1	Authentication of paprika using HPLC-UV fingerprints
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13	

14 Abstract

15 In this work we combine simple extraction and HPLC-UV methodologies with 16 chemometric pattern-recognition strategies in order to obtain characteristic fingerprints 17 of phenolic compounds that allow the authentication of paprika samples. To illustrate 18 the potential of the proposed approach, two different adulteration scenarios were 19 considered, namely adulteration of paprika based on its type (sweet, bittersweet and 20 spicy) as well as on its region (Murcia, la Vera and Czech Republic). Upon preparation 21 of a proper set of samples, they were analysed using a C₁₈ reversed-phase column and 22 registered chromatograms were then compressed employing fast Fourier transform 23 (FFT) to reduce the large dimensionality of the data set, while preserving all relevant 24 features. Next, data were analysed using linear discriminant analysis (LDA) for the

- 25 qualitative discrimination of adulterated samples, followed by partial least-squares
- 26 regression (PLS) modelling to quantitatively assess the adulteration degree.
- 27
- 28 Keywords: paprika; food authentication; adulteration; liquid chromatography; partial
- 29 least-squares regression

30 **1. Introduction**

31 In an effort to promote and protect the quality of regional foods, geographical 32 indications (e.g. protected designation of origin, PDO), regulatory boards assess that 33 producers comply with the specific technical production conditions and performs 34 regular controls (including sensory and analytical examinations, as well as stock 35 statements and verification of movements) (Dias & Mendes, 2018). However, despite 36 these controls, there is a demand of new analytical low-cost methods needed to assess 37 both authenticity and fulfilment of quality standards (Danezis, Tsagkaris, Camin, 38 Brusic, & Georgiou, 2016; Galvin-King, Haughey, & Elliott, 2018). Particularly, this is 39 critical when trying to assess the authenticity of local natural foods. Unfortunately, there 40 is a lack of methods able to classify food samples, since usually there is not any specific 41 compound directly related to food origin or quality that could be determined using 42 conventional analytical techniques.

43 A system capable to perform such task should simultaneously detect a large 44 spectrum of compounds and provide comprehensive information of the sample. In this 45 regards, current approaches for quality control are shifting from compound-oriented to 46 pattern-oriented strategies (Cavanna, Righetti, Elliott, & Suman, 2018; Cuadros-47 Rodríguez, Ruiz-Samblás, Valverde-Som, Pérez-Castaño, & González-Casado, 2016; 48 Esteki, Shahsavari, & Simal-Gandara, 2019; Zeng et al., 2008). This means developing 49 methodologies for the simultaneous detection of many compounds and the further 50 pattern recognition analysis of the data, instead of focusing on the quantification of a 51 few specific substances. The main advantage of pattern-oriented approaches is that they 52 do not require any prior knowledge of the sample composition in order to succeed, but 53 even more, they can be used to assess those key (bio)markers.

54 In recent years, there has been an increased interest and knowledge on the presence 55 of bioactive compounds in food, as well as on the role of such substances on the quality 56 and health benefits of food products, which has to be guaranteed (Johanningsmeier, 57 Harris, & Klevorn, 2016; Kris-Etherton et al., 2002). Bioactive compounds distribution 58 in most natural foods can be related to the specific products varieties, processing 59 technologies, production regions and climate conditions (Baenas, Belović, Ilic, Moreno, & García-Viguera, 2019; Mudrić et al., 2017). Most of these compounds are powerful 60 61 antioxidants needed for the functioning of plant cells, with huge health benefits upon its 62 ingestion as they can act as free radical scavengers and inhibitors of lipoprotein 63 oxidation, providing a protective effect against aging pathologies like cardiovascular 64 diseases or cancers mutation (Kim et al., 2016; Quideau, Deffieux, Douat-Casassus, & 65 Pouységu, 2011).

66 Paprika, sometimes also referred to as chilli pepper, is a characteristic red seasoning 67 powder obtained from the drying and grinding of certain varieties of red peppers 68 (Capsicum annuum L.) (Pérez-Gálvez, et al., 2005). There are three important varieties 69 of paprika: sweet, bittersweet, and spicy. The two most known varieties of paprika in 70 Spain, and the only ones with a PDO, come from the region of "la Vera" in Cáceres 71 (Extremadura) and from "Murcia" (Commission Regulation (EEC), 11 February 2000, 72 24 November 2006). Among the different bioactive substances found in paprika, 73 phenolic compounds are especially important, and their distribution may be related to 74 the different red pepper varieties (Baenas et al., 2019; Mudrić et al., 2017; Quideau et 75 al., 2011).

In this context, herein we investigate on the capabilities of combining liquid chromatography, to obtain a profile of the phenolic content of paprika's, with chemometric methods such as linear discriminant analysis (LDA) or partial least-

squares regression (PLS) for the extraction of a characteristic fingerprint that allow theauthentication of paprika samples.

81

82 2. Experimental

83 2.1 Reagents and materials

Methanol (UHPLC-gradient grade), formic acid 98%, acetonitrile, absolute ethanol and acetone were purchased from Panreac (Barcelona, Spain). Standards of phenolic compounds were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA), from which stock solutions of 1000 mg/L were prepared in methanol and stored in amber glass vials. Deionized water was obtained from a Milli-Q system (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA).

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91 2.2 Paprika samples

Authentication of paprika was studied from two different points of view. On the one
side, adulteration with paprika from other regions was considered, whereas on the other
side, adulteration with paprika from other varieties was also evaluated.

95 To this aim, paprika samples from three different regions (La Vera, Murcia and 96 Czech Republic) were considered. Among the samples of every region, there were 97 different types of paprika (sweet, bittersweet and spicy in the samples from La Vera, 98 and sweet and spicy in the samples from Murcia and Czech Republic). The samples 99 were purchased directly from producers or from different local shops. Adulteration of 100 paprika was made in two ways. In the study about paprika types, 24 mixtures were 101 prepared with different proportions of the varieties sweet, bittersweet and spicy of 102 paprika from La Vera. For each variety, 12 different proportions were considered (0, 103 0.01, 0.02, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 0.9, 0.98, 0.99 and 1), according to the design of 24

experiments summarised in Table 1. Every mixture was prepared twice, which means 48 samples to be analysed. In the study about paprika regions, 24 mixtures were prepared with samples of the type spicy from the regions of La Vera, Murcia and Czech Republic. As in the previous study, the experimental design of Table 1 was used and the samples were prepared twice, also producing a total of 48 samples.

Prior to its analysis, paprika samples were subjected to a extraction stage by sonication and centrifugation in water: acetonitrile (20:80 v/v) (Cetó et al., 2018). Briefly, 0.3 g of paprika were weighted, dispersed in 3 mL of solution and vortexed for 1 min. Next, samples were sonicated for 15 min and centrifuged at 4500 rpm for 30 min. Finally, the supernatant was filtered through 0.45 μ m nylon filters, and samples stored at 4 °C until their analysis.

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116 2.3 Chromatographic analysis

HPLC analysis was carried out in an Agilent 1200 Series instrument (Palo Alto, CA,
USA) equipped with a G1311A quaternary pump, a G1322A vacuum degasser, a
G1329A autosampler and a G1314B ultraviolet-visible detector; all of them controlled
with the Agilent ChemStation software package.

121 Chromatographic fingerprints were obtained with a reverse phase Kinetex C_{18} 122 column (2.6 µm C18 100 Å, 100 x 4.6 mm) from Phenomenex (Torrance, CA, USA) at 123 room temperature. For the elution, a mixture of Milli-Q water containing 0.1% formic 124 acid (solvent A) and methanol (solvent B) were used as the mobile phase components at 125 a flow rate of 1 mL/min, and with the following gradient: 0-2 min, isocratic step at 5% 126 B; 2-4 min linear gradient from 5 to 25% B; 4-12 min, at 25% B; 12-14 min, from 25 to 127 45% B; 14-16 min, at 45% B; 16-18 min, from 45 to 95% B; 18-20 min, at 95% B; 20-128 21 min, back to initial conditions at 5% B; and from 21-30 min, at 5% B for column re129 equilibration (Cetó et al., 2018). Injection volume was 20 μL, and UV absorption
130 registered at 280 nm every 291 ms.

Every paprika sample was injected by triplicate, which generated 144 chromatograms in the study about paprika types and 144 chromatograms more in the study about paprika regions.

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135 2.4 Chemometric analysis

The resulting chromatograms were first baseline corrected by polynomial fitting and subtraction of the background and compressed using fast Fourier transform (FFT), and then submitted to linear discriminant analysis (LDA) and partial least squares regression (PLS) by means of home-made programs implemented in Matlab 7.1 (MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA) (Cetó, Céspedes, & del Valle, 2013).

Briefly, FFT was used to reduce the large dimensionality of the recorded data, while LDA was used to actually attempt its categorization based on the adulteration degree. Finally, in order to numerically quantify the degree of adulteration, PLS was employed. In both cases, the set of samples was randomly split between two subsets: training and testing, in the ratio 2:1 to ensure unbiased results were obtained from the models.

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147 **3. Results and Discussion**

As discussed earlier, it is very complicated to achieve the authentication of food samples from the concentration profiles of specific compounds obtained from their targeted analysis. Oppositely, completely non-targeted analysis has also the drawback that much more features or descriptors will be required (including many that will turn to be non-relevant), thus hindering the data processing stage as well as possibly demoting model performance.

154 In this direction, we have developed and applied a chromatographic method for the 155 profiling of phenolic compounds present in paprika (Figure 1), and we hypothesize on 156 the potential of this method in combination with chemometric analysis for the 157 authentication of paprika samples. To illustrate its potential, two different scenarios 158 were explored taking into account paprika classification, namely the adulteration with 159 different varieties and the adulteration with paprika from different regions (PDO's). 160 Moreover, not only the qualitative authentication was considered, but also the 161 quantification of the adulteration degree was attempted. The results obtained are 162 presented over the next sections.

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164 **3.1** Authentication of paprika based on its type

165 The first study case was to attempt the authentication of adulterated sweet, 166 bittersweet and spicy paprika samples from La Vera according to the levels reported in 167 Table 1. Upon preparation of the set of adulterated samples, they were subjected to the 168 extraction procedure and the chromatographic analysis described above, which 169 produced a set of 144 chromatograms with characteristic fingerprints as these shown in 170 Figure 1.

Upon measurement of all the set of samples, the next step was to attempt its discrimination with the aid of chemometric methods. However, given the large dimensionality of the recorded data, chromatograms were first compressed down to 512 coefficients with the aid of FFT algorithm. This allowed a reduction of over 95.8% on the pattern matrix without any loss of significant information and also a notorious decrease in the instrumental noise (Cetó et al., 2013).

177 The chosen pattern recognition method to attempt the discrimination of the 178 adulterated samples was LDA, taking the different adulteration levels (*i.e.*, the 24

mixture proportions) as the classes into which the samples were divided and the calculated Fourier coefficients as the pattern matrix. To further remove non-relevant variables with lower or none relevance to the classification task, a stepwise inclusion method was used so as to select the minimum set of coefficients to perform the prediction task with the optimum performance (Johnson & Wichein, 2007).

184 The two dimensional score plot obtained after LDA is shown in Figure 2. Despite its 185 complexity given the large number of classes considered (24), there are some interesting 186 trends that can be observed. Firstly, it is important to note how the three classes 187 corresponding to the pure (non-adulterated) paprika samples are the ones taking the 188 extreme values for both discriminating functions (DFs), or in other words, appear at the 189 extremes of the plot. That is, C1 corresponding to sweet samples in the right bottom of 190 the plot, opposite to it there is C17 corresponding to spicy samples and on the top in 191 between those two there is C9 corresponding to bittersweet samples. More interestingly, 192 it can also be observed how two big clusters appear distinguishing spicy adulterated 193 samples from sweet and bittersweet adulterated ones. That is, if we imagine a line going 194 from the top left to the bottom right, we can see how those clusters would be separated 195 by it. Even more, we can notice how intra-clusters distance is bigger for this subset of 196 samples compared to the other, thus indicating that adulteration of spicy paprika 197 samples with other types of paprika is much more noticeable. This fact might be due to 198 the much higher concentrations of capsaicinoids in spicy paprika in comparison to the 199 other two types, which leads to a significant decrease of its concentration in the 200 mixtures. Lastly, despite the apparent overlapping that might be seen with some classes 201 in this 2D representation (e.g. C18/C20), this is not an issue as when also DF3 is 202 plotted (which represents 9.48% of the total model variance), it can be seen how the 203 clusters are clearly discriminated (with respective centroids coordinates of ca. 15 and -5,

respectively). In this regard, it has to be kept on mind that the actual model has a total of
23 DFs, which are the ones used to numerically assign the samples to each of the
classes.

Next, in order to numerically assess the performance of the model, confusion matrixes were built (data not shown). Classification rate for the training and testing subsets was 100% and 81.3%, respectively; the latter being slightly lower due to some miss-classification between sweet and bittersweet adulterated samples at the lower considered levels. Moreover, performance of the model was also evaluated in terms of sensitivity, specificity and precision values (averaged for the classes) (Cetó, Voelcker, & Prieto-Simón, 2016), achieving a 81.3%, 99.2% and 85.4%, respectively.

Upon confirmation of the capability of the method to discriminate adulterated samples, and even more, to actually discriminate between different levels of adulteration, the next step was to attempt to numerically predict the actual degree of adulteration. To this aim, PLS was used instead of LDA as the modelling tool, using as before the calculated Fourier coefficients as the pattern matrix, but taking the actual percentage of adulteration rather than the classes as the target matrix.

220 As an example, the comparison graph of the predicted vs. expected percentage of 221 adulteration for the mixtures of sweet and bittersweet samples is shown in Figure 3. As 222 can be seen, a good trend is obtained, with fitted regression lines for both training and 223 testing subsets almost indistinguishable from the ideal comparison line (y=x). That is, 224 with slope and correlation coefficients close to 1, and intercept value close to 0; being 225 the theoretical values included in the 95% confidence interval. In this way, confirming 226 the potential of the approach not to only qualitatively discriminate between pure and 227 paprika adulterated with other varieties, but also to numerically quantify the degree of 228 adulteration.

229

230 **3.2** Authentication of paprika based on its region

To further assess the suitability of the proposed method for the authentication of paprika, not only adulteration within different varieties was considered, but also the potential fraud of not respecting the PDOs. That is, mixing paprika produced in different regions. As done with the previous scenario, the same experimental design was employed, considering spicy samples from three different regions: Murcia, la Vera and Czech Republic.

237 As before, upon measurement of all samples, the set of 144 chromatograms was 238 compressed employing FFT and a qualitative LDA model was built to attempt its 239 discrimination. The resulting scores plot is shown in Figure 4. In this case a very clear 240 trend was observed in the score plot, with the different classes taking almost a perfect 241 triangular shape where each vertex corresponds to the unadulterated paprika samples 242 and the mixed samples are distributed along the faces of the triangle, being sorted 243 according to the degree of adulteration. That is, la Vera samples (C1) is in the left top of 244 the plot and opposite to Murcia samples (C9), which appear on the right sharing similar 245 scores for DF2; meanwhile Czech Republic samples appear on the bottom, in between 246 those two, with clear different values for DF2 evidencing that that coordinate basically 247 discriminates Spanish and Czech samples. Very significant is also the increase in the 248 percentage of accumulated variance only with the first two DFs, as in this case, the 249 value goes up to ca. 91.6%. A huge value that helps to explain why such a clear trend 250 has been obtained in the scores plot.

In order to numerically assess such a promising output, a confusion matrix was built (data not shown), from which the classification rate for the training and testing subsets was estimated as 100% and 95.8%, respectively. Performance of the model was also

254 evaluated in terms of sensitivity, specificity and precision values (averaged for the 255 classes) (Cetó et al., 2016), achieving a 95.8%, 99.8% and 97.2%, respectively. All 256 these metrics confirm what could be somehow expected from the LDA score plot, *i.e.* 257 the fact that a clear identification is obtained for the authentication of paprika's region. 258 In this direction, we suspect that the superior performance observed in this case as 259 compared to the previous one might be due to the higher impact on the phenolic profile 260 derived from the different geographical climate conditions, but also to the fact that 261 different varieties might be cultivated over different areas, which exalts further this 262 different profiling (Mudrić et al., 2017).

263 Finally, a PLS model was also built to confirm what seems to be very clear from the 264 LDA scores plot in this case, and is the fact that the proposed chromatographic 265 approach has huge potential to be used to numerically predict the degree of adulteration. 266 As an example, the comparison graph of the predicted vs. expected percentage of 267 adulteration for the mixtures of la Vera and Murcia samples is shown in Figure 5. A 268 very good trend is obtained, with fitted regression lines for both training and testing 269 subsets almost indistinguishable from the ideal comparison line (y=x), containing the 270 theoretical values of slope (1) and intercept (0) in the 95% confidence interval. Thus, 271 the proposed methodology allows both the qualitative identification and the quantitative 272 determination of the degree of adulteration of paprika with paprika from other regions.

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4. Conclusions

Based on these results, we can confirm the huge potential of chromatographic methods in combination with chemometric analysis for the authentication of paprika samples. More specifically, we can confirm the hypothesis that the broad phenolic profile of paprika is significant enough to allow the discrimination of paprika samples given that phenolic distribution and content in natural food products seems to be related
to food features such as the plant/fruit/seed variety, the geographical climate conditions
of their production area, and the cultivation and manufacturing practices, among others.
Consequently, they could be a rich source of analytical information to carry out the
characterization, classification and authentication of food products as well as to detect
possible adulterations.

Overall, this work aims to demonstrate the advantages derived from the use of chemometric methods as an alternative to specific-compound targeted classical analysis. In this way, a biomimetic approach generates an overall fingerprint of the food products analysed which allows to overcome the lack of knowledge of the compounds responsible for certain characteristics and/or perceptions.

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Table 1. Composition of the set of samples prepared to evaluate paprika adulteration based on its type [(A) sweet, (B) bittersweet and (C) spicy] as well as on its region [(A) La Vera, (B) Murcia and (C) Czech Republic].

Class	Α	B	С	Class	Α	В	С	Class	Α	B	С
1	1	0	0	9	0	1	0	17	0	0	1
2	0.99	0.01	0	10	0	0.99	0.01	18	0.01	0	0.99
3	0.98	0.02	0	11	0	0.98	0.02	19	0.02	0	0.98
4	0.9	0.1	0	12	0	0.9	0.1	20	0.1	0	0.9
5	0.8	0.2	0	13	0	0.8	0.2	21	0.2	0	0.8
6	0.6	0.4	0	14	0	0.6	0.4	22	0.4	0	0.6
7	0.4	0.60	0	15	0	0.4	0.60	23	0.60	0	0.4
8	0.2	0.8	0	16	0	0.2	0.8	24	0.8	0	0.2

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Representative raw chromatograms obtained for spicy paprika samples extracts of (top to bottom) *La Vera*, *Murcia* and *Czech Republic* under the conditions described in section 2.3.

Figure 2. Score plot obtained after LDA analysis for the authentication of paprika's type. In this study 144 chromatograms were analysed, corresponding to 24 different proportions of the sweet, bittersweet and spicy types of paprika from La Vera (two samples for every proportion and three injections per sample). Numbers indicate the class of every sample (i.e., the proportion of paprika types) according to Table 1. Coloured filled symbols correspond to the training subset and black empty ones to the testing subset, whereas the centroid for each of the classes is also plotted (\star).

Figure 3. Performance of the optimized FFT-PLS model for the authentication of paprika's type. For every sample, the predicted *versus* expected percentage of adulteration of sweet paprika from La Vera with the bittersweet variety of the same PDO is shown, including training (•, solid line) and testing (o, dotted line) subsets. The dashed line corresponds to the theoretical diagonal line.

Figure 4. Score plot obtained after LDA analysis for the authentication of paprika's region. In this study 144 chromatograms were analysed, corresponding to 24 different proportions of the spicy type of paprika from La Vera, Murcia and Czech Republic (two samples for every proportion and three injections per sample). Numbers indicate the class of every sample (i.e., the proportion of paprika types) according to Table 1.

Coloured filled symbols correspond to the training subset and black empty ones to the testing subset, whereas the centroid for each of the classes is also plotted (\star).

Figure 5. Performance of the optimized FFT-PLS model for the authentication of paprika's region. For every sample, the predicted *versus* expected percentage of adulteration of spicy paprika from La Vera with the same variety from Murcia is shown, including training (•, solid line) and testing (o, dotted line) subsets. The dashed line corresponds to the theoretical diagonal line.

Fig1



Fig2





Fig4







*Conflict of Interest Form

Conflicts of interest

Declarations of interest: none

Authors contribution section

This work was originally designed by Núria Serrano, Oscar Núñez and José Manuel Díaz-Cruz. Cristina Sánchez carried out the experimental work by liquid chromatography. Xavier Cetó contributed to the design of experiments and carried out the data treatment. He also wrote the initial version of the manuscript that was later improved with contributions by Núria Serrano, Oscar Núñez and José Manuel Díaz-Cruz.