



- The models' sensory properties are modulated by phenol content and food composition

37

## 38 **1. Introduction**

39 By-products of the wine industry are rich in phenols and other valuable elements for the human diet  
40 such as mineral salts, fibres and vitamins. There are emerging evidences of the potential preventive  
41 effects of grape polyphenols towards cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and degenerative diseases  
42 such as cancer (Guilford and Pezzuto, 2011, Mihaylova et al., 2018). The role of phenols from grapes  
43 in the prevention of various diseases associated with oxidative stress is primarily related to their  
44 antioxidant properties (Guilford and Pezzuto, 2011, Villaño et al., 2007, Rasines-Perea and Teissedre,  
45 2017).

46 The sustainability of the winemaking process could be improved by the recovery of high-value  
47 bioactive compounds from by-products. Indeed, extensive studies have been made of the biological  
48 properties, extraction techniques and applications in the food system of phenols from grape pomace,  
49 the main by-product of the wine industry (Beres et al., 2017, Yu and Ahmedna, 2013).

50 Unripe grapes (UGs) discarded during thinning are an undervalued by-product of vineyard  
51 management for the production of high-quality wine (Gatti et al., 2012, Keller et al., 2005, Ough and  
52 Nagaoka, 1984). In unripe berries, the most important classes of grape antioxidants (phenolic acids,  
53 flavan-3-ols, flavonols, anthocyanins, stilbenes and glutathione) are present to variable extents in  
54 function of some factors such as variety, maturity level and season (Adams, 2006) but their  
55 antioxidant activity and potential application have received scarce scientific attention (Fia et al., 2018,  
56 Tinello and Lante, 2017). Low-quality unripe grapes are processed into various traditional juices and  
57 sauces with a low pH and variable levels of antioxidant activity ((Dupas de Matos et al., 2018, Öncül  
58 and Karabiyikli, 2015). The added value of thinned grapes is higher than the one of other by-products  
59 of wine industry that were largely studied and proposed as source of antioxidants. That is because,  
60 the thinned grapes have not been exploited to make wine and therefore contain an intact complex of  
61 bio-active compounds. Recently, a green extraction technique (i.e. performed without solvents and  
62 preservatives) was patented (Fia & Gori, 2016) and applied at an industrial level with the aid of a  
63 patented oenological machine (Gori, Menichetti, & Fia, 2014) to obtain an extract from unripe grapes.  
64 Functional food is essentially a marketing term with different definitions and regulations depending  
65 on the country (Henry, 2010). Recently in Europe, there has been a growing interest in functional  
66 foods. A scientific consensus document was drafted to develop a science-based approach for the  
67 emerging concepts in functional food (Europe, 1999). Foods that have been modified by enrichment  
68 with bioactive substances are included in the functional food categories and the health benefits of

69 phenols, beyond basic nutritional values of plant-based food and beverages containing phenols, are  
70 reported in a recent review (Shahidi & Ambigaipalan, 2015).

71 Phenols from plant by-products have been proposed as ingredients for functional foods and beverages  
72 preparation to improve their nutritional characteristics (De Toffoli et al., 2019, Torri et al., 2015,  
73 Nirmala et al., 2018, Świeca et al., 2018). Some examples of functional food enriched with phenols  
74 from tea and Guava are already included in the “food for specified health uses” (FOSHU) and  
75 regulated as functional food in Japan (Iwatani & Yamamoto, 2019).

76 In developing a phenol-enriched functional food, two main aspects need to be investigated: the first  
77 concerns the phenols’ stability after their addition to the food system, affecting the preservation of  
78 their biological activities; the second concerns oral sensations, such as astringency, bitterness and  
79 sourness, which can arise after the addition of phenols to food and impair the acceptability of the  
80 product to consumers.

81 From a sensory point of view, it is well documented that phenolic compounds contribute to the bitter  
82 and astringent oral sensation of food and beverages (Hufnagel & Hofmann, 2008) and this  
83 significantly affects the preference and choice of phenol-rich vegetable foods (Dinnella, Recchia,  
84 Tuorila, & Monteleone, 2011). Monomeric and polymeric phenols have been widely studied because  
85 of their contribution to wine sensory perception. Monomeric flavan-3-ols, procyanidin dimers and  
86 trimers seem to be involved in the perception of astringency and bitterness in red wine (Peleg, Gacon,  
87 Schlich, & Noble, 1999). Several authors have studied the bitterness of polyphenols in red wine,  
88 demonstrating that larger molecules tend to be less bitter and more astringent (Peleg et al., 1999).  
89 More recently, in reconstruction studies it was observed that the puckering astringent offset was  
90 caused by a polymeric fraction exhibiting molecular masses above >5 kDa and it was found to be  
91 amplified by organic acids (Hufnagel & Hofmann, 2008). Some factors such as pH, acidity,  
92 carbohydrate content and saliva characteristics could affect oral sensations (Dinnella et al., 2009, Fia  
93 et al., 2009, de Freitas and Mateus, 2012).

94 To mitigate functional phenol’s bitter and astringent potential, the naturally occurring interactions  
95 phenols/biopolymers in vegetable foods (Zhang et al., 2014) are an effective strategy (De Toffoli et  
96 al., 2019). Plant biopolymers can act as a physical barrier for the phenol stimuli utilized, thus  
97 hindering their interactions with sensory receptors and saliva. Many factors affect phenol/biopolymer  
98 binding, including pH and reagent features such as chemical compositions, structure, and  
99 hydrophobic/hydrophilic characteristics (Kroll, Rawel, & Rohn, 2003). Furthermore, several studies  
100 have investigated the chemical features of phenol/biopolymer interactions and their consequences on  
101 sensory attributes (Jakobek, 2015).

102 The health effects of phenols depend on the consumed amount and on their bioavailability. The  
103 bioavailability of phenols may vary depending on their bioaccessibility, referred as the release from  
104 the food matrix, their stability against several biochemical factors, and their later intestinal absorption  
105 (Sengul, Surek, & Nilufer-Erdil, 2014). The bioavailability of phenols from many different vegetable  
106 sources, including grapes, was systematically studied by Manach, Scalbert, Morand, Rémésy, and  
107 Jiménez (2004). In humans, among the most well absorbed phenols there are gallic acid, catechins  
108 and quercetin glucosides (Manach et al., 2004). Recently, a phenol extract from grape pomace was  
109 included in the diet of Wistar rats by Olivero-David et al. (2018). The same authors observed a partial  
110 bioavailability of the phenol extract and an improvement in lipid metabolism of rats.

111 During food processing, bioactive compounds may undergo chemical degradation and lose their  
112 activities. Thermal processing and long-term storage can lead to a decrease in both polyphenol content  
113 and antioxidant activity (Yu & Ahmedna, 2013). Other factors such as pH and interactions with other  
114 macromolecular food constituents can affect the chemical stability and antioxidant activity of  
115 phenolic compounds (Jakobek, 2015). It is emerging that the bioaccessibility and bioavailability of  
116 phenolic compounds are affected by interaction with other macromolecules such as proteins,  
117 carbohydrates and lipids. These interactions could give phenolic compounds protection from  
118 oxidation during their passage through the gastrointestinal tract (Saura-Calixto, 2011). On the other  
119 hand, phenol/protein interactions can lead to a loss of nutritional values due to protein precipitation  
120 and enzyme inactivation (Rohn, Petzke, Rawel, & Kroll, 2006).

121 Variations in chemical composition, antioxidant activity and sensory profiles in food-base vegetables  
122 with added phenols from unripe grapes have never been investigated before.

123 This paper explores the chemical and sensory properties of phenols extracted from UGs and the  
124 consequences of phenol/biopolymer interactions on the chemical and sensory properties of plant-base  
125 foods. With this aim, three food models with variable macro-compositions in which different  
126 phenol/biopolymer interactions might occur were functionalised with an extract from unripe grapes  
127 (UGs).

128

## 129 **2. Material & Methods**

### 130 *2.1. UG extract and UG-water solutions preparation*

131 The unripe grapes (UGs), cv Merlot, were hand-picked in August 2017 in a commercial vineyard  
132 located in Velletri, Rome, Italy. To obtain the UG extract, maceration was performed as previously  
133 described by Fia et al. (2018), with some modifications (Fig. S1). After decantation and filtration of  
134 the liquid extract, sugar was eliminated by ultrafiltration, using a spiral wound configuration  
135 membrane, with a molecular weight cut-off of 2500 Dalton (General Electrix, Boston, Massachusetts,

136 United States). The liquid extract was dehydrated by lyophilization with the addition of arabic gum  
137 (2% w/v) (Nexira Food, Rouen Cedex, France) as a support and stored in polyethylene pouches under  
138 vacuum, in a desiccator, at room temperature, protected from the light.

139 The UG extract (334 g) was diluted in distilled water to a total volume of 1L. This suspension was  
140 centrifuged at 1646 g, for 10 min, to eliminate the excess arabic gum. The phenol concentration in  
141 the supernatant UG stock solution (SS) was 6.81 g/L. The SS was daily prepared and used to prepare  
142 UG-water solutions at different phenol concentrations to be added to the plant-based food models  
143 (Fig. S1).

144 The UG-water solutions were filtered through a membrane ( $\emptyset$  0.45  $\mu$ m) and the phenolic compounds  
145 were purified using a C18 Sep-pak cartridge (1 g) (Waters, Milan, Italy) before the evaluation of the  
146 total polyphenol content.

147

## 148 *2.2. Food models*

149 Three food models were selected on the basis of their composition (Table S1) and taste: beetroot  
150 purée (BP) characterized by high carbohydrate content, acidic pH and sweet taste; pea purée (PeP)  
151 characterized by high proteins content, neutral pH and sweet taste; potato purée (PoP) characterized  
152 by high carbohydrates content and neutral pH. Canned or powdered ingredients produced by large  
153 food companies were used to prepare the food models, since they are not subject to seasonal  
154 restriction and their composition is constant. Purées of beetroot, pea and potato were prepared as  
155 following: a) 500 g of peeled and steamed beetroots were blended at maximum speed, for about 1  
156 min, using a Kenwood FDM 780 mixer (Kenwood, Treviso, Italy), until it was obtained a  
157 homogeneous product; b) 310 g of steamed peas were rinsed under cold water for 30 sec and drained  
158 for 30 sec to eliminate the water, then 7 g of water were added and the mix was blended at maximum  
159 speed for 2 min in a mixer Kenwood; c) 75 g of dehydrated potatoes were added to 340 g of water  
160 brought to 80 °C and the product was mixed until it became homogeneous, then it was cooled for 30  
161 min before using. Each food model was prepared at five levels of phenol concentration (0.00, 0.21,  
162 0.44, 1.11 and 1.93 g/kg) (Fig. S1).

163

## 164 *2.3. Chemicals*

165 All solvent and reagents were supplied from Sigma-Aldrich (Milan, Italy), except for methanol and  
166 ethanol which were supplied by Carlo Erba (Milan, Italy). Ultrapure water was obtained using a Milli-  
167 Q Gradient water purification system (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA).

168

169 *2.4. Physical-chemical analysis*

170 *2.4.1 General analysis*

171 Total acidity and pH were evaluated according to the methods recommended by the International  
172 Organization of Vine and Wine (OIV) (International Organization of Vine and Wine Website, 2014).

173

174 *2.4.2. Moisture content and water activity*

175 The powder moisture content was determined gravimetrically by drying in a vacuum oven, at 70 °C,  
176 until a constant weight was reached (A.O.A.C. , 1990). Powder water activity (Aw) was measured  
177 using a Rotronic Hygroskop DT hygrometer (Michell Italia Srl, Milan, Italy).

178

179 *2.4.3. Solubility*

180 Water solubility was determined according to (Cano-Chauca, Stringheta, Ramos, & Cal-Vidal, 2005).  
181 A volume of 100 mL of distilled water was transferred into a blender jar. The sample (1 g, dry basis)  
182 was carefully added to the blender while operating at high speed for 5 min. The solution was  
183 centrifuged at 3000 g for 5 min. An aliquot of 25 mL of the supernatant was transferred to pre-  
184 weighed Petri dishes and immediately oven-dried at 105 °C for 5 h. The solubility (%) was calculated  
185 by weight difference.

186

187 *2.4.4. Hygroscopicity*

188 Hygroscopicity was evaluated following the method described by Callahan et al. (1982), with some  
189 modifications. The equilibrium moisture content (EMC) of the samples (1 g, dry basis) was evaluated  
190 following storage in desiccators containing saturated salt solutions with a relative humidity ranging  
191 from 8% to 84% at 25 °C until a constant weight was reached (approx. 21 days). The hygroscopicity  
192 was expressed as g of adsorbed water per 100 g of dry matter (g/100 g dm).

193

194 *2.4.5. Phenol extraction*

195 Extracts were obtained from the food models (FMs) following the method described by Turkmen,  
196 Sari, and Velioglu (2005). For each food matrix, 1 g was homogenized and extracted twice with 4.5  
197 mL of 80% aqueous methanol solution in a mechanical shaker, for 2 h. The mixture was centrifuged  
198 at 13,440 g, for 15 min, at room temperature, and the supernatant decanted into polypropylene tubes.  
199 The supernatant was filtered through Whatman No.1 filter paper. The extraction procedure was  
200 performed in triplicate.

201

202 *2.4.6. Total polyphenol*

203 The total polyphenols (TP) were quantified according to the Folin-Ciocalteu method (Singleton,

204 Rossi & Rossi Jr., 1965). A Perkin Elmer Lambda 10 spectrophotometer (Waltham, MA, USA) was  
205 used to measure the absorbance of the reaction mixture at 700 nm. A standard curve was obtained  
206 with (+)-catechin solutions at concentrations ranging from 5 to 500 mg/L. The TP was expressed as  
207 mg of (+)-catechin equivalents/L of the UG-water solution or kg of the food model extracts.

208

#### 209 *2.4.7. Antioxidant activity*

210 Antioxidant activity was evaluated by 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) assay (Brand-Williams,  
211 Cuvelier, & Berset, 1995). Trolox standard solutions were prepared daily in absolute ethanol at  
212 concentrations ranging from 10 to 600  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ . Antioxidant activity was expressed as  $\mu\text{mol}$  of Trolox  
213 equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC)/L of the solution or kg of the food model extract.

214

#### 215 *2.3.8. LC-HRMS analysis*

216 Analysis of the phenolic compounds and glutathione was performed via liquid chromatography –  
217 high-resolution mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS), according to Fia et al. (2018) using an Accela 1250  
218 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) coupled with an LTQ OrbitrapExact mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher  
219 Scientific) equipped with an electrospray ionization (ESI) source in negative mode. The standards  
220 were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Milan, Italy), except for the quercetin 3-O-glucoside which was  
221 supplied by Analytik GmbH (Rülzheim, Germany). Coumaric and ferulic acids were used as  
222 standards for coumaric and ferulic acids due to the lack of reference materials. Data were expressed  
223 as mg of phenols/kg of the UGs or food models.

224

#### 225 *2.5. Sensory evaluations*

226 The present data were collected as part of a larger study aimed at investigating factors affecting the  
227 acceptability of health foods (PRIN 2015: Individual differences in the acceptability of health foods:  
228 focus on phenol and fat content). This multisession study consisted of a home questionnaire session  
229 and one-on-one testing in a sensory laboratory across two days. This paper will only present a  
230 selection of these data. The sensory tests are further detailed in De Toffoli et al. (2019). Two  
231 respondent groups were recruited to evaluate the UG extract (Group 1:  $n = 29$ ; 59% females; mean  
232 age  $27.5 \pm 7.1$ ) or functionalized food prototypes (Group 2:  $n = 27$ ; 70% females; mean age  $31.5 \pm$   
233  $9.4$ ). The participants received a gift to compensate for their time. The respondents gave their written  
234 informed consent at the beginning of the test according to the principles of the Declaration of  
235 Helsinki. In brief, training was performed as described by Monteleone et al. (2017) using the general  
236 Labelled Magnitude Scale – gLMS (0: no sensation-100: the strongest imaginable sensation of any  
237 kind) (Green et al., 2007). Eight water solutions of UG extract were prepared as sensory stimuli with

238 increasing phenol concentration: 0.14, 0.21, 0.30, 0.41, 0.59, 1.11, 1.27 and 1.93 g/L of phenol (Fig.  
239 S1). The data were collected using Fizz software (ver.2.51. A86, Biosystèmes, Couternon, France).

240

## 241 2.6. Data analysis

242 A one-way ANOVA model was used to assess the storage effect on the variation of phenol content  
243 and antioxidant activity of the UG extract. Two-way ANOVA models were used to assess the effect  
244 of both phenol concentration and replicates on the antioxidant activity in the UG solutions and to  
245 assess the effect of both the amount of phenol added and replicates on the recovery of UG phenols  
246 from food models.

247 The UG phenols recovered (recovery %) from the functionalized food samples were calculated as the  
248 difference between the total phenol content of the functionalized food and that of the non-  
249 functionalized food, then it was expressed as percentage of the phenols added. Two-way ANOVA  
250 models were used to assess the effect of phenol concentration on the intensity of the target sensations  
251 in UG solutions and food prototype samples (phenol concentration were used as fixed factor; subjects  
252 were considered as random factor). Three-way ANOVA were used to assess the effect of the food  
253 matrix on the perceived intensity of the target sensations models (fixed factors: food matrix and  
254 phenol concentration; random factor: subjects and interactions). A p-value of 0.05 was considered as  
255 the threshold for statistical significance.

256 Data analysis was performed using XLSTAT statistical software package (Addinsoft – version  
257 19.02).

258

## 259 3. Results

260

### 261 3.1. Physical-chemical characterization

#### 262 3.1.1. UG extract

263 The solubility of the UG extract was  $88.1 \pm 1.2\%$ . The moisture content of the UG extract, at 25 °C,  
264 was  $8.1 \pm 0.3\%$  and the water activity was  $38.7 \pm 0.1\%$ . The adsorption isotherm of the UG extract at  
265 25 °C was determined (Fig. S2). The experimental data for water activity ( $A_w$ ) as a function of the  
266 moisture content fitted well with the Halsey model (Xiang, Narsimhan, & Okos, 1992), as follows:

$$267 A_w = \exp\left(-\frac{B}{n_s A}\right) \quad (r^2 = 0.98)$$

268

269 where  $n_s$  (g water/g dry matter),  $A = 0.039$  and  $B = 1.461$ .

270



271 The powder displayed little hygroscopic behaviour up to  $A_w$  values  $< 0.80$ , while for  $A_w$  values  
272 greater than 0.85 the hygroscopicity increased exponentially.

273

274 The total phenol content of the UG extract was  $20403 \pm 943$  mg/kg. The total phenol content of the  
275 UG extract was evaluated monthly until to nine months of storage. After this period, the UG extract  
276 displayed the same phenolic concentration as the outset. No significant differences ( $p = 0.05$ ) were  
277 assessed among phenolic content values during storage.

278

279 The phenolic composition of the UG extract was analysed by LC-HRMS. Nineteen phenolic  
280 compounds were identified in the UG extract (Table 1). Phenolic acids were the most abundant class  
281 of phenolic compounds and they accounted for 89% of the amount of phenols identified in the UG  
282 extract. Caftaric acid accounted for 85% of the phenolic acid content. Flavonols, flavan-3-ols,  
283 procyanidins, trans-resveratrol and 2-S-glutathionyl tartaric acid accounted for the remaining 11% of  
284 the amount of phenols detected in the UG extract.

285 The antioxidant activity of the UG extract was  $33829 \pm 949$  TEAC  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{kg}$ , and the specific activity  
286 of the phenols was  $1.66 \pm 0.04$  TEAC  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mg}$ . The antioxidant activity of the UG extract was  
287 evaluated monthly, up to nine months of storage. After this period, the antioxidant activity of the UG  
288 extract remained at 99.4%. No significant differences ( $p = 0.05$ ) were assessed in the antioxidant  
289 activity values at different times of storage.

290

### 291 *3.1.2. UG water solutions*

292 The total phenol content of the stock solution was  $6.81 \pm 0.04$  g/L. The stock solution was  
293 characterized for total acidity ( $7.6 \pm 0.26$  g/L as tartaric acid) and pH ( $3.21 \pm 0.02$ ). The solutions  
294 from the UG extract were tested for antioxidant activity at increasing phenol concentration levels  
295 (0.14, 0.21, 0.30, 0.41, 0.59, 1.11, 1.27 and 1.93 g/L) (Fig. S3). The UG phenol concentration  
296 significantly affected the level of antioxidant activity of the water solutions ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) while the  
297 replicates were not significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). A significant positive relationship ( $r = 0.978$ ) was found  
298 between the total phenol content and the antioxidant activity of the UG water solutions.

299

### 300 *3.1.3. Functionalized food models*

301 After the addition of an increasing amount (0.00, 0.21, 0.44, 1.11 and 1.93 g/kg) of UG phenols to  
302 the food models, the phenol concentration in the FM extracts was determined (Fig. 1A). The non-  
303 functionalized food models showed different phenolic content, with the highest level detected in the

304 beetroot purée and the lowest in the potato purée. The amount of phenols added to the food models  
305 significantly affected the concentration of phenols found in the FM extracts ( $p \leq 0.05$ ).

306 The phenols recovered from food models significantly varied as a function of both the food model  
307 and the amount of phenols added. The recovered amount ranged from 27.7% to 81.3% in the beetroot  
308 purée, from 34.0% to 53.6% in the pea purée and from 52.7% to 86.4% in the potato purée. The mean  
309 phenol value recovered with the highest added amount of phenols was highest in the potato purée  
310 (68.7%), followed by the beetroot purée (57.8%), and the pea purée (43.3%). (Fig. 1B).

311 The food samples functionalized with the highest amount of phenols (1.93 g/kg) were extracted and  
312 the extracts analysed via LC-HRMS to evaluate their phenol composition. The FM extracts contained  
313 almost all of the phenolic compounds identified in the original UG extract, except for kaempferol-3-  
314 O-glucoside, quercetin-3-O-hexoside and 2-S-glutathionyl caftaric acid (Table 1). Caftaric acid was  
315 the most abundant phenolic compound assayed in the FM extracts of the three food models. Ferulic  
316 acid was not detected in the potato purée. The phenol profiles of the food model functionalized with  
317 1.93 g/kg of UG phenols were compared to the profile of the UG extract (Fig. 1C). The relative  
318 amounts of each phenolic class in functionalized beetroot purée was similar to that observed in the  
319 UG extract, while slight differences were observed in the functionalized pea and potato purées.  
320 Phenolic acids represented the most abundant class of phenols in the UG extract (90.3%) and the  
321 beetroot purée almost retained this same high percentage (88.9%), while in the pea and potato purées  
322 a slight loss was observed (80.6 and 83.9%, respectively). The proportion of other phenolic classes  
323 (flavonols, flavan-3-ols, procyanidins and stilbenes) was slightly higher in the pea and potato purées  
324 compared to the figure observed in the UG extract and the beetroot purée.

325 The antioxidant activity of the food models with an increasing added amount (0.00, 0.21, 0.44, 1.11  
326 and 1.93 g/kg) of UG phenols was determined after extraction (Fig. 2A). The non-functionalized  
327 beetroot and pea purées had similar values of antioxidant activity while it was much lower in the  
328 potato purée. A significant increase in antioxidant activity was observed in the beetroot purée as  
329 function of the UG phenol concentration. No significant difference was observed between the  
330 antioxidant activity of the pea purée functionalized with 0.44 or 1.11 g/kg of UG phenols.

331 The difference between the antioxidant activity of functionalized food and that of food without added  
332 phenol was calculated to assess the contribution of UG phenols to the food models' final antioxidant  
333 activity. The relationship between the antioxidant activity of UG phenols in the water solution and in  
334 the FM extracts is shown in Fig. 2B. The antioxidant activity was always significantly higher in the  
335 extracts of beetroot purée compared to that detected in the potato and pea purée extracts. The mean  
336 antioxidant activity was 3794  $\mu\text{mol/kg}$  in the BP, 1722  $\mu\text{mol/kg}$  in the PoP and 1127  $\mu\text{mol/kg}$  in the  
337 PeP extracts.

338

## 339 3.2. Sensory evaluation

### 340 3.2.1. UG extract solutions

341 The phenol concentration of the UG solutions significantly affected the intensity of the target  
342 sensations (Fig. 3A and Table S2). According to the F values, the increase in phenol concentration  
343 had the strongest effect on sourness while it influenced the other target sensations much less.  
344 Significant intensity increases were observed in the samples with phenols from the UG extract  
345 compared to the sample without added phenol (0.00 g/L). Sourness increased from weak to strong  
346 across the phenol concentration range. Bitterness, astringency and saltiness showed limited intensity  
347 increases, from barely detectable to weak.

348 Four concentration levels, which cover the whole range of significant variations of intensity of target  
349 sensations, were selected to fortify the vegetable matrices: 0.00, 0.21, 0.41, 1.11 and 1.93 g/L.

350

### 351 3.2.2. Functionalized foods

352 The intensity of target sensations significantly changed in all of the three vegetable prototypes as a  
353 function of the increasing phenol concentrations, the only exception being sweetness in the PoP  
354 (Table 2). Phenol concentration induced the strongest effect on sourness in all of the three food  
355 models as showed by F-values. The intensity of the other sensations was influenced by both the  
356 increase in phenol concentration and, to a lesser extent, by the macro-composition of the matrix. All  
357 of the sensations were barely detectable in the beetroot purée sample without added phenol, while in  
358 the rest of the samples, sourness increased from weak to strong, sweetness showed a significant  
359 decrease from moderate to weak, while saltiness, astringency and bitterness increased slightly from  
360 barely detectable to weak (Fig. 3 B-Beetroot purée). The variation in intensity of the target sensation  
361 in the pea purée as a function of the phenol concentration was similar to that observed in the beetroot  
362 purée (Fig. 3 C-Pea purée). The increase in sourness from barely detectable to moderate was  
363 associated with a significant decrease in sweetness, from moderate to weak, while the rest of the  
364 sensations were perceived at a weak intensity or even lower. In the potato purée sample without added  
365 phenols, all the sensations were rated at a barely detectable/weak intensity, while only sourness  
366 showed a remarkable increase from barely detectable to strong as the phenol concentration increased  
367 (Fig. 3 d-Potato purée).

368 Bitterness, astringency and saltiness were not further investigated since these sensations were  
369 marginally affected by addition of phenols and perceived at a weak intensity across the whole range  
370 of concentrations.

371

372 Sourness and sweetness perceived in the food functionalized at different UG concentration were  
373 compared to further explore the effect of food macro-composition on UG phenol sensory properties.  
374 While the vegetable matrix and phenol concentration significantly affected the intensity of sourness  
375 and sweetness, the vegetable matrix\*concentration interaction was never significant (Table S3).  
376 Significant differences were found upon comparing sourness from the three matrices at phenol  
377 concentrations of 0.41, 1.11 and 1.93 g/L. The highest sourness intensity was rated in the PoP,  
378 whereas no significant differences were found between the BP and PeP (Fig. 4-A). Sweetness was  
379 rated as more intense in the BP and PeP than in the PoP across the 0.0 to 0.41 g/kg concentration  
380 range of spiked phenols. At the highest concentration levels, sweetness was perceived at the highest  
381 intensity in the BP (Fig. 4-B).

382

#### 383 **4. Discussion**

384 Physical-chemical characterization was carried out to evaluate the attitude of UG extract towards  
385 rehydration and stability during storage, in terms of phenolic content and antioxidant activity. The  
386 solubility value of the UG extract was similar to those (86%–88%) obtained by Kuck and Noreña  
387 (2016) on grape skin extracts lyophilized with arabic gum and partially hydrolysed guar gum as  
388 supports.

389 The moisture content and water activity value of the UG extract were in agreement with the results  
390 obtained on grape skin extracts by Kuck and Noreña (2016). The UG extract showed similar  
391 hygroscopic behaviour to the absorption isotherm of an aqueous solution of salts and simple sugars.  
392 Therefore, the powder has to be protected from humidity during storage to avoid water absorption,  
393 thus preserving the extract's stability.

394 The total phenol content of the UG extract was similar to that obtained by Kuck and Noreña (2016)  
395 on aqueous extracts of grape skin microencapsulated with different agents while the antioxidant  
396 activity was slightly lower. In general, the phenol content and antioxidant activity of extracts vary  
397 mainly depending on the origin of grape by-products and extraction conditions (Trigo, Alexandre,  
398 Saraiva, & Pintado, 2019). Indeed, when ethanol or methanol were used for the extraction, the  
399 phenolic content and antioxidant activity of the extracts were higher than those detected in aqueous  
400 extracts (Trigo et al., 2019, Tournour et al., 2017). After nine months, the high percentage of both  
401 residual phenols and antioxidant activity in the UG extract indicated that the adopted storage  
402 conditions were suitable to protect the UG phenols from degradation.

403 When a different amount of the UG phenols was used to enrich the food models, the increase of  
404 phenol concentration in the FM extracts was expected. Similar results were obtained by other authors  
405 who studied the addition of phenolic extracts from different by-products to some food and beverages

406 (Trigo et al., 2019). Chemical-physical characteristics of food models explored in these study  
407 significantly affect phenol recovery thus indicating clear reactivity differences between UG phenols  
408 and food components. The lowest amount of phenols was recovered from the protein-rich model (pea  
409 purée). A similar effect of the interaction phenol/biopolymers on the bioactivity of phenols from olive  
410 mill waste waters in plant-based food has already been observed by other authors (De Toffoli et al.,  
411 2019).

412 The formation of phenol/protein aggregates significantly lowers the phenol bio-activity both in terms  
413 of extractability from raw material and antioxidant activity (Ozdal, Capanoglu, & Altay, 2013).  
414 Proteins bind plant polyphenols through hydrophobic and hydrogen interactions; the preferred sites  
415 of interaction plant phenol/food protein in in vitro conditions are the proline-rich regions of  
416 leguminous proteins characterized by high basic-residue contents as well as open and flexible  
417 structures (Kroll et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2014).

418 Phenol chemical structure, size and composition, including number of OH groups, play an important  
419 role in phenol/protein interactions, and phenolic compounds with a low molecular weight are  
420 inefficient to bond proteins (de Freitas & Mateus, 2012). It is known that upon extraction, the acidic  
421 condition of grape juice promotes the depolymerization of proanthocyanidins (Vidal, Cartalade,  
422 Souquet, Fulcrand, & Cheynier, 2002). However, these reactions begin during maceration and  
423 proceed slowly in wine, but they have never been highlighted in grape juice.

424 The quite high percentages of UG phenols recovered, mainly in the carbohydrate-rich potato and  
425 beetroot purée food models, indicated that moderate/weak chemical interactions take place among  
426 UG phenols and food components. These findings, associated with the significant increase in  
427 antioxidant activity detected in the functionalized food models after the addition of UG phenols,  
428 indicate that most of the potential biological activity and the extractability of UG phenols were  
429 maintained after blending.

430 Phenolic compounds can bridge or cross-link with polysaccharides, and a large fraction of the not  
431 extractable polyphenols consist phenol associated with polysaccharides (Pérez-Jiménez, Díaz-Rubio,  
432 & Saura-Calixto, 2013). The consequences of phenol/carbohydrate interactions on phenol biological  
433 activity depends on the chemical characteristics of both phenols and carbohydrates (Zhang et al.,  
434 2014).

435 Other authors have described a competition between the arabic gum and other carbohydrates and the  
436 proteins to bind to the tannin (Gonçalves, Mateus, & de Freitas, 2011). The mechanism was  
437 previously investigated by tasting the influence of several carbohydrates on the formation of  
438 polyphenols/protein complexes. Polygalacturonic acid, arabic gum and pectin prevented the  
439 association of procyanidin B3 with trypsin, and that of salivary proteins with grape seed procyanidins.

440 The interruption of polyphenol-protein association by carbohydrates can prevent some of the negative  
441 effects of these complexes, such as enzyme activity inhibition, and it can influence the perceived  
442 astringency of some food products.

443 The antioxidant activity of UG phenols was influenced by the food composition. The highest level of  
444 antioxidant activity was found in the carbohydrate-rich/acidic pH beetroot purée. The antiradical  
445 capacity of phenols depends on several factors such as their concentration and structures, and the  
446 physical–chemical characteristics of the solvent. The role of acidity in the kinetics of phenol/radical  
447 reactions was previously investigated by (Musialik, Kuzmicz, Pawcowski, & Litwinienko, 2009). In  
448 general, it is known that deprotonated flavonoids are more potent electron donors and are better  
449 radical scavengers than neutral molecules. However, the ability of phenols to scavenge reactive  
450 oxygen species such as peroxy and hydroxyl radicals is still far from being fully understood.  
451 Valgimigli et al. (2009) described an unexpected dramatic acceleration of phenol-peroxy radical  
452 reaction with the addition of acid. The best performance, in terms of antioxidant activity, of UG  
453 phenols when added to beetroot purée could be due to the acidic pH of the beetroot food model.

454 Sensory profiles of the three matrices were significantly affected by the addition of UG extracts.  
455 Sourness intensity increased as a function of the UG phenol concentration. The natural sweetness of  
456 the beetroot and pea purées was reduced by the spiked phenols due to the intermodal interaction  
457 between sour and bitter tastes, which induced the suppression of perceived sweetness as the sourness  
458 intensity increased (Keast & Breslin, 2002). The bitterness, saltiness and astringency intensities were  
459 significantly modified by the UG extract, but the extent of these effects appears marginal since these  
460 sensations are perceived at a weak intensity across the whole range of concentrations.

461 The different compositions of the vegetable matrices affect the UG phenols' contribution to sourness.  
462 Furthermore, the observed increasing intensity range differed across the series of samples indicating  
463 that their macro-component plays an active role in modulating the sensory impact of UG phenols.

464

## 465 **5. Conclusions**

466 An extract from unripe grapes showed suitable physical–chemical characteristics for its inclusion in  
467 plant-based foods. Food composition influenced the functional and sensory properties of phenols  
468 from unripe grapes. The strongest effect in terms of recovered phenol and antioxidant activity was  
469 observed in protein-based food. The use of matrices high in carbohydrates, with acidic pH and  
470 characterized by sweet taste appears a suitable strategy to counteract the impact of the negative  
471 sensory properties of added phenol on plant-based food. The use of phenolic extracts from unripe  
472 grapes can be useful to improve potential health benefits when formulating plant-based functional  
473 food.

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475

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479 and fat content”.

480

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643 **Figure legend**

644 **Figure 1.** Total phenols (A) of food models, mean values of UG phenols recovered (B) from beetroot—  
645 purée (BP), pea purée (PeP) and potato purée (PoP) functionalized with increasing amounts (0.00,  
646 0.21, 0.44, 1.11 and 1.93 g/kg of food) of phenols and percentage of each phenolic class (C) detected  
647 in the UG extract (UG ext) and food models functionalized with 1.93 g/kg phenols from UG extract.  
648 The bars represent standard deviation. Different letters represent significant different values ( $p \leq$   
649 0.001).

650

651 **Figure 2.** Antioxidant activity (A) of beetroot purée (BP), pea purée (PeP) and potato purée (PoP)  
652 functionalized with increasing amounts of phenols (0, 0.21, 0.44, 1.11 and 1.93 g/kg of food) from  
653 UG extract and antioxidant activity (B) of UG phenols in water solution vs antioxidant activity in the  
654 FM extracts. The bars represent standard deviation. Different letters represent significant different  
655 values ( $p \leq 0.001$ ).

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657 **Figure 3.** Mean intensity of target sensations (A) in the UG solutions with increasing phenol  
658 concentration and food models (B, C and D) functionalized with increasing concentrations of phenols  
659 from UG extract. The bars represent standard error.

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661 **Figure 4.** Effect of the vegetable matrix on the perceived intensity of sourness (A) and sweetness (B)  
662 in foods spiked with different concentrations of phenols from UG extract. Different letters represent  
663 significant different values ( $p \leq 0.038$ ).

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677 **Table 1.** Phenol profile of the UG extract and phenols detected in the FM extracts. Beetroot purée  
 678 (BP), pea purée (PeP) and potato purée (PoP) functionalized with 1.93 g/kg of phenols from the UG  
 679 extract.

Compound	mg/kg			
	UG extract	BP*	PeP*	PoP*
<i>Phenolic acid</i>				
Caffeic acid	11.0 ± 0.4	1.04 ± 0.07 <sup>c</sup>	1.55 ± 0.14 <sup>a</sup>	1.28 ± 0.14 <sup>b</sup>
Caftaric acid	52.0 ± 2.0	3.44 ± 0.10 <sup>a</sup>	3.54 ± 0.28 <sup>a</sup>	3.71 ± 0.19 <sup>a</sup>
Coumaric acid	19.6 ± 0.6	1.80 ± 0.13 <sup>b</sup>	2.30 ± 0.12 <sup>a</sup>	1.79 ± 0.14 <sup>b</sup>
Coutaric acid	34.3 ± 1.1	2.31 ± 0.17 <sup>a</sup>	2.03 ± 0.18 <sup>ab</sup>	1.81 ± 0.15 <sup>b</sup>
Fertaric acid	704 ± 33	48.7 ± 1.2 <sup>a</sup>	35.7 ± 6.5 <sup>b</sup>	36.5 ± 4.0 <sup>b</sup>
Ferulic acid	4.63 ± 0.59	2.51 ± 0.04 <sup>a</sup>	0.44 ± 0.03 <sup>b</sup>	nd
Gallic acid	1.63 ± 0.03	0.03 ± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.24 ± 0.02 <sup>a</sup>	0.05 ± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>
<i>Flavonols</i>				
Isorhamnetin	1.41 ± 0.03	0.05 ± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.09 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.06 ± 0.02 <sup>b</sup>
Kaempferol	0.78 ± 0.04	0.06 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.06 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.07 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>
Kaempferol-3- <i>O</i> -glucoside	0.54 ± 0.03	nd	nd	nd
Myricetin	3.79 ± 0.11	0.39 ± 0.03 <sup>b</sup>	0.47 ± 0.04 <sup>a</sup>	0.45 ± 0.03 <sup>ab</sup>
Quercetin	14.0 ± 0.4	1.26 ± 0.11 <sup>b</sup>	1.48 ± 0.13 <sup>ab</sup>	1.57 ± 0.14 <sup>a</sup>
Quercetin-3- <i>O</i> -hexoside	1.32 ± 0.08	nd	nd	nd
<i>Flavan-3-ols</i>				
(+)-Catechin	13.6 ± 0.8	1.23 ± 0.07 <sup>c</sup>	2.28 ± 0.12 <sup>a</sup>	1.51 ± 0.11 <sup>b</sup>
(-)-Epicatechin	8.23 ± 0.29	0.70 ± 0.03 <sup>c</sup>	1.09 ± 0.08 <sup>a</sup>	0.83 ± 0.05 <sup>b</sup>
<i>Procyanidins</i>				
Procyanidin B1	4.55 ± 0.19	0.44 ± 0.04 <sup>b</sup>	0.56 ± 0.04 <sup>a</sup>	0.47 ± 0.06 <sup>ab</sup>
Procyanidin B2	9.74 ± 0.37	1.13 ± 0.05 <sup>c</sup>	1.66 ± 0.05 <sup>a</sup>	1.33 ± 0.07 <sup>b</sup>
<i>Stilbenes</i>				
Trans-resveratrol	31.3 ± 1.6	2.18 ± 0.13 <sup>b</sup>	3.33 ± 0.48 <sup>a</sup>	2.36 ± 0.36 <sup>b</sup>
2- <i>S</i> -Glutathionyl caftaric acid	16.8 ± 0.6	nd	nd	nd

680 Data are expressed as mean ± standard deviation (n=3); nd, not detected. Different letters represent  
 681 significant different values ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) among the columns.

682 **Table 2.** Two-way ANOVA mixed model (random effect: assessors): phenol concentration effect  
 683 on intensity of target sensations in food models. Mean, F and p values.

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	F	p	Concentration of phenols from UG (g/kg)				
			0.00	0.21	0.41	1.11	1.93
<b>Bitterness</b>							
Beetroot Purée	4.92	0.0011	0.97 b	1.34 b	0.62 b	1.34 b	3.31 a
Pea Purée	6.78	< 0.0001	1.28 b	1.31 b	1.41 b	3.72 a	5.28 a
Potato Purée	2.53	0.0445	2.61 b	3.00 b	3.25 b	4.11 ab	5.46 a
<b>Sourness</b>							
Beetroot Purée	26.22	< 0.0001	2.38 c	3.07 c	4.41 c	13.86 b	21.86 a
Pea Purée	39.02	< 0.0001	3.48 b	3.34 b	5.62 b	16.31 a	19.72 a
Potato Purée	48.39	< 0.0001	3.07 e	8.54 d	13.46 c	20.43 b	27.68 a
<b>Saltiness</b>							
Beetroot Purée	4.85	0.0012	1.17 b	1.38 b	2.38 b	2.86 ab	4.55 a
Pea Purée	3.63	0.0081	4.52 c	4.31 c	5.79 bc	7.24 ab	8.55 a
Potato Purée	5.78	0.0003	2.29 bc	1.96 c	3.89 bc	4.00 b	6.14 a
<b>Sweetness</b>							
Beetroot Purée	3.07	0.0194	16.31 a	17.79 a	15.21 ab	13.83 ab	11.28 b
Pea Purée	10.01	< 0.0001	12.72 a	13.69 a	11.41 a	7.31 b	5.52 b
Potato Purée	1.56	0.1865	4.18	3.21	3.43	2.36	2.54
<b>Astringency</b>							
Beetroot Purée	4.64	0.0017	4.31 bc	4.07 c	3.31 c	7.38 a	6.34 ab
Pea Purée	4.16	0.0035	5.48 bc	3.72 c	3.97 bc	6.76 ab	8.72 a
Potato Purée	6.01	0.0001	2.86 c	4.93 bc	6.86 ab	7.64 a	8.43 a

685 Different letters indicate significantly different values ( $p \leq 0.05$ ).

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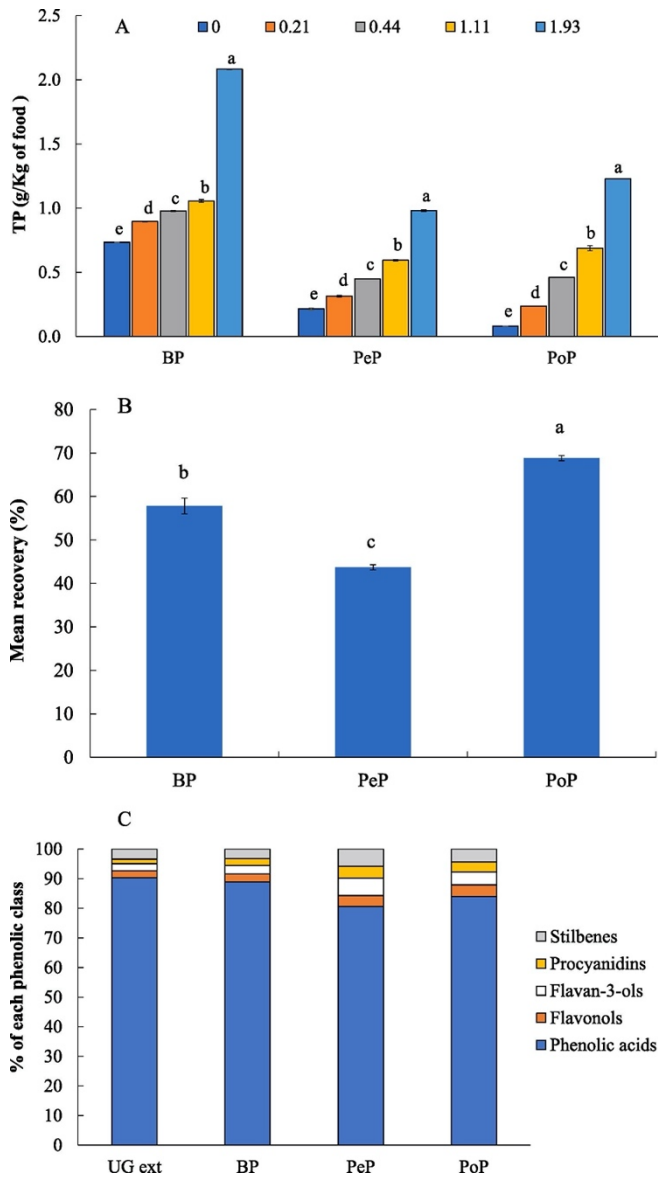
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697 Figure 1.



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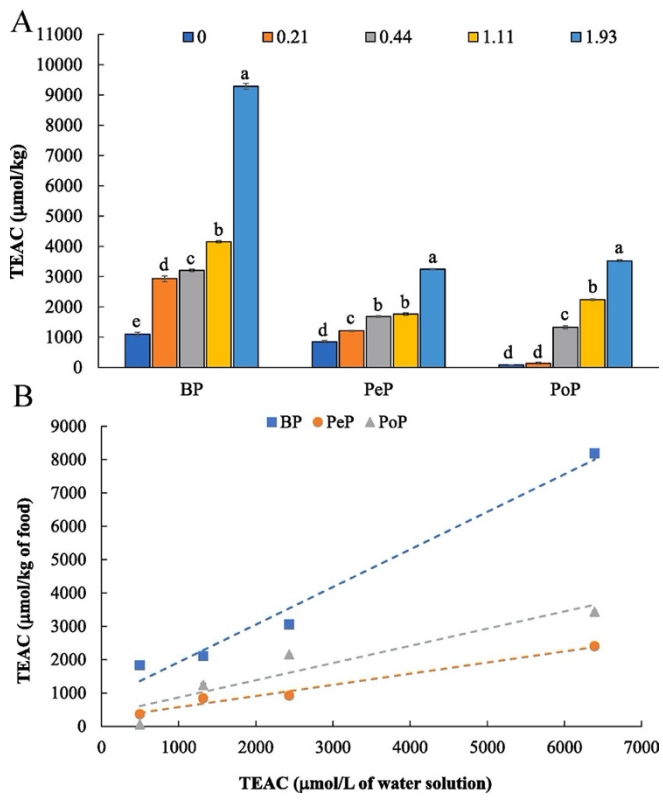
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711 Figure 2.



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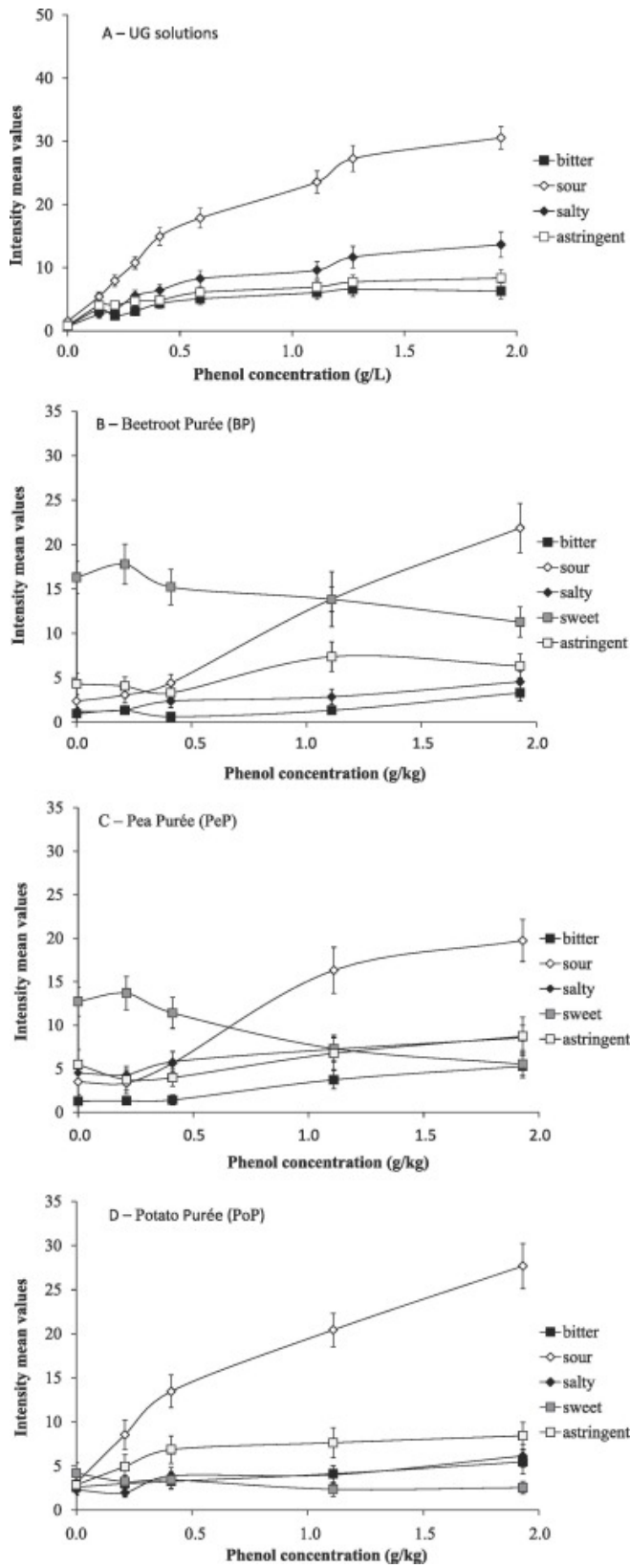
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732 Figure 3.



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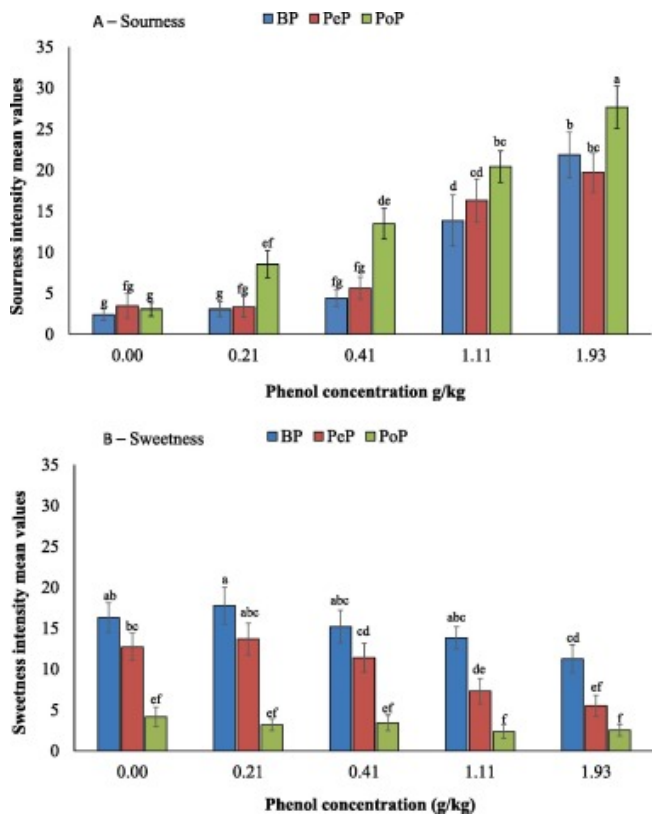
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738 Figure 4.



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