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Effect of fungal fermentation on proximate composition, physical and functional properties of five different plant proteins used in aquafeed formulation

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ABSTRACT

Five different plant proteins such as soybean meal (SBM), groundnut oil cake (GNC), rapeseed meal (RSM), sunflower oil cake (SFC) and guar meal (GRM) were tested for proximate composition as well as physical and functional properties before and after fermentation using *Aspergillus niger*. Fermentation was carried out in a BOD incubator at 35°C for three days after inoculating with 5% fungal suspension. Results revealed that fermentation significantly (p<0.05) increased the crude protein content and total ash by 12.5 and 10.5%, respectively, while other proximate indices, including crude fat, crude fiber and nitrogen-free extract reduced significantly. The fungal fermentation had no effect on the texture and colour of plant proteins, while fermented samples had slightly fermented odour along with their natural odour. The plant proteins such as SBM, GNC, RSM, SFC and GRM had bulk densities of 0.54, 0.62, 0.79, 0.60 and 0.71 g cm⁻³ which significantly (p<0.05) increased by 27.1, 0.5, 0.4, 19.9 and 12.3%, respectively. Fermentation significantly (p<0.05) reduced water holding capacity by 11.7% regardless of the ingredients, with the decrease being significantly (p<0.05) greater in GNC (17.7%), RSM (16.4%) and SBM (13.4%). After fermentation, the protein solubility index reduced significantly (p<0.05) from 77.12 to 73.59%, with SBM and RSM having a reduction of about 5.9 and 5.4% respectively, while GNC and SFC had a reduction of 4%. The difference between fermented and unfermented GRM on the other hand, was not significant. Results concluded that fermented ingredients could be potential protein sources rather than their counterparts based on their chemical composition and functional properties.

Keywords: Aspergillus niger, Fermentation, Functional property, Physical property, Plant protein, Proximate composition

The global population grows continually year by year, resulting in increased seafood consumption and is expected to reach 150-160 million t by 2030 (FAO, 2020). On the other side, wild fish catches have plummeted due to overexploitation of fishery resources creating a void that can be filled by the aquaculture sector (Jannathulla et al., 2019). As the aquaculture industry relies primarily on formulated feeds, its growth inevitably raises the demand for feeds supported by various raw materials. Among the ingredients, fishmeal is a predominant choice due to high protein content with balanced essential amino acids along with higher palatability and digestibility. However, increasing demand, fluctuating prices and global supply changes have underscored the importance of finding a suitable substitute to fishmeal. Though most of the research centers on plant-based proteins due to their widespread availability and inexpensive cost, the results are underwhelming due to a lack of essential amino acids and the presence of anti-nutrients. As a result, plant proteins are treated with microbial species (fermentation) in order to overcome the defects. However, most of the studies are restricted to examining only the nutrient composition after fermentation ignoring their physical properties, which is also crucial to investigate because they influence feed processing. Information on the influence of fermentation on carbohydrate sources like maize (Oladeji *et al.*, 2018), sorghum (Adiandri and Hidayah, 2019) and potato flour (Gong *et al.*, 2021), have widely been described earlier but the reports on protein sources are very scarce. The present study is therefore, aimed to examine how fermentation affects physical properties of five different plant materials that are mainly used as protein sources in aquafeed formulation.

The fungus, *Aspergillus niger* (ATCC 6275) was obtained from the Himedia Laboratories (Mumbai, India), which was cultured in potato dextrose agar (PDA) for five days at 35°C. The fungal spores were harvested using Tween 80 and were adjusted approximately to 10⁷ spores ml⁻¹. Meanwhile, five different plant proteins such as soybean meal (SBM), groundnut oil cake (GNC), rapeseed meal (RSM), sunflower oil cake (SFC) and guar meal (GRM) were purchased from the local market (n=6). They were ground using an electric grinder and passed through a sieve having a mesh size of <500 μm. Deionised water was added to hydrate the ground materials resulting in final moisture content between 60 and 65%. The

R. Jannathulla et al.

hydrated mash was autoclaved at 121°C for 15 min, cooled and inoculated with 5% fungal suspension. The inoculated samples were then incubated in a BOD incubator at 35°C for three days (Jannathulla et al., 2017). Post-fermentation, the fermented samples with 55% moisture were dried at 40-45°C for 48 h to have a moisture content <10%, cooled and stored in a refrigerator until further use. The proximate composition of ingredients, in terms of moisture, crude protein, crude fat, crude fiber and total ash was determined by the standard method of AOAC (1997). Nitrogen-free extract (NFE) was calculated by a difference of 100 - (Σ (%) of all the other proximate indices. Physical properties such as texture, colour and odour as well as functional properties like bulk density, water holding capacity and protein solubility index were determined according to Jannathulla et al. (2019). Data were subjected to two-way ANOVA to assess the effect of treatment (unfermented and fermented) and plant proteins (SBM, GNC, RSM, SFC and GRM) on functional properties. Tukey's test was used to find significant difference if any, among the categories. The difference due to fermentation between plant proteins and their counterparts was analysed using t-test.

The filamentous fungus, *A. niger* is a preferred choice for fermenting plant proteins due to its capability for producing more than twenty different hydrolytic enzymes (Pandey, 1991). The SBM and GRM had the highest crude protein content (>50%) of all the ingredients tested, while SFC had the lowest value (Table 1), regardless of the treatments. Fermentation has significantly (p<0.05) increased the crude protein content by 12.5%, which could be attributed to the proportionate reduction of other

nutrients like crude fiber, NFE and crude fat (Rozan et al., 1996). In addition, A. niger could bio-convert the monomers into myco-proteins such as enzymes, single cell-proteins and hydrolysed peptides by using them as a source of energy (Imelda et al., 2008). Despite this, the fungus also produced certain non-protein nitrogenous substances like chitin and nucleic acids during its proliferation (Kayode and Sani, 2008), which may also be a factor contributing to the higher crude protein content in the fermented ingredients as compared to the untreated materials, in our study. Among the ingredients, the highest level of crude fat was found in GRM (7.82%) whereas it was found in the range of 0.92-2.46% in others (SBM, GNC, RSM and SFC). Fermentation significantly (p<0.05) reduced crude fat, which could be attributed to the production of lipase enzyme. Mala et al. (2007) reported that A. niger produced 384.3 U g-1 of lipase during the fermentation of agro-industrial residues. A similar reduction of crude fat was observed while fermenting SBM using B. coagulans (Imelda et al., 2008). In contrast, a higher crude fat was reported in sesame seed meal fermented with L. acidophilus (Mukhopadhyay and Ray, 1999). Higashiyama et al. (2002) suggested that an increase of crude fat during fermentation might be attributed to the microbial fatty acid production, indicating that the lipase production varies based on the inoculum and substrate used in the fermentation process (Kamini et al., 1998). Crude fiber was found to be high in SFC (27.62%) and the least value was observed in SBM and GRM (6.85 and 7.00%, respectively). Fermentation significantly (p<0.05) reduced crude fiber (13.44-12.44%) and NFE (31.42-26.23%), irrespective of the plant proteins. Reduction of carbohydrates, including crude fiber and NFE was

Table 1. Effect of fungal fermentation on proximate composition (% dry weight basis) of plant proteins used in feed formulation

Particulars	Proximate composition					
	Crude protein	Crude fat	Crude fiber	NFE	Total ash	
Treatment						
Unfermented	45.01 ^b	3.08 ^a	13.44ª	31.42ª	7.04 ^b	
Fermented	50.65ª	2.87^{b}	12.44 ^b	26.23 ^b	7.78^{a}	
Ingredient						
SBM	56.12a	0.92°	6.85 ^d	28.32°	7.76°	
GNC	47.46°	2.04°	12.79 ^b	29.66^{b}	8.02ª	
RSM	44.23 ^d	2.46^{b}	10.44°	35.01a	7.84 ^{bc}	
SFC	36.56e	1.64 ^d	27.62ª	26.21 ^d	7.94^{ab}	
GRM	54.76 ^b	7.82ª	7.00^{d}	24.92°	5.47 ^d	
p value						
Treatment (A)	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	
Ingredient (B)	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	
AxB	< 0.001	0.007	0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	
SEM (+)	0.027	0.003	0.123	0.163	0.008	
CV (%)	0.453	2.461	3.571	1.844	1.615	

All the values are mean of three replications. Mean values bearing same superscript letters in a column within main effects and interactions between the categories do not differ significantly (p>0.05)

associated with the fibrolytic enzymes produced by the microorganism. Jannathulla *et al.* (2017) reported that *A. niger* was found to produce 30 U g⁻¹ cellulase, 3099 U g⁻¹ xylanase and 9 U g⁻¹ pectinase during fermentation. The proportionate change in the nutrients might be a reason for increasing ash content in the fermented samples.

Plant-based materials, especially oilseed meals/ cakes can be used as protein sources in the diet of aquatic species, including shrimp and fish. Microbial fermentation may not only influence the nutritional characteristics of plant proteins but also their physical and functional properties. The physical and functional properties of both unfermented and fermented samples are given in Table 2. Fermentation had no effect on the texture of plant proteins and all samples were homogeneous, free-flowing and dust-free. Colour of each ingredient was unique and was not greatly altered by fermentation except for SBM. After fermentation, the colour of SBM changed from somewhat yellow to brownish. Our result relating to the colour of the ingredients is in agreement with the findings of Borremans et al. (2020), who reported that fermented ingredients had a higher browning index and consequently deeper colour than the unfermented ones. The odour was specific, as in colour, to each ingredient tested in our study and fermented samples had slightly fermented odour along with their natural odour.

The bulk density is a measure of how much weight the samples can hold if placed directly on top of one another. The density of processed materials determines the amount and strength of packing material used, as well as the texture and mouthfeel of the product. Our results (Table 3) revealed that the bulk density of unfermented plant proteins was 0.65 g cm⁻³ and significantly (p<0.05) increased to 0.72 g cm⁻³ due to fermentation irrespective of the ingredients. Of all the test ingredients, the bulk density was found to be high in RSM (0.79 g cm⁻³) and low in SBM (0.60 g cm⁻³) regardless of the treatment. The values obtained in our study were comparable with the values reported by Okaka and Potter (1979) for cowpea (0.60 g cm⁻³), Onimawo et al. (1998) for Bambara groundnut (0.60-0.75 g cm⁻³) and Amadou et al. (2010) for soy protein meal. The bulk density of SBM, GNC, RSM, SFC and GRM was 0.54, 0.62, 0.79, 0.60

and 0.71 g cm⁻³, respectively and significantly (p<0.05) increased by 27.1, 0.5, 0.4, 19.9 and 12.3% (Fig. 1). This result is in agreement with the fermentation of SBM using L. plantarum (Amadou et al., 2010). The authors suggested that an increase in bulk density after fermentation might be attributed to a decrease in moisture content in the fermented samples than their counterparts. This was due to the fact that an increase in mass owing to moisture gain in the sample was lower than accompanying volumetric expansion of the bulk (Solomon and Zewdu, 2009). Similar results have been reported by Ozarslan (2002) for cottonseed and Mwithiga and Sifuna (2006) in sorghum. In contrast, Oladeji et al. (2018) found reduced bulk density in maize following fermentation, suggesting that this reduction could be due to macrofloral action, which breaks and utilises simple and complex carbohydrates.

Water holding capacity is defined as the amount of water absorbed by dried samples following equilibration against water vapour at a known relative humidity and it must be calculated in order to make formulation adjustments when switching protein sources. When

Table 3. Functional properties of plant proteins used in feed formulation

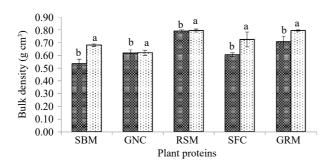
Particulars	Functional properties					
ratticulais	BD ¹ (g cm ⁻³)	WHC ² (ml g ⁻¹)	PSI ³ (%)			
Treatment						
Unfermented	0.65^{b}	3.34^{a}	77.12ª			
Fermented	0.72^{a}	2.99 ^b	73.59 ^b			
Ingredient						
SBM	0.60^{d}	4.29a	82.58ª			
GNC	0.61^{d}	2.34^{d}	80.05^{b}			
RSM	0.79^{a}	2.27^{d}	75.73°			
SFC	0.66°	3.90^{b}	64.09^{d}			
GRM	0.75^{b}	3.03°	74.33°			
p-value						
Treatment (A)	< 0.001	0.001	< 0.001			
Ingredient (B)	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001			
A x B	< 0.001	0.283	0.658			
SEM (+)	0.001	0.031	1.932			
CV (%)	3.928	7.298	2.427			

¹Bulk density; ²Water holding capacity; ³Protein solubility index. All the values are mean of three replications. Values bearing same superscript letters in a column within main effects and interactions between the categories do not differ significantly (p>0.05)

Table 2. Effect of fungal fermentation on the physical properties of plant proteins used in feed formulation

Ingredients	Texture		Colour		Odour	
	Unfermented	Fermented	Unfermented	Fermented	Unfermented	Fermented
SBM			Yellow	Brownish yellow	A slight pleasant odour of soybean	
GNC			Skin colour	Skin colour	Nutty odour	Usual
RSM	Homogenous, free flowing and not dusty		Greenish brown	Greenish brown	Natural typical aroma without any extraneous odour	odour with fermented
SFC			Grayish black	Grayish black	Resinous kind of smell	smell
GRM			Light green	Light green	Mealy odour	

R. Jannathulla et al.



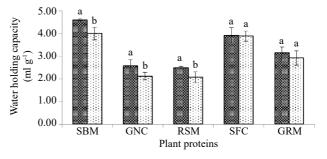
■ Unfermented, □ Fermented

Fig. 1. Effect of fungal fermentation on bulk density of plant proteins used in aquafeed formulation. Mean values bearing same superscript letters within the categories do not differ significantly (p>0.05)

introduced to a formula, some proteins with a higher water retention capacity may ingest an excessive quantity of water, dehydrating other components in food systems and vice versa. Furthermore, water holding capacity indicates how much water is available for gelatinisation during feed preparation (Singh et al., 2012). Water holding capacity was significantly (p<0.05) high in SBM (4.29 ml g⁻¹) followed by SFC (3.90 ml g⁻¹) and GRM (3.03 ml g^{-1}) , whereas lower (p<0.05) values were obtained for both GNC and RSM (2.27-2.34 ml g-1) regardless of the treatment. The difference in water holding capacity among the ingredients might be due to the composition and presence of carbohydrates, proteins, lipids, pH, salts and also processing methods (Kinsella and Melachouris, 1976). Fermentation significantly (p<0.05) decreased water holding capacity by 11.7% (Table 3) and the decrease was significantly (p<0.05) higher in GNC (17.7%) followed by RSM (16.4%) and SBM (13.1%). Our results corroborated with the findings of Amadou et al. (2010) in SBM, Obiakor-Okeke et al. (2014) in Mucuna seed, Okoronkwo et al. (2006) in Mucuna bean and Abd Elmonein et al. (2005) in sorghum. The authors have opined that the difference in quality of protein and reduction in the quantity of hydrophilic carbohydrates might be responsible for the variation in the water holding capacity of plant proteins after fermentation. According to Adiandri and Hidayah (2019), the higher water holding capacity of the materials was due to the amylose content, which could be used effectively by A. niger, resulting in lower water absorption. This could also be a reason for low water holding capacity in fermented samples in our study. However, there was no significant difference between fermented ingredients and their counterparts in SFC and GRM (Fig. 2).

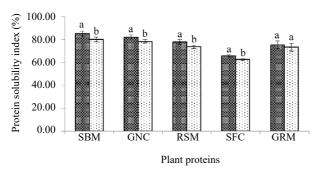
Protein solubility index is an important functional attribute of protein sources as well as a good quality index that is most widely used to evaluate over processing

protein sources especially SBM (Araba and Dale, 1990). The protein solubility index was 77.12% in unfermented ingredients and was significantly (p<0.05) reduced to 73.59% after fermentation regardless of the plant proteins. In SBM and RSM, the reduction was about 5.9 and 5.4%, respectively and in GNC and SFC, it was around 4%. Though the protein solubility index in fermented GRM was lowered by 2.6%, it did not differ significantly from its counterpart (Fig. 3). Chen et al. (2010) observed a similar result when fermenting SBM with Aspergillus alone and a combination of Aspergillus and Lactobacillus. The application of heat during autoclaving and drying processes during fermentation might have reduced protein solubility, as high protein solubility is a desired functional property and loss of solubility is commonly used as an indicator of protein denaturation. Plant protein sources must not be exposed to excessive heat to maintain optimal nutritional value, as this will denature the protein pool, making it less soluble and digestible. Despite the fact that heat treatment reduced the protein solubility index, Parsons et al. (1991) and Jannathulla et al. (2017) found no impairment in growth in terms of weight or feed efficiency in chick, pig and shrimp with protein solubility in KOH more than 72, 59 and 66%, respectively. Akkerman (2014) suggested that heat treatment denatured the protein by altering structural integrity, particularly secondary and tertiary structure, as well as weakening hydrogen bonds and functional groups. It twists, spins and bends proteins, converting them from folded to unfolded states, resulting in the loss of functional activity. However, the protein solubility in all of the fermented samples in our investigation was greater than 73-80% (Fig. 3). Percentage variation in functional properties was comparatively high for bulk density and low for water holding capacity and protein solubility index (Fig. 4). In conclusion, the fungus, A. niger did not only influence the chemical composition but also the physical and functional properties of the plant proteins, suggesting that fungal fermentation could enhance the utility of plant proteins by improving the processing characteristics.



■ Unfermented, ☐ Fermented

Fig. 2. Effect of fungal fermentation on water holding capacity of plant proteins used in aquafeed formulation. Mean values bearing same superscript letters within the categories do not differ significantly (p>0.05)



■ Unfermented, □ Fermented

Fig. 3. Effect of fungal fermentation on protein solubility index of plant proteins used in aquafeed formulation. Mean values bearing same superscript letters within the categories do not differ significantly (p>0.05)

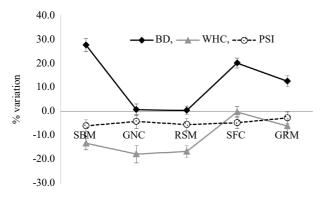


Fig. 4. Percentage variation in functional properties between unfermented and fermented plant proteins used in feed formulation

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R. Jannathulla et al.

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