





## Technical report

### **Aquaxan™ HD algal meal use in aquaculture diets: Enhancing nutritional performance and pigmentation**

(TR.2102.001)

The benefits of using Aquaxan HD algal meal in aquaculture diets are reviewed:

- ***Aquaxan HD algal meal is prepared from the alga Haematococcus pluvialis.***
- ***It is an excellent natural source of algal micronutrients, especially astaxanthin, a unique carotenoid pigment used to improve nutritional performance and pigmentation properties of diets for salmon, trout, shrimp, red seabream, and other marine or tropical aquatic species.***
- ***The natural astaxanthin stereoisomer found in Aquaxan HD is the same as that found in the natural food of the aquaculture species targeted, and is the same as the dominant astaxanthin stereoisomer found in their flesh, unlike the synthetic form.***
- ***Astaxanthin in Aquaxan HD algal meal has a high bioefficacy.***
- ***Trials have shown that Aquaxan HD algal meal has excellent pigmentation properties comparable to synthetic astaxanthin, and that feeding Aquaxan HD algal meal resulted in higher weight gain.***
- ***Studies indicate that algal astaxanthin has a higher bio-efficacy than synthetic astaxanthin, especially when used in larval and postlarval shrimp feeds, resulting in improved survival.***
- ***Astaxanthin has been attributed vitamin-like properties in fish. Its functions include pro-vitamin A activity, pigmentation, photoresponse and communication, antioxidant, reproduction and development, and a role in immune response mechanisms.***
- ***Requirements for astaxanthin are reviewed and recommendations on usage of Aquaxan HD algae meal are provided***



## Technical report

### 1. Aquaxan HD algae meal

- Is an algal meal prepared from *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Haematococcus* spp. are ubiquitous green algae (Chlorophyceae) in the family Volvocales. They are encountered throughout the world and naturally occur in fresh and brackish waters<sup>1,2,3,4</sup>. When environmental conditions become inhospitable (e. g., drying out of pools), *Haematococcus* cells start reddening, accumulating lipids and **astaxanthin for protection against photooxidation and other oxidative mechanisms**, while entering a resting phase<sup>1,2,3,4</sup>.
- Is produced by cell-breaking *Haematococcus* algae and gentle drying at low temperature to **ensure minimum degradation and maximum bioavailability of astaxanthin and other micro-nutrients**.
- Is stabilised with the antioxidant ethoxyquin, which ensures a **satisfactory stability when stored at 20°C or below<sup>6</sup>** and comes with a **guaranteed total astaxanthin content<sup>5</sup>**.
- Is an excellent source of natural **algal micronutrients, including essential amino acids and polyunsaturated fatty acids** to enhance nutritional performance of aquaculture diets.
- Is particularly rich in **astaxanthin**, a natural **red pigment** that improves pigmentation of **salmon, trout, red seabream and shrimp**, but also has other very important biological functions including **pro-vitamin A activity, communication and photoresponse, protection of lipids against oxidation, protection against light and photooxidation, reproduction, larval development and growth, immune response and health**.
- Contains primarily **esterified astaxanthin**, a **more stable** form than free astaxanthin in nature<sup>8</sup> although **highly bioavailable<sup>9</sup>**.
- Is mainly composed of the **3S,3'S** astaxanthin enantiomer<sup>10</sup>, the **same predominant astaxanthin isomer found in wild salmon<sup>11</sup>**, while in other sources such as yeast or synthetic astaxanthin, other isomer forms predominate<sup>12</sup>.

000100





Technical report

**2. Astaxanthin natural occurrence.**

- **Astaxanthin is the main carotenoid pigment** found in aquatic animals<sup>13</sup>. It can be found at significant levels in important aquaculture products such as **salmon, trout, red seabream, shrimp, lobster, and fish eggs**<sup>7,14</sup>.
- **Astaxanthin cannot be synthesised** by animals and must be provided in the diet as is the case with other carotenoids<sup>7,14</sup>. While salmonids are unable to convert other dietary carotenoids into astaxanthin<sup>7</sup>, some species such as crustaceans have a limited capacity to convert closely related dietary carotenoids into astaxanthin, although feeding astaxanthin directly to shrimp rather than precursors results in better pigmentation due to conversion inefficiencies<sup>14,53</sup>.
- **Form and level of deposition of astaxanthin differ between tissues:** esterified astaxanthin predominates in the skin, teguments, and eggs, while free astaxanthin is the main form in the flesh, serum and other internal organs of salmon<sup>7</sup>. In shrimp, esterified astaxanthin predominates, except in the ovaries and eggs<sup>17,18</sup>. In red seabream, mostly esterified astaxanthin is found in the skin<sup>17,18</sup>. The more stable esterified form is believed to be an adaptive feature to be able to store astaxanthin in tissues without excessive oxidation<sup>8</sup>.
- **Esterified 3S,3'S astaxanthin**, the main astaxanthin enantiomer in **Aquaxan HD algae meal** is the **dominant astaxanthin form in natural foods/preys** of aquaculture species<sup>11</sup>. This 3S,3'S astaxanthin enantiomer is the same as the main enantiomer found in the **flesh of wild salmon**<sup>11</sup>. Salmonids seem to be unable to convert the 3R,3'S enantiomer in synthetic astaxanthin to the natural 3S,3'S form<sup>11</sup>. Fillets from farmed salmon fed synthetic astaxanthin will have characteristically high levels of the 3R,3'S form and can therefore be easily distinguished by analytical means from the wild salmon<sup>11</sup>.

**Table 1. Main forms of astaxanthin in tissues of important aquaculture species**

<i>Tissues</i>	Skin	Flesh	Digestive gland	Ovaries	Serum	Eggs
<b>Species</b>						
<b>Salmonids</b> <sup>7</sup>	Esterified	Free	Free	Free	Free	Esterified
<b>Shrimp</b> <sup>15,16</sup>	Esterified	Esterified	Esterified	Free		Free
<b>Red Seabream</b> <sup>17,18</sup>	Esterified	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

N.A.: Not available

000103

**Table 2. Form and level of astaxanthin in selected important aquaculture species and potential astaxanthin sources**

Form and level of astaxanthin in selected important aquaculture species and potential asta

	Astaxanthin			Reference
	Content (mg/kg)	Free/esterified	Main isomer	
<b>Aquaculture species</b>				
Sockeye salmon	26-37	Free,esterified**	3S,3'S	11,7
Coho salmon	9-21	Free,esterified**	3S,3'S	11,7
Chum salmon	3-8	Free,esterified**	3S,3'S	11,7
Chinook salmon	8-9	Free,esterified**	3S,3'S	11,7
Pink salmon	4-6	Free,esterified**	3S,3'S	11,7
Atlantic salmon	3-11	Free,esterified**	3S,3'S	11,7
Rainbow trout	1-3	Free,esterified**	3S,3'S	7
salmon eggs	0-14	esterified***	N.A.	19,20
Red seabream	2-14	esterified***	N.A.	17,18
Red seabream eggs	3-8	N.A.	N.A.	20
<i>Peneaus monodon</i>	10-150	Esterified,free**	3S,3'S	16
Lobster		Esterified,free**	N.A.*	12, 37
<b>Astaxanthin sources</b>				
Copepods	39-84	esterified***	N.A.*	7
Krill	46-130	esterified***	3R,3'R	7
Krill oil	727	esterified***	3R,3'R	7
Crayfish meal	137	esterified***	N.A.*	7
Arctic shrimp	1160	esterified***	3S,3'S	7
Yeast ( <i>Pfaffia rhodozyma</i> )	30-800	esterified***	3R,3'R	7
Synthetic astaxanthin	80,000	free	3R,3'S	7
<b><i>Haematococcus pluvialis</i></b>	<b>10,000-30,000</b>	<b>esterified***</b>	<b>3S,3'S</b>	<b>9</b>

\* Crustaceans are believed to have mostly the 3S,3'S form, Krill might be the exception.

\*\* depending on tissues, free or esterified astaxanthin may be found

000109

### 3. Bioefficacy of algal astaxanthin.

- In **Red Seabream** (*Chrysophrys major*), pigmentation efficacy of the **esterified form of natural astaxanthin** was reported **superior to synthetic free astaxanthin** <sup>21,18</sup>.
- Recent work conducted in Thailand also showed **superior bioefficacy of astaxanthin from *Haematococcus* over the synthetic form**, in larval and post-larval shrimp (*Penaeus monodon*) diets, leading to higher survival <sup>22</sup>. Survival of shrimp zoea fed diets supplemented with 200 ppm algal astaxanthin was found to be 3 times higher than those fed diets supplemented with the same amount of synthetic astaxanthin. In the case of mysis larvae and post-larvae, the algal astaxanthin diets resulted in 20% and 18% improved survival over the synthetic astaxanthin diets.
- In **salmonids**, our trials (Fig. 3, Fig. 4) have shown that properly cell-broken and gently dried algal meal from *Haematococcus*, resulted in **pigmentation and astaxanthin deposition in the flesh, comparable to that obtained from synthetic astaxanthin, when trout were** fed diets supplemented with equivalent levels of these two pigment sources<sup>23</sup>. Portion-size trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) fed the algal astaxanthin (Aquaxan HD algal meal) for 90 days, grew to a higher final weight than those fed the synthetic form, suggesting a **superior bioefficacy**, similar to what has been observed with shrimp. An earlier study found that feeding a diet supplemented with astaxanthin from partly-broken *Haematococcus* cells (60% broken cells), resulted in astaxanthin deposition levels in the flesh of trout which were 260% of the level achieved with non-broken cells and 58% of synthetic astaxanthin<sup>24</sup>. This earlier study had concluded that the lower pigmentation efficacy of algal astaxanthin in trout, compared to the synthetic form, could be attributed to two possible causes: insufficient breakage of cell wall and/or lower absorption rate due to the need for fish to hydrolyse the esterified form into free astaxanthin before it can be absorbed and transferred into the blood and organs<sup>24,25</sup>. Assuming the linearity of the pigmentation efficacy and the percentage of broken cells, an extrapolation of those earlier results would have indicated that diets prepared with 100% broken cells would most likely have resulted in astaxanthin deposition very similar to those obtained with the synthetic astaxanthin. Because of the toughness of their cell walls, *Haematococcus* cysts are difficult to rupture, and since the astaxanthin is enclosed inside those cell walls, it is very important to maximise breakage of the cells, without destruction of the astaxanthin. The processing of Aquaxan HD algal meal has been designed to achieve a thorough rupture of the cell walls to ensure the best bio-availability of algal astaxanthin, while minimising losses. Our very good pigmentation efficacy results and earlier work in Japan which found equivalent pigmentation efficacy between synthetic free astaxanthin and esterified natural astaxanthin in coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*)<sup>26</sup>, concur with studies in red seabream and indicate that **esterified algal astaxanthin and**



Technical report

synthetic free astaxanthin have similar pigmentation efficacy in salmon or trout.

Pigmentation and growth results with trout fed algal or synthetic astaxanthin

Fig 3

Astaxanthin deposition in muscle of trout fed 10, 25 or 40 ppm astaxanthin

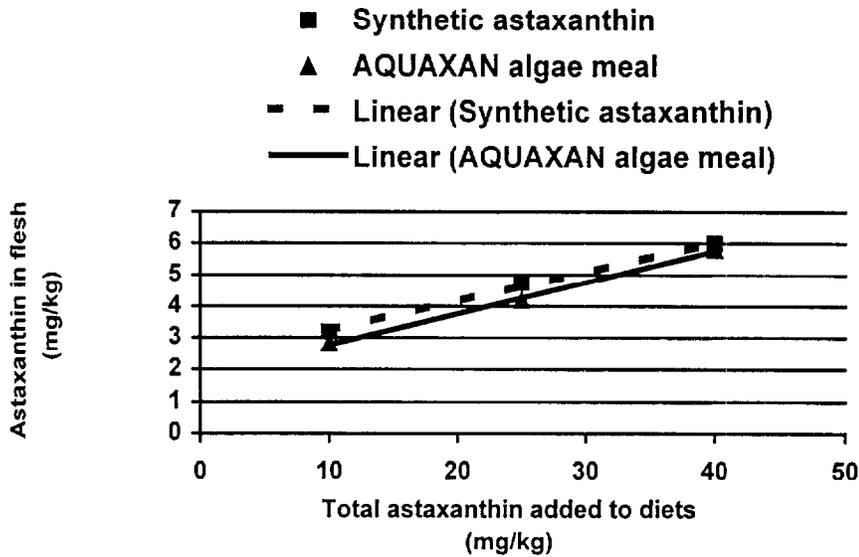
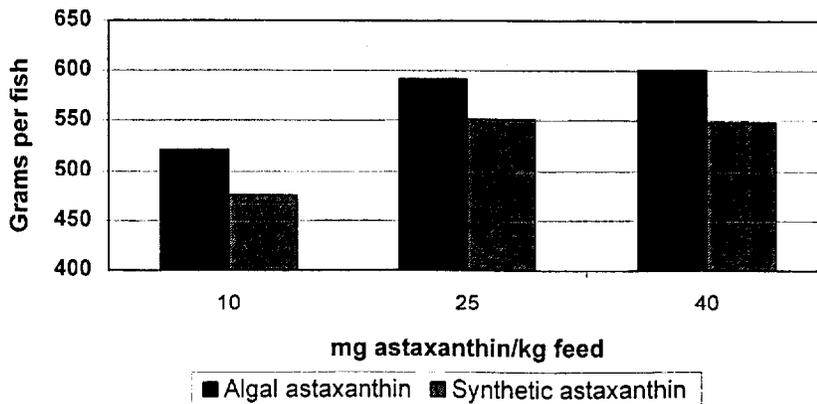


Fig.4.

Final weight (g/pc) of fish fed diets supplemented with 10, 25 or 40 ppm algal or synthetic astaxanthin



#### **4. Functions of astaxanthin:**

The main functions of astaxanthin in aquatic species include:

- Pro-vitamin A activity
- Pigmentation, photo response and communication
- Antioxidant properties
- Reproduction and development
- Immune response mechanisms

##### **4.1. Pro-vitamin A activity – role in vision**

- Retinoids, including Vitamin A, are well known for their role as vision pigments. In fish, vitamin A has been shown to be an essential vitamin, with deficiency leading to xerophthalmia and cataracts, while supplementation in the diet prevented these deficiency symptoms and promoted growth<sup>27</sup>.
- Astaxanthin, as with other carotenoids including beta-carotene, has been reported to play a role as precursor of vitamin A in salmon (*Salmo salar*) and trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*)<sup>28,29</sup>, tilapia (*Tilapia nilotica*)<sup>30</sup>, guppies (*Lebistes reticulatus*) and platies (*Xiphophorus variatus*)<sup>31</sup>.
- It should be noted that in the deep sea stomatoid fish *Malacosteus niger*, astaxanthin is a tapetal pigment, believed to function as a diffuse reflector which increases visual sensitivity<sup>32</sup>.

##### **4.2. Astaxanthin's role in photoresponse, communication and behaviour**

- Fish are known to change coloration in response to changes in lighting and background, during reproductive behaviour or when excited, as both a way of communicating and protecting themselves<sup>33</sup>.
- Carotenoid pigments, accumulating and migrating within chromatophores and xanthophores spread out in the tegument of fish, are responsible for these colorations and their changes. It has been suggested that the bright colors of male salmons during reproductive period, resulting from astaxanthin accumulation, is a secondary sexual characteristic that may influence the behaviour and be a condition of the success of the reproductive process<sup>33</sup>.
- This role in communication and behaviour is believed to be a major function of carotenoids in the animal world<sup>34</sup>.

##### **4.3. Antioxidant properties of astaxanthin: the SUPER VITAMIN E.**

- Astaxanthin has been shown to be an excellent natural antioxidant<sup>13,35,36,36,38</sup>. Astaxanthin is very active against singlet oxygen (<sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>), hydroxyl radicals (·OH), and organic free radicals, and was found to be more active than other carotenoids (zeaxanthin, beta-carotene, canthaxanthin) or alpha-tocopherol on those free radical species. Indeed, when compared to vitamin E, the in-vitro activity of astaxanthin was found to be 15 times higher on free radicals, and 100 times on singlet oxygen<sup>13</sup>.

- *In-vitro* studies have shown astaxanthin to be the most effective natural antioxidant to protect linolenic acid, a polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) from peroxidation<sup>13</sup>. PUFAs are considered critical components of cell membranes of marine fish and shrimp, who have elevated dietary requirements for essential PUFAs. Those PUFAs are very sensitive to oxidation due to their double bonds.
- Astaxanthin is also believed to protect tissues from photo-oxidation by UV light, e. g., in salmon swimming in shallow waters, or in salmonid eggs.<sup>7</sup>
- Astaxanthin has been attributed a protective effect on some essential vitamins. Feeding trials have shown that tissues of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) fed astaxanthin-supplemented diets had 2 to 20 times higher levels of physiologically active antioxidant vitamins (retinol, alpha-tocopherol, ascorbic acid) supporting an antioxidant sparing property of astaxanthin on those vitamins<sup>39</sup>.

#### **4.4. Role of astaxanthin in reproduction and development.**

- Carotenoids, and more specifically astaxanthin, have long been attributed an important role in reproduction of shrimp and fish<sup>7,14</sup>.
- It has been noted that astaxanthin deposited in the flesh is mobilised and redeposited in ovaries and the skin during the reproductive cycle of salmonids<sup>14</sup>.
- Salmon eggs contain high levels of lipids, specifically polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), which are critical to the success of reproduction and larval development. It is assumed that astaxanthin plays an important protective role for these PUFAs as a natural *in-situ* antioxidant<sup>14</sup>.
- In red seabream (*Chrysophrys major*), astaxanthin has been found to improve buoyancy and other egg quality parameters- and production of larvae when broodstock were fed diets containing astaxanthin<sup>20</sup>
- Feeding astaxanthin to yellow tail broodstock resulted in improved egg quality<sup>40</sup>.
- Recent work has demonstrated that astaxanthin was essential for high survival and rapid growth of newly-hatched salmon fry and juveniles<sup>41,42</sup>.

#### **4.5. Effects of astaxanthin on health and immunology**

Astaxanthin has been reported to improve both specific and non-specific immune response mechanisms in fish:

- In salmonids, astaxanthin improved survival of Atlantic salmon submitted to an *Aeromonas salmonicida* challenge, and has been demonstrated to be essential for the survival of salmon fry<sup>43,46</sup>.
- *In-vitro* experiments with trout phagocytes have demonstrated the immuno-stimulatory effect of astaxanthin, which is believed to protect the cell membranes of the phagocytes from oxidation<sup>44</sup>.
- Higher astaxanthin levels have been found in phagocytic cells of trout such as phagocytes, macrophages and neutrophils, indicating a greater need for autoprotection against toxic oxidative by-products<sup>41</sup>.
- Supplementation of astaxanthin in salmonid diets has been shown to affect *in-vivo* all non-specific immune response parameters tested<sup>45</sup>.
- Those results corroborate a large number of studies which have demonstrated the positive effect of astaxanthin in specific and non-specific immune response

mechanisms in mammals<sup>46,47,48,49,50,51</sup>. Astaxanthin has been shown to have anticarcinogenic effects in mice<sup>48,51,63,66</sup>, to stimulate formation of antibody-forming cells in the spleen of sheep<sup>46,47</sup>, to enhance *in-vitro* production of T-cell-dependent antigen in normal strains of mice and possibly antibody production<sup>47</sup>.

- Two freshwater fish, *Oreochromis nilotica* and *Colisa labiosa*, fed astaxanthin at 32 or 71 mg/kg, displayed improved histology of the liver, a critical organ which plays an essential role in immune response mechanisms in fish<sup>52</sup>. Astaxanthin supplementation has resulted in improved growth of tilapia<sup>53</sup>.
- Finally, the sparing effect of astaxanthin on other essential vitamins with immune response functions may also have an indirect positive effect on the health and immune response of fish<sup>39</sup>.

In shrimp, astaxanthin has also been shown to improve survival and immune response.

- In Kuruma shrimp (*P. japonicus*), 50 to 100 ppm dietary astaxanthin has been shown to improve survival and growth<sup>54,55,57</sup>.
- In Tiger prawns (*P. monodon*), 100 to 200 ppm dietary astaxanthin has been shown to improve resistance to bacterial and viral infections<sup>56</sup>, while only 50 ppm is sufficient to prevent the blue-shrimp syndrome<sup>16</sup>.
- More recently, dietary astaxanthin was shown to improve survival of larval and post-larval shrimp (*P. monodon*), with algal astaxanthin showing a superior effect over the synthetic form<sup>22</sup>.

#### **4. Requirements for astaxanthin – recommended supplemental levels**

- The increased mortality and reduced growth observed in salmon fed astaxanthin-free diets support the assumption of a vitamin-like property of astaxanthin and of an essential requirement for it<sup>28</sup>.
- The minimum requirement for optimal growth and survival of Atlantic salmon fry has been determined to be 5.3 ppm astaxanthin<sup>41</sup>. However to ensure optimal pigmentation, much higher levels are recommended: as high as 50 to 70 mg astaxanthin per kg of feed is common practice in the industry.
- In shrimp, although essentiality of carotenoids seems to be widely accepted<sup>15,58,60</sup>, exact requirements have not been determined. Crustaceans, including penaeid shrimp, are able to convert other carotenoids to astaxanthin, although this conversion may be slow or inefficient<sup>58</sup>. Indeed, astaxanthin has been reported to be more effective than beta-carotene and other carotenoids at improving survival<sup>54</sup> and astaxanthin deposition and pigmentation<sup>54,57,58</sup> in penaeid shrimp.
- Dietary levels of 25 to 50 ppm dietary astaxanthin are recommended to correct the blue-shell syndrome of *Penaeus monodon*<sup>16</sup>.
- In Kuruma shrimp, *Penaeus japonicus*, it has been found that astaxanthin deposition increased to a maximum 38 mg/kg in the flesh, 85 mg/kg in the head and 54 mg/kg in the shell, when fed up to 200 ppm astaxanthin, with no additional pigmentation efficacy if feeding higher levels than 100 ppm.



Technical report

- On the other hand, levels as high as 100 to 400 ppm have been recommended for improved survival, immune response and resistance to disease in shrimp<sup>59,60,61</sup>.
- In red seabream, no specific requirements have been determined, but the industry frequently adds up 25 to 50 ppm astaxanthin to commercial diets, since poorly pigmented red seabream have significantly lower marketing acceptance leading to lower selling prices. .
- Astaxanthin is also added to larval and starter diets, often at significantly higher levels than in grower diets. In the case of shrimp larval and postlarval diets, recent work shows that 200 ppm algal astaxanthin is an adequate level and maximises resistance to stress<sup>22</sup>.

Table 3 Recommendations on astaxanthin supplemental levels in aquaculture diets.

Suggested supplemental astaxanthin levels (mg/kg feed):				
	Starter/larval diets		Grower diets	
	Low	High	Low	High
Salmonids	30	50	40	80
Red seabream	30	60	30	60
Shrimp	100	200	10	50



Technical report

Table 4: Conversion table: algal meal inclusion/supplemental astaxanthin targeted

Supplemental astaxanthin target level (ppm)	Astaxanthin level in Aquaxan HD algae meal				
	1.0%	1.5%	2.0%	2.5%	3.0%
	Inclusion in feed (kg/Ton feed)				
1	0.10	0.07	0.05	0.04	0.03
5	0.50	0.33	0.25	0.20	0.17
10	1.00	0.67	0.50	0.40	0.33
15	1.50	1.00	0.75	0.60	0.50
20	2.00	1.33	1.00	0.80	0.67
30	3.00	2.00	1.50	1.20	1.00
40	4.00	2.67	2.00	1.60	1.33
50	5.00	3.33	2.50	2.00	1.67
60	6.00	4.00	3.00	2.40	2.00
70	7.00	4.67	3.50	2.80	2.33
80	8.00	5.33	4.00	3.20	2.67
90	9.00	6.00	4.50	3.60	3.00
100	10.00	6.67	5.00	4.00	3.33
120	12.00	8.00	6.00	4.80	4.00
140	14.00	9.33	7.00	5.60	4.67
160	16.00	10.67	8.00	6.40	5.33
180	18.00	12.00	9.00	7.20	6.00
200	20.00	13.33	10.00	8.00	6.67
250	25.00	16.67	12.50	10.00	8.33
300	30.00	20.00	15.00	12.00	10.00

REFERENCES

1. Almgreen K. (1966). Ecology and distribution in Sweden of algae belonging to Haematococcaceae. Svensk Botanisk Tidskrift, 60(4), 49-73.
2. Droop M.R. (1953). On the ecology of flagellates from some brackish and fresh water rockpools of Finland. Acta Botanica Fennica 51, Ed. By: Societas Pro Fauna et Flora Fennica. 52pp.
3. Droop M.R. (1961). *Haematococcus pluvialis* and its allies. III. Organic nutrition. – Rev. Algol. N. S.,5(4), 247-259.
4. Elliot A.M. (1934). Morphology and life history of *Haematococcus pluvialis*. Archiv. Protistekunde, 82, 250-272.
5. Aquasearch 1999. Product specification sheets.
6. Aquasearch 1999. Technical Report TR-AQXHD-002.
7. Torissen O.J., R.W. Hardy, K. Shearer. 1989. Pigmentation of salmonids – carotenoid deposition and metabolism. CRC Critical Reviews in Aquatic Sciences, 1(2), 209-225.
8. Mantiri D.M., G. Nègres-Sadargues, G. Charmantier, J.P. Trilles. 1996. Nature and metabolism of carotenoid pigments during the embryogenesis of the European lobster *Homarus gammarus* (Linne, 1758). Comp. Biochem. Physiol. A, 115(3), 237-241.
9. Aquasearch 1999. Aquaxan HD algae meal data sheet.
10. Grung M., F.M.L. D'Souza, M. Borowitzka & S. Liaaen-Jensen. 1992. Algal carotenoids 51. Secondary carotenoids 2. *Haematococcus pluvialis* aplanospores as a source of (3S,3'S)-astaxanthin esters. J. Appl. Phycol., 4 165-171.
11. Turujman S.A., W. G. Wamer, R.R. Wei, R.H. Albert. 1997. Rapid liquid chromatographic method to distinguish wild salmon from aquacultured salmon fed synthetic astaxanthin. J. A. O. A. C. Int., 80(3), 622-632.
12. Torissen O.J., 1996. Effective use of carotenoids for salmon flesh pigmentation. Roche Aquacult. Symp. , Campbell River, Canada, May 13.
13. Miki W. 1991. Biological functions and activities of animal carotenoids. Appl. Chem., 63(1), 141-146.
14. Meyers S.P. The biological role of astaxanthin in salmonids and other aquatic species. First Int. Symp. on Nat. Colors and Foods, Nutr., Bever. and Confect. Amherst, USA, Nov. 7-10.
15. Dall W. 1995. Carotenoids versus retinoids (Vitamin A) as essential growth factors in penaeid prawns (*Penaeus semisulcatus*). Mar. Biol., 124, 209-213.
16. Menasveta P., W. Worawattanamateekul, T. Latscha, J.S. Clark. 1993. Correction of Black Tiger Prawn (*Penaeus monodon Fabricius*) coloration by astaxanthin. Aquaculture Eng., 12, 203-213.
17. Fujita T., Satake M., T. Watanabe, C. Kitajima, W. Miki, K. Yamaguchi, S. Konosu. 1983. Pigmentation of cultured red seabream with astaxanthin diester purified from Krill oil. Bull. Jpn. Soc. Sci. Fish. 49(12), 1855-1861.
18. Ito Y., T. Kamata, Y. Tanaka, M. Sameshima. 1986. Studies on the improvement of body color of red seabream *Pagrus major* by astaxanthin and astaxanthin dipalmitate. The Aquaculture, 34(2), 77-80.
19. Christiansen R., O.J. Torissen. 1997. Effects of dietary astaxanthin supplementation on fertilization and egg survival in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.). Aquaculture, 153, 51-62.
20. Watanabe T. and W. Miki. 1991. Astaxanthin: an effective dietary component of red seabream broodstock. Fish nutrition in practice, Biarritz (France), June 24-27, 1991.
21. Nakazoe J-I., S. Ishii, H. Kamimoto, M.Takeuchi. 1984. Effects of supplemental carotenoid pigments on the carotenoids accumulation in young red seabream (*Chrysophrys major*). Bull. Tokai Reg. Fish. Res. Lab. No. 113, , 29-41.
22. Darachai J., S. Piyaratitivorakul, P. Kittakoop, C. Nitithamyong, P. Menasveta. 1998. Effects of astaxanthin on larval growth and survival of the giant tiger prawn, *Penaeus monodon*. The Fifth Asian Fisheries Forum in Chiang Mai, Thailand (November 11-13, 1998).
23. Aquasearch 1998. Technical report TR.AQX.HD.001.
24. Sommer T.R., F.M.L.D. Souza and N.M. Morissy. 1991. Pigmentation of adult rainbow trout, *Onchorhynchus mykiss*, using the green alga *Haematococcus pluvialis*. Aquaculture, 106, 63-74.
25. Choubert G. and O. Heinrich. 1993. Carotenoid pigments of the green alga *Haematococcus pluvialis* : assay on rainbow trout *Onchorhynchus mykiss*, pigmentation in comparison with synthetic astaxanthin and cantaxanthin. Aquaculture, 112, 217-226.
26. Mori T., K. Makabe, K. Yamaguchi, S. Konosu, S. Arai. 1989. Comparison between krill astaxanthin diester and synthesised free astaxanthin supplemented to diets in their absorption and deposition by juvenile coho salmon (*Onchorhynchus kisutch*). Comp. Biochem. Physiol. B, 93(2), 255-258.
27. Halver J.E. 1989. The vitamins. In: Fish Nutrition (2<sup>nd</sup> edition), ed. By J. E. Halver. pp 31-109, Academic Press, New York.
28. Christiansen R., O. Lie, O.J. Torissen. 1994. Effect of astaxanthin and vitamin A on growth and survival during first feeding of Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* L. Aquaculture, 79 102: 33-36
29. Schiedt K., F.J. Leuenberger, M. Vecchi, E. Glinz . 1985. Absorption, retention and metabolic transformations of carotenoids in rainbow trout, salmon, and chicken. Pure Appl. Chem., 57, 685-692.
30. Katsuyama M., T. Matsuno. 1988. Carotenoids and vitamin A, and metabolism of carotenoids,  $\beta$ -carotene, canthaxanthin, astaxanthin, zeaxanthin, lutein and tunaxanthin in tilapia *Tilapia nilotica*. Comp. Biochem. Physiol. B, 90 (1), 131-139.

31. Gross J, P. Budowski. 1984. Metabolism of cryptoxanthin in freshwater fish. *Br. J. Nutr.*, 52, 575-581.
32. Somiya H. 1982. "Yellow lens" eyes of the stomatoid deep-sea fish, *Malacosteus niger*. *Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B.*, 215, 481-489.
33. Torissen O.J. 1989. Biological activities of carotenoids in fishes. *Proc. Third Int. Symp. On Feeding and Nutr. In Fish. Toba Aug. 28 – Sept. 1, Japan*, pp. 367-399.
34. Goodwin T.W. 1952. *The comparative biochemistry of the carotenoids*. Chapman and Hall, London, 356 pp.
35. Kurashige M., E. Okimasu, M. Inoue, K. Utsumi. 1990. Inhibition of oxidative injury of biological membranes by astaxanthin. *Physiol. Chem. Phys. Med. NMR*, 22(1), 27-38.
36. Lim B.P., A. Nagao, J. Terao, K. Tanaka, T. Suzuki, K. Takama. 1992. Antioxidant activity of xanthophylls on peroxy radical-mediated phospholipid peroxidation. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*, 1126(2): 178-84.
37. Lawlor S.M., N.M. O'Brien. 1995. Astaxanthin: antioxidant effects in chicken embryo fibroblasts. *Nutr. Res.*, 15(11), 1695-1704.
38. Oshima S., F. Ojima, H. Sakamoto, Y. Ishiguro, J. Terao. 1993. Inhibitory effect of beta-carotene and astaxanthin on photosensitized oxidation of phospholipid bilayers. *J. Nutr. Sci. Vit.*, 39(6), 607-615.
39. Christiansen R., J. Glette, O.J. Torissen, R. Waagbø. 1995. Antioxidant status and immunity in Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar* L, fed semi-purified diets with and without astaxanthin supplementation. *J. Fish Dis.*, 18, 317-328.
40. Matsuno T., M. Katsuyama, T. Maoka, T. Hirono, T. Komori. 1985. Reductive metabolic pathways of carotenoids in fish (3S,3'S)-astaxanthin to tunaxanthin A, B and C. *Comp. Biochem. Physiol. B*, 80 (4), 779-789.
41. Christiansen R., O. Lie, O.J. Torissen. 1996. Growth and survival of Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* L. fed different dietary levels of astaxanthin. *Juveniles. Aquaculture Nutr.*, 2, 55-62.
42. Christiansen R., O. Lie, O.J. Torissen. 1995. Growth and survival of Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* L. fed different dietary levels of astaxanthin. *First-feeding fry. Aquaculture Nutr.*, 1, 189-198.
43. Christiansen R., O. Lie, O.J. Torissen. 1994. Effect of astaxanthin and vitamin A on growth and survival of Atlantic salmon fry, *Salmo salar* L. *Aquaculture Fish. Manag.* 25, 903-914.
44. Verlhac V., Gabaudan J., Schierle J. 1995. In-vitro anti-oxidant properties of astaxanthin on rainbow trout immune cells. In: *Developmental and comparative immunology*. Clem, L.W. Warr G.W. (Eds.). The VIth ISDC congress. Abstracts. P889. Presented at the Nordic Symposium on Fish Immunology. May 1995, Reykjavik, Iceland.
45. Verlhac V., Gabaudan J., Schierle J. 1995. Influence of astaxanthin on non-specific immune response of rainbow trout. The VIth ISDC congress. Abstracts. Presented at the Nordic Symposium on Fish Immunology. May 1995, Reykjavik, Iceland.
46. Jyonouchi H., Hill R.J., Tomita Y., Good R.A. 1991. Studies of immunomodulation actions of carotenoids. I. Effects of betacarotene and astaxanthin on murine lymphocyte functions and cell surface maker expression in *in vitro* culture system. *Nutr. Cancer*, 16, 93-105.
47. Jyonouchi H., L. Zhang, Y. Tomita. 1993. Studies of immunomodulation actions of carotenoids. II. Astaxanthin enhances *in-vitro* antibody production to T-dependent antigens without facilitating polyclonal B-cell activation. *Nutr. Cancer*, 19, 269-280.
48. Jyonouchi H., L. Zhang L., M. Gross, Y. Tomita. 1994. Immunomodulating actions of carotenoids: enhancement of *in vivo* and *in vitro* antibody production to T-dependent antigens. *Nutr. Cancer*, 21, 47-58.
49. Jyonouchi H., S. Sun. M. Mizokami, M.D. Gross. 1996. Effects of various carotenoids on cloned effector-stage T-helper cell activity. *Nutr. Cancer*, 26, 313-324.
50. Okai, Y., K. Higashi-Okai. 1996. Possible immunomodulating activities of carotenoids in *in vitro* cell culture experiments. *Int. J. Immunopharmacol.*, 18, 753-758.
51. Tomita, Y., H. Jyonouchi, R.W. Engelman, N.K. Day, and R.A. Good. 1993. Preventive action of carotenoids on the development of lymphadenopathy and proteinuria in MRL-lpr/lpr mice. *Autoimmunity*, 16, 95-102.
52. Segner H., P. Arend, K.V. Peppinghausen, H. Schmidt. 1989. The effect of feeding astaxanthin to *Oreochromis niloticus* and *colisa labiosa* on the histology of the liver. *Aquaculture*, 79, 381-390.
53. Boonyaratpalin M., N. Unprasert. 1989. Effects of pigments from different sources on colour changes and growth of red *Oreochromis niloticus*. *Aquaculture* 79, 375-380.
54. Chien Y.H., S.C. Jeng. 1992. Pigmentation of Kuruma prawn, *Penaeus japonicus* Bate, by various pigment sources and levels and feeding regimes. *Aquaculture*, 102, 333-346.
55. Tanaka Y., H. Matsuguchi, T. Katayama, K.L. Simpson, C.O. Chichester. 1976. The biosynthesis of astaxanthin. XVIII. The metabolism of the carotenoids in the prawn, *Penaeus japonicus* Bate. *Bull. Jpn. Soc. Sci. Fish.*, 42:197-202.
56. Menasveta P. 1995. Role of micro-nutrients in increasing disease resistance in shrimp. 2nd. Roche Aquaculture Center Conference on Shrimp Nutrition and Disease. June 15, Bangkok, Thailand.
57. Nègre-Sadargues G., R. Castillo, H. Petit, S. Sance, R.G. Martinez, J-C.G. Choubert, J-P. Trilles. 1993. Utilisation of synthetic carotenoids by the prawn *Penaeus japonicus* reared under laboratory conditions. *Aquaculture* 110, 151-159.
58. Yamada S., Y. Tanaka, M. Sameshima, Y. Ito. 1990. Pigmentation of prawn (*Penaeus japonicus*) with carotenoids. I. Effect of dietary astaxanthin, beta-carotene, and canthaxanthin on pigmentation. *Aquaculture*, 87, 323-330.
59. Thongrod S., A. Tansutapanich, O.J. Torissen. 1995. Effect of dietary astaxanthin and supplementation on accumulation, survival, and growth in post-larvae of *Penaeus monodon* Fabricius. In P.Lavens, E. Jaspers and I.



Technical report

- Roelants (eds.). Larvi'95 – Fish & Shellfish Larviculture Symposium. European Aquaculture Society, Special Publication, No. 24, Gent, Belgium, 251-254.
60. Kurmali K. 1995. Shrimp nutrition and disease: role of vitamins and astaxanthin. 2nd Roche Aquaculture Center Conference on Shrimp Nutrition and Disease. June 15, Bangkok, Thailand.
  61. Chien Y.H. 1996. Biological effects of astaxanthin in shrimp, a review. 3<sup>rd</sup> Roche Conference on Nutrition and Disease. Bangkok, Dec 12, 1996, pp. 73-81.
  62. Verakunpirya V. T. Watanabe, K. Mushiake, V. Kiron. 1996. Effects of broodstock diets on the chemical component of milt and eggs produced by yellow tail. Fish. Sci. Tokyo. 62(4), 610-619.
  63. Tanaka, T., Y. Morishita, M. Suzui, T. Kojima, A. Okumura, H. Mori. 1994. Chemoprevention of mouse urinary bladder carcinogenesis by the naturally occurring carotenoid astaxanthin. Carcinogenesis 15, 15-19.
  64. Lee-Sang H., W. Park-Cherl, S. Park-Won, C. Lee-Young, S. Choi-Eui, L. Ha-Yeong. 1997. Inhibition of benzo(a)pyrene-induced mouse forestomach neoplasia by astaxanthin-containing egg yolks. Agric. Chem. Biotech., 40(6): 490-494.

000119

000119

## Technical report

### Astaxanthin in nature

(TR.3001.001)

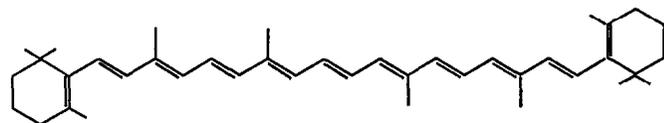
- *Astaxanthin is the main carotenoid pigment found in aquatic animals.*
- *Studies suggest that it can be 10 times more powerful than other carotenoids and more than 100 times than vitamin E, as a biological antioxidant.*
- *It plays a role in many essential metabolic functions in animals: protection against oxidation and UV-light, vision, immune response, pigmentation and communication, reproduction, and development.*
- *In some species it has been attributed vitamin-like properties and is believed to be essential to normal growth and survival.*
- *The micro-alga Haematococcus pluvialis holds nature's record of astaxanthin concentration, at more than 3% of dry biomass.*
- *The main astaxanthin stereoisomer found in Haematococcus is the same as that found in wild salmon. The main form of astaxanthin in Haematococcus is the esterified form, which is also found in several aquatic species. It is the more stable natural form.*

#### What is Astaxanthin?

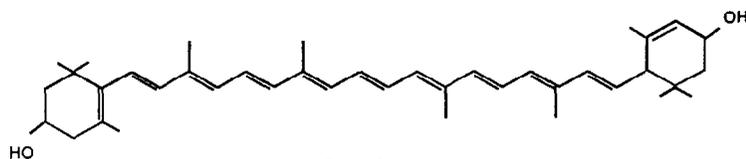
**Astaxanthin** is the main **carotenoid** pigment found in aquatic animals.<sup>1</sup> This red-orange pigment is closely related to other well-known carotenoids (Fig. 1) such as beta-carotene or lutein, but has a stronger antioxidant activity (10 times higher than beta-carotene)<sup>1</sup>. Studies suggest that astaxanthin can be more than 100 times more effective as antioxidant than vitamin E.<sup>7</sup> In many of the aquatic animals in which it is found, astaxanthin has a number of essential biological functions, including protection against oxidation of essential polyunsaturated fatty acids, protection against UV-light effects, pro-vitamin A activity and vision, immune response, pigmentation, communication, reproductive behaviour, and improved reproduction.<sup>2</sup> In species such as salmon or shrimp, astaxanthin is considered essential to normal growth and survival, and has been attributed vitamin-like properties.<sup>2</sup> Some of these unique properties have also been found to be effective in mammals<sup>3-7</sup> and **open very promising possibilities for nutraceutical and pharmaceutical applications of astaxanthin in humans.**

Technical report

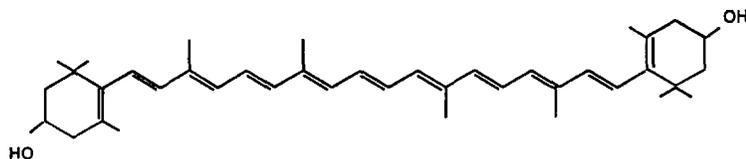
Fig. 1. Structure of selected carotenoids



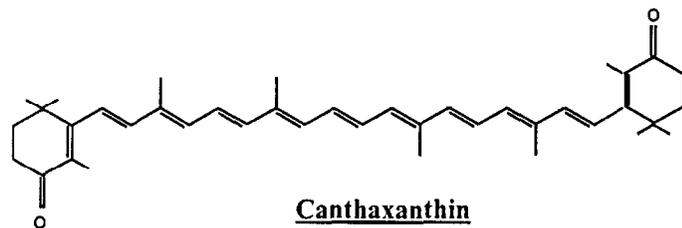
Beta-carotene



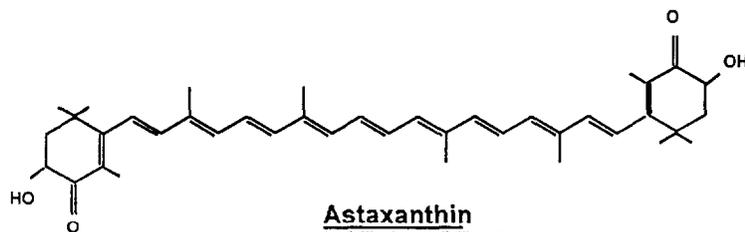
Lutein



Zeaxanthin



Canthaxanthin



Astaxanthin  
(3,3'-dihydroxy,4,4'-diketo $\beta$ -carotene)

000121

## Technical report

### Where Is Astaxanthin Found in Nature?

Astaxanthin can be found in many of our favorite **seafoods** such as salmon, trout, red seabream, shrimp, lobster, and fish eggs.<sup>2</sup> It is also found in a number of bird species.<sup>8,9</sup> Astaxanthin cannot be synthesised by animals and must be provided in the diet, as is the case with other carotenoids. While fish such as salmon are unable to convert other dietary carotenoids into astaxanthin,<sup>2</sup> some species such as shrimp have a limited capacity to convert closely related dietary carotenoids into astaxanthin, although they benefit strongly from being fed astaxanthin directly.<sup>10</sup> Mammals lack the ability to synthesise astaxanthin, or to convert dietary astaxanthin into vitamin A: unlike beta-carotene, astaxanthin has no pro-vitamin A activity in mammals.<sup>24</sup> Some micro-organisms can be quite rich in astaxanthin. A ubiquitous micro-alga, *Haematococcus pluvialis*, is believed to be **the organism which accumulates the highest levels of astaxanthin in nature**. The function of astaxanthin appears to be to protect the alga from adverse environment changes, such as increased UV-light photooxidation that can occur if the water pools in which it lives dry out.<sup>11-13</sup> *Haematococcus* algae can accumulate as much as 10 to 30 g of astaxanthin per kg of dry biomass. This level is **1,000 to 3,000 fold higher than in salmon fillets!** Some strains have even been observed to accumulate as much as 70 to 80 g of astaxanthin per kg of dry biomass.

### What Forms of Astaxanthin are Found in Nature?

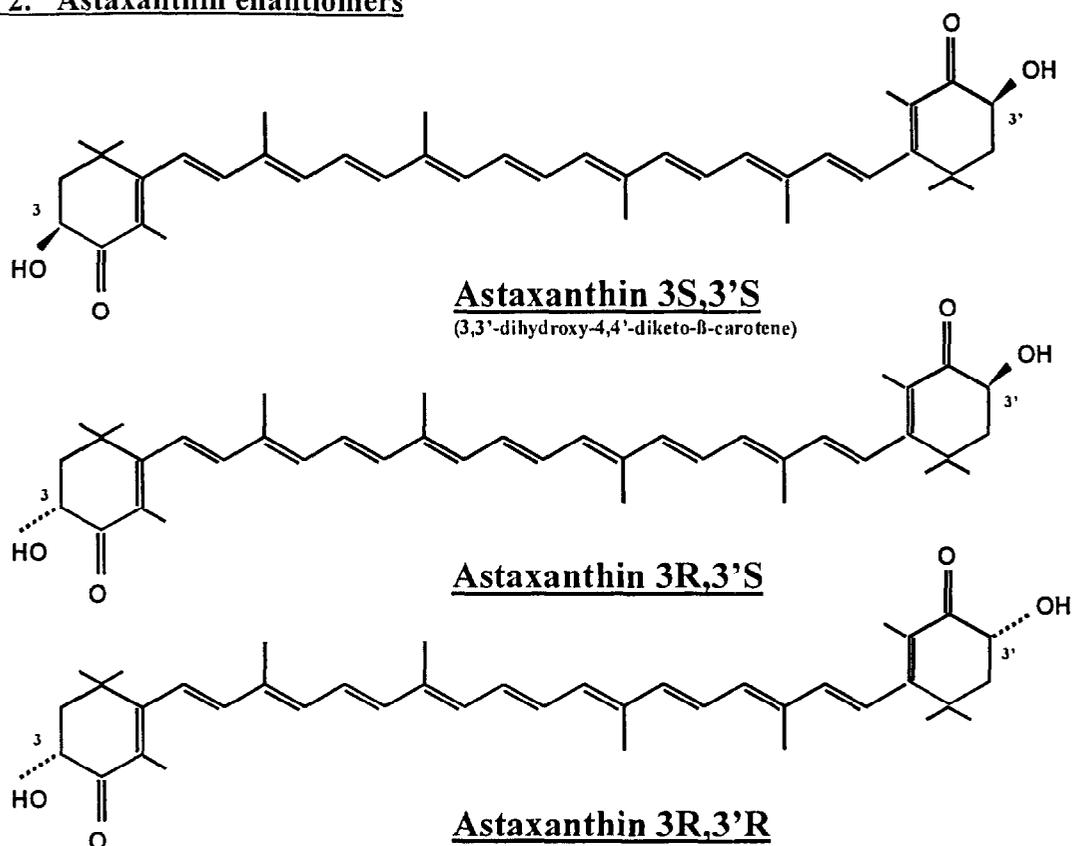
Form and location of astaxanthin deposition differ between tissues and species (cf. Tables 1 & 2). Esterified astaxanthin predominates in the skin, teguments, and eggs, while free astaxanthin is the main form in the flesh, serum and other internal organs of salmon.<sup>2</sup> In shrimp, esterified astaxanthin predominates, except in the ovaries and eggs.<sup>17,18</sup> In red seabream, mostly esterified astaxanthin is found in the skin.<sup>14,15</sup> The more stable esterified form is believed to be an adaptive feature to be able to store astaxanthin in tissues without excessive oxidation.<sup>1</sup> **Esterified astaxanthin is the main form found in *Haematococcus pluvialis*.**

Although they have the same chemical composition, 3 main spatial configurations or stereoisomers of the astaxanthin molecule can be found in nature. They are the 3*S*,3'*S*, 3*R*,3'*S*, and 3*R*,3'*R* isomers, characterised by the orientation of the two hydroxyl groups on the molecule (cf. Fig. 2). A **recent study by FDA** concluded that the 3*S*,3'*S* is the main form found in wild Pacific and Atlantic salmon species and that in order to achieve the same astaxanthin profile as their wild counterparts, farmed salmon should be fed a diet containing the same astaxanthin profile as in the natural diet of wild salmon.<sup>16</sup> The 3*S*,3'*S* isomer is the main form found in *Haematococcus pluvialis*, while synthetic astaxanthin contains primarily the 3*R*,3'*S* isomer. Salmon appear unable to convert the 3*R*,3'*S* isomer into the more common 3*S*,3'*S* form. In fact, the FDA study clearly showed that farmed salmon could be easily distinguished from the wild salmon because the farmed salmon are fed synthetic astaxanthin and accumulate astaxanthin isomers in the flesh in the same ratio as is found in their diet. This suggests that consumers may prefer to eat farmed salmon fed a natural form of astaxanthin.

000122

Technical report

**Fig. 2. Astaxanthin enantiomers**



**Table 1. Main forms of astaxanthin in tissues of important aquaculture species**

<u>Tissues</u>	<u>Skin</u>	<u>Flesh</u>	<u>Digestive gland</u>	<u>Ovaries</u>	<u>Serum</u>	<u>Eggs</u>
<b><u>Species</u></b>						
Salmonids <sup>2</sup>	Esterified	Free	Free	Free	Free	Esterified
Shrimp <sup>17,18</sup>	Esterified	Esterified	Free	Free	N.A.	Free
Red Seabream <sup>14,15</sup>	Esterified	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
N.A. : not available						

000123

## Technical report

19. Chistiansen R., O.J. Torissen. 1997. Effects of dietary astaxanthin supplementation on fertilisation and egg survival in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.). *Aquaculture*, 153, 51-62.
20. Watanabe T. and W. Miki. 1991. Astaxanthin: an effective dietary component of red seabream broodstock. Unpublished. Fish nutrition in practice, Biarritz (France), June 24-27, 1991.
21. Torissen O.J., 1996. Effective use of carotenoids for salmon flesh pigmentation. Roche Aquac. Symp. , Campbell River, Canada, May 13. Lawlor S.M., N.M. O'Brien. 1995. Astaxanthin: antioxidant effects in chicken embryo fibroblasts. *Nutr. Res.*, 15(11), 1695-1704.
23. Renstrøm B., G. Borch, O.M. Skulberg, S. Liaaen-Jensen. 1981. Optical purity of (3S,3'S)-astaxanthin from *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Phytochem.*, 20(11):2561-2564.
24. Jyonouchi, H., S. Sun, M. Gross. 1995a. Effect of carotenoids on *in vitro* immunoglobulin production by human peripheral blood mononuclear cells: Astaxanthin, a carotenoid without vitamin A activity, enhances *in vitro* immunoglobulin production in response to a T-dependent stimulant and antigen. *Nutr. Cancer*, 23: 171-183.

## Technical report

### **Astaxanthin as an antioxidant: a summary.**

(TR.3002.001)

- *Powerful oxidising agents such as free radicals, e.g. hydroxyl and peroxy radicals, as well as the highly reactive forms of oxygen, such as singlet oxygen, are produced in the body during metabolic processes. They can cause severe damage to cells, affect immune response mechanisms, and have been associated with ageing and a number of pathological conditions including atherogenesis, ischemia-reperfusion injury, infant retinopathy, age-related macular degeneration, and carcinogenesis.*
- *There are two broad classes of biological antioxidants which can counteract those effects: the preventative antioxidants and the radical-scavenging antioxidants. Carotenoids and vitamin E belong to both groups.*
- *Carotenoids can act as quenchers of singlet oxygen and other reactive species, by absorbing the excited energy of singlet oxygen onto the carotenoid chain, leading to the degradation of the carotenoid molecule, but preventing other molecules or tissues from being damaged. They can act also as chain-breaking anti-oxidants and therefore protect lipidic membranes from rapid degradation.*
- *Astaxanthin antioxidant properties as a quencher of singlet oxygen and scavenger of free radicals, and its ability to protect lipids from peroxidation, have been largely demonstrated. Studies indicate astaxanthin antioxidant properties to be superior by up to 10-fold, when compared to other carotenoids, and by more than 100 fold, when compared to vitamin E.*
- *Astaxanthin antioxidant properties are believed to be at the core of most of its potential benefits in human health. In mammals, unlike beta-carotene, astaxanthin lacks pro-vitamin A activity. As a result, astaxanthin antioxidant properties cannot be diverted into vitamin A synthesis. In addition, astaxanthin has the ability to cross the blood-brain barrier, unlike beta-carotene. It has therefore the ability to directly exert its antioxidant properties in those organs.*

## Technical report

### **1. What is biological oxidation?**

Oxidation is the chemical process by which an atom, molecule or ion robs another of one or more of its electrons. Chemicals exhibiting this tendency for stealing electrons are referred to as oxidising agents. Perhaps the most familiar oxidising agent is oxygen itself. We can see many examples of oxygen doing its electron-stealing in our everyday lives: the browning of an apple, the rusting of an iron nail, the slow fading of blue jeans. When a material is oxidised, its chemical structure is altered, often irreversibly. In biological systems, such as the human body, a number of powerful oxidising agents can cause damage to cells. Electron-stealing molecules known as free radicals (hydroxyls and peroxy radicals, etc...), as well as the highly reactive forms of oxygen, such as singlet oxygen, are produced in the body during various normal metabolic reactions and processes. Physiological stress, air pollution, tobacco smoke, exposure to chemicals, and exposure to ultraviolet (UV) light or other forms of ionising radiation can all enhance the production of these unwanted oxidising agents<sup>2</sup>. Phagocytes involved in the immune response against microorganisms can also generate an excess of free radicals to aid their defensive degradation of the invader. Within cells, free radicals can damage DNA, proteins, and lipid membranes. Such damage has been linked to aging<sup>3,4</sup> and a number of pathological conditions including atherogenesis<sup>5,6</sup>, ischemia-reperfusion injury<sup>7,8</sup>, infant retinopathy<sup>9</sup>, age-related macular degeneration<sup>10</sup>, and carcinogenesis<sup>11,12,13</sup>.

### **1. What are biological antioxidants?**

Biological antioxidants are defined as "compounds that protect biological systems against the potentially harmful effects of processes or reactions that can cause excessive oxidations"<sup>14</sup>. There are two broad classes of biological antioxidants: the preventative antioxidants and the radical-scavenging antioxidants. Preventative antioxidants, such as catalase and superoxide dismutase, suppress the formation of free radicals. Radical-scavenging antioxidants, such as the flavinoid compounds and vitamin C, serve to "mop up" excess free radicals<sup>15</sup>. Vitamin E and the carotenoids are very important biological antioxidants that act in both preventative and radical-scavenging roles.

### **3. Carotenoids , powerful natural antioxidants**

Carotenoids are a class of natural lipid-soluble pigments found principally in plants, algae and photosynthetic bacteria, where they play a critical role in photosynthesis. They also occur in some non-photosynthetic bacteria, yeast and mold, where they may carry out a protective function against damage by light and oxygen. Although animals appear to be incapable of synthesising carotenoids, many animals incorporate carotenoids from their diet. Within animals, carotenoids provide bright coloration, serve as antioxidants, and can be a precursor of vitamin A<sup>16,17</sup>. Carotenoids are responsible for many of the red, orange and yellow hues of plant leaves, fruits and flowers, as well as the colour of some birds, insects, fish and crustaceans. Some familiar examples of carotenoid coloration are the oranges of carrots and citrus fruits, the reds of peppers and tomatoes, and the pinks of flamingos and salmon<sup>18</sup>. Some 600 different carotenoids are known to occur naturally<sup>16</sup>.

## Technical report

Carotenoids can act as potent biological antioxidants, especially as quenchers of singlet oxygen and other reactive species, by absorbing the excited energy of singlet oxygen onto the carotenoid chain, leading to the degradation of the carotenoid molecule, but preventing other molecules or tissues to be damaged<sup>19</sup>. Carotenoids can act also as chain-breaking anti-oxidants: free radicals generated within the body can lead to the degradation of polyunsaturated fatty acids, and create a chain reaction leading to the degradation of lipidic membranes within a short time. Carotenoids help break the chain reaction by donating a hydrogen to the damaging unstable free radical<sup>19</sup>.

### **4. Astaxanthin as an antioxidant**

Astaxanthin's ability to quench singlet oxygen and scavenge free radicals has been demonstrated by a number of studies<sup>1,20-24</sup>. Astaxanthin showed a very good capability at protecting membranous phospholipids<sup>25</sup> and other lipids<sup>1,24</sup> against peroxidation. One of these studies demonstrated that astaxanthin was best among carotenoids at preventing peroxidation of lipids, with up to 10-times higher anti-oxidant efficacy of astaxanthin over beta-carotene<sup>1</sup>, while another one demonstrated a superior capacity of astaxanthin over zeaxanthin, canthaxanthin or beta-carotene at reducing peroxidation of unsaturated fatty acids. Superior singlet oxygen quenching ability of astaxanthin has also been demonstrated over other carotenoids such as beta-carotene (up to 1.7<sup>26,27</sup> to 38<sup>28</sup> times higher, depending on testing conditions) or lutein and zeaxanthin<sup>28</sup>. Another important factor to note is that in humans and other mammals, although this is not the case in most aquatic animals, and unlike beta-carotene and other carotenoids, astaxanthin has no pro-vitamin A activity. It can therefore not be diverted from its main function as an antioxidant to become part of the pro-vitamin A pool. Also, the risk of hyper-vitaminosis with excessive accumulation of vitamin A, is reduced. Finally, unlike beta-carotene, astaxanthin has the ability to cross the blood-brain barrier and therefore directly exert its antioxidant properties in those organs<sup>29</sup>.

Astaxanthin has also been compared to a well-known non-carotenoid antioxidant: alpha-tocopherol (Vitamin E) and proved to have a superior singlet oxygen quenching capability (80<sup>26,27</sup> to 550<sup>28</sup> times higher) and at preventing lipid peroxidation<sup>1,20</sup>. Experiments with red blood cells and mitochondria from rats have shown that astaxanthin is 100 to 500 times more effective at inhibiting lipid peroxidation than is vitamin E<sup>1,20</sup>. The results of these *in vitro* studies were confirmed *in vivo* with rats given dietary supplements of astaxanthin and subjected to oxidising agents, <sup>1,20</sup>.

These antioxidant properties are believed to be at the source of most potential benefits of astaxanthin in human health. Those include among others<sup>30</sup>:

- Support of the immune system
- health of the eye and central nervous system
- anti-cancer properties
- protection against UV light damage
- blood cholesterol regulation and prevention of arteriosclerosis and related ailments
- response to bacterial infections
- anti-inflammatory response

## Technical report

**Table 1. Singlet oxygen quenching efficacy of astaxanthin: comparison with selected carotenoids and alpha-tocopherol (adapted from Shimidzu et al., 1996<sup>28</sup>)**

Compounds	Physical quenching rate constant (in-vitro)			
	$k_q \times 10^{-9} \text{ (M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}\text{)}$ (measures singlet oxygen quenching ability)			
	Substrate 1 (CDCl <sub>3</sub> /CDOD)(2:1)		Substrate 2 (CDCl <sub>3</sub> )	
Astaxanthin	1.8	(367%)	2.2	(100%)
Zeaxanthin	0.12	(245%)	1.9	(82%)
Lutein	n.d.		0.8	(41%)
Beta-carotene	0.049	(100%)	2.2	(100%)
Alpha-tocopherol	n.d.*		0.004	(0.2%)

n.d. = not determined

### References

1. Miki, W. 1991. Biological functions and activities of animal carotenoids. *Pure & Appl. Chem.* 63: 141-146.
2. Papas, A.M. 1999. Determinants of antioxidant status in humans. In: Papas, A.M. [ed], *Antioxidant Status, Diet, Nutrition, and Health*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 21-36.
3. Harman, D. 1981. The aging process. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 78: 7124-7128.
4. Bianchet, M.A., J. Hullihen, P.L. Pedersen, and L.M. Amzel. 1998. The 2.8-Å structure of rat liver F1-ATPase: configuration of a critical intermediate in ATP synthesis/hydrolysis. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 95: 11065-11070.
5. Steinberg, D., S. Parthasarathy, T.E. Carew, J.C. Khoo, and J.L. Witztum. 1989. Beyond cholesterol. Modifications of low-density lipoprotein that increase its atherogenicity. *N. Eng. J. Med.* 320: 915-924.
6. Esterbauer, H., J. Gebicki, H. Puhl, and G. Jurgens. 1992. The role of lipid peroxidation and antioxidants in oxidative modification of LDL. *Free Radic. Biol. Med.* 13: 341-390.
7. Simpson, P.J., and B.R. Lucchesi. 1987. Free radicals and myocardial ischemia and reperfusion injury. *J. Lab. Clin. Med.* 110: 13-30.
8. Takayama, F., T. Egashira, Y. Kudo, and Y. Yamanaka. 1992. Chemiluminescence-HPLC assay of phosphatidylcholine hydroperoxide generated by ischemia-reperfusion in the liver of rats. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 44: 2412-2414.
9. Phelps, D.L. 1987. Current perspectives on vitamin E in infant nutrition. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 46(suppl.): 187-191.
10. Gerster, H. 1991. Review: antioxidant protection of the ageing macula. *Age Ageing* 20: 60-69.
11. Marnett, L.J. 1987. Peroxyl free radicals: potential mediators of tumor initiation and promotion. *Carcinogenesis* 8: 1365-1373.
12. Moody, C.S., and H.M. Hassan. 1982. Mutagenicity of oxygen free radicals. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 79: 2855-2859.
13. Breimer, L.H. 1990. Molecular mechanisms of oxygen radical carcinogenesis and mutagenesis: the role of DNA base damage. *Mol. Carcinog.* 3: 188-197.
14. Palozza, P., and N.I. Krinsky. 1992. Antioxidant effects of carotenoids in vivo and in vitro: an overview. *Meth. Enzymol.* 213: 403-420.

## Technical report

15. Noguchi, N., and E. Niki. 1999. Chemistry of active oxygen species and antioxidants. In: Papas, A.M. [ed], Antioxidant Status, Diet, Nutrition, and Health. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
16. Ong, A.S.H., and E.S. Tee. 1992. Natural sources of carotenoids from plants and oils. *Meth. Enzymol.* 213: 142-167.
17. Britton, G., S. Liaaen-Jensen, and H. Pfander. 1995. Carotenoids today and challenges for the future. In: Britton, G., S. Liaaen-Jensen, and H. Pfander [eds], Carotenoids vol. 1A: Isolation and Analysis. Basel: Birkhäuser.
18. Pfander, H. 1992. Carotenoids: an overview. *Meth. Enzymol.* 213: 3-13.
19. Boileau, T.W.M., A.C. Moore, J.W. Erdman, Jr. 1999. Carotenoids and vitamin A In: Papas, A.M. [ed], Antioxidant Status, Diet, Nutrition, and Health. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
20. Kurashige, M., E. Okimasu, M. Inoue, and K. Utsumi. 1990. Inhibition of oxidative injury of biological membranes by astaxanthin. *Physiol. Chem. Phys. & Med. NMR* 22: 27-38.
21. Oshima, S., F. Ojima, H. Sakamoto, Y. Ishiguro, and J. Terao. 1993. Inhibitory effect of  $\beta$ -carotene and astaxanthin on photosensitized oxidation of phospholipid bilayers. *J. Nutr. Sci. Vitaminol.* 39: 607-615.
22. Nakagawa, K., S. Kang, D. Park, G. Handelman, and T. Miyazawa. 1997. Inhibition by beta-carotene and astaxanthin of NADPH-dependent microsomal phospholipid peroxidation. *J. Nutr. Sci. and Vitaminol.* 43(3):345-355.
23. Woodall, A., G. Britton and M. Jackson. 1997. Carotenoids and photoprotection of phospholipids in solution or in liposomes against oxidation by peroxy radicals: Relationship between carotenoid structure and protective ability. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta.* 1336(3):575-586.
24. Jorgensen, K. and L. Skibsted. 1993. Carotenoid scavenging radicals. Effect of carotenoid structure and oxygen partial pressure on antioxidative activity. *Z. Lebensm. Unters Forsch.* 196:423-429.
25. Lim, B.P., A. Nagao, J. Terao, K. Tanaka, T. Suzuki, K. Takama, Antioxidant activity of xanthophylls on peroxy radical-mediated phospholipid peroxidation. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta.* 1126(2): 178-184.
26. Di Mascio, P., T.P.A. Devasagayam, S. Kaiser, H. Sies. 1990. Carotenoids, tocopherols and thiols as biological singlet molecular oxygen quenchers. *Biochemical Society Transactions.* (18): 1054-1056.
27. Di Mascio P., M. E. Murphy, H. Sies. 1991. Antioxidant defense systems: the role of carotenoids, tocopherols, and thiols. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.*, 53:194S-200S.
28. Shimidzu N., M. Goto, W. Miki. 1996. Carotenoids as singlet oxygen quenchers in marine organisms. *Fisheries science.* 62(1), 134-137.
29. Tso, M.O.M., and T.-T. Lam. 1996. Method of retarding and ameliorating central nervous system and eye damage. U.S. Patent #5527533.
30. Dore J., 1999. Astaxanthin in health. Internal report. Aquasearch Inc.

## Technical report

### **Astaxanthin and health: a summary.**

(TR.3003.001)

- *Astaxanthin's antioxidant properties as a quencher of singlet oxygen and scavenger of free radicals, and its ability to protect lipids from peroxidation, have been largely demonstrated. Studies indicate astaxanthin antioxidant properties to be superior by up to 10-fold, when compared to other carotenoids, and by more than 100 fold, when compared to vitamin E.*
- *Astaxanthin antioxidant properties are believed to be at the source of most its potential benefits in human health. Unlike beta-carotene, astaxanthin has no pro-vitamin A activity in mammals.*
- *Possible role of astaxanthin in the immune response, health of the eye and nervous system, photo-protection, and against cancer, inflammation, infections, or arteriosclerosis, is discussed.*

#### **1. Astaxanthin as a general biological antioxidant**

Astaxanthin (Ax) has been shown to be a powerful quencher of singlet oxygen activity in in vitro studies (DiMascio et al. 1990; Miki 1991), and is a strong scavenger of oxygen free radicals, at least ten times stronger than beta-carotene (Miki 1991). Experiments with red blood cells and mitochondria from rats have shown that Ax is 100 times more effective at inhibiting lipid peroxidation than is vitamin E (Miki 1991). The results of these in vitro studies were confirmed in vivo with rats given dietary supplements of Ax and subjected to oxidising agents (Miki 1991). The antioxidative properties of Ax have been demonstrated in a number of different biological membranes (Kurashige et al. 1990; Palozza and Krinsky 1992; Oshima et al. 1993; Nakagawa et al. 1997). This anti-oxidant activity is believed to be at the origin of a number of astaxanthin beneficial properties in health.

#### **2. Astaxanthin as an anti-cancer agent**

Studies of the cancer-preventative properties of Ax have been carried out on rats and mice by Takuji Tanaka and colleagues at the Gifu University School of Medicine. Dietary administration of Ax proved to significantly inhibit carcinogenesis in the mouse urinary bladder (Tanaka et al. 1994), rat oral cavity (Tanaka et al. 1995a), and rat colon (Tanaka et al. 1995b). In addition, Ax has been shown to induce xenobiotic-metabolising enzymes in rat liver, a process which may help prevent carcinogenesis (Gradelet et al. 1996).

Aquasearch Inc. ©

For further details, contact:

Aquasearch Inc.,

73-4460 Queen Kaahumanu Highway,  
Suite 110, Kailua-Kona, HI 96740, USA  
Tel: (808)-326-9301, Fax: (808)-326-9401

000132

## Technical report

### **3. Astaxanthin for support of the immune system**

Ax has been shown to significantly influence immune function in a number of in vitro and in vivo assays using animal models. The majority of this work has been carried out by Harumi Jyonouchi and colleagues at the University of Minnesota. Ax enhances in vitro antibody production by mouse spleen cells stimulated with sheep red blood cells (Jyonouchi et al. 1991), at least in part by exerting actions on T-cells, especially T-helper cells (Jyonouchi et al. 1993). Ax can also partially restore decreased humoral immune responses in old mice (Jyonouchi et al. 1994). These immunomodulating properties are not related to provitamin-A activity, because Ax, unlike beta-carotene, does not have such activity (Jyonouchi et al. 1991). Studies on human blood cells in vitro have demonstrated enhancement by Ax of immunoglobulin production in response to T-dependent stimuli (Jyonouchi et al. 1995a). Other supporting data on Ax and immune function, including studies on the mechanisms of action involved, may be found in Jyonouchi et al. (1995b), Jyonouchi et al. (1996), Okai & Higashi-Okai (1996), and Tomita et al. (1993).

### **4. Astaxanthin for health of the eye and central nervous system**

The possible role of antioxidants in alleviating oxidation stress and other oxidative damages to the eye and the nervous system has been extensively reviewed by Trevithick and Mitton (1999). As one of nature's most effective antioxidants with the ability to cross the blood-brain barrier (Tso and Lam, 1996), astaxanthin's potential benefits for the health of the eye and the nervous system, are very promising. The eye is potentially one of the organs which is the most exposed to oxidation, because it is exposed to air and UV-light as well as being irrigated by a very large number of small capillaries capable of bringing many of the metabolic oxidative residues through the blood. Also the eye contains high levels of poly-unsaturated fatty acids and pigments that are quite sensitive to oxidation (Starostin 1988, Donstov et al. 1999). Recently, a research group demonstrated increased superoxide and peroxide formation following UV irradiation of a lens protein (Linetsky et al. 1996). Photooxidation of the lens proteins have been associated to the development of cataract (Taylor, 1993). Carotenoids found in the human retina, lutein and zeaxanthin are closely related to astaxanthin. There is abundant evidence that certain carotenoids can help protect the retina from oxidative damage (Snodderly 1995). Investigations of the antioxidant effectiveness of astaxanthin in the eye are just beginning, but are already very promising. A recent study with rats indicates that Ax can be effective at ameliorating retinal injury, and that it is also effective at protecting photoreceptors from degeneration (Tso and Lam 1996). The conclusions of this study were that Ax could be useful for prevention and treatment of neuronal damage associated with age-related macular degeneration, and that it may also be effective at treating ischemic reperfusion injury, Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, spinal cord injuries, and other types of central nervous system injuries (Tso and Lam 1996). In this study, Ax was found to easily cross the blood-brain barrier (unlike beta-carotene), and did not form crystals in the eye (unlike canthaxanthin; Tso and Lam 1996). These conclusions concur with those of Sokol & Papas (1999) who report encouraging results in the possible use of antioxidants to treat or prevent neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease.

### **5. Astaxanthin as a photo-protectant**

Light, especially UV light, can trigger photooxidation mechanisms and produce active oxygen species such as singlet oxygen (Noguchi and Niki, 1999, Mc Vean et al. 1999). Lipids (Dontsov et

## Technical report

al. 1999, Guillen-Sans & Guzman-Chozas, 1998), pigments (Ostrovskii, 1987, Starostin et al. 1988), DNA (Dunford et al. 1997), proteins (Taylor 1993) have been reported to be sensitive to photooxidation. Oxidative damage to the eye and skin by UV light have been widely documented (Trevithick and Mitton, 1999, Mc Vean et al., 1999). The strong antioxidative activities of Ax suggest its potential as a photoprotectant, as indicated by the recent study by Tso and Liam (1996) cited above, indicating lower damage by UV light to the eye of animals fed astaxanthin, although the effects of Ax on mice exposed to UV irradiation have not been conclusive (Savouré et al. 1995; Black 1998). Nevertheless, Ax-containing preparations for prevention of light ageing of skin have been developed (Suzuki et al. 1996a, 1996b).

### **6. Astaxanthin and infections**

A recent study suggested that Ax may be effective as a prophylactic and/or therapeutic treatment of *Helicobacter* infections of the mammalian gastrointestinal tract, and an oral preparation has been developed for this purpose (Alejung and Wadstroem 1998).

### **7. Astaxanthin for prevention of arteriosclerosis and related diseases**

Ax has been shown in both in vitro experiments and in a study with human subjects to be effective for the prevention of the oxidation of low-density lipoprotein (Miki et al., 1998). This suggests that it could be used as a preventative for arteriosclerosis, coronary artery disease, and ischemic brain damage; a number of astaxanthin-containing health products are under development based on these findings (Miki et al. 1998).

### **8. Astaxanthin in anti-inflammatory preparations**

According to recent studies, Ax diesters appear to exert a synergistic effect on anti-inflammatory agents, increasing the effectiveness of aspirin when the two are administered together (Yamashita 1995).

### **9. References**

1. Alejung, P., and T. Wadstroem. 1998. Oral preparation for treatment of *Helicobacter* sp. Infections – comprises xanthophylls, especially astaxanthin esterified with a fatty acid and derived from the alga *Haematococcus* sp. World Patent #9837874.
2. Black, H. 1998. Radical interception by carotenoids and effects on UV carcinogenesis. *Nutr. Cancer* 31: 212-217.
3. DiMascio, P., T.P.A. Devasagayam, S. Kaiser, and H. Sies. 1990. Carotenoids, tocopherols and thiols as biological singlet molecular oxygen quenchers. *Trans. Biochem. Soc.* 18: 1054-1056.
4. Donstov A.E., R.D. Glickman, M.A. Ostrovsky. 1999. Retinal pigment epithelium pigment granules stimulate the photo-oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids. *Free Radic. Biol. Med.*, 26(11-12), 1436-1446.

## Technical report

5. Dunford R., A. Salinaro, L. Cai, N. Serpone, S. Horikoshi, H. Hidaka, J. Knowland. 1997. FEBS Lett. 418(1-2), 87-90.
6. Gradelet, S., P. Astorg, J. LeClerc, J. Chevalier, M.-F. Vernevaut, and M.-H. Siess. 1996. Effects of canthaxanthin, astaxanthin, lycopene and lutein on liver xenobiotic-metabolising enzymes in the rat. *Xenobiotica* 26: 49-63.
7. Guillen-Sans R., M. Guzman-Chozas, 1998. The thiobarbituric acid (TBA) reaction in foods: a review. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* 38(4):315-330.
8. Jyonouchi, H., R.J. Hill, Y. Tomita, and R. A. Good. 1991. Studies of immunomodulating actions of carotenoids. I. Effects of  $\beta$ -carotene and astaxanthin on murine lymphocyte functions and cell surface marker expression in in vitro culture system. *Nutr. Cancer* 16: 93-105.
9. Jyonouchi, H., L. Zhang, and Y. Tomita. 1993. Studies of immunomodulating actions of carotenoids. II. Astaxanthin enhances in vitro antibody production to T-dependent antigens without facilitating polyclonal B-cell activation. *Nutr. Cancer* 19: 269-280.
10. Jyonouchi, H., L. Zhang, M. Gross, and Y. Tomita. 1994. Immunomodulating actions of carotenoids: Enhancement of in vivo and in vitro antibody production to T-dependent antigens. *Nutr. Cancer* 21: 47-58.
11. Jyonouchi, H., S. Sun, and M. Gross. 1995a. Effect of carotenoids on in vitro immunoglobulin production by human peripheral blood mononuclear cells: Astaxanthin, a carotenoid without vitamin A activity, enhances in vitro immunoglobulin production in response to a T-dependent stimulant and antigen. *Nutr. Cancer* 23: 171-183.
12. Jyonouchi, H., S. Sun, Y. Tomita, and M.D. Gross. 1995b. Astaxanthin, a carotenoid without vitamin A activity, augments antibody responses in cultures including T-helper cell clones and suboptimal doses of antigen. *J. Nutr.* 124: 2483-2492.
13. Jyonouchi, H., S. Sun, M. Mizokami, and M.D. Gross. 1996. Effects of various carotenoids on cloned, effector-stage T-helper cell activity. *Nutr. Cancer* 26: 313-324.
14. Kurashige, M., E. Okimasu, M. Inoue, and K. Utsumi. 1990. Inhibition of oxidative injury of biological membranes by astaxanthin. *Physiol. Chem. Phys. & Med. NMR* 22: 27-38.
15. Linetsky M., H.L. James, B.J. Ortwerth. The generation of superoxide anion by the UVA irradiation of human lens proteins. *Exper. Eye Res.* 63:67-74, 1996.
16. Mc Vean M., K. Kramer-Stickland, D.C. Liebler. 1999. Oxidants and antioxidants in ultraviolet-induced nonmelanoma skin cancer. In: Papas, A.M. [ed], *Antioxidant Status, Diet, Nutrition, and Health*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 400-430.
17. Miki, W. 1991. Biological functions and activities of animal carotenoids. *Pure & Appl. Chem.* 63: 141-146.

## Technical report

18. Miki, W., K. Hosada, K. Kondo, and H. Itakura. 1998. Astaxanthin-containing drink. Japanese Patent #10155459 [in Japanese].
19. Murillo, E. 1992. Efecto hipercolesterolémico de la cantaxantina y la astaxantina en ratas. Arch. Latinoamericanos Nutr. 42: 409-413 [in Spanish].
20. Nakagawa, K., S.-D. Kang, D.-K. Park, G.J. Handelman, and T. Miyazawa. 1997. Inhibition by  $\beta$ -carotene and astaxanthin of NADPH-dependent microsomal phospholipid peroxidation. J. Nutr. Sci. Vitaminol. 43: 345-355.
21. Nishikawa, Y., Y. Minenaka, and M. Ichimura. 1997. Physiological and biochemical effects of carotenoid ( $\beta$ -carotene and astaxanthin) on rat. Koshien Daigaku Kiyo 25: 19-25 [in Japanese].
22. Noguchi N., and E. Niki. 1999. Chemistry of active oxygen species and antioxidants. In Antioxidant status, diet, nutrient and health, Ed. By A. Papas, CRC press, 3-20.
23. Okai, Y., and K. Higashi-Okai. 1996. Possible immunomodulating activities of carotenoids in in vitro cell culture experiments. Int. J. Immunopharmacol. 18: 753-758.
24. Oshima, S., F. Ojima, H. Sakamoto, Y. Ishiguro, and J. Terao. 1993. Inhibitory effect of  $\beta$ -carotene and astaxanthin on photosensitized oxidation of phospholipid bilayers. J. Nutr. Sci. Vitaminol. 39: 607-615.
25. Ostrovskii M.A., N.I. Sakina, A.E. Dontsov, 1987. The system of protection of the eye structures from photo damage. Screening pigments in vertebrates - melanosomes as inhibitors of photo-oxidation processes. AE Zh Evol Biokhim Fiziol 1987 Sep-Oct;23(5):575-81 (Abstract).
26. Palozza, P., and N.I. Krinsky. 1992. Astaxanthin and canthaxanthin are potent antioxidants in a membrane model. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 297: 291-295.
27. Savouré, N., G. Briand, M.-C. Amory-Touz, A. Combre, M. Maudet, and M. Nicol. 1995. Vitamin A status and metabolism of cutaneous polyamines in the hairless mouse after UV irradiation: Action of  $\beta$ -carotene and astaxanthin. Internat. J. Vit. Nutr. Res. 65: 79-86.
28. Snodderly, D.M. 1995. Evidence for protection against age-related macular degeneration by carotenoids and antioxidant vitamins. Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 62(suppl.): 1448S-1461S.
29. Sokol R.J. and A.M. Papas. 1999. Antioxidants and neurological diseases. . In: Papas, A.M. [ed], Antioxidant Status, Diet, Nutrition, and Health. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 567-590.
30. Starostin A.V., I.B. Fedorovich, M.A. Ostrovskii. 1988. Rhodopsin photo-oxidation: oxygen consumption and spectrum of activity. Biofizika, 1998, 33(3), 452-455 (Abstract).
31. Suzuki, K., H. Masaki, and M. Takei. 1996a. External preparation for skin. Japanese Patent #08073311 [in Japanese].

## Technical report

32. Suzuki, K., H. Masaki, and M. Takei. 1996b. External preparation for skin. Japanese Patent #08073312 [in Japanese].
33. Tanaka, T., Y. Morishita, M. Suzui, T. Kojima, A. Okumura, and H. Mori. 1994. Chemoprevention of mouse urinary bladder carcinogenesis by the naturally occurring carotenoid astaxanthin. *Carcinogenesis* 15: 15-19.
34. Tanaka, T., H. Makita, M. Ohnishi, H. Mori, K. Satoh, and A. Hara. 1995a. Chemoprevention of rat oral carcinogenesis by naturally occurring xanthophylls, astaxanthin and canthaxanthin. *Cancer Res.* 55: 4059-4064.
35. Tanaka, T., T. Kawamori, M. Ohnishi, H. Makita, H. Mori, K. Satoh, and A. Hara. 1995b. Suppression of azomethane-induced rat colon carcinogenesis by dietary administration of naturally occurring xanthophylls astaxanthin and canthaxanthin during the postinitiation phase. *Carcinogenesis* 16: 2957-2963.
36. Taylor A. 1993. Cataract: relationship between nutrition and oxidation. *J. Am. Coll. Nutr.* 12(2), 138-146.
37. Tomita, Y., H. Jyonouchi, R.W. Engelman, N.K. Day, and R.A. Good. 1993. Preventive action of carotenoids on the development of lymphadenopathy and proteinuria in MRL-lpr/lpr mice. *Autoimmunity* 16: 95-102.
38. Trevithick J.R. and K.P. Mitton. 1999. Antioxidants and diseases of the eye. In: Papas, A.M. [ed], *Antioxidant Status, Diet, Nutrition, and Health*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 545-565.
39. Tso, M.O.M., and T.-T. Lam. 1996. Method of retarding and ameliorating central nervous system and eye damage. U.S. Patent #5527533.
40. Yamashita, E. 1995. Anti-inflammatory agent. Japanese Patent #07300421 [in Japanese].

*CAUTION: The purpose of this report is for information only. It reviews information and experimental results published in peer-reviewed scientific journals as well as non-peer-reviewed public documents such as patents and presentations at scientific conferences. We recommend the reader to review the original documents himself and check the current status of patents and claims that they may cover, before making any specific private or commercial use of the information described above. No claim regarding astaxanthin ability to treat, cure, or improve any human disease or ailments is made.*

000157



**REFERENCE REMOVED**

**CONTAINED  
CONFIDENTIAL  
INFORMATION  
CONSIDERED NOT TO BE  
RELEASABLE**

PAGES 138-149



# Technical report

## **Analysis of Total Astaxanthin in algae meal prepared from Haematococcus pluvialis.**

(TR.1002.001)

- ***The method used at Aquasearch production facility in Kona, Hawaii, to determine the total astaxanthin content of Haematococcus pluvialis algae meal is described and discussed.***
- ***This method is able to determine total astaxanthin in Haematococcus pluvialis algae meal within a 5% error margin.***

### **INTRODUCTION**

Astaxanthin is a red carotenoid pigment (xanthophyll) that *Haematococcus pluvialis* cells accumulate in response to stress conditions. The method described herebelow is used on a routine basis at Aquasearch production facility in Kona to control astaxanthin content in Aquaxan HD algae meal. It consists of two steps: an astaxanthin extraction phase in DMSO (dimethyl sulfoxide) and a measure of astaxanthin light absorption by spectrophotometry at 489 nm.

Total astaxanthin measurements reported on Aquasearch's certificates of analysis and guaranteed on product specifications are based on this method.

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### Supplies and Equipment

- Precision waterbath
- Disposable plastic pipettes
- Glass cuvette
- Spectrophotometer
- Production lab computer
- Vortex mixer
- Weight scale balance
- Aluminium boats
- 15 ml sample tubes
- Pipettor with DMSO
- 1.0 ml pipette

*For further details, contact:*

Aquasearch Inc.,  
73-4460 Queen Kaahumanu Highway,  
Suite 110, Kailua-Kona, HI 96740, USA  
Tel: 808-326 9301, Fax: 808-326 9401

000150

## Technical report

- Lab tape
- Sharpie marker
- Latex gloves
- Astaxanthin analysis data sheet
- Amber coloured jars
- Disposable clear tubes with caps

### Precision

Samples analysed from early May '98 through the first week in August '98 indicate an average %error of 2.94 (n = 65) using this method.

### Procedure

#### A. Pre-labelling

- 1) Label 2 15ml tubes for each sample to be analysed (eg. 1A, 1B, 2A, 2B, etc).
- 2) Label 2 aluminium boats for each sample to be analysed (eg. 1A, 1B, 2A, 2B, etc).
- 3) Label 2 amber coloured jars for each sample to be analysed (eg. 1A, 1B, 2A, 2B, etc).

#### B. Extraction

- 1) Turn on weight balance, place uncapped 15ml tube in a small cup and zero out the readout (zero). Take sample and weigh 0.02 gr - 0.03 gr into 15ml tube. You can use a small plastic disposable pipette to make weighing easier. Record wt. on data sheet in "WEIGHT OF SAMPLE gr" column. Cap tube.
- 2) Repeat step # 1 for all samples.
- 3) Add 1ml DIH<sub>2</sub>O. Add 9ml DMSO. Vortex well. Place in 70 °F waterbath for 30 minutes.
- 4) Remove from waterbath, wipe tubes dry with paper towel and centrifuge 3-5min.
- 5) Remove tubes from centrifuge, and pour supernatant into numbered amber jars. Supernatant should be poured with the highest angled portion of the pellet abreast of the amber jar. This is extract process #1. Record in a "EXTRACTIONS" column a checkmark for each extraction completed.
- 6) Repeat step #5 for all tubes.
- 7) Add 10ml DMSO to each tube & cap tube after DMSO has been added. Vortex well. Place in waterbath for 30 minutes and repeat this process until the 4<sup>th</sup> extraction is completed or unless advised that all of the pigment has been removed (sometimes as much as 5 extractions).
- 8) Amber coloured jars should be stored in refrigerator until you're ready for the next extraction.
- 9) Prepare disposable clear plastic tubes by labelling each tube the same as the 15ml tubes. Add 10ml DMSO to each tube. These disposable tubes are the dilution tubes. Next remove 1ml of the sample from the amber jar. Add the 1ml of your sample to the disposable clear tube containing 10ml DMSO.
- 10) Ensure that the sample you remove corresponds to the appropriate numbered dilution tube. Mix well by inverting 3 times.

#### C. Spectrophotometric readings

- 1) Turn on spectrophotometer at least 15 min. before making measurements.
- 2) Ensure your ABS WAVELENGTH is 489nm (see Appendix A). Blank the spectrophotometer with glass cuvette filled with DMSO.

## Technical report

- 3) Fill glass cuvette halfway with next sample & discard. Fill cuvette again with sample, place in spectrophotometer and record your measurement ( $ABS_{489}$ ). Repeat with remaining samples.
- 4) On data sheet, prepare a column "EXTRACT VOL ML": to determine this number, refer to the no. of times you did an extraction for the sample you are measuring. Multiply by 10 and this will be your extract vol. (eg. Sample 1A had 3 extraction checkmarks.  $3 \times 10 = 30$ . Thus 30 ml is your extract vol.

### D. Calculation of astaxanthin content

To calculate the total astaxanthin content of the extracted *Haematococcus* meal use the following formula:

$$\%astax = \frac{ExtractVol(ml) * Abs_{489} * 1.1}{WeightOfSample(gr) * 190.8}$$

### **DISCUSSION**

Astaxanthin is soluble in organic solvents such as alcohol, acetone or DMSO (dimethyl sulfoxide)<sup>1</sup>. DMSO has been found to be one of the best solvents for pigment extraction from green algae<sup>2</sup> and our own in-house research has confirmed that DMSO is the most appropriate solvent for extraction of *Haematococcus* algae meal and cysts.

After extraction, the absorbance of the DMSO extract is measured at 489 nm in a spectrophotometer. The absorbance is normalised to the volume of solvent and mass of meal extracted. This method is a satisfactory evaluation of total astaxanthin since HPLC analyses conducted at the University of Hawaii<sup>3</sup> have shown that astaxanthin represents 95.5% of total carotenoids in *Haematococcus pluvialis* flakes prepared from harvested reddened cells, and 85.4% of total pigments (with chlorophylls representing 10.6% of total pigments, and lutein 3.2%). Other studies have confirmed similar pigment levels in *Haematococcus pluvialis* reddened algae<sup>4,5,6</sup>. The absorption measurement is carried out at 489 nm because the absorption maximum of the red meal extract shifts to 489nm as the cells naturally redden and accumulate astaxanthin as illustrated in appendix A.

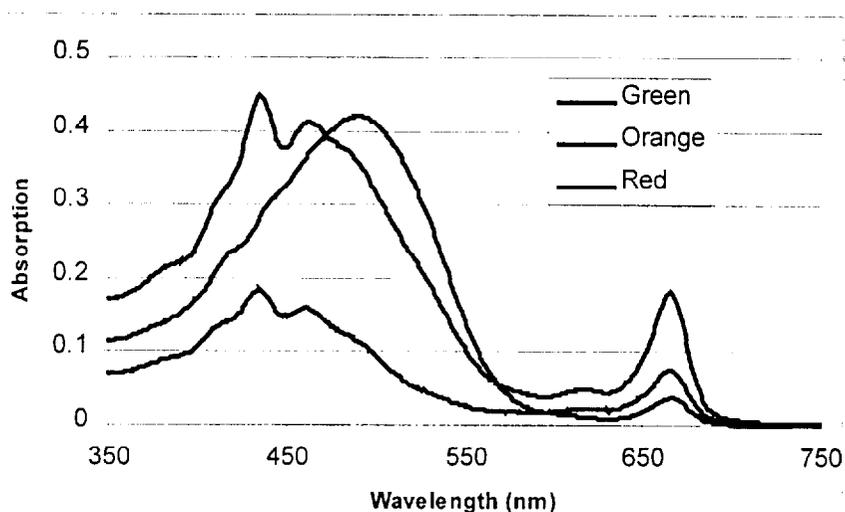
### References

1. Cordero B., Otero A., Patiño M., Arredondo, Fabregas, J. 1996. Biotech. Lett. 18: 213-218.
2. Wright S.W., Jeffrey S.W., and Mantoura R.F.C. 1997. In "Phytoplankton Pigments in Oceanography", Jeffrey S.W. and Wright S.W. (Eds), pp: 261-282.
3. Latasa P., 1995. Report to Aquasearch Inc.
4. Fan L., A. Vonshak, R. Gabbay, J. Hirshberg, Z. Cohen, and S. Boussiba. 1995. Plant Cell Physiol. 36: 1519-1524.
5. Yuan J.-P., X.-D. Gong, and F. Chen. 1996. Biotech. Tech. 10: 655-660.
6. Kobayashi M., T. Kakizono, S. Nagai. 1991. J. Ferment. Bioeng. 71: 335-339.

## Technical report

### **APPENDIX A: ABSORPTION PEAKS OF DMSO EXTRACTS PREPARED FROM HAEMATOCOCCUS ALGAE AT VARIOUS STAGES OF THE REDDENING CYCLE.**

The astaxanthin absorption measurement after extraction in DMSO is carried out at 489 nm because the absorption maximum of the red meal extract shifts to 489nm as the cells naturally redden and accumulate astaxanthin. The figure below shows three different absorption spectra of extracts obtained from *Haematococcus* cells in (a) the green stage, (b) after initiating to redden (orange), and (c) when fully red, corresponding to a shift from chlorophylls to astaxanthin as the dominant pigment in the cells. Note the shift in absorption maximum towards 489 nm.



# Technical report

## Derivation of astaxanthin light absorption coefficients in different solvents.

(TR.1004.001)

Measurements conducted at Aquasearch's Kona Research and Development facility indicate that:

- ***The light extinction coefficient of astaxanthin in different solvents varies significantly.***
- ***The wavelength of maximum light absorption of astaxanthin also varies in different solvents.***

### **BACKGROUND**

We expect that Quality Control (QC) laboratories at our customers' facilities will routinely analyze our *Haematococcus* algal meal products for astaxanthin content. In general, total astaxanthin is estimated from light absorption measurements of extracts. The extracts are usually prepared by grinding the algal meal in an organic solvent. The extract is then clarified by either filtration or centrifugation. The light absorption of the extract provides an estimate of pigment content. To accurately estimate the content of astaxanthin in a solvent it is critical to know what the absorption coefficient of astaxanthin is in that specific solvent and at what wavelength (usually the wavelength of maximum absorption as determined in a scanning spectrophotometer).

We have made a series of measurements of astaxanthin absorption in five different solvents to determine both the wavelength of maximum absorption and the extinction coefficient of astaxanthin in those solvents. This data can be used by our customers to analyse the astaxanthin content of algal meal in the solvent of their choice.

### **EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS**

Pure, free, astaxanthin was obtained from the Sigma Chemical Company (lot number 87H5002). According to the manufacturer, the molar extinction coefficient of this product in chloroform at a wavelength of 489 nm is  $E^{1\text{cm}}_{\text{mmol}} = 101$ .

A working solution of pure, free, astaxanthin was made up in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). Five test tubes were filled with 10 ml of each of the following solvents: DMSO, acetone, methanol (MeOH), dimethylformamide (DMF) and chloroform (CHCl<sub>3</sub>). Each of the tubes was added either 50, 100, 200, 400, or 1010 uL of the astaxanthin solution.

## Technical report

The light absorption of each solution was then measured between 425 and 550 nm in a Shimadzu model UV1201 scanning spectrophotometer with a 1 cm cuvette. The absorption spectra were used to estimate the wavelength of maximum absorption of astaxanthin and its extinction coefficient in each solvent.

### RESULTS:

#### Light Absorption by Free Astaxanthin in Organic Solvents

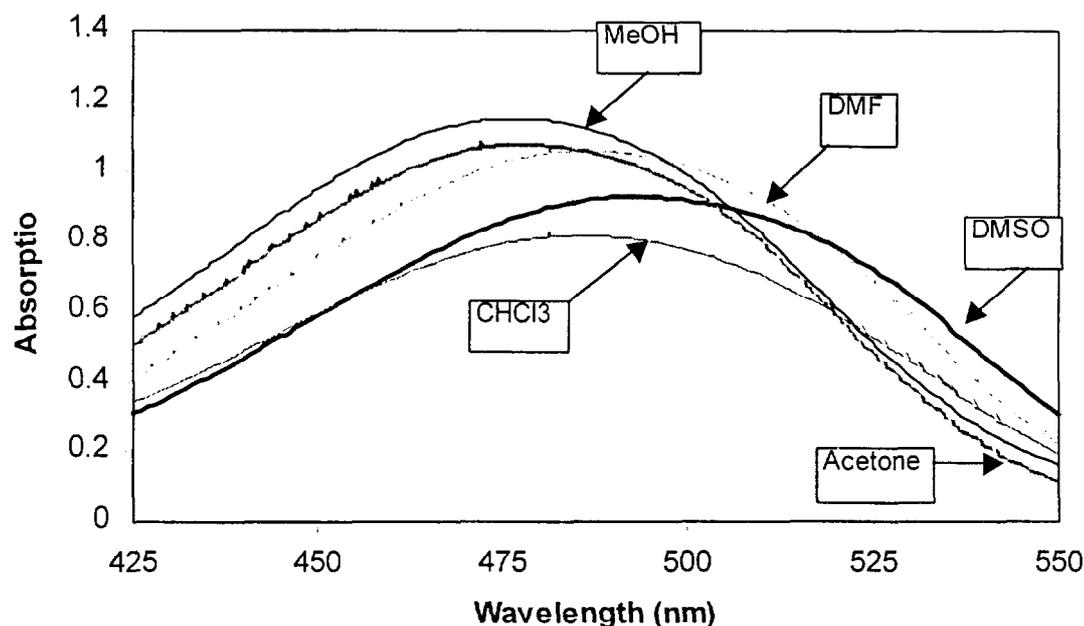


Figure 1 shows the light absorption spectra of the same amount of astaxanthin in 5 different solvents. Note that both the wavelength of maximum absorption and extinction coefficient are different for each solvent.

Our results of the extinction coefficient calculations are summarised in the table below.

Solvent	Wavelength of maximum absorption	Molar Extinction Coefficient	Mass Extinction Coefficient
	nm	$\text{l mol}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$	$100 \text{ ml g}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$
DMSO	492	118.2	1980.7
Acetone	477	130.0	2177.4
MeOH	477	137.7	2306.6
DMF	486	123.2	2064.7
CHCl <sub>3</sub>	486	101	1692.2

## Technical report

### Comparison of HPLC and spectrophotometric analyses of astaxanthin content in *Haematococcus pluvialis* algal meal

(TR.1005.001)

Analyses conducted at Aquasearch's Kona Research and Development facility indicate that:

- ***Spectrophotometric analysis of combined sequential DMSO extracts of Haematococcus pluvialis algal meal is a reliable estimate of total astaxanthin content.***
- ***Astaxanthin content as determined by reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) of combined sequential acetone extracts correlates closely with values determined by spectrophotometry.***
- ***HPLC analyses provide additional information, i. e., ratios of free astaxanthin to mono- and di-esterified astaxanthin.***

#### **BACKGROUND**

Aquasearch's laboratory routinely uses a spectrophotometric method to analyse our *Haematococcus pluvialis* algal meal product for total astaxanthin content (see Technical Report TR.1002.001). The spectrophotometric assay offers several advantages: it is accurate, reproducible, and technically simple. In addition, the required instrumentation (a UV-visible spectrophotometer) is a relatively common piece of equipment, and thus this method of analysis should be reproducible in the quality control laboratories of our customers.

However, a spectrophotometric measurement gives an estimate only of total astaxanthin. Astaxanthin possesses two hydroxyl moieties, either or both of which may be esterified (chemically bonded) to a fatty acid, resulting in a mono- or diester form, respectively. It may sometimes be of interest to determine the form in which the astaxanthin occurs, i. e., free (unconjugated) or esterified. Natural astaxanthin from *Haematococcus pluvialis* occurs predominantly as monoesters (about 80-85% of total astaxanthin), with smaller amounts of diesters (about 10-15%) and of free astaxanthin (about 2-4%). Changes in these ratios may reflect different physiological states of the alga, or in variations in processing of the algal meal.

Aquasearch Inc. ©

*For further details, contact:*  
Aquasearch Inc.,  
73-4460 Queen Kaahumanu Highway,  
Suite 110, Kailua-Kona, HI 96740, USA  
Tel: 808-326 9301, Fax: 808-326 9401

000186

## Technical report

We have therefore developed an alternative method for measuring both total astaxanthin and its distribution between the free and esterified forms. This method is based on reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) with diode-array detection, using external standards for calibration. Samples are extracted into acetone as an HPLC-compatible, alternative solvent to DMSO. Separation of both pure astaxanthin standards and of mixtures (e. g., extracts of *Haematococcus pluvialis*) is achieved with a C18 column, using methanol-water mixtures as the mobile phase. This is illustrated by the example below, which demonstrates that for high-quality *H. pluvialis* algal meal (where astaxanthin is the major pigment present), spectrophotometric and HPLC determination of astaxanthin content are in good agreement.

### **EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS**

#### **GENERAL**

All solvents used are HPLC-grade or better and are thoroughly degassed (preferably with argon) immediately before use. Solutions of astaxanthin are light- as well as air-sensitive and should be protected from light (e. g., covering containers with aluminum foil, working under subdued light) as much as is practical. Astaxanthin appears reasonably stable at room temperature if protected from oxygen and light.

#### **PREPARATION OF STANDARDS**

Detector response from a diode-array detector is not directly comparable to the response from a single-wavelength (visible light) spectrophotometer, since the diode-array response is generally obtained from more than one diode (that is, more than a single wavelength). Also, since the flow cell is exposed to light of all wavelengths simultaneously, there is the potential for fluorescent contamination of the detected signal. Thus, the routine use of standards is mandatory for accurate quantification of HPLC peaks.

Synthetic, racemic astaxanthin (catalogue number A9335, lot number O78H1178, purity by HPLC 99.3%) was purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. for use as an external standard. As an alternative standard, astaxanthin diacetate was prepared. Astaxanthin diacetate offers the advantage of increased stability to oxidation, and displays chromatographic behaviour similar to that of free astaxanthin. The visible spectral properties of astaxanthin diacetate are identical to that of free astaxanthin.

To prepare astaxanthin diacetate, 10 mg of astaxanthin (from a newly opened bottle) was peracetylated with 5.0 mL acetic anhydride in 5.0 mL HPLC-grade pyridine (freshly dried over BaO). The reaction was carried out over 22 h at room temperature, in the dark, under N<sub>2</sub> positive pressure. The reaction was quenched on ice by addition of 10 mL 0.1 M HCl (aq.). The clear, colourless aqueous epiphase was discarded, and the organic phase washed four times with 20 mL 0.1 M HCl (aq.) and twice with 20 mL dd H<sub>2</sub>O. The organic phase was dried over Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and the solvent evaporated. The residue was stored under N<sub>2</sub>, in the dark at -20 °C. HPLC analysis (see below) showed the reaction to be quantitative, with a single component eluting at 11.1 minutes and no trace of starting material (free astaxanthin) observed. The diode-array spectrum of this single component consisted of a single peak with broad absorption maximum of approximately 476 - 478 nm in the HPLC mobile phase, identical to that of authentic free astaxanthin.

Typically, a concentrated (3 - 5 mg/mL) solution of synthetic astaxanthin diacetate (or of free astaxanthin) is made in dichloromethane. Aliquots of this concentrate are added to methanol or acetone to produce diluted "standard" solutions for use as spectrophotometric and HPLC standards. At least five standard solutions should be prepared, with optical densities spanning the range of 0.1 to 1.0 (478 nm). Absorbance measurements at 478 nm are taken in a 1 cm cuvette immediately

## Technical report

after the standard solutions are made. Aliquots of the standard solutions are transferred to HPLC autosampler vials, covered with argon, and the vials sealed and loaded into the precooled (10 °C) autosampler carousel.

### **PREPARATION OF SAMPLES FOR HPLC ANALYSIS**

Samples destined for HPLC analysis must meet a number of criteria. Samples must be dissolved in a solvent compatible with the chromatographic system in use (preferably in the mobile phase or similar solvent). They should not contain particulates that may increase back-pressure or otherwise block the HPLC flow path. Particulates may be removed by filtration (0.2 µm or finer) or by centrifugation. Additionally, they may require preliminary purification (e. g., by passing through a solid-phase extraction cartridge or other quick chromatographic system) if contaminated with large amounts of lipids or other substances that interfere with HPLC or degrade column performance.

### **CHROMATOGRAPHY**

Chromatographic conditions are as follows. The column is a Platinum EPS C18 column, in the Alltech proprietary "Rocket" format, 7 mm x 53 mm (Alltech Associates). This is a non-encapped, low (5%) carbon-load, 3 Å particle size packing material with appropriate porosity (100 Å) for carotenoid separation. An appropriate replaceable guard column (e. g., Alltech Associates' "AllGuard" guard cartridge in Platinum EPS C18) should always be used with this column and replaced when necessary to maintain optimal peak resolution as well as minimise back-pressure. Injections are made with an autosampler fitted with a refrigerated carousel and a 100 µL sample loop; typically 20 µL (partial-loop) injections are made for optimal peak resolution. Flow rate of mobile phase is 2.0 mL/min. Detection is with a diode-array detector, typically scanning 300 – 600 nm at 1 or 2 Hz/nm. Integration is done using a minimum bandwidth with detection centered on 478 nm.

To distinguish between free astaxanthin and its diacetate, samples are isocratically eluted with 82.5% methanol, 17.5% water. Under these conditions, free astaxanthin elutes at 9.3 minutes and its diacetate at 11.1 minutes. The diode-array spectra of free astaxanthin and its diacetate are identical.

For routine analytical runs, standards are isocratically eluted with 90% methanol, 10% water. Both free astaxanthin and its diacetate elute at ~2.5 minutes under these conditions. The run time for standards is usually 5 minutes. Generally a minimum of five standards are run at least in triplicate. It is not necessary to change mobile phase composition between consecutive standard runs. For a long series of samples (total run time >12 hours), sets of standards are chromatographed between several unknown samples.

The astaxanthin peak is integrated (under these conditions from baseline to baseline) and quantified as milli absorption units (mAU). The amount (in micrograms) of astaxanthin injected can be calculated from the spectrophotometrically-measured absorbance ( $A_{478\text{nm}}$ ) and the (micro)molar extinction coefficient  $\epsilon = 0.1251/\mu\text{M}$  (Britton, 1995):

$$[(A_{478\text{nm}} \div 0.1251/\mu\text{M}) \times 0.000020 \text{ L} \times 596.8 \mu\text{g}/\mu\text{mol}] = \mu\text{g injected (in } 20 \mu\text{L)}$$

A convenient expression of the diode-array response factor for astaxanthin is absorption units per µg (AU/µg). This value does vary to some extent (it is affected by lamp condition, for example) but should be consistent between replicate samples of different concentrations and within a 24-hour run. Lack of consistency between the response factor values for standards may indicate degradation of the standard or other problems. In our hands, typical values of this response factor for a given set of analyses (total run time <24 hours) have been ~2500 to 3400 AU/µg with a percent standard deviation from the mean of <3.5%.

## Technical report

Unknown mixtures of astaxanthin or its esters are eluted as follows:

0 min to 30 min: 10% water, 90% methanol  
30 min to 32 min: linear gradient to 100% methanol  
32 min to 45 min: 100% methanol

Under these conditions, free astaxanthin elutes at about 2.5 minutes, the monoesters elute as several peaks between 7 and 18 minutes, and the diesters elute as several peaks between 33 and 36 minutes. Astaxanthin peaks are identified by their diode-array spectra and integrated. All-*E* (all-*trans*) astaxanthin and its esters have a diode-array spectrum consisting of a single peak with broad absorption maximum of approximately 476 - 478 nm in the mobile phase used. There may be minor "shadow" peaks following the all-*trans* peaks with spectra that have a hypsochromic shift to approximately 465 nm and development of a shoulder at about 375 nm (the "*cis* peak"); this is probably due to the presence of mono-*cis* isomer(s). This method does not distinguish between the three possible astaxanthin stereoisomers (all *S*, all *R*, and *meso*). The response factor obtained from the standards is used for calculating the amount of astaxanthin in the unknowns.

### **AN EXAMPLE**

Six samples (about 100 to 200 mg each) of *Haematococcus pluvialis* dry meal (lot number 990610MIX) were weighed into tared 15-mL polypropylene conical centrifuge tubes. Each sample was sequentially extracted using one of the following three methods (2 tubes per extraction method):

- A. Add 0.5 mL DMSO to tube; heat 2 minutes in 70 °C water bath; remove from heat; add 4.5 mL acetone; vortex 1 minute; centrifuge 5 minutes in clinical centrifuge; decant supernatant into amber glass jar. Repeat 4 more times for a combined final volume of 25 mL.
- B. Add 0.5 mL DMSO to tube; vortex 1 minute; add 4.5 mL acetone; vortex 1 minute; centrifuge 5 minutes in clinical centrifuge; decant supernatant into amber glass jar. Repeat 4 more times for a combined final volume of 25 mL.
- C. Add 5.0 mL acetone; vortex 1 minute; centrifuge 5 minutes in clinical centrifuge; decant supernatant into amber glass jar. Repeat 4 more times for a combined final volume of 25 mL.

All of the above sequential extraction methods were sufficient to remove most pigment from the algal meal, leaving a dark pink residual pellet after centrifugation. The fourth and fifth extractions removed only small additional amounts of pigment as judged by the increasingly pale color of the solvent.

Immediately after extractions were complete, an aliquot of each extract was removed and diluted as required into acetone for spectrophotometric analyses. The remaining extracts were stored refrigerated under a blanket of argon gas, prior to HPLC analysis.

Standard solutions of astaxanthin diacetate were prepared and chromatographed as described above. The diode-array response factor for astaxanthin diacetate obtained from integration of standard runs (five concentrations, triplicate analyses) was  $3317 \pm 113$  AU/ $\mu$ g astaxanthin diacetate. This was used for calculation of the astaxanthin content of the *Haematococcus pluvialis* extracts. For these extracts, areas under the curve for peaks identified as free or esterified all-*E* (all-*trans*) astaxanthin were integrated.

## Technical report

Results of these analyses are given in the following table.

Sample number (extraction method)	Sample dry weight (mg)	Astaxanthin content (mg), by spectrophotometry (478 nm)	Astaxanthin content as percent dry weight, by spectrophotometry (478 nm)	Mean (standard deviation), <i>n</i> = 6	Astaxanthin content (mg), by HPLC	Astaxanthin content as percent dry weight, by HPLC	Mean (standard deviation), <i>n</i> = 6
1 (A)	98.1	2.40	2.44	2.36 (0.06)	2.40	2.45	2.40 (0.05)
2 (A)	117.3	4.17	2.35		4.21	2.37	
3 (B)	124.3	2.93	2.36		2.99	2.40	
4 (B)	188.6	4.52	2.39		4.41	2.34	
5 (C)	106.1	2.48	2.34		2.48	2.34	
6 (C)	195.4	4.42	2.26		4.82	2.47	

The distribution of astaxanthin as the free xanthophyll, monoester, and diester forms were determined from the HPLC analyses. The results are given in the following table.

Sample number (extraction method)	Percent astaxanthin as free xanthophyll	Mean (standard deviation), <i>n</i> = 6	Percent astaxanthin as monoesters	Mean (standard deviation), <i>n</i> = 6	Percent astaxanthin as diesters	Mean (standard deviation), <i>n</i> = 6
1 (A)	2.8	3.1 (0.4)	85.6	84.5 (1.7)	11.6	12.5 (1.3)
2 (A)	3.2		83.4		13.4	
3 (B)	3.5		84.4		12.1	
4 (B)	3.5		81.9		14.6	
5 (C)	3.0		84.8		12.2	
6 (C)	2.4		86.7		10.9	

As there is no official (e. g., AOAC) method for determination of astaxanthin content in *Haematococcus pluvialis* algal meal, a sample of the same lot (990610MIX) of *H. pluvialis* algal meal was sent for independent, parallel analysis to a laboratory (Dr. Bjørn Bjerkeng, Akvaforsk, Norway) well-experienced in determining astaxanthin content in fish feed or fish flesh. A sample of the meal was weighed out, treated with 0.1 g Glucanex® (Novo Nordisk) in 5 mL distilled water for 2 h at 30 °C, and a 500 L aliquot extracted in 40 mL 25% methanol, 75% chloroform. The extract was homogenised and centrifuged, and an aliquot of the chloroform layer dried and redissolved in HPLC mobile phase for analysis. The Akvaforsk HPLC analysis used a silica column pretreated with phosphoric acid, a mobile phase consisting of 14% acetone in *n*-hexane, a flow rate of 1.2 mL/min, and detection at 470 nm (Vecchi et al. 1987). This analysis reported an astaxanthin content (as percent dry weight) of 2.18% (Akvaforsk final analysis report, project S827, 1 July 1999). This value is approximately 10% lower than the values obtained by us either by spectrophotometry (2.36%) or by HPLC (2.40%), for samples from the same lot of algal meal. This may be explained by the fact that at Akvaforsk the enzyme-treated meal was extracted only once into organic solvent, whereas in our laboratory the samples were extracted five times. The extraction method used by Akvaforsk is similar to that used at Hoffmann-La Roche for extracting free (synthetic) astaxanthin in the gelatin matrix used for fish feed (Weber 1988; Bühler-Steinbrunn and Manz, 1988), while the sequential extraction method used in our laboratory is similar to methods described for extraction of carotenoids from macro- and microalgae (Haugan *et al.* 1995; Yuan & Chen 1998). We have observed that a single extraction is not capable of extracting all astaxanthin from the algal meal, probably due to the high concentrations of astaxanthin and lipids in the alga and further complicated by the non-homogeneity of the matrix (algal cellular structures). The distribution of astaxanthin among the free, monoester, and diester forms (3.6%, 81.8%, and 14.6%, respectively) reported by Akvaforsk (Akvaforsk final analysis report, project S827, 1 July 1999), is similar to that determined by our laboratory's HPLC method (3.1%, 84.5%, and 12.5% respectively).

## Technical report

Results of the analyses show that, for these samples, the correlation between our spectrophotometric and HPLC analytical methods is high; this is as expected as in these samples astaxanthin is the main xanthophyll and main carotenoid present and there is little chlorophyll. For both our spectrophotometric and HPLC methods, variation in results is less than 5%, and thus compares favourably with the variability ranges reported by workers at Hoffmann-La Roche for HPLC analysis of astaxanthin in fish feeds and premixes ( $\pm 10\%$ , Weber 1988) and for spectrophotometric analysis of astaxanthin isolated by open-column chromatography from fish feeds ( $\pm 16\%$ , Bühler-Steinbrunn and Manz, 1988).

In all cases the estimate of astaxanthin content is dependent on the extractability of the xanthophyll into organic solvent, and thus the obtained values of astaxanthin content are best stated as "extractable astaxanthin" rather than "total astaxanthin". Since even at the highest measurable levels of astaxanthin content there was some visible red pigment that was not extractable left in the pellet, the measured levels must actually slightly underestimate the total astaxanthin content.

For *Haematococcus pluvialis* algal meal samples with low (<1% by spectrophotometer) astaxanthin content, the HPLC analysis gives a lower estimate of astaxanthin content than does the spectrophotometer (data not shown). The spectrophotometric method does not distinguish between astaxanthin and other materials that may absorb in the same region (e. g., other carotenoids or products of chlorophyll degradation), and hence HPLC is a more accurate method of determining astaxanthin content in these instances.

### **REFERENCES**

- Britton, G. UV/Visible spectroscopy. *In*: "Carotenoids. Volume 1B: Spectroscopy." G. Britton, S. Liaaen-Jensen, and H. Pfander (editors), p. 57, Birkhäuser Verlag, Basel, 1995.
- Bühler-Steinbrunn, I. I., & Manz, U. Determination of stabilized astaxanthin in fish feeds by open-column chromatography on silica gel. *In*: "Analytical Methods for Vitamins and Carotenoids in Feed." H. E. Keller (editor), pp.62-64, F. Hoffman-La Roche & Co., AG, Basel.
- Haugan, J. A., Aakermann, T., & Liaaen-Jensen, S. Worked examples of isolation and analysis. Example 2: macroalgae and microalgae. *In*: "Carotenoids. Volume 1A: Isolation and Analysis." G. Britton, S. Liaaen-Jensen, and H. Pfander (editors), pp.215-226, Birkhäuser Verlag, Basel, 1995.
- Vecchi, M., Glinz, E., Meduna, V., & Scheidt, K. (1987) HPLC separation and determination of astacene, semiastacene, astaxanthin, and other ketocarotenoids. *J. High Resolution Chromatogr. Chromatogr. Commun.*, 10:348-351.
- Weber, S. Determination of stabilized, added astaxanthin in fish feeds and premixes with HPLC. *In*: "Analytical Methods for Vitamins and Carotenoids in Feed." H. E. Keller (editor), pp.59-61, F. Hoffman-La Roche & Co., AG, Basel.
- Yuan, J.-P. & Chen, F. (1998) Chromatographic separation and purification of *trans*-astaxanthin from the extracts of *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 46:3371-3375.



**Section 9:** List of selected references enclosed in Aquasearch's premarket notification to FDA for *Haematococcus pluvialis* algal meal as a New Ingredient for Dietary Supplements.

- Almgren, K. 1966. Ecology and distribution in Sweden of algae belonging to Haematococcaceae. I. Notes on nomenclature and history. *Svenska Botaniska Tidskrift* **60**(1), 1-73.
- Boussiba, S. & Vonshak, A. 1991. Astaxanthin accumulation in the green alga *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Plant and Cell Physiology* **32**(7), 1077-1082.
- Choubert, G. & Heinrich, O. 1993. Carotenoid pigments of the green alga *Haematococcus pluvialis*: assay on rainbow trout, *Oncorhynchus mykiss*, pigmentation in comparison with synthetic astaxanthin and canthaxanthin. *Aquaculture* **112**, 217-226.
- Clark, R. M., Yao, L., She, L. & Furr, H. C. 1998. A comparison of lycopene and canthaxanthin absorption: using the rat to study the absorption of non-provitamin A carotenoids. *Lipids* **33**(2), 159-163.
- Di Mascio, P., Devasagayam, T. P., Kaiser, S. & Sies, H. 1990. Carotenoids, tocopherols and thiols as biological singlet molecular oxygen quenchers. *Biochemical Society Transactions* **18**(6), 1054-1056.
- Di Mascio, P., Murphy, M. E. & Sies, H. 1991. Antioxidant defense systems: the role of carotenoids, tocopherols, and thiols. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* **53**, 194S-200S.
- Furr, H. C. & Clark, R. M. 1997. Intestinal absorption and tissue distribution of carotenoids. *Nutritional Biochemistry* **8**, 364-377.
- Gärtner, C., Stahl, W. & Sies, H. 1996. Preferential increase in chylomicron levels of the xanthophylls lutein and zeaxanthin compared to beta-carotene in the human. *International Journal for Vitamin and Nutrition Research* **66**, 119-125.
- Goodwin, T. W. & Jamikorn, M. 1954. Studies in carotenogenesis. II. Carotenoid synthesis in the alga *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Biochemical Journal* **57**, 376-381.
- Grung, M., D'Souza, M. L., Borowitzka, M. & Liaaen-Jensen, S. 1992. Algal Carotenoids 51. Secondary Carotenoids 2. *Haematococcus pluvialis* aplanospores as a source of (3S, 3'S)-astaxanthin esters. *Journal of Applied Phycology* **4**, 165-171.
- Hagen, C., Braune, W. & Björn, L. O. 1994. Functional aspects of secondary carotenoids in *Haematococcus lacustris* (Volvocales) . III. Action as a "sunshade". *Journal of Phycology* **30**, 241-248.

000162

Hagen, C., Braune, W. & Greulich, F. 1993. Functional aspects of secondary carotenoids in *Haematococcus lacustris* [ Girod] Rostafinski (Volvocales) . IV. Protection from photodynamic damage. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology* **20**, 153-160.

Harker, M., Tsavalos, A. J. & Young, A. J. 1995. Use of response surface methodology to optimise carotenogenesis in the microalga, *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Journal of Applied Phycology* **7**, 399-406.

Harker, M., Tsavalos, A. J. & Young, A. J. 1996. Factors responsible for astaxanthin formation in the chlorophyte *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Bioresource Technology* **55**, 207-214.

Jyonouchi, H., Hill, R. J., Tomita, Y. & Good, R. A. 1991. Studies of immunomodulating actions of carotenoids. I. Effects of beta-carotene and astaxanthin on murine lymphocyte functions and cell surface marker expression in *in vitro* culture system. *Nutrition and Cancer* **16**(2), 93-105.

Jyonouchi, H., Sun, S. & Gross, M. 1995. Effect of carotenoids on *in vitro* immunoglobulin production by human peripheral blood mononuclear cells: astaxanthin, a carotenoid without vitamin A activity, enhances *in vitro* immunoglobulin production in response to a T-dependent stimulant and antigen. *Nutrition and Cancer* **23**(2), 171-183.

Jyonouchi, H., Sun, S., Tomita, Y. & Gross, M. D. 1995. Astaxanthin, a carotenoid without vitamin A activity, augments antibody responses in cultures including T-helper cell clones and suboptimal doses of antigen. *Journal of Nutrition* **125**(10), 2483-2492.

Kobayashi, M., Kakizono, T., Nishio, N., Nagai, S., Kurimura, Y. & Tsuji, Y. 1997. Antioxidant role of astaxanthin in the green alga *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* **48**, 351-356.

Kostic, D., White, W. S. & Olson, J. A. 1995. Intestinal absorption, serum clearance, and interactions between lutein and beta-carotene when administered to human adults in separate or combined oral doses. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* **62**, 604-610.

Kurashige, M., Okimasu, E., Inoue, M. & Utsumi, K. 1990. Inhibition of oxidative injury of biological membranes by astaxanthin. *Physiological Chemistry and Physics & Medical NMR* **22**(1), 27-38.

Lam, T.-T. & Tso, M. O. M. 1997. Neuroprotective effect of astaxanthin in rat retina. *Investigative Ophthalmology & Visual Science* **38**(4), S718.

Lawlor, S. M. & O'Brien, N. M. 1995. Astaxanthin: antioxidant effects in chicken embryo fibroblasts. *Nutrition Research* **15**(11), 1695-1704.

Lim, B. P., Nagao, A., Terao, J., Tanaka, K., Suzuki, T. & Takama, K. 1992. Antioxidant

activity of xanthophylls on peroxy radical-mediated phospholipid peroxidation. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta* **1126**(2), 178-184.

Miki, W. 1991. Biological functions and activities of animal carotenoids. *Pure & Applied Chemistry* **63**(1), 141-146.

Miki, W., Hosoda, K., Kondo, K. & Itakura, H. 1998. Astaxanthin-containing food and beverage. Japanese Patent #10155459. Suntory Ltd. and Itano Reitou KK, Japan.

Murillo, E. 1992. Efecto hipercolesterolémico de la cantaxantina y la astaxantina en ratas. *Archivos Latinoamericanos de Nutricion* **42**(4), 409-413.

Nakagawa, K., Kang, S. D., Park, D. K., Handelman, G. J. & Miyazawa, T. 1997. Inhibition by beta-carotene and astaxanthin of NADPH-dependent microsomal phospholipid peroxidation. *Journal of Nutritional Science and Vitaminology (Tokyo)* **43**(3), 345-355.

Oshima, S., Ojima, F., Sakamoto, H., Ishiguro, Y. & Terao, J. 1993. Inhibitory effect of beta-carotene and astaxanthin on photosensitized oxidation of phospholipid bilayers. *Journal of Nutritional Science and Vitaminology* **39**(6), 607-615.

Palozza, P. & Krinsky, N. I. 1992. Astaxanthin and canthaxanthin are potent antioxidants in a membrane model. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics* **297**(2), 291-295.

Parker, R. S. 1996. Absorption, metabolism, and transport of carotenoids. *FASEB Journal* **10**(5), 542-551.

Renstrøm, B., Borch, G., Skulberg, O. M. & Liaaen-Jensen, S. 1981. Optical purity of (3S,3'S)-astaxanthin from *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Phytochemistry* **20**(11), 2561-2564.

Shimidzu, N., Goto, M. & Miki, W. 1996. Carotenoids as singlet oxygen quenchers in marine organisms. *Fisheries Science* **62**(1), 134-137.

Sommer, T. R., D'Souza, F. M. L. & Morrissy, N. M. 1992. Pigmentation of adult rainbow trout, *Oncorhynchus mykiss*, using the green alga *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Aquaculture* **106**, 63-74.

Sommer, T. R., Potts, W. T. & Morrissy, N. M. 1991. Utilization of microalgal astaxanthin by rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *Aquaculture* **94**, 79-88.

Tanaka, T., Kawamori, T., Ohnishi, M., Makita, H., Mori, H., Satoh, K. & Hara, A. 1995. Suppression of azoxymethane-induced rat colon carcinogenesis by dietary administration of naturally occurring xanthophylls astaxanthin and canthaxanthin during the postinitiation phase. *Carcinogenesis* **16**(12), 2957-2963.

Tanaka, T., Morishita, Y., Suzui, M., Kojima, T., Okumura, A. & Mori, H. 1994.

Chemoprevention of mouse urinary bladder carcinogenesis by the naturally occurring carotenoid astaxanthin. *Carcinogenesis* **15**(1), 15-19.

Terao, J. 1989. Antioxidant activity of beta-carotene-related carotenoids in solution. *Lipids* **24**(7), 659-661.

Torrissen, O. J., Hardy, R. W. & Shearer, K. D. 1989. Pigmentation of salmonids - carotenoid deposition and metabolism. *CRC Critical Reviews in Aquatic Sciences* **1**(2), 209-225.

Tso, M. O. & Lam, T.-T. 1996. Method of retarding and ameliorating central nervous system and eye damage. U.S. Patent #5527533. Board of trustees of the University of Illinois, United States of America.

Turujman, S. A., Wamer, W. G., Wei, R. R. & Albert, R. H. 1997. Rapid liquid chromatographic method to distinguish wild salmon from aquacultured salmon fed synthetic astaxanthin. *Journal of the AOAC International* **80**(3), 622-632.

000163

*This document contains copyrighted material which maybe  
viewed at:*

***DOCKETS MANAGEMENT BRANCH  
FOOD AND DRUG ADMINISTRATION  
5630 FISHERS LANE, ROOM 1061  
ROCKVILLE, MD 20852***