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1 **In vitro oral processing of raw tomato: Novel insights into the**
2 **role of endogenous fruit enzymes**

3

4 **Davide Rabiti ^{a,b}, Caroline Orfila ^a, Melvin Holmes ^a, Alessandra Bordoni ^c and Anwasha**
5 **Sarkar ^{a*}**

6 ^aSchool of Food Science and Nutrition, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK.

7 ^bSchool of Food Science, University of Bologna, Cesena 47552, Italy.

8 ^c Department of Agri-Food Sciences and Technologies, University of Bologna (IT)

9

10 *Corresponding author:

11 Dr. Anwasha Sarkar

12 Food Colloids and Processing Group,

13 School of Food Science and Nutrition, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK.

14 E-mail address: A.Sarkar@leeds.ac.uk (A. Sarkar).

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 During consumption of fruits, the breakdown of the fruit tissue due to oral processing (chewing,
20 mixing with saliva) may activate or increase the rate of endogenous enzyme activities via the
21 disruption of the cell wall, cellular de-compartmentalization and particle size reduction allowing the
22 enzymes to reach their substrates. The aim of this study was to investigate the activity of one such
23 endogenous fruit enzyme (pectin methylesterase (E.C. 3.1.1.11) during in vitro oral processing of raw
24 tomatoes and associated changes in viscosity and microstructure. Oral processing of tomatoes purees
25 was examined in the presence of artificial saliva at 37 °C. In vitro oral processing was followed using
26 immunofluorescence microscopy, apparent viscosity measurements, spectrophotometric and
27 titrimetric techniques. Results demonstrated that pectin methylesterase had slight but significant
28 activity in the tomato fruit during in vitro oral processing generating methanol as a function of oral
29 processing time, which was further evidenced using immunolabelling techniques to detect methylated
30 pectin epitopes. A significant shear-thinning behaviour of the tomato puree was observed due to
31 dilution and/or endogenous fruit enzyme activity. These results suggest that activity of other fruit
32 enzymes, such as polygalacturonase, which catalysed the depolymerisation of unmethylated pectin
33 chains might have resulted in a decrease in viscosity, which compensated for the increased potential
34 for gel formation (if any) caused by PME. These interesting insights on role of endogenous fruit
35 enzymes might pave the way to the understanding of fruit viscosity modification occurring in the
36 mouth and help in rational design of new fruit based products.

37

38 **Key words:** Oral processing; Pectin methylesterase; Viscosity; Tomato; Artificial Saliva

39 **Abbreviations:** pectin methylesterase (PME), artificial saliva (AS).

40

41 **Practical Applications**

42 This work provides novel insights on role of endogenous fruit enzymes during in vitro oral processing
43 in altering the viscosity of fruits. The in vitro oral processing of tomatoes at 37 °C was followed in
44 presence of artificial saliva containing mucin by employing a range of complimentary physical and
45 microstructural techniques. This study demonstrated for the first time that pectin methylesterase
46 (PME) had a slight activity during oral processing of tomato generating methanol. Interestingly,
47 tomato puree showed a shear-thinning behaviour during in vitro oral processing. This pseudo-plastic
48 behaviour might be attributed to the dilution effects by artificial saliva as well as polygalacturonase
49 activity, latter might have compensated for the increase in viscosity (if any) caused by PME. Thus,
50 these results might pave the way to gain understanding of fruit viscosity modification occurring in
51 the mouth and relevant for designing new fruit based products with tailored oral textural properties.

52

53 **1. Introduction**

54 Fruits are one of the main components of a healthy diet as they represent an important source of
55 vitamins, minerals, sugars, fibres and other bioactive compounds, such as, carotenoids and
56 polyphenols (Lai et al., 2015). Fruits become edible after the complex physiological process of
57 ripening, which is associated with enzyme activity that leads to cell wall disassembly and tissue
58 softening (Wang et al., 2018). Several enzymes have been found to modify polysaccharides of cell
59 wall and middle lamella during ripening, including pectin methyl esterase, polygalacturonase and
60 pectin lyase (Wang et al, 2018). They have different activities involving various substrates, and are
61 active at different ripening and development stages. Some of them possess very low or undetectable
62 activity during fruit storage but become active if the product is disrupted, for example during handling
63 or food processing (Fischer and Bennett, 1991; Brummell and Harpster, 2001).

64 During consumption of fruits, the fruit tissue breaks down due to oral processing with
65 associated physical and biochemical modifications, such as cell separation and particle size reduction
66 (Chu et al., 2017), pH change, interactions with proteins and enzymes of saliva, eventually resulting
67 in the bolus formation (Chen, 2009; Sarkar et al., 2009; Sarkar and Singh, 2012; Sarkar et al., 2017).
68 These physical and biochemical changes as well as the length of oral residence time determine the
69 sensorial and/or textural perception of the fruits in the mouth (Szczesniak, 2002; Laguna et al., 2016a;
70 Laguna et al., 2016b; Laguna and Sarkar, 2016). Interestingly, the degree of such oral processing,
71 such as interaction of saliva, oral processing time may increase or decrease the activity of some
72 endogenous fruit enzymes and affect oral viscosity.

73 Previous literature has focussed on how food processing, such as thermal treatments and high
74 pressure treatments (Ludikhuyze et al., 2003; Chakraborty et al., 2014) can be used to inactivate fruit
75 endogenous enzymes that are involved in the alteration of pectin network and thus produce low
76 viscous fruit-based products. However, whether the fruits' endogenous enzymes are active during
77 oral processing of fruits and how such activity may affect oral viscosity and sensory perception of
78 raw fruits and fruit-based products remains largely unexplored. Most fruits are naturally acidic,

79 containing organic acids that influence taste and astringency, but the impact of pH on saliva
80 properties, such as viscosity and enzyme activities (e.g. amylase) is often not considered. While the
81 activity of salivary amylases in relation to rheology has been previously explored (Evans et al., 1986),
82 the activity of endogenous food enzymes has not been previously investigated. The hypothesis is that
83 mixing fruit with saliva will lower pH and affect the activity of endogenous fruit enzymes. These
84 enzymes may be active during the oral phase and may impact on the rheological properties of food-
85 saliva mixtures, and eventually impact on sensory perception

86 In this study, we focused on pectin methylesterase (PME), since it is a key enzyme in tomato
87 ripening and its activity impacts on other fruit enzymes such as endo-polygalacturonase (Fischer and
88 Bennett, 1991; Brummell and Harpster, 2001; Paniagua et al., 2014). The PME catalyses the
89 demethylation of galacturonic acid units in pectin polymers resulting in the release of methanol and
90 formation of negatively charged carboxylate groups on the galacturonic acid moieties. Demethylation
91 increases the electrostatic interactions between carboxylate groups and with Ca^{2+} ion leading to the
92 formation of calcium cross-linkages (Almeida and Huber, 1999; Paniagua et al., 2014). The formation
93 of these interactions between pectin chains can be hypothesized to cause increase of oral viscosity
94 during oral processing. However, PME activity leads to increased substrate availability for endo-
95 polygalacturonase, which would in turn depolymerise pectin and result in a decrease in viscosity.

96 Hence, the aim of this study was to understand whether PME is active and influence the oral
97 processing of fruits. We hypothesize that fruit endogenous enzymes will be active during oral
98 processing and will alter the oral viscosity of fruits. Salad tomatoes (*Lycopersicon esculentum*) were
99 selected as the fruit of choice due to its wide spectrum of domestic and industrial applications. The
100 oral processing was evaluated using artificial saliva at 37 °C and characterized using a range of
101 complimentary physicochemical and immunolabelling techniques. To our knowledge, this is the first
102 study that investigates the activity and effects of endogenous fruit enzymes during oral processing of
103 tomatoes.

104

105

106 **2. Materials and methods**

107 **2.1 Materials**

108 Acetic acid, ammonium acetate, ammonium nitrate, dibasic sodium phosphate, Calcofluor white,
109 formaldehyde, lactic acid sodium salt, monobasic sodium phosphate, porcine gastric mucin Type II,
110 phosphate buffer saline, potassium citrate, potassium chloride, potassium phosphate, sodium
111 chloride, urea, uric acid sodium salt, alcohol oxidase from *Pichia pastoris* (14 units/mg) were
112 purchased from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO, USA.. Acetylacetone at analytical grade was
113 purchased from SLS, Nottingham, UK.

114 Salad tomatoes (*Lycopersicon esculentum*) at red light ripening stage were purchased from local
115 supermarket (Tesco, UK).

116

117 **2.2 In vitro oral processing**

118 Artificial saliva (AS) was prepared using composition used in previous literature (Leung and Darvell,
119 1997; Sarkar et al., 2009; Laguna et al., 2017a). Porcine gastric mucin was used in quantity of 3 g/L
120 to simulate the rheological properties of saliva, the pH was adjusted to 6.8 with NaOH 0.1 mol/L.
121 Raw tomatoes were diced (diameter = 0.5 cm) and puree (diameter \approx 2-5 mm) was obtained by
122 homogenizing using a laboratory scale blender (Kenwood, UK). Then, the puree was mixed with AS
123 at 37 °C in a water bath in different sample: puree ratios and shaken for 2 minutes.

124

125 **2.3 pH analysis**

126 The pH value was measured in oral processed samples with a pH-meter (Model 3520, Jenway, Stone,
127 UK). Mean and standard deviation was calculated using five measurements carried out for each puree:
128 AS ratio. Titratable acidity of the puree-AS mixture was measured using an automatic pH-stat device
129 (Model TIM 854, Hach, Loveland, USA) as a function of oral processing time using 0.05 mol/L

130 NaOH solution with end-point at pH 6.8. Titratable acidity (mol%) was calculated using Equation (1)
131 (Laguna et al., 2017b):

132

$$133 \text{ mol}\% = \frac{\text{mL of NaOH} \cdot 0.05 \text{ mol/L}}{\text{g of sample}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

134 Titratable acidity was fitted to logistic function (equation (2)) which was optimised using
135 Excel solver to minimise residual fit with the data. The logistic function has an asymptotic
136 maximum with growth rate k ($\mu\text{mol min}^{-1}$). The model fit against data was conducted with
137 Pearson correlation. Logistic growth factor k and t_0 ($t_{1/2}$ in case of mid-point in min) values
138 are reported.

$$139 \text{ Acidity}(\%) = \frac{\text{Max}(\%)}{(1 + \exp(-k(t - t_0)))}$$

140

141 **2.4 Apparent oral viscosity**

142 Apparent viscosity was measured with a viscometer (Model DV-2T, Brookfield, Middleboro, USA)
143 with the RV02 spindle set (plate). The apparent viscosity of the oral processed samples was measured
144 at $37 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ and at $25 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ for comparison. Combinations of spindle and rotational speed with a
145 torque value between 10 and 100% were used to collect the data. Apparent viscosity was measured
146 as function of time, rotational speed and temperature, means and standard deviations were collected
147 for triplicate samples.

148

149 **2.5 Pectin methylesterase (PME) activity**

150 PME activity was evaluated by measuring the quantity of methanol released in the sample as end
151 product of the reaction catalysed by the enzyme. The released methanol was measured using a
152 spectrophotometric method (Klavons and Bennett, 1986). After 1 min and 1 h of in vitro oral
153 processing, 1.5 mL of supernatant was collected in an Eppendorf tube (1.5 mL) and centrifuged for 2

154 minutes at 10,000 rpm (Eppendorf mini spin centrifuge). The supernatant was collected and
155 centrifuged again at 10,000 rpm. Then, 50 μ L of alcohol oxidase (0.03 units) in sodium phosphate
156 buffer (pH = 7.5) was added to 50 μ L of supernatant in a UV plate (GRE96ft UV-Star, Greiner,
157 Stonehouse, UK) and shaken for 15 minutes at room temperature. Then, 100 μ L of reagent solution
158 was added (reagent made fresh by mixing 28 μ L acetyl acetone, 28 μ L glacial acetic acid, 1.54 g of
159 ammonium acetate made up to 10 mL with water) . The plate was incubated at 60 $^{\circ}$ C for 10 minutes.
160 Absorbance was recorded at 412 nm with a plate reader (Model Spark, Tecan, Switzerland), and
161 compared to a calibration curve ($R^2 = 0.9927$) obtained using different methanol concentrations.

162 **2.6 Immunolabeling and microscopy**

163 Tomato puree samples before or after in vitro oral processing were fixed with 4% formaldehyde in
164 PEM buffer (Leyton-Puig et al., 2016). Formaldehyde-fixed tomato-puree samples were washed 3
165 times for 10 minutes each with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) before immuno-labelling. The cells
166 were incubated in skimmed milk-PBS solution (10 mg/mL) (M-PBS) for 30 minutes at room
167 temperature. Then, the cells were incubated in M-PBS solution containing 100 μ L/mL of monoclonal
168 anti-pectin antibodies i.e. JIM7, where the antibody recognises the homogalacturonan domain of
169 pectic polysaccharides, recognises partially the methyl-esterified epitopes of homogalacturonan but
170 does not bind to un-esterified homogalacturonan. (Clausen et al., 2003) or LM19, where it binds
171 strongly to unesterified homogalacturonan. (Christiaens et al., 2011), for 1.5 h at room temperature.
172 The primary antibody was washed from cells with M-PBS and then incubated for 1.5 h at room
173 temperature in the dark in M-PBS solution containing secondary antibody anti-rat IgG (whole
174 molecule) linked to fluorescent isothiocyanate (FITC). At the end of the incubation, cells were
175 washed 3 times with PBS. Cells were also stained in Calcofluor white solution (2.5 mg/mL) for five
176 minutes in darkness. Cells were examined with a light microscope equipped with epifluorescence
177 irradiation; images were acquired with a digital camera.

178

179 **2.7 Statistical analysis**

180 The statistical analyses were carried out using Microsoft Excel 2016 and differences were
181 considered significant (*) when $p < 0.05$, (**) $p < 0.01$ and (***) $p < 0.001$, were obtained.
182 Titratable acidity was fitted to logistic function which was optimised using Excel solver to
183 minimise residual fit with the data. The correlation with the model fit against data was
184 conducted with Pearson correlation. Logistic growth factor k and $t_{1/2}$ values are reported.

185

186 **3. Results and discussion**

187 **3.1 Acidity**

188 The pH of oral processed samples in presence of different ratios with AS was measured. Results
189 reported in Table 1 show that tomato puree-saliva mixtures at any of the ratios tested had significantly
190 lower pH as compared to saliva alone ($p < 0.05$). The lower pH in the presence of tomato is outside
191 the optimum for salivary α -amylase as the optimum pH conditions for ptyalin, the isoform present in
192 human saliva is pH 5.6–6.9 (Valls et al., 2012). This suggests that the textural property of tomato
193 puree perceived in the mouth will be most likely independent of the activity of starch hydrolysis (if
194 any) by the amylase present. Tomato PME has been reported to have an alkaline pH optimum (around
195 pH 8) but has good activity in acidic environments as measured in the saliva mixtures (Duvetter et
196 al., 2006). The pH would favour the activity of polygalacturonase in particular (Verlent et al., 2005).
197 Acidity may impact textural perception through effect of acid on protein aggregation and
198 carbohydrate-protein interactions, which may result in increased viscosity of the food-saliva mixture.

199

200

[Table 1 here]

201

202 The titratable acidity (Figure 1) showed that acids were released faster in the 2:1 w/w ratio samples
203 than the in 1:1 w/w samples, (AS: tomato puree), with k being -0.52 and -0.41 respectively.
204 Correspondingly, the time needed to release the acids and reach plateau was longer than the time

205 needed for oral processing, with t_0 being 4.39 and 5.66 min, respectively, suggesting that not all
206 acids were released (6.45 and 4.11 %) during the oral phase of digestion.

207

208 [Figure 1 here]

209

210

211 **3.2 PME activity**

212 The methanol concentration was calculated as mg of methanol per L of supernatant in the oral
213 processed samples. The release of methanol from tomato fruits during in vitro oral processing was
214 clearly evident even after 1 minute of oral processing time (Table 2). The quantity of methanol
215 released after 1 hour was significantly higher than the quantity released after 1 minute ($p < 0.05$). This
216 provides the first preliminary indication of activity of PME during oral processing, however, the oral
217 residence time may play a key role in such reaction. Demethylated pectin is the ideal substrate for
218 endo-polygalacturonase, which is also present in ripe tomato. While activity of endo-
219 polygalacturonase was not measured in this study, it can be hypothesised that endo-polygalacturonase
220 may also be active in the oral phase, and thus, explain decrease in viscosity of the food-saliva mixture.
221 It might be further noted that the methanol concentration measured in the supernatant obtained after
222 oral processing simulation is much lower than the safest dose (2 g) and toxic dose (8 g) for methanol
223 (Paine and Davan, 2001). A potential role for dietary methanol as a signalling molecule in metabolism
224 has been recently suggested (Dorokhov et al., 2012).

225

226 [Table 2 here]

227

228 **3.3 Immunofluorescence microscopy**

229 In non-oral processed tomato cells (Figure 2A), JIM7, which binds preferentially to highly methylated
230 homogalacturonans labelled distinct regions of the cell surface were associated with cell corners
231 identified by darker calcofluor staining (Ordaz-Ortiz et al., 2009). In contrast, in oral processed cells
232 (Figure 2B), the JIM7 labelling of cell corners was lost indicating decrease in methylation or
233 solubilisation of methylated pectin. The JIM7 epitope appeared to be easily solubilised from tomato
234 parenchyma cell walls (Cornuault et al., 2018).

235

236 [Figure 2 here]

237

238 In non-oral processed tomato cells (Figure 3A), LM19, which binds preferentially to un-esterified
239 homogalacturonan was localised in distinct punctate areas of the cell wall, and the labelling was
240 again lost after oral processing. There was a low background labelling by both JIM7 and LM19 before
241 and after oral processing indicating that the oral processing does not completely destroy or solubilise
242 all pectin. There was no apparent effect of oral processing on cellulose staining with calcofluor white,
243 which indicates absence of cellulase activity. Also of significance is that intact cells were abundantly
244 observed in the tomato puree. These large cells can be over 500 μm in size and likely could have a
245 large impact on the oral flow properties and sensory perception. The presence of cells has also been
246 detected in other fruit products and have been shown to resist gastrointestinal digestion (Chu et al.,
247 2017). It is possible that oral processing caused the solubilisation of the water-soluble pectin fraction
248 into artificial saliva. To understand this further, rheological measurements of oral processed samples
249 were investigated.

250

251 [Figure 3 here]

252

253 **3.4 Apparent viscosity**

254 The orally processed tomatoes had three-orders of magnitude higher viscosity than artificial saliva
255 alone at oral processing conditions (Figure 4). This could be due to the presence of tomato cells, the
256 cross-linking of de-methylated pectin and the effect on low pH on molecular aggregation. Dilution
257 with AS had a significant shear thinning effect on the puree. However, the thinning effect might be
258 also attributed to the alteration of pH to near optimal pH for the endogenous fruit enzymes (e.g.
259 polygalactouronase, pectin lyase) to act and depolymerise pectin via hydrolytic and trans-elimination
260 cleavage (Niture et al., 2008).

261 [Figure 4 here]

262
263 This suggests that although PME activity was evident (Figures 2 and 3), the possible presence of
264 depolymerising activity might have dominated such effects and no PME-mediated increase in
265 viscosity was observed. It is recognized that cohesive gels can be formed by enzymatic de-
266 esterification of high-methoxy pectin by PME in the presence of calcium ions (O'Brien et al., 2009).
267 However, it is worth recognizing that the artificial saliva formulation used in this study did not contain
268 any Ca^{2+} ions to contribute to the gelation, which might not be the case in real human saliva (Schipper
269 et al., 2007). Thus, the exact interactions mediated by PME occurring in whole unstimulated human
270 saliva containing inherent calcium ions remains to be further explored.

271 As expected, oral processed tomatoes were non-Newtonian with pseudo-plastic behaviour (Figure
272 5). This was probably due to gradual break-up of the network-like tomato-puree aggregates into
273 smaller particles in the direction of flow. Also, the dependence between viscosity and time has been
274 evaluated and no relation was detected (Figure 5), even when the structural factors that contributes
275 to thixotropy (decrease of viscosity as function of time) were similar to those that determined the
276 pseudo-plastic behaviour, as well as a high solid content and the presence of pectin and fibres (Ramos
277 and Ibarz, 1998). Nevertheless, the rotational speeds used during the analysis might have destroyed
278 the structure of the tomato puree almost immediately. Therefore, it was not possible to exclude that
279 oral processed tomatoes may have thixotropic behaviour. Interestingly, the viscosity of oral

280 processed tomatoes was temperature-dependent, and heating the samples from 23°C to oral
281 processing temperature (37 °C) caused a significant decrease of viscosity (Figure 5). Such decrease
282 in viscosity might be also attributed to effect of PME in combination with other cell wall enzymes.

283

284 [Figure 5 here]

285

286

287 **4. Conclusions**

288 The results obtained in this study from immunofluorescence microscopy and from the measurements
289 of the methanol concentration in the samples have demonstrated for the first time that PME is active
290 during the oral processing of tomatoes, even at short oral residence times. However, in our
291 experimental conditions, no increase in viscosity was observed during simulated oral processing. The
292 tomato puree showed a shear thinning behaviour, which might be attributed to dilution by artificial
293 saliva and/ or activity of other fruit enzymes, such as polygalacturonase or pectin lyase, which
294 catalyse the depolymerisation of pectin chains into polyuronides with lower molecular weight. Such
295 depolymerising activity might have caused a decrease of viscosity, which compensated for the
296 increase (if any) caused by PME. Also, the real human saliva contains calcium ions inherently, which
297 might contribute to formation of gel during oral processing, which is under future investigation. Thus,
298 these results obtained might pave the way to gain understanding of fruit viscosity modification
299 occurring in the mouth due to the endogenous fruit enzymes. Since viscosity and pH changes are
300 known to affect fruit sensory characteristics, such as, flavour release and/or textural perception, a
301 deeper knowledge of oral activity of fruits' endogenous enzymes is important to enable optimization
302 (e.g. temperature, pressure) of fruit processing. In addition, knowledge of activity of fruit endogenous
303 enzymes and their effects on oral viscosity can also provide a strategic route towards the design of
304 tailored food products catering to disadvantaged populations (e.g. elderly, dysphagia patients).

305

306 **Ethical Statements**

307 **Conflict of Interest:** The authors declare that they do not have any conflict of interest.

308 **Ethical Review:** This study does not involve any human or animal testing.

309 **Informed Consent:** This study does not involve any human or animal testing.

310

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