

1 Effect of spray drying on the polyphenolic compounds present in purple sweet potato roots:
2 Identification of new cinnamoylquinic acids.

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12
13 **Abstract**

14 The effect of spray drying on the different polyphenolic compounds present in the root of a purple-
15 fleshed sweet potato variety of *Ipomoea batatas* native from Peru was performed by HPLC-QTOF-
16 MSMS. Nine anthocyanins, including four peonidin, three cyanidin and two pelargonidin derivatives
17 glycosylated with sophorose and/or glucose and acylated with caffeic, ferulic and *p*-hydroxybenzoic
18 acid were identified. Twenty nine cinnamoylquinic acids (CiQA), including eight mono-CiQA,
19 fourteen di-CiQA, and five tri-CiQA, were identified on the base of their MS fragmentation profile.

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20 Relevant amounts of feruloylquinic acid derivatives were identified. Among them, some di and tri-
21 CiQAs containing feruloyl and caffeoyl moieties in their structures, and di-feruloylquinic acids were
22 reported here, for the first time, in *Ipomoea*. Spray drying process negatively affected the different
23 phenolic groups, with polyphenol losses representing around 90% of the initial amounts. Mono-
24 CiQAs presenting feruloyl moieties and mono acylated peonidin derivatives with *p*-hydroxybenzoic
25 acid were the less affected compounds.

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27 Key words; purple sweet potato, *Ipomoea batatas*, anthocyanin, cinnamoyl-quinic acid, spray-
28 drying, HPLC-QTOF-MSMS, chlorogenic acid, feruloylquinic acid derivatives

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30 Highlights

- 31 • Purple sweet-potato contains relevant amounts of feruloylquinic acids derivatives
- 32 • Identification of new di and tri cinnamoylquinic acids in *Ipomoea batatas* roots
- 33 • The spray drying process reduced cinnamoylquinic acids, anthocyanins and flavonols
- 34 • Mono cinnamoylquinic acids containing feruloyl moieties were less degraded
- 35 • Peonidin acylated with *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid was the most thermostable anthocyanin

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52 **Introduction**

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54 Sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas* L.), a dicotyledonous plant of the family *Convolvulaceae*, is a rich
55 source of carbohydrates and, in a lower extent, of other nutrients such as proteins and lipids. Sweet
56 potato roots and other aerial parts of the plant are used as human food and animal feed but also for
57 the development of industrial products (eg starch, sugar and natural colorants). It also contains
58 functional components (as polyphenols) that have been used in folk medicine for the treatment of a
59 wide variety of pathological conditions (Meira, Pereira da Silva, David, & David, 2012). In the last
60 years, the development of dietary foods, snacks and vegetable juices including sweet potatoes has
61 been increased (Truong, Avula, Pecota & Yencho, 2018). Industrial processing usually involves
62 making the roots into purees that can be subsequently preserved by dehydration processes that might
63 affect the characteristics and quality of sweet potato flours

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64 Among the drying techniques, spray drying is one of the most rapid and less expensive procedures.
65 During the drying process the material is sprayed into a chamber where hot dry air rapidly evaporates
66 the small droplets leaving the spray dried particles. Spray-drying has been proposed for commercial
67 production of functional ingredients from several fruits and vegetables including sweet potatoes
68 (Grabowski, Truong & Dauber, 2008). However, the high temperatures used during the process might
69 affect the polyphenol content and antioxidant activity of the final product. In this regard, the
70 degradation of polyphenols of *Ipomoea batatas* under different cooking conditions has been reported
71 (Takenaka, Nanayama, Isobe & Murata, 2006; Kim et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2015). Still, the impact of
72 spray drying on the different polyphenolic compounds present in *Ipomoea batatas* has not been
73 reported so far.

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74 On the other hand, freeze drying is a process in which the water is removed from a frozen solution
75 by under reduced pressure not requiring an increase in the temperature and thus, preserving most of
76 the initial raw material properties. However, freeze drying is time-consuming and less used in food
77 industry due to its high operation cost (Ratti, 2001)

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78 Polyphenolic compounds in sweet potatoes are mainly concentrated in leaves followed by peel and
79 the whole root. Among them, chlorogenic acid derivatives (mainly mono and di caffeoylquinic acid
80 derivatives, CQAs) and anthocyanins (especially abundant in purple-fleshed sweet potatoes varieties)
81 are the most abundant polyphenolic groups identified in *Ipomoea batatas* roots of varieties from
82 different origins (Ishiguro, Yahara & Yoshimoto, 2007; Truong, Mcfeeters, Thompson, Dean &
83 Shonfran, 2007; Truong et al. 2010).

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84 Chlorogenic acids are a family of esters, widely distributed in plants, formed between quinic acid and
85 certain *trans*-cinnamic acids, most commonly caffeic, *p*-coumaric and ferulic acid. The most common
86 chlorogenic acids reported in sweet potatoes are 3-O-caffeoylquinic acid (3CQA), 4-O-caffeoylquinic
87 acid (4CQA) and 5-O-caffeoylquinic acid, and some dicaffeoylquinic acids such as 3,4-di-O-
88 caffeoylquinic (3,4-diCQA), 3,5-di-O-caffeoylquinic acid (3,5-diCQA) and 5-di-O-dicaffeoylquinic
89 acid (4,5-diCQA). These compounds are present in all parts of plants, and factors such as plant
90 physiological state, storage conditions but also temperature during drying process might affect its
91 qualitative and quantitative composition (Ishiguro et al. 2007; Terahara et al. 1999).

92 Purple sweet potatoes exhibit an intense purple colour due to the accumulation of mono- and
93 diacylated anthocyanins, mainly cyanidin and peonidin derivatives glycosylated with sophorose
94 and/or glucose. These compounds are acylated with caffeoylquinic acid, *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid or
95 ferulic acid (Terahara et al. 1999). The rate of acylation confers stability to the anthocyanins (Hayashi,
96 Ohara & Tsukui, 1996; Xu et al. 2015) and purple-fleshed sweet potato is considered a valuable plant
97 material for the production of natural food colorants (Suda, Oki, Masuda, Kobayashi, Nishiba &
98 Furuta, 2003). Comparatively, anthocyanins extracted from purple-fleshed sweet potato exhibits
99 higher colour stability than those extracted from plants such as raspberry, red cabbage, strawberry or
100 apple, owing to their unique mono- or di- acylated forms (Hayashi et al 1996; Kim et al.2012). In

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101 addition to anthocyanins, the presence of cinnamoylquinic acids in these varieties contributes to their
102 antioxidant activity as well as to the phytochemical and colour stability of the anthocyanins present
103 in *Ipomoea* (de Aguilar Cipriano, Ekici, Barnes, Gomes, & Talcott, 2015). However, studies dealing

104 with the characterization of both groups of polyphenols simultaneously in *Ipomoea batatas* are
105 limited (Zhao et al. 2014). Despite the potential of spray drying in converting sweet potatoes into
106 functional ingredients, the impact of such technology on the different bioactive compounds present
107 in *Ipomoea batatas* roots remains unknown. Thus, the objective of this study was to study the effect
108 of spray drying on the different polyphenol groups, including cinnamoylquinic acids, anthocyanins
109 and flavonols, present in the root of a purple-fleshed sweet potato variety of *Ipomoea batatas* native
110 from Peru.

112 2. Materials and methods

113 2.1. Chemicals

114 All chemical used were HPLC analytical grade. Caffeic acid, 5-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid, *p*-coumaric
115 acid, cyanidin 3-*O*- glucoside, quercetin 3-*O*-glucoside, L-phenylalanine and L-tryptophan were
116 purchased from Sigma Chemical Co (St. Louis, MO).

118 2.2. Sample preparation and dehydration processes

119 Purple sweet potato roots of *Ipomoea batatas* *L* Lam variety and commonly so-called “Camote
120 morado de Piura” were grown at Piura Catacaos (Piura, Peru). After 5 months, plants were harvested
121 and roots were separated, washed with tap water and then were subjected to freeze dried or spray
122 dried process. Freeze drying process was performed in a Stellar® Laboratory Freeze Dryer (Millrock
123 Technology, Inc). After washing, whole roots were sliced (2 mm), placed in a tray, freezed (-20 °C)
124 and introduced in the Freeze Dryer during 12 hours, with a temperature starting from -40 °C and
125 progressing towards 10 °C. Dried roots were crushed to powder with the help of a mortar and stored
126 in an aluminium bag until their analysis. The spray-drying was conducted using an A/S Niro NF
127 Atomizer® (Danemark). Before being introduced in the atomizer, whole washed roots were mashed
128 by adding water (50:50) in a food processor (Jefc60, Imeco, Peru) at room temperature. A carrier
129 (10% maltodextrine , Maltogill 20, Dextrose Equivalent-DE 20) was added to the puree and

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130 introduced in the atomizer. The flux was 1 litre per hour and the inlet and outlet temperatures were
131 160-180 °C and 85-95 ° C, respectively. Dried powdered roots were stored in an aluminium bag until
132 analysis.

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134 **2.3. Polyphenol extraction**

135 For the extraction of phenolic compounds, 50 mg of sample was placed in an Eppendorf, suspended
136 in 1 ml of MeOH/H₂O (50:50 v/v acidified with formic acid 0.1%), vortexed and sonicated during
137 15 minutes. Samples were then centrifuged (Eppendorf AG, Hamburg, Germany) at 10.000 rpm for
138 15 min at 4°C and the supernant was collected. The residue was re-suspended in 0.5 ml of
139 MeOH/H₂O (1:1 acidified with 0.1% formic acid) and re-extracted following the same procedure two
140 times. Supernants were combined, filtered (0.45 µm), and placed in vials for subsequent HPLC-
141 QTOF-MSMS analysis of phenolic Compounds.

142

143 **2.4. HPLC-QTOF-MS Analysis of Phenolic Compounds.**

144 Analyses were performed using HPLC coupled with a mass spectrometer (HPLC-MS- QTOF). The
145 HPLC (Agilent 1200, Agilent Technologies) with a quaternary pump (G1311A) was coupled with
146 diode array detector (Agilent G1315B) and an Agilent 6530 Accurate-Mass QTOF LC /MS with
147 Electrospray Ionization (ESI) with Jet Stream technology (Agilent Technologies). Separation was
148 performed on a Phenomenex Luna C18 column (5 µm, 4.6 mm × 150 mm), set thermostatically at 25
149 °C.

150 A gradient between solvent A (water/formic acid, 99.9:0.1, v/v) and solvent B (acetonitrile/formic
151 acid, 99.9:0.1, v/v) was applied at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min as follows: 10% B at 0 min, 30% B at
152 30 min, 35% B at 35 min, 40% B at 45 min, 10% B at 50 min, and 10% at 60 min. The volume of
153 sample injected was 20 µL. The electrospray ionization (ESI) parameters were as follows: drying gas
154 flow, 8 L/min; nebulizer pressure, 45 psi; gas drying temperature, 325 °C; sheath gas temperature,

155 300 °C; sheath gas flow, 11 L/min; capillary voltage, 4000 kV; and fragmentator, 120 V. The ESI
156 was operated in positive and negative modes to provide extra certainty in the determination of the
157 molecular masses. Data were collected in extended dynamic range, 100–1200 m/z. For the
158 identification and quantification of compounds MS and tandem mass spectrometry fragmentation
159 spectra (MSMS) experiments were performed and spectral signal at data were also acquired at 280
160 and 320 and 520 nm. For MSMS experiments, quite generic collision energy of 20 V was used, as a
161 compromise, to simplify development of the method and ensure good fragmentation of the majority
162 of targeted compounds. Data acquisition and processing were performed with the Masshunter Data
163 Acquisition B.05.01 and Masshunter Qualitative Analysis B.07.00 SP2 software. Compounds were
164 identified by comparing mass spectra and retention time with the corresponding standard if available.
165 In the case of compounds for which standards were not available, identification was based on
166 prediction of chemical formula from accurate ion mass measurement and confirmed by comparing
167 MSMS with data provided by relevant literature references (see tables 1 and 3). The quantification
168 was performed by interpolation into the calibration curve of the standard or structurally related
169 compound used to quantify (equivalent) and expressed as µg per g of dry matter (DM) as follow: 5-
170 *O*-caffeoylquinic acid for hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives, cyanidin-3-*O*- glucoside for
171 anthocyanins, and quercetin-3-*O*-glucoside for flavonols.

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173 2.5. Statistical analysis

174 All analyses were performed in quadruplicate. Data were subjected to a one-way analysis of variance
175 (ANOVA) by using the general linear model procedure (Version 9.2, SAS Inst. Inc., Cary, NC).
176 Variance homogeneity was performed using Levene's test. When the effect was considered
177 significant ($P < 0.05$), means were compared using the Tukey's range test.

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179 3. Results and discussion

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180 3.1 Cinnamoyl-quinic acids

181 Cinnamoylquinic acids (CiQAs), also known as chlorogenic acids, are esters formed between certain
182 *trans*-cinnamic acids (caffeic, ferulic and *p*-coumaric) and quinic acid. These compounds are
183 characteristic of coffee beans, and LC-MSn fragmentation behaviour of their main components has
184 been widely described by Clifford and Kuhnert using mild fragmentation conditions (Clifford,
185 Johnston, Knight & Kuhnert, 2003; Clifford, Knight & Kuhnert, 2005; Clifford, Knight, Surucu &
186 Kuhnert, 2006a; Clifford, Marks, Knight & Kuhnert, 2006b; Clifford, Wu, Kirkpatrick, & Kuhnert,
187 2007; Jaiswal & Kuhnert 2010) and it has been used to confirm the identity of the CiQAs in this
188 paper. These authors established hierarchical keys for CiQAs derivatives identification based on MSn
189 fragmentation patterns, relative hydrophobicity and bonding strength to quinic acid. We have used
190 the numbering nomenclature recommended by the International Union of Pure and Applied
191 Chemistry (IUPAC 1976) for quinic acid derivatives, and in order to clarify, previous data published
192 using other systems have been transformed to IUPAC nomenclature. Characterization of the CiQAs
193 was performed in negative mode and is reported in table 1 and figure 1.

194 In the present study, free caffeic acid (CA) with a molecular ion at m/z 179 was identified by
195 comparison with the corresponding commercial standard and on the basis of the MSMS fragmentation
196 pattern m/z 135 originated from the decarboxylation of caffeic acid.

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198 3.1.1 Mono- Cinnamoyl-quinic acids

199 Among the mono cinnamoyl-quinic acids, the most abundant single compounds identified in freeze-
200 dried purple sweet potato were those including caffeic and ferulic acid in which the esterification
201 occurs at position 5, corresponding to 5 caffeoylquinic acid (5CQA) and 5 feruloylquinic acid (5FQA)
202 with m/z 353 and 367, respectively. Although the esterification might occurs at positions 1, 3, 4, and
203 5 of the quinic acid moiety, only the isomers with esterification at positions 3, 4, and 5 have been
204 previously reported in *Ipomoea batatas*. The distinctive behaviour of the different isomers during the
205 MS fragmentation along with the use of a reference standard (5CQA) allowed distinguishing them.

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206 In this sense, it was observed that the CQA with a caffeoyl residue at C5 was the most easily
207 fragmented (yielding a fragment at m/z 191), whereas that at C4 was the most stable (yielding m/z
208 173 and 135) and that at C3 being of intermediate stability (yielding at 191 and 135). Additionally,
209 a peak at 15.5 minutes showed the same fragmentation pattern than 5CQA and was assigned to the
210 *cis*-form of 5CQA. Although it is widely accepted that the hydroxycinnamic acid moiety of acyl-
211 quinic acid is predominantly found in the *trans* form, UV-irradiation may cause geometric
212 isomerization and *cis* derivatives have been detected in other plant species (Clifford, Wu, Kirkpatrick,
213 Kuhnert, Roozendaal & Rodrigues Salgado, 2008). In accordance to these authors, *cis* and *trans*
214 isomers get fragmented identically and their order of elution depends on the position of substitution,
215 being 5CQA more hydrophobic and thus eluting later than their mono- or *di-trans* counterparts
216 whereas the reverse is true for 3 and 4 *cis* CQA.

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217 Three peaks presenting a common molecular ion at m/z 367 were assigned as FQAs. The main ions
218 produced for each successive peak during fragmentation were m/z 193, 173 and 191, respectively
219 which, according to the hierarchical keys proposed by Clifford et al. 2003, allowed their identification
220 as 3FQA, 4FQA and 5FQAs, respectively. However, and taking into account that according to these
221 authors FQA isomers elute in the same order as CQAs (3, 5, and 4), the last compound was tentatively
222 assigned to the *cis*-isomer. Despite the presence of a *cis*-isomer is expected to be accompanied, and
223 indeed dominated by the corresponding *trans*-isomer, we were not able to find the *trans*-isomer of
224 5FQA. In this sense, the predominance of 4FQA was surprising as the esterification at position 5 is
225 most common in the plants presenting these compounds. The presence of FQAs isomers have been
226 rarely described in *Ipomoea batatas* where only few amount of 3FQA isomer has been reported (Zhu,
227 Cai, Yang, Jinxia & Corke, 2010; Wang et al. 2018) in roots.

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228 A peak with molecular ion at m/z 337 was identified as *p*-coumaroylquinic acid (pCoQA). Attending
229 to the presence of a fragment at m/z 191 it was assigned as 5pCoQA. The presence CoQAs has been
230 also reported in roots of chinese varieties of sweet potato (Wang et al. 2018).

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231 In the present variety the group of CQA derivatives (with 5CQA as the most abundant compound)
232 was the most representative group (53%) followed by FQAs (42%) and pCoQAs (4,5%). According
233 to previous reports (Takenaka et al. 2006; Jung 2011) the content of CQAs in *Ipomoea batatas* varies
234 greatly with the variety, being 5CQA the most abundant compound found in roots (ranging from 10
235 to 300 $\mu\text{g/g}$ DM). In the present work 5CQA was also the predominant isomer and its content (68 μg
236 /g) was within the range of previously reported values. Our results also showed that the root of this
237 variety of purple sweet potato native of Peru possess an important content of FQAs where the
238 presence of the 3 different isomers of FQA were identified. Cinnamoylquinic acids play an important
239 role in the plant defence response, and the presence of FQAs, have been associated to additional
240 protective resistance against plant pathogens (Nuringtyas, Choi, Verpoorte, Klinkhamer & Leiss,
241 2012).

243 3.1.2. Di-cinnamoyl quinic acids

244 A peak with a molecular ion at m/z 499 corresponding to a *p*-coumaroyl-caffeoylquinic acid
245 (pCoCQA) with a MS fragmentation pattern characterized by ions at m/z 353 and 191 was detected.
246 Clifford et al. 2006b reported on the basis of the LC-MS⁴ patterns of fragmentation the presence of 6
247 different isomers of pCoCQAs. Among them, three yielded a common base MS peak at m/z 353, but
248 only one (corresponding to 3C5pCoQA) was also accompanied with a secondary peak at m/z 191 and
249 consequently was assigned to this compound. To our knowledge, this compound has not been
250 identified either in the roots or in the leaves of *Ipomoea batatas* previously.

251 Three di-caffeoylquinic acids (diCQA) with the expected m/z 515 were detected. According to the
252 fragmentation pattern and elution order (Clifford et al. 2003 and 2005) two of them producing the
253 characteristic peak at m/z 173 that indicated a substitution at position 4, were assigned to 3,4diCQA
254 and 4,5diCQA. Another isomer producing a fragment at m/z 191 was associated to 3,5diCQA.
255 Accordingly, these isomers have been commonly reported in *Ipomoea batatas* roots (Truong et al.
256 2007; Jung, Lee, Kozukue, Levin & Friean, 2011; Park, Woo, Choi, Choi, & Jung, 2015).

257 Seven peaks showing molecular ions at m/z 529 were identified as isomers of caffeoyl-*O*-
258 feruloylquinic acid (CFQAs). Zheng and Clifford (2008) reported the presence of low concentration
259 of 6 isomers of CFQA in the stem of *Ipomoea batatas*. Different CFQA isomers have been widely
260 reported in robusta coffee beans (Clifford et al. 2003 and 2006a and b). The CFQAs were tentatively
261 assigned according their MSⁿ fragmentation pattern and elution order (Clifford et al. 2006a). The
262 MSMS base peak at m/z 353 or 367, along with the presence of the characteristic secondary ions (as
263 m/z 173 indicating position 4) and the sequence of elution allowed the assignment of the different
264 isomers. In this sense the absence of the secondary ion at m/z 173 indicated the presence of 3,5-diacyl
265 derivatives of hydroxycinnamic acid, whereas its presence indicated 3,4 or 4,5-diacyl derivatives.
266 Regarding the 3,5-diacyl derivatives, 3 peaks (31.6, 34.2 and 34.6) were observed, two of them
267 presenting a similar MS fragmentation pattern (m/z 367 and 193) and suggested the presence of 2
268 isomers (*cis* and *trans*) of 3F5CQA, whereas another peak produced m/z 353 and 191 was assigned
269 to 3C5FQA. For the 3,4 or 4,5-diacyl derivatives, because the fragmentation pattern do not allow to
270 assign the position of the substituents of both hydroxycinnamic acids (caffeic and ferulic acid), the
271 identification was performed according to the same elution order followed for diCQAs and reported
272 by Clifford et al. 2006a .

273 Three peaks yielding molecular ion signals at m/z 543 and presenting and identical fragmentation
274 pattern and elution order as diFQA (Clifford et al. 2006a) were identified. Accordingly, these peaks
275 with the fragmentation pattern of m/z 349/173, m/z 367/193 and m/z 367/173 were respectively
276 assigned to 3,4diFQA; 3,5diFQA and 4,5diFQA. To our knowledge, these compounds have not been
277 identified previously either in the roots or in the leaves of *Ipomoea batatas*.

278 One peak with m/z 677 with a main fragmentation pattern m/z 515, 353, 173 suggesting the presence
279 of 3,4,5 tri-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid (3,4,5tCQA) according to MSⁿ information provided by Clifford et
280 al. (2007) and Jaiswal and Kuhnert (2010) in Chrysanthemum and coffee bean was observed. The
281 presence of this compound in leaves of *Ipomoea* has been reported (Islam et al. 2002; Luo et al.,
282 2013). However, their earlier elution together with the additional presence of, although weak, MSMS

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283 fragments at m/z 497 and 341, also suggested the presence of a dicaffeoylquinic acid glycoside as
284 was described in *Chrysanthemum* (Clifford et al. 2007), but not in *Ipomoea batatas*. In this sense, the
285 loss of a fragment with m/z 162 may correspond to the loss of a caffeic acid or a hexose, being the
286 latter more hydrophilic and therefore eluting earlier.

287 As was observed for mono CiQAs, a relevant content of di CiQAs containing feruloyl moieties was
288 identified in this variety. Despite, as expected, dicaffeoylquinic acids were the most abundant group
289 of total diCiQAs, a valuable 42% of total diCiQAs corresponded to compounds presenting both
290 feruloyl and caffeoyl quinic acids which were reported here for the first time in *Ipomoea batatas*
291 roots. Additionally, low amounts of total diCiQAs corresponded to diferuloylquinic acids and
292 pCoCQAs (2,7 and 0.7 %, respectively) were not previously reported in sweet potatoes.

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294 3.1.3. Tri cinnamoyl quinic acids

295 Two peaks yielding molecular ion signal at m/z 691 were identified as feruloyl-*O*-dicaffeoylquinic
296 acid (FdCQAs) according to the molecular mass, pattern of fragmentation and elution order
297 previously described in green robusta coffee beans (Jaiswal and Kuhnert 2010). These authors
298 identified and characterized for the first time three structures containing feruloyl (position at 3, 4 and
299 5) and dicaffeoylquinic acids (positions at 3,4, 3,5 and 4,5). Accordingly, the fragmentation of the
300 first two eluting compounds produced a common peak at m/z 529 followed by m/z 367,173 or
301 353,173, 179 and were assigned to 3,5di-*O*-caffeoyl-4-*O*-feruloylquinic acid and 3-*O*-feruloyl-4,5-
302 di-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid (3,5diC4FQA and 3F4,5CQA, respectively). These authors also reported a
303 third compound assigned as 3,4-*O*-dicaffeoyl-5-*O*-feruloylquinic acid (3,4diC5FQA) which produced
304 characteristics MSMS base peak at m/z 515 (diCQA), MS³ base peak at m/z 353 (supported by a
305 secondary m/z 255 and 299), and MS⁴ based peaks at 173 and 179.

306 The MS² fragmentation pattern observed in the present study showed that the first eluting compound
307 produced ions at m/z 515, 299 and 255 also showed intermediate weak peaks at 529, 353 and 173 and
308 was partially similar to that reported as 3,4diC5FQA. Regarding our second eluting compound, the

309 MSMS spectra (m/z 529/353/179) produced was similar to that reported for 3F4,5CQA. However,
310 and due to the discrepancies with the elution order previously proposed for coffee beans, we couldn't
311 confirm the identity of such isomers and, consequently, were assigned as dicaffeoyl-feruloylquinic
312 acid 1 and 2, respectively. To our knowledge, these compounds have been scarcely reported in nature,
313 and are reported here for the first time in *Ipomoea batatas*.

314 Three peaks eluting between 40.5 and 42.0 min yielded molecular ion signal at m/z 705 were assigned
315 to caffeoyl-*O*-diferuloylquinic acid derivatives. Compounds were identified by comparing their
316 MSMS fragmentation spectra with those previously reported by Jaiswal and Kuhnert (2010). Our first
317 eluting compound with MSMS spectra of m/z 529, 367 and 173 was similar to that reported for 4,5-
318 *O*-diferuloyl-3-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid. The second one, producing a MSMS spectra with m/z
319 543/367/349 /193 was also similar to that assigned to 3,4-di-*O*-feruloyl-5-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid.
320 Finally, we also observed a third eluting peak presenting a MSMS spectra with m/z 529/353/179
321 which was not previously reported in coffee bean and was named diferuloyl-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid 3.

322 Around 10% of total CiQAs observed in purple sweet potato roots corresponded to tri CiQAs, where
323 diCFQAs and CdiFQA (representing 90% and 6 % of the total tCiQAs, respectively) were the most
324 abundant structures. In *Ipomoea batatas* mono and di acylated chlorogenic acids have been widely
325 reported in all the parts of the plant whereas the presence of tri -acylated chlorogenic acids has been
326 less documented. In this regard, the only structure previously reported corresponds to 3,4,5tCQA
327 whose presence has been identified in the ipomoea leaves (Islam et al. 2002 ; Luo et al., 2013) and
328 was not identified in the present study. However, we detail here for the first time in *Ipomoea batatas*
329 the presence of feruloyl moieties in the structures of tri-acyl quinic acids. Full assignment of these
330 compounds, and especially for structures presenting two different acyl moieties, requires MS⁴ and
331 even MS⁵ spectra (Clifford, Jaganath, Ludwig & Crozier, 2017) and, therefore, only tentative
332 identifications of such isomers are reported here.

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334 3.1.4. Effect of spray drying on Cinnamoyl-quinic acids

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335 The effect of spray drying on the CiQAs present in purple sweet potato roots is showed in table 2.

336 In *Ipomoea batatas*, mono and diCQAs are the most abundant phenolic acids present in roots from
337 different varieties (Hayase & Kato 1984; Islam, Yoshimoto, Yahara, Okuno, Ishiguro & Yamakawa,
338 2002; Takenaka et al. 2006; Truong et al. 2006). In the present experiment, mono and di-acyl-quinic
339 acids were also the most abundant groups of CiQAs in purple sweet potato, (each one representing
340 around 45% of total CiQAs), followed by tri acyl-quinic acids (10 %).

341 The spray dried process resulted in CiQAs losses of around 87%. The reduction was less pronounced
342 for mono CiQAs (72.7 %) than for diCiQAs and triCiQAs which were almost completely destroyed.
343 The presence of a feruloyl moiety in the structure of CiQAs seemed to confer more thermal stability.
344 In this sense, the losses observed after spray drying process were lower in mono FQAs than in mono
345 CQAs (40.4 and 96.9 % reduction, respectively). CiQAs are highly susceptible to the influence of
346 temperature. Temperature caused significant losses in these phenolic compounds and the severity was
347 dependent on factors such as cooking (boiling, steaming, baking) and storage conditions of the roots
348 (Takenaka et al. 2006; Jung et al. 2011). In these studies, a low stability of mono and di CQAs present
349 in *Ipomoea batatas* was reported, however, the severity of the losses was dependent on the cooking
350 techniques.

351 Previous works suggest that spray drying is a satisfactory technique for encapsulation and drying of
352 heat sensitive food ingredients including polyphenols (Fang & Bandhari, 2010). However, only few
353 studies have reported on the effect of spray drying process on bioactive compounds present in sweet
354 potato. In this sense, a reduction of nutrients including vitamin C and beta carotene was reported
355 during the spray drying of orange sweet potato puree (Grabowsky et al. 2008). Regarding purple
356 varieties, Peng, Li, Guan, & Zhao, (2013) reported a degradation of total polyphenols during the spray
357 drying of sweet potato flours using spectrophotometric techniques, but the effect of such technology
358 on the different cinnamoylquinic acids present in *Ipomoea* has not been studied. In these studies the
359 rate of degradation ranged from 15 to 50% according to the different carrier and conditions used
360 during the process. Correct selection of excipients during spray drying process is also an important

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361 step in guaranteeing the stability and quality of the final product. Among them, in the present study
362 we used maltodextrin, which was reported to preserve better than other *Ipomoea batatas* flour
363 polyphenols (Peng, Li, Guan, & Zhao, 2013). However, the conditions used in this experiment, were
364 detrimental for the stability of the different individual phenolic compounds present in the roots of
365 *Ipomoea batatas*. In addition to temperature, the process to which the roots were subjected before
366 being spray dried might have contributed to the higher degradation of polyphenolic compounds
367 observed in our case. In this sense, the grinding and homogenization of roots before spray drying led
368 polyphenol present in purees more exposed to light and oxidative processes. The role of enzymes
369 such us the polyphenol oxidase, released during plant damage, in the oxidation of CiQAs of Ipomoea
370 might also contribute to the losses observed during processing (Takenaka et al. 2006). To inhibit the
371 enzymatic activity and preserve the colour, some pre-treatments including heat and /or other
372 inhibitors have been proposed and used during the industrial process of sweet potatoes (Truong et al.
373 2017) but were not included in the present experiment.

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374

375 3.2. Anthocyanins

376 Purple sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas*) is a valuable plant material for the production of colouring
377 foodstuffs. Anthocyanins extracted from purple-fleshed sweet potato present high thermostability
378 owing to their unique mono- or di- acylated forms (Suda et al., 2003). Cyanidin and peonidin-3-
379 sophoroside-5-glucoside acylated with *p*-hydroxybenzoic, ferulic, *p*-coumaric and caffeic acids are
380 the main anthocyanins reported in purple-fleshed sweet potato (Terahara et al. 1999; Truong et al.
381 2010)

382 The chemical structures of *Ipomoea batatas* anthocyanins were determined in positive mode, and
383 confirmed by comparing the MS fragmentation pattern with data previously reported (Tian, Konczak
384 & Schwartz, 2005; Truong et al 2010). Considering that for most of the anthocyanins MS cleavage
385 just occur between the anthocyanin and the glycoside, the presence of the aglycones with *m/z* 287,
386 301 and 271 allowed to identify cyanidin, peonidin and pelargonidin derivatives, respectively. The

387 chemical structures of the individual anthocyanins were then determined considering in the
388 fragmentation pattern the loss of the sugars, such as glucose (m/z 162) and sophorose (m/z 324), and
389 the acylation groups such as *p*-hydroxy-benzoic acid (m/z 120), caffeic acid (m/z 162) and ferulic
390 acid (m/z 176). Characterization of the anthocyanins is reported in table 3 and figure 2.

391

392 3.2.1. Cyanidin derivatives

393 Cyanidin derivatives were identified based in the presence of their characteristic aglycon fragment at
394 m/z 287. Among them, the first molecular ion of m/z 773 was identified as cyanidin 3-sophoroside-
395 5-glucoside according to its fragmentation pattern (see figure 2A). In this sense, the ion fragments at
396 m/z 611 corresponded to the loss of a glucose (162), whereas m/z 449 corresponded to a loss of a
397 sophorose (324). Another two cyanidin derivatives acylated with *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid and ferulic
398 acid were identified. The first peak (m/z 893) produced fragmentation ions at m/z 731 that indicated
399 the loss of a glucose, and m/z 449 corresponding to the loss of a sophorose (324) and *p*-
400 hydroxybenzoic acid (120), and was assigned as cyanidin-3-*p*-hydroxybenzoyl sophoroside-5-
401 glucoside. The second peak (m/z 949) produced fragmentation ions at m/z 787 (loss of glucose), m/z
402 449 corresponding to the loss of sophorose (324) and ferulic acid (176) and was therefore assigned
403 as cyanidin 3-(6-feruloyl-sophoroside)-5-glucoside.

404

405 3.2.2. Peonidin derivatives

406 Peonidin derivatives were identified based in the presence of their characteristic aglycon fragment at
407 m/z 301. Among them, the first molecular ion with m/z 787 was identified as peonidin-3-sophoroside-
408 5-glucoside according to the fragmentation pattern of m/z 625 and 463 that corresponded to the loss
409 of a glucose and sophorose, respectively. Peonidine derivatives acylated with *p*-hydroxy-benzoic acid
410 and caffeic acid were also identified in the present study. In this sense, peonidin-3-*p*-
411 hydroxybenzoylsophoroside-5-*O*-glucoside was identified based upon a molecular ion at m/z 907 and

412 fragmentation ions at m/z 745 that indicated the loss of glucose, and m/z 463 corresponding to the
413 elimination of sophorose and *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid. Another peonidin acylated with caffeic acid
414 and with a molecular ion of m/z 949 was identified as peonidin-3-caffeoyl-sophoroside-5-glucoside
415 based on the fragmentation ions at m/z 787 (loss of a glucose), and m/z 463 (loss of sophorose and
416 caffeic acid). Finally, a diacetylated peonidin derivative with molecular ion m/z 1069 and with a
417 fragmentation pattern of m/z 907 (loss of glucose) and m/z 463 (loss of sophorose and *p*-
418 hydroxybenzoic acid and caffeic acid) was assigned as peonidin 3-6 caffeoyl-6-*p*-
419 hydroxybenzoylsophoroside-5-glucoside (see figure 2B).

420

421 3.2.3. *Pelargonidin derivatives*

422 Pelargonidin derivatives have also been reported in few varieties of purple sweet potato (Truong et
423 al., 2010; Lee et al. 2013; Xu et al. 2015). In the present study two peaks corresponding to
424 pelargonidin derivatives were identified based in the presence of their characteristic aglycon fragment
425 of m/z 271. A peak with a molecular ion m/z 757 and producing m/z 595 and 433 during MSMS
426 fragmentation (indicative of the loss of a glucose and sophorose, respectively) was identified as
427 pelargonidin 3-sophoroside-5-glucoside. Another peak at m/z 877 and MSMS fragments at m/z 715
428 and 433 (loss of glucose and sophorose, respectively) was tentatively assigned to pelargonidin 3-*p*-
429 hydroxybenzoylsophoroside-5-glucoside (see figure 2C). To our knowledge, this is the first study
430 reporting this pelargonidin derivative in *Ipomoea batatas*.

431

432 3.2.4. *Effect of spray drying on anthocyanins*

433 Through several years, an important number of purple sweet potato varieties with different
434 anthocyanin content (ranging from 0.3 to 15 mg/g of DM) and profiles were bred and grown for their
435 potential health benefits (Kim et al. 2012; Xu et al. 2015). Our results showed that the content of
436 anthocyanin of purple sweet potato from Piura was within this range but present a relatively low
437 content (1.8 mg/g) compared with other varieties. Peonidin, cyanidin and pelargonidin derivatives,

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438 that constituted 45, 34 and 21 % of total anthocyanins respectively, were the predominant
439 anthocyanins present in *Ipomoea batatas* roots which agrees with that previously reported in different
440 varieties (Truong et al. 2010; Lee, Park, Choi & Jung, 2013). Most of them (92,8%) were mono or di
441 acylated (88 and 4,8%, respectively), being 3-*p*-hydroxybenzoylsophoroside the most abundant
442 acylated compound.

443 Anthocyanins are unstable and easily degraded under variations in temperature and pH conditions,
444 the presence of light and oxygen, among other factors (Hayashi et al. 1996). In the present study,
445 spray drying process greatly reduced (by 92.7%) the content of total anthocyanins. As was indicated
446 for the cinnamoylquinic acids, the high temperatures employed during the spray drying process might
447 explain the low retention of the different anthocyanins identified in the present study. Thermal
448 degradation of *Ipomoea batatas* anthocyanins (10-80 % reduction) under different cooking
449 techniques have been previously reported (Kim et al., 2012; Xu et al. 2015).

450 Regarding the spray drying process, in a previous study (Peng et al. 2013), where the retention of
451 total anthocyanins of a sweet potato puree was compared before and after being spray dried, a
452 degradation rate ranging from 15 to 50% was reported. The higher degradation of anthocyanins
453 observed in our study might be explained by the additional losses produced during the pureeing of
454 roots before being spray drying. In this sense, a loss of 30% anthocyanins was reported after 15
455 minutes to air exposure of cubes roots of purple sweet potato due to the action of polyphenol
456 peroxidase (de Aguiar Cipriano et al. 2015). These authors also reported a higher retention of
457 anthocyanins by the inactivation of this enzyme with a pre-treatment consisting in a combination of
458 heat (less 90°C) and some inhibiting agents, which was not employed in the present study.
459 Furthermore, the addition of water might also have increased the anthocyanins losses, as was
460 observed in *Ipomoea* roots when moist heat cooking (steaming, boiling) and dry heat cooking
461 techniques were compared (Kim et al. 2012).

462 The impact of spray drying process on the different individual anthocyanins present in *Ipomoea*
463 *batatas* was not been previously studied. In the present study, the losses seemed to be less pronounced

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464 for peonidin (89.5% reduction) than for cyanidin and pelargonidin derivatives (98 and 97.8%
465 reduction, respectively). Conversely, some authors (Xu et al. 2015) reported a higher thermal stability
466 of cyanidin than peonidin derivatives, whereas others (Kim et al. 2012) reported a similar response
467 of these anthocyanins when sweet potato was cooked under different techniques. Other factors such
468 as the degree of acylation and the nature of the acyl substituent might also affect the stability of
469 anthocyanins in *Ipomoea batatas*. It is well known that acylation with various phenolic acids make
470 anthocyanins more stable and resistant to heat and light (Hayashi et al. 1996). In this sense, the effect
471 of spray drying on anthocyanins varied with the acylation degree, being those mono acylated less
472 affected (86% reduction) than the ones di and non acylated (98.3 and 98.2 % reduction, respectively).
473 A similar response was also observed during cooking by Xu et al. (2015). These authors also reported
474 a higher thermal stability of anthocyanins acylated with *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid, followed by ferulic
475 acid and caffeic acid acylation. Similarly, in the present study peonidin-3-*p*-
476 hydroxybenzoylsophoroside-5-glucoside seemed to be the most stable anthocyanin.

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478 3.3. Flavonols

479 The characterization of flavonol mono and di *O*- glycosides was performed in the positive mode based
480 on the presence of their aglycon quercetin (*m/z* 303) and kaempferol (287) derived from the losses of
481 glucose (162) and sophorose (324) units during the MSMS fragmentation. The use of standards along
482 with the information of MS fragmentation reported in the literature (Qui et al. 2017), were used to
483 identify the different flavonol structures. Additional information of MSMS fragmentation data
484 acquired in negative mode and the relative presence and intensity of the aglycone fragment was also
485 used to discriminate among 3-*O* and 7-*O* glycosilation position (Qin, et al. 2017). Three peaks
486 releasing MS fragment at *m/z* 287, were identified as kaempferol derivatives. Two of them presented
487 a similar molecular ion at *m/z* 611 and were differentiated according to their fragment pattern and
488 elution order. The first one releasing MS fragment ion at *m/z* 449 and 287, and corresponding to the
489 consecutive loss of two glucose units (162) at different position, was tentatively identified as

490 kaempferol-3,7-di-*O*-glucoside. The second one releasing a unique fragment ion at *m/z* 287 and
491 compatible to the loss of a sophorose unit (324) was tentatively assigned to kaempferol-3-*O*-
492 sophoroside.

493 The last peak with a molecular ion at *m/z* 449 and MS fragment at *m/z* 287 was identified as
494 kaempferol 3-*O*-glucoside. On the other hand, another two peaks (*m/z* 627 and 465) releasing a
495 unique MS fragment at *m/z* 303 were assigned as quercetin derivatives. These peaks were also
496 identified based in their pattern of fragmentation indicating the loss of a sophorose or glucose units
497 as quercetin-3-*O*-sophoroside and quercetin 3-*O*-glucoside respectively.

498 The presence of quercetin and kaempferol glycosides in leaves and roots of *Ipomoea batatas* has been
499 reported in limited number of studies (Luo et al., 2013; Wang et al. 2018). Among them, Luo et al.
500 2013 also identified a quercetin dihexose in the leaves of *Ipomoea batatas*. Our results showed that
501 roots also contained a considerable amount of kaempferol-3-*O*-glucoside. As for the other groups of
502 polyphenols, spray drying process reduced greatly the content of flavonols (by 95%).

503

504 3.4. Free aromatic amino acids

505 Chromatographic conditions used in this study allowed the identification of some free amino acids
506 (AAs) containing aromatic groups such as tryptophan and phenylalanine. The presence of these
507 essential AAs was confirmed and quantified with commercial standards and is reported in table 4.

508 These AAs, precursor of many constituents of plants including phenolic compounds, are also
509 precursor of neurotransmitter in animals, and in the recent years, a number of important findings
510 related with their involvement on neuropsychiatric conditions have been reported (Strasser, Sperner-
511 Unterwger, Fuchs, & Gostner, 2016). Tryptophan, precursor of serotonin, is one of the most scarce
512 amino acid, and its content in foods is often claimed by exert a positive impact on cognitive and
513 mood. The presence of these free AAs was previously identified in sweet potato roots with distinctive
514 flesh colours (Qiu, Reynolds, Johanningsmeier & Truong, 2020). In the present study spray drying

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515 process increased the content of phenylalanine. This might indicate a protein hydrolysis with thermal
516 processing, as protein presents a lower thermal stability (below 100°C) than free AAs, where
517 degradation occurs at temperature above 150° (Rodante & Marrosu, 1990).

518

519 3.4. Conclusions

520 Purple sweet potato root (*Ipomoea batatas* L. Lam) is a good source of anthocyanins and CiQAs
521 derivatives. These compounds are normally separated and identified using different chromatographic
522 conditions and acquisition modes, and consequently only few studies report both phenolic groups
523 simultaneously. In the present study we report that purple root of *Ipomoea batatas* from Peru
524 commonly so-called “Camote morado de Piura” is a source of anthocyanins and caffeoylquinic acids
525 but also contain relevant amounts of feruloylquinic acid derivatives and flavonols. A total of nine
526 anthocyanins including peonidin, cyanidin and pelargonidin glycosylated with sophorose and/or
527 glucose and acylated with caffeic, ferulic and especially with p-hydroxybenzoic acid, were identified
528 in this variety. Twenty nine CiQA, including eight mono-CiQA, fifteen di-CiQA, and five tri-CiQA,
529 were identified on the base of their MS fragmentation profile. Besides the presence of mono and di
530 caffeoyl quinic acids in sweet potato has been widely described, an important number of new CiQAs
531 containing feruloyl moieties in their structures are reported here, to the best of our knowledge, for the
532 first time in *Ipomoea batatas*. Among them, the presence of 3 isomers of FQAs, and 7 isomers of
533 caffeoyl-*O*-feruloylquinic acid which were rarely documented in *Ipomoea*, accounted for a relevant
534 amount of the total cinnamoylquinic acid content.

535 Additionally, the presence of 3 isomers of diFQAs and 5 tri acyl quinic presenting feruloyl moieties
536 identified in this variety were not previously reported in *Ipomoea*. Finally, purple sweet potato roots
537 also contained flavonols such as kaempferol and quercetin glycosylated with sophorose and/or
538 glucose.

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539 The present study demonstrates that spray drying process of *Ipomoea* roots caused severe losses
540 (accounting for around 90%) in all the different phenolic groups, including cinnamoylquinic acid,
541 anthocyanin and flavonols. This negative effect is likely to result from a combination of the oxidation
542 produced during the pre-process and the degradation produced by the high temperatures used during
543 the spray-drying process. Among CiQAs, mono CiQAs and in particular those presenting feruloyl
544 moieties were the less affected compounds. Regarding anthocyanins, the negative effect of spray
545 drying seems to be affected by the degree of acylation and the nature of the acyl substituent, being
546 those mono acylated and containing p-hydroxybenoic acid the less affected compounds. Finally,
547 future studies are required to optimize the conditions employed before, and during the spray drying
548 process in order to better preserve the different bioactive substances present in *Ipomoea batatas* roots.

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735 **Fig 1.** Extracted ion chromatogram (EIC) of Cinnamoylquinic acid (CiQAs): (A) mono-CiQAs acids;
736 (B) di-CiQAs, (C) tri-CiQAs. 3CQA, 3 caffeoylquinic acid; 5CQA, 5 caffeoylquinic acid; 4CQA, 4
737 caffeoylquinic acid; 3FQA, 3 feruloylquinic acid; 4 feruloylquinic acid; 5FQA, 5 feruloylquinic acid;
738 3,4dCQA, 3,4-*O*-dicaffeoylquinic acid; 3,5dCQA, 3,5-*O*-dicaffeoylquinic acid; 4,5dCQA, 4,5-*O*-

Con formato: Sin Resaltar

739 dicaffeoylquinic acid; 3F4CQA, 3-*O*-feruloyl-4-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid; 3C4FQA, 3-*O*-caffeoyl-4-*O*-
740 feruloylquinic acid; 4F5CQA, 4-*O*-feruloyl-5-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid; 3F5CQA, 3-*O*-feruloyl-5-*O*-
741 caffeoylquinic acid; 3C5FQA, 3-*O*-caffeoyl-5-*O*-feruloylquinic acid; 4C5FQA, 4-*O*-caffeoyl-5-*O*-
742 feruloylquinic acid; 4F5CQA, 4-*O*-feruloyl-5-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid; 3,4dFQA, 3,4-*O*-
743 diferuloylquinic acid; 3,5dFQ, 3,5-*O*-diferuloylquinic acid; 4,5dFQA, 4,5-*O*-diferuloylquinic acid;
744 dCFQA, dicaffeoyl-*O*-feruloylquinic acid ; 3C45dFQA, 3-*O*-caffeoyl-4,5-*O*-diferuloylquinic acid;
745 34dF5CQA, 3,4-*O*-diferuloyl-5-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid; dCFQA, dicaffeoyl-*O*-feruloylquinic acid

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747 **Fig 2.** MSMS fragmentation spectrum of anthocyanins. (A) cyanidin-3-*O*-sophoroside-5-*O*-
748 glucoside; (B) peonidin-3-*O*-6-caffeoyl-6-*p*-hydroxybenzoylsophoroside-5-*O*-glucoside, and (C)
749 pelargonidin-3-*p*-hydroxybenzoylsophoroside-5-*O*-glucoside. Fragments were indicated as follows:
750 (M, mass; .glu, loss of glucose; -soph, loss of sophorose; -ph, loss of *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid; -ca, loss
751 of caffeic acid