite properties of the frozen (1) and liquid (2) regions:

$$Y_1 = \varepsilon Y_s + 0.429 Y_w + (1 - 1.429\varepsilon) Y_i \quad (\text{A1})$$

$$Y_2 = \varepsilon Y_s + (1 - \varepsilon) Y_w \quad (\text{A2})$$

where Y represents either thermal conductivity or thermal diffusivity. The composite heat capacity was determined as follows:

$$C_{p1} = X_s C_{ps} + 0.429 X_s C_{pw} + (1 - 1.429 X_s) C_{pi} \quad (\text{A3})$$

$$C_{p2} = X_s C_{ps} + (1 - X_s) C_{pw} \quad (\text{A4})$$

NOMENCLATURE

A	area, m^2
C_p	heat capacity, $\text{Jkg}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$
F	Freezing rate, Ks^{-1}
F_1	$R^{-0.25} G^{-0.5}$
G	temperature gradient in frozen region, Km^{-1}
ΔH_f	effective latent heat of fusion, Jkg^{-1}
ΔH_i	ice latent heat of fusion, Jkg^{-1}
L	interdendritic spacing, m
L_1	thickness of the amorphous matrix between pores, m
R	rate of movement of ice front, ms^{-1}
S	height of the cylinder, m
T	temperature, K
T_m	initial freezing temperature, K
X_s	Solid content w.b
a, b, c	constants
c_f	freezing kinetic empirical constant
m, n	empirical constant
p_r	pore perimeter, m
r_H	hydraulic radius, m
s	position of the ice front, m
t	time, s
x	axial position coordinate, m

Greek Symbols

α	thermal diffusivity Km^{-2}
$\tilde{\alpha}$	ratio of thermal diffusivities
α_2/α_1	(liquid/frozen regions)
δ	Neumann's dimensionless number
ε	volume fraction

Table A1. Thermal properties of coffee solids*, water and ice** as function of temperature.

	Thermal conductivity $\text{Wm}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$			Thermal diffusivity m^2s^{-1}			Heat capacity $\text{Jkg}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$		
	$a \times 10^5$	$b \times 10^3$	c	$a \times 10^{12}$	$b \times 10^{10}$	$c \times 10^7$	$a \times 10^3$	$b \times 10^2$	c
Solids	0.00	20.0	0.145	0.00	1.2	0.64	0.00	0.32	0.56
Water	-0.67	-1.9	0.41	2.4	19.0	-2.2	5.5	-3100	4.600
Ice	10.0	-0.62	11.5	95.0	-61.1	12.0	0.00	6100	402.4

*After Costherm (Jowitt *et al.*, 1983)²⁰. **After Choi and Okos (1986)¹⁹.

γ	ratio of densities, ρ_1/ρ_2
ρ	density

Subscripts

1	frozen region
2	liquid region
f	final
i	ice front
o	initial
p	freezing plate

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