- 1 DEGRADATION KINETICS OF ENCAPSULATED GRAPE SKIN PHENOLICS AND
- 2 MICRONIZED GRAPE SKINS IN VARIOUS WATER ACTIVITY ENVIRONMENTS TO
- 3 IMPROVE WIDE-RANGING AND TAILOR-MADE FOOD APPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

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Micronized grape skin powder (GS) and maltodextrin-encapsulated grape skin phenolics (eGSP) were recovered from winemaking byproducts as potential food ingredients. Hygroscopicity was higher in eGSP than in GS. Both eGSP and GS had intense color and less fermented odor than the wet GS. Phenolic content, antioxidant activity and inhibitory effectiveness towards enzymes related to hyperglycemia damage were ~ double in eGSP than in GS. During storage, the rate of phenolic degradation diminished with decreasing a_w from 0.75 to 0.11. Anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins were less stable than monomeric flavanols and flavonols. The rate of decrease in antioxidant activity was lower compared to the extent of phenolic degradation. At aw 0.11 no degradation was observed in eGSP, while anthocyanin and proanthocyanidin contents slightly decreased in GS (k*103 in the range 0.69 – 2.94 d⁻¹). Criteria for GS and eGSP storage were defined in relation to their final uses. Industrial relevance. The conversion of winemaking by products into value added products is considered the unique strategy to overcome the cost of not recycling, including waste disposal and decontamination of affected areas. As winemaking is a seasonal activity, long-term stability of recovered byproducts is needed for their further utilization. GS and eGSP represent potential valueadded food ingredients for wide-ranging applications (antioxidant, colorant, phenolic sources) and tailor-made functionalities (inhibitors of enzymes related to hyperglycemia). The results obtained led to the definition of criteria for GS and eGSP storage, which depend on their final use in foods, as illustrated by two discussed scenarios.

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KEYWORDS: grape pomace; water activity; phenolic compounds; antioxidant activity; byproduct

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ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations for chemicals: C, catechin; Cy-glc, cyanidin 3-O-glucoside; Dp-glc, delphinidin 3-O-glucoside; EC, epicatechin; GAE, gallic acid equivalents; K, kaempferol; Mv-glc, malvidin 3-O-glucoside; Mv-pc-glc, malvidin p-coumaroyl glucoside; Pn-glc, peonidin 3-O-glucoside; Pt-glc, petunidin 3-O-glucoside; Q, quercetin; Q-glc, quercetin 3-O-glucoside; Q-gln, quercetin 3-O-glucoside. Other abbreviations: ADF, antioxidant dietary fiber; aw, water activity; k, rate constant; eGSP, grape skin phenolics encapsulated into maltodextrins; GS, grape skins; GSP, grape skin phenolics; t 1/2, half-time; Mo, monolayer moisture content; Tg, glass transition temperature.

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- 42 Main chemical compounds studied in this article:
- delphinidin-3-O-glucoside, PubChem CID 443650
- malvidin-3-O-glucoside, PubChem CID 443652
- petunidin-3-O-glucoside, PubChem CID 443651
- cyanidin-3-O-glucoside, PubChem CID 441667
- peonidin 3-O-glucoside, PubChem CID 443654

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1. INTRODUCTION

Wine production is one of the most important agricultural activities throughout the world, causing the generation of large amount of byproducts including grape skins, seeds and stems. The management of all of the aforementioned byproducts poses serious environmental concerns because these residues have a low pH, high organic matter content and may exert phytotoxic effects if applied to crops or wetlands. Byproduct recovery and conversion into value added products is considered to be the unique strategy to overcome the cost of not recycling, including waste disposal and decontamination of affected areas (Devesa-Rey, Vecino, Varela-Alende, Barral, Cruz & Moldes, 2011).

Grape skins (GS) are potential sources of dietary fibre and phenolics, particularly, flavonols, flavanols, anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins (Perez-Jimenez et al., 2008; Teixeira et al., 2014). Hence, a great deal of interest has been expressed in the possibility to convert GS into value-added food ingredients due to their ability to provide advanced technological properties and/or health claims, to the final product (Galanakis, 2015). In some applications, GS are dried and micronized to obtain the "antioxidant dietary fiber (ADF)", a product that delivers fiber along with soluble and insoluble antioxidants. Grape ADF was demonstrated to have a positive effect in the prevention of cardiovascular diseases (Perez-Jimenez et al., 2008). Alternatively, GS are extracted using conventional or emerging technologies such as ultrasonics, high hydrostatic pressure, pulsed electric fields (Corrales, Toepfl, Butz, Knorr & Tauscher, 2008) and high voltage electrical discharges (Boussetta et al., 2012) to recover soluble phenolics. Phenolic extracts are then used as such or after encapsulation with various carriers that improve their solubility in alcohol-free water (Souza et al., 2014). Many studies have shown that phenolic can act as antioxidants and inhibitors of enzymes involved in oxidative stress, type-2 diabetes, hypertension and inflammation (Apostolidis, Kwon, Shetty, K., 2007; Teixeira et al., 2014). Hence, both GS and GSP have been proposed for wide-ranging applications in various food products. In meat- and fish-based products GS and GSP have been applied as antioxidants (Sáyago-Ayerdi, Brenes, & Goñi, 2009; Sanchez-Alonso, Jimenez-Escrig, Saura-Calixto, & Borderias, 2008; García-Lomillo, González-SanJosé, Skibsted, & Jongberg, S., 2016) and antimicrobials (García-Lomillo, González-SanJosé, Del Pino-García, Rivero-Pérez, & Muñiz-Rodríguez, 2014). In beverages and gel products, GS and GSP have been proposed as natural colorants (Maier, Fromm, Schieber, Kammerer, & Carle, 2009; Lavelli, Sri Harsha, & Spigno, 2016a) and texturizing agents (Lavelli, Sri Harsha, Mariotti, Marinoni, & Cabassi, 2015). In dairy products, GS and GSP have been used to increase fibre and/or phenolic contents (Tseng & Zhao, 2013; Marchiani, Bertolino, Ghirardello, McSweeney, & Zeppa, 2015); moreover their effect on curd microstructure has been investigated to modulate cheese rheology (Han et al., 2011). In bakery products, GS and GSP have been used as fortifying

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agents to improve phenolic and fibre contents (Walker, Tseng, Cavender, Ross, & Zhao, 2014; 85 Sant'Anna, Christiano, Marczak, Tessaro, & Thys, 2014). GS and GSP have also been utilized for 86 specific functionality. In fact, they have been found to decrease the level of N-(carboxymethyl)lysine, 87 an advanced glycated end-product related to health risk (Mildner-Szkudlarz, Siger, Szwengiel, & 88 Bajerska, 2015), to increase the antiglycation activity of foods (Lavelli, Sri Harsha, Torri & Zeppa, 89 90 2014) and to inhibit starch digestion enzymes, thus leading to food that could address the needs of 91 diabetic people (Lavelli, Sri Harsha, Ferranti, Scarafoni, & Iametti, 2016b.) It is worth considering that winemaking is a seasonal activity and thus byproduct accumulation is 92 typically concentrated to a limited time frame. Hence, long-term stability of GS and GSP is needed 93 94 for further utilization. Previous studies have pointed out that GSP in the liquid form lack in long-term stability, as the half-life of anthocyanins is about 30 d at 20-25 °C (Cardona, Lee, & Talcott, 2009; 95 Souza et al., 2014). The freeze-dried GSP showed higher anthocyanin stability; moreover, 96 97 encapsulation of the GSP with maltodextrins further increased anthocyanin stability (Souza et al., 2014). The stability of foods in the dry and intermediate moisture state is critically dependent on the 98 99 water activity level (a_w). In fact, progressive decrease in a_w slows down the rates of microbial growth, 100 microbial production of toxins, and enzyme activities. Moreover, at low aw levels, water limits reagent mobility and becomes unavailable as a solvent to support chemical reactions (Lavelli & Vantaggi, 101 2009). With decreasing a_w, the glass transition temperature (T_g) increases. T_g is the temperature below 102 which a soft, rubbery material will transform into hard amorphous solid (glassy state). This leads to 103 a marked increase in viscosity and a decrease in molecular mobility. Foods are often considered very 104 stable below their T_g, as compounds involved in deterioration reactions take many months or even 105 years to diffuse over molecular distances and approach close enough to each other to react (Roos & 106 107 Karel, 1991; Nurhadi, Roos & Maidannyk, 2016). There is no detailed information on the effect of intermediate and low moisture levels (aw in the range 108 0.75 - 0.11) on the stability of GS and encapsulated GSP (eGSP). Hence, in the current study 109 micronized GS and eGSP were obtained from winemaking byproducts with the aims to: a) investigate 110

some properties relevant for wide-ranging applications, namely: hygroscopicity, color, odor, phenolic composition and antioxidant activity, as well as a target functionality, such as inhibition of starch digestion enzymes; b) model the degradation kinetics of individual phenolic compounds as a function of a_w in the range 0.11 - 0.75 at 30 °C; and c) define criteria for GS and eGSP storage in relation to their final uses.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Chemicals

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117 Malvidin-, cyanidin-, delphinidin-, peonidin- and petunidin- 3-O-glucosides were obtained from 118 Polyphenols (Sandes, Norway). Catechin, epicatechin, quercetin 3-O-glucuronide, quercetin 3-O-119 120 glucoside, quercetin and kaempferol were purchased from Extrasynthese (Lyon, France). All other standards and chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Milan, Italy). 121 2.2. Grape skins (GS) and grape skin phenolics encapsulated in maltodextrin (eGSP) 122 123 Grape pomace of the Barbera variety was kindly provided by a winery located in Northern Italy. At the winery, grapes were processed according to red vinification and the fermented pomace was 124 125 recovered and sieved (with a 5-mm sieve) to separate the skins from the seeds. The seeds were also removed manually. Like all vegetable materials, the GS rapidly undergo spontaneous fermentation 126 (Lavelli, Pagliarini, Ambrosoli, Minati, & Zanoni, 2006). Hence GS were put in a 1cm-high steel 127 plate and then frozen in a freezer at -20 °C. The frozen GS were transported to the lab and dried at 55 128 °C for approximately 3 h. After drying, GS were milled and sieved by using the Octagon Digital sieve 129 shaker (Endecotts Ltd., United Kingdom), with a certified sieve (openings: 125 µm) for 10 min at 130 amplitude 8. The sieved GS were stored under vacuum, in the dark, at 4 °C. 131 The eGSP were obtained as described previously (Lavelli et al., 2016a). Briefly, GS were extracted 132 with 60 % aqueous ethanol with continuous stirring for 2 h at 60 °C. The drying process was 133 performed in a laboratory scale spray dryer (Buchi Mini Spray Dryer B-290, Switzerland), with the 134 following operation conditions: 0.7-mm diameter nozzle, 4 mL/min feeding rate with 6.5 % w/v 135

maltodextrin (dextrose equivalence 12); 700 L/h drying air flow rate; 150 °C inlet air temperature.

2.3. Phenolic Solubility at pH 3.5 and pH 6.5

An amount of 1.25 g of eGSP or GS was added to 15 mL of 0.15 M citrate buffer, pH 3.5 or to 15 mL of 0.15 M citrate buffer, pH 6.5. The mixtures were incubated in a water bath at 30 °C for 30 min and then centrifuged at 10000 x g for 20 min. The residues were discarded, while the supernatants were collected, and the total phenolic content was measured as described under Section 2.6. The amount of soluble phenolics extracted from GS and eGSP was evaluated in duplicate and expressed as grams of gallic acid equivalents (GAE) per litre of buffer.

2.4. Storage Study.

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The powders were weighed into Petri dishes (6 cm diameter, 5.5 g of product in each dish). The dishes were placed inside airtight plastic chambers on wire-mesh racks situated above saturated salt solutions. The chambers were stored for 6 months at 30 °C in a thermostated cabinet. These timetemperature conditions were chosen as they resemble a practical handling for ingredients derived by winemaking byproduct. In fact, in the Mediterranean countries the winemaking season starts in August and ends in January. Hence, for a convenient management of these ingredients, stability for 6-months at room temperature should be advisable. Cold storage is not appropriate for byproduct since it is too energy-consuming, hence the effect of storage at lower temperatures was not investigated. To create different relative humidity environments, the following saturated salt solutions were used: LiCl ($a_w = 0.113 \pm 0.002$), CH₃COOK ($a_w = 0.216 \pm 0.005$), MgCl₂ ($a_w = 0.324 \pm 0.002$), NaBr ($a_w = 0.560 \pm 0.004$), and NaCl ($a_w = 0.7509 \pm 0.0011$). Duplicate chambers were incubated for each a_w level. At five time intervals (0, 28, 60, 112 and 175 days), samples were extracted in duplicate as described in Section 2.6 and analyzed for phenolic content, antioxidant activity and color, as described in Sections 2.7 -2.11. Antioxidant contents, antioxidant activity and color degradation as a function of time (at each aw level and fixed temperature of 30 °C) was analyzed according to a firstorder kinetics, as follows:

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$$\ln(A) = \ln(A_0) - \int (dt * k)$$
 (1)

- where A_0 is the initial antioxidant content, antioxidant activity or color, A is the antioxidant content,
- antioxidant activity or color at time t, and t is the storage time and k is the rate constant.
- 164 2.5. Moisture Content and a_w.
- Moisture content of GS and eGSP after equilibration at the various relative humidity conditions was
- determined using a vacuum oven at 70 °C and 50 Torr for 18 h.
- The a_w of samples and saturated salt solutions was checked using a dew point hygrometer (Aqualab,
- Decagon Devices, Pullman, WA, USA). Duplicate determinations were made for each sample.
- Moisture isotherms were developed for the eGSP and GS samples by plotting the equilibrium
- moisture content (M) versus the storage a_w. The Guggenheim-Anderson-de Boer (GAB) equation was
- used to fit the experimental data:

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$$M = \frac{M_o C K a_w}{(1 - K a_w)(1 - K a_w + C K a_w)}$$
 (2)

- where M is the equilibrium moisture content on a dry basis (g of water/g of dry solids); M_o is the
- monolayer moisture content on a dry basis; C and K are constants (Nurhadi et al., 2016).
- 175 2.6. Phenolic extraction
- 176 For phenolic extraction from GS and eGSP, an amount of 100 mg was added with 8-mL
- methanol:water:HCl (80:20:0.1, v/v/v), for 2 h at room temperature with continuous stirring. The
- mixture was centrifuged at 10000 x g for 10 min, the supernatant was recovered, and the solid residue
- was re-extracted using 6 mL of the same solvent twice (Sri Harsha, Gardana, Simonetti, Spigno, &
- Lavelli, 2013). Duplicate determinations were performed for each sample. The extracts were stored
- in the dark, at -20 °C, until further characterization studies.
- 182 2.7. Total phenolics
- The Folin–Ciocalteu assay was performed on sample extracts according to Sri Harsha et al. (2013).
- Briefly, the reaction mixture contained 0.5 mL of the extracts diluted with methanol:water:HCl (80:
- 20: 0.1, v/v/v), 6.0 mL of distilled water, 0.5 mL of Folin–Ciocalteu reagent and 3 mL of 10 %
- Na₂CO₃. The mixtures were incubated for 90 min at room temperature and the absorbance was

recorded at 760 nm against a blank with no extract addition. For each extract, 2 - 4 dilutions were assessed in duplicate. A calibration curve was built using gallic acid as a standard and the total phenolics were expressed as gram GAE per kilogram of dry product.

2.8. Soluble proanthocyanidins

Proanthocyanidin content was analysed as described previously (Sri Harsha et al., 2013). Briefly, for evaluation of soluble proanthocyanidins 1 mL of the sample extract diluted with methanol:water:HCl (80:20:0.1, v/v/v) was added to 6 mL of *n*-butanol:HCl (95:5, v/v) and 0.2 mL of 2 % NH₄Fe(SO₄)₂.12 H₂O in 2 M HCl. For evaluation of insoluble proanthocyanidins, 10 mg of the extraction residue was weighted in quadruplicate and added to 20 mL methanol, 120 mL *n*-butanol:HCl (95:5, v/v) and 4 mL of 2 % NH₄Fe(SO₄)₂.12 H₂O in 2 M HCl. Hydrolysis was carried out at 95 °C for 40 min. The reaction mixtures were cooled and the absorbance was recorded at 550 nm by a Jasco UVDEC-610 spectrophotometer (Jasco Europe, Cremella, Italy) against a blank made as for the sample but incubated at room temperature. For each sample extract, 2 - 4 dilutions were assessed in duplicate. Proanthocyanidin content was determined using 0.1736 (mg/mL) as conversion factor (Sri Harsha, Lavelli & Scarafoni, 2014) and expressed as grams per kilogram of dry product.

2.9. HPLC analysis of phenolics

The phenolic profile of the extracts was analysed as described previously (Lavelli et a., 2016a), using a model Shimadzu LC-20 AD pump coupled to a model Shimadzu SPD-M20A photodiode array detector and an RF-20 AXS operated by Labsolution Software Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). A 2.6 μm Kinetex C18 column (150 x 4.6 mm; Phenomenex, Bologna, Italy) was used for the separation, at a flow-rate of 1.5 mL/min. The column was maintained at 40 °C. The separation was performed by means of a linear gradient elution. Eluents were: (A) 0.1 % H₃PO₄; (B) acetonitrile. The gradient was as follows: from 6% B to 20% B in 18 min; from 20 % B to 60 % B in 7 min; from 60 % B to 90 % B in 19 min; 90 % B for 10 min and then 6 % B for 5 min. DAD analysis was carried out in the range of 200 - 600 nm. Anthocyanins and flavonols were quantified by calibration curves built with external standards, namely, malvidin-3-O-glucoside at 520 nm for anthocyanins and quercetin-3-O-glucoside

- at 354 nm for flavonols. Flavanols were quantified by catechin and epicatechin standard with the
- fluorimetric detector set at λ_{ex} 230 and λ_{em} 320. Results were expressed as gram per kilogram of dry
- 215 product.
- 216 *2.10. Color*
- For color determination, each sample extract was diluted in 0.025 M potassium chloride buffer, pH
- 218 1.0. Under these conditions, color is due to both monomeric and polymeric anthocyanins (Cheynier
- et al., 2006). Dilution factor was chosen until absorbance at 520 nm was within the linear range (0.100
- -0.800 absorbance units). For each sample extract, 2 dilutions were assessed in duplicate. The
- variation in color due to total anthocyanins at every sampling time was determined as the difference
- between the absorbance at 520 nm (A_{520nm}) and that at 700nm (A_{700nm}) to correct for turbidity.
- 223 2.11. Ferric ion reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assay
- 224 The FRAP assay was performed as described previously (Sri Harsha et al., 2013). Briefly, FRAP
- reagent was prepared by adding 25 mL of 300 mM acetate buffer, pH 3.6; 2.5 mL of 10 mM 2,4,6-
- 226 tripyridyl-s-triazine in 40 mM HCl and 2.5 mL of 20 mM FeCl₃. The reaction mixture contained 0.4
- mL of sample extracts diluted with methanol:water:HCl (80:20:0.1, v/v/v) and 3 mL of FRAP
- reagent. The absorbance at 593 nm was evaluated on a Jasco UVDEC-610 spectrophotometer (Jasco
- Europe, Cremella, Italy) after 4 min of incubation at 37 °C against a blank with no extract addition.
- 230 For each sample extract, 2 4 dilutions were assessed in duplicate. A methanolic solution of
- FeSO₄·7H₂O was used for calibration. Results were expressed as millimoles of Fe(II) sulfate
- equivalents per kilogram of dry product.
- 2.12. In vitro α-glucosidase and α-amylase inhibition assay
- Inhibition of starch digestion enzymes was carried out as described previously (Lavelli et al., 2016b).
- A crude α-glucosidase solution was prepared from rat intestinal acetone powder. Briefly, 200 mg of
- rat intestinal acetone powder was dissolved in 4 mL of 50 mM ice cold phosphate buffer (pH 6.8) and
- sonicated for 15 min at 4 °C. The suspension was vortexed for 20 min and then centrifuged at 10000
- x g at 4 °C for 30 min. The resulting supernatant was used for the assay. For the α -glucosidase activity

assay, 650 μ L of 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.8; 100 μ L of the enzyme solution and 50 μ L of grape skin extract were added in Eppendorf tubes and pre-incubated for 5 min at 37 °C. Then, 200 μ L of 1 mM p-nitrophenyl α -D-glucoside was added as substrate and the mixture was further incubated at 37 °C for 25 min. For the pancreatic α -amylase assay, 550 μ L of 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.8, 200 μ L of the enzyme solution (10 μ M in the same buffer) and 50 μ L of grape skin extract were added in Eppendorf tubes, pre-incubated for 5 min at 37 °C. Then, 200 μ L of 1 mM p-nitrophenyl α -D-maltopentaoside was added to the tubes as the substrate and the mixture was further incubated at 37 °C for 55 min. For both enzymatic reactions, the assay mixture was centrifuged at 10,000 g for 3 min and the absorbance of the clear supernatant was recorded at 405 nm. The control was run by addition of the extraction solvent replacing the sample. A sample blank and a control blank were run without addition of substrate and without addition of both substrate and sample, respectively. Dose–response curves were built and results are reported as I_{50} (mg*mL⁻¹), i.e. amount of samples (mg, d.w.) that inhibited the reaction by 50%.

2.13. Odor

Dried GS (0.06 g and 0.4 g) and eGSP (0.03 g and 0.2 g) were added to 7 mL of 8 mM citric acid buffer, pH 3.0 to obtain final phenolic contents of 0.4 g GAE/L and 2.5 g GAE/L for both samples. For comparison, wet GS and finely homogenized wet GS were prepared at a final phenolic content of 0.4 g GAE/L. Water was used as a control. Samples and control were prepared in 10mL-glass tubes covered with an aluminum foil and marked with 3-digit numbers. In order to evaluate whether these 7 samples differed in terms of fermented odor, the ranking test was performed (ISO 8587, 2006). Twenty-eight selected and trained assessors (43% men, mean age= 22.6 SD =2.4) were involved (ISO 8586). Each assessor was instructed to sniff each sample and to rank the samples from the least intense (1) to the most intense (7) according to fermented odor. A pause of 30 seconds was imposed between samples evaluation. Samples were presented simultaneously to the assessors at room temperature and under red light in order to mask possible difference in appearance. Samples presentation order was

randomized to prevent first-order and carry-over effects. The evaluation was performed in one replicate between 12.30 and 13.30 in sensory booths at the sensory laboratory of the Department of Food, Environmental and Nutritional Sciences (University of Milan). Data were collected using Fizz v2.47b software program (Biosystemes, Couternon, France).

2.13. Statistical analysis of data

Analytical data were analysed using Statgraphics 5.1 (STCC Inc.; Rockville, MD). Simple regression was performed to analyse the relationship between either antioxidant concentration or antioxidant activity or color (in logarithmic scale) as a function of time at fixed temperature for every a_w (equation 1). The output showed the equation of the fitted model giving the value of k, the P-value and R-squared statistic, which was used to estimate the goodness of fit. The model was considered significant when the P-value was less than 0.05 (95% confidence level). Nonlinear regression was performed to analyse the relationship between M and a_w by fitting to the GAB equation (equation 2). The output showed the equation of the fitted model giving the values of Mo, C and K and R-squared statistic, which was used to estimate the goodness of fit. Sensory data were analysed by Friedman test (Analysis of Variance by ranks). In case of significant differences (P < 0.05) among the rank orders of the samples, the Least Significant Difference (LSD) was applied to determine which samples were significantly different from others (ISO 8587, 2006).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Phenolic content, FRAP values and water solubility

The total phenolic content of GS (43.9 g GAE/kg d.w.) was in the range of that found previously for grape skins of various varieties recovered from winemaking (Sri Harsha et al., 2013; Sri Harsha et al., 2014). For eGSP the total phenolic content (87.7 g GAE/kg d.w.) was almost two-fold higher than for GS, resulting in higher FRAP values (Table 1). Moreover, in eGSP the total phenolic content encapsulated was almost double than that reported in previous studies of spray drying encapsulation of grape phenolics using maltodextrin (Souza et al., 2014) and that observed upon spray-drying and freeze-drying encapsulation using gum arabic, partially hydrolyzed guar gum, and polydextrose

(Kuck & Norena, 2016). This results from the use of a low maltodextrin concentration during spray 290 drying in the current study, i.e. 6.5%, whereas in previous studies carrier concentration was in the 291 range 10 - 30% (Souza et al., 2014) and 10% (Kuck & Norena, 2016). 292 293 On a dry weight basis, the I₅₀ values for α -glucosidase and α -amylase inhibition by eGSP was \sim half with respect to those of GS, i.e., the inhibition effectiveness was double, due to the higher phenolic 294 content in eGSP (Table 1). On a phenolic content basis, I₅₀ for α-glucosidase inhibition was ~ 19 μg 295 GAE mL⁻¹ for both eGSP and GS. These values were lower with respect to those observed for white 296 grape skins, ranging between 30.9 and 64.8 µg GAE mL⁻¹ (Lavelli et al., 2016b) and similar to that 297 of red berries (Boath, Grussu, Stewart, & McDougall, 2012). This result suggested that GS and eGSP 298 299 had a good phenolic pool, due to their high content in anthocyanins, which have been shown to play a major role in α -glucosidase activity inhibition (Boath et al., 2012). Regarding α -amylase inhibition, 300 GS and eGSP had I₅₀ values, on a phenolic content basis, in the range of those observed for white 301 grape skins, which was found to be 12.5 - 27.4 µg GAE mL⁻¹ (Lavelli et al., 2016b). Both red grape 302 skin and white grape skins contain proanthocyanidins, which have been considered to play a major 303 304 role in α-amylase inhibition (Boath et al., 2012). Hence, GS and especially eGSP recovered from 305 winemaking byproducts have the potential to be used in the dietary prevention of hyperglycemia damage, as proposed for other natural sources such as garlic, onion, peppers and cranberry 306 (Apostolidis et al., 2007; Boath et al., 2012). 307 The water solubility of phenolics in eGSP and GS was measured using 0.1 M citrate buffer at pH 308 values 3.5 and 6.5, which represent common pH values of foods in which these ingredients could be 309 incorporated. For GS, phenolic solubility was 458 ± 10 mg GAE/L, while for eGSP it was 8 times 310 311 higher, equal to $3718 \pm 30 \text{ mg GAE/L}$, with no difference related to the pH of the buffer. Accordingly, use of maltodextrins during spray-drying was found to increase solubility of the powder (Goula & 312 Adamopoulos, 2011). 313

3.2. Moisture, water sorption and hygroscopicity

The aw level of eGSP upon spray-drying with maltodextrins was 0.21. Similarly, by using other 315 316 carriers it was found that spray-dried and freeze-dried encapsulated GSP had aw levels in the range from 0.160 to 0.360, with higher values for the freeze-dried samples (Kuck & Norena, 2016). 317 The a_w level of GS decreased during drying at 55 °C from 1 to 0.75 in 100 min, to 0.56 in 120 min 318 and to 0.11 in 180 min (not shown). Microbial growth rate and production of toxins by microrganisms 319 decreased with decreasing aw. Aspergillus carbonarius, which is an ochratoxin A producing fungus, 320 predominantly responsible for the production of this mycotoxin in grapes, cannot grow at a_w levels 321 below 0.85 (Romero et al., 2007), which is higher than the a_w range considered in the current study. 322 Moisture sorption isotherms of eGSP and GS were built at 30 °C and modelled according to the GAB 323 324 equation (Figure 1). The amount of water absorbed was higher for eGSP than GS, especially at the higher aw levels. This was probably due to high levels of insoluble fiber and waxy cuticle present in 325 the fruit skins (Bravo & Saura-Calixto, 1998), which limit moisture adsorption. 326 327 For GS, fitting to the GAB model gave parameters of $C = 34 \pm 14$, $k = 0.89 \pm 0.02$ and $M_o = 0.0291$ \pm 0.017 g moisture/g dry solids (R² = 0.998). The M_o value of GS corresponded to the a_w level of 328 329 0.12. For eGSP, the GAB parameters were: $C = 17 \pm 9$, $k = 0.94 \pm 0.04$ and $M_o = 0.0629 \pm 0.0007$ g 330 moisture/g dry solids ($R^2 = 0.995$), similar to those observed for a mixture of maltodextrin with DE 9 -12 (Nurhadi et al., 2016). Due to the presence of numerous hydrophilic sites, Mo was higher for 331 332 eGSP than for GS and corresponded to the a_w level of 0.18. The M_o value generally relates to the lowest rate of oxidative reactions (Lavelli & Vantaggi, 2009). The visual appearance of eGSP, but 333 not that of GS, changed with increasing the a_w level. In fact, at a_w of 0.56 the powder formed lumps 334 335 and at a_w of 0.75 the product was a viscous liquid (Figure 1). Besides a_w, the phenomenon of glass transition could be applied as an integrated approach to 336 determine food stability. Maximum food stability occurs when storage temperature is below T_g , i.e., 337 food is in the glassy state (Roos & Karel, 1991). The reported T_g values for maltodextrins with DE 338 9-12 were 17, 41, 64, 75 and 95 °C at the a_w levels of 0.75, 0.53, 0.33, 0.23 and 0.11, respectively 339 (Nurhadi et al., 2016). Hence, at a_w 0.75 eGSP were in the rubbery state ($T_{\rm g}$ < storage temperature of 340

were in the glassy state ($T_g >$ storage temperature of 30 °C). For GS powder, no physical changes were observed. Based on the literature data, T_g of raisins skins are above 50 °C, even at a_w 0.75 (Georget, Guardo, Ng, Smith, & Waldron, 1997). Hence, it may be assumed that GS skins considered here were in the glassy state. Many studies have related a_w and T_g to the stability of foods. There is often a critical aw level below which microorganisms do not grow or produce toxins (Romero, Patriarca, Fernández Pinto, Vaamonde, 2007). Regarding chemical degradations, even if in general foods in the glassy state are stable, in some cases degradative reactions have been observed to occur at sub-T_g temperatures (Hung, Horagai, Kimura, & Adachi, 2007). Hence, the direct evaluation of the kinetics of food degradation, as shown in Section 3.5, is

important since both a_w and T_g could sometimes underestimate the extent of food degradation.

30 °C), at a_w 0.56 storage temperature was relatively close to T_g, while eGSP stored at lower a_w levels

3.3. Odor

GS and eGSP were obtained from fermented pomace, which is characterized by an intense typical fermented odor. The fermented odor intensity of dried GS and eGSP was then investigated in comparison with wet GS and finely homogenized wet GS (to increase the surface). Considering the specific functionalities of GS and eGSP, their addition level to foods depend on their phenolic content. Accordingly, these samples were analyzed for odor intensity at 0.4 and 2.5 g GAE/L, which represents the range of concentration used in various fortified foods (Maier et al., 2014; Han et al. 2011; Tseng & Zhao 2013; Sant'Anna et al., 2014; Marchiani et al., 2015).

According to the Friedman test, the rank sum of each sample was calculated. The higher the sum the more intense the fermented odor. Results are summarized in Table 2. The Friedman test showed significant differences in fermented odor among samples (F=113.0, p<0.0001). According to LSD test, the water control had the lowest odor intensity, as expected. Interestingly, eGSP at the highest dilution (0.4 g GAE/L) was not significantly different from water, while it was distinguished at the lowest dilution (2.5 g GAE/L), even if it was far less intensively odorous than wet GS. At relatively low maltodextrin concentrations (< 10%) flavor retention upon spray-drying is generally low, while

higher maltodextrin concentrations can entrap flavor compounds (Yoshii et al., 2001). Hence, in eGSP loss of odor probably results from stripping of volatile odorous compounds during spray drying rather than to the odor-masking properties of maltodextrin carriers. GS had a fermented odor intensity significantly higher than water at both dilutions and significantly lower than wet GS, likely due to loss of the volatile compounds during drying. A decrease in odor intensity can be considered as a positive effect, since intense fermented odor could hinder GS utilization for food applications.

3.4. Color

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GS and eGSP had high levels of anthocyanins (Table 1), which provide an intense color. However, anthocyanins undergo degradation during processing and storage, thus affecting color characteristic. Degradation of anthocyanins has been studied in model liquid solutions and wine and found to include the formation of both colored and colorless compounds resulting from direct reactions with proanthocyanidins or reactions also involving aldehydes such as acetaldehyde; condensation to form anthocyanin polymers; reaction with yeast metabolites to form pyranoanthocyanins; and addition to caftaric acid through enzymatic oxidation (Revilla, Pérez-Magariño, Gonzalez-SanJose, & Beltrán, 1999; Cheynier et al. 2006). While the patterns of reactions involving anthocyanin are complex, the resulting degradation is generally modelled as a first-order rate reaction (Reyes & Cisneros-Zevallos, 2007; Cardona et al., 2009; Amendola, De Faveri, & Spigno, 2010). Information on anthocyanin degradation at intermediate moisture and dried conditions is lacking. In the current study, during storage at various aw environments at 30 °C, the decrease in red color of GS and eGSP (measured at pH 1.0 and thus due to total anthocyanins) also followed a first-order kinetics (Figure 2). In GS, the first-order rate constants for red color decrease varied from 3.31*10⁻³ to 1.43*10⁻³ d⁻¹ by diminishing the a_w level from 0.75 to 0.11. In eGSP the first order rate constants for red color degradation decreased from 3.81*10⁻³ to 1.71*10⁻³ d⁻¹ with diminishing the a_w level from 0.75 to 0.32 and the variation was not significant at $a_w \le 0.22$ (Table 3). Besides drying, extraction of grape pomace (hot or cold pressed) with water containing 3% citric acid (pH 2.1) has also been proposed to recover phenolic-rich colored extracts intended to be used as food ingredients (Cardona et al., 2009). However, color degradation of these water-based extracts is fast, with first-order rate constants of 36.4*10⁻³ and 38.0*10⁻³ d⁻¹ at 30 °C for cold and hot pressed pomace, respectively (Table 3). Removal of sugars, proteins and metal ions from the pomace extracts through Amberlite purification, increases color stability, resulting in first order rate constants at 30 °C of 27.0*10⁻³ and 26.1*10⁻³ d⁻¹ for cold and hot pressed pomace, respectively (Cardona et al., 2009). However, GS and eGSP were more stable than all these water-based pomace extracts (Table 3). Moreover, color of GS and eGSP was more stable than the color of the extract of grape pomace obtained in 60% ethanol and designed to be used as a food colorant, which was found to decrease with a first-order rate constant of 5.8*10⁻³ d⁻¹ at 25 °C (Amendola et al., 2010).

3.5. Degradation kinetics of single phenolic compounds

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The decrease in phenolic compounds during storage in various aw environments followed a first-order kinetics, as observed previously (Reves & Cisneros-Zevallos, 2007; Souza et al., 2014; Aizpurua-Olaizola et al., 2016). A representative behavior is shown for malvidin 3-O-glucoside in Figure 3. At the highest a_w, i.e. 0.75, all compounds were degraded (Table 4). Monomeric flavanols, namely catechin and epicatechin were the most unstable with half-time 62 and 76 d for eGSP and 83 and 98 d for GS. It is worth noticing that lower half-life for catechin and epicatechin, i.e. 19 and 20 d respectively, at 25 °C, were observed in a grape waste liquid extract (Aizpurua-Olaizola et al., 2016). Similarly, for the most common food antioxidant, i.e., ascorbic acid, half-life is about 23 d at 23°C in liquids (Lavelli, Pompei & Casadei, 2009) and less than few days at a_w 0.75 (Lavelli & Vantaggi, 2009). The half-life for anthocyanins at $a_w 0.75$ was in the range 58 - 100 d for eGSP and 107 - 272 d for GS. From the kinetic data obtained by Reyes & Cisneros-Zevallos (2007) it can be calculated that the half-life of monomeric anthocyanins in a grape skin water extract at pH 3.0 is 32 d at 30 °C. Hence, in the current study, higher stability for all individual anthocyanin compounds was observed for GS and eGSP stored at a_w 0.75, consistent with higher color stability discussed in the previous paragraph. The half-life varied among individual compounds. In fact, delphinidin-3-O-glucoside displayed the

lowest stability, while malvidin-p-coumaroyl-glucoside the highest. Proanthocyanidin oligomers also showed low stability in GS at the a_w level of 0.75 with the half-life 179 d, whereas in eGSP the halflife was 580 d. Proanthocyanidins were found to be very unstable in grape juice, with complete loss after 9 months at 25 °C (Spanos & Wrolstad, 1992). Flavonols were relatively stable in both GS and eGSP at the a_w level of 0.75, with half-life in the range 322 - 492 d for eGSP and 550 - 800 d in GS. The rate of decrease in antioxidant activity (FRAP values) was lower compared to the extent of phenolic degradation. With decreasing the a_w level to 0.54, the rate constant for antioxidant degradation decreased markedly, leading to an increase of half-life for every compounds by approximately two-times. From the observed rate constants of FRAP values decrease, it can be calculated that the antioxidant activity would be retained by 60 % and 70 % upon one year of storage at a_w levels 0.75 and 0.56, respectively. As a general rule, for both GS and eGSP, the stability of all antioxidant classes at intermediate moisture levels (a_w 0.75 and 0.56) was higher than that observed in previous studies in the liquid state. This result could depend on the increased viscosity of the matrix at intermediate moistures with respect to the liquid state, which limits molecular diffusion and hence the reaction rates. Degradation rates for both anthocyanins, flavanols and flavonols were also slower with respect to those observed in apple pulp under the same conditions. This effect could be due to the occurrence of Maillard reaction in apple, as demonstrated by the formation of hydroxymethylfurfural, which can lead to antioxidant degradation (Lavelli & Vantaggi, 2009). In contrast, hydroxymethylfurfural was not detected in both GS and eGSP. Decreasing aw at intermediate moisture levels could therefore be a mean to limit the energy consumption of the process by decreasing the amount of water to be evaporated and shortening the drying process, while achieving good antioxidant stability. In fact, drying is one of the most energy consuming operations in food technology, with 3200 – 11500 kJ consumed per kilogram of water evaporated, depending on the dryer and conditions used (Sanjua, Stoessel, & Hellweg, 2014). Hence a new scenario of food applications can be proposed, by replacing the use of totally dried GS with partially dehydrated GS ($a_w \approx 0.55$). In fact, partially dehydrated GS

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could be used for wide-ranging food applications as proposed for dried GS, like as a fortifying 445 446 ingredient in bakery products (Walker, Tseng, Cavender, Ross, & Zhao, 2014; Sant'Anna, Christiano, Marczak, Tessaro, & Thys, 2014) a natural antioxidant in fish and meat products (Sáyago-Ayerdi, 447 Brenes, & Goñi, 2009; Sanchez-Alonso, Jimenez-Escrig, Saura-Calixto, & Borderias, 2008; García-448 Lomillo, González-SanJosé, Skibsted, & Jongberg, S., 2016), a texturizing agent in purees (Lavelli, 449 450 Sri Harsha, Mariotti, Marinoni, & Cabassi, 2015) and natural seasoning in meat (García-Lomillo, 451 González-SanJosé, Del Pino-García, Ortega-Heras, & Muñiz-Rodríguez, 2016). Interestingly, a partially dried grape pomace ($a_w \approx 0.55$) was also found to be an optimal matrix for phenolic 452 extraction by pulse electric fields (Brianceau, Turk, Vitrac & Vorobiev, 2015). 453 454 Storage at a_w of 0.32 resulted in further increase in antioxidant stability (Table 5). Anthocyanins halflife was higher than one year, except for delphinidin 3-O-glucoside and cyanidin 3-O-glucoside, 455 which were less stable than the other anthocyanins in both GS and eGSP. Similar values were 456 457 observed by Souza et al. (2014) for total anthocyanins encapsulated in maltodextrins. Proanthocyanidin contents decreased only in GS. The same trend was observed at the a_w level of 0.22, 458 459 with slower rates. At a_w 0.11, no degradation occurred in eGSP, while in GS the degradation of 460 anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins was still prominent, at slower rate with respect to those observed at higher aw levels. As observed at higher aw levels, the decrease of FRAP values was slower than the 461 462 decrease in anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins. Hence, GS degradation phenomena proceeded in GS at the lowest aw level, even if the storage 463 temperature was below 50 °C, i.e., the T_g previously reported (Georget, Guardo, Ng, Smith, & 464 Waldron, 1997). This finding confirms results observed in previous studies for ascorbic acid (Hung 465 et al., 2007) and could be related to heterogeneous water distribution within the food matrix. In 466 467 contrast for eGSP, very slow degradation was observed at a_w 0.22 and no degradation was observed at a_w 0.11. As discussed in 3.2, at these latter a_w values, the storage temperature was below the 468 reported T_g values for maltodextrins (95 °C at a_w 0.11 and 75 °C at a_w 0.23 as reported by Nurhadi et 469 al., 2016). Additionally, as found in the current study, Mo for eGSP corresponded to the aw level of 470

0.18. Hence, the high stability found in this a_w range is probably attributable to the limited water mobility and diffusion rate of reagents. Encapsulation of GSP with maltodextrins through spraydrying, followed by storage at $a_w \le 0.22$, could therefore be a strategy to increase phenolic solubility, and stability, especially for anthocyanins and proanthocyanidins. Hence, use of eGSP stored at $a_w \le 0.22$ could open up another scenario of food applications with targeted functionalities, related to high anthocyanin and proanthocyanidin contents. For instance, eGSP could be used in foods as a dietary aid to inhibit starch digestion enzymes, in which both anthocyanin and proanthocyanidins display particularly high effectiveness (Apostolidis et al., 2007; Boath et al., 2012) leading to food that could address the needs of diabetic people.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The current study led to a description of relevant technological properties of GS and eGSP, such as hygroscopicity, color, odor, antioxidant profile, antioxidant activity and efficacy towards starch digestion inhibition *in vitro*. Antioxidant changes in GS and eGSP during storage at various a_w levels were investigated. Based on the findings obtained, the criteria for processing and storage conditions for GS and eGSP can be defined, which depend on their final use in foods, as illustrated by two possible scenarios. For tailor-made applications involving anthocyanin and proanthocyanidin functionality, i.e., inhibition of starch digestion enzymes, encapsulation with maltodextrins followed by storage at a_w levels below 0.22 is suggested to provide increased levels of these compounds and maximum stability. In contrast, for uses addressing an antioxidant effect, drying of GS could be ended at intermediate moisture levels (a_w 0.75), followed by storage at room temperature, thus accomplishing a shorter heating process and good retention of the antioxidant activity.

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Water sorption properties (left) and images of eGSP and GS equilibrated at various a_w levels at 30 °C (right). In the left-side graph, symbols (●) and (▲) indicate the experimental data for GSP and GS, respectively; error bars indicate SD; continuous lines indicate the absorption isotherms obtained by fitting experimental data with the GAB model.

Figure 2. Time course for the decrease in color (A/Ao) in eGSP (left) and GS (right) during storage at the specified a_w levels, at 30 °C. A and Ao represent the difference between the absorbance at 520 nm and that at 700 nm of the samples diluted in 0.025 M potassium chloride buffer, pH 1.0. at time t and 0, respectively. Error bars represent SD. Dotted lines represent fitting of data with a first-order kinetics. For eGSP stored at the a_w levels 0.22 and 0.11 the decrease was not significant. Rate constants are reported in Table 3.

Figure 3. Time course for the decrease in malvidin 3-O-glucoside concentration (A) in eGSP (left) and GS (right) during storage at the specified a_w levels, at 30 °C. Error bars represent SD. Dotted lines represent fitting of data with a first-order kinetics. For eGSP stored at a_w 0.11 the decrease was not significant. Rate constants are reported in Tables 4 and 5.

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Quality index	GS	eGSP
Total phenolics	43.9 ± 4.2	87.7 ± 3.5
Proanthocyanidins	25.4 ± 4.3	37.7 ± 4.1
Monomeric flavanols	0.26 ± 0.01	1.32 ± 0.01
Monomeric anthocyanins	3.6 ± 0.1	6.9 ± 0.1
Flavonols	1.1 ± 0.1	2.2 ± 0.2
FRAP values	332 ± 40	706 ± 28
α-glucosidase inhibition	0.44 ± 0.02	0.20 ± 0.01
α-amylase inhibition	0.28 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.02

The results are expressed as the average \pm SD.

Table 2. Fermented odor rank sum for eGSP, dried GS and wet GS.

Sample	Phenolic content	Rank sum
Water	-	46 ^e
Dissolved eGSP	0.4	63 ^{de}
Dissolved eGSP	2.5	$86^{\rm cd}$
Dispersed dried GS	0.4	108 ^{bc}
Dispersed dried GS	2.5	128 ^b
Dispersed wet GS	0.4	166 ^a
Dispersed homogenized wet GS	0.4	183 a

To achieve the indicated phenolic content, eGSP and GS were added with 8 mM citric acid, pH 3.0.

Phenolic content is expressed as g GAE/L. Superscripts indicate significant differences (P < 0.0001)

according to LSD test.

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Recovered ingredient	Storage conditions	k*10 ³	Reference
Grape pomace extract			Cardona et al., 2009
in 3% citric acid pH 2.1			,
- cold pressed	55 d, 30 °C	36.4	
- hot pressed	55 d, 30 °C	38.0	
Purified grape pomace	,		
extract			
in 3% citric acid pH 2.1	55 1 20 °C	27.0	
- cold pressed	55 d, 30 °C		
- hot pressed	55 d, 30 °C	26.1	
Grape pomace extract	47 d, 25 °C	5.8	Amendola et al., 2010
in 60% ethanol			
Micronized grape skins			
GS at a _w 0.75	180 d, 30°C	3.31 ± 0.40	This study
GS at a _w 0.56	180 d, 30°C	2.40 ± 0.47	•
GS at a _w 0.32	180 d, 30°C	1.47 ± 0.04	
GS at a _w 0.22	180 d, 30°C	1.51 ± 0.28	
GS at a _w 0.11	180 d, 30°C	1.43 ± 0.02	
Encapsulated grape skin phenological	ics		
eGSP at a _w 0.75	180 d, 30°C	3.81 ± 0.09	This study
eGSP at a _w 0.56	180 d, 30°C	2.54 ± 0.17	•
eGSP at a _w 0.32	180 d, 30°C	1.71 ± 0.30	
eGSP at a _w 0.22	180 d, 30°C	n.s.	
eGSP at a _w 0.11	180 d, 30°C	n.s.	

Color was measured as the difference between absorbance at 520 nm and absorbance at 700 nm of the samples diluted in 0.025 M potassium chloride buffer, pH 1.0. The rate constants are expressed as the average \pm SD. For all the rate constants reported, R² values were > 0.92 and P values were < 0.05. When rate constants are not reported, changes in color were not significant (n.s., P \geq 0.05).

Table 4. First-order rate constants ($k * 10^3$, d^{-1}) and predicted half-life ($t \frac{1}{2}$, d) for antioxidant degradation and decrease in FRAP values in GS and eGSP during storage at intermediate moisture levels ($a_w 0.75$ and 0.56).

		0.75	a _w 0.56					
	GS		eGSP		GS		eGSP	
	k *10 ³	t 1/2	k *10 ³	t 1/2	k *10 ³	t 1/2	k *10 ³	t 1/2
Anthocyanins								
Dp-glc	6.47 ± 0.09	107	11.98 ± 0.08	58	$2.26~\pm~0.32$	307	4.35 ± 0.08	159
Cy-glc	6.41 ± 0.26	108	8.41 ± 0.10	82	2.48 ± 0.37	280	4.30 ± 0.06	161
Pt-glc	4.41 ± 0.01	157	8.31 ± 0.12	83	2.27 ± 0.43	306	3.93 ± 0.03	176
Pn-glc	4.79 ± 0.26	145	7.99 ± 0.11	87	$2.47 ~\pm~ 0.38$	281	3.95 ± 0.16	175
Mv-glc	$4.30 ~\pm~ 0.02$	161	7.56 ± 0.10	92	$2.27 ~\pm~ 0.42$	305	3.65 ± 0.00	190
Mv-pc-glc	2.55 ± 0.09	272	6.90 ± 0.10	100	$1.53 ~\pm~ 0.40$	452	2.71 ± 0.12	255
Flavanols								
C	7.10 ± 0.47	98	9.12 ± 0.01	76	3.38 ± 0.19	205	4.50 ± 0.11	154
EC	$8.33 ~\pm~ 0.07$	83	11.18 ± 0.13	62	4.47 ± 0.55	155	5.51 ± 0.16	126
Proanthocyanidins	3.88 ± 0.16	179	$1.20 ~\pm~ 0.56$	580	2.32 ± 1.40	299	0.61 ± 0.36	1127
Flavonols								
Q-glc + Q -gln	1.26 ± 0.15	550	2.16 ± 0.36	322	0.79 ± 0.29	882	1.23 ± 0.12	562
Q	$0.86~\pm~0.05$	807	n.s.		$0.78 ~\pm~ 0.28$	894	n.s.	
K	$1.04 ~\pm~ 0.01$	665	$2.24 ~\pm~ 0.49$	309	$0.77 ~\pm~ 0.26$	906	n.s.	
Antioxidant activity								
FRAP values	1.43 ± 0.10	486	$1.08 ~\pm~ 0.56$	644	1.06 ± 0.30	657	0.38 ± 0.06	1832

The rate constants are expressed as the average \pm SD. For all the rate constants reported, R² values were > 0.64 and P values were < 0.05. When rate constants are not reported, changes in antioxidant contents were not significant (n.s., P \geq 0.05).

Table 5. First-order rate constants ($k * 10^3$, d^{-1}) and predicted half-life ($t \frac{1}{2}$, d) for antioxidant degradation and decrease in FRAP values in GS and eGSP during storage at low moisture levels ($a_w 0.32$, 0.22 and 0.11).

	\mathbf{a}_{w} 0.32				a _w 0.22				a _w 0.11	
	GS		eGSP		GS		eGSP		GS	
	k *10 ³	t 1/2	k *10 ³	t 1/2	k *10 ³	t 1/2	k *10 ³	t ½	k *10 ³	t 1/2
Anthocyanins										
Dp-glc	3.22 ± 0.08	215	3.49 ± 0.34	199	2.73 ± 0.05	254	0.72 ± 0.66	964	2.94 ± 0.14	235
Cy-glc	3.33 ± 0.02	208	3.21 ± 0.10	216	$1.32 ~\pm~ 0.06$	523	0.58 ± 0.49	1195	0.79 ± 0.15	880
Pt-glc	$1.18 ~\pm~ 0.45$	587	$1.12 ~\pm~ 0.07$	617	0.96 ± 0.07	722	$0.47 ~\pm~ 0.48$	1487	0.90 ± 0.06	767
Pn-glc	1.31 ± 0.56	530	1.29 ± 0.14	538	$0.85 ~\pm~ 0.08$	820	0.50 ± 0.19	1393	0.84 ± 0.03	827
Mv-glc	1.11 ± 0.44	627	$1.02 ~\pm~ 0.03$	676	$0.83 ~\pm~ 0.10$	837	$0.68 ~\pm~ 0.31$	1026	0.77 ± 0.07	896
Mv-pc-glc	$0.89 ~\pm~ 0.45$	789	$1.93 ~\pm~ 0.15$	359	$0.75 ~\pm~ 0.04$	929			0.69 ± 0.05	998
Flavanols										
Proanthocyanidins	$2.70 ~\pm~ 1.8$	253	n.s.		2.64 ± 0.92	263	n.s.		$1.30 ~\pm~ 0.7$	546
Antioxidant activity										
FRAP values	0.65 ± 0.33	1065	n.s.		0.34 ± 0.09	2054	n.s.		n.s.	

The rate constants are expressed as the average \pm SD. For all the rate constants reported, R² values were > 0.64 and P values were < 0.05. When rate constants are not reported, changes in antioxidant contents or FRAP values were not significant (n.s., P \geq 0.05).

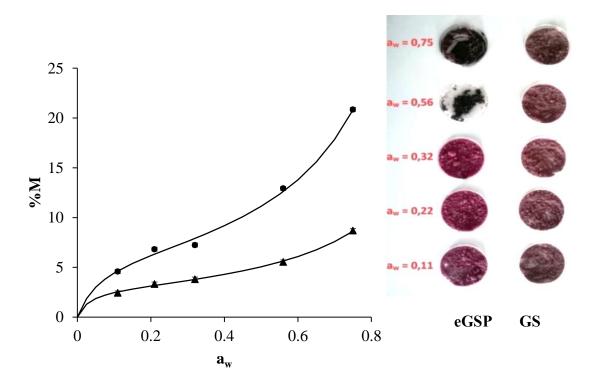


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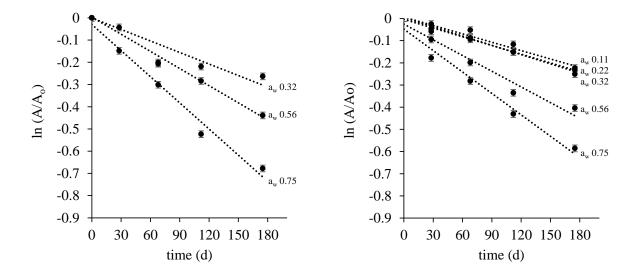


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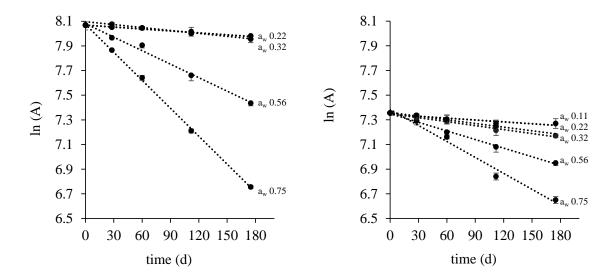


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