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Title: Evaluation of saffron (*Crocus sativus* L.) adulteration with plant adulterants by ¹H NMR metabolite fingerprinting

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Keywords: Saffron; Quality control; Food authenticity; Adulteration; Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR); Chemometrics

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Abstract: In the present work a preliminary study for the detection of adulterated saffron and the identification of the adulterant used by means of ¹H NMR and chemometrics is reported. Authentic Greek saffron and four typical plant-derived materials utilized as bulking agents in saffron, i.e., *C. sativus* stamens, safflower, turmeric, and gardenia were investigated. A two-step approach, relied on the application of both OPLS-DA and O2PLS-DA models to the ¹H NMR data, was adopted to perform authentication and prediction of authentic and adulterated saffron. Taking into account the deficiency of established methodologies to detect saffron adulteration with plant adulterants, the method developed resulted reliable in assessing the type of adulteration and could be viable for dealing with extensive saffron frauds at a minimum level of 20% (w/w).

Cover letter

Title: “Evaluation of saffron (*Crocus sativus* L.) adulteration with plant adulterants by ¹H NMR metabolite fingerprinting”

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Explanation of the manuscript significance: The manuscript deals with the application, for the first time, of ¹H NMR measurements combined with multivariate statistical analysis, in the view of to evaluate saffron adulteration with four typical plant-derived materials used as bulking agents. The NMR metabolic determination confirmed its capability in addressing the food quality issue. In this paper, a two-step approach is proposed to first discriminate between authentic and adulterated saffron and second to establish the plant adopted in the adulteration as low as 20%.

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Dear prof. Finglas,

We decided to review our manuscript taking into proper account the reviewers comments.

Reviewer #1

1. The authors say "This metabolomics approach has been recently applied to assess the authenticity of commercial saffron samples with reference to authentic Iranian samples (Yilmaz, Nyberg, Mølgaard, Asili, & Jaroszewski, 2010)" I believe that these cited previous results should be discussed in more detail in the results.

Text has been changed and more comments about Yilmaz et al. (2010) results have been included in the "Introduction" and "Results and Discussion" sections.

2. The complex procedure of statistical treatment of data gives results particularly interesting but the steps of the method should be summarized in results more simply to allow to a less familiar reader to understand the potentiality of the method.

We don't agree with this comment. The results are reported using typical and appropriate terminology without deep technical details. The same approach/language for statistical results has been already used by the same authors (Consonni et al., *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 611, 31-40, 2008; Consonni et al., *Food Chem.*, 129, 693-699, 2011; Cagliani et al., *Talanta*, 106, 169-173, 2013) and by other research groups (Schievano et al., *Food Chem.*, 129, 693-699, 2011; Wei et al., *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 60, 10118-10125, 2012) and it is broadly recognized and accepted. We decided not to modify any further the manuscript.

3. The authors probably made also a water - non hydrophilic solvent extraction of the saffron (including frauds) samples. They should report also the results of these extraction because can be source of a more complex characterization (or not?). I have only some doubt that solution in DMSO (optimum solvent for nearly all) can be considered an "extraction" method. Nevertheless the Authors will maintain this terminology as they prefer. The only perplexity is about the title and the terminology of the paper. I believe that this application of NMR spectroscopy is a relevant chapter of chemometrics with new wide applicability in many field and, particularly, in field of food science.

We investigated extracts with different solvents, in particular water, DMSO and CDCl_3 . DMSO was chosen because of its capability in dissolving all chemical compounds (both hydrophobic and hydrophilic) and providing NMR signals with sharp line width. Conversely, when water extracts are performed, bad NMR spectra characterized by broad signals and humps are obtained for crocins and other signals resulted overlapped; finally CDCl_3 allowed extracting only hydrophobic compounds, mainly fatty acids. For these reasons we reported only data about DMSO extracts because no other information could be derived by the extracts performed in different solvents.

In "Materials and Methods" section this choice has been motivated.

In our manuscript we are not proposing the use of DMSO as an "extraction method", but we are using this solvent for the extraction of chemical compounds.

4. I believe that the procedure adopted should be considered a NMR profiling indicating that strictly speaking there is not a metabolic process nor a biologic development of components but an extensive characterization of the samples. This change of terminology should help in diffusing this technique in the field of food characterization.

The broadly accepted terminology in all omics fields (including applications in food characterization) could be referred to different authors: Tugizimana et al. (*Plant Metabolomics*, 109, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/sajs.2013/20120005>, 2013); Ellis et al. (*Pharmacogenomics* 2007, 8 1243-1266); Krishnan et al. (*J. Exp. Bot.* 2004, 56, 255-265). In particular, when the term “profiling” is used, it refers to fully assigned and quantified chemical compounds content. Recently Hohmann M. et al. (*J. Agric. Food Chem.* 2014, 62, 8530-8540) correctly used this terminology, justified by the accurate assignment of NMR spectra. Conversely, the definition of “Metabolite fingerprinting” is “*Rapid and high-throughput methods where global metabolite profiles are obtained from crude samples or simple cellular extracts. In general, metabolites are neither quantified nor identified*”. Therefore, the terminology adopted in our manuscript, reflects exactly the aim of our study, focused on samples differentiation based on unquantified and partially assigned metabolite content and not by performing accurate identification and quantification of the entire chemical compounds present in the extracts of saffron adulterated with different plants adulterants.

5. Minor points : the NMR spectra presentation is too poor and needs more comment
Particularly the Fig. 2 is very important and must be commented with circles reporting . Also for the other figures in the legend should be reported in more details the description of the results. Actually I believe that are too short.

Figure captions of Fig. 1-4 have been modified including more details.

Reviewer #2

We greatly appreciate the Reviewer's remarks.

1 **Evaluation of saffron (*Crocus sativus* L.) adulteration**
2 **with plant adulterants by ^1H NMR metabolite**
3 **fingerprinting**

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5
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24 **Abstract**

25 In the present work a preliminary study for the detection of adulterated saffron and the
26 identification of the adulterant used by means of ^1H NMR and chemometrics is reported. Authentic
27 Greek saffron and four typical plant-derived materials utilized as bulking agents in saffron, i.e., *C.*
28 *sativus* stamens, safflower, turmeric, and gardenia were investigated. A two-step approach, relied
29 on the application of both OPLS-DA and O2PLS-DA models to the ^1H NMR data, was adopted to
30 perform authentication and prediction of authentic and adulterated saffron. Taking into account the
31 deficiency of established methodologies to detect saffron adulteration with plant adulterants, the
32 method developed resulted reliable in assessing the type of adulteration and could be viable for
33 dealing with extensive saffron frauds at a minimum level of 20% (w/w).

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48 *Keywords:* Saffron; Quality control; Food authenticity; Adulteration; Nuclear magnetic resonance
49 (NMR); Chemometrics

50 **1. Introduction**

51 Food authenticity is an increasingly important issue for consumers, regulatory agencies, and
52 food industry. Aspects of authentication involve the detection of economically motivated
53 adulteration in food products, usually carried out with less expensive and more readily available
54 substitutes which are difficult to identify by routine analytical methodologies (Cubero-Leon,
55 Peñalver, & Maquet, 2014; Oms-Oliu, Odriozola-Serrano, & Martín-Belloso, 2013).

56 Among the major candidates for adulteration conducted for economic gain, saffron is one of the
57 most targeted spices (Moore, Spink, & Lipp, 2012); it consists of the dried stigmas of the cultivated
58 species *Crocus sativus* L. Saffron, that has long been used as a coloring and flavoring agent in food,
59 is also known for a wide range of health promoting benefits (Melnyk, Wang, & Marcone, 2010;
60 Winterhalter & Straubinger, 2000). Due to its high price and limited production, saffron has been
61 subjected to various types of adulteration over the centuries. Common fraudulent practices include
62 the addition of inferior plant material with similar appearance to extend the more expensive saffron.
63 This particularly happens when the spice is in powder form or when added to seasonings and other
64 food products as an ingredient (Hagh-Nazari & Keifi, 2007; Torelli, Marieschi, & Bruni, 2014).
65 Within the most frequently reported plant materials to adulterate saffron are cut or dyed *C. sativus*
66 stamens, *Carthamus tinctorius* L. petals (safflower) as well as *Curcuma longa* L. powdered
67 rhizomes (turmeric) (Hagh-Nazari et al., 2007; Ordoudi & Tsimidou, 2004; Saffron in Europe,
68 2007). Additionally, commercial safflower and turmeric are often mislabeled, using the name
69 “saffron” and the supposed country of origin for misleading consumers (Hagh-Nazari et al., 2007;
70 Sánchez, Maggi, Carmona, & Alonso, 2011). The use of gardenia, the extract obtained from the
71 fruits of *Gardenia jasminoides* Ellis, is another possible and more sophisticated method of
72 adulteration, considering that gardenia and saffron differ merely in the pigments contained
73 (Carmona, Zalacain, Sánchez, Novella, & Alonso, 2006; Ordoudi et al., 2004; Sánchez et al., 2011).

74 Regardless of the practice followed, the detection of commercial frauds in saffron is a
75 challenging task since changes in physical, chemical or organoleptic properties are not always

76 easily identifiable. As a result, the best quality saffron is usually sold in filaments (Melnik et al.,
77 2010), where the extraneous or foreign matter may be more easily detectable. In the quality
78 assessment of saffron according to the ISO 3632 standards (ISO, 2010; ISO, 2011), up to 1% (w/w)
79 of foreign matter is permitted in third-class products. However, microscopic examination is
80 required, which is time-consuming for the screening of large batches of samples. Also, the UV-Vis
81 spectrophotometric method proposed by ISO 3632-2 (ISO, 2010) may not detect saffron
82 contamination with amounts of up to 20% (w/w) of safflower or turmeric, as it was recently
83 reported (Sabatino, Scordino, Gargano, Belligno, Traulo, & Gagliano, 2011). For the detection of
84 plant adulterants in saffron, several chromatographic (Alonso, Salinas, & Garijo, 1998; Haghghi,
85 Feizy, & Hemati Kakhki, 2007; Lozano, Castellar, Simancas, & Iborra, 1999; Sabatino et al., 2011;
86 Sampathu, Shivashankar, Lewis, & Wood, 1984) and molecular (Babaei, Talebi, & Bahar, 2014;
87 Javanmardi, Bagheri, Moshtaghi, Sharifi, & Hemati Kakhki, 2011; Ma, Zhu, Li, Dong, & Tsim,
88 2001; Marieschi, Torelli, & Bruni, 2012; Torelli et al., 2014) methods have been employed so far
89 with encouraging results. The use of DNA markers has allowed the detection of low amounts (up to
90 1%) of several bulking materials including safflower and turmeric (Javanmardi et al., 2011;
91 Marieschi et al., 2012). Nevertheless, there is still an ongoing demand for the development of faster,
92 simple and robust screening methods suited for identifying saffron adulteration, especially at levels
93 that make practical economic sense.

94 Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy is an analytical technique largely applied for
95 its rapidity and reproducibility, having the potential for high-throughput analyses with minimal
96 sample pretreatment (Longobardi et al., 2013; Mannina, Sobolev, & Viel, 2012). NMR based
97 metabolite fingerprinting may identify the subtle differences that often exist between authentic and
98 fraudulent products. As a matter of fact, this metabolomic approach has been recently explored to
99 discriminate authentic Iranian saffron from commercial samples; the results indicated relative
100 amounts of picrocrocin and the sum of different crocetin glycosides as the characteristic metabolites
101 for authentic saffron (Yilmaz, Nyberg, Mølgaard, Asili, & Jaroszewski, 2010). The complexity of

102 NMR data in food metabolomics studies is clearly the primary impetus for the coupling of NMR
103 spectroscopy with multivariate statistical methods, capable of gathering samples with similar
104 features (Consonni & Cagliani, 2010; Tomassini, Capuani, Delfini, & Miccheli, 2013). Among
105 them, supervised methods that may enhance classification performance, such as orthogonal
106 projection to latent structures - discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA) and its bidirectional modifications
107 (O2PLS-DA) (Bylesjö, Rantalainen, Cloarec, Nicholson, Holmes, & Trygg, 2006), have shown
108 great potential to determine the authenticity of various foodstuffs, mainly on the basis of their
109 geographical or botanical origin (Consonni, Cagliani, & Cogliati, 2012a, 2012b, 2013; Consonni,
110 Cagliani, Stocchero, & Porretta, 2009, 2010; Fotakis et al., 2013).

111 The present work describes a preliminary study for the detection of adulterated saffron and the
112 identification of the adulterant used by means of ^1H NMR and chemometrics. The two-step
113 approach proposed herein relied on the application of both OPLS-DA and O2PLS-DA models to the
114 ^1H NMR data. Taking into account the deficiency of established methodologies to detect saffron
115 adulteration with plant adulterants, the method developed could be viable for dealing with extensive
116 saffron frauds at a minimum level of 20% (w/w). The efforts focused on four typical plant-derived
117 materials utilized as bulking agents in saffron, i.e., *C. sativus* stamens, safflower, turmeric and
118 gardenia.

119

120 **2. Materials and Methods**

121 *2.1. Samples*

122 Ten samples of Greek *C. sativus* dried stigmas of commercial grade, harvested in 2012, were
123 supplied by Kozani Saffron Producers Cooperative (Cooperative De Saffran). The Greek saffron
124 samples selected were either organic (n=6) or conventionally produced (n=4), to extend variability
125 among them. Prior to ^1H NMR analysis, their quality and authenticity had been checked according
126 to the ISO 3632 parameters and HPLC analysis at the Laboratory of Chemistry, Agricultural
127 University of Athens. All saffron samples belonged to the commercial category I. Samples of

128 turmeric (branded as “Like safran”), safflower (branded as “Turkish saffron”) and *C. sativus*
129 stamens (branded as “Safran”) were purchased from local markets. *G. jasminoides* fruit extract
130 (single herb extract, Zhi Zi) was acquired from Plum Flower Brand (Anguo, China).

131

132 2.2. Preparation of commercial and spiked samples

133 All of the plant-derived materials, namely “saffron samples” and “plant adulterants”, were
134 finely ground in a mortar. To simulate conditions of commercial samples, artificial counterfeit
135 mixtures containing saffron and 20% (w/w) of plant adulterant were prepared. Overall, 10 mixtures
136 were used for each adulterant and thus five classes were defined, including the authentic saffron
137 samples. Those fifty samples (10 mg) along with the pure plant adulterants used for reference were
138 extracted with 600 μ L DMSO- d_6 by stirring (vortex) for 3 min at room temperature. After 10 min,
139 they were submitted to centrifugation at 12100 rcf for 10 min and then 500 μ L aliquots of the
140 supernatant were transferred into 5 mm NMR tube for analysis. DMSO solvent was used because of
141 its capability in dissolving both hydrophobic and hydrophilic compounds, leading to NMR signals
142 with sharp line width.

143

144 2.3. NMR analysis

145 ^1H NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AVANCE 600 spectrometer (Bruker Biospin
146 GmbH, Rheinstetten, Karlsruhe, Germany), operating at 14.09 T and equipped with a 5-mm inverse
147 probe with a z-gradient. All monodimensional spectra were acquired at 300 K with a spectral width
148 of 10000 Hz over 32K data points. Residual water suppression was achieved by applying a
149 presaturation scheme with low power radiofrequency irradiation for 1.2 s. Spectra were processed
150 using TOPSPIN software (Bruker BioSpin GmbH, version 3.0, Rheinstetten, Karlsruhe, Germany)
151 by applying an exponential function for resolution enhancement with a line broadening of 0.5 Hz
152 before Fourier transformation; phase and baseline were manually corrected. Spectra were aligned
153 on the residual solvent signal at 2.50 ppm. The NMR spectra were reduced to integrated regions

154 (buckets) of equal width of 0.04 ppm each in the range of 0.40 - 10.50 ppm, excluding solvent and
155 water regions from 2.47 to 2.52 ppm and from 3.31 to 3.34 ppm, respectively. Buckets were scaled
156 with respect to the total spectrum intensity, thus taking into account the different composition of
157 samples (ACD/NMR v. 11.0, ACD Labs, Toronto, Canada).

158

159 *2.4. Multivariate data analysis*

160 Principal Components Analysis (PCA), Orthogonal Projection to Latent Structures-
161 Discriminant Analysis (OPLS-DA) and bidirectional OPLS-DA (O2PLS-DA) were performed with
162 Pareto scaling. PCA was applied to represent the sample distribution in the multivariate space.
163 Supervised OPLS-DA and O2PLS-DA were used in order to reduce the model complexity by
164 removing the systematic variations in the X matrix that were not related to Y response (structured
165 noise) maximizing the separation among samples. When the dimension of the joint correlated space
166 is one, a useful visualization tool, such as the S-plot, could be adopted (Wiklund et al., 2008). The
167 non-casualty of all classification models was checked by performing the permutation test, in which
168 a total of 200 models were calculated by randomizing the order of Y variable in the corresponding
169 PLS-DA (Partial Least Squares-Discriminant Analysis) models. Multivariate data analysis was
170 performed with the SIMCA-P+ 13 software (Umetrics, Umea, Sweden). T2 and distance to the
171 model (DModX) tests were applied to verify the presence of outliers and to evaluate whether
172 samples fall within the model applicability domain.

173

174 *2.5. Training and test set selection*

175 To investigate the predictive capability of the models, training and test sets were extracted from
176 the 50 samples containing the 4 classes of adulterated saffron with plant adulterants and the class of
177 pure saffron samples. Seven out of ten samples for each class were randomly selected to build the
178 training set, while the three remaining samples were used for the test set. In total, training and test
179 set consisted of 35 and 15 samples, respectively.

180 3. Results and Discussion

181 Adulteration of saffron could be easily evaluated for each plant adulterant by comparing ^1H
182 NMR spectra of authentic and spiked saffron. Typical signals concerning the different plant-derived
183 materials used as bulking agents were present along the entire spectral region. Figure 1 reports the
184 aromatic and anomeric regions of ^1H NMR spectra for pure plant adulterants and the corresponding
185 spiked saffron for the sake of clarity. In panel A (bottom trace), the spectrum of turmeric extract is
186 reported; the typical signals of curcuminoid moiety could be identified at 7.541, 6.751 ppm for H1,7
187 and H2,6 respectively, at 6.059 ppm for H4, and signals at 7.318, 7.147, and 6.819 ppm for the
188 aromatic protons. These assignments and the corresponding carbon signals (140.26, 120.75, 100.55,
189 110.93, 122.86, and 115.42 ppm) resulted in full agreement with previously reported data (Saladini,
190 Lazzari, Pignedoli, Rosa, Spagnolo, & Ferrari, 2009). Curcuminoid signals could be easily
191 recognized in the saffron adulterated with turmeric extract (top trace, panel A) by comparison with
192 the pure saffron spectrum. Analogously, panel B evidenced the increase of a doublet at 5.181 ppm
193 most likely referred to a saccharidic moiety, largely present in stamens extracts; Panel C showed the
194 increase of signal at 5.205, 5.138, and 5.066 ppm and finally, panel D evidenced the increase of
195 doublets at 7.569 and 7.466, a broad signal at 5.679 ppm, and doublets at 5.121 ppm most likely
196 due to a saccharide moiety.

197 Full ^1H NMR spectra were considered for statistical analysis. PCA was initially performed on
198 all samples to evaluate possible differentiation according to the purity and type of plant adulterant
199 used. The first two PCs explained 63.7% of the total variance; the corresponding score plot (Figure
200 2) revealed a poor separation for the majority of samples. Only saffron samples adulterated with
201 20% (w/w) gardenia extract resulted sufficiently differentiated, followed by saffron samples
202 containing turmeric as bulking agent. A two-step approach with supervised classification models
203 was performed to improve the differentiation of samples; pure and adulterated saffron were
204 discriminated at first, while all other artificial mixtures containing 20% (w/w) plant adulterants
205 were successively evaluated.

206 The OPLS-DA model performed by considering two classes (authentic Greek and adulterated
207 saffron), resulting in one predictive and three orthogonal components ($R^2X = 82.4\%$, $R^2Y = 94.5\%$,
208 $Q^2 = 92.3\%$), is presented in Figure 3, demonstrating a clear discrimination between the two classes
209 of samples. The corresponding S-plot (data not shown) evidenced a higher content of picrocrocin
210 (buckets at 1.12, 1.16, 2.08, 4.28, and 10.04 ppm) and crocins (buckets at 1.96, 4.16, 5.40, 6.52,
211 6.64, 6.84, and 7.32 ppm) in authentic Greek saffron with respect to saffron adulterated with the
212 bulking agents, which generally presented higher levels of fatty acids (buckets at 1.20 and 1.24
213 ppm) and buckets including specific plant adulterant signals. Our results were in agreement with
214 previously published data (Yilmaz et al., 2010), reporting picrocrocin and glycosyl esters of crocetin
215 as the most important markers for distinguishing authentic Iranian saffron from commercial saffron
216 purchased in different countries. It should be noted that ^1H NMR metabolite fingerprints revealed
217 no marked differences between organic and conventional saffron samples, indicating potential
218 uniformity of Greek saffron.

219 Successively an O2PLS-DA model was performed by considering all artificial mixtures
220 containing 20% (w/w) plant adulterants. This model resulted in three predictive and three
221 orthogonal components ($R^2X = 95.2\%$, $R^2Y = 97.6\%$, $Q^2 = 96\%$). By scoring the first and the third
222 latent variables (Figure 4), a clear classification of the adulterated saffron samples according to the
223 plant adulterant used could be obtained.

224 The reliable capability in categorizing unknown saffron samples as pure or adulterated is based
225 on the possibility to obtain a stable and reliable model from supervised OPLS-DA. This critical
226 aspect was checked by selecting training and test sets constituted by 35 and 15 samples
227 respectively, both including authentic and adulterated saffron. The new two-class OPLS-DA model
228 performed on training set resulted in one predictive and two orthogonal components. The overall
229 goodness of fit were $R^2X = 72.5\%$ and $R^2Y = 93.8\%$, with the overall cross validation coefficient of
230 $Q^2 = 88.2\%$. On the basis of T2 and DModX tests, the created model resulted suitable for the
231 prediction of authentic or adulterated saffron test set samples. The classification list represented in

232 Table 1 highlighted the model performance in prediction capability; no adulterated sample from any
233 of the four classes was assigned as pure saffron and all samples were correctly classified, by using a
234 classification threshold of 0.6. Only the twelve adulterated test set samples were successively re-
235 projected in the O2PLS-DA model, built on the 28 adulterated saffron samples comprising the
236 training set, resulting in three predictive and two orthogonal components ($R^2X = 93\%$, $R^2Y = 96.7\%$,
237 $Q^2 = 93.4\%$). T2 and DModX tests evidenced that the model created was suitable for the prediction
238 of adulteration type for test set samples. The classification list shown in Table 2 presented all
239 adulterated saffron samples correctly categorized.

240 In order to check the non-casualty of the classification models, the permutation test was
241 performed in the corresponding PLS-DA model for each of the OPLS-DA and O2PLS-DA models.
242 The decreased values of both parameters R^2 and Q^2 (R^2 regression line and vertical axis intersection
243 point of the Q^2 resulted in near zero and negative values, respectively) confirmed the validity of the
244 models.

245 In the present study, the capability of distinguishing authentic against adulterated saffron
246 containing other plant material by untargeted NMR fingerprinting and chemometrics was evaluated
247 for the first time. The approach demonstrated herein led to detect adulteration of pure Greek saffron
248 with four frequently utilized plant-derived materials in two steps. The first OPLS-DA model
249 successfully differentiated adulterated from authentic saffron, owing to specific secondary
250 metabolites representing markers for saffron authenticity, while the O2PLS-DA model identified
251 the type of plant adulterant occurring in the samples, when found adulterated. The good predictive
252 capability of both models, as was verified by using a test set, strongly supported the validity of the
253 protocol proposed. The suggested approach is very low demanding in terms of required amount of
254 saffron, sample preparation and is endowed with high reproducibility and fast execution. Thus, it
255 may be used for screening large commercial batches of Greek saffron, while it could be adaptable
256 for the analysis of samples of different grade or diverse geographical origin after further study.

257 In conclusion, NMR metabolite fingerprinting proves to be efficient for determining and
258 identifying fraudulent additions of bulking agents to saffron, considering the difficulties in detecting
259 saffron fraud according to the ISO 3632 standard methods, especially when plant adulterants are
260 involved and the spice is commercialized in powder form. The obtained results confirmed the
261 combined use of ¹H NMR spectroscopy and multivariate data analysis as a valid and powerful tool
262 to investigate quality and authenticity of food products.

263

264

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267 FA1101 (Saffron -OMICS: OMICS TECHNOLOGIES FOR CROP IMPROVEMENT,
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382 **Figure captions**

383 **Figure 1.** Selected regions of ^1H NMR spectra acquired from DMSO- d_6 extracts. Squared top
384 spectrum is characteristic of pure saffron. Spectra of pure plant material (Turmeric, *C. sativus*
385 stamens, Safflower, and *Gardenia jasminoides* fruit extract) are reported in panels A, B, C, and D
386 respectively in bottom traces, while spiked saffron with 20% (w/w) concentration of plants
387 adulterants are reported in panels A, B, C and D in top traces.

388 **Figure 2.** PCA score plot performed considering 10 pure Greek saffron samples (purple circles) and
389 the same samples spiked at 20% (w/w) concentration with *Gardenia jasminoides* fruit extract (light
390 blue circles), Safflower (black circles), *C. sativus* stamens (pink circles), and Turmeric (green
391 circles) for a total of 40 samples. PC1 = 36.8%, and PC2 = 26.9%. $R^2X = 99.5\%$, and $Q^2 = 96.2\%$.

392 **Figure 3.** OPLS-DA score plot performed by considering all saffron samples analyzed divided in
393 two classes: pure (purple circles) and adulterated (black circles) saffron. $R^2X = 82.4\%$, $R^2Y = 94.5\%$
394 and $Q^2 = 92.3\%$.

395 **Figure 4.** O2PLS-DA score plot (PC1 versus PC3) performed by considering only adulterated
396 saffron divided into 4 classes according to the type of plant adulterant: saffron adulterated with 20%
397 (w/w) concentration with *Gardenia jasminoides* fruit extract, Safflower, *C. sativus* stamens and
398 Turmeric are presented with light blue, black, pink, and green circles, respectively. $R^2X = 95.2\%$,
399 $R^2Y = 97.6\%$ and $Q^2 = 96\%$.

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405 **Tables**

406 **Table 1**

407 Classification List for the 15 test set saffron samples (3 authentic and 12 spiked with the four
 408 different plant adulterants) re-projected onto the two-class OPLS-DA model (authentic and
 409 adulterated saffron) performed by considering a training set constituted by 35 samples (7 authentic
 410 and 28 spiked with the four different plant adulterants). Letters T, Sf, St, and G stand for Turmeric,
 411 Safflower, *C. sativus* stamens, and *G. jasminoides* fruit extract, respectively. Each test set sample
 412 was classified by means of a classification score (Y Predicted) indicative of its representativeness;
 413 the classification threshold was set to 0.6.

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Type of Sample	Y Predicted Adulterated Saffron	Y Predicted Pure Saffron
Adulterated Saffron - Sf	1,04	-0,04
Adulterated Saffron - Sf	0,98	0,02
Adulterated Saffron - Sf	1,07	-0,07
Adulterated Saffron - G	0,91	0,09
Adulterated Saffron - G	1,02	-0,02
Adulterated Saffron - G	0,99	0,01
Adulterated Saffron - St	1,01	-0,01
Adulterated Saffron - St	1,16	-0,16
Adulterated Saffron - St	0,88	0,12
Adulterated Saffron - T	0,82	0,18
Adulterated Saffron - T	1	0
Adulterated Saffron - T	0,82	0,18
Pure Saffron	-0,06	1,06
Pure Saffron	-0,04	1,04
Pure Saffron	0,15	0,85

427 **Table 2**

428 Classification List for the 12 test set saffron samples (3 spiked saffron samples for each plant
 429 adulterant) re-projected onto the O2PLS-DA model (adulterated saffron) performed by considering
 430 a training set constituted by 28 samples (7 spiked saffron samples for each plant adulterant). Each
 431 test set sample was classified by means of a classification score (Y Predicted) indicative of its
 432 representativeness. The threshold considered for correct classification was 0.6.

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435	Type of Adulteration	Y Predicted Safflower (Sf)	Y Predicted Gardenia (G)	Y Predicted Stamens (St)	Y Predicted Turmeric (T)
	Sf	1,05	-0,04	-0,13	0,12
436	Sf	0,94	0,02	-0,08	0,12
	Sf	0,95	-0,04	0,07	0,02
437	G	0,01	1,04	0,02	-0,06
	G	0,03	1,07	0,05	-0,15
438	G	0,02	0,95	0,13	-0,1
	St	0	-0,02	0,99	0,03
439	St	0,01	0	1,03	-0,04
	St	0,02	0,13	0,73	0,12
440	T	0,03	-0,04	0	1,01
	T	-0,01	-0,02	-0,15	1,18
	T	0,01	-0,03	0,13	0,89

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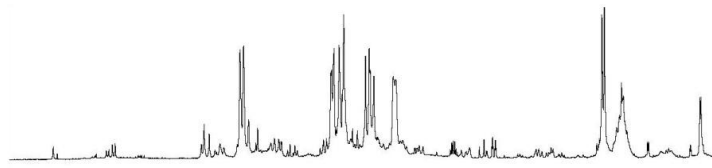
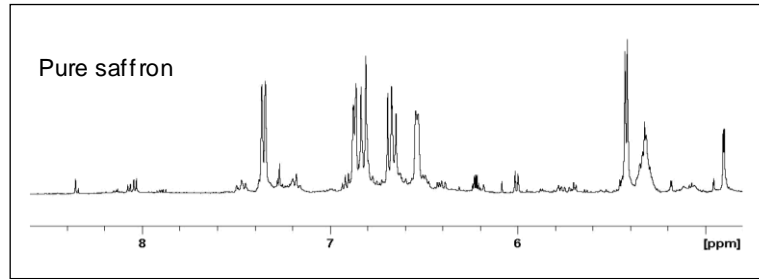
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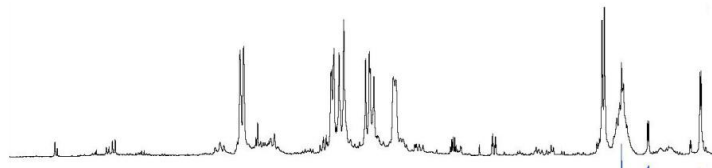
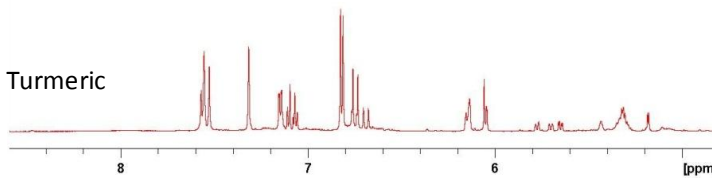
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451 **Figures**

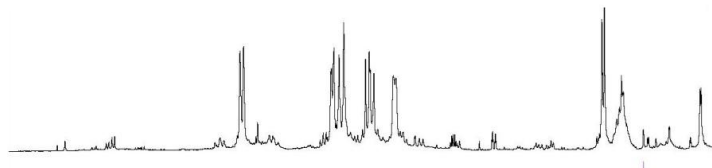
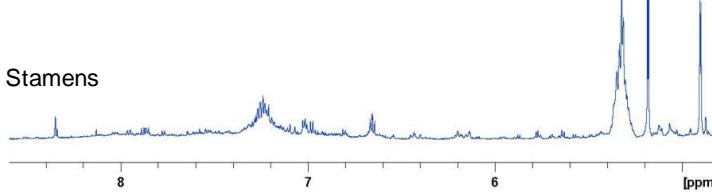
452 **Figure 1**



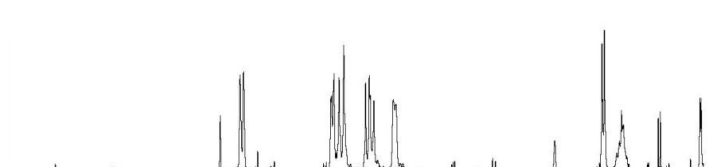
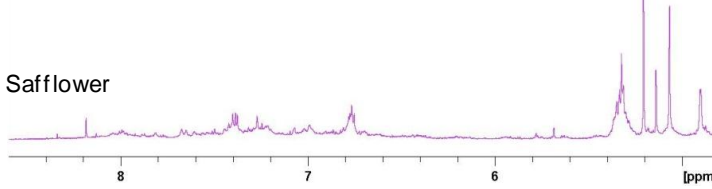
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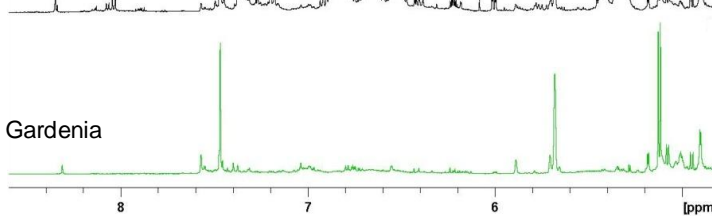
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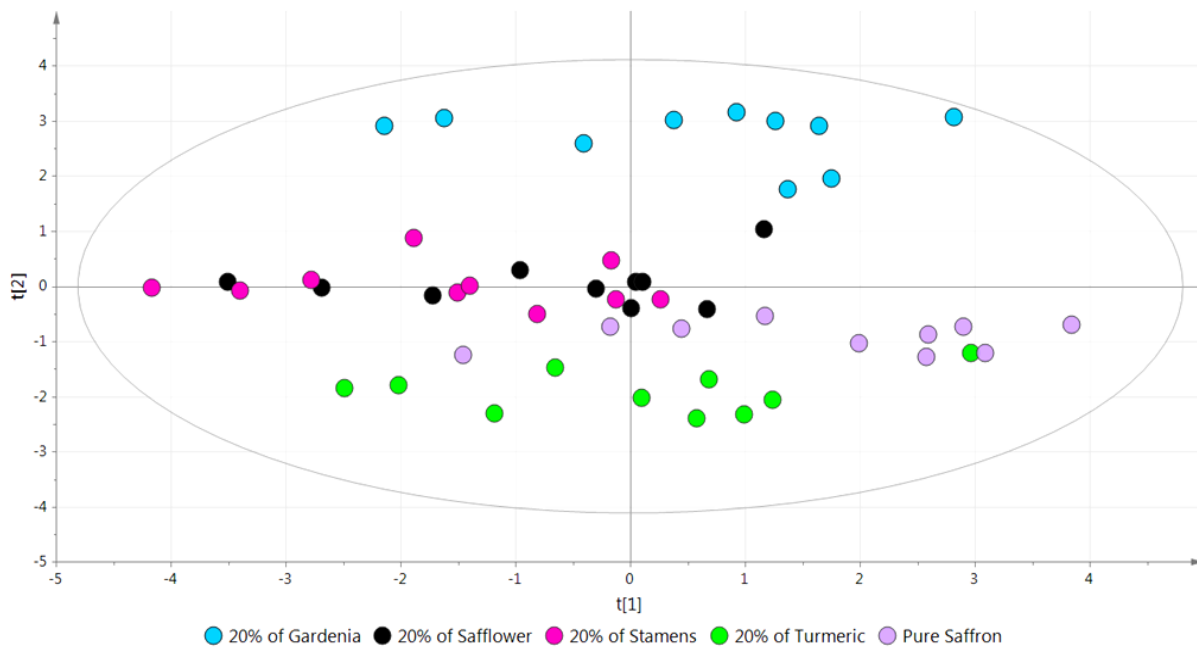
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471 Figure 2



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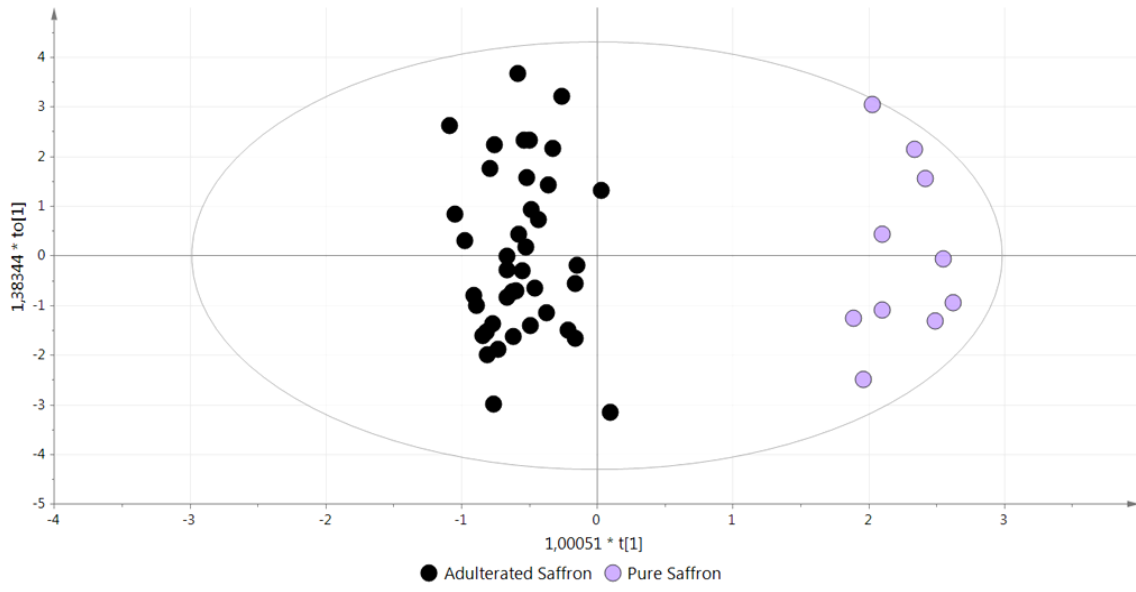
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Figure 3



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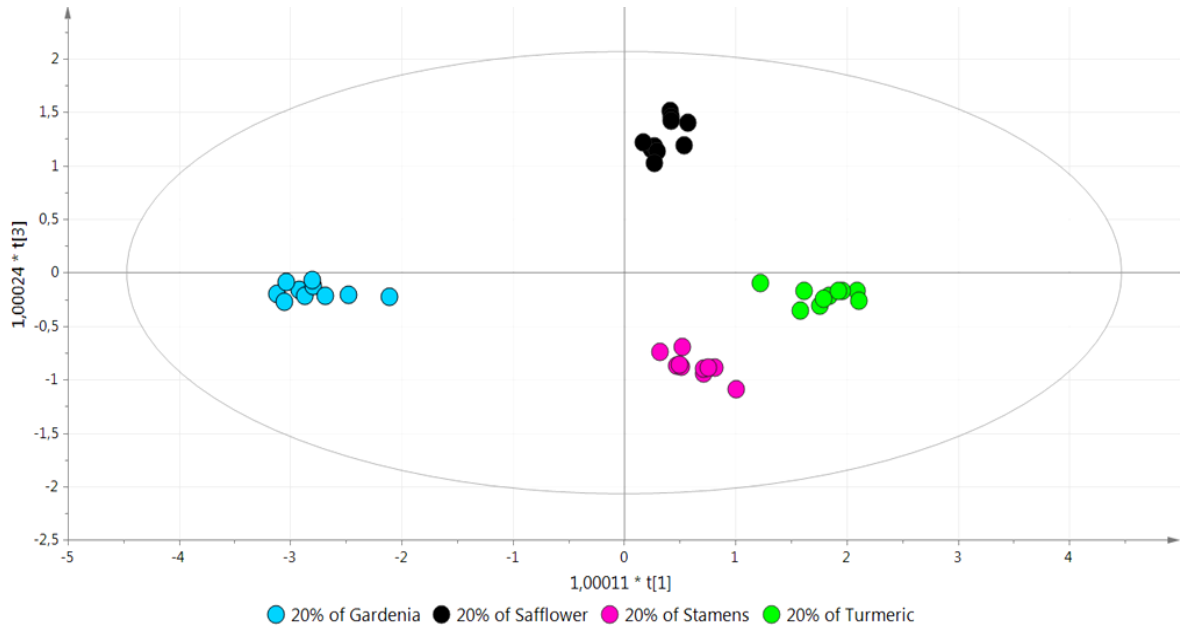
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Figure 4



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516 **Highlights**

- 517 ➤ NMR based Metabolite fingerprinting for saffron quality characterization
- 518 ➤ Differentiation between authentic and adulterated saffron
- 519 ➤ Identification of common plant adulterants at minimum level of 20% (w/w).

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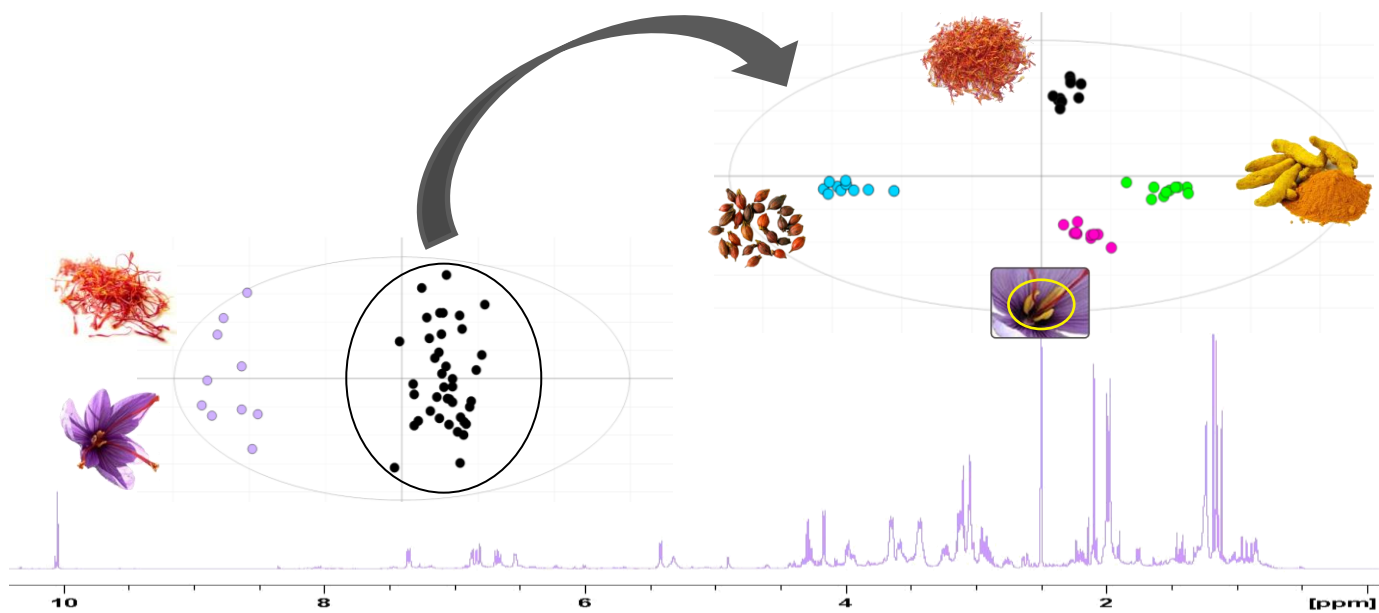
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542 **Graphic for table of contents**

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Highlights

- NMR based Metabolite fingerprinting for saffron quality characterization
- Differentiation between authentic and adulterated saffron
- Identification of common plant adulterants at minimum level of 20% (w/w).