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Effect of pasteurization on in vitro α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of apple juice

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Title: Effect of pasteurization on in vitro α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of apple juice

Article Type: Research paper

Keywords: Apple juice; α -Glucosidase inhibition; Pasteurization; Type 2 diabetes; Acarbose

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Abstract: The in vitro α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of raw, mildly (F_71.7^5=0.4 min, 5 Log reductions of Cryptosporidium parvum) and intensively (F_90^12=14.8 min, 2 Log reductions of Alicyclobacillus acidoterrestris) pasteurized apple juice was studied. Raw apple juice (23 mgdw/mL) caused 90% alpha-glucosidase inhibition. Analogous results were obtained for the mildly treated sample. The most intense treatment reduced by 35% the alpha-glucosidase inhibition. However, such a decrease was associated with an increase in the phenolic content, suggesting that alpha-glucosidase inhibition might not rely on these compounds, but depend on more complex mechanisms. Apple juice was combined with acarbose to investigate their interaction towards alpha-glucosidase inhibition. A synergistic behavior was observed for concentrations < 2 mg/mL. Increasing the concentration of the combined system (up to 9 mg/mL) produced an antagonistic effect, while a further increase (< 9 mg/mL) allowed approaching an addictive behavior.

Dear Professor Singh,

I would like to submit the revised manuscript entitled "Effect of pasteurization on *in vitro* α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of apple juice" by Marilisa Alongi, Giancarlo Verardo, Andrea Gorassini and Monica Anese for consideration for publication in LWT - Food Science and Technology.

We are glad to hear that the Reviewers found our manuscript worthy of publication unless we answer their questions. We have endeavoured to take into account or to respond to the reviewers' comments as indicated below. We hope that this response is satisfactory, and that the manuscript will be suitable for publication in the LWT- Food Science and Technology.

Best regards Monica Anese

Answers to Reviewer's comments

(Reviewer text is normal and Answer text is in italics, for each numbered item)

Reviewer #1:

1. There were some publications on the inhibitory activity of α -glucosidase by using apple extract or some phenolic compounds from apple, and this may be the potential to reduce the risk of type 2 diabetes. However, apple juice contains high amount of sugars (around 10%), which could increase the risk of type 2 diabetes.

The ability of apples and their derivatives in facing type 2 diabetes has been reported in the literature, independently from their sugar content (Boyer & Liu, 2004). Nonetheless, the latter should be taken into account when designing foods aimed at reducing type 2 diabetes incidence. These considerations were further implemented in the conclusion (lines 349-350).

2. Line 181-182, the concentration of apple juice is difficult to understand, and dilution of the apple juice should be added.

Apple juice was tested for the inhibitory activity against α -glucosidase considering increasing concentrations, ranging from 0 to 23 mg_{dw}/mL. Details were added in the text (lines 190-191).

3. Line 262-296, and Table 2. There is a long discussion on the phenolic compounds of the apple juice. However, it seems that this part is not relevant to the aim of this study.

The discussion of these part was reduced as suggested by the Reviewer (lines 283-286).

4. Line 233-237, "fructose and sucrose in P90 sample were approximately 30 and 60% less concentrated than those found in the control. This reduction can be attributed to the sugars consumption as reagents of the Maillard reaction." Results from similar studies should be cited here to support the discussion.

References were added as recommended by the Reviewer (lines 244).

5. Other comments, please find in the attached pdf document.

The text was modified as suggested by the Reviewer in the other comments and changes were highlighted. Regarding the phenolic composition, reference for HPLC-DAD-ESI-MSⁿ analysis was added (line 134). However, no references were specified for SPE purification and the use of calibration curves for the quantification of identified compounds because these are widely applied procedures in the analysis of food products.

Reviewer #2:

1. Line 17-18: Please rewrite the sentence to make it more readable.

The sentence was rewritten.

2. Most referred articles were published years ago. If possible, could you please present more latest research progress related to your study?

More recent research papers relevant to the present study were added as suggested by the Reviewer.

3. Some grammatical errors need to be corrected.

The grammatic has been revised as suggested by the Reviewer.

4. Please justify the interaction study, elucidate the reason why acarbose was chosen in this study, why the investigation of the interaction between apple juice and acarbose was conducted, and any previous studies about juice + acarbose were carried out?

Requested information was added (lines 58-63).

5. Line 86-87: How to determine the location of the coldest point of the sample?

This information was reported in the text (lines 90).

6. Please detail the procedure of color analysis: any container? container dimension? How did you measure the liquid with a colorimeter?

Further details on colorimetric analysis was added (lines 181-182).

7. Table1: Variation of sucrose content in raw juice is fairly big. Please present your apple sampling procedures for juice extraction. Were all apples used in this study purchased at the same time? How many apples were used for each replicate of juice?

More details relevant to apple sampling procedure were added in the text (lines 77-78 and 81-82). We agree with the Reviewer in that the raw sample showed a high variation of sugar content. However, we preferred to keep all the data to compute the mean value.

8. Figure 2: I suggest you using different dash patterns of the lines for different samples.

The figure was modified as suggested by the Reviewer.

Editorial:

1. "v/v" is undefined symbol, change it to "mL: mL"

Changes were made, as indicated by the Editor.

2. Line 121 and other places: The % unit for concentration of acid should be changed to directly measured unit of mL/L, g/100mL or mol/L as appropriate.

Changes were made.

3. Fig 2: The key of symbols should be in the caption's text.

Change were made.

Highlights

Apple juice inhibited α -glucosidase in a concentration-dependent way

Conventional pasteurization did not affect the α -glucosidase inhibitory capacity of apple juice

Severe pasteurization reduced by 35% the apple juice inhibitory capacity

Apple juice-acarbose system played a synergistic effect up to 40% α -glucosidase inhibition

1	Effect of pasteurization on <i>in vitro</i> α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of apple juice			
2				
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13

14 Abstract

The in vitro α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of raw, mildly ($F_{71.7}^5$ =0.4 min, 5 Log reductions of 15 Cryptosporidium parvum) and intensively $(F_{90}^{12}=14.8 \text{ min}, 2 \text{ Log reductions of Alicyclobacillus})$ 16 acidoterrestris) pasteurized apple juice was studied. Raw apple juice (23 mg_{dw}/mL) caused 90% α -17 glucosidase inhibition. Analogous results were obtained for the mildly treated sample. The most 18 intense treatment reduced by 35% the α -glucosidase inhibition. However, such a decrease was 19 associated with an increase in the phenolic content, suggesting that α -glucosidase inhibition might 20 21 not rely on these compounds, but depend on more complex mechanisms. Apple juice was combined with a carbose to investigate their interaction towards α -glucosidase inhibition. A synergistic 22 behavior was observed for concentrations < 2 mg/mL. Increasing the concentration of the combined 23 system (up to 9 mg/mL) produced an antagonistic effect, while a further increase (< 9 mg/mL) 24 25 allowed approaching an addictive behavior.

26

27 **Keywords:** Apple juice; α-Glucosidase inhibition; Pasteurization; Type 2 diabetes; Acarbose

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Apple consumption is known to reduce the risk of chronic diseases, such as cancer, cardiovascular diseases and type 2 diabetes (Boyer & Liu, 2004; Guo, Yang, Tang, Jiang, & Li, 2017). The 31 protective effect has mainly been attributed to polyphenols, and in particular to the chemical 32 families of flavones (e.g. luteolin, apigenin), flavonols (e.g. quercetin, kaempferol), flavanols (e.g. 33 catechin, epicatechin), hydroxycinnamic acids (e.g. chlorogenic acid) and anthocyanidins (Boyer & 34 Liu, 2004; Hanhineva et al., 2010; Shoji et al., 2017). Apple phytochemicals affect carbohydrate 35 metabolism and glucose homeostasis at different sites (Hanhineva et al., 2010). Individual phenolic 36 compounds (e.g. catechol, catechin, chlorogenic, ferulic and caffeic acid) extracted from apple 37 reduced intestinal glucose uptake through SGLT1 transporter inhibition (Schulze et al., 2014). 38 Some phenolic compounds also inhibited the enzyme α -glucosidase, which plays a key role during 39 carbohydrates digestion (Agustinah, Sarkar, Woods, & Shetty, 2016; Tadera, 2006). Bortolotto and 40 Piangiolino (2013) reported that an apple extract inhibited the activity of α -amylase and α -41 glucosidase by 70% and 90%, respectively. Despite these studies showed the potential of apples in 42 facing the risk of type 2 diabetes, the relationship between the whole fruit intake and the reduced 43 diabetes risk has not been fully elucidated yet. Most effects have actually been demonstrated on 44 simplified systems obtained upon extraction of bioactive compounds from the original matrix 45 46 (Williamson, 2013).

Apple juice is the most consumed apple derivative since more than 20% of freshly harvested apples are consumed as juice (Schulze *et al.*, 2014). Apple juice production implies several technological interventions, among which are skin and pomace removal, enzymatic depectinization, and pasteurization. These technological treatments, which are intended to improve the stability of fruit and vegetable derivatives, significantly affect the phenolic content of the final product (Van Buren, De Vos, & Pilnik, 1976; Schulze *et al.*, 2014) and thus its potential health benefits. To our knowledge, no data regarding the effect of pasteurization on the ability of apple juice to inhibit α -

glucosidase are available. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to investigate the effect of 54 pasteurization on the *in vitro* inhibitory activity of apple juice against α -glucosidase. Apple juice 55 56 was subjected to a conventional thermal treatment to obtain 5 Log reductions of Cryptosporidium parvum (FDA, 2004), or to a more intense pasteurization to achieve 2 Log reductions of 57 Alicyclobacillus acidoterrestris (Silva & Gibbs, 2001). Further, since the drugs currently used to 58 59 treat type 2 diabetes often carry undesired side effects (Kumar & Sinha, 2012), for the first time the 60 interaction between apple juice and acarbose was studied. Acarbose was chosen because it is widely 61 used as a therapy for type 2 diabetes. The purpose was to understand whether the combination of juice and acarbose might allow drug dosage reduction while keeping the efficacy against α -62 glucosidase. 63

64

65 **2. Materials and methods**

66 2.1.Chemicals and materials

Methanol (MeOH), formic acid (HCOOH), fructose, glucose, sucrose, (+)-catechin, (–)-epicatechin,
chlorogenic acid, phloridzin, phloretin, 3-hydroxycinnamic acid (internal standard; I.S.), αglucosidase, 4-nitrophenyl-α-D-glucopyranoside, and acarbose were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich
(Milan, Italy). Quercetin-3-*O*-galactoside, procyanidin B2, and epigallocatechin gallate were
obtained from ExtraSynthese (Lyon, France). Quercetin-3-*O*-arabinoside and quercetin-3-*O*rhamnoside were purchased from Carbosynth (Berkshire, UK). Milli-Q grade water was produced
by Elgastat UHQ-PS system (ELGA, High Wycombe Bucks, UK).

Solid phase extraction (SPE) columns ISOLUTE C18, 1 g, 6 mL were from Biotage (Milan, Italy).

75

76 *2.2.Sample preparation*

A 10 kg batch of apples (Malus domestica Borkh., cv. Golden Delicious) were purchased at the
local market and maintained at 7 °C until use. Apples were washed, wiped and the juice was

extracted (Ariston Hotpoint Slow Juicer, Fabriano, Italy) at 4 °C to minimize enzymatic browning.
The juice was centrifuged at 5000 g for 5 min at 4 °C (Beckman Avanti J-25 Beckman Instruments
Inc., Palo Alto, CA, USA) and filtered through filter paper. Approximately 1.5 kg of apples were
used for each replicate. Ten mL aliquots of apple juice were poured into 20 mL capacity glass vials
(Vetrotecnica, Padova, Italy), which were closed with screw caps and kept refrigerated. Samples
were subjected to technological treatments within 10 min after preparation.

85

86 *2.3.Pasteurization*

Thermal treatments were performed in a silicone oil bath (Haake Phoenix B5, Thermo Electron Co., Karlsruhe, Germany). Samples were pasteurized by applying two different time-temperature combinations. A copper-constantan thermocouple probe (Ellab, Denmark), whose tip (2.0 mm) was placed in the coldest point of the sample (i.e. at two-thirds of depth in glass vials), measured temperature changes of apple juice during pasteurization. The thermal effect *F* (min) was computed using Equation 1 (Ball, 1923):

93
$$F = \int_0^t 10^{(T - T_{ref})/z} \cdot dt$$
(1)

where T_{ref} is the reference temperature, T is the actual temperature of the treatment (°C), t is the 94 95 time (min). The first treatment (P_{71.7}) provided a sterilizing equivalent to 0.4 min at 71.7 °C and aimed at achieving 5 Log reductions of Cryptosporidium parvum (D71.7=3 s and z=5 °C) (FDA, 96 2004). The second treatment (P₉₀) provided a sterilizing equivalent to 14.8 min at 90 °C and aimed 97 98 at reducing by 2 Log Alicyclobacillus acidoterrestris (D₉₀=7.4 min and z=12 °C) (Silva & Gibbs, 2001). After treatment, the samples were rapidly cooled in a spray of water until they reached a 99 100 temperature of approximately 30 °C. Apple juice not subjected to heat treatment was taken as a control. 101

102

103 *2.4.Total solid content and pH*

The total solid content was measured by a gravimetric method (AOAC Official Method 925.009
(1995). pH was measured by a pHmeter (HANNA Instruments, pH 301, Padova, Italy).

106

107 *2.5. Sugar content*

The method by Englyst, Englyst, Hudson, Cole, & Cummings (1999) was followed, upon slight 108 109 changes. Apple juice was mixed with methanol (1:5, mL; mL), left at room temperature for 1 h and centrifuged at 4000 g for 10 min at 4 °C (Beckman Avanti tm J-25, Beckman Instruments Inc., Palo 110 Alto, CA, USA). The supernatant was analyzed using an HPLC pump (LC-10AT VP, Shimadzu, 111 Japan) equipped with a refractive index detector (RID-10A, Shimadzu, Japan). An inverse phase 112 113 apolar C18 column (5 µm, 250 x 4.6 mm) was used (Grace Davison Discovery Sciences, Alltima, Lokeren Belgium). The injection valve (Rheodyne, Sigma-Aldrich, Milano, Italia) was equipped 114 with a 20 µL plastic loop and samples were injected using a syringe (SGE LC, 100 µL, FN). The 115 116 mobile phase was represented by acetonitrile and deionized water (70:30, mL: mL) and 1.3 mL/min flow rate was applied. Quantitative analysis of sugars was carried out by comparing the sugar peak 117 area with the results of calibration lines obtained by injecting fructose, glucose, and sucrose 118 standard solutions serially diluted. Calibration lines were linear ($R^2 > 0.995$) in the 1.0 to 250.0 g/L 119 concentration interval. 120

121

- 122 2.6.Phenolic composition
- 123 2.6.1. SPE purification

Ten μ L 3-hydroxycinnamic acid (50 μ g/mL) methanolic solution as internal standard and 1 mL juice was diluted with 2 mL deionized water and loaded on a C18 SPE column previously conditioned with 5 mL of 2 mL/L formic acid in methanol and 5 mL of 20 mL/L formic acid in water.

128 After loading, the column was washed with 10 mL of 20 mL/L formic acid in water and the 129 phenolic fraction was eluted with 5 mL methanol. The solvent was removed and the residue was properly diluted with H₂O/MeOH (9:1, mL: mL). The solution was transferred to an autosampler
 vial for the HPLC-DAD-ESI-MS/MS analysis.

- 132
- 133 2.6.2. HPLC-DAD-ESI-MSⁿ analysis

The method by Kahle, Kraus, & Richling (2005) was followed, with slight changes. Chromatographic analysis was performed with a Dionex Ultimate 3000 UPLC (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA) equipped with a thermostated autosampler and a column oven. The UPLC system was coupled with a diode array detector and an electrospray ionization mass detector (HPLC-DAD-ESI-MSⁿ) in parallel by splitting the mobile phase 1:1.

Negative-ion ESI mass spectra were obtained with a Finnigan LXQ linear trap mass spectrometer 139 (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA). The typical ESI source conditions were transfer line 140 capillary at 275 °C; ion spray voltage at 3.30 kV; sheath, auxiliary and sweep gas (N₂) flow rates at 141 142 10, 5 and 0 arbitrary units, respectively. Helium was used as the collision damping gas in the ion trap set at a pressure of 0.13 Pa. ESI-MSⁿ spectra were obtained by collision-induced dissociation 143 144 (CID) experiments after isolation of the appropriate precursor ions in the ion trap (isolation width 145 1.2 m/z unit), and subjecting them to the following typical conditions: normalized collision energy between 20% and 30%, selected to preserve a signal of the precursor ion in the order of 5%; 0.25 146 147 activation Q and 30 ms activation time.

The chromatographic separation was performed with a column Synergi Hydro, 4 mm, 250 x 2.0 mm 148 (Phenomenex, Italy), thermostated at 30 °C. Elution was carried out at 0.3 mL/min flow rate, using 149 as mobile phase 2 mL/L formic acid in methanol (A) and 2 mL/L formic acid in water (B) with the 150 following gradient: 0-6 min 10% A, 20 min 40% A, 40 min 40% A, 46 min 100% A, 52 min 100% 151 A, 54 min 10% A, 54-60 min 10% A. The injection volume was 20 µL. The acquisition was carried 152 out in full scan (m/z 50 - 1500) and in full scan MS² (m/z 50 - 600) selecting the precursor ion [M-153 H]⁻ at m/z 289.1 for (+)-catechin and (-)-epicatechin, m/z 577.2 for procyanidin B2, m/z 457.1 for 154 epigallocatechin gallate, m/z 353.1 for chlorogenic acid, m/z 163.0 for 3-hydroxycinnamic acid 155

(I.S.), m/z 463.1 for quercetin galactoside, m/z 435.2 for phloridzin, m/z 433.1 for quercetin xyloside and quercetin arabinoside, m/z 447.1 for quercetin rhamnoside and m/z 273.1 for phloretin, respectively. Phloretin-xyloglucoside ([M-H]⁻ m/z 567.2; MS²: m/z 273) and 4-*p*-coumaroylquinic acid ([M-H]⁻ m/z 337.1; MS²: m/z 173, 163, 155) were tentatively characterized, by comparison of their fragmentation pattern with those available in the literature (Sommella *et al.*, 2015).

The quantitative analysis was carried out using an Ultimate 3000 RS Diode Array detector (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA) controlled by Chromeleon software (version 6.80). Spectral data from all peaks were accumulated in the range 200-400 nm and chromatograms were recorded at 280 nm for (+)-catechin, (-)-epicatechin, procyanidin B2, epigallocatechin gallate, 3-hydroxycinnamic acid (I.S.), phloretin-xiloglucoside, phloridzin, phloretin, 314 nm for 4-*p*-coumaroylquinic acid, 328 nm for chlorogenic acid, 258 nm for quercetin-3-*O*-galactoside, quercetin-3-*O*-xyloside, quercetin-3-*O*-arabinoside and quercetin-3-*O*-rhamnoside, respectively.

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2.6.3. Calibration curves and quantification

A stock solution of (+)-catechin, (–)-epicatechin, procyanidin B2, epigallocatechin gallate, chlorogenic acid, phloridzin, phloretin, quercetin-3-*O*-galactoside, quercetin-3-*O*-xyloside, quercetin-3-*O*-arabinoside, quercetin-3-*O*-rhamnoside in H₂O/MeOH (9:1, mL: mL) was serially diluted with the same solvent to prepare 7-point calibration curves in the range 12-3000 ng/mL with a constant concentration of the I.S. (500 ng/mL). The R² coefficients for the calibration curves were > 0.99. When standards were unavailable, the quantification of the analyte was carried out using the calibration curve of available standard presenting similar chemical structure.

177

178 *2.7.Color analysis*

179 Color analysis was carried out using a tristimulus colorimeter (Chromameter-2 Reflectance,
180 Minolta, Osaka, Japan) equipped with a CR-300 measuring head. The instrument was standardized
181 against a white tile before measurement. Approximately 20 mL juice was poured in a plastic sample

182 container (50 mm diameter) and the instrument measuring head was precisely placed 5 mm below 183 the liquid surface. Color was expressed in CIE units as L* (lightness/darkness), a* 184 (redness/greenness) and b* (yellowness/blueness). The parameters a* and b* were used to compute 185 the hue angle (arctan b*/a*) (Clydesdale, 1978).

186

187 2.8. α -Glucosidase inhibition assay

The α -glucosidase inhibitory activity was determined spectrophotometrically (UV-2501PC, UV-Vis 188 recording Spectrophotometer, Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan) as previously described 189 (Alongi & Anese, 2018). The inhibitory activity (%) against α -glucosidase was plotted vs apple 190 juice concentration, which was tested in the range 0-23 mg_{dw}/mL. A logarithmic model was used to 191 fit data so that IC₅₀ was calculated as the concentration of apple juice required to produce a 50% 192 193 inhibition against α -glucosidase. The same evaluation was applied to acarbose solutions, with 194 increasing concentration in the range 0.02 - 0.80 mg/mL, as a standard indicator for rating the efficacy of juice samples in inhibiting α -glucosidase. The acarbose equivalent was calculated as 195 IC_{50 acarbose}/IC_{50 sample} (Nasu, Miura, & Gomyo, 2005). 196

197

198 2.9. Study of apple juice and acarbose interactions

199 The method proposed by Chou and Talalay (1984) was used, with some modifications, to 200 investigate apple juice and acarbose interaction towards α -glucosidase inhibition. The inhibitory 201 activity (%) against α -glucosidase, namely effect *x*, carried out by P_{71.7} apple juice or acarbose was 202 represented as a function of apple juice or acarbose concentration, respectively.

203 Combined systems of juice and acarbose with a proportionally increasing concentration of both 204 juice and acarbose were obtained according to Equation 2:

205
$$Fm_n \times [(D_m)_j + (D_m)_a] = (C_n)_{j,a}$$
 (2)

9

where Fm_n represents a multiplicative factor, $(D_m)_j$ and $(D_m)_a$ are the doses of juice and acarbose 206 207 able to produce a 50% α -glucosidase inhibition (i.e. IC₅₀) and (C_n)_{*i*, *a*} is the total concentration of juice and acarbose in the combined system. Six combined systems were obtained by substituting six 208 209 different multiplicative factors (i.e. 0.25; 0.5; 1.5; 2; 2.5; 3.5) in Equation 2. The combined systems were tested for their ability to inhibit α -glucosidase and the inhibition percentage was plotted 210 against the concentration. The sum of juice and acarbose doses $(D_x)_{j,a}$ corresponding to an effect x 211 was thus determined, and the relevant single doses of juice and acarbose were calculated by 212 Equations 3 and 4, respectively: 213

214
$$(D)_j = (D_x)_{j,a} \times \frac{(D_m)_j}{(D_m)_a + (D_m)_j}$$
 (3)

215
$$(D)_a = (D_x)_{j,a} \times \frac{(D_m)_a}{(D_m)_a + (D_m)_j}$$
 (4)

216

217 The Combination Index (CI) was finally calculated by Equation 5:

218
$$CI = \frac{(D)_j}{(D_x)_j} + \frac{(D)_a}{(D_x)_a}$$
 (5)

where $(D)_j$ represents the dose of juice in the combined system producing an effect x, $(D)_a$ represents the dose of acarbose in the combined system producing the same effect x, $(D_x)_j$, is the dose of juice alone producing the effect x and $(D_x)_a$ is the dose of acarbose alone producing the effect x.

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224 2.10. Statistical analysis

Results are averages of at least three measurements carried out on two replicated samples and are reported as means \pm standard error ($n \ge 6$). Statistical analysis was performed using R (version 3.2.3, The R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Bartlett's test was used to check the homogeneity of variance, one-way ANOVA was carried out and Tukey test was used to determine statistically significant differences among means (p < 0.05). Best fitting analysis was carried out using Table Curve 2D (version 4.0, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and the goodness of fitting was evaluated based on statistical parameters of fitting (R^2 , p and standard error *SE*).

232

233 **3. Results and discussion**

3.1.Effect of pasteurization on some chemical and physical properties of apple juice

Apple juice with average total solid content and pH of 13.7 ± 2.1 g/100 mL and 3.7 ± 0.1 , respectively, were subjected to two different pasteurization processes providing sterilizing effects equivalent to $F_{71.7}^5=0.4$ min and $F_{90}^{12}=14.8$ min. As expected, total solid content and pH did not change upon heat treatment. Table 1 shows sugar concentration and color parameters of untreated and pasteurized apple juices.

Fructose was the most abundant sugar in apple juice samples, followed by sucrose and glucose. Raw and $P_{71.7}$ samples did not significantly differ for sugar content, while fructose and sucrose in P₉₀ sample were approximately 30 and 60% less concentrated than those found in the control. This reduction can be attributed to the sugars consumption as reagents of the Maillard reaction (Rivas *et al.*, 2006; Garza, Ibarz, Pagán, & Giner, 1999). On the contrary, glucose concentration did not change significantly, probably due to the heat-induced release of aglycone compounds, and thus of glucose, that might counterbalance the Maillard reaction effect (Neveu *et al.*, 2010).

Pasteurization processes, especially the most intense one, caused an increase in L* and hue angle values, which are indices of sample bleaching. Such an increase may be due to hydrolysis of polymeric aggregates formed upon polyphenoloxidase activity and consequently to the formation of low molecular weight, soluble compounds (McKenzie & Beveridge, 1988).

251

252 3.2.Effect of pasteurization on α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of apple juice

Fig. 1 shows α -glucosidase inhibitory activity as a function of the total solid concentration of untreated apple juice. Apple juice significantly inhibited the enzyme activity in a dose-dependent way, in agreement with literature data (Nasu *et al.*, 2005; He, Yang, Zhang, Ma, & Ma, 2014;

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Ankolekar *et al.*, 2012; Adyanthaya, Kwon, Apostolidis, & Shetty, 2009). The enzymatic activity
was suppressed by almost 85% when apple juice concentration was 23 mg_{dw}/mL.

Fig. 1 also shows α -glucosidase inhibitory activities of the pasteurized apple juices as a function of total solid concentration. No significant changes in the α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of the P_{71.7} apple juice were found as respect to the untreated sample. On the contrary, the most intense pasteurization was responsible for approximately 35% decrease in the α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of P₉₀ apple juice.

The potential of apple derivatives in reducing the postprandial rise in blood glucose has already 263 264 been reported (Adyanthaya et al., 2009; Ankolekar et al., 2012; Nasu et al., 2005; Shoji et al., 2017). Several authors (Boyer and Liu, 2004; Guo et al., 2017) described an inverse relationship 265 266 between apple consumption and risk of type 2 diabetes. The α -glucosidase inhibitory effect carried out by apple juice was attributed to naturally present phenolic compounds (Williamson, 2013; 267 268 Schmidt, Lauridsen, Dragsted, Nielsen, & Staerk, 2012). Based on these considerations, the latter 269 were quantified in apple juice submitted or not to pasteurization (Table 2), to understand whether thermal processing-induced changes in phenolic compound profile, potentially affecting the α -270 glucosidase inhibitory capacity of apple juice. 271

272 As reported in Table 2, the number of phenolic compounds differed in apple juice submitted or not to pasteurization. The total phenolic content increased concomitantly with the intensity of thermal 273 treatment, in agreement with literature findings (Agcam, Akyildiz, & Evrendilek, 2014; Gerard & 274 275 Roberts, 2004). In particular, 2-fold and 6-fold increases in total phenolic content were found when 276 the mildest and most intense pasteurization treatments were applied, respectively. Among phenolic compounds, flavonols and hydroxycinnamic acids represented the major classes, accounting for 277 278 nearly 90% of the overall content in untreated juice. Chlorogenic acid were the most abundant compound and its concentration markedly increased upon the most intense treatment, accounting 279 for 50% of the total phenolic content. Other authors reported this compound to be the most 280

abundant phenol in apple derivatives and observed an increase in its concentration upon thermal
treatment (Keenan, Brunton, Butler, Wouters, & Gormley, 2011).

The increase in phenolic compounds upon pasteurization could be attributed to thermal induced hydrolysis of the most heat-labile compounds (such as epigallocatechin gallate and procyanidin polymers) resulting in the release of monomers and dimers, among which are (-)-epicatechin and procyanidin B2 (De Paepe *et al.*, 2014).

The increase in phenolic compounds can be also caused by thermal inactivation of polyphenoloxidase. This enzyme is well known to induce phenolic compound polymerization in vegetable matrices, producing complex dark-colored pigments (Oszmianski, Wolniak, Wojdyło, & Wawer, 2008). By inactivating polyphenoloxidase, pasteurization can thus prevent phenolic compounds from being involved in browning reactions (Ioannou, Hafsa, Hamdi, Charbonnel, & Ghoul, 2012).

293 Overall, acquired data indicate that the reduction in the inhibitory activity (Fig. 1) corresponded to an increase in total phenolic content (Table 2). On the contrary, Adyanthaya et al. (2009) found that 294 an increase or decrease in α -glucosidase inhibition corresponded to a similar rise and fall in the 295 concentration of phenolic compounds. However, it is noteworthy that literature data refer to 296 297 unprocessed juice. The results of the present study suggest the existence of more complex mechanisms underlying α -glucosidase inhibition. In particular, the decrease in the inhibitory 298 activity could be attributed to the thermally induced degradation of bioactive molecules other than 299 300 phenolic compounds (Shori, 2015).

301

302 3.3. Apple juice-acarbose interactive capability of inhibiting the α -glucosidase activity

303 The α -glucosidase inhibitory capacity of apple juice was compared to that carried out by acarbose 304 (Table 3). Table 3 reports the IC₅₀ of untreated, P_{71.7}, P₉₀ apple juices, and acarbose solution, as well 305 as the acarbose equivalents of the enzyme inhibitors. 306 As expected, acarbose was more effective in inhibiting α -glucosidase than apple juice (Table 3). Raw and P_{71.7} apple juices were 100-fold less effective than acarbose in inhibiting the enzyme. 307 308 However, considering their dry matter (137 mg/mL) and the suggested daily intake of acarbose (300 mg/d), 220 mL/d of juice would provide an acarbose like effect. This dose should be increased to 309 547 mL/d when the most intensely treated juice (P₉₀) is considered since the latter was 250-fold less 310 effective than acarbose in inhibiting α -glucosidase. These results demonstrated the efficacy of apple 311 312 juice in inhibiting α -glucosidase in vitro, considering ordinarily consumed amounts of juice, as reported in the literature (Nasu et al., 2005). 313

The combined system of apple juice and acarbose was also analyzed, to understand if apple juice may play a role in enhancing the inhibitory effect carried out by acarbose. The interaction of acarbose with conventionally pasteurized apple juice (i.e. $P_{71.7}$) was investigated. Fig. 2 shows the α -glucosidase inhibition produced by apple juice, acarbose and apple juice-acarbose combined system.

It can be noticed that the combined system of apple juice and acarbose was more effective than apple juice alone in inhibiting the enzyme. Better to understand the interactive behavior of apple juice and acarbose, the combination index (CI) was computed and plotted as a function of the inhibition percentage against α -glucosidase (Fig. 3). To this purpose, six combined systems were prepared by multiplying six multiplicative factors (i.e. 0.25; 0.5; 1.5; 2; 2.5; 3.5) to the IC₅₀ (i.e. the concentration required to cause 50% α -glucosidase inhibition) of apple juice and acarbose.

As already mentioned, the CI provides an indication of the interaction between apple juice and acarbose in the overall enzyme inhibition range. In particular, CI > 1 indicates antagonistic effect; CI < 1 means synergic effect and CI = 1 stands for additive effect. As reported in Fig. 3, apple juice and acarbose played a synergistic effect up to 40% inhibition, which corresponded to a concentration of apple juice-acarbose combined system near to 2 mg/mL (Fig. 2). An antagonistic behavior between apple juice and acarbose was found when the inhibition was between 40 and 80%, corresponding to a concentration of the combined system ranging from 2 to 9 mg/mL. However, it is noteworthy that, when inhibition percentages were higher than 70%, the CI progressively decreased, approximating the additive effect when 90% inhibition was approached. These results highlight that different proportions of acarbose and apple juice may differently affect the inhibitory activity against α -glucosidase.

336

337 Conclusions

338 The results of the present study draw attention to the ability of apple juice in inhibiting α glucosidase that is one of the key enzymes involved in carbohydrates digestion. Acquired data 339 demonstrated that conventional pasteurization, which is aimed to kill Cryptosporidium parvum 340 oocysts, did not significantly affect the physical and chemical properties of apple juice, nor its 341 inhibiting ability against α -glucosidase. By contrast, severe pasteurization, aimed to destroy 342 Alicyclobacillus acidoterrestris spores, caused up to 35% loss of the inhibiting capacity of apple 343 juice. This suggests that food functionality relies upon an adequate choice of processing parameters. 344 Moreover, results showed that the apple juice-acarbose combined system played a synergistic effect 345 346 up to 40% α -glucosidase inhibition, whereas higher concentrations led to an antagonistic behavior. 347 Obtained results may represent a starting point to further investigate the potential effect of apple juice in bolstering the efficacy of conventional drugs used for the treatment of type 2 diabetes. 348 Nonetheless, it should be considered that apple juice is an important source of sugars. The latter 349 350 should be taken into account when designing foods aimed at reducing type 2 diabetes incidence. Thus, further studies may consider apple juice derivatives with low sugar concentration to be 351 exploited for their antidiabetic effect. 352

353

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356

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452

453 Fig. 1. α-Glucosidase inhibitory activity of apple juice not pasteurized (Raw) or subjected to
454 pasteurization providing sterilizing effects equivalent to F⁵_{71.7}=0.4 min (P_{71.7}) and F¹²₉₀=14.8 min
455 (P₉₀), as a function of total solid concentration. Data fitting: lines, estimates; symbols, experimental
456 data (NP; - ←P71.7; ---▲P90).

457

458 Fig. 2. α -Glucosidase inhibitory activity of apple juice, acarbose and the apple juice-acarbose 459 combined system as a function of total solid concentration. Data fitting: lines, estimates; symbols,

460 experimental data (Apple juice + Acarbose; Acarbose; Apple juice).

461

Fig. 3. Combination index (CI) relevant to apple juice-acarbose combined system as a function of the α-glucosidase inhibition percentage. CI > 1: antagonistic effect; CI < 1: synergic effect; CI = 1: additive effect.

Table 1

Sugar concentration and color parameters of apple juice not pasteurized (Raw) or subjected to pasteurization providing sterilizing effects equivalent to $F_{71.7}^5=0.4 \min (P_{71.7})$ or $F_{90}^{12}=14.8 \min (P_{90})$.

0 1	Sucrose	Fructose	Glucose	T y	Hue angle
Sample	(g/L)	(g/L)	(g/L)	L*	(arctan b*/a*)
Raw	20 ± 12^{ab}	159 ± 35^{ab}	7 ± 1^a	51 ± 2^{b}	70 ± 1^{b}
P _{71.7}	33 ± 1^{a}	201 ± 1^{a}	5 ± 1^{a}	50 ± 1^{b}	71 ± 1^{b}
P ₉₀	8 ± 1^{b}	109 ± 1^{b}	5 ± 1^{a}	59 ± 1^{a}	87 ± 1^{a}

Means in the same column indicated by a common letter (a-c) are not significantly different (p>0.05).

Table 2

Phenolic compound concentrations of apple juice not pasteurized (Raw) or subjected to pasteurization providing sterilizing effects equivalent to $F_{71.7}^5=0.4 \text{ min (P}_{71.7} \text{ sample)}$ and $F_{90}^{12}=14.8 \text{ min (P}_{90} \text{ sample)}$.

	Raw (mg/L)	P _{71.7} (mg/L)	P ₉₀ (mg/L)
Chlorogenic acid	1.12 ± 0.02	3.85 ± 0.01	16.26 ± 0.15
p-Cumaroylquinic acid	0.89 ± 0.04	2.28 ± 0.03	4.35 ± 0.14
\sum Hydroxycinnamic acids	2.01	6.13	20.61
Phloretin	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Phloretin xyloglucoside	0.27 ± 0.02	0.69 ± 0.01	2.30 ± 0.02
Phloridzin	0.13 ± 0.00	0.38 ± 0.01	1.18 ± 0.01
\sum Dihydrocalcone derivatives	0.40	1.06	3.47
Epigallocatechin gallate	0.21 ± 0.01	0.25 ± 0.01	n.d.
(+) Catechin	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Procyanidin B2	n.d.	n.d.	0.20 ± 0.00
(-) Epicatchin	n.d.	0.10 ± 0.01	3.79 ± 0.13
\sum Flavanols	0.21	0.36	3.99
Quercetin-3-O-galactoside	0.85 ± 0.02	1.18 ± 0.03	1.42 ± 0.06
Quercetin-3-O-hexoside	0.08 ± 0.01	0.87 ± 0.00	0.97 ± 0.04
Quercetin-3-O-xyloside	0.12 ± 0.00	0.18 ± 0.00	0.23 ± 0.00
Quercetin-3-O-arabinoside	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside	1.45 ± 0.02	1.55 ± 0.01	1.65 ± 0.02
Others quercetin-pentoside	0.21 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.01	0.31 ± 0.01
\sum Flavonols	2.72	4.06	4.59
Total phenolic compounds	5.33	11.61	32.66

n.d.: not detectable

Table 3.

IC₅₀ (half-maximal inhibitory concentration) and acarbose equivalents of apple juice not pasteurized (Raw) or subjected to pasteurization providing sterilizing effects equivalent to $F_{71.7}^5$ =0.4 min (P_{71.7} sample) and F_{90}^{12} =14.8 min (P₉₀ sample).

IC ₅₀	Acarbose equivalents	
(mg/mL)	(IC _{50 acarbose} /IC _{50 inhibitor})	
6.24	0.014	
6.08	0.014	
18.41	0.004	
0.09	1	
	(mg/mL) 6.24 6.08 18.41	

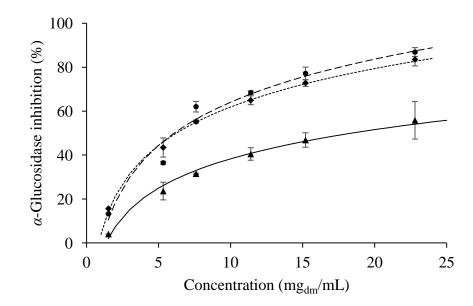


Fig. 1.

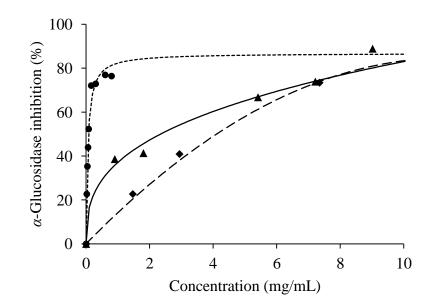


Fig. 2.

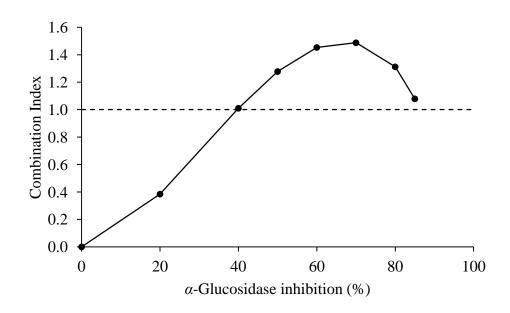


Fig. 3.