

2017

Seaweed Carotenoid Fucoxanthin as Functional Food.


Nissreen Abu-Ghannam

Technological University Dublin, nissreen.abughannam@tudublin.ie

Emer Shannon

Technological University Dublin, emer.shannon@tudublin.ie

Follow this and additional works at: <https://arrow.tudublin.ie/schfsehbk>

 Part of the [Food Chemistry Commons](#), [Food Microbiology Commons](#), and the [Food Processing Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Abu-Ghannam, N. and Shannon, E. (2017) Seaweed Carotenoid, Fucoxanthin, as Functional Food, in *Microbial Functional Foods and Nutraceuticals* (eds V. K. Gupta, H. Treichel, V. (O). Shapaval, L. Antonio de Oliveira and M. G. Tuohy), John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, Chichester, UK. doi: 10.1002/9781119048961.ch3

This Book Chapter is brought to you for free and open access by the School of Food Science and Environmental Health at ARROW@TU Dublin. It has been accepted for inclusion in Books/Book Chapters by an authorized administrator of ARROW@TU Dublin. For more information, please contact arrow.admin@tudublin.ie, aisling.coyne@tudublin.ie.



This work is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-Share Alike 4.0 License](#)

Chapter 3

Seaweed Carotenoid, Fucoxanthin, as Functional Food

In: *Microbial Functional Foods and Nutraceuticals*

pgs 39–64

Authors: Nissreen Abu-Ghannam* and Emer Shannon

School of Food Science and Environmental Health, Dublin Institute of Technology, Dublin, Ireland

*Corresponding author e-mail: nissreen.abughannam@dit.ie

First Edition. Edited by Vijai Kumar Gupta, Helen Treichel, Volha (Olga) Shapaval, Luiz Antonio de Oliveira, and Maria G. Tuohy.

© 2018 John Wiley & Sons Ltd. Published 2018 by John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Fucoxanthin: Overview and Sources

Fucoxanthin is a light-harvesting carotenoid pigment that occurs in the chloroplasts of the eukaryotic Chromalveolata (phylum Heterokontophyta, class Ochrophyta), including brown macroalgae (Phaeophyceae), and in unicellular microalgae, such as diatoms (Bacillariophyceae) (Cavalier-Smith and Chao

2006). Fucoxanthin is estimated to account for more than 10% of the total production of carotenoids in nature, and is responsible for the brown to yellow colour of brown macroalgae (seaweeds) and diatoms, where it masks green chlorophyll a and c (Hurd *et al.* 2014; Peng *et al.* 2011). Fucoxanthin was first isolated in Germany in 1914 from the brown seaweeds, *Dictyota*, *Fucus*, and *Laminaria* (Willstätter and Page 1914). Industrially, Japanese wakame (*Undaria pinnatifida*) is the seaweed most widely utilised for fucoxanthin extraction due to high concentrations of the pigment ($\geq 10\%$) in the lipid extract (Billakanti *et al.* 2013). Other marine macroalgae known to contain fucoxanthin include the genera *Ascophyllum*, *Fucus*, *Laminaria*, *Pelvetia*, *Ecklonia*, *Eisenia*, *Himanthalia*, *Sargassum*, *Saccharina*, *Ectocarpus*, *Schytosiphon*, *Petalonia*, *Carpophyllum*, *Hizikia*, *Padina*, *Dictyota*, *Myagropsis*, *Turbinaria*, *Cladosiphon*, and *Cystophora* (Dominguez 2013; Haugan and Liaaen- Jensen 1994; Heo *et al.* 2010; Jaswir *et al.* 2011; Kanazawa *et al.* 2008; Mikami and Hosokawa 2013; Mise *et al.* 2011; Miyashita and Hosokawa 2007; Sangeetha *et al.* 2010; Shang *et al.* 2011; Yan *et al.* 1999).

Notable fucoxanthin-containing microalgae include the diatoms *Odontella aurita*, *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*, *Chaetoceros gracilis*, *Thalassiosira weissflogii*, and *Cyclotella meneghiniana*; the Prymnesiophyceae species *Emiliana huxleyi*, *Pavlova lutheri*, and *Phaeocystis pouchetii*; and the Chrysophyceae species *Pelagococcus subviridis* (di Valentin *et al.* 2013; Pyszniak and Gibbs 1992; United States Department of Agriculture 2015; Wright and Jeffrey 1987; Xia *et al.* 2013). These microscopic algae occur as marine plankton.

Globally, Japan, Korea, and China have the greatest seaweed production, consumption, and most developed fucoxanthin extraction industry (Ryan 2014). Irish coastlines also support the growth of fucoxanthin-containing brown seaweeds, such as bladderwrack (*Fucus vesiculosus*), channelled wrack (*Pelvetia canaliculata*), knotted wrack (*Ascophyllum nodosum*), oarweed (*Laminaria digitata*), sea rod (*Laminaria hyperborea*), sea spaghetti (*Himanthalia elongata*), serrated wrack (*Fucus serratus*), and sugar kelp (*Saccharina latissima*; formerly *Laminaria saccharina*) (Dominguez, 2013; Morrissey *et al.* 2001; Stengel and Dring 1998).

Chemistry of Fucoxanthin

Carotenoids are tetraterpene pigments which occur in plants, algae, and photosynthetic bacteria. Carotenoids composed entirely of hydrogen and carbon belong to the subclass of carotenes, while those that additionally contain oxygen are classed as xanthophylls. Fucoxanthin is a xanthophyll, similar to the plant xanthophylls violaxanthin, neoxanthin, and lutein (Kotake-Nara and Nagao 2011). Xanthophylls share some chemical and physical properties with carotenes, such as lipophilicity and antioxidant activity due to their ability to quench reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (Kim and Chojnacka 2015). However, the presence of oxygen in the hydroxyl and epoxide groups of xanthophylls makes them more polar than carotenes (Landrum 2009). Fucoxanthin's systematic name is (3S,3'S,5R,5'R,6S,6'R,8'R)-3,5'- dihydroxy-8-oxo-6',7'-didehydro-5,5',6,6',7,8-hexahydro-5,6- epoxy- β,β -caroten-3'-yl acetate.

It contains an allelic bond, an epoxy group, and six oxygen atoms, as shown in Figure 3.1 (Chempider 2015).

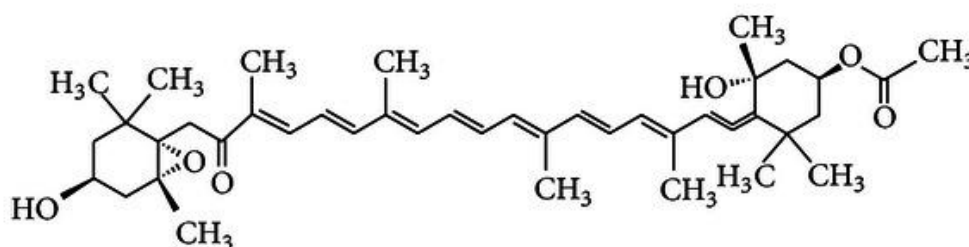


Figure 3.1 Fucoxanthin molecular structure (formula $C_{42}H_{58}O_6$).

In industry, it is most commonly extracted with solvents such as *n*-hexane, methanol, DMSO, ethanol, petroleum ether, diethyl ether, dimethyl ether, acetone, or ethyl acetate, and dried to a powder (Kanda *et al.* 2014; Kim 2011b).

In algal cells, fucoxanthin is contained in the chloroplasts, within membrane-bound compartments called thylakoids. In the thylakoids, fucoxanthin binds with chlorophyll a, c, and apoproteins, forming complexes that absorb light in the blue-green region of the spectrum and transfer energy to the alga. At depths of several meters, this is commonly the only spectral wavelength available to marine algae (Kita *et al.* 2015). Fucoxanthin captures a broader spectrum of light (449–540nm) than chlorophyll a and c alone, which increases the efficiency of photosynthesis (Kim *et al.* 2011; Pyszniak and Gibbs 1992). It also protects the algal cells from damage by reactive oxygen species caused by constant exposure to high levels of oxygen and light in the ocean. Fucoxanthin generally

occurs more significantly in the blade of the seaweed thallus, which experiences the greatest light exposure, compared to the stipe and holdfast (Lobban and Wynne 1981).

Fucoxanthin can exist in a *trans* or *cis* configuration. The *trans* isomer is the more chemically stable and potent antioxidant of the two, and comprises ~90% of the fucoxanthin found in nature (Holdt and Kraan 2011; Nakazawa *et al.* 2009). Fucoxanthin content varies widely amongst macro- and microalgae. For example, the brown seaweed *Fucus serratus* has been reported to contain 0.56 mg/g (dry weight, DW) (Haugan and Liaaen-Jensen 1994) compared to 2.67 mg/g in *Undaria pinnatifida* (DW) (Mori *et al.* 2004). Most diatoms and other microalgae have a greater fucoxanthin content than brown seaweeds (Kawee-ai *et al.* 2013), but are less commonly used commercially for extraction due to the necessity for photobioreactors and strict culturing conditions. Xia *et al.* (2013) reported the fucoxanthin content in eight species of diatoms, ranging from 2.24 mg/g (DW) in *Chaetoceros gracilis* to 18.47 mg/g (DW) in *Odontella aurita*. Seasonal and geographic variations hugely affect content. For example, brown seaweeds harvested from September to March, during the mature phase of the sporophyte, commonly contain higher concentrations of fucoxanthin (Fung *et al.* 2013; Terasaki *et al.* 2009). This has been attributed to the upregulation of the xanthophyll, or violaxanthin, cycle pathway in reduced levels of sunlight during the winter. Under environmental stressors such as reduced light exposure, the formation of fucoxanthin from zeaxanthin via the epoxidation of antheraxanthin, violaxanthin, and diadionoxanthin may be accelerated to regulate

photosynthetic pathways (Campbell *et al.* 1999; Goss and Jacob 2010; Mikami and Hosokawa 2013; Ramus *et al.* 1977).

Current Applications

Despite its discovery and isolation in seaweed over one hundred years ago, fucoxanthin has remained somewhat underutilised in food and pharmaceutical applications. Initial studies focused on quantification and extraction methods, structural elucidation, and biosynthetic pathways. It was not until the late 1990s that scientific papers began to emerge on fucoxanthin's potential as a functional food. This was most probably due to growing clinical evidence at the time of the role of antioxidants in the prevention of chronic diseases. Currently, fucoxanthin is available to retail consumers in the form of relatively expensive weight loss supplements, of varying purity and quality, from health stores and online. Unlike other carotenoids, such as β -carotene, which are commonly used as food colourants, 100% pure fucoxanthin is not sold as a bulk food ingredient (Hurst 2002). Its instability due to oxidation and high extraction costs have, to date, been prohibitive. Currently, fucoxanthin is available to food producers as a percentage of various seaweed extracts. Analytical grade fucoxanthin ($\geq 95\%$ pure) is produced for laboratories, but retails at €556 per 50 mg (Sigma-Aldrich 2015a).

Food and Pharmaceutical Regulations

In 2009, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) published its scientific opinion on fucoxanthin and the substantiation of health claims related to it and

maintenance or achievement of a normal body weight, in the case of *Undaria pinnatifida* thallus extract, under Article 13(1) of Regulation (EC) No 1924/2006. It determined that the extract, as a food constituent, had been sufficiently characterised to be consumed in an amount equivalent to 15 mg pure fucoxanthin per day. However, to date, the EFSA has not accepted that a relationship has been established between its consumption and the maintenance or achievement of a normal body weight (European Food Safety Authority 2009). Other health claims, such as antidiabetic or anticancer effects, relating to fucoxanthin have not yet been evaluated by the EFSA. In the Republic of Ireland, the Health Products Regulatory Authority does not list fucoxanthin as a controlled substance, or include it in the List of Medicinal Herbs considered acceptable as THMPs, under the European Traditional Herbal Medicinal Products Directive (2004/24/EC) which came into effect in Ireland in 2007 (Health Products Regulatory Authority 2015).

The clinical evidence supporting fucoxanthin's health benefits has not yet been evaluated by the US Food and Drug Administration. However, fucoxanthin can be sold in the United States as a food supplement with the disclaimer "These statements have not been evaluated by the Food and Drug Administration. This product is not intended to diagnose, treat, cure, or prevent any disease" on the product label (US Food and Drug Administration 2014). In Japan, Food for Specified Health Uses (FOSHU) under the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare have not evaluated fucoxanthin as a functional food ingredient or pharmaceutical; however, it can be sold as a food supplement.

Applications in Human Health

Although fucoxanthin has not been evaluated by some food regulatory bodies, in recent years it has been studied clinically for its antioxidant properties, which inhibit free radical damage in cells, reducing the risk of many chronic diseases. It has also been studied for its anticancer, anti-type 2 diabetes, antiobesity, anticholesterol, anti-inflammatory, antiangiogenic, antimalarial, and antihypertensive activities, and for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease (Gammone and d'Orazio 2015; Hosokawa *et al.* 1999; Ikeda *et al.* 2003; Kawee-ai *et al.* 2013; Kim 2011a; Kotake-Nara *et al.* 2001; Maeda *et al.* 2007; Rodrigues *et al.* 2012; Shiratori *et al.* 2005; Sivagnanam *et al.* 2015).

Antiobesity Effects

Obesity, type 2 diabetes, metabolic syndrome, and chronic inflammatory diseases are global health epidemics. The World Health Organization estimates that, globally, 2.3 billion people will be overweight and 700 million obese by 2015. To prevent and treat diseases such as these, natural, bioactive, functional compounds such as fucoxanthin are increasingly being studied as an alternative to, or as combination therapy with, orthodox medicines (Peng *et al.* 2011; Watson, 2014).

In obesity treatment, fucoxanthin has been shown to mediate the induction of uncoupling protein-1 (UCP-1) in abdominal adipose tissue mitochondria in murine studies, leading to the oxidation of fatty acids and heat production, resulting in a reduction in white adipose tissue (d'Orazio *et al.* 2012; Maeda *et al.* 2005). Abidov *et al.* (2010) conducted a double-blind placebo-controlled

study of 115 non-diabetic, obese, premenopausal women with a liver fat content above 11% at the Russian Academy of Medical Sciences. A daily supplement of 300 mg brown seaweed extract (species not specified) containing 2.4 mg fucoxanthin, combined with 300 mg pomegranate seed oil, was administered. An olive oil capsule was administered to the placebo group. The treatment group showed a significant increase in resting energy expenditure and mean weight loss of 4.9 kg after 16 weeks. In Japan, a kombu (*Saccharina japonica*) extract of fucoxanthin (3%) was evaluated for its antimetabolic syndrome effects in human clinical trials. A daily dosage of the extract, equivalent to 0.5–1.0 mg pure fucoxanthin/ day, was found to have a significant effect on blood serum parameters related to metabolic syndrome (Oryza 2015). However, no official RDA for fucoxanthin has been established by the World Health Organization.

Topical preparations as vehicles for fucoxanthin in the treatment of obesity have also been reported. Dai *et al.* (2014) developed a stable microemulsion containing 0.25% pure fucoxanthin using medium chain triglyceride as the oil phase, Tween 80 as a surfactant, and polyethylene glycol 400 as a co-surfactant.

Anticancer Effects

Fucoxanthin's anticancer activity is hypothesised to be due to its ability to induce apoptosis in tumour cells (Nakazawa *et al.* 2009). Hosokawa *et al.* (1999) found that fucoxanthin induced apoptosis in human promyelocytic leukaemia HL-60 cells by cleaving procaspase-3 and poly-ADP-ribose

polymerase. Kim *et al.* (2010) showed that fucoxanthin induced reactive oxygen species generation, inactivated the Bcl-xL signalling pathway, and induced caspase-3, -7, and poly-ADP-ribose polymerase cleavage, triggering the apoptosis of HL-60 cells, indicating that the generation of reactive oxygen species was a critical target in fucoxanthin-induced apoptosis of these cells. Wang *et al.* (2014) reported significant growth inhibition of cells in nine human cancer cell lines with extracts of *Undaria pinnatifida* containing fucoxanthin. Satomi and Nishino (2013) reported fucoxanthin extract to have a significant effect on the expression and enzymatic activity of the xenobiotic metabolising enzymes CYP1A1, CYP1A2 and CYP3A4, which are involved in the activation of pro-carcinogens. The study found that the inhibitory effect of fucoxanthin ($\leq 45\mu\text{M}$) on these enzymes in human hepatocellular carcinoma HepG2 cells and recombinant human CYPs could also attenuate the action of some anticancer drugs that are normally activated by CYP3A4.

Antidiabetic Effects

Fucoxanthin's antidiabetic activity has been studied in mice with induced type 2 diabetes. It has been found to improve insulin resistance and decrease blood glucose levels mainly via the regulation of cytokine secretions from white adipose tissue (Miyashita *et al.* 2011). Other studies found that a fucoxanthin-enriched diet promoted the recovery of blood glucose uptake to muscle by the upregulation of GLUT4 mRNA expression. Fucoxanthin has also been shown to affect the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ) and promote gene expression related to lipid metabolism in adipocytes. In cultivated cells, fucoxanthin prevented inflammation and insulin resistance by inhibiting nitric

oxide and PGE2 production through the down-regulation of iNOS and COX-2 mRNA expression, as well as adipocytokine production in white adipose tissue (Hosokawa *et al.* 2010; Maeda *et al.* 2006; Miyashita *et al.* 2011).

Dietary Antioxidant Effects

The antioxidant capacity of seaweeds has been widely reported (Heffernan *et al.* 2014). As a dietary antioxidant, fucoxanthin has been shown to improve the antioxidant capacity of blood serum levels in mammals. Fucoxanthin is unusual in that it donates an electron to reactive oxygen species, instead of a proton (hydrogen), as most antioxidants such as ascorbic acid or β -carotene do. Fucoxanthin can also quench reactive oxygen species under hypoxic physiological conditions, unlike the majority of food-derived antioxidants (Nomura *et al.* 1997; Yan *et al.* 1999). A high-fat diet has been associated with obesity in humans and other mammals, and has been shown to cause overproduction of reactive oxygen species (Dandona *et al.* 2005). Reactive oxygen species are known to cause cellular damage, which is implicated in the pathogenesis of diseases such as type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease, cancer, and infectious illnesses (Uzun *et al.* 2004). Ha *et al.* (2013) reported that fucoxanthin supplementation improved the antioxidant capacity of blood serum levels in obese rats via activation of the nuclear erythroid factor like-2 pathway and its downstream target gene NQO1. A study by Zaragozá *et al.* (2008) on the antioxidant effect of fucoxanthin extract from *Fucus vesiculosus* found that the extract exhibited increased antioxidant activity in *ex vivo* assays of erythrocytes and plasma, after 4 weeks of daily oral administration in rats. Significant antioxidant activity was also observed in non-cellular systems and in

activated RAW 264.7 mouse leukemic monocyte macrophage cell lines. Therefore, supplementation of fucoxanthin may also reduce the risk of oxidative stress in humans.

Fucoxanthin has also been successfully used topically to protect against UV-B-induced cell damage in hairless mice, and in human fibroblast cell lines as an antioxidant against skin aging caused by free radical damage (Heo and Jeon 2009; Urikura *et al.* 2011).

Toxicity Studies

No toxicity of fucoxanthin extracts has been reported to date, making it a good candidate for functional food use. A number of clinical trials in animal models have shown no significant toxicity with short- or long-term dosage. For example, in Japan, a recently developed functional food ingredient, containing up to 5% fucoxanthin from kombu (*Saccharina japonica*) extract, was evaluated on rats. Toxicity and micronucleus tests were conducted. No toxicity or abnormalities were found after 14 or 90 days. The LD₅₀ of the extract (3.0% fucoxanthin) was calculated to be 2000 mg/kg body mass for rats (Oryza 2015). Maeda *et al.* (2005) supplemented a murine diet with 0.27% fucoxanthin, equivalent to ~0.25 mg/kg body mass per day for 4 weeks, and found no side effects or abnormalities. Kadekaru *et al.* (2008) conducted a toxicity study on the repeated oral dosing of fucoxanthin (95% purity) to rats for 28 days, and found that it showed no apparent toxicity. Zaragozá *et al.* (2008) found no ill effects following a 4-week, acute toxicity test in rats, where a daily treatment of 0.0012% pure fucoxanthin extract from *Fucus vesiculosus* was administered. A single dose

toxicity study (Beppu *et al.* 2009) was conducted with doses of 1000 and 2000 mg/kg body mass and a repeated oral dose toxicity study with doses of 500 and 1000 mg/kg for 30 days on purified fucoxanthin (93% purity) in ICR mice. No mortality, abnormalities, abnormal changes in liver, kidney, spleen, or gonadal tissues were found in either study.

Human toxicity studies are required to assess both the toxicity levels and daily dosage for efficacy against any of the disorders discussed above.

Fucoxanthin as a Functional Food: Challenges and Opportunities

Fucoxanthin faces chemical, organoleptic, and bioavailability challenges as a functional food ingredient. Due to its chemical structure, fucoxanthin in its pure form is easily oxidised by high temperatures, low or high pH, UV light, and long storage periods (Kawee-ai *et al.* 2013; Mise *et al.* 2011). This may lead to chemical or enzymatic interactions with other ingredients over time. Organoleptic attributes, such as texture, taste, appearance, or smell, may deteriorate as a result of these interactions. Sensitivity to heat poses a problem for bakery products or sauces that require boiling, and foods that contain fruit or probiotic cultures may be too acidic. The natural brown colour, savoury flavour, and powdery texture of fucoxanthin itself may also make it unsuitable for some food products. The idea of eating seaweed derivatives may be unpalatable to some consumers, even at undetectable levels. This may be encountered in Western cultures where seaweed is rarely part of the diet, and misconceptions of a potential “fishy” or “sea” taste could arise.

Like other non-polar pigments, such as chlorophyll and lycopene, fucoxanthin is insoluble in water. Incorporation into water-based beverages or sauces would require emulsification or dispersion in appropriate colloids (Socaciu 2007). The lipid-soluble nature of fucoxanthin also affects its bioavailability in mammals (Sangeetha *et al.* 2010). Fucoxanthin is metabolised in the intestine into fucoxanthinol by cholesterol esterase and lipase, then converted to amarouciaxanthin A in the liver (Bagchi and Preuss 2012; Dominguez, 2013). The presence of some form of dietary lipid is required when fucoxanthin is consumed for solubility and absorption (Peng *et al.* 2011). Another consideration for fucoxanthin as a functional food is the high cost, due to the energy required for the extraction and freeze-drying process (Billakanti *et al.* 2013) and the lack of an artificial synthesis method for fucoxanthin. Seasonal variations in fucoxanthin nutritional content (Fung *et al.* 2013) could also affect health claims and nutritional efficacy.

Despite these potential hurdles, fucoxanthin has several intrinsic, beneficial properties. Fucoxanthin, along with other carotenoids such as astaxanthin, is a more powerful antioxidant than many other natural and synthetic antioxidants (Miyashita and Hosokawa 2007). Using chemiluminescence detection, Nishida *et al.* (2007) reported that fucoxanthin had stronger singlet oxygen-quenching activities than ascorbic acid, α -tocopherol, quercetin, resveratrol, (-)-epigallocatechingallate, lutein, lycopene, gallic acid, pyrocatechol, α -lipoic acid, and the synthetic antioxidant butylated hydroxytoluene. Consumer awareness and interest in naturally antioxidant-rich foods have grown in recent years (Kim 2013; Rodrigues *et al.* 2012). Seaweed extracts such as carrageenan, alginate,

and other hydrocolloids are already accepted by consumers as widely used ingredients in the food, pharmaceutical, and cosmetic industries (Venugopal 2011). Marine-derived functional foods such as fucoxanthin have the potential to be marketed as a more potent and sustainable alternative to many natural and synthetic antioxidants, particularly in countries such as Japan, China, and Korea, where seaweed is a common part of the diet. Fucoxanthin is also Kosher, Halal, and suitable for vegetarians and vegans.

As discussed later in this chapter, little has been reported in peer-reviewed journals regarding the use of fucoxanthin as a functional ingredient. Most fucoxanthin research has focused on medical rather than functional food applications. However, a study conducted by Prabhasankar *et al.* (2009) at the Central Food Technological Research Institute, Mysore, in India reported the successful addition of fucoxanthin and fucosterol as a constituent of wakame (*Undaria pinnatifida*) powder extract into semolina (wheat)-based pasta. Fucosterol is a structural component of algal lipid membranes which has been shown to have antioxidant, anticancer, antidiabetic, and hepatoprotective properties in animal trials (Alasalvar *et al.* 2011; Jung *et al.* 2013; Lee *et al.* 2003). Prabhasankar *et al.* (2009) investigated the effect of different percentage additions of wakame powder on the sensory, cooking, nutritional, and biofunctional quality of pasta. Blends of semolina and seaweed were combined by replacement method in ratios of (semolina/wakame, w/w) 100:0, 95:5.0, 90:10, 80:20, and 70:30. In sensory analysis of taste, mouth-feel, appearance, and strand quality, 15 semi-trained panellists, who were regular consumers of wakame, found no significant ($P > 0.05$) or discernible organoleptic differences

between the control and the wakame pasta up to 10% total ingredient mass, with acceptance decreasing after 10% up to 20% wakame content. Above 20%, panellists reported saltiness and a seaweed taste. Since wakame is composed of other components such as polysaccharides, proteins, lipids, and minerals, 10% wakame, in this study, equated to 0.04 mg/g (DW) of fucoxanthin and 1.25 mg/g (DW) of fucosterol of the dry ingredient portion. HPLC analysis of the pasta after processing/ kneading, and after cooking (25g of raw pasta in 250mL boiling water for 8 min) showed a loss of less than 10% for both fucoxanthin and fucosterol. The authors hypothesised that this remarkable preservation occurred due to stability of fucoxanthin/fucosterol in the protein matrix of gluten. To the authors' knowledge, the stability of fucoxanthin in a food system has not been reported in any other studies. To date, these lab-scale pilots have not been reported as developed to commercial scale.

A recent Irish study reported the successful incorporation of ethanol and water extracts of *Fucus vesiculosus* and *Ascophyllum nodosum*, at 0.25% and 0.50%, into yoghurt and fluid milk (O'Sullivan 2013). The fucoxanthin content of the seaweed extracts was not reported. However, it is probable that both contained fucoxanthin, due to its presence being widely reported in both species and their extracts (Stengel and Dring 1998; Zaragoza *et al.* 2008). Sensory analysis found that overall acceptability of the yoghurts was governed by appearance and flavour, with the 100% water extract of *A. nodosum* having the greatest panel preference and least yellowness. Overall acceptability of the milk was governed by perception of a fishy flavour. Again, the 100% water extract of *A. nodosum* (0.50% addition) was found to be the most acceptable in terms of

taste, and the least green/yellow. *In vitro* antioxidant analysis found no deterioration of antioxidant activity, shelf-life, or pH in the seaweed-supplemented milk and yoghurt formulations.

Fucoxanthin, like many natural food extracts, is widely available wholesale online from many companies, primarily based in China. It is sold in the form of dried seaweed extract, generally from wakame or kombu, with stated percentages of fucoxanthin purity ranging from 10% to 98%. Price ranges widely, from less than \$1 to \$2000 per gram, as do claims of purity and certification (Alibaba 2015; Kyndt and d'Silva 2013).

However, in Japan, a government-certified functional food ingredient has recently been commercially developed from kombu (*Saccharina japonica*) containing 1–5% fucoxanthin. The powder and oil products contain only cyclodextrin, or triglyceride, in addition to the kombu extract, and natural tocopherol. Stability testing of the products found the fucoxanthin fraction to be thermostable up to 80 °C for 1 hour, and stable in solution from pH 3.0 to 10.0, with the greatest loss being 6% after 1 week at pH 3.0. The addition of the antioxidant preservative tocopherol to the products is most likely the stabilising factor in this case. The triglyceride and cyclodextrin may also offer a protective matrix for the fucoxanthin, combined with photo-protective, vacuum packaging. The powder and oil products were reported to have been successfully incorporated into beverages, cakes, shortbread, puffed rice biscuits, spreads, and potato snacks. However, the percentage of fucoxanthin extract used was not specified, nor have any sensory evaluation results been published to date (Oryza 2015).

Outside Asia, in the USA, a project was initiated in 2010 by the Research, Education, and Economics Information System of the Department of Agriculture and the National Institute of Food and Agriculture, Auburn University, Alabama, to optimise large-scale fucoxanthin extraction from the diatom *Chaetoceros gracilis*. The effects of the extracts on energy balance in an animal model of obesity are being used to develop a functional food for the public health treatment of obesity to reduce the risk of developing cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes, and some forms of cancer. The project intends the functional food industry to be the immediate beneficiary of the study, but also aims to target the wider food industry, nutritionists, scientists, and engineers (United States Department of Agriculture 2015). There have been no publications from the project to date.

This significant project, in the country with the highest global rates of obesity, along with the success of the pasta study and Japan's government-sponsored development of stable oil- and water-soluble fucoxanthin products, is very encouraging for further exploration of fucoxanthin as a functional food ingredient on a large commercial scale.

Approaches to Overcome Adverse Reactions in Functional Food Models

Micro and Nanoencapsulation

The principal obstacles to the incorporation of fucoxanthin in a food or beverage matrix are water insolubility, pH instability, sensitivity to oxidation, and impaired

bioavailability. These properties are an issue with existing food ingredients, such as other carotenoids and polyphenolic compounds, but can be overcome with various technologies and approaches. Microemulsions composed of a water phase, lipid phase, and an amphiphilic compound are widely used to combine lipid solutes, such as carotenoids, into a hydrophilic matrix for food and pharmaceutical purposes (de Campos *et al.* 2012).

Indrawati *et al.* (2015) encapsulated an acetone extract (primarily trans fucoxanthin) of Indonesian Sargassum species in maltodextrin and Tween 80 (~70:1). The Sargassum extract was combined with canola oil and homogenised in the water-based maltodextrin/Tween 80 emulsion. After freeze drying, the fucoxanthin was found to be stable within the microencapsulates for 63 days at 28°C under inert atmosphere. Encapsulating fucoxanthin in this manner increases its suitability for incorporation into dried food products. Suhendra *et al.* (2012) succeeded in formulating a clear, stable, oil-in-water microemulsion for fucoxanthin, capable of delivering this hydrophobic antioxidant in aqueous food systems. Virgin coconut oil was used as the lipid phase with a combination of Tween 20, Tween 80, and Span 80 as non-ionic surfactants. The ratios were oil:surfactants (3:17); oil + surfactants:water (35:65); Tween 80:Tween 20:Span 80 (92.0:2.5:5.5). The microemulsion remained stable after exposure to pH 3.5–6.5, 105 °C for 5 hours, and centrifugation at 4500rpm for 30 minutes. Quan *et al.* (2013) reported a water-soluble fucoxanthin food application using fucoxanthin-loaded microspheres, composed of a gum arabic/fish gelatin coacervate shell cross-linked by tannic acid, with a solid lipid core of acetyl palmitate and canola oil. Wet and freeze-

dried forms of the solid lipid core microspheres were developed successfully. Stability of encapsulated fucoxanthin during long-term storage was significantly increased, as was sustained release in a simulated gastrointestinal environment.

Nanogels have been used extensively in the pharmaceutical industry to protect acid-labile bioactive compounds from the acidic stomach environment before reaching the intestinal tract (Liechty *et al.* 2010; McClements *et al.* 2009a). This technology easily translates to functional food delivery. For example, the biological availability and stability of fucoxanthin were reported to have significantly increased after encapsulation with chitosan-sodium-tripolyphosphate-glycolipid nanogels, prepared by ionic gelation (Ravi and Baskaran 2015). The authors were inspired by a study (Gorusupudi and Baskaran 2013) reporting the improved bioavailability of a similar compound, lutein, in mice, by solubilising the extract first in the glycolipid fraction of wheat germ oil. Apart from protecting the core material (fucoxanthin) against degradation, encapsulation prevents reactions with other ingredients (McClements *et al.* 2009b), and any seaweed flavour or brown colour is prevented from leaching into the food.

Current Trends in Fucoxanthin Research

Most extraction methods currently practiced are based on the utilisation of organic acids and solvents to break down the cell walls of seaweed or microalgae. Current trends are leaning towards greener chemical or physical extraction methods.

Green Extraction Technologies

Pressurised Liquid Extraction

Shang *et al.* (2011) utilised pressurised liquid extraction with ethanol to optimise fucoxanthin yields from the seaweed *Eisenia bicyclis*. A yield of 0.39 mg/g was achieved with 90% ethanol, 110°C, 1500 psi, for 5 minutes of extraction static time. This was close to the predicted statistical experimental yield of 0.42 mg/g.

Supercritical Carbon Dioxide Extraction Supercritical carbon dioxide extraction is another green chemical method with potential for commercial seaweed applications. Sivagnanam *et al.* (2015) extracted fucoxanthin from the brown seaweeds *Sargassum horneri* and *Saccharina japonica* using supercritical CO₂ with ethanol as a co-solvent (SC-CO₂E) for 2 hours at 45 °C in a semi-batch flow extraction process. SC-CO₂E extraction yield of fucoxanthin from *S. horneri* was 0.77 mg/g, compared to only 0.71 mg/g from traditional acetone- methanol extraction. SC-CO₂E extraction fucoxanthin yield from *S. japonica* was 0.41 mg/g, close to the acetone-methanol extraction yield of 0.48 mg/g. An *in vitro* hydrogen peroxide scavenging antioxidant activity assay showed the SC-CO₂E fucoxanthin extracts from *S. horneri* and *S. japonica* had significantly greater activity, or maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀ value), than acetone-methanol, hexane, or ethanol extracts. The IC₅₀ values of the SC-CO₂E extracted *S. horneri* fucoxanthin (686 µg/mL) and *S. japonica* (600 µg/mL) were significantly greater than that of an ascorbic acid standard (448 µg/mL). SC-CO₂E fucoxanthin extracts from both species were also found to exert

angiotensin I-converting enzyme inhibitory effects *in vitro* comparable with those of the acetone-methanol extract.

Quitain *et al.* (2013) used supercritical carbon dioxide extraction with *Undaria pinnatifida*, combined with a microwave pre-treatment, to disrupt the cell membrane. Yields equivalent to 80% of those obtained with traditional solvent-based methods were reported using 40MPa, for 180 minutes, at 40 °C, without producing any chemical waste. Roh *et al.* (2008) extracted fucoxanthin and polyphenols from *Undaria pinnatifida* using supercritical carbon dioxide, with ethanol as a co-solvent. However, fucoxanthin yields were significantly lower than those obtained with solvent extracts, ranging from 0.00048 to 0.00753 µg/g. Optimum supercritical extraction was achieved after 50 minutes with a flow rate of 28.17 g CO₂/min, 2 mL/min ethanol, at a pressure of 200 bar, and a temperature of 323 K (49.85°C). Subramanian *et al.* (2013) optimised a novel, ultrasound-assisted extraction method, using *Sargassum muticum*. Fucoxanthin yields of 0.613 mg/g were reported with optimum parameters of 70% ethanol, at 80 °C, for 10 minutes, at an amplitude of 78 W, with a solid to solvent ratio of 1:5 w/v g/mL.

Microwave-Assisted Extraction

Xiao *et al.* (2012) developed a rapid (75 minute) microwave-assisted extraction method combined with high-speed counter-current chromatography, with a two-phase solvent system of hexane-ethyl acetate-ethanol-water (5:5:6:4, v/v/v/v). Fucoxanthin yields close to those of traditional methods were obtained from *Saccharina japonica* (0.83 mg/g), *Undaria pinnatifida* (1.09 mg), and *Sargassum*

fusiforme (0.20 mg/g). HPLC showed the extracts to have a minimum purity of 90%.

Enzymatic Extraction

Fucoxanthin extraction through the application of targeted enzymes, such as cellulases, has the potential to increase yield and safety. The presence of branched, sulphated, or complex polysaccharides, such as alginate and laminarin, in algal cell walls limits the efficiency of classic extraction methods (Kim 2011c; Kim and Chojnacka 2015). Enzymolysis, i.e., the hydrolysis (of cell wall polysaccharides) with enzymes, should, in theory, aid in degradation of the wall and release of the pigment-containing chloroplasts within. Enzyme-assisted extraction has already been used successfully to increase carotenoid yields from terrestrial plants, such as lycopene from tomatoes. Zuorroa *et al.* (2011) reported an 8 to 18-fold increase in lycopene yield from tomato processing waste (skins) in pectinase and cellulase pre-treated samples, compared to hexane extraction alone. Barzana *et al.* (2002) reported a similar result for the extraction of carotenoids (primarily lutein) from marigold flowers. Typically, as much as 50% of total carotenoid yield is lost in the traditional drying and hexane extraction of marigold flowers. A pre-treatment of Pectinex, Viscozyme, Neutrase, Corolase, and HT-Proteolytic commercial enzymes was used to significantly reduce the volume of hexane required, and completely eliminate the drying and silage steps that cause degradation of the carotenoids. Carotenoid yields of $\geq 85\%$ were recovered from the marigold flowers in simple stirring vessels. Barzana *et al.* (2002) hypothesised that if cost were no barrier,

the hexane could be omitted entirely, and enzymes alone, with the correct parameters, would achieve the same yield.

In the extraction of algal bioactives such as antioxidants, polysaccharides, carotenoids, and polyphenols, the use of enzymes has shown significant potential as a viable alternative, or addition, to pure solvent methods (Je *et al.* 2009; Rhein-Knudsen *et al.* 2015; Wijesinghe and Jeon 2012). Heo *et al.* (2005) extracted water-soluble antioxidant compounds from *Sargassum*, *Ecklonia*, *Ishige*, and *Schytosiphon* genera using proteases (Neutrase, Protamex, Alcalase, Flavourzyme, and Kojizyme) and carbohydrate- degrading enzymes (Celluclast, Viscozyme, AMG, Ultraflo, and Termamyl). *In vitro* hydrogen peroxide scavenging activity assays showed the majority of the enzyme extracts had significantly greater activity than the commercial synthetic antioxidants α -tocopherol, butylated hydroxyanisole (BHA), and butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT). For example, the hydrogen peroxide scavenging activity of Ultraflo-extracted *Sargassum horneri* was 92.69%, and Kojizyme-extracted *Ishige okamurae* 96.27%, compared to only 50.32% for BHT, 67.37% for BHA, and 64.11% for α -tocopherol.

Ko *et al.* (2010) significantly increased the antioxidant activity of *Sargassum coreanum* extracts using Celluclast and Neutrase commercial enzymes. Celluclast is a cellulase derived from the fungus *Trichoderma reesei* which hydrolyses (1,4)- β -D-glucosidic linkages in cellulose and other β -D-glucans, forming cellobiose glucose and other glucose polymers (Sigma-Aldrich 2015b). Neutrase is a metalloprotease derived from *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*. Similar

to thermolysin, it hydrolyses proteins into peptides (Nagodawithana and Reed 2013). The *S. coreanum* Neutrase and Celluclast extracts had significantly greater DPPH and hydrogen peroxide radical scavenging activities compared to eight other proteases and cellulases studied. The *S. coreanum* extracts were screened for cancer cell inhibition and found to suppress the growth of HL-60 cells through apoptosis (Ko *et al.* 2012). Ahn *et al.* (2012) reported obtaining antioxidant-rich extracts from the chlorophyte (green alga) *Enteromorpha prolifera* using the protease Protamex and the carbohydrase mix Viscozyme. The extracts contained up to 8.4 mg/g total flavonoids and 4.5 mg/g total polyphenols. Other *E. prolifera* extracts were produced using Flavourzyme, an exopeptidase that hydrolyses N-terminal peptide bonds, and Promozyme, a pullulanase (α -dextrin endo-1,6- α -glucosidase) derived from *Bacillus acidopullulyticus* (Mehta *et al.* 2012). The Flavourzyme and Promozyme extracts were found to have a significant angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitory effect at concentrations of 1.0 mg/mL. No toxicity was exerted by any of the enzyme-assisted extracts in RAW264.7 cell cytotoxicity tests.

Little has been published on the use of enzymes for fucoxanthin extraction specifically. Billakanti *et al.* (2013) reported a significant increase (9.3%) in fucoxanthin extraction yields from wakame (*Undaria pinnatifida*) using alginate lyase derived from *Flavobacterium multivorum* as a pre-processing step, followed by dimethyl ether and ethanol extraction, compared to untreated pre-processing. Optimum enzyme pre-treatment parameters were found to be 37 °C, for 2 hours, at pH 6.2, 5% (w/v) solids, with 0.05 wt% enzyme using continuous mixing. Centrifugation was used to separate hydrophilic hydrolysis

products from the residual seaweed biomass. Alginate lyase, also known as mannuronate lyase, may have succeeded here where other enzymes have little effect due to its ability to catalyse the hydrolysis of alginate in the cell wall into smaller oligosaccharides, aiding extraction of fucoxanthin from the chloroplasts. Alginate lyase cleaves β -(1-4)-D-mannuronic bonds to yield oligosaccharides with 4-deoxy- α -L-erythro-hex-4-enopyranuronosyl groups at the non-reducing terminus (Sigma-Aldrich 2015b). Enzymes such as cellulose, protease or pectinase cannot break the glycosidic bonds specific to the β -D-mannuronate in alginate polysaccharides that occur in macroalgae (Sho *et al.* 2010).

Currently, this research institute (Dublin Institute of Technology, Ireland) is screening a number of commercially available Irish seaweed species for their fucoxanthin content, using novel extraction technologies. The species under investigation include wild Atlantic wakame (*Alaria esculenta*), bladderwrack (*Fucus vesiculosus*), channelled wrack (*Pelvetia canaliculata*), knotted wrack (*Ascophyllum nodosum*), oarweed (*Laminaria digitata*), sea rod (*Laminaria hyperborea*), sea spaghetti (*Himanthalia elongata*), serrated wrack (*Fucus serratus*), furbellows (*Saccorhiza polyschides*), and sugar kelp (*Saccharina latissima*).

Conclusion

Fucoxanthin is a bioactive compound found in one of the most prolific and sustainable organisms on the planet, alga (Mohamed *et al.* 2012; Werner *et al.* 2004). Its efficacy and potential in terms of health applications have been widely reported in clinical studies. However, further human clinical trials are necessary

to determine the safety and required daily dosage of fucoxanthin. Technical modifications, such as encapsulation, and sensory trials must be undertaken before fucoxanthin can be successfully utilised as a functional food ingredient. Factors to consider include solubility in the food matrix, organoleptic effects, stability, preservation against oxidation, consumer acceptability, bioavailability, and toxicity risk. The current, prohibitive cost of fucoxanthin must also be addressed. Possible solutions may include the development of more efficient and greener extraction technologies, which require shorter extraction times and less solvent, and have a more specific and higher extraction yield. The sustainability of potential seaweed cultivars must be assessed before large-scale harvesting, to ensure the preservation of this precious marine resource.

© 2018 John Wiley & Sons Ltd. Published 2018 by John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

References

- Abidov, M., Ramazanov, Z., Seifulla, R. and Grachev, S. (2010) The effects of Xanthigen in the weight management of obese premenopausal women with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and normal liver fat. *Diabet. Obesity Metab.*, 12: 72.
- Ahn, C.B., Park, P.J. and Je, J.Y. (2012) Preparation and biological evaluation of enzyme-assisted extracts from edible seaweed (*Enteromorpha prolifera*) as antioxidant, anti-acetylcholinesterase and inhibition of lipopolysaccharide-induced nitric oxide production in murine macrophages. *Int. J. Food Sci. Nutr.*, 63(2): 187–93.
- Alasalvar, C., Miyashita, K., Shahidi, F. and Wanasundara, U. (2011) *Handbook of Seafood Quality, Safety and Health Applications*. Hoboken: John Wiley and Sons.

Alibaba (2015) *Fucoxanthin Manufacturers and Suppliers Directory*. Available at:

www.alibaba.com/products/F0/extract_fucoxanthin.html?spm=a2700.7724838.0.0.9B9Vz (accessed 27 April 2017).

Bagchi, D. and Preuss, H.G. (2012) *Obesity: Epidemiology, Pathophysiology, and Prevention*, 2nd edn. Boca Raton: CRC Press.

Barzana, E., Rubio, D., Santamaria, R.I. et al. (2002) Enzyme-mediated solvent extraction of carotenoids from marigold flower (*Tagetes erecta*). *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 50: 4491–4496.

Beppu, F., Niwano, Y., Tsukui, T., Hosokawa, M. and Miyashita, K. (2009) Single and repeated oral dose toxicity study of fucoxanthin (FX), a marine carotenoid, in mice. *J. Toxicol. Sci.*, 34(5): 501–510.

Billakanti, J.M., Catchpole, O., Fenton, T. and Mitchell, K. (2013) Enzyme-assisted extraction of fucoxanthin and lipids containing polyunsaturated fatty acids from *Undaria pinnatifida* using dimethylether and ethanol. *Process Biochem.*, 48: 1999–2008.

Brodie, J. and Lewis, J. (2007) *Unravelling the Algae: The Past, Present, and Future of Algal Systematics*. Systematics Association Special Volumes. Boca Raton: CRC Press.

Campbell, S.J., Bite, J.S. and Burridge, T.R. (1999) Seasonal patterns in the photosynthetic capacity, tissue pigment and nutrient content of different developmental stages of *Undaria pinnatifida* (Phaeophyta: Laminariales) in Port Phillip Bay, south-eastern Australia. *Botan. Mar.*, 42: 231–241.

Cavalier-Smith, T. and Chao, E. (2006) Phylogeny and megasystematics of phagotrophic heterokonts (kingdom Chromista). *J. Mol. Evol.*, 62(4): 388–420.

Chemspider (2015) *Fucoxanthin*. Available at: <http://www.chemspider.com/Chemical-Structure.21864745.html> (accessed 22 April 2017).

Dai, J., Kim, S.M., Shin, I.S. et al. (2014) Preparation and stability of fucoxanthin-loaded microemulsions. *J. Indust. Eng. Chem.*, 20(4): 2103–2110.

- Dandona, P., Aljada, A., Chaudhuri, A., Mohanty, P. and Garg, R. (2005) Review. Metabolic syndrome: a comprehensive perspective based on interactions between obesity, diabetes, and inflammation. *Circulation*, 111(11): 1448–1454.
- De Campos, V., Ricci-Junior, E. and Mansur, C. (2012) Nanoemulsions as delivery systems for lipophilic drugs. *J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol.*, 12(3): 2881–2890.
- Di Valentin, M., Meneghin, E., Orian, L. et al. (2013) Triplet–triplet energy transfer in fucoxanthin-chlorophyll protein from diatom *Cyclotella meneghiniana*: insights into the structure of the complex. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta Bioenerget.*, 1827(10): 1226–1234.
- Dominguez, H. (2013) *Functional Ingredients from Algae for Foods and Nutraceuticals*. Cambridge: Woodhead Publishing. D’Orazio, N., Gemello, E., Gammone, M.A., de Girolamo, M., Ficoneri, C. and Riccioni, G. (2012) Fucoxanthin: a treasure from the sea. *Marine Drugs*, 3: 604–616.
- Englert, G., Bjornland, T. and Liaaen-Jensen, S. (1990) 1D and 2D NMR study of some allenic carotenoids of the fucoxanthin series. *Magn. Reson. Chem.*, 28: 519–528.
- European Food Safety Authority (2009) Scientific opinion on the substantiation of health claims related to *Undaria pinnatifida* (Harvey) Suringar and maintenance or achievement of a normal body weight (ID 2345) pursuant to Article 13(1) of Regulation (EC) No 1924/2006. *EFSA J.*, 7(9): 1302.
- Fung, A. (2012) The fucoxanthin content and antioxidant properties of *Undaria pinnatifida* from Marlborough Sound, New Zealand. MAppSc thesis, Auckland University of Technology.
- Fung, A., Hamid, N. and Lu, J. (2013) Fucoxanthin content and antioxidant properties of *Undaria pinnatifida*. *Food Chem.*, 136: 1055–1062.
- Gammone, M.A. and d’Orazio, N. (2015) Anti-obesity activity of the marine carotenoid fucoxanthin. *Marine Drugs*, 13(4): 2196–2114.
- Gorusupudi, A. and Baskaran, V. (2013) Wheat germ oil: a potential facilitator to improve lutein bioavailability in mice. *Nutrition*, 29(5): 790–795.

- Goss, R. and Jakob, T. (2010) Review. Regulation and function of xanthophyll cycle-dependent photoprotection in algae. *Photosynth. Res.*, 106(1-2): 103–122.
- Ha, A.W., Na, S.J. and Kim, W.K. (2013) Antioxidant effects of fucoxanthin rich powder in rats fed with high fat diet. *Nutr. Res. Pract.*, 7(6): 475–480.
- Haugan, J. and Liaaen-Jensen, S. (1994) Algal carotenoids 54. Carotenoids of brown algae (*Phaeophyceae*). *Biochem. Systemat. Ecol.*, 22(1): 31–41.
- Health Products Regulatory Authority (2015) *Herbal Medicines*. Available at: www.hpra.ie/homepage/medicines/regulatory-information/medicines-authorisation/herbal-medicines (accessed 22 April 2017).
- Heffernan, N., Smyth, T.J., Fitzgerald, R.J., Soler-Vila, A. and Brunton, N. (2014) Antioxidant activity and phenolic content of pressurised liquid and solid–liquid extracts from four Irish origin macroalgae. *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.*, 49: 1765–1772.
- Heo, S.J. and Jeon, Y.J. (2009) Protective effect of fucoxanthin isolated from *Sargassum siliquastrum* on UV-B induced cell damage. *J. Photochem. Photobiol. B*, 95(2): 101–107.
- Heo, S.J., Park, E.J., Lee, K.W. and Jeon, Y.J. (2005) Antioxidant activities of enzymatic extracts from brown seaweeds. *Bioresource Technol.*, 96: 1613–1623.
- Heo, S.J., Yoon, W., Kim, K. et al. (2010) Evaluation of anti-inflammatory effect of fucoxanthin isolated from brown algae in lipopolysaccharide-stimulated RAW 264.7 macrophages. *Food Chem. Toxicol.*, (8-9): 2045–2051.
- Holdt, S. and Kraan, S. (2011) Bioactive compounds in seaweed: functional food applications and legislation. *J. Appl. Phycol.*, 23: 543–598.
- Hosokawa, M., Wanezaki, S., Miyauchi, K. et al. (1999) Apoptosis-inducing effect of fucoxanthin on human leukaemia cell line HL-60. *Food Sci. Technol. Res.*, 5: 243–246.
- Hosokawa, M., Miyashita, T., Nishikawa, S. et al. (2010) Fucoxanthin regulates adipocytokine mRNA expression in white adipose tissue of diabetic/obese KK-Ay mice. *Arch. Biochem.*, 504: 17–25.

- Hurd, C.L., Harrison, P.J., Bischof, K. and Lobban, C.S. (2014) *Seaweed Ecology and Physiology*, 2nd edn. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hurst, W.J. (2002) *Methods of Analysis for Functional Foods and Nutraceuticals*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Ikeda, K., Kitamura, A., Machida, H. et al. (2003) Effect of *Undaria pinnatifida* (Wakame) on the development of cerebrovascular diseases in stroke-prone spontaneously hypertensive rats. *Clin. Exper. Pharmacol. Physiol.*, 30: 44–48.
- Indrawati, R., Sukowijoyo, H., Indriatmoko, I., Wijayanti, R.D. and Limantara, L. (2015) Encapsulation of brown seaweed pigment by freeze drying: characterization and its stability during storage. *Procedia Chem.*, 14: 353–360.
- Jaswir, I., Noviendri, D., Salleh, H.M., Taher, M. and Miyashita, K. (2011) Isolation of fucoxanthin and fatty acids analysis of *Padina australis* and cytotoxic effect of fucoxanthin on human lung cancer (H1299) cell lines. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.*, 10(81): 18855–18862.
- Je, J.Y., Park, P.J., Kim, E.K., Park, J.S., Yoon, H.D., Kim, K.R. and Ahn, C.B. (2009) Antioxidant activity of enzymatic extracts from the brown seaweed *Undaria pinnatifida* by electron spin resonance spectroscopy. *LWT Food Sci. Technol.*, 42: 874–878.
- Jung, H.A., Islam, M.N., Lee, C.M. et al. (2013) Kinetics and molecular docking studies of an anti-diabetic complication inhibitor fucosterol from edible brown algae *Eisenia bicyclis* and *Ecklonia stolonifera*. *Chem. Biol. Interact.*, 206(1): 55–62.
- Kadekaru, T., Toyama, H. and Yasumoto, T. (2008) Safety evaluation of fucoxanthin purified from *Undaria pinnatifida*. *J. Jpn. Soc. Food Sci.*, 55: 304–308.
- Kanazawa, K., Ozaki, Y., Hashimoto, T. et al. (2008) Commercial-scale preparation of biofunctional fucoxanthin from waste parts of brown sea algae *Laminaria japonica*. *Food Sci. Technol. Res.*, 14(6): 573–582.
- Kanda, H., Kamo, Y., Machmudah, S., Wahyudiono, E.Y. and Goto, M. (2014) Extraction of fucoxanthin from raw macroalgae excluding drying and cell

wall disruption by liquefied dimethyl ether. *Marine Drugs*, 12(5): 2383–2396.

- Kawee-ai, A., Kuntiya, A. and Kim, S.M. (2013) Anticholinesterase and antioxidant activities of fucoxanthin purified from the microalga *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*. *Nat. Prod. Commun.*, 8(10): 1381–1386.
- Kim, K.N., Heo, S.J., Kang, S.M., Ahn, G. and Jeon, Y.J. (2010) Fucoxanthin induces apoptosis in human leukaemia HL-60 cells through a ROS-mediated Bcl-xL pathway. *Toxicol. in Vitro*, 24(6): 1648–1654.
- Kim, S.K. (2011a) *Marine Medicinal Foods: Implications and Application- Macro and Microalgae*. Advances in Food and Nutrition Research, Volume 64. San Diego: Academic Press.
- Kim, S.K. (2011b) *Marine Cosmeceuticals: Trends and Prospects*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Kim, S.K. (2011c) *Handbook of Marine Macroalgae Biotechnology and Applied Phycology*. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons Ltd.
- Kim, S.K. (2013) *Marine Nutraceuticals: Prospects and Perspectives*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Kim, S.K. and Chojnacka, K. (2015) *Marine Algae Extracts: Processes, Products, and Applications*. Hoboken: Wiley VCH.
- Kim, S.M., Shang, Y.F. and Um, B.H. (2011) A preparative method for isolation of fucoxanthin from *Eisenia bicyclis* by centrifugal partition chromatography. *Phytochem. Anal.*, 22: 322–329.
- Kita, S., Fujii, R., Cogdell, R.J. and Hashimoto, H. (2015) Characterization of fucoxanthin aggregates in mesopores of silica gel: electronic absorption and circular dichroism spectroscopies. *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem.*, 313: 3–8.
- Ko, S.C., Kang, S.M., Ahn, G.N., Yang, H.P., Kim, K.N. and Jeon, Y.J. (2010) Antioxidant activity of enzymatic extracts from *Sargassum coreanum*. *J. Korean Soc. Food Sci. Nutr.*, 39(4): 494–499.

- Ko, S.C., Lee, S.H., Ahn, G. et al. (2012) Effect of enzyme-assisted extract of *Sargassum coreanum* on induction of apoptosis in HL-60 tumor cells. *J. Appl. Phycol.*, 24(4): 675–684.
- Kotake-Nara, E. and Nagao, A. (2011) Absorption and metabolism of xanthophylls. *Marine Drugs*, 9: 1024–1037.
- Kotake-Nara, E., Kushiro, M., Zhang, H., Sagawara, T., Miyashita, K. and Nagao, A. (2001) Carotenoids affect proliferation of human prostate cancer cells. *J. Nutr.*, 131: 3303–3306.
- Kyndt, J. and d’Silva, A. (2013) *Algae Coloring the Future Green*, 2nd edn. Tucson: Moura Enterprises LLC.
- Landrum, J.T. (2009) *Carotenoids: Physical, Chemical, and Biological Functions and Properties*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Lee, S., Lee, Y.S., Jung, S.H., Kang, S.S. and Shin, K.H. (2003) Anti-oxidant activities of fucosterol from the marine algae *Pelvetia siliquosa*. *Arch. Pharmacol. Res.*, 26(9): 719–722.
- Liechty, W.B., Kryscio, D.R., Slaughter, B.V. and Peppas, N.A. (2010) Polymers for drug delivery systems. *Annu. Rev. Chem. Biomol. Eng.*, 1:149–173.
- Lobban, C.S. and Wynne, M.J. (1981) *The Biology of Seaweeds*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Maeda, H., Hosokawa, M., Sashima, T., Funayama, K. and Miyashita, K. (2005) Fucoxanthin from edible seaweed, *Undaria pinnatifida*, shows antiobesity effect through UCP1 expression in white adipose tissues. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 332(2): 392–397.
- Maeda, H., Hosokawa, M., Sashima, T., Takahashi, N., Kawada, T. and Miyashita, K. (2006) Fucoxanthin and its metabolite, fucoxanthinol, suppress adipocyte differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells. *Int. J. Mol. Med.*, 18: 147–152.
- Maeda, H., Hosokawa, M., Sashima, T. and Miyashita, K. (2007) Dietary combination of fucoxanthin and fish oil attenuates the weight gain of white adipose tissue and decreases blood glucose in obese/diabetic KK-Ay mice. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 55: 7701–7706.

- McClements, D.J., Decker, E.A. and Park, Y. (2009a) Controlling lipid bioavailability through physicochemical and structural approaches. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.*, 49: 48–67.
- McClements, D.J., Decker, E.A., Park, Y. and Weiss, J. (2009b) Structural design principles for delivery of bioactive components in nutraceuticals and functional foods. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.*, 49: 577–606.
- Mehta, B.M., Kamal-Eldin, A. and Iwanski, R.Z. (2012) *Fermentation: Effects on Food Properties*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Mikami, K. and Hosokawa, M. (2013) Biosynthetic pathway and health benefits of fucoxanthin, an algae-specific xanthophyll in brown seaweeds. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.*, 14(7): 13763–13768.
- Mise, T., Ueda, M. and Yasumoto, T. (2011) Production of fucoxanthin-rich powder from *Cladosiphon okamuranus*. *Adv. J. Food Sci. Technol.*, 3: 73–76.
- Miyashita, K. and Hosokawa, M. (2007) Beneficial health effects of seaweed carotenoid, fucoxanthin. In: Barrow, C. and Shahidi, F. (eds) *Marine Nutraceuticals and Functional Foods*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, pp. 297–319.
- Miyashita, K., Nishikawa, S., Beppu, F., Tsukui, T., Abe, M. and Hosokawa, M. (2011) The allenic carotenoid fucoxanthin, a novel marine nutraceutical from brown seaweeds. *J. Sci. Food Agric.*, 91(7): 1166–1174.
- Mohamed, S., Hashim, S.N. and Rahman, H.A. (2012) Seaweeds: a sustainable functional food for complementary and alternative therapy. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.*, 23(2): 83–96.
- Mori, K., Ooi, T., Hiraoka, M. et al. (2004) Fucoxanthin and its metabolites in edible brown algae cultivated in deep seawater. *Marine Drugs*, 2(2): 63–72.
- Morrissey, J., Kraan, S. and Guiry, M. (2001) *A Guide to Commercially Important Seaweeds on the Irish Coast*. Dun Laoghaire: Bord Iascaigh Mhara.
- Nagodawithana, T. and Reed, G. (2013) *Enzymes in Food Processing*. London: Academic Press.

- Nakazawa, Y., Sashima, T., Hosokawa, M. and Miyashita, K. (2009) Comparative evaluation of growth inhibitory effect of stereoisomers of fucoxanthin in human cancer cell lines. *J. Funct. Foods*, 1: 88–97.
- Nishida, Y., Yamashita, E. and Miki, W. (2007) Quenching activities of common hydrophilic and lipophilic antioxidants against singlet oxygen using chemiluminescence detection system. *Carotenoid Sci.*, 11: 16–20.
- Nomura, T., Kikuchi, M., Kubodera, A. and Kawakami, Y. (1997) Protondonative antioxidant activity of fucoxanthin with 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH). *Biochem. Mol. Biol. Int.*, 42(2): 361–370.
- Olenina, I., Hajdu, S., Edler, L. et al. (2006) Biovolumes and size-classes of phytoplankton in the Baltic Sea HELCOM. *Balt. Sea Environ. Proc.*, 106: 144.
- Oryza (2015) *Fucoxanthin: Dietary Ingredient for Prevention of Metabolic Syndrome and Beauty Enhancement*. Available at: www.oryza.co.jp/pdf/english/Fucoxanthin_1.0.pdf.
- O'Sullivan, A.M.N. (2013) Cellular and *in-vitro* models to assess antioxidant activities of seaweed extracts and the potential use of the extracts as ingredients. PhD thesis, University College Cork.
- Peng, J., Yuan, J.P., Wu, C.F. and Wang, J.H. (2011) Fucoxanthin, a marine carotenoid present in brown seaweeds and diatoms: metabolism and bioactivities relevant to human health. *Marine Drugs*, 9(10): 1806–1828.
- Prabhasankar, P., Ganesan, P., Bhaskar, N., Hirose, A., Stephen, N. and Gowda, L.R. (2009) Edible Japanese seaweed, wakame (*Undaria pinnatifida*) as an ingredient in pasta: chemical, functional and structural evaluation. *Food Chem.*, 115(2): 501–508.
- Pyszniak, A.M. and Gibbs, S.P. (1992) Immunocytochemical localization of photosystem I and the fucoxanthin-chlorophyll a/c light-harvesting complex in the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*. *Protoplasma*, 166: 208–217.
- Quan, J., Kim, S.M., Pan, C.H. and Chung, D. (2013) Characterization of fucoxanthin-loaded microspheres composed of cetyl palmitate-based solid lipid core and fish gelatin–gum arabic coacervate shell. *Food Res. Int.*, 50(1): 31–37.

- Quitain, A.T., Kai, T., Sasaki, M. and Goto, M. (2013) Supercritical carbon dioxide extraction of fucoxanthin from *Undaria pinnatifida*. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 61(24): 5792–5797.
- Ramus, J., Lemons, F. and Zimmerman, C. (1977) Adaptation of light-harvesting pigments to downwelling light and the consequent photosynthetic performance of the eulittoral rockweeds *Ascophyllum nodosum* and *Fucus vesiculosus*. *Marine Biol.*, 42(4): 293–303.
- Ravi, H. and Baskaran, V. (2015) Biodegradable chitosan-glycolipid hybrid nanogels: a novel approach to encapsulate fucoxanthin for improved stability and bioavailability. *Food Hydrocoll.*, 43: 717–725.
- Rhein-Knudsen, N., Ale, M.T. and Meyer, A.S. (2015) Seaweed hydrocolloid production: an update on enzyme assisted extraction and modification technologies. *Marine Drugs*, 13(6): 3340–3359.
- Rodrigues, E., Lilian, R., Mariutti, B. and Mercadante, A.Z. (2012) Scavenging capacity of marine carotenoids against reactive oxygen and nitrogen species in a membrane-mimicking system. *Marine Drugs*, 10(8): 1784–1798.
- Roh, M.K., Uddin, M.S. and Chun, B.S. (2008) Extraction of fucoxanthin and polyphenol from *Undaria pinnatifida* using supercritical carbon dioxide with cosolvent. *Biotechnol. Bioprocess Eng.*, 13: 724–729.
- Ryan, R. (2014) *Opportunity for Significant Growth in Seaweed Sales*. Irish Examiner. Available at: www.irishexaminer.com/farming/opportunity-for-significant-growth-in-seaweed-sales-299294.html (accessed 22 April 2017).
- Sangeetha, R.K., Bhaskar, N., Divakar, S. and Baskaran, V. (2010) Bioavailability and metabolism of fucoxanthin in rats: structural characterization of metabolites by LC-MS (APCI). *Mol. Cell. Chem.*, 333(1-2): 299–310.
- Satomi, Y. and Nishino, H. (2013) Inhibition of the enzyme activity of cytochrome P450 1A1, 1A2 and 3A4 by fucoxanthin, a marine carotenoid. *Oncol. Lett.*, 6(3): 860–864.

- Shang, Y.F., Kim, S.M., Lee, W.J. and Um, B.H. (2011) Pressurized liquid method for fucoxanthin extraction from *Eisenia bicyclis* (Kjellman) Setchell. *J. Biosci. Bioeng.*, 111(2): 237–241.
- Shiratori, K., Ohgami, K., Ilieva, I., Jin, X.H., Koyama, Y. and Miyashita, K. (2005) Effects of fucoxanthin on lipopolysaccharide-induced inflammation *in vitro* and *in vivo*. *Exper. Eye Res.*, 81: 422–428.
- Sho, A., Sugiyama, Y., Takahashi, T., Hosokawa, M. and Miyashita, K. (2010) Novel functionality of glycolipids from brown seaweeds. Proceedings of the 101st AOCS Annual Meeting and Expo, Phoenix, Arizona, USA, 2010. Available at: www.researchgate.net/publication/283921155_Novel_functionality_of_glycolipids_from_brown_seaweeds (accessed 26 April 2017).
- Sigma-Aldrich (2015a) *F6932 SIGMA Fucoxanthin Carotenoid Antioxidant*. Available at: www.sigmaaldrich.com/catalog/product/sigma/f6932?lang=en®ion=IE (accessed 26 April 2017).
- Sigma-Aldrich (2015b) *Analysis: Enzymes, Kits and Reagents*. Available at: www.sigmaaldrich.com/content/dam/sigma-aldrich/docs/Sigma/General_Information/2/biofiles_issue8.pdf (accessed 26 April 2017).
- Sivagnanam, S.P., Yin, S., Choi, J.H. and Park, Y.B. (2015) Biological properties of fucoxanthin in oil recovered from two brown seaweeds using supercritical CO₂ extraction. *Marine Drugs*, 13: 3422–3442.
- Socaciu, C. (2007) *Food Colorants: Chemical and Functional Properties*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Stengel, D.B. and Dring, M.J. (1998) Seasonal variation in the pigment content and photosynthesis of different thallus regions of *Ascophyllum nodosum* (Fucales, Phaeophyta) in relation to position in the canopy. *Phycologia*, 37(4): 259–268.
- Subramanian, J., Baik, O.D. and Singhal, R. (2013) Optimization of ultrasound-assisted extraction of fucoxanthin from dried biomass of *Sargassum muticum*. The Canadian Society for Bioengineering Annual Conference, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Canada, 7–10 July. Paper No.

CSBE13-101. Available at: www.csbe-scgab.ca/docs/meetings/2013/CSBE13101.pdf (accessed 26 April 2017).

Suhendra, L., Raharjo, S., Hastuti, P. and Hidayat, C. (2012) Formulation and stability of o/w microemulsion as fucoxanthin delivery. *Agritech*, 32(3): 230–239.

Terasaki, M., Hirose, A., Narayan, B., Baba, Y., Kawagoe, C. and Yasui, H. (2009) Evaluation of recoverable functional lipid components of several brown seaweeds (*Phaeophyta*) from Japan with special reference to fucoxanthin and fucosterol contents. *J. Phycol.*, 45(4): 974–980.

United States Department of Agriculture, Research, Education, and Economics Information System (2015) *Optimization of the Extraction of Fucoxanthin and Its Potential as an Antiobesity Functional Food*. Available at: <https://portal.nifa.usda.gov/web/crisprojectpages/0225483-optimization-of-the-extraction-of-fucoxanthin-and-its-potential-as-an-antiobesity-functional-food.html> (accessed 26 April 2017).

United States Food and Drug Administration (2014) *Code of Federal Regulations Title 21 Part 101, Sec. 101.93 Certain types of statements for dietary supplements. Food Labeling, Subpart F - Specific Requirements for Descriptive Claims That Are Neither Nutrient Content Claims nor Health Claims*. Available at: www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/cdrh/cfdocs/cfcfr/CFRSearch.cfm?fr=101.93 (accessed 22 April 2017).

Urikura, I., Sugawara, T. and Hirata, T. (2011) Protective effect of fucoxanthin against UVB-induced skin photoaging in hairless mice. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.*, 75(4): 757–760.

Uzun, H., Zengin, K., Taskin, M., Aydin, S., Simsek, G. and Dariyerli, N. (2004) Changes in leptin, plasminogen activator factor and oxidative stress in morbidly obese patients following open and laparoscopic Swedish adjustable gastric banding *Obes. Surg.*, 14(5): 659–665.

Venugopal, V. (2011) *Marine Polysaccharides: Food Applications*. Boca Raton: CRC Press.

Wang, S.K., Li, Y., Lindsey White, W. and Lu, J. (2014) Extracts from New Zealand *Undaria pinnatifida* containing fucoxanthin as potential functional biomaterials against cancer *in vitro*. *J. Funct. Biomaterials*, 5: 29–42.

- Watson, L. and Walsh, M. (2012) *A Market Analysis towards the Further Development of Seaweed Aquaculture in Ireland*. Dun Laoghaire: Bord Iascaigh Mhara.
- Watson, R. (2014) *Nutrition in the Prevention and Treatment of Abdominal Obesity*. New York: Elsevier.
- Watson, R., Preedy, V.R. and Zibadi, S. (2013) *Polyphenols in Human Health and Disease*. San Diego: Academic Press.
- Werner, A., Clarke, D. and Kraan, S. (2004) *Strategic Review of the Feasibility of Seaweed Aquaculture in Ireland*. Galway: Marine Institute.
- Wijesinghe, W.A. and Jeon, Y.J. (2012) Enzyme-assisted extraction (EAE) of bioactive components: a useful approach for recovery of industrially important metabolites from seaweeds: a review. *Fitoterapia*, 83: 6–12.
- Willstätter, R. and Page, H.J. (1914) Chlorophyll. XXIV. The pigments of the brown algae. *Justus Liebig's Annalen der Chemie*, 404: 237–271.
- Wright, S.W. and Jeffrey, S.W. (1987) Fucoxanthin pigment markers of marine phytoplankton analysed by HPLC and HPTLC. *Marine Ecol. Progr. Series*, 38: 259–266.
- Xia, S., Wang, K., Wan, L., Li, A., Hu, Q. and Zhang, C. (2013) Production, characterization, and antioxidant activity of fucoxanthin from the marine diatom *Odontella aurita*. *Marine Drugs*, 11(7): 2667–2681.
- Xiao, X., Si, X., Yuan, Z., Xu, X. and Li, G. (2012) Isolation of fucoxanthin from edible brown algae by microwave-assisted extraction coupled with high-speed countercurrent chromatography. *J. Separation Sci.*, 35: 2313–2317.
- Yan, X., Chuda, Y., Suzuki, M. and Nagata, T. (1999) Fucoxanthin as the major antioxidant in *Hizikia fusiformis*, a common edible seaweed. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.*, 63(3): 605–607.
- Zaragoza, M.C., Lopez, D., Saiz, M.P. et al. (2008) Toxicity and antioxidant activity *in vitro* and *in vivo* of two *Fucus vesiculosus* extracts. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 56(17): 7773–7780.

Zuorroa, A., Fidaleo, M. and Lavecchia, R. (2011) Enzyme-assisted extraction of lycopene from tomato processing waste. *Enzyme Microbial Technol.*, 49: 567–573.