

1 Whey protein concentrate and skimmed milk powder as encapsulation agents for coffee silverskin  
2 extracts by spray drying

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## Supplementary File

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### Introduction

Coffee production for commercialisation as a raw bean generates approximately 45–50% waste, which is discarded and can cause various environmental problems (Gemechu, 2020). The high volume of residues has driven research into innovative alternative technologies to minimise the environmental impacts and process losses (Costa et al., 2014). During the roasting process, green coffee beans show an average weight loss of approximately 16%. In addition to water loss, this percentage includes the main by-product of this stage, coffee silverskin (Gemechu, 2020). This residue is an important source of bioactive compounds that can be used in food, cosmetics, and pharmaceutical products (Costa et al., 2018).

Coffee silverskin contains a lot of protein and a very low fat content and reducing carbohydrates are almost absent. The ash content is high, suggesting important mineral content. However, polysaccharides are the main components (Borrelli et al., 2004). Coffee silverskin also has a high content of dietary fibre (50-60%), which is divided into 15% soluble and 85% insoluble fibre (Borrelli et al., 2004). Previous characterisation studies have indicated that chlorogenic and caffeic acids are the main phenolic compounds present in coffee silverskin (Nzekoue et al., 2020). Its antioxidant capacity is also correlated with the production of melanoidins during roasting (Esquivel & Jiménez, 2012).

Spray drying is one of the most widely used microencapsulation methods in the food industry. It is a technique that transforms solutions or emulsions into products in the form of a powder and contains the material within a capsule to allow the isolation and protection of the compounds, thus guaranteeing their stability, promoting the maintenance of active principles during storage, and avoiding undesirable changes. Moreover, the advantages of this method include its simplicity, low cost, and flexibility, which allow continuous operation, high stability (low moisture content of powders), substantial volume reduction, ease of handling, and storage stability of the microparticles (Sun et al., 2019).

For microcapsules intended for food purposes, the encapsulating wall materials must be of food grade and easy to handle and must have low hygroscopicity and biodegradability (Rutz et al. 2013).

The encapsulation of phenolic compounds and antioxidants is an important strategy for preserving their properties for a longer time, as the encapsulating materials act as barriers to oxygen and water, thus improving their stability and enabling their use in the food industry (Lavelli, Harsha, & Spigno, 2016).

66 This study addressed the hypothesis that milk proteins, through microencapsulation, can  
67 guarantee protection against bioactive substances in coffee silverskin extracts. The aim of this  
68 study was to carry out technological, nutritional, and physicochemical characterisations of a  
69 coffee silverskin extract microencapsulated using SMP and WPC as wall materials.

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## 71 **Material and Methods**

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### 73 *Preparation of extracts*

74 To obtain the coffee silverskin extract, 1 g of ground and sieved sample was added to 50 mL of  
75 water, which was then heated to 50°C on a hot plate with constant agitation (600 rpm) in a  
76 mechanical stirrer (model 715 W: Fisatom, Sao Paulo, Brazil). Subsequently, the extract was  
77 filtered under a vacuum pump through a Büchner funnel and Kitassato glassware, using 14 µm  
78 millex type filter paper. Extraction was performed in triplicate and extracts were stored at -25°C  
79 before analysis (Costa et al., 2014). After the extraction process, part of the extract was frozen  
80 at -80°C and freeze-dried (model LJJ04; JJ Científica, Sao Carlos, Brazil) for 24 hours, to be  
81 used as control. As a control, a portion of the extract was freeze-dried (Rutz et al., 2013).

82

### 83 *Preparation of microcapsules for spray drying*

84 Solutions of encapsulating agents (skimmed milk powder [SMP] and whey protein concentrate  
85 [WPC]) were prepared at a concentration of 10% (w/v). The resulting mixtures were  
86 homogenised using a mechanical stirrer (model 715 W; Fisatom) until complete solubilisation  
87 was achieved. Microencapsulation was performed using a spray dryer (Mini Spray Dryer B-  
88 290; Buchi) with inlet and outlet air temperatures of  $162.5 \pm 2.5^\circ\text{C}$  and  $82.5 \pm 2.5^\circ\text{C}$ ,  
89 respectively. The obtained powders were packed in polyethylene bags containing a laminate  
90 layer and stored in the dark in a desiccator.

91

### 92 *Water activity ( $a_w$ ) and moisture content*

93 The  $a_w$  was measured directly using an AquaLab 4TE instrument (Decagon Devices, Pullman,  
94 WA, USA) at  $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Analysis was performed in triplicate. The moisture content of the  
95 samples was evaluated using an infrared moisture analyser (MOC63u; Shimadzu, Kyoto,  
96 Japan). For each sample, a mass of approximately 1.0 g was placed on an aluminium plate and  
97 heated at 105°C for a variable period of time, until reaching a constant mass. The percentage  
98 of mass loss was calculated as the moisture content of the sample. The assays were performed  
99 in triplicate.

100

101 *Particle size analysis*

102 The particle size distribution of the powders during the rehydration process was obtained using  
103 a Beckman Coulter LS 13320 laser diffraction analyser with an aqueous liquid module  
104 (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). Sufficient quantities of samples to generate the turbidity  
105 required for the readings were added to the reservoir of the liquid analysis module containing  
106 water at room temperature. The data are presented as the percentage (%) of the volume occupied  
107 by the particles as a function of size. Beckman Coulter software (particle characterisation)  
108 version 5.03 was applied to analyse the data. The indicators Dv90 (volume in which 90% of the  
109 particles were found) and particles greater than 1.0 µm were used to assess the particle size  
110 distribution. Analyses were performed in duplicate.

111

112 *Colorimetry*

113 The colour of the powders was determined using a colorimeter ( CR-400; Chroma Meter,  
114 Konica Minolta, Tokyo, Japan) with a direct reading of the reflectance of the coordinates L\*  
115 (luminosity), a\* (positive = red, negative = green), and b\* (positive = yellow, negative = blue).  
116 Three measurements of each colorimetric parameter were performed with homogenisation of  
117 each sample during the storage period (Stangerlin et al., 2013).

118 The browning index (BI), used to evaluate the brown colour intensity of the samples, was  
119 calculated using Equation (1). The BI correlates the parameters L\*, a\*, and b\* (Oliveira, Sousa-  
120 Gallagher, Mahajan, & Teixeira, 2012).

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122 
$$BI = \frac{[100(x - 0.31)]}{0.17}, \quad (1)$$

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124 where  $x = \frac{(a^* + 1.750 x L^*)}{(5.645 x L^* + a^* - 3.012 x b^*)}$

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126 *Total phenolics*

127 The total phenol content was determined using the Folin–Ciocalteu spectrophotometric method,  
128 according to the methodology developed by Singleton and Rossi (1965), with modifications.  
129 Spectrophotometric absorbance was measured at 770 nm (UV–Vis 1601 Pc; Shimadzu). A  
130 gallic acid standard curve was constructed, and the results were expressed as mg of gallic acid  
131 equivalents (GAE) per 100 g of powder (mg GAE·100 g<sup>-1</sup>).

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133 *Antioxidant activity*

134 *DPPH-based free radical scavenging activity*

135 The 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) free radical scavenging method described by  
136 Govindarajan et al. (2003) was used to determine the antioxidant potential of the samples, with  
137 some modifications. One hundred microlitres of the reference substance quercetin and the  
138 samples (1 mg/mL) were added to a 96-well plate at concentrations from 0.49 to 250 µg/mL  
139 (successive dilutions). Then, 150 µL of DPPH solution (20 µg/mL) in methanol was added to  
140 all wells containing the sample and reference substance. The reference compound (quercetin)  
141 and coffee silverskin extract were solubilised in methanol. Extract samples encapsulated in  
142 SMP and WPC were solubilised in a mixture of water and methanol (1:9). Two negative  
143 controls were used, which contained all reagents, except for the sample that was replaced with  
144 methanol or H<sub>2</sub>O/methanol (1:9). The plate was incubated for 30 min in the dark and the  
145 absorbance was determined at 517 nm using a microplate spectrometer (UV–Vis 1601 Pc,  
146 Shimadzu). The entire experiment was performed in triplicate, and the results are expressed as  
147 the half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC<sub>50</sub>) and percentage of inhibition.

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149 *Nitric oxide radical scavenging activity*

150 The method described by Green et al. (1982), which involves indirect dosage using the Griess  
151 method, was used with some modifications,. For the assay, the samples and reference  
152 substances were solubilised in phosphate buffer and tested at concentrations ranging from 250  
153 to 7.8 µg/mL (successive dilutions). All reagents except the sample were used as negative  
154 controls. In a 96-well plate, 62.5 µL of sodium nitroprusside (NPS, 10 mM) solubilised in  
155 phosphate buffer (10 mM, pH 7.4) and 62.5 µL of the samples (1 mg/mL) and reference  
156 substance were added (gallic acid, 1 mg/mL). After the addition of NPS, the plate was incubated  
157 at room temperature for 60 min. Then, 125 µL of Griess reagent was added, and the absorbance  
158 was measured at 540 nm (UV–Vis 1601 Pc, Shimadzu) after 10 minutes and the percentage of  
159 inhibition was calculated using the Equation 2.

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$$161 \quad \% \text{ inhibition} = 100 - \left( \frac{A1 \times 100}{A0} \right), \quad (2)$$

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163 where A0 is the absorbance of the control, and A1 is the absorbance of the treated sample.

164

165 *Particle morphology*

166 The morphology and particle size of the powder samples were evaluated using scanning  
167 electron microscopy (TM3000; Hitachi Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The unprepared samples were  
168 deposited on the support of the microscope and evaluated at magnifications of 100×, 250×,  
169 500×, and 1,000×.

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171 *Statistical analysis*

172 Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism® (version 8.0; GraphPad, San  
173 Diego, CA, USA). The results are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  standard error of the mean, the  
174 different groups were compared using the analysis of variance method, followed by Tukey's  
175 test. Differences were considered statistically significant at  $p < 0.05$ .

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177 **Results and Discussion**

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179 Table 1 presents the particle size distribution, based on the percentage of particles smaller than  
180 1  $\mu\text{m}$ , and the Dv90 value, which indicates 90% of the particles with values equal to or less than  
181 the result obtained. The coffee silverskin extract encapsulated with WPC had a significantly ( $p$   
182  $\leq 0.05$ ) lower Dv90 value when compared to coffee silverskin extract encapsulated with SMP.  
183 A higher Dv90 value indicates a lower powder reconstitution efficiency (Paula et al., 2020).  
184 Paula et al. (2020) found average Dv90 values of 51.11 to 171.18 in three of the treatments  
185 used. Higher values when compared to the Dv90 value were found for coffee silverskin extract  
186 encapsulated with WPC, which indicates poorer reconstitution of the powder.

187 There was no significant difference ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) in phenolic compounds between the different  
188 encapsulated coffee silverskin extracts. Nzekoue et al. (2020) extracted coffee silverskin using  
189 different solvents, which directly influenced the total phenolic content. Their results ranged  
190 from 40.4 to 73.4 mg GAE/g. Smaller values were found by Zengin et al. (2020), who  
191 performed the extractions in an ultrasonic bath. Values for phenolic composition from 20.49 to  
192 35.68 mg GAE/g were found. There are several phenolic compound extraction methodologies,  
193 since the solubility of the extract may vary according to the solvent used and also according to  
194 other variables, such as time, temperature, and agitation (Martuscelli et al., 2021, Alara et al.,  
195 2021). Vimercati et al. (2022) reported an approximate value of 6 mg GAE/g when analysing  
196 the phenolic composition of a coffee silverskin extracts encapsulated with gum arabic,  
197 maltodextrin, or egg albumin.

198 In the DPPH assay, an increase in the antioxidant capacity of the coffee silverskin extract  
199 encapsulated in WPC was observed. That is, the IC<sub>50</sub> result showed a higher antioxidant  
200 potential for the coffee silverskin extract encapsulated with WPC (IC<sub>50</sub> 9.53 ± 2.92) than the  
201 freeze-dried coffee silverskin extract (IC<sub>50</sub> 66.15 ± 6.66) and the coffee silverskin extract  
202 encapsulated with SMP (IC<sub>50</sub> 184.35 ± 33.85), in addition to being statistically equivalent to  
203 antioxidant potential of quercetin, the reference substance in the reaction. This was a better  
204 result than that the result reported by Calva-Estrada et al. (2018), who found that the  
205 microcapsules of natural and synthetic vanilla extract encapsulated with WPC had IC<sub>50</sub> values  
206 of 36.20 ± 3.50 and 29.50 ± 0.09, respectively.

207 For the nitric oxide radical scavenging activity, the freeze-dried coffee silverskin extract  
208 inhibited 59.40 ± 3.15% at a concentration of 250 µg/mL, while the coffee silverskin extract  
209 encapsulated with SMP and WPC inhibited 57.73 ± 3.05% and 44.24 ± 0.76%, respectively, at  
210 the same concentration. There was a significant difference ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) between the encapsulated  
211 coffee silverskin extracts.

212 The antioxidant activity of phenolic-protein conjugates depends on the method used and the  
213 nature of the phenolics participating in the reaction (Liu et al., 2019). Thus, the increase in  
214 antioxidant activity when associating milk proteins with the phenolic compounds present in the  
215 coffee silverskin extract using the DPPH method can be explained by the synergistic interaction  
216 between the molecules.

217 Figure 1 shows the scanning electron microscopy analyses of the freeze-dried coffee silverskin  
218 extract, coffee silverskin extract encapsulated in SMP, and coffee silverskin extract  
219 encapsulated in WPC. The freeze-dried coffee silverskin extract, observed in A, presented a  
220 completely different morphology, when compared to the particles dried by the spray-dryer. This  
221 morphology is typical of the freeze-drying process (Mahdavee Khazaei et al., 2014). According  
222 to Kuck and Noreña (2016), the structural rigidity caused by the frozen surface and the lack of  
223 water in the liquid state results in a porous structure without shrinkage, which is the main  
224 characteristic of freeze-dried foods. In contrast, samples B and C contained higher amounts of  
225 fine particles and maintained very similar sizes, and most particles had a dehydrated  
226 appearance. Particles encapsulated by the spray dryer showed a spherical surface with a  
227 wrinkled outer surface and some concavities, which are typical characteristics of this  
228 encapsulation method (Ballesteros et al., 2017).

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300 **Figure legends:**

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302 **Supplementary Figure S1:**

303 Scanning electron microscopy analyses of the powders obtained from (A) freeze-dried coffee  
304 silverskin extract (B) coffee silverskin extract encapsulated with SMP (C) coffee silverskin  
305 extract encapsulated with WPC. Images at 1000x magnification.

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