

1 **Influence of pH, buffers and the role of quinolinic acid, a novel iron chelating agent, in the**  
2 **determination of hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of plant extracts by Electron**  
3 **Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR).**

4

5

6 Runnig title: Quinolinic acid ligand for hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of plant extracts.

7

8

9 Angela Fadda,<sup>a\*</sup> Antonio Barberis,<sup>a</sup> Daniele Sanna<sup>b</sup>

10

11 <sup>a</sup> Istituto di Scienze delle Produzioni Alimentari, Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Traversa La  
12 Crucca, 3. 07100 Sassari, Italy

13 <sup>b</sup> Istituto di Chimica Biomolecolare, Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Traversa La Crucca, 3.  
14 07100 Sassari, Italy

15

16 \* corresponding author: e-mail: [Angela.Fadda@ispa.cnr.it](mailto:Angela.Fadda@ispa.cnr.it)

17

18

19 **ABSTRACT**

20 The Fenton reaction is used to produce hydroxyl radicals for the evaluation of the antioxidant  
21 activity of plant extracts. In this paper the parameters affecting the production of hydroxyl radicals  
22 and their spin trapping with DMPO were studied. The use of quinolinic acid (Quin) as an Fe(II)  
23 ligand was proposed for antioxidant activity determination of Green tea, orange juice and asparagus  
24 extracts. Quin, buffers and pH affect the DMPO-OH signal intensity of the EPR spectra.  
25 Quin/Fe(II) and low pH enhance the  $\cdot\text{OH}$  generation. Phosphate and Tris-HCl buffers decrease the  
26 signal intensity measured in Fe(II)-sulfate and Fe(II)-Quin systems.

27 The extracts were analyzed with Fenton systems containing Fe(II)-sulfate and Fe(II)-Quin with and  
28 without buffer. The highest activity was shown with Fe(II)-Quin without buffer, this system being  
29 less influenced by pH and chelating agents present in the extracts. This paper will help researchers  
30 to better design spin trapping experiments for food matrices.

31

32 **Keywords:** food, hydroxyl radical scavenging activity, Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR),  
33 spin trapping, buffer effect, quinolinic acid.

34

## 35 **1. Introduction**

36 In the last decades there has been an increasing interest in the role of food antioxidants to  
37 prevent, or at least slow down, the onset of inflammatory and cardiovascular diseases,  
38 carcinogenesis and ageing. The importance of fruit and vegetable consumption in the prevention of  
39 oxidative stress related diseases has been reviewed (Zhang & Tsao, 2016), and is gaining great  
40 attention among consumers which are now aware of the health properties of food.

41 Fruit and vegetables are rich sources of anthocyanins, flavonoids, flavonols and tannins which are  
42 involved in the protection of cell macromolecules against oxidative stress caused by Reactive  
43 Oxygen Species (ROS) (Shahidi & Ambigaipalan, 2015). ROS are normally produced in cells but  
44 living organisms possess both enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant mechanisms to take  
45 control of their damaging effects. The hydroxyl radical ( $\cdot\text{OH}$ ) is one of the major causes of  
46 oxidative damage (Sakai, Imai, Ito, Takagaki, Ui, & Hatta, 2017), due to its high standard redox  
47 potential (2.8 V) and its low selectivity, reacting indiscriminately with lipids, proteins and nucleic  
48 acids (Salgado, Melin, Contreras, Moreno, & Mansilla, 2013).

49 Natural antioxidants (or fruit and vegetable antioxidants) have a strong hydroxyl radical  
50 scavenging activity (Calliste, Trouillas, Allais, & Duroux, 2005; Staško, Polovka, Brezová,  
51 Biskupič, & Malík, 2006; Braga, Lo Scalzo, Dal Sasso, Lattuada, Greco, & Fibiani, 2016). Due to  
52 their role against oxidative stress, the measurement of the radical scavenging activity of fruit and  
53 vegetable extracts is one of the most popular topics in food research. Amongst the methods  
54 developed to determine and quantify the antioxidants' hydroxyl radical scavenging activity, the spin  
55 trapping coupled with Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) spectroscopy is the most specific  
56 and reliable, and has been effectively employed to study the antioxidant properties of food,  
57 beverages and plant extracts (Calliste, et al., 2005; Staško, et al., 2006; Brezová, Šlebodová, &  
58 Staško, 2009; Azman, Peiró, Fajarí, Julià, & Almajano, 2014; Pérez-López, Pinzino, Quartacci,  
59 Ranieri, & Sgherri, 2014; Fadda & Sanna, 2015; Fadda, Pace, Angioni, Barberis, & Cefola, 2016).

60 The spin trapping method is based on the *in vitro* production of hydroxyl radicals, and on their  
61 entrapment with diamagnetic spin trap molecules to form relatively stable adducts that have  
62 paramagnetic resonance spectra detectable with EPR. In the spin trapping method, applied to food  
63 analysis, the DMPO (5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline *N*-oxide) is the most frequently used spin trap and  
64 hydroxyl radicals are generally produced by the Fenton reaction, even though some other hydroxyl  
65 radical generating systems such as Fenton-like reactions using Co(II)/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, Cu(I)/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Moore,  
66 Yin, & Yu, 2006), or the thermal decomposition of peroxydisulfate, K<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> (Staško, et al., 2006)  
67 have been employed.

68 In the analysis of hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of food based matrices several protocols  
69 have been reported differing in the spin trap concentration, the buffer and the ferrous chelating  
70 agent used. The effect of the DMPO concentration on the estimation of the radical scavenging  
71 activity has seldom been considered. Recently Fontmorin, Burgos Castillo, Tang, and Sillanpää  
72 (2016) studied the impact of DMPO concentration on the stability of DMPO-OH adduct in  
73 Advanced Oxidation Processes (AOPs) conditions. Regarding plant extracts analyses, the DMPO  
74 concentrations used were very different, ranging from 0.78 to 300 mM (Debnath, Park, Deb Nath,  
75 Samad, Park, & Lim, 2011; Braga, et al., 2016), and very few studies have been performed to  
76 optimize the DMPO concentrations in order to achieve a more reliable determination of hydroxyl  
77 radical scavenging activity.

78 Besides the spin trap concentration, in the analysis of plant extracts other variables, like the  
79 presence of buffers, the pH of the solution or the presence of iron chelating agents, may affect the  
80 production and the detection of the hydroxyl radical. Their impact on the Fenton reaction have  
81 rarely been reported, despite being of great importance in plant extract analysis, due to the presence  
82 in these samples of organic acids and natural iron chelating agents. In the literature, most of the  
83 reactions are performed at physiological pH, with the aim of mimicking the biological conditions  
84 where the food antioxidants should exert their effect, and phosphate is the most commonly used  
85 buffer. Despite its broad use, it was demonstrated that the intensity of the EPR signal of the DMPO-

86 OH adduct in this medium was remarkably lower than in other buffers (Tris-HCl, sodium acetate,  
87 sodium trifluoroacetate) (Li, Abe, Mashino, Mochizuki, & Miyata, 2003). For this reason the same  
88 authors claimed that the DMPO-OH adduct can be detected, by EPR spectroscopy in phosphate  
89 buffer, only when high concentrations of spin trap are used (Li, et al., 2004).

90 Fe(II) is relatively stable in acidic media (Babuponnusami and Muthukumar, 2014), whereas at  
91 physiological pH values it is readily oxidized, making necessary the use of an inert gas to prevent  
92 its oxidation, thus complicating the experimental procedure.

93 On the basis of these considerations, the present study was designed to evaluate the influence of pH,  
94 buffers and DMPO concentration in the production, with the Fenton reaction, and determination, by  
95 spin trapping with DMPO, of the hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of plant extracts.

96 Moreover we propose an improvement of the method for hydroxyl radical scavenging activity  
97 estimation of plant extracts, based on the use of quinolinic acid as Fe(II) ligand in the Fenton  
98 reaction system, with the aim of minimizing the effects of pH, providing easier handling of the  
99 solutions and save reactants.

100

101

## 102 **2. Materials and methods**

103

### 104 *2.1. Chemicals*

105 All reagents and solvents were of analytical grade, unless otherwise specified, and used without  
106 further purification. Quinolinic acid (pyridine-2,3-dicarboxylic acid), ferrous sulfate heptahydrate,  
107 phosphate, Tris-HCl (2-amino-2-(hydroxymethyl)propane-1,3-diol hydrochloride) buffers and  
108 hydrogen peroxide (30% w/w) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. DMPO (5,5-dimethyl-1-  
109 pyrroline *N*-oxide) was purchased from Enzo Life Sciences. Water was purified with a Milli-Q  
110 system from Millipore (Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA).

111

112 2.2. *Food extracts preparation*

113

114 2.2.1. *Java Green Tea*

115 A commercial green tea was purchased from a retail outlet. According to the producer's instructions  
116 the java green tea infusion was prepared by pouring 100 ml of distilled water at 80 °C over a 2 g  
117 bag in a beaker. After 5 minutes of infusion the tea was cooled and filtered (Whatman 113). Five  
118 independent replicates were carried out.

119

120 2.2.2. *Orange juice*

121 Oranges (*Citrus sinensis* L. cv Hamlin) were harvested at the experimental orchard of the Institute  
122 of the Sciences of Food Production located in central western Sardinia. The juice was obtained by  
123 squeezing 5 fruits per replication (five independent replicates) with a commercial juicer. Before  
124 analysis the juice was centrifuged (13,000 rpm for 15 min) and filtered (0.45 µm acetate cellulose  
125 filter).

126

127 2.2.3. *Purple asparagus extracts*

128 Asparagus spears (*Asparagus officinalis* L. cv Purple passion) were purchased at the local market.  
129 The spears were delivered to the laboratory and selected to be free of damages and defects. Sound  
130 spears were cut 15 cm from head with a steel knife. Asparagus spears (five independent replicates  
131 of 5 g each) were homogenized at 13,000 rpm for 1 minute (Ultra-Turrax, T25 Basic IKA,  
132 Germany) in a methanol / water solution (80% MeOH). The homogenates were centrifuged at 6,000  
133 rpm for 10 minutes, then the organic extracts were filtered with n. 4 Wathman filter paper.

134

135

136

137

138 2.3. Spin trapping assay of the  $\cdot OH$  radical

139

140 2.3.1. Spin trapping assay

141 The hydroxyl radicals were generated by the Fenton reaction and trapped with the nitron spin trap  
142 DMPO. In the Fenton reaction iron(II) is oxidized by hydrogen peroxide to iron(III) generating an  
143 hydroxyl radical and a hydroxide ion. In this work we used Fe(II)-sulfate or Fe(II)-quinolinic acid  
144 (Quin) complex as Fe(II) sources. The Fe(II)-Quin complex was prepared by dissolving in water  
145 weighed amounts of FeSO<sub>4</sub> and quinolinic acid in order to have a concentration of Fe(II) of 0.1 mM  
146 and a ligand to metal ratio of 5/1.

147 The DMPO-OH adduct was obtained by mixing a DMPO solution with hydrogen peroxide 0.03%  
148 (w/w) (100  $\mu$ l) and Fe(II)-sulfate or Fe(II)-quinolinic acid complex 0.1 mM (100  $\mu$ l) to a final  
149 volume of 1 ml with water. Fe(II)-sulfate solution was deoxygenated under continuous nitrogen  
150 bubbling (in this case the added water was also deoxygenated) in order to keep iron in the ferrous  
151 form, whereas for Fe(II)-Quin complex no deoxygenation was needed.

152 The DMPO-OH adduct was detected with a Bruker EMX spectrometer operating at the X-band  
153 (9.4 GHz) equipped with an HP 53150A microwave frequency counter using a Bruker AquaX  
154 capillary cell. With this cell it is possible to keep constant the value of Q (the quality factor of the  
155 resonator) during sample measurements thus allowing quantitative comparisons of the intensity of  
156 EPR signals to be made. Spin trapping experiments with DMPO can be used to calculate the  
157 concentration of the DMPO-OH adduct, demonstrating the reliability of the method (Eaton, 2010).

158 All the measurements were always compared to a blank sample measured under the same  
159 conditions.

160 An EPR instrument was set under the following conditions: modulation frequency, 100 kHz;  
161 modulation amplitude, 1 G; receiver gain,  $1 \times 10^5$ ; microwave power, 20 mW. This microwave  
162 power, using the Bruker ER 4119HS resonator, is below the saturation level. EPR spectra were  
163 recorded at room temperature, immediately after the preparation of the reaction mixture. The

164 intensity of the spin adduct DMPO-OH was estimated from the double integration of spectra. For  
165 the experiments without plant extracts three independent replicates were performed and data are  
166 reported as mean and standard deviation.

167

168

### 169 *2.3.2. Effect of pH, buffers and DMPO concentration on DMPO-OH signal intensity*

170 To assess the effect of pH on DMPO-OH adduct generation an aliquot of DMPO solution was  
171 acidified to pH ~1, using concentrated sulfuric acid, then added to the reaction mixture as described  
172 above.

173 In order to evaluate the effect of DMPO concentration on DMPO-OH signal intensities the  
174 following final DMPO concentrations were tested: 0.6, 1, 3, 6 and 10 mM ; whereas the effect of  
175 buffers on DMPO-OH yield was evaluated by carrying out the reactions in phosphate or Tris-HCl  
176 buffers (both at pH 7.4), at final concentrations ranging from 0 to 70 mM.

177

178

### 179 *2.4. Antioxidant activity of food extracts*

180 On the basis of the literature data and on the results obtained in the previous analyses, the  $\cdot\text{OH}$   
181 quenching activity of the plant extracts was determined in reaction systems containing: i) Fe(II)  
182 sulfate solution in 20 mM phosphate buffer and DMPO at the final concentration of 10 mM; ii)  
183 Fe(II)-Quin complex without any buffer and DMPO at the final concentration of 0.6 mM; iii)  
184 Fe(II)-Quin complex in 20 mM phosphate buffer solution and DMPO at the final concentration of  
185 0.6 mM.

186 In order to have a direct comparison of the outcomes provided by the three systems employed, in  
187 each of them the same amount of extract was used: 100  $\mu\text{l}$  of diluted orange juice, 200  $\mu\text{l}$  of diluted  
188 asparagus extract and 100  $\mu\text{l}$  of diluted Java green tea infusion.



189 Results are expressed as percentage of inhibition calculated as follows: percent of inhibition =  $100 \times$   
190  $(I_0 - I_S)/I_0$ , where  $I_0$  is the intensity of the signal of the spin adduct without the extract and  $I_S$  is the  
191 intensity of the signal of the adduct after the reaction with the extract. Five replications were  
192 performed for each extract.

193

194

### 195 *2.5. Statistical analysis*

196 Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism6 for Windows software (GraphPad  
197 software. Inc., La Jolla, CA92037, USA). A one-way ANOVA was carried out to compare DMPO-  
198 OH signal intensities obtained with different DMPO or buffer concentrations, using a unifactorial  
199 complete randomized block design. Mean separation was calculated by the Fisher's least  
200 significance test at  $P \leq 0.05$ . A student's *t*-test was performed to compare the DMPO-OH signal  
201 intensities obtained in systems with phosphate or Tris-HCl buffers at the same final concentration  
202 and to compare DMPO-OH signal intensities obtained in systems with Fe(II) sulfate or Fe(II)-Quin  
203 complex at the same DMPO concentration.

204

205

## 206 **3. Results and discussion**

207

### 208 *3.1. Effect of quinolinic acid-iron(II) complex on hydroxyl radical production*

209 In the presence of the spin trap DMPO, the hydroxyl radicals produced in the Fenton reaction are  
210 trapped and the signal of the DMPO-OH adduct can be recorded with an EPR spectrometer. The  
211 typical EPR signal of the DMPO-OH radical adduct is shown in Fig. 1. The spectrum is a four line  
212 signal with the following hyperfine splitting constants  $a_N = a_H = 14.9$  G.

213 The effect on hydroxyl radical formation and EPR spin trapping analysis of Fe(II) and  $H_2O_2$   
214 concentrations, incubation time and light exposure during sample preparation, have been reported in

215 the literature (Fontmorin, et al., 2016; Jeong, et al., 2016). The effects of these variables were  
216 studied with the aim of optimizing the conditions of trials designed for EPR spin trapping  
217 applications different from food analysis.

218 Due to the presence in plant extracts of natural chelating agents the choice of a proper Fe(II) ligand  
219 is of great importance. In this paper, with the aim of optimizing the conditions for hydroxyl radical  
220 scavenging analysis, we propose the use of quinolinic acid (Quin) as a novel chelating agent in food  
221 chemistry applications. Quinolinic acid is a neurotoxin involved in the pathogenesis of several brain  
222 disorders (Guillemin, 2012). It forms coordination complexes with Fe(II), coordinating by  
223 carboxylate and pyridine nitrogen atom. This coordination pattern gives the complex intermediate  
224 characteristics between those with oxygen and nitrogen donors (Pláteník, Stopka, Vejražka, &  
225 Štípek, 2001). The stability constants of the iron(II)-complexes formed by quinolinic acid were  
226 previously reported in the literature (Pláteník, et al., 2001). In a Fenton reaction system the  
227 chelation of iron regulates its reactivity. The presence of iron chelators affects the redox potential of  
228 the couple Fe(III)/Fe(II), but the extent and the sign of this change depends on the ligand present in  
229 solution. As a general rule ligands with oxygen atoms as donors stabilize iron(III) and decrease the  
230 iron reduction potential thus making the oxidation easier. Desferal is an example of such a ligand:  
231 its presence in the Fenton reaction system completely inhibited  $\cdot\text{OH}$  production as shown by the  
232 lack of EPR signal (Šnyrychová, Pospíšil, & Nauš, 2006). Conversely, ligands like phenantroline or  
233 2,2'-bipyridine with nitrogen atoms as donors, stabilize iron(II) and increase the iron reduction  
234 potential making iron(II) unreactive.

235 EDTA (ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid), DETAPAC (diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid), DTPA  
236 (Diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid) citric and oxalic acid are some of the most studied iron  
237 ligands. They have been studied to assess their effect on Fe(II) autoxidation (Welch, Davis, & Aust,  
238 2002) and the effect of iron chelation on hydroxyl radical generation (Yamazaki & Piette, 1990;  
239 Šnyrychová, et al., 2006). According to Yamazaki, et al. (1990) the production of hydroxyl radical  
240 is strongly influenced by the nature of the iron ligand used and increases in the order: phosphate <

241 ADP (adenosine 5'-diphosphate) < EDTA < DETAPAC. Similarly Li, et al. (2007) demonstrated  
242 that chelating agents like EDTA increased the formation of hydroxyl radicals in the Fenton reaction,  
243 but they also observed an enhancement of the quenching effect of the DMPO-OH adduct operated  
244 by Fe(II) ions in the presence of ligands. The effect of chelators on the rate of hydroxyl radicals  
245 generation depends on the chelator/Fe(II) ratio (Yoshimura, Matsuzaki, Watanabe, Uchiyama,  
246 Ohsawa, & Imaeda, 1992; Engelmann, Bobier, Hiatt, & Cheng, 2003).

247 In accordance with previous studies, chelation of iron(II) with quinolinic acid at a ratio of 5:1  
248 significantly enhanced the hydroxyl radical generation (Iwahashi, Kawamori, & Fukushima, 1999;  
249 Pláteník, et al., 2001). As shown in Fig. 2 in the Fenton reaction mixture with no buffer, DMPO 10  
250 mM and Fe(II)-Quin complex (Fe(II) 0.01 mM) the DMPO-OH signal intensity was more than  
251 twice the intensity measured in reaction mixtures with Fe(II)-sulfate alone (~ 147 % increase).

252 Kubicova, Hadacek, Weckwerth, and Chobot (2015) reported a complicated milieu-dependent  
253 effect related to Quin coordination chemistry. With Quin-Fe(II) ratios of 1:1, 1:2, 3:1 and 4:1 these  
254 authors described a Quin antioxidant activity, rather than a pro-oxidant one, due to the inhibition of  
255 the iron catalytic activity. In chemical systems the antioxidant or prooxidant action of metal  
256 chelators seem to depend on the chelator/metal ratio (Engelmann, et al., 2003; Šnyrychová, et al.,  
257 2006). In this study we used a high Quin/Fe(II) ratio (5:1) that increases the  $\cdot$ OH production.

258 The strong enhancement of DMPO-OH production observed in this study may be the result of the  
259 concomitant effect of the ligand, with an appropriate chelator/metal ratio, and pH. In fact, as shown  
260 below, Fe(II) is particularly sensitive to pH changes of the reaction mixture, while this effect  
261 considerably diminishes in the presence of quinolinic acid. Indeed, the pH values of the solution  
262 mixtures containing DMPO and Fe(II)-sulfate are higher than those of Fe(II)-Quin solutions and  
263 DMPO because of the buffer capacity of Quin. In particular, the signal intensity of the DMPO-OH  
264 adduct, in the system containing Fe(II)-sulfate, decreases as the pH of the reaction mixture  
265 increases. In order to distinguish between these two effects the reaction was carried out at pH 7.4 in  
266 phosphate buffer 20 mM (Fig.2). In this condition the DMPO-OH signal intensity of the Fe(II)-

267 Quin complex was still significantly high, but the extent of the increase was reduced (~68 %  
268 increase).

269 This result prompted us to study the effect of buffers on the DMPO-OH adduct generation in Fenton  
270 systems with quinolinic acid as iron chelator. The effect of chelators like DETAPAC and EDTA on  
271 the generation of hydroxyl radical depends on the buffers used; with no chelating buffers (Hepes  
272 and MOPS) the production of hydroxyl radical is strongly reduced, whereas buffers with high  
273 affinity for iron (phosphate buffer) foster the generation of  $\cdot\text{OH}$  (Yoshimura, et al., 1992).

274

275

### 276 *3.2. Effect of buffers on DMPO-OH adduct signal intensity*

277 The presence of buffers in the Fenton reaction mixture affects the hydroxyl radical production.

278 The production of  $\text{OH}\cdot$  *via* Fenton reaction was markedly reduced in buffer solutions both when  
279 Fe(II)-sulfate or Fe(II)-Quin complex were employed (Fig. 2, Fig. 3).

280 The effect of phosphate and Tris-HCl buffer concentration on DMPO-OH adduct yield in the Fe(II)-  
281 Quin system is shown in Fig. 3. The EPR signal of the DMPO-OH adduct was reduced by ~53%  
282 and ~88% when the Fenton reaction was carried out in 70 mM phosphate and Tris-HCl buffer  
283 solutions, respectively.

284 The influence of the phosphate buffer solution on the signal intensity of the DMPO-OH adduct was  
285 significant up to a concentration of 10 mM, after which an increase of buffer concentration did not  
286 cause any further statistically significant decrease in signal intensity. By contrast in Tris-HCl buffer  
287 the DMPO-OH signal intensity decreased with increasing buffer concentration. The influence of  
288 buffer on the production of DMPO-OH was stronger in Tris-HCl solutions than in phosphate buffer.

289 In the Fenton reaction systems, the presence of chelators and chelating buffers change the reactivity  
290 of iron by changing the standard reduction potential of the couple Fe(III)/Fe(II). Moreover buffers  
291 can scavenge hydroxyl radicals thus decreasing the amount of the DMPO-OH adduct. In a reaction  
292 mixture with no chelating agents Yoshimura, et al. (1992), showed a significant decrease of the

293 production of  $\cdot\text{OH}$  in phosphate buffer and a slight decrease in Tris-HCl solutions. These authors,  
294 ascribed this effect to a weak iron binding capacity of Tris-HCl and to a high rate of Fe(II)  
295 autoxidation in phosphate buffer. In the present work the addition of Quin gave opposite results:  
296 with the exception of the lowest concentration of buffer tested (2 mM), the generation of DMPO-  
297 OH adduct was significantly lower in Tris-HCl than in phosphate solutions. This confirms the  
298 hypothesis that the addition of iron ligands to buffer solutions with low affinity (Tris-HCl) for iron  
299 reduces or inhibits the generation of  $\cdot\text{OH}$ , conversely iron chelating buffers (phosphate) enhance the  
300 radical production (Yoshimura, et al., 1992). Our results are in agreement with Khosravifarsani,  
301 Shabestani-Monfared, Pouramir and Zabihi (2016) who demonstrated that tris-HCl buffer is a  
302 stronger  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radical scavenger than phosphate at pH 7.0.

303 The amount of DMPO-OH adduct detected by EPR may be the result of hydroxyl radical  
304 production and of other secondary reactions involving the quenching of DMPO-OH adduct by Fe(II).  
305 Li, et al. (2004) demonstrated that the EPR signal of the DMPO-OH adduct disappear rapidly in  
306 presence of an excess of Fe(II) ions and this effect was enhanced when phosphate was added to the  
307 reaction mixture. At present no data are available on the quenching of DMPO-OH adduct by Tris-  
308 HCl buffer however the involvement of secondary reactions based on the reduction of DMPO-OH  
309 adduct by Fe(II) could be supposed. Given the sharp decrease of the DMPO-OH signal intensity in  
310 Tris-HCl buffer, the following experiments were performed in phosphate buffer solution, which is  
311 the most widely adopted medium to simulate biological systems and is frequently used for *in vitro*  
312 determination of hydroxyl radical scavenging activity (Khan, et al., 2003; Calliste, et al., 2005;  
313 Garcia-Alonso, et al., 2005).

314 The experiments with phosphate buffer only were set up to evaluate the effect of this medium in  
315 Fenton reaction systems with chelated and unchelated Fe(II) (Fig. 2). The Fe(II)-Quin complex, in  
316 the Fenton reaction, produced more hydroxyl radicals than Fe(II)-sulfate alone both with and  
317 without buffer. In the Fenton reaction mixture with no buffer the DMPO-OH signal intensity  
318 showed by the Fe(II)-Quin complex was more than twice that of Fe(II) alone. As already discussed

319 in this paragraph, phosphate buffer 20 mM significantly reduced the DMPO-OH adduct production  
320 of Fe(II)-Quin complex, whereas it had no significant effect on the yield of hydroxyl radicals  
321 produced by Fe(II) alone. The amount of DMPO-OH adduct detected in Fenton reaction systems  
322 with Fe(II)-sulfate strongly depends on the pH of the solution. Without buffer the pH of the reaction  
323 mixture was ca.8 as the DMPO solution is alkaline (pH ~ 9); in this situation only the continuous  
324 nitrogen bubbling of the stock iron(II) solution (pH ~ 5.3) and water prevents the rapid oxidation of  
325 iron.

326 Phosphate 20 mM buffered the solution at pH 7.4 which is quite close to the pH of the un-buffered  
327 solution and it isn't low enough to avoid partial Fe(II) oxidation.

328

### 329 *3.3. Effect of pH on hydroxyl radical formation*

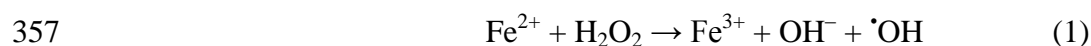
330 Fruits and plant extracts are rich in antioxidant compounds and organic acids whose composition  
331 and concentration is extremely variable. In the studies of the antioxidant properties of fruit juices or  
332 food extracts the presence of organic acids and their effect on the pH of the reaction mixture is  
333 seldom considered, however it can affect the determination of the hydroxyl radical scavenging  
334 activity.

335 The effect of pH on DMPO-OH adduct signal intensity was studied by adjusting the pH of the  
336 DMPO solution (initially pH ~ 9) to 1.4 and it was compared to solutions with no acidified DMPO.  
337 Moreover two concentrations of DMPO were evaluated with the aim to study the effect of the spin  
338 trap concentration on the changes of pH in the reaction mixture. As shown in Fig. 4 with no  
339 acidified DMPO the pH of the solution is strongly affected by the DMPO concentration. With the  
340 highest DMPO concentration used, the pH of the solution was about 8, whereas with the lowest one  
341 the pH was reduced to 5. This effect could be explained considering that the DMPO has a  $pK_a$  value  
342 of 5.99, therefore a DMPO solution  $10^{-2}$  M, that is the highest concentration used, has a pH of  
343 about 9. A DMPO solution 1 mM has a pH of about 8 and is much more affected by the acidity of  
344 the Fe(II) solution.

345 The DMPO-OH signal intensity is strongly influenced by the pH of the solution. The signal  
346 intensity measured in the reaction mixture with not acidified 10 mM DMPO is 3-fold lower than  
347 that measured with acidified DMPO. The same was not found for DMPO solutions 1 mM: in this  
348 case un-acidified DMPO gave quite similar adduct signal intensity to acidified DMPO, with no  
349 statistical differences observed (Fig. 4). It worth noticing that the pH of both solutions is between 4  
350 and 5, that is close to optimal pH for the Fenton reaction (Salgado, et al., 2013). The observed link  
351 between  $\cdot\text{OH}$  production and pH is in line with Yehia, Eshaq, and ElMetwally (2016) who observed  
352 a decrease of nitrophenol degradation by  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radicals with increasing pH values.

353 The strong relationship between DMPO-OH signal intensity and pH resides on the effect of pH on  
354 the Fenton reaction (Babuponnusami and Muthukumar, 2014). In this reaction,  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  reacts with  
355  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  producing hydroxyl radicals. The reaction is usually written in the following form (1):

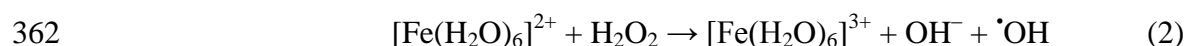
356



358

359 however in acidic aqueous solutions  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  do not exist as naked ions but as aqua-  
360 complexes, thus it is more correct to write (1) in the following way:

361



363

364 The existence of the hexaaquairon(III) depends on pH; it exists at very acidic pH since its  $\text{p}K_a$  value  
365 is 2.19, but at higher pH values other hydrolytic species are formed. By contrast the  $\text{p}K_a$  of  
366  $[\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6]^{2+}$  is much higher (9.5), meaning that it is stable in neutral aqueous solutions. Therefore,  
367 considering the hydrolysis of the metal ions only, the Fenton reaction could be carried out in neutral  
368 aqueous solutions, however Fe(II) is very sensitive to atmospheric oxygen. Even with very low  
369 oxygen concentration Fe(II) is oxidized to Fe(III) and the oxidation is easier at high pH values due

370 to the pH dependence of the standard reduction potential of the couple Fe(III)/Fe(II)  
371 (Babuponnusami and Muthukumar, 2014).

372

373

#### 374 *3.4. Effect of DMPO concentration on the production of hydroxyl radicals*

375 The effect of DMPO concentration on adduct signal intensity was studied in reaction systems with  
376 chelated and unchelated Fe(II). No signal was detected when Fe(II) sulfate (unchelated Fe) was  
377 used with DMPO at a final concentration of 0.6 mM, the lowest used in this test. This could be  
378 explained considering that Fe(II) sulfate, in these conditions, produced a relatively low flux of  
379 hydroxyl radical. In this situation the spin trap concentration must be quite high to trap the hydroxyl  
380 radicals and produce the adduct.

381 The effect of pH on the production of hydroxyl radicals in solutions of unchelated Fe(II) was  
382 discussed above. Since the DMPO solution has a relatively high pH value, it is expected that, when  
383 high concentrations of this spin trap is used, the pH value of the reaction mixture becomes high  
384 disfavoring the production of hydroxyl radicals. To check the effect of DMPO concentration and  
385 to eliminate the pH effect, the DMPO solution was acidified (pH 1.4).

386 The effect of DMPO concentration on DMPO-OH signal intensity is reported in Fig. 5. The  
387 intensity of the DMPO-OH adduct increased with increasing concentrations of DMPO. These  
388 results agree with those of Fontmorin, et al. (2016) who found an increment of the peak to peak  
389 amplitude of the DMPO-OH adduct signal with increasing DMPO concentrations. According to  
390 these authors to ensure a reliable hydroxyl radical detection, the proper DMPO concentration should  
391 be set on the basis of Fe(II) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Fontmorin, et al., 2016).

392 Under the conditions used in the present study, the DMPO-OH adduct signal consisted only in a  
393 four lines spectrum as in Fig. 1. No other EPR detectable by-products could be identified. By  
394 contrast Fontmorin, et al. (2016), depending on the DMPO concentration tested, observed a  
395 combination of quartet and triplet spectra. According to these authors the presence of triplet lines



396 was clearly evident when the DMPO concentration was lowered to 5 mM and the DMPO/Fe(II) was  
397 10. In the present work, with very similar DMPO concentrations (3-6 mM) but higher DMPO ratio  
398 (300-600), the triplet was not detected thus confirming the key influence of the DMPO/Fe(II)  
399 ratio on the reliability of DMPO-OH detection.

400 In reaction systems with Fe(II) sulfate, the highest signal intensity was detected with DMPO/Fe  
401 ratio between 300 and 600, which corresponds to a final DMPO concentration of 3 and 6 mM  
402 respectively. A further increase of DMPO/Fe ratio caused a significant reduction of the adduct  
403 signal intensity, that was comparable to that obtained with a DMPO concentration 10 times lower  
404 (Fig. 5).

405 In the Fenton reaction with Fe(II)-Quin complex as a source of Fe(II), no DMPO acidification was  
406 necessary. The highest DMPO-OH signal intensity was detected at a DMPO/Fe ratio of 100 and no  
407 significant differences were observed with concentrations 3 and 6 fold higher (Fig. 5). These results  
408 demonstrate that the DMPO concentration should be set not only on the basis of DMPO/Fe(II) ratio  
409 as previously reported, but also on the presence of Fe(II) ligands in the reaction system.

410 Even with Fe(II)-Quin an increase of DMPO concentration (final concentration 10 mM) caused a  
411 significant decrease of the adduct signal intensity. The significant decrease of the adduct intensity  
412 signal, observed at DMPO concentration higher than 6 mM, could be explained considering a  
413 quenching effect of DMPO itself on DMPO-OH.

414 The outcomes presented in this section demonstrate that the efficiency of the DMPO-OH adduct  
415 formation depends not only on the effectiveness of the hydroxyl radical generation but also on the  
416 DMPO concentration.

417

418

419

420

421

422 3.5. Hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of plant extracts.

423 In the analysis of food antioxidant properties, the use of EPR and the spin trapping technique for the  
424 determination of the hydroxyl radical scavenging activity is gaining great attention (Pérez-López, et  
425 al., 2014; Braga, et al., 2016). In this manuscript the radical scavenging activity of *Asparagus*  
426 *officinalis* extract, Hamlin orange juice and Java Green Tea infusion were evaluated. The choice of  
427 these extracts was based on their different chemical compositions. As reported in our previous  
428 work, epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG) was the most abundant compound in java green tea together  
429 with other catechins, purine alkaloids and flavonol glycosides (Fadda, Serra, Molinu, Azara,  
430 Barberis, & Sanna, 2014). Hamlin Juice was rich in L-ascorbic acid (79 mg/100 ml) followed by  
431 Hesperidin (40 mg/100 ml) (Barberis, et al., 2014), whereas, in Purple Passion asparagus spears,  
432 rutin was the most abundant phenolic compound (Maeda, et al., 2005).

433 The hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of plant extracts was determined using: i) Fe(II) sulfate  
434 solution in phosphate buffer, ii) Fe(II)-Quin complex without any buffer, iii) Fe(II)-Quin complex  
435 in phosphate buffer solution (Fig. 6). With the aim to provide a direct comparison among the  
436 experimental conditions applied, the same amount of extract was used (see experimental). As  
437 reported in previous paragraphs the three systems generated different amounts of  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radical  
438 which resulted, in the case of Asparagus extract and Orange juice, in different radical scavenging  
439 activities. Asparagus extracts had a  $\cdot\text{OH}$  radical scavenging activity ranging from 20.3% to 49.7%  
440 determined in reaction systems containing buffered Fe(II)-sulfate and no buffered Fe(II)-Quin  
441 complex solutions, respectively. No statistical differences were observed between scavenging  
442 activities obtained in buffered solutions of Fe(II) sulfate and Fe(II)-Quin complex. Even with  
443 orange juice the highest activity was shown in reaction systems with Fe(II)-Quin complex with no  
444 buffer. No differences were observed between radical scavenging activities measured in Fe(II)-Quin  
445 and buffered Fe(II)-sulfate reaction systems, whereas the reaction carried out in buffered Fe(II)-  
446 Quin complex system gave remarkably lower antioxidant values. Conversely, in Java Green Tea no  
447 significant differences could be found among the Fenton reaction systems applied. These results

448 highlight a strong influence of the experimental conditions on the evaluation of the radical  
449 scavenging activity of food produce. Orange juice, asparagus extract and Java Green Tea showed  
450 the highest radical scavenging activity in reactions with no buffer and with the Fe(II)-Quin complex  
451 as Fe(II) source. The presence of phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) in the reaction mixture has a different  
452 effect depending on the sample analyzed and whether or not Fe(II) coordinating ligands are present.  
453 However, considering the samples analyzed no general rule can be identified and no unequivocal  
454 explanation can be provided.

455 The different behaviour of the plant extracts with the three systems could be explained by  
456 hypothesizing the presence in the food matrices of iron coordinating compounds, which can change  
457 the reactivity of the metal ion and the potential of the couple Fe(III)/Fe(II), leading to different  
458 amounts of generated hydroxyl radicals. In orange juice, for example, the main compounds are L-  
459 ascorbic acid and hesperidin which have low iron chelating activity (Mladěnka, et al., 2011; Senol,  
460 2016). By contrast rutin, the main component of asparagus spears, is able to chelate iron thus  
461 affecting the hydroxyl radical generation in buffered Fe(II)-sulfate reaction system, but not in  
462 Fe(II)-Quin system, where the presence of Quin compensates for the effects of rutin (Lue, Nielsen,  
463 Jacobsen, Hellgren, Guo, & Xu, 2010). In EGCG, the main compound of Java Green tea, the  
464 presence of two gallate residues makes it a stronger iron complexing agent than Quin and phosphate  
465 buffer, thus overcoming their effects in the reaction systems. The Fe coordinating properties of  
466 EGCG could probably explain the lack of differences observed in the three experimental conditions  
467 tested (Fig. 6B).

468 As seen before, quinolinic acid can be considered a ligand which stabilizes both oxidation states,  
469 Fe(II) and Fe(III), making the Fenton reaction more manageable. However, in plant extract iron  
470 coordination compounds, like EGCG, can be present and the resulting complexes could be more  
471 stable than those formed with quinolinic acid, therefore changing the reactivity of the metal ion.

472

473

474

#### 475 **4. Conclusions**

476 In this work we examined the variables involved in the generation of the hydroxyl radical with the  
477 Fenton reaction and in its detection by spin trapping with DMPO, as well as the effects of buffers  
478 on the intensity of the DMPO-OH adduct. The DMPO-OH signal intensity depends on the pH of the  
479 measuring system: low pH values enhance the signal intensity, while high values lower the  
480 hydroxyl radical generation thus reducing the adduct signal.

481 The effect of DMPO concentration on DMPO-OH adduct signal intensity has been barely studied,  
482 with only one report on this topic in the literature. Our results confirm that the efficiency of the  
483 DMPO-OH formation depends not only on the effectiveness of the hydroxyl radical generation but  
484 also on the DMPO concentration. In reaction systems with Fe(II) sulfate the highest signal intensity  
485 was detected with DMPO/Fe ratio between 300 and 600, while in those with Fe(II)-Quin the highest  
486 signal intensity was detected at lower DMPO/Fe ratio (100). The presence of Quin in the reaction  
487 system decreases the DMPO concentration necessary to achieve a reliable DMPO-OH detection.  
488 These results demonstrate that the presence of Fe(II) ligands should be taken into account when  
489 setting the proper DMPO concentration.

490 Since antioxidants present in foods should exert their effects in physiological conditions, buffers are  
491 frequently used to mimic these conditions; however, our results demonstrate that their presence in  
492 the measuring system decrease the adduct signal intensity. At the same concentrations Tris-HCl  
493 buffer gave significantly lower intensities of the DMPO-OH adduct than phosphate buffer.

494 The effect of Quin as Fe(II) ligand on hydroxyl radical generation and on radical scavenging  
495 activity determination was also studied. The choice of the chelating agent is a critical point due to  
496 its effect on iron reactivity. Quinolinic acid seems to be a good compromise stabilizing both  
497 oxidation states, Fe(II) and Fe(III). The  $\cdot\text{OH}$  generating system with Fe(II)-Quin produces more  
498 hydroxyl radicals than Fe(II) alone, making, at the same time, the Fenton reaction more manageable  
499 by avoiding the bubbling of nitrogen or other inert gas necessary to slow down spontaneous

500 oxidation of Fe(II) by atmospheric oxygen. Moreover, the Fenton system containing quinolinic acid  
501 is less influenced by the pH of the solution. Another advantage of Fe(II)/Quin/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> hydroxyl  
502 generating system is the use of very low DMPO concentrations allowing for more economic and  
503 environmentally friendly analyses. In addition, Fe(II)-Quin complex solution stored at room  
504 temperature, has the advantage of being stable for several days as no DMPO-OH signal decay was  
505 observed when repeating the experiments one week after the preparation of the solution. Since the  
506 Fe(II)-Quin solution can be stored and used in more than one experiment, buffers and inert gases  
507 are avoided, the proposed method permits saving of time and resources.

508 This is the first time that quinolinic acid has been used for the hydroxyl radical determination of  
509 plant and food extracts. The food matrices (Java green tea, asparagus extracts, blond orange juice)  
510 analyzed showed different radical scavenging activities depending on the system employed to  
511 measure it. The Fe(II)-Quin system seems to be less influenced by the presence in the food matrices  
512 of compounds with chelating properties which change the amount of hydroxyl radicals generated,  
513 affecting the estimation of the radical scavenging activity of plant and food extracts. The hydroxyl  
514 radical scavenging activity is also influenced by the presence of phosphate buffer in the reaction  
515 system. Even low concentrations of phosphate buffer in the reaction mixture brings about a  
516 decrease of the radical scavenging activity of the extracts analyzed.

517 The spin trapping method for the estimation of the hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of  
518 food/plant extracts is gaining great attention, however some aspects, related to the complexity of the  
519 Fenton reaction, should be taken into account to provide reliable measures. The present results  
520 highlight the necessity to standardize the spin trapping method with the Fenton reaction and DMPO  
521 as spin trap and, at the same time, to make it easier for routine experiments. The use of quinolinic  
522 acid as an Fe(II) chelating agent is an attempt in this direction, since it minimizes the effects of pH  
523 changes and allows for an easier handling of the solutions.

524

525 **Conflicts of interest**

526 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

527 **References**

528

529 Azman, N. A. M., Peiró, S., Fajarí, L., Julià, L., & Almajano, M. P. (2014). Radical Scavenging of  
530 White Tea and Its Flavonoid Constituents by Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR)  
531 Spectroscopy. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 62, 5743-5748.

532 Babuponnusami, A., & Muthukumar, K. (2014). A review on Fenton and improvements to the  
533 Fenton process for wastewater treatment. *Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering*, 2,  
534 557-572.

535 Barberis, A., Spissu, Y., Bazzu, G., Fadda, A., Azara, E., Sanna, D., Schirra, M., & Serra, P. A.  
536 (2014). Development and Characterization of an Ascorbate Oxidase-based Sensor–Biosensor  
537 System for Telemetric Detection of AA and Antioxidant Capacity in Fresh Orange Juice.  
538 *Analytical Chemistry*, 86, 8727-8734.

539 Braga, P. C., Lo Scalzo, R., Dal Sasso, M., Lattuada, N., Greco, V., & Fibiani, M. (2016).  
540 Characterization and antioxidant activity of semi-purified extracts and pure delphinidin-  
541 glycosides from eggplant peel (*Solanum melongena* L.). *Journal of Functional Foods*, 20,  
542 411-421.

543 Brezová, V., Šlebodová, A., & Staško, A. (2009). Coffee as a source of antioxidants: An EPR  
544 study. *Food Chemistry*, 114, 859-868.

545 Calliste, C.-A., Trouillas, P., Allais, D.-P., & Duroux, J.-L. (2005). *Castanea sativa* Mill. Leaves as  
546 New Sources of Natural Antioxidant: An Electronic Spin Resonance Study. *Journal of*  
547 *Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 53, 282-288.

548 Debnath, T., Park, P.-J., Deb Nath, N. C., Samad, N. B., Park, H. W., & Lim, B. O. (2011).  
549 Antioxidant activity of *Gardenia jasminoides* Ellis fruit extracts. *Food Chemistry*, 128, 697-  
550 703.

551 Eaton, G. R., Eaton, S.S., Barr, D.P., Weber, R.T. . (2010). *Quantitative EPR*. Springer-Verlag  
552 Vienna: Springer Vienna.

553 Engelmann, M. D., Bobier, R. T., Hiatt, T., & Cheng, I. F. (2003). Variability of the Fenton reaction  
554 characteristics of the EDTA, DTPA, and citrate complexes of iron. *Biometals*, *16*, 519-527.

555 Fadda, A., Pace, B., Angioni, A., Barberis, A., & Cefola, M. (2016). Suitability for Ready-to-Eat  
556 Processing and Preservation of Six Green and Red Baby Leaves Cultivars and Evaluation of  
557 Their Antioxidant Value during Storage and after the Expiration Date. *Journal of Food*  
558 *Processing and Preservation*, *40*, 550-558.

559 Fadda, A., & Sanna, D. (2015). Advantages and Pitfalls of the Methods for the Antioxidant Activity  
560 Evaluation In A. Haynes (Ed.), *Advances in Food Analysis Research*, (pp. 65-88). New  
561 York: Nova Science Publishers.

562 Fadda, A., Serra, M., Molinu, M. G., Azara, E., Barberis, A., & Sanna, D. (2014). Reaction time  
563 and DPPH concentration influence antioxidant activity and kinetic parameters of bioactive  
564 molecules and plant extracts in the reaction with the DPPH radical. *Journal of Food*  
565 *Composition and Analysis*, *35*, 112-119.

566 Fontmorin, J. M., Burgos Castillo, R. C., Tang, W. Z., & Sillanpää, M. (2016). Stability of 5,5-  
567 dimethyl-1-pyrroline-N-oxide as a spin-trap for quantification of hydroxyl radicals in  
568 processes based on Fenton reaction. *Water Research*, *99*, 24-32.

569 Garcia-Alonso, M., Rimbach, G., Sasai, M., Nakahara, M., Matsugo, S., Uchida, Y., Rivas-  
570 Gonzalo, J. C., & De Pascual-Teresa, S. (2005). Electron spin resonance spectroscopy studies  
571 on the free radical scavenging activity of wine anthocyanins and pyranoanthocyanins.  
572 *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, *49*, 1112-1119.

573 Guillemin, G. J. (2012). Quinolinic acid, the inescapable neurotoxin. *FEBS Journal*, *279*, 1356-  
574 1365.

575 Iwahashi, H., Kawamori, H., & Fukushima, K. (1999). Quinolinic acid,  $\alpha$ -picolinic acid, fusaric  
576 acid, and 2,6-pyridinedicarboxylic acid enhance the Fenton reaction in phosphate buffer.  
577 *Chemico-Biological Interactions*, *118*, 201-215.



578 Jeong, M. S., Yu, K.-N., Chung, H. H., Park, S. J., Lee, A. Y., Song, M. R., Cho, M.-H., & Kim, J.  
579 S. (2016). Methodological considerations of electron spin resonance spin trapping techniques  
580 for measuring reactive oxygen species generated from metal oxide nanomaterials. *Scientific*  
581 *Reports*, 6, 26347.

582 Khan, N., Wilmot, C. M., Rosen, G. M., Demidenko, E., Sun, J., Joseph, J., O'Hara, J.,  
583 Kalyanaraman, B., & Swartz, H. M. (2003). Spin traps: in vitro toxicity and stability of  
584 radical adducts. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, 34, 1473-1481.

585 Khosravifarsani, M., Shabestani-Monfared, A., Pouramir, M., Zabihi, E. (2016). Hydroxyl Radical  
586 ( $^{\circ}\text{OH}$ ) Scavenger Power of Tris (hydroxymethyl) Compared to Phosphate Buffer. *Journal of*  
587 *Molecular Biology Research*, 6, 52-57.

588 Kubicova, L., Hadacek, F., Weckwerth, W., & Chobot, V. (2015). Effects of endogenous  
589 neurotoxin quinolinic acid on reactive oxygen species production by Fenton reaction  
590 catalyzed by iron or copper. *Journal of Organometallic Chemistry*, 782, 111-115.

591 Li, L., Abe, Y., Kanagawa, K., Shoji, T., Mashino, T., Mochizuki, M., Tanaka, M., & Miyata, N.  
592 (2007). Iron-chelating agents never suppress Fenton reaction but participate in quenching  
593 spin-trapped radicals. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, 599, 315-319.

594 Li, L., Abe, Y., Kanagawa, K., Usui, N., Imai, K., Mashino, T., Mochizuki, M., & Miyata, N.  
595 (2004). Distinguishing the 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline N-oxide (DMPO)-OH radical quenching  
596 effect from the hydroxyl radical scavenging effect in the ESR spin-trapping method.  
597 *Analytica Chimica Acta*, 512, 121-124.

598 Li, L., Abe, Y., Mashino, T., Mochizuki, M., & Miyata, N. (2003). Signal Enhancement in ESR  
599 Spin-trapping for Hydroxyl Radicals. *Analytical Sciences*, 19, 1083-1084.

600 Lue, B.-M., Nielsen, N. S., Jacobsen, C., Hellgren, L., Guo, Z., & Xu, X. (2010). Antioxidant  
601 properties of modified rutin esters by DPPH, reducing power, iron chelation and human low  
602 density lipoprotein assays. *Food Chemistry*, 123, 221-230.

603 Maeda, T., Kakuta, H., Sonoda, T., Motoki, S., Ueno, R., Suzuki, T., & Oosawa, K. (2005).  
604 Antioxidation Capacities of Extracts from Green, Purple, and White Asparagus Spears  
605 Related to Polyphenol Concentration. *HortScience*, *40*, 1221-1224.

606 Mladěnka, P., Macáková, K., Filipický, T., Zatloukalová, L., Jahodář, L., Bovicelli, P., Silvestri, I.  
607 P., Hrdina, R., & Saso, L. (2011). In vitro analysis of iron chelating activity of flavonoids.  
608 *Journal of Inorganic Biochemistry*, *105*, 693-701.

609 Moore, J., Yin, J.-J., & Yu, L. (2006). Novel Fluorometric Assay for Hydroxyl Radical Scavenging  
610 Capacity (HOSC) Estimation. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *54*, 617-626.

611 Pérez-López, U., Pinzino, C., Quartacci, M. F., Ranieri, A., & Sgherri, C. (2014). Phenolic  
612 Composition and Related Antioxidant Properties in Differently Colored Lettuces: A Study by  
613 Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) Kinetics. *Journal of Agricultural and Food  
614 Chemistry*, *62*, 12001-12007.

615 Pláteník, J., Stopka, P., Vejražka, M., & Štípek, S. (2001). Quinolinic acid — Iron(II) complexes:  
616 Slow autoxidation, but enhanced hydroxyl radical production in the Fenton reaction. *Free  
617 Radical Research*, *34*, 445-459.

618 Sakai, T., Imai, J., Ito, T., Takagaki, H., Ui, M., & Hatta, S. (2017). The novel antioxidant TA293  
619 reveals the role of cytoplasmic hydroxyl radicals in oxidative stress-induced senescence and  
620 inflammation. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*, *482*, 1183-1189.

621 Salgado, P., Melin, V., Contreras, D., Moreno, Y., & Mansilla, H. D. (2013). FENTON  
622 REACTION DRIVEN BY IRON LIGANDS. *Journal of the Chilean Chemical Society*, *58*,  
623 2096-2101.

624 Senol, F., Ankli, A., Reich, E., Orhan, I. . (2016). HPTLC Fingerprinting and Cholinesterase  
625 Inhibitory and Metal-Chelating Capacity of Various Citrus Cultivars and *Olea europaea*.  
626 *Food Technology and Biotechnology*, *54*.

- 627 Shahidi, F., & Ambigaipalan, P. (2015). Phenolics and polyphenolics in foods, beverages and  
628 spices: Antioxidant activity and health effects – A review. *Journal of Functional Foods, 18*,  
629 *Part B*, 820-897.
- 630 Šnyrychová, I., Pospíšil, P., & Nauš, J. (2006). The effect of metal chelators on the production of  
631 hydroxyl radicals in thylakoids. *Photosynthesis Research, 88*, 323-329.
- 632 Staško, A., Polovka, M., Brezová, V., Biskupič, S., & Malík, F. (2006). Tokay wines as scavengers  
633 of free radicals (an EPR study). *Food Chemistry, 96*, 185-196.
- 634 Welch, K. D., Davis, T. Z., & Aust, S. D. (2002). Iron Autoxidation and Free Radical Generation:  
635 Effects of Buffers, Ligands, and Chelators. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics, 397*,  
636 360-369.
- 637 Yamazaki, I., & Piette, L. H. (1990). ESR spin-trapping studies on the reaction of Fe<sup>2+</sup> ions with  
638 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-reactive species in oxygen toxicity in biology. *Journal of Biological Chemistry, 265*,  
639 13589-13594.
- 640 Yehia, F. Z., Eshaq, G., & ElMetwally, A. E. (2016). Enhancement of the working pH range for  
641 degradation of p-nitrophenol using Fe<sup>2+</sup>-aspartate and Fe<sup>2+</sup>-glutamate complexes as  
642 modified Fenton reagents. *Egyptian Journal of Petroleum, 25*, 239-245.
- 643 Yoshimura, Y., Matsuzaki, Y., Watanabe, T., Uchiyama, K., Ohsawa, K., & Imaeda, K. (1992).  
644 Effects of Buffer Solutions and Chelators on the Generation of Hydroxyl Radical and the  
645 Lipid Peroxidation in the Fenton Reaction System. *Journal of Clinical Biochemistry and*  
646 *Nutrition, 13*, 147-154.
- 647 Zhang, H., & Tsao, R. (2016). Dietary polyphenols, oxidative stress and antioxidant and anti-  
648 inflammatory effects. *Current Opinion in Food Science, 8*, 33-42.

## Figure captions

**Fig. 1.** A typical EPR spectrum of the hydroxyl radical generated in the Fenton reaction and trapped with DMPO.

**Fig. 2.** Effect of phosphate buffer on the production of hydroxyl radicals in Fenton reaction systems with chelated (Fe(II)-Quin) and unchelated Fe (Fe(II)). All reaction mixtures contained DMPO 10 mM, Fe(II) 10  $\mu$ M and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> 0.03%. Bars marked by unlike letters differ significantly by Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) ( $P \leq 0.05$ ).

**Fig. 3.** Effect of phosphate and Tris-HCl buffers at different concentrations on the yield of hydroxyl radicals, measured as DMPO-OH signal intensity (AU Arbitrary Units), produced in a reaction system with Quin-Fe(II) complex as source of iron. All reaction mixtures contained DMPO 10 mM, Fe(II) 10  $\mu$ M and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> 0.03%. Capital letters show statistical differences in Fenton systems with increasing phosphate buffer concentrations, whereas lowercase letters refer to statistical differences in Fenton systems with increasing Tris-HCl buffer concentrations. Means comparison was performed with Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). An asterisk above points refer to statistical differences between phosphate and Tris-HCl buffers for the same concentration according to Student's *t*-test ( $P \leq 0.05$ ).

**Fig. 4.** Effect of pH on DMPO-OH adduct signal intensity measured in reaction systems with DMPO concentrations of 1 and 10 mM. Acidified (white bars) and not acidified (grey bars) DMPO solutions were used. Squares indicate the pH values of Fenton systems with unacidified DMPO solutions. Circles indicate the pH values of Fenton systems with acidified DMPO solutions. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation.

**Fig. 5.** Effect of DMPO concentration on DMPO-OH signal intensity in Fenton reaction systems with chelated (Fe(II)-Quin) and unchelated Fe (Fe(II)). In the case of unchelated Fe(II) the DMPO solution was acidified. Capital letters show statistical differences in “Fenton systems” with unchelated Fe(II), whereas lowercase letters refer to statistical differences in “Fenton systems” with chelated Fe(II). Means comparison was performed with Fisher’s least significant difference (LSD) ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). An asterisk above bars refer to statistical differences between chelated and unchelated Fe(II) for the same DMPO/Fe(II) molar ratio according to Student’s *t*-test ( $P \leq 0.05$ ).

**Fig. 6.** Hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of Hamlin Orange juice (A), Java Green Tea infusion (B) and Purple passion asparagus spears (C) measured in reaction systems containing: DMPO 10  $\mu$ M, FeSO<sub>4</sub> 10  $\mu$ M and phosphate buffer 20 mM (Black bars); DMPO 0.6  $\mu$ M and Fe(II)-Quin complex 10  $\mu$ M (pale grey bars); DMPO 0.6  $\mu$ M and Fe(II)-Quin complex 10  $\mu$ M and phosphate buffer 20 mM (dark grey bars). Bars marked by unlike letters differ significantly by Fisher’s least significant difference (LSD) ( $P \leq 0.05$ ).

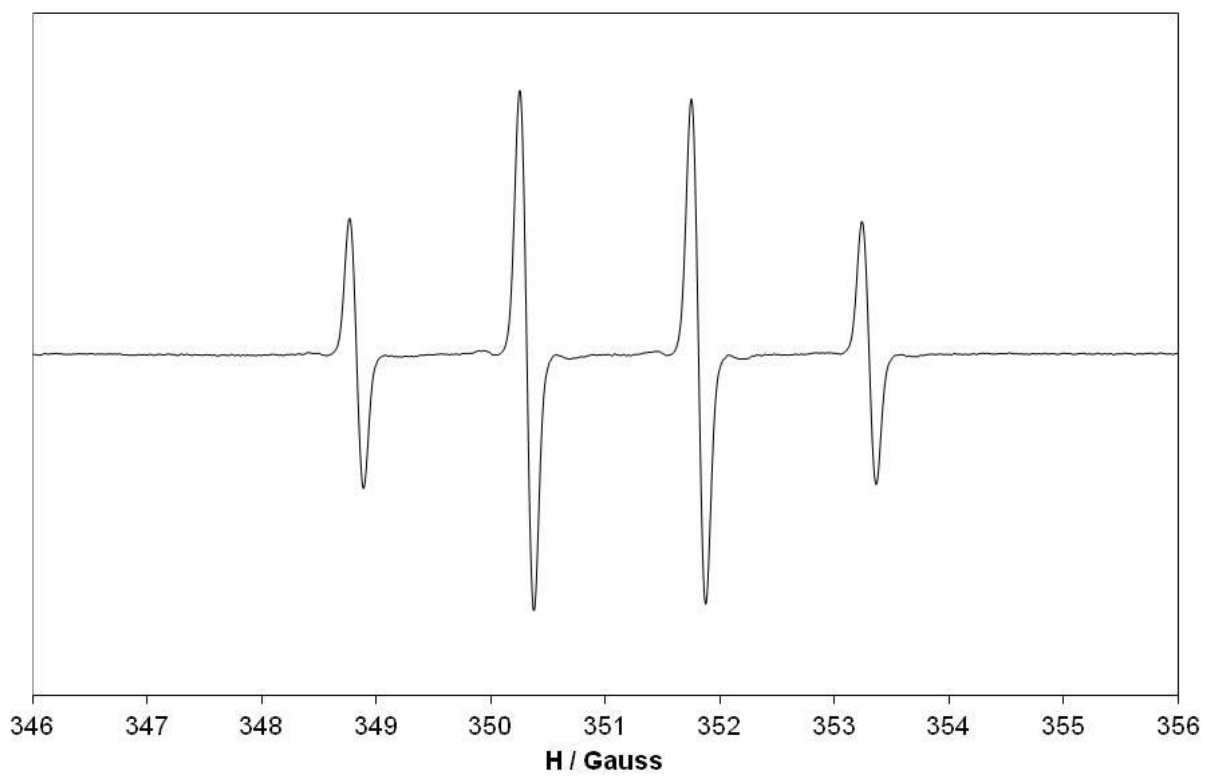


Figure 1

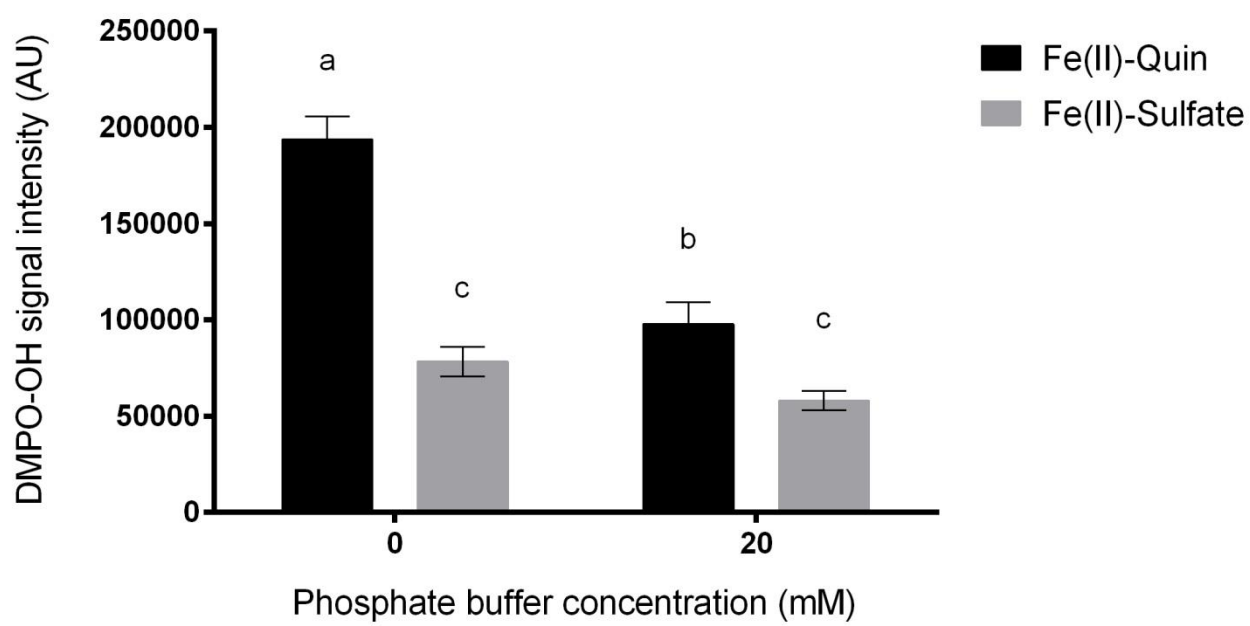


Figure 2

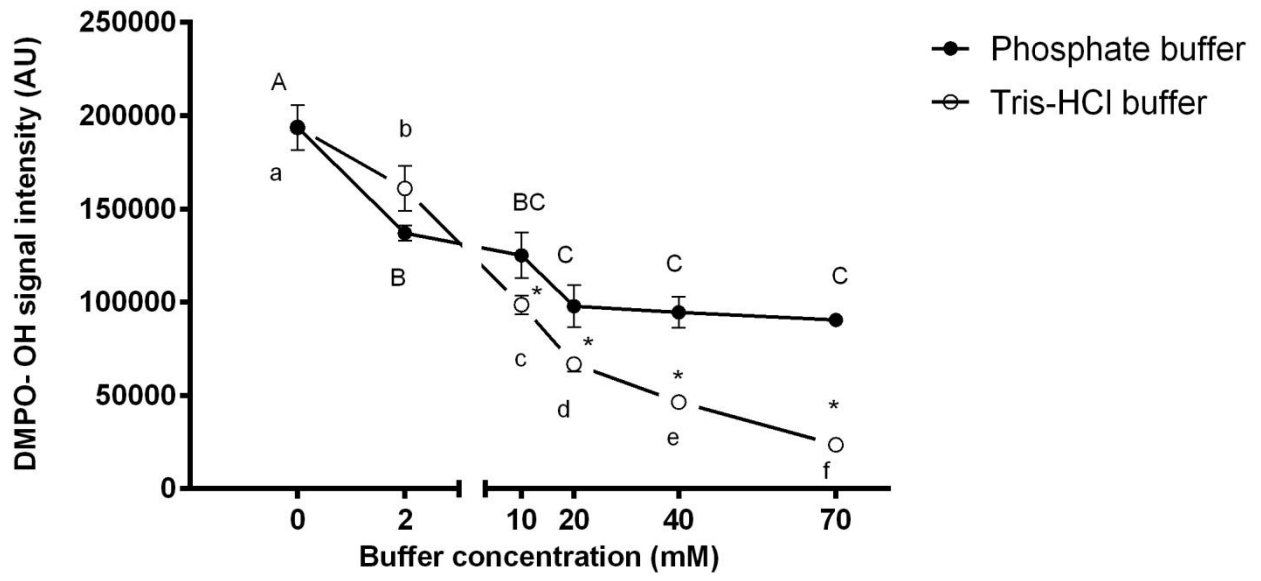


Figure 3



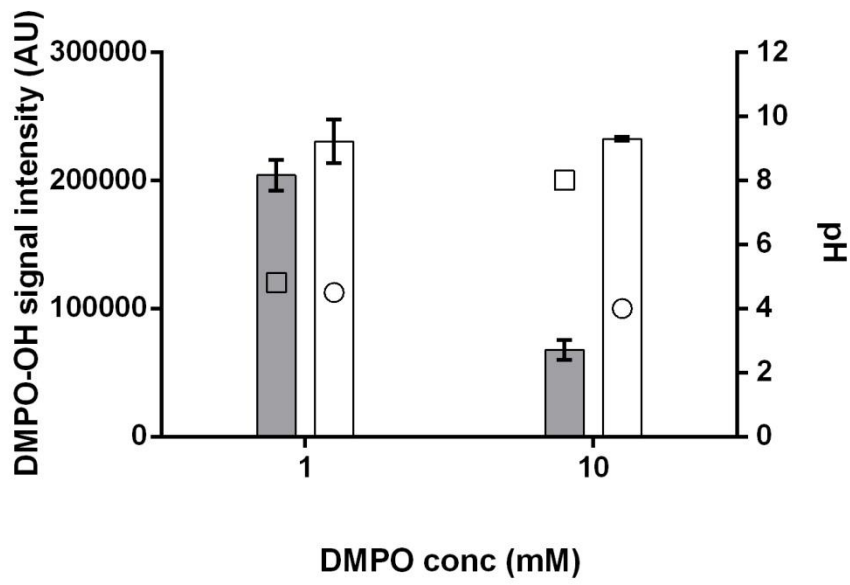


Figure 4

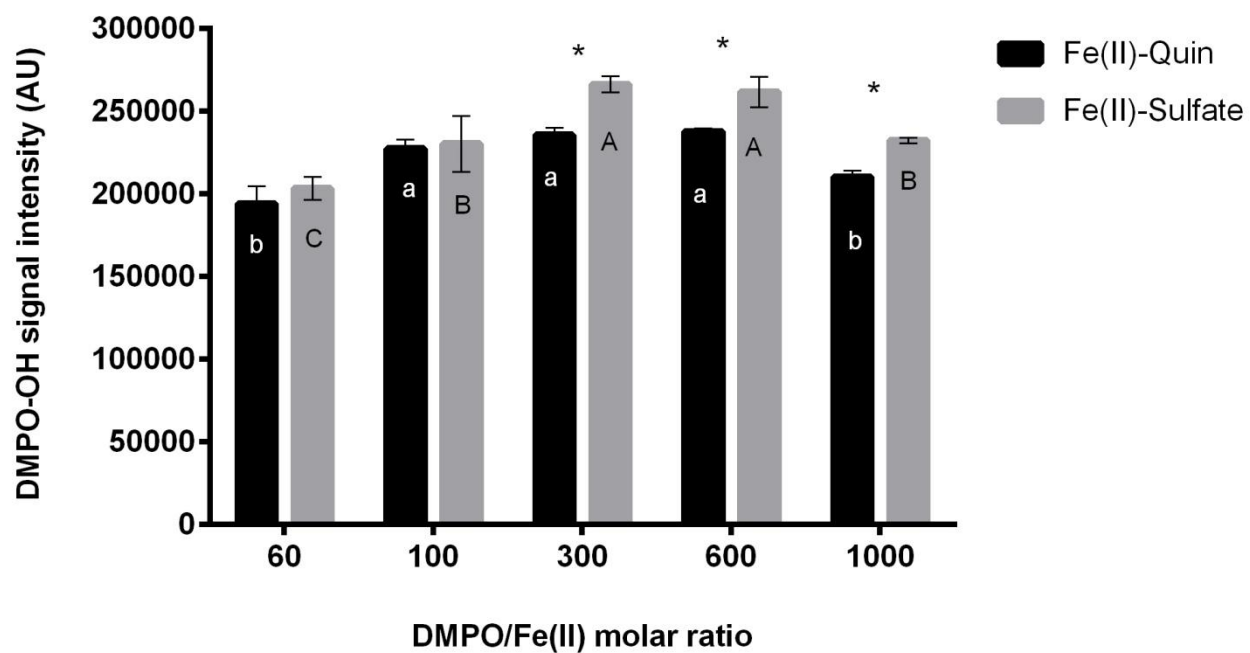


Figure 5

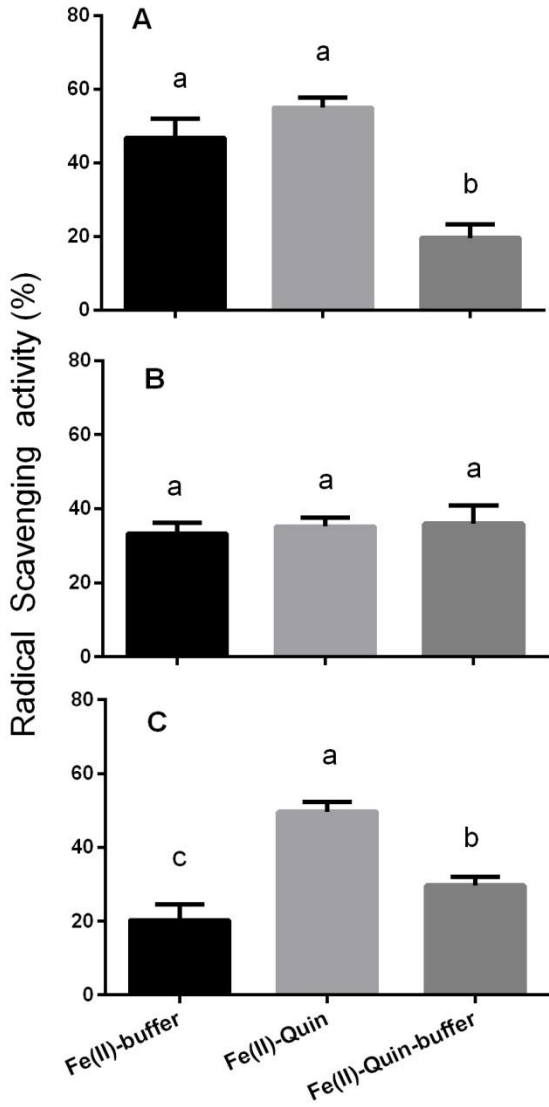


Figure 6