

## Cosolvent effect of ethanol on the solubility of lutein in supercritical carbon dioxide



Karina A. Araus<sup>a</sup>, Víctor Casado<sup>b</sup>, José M. del Valle<sup>b</sup>, Paz S. Robert<sup>c</sup>, Juan C. de la Fuente<sup>d,\*</sup>

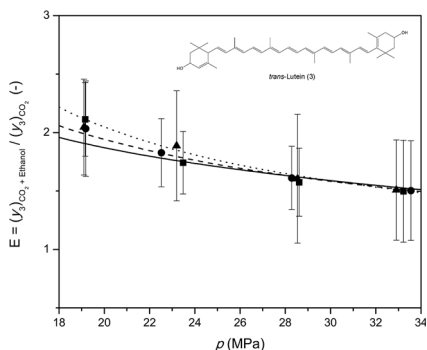
<sup>a</sup> Agricultural Food and Nutrition Science Department, University of Alberta, 116 St. and 85 Ave., Edmonton, Canada

<sup>b</sup> Departamento Ingeniería Química y Bioprocesos, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Avda. Vicuña Mackenna 4860, Macul, Santiago, Chile

<sup>c</sup> Departamento de Ciencia de los Alimentos y Tecnología Química, Universidad de Chile, Avda. Vicuña Mackenna 20, Providencia, Santiago, Chile

<sup>d</sup> Laboratorio de Termodinámica de Procesos, Departamento de Ingeniería Química y Ambiental, Universidad Técnica Federico Santa María, Avda. España 1680, Valparaíso, Chile

### GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



### ARTICLE INFO

#### Keywords:

Solubility  
Lutein  
Ethanol  
Cosolvent effect  
Supercritical carbon dioxide  
Correlation

### ABSTRACT

This contribution presents new high-pressure solubility data of solid *trans*-lutein in pure carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), and mixtures of CO<sub>2</sub> and ethanol. The cosolvent effect of ethanol was determined by comparing lutein solubility between the ternary (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol + lutein) and binary (CO<sub>2</sub> + lutein) systems at (313, 323, and 333) K and from (18.70 to 33.55) MPa. 92% pure lutein was isolated from marigold flower petals. Solubility was measured using a dynamic-analytical method with recirculation and online analysis of the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich phase. The solubility of lutein in pure and ethanol-modified CO<sub>2</sub> increased with system temperature and pressure. Solubilities in pure CO<sub>2</sub> ranged from 0.82 10<sup>-6</sup> mol mol<sup>-1</sup> at (313 K and 18.70 MPa) to 2.45 10<sup>-6</sup> mol mol<sup>-1</sup> at (333 K and 32.91 MPa). The highest solubility of lutein in CO<sub>2</sub> experimentally measured was 4.02 10<sup>-6</sup> mol mol<sup>-1</sup> at (333 K and 32.91 MPa) when adding 0.0211 mol mol<sup>-1</sup> of ethanol.

### 1. Introduction

The main xanthophyll in petals of marigold (*Tagetes erecta* L.) flowers is lutein (β,ε-carotene-3,3'-diol), which represents ca.

0.80–0.90 kg·kg<sup>-1</sup> of all carotenoid constituents [1]. Lutein (Fig. 1) can be used as a natural yellow colorant in foods and feeds, and as an antioxidant in nutraceuticals because of its protective action against photic damage of human retina [2]. There exists a current industrial

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: [juan.delafuente@usm.cl](mailto:juan.delafuente@usm.cl) (J.C. de la Fuente).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2018.08.012>

Received 2 July 2018; Received in revised form 18 August 2018; Accepted 18 August 2018

Available online 24 August 2018

0896-8446/ © 2018 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

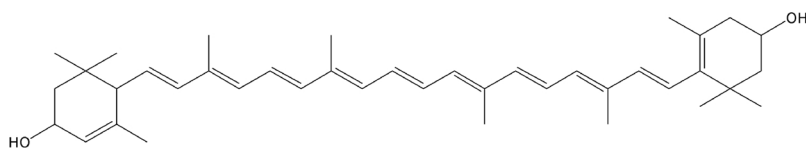


Fig. 1. Chemical structures of *trans*-lutein ( $\beta,\epsilon$ -carotene-3,3'-diol).

interest in isolating lutein from natural matrices such as marigold petals using green solvents to comply with increasingly stricter regulations to manufacturing processes for foods and pharmaceuticals. Carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) above its critical conditions (temperature, 304.1 K; pressure, 7.38 MPa [3]), defined as SuperCritical (SC), can be utilized to recover organic-solvent-free extracts with minimal thermal damage and improved quality. The limitations of SC- $\text{CO}_2$  as a solvent for high molecular and/or polar solutes [3] such as xanthophylls, may limit industrial extraction processes for lutein.

In order to increase the solubility (molar fraction,  $y_i$ ) at operational pressure ( $p$ ) and temperature ( $T$ ) of xanthophylls in the SC- $\text{CO}_2$ , so as to improve their extraction from biological substrates, it is common practice to add polar entrainers. To be acceptable by the industry, these entrainers must have GRAS (Generally Recognized As Safe) status, and possess affinity with  $\text{CO}_2$ , the biological matrix, and/or (the) target solute(s) [4]. Ethanol has been successfully added to SC- $\text{CO}_2$  to aid extraction of several carotenoids from a variety of biological substrates including plant material such as carrot roots [5], red pepper (paprika) fruits [6], tomato fruits [7,8], stinging nettle leaves [9], and apricot fruits [10], shells of marine animals such as crawfish [11] and blue crab [12], and unicellular microorganisms such as *Spirulina pacifica* [13], *Haematococcus pluvialis* [14,15], *Synechococcus* sp. [16], *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* [17], and *Chlorella vulgaris* [18]. Extracted carotenoid compounds include carotenes such as  $\alpha$ -carotene [5],  $\beta$ -carotene [5–7,9,10,13,16], and lycopene [7,8], and free and esterified xanthophylls such as astaxanthin [11,12,14,15], capsanthin [6], capsorubin [6],  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin [6,13,16], lutein [9,17,18], and zeaxanthin [6,13,16]. The positive effect of ethanol added on the extraction of these carotenoids may be due to cosolvent (solubility-increasing) effects, resulting from specific interactions of ethanol with  $\text{CO}_2$  and the target solute, or modifier (matrix-modifying) effects, resulting from specific interactions of ethanol with binding sites on the biological substrate that release bound carotenoids, or ethanol-induced swelling of the biological substrate that facilitates solute transport in the biological substrate [4].

The cosolvent effect of ethanol for the dissolution of a particular solute in  $\text{CO}_2$  can be identified by comparing high-pressure phase equilibrium measurements, ternary ( $\text{CO}_2$  + ethanol + solute) and binary ( $\text{CO}_2$  + solute) systems. This was illustrated by Arous et al. [4] for  $\beta$ -carotene by comparing its solubility in ( $\text{CO}_2$  + ethanol) and in pure  $\text{CO}_2$  at the same temperature and pressure. An inherent difficulty in this type of studies is the high cost of pure carotenoid compounds, particularly from natural origin. Specifically, carrying out the present study would have been extremely expensive considering the requirement of two grams of solute, and the cost of > 97% pure lutein from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Louis, MO) (650 USD for milligram) [19]. That is why some authors have isolated pure carotenoids from biological substrates to study their solubility in SC- $\text{CO}_2$  including free lutein from marigold [20], lutein diesters from sneezeweed (*Helenium autumnale*) [20] or marigold [21], lycopene from tomato [22], and capsanthin from red pepper [23].

The aim of this work was contributing to the understanding of the SC- $\text{CO}_2$  extraction of marigold petals using fluid mixtures of ( $\text{CO}_2$  + ethanol) as the solvent, by characterizing the cosolvent effect of the ethanol. Free solid *trans*-lutein was isolated from marigold petals and a comparison was made of its solubility in the ternary ( $\text{CO}_2$  + ethanol + lutein) system with its corresponding solubility in the binary ( $\text{CO}_2$  + lutein) system at equivalent system temperatures (313, 323, and 333) K and pressures (18.70–33.55) MPa. This new information

should help understanding the role of ethanol in facilitating release of the target solute from the biological matrix, and/or facilitating solute movement through the matrix.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials

Free solid *trans*-lutein was isolated from petals of marigold flowers using the same method previously applied for the isolation of capsanthin from red pepper fruits [23]. Petals of flowers bought in a local market (Easy S.A.) were removed by hand, dried for 8 h in a tray drier set at 313 K–0.119 kg·kg<sup>-1</sup> moisture, and coarsely ground in a pilot plant hammer mill. Dried and milled petals were fully extracted at room temperature using acetone. Following acetone removal by vacuum evaporation at < 329 K, saponification was performed at room temperature to completion (overnight) using a 1:4 (w/w) mixture of KOH and methanol. The organic phase was subsequently extracted with diethyl ether, neutralized by washing with water, dried over anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$ , and filtered. Following desolventization by vacuum evaporation, the saponified lutein was isolated by open column chromatography using as the stationary phase a 1:1 (w/w) mixture of MgO and celite that was heat activated at 390 K for 2 h. Lutein was step-eluted using solvents of increasing polarity (mobile phase) [24]. The identification of free (de-esterified) *trans*-lutein was confirmed by HPLC analysis as described in Fig. S1, included in the Supplementary material section. The analysis indicated that the sample was *trans*-lutein 92% pure, which was verified by comparing its retention time and UV–vis spectrum with a standard, 97% pure *all-trans*-lutein from Sigma-Aldrich [19]. The chromatogram of lutein sample isolated in this work was similar to the one reported by Delgado-Vargas and Paredes-Lopez [27] for isolated lutein from petals of marigold flowers. In addition, the 8% impurities quantified in Fig. S1 was possibly associated to a mixture of carotenoids, among them *cis*-lutein [24–27]. The process used to recover *trans*-lutein would ensure that the solute was free of moisture. Table 1 summarizes the specifications of the chemicals used in this work.

### 2.2. Experimental methods

Solubility ( $y_i$ ) of solid *trans*-lutein ( $i = 3$ ) in pure  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $i = 1$ ) and fluid mixtures of ( $\text{CO}_2$  + ethanol ( $i = 2$ )) was measured using the dynamic-analytical method and experimental procedure described by Arous et al. [4]. The apparatus consists of a high-pressure equilibrium view-cell (50 cm<sup>3</sup> capacity) coupled to a HPLC (Hitachi LaChrom, Tokyo, Japan) that includes a Photodiode Array Detector (PAD) to assess on-line the lutein content in the  $\text{CO}_2$ -rich phase. For each isotherm the equilibrium cell was loaded with approximately 0.6 g of isolated lutein, and for experiments with ( $\text{CO}_2$  + ethanol), the alcohol was added directly to the cell by measuring a volume exactly 2.00 cm<sup>3</sup> of pure ethanol at 296 K ( $\rho_2 = 787.2$  kg·m<sup>-3</sup>) that corresponds to 1.57 g. The average amount of  $\text{CO}_2$  loaded, approximately 70 g for each data point, was calculated based on the previously measured 82 cm<sup>3</sup> [4] occupied by the gas in the cell and the recirculation solvent loop, and the volumetric properties of  $\text{CO}_2$  estimated as a function of system temperature and pressure [28]. This amount of ethanol was fully dissolved in the  $\text{CO}_2$ -rich phase for all operation conditions considered, visually verified for each experiment that there were two phases solid + fluid at equilibrium, and confirmed by the phase behavior of the binary system  $\text{CO}_2$

**Table 1**  
Specification of chemical samples.

Chemical name	Source	Initial Mass Fraction Purity / kg kg <sup>-1</sup>	Purification Method	Final Mass Fraction Purity / kg kg <sup>-1</sup>	Analysis Method
Carbon dioxide	AGA-Chile S.A.	0.9999	None	0.9999	None
Ethanol	Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Louis, MO)	0.999	None	0.999	GC <sup>a</sup>
Lutein	<i>Tagetes erecta</i> L.	None	CC <sup>b</sup>	0.92	HPLC <sup>c</sup>
Acetone	J.T. Baker (Phillipsburg, NJ)	0.999	None	0.999	GC <sup>a</sup>
Acetonitrile	Merck (Darmstadt, Germany)	0.999	None	0.999	GC <sup>a</sup>
Diethyl ether	Merck (Darmstadt, Germany)	0.999	None	0.999	GC <sup>a</sup>
Methanol	Merck (Darmstadt, Germany)	0.999	None	0.999	GC <sup>a</sup>
Water	Merck (Darmstadt, Germany)	0.999	None	0.999	None
KOH	Merck (Darmstadt, Germany)	0.85–0.99	None	0.85–0.99	None
<i>trans</i> -Lutein <sup>d</sup>	Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Louis, MO)	0.97	None	0.97	None
Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Louis, MO)	0.99	None	0.99	None

<sup>a</sup> Gas Chromatography (GC).<sup>b</sup> Column chromatography (CC).<sup>c</sup> High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC).<sup>d</sup> Analytical standard (CAS 127-40-2).**Table 2**  
Experimental molar fraction ( $y_3$ ) and its combined expanded uncertainty ( $U_{\text{Comb}}(y_3)$ ) [31] for solid *trans*-lutein (3) in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> (1)-rich phase, as a function of system pressure ( $p$ ) or density of pure CO<sub>2</sub> ( $\rho_1$ ) at temperatures ( $T$ ) of (313, 323, and 333) K.

$T^a$ / K	$p^b$ / MPa	$\rho_1^c$ / kg m <sup>-3</sup>	$y_3 \cdot 10^6$ / mol·mol <sup>-1</sup>	$U_{\text{Comb}}(y_3) \cdot 10^6$ / mol·mol <sup>-1</sup>
313	18.70	825.60	0.82	0.18
	23.75	870.44	1.08	0.22
	28.28	899.98	1.14	0.20
	32.98	925.08	1.55	0.28
323	20.62	791.36	1.42	0.24
	23.77	822.84	1.66	0.23
	28.55	860.65	1.89	0.23
	32.41	884.84	2.05	0.21
333	19.17	709.39	1.26	0.14
	23.45	770.21	1.74	0.26
	28.59	819.02	2.33	0.28
	32.91	849.75	2.45	0.27

<sup>a</sup>  $u(T) = 0.1$  K (standard uncertainty for temperature).<sup>b</sup>  $u(p) = 0.01$  MPa (standard uncertainty for pressure).<sup>c</sup> [28].<sup>d</sup> Values estimated with a 0.95 level of confidence.

+ ethanol [4,29].

The air bath where the cell was located was adjusted to the required system temperature. Following removal of residual air by displacement with low-pressure (0.2 MPa) food-grade CO<sub>2</sub> (> 99% pure) followed by application of negative pressure with a vacuum pump (Welch Vacuum, Skokie, IL), the cell was loaded with CO<sub>2</sub> to the required system pressure *ca* (18–34) MPa using a syringe pump (Teledyne ISCO 260D, Lincoln, NE). Once the required operating conditions were reached, the components within the cell were thoroughly mixed for 8 h by recirculating the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich phase using a gear pump (GAH-T23, Eurotechnica, Bargteheide, Germany). After reaching equilibrium, the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich phase was sampled and analyzed, and the pressure readjusted to a higher value by feeding CO<sub>2</sub> to the cell with the syringe pump. This procedure was repeated as required up to reaching the desired upper pressure. Typically three-to-four (occasionally two or five) replicate measurements were carried out for each experimental condition. The concentration of free lutein in CO<sub>2</sub>-rich phase was quantified by using the HPLC gradient method of Giuffrida et al. [26]. The chromatographic separation of lutein was carried out in a C30 reversed-phase packed column (Carotenoid S-5, YMC Europe, Schermbeck, Germany) using 1.0 cm<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> of acetonitrile at 303 K. Lutein was identified at 445 nm by using the PAD and its molar fraction in the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich phase was assessed from the chromatographic peak area compared with those of the standard solutions in acetone [4].

The standard and combined expanded uncertainties were estimated using the information available for the experimental procedure and data measured according to definitions of Chirico et al. [30]. The methodology used to estimate the combined expanded uncertainty of lutein molar fraction in the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich phase  $U_{\text{Comb}}(y_1)$  is detailed in Table 3 reported by Cabrera et al. [31]. The combined expanded uncertainty of ethanol,  $U_{\text{Comb}}(y_2)$ , was estimated by calculating independently the mole of CO<sub>2</sub> and ethanol fed to the cell, using the density (temperature and pressure dependent) and the total volume measured of each component. The standard uncertainties of the total volume of CO<sub>2</sub> and ethanol were 1 cm<sup>3</sup> and 0.1 cm<sup>3</sup>, respectively. The uncertainty for the densities were determined with the same expression as a function of temperature (0.1 K) and pressure (0.01 MPa) used for the solute uncertainty calculations [31]. In both cases a coverage factor of 1.96 (95% of level of confidence for a normal distribution) was used.

### 3. Results and discussion

This section will present and discuss separately the results for the solubility of solid lutein in pure CO<sub>2</sub> and ethanol-modified CO<sub>2</sub>.

#### 3.1. Solubility of solid lutein in pure CO<sub>2</sub>

Table 2 and Fig. 2 present the solubility of solid lutein in pure CO<sub>2</sub>-

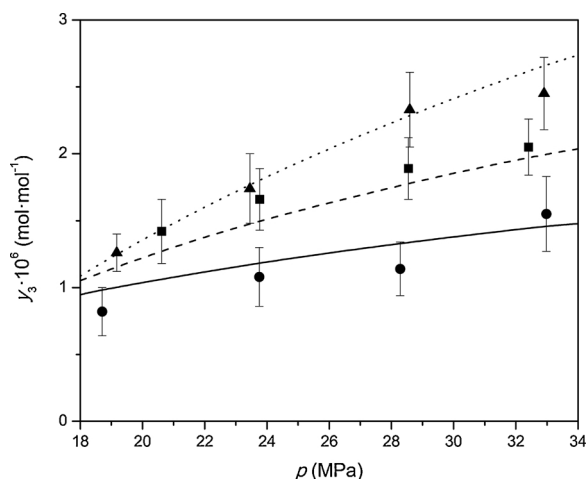


Fig. 2. Experimental molar fraction (solubility,  $y_3$ ) of solid *trans*-lutein (3) in pure CO<sub>2</sub> (1) as a function of system pressure ( $p$ ) with their corresponding uncertainties represented by the error bars, at 313 K (●, —); 323 K (■, - -) and 333 K (▲, ···). Lines represent the correlation of Méndez-Santiago and Teja for binary systems according to Equations (1).

rich phase as a function of temperature and pressure. Uncertainties of lutein solubilities reported in Table 2 were  $U_{\text{Comb}}(y_3) \leq \pm 0.28 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ , using a level of confidence of 95% (i.e., coverage factor of 1.96). The solubility increased with both temperature and pressure, by a factor of about 3 between extreme conditions, from 313 K and 18.70 MPa ( $y_3 = 0.82 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ ) to 333 K and 32.91 MPa ( $y_3 = 2.45 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ ).

Using the same experimental apparatus and methodology, authors observed equivalent trends and slightly higher values,  $(0.65\text{--}1.97) \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  for capsanthin [23], and values about 2–3 times smaller  $(0.17\text{--}1.06) \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  for  $\beta$ -carotene [4] within the same experimental region. Solubility increased with system pressure as a result of an increase in the solvent power of CO<sub>2</sub> with its density [3]. Solubility also increased with system temperature as a result of the increase in the volatility (vapor pressure) of the solute [3]. Concurrent increases in the solvent power of CO<sub>2</sub> and the volatility of the solute would facilitate transfer of the solute from the solid to the supercritical phase. Nevertheless, Fig. 2 suggests that the positive effect of system temperature on solubility decreases with system pressure.

The correlation of Méndez-Santiago and Teja [32],  $T \cdot [\ln(p \cdot (y_3^{\text{Calc}})_{\text{CO}_2}) - C_3] = A_3 + B_3 \cdot \rho_1$ , was selected to calculate the solubility of lutein in pure CO<sub>2</sub>,  $(y_3^{\text{Calc}})_{\text{CO}_2}$ , as a function of CO<sub>2</sub> density ( $\rho_1$ ), estimated using NIST database [28], and three adjustable parameters of the model ( $A_3$ ,  $B_3$  and  $C_3$ ) which were fitted to the experimental data of Table 2. The result, presented in Equation (1), indicated a mean deviation of  $\pm 0.13 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ .

$$(y_3^{\text{Calc}})_{\text{CO}_2} \cdot 10^6 = \frac{0.1013}{p} \cdot \exp \left[ \frac{-9589 + 3.069 \cdot \rho_1}{T} + 13.90 \right] \quad (1)$$

Lines in Fig. 2 correspond to predictions of Eq. (1). The extrapolation of these lines suggest a estimated crossover pressure of (15.7–17.4) MPa for the binary (CO<sub>2</sub> + lutein) system (not shown), that is close to the crossover pressure reported for other carotenoids, approximately 16 MPa for lycopene [22], (15.7–17.3) MPa for  $\beta$ -carotene [4], and 16.7 MPa for capsanthin [23]. At the so-called crossover pressure [33] the effects of the temperature on reducing the density of CO<sub>2</sub> and increasing the vapor pressure of lutein counterbalance each other so that the solubility of lutein in SC-CO<sub>2</sub> remains constant when the system is heated isobarically. Below the crossover pressure, solubility decreases as temperature increases because of the marked decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> density associated with its increased compressibility as it approaches critical conditions.

Isotherms reported in Table 2 (313, 323, and 333) K are complementary with those of Jay et al. [20], (288, 308, and 328) K, for the solubility of 88% pure lutein isolated from marigold. The analysis of both data sets show that the solubility values of lutein in the CO<sub>2</sub> are consistent and comparable. According to Güçlü-Üstündağ and Temelli [34], the solute purity and the nature of the impurities could affect the measured solubility values, because impurities may act as cosolvents or antisolvents, as observed by these authors for the solubility of  $\beta$ -carotene in SC-CO<sub>2</sub>. The 8% impurities estimated for the isolated lutein were qualitatively identified as a mixture of carotenoids, based on HPLC chromatograms reported by Giuffrida et al., [26] and Delgado-Vargas and Paredes-Lopez [27]. The agreement between reported results in this contribution and literature data [20] might be indicative of minor cosolvent or antisolvent effects of impurities limited to 8–12 % corresponding to a mixture of carotenoids [26,27].

### 3.2. Solubility of solid lutein in ethanol-modified CO<sub>2</sub>

Table 3 reports the solubility of solid lutein in mixtures of (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol) as a function of system temperature and pressure. Uncertainties of data in Table 3 estimated using a level of confidence of 95% were  $U_{\text{Comb}}(y_2) \leq \pm 0.0032 \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  for ethanol concentration, and  $U_{\text{Comb}}(y_3) \leq \pm 0.42 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  for lutein solubilities. Results showed that the effects of system temperature and pressure on the solubility behavior of lutein in the mixtures (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol) were similar to those in pure CO<sub>2</sub>, but with larger values because of the ethanol cosolvency effects. According to the solute purity reported, values in Table 3 should be considered as indicative values for the solubility of pure lutein in SC-CO<sub>2</sub> modified with ethanol.

To characterize the cosolvent effect of ethanol on the solubility of lutein in SC-CO<sub>2</sub> the solubility enhancement (E), was computed according to the Eq. (2).

$$E(T, p) = \frac{(y_3)_{(\text{CO}_2 + \text{Ethanol})}(T, p)}{(y_3)_{\text{CO}_2}(T, p)} \quad (2)$$

The experimental solubilities measured of solid lutein in (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol) (Table 3) were divided by estimated solubilities of lutein in pure CO<sub>2</sub>, computed using Eq. (1) for the experimental values of  $T$ ,  $p$ , and  $\rho_1$  [28]. Fig. 3 summarizes results of these computations. Enhancement decreased from 2.1 at (323 K and 19.16 MPa) to a constant asymptotic value of approximately 1.5 for the three isotherms as pressure increased. This effect was partly due to the decreasing in the ethanol concentration, calculated from the amount of ethanol fed to the cell starting the isotherm, because of its dilution with the CO<sub>2</sub> added to increase the cell pressure, with a decrease from the lower to upper pressure of 10.2% at 313 K, 12.9% at 323 K, and 16.3% at 333 K. The variability for the computed values of enhancement (Fig. 3) was larger than the variability for the experimental values of solubility in pure CO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2) because of the uncertainties in the estimated solubilities of lutein in pure CO<sub>2</sub> using Eq. (1). Although the limited increases in the density of CO<sub>2</sub> resulting from the dissolution of approximately 0.02 mol mol<sup>-1</sup> ethanol probably cannot explain the increase in solubility of lutein in the fluid mixtures (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol), as compared to pure CO<sub>2</sub> [4], ethanol may cause an increase in local density near solute molecules, by preferentially associating with lutein molecules [35]. Alternatively, ethanol dissolved might modify the dispersion, orientation, and/or acid-base partial solubility parameters of (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol) as compared to pure CO<sub>2</sub>, thus, increasing their affinity with lutein molecules [36]. Finally, ethanol-mediated hydrogen bonds may facilitate the synthesis of high-solubility lutein complexes [37]. Values and trends for enhancements in the solubility of lutein in CO<sub>2</sub> by the addition of (0.0194–0.0252) mol mol<sup>-1</sup> of ethanol were similar to those observed for the solubility of  $\beta$ -carotene in (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol), where the enhancement increased from 1.7 at (313 K and 34 MPa) to 2.6 at (333 K and 18 MPa) [4]. It was a surprise that the cosolvent effect of ethanol

**Table 3**

Experimental molar fraction ( $y_i$ ) of the vapor phase and its combined expanded uncertainty ( $U_{\text{Comb}}(y_i)$ ) [31] for the ternary system consisting of CO<sub>2</sub> (1), ethanol (2) and solid *trans*-lutein (3), as a function of system pressure ( $p$ ) or density of pure CO<sub>2</sub> ( $\rho_1$ ) at temperatures ( $T$ ) of (313, 323, and 333) K.

$T^a$ / K	$p^b$ / MPa	$\rho^c$ / kg·m <sup>-3</sup>	$y_2 \cdot 10^2$ / mol·mol <sup>-1</sup>	$U_{\text{Comb}}(y_2)^d \cdot 10^2$ / mol·mol <sup>-1</sup>	$y_3 \cdot 10^6$ / mol·mol <sup>-1</sup>	$U_{\text{Comb}}(y_3)^d \cdot 10^6$ / mol·mol <sup>-1</sup>
313	19.18	831.53	2.16 <sup>e</sup>	0.27	2.04	0.28
	22.52	861.37	2.08	0.26	2.09	0.16
	28.28	900.10	2.00	0.25	2.15	0.14
	33.55	927.64	1.94	0.24	2.22	0.30
323	19.16	773.11	2.32 <sup>e</sup>	0.29	2.45	0.18
	23.48	820.65	2.19	0.28	2.58	0.14
	28.61	861.27	2.09	0.26	2.81	0.16
	33.22	889.49	2.02	0.25	3.02	0.31
333	19.10	708.47	2.52 <sup>e</sup>	0.32	2.55	0.28
	23.20	767.14	2.33	0.30	3.32	0.34
	28.54	818.39	2.19	0.28	3.69	0.42
	32.91	849.93	2.11	0.27	4.02	0.30

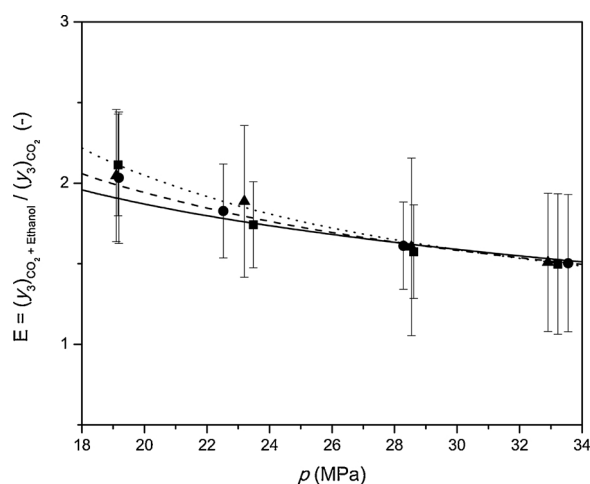
<sup>a</sup>  $u(T) = 0.1$  K (standard uncertainty for temperature).

<sup>b</sup>  $u(p) = 0.01$  MPa (standard uncertainty for pressure).

<sup>c</sup> [28].

<sup>d</sup> Values estimated with a 0.95 level of confidence.

<sup>e</sup> Calculated from the amount of ethanol (2) fed to the cell starting the isotherm.



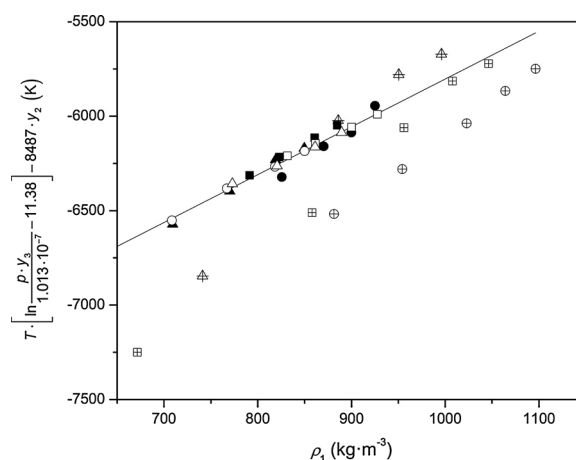
**Fig. 3.** Enhancement in the solubility (molar fraction) of solid *trans*-lutein (3) in fluid mixtures of CO<sub>2</sub> (1) + ethanol (2), compared with solubility in pure CO<sub>2</sub> (1),  $E = (y_3)_{\text{CO}_2+\text{Ethanol}} / (y_3)_{\text{CO}_2}$  defined in Equation (2), as a function of pressure ( $p$ ), at 313 K (●, —); 323 K (■, —) and 333 K (▲, —). Symbols represent values calculated with experimental measurements. Lines represent predictions using solubility correlations of Méndez-Santiago and Teja for binary [32] and ternary [38] systems, equations (1) and (3). The error bars represent the uncertainties estimated for the enhancement based on the uncertainties of the experimental solubility data.

was not larger for lutein than for less polar  $\beta$ -carotene, considering that the two  $-\text{OH}$  substituents in lutein (Fig. 1) should facilitate the engagement of lutein in acid-base and hydrogen bond interactions as compared to  $\beta$ -carotene.

The extension of the original equation of Méndez-Santiago and Teja [38] for mixtures of CO<sub>2</sub> and co-solvents,  $T \cdot [\ln(p \cdot (y_3^{\text{Calc}})_{\text{CO}_2+\text{Ethanol}}) - J_3] = F_3 + G_3 \cdot \rho_1 + H_3 \cdot y_2$ , was used to calculate the molar fraction of solid lutein,  $(y_3^{\text{Calc}})_{\text{CO}_2+\text{Ethanol}}$ , in mixtures (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol). The four adjustable parameters ( $F_3$ ,  $G_3$ ,  $H_3$ , and  $J_3$ ) were fitted to data in Table 3, resulting in Eq. (3) with a mean deviation of  $\pm 0.15 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ .

$$(y_3^{\text{Calc}})_{\text{CO}_2+\text{Ethanol}} \cdot 10^6 = \frac{0.1013}{p} \cdot \exp \left[ \frac{-8335 + 2.532 \cdot \rho_1 + 8487 \cdot y_2}{T} + 11.38 \right] \quad (3)$$

Eqs. (1) and (3) were used to estimate the enhancements,



**Fig. 4.** Molar fraction (solubility,  $y_3$ ) of solid *trans*-lutein (3) in fluid mixtures of CO<sub>2</sub> (1) + ethanol (2), and pure CO<sub>2</sub> (1) represented in a two-dimensional arrangement of  $T \cdot [\ln(p \cdot y_3) - J_3] - H_3 \cdot y_2$  as a function of CO<sub>2</sub> density ( $\rho_1$ ). Symbols represent experimental results. Binary system CO<sub>2</sub> (1) + lutein (3): This work (Table 2) at 313 K (●); 323 K (■) and 333 K (▲); Jay et al. [20] at 288 K (⊕), 308 K (⊞), and 338 K (⊚). Ternary system CO<sub>2</sub> (1) + ethanol (2) + lutein (3): This work (Table 3) at 313 K (○); 323 K (□) and 333 K (△). Straight line represents the Méndez-Santiago and Teja [38] correlation based on Equation (3).

represented by lines in Fig. 3, at (313, 323, and 333) K. The molar fraction of ethanol was estimated with Eq. (4).

$$y_2 = \frac{m_2 / MW_2}{m_2 / MW_2 + V \cdot \rho_1 \cdot 10^{-3} / MW_1} \quad (4)$$

where,  $m_2 = 1.574 \text{ g}$  is the weight of ethanol loaded into the cell,  $MW_2 = 46.07 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  is the molecular weight of ethanol,  $MW_1 = 44.01 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  is the molecular weight of CO<sub>2</sub>, and  $V = 82 \text{ cm}^3$  is the volume of cell and other components in the solvent loop, according to Arous et al. [4].

Caution is suggested in interpreting the lines in Fig. 3, because they represent average values without its corresponding deviations. At the pressure range of Table 3, (19.10–33.55) MPa, the predictions of solubility enhancements in Fig. 3 decreased from 2.1 at 333 K to approximately 1.5, with the three lines overlapping.

Eq. (3) can be rearranged into a complex function of  $y_2$  and other system conditions ( $p$ ,  $T$ ,  $y_3$ ) as a linear function of  $\rho_1$ . Fig. 4 describes

the collapse of the isotherms to a single line, which confirms the self-consistency of the experimental data, a kind of precision according to Méndez-Santiago and Teja [38], for experimental solute solubility in mixtures of CO<sub>2</sub> and cosolvents. In Fig. 4 were also included experimental results of Jay et al. [20] showing that the effect of temperature on the solubility of lutein in SC-CO<sub>2</sub> differs from this study. In fact, using Eq. (3) for  $\rho_1 \geq 740 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  and  $y_2 = 0 \text{ mol mol}^{-1}$ , predicted values that were in average 62% larger at 288 K, 42% larger at 308 K, and 16% smaller at 328 K than corresponding values experimentally measured by Jay et al. [20]. Ruen-ngam et al. [18] carried out the extraction of lutein from mixtures of ethanol treated *Chlorella vulgaris* with SC-CO<sub>2</sub>. Authors estimated the solubility of lutein in pure and modified CO<sub>2</sub> from the initial slope of the extraction curve. Results showed differences of two orders of magnitude compared with solubility values measured by Jay et al. [20] and this contribution.

#### 4. Conclusions

Free, 92% pure solid *trans*-lutein was isolated from marigold flower (*Tagetes erecta* L.). Isothermal solubility of lutein in pure CO<sub>2</sub>, and mixtures of CO<sub>2</sub> with (0.0194–0.0252) mol mol<sup>-1</sup> of ethanol at (313, 323 and 333) K, was experimentally determined using an analytic-recirculation methodology. The molar fraction of lutein in the supercritical phase was  $\leq 2.45 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  at (333 K, 32.91 MPa) with estimated uncertainties  $\leq \pm 0.28 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  for pure CO<sub>2</sub>; and,  $\leq 4.02 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  at (333 K, 32.91 MPa) with uncertainties  $\leq \pm 0.42 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$  for the fluid mixture (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol). Experimental results were represented with a correlation of Méndez-Santiago and Teja [38], in order to estimate the molar fraction of lutein as a function of ethanol content, system temperature, and pure CO<sub>2</sub> density. The effect of ethanol on the solubility of solid lutein was assessed with the enhancement factor (or the ratio of the solubility of lutein in the mixture (CO<sub>2</sub> + ethanol) to pure CO<sub>2</sub>) that decreased from 2.2 to 1.5 as the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> loaded into the cell increased. Ethanol added might promote the affinity between CO<sub>2</sub> and lutein molecules by the association lutein-ethanol decreasing the polarity and increasing the local density near solute molecules.

#### Acknowledgements

This work was funded by CONICYT + FONDECYT + 111-1008 and 115-0822. Dr. V. Casado acknowledges to CONICYT + POSTDOC + 315-0376. The authors appreciate the help of Ana Gonzalez in HPLC techniques; and Adolfo L. Cabrera and Alex C. Schulz for the combined expanded uncertainty calculations.

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2018.08.012>.

#### References

- [1] F.W. Quackenbush, S.L. Miller, J. Assoc. Off. Anal. Chem. 55 (1972) 617–621.
- [2] A. Alves-Rodrigues, A. Shao, Toxicol. Lett. 150 (2004) 57–83.
- [3] G. Brunner, Gas Extraction. An Introduction to Fundamentals of Supercritical Fluids and the Application to Separation Processes, Springer, New York, NY, 1994.
- [4] K.A. Arous, R.I. Canales, J.M. del Valle, J.C. de la Fuente, J. Chem. Thermodyn. 43 (2011) 1991–2001.
- [5] M.M. Barth, C. Zhou, K.M. Kute, G.A. Rosenthal, J. Agric. Food Chem. 43 (1995) 2876–2878.
- [6] M. Jarén-Galén, U. Nienaber, S.J. Schwartz, J. Agric. Food Chem. 47 (1999) 3558–3564.
- [7] T. Baysal, S. Ersus, D.A.J. Starmans, J. Agric. Food Chem. 48 (2000) 5507–5511.
- [8] J. Shi, C. Yi, S.J. Xue, Y. Jiang, Y. Ma, D. Li, J. Food Eng. 93 (2009) 431–436.
- [9] H. Sovova, M. Sajfřtova, M. Bartlova, L. Opletal, J. Supercrit. Fluids 30 (2004) 213–224.
- [10] I.S. Sanal, E. Bayraktar, Ü. Mehmetoglu, A. Calimli, J. Supercrit. Fluids 34 (2005) 331–338.
- [11] D.J. Charest, M.O. Balaban, M.R. Marshall, J.A. Cornell, J. Aquat. Food Prod. Technol. 10 (2001) 81–96.
- [12] L. Félix-Valenzuela, I. Higuera-Ciápara, F. Goycoolea-Valencia, J. Food Process Eng. 24 (2001) 101–112.
- [13] M. Careri, L. Furlattini, A. Mangia, M. Musci, E. Anklam, A. Theobald, C. von Holst, J. Chromatogr. A 912 (2001) 61–71.
- [14] J.O. Valderrama, M. Perrut, W. Majewski, J. Chem. Eng. Data 48 (2003) 827–830.
- [15] S. Machmudah, A. Shotipruk, M. Goto, M. Sasaki, T. Hirose, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 45 (2006) 3652–3657.
- [16] O. Montero, M.D. Macías-Sánchez, C.M. Lama, L.M. Lubián, C. Mantell, M. Rodríguez, E.M. de la Ossa, J. Agric. Food Chem. 53 (2005) 9701–9707.
- [17] Z. Wu, S. Wu, X. Shi, J. Food Process Eng. 30 (2007) 174–185.
- [18] D. Ruen-ngam, A. Shotipruk, P. Pavasant, S. Machmudah, M. Goto, Chem. Eng. Technol. 35 (2012) 255–260.
- [19] <http://www.sigmaaldrich.com/chile.html>.
- [20] A.J. Jay, D.C. Steytler, M. Knights, J. Supercrit. Fluids 4 (1991) 131–141.
- [21] S. Naranjo-Modad, A. Lopez-Munguia, G. Vilarem, A. Gaset, E. Barzana, J. Agric. Food Chem. 48 (2000) 5640–5642.
- [22] J.C. de la Fuente, B. Oyarzun, N. Quezada, J.M. del Valle, Fluid Phase Equilib. 247 (2006) 90–95.
- [23] K.A. Arous, J.M. del Valle, P.S. Robert, J.C. de la Fuente, J. Chem. Thermodyn. 51 (2012) 190–194.
- [24] D.A. Rodríguez-Amaya, Guide to Carotenoid Analysis in Food, ILSI Press, Washington, DC, 1999.
- [25] M. Hojnik, M. Škerget, Ž. Knez, LWT Food Sci. Technol. 41 (2008) 2008–2016.
- [26] D. Giuffrida, F. Salvo, A. Salvo, L. La Pera, G. Dugo, Food Chem. 101 (2007) 833–837.
- [27] F. Delgado-Vargas, O. Paredes-Lopez, J. Sci. Food Agric. 72 (1996) 283–290.
- [28] NIST, Fluid thermodynamic and transport properties, v8.0. <https://www.nist.gov/srd/refprop>.
- [29] J.E. Gutiérrez, A. Bejarano, J.C. de la Fuente, J. Chem. Thermodyn. 42 (2010) 591–596.
- [30] R.D. Chirico, M. Frenkel, V.V. Diky, K.N. Marsh, R.C. Wilhoit, J. Chem. Eng. Data 48 (2003) 1344–1359.
- [31] A.L. Cabrera, A.R. Toledo, J.M. del Valle, J.C. de la Fuente, J. Chem. Thermodyn. 91 (2015) 378–383.
- [32] J. Méndez-Santiago, A. Teja, Fluid Phase Equilib. 158–160 (1999) 501–510.
- [33] N.R. Foster, G.S. Gurdial, J.S.L. Yun, K.K. Liang, K.D. Tilly, S.S.T. Ting, H. Singh, J.H. Lee, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 30 (1991) 1955–1964.
- [34] Ö. Güçlü-Üstündağ, F. Temelli, J. Supercrit. Fluids 31 (2004) 235–253.
- [35] X. Zhang, B. Han, Z. Hou, J. Zhang, Z. Liu, T. Jiang, J. He, H. Li, Chem. Eur. J. 8 (2002) 5107–5111.
- [36] J.M. Dobbs, J.M. Wong, R.J. Lahiere, K.P. Johnston, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 26 (1987) 56–65.
- [37] S.S.T. Ting, D.L. Tomasko, S.J. Macnaughton, N.R. Foster, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 32 (1993) 1482–1487.
- [38] J. Méndez-Santiago, A. Teja, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 39 (2000) 4767–4771.