

Extraction of phenolic compounds from agro-industrial by-products by fungal fermentation with potential use as additives for meat and meat products. A review

Extracción de compuestos fenólicos de subproductos agroindustriales por fermentación fúngica con uso potencial como aditivos para carne y productos cárnicos. Revisión

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ABSTRACT

The present manuscript reviews the findings of different research studies that evaluate the use of fungal fermentation-assisted extraction, in solid-state fermentation (SSF) and submerged culture fermentation (SCF) with agroindustrial residues as substrates, to obtain phenolic compounds with possible applications as food additives. Some agro-industrial by-products (peels, pulps and seeds) are an important source of phenolic acids such as p-coumaric, p-hydroxybenzoic, chlorogenic, cinnamic, ferulic, gallic, protocatechuic, rosmarinic, syringic, and vanillic acids and flavonoids (apigenin, chrysin, (+)-catechin, kaempferol, myricetin, quercetin, rutin, hesperetin, and naringin). In addition, the utilization of these by-products as substrates in SSF and SCF allowed obtaining phenolic compounds with antioxidant and antimicrobial activities. Thus, fungal fermentationassisted extraction provides a potential alternative to obtain natural additives for meat and meat products industry.

Keywords: Mushroom, Fermentation, Compound extraction, Food additives

RESUMEN

El presente manuscrito revisa los hallazgos de diferentes estudios de investigación que evalúan el uso de la extracción-asistida por fermentación fúngica, en medio sólido (SSF) y cultivo sumergido (SCF) con subproductos agroindustriales como sustratos, para obtener compuestos fenólicos con posible uso como aditivos alimentarios. Algunos subproductos agroindustriales (pulpas, cáscaras y semillas) son una fuente importante de ácidos fenólicos como *p*-cumárico, *p*-hidroxibenzoico, clorogénico, cinámico, ferúlico, gálico, protocatecuico, rosmarínico, siríngico, y vanílico, y de flavonoides (apigenina, crisina, (+)-catequina, kaempferol, miricetina, quercetina, rutina, hesperetina y naringina). Además, la utilización de estos subproductos como sustratos en SSF y SCF permitió obtener compuestos fenólicos con actividad antioxidante y antimicrobiana. Por lo que, la extracción-asistida por fermentación fúngica proporciona una alternativa potencial para obtener aditivos naturales para la industria de la carne y productos cárnicos.

Palabras clave: Hongos, Fermentación, Extracción de compuestos, Aditivos alimentarios.

INTRODUCTION

Meat and meat products are considered an important source of many essential nutrients in the human diet, including lipids such as fatty acids (mono- or polyunsaturated) and proteins rich in essential amino acids such as isoleucine, leucine, lysine, methionine, phenylalanine, threonine, and valine, which are highly susceptible to oxidation processes (Hammad et al., 2020). Oxidative deterioration of lipids and proteins, and microbial growth are considered the main causes of quality loss in any type of meat or meat products leading to organoleptic and technological changes such as color, odor, flavor, appearance, and texture, as well as water holding capacity and water loss by cooking. In addition, both factors promote nutrient losses and toxic compound formation (Jiang and Xiong, 2016; Aziz and Karboune, 2018). However, the uncontrolled uses of antioxidant and antimicrobial additives to preserve meat and meat products is a practice that generate negative effects on consumer health; thus, strict regulations for their controlled used in foods has been promoted (Poljsak et al., 2013; Aziz and Karboune, 2018).

In previous investigations to reduce lipid and protein oxidation and microbial growth in meat and meat products, extracts rich in phytochemicals have been obtained from plants, herbs, and species, and used instead of synthetic preservatives (Jiang and Xiong, 2016). In addition, the reuse of agro-industrial by-products such as peel pomace and seeds offers an alternative source of additives with antioxidant and antimicrobial properties (Hernández-Carlos *et al.*, 2019).

Moreover, several extraction methods have been developed to obtain bioactive compounds from agro-industrial by-products, such as conventional (maceration and



*Autor para correspondencia: Rey David Vargas Sánchez Correo electrónico: rey.vargas@ciad.mx **Recibido: 2 de junio del 2020 Aceptado: 11 de agosto de 2021** hydrodistillation extraction) and unconventional (ultrasonic, microwave, supercritical fluid, and enzyme extraction) methods. These extraction methods in combination with a solvent system of different polarities, including water, acetone, ethanol, methanol, hexane, and petroleum ether, improve the types of compounds that can be extracted (Azmir *et al.*, 2013; Hernández-Carlos *et al.*, 2019). However, biotechnological methods such as fungal fermentation-assisted extraction (SSF and SCF) has been suggested as an additional alternative to obtain bioactive compounds from agro-industrial by-products (Papaspyridi *et al.*, 2012; Santana-Méridas *et al.*, 2012). In this review, a general description of the uses of fungal fermentation-assisted extraction (SSF and SCF) to obtain phenolic compounds from agro-industrial by-products, and their possible applications as food additives are discussed.

Phenolic Compounds from Agro-Industrial By-Products

The definition of food losses and waste could be associated with a reduction in the availability of food, a decrease in nutritional value and a deterioration in food safety, involving many players in food supply chains, such as farmers and processors. Furthermore, food losses could occur by accidental causes (intrinsic or extrinsic factors), and food waste occurs for reasons of negligence (FAO, 2017). The Mexican normative (NOM-251-SSA1-2009) defines food residue/byproduct as 'waste from processed raw material'. In this regard, the food processing industry generates large amounts of byproducts, including pomace, husks, seeds, leaves, stems, and wood (Peanparkdee and Iwamoto, 2019; Rico et al., 2020). In some cases, these by-products are treated to decrease negative environmental impact, making them a useful product with the added benefits of solving a problem and generating additional income (Rico et al., 2020).

Agro-industrial by-products are commonly disposed of, used on-site or used off-site or after pre-treatment. These can be pre-treated by physicochemical (combustion, pyrolysis, and gasification) or biochemical (anaerobic digestion and fermentation) processes, to generate biodiesel and electricity or bio-alcohol and biogas, respectively. In addition, agroindustrial by-products can be pre-treated by bio-reduction to produce animal feed, and by chemical modifications, and by SSF and SCF to obtain bioactive compounds (Santana-Méridas et al., 2012). Thus, agro-industrial by-products are considered a rich source of bioactive compounds, including alkaloids, terpenoids, saponins, essential amino acids and fatty acids, minerals, carotenoids, vitamins, polysaccharides, and phenolic compounds like phenolic acids, and flavonoids (Wijngaard et al., 2012; Azmir et al., 2013; Peanparkdee and Iwamoto, 2019; Rico et al., 2020).

The major by-products of fruit processing are peel and seed, and in a minor proportion, pulp (Santana-Méridas *et al.*, 2012). However, the extraction, identification and uses of phenolic compounds are widely investigated in commercial sectors such as the pharmaceutical, chemical, and food industries (Azmir *et al.*, 2013; Santana-Méridas *et al.*, 2012). In this context, table 1 compiled literature reports of these residues as an important source of phenolic acids, including peel (apple, potato, and tomato), pulp (avocado) and seeds (avocado, citrus, and tomato). In addition, table 2 demonstrate that by-products also are a significant source of flavones, flavonols, and flavanones compounds. It has been reported that phenolic compounds are present ubiquitously in all parts of plants such as wood, leaves, roots, and fruits (Vermerris and Nicholson, 2008; Rico *et al.*, 2020). In this regard, these compounds are commonly trapped or bound to the dietary fiber of plant material, through hydrogen bonds between the phenol hydroxyl group (HO') of the phenolic component, hydrophobic interactions, and covalent bonds like ester bond between phenolic acids and polysaccharides (Quirós-Sauceda *et al.*, 2011).

Chemical structure plays a key role in the bioactivity of phenolic compounds, which have been associated with several key factors such as OH-group location in the benzene ring, the substitution patterns by the OH-group (*ortho-*, *meta-*, *para-*, *meta-tri-*, *vic-tri-*), the presence of glycosylation, and double bounds in the benzene structure (Vermerris and Nicholson, 2008; Rico *et al.*, 2020). However, the types of phenolic compounds obtained, and their bioactivity are closely associated with the extraction method employed (Azmir *et al.*, 2013).

Extraction Methods

Phenolic compounds are widely found as a mixture of different components in a solid, and for extraction that are dispersed in a liquid phase, which allows their separation from the solid phase. This process is known as liquid-solid extraction, and to increase the diffusion rate of the solvent in the solute and yields, it is necessary to dry and reduce the particle size of the solid or plant material (fruits, leaves, stem, roots, wood, flowers or seeds) (Pinelo *et al.*, 2007; Pronyk and Mazza, 2009; Orphanides *et al.*, 2013).

Furthermore, several methods are frequently employed to obtained phenolic compounds, including rustic methods (extraction by cooking, percolation, and infusion), conventional methods (extraction by maceration, Soxhlet, and hydrodistillation) and unconventional methods, including enzymes-assisted extraction, microwave-assisted extraction, pressurized liquid-assisted extraction, supercritical fluids-assisted extraction, and ultrasound-assisted extraction (Wijngaard *et al.*, 2012; Azmir *et al.*, 2013). However, the solvent type, solvent-solid ratio, number of extractions, pH, temperature, time, vacuum and fermentation process, among other conditions used, influences phenolic yields (Spigno *et al.*, 2007; Ramírez-Rojo *et al.*, 2018).

Fungal Culture Fermentation

SSF involves the fermentation of solids or semi-solids in the absence of water, where the substrate used to be the source of moisture to support microbial growth (Pandey, 2003; Castañeda-Casasola *et al.*, 2018), while in SCF, microorganisms grow submerged with an excess of water and limited oxygen (Castañeda-Casasola *et al.*, 2018). In this context,



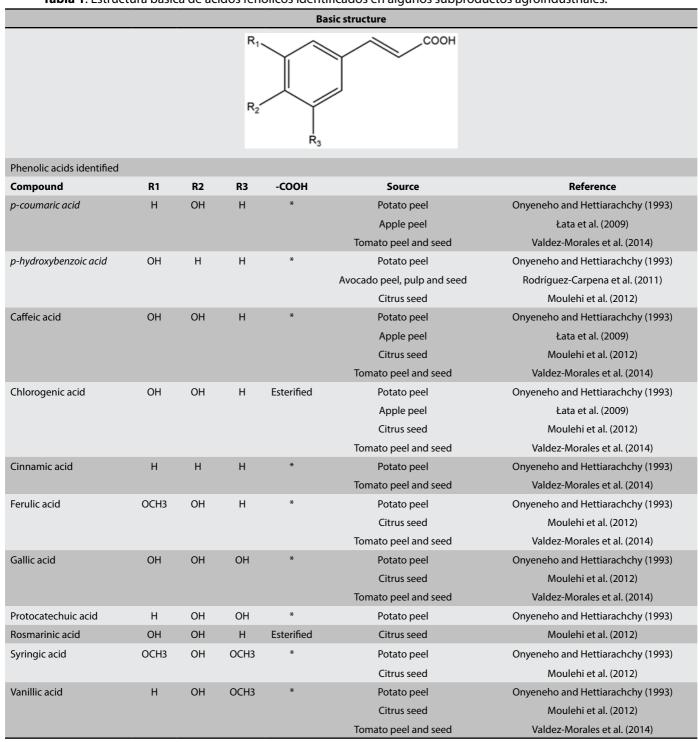


Table 1. Basic structure of phenolic acids identified in some agro-industrial by-products. Tabla 1. Estructura básica de ácidos fenólicos identificados en algunos subproductos agroindustriales.

Table 2. Basic structure of flavonoids identified in some agro-industrial by-products. Tabla 2. Estructura básica de algunos flavonoides identificados en subproductos agroindustriales.

						Basi	c structu	re of flav	onoids	
				R7	, ,	A R5			R3' R4' R5'	
Flavonoids ide	ntified									
Compound	R3	R5	R7	R2′	R3′	R4'	R5′	C2-C3	Source	Reference
Flavones	сл	сл	n/	πz	сл	N4	сл	C2-C3	Source	Reference
Apigenin	Н	ОН	ОН	н	н	ОН	н	+	Citrus seed	Moulehi <i>et al.</i> (2012)
Apigenin		On	OII			OII		'	Tomato peel and seed	Valdez-Morales <i>et al.</i> (2014)
Chrysin	Н	ОН	ОН	Н	Н	Н	Н	+	Apple peel	Balasuriya and Rupasinghe (2012)
Flavanols										
(+) catechin	OH	ОН	ОН	Н	Н	OH	ОН	-	Apple peel	Łata <i>et al.</i> (2009)
									Avocado peel, pulp and seed	Rodríguez-Carpena et al. (2011)
									Citrus seed	Moulehi <i>et al</i> . (2012)
Kaempferol	ОН	ОН	ОН	н	н	OH	Н	+	Citrus seed	Moulehi <i>et al.</i> (2012)
									Tomato peel and seed	Valdez-Morales et al. (2014)
Myricetin	OH	OH	OH	Н	OH	OH	OH	+	Tomato peel and seed	Valdez-Morales et al. (2014)
Quercetin	OH	OH	OH	н	OH	OH	Н	+	Apple peel	Łata <i>et al</i> . (2009)
									Citrus seed	Moulehi <i>et al</i> . (2012)
									Tomato peel and seed	Valdez-Morales et al. (2014)
Rutin	Gly	OH	OH	н	OH	OH	Н	+	Apple peel	Łata <i>et al</i> . (2009)
									Citrus seed	Moulehi <i>et al</i> . (2012)
									Tomato peel and seed	Valdez-Morales et al. (2014)
Flavanones										
Hesperetin	Н	OH	OH	Н	OH	OCH_3	Н	-	Citrus seed	Moulehi <i>et al</i> . (2012)
Naringin	н	ОН	OH	н	Н	OH	Н	-	Apple peel	Balasuriya and Rupasinghe (2012)
									Citrus seed	Moulehi <i>et al</i> . (2012)
									Tomato peel and seed	Valdez-Morales et al. (2014)

(+) double; (-) single.

fungal mycelia is widely produced in SSF using substrates such as grains, sawdust or wood from different plant species (Yang and Liau, 1998). Nevertheless, it has been reported that SCF improves potential advantage than SSF, because inoculums can be uniformly dispersed in the substrate, and the time and/or harvest speed are reduced (Yang and Liau, 1998; Xu and Zhu, 2011; Xu *et al.*, 2015).

Moreover, fungal mycelia production during the fermentation process varies extensively, depending on the

species of fungus and environmental or culture conditions used (temperature, initial pH, surface-aeration, aeration rate, rotating speed, and stimulatory agents, among others), which consequently affect phytochemical extraction from the substrate (Yang and Liau, 1998; Xu and Zhu, 2011; Xu *et al.*, 2015).

Phenolic Compounds Extraction by Fungal Fermentation

In relation to the aforementioned, the use of agro-in-



dustrial by-products as substrates in combination with fungal fermentation-assisted extraction (SSF and SCF), are considered an alternative method for the extraction of phytochemicals, including triterpenoids, polysaccharides, and phenolic compounds, which could be obtained through agro-industrial by-products (Xu and Zhu, 2011; Xu *et al.*, 2014; Xu *et al.*, 2015; Dey *et al.*, 2016).

In this context, the extraction of phenolic compounds and triterpenoids from citrus peel like pomelo, lemon, orange, and tangerine, through SCF (25 °C at 100 rpm, 28 d) with *Antrodia cinnamomea* has been reported (Ma *et al.*, 2014). Also, polysaccharide and triterpenoid extraction from citrus peels, including pomelo, lemon, orange, and grapefruit, using SCF (25 °C at 100 rpm, 28 d) with *A. cinnamomea* was also demonstrated (Yang *et al.*, 2012). Xu and Zhu (2011), reported the extraction of phenolic compounds with antioxidant properties (DPPH⁻ and hydroxyl scavenging activity) from ground corn stover by SCF (28 °C at 150 rpm, 12 d) using *Inonotus obliquus*. In addition, Vattem and Shetty (2002) demonstrated the extraction of phenolic compounds such as ellagic acid, resveratrol and rosmarinic acid with antioxidant properties (antiradical DPPH⁻ and β -carotene antioxidant protection factor) from cranberry pomace by SSF (28 °C, 16 d) using *Rhizopus oligosporus*.

Additionally, table 3 compile literature reports focused on the extraction of phenolic compounds with antioxidant and antibacterial properties, from agro-industrial by-products using fungal fermentation-assisted extraction

 Table 3. Obtaining phenolic compounds from agro-industrial by-products through fungal fermentation-assisted extraction.

Tabla 3. Obtención de compuestos fenólicos de subproductos agroindustriales mediante extracción-asistida por fermentación fúngica.

Substrate	Fungi	Fermentation	Relevant results	Reference
Black rice bran	Aspergillus awam- ori and Aspergillus oryzae	SSF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▼ Total phenolic and anthocyanin content, in the order A. awamori > A. oryzae ▲ Total phenolic content obtained by decomposing anthocyanin content ▲ Protocatechuic, OH-benzoic, vanillic, caffeic, p-coumaric and ferulic acids 	Shin <i>et al.</i> (2019)
			'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ DPPH' radical-scavenging activity	
Peanut press cake	Aspergillus awamori	SSF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Total phenolic, flavonoid and tannin content 	Sadh <i>et al.</i> (2018)
			 'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ ABTS⁺⁺ and DPPH⁺ radical-scavenging activity ▲ Metal chelating activity 	
Rice bran extract	Aspergillus oryzae and Rhizopus oryzae	SSF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Ferulic, caffeic, and protocatechuic acids, by A. oryzae ▲ Sinapic, vanillic, caffeic, syringic, protocatechuic, and 4-hydroxybenzoic acids, by R. oryzae 'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ FRAP, by both fungi 	Razak <i>et al.</i> (2017)
			DPPH' radical-scavenging activity	
Corncob, pea pod, rice straw, sugarcane ba- gasse, and wheat straw	Aspergillus terreus and Penicillium citrinum	SSF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Total phenolic content, by both fungi 'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ DPPH' and NO' radical-scavenging activity, by both fungi ▲ Fe²⁺ scavenging activity, by both fungi ▲ FRAP, by both fungi 	Chandra and Arora (2016)
Plum fruit	Aspergillus niger and Rhizopus oligosporus	SSF	 Plum pomace 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' Total phenolic and flavonoid content, in a similar manner for both fungi Chlorogenic acid, isoquercetin, and rutin neochlorogenic acid, isorhamnetin-3-galactoside, Isorha-3-gluc, isorhamnetin-3-glucoside, cyaniding-3-glucoside, and cyaniding-3-rutinoside Quercetin-3-galactoside 'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' DPPH' radical-scavenging activity, in a similar manner for both fungi Waste from plum brandy production 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' Total phenolic and flavonoid content, in a similar manner for both fungi Waste from plum brandy production 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' Total phenolic and flavonoid content, in a similar manner for both fungi Neochlorogenic acid, chlorogenic acid, isoquercitrin, quercetin-3-galactoside, and rutin Isorhamnetin-3-galactoside Isorhamnetin-3-glucoside, and cyaniding-3-glucoside and cyaniding-3-rutinoside 	Dulf <i>et al.</i> (2016)
			'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ DPPH' radical-scavenging activity, in a similar manner for both fungi	



Substrate	Fungi	Fermentation	Relevant results	Reference
Apple pomace	Rhizopus oryzae	SSF and SCF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Fumaric acid production, by both culture methods 	Das <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Orchid	Fusarium avenace- um and Fusarium oxysporum	SSF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Total phenolic content 'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ DPPH' and ABTS'* radical-scavenging activity, as well as reducing power ▲ Inshibition of Captula compound Bacillus subtilis growth 	Dong <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Peanut shell	Inonotus obliquus	SCF	 ▲ Inhibition of Staphylococcus aureus and Bacillus subtilis growth 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Phenolic compounds such as epigallocatechin-3-gallate, epicatechin-3-gallate, phelligridin G, davallialactone, and inoscavin B ▼ Phenolic acid, including gallic and ferulic acids 'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' 	Xu <i>et al.</i> (2014)
Algao	Candida utilis	SCF	▲ DPPH' and 'OH radical-scavenging activity	Eom <i>et al</i> .
Algae	Canalaa utilis	201	'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ Inhibition of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus	(2013)
Herbal residues	Aspergillus oryzae	SSF	'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Gallic acid formation	Wen <i>et al</i> . (2013)
			'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ DPPH' radical-scavenging activity and reducing power	
			▲ Inhibition of Bacillus cereus, Listeria monocytogenes, Staphylococcus aureus, and Escherichia coli	
Sugarcane ba- gasse	Inonotus obliquus	SCF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Phenolic compounds such as epicatechin-3-gallate, epigallocatechin-3-gallate, and phelligridin G 	Zhu and Xu (2013)
			'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ DPPH' and 'OH radical-scavenging activity	
Coffee silver- skin and coffee grounds	Aspergillus ustus, Aspergillus niger, Neurospora crassa, and Penicillium purpurogenum	SSF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Total phenolic content 	Machado et al. (2012)
Pineapple and guava	Rhizopus oligos- porus	SSF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Total phenolic content 'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' 	Sousa and Correia (2012)
Corn cob	Yarrowia lipolytica	SCF	▼ DPPH' radical-scavenging activity 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds '	Huang <i>et al</i> .
	Tarrowia iipolytica	50	▲ Ferulic acid production	(2011)
Cashew husk	Aspergillus oryzae	SSF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Gallic acid production 	Lokeshwari and Reddy (2010)
Citrus peel	Cordyceps sinensis	SCF	 ▲ Total phenolic and flavonoids content ▲ ABTS⁺⁺ radical-scavenging activity 	Choi <i>et al.</i> (2010)
Wheat bran	Agrocybe chaxin- gu, Auricularia auricula-judae, Cordyceps militaris, Hericium erina- ceus, and Pleurotus ostreatus	SCF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Ferulic acid production, in the order H. erinaceus > P. ostreatus > C. militaris 	Xie <i>et al.</i> 2010
Valonia acorns extract	Aspergillus oryzae and Trichoderma reesei	SCF	'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Ellagic acid production, in the order A. oryzae > T. reesei	Huang <i>et al.</i> (2007)
Shrimp and crab shell powder	Monascus purpu- reus	SCF	 'Fungal fermentation effect on bioactivity' ▲ Antimicrobial effect against Bacillus subtilis, Bacillus cereus, Pseudomonas aeru- ginosa, Staphylococcus aureus and Escherichia coli 	Wang <i>et al</i> . (2002)
Tannic acid	Aspergillus awamori	SCF	'Fungal fermentation effect on phenolic compounds' ▲ Gallic acid production	Seth and Chand (2000)

(▲), significant increase with respect to the control group; (▼), significant reduction with respect to the control group; (●), without significant differences with respect to the control group.



(SSF and SCF). Mycelial growth during fungal fermentation depends on the nutrient supply (nitrogen, phosphorus and carbon) and any type of energy source or substrate, as well as substrate digestibility, which are essential for extraction of bioactive secondary metabolites (Hölker *et al.*, 2004).

Likewise, an increase in enzyme production (lipases, xylanase, pectinase, proteases, cellulolytic, and ligninolytic enzymes) during fungal fermentation has been demonstrated (Hölker et al., 2004; Sadh et al., 2018). The enzymatic hydrolysis produced during fungal fermentation increase the extraction of phenolic compounds, such as *p*-coumaric, caffeic, chlorogenic, ferulic, protocatechuic, sinapic, syringic, and vanillic acids, quercetin, and rutin. Also, improve antioxidant activity like antiradical (DPPH' and ABTS'+ activity), chelating metal properties, ferric reducing antioxidant power, and nitric oxide chelating properties. As well as antimicrobial activity by microbial growth and foodborne pathogens reduction (Hölker et al., 2004; Das et al., 2015; Dong et al., 2015; Dulf et al., 2016; Razak et al., 2017; Sadh et al., 2018; Shin et al., 2019). Thus, the enzymatic hydrolysis produced during fungal fermentation appears to be an attractive strategy to extract phenolic compounds with potential uses as food additives (Papaspyridi et al., 2012).

Phenolic Compounds as Possible Meat and Meat Product Additives

The NOM-213-SSA1-2002 define a 'food additive' as 'those substances, which added directly to food and beverages during their elaboration, provide or intensify aroma, color, and flavor, to improve stability and conservation'. Also, the FDA (2008) indicate that a 'Food Additive' is 'any substance that when use directly or indirectly, become a component or otherwise affect the characteristics of any food, including any substance intended for use in packaging, production, manufacturing, preparation, processing, treatment, transportation or storage of food; and including any source of radiation intended for such use'. The Codex Alimentarius (2017) defined it as 'any substance that, regardless of its nutritional value, is intentionally added to a food in controlled quantities for technological purposes'.

Moreover, in the meat and meat products industry, additives are widely employed for preservative purposes (i.e., as antioxidants and antimicrobials). An antioxidant additive, is defined as a 'substance added to foods to prevent the oxygen present in the air from causing undesirable changes in flavor and color' (USDA, 2015). In another context, an antimicrobial additive, is defined as 'a substance that meets the definition of food additive and is used to control microorganisms such as bacteria, viruses, fungi, among others, in food or food contact items' (FDA, 2008).

The following is a list of additives commonly used in meat and meat products as preservatives are: a-tocopherol (E307), acetic acid (E260), ascorbic acid (E300), citric acid (E330), erythorbic acid (E315), fumaric acid (E297), lactic acid (E270), sorbic acid (E200), tartaric acid (E334), sodium ascorbate (E301), calcium ascorbate (E302), sodium benzoate (E211), butylhydroxyanisole (E320), and butylhydroxytoluene (E321). Also, calcium carbonate (E170i), sodium citrate (E330), potassium citrate (E332), tricalcium citrate (E333iii), trisodium citrate (E331iii), isopropyl citrate (E384), sodium diacetate (E262ii), sodium erythorbate (E316), ethyl lauroyl arginate (E243), propyl gallate (E310), nitrite/sodium nitrate (E250 and E252), tert-butylhydroquinone (E319), potassium sorbate (E202), among others (NOM-122-SSA1-1994; FDA, 2004; European Commission, 2014; FAO, 2018). The preservative compounds mentioned above have phenolic groups in their structure, which in phenolic compounds (phenolic acid and flavonoids) are widely associated with their antioxidant and antimicrobial activity (Sova, 2012).

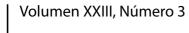
Moreover, extensive research has demonstrated that lipid oxidation and microbial growth, are the main factors involved in the quality loss of raw and cooked meat products. These factors lead to the formation of some compounds that affect sensory attributes, including changes in texture, odor, flavor, and color, which consequently have an adverse effect on meat acceptability and meat purchase intention (Faustmant *et al.*, 2010; Aziz and Karboune, 2018). Therefore, there have been efforts to obtain antioxidant and antimicrobial compounds from natural sources, including agro-industrial by-products (Faustmant *et al.*, 2010; Jiang and Xiong, 2016).

Table 4 shows the possible uses of phenolic compounds, obtained by SSF and SCF using agro-industrial residues as substrate, including as meat and meat product additives. In this context, it has been demonstrated that phenolic compounds and flavonoids can preserve raw and cooked meat and meat products from different species (beef, camel, chicken, and pork), against undesirable changes caused by lipid oxidation and microbial growth during refrigerated

 Table 4. Uses of phenolic compounds as additives for meat and meat products.

 Tabla 4. Usos de compuestos fenólicos como aditivos para carne y productos cárnicos.

As an antioxidant additive					
Phenolic compounds	Conditions	Relevant results	References		
<i>Flavonoids</i> : catechin <i>Phenolic acids</i> : tannic, caffeic, and gallic	Product : Minced camel meat Storage : 4 °C for 9 days Addition level : 200 ppm	 ▲ Inhibition of lipid oxidation (catechin 72.7%, as well as tannic 95.5%, caffeic 80%, and gallic acids 70% approximately) ▲ Red color, 1 point in sensory score for all phenolic compounds 	Maqsoo <i>et al</i> . (2015)		
Phenolic acids : caffeic, t-cin- namic, <i>p</i> -coumaric, ferulic, gallic, <i>p</i> -hydroxybenzoic, gentisic, sinapic, and syringic	Product : Beef Storage : 4 °C for 6 days Addition level : 0.05 mmol/kg	▲ Inhibition of lipid oxidation precooked beef in the order sinapic acid > caffeic acid > ferulic acid > gentisic acid > syringic acid > t-cinnamic acid > p-coumaric acid > p-hydroxybenzoic acid	Brettonnet <i>et al.</i> (2010)		



Phenolic compounds	Conditions	Relevant results	References
<i>Flavonoids</i> : quercetin and rutin	Product: beef patties Storage: 2 °C for 11 days Addition level: 1 and 5 mM	 ✓ L* values in concentration dependence (quercetin 1.9%; rutin 3.0%) ✓ C values in concentration dependence (quercetin 12.3%; rutin 16.6%) ▲ h values in concentration dependence (quercetin 8.9%; rutin 16.4%) ▲ Inhibition of metmyoglobin formation in concentration dependence (quercetin 47.0% approximately; rutin 66.0% approximately) ▲ Inhibition of lipid oxidation in concentration dependence (quercetin 12.3%) ✓ Inhibition of lipid oxidation (rutin -23.8%) 	Bekhit <i>et al</i> . (2004)
<i>Flavonoids</i> : quercetin	Product: cook-chill chicken Storage: 5 °C for 5 days Addition level: 1.6% and 3.0%	▲ Inhibition of lipid oxidation (83.9% and 97.3% in concentration dependence)	Karastogiannidou (1999)
Flavonoids : (-)-epicatechin (EC), (-)-epigallocatechin (EGC), (-)-epicatechin gallate (ECG), and (-)-epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG)	Product : ground white muscle of mackerel Storage : cooked at 75 °C, 4 °C for 7 days Addition level : EC and EGC (200 mg/kg). ECG and EGCG (300 mg/kg)	▲ Inhibition of lipid oxidation (EC 40.5%; EGC, ECG, and EGCG 65.5%)	He and Shahidi (1997)
Flavonoids: kaempferol, morin, myricetin, naringenin, naringin, quercetin, and rutin Phenolic acids: gallic, caffeic, coumaric, ferulic, syringic, vanillic, sinapic, chlorogenic, and tannic	Product : cooked ground pork Storage : 4 °C for 4 weeks Addition level : 30 and 200 ppm	▲ Inhibition of lipid oxidation in concentration dependence Kaempferol (95.3%), morin (96.4%), myricetin (98.7%), naringenin (3.3%), naringin (2.3%), quercetin (98.9%), rutin (33.0%), as well as gallic (73.5%), caffeic (69.3%), coumaric (54.3%), ferulic (56.6%), syrin- gic (55.3%), vanillic (23.6%), sinapic (38.5%), chlorogenic (35.0%), and tannic (98.9%) acids	Shahidi <i>et al</i> . (1993)
<i>Flavonoids</i> : kaempferol, morin, myricetin, naringenin, naringin, quercetin, and rutin <i>Phenolic acids</i> : ellagic, gallic, vanillic, syringic, and tannic	Product: pork model system, cooked at 75 °C Storage: 4 °C for 3 weeks Addition level: 200 ppm	▲ Inhibition of lipid oxidation Kaempferol (41%), morin (30%), myricetin (1.0%), naringenin (4.7%), naringin (4.7%), quercetin (97%), and rutin (28.4%), as well as ellagic (99.0%), gallic (44.7%), vanillic (21.3%), syringic (39.6%), and tannic (57.0%) acids	Shahidi <i>et al.</i> (1992)
As an antimicrobial additive			
Phenolic compounds	Conditions	Relevant results	References
<i>Flavonoids</i> : catechin <i>Phenolic acids</i> : tannic, caffeic, and gallic	Product : Minced camel meat Storage : 4 °C for 9 days Addition level : 200 ppm	 Inhibition of mesophilic bacteria count, 1 log approximately (catechin and tannic acids) Inhibition of psychrotrophic bacteria count, 1 log approximately (catechin, tannic, and gallic acids) 	Maqsoo <i>et al</i> . (2015)
<i>Flavonoids</i> : rutin <i>Phenolic acids</i> : caffeic acid and <i>p</i> -coumaric	Product : chicken soup Storage : 4 and 25 °C for 48 h Addition level : 0.2 mg/ mL	▲ Inhibition of <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> growth (100% by all phenolic compounds)	Stojković <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>Phenolic acids</i> : benzoic	Product: Raw and cooked chicken meat Storage: 4 and 20 °C for 14 days Addition level: 5000 ppm	 ▲ Inhibition of <i>Listeria monocytogenes</i> and growth in raw and cooked meat (1.2 and 3.5 log, respectively) ▲ Inhibition of <i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> and growth in raw and cooked meat (1.2 log by both) 	Ravichandran <i>et al.</i> (2011)
Flavonoids: Mixture of querce- tin and rutin Phenolic acids: Mixture of gallic and caffeic Mixture of gallic and protocat- echuic	Product : meat model system Storage : 4 °C for 24 h days Addition level : 100 and 200 mg	▲ Inhibition of <i>Listeria monocytogenes</i> growth in concentration depen- dence (mixture quercetin and rutin 6.7 log; mixture gallic and caffeic acids 6.3 log; mixture gallic and protocatechuic acids 3.7 log)	Rodríguez-Vaquero <i>et al</i> . (2011)
Phenolic acids : carvacrol and thymol	Product : bovine meat stake Storage : 7 °C for 96 h Addition level : <1 μL/mL	▲ Inhibition of <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> growth of carvacrol and thymol in combination with organic acids (lactic and acetic)	De Oliviera <i>et al.</i> (2010)
Flavonoids: Mixture of querce- tin and rutin Phenolic acids: Mixture of gallic and caffeic Mixture of gallic and protocat- echuic	Product : meat model system Storage : 20 °C for 14 days Addition level : 100 and 200 mg	▲ Concentration- and temperature-dependent inhibition of <i>Escherichia coli</i> growth (mixture of quercetin and rutin 100%; mixture of gallic and caffeic acids 100%; mixture of gallic and protocatechuic acids 50% approximately)	Rodríguez-Vaquero <i>et al</i> . (2010)

(\blacktriangle), significant increase with respect to the control group; (\blacktriangledown), significant reduction with respect to the control group.



storage (Stojković *et al.*, 2013; Maqsoo *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, phenolic compounds can act through two pathways: (1) by breaking chain reactions triggered by free radicals, which implies hydrogen atom transfer (HAT), then electron transfer followed by a proton transfer mechanism (SET-PT) and sequential proton-loss electron-transfer (SPLET), and (2) by reducing metals such as copper (Cu²⁺) and iron (Fe³⁺) (Marković *et al.*, 2012). Additionally, phenolic compounds can act against nucleic acid and protein synthesis and alter the components of cellular membranes (Cushnie and Lamb, 2005).

CONCLUSION

The agro-industrial by-products are an important source of phenolic compounds, including phenolic acids and flavonoids. The uses of agro-industrial residues as substrates (seeds, pulps, and peels) during fungal fermentation-assisted extraction (SSF and SCF), can be used as an alternative or complementary strategy to obtain phenolic compounds like rustic, conventional and unconventional extraction methods. These compounds could be use as antioxidant and antimicrobial additives to extend the shelf life of raw and cooked meat and meat products from different species (beef, camel, chicken, and pork) during refrigerated storage.

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