



Research Article

Enhancement of β -Cryptoxanthin Production in Three Different Green Microalgae Species Using an Innovative Red LED Wavelength Shift Approach

Sirawit Chuechomsuk, Benjawan Thumthanaruk, Savitri Vatanyoopaisarn and Vilai Rungsardthong*
Department of Agro-Industrial, Food and Environmental Technology, Faculty of Applied Science, Food and Agro-Industrial Research Center, King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok, Bangkok, Thailand

Watcharee Kunyalung

Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research (TISTR), Khlong Luang, Pathum Thani, Thailand

Sonia Mohamadnia and Irini Angelidaki

Department of Chemical and Biochemical Engineering, Technical University of Denmark, Lyngby, Denmark

* Corresponding author. E-mail: vilai.r@sci.kmutnb.ac.th DOI: 10.14416/j.asep.2025.03.001

Received: 7 October 2024; Revised: 16 December 2024; Accepted: 20 January 2025; Published online: 10 March 2025

© 2025 King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok. All Rights Reserved.

Abstract

β -Cryptoxanthin is a natural carotenoid pigment with several important functions for human health, including antioxidant, provitamin A, and anticancer activities. Microalgae could be a potential source to produce β -cryptoxanthin instead of its production from plants. In this research study, the effect of the red light-emitting diode (LED) at wavelengths 620 to 750 nm and different intensities of 50, 100, 200, and 300 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ was evaluated for the second phase of the two-stage microalgae cultivation with three microalgae species: *Scenedesmus obliquus*, *Coelastrum morus*, and *Chlorococcum* sp. The results were focused on biomass production, β -cryptoxanthin, and total carotenoid contents to select the microalgae strain that could produce a high amount of β -cryptoxanthin under optimized light conditions. Red LED with an intensity of 200 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ resulted in the biomass production of 5.23 ± 0.27 g/L, 5.72 ± 0.25 g/L, and 5.70 ± 0.17 g/L in three microalgae species of *Scenedesmus obliquus*, *Coelastrum morus*, and *Chlorococcum* sp., respectively. In addition, when compared with 50 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ red LED, the highest β -cryptoxanthin content was obtained from the condition of the red LED at 100 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ for *S. obliquus* (229.22 ± 5.11 $\mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ DCW) and 200 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ for *C. morus* (311.01 ± 4.75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ DCW) and *Chlorococcum* sp. (383.68 ± 6.63 $\mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ DCW). The applied approach to the proper manipulation of LED color, wavelengths, and intensities in this study will enable the improvement of biomass and enhance β -cryptoxanthin production in three tested microalgae species.

Keywords: β -Cryptoxanthin, Bioactive compound, LED Artificial light, Microalgae, Stress conditions

1 Introduction

In recent years, microalgae have become a main source of high-value carotenoid products used as functional food products and food supplements [1]. Some outstanding commercial microalgae for carotenoid production are lutein from *Desmodesmus* sp., astaxanthin from *Haematococcus pluvialis*, and β -carotene from *Dunaliella salina* [2]–[5]. Microalgae cultivation has replaced the production of carotenoid

by plant because of their fast growth rate, high yield per unit area, less land use, potential cultivation in non-agricultural land, and so on [6]. However, their current biomass yield and carotenoid production efficiency still required improvement so the production cost would be reduced [7]. Therefore, the development of microalgae cultivation for high biomass and carotenoid yield is very challenging for the industrial scale production of the carotenoids.

This research presents one of the highly effective carotenoids, β -cryptoxanthin. Beta-cryptoxanthin ($C_{40}H_{56}O$) is a bioactive compound, also known as a xanthophyll carotenoid, almost like β -carotene in chemical structure and bioactivity. Despite having an additional hydroxyl group at the third carbon atom of the β -ring, β -cryptoxanthin exhibits greater polarity than β -carotene. Conjugated double bonds or chromophores in the structure of β -cryptoxanthin (Figure 1) allow it to absorb light and give plants color and photoprotection [8]–[10]. Beta-cryptoxanthin is converted to vitamin A in human serum and tissues, and it exhibits higher bio-accessibility and bioavailability than lycopene and β -carotene [11], [12]. β -Cryptoxanthin has been found to possess strong antioxidant qualities, it has also been shown to have bioactivity against cancer, diabetes, and liver disorders, reduce neuropathic pain, stimulate immunity, reduce blood pressure, and prevent bone loss [13]–[19]. β -Cryptoxanthin is also found in only some fruits and vegetables. The highest concentration of β -cryptoxanthin was detected in butternut squash at 34.71 $\mu\text{g/g}$ sample [20], [21]. Commercially available natural β -cryptoxanthin is the product from the extraction of satsuma mandarin orange (18.00 $\mu\text{g/g}$ sample). Interestingly, several microalgae, including *Scenedesmus obliquus*, *Spirulina maxima*, and *Chlorella vulgaris* could produce β -cryptoxanthin at 23.76, 20.13, and 15.05 $\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight, respectively [22], [23].

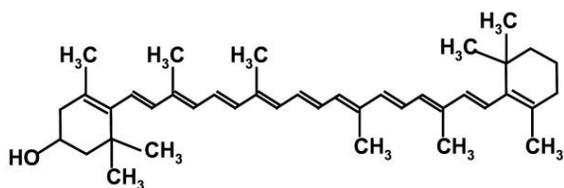


Figure 1: Chemical structure of β -cryptoxanthin.

A two-stage cultivation strategy is a generic countermeasure to maximize cell development and the creation of valuable molecules. The first stage of the strategy is devoted to optimizing biomass production, while the second stage is reserved for the accumulation of carotenoids under varying stress conditions [24]. Another important reason for using microalgae to produce carotenoids is that microalgae have strong protective defense capability against stressful environmental conditions for their cells [25]. Stress conditions such as high light intensity, temperature,

and salinity, as well as the limitation of nitrogen and phosphate, can enhance the synthesis of carotenoid and other bioactive compounds in microalgae cells [26]. Light intensity and spectrum are the major factors that effectively enhance microalgae growth curing the cultivation [24]. White, blue, and red LED were applied to enhance both biomass and β -cryptoxanthin in the two-stage culture of microalgae [27], [28]. Ma *et al.* [29] reported that blue, and red light-emitting diode (LED) light irradiation in satsuma mandarin (*Citrus unshiu* Marc.) showed that β -cryptoxanthin accumulation was induced by red light, not by blue light.

Three microalgal strains, *Scenedesmus obliquus*, *Coelastrum morus*, and *Chlorococcum* sp. were reported as high-potential strains for carotenoids production [30], [31] and *S. obliquus* showed high production of β -cryptoxanthin [23]. Our previous study reported that the use of red LEDs could potentially enhance the production of β -cryptoxanthin by three microalgae, *Scenedesmus obliquus*, *Coelastrum morus*, and *Chlorococcum* sp., approximately 29.43–33.27% higher than the use of white and blue LEDs at the same light intensity [32]. The production of β -cryptoxanthin in microalgae cultivation was confirmed with the standard liquid chromatography-high resolution mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS/MS). In this study, we aimed to enhance the production of biomass and β -cryptoxanthin with increasing red LED light intensity. The experiment started by investigating the effects of red LED with different light intensities on the production of biomass, total carotenoids, and β -cryptoxanthin in the second stage of the two-stage cultivation by three microalgae strains. The information obtained could be used for microalgae cultivation to obtain higher β -cryptoxanthin production yields, which will enable the food industry to produce a more competitive product in terms of production cost.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Chemicals

Standard of β -cryptoxanthin ($\geq 97\%$) was procured from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Sodium chloride (NaCl) and potassium hydroxide (KOH) were obtained from Sigma Aldrich, USA. 2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) was purchased from Sisco Research Laboratories Pvt. Ltd., India. The following materials were obtained from LAB-SCAN (Gliwice,

Poland): ammonium acetate, acetonitrile, methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE), methanol (MeOH), petroleum ether, and diethyl ether. MeOH and MTBE were of the high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) grade while all other reagents and chemicals used were analytical grade.

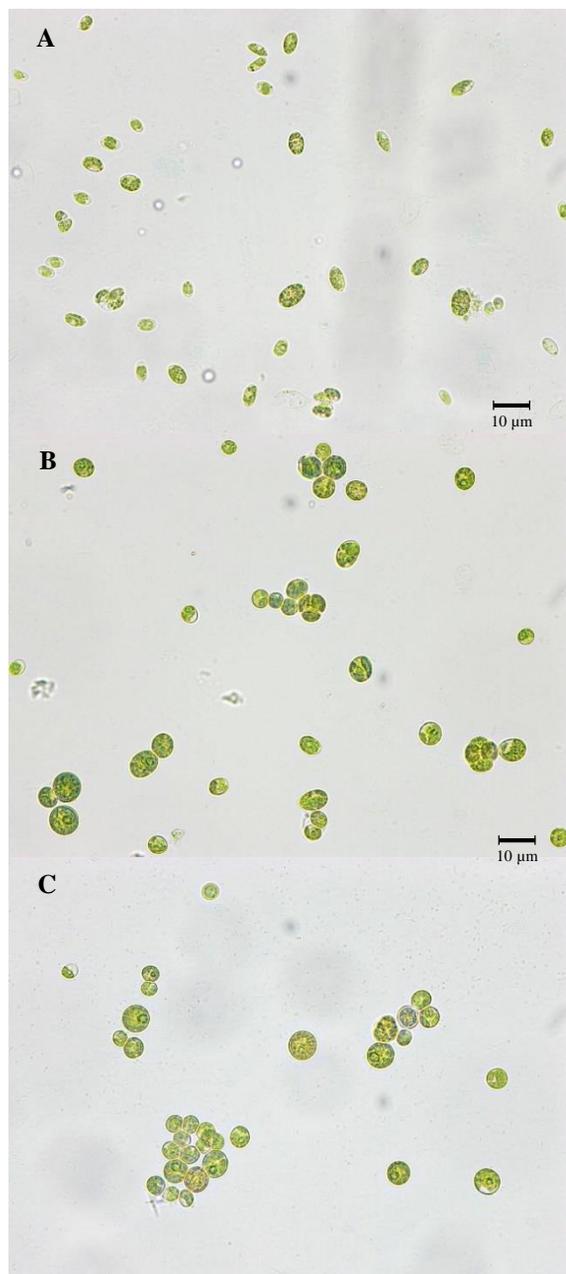


Figure 2: Three microalgae strains used for the experiment, *S. obliquus* (A), *C. morus* (B) and *Chlorococcum* sp. (C).

2.2 Microalgae strains and biomass production

Three strains of microalgae, *Scenedesmus obliquus* strain TISTR 8522, *Coelastrum morus* strain TISTR 8566 and *Chlorococcum* sp. strain TISTR 8266 were kindly provided by the algae library of Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research (TISTR). The morphology of three microalgae is presented in Figure 2. Each strain was pre-cultured at 25 °C under 10 µmol/m²/s of cool white light in 80 mL of synthetic BG11 liquid medium at pH 7 in a 250 mL Erlenmeyer flask and shaken reciprocally at 120 rpm for 5 days before the transfer to further biomass production.

Each microalgae strain was cultivated to produce cell biomass for the first stage cultivation in a laboratory bottle (1000 mL) with 800 mL of BG11 medium, using a system consisting of a rubber stopper with a glass tube, an air stone and a 0.22 µm polytetrafluoroethylene polymer (PTFE) filter. The cultivation was carried out with aeration of 0.1 air volume per culture volume per minute (vvm) for 14 days under 50 µmol/m²/s of fluorescent cool white light, a photoperiod of 12:12 (dark: light cycle illumination), at 25°C. The cell biomass was harvested by centrifugation (Hermle Z206A, Germany) with 9,000 g for 15 min at 10°C. The cell pellets were transferred to the fresh BG11 for further experiments.

The biomass was measured by a dry cell weight (DCW) method. Whatman GF/C filter papers (47 mm diameter, 1.2 µm pore size), which contain the sample were dried in a hot air oven for one hour at 80°C and overnight at 60°C. After 30 minutes in a vacuum desiccator, filter sheets were removed, and their empty weights were calculated with an analytical balance. Until constant weights were achieved, the drying and weighing processes were repeated. Pre-weighed and pre-dried filter papers were used to filter samples of homogenized cultures [33].

2.3 Effect of light intensity on total carotenoids and β-cryptoxanthin production

The second stage of the two-stage cultivation was investigated in this experiment. Light intensity for β-cryptoxanthin production was determined at 50, 100, 200, and 300 µmol/m²/s of red LED light has a wavelength of 620 to 750 nm. The inoculum at 1 g/L was used for the cultivation of all microalgae strains. The temperature was controlled at 25 °C. Three microalgae growths were measured by dry weight methods. The microalgae cell was harvested after 8



days of cultivation. The cultivation was performed in triplicate. The cell pellets were subsequently washed with distilled water before freeze-drying at $-50\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, pressure around $-175\text{ }\mu\text{mHg}$ for 24 h with a freeze-dryer (LSCplus, Germany). Then, the freeze-dried samples were kept in a freezer at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.

2.4 Carotenoids extraction and total carotenoid content analysis

β -cryptoxanthin and other carotenoid compounds were carefully extracted from each freeze-dried sample (200 mg) using a mortar and pestle, ethyl acetate, and methanol. The supernatant was centrifuged at 9,000 g for 15 minutes at $10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until it became colorless [34]. The extract was concentrated at $30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ using a vacuum rotary evaporator (BUCHI R-114, Fawil, Switzerland) after being filtered through a $0.22\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ polyethylene membrane. The concentrated extract was subsequently suspended in a 1:1 v/v petroleum ether/diethyl ether mixture and saponified for 16 h at room temperature using 10% (w/v) methanolic KOH. Washing the sample with 10% (w/v) sodium chloride eliminated the alkali.

The volume of the extract was made up of petroleum ether and measured for its absorbance at 450 nm by a spectrophotometer. Total carotenoid content ($\mu\text{g/g}$) was calculated using the following formula (Equation (1)):

$$\text{Carotenoid content} = [(A \times V \times 10^4)] / [A_{1\text{cm}}^{1\%} \times P] \quad (1)$$

where A = absorbance; V = total extract volume (mL); P = sample weight (g); $A_{1\text{cm}}^{1\%} = 2592$ (β -carotene extinction coefficient in petroleum ether). Finally, the carotenoid extract was flushed with N_2 and kept at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the dark until further analysis [35].

2.5 β -Cryptoxanthin identification and content analysis

Identification of β -cryptoxanthin from the algal cell was performed with the standard β -cryptoxanthin, using Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC system liquid chromatography-high resolution mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS/MS) following the method described by Chuechomsuk *et al.* [32]. The LC-HRMS/MS installed with an orbitrap mass analyzer system (QEXACTIVE plus, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Germany) was used for the analysis. Each compound was separated into samples by running with a Hypersil

GOLD C18 column ($100 \times 2.1\text{ mm}$, $1.9\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ Particle size, Thermo Fisher Scientific) at $37\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. The carotenoid extract from the freeze-dried sample was suspended in methanol and filtered with a $0.22\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ polyethylene membrane before analysis by LC-HRMS. The mobile phase consisted of 3 mM ammonium acetate in methanol /water (70:30, v/v; mobile phase A) and 3 mM ammonium acetate in acetonitrile/diethyl ether (99:1, v/v; mobile phase B). The linear gradient was programmed as follows: 0:00–0:20 min 100% A, 3:50–15:50 min 100% B, and 15:75–20:00 min A. The flow rate was set as 0.5 mL/min with an injection volume of $20\text{ }\mu\text{L}$.

The content analysis of β -cryptoxanthin was performed by the high-performance liquid chromatography, HPLC (KNAUER Model AZURA, Berlin, Germany) with a system consisting of a pump (AZURA P 6.1 L), a diode array detector (AZURA DAD 2.1 L), and a C30 YMC column $5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, $250 \times 4.6\text{ mm}$ (YMC America, Inc.). The mobile phase is composed of methanol (mobile phase A) and methyl tert-butyl ether (mobile phase B) in a linear gradient. A linear gradient was applied (95:5 to 70:30 in 30 min, to 50:50) in 20 min. The sample injection volume was $15\text{ }\mu\text{L}$ and the mobile phase flow rate was set at 0.9 mL/min . The detection was performed at a wavelength of 450 nm [23]. The processing of chromatogram data was performed using the Clarity Chrom software (KNAUER, Berlin, Germany).

2.6 Statistical analysis

The results were reported as the mean \pm SD. IBM SPSS software (SPSS Inc.) version 28 for Windows, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Duncan's test with p -value < 0.05 were used to determine the significance of the variables. A minimum of three replications were conducted for each experiment.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Biomass production

Light intensity for the growth at the first stage of each microalgal strain was set at $50\text{ }\mu\text{mol/m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ of fluorescent cool white light. The accumulation of the biomass production of *S. obliquus*, *C. morus*, and *Chlorococcum* sp. at 14 days was $2.67 \pm 0.11\text{ g/L}$, $2.35 \pm 0.14\text{ g/L}$, and $2.50 \pm 0.11\text{ g/L}$, respectively. The biomass production of *S. obliquus*, *C. morus*, and

Chlorococcum sp. from each cultivation using red LED with different light intensities at 50, 100, 200, and 300 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ are presented in Figure 3. The inoculum at 1 g/L was used for the cultivation of all microalgae strains. A significant increase of the microalgae biomass at 8 days of cultivation with the increase of red LED light intensity from 50 to 300 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ was observed. Interestingly, *C. morus*, and *Chlorococcum* sp. cultivated under 200 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ of light intensity yielded the highest biomass at 5.72 ± 0.25 g/L, and 5.70 ± 0.17 g/L, respectively, while *S. obliquus* also indicated the highest biomass at 5.23 ± 0.27 g/L with the same light intensity. On the contrary, when the light intensity went beyond 200 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ and reached 300 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$, the lower biomass of each microalga was obtained.

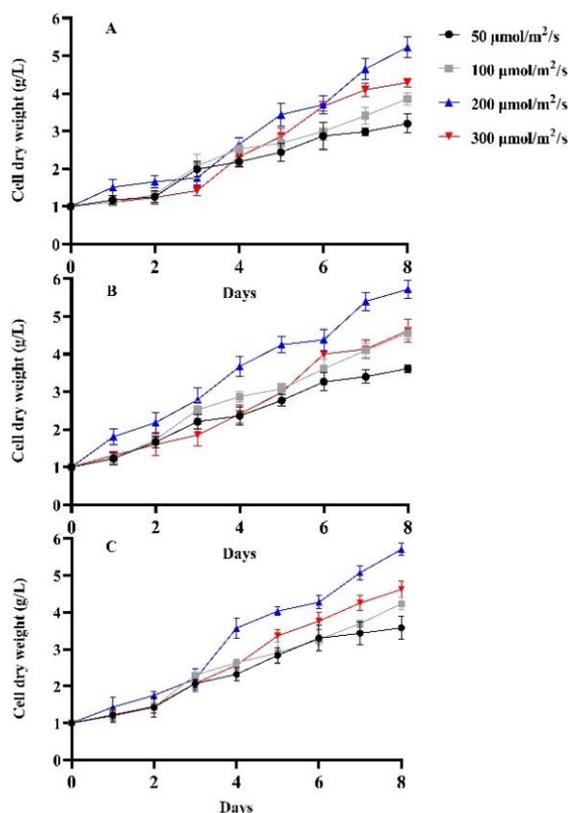


Figure 3: Cell dry weight obtained during the cultivation of *S. obliquus* (A), *C. morus* (B) and *Chlorococcum* sp. (C) after using red LED with different light intensities.

This might be due to a phenomenon known as photoinhibition [36]. Either low lighting or excessive lighting could result in limited growth of the

microalgae. At low light levels, photosynthesis increases almost linearly with increasing lighting. Nevertheless, an additional increase in lighting does not result in a higher rate of photosynthesis in a region of saturated light intensities. The photosynthetic system can be harmed by excessive light exposure to microalgae, which could hinder and lower the rate and efficiency of photosynthesis [37], [38].

Photoinhibition's molecular mechanisms are quite complex. Cells that are photo inhibited may produce more reactive oxygen species (ROS) than usual. ROS is a crucial component of microalgae metabolism and a natural consequence of their respiration. Numerous parameters, including cell size and shape, cell density, development stage, light intensity, and temperature, influence ROS levels. ROS at low concentrations can act as signaling molecules that can stimulate the growth and reproduction of algae cells. However, ROS at high concentrations is harmful to cellular components and exhibits inhibitory effects on microalgae growth [39], [40].

3.2 Total carotenoid content

Carotenoids are one of the main compounds contributing to antioxidant capacity in microalgae. Figure 4 presents the effect of increasing the red LED light intensity on carotenoid production with three microalgae strains. An increase in the red LED light intensity for the cultivation of *S. obliquus*, *C. morus*, and *Chlorococcum* sp. led to a higher total carotenoid content of all strains. However, total carotenoid contents from *Chlorococcum* sp. cultivation with 50, and 100 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ (2.83 ± 0.30 , and 2.89 ± 0.16 mg/g DCW) were not significantly different from that of *S. obliquus* cultivation with 50 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ (3.05 ± 0.30 mg/g DCW). In addition, the carotenoid content of *S. obliquus* (4.51 ± 0.15 mg/g DCW), and *C. morus* (4.78 ± 0.12 mg/g DCW) was not significantly different when the algae were exposed to 200 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ light intensity. Increasing the light intensity to 300 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ could significantly increase total carotenoid content in *C. morus* (8.31 ± 0.14 mg/g DCW), *S. obliquus* (6.40 ± 0.32 mg/g DCW), and *Chlorococcum* sp. (5.58 ± 0.36 mg/g DCW).

One of the primary mechanisms of photoprotection is based on the capacity of carotenoids, particularly those linked to a xanthophylls group, to engage in reversible light-dependent reactions known as non-photochemical quenching, which results in the dissipation of excess excitation energy of chlorophylls as heat [41], [42]. Additionally,

carotenoids in cells can filter light, reducing the quantity that passes through a photosynthetic mechanism. Furthermore, carotenoids lead to the chemical or physical inhibition of O₂ generated in the photosystem II reaction center, the primary location for O₂ production, when exposed to high light intensities. It has been observed that when microalgae cells are exposed to bright light for an extended period, they exclusively accumulate specific carotenoids. [37], [43].

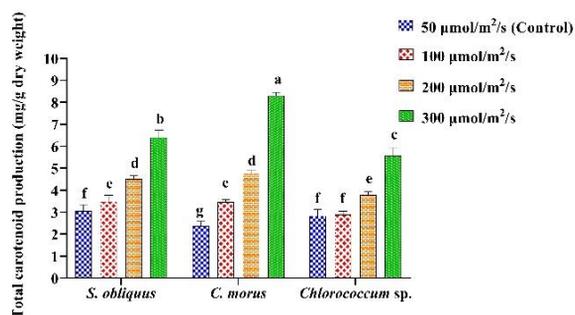


Figure 4: Total carotenoid production by *S. obliquus*, *C. morus*, and *Chlorococcum* sp. using red LED with different light intensities. Different letters in each bar mean significant differences at $p \leq 0.05$.

3.3 Optimization of the β -cryptoxanthin production

The carotenoid extract from all microalgae identified by LC-HRMS/MS exhibited the same fragment patterns as the β -cryptoxanthin standard. The fragment ions of beta-cryptoxanthin identity were molecular ion [M]⁺ 552.4326, characteristic ion [M-92]⁺ 460.3699 generated from carotenoids polyene (isoprene skeleton chain) losing a hydroxylated group and toluene (C₇H₈), identical ion m/z 119.0858 and elimination/cleavage of hydrocarbon at polyene (isoprene skeleton chain) of carotenoids. The results were the same as our previous report that β -cryptoxanthin can be produced by all three microalgae.

The HPLC chromatograms of the carotenoids in the extracts of each microalga cultivated with red LED light at 50 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ are presented in Figure 5. Peak 16 in the chromatograms with retention time (RT) at 19.65 min was identified as β -cryptoxanthin. Additionally, Figure 6 presents the β -cryptoxanthin content from each microalga under different light

intensities indicating that the production by *S. obliquus* was significantly increased from $193.49 \pm 5.67 \mu\text{g}/\text{g DCW}$ to $229.22 \pm 5.11 \mu\text{g}/\text{g DCW}$ when the light intensity was increased from 50 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ to 100 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$. In contrast, the increased light intensity from 200 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ to 300 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ conversely decreased its β -cryptoxanthin content. The same behavior was observed with the *Chlorococcum* sp. and *C. morus*. The highest β -cryptoxanthin content at $383.86 \pm 6.63 \mu\text{g}/\text{g DCW}$ was obtained from the *Chlorococcum* sp. cultivated by 200 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ of red LED. However, β -cryptoxanthin content from *C. morus* ($311.01 \pm 4.75 \mu\text{g}/\text{g DCW}$) with 200 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$ was not significantly different from β -cryptoxanthin content from *Chlorococcum* sp. ($311.68 \pm 9.18 \mu\text{g}/\text{g DCW}$) with 100 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{s}$.

Increasing the threshold of the red LED light intensity for the microalgae cultivation in our research revealed a much higher β -cryptoxanthin content compared to previously reported studies. For instance, *Scenedesmus obliquus*, *Spirulina maxima*, and *Chlorella vulgaris* could produce 23.76, 20.13, and 15.05 μg of β -cryptoxanthin/g dry weight, respectively [22], [23]. The content of β -cryptoxanthin produced in our study was also higher than the main source of β -cryptoxanthin reported [20], [21], such as butternut squash (34.71 $\mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ sample) and satsuma mandarin orange (18.00 $\mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ sample). This might be because photosynthetic organisms are exposed to high light intensity, then the total content of carotenoids, particularly those involved in the xanthophyll cycle will increase. However, above a certain threshold of light intensity, the content of specific xanthophylls like β -cryptoxanthin may decrease. This could be due to the conversion of these xanthophylls into other forms as part of the xanthophyll cycle. For example, under strong light, the enzymatic conversion of violaxanthin to zeaxanthin occurs, which helps dissipate excess energy. This process might reduce the content of other xanthophylls, including β -cryptoxanthin. Also, it is important to note that the response to light intensity can vary among different species of microalgae and other photosynthetic organisms. Thus, the specific changes in carotenoid and xanthophyll content can highly depend on the organism and its environmental conditions [44], [45]. Therefore, the type and intensity of light should be selected to suit the cultivation of each microalga.

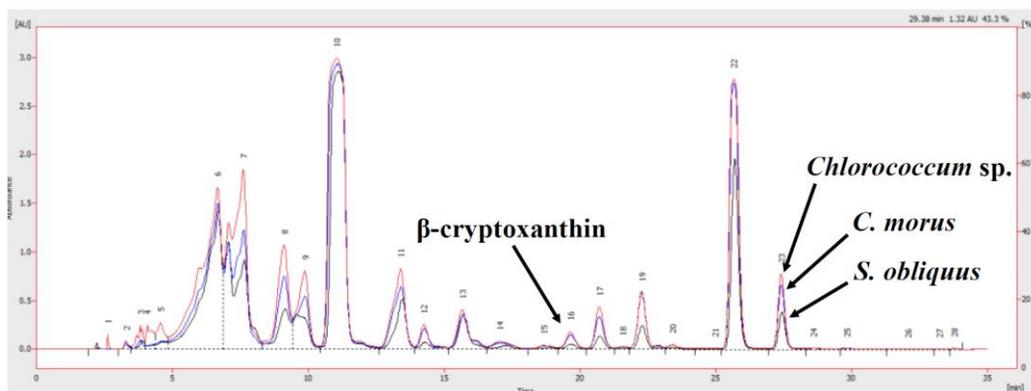


Figure 5: Chromatogram of compounds detected in the extract prepared from the cultivation of *S. obliquus* (black line), *C. morus* (blue line) and *Chlorococcum* sp. (red line) with red LED lights at $50 \mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$. Peak 16 was identified as β -cryptoxanthin.

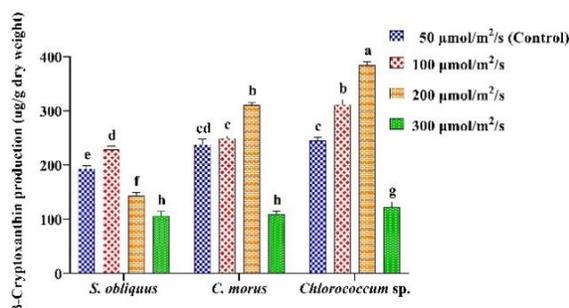


Figure 6: Beta-cryptoxanthin production in the cultivation of *S. obliquus*, *C. morus*, and *Chlorococcum* sp. using red LED with different light intensities. Different letters in each bar mean significant differences at p -value ≤ 0.05 .

4 Conclusions

A second stage of a two-stage cultivation strategy using the red LED at different light intensities was investigated by the cultivation of three microalgae strains. In summary, this study discovered that the increased red LED light intensity could enhance biomass production, total carotenoid content, and β -cryptoxanthin content. The highest β -cryptoxanthin content was obtained from the condition for each microalga as *S. obliquus* $229.22 \pm 5.11 \mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ DCW, *C. morus* $311.01 \pm 4.75 \mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ DCW and *Chlorococcum* sp. $383.68 \pm 6.63 \mu\text{g}/\text{g}$ DCW. However, extended exposure to light for microalgae could damage the photosynthetic system through photo-oxidative

processes, which limits photosynthesis and increases ROS and reduction. Therefore, oxidative stress has the potential to greatly enhance the microalgae species' economic attributes. We have managed to get the ideal equilibrium between the development and growth of β -cryptoxanthin content in three different microalgae strains.

In our further study, we plan to use the microalgae as a new source for β -cryptoxanthin production. This approach will address the sustainability concern and align with the goals of developing eco-friendly and economically viable processes. Some research showed that the innovation of cultivating microalgae in food processing wastewater greatly reduced the cost of wastewater treatment compared to a conventional approach in terms of lower carbon emissions, energy consumption, and chemical usage while producing microalgae biomass, which can benefit low-cost fertilizer, bioactive compounds, bioplastic applications, and biofuel production. For example, the feasibility of agri-food waste such as corncob, banana peels, and onion residues as potential biostimulants for the lab-scale cultivation of *Chlorella vulgaris* [46]–[48]. We have planned to use the microalgae as a new source for β -cryptoxanthin production in our future work. This approach will address the sustainability concern and align with the goals of developing eco-friendly and economically viable processes. The other factors influencing carotenoids, especially beta-cryptoxanthin, such as medium composition, salinity, and temperature will be further investigated.

Acknowledgments

We would like to express our sincere thanks to the Royal Golden Jubilee Ph.D. Program (grant number PHD/0072/2560) by the National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT) and the Thailand Research Fund (TRF), and King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB-FF-65-46) for their financial support.

Author Contributions

S.C.: methodology, software, data curation, formal analysis; N.B.: methodology, data curation; S.K.: methodology; M.S.K.: review & editing; B.L.: review & editing; B.T.: supervision, funding acquisition, formal analysis; V.R.: conceptualization, supervision, funding acquisition, writing – original draft, review & editing.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

References

- [1] A. Çelekli, B. Özbal, and H. Bozkurt, "Challenges in functional food products with the incorporation of some microalgae," *Foods*, vol. 13, p. 725, Feb. 2024, doi: 10.3390/foods13050725.
- [2] C. Aflalo, Y. Meshulam, A. Zarka, and S. Boussiba, "On the relative efficiency of two vs. one-stage production of astaxanthin by the green alga *Haematococcus pluvialis*," *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, vol. 98, pp. 300–305, Feb. 2007, doi: 10.1002/bit.21391.
- [3] P. P. Lamers, C. C. van de Laak, P. S. Kaasenbrood, J. Lorier, M. Janssen, R. C. De Vos, R. J. Bino, and R. H. Wijffels, "Carotenoid and fatty acid metabolism in light-Stressed *Dunaliella salina*," *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, vol. 106, pp. 638–648, Jul. 2010, doi: 10.1002/bit.22725.
- [4] Y. Xie, S. H. Ho, C. N. N. Chen, C. Y. Chen, I. S. Ng, K. J. Jing, J. S. Chang, and Y. Lu, "Phototrophic cultivation of a thermo-tolerant *Desmodesmus* sp. for lutein production: Effects of nitrate concentration, light intensity and fed-batch operation," *Bioresource Technology*, vol. 144, pp. 435–444, Sep. 2013, doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2013.06.064.
- [5] L. Wolf, T. Cummings, K. Müller, M. Reppke, M. Volkmar, and D. Weuster-Botz, "Production of β -carotene with *Dunaliella salina* CCAP19/18 at physically simulated outdoor conditions," *Engineering in Life Sciences*, vol. 21, pp. 115–125, Mar. 2021, doi: 10.1002/elsc.202000044.
- [6] P. Sirohi, H. Verma, S. K. Singh, V. K. Singh, J. Pandey, S. Khusharia, D. Kumar, Kaushalendra, P. Teotia, and A. Kumar, "Microalgal carotenoids: Therapeutic application and latest approaches to enhance production," *Current Issues in Molecular Biology*, vol. 44, pp. 6257–6279, Dec. 2022, doi: 10.3390/cimb44120427.
- [7] M. Kholany, J. A. Coutinho, and S. P. Ventura, "Carotenoid production from microalgae: The portuguese scenario," *Molecules*, vol. 27, p. 2540, Apr. 2022, doi: 10.3390/molecules27082540.
- [8] A. Bunea, C. Socaciu, and A. Pintea, "Xanthophyll esters in fruits and vegetables," *Notulae Botanicae Horti Agrobotanici Cluj-Napoca*, vol. 42, pp. 310–324, Dec. 2014, doi: 10.15835/nbha.42.2.9700.
- [9] K. Takayanagi and K. Mukai, "Beta-cryptoxanthin, a novel carotenoid derived from *Satsuma Mandarin* prevents abdominal obesity," *Nutrition in the Prevention and Treatment of Abdominal Obesity*, pp. 381–399, Mar. 2014, doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-407869-7.00034-9.
- [10] R. K. Saini, S. H. Nile, and S. W. Park, "Carotenoids from fruits and vegetables: chemistry, analysis, occurrence, bioavailability and biological activities," *Food Research International*, vol. 76, pp. 735–750, Oct. 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.foodres.2015.07.047.
- [11] C. H. Zhu, E. R. Gertz, Y. Cai, and B. J. Burri, "Consumption of canned citrus fruit meals increases human plasma β -cryptoxanthin concentration, whereas lycopene and β -carotene concentrations did not change in healthy adults," *Nutrition Research*, vol. 36, pp. 679–688, Jul. 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.nutres.2016.03.005.
- [12] M. Nakamura and M. Sugiura, "Health effects of β -cryptoxanthin and β -cryptoxanthin-enriched satsuma Mandarin juice," *Nutrients in Beverages*, vol. 12, pp. 393–417, Jan. 2019, doi: 10.1016/B978-0-12-816842-4.00011-3.
- [13] J. Montonen, P. Knekt, R. I. T. V. A. Jarvinen, and A. Reunanen, "Dietary antioxidant intake and risk of type 2 diabetes," *Diabetes Care*, vol. 27,

- pp. 362–366, Feb. 2004, doi: 10.2337/diacare.27.2.362.
- [14] M. Sugiura, “ β -Cryptoxanthin and the risk for lifestyle-related disease: Findings from recent nutritional epidemiologic studies,” *Journal of the Pharmaceutical Society of Japan*, vol. 135, pp. 67–76, Jan. 2015, doi: 10.1248/yakushi.14-00208-5.
- [15] B. Yilmaz, K. Sahin, H. Bilen, I. H. Bahcecioglu, B. Bilir, S. Ashraf, K. J. Halazun, and O. Kucuk, “Carotenoids and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease,” *Hepatobiliary Surgery and Nutrition*, vol. 4, p. 161, Jun. 2015, doi: 10.3978%2Fj.issn.2304-3881.2015.01.11.
- [16] A. R. Iskandar, B. Miao, X. Li, K. Q. Hu, C. Liu, and X. D. Wang, “ β -Cryptoxanthin reduced lung tumor multiplicity and inhibited lung cancer cell motility by downregulating nicotinic acetylcholine receptor $\alpha 7$ signaling β -cryptoxanthin inhibits lung cancer,” *Cancer Prevention Research*, vol. 9, pp. 875–886, Nov. 2016, doi: 10.1158/1940-6207.CAPR-16-0161.
- [17] M. Nakamura, M. Sugiura, K. Ogawa, Y. Ikoma, and M. Yano, “Serum β -cryptoxanthin and β -carotene derived from Satsuma mandarin and brachial–ankle pulse wave velocity: The Mikkabi cohort study,” *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*, vol. 26, pp. 808–814, Sep. 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.numecd.2016.04.00.
- [18] M. Sugiura, M. Nakamura, K. Ogawa, Y. Ikoma, and M. Yano, “High vitamin C intake with high serum β -cryptoxanthin associated with lower risk for osteoporosis in post-menopausal Japanese female subjects: Mikkabi cohort study,” *Journal of Nutritional Science and Vitaminology*, vol. 62, pp. 185–191, Jan. 2016, doi: 10.3177/jnsv.62.185.
- [19] G. Park, T. Horie, K. Fukasawa, K. Ozaki, Y. Onishi, T. Kanayama, T. Iezaki, K. Kaneda, M. Sugiura, and E. Hinoi, “Amelioration of the development of osteoarthritis by daily intake of β -cryptoxanthin,” *Biological and Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, vol. 40, pp. 1116–1120, Jul. 2017, doi: 10.1248/bpb.b17-00161.
- [20] B. J. Burri, M. R. L. Frano, and C. Zhu, “Absorption, metabolism, and functions of β -cryptoxanthin,” *Nutrition Reviews*, vol. 74, pp. 69–82, Feb. 2016, doi: 10.1093/nutrit/nuv064.
- [21] Y. Jiao, L. Reuss, and Y. Wang, “ β -Cryptoxanthin: Chemistry, occurrence, and potential health benefits,” *Current Pharmacology Reports*, vol. 5, pp. 20–34, Feb. 2019, doi: 10.1007/s40495-019-00168-7.
- [22] H. H. A. El-Baky, F. K. E. Baz, and G. S. El-Baroty, “Spirulina species as a source of carotenoids and α -tocopherol and its anticarcinoma factors,” *Biotechnology*, vol. 2, pp. 222–240, Feb. 2003, doi: 10.3923/biotech.2003.222.240.
- [23] L. D. Patias, A. S. Fernandes, F. C. Petry, A. Z. Mercadante, E. Jacob-Lopes, and L. Q. Zepka, “Carotenoid profile of three microalgae/cyanobacteria species with peroxy radical scavenger capacity,” *Food Research International*, vol. 100, pp. 260–266, Oct. 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.foodres.2017.06.069.
- [24] X. M. Sun, L. J. Ren, Q. Y. Zhao, X. J. Ji, and H. Huang, “Microalgae for the production of lipid and carotenoids: A review with focus on stress regulation and adaptation,” *Biotechnology for Biofuels*, vol. 11, pp. 1–16, Dec. 2018, doi: 10.1186/s13068-018-1275-9.
- [25] S. Tamaki, K. Mochida, and K. Suzuki, “Diverse biosynthetic pathways and protective functions against environmental stress of antioxidants in microalgae,” *Plants*, vol. 10, p. 1250, Jun. 2021, doi: 10.3390/plants10061250.
- [26] C. Faraloni and G. Torzillo, “Synthesis of antioxidant carotenoids in microalgae in response to physiological stress,” *IntechOpen*, pp. 143–157, Jun. 2017, doi: 10.5772/67843.
- [27] R. Ma, S. R. Thomas-Hall, E. T. Chua, E. Eltanahy, M. E. Netzel, G. Netzel, Y. Lu, and P. M. Schenk, “LED power efficiency of biomass, fatty acid, and carotenoid production in *Nannochloropsis* microalgae,” *Bioresource Technology*, vol. 252, pp. 118–126, Mar. 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2017.12.096.
- [28] J. H. Jung, P. Sirisuk, C. H. Ra, J. M. Kim, G. T. Jeong, and S. K. Kim, “Effects of green LED light and three stresses on biomass and lipid accumulation with two-phase culture of microalgae,” *Process Biochemistry*, vol. 77, pp. 93–99, Feb. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.procbio.2018.11.014.
- [29] G. Ma, L. Zhang, M. Kato, K. Yamawaki, Y. Kiriwa, M. Yahata, Y. Ikoma, and H. Matsumoto, “Effect of blue and red LED light irradiation on β -cryptoxanthin accumulation in the flavedo of citrus fruits,” *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, vol. 60, pp. 197–201, Jan. 2012, doi: 10.1021/jf203364m.
- [30] M. Rauytanapanit, K. Janchot, P. Kusolkumbot, S. Sirisattha, R. Waditee-Sirisattha, and T. Praneenarat, “Nutrient deprivation-associated



- changes in green microalga *coelastrum* sp. TISTR 9501RE enhanced potent antioxidant carotenoids,” *Marine Drugs*, vol. 17, p. 328, Jun. 2019, doi: 10.3390/md17060328.
- [31] K. Laje, M. Seger, B. Dungan, P. Cooke, J. Polle, and F. O. Holguin, “Phytoene accumulation in the novel microalga *Chlorococcum* sp. using the pigment synthesis inhibitor fluridone,” *Marine Drugs*, vol. 17, p. 187, Mar. 2019, doi: 10.3390/md17030187.
- [32] S. Chuechomsuk, B. Thumthanaruk, W. Kunyalung, S. Mohamadnia, I. Angelidaki, and V. Rungsardthong, “Production of β -cryptoxanthin at different artificial light spectra by three strains of microalgae,” *Journal of Current Science and Technology*, In progress.
- [33] S. K. Ratha, P. H. Rao, K. Govindaswamy, R. S. Jaswin, R. Lakshmidivi, S. Bhaskar, and S. Chinnasamy, “A rapid and reliable method for estimating microalgal biomass using a moisture analyser,” *Journal of Applied Phycology*, vol. 28, pp. 1725–1734, Jun. 2016, doi: 10.1007/s10811-015-0731-1.
- [34] F. Mandelli, V. S. Miranda, E. Rodrigues, and A. Z. Mercadante, “Identification of carotenoids with high antioxidant capacity produced by extremophile microorganisms,” *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, vol. 28, pp. 1781–1790, Apr. 2012, doi: 10.1007/s11274-011-0993-y.
- [35] L. M. J. de Carvalho, P. B. Gomes, R. L. de Oliveira Godoy, S. Pacheco, P. H. F. do Monte, J. L. V. de Carvalho, M. R. Nutti, A.C.L. Neves, A. C. R. A. Vieira, and S. R. R. Ramos, “Total carotenoid content, α -carotene and β -carotene, of landrace pumpkins (*Cucurbita moschata* Duch): A preliminary study,” *Food Research International*, vol. 42, pp. 337–340, Jul. 2012, doi: 10.1016/j.foodres.2011.07.040.
- [36] J. C. Nzayisenga, X. Farge, S. L. Groll, and A. Sellstedt, “Effects of light intensity on growth and lipid production in microalgae grown in wastewater,” *Biotechnology for Biofuels*, vol. 13, pp. 1–8, Dec. 2020, doi: 10.1186/s13068-019-1646-x.
- [37] E. Erickson, S. Wakao, and K. K. Niyogi, “Light stress and photoprotection in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*,” *The Plant Journal*, vol. 82, pp. 449–465, May. 2015, doi: 10.1111/tpj.12825.
- [38] H. Raqiba, and G. Sibi, “Light emitting diode (LED) illumination for enhanced growth and cellular composition in three microalgae,” *Advances in Microbiology Research*, vol. 3, pp. 1–6, Aug. 2019, doi: 10.24966/AMR-694X/100007.
- [39] J. G. Scandalios, “Oxidative stress: Molecular perception and transduction of signals triggering antioxidant gene defenses,” *Brazilian Journal of Medical and Biological Research*, vol. 38, pp. 995–1014, Jul. 2005, doi: 10.1590/S0100-879X2005000700003.
- [40] T. Q. Shi, L. R. Wang, Z. X. Zhang, X. M. Sun, and H. Huang, “Stresses as first-line tools for enhancing lipid and carotenoid production in microalgae,” *Frontiers in Bioengineering and Biotechnology*, vol. 8, p. 610, Jul. 2020, doi: 10.3389/fbioe.2020.00610.
- [41] S. Takaichi, M. Mochimaru, H. Uchida, A. Murakami, E. Hirose, T. Maoka, T. Tsuchiya, and M. Mimuro, “Opposite chirality of α -carotene in unusual cyanobacteria with unique chlorophylls, *Acaryochloris* and *Prochlorococcus*,” *Plant and Cell Physiology*, vol. 53, pp. 1881–1888, Nov. 2012, doi: 10.1093/pcp/pcs126.
- [42] Y. Cui, H. Zhang, and S. Lin, “Enhancement of non-photochemical quenching as an adaptive strategy under phosphorus deprivation in the dinoflagellate *Karlodinium veneficum*,” *Frontiers in Microbiology*, vol. 8, Mar. 2017, Art. no. 241298, doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2017.00404.
- [43] P. Kuczynska, M. Jemiola-Rzeminska, and K. Strzalka, “Photosynthetic pigments in diatoms,” *Marine drugs*, vol. 13, pp. 5847–5881, Sep. 2015, doi: 10.3390/md13095847.
- [44] P. Kuczynska, M. Jemiola-Rzeminska, and K. Strzalka, “Characterisation of carotenoids involved in the xanthophyll cycle,” *IntechOpen*, Jun. 2017, doi: 10.5772/67786.
- [45] L. Dall’Osto, R. Bassi, and A. Ruban, “Photoprotective mechanisms: Carotenoids,” in *Advances in Plastid Biology*. New York: Springer, 2014, pp. 393–435.
- [46] J. W. R. Chong, K. S. Khoo, G. Y. Yew, W. H. Leong, J. W. Lim, M. K. Lam, Y. C. Ho, H. S. Ng, H. S. H. Munawaroh, and P. L. Show, “Advances in production of bioplastics by microalgae using food waste hydrolysate and wastewater: A review,” *Bioresource Technology*, vol. 342, Dec. 2021, Art. no. 125947, doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2021.125947.
- [47] C. H. Tan, S. S. Low, W. Y. Cheah, J. Singh, W. S. Chai, S. K. Tiong, and P. L. Show “Futuristic opportunities for pretreatment processes in



- biofuel production from microalgae,” *GCB Bioenergy*, vol. 16, Apr. 2024, Art. no. e13136, doi: 10.1111/gcbb.13136.
- [48] S. Uganeeswary, M. K. Lam, R. Hemamalini, J. W. Lim, K. F. Pa’ee, K. Y. T. Len, I. S. Tan, P. L. Show, and K. T. Lee “ Preliminary screening of agri-food waste for potential recovery of microalgae biostimulant,” *AIP Conference Proceedings*, vol. 3041, Mar. 2024, doi: 10.1063/5.0196834.