

1 **Aflatoxin contents and bromatological quality in two varieties of peanut** (*Arachis*
2 *hypogaea L.*) **in different states and storage systems in Ecuador**

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29 **ABSTRACT**

30 Aflatoxins produced by fungi such as *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus*, are
31 carcinogenic substances that can contaminate food, posing significant health risks and
32 economic losses. This study aimed to evaluate aflatoxin content and bromatological quality in
33 two peanut varieties (*INIAP-381 Rosita* and *INIAP-382 Caramelo*), considering different
34 sample conditions (fresh, dry, and in pod) and storage systems (bulk and vacuum) using a
35 multifactorial ABC design. The results demonstrate that vacuum storage effectively suppresses

36 aflatoxin formation. The INIAP-382 Caramelo variety exhibited lower aflatoxin concentrations, ranging
37 from 1.77ppb in fresh samples to 2.22ppb in dry samples. In contrast, the INIAP-381 Rosita variety had
38 aflatoxin concentrations of 2.30ppb and 2.16ppb under the same conditions. Bromatological
39 analysis revealed moisture content ranging from 1.95 to 11.15%, pH between 6.02 and 6.68,
40 an average acidity of 0.02%, ash content from 2.11 to 3.01%, and essential nutrients including
41 protein (7.50-9.75%), fat (21.50-43.00%), and fiber (21.50-32.49%). These findings
42 demonstrated that the combination of peanut variety, sample condition, and storage system
43 significantly influences aflatoxin concentration and overall peanut quality.

44

45 **Keywords:** *Arachis hypogaea* L, contamination, fungus, storage systems.

46

47

Introduction

48 Crops, especially cereals and legumes, serve as an essential source of energy and nutrition in
49 the human diet worldwide. These products are consumed in various forms, whether as whole
50 grains, raw or cooked, or as processed products such as flour, semolina, bread, and biscuits
51 (Bertioli et al., 2019). Beyond their importance in human nutrition, cereals and their by-
52 products play a fundamental role in animal feed, being used as fodder for livestock and poultry.
53 Through this consumption chain, cereals contribute indirectly to the production of dairy
54 products, meat, and eggs, solidifying their relevance in global food security (Pankaj et al.,
55 2018).

56 However, crop contamination by mycotoxins poses a significant challenge for public health
57 and the sustainability of the agro-industrial sector. According to the Food and Agriculture
58 Organization of the United Nations (FAO), approximately one-quarter of global crop
59 production is contaminated with mycotoxins (Mahato et al., 2019). Over the past few decades,
60 cases of human mycotoxicosis have increased significantly, primarily due to the consumption
61 of food contaminated with one or more mycotoxins. This situation has led to negative
62 consequences for both consumer health and the profitability of agro-industries, affecting
63 production, marketing, and the export of agricultural products (KamLe et al., 2022; KamLe et
64 al., 2022). The acute toxicity and carcinogenic effects of mycotoxins have made cereal
65 contamination a pressing concern for global food safety, while also causing significant
66 economic losses across the agri-food chain.

67 Among these concerns, the cultivation of *Arachis hypogaea*, commonly known as peanuts, has
68 garnered special attention. Peanuts, also referred to as groundnuts or monkey nuts, are highly
69 valued for their rich nutritional content and are recognized as a "longevity food" due to their
70 numerous health benefits. Peanuts provide an important source of proteins, essential fatty acids,
71 vitamin, and minerals, making them a staple in the diet of many regions worldwide (Sultana et
72 al., 2024). However, peanut production faces multiple challenges, one of the most pressing
73 being fungal contamination and mycotoxin accumulation (KamLe et al., 2022).

74 Peanut crops are particularly susceptible to infestation by pathogenic fungi, which can
75 negatively impact yield from sowing through to storage. The primary fungal agents associated
76 with peanut contamination include *Aspergillus flavus*, *Aspergillus niger*, *Macrophomina*
77 *phaseolina*, *Rhizoctonia solani*, *Fusarium oxysporum*, and *Fusarium solani*. These fungi
78 colonize seeds, progressively degrading them and compromising their quality and viability
79 (Pandey et al., 2019). Beyond reducing productivity, these fungi generate mycotoxins that pose
80 severe health risks. Among these, aflatoxins represent the greatest threat to food security
81 (Leyva et al., 2017).

82 Aflatoxins (AF) are highly toxic and carcinogenic compounds that proliferate in warm, humid
83 environments typical of tropical and subtropical regions (Medina et al., 2017). Due to their
84 high thermal stability, aflatoxins cannot be entirely eliminated by conventional food processing
85 methods, making them persistent contaminants in agricultural products and their derivatives.
86 Aflatoxins have been detected in various food products, including peanuts, maize, wheat, rice,
87 sesame seeds, spices, cocoa, and commercial products such as peanut butter and vegetable oils.
88 Their presence in the food chain represents a significant risk to human and animal health, even
89 at low concentrations, due to their cumulative toxic effects (Mahato et al., 2019).

90 Multiple factors influence aflatoxin contamination in peanuts, including crop variety,
91 environmental conditions during growth, post-harvest management practices, and storage
92 strategies (Liu et al., 2018). Some peanut varieties exhibit greater resistance to fungal
93 infestation, making them less susceptible to toxin accumulation. Additionally, factors such as
94 temperature, humidity, and precipitation significantly affect fungal proliferation, with warm
95 and humid climates posing the highest risk of contamination (Bertioli et al., 2019).

96 Storage plays a crucial role in preventing aflatoxin contamination. Traditional methods, such
97 as storing peanuts in open sacks or poorly ventilated environments, create conditions conducive

98 to fungal growth. In contrast, modern techniques such as controlled-atmosphere storage,
99 hermetic sealing, and the use of antifungal agents have proven to be more effective in reducing
100 aflatoxin presence and ensuring peanut quality (Shabeer et al., 2022). However, the
101 effectiveness of these strategies depends on meticulous control of temperature, humidity, and
102 ventilation (Marr et al., 2021).

103 To mitigate aflatoxin contamination in peanuts, various control strategies have been developed.
104 One promising approach involves the use of atoxigenic *Aspergillus* strains, which compete
105 with toxin-producing strains and thereby reduce aflatoxin accumulation (Leyva et al., 2017).
106 Additionally, chemical treatments with antifungal agents and detoxification techniques have
107 been implemented to minimize risks. Another strategy under investigation is the genetic
108 improvement of peanut varieties with enhanced resistance to fungal colonization, which could
109 significantly reduce contamination from the cultivation stage (Liu et al., 2018). Furthermore,
110 proper drying practices are essential to prevent the buildup of aflatoxins (Bertioli et al., 2019).

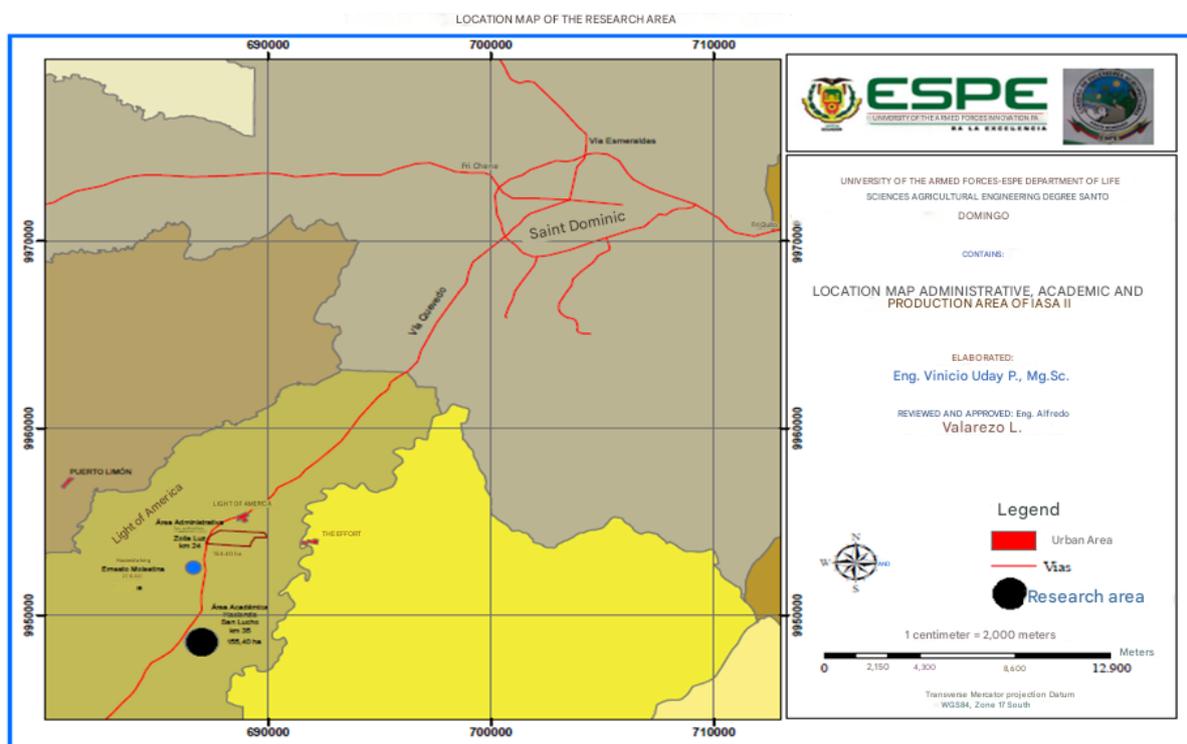
111 Aflatoxin contamination is not only a serious public health issue but also has considerable
112 economic repercussions. Countries that fail to comply with international food safety standards
113 face trade restrictions, limiting the export of peanuts and other agricultural products (Marr et
114 al., 2021). This problem disproportionately affects small-scale farmers, who often lack the
115 financial resources to implement effective aflatoxin control measures. Investments in research,
116 the development of new storage technologies, and farmer training are crucial to mitigating
117 these negative effects and ensuring the long-term sustainability of the agricultural sector
118 (Medina et al., 2017).

119 In light of these challenges, the present study aims to evaluate aflatoxin content and
120 bromatological quality in two peanut varieties at different developmental stages and under
121 various storage systems in Ecuador. Understanding the factors influencing aflatoxin
122 contamination and implementing effective control strategies is essential for improving food
123 safety, protecting consumer health, and supporting the economic viability of peanut producers.
124 Future research should focus on integrating biological, chemical, and technological solutions
125 to minimize mycotoxin contamination, ensuring that peanut production remains both safe and
126 sustainable.

127 **Materials and Methods**

128 **Plant Material**

129 Peanut varieties were obtained from the province of Santo Domingo de los Tsáchilas, in the
 130 Santo Domingo canton, located at latitude -0.25305 and longitude -79.17536. The biochemical
 131 and bromatological analyses were conducted in the laboratories of the Armed Forces
 132 University ESPE, Santo Domingo Extension (Fig. 1).



133 **Fig. 1.** Geographic location where the research was carried out

134
 135 **Experimental Design**

136 A multifactorial design ABC was applied, where each factor consists of two or three levels:
 137 Factor A = Peanut varieties (*INIAP – 381 Rosita* and *INIAP – 382 Caramelo*); Factor B =
 138 Sample condition (Fresh, Dry, and In Pod) y Factor C = Storage systems (Bulk and Vacuum-
 139 sealed). These factors and levels are presented in Table 1. To determine differences between
 140 treatment means, a Tukey multiple range test ($P < 0.05$) was used. Additionally, for
 141 bromatological characteristics, multivariate statistical analysis was applied using principal
 142 component analysis (PCA).

143 **Table 1.** Factors and levels tested in the bromatological study of two peanut varieties (*Arachis*
 144 *hypogaea* L.).

Factors	Levels
Peanut Varieties (V)	V1= INIAP – 381 Rosita V2= INIAP – 382 Caramelo

Sample Condition (E)	E1= Fresh
	E2= Dry
	S1= In pod
Storage Systems (S)	S2= Bulk
	S3= Vacuum-sealed

145

146 Determination of Total Aflatoxins

147 The VERATOX quantitative test for aflatoxins was used.

148

149 Sample Preparation and Extraction

150 A 70% methyl alcohol solution was prepared by mixing 7 parts of ACS-grade methanol with
151 3 parts of distilled water for each sample. A representative sample of the material was taken
152 and ground until at least 75% of the material passed through a #20 sieve. Then, 25g of the
153 ground sample was mixed with 125mL of the 70% methyl alcohol solution using a high-speed
154 mixer for 2min. The resulting extract was filtered through a Whatman #1 filter, pouring
155 between 5-15mL to obtain the final filtrate as a sample (Ismail et al., 2024).

156

157 Test Procedure

158 To begin, one red-marked well was selected for each sample tested, along with four red-marked
159 wells designated for controls, which were placed in the corresponding well holder. The same
160 number of wells covered with antibodies was used. Each reagent was mixed before use by
161 gently swirling the containers. Then, 100µL of conjugate from a blue-labeled vial was added
162 to each red-marked mixing well. A new pipette tip was used for each transfer, and 100µL of
163 controls and samples were transferred to the red-marked mixing wells using a 12-channel
164 pipette, mixing the liquid three times up and down.

165

166 Next, 100µL was transferred to the antibody-coated wells and mixed by moving the microplate
167 holder in both directions on a flat surface for 10 to 20s, avoiding splashing of the reagents. The
168 plate was then incubated for twomin at room temperature (18–30°C). The red-marked mixing
169 wells were discarded, and each antibody well was filled and emptied under a stream of distilled
170 water, repeating this step five times. The wells were then inverted onto a paper towel and tapped
171 gently to remove any remaining water.

172

173 The necessary volume of substrate (green-labeled) was pipetted, and 100 μ L was added to each
174 well in the reagent tray, mixing in both directions on a flat surface for 10 to 20s. The plate was
175 incubated for 3min, and the remaining substrate was discarded by rinsing the reagent tray with
176 water. Finally, the red stop solution was pipetted into the reagent tray labeled red. Using the
177 same pipette tips as for the substrate, 100 μ L of red stop reagent was added to each well and
178 mixed by moving in both directions on a flat surface. The bottom of the microwells was cleaned
179 with a cloth or towel, and the reading was performed on a microplate reader using a 650nm
180 filter. The results were obtained with the help of the ELISA equipment (Ismail et al., 2024).

181

182 **Bromatological Quality**

183

184 **Moisture Determination**

185 Humidity was determined following the methodology established in the Ecuadorian Technical
186 Standard NTE INEN 1464, which specifies the procedures for measuring moisture loss due to
187 heating in cereals. The value obtained was calculated from the difference in weight between
188 dry matter and fresh weight, the results are expressed as a percentage.

189

190 **pH Determination**

191 The pH was determined following the Ecuadorian Technical Standard NTE INEN 389, which
192 establishes the procedure for determining hydrogen ion concentration (pH) in canned
193 vegetables. A 10g sample was placed in a beaker, and 100cm³ of distilled water was added.
194 The mixture was homogenized through blending until a uniform particle suspension was
195 achieved. Finally, the pH was determined through direct reading by inserting the potentiometer
196 electrodes into the beaker containing the sample.

197

198

199 **Acidity Determination**

200 Acidity determination followed the methodology established in the Ecuadorian Technical
201 Standard NTE INEN 2152. A 25cm³ sample was placed in a 250cm³ volumetric flask and
202 diluted to volume with previously boiled and cooled distilled water. The solution was
203 thoroughly mixed, and the electrodes were immersed in the sample. A 0.1N sodium hydroxide
204 solution (10–50cm³) was then added, stirring until a pH of 6 was reached, determined with a
205 potentiometer. The 0.1N sodium hydroxide solution was slowly added until pH 7 was achieved,
206 then added dropwise (four drops at a time), recording the volume and pH after each addition

207 until reaching approximately pH 8.3. The exact volume of 0.1N sodium hydroxide solution
208 corresponding to pH 8.1 was determined by interpolation, and calculations were performed
209 using Equation 1.

$$210 \quad A = \frac{(V_1 N_1 M) * 10}{V_2} \text{ Eq 1}$$

211 Where:

212 **A** = grams of acid per 1,000cm³ of product

213 **V**₁ = cm³ of NaOH used for titration

214 **N**₁ = normality of NaOH solution

215 **M** = molecular weight of the reference acid

216 **V**₂ = volume of aliquot taken for analysis

217

218 **Ash Determination**

219 Ash content was determined following the methodology established in the Ecuadorian
220 Technical Standard NTE INEN 520. A 2g sample was placed in an oven (Mettler) at 100°C
221 for 24 hours. After cooling for 10min, each crucible was weighed. The crucibles were then
222 placed in a muffle furnace at 600°C for 4 hours. Finally, the ash percentage was calculated
223 using Equation 2.

$$224 \quad \% \text{ Ash} = \frac{C_3 - C_1}{C_2 - C_1} \times 100 \text{ Eq 2}$$

225 Where:

226 **C**₁ = Mass of the empty crucible (g)

227 **C**₂ = Mass of the crucible with the sample (g)

228 **C**₃ = Mass of the crucible with ashes (g)

229

230 **Fiber Determination**

231 Two grams of sample per crucible were used. Each crucible was placed in the fiber analysis
232 equipment, and 100mL of sulfuric acid and 10 drops of octanol were added, allowing it to boil
233 for 30min. The liquid was then drained and washed with 200mL of distilled water in each
234 crucible. Next, 100mL of sodium hydroxide solution and 10 drops of octanol were added,
235 followed by boiling for another 30min. The liquid was drained, and the crucibles were washed
236 with 30mL of distilled water. Then, 10mL of acetone was added to each crucible, left to stand
237 for 10min, and placed under vacuum. The crucibles were placed in an oven at 100°C for 24h.

238 After cooling, the crucibles were weighed and subjected to a muffle furnace treatment at 500°C
239 for 3h. The final weight was recorded, and calculations were performed using Equation 3.

$$240 \quad \% \text{ Crude Fiber} = \frac{W_1 - W_2}{W_0} \times 100 \text{ Eq 3}$$

241 Where:

242 W_0 = Sample weight

243 W_1 = Crucible weight + dried sample

244 W_2 = Crucible weight + ashed sample

245

246 **Fat Determination**

247 To determine fat content, 2g of sample was weighed with 50mL of solvent and heated in a
248 Goldfish apparatus at 55°C. After extraction, the solvent was allowed to boil until nearly all
249 had transferred to the recovery vessel without burning the sample. The heating elements were
250 lowered, and the beaker containing the fat residue was removed. The solvent was transferred
251 to its original container. The beaker with fat was placed in an oven at 105°C for 30min to
252 evaporate the remaining solvent completely. The beakers containing the fat were further heated
253 at 100°C for 30min. Finally, the beakers were cooled to room temperature in a desiccator, and
254 the fat percentage was calculated using Equation 4:

$$255 \quad G = \frac{W_2 - W_1}{W_0} \times 100 \text{ Eq 4}$$

256 Where:

257 G = Fat percentage

258 W_0 = Sample weight

259 W_1 = Empty beaker weight

260 W_2 = Beaker weight + fat

261

262 **Protein Determination**

263 Protein content in the samples was determined using the Kjeldahl method, following the
264 standard protocol established in the National Food Safety Standard (NFSS, 2016). For the
265 analysis, a nitrogen analyzer model 2300 (FOSS, Hillerød, Denmark) and a conversion factor
266 of 6.25 were used, assuming that nitrogen represents approximately 16% of the protein content.

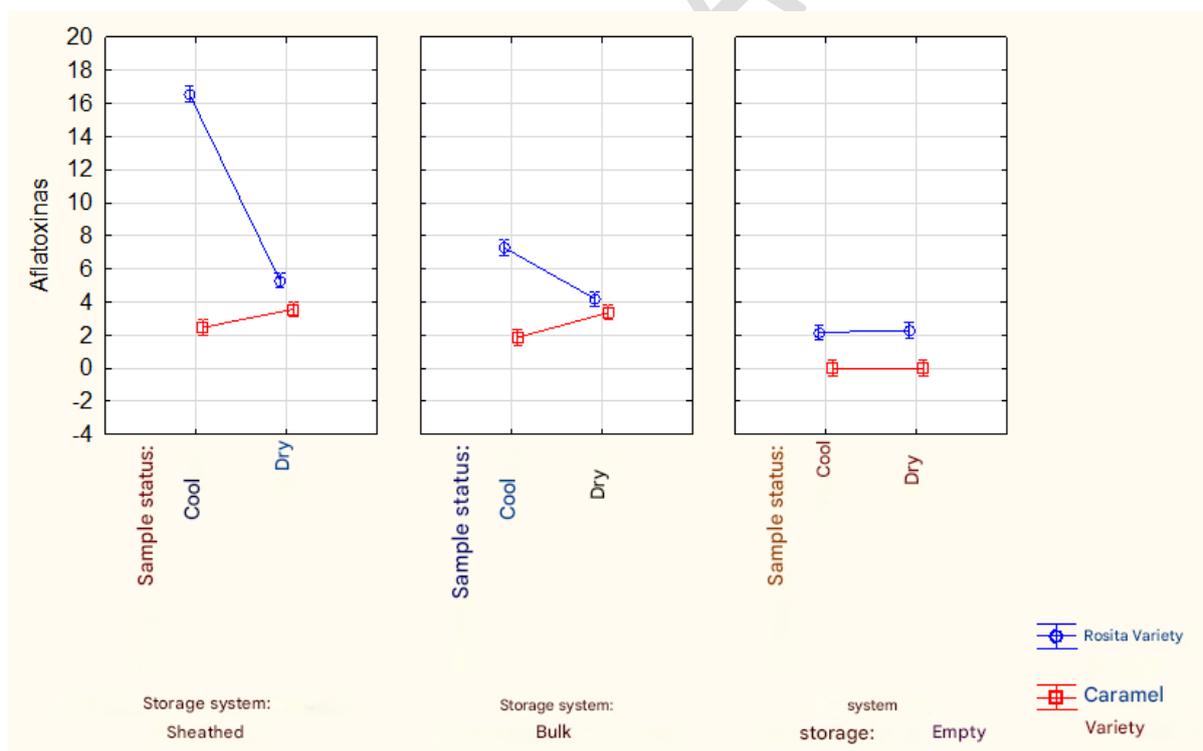
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268 **Results and Discussion**

269 **Aflatoxin Content**

270 Fig. 2 showed that all vacuum-stored peanut samples exhibited low levels of total aflatoxins.
 271 The Caramelo-Iniap 382 variety had average concentrations of 1.77ppb in dry samples and
 272 2.22ppb in fresh samples. Similarly, the Rosita Iniap-381 variety recorded concentrations of
 273 2.30ppb in its dry state and 2.16ppb in its fresh state. However, the highest value was observed
 274 in fresh grains of the Rosita variety stored in pods, with an average total aflatoxin concentration
 275 of 16.56ppb, as shown in Fig. 2.

276 These results are relatively lower than those reported by Ginting et al. (2018), who, in their
 277 study on aflatoxin content in peanuts and processed foods, found values ranging from 9.40 to
 278 26.30ppb in peanut grains and peanut tempeh, respectively. It is important to highlight that low
 279 moisture levels and a relatively dry storage environment inhibit *Aspergillus flavus* infection
 280 and aflatoxin production in peanut grains (Masaka et al., 2022). Additionally, it has been
 281 reported that high relative humidity (85%), along with temperatures between 25 and 30°C and
 282 a humidity range of 15–30%, promote fungal proliferation in samples (Ribeiro-De Araújo et
 283 al., 2015).



284 **Fig. 2.** Result of total aflatoxin content in the A*B*C interaction (Variety*Sample
 285 status*Storage system) calidad bromatológica

286

287 **Bromatological Analysis**

288 Table 2 presents the results obtained from the bromatological analyses (moisture, dry matter,
289 OpH, ash, fiber, fat, and protein), where a significant difference ($P<0.05$) was observed between
290 the treatment means.

291 In terms of moisture content, fresh and in-pod peanut samples exhibited the highest levels, with
292 the Rosita Iniap-381 variety recording a peak value of 11.15%. In contrast, the lowest moisture
293 values were found in vacuum-stored dry samples, averaging 2.04% and 1.95% for the
294 Caramelo Iniap-382 and Rosita Iniap-381 varieties, respectively. Moisture content
295 significantly influenced ($P<0.05$) aflatoxin variability in the samples, reaffirming the findings
296 of Espinosa-Plascencia & Bermúdez-Almada (2022), who emphasized that moisture levels,
297 physical quality, and air conditions are critical factors in controlling mold contamination and
298 aflatoxin production. Additionally, the results of this study align with those reported by De
299 Oliveira-Sá et al. (2020), who found moisture values ranging from 4.47 to 12.26% in peanut
300 seeds. Various authors have highlighted that storing peanut seeds in their pods enhances long-
301 term preservation by maintaining physiological characteristics and offering physical protection
302 (Oliveira et al., 2020).

303 Fresh bulk-stored peanut samples exhibited the highest pH levels, with the Rosita Iniap-381
304 variety averaging 6.68. Conversely, the lowest pH was observed in dry and vacuum-stored
305 samples of the Caramelo Iniap-382 variety, with a mean value of 6.02. These findings fall
306 within the acceptable pH range for peanuts, as established by Bilal et al. (2020), who identified
307 an optimal pH of 6.2. To sustain an appropriate pH and mitigate storage-related issues, it is
308 essential to regulate moisture and temperature. Maintaining a dry and cool environment helps
309 stabilize pH levels, as suggested by Curcio (2019).

310 Regarding acidity content, no statistically significant differences ($p>0.05$) were found across
311 peanut varieties, sample conditions, and storage methods, with values ranging from 0.02 to
312 0.03%. Previous studies have determined acidity values between 0.02 and 0.2% before storage
313 (Bonku & Yu, 2020). Furthermore, Fu et al. (2018) reported that peanuts stored in
314 PET/AL/PA/PE bags retained low acidity levels, while those packaged in PE and PA/PE
315 materials experienced a rapid increase in acidity, with values ranging from 0.3 to 0.9%.

316 Ash content varied significantly among storage methods, with vacuum-stored dry peanut
317 samples exhibiting the highest levels, averaging 3.01% in the Rosita Iniap-381 variety.
318 Conversely, the lowest ash content was recorded in fresh, in-pod, and bulk-stored samples of

319 the Rosita Iniap-381 and Caramelo Iniap-382 varieties, with mean values of 2.11 and 2.08%,
320 respectively. Previous research has documented ash content in raw peanuts within the range of
321 2.37 to 2.54%, while roasted peanuts exhibited higher values between 4.04% and 4.13%
322 (Kamuhu et al., 2019). Additionally, fresh in-pod peanuts have shown ash values fluctuating
323 between 1.2 and 2.3% (Bonku & Yu, 2020).

324 Fiber content was notably higher in fresh peanut grains, particularly in the Rosita Iniap-381
325 variety, which contained 9.75% fiber. However, a significant reduction ($P < 0.05$) was observed
326 following the drying process, with fiber content decreasing to 7.50% in the same variety. These
327 results diverge from the findings of Montero-Torres (2020), who reported a fiber content of
328 approximately 3% in raw peanuts. Similarly, Bonku & Yu (2020) identified crude fiber levels
329 ranging from 1.4% to 3.9%. However, the current study's findings are consistent with those of
330 Çiftçi & Suna (2022), who reported fiber content of 8.50% in raw peanuts and 8.40% in roasted
331 peanuts.

332 Fat content was highest in fresh in-pod peanut samples, with the Caramelo Iniap-382 and Rosita
333 Iniap-381 varieties recording averages of 43.00% and 40.50%, respectively. Conversely, dry
334 samples, whether bulk-stored or in-pod, exhibited the lowest fat content, with values averaging
335 22.25% and 21.50% for the Rosita Iniap-381 and Caramelo Iniap-382 varieties, respectively.
336 Generally, peanuts are known for their high fat content, averaging approximately 48.75g/100
337 g (Çiftçi & Suna, 2022). It is also important to note that fat content decreases when peanuts are
338 subjected to roasting.

339 Regarding protein content, fresh in-pod peanut samples of the Rosita Iniap-381 variety
340 exhibited the highest protein levels, averaging 32.49%, followed by the Caramelo Iniap-382
341 variety, which recorded an average of 31.13% under similar conditions. The lowest protein
342 content was observed in dry bulk-stored Caramelo Iniap-382 samples, averaging 21.79%.
343 These results suggest a significant decrease in protein content as peanuts transition from fresh
344 to dry states. Furthermore, these findings align with those of Wang et al. (2014), who reported
345 that peanut seed protein content varies between 24 and 36% on a dry weight basis. More recent
346 studies indicate that nutritional protein levels range between 20.7 and 25.3% (Alhassan et al.,
347 2017).

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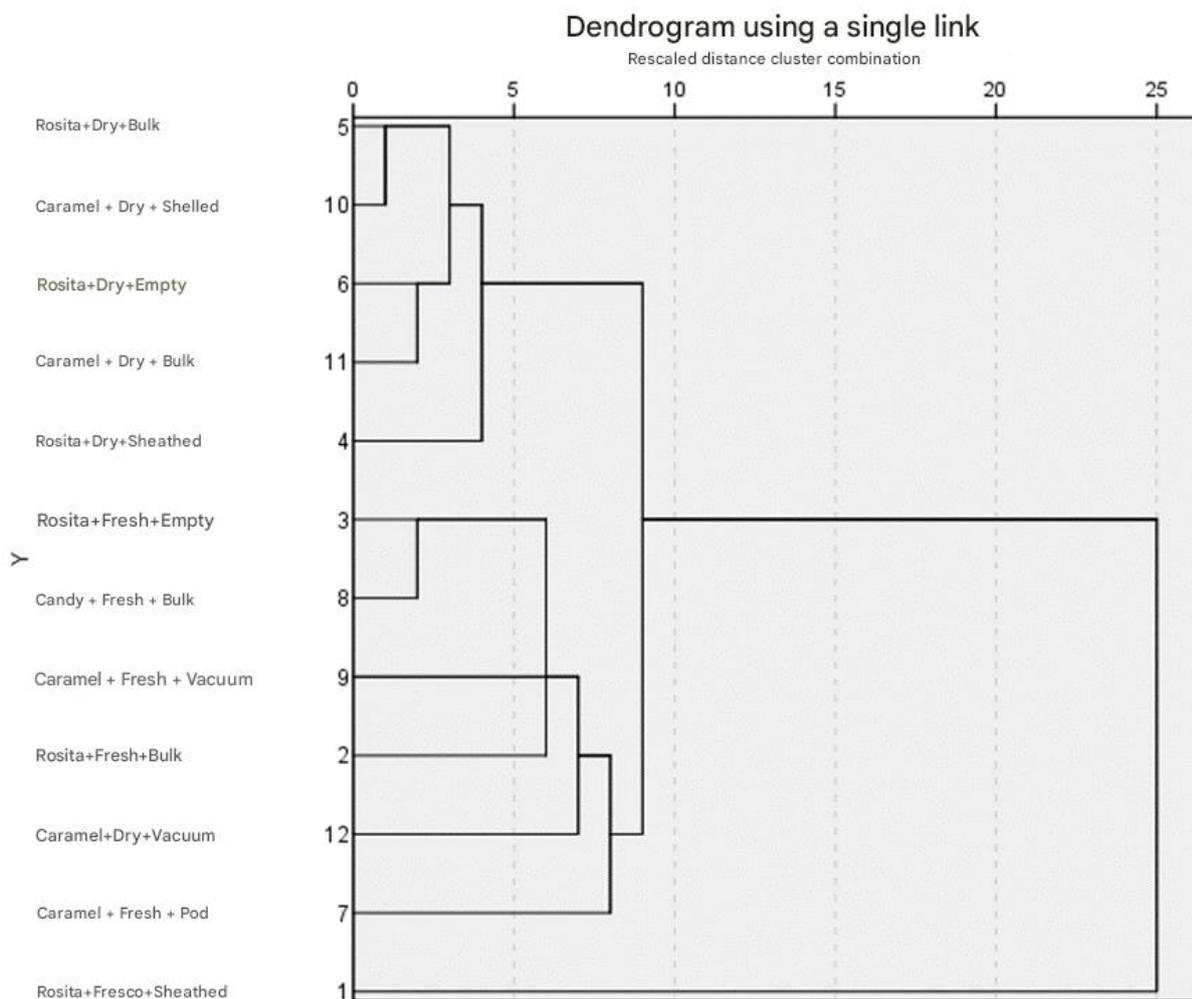
Table 2. Significance test of the interaction A*B*C (Variety*Sample condition*Storage system).

Variety	State	System	Humidity	pH	Acidity	Ash	Fiber	Fat	Protein
Rosita Iniap-381	Fresh	In pod	11.15 ^A	6.11 ^G	0.02 ^A	2.11 ^F	9.50 ^{AB}	40.50 ^{AB}	32.49 ^A
Rosita Iniap-381	Fresh	Bulk	9.29 ^{BC}	6.68 ^A	0.03 ^A	2.51 ^{BCDE}	8.58 ^{ABCD}	34.25 ^{BC}	27.44 ^{BCD}
Rosita Iniap-381	Fresh	Vacuum-sealed	7.48 ^D	6.12 ^{FG}	0.02 ^A	2.60 ^{BC}	9.75 ^A	36.25 ^{AB}	29.48 ^{ABC}
Rosita Iniap-381	Dry	In pod	3.13 ^F	5.62 ^H	0.02 ^A	2.30 ^{EF}	8.25 ^{BCD}	24.75 ^D	26.46 ^{BCDE}
Rosita Iniap-381	Dry	Bulk	2.57 ^{FG}	6.42 ^D	0.03 ^A	2.58 ^{BC}	7.50 ^D	22.25 ^D	22.57 ^{DE}
Rosita Iniap-381	Dry	Vacuum-sealed	1.95 ^G	6.22 ^E	0.03 ^A	3.01 ^A	7.78 ^{CD}	27.75 ^{CD}	24.61 ^{CDE}
Caramelo Iniap-382	Fresh	In pod	10.15 ^B	6.52 ^{BC}	0.03 ^A	2.38 ^{CDE}	8.75 ^{ABCD}	43.00 ^A	31.13 ^{AB}
Caramelo Iniap-382	Fresh	Bulk	9.14 ^C	6.60 ^{AB}	0.03 ^A	2.08 ^F	8.75 ^{ABCD}	37.25 ^{AB}	27.44 ^{BCD}
Caramelo Iniap-382	Fresh	Vacuum-sealed	6.55 ^E	6.11 ^{FG}	0.02 ^A	2.57 ^{BCD}	9.00 ^{ABC}	35.25 ^B	23.15 ^{DE}
Caramelo Iniap-382	Dry	In pod	2.72 ^{FG}	6.64 ^A	0.02 ^A	2.63 ^{BC}	8.25 ^{BCD}	21.50 ^D	23.15 ^{DE}
Caramelo Iniap-382	Dry	Bulk	2.00 ^G	6.48 ^{CD}	0.03 ^A	2.31 ^{DEF}	7.75 ^{CD}	26.50 ^D	21.79 ^E
Caramelo Iniap-382	Dry	Vacuum-sealed	2.04 ^G	6.02 ^G	0.02 ^A	2.69 ^B	8.50 ^{ABCD}	34.75 ^{BC}	23.74 ^{DE}

The letters in the table represent significant differences within the group according to Tukey's multiple range test with a confidence level of 95%. (Each letter in each bar shows the significant difference (P<0.05). **Significant difference in row or column??**)

352 **Cluster analysis results**

353 According to the analysis of variables related to proximity, as shown in Fig. 2, a close similarity
 354 is evident between Caramelo+dry+shelled vs. Rosita+dry+bulk, as well as between the latter
 355 and Rosita+dry+vacuum packed. This relationship is mainly attributed to the bromatological
 356 analyses performed (pH, ash, acidity, fiber, fat, protein) and the levels of total aflatoxins. On
 357 the other hand, treatments with a lower relationship were identified, such as
 358 Rosita+fresh+vacuum packed versus Rosita+fresh+shelled, despite belonging to the same
 359 variety and sample state. Variations attributed to the influence of humidity in these treatments
 360 were observed.



361 **Fig. 3.** Dendrogram of the minimum variance for the factors under study

362
 363
 364
 365
 366

367 Conclusion

368 The combination of variety, sample condition and storage system has a significant impact on
369 the concentration of aflatoxins, with drying and vacuum storage being the most effective
370 conditions to reduce their presence. This underlines the importance of considering these factors
371 in the management of risks associated with aflatoxins. Regarding bromatological quality, it
372 was observed that the Rosita and Caramelo peanut varieties, under different processing
373 conditions, showed significant variations in their moisture content, pH and essential nutrients
374 such as proteins, fats and fibre. The drying process considerably decreases the moisture content
375 and affects other nutritional components. Likewise, the storage system influences the
376 conservation of the nutritional properties of the final product. Therefore, bromatological quality
377 tests and the variability in the contents observed reinforce the importance of controlling
378 humidity and storage to preserve peanut quality.

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391

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