

Feasibility of Individual Carotenoid Quantification in Mixtures Using UV-Vis Spectrophotometry with Multivariate Curve Resolution Alternating Least Squares (MCR-ALS)

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Nawel Achir, Adrien Servent, Marvin Soto, Claudie Dhuique-Mayer. Feasibility of Individual Carotenoid Quantification in Mixtures Using UV-Vis Spectrophotometry with Multivariate Curve Resolution Alternating Least Squares (MCR-ALS). Journal of Spectroscopy, 2022, 2022, pp.1-13. 10.1155/2022/4509523. hal-03892105v1

HAL Id: hal-03892105

https://institut-agro-montpellier.hal.science/hal-03892105v1

Submitted on 9 Feb 2023 (v1), last revised 7 Nov 2023 (v2)

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1	Feasibility of individual carotenoid quantification in mixtures using UV-Vis
2	spectrophotometry with multivariate curve resolution alternating least squares (MCR-ALS)
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19 Abstract

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A fast and low-cost analytical method to determine the concentrations of carotenoids (β -21 22 carotene, lutein and lycopene) from mixed standard solutions or from fruit extracts (kiwi fruits, tomato paste, pink grapefruit juice, kiwi-pineapple smoothie and apricot nectar) was 23 24 tested. The methodology was based on UV-Vis spectrophotometry and Multivariate Curve Resolution-Alternating Least Squares (MCR-ALS). Results showed that relative concentration 25 26 of β -carotene, lutein and lycopene in solvent were successfully determined by this technique with an error inferior to 6 %. In real extracts, the procedure succeeded well in identifying the 27 major carotenoid type of the fruit samples but also a more complex profile of a fruit mixture. 28 The results also showed that accuracy of carotenoids determination by UV-Vis 29 30 spectrophotometry-MCR-ALS in fruit extracts was conditioned by their spectral characteristics (III/II ratios and λ_{max}), their relative proportion, and the extract purity. 31 32 33 Key words: Multivariate data analysis; molecular spectroscopy; fruits; pigments; carotenoids

36 INTRODUCTION

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Carotenoids are a family of lipophilic light-absorbing chromophores responsible for the 38 yellow, orange, or red color of many fruits and vegetables 1-3. They can be found in very 39 various amounts and profiles as a function of the crop ^{4–6}. These molecules can be classified 40 as a function of their structure and biological role. Carotenes are non-oxygenated carotenoids 41 and oxygenated carotenoids are xanthophylls $\frac{3}{2}$. The most common carotenes are β -carotene 42 and lycopene. The bicyclic β -carotene is the most widespread in vegetables and fruits and can 43 be found in carrot, orange-fleshed sweet potato, apricot, mango, palm fruits, etc. ⁷. Of the 44 acyclic carotenes, lycopene is the most prevalent and is the major carotenoid in tomato, pink 45 grapefruit and watermelon^{2,8}. Xanthophylls are widely distributed in fruits and vegetables. 46 Lutein is present in high levels in leaves, green fruits and vegetables, and yellow flowers ^{3,9}. 47 Carotenoids are valuable natural colorants that are added to many processed foods, in the 48 form of natural extracts or as pure chemically synthesized compounds, in order to give the 49 desired coloring properties ¹⁰. 50 Carotenoids also exhibit numerous health promoting properties. Close to 90% of carotenoids 51 52 in the human diet that are recovered in human plasma are represented by β -carotene, α carotene, lycopene, lutein, and cryptoxanthin 11,12 . β -carotene is a source of vitamin A with an 53

equivalency ratio for β-carotene to vitamin A estimated as 12:1 ¹³. Lutein is a macular pigment that plays an important role against cataracts and age-related macular degeneration ¹⁴. Lastly, lycopene is the most potent antioxidant among carotenoids, and dietary intake has been shown to be associated with a decreased risk of chronic diseases, such as cancer and cardiovascular disease ¹⁵. β-carotene



Figure 1. Chemical structures of β-carotene, lutein, and lycopene

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63 **Table 1.** Carotenoid absorption data from literature ^{3,16}

	Molecular weight	ε (mM ⁻¹ . Cm ⁻¹)	λ max (nm)	Solvent	III/II (%)
β -carotene	537	139	450	Hexane	25
Lutein	569	145	445	Hexane	60
Lycopene	537	185	470	Hexane	65

64

Because these compounds are of nutritional and sensory importance, and because they 65 cannot be synthesized by humans so they have to be provided by food, many techniques were 66 developed to analyze and quantify them. Their fine separation is for instance useful to gain 67 insights into their biological role in nutritional studies ¹⁷. Their precise quantification is 68 necessary to provide reliable data for food databases. However, many carotenoid-rich plants 69 are found in developing countries where expertise and/or analytical resources are still 70 insufficient ¹⁸. In parallel, there is a growing demand for healthy and phytonutrient -rich food 71 in developed countries so modern agriculture will gain in producing non only high-yield but 72 also high-nutritional potential crops. This new strategy implies high throughput quantification 73 of carotenoids. Therefore, phytonutrient analysis in general and carotenoids analysis in 74

particular must meet both precision and material (time, technicity) constraints ^{19–21}. The two 75 main protocols used for carotenoid quantification are UV-Vis spectrophotometry and the 76 HPLC methods ^{22,23,23–25}. The first one uses the characteristic visible light absorption spectrum 77 of carotenoids. Due to their system of conjugated double bonds, their spectrum consists of a 78 three-peak shape (namely I, II, III) between 400 and 500 nm. The three λ_{max} vary as a function 79 of the carotenoid structure (Figure 1 and 2A and Table 1). In addition to λ_{max} , the 3-peak-80 absorption shape of the carotenoid spectra enable the calculation of the %III/II ratio which is 81 82 another important parameter to identify them as it is different as a function of the molecule (Figure 83 2A). This parameter is the ratio of the height of the longest-wavelength absorption peak (III), and that 84 of the middle absorption peak (II), taking the minimum between the two peaks as baseline, multiplied <mark>by 100 ^{3,26,27}.</mark> 85

Carotenoids in solution obey the Beer-Lambert law. Their absorbance is directly proportional 86 to the concentration which is usually determined using the molar extinction coefficient (ɛmol) 87 in an appropriate solvent ²⁸. Therefore, absorbance measurements can be used to quantify 88 the concentration of a pure carotenoid (standard) or to estimate the total carotenoid 89 concentration in a mixture or extract of carotenoids from plants ^{29,30}. This technique is rapid 90 and low cost and has been optimized by much research. The main improvements consist in 91 removing interference and particularly that of chlorophylls ^{22,24} and optimizing the solvent 92 extraction procedure ²³ in order to increase accuracy and rapidity. Other spectrophotometric 93 techniques were tested as near Infrared spectroscopy but proved to be less robust than UV-94 VIS spectrophotometry for quantification purposes ²⁵. However, despite its convenience, the 95 96 main drawback of this method is the lack of quantification information compared to analyses 97 by HPLC. Indeed, the UV-VIS method does not enable the distinction between carotenoids in a given mixture as the most common protocols use a mean absorption coefficient and a mean 98 absorption wavelength ^{22,31}. This problem limits its use for nutritional or adulteration control 99 purposes. HPLC analysis is a more accurate and appropriate method to get individual 100 concentrations of the different carotenoids in a fruit, a dish, or a formulated product ^{1,10,32}. 101 This method is however time and solvent-consuming and requires higher costs to establish 102 103 and maintain this higher technicity. In addition, HPLC analyses sometimes require a long saponification step involving the use of a hazardous substance, potassium hydroxide solution 104 in methanol, to remove the xanthophyll esters that can make quantification difficult ³³. 105 106 Indeed, xanthophylls can be esterified by various fatty acids resulting in a hundred possible

107 combinations of different molecular weights and polarities and unidentified and unresolved 108 chromatographic peaks. The saponification step is not useful in the UV-Vis method since 109 esterification does not significantly affect carotenoid spectra ³. In addition, it was proven that 110 saponification leads to significant carotenoid loss ²².

Since physical separation is a difficult task, it is interesting to explore mathematical separation 111 on the basis of the UV-VIS spectra. The main mathematical treatment on spectra used up till 112 now for carotenoid analysis was the subtraction of absorbance to a certain wavelength to 113 remove interference ^{22,24}. For instance, Lichtenthaler (2001) developed formulas in different 114 115 organic solvents to get a more reliable global carotenoid content in green tissue extract solutions by removing the contribution of chlorophylle b that also absorb at the carotenoids 116 λ_{max}^{34} . However, further and more specific information could be obtained from the spectrum 117 by using chemometric tools. Among them, Multivariate Curve Resolution-Alternating Least 118 Squares (MCR-ALS) is a powerful tool in solving mixture analysis problems. Indeed, MRC-ALS 119 120 can provide a bilinear description of the observed data. As the total absorbance is the sum of 121 the individual absorbance for each species according to the Beer Lambert law, MCR-ALS can 122 dissociate the spectral contribution of pure compounds involved in the mixture and also give 123 their relative concentration. Therefore, MCR-ALS is not a statistical method like partial least 124 square regressions which is usually used with near infrared spectroscopy, where footprint spectra (a hundred) are correlated to chemical features. MCR-ALS has, until then, mainly been 125 used in the pharmaceutical or chemical engineering fields and proved to be efficient to 126 monitor evolving reactions during processes ^{35–37}. However, this mathematical procedure is 127 128 now used in the domain of food science to analyze complex natural samples. Indeed, MCR-129 ALS was successfully tested on voltametric signals to quantify organic acids in fruit juices and on UV-Vis spectra to discriminate polyphenols in a hibiscus extract ^{38–41}. It was also employed 130 131 for quantification and spatial distribution of salicylic acid in film-coated tablets using Raman spectrophotometry, or to get insight into conformational changes and protein folding ^{42,43}. 132 MCR-ALS was also used for β -carotene with transient absorption spectroscopy to monitor its 133 excited state as a function of time and also to automatize isoprenoids analysis by HPLC ^{44,45}. 134 135 However, to our knowledge it has never been tested on mixtures of carotenoids for 136 quantification purpose with a conventional UV-Vis spectroscopy protocol. It would however be very informative to test the potential of this technique on these interesting pigments both 137 from a nutritional and organoleptic point of view because they exhibit quite remarkable 138

139 spectral characteristics in the UV-Vis domain. These properties were interestingly exploited 140 by Küpper et al. (2007) who showed that by fitting with Gauss-peak spectra (GPS) it was possible to quantify certain individual carotenoids in crude extracts of leaves of higher plants, 141 brown algae, and cyanobacteria ³¹. However, the GPS treatment required a mathematical 142 treatment with complex equation and coding skills. In addition, GPS is based on modeling 143 144 spectra by a set of Gaussian functions which is not as chemically meaningful as MCR-ALS. Indeed, MCR-ALS assumes that the observed spectra are a linear combination of the spectra 145 146 of the pure components in the system which is the multiwavelength extension of Lambert-Beer's law ⁴⁶. Another advantage of MCR-ALS is that a graphical user-friendly interface was 147 developed in MATLAB and is freely available⁴⁷. This tool enables constraints to be 148 149 implemented easily, i.e., additional chemical knowledge, such as pure spectra to give even 150 more sense to the resolution.

In this paper, we studied the use of a UV-Vis method for analyzing mixed carotenoids with the implementation of spectra treatment by MCR-ALS, to obtain the relative concentration of individual carotenoids from a mixture in solvents or a plant sample extract. To best analyze the possibilities, robustness and limitations of this direct quantification method, we analyzed the spectra of mixed carotenoid standards (β -carotene, lutein and lycopene) in an appropriate solvent and afterwards on three different fruit or processed fruit product extracts. The accuracy and precision of this method were tested by comparison with HPLC results.

158

159 MATERIAL AND METHODS

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161 Chemical products

β-carotene, lutein, and lycopene standards were purchased from Extrasynthèse (Genay,
 France). Hexane, dichloromethane, ethanol, methyl-tert-butyl ether, methanol, potassium
 hydroxyde and pyrogallol were of analytical grade and obtained from Merk (Germany).

165

166 Raw fruits

Fresh kiwi fruits (FK), pink grapefruit juice (PGJ), apricot nectar (AN), kiwi-pineapple smoothie
(KPS), and tomato paste (TP) were purchased in local supermarkets (Montpellier, France).
Contrary to PGJ and AN, KPS was flash pasteurized. KPS also contained apple juice (47%) and

spirulina extract. These products were chosen to represent a diversity of matrices (species,raw or processed), and of carotenoid profile.

172

173 Standard solution preparation

Four individual 100 mL-standard solutions of β -carotene, lutein, and lycopene were made at a concentration of 1.98, 5.45, 4.18 mg.L⁻¹ respectively in hexane. To properly dissolve lutein and lycopene, 1 mL of ethanol and dichloromethane was added respectively before hexane and the mixture was put in an ultrasound bath for 30 s. The concentrations of each solution were determined using molar extinction coefficient (ɛmol) in the appropriate solvent checked by spectrophotometry (Table 1).

180 **Standard solution mixture tests:** Standard carotenoid solutions of β-carotene, lutein, 181 lycopene were mixed with different volume proportions leading to a total concentration of ~5 182 mg.L⁻¹. The different relative concentrations are presented in Table 2 before UV-Vis analysis. 183 Solutions 1 to 3 correspond to pure compounds. Solutions 4 to 13 were prepared with β-184 carotene lutein and lycopene at different concentrations to estimate the sensitivity of the 185 MCR-ALS procedure.

186

187 **Table 2.** Relative composition of carotenoids in standard solution mixtures

	Standard solution	β -carotene	Lutein	Lycopene
-	1	100%	0%	0%
Pure	2	0%	100%	0%
stanuarus	3	0%	0%	100%
	4	0%	57%	43%
	5	27%	73%	0%
	6	32%	0%	68%
	7	17%	47%	36%
Mixed	8	9%	51%	39%
standards	9	22%	31%	47%
	10	21%	57%	22%
	11	4%	54%	41%
	12	27%	16%	57%
	13	24%	65%	11%

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Preparation of fruit carotenoid extracts

Extraction procedures and conditions for analysis were described previously ^{48,49}. Briefly, samples were ground if necessary and then weighed (200 mg for tomato paste, and 1000 mg for pink grapefruit juice, apricot nectar, kiwi-pineapple smoothie and kiwi fruit) in 20 mL glass tubes. 2 mL of an ethanol solution containing 1 % pyrogallol were added in each tube. For each product, 3 samples were prepared in tubes for UV-VIS and 3 for HPLC.

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UV-VIS sample preparation: 2 ml of distilled water, and 5 mL of hexane were added in the tubes. After mixing in a tube rotator (Boekel Scientific, USA) during 15 min and decantation, the organic phase was recovered with a Pasteur pipette, and the aqueous phase was extracted once more with 5 mL of hexane. The organic phase was pooled and protected from light prior to UV-Vis spectrophotometry analysis. Dilution (1/10) in hexane was made only for tomato paste extract to reach an absorbance intensity of between 0.7 and 0.9 in the 450-500 nm range.

HPLC sample preparation: Only tubes containing kiwi were subjected to saponification to remove esters from xanthophylls for 30 min in a water bath at 70 °C by adding 1.5 mL of saturated potassium hydroxide (12 N). After incubation, the tubes were cooled in an ice bath. For all tubes (kiwi and the others) 2 ml of distilled water and 5 mL of hexane were added to samples. Then, after mixing and decantation, the organic phase was recovered, and the aqueous phase was extracted two more times with 5 mL of hexane.

For all tubes, the organic phases were combined and evaporated to dryness using a vacuum evaporation system (GeneVac EZ-2, SP Scientific, UK). Finally, the residue from samples for HPLC analysis was re-dissolved in 500 μ L of methyl tert-butyl ether/methanol (80/20) and placed in an amber vial prior to HPLC analysis

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216 Determination of carotenoid concentrations

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218 UV-Vis spectrophotometry measurements and MCR-ALS analysis: The spectra of pure 219 standard and standard mixtures as well as fruit extracts were acquired in the same conditions. For each solution, 3 spectra were acquired from 250 to 600 nm (every 0.5 nm) with a diode array spectrophotometer (Specord S600 Analytik Jena, Germany).

222

Total carotenoids were calculated using the Beer-Lambert law from the absorbance at 450 nm using a mean absorption coefficient of 135310 L.mol⁻¹.cm⁻¹ and converted into mg.kg⁻¹ using a mean molecular weight of 548 g.mol^{-1 22}.

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To obtain the relative proportion of the different carotenoids, MCR-ALS was done on the 227 228 whole spectra. Pre-processing steps consisted in removing the short-wavelength region (250-350 nm) and in normalization. MCR-ALS analysis was done with Matlab (The MathWorks, Inc., 229 Natick, MA, USA) using the toolbox built by Jaumot et al. (2005) ^{41,50}. Briefly, Multivariate 230 231 Curve Resolution aims to achieve a bilinear decomposition in 2 matrices of an experimental 232 absorbance matrix D(m,n) which corresponds to a combination of spectrophotometric 233 measurements. The two matrices correspond to the concentrations C(m,k) of the individual compounds and their normalized spectra $S^{T}(k,m)$. The underlying law that links the two-way 234 235 data matrix D(m,n) to C(m,k) and $S^{T}(k,n)$ is a generalization of the Beer-Lambert law applied to all wavelengths (Eq. 1). 236

237 $D(m,n) = C(m,k) S^{T}(k,n) + E(m,n)$

with *k*, the number of chemical species in the unknown mixture and E(m,n), the error matrix. Estimation of the number of components *k* is done with singular values of the data matrix *D*. Initial estimations of spectra is obtained from pure variable detection methods. Resolution of Eq (1) is carried out by an iterative process using the *ALS* algorithm that stops when the error (*E*) is minimum. Results were improved by the addition of optimization constraints with chemical sense: the non-negativity constraint algorithm "fast non-negative least squares" and spectra were put at the same height (no closure constraint).

(1)

(2)

The goodness of fit of the results to the experimental data is estimated with the residues, or the residual sum of squares calculated as follows:

247
$$residues = \sum (SRC - ERC)^2$$

with *SRC* the simulated relative concentration obtained with the *MCR* procedure from the *C* matrix of Eq. 1 and *ERC* the experimental relative concentration of individual carotenoids (provided by the known concentration of standards incorporated in the mixture or using the HPLC results for fruit extracts). 252 Mean error of the model expressed in percentage, providing the idea of accuracy of 253 concentration prediction, was calculated as follows:

254
$$E = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{\sum(SRC - ERC)^2}}{n}}{\frac{\sum ERC}{n}} \times 100$$
 (3)

255

256 HPLC carotenoid analysis: Carotenoid identification and quantification of the fruit extracts was performed on a reverse-phase HPLC-DAD Agilent 1100 system (Massy, France) with a 257 diode array detector described in Dhuique-Mayer et al. (2017) ³³. Carotenoids were separated 258 using a C30 column (250 x 4.6 mm i.d., 5 µm) (YMC EUROP GmbH, Germany) with a guard 259 260 column, and the mobile phase was water as eluent A, methanol as eluent B, and methyl tert-261 butyl ether as eluent C. Operation temperature was set at 25 °C. The flow rate was set at 1mL/min and the injection volume was 20 µL. A solvent gradient was programmed as follows: 262 263 0-2 min, isocratic 40% A-60% B (initial conditions); 2–5 min, 20% A-80% B; 5-10 min, 4% A-81% 264 B-15% C; 10-60 min, 4% A-11% B- 85% C; 60-70 min, isocratic 4% A-11% B-85% C; 70-71 min, 100% B; 71-72 min, with a return to the initial conditions for rebalancing. All-E-β-carotene and 265 their isomers, and all-E-lutein were detected at 450 nm, and all-E-lycopene and their isomers 266 were detected at 470 nm. Z-lycopene content was expressed as the sum of all Z-lycopene 267 isomers. Isomers were identified according to their relative retention times, i.e. elution order 268 and the combined use of their spectral data. The identifications were based on previously 269 270 published data obtained with the same mobile phase (water/methanol/ methyl tert-butyl ether) and the same detection wavelength range ^{51,52} 271

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273 Statistical analysis

274 Spectrophotometric and HPLC analyses were performed in triplicate for each sample. One-275 way ANOVA was used to analyze the difference in carotenoid compositions between the 276 different products (difference considered significant when p < 0.05). If significantly different, 277 means were further compared using Tukey's test. Statistical analyses were performed with 278 Statistica[®] (StatSoft Inc., USA).

279

280 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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282 Concentration of individual carotenoids of mixed standard solutions

Spectra of pure standards and their mixture are presented in Fig. 2A and B respectively according to their composition shown in Table 2. The spectra of pure compounds, (solution 1 to 3) and their typical three-peak shape, are illustrated in Fig. 2A. Lutein and lycopene spectra exhibited significant differences with a maximal absorption intensity at 440 and 470 nm respectively. They differed from β -carotene with their high III/II ratio of 60%.

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Figure 2. Spectra of A) pure standards of β -carotene, lutein, and lycopene (solutions 1-3 of table 2 and B) mixtures of standards (solutions 4-13 of table 2). Calculation of %III/II as indication of spectral fine structure is presented for lycopene spectra (%III/II = III/II × 100).

Fig. 2B shows the variability of spectra shapes obtained from the standard mixture with relative concentrations for individual carotenoids ranging from 5 to 55%. Two MCR-ALS 297 procedures were applied to these spectra to obtain simulated concentrations of individual carotenoids. Firstly, we applied the mathematical procedure directly on spectra of Fig. 2B and 298 secondly on spectra of Fig. 2B augmented with pure standard spectra of Fig. 2A. In both cases, 299 the number of components k (Eq. 1) was logically chosen equal to three, since it is the number 300 of the different carotenoids put in the mixed standard solutions. Results of the first simulation 301 302 showed that the error was very high and discrepancy between simulated and real values too great (error above 20% for β -carotene and lutein). These results were explained by the fact 303 304 that the pure spectra obtained (not shown here) exhibited confusions, particularly between 305 β -carotene and lutein. Addition of the spectra of standards added constraints that improved markedly the resolution of MCR-ALS. Results of this simulation are presented in Fig 3 that 306 shows real values plotted against simulated ones. Plain lines represent the first bisector of the 307 308 plan and stand for a perfect accuracy of the model, that is to say simulated results equal to the real values of relative concentrations of the table 2. 309

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As can be seen, the relative proportions of β -carotene, lutein and lycopene obtained by MCR-ALS were very close to the experimental ones. Final error for individual carotenoid concentration determination was 6, 3, and 4% for β -carotene, lutein and lycopene respectively. Therefore, in the case of a pure carotenoid mixture, discrimination of β -carotene, lutein and lycopene was good providing addition of pure spectra.

320

321 Concentration of individual carotenoids in fruit extracts







The chromatograms of the 5 fruit extracts tested are presented in Fig. 4: pink grapefruit juice (PGJ), tomato paste (TP), fresh kiwi (FK), apricot nectar (AN), and kiwi and pineapple smoothie

332 (KPS). Lycopene (all-E- and Z-forms) was the major type in PGJ and TP (~70-80%) which was in 333 accordance with literature ^{48,53,54}. Lutein was the major xanthophyll in FK ⁵⁵ and KPS, and for 334 apricot it was β -carotene ⁵⁶. β -carotene was also present in KPS, because both pineapple and 335 spirulina contain it, as well as in low concentrations in TP, KF, and PGJ of 5, 9 and 18% 336 respectively.

Non-identified carotenoids represented a non-negligible proportion. Assuming a 337 spectrophotometric response coefficient close to that of common carotenoids, non-identified 338 339 species could represent about 2 and 6% in AN and PGJ, but 19% in TP and about 26 % in KF and till 50% in KPS certainly due to its more complex composition (kiwi, pineapple and 340 spirulina as additive). These non-identified carotenoids may consist of residual esterified 341 xanthophylls. In addition, in processed food (PGJ, TP, AN) these peaks can correspond to 342 343 degradation products of carotenoids. The first indicator of carotenoid deterioration by thermal treatment is the percentage of isomerization as can be seen in the HPLC 344 chromatogram of grapefruit juice, apricot nectar or tomato paste. Total carotenoids obtained 345 from HPLC are presented in table 3. β -carotene and lycopene were calculated as the sum of 346 347 all isomers. Logically as it is a concentrated product, total carotenoids accounted for 218 mg.kg⁻¹ in tomato paste and were about 20, 40 80 and 1000-fold lower in PGJ, AN, KF and KPS 348 349 respectively.

350

Table 3. Total carotenoids in mg.kg⁻¹ of fruit extracts obtained with HPLC, spectrophotometry

	Pink Grapefruit juice (PGJ)	Tomato paste (TP)	Fresh Kiwi (FK)	Apricot nectar (AN)	Kiwi- Pineapple Smoothie (KPS)
TC by HPLC	12.5 (0.9) ^b	218.3 (19.4) ^a	2.7 (0.1) ^b	5.5 (0.5) ^b	0.21 (0.1) ^c
TC by spectrophotometry	11.8 (1.9) ^b	226.8 (46.2) ^a	6.4 (1.5) ^b	8.4 (0.4) ^b	0.74 (0.1) ^c
TC by spectrophotometry + MCR-ALS	11.8 (1.9) ^b	218.8 (38.9)ª	4.2 (1.1) ^b	7.1 (0.3) ^b	0.17 (0.1) ^c

353 Values bearing different letters for the same parameter are significantly different (p<0.05).

354 Values in brackets are standard errors

355 'TC' for total carotenoids

356

357 Spectrophotometric results





Figure 5. Spectra of fruit carotenoid extracts: tomato paste (TP), fresh kiwi (FK), kiwi-pineapple
 smoothie (KAS), apricot nectar (AN), and pink grapefruit juice (PGJ))

Fig. 5 shows the spectra of fruit extracts obtained without saponification. This kind of 363 extraction was much more rapid by comparison with the saponification-HPLC-procedure (cf 364 365 section 2.5.2 vs 2.5.3.). The saponification step is not mandatory since esterification does not change the spectra of esterified carotenoids ³. As can be seen on Fig. 5 spectra of extracts 366 367 were much noisier than those of the standards particularly in the short-wavelength range 300-420 nm. This phenomenon may be due to several reasons. Firstly, the fruit matrix is complex 368 and variable which can be seen on the spectra of kiwi fruit. The other fruit samples had similar 369 370 spectra since they were homogenized during the process of juice or paste making. Fruit 371 extracts were also more complex because in addition to the main carotenoids, small quantities 372 of other non-identified carotenoids were extracted together as can be seen in chromatograms 373 of Fig. 4. In addition, we can assume a possible co-extraction of small quantities of compounds that may absorb light at the same wavelength as carotenoids, like chlorophylls. This is 374 obviously visible on the spectra of KF and KPS in the region 650-700 nm of the spectra. Finally, 375

376 in real matrices, carotenoids undergo chemical changes such as isomerization as can be also seen in Fig. 4. These changes affect the spectrum of the original carotenoid with a λ_{max} shift 377 and apparition of a *cis* peak³. These artifacts were even more visible in the UV-region of the 378 spectra from 300-350 nm but a slight background noise may remain at the highest wavelength. 379 From the absorbance at 450 nm, total carotenoids were calculated and reached 226 mg.kg⁻¹ 380 381 in tomato paste and were about 20, 25, 35 and 300-fold lower in PGJ, AN, KF and KPS respectively. Therefore, carotenoid content in HPLC results, were equal or 1.5 to 3 times below 382 the spectrophotometric results. These differences were also observed in literature. For 383 384 instance, Biehler and al. (2010) also reported a concentration of total carotenoids in tomato paste by spectrophotometric higher than that of the HPLC results. The underestimation of 385 386 HPLC results was attributed to the extraction step where about 20% of carotenoids is lost. This 387 loss can be even high when a saponification is required in case of xanthyphyll-rich fruits. In 388 addition, Biehler et al. also reported the possible overestimation in spectrophotometric 389 results due to other compound interference and particularly chlorophylls.

390

391 To get the individual proportion of carotenoid from the UV-VIS data but also of unknown compounds, MCR was applied to the fruit extract spectra of Fig 5 augmented with standard 392 393 solution spectra of Fig. 2A and B to improve the resolution. As said before, pre-treatments consisted in removing the UV region 250-350 nm and to normalize spectra. Both treatments 394 were essential to reduce spectra noise for the fruit extracts and to perform properly MCR-ALS. 395 396 Two options of initialization were tested: 3 and 4 compounds (named k in Eq. 1). This number 397 corresponds to the supposed number of pure compounds present in the mixture and was used 398 for MCR-ALS initialization. Indeed, conversely to standard mixture, the number of compounds in the fruit extract was unknown. The first test of 3 was chosen because it corresponded to 399 400 the number of the major carotenoids. We also tested 4 components to create an unknown 401 compound that artificially gathered all the noise of the other constituents of the extract. This 402 last solution helped to lower the error of the relative quantification of carotenoids. The results 403 after MCR-ALS resolution in terms of spectra of pure compounds are presented in Fig. 6. Pure 404 spectra obtained after resolution based on the experimental spectra from 350 to 750 nm are 405 presented in Fig. 6A and from 400 to 600nm in Fig. 6B.





Figure 6. 4 pure spectra obtained after MCR-ALS procedure on standards and fruit extract
spectra A) from 350-750nm and B) from 350-600 nm

From the comparison with spectra of standards, we could easily identify lutein (S1), lycopene (S2), β -carotene (S4) and the unknown (S3). Fig. 6A shows that it was possible to differentiate an unknown compound exhibiting absorbance in the 350-425 and 650-700 nm region which is typical of chlorophylls. From the result of MCR-ALS relative proportions, unknown contribution could be estimated at 5% for TP and PGJ, 15% for AN, 30% for FK, and nearly 80% for KPS which is consistent with the expected content of other extractible compounds, particularly chlorophylls, in the different samples. Contribution of chlorophylls was very high in the commercial KPS, probably because of the addition of spirulina (percentage of this ingredient not given). The content of non-carotenoid compounds that were removed from the total carotenoids are given in Table 3 in the line "TC by spectrophotometry + MCR". By doing this, the overestimation of spectrophotometric estimation was significantly reduced and was at most 1.3-fold and 1.5-fold for AN and KF respectively.

- Relative proportion of lutein, lycopene and β-carotene were obtained after resolution in the
 rage 400-600 nm (with pure spectra obtained in Fig. 6B) for TP, FK, KPS, AN, PGF and 4 different
- 428 mixtures of KPS, AN and PGF. Results are given from HPLC and spectrophotometry-MCR-ALS



429 results in figure 7.

433

434 Figure 7: Relative proportion of lutein (LUT), lycopene (LYCO), and β-carotene (BC) from A)
435 HPLC and B) Spectrophotometry + MCR-ALS

436

As can be seen, for each extract, the major expected form could be elucidated: lutein for KF, 437 β-carotene for AN and lycopene for PGF and TP. Regarding the carotenoid species, lycopene 438 439 and β -carotene were the best elucidated form as on every matrix, the error was about 10% vs 35% for lutein. This effective discrimination can be linked to the highest total carotenoid 440 concentration with 200 mg.kg⁻¹ for tomato paste and 12 mg.kg⁻¹ for pink grapefruit juice 441 respectively. Because of this concentration, even if the extract was diluted for spectral 442 443 measurements, the noise due to other co-eluted compounds became minor. We can observe 444 some aberrant concentrations of lutein in TP and lycopene in AN which were inferior to 5%. 445 Conversely, the higher error for lutein could be due to a more complex extract and spectral proximity with other xanthophylls, pigments, or degradation compounds as can be seen in the 446 chromatograms of Fig. 4. This fact may affect the efficiency of MCR-ALS-resolutions and create 447 pure spectra that differ from the spectra of standards. This phenomenon is illustrated in Fig. 448 6A, where S1 and S4, whose main contributors are lutein and β -carotene respectively, move 449 450 away from the pure spectra of Fig 2A. Even if the MCR-ALS spectral resolution is better by 451 taking a shorter range of wavelength from 400-600 nm (Fig 6B), this fact may explain the overestimation of lutein, contrary to β-carotene, in KPS as well as in all the mixtures that 452 contain it: KPS-AN-PGJ, KPS-AN, KPS-PGF, and AN-PGJ. 453

454

Therefore, simple UV-Vis spectrophotometry associated to MCR-ALS treatment can enable 455 good relative quantification in a mixture of pure carotenoid standards with a good sensitivity 456 457 but also be used to get an estimation of the relative proportion of each specie in a real extract. 458 Indeed, this technique was efficient to discriminate β -carotene and lycopene from other carotenoids with an error inferior to 10%. Therefore, with a simple UV-VIS spectrophotometer 459 and a standard extraction protocol used to determine total carotenoids, addition of the MCR-460 461 ALS procedure can give more insights into the pigment composition of the food extract. In comparison to the usual and widespread "total carotenoid" experiments and with the same 462 463 material, this methodology can give semi-quantitative information about the carotenoid 464 profile in a very reduced time (a few min) in comparison to 30-60 min with HPLC. Therefore, 465 this methodology could be applied for high throughput analysis such as for food process controls where the carotenoid profile could be affected by thermal treatment, varietal 466 screening or ripening monitoring where hundreds of fruits/vegetables must be analyzed. 467 However, this paper also showed the limitations of such techniques that is mainly linked to 468 469 the types of carotenoids that need to be separated. MCR-ALS worked very differently as a function of the spectra features of the compounds in mixture and its composition. The more 470 the spectra are different, the more the resolution can be possible and relevant. This fact is not 471 472 constant like the molecules we wanted to separate: spectra may be very different (like β carotene and lycopene) or the same (like β -carotene and β -cryptoxanthin). Therefore, the 473 474 performance of the method can be high for some plants but not at all for others. As a 475 consequence, this methodology worked very well for fruits that contained lycopene and βcarotene like tomato and pink grapefruit and could be relevant for watermelon, guava, etc. 476 477 More generally, our observations showed that separation could be possible with a difference of λ max of at least 10 nm and/or III/II ratio difference of 30%. Therefore, violaxanthin whose 478 479 maximal absorption wavelength is around 440 nm could be separated from β -carotene and lycopene^{57,43}. Lastly, for different sectors of the agri-food industry, MCR-ALS could be useful 480 481 in estimating other pigments such as chlorophylls.

However, in the case of a mixture of pigments that have very similar features in the UV-Vis 482 such as β-carotene and lutein, use of MCR-ALS can lead to important ambiguities on the 483 484 composition and lead to a much lower accuracy. Therefore, this technique cannot replace 485 HPLC analysis especially when specific nutritional calculation has to be carried out. HPLC 486 remains much more robust and reliable for a fine and accurate carotenoid profile. Also, substances to be analyzed that have a low absorption coefficient in the relevant spectral 487 488 region, or which are only minor components of the mixture cannot be determined with high 489 accuracy. Therefore, it is recommended that substances should have different spectral 490 features and be of similar concentrations to achieve a proper discrimination. Finally, the removal of the UV region <350 nm can be useful to limit interferences, and the signal/noise 491 492 ratio must be high, so a good spectrophotometer, with a low spectral bandwidth is required. 493 Future improvements can be made, by adding a physical purification step, or mathematically by adding spectra of other compounds in the mixture if they are known. 494

497 **Conflicts of interest statement**

- 498 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
- relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.
- 500
- 501 References
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