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23 **Abstract**

24 The effect of ultrasound (US) treatment (40 kHz, 250 W) for 0, 10, 25 and 45 min on the physical
25 and microbiological quality, total antioxidant capacity (TAC) and total phenolic content (TPC) of
26 *calçots* (*Allium cepa* L.) was evaluated. Moreover, the effect of roasting (270 °C, 8 min) and *in*
27 *vitro* simulated digestion on the antioxidant properties was studied. Overall, US treatment had no
28 effect of the physical quality and antioxidant properties of *calçots* regardless the treatment time,
29 while thermal processing produced an increase on the TAC and maintenance in TPC.
30 Furthermore, the digestion process caused a remarkable decrease on the TAC and TPC, but that
31 decrease was higher in roasted than in fresh samples. The microbial load of all US-treated fresh
32 samples was below 6 log (cfu g⁻¹) and a decrease of 1-log reduction was observed after treating
33 for 45 min. Those results indicated that US pre-treatment had no negative effects on the quality
34 of *calçot* while produced a decrease on the microbial load at high processing times.

35 **Keywords:** *Allium cepa* L.; thermal processing; gastrointestinal digestion; antioxidant activity;
36 novel technologies

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39 *Calçots* (*Allium cepa* L.) are the immature floral stems of second-year onion resprouts of the
40 ‘Ceba Blanca Tardana de Lleida’ onion landrace. The singularity of the production of this product
41 has helped to confer protected status from the European Union and ‘Calçot de Valls’ being
42 awarded with the Protected Geographical Indication (EC No 905/2002) (Simó et al. 2013; Zudaire
43 et al. 2017). An increased demand and interest for *calçots* has motivated researches to explore
44 new postharvest techniques such as minimal processing or ultrasound (US) treatment, thus
45 maintaining their physical, microbiological, and nutritional quality.

46 Thermal pasteurization and sterilization are two common techniques used for the inactivation of
47 microorganisms in food products. However, the effectiveness of those methods is based on long
48 exposure time and high temperatures, which generally results in a deterioration in functional
49 properties, sensory characteristics, and nutritional value (Piyasena et al. 2003). In recent years,
50 emerging non-thermal technologies, such as high pressure, pulsed electric fields, ultraviolet light,
51 intense pulsed light, and US treatments, have been widely studied for application in food industry
52 (de São José et al. 2014). High energy (high power, high-intensity) US are usually applied in the
53 food industry with frequencies ranging between 20 and 100 kHz. This technology has become an
54 attractive option for food processors because only consumed a fraction of the time and energy
55 normally need for traditional processes, reduces processing cost, guarantees food safety, improves
56 food quality, reduced chemical and physical risks, and is considered environmentally friendly
57 (Awad et al. 2012; Chemat et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2015; Welti-Chanes et al. 2017).

58 Previous studies suggested US processing as a promising technology if it used as an auxiliary pre-
59 treatment to sanitizers in reducing initial microbial populations of foods (Ding et al. 2015).
60 However, the effect of US on the total antioxidant capacity (TAC) of food is a controversial issue.
61 On the one hand, the generation of reactive oxygen species such as hydroxyl radicals could affect
62 the quality of some foods by reducing the TAC (Kentish and Ashokkumar 2011). On the other
63 hand, those species could impose oxidative stress to fresh products and hence, induce the TAC of

64 fruits and vegetables (de São José et al. 2014). For example, the application of US (20 kHz, 400
65 W) for 10 min had no remarkable effect on the TAC and total phenolic content (TPC) of
66 mushrooms (Lagnika et al. 2013). However, TPC of minimally processed pineapples increased
67 after US treatment (37 kHz) at 25 or 29 W for 10-15 min (Yeoh and Ali 2017).

68 Many vegetables including *calçots*, onion, or carrots can be either eaten raw or after cooking.
69 *Calçot* are usually eaten after roasting process. Culinary processes produce significant changes
70 such as degradation of thermolabile compounds and formation others due to heat-induced
71 chemical reactions. Roasting could affect phenolic compounds and, consequently the TAC of
72 foods (Juániz et al. 2016). Furthermore, the TPC and TAC of fruit and vegetables could also be
73 affected by the human digestion process. During gastrointestinal digestion, polyphenols could
74 suffer changes due to their interaction with other food components, degradation or metabolization.
75 These structural changes could affect both their uptake and bioactivity and hence, the TAC
76 (Bouayed et al. 2012).

77 The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of US processing for either 10, 25, or 45
78 min on the physical and microbiological quality, TPC, and TAC of raw and roasted *calçots*.
79 Moreover, an *in vitro* simulated gastrointestinal digestion of both raw and roasted samples was
80 carried out to evaluate the resistance of the TAC and TPC to gastrointestinal digestion.

81 **2. Material and Methods**

82 **2.1 Plant Material**

83 *Calçots* were provided by the ‘Cooperativa Agrícola Valls’ (Tarragona, Spain) at commercial
84 size. The *calçots* had the European quality label PGI ‘Calçot de Valls’ establishing that their
85 diameter and size are within the legal ranges (D.A.R.P. 2009). Samples cultivated in northeast
86 Spain (41°13’47’’N, 01°13’12’’E) during the crop growing seasons of 2016 and 2017. Pre-
87 conditioning was conducted according to the study of Aguiló-Aguayo et al. (2015) which
88 consisted of cutting roots and external leaves from the edible part as well as removing the outer
89 peel. Fresh *calçots* were immersed in a 10 L bath which contained 100 mg L⁻¹ of sodium
90 hypochlorite at room temperature under continuous agitation for 60 s. Samples were further rinsed
91 with tap water for 1 min, dried at room temperature, and labelled as Control.

92 **2.2 Sonication**

93 Eight *calçots* for each time and repetition were directly immersed in a sonicator bath (Frequency
94 40 kHz, Power 250 W, JP SELECTA S.A., Barcelona, Spain) and the treatment time (0, 10, 25,
95 45 min) was varied for each batch. The surface of water (tap water) in the bath was kept at the
96 same level during each experiment but without temperature controller (initial temperature 17 ± 1
97 °C). All samples were weighed before and after US treatment. All samples were dried at room
98 temperature. On each treatment time and repetition half of fresh-cut *calçots* were taken to
99 firmness, colour and total aerobic count measurements. The rest were roasted as Zudaire et al.
100 (2017) described. Briefly, *calçots* were roasted at 270 °C for 8 min using a Self Cooking Center
101 (Mod SCC WE 101, Rational AG, Landsberg am Lech, Germany) and then, cooled into a blast
102 chiller (Infrico, Cordoba, Spain) until they reached 3 °C. After conducting those assays, both fresh
103 and roasted samples were crushed, powered and frozen with liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C
104 for nutritional analysis and gastrointestinal digestion.

105

106 **2.3 Colour**

107 The colour of the white shaft was measured with a CR-200 Minolta Chroma Meter (Minolta,
108 INC., Tokyo, Japan). Colour was measured using CIE L*, a*, b* coordinates with illuminant D65
109 which approximates to daylight and 10° observer angle. L* defines the lightness, and a* and b*
110 define the red-greenness and blue-yellowness, respectively. These values were used to calculate
111 the browning index (BI) and hue angle (h°) as previously described by Liu et al. (2016) and
112 Colás-Medà et al., (2016), respectively. Furthermore, difference from the control (ΔE^*) was
113 calculated following the methodology described by Wibowo et al. (2015).

114 **2.4 Firmness**

115 To assess changes on texture, firmness (N) was measured at 5 cm from the roots set in transversal
116 position using the TA.TX2 Texture Analyzer (Stable Micro Systems Ltd., Surrey, England)
117 attached with a Warner-Blatzler blade (HDP/BSK: Blade set with knife). The sample was placed
118 into the press holder, and then the blade was moved downwards at different rates: pre-test rate: 5
119 mm s⁻¹; test rate: 1 mm s⁻¹; post-test rate: 10 mm s⁻¹ to 60 mm below the bottom of the holder.
120 Data acquisition rate was 200 pulses per sec.

121 **2.5 Dry matter determination**

122 Due to differences in water content between fresh and roasted samples, total antioxidant capacity
123 and total phenolic content calculations were made on a dry weight (dw) basis. For determination
124 of DM content, 4-5 g of fresh or roasted sample (as triplicate) were dried in a convection oven at
125 105 °C for at least 40 h until reaching a constant weight.

126 **2.6 Determination of Total Antioxidant Capacity**

127 TAC was determined using two different methods: 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH*)
128 radical scavenging assay and ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assay. The extraction and

129 assays were carried out according to the methods described by Plaza et al. (2016). Results were
130 expressed on a dry weight (dw) basis as mol of ascorbic acid equivalents per kg.

131 **2.7 Determination of TPC**

132 The extraction and determination of TPC were determined by the Folin-Ciocalteu method
133 (Singleton et al. 1999), following the modifications described by Altisent et al. (2014). Results
134 were expressed on a dry weight (dw) basis as g of gallic acid equivalent per kg.

135 **2.8 Microbial quality**

136 The total aerobic count of *calçots* was analysed in triplicate as described by Alegre et al. (2011).
137 Briefly, the edible part of two *calçots* per treatment were cut and 10 g of were diluted in 90 mL
138 of buffered peptone water (Oxoid LTD, Basingstoke, Hampshire, England) in a sterile bag and
139 homogenized in a masticator paddle blender (IUL Masticator Basic 400 ml, IUL Instruments,
140 Barcelona, Spain) at 250 impact s⁻¹ for 90 s in triplicate. Further ten-fold dilutions were made
141 with saline peptone (SP; 8.5 g L⁻¹ NaCl and 1 g L⁻¹ peptone). Aliquots of serial dilutions were
142 spread in duplicate onto plates with Plate Count Agar (Biokar Diagnostics, Beauvais, France) and
143 were incubated at 30 ± 1 °C for 3 d. The results were represented as log colony forming units
144 (cfu) per gram basis on fresh weight. Microbiological analyses were performed in triplicate.

145 **2.9 In vitro gastrointestinal digestion**

146 *In vitro* gastrointestinal digestion was performed according to the method described by Minekus
147 et al. (2014) with minors modifications (Zudaire et al. 2017). The simulated digestion was
148 performed in triplicate for each treatment for raw and roasted samples. A blank was prepared
149 using only distilled water instead of sample following the same procedure. Results were compared
150 with non-digested samples. Determinations of TAC using both the FRAP and DPPH methods
151 and TPC were performed after digestion.

152

153 **2.10 Statistical analysis**

154 All data were firstly evaluated for normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk W Test) and homogeneity
155 of variance (Levene's Test) of residues. Significant differences between results were calculated
156 by using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). In case of non-normality or unequal variances
157 the non-parametric equivalents (Wilcoxon/Kruskal-Wallis Tests) were used. Differences were
158 were significant at $p < 0.05$ (95 % confidence level). In case of significant differences, multiple
159 comparison of means was established with the Post Hoc Tukey-Kramer HSD or Student's test.
160 All statistical analyses were performed with JMP 8 software (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

161 3. Results and Discussion

162 3.1 Effect of US processing on physicochemical and antioxidant parameters

163 The colour of a food is an important freshness-related attribute for consumers and colour changes
164 in a food product may affect their overall acceptability (Pingret et al. 2013). Previous studies
165 suggested that US processing could affect the colour attributes of fruit and vegetables (Alexandre
166 et al. 2012; Fava et al. 2011). However, in the current study, no significant differences were
167 observed in colour parameters of *calçot* samples after sonication (Table 1). Birmpa, Sfika, &
168 Vantarakis (2013) reported significant colour changes in lettuce leaves after US processing (37
169 kHz, 30 W L⁻¹) for 30, 45, or 60 min. The authors of that study suggested that a significant non-
170 enzymatic browning could be responsible for the observed colour changes. The ΔE^* combines
171 the change in L^* , a^* , and b^* values to quantify the colour deviation from a standard reference
172 sample. Those samples with $\Delta E^* > 3$ display a visible colour deviation (Wibowo et al. 2015). As
173 expected, and shown in Table 1, US-treated *calçots* showed a $\Delta E^* < 3$. Moreover, BI values of
174 all samples were similar and there were no significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among them. Similar
175 results were obtained previously after US processing (40 kHz, 500 W) of strawberries (do Rosário
176 et al. 2017).

177 In addition, appearance and texture changes are two key characteristics determining the
178 acceptability of fresh-cut fruit and vegetables (Toivonen and Brummell 2008). The texture of a
179 food treated by US can be determined by the structure changes of proteins and enzymes during
180 sonication (de São José et al. 2014). In the current study, as shown in Table 1, no significant
181 differences were observed between the firmness and weight of the control and US-treated samples
182 ($p < 0.05$). Results were comparable to those previously reported by Ding et al. (2015), who
183 observed that the firmness of strawberries after US (40 kHz, 240 W) treatment for 10 min did not
184 change significantly. In addition, Alexandre et al. (2012) observed a higher firmness retention (16
185 %) in US-treated (2 min, 15 ± 2 °C, 35 kHz, 120 W) strawberries when compared to water-washed
186 strawberries.

187 Besides physical attributes of foods such as colour or firmness, US treatment could affect minor
188 components associated with TAC and phytochemical content. In the current study, two methods,
189 DPPH and FRAP, were used to investigate the changes in total TAC of *calçots* after US treatment.
190 Antioxidant capacity of *calçots* before and after processing are shown in Figure 1. Although
191 higher treatment times resulted in a significant decrease in the TAC of the samples (data not
192 shown), US processing for either 10, 25, or 45 min had no effect on the TAC of *calçots* ($p < 0.05$).
193 Results obtained using the FRAP were in line with those obtained using the DPPH method.
194 Results obtained herein were in agreement with those reported by Wang et al. (2015) who showed
195 that US treatment (8 min, 25 °C, 20 kHz, 106.19 W L⁻¹) had no effect on the TAC of cherry
196 tomatoes. Similar results were also reported after processing of eggplant (Colucci et al. 2018).
197 However, Muzaffar et al. (2016) and Gani et al. (2016) recently reported an increase of TAC in
198 US-treated (25 °C, 33 kHz, 60 W) at different times (0, 10, 20, 30, 40 and 60 min) cherries and
199 strawberries when compared to the untreated samples.

200 The TPC of the control and US-treated *calçots* is shown in Figure 1. In the current study, treating
201 for either 10, 25, or 45 min did not affect the TPC of the samples when compared to the untreated
202 control ($p < 0.05$). Results were in agreement with those obtained by Santos et al. (2015) who
203 reported that both TAC and TPC of fresh-cut mango were maintained after US processing (25 °C,
204 25 kHz, 55 W L⁻¹) for 30 min. Previous authors observed a decrease in the TPC of US-treated
205 fruit and vegetables caused by a oxidation due to hydroxyl radicals formed by cavitation (de São
206 José et al. 2014; Rawson et al. 2011). However, Yeoh & Ali (2017) showed that the TPC of fresh-
207 cut pineapple was increased after processing at 25 and 29 W for 10-15 min. The calculated TPC
208 of the untreated and US-treated *calçots* correlates well with the observed TAC before and after
209 processing.

210 **3.2 Effect of thermal processing on the nutritional quality of *calçots***

211 *Calçots* are generally eaten cooked after roasting. However, vitamins, phenolic compounds, and
212 other health-promoting compounds have been shown to be heavily lost during thermal processing

213 (Kapusta-Duch et al. 2016; Soares et al. 2017). The effects of thermal processing on the TAC and
214 TPC of *calçots* are shown in Figure 1. Overall, TAC of all samples increased after roasting
215 ($p<0.05$). In the same way, Juárez et al. (2016) reported that TAC of chopped onions increased
216 after cooking (150 °C for 10 min + 110 °C for 5 min). In summary, the increase of TAC after
217 roasting (270 °C, 8 min) could be due to: (1) liberation of high amount of antioxidant compounds
218 due to thermal destruction of cell walls and sub cellular compartments; (2) production of
219 antioxidant compounds with high radical scavenging activity; (3) suppression of oxidation
220 capacity of antioxidant compounds due to the thermal inactivation of oxidative enzymes; (4)
221 production of new no-nutrient antioxidants or the formation of new compounds such as Maillard
222 reactions' compounds which could have antioxidant activity (Jiménez-Monreal et al. 2009;
223 Morales and Babbel 2002).

224 Moreover, there were no significant differences ($p>0.05$) between TPC of fresh and roasted
225 *calçots* (270 °C, 8 min) at each processing time. However, Sharma et al. (2015) reported that
226 heating at 80 °C, 100 °C, and 120 °C for 30 min increased and at 150 °C for 30 min decreased
227 the total phenolic content for all studied onion varieties. Furthermore, Guillén et al. (2017) showed
228 that cooking (90-100 °C) reduced the initial phenolic content in broccoli, green beans, artichokes
229 and carrots. Notwithstanding, Rawson et al. (2013) reported that the decrease observed in total
230 phenolic content was higher in boiled (30 min) than in roasted (160 °C, 15 min) fennel slices.

231 **3.3 Effect of US processing on the microbiological quality of *calçots***

232 There are indications that suggest that US can be used in the food industry, alone or associated
233 with chemical sanitizers, to remove dirt and food residues as well as to inactivate microorganisms
234 from the surfaces of fruit and vegetables (de São José et al. 2014). Microbial inactivation occurs
235 because of cavitation. In the current study, processing for 10 min did not significantly reduce the
236 total aerobic count in the US-treated *calçots* when compared to the untreated samples (Figure 2).
237 However, US processing for 45 min significantly reduced the microbial load (around 1.0-log) of
238 the samples ($p<0.05$). In all cases, the microbial load was not higher than 6 log (cfu g⁻¹). Bilek &

239 Turantaş (2013) recently suggested that US processing for 10 min, alone or in combination with
240 other strategy, is generally enough to decontaminate fruit and vegetables. Indeed, Ding et al.
241 (2015) reported that US treatment (40 kHz, 240 W) for 10 min removed 0.71 log cfu g⁻¹ for total
242 aerobic bacteria on cherry tomatoes. In the same way, Cao et al. (2010) observed that numbers of
243 aerobic microorganism of strawberries decreased from 2.15 ± 0.02 to 1.49 ± 0.01 log₁₀ cfu g⁻¹
244 after US treatment (20 °C, 40 kHz, 350 W) for 10 min.

245 **3.4 Resistance of TAC and TPC to a simulated gastrointestinal digestion**

246 In reference to evaluation the biological activity of *calçots* is much more relevant to know TAC
247 and TPC potentially available for further intestinal absorption and/or protection than the
248 quantification in the food matrix (Carbonell-Capella et al. 2014). Results obtained herein
249 suggested that the TAC and TPC were statistically lower after gastrointestinal digestion when
250 compared to the control ($p < 0.05$; Figure 3). Similar results were reported by Ramírez-Moreno
251 et al. (2018), where TAC and TPC of blackberry juice treated with US (20 kHz, 1500 W) at
252 different times (0, 15 and 25 min) and amplitudes (60 and 80 %) decreased drastically after *in*
253 *vitro* digestion. Recent studies have evaluated the effect of US treatment on the bioaccessibility
254 of other compounds such as lycopene. For example, Anese et al. (2013, 2015) studied the effect
255 of US treatment on the bioaccessibility of lycopene of tomato pulp. Despite the high decrease
256 observed in TAC values, control (0 min) and US-treated samples (10 and 25 min) presented lower
257 decrease (around 60 %) than roasted samples (70-90 %). The same tendency was observed in TPC
258 values and *calçots* (raw or roasted) treated for 10 min presented the lowest values (around 70 %).
259 The observed differences could be due to the sensitivity and instability to the pH changes and
260 enzymatic activity during *in vitro* digestion of antioxidant compounds formed in the thermal
261 processing. In the recent study carried out by de Lima et al. (2017), the effect of three different
262 cooking methods (boiling, steaming and microwave) on the bioaccessibility of TAC and TPC of
263 cassava. In that study a drastic decrease of TAC and TPC after *in vitro* digestion was observed
264 and the bioaccessibility was similar in all studied samples. Recent studies have evaluated the
265 effect of different cooking treatment on the bioaccessibility of other compounds. For example,

266 (Palmero et al. 2014) studied the effect of thermal treatment on the bioaccessibility of β -carotene
267 of orange carrots and lycopene of red carrots and tomatoes. The vast majority of research on
268 roasting and subsequent digestion has been carried out with cereals or coffee/cacao beans (Ribas-
269 Agustí et al. 2017).

270 **4. Conclusions**

271 The physical and microbiological quality and antioxidant capacity of fresh-cut *calçots* after
272 ultrasound treatment was measured and those samples were also roasted (270 °C, 8 min) and
273 digested. Minimally processed *calçots* pre-treated with ultrasounds (40 kHz, 250 W) for 10, 25
274 or 45 min retained colour, firmness and weight after processing. Ultrasound pre-treatment had no
275 effect on the antioxidant properties of fresh-cut *calçots*, but both the thermal process (270 °C, 8
276 min) and the *in vitro* digestion produced a considerable reduction. Although microbial load of all
277 samples was lower than 6 log (cfu g⁻¹), only a decrease could be observed in those samples treated
278 for 45 min. Therefore, pre-treatment with ultrasound showed potential to be used as a
279 complementary treatment in the food industry. It is necessary to emphasize that this study was a
280 first step to optimize the treatment conditions. Additional studies into the effect of ultrasound on
281 the enzymatic activity in this type of fresh-cut vegetables should be undertaken in future works.

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469

470 **Figure Captions**

471 **Fig. 1. Effect of US and thermal processing on the TAC measured using the DPPH (A) and**
472 **FRAP (B) methods and on the TPC (C) of US- and thermally-treated *calçots*.**

473 Lower case letters indicate significant differences between fresh samples (black bars) and capital
474 letters indicate significant differences between roasted (270 °C, 8 min) samples (grey bars). *
475 indicates significant differences between fresh and roasted samples. The criterion for statistical
476 significance was $p<0.05$. The error bars represent the standard errors of the mean of three
477 independent measurements.

478 **Fig. 2. Effect of US processing on the total aerobic count of fresh-cut *calçots*.**

479 Lower case letters indicate significant differences between samples. The criterion for statistical
480 significance was $p<0.05$. The error bars represent standard errors of the mean of independent
481 measurements.

482 **Fig. 3. Resistance of TAC assessed using the DPPH (A) and FRAP (B) method and TPC (C)**
483 **of US- and thermally-treated *calçots* to a simulated gastrointestinal digestion.**

484 Lower case letters indicate significant differences between samples (grey bars) after *in vitro*
485 simulated digestion. * indicates significant differences between undigested (black bars) and
486 digested samples (grey bars). The criterion for statistical significance was $p<0.05$. The error bars
487 represent the standard errors of the mean of three independent measurements.

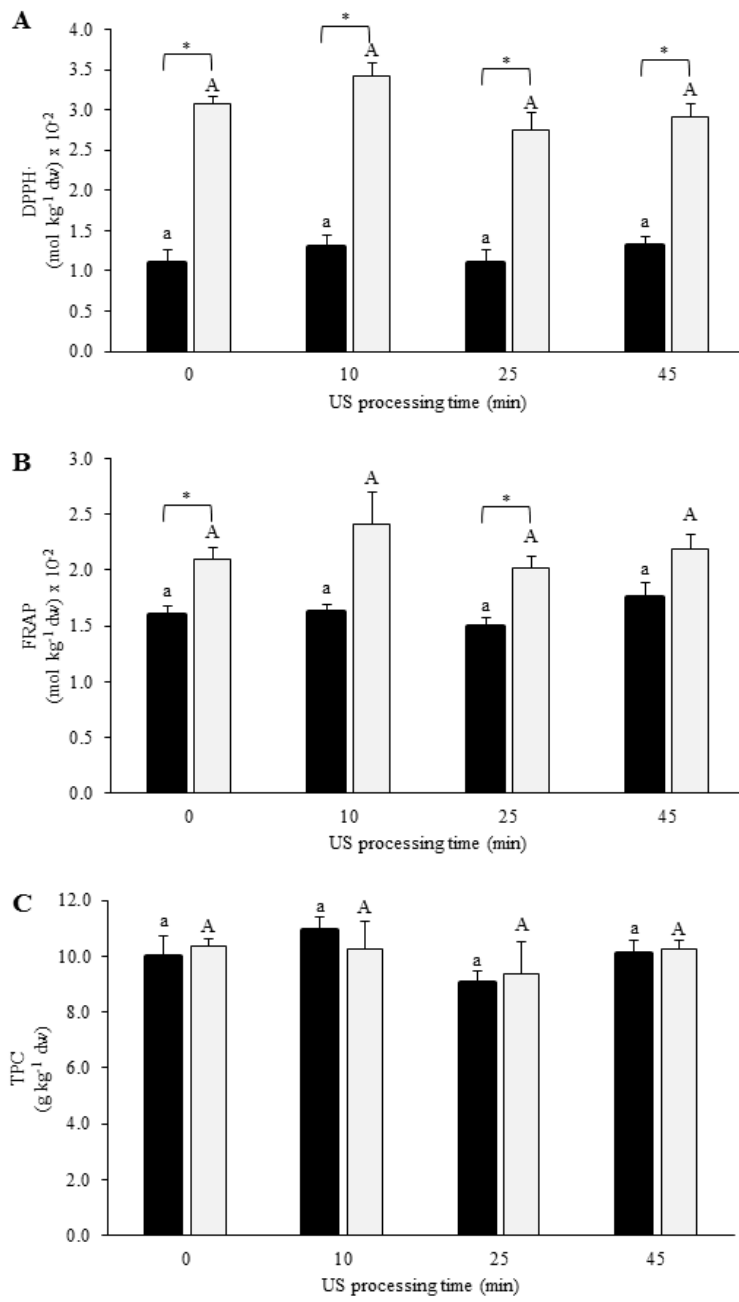
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489 **Table 1.** Colour parameters, firmness, and weight of untreated and US-treated *calçots* (fresh). Values represent the means of independent experiments \pm standard
 490 deviation. Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences between samples ($p < 0.05$).

Sample	h°	BI	ΔE^*	Firmness (N)	Weight (g)
0 min (control)	104.54 ± 3.31^a	7.50 ± 1.87^a	-	138.00 ± 36.94^a	52.89 ± 14.04^a
10 min	103.46 ± 2.28^a	7.41 ± 2.20^a	4.70 ± 3.08^a	123.08 ± 41.80^a	54.73 ± 13.91^a
25 min	105.79 ± 3.19^a	6.41 ± 1.65^a	5.93 ± 4.86^a	102.08 ± 33.73^a	51.23 ± 16.56^a
45 min	105.00 ± 2.78^a	7.28 ± 1.77^a	4.04 ± 2.48^a	121.95 ± 30.93^a	56.27 ± 15.17^a

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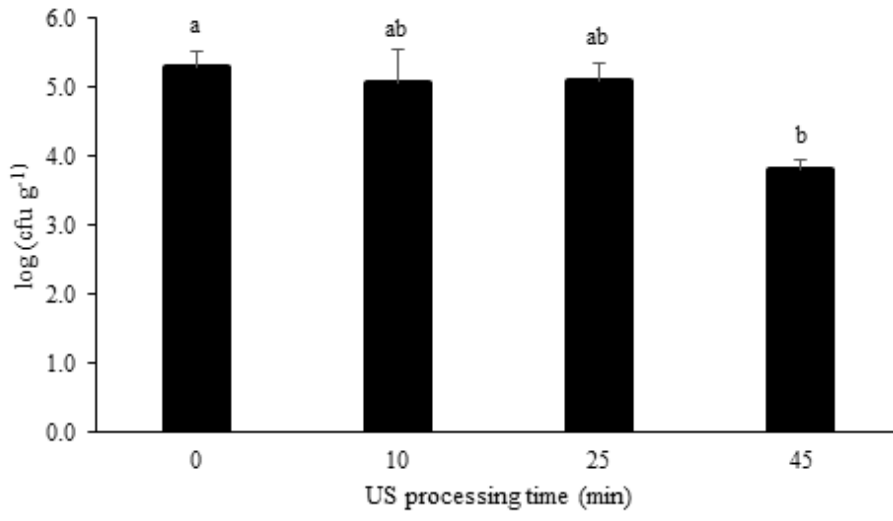
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496 **Figure 2**



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