

1 **Maximizing carotenoid extraction from microalgae used as food additives**
2 **and determined by liquid chromatography (HPLC)**

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14 **Abstract**

15 Microalgae are an interesting source of natural pigments that have valuable applications.
16 However, further research is necessary to develop processes that allow us to achieve
17 high levels of carotenoid recovery while avoiding degradation. This work presents a
18 comprehensive study on the recovery of carotenoids from several microalgae genera,
19 optimizing carotenoid extraction using alkaline saponification at various temperatures
20 and KOH concentrations. Results show that *I. galbana* requires a temperature of 60°C
21 and less than 10% KOH, *N. gaditana* and *K. veneticum* require 60°C and no
22 saponification, *P. reticulatum* requires 40°C and 10% KOH, *T. suecica* and *H. pluvialis*
23 require 25°C and 40% KOH while *C. sp.* and *S. almeriensis* require 80°C and 40%
24 KOH. The influence of the solvent on carotenoid recovery was also studied. In general
25 terms, an ethanol:hexane:water (17:77:6 v/v/v) mixture results in good yields.

26 27 **Keywords**

28 microalgae genus; extraction, saponification; temperature; solvent; polarity

29 30 **1. Introduction**

31 Interest in functional foods has been growing over recent years. A food ingredient is
32 functional if it can be shown to improve health or reduce the risk of disease. Amongst
33 these additives, carotenoids have been highlighted as valuable compounds due to their
34 antioxidant capacity, which offers protection against oxidative stress (Guedes et al.,
35 2011). They have also been shown to exhibit immunomodulation and anti-inflammatory
36 activity, to be antimicrobial and antiviral, as well as to prevent degenerative diseases,
37 such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes and some types of cancer (Bernal et al., 2011;

38 Christaki *et al.*, 2013; Buono et al, 2014). The global market for carotenoids was valued
39 at \$1.5 billion in 2014, and expected to rise beyond \$1.8 billion in 2019 (Business
40 Communications Company, 2015). Natural carotenoids are preferred to synthetic
41 compounds because the former are a mixture of *trans* and *cis* isomers that exhibit
42 anticancer activity, while the synthetic forms are usually all-*trans* isomers. Natural
43 carotenoid accumulation of the algal beta-carotene isomer mixture has been shown to be
44 tenfold higher than that of the synthetic compound all-trans-beta-carotene (Ben-Amotz
45 et al., 1989).

46 Of the range of natural carotenoid sources, microalgae are those with the greatest
47 potential (Fernández-Sevilla et al., 2010). Although several methods for carotenoid
48 extraction and recovery have been tested (Saini and Keum, 2018), such as electrical
49 treatment and supercritical fluid extraction, only solvent extraction seems to achieve
50 sufficient levels of efficiency and purity to be considered for scaled-up processes
51 (Fernández-Sevilla et al., 2010). Studies dealing with the solubility of carotenoids in
52 organic solvents, such as acetone, petroleum ether, hexane, diethyl ether, ethanol,
53 methanol and dichloromethane, have been carried out to gauge their ability for
54 extracting carotenoids from microalgae cells. The use of dichloromethane, however, has
55 been restricted due to its carcinogenic nature, volatility and corrosive power. Other non-
56 halogenated and less toxic solvents have been proposed as alternatives. The use of polar
57 alcohols in non-polar solvents has demonstrated efficient extraction of the desired
58 compounds (Balasubramanian et al., 2013, Ryckeboosch et al., 2012, 2013). Some of the
59 mixtures studied such as hexane/methanol (3: 2), hexane/isopropanol (3: 2) and
60 cyclohexane/1-butanol (9: 1) are candidates for being the best of the non-halogenated
61 solvents, along with the tricomponent solution of hexane:ethanol:water (17: 77: 6). The

62 most suitable options are the use of hexane, acetone and ethanol given that their use in
63 food processing is already accepted (Vergari et al., 2010; Minguez-Mosquera et al.,
64 1992; Fernández-Sevilla et al., 2009). Hexane is normally used for the solvent
65 extraction of carotenoids from algal biomass to meet commercial specifications for
66 large-scale production (Cerón *et al.*, 2008; Fernández-Sevilla *et al.*, 2010). However,
67 with hexane more than eight extraction stages are necessary, which wastes large
68 quantities of solvent. Moreover, it is not capable of recovering all types of polar
69 carotenoids, making it necessary to use a mixture of solvents with a different polarity.
70 With regard to the analytical methods for carotenoid identification and quantification,
71 HPLC analysis is the one most readily applied (Bernal et al., 2011). The aim of this
72 work was to optimize the extraction of microalgal carotenoids to establish an easy and
73 reliable method to analyse them by HPLC. To do this, after disrupting the cells,
74 saponification was performed at several working temperatures and KOH concentrations.
75 The optimized conditions are shown for each microalga and for each pigment. In
76 addition, a step was carried out to recover and purify the carotenoids – this was done by
77 using several solvents with different polarities in the extraction process.

78

79 **2. Methods**

80 *2.1. Microalgae biomass and pretreatment*

81 Biomass from various microalgae strains were used to perform an extensive study for
82 each genus. Biomass from *Nannochloropsis gaditana*, *Chlorella sp.*, *Haematococcus*
83 *pluvialis*, *Scenedesmus almeriensis*, *Isochrysis galbana*, *Tetraselmis suecica* and
84 *Karlodinium veneficum* were obtained from pilot-plant outdoor cultures, whereas
85 *Protoceratium reticulatum* was obtained from indoor cultures; all of them were

86 provided by the UAL Marine microalgae biotechnology group. The group's facilities
87 are designed to operate using seawater or fresh water in a closed circuit with
88 recirculation of the culture medium. The cultures were cultivated at pH 8.0 by on-
89 demand CO₂ injection and the temperature was kept at 30°C by passing water through a
90 heat exchanger located inside the reactor. The biomass was harvested daily by
91 centrifugation and immediately frozen, after which it was lyophilized and stored at
92 -22°C ready for use as a raw material.

93 The freeze-dried biomass was milled in a mortar with alumina 1:1 w/w for 5 min just
94 prior to saponification, as described by Cerón *et al.* (2008). Each test was carried out
95 with 10 mg of total sample, containing 5 mg of dry biomass. In previous tests (data not
96 shown) it was checked whether some microalgae were degraded as a result of milling;
97 *Isochrysis galbana*, for example, which contains a significant amount of easily-
98 degradable xanthophylls. All the tests were performed under an N₂ atmosphere and in
99 darkness.

100 2.2. Biomass saponification

101 Saponification was performed in glass Pyrex tubes submerged in a water bath (Julabo
102 SW22), which provided the required temperature and mixing. Firstly, 5 mg of dry
103 biomass was placed in each tube. Then, 1 ml of monophasic tricomponent solution was
104 added and shaken in the vortex for 30 sec. The tricomponent solution was composed of
105 ethanol:hexane:water in a proportion of 17:77:6 v/v/v as described by Fernández-Sevilla
106 *et al.* (2009) and contained 0-60% d.w. potassium hydroxide ((g KOH/g dry
107 biomass)x100). At this point, the tube was submerged in the water bath with a preset
108 temperature of between 25 and 80°C, where it was left for 5 min. After this, the tube
109 was taken out, vortexed again for 30 sec and left to cool for 1 h at room temperature.

110 Subsequently, it was centrifuged at 12000 rpm for 2 min (Mini Spin Plus, Eppendorf)
111 and the supernatant was transferred into a vial ready to be analysed by HPLC.

112 *2.3. Carotenoid recovery*

113 A step was performed in order to purify the carotenoid extract. The supernatant obtained
114 after saponification (at 25°C and 0-60% d.w. KOH) and centrifugation was dried by a
115 N₂ flow inside the tube. Once dried, 1 ml of a solvent was added and the sample was
116 vortexed for 2 min. Then, the carotenoids were again analysed by HPLC. The solvents
117 tested had different polarities allowing better extraction of more polar or more apolar
118 carotenoids depending on their polarities. Furthermore, these solvents were amongst
119 those listed as extraction solvents permitted for use in Europe (Directive 2009/32/CE
120 and Directive 2010/59/UE) during the processing of raw materials, foodstuffs, food
121 components or food ingredients. The solvents were: methanol, acetone:water (92.5:7.5
122 v/v), acetone:water (95:5 v/v), acetone:water (97.5:2.5 v/v), ethanol:water (96:4 v/v),
123 absolute ethanol, acetone, monophasic tricomponent solution (ethanol:hexane:water,
124 77:17:6 v/v/v), hexane:ethanol (50:50 v/v), hexane:ethanol (70:30 v/v), diethyl ether
125 and hexane. The above-mentioned directives include usage in compliance with good
126 manufacturing practice for all uses of propane, butane, ethyl acetate, ethanol, carbon
127 dioxide, acetone (in the refining of olive-pomace oil) and nitrous oxide. They also
128 include the use of the following solvents under specified conditions of use (for some
129 kinds of processes and/or with maximum residue limits): hexane, methyl acetate,
130 ethylmethylketone, dichloromethane, methanol, propan-2-ol, diethyl ether, cyclohexane,
131 methyl acetate, butan-1-ol, butan-2-ol, propan-1-ol and 1,1,1,2-tetrafluoroethane.
132 Therefore, when using one of these solvents, it is important to be careful not to
133 contaminate the product.

134 2.4. *Liquid chromatography method*

135 The carotenoids were analysed by HPLC (Shimadzu SPDM10AV High Liquid
136 Performance Chromatograph) using a photodiode array detector applying the method
137 described by Mínguez-Mosquera *et al.* (1992) with the modifications proposed by Del
138 Campo *et al.* (2000) along with final modifications by Cerón *et al.* 2007. Although the
139 method followed was that proposed by Cerón *et al.* 2007, a different column was
140 employed - the LiChrospher® 100 RP-18 (5- μ m) column (4.6 \times 150 mm) - in which the
141 separation was performed. The injection volume of each sample was 20 μ l. Two eluents
142 were used: (A) water:methanol 1:4 v/v and (B) acetone:methanol 1:1 v/v. The gradient
143 of the mobile phases was 25% B 0-8 min, 75% B 8-18 min, 90% B 18-23 min, 100% B
144 25-27 min and 25% B 27-32 min. Carotenoids were eluted at a rate of 1 ml/min and
145 detected by absorbance at 360-700 nm; to be precise, at 440, 450 and 475 nm.
146 Calibration lines were constructed (Table 1) with different carotenoid concentrations;
147 depending on the carotenoid, each has a different absorbance maximum - for example,
148 lutein at 450 nm or peridinin at 475 nm. Standards of neoxanthin, lutein, fucoxanthin
149 and β -carotene were provided by Sigma Chemical Co. (USA) while peridinin,
150 violaxanthin, zeaxanthin, vaucherixanthin, diatoxanthin, diadinoxanthin, gyroxanthin
151 ester and dinoxanthin standards were purchased from DHI Lab Products (Hørsholm,
152 Denmark). Vaucherixanthin ester and hex-fucoxanthin were calibrated relative to the
153 vaucherixanthin and fucoxanthin curves (comparing the molar extinction coefficient of
154 both), respectively. Each standard solution was prepared in duplicate, and each sample
155 was analysed in duplicate. In this way, the average values correspond to four
156 experimental measurements.

157
158 2.5. *Statistical analyses*

159 Statistical data analyses were performed using the Statgraphics Centurion XVI software
160 package. Data, in percentage, were $\arcsin(x/2)$ transformed. The normality and
161 homogeneity analyses were performed using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Levene
162 tests, respectively. Multifactor ANOVA tests were used to study the effect of the factors
163 (temperature and potassium hydroxide) and their interactions (temperature-potassium
164 hydroxide) at a 95% confidence level for the total carotenoid content with the aim of
165 deciding the most influential factor in the carotenoid composition.

166 **3. Results and discussion**

167 *3.1. Optimization of biomass saponification*

168 Carotenoids are contained inside the microalgal cells. Therefore, it is necessary to
169 develop a process that improves cell-wall disruption and facilitates their extraction.
170 Carotenoid extraction might be up to 10 times greater when effective cell wall
171 disruption is performed (Michelon *et al.*, 2012; Uquiche *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore,
172 carotenes are in free form whereas xanthophylls are usually joined with fatty acids as
173 mono- or di-esters (Mercadante *et al.*, 2016), so saponification is required to separate
174 them out (and the fatty acids are thus converted into their basic salts or soaps).
175 Saponification has been widely used to enhance carotenoid extraction as it allows the
176 removal of lipids and the destruction of chlorophylls; however, at high temperature,
177 KOH concentration and contact time, it can cause carotenoid degradation (Inbaraj *et al.*,
178 2008). Saponification also helps to solubilize large quantities of proteins and
179 carbohydrates, which would otherwise interfere with extraction (Clark, 2011).
180 Moreover, saponification will hydrolyse carotenoid esters and is therefore to be avoided
181 when attempting to determine esterified carotenes such as the astaxanthin mono- and di-
182 esters contained in *Haematococcus pluvialis*. Rodríguez-Bernaldo de Quirós and Costa

183 (2006) determined carotenoids in tropical leafy vegetables and recommended that
184 samples with a low fat content should be saponified under gentler conditions and high
185 fat samples under stronger conditions.

186 In this work, the saponification of the previously milled microalgal biomass has been
187 studied at several temperatures and KOH concentrations (6x4 levels) and the data are
188 presented in surface response (3D) (Figure 1). In order to simplify the analysis of the
189 data, we compiled Figure 2 using ANOVA; for each temperature, the value presented is
190 the average total carotenoid concentration obtained at all the different KOH
191 concentrations tested (0, 5, 10, 20, 40 and 60%); and for each KOH concentration, the
192 value is the average total carotenoid concentration obtained at all the different
193 temperatures tested (25, 40, 60 and 80°C). Figure 2 shows the effect of temperature (T)
194 and KOH (K) on the loss of total carotenoid content whereas Table 2 provides a
195 statistical analysis of the above-mentioned factors in order to study both factors and
196 their interaction on total carotenoids. With regard to Table 2, temperature and KOH are
197 important factors affecting carotenoid content, but no significant differences were
198 observed regardless of the microalgae species used. Depending on the strain, the
199 contribution of both factors was different; or in any case, the effect of the temperature-
200 KOH (T-KOH) interaction was the most important (Table 2). Both temperature and
201 KOH led to significant differences as the p-value was below 0.05 in all cases. Higher F-
202 ratios mean a higher contribution from this factor. Thus, the effect of temperature was
203 higher for *T. suecica*, *C. sp.*, *N. gaditana*, *P. reticulatum* and *S. almeriensis*; although for
204 the latter, the KOH concentration effect was also high. Nonetheless, the effect of KOH
205 concentration was higher for *I. galbana*, *H. pluvialis* and *K. veneticum*.

206 The presented data allow us to select the most appropriate temperature and KOH
207 concentration to use in the saponification step for each microalga in terms of total
208 carotenoid extraction. It is important to select the temperature that provides the highest
209 extraction (the higher the temperature, the lower the solvent viscosity, hence its
210 diffusion into the sample is made easier) and avoids damage to the thermolabile
211 carotenoids, which may occur at high temperatures (Saini and Keum, 2018). *I. galbana*,
212 *N. gaditana* and *K. veneticum* needed a temperature of 60°C and KOH concentrations
213 below 10% d.w. for *I. galbana* and no saponification for the others due to carotenoid
214 degradation under stronger conditions. The same KOH behaviour was observed for *P.*
215 *reticulatum* although a temperature of 40°C was sufficient to achieve higher carotenoid
216 extraction. Carotenoid extraction from *T. suecica* and *H. pluvialis* hardly changed with
217 temperature so 25°C was the temperature selected as it involved lower energy
218 consumption. Regarding KOH concentration, the best values were obtained at 10 and
219 40% d.w. for *T. suecica* and *H. pluvialis*, respectively; although for *T. suecica*, there
220 were significant differences at the different KOH concentrations tested. The contents
221 generally decreased by up to 20% even when different maximal values (Figure 1b) were
222 observed; this was due to interactions between temperature and %KOH, obtaining
223 similar values at 60°C with 0 % or 20% KOH, and 25 °C with 10 % KOH. The high
224 value obtained for *H. pluvialis* was due to the extraction of an amount of carotenoid that
225 had not been extracted under the other conditions tested; *H. pluvialis* contains mono-
226 and di-esters that require potash consumption to quantify them. Lastly, the microalgae
227 *C. sp.* and *S. almeriensis* have stronger cell walls so they required a temperature of 80°C
228 to achieve maximal carotenoid extraction. For *S. almeriensis*, 20% d.w. KOH was
229 sufficient whereas for *C. sp.*, no statistically significant differences were found. Other

230 authors have carried out carotenoid extraction using a variety of organic solvents.
231 Working with pink shrimp, Mezzomo *et al.*, 2011, performed maceration in acetone,
232 Soxhlet extraction with hexane/isopropanol as well as ultrasound-assisted extraction.
233 They concluded that maceration was the best method because the absence of heating
234 avoided carotenoid degradation. On the other hand, when Soxhlet extraction was used,
235 the low viscosity and surface tension at the boiling point temperature improved the
236 diffusion and solubilization of the carotenoids. However, in our study, we confirmed
237 that at such high temperatures, xanthophyll degradation generally occurred. Poojary and
238 Passamonti (2015) obtained a 94.7% recovery of the carotene lycopene at 20°C for 40
239 min with 40 ml/g of acetone/hexane (1:3 v/v). Heffernan *et al.* (2016) obtained the
240 highest xanthophyll extraction from the macroalgae *Fucus serratus* using
241 hexane/acetone 7:3 at 50°C for 24 h. When hot saponification is carried out, the high
242 temperature can cause isomerization and degradation of the carotenoids. Our study
243 shows a decrease in carotenoid extraction with temperature (Figure 2) for *T. suecica* and
244 *P. reticulatum*. In general, the use of a gentler temperature was favourable in most
245 cases.
246 These results present only the total carotenoid values; nonetheless, the study was
247 performed in a way that accounted for each of the carotenoids analysed (data not
248 shown). This is because the data were used to select the most appropriate temperature
249 for each microalga. Subsequently, the most appropriate KOH concentration was
250 selected taking into account each of the extracted carotenoids. Figure 3 shows the
251 extraction of carotenoids at the temperature selected for the KOH concentration of each
252 microalga. To achieve the maximum total carotenoid extraction, *I. galbana* required a
253 KOH concentration below 10% d.w. This was due to the fucoxanthin content as this

254 pigment is degraded at higher KOH concentrations. However, it should be noted that
255 when KOH concentrations below 40% d.w. were used, chlorophylls were present in the
256 samples; this might interfere with chromatographic analysis by overlapping with the
257 most polar xanthophylls, such as neoxanthin or peridinin. Similar behaviour was
258 observed for *N. gaditana*, *K. veneficum* and *P. reticulatum* because of their
259 vaucheriaxanthin and peridinin contents, respectively. *T. suecica* was hardly influenced
260 by KOH concentration at the selected temperature, so 10% d.w. KOH was the best
261 concentration to choose as it avoided the presence of chlorophylls. The same occurred
262 for *C. sp.* given that carotenoid extraction does not significantly increase at higher KOH
263 concentrations for the selected temperature. In the case of *H. pluvialis*, astaxanthin was
264 only detected in tests carried out at 40% d.w. KOH. Likewise, *S. almeriensis*
265 demonstrated slightly better carotenoid extraction at 20% d.w. KOH but 40% d.w. also
266 produced good extraction so this was preferred as it avoided the presence of
267 chlorophylls. The conditions selected for each microalga are summarized in Table 3.
268 These data (Figure 3) can be analysed for each carotenoid; in this way, the KOH
269 concentration providing the maximum extraction for each carotenoid is determined
270 (Table 4). When there were no statistically significant differences between different
271 KOH concentration values, we selected the one that allowed other pigments to be
272 extracted at the same time from the particular microalgae. The data show that for many
273 of the pigments, a KOH concentration of 40% d.w. was the best alternative as it
274 provided greater extraction and avoided the presence of chlorophylls. This is in
275 accordance with similar procedures such as that of Cerón *et al.* (2008) and Granado *et*
276 *al.* (2001). However, pigments such as fucoxanthin, vaucheriaxanthin (and ester),
277 peridinin and gyroxanthin require low KOH concentrations to avoid degradation. This

278 means that when a microalga contains one of these pigments, the carotenoid analysis
279 has to be performed twice: one at a low KOH concentration to determine the content of
280 these easily degradable xanthophylls and the other under stronger conditions to
281 determine the rest of the pigments (while avoiding chlorophyll interference) thus
282 achieving the best extraction results.

283

284 *3.2. Optimization of carotenoid recovery*

285 Having optimized the saponification step, the recovery of the carotenoids was studied.
286 Carotenoids are complex molecules of different polarities, from xanthophylls
287 (containing oxygen as a functional group) to carotenes (containing only a hydrocarbon
288 chain with no functional group) (Guedes *et al.*, 2011). Once they have been extracted
289 from inside the microalga, they can be recovered using different solvents. Carotenoids
290 that are more polar, such as neoxanthin, are better solvated using polar solvents, such as
291 acetone, whereas more apolar carotenoids, such as β -carotene, are better solvated in
292 apolar solvents, such as hexane. Amorim-Carrilho *et al.* (2014) claimed that hexane,
293 acetone and ethanol/hexane (4:3) are the most used solvents for plant-derived samples.
294 The selection of the appropriate solvent (or solvent mixture) is difficult because many
295 factors affect the extraction: the carotenoid's polarity and its chain length, the sample
296 matrix, and the moisture content (Saini and Keum, 2018). In this work, carotenoid
297 recovery optimization was performed with different microalgae to check the behaviour
298 of the main carotenoids analysed. Figure 4 shows the carotenoid recovery for each of
299 the tested solvents, ordered by their polarity calculating the P-index (Molina *et al.*,
300 2013), which were amongst those listed as extraction solvents permitted for use in the
301 production of food ingredients in Europe (Directive 2009/32/CE and Directive

2010/59/UE). The study found that using the tricomponent solution allows one to
achieve good results for all the microalgae and carotenoids; this is because it is
composed of a water, ethanol and hexane mixture. If only one solvent can be chosen,
tricomponent solution would be the most appropriate. However, if the aim is to isolate
only one, or only some carotenoids, other solvents would provide better results. In this
case, the microalga strain should be taken into account and a more polar or apolar
solvent should be chosen depending on the particular carotenoid to be recovered (Figure
4). Other authors have performed solvent extractions using different solvent
combinations with different polarities. For example, a mixture of ethyl acetate (polar)
and hexane (apolar) provided the greatest carotenoid recovery from tomato waste,
compared to other solvent combinations (Strati and Oreopoulou, 2011). Chuyen *et al.*
(2017) obtained greater carotenoid extraction from the lyophilized peel of Gac fruit (54
% β -carotene, 31% lycopene and 13% lutein) with ethyl acetate compared to acetone,
ethanol and hexane due to its higher polarity thus allowing the extraction of both
carotenes and xanthophylls. Ryckebosh *et al.* (2014) evaluated the use of
hexane/isopropanol (3:2; HI) and hexane (H) with *I. galbana*, *N. gaditana*, *N. sp.* and *P.*
tricornutum and obtained better results with HI - the highest general recovery was from
Isochrysis, the lowest from the two *Nannochloropsis* species, and an intermediate level
from *Phaeodactylum*. They claimed that these carotenoid recoveries could be explained
by a combination of two factors - the first being the similar polarity of the carotenoid
and the solvent, the second dealing with the dual location of the carotenoids. Primary
carotenoids are mostly associated with the photosynthetic membrane complexed to
proteins, so it is necessary to use polar organic solvents capable of forming hydrogen
bonds to disrupt the complexes; secondary carotenoids, however, can be localized in oil

326 bodies. As mentioned above, it is not possible to recommend a specific solvent or
327 solvent mixture for all samples as it depends on the specific carotenoid composition. In
328 general, the use of a mixture of solvents such as the tricomponent solution used in this
329 study demonstrates good results for a sample containing a mixture of xanthophylls and
330 carotenes.

331 **4. Conclusions**

332 It is not possible to establish a widely applicable method for carotenoid extraction.
333 Saponification conditions must be selected for each strain and the recovery solvent
334 needs to be selected based on the carotenoid to be purified. When a microalga is
335 composed of easily degradable polar xanthophylls, the analysis should be performed
336 under gentle conditions. To sum up, *I. galbana* needs a temperature of 60°C and less
337 than 10% KOH; *N. gaditana* and *K. veneticum* require 60°C and no saponification; *P.*
338 *reticulatum* needs 40°C and 10% KOH; *T. suecica* and *H. pluvialis* require 25°C and
339 10% or 40% KOH, respectively, while *C. sp.* and *S. almeriensis* require 80°C and 40%
340 KOH. The use of a mixture of solvents, such as the tricomponent solution, demonstrates
341 generally good results for a sample with xanthophylls and carotenes.

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447 **Table and Figure Captions**

448 **Table 1.** Concentration ranges of standard solutions as a calibration method for
449 carotenoid determination. Channel indicates the maximum absorption wavelength (nm).

450 **Table 2.** Multifactor ANOVA testing the effect of temperature (T) and KOH (K) on the
451 total carotenoid content in each microalgae biomass. The data variability is attributable
452 to the main effect of each factor and interaction found, as indicated by the p value. The
453 contribution of each factor was expressed as the percentage variation in the response
454 (the F ratio of each factor relative to the sum of all F ratios).

455 **Table 3.** Extraction conditions for each microalgae species.

456 **Table 4.** Extraction conditions for each carotenoid from the different microalgae species
457

458 **Figure 1.** Surface response (3D) of the variation in total carotenoid content as a
459 function of the extraction conditions (temperature (°C) and KOH content (% , d.w.)) for
460 the biomasses of the different microalgae species (*Isochrysis galbana* (A), *Tetraselmis*
461 *suecica* (B), *Haematococcus pluvialis* (C), *Chlorella sp.* (D), *Nannochloropsis gaditana*
462 (E), *Scenedesmus almeriensis* (F) *Karlodinium veneficum* (G) and *Protoceratum*
463 *reticulatum* (H).

464 **Figure 2.** Influence of the extraction conditions on the total carotenoid content of the
465 different microalgae species (*Isochrysis galbana* (A), *Tetraselmis suecica* (B),
466 *Haematococcus pluvialis* (C), *Chlorella sp.* (D), *Nannochloropsis gaditana* (E),
467 *Scenedesmus almeriensis* (F) *Karlodinium veneficum* (G) and *Protoceratum reticulatum*
468 (H)) as a function of temperature (°C) and KOH content (% , d.w.). Values are the
469 mean±standard deviation in the different microalgae. Average temperature (dark circles)

470 and average KOH (red triangles) are the average values of the total carotenoids under
471 each condition.

472

473 **Figure 3.** Influence of the KOH percentage on the carotenoid content of the different
474 microalgae species (*Isochrysis galbana* (A), *Tetraselmis suecica* (B), *Haematococcus*
475 *pluvialis* (C), *Chlorella sp.* (D), *Nannochloropsis gaditana* (E), *Scenedesmus*
476 *almeriensis* (F) *Karlodinium veneficum* (G) and *Protoceratum reticulatum* (H)) as a
477 function of temperature (°C) and KOH content (% , d.w.). Values are the mean±standard
478 deviation in the different microalgae.

479

480 **Figure 4.** Influence of the different solvents (sorted by polarity index: hexane: 0,
481 hexane-ethanol (70:30): 2.6, ethyl ether: 2.9, hexane-ethanol (50-50): 3.6, absolute
482 ethanol: 5.2, acetone: 5.4, ethanol-hexane-water: 5.5, ethanol (96%): 5.6, acetone-water
483 (97.5:2.5): 5.7, acetone-water (95:5): 6, acetone-water: 6.3 and methanol 6.6) on the
484 carotenoid content of the different microalgae species (*Nannochloropsis gaditana* (A),
485 *Chlorella sp.* (B), *Isochrysis galbana* (C), *Tetraselmis suecica* (D), and *Protoceratum*
486 *reticulatum* (E)). Values are the mean±standard deviation in the different microalgae.

487

Table 1

Concentrations ranges of standard solutions as a calibration method for carotenoid determination. Channel indicates the maximum absorption wavelength (nm).

Pigment	Concentration range, $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$	Calibration levels	Channel (λ), nm
Neoxanthin	0 – 75	5	440
Lutein	0 – 30	5	440
Fucoxanthin	0 – 90	5	440
Peridinin	0 – 6.5	5	475
Violaxanthin	0 – 3	5	440
Zeaxanthin	0 – 30	5	450
Vaucheriaxanthin	0 – 30	5	450
Diatoxanthin	0 – 4	5	450
Diadinoxanthin	0 – 3.5	5	440
Gyroxanthin ester	0 – 2	5	440
Dinoxanthin	0 – 2	5	440
β -carotene	0 – 37	5	450

Table 2

Multifactor ANOVA testing the effect of temperature (T) and KOH (K) on the total carotenoids content in each microalgae biomasses. The data variability is attributable to the main effect of each factor and interactions found, as indicated by the p value. The contribution of each factor was expressed as the percentage variation of the response (F ratio of each factor relative to the sum of all F ratios).

Microalgae	Statistics	T	KOH	T-KOH
<i>Isochrysis</i>	%	8.24	87.38	4.39
<i>galbana</i>	p-value	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05
<i>Tetraselmis</i>	%	41.99	10.01	48.00
<i>suecica</i>	p-value	< 0.05	< 0.05	< 0.05
<i>Haematococcus</i>	%	14.34	80.89	4.79
<i>pluvialis</i>	p-value	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05
<i>Chlorella sp.</i>	%	97.21	2.32	0.47
	p-value	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05
<i>Nannochloropsis</i>	%	78.65	18.14	3.21
<i>gaditana</i>	p-value	< 0.05	< 0.05	< 0.05
<i>Scenedesmus</i>	%	47.74	34.09	18.17
<i>almeriensis</i>	p-value	< 0.05	< 0.05	< 0.05
<i>Karlodinium</i>	%	5.32	88.89	5.79
<i>veneficum</i>	p-value	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05
<i>Protoceratum</i>	%	89.30	9.77	0.93
<i>reticulatum</i>	p-value	<0.05	<0.05	<0.05

Red values mean significant differences (p -value < 0.05)

Table 3. Extraction conditions for each microalgae species.

Microalga	Temperature, °C	KOH, %d.w.
<i>I. galbana</i>	60	10
<i>N. gaditana</i> , <i>K. veneticum</i>	60	0
<i>P. reticulatum</i>	40	10
<i>T. suecica</i> ,	25	10
<i>H. pluvialis</i>		40
<i>C. sp.</i> , <i>S. almeriensis</i>	80	40

Table 4. Extraction conditions for each carotenoid ~~from the of~~ different microalgae species.

Carotenoid	Microalga	Temperature, °C	KOH, %d.w.
Fucoxanthin	<i>I. galbana</i> , <i>K. veneficum</i>	60	0
Diadinoxanthin	<i>I. galbana</i>	60	0
Diadinoxanthin	<i>P. reticulatum</i>	40	10
Diatoxanthin	<i>I. galbana</i> , <i>K. veneficum</i>	60	40
Diatoxanthin	<i>P. reticulatum</i>	40	10
Dinoxanthin	<i>P. reticulatum</i>	40	10
Lutein	<i>T. suecica</i> ,	25	10
	<i>H. pluvialis</i>		40
Lutein	<i>S. almeriensis</i>	80	40
Violaxanthin	<i>T. suecica</i>	25	10
	<i>H. pluvialis</i>		40
Violaxanthin	<i>C. sp.</i> , <i>S. almeriensis</i>	80	40
Violaxanthin	<i>N. gaditana</i>	60	20
Vaucheriaxanthin	<i>N. gaditana</i>	60	20
Vaucheriaxanthin ester	<i>N. gaditana</i>	60	20
Zeaxanthin	<i>C. sp.</i>	80	40
Neoxanthin	<i>N. gaditana</i>	60	40
Astaxanthin	<i>H. pluvialis</i>	25	40
β -carotene	<i>N. gaditana</i> , <i>K. veneficum</i>	60	40
β -carotene	<i>K. veneficum</i>	60	0
β -carotene	<i>T. suecica</i> ,	25	10
	<i>H. pluvialis</i>		40
β -carotene	<i>C. sp.</i> , <i>S. almeriensis</i>	80	60
β -carotene	<i>P. reticulatum</i>	40	10
Gyroxanthin	<i>K. veneficum</i>	60	0
Peridinin	<i>P. reticulatum</i>	40	10

Figure 1

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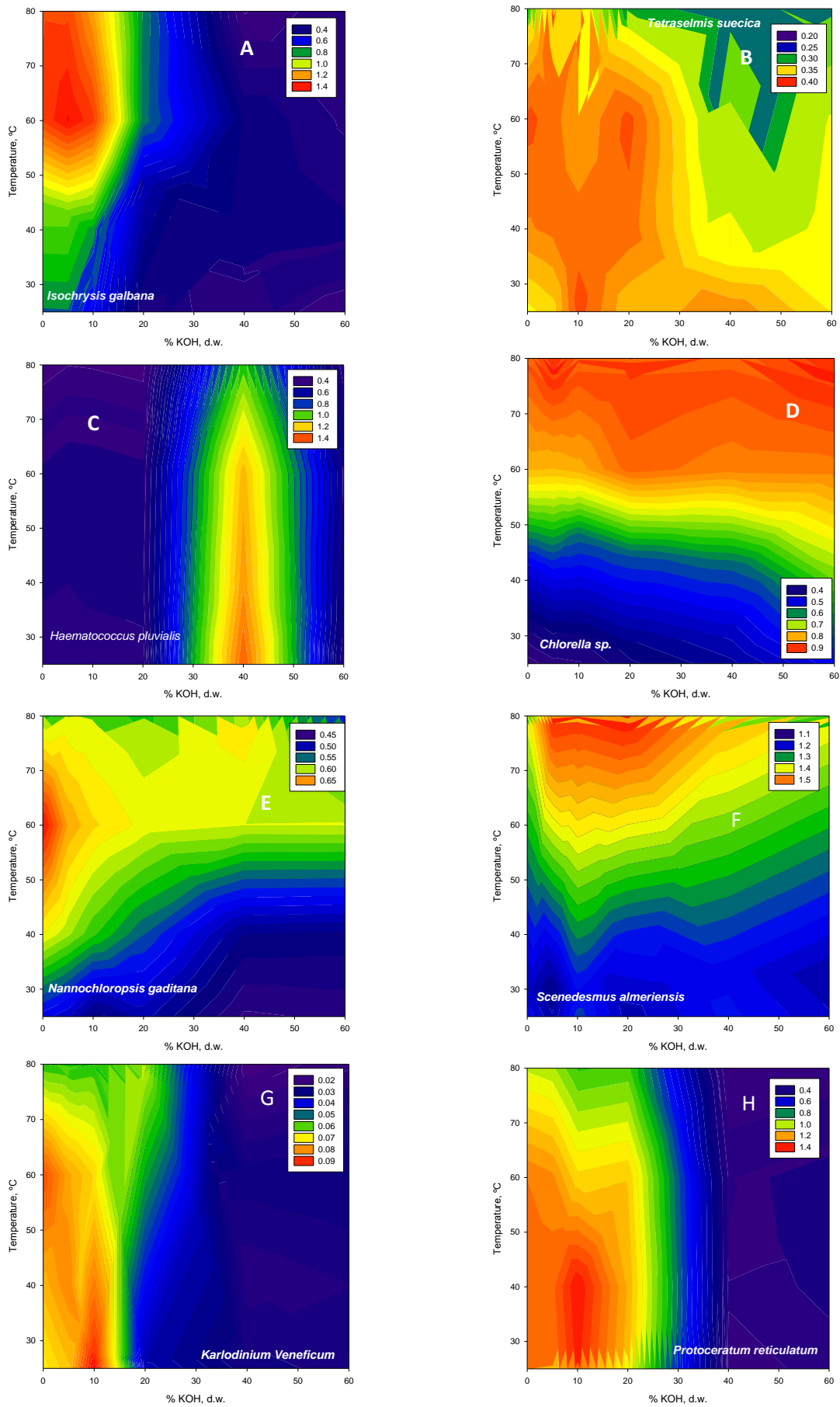


Figure 1

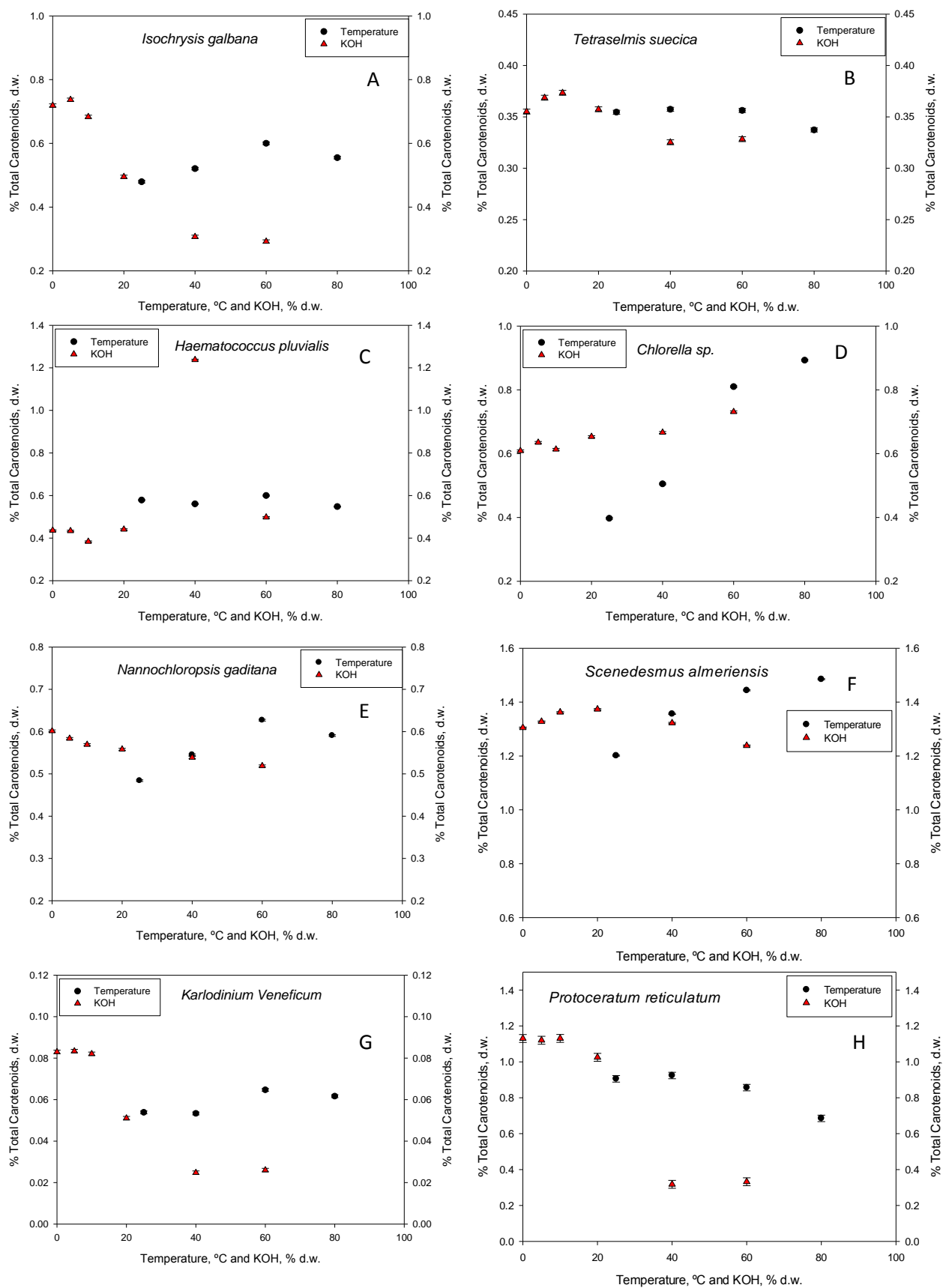


Figure 2

Figure 3

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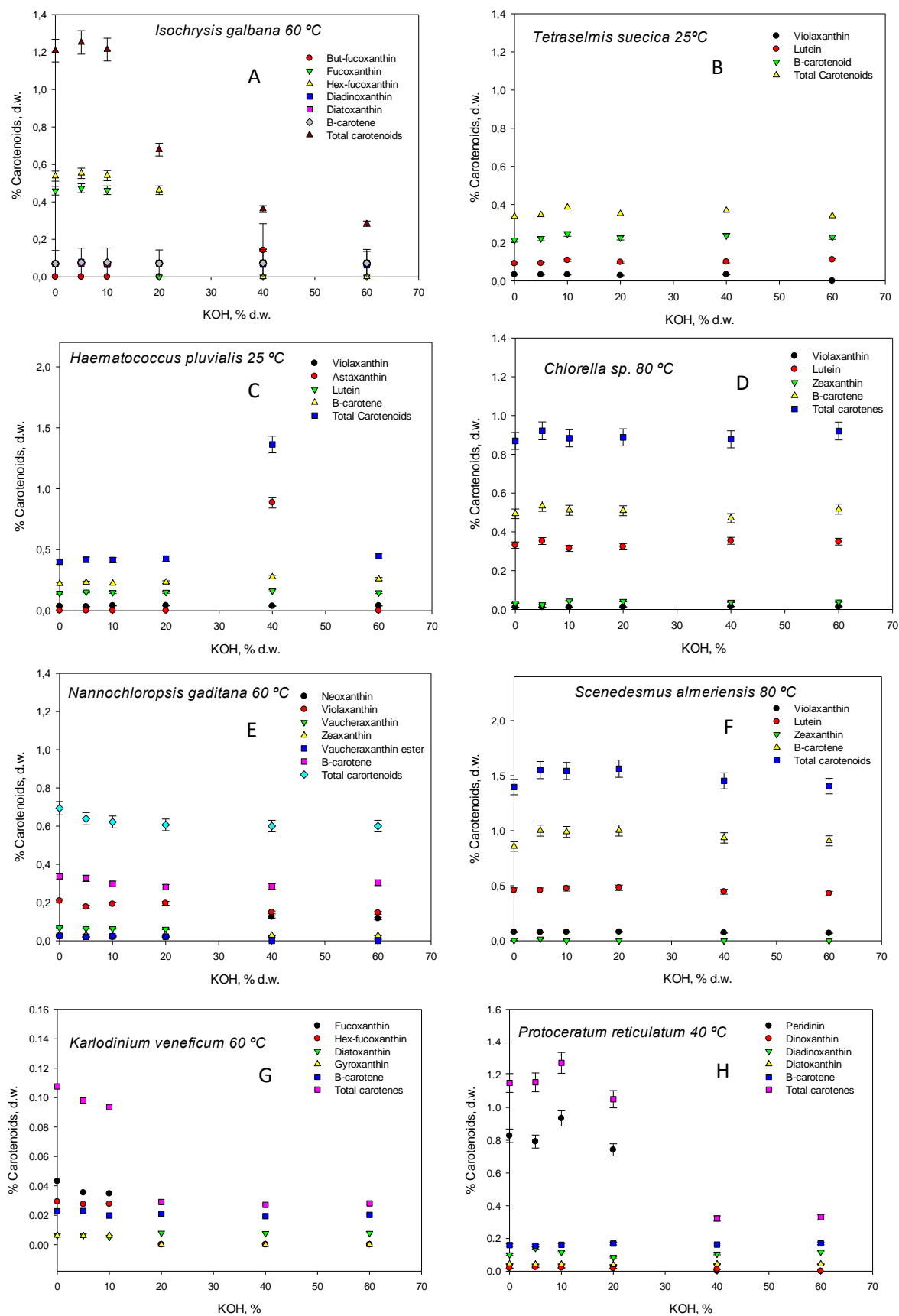


Figure 3.

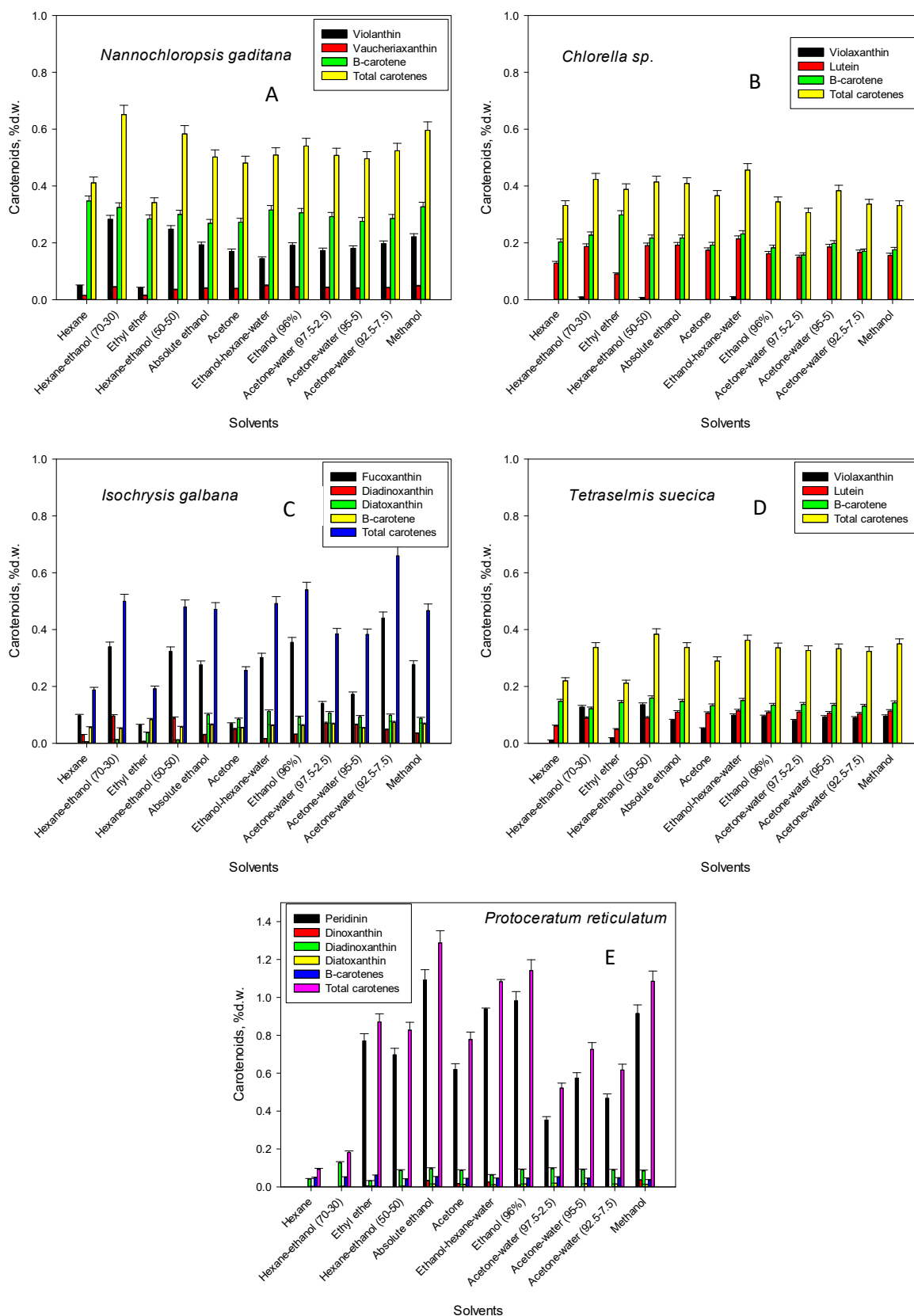


Figure 4.