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1 **Steaming and *sous-vide*: Effects on antioxidant activity, vitamin C, and**
2 **total phenolic content of *Brassica* vegetables**

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24 **Abbreviations:** TPC: Total phenolic content; VCC: Vitamin C content; FW: Fresh weight;
25 ANOVA: Analysis of variance; S.D.: Standard deviation

26 **Abstract**

27 The present study evaluated the effect of thermal processing on the colour, antioxidant
28 activity, vitamin C content, and total phenols of six *Brassica* vegetables. The landrace
29 Grelo was the best source of total phenols (162.7 ± 3.5 mg/100g; $p < 0.05$). Cavolo Nero
30 di Toscana, also known as “black cabbage”, showed the highest content of vitamin C,
31 calculated as 290.6 mg/100g ($p < 0.05$). The concentration of total antioxidants, phenols,
32 and vitamin C was significantly reduced after both steaming and *sous-vide* processing
33 ($p < 0.05$). Overall, no differences were observed between both cooking strategies.
34 However, for some of the studied vegetables, *sous-vide* processing resulted in higher
35 losses when compared to steaming ($p < 0.05$). Uncommon *Brassica* vegetables such as
36 Grelo can be as nutritious and healthy as commonly consumed ones. However, the effect
37 of cooking on the content of nutritious compounds should be considered when calculating
38 their dietary intake from cooked crucifers.

39

40 **Keywords:** thermal processing, *sous-vide*, *Brassica* vegetables, vitamin C, phenolic compounds,
41 antioxidants

42 **1. Introduction**

43 The family *Brassicaceae* or *Cruciferae* consists of 350 genera and over 3,500 species
44 which include the genera *Camelina*, *Crambe*, *Sinapis*, and *Brassica* (Cartea et al. 2010).
45 There has been over the last century an increasing rate of replacement of *Brassica*
46 landraces by modern varieties bred for high yield, rapid growth, and disease and drought
47 resistance. This has led to putting more and more traditional varieties at risk of extinction.
48 However, several landrace varieties survived by being passed from generation to
49 generation of farmers which continue to grow and commercialize these vegetables.
50 Indeed, some of these landraces, originated in the eastern Mediterranean area, are still
51 highly appreciate by local people in countries like Portugal, Italy, or Spain (Francisco et
52 al. 2009).

53 A high intake of *Brassica* vegetables has been associated with a decreased chronic disease
54 risk (Wagner et al. 2013). Cruciferous vegetables contain high quantities of health-
55 promoting compounds including glucosinolates, phenolic compounds, and vitamin C.
56 Polyphenols possess ideal structural chemistry for free radical-scavenging activities and
57 have been linked to antidiabetic, antiaging, anticancer, neuroprotective, and
58 cardioprotective effects (Khurana et al. 2013, Tomás-Barberán et al. 2016). In addition,
59 vitamin C, which includes ascorbic acid and its oxidation product dehydroascorbic acid,
60 has several biological activities in the human body and has been associated with reduced
61 risk for several diseases (Ashor et al. 2014).

62 Although some crucifers can be eaten fresh, these vegetables are most commonly eaten
63 cooked. Thermal processing of foods has been used since ancient times to improve
64 palatability and extend shelf-life. However, intense heat treatments generally result in
65 changes in the physicochemical properties as well as in the antioxidant potential and the

66 content of health-promoting compounds such as glucosinolates, polyphenols, or vitamin
67 C (Lafarga et al. 2018a, Kosewski et al. 2018, Rybarczyk-Plonska et al. 2014).

68 Different cooking strategies have been evaluated for their potential to minimize the loss
69 of health-promoting compounds in foods. Steaming is a method of cooking using steam,
70 generated by boiling water continuously. Several studies suggested steaming as the most
71 efficient process to retain health-promoting compounds in cruciferous vegetables when
72 compared to for example, blanching, boiling, or microwaving (Soares et al. 2017,
73 Bongoni et al. 2014, Deng et al. 2015). It is generally accepted that steaming involves
74 fewer losses of water-soluble compounds like vitamin C than boiling (Rennie and Wise
75 2010). In addition, Florkiewicz et al. (2017) recently suggested *sous-vide* processing as
76 an advantageous cooking method for retaining health-promoting compounds in broccoli,
77 cauliflower, and other *Brassica* vegetables. *Sous-vide* is a method of cooking foods
78 vacuum-sealed in heat-stable, food-grade plastic pouches under a precisely controlled
79 temperature (Baldwin, 2012). The cooking medium is generally a water bath or a
80 convection steam oven. This cooking method is a top trend in the food industry as the
81 increased retention of nutrients observed after *sous-vide* cooking can also result in
82 intensified organoleptic properties (Baldwin, 2012).

83 Several reports assessed the influence of different cooking methods on the physical and
84 chemical parameters of *Brassica* vegetables. However, data on the effects of processing
85 on the physicochemical and nutritional properties of these “forgotten” landrace varieties
86 such as Grelo are lacking. Such information would not only promote health but also
87 encourage their production and consumption opening novel commercial opportunities for
88 food processors. Therefore, the aim of this study was to study the effect of steaming and
89 *sous-vide* processing on the antioxidant potential, total phenolic content (TPC), and
90 vitamin C content (VCC) of several *Brassica* vegetables including two landrace varieties.

91 **2. Materials and methods**

92 **2.1 Chemicals and reagents**

93 Methanol, sodium acetate, acetic acid, sulphuric acid, and ferric chloride were obtained
94 from Panreac (Barcelona, Spain). Gallic acid, ascorbic acid, metaphosphoric acid, 2,4,6-
95 tris(2-pyridyl)-s-triazine, tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine hydrochloride, and sodium
96 carbonate were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany). Folin-Ciocalteu's
97 reagent was purchased from VWR (Llinars del Vallès, Spain). All reagents used were of
98 analytical grade.

99 **2.2 Plant material: Collection and processing**

100 Different *Brassica* vegetables at commercial maturity were provided by Fundació Miquel
101 Agustí (Barcelona, Spain). Studied vegetables included Broccoli cv. Camelia (*Brassica*
102 *oleracea* var. *italica*), Col cabdell cv. Pastoret (*Brassica oleracea* var. *capitata*), Col
103 llombarda cv. Pastoret (*Brassica oleracea* var. *capitata f. rubra L.*), and the landrace
104 varieties Rapini or Grelo (*Brassica rapa L.* var. *rapa*) and Cavolo Nero di Toscana
105 (*Brassica oleracea* var. *acephala*) also known as Kale Nero di Toscana or black cabbage.
106 Plants were grown at Agròpolis, Baix Llobregat, Barcelona, Spain (41°17'18.6"N
107 2°02'39.7"E) and were harvested in November 2015.

108 Sample processing was carried out at the pilot plant of IRTA Fruitcentre, Lleida, Spain.
109 After selection for freedom from defects and uniformity of size, firmness, and colour
110 (data not shown), samples were divided into 9 lots of 100 g each: 3 were left untreated
111 and used as a control, 3 were steamed, and 3 were used for *sous-vide* processing. Before
112 *sous-vide* processing, samples were rinsed with tap water for 10 s and vacuum-sealed in
113 food-grade polyethylene vacuum-sealable bags. Samples were vacuum-sealed using a
114 "soft vacuum" programme. Cooking conditions for steaming and *sous-vide* were 100 °C

115 during 15 min and 80 °C during 15 min, respectively. These conditions were optimized
116 by preliminary experiments in which samples were considered cooked according to the
117 judgement of a group of panellists previously employed for estimating the cooking time
118 on other food samples. For all processing treatments, the minimum time needed to reach
119 tenderness for an adequate palatability and taste (according the Spanish eating habits) was
120 used. Thermal processing was carried out using a Rational SCC WE-101 convection oven
121 (Rational AG, Landsberg am Lech, Germany). After treatment, samples were quickly
122 chilled to approximately 4 °C before being frozen using liquid nitrogen and stored at -80
123 °C until further use.

124 **2.3 Colour determination**

125 Eight colour recordings were taken per replicate and treatment for each sample using a
126 Minolta CR-200 colorimeter (Minolta INC, Tokyo, Japan). CIE values were recorded in
127 terms of L^* (lightness), a^* (redness, greenness), and b^* (yellowness/blueness).
128 Calibration was carried out using a standard white tile (Y:92.5, x:0.3161, y:0.3321)
129 provided by the manufacturer and the D65 illuminant, which approximates to daylight.
130 Total colour difference (δE), chroma (C^*_{ab}), and hue (h_{ab}) were calculated as described
131 by Wibowo et al. (2015).

132 **2.4 Vitamin C**

133 The extract used for vitamin C determination was obtained by mixing 6 g of either fresh
134 or cooked sample with 20 mL of an extraction solution which contained 30 g/L meta-
135 phosphoric acid and 80 mL/L acetic acid in HPLC-grade water. The mixture was
136 homogenized using an ULTRA-TURRAX[®] homogenizer (IKA, Staufen, Germany)
137 operating at 10,000 rpm for 1 min. The homogenized mixture was centrifuged using a
138 Sigma 3-18KS centrifuge (Osterode am Harz, Germany) operating at $10,000 \times g$ and 4

139 °C for 20 min. The samples were further filtered through 0.45 µm filters. Total VCC
140 (ascorbic acid and dehydroascorbic acid) was determined in triplicate by high
141 performance liquid chromatography using a Waters 717 plus Autosampler HPLC system
142 (Waters Corp., NJ, USA) coupled to an ultraviolet detector following the method
143 previously described by Plaza et al. (2016). Results are expressed as mg of vitamin C per
144 100 g of fresh weight (FW).

145 **2.5 Determination of the total phenolic content**

146 The extract used for TPC determination was obtained by mixing 6 g of either fresh or
147 cooked sample with 20 mL of methanol 70% (v/v) followed by homogenization using an
148 ULTRA-TURRAX® homogenizer (IKA, Staufen, Germany) operating at 10,000 rpm for
149 1 min. The homogenized mixture was placed into an ice bath and left to stir at 350 rpm
150 for 5 min. After this period, the mixture was centrifuged at 10,000 × g and 4 °C for 20
151 min using a Sigma 3-18KS centrifuge (Osterode am Harz, Germany). The extraction
152 solution was added to the extract to obtain a final volume of 25 mL. The TPC was
153 determined by the Folin Ciocalteu method, using a GENESYS™ 10S-UV Vis
154 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA), and following the
155 modifications described by Altisent et al. (2014). Results were expressed as g of gallic
156 acid per 100 g of FW.

157 **2.6 Antioxidant activity: FRAP assay**

158 The same extract used for TPC determination was utilized for assessing the total
159 antioxidant activity. Antioxidant potential of the samples was determined for each extract
160 using a GENESYS™ 10S-UV Vis spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA,
161 USA) and the FRAP assay as previously described by Plaza et al. (2016). Results were
162 expressed as µmols of ascorbic acid equivalents per 100 g of FW.

163 **2.7 Statistical analysis**

164 All tests were replicated three times, except for the colour readings which were recorded
165 eight times per sample and treatment. Results are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation
166 (S.D.). Samples were analysed using analysis of variance (ANOVA). Statistical analysis
167 was done using Minitab v17 (Minitab Ltd., England, UK). A Tukey pairwise comparison
168 of the means was conducted to identify where the sample differences occurred. The
169 criterion for statistical significance was $p < 0.05$.

170 3. Results and discussion

171 3.1 Effect of thermal processing on colour

172 Colour parameters are listed in Table 1. An increase in the lightness of steamed Col
173 lombarda cv. Pastoret, when compared to that of the fresh sample, was observed
174 ($p<0.05$). However, thermal processing did not affect the lightness of the other
175 cruciferous vegetables evaluated. Similar results were obtained by Lafarga et al. (2018b)
176 after processing of the inflorescences of Broccoli cv. Marathon and Broccoli cv.
177 Parthenon. However, the authors of that study suggested that although the lightness of the
178 inflorescences and leaves of *Brassica* vegetables was not affected after steaming and
179 *sous-vide* processing, these cooking strategies increased the lightness of *Brassica* co-
180 products such as stalks. In the current study, steaming resulted in increased and reduced
181 a^* values for Grelo and Col lombarda cv. Pastoret samples respectively ($p<0.05$). In
182 addition, both steaming and *sous-vide* processing resulted in reduced h_{ab} values for
183 several vegetables including Broccoli cv. Camelia and Cavolo Nero di Toscana ($p<0.05$).
184 A decrease in h_{ab} values is usually associated with a loss of greenness. Similar results
185 were reported by Miglio et al. (2007), who observed a reduction in the h_{ab} values of
186 *Brassica* samples after steaming and frying. The loss of greenness generally observed
187 during thermal processing of vegetables is partially caused by the conversion of
188 chlorophyll into pheophytin and pyropheophytin, turning vegetables colour from a
189 bright green to an olive-green colour (Bongoni et al. 2014). The loss of air and other
190 dissolved gases, after thermal processing, can affect the products surface reflectance as
191 well as the depth penetration of light, affecting colour perception (Tijskens et al. 2001).
192 The C^*_{ab} value is a quantitative indicator of colourfulness. C^*_{ab} values measured for
193 selected vegetables are listed in Table 1. The C^*_{ab} values for steamed and *sous-vide*
194 processed Kale Nero di Toscana were higher when compared those of to the fresh and

195 unprocessed samples ($p < 0.05$). This indicates that cooked Kale Nero di Toscana samples
196 had a higher colour intensity. Steaming resulted in a reduction in the colour intensity of
197 Col llobarda cv. Pastoret when compared to the fresh sample ($p < 0.05$).

198 Figure 1 shows the effect of thermal processing on the visual appearance of Cauliflower
199 cv. Pastoret and Col cabdell cv. Pastoret. At first sight, no big differences were observed
200 after both cooking strategies. The δE value combines the change in L^* , a^* , and b^* to
201 quantify the colour deviation from two sample, in this case, steamed and *sous-vide*
202 processed crucifers. Those samples with $\delta E > 3$ display a visible colour deviation
203 (Wibowo et al. 2015). In the current study, samples processed by either steaming or *sous-*
204 *vide* had a $\delta E < 3$ (data not shown), suggesting no visible colour deviation between each
205 other.

206 **3.2 Effect of thermal processing on the TPC**

207 This study aimed at quantifying the TPC of *Brassica* vegetables which are not so
208 commonly consumed such as Grelo or Rapini, a plant associated with Italian, Galician
209 and Portuguese cuisines or Cavolo Nero di Toscana, literally “black cabbage”, a variety
210 of kale with a long tradition in Italian cuisine. Table 2 lists the TPC of fresh vegetables.
211 Results were in line with those obtained for cruciferous vegetables previously. Indeed,
212 Lafarga et al. (2018b) recently evaluated the TPC of different parts of *Brassica* vegetables
213 and reported a TPC in the leaves of the Spanish landrace Espigall del Garraf (*Brassica*
214 *oleracea* var. *acephala*) and Kale cv. Crispa (*Brassica oleracea* var. *acephala*) of 116.9
215 ± 0.7 and 158.8 ± 3.5 mg/100g of FW respectively. These *Brassica* varieties are similar
216 to Grelo, which showed the highest TPC calculated as 162.7 ± 3.5 mg/100g of FW
217 ($p < 0.05$). Other leafy vegetables such as endives and radicchio also showed TPC values
218 similar to those reported herein (Kaulmann et al. 2014).

219 Results from previous studies, which evaluated the effect of temperature on the TPC of
220 vegetables, are contradictory. For example, Girgin and El (2015) observed that when
221 cauliflower (*Brassica oleracea* L. var. *botrytis*) samples were steamed, the TPC increased
222 by over 20% when compared to the fresh sample. In addition, in that same study, when
223 cauliflower samples were boiled, the TPC was reduced by approximately 6% when
224 compared to the raw vegetable. Similar results were obtained by Pellegrini et al. (2010),
225 who reported a TPC of raw, boiled, and oven steamed broccoli as 114.4 ± 0.8 , $128.2 \pm$
226 3.6 , and 263.3 ± 20.1 , respectively. However, it is generally accepted that thermal
227 processing results in degradation of phenolic and other health-promoting compounds.
228 Francisco et al. (2010) reported a decrease in the TPC of *Brassica* vegetables after both,
229 steaming and boiling. In the current study, thermal processing significantly reduced the
230 TPC of studied vegetables ($p < 0.05$). As shown in Figure 2, no differences were observed
231 between the phenolic compound loss after steaming and *sous-vide* cooking for the
232 majority of the samples evaluated. Similar results were obtained after steaming and *sous-*
233 *vide* processing of cauliflower (dos Reis et al. 2015) and different broccoli varieties
234 (Lafarga et al. 2018b). A difference was observed in TPC of Grelo samples, where
235 steaming processing resulted in a higher TPC retention when compared to *sous-vide*
236 ($p < 0.05$). Results were comparable to those reported by Armesto et al. (2017) who
237 observed a higher decrease in the TPC after *sous-vide* processing of Galega kale (*Brassica*
238 *oleracea* var. *acephala* cv. *Galega*) when compared to steaming.

239 **3.3 Effect of thermal processing on the VCC**

240 The VCC among *Brassica* vegetables varies significantly between their subspecies
241 (Gamboa-Santos et al. 2013). VCC of selected raw vegetables can be observed in Table
242 2. Cavolo Nero di Toscana showed the highest VCC ($p < 0.05$). Similar vitamin C contents
243 were recently reported for raw cruciferous vegetables including Broccoli cv. Marathon,

244 Broccoli cv. Parthenon and Kale cv. Crispa (Lafarga et al. 2018b). Results were also
245 comparable to those reported by Ueda et al. (2015) and Rybarczyk-Plonska et al. (2014)
246 who calculated the VCC of broccoli buds as 188.2 and 96.5 mg/100 g respectively.

247 The VCC of cruciferous vegetables can be reduced during processing and storage due to
248 its solubility in water and to its sensitivity to high temperature and oxidation conditions
249 (Gamboa-Santos et al. 2013). For example, Rybarczyk-Plonska et al. (2014) observed
250 that although pre-storage at 0 °C for 4 d resulted in no differences in the VCC of broccoli,
251 an approximate loss of 20% of the VCC was observed after 7 d of storage. In the current
252 study, the VCC of the studied vegetables was significantly reduced after thermal
253 processing ($p < 0.05$). Previous studies which reported a reduction in the VCC of
254 cruciferous vegetables after thermal processing. For example, Lafarga et al. (2018b)
255 recently reported a reduction in the VCC of inflorescences of Broccoli cv. Pastoret from
256 178.8 ± 12.1 to 5.5 ± 0.6 and 11.3 ± 0.6 mg/100 g after steaming and *sous-vide* processing,
257 respectively. In the current study, the observed reduction was significantly higher after
258 steaming when compared to *sous-vide* for Col cabdell cv. Pastoret ($p < 0.05$; Figure 2).
259 This could be caused by the reduced amount of oxygen present when cooking by *sous-*
260 *vide*, as previous studies suggested that oxygen is probably the most determining factor
261 in vitamin C degradation (Verbeyst et al. 2013). Results also correlate well with those
262 obtained by Baardseth et al. (2010) who suggested *sous-vide* processing as the ideal
263 cooking method to minimise nutritional and phytochemical losses.

264 **3.4 Effect of processing on the antioxidant activity of selected crucifers**

265 This study also evaluated the *in vitro* antioxidant potential of several *brassica* species
266 using the FRAP assay. Results, listed in Table 2, showed a big difference between the
267 initial antioxidant activity of Grelo and Cauliflower cv. Pastoret, which had an *in vitro*

268 antioxidant potential of 920.7 ± 19.9 and 144.3 ± 14.6 $\mu\text{mols}/100$ g FW, respectively
269 ($p < 0.05$). Previous studies also obtained significant differences between the antioxidant
270 potential of raw cruciferous vegetables such as inflorescences of Broccoli cv. Pastoret
271 and leaves of Kale cv. Crispa, which showed FRAP values of 270.1 ± 11.3 and $697.5 \pm$
272 20.1 , respectively (Lafarga et al. 2018b). Figure 2 shows the effect of thermal processing
273 on the antioxidant potential of selected vegetables. In the current study, no differences
274 were observed in the antioxidant potential of Cauliflower cv. Pastoret before and after
275 processing. However, thermal processing significantly reduced the antioxidant potential
276 of the other studied vegetables ($p < 0.05$). No differences were observed between the
277 calculated decrease in antioxidant activity after either steaming or *sous-vide* processing
278 of Broccoli cv. Camelia, Cavolo Nero di Toscana, and Col cabdell cv. Pastoret. However,
279 Grelo and Col lombarda cv. Pastoret samples demonstrated a higher loss of their
280 antioxidant potential after *sous-vide* processing when compared to steaming ($p < 0.05$).
281 Results correlate well with those obtained by Dolinsky et al. (2016) who recently
282 suggested steaming as the best cooking method for increasing the concentration of both
283 antioxidants and polyphenols in varied vegetables. In a recent study, dos Reis et al. (2015)
284 also observed a higher reduction on the antioxidant activity of cauliflower and broccoli
285 after *sous-vide* processing when compared to steaming. The observed variability in the
286 antioxidant activity of cooked *Brassica* vegetables could be caused by the broad diversity
287 of chemical compounds present in plant extracts and the varied results obtained using
288 different antioxidant capacity assays (Tan and Lim 2015). In addition, the intensity of the
289 different cooking conditions and the different extraction protocols used in different
290 studies can result in higher degradation of antioxidant compounds and in higher
291 concentrations of antioxidant compounds in the extracts.

292 **4. Conclusions**

293 Cooking resulted in a loss of greenness for some vegetables, probably caused by the
294 degradation of chlorophyll. However, no differences were observed after steaming or
295 *sous-vide* processing on the overall visual appearance of selected *Brassica* vegetables.
296 The content of polyphenols and vitamin C varied significantly between different *Brassica*
297 subspecies. The unprocessed landraces Grelo and Cavolo Nero di Toscana showed the
298 highest phenolic and vitamin C content, respectively. Raw Grelo also showed the highest
299 antioxidant capacity. These varieties are commonly consumed in Portugal, Spain, and
300 Italy. However, their consumption in other countries is infrequent. Results obtained
301 herein suggest that uncommon *Brassica* vegetables such as Grelo can be as nutritious and
302 healthy as commonly consumed ones including broccoli. However, in order to evaluate
303 the health effects after ingestion further *in vitro* and *in vivo* studied should be performed.
304 In addition, cooking resulted in big losses of phenolic compounds and vitamin C. The
305 optimization of the cooking conditions could result in reduced losses of nutritious
306 compounds. In addition, results reported in the current study, together with an increased
307 interest in traditional crops, can open novel opportunities for food processors for their use
308 and promote their consumption and further research.

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317 **Conflict of interests**

318 The authors declare no conflict of interests.

319 **Figure legends**

320 **FIGURE 1. Picture of (A) Cauliflower cv. Pastoret and (B) Col Cabdell cv. Pastoret**

321 **before and after thermal processing**

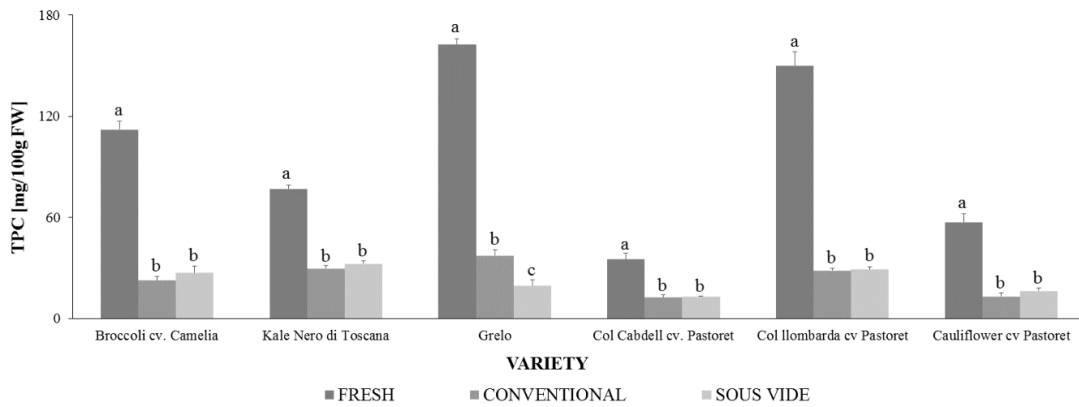


322

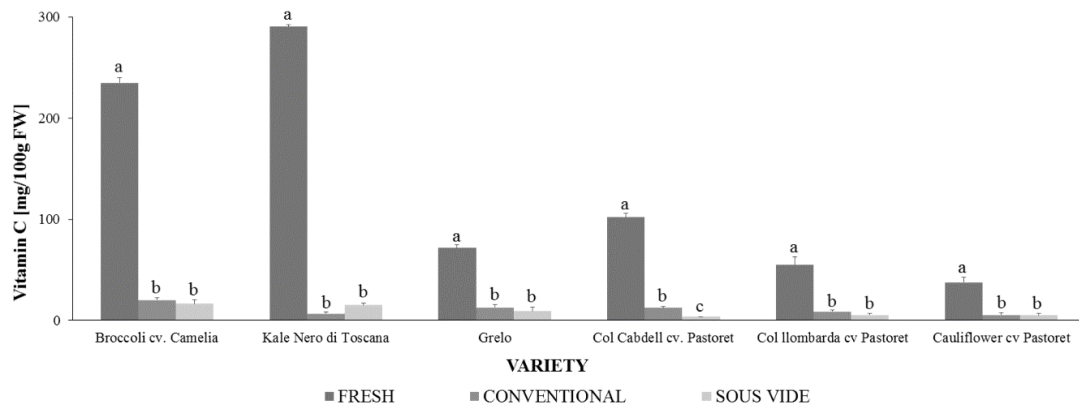
323 **FIGURE 2. Effect of thermal processing on the (A) TPC, (B) VCC, and (C)**
 324 **antioxidant potential of selected vegetables.**

325 Values represent the mean of three independent experiments \pm S.D. Different letters
 326 indicate significant differences. The criterion for statistical significance was $p < 0.05$.

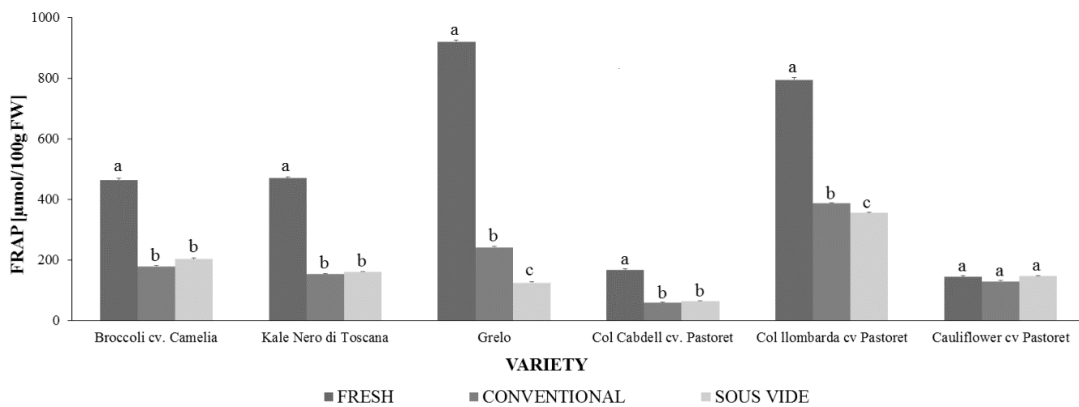
327 **(A)**



(B)



(C)



328 **TABLE 1. Effect of thermal processing on the colour parameters of selected**
 329 **crucifers**

Sample	Treatment	L^*	a^*	b^*	C^*_{ab}	h_{ab}
Broccoli cv. Camelia	Raw	38.26 ± 3.82 ^a	-10.11 ± 2.36 ^a	11.93 ± 4.81 ^b	15.70 ± 4.83 ^a	130.85 ± 5.27 ^a
	Steaming	42.46 ± 7.62 ^a	-6.15 ± 2.33 ^a	24.80 ± 5.00 ^a	25.61 ± 4.92 ^a	103.33 ± 3.79 ^b
	<i>Sous-vide</i>	40.75 ± 9.64 ^a	-8.49 ± 3.75 ^a	21.01 ± 8.05 ^{ab}	22.76 ± 3.06 ^a	112.10 ± 5.79 ^b
Kale Nero di Toscana	Raw	39.39 ± 10.65 ^a	-6.94 ± 1.94 ^a	6.00 ± 2.14 ^b	9.20 ± 2.64 ^b	139.82 ± 4.21 ^a
	Steaming	40.33 ± 10.95 ^a	-4.70 ± 3.02 ^a	15.75 ± 6.61 ^a	16.46 ± 4.69 ^a	104.49 ± 5.45 ^b
	<i>Sous-vide</i>	31.83 ± 5.86 ^a	-4.88 ± 2.34 ^a	11.62 ± 3.84 ^{ab}	12.64 ± 4.12 ^a	111.21 ± 4.37 ^b
Grelo	Raw	36.95 ± 2.31 ^a	-8.89 ± 2.91 ^b	12.99 ± 5.14 ^a	15.76 ± 5.49 ^a	124.87 ± 2.64 ^a
	Steaming	31.07 ± 1.82 ^a	-3.78 ± 0.96 ^a	14.16 ± 2.13 ^a	14.67 ± 2.11 ^a	105.40 ± 2.27 ^b
	<i>Sous-vide</i>	33.58 ± 6.04 ^a	-9.17 ± 3.21 ^b	15.51 ± 5.34 ^a	18.03 ± 5.80 ^a	120.74 ± 2.34 ^a
Col Cabdell cv. Pastoret	Raw	60.16 ± 5.77 ^a	-4.72 ± 1.91 ^a	11.47 ± 3.59 ^a	12.58 ± 3.21 ^a	113.23 ± 11.80 ^a
	Steaming	64.12 ± 4.38 ^a	-4.18 ± 1.91 ^a	11.60 ± 4.69 ^a	12.38 ± 4.41 ^a	112.56 ± 5.72 ^a
	<i>Sous-vide</i>	61.04 ± 5.65 ^a	-3.69 ± 0.81 ^a	11.73 ± 4.61 ^a	12.33 ± 4.30 ^a	107.86 ± 4.22 ^a
Col lombarda cv. Pastoret	Raw	23.54 ± 1.44 ^b	17.73 ± 2.14 ^a	-8.26 ± 0.81 ^a	19.60 ± 1.82 ^a	154.62 ± 3.70 ^a
	Steaming	31.78 ± 1.91 ^a	7.80 ± 1.04 ^b	-12.27 ± 1.16 ^b	14.60 ± 0.84 ^b	122.00 ± 5.02 ^c
	<i>Sous-vide</i>	28.92 ± 2.35 ^{ab}	17.18 ± 2.08 ^a	-12.00 ± 2.07 ^b	20.98 ± 2.56 ^a	145.35 ± 3.00 ^b
Cauliflower cv. Pastoret	Raw	61.59 ± 6.81 ^a	-1.7 ± 1.10 ^a	8.35 ± 2.77 ^a	8.65 ± 2.35 ^b	102.60 ± 10.78 ^b
	Steaming	66.53 ± 4.39 ^a	-1.48 ± 1.7 ^a	16.47 ± 5.02 ^a	16.69 ± 4.44 ^a	121.60 ± 10.78 ^b
	<i>Sous-vide</i>	65.65 ± 3.57 ^a	-0.98 ± 2.09 ^a	15.75 ± 7.36 ^a	15.99 ± 6.68 ^{ab}	175.75 ± 4.40 ^a

330 Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments ($p < 0.05$)

331 **TABLE 2. TPC, VCC, and *in vitro* antioxidant activity of fresh studied vegetables.**

332 **Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$).**

Variety	TPC [mg / 100 FW]	VCC [mg / 100 g FW]	FRAP [μmol / 100 g FW]
Broccoli cv. Camelia	112.1 \pm 4.9 ^b	235.1 \pm 11.7 ^b	464.7 \pm 25.6 ^b
Cavolo Nero di Toscana	77.0 \pm 1.9 ^c	290.6 \pm 7.2 ^a	471.6 \pm 24.0 ^b
Grelo	162.7 \pm 3.5 ^a	71.9 \pm 4.9 ^d	920.7 \pm 19.9 ^a
Col cabdell cv. Pastoret	35.3 \pm 3.5 ^e	102.2 \pm 5.6 ^c	167.0 \pm 9.0 ^c
Col llombarda cv. Pastoret	150.2 \pm 7.9 ^a	55.0 \pm 5.2 ^e	794.5 \pm 85.1 ^a
Cauliflower cv. Pastoret	57.3 \pm 4.7 ^d	37.8 \pm 1.0 ^f	144.3 \pm 14.6 ^c

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