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# Fatty acid profile, oxidative stability and toxicological safety of bayberry kernel oil

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# ABSTRACT

The fatty acid profile, oxidative stability and toxicological safety of bayberry (*Myrica rubra* Sieb. et Zucc.) kernel oil (BKO) extracted by supercritical carbon dioxide (SC-CO<sub>2</sub>) and solvent of diethyl ether were assessed. Fatty acid profile was determined by gas chromatography, oxidative stability by placing the sample of 25 g in a blast oven at  $50 \pm 1$  °C to accelerate oxidation and toxicological safety by bacterial reverse mutation (Ames test) and acute oral toxicity in mice. The results demonstrated that in comparison to lard and rapeseed oil, the peroxide values of BKO were higher but the acid values were similar during the incubation test. The Ames test demonstrated no mutagenicity and no obvious acute toxicity were observed, suggesting that the BKO has potential as a novel edible oil.

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### 1. Introduction

Bayberry (Myrica rubra Sieb. et Zucc.), belonging to the family of Myricaceae, has a cultivation history of more than 2000 years in China (Chen et al., 2004). Bayberries are mainly cultivated in the southern side of the Yangtze River, where Zhejiang province is the major production area, with an annual yield of 350,000 tons (2010 data provided by Zhejiang Provincial Department of Agriculture). Bayberry fruit is very popular to the local people because of its enticing sweet/sour taste, exquisite flavor and attractive color. It is high in carbohydrates, organic acids, proteins, minerals, and vitamins (Chen et al., 2004). However, because bayberry is harvested ripe in the hot and wet seasons of mid-June to early July, it can only be kept fresh for 3 days at 20-22 °C or 9-12 days at 0-2 °C (Xi et al., 1994), and the taste and flavor deteriorate quickly. To reach a wider market, shelf-life is extended by processing the fruits into juice and wine. During processing, bayberry seeds, which account for >10% of the total fruit weight, are discarded as waste (Cheng et al., 2008). Each bayberry seed has one kernel, which is a

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potential source of edible oil since the oil content is very high at 62–68% of the kernel weight (Chen et al., 2005). Nine types of fatty acids have been previously reported in bayberry kernel oil (BKO), which consists of ~85% unsaturated fatty acids (Chen et al., 2005). Intake of unsaturated fatty acids in human diet has the potential to reduce the risk of cardiovascular diseases, therefore, given its fatty acid profile bayberry kernel may have potential as a healthy edible oil source.

Conventional methods of extracting oil from fruit seeds include physical extraction by pressing, as well as chemical extraction using solvents, the efficiency of which can be increased by continuous solvent recycling as in Soxhlet method or by using microwave assisted extraction or superheated hexane extraction (Abbasi et al., 2008; Eikania et al., 2012). More recently, the applications of supercritical fluid extraction (SFE) for oils have increased. Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> (SC-CO<sub>2</sub>) is widely used for extracting heat-sensitive and high-value components from biomaterials. The advantages of using CO<sub>2</sub> are its lack of toxicity, nonflammability, high availability, and low cost (Abbasi et al., 2008; Nodar et al., 2002). It has been reported that oils such as Hibiscus cannabinus L. seed oil (Chan and Ismail, 2009), Opuntia dillenii Haw. seed oil (Liu et al., 2009) and pomegranate seed oil (Liu et al., 2012) extracted by SC-CO<sub>2</sub> maintain high antioxidant activity. SC-CO<sub>2</sub> has previously been used to extract oil from bayberry kernel (Zhang et al., 2007; Xia et al., 2009), however, the effect of this technology on BKO quality, including fatty acid profile and storage stability has not been





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*Abbreviations:* BKO, bayberry kernel oil; SC-CO<sub>2</sub>, supercritical carbon dioxide; SFE, supercritical fluid extraction; NIH, National Institutes of Health; ICR, Institute of Cancer Research; NADP, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate; FAMEs, fatty acid methyl esters; FID, flame ionization detector; POV, peroxide value; AV, acid value; PCB, polychlorinated biphenyl; SD, standard deviation.

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reported. The toxicological safety of bayberry kernel has been tentatively confirmed using an Institute of Cancer Research (ICR) rat model, in which the medium lethal dose was >20.0 g/kg body weight (Cheng, 2008). There is however no report on the mutagenicity and toxicity of the BKO. The acute oral toxicity test applied in the present work was also used for evaluation of other new oil sources, such as cashew seed oil (Konan et al., 2007) and pomegranate seed oil (Meerts et al., 2009). Therefore, the objective of this work was to investigate the effects of SC-CO<sub>2</sub> extraction on the fatty acid compositions of BKO, and evaluate the oxidative stability and toxicological safety of the oil in order to determine the commercialization potential of BKO as a novel edible oil.

#### 2. Materials and methods

# 2.1. Materials and reagents

Bayberry fruits (cultivar Dongkui) were harvested on June 30, 2011 in an orchard in Taizhou city, Zhejiang province, transported to laboratory and used to separate the seeds on the same day. The seeds were squeezed out by a mini-juicer (Midea, Shunde, China) and dried at 50  $^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$  overnight for further use. Five hundred grams of the kernels were taken out by cracking using a hammer from 1500 g of the seeds separated from 15 kg of fresh fruits. The kernels were dried at 50 °C for 6 h, sealed in a plastic jar, and stored at -18 °C as samples. The samples were ground into powder using a laboratory blender (Yili Instrument, Jinhua, China) before analyzed. CO2 (99.995%) was purchased from Jingong Special Gas Co., Ltd., (Hangzhou, China). Rapeseed oil and lard were purchased in the local food market. Diethyl ether and toluene (chromatography grade), fatty acid methyl ester standards (99.0%), acetyl chloride, sodium carbonate and TWEEN-80 (analytical grade) were purchased from Jiecheng Biotechnology Co., Ltd., (Hangzhou, China), Glucose-6-phosphate sodium, sodium azide, fenaminosulf and 2-aminofluorine were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Shanghai, China); nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP), and D-biotin were purchased from Boao Biotechnology Co., Ltd., (Shanghai, China).

### 2.2. Extraction of BKO by SC-CO<sub>2</sub>

Based on our previous work on SC-CO<sub>2</sub> extraction of BKO (Xia et al., 2009), the optimized extraction conditions with a high oil yield were selected. The details of the apparatus and extraction process have been described in detail previously (Xia et al., 2009). Briefly, 5.0 g of bayberry kernel powder was extracted using the 100 mL extraction vessel of the speed supercritical fluid extraction apparatus (Applied Separation, Pennsylvania, USA). The extraction process included two stages: during the static extraction stage the extraction conditions were maintained at 45 °C and 35 MPa for 60 min, with the oil outlet valve switch "off"; the dynamic extraction stage commenced when the oil outlet valve was switched "on", during which time the CO<sub>2</sub>flow rate was 4 L min<sup>-1</sup>. The dynamic extraction time was 50 min. The oil was collected in an automatic mode and transferred to a container, then stored at -18 °C until further analysis. Triplicate extractions were conducted.

# 2.3. Extraction of BKO by the Soxhlet method

The BKO was extracted from the kernels by the Soxhlet method following the procedure of Yazan et al. (2011). Briefly, 5.0 g of bayberry kernel powder was transferred into a Soxhlet extractor and 300 mL of diethyl ether was added into the round bottom flask. During distillation/extraction the solvent flow rate was manually adjusted to 7 min cycle<sup>-1</sup> and the extraction was terminated after 100 cycles. The solvent was removed from the oil by vacuum rotary evaporation under the temperature of 45 °C.

### 2.4. Analysis of fatty acid profile

The fatty acids of BKO were transesterified into fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs), according to the procedure of Arens et al. (1994). The analysis of FAMEs was performed using a 7890A gas chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, USA), equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID). The flow rate of the nitrogen carrier gas was 1.0 mL min<sup>-1</sup> and the split ratio was 10:1. A 1  $\mu$ L sample was injected onto a 100 m × 0.25 mm × 0.20  $\mu$ m film thickness HP-88 capillary column (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, USA). The injector and FID temperatures were set at 260 °C. The initial column temperature was 150 °C for 1 min, increasing by 3 °C/min to 240 °C and maintained at 240 °C for 10 min. The FAME peaks were identified by retention time compared to FAME standards. Each sample was analyzed in triplicate. The individual fatty acids were quantified from their peak areas and expressed as percent of total fatty acid weight.

#### 2.5. Oxidative stability test

The modified oven method (Jiang et al., 2004) was used to test the oxidative stability of the BKO along with lard and rapeseed oil controls which are two most commonly consumed edible oil used by the local community in Zhejiang, China. This procedure was conducted by placing the sample of 25 g in a blast oven at  $50 \pm 1$  °C to accelerate oxidation. The oil samples were taken out every 12 h for 72 h duration to determine the peroxide value (POV) and acid value (AV) to assess their relative oxidative deterioration. The POV and AV were determined using titrating methods according to the China national standard method of GB/T 5009.37-2003 (Method for analysis of hygienic standard of edible oils, Standardization Administration of the People's Republic of China).

#### 2.6. Bacterial reverse mutation study (Ames test)

Four strains of Salmonella typhimurium (TA97, TA98, TA100, and TA102) were obtained from Molecular Toxicology Inc., (NC, USA), and polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) induced rat liver S9 were obtained from Zhejiang Academy of Medicinal Sciences, Hangzhou, China. The S9/cofactor mix was used as a metabolic activation system and was prepared immediately prior to use as described previously (Gomes-Carneiro et al., 2005). Standard Ames test procedures were conducted using the plate incorporation method (Maron and Ames, 1983) which in brief was as follows: the BKO was mixed with TWEEN-80 and emulsified in distilled water by a mixer using oil concentrations determined in a preliminary experiment. The emulsion was then sterilized at 121 °C for 15 min. The experiment was performed both with and without the S9 activation system, and the dosage of BKO evaluated were 40, 200, 1000 and 5000  $\mu$ g plate<sup>-1</sup> respectively. Standard mutagens used as positive controls in each experiment were 2-aminofluorene (10  $\mu$ g plate<sup>-1</sup>), fenaminosulf (50  $\mu$ g plate<sup>-1</sup>) respectively for TA97 and TA98 with and without S9; 2-aminofluorene (10  $\mu$ g plate<sup>-1</sup>), sodium azide (1.5  $\mu$ g plate<sup>-1</sup>) for TA100 with and without S9 respectively; and fenaminosulf (50  $\mu$ g plate<sup>-1</sup>) for TA102 without S9. The treatments were performed in triplicate. All strains were tested by colony count (Xunshu Microbiology Company, Hangzhou, China) for spontaneous revertant colonies using distilled water as a negative control.

If the number of revertant colonies is more than triple the background average number on a plate, or if there is a dose-related increase in revertant colonies, the test is considered as positive and the test material can be concluded as mutagenic. On the contrary, if the results do not reach to this criterion, the test material can be considered as non-mutagenic (Yan et al., 2010).

#### 2.7. Acute oral toxicity study in mice

This experiment was carried out in accordance with the guidelines of the "Principles of Laboratory Animal Care" (NIH publication No. 85-23, revised 1996). Male and female ICR mice at four weeks old were obtained from Zhejiang Academy of Medicinal Sciences (Hangzhou, China) with their body weights ranging from 18 to 22 g. Mice were housed in solid-bottom polycarbonate cages in a controlled environment (temperature 23  $\pm$  3 °C, relative humidity 50  $\pm$  10%, and artificial lighting was sequenced at 12-h light/dark cycles). Mice were quarantined for 3 days before the experiment and were fasted overnight prior to being randomly divided into two groups, each group containing 11 males and 11 females. To one group (test), BKO was feed at a single dose of 9.446 g kg<sup>-1</sup> by intra-gastric gavage. To the other group (control) an equal volume of distilled water was given. Mice were observed for clinical signs of intoxication or mortality at 10 and 30 min, and 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 h after dosing. Mice were sacrificed on day 15 and necropsy examinations were conducted to inspect acute intoxication on all external surfaces, organs and orifices.

#### 2.8. Statistical analyses

Data were expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (mean  $\pm$  SD). ANOVA and Duncan's post hoc test were performed using SPSS software package version 17.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL) to identify significant differences between sample means. p < 0.05 was considered significant in all analyses.

# 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Effect of SC-CO<sub>2</sub> extraction on the fatty acid profile of BKO

The gas chromatography of fatty acid profile of BKO was given in Fig. 1a. The chromatogram (Fig. 1a) identified seven fatty acids namely: palmitic acid (C16:0), palmitoleic acid (C16:1), stearic acid (C18:0), oleic acid (C18:1), linoleic acid (C18:2), punicic acid (C18:3) and arachidic acid (C20:0). Unlike the report of Chen et al. (2005), no myristic (C14:0) nor arachidic acid (C20:2) was found in our BKO. This may be attributed to different bayberry Download English Version:

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