

1 Transgenic Research

2 Revision

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4 Engineered maize as a source of astaxanthin: processing and application as fish feed

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29 colouration

30

1 **Abstract**

2 Astaxanthin from a transgenic maize line was evaluated as feed supplement source conferring
3 effective pigmentation of rainbow trout flesh. An extraction procedure using ethanol together
4 with the addition of vegetal oil was established. This resulted in an oily astaxanthin
5 preparation which was not sufficiently concentrated for direct application to the feed.
6 Therefore, a concentration process involving multiple phase partitioning steps was
7 implemented to remove 90% of the oil. The resulting astaxanthin raw material contained non-
8 esterified astaxanthin with 12% 4-keto zeaxanthin and 2% zeaxanthin as additional
9 carotenoids. Isomeric analysis confirmed the exclusive presence of the 3S,3'S astaxanthin
10 enantiomer. The geometrical isomers were 89% all-E, 8% 13-Z and 3% 9-Z. The
11 incorporation of the oily astaxanthin preparation into trout feed was performed to deliver 7
12 mg/kg astaxanthin in the final feed formulation for the first 3.5 weeks and 72 mg/kg for the
13 final 3.5 weeks of the feeding trial. The resulting pigmentation of the trout fillets was
14 determined by hue values with a colour meter and further confirmed by astaxanthin
15 quantification. Pigmentation properties of the maize-produced natural astaxanthin
16 incorporated to 3.5 µg/g dw in the trout fillet resembles that of chemically synthesized
17 astaxanthin. By comparing the relative carotenoid compositions in feed, flesh and feces, a
18 preferential uptake of zeaxanthin and 4-keto zeaxanthin over astaxanthin was observed.

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21 **Introduction**

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23 Carotenoids exert health promoting activities in humans and are important in nutrition. Their
24 economic value is mainly based on their use as food colorants and as animal feed additives.
25 For example, astaxanthin along with other ketocarotenoids are the most expensive ingredient
26 used in salmon and trout feed. It is essential if the necessary quality in terms of aesthetic pink
27 flesh coloration is to be achieved. This is an important criterion for consumer preference. In
28 poultry feeding lutein and other carotenoids are used to provide pigmentation of meat and egg
29 yolk. In chicken feeding, the carotenoids mostly originate from natural sources including
30 marigold flowers rich in lutein (Tyczkowski and Hamilton 1986) and capsanthin from red
31 pepper (Hamilton et al. 1990) both applied as powder. Most of the astaxanthin used in salmon
32 and trout farming is of synthetic origin (Moretti et al. 2006). Only a small number of
33 biological sources are available. This includes the bacterium *Paracoccus carotinifaciens*, the
34 alga *Haematococcus pluvialis* and the fungus *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous* (Ambati et al.

1 2014). At the moment, their potential is limited and is not sufficient to supply the global
2 astaxanthin market with the needed 300 tons per year (Research and Markets 2015).
3 Therefore, attempts have been made to discover or develop new biological sources.
4 Alternatively, the enhancement of astaxanthin yield in already producing organisms will be
5 assessed by genetic improvement (Gassel et al. 2014). Another approach is the extension of
6 the carotenoid pathway in crop plants for the synthesis of astaxanthin through metabolic
7 engineering. The latter approach was successful with carrot (Jayaraj et al. 2008) and tomato
8 (Huang et al. 2013) in which astaxanthin biosynthesis was engineered.

9 Maize is a staple crop with a high potential for carotenoid pathway improvement.
10 Maize has been successfully engineered for high β -carotene and zeaxanthin formation in seed
11 endosperm (Zhu et al. 2008). This work laid the basis for the cloning of a hydroxylase and a
12 ketolase gene into this maize line leading to the synthesis of astaxanthin. For enhanced yield
13 of astaxanthin, lycopene ϵ -cyclase was knocked-down in addition to the over-expression of
14 the phytoene synthase gene (Farré et al. 2016). The astaxanthin producing line was crossed
15 into a high oil hybrid. The resulting maize seeds are a source of astaxanthin for direct feeding
16 e.g. to chicken or can be used as a raw material for the recovery of astaxanthin. In the current
17 report, we demonstrated the usefulness of this transgenic maize line as an astaxanthin source
18 for trout feeding. After its cultivation, a large-scale extraction process was established and the
19 isomeric composition of the astaxanthin product determined. Application of a concentration
20 step provided an oily astaxanthin preparation for use as fish feed ingredient. Current fish
21 farming and production require the use of an oily astaxanthin preparation rather than
22 incorporation of the raw maize product directly into the fish diet.

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25 **Materials and methods**

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27 **Maize material**

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29 An oil producing maize transformant NSL76-bkt based on NSL 30876 genetically engineered
30 for the biosynthesis of astaxanthin in the kernel endosperm (Farré et al. 2016) was used in this
31 investigation. 700 NSL76-bkt plants were planted in 20 l pots, two times per year over a two
32 year period. They were grown in a contained greenhouse at a day temperature of 30-32° C and
33 a night temperature of 26 - 28° C with no supplementary lighting. Cobs were harvested at

1 maturity and dried. A total of 340 kg were recovered. Kernels were removed from the cobs
2 manually.

3

4 Extraction process

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6 A total of 294 kg of astaxanthin-producing maize was crushed in a cutting mill (Retsch, Haan,
7 Germany) and the ground material (size around 1.5 mm) filled in 9 batches of 30 to 35 kg in
8 polypropylene sacks. For improved extraction, 1 kg of maize oil was added to each batch.
9 Extraction was carried out in two steps, first at 57°C with ethanol (1.6-fold the amount of seed
10 powder each) for 6 and then again for 3h. The ethanol was pumped off and removed by
11 vacuum distillation at 55-60°C. The resulting products were an oily fraction (10.8 kg) and a
12 solid residue (7.8 kg).

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14 Concentration of astaxanthin in the oily preparation

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16 With the extracted oil-astaxanthin solution a concentration procedure by phase partitioning
17 was adapted from one described earlier (Schiedt et al. 1995). This is illustrated in Fig. 1.
18 Batches of 0.8 l of the astaxanthin solution were diluted with 0.5 l of hexane and partitioned
19 in a first step against 0.5 l of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). After the collection of the lower
20 phase, it was partitioned twice against 300 ml of 10% ethanol in ethyl ether in a second step.
21 Addition of ice water aided the separation of the two phases, minimizing loss of astaxanthin
22 in the lower DMSO phase. Finally, the ether with the ethanol were removed under vacuum in
23 a rotary evaporator at 40°C.

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25 Carotenoid and pigmentation analysis

26

27 Astaxanthin at different stages of processing including the final oily concentrated preparation
28 was analyzed for quantification, purity and isomeric composition. Carotenoids were extracted
29 from maize seeds, freeze-dried fish, and freeze-dried feces, with tetrahydrofuran/methanol
30 (50:50, v/v) by heating for 20 min at 60°C. After partitioning of each extract into 30% ether in
31 petrol, the upper phase was collected, evaporated, and re-dissolved in acetone (Decourcelle et
32 al. 2015). Three different HPLC systems were used. System I with a 15 cm Nucleosil C18, 3µ
33 column and acetonitrile/2-propanol/methanol/water (85:5:10, v/v/v) as mobile phase; system
34 II with a 25 cm C30 RP, 3µ column (YMC, Wilmington, NC, USA) (Sander et al. 1994) and

1 3% methyl tertiary-butyl ether (MTBE) in methanol as mobile phase for the separation of
2 geometrical isomers; and with system III on a Chiralpak IC column and MTBE/acetonitrile
3 (50:50, v/v) according to Wang et al. (2008) for enantiomer separation at 24°C and a flow of 1
4 ml/min, the others at 20°C and a flow of 0.8 ml/min. Standard carotenoids, zeaxanthin, 4-
5 ketozeaxanthin, astaxanthin and β -carotene were generated by heterologous expression of
6 appropriate genes in *Escherichia coli* (Sandmann 2002) and identified by their typical spectra.
7 The astaxanthin enantiomer standard was purchased from Sigma Chemicals, Munich,
8 Germany. Coloration of the fish fillets was measured as mean value at five positions of the
9 fillet with equal distance to the neighboring point with a ColorLite sph 900 spectral color
10 meter (ColorLite GmbH Katlenburg, Germany) calibrated with a white standard from the
11 supplier.

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13 Feed composition and fish treatment

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15 In the feeding experiments, rainbow trout with a weight of about 100g were used. They were
16 grown in a 400 l tank filled with 260 l of water. Three tanks with 10 fish were used per
17 treatment over 7 weeks. Fish were fed for the first week with 2% equivalent of their weight
18 and subsequently with 1.5%. Two different diets were applied differing only by the presence
19 or absence of astaxanthin. The control feed contained (in g/kg) wheat gluten 200, fish meal
20 450, corn oil 150, fish oil 35, dextrin 100, cellulose 4.6, wheat starch 100, minerals 20,
21 vitamins 10, TiO₂ 10 (Gaye-Siessegger et al. 2011) as extruded diet. The astaxanthin feed
22 initially supplied during the first half of the growth period contained 7 mg of astaxanthin per
23 kg. After 3.5 weeks astaxanthin content of the feed was increased to 72 mg/kg. Fish were
24 sampled after seven weeks when they had reached a weight around 230 g and their feces and
25 fillets collected for analysis at the end of the experimental period

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27 **Results**

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29 Maize material

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31 The germination, growth and development of the NSL76-bkt plants were normal and
32 indistinguishable from those of the original Bkt transgenic line (Farré et al. 2016), the M37W
33 near isogenic line and the NSL76 wild type parent. Even though it is not possible to estimate

1 yield parameters in the greenhouse, NSL76-bkt plants performed in a very similar manner in
2 terms of fertility and seed set as the M37W, NSL76 and Bkt lines.

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4 Extraction and concentration process

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6 Several solvents were evaluated for astaxanthin extraction from ground maize material. The
7 most effective solvent was ethanol in combination with added commercial maize oil which
8 performed closest to the most efficient solvents tetrahydrofuran and chloroform, which were
9 not preferred because of their toxicity. The efficiency of astaxanthin extraction from the
10 maize material was over 80%. The resulting oily and solid fractions were analyzed for their
11 astaxanthin content. The yield from 294 kg of maize was 10.8 kg of astaxanthin oil with a
12 concentration of 120 mg/kg (Table 1). A solid residue (7.8 kg) was obtained after the ethanol
13 was removed by distillation. From this solid deposit, astaxanthin was only poorly extractable
14 even with strong solvents such as DMSO. Therefore, we focused only on the oily fraction and
15 did not attempt to recover more astaxanthin from the solid phase.

16 The extraction process produced an oil-astaxanthin solution with a concentration not
17 high enough to prepare a feed with an astaxanthin concentration equivalent to commercial
18 trout feed (Choubert et al. 2006). In order to apply this oil as an astaxanthin source for the fish
19 feed, we carried out a concentration procedure. Because it is difficult to separate the oil from
20 the lipophilic astaxanthin, a two-step phase partitioning (Schiedt et al. 1995) modified as
21 shown in Fig. 1 removed more than 90% of the oil. After transfer of astaxanthin into the
22 DMSO phase, it was not possible to recover the astaxanthin by vacuum distillation since heat
23 treatment degrades astaxanthin, which is evident by discoloration. Therefore, a second
24 partitioning step into ether was necessary. From the final ether phase, a highly concentrated
25 oily astaxanthin solution was obtained after evaporation, which now was 10-fold higher in
26 concentration reaching a level of 1.2 g/kg of oil (Table 1). Astaxanthin loss during the whole
27 concentration treatment was less than 15%.

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29 Properties of astaxanthin extracted from transgenic maize

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31 In order to quantify astaxanthin, to identify accompanying carotenoids and to determine the
32 isomeric composition of astaxanthin the concentrated astaxanthin fraction was subjected to
33 quantitative HPLC analysis in three different systems. Fig 2A shows an HPLC separation in
34 system I of the oily astaxanthin extract after concentration. Three peaks were identified, (i)

1 one at 3.8 min with a diketo-type astaxanthin spectrum and an absorbance maximum at 470
2 nm, (ii) a peak of keto zeaxanthin at 5.9 min with an asymmetric mono keto spectrum and (iii)
3 a small peak of zeaxanthin at 11.4 min with the typical absorbance shoulder and maxima
4 (425, 450, 476 nm). All carotenoids were identified using reference compounds.

5 Geometrical isomers of astaxanthin enriched by an initial pre-separation in HPLC
6 system I were identified in HPLC system II (Fig. 2B). In addition to the major peak of the all-
7 E isomer at 16.8 min, smaller peaks were detected for the 13-Z isomer at 13.6 min and for the
8 9-Z isomer at 18.4 min. Identification was with all-E astaxanthin and according to Englert and
9 Vecchi (1980) for the two Z-isomers via the relative position to all-E, the corresponding
10 absorbance spectra and depending a cis peak at 370 nm (Visser et al. 2005).

11 An astaxanthin (Ax) standard with a mixture of all three enantiomers was separated
12 with HPLC system III (Fig. 2C) and assigned according to Wang et al. (2008). The peak of
13 3S,3'S astaxanthin eluted first at 8.9 min, the 3S,3'R meso form at 10.2 min and the 3R,3'R
14 enantiomer at 11.6 min. Separation of the astaxanthin HPLC fraction from the astaxanthin
15 extract (peak Ax from Fig. 2A) resulted in a single isomer eluding at 9.0 min (Fig. 2D)
16 identifying the astaxanthin from this transgenic maize as the 3S,3'S enantiomer.

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18 Trout feeding trial

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20 This feeding trial was carried out as a proof-of-concept experiment to demonstrate the
21 potential of the astaxanthin from transgenic maize as a colorant for trout. All fish had a
22 similar behavior and final weights 232 ± 14 g (control) versus 230 ± 6 g (astaxanthin
23 supplemented) independent of the feed treatment. Since strong pigmentation of trout fillet
24 occurs after 4 to 5 week of their growth phase (Choubert et al. 2006), the fish were fed r with
25 astaxanthin supplement from the start of the trial with a lower dose of 7 mg/g feed which was
26 increased 10-fold in the astaxanthin feed to 72 mg/g after 35 days to a concentration ensuring
27 a maximum pigmentation effect. In contrast to the fillets from the astaxanthin-free feed, the
28 application of astaxanthin resulted in a strong pink pigmentation (Fig. 3). Pigmentation of
29 fillets from both groups was quantified by the hue values a and b. These color parameters are
30 shown in (Fig. 4). The hue values of fillets from the control fish grouped in the region of
31 negative a and b values in the lower left area of the diagram. This position reflects their
32 extremely low pigmentation. In contrast, the color parameters of all fillets from astaxanthin-
33 treated trout with one exception exhibited positive a values for redness and b values for
34 yellowness around zero for most of the samples from individual fish. Their grouping in the

1 upper right part of the diagram corresponds to the reddish fillet colour of the astaxanthin-
2 treated trout.

3 The only detectable carotenoid in the fillet of the control-diet fish was a small amount
4 of zeaxanthin. Carotenoid quantification and distribution in the feed, trout fillet and feces are
5 shown in Table 2. The comparison of the carotenoid distribution within the feed, fillet and
6 feces highlights the preference of carotenoids uptake in the fish fillet. In the fillet, astaxanthin
7 accounted for more than 60% of the incorporated carotenoids. The other carotenoids which
8 were detected were 4-keto zeaxanthin and zeaxanthin, the same carotenoids present in the
9 feed. However, the relative distribution of all three carotenoids changed to lower values for
10 astaxanthin and higher values for the other carotenoids in the fillet compared to the feed. All
11 three carotenoids were also found in the feces. Here, the amount of astaxanthin was relatively
12 higher, whereas the other carotenoids were less abundant than in the trout fillet.

13 The relative carotenoid composition in feed, fillets and feces can be used to estimate
14 the uptake of the individual carotenoids. We found that compared to the percentage of keto
15 zeaxanthin and zeaxanthin in the feed, a higher relative accumulation of both carotenoids
16 (especially of zeaxanthin) in the fish was evident in the final phase of the growth period. The
17 relative distribution of both carotenoids in feces was also lower than in the feed. This
18 indicates an uptake and incorporation preference for keto zeaxanthin and zeaxanthin over
19 astaxanthin.

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21

22 **Discussion**

23

24 The goal of this investigation was to assess the potential of astaxanthin from transgenic maize
25 as fish colorant using simple processing steps to obtain an astaxanthin raw material
26 compatible with the current requirements for commercial trout feeding. A previously
27 generated transgenic astaxanthin-producing maize line (Farré et al. 2016) exhibited normal
28 growth behavior and could be easily grown in a contained greenhouse to accumulate large
29 amounts of maize kernels. The prevalent accumulated carotenoid in the kernels was
30 astaxanthin reaching levels of 60% of total carotenoids. Astaxanthin in the transgenic maize
31 was totally non-esterified (Fig. 2A). It has been shown that esterified astaxanthin has a lower
32 pigmentation potential than free astaxanthin (Storebakken and No 1992). In contrast,
33 astaxanthin fatty acid esters are the prevalent form of astaxanthin in *Haematococcus pluvialis*,

1 the alternative natural source of astaxanthin used for trout and salmon feeding (Lorenz and
2 Cysewski 2000). The distribution of the optical isomers found in the astaxanthin preparations
3 (Fig. 2B) were similar to the synthetic astaxanthin (Schüep and Schierle 1995). However, the
4 composition of optical isomers in synthetic astaxanthin is different, i.e. the 3R,3'R, and the
5 3S,3'S enantiomers together with the meso form 3S,3'S are present in substantial amounts
6 (Megdal et al. 2009). It has been shown that there is no preference for astaxanthin
7 stereoisomers in pigmentation of trout fillets (Foss et al. 1984) but a preference for all-E
8 astaxanthin over Z isomers has been reported (Ytrestøyl and Bjerkeng 2007; Zhao et al.
9 2016). Therefore, astaxanthin from transgenic maize in which the all-E isomer predominate
10 (89%, Fig. 2) is suitable for intense fish flesh pigmentation. Since isomerization of
11 carotenoids is caused by heat, light and solvents (Schiedt and Liaaen-Jensen 1995), the
12 prevalence of the all-E isomer indicates that the processing of the transgenic maize was
13 sufficiently mild.

14 Extraction of astaxanthin from the ground maize seeds with a combination of ethanol
15 and 3% vegetable oil contributed to a good astaxanthin yield (Fig. 1, Table 1). This procedure
16 provided enough astaxanthin for the fish feeding experiments. However, there was a
17 substantial loss of astaxanthin during the extraction process caused by the solid residue which
18 formed after evaporation of the solvent and which retained poorly extractable astaxanthin. An
19 improvement of the extraction process as reported here needs to focus on the crystalline
20 residue in order to increase astaxanthin recovery from it. Attempts were made to improve the
21 extraction process by drying this residue in a freeze dryer, pulverization and extraction with
22 organic solvents during sonication. Alternatively, other extraction procedures can be
23 attempted such as super critical CO₂ extraction, which has been shown to be highly suitable
24 for extraction of astaxanthin and other carotenoids (Nobre et al. 2006). An improved
25 extraction procedure avoiding the formation of a solid residue has the potential to increase the
26 available astaxanthin by up to 3-fold.

27 Due to the use of vegetable oil to aid extraction, the astaxanthin levels in the oil could
28 not be achieved at a high enough concentration to be used for the preparation of the fish feed.
29 The subsequent enrichment process was efficient in removing 90% of the oil matrix,
30 corresponding to 10-fold concentration of astaxanthin in the oil with a loss of only 15%
31 (Table 1). Avoiding this processing step would make the use of maize-derived astaxanthin
32 more economical. With an optimized extraction using only one tenth of the applied oil, the
33 enrichment step could be avoided since the resulting astaxanthin oily solution would be
34 concentrated enough for direct application to the fish feed.

1 The most economical use of the ground astaxanthin maize is its direct application to
2 the fish feed not only as an astaxanthin but also as a carbohydrate source. Calculations based
3 on the replacement of the 40% carbohydrates in the feed by maize and a minimum astaxanthin
4 concentration of 30 mg/kg feed sufficient for strong pigmentation (Kurnia et al. 2015)
5 indicate that astaxanthin production in the transgenic maize needs to be increased by 5-fold.
6 This can be attempted by further genetic improvement of the astaxanthin transformants by
7 selective breeding, additional engineering of the early steps further directing metabolism into
8 the terpenoid pathway, and by enhancing limiting reactions which finally provide larger
9 amounts of precursors for specific carotenoid biosynthesis (Sandmann 2001).
10 Pigmentation of the trout fillets after the feeding regimen with transgenic maize-produced
11 astaxanthin was as strong as in comparable experiments with similar doses of synthetic
12 astaxanthin (Kurnia et al. 2015). In different feeding trials with synthetic astaxanthin, the
13 resulting astaxanthin content in the trout muscle varied in a dose-dependent manner in the
14 range from 1.4 to 8.2 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (Torrissen et al. 1989). This corresponds to the astaxanthin
15 concentration reached in the current experiments (Table 2). This result suggests a
16 pigmentation potential of maize-produced astaxanthin equivalent to synthetic astaxanthin. A
17 natural astaxanthin source for fish feeding alternative to maize-derived astaxanthin is krill
18 meal which contains astaxanthin predominantly as fatty acid esters (Takaichi et al. 2003). It
19 has been used in a trout feeding trial at high concentration of 90 mg/kg feed (Roncarati et al.
20 2011). Feeding this astaxanthin amount continuously over the same period as in our trial, the
21 same amount of astaxanthin as in Table 2 was incorporated into the flesh although we applied
22 substantially lower astaxanthin doses. This lower dose-dependent pigmentation potential of
23 the krill meal compared to maize-derived astaxanthin may be due to the esterified form of
24 krill astaxanthin (Storebakken and No 1992).

25 The pink trout fillets show a yellow hue (Fig. 4) which is visible in the fillets (Fig. 3)
26 and reflected by the colour parameters determined in Fig. 4. This is due to the preferential
27 uptake of zeaxanthin (Table 2). It has been shown earlier that lutein (differing in structure
28 from zeaxanthin only by the position of one double-bond) from marigold exhibits a similar
29 behavior causing a yellow pigmentation in trout (Büyükcapar et al. 2006). Since the
30 zeaxanthin content in our astaxanthin preparation after astaxanthin enrichment is negligible
31 (Fig. 2A), the yellowish contribution to the fillet color can easily be avoided in future
32 experiments by omitting colorless vegetable oil instead of zeaxanthin-containing maize oil for
33 dilution prior to and during feed preparation.

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1 Table 1 Astaxanthin in the individual processing steps

2 -----

3 Starting material: 294 kg of transgenic maize containing a total of 4.9 g astaxanthin with a
4 concentration of 16.7 mg/kg seeds

5 Extraction : solvent 3% oil in ethanol; seed residual 0.8 g astaxanthin;
6 pooled oil fractions with 1.3 g astaxanthin in 10.8 kg oil; concentration
7 120.4 mg/kg;
8 solid residual fraction with calculated 2.8 g non-extractable astaxanthin;

9 Concentration: recovery of 1.1 g astaxanthin in 0.9 kg oil; concentration 1,222 mg/kg
10 oil, other carotenoids: 12% keto-zeaxanthin and 2% zeaxanthin

11 Fish feed: dilutions with oil to 68 mg/kg and 680 mg/kg astaxanthin prior to feed
12 application

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18 Table 2 Final carotenoid concentration ($\mu\text{g/g dw}$) and distribution of carotenoids (%)

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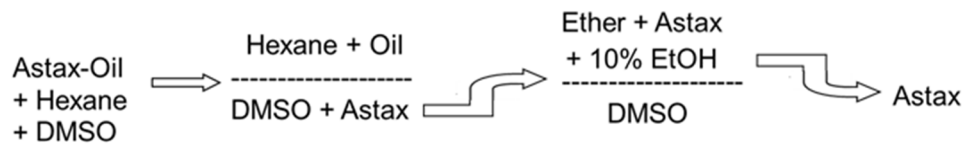
	Ax	K-Zx	Zx	
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21	-----			
22	Feed () 71.6 \pm 10.4	11.4 \pm 0.5	8.6 \pm 1.5	
23	(% distribution	77.7 \pm 1.2	12.4 \pm 0.6	9.9 \pm 1.4)
24	Fillet	3.5 \pm 1.1	1.1 \pm 0.4	0.9 \pm 0.3
25	(% distribution	61.9 \pm 3.6	21.2 \pm 0.9	16.9 \pm 3.3)
26	Feces	354.5 \pm 39.5	43.3 \pm 12.0	17.0 \pm 8.6
27	(% distribution	86.2 \pm 2.2	9.0 \pm 1.9	3.9 \pm 1.6)

28 -----

29 The only detectable carotenoid in the fillet of control fish was Zx 0.4 \pm 0.1

30 Ax astaxanthin; K-Zx 4-keto zeaxanthin; Zx zeaxanthin. n=5, \pm standard deviation.

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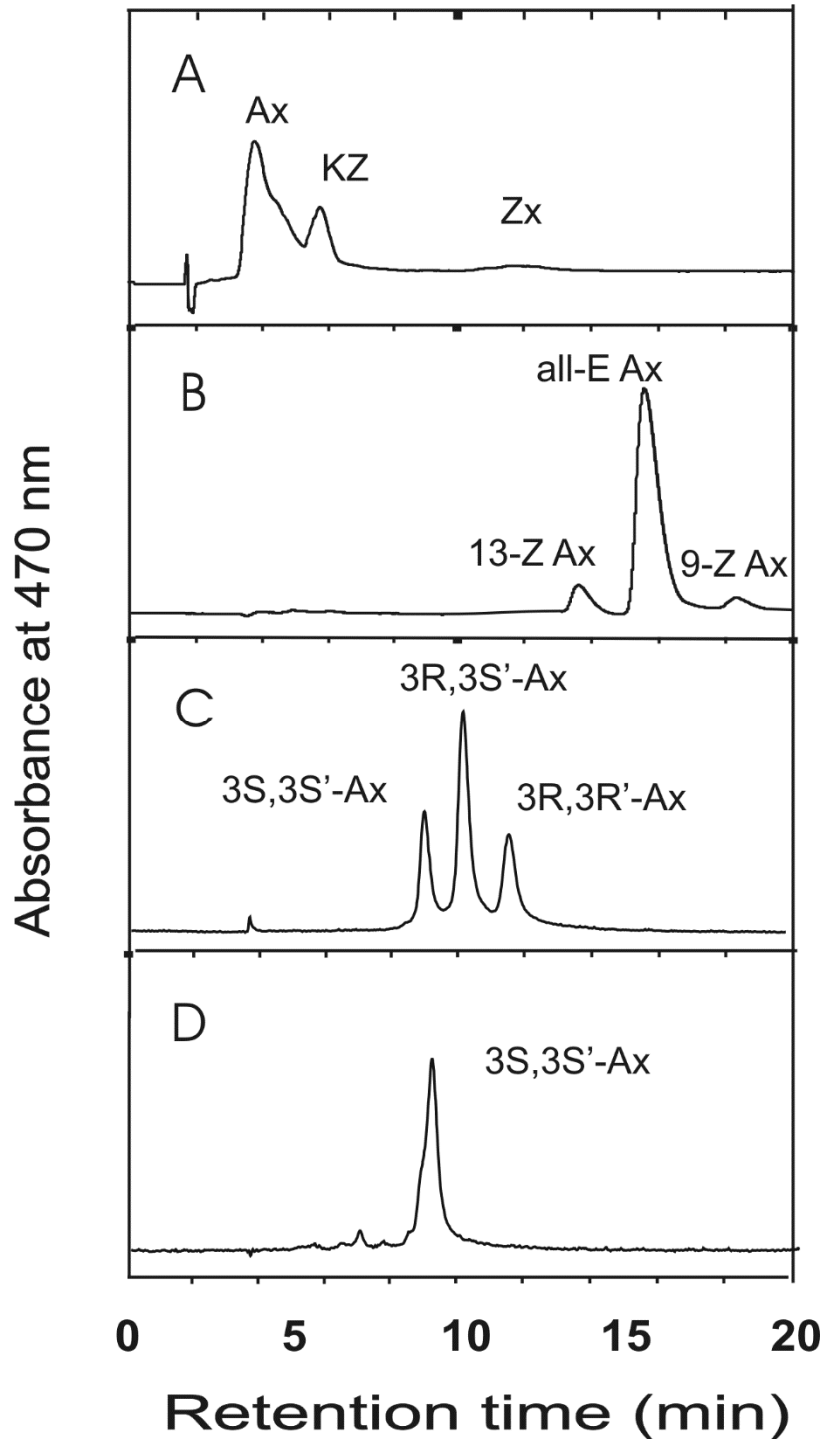


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3 Figure 1 Concentration of the astaxanthin oil solution by a two-step phase partitioning
4 procedure. Upper and lower phases as indicated in the illustration. Astax, astaxanthin.

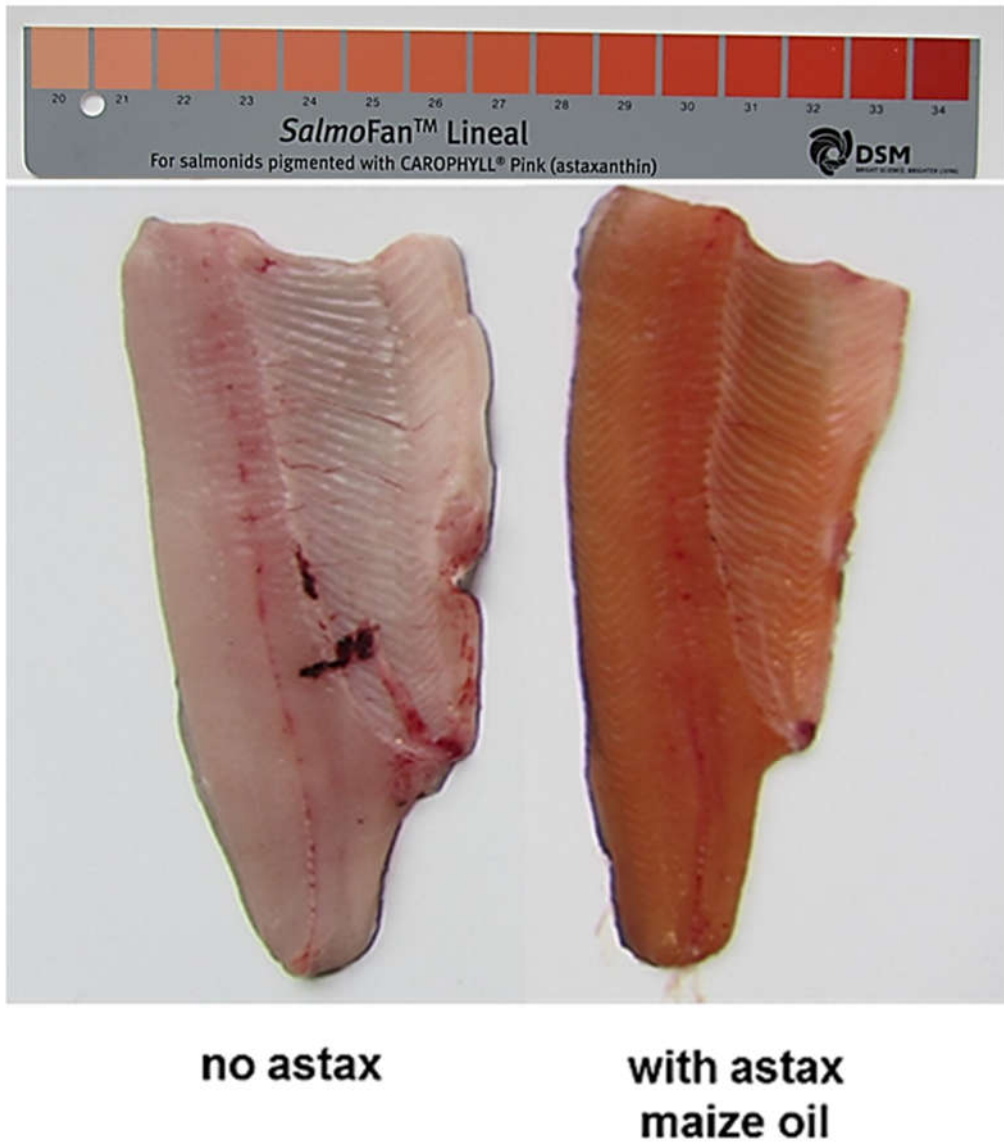
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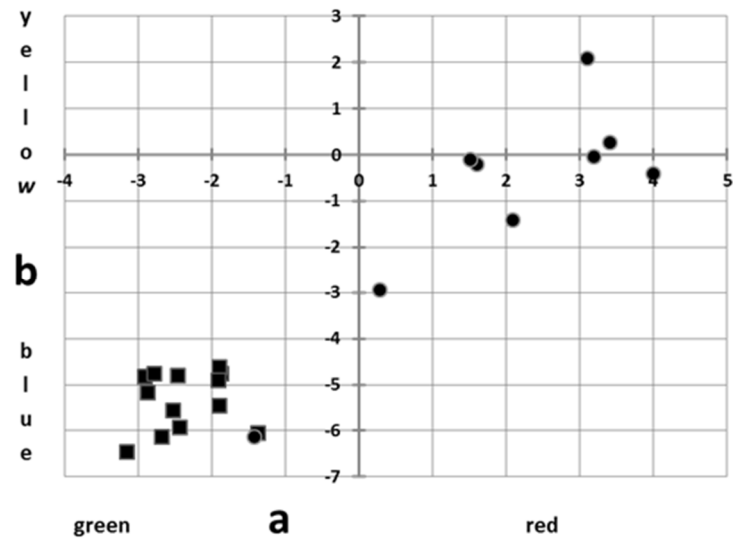
Figure 2 Analysis of extracted astaxanthin and determination of accompanying carotenoids in the astaxanthin oil. Trace A carotenoid composition in HPLC systems I, trace B composition of astaxanthin positional isomers in system II and determination of astaxanthin chirality in system III. Trace C, enantiomeric astaxanthin standard and trace D composition of geometrical astaxanthin isomers: all-E 89%, 9-Z 3%, 13-Z 8%. Ax astaxanthin, KZ 4-ketozeaxanthin, Zx zeaxanthin.



1

2 Figure 3 Pigmentation of trout fillet. On the right fillet from fish fed with feed supplemented
3 with maize astaxanthin, on the left, fillet from fish fed with a basic feed (without astaxanthin).

4



- 1
- 2 Figure 4 Colour parameters of fillets from trout fed without ■ or with ● a diet containing an
- 3 oily astxanthin preparation from transgenic maize