

Biotic and abiotic degradation of $\Delta 5$ -sterols in senescent Mediterranean marine and terrestrial angiosperms

Jean-Francois Rontani

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10 11 12	3	Mediterranean marine and terrestrial angiosperms
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17 18 19	5	Rontani Jean-François*
20 21 22	6	
23 24	7	^a Aix Marseille Univ, Université de Toulon, CNRS/INSU/IRD, Mediterranean Institute of
25	8	Oceanography (MIO) UM 110, 13288 Marseille, France
26 27	9	
28 29 30	10	
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43 44	15	
45 46	16	* Corresponding author. Tel.: +33-4-86-09-06-02; fax: +33-4-91-82-96-41. <i>E-mail address</i> :
47	17	jean-francois.rontani@mio.osupytheas.fr (JF. Rontani)
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Abstract. In this work, Δ^5 -sterols and their degradation products have been used to compare the efficiency of biotic and abiotic degradation processes in senescent Mediterranean marine (Posidonia oceanica) and terrestrial (Quercus ilex and Smilax aspera) angiosperms. Type II photosensitized oxidation processes appeared to be more efficient in P. oceanica than in Q. ilex and S. aspera. The low efficiency of these processes in senescent terrestrial angiosperms was attributed to: (i) the fast degradation of the sensitizer (chlorophyll) in these organisms and (ii) the relatively high temperatures observed on ground in Mediterranean regions favoring the diffusion of singlet oxygen outside of the membranes. Senescent leaves of P. oceanica contained highest proportions of photochemically-produced 6-hydroperoxysterols likely due to the presence of trace amounts of metal ions in seawater catalyzing selective homolytic cleavage of 5- and 7-hydroperoxysterols. Bacterial metabolites of sitosterol and of its photooxidation products could be detected in senescent leaves of *P. oceanica* but not in *Q. ilex* and *S. aspera*. These results confirmed that biotic and abiotic degradation processes may be intimately linked in the environment.

Keywords: Posidonia oceanica; Quercus ilex; Smilax aspera; Marine and terrestrial gymnosperms; Type II photosensitized oxidation; Bacterial degradation; Δ^5 -sterols; Hydroperoxides.

1. Introduction

Senescence in plants is a complex deterioration process that can lead to the death of whole organisms or a single organ. It is regulated by internal factors (age, reproductive development, and phytohormone levels) and by environmental signals, including photoperiod, stresses such as drought, ozone, nutrient deficiency, wounding, and shading (Gan et al., 1997). One of the earliest responses of plant cells under abiotic stresses and senescence is the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and notably of singlet oxygen $({}^{1}O_{2})$ (Lee et al., 2012). The chlorophyll pigments associated with the electron transport system are the primary source of ¹O₂. Indeed, senescence extends the half-life of excited singlet chlorophyll (¹Chl), thereby increasing the likelihood that ¹Chl will undergo intersystem crossing to form triplet chlorophyll (³Chl). ³Chl is longer lived than ¹Chl and reacts with ground state triplet oxygen (³O₂) to produce ${}^{1}O_{2}$ (Karuppanapandian et al., 2011). The very high reactivity of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ with numerous membrane components (chlorophyll phytyl side-chain, mono- and polyunsaturated fatty acids, sterols, tryptophan, tyrosine, histidine, methionine, cysteine and guanine bases of DNA) (Rontani, 2012; Devasagayam and Kamat, 2002) mainly results from the loss of the spin restriction that normally hinders reaction of ³O₂ with these biomolecules (Zolla and Rinalducci, 2002). ¹O₂-induced photoreactions (named Type II photosensitized oxidations) afford hydroperoxides, which are prominent non-radical intermediates in lipid peroxidation (Halliwell and Gutteridge, 2000; Devasagayam and Kamat, 2002).

58 Due to its high reactivity and short lifetime (3.1 to 3.9 μ s in pure water) (Krasnovsky, 59 1998), it is generally considered that ${}^{1}O_{2}$ is able to interact with molecules mostly in its nearest 60 environment. While its diffusion distance has been calculated to be up to 10 nm in a 61 physiologically relevant situation (Sies and Menck, 1992), it was also observed that ${}^{1}O_{2}$ 62 produced in the photosynthetic apparatus of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* under high light is 63 able of leaving the thylakoid membrane and reaching the cytoplasm or even the nucleus (Fisher et al., 2007). The lifetime of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ seems thus to vary significantly in membranes according to physiological conditions. Interestingly, Ehrenberg et al. (1998) demonstrated that increasing temperatures favored the diffusion of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ from the membranes, where it is generated, into the aqueous medium.

Autoxidation (free radical reaction of organic compounds with O₂) can also act in senescent plants (Rontani et al., 2017). These processes are not spontaneous but autocatalytic; once started they are self-propagating and self-accelerating (Schaich, 2005). The mechanisms of initiation of these processes in senescent plants seem to involve the homolytic cleavage of photochemically produced hydroperoxides (Girotti, 1998; Rontani et al., 2003). This cleavage may be induced by heat, light, metal ions and lipoxygenases (Schaich, 2005).

It was previously observed that solar irradiation can increase the bioavailability of the detrital pieces of vascular plants (Vähätalo et al., 1998) by reducing structural barriers hindering bacterial colonization and by degrading phenols (Opsahl and Benner, 1993), which can inhibit bacterial growth (Harrison, 1982). It seems thus clear that in the environment biodegradative, autoxidative and photooxidative degradation processes are inextricably linked, and that an understanding of their interactions, although complex, is fundamental to the precise identification of the balance between degradation and preservation of vascular plant material (Rontani et al., 2017).

Recently, we could observed a very high efficiency of Type II photosensitized oxidation processes in the seagrass *Zostera noltii* strongly contrasting with that observed in terrestrial higher plants (Rontani et al., 2014). In the present work, we carried out analysis of senescent leaves of two Mediterranean terrestrial higher plants (*Quercus ilex* and *Smilax aspera*) and a marine seagrass (*Posidonia oceanica*) with the primary aim of confirming these preliminary results and to study more closely the interactions between biotic and abiotic degradation

processes. For this purpose, we used oxidation products of Δ^5 -sterols known to be excellent biomarkers for tracing diagenetic transformations (Mackenzie et al., 1982).

2. Results and discussion

During plant senescence, Type II photosensitized oxidation processes act on the chlorophyll phytyl side-chain affording photoproducts quantifiable after NaBH₄-reduction and alkaline hydrolysis in the form of 6,10,14-trimethylpentadecan-2-ol and 3-methylidene-7,11,15-trimethylhexadecan-1,2-diol (phytyldiol) (Rontani et al., 1994). Phytyldiol is ubiquitous in the environment and constitutes a stable and specific tracer for photodegradation of chlorophyll phytyl side-chain (Rontani et al. 1996; Cuny and Rontani, 1999). The molar ratio phytyldiol:phytol (Chlorophyll Phytyl side-chain Photodegradation Index, CPPI) was proposed to estimate the extent of chlorophyll photodegraded in natural marine samples (Cuny et al. 2002). The CPPI values measured in lipid extracts resulting from the treatment of senescent leaves of *Q. ilex* and *S. aspera* attested to a complete photooxidation of chlorophyll (Table 1). In contrast, only 20% of chlorophyll seems to be photodegraded in detached leaves of P. oceanica.

As expected, the main sterol detected in lipid extracts of Q. ilex, S. aspera and P. oceanica appeared to be 24-ethylcholest-5-en-3β-ol (sitosterol). Indeed, this C₂₉ sterol constitutes the major sterol of terrestrial vascular plants (Lütjohann, 2004) and seagrasses (Volkman et al., 2008). As previously described (Iatrides et al., 1983), lipid extracts of P. oceanica also contained lesser proportion of 24-ethylcholesta-5,22(E)-dien- 3β -ol (stigmasterol). Type II photosensitized oxidation of Δ^5 -sterols affords Δ^6 -5 α -hydroperoxysterols (which rearrange quickly to Δ^5 -7 α/β -hydroperoxysterols, Smith, 1981) and Δ^4 -6 α/β -hydroperoxysterols (Kulig and Smith, 1973) (Fig. 1). Although produced in lesser proportion than Δ^{6} -5 α -

hydroperoxysterols, Δ^4 -6 α/β -hydroperoxysterols were selected as tracers of Δ^5 -sterol photooxidation due to their high specificity and relative stability (Rontani et al., 2009; Christodoulou et al., 2009). These compounds were quantified after NaBH₄ reduction to the corresponding diols and photooxidation percentage of the parent sterol was obtained from the equation: photooxidation % = $(\Delta^4$ -stera- $6\alpha/\beta$ -diols % × (1+0.3)/0.3) (Christodoulou et al., 2009). 24-Ethylcholest-4-en-3 β ,6 α / β -diols (arising from sitosterol photooxidation) could be detected in NaBH₄-reduced lipid extracts of the three gymnosperms investigated (Fig. 2). In the case of P. oceanica lipid extracts, the presence of 24-ethylcholest-4,22(E)-dien-3β,6β-diol (arising from stigmasterol photooxidation) could be also noticed (Fig. 2A). On the basis of the proportion of these diols relative to the parent Δ^5 -sterols, the photooxidation state of situation and stigmasterol could be estimated (Table 1). The strongest photooxidation of Δ^5 -sterols observed in P. oceanica (Table 1) is in good agreement with previous results obtained in the case of Z. noltii (Rontani et al., 2014). Type II photosensitized oxidation processes thus appeared to be really more efficient on Δ^5 -sterols in seagrasses than in terrestrial angiosperms. This highest efficiency may be attributed to: (i) the relative persistence of chlorophyll (photosensitizer) in senescent seagrasses (Pellikaan, 1982; Aubby, 1991) allowing the production of ¹O₂ during long periods or (ii) the temperature (Amiraux et al., 2016). Indeed, it was previously demonstrated that the diffusion rate of ¹O₂ in biological membranes increases strongly with temperature (Ehrenberg et al., 1998). The high temperatures observed on land in Mediterranean regions (notably in summer) could thus strongly favor the diffusion of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ outside of the chloroplasts of terrestrial higher plants decreasing thus strongly the efficiency of photosensitized processes.

134 Autoxidation (free radical-induced oxidation) of Δ^5 -sterols mainly afford $7\alpha/\beta$ -135 hydroperoxysterols and to a lesser extent 5,6-epoxysterols and 3β , 5α , 6β -steratriols (Smith,

1981) (Fig. 1). Due to their production by allylic rearrangement of photochemically-produced 5α -hydroperoxysterols (Nickon and Bagli, 1961), $7\alpha/\beta$ -hydroperoxysterols were discarded as possible markers of autoxidation processes. During the treatment, 5,6-epoxysterols may be hydrolyzed to 3β , 5α , 6β -trihydroxysterols. These triols were thus selected as specific and stable tracers of autoxidation processes (Christodoulou et al., 2009). Only trace amounts of 24ethylcholestane- 3β , 5α , 6β -triol (arising from sitosterol autoxidation) could be detected in the lipid extracts of *Q. ilex*, *S. aspera* and *P. oceanica* attesting to a weak autoxidation of Δ^5 -sterols in these senescent plants.

During singlet oxygen-mediated photooxidation of sterols in biological membranes (Korytowski et al., 1992) and senescent phytoplanktonic cells (Rontani et al., 1997), the ratio Δ^4 -6-hydroperoxysterols / Δ^5 -7-hydroperoxysterols generally ranges between 0.30 and 0.35. The lower values observed in lipid extracts of Q. ilex and S. aspera (Table 1) resulted likely from a slight autoxidation of sitosterol mainly producing Δ^5 -7-hydroperoxysterols. In contrast, in the case of *P. oceanica* this ratio appeared to be very high (Table 1). This high value was attributed to the involvement of an intense and selective homolytic breakdown of Δ^5 -7-hydroperoxysterols and Δ^6 -5-hydroperoxysterols catalyzed by metal ions (Schaich, 2005) present in seawater. Indeed, according to the stability of the alkyl radicals formed during β-scission of the corresponding alkoxyl radicals, the following order of stability of Δ^{5} -7hydroperoxysterols previously proposed: Δ^4 -6-hydroperoxysterols was >hydroperoxysterols > Δ^6 -5-hydroperoxysterols (Christodoulou et al., 2009).

Treatment of senescent leaves of *Q. ilex*, *S. aspera* and *P. oceanica* (see Section 4.2) involved NaBH₄-reduction (carried out in order to avoid thermal breakdown of hydroperoxides during the subsequent alkaline hydrolysis). This treatment resulted to the reduction of hydroperoxides and ketones to the corresponding alcohols. The sum of the corresponding hydroperoxides, ketones and alcohols was thus quantified under the form of alcohols.

161 Application of a different treatment (see Section 4.3) allowed us to specifically quantify 162 hydroperoxides and their main degradation products: alcohols and ketones in these senescent 163 plants. The results obtained allowed to confirm the instability of Δ^5 -7-hydroperoxysterols in *P*. 164 *oceanica* (Fig. 3). In this senescent seagrass the formation of ketonic degradation products 165 appeared to be highly favored.

Bacterial degradation of Δ^5 -sterols is initiated by oxidation of the 3 β -hydroxyl moiety and isomerization of the Δ^5 double bond to the Δ^4 position (Sojo et al., 1997). The resulting 4-steren-3-ones are then degraded via hydroxylation at C₂₆ to initiate side-chain degradation, or cleavage of the ring structure (9,10-seco-pathway; Philipp, 2011). It is interesting to note that bacterial hydrogenation of Δ^5 -sterols is also often observed in oxic and anoxic environments, this process involving the well-known sequence: Δ^5 -sterols \rightarrow ster-4-en-3-ones \rightarrow 5 α (H)-stanones $\leftrightarrow 5\alpha$ (H)-stanols (Gagosian et al., 1982; de Leeuw and Baas, 1986; Wakeham, 1989) (Fig. 1). Interestingly, 24-ethylcholest-4-en-3β-ol and 24-ethylcholestan-3β-ol could be detected in lipid extract of P. oceanica (Fig. 2A). Reduction with NaBD₄ instead of NaBH₄ allowed us to demonstrate that 100% of 24-ethylcholest-4-en-3β-ol and 60% of 24-ethylcholestan-3β-ol resulted from the reduction of the corresponding ster-4-en-3-one and stanone, respectively. Bacterial conversion of Δ^5 -sterols to $5\alpha(H)$ -stanols seems thus to act in senescent leaves of seagrasses, but not in terrestrial vascular plants (Fig. 2B).

5717924-Ethyl-5α-cholestane-3β,6β-diol could be detected in lipid extracts of *P. oceanica* (Fig.58591802A). Reduction with NaBD4 instead of NaBH4 also allowed to demonstrate the additional60181presence of: 24-ethylcholest-4-en-6β-ol-3-one, 24-ethylcholest-4-en-3,6-dione, 24-ethyl-5α-63182cholestan-3β-ol-6-one, 24-ethyl-5α-cholestan-6β-ol-3-one and 24-ethyl-5α-cholestane-3,6-64183dione in this lipid extract (Fig. 4). The presence of these different compounds attests to the

3. Conclusions

bacterial use of the main photooxidation products of sitosterol (i.e. 24-ethylcholest-4-en-3β,6βdiol and 24-ethylcholest-4-en-3β-ol-6-one) (Fig. 1).

Degradation products of Δ^5 -sterols (mainly situaterol) were characterized and quantified

in senescent leaves of Mediterranean terrestrial (*O. ilex* and *S. aspera*) and marine (*P. oceanica*)

angiosperms. The results obtained allowed to confirm the highest efficiency of Type II

photosensitized processes in marine seagrasses. The fast degradation of chlorophyll (sensitizer)

during the senescence and the high temperatures observed on ground (favoring migration of

¹O₂ outside of biological membranes) seem to be at the origin of the weak efficiency of

photosensitized processes in Mediterranean terrestrial angiosperms. Homolytic cleavage of

photochemically-produced hydroperoxides appeared to be highly favored in seawater likely due

to the presence of metal ions in trace amounts. Bacterial degradation processes, which are more

efficient in senescent leaves of *P. oceanica* than in these of *Q. ilex* and *S. aspera*, acted not only

on sitosterol but also on its photooxidation products. These observations confirm the

complexity of the interactions between biotic and abiotic degradation processes in the

4.1. Sampling

environment.

4. Experimental

205 Senescent leaves of *Q. ilex* and *S. aspera* (both widespread species in Mediterranean 206 ecosystems) were collected on the ground near Marseilles (France). Detached leaves of *P.*

oceanica were collected on the Catalans beach in Marseilles (France). All the leaves were freeze dried and then placed in a mortar and intensively ground.

4.2. Treatment

Freeze-dried leaves were reduced in methanol (25 ml) by excess NaBH₄ or NaBD₄ (70 mg) at room temperature for 30 min (Rontani et al., 2009). This reduction was carried out to reduce labile hydroperoxides resulting from photooxidation to alcohols that are amenable to gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS). During this treatment, ketones are also reduced and the possibility of some ester cleavage cannot be totally excluded. After reduction, 25 ml of water and 2.8 g of potassium hydroxide were added and the mixture was directly saponified by refluxing for 2 h. After cooling, the content of the flask was filtered and extracted three times with hexane. The combined hexane extracts were dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄, filtered and concentrated by rotary evaporation at 40°C to give the neutral fraction.

4.3. Estimation of hydroperoxysterols and their alcoholic and ketonic degradation productcontents

Freeze-dried leaves were extracted four times with chloroform-methanol-water (1:2:0.8, v/v/v) using ultrasonication (separation of leave debris and solvents by centrifugation at 3500 G for 9 min). To initiate phase separation after ultrasonication, chloroform and purified water were added to the combined extracts to give a final volume ratio of 1:1:0.9 (v/v/v). The upper aqueous phase was extracted twice with chloroform and the combined extracts were dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄, filtered and the solvent removed via rotary evaporation. The residue obtained after extraction was dissolved in 4 ml of dichloromethane and separated in two equal subsamples. After evaporation of the solvent, degradation products were obtained for the first

subsample after acetylation (inducing complete conversion of hydroperoxides to the corresponding ketones, Mihara and Tateba, 1986) and saponification and for the second after reduction with NaBD₄ and saponification. Comparison of the amounts of alcohols present after acetylation and after NaBD₄ reduction made it possible to estimate the proportion of hydroperoxysterols and hydroxysterols present in the samples, while after NaBD₄-reduction deuterium labeling allowed to estimate the proportion of ketosterols really present in the samples (Marchand and Rontani, 2003).

4.4. Derivatization

Residues were taken up in 300 µl of a mixture of pyridine and N.O-bis(trimethysilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA; Supelco) (2:1, v:v) and silvlated for 1 h at 50°C to convert OH-containing compounds to their TMSi-ether derivatives. After evaporation to dryness under a stream of N₂, the derivatized residues were taken up in a mixture of ethyl acetate and BSTFA (to avoid desilvlation of fatty acids) for analysis using GC-EIMS. It should be noted that under these conditions $3\beta_{5\alpha,6\beta}$ -trihydroxysterols were only silvlated at the 3 and 6 positions and thus need to be analyzed with great care.

4.5. Gas chromatography-electron ionization mass spectrometry (GC-EIMS) analyses

Lipid oxidation products were identified by comparison of retention times and mass spectra with those of standards and quantified (calibration with external standards) using an Agilent 7850-A gas chromatograph connected to an Agilent 7010-QQQ mass spectrometer. For low concentrations, or in the case of co-elutions, quantification was achieved using selected ion monitoring (SIM). The main characteristic mass fragment ions used to quantify degradation products of sterols have been described previously (Christodoulou et al., 2009; Rontani et al.,

2009). The following conditions were employed: 30 m x 0.25 mm (i.d.) fused silica column coated with HP-5MS (Agilent; film thickness: 0.25 µm); oven programmed from 70 to 130 °C at 20 °C min⁻¹, then to 250 °C at 5 °C min⁻¹ and then to 300 °C at 3 °C min⁻¹; carrier gas (He), 1.0 bar; injector (splitless), 250 °C; electron energy, 70 eV; source temperature, 230 °C; quadrupole temperature, 150 °C; scan range m/z 40-700; cycle time, 0.2 s.

4.6. Standard compounds

Phytol, sitosterol and stigmasterol were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. The synthesis of 3-methylidene-7,11,15-trimethylhexadecan-1,2-diol (phytyldiol) from phytol was described previously by Rontani and Aubert (2005). 5α - and $6\alpha/\beta$ -Hydroperoxides were obtained after photosensitized oxidation of the corresponding Δ^5 -sterols in pyridine in the presence of haematoporphyrin as sensitizer (Nickon and Bagli, 1961). Allylic rearrangement of 5a-hydroperoxides to 7α -hydroperoxides and epimerization of the latter to 7β -hydroperoxides was carried out at room temperature in chloroform (Teng et al., 1973). Subsequent reduction of these different hydroperoxides in methanol with excess NaBH₄ afforded the corresponding diols. Hydrogenation of 24-ethylcholest-4-en-3β,6β-diol in acetic acid solution in the presence of PtO2 as catalyst yielded 24-ethyl-5β-cholestane-3β,6β-diol and 24-ethyl-5α-cholestane-3β,6β-diol (Nishimura and Mori, 1963). Oxidation of sitosterol in THF at room temperature with HIO₄ afforded 24-ethylcholestane- 3β , 5α , 6β -triol (Voisin et al., 2014).

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1065	115	FICUDE CADTIONS			
1066	413	FIGURE CAPTIONS			
1067					
1068	416				
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1071	417	Figure 1. Biotic and abiotic degradation of sitosterol in senescent leaves of <i>P. oceanica</i> .			
1072					
1073	418	(Bacterial metabolites are in blue).			
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1075	419				
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1079	420	Figure 2. Partial total ion current (TIC) chromatograms of silylated NaBH ₄ -reduced lipid			
1080					
1081	421	extracts of senescent leaves of <i>P. oceanica</i> (A) and <i>S. aspera</i> (B).			
1082					
1083	400				
1084	422				
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1086	423	Figure 3. Relative percentages of intact 6- and 7-hydroperoxysitosterols and their ketonic and			
1087					
1088	424	alcoholic degradation products measured in senescent leaves of P. oceanica (A) and S. aspera			
1089					
1090	425	(B).			
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1093	426				
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1095	427	Figure 4 Partial FI mass spectra of silvlated 24 ethylcholest A-en-38 68-diol (A) and 24			
1097					
1098	428	ethylcholestane-3B 6B-diol (B) obtained after NaBD,-reduction of lipid extract of P oceanica			
1099	720	entylenolestane 5p,op alor (b) obtained aler Nabb4 reduction of npic extract of r. becamea.			
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Mineralization

Mineralization

A



Retention time (min)

B









Sitosterol functionalization



⁽m/z)

Table 1

Efficiency of photooxidation processes in senescent leaves of marine and terrestrial angiosperms

	Posidonia oceanica	Quercus ilex	Smilax aspera L.
CPPIª	0.012 ± 0.002	60 ± 46	5 ± 4
Chlorophyll photooxidation (%)	20 ± 3^{b}	100 ± 0	100 ± 0
Sitosterol photooxidation (%)	$72 \pm 17^{\circ}$	49 ± 7	33 ± 5
Stigmasterol photooxidation (%)	$69 \pm 3^{\circ}$	-	-
$6\alpha/\beta$ -diols/ $7\alpha/\beta$ -diols ^d	6.28 ± 2.38	0.22 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.01

^a Chlorophyll Phytyl side-chain Photodegradation Index (molar ratio phytyldiol/phytol) (Cuny et al., 1999)

^b Estimated with the equation: Chlorophyll photodegradation percentage = $(1 - (CPPI + 1)^{-18.5}) \times 100$ (Cuny et al., 1999)

^c Estimated with the equation: Sterol photooxidation % = $(\Delta^4 - 3\beta, 6\alpha/\beta - dihydroxysterol \%) \times (1 + 0.3) / 0.3$ (Christodoulou et al., 2009)

^d 24-Ethylcholest-4-en- 3β , $6\alpha/\beta$ -diols/24-ethylcholest-5-en- 3β , $7\alpha/\beta$ -diols