

Microalgal carotenoids and phytosterols regulate biochemical mechanisms involved in human health and disease prevention

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1 Abstract

2

Microalgae are photosynthetic microorganisms that produce numerous bioactive molecules that can be used as food supplement to prevent chronic disease installation. Indeed, they produce phycobiliproteins, polysaccharides, lipids, carotenoids and sterolic compounds. The use of microalgae in human nutrition provide a mixture of these molecules with synergistic effect.

8 The aim of this review is to present the specific roles played by the xanthophylls, and
9 specifically astaxanthin and fucoxanthin, two high added value carotenoids, and by microalgal
10 phytosterols such as β-sitosterol, campesterol and stigmasterol on several cell mechanisms
11 involved in the prevention of cardiometabolic diseases and cancers.

This review explains how these microalgal molecules modulate cell signaling pathways 12 involved in carbohydrate and lipid metabolisms, inflammation, apoptosis, invasion and 13 metastasis. Xanthophylls and phytosterols are involved in the reduction of inflammatory 14 15 markers in relation with the regulation of the c-Jun N-terminal kinases and nuclear factor-16 kappa B signaling pathways, and suppression of production of pro-inflammatory mediators. Xanthophylls act on glucose and lipid metabolisms via both the upregulation of peroxisome 17 proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs) and glucose transporters and its effects on the 18 19 expression of enzymes involved in fatty acid synthesis and cholesterol metabolism. Their anticancer effects are related to the induction of intrinsic apoptosis due to down-regulation of key 20 regulatory kinases. The anti-angiogenesis, anti-proliferative and anti-invasive effects are 21 correlated with decreased production of endothelial growth factors and of matrix 22 23 metalloproteinases.

Phytosterols have a major role on cholesterol absorption via modification of the activities of
Niemann-Pick C1 like 1 and ATP-binding cassette transporters and on cholesterol

- 26 esterification. Their action are also related with the modulation of PPARs and sterol
- 27 regulatory element-binding protein-1 activities.

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Abbreviations: ABC: ATP-binding cassette, ACAT: acyl-CoA cholesterol acyltransferase, 64 Adr: adrenic receptor, Akt: protein kinase B, CD36: cluster of differentiation 36, CPT: 65 carnitine palmitoyl-transferase, COX: cyclooxygenase, CVD: cardiovascular disease, CYP: 66 cvtochrome P450, DMAPP: dimethylallyl pyrophosphate, DOXP: 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-67 phosphate, EGR: early growth factor, EPS: exopolysaccharides, ERK: extracellular signal-68 regulated kinase, FADD: Fas-associated protein with dead domain, FAS: fatty acid synthase, 69 FGF: fibroblast growth factor, FGFR: fibroblast growth factor receptor, GGPP: geranyl 70 geranyl pyrophosphate, GLUT: glucose transporter protein, GSH: glutathione, GSH-Px: 71 glutathione peroxidase, GSK: glycogen synthase kinase, Hb: hemoglobin, HDL: high density 72 lipoprotein, HepG2: liver hepatocellular cells, HL: human leukemia, HMG-CoA: hydroxyl 73 methyl glutaryl CoA, HO: heme oxygenase, HUVEC: human umbilical vein endothelial cells, 74 IKK: I kappa B kinase, IL: interleukin, iNOS: inductible nitric oxide synthase, IPP: 75 76 isopentenyl pyrophosphate, IRS: insulin receptor substrate, JAK: Janus kinase, JNK: c-Jun Nterminal kinase, LCAT: lecithin-cholesterol acyltransferase, LDL: low density lipoprotein, 77 78 LPS: lipopolysaccharide, LXR: liver X receptor, MAPK: mitogen-activated protein kinase, MDA: malondialdehyde, MEP: methylerythrol phosphate, MMP: matrix metalloproteinase, 79 MVA: mevalonate, NAFLD: nonalcoholic fatty liver disease, NF-κB: nuclear factor-kappa B, 80 NO: nitric oxide, NPC1L1: Niemann-Pick C1 like 1, NQO: NADPH quinone oxidoreductase, 81 Nrf2: nuclear factor erythroid-2 related factor 2, PC: prostate cancer, PGE: prostaglandin E, 82 83 PI3K: phosphoinositide 3-kinase, PKA: protein kinase A, PKC: protein kinase C, PPAR: peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor, PS: polysaccharides, PUFA: polyunsaturated fatty 84 acids, ROS: reactive oxygen species, RXR: retinoid X receptor, SCD: stearoyl CoA 85 desaturase, S-EPS, sulfated exopolysaccharides, SERBP: sterol regulatory element-binding 86 protein, SOD: superoxide dismutase, S-PS: sulfated polysaccharides, SR-B1: scavenger 87 receptor class B type 1, StAR: steroidogenic acute regulatory protein, STAT: signal 88

- transducer and activator of transcription, TNF: tumor necrosis factor, UCP: uncoupling
 protein, VEGF: vascular endothelial growth factor, VEGFR: vascular endothelial growth
 factor receptor, VLDL: very low density lipoprotein.
- 92
- 93 Keywords: Microalgae Xanthophylls Phytosterols Chronic disease prevention Cell
- 94 signaling pathway regulation

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123 **1. Introduction**

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For more than twenty five years, worldwide production of oilseed crops – soybean, peanut, 125 126 rapeseed, sunflower, olive or coprah - has been increasing in order to answer the strong population growth in many countries in which food access is not easy, thereby resulting in 127 caloric deficits and therefore precarious health status [1]. Recently, there has been an 128 129 increased interest for the use of microalgae as new sources of bioactive molecules for animal and human nutrition, but also due to the growing awareness and search for healthier foods [2]. 130 Microalgae are able to produce numerous bioactive phytochemicals which major compounds 131 are phycobiliproteins, polysaccharides, carotenoids and lipids [3]. Other molecules such as 132 phenolic and sterolic compounds are also produced by microalgae. All these molecules are 133 known to provide health benefits when they are used as food supplement for human nutrition. 134 For this use, molecules have to be extracted from fresh, frozen, dried or freeze-dried 135 microalgal biomass. Several extraction techniques can be used such as mechanical treatments, 136 137 solvents, pressurized extraction, ultrasounds, pulsed electric field [4], resonance frequency [5] and microwaves. With the exception of polar carotenoids such as crocetin, carotenoids, as 138 hydrophobic pigments, are extracted with organic solvents such as acetone, diethyl ether, 139 140 ethanol and methanol [6]. Numerous studies have been conducted to optimize these extraction methods, by the use of combined methods with green solvents. For example, in the green 141 microalga Chlorella vulgaris, it has been shown that the extraction of carotenoids was 142 enhanced by the use of a mixture of ethanol and 2-methyltetrahydrofuran, a green solvent, 143 coupled with high temperature (110°C) [7]. Specifically for the extraction of astaxanthin, a 144 well-known bioactive carotenoid, it has been reported in the red phase Haematococcus 145

147 disrupt the hard double wall red cysts, was able to extract around 90% of total astaxanthin

pluvialis, that the use of acetone and ethanol, combined with mechanical pre-treatment to

avoiding any degradation [8]. In this microalga, it has also been shown that the use of different types of 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium-based ionic liquids was efficient for cell disruption [9], and supercritical carbon dioxide extraction combined with temperature and pressure was able to extract more than 98% of total astaxanthin [10]. For an overview of the different techniques used for the extraction of microalgal hydrophobic molecules, see the review by Mubarak *et al* [11].

One major interest for proposing microalgae as food supplement is that they are able to 154 provide a mixture of all these molecules, with an expected synergistic effect. Indeed, some of 155 these microalgal chemicals can be used to counteract the inflammation and oxidative stress 156 that are associated with diseases such as cardiovascular diseases, aging or cancer, notably due 157 to damages caused by reactive oxygen species (ROS) to lipids, proteins and nucleic acids. For 158 example, it is well-known that the blue photosynthetic pigment phycocyanin, a 159 160 phycobiliprotein produced by the cyanobacteria Arthrospira sp., also called Spirulina, has a real potential in cholesterol metabolism regulation and in the inhibition of lipid peroxidation. 161 162 Recently, it has been shown that a phycocyanin rich extract from Spirulina, protects against fibrosis during nonalcoholic steatohepatitis, with a decrease in superoxide anion, nitric oxide 163 (NO) and thiobarbituric reactive substances [12]. A wide diversity of polysaccharides (PS) are 164 produced by marine microalgae [13]. PS and exopolysaccharides (EPS) can be found also as 165 sulfated derivates (S-PS and S-EPS, respectively). It has been reported that these different 166 molecular species produced by numerous cyanobacteria and microalgae exhibit antiviral and 167 antibacterial activities [14]. PS and EPS, sulfated or not, have also been shown to have anti-168 inflammatory and immunomodulatory properties, and other biological activities such as 169 antioxidant, free radical scavenging, anti-tumor, and against vascular muscle cell 170 proliferation. Finally, they have preventive properties of cardiovascular diseases (CVD), such 171 as anti-lipidemic, anti-glycemic, anti-coagulant and anti-thrombotic activities [13]. Phenolic 172

173 compounds produced by microalgae accentuate their antioxidant properties. Indeed, numerous 174 microalgae are able to produce phenolic acids such as caffeic and chlorogenic acids, that, in 175 association with 13-cis-retinoic acid, are known to have high antioxidant activity by 176 preventing lipid peroxidation [15].

In clinical studies, the use of whole microalgae as food supplement have shown their 177 efficiency. Indeed, the use of *Dunaliella* sp. (0.56-3 g/day) afforded an antioxidant protection 178 and counteracted diabetes and hyperlipidemia installation. The administration of Arthrospira 179 sp. in diabetes, dyslipidemia and ischemic heart disease patients led to significant decreases in 180 blood cholesterol, low density lipoproteins (LDL) and very low density lipoproteins (VLDL), 181 triacyglycerols and lipid peroxidation (malondialdehyde, MDA) levels with an improvement 182 in total antioxidant status [16]. In high fat-fed rats, it has been reported that the use of freeze-183 dried Odontella aurita, a marine diatom, had a preventive role in dyslipidemia, oxidative 184 stress and platelet aggregation [17] with better results than those observed with fish oil [18], 185 as earlier reported with the microalga Chlorella pyrenoidosa [19]. In diabetic rats, the 186 microalga Isochrysis galbana has been reported to decrease blood levels of glucose, 187 triacylglycerols and cholesterol [20]. 188

To better understand the role played by microalgal compounds, the aim of this review will focus on the effects of microalgal-derived molecules, specifically carotenoids (Figure 1) and phytosterols (Figure 2), regarding the regulation of biochemical mechanisms involved in chronic diseases such as inflammation, cardiovascular diseases and cancer. Informations concerning the ability of microalgae to produce these molecules will be also given.

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2. Bioactive molecules synthesized by microalgae

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197 Bioactive compounds are molecules that have functional properties for human health. Several of these functional ingredients could be used in food and pharmaceutical industries such as 198 carotenoids, sterols, polyphenols or polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA). Microalgae have the 199 advantage to produce these compounds but also other molecules such as vitamins, enzymes or 200 201 PS that can also be used for commercial use. Microalgal primary metabolism, such as described in diatoms, requires different subcellular compartments as chloroplast, 202 peroxisomes, mitochondria and cytoplasm involved in the Calvin-Benson cycle with the 203 204 synthesis of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate, fatty acid oxidation, the Krebs cycle and glycolysis and neoglucogenesis, respectively [21]. To produce all the molecules that can be used for 205 nutrition and health, the microalgal metabolism requires light as the essential energy source 206 but also water, CO_2 , and nutrients as nitrogen and phosphorus (Figure 3). 207

208

209 2.1 Production of carotenoids by microalgae

The fat-soluble carotenoids are divided into carotenes and xanthophylls. Total carotenoids in 210 the different microalgae, range from 0.02 (Scenedesmus obliquus) to 291 mg/g dry weight 211 (*Dunaliella salina*). Carotenes are represented by α - and β -carotenes. α -Carotene is present in 212 *Chlorophyceae* and *Cryptophyceae* while β -carotene is present in all classes of microalgae [6]. 213 In addition to carotenes, *Chlorophytae (Chlorophyceae and Prasinophyceae)* produce lutein 214 and siphonaxanthin as major xanthophylls, and minor pigments or pigments limited to some 215 216 specific groups, as antheraxanthin, astaxanthin, canthaxanthin, prasinoxanthin, neoxanthin, violaxanthin, or/and zeaxanthin [22]. In addition to β -carotene, the Bacillariophyceae and 217 Prymnesiophyceae groups produce mainly diadinoxanthin, diatoxanthin, and fucoxanthin 218 219 (Table 1). Concerning fucoxanthin, its production in diatoms range from 0.07 to 26.6 mg/g 220 dry weight (the highest level being produced in *Mallomonas* sp.) compared to 2.19 mg/g dry

weight in the haptophyte *Isochrysis galbana*, [6]. Astaxanthin is produced by the green microalga *Haematococcus pluvialis* when during its red phase can accumulate up to 5% of its dry weight [23]. In *Chlorella zofingiensis*, another freshwater green microalga, it has been shown that under stress conditions (high light irradiance, salt stress and low nitrogen), the content of astaxanthin can reach 5.32 to 6.02 mg/g dry weight of biomass [24].

226

227 2.2 Production of phytosterols by microalgae

Phytosterols are important structural components of membranes and are involved in the 228 regulation of membrane fluidity and permeability; they also act as hormonal precursors 229 involved in signal transductions in organisms [25]. They are found in all microalgal species. 230 In microalgal oil extracts, the phytosterol content has been reported as ranging from 7 to 34 g 231 per kg (0.7-3.4%) when issued from Isochrysis galbana, Nannochloropsis sp. and 232 Phaeodactylum tricornutum [26]. Recently, Diacronema lutheri (syn. Pavlova lutheri), 233 234 Tetraselmis sp. and Nannochloropsis sp. have been identified as the highest phytosterol producers, with content ranging from 0.4% to 2.6% dry weight biomass, and reaching 5.1%, 235 depending on nutrients, salinity and cultivation duration [27]. According to the results 236 reported by Volkman [28] in the genus Chlorella, a freshwater green alga (Chlorophyceae), 237 the highest levels of sterols (expressed as percentage of total sterols) are represented by 238 campesterol (23-31%) and by stigmasterol (56-72%). In the class of the Prasinophyceae, 239 campesterol range from 34 to 99% of total sterols in Tetraselmis sp. The haptophyte 240 (Prymnesiophyceae) Diacronema lutheri is characterized by levels of β -sitosterol ranging 241 from 23 to 73% of total sterols and by levels of campesterol and stigmasterol about 16-18% 242 and 10-31%, respectively. In diatoms (Bacillariophyceae), a large variety of sterols can be 243 244 found, depending on species. Indeed the diatom *Thalassiosira pseudonana* is characterized by

100% of stigmasterol while in *Asterionella glacialis*, the level of β -sitosterol is 95%. Campesterol is mainly found in the diatoms *Odontella aurita* and *Chaetoceros* sp. with levels from 18 to 38% of total sterols. A summary of the main classes of microalgae producing campesterol, β -sitosterol and stigmasterol, is given in Table 1. More detailed information concerning the main microalgal producers, are reported in an exhaustive review written by Volkman [29] and in Mimouni *et al.* [30].

251

252 2.3 Characteristics and synthesis of carotenoids

Carotenoids belong to the family of terpenoid compounds and has more than 750 members 253 [31]. Carotenoids are represented by carotenes that are true hydrocarbons without any 254 substituent in their structure, and by xanthophylls or oxycarotenoids, that contain oxygen 255 atoms [32]. Carotenoids are C30-C50 molecules characterized by an extended network of 256 conjugated double bonds forming the chromophore, which absorbs visible light in the violet-257 green region. A consequence of the presence of double bonds is the abundant number of 258 carotenoid isomers [33]. Thus, carotenoids may adopt several 3D-configurations that are 259 important for their biological properties. For instance, *cis*-isomers of fucoxanthin have been 260 reported to be more efficient than all-trans-isomers in human cancer lines [31]. Another 261 262 consequence of the extended network of conjugated double bonds resides in their capacity to act as antioxidants [31]. Although the carotenoid diversity in microalgae is very large and in 263 many cases specific of taxa, in addition to the regular carotenoids also found in land plants, 264 microalgae can produce molecular species with unique chemical structures [34]. It is out of 265 the scope of this review to describe here the different types of carotenoids present in 266 267 microalgae; therefore, for more information, readers are directed towards excellent reviews on that specific topic [34]. 268

Fucoxanthin (Figure 1A) is a carotenoid present in the chloroplast of most of the algae belonging to the Heterokonta. In the photosynthetic apparatus, fucoxanthin is associated to pigments and has an essential role in photon capture for photosynthesis. Like any carotenoid, fucoxanthin exhibits a polyene chain with a conjugated carbonyl, an epoxide and a hydroxyl groups. The presence of an allenic bond makes the structure of fucoxanthin unique (Figure 1A). Altogether, these features confer to fucoxanthin a strong antioxidant capacity as well as a nonusual color for a carotenoid i.e. khaki color.

Astaxanthin (Figure 1B) is a ketocarotenoid accumulating under stress conditions [35] in 276 several green microalgae [36], the most famous being Haematococcus pluvialis [37]. In 277 contrast to fucoxanthin and most of other carotenoids, astaxanthin accumulates in the 278 cytoplasm within lipid/carotenoid droplets. As fucoxanthin, astaxanthin exhibits a polyene 279 chain with an epoxide and a hydroxyl groups on each end cycle. The astaxanthin that 280 281 accumulates in microalgae is usually esterified with fatty acids [38], which might be interesting from the nutritional point of view [39]. Altogether, these features confer to 282 astaxanthin a very strong antioxidant capacity, a red color and a potential for nutrition. The 283 main characteristics of fucoxanthin and astaxanthin, with their microalgal location and role, 284 are reported in Table 2. 285

The first step in the carotenogenesis is the synthesis of isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP) 286 through the mevalonate (MVA) pathway or the 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate (DOXP) 287 pathway, that will be converted into geranyl geranyl pyrophosphate (GGPP) [40]. The 288 carotenoid synthesis requires a condensing enzyme, the phytoene synthase, to produce the 289 condensation of two molecules of GGPP to yield phytoene [41]. From this molecule, all the 290 carotenoids will be synthesized, among which β -carotene, astaxanthin, lutein and 291 xanthophylls as violaxanthin, diatoxanthin, and fucoxanthin through the xanthophyll cycles 292 [32]. 293

294

295 2.4 Characteristics and synthesis of phytosterols

Phytosterols are tetracyclic cyclopenta phenanthrene structures (ring A, B, C, and D) 296 associated with an aliphatic chain on the carbon 17 (ring D) that can be analyzed by 297 chromatography techniques and detected with numerous methods [42]. They are the end 298 products of isoprenoid synthesis, derived from IPP and dimethylallyl pyrophosphate 299 (DMAPP). Phytosterols are essential components of membranes [43], controlling fluidity, 300 permeability or activities of membrane-bound enzymes [44]. In microalgae, there is a wide 301 range of structures due to the great diversity of microalgal classes, genera and species, 302 combined with a long evolutionary history of most microalgae [29]. Some sterols can be 303 restricted to few microalgal classes while others are widespread. A large diversity of sterols 304 are found in microalgae. For a review, it can be consulted a very interesting work in this field 305 [29]. The aim of our review is to focus on some phytosterols that are known to have benefits 306 307 on human health. In this context, here will be presented some characteristics of stigmasterol, β -sitosterol, and campesterol (Table 2). All microalgae contain sterols dominated with a $\Delta 5$ 308 double bond and no methyl group on C4. Stigmasterol and β -sitosterol (Figure 2) are C29 309 310 sterols (C29:2 and C29:1, respectively), and their systematic names are 24\alpha-ethylcholesta-5,22E-dien-3 β -ol and 24 β -ethylcholest-5-en-3 β -ol, respectively. One of the characteristics of 311 C29 sterols is that they have a 24-ethyl substituent while C28 sterols have a 24-methyl group. 312 Even if stigmasterol and β -sitosterol are commonly associated with higher plants, they can 313 also be found in numerous microalgal species such as diatoms, chlorophytes, chrysophytes, 314 315 haptophytes and freshwater eustigmatophytes [44]. Campesterol (Figure 2) is a C28 sterol with one double bond (C28:1) and its systematic name is 24α -methylcholest-5-en-3 β -ol. 316 Campesterol is more specifically found in chlorophytes [29]. 317

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Two metabolic pathways are involved in their biosynthesis. The MVA pathway and the

methylerythritol phosphate (MEP) pathway [44]. The existence of these two metabolic

pathways have been proved in numerous microalgae [45]. Microalgal-derived phytosterols are

321	reported as 4-desmethyl- Δ 5-sterols, 4-desmethyl- Δ 7-sterols, 4-methyl-sterols and
322	dihydroxylated sterols [46].
323	In Figure 4 is reported a short view of the two common metabolic pathways involved in the
324	synthesis of microalgal carotenoids and sterols.
325	
326	3. Bioavailability and absorption of carotenoids and phytosterols
327	
328	3.1 Carotenoids
329	
330	3.1.1 Bioavailability
331	The absorption of hydrophobic molecules as carotenoids, need different steps as follows:
332	release from food matrix, lipid emulsion, solubilization into mixed micelles, uptake by
333	enterocytes and secretion into lymphatic system [47]. Moreover, the increase of diet fat seems
334	to enhance the absorption of carotenoids [48]. Carotenoid bioavailability depends on
335	numerous dietary factors such as the source, food matrix, food processing or lipid levels but
336	also depends on host-related factors, e.g. diseases, life-style habits age or genetic variations
337	[49]. It is difficult to compare bioavailabilities of carotenoids from different plant sources as
338	vegetables, fruits or microalgae because different in vivo and in vitro approaches have been
339	used, even if high correlations have been found, thus stressing that estimating in vitro
340	bioaccessibility (solubility/ micellarization) can be indicative of the amount available for

uptake in the gastro-intestinal tract *in vivo* [50]. Moreover, there is a lack of information
concerning microalgal sources. Nevertheless, below will be presented some reported results
with different plant sources.

344 According to the literature, more than 750 carotenoid species have been identified and only 40 are consumed, the most abundant being β -carotene, lycopene, lutein, β -cryptoxanthin, α -345 carotene and zeaxanthin. Astaxanthin and cantaxanthin are absorbed in subjects fed with diets 346 rich in sea food [49]. It has been reported that vegetable and fruit carotene bioavailability was 347 ranged from 1.5 to 39%; concerning xanthophylls, this bioavailability was of 4 to 59% [51]. 348 Carotenoids from microalgae have also been reported to be bioavailable for nutrition studies. 349 Indeed, a study has been conducted in rats with diets containing Spirulina platensis, 350 Haematococcus pluvialis or Botryococcus braunii, providing 200 µmol/L of β-carotene, 351 astaxanthin or lutein, respectively [52]. After 15 days of diet, plasma levels of these 352 353 carotenoids range from 255 to 485 nmol/L, the highest level being obtained for astaxanthin, probably due to astaxanthin esterification, which can increase astaxanthin absorption [53]. 354 Moreover, in a previous similar nutritional study, it was also reported that the peak level of 355 individual carotenoids in plasma was observed 2 hours after administration of microlagal 356 biomass [54]. 357

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359 3.1.2 Mechanisms of absorption

When carotenoids are released from the food matrix, they are incorporated into lipid droplets and then in mixed micelles after action of pancreatic lipases and bile salts that are absorbed in the enterocytes. For a long time, it has been thought that carotenoids were absorbed by passive diffusion but recently it has been proposed the role of proteins involved in their uptake but also in their secretion. Indeed, the uptake of carotenoids are captured by the apical

membrane transporters as scavenger receptor class B type 1 (SR-B1), cluster of differentiation 366 (CD36) and Niemann-Pick C1-like 1 (NPC1L1) [55]. Carotenoids are transported by 367 lipoproteins with a specific accumulation of β -carotene in chylomicrons and very low density 368 lipoproteins (VLDL), while xanthophylls are more specifically incorporated into LDL and 369 high density lipoproteins (HDL) [40] (Figure 5). Beside liver, the main tissue target of β -370 carotene in which it will be accumulated is adipose tissue [56].

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372 3.2 Phytosterols

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374 3.2.1 Bioavailability

Campesterol, β -sitosterol and stigmasterol are the most common phytosterols, with a chemical 375 structure resembling cholesterol one. As human cells do not synthesize them, phytosterol 376 377 levels and activities depend on plant origin diet [57]. In human serum, phytosterol levels are hundred times lower than cholesterol ones, in a range of 3-20 mg/L. This can be partially 378 explained by the fact that less than 10% of phytosterols are absorbed by comparison with the 379 levels of absorbed cholesterol that are around 50-60% [58]. However, due to the poor 380 solubility and bioavailability of free phytosterols, a minimum intake of 2-3 g/days is 381 382 necessary for a cholesterol-lowering effect [27]. In various animal species, it has been reported an absorption ranging from 0% in rabbit to 4% in rat; and in human subjects fed with 383 240 to 320 mg of sitosterol, the estimated absorption was from 1.5% to 5% [59]. 384

385

386 3.2.2 Mechanisms of absorption

Intestinal uptake of phytosterols takes place after their incorporation into mixed micelles. 387 Then, sterols are released from the micelles and transported into the enterocyte via the 388 NPC1L1 transporter [60]. Once incorporated, the absorption is inhibited by ATP-binding 389 cassette (ABC) efflux transporters as ABCG5 and ABCG8 that are involved in the secretion 390 of phytosterols in the inter-intestinal lumen [61]. In the enterocytes, contrary to cholesterol, 391 phytosterols are not esterified, resulting in a lower incorporation into the nascent 392 chylomicrons which enter the lymphatic system and then blood circulation. Then, phytosterols 393 are taken up by liver in which there are metabolized. However, based upon a higher rate of 394 bile excretion of phytosterols compared to cholesterol, this can also explain the low serum 395 levels of these molecules [62]. 396

397

398 4. Carotenoids and disease prevention

399

In microalgae, β -carotene, astaxanthin and fucoxanthin are among the most interesting 400 compounds based upon their antioxidant functions. Among the carotenoids, β -carotene is 401 responsible for the production of retinol and retinoic acid, thus activating numerous 402 transcription factors such as retinoid X receptor (RXR) and peroxisome proliferator-activated 403 receptors (PPARs), and hormone receptors [56]. In vitro and in vivo studies have reported that 404 β -carotene was also involved in the reduction of angiogenesis through decreasing new formed 405 blood vessels and suppression of cell proliferation and migration. The expression of matrix 406 metalloproteinases (MMP)-2 and -9 was downregulated, and a decrease of the pro-407 inflammatory cytokine levels has also been observed [63]. Concerning diabetes, serum β-408 carotene levels have been reported to be inversely correlated with levels of HbA1c that are 409 linked to impaired insulin sensitivity. 410

In the following sections, only the effects of xanthophylls on biochemical mechanisms in disease prevention and health benefits will be detailed, and more specifically the role played by astaxanthin and fucoxanthin, two microalgal high added value products. Indeed, these molecules have been proposed to have benefits on human health through antioxidant activity, hypolipidemic, anti-inflammatory and hypotensive effects, and through the improvement of endothelial function [64]. A summary of the role of xanthophylls is given in Figure 6.

417

418 4.1 Metabolic disease prevention

Astaxanthin, one of the most important carotenoids that can be extracted from the microalga 419 Haematococcus pluvialis, has a real anti-hypertensive effect. This protective effect has been 420 reported in SHR and Zucker rats with a systolic blood pressure lowering action [65] [66]. It 421 has been proposed that this effect could be mediated by NO-related mechanisms and by the 422 activity of the renin-angiotensin system. Astaxanthin has also been shown to have a great 423 potential in diabetes prevention and treatment. In the db/db mouse model, treatment with 424 astaxanthin induced a decrease of glucose tolerance with attenuation of blood glucose levels 425 and serum insulin enhancement. Moreover, due to its antioxidant properties, astaxanthin was 426 reported to help in the preservation of pancreatic β -cell function [67]. In high fat diet-fed 427 mice, it has been shown that this xanthophyll was able to reduce ROS production, lipid 428 accumulation, and the hepatic expression of endoplasmic reticulum stress and inflammatory 429 markers. These reductions have been related to reduced c-Jun N-terminal kinase 1 (JNK1) and 430 431 nuclear factor-kappa B (NF-KB) cell signaling pathways, leading to the conclusion that astaxanthin might be used as a treatment for insulin resistant patients [68]. This carotenoid has 432 also been shown to bind to PPARy, decrease glycemia and triglyceridemia and improve serum 433 HDL-cholesterol and adiponectin levels, thus resulting in an anti-hyperglycemic effect [41]. 434

Still concerning the carbohydrate metabolism regulation, the xanthophyll fucoxanthin, like astaxanthin, has the ability to regulate glycemia and insulin levels in diabetic/obese mice but it also upregulates the mRNA levels of the glucose transporter 4 protein (GLUT4), known to be involved in the uptake of glucose. The translocation of GLUT4 from intracellular vesicles to plasma membrane would result from the increased phosphorylation levels of protein kinase B (Akt) and from the induction of PPAR γ coactivator-1 α [69].

Fucoxanthin is also recognized to have an anti-obesity activity. Indeed, several mechanisms 441 are regulated by this carotenoid in relation with weight loss and lipid metabolism. It has thus 442 been reported that fucoxanthin decreased the mRNA expression of the fatty acid synthase 443 (FAS) and inhibited the adipocyte uptake of glucose by reducing the phosphorylation of the 444 insulin receptor substrate 1 (IRS-1). Its anti-obesity effects would also be due to the 445 stimulation of the uncoupling protein-1 (UCP-1) expression in white adipose tissue. 446 Thermogenesis and lipolysis are increased by the UCP-1 stimulation and also by the increased 447 mRNA expression of the β 3-adrenergic receptor (Adrb3) [70]. This anti-obesity action is also 448 449 related to a decrease in plasma leptin levels and to a down-regulation of the liver stearoyl-CoA desaturase-1 (SCD1), a rate limiting step in the saturated and monounsaturated fatty 450 acids. This alteration of fatty acid composition has been proposed to stem from leptin 451 signaling in mice [71]. This anti-obesity effect is also due to the action of fucoxanthin and its 452 derivates on lipid metabolism. Fucoxanthin has been reported to regulate the hydroxyl methyl 453 glutaryl CoA (HMG-CoA), acyl-CoA cholesterol acyltransferase (ACAT), lecithin-454 cholesterol acyltransferase (LCAT) and carnitine palmitoyl-transferase (CPT-1) activities as 455 well as sterol regulatory element-binding protein-1 (SREBP-1) [70]. 456

457

458 4.2 Anti-cancer and anti-angiogenic activities

The anti-cancer effects of astaxanthin have been studied in numerous cancers in murine 459 models in which it has been reported a significant lower occurrence of cancer, an anti-460 proliferative activity, a reduction of metastasis induced by stress, and a reduction of weights 461 and sizes of tumors [41]. The pro-cell death effect of astaxanthin could go through the 462 activation of a caspase-dependent mitochondrial apoptotic pathway; this would involve a 463 downregulation of the expression of anti-apoptotic proteins (eg. Bcl-2, p-Bad, and surviving), 464 and an upregulation of pro-apoptotic proteins (Bax and Bad), with a release of cytochrome c 465 from mitochondria and cleavage of ADP-ribose polymerase [72]. In oral cancer, astaxanthin 466 has been shown to inhibit invasion through a decrease in the mRNA and protein levels of 467 overexpressed MMP-2 and -9, and through an increase of the protein levels of their 468 endogenous inhibitors [73]. 469

In relation with these observations, molecular targets of astaxanthin have been proposed that 470 would explain its role in cancer prevention. The activation of the caspase-mediated 471 mitochondrial apoptotic pathway would be due to the inhibition of the NF-kB signaling 472 pathway and to the down-regulation of the key regulatory kinases, I kappa B kinase (IKK β) 473 and glycogen synthase kinase- 3β (GSK- 3β) [72]. The anti-proliferative and anti-angiogenic 474 effects of astaxanthin have been related to the inhibition of the JAK-2 (Janus kinase-2)/STAT-475 3 (signal transducers and activators of transcription-3) signaling with an inhibition of STAT-3 476 phosphorylation and its nuclear translocation leading to down-regulation of STAT-3 target 477 genes involved in cell proliferation (cyclin D1), invasion (MMP) and angiogenesis (vascular 478 endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and its receptor VEGFR-2) [73]. Among the signaling 479 480 pathways regulating cell survival, the phosphoinositide 3-kinase PI3K/Akt has an important role. Astaxanthin decreased the phosphorylation of AKT to induce apoptosis. Other molecular 481 targets such as mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), PPARy and nuclear factor 482

483 erythroid-2 related factor 2 (Nrf-2) are regulated by astaxanthin. For a detailed review see484 Zhang and Wang [74].

Fucoxanthin seems to have a better anti-cancer activity compared with lycopene, β -carotene 485 or astaxanthin. Indeed, in the human leukemia HL-60 cell line, only fucoxanthin induced high 486 levels of DNA fragmentation. In this study, the authors stated that the apoptosis induced by 487 fucoxanthin was related to the generation of ROS, leading to cytotoxicity involving the 488 cleavage of caspases-3 and -9 [75]. In prostate cancer cell lines, fucoxanthin and its 489 metabolite fucoxanthinol have been reported to inhibit cell-growth rate [76] and to induce 490 apoptosis in prostate cancer PC-3 cells by activating caspase-3 [77]. Fucoxanthin and 491 fucoxanthinol have also been reported to induce cell-cycle arrest in numerous human tumor 492 cell lines by modulating expression of various molecules and signal transduction pathways 493 [78]. In osteosarcoma, they induced G_1 cell cycle arrest by reducing the expression of cyclin-494 dependent kinases. In this bone tumor, fucoxanthin and fucoxanthinol also induced apoptosis 495 with a reduced expression of survivin, an X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis protein, and of the 496 anti-apoptotic genes Bcl-2 and Bcl-xL. The resulting apoptosis is associated with caspase 497 activation and with an inhibition of the Akt pathway. Migration and invasion inhibitions have 498 been associated with the reduced MMP-1 expression and the activator protein-1 signal [79]. 499 Studies reported in human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC) have demonstrated the 500 501 anti-angiogenic activity of fucoxanthin and fucoxanthinol. Indeed, it has been shown a suppression of the growth of microvessels [80] and a down-regulation of the fibroblast growth 502 factor-2 (FGF-2), its receptor FGFR-1 as well as of the factor of transcription early growth 503 response protein 1 (EGR-1). In this study, it has also been shown that fucoxanthin hampered 504 the phosphorylation of signaling proteins such as extracellular signal-regulated kinases (ERK) 505 and Akt [81]. 506

507

508 4.3 Anti-inflammatory activities

The anti-inflammatory effects of astaxanthin have been reported in numerous in vitro and in 509 vivo studies on lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced inflammatory reactions, with suppression of 510 the production of NO, prostaglandin E_2 (PGE₂), interleukin (IL)-1 β and tumor necrosis factor 511 512 alpha (TNF- α), and prevention of the expression of inductible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and cyclooxygenase (COX)-2. All these results have been related with the inhibition of the 513 NF-κB signaling pathway. The same results have been observed in LPS-stimulated murine 514 macrophages, in which fucoxanthin was able to reduce levels of pro-inflammatory molecules 515 such as NO, PGE₂, IL-1 $\beta/6$, TNF- α , by the suppression of the NF- κ B but also by the 516 517 inhibition of the MAPK pathways signaling [75].

518

519 4.4 Anti-oxidant activities

Astaxanthin scavenges free radicals and other antioxidants to protect lipids from peroxidation. 520 It inhibits H_2O_2 -mediated activation of the transcription factor NF- κ B that is involved in the 521 expression of heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1) and iNOS engaged against oxidative stress [82]; 522 subsequently, the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines was blocked through the increase 523 of tyrosine phosphatase-1 expression [83]. In brain, the use of astaxanthin has been reported 524 to protect from oxidative stress with a decreased level of MDA and NO and increased 525 activities of catalase and of superoxide dismutase (SOD) and higher glutathione (GSH) levels 526 [84]. It also protects the steroidogenesis from oxidative stress with a prevention in the down-527 regulation of the steroidogenic acute regulatory protein (StAR), a protein involved in the 528 529 transport of cholesterol. Indeed, during oxidative stress, the protein kinase A (PKA) pathway is attenuated, leading to the suppression of the expression of StAR; administration of 530 531 astaxanthin acts on the PKA pathway, thereby restoring the StAR expression [85].

In vivo studies have shown that fucoxanthin exhibit antioxidant activities through the increase
of catalase, SOD and glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px) activities, as well as the plasmatic
expression of Nrf2 and NADPH quinone oxidoreductase 1 (NQO1) [86]. The increased Nrf2
protein accumulation is accompanied by an enhancement of ERK, p38 phosphorylation and of
HO-1expression [87].

537

538

5. Phytosterols and disease prevention

539

540 5.1 Cholesterol-lowering activity and lipid metabolism

Phytosterols have been reported to interact with the cholesterol absorption through inhibitory 541 mechanisms. Among suggested mechanisms, it has been proposed the release of cholesterol 542 from mixed micelles, the modification of the gene expression of NPC1L1 and of ABCG5 and 543 ABCG8 transporters, or the decrease of the intestinal cholesterol esterification rate [88]. The 544 selective binding of sitosterol to the ABCG5 and ABCG8 transporters involved in the 545 546 regulation of liver and intestinal sterol absorption and secretion, is related to blood cholesterol lowering [89]. Microalgal phytosterols as campesterol and β -sitosterol are also involved in 547 cholesterol level decrease through the down-regulation of hepatic HMG-CoA reductase and 548 the stimulation of the LDL-C receptors, thus facilitating the removal of plasma cholesterol 549 [90]. Moreover, β -sitosterol has a competing activity with NPC1L1 [91]. LXRs are nuclear 550 receptors involved in the regulation of lipid metabolism. Even if the main function of LXRs is 551 the regulation of cholesterol metabolism, their activation inhibits inflammation, autoimmune 552 reactions and atherogenesis [92]. The treatment of intestinal cells with phytosterols, like 553 554 campesterol and β -sitosterol, would lead to an increase in the expression of LXR target genes, suggesting a ligand action of these molecules on LXRs. Specifically, phytosterols increase the 555 ABCA1 expression and decrease cholesterol absorption [93]. In rat, it has been shown that the 556

incorporation of β -sitosterol into liver membranes, decreased its fluidity while an increase in liver desaturases ($\Delta 9$, $\Delta 6$ and $\Delta 5$ desaturases) was observed, probably as a compensatory mechanism for the decreased fluidity [94] [57].

As phytosterols are supposed to be metabolized in the same way as cholesterol in intestinal 560 lumen, the effect of campest-5-en-3-one (campestenone), an oxidized derivate of campesterol, 561 has been studied on lipid metabolism in rats. It has been reported that campestenone increased 562 the activities and mRNA expressions of enzymes involved in liver β -oxidation; it also reduced 563 visceral fat weight, triacylglycerol and cholesterol levels in serum and liver, as well as the 564 565 activities and mRNA expression of enzymes involved in fatty acid synthesis [95]. In this study, it has also been reported an activation of human PPARa and a decreased mRNA level 566 of SREBP-1. All these results are in favor of an effect of dietary campesterol and its oxidized 567 derivate to prevent CVD by improving obesity and dyslipidemia. 568

In human pancreatic islet and in the INS-1 insulinoma cell line, the use of stigmasterol prevents the increase of both cholesterol and ROS levels induced by glucolipotoxicity. In this study, stigmasterol has been shown to decrease free cholesterol levels resulting from glucolipotoxicity, with a real potential to protect pancreatic cells during diabetes progression [96].

Recently, in mice fed high-fat western-style diet, it has been reported that stigmasterol and β sitosterol were able to attenuate the nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and to alter lipid metabolism. Administered at a dose corresponding to what is suggested for human, it has been shown an amelioration of high fat diet-induced fatty liver, including liver total lipid, triacylgycerol and cholesterol levels. Moreover, both phytosterols were able to decrease the intestinal bile acid levels. Analyses of gene expressions have shown a prevention of the decreased mRNA expression of HMG-CoA reductase in liver by both phytosterols. Only

stigmasterol was reported to suppress lipogenesis-related genes such as SCD1 and FAS, while
both increased the expression of PPARα and CD36. The hepatic expressions of the
cytochrome P450s CYP7A1, CYP8B1 and CYP27A1 were also increased [35].

584

585 5.2 Anti-inflammatory activities

Ergosterol and peroxide-derived ergosterol from microalga such as Chlorella vulgaris and 586 Dunaliella tertiolecta have been shown to reduce the LPS-induced inflammatory response 587 through the reduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNF- α , IL-6, IL-10) [98]. β -sitosterol, 588 has been shown to have anti-inflammatory activity in murine macrophages. Indeed, treatment 589 with this phytosterol inhibited both the STAT1 pathway and the translocation of NF- κ B, two 590 pro-inflammatory signal transduction pathways, which were supposed to be mediated by the 591 activation of the tyrosine phosphatase SHP-1 [99]. Stigmasterol has been described to have 592 anti-osteoarthritic properties with inhibition of pro-inflammatory and matrix degradation 593 mediators involved in cartilage degradation in part via the NF-kB pathway [100]. In LPS-594 induced innate immune responses in mice, stigmasterol has also been reported to decrease 595 fever response, lung inflammation, transaminase activities and liver damages [101]. 596

597

598 5.3 Anti-cancer activities

Numerous studies have reported that phytosterols exhibit bioactivities against tumours. Thus, stigmasterol isolated from the microalga *Navicula incerta* induces toxicity in HepG2 cells and triggers apoptosis via up-regulation of *Bax* and down-regulation of *Bcl-2* [102]. β-sitosterol is also involved in the increase of the *Bax/Bcl-2* ratio and in the activation of caspase-3, thus enhancing apoptosis and inhibiting proliferation in human leukemic cells [103]. In MDA-MB-

604 231 cells, this phytosterol has been shown to inhibit GO/G1 cell cycle associated with 605 induction of apoptosis. The use of β-sitosterol indeed induced the depolarization of 606 mitochondrial membrane potential and also increased the *Bax/Bcl-2* ratio in this human breast 607 cancer line [104]. The Fas/CD95 apoptotic pathway in human breast cancer has also been 608 suggested to be affected by β-sitosterol. Indeed, its incorporation in cell membranes induced 609 an increase in Fas protein levels, and caspase-8 activity, resulting in an inhibition of tumor 610 cell growth [105].

As shown in macrophages, another mechanism of the anti-cancer activity of phytosterols might occur through the increase of antioxidant enzymes, like the manganese SOD and the GSH-Px, resulting in a protection of cells from damage caused by ROS and depending on the estrogen/PI3K pathway [106].

As phospholipids interact with cholesterol in cell membranes, the incorporation of 615 phytosterols into membranes could modify their structure and thus cell signaling [107]. 616 Indeed, lipid rafts, where sterols are highly concentrated, regulate phosphorylation chain 617 618 reactions, and the incorporation of phytosterols might lead to beneficial changes in signal transduction [108]. To explain the role of β -sitosterol on the inhibition of tumor growth, the 619 signaling pathways involving the protein kinase C (PKC) and sphingomyelin cycle have been 620 investigated. In vivo and in vitro studies did not report any effect of β -sitosterol on the PKC 621 pathway and on the phospholipase C activity. However, the *in vitro* studies showed an 622 623 activation of the sphingomyelin cycle, in cells supplemented with β -sitosterol, resulting in an increased production of ceramide, a major cell second messenger promoting cell cycle arrest 624 625 and apoptosis [57]. In vitro studies have further shown the role of β -sitosterol in the reduction of sphingomyelin levels via the activation of sphingomyelinase leading to an increase in 626

627 ceramide [109]. A summary of the role of the main microalgal phytosterols is reported in628 Figure 6.

629

630 **6.** Conclusion

631

The results reported in this review explain how microalgae could be promising food 632 supplement for health and disease prevention. The whole cell can be used in nutrition to 633 provide a mixture of molecules that possess preventive effects towards several chronic 634 diseases; on the other hand, extracted molecules could also be proposed for targeting specific 635 effects. In this review, the effects of microalgal ω 3 PUFA have not been discussed but their 636 high amounts contained in microalgae help in the efficiency of these microorganisms in 637 638 cardiometabolic disease prevention and anti-tumoral activities. Fish oils provide high levels of ω 3 PUFA but the advantage of microalgae is that they also provide molecules such as 639 carotenoids and sterols that have obvious health beneficial effects. At present, few microalgae 640 can be used in human nutrition because cytotoxicity tests must be conducted prior to 641 agreement by food authorities. However, as emphasized in this review, extracted molecules 642 might be directly used for nutrition in order to act specifically on cell signaling pathways and 643 thus, might be considered not only as preventive agents but also as therapeutic agents. 644

645

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647

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651 **8. Authors' contribution**

652

MLG and ELF contributed to the redaction of the section related to cancer prevention ; CM 653 and VM contributed to the section related to cardiovascular disease prevention ; DLG 654 655 thoroughly read the manuscript and added more information, notably related to underlying mechanisms, when necessary, besides checking for correct English usage; BS contributed to 656 657 the redaction of the section related to the carotenoid production, and also to the revision of English language; LU supervised the redaction of this review and compiled all the reported 658 informations, was responsible of the different sections, created all figures and tables and 659 660 wrote the sections in relation with the illustrations.

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662 9. References

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955	Figure 1. Chemical structures of the main high added value bioactive xanthophylls
956	produced by microalgae.
957	A: fucoxanthin, B: astaxanthin
958	
959	Figure 2. Chemical structures of bioactive phytosterols produced by microalgae.
960	A: stigmasterol, B: β-sitosterol, C: campesterol
961	
962	Figure 3. Synthesis of bioactive compounds by microalgae.
963	CH: chloroplast, CW: cell wall, ER: endoplasmic reticulum, LD: lipid droplet, MT:
964	mitochondria, N, nucleus.
965	
966	Figure 4. Common metabolic pathways of microalgal carotenoid and sterol syntheses
967	[32] [45] [110].
968	DMAPP: dimethylallyl pyrophosphate, DOXP / MEP: 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate /
969	methylerythrol phosphate, GGPP: geranyl geranyl pyrophosphate, IPP: isopentenyl
970	pyrophosphate, MVA: mevalonate.
971	
972	Figure 5. Intestinal uptake and secretion pathways of carotenoids and phytosterols [55]
973	[88] [111] [112].
974	ABC: ATP-binding cassette, ACAT2: acyl-coenzyme A cholesterol acyltransferase 2, ApoB-
975	48: apolipoprotein B48, CD36: cluster of differentiation 36, FA: fatty acid, HDL: high density

lipoprotein, LXR: liver X receptor, MTP: mitochondrial transfer protein, NPC1L1: Niemann-

- Pick C1-like 1, PS-E: esterified phytosterol, SR-B1: scavenger receptor class B type 1, TAG:
- triacylglycerol.

Figure 6. The roles of microalgal xanthophylls and phytosterols in the regulation of biochemical parameters involved in chronic diseases.

ABC: ATP-binding cassette, Akt: protein kinase B, COX: cyclooxygenase, CYP: cytochrome 982 P450, EGR: early growth factor, ERK: extracellular signal-regulated kinase, FAS: fatty acid 983 synthase, FGF: fibroblast growth factor, FGFR: fibroblast growth factor receptor, GLUT: 984 glucose transporter protein, GSH-Px: glutathione peroxidase, HO: heme oxygenase, IKK: I 985 kappa B kinase, IL: interleukin, iNOS: inductible nitric oxide synthase, IRS: insulin receptor 986 substrate, JAK: Janus kinase, JNK: c-Jun N-terminal kinase, LXR: liver X receptor, MMP: 987 matrix metalloproteinase, NF-KB: nuclear factor-kappa B, NO: nitric oxide, NPC1L1: 988 Niemann-Pick C1 like 1, NQO: NADPH quinone oxidoreductase, Nrf2: nuclear factor 989 erythroid-2 related factor 2, PI3K: phosphoinositide 3-kinase, PPAR: peroxisome proliferator-990 activated receptor, SCD: stearoyl CoA desaturase, SERBP: sterol regulatory element-binding 991 protein, SOD: superoxide dismutase, STAT: signal transducer and activator of transcription, 992 TNF: tumor necrosis factor, VEGF: vascular endothelial growth factor, VEGFR: vascular 993 endothelial growth factor receptor. 994

Table 1.

Main microalgal producers of carotenoids and selected phytosterols [6,22,28,31].

Results are expressed in mg of total carotenoids per g dry weight of microalgal biomass * and in percentage of total sterols **. Main accessory carotenoids in bold.

Classes	Carotenoids	Contents*	Activities in human health
Chlorophyceae Prasinophyceae	α-, $β$ -, $γ$ -carotenes, lutein siphonaxanthin, siphonein, antheraxanthin, astaxanthin, canthaxanthin, prasinoxanthin, neoxanthin, violaxanthin, zeaxanthin	0.02-291	Anti-cancer Anti-inflammatory Anti-oxidant Anti-obesity Cardiovascular
Bacillariophyceae Prymnesiophyceae	β-carotene, fucoxanthin diatoxanthin, diadinoxanthin cantaxanthin	0.11-26.6	
Classes	Phytosterol	Contents**	Activities in human health
Chlorophyceae Prasinophyceae	Campesterol	2-48 34-99	Anti-angiogenic Anti-cancer
Bacillariophyceae Prymnesiophyceae	JI.	1-39 6-18	Cholesterol-lowering
Chlorophyceae Prasinophyceae	β-Sitosterol	1-33 -	Analgesic activity Anti-cancer Anti-inflammatory
Bacillariophyceae Prymnesiophyceae		1-95 1-73	Anti-mutagenic
Chlorophyceae Prasinophyceae	Stigmasterol	19-72	Anti-cancer Anti-oxidant Cholesterol-lowering
Bacillariophyceae Prymnesiophyceae		1-100 10-47	Hypoglycaemic

Table 2.

Main characteristics of selected bioactive molecules in microalgae [6,25,29,42,43].

Carotenoids	Chemical structure	Color	Detection Spectrophotometry (nm)	Location	Role
Astaxanthin	$C_{40}H_{52}O_4$	Red	472 (methanol)466 (hexane)485 (chloroform)	Cytoplasm Lipid droplets	Photosynthetic apparatus
Fucoxanthin	$C_{42}H_{58}O_6$	Orange	449 (acetone) 453 (petroleum ether)	Chloroplast	Photosynthetic apparatus
Phytosterols	Chemical structure	Systematic name	Detection Chromatography (all sterols)	Location	Role
Campesterol	C ₂₈ H ₄₈ O	24α-methylcholest -5-en-3β-ol	Flame ionization detection Mass spectrometry	Membranes	Fluidity / Permability Brassinosteroid synthesis
β -Sitosterol	C ₂₉ H ₅₀ O	24β-ethylcholest -5-en-3β-ol	UV 208 nm Diode array detection Evaporative light	Membranes	Fluidity / Permeability Membrane-bound enzyme effector
Stigmasterol	C ₂₉ H ₄₈ O	24α-ethylcholesta- 5,22E-dien-3β-ol	scattering detection	Membranes	Fluidity / Permeability Membrane-bound enzyme effector Cell proliferation

















Nitrogen compounds Phenolic compounds Sterolic compounds Polysaccharides Carotenoids Lipids Phycobiliproteins / Vitamins Phenolic acids / Stilbenes Sterols / Stanols Sulphated derived / β-glucans Carotenes / Xantophylls Glycerolipids / ω3 PUFA





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	Journal Pre-proof
1	Highlights
2	
3	• Microalgae produce high added value molecules involved in human health and disease
4	prevention
5	• Microalgal xantophylls and phytosterols regulate cell signaling pathways involved in
6	chronic disease
7	• Astaxanthin and fucoxanthin exhibit anti-oxidant, hypolipidemic, anti-inflammatory
8	and anti-tumoral activities
9	• Microalgal sterols regulate cholesterol and lipid metabolisms and possess anti-cancer
10	activities