# Phenolic antioxidants in coconut oil: Factors affecting the quantity and quality. A review

<sup>●</sup>N. Jayathilaka and <sup>●</sup>K.N. Seneviratne<sup>⊠</sup>

Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, University of Kelaniya, Kelaniya, Sri Lanka. ⊠Corresponding author: kapilas@kln.ac.lk

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**SUMMARY:** The total phenol content (TPC) in coconut oil varies with extraction method, variety, nature of coconut kernel components and geographical origin. Commonly reported TPCs of coconut oils extracted by dry methods and wet methods are in the range of 70-300 mg/kg and 250-650 mg/kg, respectively. Based on the commonly reported data, the TPC of coconut oil varies by up to 527 mg/kg oil, 180 mg/kg oil, and 172 mg/kg oil due to the influence of the extraction method, coconut variety and the nature of kernel components, respectively. The identity of the phenolic compounds also varies with the extraction method. Caffeic acid, catechin, *p*-coumaric acid, ferulic acid, and syringic acid are present in different quantities in coconut oil when extracted by all methods. However, chlorogenic acid, cinnamic acid, epigallocatechin, gallic acid, vanillic and epicatechin are present only in some coconut oils. Many free phenolic compounds present in olive oil are also present in coconut oil.

#### KEYWORDS: Copra oil; Olive oil; Phenolic antioxidants; Virgin coconut oil.

**RESUMEN:** *Antioxidantes fenólicos en el aceite de coco: factores que afectan la cantidad y la calidad. Revisión.* El contenido total de fenoles (CTF) del aceite de coco varía según el método de extracción, la variedad, la naturaleza de los componentes del grano de coco y el origen geográfico. Los CTF comúnmente reportados de aceites de coco extraídos por métodos secos y métodos húmedos están en el rango de 70-300 mg/kg y 250-650 mg/kg respectivamente. En base a estos datos comúnmente reportados, el CTF de los aceites de coco varía hasta 527 mg/kg de aceite, 180 mg/kg de aceite y 172 mg/kg de aceite debido a la influencia del método de extracción, la variedad del coco y la naturaleza de los componentes del grano, respectivamente. La identidad de los compuestos fenólicos también varía con el método de extracción. El ácido caféico, la catequina, el ácido *p*-cumárico, el ácido ferúlico y el ácido siríngico están presentes en diferentes cantidades en los aceites de coco extraídos por todos los métodos. Sin embargo, el ácido clorogénico, el ácido cinámico, la epigalocatequina, el ácido gálico, la vainillina y la epicatequina están presentes solo en algunos aceites de coco. Muchos compuestos fenólicos libres que están presentes en el aceite de oliva también están presentes en el aceite de coco.

#### PALABRAS CLAVE: Aceite de copra; Aceite de oliva; Aceite virgen de coco; Antioxidantes fenólicos.

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#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Natural phenolic substances are ubiquitously-distributed secondary metabolites in berries, fruits, vegetables, coffee, herbs and edible oils. Main phenolic substances include phenolic acids, phenolic alcohols and flavonoids. Plant phenolic compounds have drawn the attention of researchers due to their antioxidant properties. The antioxidant mechanisms of the phenolic compounds in plants have been well established (Michalak, 2006; Zeb, 2020). The antioxidant properties of the phenolic compounds in plants are connected to beneficial health effects such as conferring protection against the development of cancer, diabetes, cardiovascular diseases and neurodegenerative diseases (Pandey and Rizvi, 2009). The phenolic compounds in plants can also act as food preservatives that can inhibit the lipid oxidation in edible oils and fish oils owing to their high polyunsaturated fat contents (Maqsood et al., 2014). The color and flavor properties of natural foods as well as processed foods and beverages are also controlled by plants' phenolic compounds (Cheynier, 2012).

During the extraction of edible oils, the phenolic compounds of kernel materials are incorporated into the oils. Edible oils have saponifiable and unsaponifiable compounds. The saponifiable fraction may account for 90-98% of the total mass of oil while the unsaponifiable content varies from 2-10% (Narasinga Rao, 2001). The saponifiable fraction includes triglycerides, diglycerides, monoglycerides, fatty acids and other saponifiable lipids. The minor unsaponifiable fraction includes phenolic compounds, flavonoids, vitamin E, sterols, hydrocarbons, etc. (Moura Fe et al., 1975). In coconut oil, the saponifiable fraction may amount to up to 99.5% of the weight of the oil (Gutfinger and Letan, 1974). In edible oils with no sedimentations or insoluble materials, the saponifiable fraction can be observed as a clear solution and unsaponifiable compounds are dissolved in the saponifiable fraction.

Phenolic compounds in several edible oils have been reported and most of these studies are limited to assessing phenolic compounds in a particular oil (Mannino *et al.*, 1999; Tripoli *et al.*, 2005; Siger *et al.*, 2008; Janu *et al.*, 2013). Among them, a vast majority of research has been focused on the phe-

nolic fraction of olive oil (Kiritsakis, 1998; Ryan and Robards, 1998; Boskou et al., 2005; Galvano et al., 2007; Servili et al., 2009). In addition to the studies on the phenolic compounds in specific edible oils, a recent report has comprehensively reviewed the different classes of phenolic compounds in several edible oils (Zeb, 2021). As phenolic compounds are polar molecules, their solubility in the oils is low. However, these minor components improve the quality of edible oils by enhancing health benefits and sensory properties (Visioli and Galli, 1998). The interest in the phenolic substances in coconut oil is also due to their antioxidant activity and related health benefits (Seneviratne et al., 2011; Lima et al., 2015; Narayanankutty et al., 2018; Rohman et al., 2021; Senanayake et al., 2021). In addition, the phenolic compounds present in coconut oil and coconut oil meal improve the shelf-life of coconut oil as well as other edible oils and baked food (Senanayake et al., 2019). Even though there is a wealth of literature regarding research conducted on the phenolic substances of olive oil and other common edible oils, the first report on the phenolic substances in coconut oil was published in 2008 (Seneviratne and Dissanayake, 2008). Since then, there has been a growing number of studies on the phenolic fraction of coconut oil. Emulsions of virgin coconut oil (VCO) containing ferulic acid and p-coumaric acid have been prepared with various sweeteners to improve the palatability of VCO (Wiyani et al., 2020). The addition of VCO to dark chocolate formulations has shown that the nutritional properties of dark chocolate are improved by the phenolic compounds in VCO (Rashid et al., 2017). New studies indicate that coconut oil improves the absorption of phenolic compounds in rats and humans, suggesting that the naturally-present phenolic compounds in coconut oil are more bioavailable than the phenolic compounds in aqueous foods (Prasadani et al., 2017; Weerakoon et al., 2021). Despite several health and nutritional advantages and applications as food preservatives, the quality and quantity of the phenolic compounds in coconut oil have not been reviewed. Therefore, the present review aimed to comprehensively review the up-to-date knowledge on the effect of extraction conditions, variety, country of origin and nature of kernel material on the phenolic composition of coconut oil.

# 2. EXTRACTION METHODS AND PHENOLIC CONTENTS

The most important factor affecting the phenolic content in coconut oil is the method of extraction (Seneviratne and Jayathilaka, 2015; Seneviratne and Jayathilaka, 2016). The coconut kernel is different from all other seed kernels due to its bulkiness and high percentage (59%) of coconut oil in the dried kernel (Gutfinger and Letan, 1974). Therefore, the extraction of coconut oil is less cumbersome compared to the extraction of other edible oils. Different methods of coconut oil extraction are summarized in Figure 1. Coconut oil prepared by the wet extraction methods under cold conditions is called VCO. In addition, VCO is also produced by dry extraction by pressing high quality dried coconut kernels under cold conditions.

#### 2.1. Dry methods of coconut oil extraction

Dry methods involve a drying step of coconut kernels before the extraction of coconut oil. Fresh coconut kernels can be dried by sun drying or by any suitable mechanical drying method. Fresh coconut kernel contains carbohydrates (13.0 g/100 g), water (36.3 mL/100 g), proteins (4.5 g/100 g), lipids (41.6 g/100 g), fiber (3.6 g/100 g) and minerals (1 g/100 g) (Lal et al., 2003). Different quantities of water and lipids up to 50 and 34%, respectively, have been reported in coconut kernels, (Withana-Gamage et al., 2005). In the dry methods, coconut oil is extracted by pressing dried coconut kernels to squeeze out coconut oil. For this purpose, the moisture content of the coconut kernel should not exceed 6% (Seneviratne and Jayathilaka, 2016). Coconut oil extracted in this way is also called copra oil. VCO is also produced by this dry method by pressing dried coconut kernels under cold conditions without letting the temperature rise above 60–70 °C during the pressing process. While pressing dried coconut kernels, a part of the phenolic substances in the coconut kernel is incorporated into the coconut oil. The TPC of the coconut oil extracted by dry methods is found to be relatively lower compared to that of coconut oil extracted by wet methods (Seneviratne et al., 2009; Srivastava et al., 2016).

#### 2.2. Wet methods of coconut oil extraction

In addition to the dry method, coconut oil is extracted by wet extraction methods where an aque-

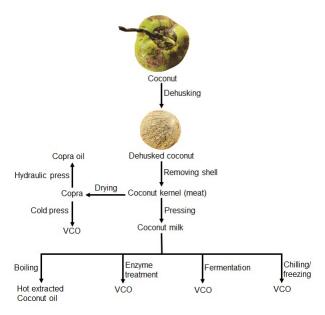


FIGURE 1. Different extraction methods of coconut oil

ous emulsion of coconut kernel (coconut milk) is processed for the extraction of coconut oil. Coconut milk contains fat, sugars, proteins and phenolic compounds (Alyaqoubi *et al.*, 2015; Nadeeshani *et al.*, 2015). Gallic acid, chlorogenic acid, *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid, caffeic acid, vanillic acid, syringic acid and ferulic acid are the major phenolic compounds in coconut milk (Karunasiri *et al.*, 2020a).

### 2.2.1. Boiling method (Hot extraction)

Coconut milk is boiled to evaporate water. In this process, proteins denature and carbohydrates and proteins are deposited at the bottom of the container. When the aqueous layer evaporates, the oil layer can easily be separated by decanting. During this boiling process, the temperature of the mixture may reach up to 125 °C. Due to high temperatures, the solubility of the phenolic substances in coconut oil increases. While the oil layer is in contact with the solid kernel material at the bottom of the container, phenolic substances are easily dissolved in the oil layer. Therefore, coconut oil prepared by boiling coconut milk has a high TPC and contains a larger number of phenolic substances compared to coconut oil prepared by dry extraction methods (Seneviratne et al., 2009).

#### 2.2.2. Chilling, freezing, centrifugation methods

After chilling or freezing coconut milk, the water can be removed by decanting followed by centrifugation of the resultant mixture in the liquid form to further remove water. Direct centrifugation of coconut milk emulsion without chilling or freezing to separate coconut oil can also be done. Heating to about 60 °C prior to centrifugation is effective in isolating oil. However, this direct centrifugation needs stronger and laborious centrifugation steps (Gopala Krishna *et al.*, 2010; Ngampeerapong *et al.*, 2018). Chilling to about 10 °C or freezing to about –4 °C for 6 hours, followed by centrifugation is more effective in producing VCO.

#### 2.2.3. Fermentation

Pure cultures of *Lactobacillus* strains have been used in some cases for the fermentation of coconut milk to separate coconut oil (Che Man *et al.*, 1997; Satheesh and Prasad, 2014). However, fermentation also occurs without any addition of microorganisms if coconut milk is exposed to air for over 8–12 hours or longer (Marina *et al.*, 2009a). Due to enzyme and microbial action, coconut oil separates from the coconut milk emulsion (Seneviratne and Jayathilaka, 2015). The coconut oil layer can then be siphoned out after the separation of layers.

Copra oil is refined to remove any free fatty acids and peroxides and then bleached and deodorized. Refined, bleached and deodorized coconut oil is called RBD coconut oil. The TPCs reported as gallic acid equivalents (GAE) in coconut oils prepared by different extraction methods are given in Table 1.

# **3. PHENOLIC CONTENT AND COCONUT VA-RIETY**

Most studies on the phenolic composition of coconut varieties are limited to those done on a particular variety and there are limited studies that compare the differences in composition among the different varieties. The TPC of the VCO extracted by freezing coconut milk from West African Tall variety is 160.2 mg/kg. Methanol (60%) was used to extract phenolic compounds in this study (Ahmad *et al.*, 2015). Coconut kernels of Dwarf x Tall variety from India indicate the presence of coumaric acid, caffeic acid and chlorogenic acid. (Dhanyakrishnan *et al.*, 2018). The TPC of coconut water from the Malayan green coconut variety is 95.15 mg/L; while that of the Malayan yellow coconut

variety is 46.85 mg/L. (Adubofuor et al., 2016). Even though there is a limited number of reports on the phenolic composition of coconut oil from different coconut cultivars, most of such data cannot be compared because of the different conditions used for the extraction of coconut oil or different extraction conditions used for the extraction of the phenolic substances from the coconut oil. A systematic comparison of the TPC in coconut oil extracted from three coconut varieties and three hybrids of these varieties grown in Thailand has been reported (Arlee et al., 2013). According to this study, the TPC of VCO extracted by natural fermentation may vary significantly among cultivars and hybrids. However, the range of TPC in coconut oil extracted by the fermentation method for three cultivars and three hybrids is 481-554 mg/kg. The TPC in VCO prepared by cold pressed dry method may also vary significantly  $(p \le 0.05)$  among varieties and cultivars. Nevertheless, the range of TPC is 486–579 mg/kg. The TPC in VCO from two cultivars grown in Mexico also shows that there is a significant difference in TPC with cultivar. The TPC in this study varies in the range 600-780 mg/ kg (Elodio-Policarpo et al., 2019).

# 4. EFFECT OF GEOGRAPHICAL ORIGIN ON PHENOLIC CONTENT

VCO has become popular as a functional oil due to its health benefits. The major contributor to the numerous health benefits is phenolic compounds (Srivastava et al., 2018). Thailand, Indonesia, India, Malaysia, Sri Lanka and Vietnam are the main producers of VCO in the world. Even though phenolic compounds play a major role in providing health benefits to consumers, phenolic quality and quantity are not included in coconut oil standards. Detailed studies on the influence of geographical origin on the TPC in coconut oil have not been carried out. However, VCO samples obtained from the markets of Malaysia and Indonesia have been compared (Marina et al., 2009b). The results indicated that the TPCs in the Malaysian VCO samples were 118-292 mg/kg; while those of the Indonesian VCO samples were 78-251 mg/kg.

# 5. NATURE OF COCONUT KERNEL COMPO-NENTS

There are two components in the coconut kernel: white coconut meat and coconut testa. The interior part of the coconut kernel is the thick, fleshy, white

	Dry m	ethods		
	TPC (Reported Units)	TPC (mg/kg oil)	Reference	
Dry method (copra oil)	72.1 $\pm$ 5.6 mg/kg 72 $\pm$ 6 Seneviratne		Seneviratne and Dissanayake, 2005	
	$91 \pm 11 \text{ mg/kg}$	$91 \pm 11$	Seneviratne and Dissanayake, 2008	
	64.4 mg/100g	644	Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013; Nevin and Rajamohan, 2004	
	$292.06 \pm 10.04$ mg/kg	$292 \pm 10$	Azevedo et al., 2020	
	1.56-8.57 mg/g	1560-8570	Ghani et al., 2018	
	$182.82 \pm 15.24 \ \mu g/g$	$183 \pm 15$	Srivastava et al., 2016	
	$18.1 \pm 2.01 \text{ mg}/100 \text{g}$	$181 \pm 20$	Narayanankutty et al., 2016	
Dry method (VCO)	1.18 mg/g	1180	Perera et al., 2019	
	49.82 mg/kg	49.82	Khalil et al., 2020	
	Wet m	ethods		
Wet method (Boiling)	$506 \pm 20 \text{ mg/kg}$	$506 \pm 20$	Seneviratne and Dissanayake, 2005	
	$618 \pm 46$ mg/kg	$618 \pm 46$	Seneviratne and Dissanayake, 2008	
	650.35 ± 25.11 μg/g	$650 \pm 25$	Srivastava et al., 2016	
Wet method (Fermentation) VCO	$59.30 \pm 0.39 \text{ mg/g}$	$59,300 \pm 390$	Prapun et al., 2016	
	59.44 ± 13.40 mg/100g	$594 \pm 134$	Ngampeerapong et al., 2018	
	$57.11 \pm 0.05 \text{ mg}/100 \text{g}$	$571 \pm 1$	Famurewa et al., 2018	
	$12.54 \pm 0.96 \text{ mg/g}$	$12,540 \pm 960$	Ghani et al., 2018	
	~25 mg/100g	~250	Marina et al., 2009a	
	401.23±20.11µg/g	$401 \pm 20$	Srivastava et al., 2016	
Chilling/freezing and Centrifugation	~18 mg/100g	~180	Marina et al., 2009a	
	$1.16 \pm 0.05 \text{ mg/g}$	$1160 \pm 50$	Ghani et al., 2018	
	$16.02 \pm 0.44$ mg/100g	$160 \pm 4$	Ahmad et al., 2015	
	84 mg/100g	840	Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013; Nevin and Rajamohan, 2004	
	32.24 ± 1.2 mg/100 g	$322 \pm 12$	Narayanankutty et al., 2016	
Centrifugation	Not detected		Ngampeerapong et al., 2018	
Enzyme-assisted	$35.02\pm0.10~mg/g$	$35,020 \pm 100$	Prapun <i>et al.</i> , 2016	
RBD coconut oil	~12 mg/100g	~120	Marina et al., 2009a	
	6.14 mg/100g	61	Marina et al., 2009b	
	$2.1 \pm 0.19$ mg/100g	$21 \pm 2$	Prasanth Kumar et al., 2015	

TABLE 1. TPCs in coconut oils prepared by different extraction methods expressed as gallic acid equivalents (GAE)

coconut kernel, which is known as white coconut meat. The thin brown outer skin of the white coconut kernel between the white coconut meat and the coconut shell is known as coconut testa. When water evaporates from the coconut meat during the drying of coconut halves, white coconut meat and testa separates from the shell (Figure 2). Both testa and coconut meat are taken for dry or wet extraction of coconut oil unless coconut testa is purposely removed. The TPCs in coconut meat from three coconut types from Indonesia, Vietnam and Thailand have been compared (Ngampeerapong and Chavasit, 2019). Shredded coconut meat was extracted with 80% methanol. This study reported that the TPCs of coconut meat were 72,122 mg/kg (Thailand variety), 63,910 mg/ kg (Indonesian variety) and 103,421 mg/kg (Vietnam variety). However, the same paper indicated that the

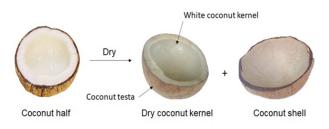


FIGURE 2. Coconut kernel components and coconut shell

percentages of moisture + protein + fat + carbohydrates of coconut meat added up to 99.09% (Thailand variety), 99.01% (Indonesian variety) and 99.06% (Vietnam variety). Therefore, the phenolic contents of ~7% (Thailand variety), ~6% (Indonesian variety) and 10% (Vietnam variety) may not be realistic. The moisture content in the coconut meat was about 50% according to the analysis of this research. Coconut kernels contain free amino acids (Baptist, 1963). These amino acids interfere with the determination of TPC by the Folin-Ciocalteu method (Everette *et al.*, 2010; Bastola *et al.*, 2017). Sugars also interfere with the Folin-Ciocalteu method (Sanchez-Rangel *et al.*, 2013; Muñoz-Bernal *et al.*, 2017). Proteins in coconut meat can be precipitated prior to the determination of TPC in coconut milk to avoid interference (Kwon *et al.*, 1996; Nadeeshani *et al.*, 2015). Interference by amino acids, proteins and sugars in the coconut meat may contribute to the high readings of TPCs in some studies. However, the reported phenolic contents of 98–100 mg/kg for coconut meat may be more reasonable (Mahayothee *et al.*, 2016).

# 6. COCONUT TESTA

Coconut testa is a very minor component of coconut meat. It is difficult to give an exact estimate of the phenolic contents in pure coconut testa since part of white coconut meat also combines with coconut testa during the paring of coconut meat to separate testa. Coconut testa is the richer source of phenolic compounds compared to white coconut meat (Seneviratne et al., 2009; Seneviratne et al., 2016). A study indicates that the TPC in the coconut oil extracted from the whole copra with both white kernel and brown testa is  $1.4 \pm 0.19 \text{ mg}/100 \text{ g} (14 \pm 2 \text{ mg/kg})$ ; while coconut oils extracted from white coconut kernel alone and coconut testa alone contain  $1.1 \pm 0.11$  mg/100 g (11  $\pm$  1 mg/kg) and 1.9  $\pm$  0.12 mg/100 g (19  $\pm$  1 mg/kg) of phenolic substances, respectively (Appaiah et al., 2014). Reports indicate that the extraction efficiency of phenolic compounds from coconut testa significantly ( $P \le 0.05$ ) varies with the solvent system, while the acidification of the solvent increases the extraction efficiency. For example, the extraction of phenolic compounds from dry and defatted testa by 80% ethanol gives TPC of  $72.7 \pm 1.9$  mg/g (72,700  $\pm$  1900 mg/kg); while the extraction of dry and defatted testa with acidified 80% ethanol gives TPC of  $93.9 \pm 5.3 \text{ mg/g} (93,900 \pm 5,300 \text{ mg/kg})$  (Arivalagan et al., 2018). Phenolic compounds were extracted from powdered coconut testa with methanol using Soxhlet extraction. The reported phenolic quantities were unusually high with over 80% (822 mg/g) of the weight of the plant extract being phenolic compounds (Ojha et al., 2019). If these phenolic quantities were expressed for coconut testa powder instead of plant

extract, a better comparison could have been made with other reported values. The phenolic composition of coconut testa also varied with the coconut cultivar. The TPCs in coconut testa powder produced from four different coconut cultivars grown in Sri Lanka, namely San Raman, Gon Thembili, Ranthembili and Tall x Tall varied in the range of 27,530–62,580 mg/ kg due to cultivar (Marasinghe *et al.*, 2019).

In both the wet and dry processing of coconut kernels for oil extraction, both coconut meat and testa can be used. Even though coconut testa is the main source of phenolic substances in coconut kernels, due to its brown color, coconut testa adds a light-yellow color to the coconut oil. Colorless coconut oil is commercially preferred. Therefore, coconut testa is removed during the preparation of desiccated coconut as well as in the large-scale preparation of VCO by both wet and dry methods.

The TPCs in coconut oil extracted from only white coconut kernels and white coconut kernels with coconut testa under wet hot extraction conditions were  $78 \pm 2$  and  $250 \pm 4$  mg/kg, respectively (Seneviratne *et al.*, 2009). Higher phenolic contents in the coconut oil extracted by using white kernels with coconut testa was due to the richer phenolic contents in testa compared to white coconut kernels.

The phenolic contents in coconut kernel components (white coconut meat and testa) are not fully incorporated into coconut oil during wet or dry extraction methods. Therefore, the residue after the expulsion of coconut oil from coconut kernel components is also rich in phenolic antioxidants (Illam *et al.*, 2017; Karunasiri *et al.*, 2020b).

#### 7. VARIATION OF REPORTED TPC VALUES

Table 1 shows that the TPC clearly depends on the method of extraction of coconut oil. According to Table 1, there is a wide range of TPC reported by different authors for copra oil. The range of TPC in copra oil is 91–644 mg/kg, based on the reported studies (Nevin and Rajamohan, 2004; Seneviratne and Dissanayake, 2005; Seneviratne and Dissanayake, 2008; Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013; de Azevedo *et al.*, 2020). However, the TPC values reported by Ghani *et al.* (2018) for dry extracted coconut oil, the TPC values reported by Prapun *et al.* (2016) and by Ghani *et al.* (2018) for VCO extracted by fermentation methods and the TPC value reported for VCO prepared by the enzymatic extraction by Prapun *et al.* (2016) seem

unusually higher than the values reported by other researchers. Even though the phenolic contents depend on many factors other than the extraction method, these extremely high phenolic contents compared to the other reported values may not be reasonably explained. The TPC in coconut oil prepared by oven-dried grated coconut meat and sun-dried grated coconut meat were reported in one study as  $1.56 \pm 0.24$  $mg/g (1560 \pm 240 mg/kg)$  and  $8.57 \pm 0.36 mg/g (8570)$  $\pm$  360 mg/kg), respectively (Ghani *et al.*, 2018). The values are higher than any other reported values for coconut oil prepared by dry methods (Table 1). The difference in phenolic contents between coconut oils prepared by oven-dried and sun-dried coconut meat was attributed to the possibility of destroying phenolic substances during the drying process. However, the temperature used in the drying process was 40 °C in this study. Even higher temperatures up to 60-70 °C were used in the production of VCO and thermally unstable compounds were not affected by 60-70 °C temperatures. The TPC in coconut oil varied in the order: fermentation > chilling > RBD, suggesting that the steps involved in the RBD process removed some phenolic substances (Marina et al., 2009a).

If unusually high values for TPC were omitted and if extraction method was considered the only variable, the maximum additional phenolic content that could be incorporated into coconut oil by changing the extraction method compared to the extraction method that gave the lowest phenolic content is about 527 mg/kg (Seneviratne and Dissanayake, 2008). Therefore, up to 527 mg/kg phenolic compounds can be incorporated into coconut oil by changing the extraction method. Not many studies have been conducted to evaluate how phenolic compounds in coconut oil vary with the variety of coconut. The limited data available for the variation of TPC with variety is up to 180 mg/kg. The influence of geographical origin on the TPC cannot be computed due to a lack of sufficient relevant data. TPC may change by up to 172 mg/kg due to the influence of the nature of coconut kernel components based on the reported values (Seneviratne et al., 2009).

# 8. COMPOSITION OF PHENOLIC COM-POUNDS IN COCONUT OIL ACCORDING TO EXTRACTION METHOD

The individual phenolic antioxidants in coconut oil have been identified and quantified. Caffeic acid, *p*-coumaric acid, ferulic acid, catechin, dihydrokaempferol, rosmarinic acid and quercetin were identified by mass spectroscopy coupled with liquid chromatography (LC-MS) (Seneviratne and Dissanayake, 2008; Illam et al., 2017). The structures of commonly reported phenolic compounds present in coconut oil are given in Figure 3. The quantities of the individual phenolic compounds were higher in coconut oil prepared by boiling coconut milk (hot extracted coconut oil) compared to copra oil prepared by pressing coconut copra (Seneviratne et al., 2009; Srivastava et al., 2016). The TPC was also higher in hot extracted coconut oil compared to VCO prepared by fermentation (Table 1) (Seneviratne et al., 2009; Srivastava et al., 2016). In the hot extraction method, coconut milk emulsion is heated for a long time till water in the emulsion evaporates. During this evaporation, water and oil layers separate and with the evaporation of water, hydrophilic phenolic compounds are concentrated in the aqueous phase. This allows higher partitioning of phenolic antioxidants in the oil layer. The high temperature used in the hot extraction method favored the dissolving of phenolic compounds in the oil layer (Seneviratne et al., 2009). Consistent with the higher

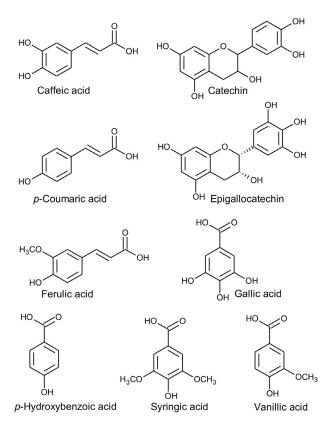


FIGURE 3. Commonly found phenolic compounds in coconut oil

Phenolic content mg/kg*						
Phenolic compound	Copra oil	Boiling	Fermentation	Chilling/centrifugation		
Caffeic acid	0.0052 ± 0.0004 (Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013)	$4.6 \pm 1.5$ (Seneviratne <i>et al.</i> , 2009) $1.59 \pm 0.12$ (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	0.12 ± 0.1 (Marina <i>et al.</i> , 2009a)	0.0083 ± 0.0007 (Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013)		
Catechin	$0.0062 \pm 0.0006$ (Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013) $0.21 \pm 0.02$ (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	81.7 ± 22.7 (Seneviratne <i>et al.</i> , 2009) 18.15 ± 0.93 (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	12.35 ± 1.03 (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	0.0098 ± 0.0007 (Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013)		
Chlorogenic acid		1.55 ± 0.11 (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)				
Cinnamic acid	0.024 ± 0.009 (Appaiah <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	-				
<i>p</i> -Coumaric acid	$0.100 \pm 0.007$ (Appaiah <i>et al.</i> , 2014) $0.049 \pm 005$ (Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013)	0.53 ± 0.06 (Srivastava <i>et al.,</i> 2016)	0.75 ± 0.1 (Marina <i>et al.</i> , 2009a)	0.55±0.3 (Marina <i>et al.</i> , 2009a) 0.054 ± 0.005 (Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013)		
Epigallocatechin		26.7 ± 1.7 (Seneviratne <i>et al.</i> , 2009)				
Epicatechin		$1.4 \pm 0.6$ (Seneviratne <i>et al.</i> , 2009) $2.62 \pm 0.24$ (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)				
Ferulic acid	$\begin{array}{c} 0.017 \pm 0.005 \\ (\text{Appaiah et al., 2014}) \\ 0.020 \pm 0.002 \\ (\text{Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013}) \end{array}$	22.1 ± 8.9 (Seneviratne <i>et al.</i> , 2009) 12.83 ± 0.94 (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	5.09 ± 2.3 (Marina <i>et al.</i> , 2009a) 2.36 ± 0.32 (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	5.04±3.0 (Marina <i>et al.</i> , 2009a) 0.099 ± 0.009 (Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013)		
Gallic acid	0.247 ± 0.012 (Appaiah <i>et al.</i> , 2014) 1.06 ± 0.05 (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	20.2 ± 10.1 (Seneviratne <i>et al.</i> , 2009) 25.29 ± 1.11 (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	18.01 ± 1.16 (Srivastava <i>et al.,</i> 2016)			
<i>p</i> -Hydroxybenzoic acid	$0.076 \pm 0.001$ (Appaiah <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	4.8 ± 1.0 (Seneviratne <i>et al.</i> , 2009)				
Syringic acid	$0.179 \pm 0.004$ (Appaiah <i>et al.</i> , 2014) $2.45 \pm 0.2$ (Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013)	4.1 ± 0.9 (Seneviratne <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	0.45±0.3 (Marina <i>et al.</i> , 2009a)	0.90±0.1 (Marina <i>et al.</i> , 2009a) 25.1 ± 2.3 (Arunima and Rajamohan, 2013)		
Vanillic acid	0.638 ± 0.003 (Appaiah <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	-	$2.08 \pm 1.4$ (Marina <i>et al.</i> , 2009a) $1.03 \pm 0.06$ (Srivastava <i>et al.</i> , 2016)			

TABLE 2. Phenolic compounds in coconut oil extracted by different methods

\*Units were converted where appropriate

TPC of hot extracted coconut oil, the number and the quantity of the phenolic compounds were also higher in hot extracted coconut oil (Table 2) (Seneviratne *et al.*, 2009; Srivastava *et al.*, 2016). In addition to the results in Table 2, another author also reported 4.04  $\times 10^{-2}$  ppm gallic acid in the phenolic extracts of VCO with no information on the extraction method (Lib-

rado and Von Luigi, 2013). Other reports have also indicated that the quantities of individual phenolic acids in coconut oil vary with extraction method (Marina *et al.*, 2009a). For example, Table 2 shows that the quantities (mg/kg) of phenolic compounds in coconut oils prepared by fermentation method and by chilling/centrifugation method contain different amounts of individual phenolic compounds. Vanillic acid and caffeic acid were not detected in VCO prepared by chilling and centrifugation; while those two phenolic compounds were detected in coconut oil prepared by fermentation. Catechin and epigallocatechin are the common flavonoids present in coconut oil (Table 2). In addition, quercetin  $(1.62 \pm 0.09 \text{ mg/}$ kg) has been reported in hot extracted coconut oil (Srivastava *et al.*, 2016). Myricetin-3-*o*-glucoside has also been reported to be present in VCO with no clear origin (Illam *et al.*, 2017).

#### 9. REFINING AND PHENOLIC CONTENT

RBD coconut oil is prepared by procedures involving chemical and physical steps. In physical refining, degumming is done in the first step by treating the oil with phosphoric acid to remove phospholipids. Then the oil is heated to 80-90 °C and bleached by passing through a mixture of bleaching earth and activated carbon. Finally, the deodorizing and removal of free fatty acids are done by exposing the oil to a vacuum at 220-240 °C. The main difference in chemical refining is that free fatty acids are removed by treating the oil with a pre-determined amount of NaOH to neutralize fatty acids instead of removing free fatty acids under vacuum distillation. The resultant sodium salts in fatty acids (soap) are washed away with water. Refining, bleaching and deodorization remove most of the phenolic substances, tocopherols and sterols from coconut oil (Liu et al., 2019a; Deen et al., 2021). One study indicated that the TPC in crude copra oil was 618 mg/kg. However, the remaining TPC of this oil after the RBD process was 20 mg/kg (Pavan Kumar et al., 2018). The TPCs in commercial RBD coconut oil purchased from the Indian market were  $21 \pm 2$  mg/kg; while those in crude oil samples were in the range of 27-191 mg/ kg. The maximum total phenol content reported for RBD oil is 120 mg/kg, according to Table 1. Some studies also reported almost zero  $(0.1 \pm 0.0 \text{ mg/kg})$ TPC for RBD coconut oil (Liu et al., 2019b). Individual phenolic compounds are also different in RBD coconut oil compared to other coconut oils. For example, the vanillic and syringic acids present in coconut oil extracted by fermentation are absent in RBD coconut oil. The ferulic acid content present in coconut oil extracted by the fermentation method is  $5.09 \pm 2.3$  mg/kg; while RBD coconut oil contained only  $1.39 \pm 0.2$  mg/kg (Marina *et al.*, 2009a).

Therefore, the nutritional properties expected from the phenolic antioxidants present in crude or virgin oils may not be fully expected from RBD oils. Due to the removal of phenolic compounds, RBD coconut oil is less stable against oxidation compared to VCO (Koh and Long, 2012). RBD also has different sensory properties compared to crude coconut oil or VCO due to the removal of phenolic compounds and different volatile organic matter (Chang *et al.*, 2020).

# 10. COMPARISON WITH OLIVE OIL PHENO-LICS

The TPCs in olive oil have been reported in numerous publications. Commonly reported ranges include 45-532 mg/kg (Mannino et al., 1999; Bayram et al., 2012). The TPC in the olive oil of three Italian varieties show significant ( $p \le 0.05$ ) differences and changes in the range of 367-530 mg/kg (Sicari, 2017); while the TPC of some traditionally prepared Turkish olive oils from different olive varieties ranges from 22.5 to 97.1 mg/kg (Tanilgana et al., 2007). The TPCs in the olive oils from six Italian olive varieties prepared by a novel cooling treatment of olive paste varied in the range of 410–1005 mg/kg (Veneziani et al., 2017; Veneziani et al., 2018). Olive oil from two Croatian olive varieties, Bianchera and Busa, contained 312 and 248 mg/kg, respectively (Skevin et al., 2003). Mean TPC and maximum TPC in olive oil from olive varieties in Greece were 483 mg/kg and 4003 mg/kg, respectively (Diamantakos et al., 2021). Due to the differences in phenolic profiles, the fingerprinting of phenolic composition with suitable chemometric methods can be used to differentiate the varietal origin of olive oil (Bajoub et al., 2017).

Geographical conditions also play an important role in the TPC of olive oil. The TPC in the same olive variety drastically changed from 513–1084 with the geographical area (Mansour *et al.*, 2017). European olive varieties grown in Tunisia produced different phenolic profiles compared to the traditional growing areas and the most important factor affecting the phenolic composition was suggested to be altitude (Dabbou *et al.*, 2009). In addition to the olive variety and geographical origin, the ripening stage of the olives and the crushing method also affect the phenolic composition according to studies done in Italy and Spain (Giovacchino *et al.*, 2002; Navajas-Porras *et al.*, 2020).

Several phenolic compounds present in coconut oil such as caffeic acid, ferulic acid, gallic acid, p-hydroxybenzoic acid, syringic acid, vanillic acid, *p*-coumaric and cinnamic acid have been reported to be present in olive oil as well (Ryan and Robards, 1998; Boskou et al., 2005). In addition to free phenolics and flavonoids, several bound phenolic compounds are also present in olive oil (Servili and Montedoro, 2002; Jimenez-Lopez et al., 2020). However, only three bound phenolic compounds have been reported so far for coconut oil (Seneviratne et al., 2009; Illam et al., 2017). The phenolic compounds in both olive oil and coconut oil are responsible for beneficial health effects (Covas et al., 2006; Seneviratne and Jayathilaka, 2015; Narayanankutty et al., 2018; Deen et al., 2021). The aroma and flavor of olive oil correlate with the phenol content (Kiritsakis, 1998; Genovese et al., 2018; Pedan et al., 2019). Even though the sensory properties of virgin coconut oil have been studied (Villarino, Dy and Lizada, 2007, Lukic et al., 2017; Fiorini et al., 2018), the correlation between phenolic compounds and sensory properties in coconut oil needs further research.

#### **11. CONCLUSIONS**

The common range of TPC for coconut oil extracted with any variable such as extraction method, variety, coconut kernel material, etc. is 72-650 mg/ kg according to reported values. However, unusually high values for TPC have also been reported for coconut oil and coconut meat. Even though the extraction method, variety, hybrids, refining, etc. affect the TPC in coconut oil, these factors may not account for some unusually high TPC values reported. Interference by other compounds such as amino acids and sugars during the determination of phenolic content using the Folin-Ciocalteu assay and possible calculation errors during converting colorimetric readings to given quantities in (mg/g, mg/100 g or mg/kg) units may be possible causes for the large deviation of TPC values in some reports. The RBD process removes phenolic compounds from coconut oil. Depending on the efficiency of the RBD process, the TPC in RBD coconut oil varies between 0–120 mg/kg. The antioxidant activity and health benefits of the phenolic compounds in coconut oil have been sufficiently reported. Even though there has been substantial work done on the extraction method and phenolic composition, sufficient studies

have not been conducted to assess the effect of the wide range of coconut varieties available in different geographical origins on the phenolic composition. Therefore, information on the variation in phenolic composition with coconut variety and geographical origin presented in the present review was based on the limited literature available. Careful review of the literature also indicates that there are very limited studies on the identification of phenolic compounds in coconut oil by HPLC methods. Most of the reported phenolic compounds in coconut oils are free phenolic acids and flavonoids. Several of these free phenolic compounds present in coconut oil are also present in olive oil. However, the presence of glycosides, aglycones, secoiridoid derivates or any other bound forms of phenolic compounds in coconut oil have not been reported. Therefore, further studies are necessary to elucidate the complete phenolic profile of coconut oil. In addition, further studies are necessary to investigate how the phenolic compounds in coconut oil are related to the sensory properties of coconut oil.

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#### DATA AVAILABILITY

All the data presented in the paper are included in the manuscript and references.

# **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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