

Chapter 7

The Application of Supercritical Carbon Dioxide in the Extraction of Biomolecules



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Abbreviations

BIC	Broken and intact cell
GRAS	“Generally recognized green solvent”
HBD	Hot ball diffusion
LM	Logistic model
ORAC	Oxygen radical absorbance capacity
RSM	Response surface methodology
SC	Shrinking core
SC-CO ₂	Supercritical carbon dioxide
SF	Supercritical fluid

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7.1 Introduction

The development of green extraction processes is aimed at reducing the use of organic solvents and the energy consumption through reduced reaction and processing times that will produce safe products of good quality and purity (Chemat et al. 2019). Chemat et al. (2019) have described the six principles for identifying the green extraction process (Chemat et al. 2012) and developed accordingly the good practices guidelines for each of these principles. The principles described by Chemat et al. (2012, 2019) are (1) “innovation by selection of varieties and use of renewable plant resources”, (2) “use of alternative solvents and principally water or agro-solvents”, (3) “reduction of energy consumption by energy recovery and using innovative technologies”, (4) “production of co-products instead of waste towards bio-refinery concepts”, (5) “reduction of unit operations number and development of safe, robust and controlled processes” and (6) “aim for green extract with green values and non-denatured and biodegradable extract without contaminants”. The application of supercritical carbon dioxide (SC-CO₂), a “generally recognized green solvent” (GRAS) (Rovetto and Aieta 2017; Chemat et al. 2019), for the use of the extraction of biomolecules fulfils the requirements under principle 2 and is the most common used green solvent for supercritical fluid (SF) extractions (Stuart et al. 1996; Lang and Wai 2001; Rovetto and Aieta 2017). This is also evident from the numerous review articles published in the past 20 years on the use of SFs, which have provided numerous reports on the SC-CO₂ extraction applications (Table 7.1). This phenomena is attributed to the properties of the carbon dioxide as being non-flammable, non-toxic, cheap and non-corrosive (Lang and Wai 2001; Huang et al. 2012) with the SC-CO₂ extraction process being highly selective, obtaining solvent free products with no development of co-products (Knez et al. 2019). Extracts obtained from a SF extraction have been commonly found to be of greater quality when compared to other methods (Fornari et al. 2012a). A wide array of published reviews discuss the supercritical extraction of bioactives (Table 7.1), which are essentially biomolecules possessing specific biological activities or functions (Fig. 7.1) with a great range of applications in industry (da Silva et al. 2016). De Melo et al. (2014) have described reported SF extractions from vegetable matrices of about 600 essays for the period 2000–2013, including modelling, operating conditions, scale-up and an economic assessment. A review by Khaw et al. published in 2017 focusses on SF extraction of bioactives from different natural sources. The review, including other green extraction methods, provides insights on the SC-CO₂ extraction of bioactives and operating conditions from about 40 plant species. A summary of the reported SC-CO₂ extraction parameters of bioactives, among other newer methods such as “subcritical water extraction”, “ultrasound-assisted extraction” and “microwave-assisted extraction”, specifically from marine macroalgae was reported by Cikoš et al. (2018). Gallego et al. (2019) have described reported bioactives extracted by subcritical and supercritical fluid extraction from various plant sources, seaweeds, microalgae and food by-products for the period from 2015 to 2019. Previously, Herrero et al. (2015) published a review on the same theme for the period 2006–2014. The bioactives extracted from these sources using

Table 7.1 Published reviews on the use of supercritical fluids for the extraction of biomolecules

Title of the review	References
Analytical supercritical fluid extraction of natural products	Modey et al. (1996)
Compounds of agricultural significance using environmental analytical supercritical fluid extraction	Stuart et al. (1996)
Natural extracts using supercritical carbon dioxide	Mukhopadhyay (2000)
Supercritical fluid extraction in herbal and natural product studies	Lang and Wai (2001)
Supercritical extraction from solid: Process design data (2001–2003)	Meireles (2003)
Supercritical fluid extraction and fractionation of natural matter	Reverchon and De Marco (2006)
Comparative assessment of technologies for extraction of artemisinin	Lapkin et al. (2006)
Supercritical fluid extraction in plant essential and volatile oil analysis	Pourmortazavi and Hajimirsadeghi (2007)
Supercritical fluid extraction of bioactive compounds: Fundamentals, applications and economic perspectives	Pereira and Meireles (2010)
Isolation of essential oil from different plants and herbs by supercritical fluid extraction	Fornari et al. (2012a)
Principles of supercritical fluid extraction and applications in the food, beverage and nutraceutical industries	Knez et al. (2013)
Supercritical fluid extraction of vegetable matrices: Applications, trends and future perspectives of a convincing green technology	De Melo et al. (2014)
Essential oils: Extraction, bioactivities, and their uses for food preservation	Tongnuanchan and Benjakul (2014)
Supercritical carbon dioxide extraction of carotenoids from pumpkin (<i>Cucurbita</i> spp.)	Durante et al. (2014)
Extraction of triacylglycerols and fatty acids using supercritical fluids—Review	Martínez and de Aguiar (2014)
Plants, seaweeds, microalgae and food by-products as natural sources of functional ingredients obtained using pressurized liquid extraction and supercritical fluid extraction	Herrero et al. (2015)
Supercritical fluid extraction of bioactive compounds	Da Silva et al. (2016)
Supercritical fluid extraction of bioactive compounds from plant materials	Wrona et al. (2017)
Plant growth biostimulants, dietary feed supplements and cosmetics formulated with supercritical CO ₂ algal extracts	Michalak et al. (2017)
Solvent supercritical fluid technologies to extract bioactive compounds from natural sources: A review	Khaw et al. (2017)
Overview on the application of modern methods for the extraction of bioactive compounds from marine macroalgae	Cikoš et al. (2018)
Recent applications of on-line supercritical fluid extraction coupled to advanced analytical techniques for compounds extraction and identification	Sánchez-Camargo et al. (2019)
Are supercritical fluids solvents for the future?	Knez et al. (2019)
Supercritical fluid extraction of essential oils	Yousefi et al. (2019)
Sub- and supercritical fluid extraction of bioactive compounds from plants, food-by-products, seaweeds and microalgae—An update	Gallego et al. (2019)
Green extraction techniques in green analytical chemistry	Armenta et al. (2019)

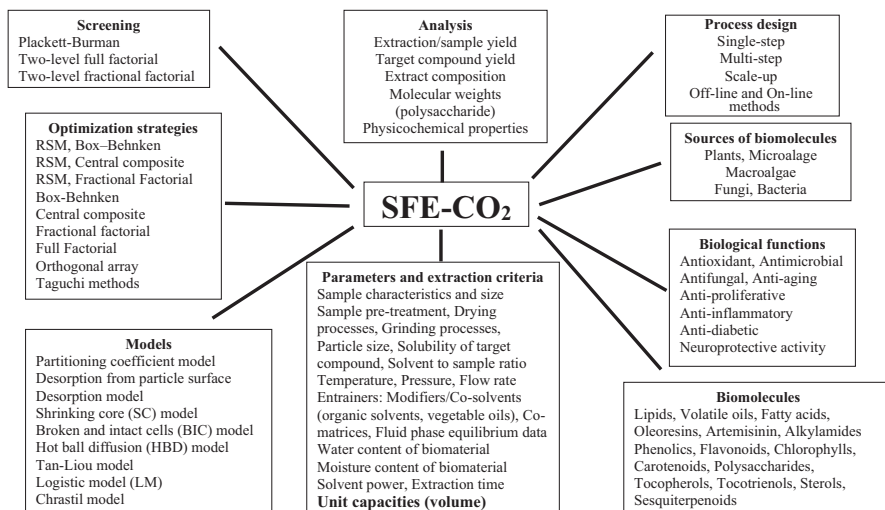


Fig. 7.1 Overview of the supercritical carbon dioxide (SF-CO₂) extraction process of biomolecules (Grosso et al. 2010; Sovová 2012; Huang et al. 2012; da Silva et al. 2016; Shukla et al. 2019; Yousefi et al. 2019)

specifically SC-CO₂, with or without co-solvents, include carotenoids, anthocyanins, phenolic compounds, polyphenolics, sesquiterpenes, antioxidant compounds, polyphenols, monoterpenes, vitamin E, cannabinoids, non-polar flavonoids, lycopene, piperine, tetrahydrocannabinol, colchicine, tocols, tocopherols, polar and non-polar lipids, oils, essential oils, oleanolic acids, ursolic acids, fatty acids, chlorophyll A, ergosterol, fucosterol, fucoxanthin and triacylglycerides (Gallego et al. 2019). Michalak et al. (2017) have presented a summary of reported biologically active compounds (fucoxanthin, beta-carotene, carotenoids, astaxanthin, canthaxanthin, chlorophyll, polyphenols, fatty acids, lipids, oil, auxins, cytokinins, micro- and macro-elements) that have been obtained via SC-CO₂ extraction from algal biomass. Algae extracts obtained by this method are proposed by Michalak et al. (2017) to be used in cosmetics and dietary feeds and as growth stimulants due to their components being solvent-free. Table 7.3 provides a summary of reported SC-CO₂ extractions of biomolecules discussed in this chapter. The chapter intends to present recent applications of SC-CO₂ extraction of selected biomolecules with potential uses in industry and provides an overview of published reports on this critical area of Green Chemistry.

7.2 Design and Optimization of the Supercritical Carbon Dioxide Extraction Process

In order to ensure high extraction efficiencies and to obtain high quality and purified extractions (Chemat et al. 2019; Yousefi et al. 2019), the design and the optimization strategies are critical. In particular, with SF extractions, the aim is on the reduction

of extraction time, amount of solvent, energy usage, costs, waste produced and the environmental impact (Chemat et al. 2019; Yousefi et al. 2019). Figure 7.1 presents a summary of the various components of the SC-CO₂ extraction process of biomolecules. Understanding the mass transfer mechanisms of the extraction process is imperative for starting the design of the extraction process (Huang et al. 2012) and in choosing the appropriate mathematical model to be applied (Kumhom et al. 2011). The development of mathematical models for the SC-CO₂ extraction process was reported by various research groups (Table 7.2). These models are generally described as the models that are based on “heat transfer analogies”, models based on “differential mass balances”, empirical models and the shrinking core model

Table 7.2 Reported theoretical models for supercritical fluid extraction

Title of the publication	References
Mathematical modeling of sunflower seed extraction by supercritical CO ₂	Perrut et al. (1997)
Mass transfer modelling of apricot kernel oil extraction with supercritical carbon dioxide	Özkal et al. (2005)
Mathematical modelling of supercritical CO ₂ extraction of volatile oils from aromatic plants	Grosso et al. (2010)
Prediction of isoflavone extraction from soybean meal using supercritical carbon dioxide with cosolvents	Kumhom et al. 2011
Theoretical models for supercritical fluid extraction	Huang et al. (2012)
Kinetic study of the supercritical CO ₂ extraction of different plants from the <i>Lamiaceae</i> family	Fornari et al. (2012b)
Modeling the supercritical fluid extraction of essential oils from plant materials	Sovová (2012)
Effects of high water content and drying pre-treatment on supercritical CO ₂ extraction from <i>Dunaliella salina</i> microalgae: Experiments and modelling	Mouahid et al. (2016)
Modeling of the kinetics of supercritical fluid extraction of lipids from microalgae with emphasis on extract desorption	Sovová et al. (2016)
Supercritical carbon dioxide extraction of <i>Calendula officinalis</i> : Kinetic modeling and scaling up study	López-Padilla et al. (2017)
Modeling of the kinetics of supercritical fluid extraction of lipids from microalgae with emphasis on extract desorption	Sovová et al. (2016)
Broken-and-intact cell model for supercritical fluid extraction: Its origin and limits	Sovová (2017)
Supercritical carbon dioxide extraction of pomegranate (<i>Punica granatum</i> L.) seed oil: Kinetic modelling and solubility evaluation	Natolino and Da Porto (2019)
New developments in the modelling of carotenoids extraction from microalgae with supercritical CO ₂	Sovová and Stateva (2019)
Extraction of vetiver (<i>Chrysopogon zizanioides</i>) root oil by supercritical CO ₂ , pressurized-liquid, and ultrasound-assisted methods and modelling of supercritical extraction kinetics	Santos et al. (2019)
Evaluation of the effects of temperature and pressure on the extraction of eugenol from clove (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>) leaves using supercritical CO ₂	Frohlich et al. (2019)

Table 7.3 Reported publications on the supercritical carbon dioxide extraction of biomolecules

Primary source for biomolecule(s)	Target biomolecule(s)	References
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Carotenoids, lipids	Mendes et al. (1995)
<i>Artemisia annua</i> L.	Artemisinin, artemisinic acid	Kohler et al. (1997)
<i>Sargassum hemiphyllum</i> (turn.) C. Ag. J.	Lipids	Cheung et al. (1998)
Red seaweed	<i>n</i> -3 fatty acids	Cheung (1999)
<i>Cunninghamella echinulata</i>	Fungal oil containing γ -linolenic acid	Certik and Horenitzky (1999)
<i>Echinacea angustifolia</i>	Alkylamides	Sun et al. (2002)
<i>Botryococcus braunii</i> <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> <i>Dunaliella salina</i> <i>Arthrospira maxima</i>	Alkadienes Carotenoids β -Carotene γ -Linolenic acid	Mendes et al. (2003)
<i>Foeniculum vulgare</i>	Volatile oil	Coelho et al. (2003)
<i>Artemisia annua</i> L. leaves	Artemisinin	Quispe-Condori et al. (2005)
<i>Artemisia annua</i> L.	Artemisinin	Lin et al. (2006)
<i>Nannochloropsis</i> sp.	Lipids	Andrich et al. (2005)
<i>Artemisia annua</i> L.	Scopoletin, artemisinin	Tzeng et al. (2007)
<i>Blakeslea trispora</i> NRRL 2895 and 2896	Lycopene	Choudhari, Singhal (2008)
<i>Haematococcus pluvialis</i>	Astaxanthin	Krichnavaruk et al. (2008)
Italian coriander seeds	Volatile oil	Grosso et al. (2008)
<i>Santolina chamaecyparissus</i>	Volatile oil	Grosso et al. (2009a)
<i>Satureja montana</i>	Volatile oil (thymoquinone)	Grosso et al. (2009b)
<i>Ampelopsis grossedentata</i> stems	Bioactive compounds	Wang et al. (2011)
Soybean meal	Isoflavone	Kumhom et al. (2011)
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> microalgae	Lipids	Dejoye et al. (2011)
<i>Citrus grandis</i> (L.) Osbeck (pomelo) peel	Flavonoids	He et al. (2012)
<i>Origanum vulgare</i> , <i>Thymus zygis</i> , <i>Salvia officinalis</i> , <i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>	Essential oil	Fornari et al. (2012b)
Tiger nut (<i>Cyperus esculentus</i> L.)	Oil	Lasekan and Abdulkarim (2012)
<i>Cannabis sativa</i> L. (hemp) seed	Seed oil, oxidative stability	Da Porto et al. (2012a)
<i>Cannabis sativa</i> L. (hemp) seed	Seed oil, oxidative stability	Da Porto et al. (2012b)
Grape	Seed oil, polyphenol co-extraction	Rombaut et al. (2014)
<i>Moringa oleifera</i>	Seed oil	Ruttarattanamongkol et al. (2014)
<i>Prunus persica</i> seeds	Oil, phytosterols	Ekinci and Gürü (2014)
<i>Sasa palmata</i> (bamboo) leaves	Phenolics	Zulkaffi et al. (2014)
<i>Tetraselmis</i> sp. (green algae)	Lipids	Li et al. (2014)
<i>Sasa palmata</i> (bamboo) leaves	Phenolic compounds	Zulkaffi et al. 2014
<i>Artemisia sphaerocephala</i> Krasch seeds	Polysaccharides	Chen et al. (2014)
Brazilian plants	Phenolics	Veggi et al. (2014a)
<i>Hymenaea courbaril</i> L. (jatoba)	Phenolic compounds	Veggi et al. (2014b)
<i>Cannabis sativa</i> L. (hemp)	Seed oil	Aladić et al. (2015)
Tiger nuts	Oil, phenolic compounds	Koubaa et al. (2015)
<i>Euterpe oleracea</i> (açai)	Berry oil, fatty acids, phenolics, anthocyanins	De Cássia et al. (2016)
<i>Dunaliella salina</i> microalgae	Carotenoids	Mouahid et al. (2016)

(continued)

Table 7.3 (continued)

Primary source for biomolecule(s)	Target biomolecule(s)	References
Sunflower seed	Oil	Rai et al. (2016)
<i>Diospyros kaki</i> L. (persimmon)	Carotenoids	Zaghdoudi et al. (2016)
<i>Artemisia annua</i> L.	Artemisinin	Baldino et al. (2017)
<i>Eremanthus erythropappus</i> (Candeia)	Oil	Santos et al. (2017)
<i>Cannabis sativa</i> L. (hemp)	Cannabinoids δ^9 -Tetrahydrocannabinolic acid, δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol	Rovetto and Aieta (2017)
<i>Artemisia annua</i> L. leaves	Bioactive extracts	Martinez-Correa et al. (2017)
<i>Ocimum sanctum</i> Linn.	Eugenol	Chatterjee et al. (2017)
<i>Calendula officinalis</i>	Oleoresin	López-Padilla et al. (2017)
Spinach by-products	Lutein and chlorophyll	Derrien et al. (2018)
<i>Artemisia annua</i> L.	Artemisinin	Ciftzi et al. (2018)
<i>Phyllostachys heterocycle</i> (bamboo)	Polysaccharide	Zou et al. (2018)
Oats	Phenolic acids, avenanthramides and antioxidant activity	Walters et al. (2018)
<i>Craterellus tubaeformis</i> (Finnish wild mushrooms)	Volatile compounds (aroma compounds)	Chen et al. (2018)
Algerian <i>Thymus munbyanus</i>	Essential oils	Bendif et al. (2018)
<i>Avena sativa</i> L. (oats)	Polyphenols	Escobedo-Flores et al. (2018)
Cacao pod husk	Phenolic compounds	Valadez-Carmona et al. (2018)
Garlic	Phenolic compounds	Liu et al. (2018)
Radish leaves	Bioactive compounds	Goyeneche et al. (2018)
<i>Oenocarpus bacaba</i> (bacaba)	Oil	Pinto et al. (2018)
<i>Avena sativa</i> L. (oats)	Oil, main fatty acids, polyphenols	Fernández-Acosta et al. (2019)
Soybean residue	Phytochemicals	Alvarez et al. (2019)
Parboiled rice bran	Rice bran oil	Juchen et al. (2019)
<i>Solidago gigantea</i> Ait.	Lipids	Wrona et al. (2019)
<i>Euterpe oleracea</i> Mart. (lyophilized açai)	Pulp oil	Silva et al. (2019)
<i>Artemisia annua</i> L.	Artemisinin	Rodrigues et al. (2019)
Ginger rhizomes	Volatile oil and gingerols enriched oleoresin	Shukla et al. (2019)
<i>Chrysopogon zizanioides</i>	Vetiver essential oil	Santos et al. (2019)
“Horchata” by-products	Oils-phenolic profile	Roselló-Soto et al. (2019a)
“Horchata” by-products	Fatty acid profile, α -tocopherol, phenolic compounds and lipid oxidation parameters	Roselló-Soto et al. (2019b)
<i>Punica granatum</i> L. (pomegranate)	Seed oil	Natolino and Da Porto (2019)
<i>Curcuma longa</i> , <i>Curcuma amada</i>	Oleoresin	Nagavekar and Singhal (2019)
<i>Origanum vulgare</i> L.	Oil	García-Pérez et al. (2019)
<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> (clove) leaves	Eugenol	Frohlich et al. (2019)
<i>Oenocarpus distichus</i> Mart. (bacaba-de-leque)	Oil	Cunha et al. (2019)
<i>Virola surinamensis</i> (ucuúba)	Seed oil	Cordeiro et al. (2019)

(Özkal et al. 2005). Huang et al. (2012) have described several models such as the “broken and intact cell” model (BIC), hot ball diffusion (HBD) model, shrinking core (SC) model, Tan-Liou model, partitioning coefficient model and the logistic model (LM) for different SC-CO₂ extraction systems (Fig. 7.1). The most widely used model for obtaining extracts via SC-CO₂ extraction from plant sources is the BIC model (Huang et al. 2012). The BIC model has been found suitable for the extraction of oleoresin from marigold (*Calendula officinalis*) plants (López-Padilla et al. 2017). Natolino and Da Porto (2019) have applied kinetic (BIC model) and solubility (Chrastil model) modelling for the SC-CO₂ extraction of pomegranate seed oil from *Punica granatum* L. The “shrinking core model” was applied for the isoflavone extraction (SC-CO₂ and methanol) from soybean meal by Kumhom et al. (2011) and investigated the axial dispersion coefficient, effective diffusivity, solubility and the film “mass transfer coefficient”, of which the film “mass transfer coefficient” and the solubility were found to be the most significant. Sovová (2012, 2017), Sovová et al. (2016) and Sovová and Stateva (2019) have described the modelling of the SF extraction process for essential oils, lipids and carotenoids, which have been readily adapted to represent extraction curves.

Optimization targets (Fig. 7.1) are based on varying mainly the pressure, temperature and the flow rate of the SC-CO₂. Co-solvents such as water, methanol, diethyl ether, ethanol, acetone, acetonitrile or dichloromethane are added at varying concentrations to observe the effect on the extraction yield and the extract composition, as these improve the solvating power of the SC-CO₂ (Michalak et al. 2017; Rovetto and Aieta 2017). This is necessary for the extraction of polar compounds since SC-CO₂ is a non-polar solvent and its polarity can be influenced with the use of polar modifiers (Nagavekar and Singhal 2019). Additional parameters (Fig. 7.1) that are targeted for optimization are the sample’s particle size, extraction time and solvent power (Ekinici and Gürü 2014). The effects of the solvent power of SC-CO₂ are critical during any extraction process, whereby the effects on solvent power and extraction selectivity are discussed by Ekinici and Gürü (2014). Solvent density is significantly affected by changes in pressure (Derrien et al. 2018). Rovetto and Aieta (2017) investigated the effect of different pressures, flow rates and co-solvent (ethanol) on the yield of cannabinoids from *Cannabis sativa* L., whereby pressure and plant material had notable effects on the extraction yield.

7.3 Lipids, Volatile Oils and Oleoresins

Lipids have been extracted from various macroalgae (MA) and microalgae (MI) species using SC-CO₂ such as *Chlorella vulgaris* (MI) (Mendes et al. 1995; Dejoye et al. 2011), *Tetraselmis* sp. (MI) (Li et al. 2014), *Chaetomorpha linum* (MA) (Aresta et al. 2005), *Sargassum hemiphyllum* (MA) (Cheung et al. 1998) and *Hypnea charoides* (MA) (Cheung 1999). Fatty acids from *Arthrospira maxima* (*Spirulina maxima*) (MI) have been extracted with SC-CO₂ and with 10% ethanol (Mendes et al. 2003). Michalak et al. (2017) reported a comparative summary of the

SF extraction methods and parameters used for the extraction of algae bioactives. Mainly, SC-CO₂ extraction alone has been applied with some reported to have added organic solvents, water or vegetable oils to the extraction process. Biomolecules that are oxidized easily and that are heat labile are suitably extracted with SC-CO₂ due to its non-oxidant nature (Michalak et al. 2017). SC-CO₂ has been identified as an appropriate method to extract lipids (Li et al. 2014). A low temperature of 30 °C and a pressure of 35 MPa were found to be optimum for the SC-CO₂ extraction of *Moringa oleifera* seed oil (75.27%) and in having the greatest solvation power (Ruttarattanamongkol et al. 2014). The solvent CO₂ showed higher selectivity at the low pressure of 15 MPa towards the extraction of sterols, tocopherols and fatty acids (Ruttarattanamongkol et al. 2014). At conditions of 15 MPa and 35 °C, biomolecules β -sitosterol, campesterol, γ -tocopherol and α -tocopherol were found to be at highest concentrations of 2310.9, 1179.2, 106.8 and 230.3 mg/kg, respectively (Ruttarattanamongkol et al. 2014). SC-CO₂ extraction of hemp seed oil from *Cannabis sativa* L. has been previously reported with oil yields of 21.50% w/w (40 °C, 300 bar, particle size of 0.71 mm) (Da Porto et al. 2012a) and 22% (300 bar and 40 °C and at 400 bar and 80 °C) obtained (Da Porto et al. 2012b). Hemp (*Cannabis sativa* L.) seed oil was extracted at varying temperature of 40 and 60 °C and at a constant pressure of 300 bar with a CO₂ flow rate of 1.94 kg/h (Aladić et al. 2015). The yield of seed oil was not affected by changes in temperature but increased with increasing pressure (Aladić et al. 2015). The fatty acid concentration was affected by pressure, whilst extraction time did not affect the content (Aladić et al. 2015). Temperature had a varying effect on the content of the fatty acids (Aladić et al. 2015). The common vegetable oil, sunflower oil (54.37 wt%), has been extracted with SC-CO₂ from the sunflower seed (particle size, 0.75 mm) with a flow rate of 10 g/min, 5% co-solvent at 400 bar and 80 °C (Rai et al. 2016). Oil from *Eremanthus erythropappus* (candeia wood) has been optimally extracted at 70 °C and 24 MPa with 2 ml/min flow rate and ethanol (1.3% v/v) and ethyl acetate (5% v/v) as co-solvents, yielding 2.35 wt% oil (Santos et al. 2017). The highest concentration of α -bisabolol (16.53 g/kg), a naturally occurring sesquiterpene alcohol, was obtained with 5% ethanol (Santos et al. 2017). A review on the properties (pharmacological), mechanisms of action and the applications of α -bisabolol and oils rich in α -bisabolol has been published by Kamatou and Viljoen (2010). The yield of total lipids extracted from *Solidago gigantea* Ait. (goldenrod) has been evaluated using a “Box-Behnken design with three variables” studied, temperature (40–80 °C), pressure (20–80 MPa) and the flow rate of CO₂ (3–7 kg/h) (Wrona et al. 2019). The optimum conditions reported are temperature at 313.95 K, pressure at 68.07 MPa and CO₂ flow rate of 3.18 kg/h yielding 203.32 mg stearic acid equivalent/g dry mass, with temperature having a negligible effect on the content of total lipids (Wrona et al. 2019).

Shukla et al. (2019) have applied SC-CO₂ (single-step) extraction and fractionation process to obtain oleoresin enriched with gingerols and essential oil from dried ginger rhizomes. Optimum conditions reported by Shukla et al. (2019) for obtaining 28.3 wt% volatile oil and 37.97 wt% major actives were pressure at 276 bar, temperature at 40 °C and flow rate of 30 g/min for 153 min. Shukla et al.

(2019) have presented a summary of reported literature on obtaining ginger extracts using SC-CO₂ extraction processes. Oregano oil (*Origanum vulgare* L.) extracted with SC-CO₂ (100 bar, 40 °C, 8 g/min ethanol) with a highest yield of 13.40% showed high antimicrobial and antioxidant activity (García-Pérez et al. 2019). The volatile compound, carvacrol (29.99%), and the fatty acids (70.9–76.8%), α -linolenic (C18:3 ω 3, 20.55–24.66%), palmitic (C16:0, 22.76–23.65%), oleic (C18:1 ω 9c, 15.19–16.63%) and linoleic acids (C18:2 ω 6c, 12.16–13.35%), were found at highest concentrations in the oil (García-Pérez et al. 2019). Oil has been extracted from parboiled rice bran with SC-CO₂ and ethanol, and the effects of varying pressures (100, 150, 200 bar) and temperatures (40, 60, 80 °C) and ethanol to rice bran (0:1, 0.5:1, 1:1, 2:1) were analysed (Juchen et al. 2019). Conditions for one experimental run for 250 min at 200 bar, 40 °C, 45.94 g CO₂/g bran and 1:1 ethanol to rice bran yielded 25.48 wt% of rice bran oil. Two sequential extractions at the same conditions yielded 26.32 wt% (Juchen et al. 2019). Roselló-Soto et al. (2019a) have compared the SC-CO₂ (10–40 MPa, 40 °C) extraction with the conventional extraction (modified Folch et al. 1957) of oil extracted from the “horchata” by-products with the SC-CO₂ extraction obtaining higher amounts of α -tocopherol and total phenolic compounds. The α -tocopherol concentration decreased, whilst total phenolic compounds increased with increasing pressure, respectively. The highest oil yield was obtained with conventional extraction (14.85%). Oil yield and pressure during the SC-CO₂ extraction were shown to have a linear relationship (10 MPa = 0.61%; 40 MPa = 7.36%), which has been reported by several other researchers (Lasekan and Abdulkarim (2012); Rombaut et al. 2014; Koubaa et al. 2015). Pinto et al. (2018) have obtained a yield of 60.39% after SC-CO₂ extraction of “bacaba oil” from *Oenocarpus bacaba* at temperature of 60 °C and pressure of 420 bar. A good quality bacaba-de-leque pulp oil from *Oenocarpus distichus* Mart. has been extracted using SC-CO₂ extraction with a yield of 46% at a pressure of 270 bar and temperature of 60 °C (Cunha et al. 2019). SC-CO₂ extraction (320 bar and 60 °C) has been used in the extraction of pomegranate (*Punica granatum* L.) seed oil that contained a higher punicic acid concentration and with a higher oxidation stability as compared to the Soxhlet extraction method (Natolino and Da Porto 2019). The extraction times with SC-CO₂ (2 h) were much shorter than the period needed for Soxhlet extraction (8 h) to reach the asymptotic yield. A CO₂ flow rate of 8.0 kg/h at 320 bar and 60 °C resulted in the highest yield of the seed oil (Natolino and Da Porto 2019). Fernández-Acosta et al. (2019) recently studied the effect of chemical pre-treatment, pressure, temperature, dynamic and static time and particle size on the SC-CO₂ extraction of oil *Avena sativa* L. (oats). The oat oil yield was significantly influenced by pressure and the size of particles. The pre-treatment, temperature and particle size significantly influenced the fatty acid composition and oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC) antioxidant activity. Polyphenol concentration and total phenolic content were affected by pre-treatment and temperature (Fernández-Acosta et al. 2019). Cordeiro et al. (2019) recently investigated the SC-CO₂ extraction of ucuúba oil from the seeds of *Virola surinamensis*, a tree growing in the Amazon, with antimicrobial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*. Extraction conditions applied were pressure (350 bar), temperature (40, 60 or 80 °C)

and a CO₂ mass flow of 7.9×10 kg/s (Cordeiro et al. 2019). De Cássia et al. (2016) have extracted the oil from the popular fruit (berries) açai (*Euterpe oleracea* Mart.) obtained from Pará, Brazil, under varying temperature and pressure conditions. Highest oil yield was obtained at 70 °C and 490 bar. The fatty composition was affected by the varying operating conditions with significant effects reported on type and concentration of fatty acid detected (De Cássia et al. 2016). Silva et al. (2019) have evaluated the effects of pressure (350, 420, 490 bar), temperature (50, 60 or 70 °C) and geographical location on the extraction of the oil from açai in lyophilized form. Oil yields between 49.28 (location, Anajás, 60 °C, 420 bar) and 57.06% (location, Chaves, 70 °C, 490 bar) were obtained (Silva et al. 2019) with the operating conditions not affecting the fatty acid composition within each study area. Operating conditions of 60 °C and 420 bar and 70 °C and 490 bar resulted in optimum results of antioxidant capacity, total anthocyanins and total phenolic compounds in the oil from Chaves (Silva et al. 2019). Kerrihard and Pegg (2015) reported on the suitability of the application of SC-CO₂ extraction of oils containing higher concentrations of γ -linolenic acid (GLA; 18:3n-6), which have as a result higher anti-inflammatory functionalities. Scale-up experiments and validation processes for the SC-CO₂ extraction of lipids and volatile oils have been investigated by several researchers with promising results of potential extraction at a commercial scale (Shukla et al. 2019; Wrona et al. 2019).

Essential oils, also referred to as volatile oils, are commonly used in traditional medicine and aromatherapy and as natural additives due to their reported antimicrobial activities (Chávez-González et al. 2016) in the food and cosmetics industry (Fornari et al. 2012a). Grosso et al. (2010) have tested five mathematical models for the modelling of the extraction of aromatic plants, fennel, coriander, cotton lavender, savoury, winter savoury and thyme by which extraction was impacted by particle size, internal mass transfer coefficient, internal diffusion, and pressure and temperature changes.

Sovová (2012) has described various published mathematical models for the extraction of essential oils from plants for a 15-year period up to 2012. Tongnuanchan and Benjakul (2014) have discussed the extraction methods, including aspects of SC-CO₂ extraction among others, and the uses and bioactivities of essential oils. Yousefi et al. (2019) have compiled a review that investigates the SF extraction of essential oils from plants. The review describes conventional extraction methods as compared to the SF extraction, optimization and modelling techniques commonly applied and the effects of the various operating parameters on the supercritical extraction process (Yousefi et al. 2019). SC-CO₂ has been investigated for the extraction of the volatile oil from the flower heads of *Santolina chamaecyparissus* L. under different operating conditions. Notably, pressure increase to 9 MPa enriched the content of sesquiterpene in the extracted *Santolina chamaecyparissus* essential oil (Grosso et al. 2009a). The volatile oil from *Satureja montana* L. extracted by SC-CO₂ was reported by Grosso (2009b) to contain higher concentrations of thymoquinone (1.6–3.0%) as compared to the hydrodistillation, a conventional extraction method. Essential oils produced via SC-CO₂ extraction from various herbs and plants have been reported by Fornari et al. (2012a). A cooled mill

was used to crush the dried leaves (*O. vulgare*, *Thymus vulgaris*, *Salvia officinalis*, *Rosmarinus officinalis*, *Ocimum basilicum*, *Origanum majorana*) and petals (*Calendula officinalis*) and then sieved (200–600 μm). Essential oils were then extracted at 30 MPa and 40 °C with a flow rate of 60 g/min for 5 h (Fornari et al. 2012a). The economically important vetiver essential oil was extracted with SC-CO₂ among other methods (“pressurized liquid and ultrasound-assisted methods”) from *Chrysopogon zizanioides* (L.) Roberty, syn. *Vetiveria zizanioides* (L.) Nash root with the highest yield (2.23% m/m) obtained at 20 MPa and 60 °C (Santos et al. 2019). A higher yield (2.66% (m/m)) was obtained after the addition of 5% (v/v) of the co-solvent, ethanol (Santos et al. 2019). The dominant compounds were isovalencenol (9.04% SC-CO₂; 8.70% SC-CO₂+ 5% EtOH 5%), khusimol (30.49% SC-CO₂; 31.33% SC-CO₂+ 5% EtOH 5%), zizanoic acid (8.33% SC-CO₂; 6.82% SC-CO₂+ 5% EtOH 5%) and α -vetivone (6.42% SC-CO₂; 6.61% SC-CO₂+ 5% EtOH 5%). Leaf powder (20 g, $d_p = 0.42$ mm) of *Ocimum sanctum* Linn. has been used for the extraction of eugenol (2.96 mg/g dry leaves) with SC-CO₂ at a flow rate of 2.5 L/min, 200 bar and 50 °C for 90 min (Chatterjee et al. 2017). Eugenol yield was affected only by pressure changes, and the kinetics of the extraction were reported to be first-order kinetics (Higuchi model) (Chatterjee et al. 2017). Eugenol (29.84%) has been extracted from clove at 40 °C and 220 bar with highest antioxidant activity of the extract found after extraction at 40 °C and 150 bar (Frohlich et al. 2019). In comparison to the Soxhlet extraction, it was revealed that the SC-CO₂ was more efficient in terms of yield, antioxidant activity, sample clean-up, reaction time and temperature (Frohlich et al. 2019).

Oleoresin has been optimally extracted from *Curcuma longa* (conventional turmeric) and *Curcuma amada* (mango ginger) at 65 °C and 350 bar for 150 min and at 40 °C and 300 bar for 30 min, respectively (Nagavekar and Singhal 2019). Modifier (30% ethanol) and pre-treatment with Stargen®002 enzyme significantly improved the yield (Nagavekar and Singhal 2019).

7.4 Artemisinin

The active pharmaceutical ingredient, artemisinin, is extracted from the herbaceous plant *Artemisia annua* L. (sweet wormwood) and is used in pharmaceutical applications for the treatment of malaria and cancer (Rodrigues et al. 2019). Artemisinin is a sesquiterpene that is highly oxygenated with a 1,2,4-trioxane ring structure (Brown 2010). Faurant (2011) have provided a historic background on the discovery of artemisinin and market-related developments, with Brown (2010) having provided a review on the photochemistry of the plant *A. annua* L. and the biosynthesis of the compound artemisinin. The SC-CO₂ extraction has commonly been employed in the high yield extraction of artemisinin from *A. annua* L. yielding high purity and clean extracts (Kohler et al. 1997; Quispe-Condori et al. 2005; Lin et al. 2006; Tzeng et al. 2007; Baldino et al. 2017; Martinez-Correa et al. 2017; Ciftzi et al. 2018; Rodrigues et al. 2019). Lapkin et al. (2006) have published a comparative

analysis on existing conventional and green technologies such as SC-CO₂ for the extraction of artemisinin.

Pure, non-degraded extracts of artemisinin have been obtained with a flow rate of 2 ml/min of SC-CO₂/3% methanol at 50 °C and 15 MPa within 20 min (Kohler et al. 1997). Artemisinin yields of 0.62% and 0.70% have been achieved at conditions of 150 bar and 30 °C and 300 bar and 50 °C, respectively (Quispe-Condori et al. 2005). Artemisinin of high purity within a short reaction time was yielded at optimized conditions of 33 °C, 18.72 MPa, SC-CO₂/16.25 wt% of *n*-hexane after an extraction time of 1.5 h (Lin et al. 2006). The highest purity was obtained at 60 °C and 17.34 MPa and proved to be far better than when Soxhlet extraction (hexane) was applied (Lin et al. 2006). Martinez-Correa et al. (2017) reported the suitability of a two-step extraction procedure, starting with SC-CO₂ extraction (60 °C, 40 MPa), followed by further extractions with either ethanol (25 °C) or water (60 °C). Baldino et al. (2017) on the other hand reported the optimum procedure to be a one-step extraction at 40 °C and 100 bar for 600 min. Ciftzi et al. (2018) reported optimum conditions to be 33 °C and 30 MPa for yielding 1.09% (predicted yield). The cost-effectiveness of the SC-CO₂ extraction process of artemisinin as compared to the conventional extraction (ethanol) was evaluated by Rodrigues et al. (2019), which determined that this process is more attractive economically and viability could be achieved if reduced cost for the raw material could be achieved. An artemisinin content of 23.4% was reached at 50 °C and 200 bar for 60 min (Rodrigues et al. 2019). A reaction time of 180 min was needed to obtain 6% of artemisinin using conventional extraction with ethanol (Rodrigues et al. 2019).

7.5 Alkylamides

Alkylamides from the dried roots of *Echinacea angustifolia* were extracted by Sun et al. (2002) at highest concentration as compared to the fresh roots, by which the yield was positively affected by temperature and pressure.

7.6 Phenolics, Flavonoids, Chlorophylls and Carotenoids

Phenolics and flavonoids extracted from plants via the SC-CO₂ process have been reported by several researchers (Table 7.3). *Ampelopsis grossedentata* stems were used to optimally extract flavonoids and phenolics at 40 °C and 250 bar for 50 min with 1:3 v/v methanol/ethanol and 1:1 v/v methanol/ethanol, respectively (Wang et al. 2011). Pomelo peel was used for the extraction of flavonoids (2.37%) at 39 MPa, 80 °C, 85% ethanol for 49 min (He et al. 2012). SC-CO₂ extracted flavonoids had higher scavenging activities as compared to the conventional process (He et al. 2012). Increased concentration of total phenolic content and antioxidant activity were obtained with the addition of co-solvents (ethanol and ethyl acetate) to the

SC-CO₂ extraction process of the oil from *Eremanthus erythropappus* (candeia wood) (Santos et al. 2017). Total phenolics from radishes (*Raphanus sativus* L.) were reported at concentrations of 1375 mg GAE/100 g and 1455 mg GAE/100 g at operating conditions of 400 bar at 35 °C and 40 °C, respectively (Goyeneche et al. 2018). Escobedo-Flores et al. (2018) extracted polyphenols from *Avena sativa* L. (oats) obtaining maximum yields at 55 °C and 38 MPa. An optimum concentration of 1437.57 mg/g was predicted with the generated quadratic models (Escobedo-Flores et al. 2018). The effects of particle size on the concentrations of avenanthramides and phenolics extracted from medium oat bran, whole flour (WF), low bran and fine bran have been reported by Walters et al. (2018), with larger sizes presenting a limiting factor during SC-CO₂ extractions. Higher radical scavenging activities were observed with the extracts via the SC-CO₂ extraction of the defatted fraction of the fine particles (Walters et al. 2018). Avenanthramides have been reported to possess strong anti-inflammatory properties (Sur et al. 2008). The yield of total phenolics and total chlorophylls extracted from *Solidago gigantea* Ait. (goldenrod), a medicinal plant, has been evaluated using a “Box-Behnken design with three variables” studied, temperature (40–80 °C), pressure (20–80 MPa) and the flow rate of CO₂ (3–7 kg/h) (Wrona et al. 2019). The three variables studied had an effect on the yield of total phenolics and total chlorophylls with optimum conditions reported as temperature of 313.59 K and 352.22 K, pressure of 79.14 MPa and 74.59 MPa and CO₂ flow rate of 3.25 kg/h and 3.00 kg/h, respectively (Wrona et al. 2019). Increased temperature resulted in a decrease in the total phenolic content, but increased when pressure was increased (Wrona et al. 2019). Alvarez et al. (2019) determined that conditions of 40 MPa and 35 °C with the co-solvent ethanol were optimum for the extraction of polyphenols and flavonoids with highest antioxidant activity. Roselló-Soto et al. (2019a) affirmed the suitability of applying SC-CO₂ extraction of lipophilic phenolic compounds when compared to the conventional extraction. Isohydroxymatairesinol was extracted at highest concentrations at pressures of 30 MPa (756.22 ppb) and 40 MPa (1331.45 ppb). Increasing pressures improved the extraction of the phenolic compounds, including the antioxidant activity (Roselló-Soto et al. 2019a). A SC-CO₂ extraction process to obtain an extract rich in phenolic compounds from cacao (*Theobroma cacao*) pod husk was developed by Valadez-Carmona et al. (2018). The yield was influenced by pressure and co-solvent percentage, and a yield of 0.52% was obtained at optimum conditions of 299 bar, 60 °C and 13.7% ethanol with high selectivity towards antioxidants (Valadez-Carmona et al. 2018).

Carotenoids are pigments and the secondary metabolites of plants and some microorganisms (Zaghdoudi et al. 2016) and can be successfully extracted using SC-CO₂. Sovová et al. (2001) have published data on the effects of different temperatures and pressures with and without ethanol and vegetable oil on the solubility of β-carotene in SC-CO₂. Knowledge of the solubility of biomolecules such as the carotenoids in SC-CO₂ is necessary to develop appropriate SC-CO₂ extraction processes. De la Fuente et al. (2006) have determined the solubility of lycopene and

astaxanthin at different temperatures and pressures. Similar to the behaviour of β -carotene in SC-CO₂, lycopene and astaxanthin solubility was greater with increased temperature (313–333 K) and constant pressure (30 MPa) as compared to increased pressure (30–50 MPa) at constant temperature (313 K) (de la Fuente et al. 2006). A review on the extraction of carotenoids from pumpkin (*Cucurbita* spp.) via the SC-CO₂ process and the influence temperature and pressure, pre-treatment effects, entrainers (modifier or co-solvents) and co-matrices on total carotenoid yield and carotenoid composition has been published by Durante et al. (2014). Choudhari and Singhal (2008) have extracted lycopene, a red-coloured tetraterpene C40 carotenoid, from *Blakeslea trispora*, a zygomycete, at optimized conditions of 349 bar and 52 °C for 1.1 h and using an entrainer such as acetone, yielding 92%. Astaxanthin has been extracted from the microalgae *Haematococcus pluvialis* with the use of olive oil and soybean oil as co-solvents achieving a yield of 51.03% and 36.36%, respectively (Krichnavaruk et al. 2008). The microalgae *Haematococcus pluvialis* has been reported to be one of the greatest sources of the natural occurring astaxanthin, a carotenoid with potent antioxidant activity (Shah et al. 2016).

Xanthophylls (all-*trans*-lutein (15.46 $\mu\text{g/g}$), all-*trans*-zeaxanthin (16.81 $\mu\text{g/g}$) and all-*trans*- β -cryptoxanthin (33.23 $\mu\text{g/g}$)) have been optimally extracted from persimmon fruits (*Diospyros kaki* L.) at a flow rate of 3 ml/min, 300 bars, 60 °C and 25% (w/w) ethanol for 30 min obtaining higher yields as compared to the Soxhlet extraction method (Zaghoudi et al. 2016). Conditions of flow rate of 1 ml/min, 100 bars, 40 °C and 25% (w/w) ethanol for 30 min were better suited for the extraction of 11.19 $\mu\text{g/g}$ all-*trans*- β -carotene (Zaghoudi et al. 2016). Spinach by-products have been used by Derrien et al. (2018) for the optimization of SC-CO₂ extraction of chlorophyll and lutein. Optimized conditions that resulted in a 72% and 50% yield of lutein and chlorophyll, respectively, were reported to be 39 MPa, 56 °C with a co-solvent of 10% ethanol for 3.6 h (Derrien et al. 2018). The SC-CO₂ extraction process of carotenoids from microalgae with the use of published data was described and modelled by Sovová and Stateva (2019). The model confirmed that higher temperatures and pressures increased yield of carotenoid in oil and extraction rate due to increased solubility of carotenoid in the supercritical fluid and the reduced capacity of adsorption of the microalga (Sovová and Stateva 2019). The phase equilibrium was found to be responsible in controlling the extraction process (Sovová and Stateva 2019).

7.7 Polysaccharides

Polysaccharides have been extracted via the SC-CO₂ process from the seeds of *Artemisia sphaerocephala* Krasch. at optimum conditions of temperature (extraction, 45 °C; separation, 56 °C), pressure (extraction, 45 MPa; separation, 10 MPa), a flow rate of 20 L/h for 2 h resulted in a yield of 18.59% (w/w) (Chen et al. 2014).

The 551.3 kDa polysaccharide was composed of the monosaccharides, mannose (10.8 mg/g), rhamnose (8.78 mg/g), galactose (9.86 mg/g), glucose (16.2 mg/g), arabinose (8.48 mg/g), xylose (38.48 mg/g) and fucose (10.09 mg/g) (Chen et al. 2014). The polysaccharide extracted from *Artemisia sphaerocephala* Krasch. has been reported to have medicinal applications (Xing et al. 2009). A polysaccharide (2.47%) from the leaves of bamboo (*Phyllostachys heterocycla*) has been extracted with SC-CO₂/ethanol modifier (30 ml) at optimized parameters of 50 °C and 40 MPa with a 2-h reaction time (Zou et al. 2018).

7.8 Tocopherols and Sterols

Plant cells synthesize α -, β -, γ - and δ -tocopherol, which are then stored in their seeds and leaves (Bendif et al. 2018). Tocopherols have strong antioxidant properties (Bendif et al. 2018). The content of tocopherols in extracted *Cannabis sativa* L. seed oil is significantly affected by temperature and pressure with higher temperatures and pressures resulting in a negative response (Aladić et al. 2015). Potential sources of tocopherol were reported by Bendif et al. (2018) to be contained in the SC-CO₂ extracts obtained from *Thymus munbyanus* subsp. *coloratus* (α -tocopherol [1580 $\mu\text{g/g}$], β -tocopherol [170 $\mu\text{g/g}$], γ -tocopherol [220 $\mu\text{g/g}$], δ -tocopherol [160 $\mu\text{g/g}$]) and *Thymus munbyanus* subsp. *munbyanus* (α -tocopherol [780 $\mu\text{g/g}$], β -tocopherol [140 $\mu\text{g/g}$], γ -tocopherol [120 $\mu\text{g/g}$], δ -tocopherol [130 $\mu\text{g/g}$]). The *Thymus* extracts were obtained with SC-CO₂ extraction with a flow rate of 2 L/min at 70 °C and 45 MPa for 210 min (Bendif et al. 2018). Sitosterol (1220 mg/kg seed) has been found to be contained in peach oil (extracted yield, 35.3 g/100 g seed) after SC-CO₂ extraction from the *Prunus persica* seeds (0.3 mm) at optimum conditions of 200 bar, flow rate of 7 ml/min and at 40 °C after 3 h (Ekinici and Gürü 2014).

7.9 Conclusions

A wide variety of biomolecules can be efficiently extracted with the SC-CO₂ extraction process. Optimization strategies are targeting to achieve parameters that can achieve high yield products with high purity and quality at less costs and environmental impacts. Research on the cost-effectiveness, economics and possible facility designs for the scaling up of the SC-CO₂ extraction process is underway with some successful examples already in place. The advent of the Green Chemistry era has made it possible to explore more opportunities in the development of innovative extraction and processing technologies.

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