

*Enhancing the recovery of tiger nut
(Cyperus esculentus) oil by mechanical
pressing: moisture content, particle size,
high pressure and enzymatic pre-
treatment effects*

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1 **Enhancing the recovery of tiger nut (*Cyperus esculentus*) oil by mechanical pressing:**
2 **moisture content, particle size, high pressure and enzymatic pre-treatment effects**

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21 **Abbreviated running title**

22 **High Pressure and Enzyme Pre-treatment on Tiger nut Oil Recovery by Pressing**

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34 **ABSTRACT:** Tiger nut (*Cyperus esculentus*) tuber contains oil that is high in
35 monounsaturated fatty acids, and this oil makes up about 23% of the tuber. The study aimed
36 at evaluating the impact of several factors and enzymatic pre-treatment on the recovery of
37 pressed tiger nut oil. Smaller particles were more favourable for pressing. High pressure pre-
38 treatment did not increase oil recovery but enzymatic treatment did. The highest yield
39 obtained by enzymatic treatment prior to mechanical extraction was 33 % on a dry defatted
40 basis, which represents a recovery of 90 % of the oil. Tiger nut oil consists mainly of oleic
41 acid; its acid and peroxide values reflect the high stability of the oil.

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43 **Keywords:** Tiger nut oil, pressing, particle size, enzymes, polyphenol

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59 1. INTRODUCTION

60 Tiger nut or yellow nutsedge (*Cyperus esculentus*) is a perennial herb from rhizomes with
61 hard tubers at its endings. Its use dates back to ancient Egypt (Yeboah, Mitei, Ngila,
62 Wessjohann, & Schmidt, 2012), while today they are cultivated in Africa, Spain, and North
63 America. Tiger nuts are often consumed raw, roasted or ground to make beverages. There are
64 various applications of the plant which includes the use of its extract in the cosmetic industry
65 and production of gluten free flour.

66 The oil fraction of tiger nut tuber is comparable to olive oil in its fatty acid profile and is
67 dominated mostly with oleic acid (Linssen, Kielman, Cozijnsen, & Pilnik, 1988). It is
68 considered to be a superior edible oil due to its stability and nutritional quality. Tiger nut oil
69 (TNO) contains a high proportion of unsaturated fatty acids, vitamin E and phenolic
70 compounds. Its phytosterol content, especially stigmasterol and campesterol, is higher than
71 that of olive oil, which allows the two oils to be differentiated (Sánchez-Zapata, Fernández-
72 López, & Angel Pérez-Alvarez, 2012). Other properties of TNO have also been investigated
73 such as its potential for biodiesel (Ali Rehab & El Anany, 2012).

74 Currently, tiger nut oil is extracted and sold as cold pressed oil. For research purposes, TNO
75 is extracted either using a laboratory press or solvent extraction with n-hexane (Ali Rehab &
76 El Anany, 2012; Yeboah, Mitei, Ngila, Wessjohann, & Schmidt, 2012). Despite the higher
77 recovery of oil achieved with solvent extraction (over 95%) as reported by Rosenthal and
78 Niranjana (1996), there remains apprehensions regarding sustainable availability of petroleum
79 based solvents, as well as the contribution of these solvents to the emission of volatile organic
80 compounds. To overcome this problem, other methods of oil extraction have been
81 investigated and re-visited along with pre-treatment effects on the yield of the extracted oil.
82 Examples include employing enzymes and applying high hydrostatic pressure treatment.
83 Enzymes are used to degrade cellular wall components such as cellulose, and pectin and this

84 facilitates oil release from the cells. They are commonly used in aqueous extraction processes
85 where they have been found to significantly increase oil recoveries from oil seeds. Peanuts,
86 soybeans, pumpkin, and horse radish seeds are some materials that have benefitted from the
87 use of enzymes in aqueous extraction (Mat Yusoff, Gordon, & Niranjan, 2015). Only a few
88 studies have implemented use of enzymes prior to mechanical oil extraction despite the
89 potential benefits it may offer. With mechanical presses, there is no difficulty of de-
90 emulsification that arises with aqueous extraction and this eliminates an additional processing
91 step.

92 Mechanical separation of oil from oil seeds can be done either using expellers (screw press)
93 or hydraulic presses. The high quality oil obtained is one of the reasons why these are
94 continually being used especially as there is an increasing niche market for novel oils. In
95 some rural areas, it also remains the sole method of oil extraction. But it still is an inefficient
96 process. Depending on the equipment used, authors have conducted studies to increase oil
97 recoveries and optimize the process by varying operational variables like temperature,
98 applied pressure and time (Adeeko & Ajibola, 1990; Ajibola, Eniyemo, Fasina, & Adeeko,
99 1990). Sample preparation must also be taken into account, as pre-treatments such as the
100 application of extrusion, and enzymes are employed (Nelson, Wijeratne, Yeh, Wei, & Wei,
101 1987; Smith, Agrawal, Sarkar, & Singh, 1993). Generally these treatment lead to increases in
102 oil yields because they tend to either soften and/or destroy cellular structure thus aiding the
103 extraction. When hydraulic presses are used, important parameters that have been observed to
104 influence oil yields are moisture content of sample, temperature, maximum applied pressure,
105 and particle size.

106 Extraction of oil from tiger nut has not been researched extensively and has very few reported
107 studies. A majority of growers of the tuber **reside** in African countries and they stand to
108 benefit from more research in this area especially with the multiple uses of the oil.

109 Potentially, it could substitute for the more expensive imported olive oil in these countries. In
110 addition, the oil could be employed to improve the diets of consumers in penurious areas.
111 Consumption of a blend of coconut and tiger nut oil for instance has been shown to control
112 the total plasma cholesterol levels in albino rats and also reduce their LDL- cholesterol levels
113 (Ali Rehab & El Anany, 2012).

114 There is a paucity of research reports on techniques for extraction of tiger nut oil or
115 optimising the yield of oil. However a study of the effects of extraction parameters on oil
116 yield when using supercritical CO₂ was recently reported (Lasekan & Abdulkarim, 2012).

117 There are also a few studies on enzymatic aqueous oil extraction. In terms of pre-treatments,
118 high pressure is not commonly used prior to oil extraction. It is commercially used in
119 pasteurization and food preservation as the high pressures applied inactivate microbes,
120 spores, and spoilage inducing enzymes (Ly-Nguyen, Van Loey, Smout, ErenÖzcan, Fachin,
121 Verlent, et al., 2003). It has though been used along with enzymatic aqueous extraction of
122 soybean flakes (Uhm & Yoon, 2011). This study aims to investigate the impact of moisture
123 content in the tubers, particle size, high hydrostatic pressure and enzymatic pre-treatment
124 prior to oil extraction by mechanical pressing on the recovery of tiger nut oil. Oil quality
125 parameters are reported for the pressed oil (without enzymatic treatment).

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134 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

135 2.1 Samples

136 Dried brown tiger nuts from Spain, purchased from Real Foods, Edinburgh UK were used for
137 all experiments.

138 2.2 Chemicals

139 Fatty acid methyl ester standards, α -tocopherol standard, gallic acid, methanol, alcohol
140 oxidase (from *Pichia pastoris*), purpald (4-amino-3-hydrazino-5-mercapto-1, 2, 4-triazole),
141 phosphate buffer, safranin and sodium hydroxide were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich
142 (Dorset, UK). All chemicals were of analytical grade.

143 2.3 Sample preparation and treatments

144 The initial moisture content of tiger nuts was measured using an infrared moisture analyser
145 (Sartorius, Surrey UK) and this was given on a wet basis (wb). They were then soaked in
146 distilled water at room temperature for 6 h, followed by drying in a conventional oven at 70
147 °C for 13 h. A preliminary study was carried out to obtain a drying curve and used to
148 determine the time taken to achieve an initial moisture content of 4% (wb) for all samples.
149 The samples with the desired moisture content were prepared by adding calculated amounts
150 of distilled water using equation 1 (Mwithiga & Sifuna, 2006) and mixed thoroughly. The
151 weighed tubers were placed in polyethylene bags and kept in a refrigerator for a minimum of
152 48 h to establish uniform moisture content. Prior to oil extraction, they were withdrawn and
153 left for 2 h at room temperature to equilibrate.

$$154 \quad Q = \frac{w_i(m_f - m_i)}{(100 - m_f)} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

155 where Q = mass of water to be added in grams, w_i is the initial mass of the sample in grams,
156 m_i and m_f are the initial and desired final moisture contents in percentages (wb), respectively.

157 The prepared samples prior to pressing were ground in a coffee mill and sieved with three
158 ASTM testing meshes to produce average particle sizes of ≤ 1.16 mm, ≤ 0.841 mm and ≤ 0.5
159 mm.

160 **2.3.1 High Pressure Processing**

161 Tiger nuts were dried for 1.5 h or until the moisture content was between 6.5-8 %. They were
162 then ground, and sieved to a particle size of ≤ 0.85 mm. 30 g of the samples were vacuum
163 sealed in polyethylene bags and placed in a pressure vessel (Stanstead Fluid Power, Ltd) to be
164 subjected to pressures of 50, 300, 500 and 700 MPa (15 min holding time, 40 °C). Whole
165 tubers in 0.5 M citric acid were also high pressure treated. A preliminary study found no
166 interaction between pressure, temperature and time on the yield. A mixture of water and 1, 2-
167 propanediol (70:30, v/v) served as the pressure transmitting fluid. The adiabatic temperature
168 rise during the pressure treatment was 3.3 °C per 100 MPa.

169 **2.3.2 Enzymatic treatment**

170 Protease (from *Bacillus licheniformis*), α -amylase (*Bacillus licheniformis*) and Viscozyme L
171 (hemi cellulolytic enzyme mixture from *Aspergillus*) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich,
172 UK. A combination of all three enzymes was used (1:1:1). Enzymes and their hydrolysis
173 conditions were based on specifications given by suppliers and experiments done in our
174 laboratory. Whole tiger nut tubers were soaked in distilled water for 6 h, ground and sieved to
175 a particle size of ≤ 0.425 mm. Enzymes of varying total weights (0.15g, 0.30g, 0.45g) were
176 added to 50 ml of distilled water, 30 g of ground tiger nut sample, and pH was adjusted to 8
177 using 0.5 M NaOH. Incubation was carried out for 6 h at 40 °C in a water bath with a linear
178 agitation speed of 180 strokes per min. After incubation, the mixture was dried in a vacuum
179 oven till the moisture content was between 6.5 - 8 %. Temperature in the oven was 55 °C
180 while the maximum pressure reached was 700 mm Hg. Following drying, oil was extracted
181 by pressing.

182 **2.4 Mechanical Pressing of Tiger nut oil**

183 Tiger nut oil was obtained by double pressing 30 g of ground tiger nuts with a hydraulic
184 laboratory press (Specac, Ltd UK). A maximum pressure of 38 MPa was exerted due to the
185 limitation of the strength of the nylon sieve material used. The samples were placed in the
186 sieve and then in a metal chamber. The total time for pressing was between 40-50 s. Hexane
187 was used to collect the expressed oil and recovered in a rotary evaporator. The amount of oil
188 extracted was measured gravimetrically and stored in an amber glass bottle for analysis.

189 Hexane extraction was carried out to determine the total extractable oil in tiger nuts and to
190 measure total oil recovery. The total oil content was measured gravimetrically from 10 g of
191 ground tiger nuts extracted with 150 ml hexane for 6 h in a Soxhlet unit. Hexane was
192 recovered in a rotary evaporator. Residual solvent was removed in an oven at 105 °C for 15
193 min and the residue was cooled in a desiccator. Throughout the work, oil recovery is
194 synonymous with oil yield.

195 Pressing after enzymatic treatment was carried out in 30 min. Controls consisted of pressing
196 for 30 min without enzymatic pre-treatment.

197 **2.5 Cell evaluation**

198 **2.5.1 Methanol content in tissues**

199 A spectrophotometric method was used to determine methanol content (Gonzalez, Jernstedt,
200 Slaughter, & Barrett, 2010). Pectin methyl esterase activity was assayed by determination of
201 the amount of methanol present in the tissues. Methanol is enzymatically oxidized to
202 formaldehyde with alcohol oxidase and calorimetrically determined with Purpald (4- amino-
203 3-hydrazinio-5-mercapto-1,2, 4 triazole). Ground tiger nut sample (1g) was vortexed with 50
204 % trichloroacetic acid (TCA) and distilled water in the ratio 1:2:1. The mixture was
205 centrifuged and the oxidation was begun by adding 0.25 ml of the vortexed mixture to 0.9 ml
206 of 100 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.5), 0.75 ml supernatant, 0.5 ml distilled water, and 1 ul

207 alcohol oxidase (27 U/mg protein, 42 mg protein/ml). The samples were incubated in a water
208 bath at 30 °C for 10 min after which 2 ml of 5 mg/ml Purpald in 0.5 M NaOH was added and
209 the mixture was left for an additional 30 min. At the end of this period, 6 ml of distilled water
210 was added and the absorbance at 550 nm was measured.

211 **2.5.2 Confocal Light Scanning Microscopy**

212 The staining method reported by Sineiro, Domínguez, Núñez and Lema (1998) was adopted
213 and modified. Ground tiger nut samples were mounted on glass slides using Evo-Stik rapid
214 set adhesive. Cell walls were stained in Safranin solution for 1 min (10 g safranin in 155 ml
215 95 % ethanol and 145 ml distilled water; this was diluted 1:1 with 50 % ethanol). Sections
216 were rinsed afterwards with distilled water and observed under a Leica SP2 Inverted
217 Confocal Microscope (Carl Zeiss) operating in confocal mode. A Leica 10x/0.3 HC PL
218 Fluotar dry lens (Carl Zeiss) was used. An Argon laser (488 nm, 496 nm and 514 nm
219 excitation) provided the incident light and emission bandwidth set from 525 to 606 nm. The
220 obtained images were 1024 × 1024 pixels in size and were scanned at various zoom factors to
221 obtain desired magnifications.

222 **2.6 Oil Analysis**

223 Non-treated pressed oil was used in all oil analysis.

224 **2.6.1 Fatty Acid Content**

225 The pressed oil was analysed for fatty acid composition by Gas Chromatography (Agilent HP
226 6890 fitted with FID). Fatty acid methyl esters were prepared by saponification as described
227 in the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry method 2.301 (Dieffenbacher &
228 Pocklington, 1992). The esters were analysed using fused silica capillary column Varian CP-
229 Sil 88 (50 m × 0.25 mm × 0.20 µm). The injector temperature was 250 °C; detection
230 temperature was 260 °C and oven temperature was initially 100 °C, held for 3 min and

231 ramped to 240 °C at 4 °C per min. The carrier gas was hydrogen at a flow rate of 0.8 ml/min.
232 The fatty acids were identified by comparing retention times with those of standards.

233 **2.6.2 Acid and Peroxide Values**

234 Acid value (AV) and peroxide values were determined according to Cd 3d-63 and Cd 8b-90
235 AOCS official methods respectively (Firestone, 1998).

236 **2.6.3 Tocopherol Content**

237 For tocopherol extraction and analysis, the procedure described by Costa, Ballus, Teixeira-
238 Filho and Godoy (2010) was followed. Analysis was performed with a HPLC-UV system
239 (Agilent 1200, Manchester, UK) using a Nucleosil C-18-100 reverse phase column (25 cm ×
240 4.6 mm i.d.) with a particle size of 5 µm (Macherey-Nagel, Duren, Germany). Dilute
241 concentrations of α-tocopherol standard were prepared by dissolving in methanol.
242 Tocopherol was identified by comparing the retention times with those of the standards and
243 comparing the absorption spectra obtained by the DAD. An external calibration was used for
244 quantification.

245 **2.6.4 Total Phenolic Compound Analysis**

246 The extraction of phenols was carried out using liquid-liquid extraction with methanol as
247 solvent. The procedure reported by Baiano, Gambacorta, Terracone, Previtali, Lamacchia,
248 and La Notte (2009) was followed. 2 ml of methanol/water (70:30, v/v) and 2 ml of hexane
249 were added to 5 g of tiger nut oil and vortexed for 10 min. The organic phase and the aqueous
250 phase were separated by centrifugation (6000 rpm, 4 °C, 10 min). The aqueous phase
251 containing the phenolics was collected and centrifugation was repeated (13000 rpm, room
252 temperature, 4 min). Finally, the aqueous phase was collected with a pipette for analysis.
253 Total phenolic content was quantified using a spectrophotometric method (Stanković, 2011).
254 The hydroalcoholic extract or blank methanol sample (0.5 ml) was mixed with 10% Folin-
255 Ciocalteu reagent (2.5 ml) dissolved in water and 7.5% Na₂CO₃ (2.5 ml). The mixtures were

256 incubated at 45 °C for 45 min and the absorbance was measured using a spectrophotometer at
257 765 nm. A standard curve was prepared using standard diluted solutions of gallic acid in
258 methanol. Total phenolic content is expressed as milligrams of gallic acid equivalents (GAE)
259 per kg of oil.

260 **2.7 Statistical Analysis**

261 All analysis was done in triplicate and the mean values are presented. Statistical analysis was
262 carried out by ANOVA using SPSS Version 20 Statistical software (SPSS Inc, Chicago,
263 USA). Significance was defined at $p < 0.05$.

264

265 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

266 **3.1 Effects of Moisture Content and Particle Size**

267 The total extractable oil in the tiger nut tuber was 23.1% (w/w) or 35.5 % on a dry defatted
268 basis (d.d.b) taking into account the initial moisture content of the samples. Thus it is a low
269 oil bearing material, similar to soybean (18-20%) (Nelson, Wijeratne, Yeh, Wei, & Wei,
270 1987). The lipid content falls within the range of 22.8-32.8 % reported in literature (Sánchez-
271 Zapata, Fernández-López, & Angel Pérez-Alvarez, 2012) .

272 Reducing the particle size was necessary to increase the oil recovery (Figure 1). These results
273 were in agreement with those obtained for ground melon seeds (Ajibola, Eniyemo, Fasina, &
274 Adeeko, 1990) and in contrast to results obtained for peanuts. Finely ground melon seed
275 particles (1.10 mm) were found to give higher oil yields compared to coarsely ground
276 particles (1.85 mm). In contrast, peanut oil yield was increased when the particle size was
277 increased (Adeeko & Ajibola, 1990). Particle size is known to play a role in oil extraction
278 processes such as solvent and aqueous extraction (A Rosenthal, Pyle, & Niranjana, 1998). In
279 these techniques the smaller the particle size, the higher the oil recovery because of an
280 increase in surface area allowing for more contact between the solvents and the oleaginous

281 material. The pressing operation has been described as being analogous to a capillary
282 filtration process, and the Hagen-Poiseuille equation below expresses this (Sorin-Stefan,
283 Ionescu, Voicu, Ungureanu, & Vladut, 2013)

$$284 \quad V (m^3) = \frac{\pi.p.d.t}{128.\eta.l} \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

285 Where V (m³) - volume of separated liquid (passing through capillaries); p (N/m²) – apparent
286 pressure; d (m) – diameter of capillary channel; η (Pa s) – dynamic viscosity of liquid; l (m) –
287 length of capillary channel; t (s) – time of applied pressure.

288 From equation 2, the volume of oil that gets released is proportional to the pore diameter and
289 inversely proportional to the length of the capillary channel. The pore diameter and capillary
290 channel length can be increased and decreased respectively with greater cellular destruction.
291 This may explain the higher yields obtained with smaller particles.

292 Despite the fact that moisture content is a key controlling factor in mechanical oil extraction,
293 oil yield was not significantly affected by moisture content of the samples. However, the
294 maximum oil yields (17-18%, d.d.b) for each particle size used, were observed to occur
295 between 6.8-8% moisture. Different oilseeds exhibit different behaviour with varying
296 moisture levels. It was reported for walnuts and peanuts, that an increase in moisture content
297 from 2.4 % to 7% increased oil extraction yield from 61% to 84 % while in some materials
298 like sesame, optimum moisture content exists. Although these extraction processes were
299 carried out in a continuous process, similar observations were noted for hydraulic presses
300 (Savoire, Lanoisellé, & Vorobiev, 2013). In the case of tiger nuts, even though the impact of
301 moisture level on extraction yield was found to be statistically insignificant, subsequent
302 pressing experiments were carried within the observed favourable moisture level range. Other
303 factors that influence oil yield include temperature and pressure. In this study, existing
304 constraints prevented a manipulation of these factors; pressure due to the strength of the

305 sieving material used and temperature due to the lack of temperature control of the hydraulic
306 press.

307 **3.2 Effect of High Pressure Processing**

308 Samples pre-treated with high pressure showed no significant increase in oil recovery
309 regardless of the pressure employed (Figure 2). The high pressures (50-700 MPa) did not
310 cause any further destruction of the parenchyma cells which had already suffered some
311 disintegration due to the grinding process. Confocal images of control and high pressure
312 treated samples (300-700 MPa) revealed similar cellular damage in all samples (Figure 3),
313 thus supporting the hypothesis that HPP does not induce any damage to cell walls. Safranin
314 was used to stain cell walls and is also known to stain lipids which explain the multiple drops
315 in the images. Focusing on different regions of the cells showed areas with intact cell walls
316 and some cell damage. Two microscope slides per treated sample were viewed under the
317 confocal laser microscope.

318 According to Jung, Maurer & Johnson, (2009), application of high pressures (200 MPa and
319 500 MPa) did not result in any significant increase in oil yield following both aqueous and
320 enzyme assisted aqueous extraction. It was suggested that high pressure treatment did not
321 promote any cell rupture in cotyledon cells of sunflower seeds. This observation can also be
322 used to explain the lack of an effect on tiger nut tubers. Tiger nut tubers have a tough texture,
323 even tougher than potatoes and this characteristic was attributed to the cross linking of
324 diferulic acid with arabinoxylans in the parenchyma cells of the tubers (Parker, Ng, Smith, &
325 Waldron, 2000). High pressure alone is not sufficient to induce cell separation as it is only
326 able to break weak non covalent bonds (Jung, Maurer, & Johnson, 2009). An initial
327 hypothesis that the lack of effect of HPP on the oil yield was due to pectin methyl esterase
328 (PME) activity often present in plant cells was considered. PME demethylates pectin
329 molecules, releasing pectin with free carboxyl groups and methanol. Pectin precipitates in the

330 presence of calcium forming strong bond linkages that preserves plant tissues when HPP is
331 applied. Studies have shown HPP as an alternative to thermal treatment to maintain
332 membrane integrity of tissues (De Roeck, Sila, Duvetter, Van Loey, & Hendrickx, 2008;
333 Gonzalez, Jernstedt, Slaughter, & Barrett, 2010). If this was the case, the addition of an acid
334 may be able to combat the effects of PME, and this was investigated.

335 **3.3 Effect of Citric Acid and Methanol Content in Cell tissues**

336 The tubers were placed in 0.5 M citric acid during the application of high pressure (700
337 MPa). Citric acid was used to inhibit pectin-calcium linkages that may have formed if PME
338 activity was present in tiger nut tissues. An increase in plant cells hardness or toughening
339 when calcium is present has been attributed to the precipitation of pectin. Despite the addition
340 of citric acid, tiger nut oil recovery did not increase. This suggests that pectin-calcium
341 linkages are not responsible for the lack of cell destruction by HPP.

342 Parker, Ng, Smith & Waldron, (2000) attributed the toughness of cell walls of tiger nut tuber
343 to phenolic acids, particularly diferulic acid. The toughness was recognised to be greater than
344 that of both raw potatoes and Chinese water chestnut. These acids were suspected to form
345 stable bonds between polysaccharides in the cell wall. It was also recommended that cell
346 separation in tiger nut tubers may be achieved by using hot dilute acid (100 °C). High
347 temperature was avoided because it would cause starch present to gelatinize and also affect
348 oil quality.

349 The methanol content was investigated by a colorimetric method. An increase in absorbance
350 indicates an increase in amount of methanol released. This would suggest an increase in PME
351 activity. From Figure 4, there were no significant differences between control and all high
352 pressure treated samples except 700 MPa. The absorbance value of the 700 MPa treated
353 sample was observed to be lower. The action of grinding already plays a role in some cellular
354 destruction, which may have led to PME release from within the cells and hence the observed

355 measured absorbance in control and pressure treated samples. The reduced absorbance
356 suggests a decrease in PME activity due to the high pressure. Enzymes tend to be resilient at
357 high pressures and PME is no exception. In carrots, PME was observed to have high
358 stabilities even at high pressures up to 825MPa (Ly-Nguyen, et al., 2003). In another study, a
359 high temperature, high pressure process was not able to solubilize cell walls but a low
360 pressure/high temperature combination did achieve this (0.1 MPa, 80 °C) (De Roeck, Sila,
361 Duvetter, Van Loey, & Hendrickx, 2008). PME of tiger nut may require thermal treatment for
362 complete inactivation but this was not needed for the purpose of this study.

363 **3.4 Effect of Enzymatic Pre-treatment**

364 The degrading action of enzymes significantly increased the pressed oil recovered. Tiger nut
365 is known to have a relatively high starch content of tiger nut of about 23. Cellulose also
366 makes up a large fraction of its crude fiber. The occurrence of these cell components in tiger
367 nuts would explain why α -amylase, protease and cellulolytic enzyme mixture enhanced oil
368 recovery. A confocal image with Safranin stained cell walls confirmed greater cellular
369 damage as a result of enzymatic treatment (Figure 3). An enzyme to substrate ratio of 1% was
370 found to achieve the highest oil recovery of 90%. Products from the degraded materials may
371 prevent enzymes from reaching their substrates and any additional enzyme was not
372 beneficial. The recovered oil was much higher than some reported recoveries obtained from
373 other materials via pressing such as values for soybeans (64%), or rosehip (74 %) (Concha,
374 Soto, Chamy, & Zúñiga, 2004; Smith, Agrawal, Sarkar, & Singh, 1993). In other studies
375 where higher oil recoveries up to 98 % were obtained, thermal treatments as well as longer
376 pressing times may have further improved the oil extraction. In addition, increasing pressing
377 time from 40-50 s to 30 min contributed to an 11% increase in oil yield without any
378 enzymatic pre-treatment.

379

380 **3.5 Fatty Acid Composition**

381 The most abundant saturated fatty acids in pressed tiger nut oil are palmitic (13.5 %) and
382 stearic acid (6.3 %) while the major unsaturated fatty acid is oleic acid (67.4 %). The fatty
383 acid composition is given in Table 1. Traces of myristic, gondoic, linolenic, and arachidic
384 acids were also detected. The concentration of oleic acid is in agreement with previous
385 studies and similar to that of olive oil (Linssen, Kielman, Cozijnsen, & Pilnik, 1988).
386 Eteshola & Oraedu, (1996) found a rather high proportion of myristic acid (28.1 %) with a
387 much lower oleic acid content (44.8 %). This discrepancy in values may be due to a
388 difference in the origin of the tiger nut tubers, genetic history, the age of the tissue analysed
389 and temperature and oxygen tension, since these variables can alter the lipid content of
390 oilseeds (Eteshola & Oraedu, 1996). Aside from this minor difference, the composition of
391 fatty acids is similar to those reported in a number of studies and similar to the fatty acid
392 profiles of olive, hazelnut, macadamia and avocado oil (Sánchez-Zapata, Fernández-López,
393 & Angel Pérez-Alvarez, 2012). As fatty acid composition is a determinant of the quality of
394 edible oils, the high concentration of monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA) makes it desirable
395 due to its good shelf life and potential health benefits. The carbon double bonds in fatty acids
396 are prone to oxidation, producing aldehydes, ketones and hydrocarbons that cause odours and
397 flavours linked with rancidity. Hence, oxidative stability increases with decreased levels of
398 unsaturated fatty acids, most especially PUFA (Moore & Knauff, 1989). This has been
399 observed for olive oil and the lower PUFA content in tiger nut oil gives it the same
400 advantage. MUFAs are much more stable and less prone to peroxidation due to their
401 chemical structure compared to PUFAs. The above mentioned health benefits of olive oil are
402 at least partly due to the MUFA content. Tiger nut oil can be substituted for olive oil in areas
403 where the tuber is grown locally.

404

405 **3.6 Quality Indices**

406 The acid and peroxide values were found to be 1.2 mg KOH/ g oil and 2.1 mEq/ kg oil
407 respectively. Acid value quantifies the concentration of free fatty acids and is an important
408 indicator of oil quality. The low acid value obtained indicates the low level of free fatty acid
409 in pressed tiger nut oil and thus reflects its high quality. Ali Rehab & El Anany, (2012)
410 reported an even lower acid value of 0.31 in pressed tiger nut oil. Free fatty acids in oil occur
411 as a result of hydrolysis which requires moisture to develop but the non-enzymic reaction
412 only occurs at high temperatures. Lipase in the tubers may have increased the hydrolysis
413 reaction leading to the release of free fatty acid during grinding and extraction.

414 The peroxide value of tiger nut oil is lower than the value determined by Yeboah, Mitei,
415 Ngila, Wessjohann and Schmidt (2012) of 5.54 mEq/kg which was deemed reasonable as it
416 was in accordance with Codex recommended values for virgin olive oil. Peroxide value
417 measures the concentration of hydroperoxides, which are the intermediate products during
418 oxidation in oil and so is used to detect the early stages of rancidity. It gives an indication of
419 the development of oxidative rancidity in oils. The low value of 2.1 mEq/kg found in this
420 study shows that oxidation had not progressed to a significant extent in this sample of tiger
421 nut oil.

422 **3.7 Total Phenolic Content**

423 Tiger nut oil polyphenol content was 17.9 mg GAE per kg oil. This is lower than the value
424 found by Ali Rehab and El Anany (2012) who obtained their nuts from Egypt which might
425 explain the differences. Pellegrini, Visioli, Buratti and Brighenti (2001) reported on the
426 polyphenol content in refined, virgin and extra virgin oils as 0.4, 1.4-2.4 and 7.3-26.5 mg
427 GAE/ 100 g oil respectively. Soybean, sunflower and corn oils have been found to contain 6-
428 8, 0.3-0.4 and less than 0.1 mg/ 100 g oil respectively (Valavanidis, Nisiotou, Papageorgiou,
429 Kremli, Satravelas, Zinieris, et al., 2004). Compared with these values, tiger nut oil has

430 similar polyphenol content to virgin olive oil and much lower than soybean and extra virgin
431 olive oil. The phenolic content of oils is important in assessing its antioxidant activity. These
432 bioactive compounds play a protective role in the degradation of tocopherols during cooking
433 processes and storage (Marfil, Giménez, Martínez, Bouzas, Rufián - Henares, Mesías, et al.,
434 2011). Polyphenol content and oxidative stability have been found to have a linear correlation
435 in virgin olive oil during storage at 60 °C and polyphenol content was proposed as an
436 indicator of olive oil quality (Gutfinger, 1981). On the basis of the high MUFA content and
437 the moderate polyphenol content, one can expect the oxidative stability of tiger nut oil to be
438 comparable to that of olive oil.

439 **3.8 Tocopherol Content**

440 The quantification of α -tocopherol is given in Table 2. It shows that tiger nut oil contained
441 145.7 $\mu\text{g/g}$. β -tocopherol was not quantified but was identified to be present in the oil. The
442 total tocopherol content of tiger nut oil is thus expected to be higher than 145.7 $\mu\text{g/g}$. Yeboah,
443 Mitei, Ngila, Wessjohann and Schmidt (2012) reported an α -tocopherol content of 86.7 $\mu\text{g/g}$
444 in solvent extracted tiger nut oil. Tocopherol content is affected by mode of oil extraction.
445 Organic solvents are able to penetrate the cells of the oil-containing plant material dissolving
446 more non-polar compounds. For a crude oil, the tocopherol value obtained is higher than
447 some olive oil values of 100-250 mg/kg, but there is a high variability in the amount of
448 tocopherols reported (Boskou, 2008). The high tocopherol content also contributes to the
449 stability of the oil as tocopherols acts as antioxidants. α -Tocopherol is more stable than β -
450 tocopherol. A good correlation between tocopherol and PUFA content has also been
451 described, suggesting that tocopherols are important in protecting them against oxidation
452 (Quiles, Ramírez-Tortosa, Gómez, Huertas, & Mataix, 2002).

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456 **4. CONCLUSION**

457 Small particle sizes with 6.88 to 8% moisture content were found to give higher oil
458 recoveries. High pressure did not improve the extractability of oil and this may be due to the
459 presence of diferulic bonds present in the cell walls. Enzyme pre-treatment on the other hand
460 allowed for a 90 % oil recovery. The triacylglycerol profile of tiger nut oil predominantly
461 consists of oleic acid and **78.6** % of the oil is unsaturated fatty acid. It can thus be used as a
462 source of these beneficial fatty acids. The acid and peroxide values indicate its high stability
463 and these were confirmed by the high polyphenol and tocopherol content. Polyphenols and
464 tocopherols both have antioxidant capabilities, protecting oil from oxidative rancidity and
465 prolonging its shelf life. Higher temperature and pressure were proposed to further increase
466 the oil extracted from tiger nuts.

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577 **Figure and Table Captions**

578

579 Figure 1: Effect of moisture content and particle size on oil recovery (mean)* from tiger nuts

580 *Standard error = 1.51

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583 Figure 2: Effect of High Pressure on Oil Recovery (mean)*

584 *Standard error = 0.03

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587 Figure 3: Confocal images showing intact cell walls of control, and high pressure treated tiger

588 nuts (A-D), and damaged cell walls of enzyme treated tiger nuts (E) *white arrows indicate

589 cells walls.

590 Figure 4: Absorbance values (mean)* reflecting methanol content in tiger nut tissues

591 Standard error = 0.14

592 Table 1: Fatty Acid Composition

593 Table 2: Quality indices, tocopherol and total phenols in tiger nut oil

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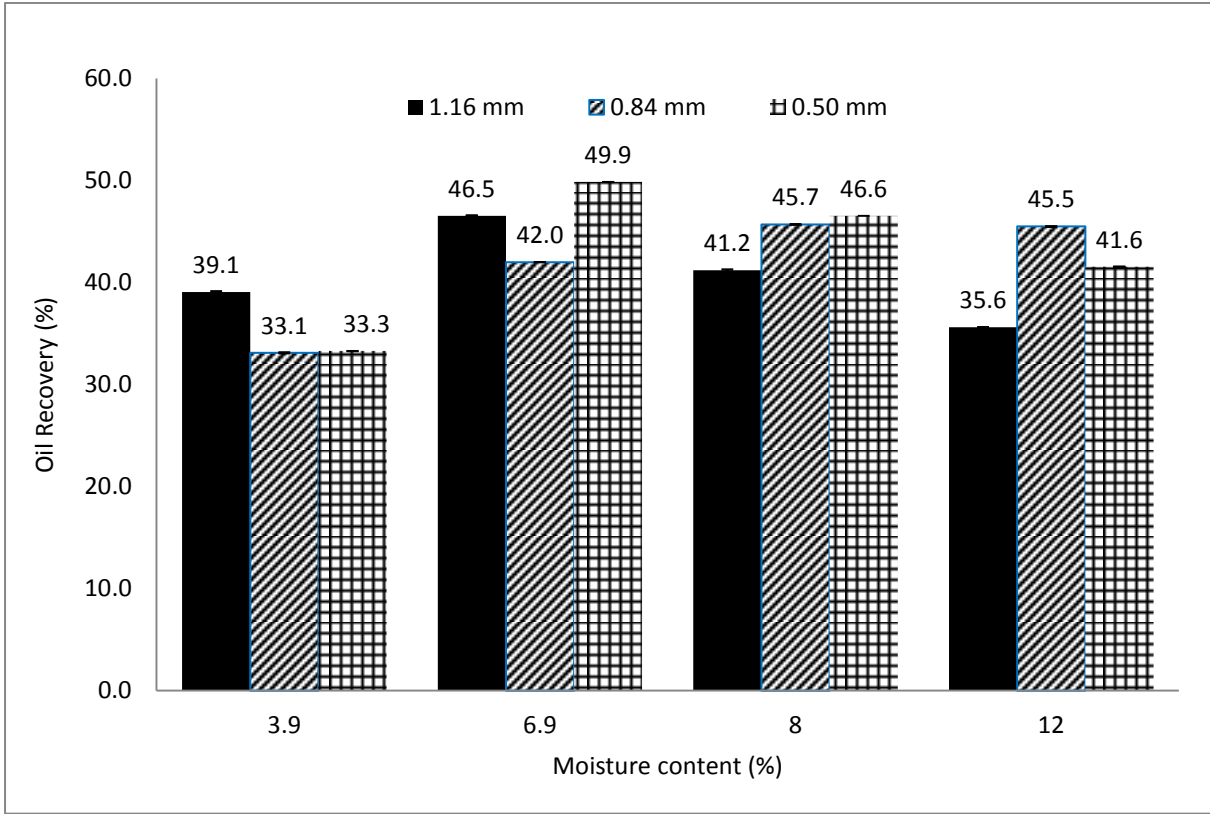
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604 **FIGURES**

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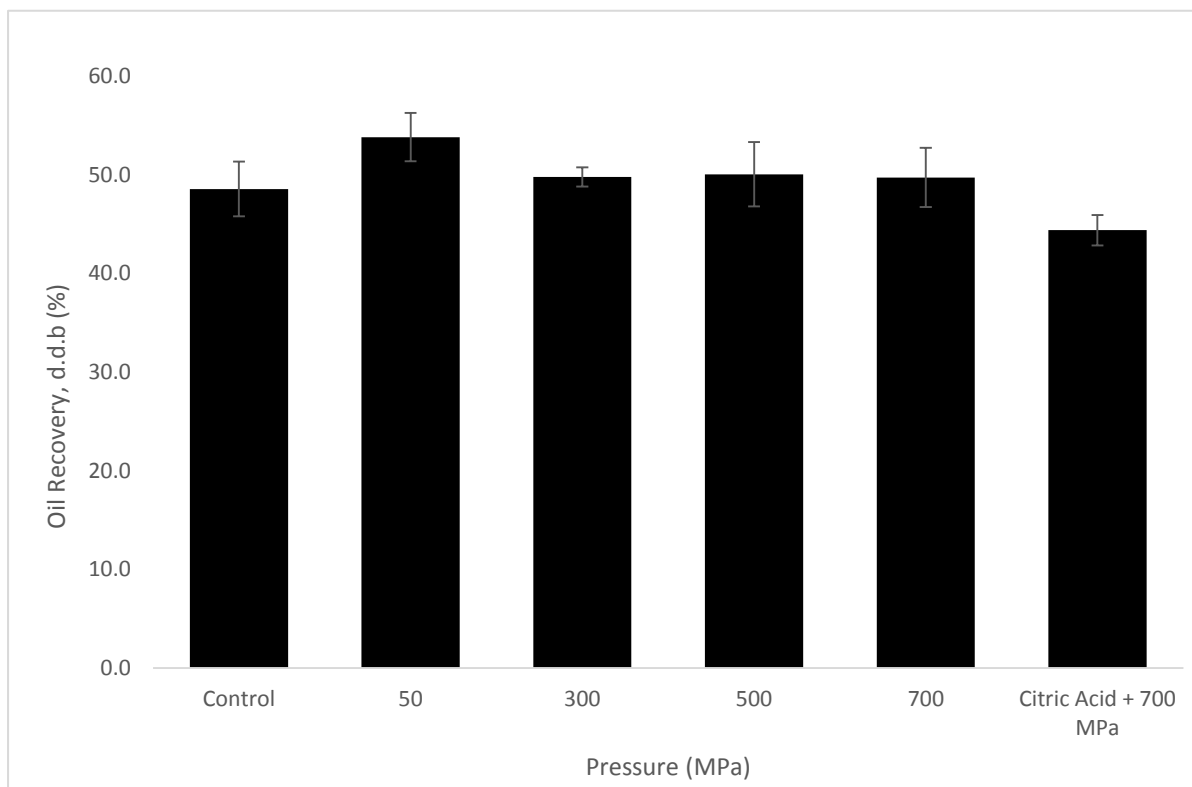
608 Figure 1

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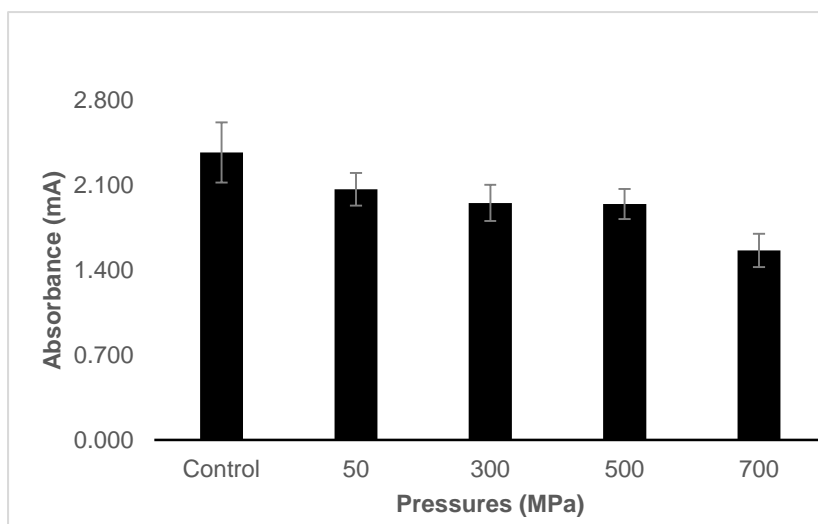
Figure 2

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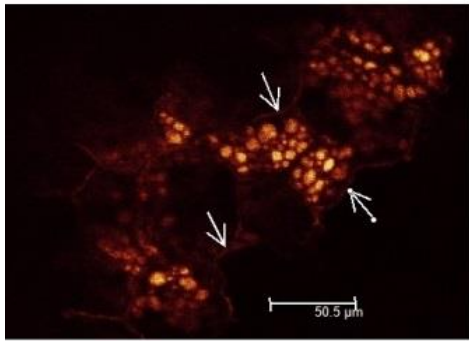
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Figure 4

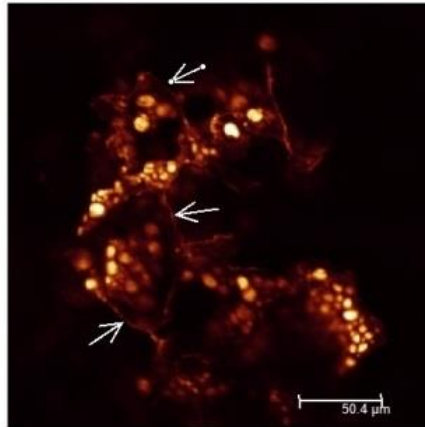
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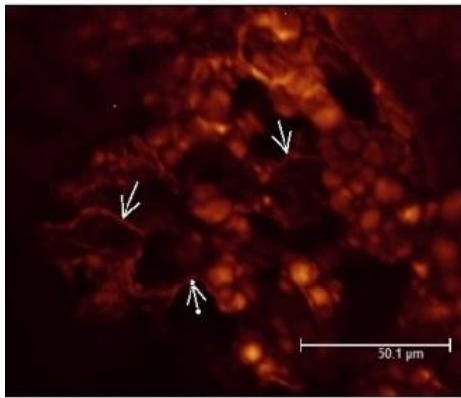
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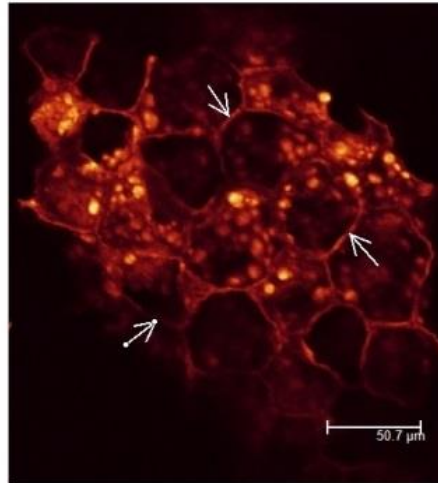
A: Control



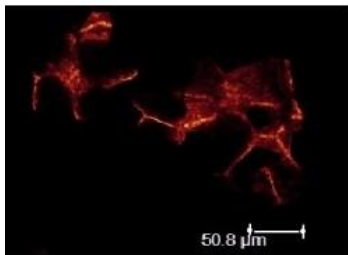
B: 300 MPa



C: 500 MPa



D: 700 MPa



E: Enzyme treated

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630 **TABLES**

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Table 1

Fatty Acid	Tiger nut oil %
C14:0	0.10 ± 0.00
C16:0	13.5 ± 0.00
C16:1	0.3 ± 0.00
C18:0	6.3 ± 0.03
C18:1	67.4 ± 0.07
C18:2	10.7 ± 0.05
C18:3n6	0.1 ± 0.00
C20:0	0.7 ± 0.01
C20:1	0.1 ± 0.00
C24:0	0.2 ± 0.01
Unknown	0.4 ± 0.02

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Table 2

AV (mg KOH/ g)	PV (mEq/ kg)	Total Phenols (mg GAE/ kg oil)	α-tocopherol(μg/g)
1.2 ± 0.00	2.1 ± 0.02	17.9 ± 0.04	145.7 ± 2.34

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