

ABSTRACT

- 2 We set up an efficient protocol for the rapid analysis of NMR spectra of green and roasted coffee extracts,
- enabling the automatic identification and quantification of metabolites in approximately two minutes *per*
- 4 spectrum. This method allowed for the metabolic profiling and the subsequent evaluation of the content
- of bioactive compounds and antioxidant activity of coffee samples, depending on their species (Arabica
- and Robusta), geographical origin and extraction procedure (hydroalcoholic, espresso and moka).
- The hydroalcoholic extraction is the most efficient method in terms of yields of low molecular weight
- 8 compounds (in particular chlorogenic acids), while moka extraction provides the highest amounts of
- 9 melanoidins. Moreover, that the ratio between health-giving compounds (chlorogenic acids, trigonelline
- and choline) and caffeine is higher in Arabica coffees.
- 11 The data collected provide useful insights for the selection of coffee raw material to be used in the
- preparation of coffee-based dietary supplements, nutraceuticals and functional beverages.
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KEYWORDS

- Green coffee beans; roasted coffee beans; Arabica and Robusta coffee; coffee origin, NMR metabolic
- profiling; antioxidant capacity; chlorogenic acids; melanoidins.
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1 **1. INTRODUCTION**

18 The metabolome of green and roasted coffee is rich in compounds with well-known health-giving effects, 19 among which chlorogenic acids, trigonelline and choline.

20 Chlorogenic acids (quinic esters of hydroxycinnamic acids, CGAs) are the most important class of coffee polyphenols (12-18% dry weight in green coffee), and can be clustered into three main groups: caffeoylquinic acids (CQAs), with 5-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid (5-CQA) being the most abundant, feruloylquinic acids (FQAs), and di-caffeoylquinic acids (di-CQAs) (Clifford & Knight, 2004). Antioxidant and radical scavenging properties of CGAs are well known (Niseteo, Komes, Belščak-Cvitanović, Horžić, & Budeč, 2012), but they present also other interesting biological effects (Upadhyay & Mohan Rao, 2013), such as a protective effect against cardiovascular diseases, and antihypertensive, anti-inflammatory, anti-viral, anti-fungal, immunoprotective, anti-cancer (Palmioli, Ciaramelli, Tisi, Spinelli, De Sanctis, Sacco, et al., 2017), anti-aging (Amigoni, Stuknytė, Ciaramelli, Magoni, Bruni, De Noni, et al., 2017) and neuroprotective (Ciaramelli, Palmioli, De Luigi, Colombo, Sala, Riva, et al., 2018) actions.

 Trigonelline represents approximately 2-3% of total dry weight in green coffee, and is partially degraded during the roasting process (Ludwig, Clifford, Lean, Ashihara, & Crozier, 2014). It is suggested to act as a neuroprotective compound in Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases, anti-tumor, hypoglycemic, anti- bacterial, anti-viral and anti-invasive molecule, and it has been shown to reduce diabetic auditory neuropathy and platelet aggregation (Gaur, Bodhankar, Mohan, & Thakurdesai, 2013; Hirakawa, Okauchi, Miura, & Yagasaki, 2005; Jiyin, Shiwen, & Shengya, 2013; Makowska, Szczesny, Lichucka, Giełdoń, Chmurzyński, & Kaliszan, 2014; Yoshinari, Sato, & Igarashi, 2009).

 Choline is present in green coffee at a concentration comparable to trigonelline, but it is reduced to 0.1% after roasting. It is an essential nutrient, covering wide-ranging roles in human metabolism, from cell structure to neurotransmitter synthesis. Choline-deficiency is thought to have an impact on pathologies such as liver disease, atherosclerosis and possibly neurological disorders (Zeisel & da Costa, 2009).

17 A representative coffee metabolite is caffeine, contained both in green and roasted coffee beans and in

18 coffee beverages, with its concentration depending on the preparation methodology and on coffee species

19 and origin. The biological activity of caffeine is controversial. It undoubtedly presents antioxidant properties (Lee, 2000) and some papers report additional biological features: for instance, neuroprotective properties are supported in some studies (Arendash & Cao, 2010; Eskelinen & Kivipelto, 2010), but questioned in others (Shukitt-Hale, Miller, Chu, Lyle, & Joseph, 2013), among which our recent work, where caffeine was completely inactive against Aβ peptide aggregation and toxicity (Ciaramelli, et al., 2018). On the other hand, high consumption of caffeine is associated with several negative effects, such as general toxicity, increased incidence of cancer, cardiovascular effects, among which cardiac arrhythmias (Chou & Benowitz, 1994) and hypertensive palpitations (Nurminen, Niittynen, Korpela, & Vapaatalo, 1999), gastrointestinal disturbances, effects on bone status and calcium balance, bronchodilatation, male fertility problems and fetus-related issues during pregnancy (Clifford & Knight, 2004; Nawrot, Jordan, Eastwood, Rotstein, Hugenholtz, & Feeley, 2003).

The present work focused on the analysis, *via* an NMR-based protocol, of green and roasted coffee

- extracts, with the aim of comparing the content of the metabolites characterized by a proven positive
- biological activity with those having a negative impact on human health. The research looked at coffee
- beans belonging to two coffee species (*Coffea Arabica* or Arabica *vs Coffea canephora* or Robusta)
- (Belitz, Grosch, & Schieberle, 2009), coming from different geographies and extracted with three
- methods (hydroalcoholic, espresso and moka), in order to identify the best coffees to be used as
- 11 functional foods or for the preparation of nutraceuticals.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 Green and roasted coffee extraction.

 Ground coffee beans were received from Beyers Koffie, Belgium. We analysed green and medium- roasted coffees from 10 different countries (3 coffee samples for each origin), 5 of them belonging to the species Arabica (Colombia, Brazil A, Burundi, Kenya, Guatemala) and 5 to the species Robusta (Tanzania, Uganda, Vietnam, Brazil R, India). Each sample was analysed in triplicate.

18 Coffee extracts were obtained according to three different procedures. **Espresso and moka extractions**

19 were selected as they are the two most common procedures for the preparation of roasted-coffee-based

- 20 beverages, in order to shed a light on the chemical composition of the coffee extracts which are part of
- 21 consumers' diet. Being extensively exploited for natural extracts' preparation, hydroalcoholic extraction
- 22 was also investigated, in order to evaluate its possible employment for the preparation of coffee-based

23 nutraceuticals.

- *Hydroalcoholic extraction.* 200 mg of ground green or roasted coffee were extracted with 20 mL of a
- mixture of acidified (with 0.1 M HCl) water (pH 4.5; 70%) and methanol (30%) by sonication at 37 kHz

 for 15 min at 30 °C in an ultrasound bath (Elmasonic P 30 H, Elma Schmidbauer GmbH, Singen, Germany). After 1 h, solutions were filtered through cotton wool and 0.45 µm PTFE filters (Pall Corporation, Port Washington, NY, USA), concentrated under reduced pressure at 40 °C and freeze-4 dried. The extraction yield was calculated for each sample. The lyophilized samples were stored at -20 °C (Amigoni, et al., 2017).

 Espresso extraction. The espresso coffee extracts were prepared from 14 g of ground green or roasted coffee, with a two-cups coffee machine (Gaggia Baby Espresso Machine, Gaggia Milano, Italy) for a volume of coffee brew of 50 mL, corresponding to 2 cups of espresso coffee. Fixed espresso coffee- brewing conditions were followed using a pressure in the espresso machine pump equal to 9 bar and extraction times of 30 s at 90 °C. A volume of 5 mL (in triplicate) was freeze-dried and weighted to 11 calculate the extraction yield and stored at -20 °C.

 Moka extraction. The moka coffee brews were prepared with an Italian moka machine (Bialetti traditional moka, 3 cups model, Bialetti Industrie Spa, Italy), from approximately 12 g of ground roasted coffee for a starting volume of 100 mL of drinking water and a recovered volume of coffee brew of approximately 75 mL, corresponding to 3 moka coffee cups. The extraction time and heating temperature were approximately 10 min at 93 °C. A volume of 5 mL (in triplicate) was freeze-dried and weighted to 17 calculate the extraction yield and stored at -20 °C.

2.2 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) spectroscopy.

19 NMR spectroscopy has already been used to analyse both green (GCEs) and roasted coffee extracts 20 (RCEs) and proved to be suitable for metabolomics studies on this food matrix, aimed at identifying the coffee species (Arabica *vs* Robusta) and geographical origin, as well as monitoring the authenticity and 22 quality control of the product (Arana, Medina, Alarcon, Moreno, Heintz, Schäfer, et al., 2015; Bosco, Toffanin, de Palo, Zatti, & Segre, 1999; Cagliani, Pellegrino, Giugno, & Consonni, 2013; Consonni,

- Cagliani, & Cogliati, 2012; Toci, de Moura Ribeiro, de Toledo, Boralle, Pezza, & Pezza, 2018; Wei,
- Furihata, Hu, Miyakawa, & Tanokura, 2011).
- The procedure for NMR sample preparation and spectrum acquisition was adapted from (Amigoni, et

4 al., 2017). Freeze-dried samples of coffee extracts were suspended in D_2O at a final concentration of 5 to 20 mg/mL. All samples were sonicated (37 kHz, 20 min, Elmasonic P 30 H, Elma Schmidbauer GmbH, Singen, Germany) and centrifuged (9425*xg*, 15 min, 20 °C, ScanSpeed 1730R Labogene, Lynge, Sweden) before NMR analyses. The 4,4-Dimethyl-4-silapentane-1-sulfonic acid (DSS, final concentration 1 mM) was added to the supernatant as an internal reference for concentrations and chemical shift. The pH of each sample was verified with a microelectrode (Mettler Toledo, Columbus, OH, USA) for 5 mm NMR tubes and adjusted to 7.4 with NaOD or DCl. The pH values of samples in 11 D₂O were corrected for the isotope effect. The acquisition temperature was 25 °C. All spectra were acquired on an AVANCE III 600 MHz NMR spectrometer (Bruker, Billerica, MA, USA), equipped with 13 a QCI $(^1H, ^{13}C, ^{15}N/^{31}P$ and 2H lock) cryogenic probe. ¹H-NMR spectra were recorded with water suppression (cpmgpr1d pulse sequences in Bruker library) and 256 scans, spectral width 20 ppm, relaxation delay 4 s. They were processed with 0.3 Hz line broadening, automatically phased and baseline corrected. Chemical shifts were internally calibrated to the DSS peak at 0.0 ppm. The identification and assignment of compounds were done with the support of 2D NMR experiments and compared with 18 reported assignments (Wei, Furihata, Hu, Miyakawa, & Tanokura, 2011). The ¹H, ¹H-TOCSY (Total Correlation SpectroscopY) spectra were acquired with 40 scans and 512 increments, a mixing time of 80 20 ms and a relaxation delay of 2 s. ${}^{1}H,{}^{13}C-HSQC$ (Heteronuclear Single Quantum Coherence) spectra were acquired with 64 scans and 256 increments, and a relaxation delay of 2 s. NMR spectra processing and peak piking were performed by MestReNova software package of Mestrelab (MestReNova v 12.0.0- 20080, 2017, Mestrelab Research, Santiago de Compostela, Spain). For metabolite quantification, the Simple Mixture Analysis (SMA) tool integrated in MestreNova software package of Mestrelab (MestReNova v 12.0.0-20080, 2017, Mestrelab Research, Santiago de Compostela, Spain) was exploited (Cobas, Seoane, Domínguez, Sykora, & Davies, 2011) to set a semi-automatic protocol for the identification and quantification of metabolites, building specific libraries for the analyzed matrices. In this protocol, the GSD (global spectrum deconvolution) algorithm was employed to deconvolute the overlapping regions and to perform the absolute quantification for metabolites with resonances in crowded spectral areas, too. When possible, for the different compounds, the concentration was calculated looking at the mean value of the different assigned signals (Airoldi, Ciaramelli, Fumagalli, 7 Bussei, Mazzoni, Viglio, et al., 2016). Metabolite concentrations were reported as means (M) \pm standard deviations (SD) of triplicate experiments.

2.3 Statistical analysis.

 Statistical analysis was performed exploiting the real-time interactive web-based application Metaboanalyst 4.0 (Chong, Soufan, Li, Caraus, Li, Bourque, et al., 2018). To discriminate the different coffee samples through NMR spectra, multivariate statistical analysis was carried out. Data were uploaded as a table, reporting the concentrations of metabolites for each sample, as determined from the 14 use of the quantification protocol applied through SMA tool of MestReNova Software. Samples were 15 classified as belonging to the species Arabica (A) and Robusta (R), and according to the extraction method. Data underwent unsupervised multivariate analyses, through Principal Component Analysis, 17 PCA. As the presence of citrate and myoinositol in RCEs samples is extraction-method-dependent (see Table 2), these metabolites were not considerate for PCA analysis.

2.4 Determination of antioxidant activity.

 The extract antioxidant activity was determined by Folin-Ciocalteu's method assay as previously reported (Amigoni, et al., 2017; Ciaramelli, et al., 2018). Briefly, 80 μL of diluted samples (or 22 standards/blank) and 40 μL of Folin's reagent were dispensed in a cuvette containing 400 μL of H₂O. 23 Then, 480 μL of Na₂CO₃ 10.75% (w/v) solution was added and, after 30 min of incubation at room 24 temperature, absorbance was read at 760 nm with Varian Cary® 50 Scan UV–Visible Spectrophotometer using plastic 10 mm-cuvettes relative to a blank solution. Samples were diluted to 0.2 mg/mL and 2 standard solutions of 5-CQA (0–200 μg/mL) were used for calibration (linear fitting $R^2 > 0.98$, n = 7). Results were expressed as mg of 5-CQA equivalent (5-CQA eq)/g of freeze-dried coffee extract. Data 4 were reported as means $(\pm SD)$ of triplicate measurements.

2.5 Determination of high molecular weight (HMW) melanoidin content.

 Melanoidins were determined spectrophotometrically at the selected wavelength of 405 nm as already reported (Bekedam, Schols, van Boekel, & Smit, 2006; Borrelli, Visconti, Mennella, Anese, & Fogliano, 2002). Since a pure melanoidin standard was not available, the standard calibration curve was built using a HMW (high molecular weight) coffee fraction (MW>10 KDa), obtained by ultrafiltration from a Tanzania roasted coffee sample as described in a previous work (Ciaramelli, et al., 2018). A stock solution of HMW fraction (2 mg/mL in H2O) was prepared from freeze-dried sample and diluted standard 12 solutions (0-500 μ g/mL in H₂O) were used for calibration (linear fitting R² > 0.99, n = 5). Roasted coffee samples were diluted to 0.2 mg/mL. Results were expressed as mg of HMW melanoidins/g of freeze-dried coffee extract. Data were reported as means (±SD) of triplicate measurements.

3. RESULTS

17 Coffee samples prepared with hydroalcoholic, espresso and moka extractions were characterized by

18 NMR spectroscopy. Representative NMR spectra acquired on GCEs (1) and RCEs (2) from Burundi

samples after hydroalcoholic (A) and espresso (B) extractions are depicted in Figure 1.

2 Figure 1. ¹H-NMR spectra of green (1) and roasted (2) coffees from Burundi extracted with hydroalcoholic (**A**) and espresso (**B**) procedures. Each sample, containing 5 mg/mL of extract, was 4 dissolved in D₂O, pH 7.4, DSS 1 mM. Spectra were acquired at 25 \degree C and 600 MHz. Assignments of the 5 resonances of the most important metabolites are shown (5-HMF, 5-hydroxymethylfurfural; Trigo, trigonelline; Nic, nicotinic acid; For, formate; Caff, caffeine; CGAs, chlorogenic acids; Suc, sucrose; 5- CQA, 5-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid; 1,3-Ara, 1,3-arabinofuranose unit; 1,5-Ara, 1,5-arabinofuranose unit; Cho, choline; Ala, alanine; Lac, lactate).

 NMR profiles confirmed the complete disappearance of sucrose in roasted extracts, together with a significant reduction of the amount of CGAs, due to melanoidin formation during the roasting process. The same process is responsible for the appearance of *N*-methyl pyridinium, nicotinic acid, 5-hydroxy- methyl furfural and 2-furylmethanol, and the decrease in trigonelline and choline quantities. The 5 identification of metabolites was based on the analysis of mono $({}^{1}H)$ and bi-dimensional $({}^{1}H,{}^{1}H\text{-TOCSY},$ ¹H,¹³C-HSQC) NMR spectra and was in agreement with data from previous literature (Arana, et al., 2015; Consonni, Cagliani, & Cogliati, 2012; Wei, Furihata, Hu, Miyakawa, & Tanokura, 2011). After the manual identification of the compounds, specific libraries were built for each type of coffee (GCE or RCE) and for each extraction procedure, using the Simple Mixture Analysis (SMA) tool implemented in the MestReNova 12.0 software (Mestrelab, 2018). All the libraries developed with this approach are available as .exp files (Airoldi, Ciaramelli, & Palmioli, 2018). SMA allows for the simultaneous quantification of all the metabolites contained in a complex mixture also for the simultaneous analyses of multiple samples (up to 30 spectra at the same time in this study). For each group of spectra, the plug-in output is represented by a table containing the list of the identified metabolites and their relative concentrations. In addition, the metabolite assignments can be rapidly checked trough the visual inspection of the spectra, where metabolite labels are automatically reported (Supplementary Material – Figure S1). This procedure allows for a considerable reduction in the time required for spectra analysis and for the determination of the concentration of metabolites. In particular, the manual procedure takes between 30 and 45 minutes *per* spectrum, against the two minutes of the SMA-based approach.

 Table 1, showing concentrations of metabolites determined in GCEs, and Table 2, reporting concentrations of metabolites for RCEs, allow to directly compare the nature and the concentrations of metabolites obtained under different extraction conditions.

1 **Table 1.** Mean concentrations (M) and corresponding standard deviations (SD) of metabolites contained in GCEs (µg/mg coffee extract),

2 obtained with different extraction procedures (H: hydroalcoholic; E: espresso), determined from ¹H-NMR spectra.

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- **Table 2**. Mean concentrations (M) and corresponding standard deviations (SD) of metabolites contained in RCEs (µg/mg coffee extract),
- 2 obtained with different extraction procedures (H: hydroalcoholic; E: espresso; M: moka), determined from ¹H-NMR spectra. ND: not
- detectable because under the detection limit.

 Due to their different chemical composition, the number of compounds detected and quantified in GCEs and RCEs is different. Among the three tested procedures, the hydroalcoholic extraction is the most performant in terms of low molecular weight (LMW) compounds' quantity *per* dry weight of extract (Supplementary material – Figure S2), especially for GCEs. The different yield in LMW molecules extracted with different protocols is less significant for RCEs, where the total amount of these metabolites is decreased by the reactions occurring during the roasting process. Notably, citrate concentration in RCEs could be determined only in spectra obtained with the hydroalcoholic procedure, as the amount of this metabolite extracted with the other two methods is very low. Similarly, espresso extraction prevents from quantifying myoinositol.

 Multivariate statistical analysis performed on the concentrations of metabolites contained in the extracts showed that PCA (Principal Component Analysis) provides a clear discrimination between Arabica and 12 Robusta coffees, independently of the extraction method. The separation between the two classes along 13 PC1 is evident in the score plots reported in Figure 2, regardless of the type of coffee (green, Figure 2A1, 14 or roasted, Figure 2A2) and the extraction method employed (hydroalcoholic, espresso or moka). The discrimination of Arabica and Robusta species on the basis of the sample metabolic profiling is not surprising and is in agreement with previous data (Cagliani, Pellegrino, Giugno, & Consonni, 2013). However, this analysis provided an additional and very interesting result. In fact, PCA loading plots (Figure 2B1 and 2B2) revealed that coffee molecular components presenting significant biological activities, in particular CGAs, caffeine, trigonelline and choline, are among the metabolites discriminating between the two species (including also sucrose for GCEs).

 Figure 2. (**A**) PCA score plots obtained for GCEs (**1**) and RCEs (**2**), prepared with different extraction procedures. The explained variances are shown in brackets. Ellipses display 95% confidence regions. (**B**) PCA loadings relative to the PCA score plots (Figure 2A) obtained for GCEs (**1**) and RCEs (**2**).

5 As already shown by the data reported on Table 1, the content of CGAs and caffeine within GCEs is always higher in Robusta extracts, with the hydroalcoholic procedure being the most efficient for the 7 extraction of both the metabolites. The higher CGAs extraction efficiency of the hydroalcoholic 8 procedure was also confirmed by PCA analysis. Indeed, the score plot reported on Figure 2A1 shows a

 Figure 3. Ratios between the concentrations of beneficial metabolites (CGAs + trigonelline + choline) and caffeine, expressed in µg/mg of coffee extract, in GCEs (**A**) and RCEs (**B**) obtained with different extraction procedures. Results are reported as the mean ± SD of three independent experiments.

- As the antioxidant property (AOC) of coffee extracts, in particular of GCEs, is one of the main features
- prompting their use as potential nutraceutical, we measured the AOC of our samples with the Folin-
- Ciocalteu's method (Figure 4A) (Amigoni, et al., 2017; Ciaramelli, et al., 2018).

 Figure 4. **A**) Antioxidant capacity (AOC) of coffee extracts assessed by Folin-Ciocalteu's assay. Results are expressed as µg of CQA equivalents *per* mg of freeze-dried coffee extracts and reported as mean ± SD of triplicate measurements in three independent experiments. **B**) Melanoidin content in roasted coffee 8 extracts as determined spectrophotometrically at 405 nm, expressed as µg of high molecular weight (HMW) melanoidins *per* mg of extract. Results are reported as the mean ± SD of three independent experiments.

24 metabolites and caffeine was higher for coffee samples belonging to Arabica species, regardless of the

1 extraction procedure, with the roasting process slightly widening the difference between Arabica and 2 Robusta, and the geographical origin exerting little influence.

 However, green coffee samples belonging to Arabica species showed lower AOC values than Robusta ones, because of their reduced content of antioxidant molecules such as CGAs and caffeine. Melanoidin formation during roasting largely fills this gap, as Arabica and Robusta roasted coffees present considerable and very similar AOC values, comparable to those of Robusta green coffees.

Regarding the different extraction methods, our study highlights that moka coffee beverages retain the

8 highest content of high molecular weight melanoidins, while the hydroalcoholic procedure performs 9 better in extracting low molecular weight compounds, in particular chlorogenic acids.

 All together, these results suggest that not only green coffees, but also roasted coffees, in particular those belonging to Arabica species, can be an important source of bioactive compounds and are characterised by beneficial properties, presenting an average caffeine content lower than Robusta ones. This finding is of interest, as Arabica coffee is the most commonly used for the preparation of beverages and the most valuable from a commercial point of view, due to its aromatic superiority.

 The analytical approach presented here provides useful insights for the selection of coffee raw material to be used in the preparation of coffee-based dietary supplements, nutraceuticals and functional beverages. At the same time, this work represents a versatile method for the rapid and reliable analysis of food matrixes aimed at evaluating the content of molecular components associated with health-giving effects.

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Authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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