

1 **Extraction of carotenoids from cantaloupe waste and determination of its mineral**
2 **composition**

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17 **ABSTRACT**

18 The carotenoid and mineral levels as well as the *in vitro* antioxidant capacity, using the 1,1-
19 diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical scavenging assay, of waste from cantaloupe was
20 assessed. Then the matrix was subjected to ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) and response
21 surface methodology (RSM) was used for the optimization of the extraction of carotenoids. The
22 effect of the extraction procedure on the microstructure of the powder was assessed by scanning
23 electron microscopy (SEM) analysis. The major carotenoids identified were lutein ($63.24 \pm$
24 $0.73 \mu\text{g } \beta\text{CE/g dw}$) and β -carotene ($56.43 \pm 0.11 \mu\text{g } \beta\text{CE/g dw}$). Several mineral elements (K,
25 Na, P, Mg, Ca, Fe, Cu, Mn and Zn) were identified, potassium being the major one. The extract
26 exhibited *in vitro* antioxidant activity ($\text{IC}_{50} = 7.33 \pm 0.22 \mu\text{g/mL}$). The RSM results showed that
27 an amplitude of 100%, extraction time of 10 min, hexane percentage of 80% in hexane/acetone
28 solvent, and solvent-to-solid ratio of 55 mL/g were the optimal conditions for the extraction of
29 carotenoids. Under these conditions, the carotenoid content of the extract was $124.61 \pm$
30 $3.82 \mu\text{g/g}$. The microscopic analysis revealed the effectiveness of the ultrasound treatment that
31 results in noticeable physical changes, like microscopic perforations and breakages.

32 **Keywords:** Cantaloupe, carotenoids, ultrasound assisted extraction, green extraction,
33 antioxidant activity, mineral composition, waste.

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39 **1. INTRODUCTION**

40 Colorants are extensively used in food industry as they are much related to the sensory
41 quality and therefore to food choice and preference, hence the production of colorants continues
42 to increase (Martins, Roriz, Morales, Barros & Ferreira, 2016). Synthetic colorants are
43 perceived as potentially harmful for many consumers, therefore, there is a constant trend to try
44 to replace them with natural pigments (Zhang, Yin, Kong & Jiang, 2011).

45 Plant or natural pigments are important in signalling, they attract pollinators and seed
46 dispersal agents and repel herbivores (Eldahshan & Singab, 2013). They are also important for
47 humans, because colour is one of the attributes of appearance related to food acceptability
48 (Meléndez-Martínez, Britton, Vicario & Heredia, 2007a). In addition to their role in providing
49 colour, natural pigments such as carotenoids can be involved in a wide variety of health-
50 promoting biological functions (Saini, Nile, & Park, 2015).

51 Fruits and vegetables are rich in carotenoids and are the most important contributors to these
52 compounds in the typical human diet. During the treatments applied on these foods, large
53 amounts of waste that occur. It is estimated that about 1.3 billion of food wastes are produced
54 per year (Matharu, de Melo & Houghton, 2016; Arshadi, Thomas, Lukasik, Brncic & da Costa
55 Lopes, 2016), which poses important problems for the industry and the environment. Fruits and
56 vegetables waste might be rich sources of bioactive compounds and can be used to obtain
57 products with high added-value for the agro-food, cosmetic or pharmaceutical industry.

58 Currently there is a trend to extract such compounds not only from foods but also from by-
59 products and wastes by means of green extraction. This consists in the extraction procedures
60 design that use environmental friendly solvents and renewable products, reduce the
61 consumption of energy and have a suitable extract in terms of safety and other quality
62 parameters as result (Chemat, Abert Vian, & Cravotto, 2012).

63 Recently, different novel and emerging technologies for green extraction such as High
64 Hydrostatic Pressures (HHP), Ultrasound (US), Pulsed electric fields (PEF) and Microwaves
65 (MW) are being increasingly used (Barba, Galanakis, Esteve, Frigola, & Vorobiev, 2015; Deng,
66 Zinoviadou, Galanakis, Orlie, Grimi, Vorobiev, & Barba, 2014; Kyriakopoulou, Papadaki,
67 & Krokida, 2015). In this regard, ultrasound is considered as an emerging technology. Its
68 applications in agro-food industry can lead to a reduction in treatment time and energy
69 consumption through the optimization of the factors involved (Chemat, Abert Vian, & Cravotto,
70 2012).

71 The ultrasound work in a liquid medium is based on the generation of micro-bubbles filled
72 with gas, a phenomenon called cavitation. The produced cavitation helps disrupt the cell wall,
73 increasing its permeability and allowing the solvent to penetrate in the plant material. Therefore,
74 the release of the compounds of interest is accelerated. Ultrasound is considered a non-thermal
75 technology, since it leads to instantaneous increases in local temperature without raising the
76 temperature of the treated liquid substantially, which reduces the risk of food degradation.
77 Besides, the time of treatment using ultrasonic approach can be shortened (Kyriakopoulou,
78 Papadaki, & Krokida, 2015; Šic Žlabur, Voća, Dobričević, Brnčić, Dujmić, & Rimac Brnčić,
79 2015; Zinoviadou, Galanakis, Brnčić, M., Grimi, Boussetta, Mota, Saraiva, Patras, Tiwari, &
80 Barba, 2015).

81 Given the importance of carotenoids in agro-food health, other researchers such as Yolmeh,
82 Habibi Najafi, & Farhoosh (2014), Dey, & Rathod (2013), Ofori-bcateng, & Lee (2013), Li, Fabiano-
83 Tixier, Tomao, Cravotto, & Chemat (2013) and Lianfu, & Zelong (2008) have used the ultrasound
84 method for their extraction, although the variables evaluated (like the matrix, the nature of the
85 carotenoids, the type of solvent, among others) were different.

86 Consumption of cantaloupe and its processing to produce juices and jams generate large
87 quantities of waste which can be valorised through the extraction of its health-promoting

88 compounds. Thus, the objective of the present study was the extraction of carotenoids from
89 cantaloupe peels. The ultrasound technique (UAE) used for this extraction was optimized by the
90 response surface methodology (RSM). This optimization will allow us to reduce in treatment
91 time and energy, to have a better yield in carotenoids and to use a less solvent. A rapid resolution
92 liquid chromatography method (RRLC-DAD) was applied to determine the individual
93 carotenoids in the extract. The mineral elements content of the cantaloupe waste and its *in vitro*
94 antioxidant activity were also studied as well as the sonication effect on the matrix structure
95 using scanning electron microscopy.

96 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

97 **2.1. Plant material and reagents**

98 Cantaloupe fruits (*Cucumis melo* L.) were harvested at the same period, from different
99 regions of Bejaia (northeast of Algeria), and at optimal ripening stage, they were obtained from
100 a local market at Bejaia city during the summer of 2014. The samples were prepared as follows:
101 after washing with distilled water, the rinds were removed manually from the rest of the fruit
102 by means of a rind peeler and subsequently sliced into small cylinders (with 2 mm of diameter
103 and 2~3 mm of thickness). They were dried in an oven set at 40 °C (Binder E28, Germany)
104 until constant weight. The dried samples were ground with an electric grinder (IKA A11,
105 Retsch, Germany) to granulometry lower than 250 µm. The powder so obtained was stored in
106 airtight bags. The water activity (a_w) was determined by Hygro Palm AW1 (EminTech, Lund,
107 Sweden) and was 0.33 ± 0.01 at 27 °C. Hexane, ethanol, acetone, DPPH, β -carotene and β -
108 cryptoxanthin were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Methanol, acetonitrile and ethyl acetate,
109 were of analytical grade and were purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Water was
110 purified in a NANO pure[®] DIAMONDTM system. Violaxanthin, α -carotene, and lutein were
111 obtained by standard procedures from appropriate sources as described elsewhere (Rodriguez-
112 Amaya, 2001; Meléndez-Martínez, Vicario & Heredia, 2007b).

113 **2.2.Extraction of carotenoids**

114 *2.2.1. Ultrasound assisted-extraction*

115 The frequency of the apparatus (SONICS Vibra cell, VCX 130 PB No. 630-0422,
116 Newtown, Connecticut, USA) was fixed at 20 kHz. One gram of the powder was added to 30
117 mL of extraction solvent. The solution was subjected to the action of acoustic waves with
118 different solvent mixtures, hexane contents in the solution, extraction times, amplitudes and
119 solvent-powder ratios, as explained below. The temperature was continuously monitored using
120 a T-type thermocouple (± 0.2 °C) connected to a data logger, and kept at 21 ± 2 °C by an
121 external cold water bath. So, by the elimination of any temperature effect, it can be accepted
122 that the observed effect was related only to the application of ultrasound. After the treatments,
123 40 ml of distilled water were added to the extracts and the mixtures were then filtered and left
124 to settle. After decantation, the coloured phase containing carotenoids was recovered and
125 evaporated to dryness. The crude extracts obtained were stored in a freezer
126 (Samsung RL60GQERS1/XEF, France) at -20 °C under a nitrogen atmosphere until their
127 analyses.

128 *2.2.2. Response surface methodology*

129 The methodology followed to optimize the conditions was basically that described by
130 Hiranvarachat & Devahastin (2014). Three food-compatible solvents were considered, namely
131 acetone, ethanol, and hexane and then three mixtures were prepared (hexane/acetone,
132 hexane/ethanol, and hexane/acetone/ethanol). According to the US Department of Health and
133 Human Services, Food and Drug Administration (FDA), ethanol and acetone may be regarded
134 as less toxic and with lower risk to human health as compared to other solvents. Daily exposures
135 of 50 mg per day were recommended. Hexane belongs to a class of solvent to be limited, with
136 a lower recommended daily exposure (2.9 mg) (FDA, 1997).

137 In order to minimize the number of experiments, a preliminary study whose parameters
138 were studied separately in single-factor experiments was conducted. The extraction conditions
139 were optimized, using the Central Composite Design (CCD), with respect to four variables, i.e.
140 hexane percentage in the hexane/acetone solvent mixture (X_1), extraction time (X_2), amplitude
141 (X_3), and solvent-to-solid ratio (X_4). The levels of the four factors were selected based on
142 preliminary experiments and the response variable was the total carotenoids yield (Y). The CCD
143 required in total 30 combinations of factors, including six tests at the center point level. The
144 data obtained were modelled with the following second-order polynomial equation (Eq. (1)):

$$145 \quad Y = B_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k B_i X_i + \sum_{i=1}^k B_{ii} X_i^2 + \sum_{ij}^k B_{ij} X_i X_j + E \quad (1)$$

146 Where Y represents the response function, which represents, in this study, the total carotenoids
147 content (TCC) yield; B_0 is a constant coefficient, B_i , B_{ii} and B_{ij} are the coefficients of the
148 linear, quadratic and interactive terms, respectively; and X_i and X_j represent the coded
149 independent variables.

150 **2.3. Determination of total carotenoids content**

151 The total carotenoid contents (TCC) of the extracts were determined by
152 spectrophotometry at 450 nm using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (UV-mini 1240, Shimadzu,
153 Japan). Total carotenoids concentration was calculated according to Scott (2001), and was
154 expressed as micrograms of β -carotene equivalent per gram of dry weight (β CE μ g/g of dw).
155 Individual carotenoids were quantified by using a RRLC-DAD methodology which was carried
156 out on an Agilent 1260 system (Agilent, Palo Alto, CA) fitted with a diode-array detector
157 (DAD). This was set at 285 nm for the detection of phytoene, at 350 nm for that of phytofluene,
158 and at 450 nm for coloured carotenoids and chlorophylls. A C_{18} Poroshell 120 column (2.7 μ m,
159 5 cm \times 4.6 mm) kept at 28 $^{\circ}$ C was used as stationary phase. The injection volume was in the
160 range 1–10 μ L. The mobile phase was pumped at a flow rate of 1 mL/min and consisted of

161 acetonitrile (solvent A), methanol (solvent A) and ethyl acetate (solvent C). The linear gradient
162 elution was: 0 min, 85% A + 15% B; 5 min, 60% A + 20% B + 20% C; 7 min, 60% A + 20%
163 B + 20% C; 9 min, 85% A + 15% B; 12 min, 85% A + 15%B. The open labChem Station
164 software was used (Stinco, Benítez-González, Hernanz, Vicario, & Meléndez-Martínez, 2014).

165 **2.4. Analysis of powders by scanning electron microscopy**

166 Scanning electron microscopy was used in order to study the effect of the UAE on the
167 microstructure of the powder. Micrographs before and after the extraction processes were
168 obtained for morphological characterization. Three samples (non-extracted powder, powder
169 after UAE and a control, specifically a powder that was only mixed with the solvent at the same
170 time/temperature used during the UAE) were collected and dried until constant mass in an oven
171 at 40 °C before SEM analysis. The sample particles were fixed on a specific carbon film support
172 and coated with gold for 10 min in a SCANCOAT Six SEM sputter coater (Edwards, Crawley,
173 England). The shape and surface features were observed by using a secondary electron detector,
174 and the images were taken with a scanning electron microscope (JEOL JSM-6460LV, USA) at
175 25 kV.

176 **2.5. Assessment of the *in vitro* antioxidant activity by the DPPH assay**

177 The *in vitro* antioxidant activity using 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) as a free
178 radical was measured according to the method of Brand-Williams, Cuvelier & Berset (1995).
179 Different concentrations were prepared (2-8.63 µg/mL) and tested to determine the amount of
180 TCC that reduces 50% of the initial DPPH concentration (IC₅₀). The results were expressed as
181 the percentage of inhibition of DPPH radical (% DPPH inhibition) calculated according to the
182 following equation:

$$183 \quad \%DPPH \text{ inhibition} = \frac{Abs \text{ control} - Abs \text{ sample}}{Abs \text{ control}} \times 100(2)$$

184 Where *Abs control* is the absorbance of the DPPH radical + extraction solvent and *Abs sample*
185 is the absorbance of DPPH radical + sample extract. For comparison, the β -carotene and Trolox
186 radical standards were also tested at different concentrations from (0.01 to 0.4 mg/mL) and (50
187 to 250 μ g/mL), respectively.

188

189 **2.6. Mineral elements analysis**

190 The mineral elements composition of cantaloupe peels were determined using a Horiba Jobin-Yvon
191 Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES) model LAST 2 instrument
192 (Longjumeau, France), which is among the most appropriate instrumental techniques for determination
193 of minerals. About 0.4 g of the lyophilized material received in the Microanalysis Service was weighed,
194 with an accuracy of 0.1 mg on a precision balance (Sartorius AG Gottingen, CP124S). Then the sample
195 has been digested by using a Digiprep Jr digester of 24 positions (SCP Science, Baie-D'Urfe,
196 Canada). The reagent volumes used for these digestions were 6 ml of concentrated HNO₃ (Plasma Pure
197 quality, SCP SCIENCE) and 2 ml of concentrated H₂O₂ (Suprapure quality, Merck). Once the treatments
198 were completed, the samples were made up to mark with ultrapure quality water in 25 ml. The
199 temperature program was: Step 1, 60 min, 115°C; Step 2, 120 min, 115°C. The wavelengths used for
200 the measurement of each element were: 317.933 nm for Ca (ionic), 324.754 nm for Cu (atomic), 259.940
201 nm for Fe (ionic), 766.490 nm for K (atomic), 279.553 nm for Mg (ionic), 257.610 nm for Mn (ionic),
202 589.592 nm for Na (atomic), 178.229 nm for P (atomic), and 213.856 nm for Zn (atomic). The detection
203 limits used for the quantification, were as follow: Ca and Na: 0.005 mg/kg; Fe, Mg, Mn and Zn: 0.001
204 mg/kg; Cu and P: 0.002 mg/kg; and K: 0.012 mg/kg.

205 To ensure the accuracy of the results, all the calibration lines had an RSD less than or equal to
206 0.99%, and they were built with a minimum of 5 points at the corresponding wavelength of
207 emission of each element. After calibrating, a standard was analyzed between ten samples and
208 at the beginning and at the end of each sequence to ensure that its values were between +/- 10%
209 of the theoretical value. Also, all the values of the measurements were within the calibration

210 range. In parallel to the preparation of the sample, a blank without sample was also digested,
211 only with the reagents used in the digestion, to verify the absence of signal in each analyte due
212 to the preparation procedure. Finally, in each sample matrix a recovery tests was made to check
213 the absence of interferences and for which the values of the recovery were between 85-115%.

214

215 **2.6.Statistical Analysis**

216 All experiments were performed in triplicate and the presented results are means \pm standard
217 deviation. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's post hoc test was used to evaluate the
218 influence of each factor on the TCC yield in the single-factor experiment for the UAE at 95%
219 confidence level. Data obtained from CCD was statistically analyzed using ANOVA for the
220 response variable in order to test the model significance and suitability. $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$
221 were taken as significant and highly significant level, respectively. To construct the CCD and
222 to analyze all the results, the JMP software (Version 10.0, SAS, USA) was used.

223

224 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

225 **3.1. Optimization of the carotenoid extraction**

226 In this study, four independent variables at three levels were selected for the optimization
227 of carotenoids extraction using the CCD approach. The complete experimental planning for
228 CCD parameters in coded values consisted of 30 experimental combinations in random order
229 with six replicates at the center point, in order to avoid possible artificial systematic effects
230 (Tian, Zeng, Xu, Zheng, Lin, Gan & Lo, 2012). The repetitions at the center point are necessary
231 for the estimation of pure error associated with them. ANOVA was employed to estimate the
232 statistical significance of the factors and their interactions.

233 **3.2. Regression models for carotenoids extraction yield**

234 The experimental data were fitted to the polynomial regression and the predicted model
235 addressed to the data could be expressed, in terms of coded values, neglecting the non-
236 significant terms ($p > 0.05$), in Eq. (3) .

$$237 \quad Y(TCC) = 107.34 - 2.23X_2 + 7.02X_4 + 7.90X_1X_3 - 7.42X_2X_3 - 4.97X_2X_4 - 8.19X_1^2 - 10.23X_4^2 \quad (3)$$

238 This equation describes an empirical relationship between the response and the tested variables
239 for UAE. The regression analysis showed that some of the linear factors and the interactions
240 among the factors had an effect on carotenoids extraction. The positive and negative
241 coefficients of the factors show how the response changes with regard to these variables. Based
242 on the regression coefficients, it can be seen in Eq. (3) that linear term of hexane percentage in
243 hexane/acetone solvent mixture (X_1) and the ultrasound (US) amplitude (X_3) did not influence
244 the extraction yield but its interaction did. The solvent-to-solid ratio (X_4) had significant
245 influence and its quadratic term had the largest negative effects on the extraction yield. It can
246 be concluded that, at a confidence level of 95%, the proposed models showed accuracy and
247 good fit, as the value of the coefficient of determination (R^2) was higher than 0.95 which
248 indicates an important agreement between the observed and the predicted model values. The
249 adjusted coefficient of determination (R_{adj}^2), which verified the adequacy of the model had a
250 value higher than 0.90. In addition, the significance of the model was confirmed by a p -value $<$
251 0.05. Furthermore, no significance of lacks of fit $p > 0.05$ ($p = 0.37$) also strengthened the
252 reliability of the model.

253 **3.3. Effects of extraction conditions on the extraction yield**

254 *3.3.1. Effect of solvent*

255 The combination of polar solvents with typical non-polar (hexane) solvents for lipid-
256 soluble compounds extraction seems to enhance the solubilization of the non-polar carotenoids
257 (β -carotene), whereas individual polar solvents (ethanol and acetone) are thought to enhance

258 the solubilization of the polar ones like lutein (Strati & Oreopoulou, 2011). Table 1 shows the
259 results of the single-factor experiments carried out for preliminary optimization of UAE. At the
260 beginning of this study, the effect of the solvent mixture type was investigated in order to obtain
261 higher extraction yields. Hexane/acetone (1/1, v/v), hexane/ethanol (1/1, v/v) and
262 hexane/acetone/ethanol (2/1/1, v/v/v) mixtures were investigated. Table 1 shows that for UAE
263 method, the hexane/acetone mixture gave higher extraction yield followed by
264 hexane/acetone/ethanol and hexane/ethanol mixture.

265 In general, for UAE, the recovery of the extracted compounds is mainly attributed to the
266 acoustic cavitation phenomenon, which is thought to be enhanced when solvents with low vapor
267 pressures or solvents with low viscosity are used (Tsiaka, Zoumpoulakis, Sinanoglou, Makris,
268 Heropoulos & Calokerinos, 2015).

269 Table 1 show that the solvent mixtures containing acetone gave slightly higher extraction yield.
270 Since acetone has a higher vapor pressure, it was expected that the extraction yield with
271 hexane/acetone would have been lower compared to that of the hexane/acetone/ethanol and
272 hexane/ethanol mixture solvents. A probable reason for the higher yield in case of
273 hexane/acetone could be the polarity and the lower viscosity of acetone. Indeed, the polarity of
274 the solvents lead to the increase of the permeability of the cell wall, and their lower viscosity
275 help create an acoustic cavitation (Tsiaka, Zoumpoulakis, Sinanoglou, Makris, Heropoulos &
276 Calokerinos, 2015). For UAE, the non-polar solvent hexane was chosen as a component of the
277 mixture of solvents, which can help prevent degradation of heat-sensitive components and
278 solubilize non-polar compounds (Hiranvarachat & Devahastin, 2014). The mixture of
279 hexane/acetone, with the physicochemical properties mentioned above, provides optimum
280 extraction yields and was so selected as the solvent for the RSM trials. Similar solvents systems
281 were used by Strati & Oreopoulou (2001), who reported that the acetone/hexane mixture was
282 more efficient than the ethanol/hexane mixture in extracting carotenoids from tomato waste.

283 On the other hand, Lin & Chen (2003) demonstrated that the hexane/acetone mixture was more
284 efficient than hexane/ethanol and hexane/acetone/ethanol mixtures in the extraction of lutein
285 from tomato juice.

286 3.3.2. *Effect of solvent composition*

287 In order to visualize the response and experimental levels of each factor and to deduce
288 the optimal conditions, the regression coefficients were used and the fitted polynomial
289 equations were presented as surface plots (Figure 1). As it is shown in Figure 1a, the TCC yield
290 initially increased with increasing proportions of hexane in the hexane/acetone solvent mixture
291 and finally decreased at the highest concentration. The maximum TCC yield was obtained with
292 a mixture of hexane/acetone of 80:20 (v/v). Strati & Orepoulou (2001) also demonstrated that
293 TCC yield from tomato waste increased with increasing of hexane percentage in the
294 hexane/ethyl acetate solvent mixture up to 50% (v/v) and then decreased for higher
295 concentrations. On the other hand, Poojary & Passamonti (2015) obtained a higher recovery of
296 lycopene with a high concentration of hexane in hexane/acetone system (75/25, v/v).

297 3.3.3. *Effect of extraction time*

298 Figure 1a shows the 3D surface plots of the effect of extraction time on extraction yield
299 for UAE. Indeed, an increase in extraction time caused a negative effect on the extraction yield
300 and the higher extraction yield was accomplished at the lower extraction time (10 min). This
301 phenomenon might be due to a possible oxidative degradation caused by the prolonged US
302 treatment (Tsiaka, Zoumpoulakis, Sinanoglou, Makris, Heropoulos, & Calokerinos, 2015).
303 Higher carotenoids content was also obtained at a shorter time (from 10 to 15 min) by Singh,
304 Barrow, Mathur, Tuli, & Puri (2015) when extracting them from the microalga *Chlorella*
305 *saccharophila*.

306 3.3.4. *Effect of amplitude*

307 Figure 1b shows the effect of amplitude on the response and its interaction with
308 extraction time. The result shows that when the amplitude is fixed at a minimum, increases in
309 time parameter result in significant increase in carotenoids yield; and when the time is set at
310 minimum, the increase in the amplitude parameter result in significant increases in the response.
311 The surface plots showed that the maximum TCC was achieved with the upper extreme
312 operational power used in this study, which was 100%. The increasing extraction of total
313 carotenoids with stronger ultrasonic intensity transmitted to the medium can be explained at
314 least in part by the greater number of cavitation micro-bubbles, which facilitate the disruption
315 of tissue cell walls and accelerate the diffusion of carotenoids into the medium (Ordonez-
316 Santos, Pinzon-Zarate, & Gonzalez-Salcedo, 2015; Tsiaka, Zoumpoulakis, Sinanoglou,
317 Makris, Heropoulos, & Calokerinos, 2015). Yolmeh, Habibi Najafi, & Farhoosh (2014) have
318 also reported that the increase in the extraction of carotenoids from peach palm fruit, annatto
319 seeds and red grapefruit is influenced by increasing ultrasonic intensity.

320 3.3.5. *Effect of solvent-to-solid ratio*

321 Figure 1c shows the 3D surface plots of the ratio effect on extraction yield. It was observed
322 that the yield increased with the increase of the solvent-to-solid ratio. One of the main reasons
323 of this effect could be that higher solvent-to-solid ratio could cause greater concentration
324 differences between phases which accelerated mass transfer and facilitated the carotenoids
325 diffusion into the medium (Tsiaka, Zoumpoulakis, Sinanoglou, Makris, Heropoulos, &
326 Calokerinos, 2015). However, after the mass transfer process reached its maximum, further
327 increases of solvent-to-solid ratio prolonged the distance of diffusion from solvent to the matrix
328 and reduced the carotenoids extraction, thus indicating that there was no additional advantage
329 of increasing the solvent-to-solid ratio above 55 mL/g. This phenomenon was also observed by
330 Singh et al. (2015) who found that a higher ratio of solvent to raw material leads to the decrease
331 of the yield of ultrasonic extraction of β -carotene and zeaxanthin from *Chlorella saccharophila*.

332 **3.4. Model validation and efficiency of the UAE optimisation**

333 Under the operating conditions, the predicted carotenoids yield was about 121.3 $\mu\text{g/g}$,
334 while the experimental yield obtained in the extraction procedure was $124.61 \pm 3.82 \mu\text{g/g}$. No
335 significant difference was observed between the theoretical and experimental responses. The
336 results obtained by RSM optimization verified that the models of UAE process are valid and
337 adequate for carotenoids extraction. The concentration of $73 \pm 1.39 \mu\text{g/mL}$ represented the total
338 carotenoids yield obtained during 2 hours of conventional extraction carried out with the aid of
339 a stirring plate, with equivalent conditions used for UAE (in terms of solvent, solvent
340 concentration, temperature and ratio) and a consumption energy of $4.536 \times 10^6 \text{ J}$. Ultrasound
341 with a reduced time (10 min), led to a higher yield ($124.61 \pm 3.82 \mu\text{g/g}$) and a lower
342 consumption energy ($2.999 \times 10^6 \text{ J}$). Some carotenoid-rich food products are pepper (with
343 reported values of $988 \mu\text{g/g}_{\text{dw}}$) (Navarro, Flores, Garrido, & Martinez, 2006), tomato peel (with
344 reported values of $793.2 \mu\text{g/g}_{\text{dw}}$) (Knoblich, Anderson, & Latshaw, 2005) and carrot (with
345 reported values of $239 \mu\text{g/g}_{\text{dw}}$) (Sharma, Karki, Thakur, & Attri, 2010), although of course, it
346 is to be taken into account that the carotenoid levels depend of many several factors. Cantaloupe
347 waste with a concentration of $124.61 \pm 3.82 \mu\text{g/g}_{\text{dw}}$ occupies also an important place compared
348 to other sources used in the industry such as avocado peel ($15.2 \mu\text{g/g}_{\text{dw}}$), guava ($138 \mu\text{g/g}_{\text{dw}}$)
349 (Ayala-Zavala, Vega-Vega, Rosas-Domínguez, Palafox-Carlos, Villa-Rodriguez, Wasim
350 Siddiqui, Dávila-Aviña, & González-Aguilar, 2011) and lemon peel ($110 \mu\text{g/g}_{\text{dw}}$) (Wang,
351 Chuang, & Hsu, 2008). In addition to the important carotenoids yield of cantaloupe waste,
352 optimizing the extraction of these compounds by ultrasound makes the technique more cost-
353 effective by saving time and energy.

354 **3.5. RRLC-DAD analysis**

355 Table 2 shows the concentration of total and individual carotenoids identified. The
356 RRLC profile and chromatograms in Figure 2, shows that three main carotenoids (lutein, β -

357 carotene, and violaxanthin) are present in the cantaloupe peels analyzed. These compounds
358 have also been reported by Laur, & Tian (2011) in cantaloupe fruit tissue. Quantitatively, dried
359 cantaloupe peels were characterized by a higher content of lutein ($63.24 \pm 0.73 \mu\text{g/g}$), followed
360 by β -carotene ($56.43 \pm 0.11 \mu\text{g/g}$), with traces of violaxanthin. These carotenoids were
361 previously reported in cantaloupe fruit with a proportion of 87% for β -carotene, 1% for lutein,
362 and 9% for violaxanthin and neoxanthin (Sommerburg, Keunen, Bird, & van Kuijk, 1998). β -
363 carotene and lutein are among the natural colorants authorized to be used in the food industry
364 (Martins & Ferreira, 2017). They are also thought to contribute to some health benefits. More
365 specifically, lutein is attracting much attention for its possible role in eye and brain health
366 together with zeaxanthin (Johnson, 2014). Interestingly, it appears that in years to come there
367 will be values similar to Dietary Reference Intakes (DRIs) for non-essential health-promoting
368 bioactive compounds, lutein being one of this class of molecules for which such
369 recommendations could be established sooner (Ranard, Jeon, Mohn, Griffiths, Johnson, &
370 Erdan, 2017).

371 **3.6. Assessment of structural changes by SEM**

372 Figure 3 shows the micrographs of non-extracted powder, extracted powder by the UAE
373 and a powder that was only mixed with the solvent at the same time/temperature used during
374 the UAE as a control. Unlike the untreated powder that is intact, it is clearly observed that UAE
375 caused noticeable changes in the integrity of the matrix that facilitated the release of cellular
376 components. This could be attributed to a disruption of the wall cells via cavitation phenomenon
377 (Kong, Zu, Fu, Liu, Chang & Gu, 2010). Indeed, excluding the use of ultrasound, the solvent
378 used solubilizes also certain amount of matrix compounds, which is indicated by the observed
379 alteration of the microstructure of the matrix. However, this alteration is not very pronounced
380 compared to that caused by ultrasound which causes marked perforations on the structure,
381 changes that are not readily observed when the solvent is used alone. The cavitation

382 phenomenon produces enough energy to favor collisions among plant cell constituents (Mason,
383 Chemat, & Vinatoru, 2011). The ultrasound treatment can generate pores and micro-fractures,
384 which facilitate the diffusion of solvents inside the cell and the release of solutes outside the
385 structures that contain them (Kyriakopoulou, Papadaki & Krokida, 2015). Indeed, ultrasound
386 is considered to greatly affect the structure of the plant material by a sponge effect (Carcel
387 Carrión, García Pérez, Benedito Fort, & Mulet Pons, 2012; Nowacka, & Wedzik, 2015).
388 Concerning the facilitation of the diffusion process, ultrasound is thought to do it through the
389 disruption of the solvent layer around the matrix, which is mainly formed by the solvents and
390 cellulose from the cell wall (Mason, Chemat, & Vinatoru, 2011). The cavitation produced leads
391 to the formation of bubbles on the cell surface that release vapor leading to the bursting of the
392 cell walls (Ordóñez-Santos, Pinzón-Zarate, & González-Salcedo, 2015; Teng, Chen, Huang,
393 Wang, Lin, Liu, Lee, & Song, 2016).

394 **3.7. Antioxidant Activity**

395 Figure 4 shows the decrease of the DPPH radical as a function of the different
396 concentrations of carotenoid extracts. Regarding the antiradical dose, the percentage of DPPH
397 radical disappearance increases from 6.7 to 60.5% by increasing the concentration of
398 carotenoids from 2 to 8.63 µg/mL. The concentration needed to reduce the DPPH radical by
399 50% (IC₅₀) was 7.33 ± 0.22 µg/mL. This concentration is low and it is lower than that of β-
400 carotene and Trolox standards (350 ± 1.00 and 102.34 ± 5.79 µg/mL, respectively) indicating
401 the effective elimination of DPPH by carotenoids extracted from cantaloupe waste and their
402 strong activity against this radical. In addition, the IC₅₀ value of carotenoids extract is lower
403 than that of Trolox (13 µg/ml) and lutein (35 µg/mL) found by Sindhu, Peethi, & Kuttan (2010).

404 High correlation has been reported between lutein and DPPH assay (Ingkasupart,
405 Mandchai, Tae & Hwa, 2015). The scavenging ability of carotenoids is thought to be mainly
406 affected by their structural features, like the number and arrangement of conjugated double

407 bonds and the presence of certain chemical groups (Jiménez-Escrig, Jiménez-Jiménez,
408 Sánchez-Moreno & Saura-Calixto, 2000; Martins & Ferreira, 2017; Tan, Xue, Abbas, Feng,
409 Zhang & Xia, 2014). Due to their *in vitro* antioxidant capacity, it appears interesting to assess
410 the utility of cantaloupe peel extracts as ingredients of cosmetic products (total screen) intended
411 for the protection of the skin against external aggressions triggered by oxidative species or as
412 antioxidants to preserve and extend the shelf life of cosmetic (Martins & Ferreira, 2017). Of
413 course, such extracts would also be interesting for the food industry not only to protect products
414 from oxidation, but also to impart colour, fortify them with the provitamin A carotenoid β -
415 carotene or for the development of health-promoting products.

416 **3.8. Mineral composition**

417 The mineral composition of dried cantaloupe waste is shown in Table 3. The minerals
418 levels of the fruit *Cucumis melo* are influenced by several parameters namely, salt composition
419 of the cultivated soils, the collection period and the ripening phase (Del Amor, Martinez &
420 Cerda, 1999). The results indicated that cantaloupe waste contained a higher concentration of
421 K (24491.68 ± 710.26 mg/kg) and Ca (8260.17 ± 35.52 mg/kg). Also, there was no statistically
422 difference between Mg (4904.11 ± 78.47 mg/kg), P (4811.69 ± 101.53 mg/kg) and Na (4470.89
423 ± 79.14 mg/kg) levels. Del Amor, Martinez & Cerda (1999) and Botía, Carvajal, Cerdá &
424 Martínez (1998) found a similar mineral composition in other *Cucumis melo* cultivars. In
425 addition to K, Ca, Mg, P, and Na, low levels of Fe (26.28 ± 0.4 mg/kg), Zn (17.16 ± 0.52
426 mg/kg), Mn (7.51 ± 0.11 mg/kg) and Cu (4.56 ± 0.4 mg/kg) were found (Botía, Carvajal, Cerdá
427 & Martínez, 1998). Minerals are involved in different key biological actions and are essential
428 nutrients that our organism can not synthesize, so they must be acquired from foods or other
429 products. Some minerals are cofactors of enzymes involved in the antioxidant reactions of the
430 endogenous system such as superoxide dismutase which involves Mn, Cu and Zn; catalase
431 using Fe and glutathione peroxidase using Se (Boudries, Souagui, Nabet, Ydjedd, Kefalas,

432 Madani, & Chibane, 2015). The major mineral of cantaloupe peel analyzed was potassium. This
433 element is one of the three electrolytes that circulate in the blood vessels along with sodium and
434 chlorine and the most important ion of the cell cytoplasm (Mulkidjanian, Bychkov, Dibrova,
435 Galperin, & Koonin, 2012). Potassium is the principal compound of membrane transporters,
436 namely sodium/potassium and hydrogen potassium pumps (Clausen, Hilbers, & Poulsen, 2017;
437 El Mernissi, & Doucet, 1984). The first one plays a very important role in the nerve conduction
438 and absorption of nutrients such as glucose (Clausen, Hilbers, & Poulsen, 2017) and the second
439 one is involved in the digestive tract in the stomach, it is responsible for the gastric acidity
440 essential to the digestion of food and the protection of the stomach and intestine from
441 pathogenic bacteria (Beasley, Koltz, Lambert, Fierer, & Dunn, 2015).

442 **4. CONCLUSION**

443 The UAE method was effective for carotenoids extraction from cantaloupe waste
444 allowing for higher recovery yield. The RRLC analysis revealed the predominance of lutein
445 and β -carotene in the extracts obtained, which exhibited *in vitro* antioxidant capacity as assessed
446 by the DPPH method. The waste also proved to be a good source of several minerals elements.
447 In summary, it can be concluded that waste from cantaloupe fruit can be used to obtain a series
448 of health-promoting compounds that have multiple uses in the food, pharmaceutical and
449 cosmetic industries.

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653

654

655 **Figure captions**

656 **Figure 1.** Response surface plots of UAEof carotenoids. Hexane/acetone was the extraction
657 solvent and hexane percentage with time (a), power with time (b) and hexane percentage with
658 ratio (c) were the interaction effects.

659 **Figure 2.** Scanning electron microscope images of cantaloupe waste powder before (A), after
660 extraction by ultrasound assisted extraction(B) and control (powder treated only withextraction
661 solvent) (C)

662 **Figure 3.** Identification of selected individual carotenoids at 450 nm using a RRLC-DAD
663 system. Carotenoids identified were violaxanthin (1), lutein (2) and β -carotene (3).

664 **Figure 4:** DPPH radical scavenging activity of UAE extract from waste cantaloupe

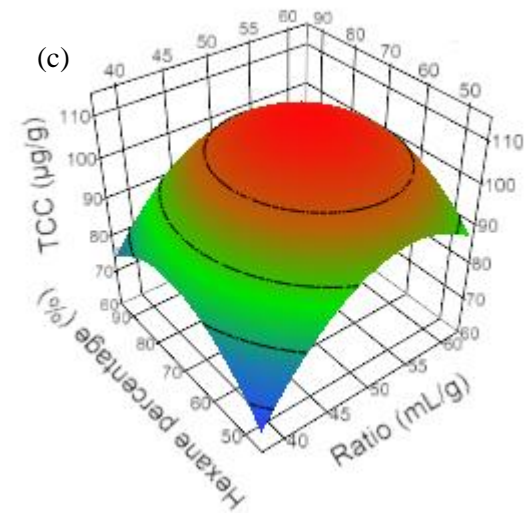
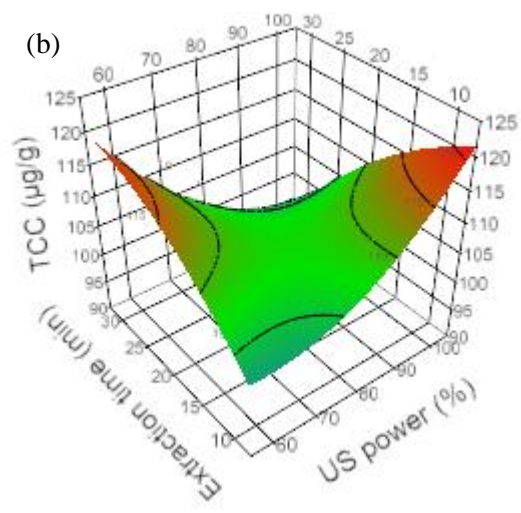
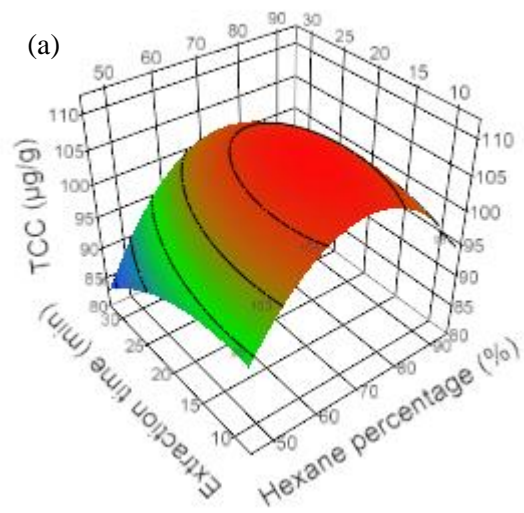


Fig. 1

Table 1. Results of single-factors experiments of ultrasound assisted extraction.

Solvent		Hexane/acetone fraction		Sonication time		Amplitude radiation		Solvent-to-solid ratio	
Type	TCC yield ($\mu\text{g}_{\beta\text{CE}}/\text{g}_{\text{dw}}$)	(%, v/v)	TCC yield ($\mu\text{g}_{\beta\text{CE}}/\text{g}_{\text{dw}}$)	(min)	TCC yield ($\mu\text{g}_{\beta\text{CE}}/\text{g}_{\text{dw}}$)	(%)	TCC yield ($\mu\text{g}_{\beta\text{CE}}/\text{g}_{\text{dw}}$)	(mL/g)	TCC yield ($\mu\text{g}_{\beta\text{CE}}/\text{g}_{\text{dw}}$)
H/E (50/50, v/v)	$78.46 \pm 1.50^{\text{c}}$	50/50	$101.44 \pm 4.84^{\text{b}}$	10	$111.40 \pm 0.25^{\text{ab}}$	20	$89.09 \pm 3.49^{\text{d}}$	30	$126.41 \pm 0.89^{\text{ab}}$
H/A (50/50, v/v)	$107.74 \pm 2.42^{\text{a}}$	70/30	$111.22 \pm 1.59^{\text{a}}$	20	$112.46 \pm 1.21^{\text{a}}$	40	$105.64 \pm 0.26^{\text{c}}$	40	$127.78 \pm 1.09^{\text{a}}$
H/A/E (50/25/25, v/v)	$87.10 \pm 0.56^{\text{b}}$	90/10	$104.61 \pm 3.44^{\text{ab}}$	30	$110.18 \pm 0.76^{\text{b}}$	60	$112.72 \pm 0.4^{\text{b}}$	50	$128.08 \pm 1.42^{\text{a}}$
				40	$105.27 \pm 0.37^{\text{c}}$	80	$125.92 \pm 0.4^{\text{a}}$	60	$124.31 \pm 0.54^{\text{b}}$
						100	$116.92 \pm 0.4^{\text{b}}$		

H/A: hexane/acetone; **H/E:** hexane/ethanol; **H/A/E:** hexane/acetone/ethanol.

**Results are reported as means \pm S.D. Same letters in the same column refer to means not statistically different according to ANOVA and Tukey's test. TCC, total carotenoids yield referred to dry weight (dw) of Cucumis melo peels; βCE , β -carotene equivalents.*

Table 2. Total carotenoids and separated carotenoids from dried cantaloupe waste extracted with different methods using the ultrasound-assisted extraction.

Extraction methods	Carotenoids yield ($\mu\text{g}_{\beta\text{CE}}/\text{g}_{\text{dw}}$)			RRLC identified carotenoids ($\mu\text{g}_{\beta\text{CE}}/\text{g}_{\text{dw}}$)			
	Predicted values (RSM)	UV-Vis	RRLC-DAD	lutein	β -carotene	violaxanthin	β -cryptoxanthin
UAE	121.30 ± 7.00	124.61 ± 3.82^a	119.67 ± 0.71^a	63.24 ± 0.73^a	56.43 ± 0.11^a	traces	nd

UAE: Ultrasound Assisted Extraction; **nd:** not detected.

**Results are reported as means \pm S.D. Values with different letters ($a < b < c$) differ significantly ($p < 0.05$) according to ANOVA and tukey's test. βCE , β -carotene equivalents.*

Table 3. Mineral composition of cantaloupe waste

Minerals	Concentration (mg/kg)
Ca	8260.16± 35.51 ^b
Cu	4.56± 0.09 ^d
Fe	26.28± 0.43 ^d
K	24491.68± 710.25 ^a
Mg	4904.11± 78.46 ^c
Mn	7.50 ± 0.10 ^d
Na	4470.88 ± 79.13 ^c
P	4811.69 ± 101.52 ^c
Zn	17.15± 0.51 ^d

*Mineral concentration was expressed as mg of mineral salt per Kg of dried cantaloupe waste
Values with different letters (a < b < c < d) differ significantly (p< 005) according to ANOVA and tukey's test.*