

<https://helda.helsinki.fi>

Comparative antioxidant potential of kefir and yogurt of bovine and non-bovine origins

Baniasadi, Mehdi

2022-04

Baniasadi , M , Azizkhani , M , Saris , P E J & Tooryan , F 2022 , ' Comparative antioxidant potential of kefir and yogurt of bovine and non-bovine origins ' , Journal of Food Science and Technology , vol. 59 , pp. 1307-1316 . <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-021-05139-9>

<http://hdl.handle.net/10138/346056>

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-021-05139-9>

other

acceptedVersion

Downloaded from Helda, University of Helsinki institutional repository.

This is an electronic reprint of the original article.

This reprint may differ from the original in pagination and typographic detail.

Please cite the original version.

1
2 **Comparative antioxidant potential of kefir and yogurt of bovine and non-bovine origins**

3
4 Mehdi Baniasadi¹, Maryam Azizkhani^{2*}, Per Erik Joakim Saris³, Fahimeh Tooryan⁴

5
6 ¹M.Sc., Department of Food Hygiene, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Amol University of Special
7 Modern Technologies, Aftab 24 St., Imam Khomeini Av., Amol, Iran. Email: mehdi_food@yahoo.com

8 ²Ph.D., Associate Professor, Department of Food Hygiene, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Amol
9 University of Special Modern Technologies, Aftab 24 St., Haraz Av. Amol, Iran. Email:
10 azizkhani.maryam@gmail.com

11 ³Ph.D., Full Professor, Department of Microbiology, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland. Email:
12 Per.Saris@helsinki.fi

13 ⁴Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Department of Food Hygiene, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Amol
14 University of Special Modern Technologies, Aftab 24 St., Haraz Av. Amol, Iran. Email:
15 f.tooryan@gmail.com

16 *Corresponding author:

17 Maryam Azizkhani, Department of Food Hygiene, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Amol University of
18 Special Modern Technologies, Aftab 24 St., Haraz Av. Amol, Iran, P.O.: 46186-49767, Email:
19 azizkhani.maryam@gmail.com; ORCID: 0000-0001-5366-1660

20
21 **Abstract**

22 The aim of this study was to compare the antioxidant potential of the yogurt and kefir produced from
23 ewe, camel, goat, and cow milk. The antioxidant activity of the samples was assessed by measuring total
24 phenolic content (TPC), 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) free radical scavenging activity, ferric
25 reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) and 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) (ABTS)
26 radical reducing capacity during 20-day storage at 4 °C. Kefir and yogurt prepared from ewe and camel
27 milk had significantly higher antioxidative potential than samples made from goat and cow milk (P
28 <0.05). Ewe kefir (74.55-80.11 mg GAE 100 mL⁻¹) showed the highest TPC followed by cow kefir (65-
29 73.15 mg GAE 100 mL⁻¹), camel kefir (61.2-69.91 mg GAE 100 mL⁻¹) and goat kefir (58.31-73.5 mg
30 GAE 100 mL⁻¹) ($P < 0.05$). Camel yogurt possesses the highest TPC (56.5-68.25 mg GAE 100 mL⁻¹)
31 followed by ewe (40.32-46.5 mg GAE 100 mL⁻¹), cow (29.5-35.5 mg GAE 100 mL⁻¹) and goat (20.03-
32 26.85 mg GAE 100 mL⁻¹) yogurt ($P < 0.05$). According to DPPH, FRAP, and ABTS results, the
33 antioxidant activity of samples was as follows in descending order: ewe kefir, camel kefir, ewe yogurt,
34 camel yogurt, cow kefir, goat kefir, goat yogurt, cow yogurt.

35 **KEYWORDS:** antioxidant activity, kefir, milk, yogurt

36 **Abbreviations**

37
38 ABTS 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulfonic acid
39 °C degree Celsius
40 cm centimeter
41 DPPH 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl
42 FRAP ferric reducing antioxidant power
43 GAE gallic acid equivalent
44 h hour
45 M molar
46 min minute
47 mL milliliter
48 μm micrometer
49 nm nanometer
50 rpm round per minute
51 TPC total phenolic content
52 v/v volume/volume

53 w/v weight/volume

54

55

56 **Practical applications**

57 The oxidative stress and damage due to production of free radicals and reactive oxygen species in food
58 and body plays a considerable pathological role in health risk and human diseases such as cancer. It is
59 obvious that diets containing high amount of natural antioxidants are helpful to reduce the incidence of
60 oxidative stress related diseases and cancer. Fermented dairy products possess antioxidative potential
61 (Zulueta et al., 2009) and we assumed that this activity varies depending on origins of milk, the
62 composition of milk and also fermenting microorganisms. The awareness of consumers about the
63 harmful effects of synthetic antioxidants on health and the advantages of using functional natural foods
64 is increasing worldwide. Determining the antioxidative properties of the two most-consumed fermented
65 dairy products, kefir and yogurt, would be useful to support the healthful and biofunctional claims about
66 them to the consumers.

67

68

69 **1 INTRODUCTION**

70 Milk is known as a nutritionally valuable food that contains a wide range of micro and macronutrients
71 and considered as the main source of energy for mammalian infants. Furthermore, it has been found that
72 enzymatic (superoxide dismutase, catalase, and glutathione peroxidase) and nonenzymatic (lactoferrin,
73 casein, α -LA, β -LG, tryptophan, cysteine, tyrosine, lysine, carotenoids, uric acid, vitamins A, C, and E)
74 antioxidants are naturally present in the milk of different mammalian species. Therefore, it seems that
75 milk has health-beneficial and functional effects against the production of reactive oxygen species and
76 oxygen-free radicals which otherwise results in oxidative stress (Zulueta et al., 2009).

77 Among the fermented milk products, kefir and yogurt are the most popular. Yogurt is produced from
78 bacterial (yogurt cultures) fermentation of milk. Kefir drink is fermented milk produced from kefir grains
79 that has originated from the Caucasus, Eastern Europe, and Russia. Kefir grains are gelatinous irregularly
80 masses with white or light yellow color and consisted of a symbiotic mixture of lactic and acetic acid
81 bacteria (*Lactobacillus helveticus*, *L. brevis*, *L. kefir*, and *Leuconostoc mesenteroides*), several genera of
82 yeasts (*Kluyveromyces lactis*, *K. marxianus*, and *Pichia fermentans*), and mycelial fungi aggregated in a
83 polysaccharide matrix named kefiran (Yilmaz, Ozcan Yilsay, & Akpınar Bayızit, 2006). Therefore, kefir
84 is different from yogurt and other types of fermented milk products as it is produced as the result of the
85 metabolic activity of a wide range of microorganisms of microflora of kefir grains. There are studies that
86 showed the microorganisms of the yogurt starter culture produce lactic acid and natural bioactive
87 compounds (like peptides, amino acids, and organic acids) and antibiotics (such as bacteriocins) during
88 fermentation of cow milk (Leite et al., 2013). Also, it has been reported that kefir has beneficial effects
89 on human nutrition and health, such as improving the function of the immune system and digestive
90 organs, helping the treatment of blood hypertension, allergies, metabolic defects and heart diseases
91 (Cenesiz, Devrim, Kamber, & Sozmen, 2008).

92 In several works, the antioxidant and antimicrobial potential of milk and milk products (fermented
93 and non-fermented) were indicated (de Lima et al., 2018; Gamba et al., 2016; Rosa et al., 2017; Turkmen,
94 2017; Yilmaz-Ersan, Ozcan, Akpınar-Bayızit, & Sahin, 2016, 2018) but little information is found about
95 the antioxidative properties of kefir and yogurt produced from different types of milk. It is assumed that
96 fermented dairy products possess different antioxidant capacity based on their milk source, starter
97 culture, and shelf-life; therefore, the objective of this study was to I) determine total phenolic content,
98 and II) compare the antioxidant potential of the yogurt and kefir produced from ewe, camel, goat, and
99 cow milk during cold storage at 4 °C.

100

101 **2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

102 **2.1 Chemicals and reagents**

103 All the chemicals and reagents (sodium hydroxide, methanol, pH meter buffers, sodium carbonate,
104 copper sulphate, Folin–Ciocalteu reagent, gallic acid, potassium sodium tartrate tetrahydrate, 2, 2'-azino-
105 bis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid, potassium persulphate, ferrous sulphate, Iron(III) chloride,
106 ferric tripyridyl triazin) used in this study were purchased from Merck (Germany).

107

108 **2.2 Preparation of kefir and yogurt inoculums**

109 Raw cow, ewe, and goat milk were obtained from the dairy farm of Bandpei (Mazandaran, Iran) and
110 camel milk was purchased from a camel farm in Kalaleh (Golestan, Iran). Commercial starter culture
111 (containing *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* subsp. *bulgaricus* and *Streptococcus thermophilus*) as direct vat
112 set culture purchased from Danisco (Denmark) was used for yogurt production. Traditional kefir grains
113 were obtained from rural areas of Semnan (Semnan, Iran). In order to recover, the kefir grains were
114 transferred into pasteurized low-fat cow milk (0.45% fat content) and incubated at 25 ± 1 °C for 24 h and
115 this step was repeated for 7 consecutive days. After this 7-day period, the kefir grains were filtered to
116 separate the milk curd and washed with sterile distilled water 3 times. Then, the grains were inoculated
117 into pasteurized cow milk and kept at 25 ± 1 °C until used.

118

119 **2.3 Measuring the total solid, fat, protein, and lactose content of milk samples**

120 The fat and protein content of milk samples was measured by the Gerber method (Kleyn, Lynch,
121 Barbano, Bloom, & Mitchell, 2001) and the Kjeldahl method (Tremblay, Laporte, Leonil, Dupont, &
122 Paquin, 2003), respectively. Total solid and lactose contents were determined according to Boci et al.
123 and Sharma et al. respectively (Boci, Bardhi, & Cakraj, 2013; Sharma, Rajput, Dogra, & Tomar, 2009).

124

125 **2.4 Kefir and yogurt production**

126 Milk was heated to 90 ± 1 °C for 10 min in the hot water bath and cooled to the temperature appropriate
127 for inoculation (25 °C for kefir and 43 °C for yogurt). Kefir samples were prepared (in 250 mL glass
128 bottles) by inoculating kefir grains (5% v/v) to each individual milk and incubating (Memmert Incubator
129 400, Switzerland) at 25 °C for 20 h. The probiotic yogurt samples were produced by mixing milk samples
130 and starter culture (2% v/v) followed by incubation at 43-45 °C until reaching a pH 4.6 ± 0.1 . At the end
131 of the fermentation step, the kefir samples were filtered through a sterile metal sieve (1.5 mm pore size)
132 in order to separate the kefir grains and then filled into 250 mL glass bottles with plastic lid (Figure 1).
133 Yogurt samples were stored in glass jars with plastic lid.
134 Kefir and yogurt samples were kept at 4 ± 1 °C until analysis. The samples were analyzed on the 1st, 5th,
135 10th, 15th, and 20th days of storage.

136

137

137 **Figure 1**

138

139 **2.5 Preparation of the kefir and yogurt extracts for the assays**

140 Two grams of the kefir and yogurt samples were mixed with 20 mL of extracting solvent
141 (methanol/water, 70:30 v/v) and blended thoroughly on a magnetic stirrer (model RSM-03-10K, Phoenix,

142 Germany) at 20 ± 1 °C for 4 h in a dark place. Then it was centrifuged (model Z206A, Hermle, Germany)
143 at 3,000 rpm for 12 min at 4 °C and filtered through Whatman™ 12.5 cm Grade 2 cellulose qualitative
144 filter paper (Diameter: 12.5 cm, Pore Size: 8 µm). The obtained supernatants were used to determine pH,
145 total phenolic contents and antioxidant activity by DPPH, FRAP, and ABTS assay (Yilmaz-Ersan et al.,
146 2016).

147

148 **2.6 pH measurement**

149 The pH-values of the filtered kefir and yogurt supernatants were measured with a pH meter model 913
150 (Metrohm, Switzerland). The pH meter was calibrated by pH 4.00 and 7.00 standard buffers.

151

152 **2.7 Determination of total phenolic content in kefir and yogurt samples**

153 The total phenolic content (TPC) of the samples was measured by applying the Folin–Ciocalteu method
154 (Şahin, Aybastier, & Işık, 2013). The solutions were prepared as described below: solution A: 2% of
155 aqueous Na_2CO_3 in NaOH (0.1 M); solution B: 0.5% of aqueous CuSO_4 in 1% $\text{NaKC}_4\text{H}_4\text{O}_6$ solution;
156 solution C: a mixture of 50 mL solution A and 1 mL solution B which was prepared freshly; Folin–
157 Ciocalteu reagent was prepared by diluting its stock solution with H_2O at a ratio of 1:3 (v/v). In order to
158 perform the assay, 0.1 mL of kefir or yogurt extract was mixed with 1.9 mL of H_2O and 2.5 mL of
159 solution C and the mixture was kept in ambient temperature for 10 min. Then, 0.25 mL of Folin–
160 Ciocalteu reagent was added and incubated at room temperature for 30 min to stabilize the blue color.
161 The absorbance of the solution was measured by spectrophotometer (model Lambda 365, Perkin Elmer,
162 USA) at 750 nm. The standard calibration curve was obtained using several concentrations of gallic acid.
163 TPC was calculated from the plotted standard curve and expressed as mg of gallic acid equivalent (GAE)
164 per 100 mL of sample.

165

166 **2.8 Diphenyl picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical scavenging activity**

167 Antioxidant capacity of kefir and yogurt samples was assessed through 2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl
168 (DPPH) radical scavenging activity (%) (Şahin, Işık, Aybastıer, & Demir, 2012; Yilmaz-Ersan et al.,
169 2018). Briefly, 0.25 mL of kefir or yogurt extract was added to 0.18 mL of DPPH reagent (10^{-3} M of
170 stock solution) in a tube and mixed. Then, methanol was added to obtain the final volume of 3 mL. The
171 tube was kept in the dark for 30 min and the absorbance was read using a spectrophotometer (model
172 Lambda 365, Perkin Elmer, USA) at 517 nm against a blank. The standard curve was prepared using
173 different concentrations of Trolox (as the standard solution for calibration), and the results were
174 expressed as mg of Trolox Equivalents (TE) per 100 mL of sample and the percentage of antioxidant
175 activity was calculated using the following formula Eq. (1):

176

$$177 \text{ Radical Inhibition (\%)} = [(A_{\text{control}} - A_{\text{sample}})/A_{\text{control}}] \times 100 \quad (1)$$

178

179 which A_{control} was the absorbance of control and A_{sample} was the absorbance of the sample contained
180 kefir or yogurt extract.

181

182 **2.9 Ferric Reducing Antioxidant Power Assay**

183 The ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assay was performed to compare the antioxidative
184 capacity of kefir and yogurt samples (Benzie & Strain, 1996). In this method, iron acts as a redox agent
185 so the technique is designed upon the reduction of Fe^{3+} -TPTZ (ferric tripyridyl triazine) to Fe^{2+} -TPTZ
186 by the antioxidants. A blue color appears as the result of this reduction which is quantified by measuring

187 the absorbance at 593 nm. The working solution (FRAP reagent) was prepared by blending 10 volumes
188 of acetate buffer (1.0 M, pH 3.6), 1 volume of TPTZ (10 mM in 40 mM HCl) and 1 volume of FeCl₃ (20
189 mM). In a dry test tube, 0.25 mL of kefir or yogurt extract and 2.75 mL of the FRAP reagent were mixed
190 and kept at 37 °C for 30 min. Then, the solution was centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 min (at room
191 temperature). In the next step, 0.5 mL of the supernatant, 0.5 mL of distilled water and 0.1 mL of FeCl₃
192 (0.1% w/v) were mixed and after 8 min, the absorbance of the solutions was measured. To plot the
193 standard curve, different concentrations (100–1,000 μM) of FeSO₄·7H₂O were used. The antioxidant
194 capacity of the tested solutions was calculated using the standard curve which was prepared with a known
195 concentration of Fe²⁺ solution (Eq. 2). The FRAP assay results were reported as μM of Fe⁺² equivalent
196 per mL of sample.

$$197 \quad \text{FRAP} = (\Delta A_{\text{sample}} / \Delta A_{\text{standard}}) \times \text{FRAP value of the standard } (\mu\text{M}) \quad (2)$$

198 which A_{sample} and A_{standard} are the absorbance of the sample and standard solution, respectively.

199

200 **2.10 ABTS Assay**

201 The ABTS assay measures the ability of antioxidant compounds to scavenge the ABTS (2, 2'-azino-bis
202 (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid)) generated in an aqueous phase, compared with Trolox as the
203 standard. The total antioxidant activity of kefir and yogurt samples was compared using ABTS^{•+} radical
204 cation decolorization assay (Re et al., 1999). ABTS^{•+} cation radical was generated by the reaction
205 between ABTS (7 mM in water) and potassium persulfate (2.45 mM) (1:1v/v), stored in the dark at
206 ambient temperature for 12-16 h before use. ABTS^{•+} stock solution was diluted with ethanol to obtain a
207 working solution with an absorbance of 0.700 at the wavelength of 734 nm. Then, 0.25 mL of kefir/yogurt
208 extract was added to 3.75 mL of diluted ABTS^{•+} working solution, mixed and the absorbance was

209 measured at 734 nm after 30 min against a blank. A standard curve was plotted recording the absorbance
210 of different concentrations of Trolox, and the results were reported as mg of TE per 100 mL of sample
211 (Eq. 3).

212

$$213 \quad \text{ABTS}^{\cdot+} \text{ scavenging effect (mgTE/100ml)} = ((\text{AB}-\text{AA}) / \text{AB}) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

214 which AA was the absorbance of control and AB was the absorbance of the sample contained kefir or
215 yogurt extract where AA was the absorbance of control and AB was the absorbance of the sample
216 containing kefir or yogurt extract.

217

218 **2.11 Statistical analysis**

219 All the experiments were carried out three times. Statistical analyses of data were performed using the
220 statistical software package of SPSS (version 22.0). The results were analyzed by two-way ANOVA to
221 determine the effect of starter culture and storage time on the antioxidant activity. The significance level
222 of 5% was used and data were shown as mean \pm standard error of the mean.

223

224 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

225

226 **3.1 Chemical composition**

227 The fat content of ewe, camel, goat and cow milk samples was found 7.14 ± 0.012 , 3.58 ± 0.047 , $4.03 \pm$
228 0.023 and 3.31 ± 0.023 g per 100 mL, respectively. The protein content obtained 6.20 ± 0.105 , $3.18 \pm$
229 0.055 , 3.63 ± 0.075 and 3.45 ± 0.038 g per 100 mL for ewe, camel, goat and cow milk samples,
230 respectively. Total solid content of ewe, camel, goat and cow milk samples, were $19.51\% \pm 0.80$, 11.8%

231 ± 0.65 , $12.1\% \pm 0.48$, and $13.5\% \pm 0.47$, respectively. Ewe milk had the highest lactose content (5.05%
232 ± 0.87) followed by cow milk ($4.85\% \pm 0.23$), goat milk ($4.43\% \pm 0.39$), and camel milk ($4.35\% \pm 0.70$).

233

234 **3.2 pH variations**

235 In dairy-based products, changes in pH play an important role in the quality and organoleptic properties
236 and pH is a key factor that expresses the fermentation activity of starter culture. The growth rate and
237 fermentation capacity of starter microorganisms are extensively varying with the type of milk, nutrients
238 content of milk (protein, lactose, and oligosaccharides) and incubation conditions such as temperature
239 and time (Matar, LeBlanc, Martin, & Perdigon, 2003). The variations of pH values in kefir and yogurt
240 samples during 20 days of storage are shown in Figure 2. We observed a decrease in pH values in all
241 kefir and yogurt samples ($P < 0.05$) depending on the milk source and starter culture. At the beginning
242 phase of fermentation, the pH of kefir and yogurt samples for all milk types were almost similar (between
243 6.55 and 6.08) and then these values decreased during storage period to achieve the final pH. The final
244 pH was lower in goat and camel and higher in ewe and cow kefir and yogurt. Also, pH values of kefir
245 samples were lower than yogurt samples, independent of milk source, expressing that the traditional kefir
246 starter culture (kefir grain) has conducted the fermentation process more effectively which resulted in
247 decreasing the product pH to the target value. After 24 h (Day 1), the final pH of kefir and yogurt samples
248 were 4.52 ± 0.03 - 4.63 ± 0.1 and 4.56 ± 0.1 - 4.68 ± 0.05 , respectively; there was no significant difference
249 among the pH values of products prepared from different types of milk ($P > 0.05$). In the kefir samples
250 produced from goat and camel milk, pH decreased to 3.65 ± 0.07 and 3.25 ± 0.05 , respectively, after 20
251 days of storage while pH of ewe and cow kefir reached 4.02 ± 0.07 and 4.19 ± 0.03 during the same
252 period ($P < 0.05$). The same results were found by other studies for different types of kefir produced
253 from different starter cultures and pH ranged from 3.64 to 4.05 (Kim et al., 2016). Also, it was reported

254 by another study that the initial pH of kefir produced from sheep milk was 4.5 and it decreased to 3.70
255 during the 28-day of the storage period (de Lima et al., 2018). In a study by Yilmaz-Ersan, Ozcan,
256 Akpinar-Bayizit, and Sahin (2018), the pH of cow kefir was slightly higher than ewe kefir which was
257 similar to our results. Also, the most significant decrease in pH was found for kefir samples produced
258 from grains due to higher metabolic activity compared to commercial starter cultures. It seems that
259 changes in the pH of kefir and yogurt samples during the storage period are due to the difference in
260 buffering potential of kinds of milk and fermentation capacity of different microbial populations used.

261

262

Figure 2

263

264 3.3 Total phenolic content

265 The TPC of kefir and yogurt samples showed an increasing trend during the storage period (Figure 3).
266 According to the results, ewe kefir (74.55-80.11 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹) showed the highest TPC followed
267 by cow kefir (65-73.15 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹), camel kefir (61.2-69.91 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹) and goat
268 kefir (58.31-73.5 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹) ($P < 0.05$). TPC values of yogurt samples were significantly
269 lower than kefir samples for the same source of milk ($P < 0.05$). Among the yogurt samples, camel yogurt
270 possesses the highest TPC (56.5-68.25 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹) followed by ewe (40.32-46.5 mg of GAE
271 100 mL⁻¹), cow (29.5-35.5 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹) and goat (20.03-26.85 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹) yogurt
272 ($P < 0.05$). Data obtained for TPC in the present study were almost similar to the results found by Yilmaz-
273 Ersan et al. (2016; 2018) that reported total phenolics as 59.66-66.81 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹ for goat kefir,
274 77.74-81.18 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹ for ewe kefir and 67.41-73.65 mg of GAE 100 mL⁻¹ for cow kefir,
275 during the 21-day storage period at 4 °C. In their study, TPC reached the highest amount at day 14 of
276 storage and then decreased toward the end of storage, but in our work TPC increased throughout the

277 storage period. Similar results to ours were found by da Silva et al., Sabokbar and Khodaiyan, Bensmira
278 and Jiang who detected an increase in total phenolic compounds during soymilk yogurt production using
279 kefir starter cultures, pomegranate juice and whey based kefir, and peanut based kefir, respectively
280 (Bensmira & Jiang, 2015; da Silva Fernandes et al., 2017; Sabokbar & Khodaiyan, 2016). The decrease
281 or increase in phenolic content could be due to the metabolic activity of microorganisms of starter culture
282 and their capacity to degrade or change the structure of phenolic molecules as it is reported that some
283 yeasts and bacteria could be effective on amount of TPC in fermented dairy products (Apostolidis, Kwon,
284 Shinde, Ghaedian, & Shetty, 2011).

285

286

287

Figure 3

288

289 3.4 DPPH radical scavenging potential

290 DPPH as a stable free radical is soluble in methanol or ethanol, and at the wavelength of 515-520 nm
291 shows characteristic absorption. When this free radical is scavenged by an antioxidant compound by
292 hydrogen donation and the non-radical form DPPH-H is produced, its concentration, color, and
293 absorbance at a given wavelength are reduced (Kulisic, Radonic, Katalinic, & Milos, 2004). According
294 to the results presented in Table 1, ewe and camel milk kefir had the highest radical scavenging potential
295 and inhibitory activity followed by the goat and cow milk kefir during the storage period ($P < 0.05$). We
296 found that the DPPH radical scavenging activity of kefir samples was higher than yogurt samples ($P <$
297 0.05) and it decreased to the levels lower than the amount observed at day1 in camel, goat and cow
298 yogurt ($P < 0.05$). There were significant differences in the DPPH scavenging potential of kefir and
299 yogurt samples at different storage days ($P < 0.05$). The hydrogen donating capacity of kefir samples

300 (except for goat kefir) increased during the storage period. The DPPH inhibition values increased
301 considerably in ewe and camel kefir samples during the storage ($P < 0.05$). Similar results were observed
302 by Yilmaz-Ersan, Ozcan, Akpinar-Bayizit, and Sahin (2018), Bensmira and Jiang (2015), and Sabokbar
303 & Khodaiyan (2016) for kefir with different bases. This notable increase might be due to the hydrolysis
304 of proteins and increased content of organic acids as the result of continuous acidification by starter
305 culture during the storage period (Correia, Nunes, Duarte, Barros, & Delgadillo, 2005). The lowest level
306 of the DPPH scavenging potential was observed in cow yogurt samples ($P < 0.05$), while goat and camel
307 yogurt showed approximately similar hydrogen donating activity at the end of the storage ($P > 0.05$). At
308 day 5, a decrease in antioxidant capacity of goat kefir was detected but after that, it increased significantly
309 ($P < 0.05$). At day 10 of the storage, the antioxidant activity of all yogurt samples decreased. In previous
310 studies, the same results were observed during an extended storage period of fermented dairy products.
311 For instance, Yilmaz-Ersan, Ozcan, Akpinar-Bayizit, and Sahin (2018) reported a decrease in DPPH
312 value at day 7 for ewe kefir and day 14 for cow kefir. It seems that goat kefir is a good scavenger and
313 hydrogen donor for DPPH radicals and can afford protection against proton free radicals. Also, data from
314 another study showed that DPPH scavenging potential was the highest at day 7 and 14 for cow yogurt
315 and then decreased toward the end of the 28-day storage period as it reached to the level lower than day
316 1 (A. Shori & Baba, 2013). In the present study, high DPPH inhibition activity after 20-day storage at 4
317 °C shows the good metabolic activity of kefir grain microorganisms even at cold temperatures. It is
318 claimed that antioxidative potential of kefir is partly originated from the release of milk peptides by kefir
319 grain microorganisms. It can be suggested that the radical scavenging capacity in kefir is related to
320 proteolysis rate of milk proteins and production of organic acids by the starter culture microflora during
321 fermentation period and storage time. Totally, the diversity of the protein and peptides of the milk and
322 also the microorganisms in the starter culture or kefir grains are determining parameters in antiradical

323 and antioxidant activity of the products (Suetsuna, Ukeda, & Ochi, 2000). The population and diversity
324 of microorganisms of rural unmodified yogurt or kefir starter cultures differ from modified commercial
325 ones and it seems local cultures possess higher enzymatic and antioxidant activity.

326

327

Table 1

328

329

330

331 3.5 FRAP assay

332 FRAP assay based on the reduction of a TPTZ (Fe^{2+}) complex to its ferrous form (Fe^{3+}), is one of the
333 common methods to evaluate antioxidant capacity. According to the results (Figure 4), FRAP values for
334 all samples increased toward the end of a 20-day storage period with significant differences between the
335 FRAP data of storage days ($P < 0.05$). In contrast to DPPH free radical scavenging results, no decrease
336 in FRAP values was detected during the storage. It is worthy to note that the pH decrease in the samples
337 was followed by a progressive increase in FRAP values. The FRAP reaction is performed at acidic pH
338 to sustain iron solubility, so a decrease in pH results in a decrease in the ionization potential which
339 facilitates hydrogen transfer and increases the redox potential (Gupta, Caraballo, & Agarwal, 2019). The
340 kefir samples showed higher ferrous reducing capacity compared to yogurt samples ($P < 0.05$). This
341 difference might be attributed to the different microbial populations in kefir grains and yogurt starter
342 culture, their metabolites, and the final pH. The FRAP values of ewe and camel kefir were the highest
343 throughout the storage period ($P < 0.05$). Also, among the yogurt samples ewe and camel yogurt showed
344 the highest FRAP values ($P < 0.05$). The maximum FRAP values were observed after 20 days of storage
345 for all samples, with about a 2-fold increase compared to Day 1 of storage. In a study by Yilmaz-Ersan,
346 Ozcan, Akpınar-Bayizit, and Sahin (2018), the FRAP values increased during the fermentation period

347 for ewe and cow kefir produced from kefir grains and a commercial starter culture. The FRAP values of
348 ewe kefir were higher than cow kefir which is similar to our results. In another work, the chelating ability
349 of goat kefir increased during the storage time and the maximum FRAP value was obtained after 21 days
350 of storage (Yilmaz-Ersan et al., 2016), and a similar trend was observed in our study.

351 The presence of bioactive peptides and functional compounds in milk and diversity of the lactic acid
352 bacteria in the product might explain the high reducing potential of ewe and camel kefir and yogurt.
353 Some fermenting bacteria can produce metabolites that show chelating activity, are able to reduce metal
354 ions and inhibit oxidation reactions (Wang et al., 2017).

355

356

357

Figure 4

358

359

360 **3.6 ABTS assay**

361 As shown in Figure 5, the results of ABTS assay for samples were as follows: ewe kefir > camel kefir >
362 ewe yogurt > camel yogurt > cow kefir > goat kefir > goat yogurt > cow yogurt. During the storage
363 period, ABTS scavenging capacity of all samples increased, and kefir samples expressed higher
364 antioxidant activity compared to yogurt samples ($P < 0.05$). It seems that the difference in the
365 antioxidative ability of kefir and yogurt samples during fermentation results from the differences between
366 microorganisms in kefir grains and yogurt starter culture. The same results were obtained by Yilmaz-
367 Ersan, Ozcan, Akpınar-Bayizit, and Sahin (2018). It is reported that high protein content in fermented
368 dairy products resulted in forming oligopeptides, peptones and free amino acids by microbial proteolytic
369 activity and increased antioxidant potential (Tagliazucchi, Martini, & Solieri, 2019). The protein content
370 of ewe, camel, goat and cow milk are approximately 5.41, 3.12, 3.10, and 3.4%, respectively, so it is

371 obvious that ewe kefir and yogurt had the highest activity in ABTS assay and cow kefir showed higher
372 antioxidant capacity compared to goat kefir (Elbagermi, Alajtal, & Edwards, 2014). Also, there might be
373 a synergistic relation between proteolysis products and phenolic compounds that lead to an increase in
374 the total antioxidant potential of the fermented products (A. B. Shori & Baba, 2014). Thus, variations in
375 antioxidative capacity and ABTS scavenging ability of ewe, camel, goat and cow kefir and yogurt could
376 be attributed to the contents of their protein and amino acid composition, fat and fatty acids, minerals
377 and vitamins (such as vitamin A, C, E), functional compounds such as phenolics and carotenoids,
378 reducing compounds, and type of enzymes (Khan et al., 2019; Ozcan, Sahin, Akpinar - Bayizit, &
379 Yilmaz - Ersan, 2019).

380

381

382

Figure 5

383

384 4 CONCLUSIONS

385 The present study was conducted to compare the antioxidant activity of kefir and yogurt produced from
386 ewe, camel, goat and cow milk. Kefir samples expressed higher antioxidant activity compared to yogurt
387 samples. It demonstrated that the microbial population in kefir grains changed the chemical composition
388 and phenolics of milk and produced metabolites in such a way that led to higher activity in radical
389 scavenging and hydrogen donation of the products. Kefir and yogurt prepared from ewe and camel milk
390 had higher antioxidative potential than samples made from goat and cow milk. The difference between
391 the antioxidant capacity found in kefir and yogurt samples in the present study could be due to multiple
392 parameters like the source of milk, fat, protein, type, and population of microorganisms, variety of
393 enzymes of the kefir grains and starter culture and presence of bio-functional agents with the ability to

394 donate hydrogen and electron. In future, animal trials, like oral consumption of these fermented products,
395 are needed to investigate the *in-vivo* antioxidative effects of kefir produced from different sources of
396 milk and traditional kefir grains and compare with commercial products.

397

398 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

399 The authors are grateful to Vasteryoosh Food Analysis Lab (Sari, Iran) for their technical support.

400

401 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

402 The authors have declared no conflicts of interest for this article.

403

404 **REFERENCES**

- 405 Apostolidis, E., Kwon, Y.-I., Shinde, R., Ghaedian, R., & Shetty, K. (2011). Inhibition of *Helicobacter pylori* by
406 fermented milk and soymilk using select lactic acid bacteria and link to enrichment of lactic acid and
407 phenolic content. *Food Biotechnology*, *25*(1), 58-76.
- 408 Bensmira, M., & Jiang, B. (2015). Total phenolic compounds and antioxidant activity of a novel peanut based
409 kefir. *Food Science and Biotechnology*, *24*(3), 1055-1060.
- 410 Benzie, I. F., & Strain, J. J. (1996). The ferric reducing ability of plasma (FRAP) as a measure of “antioxidant
411 power”: the FRAP assay. *Analytical Biochemistry*, *239*(1), 70-76.
- 412 Boci, I., Bardhi, G., & Cakraj, R. (2013). Total solids and fat determination in milk; Interlaboratory testing.
413 *Albanian Journal of Agricultural Sciences*, *12*(4), 659-664.
- 414 Cenesiz, S., Devrim, A., Kamber, U., & Sozmen, M. (2008). The effect of kefir on glutathione (GSH),
415 malondialdehyde (MDA) and nitric oxide (NO) levels in mice with colonic abnormal crypt formation
416 (ACF) induced by azoxymethane (AOM). *DTW. Deutsche tierärztliche Wochenschrift*, *115*(1), 15-19.
- 417 Correia, I., Nunes, A., Duarte, I. F., Barros, A., & Delgadillo, I. (2005). Sorghum fermentation followed by
418 spectroscopic techniques. *Food Chemistry*, *90*(4), 853-859.
- 419 da Silva Fernandes, M., Lima, F. S., Rodrigues, D., Handa, C., Guelfi, M., Garcia, S., & Ida, E. I. (2017). Evaluation
420 of the isoflavone and total phenolic contents of kefir-fermented soymilk storage and after the in vitro
421 digestive system simulation. *Food Chemistry*, *229*, 373-380.
- 422 de Lima, M. d. S. F., da Silva, R. A., da Silva, M. F., da Silva, P. A. B., Costa, R. M. P. B., Teixeira, J. A. C., . . .
423 Cavalcanti, M. T. H. (2018). Brazilian Kefir-Fermented Sheep’s Milk, a Source of Antimicrobial and
424 Antioxidant Peptides. *Probiotics and Antimicrobial Proteins*, *10*(3), 446-455.
- 425 Elbagermi, M., Alajtal, A., & Edwards, H. (2014). A comparative study on the physicochemical parameters and
426 trace elements in raw milk samples collected from Misurata-Libya. *SOP Transactions on Analytical
427 Chemistry*, *1*(2), 15-23.

- 428 Gamba, R. R., Caro, C. A., Martínez, O. L., Moretti, A. F., Giannuzzi, L., De Antoni, G. L., & Peláez, A. L. (2016).
429 Antifungal effect of kefir fermented milk and shelf life improvement of corn arepas. *International*
430 *Journal of Food Microbiology*, 235, 85-92.
- 431 Gupta, S., Caraballo, M., & Agarwal, A. (2019). Total antioxidant capacity measurement by colorimetric assay. In
432 *Oxidants, Antioxidants and Impact of the Oxidative Status in Male Reproduction* (pp. 207-215): Elsevier.
- 433 Khan, I. T., Nadeem, M., Imran, M., Ullah, R., Ajmal, M., & Jaspal, M. H. (2019). Antioxidant properties of Milk
434 and dairy products: a comprehensive review of the current knowledge. *Lipids in Health and Disease*,
435 18(1), 41-53.
- 436 Kim, D.-H., Jeong, D., Kim, H., Kang, I.-B., Chon, J.-W., Song, K.-Y., & Seo, K.-H. (2016). Antimicrobial activity of
437 kefir against various food pathogens and spoilage bacteria. *Korean Journal for Food science of Animal*
438 *Resources*, 36(6), 787-790.
- 439 Kley, D. H., Lynch, J. M., Barbano, D. M., Bloom, M. J., & Mitchell, M. W. (2001). Determination of fat in raw
440 and processed milks by the Gerber method: collaborative study. *Journal of AOAC International*, 84(5),
441 1499-1508.
- 442 Kulisic, T., Radonic, A., Katalinic, V., & Milos, M. (2004). Use of different methods for testing antioxidative
443 activity of oregano essential oil. *Food Chemistry*, 85(4), 633-640.
- 444 Leite, A. M. d. O., Miguel, M. A. L., Peixoto, R. S., Rosado, A. S., Silva, J. T., & Paschoalin, V. M. F. (2013).
445 Microbiological, technological and therapeutic properties of kefir: a natural probiotic beverage.
446 *Brazilian Journal of Microbiology*, 44(2), 341-349.
- 447 Matar, C., LeBlanc, J. G., Martin, L., & Perdigon, G. (2003). Biologically active peptides released in fermented
448 milk: role and functions. In *Handbook of Fermented Functional Foods* (pp. 193-218): CRC Press.
- 449 Ozcan, T., Sahin, S., Akpinar-Bayazit, A., & Yilmaz-Ersan, L. (2019). Assessment of antioxidant capacity by
450 method comparison and amino acid characterisation in buffalo milk kefir. *International Journal of Dairy*
451 *Technology*, 72(1), 65-73.
- 452 Re, R., Pellegrini, N., Proteggente, A., Pannala, A., Yang, M., & Rice-Evans, C. (1999). Antioxidant activity
453 applying an improved ABTS radical cation decolorization assay. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*,
454 26(9-10), 1231-1237.
- 455 Rosa, D. D., Dias, M. M., Grześkowiak, Ł. M., Reis, S. A., Conceição, L. L., & Maria do Carmo, G. P. (2017). Milk
456 kefir: nutritional, microbiological and health benefits. *Nutrition Research Reviews*, 30(1), 82-96.
- 457 Sabokbar, N., & Khodaiyan, F. (2016). Total phenolic content and antioxidant activities of pomegranate juice
458 and whey based novel beverage fermented by kefir grains. *Journal of Food Science and Technology*,
459 53(1), 739-747.
- 460 Şahin, S., Aybastier, Ö., & Işık, E. (2013). Optimisation of ultrasonic-assisted extraction of antioxidant
461 compounds from *Artemisia absinthium* using response surface methodology. *Food Chemistry*, 141(2),
462 1361-1368.
- 463 Şahin, S., Işık, E., Aybastier, Ö., & Demir, C. (2012). Orthogonal signal correction-based prediction of total
464 antioxidant activity using partial least squares regression from chromatograms. *Journal of*
465 *Chemometrics*, 26(7), 390-399.
- 466 Sharma, R., Rajput, Y. S., Dogra, G., & Tomar, S. K. (2009). Estimation of sugars in milk by HPLC and its
467 application in detection of adulteration of milk with soymilk. *International Journal of Dairy Technology*,
468 62(4), 514-519.
- 469 Shori, A., & Baba, A. (2013). Antioxidant activity and inhibition of key enzymes linked to type-2 diabetes and
470 hypertension by *Azadirachta indica*-yogurt. *Journal of Saudi Chemical Society*, 17(3), 295-301.
- 471 Shori, A. B., & Baba, A. S. (2014). Comparative antioxidant activity, proteolysis and in vitro α -amylase and α -
472 glucosidase inhibition of *Allium sativum*-yogurts made from cow and camel milk. *Journal of Saudi*
473 *Chemical Society*, 18(5), 456-463.
- 474 Suetsuna, K., Ukeda, H., & Ochi, H. (2000). Isolation and characterization of free radical scavenging activities
475 peptides derived from casein. *The Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry*, 11(3), 128-131.

476 Tagliazucchi, D., Martini, S., & Solieri, L. (2019). Bioprospecting for Bioactive Peptide Production by Lactic Acid
 477 Bacteria Isolated from Fermented Dairy Food. *Fermentation*, 5(4), 96-129.

478 Tremblay, L., Laporte, M., Leonil, J., Dupont, D., & Paquin, P. (2003). Quantitation of proteins in milk and milk
 479 products. In *Advanced Dairy Chemistry—1 Proteins* (pp. 49-138): Springer.

480 Turkmen, N. (2017). Kefir as a Functional Dairy Product. In *Dairy in Human Health and Disease Across the*
 481 *Lifespan* (pp. 373-383): Elsevier.

482 Wang, Y., Wu, Y., Wang, Y., Xu, H., Mei, X., Yu, D., . . . Li, W. (2017). Antioxidant properties of probiotic bacteria.
 483 *Nutrients*, 9(5), 521-535.

484 Yilmaz-Ersan, L., Ozcan, T., Akpinar-Bayizit, A., & Sahin, S. (2016). The antioxidative capacity of kefir produced
 485 from goat milk. *International Journal of Chemical Engineering and Applications*, 7(1), 22-26.

486 Yilmaz-Ersan, L., Ozcan, T., Akpinar-Bayizit, A., & Sahin, S. (2018). Comparison of antioxidant capacity of cow
 487 and ewe milk kefir. *Journal of Dairy Science*, 101(5), 3788-3798.

488 Yilmaz, L., Ozcan Yilsay, T., & Akpinar Bayizit, A. (2006). The sensory characteristics of berry-flavoured kefir.
 489 *Czech Journal of Food Sciences*, 24(1), 26-32.

490 Zulueta, A., Maurizi, A., Frigola, A., Esteve, M., Coli, R., & Burini, G. (2009). Antioxidant capacity of cow milk,
 491 whey and deproteinized milk. *International Dairy Journal*, 19(6-7), 380-385.

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506 **Table 1** DPPH radical scavenging activity (mg TE /100mL) of kefir and yogurt samples produced by
 507 different types of milk during the storage at 4 °C

Samples	Storage period (day)
---------	----------------------

	1	5	10	15	20
Ewe kefir	5.18±0.11 ^{aE}	5.44±0.23 ^{aD}	5.91±0.09 ^{aC}	6.3±0.05 ^{aB}	6.85±0.10 ^{aA}
Ewe yogurt	4.95±0.08 ^{bB}	4.97±0.10 ^{bB}	4.51±0.05 ^{dC}	4.8±0.09 ^{cB}	5.03±0.00 ^{cA}
Camel kefir	5.20±0.15 ^{cE}	5.63±0.21 ^{aD}	6.1±0.13 ^{aC}	6.4±0.18 ^{aB}	6.93±0.07 ^{aA}
Camel yogurt	4.90±0.20 ^{bA}	4.94±0.05 ^{bA}	4.12±0.00 ^{eC}	4.36±0.11 ^{dB}	4.4±0.18 ^{dB}
Goat kefir	4.48±0.21 ^{cC}	3.91±0.05 ^{dD}	5.04±0.10 ^{bB}	5.25±0.06 ^{bA}	5.44±0.20 ^{bA}
Goat yogurt	4.52±0.10 ^{cA}	4.55±0.15 ^{cA}	3.9±0.07 ^{fC}	4.15±0.00 ^{eB}	4.29±0.25 ^{dB}
Cow kefir	4.15±0.17 ^{dE}	4.57±0.04 ^{cD}	4.83±0.25 ^{cC}	5.07±0.13 ^{bB}	5.28±0.21 ^{bA}
Cow yogurt	3.8±0.10 ^{eA}	3.88±0.09 ^{dA}	3.4±0.05 ^{Gc}	3.58±0.22 ^{fB}	3.67±0.00 ^{eB}

508
509

^{a-g}Different lowercase superscripts in a column express significant difference between means for kefir and yogurt samples ($P < 0.05$).
^{A-E}Different uppercase superscripts in a row express significant difference between means during the storage period ($P < 0.05$).

510

511