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Supercritical fluid extraction of fish oil from fish by-products: A comparison with other extraction methods

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## Supercritical fluid extraction of fish oil from fish by-products: a 1 2 comparison with other extraction methods 3 Nuria Rubio-Rodríguez, Sara M. de Diego, Sagrario Beltrán\*, Isabel Jaime, María 4 Teresa Sanz and Jordi Rovira. 5 Department of Biotechnology and Food Science. University of Burgos. Plaza Misael Bañuelos s/n. 09001 Burgos. Spain. Tel.: +34 947 258810. Fax: +34 947 258831. E-6 mail: beltran@ubu.es 7 8 9 **Abstract** 10 Fish and fish by-products are the main natural source of omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty 11 acids, especially EPA (eicosapentaenoic acid) and DHA (docosahexaenoic acid), both 12 of them with a great importance in the food and pharmaceutical industries. Comparing 13 to conventional fish oil extraction processes such as cold extraction, wet reduction or 14 enzymatic extraction, supercritical fluid extraction with carbon dioxide under moderate conditions (25 MPa and 313 K) may be useful for reducing fish oil oxidation, especially 15 16 when fish oil is rich in omega-3 such as salmon oil, and the amount of certain 17 impurities, such as some species of arsenic. Furthermore, taking profit of the advantages 18 of supercritical carbon dioxide as extractive solvent, a coupled extraction - fractionation 19 process is proposed as a way to remove free fatty acids and improve fish oil quality, 20 alternatively to physical and chemical refining procedures. 21 **Keywords** 22 Fish oil. Omega-3 fatty acids. Supercritical fluid extraction. Carbon dioxide. 23 | \_\_\_\_\_

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#### 1. Introduction

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25 The fish industry is a wide sector that includes several production processes such as 26 filleting, curing, salting, smoking, canning, etc. Nowadays, it is estimated that more 27 than 70 % of the total fish captures are processed, generating a large amount of solid 28 wastes and by-products, which often represent more than 50 % of the total fish weight 29 (Shahidi, 2007) (see Figure 1). On the other hand, production of high quality fish oil has 30 acquired a great importance since it is considered one of the main natural sources of 31 omega-3 PolyUnsaturated Fatty Acids (PUFA), which benefits in human health have 32 been extensively reported in the literature (Chow, 2000). Production of omega-3 rich 33 fish oils has become a good opportunity for valorising fish by-products and increasing 34 the competitiveness of the fish industry. In the last years, by-products from different 35 types of fishes, such as tuna (Chantachum et al., 2000), herring (Aidos et al., 2002), 36 salmon (Wu & Bechtel, 2008), or walleye pollock (Wu & Bechtel, 2009), have been 37 proposed as raw materials for fish oil production. However, the production of high 38 quality fish oil as source of omega-3 involves, not only searching for an omega-3 rich 39 raw material, but also developing a suitable extraction procedure.

40 The most common method used for fish oil production is wet reduction, which involves 41 three basic steps: cooking at high temperatures (85 – 95 °C), pressing and centrifuging 42 (FAO, 1986). This process permits obtaining high volumes of crude fish oil, although 43 subsequent refining steps are required in order to make the crude fish oil suitable for 44 edible purposes. Other processes, such as enzymatic reaction with proteases, have been 45 studied for obtaining crude oil from fish by-products (Linder et al., 2005). In the last 46 years, supercritical fluid extraction (SFE) has become an attractive technology for 47 obtaining high quality fish oil from some by-products (Letisse et al., 2006, Rubio-48 Rodríguez et al., 2008), not only because it uses moderate temperatures and provides an 49 oxygen free media, which aim to reduce the omega-3 oxidation during the extraction 50 process, but also because it allows extracting selectively low polar lipid compounds, 51 avoiding the co-extraction of polar impurities such as some inorganic derivatives with 52 heavy metals. Furthermore, the tunability of the supercritical carbon dioxide (SC-CO<sub>2</sub>) 53 regarding density, and therefore solvation power, by changing temperature and/or 54 pressure, makes fish oil de-acidification possible, alternatively to conventional physical

- and chemical fish oil refining (Catchpole et al., 2000, Jakobsson et al., 1991, Jakobsson
- 56 et al., 1994, Kawashima et al., 2006, Yuqian & Huashi, 2001).
- 57 The main limitation of the SFE process is the high cost at production scale, not only due
- 58 to the use of high pressure equipment, but also because the raw material should be
- 59 freeze-dried in order to reduce its moisture to values below 20 % and keep unaltered the
- omega-3 PUFA and the fish structure (Rubio-Rodríguez et al., 2008). Taking this into
- account, a study of the quality of the oil obtained by SFE and non-SFE methods would
- 62 illustrate on the competitiveness of SFE from a commercial point of view.
- The aim of this work is to compare different extraction processes (i.e.: cold extraction,
- 64 wet reduction, enzymatic extraction and supercritical fluid extraction) to obtain oil from
- different fish by-products, at a laboratory scale, taking into account, not only the
- 66 extraction yield, but also the oil quality.

#### 2. Material and methods

- 68 2.1. Raw material and pretreatment
- 69 The raw materials studied were four different fish by-products supplied by Pescanova, a
- 70 Spanish fish company located in Pontevedra (Spain), specifically, offcuts from hake
- 71 (Merluccius capensis Merluccius paradoxus) (H), orange roughy (Hoplostethus
- 72 atlanticus) (OR) and salmon (Salmo salar) (S), and livers from jumbo squid (Dosidicus
- 73 gigas) (JS). The offcuts consisted mainly of skin with some stuck muscle, obtained by
- 74 peeling fishes with a TRIO<sup>TM</sup> peeler in open seas, whereas the livers were obtained
- during the evisceration process. For each species, the by-products used as raw material
- 76 came from a unique batch (related to a certain place, season of fish capture and
- processing batch), which was delivered frozen at 253 K. In order to minimize the
- variability due to the different fish individuals and to improve the extraction rate, each
- batch received in the laboratory was cut in small pieces (1-10 mm equivalent diameter)
- with a cutter, packed in individual plastic bags under vacuum and kept frozen until the
- 81 experiments were performed.

- 82 2.2. Oil extraction methods
- 83 Oil from each fish by-product was obtained in parallel by four different methods: Cold
- 84 Extraction (CE) or centrifuging, Wet Reduction (WR), Enzymatic Extraction (EE) and
- 85 Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE). The amount of raw material used in each
- 86 extraction method was approximately 100 g. The experimental conditions used in each
- case are reported in Figure 2.
- 88 In cold extraction, wet reduction and enzymatic extraction, fish offcuts were previously
- 89 thawed at room temperature during 12 hours, and the water co-extracted together with
- 90 the oil was removed by centrifuging (Centrikon T-124, Kontron Instruments).
- 91 Enzymatic extraction was carried out following the method proposed by Gbogouri et al.
- 92 (2006). The enzyme used was a food-grade protease, Alcalase 2.4 L (bacterial protease
- 93 from Bacillus licheniformis), provided by Novozyme (Bagsvaerd, Denmark). The
- 94 enzyme / substrate ratio was 0.05 w / w protein.
- 95 SFE was carried out in a semi-pilot plant under the optimal extraction conditions
- 96 (p = 25 MPa, T = 313 K) found in a previous study (Rubio-Rodríguez et al., 2008). The
- 97 raw material used for this extraction method was previously freeze-dried (FreeZone
- 98 12 L Console Freeze Dry System with drying chamber, Labconco). Some of the SFE
- 99 experiments included fractionation of the extract by depressurization in two consecutive
- separators: the first separator (S1), which was kept at a pressure of  $9 \pm 0.5$  MPa and a
- temperature of  $308 \pm 1$  K, and the second separator (S2), which was kept at a pressure
- of  $5 \pm 0.5$  MPa and a temperature  $283 \pm 1$  K. Thus, the SC-CO<sub>2</sub> density in S1 was in the
- range  $650 \pm 50 \text{ kg/m}^3$ , well below its density in the extractor  $(880 \pm 5 \text{ kg/m}^3)$  and
- above that in S2 (below critical density,  $\rho_c = 468 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^3$ ). This way, most of the
- triglycerides were recovered in S1 and most of the free fatty acids were recovered in S2.
- 106 In all cases, the oil fractions were stored in closed vessels in darkness at -18 °C in order
- to minimize spoiling before characterization.

#### 2.3. Analytical methods

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## 109 2.3.1. Characterization of fish by-products

- 110 Fish by-products were characterized by determining their water, protein and fat content
- in order to establish their profitability as raw materials for oil extraction (see Table 1).
- Water and protein content were determined by the AOAC Official Methods 934.01 and
- 981.10 respectively (2000). Total fat content was determined by Soxhlet extraction
- using petroleum ether as solvent in a Büchi extraction system (model B-811). Soxhlet
- extraction was performed over freeze-dried samples in 140 minutes distributed in three
- stages: extraction (120 min), rinsing (10 min) and drying (10 min).
- The amount of trace metals (Fe, Cu, Zn, As, Cd, Hg and Pb) was also determined. A
- wet digestion was firstly carried out over the samples in order to destroy the organic
- matter. A sample of about 20 mg was treated with 10 mL of HNO<sub>3</sub> 65 % suprapur®
- 120 (Merck, Germany) in a microwave oven (Ethos Sel, Milestone) provided with ten
- Teflon vessels (HPR-1000/10 S). The temperature program selected involved three
- heating steps (from room temperature to 80 °C in 4 min, from 80 °C to 130 °C in 7 min
- and from 130 °C to 170 °C in 5 min) followed by a constant heating at 170 °C for
- 124 10 min and a final ventilation step. After digestion, the samples were diluted to 25 mL
- with Milli-Q water, and analysed by ICP-MS (Agilent 7500 i).

#### 126 2.3.2. Oil characterization

- The quality of the oil obtained by the different extraction methods was evaluated by
- determining several parameters, i.e.: moisture and volatile matter content, neutral lipid
- composition, fatty acid profile, acidity value, peroxide value, anisidine value, volatile
- compounds profile and trace metals.
- Moisture and volatile matter content was determined according to the IUPAC Standard
- Method (1964) by weight loss after heating in an oven at 105 °C during 30 min.
- The total amount of neutral lipids was determined by liquid chromatography in a HPLC
- 134 system (Agilent 1200) formed by a quaternary pump and an auto-injector. The
- separations were carried out at room temperature in a column (Lichrospher Diol

- 5 mm,  $4 \times 250$  mm) and the detection was performed in an evaporative light scattering
- 137 detector (Agilent 1200 series) at 45 °C and 3.5 bar. The mobile phase consisted of a
- mixture of solvents: (A) hexane/acetic acid (99.5/0.5 by volume) and (B) hexane/1-
- propanol/acetic acid/water (85/14.4/0.5/0.1 by volume). The solvent gradient used was
- as follow: first, solvent A was flowing for 1 min, after that, solvent B was added in three
- steps, up to 10 % in 9 min, to 44 % in 12 min and to 100 % in 8 min. Finally, the
- stationary phase was rinsed with solvent A during 5 min. Total solvent flow rate was
- kept constant at 1 mL/min all along the analysis. Calibration was carried out using
- standards of palmitil palmitate (99 %), tripalmitin (>99 %), dipalmitin (99 %),
- monopalmitin (99 %) and palmitic acid (99 %) in hexane. The calibration curves
- showed a good correlation according to the exponential relationship described for an
- evaporative light scattering detector.
- 148 The fatty acids profile was determined following the AOAC method (1995) as
- previously described by Rubio-Rodríguez et al. (2008).
- 150 The acidity value and the peroxide value (PV), were determined according to the AOCS
- Official Methods Ca 5a-40 and Cd 8-53 respectively (1990), whereas the anisidine
- value (AV) was evaluated according to the British Standard method BS 684-2.24
- 153 (2008). The TOTal OXidation value (TOTOX) was determined according to the
- 154 expression (2 PV + AV) (Perrin, 1996).
- Volatile compounds were analyzed by GC-MS after Solid Phase Dynamic Extraction
- 156 (SPDE) sampling. The SPDE device (Chromtech, Idstein, Germany) was equipped with
- a needle coated with a non-polar 50 µm film of polydimethylsiloxane with 10 %
- embedded activated carbon phase (PDMS/AC). Samples were incubated for 1 min at
- 159 70 °C; and after equilibration, extraction was performed (50 aspiration cycles,
- 160 extraction speed 40 μL/s). Gas chromatography analyses were carried out with a 6890N
- Series GC System coupled to a 5973i mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies, Palo
- 162 Alto. CA.USA). The SPDE needle was injected and thermally desorbed at 250 °C.
- 163 Compounds were separated on a HP5 capillary column (50 m length x 0.32 mm I.D,
- 164 fused silica capillary column coated with a 1.05 µm film thickness. Quadrex
- 165 Corporation. New Haven. USA). The temperature of the column was increased at a rate
- of 3  $^{\circ}$ C / min from 40 to 240  $^{\circ}$ C.

- The amount of trace metals (Fe, Cu, Zn, As, Cd, Hg and Pb) in fish oil was determined
- following the same procedure described above for fish by-products.

## 169 2.3.3. Oil sensory analysis

- An off-odour comparison among the oils extracted by different methods was carried out
- both by electronic nose and by sensory analysis. The overall smell print was determined
- by an electronic nose αFOX 4000 (AlfaMOS, Toulouse, France) with a sensor array of
- 173 18 metal oxide sensors. Vials with the samples were incubated 5 minutes under stirring
- 174 (500 rpm, cycles 5 s on and 2 s off) in an oven at 50 °C for generating the equilibrated
- headspace. The injection temperature was 60 °C; the carrier gas was synthetic air with a
- 176 flow of 150 mL/min. Sensory characterization of oil was carried out by 10 panellists
- trained in descriptive analysis of fish off-flavours. A total of six sensory descriptors
- were used (fishy, rancid, boiled, acid, sweet and other off-flavours), which were
- measured on a structured intensity scale with a range from a minimum of zero to a
- 180 maximum of five. Samples (0.5 g of oil) were presented randomized at room
- temperature in blind vials numbered with a code of three digits.

#### 3. Results and discussion

- 183 3.1. General features on the extraction procedures used in this work
- Extraction with SC-CO<sub>2</sub> has been proposed as a good method for obtaining fish oil with
- a high amount of omega-3 fatty acids, since it involves the use of a non-oxidant
- atmosphere and mild temperatures, which prevent the oxidation of the polyunsaturated
- fatty acids. Previous studies (Rubio-Rodríguez et al., 2008) have concluded that it is
- possible to totally extract the oil contained in hake offcuts by using SC-CO<sub>2</sub> at a
- pressure of 25 MPa and a temperature of 313 K. The highest yield and extraction rate
- were reached when the by-products were previously cut and freeze-dried to a moisture
- 191 content below 20 % in order to improve the oil SC-CO<sub>2</sub> contact and minimize oil -
- water interaction in the supercritical phase. The extraction curves obtained were well
- 193 fitted to the empirical model proposed by Kandiah and Spiro (1990), which assumes
- that the process is controlled by two diffusion stages depending on the amount of oil
- accessible to the SC-CO<sub>2</sub>. At the beginning, the amount of the most accessible oil is
- high, thus the internal mass transfer resistance is low and the extraction rate is large.

197 However, after the most accessible oil has been extracted, the remaining oil, less 198 accessible to the solvent, is removed more slowly due to the higher internal mass 199 transfer resistance (Rubio-Rodríguez et al., 2008).

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SFE from other freeze-dried fish by-products i.e.: orange roughy offcuts, salmon offcuts and jumbo squid liver, has been also shown to be feasible under the same experimental conditions. Figure 3 shows the extraction curves where the amount of oil extracted along time can be observed for each species. In all cases, it was observed that, at the beginning of the process, the oil extracted depended linearly on the amount of SC-CO<sub>2</sub> that flows through the extractor, which may indicate either that the internal mass transfer is negligible and the process is controlled by the oil solubility in SC-CO<sub>2</sub> or that the internal mass transfer is constant and the extraction rate depends on the internal structure of the solid matrix. The values of the slopes of the extraction curves estimated at zero time are reported in Table 2. It is observed that these slopes differ significantly among the fish by-products studied, which may be attributed not only to the different internal structure, which affects the internal mass resistance in the extraction process, but also to the different solubility of the fish oil in SC-CO<sub>2</sub> due to the different neutral lipid composition and fatty acid profile, as can be seen in Tables 3 and 4 respectively.

The internal mass transfer resistance can be considered negligible for fish by-products with mostly extracellular oil as is the case of orange roughy oil (Phleger, 1998), or oil weakly bound to the protein matrix, as observed for salmon oil; therefore, the initial slope of their SFE curves in Figure 3 can be assumed to be close to the oil solubility in SC-CO<sub>2</sub>, which, moreover, depends on the oil composition. Thus, for a fish oil rich in triacylglycerides (i.e.: salmon oil, see Table 3) this slope would be lower than for fish oil rich in wax esters (i.e.: orange roughy oil, see Table 3), which solubility in SC-CO<sub>2</sub> is usually higher than that of triacylglycerides (Gupta & Shim, 2007).

In the case of fish by-products, in which the oil is strongly bounded to the protein matrix (intracellular oil), the internal mass transfer resistance is important, reason for which, the slopes of the extraction curves are lower than the oil solubility values. This hypothesis may explain why in the case of hake offcuts or jumbo squid livers, both with an oil rich in triacylglycerides, the values of the initial slopes of the extraction curves (see Table 2) were not as high as the value obtained for salmon oil.

- When using other methods, different than SFE (non-SFE methods), to obtain fish oil,
- the by-products were used just after being defrost, without freeze-drying.
- 230 Cold extraction was the easiest way for obtaining fish oil since it only involves a
- 231 mechanical phase separation (solid, water and oil) by centrifuging. However, by using
- this procedure, in our laboratory, only oil from orange roughy and salmon offcuts could
- be obtained. This could be expected, since the oil of those fish by-products is the most
- 234 weakly bound to the protein matrix, out of the four species considered in this work.
- Other non-SFE methods, such as wet reduction, in which the protein matrix is
- 236 previously denaturised by the action of heat in the cooking step, or enzymatic
- extraction, in which the protein matrix is hydrolysed by the action of the protease in the
- enzymatic reaction step, are expected to provide higher yields than cold extraction. The
- 239 experiments performed in our laboratory showed that these two methods were suitable
- 240 for obtaining oil from fatty fish by-products such as orange roughy or salmon offcuts,
- but not from lean fish by-products such as hake offcuts or jumbo squid liver. In these
- last cases, most of the oil appeared emulsified in either a cream or a skim fraction,
- stable even after a centrifugation step, probably due to the emulsifying effect of some
- 244 fish proteins. A similar effect was observed after the aqueous extraction of oils from
- seeds, such as soybean, coconut or peanut (Rosenthal et al., 1996). In this case, the
- authors proposed a demulsification step (freezing and thawing, clear oil addition, high
- shear stress...) to break down the stable oil-in-water emulsion. Thus, among the by-
- 248 products explored in this work, only those from fatty species, with a high amount of oil
- 249 weakly bound to the solid matrix (orange roughy and salmon offcuts), were suitable for
- obtaining fish oil by any of the four methods proposed.
- 251 Figure 4 shows an estimation of the mass balance that results when obtaining oil from
- salmon offcuts by the four different extraction methods carried out in our laboratory.
- 253 This estimation was observed to be also valid for oil extraction from orange roughy
- offcuts. It can be observed that SFE coupled with freeze-drying generates oil and a dry
- solid phase, rich in proteins (fish meal), whereas when using cold extraction or wet
- reduction, a high amount of oil still remains in the wet solid (press cake) obtained after
- 257 centrifuging. This solid would require a subsequent treatment in order to obtain a dry
- and defatted fish meal. When using the enzymatic method, almost the total amount of

- oil can be separated from the aqueous phase containing the protein hydrolysed by the
- action of the protease. The aqueous phase may be subjected to a subsequent drying step
- in order to obtain a dry fish protein hydrolysate.
- 262 3.2. Oil quality parameters
- 263 A comparison of the quality parameters of the oils obtained from orange roughy and
- salmon offcuts, by the four different methods considered in this work, was carried out.
- In the case of hake offcuts and jumbo squid livers, the only successful method for
- obtaining oil was SFE, the rest of the methods did not provide enough oil for the
- comparison to be made.
- Some oil properties, such as colour, neutral lipid composition and fatty acid profile,
- 269 were observed to be similar, regardless the extraction method used. Thus, the
- advantages and disadvantages of the different methods have been established by
- 271 comparing other properties such as oil acidity, total oxidation value (TOTOX), volatile
- compounds, sensory properties and heavy metal content for orange roughy and salmon
- 273 oils.
- 274 *3.2.1. Oil acidity*
- Oil acidity is an important quality parameter related to the presence of Free Fatty Acids
- 276 (FFA) and other non-lipid acid compounds. FFA are mainly generated by a hydrolysis
- 277 reaction of triacylglycerides, whereas non-lipid acid compounds, such as acetic acid,
- 278 may be generated during spoilage of the raw material. Thus, oil acidity depends on
- several factors related to oil composition, the extraction procedure and the raw material
- 280 freshness.
- Figure 5 shows the acidity values found for the oils obtained from orange roughy and
- salmon offcuts by the four methods used in our laboratory. Focusing on oil composition
- 283 (see Tables 3 and 4), we observed that, on the average, oil obtained from salmon
- offcuts, with a high amount of triacylglycerides and PUFA, presented a higher acidity
- than oil obtained from orange roughy, which was mainly composed by wax esters and a
- low amount of PUFA. Focusing on the oil extraction method, it can be observed that,
- 287 when salmon offcuts were used as raw material, the oil obtained by SFE presents lower

288 acidity than the oils obtained by non-SFE procedures, which may indicate that, in this case, the hydrolysis of triacylglycerides, and therefore the release of FFA, was less 289 290 extended. However, in the case of orange roughy offcuts, it was observed that, in spite 291 of having a negligible FFA content, as detected by the neutral lipid analysis (see Table 292 3), the oil obtained by SFE shows a higher acidity value than the oils obtained by non-293 SFE methods. These experimental results may be explained taking into account that 294 some acidic compounds, such as acetic acid, were co-extracted together with the oil 295 when SC-CO<sub>2</sub> was used as solvent in a closed system, while they were not obtained by 296 the non-SFE methods carried out in open vessels (see section 3.2.3).

#### 3.2.2. Total oxidation value (TOTOX)

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298 The total oxidation value is a quality parameter related to the presence of different 299 compounds such as hydroperoxides, aldehydes, ketones.., which are mainly generated 300 by PUFA degradation under pro-oxidant conditions, especially high temperatures, 301 oxygen, metal compounds and light. The TOTOX value is therefore intrinsically related 302 to the PUFA amount in the oil and to the extraction procedure. Figure 6 shows that, 303 regardless the extraction method, salmon oil, with a higher PUFA content than orange 304 roughy oil, presents also a higher TOTOX value. On the other hand, the SFE method, 305 which was carried out under lower oxidising conditions (mild temperatures, non-oxidant 306 atmosphere, darkness) than the non-SFE procedures, made possible to reduce 307 significantly the TOTOX value in both salmon and orange roughy oil.

## 3.2.3. Volatile compounds and sensory properties

Sensory properties related to odour and flavour in fish oil, are strongly dependent on the presence of volatile compounds such as organic acids, amines or aldehydes, which are mostly responsible for the main fishy off-flavours. Some of these volatile compounds, such as hexanal or nonanal, are mostly generated as a consequence of a lipid auto-oxidation process, and, therefore, their presence in fish oil is intrinsically affected by the extraction parameters, especially temperature, oxygen in the media, light or metal content. On the contrary, other volatile compounds are produced during fish storage or spoilage by bacterial and/or enzymatic action over protein, aminoacids and

317 carbohydrates, and thus, their presence in the oil may be attributed to the raw material 318 freshness (see Table 5). That is the case of trimethylamine which is mainly produced by 319 the action of specific spoilage bacteria, such as Shewanella putrefaciens, of 320 dimethylamine, mainly produced by endogenous enzymes during fish storage, or of the 321 acetic acid which can be produced by anaerobic degradation of aminoacids (Huss,

322 1995).

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As can be observed in Table 6, where the volatile compounds found in the oil obtained from orange roughy offcuts by the four different methods essayed in this work are presented, hexanal and nonanal, mainly generated by lipid oxidation, were only detected in the oil obtained by non-SFE methods, which explain the highest level of rancid odour detected by sensory analysis of these oils, especially in that obtained by enzymatic extraction (see Figure 7). These results show that, due to the use of mild temperatures and a non-oxidizing atmosphere, SFE made possible to reduce the lipid oxidation more than the non-SFE processes. On the contrary, dimethylamine, responsible for the highest level of fishy odour detected in this oil by sensory analysis (see Figure 7), and acetic acid, responsible for the unexpected high acidity value (see section 3.2.1.), were only detected in the oil obtained by SFE (see Table 6). These experimental results could be explained taking into account that these volatile compounds, soaked in the raw material, can be easily extracted by SC-CO<sub>2</sub> due to their high vapour pressure, and, since the process takes place in a solvent recirculation system, they may partially remain absorbed by the oil. In any case, the amount of these volatile compounds may be significantly reduced by coupling SFE with other separation process such as countercurrent fractionation or adsorption, as has been previously reported in the literature (Rubio-Rodríguez et al., 2010).

The different volatile compounds profile found in the oil obtained from orange roughy offcuts by SFE, compared with that profile for the oils obtained by the non-SFE methods, is also observed in the results obtained from the electronic nose analysis, as illustrated by the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the data shown in Figure 8, as well as was found by the trained panel (Figure 7).

- 346 These results show that the freshness of the raw material is crucial for obtaining good
- quality sensory properties in the oil, especially if oil production is carried out in a closed
- 348 system and with SC-CO<sub>2</sub> as solvent.
- 349 3.2.4. Toxic heavy metals
- Heavy metals, such as As, Cd, Hg and Pb, are toxic compounds that, in some cases, may
- be accumulated in some fish parts, such as fish offcuts or livers, due to water pollution
- 352 (see Table 7). In this work, focus has been brought into As since it was detected at a
- level higher than 1 mg / kg in oil fraction in all the by-products explored in this work.
- Due to the high selectivity of SC-CO<sub>2</sub> for non-polar compounds, the amount of heavy
- metals extracted together with the oil by SFE was negligible, as was the case of Cd, Hg
- and Pb, or significantly reduced, as in the case of As (see Table 7).
- 357 Total As content includes inorganic and organic derivatives, which are present in sea
- water due to natural processes (Smedley & Kinniburg, 2002) and pollution. These As
- derivatives may bio-accumulate in marine organisms, being the water soluble form,
- arsenobetaine, the main species found in fish (Ackley et al., 1999). However, recent
- studies have also found considerable amounts (4.3 10.5 ppm) of non polar lipid bound
- 362 As compounds or arsenolipids in ten different crude fish oils (Schemeisser et al., 2005).
- 363 Figure 9 shows the As concentration found in orange roughy and salmon oils obtained
- by the four different methods proposed in this work. It can be observed that, in the case
- of orange roughy oil, SFE made possible to reduce significantly the amount of As,
- 366 whereas in the case of salmon oil, this reduction was not significant compared with the
- oil extracted by the non-SFE methods. These results suggest that the success of SFE for
- reducing the amount of As in oil is strongly dependent on the type of As species present
- in the raw material. Reduction down to the recommended values could be achieved by
- 370 countercurrent SFE.
- 371 3.3. Enhancement of oil quality through SFE-fractionation
- 372 SFE followed by fractionation in two separators was studied as a way to refine fish oil
- and reduce the amount of impurities, especially free fatty acids, which, in general, are
- more soluble in SC-CO<sub>2</sub> than the relative triacylglycerides.

- 375 Fractionation was only applied to the species that provided the best oil regarding
- 376 triacylglycerides and omega-3 fatty acids content, that is, hake and salmon offcuts and
- jumbo squid liver SFE.
- 378 Table 8 shows the average amount of oil recovered in each separator for different
- 379 experiments together with the calculated mass percentage. It can be observed that, in all
- cases, a higher amount of oil is recovered in S1, although this amount varies from 63 %
- in hake oil to 86 % and 83 % in salmon and jumbo squid liver oil respectively, which
- may be attributed to the different fish oil composition, as it is reported in Tables 3 and
- 4, and to the experimental CO<sub>2</sub> density fluctuations in Separator 1 (S1).
- The mass percentage distribution of triacylglycerides (TAG) and FFA between the two
- separators is also presented in Figure 10. It can be observed that, in all cases, most of
- 386 TAG are collected in S1, which can be explained by considering their higher molecular
- weight and lower vapour pressure, and therefore their lower solubility regarding FFA.
- 388 However, the distribution of fatty acids varies significantly among different fish oils,
- 389 which may be attributed to the different fatty acid profile (see Table 4). Thus, in the
- 390 case of hake oil and salmon oil, in which palmitic and oleic are the main fatty acids, the
- 391 majority of FFA reach Separator 2 (S2), whereas in the case of jumbo squid oil, in
- which palmitic acid and EPA are the most common fatty acids, a large among of FFA
- remain in S1. These experimental results indicate again that fractionation is highly
- affected by fish oil composition.
- Finally, it is observed that, in all cases, the mass ratio FFA / TAG increases noticeably
- in the fraction recovered in S2, and decreases in the fraction recovered in S1 (see Figure
- 397 11), although in the case of jumbo squid liver oil, this fraction still remains fairly high
- 398 in S1.
- 399 A comparison of the fatty acid profile of the different oil fractions and the oil without
- 400 fractionation is presented in Figure 12. It can be observed that, in general, the
- 401 concentration of fatty acids is higher in the fraction recovered in S1, which is related to
- 402 the fact that most neutral lipids remain in that fraction. The long chain (LCFA) to short
- 403 chain fatty acids (SCFA) ratio and the saturated (SFA) to unsaturated (MUFA and

- 404 PUFA) fatty acids ratio do not show a significant variation between the two lipid
- fractions (see Figure 13).
- 406 Finally, as can be observed in Figure 14, fractionation in two separators may offer the
- 407 possibility of obtaining a fraction in the first separator with a lower acidity value and
- 408 total oxidation value (TOTOX) than in the fish oil without fractionating. In any case, a
- 409 countercurrent oil fractionation would be much more effective that the simple
- 410 fractionation after extraction carried out in this work, as it has been observed in
- 411 previous studies (Rubio-Rodríguez et al., 2010).

#### 412 3.4. Economical considerations

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During the last decades, different supercritical fluid technologies have been established as interesting for safely processing natural products in the food and pharmaceutical industries. Nowadays, several processes such as coffee decaffeination, hops extraction, essential oils extraction, cork cleaning, pesticides removal from rice, etc., are carried out at commercial scale in different parts of Europe, US and Asia (Brunner, 2010, Perrut, 2000). Some studies have shown that, in spite of requiring a high investment cost, supercritical fluid extraction of essential oils requires lower processing costs and downstream processing making this process competitive regarding steam distillation (Pereira & Meireles, 2007). Concerning the processing of fats and oils, SFE may also compete with traditional processes in the case of specialty oils such as nut oils (almond, peanut...), seed oils (apricot, borage, grape, sesame...), cereal oils (wheat germs, rice bran...) or fruit oils (cloudberry, tomato...), which contain bioactive lipid compounds interesting in the food and pharmaceutical industries (Temelli, 2009). In the case of fish oil extraction, although SFE leads to high quality oil, the drying step, required before extraction, increases noticeable the production cost and minimizes competitiveness against alternative extraction processes. Thus, the industrial application of supercritical fluid technology in omega-3 processing should be focused not only on an isolated SFE procedure but on a whole process involving the use of SC-CO<sub>2</sub> in fish oil extraction, fractionation, omega-3 concentration and/or formulation (Rubio-Rodríguez et al., 2010) in order to obtain small volumes of high value omega-3 concentrates used as ingredients in functional foods or as active principles in pharmacology.

#### 4. Conclusions

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435 The valorisation of fish by-products by recovering their oil has a great interest in the 436 fish industry, especially when the oil is rich in triglycerides and has a high content of 437 omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids. The extraction process used to obtain omega-3 438 rich oils has been also shown to be important to obtain the best oil quality regarding 439 lipid oxidation, pollutants content and sensory properties. In addition, the extraction 440 method may not only affect the oil extraction yield and quality, but also the quality of 441 the fish protein or fish meal obtained, which has also a great interest as add value 442 ingredient.

A comparison of the oils obtained by SFE over freeze-dried fish by-products and by other methods carried out in the laboratory (cold extraction, wet reduction and enzymatic extraction), shows that SFE may be a useful method to prevent lipid oxidation, especially in fish oils rich in omega-3 such as salmon oil, and, to reduce significantly the amount of certain pollutants such as some arsenic species (mainly polar derivatives). Nonetheless, it has been observed that SFE may involve the co-extraction of some endogenous volatile compounds soaked in the raw material, such as amines or short chain organic acids, when performed in a closed system, which reduce oil quality by increasing the fishy odour and the acidity. That suggests that the success of a SFE method is highly dependent on the quality and freshness of the raw material and, in some cases, coupling a subsequently deodorization step would be required. On the other hand, SFE over freeze dried fish made possible to extract oil from by-products with a low fat content such as hake offcuts or jumbo squid liver, avoiding production of water wastes rich in proteins or fat, which have an important interest both from an economical and an environmental point of view. Therefore, in spite of involving higher inversion costs, SFE presents some advantages over other extraction processes such as cold extraction, wet reduction or enzymatic extraction. Furthermore, fractionation of the extract in two separators after SFE is an easy way to enhance fish oil quality by reducing the amount of free fatty acids as well as some oxidation products.

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Table 1. Composition of the different by-products studied (H: Hake offcuts, S: Salmon offcuts, OR: Orange Roughy offcuts, JS: Jumbo Squid livers) as potential sources of marine oil.

Marine by-products	Water (%)	Fat (%)	Protein (%)	Oil / water ratio	
Н	79 ± 1	$4.0 \pm 0.1$	16 ± 1	0.1	
OR	$55 \pm 2$	$32 \pm 1$	13 ± 1	0.6	
S	57 ± 3	$27 \pm 5$	17 ± 4	0.5	
JS	$70 \pm 1$	8 ± 3	22 ± 4	0.12	

Table 2. Initial slope,  $w_p$ , of the fish oil extraction curves presented in Figure 3.

	Н	OR	S	JS
w <sub>p</sub> (g oil / kg CO <sub>2</sub> )	3.0	10.0	5.2	3.0

Table 3. Neutral lipids profile in marine oils obtained by SFE from different fish by-products: H: Hake offcuts, S: Salmon offcuts, OR: Orange Roughy offcuts, JS: Jumbo Squid livers

Name I limite		% wt.	in oil	
Neutral lipids	Н	OR	S	JS
Wax esters (WE)	n.d.	> 99	n.d.	0.6
Triacylglycerides (TAG)	67	n.d.	97.1	30.4
Free Fatty Acids (FFA)	3.8	n.d.	1.3	7.1
Cholesterol (CHOL)	1.8	n.d.	0.7	4.9

Concentration expressed using palmityl palmitate, tripalmitine and palmitic acid as standards for obtaining the calibration curves of wax esters, triacylglycerides and fatty acids respectively. n.d. not detected.

Table 4. Fatty acid profile in marine oils obtained by SFE from different marine by-products: H: Hake offcuts, S: Salmon offcuts, OR: Orange Roughy offcuts, JS: Jumbo Squid livers.

Fatty acids	mg of fatty ac	cids / g fish oi	1	
ratty actus	Н	OR	S	JS
C14:0 (myristic acid)	19 ± 2	$4.0 \pm 0.3$	$40.4 \pm 0.1$	39 ± 3
C16:0 (palmitic acid)	$129\pm12$	$6.4 \pm 0.4$	$143 \pm 0.4$	$141\pm12$
C16:1 (palmitoleic acid)	$34 \pm 6$	$44 \pm 3$	$59 \pm 1$	$43 \pm 4$
C18:0 (stearic acid)	$21 \pm 2$	$2.5 \pm 0.2$	$46.4 \pm 0.1$	$43 \pm 4$
C18:1n-9 (oleic acid)	$142\pm13$	$213\pm13$	$146 \pm 2$	$42\pm4$
C18:1n-7 (vacenic acid)	$22 \pm 2$	$24 \pm 2$	$28.9 \pm 0.1$	$23 \pm 2$
C18:2n-6 (LA)	$7.0 \pm 0.7$	$4.7 \pm 0.3$	$93 \pm 1$	$5.8 \pm 0.5$
C18:3n-6 (GLA)	$1.9 \pm 0.2$	$1.4 \pm 0.1$	$5.5\pm0.1$	$3.1 \pm 0.2$
C18:3n-3 (ALA)	$2.6 \pm 0.3$	n.d.	$14.0 \pm 0.2$	$2.9 \pm 0.3$
C18:4n-3 (stearidonic acid)	$3.2 \pm 0.4$	n.d.	$5.9 \pm 0.1$	$2.0\pm0.1$
C20:1n-9 (gadoleic acid)	$37 \pm 3$	$50 \pm 3$	$13.1 \pm 0.4$	$24 \pm 2$
C20:3n-6 (DGLA)	$0.82 \pm 0.03$	$1.5\pm0.1$	$3.2\pm0.2$	$1.6\pm0.2$
C20:4n-6 (araquidonic acid)	$5.5 \pm 0.6$	n.d.	$6.7 \pm 0.1$	$127\pm10$
C20:5n-3 (EPA)	$36 \pm 4$	$3.2\pm0.2$	$79 \pm 1$	$127\pm10$
C22:1n-11	$28 \pm 2$	19 ± 1	n.d.	$5.6 \pm 0.1$
C22:1n-9	$4.2 \pm 0.3$	$6.5 \pm 0.4$	n.d.	$1.5\pm0.1$
C22:4n-6 (adrenic acid)	$4 \pm 2$	n.d.	n.d.	$5.4 \pm 0.4$
C22:5n-3 (DPA)	$8.0 \pm 0.7$	n.d.	$38.4 \pm 0.7$	22 ± 1
C22:6n-3 (DHA)	$82 \pm 8$	$5.2 \pm 0.3$	$63 \pm 1$	$130 \pm 9$
C24:1 (nervonic acid)	$7.8 \pm 0.6$	$2.9 \pm 0.1$	$2.5 \pm 0.1$	$2.8 \pm 0.3$
Total fatty acids	595 ± 53	388 ± 24	789 ± 7	691 ± 74
Total Saturated Fatty Acids (SFA)	$168\pm15$	$13 \pm 1$	$230 \pm 1$	$223\pm19$
Total MonoUnsaturated Fatty Acids (MUFA)	$275\pm24$	$359 \pm 22$	$250\pm3$	$156\pm32$
Total PolyUnsaturated Fatty Acids (PUFA)	$151\pm14$	16 ± 1	$309 \pm 5$	$312\pm23$
Total ω3 fatty acids	$132\pm14$	8 ± 1	$100 \pm 3$	$284 \pm 20$
Total ω6 fatty acids	19 ± 1	11 ± 1	108 ± 2	29 ± 2

# Table 5. Volatile compounds produced by different fish degradation processes (adaptedfrom Huss (Huss, 1995).

Process	Substrate	Compounds produced
Bacterial degradation	Trimethylamine oxide	Trimethylamine
	Cysteine	$H_2S$
	Methionine	$CH_3SH$ , $(CH_3)_2S$
	Carbohydrates and lactate	Acetate, CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> O
	Inosine	Hypoxanthine
	Glycine, serine, leucine	Esters, ketones, aldehydes
	Urea	$NH_3$
Enzymatic action	Trimethylamine oxide	Dimethylamine
Autooxidation process	Lipids	Aldehydes
		Ketones
		Alcohols
		Short-chain organic acids
		Alkanes
Anaerobic (spoilers)	Aminoacids	NH <sub>3</sub> , acetic acid, butyric
		acid, propionic acid

Table 6. Volatile compounds found in the oil obtained from orange roughy offcuts by different methods: Cold Extraction (CE), Wet Reduction (WR), Enzymatic Extraction (EE) and Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE)

Compound		Odor	Extra	Extraction method			
		characteristics	CE	WR	EE	SFE	
Alkanes	Decane		<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>	<b>√</b>		
Aikanes	Decane		·	·	·	·	
	2-methyl-Decane		×	×	×	✓	
	3-methyl-Decane		x	x	×	✓	
	Undecane		✓	✓	✓	✓	
	Dodecane		✓	✓	✓	✓	
	Tridecane		✓	✓	✓	✓	
	Pentadecane		✓	✓	✓	✓	
	Cyclohexadeccane		×	x	×	✓	
	2,6,10,14-tetramethyl-Pentadecane		✓	✓	✓	✓	
Aldehydes	Heptanal	Waxy, green	×	<b>√</b>	×	×	
	Hexanal	Green	✓	✓	✓	×	
	Nonanal	Fatty, floral	x	×	✓	×	
Acids	Acetic acid	Vinegar-like	x	x	×	<b>√</b>	
Amines	Dimethylamine	Fishy	x	x	×	<b>√</b>	

<sup>✓</sup> found × not found

Table 7. Heavy metals in marine oils obtained by SFE from different marine by-products: Hake (H), Salmon (S) and Orange Roughy (OR) offcuts and Jumbo Squid (JS) livers.

Raw material		mg / kg (in oil fraction)						
		Fe	Cu	Zn	As	Cd	Hg	Pb
Н	A	83.4 ± 0.9	$11.6 \pm 0.4$	$114.7 \pm 0.3$	$33.8 \pm 0.1$	n.d.	3 ± 1	n.d.
11	В	n.d.	$0.07 \pm 0.04$	1 ± 1	$0.05 \pm 0.04$	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
OR	A	$5.3 \pm 0.1$	$0.8 \pm 0.3$	31.3 ±0. 3	$2.6 \pm 0.1$	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	В	n.d.	n.d.	$1.5 \pm 0.6$	$0.26 \pm 0.03$	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
c	A	$22.3 \pm 0.4$	$1.9 \pm 0.2$	$27.2 \pm 0.1$	$1.5 \pm 0.2$	n.d.	$0.5 \pm 0.2$	n.d.
S	В	2 ± 1	$0.10 \pm 0.01$	n.d.	$0.89 \pm 0.05$	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
JS	A	> 10 <sup>3</sup>	> 10 <sup>3</sup>	726 ± 1	207 ± 1	> 10 <sup>3</sup>	12 ± 1	5 ± 1
	В	$10.3\pm0.2$	$0.48 \pm 0.01$	$1.1 \pm 0.1$	$6.7 \pm 0.3$	n.d.	n.d.	$0.07\pm0.01$

A: in fish by-products; B: in fish oil obtained by SFE

n.d.: not detected

Table 8. Lipid fraction recovered in each separator in SFE-fractionation of different fish oils obtained from different by-products: Hake (H) and Salmon (S) offcuts and Jumbo Squid (JS) livers. Extraction conditions:  $25 \pm 0.5$  MPa /  $313 \pm 1$  K. S1:  $9 \pm 0.5$  MPa /  $308 \pm 1$  K. S2:  $5 \pm 0.5$  MPa /  $283 \pm 1$  K.

	g oil /100 g dry material			%		
	S1	S2	total	$\overline{S_1}$	$S_2$	
Н	11 ± 1	7 ± 2	18 ± 1	63	37	
S	44 ± 2	7 ± 1	51 ± 1	86	14	
JS	14 ± 1	3 ± 1	17 ± 1	83	17	

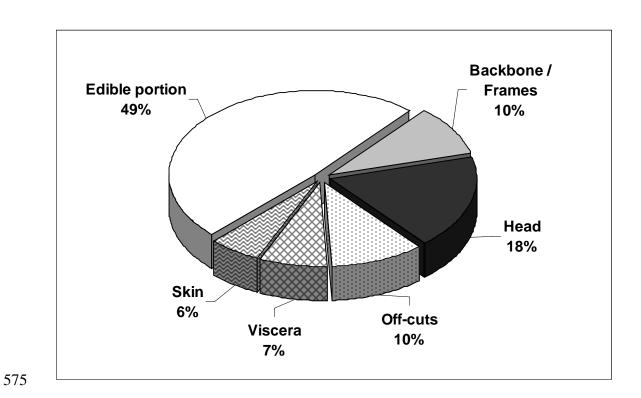


Figure 1. Average distribution of edible portion and by-products in fish (Data taken from Rustad (2007)

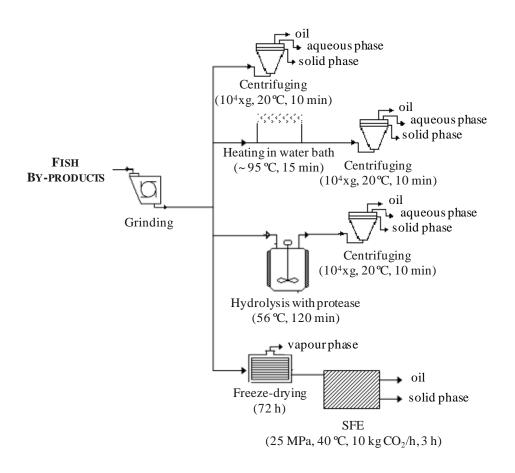


Figure 2. Scheme of the different fish oil extraction procedures studied in this work.

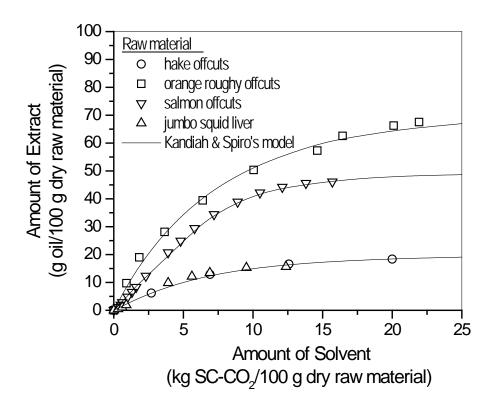


Figure 3. Extraction curves obtained for SFE of oil from different fish by-products. The continuous lines represent the correlation of the experimental data through the model proposed by Kandiah & Spiro (1990). Extraction conditions:  $25 \pm 0.5$  MPa /  $313 \pm 1$  K.

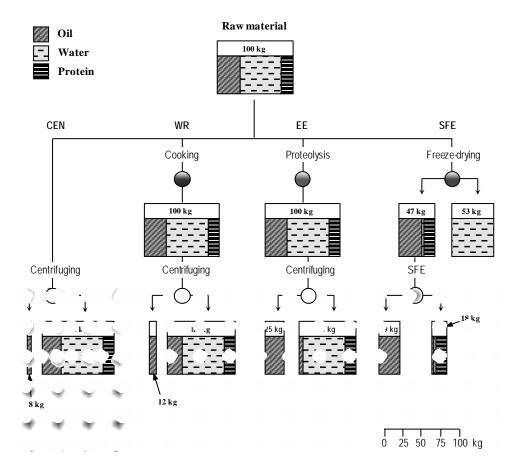


Figure 4. Estimation of the mass balance that results when obtaining oil from salmon offcuts by the four different extraction methods carried out at laboratory scale: Cold Extraction (CE), Wet Reduction (WR), Enzymatic Extraction (EE) and Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE)

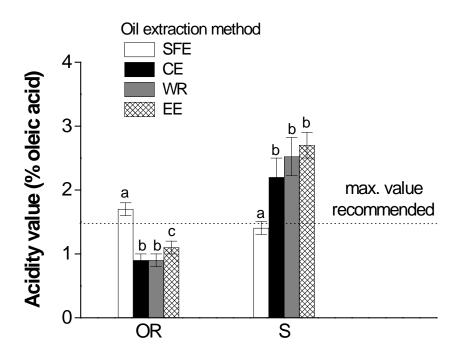


Figure 5. Acidity value of the oil extracted from orange roughy (OR) and salmon (S) offcuts by different methods: Cold Extraction (CE), Wet Reduction (WR), Enzymatic Extraction (EE) and Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE). Determinations were carried out in triplicate and the results are the average values  $\pm$  standard deviation. Means with the same letter within the same species are not significantly different (p > 0.05).

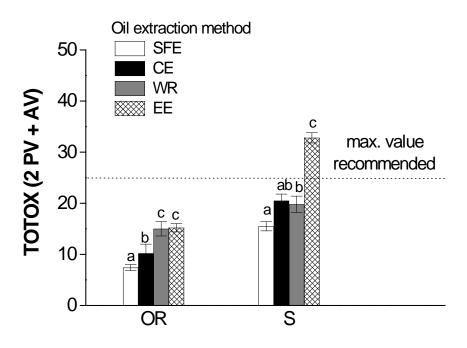


Figure 6. Total oxidation value (TOTOX) of the oil extracted from orange roughy (OR) and salmon (S) offcuts by different methods: Cold Extraction (CE), Wet Reduction (WR), Enzymatic Extraction (EE) and Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE). Determinations were carried out in triplicate and the results are the average values  $\pm$  standard deviation. Means with the same letter within the same species are not significantly different (p > 0.05).

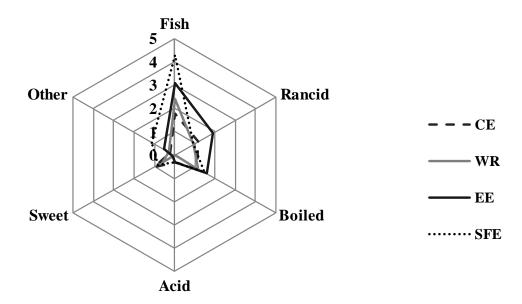


Figure 7. Sensory analysis of the oil extracted from orange roughly offcuts by different methods: Cold Extraction (CE), Wet Reduction (WR), Enzymatic Extraction (EE) and Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE)

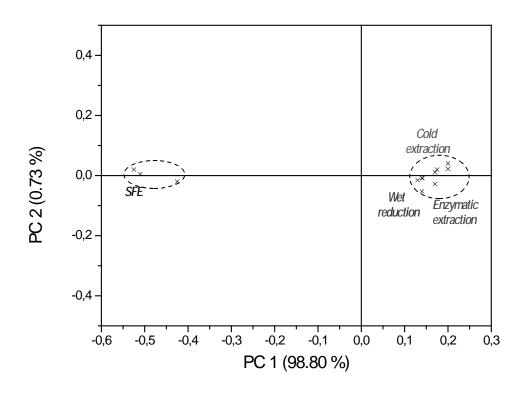


Figure 8. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the data obtained with the electronic nose for the oil extracted from orange roughly offcuts by different methods.

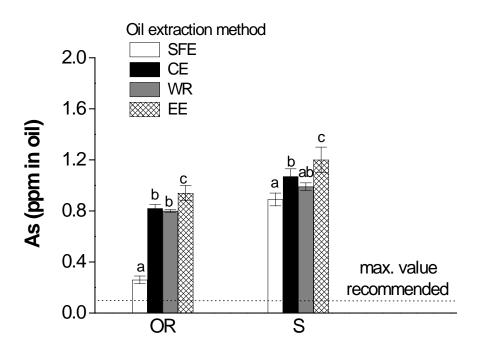


Figure 9. Total arsenic content found in the oil extracted from orange roughy (OR) and salmon (S) offcuts by different methods: Cold Extraction (CE), Wet Reduction (WR), Enzymatic Extraction (EE) and Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE). Determinations were carried out in triplicate and the results are the average values  $\pm$  standard deviation. Means with the same letter within the same species are not significantly different (p > 0.05).

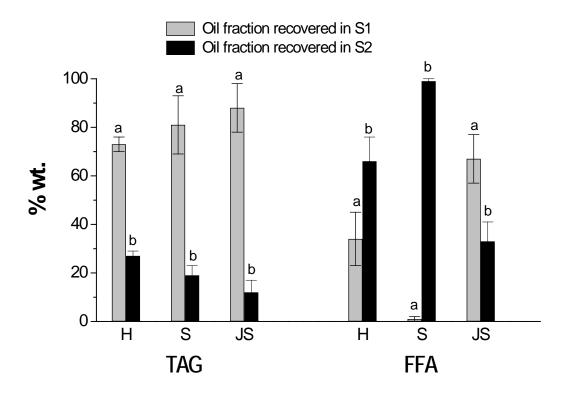


Figure 10. Mass percentage distribution of triacylglycerides (TAG) (left) and free fatty acids, (FFA) (right) between both separators in fish oil fractionation. H: Hake oil. S: Salmon oil. JS: Jumbo squid oil. Determinations were carried out in triplicate and the results are the average values  $\pm$  standard deviation. Means with the same letter within the same species are not significantly different (p > 0.05).

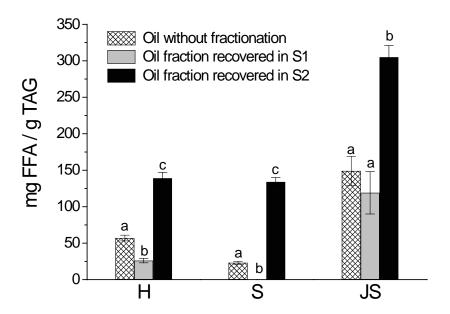


Figure 11. FFA (free fatty acids) to TAG (triacylglycerides) mass ratio in fish oils before and after fractionation. H: Hake offcuts oil. S: Salmon offcuts oil. JS: Jumbo squid livers oil. Determinations were carried out in triplicate and the results are the average values  $\pm$  standard deviation. Means with the same letter within the same species are not significantly different (p > 0.05).

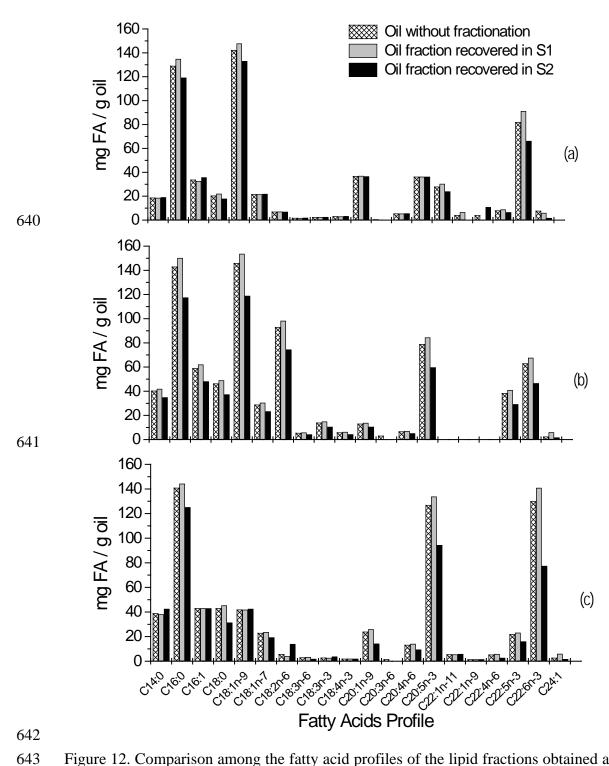


Figure 12. Comparison among the fatty acid profiles of the lipid fractions obtained after fractionation of (a) hake offcuts oil, (b) salmon offcuts oil and (c) jumbo squid liver oil.

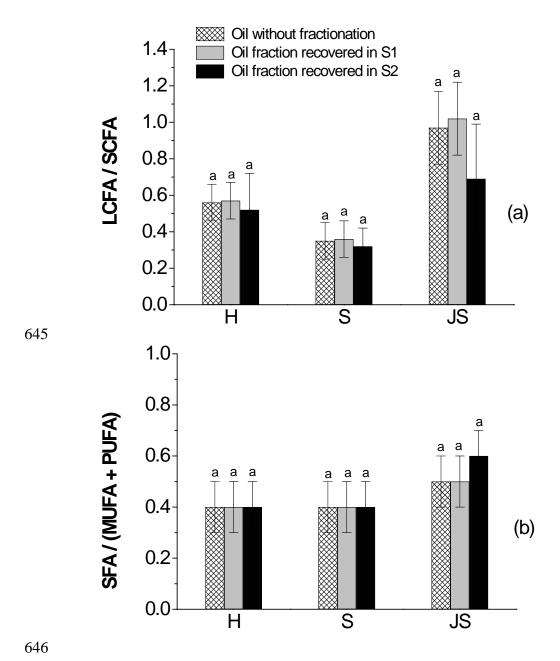
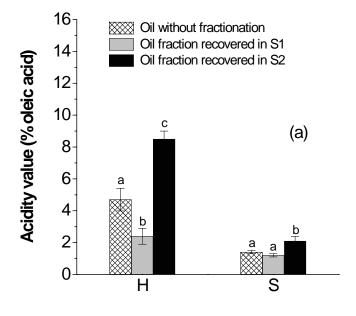


Figure 13. (a) LCFA/SCFA ratio in fish oil with and without fractionation. (b) SFA / (MUFA + PUFA) ratio in fish oil with and without fractionation. LCFA are considered fatty acids with a carbon number, C > 18, whereas SCFA are considered those with a carbon number,  $C \le 18$ . H: Hake oil. S: Salmon oil. JS: Jumbo squid oil. Determinations were carried out in triplicate and the results are the average values  $\pm$  standard deviation. Means with the same letter within the same species are not significantly different (p > 0.05).



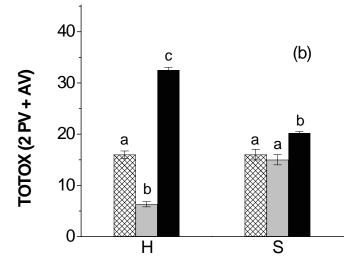


Figure 14. (a) Comparison between the acidity value and (b) total oxidation value (TOTOX), determined in oil fractions recovered in separator 1, S1, and in separator 2, S2; and oil without fractionation obtained from hake (H) and salmon (S) offcuts respectively. Determinations were carried out in triplicate and the results are the average values  $\pm$  standard deviation. Means with the same letter within the same species are not significantly different (p > 0.05).