



Fructosylglycine assembles into melanoidin with more glycine than glucose while heating

Ghassan Faisal Mohsin^{1,2} · Andrea Isabel Hornemann³ · Franz-Josef Schmitt⁴

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Abstract

In this study, melanoidins formed from fructosylglycine and heated mixtures of glycine and glucose were analyzed and compared using spectroscopic techniques including UV/Vis, FTIR, EPR, NMR, as well as elemental analysis (EA). EA revealed that melanoidin formed from fructosylglycine incorporates a higher proportion of glycine compared to melanoidin produced through the direct reaction of glycine and glucose upon heating. FTIR spectra identified carbonyl or carboxyl groups with distinct bands at ~ 1749 – 1759 cm^{-1} , contributing to the extended π -electron system observed at 170–200 ppm in NMR spectra. EPR measurements demonstrated a higher abundance of unpaired electrons in fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin. The UV/Vis, FTIR, and NMR data indicated that the backbones of fructosylglycine-derived melanoidins contain a greater number of conjugated π bonds. Therefore, we conclude that the melanoidin skeleton synthesized from fructosylglycine includes more amino acid residues, owing to enhanced activation of nitrogen in the secondary amine of fructosylglycine compared to the primary amine of glycine. EPR results further reveal a positive correlation between melanoidin absorbance spectra, the size of their π -electron system, and antioxidant activity. These findings suggest that the nucleophilic attack of glycine's amino group on glucose's carbonyl group is facilitated in secondary amines, indicating a potential pathway to enhance melanoidin formation by incorporating secondary amines during food processing.

Keywords Maillard reaction · Melanoidin · Fructosylglycine · Secondary amine · Nucleophilic attack · Glycine

Abbreviations

MR	Maillard reaction
Glc	D-Glucose
Gly	L-Glycine
ARPs	Amadori rearrangement product
FTIR	Fourier transformation infrared
CP/MAS	Cross-polarization/magic-angle-spinning
UV/Vis	Ultraviolet/visible
EA	Elemental analysis
EPR	Electron paramagnetic resonance
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance

✉ Franz-Josef Schmitt
franz-josef.schmitt@physik.uni-halle.de
Ghassan Faisal Mohsin
dr.ghassan.f.m@uomisan.edu.iq
Andrea Isabel Hornemann
andrea.hornemann@gmx.de

¹ Ministry of Education, General Directorate Vocational Education, Department of Vocational Education in Maysan, Maysan 62001, Iraq

² Department of Food Chemistry and Analysis, Institute of Food Technology and Food Chemistry, Technische Universität Berlin, Gustav-Meyer-Allee 25, 13355 Berlin, Germany

³ Projektträger Jülich, Lützowstraße 109, 10785 Berlin, Germany

⁴ Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, Institut für Physik, von-Danckelmann-Platz 3, 06120 Halle, Germany

Introduction

Each person consumes approximately 10 g of melanoidins daily, which are formed as a result of the Maillard reaction (MR) during food processing. Given their prevalence in daily diets, research into the structure, biological activity, and influence of melanoidins on human health is imperative [1, 2]. The MR is a crucial mechanism for generating

thermal flavor and color in foods and was first described by French chemist Louis Camille Maillard in 1912 [3, 4]. The reaction begins with the nucleophilic addition of the amino group of an amino acid to the carbonyl group of a reducing carbohydrate, forming Schiff bases, which are followed by dehydration [5]. These Schiff bases are then converted into Amadori rearrangement products (ARPs), which are not only more stable but also contribute to the generation of new flavors, making them useful as flavor additives [6]. As the MR progresses, ARPs produce various organic acids, carbonyls, 1,2-dicarbonyls, and heterocyclic compounds [5]. Ultimately, all these Maillard reaction products (MRPs) participate in the formation of melanoidins, resulting in the complex and heterogeneous structure of these macromolecules [7–9]. Although the chemical structure of melanoidins is not fully understood, it is well-established that they are nitrogen-containing, anionic, high molecular weight molecules with a brown to dark brown color [3, 5, 10–12]. The aldol reaction is widely discussed as a key mechanism for C-C bond formation in melanoidins [7–8], while dehydration reactions lead to the formation of conjugated double-bond systems that serve as chromophores [13]. Furthermore, in food-derived melanoidins, other food constituents such as proteins, polysaccharides, and phenolic compounds are often bound to the melanoidin structure, further contributing to its complexity [14–15].

In this work, we synthesized melanoidin from glycine (Gly) to compare the results with our former studies on melanoidins containing alanine [5, 16]. The melanoidin polymer is prepared directly from fructosylglycine and compared to a reaction starting from pure glucose (Glc) and Gly. The purpose of the study is to compare the direct formation of melanoidins from sugar and amino acids on the one hand, and the formation of melanoidins from the pure Amadori intermediate with a known chemical composition on the other hand.

Even though these two formation pathways partially overlap, Yaylayan & Kaminsky presented results allowing the conclusion that melanoidin synthesized from glucose and glycine might not be identical to the melanoidin polymer formed directly from fructosylglycine [11]. They found polymeric structures formed from the Amadori intermediate and further sugar degradation after release of glycine that do not include nitrogen in the skeleton, while another pathway forming melanoidin polymer from the Amadori intermediate contains nitrogen in its structure. Cämmerer and Kroh [17] showed that melanoidin formed from glucose and glycine under solvent-free reaction condition contains sugar: amino acid in a ratio of 2:1, a result we could confirm for glucose and alanine [13, 16]. Therefore, there is a need to clarify the fate of the amino acid and consequently the nitrogen content in the polymers in more detail.

The study presented here shows that the fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin skeleton is characterized by a high nitrogen content and a darker hue, which are indicative of its distinct structural properties. The abundance of amino acids plays a crucial role in catalytic reactions and melanoidin formation [5]. This investigation aims to examine the impact of primary and secondary amines, as present in glycine and fructosylglycine, respectively, on the spectroscopic properties of the resulting melanoidins.

The number of free radicals in the melanoidin structure formed from fructosylglycine is examined along with the antioxidant activity of these melanoidins and compared with the radicals in melanoidins directly synthesized from glucose (Glc) and Gly. Due to the widespread abundance of sugar (glucose) in food products and the molecular simplicity of the amino acid (glycine), the melanoidin synthesized from these two substances was specifically studied.

Materials and methods

Chemicals and reagents

D-Glucose (99.5%) and dialysis cellulose tubing were obtained from Carl Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany), L-Glycine (99.5%) from Fluka (Steinheim, Germany), sodium metabisulfite from Merck AG (Darmstadt, Germany), and methanol and ammonia from VWR Chemicals (Darmstadt, Germany). Potassium bromide (KBr) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany).

Preparation of melanoidin from Glc/Gly

The procedure for preparing melanoidin samples followed the method described by Mohsin et al. [13]. Glycine and glucose were mixed in a 1:1 molar ratio (7.5 g glycine and 18 g glucose) in a mortar and heated without solvent on aluminum foil at 160 °C for 10 min. The resulting solid product was then ground into a fine powder and subjected to dialysis. The dialysis tubing (Spectrum Por, Carl Roth, Germany) had pore sizes ranging from 1.5 to 3.0 nm, a thickness of 23 nm, and a width of 33 mm, with a molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) of 12–14 kDa. For batch dialysis, 5 g of melanoidin powder was dissolved in 300 mL of ultrapure water, and the water was replaced every 10 h, with the total dialysis time amounting to approximately 136 h. Upon completion, all melanoidin specimens were frozen and freeze-dried.

Synthesis of fructosylglycine

Fructosylglycine was synthesized following the method for fructosylalanine outlined by Mohsin et al. [16]. A mixture

of 0.28 mol glucose, 0.07 mol glycine, and 0.04 mol sodium metabisulfite was dissolved in 80 mL of methanol and 80 mL of water (v/v). The solution was refluxed for 6 h. After the reaction, fructosylglycine was isolated using a DOWEX 50WX8 cation-exchange resin. A rotary evaporator was utilized to eliminate ammonia from the solvent. After isolation, thin-layer (TLC) and high-performance thin-layer chromatography (HPTLC) chromatography techniques were applied to confirm that the isolated sample was fructosylglycine.

Preparation of melanoidin from fructosylglycine

An aluminum plate containing 25 g of fructosylglycine was heated to 160 °C for 10 min in a solvent-free environment. The resulting melanoidin was subsequently dialyzed using the same procedure previously described for melanoidin formed from heated Gly/Glc mixtures. This involved dissolving the melanoidin in distilled water and performing batch dialysis with a MWCO of 12–14 kDa, with a total dialysis time of approximately 136 h. After dialysis, the melanoidin samples were frozen and freeze-dried.

FTIR spectroscopy equipment and data capture

Fructosylglycine and melanoidins were analyzed using the same FTIR analytical parameters as described by Mohsin et al. [13]. The analysis was performed using a 1282-pixel FPA (Focal Plane Array) detector (pixel size 3 μ m at 15x magnification) on the IR microscope Hyperion 3000 (Bruker Optics GmbH, Germany). Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra were collected from 1.0 mg of fresh, freeze-dried samples, which were mixed with 200 mg of potassium bromide (KBr). The spectra were recorded over a wavenumber range of 3900–900 cm^{-1} with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} .

NMR spectroscopy equipment and data capture

Fructosylglycine and melanoidins were analyzed using the same NMR diagnostic settings as reported by Mohsin et al. [13]. Melanoidins derived from Glc/Gly and fructosylglycine were placed in the magic-angle spinning (MAS) probe of an Avance 400 MHz spectrometer (Bruker, Rheinstetten, Germany) using a 4 mm NMR rotor, which was spun at 10 kHz. Data were collected over a chemical shift range of 0 to 200 ppm.

UV/Vis spectroscopy equipment and data capture

Absorption spectra of the melanoidins were obtained using a Shimadzu UV-1800 UV/Vis spectrometer (Shimadzu, Duisburg, Germany). A melanoidin specimen (1.0 mg)

was dissolved in 1 mL of pH 7.4 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and then diluted 1:5, resulting in a final concentration of 0.2 mg/mL. The measurements were conducted over a wavelength range of 200 to 800 nm, using a PBS solution as the blank reference.

Raman spectroscopy equipment and data capture

Raman measurements were conducted following the procedure outlined by Mohsin et al. [16]. Data were collected using a Fourier-transform Raman spectrometer (RFS 100/S, Bruker) with an excitation wavelength of 1064 nm and a spectral resolution of 2 cm^{-1} , utilizing a Nd continuous wave laser with a line width of less than 1 cm^{-1} .

EPR spectroscopy equipment and data capture

EPR spectroscopy was carried out as described by Mohsin et al. [13]. For the TEAC assay, the methodology outlined by Kanzler et al. [18] was employed to assess the antioxidant capacity of the melanoidins. The assay was conducted in triplicate to account for inherent variability in the results.

Elemental analysis of melanoidin samples

Elemental analysis (EA) was performed to determine the proportions of carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen in the melanoidin structure, following the procedure outlined by Mohsin et al. [13]. The measurements were carried out using a Flash EA 1112 Organic Elemental Analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Dreieich, Germany). This instrument enabled the quantification of carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen content, allowing for the calculation of their respective percentages in the melanoidin samples. The amount of oxygen was calculated as the difference on the basis that the sample contains only carbon, nitrogen, hydrogen, and oxygen.

Results and discussion

UV/Vis spectra of melanoidins

Figure 1 presents the absorbance spectra of melanoidin derived from a Glc/Gly mixture (red curve) and fructosylglycine (black curve), as determined by UV/Vis spectroscopy. The absorption is notably higher for melanoidin formed from fructosylglycine compared to that formed from Glc/Gly. Both spectra exhibit a shoulder around 280 nm, likely due to the presence of heterocyclic substructures such as furans or pyrroles, which typically absorb at this wavelength [12, 16]. This characteristic absorption at 280 nm has been discussed in several studies on melanoidin-type

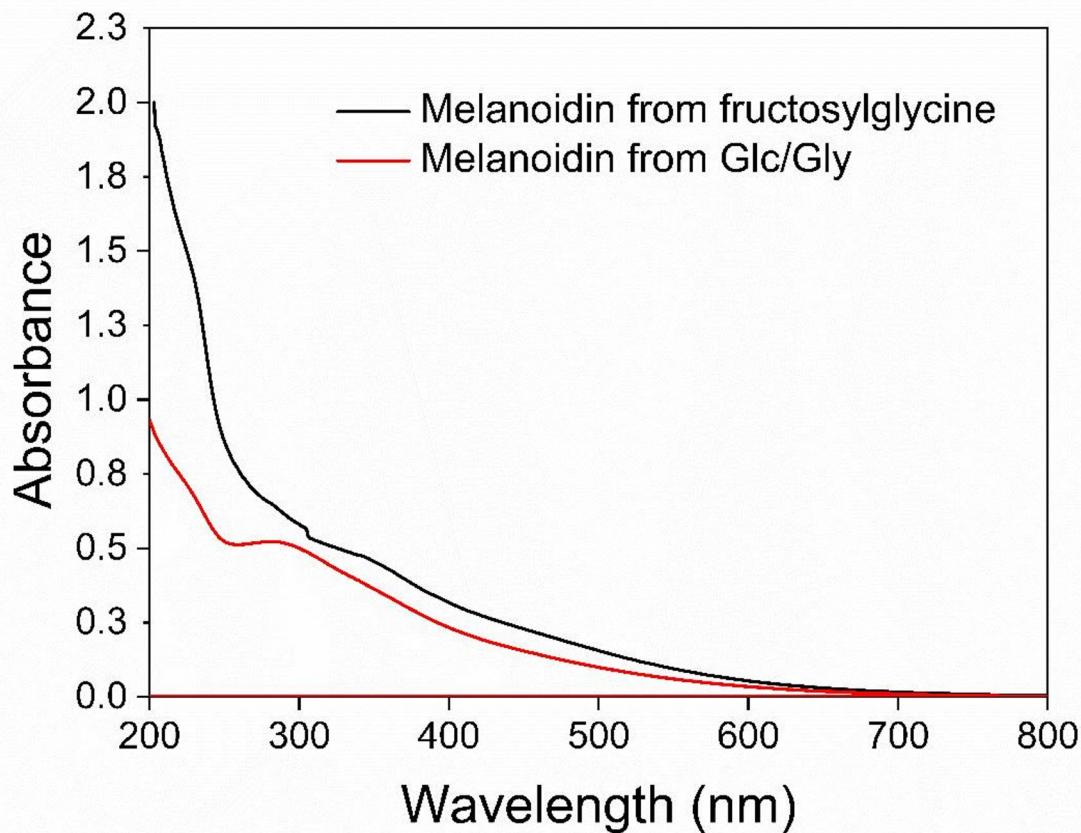


Fig. 1 UV/Vis spectra of various melanoidins

colorants [12, 16, 19–22]. Additionally, melanoidins produced from glucose and amino acid enantiomers show quite constant absorbance in the 260–320 nm range [21]. After thermal processing at 160 °C for 10 min, the fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin exhibited visibly more intense browning compared to the Gly/Glc mixture. These results suggest that the fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin contains a greater number of conjugated π bonds in its backbone and therefore a larger extended π -electron network compared to melanoidin formed from Glc/Gly.

FTIR spectra of glycine, glucose and fructosylglycine

Figure S-1a illustrates the FTIR spectrum of pure glycine, highlighting the presence of amide bands A, B, I, II, and III across different regions of the glycine backbone. Despite its importance, the significance of amide III is often overlooked in many studies. The weak signal in the amide III bands, spanning from 1380 to 1220 cm^{-1} in glycine, fructosylglycine, and melanoidin structures, offers several advantages: (i) it is not influenced by water vibrations, unlike the amide I region, (ii) it is an important characterization of

different regions of proteins (generally influenced by their secondary and tertiary structure), and (iii) the bands associated with distinct secondary structures (α -helix, β -sheet, and random coils) exhibit less overlap in the amide III region compared to the amide I region [23, 24]. The amide A and amide B bands result from a resonance between amide I and N-H stretching vibrations. Amides A and B are prominently visible in glycine, while in fructosylglycine and melanoidin, these bands overlap with signals from hydroxyl groups. Glycine, in its crystalline states (α , β , γ), adopts a zwitterionic form ($+\text{NH}_3/\text{COO}^-$), a property confirmed by FTIR spectroscopy in earlier studies [10, 11, 25].

Figure S-1b presents the FTIR spectrum of pure glucose, where the vO-H stretching band around 3405 cm^{-1} and the vC-O/C-C bands near 1150 and 1023 cm^{-1} have the highest intensity. In addition, the functional groups of pure glucose in the regions 1452, 1375, 1335, 1269, and 1222 cm^{-1} are attributed to δCH , $\delta\text{CCH}/\text{OCH}/\text{COH}$, $\delta\text{CCH}/\text{OCH}$, $\delta\text{CH}/\text{OH}$, and $\delta\text{CH}/\text{OH}$, respectively [26–27]. At 1635 cm^{-1} a mode is found that can be attributed to hydroxyl groups, carbonyl/amide I, and/or water deformation.

The FTIR spectrum of pure fructosylglycine is shown in Fig. S-1c and all bands are summarized in Table S-1. A broad band from 3370 to 2500 cm^{-1} which is not resolved here can be attributed to overlapping frequencies from amide (NH^+), hydroxyl (-OH), and methyl (CH_3)/methylene (CH_2) groups and also contains contributions of Amide A and Amide B [28, 29].

The secondary amines and associated Schiff base compounds formed in fructosylglycine are evident in their crystalline structure, with a band appearing at 1628 cm^{-1} , indicating the formation of secondary structures [30]. Upon heating, these secondary amines evolve, contributing to the formation of the macromolecular structure of melanoidin. However, the specific role of secondary amines in constructing the melanoidin backbone will be detailed later. Between 1800 and 1700 cm^{-1} , the absence of absorption bands for carboxyl/carbonyl groups is notable [13]. The $\text{COOH}/\text{C}=\text{O}$ shoulder, typically observed in deeply colored MRPs like melanoidin, is absent in the crystalline fructosylglycine.

In the 1628–1216 cm^{-1} region, bands corresponding to amides I, II, and III are present, indicating the presence of amino acid residues and peptides [29, 31, 32]. Carbohydrate contributions to the fructosylglycine structure are seen between 1150 and 1082 cm^{-1} [13]. Notably, tertiary amine groups, typically observed near 1150 cm^{-1} , are not present in the melanoidin structure [32]. A weak band around 938 cm^{-1} in the fructosylglycine spectrum is attributed to out-of-plane CH bending (δCH) (see Fig. S-1c). To have a more detailed view on the polarizable groups Raman spectra of fructosylglycine were recorded as shown in Fig. S-1d. Compared to infrared spectroscopy, Raman analysis shows weaker signals of the hydroxyl group as Raman spectroscopy is particularly sensitive to symmetric, electron-dense moieties, while infrared spectroscopy is more effective for detecting asymmetric polar groups like O-H [33]–[34]. The pronounced band observed at 2962 cm^{-1} likely corresponds to CH stretching vibrations, which are less distinct in infrared analysis (Fig. S1c) and overlap with the broad contributions of O-H.

Raman spectra also reveal a carbonyl/amide I band at 1622 cm^{-1} , with reduced intensity compared to other amide regions. Additionally, amide I and II bands are present but not as prominent (see Table S-1). Raman scattering is less effective for detecting carbohydrate-related bands in the 1148–1030 cm^{-1} range so the sugar-specific features in fructosylglycine, such as O-H, C=O, and C-O groups, are suppressed by the Raman technique.

The Raman spectra also indicate the presence of amides IV, V, and VI, characteristic of fructosylglycine's structure. These bands, along with C-H bending and vC-C stretching or wagging vibrations, are found in the range of 907 to 430 cm^{-1} [34]. Raman spectroscopy is particularly suited

for analyzing the vibrational modes of nonpolar bonds such as C-C and C-H. These signals can be categorized as wagging, scissoring, rocking, or stretching modes [35].

In summary, while Raman spectroscopy is highly effective for certain molecular vibrations (e.g., C-H and C-C), it is less sensitive to polar groups such as O-H and to carbohydrate-specific signals, which are better identified by infrared spectroscopy. Thus, combining both techniques provides a more comprehensive analysis of the molecular structure of fructosylglycine.

FTIR spectra of melanoidins prepared from Fructosylglycine and Glc/Gly

The FTIR spectra of melanoidin derived from a Glc/Gly mixture (red line) and fructosylglycine (black line) are shown in Fig. 2(a) between 3900 and 900 cm^{-1} . After thermal treatment, a broad and intense band appears between 3600 and 3000 cm^{-1} , attributed to the stretching vibration of O-H groups in the melanoidin structure [36]. This is due to the multiple sugars in the melanoidin framework, contributing to numerous OH groups in different environments. Minor bands at 2935 and 2880 cm^{-1} correspond to C-H stretching vibrations. The relative intensity of the C-H absorption is correlated with the concentration of amino acids incorporated into the melanoidin and the proportion of C-H groups from amino acid components [10].

To understand the structural backbone of melanoidins, it is essential to analyze the fingerprint region between 1800 and 900 cm^{-1} . A carboxyl shoulder between 1749 and 1759 cm^{-1} , typically found in dark-colored, high-molecular-weight melanoidin, is observed in both, fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin (Fig. 2a, black line) and melanoidin from Glc/Gly mixture (red line). In addition, a stretching band at 1708 cm^{-1} broadens the spectrum associated with carbonyl groups (C=O), which may originate from carboxylic compounds (COOH) [37]–[38] or amide bonds (CO-NH₂) [39].

Amide bonds are shown to be a significant part with contributions in the key regions: amide I (1690–1600 cm^{-1}), amide II (1575–1480 cm^{-1}) and amide III (1350–1220 cm^{-1}) [5, 28, 40]–[41].

A significant absorbance band at 1627 cm^{-1} is primarily attributed to COO⁻. This band has a higher amplitude in fructosylglycine melanoidin as compared to melanoidin from the Glc/Gly mixture [5, 10, 11, 16]. This band is also potentially linked to the C=O group in the D-sugar (Glc)-O-CO-(NH₂) moiety [42]. The C-O and C-C stretching vibrations, primarily from the sugar compound, are seen in the 1075 to 1035 cm^{-1} range [12, 36, 43]. In this region, the sugar bands are more intense in melanoidin from the Glc/Gly mixture compared to fructosylglycine-derived

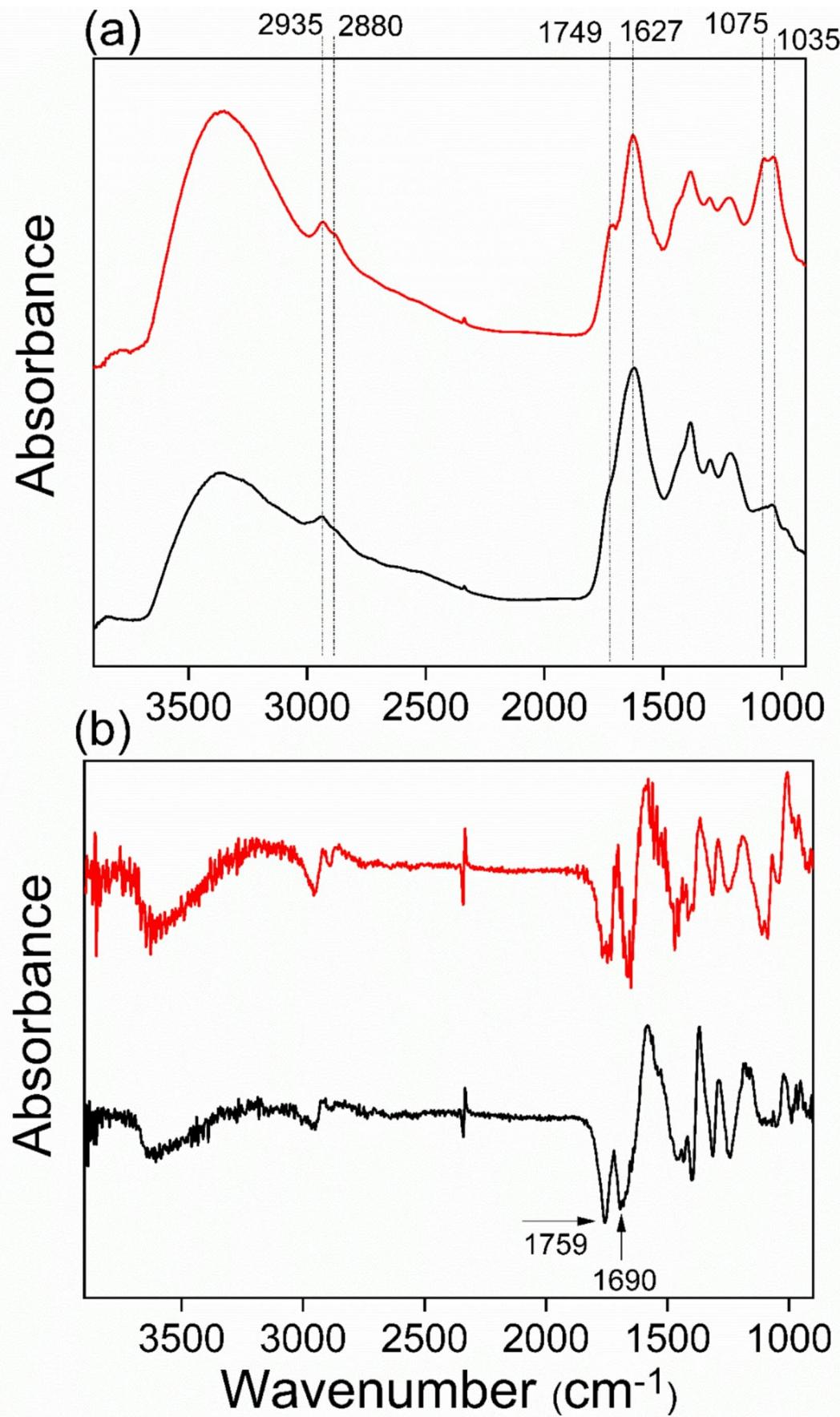


Fig. 2 **a** FTIR spectra of melanoidin yielded from Glc/Gly mixture (red line) and melanoidin yielded from fructosylglycine (black line); **b** second derivative spectrum for Glc/Gly mixture (red line) and fructosylglycine melanoidins (black line)

melanoidin. This observation is in line with our study that compared melanoidin from Glc and alanine (Ala) with melanoidin derived from fructosylalanine, indicating that fructosylalanine and fructosylglycine form melanoidin with a higher ratio of C=O double bonds compared to C-O single bonds as found in melanoidins gained from Glc/Ala or Glc/Gly mixtures [16]. Additionally, C-H bending, indicative of saccharide bonds, appears around 950 cm⁻¹ [28].

Figure 2b displays the second derivative of the FTIR data, a useful method to enhance the resolution of spectral information for understanding melanoidin structure [44]. A distinct band, representing the carbonyl or carboxyl group, is observed at approximately 1759 cm⁻¹. This analysis confirms that melanoidins derived from fructosylglycine have a relatively higher contribution from carbonyls and carboxyls than melanoidins derived from Glc/Gly mixtures. The deeper hue of fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin correlates with a higher content of carbonyl groups and larger π -electron systems compared to Glc/Gly melanoidin.

Role of secondary amines in the formation of melanoidin skeleton

Amines are classed as primary (R-NH₂), secondary (R₂NH), and tertiary (R₃N) depending on the overall number of α -carbons related to the nitrogen atom in the amine group [45]. Amines function both as bases and as reagents in nucleophilic reactions [46]. When reacted with ketones or aldehydes, secondary amines form imines or Schiff bases. In the Maillard reaction (MR), secondary amines can react with reducing sugars, leading to the condensation of the amine and carbonyl (C=O) groups, and the formation of glycosylamines. These compounds undergo further rearrangement, producing the Amadori Rearrangement Product (ARP) when a nucleophile is involved [47]. The intermediate iminium ion produced from secondary amines plays a crucial role in the later stages of the glycosylamine reaction and facilitates deprotonation, leading to the enol form of the ARP [48]. As the reaction progresses, nitrogenous polymers with a dark brown color, such as melanoidins, are formed. Notably, tertiary amines are not substrates in the MR, unlike secondary amines, which contain two α -carbons and can be linked to both saturated and aromatic carbons [45].

FTIR spectroscopy is a powerful tool for identifying secondary amines in proteins. The amide I band between 1690 and 1600 cm⁻¹ is often used to evaluate protein secondary structures and conformational changes due to the C=O stretching vibrations in peptide bonds [31, 49]. The presence

of secondary amines is also evident in the band at 1627 cm⁻¹ [32, 50], while primary amines typically appear between 1080 and 1035 cm⁻¹. The primary amine bands can overlap with the vibration ν C-O/C-C. Tertiary amines are typically observed in the range between 1210 and 1150 cm⁻¹, but these bands are absent in melanoidin structures, suggesting that tertiary amines do not play a relevant role in the formation of the melanoidin backbone (see Table 1).

After heating fructosylglycine at 160 °C for 10 min, a dark brown melanoidin polymer forms. The amide I band in the 1690 to 1600 cm⁻¹ range is predominantly attributed to the C=O stretching vibrations in peptide bonds [49]. In highly pigmented MRPs like melanoidins, a shoulder between 1790 and 1700 cm⁻¹ is often visible [5]. The carbonyl group at 1749 cm⁻¹, thought to be associated with secondary amines [50], is critical for melanoidin polymer formation [51]. The complexity of FTIR spectra can lead to the overlap of diagnostic frequencies related to secondary structural components. The characteristic color of melanoidin polymers is attributed to chromophores, such as -C=O and -C=N, which overlap within the 1627 cm⁻¹ region and contribute to the formation of an extended π -electron system within the melanoidin backbone. In conclusion, the melanoidin structure derived from fructosylglycine seems to contain more secondary amines compared to melanoidin derived directly from Glc/Gly mixtures.

¹³C NMR spectra of melanoidins prepared from Fructosylglycine and Glc/Gly

Figure 3 presents the ¹³C CP/MAS NMR spectra of Glc/Gly melanoidin (red line) and fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin (black line). During the intermediate and final stages of the MR, water is eliminated and aldol condensation reactions occur, leading to the formation of double bonds in both melanoidin types [16]. Therefore, we focus on the region between 100 and 180 ppm to investigate these changes. The prominent variations in the 100–160 ppm range between the NMR signals of Glc/Gly and fructosylglycine melanoidin are attributed to aromatic or olefinic carbons. The signal for sp²-hybridized carbon atoms (chemical shift > 100 ppm) is more pronounced in fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin (black curve), suggesting a higher content of conjugated double bonds compared to the Glc/Gly melanoidin, which shows only moderate signals in this range. This indicates a relatively lower concentration of sp²-hybridized carbons in the Glc/Gly melanoidin structure as compared to the one derived from fructosylglycine.

In the 170–200 ppm region, the signals correspond to carbonyl or carboxyl carbon atoms [5, 52], with fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin showing a robust signal, further indicating a higher content of these functional groups. The

Table 1 Functional groups of FTIR bands and 2nd derivative of FTIR spectra for melanoidin polymers

FTIR of melanoidin samples		2nd derivative of melanoidin samples	
Absorption bands	Functional groups	Minima	Functional groups
3600–3000	ν O-H	3630	ν O-H
3600–3000	N -H ⁺ (overlap with O-H)	3600–3000 (overlap with O-H)	N -H ⁺ Amide A/B
2935–2880	ν C-H ₃ /C-H ₂	2958–2885	ν C-H ₃ /C-H ₂
1749	ν COOH/C=O	1759	ν COOH/C=O
1627	C=O/C=C/C=N Amide I, COO ⁻	1690	C=O/C=C/C=N Amide I, COO ⁻
1455	Amide II	1456–1405	Amide II
1380–1221	Amide III	1315–1239	Amide III
1075–1035	ν C-O/C-C	1080	ν C-O/C-C
950	δ C-H	918	δ C-H

intense coloration of the fructosylglycine melanoidin suggests an increase in aromatic content or unsaturation, contributing to an expanded delocalized π -electron system. This

expanded system also might play a role in stabilizing radicals within the melanoidin structure.

These NMR findings align well with the results obtained from UV/Vis and FTIR, providing a cohesive understanding of the structural and electronic properties of fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin compared to Glc/Gly-derived melanoidin.

Elemental analysis of melanoidins prepared from Fructosylglycine and Glc/Gly

The elemental compositions of the two typical melanoidins are summarized in Table 2. The primary components of melanoidin molecules are carbon and oxygen, with hydrogen and nitrogen present in smaller amounts. The nitrogen content in the melanoidin skeleton is influenced by both the type of amino acid and the amino acid-to-sugar ratio [5, 10]. After thermal processing at 160 °C for 10 min, Glc/Gly-derived melanoidin exhibited a lower nitrogen content

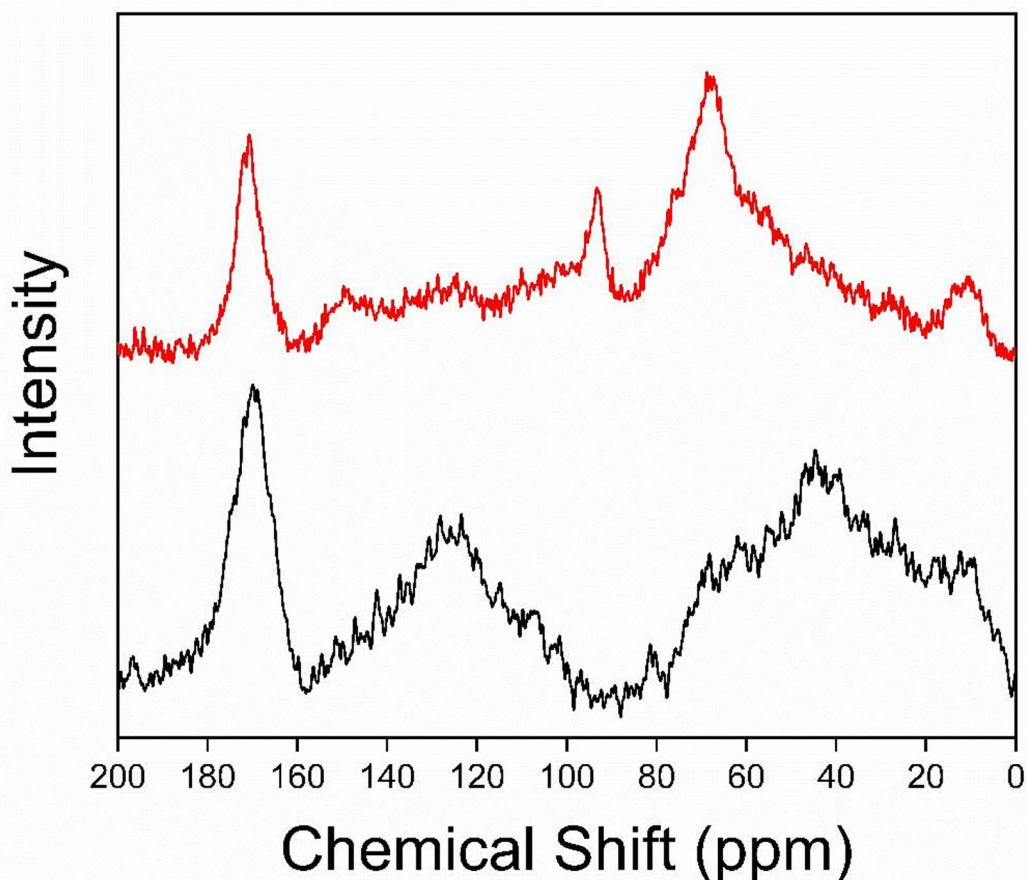


Fig. 3 ^{13}C NMR spectra of melanoidins formed from fructosylglycine (black line) and melanoidins from Glc/Gly (red line)

Table 2 Elemental compositions of melanoidins and Fructosylglycine

Substance	Weight (mg)	% N	% C	% H	% O*
Fructosylglycine (theoretical)		5.90	40.51	6.37	47.21
Glc/Gly melanoidin	1.29	4.02	46.46	5.77	43.76
	+/- 0.02	+/-	+/-	+/-	+/-
		0.02	0.05	0.02	0.10
Fructosylglycine melanoidin	1.29	9.28	46.56	5.46	38.71
	+/- 0.02	+/-	+/-	+/-	+/-
		0.01	0.04	0.04	0.07

*Oxygen is determined by difference

compared to fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin, in line with previous findings for Gly and Ala [5, 16].

Elemental analysis shows that melanoidin formed from fructosylglycine contains a higher amount of nitrogenous substances, indicating a greater presence of amino residues (see Table 2). In MR systems, amino acids play a critical role in triggering browning and promoting polymerization [5, 53]. Shen et al. [54] also demonstrated that increasing

the amino acid content in food systems, such as bread, leads to a darker crust color and higher melanoidin formation.

EPR spectra and TEAC assay of melanoidins prepared from Fructosylglycine and Glc/Gly mixtures

Melanoidins are paramagnetic polymers that can be identified by EPR spectra due to their complex radical-containing molecular structures [5]. EPR analysis of melanoidin derived from fructosylglycine revealed a higher number of unpaired electrons compared to other melanoidin types. The antioxidant potential of different melanoidin polymers was evaluated using the Trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC) assay, which is considered one of the most reliable methods for assessing antioxidant effectiveness [55]. Results from both the EPR and TEAC assays showed that fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin exhibited higher levels of free radicals and antioxidant activity compared to Glc/Gly-derived melanoidin (see Fig. 4a and b).

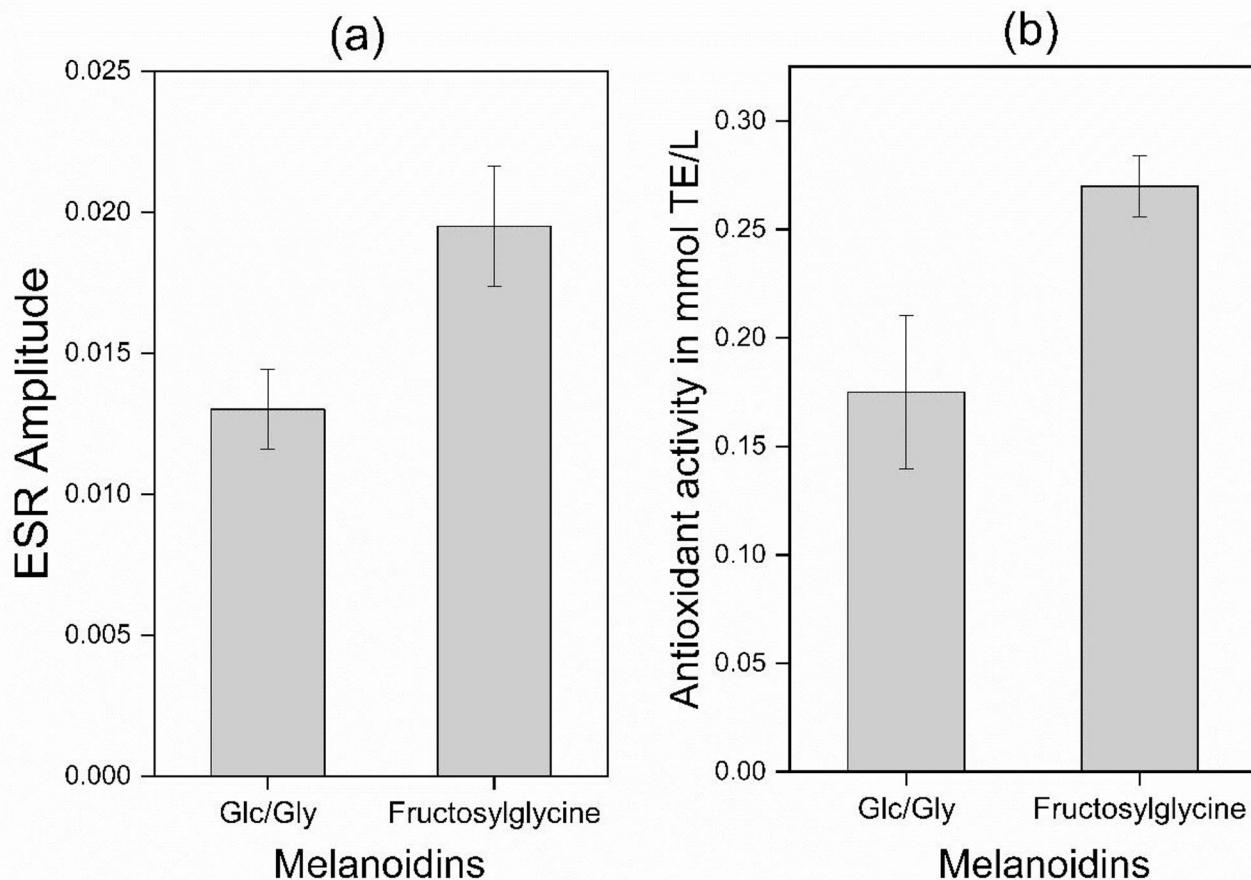


Fig. 4 **a** EPR radical signals of different melanoidin polymers; **b** TEAC assay of melanoidin samples. The mean standard deviation ($n=2$) is shown for each measurement

The high molecular weight of melanoidin polymers has been identified as a primary factor contributing to the antioxidant properties of MR systems. Several studies have confirmed that the increase in antioxidant activity correlates with color formation [56–58]. Borrelli et al. [59] found that the glucose/glycine reaction network generates a high molecular weight polymer responsible for 80% of the overall brown hue and antioxidant activity. These results suggest that the hue of melanoidins plays a crucial role in the development of their potent antioxidant capabilities, which may have significant implications for the production of safer and healthier food products in the future.

The backbone of melanoidin polymers

Various spectroscopic techniques were employed to elucidate structural attributes and molecular composition of two different melanoidin types. UV/Vis absorbance shows a higher extent of conjugated double bonds in melanoidin formed from fructosylglycine as compared to Glc and Gly mixtures. The FTIR spectra confirm that fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin incorporates more chromophores—such as conjugated C=C, C=O, and C=N bonds—compared to Glc/Gly-derived melanoidin.

NMR spectroscopy further supports this finding, showing a higher intensity of sp^2 -hybridized carbon atoms in melanoidin derived from fructosylglycine. These sp^2 carbons, responsible for the formation of conjugated systems, appear predominantly in the range of 100–180 ppm.

Elemental analysis allows us to estimate the ratio of sugar molecules to amino acids in the melanoidin backbone. Shen et al. [54] and Mohsin et al. [5] demonstrated that increasing the levels of amino compounds results in a more intense browning in the final stages of the MR. Correspondingly, fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin contains a higher nitrogen content than Glc/Gly melanoidin, indicating a greater incorporation of amino residues into its structure.

Melanoidins derived from mixtures of Glc/Gly contain more sugar breakdown products generated during the initial stages of the MR. This aligns with the structural framework proposed by Cämmerer and Kroh [17] and Mohsin et al. [13, 16].

Upon heating, fructosylglycine can degrade into nitrogen-rich compounds, forming nitrogenous melanoidin structures. Yaylayan and Kaminsky [11] identified the Amadori intermediate or its derivatives as key precursors to nitrogen-containing melanoidin, with nitrogen content measured at 8.08%.

Cui et al. [60] and Yang et al. [22] suggested that the formation of products with distinct chemical compositions, along with the release of carbon dioxide (CO_2) and water (H_2O) during the Maillard reaction, could explain changes

in the elemental composition of the final melanoidin products. These alterations are reflected in both the structural and chemical properties of melanoidins.

Decarboxylation and release of CO_2 occurs from the amino acid moiety in an early stage of the MR and is suggested to be the main factor for the loss of carbon [10]. The initial condensation between the sugar and the amino acid was proposed to take place through a Schiff base/imine forming possibly transient aldehyde ($R-CH=O$) or keto ($R-C=O-R'$) centers that might evaporate [61].

We found that fructosylglycine dissolved in ammonia assembles into melanoidin with more than 2.3 times more nitrogen as compared to melanoidin formed from glucose and glycine (see Table 2). The nitrogen content was measured 9.3% and is significantly higher as compared to pure fructosylglycine (5.9%). This agrees with findings of Yaylayan & Kaminsky that a reaction pathway from the Amadori intermediate leads to a polymer containing 8.08% nitrogen [11]. The evaporation of CO_2 and possibly aldehydes and ketones, condensation of H_2O and remaining ammonia (even after evaporation as described in Sect. [Synthesis of Fructosylglycine](#)) can explain higher nitrogen content in the fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin structure.

Conclusions

This comprehensive study provides valuable insights into the structural and compositional properties of melanoidins derived from glucose/glycine (Glc/Gly) and fructosylglycine, highlighting the mechanisms behind their formation and distinct molecular characteristics. Using advanced analytical techniques such as elemental analysis, UV/Vis spectroscopy, FTIR, EPR, and NMR, we were able to map the key molecular signatures and structural differences between these complex MRPs.

Elemental analysis revealed substantial differences in nitrogen content between the two types of melanoidins. Fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin exhibited a significantly higher nitrogen content (9.28%) compared to Glc/Gly-derived melanoidin (4.02%). Nitrogen from residual ammonia in the solvent may also incorporate into fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin. This discrepancy emphasizes the critical role of the precursor compound fructosylglycine versus glucose/glycine in nitrogen incorporation during melanoidin formation. These results align with theoretical values and previous studies obtained from melanoidin gained from fructosylalanine and mixtures for Glc and Ala [16].

The spectroscopic analyses further highlighted the structural distinctions between the two melanoidin types. UV/Vis spectroscopy revealed characteristic shoulders around 280 nm in both melanoidins, likely attributed to heterocyclic

substructures, such as furans or pyrroles, or low molecular weight melanoidin units. However, fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin showed more intense browning, suggesting a larger and more conjugated π -electron system, which is indicative of a complex aromatic framework.

FTIR spectroscopy provided additional insights, revealing significant carbonyl and carboxyl stretching bands around 1749–1620 cm^{-1} in both melanoidins with a higher contribution in Melanoidin derived from fructosylglycine. This finding is further supported by the ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra, which confirmed the presence of sp^2 -hybridized carbons in the 100–160 ppm range, consistent with aromatic or olefinic character. Additionally, the robust carbonyl signals between 170 and 200 ppm in fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin further support the hypothesis of a highly conjugated π -electron system.

Amadori compounds as fructosylglycine can decompose into α -dicarbonyls like 3-deoxyglucosone (3-DG) at an early stage, which triggers the formation of advanced glycation end products (AGEs). AGEs are discussed to be responsible for the development of colorful, heterogeneous polymers like melanoidins [62]. The decomposition of the Amadori product fructosylalanine, formed from glucose and alanine, yields 3-DG-Imine and 3-DG, according to our former study [5]. We assume that 3-DG and 3-DG-Imine contribute to the synthesis of a nitrogenous polymer. It is possible to deduce that the mechanism of melanoidin formation from fructosylglycine is analogous to that of melanoidin formation from fructosylalanine and therefore can form polymeric structures rich in nitrogen.

FTIR, NMR spectra, and elemental analysis demonstrate that fructosylglycine-derived melanoidins contain more secondary amines compared to those derived from Glc/Gly mixtures. The predominant nitrogen atom in the melanoidin backbone is found in the form of secondary amines, suggesting that these amines are at least partially responsible for the intense color of fructosylglycine melanoidin.

The EPR analysis demonstrated a higher concentration of unpaired electrons in fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin, indicating a more radical-rich structure.

These findings underscore the importance of the Amadori rearrangement products in melanoidin formation, rather than direct sugar-amino acid reactions. This pathway plays a pivotal role in determining the nitrogen content and aromaticity of the final melanoidin structures, with fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin being notably richer in nitrogenous and aromatic components. Radical stabilization, in particular, contributes to the chemical resilience and antioxidant properties of these molecules.

These results suggest that fructosylglycine-derived melanoidin not only has a higher nitrogen content but also exhibits

enhanced radical stabilization, which could lead to greater antioxidant benefits.

This study not only advances our understanding of melanoidin chemistry but also paves the way for future research into their biological activity and potential health benefits, given their ubiquitous presence in the human diet.

However, despite these insights, the precise mechanism underlying the formation of the brown hue and the detailed polymeric structure of Glc/Gly melanoidin remains not fully understood [63, 64]. Further research is needed to clarify the complex interactions and structural developments during the Maillard reaction.

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Data availability Data will be made accessible upon request.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflicts of interest related to this study.

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