



**TOGETHER**  
*for a sustainable future*

## OCCASION

This publication has been made available to the public on the occasion of the 50<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the United Nations Industrial Development Organisation.



**TOGETHER**  
*for a sustainable future*

## DISCLAIMER

This document has been produced without formal United Nations editing. The designations employed and the presentation of the material in this document do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Secretariat of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries, or its economic system or degree of development. Designations such as "developed", "industrialized" and "developing" are intended for statistical convenience and do not necessarily express a judgment about the stage reached by a particular country or area in the development process. Mention of firm names or commercial products does not constitute an endorsement by UNIDO.

## FAIR USE POLICY

Any part of this publication may be quoted and referenced for educational and research purposes without additional permission from UNIDO. However, those who make use of quoting and referencing this publication are requested to follow the Fair Use Policy of giving due credit to UNIDO.

## CONTACT

Please contact [publications@unido.org](mailto:publications@unido.org) for further information concerning UNIDO publications.

For more information about UNIDO, please visit us at [www.unido.org](http://www.unido.org)



D00473



1913.  
DELMAR  
1913.  
DELMAR  
1913.

## United Nations Industrial Development Organization

## OILSEED PROTEIN IN FOOD USES

5

John J. Winkler, Director  
Winkler Chemical Research Laboratory  
Pleasanton, California, USA

The views and opinions expressed in this paper are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the secretariat of UNIDO. This document has been reproduced without formal editing.

We regret that some of the pages in the microfiche copy of this report may not be up to the proper legibility standards, even though the best possible copy was used for preparing the master fiche.

The objective of this note will be to review the use of oilseeds as protein sources for feeds, with emphasis on soybeans. In particular the production potential, the source of soybean protein available, and the merits of their use in feed will receive attention.

The edible oilseeds produced for export purposes are soybeans, cottonseed, peanut, flaxseed, canola (rapeseed), sunflower seed, sesame seed, and corn. Export statistics for each oilseed product is shown in Table 1. All exports can be used in animal feeds<sup>1</sup> and direct<sup>2</sup> as

Table 1. Export Production of Major Oilseeds  
January-June 1977

Oilseed	Production 1977	
	Short tons	Metric tons
Soybeans	1,213,000	340,000
Cottonseed	1,131,000	310,000
Flaxseed	10,000	2,800
Canola (rapeseed)	5,150	1,450
Sunflower Seed	1,117	310
Sesame Seed	1,050	280
Corn	2,000	500

<sup>1</sup> From Agricultural Statistics 1977, U.S. Department of Agriculture.

<sup>2</sup> From U.S. Department of Energy, from "The State of Food and Agriculture 1977," FAO, Rome, 1977.

<sup>3</sup> From U.S. Department of Energy, from "The State of Food and Agriculture 1977," FAO, Rome, 1977.

Outside of the Orient soybeans did not become commercially important until about 1916. The increasing market for oil in Europe and the United States resulted in the development of a soybean crushing industry based at first or maybe not imported from the Orient. In general, the meal was used for animal feed although very limited amounts found outlets in food.

Marketing Enters the Picture. A limited growing of soybeans was tried in the midwest outside of the Orient countries. However, no serious interest in production developed until 1916-1917 in the United States. Before that time, soybeans had been imported by both Europe and the United States for crushing to produce oil. Imported oil itself was imported, for example from Manchuria, to fill the increasing demand for food oils.

The remarkable history of the development of soybeans as a major crop in the United States has been reviewed by a number of writers. A very complete description up to about 1941 is to be found in a book by F. J. Dicus (4).

Domestic soybeans were first crushed for oil commercially in 1916. However, oil production apparently was sporadic and largely experimental until about 1926. At that time, soybean production reached about 1 million bushels per year.

The rapid rise after that in soybean production resulted from a favorable combination of circumstances. Higher prices paid to the farmer in crop rotation, first leaving as a forage crop and to maintain soil productivity. The market for oil was increasing. The slogan

processing industry took an aggressive position, assuring the farmers of a market for the soybeans produced. Finally, the value of the oilseed meal as a feed grain in supplement was demonstrated and well advertised. As part of some of the early oil production, the companies produced and sold mixed feeds incorporating the soybean meal, thereby encouraging the wider feed use of the meal.

Another factor in the early success of soybeans in the United States was the availability initially of a number of varieties from the Orient that were adapted to a range of growing conditions. In general, these growing conditions were similar to those in the United States. Therefore, breeders and agronomists were able to select and develop varieties which would meet the needs of a wide area, even though any one variety had very limited adaptability in terms of such factors as response to day length.

The subject of some of the first successful varieties is covered, for example, in the book, "The Soybean", by C. V. Flyer and W. T. Morse (5). This book is particularly interesting to read because it expresses optimism and enthusiasm over the soybean crop and its use when the development really was in its infancy. Some statements which probably at the time were considered overly optimistic, today seem extremely conservative and inadequate.

The rapid increase in soybean production is clearly demonstrated by a tabulation of annual harvest at 10-year intervals (Table 2). A

Table 2. Soybean Production in United States

Crop Year	Production Thousand Bu.	Yield per Acre Bu.
1919	2,500	14.1
1929	2,400	13.3
1939	90,000	20.9
1949	234,000	22.3
1959	233,000	23.5
1969 <sup>1/</sup> (not available)	1,024,000	26.3

<sup>1/</sup> Estimate, November 1969

major part of the production is in the Corn Belt, although the Southern and Southeastern States have been contributing an increasing proportion of the total.

The crushing of soybeans for oil in the United States amounted to about 580 million bushels in 1967-68. Food uses of the oil accounted for 4.0 billion pounds out of the total of 5.4 billion pounds of oil used in the United States (exclusive of export). These food uses were distributed approximately 25 percent for margarine, 35 percent for shortening, and 40 percent other uses, primarily as cooking and salad oil. Only about 500,000,000 pounds of soybean oil was used for non-food products such as paints, other drying oil products, and chemicals.

Production of soybean meal in 1957-63 was about 13,700,000 short tons in the United States. Of this, 10.7 million tons were used as feed and 2.6 million tons were exported. Only 30,000 tons went to non-feed uses, about equally divided between feed and industrial outlets.

Economics of soybean production. The economics of growing soybeans and of corn in the United States have shown comparable profits. The lower yield of soybeans has been offset by higher price and by lower production cost. Less labor, reclining, and fertilizer are required for soybeans. Production of both soybeans and corn represents large-scale operations, with considerable attention to efficiency of production. In the Southern States soybeans often have been produced on acreage taken out of cotton production.

The economics of soybean production also depends, of course, on the marketing situation. Particularly important are the demand for oil and meal, the prices at which they can be sold, the efficiency of their production, and the export market for beans as well as oil and meal. In general, soybean marketing and processing are large-volume operations with a small unit profit margin.

Adaptability of Soybeans to Other Countries. Brief statistics on soybean production are given in Table 3. The countries listed, together

Table 3. Geographic Distribution of Soybean Production 1961<sup>1/</sup>

<u>Country</u>	<u>Production (thousand bushels)</u>	
United States	928,000	Other countries with production
Mainland China	250,000	between 6,000 and 1,000,000
Brazil	22,000	bushels include, in increasing
USSR (Europe and Asia)	22,000	order, Rhodesia, Italy, Other
Indonesia	14,000	Europe (excluding USSR), Tanzania,
Canada	9,000	Turkey (Europe and Asia), Cambodia,
Japan	7,000	Romania, Yugoslavia, Paraguay,
Korea (Republic of)	6,000	Nigeria, Argentina, Thailand.
Mexico	4,000	
Colombia	2,000	

<sup>1/</sup> Agricultural Statistics, 1968 (U.S. Dept. Agr.).

with the different soybean-growing areas of the United States and Far East, represent a considerable range of climatic and growing conditions. This, alone, would suggest that soybeans could be grown even more widely than at present.

Limited space will be devoted here to a consideration of suitability of present and potential new varieties for growth in different parts of the world. I anticipate that this subject will be covered rather completely in the discussion; the group will have at the University of Illinois. Some indication of the success in selecting U.S. varieties for production trials in India is given in a recent report from the University of Illinois (6).

The influence of day-length on flowering and seed production by the soybean plant is a controlling factor in the selection or development of varieties for specific locations. However, as indicated earlier, varieties covering a wide range of day-length response may now be available as a result of breeding and of selection from different locations in the Orient. However, one can not expect to make soybeans a profitable crop for all parts of the world. Other meat protein sources, obviously will have to be drawn upon to help round out the food needs.

Nutritive value of soy-protein. In animal feeds, soybean meal not only provides a high level of protein (30-50 percent) but also an amino acid composition which is advantageous relative to use as a supplement to feed grains. The protein of corn and sorghum, the main feed grains in the United States, is deficient in lysine and tryptophane, along with the sulfur amino acids (methionine and cysteine). The protein of soybeans, on the other hand, has considerably more than the required proportion of lysine. For several other amino acids, also, the composition of soybean protein is complementary to that of corn and sorghum protein. However, the sulfur amino acid content is equally low in all, so that supplementation with methionine is required to give optimum feed value for some animal feeding.

For the human diet, soybean protein similarly offers the possibility of improving the balance of essential amino acids, particularly where the cereal grains constitute a major source of dietary protein. Dependence on cereal grains, of course, has been noted to be characteristic of many areas where malnutrition and undernourishment exist. In such cases, also, total protein intake may be low. The high concentration of protein in soybean products therefore is advantageous for raising the protein level as well as improving the protein quality of the diet.

The complementary relation of essential amino acid composition from the viewpoint of human needs is apparent from the data in Figures 1 and 2. The amino acid composition of the protein in the mixture is expressed as percent of the amount present in whole egg protein taken as the "ideal" protein. The mixture is more nearly ideal (100 percent) than either corn meal or soybean protein alone. Further details of amino acid composition are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Essential Amino Acid Patterns<sup>1/</sup>

Essential Amino Acid	Whole Egg Protein <sup>2/</sup>	Soy Flour	Whole Corn Meal	1965 Corn-Soy <sup>2/</sup>
Aromatic AA	195	200	217	206
Isoleucine	129	125	94	115
Leucine	172	188	328	237
Lysine	125	154	66	122
Sulfur AA	107	75	75	75
Threonine	99	100	85	96
Tryptophan	31	33	17	27
Valine	141	127	118	124

<sup>1/</sup> Each essential amino acid (EAA) is expressed as milligrams per gram of total EAA in the protein.

<sup>2/</sup> 1965 FAO provisional pattern based on whole egg protein.

<sup>3/</sup> 75 Percent whole corn meal (10 percent protein) plus 25 percent defatted soy flour (52 percent protein) = 20.5 percent protein (dry basis).

in which the amounts of each amino acid are expressed as milligrams per gram of total essential amino acids in the protein.

The nutritional effectiveness of soybean protein as a protein supplement has been demonstrated in human feeding trials. For example, full-fat soybean protein prepared by extraction-making gave good results in the feeding of infants in Taiwan (2). Both soybean and cottonseed protein are used in supplementary food products with good results. Probably most information on feeding is available on laundry while data on CSM is also accumulating.

Form of Soy Protein for Food Use. Several types or forms of soybean protein, differing in protein content and properties, are available commercially in the United States. The main ones are listed in Table 5, together with the

Table 5. Costs and Production Estimates of Soybean Proteins

Protein Form	Protein Content Percent	Cost Per Pound Cents	Estimated Production <sup>1/</sup>
			Million pounds
Flours and grits	40-50	6-1/2-7	105-110 <sup>2/</sup>
Concentrates	70	18-20	17-30
Isolates	90-95	35-39	22-35

<sup>1/</sup> Estimates for 1967.

<sup>2/</sup> An additional 100 million pounds were used in corn-soy-milk product (CSM).

Source: C.P. Eley, Marketing and Transportation Situation, August 1968.

PAGE

approximate selling price and estimated production in 1967. The lower end of the range of protein content shown for flour and grits would apply to full-fat flour. Whole soybeans, as the raw material, cost about 4 cents per pound.

Other papers uniformly will give details for production of different soybean proteins. For convenience, however, I will give simplified flow diagrams for defatted soy flour, soy protein concentrate, and isolated soy protein, together with a few comments about them.

The production of defatted soy flour, outlined in Figure 3, is essentially the same as for soybeans used for animal feed. The main differences are in selection of highest quality beans, completeness of dehulling, and the use of facilities meeting the requirements for food processing.

The toasting step, which is a moist heat treatment, is optional depending on the use to be made of the soy flour. Any request for delivery of soy flour should specify the degree of toasting since this treatment has a considerable influence on properties and, therefore, use. For example, untoasted flour is required when bleaching action is desired in breadmaking. On the other hand, maximum nutritional value and mildest flavor can be obtained only by toasting. Excessive heat treatment generally is to be avoided because of decrease in nutritional quality and destruction of functional properties.

Soy protein concentrate, containing about 70 percent protein, can be made by at least three processes, all of which involve removal of sugars and other low molecular weight soluble constituents from defatted soybean flakes by extraction. The process and alternative extraction ("desugaring") conditions are outlined in Figure 4. The products differ in such properties as solubility, primarily because of differences in extent of denaturation of the protein. Therefore, they would not be completely interchangeable in those uses for which degree of denaturation would be influential. Differences in extent of flavor removal also may be observed.

The least denaturation occurs in the process based on extraction at pH about 6.5, which is the isoelectric point or pH of minimum solubility for most of the protein in the soybean. Extraction with aqueous alcohol, in the second process, causes considerable protein denaturation but apparently is rather effective in removing flavor constituents. In the Ultra process the protein solubility first is reduced by heat denaturation so that the soybean flakes can be extracted with water at neutrality.

Production of isolated soy protein, containing over 90 percent protein, is outlined in Figure 5. The starting material, defatted flakes or meal, must have had minimum heat treatment since the retention of protein solubility is essential. The isolation procedure depends on solubility of most of the protein at pH 7 to 9 and precipitation from solution at the isoelectric point, about pH 6.5. The neutralized product, soy proteinate, displays functional properties including solubility while the isoelectric protein is relatively inert.

The difference in prices of the various forms of soy protein reflect costs inherent in the processes, as well as other factors including scale of operation. The form of protein used in feeds depends on the functional properties required, the extent to which nonprotein constituents are acceptable, and the effect of price on the market for the final product.

**Importance of Functional Properties.** Some of the functional properties of soy protein products are listed in Table 6. Food uses associated with

**Table 6. Functional Properties of Soybean Protein-Based Systems**

Functional Property	Food System
Emulsification	Ground meat Sausage Baked goods
Fat control (retention and blocking)	Ground meat Doughnuts Pancakes
Water control (absorption and retention)	Milkshakes Bread Cakes Confections
Texture	Soup mixes Gravies Ground meats Simulated meats
Aeration	Whipped toppings Confections Chiffon mixes
Color control (bleaching and browning)	Bread Breading mixes

the functional properties also are indicated, although the listing does not represent all uses. In the United States these functional properties are the reason behind many uses of soy proteins. Nutritional quality in such cases is a secondary but important benefit. In general, a given soy

protein product does not have all of the functional properties listed so the processing and handling of the protein must be controlled in such a way to retain or develop the properties specifically required to whatever extent is planned.

**Importance of moist heating.** For most food uses, moist heat treatment of protein is desirable. Enzymatic processes as a bleaching agent (enzymatic whitening of soybeans) or where protein is to be digested requires, again, the addition of moist heat.

Edible protein digestible anti-nutritive factors such as trypsin inhibitor. The effect of heat on nutritive quality is shown by the results of rat-feeding experiments shown in Figure 6. The protein efficiency (weight gain per unit weight of protein consumed) was nearly doubled when the soy meal was steamed at the higher initial moisture content (19 percent). The final protein efficiency was nearly as high as that of the reference protein, casein. The increase in protein efficiency coincides with the decrease in trypsin inhibitor activity, although other constituents with similar sensitivity to moist heat may also be involved in the improvement of nutritive value of the soybean meal.

Flavor is another property that is improved by moist heat treatment. The increase in flavor score (indicating a blander product) and change in the type of flavor on steaming of soy flour is shown in Table 7. While

Table 7. Flavor of Soy Flour: Effect of Steaming

Steaming (minutes)	Flavor Score <sup>1/</sup>	Main Flavor Type <sup>2/</sup>
0	1.5	Bitter, grainy
3	4.5	Bitter
10	6.0	Nutty
40	6.1	Nutty

<sup>1/</sup> 1 = Strong; 10 = bland

<sup>2/</sup> All characterized as leamy

the so-called leamy flavor persisted throughout, the mild nutty flavor that was developed is considered distinct improvement. The flavor is mild enough to be either not objectionable or easily masked by other flavors in many food formulations. The complete removal of flavors from soy protein products for the most exacting uses still is a subject of research. On the other hand, the flavor of soybean flour often is acceptable to people who traditionally have used soybean foods.

In conclusion, I trust that these comments on soybeans will provide a suitable background for the more detailed discussions to be presented.

References

1. E. Orr and D. Adair. "The Production of Protein Foods and Concentrates from Oilseeds." Tropical Institute Report 631 (June 1967).
2. T. Nagata. "Studies on the Differentiation of Soybeans in Japan and the World." *Journal of the Hyogo University of Agriculture*, 3(2), 63 (March 1960). Agronomical series No. 4.
3. T. Matanabe. "Recent Trend of Food Uses of Soybeans in Japan." Presentation at IJNR Panel on Protein Resources Meeting, Washington, D.C., September 22-25, 1969.
4. E. J. Pies. "Soybeans: Gold from the Soil." The MacMillan Company, New York, 1942.
5. C. V. Piper and W. T. Morse. "The Soybeans." McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1925.
6. E. F. Leng. "U.S. Soybeans Perform Well in India." Illinois Research (Illinois Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois) 11(4), 10 (Fall 1969).
7. P. C. Hung, T. C. Tung, H. C. Lue, and H. Y. Wei. "Feeding of Infants With Toasted Full-Fat Soybean Foods." *J. Formosan Medical Association* 64(9), 591 (1965).

## Essential Amino Acid Patterns Of Serum And Urine

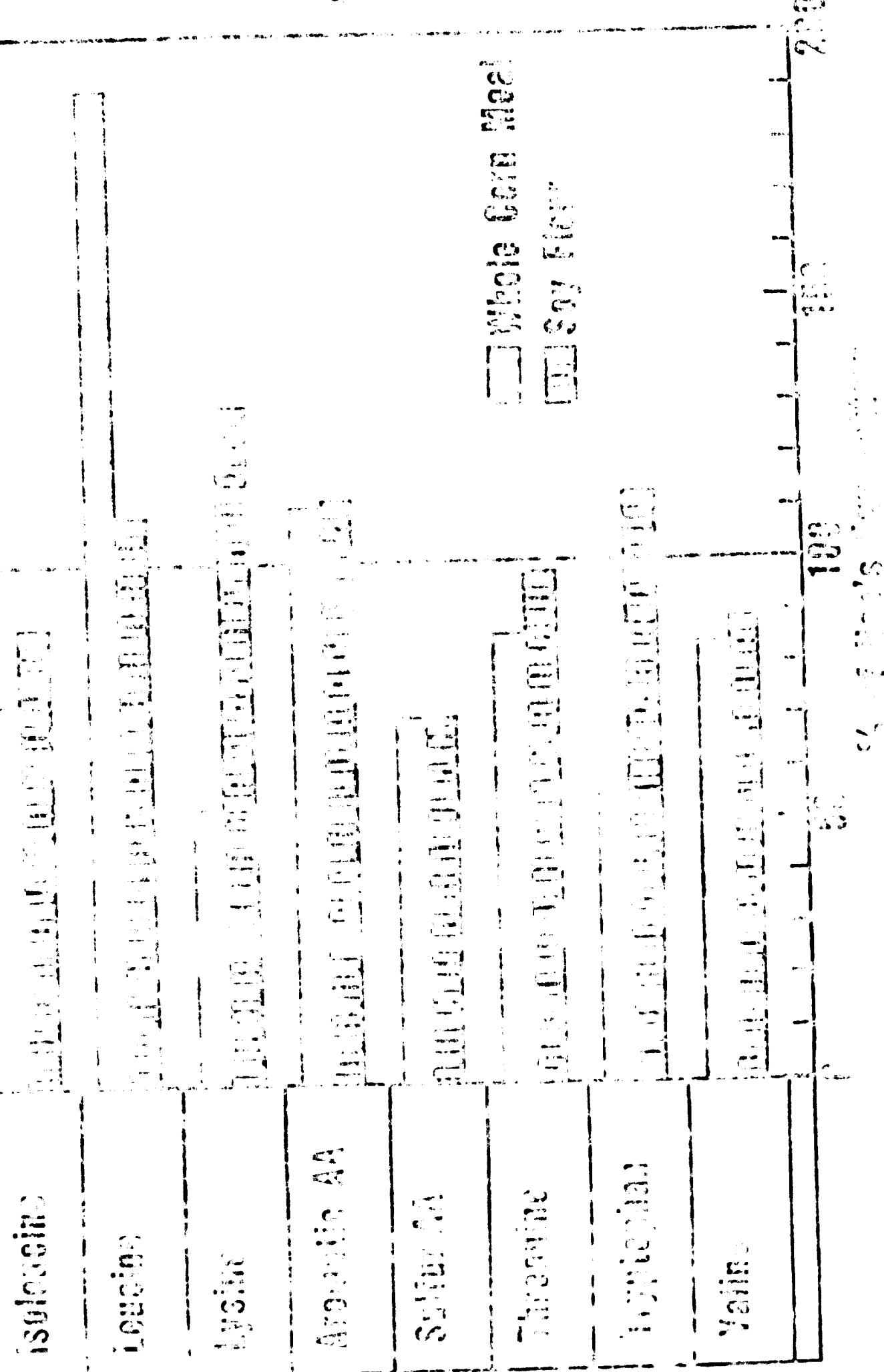
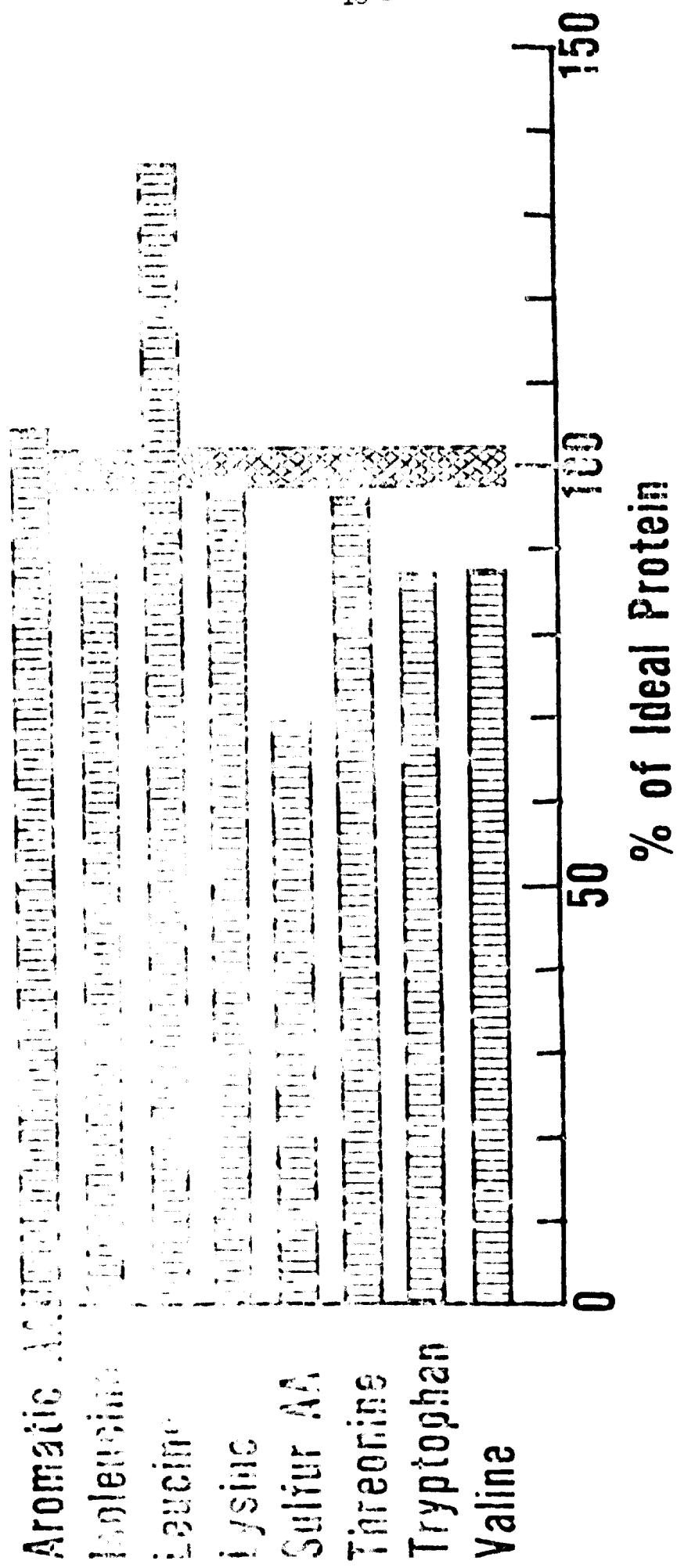


FIGURE 2

## Essential Amino Acids of 75/25 Whole Casein Meal-Battered Soy Flour Compared with Ideal Protein



**Preparation of Defatted Soybean Flours or Grits**

Whole Soybeans

Cracking

Dehulling

Flaking

Hexane Extracting

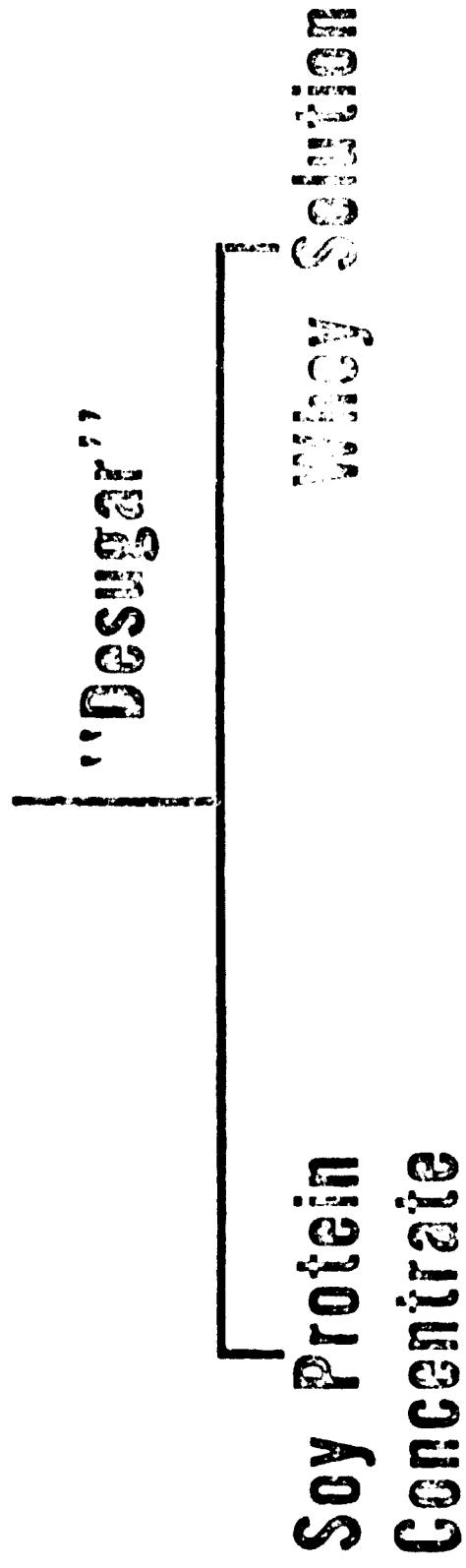
Toasting (Optional)

Flour → (Fine) → Grinding (Coarse) → Grits

FIGURE 4

## Preparation of Soy Protein Concentrates

### Dehulled - Defatted Flakes



### Procedures

- a. Extraction at pH 4.5
- b. Aqueous alcohol extraction
- c. Water extraction of toasted flakes

FIGURE 5. PREPARATION OF ISOLATED SOYBEAN PROTEIN.

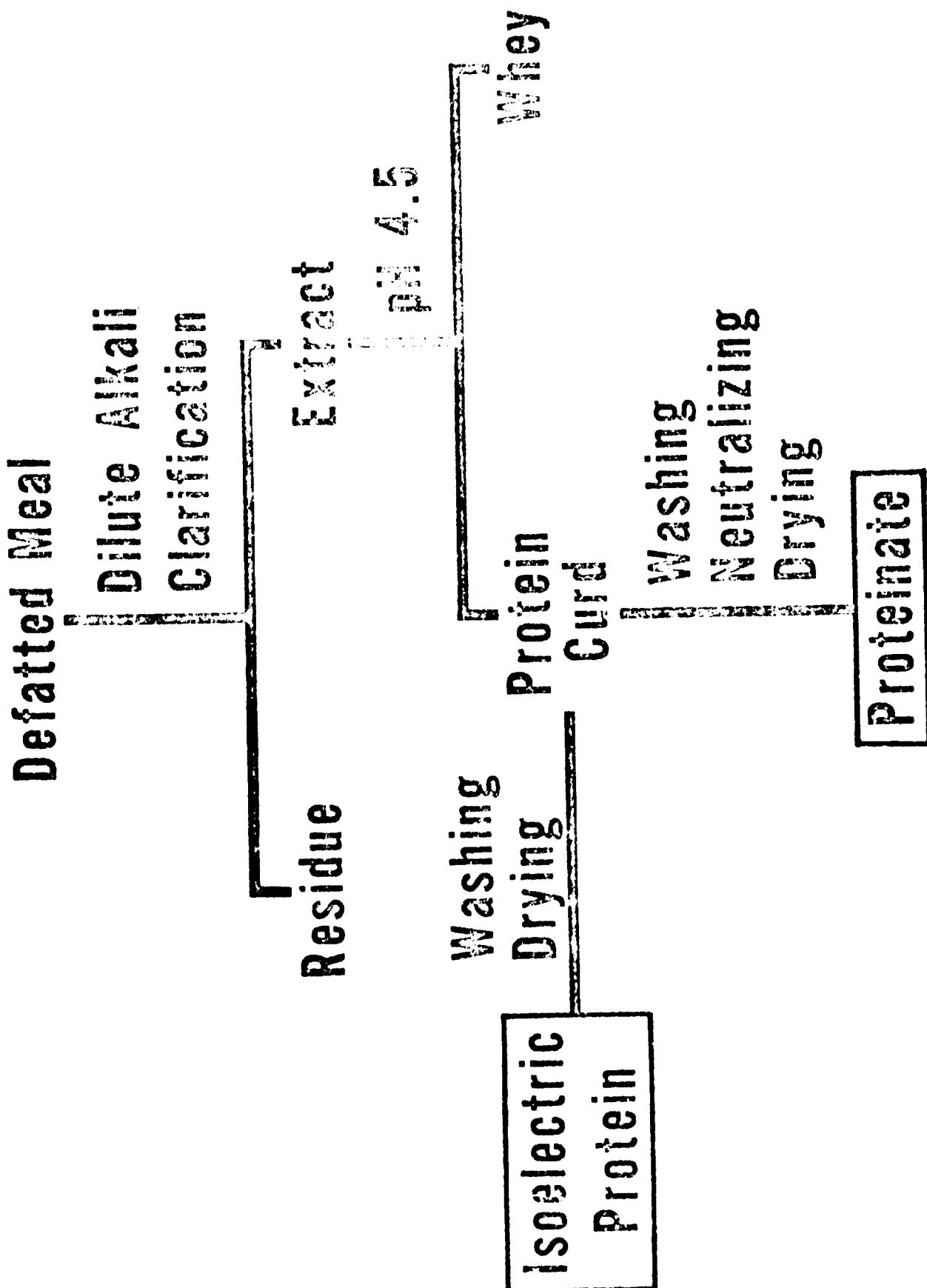
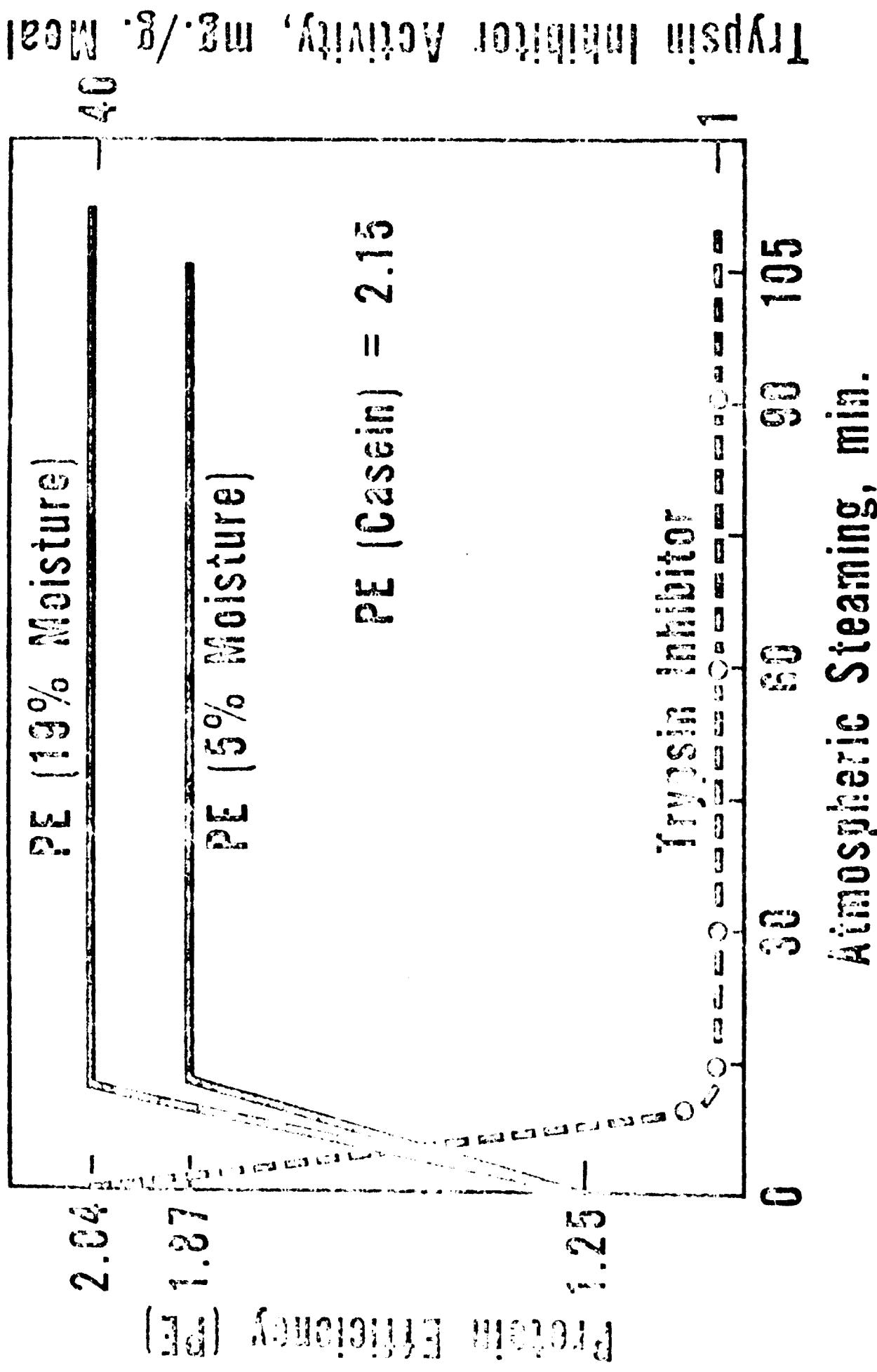


FIGURE 6. EFFECT OF STEAMING ON DRYING MEAL ON TRYPSIN INHIBITOR ACTIVITY  
FOR 24 AND 48 HOURS IN SODIUM ACTIVATED MEDIUM.





25. 5. 72