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5 **Phytochemicals in Japanese plums: impact of maturity and**  
6 **bioaccessibility**

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37

38 Abstract

39 In recent years there has been increasing consumer interest in the potential health  
40 benefits of dietary derived phytochemicals such as polyphenols (including anthocyanins  
41 and flavonols) and carotenoids. A new variety of Japanese plum (*Prunus salicina*  
42 Lindl.), named Queen Garnet (QG), was developed as a high anthocyanin plum in a  
43 Queensland (Australia) Government breeding program and may be attractive to  
44 consumers but knowledge of other phytochemical content, and bioaccessibility, is  
45 currently limited. As a result, the present study examined (1) the impact of harvest date  
46 on anthocyanins, quercetin glycosides and carotenoids in Queen Garnet and another red  
47 fleshed commercial Japanese plum variety, Black Diamond (BD), (2) the content of  
48 bound phenolics in plum fruit and (3) the *in vitro* bioaccessibility of these  
49 phytochemicals as an initial measure to predict their potential bioavailability. For both  
50 QG and BD, the last harvest resulted in the highest anthocyanin content in peel, flesh  
51 and whole fruit, whereas no significant effects could be observed for quercetin  
52 glycosides, and total carotenoids decreased over time. The highest content of bound  
53 phenolics (30% of total amount) could be found in BD flesh. Between 53% and 59% of  
54 quercetin glycosides and anthocyanins was released from QG after the gastric and small  
55 intestinal digestion procedure, whereas the bioaccessible carotenoids ranged between 4-  
56 6%. A relative high release of anthocyanins and quercetin glycosides could be observed  
57 from QG which may result in a higher gastro-intestinal absorption rate of these  
58 compounds. However, follow-up studies (clinical trials) are warranted to investigate the  
59 *in vivo* bioavailability and subsequently biological activity of QG.

60

61 Keywords: Japanese plums; phytochemicals; maturity; in-vitro digestion;  
62 bioaccessibility

63

64

65 **1. Introduction**

66 In recent years there has been increasing consumer interest in the potential health  
67 benefits of dietary derived phytochemicals, such as polyphenols and carotenoids.  
68 Anthocyanins (e.g. cyanidin glycosides) and flavonols (e.g. quercetin glycosides), two  
69 main polyphenol subclasses, are one of the most abundant polyphenols in fruits and  
70 vegetables with an estimated daily intake of up to 64.9 mg anthocyanins and 54.9 mg  
71 flavonols, respectively (Zamora-Ros, Knaze, Lujan-Barroso, Slimani, Romieu, Fedirko,  
72 et al., 2011; Zamora-Ros, Knaze, Lujan-Barroso, Slimani, Romieu, Touillaud, et al.,  
73 2011). Recent publications indicate that the consumption of dietary anthocyanins as  
74 fresh food, juice, puree or powder may exert protection against cardiovascular risk  
75 factors, type 2 diabetes, oesophageal cancer and deterioration of bone tissues in humans  
76 (Cassidy et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2012; Hassellund et al., 2013; Jennings et al., 2012;  
77 Welch et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2013) **Jennings et al. 2014**;

78 Although afforded much less attention than some other phytochemical-rich fruits,  
79 certain varieties of Japanese plum (*Prunus salicina* Lindl.) are very significant sources  
80 of dietary anthocyanins (such as the variety Queen Garnet [QG]) and quercetin  
81 glycosides (Fanning, Topp, Russell, Stanley, & Netzel, 2014) **Venter et al 2013**). It has  
82 been previously shown in pilot trials that anthocyanin content increases with maturity in  
83 QG (Fanning et al., 2013) and other plums (Fanning et al., 2014) but content of  
84 quercetin glycosides and carotenoids are of interest but have not been studied.  
85 Furthermore the so-called bound phenolic fractions, including condensed tannins and  
86 hydrolysable polyphenols, which are generally not determined in fruits when the content  
87 is analysed by conventional extraction techniques have not been previously described in  
88 Japanese plum. A recent study with European plum (*Prunus domestica*) showed that  
89 >82% of the total antioxidant activity was due to the bound fractions (Kristl, Slekovec,  
90 Tojnko, & Unuk, 2011). It is anticipated that these “missing dietary polyphenols”,  
91 which often reach the colon and are then subject to microbial degradation, may mediate

92 significant health benefits (Saura-Calixto, 2012; Vizzotto, Cisneros-Zevallos, Byrne,  
93 Ramming, & Okie, 2007).

94 Polyphenols and carotenoids must be released from the fruit matrix and then absorbed  
95 through the gut wall in some form to exert their systemic effects in the body. *In vitro*  
96 models that mimic the gastric and small intestinal digestion process are a common  
97 approach to determine the release/bioaccessibility of nutrients and phytochemicals as an  
98 initial measure to predict their potential bioavailability (ref). Bioaccessibility is defined  
99 as the fraction of a nutrient (or phytochemical) that is released from a food matrix and  
100 potentially available for intestinal absorption (Parada & Aguilera, 2007). To date, no  
101 bioaccessibility data of the major phytochemicals in Japanese plum are available.  
102 However, although anthocyanin content is more concentrated in peel in QG (and other  
103 Japanese plums) the high flesh content of dark red fleshed varieties such as QG is novel  
104 compared with many other anthocyanin-rich fruits such as many berries and grapes,  
105 where anthocyanin is almost exclusively in the peel, and may result in higher  
106 bioaccessibility.

107 Therefore, the objectives of the present study were (1) to assess the impact of maturity  
108 on anthocyanins, quercetin glycosides and carotenoids in QG and another red fleshed  
109 Japanese plum variety, Black Diamond (BD), (2) to determine the content of  
110 nonextractable phenolic compounds in peel, flesh and whole fruit and (3) to evaluate the  
111 bioaccessibility of these phytochemicals as an initial measure to predict their potential  
112 bioavailability using an *in vitro* digestion procedure.

113

## 114 **2. Material and methods**

### 115 *2.1. Chemicals*

116 Unless otherwise stated, all chemicals were from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany),  
117 Scharlau Chemie S.A. (Barcelona, Spain) or Sigma-Aldrich (Sydney, NSW, Australia)  
118 and were of HPLC or analytical grade. Throughout the experiments, deionized water

119 was used (MILLIPORE Australia Pty Ltd, Kilsyth, VIC, Australia). Cyanidin-3-  
120 glucoside and cyanidin-3-rutinoside were purchased from ChromaDex (Irvine, CA,  
121 USA). Lutein, zeaxanthin and  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin were purchased from Extrasynthese  
122 (Genay, France). Quercetin-3-rutinoside (rutin), quercetin-3-glucoside, quercetin-3-  
123 galactoside and  $\beta$ -carotene were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

124

## 125 *2.2. Sample Preparation*

126 Fruit were harvested from trees grown at the Applethorpe Research Facility  
127 (Applethorpe, Queensland, Australia [latitude: -28.6217, longitude: 151.9533, elevation:  
128 876m]) as described for Queen Garnet previously (Fanning et al 2013). QG fruit were  
129 harvested on 17 January, 24 January, 31 January and 6 February (144, 151, 158 and 164  
130 days post full bloom), and BD (suplumeleven) fruit were harvested on 17 January, 24  
131 January and 31 January (with no fruit left on trees on 6 February). On each date mature  
132 fruit were picked and transported to Brisbane and stored at 1°C overnight. All plums, 12  
133 for each harvest date of each variety, were cut into half and the flesh and peel separated.  
134 The samples were freeze-dried and cryomilled (Retsch MM301 mill, Haan, Germany)  
135 prior to extraction.

136 For the in vitro digestion procedure fresh plums were picked in January 2013 from  
137 Applethorpe Research Facility, transported to Brisbane, stored overnight at 1°C and  
138 processed the next day as detailed below.

139

## 140 *2.3. Extraction*

141 Polyphenols (anthocyanins and quercetin glycosides) were extracted as described  
142 previously (Fanning et al., 2013).

143 Carotenoids were extracted following the method published by Fanning et al. (2009)  
144 with the following modifications. Approximately 0.2 g was weighed into 50 mL tubes,

145 10 mL acetone was added and then the tubes were vortexed for 20 s. Samples were then  
146 handled as previously described (Fanning et al 2009).  
147 The non-extractable phenolics were extracted using a method that was adopted from  
148 Kristl *et al.* (2011). To the residue left from the polyphenol extraction, 10 mL of acetone  
149 was added and then vortexed and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 min. The supernatant  
150 was then removed and the residue was stored over night at -84 °C and then freeze-dried  
151 to remove any residual solvent. Two mL methanol and 0.2 mL concentrated sulphuric  
152 acid were then added to dried residue and incubated for 20 h in a shaking water bath  
153 (100 rev/min) at 85 °C. Following this the samples were centrifuged (10 min at 5000  
154 rpm), and the supernatant (termed the ‘hydrolysable tannins’ fraction), was transferred  
155 to another 15 mL tube and diluted to 10 mL (with water). 0.5 mL acetone and 3 mL  
156 butanol/HCl (95/5, v/v) were then added to the residue, vortexed (1 min) and placed in a  
157 shaking water bath (100 rev/min) at 95 °C for 40 min. Following centrifugation (10 min  
158 at 5000 rpm), the supernatant (termed the ‘proanthocyanidin’ fraction), was transferred  
159 to another 15 mL tube and was diluted to 5 mL with butanol. These fractions were  
160 diluted with ethanol prior to analysis. All samples were then analyzed for total phenolic  
161 content (Folin-Ciocalteu method) as detailed below.

162

#### 163 2.4. *In-vitro* digestion

164 Three large BD and three large QG fruits were separately cut into 12 pieces (without  
165 seed) and blended with a kitchen blender (Breville WIZZ stick, Breville, Sydney, NSW,  
166 Australia) to chop the plums. *In vitro* digestion procedure, adopted from Netzel et al.  
167 (2011) with slight modifications, was undertaken using this plum material. Briefly, ~5 g  
168 of either BD or QG was weighed into 10 (5 for gastric digestion and 5 for gastric and  
169 small intestinal digestion) individual 50 mL tubes (the remaining BD and QG material  
170 was stored separately as reference starting material at -84 °C until analysis). 6M HCl  
171 was added, with thorough mixing, until the samples reached pH 2. The pepsin (P7000,

172 Sigma-Aldrich) solution was then added and mixed. The tubes were incubated for 1h at  
173 37 °C in a shaking water bath (85 rev/min). After 1h the gastric samples were removed,  
174 centrifuged (10 min, 5000 rpm) and the supernatants were stored at -84 °C until  
175 analysis. 0.1M NaHCO<sub>3</sub> with calcium (824 mg CaCl<sub>2</sub>\*2H<sub>2</sub>O in 500 mL 0.1M NaHCO<sub>3</sub>)  
176 was added until the pH reached 5.7. The samples were mixed well and incubated for a  
177 further 30 min at 37 °C in a shaking water bath (85 rev/min). The pH was increased  
178 from 2 to 5.7 to simulate the slow increase of the pH between the gastric and small  
179 intestinal digestion. After removing the small intestinal samples from the water bath,  
180 1M NaOH was added until pH of 7.0 was reached, with thorough mixing throughout.  
181 One mL pancreatin-bile mixture (P1750, Sigma-Aldrich) was then added and mixed  
182 well. Samples were incubated for another 2 h at 37°C in a shaking water bath  
183 (85 rev/min). After removing from the water bath the samples were centrifuged (10 min,  
184 5000 rpm) and supernatants were then transferred into 15 mL tubes. Samples which  
185 were designated for polyphenol analysis were mixed with 500 µL formic acid (90%).  
186 All samples were then stored at -84°C until extraction and analysis of anthocyanins,  
187 quercetin glycosides and carotenoids.

188

### 189 2.5. Analysis

190 Total phenolic content was determined as previously described (Netzel et al., 2012) and  
191 results were expressed as mg of gallic acid equivalents per 100g (mg GAE/100g).  
192 Anthocyanins and carotenoids were both analyzed by HPLC as detailed previously  
193 (Netzel et al., 2012) **carotenoids - Fanning et al 2009**).  
194 Quercetin glycosides were analyzed with the same HPLC system as outlined in **Fanning**  
195 **et al 2009**. The samples were diluted in water and filtered prior to injection onto a  
196 Scientific Acclaim™ PolarAdvantageII C18 3µm 120 Å (4.6 × 150 mm) column  
197 (Thermo Scientific). The mobile phase A was 0.1% formic acid in water and B was  
198 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile. A gradient with a flow of 1.5ml/min was used: 0 min,

199 20% phase B; 12 min, 40% phase B; 21 min, 60% phase B; 23 min, 80% phase B; 27  
200 min, 80% phase B; 29 min, 20% phase B; 35 min, 20% phase B. Identification and  
201 quantitation of quercetin glycosides was undertaken at 355 nm using the following  
202 standards, quercetin-3-rutinoside (rutin), quercetin-3-glucoside, quercetin-3-galactoside,  
203 and comparison with literature (Jaiswal et al 2013, Venter et al 2013).

204

## 205 2.6. Statistics

206 The significance of differences between harvest dates or plum type were evaluated  
207 using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Tukey HSD procedure using  
208 JMP software (Version 7; SAS, Cary, NY, USA).

209

## 210 3. Results

### 211 3.1. Anthocyanins and quercetin glycosides

212 The last harvest resulted in the highest anthocyanin content (sum of cyanidin-3-  
213 glucoside and cyanidin-3-rutinoside) in peel, flesh and whole fruit with QG (Fig 1A)  
214 having significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) levels than BD (Fig. 1B). The relative anthocyanin  
215 content in QG flesh (% of total (whole fruit) content) was significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ )  
216 than in BD at all harvest dates with an observed maximum of 47% on 6 February (Table  
217 1).

218 Quercetin-3-glucoside and quercetin-3-rutinoside were identified as the main quercetin  
219 glycosides in QG and BD. There was a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) increase in quercetin  
220 glycosides in peel of both plum cultivars, as well as the whole fruit of BD, between the  
221 first and the last harvest date (Fig. 2). Overall, QG had significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher  
222 levels in peel, flesh and whole fruit than BD. On 31 January (last harvest date of BD),  
223 24% and 27% of quercetin derivatives were located in the flesh of QG and BD,  
224 respectively. However, an increase to 41% could be observed in QG flesh on 6 February  
225 (Table 1).



226

### 227 3.2. Bound phenolics

228 The average concentration of bound phenolics in peel, flesh and whole fruit ranged  
229 between 14.0 and 27.1 mg GAE/100 g for hydrolysable tannins and between 52.4 and  
230 73.4 mg GAE/100 g for proanthocyanidins. For both plum cultivars, the relative content  
231 (% of total (free and bound) content) of bound phenolics was higher ( $p<0.05$ ) in the  
232 flesh than in the peel, with BD having the highest content of 30 % (Fig. 3).

233

### 234 3.3. Carotenoid content

235 Five carotenoids could be quantified in QG, namely lutein,  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin,  $\beta$ -carotene,  
236 zeaxanthin and  $\alpha$ -carotene (the latter was found only in the peel). The slight decrease in  
237 total carotenoids in the peel, between the first and last harvest date, was not significant,  
238 whereas it was significant ( $p<0.05$ ) in the flesh and whole fruit (Fig. 4A). Lutein,  $\beta$ -  
239 cryptoxanthin and  $\beta$ -carotene could be quantified in BD. There was a significant  
240 decrease ( $p<0.05$ ) in total carotenoids in the peel between the first and the last harvest  
241 date, whereas the slight decrease in the flesh and whole fruit was not significant (Fig.  
242 4B).

243

### 244 3.4. In vitro digestion

245 The anthocyanin release after the mimicked gastric and small intestinal digestion  
246 process was similar in both plum cultivars with 56% for BD and 59% for QG,  
247 respectively (Table 2). However, the release of quercetin glycosides was significantly ( $p$   
248  $<0.05$ ) higher for QG with 53% released in total compared to 45% from BD (Table 2).  
249 The amount of bioaccessible (released) carotenoids was relatively low (and similar) in  
250 both plum cultivars with 4% and 6% for QG and BD, respectively (Table 2).

251

## 252 4. Discussion

253 4.1. Anthocyanins and quercetin glycosides

254 The anthocyanin content has been seen to increase in whole fruit, flesh and peel of  
255 Japanese plums with increasing maturity on tree (Diaz-Mula et al., 2008; Fanning et al.,  
256 2013; Netzel et al., 2012). Literature values for flesh and peel of commercial varieties  
257 have ranged from 0.5-17.7 mg/100g and 12.9-916 mg/100g (Diaz-Mula et al., 2008;  
258 Netzel et al., 2012; Tomas-Barberan et al., 2001). Whereas the peel content of QG and  
259 BD was in the range of these reported levels, the flesh content of QG and to a lesser  
260 extent BD, was outstanding being 6 and 1.6 times greater than the top of this range. The  
261 flesh levels of QG, at the most mature stage, were ~20% higher than other high  
262 anthocyanin selections (85 - 87 mg/100g, Cevallos-Casals, Byrne, Okie, and Cisneros-  
263 Zevallos (2006)). Whole fruit anthocyanin content for red-dark peeled and red fleshed  
264 commercial varieties often range from 10-80 mg/100g (Chun, Kim, Moon, Kang, & Lee,  
265 2003; Diaz-Mula et al., 2008; Netzel et al., 2012). QG and BD had levels above this  
266 range, with QG content (Fanning et al., 2013) comparable to or higher than breeding  
267 selections with dark peel and red-dark flesh (Cevallos-Casals et al., 2006). Dark red  
268 fleshed plums are a relatively unusual matrix given the fact that many anthocyanin-rich  
269 fruits have these pigments heavily concentrated in the peel/skin, including grapes  
270 (>99% in skin, [Rebello et al 2013](#)) and many berries. QG had an average of 45% of  
271 anthocyanin content of the whole fruit in the flesh and BD had 28%. Whilst many  
272 commercial varieties of Japanese plum also have only a small fraction of total  
273 anthocyanin content in flesh (Fanning et al., 2014), high anthocyanin selections in other  
274 breeding programs have also shown high flesh contributions (up to 71%) to total  
275 anthocyanin content (Cevallos-Casals et al., 2006).

276 The content of quercetin glycosides in the peel of selected cultivars has been shown to  
277 range from 16.6 to 35.2 mg/100 g (Black Beaut) (Tomas-Barberan et al., 2001). Both  
278 plums had higher peel content, being 2.3 (BD) and 5.4 (QG) times higher than Black  
279 Beaut. Mubarak *et al.* ([2012](#)) analyzed 29 prevarietal selections and saw flavonol

280 glycoside content of 0.9-27.9 mg/100 g fruit. Other commercial varieties have had  
281 levels of 2.3-27.0 mg/100 g fresh weight (Ozturk et al, Harnly et al, (Chun et al., 2003;  
282 Proteggente et al., 2002), Venter et al 2013) and the content of BD was in this range.  
283 However, the levels in QG were higher being 2-fold that of the highest literature values  
284 for commercial Japanese plum varieties and comparable or greater than levels seen for  
285 significant dietary sources of quercetin glycosides including onions (Proteggente et al.,  
286 2002).

287

#### 288 4.2. Bound phenolics

289 Standard extraction methods have been appraised as underestimating the actual total  
290 amount of phenolic compounds in certain food products (Saura-Calixto, 2012). Saura-  
291 Calixto (2012) reported, that the “extractable [free] polyphenols may be only the tip of  
292 the iceberg”. The work of Kristl *et al.* (2011) in four European plum cultivars showed  
293 that the free antioxidants (extracted using acidified methanol followed by  
294 acetone:water) accounted for less than 18% of the total antioxidant activity. However it  
295 is important to note that fresh, not freeze-dried plums were used for extraction in that  
296 study. Several possible reasons for the relatively low % (~20%) of bound phenolics, in  
297 QG and BD, include the high content of anthocyanins relative to the European plum  
298 cultivars, which are often nearly completely extractable in acidified methanol following  
299 homogenization (Yousef et al 2013), and the fact that QG/BD samples were freeze dried  
300 prior to extraction. The use of freeze-drying has been shown to significantly enhance the  
301 extractability of several phenolic acids in blueberries (Yousef et al 2013). However,  
302 even this relatively low content of bound phenolics in QG and BD may be of  
303 physiological significance. A meal of two large QG plums (~200 g) would easily  
304 provide up to 160 g bound phenolics according to our present findings. If transported to  
305 the colon without further degradation, these plant matrix/plant cell wall bound phenolics  
306 may either be fermented by the colonic microbiota forming absorbable metabolites such

307 as phenylacetic and phenylbutyric acids or could contribute to the maintenance of a  
308 healthy gut environment via prebiotic-like effects (Cardona, Andres-Lacueva, Tulipani,  
309 Tinahones, & Queipo-Ortuno, 2013; Padayachee et al., 2013). However, these  
310 compounds may also remain bound to the plant matrix and therefore be eliminated in  
311 faecal waste without any further interactions with the colonic microbial population.

312

#### 313 *4.3. Carotenoid content*

314 The carotenoid content of flesh, peel and whole fruit of QG and BD were in the range of  
315 previous values for commercial Japanese plum varieties, flesh: 0.056-1.1 µg/g, peel:  
316 0.27-9.9 µg/g, whole fruit: 0.09-1.9 µg/g (Diaz-Mula et al., 2008; Gil, Tomas-Barberan,  
317 Hess-Pierce, & Kader, 2002). In contrast to a decrease in carotenoid content with  
318 harvest date, in the present study, a previous study showed increases in both peel and  
319 flesh with longer time on tree in other varieties (Diaz-Mula et al., 2008). Varietal  
320 differences are most likely the reason for this observation and have been evidenced for  
321 changes in carotenoid content during postharvest storage (Diaz-Mula 2012).

322

#### 323 *4.4. In-vitro digestion*

324 The release of anthocyanins from QG and BD after gastric and small intestinal digestion  
325 was relatively high, with QG having a 3% higher release than BD (59 vs. 56%,  $p >$   
326 0.05). These findings are in line with results of *in vitro* release of anthocyanins reported  
327 by others. For example, Bermudez-Soto et al. (2007) recovered ~57% of cyanidin-3-  
328 glucoside and ~58% of total anthocyanins in the digesta after *in vitro* pancreatic  
329 digestion of chokeberry juice. However, “*in vitro* recoveries” as low as 20% for  
330 pomegranate anthocyanins were also reported in the literature (Perez-Vincente et al.  
331 2002). The chemical structure of dietary anthocyanins, the food/fruit matrix and  
332 subsequently the exposure to the alkaline conditions of the pancreatic digestion process  
333 are regarded as the main reasons for these inconsistent results (Bermudez-Soto et al.

334 2007). The food matrix can play a particularly significant role in the stability of  
335 polyphenols/anthocyanins with reports that polyphenols transiently bind to food  
336 matrices (e.g. plant cell wall components) during the gastro-intestinal digestion, which  
337 may protect them (and especially the more labile anthocyanins) from degradation  
338 processes (Padayachee et al. 2013; Parada and Aguilera 2007). The observed higher  
339 release of anthocyanins (trend,  $p > 0.05$ ) from whole QG fruit compared to BD as a  
340 potential result of the higher flesh:total anthocyanin ratio needs to be investigated in a  
341 follow-up study. Finally, it should be also noted that the relative amount of  
342 anthocyanins released after gastric digestion was in the same range as reported for  
343 anthocyanins from purple figs, with up to 35% cyanidin-3-rutinoside in the gastric  
344 digesta (Kamiloglu and Capanoglu 2013).

345 The relative release (released amount vs. total amount) of quercetin-glycosides from QG  
346 and BD fruit after *in vitro* digestion was lower than it was for the anthocyanins.  
347 However, the difference between QG and BD (53% vs. 45% of released quercetin  
348 glycosides) was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) and may be due to the higher flesh:total quercetin  
349 glycoside ratio as already suggested for the anthocyanins. The observed amount of  
350 bioaccessible quercetin-glycoside in the present study is comparable with the results  
351 reported by Bermudez-Soto et al. (2007): recoveries of ~81%, ~70% and ~73% for  
352 quercetin-3-glucoside, quercetin-3-rutinoside and total flavonols, respectively, from  
353 chokeberry juice were found at the end of the *in vitro* digestion process. Boyer et al.  
354 (2005) reported a recovery of almost 90% of quercetin-3-glucoside after the *in vitro*  
355 digestion of onions. Kamiloglu and Capanoglu (2013) also saw a significant difference  
356 in the bioaccessible fraction of quercetin-3-rutinoside after gastric digestion of whole-  
357 fresh yellow and purple figs, ranging from 40% (yellow) to 107% (purple). The  
358 food/fruit matrix and potential interactions with matrix components and compounds  
359 influencing the stability and/or accessibility of quercetin glycosides (and also

360 anthocyanins) during the *in vitro* digestion process are most likely responsible for the  
361 observed differences.

362 A relatively low release of lipophilic carotenoids from the plum matrix was expected  
363 since the sample material wasn't thermally treated and oil or lipids weren't added  
364 (thermal (pre)treatment and the addition of oil/lipids to fruits and vegetables can  
365 significantly increase the bioaccessible fraction of carotenoids (Lemmens et al., 2009;  
366 Netzel et al., 2011; Parada & Aguilera, 2007)). Plums are commonly consumed raw and  
367 these findings are in line with the results reported by others (Hedren, Diaz, & Svanberg,  
368 2002; Lemmens, Van Buggenhout, Oey, Van Loey, & Hendrickx, 2009; Veda, Kamath,  
369 Platel, Begum, & Srinivasan, 2006): the relative bioaccessibility of  $\beta$ -carotene (which is  
370 also the main carotene in QG and BD) from raw carrots, amaranth and fenugreek leaves  
371 ranged between 3% and 11%.

372 However, several drawbacks and limitations of these *in vitro* digestion methods should  
373 be critically considered when interpreting the results: e.g. to date, no *in vitro* model is  
374 capable of covering all aspects of *in vivo* digestion and absorption, distribution,  
375 metabolism (including the metabolic activity of the gut microbiota) and elimination.  
376 Polyphenol metabolites generated *in vivo* are of particular interest in terms of their  
377 potential biological significance in the prevention of chronic diseases as well as the  
378 maintenance of a "healthy gut" (Tomas-Barberan and Andres-Lacueva, 2012;  
379 Williamson and Clifford, 2010). Therefore, human studies/clinical trials are still the  
380 "Gold Standard" to assess the bioavailability and metabolism (and subsequently  
381 bioactivity) of dietary polyphenols and carotenoids and yet cannot be replaced by any *in*  
382 *vitro* models.

383

## 384 **5. Conclusions**

385 QG has outstanding anthocyanin content and should be harvested as late as possible to  
386 maximise anthocyanins. The relative low content of bound phenolics in both plum

387 varieties needs further investigation to elucidate if this is a plum/cultivar specific feature  
388 or due to other reasons such as the handling procedure of the sample material prior to  
389 the extraction process. A relative high release of anthocyanins and quercetin glycosides  
390 could be observed from QG which may result in a higher gastro-intestinal absorption  
391 rate of these compounds. However, follow-up studies (clinical trials) are warranted to  
392 investigate the actual *in vivo* bioavailability and subsequently biological activity of QG.

393

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399 **References**

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405 Tables

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407 Table 1

408 Relative<sup>a</sup> phytochemical content in flesh of BD and QG at different harvest dates.

Plum cultivar	BD			QG			
	Harvest date	17 Jan	24 Jan	31 Jan	17 Jan	24 Jan	31 Jan
Phytochemicals	% in flesh						
Anthocyanins	22 ± 1	33 ± 8	29 ± 3	43 ± 4*	46 ± 6*	42 ± 3*	47 ± 4*
Quercetin glycosides	19 ± 5	20 ± 3	27 ± 7	29 ± 5*	30 ± 5*	24 ± 2	41 ± 4*
Carotenoids	61 ± 6	57 ± 6	75 ± 16	73 ± 14	55 ± 12	57 ± 12	57 ± 13

409 <sup>a</sup>content in the flesh as % of total (whole fruit) content; values are means ± standard deviation, n=12 fruits; anthocyanins: sum of cyanidin-3-glucoside and  
410 cyanidin-3-rutinoside; quercetin glycosides: sum including quercetin-3-glucoside, quercetin-3-rutinoside and quercetin-3-galactoside; carotenoids: lutein, β-  
411 cryptoxanthin, zeaxanthin, α- and β-carotene for QG and lutein, β-cryptoxanthin and β-carotene for BD; \*p < 0.05, QG vs. BD.

412

413 Table 2

414 Release (bioaccessibility) of phytochemicals from QG and BD

Plum cultivar	Phytochemical content in plum puree		Released phytochemicals	
			Gastric digestion (60 min)	Gastric and small intestinal digestion (180 min)
Queen Garnet	anthocyanins (mg/5 g):	10.0 ± 0.08	3.4 ± 0.39 (34%) <sup>a</sup>	5.8 ± 0.40 (59%)
	quercetin glycosides (mg/5g):	3.2 ± 0.03	0.6 ± 0.08 (20%)	1.7 ± 0.15 (53%)*
	carotenoids (µg/5 g):	19.2 ± 0.24	ND	0.8 ± 0.08 (4%)
Black Diamond	Anthocyanins (mg/5 g):	4.5 ± 0.07	1.7 ± 0.09 (38%)	2.5 ± 0.19 (56%)
	quercetin glycosides (mg/5 g):	1.2 ± 0.02	0.2 ± 0.01 (16%)	0.5 ± 0.05 (45%)
	carotenoids (µg/5 g):	15.6 ± 0.26	0.5 ± 0.05 (3%)	0.9 ± 0.09 (6%)

415 Values are means ± standard deviation, n=5 independent trials; anthocyanins: sum of cyanidin-3-glucoside and cyanidin-3-rutinoside; quercetin glycosides:  
 416 sum including quercetin-3-glucoside, quercetin-3-rutinoside and quercetin-3-galactoside; carotenoids: lutein, β-cryptoxanthin, zeaxanthin, α- and β-carotene  
 417 for QG and lutein, β-cryptoxanthin and β-carotene for BD; <sup>a</sup>percent release of phytochemicals (released amount vs. applied dose); %-data are rounded; \*p <  
 418 0.05, QG vs. BD; ND, non-detectable.

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