

1           **The impact of dietary supplementation with astaxanthin on egg**  
2           **quality in Atlantic cod broodstock (*Gadus morhua*, L.).**

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26 **Abstract**

27 This study investigated the effect on egg quality of dietary supplementation of  
28 Atlantic cod broodstock with the carotenoid astaxanthin (ASTA). Duplicate groups of  
29 farm-reared Atlantic cod broodstock were fed either a control diet with no added  
30 ASTA, or an ASTA supplemented diet (73.7 mg/kg dry weight; Carophyll Pink®) for  
31 2 months prior to peak spawning. The results indicated that ASTA uptake into eggs  
32 from the broodstock diet was highly efficient. Fish fed the diet supplemented with  
33 ASTA produced fewer batches of eggs, but the mean number per batch of eggs  
34 spawned/kg female was higher, and numbers of floating eggs and numbers of  
35 fertilised eggs per kg female in each batch were also significantly improved. A  
36 correlation between the egg ASTA content and fertilisation success of individual  
37 batches was identified. This improvement in egg quality demonstrated the potential  
38 value of ASTA supplementation of broodstock diets for cod. ASTA supplementation  
39 produced a 20% increase in the number of eggs per batch spawned, a 37% increase in  
40 the number per batch of floating eggs per kg female and a 47% increase in the number  
41 per batch of fertilised eggs per kg female. These results clearly demonstrate  
42 significant benefits of ASTA supplementation of cod broodstock feeds in terms of  
43 improved egg quality and larval production.

44 *Keywords: Atlantic cod, egg quality, astaxanthin, broodstock nutrition*

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## 51 **1. Introduction**

52 In recent years catches from cod commercial fisheries have been in serious  
53 decline, resulting in an increased interest in cod culture. As a result, global cod culture  
54 has increased from 169 t in 2000 to 3812 t in 2004, with a trend towards further  
55 increase in the future (FAO, 2006). In order to provide sufficient numbers of good  
56 quality fish to establish a sustainable cod production, farms need a year round supply  
57 of high quality larval cod. To provide high quality larvae, commercial cod hatcheries  
58 need a reliable supply of good quality eggs. The quality of eggs is important because  
59 poor quality eggs result in increased larval mortality and deformities during egg and  
60 larval rearing which results in reduced production efficiency as well as fish health and  
61 welfare problems. At present it is generally accepted that the best source of eggs  
62 comes from wild caught fish, as these fish tend to produce better quality eggs and  
63 larvae than farmed broodstock. Therefore, most commercial hatcheries currently rely  
64 heavily on eggs from wild-caught rather than farmed broodstock. However, reliance  
65 on wild broodstock presents a number of problems, including the risk of pathogen  
66 introduction, limited potential for stock improvement by selective breeding and raises  
67 concerns over the long term sustainability of a cod industry heavily reliant on wild  
68 caught broodstock. Little is known about the causes of poor egg quality in farmed cod  
69 and further work is needed to understand factors controlling egg quality in this  
70 species.

71 A number of studies have been carried out on other species of farmed fish and  
72 numerous parameters have been reported to influence egg quality such as broodstock  
73 nutrition, environmental conditions and husbandry practices (Bromage, 1995; Bruce  
74 et al., 1999; Brown et al., 2003). If nutritional factors are responsible for quality  
75 problems then manipulation of broodstock diets should provide a practical means of

76 improving egg quality via supplementation with essential nutrients. Nutrition is  
77 especially important for cod broodstock because farm reared fish may be conditioned  
78 for spawning in tanks and fed formulated feeds over a period of several years.  
79 Nutritional input, in both the short and long term, is therefore relevant to fish of both  
80 farmed and wild origin.

81 The influence of nutrient availability on reproductive physiology and broodstock  
82 performance in fish has been reviewed previously (Hardy, 1985; Bromage, 1995;  
83 Pavlov et al., 2004). These studies have investigated the effects of a number of  
84 nutrient supplements including polyunsaturated fatty acids, vitamins C and E, and the  
85 carotenoid pigment astaxanthin. In cod, differences in carotenoid pigment  
86 concentration have previously been identified between wild and farmed cod  
87 broodstock (Salze et al., 2005). These nutritional differences were correlated with  
88 differences in egg quality, suggesting that sub-optimal levels of carotenoid pigment  
89 may cause some egg quality problems in farmed cod (Salze et al., 2005). For example,  
90 Salze et al. (2005) found that carotenoid concentrations were lower in eggs from  
91 farmed cod than eggs from wild cod. Similarly, Grung et al. (1993) also found lower  
92 concentrations of carotenoid pigment in eggs from farmed cod than wild cod and  
93 demonstrated that dietary carotenoid supplementation resulted in an increased  
94 carotenoid concentration in the eggs. Numerous functions have been proposed for  
95 carotenoids in fish eggs and include UV protection, provitamin A activity, improved  
96 respiratory function (Craik, 1985; Mikulin, 2000) and antioxidant protection against  
97 free-radical damage (Edge et al., 1997). These findings suggest that carotenoids are  
98 important in ensuring normal embryonic development and could also affect hatching  
99 rates and larval survival (Torrissen, 1984; Craik, 1985; George et al., 2001).  
100 Carotenoids are also a source of pigmentation in the embryo (Pan et al., 2001) and

101 may be involved in photoreception processes (Rønnestad et al., 1998).  
102 Supplementation of broodstock diets with ASTA has also been shown to improve egg  
103 quality in red sea bream and yellowtail (Watanabe and Miki, 1993; Verakunpiriya et  
104 al., 1997). Dietary carotenoid supplements have also shown a positive relationship  
105 between egg pigmentation and fertilisation as well as survival of rainbow trout eggs  
106 (Harris, 1984; Craik, 1985) while Svensson et al. (2006) found the colouration of  
107 female *G. flavescens* was strongly related to the carotenoid content of the eggs.  
108 At the present time there are no reports of the effects of carotenoid supplementation  
109 on egg quality in cod. The aim of the experiment reported here was to evaluate the  
110 effect of short-term supplementation of ASTA in broodstock diets on a number of egg  
111 quality parameters in farmed cod. Duplicate groups of farmed cod broodstock were  
112 fed either a control diet, with no ASTA supplement, or an ASTA supplemented diet,  
113 for two months prior to peak spawning. Egg numbers were expressed in terms of  
114 female biomass to permit comparisons between stocks. The astaxanthin content of  
115 eggs was carried out to examine the effects of dietary treatment on astaxanthin  
116 content.

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## 118 **2. Materials and methods**

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### 120 *2.1 Fish husbandry and diets*

121 The experimental design used two treatment groups of Atlantic cod (*Gadus*  
122 *morhua*) broodstock each housed in duplicate tanks. The control group was fed an  
123 unsupplemented diet with no added ASTA throughout the spawning period while the  
124 treatment group was fed an ASTA supplemented feed, at a measured inclusion level  
125 of 73.7 mg/kg dry weight, for two months prior to the peak-spawning date. The

126 broodstock were farm-reared fish and were allocated to four fibreglass 7m<sup>3</sup> tanks in  
127 November 2005. Tanks were supplied with seawater at 40 L/min in a flow-through  
128 system. The average water temperature during the experimental period was 8°C and  
129 the average salinity was 33 ‰. In January 2006, fish were weighed individually,  
130 screened by ultrasound to determine gender and state of maturation and reallocated so  
131 that each tank contained a similar number and biomass of males and females. After  
132 allocation each group contained 34 or 35 males and 35 or 36 females. The biomass in  
133 each tank was; unsupplemented 1, 89.4 kg, unsupplemented 2, 89.0 kg, ASTA  
134 treatment 1, 91.5 kg and ASTA treatment 2, 90.0 kg. The average individual fish  
135 weight in each tank was 1.29 kg.

136 The basal feed used was a commercially available moist feed formulation  
137 (Vitalis® Marine Broodstock Mix, Skretting, Wincham, UK), specially prepared to  
138 contain no added ASTA. The feed was prepared by the addition of water (0.7 L/kg dry  
139 mix). For the supplemented feed, Carophyll Pink (DSM, Basle, Switzerland), with a  
140 nominal ASTA content of 10% w/w, was added as a source of ASTA at a rate of  
141 1g/kg dry mix. The concentration of ASTA in the feed, as measured by HPLC, was  
142 73.7 mg/kg dry weight. Fish were fed to satiation twice daily.

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#### 144 *2.2 Egg quality assessment*

145 The spawning period was regarded as the period from 1<sup>st</sup> March to 31<sup>st</sup> May 2006,  
146 and the peak spawning date was 15<sup>th</sup> April 2006. Each day during the 92 day  
147 spawning period, egg batches were collected and egg quality was assessed using  
148 standard techniques to measure total egg production, floating egg production and  
149 fertilisation rate. Dropout (number of sinking (unfertilised eggs)) within each tank  
150 was measured, over a 24h period, on five different dates. Samples of floating eggs

151 (good quality and mainly fertilised eggs) were collected on 14 different dates for  
152 hatch rate determination and fertilisation rate. Astaxanthin analysis was carried out on  
153 floating eggs collected from each tank on 11 different dates during the course of the  
154 spawning period.

### 155 *2.3 Measurement of astaxanthin concentration in feed and eggs*

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157 Carotenoid pigments, including astaxanthin, were extracted from cod eggs largely  
158 using the method of Barua et al. (1993). Eleven samples of 20 eggs were collected  
159 from each of the four tanks over the spawning period and stored in  
160 chloroform/methanol (2:1 v/v) with 0.01% (w/v) BHT. The values presented for  
161 astaxanthin are average values for each tank (n =11). Total lipid was extracted from  
162 the egg samples by the method of Folch et al. (1957). Samples of egg total lipid (10  
163 mg) were evaporated to dryness under oxygen-free nitrogen, and re-dissolved in 500  
164  $\mu$ L of iso-hexane. Total carotenoid pigment was measured spectrophotometrically at  
165 470 nm using an  $E_{1\%}$  (w/v) of 2100. Separation and quantification of astaxanthin was  
166 carried out using a Lichrosorb 5 $\mu$  Silica 60 column (4.0 x 125 mm, Phenomenex,  
167 Macclesfield, U.K.). The chromatographic system was equipped with a Waters  
168 Model 510 pump and astaxanthin was detected at 470 nm using a Waters 486  
169 multiwavelength UV/vis detector (Millipore U.K., Watford). An isocratic solvent  
170 system was used containing iso-hexane/acetone (86:14, v/v) at a flow rate 1 mL/min.

171 Carotenoid in diets was extracted after enzymatic digestion with Maxatase  
172 enzyme (International Biosynthetics, Rijswijk, Netherlands). Portions of ground diet  
173 (1g) were mixed with 10 mL water and 110 mg Maxatase in a 50 mL stoppered glass  
174 tube followed by incubation in a water bath at 50°C for 30 min. Samples were then  
175 extracted with 5 mL of absolute ethanol and 5 mL of ethyl acetate on a vortex mixer.

176 The homogenate was centrifuged (1000 x g, 5 min) and the supernatant removed to a  
177 stoppered glass tube. The pellet was re-extracted in 5 mL of ethyl acetate,  
178 centrifuged, and the supernatant combined with the first supernatant. Finally, the  
179 pellet was re-extracted in 10 mL of isohexane, centrifuged, and the supernatant  
180 combined with the pooled supernatant. The pooled supernatant was dried under N<sub>2</sub>  
181 and vacuum desiccated for 2 h before dissolving the residue in 2 mL of isohexane  
182 prior to analysis. The astaxanthin was separated and quantified using the HPLC  
183 method described above.

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#### 185 *2.4 Data analysis*

186 Egg quality indices used for group comparisons included, batch weights of eggs  
187 collected, batch weights of floating eggs, fertilisation rate and hatch rate, and  
188 estimates of mean numbers per batch of eggs spawned, eggs collected, floating eggs,  
189 viable (i.e. floating, fertilised eggs) and hatched eggs. Numbers were calculated in  
190 terms of the biomass of female fish to compensate for small differences in broodstock  
191 biomass and allow comparison with other stocks. Numbers were calculated from egg  
192 batch weight measurements assuming 500 eggs/g. Analysis of variance, or Kruskal-  
193 Wallis non-parametric tests, were used to identify differences in egg quality, or  
194 biochemical parameters, between individual groups. Group comparisons were made  
195 using analysis of variance with tank as a factor nested within each treatment. Where  
196 differences were identified, appropriate multiple comparison tests were used to  
197 identify differences between the group averages. Spearman's rank test was used to  
198 detect any correlation between fatty acid composition and egg quality.

199

### 200 **3. Results**



201 Total carotenoid pigment concentration in the unsupplemented control diet was 14.8  
202 mg/kg and 73.7 mg/kg in the ASTA-supplemented diet. The concentrations measured  
203 in the eggs were  $0.98 \pm 0.48$  and  $2.79 \pm 0.10$  ng/egg for the unsupplemented and  
204 ASTA supplemented groups, respectively (Fig. 1). A significant correlation was  
205 detected between egg astaxanthin content and fertilisation rate (Spearman's  $r =$   
206  $0.3061$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) in individual egg batches.

207 Table 1 and Fig. 2 show data on egg production and egg viability in the two treatment  
208 groups. In the unsupplemented control group, total production was estimated to be  
209 301,032 eggs per kg female. Dropout within the tank was approximately 7% and the  
210 number of eggs collected over the season was 280,884 eggs per kg female. A mean of  
211 123,022 eggs per kg female (44 % of those collected) were floating eggs evaluated for  
212 incubation. The mean fertilisation percentage of floating eggs was 31% and the total  
213 number of viable eggs was 42,573 eggs per kg female (15 % of eggs collected). The  
214 mean hatch percentage was 11 % of floating eggs incubated, and the total number of  
215 hatched eggs was 13,492 per kg female (5 % of collected eggs). The ASTA  
216 supplemented group, produced numerically fewer batches of eggs, but the mean  
217 number per batch of eggs spawned per kg female was significantly larger ( $P < 0.05$ ).  
218 Fertilisation percentages were similar but the weight per batch of floating eggs ( $P <$   
219  $0.01$ ), number per batch of floating eggs per kg female ( $P < 0.01$ ), and number per  
220 batch of fertilised eggs/kg female ( $P < 0.01$ ) were all significantly higher in the ASTA  
221 supplemented group than in the control group. Cumulative egg production for control  
222 broodstock and broodstock fed ASTA are shown in Fig 3. These results show that  
223 after 15 days of egg production the broodstock fed an ASTA supplement had  
224 produced more eggs than control fish.

225 (Note: a percent is not a rate, a rate denotes units/units time)

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#### 228 **4. Discussion**

229 A previous study that measured cod egg pigment concentrations identified higher  
230 levels of ASTA in eggs from wild cod broodstock compared to farmed broodstock  
231 held in the same hatchery (Salze et al., 2005). This study showed that wild eggs  
232 contained around 3 times more ASTA than the farmed eggs and that the fertilisation  
233 percentage in the latter was about half that seen in the wild eggs. In the present study,  
234 short term supplementation of cod broodstock diets with ASTA, for a period of two  
235 months prior to peak spawning, increased concentrations of carotenoids in the eggs,  
236 by around 3-fold, indicating efficient and rapid uptake. Whilst fish fed the diet  
237 supplemented with ASTA produced fewer batches of eggs, the mean number per  
238 batch of eggs spawned/kg female was significantly higher (by 20%) and the numbers  
239 of floating eggs and numbers of fertilised eggs per kg female in each batch were also  
240 significantly improved (by 37 and 47%. respectively). In addition, a correlation  
241 between the ASTA content of the eggs and fertilisation success of individual batches  
242 was identified.

243 These findings confirm that addition of ASTA to the cod broodstock diets results  
244 in uptake and deposition into eggs and provides significant improvements in egg  
245 quality, similar to those found in other fish species. The efficient transfer of  
246 astaxanthin from broodstock to egg has been shown previously, in both cod and  
247 salmonids, (Grung et al., 1993; Torrissen, 1984) although improved egg quality has  
248 not been consistently observed in salmonids (Christiansen and Torrissen, 1997;  
249 Choubert et al., 1998). However, in marine species, including red sea bream and  
250 yellowtail, the addition of synthetic ASTA or krill lipid to broodstock diets was found

251 to clearly improve a number of egg quality parameters (Watanabe et al., 1991;  
252 Watanabe and Miki, 1993). In red sea bream the percentage of buoyant and hatched  
253 eggs as well as the percentage of normal larvae was significantly increased in eggs  
254 from broodstock fed an ASTA supplemented diet (Watanabe and Kiron, 1995).  
255 Supplementation of broodstock feeds with specific nutrients, particularly specific fatty  
256 acids and fat-soluble micronutrients, including carotenoids, can lead to an increase in  
257 levels of these nutrients in the developing eggs and, in the case of sea bass, sea bream,  
258 yellowtail and halibut, these have been shown to have a measurable impact on egg  
259 quality (Ashton et al., 1993; Verakunpiriya et al., 1997; Czesny and Dabrowski 1998;  
260 Gallagher et al., 1998; Sargent et al., 2002).

261 In addition to the benefits reported in fin fish there is also evidence from studies  
262 on crustacean and echinoderm culture that suggest similar benefits of carotenoid  
263 supplementation of broodstock diets. Inclusion of dietary carotenoids was shown to  
264 improve egg and larval production in the edible sea urchin *Lytechinus variegates*,  
265 (George et al., 2001). Supplementation with highly unsaturated fatty acids (HUFA)  
266 and 50 mg/kg ASTA resulted in increased total egg production and egg  
267 production/female in cultured *Penaeus monodon* broodstock (Huang et al., 2008).  
268 Similarly, survival of *Penaeus vannamei* nauplii was increased following a carotenoid  
269 supplement while broodstock diets lacking carotenoid resulted in reduced larval feed  
270 intake, increased deformities and reduced survival (Wyban et al., 1997).

271 More than 600 naturally occurring carotenoids have been identified in vegetables,  
272 fruits and seafoods although they mostly originate in plants, photosynthetic bacteria  
273 and algae where they are accessory pigments in photosynthesis and photoprotection  
274 (Isler, 1981). One explanation for the beneficial effects of ASTA on cod egg quality  
275 could be that astaxanthin acts as a fertilisation hormone and improves fertilisation by

276 stimulating and attracting spermatozoa (Hartmann et al., 1947). However, the ability  
277 of carotenoid pigments to absorb light and, thereby, quench or inactivate singlet  
278 oxygen and free radicals, is a more likely reason for their nutritional efficacy (Mayne,  
279 1996). The mechanism by which the damaging effects of light, (UV and visible) and  
280 the subsequent generation of reactive oxygen species is attenuated, is a consequence  
281 of the conjugated polyene structure of carotenoids that allows sequestration and  
282 inactivation of these harmful molecules (Nishigaki et al., 1994). This action of  
283 carotenoids on control of damaging free radicals has lead to intervention studies in  
284 human conditions that have a pro-oxidant aetiology including heart disease, cancer,  
285 stroke, cataract, macular degeneration and immune modulation (Mayne, 1996). In  
286 natural spawning of cod, the eggs are released into the upper layers of the oceans, that  
287 are both highly illuminated and oxygen-rich, presenting an ideal environment for free  
288 radical generation. Thus, the improvements observed in egg and larval quality in  
289 farmed cod, when diets are supplemented with ASTA, could be explained by better  
290 antioxidant protection both in the diet and in the eggs and larvae themselves (Cowey  
291 et al., 1985; Pangantihon-Kuhlmann et al., 1998).

292 A further explanation for the efficacy of ASTA supplementation might be related  
293 to stress reduction and enhancement of immune function. Larval fish, both in the wild  
294 and in hatcheries, can be subjected to both osmotic and thermal fluctuations as well as  
295 to pathogenic challenge. In tiger prawn (*Penaeus monodon*), studies have shown that  
296 dietary astaxanthin supplementation can improve resistance to both osmotic stress, in  
297 the form of salinity fluctuation, and thermal stress as reduction in temperature from 27  
298 to 5°C (Merchie et al., 1998; Chien et al., 2003). The postulated mechanism for  
299 improved stress resistance was related to the increased energy production required to  
300 respond to stress that would generate more oxygen radicals that could be attenuated

301 by the presence of ASTA. Astaxanthin supplementation has been shown to improve  
302 health and immune function in salmon and rainbow trout although the exact  
303 mechanism is not known (Christiansen et al., 1995; Thompson et al., 1995). However,  
304 a study using spleen cell suspensions, isolated from mice fed control or ASTA  
305 supplemented diets, showed enhanced T-dependent antigen specific humoral immune  
306 responses in the supplemented mouse cells (Jyonouchi et al., 1995a). Similar immune  
307 enhancement, via modulation of T-dependent antibody responses, has also been  
308 observed in humans supplemented with ASTA by the same authors (Jyonouchi et al.,  
309 1995b).

310       The benefits of ASTA supplementation seen in the present study suggests that  
311 hatcheries should check the status of their cod broodstock with regard to dietary  
312 ASTA concentrations in the pre-spawning period. If necessary, short term  
313 supplementation should be used to boost these nutrients prior to spawning. If the  
314 status of the broodstock is unknown, the hatchery should consider sending samples of  
315 eggs for analysis at the start of each spawning period. Such tests would assess the  
316 nutritional status of eggs prior to spawning, thus allowing corrective action to be  
317 taken before spawning commences. More information on the ASTA status of eggs  
318 from commercial broodstock is required, and should be assessed in relation to egg  
319 quality. Records of egg quality in standard form (e.g. no of fertilised eggs per kg  
320 female) are necessary to allow effective comparisons between eggs from different  
321 broodstock populations.

322       Future studies should aim to determine the most efficient forms, concentration of  
323 ASTA and other carotenoids and duration of supplementation required for optimal  
324 response. More information is also required on the role of environmental conditions,  
325 husbandry and behavioural interactions in relation to spawning of cod broodstock.

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469 Table 1. Egg production and egg quality indicators. Egg numbers are expressed as  
 470 numbers per kg female.

471	Parameter	Control	ASTA supplemented
472	Total no. of eggs produced/ 473 kg female	301032 ± 46235	335795 ± 19947
474	Mean no. per batch of eggs 475 produced/kg female	4548 ± 409	5454 ± 820*
476	Total weight of eggs 477 collected (g)	27054 ± 3441	30065 ± 3215
478	No. of batches collected	66 ± 4.2	62 ± 5.7
479	Mean wt. of collected egg 480 batches	409 ± 26	490 ± 97
481	Total no. of collected eggs/ 482 kg female	280884 ± 44355	311279 ± 13453
483	Mean no. per batch of eggs 484 collected/kg female	4244 ± 400	5052 ± 678
485	Total weight of floating eggs (g)	11923 ± 1762	14764 ± 2343
486	Mean wt. per batch of floating 487 eggs (g)	189 ± 42.4	259 ± 72.1**
488	Total no. of floating eggs/kg 489 female	123022 ± 14629	152859 ± 14407
490	Mean no. per batch of floating 491 eggs/kg female	1928 ± 417	2615 ± 494**
492	Mean fertilisation rate 493 (% floating eggs)	31.5 ± 5.0	33.0 ± 1.4

494	Total no. of fertilised eggs/ kg female	42573 ± 2334	57484 ± 4236
496	No. of batches with fertilised eggs	61.5 ± 6.4	56.5 ± 6.4
498	Mean no. per batch of fertilised eggs/kg female	698 ± 110	1028 ± 191**
500	Mean percent hatch (% floating eggs)	11.0 ± 1.4	13.5 ± 0.7
502	Total no. of hatched larvae/ kg female	13492 ± 2906	20645 ± 3299
504	Mean no. per batch of hatched larvae/kg female	212.4 ± 66.0	354 ± 89.9

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506 Values are mean ± SD, n = 2. Significant differences in mean weights or numbers per  
507 batch between the control and ASTA supplemented groups are shown as \* (P<0.05),  
508 \*\* (P<0.01) or \*\*\* (P<0.001).

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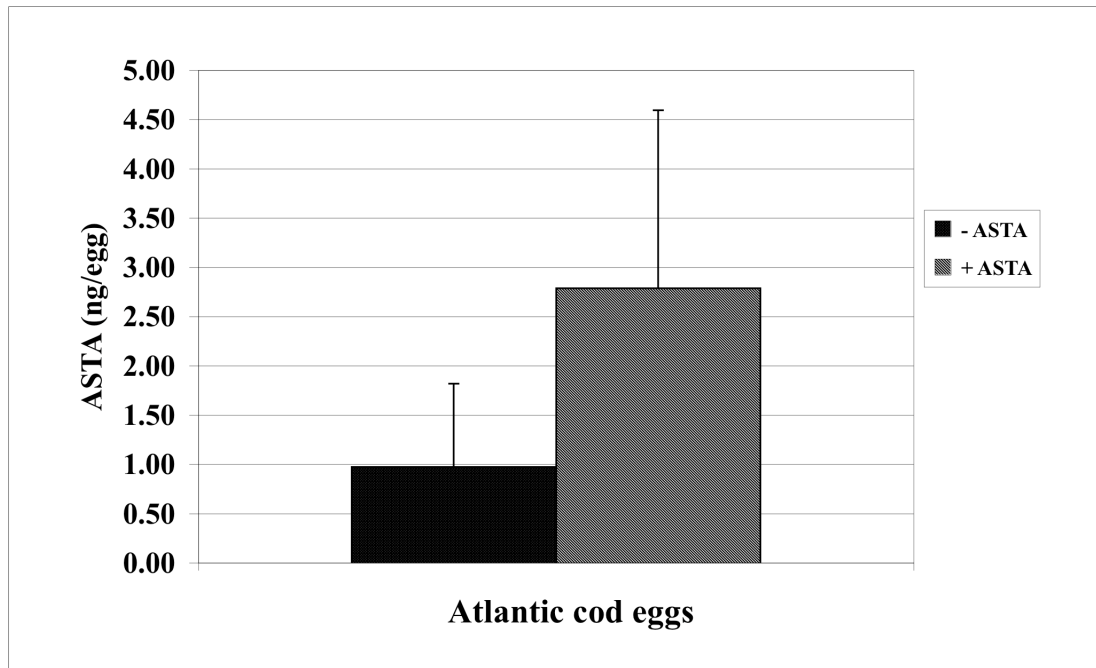
511 **Figure legends**

512 Figure 1. Astaxanthin content of eggs from control cod broodstock and broodstock fed  
513 an astaxanthin supplemented diet for two months prior to peak spawning. Values are  
514 ng astaxanthin/egg (mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 2).

515 Figure 2. Egg production and egg quality parameters in cod broodstock fed a diet with  
516 and without added astaxanthin. Differences in the mean number of eggs spawned,  
517 mean number of floating eggs and mean number of fertilised eggs were statistically  
518 significant (P < 0.05).

519 Figure 3. Cumulative egg production, over the 90 day spawning period, from control  
520 broodstock and broodstock fed an astaxanthin supplemented diet.

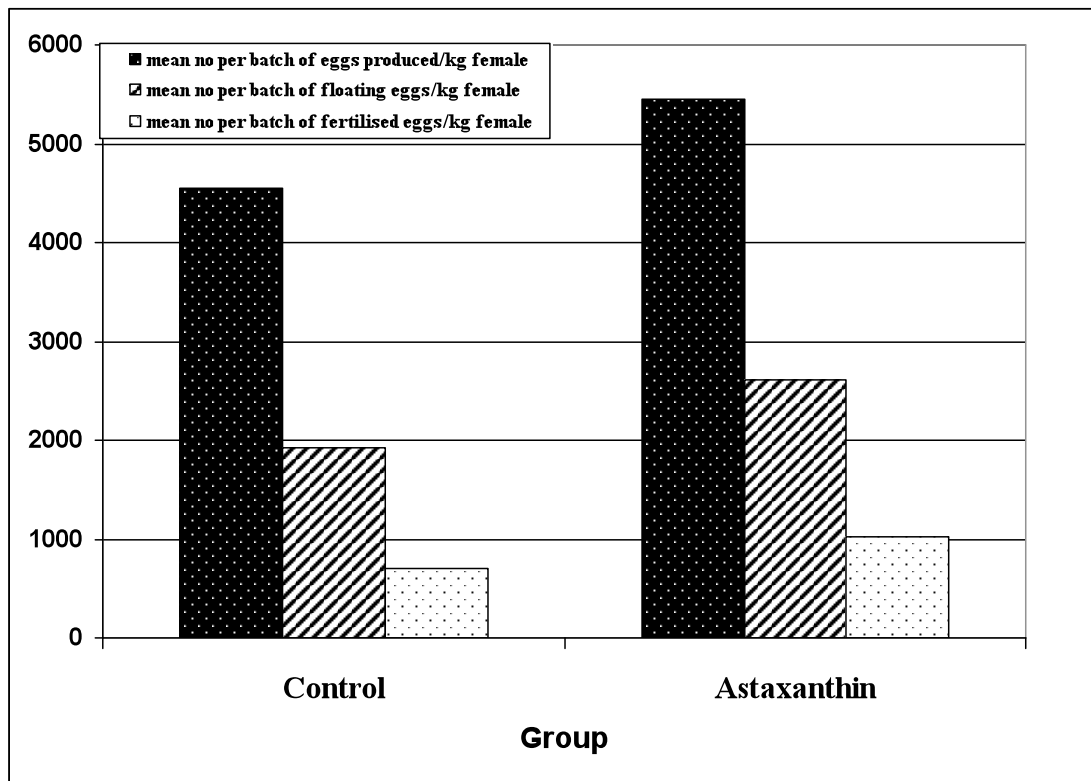
521 Figure 1.



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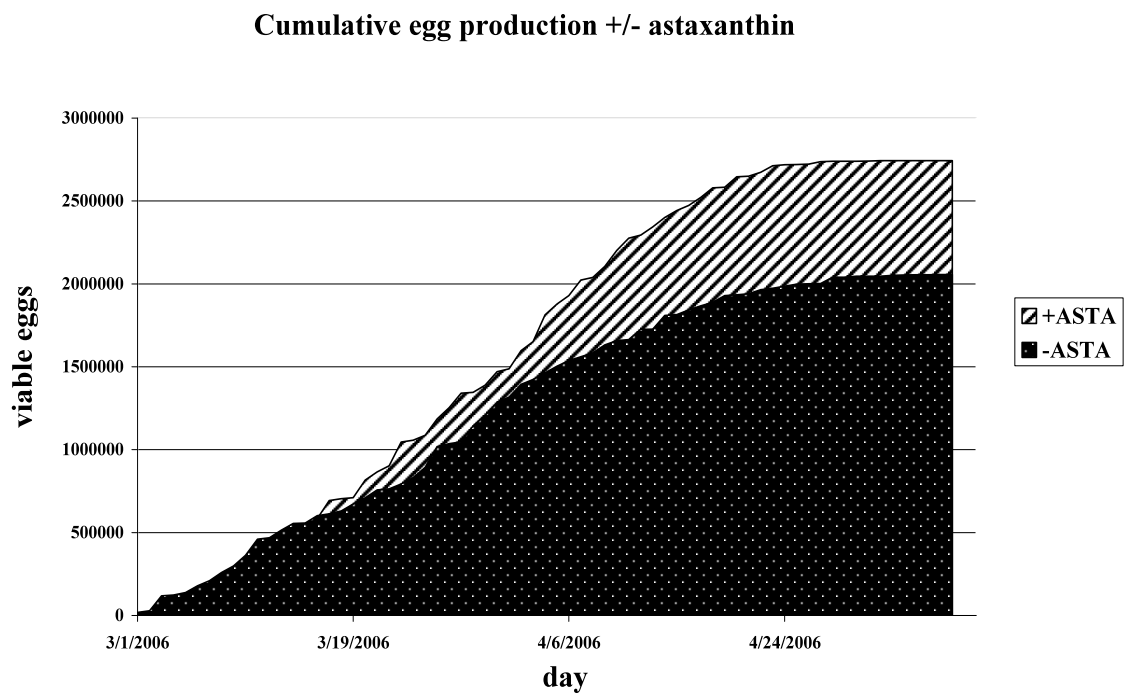
524 Figure 2.



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527 Figure 3.



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