

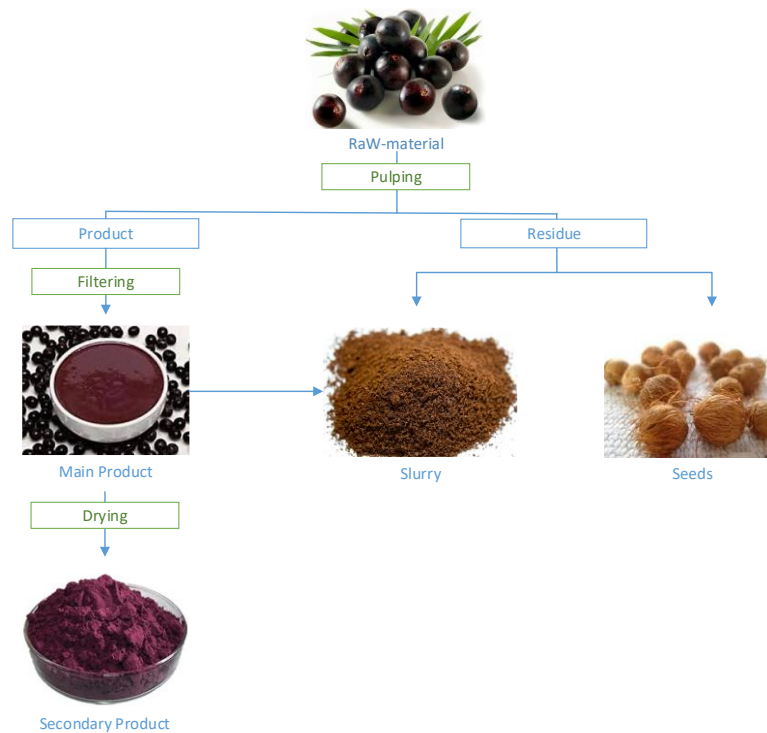
32 1. Introduction

33 Açaí is a black-purple berry obtained from *Euterpe oleracea* palm plant, widely found in
34 northern South America [1]. According to Cronquist order, *E. Oleracea* is classified as Magnoliophyta
35 (Class: *Liliopsida*; Subclass: *Arecidae*; Order: *Arecales*; Family: *Arecaceae*; Subfamily: *Arecoideae* –
36 *Euterpe oleracea* Mart.). *E. Oleracea* palm grows optimally in waterlogged or humid areas. In *E.*
37 *oleracea* palm, berries grow in bunches and show a spherical and small shape. The fruit consists of
38 skin, pulp and seed. The seed is the largest part of the fruit, having an average diameter of 1.2 cm
39 of a total fruit diameter of around 1.5 cm [2].

40 Açaí (*E. Oleracea mart.*) is mainly used to produce açaí pulp, typically consumed in north of
41 Brazil. Now it is also known worldwide due to its antioxidant properties and its high content of
42 bioactive compounds. Just in Pará (Brazilian state), 180 thousand tons of açaí pulp are consumed
43 per year [3]. A processing company produces a large amount of residue per day because just a small
44 part of fruit is eatable, around 5-15 wt% depending on the origin and maturity of the fruit. Seeds
45 represent approximately 80 wt% of the total fruit [4].

46 During the pulping process, pulp is separated from seeds (which constitute the first fraction of
47 residue). In a second step, pulp is clarified by a filter. In this step, a slurry constituted by fibres and
48 other solid residues produced during the separation of pulp from seeds is removed (thus forming a
49 second fraction of residue). Finally pulp is analyzed to certify its safety for consumption, and when
50 a pulp batch is considered inappropriate for consumption, the batch is discarded (constituting a
51 third fraction of residue). An overview of the manufacturing process with all residual fractions is
52 presented in Figure 1.

53



54
55

Figure 1. – Scheme of açai processing industry.

56 The valorisation of these residual fractions is important for the economy and the sustainability
 57 of the process. Since the seed represents a large fraction of the total amount of waste produced,
 58 previous works have focused on the valorisation of seeds, in most cases considering them as an
 59 energy source. For example, Teixeira et al. [5] evaluated the economic feasibility of using seeds in
 60 thermal power plants, concluding that a back-pressure steam turbine was the best option, while Itai
 61 et al. [6] evaluated the use of the seeds in a gasification unit, and Nagata et al. [7] developed a seed
 62 drying method to increase the energy efficiency of the process. More recently, the application of
 63 açai residues as raw materials for a biorefinery has been researched, also focusing on the
 64 lignocellulosic fractions (seeds and slurry fibres), by the Lima et al. [8], who evaluated the production
 65 of fermentable sugars from the seed and fibre waste fractions by a hydrothermal method. On the
 66 other hand, Sato et al. [9] proposed a pyrolysis method to produce a biochar from these
 67 lignocellulosic fractions that could be used for soil conditioning.

68 These applications of the lignocellulosic residues of the açai industry are promising, but these
 69 residues could also be a source of bioactive compounds such as antioxidants. Although the content
 70 of such compounds in the waste fractions has not been evaluated yet, several studies have

71 highlighted the high content of these compounds in the fresh açai fruit. Seeds are composed by
72 cellulose and hemicellulose (63-81%), proteins (5-6%), lipids (2-3%), and minerals (2-6%) [10].
73 Polyphenols in the plant mainly comprise procatechuic acid, different dimers of procyanidin, and
74 epicatechin [11]. Lipids present in the plant include fatty acids, phospholipids, sterols, sphingolipids
75 and terpenes [12]. In *E. Oleracea* fruit, oil content is an important fraction of the material,
76 representing around 45% of the dry mass (DM). On the fruit, different unsaturated fatty acids are
77 present, especially oleic (60%), palmitic (20-22%), linoleic (12%), palmitoleic (2-6%), and stearic acids
78 (2%) [10,13,14]. The main interest of oil rests on the presence of long-chain, unsaturated
79 compounds such as omega-9 fatty acids, and essential fatty acids such as stearic acid. Moreover,
80 the oil has antioxidant potential provided by polyphenols, phenolic acids such as vanillic acid,
81 syringic acid, p-hydroxybenzoic acid, procatechuic acid, ferulic acid, catechin and numerous
82 procyanidin oligomers [15]. Plotkin and Balik [16] have reported several therapeutic properties of
83 this oil, including the antidiarrheal effect.

84 The most interesting compounds are identified in the pulp fraction. According to literature, in
85 the pulp of *Euterpe Oleracea mart.* berry some relevant compounds are present, such as
86 anthocyanins (Cyanidin, Pelargonin), flavonoids (homo-orientin, orientin, catequin epicatechin, p-
87 cumaric), prothocyanidins, and some other useful products (quercetin, vanilic, ferulic, and gallic
88 acid) [17,18]. According to Food Technology Institute of São Paulo (ITAL/ SP), 100 g of fresh fruit
89 contains 336 mg of anthocyanins.

90 These compounds, present in the natural pulp, are expected in different concentration in the
91 residual products of açai processing. Moreover, each residual product has a different oil content
92 that can cause impedance during the extraction if it is not previously removed. All studies about
93 characterization of açai berry are based on fresh pulp or seeds content, and for this reason it is
94 necessary to perform a specific and detailed characterization of its residual fractions and by-
95 products.

96 Regarding the extraction of these valuable compounds from the residual fraction, maceration
97 is a traditional methodology to extract phytochemicals from natural materials. To perform this

98 process, the raw material is soaked in water and/or an organic solvent, and the extraction usually
99 takes place at room temperature and requires many hours to be concluded. Depending on the raw
100 material, sometimes it is necessary to increase the temperature of the process to achieve a better
101 extraction yield.

102 Microwave-Assisted Extraction (MAE) and pressurized MAE (PMAE) are methodologies that can
103 be used as pre-treatment in the maceration process, allowing to reduce the time needed to achieve
104 the maximum extraction yield because the microwave energy acts into the slow diffusion steps of
105 the extraction [19]. Microwaves provide energy that heats the intracellular water, increasing the
106 pressure inside of the vegetal cell, which promotes the cell-wall rupture [20]. Due to this, the
107 internal-cell content is released, resulting in a drastic acceleration of the diffusion step, reducing the
108 time required for the extraction [21], contributing to reduce the degradation of antioxidants and
109 other bioactive compounds during the extraction.

110 The objective of this work is to characterize *E. oleracea* residues from industry (pulp – not
111 suitable for human consumption–, seeds, and slurry) as a potential phytochemical source,
112 determining the content of lipid, extractives (according to their total polyphenol, anthocyanin and
113 flavonoid content, and antioxidant activity by oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC) value),
114 sugar, ashes, fixed mineral, fibre, protein, and the phytochemical composition of each residual
115 fraction. Furthermore, the extraction of these compounds by intensified microwave-assisted
116 techniques, MAE and PMAE, is researched. The final purpose is to evaluate the possibilities for
117 valorization of the industrial residues of this growing industry in northern Brazil.

118

119 **2. Materials and Methods**

120 *2.1 Materials*

121 2.1.1. Raw material

122 The raw material was obtained from Obidos-PA-Brazil, consisting of seeds, slurry (fibers and
123 skins retained by the filter), and pulp (not suitable for human consumption). Sample preparation
124 was specific for each fraction of residue: seeds (which constitute the first fraction of residue) had an
125 average diameter size of 1.2 cm, and they were milled to a size lower than 5 mm, employing a Retsch
126 SM100 knife-mill, and then dried in an oven at 45°C during 48 h. The second and third residue
127 fractions (slurry and pulp, respectively) were frozen at -80°C and then lyophilized (Telstar LyoQuest)
128 during 72 h.

129

130 2.1.2. Solvents and chemicals used for extraction and analyses

131 The following chemicals and solvents were used in extraction experiments and in analyses:
132 monobasic potassium phosphate (Panreac, 99%), NaOH (Panreac), NaCl (Panreac), HCL (Sigma-
133 Aldrich, 37%), Na₂HPO₄.12H₂O (COFARCAS), NaH₂PO₄.2H₂O (COFARCAS), trolox (Sigma-Aldrich,
134 97%), fluorescein sodium (Sigma-Aldrich, 95%), sulfuric acid (Panreac, 72%), n-hexane (Panreac,
135 95%), ethanol absolute (Panreac, 99.9%), calcium carbonate (Panreac, 99%), boric acid (Panreac,
136 99.8%), Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (Sigma-Aldrich, 2N), sodium carbonate anhydrous (Panreac,
137 99.5%), potassium hydroxide buffer (0.025 M KCl), trihydrate buffer (CH₃CO₂Na.3H₂O 0.4M) at pH
138 4.5., NaNO₂ (Sigma-Aldrich, 99%), aluminum chloride hexahydrate (Sigma-Aldrich, 99%), and 2,2-
139 azobis(2-methylpropionamide) dihydrochloride (AAPH) (Sigma-Aldrich, 99%).

140

141 2.2. Biomass characterization

142 2.2.1. Residual moisture

143 The samples present a residual moisture determined by drying the sample at 45 °C during 24 h
144 and measuring the weight loss after drying. This process is also required as pre-treatment for Soxhlet
145 extraction. Final moisture content is given in percentage.

146 2.2.2. Determination of extractives

147 The extracts employed in characterization assays were obtained using a Soxhlet apparatus and
148 a sequence of solvents (hexane, water, and ethanol) was used to extract each fraction.

149 An extraction thimble was placed in a Soxhlet apparatus (4.0 g of material), wherein 100 mL of
150 hexane was applied as solvent to remove the oil content in each fraction. The material stayed in
151 reflux for 6 h and temperature was regulated in order to have 4 cycles per hour. After extraction,
152 hexane was evaporated in a vacuum evaporation equipment and the oil extracted was solubilized
153 in acetone for a better manipulation. When the oil extraction was finalized, the thimble was placed
154 in an oven at 45°C until it achieved constant mass (established when the loss-mass is smaller or
155 equals 0.1 mg). The recovered extractives were stored in a refrigerator until further characterization
156 analyses.

157 Once the thimble achieved a constant mass, the mass was recorded and the thimble containing
158 the sample matrix was placed again in a Soxhlet apparatus to determine water extractive
159 compounds, using 100 mL of ultrapure water. The material stayed in reflux during 12 h or until the
160 condensed water was colourless. Temperature was regulated in order to have 4 cycles per hour.
161 After this, the filled thimble was placed in an oven at 45°C until it achieved constant mass. The
162 procedure was repeated again with ethanol as solvent. Both extracts were dried using a vacuum
163 evaporator, but in this case the extract was not solubilized in acetone at the end of process. The
164 amounts of water extractable compounds and ethanol extractable compounds were also
165 determined by the mass lost and confirmed by the dry mass after vacuum evaporation. For
166 polyphenol characterization, the procedure was repeated, avoiding the vacuum evaporation
167 extraction step, and extractives recovered were stored for analysis.

168 2.2.3. Determination of structural carbohydrates and lignin

169 Carbohydrates are an important part of the biomass residues. They can be part of structure
170 where they are bound linked, or they can be non-structural. To characterize carbohydrates, a
171 resistant tube was used where 300 mg of sample (after the extraction of extractives described in

172 the previous section) were added together with 3 mL of sulfuric acid (72% v/v), and incubated for
173 60 min at 30 °C, under stirring. After incubation time, samples were diluted with 84 mL of pure
174 water. Tubes were transferred into an autoclave at 121°C during one hour.

175 Finally, the content inside tubes was filtered with a vacuum pump using a cellulosic filter. The
176 solid retained on the filter was washed with hot deionized water and then dried at 105°C, for at least
177 one hour, until constant weight. After recording the dry mass, samples were transferred to a muffle
178 furnace at 575°C for at least 6 h and until constant mass was achieved to determine the percentage
179 of acid insoluble ash.

180 The liquid produced in the filtration was recovered for complementary analyses, to determine
181 the contents of soluble lignin and structural carbohydrates. Acid soluble lignin (ASL) was measured
182 by UV-visible spectrophotometer (UV-2550, Shimadzu) at 240 nm. To determine structural
183 carbohydrates, 20 mL of liquid was treated by calcium carbonate until neutralization at pH 5-6, and
184 using of 0.2 µm nylon filter to prepare sample to HPLC analysis. This method was applied in
185 accordance to 'Laboratory Analytical Procedure (LAP) NREL/TP-510-42618' [22].

186 2.2.4. Protein content

187 Protein content was indirectly measured by a Total Kjeldahl Nitrogen (TKN) method. This
188 method requires a digestion of sample in sulfuric acid at 370°C during 4 h, adding copper sulphate
189 as a catalyst. After digestion, DHNa was added and then samples were steam distilled in a solution
190 of boric acid and a violet colour marker. Violet colour becomes green during the distillation, and the
191 intensity of green colour is proportional to nitrogen content. Finally, the TKN number is given by the
192 amount of ammonia in the receiving solution. To calculate the percentage of protein it is necessary
193 to correct the NKT number with a standard nitrogen factor (6.25), as described in standard
194 laboratory Analytical procedure (LAP) NREL/TP-510-42625 [23].

195 2.2.5. Total Ash Content

196 Ash content is the amount of inorganic material in a biomass. It can be divided in two types:
197 structural and extractable. Total ash content measures the amount of inorganic content in biomass.
198 It was determined according to 'Laboratory Analytical procedure (LAP) NREL/TP-510-42622' [24]:
199 Two samples of 1 g of the material were dried in an oven at 105°C eliminating the volatile content
200 until constant weight. Afterwards, they were calcined in a muffle furnace at 575°C for at least 1
201 hour, until constant mass was achieved. The same procedure was used to determine the structural
202 ash, but in this case using the solid residue of acid hydrolysis (see structural carbohydrates and lignin
203 method). Extractable ash is calculated by the difference between structural ash and total ash.

204 *2.3. Intensification of the extraction process*

205 *2.3.1. Maceration*

206 The maceration process started when the raw material was placed in the glass extractor, mixed
207 and homogenized with the solvent. Temperature and stirring were kept constant. Pure ethanol, pure
208 water, and ethanol/water (1:1 v/v), acidified at pH 3.0, were used as solvents. Experiments at two
209 temperatures were performed: 40°C and 60°C. These low extraction temperatures were selected in
210 order to minimize the possible degradation of the target compounds, which mostly are antioxidant
211 compounds that are prone to thermal degradation. In order to determine the time required to
212 complete the extraction, in preliminary experiments times of up to 24 h were tested. It was observed
213 that the extraction did not achieve equilibrium even after that time, but that minor variations in the
214 extraction yield were observed after times ranging from 60 to 180 min, depending on the extraction
215 conditions. Therefore, these total maceration times were considered to determine the extraction
216 curves.

217 *2.3.2. Microwave-assisted Extraction (MAE)*

218 Before the extraction, the raw material and solvent were placed in an open flask and
219 homogenized under constant and moderate stirring for 2 min. The flask (vessel volume: 100 mL, raw
220 material concentration: 0.04 g/mL) was then introduced into the pre-heated circular energy

221 microwave (CEM Discovery) where the pre-treatment takes place. The microwave was set to a
222 constant power (300 W), maintained until ebullition of the solvent. Depending on the solvent
223 composition (water/ethanol proportion), the time required varied between 20 s and 25 s. After pre-
224 treatment, the sample was suddenly cooled introducing the flask into a cold bath and then it was
225 subjected to maceration.

226 2.3.3. Pressurized Microwave-assisted Extraction (PMAE)

227 PMAE allows to operate at higher temperatures than MAE at ambient pressure, which can have
228 a beneficial effect on the extraction, or also a detrimental effect if target compounds undergo
229 degradation due to the higher temperatures. The PMAE process is similar to MAE procedure, with
230 the difference in the flask used, as in the PMAE the flask is closed and it has a pressure transmitter.
231 Again, the microwave was set to constant power (300 W), varying the temperature till ebullition and
232 after the application of microwaves the sample was suddenly cooled introducing the flask into a cold
233 bath. Two final pressures were considered: 1.5 bar and 3 bar, which considering the vapour pressure
234 data of pure water allow to increase the final temperature to 111.3°C and 133.5°C, respectively,
235 compared to the 100°C achieved at ambient pressure.

236 2.3.4. Experimental design

237 The maceration process was studied varying the solvent (pure ethanol, pure water, and
238 ethanol-water (1:1 v/v) mixtures) and the temperature applied (40°C and at 60°C). The influence of
239 the microwace pretreatment was studied carrying out maceration experiments without microwave
240 pretreatment, MAE experiments and PMAE experiments at two different pressures: 1.5 bar and 3
241 bar.

242

243 2.4. Analytical procedure for characterization of extractives

244 2.4.1. Characterization of oil extract

245 Determination of the composition of oil obtained by Soxhlet extraction was carried out by the
246 procedure presented by Fernández Moya et al. [25], and quantified according to Carelli and Cert
247 [26]. Analyses were carried out in the Seville Oil Institute (Spain). Gas Chromatography (GC)(Agilent-
248 7890) was employed to quantify and determine the amount of the main triglycerides in the in the
249 extract. GC used a capillary column Quadrex Aluminium-Clad 400-65HT (30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.10 μm),
250 injector at 370°C (split of injection at 1:80), and oven at 335°C, and a flame ionization detector (FID)
251 at 370°C. The first step of the sample preparation was the evaporation of the solvent, and then
252 sample was diluted in heptane with 10% (w/w) of triheptadecanoin (17:0-17:0-17:0) as internal
253 standard.

254 2.4.2. Characterization of extractives in water and in ethanol

255 The extractives obtained by Soxhlet extraction using water and ethanol as solvents were
256 characterized in terms of total polyphenols content (TPC), total anthocyanins contents (TAC), total
257 flavonoids content (TFC) and antioxidant activity by oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC).

258 For TPC analysis a capped test tube was used, adding 40 μL of the extract, 3 mL of ultrapure
259 water and 200 μL of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent. It was also necessary to prepare a control sample
260 using 40 μL of extraction solvent, 3 mL of ultrapure water and 200 μL of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent.
261 Tubes were closed and homogenized at 40°C for 5 min. After this period, 600 μL of Na_2CO_3 (20% v/v)
262 solution was added, tubes were vigorously stirred and kept in hot-water-bath at 40°C for 30 min.
263 Finally the samples were analyzed by spectrophotometer (UV-2550 Shimadzu) ($\lambda = 765 \text{ nm}$). The
264 TPC concentration is given in Gallic acid equivalent per 100 g of dry material [27].

265 The TAC analyses were performed with the aid of a spectrophotometer (UV-2550 Shimadzu).
266 Samples were diluted (1:4) in a potassium hydroxide buffer (0.025 M KCl) at pH 1.0 and buffered
267 with acetate trihydrate buffer ($\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{Na} \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.4 M) at pH 4.5. Samples were diluted in both
268 buffers solution, at pH 1.0 and pH 4.5, and each dilution was measured at 520 nm and 700 nm. The
269 concentration of anthocyanins in each sample is given in g of cyanidin equivalent per 100 g of dry
270 material [28].

271 To determine TFC, 25 μL of sample, 125 μL of deionized water, and 7.5 μL NaNO_2 5% (v/v) were
272 mixed in a tube. The mixture was incubated at room temperature for 6 min. After the incubation
273 time, 15 μL of $\text{AlCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (10% v/v) and 100 μL NaOH (1M) were added to each tube. Each sample
274 was analyzed in a Spectrophotometer (UV-2550 Shimadzu) at 510 nm [29].

275 For ORAC assays, in a plate suitable for use in the fluorimeter (Fluostar Optima - BMG Labtech)
276 (12x8 wells), 150 μL of fluorescein sodium salt solution (100 nM), previously prepared in phosphate
277 buffer (pH 7.4) was added in each used well, and, per triplicate, 25 μL of blank, Trolox[®] (6-Hydroxy-
278 2,5,7,8,tetra-methylchroman-2-carboxylic acid) standard, or sample, in their designated wells.
279 Trolox[®] standards were previously prepared in phosphate buffer (PBS) pH 7.4, at different
280 concentrations (13 μM , 25 μM , 50 μM , 100 μM , and, 200 μM). Once completed, the plate was placed
281 inside the fluorimeter (Fluostar Optima - BMG Labtech) to incubate at 37°C for 30 min. After the
282 incubation time 25 μL of 2,2-azobis(2-methylpropionamidine) dihydrochloride (AAPH) (240mM in
283 PBS) was added in each used well. The values obtained in this experiment are summarized over time
284 and given as micromole of Trolox[®] equivalents (TE) per 100 g of dry material ($\mu\text{mol TE} / 100 \text{ g of dry}$
285 material (DM)) [30, 31].

286 2.4.3. Sample morphology

287 Sample morphology was observed by SEM analysis using a FLEX SEM 1000 (Hitachi), before and
288 after Soxhlet extraction. For this, a dry sample was placed in a support for SEM and covered by a
289 gold layer.

290 3. Results and Discussion

291 3.1. Biomass characterization

292 The characterization of *E. Oleracea* residue from industry is reported on a dry mass base. All
293 results are compiled on Table 1.

294 **Table 1.** Biomass characterization results (% of dry mass).

Moisture	Extractives	Structural Carbohydrate	Protein	Ash
----------	-------------	-------------------------	---------	-----

Fraction		Oil	Aqueous	Ethanollic	Cellulose	Hemicellulose	Lignin		
Pulp	1.8	43.1±0.05	23.6±5.65	1.4±0.40	5.9±0.15	4.3±0.03	9.2±1.54	7.6 ±0.34	1.03
Seed	8.5	3.5±0.08	13.1±4.03	0.9±0.63	8.5±0.10	48.1±0.45	16.4±1.70	9.3±1.52	0.96
Slurry	8.2	1.2±0.21	3.4±0.03	0.3±0.22	18.6±0.16	20.7±0.27	36.2±1.00	5.8±0.88	0.67

295
 296 Extractives represent a total of 68.1%, 17.5%, and 4.9% on pulp, seed, and slurry residues,
 297 respectively. Pulp is the richest fraction in terms of extractives, with an oil content of 43.1%, of which
 298 23.6% are aqueous extractives, 1.4% are ethanol extractives and the remaining compounds are
 299 hexane extractives. The amount of oils is low in seeds and slurry fractions, constituting 3.5% and
 300 1.2%, respectively. However, it has to be removed in order to avoid any interference, because it was
 301 observed that oil disturbed the aqueous extraction process.

302 The seeds are a good source of extractives, and the aqueous extract obtained also showed good
 303 characteristics as a source of antioxidant compounds (see section 3.2.2). Lignocellulosic analyses
 304 show that the *açaí* seeds are rich in hemicelluloses, which represents around 48% of total mass.

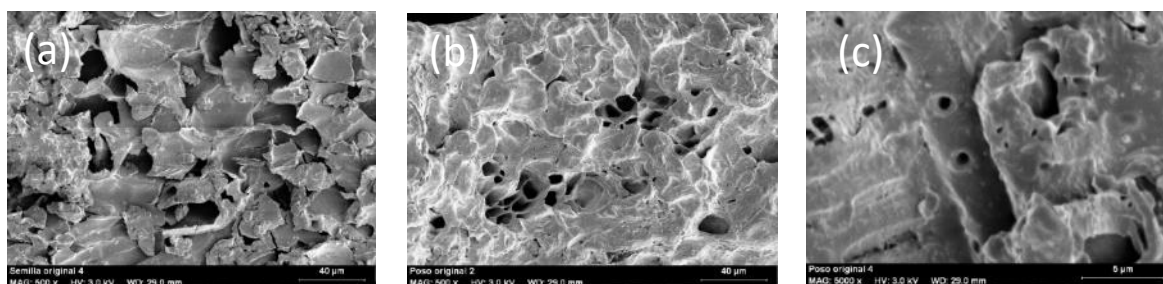
305 Slurry is the poorest fraction in terms of the amount of extractives. This was expected because
 306 slurry is constituted by all the unwanted fragments (such as seed fibers) resulting from filtering. In
 307 the industry, when this fraction is recovered it has a purple color, given by anthocyanins present on
 308 pulp, but it is degraded among time, finally showing a brown tone. In a lignocellulosic analysis, slurry
 309 showed an 18.6% of cellulose, 20.7 % of hemicellulose, and a high amount of lignin of 36.2%.

310 Seeds and slurry can be proposed as lignocellulosic biomass feedstock. On industry, cellulose
 311 has applications on glucose and ethanol production, and hemicellulose has been applied as additive
 312 in film and barrier coating [32, 33]. The key aspect for a successful application of these fractions is a
 313 correct fractionation and purification method, such as the method proposed by Cantero et al. [34].
 314 Lignin is a complex structure, its application on industry depends on its fractionation into smaller
 315 units, such as cellulose, hemicellulose and bound phenols [35].

316 The protein contents, determined by TKN Method, were 9.3%, 7.6%, and, 5.8%, for seeds, pulp,
 317 and slurry, respectively. These amounts of protein can be considered low, making *açaí* residue
 318 unsuitable as animal feed. As reference, pet food protein value is around 18-36%. The seeds have

319 been tried as additives, but their high content of tannins gives them an astringent flavour, which can
320 interfere in acceptance of it by animals [36].

321 Figure 2 presents SEM micrographs that show the morphology of the different biomass
322 fractions. The process to obtain the pulp in the industry consists on mixing the material with hot
323 water under constant stirring proportioned by the continuous rotation of shaft-mixer. Hot water is
324 necessary to avoid the microbial growth in the product. In general, the pulping process is similar to
325 a maceration process, and as a result the slurry matrix is more damaged. On the other hand, seeds
326 are removed by a secondary stream at the beginning of the pulping process. As a result, the content
327 of extractives in this fraction of residue is better preserved. Fibres are responsible for protecting the
328 internal content of seeds during the germination, and therefore most fibres are in the seed fraction,
329 but the movement of pulping shafts break some of them that are subsequently removed from the
330 pulp by filtering. Therefore, it is possible to find fibres in both fractions.



332 **Figure 2.** SEM Characterization of biomass fractions: (a) milled seeds, (b) slurry, (c) Fibres

333 3.2. Extracts characterization

334 3.2.1. Oil

335 Açaí pulp oil is composed by long-chain triglycerides, and the main components are
336 palmitodiolein (26.97%) and triolein (17.18%), as described in Table 2, where the triglycerides profile
337 present in pulp oil are summarized based on the total oil fraction. The oil is composed mostly of
338 oleic (58.5%), linoleic (22.3%), palmitic (11.4%), stearic (4.1%), and palmitoleic (3.7%) acids.

339 The oil obtained from açaí can be interesting for nutraceutical applications because of its high
340 concentration of oleic acid, the presence of essential fatty acids such as linoleic acid that are not

341 naturally produced by human metabolism, and the strong presence of other unsaturated chain
342 acids. The ratio between unsaturated and saturated fatty acids can be used as quality parameter. In
343 this case, the pulp oil has a ratio of 2.3.

344 Açaí oil characteristics are comparable to olive oil in terms of fatty acids proportion presented
345 in Alimentarius codex of 2003 (oleic 58.5-83.2%, linoleic 2.8-21.1%, and palmitic 7.8-18.8%). It was
346 also observed that in both oils, triolein and palmitodiolein are the main triacylglycerols. The
347 proportion of palmitodiolein was higher in açaí oil than in olive oil (12-20%), although triolein
348 content is much higher in olive oil (40-59%) [37].

349 Based on these results, Açaí oil can be proposed as omega source for industry depending on
350 the lipolysis process. Bioprocess has been successfully applied to this goal by the enzymatic lipase
351 of triacylglycerol that allowed to release oleic and linoleic fatty acids [38].

352

Table 2. Triglycerides on Açaí pulp oil extract.

Triglyceride	Pulp Oil	
	Average (%)	sd
POO	26.97	0.2
OOO	17.18	0.36
POL+PoOL	12.57	0.14
POP	11.76	0.16
PLP+PPoO	6.68	0.28
OOL	5.63	0.14
SOL	3.9	0.12
PLS	3.48	0.37
PLL	3.14	0.16
SOO	2.26	0.14
PLPo+PoPoO	1.37	0.12
POS	1.73	0.03
OLL	1.63	0.42
SLL	1.19	0.03
SLS	0.26	0.05
SOS	0.25	0.03

353 P: palmitic, 16:0; Po: palmitoleic, 16:1; S: Stearic, 18:0; O: oleic, 18:1; L: linoleic, 18 :2.

354

355 3.2.2. Characterization of aqueous and ethanolic extracts

356 The aqueous extract obtained from Soxhlet extraction is composed by sugars, nitrogen
357 compounds and minerals, among other water-soluble compounds such as anthocyanin and some
358 polyphenols. In the aqueous extract, pulp contains 23.6% of extractives on dry mass, seeds contains

359 13.1%, and slurry contains 1.4%. Ethanolic extractives were not present in significant amounts,
360 which may be due to the previous aqueous extraction. Both extracts, ethanolic and aqueous, were
361 analysed according their total anthocyanin (TAC), polyphenol (TPC) and flavonoid (TFC) content.
362 Extracts were also characterized according to their antioxidant activity by oxygen radical antioxidant
363 capacity (ORAC). The main results are summarized in Table 3.

364 The ORAC values for water-soluble antioxidant compounds obtained from the pulp and slurry
365 were 89760 and 7870 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$, respectively. The ORAC values found are similar to those
366 provided by the ORAC Database of the U.S. Department of Agriculture for pulp and skin : 99700
367 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$. This antioxidant capacity in water-soluble phase is similar to that observed in the
368 same fraction of Sage spices (98714 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$), almost thirty times bigger than that of Goji
369 Berry (3170 $\mu\text{mol TE}/1100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$), and sixty times than the value of red grape (1640 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$).
370 Seeds extracts had 65263 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100\text{g}_{\text{DM}}$ of antioxidant activity, similar to the pulp antioxidant
371 capacity.

372 Açaí pulp and seeds have shown a higher amount of aqueous soluble polyphenols, 2.86 and
373 1.77 GA eq/100 g_{DM} , respectively, than ethanol soluble polyphenols, 0.33 and 0.28 GA eq/100 g_{DM} ,
374 respectively. On the other hand, a similar amount of polyphenols content has been found in both
375 phases of slurry fraction, 0.16 GA eq/100 g_{DM} in water and 0.10 GA eq/100 g_{DM} in ethanol extract.

376 There is a similar concentration of water-soluble compounds in pulp (0.253 g/100 g_{DM}) and seed
377 (0.242 g/100 g_{DM}) fractions, and similar results are observed for ethanolic extract 0.104 g/100 g_{DM}
378 on pulp and 0.116 g/100 g_{DM} on seeds. On slurry fractions, the value in the ethanolic extract (0.090
379 g/100 g_{DM}) was slightly higher than in the aqueous extract (0.082 g/100 g_{DM}), which is probably
380 associated with the pre-treatment applied in the industry.

381 Anthocyanin was identified in pulp fraction at a concentration of 293.29 mg/100 g_{DM} , which
382 is close to the value found by Iaderoza et al. [39]: 336 mg/100 g_{DM} , and Schauss et al. [40]: 319.19
383 mg/100 g_{DM} . The presence of anthocyanin was not observed on the slurry fraction, as expected, as
384 this compound can be easily degraded resulting from a bad storage condition on industry and
385 transportation.

386

Table 3. Characterization of extracts

Material	TFC (g GAE/100g _{DM})	TPC (g GAE/100g _{DM})	TAC (mg /100g _{DM})	ORAC (μ mol TE/100g _{DM})
Seeds	0.242	1.77	-	65263
Slurry	0.082	0.16	-	7870
Pulp (dry)	0.253	2.86	293.29	89760

387

388 *3.4. Extraction experiments*

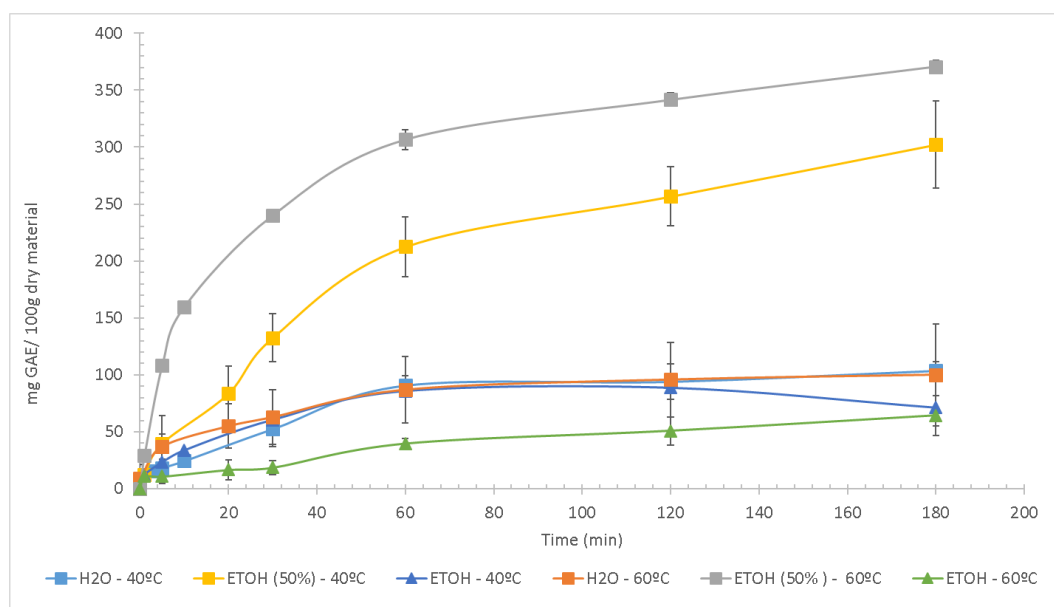
389 The study about extraction was divided into two main parts. In the first, the goal of the
390 experiments was to determine the best conditions to extract polyphenols from slurry and seeds by
391 conventional maceration in order to maximize the amount of Total Polyphenol Content (TPC) in the
392 extracted material. The parameters considered were the solvent used (water, ethanol/water 1:1 v/v,
393 and ethanol), temperature (40°C, and 60°C), and time of extraction.

394 In Figure 3, results of the extraction experiments from the slurry fraction are plotted. Among
395 the tested solvents, the highest TPC contents were found for the mixture ethanol/water (1:1 v/v),
396 being significantly higher at 60°C, Extractions did not achieve a constant TPC value even after 24 h,
397 and the maximum values after 24 h were 499.6 and 370.9 mg GAE/100 g_{DM}, at 60°C and 40°C
398 respectively. In experiments where water was used as solvent, temperature did not affect the
399 extractions, and the concentrations of TPC were around 100 mg GAE/100 g_{DM} both at 40°C and 60°C.
400 The slurry fraction has a residual oil content which can hamper the penetration of solvent into the
401 matrix. When ethanol was used as a solvent, the best yield was obtained by applying the lower
402 temperature of 40°C, being 88 mg GAE/100 g_{DM}.

403 As in the experiments with the slurry, the best results of seeds **extraction** in terms of TPC
404 content were obtained when ethanol/water (1:1 v/v) was applied as a solvent. The maximum TPC
405 value found was 6.69 g GAE/100 g_{DM}, at 60°C. However, the extracts showed degradation after 1
406 hour of extraction. At a lower temperature of 40°C, the maximum TPC value reached was lower, but
407 no significant degradation was observed. For the other solvents tested, a tendency to better

408 extraction was observed when higher temperature (60°C) was applied. The pulp fraction was not
409 included in this first step of the study.

410



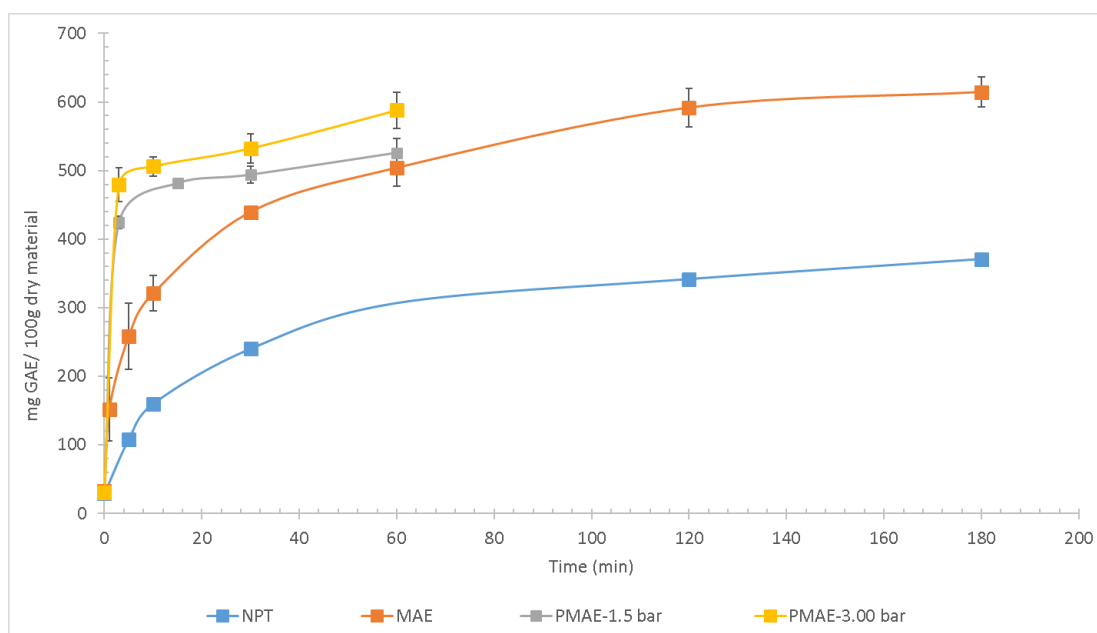
411

412 **Figure 3.** Extraction curve of slurry fraction at 40° and 60°C, using ethanol, water and
413 ethanol/water (1:1) as the solvents.

414

415 The second step of the experimental plan starts from the best conditions found for the
416 extraction process by maceration. The goal of this second step was to increase the TPC value
417 applying the MAE and PMAE pre-treatment as intensification process. Figure 4 shows the results of
418 the extraction experiments at 60°C, using ethanol/water (1:1 v/v) with and without microwave pre-
419 treatments. Extraction curves demonstrate that extract was enriched in terms of TPC value when
420 MAE was applied. For an extraction time of 5 min, a value of 258 mg GAE/100 g_{DM} was achieved
421 when MAE was used, while this value was 108 mg GAE/100 g_{DM} when no pre-treatment was applied.
422 In PMAE two different pressures were studied: 1.5 bar and 3.0 bar. The TPC value increased to 424
423 mg GAE/100 g_{DM} and 479 mg GAE/100 g_{DM} at these two pressures, respectively, showing significant
424 influence of applied pressure compared to conventional extraction when pressure was increased to
425 1.5 bar, while the pressure increment from 1.5 to 3 bar had a smaller influence. Although the pre-
426 treatment process could improve the extraction of TPC from the slurry, this value still remained

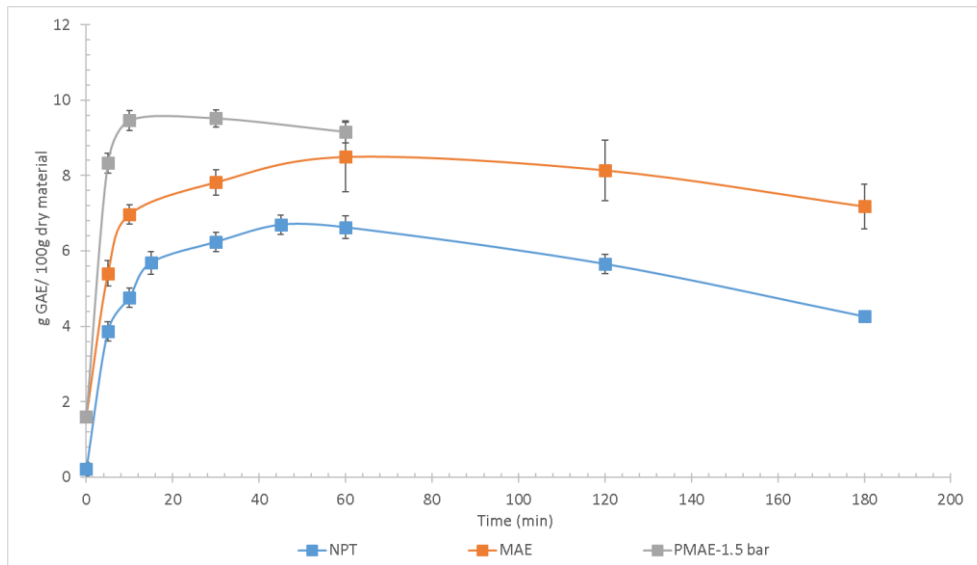
427 significantly lower compared to the value achieved in seed extracts. Similarly, treating the seed
428 fraction by microwave energy increased the extracted TPC (Figure 5). The material treated by MAE
429 had TPC value of 5.40 g GAE/100 g_{DM}, while by PMAE value was increased to 8.33 g GAE/100 g_{DM}. In
430 both cases, considering the same extraction time, the extraction of polyphenols was more efficient
431 when the microwave pre-treatment was applied, compared to conventional maceration (3.87g
432 GAE/100 g_{DM}). To carry out this study it was necessary to remove the oil presented in the seeds
433 fraction, as oil presence was an obstacle to the benefits produced by the MAE pretreatment. In
434 contrast, the oil presence had no significant influence on the conventional maceration when the
435 same solvent was used.



436

437 **Figure 4.** Extraction curve of slurry fraction with microwave pre-treatments using
438 ethanol/water (1:1) as the solvent at 60°C. NPT: not pre-treated sample, MAE: microwave-
439 assisted extraction pre-treatment, PMAE: pressurized microwave-assisted extraction pre-
440 treatment.

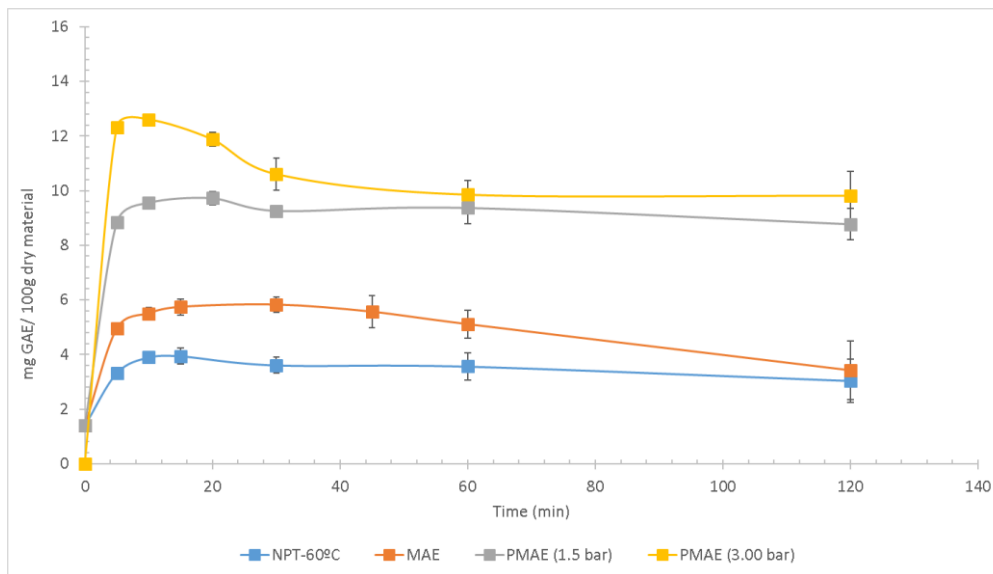
441



442

443 **Figure 5.** Extraction curve of seeds fraction with microwave pre-treatments using
 444 ethanol/water (1:1) as the solvent at 60°C. NPT: not pre-treated sample, MAE: microwave-
 445 assisted extraction pre-treatment, PMAE: pressurized microwave-assisted extraction pre-
 446 treatment.

447 The polyphenols extraction was performed from the residual, non-edible pulp fraction using
 448 the optimum conditions obtained in the previous study (60°C, water/ethanol (1:1 v/v)). The same
 449 tendency was followed (Figure 6), as the results show that conventional maceration reached the
 450 TPC value of 3.94 g GAE/100 g_{DM}, which was increased to 5.82 g GAE/100 g_{DM} when MAE was applied.
 451 In both cases, the maximum TPC was achieved after 15 min of extraction. Increasing temperature
 452 improved the polyphenol extraction. In this respect, PMAE allows to achieve higher temperature,
 453 being more efficient than the use of MAE: using PMAE pre-treatment, the TPC values were 8.83 g
 454 GAE/100 g_{DM} and 12.31 g GAE/100 g_{DM}, for pressures of 1.5 and 3.0 bar, respectively.



455

456 **Figure 6.** Extraction curve of pulp fraction with microwave pre-treatments using
 457 ethanol/water (1:1) as the solvent at 60°C. NPT: not pre-treated sample, MAE: microwave-
 458 assisted extraction pre-treatment, PMAE: pressurized microwave-assisted extraction pre-
 459 treatment.

460

461 Although the best results for polyphenol extraction were found at a temperature of 60°C, high
 462 temperatures promote the rapid degradation of the extracted anthocyanin. The extraction of
 463 anthocyanin by conventional method would be more advantageous if carried out at temperatures
 464 below 40°C. A possibility to prevent degradation of the anthocyanin is to shorten the extraction
 465 time, because after the pretreatment the anthocyanin value was close to the highest value. Total
 466 anthocyanin content was maximum when the PMAE (1.5 bar) was used, being 1115.8 mg AE/100
 467 g_{DM}. However, the increase in pressure to 3 bar and the consequently increase in temperature
 468 (which as previously indicated is estimated to reach 133.5°C) produced decreased the total
 469 anthocyanin content to 221.4 8 mg AE/100 g_{DM}.

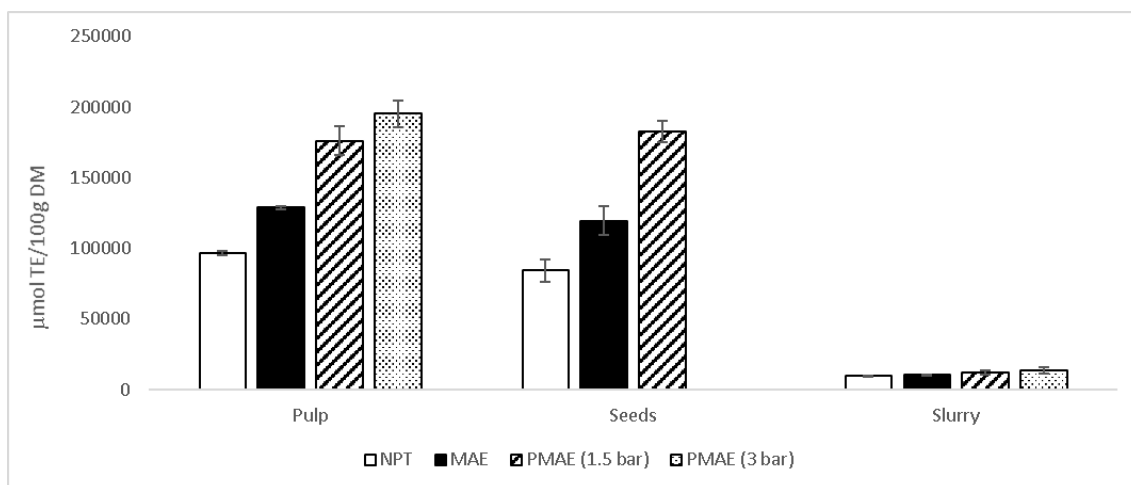
470

471 In summary, results showed that the temperature was an important parameter on the
 472 extraction process of bioactive compounds from açai by-product, in its three fractions (slurry, seeds
 and not-edible pulp). However, the control of temperature was essential to avoid the early

473 degradation of phytochemicals presented in the extract. The microwave pre-treatment favored the
474 extraction process, promoting a fast temperature rise in a short period of time.

475 ORAC was used to measure the antioxidant capacity of extracts and its enhancement after the
476 different pre-treatments applied. At Figure 7 the pertinent results related to the antioxidant activity
477 of the extracts are summarized. The microwave pretreatment of açai by-products (pulp, seeds, and,
478 slurry) generated a positive effect on the antioxidant activity of extracts. Applying PMAE (1.5 bar),
479 the extract obtained from pulp had an ORAC value of 176170 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$, and therefore the
480 antioxidant activity was 1.8 times higher than the value obtained through the conventional process,
481 which was 96594 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$. The ORAC value found by conventional maceration extraction is
482 close to the data provided by the ORAC Database of U.S. Department of Agriculture for pulp and
483 skin: 99700 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$. The antioxidant activity of seeds extracts was similar to those
484 observed in pulp extracts, 182456 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$. Based on these results, both extracts obtained
485 from this byproduct have potential as antioxidant additive with possible applications in cosmetic
486 and food industries. The antioxidant activity of slurry extract showed a significant improvement
487 through the microwave pre-treatment. The ORAC value was increased from 9550 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$
488 (no pre-treated – NPT) to 10480 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$ applying MAE, and the value increased to 12088
489 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100 \text{ g}_{\text{DM}}$ when PMAE (1.5bar) was applied. Although the antioxidant activity found for the
490 slurry extract had a value that is comparable to other fruits such as Goji Berry (3170 $\mu\text{mol TE}/100$
491 g), this fraction of the açai by-product can be considered less relevant for valorization processes and
492 less applicable to industries due to its lower antioxidant activity compared to the seed and pulp
493 fractions.

494



495

496

Figure 7. Antioxidant activity (ORAC) of extracts.

497 **4. Conclusions**

498 The main residual by-products of the industrial processing of açai were characterized. In terms
 499 of extractive compounds, the pulp fraction showed a high potential as oil source, with contents up
 500 to 43% on dry mass. On pulp oil, fatty acids were present such as oleic acid (58.5%), linoleic acid
 501 (22.3%), palmitic acid (11.4%) and stearic acid (4.1%). Pulp and seeds had considerable amounts of
 502 water-soluble extractives: 23% and 13%, respectively. Moreover, these extracts presented
 503 important amounts of total polyphenols and flavonoids, with a high value of ORAC activity. Although
 504 the slurry presented lower amounts of total extractives, polyphenols and flavonoids in comparison
 505 to the other fractions, the water-soluble slurry extract presented a certain antioxidant activity.
 506 Values were lower than expected, which was attributed to previous process applied at the industry.

507 Cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin are the main components of the slurry fraction, with
 508 contents of 18%, 20%, and, 36%, respectively. On seeds, the main component found was
 509 hemicellulose, with contents up to 48%. This residual fraction could be proposed as feedstock of
 510 these components on lignocellulosic biorefinery by hydrolysis of oligomers in small sugar-fractions.

511 Microwave Assisted Extraction (MAE) and pressurized MAE (PMAE) were successfully applied
 512 as pre-treatment for extraction from slurry, seeds and pulp residual fractions. The study revealed
 513 that the extraction with an ethanol/water mixture (1:1 v/v) was more advantageous than the

514 extraction with pure solvents. TPC values were higher when the temperature of extraction was 60°C,
515 compared to 40°C.

516 When pretreatment was applied, MAE enabled to achieve higher concentrations of
517 polyphenols during the extraction. After 30 minutes of extraction, the TPC values found for the slurry
518 fraction increased from 370 mg GAE/100 g_{DM} to 614 mg GAE/100 g_{DM}, and this pattern was also
519 observed for the pulp fraction, increasing from 3.61 g GAE/100 g_{DM} to 5.82 g GAE/100 g_{DM}, and for
520 the seed fraction, increasing from 6.24 g GAE/100 g_{DM} to 7.82 g GAE/100 g_{DM}. The PMAE technique
521 permitted to apply higher temperatures without solvent evaporation, reaching even higher TPC
522 values. After PMAE (1.5 bar, 300W) was applied, the maximum of TPC value was 424 mg GAE/100
523 g_{DM} for extraction from slurry, and, 8.33 g GAE/100 g_{DM} and 8.83 g GAE/100 g_{DM} from seeds and pulp
524 fractions, respectively.

525 The antioxidant activity of extracts obtained from slurry, pulp and seeds was also improved
526 when microwave pre-treatment (MAE and PMAE) was applied, being higher by the use of PMAE as
527 pre-treatment. Applying PMAE, the antioxidant activity of pulp and seed extracts was approximate
528 two times higher than the value obtained by the conventional process, reaching ORAC values of
529 176170 μmol TE/100 g_{DM} and 182456 μmol TE/100 g_{DM}, respectively. Therefore, extracts obtained
530 from seed and pulp residues have potential as antioxidant additives, and could have possible
531 applications in cosmetic and food industries.

532

533 **Acknowledgments:** The author Rafaella T. Buratto is grateful to “Conselho Nacional de
534 Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico – CNPq”, Brazil (200737/2015-5) for providing her
535 doctoral scholarship. Authors acknowledge the financial support from CTQ2016-79777-R project of
536 the Spanish Ministry of Economy.

537

538 **References**

- 539 1. Barbosa, P.A.L. (1951). Pequeno Vocabulario Tupi-Protuguês, 1st ed. Livraria São José, Rio de
540 Janeiro.
- 541 2. Lorenzi, H., Noblick, L., Kahn, F., Ferreira, E.. Flora Brasileira: Arecaceae (Palmeiras). Inst.
542 Plantarum, Nov. Odessa (2010) 211–212.
- 543 3. Oliveira, M., De Carvalho, J.E.U., Do Nascimento, W.M.O., Muller, C.H. (2002). Cultivo do
544 açazeiro para produção de frutos. Embrapa Amaz. Orient. Circ. técnica.
- 545 4. Altman, R.F.A. (1956). O caroço de açaí. Instituto agrônomico Norte, Belém, Pará.
- 546 5. Teixeira, M. A., Escobar Palacio, J. C., Sotomonte, C. R., Silva Lora, E. E., Venturini, O. J., Abmann,
547 D. Assaí- an energy view on an Amazon residue. Biomass and Bioenergy 58 (2013) 76-86.
548 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2013.08.007>
- 549 6. Itai, Y., Santos, R., Branquinho, M., Malico, I., Ghesti, G. F., Brasil, A. M. Numerical and
550 experimental assessment of a downdraft gasifier for electric power in Amazon using açaí seed
551 (*Euterpe oleácea* Mart.) as a fuel. Renewable Energy 66 (2014) 662-669.
552 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2014.01.007>
- 553 7. Nagata, G. A., Souto, B. A., Perazzini, M. T. B, Perazzini, H. Analysis of the isothermal condition
554 of acai berri residues for biomass applications. Biomass and Bioenergy 132 (2020) Article
555 number 105453. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2019.105453>
- 556 8. De Lima, A. C. P., Bastos, D. L. R., Camarena, M. A., Bon, E. P. S., Cammarota, M. C., Teixeira, R.
557 S. S., Gutarra, M. L. E. Physicochemical characterization of residual biomass (seed and fiber)
558 from açaí (*Euterpe olracea*) processing and assessment of the potential for energy production
559 and bioproducts. Biomass Conversion and Biorefinery, (2019).
560 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13399-019-00551-w>
- 561 9. Sato, M. K., de Lima, H. V., Costa, A. N., Rodrigues, S., Pedroso, A. J. S., de Freitas Maia, C. M. B.
562 Biochar from Acai agroindustrial waste: study of the pyrolysis conditions. Waste Management
563 96 (2019) 158-167. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2019.07.022>
- 564 10. Rogez, H., 2000. Açaí: Preparo, Composição e Melhoramento da Conservação, Belém, Brazil:
565 EDUFPA.

- 566 11. Rodrigues, R.B., Lichtenthäler, R., Zimmermann, B.F., Papagiannopoulos, M., Fabricius, H.,
567 Marx, F., Maia, J.G.S., Almeida, O. Total oxidant scavenging capacity of *Euterpe oleracea* Mart.
568 (açai) seeds and identification of their polyphenolic compounds. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 54 (2006)
569 4162–4167. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf058169p>
- 570 12. Fahy, E., Cotter, D., Sud, M., Subramaniam, S. Lipid classification, structures and tools. *Biochim.*
571 *Biophys. Acta* 1811 (2011) 637–47. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbalip.2011.06.009>
- 572 13. Lubrano, C., Robin, J.R., Khaiat, A. Fatty acid, sterol and tocopherol composition of oil from the
573 fruit mesocarp of six palm species in French Guiana. *Oléagineux* 49 (1994) 59–65.
- 574 14. Mantovani, I.S.B., Fernandes, S.B.O., Menezes, F.S. Constituintes apolares do fruto do açai
575 (*Euterpe oleracea* M. - *Arecaceae*). *Rev. Bras. Farmacogn.* 13 (2003) 41–42.
576 <https://doi.org/10.1590/S0102-695X2003000300016>
- 577 15. Pacheco-Palencia, L. A., Mertens-Talcott, S., Talcott, S. T. Chemical Composition, Antioxidant
578 Properties, and Thermal Stability of a Phytochemical Enriched Oil from Açai (*Euterpe oleracea*
579 Mart.) *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 56 (2008) 4631–4636
- 580 16. Plotkin, M.J., Balick, M.J. Medicinal uses of South American palms. *J. Ethnopharmacol.* 10 (1984)
581 157–179. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-8741\(84\)90001-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-8741(84)90001-1)
- 582 17. Kang, J., Li, Z., Wu, T., Jensen, G.S., Schauss, A.G., Wu, X. Anti-oxidant capacities of flavonoid
583 compounds isolated from açai pulp (*Euterpe oleracea* Mart.). *Food Chem.* 122 (2010) 610–617.
584 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.03.020>
- 585 18. Heinrich, M., Dhanji, T., Casselman, I. Açai (*Euterpe oleracea* Mart.) - A phytochemical and
586 pharmacological assessment of the species' health claims. *Phytochem. Lett.* 4 (2011) 10–21.
587 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phytol.2010.11.005>
- 588 19. Garcia-Perez, J. V., García-Alvarado, M. A., Carcel J. A., Mulet, A. Extraction kinetics modeling
589 of antioxidants from grape stalk (*Vitis vinifera* var. Bobal): Influence of drying conditions, *J. Food*
590 *Eng.* 101 (2010) 49–58.

- 591 20. Vinatoru, M., Mason, T.J., Calinescu, I. Ultrasonically assisted extraction (UAE) and microwave
592 assisted extraction (MAE) of functional compounds from plant materials, *rAC Trends Anal.*
593 *Chem.* 97 (2017) 159–178.
- 594 21. Sólyom, K., Kraus, S., Mato, R. B., Gaukel, V., Schuchmann, H. P., Cocero, M. J. Dielectric
595 properties of grape marc: Effect of temperature, moisture content and sample preparation
596 method, *J. Food Eng.* 119 (2013) 33–39.
- 597 22. Sluiter, A., Hames, B., Ruiz, R., Scarlata, C., Sluiter, J., Templeton, D., Crocker, D. (2008).
598 Determination of Structural Carbohydrates and lignin in biomass, (LAP) NREL/TP-510-42618.
- 599 23. Hames, B., Scarlata, C., Sluiter, A. (2008). Determination of Protein Content in biomass, (LAP)
600 NREL/TP-510-42625.
- 601 24. Sluiter, A., Hames, B., Ruiz, R., Scarlata, C., Sluiter, J., Templeton, D. (2005). Determination of
602 Ash in Biomass, (LAP) NREL/TP-510-42622.
- 603 25. Fernández-Moya, V., Martínez-Force, E., Garcés, R. Identification of Triacylglycerol Species from
604 High-Saturated Sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) Mutants. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 48 (2000) 764–
605 769.
- 606 26. Carelli, A.A., Cert, A. Comparative study of the determination of triacylglycerol in vegetable oils
607 using chromatographic techniques. *J. Chromatogr. A* 630 (1993) 213–222.
608 [https://doi.org/10.1016/0021-9673\(93\)80458-K](https://doi.org/10.1016/0021-9673(93)80458-K)
- 609 27. Singleton, V.L., Orthofer, R., Lamuela-Raventós, R.M. Analysis of total phenols and other
610 oxidation substrates and antioxidants by means of folin-ciocalteu reagent. *Methods Enzymol.*
611 299 (1999) 152–178. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0076-6879\(99\)99017-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0076-6879(99)99017-1)
- 612 28. AOAC Official Method, 2005. Total Monomeric Anthocyanin Pigment Content of Fruit Juices,
613 Beverages, Natural Colorants, and Wines, in: AOAC International, 37.1.68.
- 614 29. Michalska, A., Ceglińska, A., Zieliński, H. Bioactive compounds in rye flours with different
615 extraction rates. *Eur. Food Res. Technol.* 225 (2007) 545–551. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-006-0452-4)
616 006-0452-4

- 617 30. Ganske, F., 2006. ORAC Assay on the FLUOstar OPTIMA to Determine Antioxidant Capacity.
618 Offenburg, Germany.
- 619 31. Ou, B., Hampsch-Woodill, M., Prior, R.L. Development and validation of an improved oxygen
620 radical absorbance capacity assay using fluorescein as the fluorescent probe. *J. Agric. Food*
621 *Chem.* 49 (2001) 4619–4626. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf010586o>
- 622 32. Zhu Ryberg, Y., Edlund, U., Albertsson, A.C. Innovative approaches for converting a wood
623 hydrolysate to high-quality barrier coatings. *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 5 (2013) 7748–7757.
624 <https://doi.org/10.1021/am401102h>
- 625 33. Mikkonen, K.S., Heikkinen, S., Soovre, A., Peura, M., Serimaa, R., Talja, R.A., Helén, H., Hyvönen,
626 L., Tenkanen, M. Films from oat spelt arabinoxylan plasticized with glycerol and sorbitol. *J. Appl.*
627 *Polym. Sci.* 114 (2009) 457–466. <https://doi.org/10.1002/app.30513>
- 628 34. Cantero, D.A., Martínez, C., Bermejo, M.D., Cocero, M.J. Simultaneous and selective recovery
629 of cellulose and hemicellulose fractions from wheat bran by supercritical water hydrolysis.
630 *Green Chem.* 17 (2015) 610618. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c4gc01359j>
- 631 35. Cocero, M.J., Cabeza, Á., Abad, N., Adamovic, T., Vaquerizo, L., Martínez, C.M., Pazo-Cepeda,
632 M.V. Understanding biomass fractionation in subcritical & supercritical water. *J. Supercrit.*
633 *Fluids* 133 (2018) 550–565. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2017.08.012>
- 634 36. Seye, O., Souza, R.C.R., Bacellar, A.A., Morais, M.R. (2008). Caracterização do Carço de Açaí
635 Como Insumo Parageração de Eletricidade Via Gaseificação. 7 Congresso Internacional sobre
636 Geração distribuída e Energia no meio Rural, Fortaleza, Brasil.
- 637 37. Boskou, D., Blekas, G., Tsimidou, M. (2006). Olive Oil, Chemistry and Technology, in: Olive Oil ;
638 Chemistry and Technology. 2nd Edition. pp. 41–43. [https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-1-893997-](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-1-893997-88-2.50008-0)
639 [88-2.50008-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-1-893997-88-2.50008-0)
- 640 38. Perez, M.M., Spiropulos Goncalves, E.C., Santos Salgado, J.C., Rocha, M. de S., de Almeida, P.Z.,
641 Vici, A.C., Infante, J. da C., Manuel Guisan, J., Rocha-Martin, J., Costa Pessela, B., Teixeira de
642 Moraes Polizeli, M. de L. Production of Omegas-6 and 9 from the Hydrolysis of Acai and Buriti

- 643 Oils by Lipase Immobilized on a Hydrophobic Support. *Molecules* 23 (2018) 3015.
644 <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules23113015>
- 645 39. Iaderoza, M., Baldini, V.L.S., Draetta, I.D.S., Bovi, M.L.A. Anthocyanins from fruits of acai
646 (*Euterpe oleraceae* Mart.) and jucara (*Euterpe edulis* Mart.). *32* (1992) 41–46.
- 647 40. Schauss, A.G., Wu, X., Prior, R.L., Ou, B., Patel, D., Huang, D., Kababick, J.P. Phytochemical and
648 nutrient composition of the freeze-dried amazonian palm berry, *Euterpe oleraceae* Mart.
649 (Acai). *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 54 (2006) 8598–8603. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf060976g>