

1 **Recovery of lycopene from industrially derived tomato processing by-products by pulsed**  
2 **electric fields-assisted extraction**

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9

## 10 **Abstract**

11 The influence of pulsed electric fields (PEF) pre-treatment at different field strength ( $E=1-5$  kV/cm)  
12 and energy input ( $W_T=5-10$  kJ/kg) on the recovery yield of lycopene in either acetone or ethyl lactate  
13 from industrial tomato peels residues, was investigated. The rate of lycopene extraction in both  
14 solvents decreased with time and was predicted rather satisfactorily ( $R^2=0.96-0.99$ ) by the Peleg's  
15 model. Micrograph of tomato peels showed that PEF induced size reduction and separation between  
16 the plant cells likely due to pore formation and leakage of intracellular matter. Coherently, PEF  
17 treatment (5 kV/cm, 5 kJ/kg) significantly enhanced the extraction rate (27-37%), the lycopene yields  
18 (12-18%) and the antioxidant power (18.0-18.2%) in either acetone and ethyl lactate extracts, as  
19 compared with untreated samples. However, acetone gave the highest lycopene yield. HPLC analyses  
20 revealed that all-trans lycopene was the main carotenoid extracted and no degradation/isomerization  
21 phenomena occurred. The results obtained in this work suggest that the application of PEF prior to  
22 solid-liquid extraction with environmentally friendly solvents could represent a sustainable approach  
23 for the valorization of industrial tomato peels residues.

24  
25 **Keywords:** Tomato processing by-products; pulsed electric fields (PEF); extraction; lycopene;  
26 antioxidant; HPLC.

## 27 28 **1. Introduction**

29 Tomato (*Solanum Lycopersicon*) is among the most consumed vegetables in the world, being a low  
30 caloric source of many traditional nutrients and a predominant source of bioactive compounds with  
31 functional and health beneficial properties, especially carotenoids (Lu, Wang, Gao, Fe, & Zhao, 2019;  
32 Pataro, Sinik, Capitoli, Donsi, & Ferrari, 2015; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2014).

33 In terms of global production, around 180 million tons of tomatoes are produced each year  
34 (FAOSTAT, 2016), of which about 80% are processed to obtain products such as peeled tomato

35 (whole, diced, or sliced), paste, juices, sauce and ketchup, whose manufacture often requires peel  
36 removal (Arnal et al., 2018; Rock, Yang, Goodruch-Schneider, & Feng, 2012). Peeling is, therefore,  
37 a key unit operation in the industrial transformation of tomatoes prior to further processing. It  
38 typically involves the use of hot lye (e.g., sodium hydroxide) solutions or a steam peeling process,  
39 which consists of a rapid steam blanching of the whole tomato fruits coupled with vacuum cooling  
40 prior to mechanical removal of peels (Arnal et al., 2018; Rock et al., 2012).

41 Thus, industrial processing of tomatoes unavoidably generates large amount of by-products,  
42 accounting for approximately 2-5 % in weight of the total processed tomato fruits (Knoblich,  
43 Anderson, & Latshaw, 2005), whose constitution depends on the form of the final product and the  
44 peeling method applied (Lu et al., 2019). For example, in the case of peeled tomatoes for canning,  
45 tomato by-products is only composed of peels, while the manufacturing of homogenized products,  
46 such as juice and paste, typically generates a mixture of peels, seeds as well as a small amount of pulp  
47 (Lu et al., 2019).

48 These by-products represent a major disposal problem for tomato processing companies, where they  
49 currently find low-added value uses as animal feed or compost (Knoblich et al., 2005; Strati &  
50 Oreopoulou, 2014), or are directly sent to landfill (Rossini et al., 2013).

51 However, the previous research revealed that tomato by-products retain, among others, large amount  
52 of natural carotenoid compounds with high antioxidant activity which, therefore, seem to withstand  
53 to industrial processing methods and whose recovery might bring significant economic and  
54 environmental benefits (Juric, Ferrari, Velikov, & Donsi, 2019; Lu et al., 2019; Pataro et al., 2018,  
55 Pataro, Carullo, & Ferrari, 2019; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2014). Lycopene, a bright red pigment, is the  
56 most abundant carotenoid in tomato processing by-products. It accumulates in the peels (Strati &  
57 Oreopoulou, 2014) at concentrations about five times higher than in tomato seeds (Knoblich et al.,  
58 2005) and pulp (Luengo, Alvarez, & Raso, 2014). Because of its superior antioxidant activity,  
59 lycopene has been found to have significant beneficial effect on human health in reducing the risk of  
60 cardiovascular diseases, atherosclerosis, prostate cancer and cognitive impairment (Giovannucci,

61 1999; Giovannucci, Rimm, Liu, Stampfer, & Willett, 2002; Song et al., 2017; Story, Kopec,  
62 Schwartz, & Harris, 2010). Therefore, in addition to its use as natural pigment in the dyeing of various  
63 kinds of food products (Strati & Oreopoulou, 2014), lycopene has been proposed, or is already used,  
64 in a wide range of industrial applications as food supplement or nutraceutical ingredient in the  
65 formulation of food products (Lu et al., 2019), as well as in the preparation of skin cosmetic for its  
66 antiaging properties (Lenucci et al, 2015), up to the more recent pharmaceutical uses (Mussagy,  
67 Winterburn, Santos-Ebinuma, & Pereira, 2019). This large number of applications of lycopene as  
68 high-added value product, combined with its abundance in tomato peels, and the growing consumer's  
69 demand for natural food additives, justifies the greater interest of researchers and manufacturers in  
70 the recovery of lycopene from tomato processing by-products, which are discarded from the peeling  
71 operation (Juric et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2019).

72 As most of the carotenoid compounds, lycopene is a highly hydrophobic molecule that is found  
73 predominantly in the chromoplast of plant tissues (Pataro et al., 2015; Juric et al., 2019). Because of  
74 these reasons, conventional methods used to recovery lycopene from tomato peels with sufficiently  
75 high yield typically require intensive pre-treatments of the raw material, mainly comminution and  
76 drying (Knoblich et al., 2005; Luengo et al., 2014; Pataro et al., 2018; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2014),  
77 as well as excessive usage of organic solvents, which are very often toxic and harmful, thus with  
78 negative effects in terms of environmental sustainability and on human health due to the uncompleted  
79 solvent removal from the final product (Ishida & Chapman, 2009; Lu et al., 2019; Strati &  
80 Oreopoulou, 2014).

81 In light of these drawbacks of conventional solvent extraction methods, in recent studies alternative,  
82 more sustainable, environmental friendly and food safety approaches were proposed, such as those  
83 based on the implementation of wet disruption methods of plant cells, such as pulsed electric field  
84 (PEF), prior to the extraction process (Grimi et al., 2014; Liu, Zeng, & Ngadi, 2018; Luengo et al,  
85 2014; Pataro et al., 2018, 2019; Rocha et al., 2018), as well as on the usage of low impact solvents  
86 (Ishida & Chapman, 2009; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2011b).

87 More specifically, it has been shown that PEF pre-treatment of moderate electric field intensity (0.5-  
88 10 kV/cm) and relatively low energy input (1-10 kJ/kg) has beneficial effects on the permeabilization  
89 of membranes of plant cells, thus enabling high recovery yields of intracellular compounds of interest  
90 from a wide range of food processing wastes and by-products (Puértolas & Barba, 2016), while  
91 reducing the energy costs, the solvent consumption and shortening the treatment time (Rajha et al.,  
92 2019; Rocha et al., 2018; Sarkis, Boussetta, Tessaro, Marczak, & Vorobiev, 2015; Yu, Gouyo, Grimi,  
93 Bals, & Vorobiev, 2016).

94 Nevertheless, as per literature survey, only few works deal with the use of PEF as an intensification  
95 pre-treatment in the extraction of carotenoids from tomato peels, which were achieved at laboratory  
96 level after either peeling of untreated (Luengo et al., 2014) or PEF treated fresh tomato fruits (Pataro  
97 et al., 2018), or after steam blanching of tomatoes (Pataro et al., 2019). However, none of them was  
98 addressed to demonstrate the potential of PEF to intensify the extractability of carotenoids from peels  
99 derived from industrial steam peeling operation of tomato fruits, which might potentially induce  
100 thermal damages at cuticular level, thus making the subsequent PEF treatment useless.

101 The main objective of this work was to demonstrate the potential of PEF to intensify the  
102 extractability of carotenoids, especially lycopene, from peels derived from industrial steam peeling  
103 of tomato fruits in two different extraction solvents. Specifically, solvents with lower environmental  
104 impact and toxicity like acetone, listed in Class 3 by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration  
105 (“regarded as less toxic and of lower risk to human health”), and ethyl lactate, an environmental  
106 friendly solvent fully biodegradable in CO<sub>2</sub> and water, which is miscible with both hydrophilic and  
107 hydrophobic compounds (Amaro et al., 2015; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2011b), were selected for this  
108 work. Firstly, the effect of different combinations of field strength (E) and total specific energy input  
109 ( $W_T$ ) on the extraction kinetics of lycopene was examined in each solvent with the aim to define  
110 optimal PEF pre-treatment conditions and extraction time. Then, the effect of the PEF-assisted  
111 extraction process carried out under optimal conditions on the total content and composition of  
112 carotenoids, as well as on the antioxidant activity of the extracts, was assessed.

113

## 114 2. Materials and methods

### 115 2.1. Tomato by-products

116 Tomato-processing by-products, mainly composed of peels, were gently provided by FPD s.r.l, a  
117 processing factory located in Fisciano (Salerno, Italy). For this work, tomato peels were obtained  
118 upon industrial steam peeling of tomato fruits (*Solanum lycopersicum*) of the “Taylor” variety, which  
119 were field-grown in Apulia region (Southern Italy) in season 2018. The fresh fruits, having an almost  
120 cylindrical shape ( $4.4 \pm 0.3$  cm in diameter,  $7.9 \pm 0.5$  cm in length), were harvested at red-ripening  
121 stage (Hue angle =  $46.89 \pm 2.27$ , total soluble solids =  $4.83 \pm 0.32$  °Brix, titratable acidity =  $0.43 \pm$   
122  $0.01$  g citric acid/100g fresh weight tomatoes, moisture content =  $93.2 \pm 0.5\%$ ), transported to the  
123 FPD Company and processed within one day to obtain canned whole peeled tomatoes, according to  
124 the flow sheet depicted in the supplementary material (Figure S1). Briefly, after washing and sorting,  
125 tomato fruits entered the thermo-physical peeling phase, where the fruits were steam blanched in a  
126 scalding by pressurized steam ( $P = 120$  kPa,  $t = 13$  s), before being vacuum cooled ( $P = 54 \pm 5$  kPa,  $t$   
127  $= 2$  s) and conveyed onto pinch rollers to facilitate complete peel removal. Whole peeled tomatoes  
128 were then canned and sterilized, while the produced tomato processing by-products (peels) were  
129 currently used as feed for animals. In this work, a sample of about 20 kg of these tomato peels was  
130 collected in plastic containers and immediately transported to the laboratories of ProDAI Scarl  
131 (Fisciano, Italy) and stored under refrigerated conditions ( $T = 4^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) until use, within 7 days from  
132 production. The moisture content of tomato-processing peels was determined upon arrival at the  
133 laboratory and found to be  $64.2 \pm 1.5\%$

134

### 135 2.2 Chemicals

136 HPLC grade methanol and acetonitrile as well as acetone, ethyl lactate, all-trans lycopene standard,  
137 iron chloride hexahydrate ( $\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), citric acid, and 2,4,6-tripyridyl-s-triazine (TPTZ) were

138 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany). Trolox (6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8-  
139 tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid) was obtained from Acros Organics (Geel, Belgium), while  
140 sodium acetate and acetic acid were purchased, respectively, from Panreac (Panreac Quimica,  
141 Barcelona, Spain) and Fisher (Fisher Scientific, Rodano, Italy).

142

### 143 *2.3 PEF equipment*

144 PEF treatments of tomato peels before solvent extraction were carried out using a laboratory scale  
145 batch system previously described by Bobinaitė et al. (2015). Briefly, the system consisted of a high  
146 voltage pulsed power (25 kV-500 A) generator (Modulator PG, ScandiNova, Uppsala, Sweden) able  
147 to deliver monopolar square wave pulses with different pulse width (3-25  $\mu$ s) and frequency (1-450  
148 Hz) through the plant tissue placed between two parallel plate cylindrical electrodes (3 cm in  
149 diameter, electrode gap up to 5 cm) of a batch treatment chamber. High voltage and current probes,  
150 connected to an oscilloscope, measured the actual voltage and current signals at the treatment  
151 chamber. The maximum electric field intensity ( $E$ , kV/cm) and total specific energy input ( $W_T$ , kJ/kg)  
152 were calculated as reported in Bobinaitė et al. (2015).

153

### 154 *2.4 PEF-assisted extraction experiments*

155 During PEF-assisted extraction experiments, samples of approximately 10 g of tomato peels,  
156 randomly selected after manual mixing of the initial sample (20 kg), were loaded into the treatment  
157 chamber with an inter-electrode gap of about  $1.4 \pm 0.1$  cm. The PEF treatments were carried out at  
158 variable electric field strength ( $E = 1, 3$  and  $5$  kV/cm) and total specific energy input ( $W_T = 5$  and  $10$   
159 kJ/kg) at a constant pulse repetition frequency (10 Hz) and pulse width (20  $\mu$ s). The specific energy  
160 input per pulse ( $W_P$ ) was equal to 0.012 kJ/kg, 0.160 kJ/kg and 0.475 kJ/kg, when the field strength  
161 was set at 1, 3 and 5 kV/cm, respectively, and the number of pulses applied ranged between 10 and  
162 833. In all PEF experiments, the initial temperature of the samples was  $20 \pm 2$  °C and no appreciable

163 temperature increase was detected due to the low energy input delivered during the treatment. All the  
164 PEF treatments were performed in triplicate.

165 After the electro-permeabilization treatment, tomato peels were immediately placed into a 500 mL  
166 Pyrex flask, where the extraction solvent (acetone or ethyl lactate) was added at a constant solid to  
167 liquid ratio (1:40 g/mL). The flasks were then introduced in an orbital incubator S150 (PBI  
168 international, Milan, Italy) set at 25°C where the extraction process was carried out under constant  
169 shaking at 160 rpm for different diffusion times (0-1440 min).

170 According with previous findings (Pataro et al., 2019), extraction temperatures higher than 25°C were  
171 not tested, since they seemed not to contribute to a significant increase in the extraction yield of  
172 carotenoid compounds from peels of steam blanched tomatoes.

173 For the sake of comparison, untreated (control) tomato peels, achieved after industrial steam peeling  
174 of tomato fruits, were subjected to conventional solid-liquid extraction process using the same  
175 extraction protocol but without the application of the PEF pre-treatment.

176 To examine the effect of extraction time, two replicates of 1 mL extract of either untreated or PEF-  
177 treated samples were removed from the flasks at different diffusion times (10, 20, 30, 45, 60, 120,  
178 180, 240, 360 and 1440 min). The extracts were immediately centrifuged at 5700 x g (PK121R model,  
179 ALC International, Cologno Monzese, IT) for 10 min at 4°C to separate the supernatant, which was  
180 then filtered through 0.45 µm syringe filters. The final extracts were then stored at -20 °C until further  
181 analysis.

182 According with the findings of Poojary & Passamonti (2014), the extraction kinetics data of lycopene  
183 concentration ( $LyC$ ) in each solvent were mathematically described using the empirical equation (Eq.  
184 1) proposed by Peleg (1988), whose applicability on the extraction kinetic of intracellular compounds  
185 from different food matrices has been extensively demonstrated (Bucic-Kojic, Planinic, Tomas, Bilic,  
186 & Velic, 2007; Odriozola-Serrano, Soliva-Fortuny, Gimeno-Ano, & Martin-Bellozo, 2008; Poojary  
187 & Passamonti, 2014).



$$LyC = \frac{t}{\frac{1}{v_0} + \frac{t}{LyC_\infty}} \quad (1)$$

188 where  $t$  is the extraction time (in min),  $v_0$  (in  $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$  of dry weight (DW)  $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) refers to extraction  
189 rate at the very beginning ( $t = t_0$ ), while  $LyC_\infty$  (in  $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ DW) refers to the maximum concentration  
190 of lycopene in the extracts, that is, the equilibrium concentration of total extracted analyte when  $t \rightarrow \infty$   
191 (Poojary & Passamonti, 2014).

192

### 193 2.5 *Optical microscopy analysis of tomato peel tissues*

194 The effect of steam peeling and PEF treatment on the morphology and organization of the plant cells  
195 of tomato peel tissues was investigated by optical microscopy. The microscopic images were acquired  
196 with an inverted optical microscope (Nikon Eclipse TE2000-S) at  $20 \times$  magnification. In each  
197 experiment, 15 images from three different samples were analysed for tomato peels achieved upon  
198 hand peeling of fresh fruits, industrial steam peeling, and industrial steam peeling followed by PEF  
199 treatment.

200

### 201 2.6 *Determination of lycopene content*

202 The lycopene content of the supernatants of either acetone or ethyl lactate extracts achieved from  
203 untreated and PEF treated tomato peels was measured spectrophotometrically (V-650 UV-Vis, Jasco  
204 Inc., Easton, USA) in a 1-cm light path ( $l$ ) cuvette at the wavelength of maximum absorption ( $\lambda_{max}$ )  
205 for lycopene in acetone (473 nm) and ethyl lactate (478 nm) against the corresponding solvent as  
206 blank. The  $\lambda_{max}$  values were determined experimentally from the spectra of pure lycopene in each  
207 solvent (data not shown). The following equations were used to calculate the lycopene concentration  
208 ( $LyC$ , in mg lycopene per kg DW tomato peels) in acetone (Eq. 2) and ethyl lactate (Eq. 3) extracts:

$$LyC = \frac{A_{473}}{l \cdot \varepsilon_{AC}} 40 \quad (2)$$

$$LyC = \frac{A_{478}}{l \cdot \varepsilon_{EL}} 40 \quad (3)$$

209 where  $A_{473}$  and  $A_{478}$  are the absorbances at  $\lambda_{max}$  in each solvent,  $\varepsilon_{AC}$  and  $\varepsilon_{EL}$  are the extinction  
210 coefficients of lycopene in acetone ( $90.82 \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 473 nm) and ethyl lactate ( $129.96 \text{ L mg}^{-1}$   
211  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  at 478 nm), respectively, and 40 is the liquid to solid ratio adopted during the extraction process.  
212 The extinction coefficients were determined experimentally from the calibration curves for lycopene  
213 standard in either acetone or ethyl lactate in a concentration range comprised between 1 and 100 mg  
214  $\text{L}^{-1}$ . All the assays were performed in triplicate.

215

## 216 2.7 HPLC analysis

217 The identification and quantification of lycopene molecules contained in either acetone or ethyl  
218 lactate extracts was carried out by High Performance Liquid Chromatographic (HPLC - DAD)  
219 analysis, using the method described by Pataro et al. (2018), with some modifications.

220 Carotenoids were separated using a Waters 1525 series HPLC system, equipped with a Water 2996  
221 photodiode array detector (DAD) (Waters Corporation, USA). Analytical separation of carotenoids  
222 was carried out in a Waters Spherisorb C18 reverse phase column ( $5 \mu\text{m ODS2}$ ,  $4,6 \text{ mm} \times 150 \text{ mm}$ ,  
223 Water Corporation, USA). The temperature of the HPLC column was set at  $30^\circ\text{C}$ . Before the  
224 injection, tomato peels extracts were filtered with  $0.20 \mu\text{m}$  filters. The mobile phase consisted of  
225 acetonitrile/methanol (10:90, v/v) and 9 mM TEA (triethylamine). The flow rate of the mobile phase  
226 through the column and the injection volume were  $1 \text{ mL/min}$  and  $5 \mu\text{L}$ , respectively. The absorbance  
227 detection wavelength was set at 473 nm for acetone extracts and at 478 nm for ethyl lactate extracts.  
228 Lycopene was identified by comparing its HPLC retention time and visible absorption spectra with  
229 those of commercial standard. All-trans lycopene was dissolved in either acetone and ethyl lactate to  
230 generate five-point external standard calibration curves (concentration range was from 10 to 100

231 mg/L), whose linearity was acceptable ( $R^2= 0.9924$  for acetone, and  $R^2= 0.9934$  for ethyl lactate).  
232 The content of lycopene in the extracts was expressed as mg lycopene per kg of DW tomato peels.

233

#### 234 *2.8 Ferric Reducing Antioxidant Power (FRAP) assay*

235 FRAP assay of extracts from untreated and PEF treated tomato peels was carried out according to  
236 the method described by Benzie & Strain (1996), modified as described by Pataro et al. (2018). The  
237 FRAP working solution was prepared by freshly mixing 0.3 M sodium acetate buffer, 10 mM TPTZ  
238 solution, and 20 mM ferric solution at a ratio of 10:1:1 (v/v/v). For the evaluation of the antioxidant  
239 power of acetone extracts, 2.5 mL of freshly prepared FRAP working solution and 0.5 mL of  
240 undiluted extract were mixed and incubated for 10 min at ambient temperature. The change in  
241 absorbance due to the reduction of ferric-tripyridyltriazine (Fe III-TPTZ) complex by the  
242 antioxidants contained in the samples was monitored at 593 nm using a V-650 UV-Vis  
243 spectrophotometer (Jasco Inc., Easton, USA). The absorptions of blank samples (applying the same  
244 analysis conditions) were tested each time before and after analysis. For the ethyl lactate extracts,  
245 instead, prior to FRAP assay, the samples were evaporated to dryness by using a R-200/205  
246 Rotavapor (BÜCHI Labortechnik AG, Flawil, Switzerland) set at 30°C; residues were then  
247 resuspended in the same volume of acetone for spectrophotometric analysis.

248 Trolox was used as the standard for calibration curve and the FRAP values were expressed as mmol  
249 of trolox equivalents (mmol TE) per kg of DW tomato peels. All the assays were performed in  
250 triplicate.

251

#### 252 *2.9 Statistical analyses*

253 All experiments and analysis, unless otherwise specified, were performed in triplicate and the mean  
254 and standard deviation (SD) of the experimental values were calculated. Statistically significant

255 differences ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) among the averages were evaluated using one-way analysis of variance  
256 (ANOVA) and the Tukey's test ( $p < 0.05$ ). Statistical analysis were carried out using IBM SPSS  
257 Statistics 20 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA). SigmaPlot 10.0 (Systat Software, Inc) was used  
258 for nonlinear regression analysis by Eq. 1 of the data obtained from the experiments conducted to  
259 assess the effects of extraction time and PEF processing conditions on the kinetic parameters  $v_0$  and  
260  $LyC_\infty$ . The goodness of model fitting was evaluated by calculating the determination coefficient ( $R^2$ ).

261

### 262 **3 Results and discussion**

#### 263 *3.1 Effect of PEF pre-treatment and type of solvent on extraction kinetic of lycopene from tomato* 264 *peels*

265 Acetone and ethyl lactate have been used by different scientists as effective and low environmental  
266 impact solvents for the recovery of carotenoids from tomato processing by-products (Ishida &  
267 Chapman, 2009; Luengo et al., 2014; Pataro et al., 2018, 2019; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2011a, b). In  
268 this work, the effect of PEF pre-treatment on intensifying the extractability of carotenoids, especially  
269 lycopene, from peels derived from industrial processing of tomato fruits, was investigated in both  
270 these solvents. Figures 1 and 2 show the influence of a PEF pre-treatment application at different  
271 electric field strength (1 - 5 kV/cm) and total specific energy input (5 - 10 kJ/kg) on the extraction  
272 kinetics of lycopene from tomato peels in acetone and ethyl lactate, respectively. The kinetic  
273 experimental data from untreated and PEF treated tomato peels were fitted by the Peleg's model  
274 (Eq.1). The calculated parameters of this model, namely  $v_0$  and  $LyC_\infty$ , and values of determination  
275 coefficients  $R^2$  are shown in Table 1 (for acetone extracts) and Table 2 (for ethyl lactate extracts). It  
276 should be noted that a greater  $v_0$  value in Eq. (1) implies a faster rate of the process, whilst a greater  
277  $LyC_\infty$  value in Eq. (1) indicates a greater extraction yield (Poojary & Passamonti, 2014).

278 As it can be seen, the determination coefficients ranged between 0.968 and 0.989, indicating that the  
279 Peleg's model could be applied rather satisfactorily in the prediction of the extraction rate of lycopene

280 in these solvents. This is consistent with findings previously reported by other scientists on the  
281 extraction of intracellular compounds like polyphenols or carotenoids from different plant tissues.  
282 (Bucic-Kojic et al., 2007; Odriozola-Serrano et al., 2008; Poojary & Passamonti, 2014).

283 Moreover, as shown in Figures 1 and 2, regardless of PEF pre-treatment application and type of  
284 solvent, *LyC* strongly depended on extraction time. Specifically, *LyC* rised rapidly during the initial  
285 stage of extraction, when the solvent penetrates into the solid matrix, due to the high concentration  
286 gradient developed between solid and liquid phases (Poojary & Passamonti, 2014). Then the  
287 extraction rate gradually decreased with time, likely due to both the decrease in concentration driving  
288 force between the solid and liquid phases and the decrease in concentration of the analytes in the solid  
289 phase (Poojary & Passamonti, 2014), until an almost equilibrium condition was approached.

290 Independently of the extracting solvent, the majority of the carotenoid compounds were recovered  
291 approximately during the first 240 min of extraction, while longer diffusion times did not produce  
292 any substantial increment of the amount of total lycopene.

293 In agreement with previous findings (Luengo et al., 2014; Pataro et al., 2019; Strati & Oreopoulou,  
294 2011a,b), the results of Figures 1 and 2 also highlight that acetone and ethyl lactate are good extraction  
295 solvents, because they are able to penetrate the plant cells of tomato peel tissues, where carotenoids  
296 are enclosed, and to dissolve substantial amount of them (Luengo et al., 2014; Strati & Oreopoulou,  
297 2011a,b). However, it is likely that the ability of both these solvents to penetrate the plant cells of  
298 tomato peel tissues detected in this work was further enhanced by the partial cell disintegration  
299 induced at cuticular level by the industrial steam peeling treatment of tomato fruits. This is  
300 corroborated by the findings of Pataro et al. (2018), who quantified the thermal damages induced at  
301 the cuticular level upon steam blanching treatment of tomato fruits, through the evaluation of the cell  
302 disintegration index ( $Z_p$ ). The latter is widely considered as a reliable macroscopic indicator of the  
303 degree of cell damages in diverse fruits and vegetable tissues (Bobinaite et al., 2015; Donsì, Ferrari,  
304 & Pataro, 2010; Luengo, Alvarez, & Raso, 2013; Puértolas, Cregenzan, Luengo, Alvarez, & Raso,  
305 2013), where it assumes a value ranged between 0 (for intact tissue) and 1 (for fully permeabilized

306 tissue). Specifically, the authors found that the  $Z_p$  values of tomato peel tissues achieved after hand  
307 peeling of steam blanched tomato fruits in a lab-scale scalding for 1 min, significantly increased from  
308 0.2 to 0.57 when the blanching temperature was increased from 50 to 70 °C.

309 Additionally, it is worth noting that the initial extraction rate and concentration at equilibrium were  
310 considerably higher in acetone (Figure 1, Table 1) than in ethyl lactate (Figure 2, Table 2). For  
311 instance, the extraction time required to achieve a given concentration of lycopene ( $8280 \pm 322$  mg/kg  
312 DW) in acetone and ethyl lactate was 32 min and 240min, respectively. On the other hand, the  
313 amounts of lycopene recovered from the untreated tomato peels after 240 min extraction was  $13945 \pm$   
314  $610$  mg/kg DW in acetone and  $8280 \pm 322$  mg/kg DW in ethyl lactate.

315 In contrast with these findings, when Strati & Oreopoulou (2011b) studied the effect of the type of  
316 solvent on the recovery of carotenoids from dried powder of tomato wastes (skins and seeds), they  
317 found that ethyl lactate allowed a remarkable recovery of carotenoids, whose extent was 5-fold greater  
318 than that observed when using acetone. Similarly, Ishida & Chapman (2009) found that ethyl lactate  
319 achieved to extract more effectively tomato carotenoids from dried powder of tomato wastes than  
320 acetone.

321 Although any comparison with data found in current literature is very difficult, this different  
322 behaviour could be in part explained taking into account that the rate of extraction, and consequently  
323 the approach to equilibrium, depend on the complex interaction between the solvent properties and  
324 characteristics of the solid material.

325 Firstly, the solubilizing capacity of the solvent plays a very important role in the extraction process  
326 (Luengo et al., 2014; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2011b). In this line, results of Figures 1 and 2 could be in  
327 part explained by the slightly lower polarity of acetone in comparison with ethyl lactate (Amaro et al.,  
328 2015; Jessop, 2011), which likely makes acetone more adequate solvent to extract non polar  
329 carotenoids (e.g., lycopene). In addition to solubility, the capacity of penetration or diffusion of the  
330 solvent into the solid matrix also has an important role in the extraction efficiency (Luengo et al.,  
331 2014; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2014). To this purpose, acetone is generally reported to be a good solvent

332 and a wetting material that penetrates easily inside the plant cells where carotenoids are enclosed  
333 (Luengo et al., 2014; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2011a). Moreover, it should be also considered that, while  
334 acetone is an aprotic solvent, ethyl lactate is a protic solvent due to the presence of a hydroxyl group,  
335 which should make ethyl lactate more hydrophilic and water-soluble than acetone. This may have  
336 two opposite effects on extraction efficiency of ethyl lactate, whose relative importance may depend  
337 on the fact that a wet or a dry solid matrix is used. In fact, from one side, the higher solubility of ethyl  
338 lactate in water in comparison with acetone might enhance its penetration capacity into the solid  
339 matrix when extraction is conducted in wet tomato peels residues like in this work, which is consistent  
340 with findings of previous scientists (Lin & Chen, 2003; Luengo et al., 2014; Strati & Oreopoulou,  
341 2011a). On the other hand, the interaction of ethyl lactate with water molecules of a wet solid matrix  
342 through the formation of hydrogen bonds might decrease the penetration capacity or diffusion  
343 coefficient of this solvent into the plant cells, thus negatively affecting the extraction yield. An  
344 opposite behavior should be noted, instead, in the case of a dried solid matrix where unbounded  
345 molecules of ethyl lactate might penetrate more easily inside the intracellular space. The  
346 predominance of one or other effect might explain the results observed in the experimental data shown  
347 in Figures 1 and 2 in comparison with those achieved by other scientists when using dried tomato  
348 wastes (Ishida & Chapman, 2009; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2011b). However, more work is required in  
349 order to better elucidate the role and interaction between the properties of the solvent affecting the  
350 extraction efficiency and the characteristics of the solid matrix.

351 The application of PEF treatments at different field strength (1-5 kV/cm) and total specific energy  
352 input (5-10 kJ/kg) to the industrially tomato peel residues before solvent extraction with either  
353 acetone or ethyl lactate markedly enhanced the extraction rate (by 27-37%) and the recovery yields  
354 (by 12-18%) of lycopene, as compared with untreated samples (Figures 1 - 2, Tables 1 - 2). However,  
355 at a fixed energy input of 5 kJ/kg, significant differences ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) were detected only when the field  
356 strength was increased at 5 kV/cm, as compared with the control extraction (Figures 1a and 2a).

357 Further increments of the total specific energy input up to 10 kJ/kg scarcely influenced the  
358 extractability of lycopene, independently of the field strength applied (Figures 1b and 2b).

359 This indicates that, in our case, a field strength of 5 kV/cm and an energy input of 5 kJ/kg were  
360 sufficient to significantly intensify the extractability of lycopene from tomato peels in both the  
361 investigated solvents. However, it is worth noting that the effect of PEF was more evident when the  
362 extraction was made with acetone, while resulted less important when ethyl lactate was used as  
363 solvent. In this latter case, it is likely that, in spite of the electropermeabilization effect induced by  
364 PEF application, the slightly higher polarity of ethyl lactate in comparison with acetone along with  
365 the reduced penetration capacity of the water-bounded molecules of this solvent, was still limiting its  
366 extraction efficiency.

367 The positive impact of PEF pre-treatment on extraction of carotenoids from tomato peels was also  
368 previously observed by other scientists, even though, to date, no previous works dealt with the use  
369 of peels derived from the industrial steam peeling of tomato fruits. For example, Luengo et al. (2014)  
370 found that the extraction of carotenoids from tomato peels in acetone was significantly improved by  
371 the application of a 90  $\mu$ s PEF treatment up to 5 kV/cm, while a further increase in the intensity of  
372 the electric field strength up to 7 kV/cm scarcely affected the extraction yield. However, differently  
373 from this work, the authors used a different tomato variety and applied PEF pre-treatment to peels  
374 obtained from hand peeling of fresh tomatoes. Pataro et al. (2019) evaluated the impact of PEF pre-  
375 treatment on the cell structure of tomato peel tissues in terms of cell disintegration index ( $Z_p$ ) and the  
376 subsequent recovery of carotenoid compounds in acetone, but using peels obtained after steam  
377 blanching of tomato fruits at 70°C for 1 min in a lab-scale scalding. Nevertheless, similarly to our  
378 results, the authors found that a PEF (5 kV/cm, 5 kJ/kg) pre-treatment of steam blanched samples was  
379 sufficient to significantly enhance the  $Z_p$  value (up to 0.54) and, consequently, the extraction yield of  
380 total carotenoids (up to 47%), as compared with the control samples.

381 The increase in carotenoids (especially lycopene) extraction can be explained by the fact that the  
382 electroporation effect induced by PEF treatment has the potential to further enhance the degree of cell



383 disintegration induced at cuticular level by the previous steam peeling treatment, as previously shown  
384 by Pataro et al. (2019). This likely facilitated the penetration of the solvent into the cytoplasm of the  
385 plant cell and the subsequent mass transfer of the solubilized intracellular compounds, thus  
386 intensifying the extractability of carotenoids (Luengo et al., 2014; Pataro et al., 2019).

387 This is also corroborated by the microscopic pictures of tomato peel tissues achieved after hand  
388 peeling of fresh fruits, industrial steam peeling, and industrial steam peeling followed by PEF  
389 treatment ( $E = 5 \text{ kV/cm}$ ;  $W_T = 5 \text{ kJ/kg}$ ), presented in Figure 3. In particular, it can be noted that the  
390 tissue of fresh tomato peels (Figure 3a) showed cells that were compacted, regularly shaped and red  
391 colored likely due to the high lycopene content of the peels of ripe tomato fruits. The thermal damages  
392 occurring at cuticular level during the steam peeling operation, apparently induced a slight reduction  
393 in size and red colour intensity of plant cells of tomato peels, which also appeared slightly more  
394 separated (Figure 3b). The application of PEF treatment to peels of steam peeled tomato further  
395 reduced the size and separation between the plant cells, while preserving their original shape (Figure  
396 3c). It is also worth noting that the plant cells of PEF treated samples showed a marked loss of the  
397 initial red coloration likely due to the leakage of lycopene. The probable explanation of these effects  
398 is pores formation in the cell membranes that causes leakage of cell fluids into the extracellular gap  
399 between the plant cells. A similar effect was previously noted by other scientists, who observed that  
400 PEF treatment induced significant size reduction and separation between muscle cells of salmon and  
401 chicken as well as collagen leakage into the extracellular space, which was attributed to the  
402 consequent pore formation in the cell membranes of the muscle cells (Gudmundsson & Hafsteinsson,  
403 2001).

404 According to the results shown so far, further investigations aimed at studying the influence of PEF  
405 pre-treatment on the carotenoids composition and antioxidant power of the acetone and ethyl lactate  
406 extracts from industrial tomato peel residues, were carried out with the PEF conditions set at  $5 \text{ kV/cm}$   
407 and  $5 \text{ kJ/kg}$  and the extraction time set at 240 min.

408

409 3.2 *Effect of PEF pre-treatment and type of solvent on composition and antioxidant activity of tomato*  
410 *peel extracts*

411 The composition of acetone and ethyl lactate extracts in terms of the main carotenoid compounds,  
412 obtained from untreated and PEF (5 kV/cm, 5 kJ/kg) treated industrial tomato peels after 240 min of  
413 extraction, was assessed via HPLC-DAD analysis. The resulting chromatograms profiles detected at  
414 473 nm for acetone and 478 nm for ethyl lactate extracts are presented in Figures 4 and 5, respectively.  
415 As it can be seen, the profiles of the extracts from untreated samples appeared to be similar,  
416 independently on the type of solvent (Figures 4a and 5a). Only one major peak corresponding to all-  
417 trans lycopene (peak 1) was clearly detected at an elution time of 8.3 min in acetone and 9.5 min in  
418 ethyl lactate extracts. However, one minor and unidentified compound (peak 2), was also detected  
419 immediately after the elution time of all-trans lycopene peak, which could be probably attributed to  
420 one of the possible cis-isomers of lycopene, as similarly reported by Ishida, Ma & Chan (2001). These  
421 results are perfectly coherent with the fact that lycopene is the most abundant carotenoid in tomato  
422 processing peels (Pataro et al., 2018, 2019; Strati & Oreopoulou, 2011a,b), and that about 90% of the  
423 lycopene in dietary sources is found in the linear, all-trans conformation (Boileau, Boileau, &  
424 Erdman, 2002).

425 Moreover, HPLC analysis showed that the concentration of all-trans lycopene detected in acetone  
426 and ethyl lactate extracts of untreated samples was  $11820 \pm 141$  mg/kg DW and  $6311 \pm 254$  mg/kg DW,  
427 respectively, which is consistent with results achieved via spectrophotometric assay after the same  
428 extraction time (Figures 1 and 2). This also confirmed that acetone achieved to extract more  
429 effectively lycopene from wet tomato peels, as compared with ethyl lactate, and that a substantial  
430 amount of lycopene was still retained in the industrial tomato processing peels. It is likely that the  
431 short exposure time (13 s) of tomato fruits at the relatively high temperature (123°C) used during the  
432 industrial steam peeling process, was allowing to avoid any degradation or isomerization of lycopene  
433 from all-trans to cis-isomers. Apparently in contrast with this conclusion, when Chen, Shi, Xue & Ma

434 (2009) examined the stability of lycopene under thermal treatment they found that heating at 80 and  
435 100°C did not affect the stability, whereas heating at 120 and 140°C increased isomerization of  
436 lycopene and resulted in the degradation of total lycopene and cis-isomers. This can be explained by  
437 the fact that the authors investigated cooking times in the range between 1 and 4 h, which were well  
438 above those used in this work.

439 Additionally, HPLC analysis of our extracts indicated that, regardless of the type of solvent, the  
440 electrical pre-treatment neither promoted the selective extraction of specific compounds nor caused  
441 isomerization or degradation reactions. This is in agreement with the observations reported by other  
442 authors (Luengo et al., 2013, 2014; Lopez, Puertolas, Hernandez-Orte, Alvarez, & Raso, 2009; Pataro  
443 et al., 2017, 2018, 2019; Puértolas et al., 2013), who found that PEF treatment did not significantly  
444 alter the HPLC chromatogram profiles of different plant tissues extracts, probably due to the relatively  
445 mild intensity of the applied treatment (Mahnic-Kalamiza, Miklavcic, & Vorobiev, 2014).

446 However, it is worth noting that, in comparison with the control sample, PEF pre-treatment increased  
447 the peak area of all-trans lycopene (peak 1), whereas no appreciable changes could be detected in the  
448 peak area of the unidentified compound (peak 2). In particular, coherently with the results of Figures  
449 1 and 2, the application of PEF pre-treatment caused a remarkable increment of the concentration of  
450 all-trans lycopene by 18% and 23% in acetone and ethyl lactate extracts, respectively, as compared  
451 with control extraction.

452 The abundance of all-trans lycopene detected in the tomato peel extracts might be of particular  
453 importance, as it has been demonstrated to be helpful for the stability and color intensity of the extract,  
454 even though the all-trans form appears to be less bioavailable than its cis-isomers. (Boileau et al.,  
455 2002).

456 Additionally, it has been demonstrated that lycopene molecules show several beneficial properties  
457 for human health due to their superior antioxidant capacity (Giovannucci, 1999; Giovannucci et al.,  
458 2002; Song et al., 2017; Story et al., 2010). For this reason, in this work, the effect of PEF pre-  
459 treatment on the antioxidant potential of the acetone and ethyl lactate extracts was assessed using the

460 FRAP assay. As shown in Table 3, regardless the application of PEF pre-treatment, acetone extracts  
461 possessed significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher FRAP values (65.5 % on average) than ethyl lactate extracts.  
462 In addition, in comparison with control extracts, PEF treated samples exhibited a stronger antioxidant  
463 power, which rose approximately by 18.0% and 18.2%, when extraction was carried out in acetone  
464 and ethyl lactate, respectively. These findings suggest that carotenoids, especially lycopene, strongly  
465 contribute to the antioxidant power of tomato peel extracts, as previously found in some other  
466 literature works, in which it was observed a highly positive correlation between total carotenoids,  
467 lycopene content and antioxidant activity of peel extracts (Luengo et al., 2014; Pataro et al., 2018,  
468 2019).

469

470

#### 471 **4 Conclusions**

472 The results of this work demonstrated that the application of PEF pre-treatment of moderate intensity  
473 (5 kV/cm) and relatively low energy input (5kJ/kg) before solvent extraction process with either  
474 acetone or ethyl lactate, can represent a sustainable, environmental friendly and food safety approach  
475 to intensify the extractability of carotenoids, especially lycopene, from industrial tomato peels  
476 residues.

477 The higher lycopene yield and antioxidant power of acetone extracts in comparison with ethyl lactate  
478 extracts indicates a better capability of this solvent to penetrate the plant cells of wet tomato peel  
479 tissue and to solubilize a greater amount of intracellular lipophilic compounds.

480 HPLC analyses revealed that all-trans lycopene is the most predominant carotenoid in the peel  
481 extracts, hence responsible for their antioxidant power, and no isomerization or degradation of  
482 lycopene occurred upon the application of PEF.

483 This work demonstrates the potential of PEF as a gentle and effective cell disintegration pre-treatment  
484 of wet plant tissues, such as industrial tomato peels residues, alternative to conventional extraction

485 methods, which require energy intensive pre-treatments of the raw material (e.g., comminution and  
486 drying), large amount of organic solvents, high extraction temperatures and long extraction time.  
487 However, comparative studies at preindustrial scale should be performed in order to validate the  
488 results of the present research as well as to evaluate from an economical and environmental point of  
489 view the advantages of PEF-assisted extraction against conventional extraction processes.

490

491

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494

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618

619 **Figure Captions**

620 **Figure 1** Extraction kinetics of lycopene in acetone solvent from untreated ( $E = 0$  kV/cm) and PEF  
621 treated tomato peel samples at variable field strength ( $E$ ) and for two different total specific energy  
622 input ( $W_T$ ): (a) 5 kJ/kg and (b) 10 kJ/kg. Extraction temperature was set at 25°C.

623 **Figure 2** Extraction kinetics of lycopene in ethyl lactate solvent from untreated ( $E = 0$  kV/cm) and  
624 PEF treated tomato peel samples at variable field strength ( $E$ ) and for two different total specific  
625 energy input ( $W_T$ ): (a) 5 kJ/kg and (b) 10 kJ/kg. Extraction temperature was set at 25°C.

626 **Figure 3** Micrographs (20x magnification) of tomato peels after (a) hand peeling of fresh fruits, (b)  
627 industrial steam peeling, and (c) industrial steam peeling followed by PEF treatment ( $E = 5$  kV/cm;  
628  $W_T = 5$  kJ/kg).

629 **Figure 4** HPLC chromatograms ( $\lambda = 473$  nm) of acetone extracts obtained after 240 min extraction  
630 at 25°C from (a) untreated (Control) and (b) PEF treated (5 kV/cm, 5 kJ/kg) industrially derived  
631 tomato peels. Peak identification: (1) all-trans lycopene ( $t_{elution}$ : 8.3 min), (2) undefined carotenoid  
632 compounds ( $t_{elution}$ : 9.9 min).

633 **Figure 5** HPLC chromatograms ( $\lambda = 478$  nm) of ethyl lactate extracts obtained after 240 min  
634 extraction at 25°C from (a) untreated (Control) and (b) PEF treated (5 kV/cm, 5 kJ/kg) industrially  
635 derived tomato peels. Peak identification: (1) all-trans lycopene ( $t_{elution}$ : 9.5 min), (2) undefined  
636 carotenoid compounds ( $t_{elution}$ : 11.2 min).

Figure 1

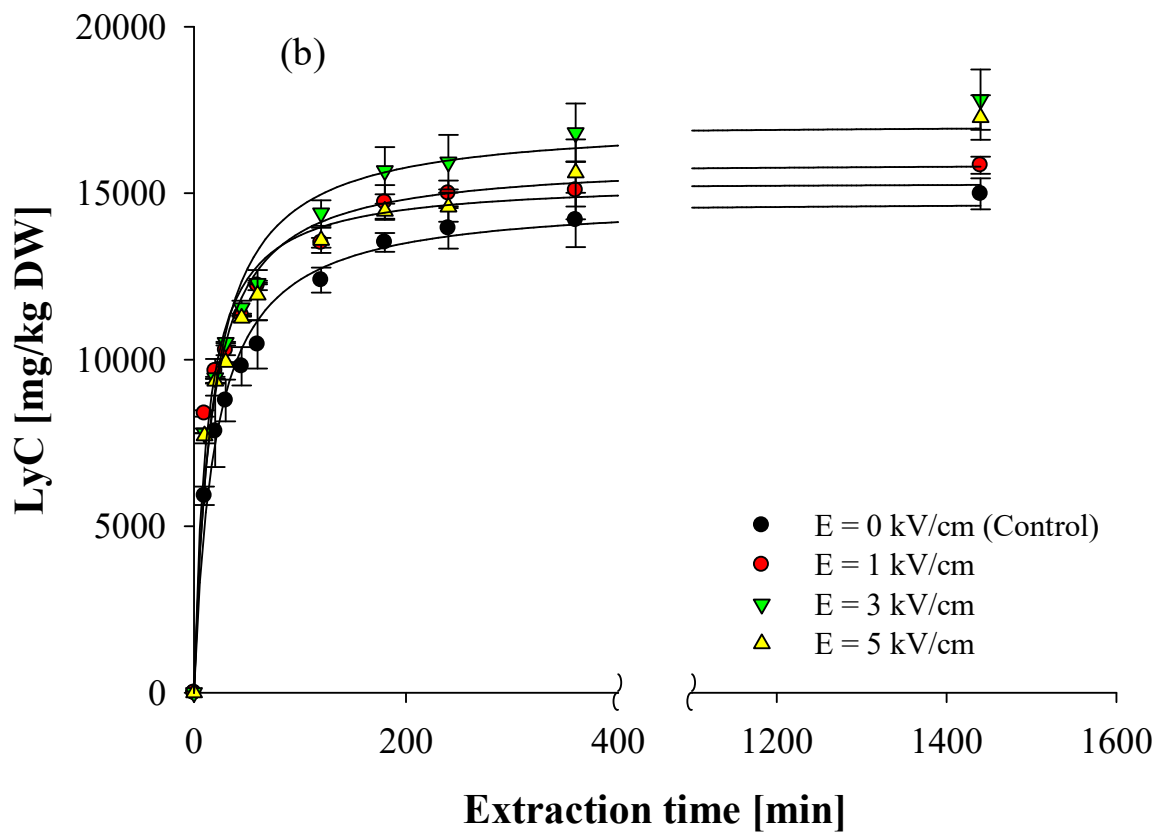
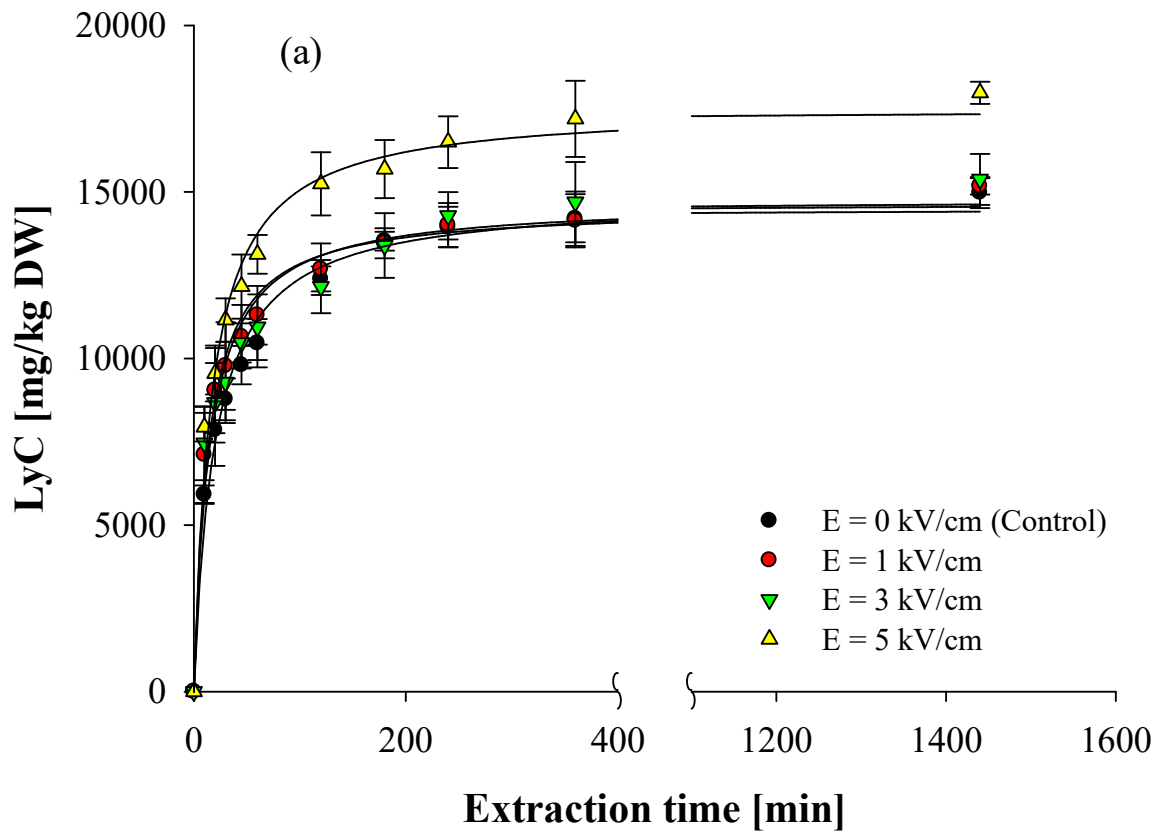


Figure 2

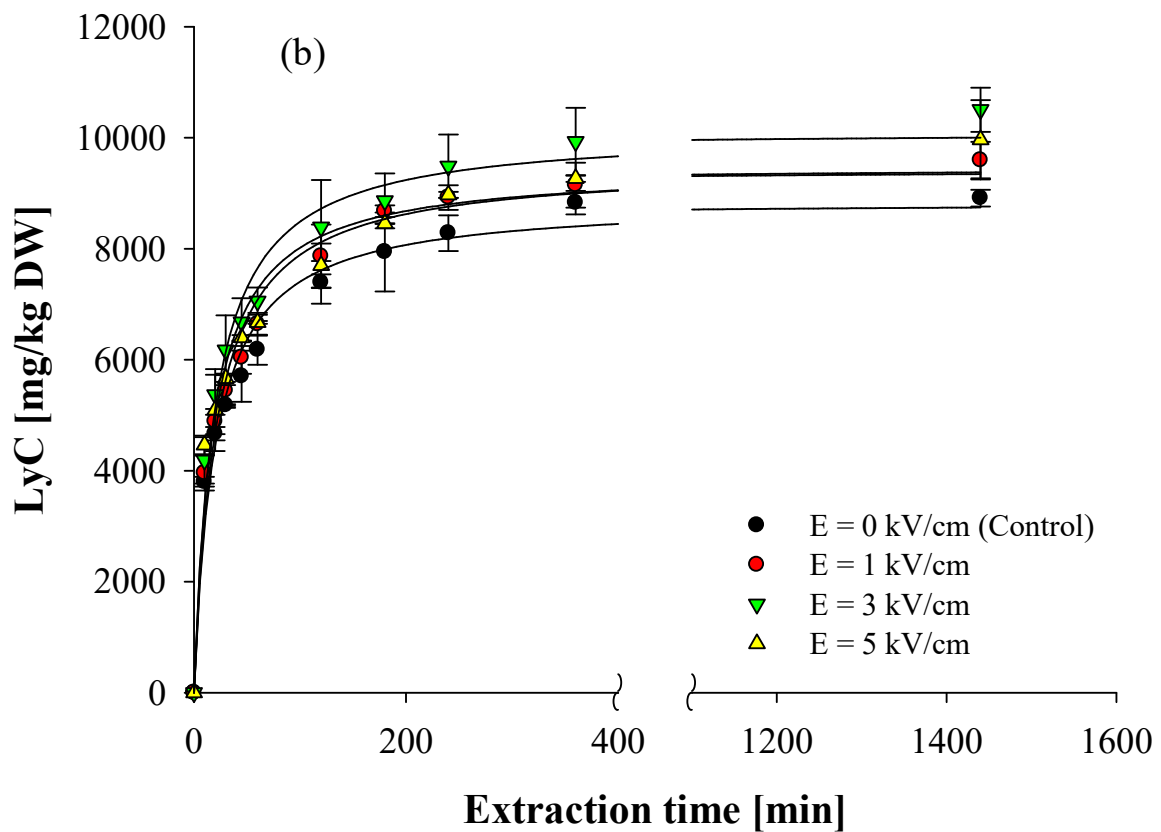
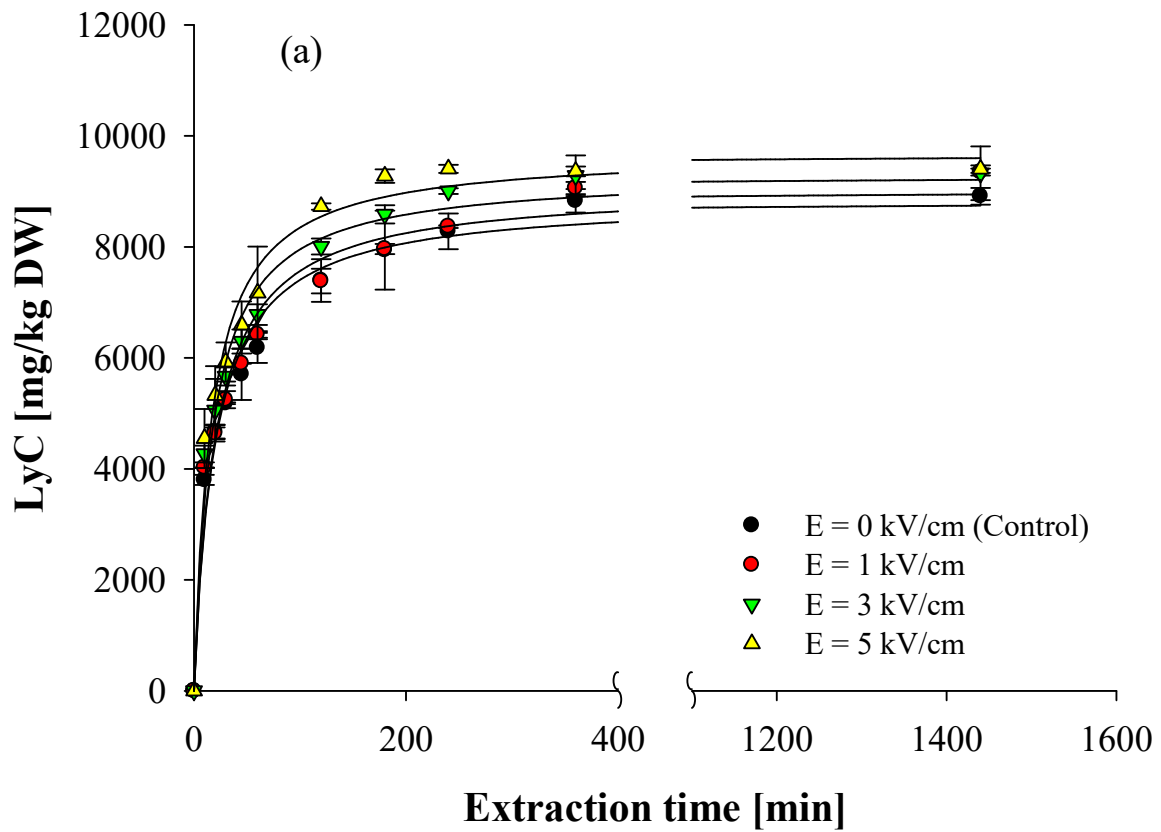


Figure 3

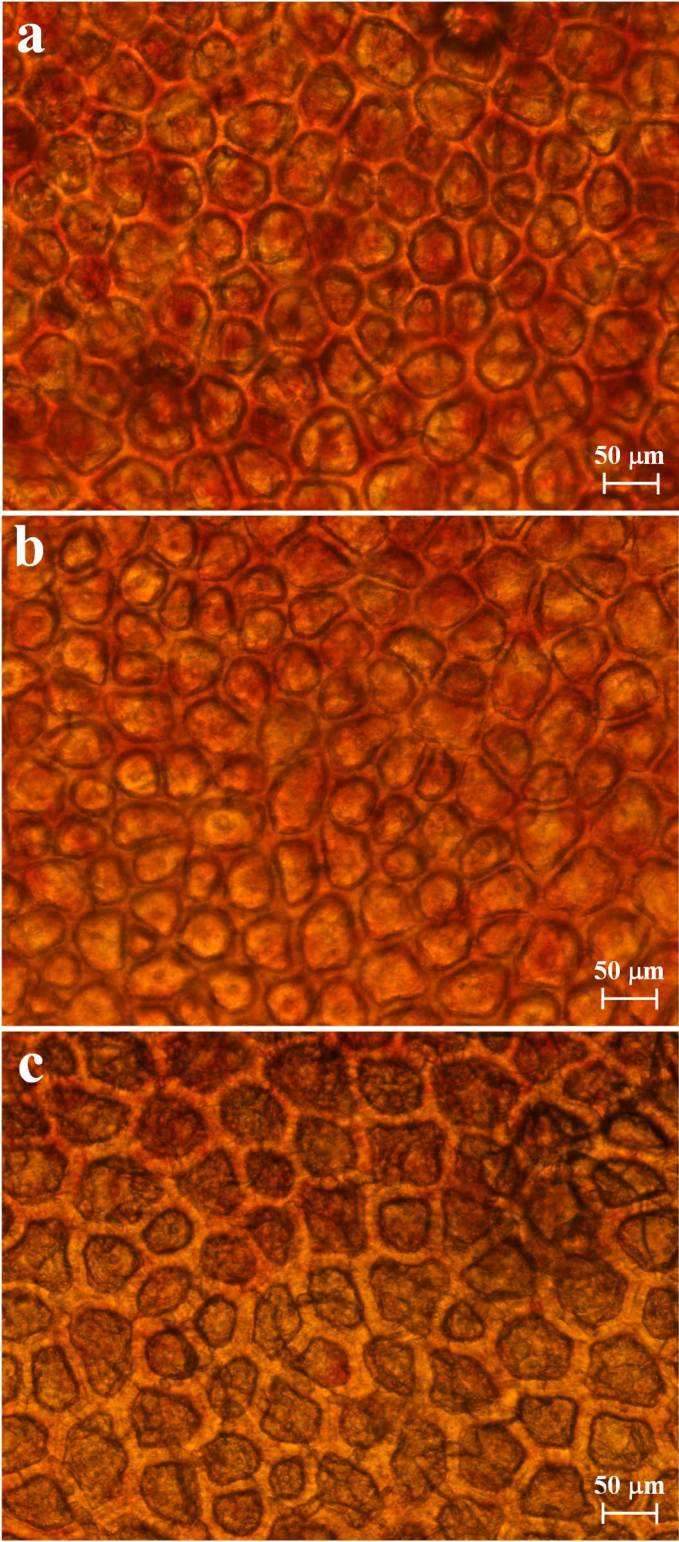


Figure 4

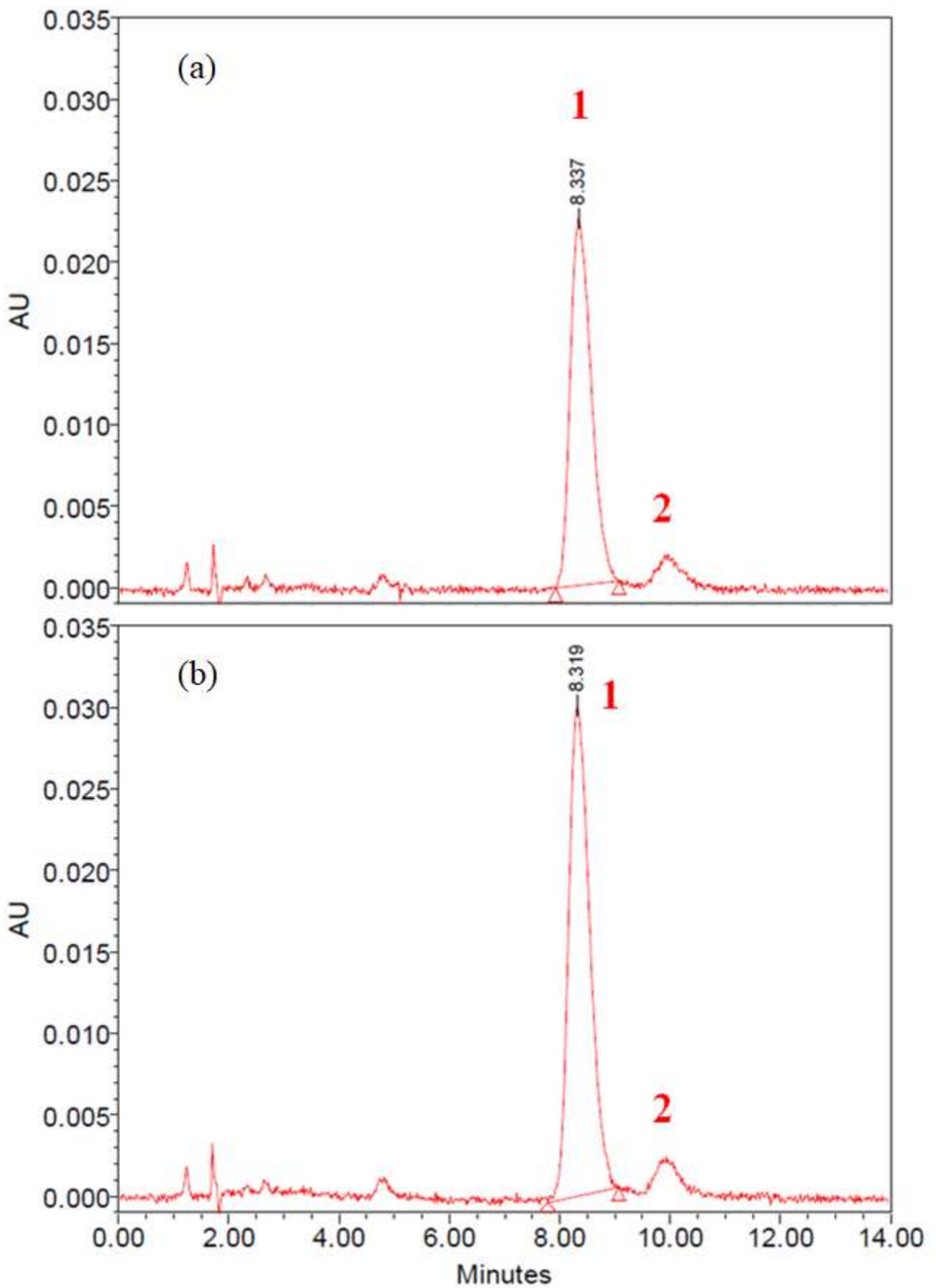
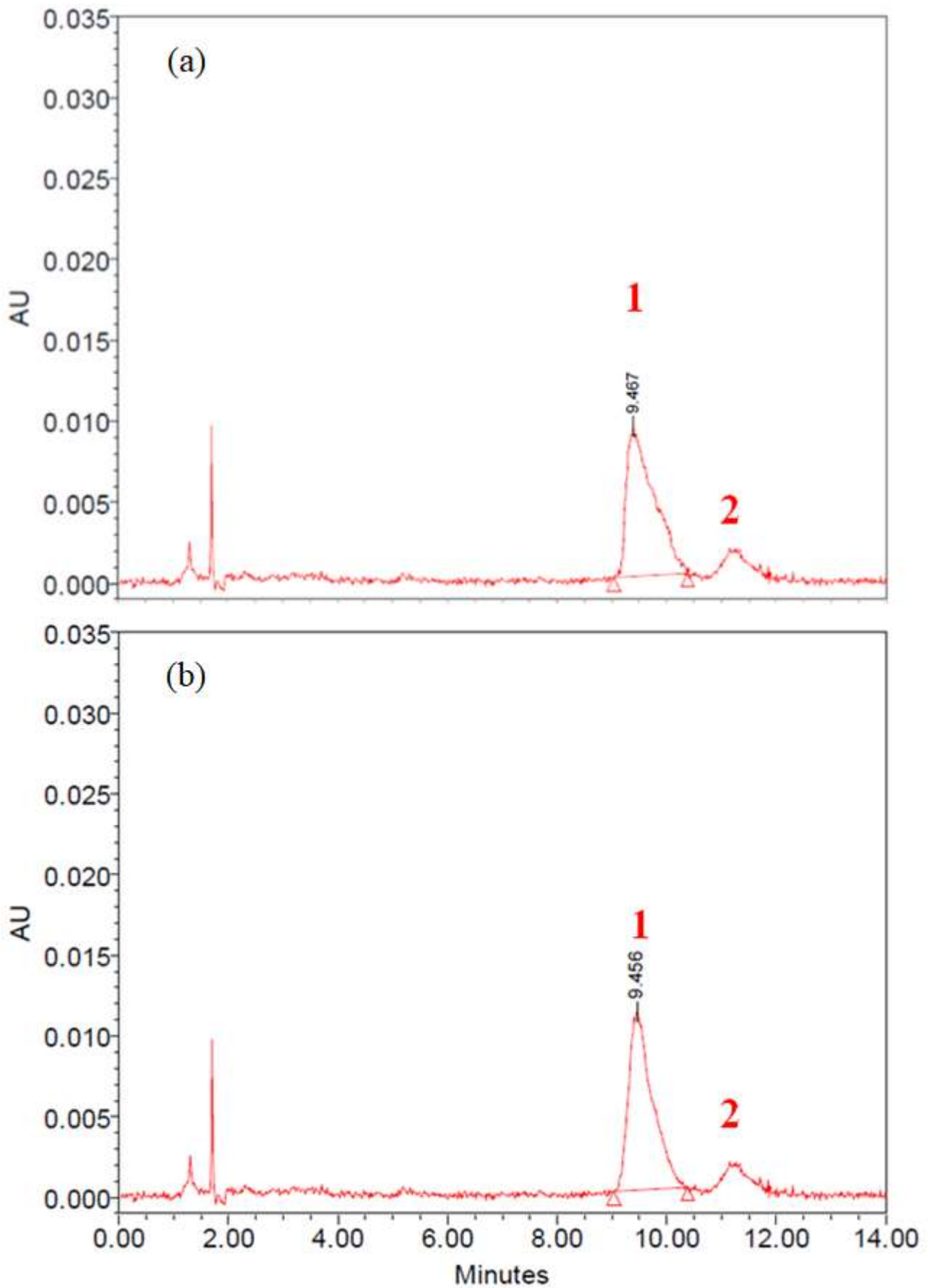




Figure 5



**Table 1.** Initial extraction rate ( $v_0$ ) and maximum lycopene content ( $LyC_\infty$ ) of acetone extracts from untreated (Control) and PEF treated ( $E = 1 - 5$  kV/cm;  $W_T = 5 - 10$  kJ/kg) industrially derived tomato peels, obtained by fitting the experimental data of lycopene extraction kinetics (Figure 1) with Peleg's model (Eq. 1).

Sample	E (kV/cm)	$W_T$ (kJ/kg)	$v_0$ (mg/kg DW min)	$LyC_\infty$ (mg/kg DW)	$R^2$
Control	0	0	756.8	14823	0.989
PEF	1	5	1097.1	14541	0.988
	1	10	1284.6	15375	0.972
	3	5	993.7	14702	0.969
	3	10	979.8	17147	0.979
	5	5	1032.9	17532	0.987
	5	10	1025.7	15968	0.979

**Table 2.** Initial extraction rate ( $v_0$ ) and maximum lycopene content ( $LyC_\infty$ ) of ethyl lactate extracts from untreated (Control) and PEF treated ( $E = 1 - 5$  kV/cm;  $W_T = 5 - 10$  kJ/kg) industrially derived tomato peels, obtained by fitting the experimental data of lycopene extraction kinetics (Figure 2) with Peleg's model (Eq. 1).

Sample	E (kV/cm)	$W_T$ (kJ/kg)	$v_0$ (mg/kg DW min)	$LyC_\infty$ (mg/kg DW)	$R^2$
Control	0	0	450.2	8861	0.979
PEF	1	5	455.7	9068	0.974
	1	10	462.5	9509	0.983
	3	5	524.3	9778	0.976
	3	10	491.5	10140	0.968
	5	5	569.8	9930	0.973
	5	10	524.3	9461	0.982

**Table 3.** Ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) of acetone and ethyl lactate extracts obtained from untreated (Control) and PEF treated (5 kV/cm, 5 kJ/kg) industrially derived tomato peels. Extraction temperature and time were set at 25°C and 240 min, respectively. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  Standard deviation. Values with different lowercase letters within the same row are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ), while values with different uppercase letters within the same column are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Sample	Solvent	
	Acetone	Ethyl Lactate
Control	13.68 $\pm$ 0.18 <sup>aA</sup>	8.24 $\pm$ 0.12 <sup>bA</sup>
PEF (5 kV/cm – 5 kJ/kg)	16.11 $\pm$ 0.22 <sup>aB</sup>	9.74 $\pm$ 0.51 <sup>bB</sup>

## Supplementary material

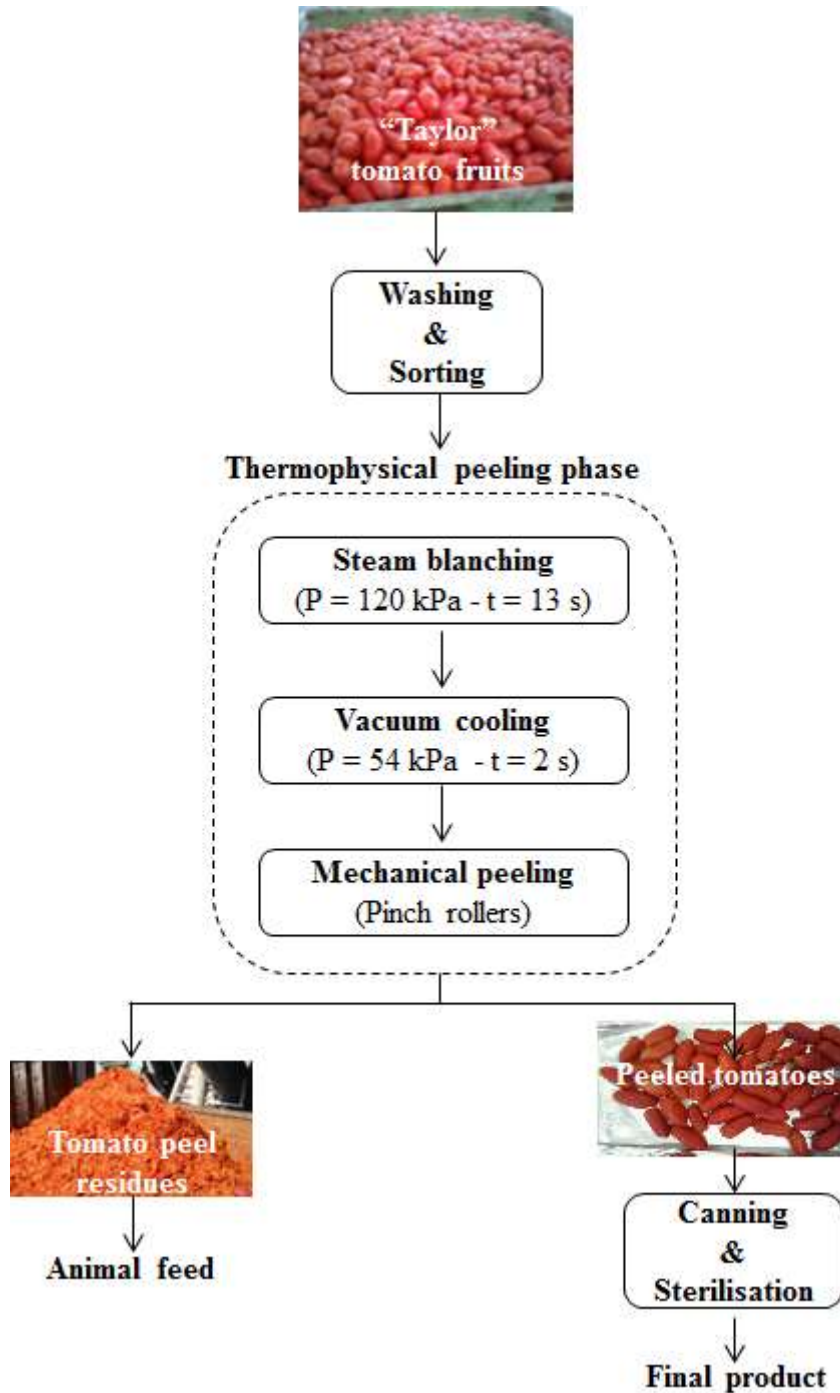


Figure S1. Flow diagram of industrial production line of peeled tomatoes.