



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Research Commons

<http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/>

Research Commons at the University of Waikato

Copyright Statement:

The digital copy of this thesis is protected by the Copyright Act 1994 (New Zealand).

The thesis may be consulted by you, provided you comply with the provisions of the Act and the following conditions of use:

- Any use you make of these documents or images must be for research or private study purposes only, and you may not make them available to any other person.
- Authors control the copyright of their thesis. You will recognise the author's right to be identified as the author of the thesis, and due acknowledgement will be made to the author where appropriate.
- You will obtain the author's permission before publishing any material from the thesis.

**Fermentation of Vitamin K2 (Menaquinone-7):
Development of an Optimal Fermentation Process to
Selectively Enhance the Production of the Biologically
Significant *All-Trans* Isomer**

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in Engineering

at

The University of Waikato

by

Neha Natasha Lal



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

2023

Abstract

Vitamin K is a lipid-soluble vitamin first discovered in 1929 by the Danish nutritional biochemist Carl Peter Henrick Dam as an antihemorrhagic factor capable of correcting dietary-induced bleeding disorders in chicks. The vitamin K family encompasses a series of structurally related compounds, namely vitamin K1 (phylloquinone), vitamin K2 (menaquinones), and vitamin K3 (menadione), which share a common 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone moiety but differ in the structure of a lateral isoprenoid chain at the 3-position. Despite their structural similarities, all K vitamins have different pharmacokinetic properties attributable to the length and degree of saturation of their isoprenoid side chain.

All vitamin K isoforms are involved in the activation of hepatic and extrahepatic vitamin K-dependent proteins (VKDPs) and play a central role in blood coagulation and hemostasis. Additionally, it has been established that the potential health benefits of vitamin K are far more diverse. In particular, menaquinones (MKs) offer more significant health gains than phylloquinone (PK) and have been associated with the prevention of osteoporosis and cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) and decreasing the risk of and improving the outcomes associated with several illnesses and health conditions, including cancer, neurological diseases, type 2 diabetes mellitus, chronic kidney disease, immune disorders, obesity, and coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19).

Of the various MKs, menaquinone-7 (MK-7) has superior bioavailability due to its long plasma half-life. Thus, it is considered the most notable form of vitamin K2 and has the greatest efficacy with respect to extrahepatic biological functions. However, MK-7 exists at low concentrations in limited foods, especially those with universal appeal. This has incentivised the development of MK-7 dietary supplements and functional food products to complement natural sources and satisfy the daily intake requirements of this essential vitamin.

Recently, it has been recognised that MK-7 exists as geometric isomers, comprising the bioactive all-*trans* isomer and various *cis* forms of the compound, which lack or have considerably compromised biological significance. This is a salient aspect worthy of attention, as the effectiveness of MK-7 nutritional supplements is primarily determined by the content of all-*trans* MK-7, and all other isomers of the vitamin are essentially impurities that lack therapeutic value.

MK-7 can be produced synthetically from chemical reaction methods or naturally from bacterial fermentation. The latest market trend promoting natural and organic alternatives over synthetic products has rendered natural fermentation-based synthesis more favourable from a consumer's perspective. Furthermore, microbial production is a more sustainable approach for the large-scale synthesis of MK-7; hence, natural fermentation techniques can satisfy both the market demand and sustainable development goals.

The MK-7 isomer composition of the final product is influenced by many factors, predominantly the methods used for its production and the purification of the post-reaction mixture, as well as exposure to certain environmental factors and storage conditions. It is important to appreciate that while studies analysing the isomer profile of MK-7 dietary supplement preparations of various origins have been carried out, the isomer composition resulting from fermentation processes has not been elucidated.

In light of the fact that only all-*trans* MK-7 sustains biological activity and fermentation-based synthesis is superior from both the viewpoint of consumers and the environment, the MK-7 isomer profile attained from fermentation warrants further investigation. Therefore, the fundamental aim of this research was to evaluate the MK-7 isomer composition resulting from fermentation processes employing different synthesis conditions to explicate the optimal fermentation method for the production of the biologically significant all-*trans* form of the vitamin. A holistic approach was adopted to systematically follow a typical fermentation process from its foundational stages to the final fermented product while considering the MK-7 isomer profile obtained from fermentation under various conditions and the bioactivity and therapeutic value of fermented MK-7 consumer end products. Accordingly, key aspects of upstream and downstream fermentation were explored, along with nanobiotechnological approaches, to potentially address the major challenges accompanying the fermentation and downstream processing of MK-7. The isomer composition and stability of all-*trans* MK-7 resulting from exposure to possible conditions and environmental factors encountered during the manufacture, transportation, and storage of fermented bioactive MK-7 goods available on the market were also assessed.

The selection of nutrients, particularly carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources, and their respective concentrations in the fermentation media are a central aspect of any fermentation process, as they influence microbial growth and metabolism and, ultimately, the process productivity and product yield. Thus, the first step was to consider the impact of the media composition on MK-7 isomer production and ascertain the optimum media combination to favour the synthesis of all-*trans* MK-7. Several nutrient sources were screened, and the concentration of the effective media components was optimised to obtain the ideal fermentation media, which contained 1% (w/v) glucose, 2% (w/v) yeast extract, 2% (w/v) soy peptone, 2% (w/v) tryptone, and 0.1% (w/v) calcium chloride (CaCl₂). The optimal fermentation media resulted in an all-*trans* isomer concentration of 36.37 mg/L and a *cis* isomer concentration of 1.23 mg/L. It was also established that only a single *cis* isomer is obtained from fermentation under the investigated conditions. Moreover, different concentrations of the *cis* isomer were achieved when the selection and concentration of nutrients constituting the fermentation media were varied, implying that the media composition is instrumental in determining the nature of the extracellular environment in the fermentation broth, and this likely influences the extent to which all-*trans* MK-7 isomerises to the *cis* form.

Various fermentation parameters and operating conditions also play an indispensable part in fermentation processes, as they contribute to the microbial growth environment and, hence, impact product formation and the efficacy of the fermentation system. Consequently, the subsequent focus was to explore the effect of crucial fermentation parameters, specifically the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and length of fermentation, on the MK-7 isomer profile. These factors were optimised to enhance the synthesis of the biologically important all-*trans* isomer and minimise the concentration of *cis* MK-7 while using the previously developed fermentation media. The optimum fermentation conditions consisted of an inoculum size of 2% (v/v), a fermentation temperature of 40 °C, an agitation speed of 200 rpm, and a fermentation period of 7 days and enabled an all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentration of 53.29 mg/L and 1.22 mg/L, respectively. An approximately 46.5% greater all-*trans* MK-7 concentration was attained from fermentation utilising the optimal media, inoculum size, temperature, agitation speed, and duration compared to fermentation with only the optimum media composition, which emphasises the pivotal role of the fermentation environment in regulating the production of the desired isomer.

Although fermentation is the preferred method for MK-7 synthesis, its low yield and large number of downstream processing steps increase production expenses and the cost of the final product. The high price of fermented MK-7 supplements reduces their widespread accessibility. While optimisation of various aspects of the fermentation process, such as the fermentation format, nutrient selection and media composition, and value of key fermentation parameters and operating conditions, serves to enhance the production and yield of MK-7, it offers little opportunity to refine the fermentation system through process intensification. Therefore, there is a need for innovative approaches to not only boost the process yield but also streamline the overall fermentation procedure by decreasing the complexity and number of unit operations involved in the downstream processing of the vitamin. It is also essential to ensure that all-*trans* MK-7 is produced almost exclusively or in the most significant proportion during fermentation. In this regard, bacterial cell immobilisation with biocompatible magnetic iron oxide nanoparticles (IONs) was investigated to assess their influence on the MK-7 isomer profile obtained from fermentation. Three types of IONs, including one uncoated (naked) and two coated (amine-functionalised) IONs, were synthesised using the co-precipitation method and characterised using several techniques, and their effect on microbial growth and the production and yield of MK-7 isomers was considered. Naked IONs were initially examined, and the results were compared with the findings for the 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane (APTES)- and L-lysine (L-Lys)-coated IONs (IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs). The optimum concentration of naked IONs was 300 µg/mL, and it improved the process output and resulted in an all-*trans* MK-7 concentration of 28.78 mg/L and a 1.6-fold greater all-*trans* isomer yield relative to the control. In comparison to the naked IONs, the amine-functionalised IONs had superior properties and provided more positive outcomes. The optimal IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs concentrations were 300 µg/mL and

400 µg/mL, enabling a maximum all-*trans* MK-7 concentration of 41.93 mg/L and 32.08 mg/L, respectively. In addition, the yield of the biologically effective isomer compared to the control increased by 3.1-fold for the IONs@APTES and 2.1-fold for the L-Lys@IONs. Of all three forms of IONs that were explored, it was determined that 300 µg/mL of IONs@APTES was the most beneficial to enhance the all-*trans* isomer concentration and minimise the synthesis of *cis* MK-7. The magnetic nature of IONs also increases the scope for process intensification through magnetic separation technology, which has the potential to improve the productivity of MK-7 fermentation.

It is of interest to note that the greatest all-*trans* MK-7 concentration obtained in the presence of IONs (41.93 mg/L) was less than that achieved in their absence when applying the same fermentation media and operating conditions as previous experiments (53.29 mg/L). This disparity can be attributed to the different fermentation volumes used in the two studies, as even the untreated (control) samples in the experiments involving IONs resulted in considerably lower concentrations of the all-*trans* isomer (less than 15 mg/L). All prior investigations were carried out on a small scale (6 mL), whereas the studies employing IONs required a slightly greater volume (approximately 20 mL) to accommodate the inclusion of IONs in the fermentation medium and the related measurements. It is apparent that even a small increase in the volume and, consequently, the scale of the fermentation process has a noticeable impact on the concentration of the target product. These observations highlight the central role of the fermentation volume in determining the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 attained on a larger scale and present basic knowledge of likely challenges associated with the scale-up of fermentation processes targeting the production of the bioactive isomer.

It has been proposed that exposure to various environmental conditions influences the isomer composition of MK-7 products. Awareness of these factors and their impact on the proportion of MK-7 isomers is vital to preserve the content of the biologically significant all-*trans* isomer and prevent its transformation to *cis* MK-7 during the storage of fermented MK-7 supplements and fortified or functional foods. In this respect, the effect of short-term exposure to common environmental factors and storage conditions, such as light, atmospheric oxygen, and different temperatures, on the MK-7 isomer profile was considered to establish the optimum conditions to conserve the quantity of the all-*trans* isomer during the storage of fermented MK-7 preparations. It was ascertained that the vitamin is reasonably heat-stable but extremely light-sensitive. Long-term storage at a low temperature with minimal oxygen exposure in the absence of light resulted in a negligible change in the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and was, thus, the optimal environment for the prolonged storage of fermented all-*trans* MK-7. These findings provide a deeper understanding of the impact of different environments on the stability of the biologically efficacious isomer and are a valuable step forward in establishing ideal storage conditions to maintain the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 in fermented nutritional supplements.

Overall, this research presents novel insights into the MK-7 isomer profile achieved from fermentation in various contexts, a previously unexplored field, and has laid the foundation for

future studies. Although it is desirable to exclusively produce the bioactive isomer from fermentation, the collective experimental findings have revealed that obtaining small quantities of the *cis* isomer alongside all-*trans* MK-7 is largely unavoidable under the circumstances considered. However, it is possible to maximise the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and minimise the amount of the biologically insignificant isomer, which is a reasonable compromise. Appreciation of the key factors that influence the MK-7 isomer composition resulting from fermentation will allow their manipulation to attain a more favourable MK-7 profile in the final preparation, which can be included in nutraceuticals, dietary supplements, and functional food products or used in purified form. Furthermore, the outcomes of this study have the potential to aid the development of an industrial fermentation process that specifically targets the production of the biologically active and therapeutically valuable all-*trans* MK-7 isomer. The prospect for process intensification through the innovative use of magnetic IONs will likely streamline the production system and decrease the related expenses. This will help reduce the price and increase the accessibility of fermented bioactive MK-7 supplements and fortified or functional foods. Moreover, a greater understanding of the environmental factors and storage conditions that affect the isomer composition of fermented MK-7 preparations is likely to improve the standard of MK-7 nutritional products by preserving the quantity of the all-*trans* isomer. The widespread availability and consumption of high-quality bioactive MK-7 products by a range of consumers are expected to raise the vitamin K status of individuals and decrease the risk and progression of several age-related disorders and diseases of global significance. This holds great promise for reducing the disease burden and alleviating the socioeconomic consequences of an ageing population.

Dedication

This dissertation and all my academic achievements are dedicated with love to Toffee, my forever study buddy. I am eternally grateful for your unconditional love, support, and companionship. You are the key to my success. I hope I have made you proud.

Also, thank you to my parents for always being there for me. I would not have been able to complete this endeavour and accomplish all I have without your everlasting support and encouragement.

Acknowledgements

This journey has been fulfilling but also difficult in many ways. It would have been impossible to complete this research without the support and motivation of my family and friends and everyone that has helped me along the way, no matter how big or small their role.

First and foremost, I would like to convey my most profound appreciation to my chief supervisor Prof Aydin Berenjian for being my mentor and giving me the opportunity to carry out this research. Thank you for introducing me to the world of MK-7 and the many occasions you have given me to learn and grow. You have always pushed me out of my comfort zone and urged me to dig deeper and realise my potential. I am sincerely grateful for your continued guidance, support, and encouragement, which have helped me overcome the many obstacles I have encountered along the way.

I wish to express my gratitude to my secondary supervisor Dr Mostafa Seifan for his valuable advice and guidance throughout this study; his everlasting patience and willingness to give up his time so generously have been much appreciated. Thank you for being the first person to show me around the EG.01 lab and introduce me to the various laboratory equipment and procedures when I was an undergraduate student. Your wealth of knowledge and support has significantly aided the completion of this project.

Thank you to Assoc Prof James Carson for joining my supervisory panel and facilitating the submission and examination of my thesis. Your support has been greatly appreciated.

I am grateful to Dr Donya Novin for teaching me essential laboratory skills and analysis techniques during my undergraduate years. The knowledge and skills I have gained from you have been fundamental in helping me accomplish this research.

I would also like to acknowledge the financial assistance provided by The University of Waikato Doctoral Scholarship, and I kindly appreciate the help and support of all staff members and lab technicians at The University of Waikato. In particular, thank you to Dr Mark Lay for being my first point of contact in the lab for almost everything; Dr Lisa Li for helping me with orders and equipment-related queries; Dr Grant Smolenski from MS3 Solutions Ltd for conducting the LC-MS analysis of my samples; Assoc Prof Michele Prinsep for guidance in interpreting my LC-MS data; Jenny Stockdill for helping me with the preparation of my cell fixation solution and giving me access to the chemistry lab and its facilities; Helen Turner and Dr Stella Raynova for assisting me with the SEM analysis of my samples; the team at the Science Store for aiding me with my purchases; Melanie Chivers from the Library for helping me with copyright permissions; and Dr Nicole Pepperell and the eTuts team at Te Puna Ako - Centre for Tertiary Teaching and Learning for guidance on collating my thesis into a cohesive document. Also, thank you to Mary Dalbeth and Natalie Shaw from the School of Engineering for administrative support.

I will be forever grateful to my parents for their endless love and the role they have played in my life and in making me the person I am today. You believed in me at times when I did not, and you never failed to see my potential. Thank you for your unwavering support and encouragement and for giving me the courage to dream and the strength to persevere and achieve my goals. I love you both!

Last but not least, thank you to Toffee for always being there for me at every step of my educational journey. Words can never express what you mean to me. You are my inspiration and have taught me to never give up in the face of adversity. Your fighting spirit has helped me see this through to the end and get over the finish line. I will always be grateful to you for your unconditional love and the happiness that you have given me. You have shared all my achievements and have been with me in all significant moments of my life. Even though you are not here today, I know you will always watch over me and be with me wherever life takes me. My love for you is everlasting, and I will treasure your friendship forever.

Table of Contents

Abstract	i
Dedication	vi
Acknowledgements	vii
Table of Contents	ix
List of Figures	xiv
List of Tables	xv
List of Abbreviations	xvi
Chapter 1 - Introduction	2
1.1 Background information	2
1.2 Research objectives	3
1.3 Thesis overview	4
Chapter 2 – Literature Review	8
2.1 Vitamin K	8
2.2 Health benefits of vitamin K	9
2.3 Dietary sources and intake of vitamin K	14
2.4 MK-7-enriched fortified or functional food products and dietary supplements	20
2.5 The current knowledge and understanding of MK-7 isomers	24
2.6 Biological activity of MK-7 isomers	26
2.7 Safety and toxicity of MK-7 isomers	27
2.8 Methods of MK-7 synthesis and the production of <i>cis</i> and <i>trans</i> isomers	28
2.8.1 Microbial fermentation	28
2.8.2 Chemical synthesis	30
2.8.3 Chemical transformations and isomerisation	31
2.9 Issues associated with MK-7 production	31
2.10 Nanomaterials (NMs)	32

2.10.1	Types of NPs	33
2.10.1.1	Organic NPs (ONPs)	33
2.10.1.2	Inorganic NPs (INPs)	33
2.10.2	The potential of NPs to address the challenges of MK-7 production	34
2.10.2.1	Bacterial cell immobilisation and the use of IONs to facilitate MK-7 production.....	35
2.10.2.1.1	Bacterial cell immobilisation.....	35
2.10.2.1.1.1	IONs and magnetic cell immobilisation	35
2.10.2.1.1.2	Bacterial responses to magnetic cell immobilisation	35
2.10.2.1.2	The use of IONs to facilitate MK-7 production	37
2.10.2.2	Food grade NPs and the development of MK-7-enriched functional food products	40
2.10.3	NPs and the production of MK-7 isomers.....	41
2.11	Analysis and measurement of MK-7 isomers.....	41
2.11.1	Chromatographic separation.....	48
2.11.1.1	Column	48
2.11.1.2	Detection methods.....	48
2.11.2	Identification and quantification using mass spectrometry (MS)	50
2.11.3	Structure determination of MK-7 isomers.....	51
2.11.4	Potential challenges associated with the analysis of MK-7 isomers.....	51
2.12	References	54
Chapter 3 – Materials and Methods		78
3.1	Chemicals and materials.....	78
3.2	Experimental methods	78
3.2.1	Microorganism and inoculum preparation	78
3.2.2	NP synthesis and characterisation	79
3.2.2.1	Synthesis of naked and surface-functionalised IONs.....	79
3.2.2.1.1	Naked IONs.....	79
3.2.2.1.2	IONS@APTES.....	80

3.2.2.1.3	L-Lys@IONS.....	80
3.2.2.2	Characterisation of the synthesised NPs.....	81
3.2.2.2.1	Transmission electron microscopy (TEM).....	81
3.2.2.2.2	Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy.....	81
3.2.2.2.3	X-ray powder diffraction (XRD).....	81
3.2.2.2.4	Scanning electron microscopy (SEM).....	81
3.2.2.2.4.1	Cell fixation and sample preparation for SEM.....	82
3.2.3	Experimental design and statistical analysis	82
3.2.3.1	Preliminary experiments.....	82
3.2.3.1.1	Experiment 1	83
3.2.3.1.2	Experiment 2	83
3.2.3.1.3	Experiment 3	84
3.2.3.1.4	Experiment 4	84
3.2.3.1.5	Experiment 5	86
3.2.3.2	Optimisation of the fermentation media and key fermentation parameters.....	88
3.2.3.2.1	Fermentation media	89
3.2.3.2.1.1	Screening study	89
3.2.3.2.1.2	Optimisation study.....	92
3.2.3.2.1.3	Validation and monitoring study	93
3.2.3.2.2	Key fermentation parameters.....	93
3.2.3.3	NP experiments	94
3.2.3.4	Environmental factors and storage conditions study.....	95
3.2.4	Fermentation process.....	97
3.2.4.1	Screening and optimisation experiments.....	97
3.2.4.2	NP studies.....	97
3.2.4.3	Storage investigations.....	98
3.2.5	MK-7 extraction	98
3.2.6	Analytical methods.....	99
3.2.6.1	HPLC	99

3.2.6.2	LC-MS	100
3.2.6.3	Cell density and pH measurements	100
3.3	References	102
Chapter 4	– Optimisation of the Fermentation Media to Enhance the Production of the Bioactive Isomer of Vitamin Menaquinone-7.....	105
Chapter 5	– The Impact of Key Fermentation Parameters on the Production of the All- <i>Trans</i> Isomer of Menaquinone-7.....	127
Chapter 6	– The Effect of Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menquinone-7 Isomer Composition and Synthesis of the Biologically Significant All- <i>Trans</i> Isomer	141
Chapter 7	– The Impact of Amine-Functionalised Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menquinone-7 Isomer Profile and Production of the Bioactive Isomer.....	163
Chapter 8	– Fermentation of Menquinone-7: The Influence of Environmental Factors and Storage Conditions on the Isomer Profile	183
Chapter 9	– Conclusions and Recommendations.....	201
9.1	Overview	201
9.2	Key findings	201
9.3	Prospects for future research	204
9.3.1	Microbial strain	204
9.3.2	Process scale.....	204
9.3.2.1	Potential issues associated with increasing the scale of fermentation.....	204
9.3.2.2	Scale-up fermentation studies.....	205
9.3.2.3	Fermentation strategies to enhance all- <i>trans</i> MK-7 production on a larger scale	206
9.3.2.3.1	Fed-batch nutrient addition.....	206
9.3.2.3.1.1	Glucose	207
9.3.2.3.1.2	Glycerol	207
9.3.2.3.2	Foam reduction.....	207
9.3.2.3.2.1	Antifoaming agents	208
9.3.2.3.2.2	Alternative methods for foam control and medium reformulation	209

9.3.3	Development of fermented all- <i>trans</i> MK-7-enriched foods.....	210
9.3.3.1	Possible matrices for fortified or functional foods	211
9.3.3.2	The use of NPs to increase all- <i>trans</i> MK-7 production for fermented functional foods	212
9.3.3.3	Shelf life studies of fermented all- <i>trans</i> MK-7 after formulation into various consumer products	213
9.3.4	Concluding remarks	214
9.4	References	216
	Appendix A – Preliminary Results	219
	Appendix B – LC-MS Data	232
	Appendix C – Co-Authorship Forms	234

List of Figures

Figure 2-1 The different types of vitamin K and their chemical structure	8
Figure 2-2 The various roles and functions of vitamin K2 in the body	9
Figure 2-3 Vitamin K cycle	10
Figure 2-4 The chemical structure of <i>cis</i> and <i>trans</i> MK-7 isomers	27
Figure 2-5 Top-down and bottom-up methods typically used to produce ONPs	33
Figure 2-6 Physical, chemical, and biological approaches commonly employed to synthesise INPs.....	34
Figure 2-7 Potential metabolic responses of bacterial cells to immobilisation with IONs.....	37
Figure 3-1 Schematic representation of the steps involved in the synthesis of naked IONs using the co-precipitation method	80
Figure 3-2 Schematic illustration of the APTES functionalisation of naked IONs.....	80
Figure 3-3 Schematic description of the synthesis of L-Lys-functionalised IONs.....	81
Figure 3-4 Experimental workflow.....	97
Figure 3-5 Bacterial cell immobilisation with a) naked IONs, b) IONs@APTES, and c) L-Lys@IONs.....	98
Figure 3-6 MK-7 calibration curve	99

List of Tables

Table 2-1 The vitamin K composition of assorted foods.....	15
Table 2-2 Different producers of vitamin K2 dietary supplements and their product details	24
Table 2-3 Summary of the analytical methods employed in various vitamin analysis studies	43
Table 3-1 Media compositions used for the preliminary studies.....	83
Table 3-2 Media compositions employed for trial experiment 4.....	85
Table 3-3 Basic DOE plan to determine a suitable range of nutrient concentrations for the screening and optimisation studies.....	87
Table 3-4 DOE plan for the screening of various carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources.....	91
Table 3-5 DOE plan to optimise the concentration of significant nutrients	92
Table 3-6 DOE plan for the optimisation of key fermentation parameters	93
Table 3-7 Sample composition for each NP concentration.....	95
Table 3-8 Environmental and storage conditions for the short-term exposure study	96

List of Abbreviations

AI	Adequate intake
ALP	Alkaline phosphatase
Al	Aluminium
APTES	3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane
NH ₄ OH	Ammonium hydroxide
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
IONs@APTES	APTES-coated IONs
APCI	Atmospheric pressure chemical ionisation
BaCO ₃	Barium carbonate
BMD	Bone mineral density
BMP-2	Bone morphogenic protein 2
BMP-4	Bone morphogenic protein 4
BF ₃ O(C ₂ H ₅) ₂	Boron trifluoride etherate
Ca	Calcium
CaCO ₃	Calcium carbonate
CaCl ₂	Calcium chloride
Ca ₃ (C ₆ H ₅ O ₇) ₂	Calcium citrate
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide
Gla	γ-carboxyglutamic acid
dp-cMGP	Carboxylated, dephosphorylated MGP
cOC	Carboxylated OC
p-cMGP	Carboxylated, phosphorylated MGP
CVDs	Cardiovascular diseases
CCF	Central composite face-centred
CAD	Charged aerosol detector
CoQ ₁₀	Coenzyme Q ₁₀
CFU/mL	Colony forming units/mL
CI	Confidence interval
CuCO ₃	Copper carbonate
CuO	Copper oxide
COVID-19	Coronavirus disease 2019
DFT	Density functional theory
DOE	Design of experiments
DAD	Diode array detector
K ₂ HPO ₄	Dipotassium hydrogen phosphate
EC	Electrochemical

ESI	Electrospray ionisation
ER	Endoplasmic reticulum
ECM	Extracellular matrix
EPS	Extracellular polymeric substances
Fe ³⁺	Ferric ions
FePO ₄	Ferric pyrophosphate
Fe ²⁺	Ferrous ions
FL	Fluorescence
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
FA	Formaldehyde
FTIR	Fourier-transform infrared
GRAS	Generally recognised as safe
GMOs	Genetically modified organisms
GRP	Gla-rich protein
Glu	Glutamic acid
GGCX	γ-glutamyl carboxylase
GA	Glutaraldehyde
α-FeOOH	Goethite
Au	Gold
GAS6	Growth arrest-specific protein 6
α-Fe ₂ O ₃	Hematite
HPLC	High-performance liquid chromatography
INPs	Inorganic NPs
FeCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O	Iron (III) chloride hexahydrate
Fe ₂ O ₃	Iron oxide
IONs	Iron oxide nanoparticles
FeOOH	Iron oxyhydroxide
FeSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	Iron (II) sulphate heptahydrate
L-Arg	L-arginine
LC	Liquid chromatography
LSF	Liquid-state fermentation
L-Lys@IONs	L-Lys-coated IONs
L-Lys	L-lysine
LDL	Low-density lipoproteins
γ-Fe ₂ O ₃	Maghemite
Mg	Magnesium
MgO	Magnesium oxide
Fe ₃ O ₄	Magnetite

MS	Mass spectrometry
MGP	Matrix Gla protein
MK-4	Menaquinone-4
MK-6	Menaquinone-6
MK-7	Menaquinone-7
MK-8	Menaquinone-8
MK-10	Menaquinone-10
MK-11	Menaquinone-11
MKs	Menaquinones
MM	Molecular mass
MLR	Multiple linear regression
NCs	Nanoclays
NEs	Nanoemulsions
NMs	Nanomaterials
NPs	Nanoparticles
N ₂	Nitrogen
NF-κB	Nuclear factor-kappa B
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance
OD	Optical density
ONPs	Organic NPs
OsO ₄	Osmium tetroxide
OC	Osteocalcin
Osc	Osterix
O ₂	Oxygen
PLF	Periostin-like factor
p-ucMGP	Phosphorylated, uncarboxylated MGP
PK	Phylloquinone
PBD	Placket Burman design
PCS	Plastic composite support
Pt	Platinum
PUFAs	Polyunsaturated fatty acids
KBr	Potassium bromide
PXR	Pregnane X receptor
PRGPs	Proline-rich Gla proteins
QTOF	Quadrupole time-of-flight
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
RANKL	Receptor activator of nuclear factor-kappa B ligand
RDA	Recommended dietary allowance

RDI	Recommended dietary intake
RRT	Relative retention time
RSM	Response surface methodology
SEM	Scanning electron microscopy
SARS-CoV-2	Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2
SiO ₂	Silica
Si	Silicon
Ag	Silver
Ag ₂ O	Silver oxide
C ₂ H ₆ AsNaO ₂	Sodium cacodylate
NaCl	Sodium chloride
NaOH	Sodium hydroxide
SSF	Solid-state fermentation
SD	Standard deviation
SE	Standard error
SXR	Steroid and xenobiotic receptor
MS/MS	Tandem MS
2θ	2-theta
TiO ₂	Titanium dioxide
TMGPs	Transmembrane Gla proteins
TEM	Transmission electron microscopy
TNF-α	Tumour necrosis factor-alpha
UHPLC-DAD-CAD-QTOF	Ultra-HPLC-DAD-CAD-QTOF
UV	Ultraviolet
dp-ucMGP	Uncarboxylated, dephosphorylated MGP
ucMGP	Uncarboxylated MGP
ucOC	Undercarboxylated OC
UrAc	Uranyl acetate
VSMCs	Vascular smooth muscle cells
VKDPs	Vitamin K-dependent proteins
KO	Vitamin K epoxide
VKOR	Vitamin K epoxide reductase
K	Vitamin K hydroquinone
<i>k_La</i>	Volumetric mass transfer coefficient
FeO	Wustite
XG	Xanthan gum
XRD	X-ray powder diffraction
Zn	Zinc

ZnO

Zinc oxide

1

Introduction

Chapter 1 - Introduction

1.1 Background information

Several studies have demonstrated the superior health benefits of MK-7 compared to the other K vitamers due to its high bioavailability. Consequently, there has been a strong drive to improve the dietary intake of MK-7 through the development of nutritional supplements and functional food products. Although MK-7 can be produced from chemical reaction schemes, which tend to be more cost-effective, natural fermentation-based synthesis is preferable from a consumer's point of view, largely owing to the recent market trend favouring natural and organic alternatives over synthetic preparations. Additionally, microbial synthesis methods are more sustainable for the large-scale production of MK-7, and natural fermentation techniques can fulfil both the market demand and environmental sustainability goals.

It has recently been acknowledged that MK-7, like most biological molecules, occurs as geometric isomers. Only the all-*trans* (all-*E*) configuration is the active form of the vitamin, and the *cis* isomers have relatively little or no biological significance, which is an important consideration from a health, nutritional, and therapeutic outlook. Significant attention has been dedicated to enhancing the MK-7 concentration and yield obtained from fermentation processes and reducing the production cost of the vitamin to make it more affordable and accessible for consumers, and comparatively less recognition has been given to assessing the proportion of the biologically active isomer in preparations.

The identification and quantification of MK-7 isomers is a fairly recent and emerging area of interest. Hence, limited research has been conducted in this field, and a great deal is yet to be explored. Most studies focusing on MK-7 isomers have only evaluated the isomer composition of dietary supplements, and the isomer profile obtained from fermentation methods remains to be elucidated. Furthermore, the number and type of different *cis* isomers that are potentially attainable is uncertain, as very few studies have considered this aspect. The isomer composition in the final product is influenced by numerous factors, including the techniques used for its production and purification and exposure to certain environmental factors and storage conditions, which have also not been investigated. The MK-7 profile obtained from the various production methods has not yet been ascertained, and the ideal approach for synthesising the all-*trans* form of the vitamin is also debatable.

In view of the differing biological efficacy of MK-7 isomers and the advantages of microbial fermentation for MK-7 production over chemical procedures, with respect to its ability to satisfy the desire of consumers and support sustainable development initiatives, the isomer composition resulting from fermentation processes deserves greater consideration. To date, this subject has received little attention, and there is a significant gap in the literature regarding the impact of fermentation methods on the production of MK-7 isomers. Acquiring a deeper and more

comprehensive understanding in this area will advance the current knowledge of the production of MK-7 isomers from fermentation, and it will also provide valuable insight for the development of effective fermented MK-7-enriched functional food products and dietary supplements that predominantly contain the biologically active and therapeutically significant all-*trans* isomer. The extensive availability and uptake of such products by a range of consumers are expected to improve the vitamin K status of individuals and reduce the progression and burden of CVDs, osteoporosis, age-related disorders, and other diseases of global relevance. This has the potential to ease the socioeconomic effects of demographic ageing and decrease the negative consequences of prevalent health problems worldwide.

1.2 Research objectives

The fundamental objective of this research was to evaluate the MK-7 isomer profile of fermented samples obtained from different synthesis conditions to elucidate the ideal fermentation method to enhance the production of the biologically active all-*trans* isomer. This study sought to methodically investigate key facets of a standard fermentation process from its foundational steps to the final consumer product to develop a fermentation process that selectively targets the production and preserves the quantity of all-*trans* MK-7 while minimising the concentration of the biologically inefficacious *cis* isomer. Essential aspects of upstream fermentation were first explored before focusing on the isomer composition and synthesis of bioactive MK-7 in a broader fermentation context to overcome the inherent challenges of MK-7 fermentation and the downstream processing of the vitamin using nanobiotechnological strategies. Factors that have the ability to influence the isomer profile of fermented MK-7 preparations during production, transportation, storage, and consumption were also assessed to ascertain the optimal conditions to maintain the concentration of the biologically effectual isomer in fermented MK-7 consumer end products.

The specific aims of this research encompassed the following:

1. Upstream fermentation – Investigate the effect of the media composition on the isomer profile obtained from fermentation and determine the optimum media combination.
 - Screen a diverse range of carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources and optimise the concentration of the significant nutrients to enhance the production of the all-*trans* isomer and decrease the concentration of *cis* MK-7.
2. Upstream fermentation – Assess the impact of important fermentation parameters on the isomer composition.
 - Optimise the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and length of fermentation and establish the optimum conditions to increase the synthesis of bioactive MK-7 and minimise the production of the *cis* isomer.

3. Approaches to address fundamental challenges relating to the fermentation and downstream processing of MK-7 – Determine the effect of bacterial cell immobilisation with magnetic IONs on microbial growth and the production and yield of MK-7 isomers.
 - Synthesise and characterise naked and amino acid-coated IONs and evaluate their impact on cell growth and ability to increase the concentration and yield of all-*trans* MK-7 and diminish the production of the *cis* isomer.
4. Finished fermented MK-7 consumer end products – Consider the influence of environmental factors and storage conditions on the isomer composition of fermented MK-7.
 - Explore the short- and long-term effects of exposure to light, atmospheric oxygen, and different temperatures on the isomer profile to assess the stability and preserve the quantity of all-*trans* MK-7 in the final preparation obtained from fermentation.

1.3 Thesis overview

This thesis is a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) with publication submitted in fulfilment of the requirements set out at The University of Waikato. The thesis comprises nine chapters, and the key objectives of this study are addressed in five research chapters (Chapters 4–8), which have been prepared as independent articles for submission to peer-reviewed journals. Consequently, these papers inherently contain repetitive elements, especially in the introductory and methodological sections. The journal publications are preceded by a short overview of the contribution of each paper to the entire thesis, and the relevant findings of each chapter are applied to subsequent chapters to link the various aspects of this study and enable a complete analysis. The overall thesis consists of an introduction, a literature review, a comprehensive materials and methods section, five peer-reviewed journal articles, and a concluding discussion emphasising the important findings and significance of this research and recommendations for future investigation.

Chapter 1 provides a general introduction to the topics considered and discussed in this thesis and an overview of the research problem and objectives.

Chapter 2 presents a critical review of the literature pertaining to this study. The properties, health benefits, dietary sources, and intake of vitamin K, specifically MK-7, are discussed, along with MK-7-enriched functional food products and dietary supplements. Additionally, the current knowledge and understanding of MK-7 isomers and their biological activity, safety, and toxicity are evaluated. Furthermore, the methods of MK-7 synthesis and the production of *cis* and *trans* isomers are reviewed. The issues associated with MK-7 fermentation and the ability of nanoparticles (NPs) to potentially address these production challenges are also

examined. Finally, methods for analysing and measuring MK-7 isomers are presented, and the possible difficulties likely to be encountered during the analysis of MK-7 isomers are considered.

Chapter 3 details the materials, equipment, methodology, and experimental procedures employed throughout this research.

Chapter 4 considers the effect of various media components on MK-7 isomer production. The media composition plays a crucial role in microbial growth and metabolism, which ultimately influences the efficiency of the fermentation process and the product concentration and yield. Therefore, the selection of carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources and their concentrations in the fermentation media must be tailored to suit the growth and metabolic requirements of the microorganism of interest. Accordingly, different carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources were initially screened to identify the nutrients that have a significant impact on MK-7 isomer production. The key media components were further analysed in an optimisation study to develop the ideal fermentation media to maximise the production of the bioactive isomer and minimise the concentration of *cis* MK-7. A monitoring investigation was then conducted to examine the variation in bacterial growth, MK-7 isomer production, and pH over a time-course fermentation study employing the optimal media. This chapter is written in the form of a journal article, which has been published in *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering*. The article is open access, and permission has been granted to reproduce this work and include a PDF version of the published paper in this thesis under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY).

Chapter 5 evaluates the influence of important fermentation parameters on the MK-7 isomer profile. Since each microorganism has specific growth and metabolic demands, selecting the appropriate fermentation conditions to promote microbial growth and product formation is essential. Consequently, an optimisation study was carried out to determine the ideal inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and fermentation period to enhance the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 and decrease the production of the *cis* isomer. This chapter is written in the form of a journal article, which has been published in *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology*. Permission has been granted by the publisher (Elsevier) to reproduce this work and include a PDF version of the published paper in this thesis.

Chapter 6 investigates the impact of bacterial cell immobilisation with magnetic IONs on bacterial growth and the MK-7 isomer composition and yield obtained from fermentation. Although the fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7 is preferable to other methods of production, it entails several challenges, primarily the low fermentation yield and large number of tedious unit operations involved in the complex downstream processing of the vitamin. Both factors increase production costs and result in an expensive final product that is not widely accessible to all consumer groups. Nanobiotechnological approaches have the potential to overcome these obstacles by improving the production and yield of MK-7 and providing an opportunity to streamline the fermentation system through process intensification. In this respect, naked (uncoated) IONs were synthesised via the co-precipitation method and characterised using several

techniques. Subsequently, the effect of bacterial cell immobilisation on cell growth and the yield of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 was evaluated. The ability of IONs to promote the production of the bioactive isomer and reduce the formation of the ineffectual isomer was assessed, and the optimal naked ION concentration was investigated in a time-course fermentation study to explore its influence on the microbial growth curve, MK-7 isomer concentrations, and medium pH. This chapter is written in the form of a journal article, which has been published in *Nanomaterials*. The article is open access, and permission has been granted to reproduce this work and include a PDF version of the published paper in this thesis under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY).

Chapter 7 builds on the previous chapter and examines two biocompatible IONs functionalised with amino acid coatings (IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs), which have superior properties to naked IONs and promote more favourable interactions with microbial cells. IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs were synthesised and characterised, and the impact of bacterial cell immobilisation with each type of amine-functionalised ION on microbial growth and the production and yield of MK-7 isomers was evaluated. The ideal amino acid-coated ION and its optimum concentration, concerning the investigated parameters, were determined. The optimal amine-functionalised ION concentration was further analysed in a monitoring study to examine its effect on the cell growth, MK-7 isomer, and pH profiles. This chapter is written in the form of a journal article, which has been published in *Molecular Biotechnology*. The article is open access, and permission has been granted to reproduce this work and include a PDF version of the published paper in this thesis under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY).

Chapter 8 explores the influence of different environmental factors and storage conditions on the MK-7 isomer composition and stability of the all-*trans* isomer. It has been recognised that exposure to light, atmospheric oxygen, and elevated temperatures can alter the quality of vitamin preparations. Thus, the effect of these factors on the concentration of MK-7 isomers and stability of all-*trans* MK-7 was investigated with the aim of preserving the quantity of the biologically significant isomer from the perspective of fermented MK-7 end products available to consumers. This chapter is written in the form of a journal article, which has been published in *Processes*. The article is open access, and permission has been granted to reproduce this work and include a PDF version of the published paper in this thesis under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY).

Chapter 9 summarises the conclusions drawn from this study and recommends possible directions for further research.

The co-authorship forms outlining the contribution of all authors to the publications comprising this thesis are provided in Appendix C.

2

Literature Review

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

2.1 Vitamin K

Vitamin K was first discovered in 1929 by the Danish nutritional biochemist Carl Peter Henrik Dam [1, 2]. During his research on cholesterol metabolism at the Biochemical Institute of the University of Copenhagen, he discovered an antihemorrhagic factor capable of correcting dietary-induced bleeding disorders in chicks [1-5]. This fat-soluble vitamin, distinct from vitamins A, D, and E, was termed vitamin K based on the word “Koagulation” from the German and Scandinavian languages [6]. Following its discovery, the American biochemist Edward Albert Doisy successfully isolated vitamin K and elucidated its 2-methyl-3-phytyl-1,4-naphthoquinone chemical structure in the late 1930s [1, 7, 8]. In 1943, both Dam and Doisy were awarded the Nobel Prize for Physiology or Medicine for their valuable contribution to the discovery and determination of the chemical structure of vitamin K [1, 2].

Vitamin K collectively refers to a group of lipid-soluble compounds that contain a 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone moiety (menadione) but differ in the structure of a lateral isoprenoid chain at the 3-position (Figure 2-1) [9]. Vitamin K1 or PK and vitamin K2 or MKs are naturally occurring K vitamins, whereas vitamin K3 or menadione is a synthetic form of vitamin K and is often regarded as a pro-vitamin [10, 11]. All differences in the properties of the various isoforms of vitamin K are attributable to the length and degree of saturation of the isoprenoid side chain [12-14]. PK is a single compound with a side chain comprising four isoprenoid residues, three of which are saturated [12]. Conversely, MKs have side chains of varying length and degree of unsaturation, and this can be represented by the general form MK- n , where n denotes the number of unsaturated isoprenoid units in a chain, which is usually between four and thirteen [12, 15, 16]. Thus, the most commonly occurring MKs have four to thirteen unsaturated isoprenoid units. Unlike PK and MKs, menadione does not contain an isoprenoid side chain.

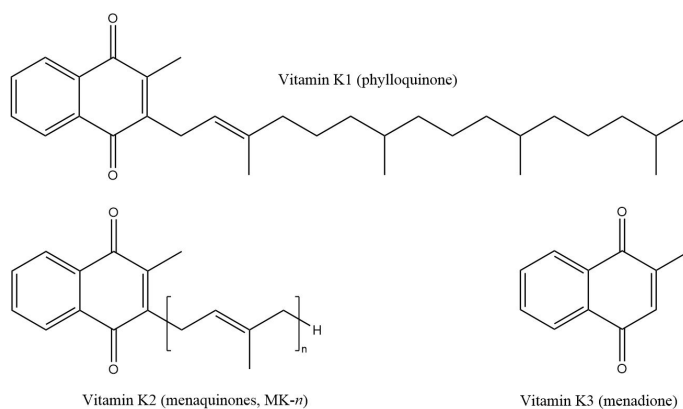


Figure 2-1 The different types of vitamin K and their chemical structure (adapted from Szterk et al. [17])

PK is present in photosynthetic plants and algae and is ubiquitous within the chloroplasts, where it serves as an electron carrier in photosystem I [18-20]. In contrast, MKs are predominantly of microbial origin and are produced by both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, such as *Bacillus subtilis* and *Escherichia coli*, to function as electron acceptors in the respiratory chain [12, 20, 21]. It has been suggested that besides microbial fermentation, menaquinone-4 (MK-4) can also be synthesised in humans and animals from the tissue-specific conversion of PK and/or menadione [2, 11, 22, 23]. Menadione is commonly incorporated in animal feed as a source of vitamin K; however, it is unsuitable for human consumption, as it generates harmful reactive oxygen species (ROS) [10, 11]. Consequently, PK and MKs constitute the major classes of vitamin K that play an essential role in human health and nutrition.

2.2 Health benefits of vitamin K

Vitamin K is primarily involved in blood coagulation and haemostasis. However, numerous studies have demonstrated that the possible health benefits of vitamin K extend well beyond the activation of hepatic coagulation factors. In particular, vitamin K intake has been associated with an improvement in bone and cardiovascular health. Additionally, recent investigations have established other potential functions and health benefits of vitamin K, specifically vitamin K2. These are illustrated in Figure 2-2 and include the prevention of cancer by inducing cell cycle arrest to inhibit cell proliferation; the suppression of Parkinson's disease through electron transfer to recover mitochondrial dysfunction; assisting the functional recovery of the liver; and decreasing the risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus, chronic kidney disease, immune disorders, neurological diseases, and obesity [20, 24-36].

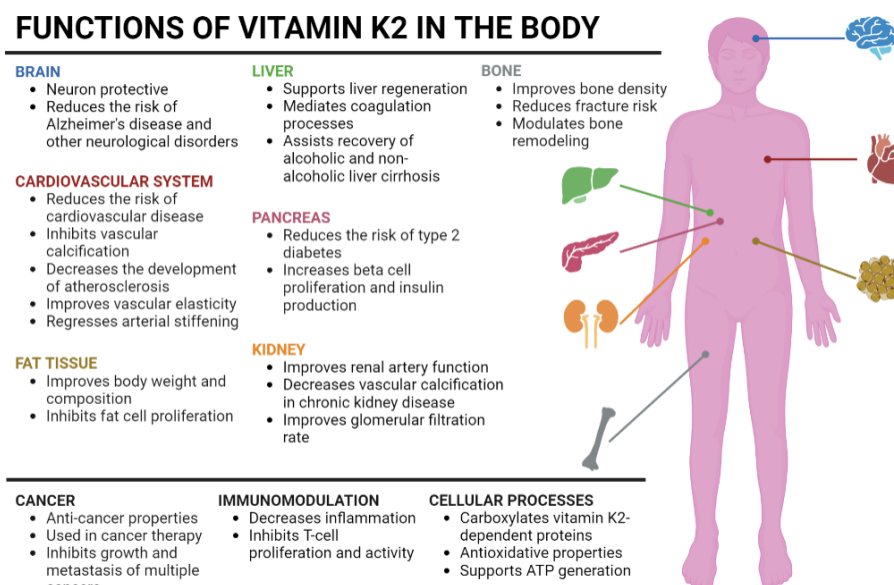


Figure 2-2 The various roles and functions of vitamin K2 in the body (adapted from Halder et al. [28])

PK and all forms of MKs play a fundamental role in the activation of both hepatic and extrahepatic VKDPs [37]. As illustrated in Figure 2-3, vitamin K acts as a cofactor for the enzyme

γ -glutamyl carboxylase (GGCX), which participates in the post-translational modification of VKDPs, catalysing the conversion of protein-bound glutamic acid (Glu) residues to γ -carboxyglutamic acid (Gla) through the addition of carbon dioxide (CO_2) [15, 17, 38-42]. During this process, vitamin K hydroquinone (K), the active form of the vitamin, is converted to vitamin K epoxide (KO). KO is subsequently reduced to K in a two-step reaction catalysed by the enzymes vitamin K epoxide reductase (VKOR) and quinone reductase [1]. Therefore, the γ -carboxylation process is a cyclical transformation, where the oxidised and reduced forms of vitamin K act as the driving factors for the reactions [1, 28]. The vitamin K cycle occurs in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and exerts its function at the cell surface or in the extracellular matrix (ECM) of specific tissues [43].

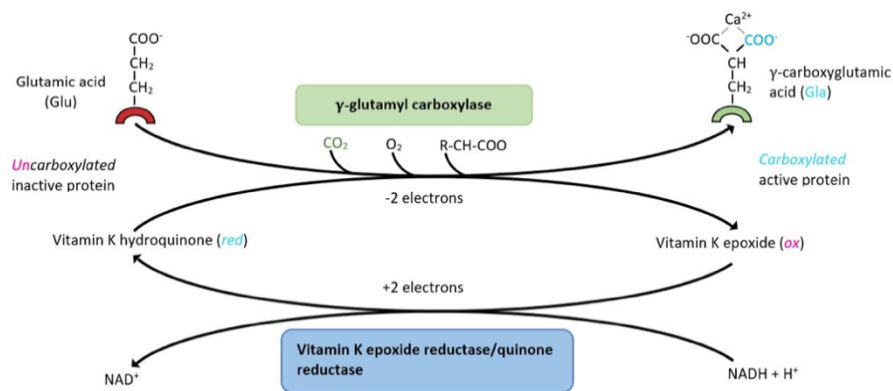


Figure 2-3 Vitamin K cycle (adapted from Gröber et al. [1])

Currently, seventeen VKDPs have been elucidated, and these can be grouped into different categories depending on the biological processes in which they are involved [12, 44-46]. The Gla protein family includes (i) seven proteins pertaining to the coagulative cascade, which are all synthesised in the liver: prothrombin, factor VII, factor IX, factor X, protein C, protein S, and protein Z; (ii) four proteins related to the regulation of bone and vascular mineralisation: osteocalcin (OC; present in bone), matrix Gla protein (MGP; mostly occurs in cartilage and vessel walls), growth arrest-specific protein 6 (GAS6), and Gla-rich protein (GRP); and (iii) two proline-rich Gla proteins (PRGPs), two transmembrane Gla proteins (TMGPs), periostin, and periostin-like factor (PLF) [12, 44, 45]. The presence of Gla residues on proteins increases their affinity for calcium (Ca) ions and facilitates Ca binding, which determines their biological activity [5, 17, 47, 48]. The Gla family of proteins participate in important metabolic processes, including the blood coagulation pathway, preventing arterial and vascular calcification, and increasing bone mineralisation, which are the prominent health benefits associated with the sufficient intake of vitamin K [15, 17, 37, 38, 49].

Structural diversities between the distinct classes of vitamin K significantly influence their metabolism. The various forms of the vitamin, especially PK and MKs, have different cofactor activities and function differently in processes such as absorption, transport, cellular uptake, tissue distribution, bioavailability, and turnover as a result of the differences in the

structure and length of their isoprenoid side chain [5, 41]. Such dissimilarities arise due to the different lipophilicities of the various side chains and the diverse food matrices in which they occur [5]. The differences in the pharmacokinetics between the many types of vitamin K also result in contrasting plasma half-life times, which impact their ability to activate VKDPs and perform extrahepatic functions [12, 50]. It has been demonstrated that with respect to extrahepatic biological functions, MKs, mainly long-chain MKs, are a more active form of vitamin K (relative to PK) owing to their longer half-life in the blood [15, 17].

Of the several K vitamers, PK, MK-4, and MK-7 are the most common in food supplements [50]. The structures of PK and MK-4 are comparable, as they both contain four isoprenoid residues (three of which are saturated in PK but contain a double bond in MK-4); hence, they display like physicochemical properties and have a similar plasma half-life of 1-2 hours [50-53]. Conversely, MK-7 is unique, as it is comparatively more hydrophobic and has greater extrahepatic availability, resulting in a significantly longer half-time of 72 hours [52-54]. Following intestinal absorption, all K vitamins are taken up in the triglyceride fraction, after which they are rapidly cleared by the liver; however, only higher MKs, including MK-7, are incorporated into low-density lipoproteins (LDL) [50]. This allows for the redistribution of long-chain MKs, such as MK-7, to extrahepatic tissues, leading to an extended plasma half-life and greater efficacy concerning extrahepatic functions [43, 50]. Furthermore, the prolonged intake of MK-7 enables its accumulation to much higher levels and results in stable serum levels, which enhances its bioavailability and effectiveness [50, 51, 53]. Therefore, MK-7, due to its greater bioavailability and longer half-life, is more effectual than the other vitamin K homologues regarding preventative and therapeutic characteristics [1, 26, 28].

MK-7 has gained widespread interest in the biotechnology field, as recent studies have demonstrated that adequate MK-7 consumption improves bone and cardiovascular health and protects against osteoporosis and CVDs [2, 5, 10, 12, 26, 39, 41, 49, 55]. Essentially, MK-7 promotes a state of homeostasis by establishing a functional equilibrium between the cardiovascular and skeletal systems [53, 56]. MK-7 facilitates the proper utilisation of Ca in the body by activating MGP and OC. This enables both MGP and OC to bind Ca ions. OC directs and binds Ca to bones, and MGP inhibits Ca deposition in the arteries and soft tissues. Thus, when active, the synergistic action of OC and MGP plays a vital role in maintaining cardiovascular and bone health.

In the context of CVDs, MGP is particularly important, as it is a potent inhibitor of soft tissue and vascular calcification [1, 5, 57, 58]. MGP is produced by vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) and chondrocytes. MGP contains both Gla and serine residues and requires (vitamin K-dependent) carboxylation and phosphorylation for its activity [33, 58]. Many different forms of MGP exist, depending on their state of carboxylation and phosphorylation. These include uncarboxylated MGP (ucMGP); carboxylated, dephosphorylated MGP (dp-cMGP); phosphorylated, uncarboxylated MGP (p-ucMGP); and uncarboxylated, dephosphorylated MGP

(dp-ucMGP), which are the inactive forms of MGP, and the active form of MGP is both carboxylated and phosphorylated (p-cMGP) [58]. When active, MGP (negatively charged) has a high affinity for and binds to free Ca ions (positively charged), forming an inactive complex [33]. Active MGP also inhibits the activity of bone morphogenic proteins 2 and 4 (BMP-2 and BMP-4), suppressing the transdifferentiation of VSMCs to osteoblasts in blood vessel walls [46, 56]. The overall activity of functional MGP impedes Ca deposition in the vasculature and prevents soft tissue calcification. The fully inactive form of MGP (dp-ucMGP) is considered to reflect the vitamin K status more accurately compared to the other inactive forms of MGP, and it contributes to the pathogenesis of vascular calcification [55, 58]. Several studies have investigated the effect of vitamin K consumption on active MGP levels and the incidence of vascular calcification and CVDs. The observations from the majority of these studies indicate that the intake of MKs, especially MK-7, considerably decreases the level of dp-ucMGP and reduces the occurrence of vascular calcification and CVDs [47, 49, 55, 57-61].

Various VKDPs, such as OC, MGP, protein S, and periostin, play an essential role in bone metabolism [26]. OC is produced by osteoblasts and, when carboxylated, regulates Ca deposition in bone and contributes to dilatational band formation, which affects the mechanical properties of bone [26, 46, 62]. OC is commonly associated with bone health, and the ratio of undercarboxylated OC (ucOC) to carboxylated OC (cOC) is a sensitive marker of the (bone) vitamin K status. It has been found that a greater concentration of cOC promotes bone health, while a higher level of ucOC is often linked to poor bone health, low bone mineral density (BMD), and an increased risk of fractures [1, 10, 26, 50, 63-66]. Vitamin K2 also regulates bone metabolism through mechanisms independent of OC activation [46, 67]. Specifically, vitamin K2 inhibits the cytokine-induced (receptor activator of nuclear factor-kappa B ligand (RANKL) and tumour necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α)) activation of nuclear factor-kappa B (NF- κ B) [46]. Inhibition of NF- κ B stimulates the expression of alkaline phosphatase (ALP) and the transcription factors RunX and Osterix (Osc) in osteoblast precursor cells and promotes their differentiation into mineralising osteoblasts, which encourages osteoblastogenesis [46]. On the contrary, in osteoclast precursor cells, vitamin K2-induced inhibition of NF- κ B reduces cell differentiation and prevents osteoclastogenesis and bone resorption [46]. Additionally, vitamin K2 is involved in the activation of the pregnane X receptor (PXR) or steroid and xenobiotic receptor (SXR) and regulates the expression of genes that encode ECM proteins (TSK and MATN2), thereby facilitating collagen synthesis and matrix formation in osteoblasts [46]. Numerous studies have investigated the effect of vitamin K on bone metabolism, fractures, and osteoporosis [26, 54, 63, 66, 68-75]. Of the different vitamin K homologues, it has been demonstrated that MK-7 has exceptional bioavailability, enabling more effective γ -carboxylation of OC and positively affecting bone metabolism [26, 50, 69]. Many studies have also concluded that vitamin K supplementation, including MK-7, has little influence on enhancing BMD. However, it

significantly improves bone strength and quality, decreasing bone loss and reducing the incidence of fractures and osteoporosis.

Moreover, it has been proposed that reduced vitamin K status is a potentially modifiable risk factor for severe COVID-19 caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) [76, 77]. In particular, MK-7 deficiency may be associated with manifestations of COVID-19 and comorbidities related to the acute form of the disease [78, 79]. Respiratory failure and thromboembolism are frequently observed in critically affected patients. Vitamin K depletion exacerbates elastic fibre degradation (due to calcification, which promotes lung fibrosis) and thrombosis in acute COVID-19 as a result of the impaired activation of MGP and endothelial (anticoagulant) protein S, respectively [76]. It has also been proposed that the mechanisms leading to these conditions are linked to inflammatory responses rather than the specific properties of the virus, and vitamin K, predominantly MK-7, owing to its anti-inflammatory properties, which are independent of its role as an enzyme cofactor, is likely to improve the health outcomes of COVID-19 [77, 78, 80, 81]. Individuals who develop serious infections often have comorbid conditions, such as diabetes, hypertension, and CVDs, which are also attributable to a compromised level of vitamin K (MK-7) [76-78, 82]. The study conducted by Mangge et al. [83] assessed the serum vitamin K (PK, MK-4, and MK-7) and KO levels in patients hospitalised with COVID-19-related pneumonia, non-COVID-19 pneumonia patients, and healthy individuals with a typical western lifestyle, and it was determined that COVID-19 patients had significantly lower levels of MK-7 in comparison to patients with pneumonia and healthy controls. The findings of this investigation were largely supported by studies carried out by Dofferhoff et al. [76], Anastasi et al. [80], Desai et al. [84], and Linneberg et al. [85], which indicate that a low extrahepatic vitamin K status (usually denoted by elevated dp-ucMGP levels) may be connected to greater disease severity and poorer health outcomes associated with COVID-19. It has been suggested that high circulating levels of dp-ucMGP in COVID-19 patients may arise due to premorbid vitamin K insufficiency in combination with enhanced utilisation during infection [77]. Additionally, it is anticipated that during SARS-CoV-2 infection, there is a greater demand for active MGP as a result of profound proteolytic activity in the lungs. This accelerates elastic fibre degradation and increases their vulnerability to Ca ions, leading to an up-regulation of MGP synthesis and the depletion of extrahepatic vitamin K stores [77]. Thus, vitamin K, especially MK-7, supplementation will likely benefit COVID-19 patients and reduce the morbidity and mortality associated with the disease. However, clinical intervention trials are needed to establish whether vitamin K, specifically MK-7, administration plays a crucial role in the treatment and prevention of severe COVID-19 [77, 78]. Legacy et al. [86] have established a study protocol to conduct a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial to evaluate the effect of various dietary supplements, including vitamin K2 (MK-7), on reducing the severity and duration of symptoms in individuals with COVID-19. However, the study is still in its early stages, and suitable participants are being recruited; hence, more insightful conclusions can be inferred upon completion. Furthermore, a

randomised, controlled clinical trial was carried out in the Netherlands from February 2021 to March 2022 to investigate the safety and effects of vitamin K2 (MK-7) supplementation in COVID-19 patients requiring hospitalisation [87]. In this study, patients were either administered a placebo or a dietary supplement containing MK-7 for 14 days or until discharge (whichever occurred first), and the outcomes with regard to safety, pulmonary damage, and coagulation were assessed. Although this study has been completed, the results are yet to be published.

Essentially, MK-7 has excellent health benefits and is more therapeutically significant compared to the other K vitamers for the treatment and prevention of various age-related and other health conditions and globally relevant diseases. Therefore, widespread MK-7 consumption is likely to be instrumental in managing pressing health issues worldwide and alleviating the socioeconomic consequences of an ageing population.

2.3 Dietary sources and intake of vitamin K

Vitamin K can be obtained in the diet from a variety of food sources, and the vitamin K content of commonly consumed food items is listed in Table 2-1.

PK is the main source of dietary vitamin K, accounting for 75-90% of all vitamin K consumption, and is synthesised by plants, green algae, and certain species of cyanobacteria [39, 88-90]. The major dietary sources of PK are green vegetables, such as broccoli, iceberg lettuce, and spinach, and vegetable oils, including soybean, canola, cottonseed, and olive oils [12, 17, 88, 89]. Margarines, spreads, salad dressings, and other products derived from plant oils also contain vitamin K1 [88, 91].

MKs are primarily of microbial origin. Long-chain MKs, such as menaquinone-6 (MK-6), MK-7, menaquinone-8 (MK-8), menaquinone-10 (MK-10), and menaquinone-11 (MK-11), can also be produced by the gut microbiota. Although, it is anticipated that their absorption is restricted, as they are tightly bound to bacterial membranes and require bile salts for their absorption and solubilisation; thus, they do not contribute substantially to daily vitamin K requirements [2, 5, 26, 92]. Hence, food products are the dominant source of vitamin K2. However, compared to vitamin K1, vitamin K2 is present at lower concentrations in fewer dietary sources [12]. MKs, particularly long-chain MKs, largely occur in fermented foods, including cheese, curd, sauerkraut, cheonggukjang, and natto, and the type of microorganism employed in the fermentation process influences the MK composition of the resulting food product [12, 15, 17, 69, 88, 93-97]. Additionally, dairy products, such as milk, yoghurt, and cream, contain appreciable quantities of MKs, and the total amount of vitamin K is often proportional to the fat content [98]. The form, range, and quantity of MKs present in dairy goods are usually diverse and are most likely determined by the microbial species used as the starter culture, as different bacterial strains produce a distinct spectrum of MK compounds through fermentation [97-99]. Certain animal products, such as meat and eggs, are also a source of MK-4, synthesised from the menadione included in animal feed [12, 69, 88, 93, 97].

Table 2-1 The vitamin K composition of assorted foods

Food Source	Vitamin K Content (ng/g)								
	PK	MK-4	MK-5	MK-6	MK-7	MK-8	MK-9	MK-10	Reference(s)
Vegetables									
Wakame (seaweed)	12930	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Kale	6180-8170	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Parsley	3600-5480	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Spinach	2700-5750	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Laver (seaweed)	4130	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Carrot (raw)	55-132	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	[97]
Iceberg lettuce (raw)	241	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	[97]
Cabbage	1270-3390	0-10	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Broccoli (boiled)	1100-3070	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Brussels sprouts	1220-2890	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Fruits									
Apples	27-34	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Bananas	2-4	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Kiwi fruit	343	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Blueberries	193	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	[97]
Blackberries	198	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	[97]
Black currant	300	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]

Avocado	10-200	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Grapes (green)	83-190	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Breads									
Rye	5-9	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Wheat	10-12	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Sourdough	9-11	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Beverages									
Tea	2-4	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Coffee	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Orange juice	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Plant Oils and Fats									
Olive oil	300-800	0-4	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Sunflower oil	55-59	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Soybean oil	1310-2340	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Vegetable oil (mixed)	1340-1640	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	10	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Rapeseed oil (refined)	920-1500	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0-30	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Corn oil	27-31	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]
Margarine	120-1100	0-3	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67, 91]
Butter	132-159	135-159	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[91]

Fermented Foods									
Natto	200-450	0-10	72	124	9000-12300	824	0	0	[67, 100]
Sauerkraut	224	4.3	8.6	15.9	2.3	8.9	15	0	[100]
Cheeses									
Brie	49.2	125	0	0	0	0	0	0	[97, 100]
Boursin	45.5	89.3	0	1.1	3.3	8.2	9.1	0	[97, 100]
Camembert	25	79.5	13.4	10.1	32.4	151	395	0	[97, 100]
Roquefort	65.6	131	6.4	4.8	11.6	50.9	176	0	[97, 100]
Munster	20.6	102	4.5	4.6	83.7	412	194	0	[97, 100]
Cheddar	21.6	51.2	0	2.8-33.5	0-23.4	8.3-62.6	0-254.8	0-67.5	[97, 100]
Stilton	36.2	100	9.4	6	14	66.3	298	0	[97, 100]
Feta	13.5	1	0	3.5	11.8	23.3	76.9	0	[97, 100]
Mozzarella	15	53.1	1.6	0	0	0	7.5	0	[97, 100]
Parmesan	20.6	0	0	0.5	1	1.5	0	0	[97, 100]
Gorgonzola	17.3	111	0	1.7	30.7	2.4	2.5	5.1	[97, 100]
Pecorino	55.6	93.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	[97, 100]
Emmental	24.1-52	34-89.5	21.5	0-19	0	0	0	0-322	[97, 100]
Gruyere	25-58	51.5-98	13.8	0	0	0	0	0	[97, 100]
Raclette	15.5-26	30-86	0-4	0-219	0-826	18-100	50-290	0	[97, 100]
Edam	17.8-37.6	30.5-113	0-11.2	0-6.1	0-13.4	74.6-112.5	274-459	0-9.9	[97, 100]
Gamalost	1.8	10.3	6.2	2.9	9.7	51.2	440	22	[97, 100]

Norvegia	43.7	51	0	3	13.3	52.5	295	0	[97, 100]
Cottage cheese (4% fat)	2-4	2-4	3-7	4-6	4-8	18-32	66-94	2-6	[97, 98]
Cottage cheese (reduced-fat)	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	4-12	17-29	1-5	[97, 98]
Other Dairy Products									
Milk (4% fat)	3	8	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	160	20	[98]
Milk (2% fat)	n.d.	5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	50	6	[98]
Regular yoghurt (full-fat)	3-5	4-10	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	84-180	10-22	[98]
Regular yoghurt (fat-free)	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[98]
Greek yoghurt (full-fat)	2-4	7-9	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	126-170	12-24	[98]
Greek yoghurt (fat-free)	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[98]
Cream (heavy)	23-25	85-101	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	4118-4722	743-961	[98]
Cream (light)	12	53	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1030	130	[98]
Half-and-half	7-9	19-27	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	231-577	20-70	[98]
Animal Products									
Whole egg	3-25	56-250	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]

Minced meat	10.9	76.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	[100]
Pork cutlet	0	10.5	0	1.1	0	0	0	0	[100]
Beef meat	0.2	13.9	0	0	1.3	3.7	0	0	[100]
Beef liver	18-58	7-8	0	11.2	49.9	16	14.6	18.3	[67, 100]
Pork meat	0	13.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	[100]
Pork liver	0	2.8	0	10.5	5.1	0	0	0	[100]
Chicken meat	0-20	89-600	0	0	0	0	0	0	[67, 100]
Chicken liver	0-25	40-141	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	[67]
Deer back	24.3	8.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	[100]
Seafood									
Mackerel	5.1	6.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	[100]
Eel	13	631	0	0	0	0	0	0	[100]
Plaice	0	3.8	0	0	0	49	0	0	[100]
Prawn	0	1.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	[100]
Salmon	1.3	5.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	[100]
Herring	1.1	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	[100]

Note: n.d. = not detected; n.a. = not available

Of the several forms of vitamin K₂, MK-7 has exceptional biological activity and is the most therapeutically significant; therefore, sufficient intake of MK-7 is important from a dietary perspective. However, MK-7 is present in limited food sources, and its concentration is very low. The digestion and utilisation of MK-7 from foods also become less efficient with ageing [94, 101]. The richest source of MK-7 is natto, a Japanese fermented soybean, with approximately 800-1000 µg of MK-7 per 100 g of natto [94, 101, 102]. Nevertheless, many consumers find natto unpalatable due to its strong taste and intense aroma [94]. The daily recommended vitamin K intake differs between countries, and the exact value varies based on age, gender, and other factors. Moreover, there are no specific guidelines available for MK-7. In the United States of America, the recommended dietary intake (RDI) of vitamin K is 90 µg for (adult) females and 120 µg for (adult) males [103], whereas in the United Kingdom and other European countries, an adequate intake (AI) of 1 µg/kg of body weight is suggested [104, 105]. In Australia and New Zealand, the recommended dietary allowance (RDA) for vitamin K is 60 µg for (adult) females and 70 µg for (adult) males [106]. As a result, meeting the dietary intake requirements would entail the consumption of impractically large quantities of MK-7-rich foods; consequently, obtaining adequate levels of MK-7 from regular food products is not feasible [94, 107].

Thus, the low availability of sufficient concentrations of MK-7 in the diet necessitates the development of dietary supplements and fortified or functional food products to complement the amount of MK-7 acquired from natural sources.

2.4 MK-7-enriched fortified or functional food products and dietary supplements

Of the different K vitamers, MK-7 offers the most health benefits and has the greatest remedial value. Nonetheless, it can only be obtained in the diet at relatively low concentrations from few food sources. This creates a lucrative market for MK-7-enriched fortified or functional food products and dietary supplements to accompany natural food sources and satisfy the recommended daily intake requirements.

Functional foods encompass whole, fortified, enriched, or enhanced products that provide additional health benefits beyond their nutritional value [108, 109]. The primary advantage of functional food products is that they enable essential nutrients to be delivered to large portions of the population without the need for drastic changes in food consumption patterns [109]. Assorted food matrices can be used to develop functional food products, the type of which is dependent on their suitability for the target population, the production process, and the desired health outcomes. Items such as cereals and cereal-based products, milk and dairy products, fats and oils, tea and other beverages, and salt, sugar, soy sauce, and other condiments are common food matrices that can be employed for the manufacture of functional foods [109]. Ideally, for it to be effective in achieving the intended health benefits, a functional food item should be widely available and easily incorporated into an individual's dietary routine.

The development of a palatable MK-7-rich functional food product, which can either be consumed directly or fortified into other food matrices, from the fermentation of food substrates is likely to be beneficial in reducing the incidence of CVDs, osteoporosis, and other diseases of global relevance [110, 111]. Various studies have explored the production of fermented MK-7-enriched food products and have considered screening different food substrates and optimising the fermentation media and operating conditions to enhance MK-7 production for this application [110-113].

The fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7 has gained substantial interest over the last few years. Despite significant advancements in this area, the low fermentation yield and high production cost, due to the numerous downstream processing steps, result in an expensive final product with a market price of approximately USD 5 million/kg [110-112]. Consequently, it is not readily available to consumers at an affordable price. Therefore, fermented MK-7-enriched functional food products are a promising alternative. The primary advantage of which is fewer downstream processing steps and lower production costs, as the fermentation medium can be used directly as a food ingredient after appropriate pre-treatment rather than producing pure MK-7 as the final product [110, 111].

Southee et al. [111] and Novin et al. [112] studied the development of a functional dairy product rich in MK-7 using milk as the fermentation substrate. The rich nutritional profile and high Ca content of milk make it a suitable medium for producing a functional food product to address osteoporosis, CVDs, and other health conditions associated with MK-7 deficiency. The synergistic effect of Ca and MK-7 is also reported to benefit bone and cardiovascular health. Southee et al. [111] assessed the feasibility of milk as a fermentation medium and the impact of nutrients on the MK-7 yield. It was found that milk, especially standard milk, was a promising medium for MK-7 production using *B. subtilis natto*. A maximum MK-7 concentration of 11.22 mg/L was achieved for a medium containing standard milk and 1% (w/v) glycerol after 48 hours of fermentation with *B. subtilis natto* at 40 °C, 200 rpm, and 1 vvm. On the other hand, Novin et al. [112] examined the effect of agitation and aeration on MK-7 biosynthesis by *B. subtilis natto* using milk as the fermentation media, and it was determined that the optimum agitation and aeration rate were 525 rpm and 5 vvm, respectively, which enabled a MK-7 yield of 3.54 mg/L. A sensory evaluation of the MK-7-enriched milk product was also conducted, and it was found that the fermented milk product was very salty and had a cheesy aroma relative to non-fermented milk. Hence, it was not as well accepted by the panellists.

In contrast, Singh et al. [113] considered the development of a MK-7-enriched soy nutraceutical through the fermentation of *B. subtilis* using soybeans. Various nutrients were explored to optimise the fermentation media and produce a large quantity of MK-7 within a short period. Nine nutrient sources were evaluated, and a MK-7 concentration of 3.039 µg/g was attained after 24 hours of fermentation employing the optimised medium, which consisted of 20

g of soybeans, 40 mL/kg of glycerol, 60 g/kg of mannitol, 4 g/kg of yeast extract, 8 g/kg of malt extract, and 4 g/kg of CaCl₂.

Ma et al. [110] also investigated the potential to utilise food ingredients for the production of MK-7-enriched functional foods. As part of this process, they screened a range of food products for their suitability for MK-7 biosynthesis and determined that a combination of soy protein and glycerol was ideal for MK-7 production. The developed process was also scaled-up, and a dual-feeding strategy was implemented to overcome foaming and achieve a high MK-7 yield. This enabled a MK-7 titre of 99 mg/L and a productivity of 2.1 mg/L/h, among the highest values reported in the open literature. The resulting product was then formulated into soymilk to examine the stability of MK-7 in food formulation, and it was established that approximately 75% of the MK-7 remained after 24 weeks of storage at room temperature. Despite the significant advancements in this area, further development is likely required before a suitable, palatable, and organoleptically appealing fermented MK-7-enriched functional food product is available on the market.

Several studies have also demonstrated the ability to fortify a range of food matrices with vitamin K, including milk, yoghurt, yoghurt-based drinks, eggs, and olive oil, to produce a fortified functional food product to enhance the vitamin K intake of individuals and achieve better health outcomes [54, 114-119]. Brugè et al. [54], Kanellakis et al. [114], Knapen et al. [115], Knapen et al. [116], and Kruger et al. [117] evaluated the effect of different dosages and forms of vitamin K, mainly PK and MK-7, on the cardiovascular and bone health of adults of different age groups. These studies also considered the inclusion of other vitamins (B, C, D, and E), minerals (Ca and magnesium (Mg)), and nutrients (*n*-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) and coenzyme Q₁₀ (CoQ₁₀)), along with vitamin K, to provide further health benefits. Various biochemical parameters were analysed to determine the effectiveness of the fortified products and their capacity to produce the intended health outcomes by improving the nutritional status of vitamin K. This involved measuring the typical markers of vitamin K status, specifically the circulating levels of ucOC and dp-ucMGP, and directly evaluating the plasma PK or MK-7 concentration. All studies demonstrated the successful absorption of the fortified vitamin K compound and established the potential of fortified food products to effectively increase the vitamin K status of individuals (as determined by a reduction in ucOC and/or dp-ucMGP levels) to achieve the desired health gains. Additionally, Cirilli et al. [119] studied the bioavailability of MK-7 in a low-fat milk formulation and compared two different fortification strategies, namely enrichment by directly dissolving a MK-7 powder or with a pre-prepared oil-water MK-7 dispersion. MK-7 bioavailability was evaluated by quantifying plasma MK-7 levels over a specified timeframe, and it was determined that the fortification method strongly influences the bioavailability of MK-7. Fortification with an oil-water MK-7 emulsion enabled greater homogeneity, stability, and bioavailability of the enriched milk product, and it is a promising approach to increase the solubility of lipophilic MK-7 in reduced-fat dairy products.

Conversely, O'Sullivan et al. [118] considered the biofortification of chicken eggs to enhance their vitamin K content by increasing the quantity of vitamin K3 in hen feed. High-quality biofortified chicken eggs, which had at least twice the vitamin K content of commercially available eggs, were produced in this study. Unlike the previously mentioned investigations, this study did not involve human participants and did not assess the ability of the biofortified eggs to increase the vitamin K status of individuals to enable greater health benefits. Instead, the primary focus was to improve the vitamin K content of a regularly consumed food item (eggs) to increase the dietary vitamin K intake of the general population. This study successfully illustrated an alternative method to boost the vitamin K content of foods, especially non-dairy items, without directly adding vitamin K to the desired food product.

Although many studies have demonstrated the successful fortification of a range of food matrices to produce functional food products rich in vitamin K (including MK-7) to address various health needs, the availability of such products is scarce. Therefore, since vitamin K-enriched functional foods are currently not readily accessible to consumers, they are unlikely to improve the vitamin K status of large populations presently and in the immediate future.

Alternatively, assorted vitamin K2 dietary supplements are available on the market, and the primary manufacturers and their product details are outlined in Table 2-2. Due to the prominent health benefits associated with MK-7, the majority of commercial vitamin K2 supplements exclusively contain or comprise a substantial proportion of MK-7. Currently, this is the most common approach to compensate for the low availability of MK-7 in natural food sources. The vitamin K2 in such dietary supplements can be obtained from fermentation or chemical methods. Gnosis, NattoPharma, Viridis Biopharma, and Sungen Bioscience are the notable producers of naturally derived vitamin K2 nutritional supplements synthesised from microbial fermentation [20]. In contrast, Kappa Bioscience is the leading manufacturer of synthetic vitamin K2 supplements obtained from chemical reactions [20].

However, such dietary supplements are often expensive as a result of the numerous complex steps involved in the manufacturing process. Thus, compared to MK-7-enriched functional food products, they are likely not as widely accessible. It has also been observed that there is significant diversity in the MK-7 content of dietary supplements, and in some cases, the actual MK-7 concentration is lower than that declared on the label [15, 17]. Furthermore, different excipients in MK-7 supplements influence the purity profile and stability of the finished product, particularly during storage [120]. Certain excipient compounds, such as L-arginine (L-Arg) and magnesium oxide (MgO), encourage the deterioration of MK-7 [120]. This degradative effect is more profound with MgO and is most likely associated with alkalisation, which promotes the instability and degradation of MKs [120]. Such occurrences may explain the low MK-7 content (below the declared concentration) in certain supplements. Moreover, it is also possible for dietary supplements to contain additional impurities and other compounds that are produced during the

technological processes used to manufacture capsules and hard tablets, which is undesirable [15, 17].

Table 2-2 Different producers of vitamin K2 dietary supplements and their product details (adapted from Ren et al. [20])

Manufacturer	Location	Product Trademark	Synthesis Technique
Kappa Bioscience	Norway	K2VITAL	Chemical
NattoPharma	Norway	MenaQ7	Fermentation
Gnosis	Italy	VitaMK7	Fermentation
DSM	Netherlands	Quali-K	Chemical
Viridis Biopharma	India	MenaquinGold	Fermentation
Frutarom	Israel	UniK2	Fermentation
DuPont Nutrition & Health	USA	ActivK	Chemical
GeneFerm Biotechnology	Taiwan	NattoMena	Fermentation
Sungen Bioscience Co. Ltd	China	ESSEK2	Fermentation
Eisai Co. Ltd	Japan	MK-4	Chemical
Gusheng	China	MK-4	Chemical

Essentially, both MK-7 dietary supplements and fortified or functional food products are possible approaches to complement natural sources and satisfy dietary intake requirements. It must be noted that although MK-7 dietary supplements are presently more accessible, there are some prominent drawbacks associated with this form of MK-7 supplementation. Conversely, MK-7-enriched fortified or functional food products are still being developed and are not readily available on the market. However, a nutritional food supplement rich in MK-7 has the additional advantage that it can be made available to a wide range of consumers at a relatively low cost, which is likely to reduce the occurrence of globally significant diseases and health conditions that can be alleviated through the sufficient intake of MK-7.

2.5 The current knowledge and understanding of MK-7 isomers

In light of the numerous health benefits of MK-7, the development of nutritional supplements and functional food products to accompany natural food sources and increase the dietary intake of MK-7 has become progressively widespread. However, many people have not yet realised that MK-7 can exist as geometric isomers [13, 15, 17, 121-123]. The all-*trans* isomer is the natural form of the vitamin, whereas the *cis* isomers of MK-7 are not naturally occurring compounds and are produced from the isomerisation of the all-*trans* isomer under various

conditions. It has been recognised that the chemical structure of MK-7 influences its ability to interact with subcellular structures and, therefore, determines its biological activity [13, 122, 123]. Only the all-*trans* isomer of MK-7 is biologically significant [124, 125], which is an important consideration for the development of MK-7-enriched functional foods and dietary supplements to improve human health.

The molecular structure of MK-7 comprises seven double bonds, and in the all-*trans* isomer, all seven double bonds have the *trans* configuration. Individual double bonds in the isoprenoid units of MK-7 can adopt the *cis* conformation. Depending on the number and location of *cis* bonds (in addition to the *trans* bonds) and their various combinations in the side chain of MK-7, numerous *cis/trans* isomers (containing double bonds in both the *cis* and *trans* arrangements) can potentially exist. It may also be possible for all seven double bonds to adopt the *cis* configuration, giving rise to the all-*cis* isomer. However, the stability of the different structures and shapes that result from the various organisations of double bonds is likely to differ between isomers, as some forms of *cis* MK-7 may be less energetically favourable and are, consequently, less likely to occur than the other more stable conformations.

The number and type of *cis* isomers that can be achieved are ambiguous, as very few studies have considered this aspect, and those that have often present conflicting information. Marles et al. [48] suggest that the natural all-*E* form of MK-7 can isomerise to the mono-*cis* form, which has the *Z* (*cis*) configuration at the 2' position (2-*Z*) instead of the 2-*E* arrangement (with regard to the first double bond in the molecular structure and the 3' methyl group of the side chain), as a result of exposure to certain conditions. This implies that only a single *cis* isomer is attainable. On the other hand, the studies conducted by Szterk et al. [17], Szterk et al. [15], Sitkowski et al. [13], Orlando et al. [120], and Bus et al. [126] have established the existence of more than one *cis* MK-7 isomer in dietary supplements and preparations of different origins. Szterk et al. [17], Szterk et al. [15], and Sitkowski et al. [13] have identified five *cis/trans* MK-7 isomers, besides all-*trans* MK-7, and Orlando et al. [120] have observed various unidentified peaks (speculated to correspond to the *cis/trans* isomers of MK-7) in different preparations. More recently, Bus et al. [126] have isolated and determined the chemical structure of thirteen new MK-7 isomers and confirmed the identity of three previously known MK-7 compounds, specifically all-*trans* MK-7 ((*E6, ω*)-MK-7) and two *cis* isomers, one of which is produced from photoisomerisation ((*Z,E5,ω*)-MK-7) and the other ((*E,Z3,E2,ω*)-MK-7) has been previously characterised [13], from a synthetic mixture of MK-7. It must be acknowledged that most studies postulating the existence of multiple *cis* forms of MK-7 have explored dietary supplements or similar formulations, and thus far, investigations considering fermented samples have not been carried out.

MK-7 is traditionally produced from bacterial fermentation; however, of late, synthetic methods for MK-7 preparation have been introduced. Although the all-*trans* form of MK-7 is likely to be the most viable, the exact ratio of the different MK-7 isomers obtained from natural

and chemical production methods has not been elucidated, and the isomeric forms of MK-7 attained from the different synthesis techniques are also unclear. In particular, there is insufficient material in the literature outlining the MK-7 profile achieved from fermentation, as different fermentation conditions may produce variable proportions of isomers [13, 15, 17].

The ideal method for synthesising all-*trans* MK-7 is also debatable, as different producers have different opinions. Kappa Bioscience, the leading manufacturer of synthetic MK-7, argues that natural fermentation-based synthesis results in the production of a mixture of *cis* and *trans* isomers, whereas synthetic methods favour the production of the all-*trans* form of the vitamin [122]. In contrast, NattoPharma, one of the prominent producers of naturally derived MK-7 preparations, claims that their natural MK-7 products have high purity and contain the all-*trans* isomer [127].

It is suggested that the production of *cis/trans* isomers during fermentation-based synthesis occurs during the purification processes implemented to isolate the target vitamin product from other impurities [122, 123]. However, this aspect has not been widely investigated, and there is no clear evidence to support this claim. This may be a potential reason certain producers prefer synthetic production methods, and it may also be cheaper than natural synthesis techniques. Nevertheless, it must be noted that most consumers prefer naturally derived products, as they are deemed to confer a greater health benefit and are regarded as a more natural and organic alternative to synthetic preparations. Naturally derived MK-7 is also produced from fermentation with generally recognised as safe (GRAS) bacterial strains and is considered non-toxic. On the contrary, chemically synthesised MK-7 products could contain traces of harmful solvents, which are an environmental hazard and may pose a health risk and raise product safety concerns, especially for food supplements. As a result, consumers are often prepared to pay more for natural products, which hence have a greater demand relative to synthetic formulations.

Further investigation in this area is necessary to develop an understanding of the profile of *cis* and *trans* MK-7 isomers in various fermented products, together with the important production processes and purification techniques that may influence the proportion of isomers attained. Additionally, knowledge of the key factors that impact the isomer composition may enable their manipulation to obtain a superior MK-7 profile in the final fermented product.

2.6 Biological activity of MK-7 isomers

Like most biological molecules, MK-7 can occur as geometric isomers, existing in the all-*trans* and various *cis* forms [13, 15, 17, 122, 123]. Differences in the isomeric structures of MK-7 relate to the arrangement of double bonds in the isoprenoid units of the side chain [13, 128]. All double bonds in naturally occurring MKs are in the *trans* configuration; however, some commercial preparations of the vitamin contain a mixture of compounds with both *cis* and *trans* configurations of individual double bonds in isoprenoid units [13, 128].

The organisation of double bonds in MK-7 molecules determines their shape and biological activity [13, 122, 123, 125]. The all-*trans* form of MK-7 consists of an extended system of isoprenoid units with double bonds in the *trans* configuration, resulting in a linear organisation (Figure 2-4) [121-123]. In contrast, the *cis* isomers of MK-7 have a non-linear shape (Figure 2-4) due to the presence of one or more double bonds in the *cis* arrangement, which creates a bend in the molecular structure [121-123]. This impairs the interaction of *cis* MK-7 isomers with subcellular structures, such as vitamin K2-dependent enzymes and proteins, reducing their ability to perform their biological function [13, 125].

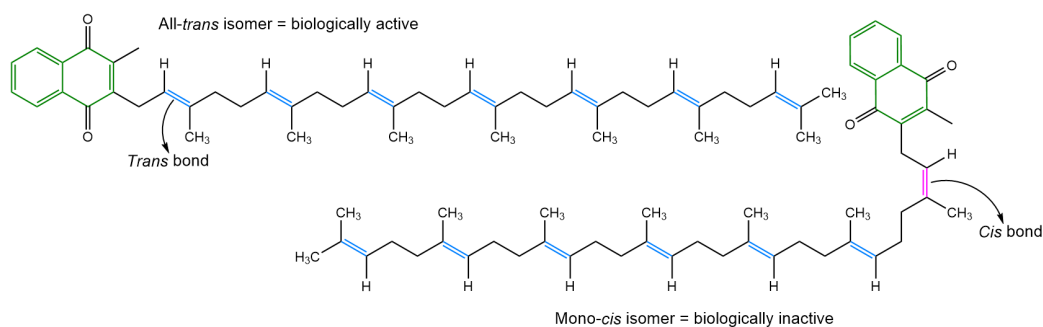


Figure 2-4 The chemical structure of *cis* and *trans* MK-7 isomers (adapted from Lal and Berenjian [129])

Therefore, the different geometric shapes of MK-7 influence its biological activity, and it has been demonstrated that the *cis* forms of vitamin K merely exhibit 1% of the biological activity of the all-*trans* isomer [124, 125]. Furthermore, a recent comparison of the carboxylative efficacy and biological function of MK-7 isomers has revealed that while not completely ineffective, *cis* MK-7 has substantially reduced carboxylative capacity and compromised bioactivity relative to the all-*trans* isomer [90]. Consequently, consideration of the isomeric composition of MK-7 preparations obtained through both natural and chemical methods is crucial in the development of MK-7 dietary supplements and functional foods, as only the all-*trans* isomer is significant from a biological perspective.

2.7 Safety and toxicity of MK-7 isomers

It is essential to account for the possibility for the various isomers of MK-7 to have different cytotoxic or toxic characteristics [13, 17]. The cytotoxic or toxic properties of the *cis* forms of MK-7 have not been broadly researched, and little information is available [13, 17].

It has been established that no safety concerns are linked to the consumption of MKs and that moderate doses of MKs in nutritional supplements do not pose a health risk [12, 14, 39, 43, 48, 93, 130]. The study carried out by Pucaj et al. [14] (using rats) demonstrated that there is no toxicity associated with the oral administration of synthetic MK-7 in a single dose of up to 2000 mg/kg or over 90 days at a dose of 10 mg/kg per day [12]. Ravishankar et al. [130] also conducted an extensive safety assessment on the suitability of MK-7 for human nutrition. The study examined the acute and subacute toxicity of MK-7 and its potential for genotoxicity and

mutagenicity through the analysis of various biochemical, haematological, urine, and histopathological parameters. The results of this report largely supported the observations made by Pucaj et al. [14] and determined that the oral administration of 2000 mg/kg of MK-7 does not induce toxicity in both male and female rats. The subacute toxicity analysis also revealed the safety and compatibility of prolonged MK-7 treatment over 90 days [130]. In addition, the study demonstrated that MK-7 does not cause cellular damage or possess any genotoxic or mutagenic qualities [130]. Overall, the investigations carried out by Pucaj et al. [14] and Ravishankar et al. [130] indicate the suitability of MK-7 for food-related applications and the production of dietary supplements.

Given the lack of toxicity associated with MK-7 compounds, the probability for the *cis* isomers of MK-7 to demonstrate cytotoxic or toxic properties or have any significant adverse effects on human health is likely low. Nevertheless, their presence in various food and other supplementary sources is an impurity, as they sustain no biological activity.

2.8 Methods of MK-7 synthesis and the production of *cis* and *trans* isomers

As a nutraceutical and dietary supplement, MK-7 can be produced naturally by fermentation or synthetically from chemical processes. The MK-7 profile achieved depends on several aspects, primarily the processes used for its synthesis and the purification of the crude reaction mixture [13, 15, 17, 122]. Particular environmental and storage conditions can also result in the geometric isomerisation of the isoprenoid units in the chemical structure of MK-7, which also impacts the isomer composition of the final product [13, 15, 17, 128].

2.8.1 Microbial fermentation

MK-7 can be synthesised from fermentation using both wild-type and engineered microorganisms, including members of the *Bacillus* species, lactic acid bacteria, and various other bacterial strains, such as *Flavobacterium* and *E. coli* [39, 94, 96, 113, 131-136]. Although many types of bacteria can synthesise MK-7, safety concerns often limit their suitability for producing microbial-derived MK-7 as a food supplement. In order to be acceptable for the manufacture of fermented MK-7 products intended for human consumption, microbial production hosts must be safe and receive GRAS accreditation [96]. Accordingly, *B. subtilis natto*, which has been awarded the GRAS status and enables a high MK-7 yield (MK-7 accounts for at least 90% of all vitamin K isoforms synthesised by the bacterium), is considered the ideal microorganism for the industrial production of MK-7 and is preferentially used to manufacture MK-7 supplements and functional food products [39, 102, 132, 134, 137-141].

Many studies examining the fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7 have focused on liquid-state fermentation (LSF), where fermentation is carried out in a liquid medium. However, more recently, solid-state fermentation (SSF) methods involving fermentation on a solid substrate

have gained significant interest. SSF techniques, in comparison to LSF, are likely to present a more viable and economical alternative, as they consume less pre-processing energy, enable superior productivity, generate less wastewater, and result in improved product recovery [142, 143]. Moreover, SSF fermentation methods can enable the crude fermented product to be used directly as a food supplement, eliminating the need to extract and purify the vitamin, thereby reducing the number of processing steps and the associated cost [20, 142, 144].

The MK-7 yield obtained from fermentation processes varies considerably and is determined by several physicochemical and biochemical parameters. The type of microorganism and the nature of the fermentation substrate, as well as the substrate particle size, medium components, pH, substrate pre-treatment methods, initial substrate moisture content, inoculum size, incubation temperature, relative humidity, fermentation period, aeration rate, and supplementation of trace elements and additional nutrients, are the most prominent factors that influence the MK-7 yield attained in SSF and LSF processes [37, 39, 94, 137, 143]. Additionally, numerous studies have investigated the effect of different substrates and nutrients, dynamic versus static fermentation conditions, various chemical and physical treatments (surfactants and ultrasound), and genetic manipulation on the fermentation yield [96, 101, 131, 135, 137, 142, 145, 146].

When static fermentation conditions are applied in traditional SSF and LSF techniques, the absence of adequate agitation and aeration creates a non-homogeneous environment, which results in operational issues, such as heat and mass transfer inefficiencies; thus, scale-up becomes a challenge [147-151]. These operational issues arise due to the tendency of *Bacillus* strains, especially *B. subtilis natto*, to form pellicles and biofilms [147-150, 152]. Biofilm formation is an example of passive immobilisation and occurs when planktonic cells, in response to harsh environmental conditions, undergo certain genetic changes, allowing them to colonise a suitable surface to form multicellular communities [148-150]. The formation of biofilms by *B. subtilis natto* has been correlated with the production of MK-7; consequently, many studies aiming to enhance the MK-7 yield have employed static fermentation conditions in both SSF and LSF [148]. However, static fermentation conditions lead to operational issues due to biofilm formation, limiting the suitability of such processes for the large-scale production of MK-7 [148]. Hence, biofilm reactors present a promising alternative to traditional SSF and LSF methods to improve MK-7 production, as they facilitate biofilm formation under controlled conditions while employing robust agitation and aeration [148, 151, 153]. Several studies have been conducted by Mahdinia et al. [147-154] to explore and optimise different aspects of biofilm reactors for the commercial production of MK-7. These investigations have demonstrated that *B. subtilis natto* is the best strain to enhance MK-7 production and that a plastic composite support (PCS) consisting of 50% polypropylene, 40% soybean hulls, 5% soybean flour, 5% yeast extract, and minor salts is ideal for the construction of biofilm reactors [148]. Both batch and fed-batch strategies and the use of glucose- and glycerol-based media have been compared to optimise the fermentation

conditions in various studies [148-151, 154]. Overall, biofilm reactors hold great promise for the large-scale production of MK-7. Nonetheless, the development of biofilm reactors for such applications is still in the preliminary stages, and further optimisation of the important fermentation parameters and improvement in reactor design are likely to enable the industrial production of MK-7 using this approach in the future [20, 148].

Generally, bacterial fermentation is assumed to produce the all-*trans* isomer of MK-7, but no studies have specifically considered this aspect. Therefore, no evidence outlining the ratio of MK-7 isomers obtained from microbial metabolic pathways is available in the literature [13, 15, 17]. Szterk et al. [15] and Szterk et al. [17] demonstrated that dietary supplements comprising MK-7 derived from natural natto extracts included varying proportions of *cis* isomers in addition to all-*trans* MK-7. These observations may indicate the potential dishonesty of producers in declaring the source of the MK-7 contained in their dietary supplements (that is, the MK-7 has been acquired from chemical synthesis techniques rather than from natural natto extracts) or the presence of *cis* isomers may be a result of the processes used to manufacture dietary supplements in the form of hard tablets or capsules [15, 17]. The MK-7 profile of fermented MK-7-enriched functional foods is yet to be elucidated, as most investigations have only analysed the MK-7 composition of dietary supplements achieved from natural and chemical production methods.

2.8.2 Chemical synthesis

MK-7 can also be produced synthetically, which is often the case for MK-7 dietary supplements unless derived from natural sources. Several methods exist for the chemical synthesis of MK-7 [155]. These generally involve the introduction of an isoprenoid functionality into the aromatic naphthoquinone nucleus, and the required side chain can be attained from various compounds, such as geraniol, farnesol, phytol, or solanesol [156, 157]. The locus of functionalisation and the degree of control over the stereochemical outcome of the introduced moiety are central factors in the chemical preparation of MKs [156].

Typically, MKs have been synthesised from the condensation of 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinol with an appropriate allylic alcohol in the presence of an acid catalyst, the most effective being boron trifluoride etherate ($\text{BF}_3\text{O}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2$) [156]. The resulting menaquinol product is then converted to the corresponding quinone product through mild oxidation with oxygen (O_2), ferric ions (Fe^{3+}), or silver oxide (Ag_2O) [156]. These reaction conditions usually avoid side chain isomerisation and chromanol cyclisation and have been optimised to avoid 2-alkylation [156]. However, the fundamental limitation of this reaction pathway is the inherent instability of the allylic alcohol component owing to the acidic conditions employed [156].

Another standard method for the introduction of the isoprenoid side chain into the 3-position of 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone is the Friedel-Crafts alkylation of 2-methylnaphthalene-1,4-diol or 1-monoester derivatives with phytol or polyprenyl alcohols [157]. A key disadvantage

of this method is chromanol formation and side chain cyclisation, which make it difficult to isolate the final product [158].

In addition, Sato et al. [157] demonstrated MK synthesis through the activation of the side chain component as a nucleophile via a π -allyl-nickel intermediate to enable direct addition to a quinone or coupling with a protected 2-methyl-3-bromonaphthoquinol, followed by oxidation to achieve the corresponding prenylated quinone [16, 156].

Baj et al. [159] have also explored the chemical synthesis of MK-7 using a stereoselective approach comprising a “1 + 6” convergent strategy involving the condensation of two building blocks, a menadione monoprenyl derivative (fragment “1”) with hexaprenyl bromide (fragment “6”). This synthetic pathway resulted in the production of MK-7 exclusively in the all-*trans* configuration [159].

Therefore, the procedures used for the production of synthetic MK-7 preparations are an important consideration with respect to the proportion of MK-7 isomers obtained, as during the chemical synthesis of MK-7, *cis/trans* isomers, relative to the all-*trans* form, can be acquired in a ratio of 1:3, 1:2, or not at all, depending on the method of synthesis [15].

2.8.3 Chemical transformations and isomerisation

The geometric isomerisation of isoprenoid units in the structure of MK-7 can occur under numerous conditions, particularly as a result of the methods used in the chemical synthesis of the vitamin and various technological processes, purification techniques, environmental factors, and storage conditions [13, 15, 17, 120, 122, 128].

Isomerisation largely occurs due to light exposure, notably ultraviolet (UV) radiation [13, 15, 17, 128, 160]. In addition, oxidation catalysed by high temperatures or the effect of radicals promotes the formation of epoxides and *cis* double bonds at various locations in the isoprenoid side chain of MK-7 [13, 15, 17, 158]. These processes may occur during the preparation of microcapsules containing MK-7, a precursor of dietary supplements in the form of hard tablets and capsules [13, 15, 17].

In the case of naturally derived MK-7 dietary supplements, isomerisation of the all-*trans* isomer of the vitamin may arise as a consequence of the technological procedures used to manufacture hard tablets and capsules and/or due to auto-oxidation processes promoted by exposure to atmospheric oxygen, light, and elevated temperatures during the storage of the supplement [13, 15, 17]. However, it is yet to be determined if similar processes occur for MK-7-enriched functional foods obtained from bacterial fermentation.

2.9 Issues associated with MK-7 production

Although MK-7 can be produced chemically, which is more economical, the recent market trend endorsing natural and organic alternatives over synthetic formulations has rendered fermentation-based synthesis a more favourable option from a consumer’s perspective. Hence,

consumers often prefer naturally derived products, which are considered to provide greater health benefits compared to synthetic preparations. Fermentation can also naturally enhance the nutrient profile and sensory characteristics of various products, increasing their appeal to consumers [102, 161-163]. Furthermore, microbial fermentation is a more sustainable process for the large-scale production of MK-7, and using natural production methods can satisfy the market demand and sustainable development goals [96, 164, 165].

However, several challenges are linked to the natural synthesis of MK-7, the main problem being the low fermentation yield. Additionally, the large number of tedious unit operations required in the downstream processing of the vitamin increase its cost of production and raise the price of the final product, reducing its accessibility [166]. Thus, there is a need for innovative methods and technologies to enhance the fermentation yield and/or reduce the number of unit operations involved, as well as ensure that the bioactive all-*trans* isomer is produced almost exclusively or in the most significant proportion. In this regard, employing nano-sized materials with novel properties in the fermentation process is a promising technique that can overcome the barriers of MK-7 production.

2.10 Nanomaterials (NMs)

NMs are materials with structural components smaller than 1 μm (1000 nm) in at least one dimension and are often referred to as particulate dispersions or solid particles with a size of 10-1000 nm [167, 168]. NMs have gained extensive interest due to their exceptional physicochemical and biological properties, which make them suitable for different purposes in several sectors, such as science, technology, and medicine. The nanoscale size of NMs provides a large surface-area-to-volume ratio and confers unique physical, chemical, biological, mechanical, electrical, structural, morphological, and optical properties not observed in the corresponding bulk material [167, 169-172]. Such distinctive properties and novel characteristics play a fundamental role in determining the suitability of nanomaterials for an assortment of innovative applications. NMs can be classified into three broad categories, NPs, nanoclays (NCs), and nanoemulsions (NEs), which have different structures and can be synthesised using various methods [173].

NPs have been employed in a vast range of industrial and other uses in numerous fields, such as electronics, optics, agriculture, wastewater treatment, catalysis, sensing, and biomedicine, as well as in the food, cosmetic, and chemical industries [170-175]. In addition, NPs can be applied to the fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7 to address the major issues associated with MK-7 production. NPs can be implemented to improve the productivity of the process by enhancing the metabolic efficiency of the cells and/or decrease the number of downstream unit operations (process intensification) through bacterial cell immobilisation. The subsequent sections provide a brief overview of the types of NPs and discuss the potential of NPs to overcome the challenges of MK-7 fermentation.

2.10.1 Types of NPs

Depending on their composition and chemical characteristics, NPs can be classified as either organic or inorganic [173, 176]. The two forms of NPs differ in their methods of synthesis, and variation in important chemical and physical parameters, including the temperature, pH, solvent type, and precursors, enables the production of NPs with different morphologies and properties that can be customised for specific applications [172, 173, 176].

2.10.1.1 Organic NPs (ONPs)

ONPs are largely composed of organic materials, such as lipids, proteins, carbohydrates, and other organic compounds, and are commonly employed to enhance the nutrient value of food systems and the delivery of essential nutrients or pharmaceuticals [173, 176-178]. Several synthesis techniques can be used for the fabrication of ONPs, and these can be classed as top-down (high-energy) or bottom-up (low-energy) procedures (Figure 2-5). The two approaches can also be combined to produce ONPs.

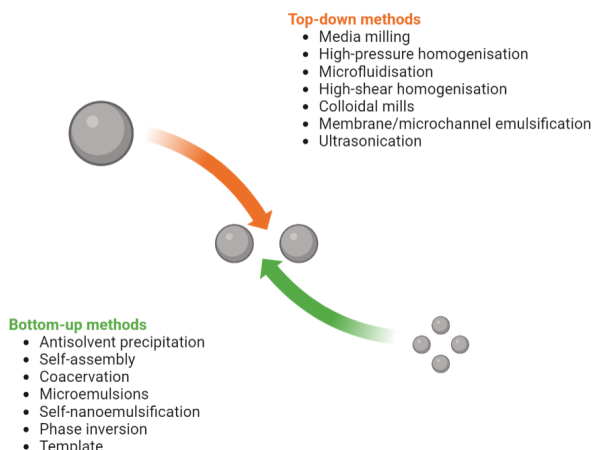


Figure 2-5 Top-down and bottom-up methods typically used to produce ONPs (adapted from Pan and Zhong [177])

2.10.1.2 Inorganic NPs (INPs)

INPs are synthesised from inorganic materials, such as metals, metal oxides, or metal carbonates [174, 176]. Silver (Ag) and gold (Au) NPs are the most prevalent metallic NPs, which possess antimicrobial, antiviral, and antifungal activity and have extensive use in environmental remediation and food and biomedical applications [174, 176, 179-186]. Zinc oxide (ZnO), copper oxide (CuO), iron oxide (Fe₂O₃), magnetite (Fe₃O₄), silica (SiO₂), and titanium dioxide (TiO₂) are the most widespread metal oxide NPs, which are employed for the synthesis of industrial products and have numerous food, biomedical, agricultural, environmental, electrical, catalytic, gas sensing, and energy-related uses [174, 176, 180, 187-191]. Calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), barium carbonate (BaCO₃), and copper carbonate (CuCO₃) are the most common metal carbonate NPs

that serve a range of biomedical [192-194], catalytic [195-197], and antimicrobial [198, 199] functions.

Two general approaches can be implemented for the synthesis of INPs, top-down and bottom-up techniques, and these can be further grouped into three broad categories, namely physical, chemical, and biological processes (Figure 2-6) [191, 200].

Physical Methods	Chemical Methods	Biological Methods
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High-energy ball milling • Inert gas condensation • Pulsed vapour deposition <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sputtering • Electron beam evaporation • Laser ablation/pulsed laser deposition • Vacuum arc • Chemical vapour deposition • Ion implantation • Atomic layer deposition • Molecular beam epitaxy • Laser pyrolysis • Flash spray pyrolysis • Electrospraying • Melt-mixing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sol-gel synthesis • Co-precipitation • Microemulsion technique • Microwave-assisted synthesis • Hydrothermal synthesis • Sonochemical synthesis • Electrochemical synthesis • Photochemical synthesis • Chemical reduction • Polyol synthesis • Chemical vapour synthesis • Plasma-enhanced chemical vapour deposition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Microorganism-assisted biogenesis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prokaryotic bacteria • Actinomycetes • Fungi • Algae • Yeast • Biotemplate-assisted biogenesis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nucleic acids • Membranes • Viruses • Diatoms • Plant extract-assisted biogenesis

Figure 2-6 Physical, chemical, and biological approaches commonly employed to synthesise INPs

In the context of MK-7 biosynthesis, INPs are the most relevant to enhance the MK-7 concentration and yield, and they also present a favourable approach to refine the industrial production of MK-7 through bioprocess intensification.

2.10.2 The potential of NPs to address the challenges of MK-7 production

Of the various INPs, iron-based NPs, specifically IONs and iron oxyhydroxide (FeOOH) NPs, have the ability to boost the MK-7 yield and improve the productivity of the fermentation process. IONs also possess superparamagnetic properties, which can be exploited to aid bacterial cell recovery, making them a prospective novel tool to address the current challenges of industrial MK-7 fermentation [166]. Alternatively, FeOOH NPs are food grade and can be used to enhance the MK-7 content of MK-7-enriched functional food products [201]. Thus, depending on their nature and properties, iron-based NPs can be tailored to aid MK-7 production in different applications.

2.10.2.1 Bacterial cell immobilisation and the use of IONs to facilitate MK-7 production

2.10.2.1.1 Bacterial cell immobilisation

Bacterial cell immobilisation involves the physical confinement of viable microbial cells to a defined region of space in order to limit free migration [202].

2.10.2.1.1.1 IONs and magnetic cell immobilisation

There are many types of IONs, such as Fe_3O_4 , hematite ($\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$), maghemite ($\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$), wustite (FeO), $\epsilon\text{-Fe}_3\text{O}_4$, and $\beta\text{-Fe}_3\text{O}_4$, and of these, Fe_3O_4 is typically used to enhance MK-7 production [203, 204]. Of the myriad pathways available for the synthesis of IONs, the co-precipitation of ferrous (Fe^{2+}) and Fe^{3+} ions by an alkali, usually ammonium hydroxide (NH_4OH) or sodium hydroxide (NaOH), in an aqueous solution tends to be the preferred (wet chemical) method and is frequently employed to manufacture Fe_3O_4 NPs [205, 206]. The size, shape, and composition of the resulting IONs are dependent on several key synthesis parameters, including the nature of the salts used, the reaction pH and temperature, the ionic strength of the media, and the ratio of Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} ions present in the solution [204, 207]. These factors can also be altered to achieve different properties and allow the surface functionalisation of IONs to promote specific interactions with bacterial cells [203]. The main advantages of the co-precipitation method are that it is fairly simple and efficient and enables the synthesis of large quantities of NPs; however, difficulties in controlling the particle size distribution and the formation of impurities, such as goethite ($\alpha\text{-FeOOH}$) and $\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, are the primary drawbacks of this technique [204, 208, 209].

IONs have gained considerable interest in bacterial cell immobilisation due to their unique physicochemical properties, such as superparamagnetism, large surface-area-to-volume ratio, biocompatibility, and simple separation methodology [203]. Magnetic cell immobilisation involves the decoration of bacterial cells with magnetic NPs or the entrapment of bacterial cells within clusters of magnetic NPs [203]. The surface of bacterial cells can be easily decorated with IONs through various non-specific interactions, including hydrogen bonds, Van der Waals forces, electrostatic attractions, and hydrophobic interactions [166]. This technique, unlike the other common immobilisation methods, enables a higher specific yield, does not impede mass transfer, and combines the benefits of immobilisation with free-cell fermentation. The cells can also be readily separated from the fermentation broth with an external magnetic field, which does not significantly compromise the viability and reusability of the immobilised cells and allows simple downstream processing with fewer steps [166].

2.10.2.1.1.2 Bacterial responses to magnetic cell immobilisation

Bacterial attachment to a solid surface, such as IONs, is influenced by various characteristics of microbial cells, including the age and physiological state of cells, the surface

charge and hydrophobicity, the presence of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS), the existence of surface proteins and glycocalyx, and the occurrence of cell wall structures, such as pili and fimbriae [202]. The environmental and culture conditions also play a role in determining the success and efficiency of the magnetic immobilisation procedure. The most notable factors are temperature, pH, oxygen concentration, hydrodynamic interactions, adhesive forces, nutrient availability, flow velocity, rheology, and the presence of antimicrobial agents, cations, and anions [202]. Additionally, the nature and properties of IONs, including their hydrophobicity, porosity, roughness, superficial charge, and toxicity, impact bacterial attachment and the efficacy of magnetic immobilisation [202]. The particle size, concentration, shape, and surface functionality of IONs are also key parameters that influence the success of magnetic immobilisation. Therefore, synthesising IONs with characteristics appropriate for the desired application and optimising various factors are of utmost importance for the success of this technique and achieving a high immobilisation efficiency.

It is also essential to consider the effect of IONs on bacterial cells, as the interaction between IONs and the bacterial cell surface may or may not be favourable, depending on the metabolic response(s) exhibited by the bacterial cells upon interaction with the NPs. The many possible metabolic responses of bacterial cells to immobilisation with IONs are summarised in Figure 2-7, and the specific metabolic response(s) observed following magnetic immobilisation with IONs can vary with the bacterial species, the properties of the IONs, and the culture conditions [203, 204].

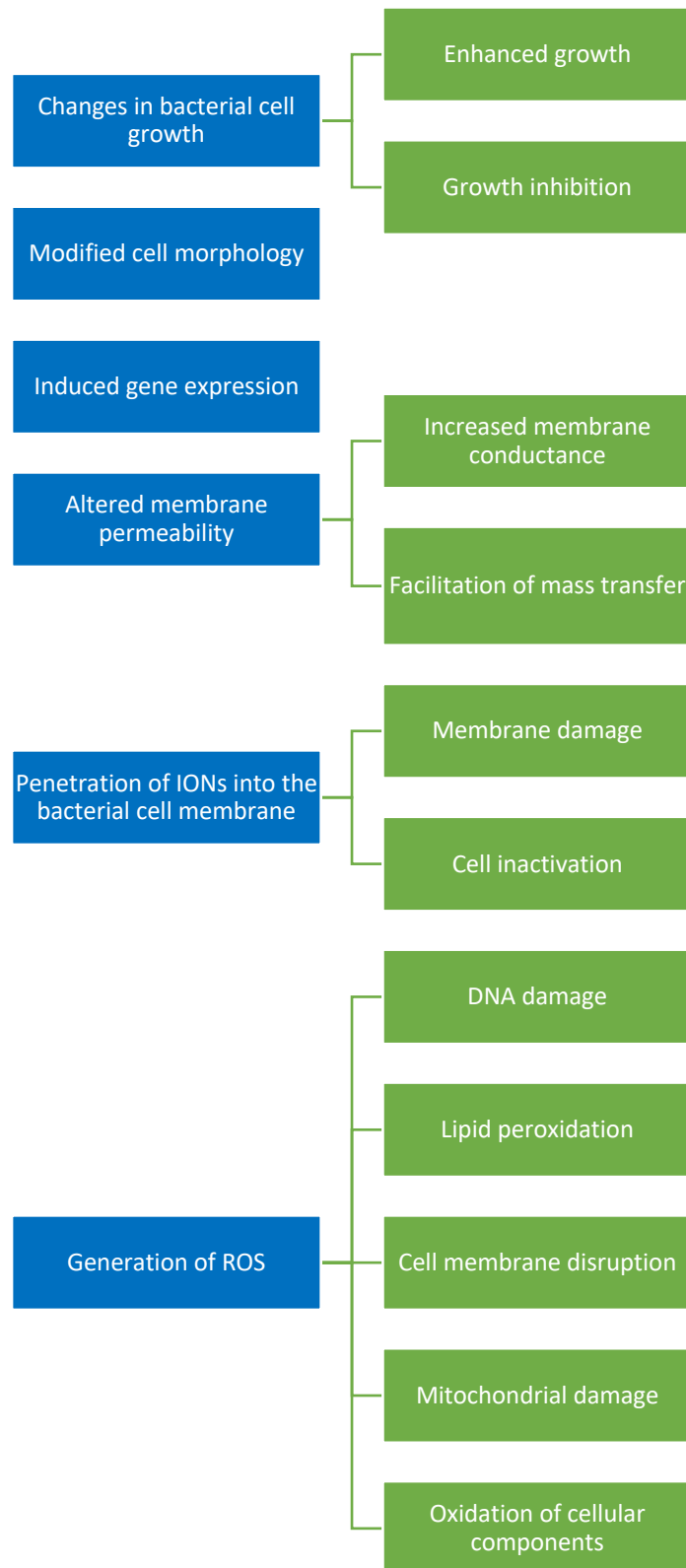


Figure 2-7 Potential metabolic responses of bacterial cells to immobilisation with IONs (adapted from Ranmadugala et al. [203])

2.10.2.1.2 The use of IONs to facilitate MK-7 production

Several studies have investigated the ability of bacterial cell immobilisation with IONs to enhance MK-7 production and aid cell recovery for process intensification [166, 210, 211]. In

these studies, the surface of *B. subtilis natto* cells was decorated with IONs via non-specific interactions.

Ebrahiminezhad et al. [166] and Ebrahiminezhad et al. [210] considered four different concentrations of IONs (0 µg/mL, 50 µg/mL, 100 µg/mL, and 150 µg/mL) and examined the impact of magnetic immobilisation on cell growth, MK-7 production, and the possibility for in situ product recovery and cell recycling. The findings from both investigations were comparable, and it was determined that MK-7 production increased over the five-day fermentation period for all tested concentrations of IONs. The majority of MK-7 was synthesised during the bacterial growth phase, while a smaller amount was produced during the stationary phase. This demonstrated that MK-7 production is partly growth-associated. It was also observed that IONs slightly inhibited bacterial growth; however, they did not have a negative effect on MK-7 production. Moreover, a higher MK-7 specific yield was noted for the magnetically immobilised bacterial cells in comparison to the untreated cells, suggesting that magnetically immobilised cells are more metabolically efficient due to the interactions between the IONs and the bacterial cell surface. It has been proposed that the attachment of NPs to the bacterial cell surface improves the permeability of the cell membrane. This is facilitated by the non-specific interactions between the IONs and the membrane compounds, which promote disorganisation of the lipid packing and increase the membrane permeability. Hence, although the presence of IONs slightly decreased bacterial growth, the enhanced metabolic efficiency of the cells facilitated greater MK-7 secretion into the fermentation medium, resulting in a higher MK-7 specific yield.

The IONs synthesised in both studies also exhibited superparamagnetism, which plays a crucial role in cell separation and dispersion through the application and removal of an external magnetic field. This is advantageous as MK-7 is an extracellular product; thus, it can be easily recovered by cell removal using an external magnetic field. The cell separation efficiency in both reports demonstrated a dose-dependent increase in the number of captured microorganisms, with the best capture efficiency (more than 90%) attained at an ION concentration of 150 µg/mL. This was mainly attributable to more magnetic particles on the surface of the bacterial cells at higher concentrations. The prospect of running successive recycle batches was also explored in both investigations, and it was noticed that the capture efficiency and MK-7 production achieved in consecutive cycles were not substantially compromised. This indicates that magnetic immobilisation with IONs is a promising approach for process intensification, as magnetic separation technology is scalable and can be effectively incorporated into a recycle loop in a bioreactor to allow the rapid recovery of bacterial cells during fermentation. In this regard, designing intensified bioreactors, with the aid of bacterial cell immobilisation, enables the integration of product formation and cell recovery, which has various advantages, such as cell reusability, simple equipment requirements, and low energy consumption [166]. Therefore, bacterial cell immobilisation with IONs is a favourable technique that can be employed to overcome the limitations of industrial MK-7 production.

It is essential to appreciate that Ebrahiminezhad et al. [166] considered naked IONs, whereas Ebrahiminezhad et al. [210] synthesised L-Lys@IONs. Naked IONs and L-Lys@IONs tend to display similar properties; however, naked IONs exhibit high non-specific binding, low physicochemical stability, and microbial toxicity [208, 210]. Biocompatible coatings, especially amino acids, could eliminate such unfavourable effects. Amino acids are an ideal coating material due to their chemical stability, surface activity, and biocompatibility [210]. L-Lys is particularly desirable, as it does not have any detrimental effects on the important characteristics of IONs. It also introduces amine functional groups to the structure of the NPs, which improves their interaction with negatively charged cell membrane domains and increases the potential for surface interactions [210]. Consequently, coated IONs present a better alternative to uncoated IONs, as although both coated and naked IONs enable a similar MK-7 yield, coated IONs have superior properties and excellent biocompatibility.

Ranmadugala et al. [211] have also assessed the effect of amine-functionalised NPs, specifically IONs@APTES, on bacterial growth and MK-7 production. The APTES coating confers the same properties as L-Lys but offers additional benefits, as it prevents the oxidation of NPs and preserves their crystalline structure [211]. In the study carried out by Ranmadugala et al. [211], it was established that IONs@APTES enhanced the production and yield of MK-7. The experimental conditions employed in this investigation were similar to the studies conducted by Ebrahiminezhad et al. [166] and Ebrahiminezhad et al. [210]. However, it was found that compared to naked IONs and L-Lys@IONs, IONs@APTES allowed a higher MK-7 concentration to be achieved (relative to the untreated cells) over a five-day course of fermentation. Of the IONs@APTES concentrations considered (0 µg/mL, 100 µg/mL, 200 µg/mL, 300 µg/mL, 400 µg/mL, 500 µg/mL, 600 µg/mL, and 700 µg/mL), a concentration of 500 µg/L resulted in maximal MK-7 production (41 mg/L), which was approximately twice that of the untreated cells (22 mg/L). The MK-7 specific yield was also higher for the IONs@APTES in comparison to the untreated cells, and it was determined that an IONs@APTES concentration of 200 µg/L was the optimum, as it enabled the greatest MK-7 specific yield and resulted in high overall productivity during *B. subtilis* fermentation. In addition, the IONs@APTES were compatible with *B. subtilis* cells and did not impede bacterial growth within the tested concentrations. This was in contrast to naked IONs [166] and L-Lys@IONs [210], which hindered the growth of *B. subtilis* over the fermentation period.

In another study, Ranmadugala et al. [212] evaluated the impact of IONs@APTES on biofilm formation and the growth and viability of *B. subtilis* cells. Biofilm formation is one of the dominant issues in industrial fermentation, as it leads to many process and operational problems that decrease the performance of the process, reduce the yield and quality of the desired product, and increase the process and equipment-related costs [212]. This investigation compared the effect of naked IONs and IONs@APTES with untreated cells, and it was determined that 100 µg/mL of IONs@APTES significantly decreased biofilm formation without compromising cell

growth and viability. In contrast, naked IONs had a negative effect on cell viability at higher concentrations and showed no notable reduction in biofilm formation. Therefore, IONs@APTES appear to be the most promising to boost the MK-7 yield, promote cell growth and viability, reduce biofilm formation, decrease production costs, and increase the overall productivity of the fermentation system.

Essentially, the results of these studies imply that IONs are a valuable tool to enhance the MK-7 yield and overcome the obstacles in the large-scale production of the vitamin.

2.10.2.2 Food grade NPs and the development of MK-7-enriched functional food products

NPs have been extensively used for a range of food-related applications, such as food preservation, fortification, and packaging, as well as for the development of food grade NP-based delivery systems and for improving the shelf life, quality, and safety of food products [169-171, 173, 213-215].

While many studies [166, 210, 211] have demonstrated the ability of iron NPs to enhance the MK-7 yield in fermentation processes, they have not explicitly explored this in the context of food-related applications. Instead, they have largely focused on overcoming the primary challenges accompanying the industrial fermentation and purification of MK-7, such as increasing MK-7 production, decreasing the number of downstream processing steps, and reducing biofilm formation. However, more recently, Novin et al. [201] have considered the application of iron (FeOOH) NPs to boost MK-7 production for the development of a MK-7-enriched functional dairy product.

It is essential to note that in order for NPs to be suitable for inclusion in functional food products, they must be biocompatible and should not possess any harmful properties that could pose a health risk, as, unlike magnetic NPs, they are free-floating and remain in the final product. Uncoated iron NPs are toxic to biological systems and environments and have insufficient physicochemical stability, including poor solubility and biocompatibility [201, 216]. Hence, it is beneficial to manipulate their surfaces using coatings or other components to improve their biocompatibility and eliminate any detrimental properties. NPs with biocompatible coatings have been approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for biomedical applications [201, 216-218]. Although assorted materials can be implemented to modify NPs for food-related applications, polysaccharides, particularly microbial polysaccharides, are preferable, as they have better water solubility and stability and result in fewer side effects on the organism [219]. Of the various microbial polysaccharides, xanthan gum (XG) is the most commercially favourable due to its unique rheological properties and stability over a range of temperature and pH conditions [220, 221]. It is also a safe and non-toxic polymer (FDA-approved) widely used in the food industry as an emulsifier, thickener, and stabiliser in food products [220, 221]. Thus, the

characteristics of XG make it an ideal coating agent for synthesising biocompatible NPs for food-related applications.

In the study by Novin et al. [201], naked and XG-coated FeOOH NPs were synthesised and compared regarding their ability to boost the MK-7 yield for the production of a fermented functional dairy product. It was demonstrated that 3 mg/L of XG-coated and 12 mg/L of naked FeOOH NPs significantly increased bacterial growth and MK-7 biosynthesis relative to the control samples. While the naked FeOOH NPs also enhanced the MK-7 yield, a greater concentration was required than the XG-coated FeOOH NPs. Furthermore, naked iron NPs are toxic and unsuitable for human consumption, whereas XG-coated NPs are biocompatible. The iron-polysaccharide complex also provides additional benefits, such as good tolerability, improved bioavailability, and a higher percentage of iron. Overall, the results of this research illustrate the potential for biocompatible XG-coated FeOOH NPs to be used for the development of fermented functional food products rich in MK-7.

2.10.3 NPs and the production of MK-7 isomers

Although various iron-based NPs have been extensively investigated to determine their ability to enhance MK-7 biosynthesis and establish their suitability for process intensification or the development of MK-7-enriched fermented functional food products, their influence on the production of MK-7 isomers has not been examined. While it has been recognised that iron-based NPs can increase the MK-7 yield, the proportion of *cis* MK-7 isomers obtained, together with the all-*trans* form, in the presence of iron-based NPs remains to be elucidated. Considering that only the all-*trans* isomer is biologically active, using NPs to improve the MK-7 concentration and yield is only valuable if the all-*trans* isomer is attained in the most significant proportion. Accordingly, it would be advantageous to assess the impact of magnetic and/or biocompatible iron-based NPs on the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 achieved from fermentation with regard to applications relating to bioprocess intensification or the development of MK-7-enriched functional food products.

2.11 Analysis and measurement of MK-7 isomers

The analysis of MK-7 isomers encompasses two steps, the separation of MK-7 compounds and the identification and quantification of the different isomers [13, 15, 17, 18]. Additionally, the location of *cis* bonds in the isoprenoid side chain and the chemical structure of the isomers can be determined using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy [13, 15, 17].

Numerous methods are available for quantifying the vitamin K series in different matrices. Most studies have solely considered the analysis of PK and MKs and have not assessed the isomer profile of the constituent compounds. Only a few investigations have evaluated vitamin K1 isomers, and a comparatively smaller number have specifically focused on the quantification of MK-7 isomers. The analytical techniques used in several vitamin analysis studies are summarised

in Table 2-3, and the following sections provide an overview of the key analytical procedures and highlight some of the possible challenges involved in the analysis and measurement of MK-7 isomers.

Table 2-3 Summary of the analytical methods employed in various vitamin analysis studies

Sample Type(s)	Compound(s) Determined	Column(s)	Analytical Technique(s)	Reference
Dietary supplements	MK-7 isomers	COSMOSIL cholestero column (150 mm × 2 mm × 3 μm)	UHPLC-DAD-CAD-QTOF (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[15]
Foods commonly consumed in Australia	PK, MK-4, and MK-7	Reversed-phase Accucore PFP HPLC column (100 mm × 2.1 mm × 2.6 μm)	LC-MS/MS (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[222]
Plasma	PK	ProntoSil C ₃₀ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	LC-APCI-MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[223]
Food items frequently consumed in Japan	PK and MKs	Capcell Pak C ₁₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	HPLC-FL 320 nm or 240 nm/430 nm, reduction with Pt (reactor 15 mm × 4 mm)	[224]
Serum	PK, MK-4, and MK-7	SB-C ₈ (100 mm × 2.1 mm × 1.8 μm)	LC-MS/MS (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[42]
Faeces, serum, and food	PK and MKs	Phenomenex Kinetex C ₁₈ column (150 mm × 3 mm × 2.6 μm)	LC-APCI-MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[225]
Assorted products	Vitamin K1 isomers	YMC C ₃₀ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 3 μm)	LC-APCI/IM-MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[226]
Plasma	MK-7	Phenomenex Kinetex C ₁₈ column (100 mm × 4.6 mm × 2.6 μm)	HPLC-FL 335 nm/430 nm (CQ-R 20 mm × 2 mm)	[119]

Selected plant foods	Carotenoids and fat-soluble vitamins, including the vitamin K series	ProntoSil C ₃₀ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	LC-DAD-MS/MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[227]
Various cheeses, meat, fish, and vegetables	Vitamin K	Reversed-phase C ₁₈ column	HPLC-FL 246 nm/430 nm, reduction with Zn	[100]
Fermented foods	PK and MKs	Phenomenex Kinetex C ₁₈ column (100 mm × 2.1 mm × 1.7 μm)	UHPLC-APCI-MS/MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[18]
Synthetic MK-7 preparation	MK-7 isomers	ACE 5 C ₁₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm) and COSMOSIL 5C ₁₈ -MS-II column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	Semi-preparative HPLC with silver complexation (detection at 268 nm) and NMR spectroscopy (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[126]
Infant formulas	Vitamin K1 isomers	YMC C ₃₀ column (150 mm × 4.6 mm × 3 μm)	UPLC-ESI-MS/MS (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[128]
Serum	Vitamin K analogues	Shodex C ₁₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	HPLC-EC, reduction with a Pt catalyst (column 10 mm × 4.6 mm) (EC detector operated in the oxidation mode)	[228]
Animal products	PK and MKs	Vydac 201 TP54 C ₁₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	HPLC-FL 238 nm/425 nm, reduction with Zn (reactor 50 mm × 2.1 mm)	[229]
Plasma	Carotenoids and PK	YMC C ₃₀ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 3 μm)	LC-APCI-MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[230]
Dietary supplements	MK-7 isomers	COSMOSIL cholester column (250 mm × 10 mm × 5 μm)	UHPLC-DAD-CAD-QTOF (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[17]

Rat tissues	Vitamin K1 isomers	YMC C ₃₀ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 3 μm)	HPLC-FL 243 nm/430 nm, reduction with Zn (reactor 20 mm × 4 mm)	[231]
Plasma	Vitamin K1	Alltima C ₁₈ column (150 mm × 2.1 mm × 3 μm)	LC-APCI-MS/MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[232]
Various fermented dairy products	MKs	Phenomenex Gemini C ₁₈ column (100 mm × 4.6 mm × 3 μm)	HPLC-FL 220 nm/436 nm, reduction with Zn (reactor 50 mm × 4 mm)	[233]
Fruits and vegetables	PK	Phenomenex Kinetex PFP column (100 mm × 2.1 mm × 2.6 μm)	LC-APCI-MS/MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[234]
Danish cheese products	PK and MKs	Ascentis Express C ₁₈ guard column (5 mm × 2.1 mm × 2.7 μm) Ascentis Express C ₁₈ HPLC column (100 mm × 2.1 mm × 2.7 μm)	LC-ESI-MS/MS (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[99]
Plasma	Vitamin K homologues	Capcell Pak C ₁₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	LC-APCI-MS/MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[235]
Serum and staple foods consumed by the Indian population	PK and MK-7	Phenomenex Kinetex C ₁₈ column (100 mm × 4.6 mm × 2.6 μm)	HPLC-FL 248 nm/430 nm, reduction with Zn (reactor 30 mm × 4 mm)	[236]
Avocados	Fat-soluble vitamins and carotenoids	YMC Carotenoid C ₃₀ column (150 mm × 4.6 mm × 3 μm)	LC-MS (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[237]
Margarines	PK and dihydro-vitamin K1	YMC C ₃₀ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 3 μm)	HPLC-FL 243 nm/430 nm, reduction with Zn (reactor 20 mm × 4 mm)	[238]

Plasma	Vitamin K1 isomers	COSMOSIL cholesterol column (75 mm × 3 mm × 2.5 μm)	UFLC-APCI-MS/MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[239]
Hazelnut, broccoli, cheese, and pork	PK, MK-4, MK-7, and MK-9	Ascentis Express C ₁₈ HPLC column (100 mm × 2.1 mm × 2.7 μm)	LC-MS/MS (APCI and ESI were compared in the positive ionisation mode)	[92]
Plasma	PK	Hypersil BDS C ₁₈ column (150 mm × 3.2 mm × 3 μm)	HPLC-FL 244 nm/430 nm, reduction with Zn (reactor 50 mm × 2.1 mm)	[240]
Dietary supplements	MK-7 isomers	COSMOSIL cholesterol column (250 mm × 10 mm × 5 μm)	UHPLC-QTOF and NMR spectroscopy (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[13]
Oils, margarines, and butter	PK	Vydac 201 TP54 C ₁₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	HPLC-EC (dual-electrode EC detector operated in the redox mode)	[241]
Wide range of food products	Vitamin K1 isomers	YMC C ₃₀ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 3 μm)	HPLC-FL 243 nm/430 nm, reduction with Zn (reactor 20 mm × 4 mm)	[19]
Plasma	Vitamin K1	Sepax GP C ₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	HPLC-APCI-MS (APCI in the positive ionisation mode)	[242]
Vegetables, fruits, and berries	PK	Vydac 201 TP54 C ₁₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	HPLC-EC (dual-electrode EC detector operated in the redox mode)	[243]
Meat, fish, fruits, vegetables, dairy, oils,	PK and MKs	Reversed-phase C ₁₈ column	HPLC-FL 246 nm/430 nm, post-column EC reduction	[91]

margarines, bread, and beverages				
Honey	MKs	Waters Acquity BEH C ₁₈ column (150 mm × 2.1 mm × 1.8 μm)	UPLC-UV-MS (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[244]
Serum	Fat-soluble vitamins	Agilent Pursuit PFP column (100 mm × 3 mm × 3 μm)	LC-MS/MS (ESI in the positive ionisation mode)	[245]
MK-7 formulations of different origins	MK-6 and MK-7 isomers	Phenomenex Kinetex C ₁₈ column (100 mm × 4.6 mm × 2.6 μm) Acclaim C ₃₀ column (250 mm × 2.1 mm × 3 μm)	HPLC-UV (detection at 268 nm and 248 nm) HPLC-FL 245 nm/430 nm, reduction with Zn (reactor 30 mm × 4 mm)	[120]
Infant formula	Vitamin K1 isomers	YMC C ₃₀ column (150 mm × 4.6 mm × 3 μm)	ID-LC-MS/MS (APCI and ESI were compared in the positive ionisation mode)	[246]
Assorted food products	Vitamins D and K	Zorbax Eclipse ODS non-encapped C ₁₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	LC-DAD and LC-APCI-MS (APCI in the negative ionisation mode followed by the positive ionisation mode)	[247]
Plasma	Vitamin K1	Spherisorb Ultrasphere ODS Beckman C ₁₈ column (125 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 μm)	HPLC-FL 244 nm/430 nm, reduction with Zn (reactor 50 mm × 4.6 mm)	[248]

2.11.1 Chromatographic separation

High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) is the preferred method for the analysis of vitamin K compounds [18, 39, 249]. HPLC is ideal for this purpose, as it operates at a moderate temperature and protects samples from exposure to light during the chromatographic run, which decreases the potential for sample damage [39, 249]. It also enables high sensitivity and significant resolution [39, 249, 250]. In addition, HPLC is a highly versatile technique, as various combinations of stationary phases, columns, and detection methods can be used to suit the analytical requirements of different compounds [249].

2.11.1.1 Column

It has been noted that the type of chromatography column used to separate vitamin K isomers plays a vital role in determining the efficiency and degree of separation achieved [128]. Several columns are available for chromatographic separations. The reversed-phase C₁₈ and C₃₀ columns are frequently used to separate fat-soluble vitamins due to the hydrophobic nature of the stationary phase in these columns [251]. C₁₈ columns are the most commonly used for separating and analysing K vitamers; however, they cannot discern geometric isomers [39, 128, 249]. In contrast, C₃₀ columns can effectively separate geometric and positional isomers of structurally similar molecules, including the *cis* and *trans* isomers of vitamin K compounds [18, 19, 238, 252, 253]. C₃₀ columns usually have a stationary phase consisting of C₃₀ alkyl silane, which enables high shape selectivity and is, thus, ideal for the separation of hydrophobic structurally related isomers [18, 19, 160, 238, 252, 253]. Huang et al. [128] compared the ability of C₁₈ and C₃₀ columns to separate *cis* and *trans* vitamin K1 isomers in infant formulas, and it was found that only the C₃₀ column was able to accomplish complete separation. Numerous other investigations considering the separation of vitamin K isomers and other fat-soluble vitamins, such as the studies by Cook et al. [238], Fu et al. [223], Gentili and Caretti [227], Lee et al. [246], Woollard et al. [19], and Xiao et al. [226], have also reported the use of a C₃₀ column for this purpose.

Szterk et al. [17], Szterk et al. [15], Sitkowski et al. [13], and Bus et al. [126] employed a COSMOSIL cholesterol column to separate *cis* and *trans* MK-7 isomers in MK-7 dietary supplements and synthetic preparations. COSMOSIL cholesterol columns are reversed-phase columns that contain silica-bonded cholesteryl groups as the stationary phase, which provide increased stereoselectivity and improved resolution for geometric isomers relative to alkyl-bonded materials [239, 254]. Therefore, compared to regular C₃₀ columns, COSMOSIL cholesterol columns will likely enable the superior separation of *cis* and *trans* MK-7 isomers.

2.11.1.2 Detection methods

Many detection methods are available to identify the eluted compounds following post-column derivatisation [18]. Standard techniques include UV, fluorescence (FL), and electrochemical (EC) detection [18, 39, 229, 238, 240, 241, 243, 248].

Although EC detection offers greater sensitivity and selectivity, it is rarely used for analysing vitamin K in food products owing to the oxygen sensitivity of this method, which results in a high background current [39, 228]. It is also not possible to efficiently separate different vitamin K compounds in a reasonable timeframe with an EC detector [229, 255]. Thus, UV and FL detectors are more favourable for the detection of K vitamers in a range of samples [39].

FL detectors have high sensitivity and are suitable for analysing samples where vitamin K is present at low concentrations, such as in plasma [39, 229]. It must be acknowledged that vitamin K compounds do not exhibit natural FL. Consequently, its naphthoquinone ring must be reduced to the highly fluorescent hydroquinone analogue for it to be detected using the FL method [39, 234, 235]. This can be achieved either through EC reduction or post-column reduction with a zinc (Zn) or platinum (Pt) catalyst [39, 234, 235]. Although FL detectors have a high sensitivity, extensive sample preparation requirements and chemical derivatisation may decrease the accuracy and precision of this method [246].

While FL detection is typically used for the determination of vitamin K compounds in different matrices, such as various food items and biological material, UV detection is regularly employed for the quantification of MKs, including MK-7, in fermented samples [37, 101, 112, 149, 211, 256]. The method outlined in the USP Monograph also recommends the use of UV detection for the analysis of MK-7 [257], and Jedynek et al. [258] have further developed the suggested approach to obtain an optimised HPLC-UV procedure for the evaluation of MK-7 in samples of different purities. This technique is superior to that outlined in the USP Monograph, as it enables enhanced sensitivity, selectivity, and accuracy, and it also reduces the analytical time and the consumption of both sample and solvent. UV detection is generally carried out at a wavelength of 248 nm or 268 nm, and most studies have used a wavelength of 248 nm, as it results in the highest absorbance [249, 258]. However, 248 nm may be a somewhat non-selective wavelength; hence, other wavelengths, such as 254 nm, 270 nm, or both, can be used for greater selectivity [249]. Despite its comparatively lower selectivity, UV detection offers several advantages relative to the previously discussed detection methods, as it is a reasonably straightforward and time-efficient process and does not require elaborate sample preparation procedures or post-column reactions to facilitate the detection of MK-7. Therefore, based on the success of previous studies employing UV detection for the determination of MK-7 and the merits of this method, UV detection appears to be preferable for the analysis of MK-7, especially in fermented samples.

However, this technique is likely not as suitable to independently discern the geometric isomers of vitamin K due to its inability to accurately identify the separated compounds without a specific analytical standard for each isomer. Conventional HPLC practices rely on reference standards to distinguish the separated compounds, which is accomplished by comparing the unknown peaks from the sample with the peaks from the standard to determine the compound(s) of interest. Although the different isomers have variable retention times owing to their slight

structural dissimilarities (which result in their differing ability to move through the column), the retention time alone is not sufficient to confirm their identity in the absence of distinct reference standards for the *cis* isomers. Consequently, various mass spectrometric methods have been developed in conjunction with liquid chromatography (LC) techniques to enable greater specificity and sensitivity, particularly for analysing isomeric compounds [18].

2.11.2 Identification and quantification using mass spectrometry (MS)

LC-MS methods, in comparison to traditional chromatography detection techniques, provide much greater selectivity and sensitivity and are widely used for vitamin analysis [18, 128, 234].

Numerous studies have reported the use of MS techniques with HPLC for the identification and quantification of various vitamin compounds, including vitamin K, in different types of samples [13, 15, 17, 18, 42, 92, 128, 223, 225-227, 230, 232, 234, 235, 237, 239, 242, 245-247]. Several investigations employing standard MS have utilised a single quadrupole mass spectrometer in selected ion monitoring mode [223, 225, 230, 242, 247]. However, tandem MS (MS/MS) systems offer improved selectivity and sensitivity compared to a single quadrupole MS instrument [18, 234]. Dunovska et al. [42], Gentili and Caretti [227], Huang et al. [128], Jäpelt and Jakobsen [234], Jensen et al. [92], Nannapaneni et al. [239], and Tarvainen et al. [18] have implemented MS/MS for the analysis of vitamins in fruits, vegetables, meat, dairy products, infant formulas, human serum and plasma, and fermented foods. However, the majority of these studies centred on the determination of vitamin K1 isomers or the quantity of vitamin K and other fat-soluble vitamins in different sources and did not explicitly consider the quantification of MK-7 isomers.

It has also been noted that the choice of ionisation method in LC-MS and LC-MS/MS applications is an important consideration due to its influence on the observed matrix effects and the assay sensitivity [239]. Electrospray ionisation (ESI) and atmospheric pressure chemical ionisation (APCI) are the two most widely used ionisation methods. APCI is the most frequently used ionisation method, and the majority of investigations involving the analysis of vitamin compounds have employed APCI in the positive ionisation mode [18, 128, 223, 225-227, 232, 234, 235, 239, 259]. It has also been suggested that relative to the ESI method, APCI is less susceptible to matrix effects [246]. Many studies have also successfully demonstrated the use of positive ESI in vitamin analysis procedures [13, 15, 17, 42, 128]. ESI is a viable alternative to APCI, as vitamin K compounds are quinones, containing two lone pairs of electrons on the oxygen atoms, and have significant hydrogen-bonding capacity [128]. Furthermore, greater sensitivity has been reported with the ESI method compared to APCI [42, 92].

Various investigations have also used quadrupole time-of-flight (QTOF) MS, which offers the advantage of better mass resolution but has a lower dynamic range than other MS detectors [13, 15, 17, 18]. However, QTOF, in combination with other detectors, such as a diode

array detector (DAD) or a charged aerosol detector (CAD), can provide valuable structural information and is likely to be ideal for the analysis of isomers [18]. This has been effectively demonstrated in investigations using ultra-HPLC-DAD-CAD-QTOF (UHPLC-DAD-CAD-QTOF) to determine MK-7 isomers in dietary supplements [13, 15, 17, 18].

Therefore, in addition to conventional chromatographic approaches that utilise standard detection methods, LC-MS or LC-MS/MS techniques are promising for the determination of vitamin K isomers, including *cis* and *trans* MK-7 isomers, in different sources, such as fermented and other food products and dietary supplements, as they offer greater selectivity and sensitivity in the absence of specific reference standards.

2.11.3 Structure determination of MK-7 isomers

The location of *cis* bonds and the specific chemical structure of MK-7 isomers can be determined through NMR spectroscopy [13, 15, 17, 126]. Sitkowski et al. [13] used NMR methods supported by density functional theory (DFT) computations to establish the chemical structure of one of the *cis/trans* isomers of MK-7 ((*E,Z3,E2,ω*)-MK-7) in dietary supplements. Nonetheless, several assumptions and simplifications were required, as this task is relatively complex due to the presence of many repeating isoprenoid units and numerous rotatable single bonds in the structure of MK-7 [13]. Consequently, other researchers have made limited attempts to determine the complete chemical structure of the various *cis/trans* MK-7 isomers [13]. More recently, Bus et al. [126] employed argentation chromatography and NMR techniques to assign chemical shifts and elucidate the structure of thirteen previously unidentified MK-7 isomers and verify the identity of three known isomers (all-*trans* MK-7, (*Z,E5,ω*)-MK-7, and (*E,Z3,E2,ω*)-MK-7) originating from a synthetic MK-7 preparation. The findings of these investigations further support and confirm the existence of multiple *cis* forms of the vitamin in dietary supplements and synthetic formulations. However, it is not yet clear whether the same holds true for fermented products.

Even though it is possible to ascertain the full chemical structure of MK-7 isomers, for the purpose of determining the quality and biological function of natural and synthetic MK-7 preparations, differentiation between MK-7 subtypes and quantification of the proportion of isomers present in samples from different sources are sufficient [15, 17]. Hence, complete structure determination of the identified isomers is not essential.

2.11.4 Potential challenges associated with the analysis of MK-7 isomers

Compared to conventional MK-7 analysis, which does not consider the isomer composition of samples, the analysis and measurement of MK-7 isomers entail several challenges. The primary and most significant obstacle is the lack of reference standards for the various *cis* isomers, as only the all-*trans* MK-7 standard is available [15, 17]. Without suitable reference standards, identifying and quantifying *cis* MK-7 isomers in analytical samples are not as simple. Since the *cis* isomers are not naturally occurring compounds and numerous *cis/trans* isomers are

potentially attainable, it is not feasible to have a specific reference standard for each *cis* form of MK-7, which is a likely explanation for the lack of analytical standards for the *cis* isomers.

The series of studies carried out by Szterk et al. [17], Szterk et al. [15], and Sitkowski et al. [13] successfully illustrated the use of only the all-*trans* MK-7 standard for the analysis of MK-7 isomers in dietary supplements. The samples were initially analysed using a stereoselective chromatography column to separate the MK-7 isomers, and the peaks in the resulting chromatograms were compared with those for the all-*trans* MK-7 reference standard. This allowed the all-*trans* isomer to be identified. Compounds pertaining to the peaks that had a similar retention time to all-*trans* MK-7 were speculated to be the *cis/trans* isomers of MK-7. However, identifying the separated compounds based on the retention time alone was unreliable due to the lack of appropriate reference standards; thus, the identity of the compounds had to be confirmed using an alternative approach. Accordingly, MS techniques were used to verify the presence of *cis/trans* isomers by comparing their molecular mass (MM) and fragmentary spectra with those of the all-*trans* MK-7 analytical standard. The MS analysis determined that the fragmentary spectra of the separated compounds were equivalent to the all-*trans* MK-7 reference standard. The isolated compounds also ionised similarly to all-*trans* MK-7 and had a theoretical mass of 649.5 g mol⁻¹, corresponding to the MM of MK-7. These observations confirmed that the separated compounds were indeed the *cis/trans* geometric isomers of MK-7.

It must be appreciated that while MS techniques offer high selectivity and sensitivity and are beneficial for the analysis of MK-7 isomers, they are likely to be less convenient than standard HPLC techniques for routine sample analysis. Evaluation of the chromatographic retention time of the peaks representing all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 can enable the identification of MK-7 isomers using typical HPLC detection methods, such as UV detection. This approach has been recommended in the USP Monograph [257] and is exemplified in the study conducted by Jedynek et al. [258], where the relative retention time (RRT) of the *cis* isomer (the ratio of the retention time of the *cis* isomer to the all-*trans* isomer) is used to distinguish the *cis* isomer from all-*trans* MK-7. The RRT is likely a constant value that is unique for a particular separation process (the RRT for the procedure outlined in the USP Monograph [257] is 1.1, whereas that for the method implemented by Jedynek et al. [258] is 1.15). Any differences in the RRT between sources can be credited to variations in the chromatographic conditions and analytical techniques used. Thus, when developing a new separation methodology, MS can initially be applied to verify the identity of the isolated compounds and establish the RRT for the compound(s) of interest using available reference standards. Subsequently, the RRT can be used to distinguish the target compounds employing conventional HPLC with UV detection, which is likely preferable and far more straightforward than LC-MS for regular analysis. This method will likely be suitable for identifying and quantifying MK-7 isomers present in fermented samples without specific analytical standards for the *cis* forms of the vitamin.

Essentially, limited studies have been devoted to exploring MK-7 isomers, and the production of all-*trans* and *cis* geometric isomers from fermentation has not been assessed. Therefore, there is a notable gap in the literature regarding the effect of fermentation processes on the production of MK-7 isomers. Considering the differing bioactivity of the various isomeric forms of MK-7 and the advantages of microbial fermentation for MK-7 production, the geometric isomer profile achieved from fermentation processes deserves further attention. Accordingly, this research was performed to gain insight into the impact of different synthesis conditions on the MK-7 isomer composition obtained from fermentation and develop an optimal fermentation method to enhance the production of the biologically significant all-*trans* isomer.

2.12 References

- [1] Gröber U, Reichrath J, Holick MF, Kisters K. Vitamin K: an old vitamin in a new perspective. *Dermato-Endocrinology* 2014, 6(1), e968490. <https://doi.org/10.4161/19381972.2014.968490>
- [2] Ferland G. The Discovery of Vitamin K and Its Clinical Applications. *Annals of Nutrition and Metabolism* 2012, 61(3), 213-218. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000343108>
- [3] Dam H, Schönheyder F, Tage-Hansen E. Studies on the mode of action of vitamin K. *Biochemical Journal* 1936, 30(6), 1075-1079. <https://doi.org/10.1042/bj0301075>
- [4] Dam H. Haemorrhages in Chicks Reared on Artificial Diets: a New Deficiency Disease. *Nature* 1934, 133(3372), 909-910. <https://doi.org/10.1038/133909b0>
- [5] Vermeer C, Schurgers LJ. A comprehensive review of vitamin K and vitamin K antagonists. *Hematology/Oncology Clinics of North America* 2000, 14(2), 339-353.
- [6] Dam H. The antihaemorrhagic vitamin of the chick. *Biochemical Journal* 1935, 29(6), 1273-1285. <https://doi.org/10.1042/bj0291273>
- [7] MacCorquodale DW, Binkley SB, Thayer SA, Doisy EA. ON THE CONSTITUTION OF VITAMIN K1. *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 1939, 61(7), 1928-1929. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja01876a510>
- [8] McKee RW, Binkley SB, MacCorquodale DW, Thayer SA, Doisy EA. THE ISOLATION OF VITAMINS K1 AND K2. *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 1939, 61(5), 1295. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja01874a507>
- [9] Shearer MJ. Vitamin K. *The Lancet* 1995, 345(8944), 229-234. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(95\)90227-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(95)90227-9)
- [10] Azuma K, Inoue S. Multiple Modes of Vitamin K Actions in Aging-Related Musculoskeletal Disorders. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences* 2019, 20(11), 2844. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20112844>
- [11] Shea MK, Booth SL. Concepts and Controversies in Evaluating Vitamin K Status in Population-Based Studies. *Nutrients* 2016, 8(1), 8. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu8010008>
- [12] Beulens J, Booth S, van Den Heuvel E, Stoecklin E, Baka A, Vermeer C. The role of menaquinones (vitamin K2) in human health. *British Journal of Nutrition* 2013, 110(8), 1357-1368. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114513001013>
- [13] Sitkowski J, Bocian W, Szterk A. The application of multidimensional NMR analysis to cis/trans isomers study of menaquinone-7 (vitamine K2MK-7), identification of the (E,Z3,E2, ω)-menaquinone-7 isomer in dietary supplements. *Journal of Molecular Structure* 2018, 1171, 449-457. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molstruc.2018.06.029>
- [14] Pucaj K, Rasmussen H, Møller M, Preston T. Safety and toxicological evaluation of a synthetic vitamin K2, menaquinone-7. *Toxicology Mechanisms and Methods* 2011, 21(7), 520-532.

- [15] Szterk A, Zmysłowski A, Bus K. Identification of cis/trans isomers of menaquinone-7 in food as exemplified by dietary supplements. *Food Chemistry* 2018, 243, 403-409. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.10.001>
- [16] Daines AM, Payne RJ, Humphries ME, Abell AD. The synthesis of naturally occurring vitamin K and vitamin K analogues. *Current Organic Chemistry* 2003, 7(16), 1625-1634.
- [17] Szterk A, Bus K, Zmysłowski A, Ofiara K. Analysis of Menaquinone-7 Content and Impurities in Oil and Non-Oil Dietary Supplements. *Molecules* 2018, 23(5), 1056. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules23051056>
- [18] Tarvainen M, Fabritius M, Yang B. Determination of vitamin K composition of fermented food. *Food Chemistry* 2019, 275, 515-522. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.09.136>
- [19] Woollard DC, Indyk HE, Fong BY, Cook KK. Determination of vitamin K1 isomers in foods by liquid chromatography with C30 bonded-phase column. *Journal of AOAC International* 2002, 85(3), 682-691.
- [20] Ren L, Peng C, Hu X, Han Y, Huang H. Microbial production of vitamin K2: current status and future prospects. *Biotechnology Advances* 2019, 39, 107453.
- [21] Bentley R, Meganathan R. Biosynthesis of vitamin K (menaquinone) in bacteria. *Microbiological Reviews* 1982, 46(3), 241-280.
- [22] Yuan P, Cui S, Liu Y, Li J, Lv X, Liu L, Du G. Combinatorial engineering for improved menaquinone-4 biosynthesis in *Bacillus subtilis*. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology* 2020, 141, 109652. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enzmictec.2020.109652>
- [23] Walther B, Chollet M (2017) Menaquinones, bacteria, and foods: vitamin K2 in the diet. In: J. Oxholm Gordeladze (ed) *Vitamin K2-Vital for Health and Wellbeing*. IntechOpen, pp 63-82.
- [24] Schwalfenberg GK. Vitamins K1 and K2: The Emerging Group of Vitamins Required for Human Health. *Journal of Nutrition and Metabolism* 2017, 2017, 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/6254836>
- [25] Juanola-Falgarona M, Salas-Salvadó J, Martínez-González MÁ, Corella D, Estruch R, Ros E, Fitó M, Arós F, Gómez-Gracia E, Fiol M, Lapetra J, Basora J, Lamuela-Raventós RM, Serra-Majem L, Pintó X, Muñoz MÁ, Ruiz-Gutiérrez V, Fernández-Ballart J, Bulló M. Dietary Intake of Vitamin K Is Inversely Associated with Mortality Risk. *Journal of Nutrition* 2014, 144(5), 743-750. <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.113.187740>
- [26] Sato T, Inaba N, Yamashita T. MK-7 and Its Effects on Bone Quality and Strength. *Nutrients* 2020, 12(4), 965. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12040965>
- [27] Xv F, Chen J, Duan L, Li S. Research progress on the anticancer effects of vitamin K2. *Oncology Letters* 2018, 15(6), 8926-8934. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ol.2018.8502>
- [28] Halder M, Petsophonsakul P, Akbulut A, Pavlic A, Bohan F, Anderson E, Maresz K, Kramann R, Schurgers L. Vitamin K: Double Bonds beyond Coagulation Insights into

- Differences between Vitamin K1 and K2 in Health and Disease. *International Journal of Molecular Science* 2019, 20(4), 896. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20040896>
- [29] Fusaro M, Gallieni M, Porta C, Nickolas TL, Khairallah P. Vitamin K effects in human health: new insights beyond bone and cardiovascular health. *Journal of Nephrology* 2020, 33(2), 239-249. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40620-019-00685-0>
- [30] Tarkesh F, Namavar Jahromi B, Hejazi N, Tabatabaee H. Beneficial health effects of Menaquinone - 7 on body composition, glycemic indices, lipid profile, and endocrine markers in polycystic ovary syndrome patients. *Food Science and Nutrition* 2020, 8(10), 5612-5621. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fsn3.1837>
- [31] Karamzad N, Maleki V, Carson - Chahhoud K, Azizi S, Sahebkar A, Gargari BP. A systematic review on the mechanisms of vitamin K effects on the complications of diabetes and pre - diabetes. *BioFactors* 2020, 46(1), 21-37. <https://doi.org/10.1002/biof.1569>
- [32] Mehta D, de Souza A, Jadhav SS, Kuret T, Sodin-Šemrl S, Ünal M, Fini EH, Ayat S, Pahlavan F, Bhatti MZ (2021) Menaquinone-7: Wide Ranging Physiological Relevance in Muscle and Nerve Health. In: H. Kagechika and H. Shirakawa (eds) *Vitamin K-Recent Topics on the Biology and Chemistry*. IntechOpen, pp 57-76.
- [33] Jadhav N, Ajgaonkar S, Saha P, Gurav P, Pandey A, Basudkar V, Gada Y, Panda S, Jadhav S, Mehta D, Nair S. Molecular Pathways and Roles for Vitamin K2-7 as a Health-Beneficial Nutraceutical: Challenges and Opportunities. *Frontiers in Pharmacology* 2022, 13, 896920. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2022.896920>
- [34] Yan Q, Zhang T, O'Connor C, Barlow JW, Walsh J, Scalabrino G, Xu F, Sheridan H. The biological responses of vitamin K2: A comprehensive review. *Food Science and Nutrition* 2023, 11(4), 1634-1656.
- [35] Chatterjee K, Mazumder PM, Banerjee S. Vitamin K: a Potential Neuroprotective Agent. *Brazilian Journal of Pharmacognosy* 2023, 1-12.
- [36] Wianowska D, Bryshten I. New insights into vitamin K—From its natural sources through biological properties and chemical methods of quantitative determination. *Critical Reviews in Analytical Chemistry* 2022, 1-23.
- [37] Lal N, Seifan M, Novin D, Berenjian A. Development of a Menaquinone-7 enriched product through the solid-state fermentation of *Bacillus licheniformis*. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology* 2019, 19, 101172. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2019.101172>
- [38] Patti A, Gennari L, Merlotti D, Dotta F, Nuti R. Endocrine actions of osteocalcin. *International Journal of Endocrinology* 2013, 2013, 846480–846490. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/846480>
- [39] Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Vitamin K series: current status and future prospects. *Critical Reviews in Biotechnology* 2015, 35(2), 199-208.

- [40] Mahanama R, Berenjia A, Regtop H, Talbot A, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM. Modeling Menaquinone 7 production in tray type solid state fermenter. *ANZIAM Journal* 2012, 53, 354-372.
- [41] Shearer MJ, Newman P. Metabolism and cell biology of vitamin K. *Thrombosis and Haemostasis* 2008, 100(10), 530-547.
- [42] Dunovska K, Klapkova E, Sopko B, Cepova J, Prusa R. LC–MS/MS quantitative analysis of phylloquinone, menaquinone-4 and menaquinone-7 in the human serum of a healthy population. *PeerJ* 2019, 7, 7695. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.7695>
- [43] Akbulut AC, Pavlic A, Petsophonsakul P, Halder M, Maresz K, Kramann R, Schurgers L. Vitamin K2 Needs an RDI Separate from Vitamin K1. *Nutrients* 2020, 12(6), 1852. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12061852>
- [44] Wen L, Chen J, Duan L, Li S. Vitamin K-dependent proteins involved in bone and cardiovascular health (Review). *Molecular Medicine Reports* 2018, 18(1), 3-15. <https://doi.org/10.3892/mmr.2018.8940>
- [45] Cozzolino M, Cianciolo G, Podestà MA, Ciceri P, Galassi A, Gasperoni L, Manna GL. Current Therapy in CKD Patients Can Affect Vitamin K Status. *Nutrients* 2020, 12(6), 1609. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12061609>
- [46] Bus K, Szterk A. Relationship between structure and biological activity of various vitamin K forms. *Foods* 2021, 10(12), 3136. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods10123136>
- [47] Geleijnse JM, Vermeer C, Grobbee DE, Schurgers LJ, Knapen MHJ, van der Meer IM, Hofman A, Witteman JCM. Dietary Intake of Menaquinone Is Associated with a Reduced Risk of Coronary Heart Disease: The Rotterdam Study. *Journal of Nutrition* 2004, 134(11), 3100-3105. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jn/134.11.3100>
- [48] Marles RJ, Roe AL, Oketch-Rabah HA. US Pharmacopeial Convention safety evaluation of menaquinone-7, a form of vitamin K. *Nutrition Reviews* 2017, 75(7), 553-578. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nutrit/nux022>
- [49] Scheiber D, Veulemans V, Horn P, Chatrou M, Potthoff S, Kelm M, Schurgers L, Westenfeld R. High-Dose Menaquinone-7 Supplementation Reduces Cardiovascular Calcification in a Murine Model of Extraosseous Calcification. *Nutrients* 2015, 7(8), 6991-7011. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu7085318>
- [50] Schurgers LJ, Teunissen KJ, Hamulyák K, Knapen MH, Vik H, Vermeer C. Vitamin K–containing dietary supplements: comparison of synthetic vitamin K1 and natto-derived menaquinone-7. *Blood* 2007, 109(8), 3279-3283.
- [51] Moss J. Thoughts at Large: Controversies in Clinical Nutrition and Functional Medicine Issue # 12 VITAMIN K1 VERSUS THE MK-7 VERSION OF VITAMIN K2 SUPPLEMENTATION: WHICH IS BEST FOR YOUR PATIENTS? *The Original Internist* 2019, 26(2), 61.

- [52] Stafford DW, Roberts HR, Vermeer C. Vitamin K supplementation during oral anticoagulation: cautions. *Blood* 2007, 109(8), 3607. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2006-12-061200>
- [53] Vik H. Vitamin K2: A Clinically Proven Cardio-Protective Powerhouse: Known for bone-support benefits, vitamin K2 as MK-7 has also been recognized as vital for heart health. *Nutraceuticals World* 2020, 23(1), 44.
- [54] Brugè F, Bacchetti T, Principi F, Littarru GP, Tiano L. Olive oil supplemented with menaquinone-7 significantly affects osteocalcin carboxylation. *British Journal of Nutrition* 2011, 106(7), 1058-1062. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114511001425>
- [55] Shea MK, Holden RM. Vitamin K Status and Vascular Calcification: Evidence from Observational and Clinical Studies. *Advances in Nutrition* 2012, 3(2), 158-165. <https://doi.org/10.3945/an.111.001644>
- [56] Wasilewski GB, Vervloet MG, Schurgers LJ. The bone—vasculature axis: Calcium supplementation and the role of Vitamin K. *Frontiers in Cardiovascular Medicine* 2019, 6.
- [57] Dalmeijer GW, van der Schouw YT, Magdeleyns E, Ahmed N, Vermeer C, Beulens JWJ. The effect of menaquinone-7 supplementation on circulating species of matrix Gla protein. *Atherosclerosis* 2012, 225(2), 397-402. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2012.09.019>
- [58] Roumeliotis S, Dounousi E, Eleftheriadis T, Liakopoulos V. Association of the Inactive Circulating Matrix Gla Protein with Vitamin K Intake, Calcification, Mortality, and Cardiovascular Disease: A Review. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences* 2019, 20(3), 628. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20030628>
- [59] Gast GCM, de Roos NM, Sluijs I, Bots ML, Beulens JWJ, Geleijnse JM, Witteman JC, Grobbee DE, Peeters PHM, van der Schouw YT. A high menaquinone intake reduces the incidence of coronary heart disease. *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases* 2009, 19(7), 504-510. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.numecd.2008.10.004>
- [60] Beulens JWJ, Bots ML, Atsma F, Bartelink M-LEL, Prokop M, Geleijnse JM, Witteman JCM, Grobbee DE, van der Schouw YT. High dietary menaquinone intake is associated with reduced coronary calcification. *Atherosclerosis* 2008, 203(2), 489-493. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2008.07.010>
- [61] Zwakenberg SR, de Jong PA, Bartstra JW, van Asperen R, Westerink J, de Valk H, Slart RHJA, Luurtsema G, Wolterink JM, de Borst GJ, van Herwaarden JA, van de Ree MA, Schurgers LJ, van der Schouw YT, Beulens JWJ. The effect of menaquinone-7 supplementation on vascular calcification in patients with diabetes: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2019, 110(4), 883-890. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/nqz147>

- [62] Price PA. Role of Vitamin-K-Dependent Proteins in Bone Metabolism. *Annual Review of Nutrition* 1988, 8(1), 565-583. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.nu.08.070188.003025>
- [63] Knapen MHJ, Drummen NE, Smit E, Vermeer C, Theuwissen E. Three-year low-dose menaquinone-7 supplementation helps decrease bone loss in healthy postmenopausal women. *Osteoporosis International* 2013, 24(9), 2499-2507. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00198-013-2325-6>
- [64] Szulc P, Chapuy MC, Meunier PJ, Delmas PD. Serum undercarboxylated osteocalcin is a marker of the risk of hip fracture in elderly women. *Journal of Clinical Investigation* 1993, 91(4), 1769-1774. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI116387>
- [65] Szulc P, Chapuy MC, Meunier PJ, Delmas PD. Serum undercarboxylated osteocalcin is a marker of the risk of hip fracture: A three year follow-up study. *Bone* 1996, 18(5), 487-488. [https://doi.org/10.1016/8756-3282\(96\)00037-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/8756-3282(96)00037-3)
- [66] Feskanich D, Weber P, Willett WC, Rockett H, Booth SL, Colditz GA. Vitamin K intake and hip fractures in women: a prospective study. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 1999, 69(1), 74-79. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/69.1.74>
- [67] Tarento TDC, McClure DD, Talbot AM, Regtop HL, Biffin JR, Valtchev P, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM. A potential biotechnological process for the sustainable production of vitamin K1. *Critical Reviews in Biotechnology* 2019, 39(1), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07388551.2018.1474168>
- [68] Shiraki M, Shiraki Y, Aoki C, Miura M. Vitamin K2 (Menatetrenone) Effectively Prevents Fractures and Sustains Lumbar Bone Mineral Density in Osteoporosis. *Journal of Bone and Mineral Research* 2000, 15(3), 515-521. <https://doi.org/10.1359/jbmr.2000.15.3.515>
- [69] Sato T, Schurgers LJ, Uenishi K. Comparison of menaquinone-4 and menaquinone-7 bioavailability in healthy women. *Nutrition Journal* 2012, 11(1), 93. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2891-11-93>
- [70] Cheung AM, Tile L, Lee Y, Tomlinson G, Hawker G, Scher J, Hu H, Vieth R, Thompson L, Jamal S, Josse R. Vitamin K supplementation in postmenopausal women with osteopenia (ECKO trial): a randomized controlled trial. *PLoS Medicine* 2008, 5(10), 196. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0050196>
- [71] Booth SL, Dallal G, Shea MK, Gundberg C, Peterson JW, Dawson-Hughes B. Effect of vitamin K supplementation on bone loss in elderly men and women. *The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 2008, 93(4), 1217-1223.
- [72] Zhang Y, Liu Z, Duan L, Ji Y, Yang S, Zhang Y, Li H, Wang Y, Wang P, Chen J, Li Y. Effect of Low-Dose Vitamin K2 Supplementation on Bone Mineral Density in Middle-Aged and Elderly Chinese: A Randomized Controlled Study. *Calcified Tissue International* 2020, 106(5), 476-485. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00223-020-00669-4>

- [73] Braam LAJLM, Knapen MHJ, Geusens P, Brouns F, Hamuly k K, Gerichhausen MJW, Vermeer C. Vitamin K1 Supplementation Retards Bone Loss in Postmenopausal Women Between 50 and 60 Years of Age. *Calcified Tissue International* 2003, 73(1), 21-26. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00223-002-2084-4>
- [74] Rønn SH, Harsløf T, Oei L, Pedersen SB, Langdahl BL. The effect of vitamin MK-7 on bone mineral density and microarchitecture in postmenopausal women with osteopenia, a 3-year randomized, placebo-controlled clinical trial. *Osteoporosis International* 2021, 32(1), 185-191. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00198-020-05638-z>
- [75] Umarji PB, Verma P, Garg V, Schini M, Eastell R. Randomised Controlled Trial of Nutritional Supplement on Bone Turnover Markers in Indian Premenopausal Women. *Nutrients* 2021, 13(2), 364. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu13020364>
- [76] Dofferhoff ASM, Piscoer I, Schurgers LJ, Visser MPJ, van den Ouweland JMW, de Jong PA, Gosens R, Hackeng TM, van Daal H, Lux P, Maassen C, Karssemeijer EGA, Vermeer C, Wouters EFM, Kistemaker LEM, Walk J, Janssen R. Reduced vitamin K status as a potentially modifiable risk factor of severe COVID-19. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 2021, 73(11), 4039-4046. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1258>
- [77] Janssen R, Visser MPJ, Dofferhoff ASM, Vermeer C, Janssens W, Walk J. Vitamin K metabolism as the potential missing link between lung damage and thromboembolism in Coronavirus disease 2019. *British Journal of Nutrition* 2021, 126, 191-198. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114520003979>
- [78] Berenjian A, Sarabadani Z. How menaquinone-7 deficiency influences mortality and morbidity among COVID-19 patients. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology* 2020, 29, 101792. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2020.101792>
- [79] Sorkhabi AD, Sarkesh A, Sorkhabi AD, Entezari-Maleki T, Rashedi J, Baghi HB. Vitamin supplementation as a potential adjunctive therapeutic approach for COVID-19: biological and clinical plausibility. *Journal of Basic and Clinical Physiology and Pharmacology* 2022, 33(1), 55-77.
- [80] Anastasi E, Ialongo C, Labriola R, Ferraguti G, Lucarelli M, Angeloni A. Vitamin K deficiency and covid-19. *Scandinavian Journal of Clinical Laboratory Investigation* 2020, 80(7), 525-527. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00365513.2020.1805122>
- [81] Nuszkiewicz J, Sutkowy P, Wróblewski M, Pawłowska M, Wesołowski R, Wróblewska J, Woźniak A. Links between Vitamin K, Ferroptosis and SARS-CoV-2 Infection. *Antioxidants* 2023, 12(3), 733. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox12030733>
- [82] Ali AM, Kunugi H, Abdelmageed HA, Mandour AS, Ahmed ME, Ahmad S, Hendawy AO. Vitamin k in covid-19—potential anti-covid-19 properties of fermented milk fortified with bee honey as a natural source of vitamin k and probiotics. *Fermentation* 2021, 7(4), 202. <https://doi.org/10.3390/fermentation7040202>

- [83] Mangge H, Prueller F, Dawczynski C, Curcic P, Sloup Z, Holter M, Herrmann M, Meinitzer A. Dramatic Decrease of Vitamin K2 Subtype Menaquinone-7 in COVID-19 Patients. *Antioxidants* 2022, 11(7), 1235. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox11071235>
- [84] Desai AP, Dirajlal-Fargo S, Durieux JC, Tribout H, Labbato D, McComsey GA. (2021). Vitamin K & D deficiencies are independently associated with COVID-19 disease severity. In *Open Forum Infectious Diseases*. Oxford University Press US.
- [85] Linneberg A, Kampmann FB, Israelsen SB, Andersen LR, Jørgensen HL, Sandholt H, Jørgensen NR, Thysen SM, Benfield T. The Association of Low Vitamin K Status with Mortality in a Cohort of 138 Hospitalized Patients with COVID-19. *Nutrients* 2021, 13(6), 1985. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu13061985>
- [86] Legacy M, Seely D, Conte E, Psihogios A, Ramsay T, Fergusson DA, Kanji S, Simmons J-G, Wilson K. Protocol: Dietary supplements to reduce symptom severity and duration in people with SARS-CoV-2: study protocol for a randomised, double-blind, placebo controlled clinical trial. *BMJ Open* 2022, 12(3), 057024.
- [87] Randomized Controlled Clinical Trial to Investigate Effects of Vitamin K2 in COVID-19 (KOVIT) (2022) NIH U.S. National Library of Medicine. <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT04770740>. Accessed 20 September 2022.
- [88] Booth SL. Vitamin K: food composition and dietary intakes. *Food and Nutrition Research* 2012, 56(1), 5505.
- [89] Basset G, Latimer S, Fatihi A, Soubeyrand E, Block A. Phylloquinone (vitamin K1): occurrence, biosynthesis and functions. *Mini-Reviews in Medicinal Chemistry* 2017, 17(12), 1028-1038.
- [90] Cirilli I, Orlando P, Silvestri S, Marcheggiani F, Dłudla PV, Kaesler N, Tiano L. Carboxylative efficacy of trans and cis MK7 and comparison with other vitamin K isomers. *BioFactors* 2022, 48(5), 1129-1136. <https://doi.org/10.1002/biof.1844>
- [91] Schurgers LJ, Vermeer C. Determination of phylloquinone and menaquinones in food. *Pathophysiology of Haemostasis and Thrombosis* 2000, 30(6), 298-307.
- [92] Jensen MB, Ložnjak Švarc P, Jakobsen J. Vitamin K (phylloquinone and menaquinones) in foods – Optimisation of extraction, clean-up and LC–ESI-MS/MS method for quantification. *Food Chemistry* 2021, 345, 128835. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2020.128835>
- [93] European Food Safety Authority. Vitamin K2 added for nutritional purposes in foods for particular nutritional uses, food supplements and foods intended for the general population and Vitamin K2 as a source of vitamin K added for nutritional purposes to foodstuffs, in the context of Regulation (EC) N° 258/97 - Scientific Opinion of the Panel on Dietetic Products, Nutrition and Allergies. *EFSA Journal* 2008, 6(11), 822.

- [94] Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Designing of an intensification process for biosynthesis and recovery of menaquinone-7. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology* 2013, 172(3), 1347-1357.
- [95] The different vitamins in the K family (2019) Kappa Bioscience. <https://www.kappabio.com/brochures/different-forms-of-k/>. Accessed 4 September 2019.
- [96] Kang M-J, Baek K-R, Lee Y-R, Kim G-H, Seo S-O. Production of Vitamin K by Wild-Type and Engineered Microorganisms. *Microorganisms* 2022, 10(3), 554. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms10030554>
- [97] Zhou S, Mehta BM, Feeney EL. A narrative review of vitamin K forms in cheese and their potential role in cardiovascular disease. *International Journal of Dairy Technology* 2022, 75(4), 726-737. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1471-0307.12901>
- [98] Fu X, Harshman SG, Shen X, Haytowitz DB, Karl JP, Wolfe BE, Booth SL. Multiple vitamin K forms exist in dairy foods. *Current Developments in Nutrition* 2017, 1(6), 000638.
- [99] Jensen MB, Daugintis A, Jakobsen J. Content and Bioaccessibility of Vitamin K (Phylloquinone and Menaquinones) in Cheese. *Foods* 2021, 10(12), 2938.
- [100] Vermeer C, Raes J, Knapen M, Xanthoulea S. Menaquinone Content of Cheese. *Nutrients* 2018, 10(4), 446. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu10040446>
- [101] Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Biffin R, Regtop H, Valtchev P, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Efficient media for high menaquinone-7 production: response surface methodology approach. *New Biotechnology* 2011, 28(6), 665-672.
- [102] Walther B, Karl PJ, Booth SL, Boyaval P. Menaquinones, bacteria, and the food supply: the relevance of dairy and fermented food products to vitamin K requirements. *Advances in Nutrition* 2013, 4(4), 463-473. <https://doi.org/10.3945/an.113.003855>.
- [103] Vitamin K, fact sheet for consumers (2021) National Institutes of Health. <https://ods.od.nih.gov/factsheets/VitaminK-Consumer/>. Accessed 15 April 2021.
- [104] Dietary reference values for vitamin K (2017) European Food Safety Authority. <https://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/efsajournal/pub/4780>. Accessed 15 April 2021.
- [105] Vitamin K (2020) National Health Service. <https://www.nhs.uk/conditions/vitamins-and-minerals/vitamin-k/>. Accessed 15 April 2021.
- [106] Nutrient Reference Values for Australia and New Zealand (2014) National Health and Medical Research Council, Australian Government Department of Health and Ageing, New Zealand Ministry of Health. <https://www.nrv.gov.au/nutrients/vitamin-k>. Accessed 15 April 2021.
- [107] Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Advances in menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto: fed-batch glycerol addition. *American Journal of Biochemistry and Biotechnology* 2012, 8(2), 105-110.

- [108] Alamgir ANM (2018) Vitamins, Nutraceuticals, Food Additives, Enzymes, Anesthetic Aids, and Cosmetics. In: *Therapeutic Use of Medicinal Plants and their Extracts: Volume 2*. Springer, Cham, pp 407-534.
- [109] Whiting SJ, Kohrt WM, Warren MP, Kraenzlin MI, Bonjour JP. Food fortification for bone health in adulthood: a scoping review. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2016, 70(10), 1099-1105. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ejcn.2016.42>
- [110] Ma Y, Tang PTP, McClure DD, Valtchev P, Ashton JF, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM. Development of a menaquinone-7 enriched functional food. *Food and Bioprocess Processing* 2019, 117, 258-265. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2019.06.017>
- [111] Southee R, Haroon S, Ebrahiminezad A, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. Novel functional fermented dairy product rich in menaquinone-7. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology* 2016, 7, 31-35.
- [112] Novin D, van der Wel J, Seifan M, Berenjian A. The effect of aeration and mixing in developing a dairy-based functional food rich in menaquinone-7. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering* 2020, 43(10), 1773-1780. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-020-02366-w>
- [113] Singh R, Puri A, Panda B. Development of menaquinone-7 enriched nutraceutical: inside into medium engineering and process modeling. *Journal of Food Science and Technology* 2015, 52(8), 5212-5219. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-014-1600-7>
- [114] Kanellakis S, Moschonis G, Tenta R, Schaafsma A, van den Heuvel EGHM, Papaioannou N, Lyritis G, Manios Y. Changes in Parameters of Bone Metabolism in Postmenopausal Women Following a 12-Month Intervention Period Using Dairy Products Enriched with Calcium, Vitamin D, and Phylloquinone (Vitamin K1) or Menaquinone-7 (Vitamin K2): The Postmenopausal Health Study II. *Calcified Tissue International* 2012, 90(4), 251-262. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00223-012-9571-z>
- [115] Knapen MHJ, Braam LAJLM, Teunissen KJ, Van't Hoofd CM, Zwijsen RML, van den Heuvel EGHM, Vermeer C. Steady-state vitamin K2 (menaquinone-7) plasma concentrations after intake of dairy products and soft gel capsules. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2016, 70(7), 831-836. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ejcn.2016.3>
- [116] Knapen MHJ, Braam LAJLM, Teunissen KJ, Zwijsen RML, Theuwissen E, Vermeer C. Yogurt drink fortified with menaquinone-7 improves vitamin K status in a healthy population. *Journal of Nutritional Science* 2015, 4, 35. <https://doi.org/10.1017/jns.2015.25>
- [117] Kruger MC, Booth CL, Coad J, Schollum LM, Kuhn-Sherlock B, Shearer MJ. Effect of calcium fortified milk supplementation with or without vitamin K on biochemical markers of bone turnover in premenopausal women. *Nutrition* 2006, 22(11), 1120-1128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nut.2006.08.008>

- [118] O'Sullivan SM, Ball MEE, McDonald E, Hull GLJ, Danaher M, Cashman KD. Biofortification of Chicken Eggs with Vitamin K--Nutritional and Quality Improvements. *Foods* 2020, 9(11), 1. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods9111619>
- [119] Cirilli I, Orlando P, Silvestri S, Marcheggiani F, Tiano L. Bioavailability of menaquinone-7 in milk formulation. Comparison of different solubilization techniques. *International Journal on Nutraceuticals, Functional Foods and Novel Foods* 2019, 1, 34-39.
- [120] Orlando P, Silvestri S, Marcheggiani F, Cirilli I, Tiano L. Menaquinone 7 Stability of Formulations and Its Relationship with Purity Profile. *Molecules* 2019, 24(5), 829. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24050829>
- [121] Focus on the active all-trans menaquinone MK7 in vitamin K2 (2018) NUTRA. <https://www.nutraingredients-usa.com/News/Promotional-Features/Vitamin-K2-as-MK7-and-the-link-between-nature-and-all-trans-content>. Accessed 8 August 2019.
- [122] All-trans means all-bioactive (2019) Kappa Bioscience. <https://www.kappabio.com/papers/cistrans/>. Accessed 8 August 2019.
- [123] What form of vitamin K2 should I take? (2019) CanPrev. <https://www.vitamink2.ca/best-form-of-vitamink2#mk7-same>. Accessed 8 August 2019.
- [124] Knauer TE, Siegfried C, Willingham AK, Matschiner JT. Metabolism and biological activity of cis-and trans-phyloquinone in the rat. *Journal of Nutrition* 1975, 105(12), 1519-1524.
- [125] Lowenthal J, Rivera GV. Comparison of the activity of the cis and trans isomer of vitamin K1 in vitamin K-deficient and coumarin anticoagulant-pretreated rats. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics* 1979, 209(3), 330-333.
- [126] Bus K, Sitkowski J, Bocian W, Zmysłowski A, Ofiara K, Szterk A. Separation of menaquinone-7 geometric isomers by semipreparative high-performance liquid chromatography with silver complexation and identification by nuclear magnetic resonance. *Food Chemistry* 2022, 368, 130890. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2021.130890>
- [127] MenaQ7 varieties (2019) NattoPharma. <http://menaq7.com/why-menaq7/varieties/>. Accessed 5 August 2019.
- [128] Huang B, Zheng F, Fu S, Yao J, Tao B, Ren Y. UPLC-ESI-MS/MS for determining trans- and cis-vitamin K-1 in infant formulas: method and applications. *European Food Research and Technology* 2012, 235, 873-879. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-012-1823-7>
- [129] Lal N, Berenjian A. Cis and trans isomers of the vitamin menaquinone-7: which one is biologically significant? *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2020, 104(7), 2765-2776. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-020-10409-1>

- [130] Ravishankar B, Dound YA, Mehta DS, Ashok BK, de Souza A, Pan M-H, Ho C-T, Badmaev V, Vaidya ADB. Safety assessment of menaquinone-7 for use in human nutrition. *Journal of Food and Drug Analysis* 2015, 23(1), 99-108. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfda.2014.03.001>
- [131] Song J, Liu H, Wang L, Dai J, Liu Y, Liu H, Zhao G, Wang P, Zheng Z. Enhanced Production of Vitamin K2 from *Bacillus subtilis* (natto) by Mutation and Optimization of the Fermentation Medium. *Brazilian Archives of Biology and Technology* 2014, 57(4), 606-612.
- [132] Luo M-m, Ren L-j, Chen S-l, Ji X-j, Huang H. Effect of media components and morphology of *Bacillus natto* on menaquinone-7 synthesis in submerged fermentation. *Biotechnology and Bioprocess Engineering* 2016, 21(6), 777-786. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12257-016-0202-9>
- [133] Gao Q, Chen H, Wang W, Huang J, Tao Y, Lin B. Menaquinone-7 production in engineered *Escherichia coli*. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2020, 36(9), 132. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11274-020-02880-9>
- [134] Zhang Z, Liu L, Liu C, Sun Y, Zhang D. New aspects of microbial vitamin K2 production by expanding the product spectrum. *Microbial Cell Factories* 2021, 20(1), 84. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12934-021-01574-7>
- [135] Yang S, Wang Y, Cai Z, Zhang G, Song H. Metabolic engineering of *Bacillus subtilis* for high - titer production of menaquinone - 7. *AIChE Journal* 2020, 66(1), 16754. <https://doi.org/10.1002/aic.16754>
- [136] Li C-L, Li M, Zhang W-G, Xu J-Z. Accelerating the menaquinone-7 production in *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* by optimization of the biosynthetic pathway and medium components. *Systems Microbiology and Biomanufacturing* 2023, 1-16.
- [137] Puri A, Iqbal M, Zafar R, Panda BP. Influence of physical, chemical and inducer treatments on menaquinone-7 biosynthesis by *Bacillus subtilis* MTCC 2756. *Songklanakarinn Journal of Science and Technology* 2015, 37(3), 283-289.
- [138] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Effects of medium components in a glycerol-based medium on vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis natto* in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering* 2019, 42(2), 223-232. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-018-2027-8>
- [139] Mahdinia E, Mamouri SJ, Puri VM, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Modeling of vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) fermentation by *Bacillus subtilis natto* in biofilm reactors. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology* 2019, 17, 196-202. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2018.11.022>
- [140] Berenjian A, Chan NL-C, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Effect of biofilm formation by *Bacillus subtilis natto* on menaquinone-7 biosynthesis. *Molecular Biotechnology* 2012, 54(2), 371-378.

- [141] Liao C, Ayansola H, Ma Y, Ito K, Guo Y, Zhang B. Advances in enhanced menaquinone-7 production from *Bacillus subtilis*. *Frontiers in Bioengineering and Biotechnology* 2021, 9, 695526.
- [142] Mahanama R, Berenjian A, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM. (2011). Solid-substrate fermentation of menaquinone 7 with *Bacillus subtilis*: Comparison of continuous rotation with stationary bed fermentation at different initial moisture levels. In *Chemeca: Engineering a Better World. Sydney Hilton Hotel, NSW, Australia*.
- [143] Mahanama R, Berenjian A, Talbot A, Biffin R, Regtop H, Dehghani F, Kavanagh J. Effects of inoculation loading and substrate bed thickness on the production of menaquinone 7 via solid state fermentation. *Cardiovascular Disorders* 2011, 2(2), 19-22.
- [144] Mahanama R, Berenjian A, Dehghani F, Kavanagh J. Modeling the effect of bed height and particle size for vitamin K2 production in a static bed fermenter. *Engineering Letters* 2012, 20(1), 16.
- [145] Hu X-c, Liu W-m, Luo M-m, Ren L-j, Ji X-j, Huang H. Enhancing Menaquinone-7 Production by *Bacillus natto* R127 Through the Nutritional Factors and Surfactant. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology* 2017, 182(4), 1630-1641. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12010-017-2423-6>
- [146] Zhou M-j, Wu J, Hu L-x, Hu W-s, Huang J-b, Huang X-l, Gao X-l, Luo Y-n, Xue Z-l, Liu Y. Enhanced vitamin K2 production by engineered *Bacillus subtilis* during leakage fermentation. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2023, 39(8), 224.
- [147] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Implementation of fed-batch strategies for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis natto* in biofilm reactors. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2018, 102(21), 9147-9157. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-018-9340-7>
- [148] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Biofilm reactors as a promising method for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2019, 103(14), 5583-5592. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-019-09913-w>
- [149] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Utilization of glucose-based medium and optimization of *Bacillus subtilis natto* growth parameters for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology* 2018, 13, 219-224. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2017.12.009>
- [150] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Enhanced Vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) Production by *Bacillus subtilis natto* in Biofilm Reactors by Optimization of Glucose-based Medium. *Current Pharmaceutical Biotechnology* 2018, 19(11), 917-924.
- [151] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Optimization of *Bacillus subtilis natto* growth parameters in glycerol-based medium for vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering* 2018, 41(2), 195-204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-017-1857-0>

- [152] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Strain and plastic composite support (PCS) selection for vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering* 2017, 40(10), 1507-1517. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-017-1807-x>
- [153] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Production and application of menaquinone-7 (vitamin K2): a new perspective. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2017, 33(1), 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11274-016-2169-2>
- [154] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Evaluation of vitamin K (menaquinone-7) stability and secretion in glucose and glycerol-based media by *Bacillus subtilis natto*. *Acta Alimentaria* 2019, 48(4), 405-414.
- [155] Braasch-Turi M, Crans DC. Synthesis of Naphthoquinone Derivatives: Menaquinones, Lipoquinones and Other Vitamin K Derivatives. *Molecules* 2020, 25(19), 4477. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules25194477>
- [156] Snyder CD, Rapoport H. Synthesis of Menaquinones. *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 1974, 96(26), 8046-8054. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja00833a035>
- [157] Sato K, Inoue S, Saito K. A new synthesis of vitamin K via π -allylnickel intermediates. *Journal of the Chemical Society* 1973, 1, 2289-2293. <https://doi.org/10.1039/P19730002289>
- [158] Yamada Y, Aoki K, Tahara Y. The structure of the hexahydrogenated isoprenoid side-chain menaquinone with nine isoprene units isolated from *actinomadura madurae*. *The Journal of General and Applied Microbiology* 1982, 28(4), 321-329. <https://doi.org/10.2323/jgam.28.321>
- [159] Baj A, Walejko P, Kutner A, Kaczmarek L, Morzycki JW, Witkowski S. Convergent Synthesis of Menaquinone-7 (MK-7). *Organic Process Research and Development* 2016, 20(6), 1026-1033. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.oprd.6b00037>
- [160] Tracy M, Liu X. Separation of vitamin K isomers with enhanced selectivity. *LC GC North America* 2011, 29(9), 55.
- [161] Wang H, Tao Y, Li Y, Wu S, Li D, Liu X, Han Y, Manickam S, Show PL. Application of ultrasonication at different microbial growth stages during apple juice fermentation by *Lactobacillus plantarum*: Investigation on the metabolic response. *Ultrasonics Sonochemistry* 2021, 73, 105486. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2021.105486>
- [162] Wu Y, Li S, Tao Y, Li D, Han Y, Show PL, Wen G, Zhou J. Fermentation of blueberry and blackberry juices using *Lactobacillus plantarum*, *Streptococcus thermophilus* and *Bifidobacterium bifidum*: Growth of probiotics, metabolism of phenolics, antioxidant capacity in vitro and sensory evaluation. *Food Chemistry* 2021, 348, 129083. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2021.129083>

- [163] Erdoğan AK, Filiz BE. Menaquinone content and antioxidant properties of fermented cabbage products: Effect of different fermentation techniques and microbial cultures. *Journal of Functional Foods* 2023, *102*, 105467.
- [164] Yuan P, Cui S, Liu Y, Li J, Du G, Liu L. Metabolic engineering for the production of fat-soluble vitamins: advances and perspectives. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2020, *104*(3), 935-951. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-019-10157-x>
- [165] Fang Z, Wang L, Zhao G, Liu H, Wei H, Wang H, Ni W, Zheng Z, Wang P. A simple and efficient preparative procedure for menaquinone-7 from *Bacillus subtilis* (natto) using two-stage extraction followed by microporous resins. *Process Biochemistry* 2019, *83*, 183-188. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procbio.2019.05.008>
- [166] Ebrahiminezhad A, Varma V, Yang S, Berenjian A. Magnetic immobilization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto cells for menaquinone-7 fermentation. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2015, *100*(1), 173-180. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-015-6977-3>
- [167] Buzea C, Pacheco II, Robbie K. Nanomaterials and nanoparticles: Sources and toxicity. *Biointerphases* 2007, *2*(4), MR17-MR71. <https://doi.org/10.1116/1.2815690>
- [168] Suganeswari M, Shering A, Bharathi M, JayaSutha J. Nano particles: a novel system in current century. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biological Archive* 2011, *2*(3), 847-854.
- [169] Durán N, Marcato PD. Nanobiotechnology perspectives. Role of nanotechnology in the food industry: a review. *International Journal of Food Science and Technology* 2013, *48*(6), 1127-1134. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijfs.12027>
- [170] Nile SH, Baskar V, Selvaraj D, Nile A, Xiao J, Kai G. Nanotechnologies in Food Science: Applications, Recent Trends, and Future Perspectives. *Nano-Micro Letters* 2020, *12*(1), 45. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40820-020-0383-9>
- [171] Rashidi L, Khosravi-Darani K. The Applications of Nanotechnology in Food Industry. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition* 2011, *51*(8), 723-730. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10408391003785417>
- [172] Taghizadeh S-M, Lal N, Ebrahiminezhad A, Moeini F, Seifan M, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. Green and Economic Fabrication of Zinc Oxide (ZnO) Nanorods as a Broadband UV Blocker and Antimicrobial Agent. *Nanomaterials* 2020, *10*(3), 530. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano10030530>
- [173] Ranjan S, Dasgupta N, Chakraborty AR, Melvin Samuel S, Ramalingam C, Shanker R, Kumar A. Nanoscience and nanotechnologies in food industries: opportunities and research trends. *Journal of Nanoparticle Research* 2014, *16*(6), 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11051-014-2464-5>
- [174] Dahoumane SA, Jeffryes C, Mechouet M, Agathos SN. Biosynthesis of Inorganic Nanoparticles: A Fresh Look at the Control of Shape, Size and Composition. *Bioengineering* 2017, *4*(1), 14. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bioengineering4010014>

- [175] Feng Q, Liu Y, Huang J, Chen K, Huang J, Xiao K. Uptake, distribution, clearance, and toxicity of iron oxide nanoparticles with different sizes and coatings. *Scientific Reports* 2018, 8(1), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-19628-z>
- [176] McClements DJ, Xiao H. Is nano safe in foods? Establishing the factors impacting the gastrointestinal fate and toxicity of organic and inorganic food-grade nanoparticles. *NPJ Science of Food* 2017, 1(1), 6-13. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41538-017-0005-1>
- [177] Pan K, Zhong Q. Organic Nanoparticles in Foods: Fabrication, Characterization, and Utilization. *Annual Review of Food Science and Technology* 2016, 7(1), 245-266. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-food-041715-033215>
- [178] Kumar R, Lal S. Synthesis of Organic Nanoparticles and their Applications in Drug Delivery and Food Nanotechnology: A Review. *Journal of Nanomaterials and Molecular Nanotechnology* 2014, 3(4), 2. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2324-8777.1000150>
- [179] Firdhouse MJ, Lalitha P. Biosynthesis of Silver Nanoparticles and Its Applications. *Journal of Nanotechnology* 2015, 2015, 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/829526>
- [180] Schröfel A, Kratošová G, Šafařík I, Šafaříková M, Raška I, Šor LM. Applications of biosynthesized metallic nanoparticles – A review. *Acta Biomaterialia* 2014, 10(10), 4023-4042. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actbio.2014.05.022>
- [181] Folorunso A, Akintelu S, Oyebamiji AK, Ajayi S, Abiola B, Abdusalam I, Morakinyo A. Biosynthesis, characterization and antimicrobial activity of gold nanoparticles from leaf extracts of *Annona muricata*. *Journal of Nanostructure in Chemistry* 2019, 9(2), 111-117. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40097-019-0301-1>
- [182] Morales-Avila E, Ferro-Flores G, Ocampo-García BE, López-Téllez G, López-Ortega J, Rogel-Ayala DG, Sánchez-Padilla D. Antibacterial Efficacy of Gold and Silver Nanoparticles Functionalized with the Ubiquicidin (29–41) Antimicrobial Peptide. *Journal of Nanomaterials* 2017, 2017, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/5831959>
- [183] Tao C. Antimicrobial activity and toxicity of gold nanoparticles: research progress, challenges and prospects. *Letters in Applied Microbiology* 2018, 67(6), 537-543. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lam.13082>
- [184] Ebrahiminezhad A, Bagheri M, Taghizadeh S-M, Berenjian A, Ghasemi Y. Biomimetic synthesis of silver nanoparticles using microalgal secretory carbohydrates as a novel anticancer and antimicrobial. *Advances in Natural Sciences: Nanoscience and Nanotechnology* 2016, 7(1), 015018.
- [185] Eshghi M, Vaghari H, Najian Y, Najian M, Jafarizadeh-Malmiri H. Microwave-Assisted Green Synthesis of Silver Nanoparticles Using *Juglans regia* Leaf Extract and Evaluation of Their Physico-Chemical and Antibacterial Properties. *Antibiotics* 2018, 7(3), 68. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics7030068>
- [186] Pal S, Tak YK, Song JM. Does the Antibacterial Activity of Silver Nanoparticles Depend on the Shape of the Nanoparticle? A Study of the Gram-Negative Bacterium *Escherichia*

- coli. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 2007, 73(6), 1712.
<https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.02218-06>
- [187] Jiang J, Pi J, Cai J. The Advancing of Zinc Oxide Nanoparticles for Biomedical Applications. *Bioinorganic Chemistry and Applications* 2018, 2018, 1-18.
<https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/1062562>
- [188] Yurderi M, Bulut A, Ertas İE, Zahmakiran M, Kaya M. Supported copper–copper oxide nanoparticles as active, stable and low-cost catalyst in the methanolysis of ammonia–borane for chemical hydrogen storage. *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental* 2015, 165, 169-175. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2014.10.011>
- [189] Dörner L, Cancellieri C, Rheingans B, Walter M, Kägi R, Schmutz P, Kovalenko MV, Jeurgens LPH. Cost-effective sol-gel synthesis of porous CuO nanoparticle aggregates with tunable specific surface area. *Scientific Reports* 2019, 9(1), 11758.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-48020-8>
- [190] Li Q, Gadd GM. Biosynthesis of copper carbonate nanoparticles by ureolytic fungi. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2017, 101(19), 7397-7407.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-017-8451-x>
- [191] Chavali MS, Nikolova MP. Metal oxide nanoparticles and their applications in nanotechnology. *SN Applied Sciences* 2019, 1(6), 607. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42452-019-0592-3>
- [192] Elbaz NM, Owen A, Rannard S, McDonald TO. Controlled synthesis of calcium carbonate nanoparticles and stimuli-responsive multi-layered nanocapsules for oral drug delivery. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics* 2020, 574, 118866.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpharm.2019.118866>
- [193] Mydin RBSMN, Nadhirah I, Ishak N, Shaida N, Moshawih S, Siddiquee S. Potential of Calcium Carbonate Nanoparticles for Therapeutic Applications. *Malaysian Journal of Medicine and Health Sciences* 2018, 14, 201-206.
- [194] Pramanik A, Laha D, Chattopadhyay S, Dash SK, Roy S, Pramanik P, Karmakar P. Targeted delivery of “copper carbonate” nanoparticles to cancer cells in vivo. *Toxicology Research* 2015, 4(6), 1604-1612. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C5TX00212E>
- [195] Hong T, Chen F, Xia C. Barium carbonate nanoparticle as high temperature oxygen reduction catalyst for solid oxide fuel cell. *Electrochemistry Communications* 2015, 51, 93-97. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.elecom.2014.12.017>
- [196] Hong T, Brinkman KS, Xia C. Barium Carbonate Nanoparticles as Synergistic Catalysts for the Oxygen Reduction Reaction on La_{0.6}Sr_{0.4}Co_{0.2}Fe_{0.8}O_{3-δ} Solid - Oxide Fuel Cell Cathodes. *ChemElectroChem* 2016, 3(5), 805-813.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/celec.201500529>
- [197] Gao J, Meng Y, Lee S, Tong J, Brinkman KS. Effect of Infiltration of Barium Carbonate Nanoparticles on the Electrochemical Performance of La_{0.6}Sr_{0.4}Co_{0.2}Fe_{0.8}O_{3-δ}

- Cathodes for Protonic Ceramic Fuel Cells. *JOM* 2018, 71(1), 90-95. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11837-018-3098-3>
- [198] De Jong WH, De Rijk E, Bonetto A, Wohlleben W, Stone V, Brunelli A, Badetti E, Marcomini A, Gosens I, Cassee FR. Toxicity of copper oxide and basic copper carbonate nanoparticles after short-term oral exposure in rats. *Nanotoxicology* 2018, 13(1), 50-72. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17435390.2018.1530390>
- [199] Ataee RA, Derakhshanpour J, Mehrabi A, Eydi A. Antibacterial effect of calcium carbonate nanoparticles on *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. *Journal of Military Medicine* 2011, 13, 65-70.
- [200] Dhand C, Dwivedi N, Loh XJ, Ying ANJ, Verma NK, Beuerman RW, Lakshminarayanan R, Ramakrishna S. Methods and strategies for the synthesis of diverse nanoparticles and their applications: a comprehensive overview. *RSC Advances* 2015, 5(127), 105003-105037.
- [201] Novin D, van der Wel J, Seifan M, Ebrahiminezhad A, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. A functional dairy product rich in Menaquinone-7 and FeOOH nanoparticles. *Food Science and Technology* 2020, 129, 109564. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2020.109564>
- [202] Žur J, Wojcieszynska D, Guzik U. Metabolic Responses of Bacterial Cells to Immobilization. *Molecules* 2016, 21(7), 958. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules21070958>
- [203] Ranmadugala D, Ebrahiminezhad A, Manley-Harris M, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. Magnetic immobilization of bacteria using iron oxide nanoparticles. *Biotechnology Letters* 2018, 40(2), 237-248. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10529-017-2477-0>
- [204] Ranmadugala D, Ebrahiminezhad A, Manley-Harris M, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. Iron oxide nanoparticles in modern microbiology and biotechnology. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology* 2017, 43(4), 493-507. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1040841x.2016.1267708>
- [205] Gnanaprakash G, Mahadevan S, Jayakumar T, Kalyanasundaram P, Philip J, Raj B. Effect of initial pH and temperature of iron salt solutions on formation of magnetite nanoparticles. *Materials Chemistry and Physics* 2007, 103(1), 168-175. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matchemphys.2007.02.011>
- [206] Kekutia S, Saneblidze L, Mikelashvili V, Markhulia J, Tatarashvili R, Daraselia D, Japaridze D. A new method for the synthesis of nanoparticles for biomedical applications. *European Chemical Bulletin* 2015, 4, 33-36.
- [207] Gupta AK, Gupta M. Synthesis and surface engineering of iron oxide nanoparticles for biomedical applications. *Biomaterials* 2005, 26(18), 3995-4021. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biomaterials.2004.10.012>
- [208] Borlido L, Azevedo AM, Roque ACA, Aires-Barros MR. Magnetic separations in biotechnology. *Biotechnology Advances* 2013, 31(8), 1374-1385. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2013.05.009>

- [209] Laurent S, Forge D, Port M, Roch A, Robic C, Vander Elst L, Muller RN. Magnetic Iron Oxide Nanoparticles: Synthesis, Stabilization, Vectorization, Physicochemical Characterizations, and Biological Applications. *Chemical Reviews* 2008, 108(6), 2064-2110. <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr068445e>
- [210] Ebrahiminezhad A, Varma V, Yang S, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. Synthesis and Application of Amine Functionalized Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on Menaquinone-7 Fermentation: A Step towards Process Intensification. *Nanomaterials* 2015, 6(1), 1. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano6010001>
- [211] Ranmadugala D, Ebrahiminezhad A, Manley-Harris M, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. Impact of 3-Aminopropyltriethoxysilane-Coated Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on Menaquinone-7 Production Using *B. subtilis*. *Nanomaterials* 2017, 7(11), 350. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano7110350>
- [212] Ranmadugala D, Ebrahiminezhad A, Manley-Harris M, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. The effect of iron oxide nanoparticles on *Bacillus subtilis* biofilm, growth and viability. *Process Biochemistry* 2017, 62, 231-240.
- [213] Peters RJB, Bouwmeester H, Gottardo S, Amenta V, Arena M, Brandhoff P, Marvin HJP, Mech A, Moniz FB, Pesudo LQ, Rauscher H, Schoonjans R, Undas AK, Vettori MV, Weigel S, Aschberger K. Nanomaterials for products and application in agriculture, feed and food. *Trends in Food Science and Technology* 2016, 54, 155-164. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2016.06.008>
- [214] Ameta SK, Rai AK, Hiran D, Ameta R, Ameta SC (2020) Use of Nanomaterials in Food Science. In: *Biogenic Nano-Particles and their Use in Agro-Ecosystems*. Springer, Singapore, pp 457-488.
- [215] Zou L, Zheng B, Zhang R, Zhang Z, Liu W, Liu C, Xiao H, McClements DJ. Food-grade nanoparticles for encapsulation, protection and delivery of curcumin: comparison of lipid, protein, and phospholipid nanoparticles under simulated gastrointestinal conditions. *RSC Advances* 2016, 6(4), 3126-3136. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c5ra22834d>
- [216] Ebrahiminezhad A, Zare M, Kiyanpour S, Berenjian A, Niknezhad SV, Ghasemi Y. Biosynthesis of xanthan gum-coated INPs by using *Xanthomonas campestris*. *IET Nanobiotechnology* 2018, 12(3), 254-258. <https://doi.org/10.1049/iet-nbt.2017.0199>
- [217] Anselmo AC, Mitragotri S. Nanoparticles in the clinic. *Bioengineering and Translational Medicine* 2016, 1(1), 10-29. <https://doi.org/10.1002/btm2.10003>
- [218] Anselmo AC, Mitragotri S. Nanoparticles in the clinic: An update. *Bioengineering and Translational Medicine* 2019, 4(3), 10143. <https://doi.org/10.1002/btm2.10143>
- [219] Wang K, Li L, Xu X, Lu L, Wang J, Wang S, Wang Y, Jin Z, Zhang JZ, Jiang Y. Fe₃O₄@Astragalus Polysaccharide Core-Shell Nanoparticles for Iron Deficiency Anemia Therapy and Magnetic Resonance Imaging in Vivo. *ACS Applied Materials and Interfaces* 2019, 11(11), 10452-10461. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.8b18648>

- [220] Huang W-C, Tang I-C (2007) Bacterial and Yeast Cultures–Process Characteristics, Products, and Applications. In: *Bioprocessing for Value-Added Products from Renewable Resources*. Elsevier, pp 185-223.
- [221] Petri DFS. Xanthan gum: A versatile biopolymer for biomedical and technological applications. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science* 2015, 132(23), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1002/app.42035>
- [222] Palmer C, Koch H, Shinde S, Blekkenhorst LC, Lewis JR, Croft KD, Hodgson JM, Sim M. Development of a vitamin K database for commercially available food in Australia. *Frontiers in Nutrition* 2021, 1009.
- [223] Fu X, Peterson JW, Hdeib M, Booth SL, Grusak MA, Lichtenstein AH, Dolnikowski GG. Measurement of Deuterium-Labeled Phylloquinone in Plasma by High-Performance Liquid Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry. *Analytical Chemistry* 2009, 81, 5421-5425. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ac900732w>
- [224] Kamao M, Suhara Y, Tsugawa N, Uwano M, Yamaguchi N, Uenishi K, Ishida H, Sasaki S, Okano T. Vitamin K content of foods and dietary vitamin K intake in Japanese young women. *Journal of Nutritional Science and Vitaminology* 2007, 53(6), 464-470.
- [225] Karl JP, Fu X, Dolnikowski GG, Saltzman E, Booth SL. Quantification of phylloquinone and menaquinones in feces, serum, and food by high-performance liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry. *Journal of Chromatography B* 2014, 963, 128-133. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jchromb.2014.05.056>
- [226] Xiao P, Li H-M, Li M, Song D-W, Li X-M, Dai X-H, Hu Z-S. Structural characterization and thermally induced isomerization investigation of cis- and trans-vitamin K1 using ion mobility mass spectrometry. *Analytical Methods* 2015, 7(19), 8432.
- [227] Gentili A, Caretti F. Evaluation of a method based on liquid chromatography–diode array detector–tandem mass spectrometry for a rapid and comprehensive characterization of the fat-soluble vitamin and carotenoid profile of selected plant foods. *Journal of Chromatography A* 2011, 1218(5), 684-697. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2010.12.001>
- [228] Wakabayashi H, Onodera K, Yamato S, Shimada K. Simultaneous determination of vitamin K analogs in human serum by sensitive and selective high-performance liquid chromatography with electrochemical detection. *Nutrition* 2003, 19(7), 661-665. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0899-9007\(03\)00056-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0899-9007(03)00056-X)
- [229] Koivu-Tikkanen TJ, Ollilainen V, Piironen VI. Determination of phylloquinone and menaquinones in animal products with fluorescence detection after postcolumn reduction with metallic zinc. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 2000, 48, 6325-6331.
- [230] Kurilich AC, Britz SJ, Clevidence BA, Novotny JA. Isotopic labeling and LC-APCI-MS quantification for investigating absorption of carotenoids and phylloquinone from kale

- (Brassica oleracea). *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 2003, 51(17), 4877-4883.
- [231] Cook KK, Grundel E, Jenkins MY, Mitchell GV. Measurement of cis and trans isomers of vitamin K1 in rat tissues by liquid chromatography with a C30 column. *Journal of AOAC International* 2002, 85(4), 832-840. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jaoac/85.4.832>
- [232] Ducros V, Pollicand M, Laporte F, Favier A. Quantitative determination of plasma vitamin K1 by high-performance liquid chromatography coupled to isotope dilution tandem mass spectrometry. *Analytical Biochemistry* 2010, 401(1), 7-14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ab.2010.02.018>
- [233] Manoury E, Jourdon K, Boyaval P, Fourcassié P. Quantitative measurement of vitamin K2 (menaquinones) in various fermented dairy products using a reliable high-performance liquid chromatography method. *Journal of Dairy Science* 2013, 96(3), 1335-1346. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2012-5494>
- [234] Jäpelt RB, Jakobsen J. Analysis of vitamin K1 in fruits and vegetables using accelerated solvent extraction and liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry with atmospheric pressure chemical ionization. *Food Chemistry* 2016, 192, 402-408. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2015.06.111>
- [235] Suhara Y, Kamao M, Tsugawa N, Okano T. Method for the determination of vitamin K homologues in human plasma using high-performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry. *Analytical Chemistry* 2005, 77, 757-763. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ac0489667>
- [236] Vaidya R, Vaidya AD, Sheth J, Jadhav S, Mahale U, Mehta D, Popko J, Badmaev V, Stohs SJ. Vitamin K Insufficiency in the Indian Population: Pilot Observational Epidemiology Study. *JMIR Public Health and Surveillance* 2022, 8(2), 31941.
- [237] Cortés-Herrera C, Chacón A, Artavia G, Granados-Chinchilla F. Simultaneous LC/MS Analysis of Carotenoids and Fat-Soluble Vitamins in Costa Rican Avocados (*Persea americana* Mill.). *Molecules* 2019, 24(24), 4517. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24244517>
- [238] Cook KK, Mitchell GV, Grundel E, Rader JI. HPLC analysis for trans-vitamin K1 and dihydro-vitamin K1 in margarines and margarine-like products using the C30 stationary phase. *Food Chemistry* 1999, 67(1), 79-88. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0308-8146\(99\)00090-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0308-8146(99)00090-4)
- [239] Nannapaneni NK, Jalalpure SS, Muppavarapu R, Sirigiri SK. A sensitive and rapid UFLC-APCI-MS/MS bioanalytical method for quantification of endogenous and exogenous Vitamin K1 isomers in human plasma: Development, validation and first application to a pharmacokinetic study. *Talanta* 2017, 164, 233-243. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.talanta.2016.11.056>

- [240] Wang LY, Bates CJ, Yan L, Prentice A, Harrington DJ, Shearer MJ. Determination of phylloquinone (vitamin K1) in plasma and serum by HPLC with fluorescence detection. *Clinica Chimica Acta* 2004, 347(1-2), 199-207. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cccn.2004.04.030>
- [241] Piironen V, Koivu T, Tammissalo O, Mattila P. Determination of phylloquinone in oils, margarines and butter by high performance liquid chromatography with electrochemical detection. *Food Chemistry* 1997, 59(3), 473-480. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0308-8146\(96\)00288-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0308-8146(96)00288-9)
- [242] Song Q, Wen A, Ding L, Dai L, Yang L, Qi X. HPLC-APCI-MS for the determination of vitamin K(1) in human plasma: method and clinical application. *Journal of Chromatography B: Analytical Technologies in the Biomedical and Life Sciences* 2008, 875(2), 541-545. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jchromb.2008.10.009>
- [243] Koivu TJ, Piironen VI, Henttonen SK, Mattila PH. Determination of Phylloquinone in Vegetables, Fruits, and Berries by High-Performance Liquid Chromatography with Electrochemical Detection. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 1997, 45(12), 4644-4649. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf970357v>
- [244] Kim L, Brudzynski K. Identification of menaquinones (vitamin K2 homologues) as novel constituents of honey. *Food Chemistry* 2018, 249, 184-192. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.01.006>
- [245] Ertugrul S, Yucel C, Sertoglu E, Ozkan Y, Ozgurtas T. Development and optimization of simultaneous determination of fat soluble vitamins by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry. *Chemistry and Physics of Lipids* 2020, 230, 104932. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemphyslip.2020.104932>
- [246] Lee H, Lee J, Choi K, Kim B. Development of isotope dilution-liquid chromatography/tandem mass spectrometry for the accurate determination of trans- and cis-vitamin K 1 isomers in infant formula. *Food Chemistry* 2017, 221, 729.
- [247] Viñas P, Bravo-Bravo M, López-García I, Hernández-Córdoba M. Dispersive liquid-liquid microextraction for the determination of vitamins D and K in foods by liquid chromatography with diode-array and atmospheric pressure chemical ionization-mass spectrometry detection. *Talanta* 2013, 115, 806-813. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.talanta.2013.06.050>
- [248] Paroni R, Faioni EM, Razzari C, Fontana G, Cattaneo M. Determination of vitamin K1 in plasma by solid phase extraction and HPLC with fluorescence detection. *Journal of Chromatography B: Analytical Technologies in the Biomedical and Life Sciences* 2009, 877(3), 351-354. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jchromb.2008.12.044>
- [249] Koivu-Tikkanen T (2001) Determination of phylloquinone and menaquinones in foods by HPLC. Department of Applied Chemistry and Microbiology. University of Helsinki.

- [250] Yang Y, Lu D, Zhang J, Li Y, Zheng B, Sun C. Simultaneous HPLC–DAD Determination of Retinol and Eight Vitamin E Isomers in Human Serum. *Chromatographia* 2015, 78(21-22), 1359-1366. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10337-015-2951-6>
- [251] HPLC Separation Modes (2019) Waters. https://www.waters.com/waters/en_US/HPLC-Separation-Modes/nav.htm?locale=en_US&cid=10049076. Accessed 15 August 2019.
- [252] Vyňuchalová K, Jandera P. Comparison of a C30 bonded silica column and columns with shorter bonded ligands in reversed-phase LC. *Chromatographia* 2015, 78(13), 861-871. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10337-015-2899-6>
- [253] Acclaim C30 Columns Product Manual (2012) Thermo Scientific. [http://unitylabservices.info/content/dam/tfs/ATG/CMD/CMD%20Documents/Product%20Manuals%20&%20Specifications/Chromatography%20Columns%20and%20Supplies/HPLC%20Columns/HPLC%20Columns%20\(3um\)/110364-Man-065416-02-Acclaim-C30-Feb12.pdf](http://unitylabservices.info/content/dam/tfs/ATG/CMD/CMD%20Documents/Product%20Manuals%20&%20Specifications/Chromatography%20Columns%20and%20Supplies/HPLC%20Columns/HPLC%20Columns%20(3um)/110364-Man-065416-02-Acclaim-C30-Feb12.pdf). Accessed 15 August 2019.
- [254] HPLC for Structural Isomers COSMOSIL CHOLESTER (2019) Nacalai Tesque. https://www.nacalai.co.jp/global/download/pdf/COSMOSIL_Cholester.pdf. Accessed 15 August 2019.
- [255] Zhang Y, Bala V, Mao Z, Chhonker YS, Murry DJ. A concise review of quantification methods for determination of vitamin K in various biological matrices. *Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Analysis* 2019, 169, 133-141. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpba.2019.03.006>
- [256] Mahanma R, Berenjjan A, Valtchev P, Talbot A, Biffin R, Regtop H, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM. Enhanced production of menaquinone 7 via solid substrate fermentation from *Bacillus subtilis*. *International Journal of Food Engineering* 2011, 7(5), 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.2202/1556-3758.2314>
- [257] Dietary Supplements, USP-NF Menaquinone-7 (2020) US Pharmacopoeia, Rockville, MD, USA.
- [258] Jedynek Ł, Jedynek M, Kossykowska M, Zagrodzka J. A novel method for the determination of chemical purity and assay of menaquinone-7. Comparison with the methods from the official USP monograph. *Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Analysis* 2017, 135, 116-125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpba.2016.11.052>
- [259] Kishikawa N, Kuroda N. Analytical techniques for the determination of biologically active quinones in biological and environmental samples. *Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Analysis* 2014, 87, 261-270. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpba.2013.05.035>

3

Materials and Methods

Chapter 3 – Materials and Methods

This chapter provides a detailed account of the experimental methods and analytical procedures employed in this research.

3.1 Chemicals and materials

A wide range of chemicals were used for the various aspects of this study, including the preparation of the bacterial spore suspension, NP synthesis, fermentation experiments, and analytical techniques. All media components were microbiology grade, and all solvents were analytical grade.

Glucose and iron (II) sulphate heptahydrate ($\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$) were obtained from Ajax Finechem Pty Ltd (Taren Point, NSW, Australia), and yeast extract, peptone, tryptone, and soytone were acquired from Becton, Dickinson and Company (Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Glycerol, soy peptone, dipotassium hydrogen phosphate (K_2HPO_4), ethanol, methanol, 2-propanol, *n*-hexane, and NH_4OH (32%) were purchased from Merck Millipore (Burlington, MA, USA). CaCl_2 , iron (III) chloride hexahydrate ($\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$), APTES, L-Lys, glutaraldehyde (GA) (25%), and sodium cacodylate ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{AsNaO}_2$) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). Sodium chloride (NaCl) was provided by a domestic supplier, and nutrient (BHI) agar plates were acquired from Fort Richard Laboratories (Auckland, New Zealand). The all-*trans* MK-7 analytical standard (98.1% purity) was purchased from ChromaDex (Los Angeles, CA, USA).

3.2 Experimental methods

3.2.1 Microorganism and inoculum preparation

B. subtilis natto was used for the fermentation experiments, as it is GRAS and deemed the ideal strain for the fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7. The *B. subtilis natto* strain was prepared as described previously [1]. The cells were cultivated in a liquid culture medium containing 0.5% (*w/v*) yeast extract, 1% (*w/v*) tryptone, and 1% (*w/v*) NaCl before streaking on nutrient agar plates. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 48 h. Following incubation, the cells were scraped off the plates and immersed in a sterilised saline solution (0.9% (*w/v*) NaCl). The solution was then placed in a water bath (PolyScience, IL, USA) at 80 °C for 30 min to inactivate the vegetative cells and induce the production of spores. The cell debris was removed by centrifugation (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min. The resulting spore suspension was stored in the refrigerator and used as the inoculum for the fermentation experiments.

Spores were preferred over vegetative cells, as they are a form of long-term cell survival. The bacterial genome is preserved inside the spore, which is metabolically dormant and able to withstand various stresses and survive in nutrient-free and harsh environments. In response to nutrients and favourable environmental conditions, spores can quickly germinate and return to the vegetative state. In contrast, vegetative cells may have reduced viability and be susceptible to mutation during long-term storage, compromising the quality of the inoculum for the fermentation studies and, ultimately, the experimental results.

The plate counting method was used to estimate the number of bacterial spores. A 1 mL aliquot of the bacterial spore suspension was appropriately diluted before streaking on nutrient agar plates. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. Subsequently, the number of isolated colonies was counted, and the results were expressed as colony-forming unit/mL (CFU/mL).

3.2.2 NP synthesis and characterisation

3.2.2.1 Synthesis of naked and surface-functionalised IONs

The co-precipitation technique was used to synthesise the IONs employed in this research, as it is a simple and convenient way to produce a reasonably large quantity of NPs with only a few chemicals. Furthermore, the specific methods that were selected have been used in previous MK-7 fermentation studies to fabricate the same types of IONs for a similar purpose and, thus, are known to be successful for synthesising naked IONs, IONs@APTES, and L-Lys@IONs for the desired application. Following synthesis, the resulting NP powders were stored in the refrigerator and preserved under nitrogen (N₂) until required for the characterisation studies and bacterial cell immobilisation procedures.

3.2.2.1.1 Naked IONs

Naked (uncoated) IONs were synthesised from the co-precipitation of Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ ions by an alkali (NH₄OH) under an inert atmosphere (Figure 3-1), as described by Ranmadugala et al. [2]. Accordingly, 0.74 g of FeSO₄·7H₂O and 1.17 g of FeCl₃·6H₂O were dissolved in 50 mL of distilled water. The solution was briskly stirred for 1 h at 70 °C in a N₂ atmosphere to prevent oxidation. Afterwards, 5 mL of NH₄OH was quickly added to the reaction mixture, and the solution was stirred for another 1 h until precipitation occurred. Magnetic IONs were produced according to the following reaction (Eq. 3-1):



A permanent magnet was used to separate the magnetic particles from the non-magnetic particles, and the black precipitate was washed with hot distilled water to remove impurities and dried in an oven (Contherm Thermotec 2000, Contherm Scientific Ltd, Wellington, New Zealand) at 50 °C overnight (24 h).

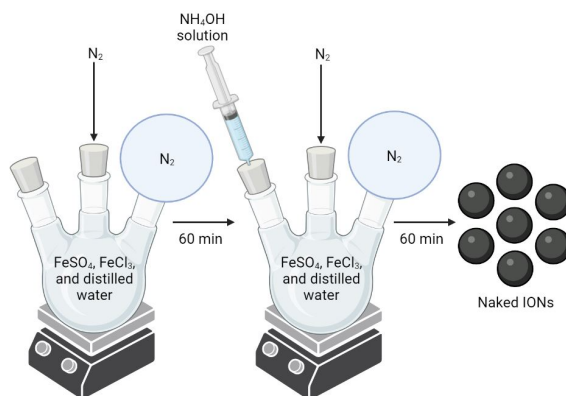


Figure 3-1 Schematic representation of the steps involved in the synthesis of naked IONs using the co-precipitation method

3.2.2.1.2 IONS@APTES

APTES coating was carried out following the approach implemented by Ebrahimezhad et al. [3] (Figure 3-2). Uncoated IONs (0.7 g) were dissolved in 25 mL of an absolute ethanol and distilled water mixture (1:1 (v/v)) and sonicated (Qsonica-Q800R, Newtown, CT, USA) while kept in an ice bath for 2 min to achieve a uniform dispersion. Subsequently, 2.8 mL of APTES solution was added to the reaction in a N_2 atmosphere, and the mixture was rapidly stirred at 40 °C for 2 h. The coated particles were separated with a permanent magnet and washed with absolute ethanol and double-distilled water to remove contaminants. The precipitate was then dried overnight (24 h) in an oven (Contherm Thermotec 2000, Contherm Scientific Ltd, Wellington, New Zealand) at 50 °C.

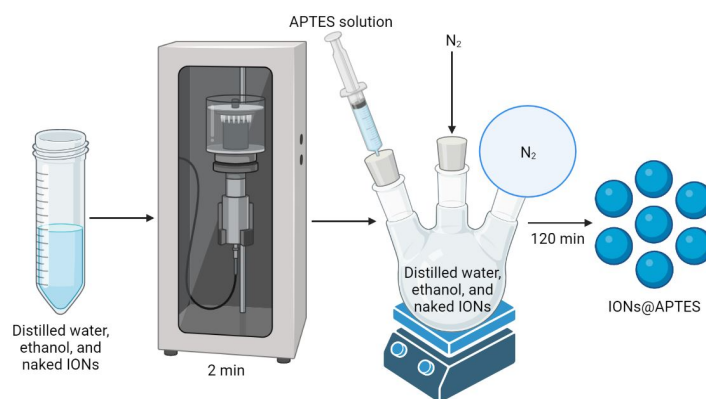


Figure 3-2 Schematic illustration of the APTES functionalisation of naked IONs

3.2.2.1.3 L-Lys@IONS

The method proposed by Ebrahimezhad et al. [4] was used to synthesise the L-Lys@IONS (Figure 3-3). $FeSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$ (0.74 g), $FeCl_3 \cdot 6H_2O$ (1.17 g), and L-Lys (1.6 g) were dissolved in distilled water (50 mL), and the solution was vigorously mixed for 1 h at 70 °C in a N_2 atmosphere. After 1 h, 5 mL of NH_4OH was added to the reaction, and the solution was stirred for a further 1.5 h. The magnetic particles were then magnetically collected, and the black

precipitate was washed with hot distilled water to exclude impurities. The particles were dried in an oven (Contherm Thermotec 2000, Contherm Scientific Ltd, Wellington, New Zealand) at 50 °C overnight (24 h).

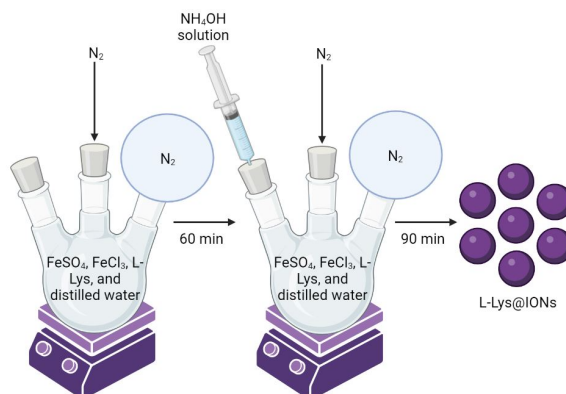


Figure 3-3 Schematic description of the synthesis of L-Lys-functionalised IONs

3.2.2.2 Characterisation of the synthesised NPs

3.2.2.2.1 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

The size and morphology of the synthesised NPs were ascertained by TEM (Philips, CM 10, Philips Electron Optics, Eindhoven, The Netherlands). For the TEM analysis, a NP dispersion was prepared in distilled water, and a drop of the solution was put on a carbon-coated copper grid. Images were captured at HT 100 kV.

3.2.2.2.2 Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy

FTIR spectroscopy (Bruker VERTEX 70 FTIR spectrometer, Bruker, Kassel, Germany), in the range of 4000-400 cm⁻¹, was used to establish the presence of key functional groups and chemical bonds. A pellet, with a NP-to-potassium bromide (KBr) ratio of 1%, was prepared before the FTIR procedure and placed in a hydraulic press for 10 min to create a solid disc. The samples were analysed by the FTIR instrument at room temperature.

3.2.2.2.3 X-ray powder diffraction (XRD)

The crystal structure of the NPs was determined by XRD (Siemens D5000, Munich, Germany), with a 2-theta (2θ) between 20-90°. The dried powder was packed on a zero-background silicon (Si) holder, and the excess was removed using a brush and straight edge. The analysis was carried out at ambient temperature, 40 mA, and 45 kV, using an exploration range (2θ) between 20-90° and a step size of 0.0530°.

3.2.2.2.4 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

SEM (Hitachi Regulus SU8230 FE-SEM, Tokyo, Japan) was used to visualise the surface structure of the NPs and their interaction with the bacterial cells. The pure IONs (naked,

IONs@APTES, and L-Lys@IONs) were observed in their powdered state, whereas the samples involving bacterial cells were fixed on glass coverslips, as outlined below. Before SEM analysis, all samples (NP powders and fixed bacterial cells) were mounted on aluminium (Al) stubs and coated with Pt using a sputter coater (Hitachi, E1030, Tokyo, Japan). SEM images of pure IONs, free-floating bacterial cells, and cells immobilised with naked and coated IONs were taken at 3 kV.

3.2.2.2.4.1 Cell fixation and sample preparation for SEM

Bacterial cells in the presence and absence of NPs were fixed on glass coverslips to view the cell morphology and attachment of NPs to the bacterial cell surface via SEM. Although several chemical agents, including formaldehyde (FA), GA, osmium tetroxide (OsO₄), and uranyl acetate (UrAc), are available for cell fixation, GA was selected as the fixative agent in this study due to its accessibility and suitability for SEM studies. Previous MK-7 studies [2, 5] have also used GA for cell fixation to visualise the interactions between bacterial cells and various IONs. The surface structure of both the bacterial cells and NPs was preserved and successfully visualised using SEM, and no notable negative impact on the quality of the samples was observed.

Cell fixation was carried out at room temperature using the procedure explained by Ebrahiminezhad et al. [5]. A small drop (approximately 10 µL) of the cell suspension was placed on a glass coverslip. The coverslip was swirled in a circular motion to achieve a thin smear, and the liquid was heat-fixed by passing the bacterial smear through the flame of a Bunsen burner. The cells were chemically fixed using 2.5% (v/v) GA in 0.1 M C₂H₆AsNaO₂ buffer for 45 min and rinsed with saline (0.9% (w/v) NaCl) for 15 min. Cell dehydration was conducted by keeping the coverslip in a series of ethanol concentrations (30, 50, 70, 80, 90, and 95%) for 10 min each. The coverslip was then stored in absolute ethanol for 20 min and subjected to critical point drying (Polaron E3000, Quorum Technologies, East Sussex, England, UK) for 2 h, as opposed to air drying, to protect the surface structure of the cells.

3.2.3 Experimental design and statistical analysis

3.2.3.1 Preliminary experiments

A preliminary investigation with a linear experimental design was carried out to assess the effect of selected nutrient sources and fermentation conditions on the resulting MK-7 isomer composition. Aspects such as the type and concentration of media components, the fermentation temperature, the length of fermentation, dynamic versus static fermentation, and the fermentation volume were considered at an elementary level to observe the general trends, acquire a basic understanding of the effect of the different variables on MK-7 isomer production, and inform decisions regarding the range of each factor to be examined in greater detail in the optimisation experiments. As this preliminary analysis was rudimentary and purely observational, the isomer concentrations resulting from fermentation were not quantified. Instead, rough conclusions were

drawn from the appearance of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer peaks in the LC chromatograms corresponding to each sample (Appendix A).

Three sets of media (Table 3-1) were used for the preliminary experiments. The compositions of media 1 and 3 were arbitrarily derived with guidance from various sources [6, 7], whereas media 2 was obtained from Berenjian et al. [1] and is known to result in a high MK-7 concentration.

Table 3-1 Media compositions used for the preliminary studies

Media 1	Media 2	Media 3
Tryptone = 17 g/L	Yeast extract = 5% (w/v)	Peptone = 1% (w/v)
Soytone = 3 g/L	Soy peptone = 18.9% (w/v)	NaCl = 0.25% (w/v)
Glucose = 52.5 g/L	Glycerol = 5% (v/v)	Glucose = 0.5% (w/v)
NaCl = 5 g/L	K ₂ HPO ₄ = 0.06% (w/v)	
K ₂ HPO ₄ = 2.5 g/L		
Yeast extract = 8 g/L		

3.2.3.1.1 Experiment 1

The media described in Table 3-1 was prepared in duplicate (A and B), and distilled water was added to achieve a fermentation volume of 50 mL (in a 100 mL shake flask). After sterilisation, all samples were inoculated with 2% (v/v) of the bacterial spore suspension and fermented at 37 °C and 120 rpm for 2 days (bioline incubator shaker 8500, Bioline Global Pty Ltd, NSW, Australia). Following fermentation, 3 mL of each sample was extracted for analysis and reconstituted in 3 mL of methanol. These parameters were selected at random and based on past observations and experience.

Definite MK-7 peaks were not observed in the chromatograms for all three types of media. Although the size of the peaks was too small to be recognised by the instrument, the chromatograms pertaining to media 1 (A and B) showed a slight all-*trans* MK-7 peak at approximately 21 min. The lack of clearly defined MK-7 peaks for all samples was speculated to be due to the following:

- Short fermentation time (2 days) – A longer fermentation time may be necessary to enable greater MK-7 production, such that the instrument can discern the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 peaks.
- Large fermentation volume (50 mL) – Due to the large fermentation volume, only part of the total sample could be extracted, and all the MK-7 produced during fermentation was not available for analysis.
- Small sample volume used for extraction (3 mL) – A greater sample volume may be required to ensure that a sufficient quantity of MK-7 is obtainable for HPLC.

3.2.3.1.2 Experiment 2

The above procedure was repeated, and all aspects were identical to experiment 1, except the fermentation time was increased to 4 days to explore the effect of a longer fermentation time on the MK-7 isomer profile.

Overall, the results of the second trial were preferable to the first, as noticeably larger all-*trans* MK-7 peaks were observed for samples A and B of media 1, and both samples for media 2 also showed obvious (although very small) peaks for the all-*trans* isomer. Additionally, while they were not recognised by the instrument, minor all-*trans* MK-7 peaks at around 21 min were visible for media 3 (both samples A and B). These results imply that a longer fermentation time is ideal, as it allows adequate time for a measurable quantity of MK-7 to be produced. It is important to note that a *cis* MK-7 peak was not detected for any of the samples. However, the chromatograms for samples A and B of media 1 showed a small peak at about 24 min, which likely corresponds to the *cis* isomer.

Further to the points noted in section 3.2.3.1.1, the following could also be possible reasons for the small all-*trans* MK-7 peaks that were achieved and the absence of distinguishable peaks for the *cis* isomer:

- Small inoculum volume (2% (v/v)) – There may not be enough bacteria to produce sufficient MK-7.
- Low fermentation temperature – Although a temperature of 37 °C is appropriate for the fermentation of *B. subtilis natto*, it may be too low to promote optimal bacterial growth and metabolism.

3.2.3.1.3 Experiment 3

A third study was conducted employing the same fermentation and analysis procedures as those outlined in section 3.2.3.1.1. However, a few changes were made based on the findings of the first two experiments:

- Fermentation time = 6 days
- Inoculum volume = 5% (v/v)
- Fermentation temperature = 40 °C

The results obtained in this experiment were inferior to the previous trial, as the all-*trans* MK-7 peak was smaller for media 1 (A and B) and media 2B, no *cis* isomer peaks were visible for any of the samples, and MK-7 peaks were absent for media 2A and media 3 (A and B). These observations implied that the conditions employed in trial 2 were better than trial 3. However, since more than one variable was different between experiments 2 and 3, it was not possible to ascribe the poor results to any factor in particular, and further investigation was necessary before any reliable conclusions could be drawn.

3.2.3.1.4 Experiment 4

The outcomes of earlier trials were used to design another experiment. The general approach was identical to the preceding investigations, but an additional media composition was considered, and a few parameters were altered to achieve more promising results. The media compositions are provided in Table 3-2, and the fermentation conditions are detailed below.

Table 3-2 Media compositions employed for trial experiment 4

Media 1	Media 2	Media 3	Media 4
Tryptone = 17 g/L	Yeast extract = 5% (w/v)	Peptone = 1% (w/v)	Tryptone = 17 g/L
Soytone = 3 g/L	Soy peptone = 18.9% (w/v)	NaCl = 0.25% (w/v)	Soytone = 3 g/L
Glucose = 52.5 g/L	Glycerol = 5% (v/v)	Glucose = 0.5% (w/v)	Glucose = 52.5 g/L
NaCl = 5 g/L	K ₂ HPO ₄ = 0.06% (w/v)		NaCl = 5 g/L
K ₂ HPO ₄ = 2.5 g/L			K ₂ HPO ₄ = 2.5 g/L
Yeast extract = 8 g/L			Yeast extract = 8 g/L
			Glycerol = 50 mL/L

- Fermentation time = 4 days
- Inoculum volume = 5% (v/v)
- Fermentation temperature = 37 °C
- Fermentation volume = 6 mL
- Agitation conditions = dynamic/120 rpm (sample A) and static (sample B)
- Extraction volume = 6 mL
- Methanol volume = 1 mL

The results of this trial were encouraging, as potential MK-7 peaks were observed for all samples. Detectable all-*trans* MK-7 peaks at approximately 21 min were noted for each media composition (while not completely discerned by the instrument, a small peak was visible for sample B of media 3). This contrasts previous experiments, where the peak representing the all-*trans* isomer was not obtained for all samples. A *cis* MK-7 peak at around 24 min was also evident for both samples of media 2 (A and B) and sample A for media 4.

Unlike the earlier investigations, the small fermentation volume used in this experiment allowed the entire sample to be extracted. Thus, all the MK-7 produced during fermentation was analysed rather than just a fraction of the total quantity, which was the case when using a larger fermentation volume (50 mL). The methanol volume was also reduced to 1 mL to avoid substantially diluting the MK-7. Both of these factors likely contributed to increasing the amount of MK-7 available for analysis and improved the detection of MK-7 peaks by the HPLC system, especially for the *cis* isomer, which is synthesised in much smaller quantities relative to all-*trans* MK-7.

The effect of glycerol on MK-7 isomer production was considered in this experiment by comparing the peaks in the chromatograms of media 1 and 4, which had the same composition,

except media 4 also contained glycerol. Glycerol is known to have a positive impact on MK-7 production, but this has not been explored from the perspective of MK-7 isomers. The size of the all-*trans* MK-7 peak for samples A and B of media 1 was slightly greater than that for the respective samples of media 4, indicating that glycerol does not enhance the production of the bioactive isomer. The influence of glycerol on MK-7 isomer production may be different when combined with other types and concentrations of nutrients, as one or more media components may exert a collective effect on the response; however, it was not possible to examine this in a linear study.

Furthermore, the impact of dynamic versus static fermentation conditions was evaluated by fermenting one sample (A) for each media at 120 rpm (dynamic) and the other (B) in the absence of agitation (static). The all-*trans* MK-7 peak for most of the A samples was larger than the B samples for each kind of media, suggesting that dynamic fermentation conditions improve MK-7 production compared to static conditions. Agitation during fermentation reduces heat, oxygen, and mass transfer gradients, resulting in a homogenous fermentation environment relative to static conditions, facilitating cell growth, metabolism, and product formation.

Although the results achieved in this trial experiment were the most favourable, they cannot be attributed to any specific factor, as many variables were altered from the previous trial. Moreover, the reliability of the results may be compromised due to the lack of replicate samples, and additional studies are required to establish more accurate and reliable trends in the data.

3.2.3.1.5 Experiment 5

The concentration range of each nutrient for the screening study was initially assessed in a trial experiment to determine the appropriate design space in which to screen and optimise the concentration of significant media components. Ten different nutrients (glucose, glycerol, yeast extract, soy peptone, peptone, tryptone, soytone, K₂HPO₄, CaCl₂, and NaCl) were selected using the composition of media 1-4 as a guide.

Generally, the concentration of carbon and nitrogen sources in fermentation media is greater than salt sources. Since the studied media (media 1-4) had a diverse concentration of nutrients, a wide concentration range was first explored to gain a broad perspective. Accordingly, for the selected media components, the concentration of carbon and nitrogen sources was considered between 0.5-10% (w/w for all dry nutrients and v/v for glycerol), and the salt sources were examined between 0.05-2% (w/w).

A basic design of experiments (DOE) plan was created (Table 3-3) and used to prepare the samples (6 mL). The samples were sterilised, inoculated with 5% (v/v) of the microbial spore suspension, and fermented at 37 °C and 120 rpm for 6 days (bioline incubator shaker 8500, Bioline Global Pty Ltd, NSW, Australia). Following fermentation, the whole sample was extracted and dissolved in 1 mL of methanol for HPLC analysis.

Table 3-3 Basic DOE plan to determine a suitable range of nutrient concentrations for the screening and optimisation studies

Sample	Media Components (g or µL)									
	Glucose	Glycerol	Yeast Extract	Soy Peptone	Peptone	Tryptone	Soytone	K ₂ HPO ₄	CaCl ₂	NaCl
1	0.6	30	0.03	0.03	0.6	0.03	0.03	0.12	0.12	0.003
2	0.6	600	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.6	0.03	0.003	0.12	0.12
3	0.6	600	0.6	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.6	0.003	0.003	0.12
4	0.6	600	0.6	0.6	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.12	0.003	0.003
5	0.03	600	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.03	0.03	0.003	0.12	0.003
6	0.6	30	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.03	0.003	0.003	0.12
7	0.03	600	0.03	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.003	0.003	0.003
8	0.6	30	0.6	0.03	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.12	0.003	0.003
9	0.6	600	0.03	0.6	0.03	0.6	0.6	0.12	0.12	0.003
10	0.03	600	0.6	0.03	0.6	0.03	0.6	0.12	0.12	0.12
11	0.03	30	0.6	0.6	0.03	0.6	0.03	0.12	0.12	0.12
12	0.6	30	0.03	0.6	0.6	0.03	0.6	0.003	0.12	0.12
13	0.03	600	0.03	0.03	0.6	0.6	0.03	0.12	0.003	0.12
14	0.03	30	0.6	0.03	0.03	0.6	0.6	0.003	0.12	0.003
15	0.03	30	0.03	0.6	0.03	0.03	0.6	0.12	0.003	0.12
16	0.03	30	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.003	0.003	0.003
17	0.315	315	0.315	0.315	0.315	0.315	0.315	0.0615	0.0615	0.0615
18	0.315	315	0.315	0.315	0.315	0.315	0.315	0.0615	0.0615	0.0615
19	0.315	315	0.315	0.315	0.315	0.315	0.315	0.0615	0.0615	0.0615

Carbon and Nitrogen Sources:

0.03 g and 30 µL = 0.5% (w/v or v/v)

0.315 g and 315 µL = 5.25% (w/v or v/v)

0.6 g and 600 µL = 10% (w/v or v/v)

Salt Sources:

0.003 g = 0.05% (w/v)

0.0615 g = 1.025% (w/v)

0.12 g = 2% (w/v)

Total Sample Volume = 6 mL

Exploring an appropriate range of nutrient concentrations is essential when developing an optimal fermentation media. Low nutrient concentrations may not adequately support microbial growth, metabolism, and product formation; conversely, high concentrations can decrease the water activity and place osmotic stress on the bacterial cells, resulting in cell death.

MK-7 peaks were not visible for the majority of the samples. The all-*trans* isomer peak was observed for samples 11, 15, 16, and 18, and only samples 15 and 16 showed a *cis* MK-7 peak. Sample 16 had the lowest concentration of all nutrients and the largest all-*trans* MK-7 peak. The second largest all-*trans* isomer peak was obtained for sample 15, which had two nitrogen and two salt sources at their highest concentration. In contrast, sample 11 had three nitrogen and all salt sources at their highest concentration, and sample 18 had all nutrients at their intermediate concentration. These conditions resulted in a very small all-*trans* MK-7 peak for both samples. In addition, samples 17 and 19, identical to sample 18, did not display any MK-7 peaks, suggesting that the results have low reliability and reproducibility at these nutrient concentrations.

The lack of MK-7 peaks in samples with high nutrient concentrations implies that the cumulative effect of many nutrients at high concentrations likely subjects the cells to osmotic stress. It is evident that the investigated range of concentrations were too high and inapt to support MK-7 production; hence, a lower maximum concentration of all nutrient sources is potentially ideal for maintaining osmotic balance and promoting bacterial growth, metabolism, and MK-7 synthesis.

Overall, the results of the preliminary investigation (experiments 1-5) indicate that a small fermentation volume (to enable extraction of the entire sample), an inoculum volume of 5% (v/v), a fermentation temperature of 37 °C, an agitation speed of 120 rpm, a fermentation time of 4-6 days, and a lower span of nutrient concentrations provide a suitable basis for further studies.

3.2.3.2 Optimisation of the fermentation media and key fermentation parameters

Despite the value of linear experiments in establishing a basic understanding of the influence of different variables on the MK-7 isomer profile attained from fermentation, it only allows the impact of each factor to be assessed independently and does not account for the possible combined or interactive effects of the factors. Examining the interactions between variables is imperative, as the contribution of each factor to the overall fermentation process is not isolated. Instead, the impact of the different variables on the production of the desired product is often interrelated and collectively affects the fermentation efficiency. Therefore, a DOE approach was employed to consider both the individual and interactive effects of the various factors to develop the ideal fermentation media and ascertain the optimal value of important fermentation parameters.

The MODDE version 13 software (Sartorius, Gottingen, Germany) was used to create the design matrices, develop the regression models, and determine the optimum level of the media components, inoculum concentration, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and length of

fermentation to maximise the all-*trans* MK-7 concentration and minimise the concentration of the *cis* isomer.

The optimal value of the media components and operating conditions was established using multiple linear regression (MLR), in which a line of best fit was determined for the data by minimising the sum of squares of the errors (residuals) resulting from differences in the observed experimental values and the values predicted by the developed model, such that the vertical distance from the data points to the regression line was minimised. Any outlying data points were removed to improve the accuracy and fit of the regression model.

A second-order polynomial regression model (Eq. 3-2) was generated for each response using the experimental data.

$$Y = b_0 + \sum b_i X_i + \sum b_{ii} X_i^2 + \sum b_{ij} X_i X_j \quad (\text{Eq. 3-2})$$

Where Y represents the all-*trans* or *cis* MK-7 isomer concentration; b_0 is a constant term; b_i , b_{ii} , and b_{ij} are the coefficients of the linear, quadratic, and synergistic effects, respectively; and X_i and X_j correspond to the significant factors.

The R^2 -value was used to express the quality of the fit for the developed regression models, and statistical significance was determined using the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test and accepted at $p < 0.1$. While it is appreciated that significance is commonly accepted at $p < 0.05$ (95% confidence interval (CI)), a significance level of $p < 0.1$ (90% CI) was selected for the optimisation experiments (fermentation media and key fermentation parameters). The p -value for most variables was borderline (slightly more than 0.05) and not deemed statistically significant based on the experimental results. However, the significance of these factors in MK-7 fermentation has been established in past studies. Thus, ignoring the potential significance of these variables simply due to a low p -value would reduce the validity of the overall analysis. Accordingly, a significance level of $p < 0.1$ was preferred for these investigations, as it provided meaningful results and was more suitable for the factors considered.

3.2.3.2.1 Fermentation media

3.2.3.2.1.1 Screening study

Assorted medium components (carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources) that enhanced MK-7 production in the preliminary studies and previous investigations [1, 7-13] were initially screened within a suitable range of concentrations, and their impact on the MK-7 isomer composition was evaluated. A Plackett Burman design (PBD) was used to examine the individual effects of the different factors on the all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentrations attained from fermentation. A PBD is a standard two-level fractional factorial screening design that allows the main effects of each factor to be estimated and the maximum amount of information to be extracted with the lowest number of experimental runs, saving time and resources. This design was deemed suitable for screening, as it allowed the important nutrients that significantly impact MK-7 isomer production

to be determined from 10 possible nutrient choices in the smallest number of experimental runs (19), reducing the number of nutrients investigated in the optimisation study. However, a PBD only allows the main effects of each factor to be examined and does not account for the possible interactions between variables. Nevertheless, estimating interactive effects was not essential during the screening stage, and this was considered in the optimisation study. Each factor was assessed at three levels (low, intermediate, and high), and the experimental plan for the screening study is outlined in Table 3-4.

Table 3-4 DOE plan for the screening of various carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources

Sample	Media Components (g or μL)									
	Glucose	Glycerol	Yeast Extract	Soy Peptone	Peptone	Tryptone	Soytone	K_2HPO_4	CaCl_2	NaCl
1	0.12	0	0	0	0.12	0	0	0.06	0.06	0
2	0.12	120	0	0	0	0.12	0	0	0.06	0.06
3	0.12	120	0.12	0	0	0	0.12	0	0	0.06
4	0.12	120	0.12	0.12	0	0	0	0.06	0	0
5	0	120	0.12	0.12	0.12	0	0	0	0.06	0
6	0.12	0	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0	0	0	0.06
7	0	120	0	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0	0	0
8	0.12	0	0.12	0	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.06	0	0
9	0.12	120	0	0.12	0	0.12	0.12	0.06	0.06	0
10	0	120	0.12	0	0.12	0	0.12	0.06	0.06	0.06
11	0	0	0.12	0.12	0	0.12	0	0.06	0.06	0.06
12	0.12	0	0	0.12	0.12	0	0.12	0	0.06	0.06
13	0	120	0	0	0.12	0.12	0	0.06	0	0.06
14	0	0	0.12	0	0	0.12	0.12	0	0.06	0
15	0	0	0	0.12	0	0	0.12	0.06	0	0.06
16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
17	0.06	60	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.03	0.03	0.03
18	0.06	60	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.03	0.03	0.03
19	0.06	60	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.03	0.03	0.03

Carbon and Nitrogen Sources:

0 g and 0 μL = 0% (w/v or v/v)

0.06 g and 60 μL = 1% (w/v or v/v)

0.12 g and 120 μL = 2% (w/v or v/v)

Salt Sources:

0 g = 0% (w/v)

0.03 g = 0.5% (w/v)

0.06 g = 1% (w/v)

Total Sample Volume = 6 mL

3.2.3.2.1.2 Optimisation study

A central composite face-centred (CCF) design, a type of response surface design with star points at the centre of each face of the factorial space, was employed to optimise the significant variables determined from the screening stage, and response surface methodology (RSM) was applied to analyse the results. Since there were fewer nutrients, a more comprehensive study design was appropriate to investigate possible factor interactions and develop a quadratic model for the responses (all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentrations). The experimental plan for the optimisation study is shown in Table 3-5.

Table 3-5 DOE plan to optimise the concentration of significant nutrients

Sample	Media Components (g)				
	Glucose	Yeast Extract	Soy Peptone	Tryptone	CaCl ₂
1	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06
2	0.12	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.006
3	0.06	0.12	0.06	0.06	0.006
4	0.12	0.12	0.06	0.06	0.06
5	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.06	0.006
6	0.12	0.06	0.12	0.06	0.06
7	0.06	0.12	0.12	0.06	0.06
8	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.06	0.006
9	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.006
10	0.12	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.06
11	0.06	0.12	0.06	0.12	0.06
12	0.12	0.12	0.06	0.12	0.006
13	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.12	0.06
14	0.12	0.06	0.12	0.12	0.006
15	0.06	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.006
16	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.06
17	0.06	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.033
18	0.12	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.033
19	0.063	0.06	0.063	0.063	0.033
20	0.063	0.12	0.063	0.063	0.033
21	0.063	0.063	0.06	0.063	0.033
22	0.063	0.063	0.12	0.063	0.033
23	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.06	0.033
24	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.12	0.033
25	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.006
26	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.06
27	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.033

28	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.033
29	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.033

Carbon and Nitrogen Sources:

0.06 g = 1% (w/v)

0.063 g = 1.05% (w/v)

0.12 g = 2% (w/v)

Salt Sources:

0.006 g = 0.1% (w/v)

0.033 g = 0.55% (w/v)

0.06 g = 1% (w/v)

Total Sample Volume = 6 mL

3.2.3.2.1.3 Validation and monitoring study

The optimum concentration of the media components to maximise the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and minimise the production of *cis* MK-7 was determined by solving the regression equations within the design space. Three replicate samples were prepared with the nutrient concentrations proposed by the MODDE software and fermented under the conditions used in the screening and optimisation experiments. The all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentrations obtained from fermentation were compared with the software prediction to validate the experimental results.

A time-course study was then conducted to monitor trends in MK-7 isomer production, bacterial growth, and pH during fermentation employing the optimum media composition. The fermentation conditions were the same as the screening and optimisation experiments and validation study. The samples were prepared in triplicate, and three were harvested each day of fermentation (days 0-6) to measure the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations, microbial growth, and pH.

3.2.3.2.2 Key fermentation parameters

A CCF design and RSM were used to evaluate and optimise the value of essential fermentation parameters, specifically the inoculum concentration, agitation speed, fermentation temperature, and duration of fermentation. Since these factors are known to have a significant impact on the product concentration, screening was not carried out, unlike the media experiments. The range for each fermentation parameter was derived from the preliminary studies and prior investigations [1, 6, 9, 12, 14-18], and the DOE plan is shown in Table 3-6.

Table 3-6 DOE plan for the optimisation of key fermentation parameters

Sample	Inoculum Size (% (v/v))	Temperature (°C)	Agitation Speed (rpm)	Fermentation Time (days)
1	2	35	100	4
2	10	35	100	4
3	2	45	100	4
4	10	45	100	4
5	2	35	200	4
6	10	35	200	4

7	2	45	200	4
8	10	45	200	4
9	2	35	100	10
10	10	35	100	10
11	2	45	100	10
12	10	45	100	10
13	2	35	200	10
14	10	35	200	10
15	2	45	200	10
16	10	45	200	10
17	2	40	150	7
18	10	40	150	7
19	6	35	150	7
20	6	45	150	7
21	6	40	100	7
22	6	40	200	7
23	6	40	150	4
24	6	40	150	10
25	6	40	150	7
26	6	40	150	7
27	6	40	150	7

Level of Each Factor:

Total Sample Volume = 6 mL

Low

Intermediate

High

3.2.3.3 NP experiments

The optimal media composition and fermentation conditions were applied to prepare the sample media and conduct fermentation. A larger media volume (20 mL) was used to facilitate the attachment of NPs to the surface of the bacterial cells and accommodate sample measurements. A NP stock solution (0.01 g/mL) was prepared with distilled water. A different volume of the stock solution was added to each sample to achieve the various NP concentrations considered (0-600 µg/mL), and a suitable volume of distilled water was added to all samples to obtain an equal volume. The components comprising the different samples and their respective quantities are listed in Table 3-7. The samples for each type of ION (naked, IONs@APTES, and L-Lys@IONs) were prepared separately and in triplicate (three samples for each NP concentration).

Table 3-7 Sample composition for each NP concentration

Sample	Media Volume (mL)	NP Stock Volume (mL)	Distilled Water Volume (mL)	Total Volume (mL)
0 µg/mL (control)	20	0.0	1.2	21.2
100 µg/mL	20	0.2	1.0	21.2
200 µg/mL	20	0.4	0.8	21.2
300 µg/mL	20	0.6	0.6	21.2
400 µg/mL	20	0.8	0.4	21.2
500 µg/mL	20	1.0	0.2	21.2
600 µg/mL	20	1.2	0.0	21.2

ANOVA was used to evaluate statistical significance, and the mean values of different groups were compared with a two-sample *t*-test. The data were described as the mean \pm standard error (SE) of three replicate samples, and statistical significance was accepted at $p < 0.05$. The typical significance level of 0.05 was fit for these studies, as it was appropriate for the variables examined and allowed noteworthy results, in agreement with previous reports, to be attained.

A time-course monitoring study was conducted to assess the variation in MK-7 isomer production, microbial growth, and pH during fermentation in the presence of the optimal naked and amine-functionalised ION concentration. The fermentation conditions were identical to the initial experiments. The samples were prepared in triplicate, and three were harvested each day of fermentation (days 0-7) to analyse the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations, bacterial growth, and pH.

3.2.3.4 Environmental factors and storage conditions study

The optimum media composition and value of key fermentation parameters were employed to prepare and ferment the samples, and MK-7 was extracted from the samples, as discussed in section 3.2.5. The extracted MK-7 samples (contained in transparent McCartney bottles) were then exposed to various environmental and storage conditions to explore the short- and long-term impact of these factors on the MK-7 isomer composition.

Several temperature (low (4 °C), ambient (20 °C), and high (100 °C)), light (no light/dark, ambient light, and UV light), and oxygen (exposed to atmospheric oxygen and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen) conditions were selected to simulate likely storage environments for fermented MK-7 consumer end products, such as MK-7-enriched fortified or functional foods and dietary supplements. Possible conditions that fermented MK-7 could be exposed to during the manufacture of these products were also considered.

The effect of short-term exposure to the different temperature, light, and oxygen conditions on the isomer profile of fermented MK-7 was first examined. The samples were

prepared in triplicate and subjected to the factors outlined in Table 3-8 for 0, 3, 6, and 9 days to investigate the variation in the isomer composition over a brief timeframe for all conditions.

Table 3-8 Environmental and storage conditions for the short-term exposure study

Sample	Conditions
1	Low temperature (4 °C) and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the fridge with the lid off
2	Low temperature (4 °C) and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the fridge with the lid on (purged with N ₂)
3	High temperature (100 °C) and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the oven with the lid off
4	High temperature (100 °C) and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the oven with the lid on (purged with N ₂)
5	No light and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the dark with the lid off at ambient temperature (by default)
6	No light and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the dark with the lid on (purged with N ₂) at ambient temperature (by default)
7	Ambient light and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in ambient light (lamp) with the lid off at ambient temperature (by default)
8	Ambient light and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in ambient light (lamp) with the lid on (purged with N ₂) at ambient temperature (by default)
9	UV light and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in UV light (lamp) with the lid off at ambient temperature (by default)
10	UV light and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in UV light (lamp) with the lid on (purged with N ₂) at ambient temperature (by default)

The optimum storage conditions, which resulted in the least deterioration of all-*trans* MK-7, determined from the short-term investigation, were further analysed in a monitoring study to explore the stability of the all-*trans* isomer and variation in the isomer profile over an extended period. Accordingly, the samples were prepared in triplicate and stored at a low temperature (4 °C) with minimal oxygen exposure in the absence of light for 8 weeks. The MK-7 isomer composition was analysed after 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 weeks of storage.

Statistical significance was determined by ANOVA, and a two-sample *t*-test was used to compare the mean values of different groups. The data were reported as the mean \pm standard deviation (SD) of three replicates, and statistical significance was accepted at $p < 0.05$. Similar to the NP studies, the standard significance level of 0.05 was considered appropriate to achieve meaningful outcomes for the variables assessed in the storage investigation.

3.2.4 Fermentation process

The fermentation media was either prepared individually in McCartney bottles or in bulk in a Schott bottle before dispensing into suitable fermentation vessels (McCartney bottles or shake flasks), depending on the nature of the experiments. The media, fermentation vessels, and all relevant equipment required for sample inoculation were sterilised in an autoclave (TOMY SX-700E, Tokyo, Japan) at 121 °C for 20 min. The media was allowed to cool before sample preparation and inoculation with the bacterial spore suspension. The experimental samples were then fermented aerobically in an environment relevant to the aspect(s) studied. The overall experimental workflow is outlined in (Figure 3-4).

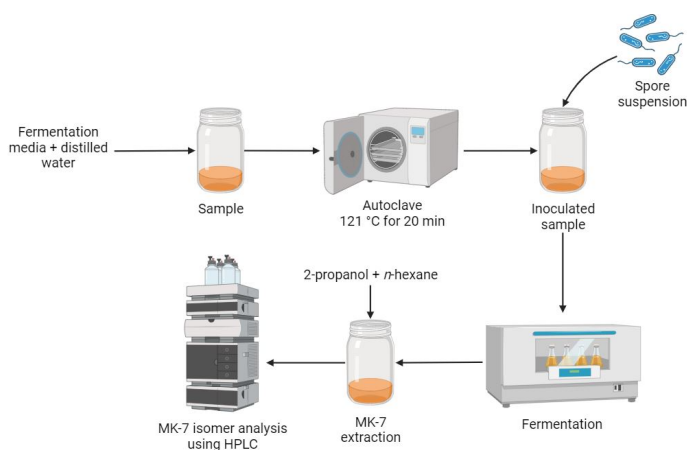


Figure 3-4 Experimental workflow

3.2.4.1 Screening and optimisation experiments

All screening and optimisation experiments were carried out in McCartney bottles with a fermentation volume of 6 mL to allow extraction of the entire sample and eliminate any errors associated with sampling from the fermentation media. The samples were prepared separately and sterilised before inoculating with the bacterial spore suspension, as described above. All samples were fermented in a shaker incubator (bioline incubator shaker 8500, Bioline Global Pty Ltd, NSW, Australia) according to the DOE plan.

3.2.4.2 NP studies

The fermentation experiments involving NPs were performed in 50 mL shake flasks with a sample volume of just over 20 mL. The media was prepared and sterilised in bulk, as previously outlined, and added to each sample prior to inoculation.

The bacterial cells were immobilised with uncoated and amine-functionalised IONs (IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs). A schematic representation of the decoration of bacterial cells with naked IONs, IONs@APTES, and L-Lys@IONs is illustrated in Figure 3-5. Each type of NP was individually dispersed in sterilised distilled water by sonication (Qsonica-Q800R, Newtown, CT, USA) for 2 min to prepare a stock solution (0.01 g/mL), and different

concentrations (0, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, and 600 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) of the NP stock were added to the samples. The samples for each type of NP were prepared separately and fermented under optimum conditions in a shaker incubator (bioline incubator shaker 8500, Bioline Global Pty Ltd, NSW, Australia).

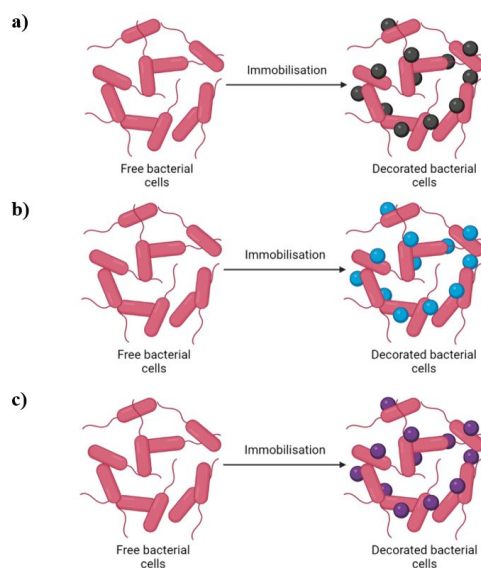


Figure 3-5 Bacterial cell immobilisation with a) naked IONs, b) IONs@APTES, and c) L-Lys@IONs

3.2.4.3 Storage investigations

The samples for both the short- and long-term exposure studies were fermented in McCartney bottles. Owing to the large number of samples required for the storage experiments, the media was prepared and sterilised in bulk. After sterilisation, 10 mL of the media was added to each McCartney bottle before inoculating with the bacterial spore suspension. A slightly greater fermentation volume was selected for these experiments to account for sample losses due to evaporation and ensure that a sufficient quantity remained for extraction. The samples were fermented in an optimal environment in a shaker incubator (bioline incubator shaker 8500, Bioline Global Pty Ltd, NSW, Australia).

3.2.5 MK-7 extraction

MK-7 was extracted from the samples prior to analysis using a mixture of 2-propanol and *n*-hexane in a ratio of 1:2 (*v/v*) and a liquid-to-organic ratio of 1:4 (*v/v*) [1]. The mixture was vigorously shaken for 2 min using a vortex mixer and centrifuged (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min to separate the two phases. Since MK-7 is a lipid-soluble vitamin, it preferentially dissolves in *n*-hexane, a non-polar solvent. Therefore, the upper hexane layer was removed from the aqueous phase and evaporated under a vacuum to recover the extracted MK-7. The extracted samples were reconstituted in 0.75 mL or 1 mL of methanol, filtered through a 0.2 μm syringe filter, and dispensed in HPLC vials for analysis.

The amount of methanol used for dilution depended on the fermentation volume relative to the volume extracted and the factors investigated in each study. A methanol volume of 1 mL was used for the optimisation experiments, as the small fermentation volume enabled the entire sample to be extracted. This reduced any errors due to sampling from the fermentation broth, and the concentration of MK-7 isomers in these samples was adequately detected by the HPLC system when diluted with 1 mL of methanol. Since the fermentation volume was large for the NP investigations, only a fraction of the total sample was extracted; consequently, not all the MK-7 produced during fermentation could be analysed. Hence, the methanol volume was reduced to 0.75 mL to increase the concentration of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 in the HPLC samples and allow the corresponding peaks to be distinguished by the instrument. For the short- and long-term storage studies, although the small fermentation volume allowed the whole sample to be extracted, exposure to the different environmental factors and storage conditions decreased the concentration of MK-7 isomers, especially the *cis* isomer, in the samples over the investigated timeframes. Thus, a methanol volume of 0.75 mL was the most appropriate to permit the equipment to detect low concentrations of the isomers. It was not feasible to use a methanol volume less than 0.75 mL, as at lower volumes, the liquid level in the HPLC vial was insufficient to enable sampling by the instrument.

3.2.6 Analytical methods

3.2.6.1 HPLC

A MK-7 calibration curve (Figure 3-6) was constructed based on the peak area corresponding to known concentrations of the analytical standard and used to infer the MK-7 concentration of the fermented samples. The MK-7 calibration curve was linear between 0.1 mg/L and 50 mg/L ($R^2 = 0.99$). A single curve was suitable to determine both the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 concentrations due to the isomeric nature of these compounds.

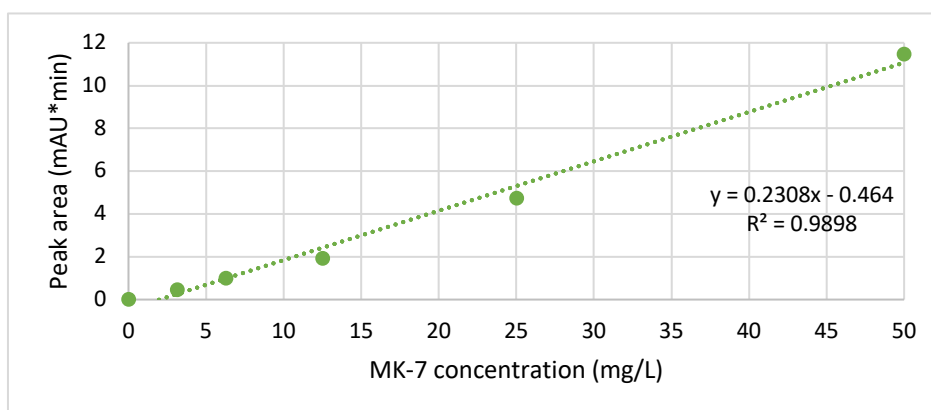


Figure 3-6 MK-7 calibration curve

MK-7 analysis was carried out using the method summarised by Berenjjan et al. [19] with minor alterations to accommodate the requirements of the chromatography column used in this

study. A Dionex HPLC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) equipped with four pumps (P680), an automated sample injector (ASI-100), a thermostatted column compartment (TCC-100), and a photodiode array UV detector (UVD340U) was employed to analyse and determine the concentration of MK-7 isomers in the fermented samples. A reversed-phase COSMOSIL Cholester packed column (100 mm × 2 mm × 2.5 μm; Nacalai Tesque Inc., Kyoto, Japan) was used to separate the compounds at 40 °C. Methanol constituted the mobile phase, and the compounds were eluted isocratically at a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min. The injection volume, autosampler temperature, analytical wavelength, and run-time were 10 μL, 10 °C, 248 nm, and 30 min, respectively. The Chromeleon 7 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used for data acquisition.

3.2.6.2 LC-MS

Compared to conventional MK-7 analytical methods, which do not evaluate the isomer composition of samples, the analysis and measurement of MK-7 isomers are more elaborate due to the lack of specific reference standards for the various possible *cis* forms of the vitamin. Therefore, it is necessary to apply LC-MS techniques to verify the presence and confirm the chromatographic retention times of the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomers present in fermented samples using the all-*trans* MK-7 reference standard. The approach employed by Szterk et al. [20] was used as a guide, and although the central principle was similar, particular aspects of the process were adapted to comply with the LC-MS system used in this study. The LC chromatograms and MS data for the all-*trans* MK-7 reference standard and an experimental sample are provided in Appendix B.

The LC-MS platform comprised a Dionex Ultimate 3000 UHPLC system and a QExactive mass spectrometer with a HESI II source (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The Thermo XCalibur 4.3 application (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to control the system, and data handling was carried out using the Chromeleon 7.3 program (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Separation was performed utilising the chromatographic conditions discussed in section 3.2.6.1, except the injection volume and run-time were altered to 5 μL and 37 min, respectively, to accommodate the requirements of the LC-MS system. Data collection was conducted in the positive ionisation mode with a MS1 scan range of 150-1000 *m/z*, a resolution of 70000, an AGC target of 3×10^6 , and a maximum injection time of 200 ms. The MS data were analysed using the Thermo FreeStyle 1.6 package (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

3.2.6.3 Cell density and pH measurements

Bacterial growth was estimated from the cell density, which was determined by measuring the optical density (OD) at 600 nm using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-1900, Kyoto, Japan) after appropriate dilution with distilled water. The pH was directly measured

in the cultivation medium with a standard laboratory pH meter (CyberScan pH 100, Eutech Instruments, Paisley, UK).

3.3 References

- [1] Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Biffin R, Regtop H, Valtchev P, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Efficient media for high menaquinone-7 production: response surface methodology approach. *New Biotechnology* 2011, 28(6), 665-672.
- [2] Ranmadugala D, Ebrahiminezhad A, Manley-Harris M, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. Impact of 3-Aminopropyltriethoxysilane-Coated Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on Menaquinone-7 Production Using *B. subtilis*. *Nanomaterials* 2017, 7(11), 350. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano7110350>
- [3] Ebrahiminezhad A, Rasoul-Amini S, Kouhpayeh A, Davaran S, Barar J, Ghasemi Y. Impacts of amine functionalized iron oxide nanoparticles on HepG2 cell line. *Current Nanoscience* 2015, 11(1), 113-119.
- [4] Ebrahiminezhad A, Varma V, Yang S, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. Synthesis and Application of Amine Functionalized Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on Menaquinone-7 Fermentation: A Step towards Process Intensification. *Nanomaterials* 2015, 6(1), 1. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano6010001>
- [5] Ebrahiminezhad A, Varma V, Yang S, Berenjian A. Magnetic immobilization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto cells for menaquinone-7 fermentation. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2015, 100(1), 173-180. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-015-6977-3>
- [6] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Utilization of glucose-based medium and optimization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto growth parameters for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology* 2018, 13, 219-224. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2017.12.009>
- [7] Song J, Liu H, Wang L, Dai J, Liu Y, Liu H, Zhao G, Wang P, Zheng Z. Enhanced Production of Vitamin K2 from *Bacillus subtilis* (natto) by Mutation and Optimization of the Fermentation Medium. *Brazilian Archives of Biology and Technology* 2014, 57(4), 606-612.
- [8] Hu X-c, Liu W-m, Luo M-m, Ren L-j, Ji X-j, Huang H. Enhancing Menaquinone-7 Production by *Bacillus natto* R127 Through the Nutritional Factors and Surfactant. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology* 2017, 182(4), 1630-1641. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12010-017-2423-6>
- [9] Luo M-m, Ren L-j, Chen S-l, Ji X-j, Huang H. Effect of media components and morphology of *Bacillus natto* on menaquinone-7 synthesis in submerged fermentation. *Biotechnology and Bioprocess Engineering* 2016, 21(6), 777-786. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12257-016-0202-9>
- [10] Ma Y, Tang PTP, McClure DD, Valtchev P, Ashton JF, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM. Development of a menaquinone-7 enriched functional food. *Food and Bioprocess Processing* 2019, 117, 258-265. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2019.06.017>

- [11] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Enhanced Vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) Production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in Biofilm Reactors by Optimization of Glucose-based Medium. *Current Pharmaceutical Biotechnology* 2018, 19(11), 917-924.
- [12] Singh R, Puri A, Panda B. Development of menaquinone-7 enriched nutraceutical: inside into medium engineering and process modeling. *Journal of Food Science and Technology* 2015, 52(8), 5212-5219. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-014-1600-7>
- [13] Wu W-J, Ahn B-Y. Statistical Optimization of Medium Components by Response Surface Methodology to Enhance Menaquinone-7 (Vitamin K2) Production by *Bacillus subtilis*. *Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2018, 28(6), 902-908.
- [14] Benedetti A, Daly S, Xaiz R, Pagani H (2010) Process for the preparation of vitamin K2, in Google Patents.
- [15] Berenjian A, Chan NL-C, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Effect of biofilm formation by *Bacillus subtilis* natto on menaquinone-7 biosynthesis. *Molecular Biotechnology* 2012, 54(2), 371-378.
- [16] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Optimization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto growth parameters in glycerol-based medium for vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering* 2018, 41(2), 195-204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-017-1857-0>
- [17] Sato T, Yamada Y, Ohtani Y, Mitsui N, Murasawa H, Araki S. Efficient production of menaquinone (vitamin K2) by a menadione-resistant mutant of *Bacillus subtilis*. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2001, 26(3), 115-120.
- [18] Wu W-J, Ahn B-Y. Improved menaquinone (Vitamin K2) production in cheonggukjang by optimization of the fermentation conditions. *Food Science and Biotechnology* 2011, 20(6), 1585-1591.
- [19] Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Designing of an intensification process for biosynthesis and recovery of menaquinone-7. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology* 2013, 172(3), 1347-1357.
- [20] Szterk A, Zmysłowski A, Bus K. Identification of cis/trans isomers of menaquinone-7 in food as exemplified by dietary supplements. *Food Chemistry* 2018, 243, 403-409. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.10.001>

4

Optimisation of the Fermentation Media to Enhance the Production of the Bioactive Isomer of Vitamin Menaquinone-7

A journal article published in

Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering

Volume 45, Issue 8, Springer, 2022

By

N. Lal, M. Seifan, and A. Berenjian

Chapter 4 – Optimisation of the Fermentation Media to Enhance the Production of the Bioactive Isomer of Vitamin Menaquinone-7

This chapter focuses on the fermentation media, which is at the heart of the upstream stage of any fermentation process and is the first step in designing a targeted fermentation method to enhance the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and reduce the production of *cis* MK-7. The assortment of nutrients comprising the fermentation media and their respective concentrations play an essential role in microbial growth and metabolism and, consequently, influence the efficiency of the fermentation process and the concentration and yield of the desired product. It is widely recognised that *B. subtilis natto* is the model microorganism for MK-7 fermentation; hence, it was deemed the most suitable for this study. Therefore, the media composition must be optimised to meet the growth and metabolic demands of the *B. subtilis natto* strain with regard to the objectives of this research.

A DOE approach was used to develop the ideal fermentation media. Several media components, including a variety of carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources, known to be beneficial in MK-7 fermentation using *B. subtilis natto* were initially assessed in a screening study to distinguish those that have a significant effect on MK-7 isomer production. The identified nutrients were then considered in an optimisation study to determine the optimum concentration of each component to favour the production of bioactive MK-7 and minimise the concentration of the biologically insignificant isomer. A time-course fermentation analysis was subsequently carried out to monitor changes in bacterial growth, the concentration of MK-7 isomers, and the pH of the medium during the different stages of the process when employing the optimal fermentation media.

The findings of this investigation were novel and are applied in the following chapters (Chapters 5–8) to provide the necessary framework to further develop and enhance the overall fermentation process in the specific context of each chapter.



Optimisation of the fermentation media to enhance the production of the bioactive isomer of vitamin menaquinone-7

Neha Lal¹ · Mostafa Seifan¹ · Aydin Berenjian^{1,2}

Received: 5 May 2022 / Accepted: 22 June 2022 / Published online: 21 July 2022
© The Author(s) 2022

Abstract

Menaquinone-7 (MK-7) offers significant health benefits; however, only the all-*trans* form is biologically active. MK-7 produced through fermentation can occur as all-*trans* and *cis* isomers, and the therapeutic value of the resulting MK-7 is exclusively determined by the quantity of the all-*trans* isomer. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the effect of the media composition on the isomer profile obtained from fermentation and determine the optimum media combination to increase the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and diminish the production of *cis* MK-7. For this purpose, design of experiments (DOE) was used to screen the most effective nutrients, and a central composite face-centred design (CCF) was employed to optimise the media components. The optimum media consisted of 1% (w/v) glucose, 2% (w/v) yeast extract, 2% (w/v) soy peptone, 2% (w/v) tryptone, and 0.1% (w/v) CaCl₂. This composition resulted in an average all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentration of 36.366 mg/L and 1.225 mg/L, respectively. In addition, the optimised media enabled an all-*trans* isomer concentration 12.2-fold greater and a *cis* isomer concentration 2.9-fold less than the unoptimised media. This study was the first to consider the development of an optimised fermentation media to enhance the production of the bioactive isomer of MK-7 and minimise the concentration of the inactive isomer. Furthermore, this media is commercially promising, as it will improve the process productivity and reduce the costs associated with the industrial fermentation of the vitamin.

Keywords Menaquinone-7 isomers · Bioactivity · Fermentation · Media optimisation

Introduction

Vitamin K is a fat-soluble vitamin first discovered in 1929 by the Danish nutritional biochemist Carl Peter Henrik Dam as an antihaemorrhagic factor capable of correcting dietary-induced bleeding disorders in chicks [1–3]. The vitamin K series consists of a group of compounds that contain a 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone moiety (menadione) but differ in the structure of a lateral isoprenoid chain at the 3-position (Fig. 1) [4]. The length and degree of saturation of the isoprenoid side chain influence the properties of the various forms of vitamin K [5–7].

Vitamin K1 (phylloquinone) and vitamin K2 (menaquinones) are the two naturally occurring forms of vitamin K [9, 10]. Phylloquinone (PK) is a single compound and is the dominant source of vitamin K in the diet and can be obtained from green vegetables, vegetable oils, and products derived from these plant oils [5, 11, 12]. Whereas menaquinones (MK) are primarily of microbial origin and comprise side chains of varying length and degree of saturation; this is described by the general representation MK-*n*, where *n* denotes the number of unsaturated isoprenoid units in a chain, which is typically between four and thirteen [5, 8, 13]. The intestinal microbiota also contribute to the synthesis of MK in the human body, and MK-4, the most common isoform in humans, can also be produced from the tissue-specific conversion of PK [14].

All forms of vitamin K are involved in the blood coagulation pathway and haemostasis; however, numerous studies have established that the potential health gains of vitamin K extend well beyond the activation of hepatic coagulation factors. In particular, vitamin K intake has been associated with improved bone and cardiovascular

✉ Aydin Berenjian
aydin.berenjian@waikato.ac.nz

¹ School of Engineering, The University of Waikato,
Hamilton 3240, New Zealand

² Department of Agricultural and Biological Engineering,
Pennsylvania State University, 221 Agricultural Engineering
Building, University Park, PA 16802, USA

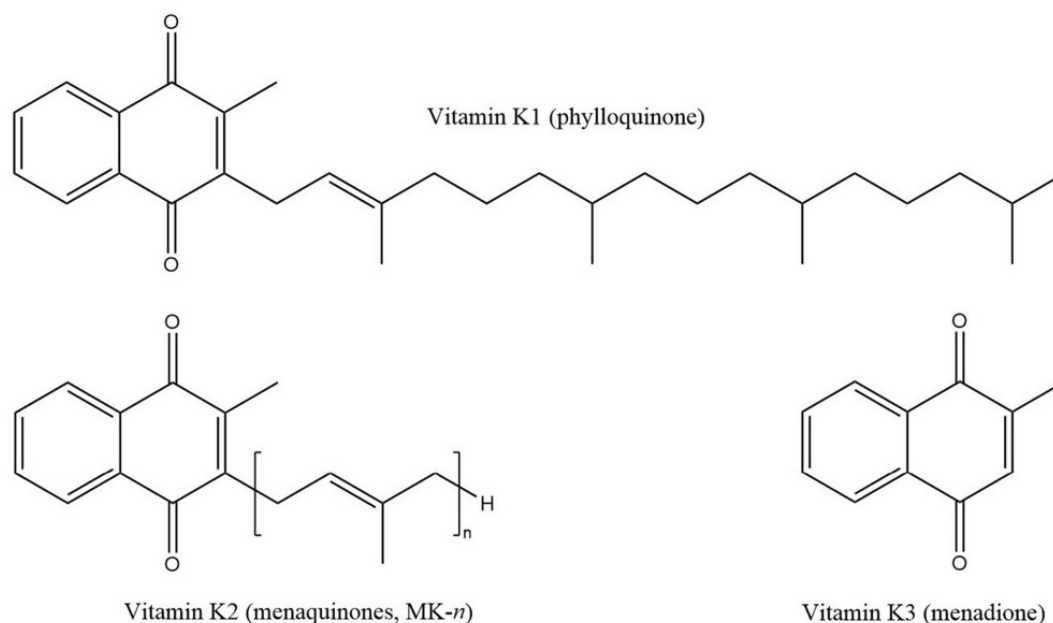


Fig. 1 The different forms of vitamin K and their chemical structure (adapted from Sztark et al. [8])

health [5, 9, 15–22]. In addition, several more recent investigations have established other possible functions and health benefits of vitamin K, specifically, vitamin K2, which include the prevention of cancer, the suppression of Parkinson's disease, assisting the functional recovery of the liver, and decreasing the risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus, chronic kidney disease, immune disorders, neurological disease, and obesity [21, 23–30]. Furthermore, it has been suggested that reduced vitamin K status is a possible modifiable risk factor for severe coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) and may be linked to manifestations of COVID-19 and comorbidities related to the acute form of the disease [31, 32]. Hence, vitamin K supplementation will likely reduce the morbidity and mortality associated with COVID-19.

Of the various forms of vitamin K, MK-7 is the most notable and provides the greatest health benefits owing to its longer half-life in the body and superior extrahepatic availability [22, 33]. MK-7 supplementation can also facilitate anticoagulant therapy involving vitamin K antagonists, as low doses of MK-7 supplements can help improve anticoagulant management in patients [14]. Although, due to its low concentration in limited food products, obtaining adequate levels of MK-7 from regular food items is not feasible [34, 35]. Therefore, in light of the various health advantages of MK-7, the development of nutritional supplements and functional food products to complement natural food sources and improve the dietary intake of MK-7 has become increasingly widespread.

However, it is essential to note that, like most biological molecules, MK-7 can exist as geometric isomers, of which only the naturally occurring all-*trans* isomer is bioactive [6, 8, 36]. The double bond arrangement in the isoprenoid side chain of MK-7 molecules determines its shape and, consequently, its biological activity [6, 37]. The all-*trans* form of MK-7 has a linear molecular structure (Fig. 2), as all the double bonds in its side chain have the *trans* configuration [38]. Whereas in the *cis* isomers, the presence of one or more double bonds in the *cis* arrangement creates a bend in the isoprenoid chain, and this causes the *cis* isomers to adopt a non-linear structure (Fig. 2) [38]. The altered molecular structure of the *cis* isomers compromises their ability to carry out their biological function, and it has been demonstrated that the *cis* forms of vitamin K merely exhibit 1% of the biological activity of the all-*trans* isomer [6, 37, 39]. The bioactivity of MK-7 isomers is an important consideration from a health, nutritional, and therapeutic perspective.

The concept of MK-7 isomers is a relatively recent and emerging area of interest; thus, insufficient research has been conducted on this aspect, and a great deal is yet to be explored. MK-7 can be produced from fermentation [15, 41] or through chemical reaction methods [13, 42–45], and the isomer composition that is obtained is dependent on a variety of factors, primarily the methods used for the synthesis of the vitamin and purification of the post-reaction mixture [6, 8, 36, 38]. The molecular structure of MK-7 comprises seven double bonds, and in the all-*trans* isomer, all seven double bonds have the *trans* configuration. Individual double

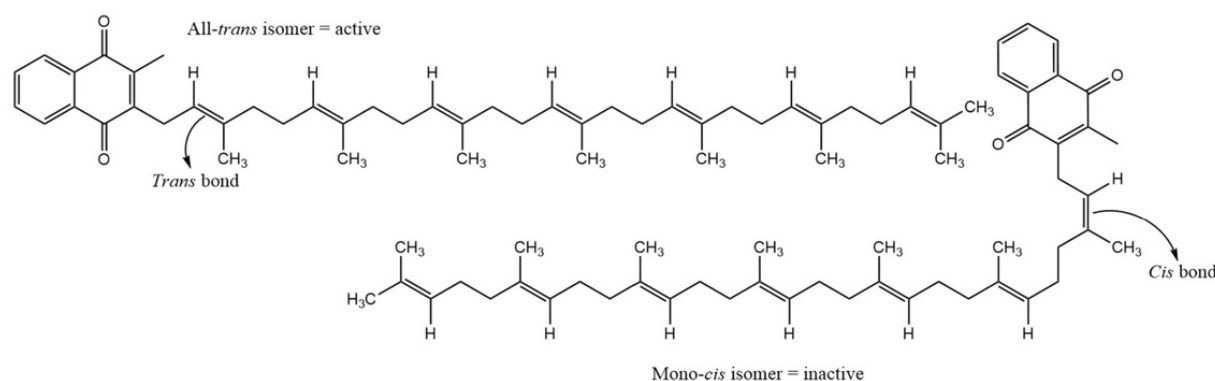


Fig. 2 The chemical structure of *cis* and *trans* MK-7 isomers (adapted from Lal and Berenjian [40])

bonds in the isoprenoid chain of the molecule can also adopt the *cis* arrangement, and various *cis/trans* isomers, with different combinations of double bonds in the *cis* and *trans* configurations, may be attainable. However, the stability of the different isomers is likely to vary depending on the organisation of double bonds in the isoprenoid chain, which results in diverse molecular structures and shapes, as some forms of *cis* MK-7 may be less energetically favourable and are, therefore, less likely to exist than other more stable conformations.

Moreover, the number and type of different *cis* isomers that can potentially be achieved are ambiguous, as very few studies have considered this aspect and often present conflicting information. The majority of investigations that have focused on analysing the MK-7 isomer composition have explored dietary supplements or similar formulations [6, 8, 36, 46], and thus far, studies examining fermented samples have not been carried out. Additionally, the number and type of *cis* isomers that can be obtained from fermentation are unknown, as although fermentation is believed to produce the all-*trans* isomer selectively, the MK-7 isomer profile of fermented samples is yet to be elucidated.

The fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7 is superior, as most consumers prefer naturally derived products, which hence have a greater demand than synthetic formulations. Fermentation can also naturally enhance the nutrient profile and sensory characteristics of various products, thereby increasing their appeal to consumers [47, 48]. Furthermore, microbial fermentation is a more sustainable process for the large-scale production of MK-7, and the use of natural production methods can help satisfy the market demand and sustainable development goals [49]. Many Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacterial strains can synthesise MK, which function as electron carriers in the respiratory chain [5, 23, 50]. Both wild-type and engineered microorganisms have been used for MK-7 production via fermentation of which *Bacillus* strains, lactic acid bacteria, and various other

types of microorganisms, such as *Escherichia coli*, *Flavobacterium meningosepticum*, *Enterobacter agglomerans*, *Enterococcus faecium*, and *Serratia marcescens*, tend to be the most common [49]. Nevertheless, members of the *Bacillus* species, such as *Bacillus subtilis natto* [51], *Bacillus licheniformis* [52], and *Bacillus amyloxyquifaciens* [53], are the most notable [54]. Of the several suitable strains, *B. subtilis natto* is considered to be the most ideal for the industrial production of MK-7 and is preferentially used for the manufacture of MK-7 supplements and functional food products, as it is generally recognised as safe (GRAS) and enables a high MK-7 yield [15, 55–60]. As a result, there are no safety concerns associated with the *B. subtilis natto* strain, and it is suitable for the production of microbial-derived MK-7 products that are intended for human consumption.

Numerous studies have explored and enhanced different aspects of the fermentation process in various contexts, including liquid-state fermentation (LSF) [55, 58, 60–63], solid-state fermentation (SSF) [64–69], and biofilm reactors [54, 70–76], to improve MK-7 production using *B. subtilis natto*. The fermentation media, in particular, has been of considerable interest, as the selection of carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources and presence of growth factors, vitamins, minerals, bioactives, and other essential nutrients play a crucial role in microbial growth and metabolism [77, 78], which ultimately influence the productivity of the fermentation process and the MK-7 yield. Recently, several investigations have focused on improving the MK-7 yield by optimising the fermentation media using DOE and response surface methodology (RSM) [54, 61, 62, 69, 79, 80]. This approach allows both the individual and interactive effects of nutrients to be considered to determine the optimum media composition for a specific fermentation process, unlike the conventional method in which components are varied and analysed independently. However, although fermentation medium engineering to improve MK-7 productivity has been the subject of many studies, the focus has predominantly

been to enhance MK-7 production without regard to the proportion of the bioactive all-*trans* isomer obtained from fermentation under the investigated conditions. The isomer composition achieved through fermentation is a key aspect worthy of attention, as the effectiveness of MK-7 nutritional supplements and functional food products is only determined by the content of the all-*trans* isomer, and all other isomeric forms of the vitamin are essentially impurities that lack biological significance.

Therefore, the primary objective of this study was to investigate the effect of the media composition on the MK-7 isomer profile and determine the optimum combination of nutrients and their required concentrations to enhance the fermentation yield of the all-*trans* isomer and reduce the production of *cis* MK-7. As part of this process, ten different nutrient components, including carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources, were initially screened using a Plackett–Burman design (PBD) to identify the important nutritional factors that significantly impact the isomer concentration. A CCF design and RSM were then employed to optimise the concentration of the significant nutrients determined from the screening stage to develop the ideal fermentation media to enhance the production of the bioactive all-*trans* isomer and minimise the yield of the biologically insignificant *cis* isomer. This study will create new opportunities to develop an industrial fermentation process that targets the synthesis of the all-*trans* MK-7 isomer, which is commercially attractive, as it will refine the production process and decrease the related costs. This will be a valuable step forward in increasing the accessibility of biologically active fermented MK-7 supplements and functional food products to consumers, which will likely ameliorate the dietary intake of MK-7 and improve health outcomes.

Materials and methods

Chemicals and materials

The all-*trans* MK-7 analytical standard (98.1% purity) was purchased from ChromaDex (Los Angeles, CA, USA). Glucose was obtained from Ajax Finechem Pty Ltd (Taren Point, NSW, Australia), and yeast extract, peptone, tryptone, and soytone were acquired from Becton, Dickinson and Company (Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Glycerol, soy peptone, K₂HPO₄, methanol, 2-propanol, and *n*-hexane were purchased from Merck Millipore (Burlington, MA, USA). NaCl was obtained from a domestic supplier, and CaCl₂ was acquired from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Nutrient agar plates were purchased from Fort Richard Laboratories (Auckland, New Zealand).

Microorganism and inoculum preparation

The *B. subtilis natto* strain was prepared as described previously [61]. Briefly, the cells were cultivated in a liquid culture medium containing tryptone, yeast extract, and NaCl before streaking on nutrient agar plates. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 48 h. The cells were then scraped off the plates and suspended in a sterilised saline solution (0.9% (w/v) NaCl). The suspension was subsequently placed in a water bath at 80 °C for 30 min to inactivate the vegetative cells and induce the production of spores before centrifuging (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min to remove the cell debris. The resulting spore suspension (4.8 × 10⁶ CFU/mL) was used as the inoculum for the fermentation experiments.

Experimental design and statistical analysis

Ten different nutrients, which have been shown to enhance the MK-7 yield, were selected based on previous studies [54, 60–63, 69, 80, 81], and the effect of various carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources on isomer production was considered. Glucose and glycerol were the two carbon sources explored; yeast extract, soy peptone, peptone, tryptone, and soytone were selected as potent complex nitrogen sources; and K₂HPO₄, CaCl₂, and NaCl were determined to be effective salt sources. All carbon and nitrogen sources were investigated in the range of 0–2% (w/v), while the salt sources were considered between 0–1% (w/v). These concentration spans were derived from the literature and preliminary experiments.

A PBD was implemented to examine the individual effects of the selected nutritional factors on the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations achieved during fermentation. Each factor was considered at three levels (high, intermediate, and low). A CCF design was employed to optimise the significant variables identified from the screening step, and RSM was used to analyse the results. The experimental values were scaled factors, and the response was described by a quadratic equation. The MODDE 13 software (Sartorius, Gottingen, Germany) was used to create the design matrices, develop a model, and determine the optimum level of the media components to achieve the highest concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 and minimise the concentration of the *cis* isomer. The experimental data was then used to generate a second-order polynomial regression model (Eq. 1) for each response.

$$Y = b_0 + \sum b_i X_i + \sum b_{ii} X_i^2 + \sum b_{ij} X_i X_j \quad (1)$$

Where Y represents the all-*trans* or *cis* MK-7 isomer concentration; b_0 is a constant term; b_i , b_{ii} , and b_{ij} are the

coefficients of the linear, quadratic, and synergistic effects, respectively; and X_i and X_j correspond to the significant factors. The R^2 value was used to express the quality of the fit for the developed regression models, and statistical significance was determined using the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test and accepted at $P < 0.1$.

Fermentation procedure

For both the screening and optimisation experiments, the fermentation media was prepared according to the DOE plan and sterilised using an autoclave (TOMY SX-700E, Tokyo, Japan) at 121 °C for 20 min. Each sample was then inoculated with 5% (v/v) of the pre-prepared *B. subtilis natto* spore suspension. Fermentation was conducted aerobically at 37 °C under dynamic conditions (120 rpm) for six days. The inoculum volume and operating conditions were selected based on preliminary studies. A small fermentation volume (6 mL) was used to enable the extraction of the whole sample, as it allowed all of the MK-7 produced during fermentation to be analysed and eliminated any errors associated with sampling from the fermentation media.

MK-7 extraction

MK-7 was extracted from the samples prior to analysis using a mixture of 2-propanol and *n*-hexane in the ratio of 1:2 (v/v) and a liquid-to-organic ratio of 1:4 (v/v) [61]. The mixture was vigorously shaken for 2 min using a vortex mixer and centrifuged (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min to separate the two phases. Afterwards, the upper hexane layer was separated from the aqueous phase and evaporated under a vacuum to recover the extracted MK-7.

MK-7 analysis

MK-7 analysis was carried out using the method outlined by Berenjian et al. [35] with minor alterations to accommodate the requirements of the chromatography column used in this study. A Dionex high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) equipped with four pumps (P680), an automated sample injector (ASI-100), a thermostatted column compartment (TCC-100), and a photodiode array UV detector (UVD340U) was employed to determine the MK-7 isomer concentration in the fermented samples. A COSMOSIL Cholester packed column (100 mm × 2 mm × 2.5 μm; Nacalai Tesque Inc., Kyoto, Japan) operated at 40 °C was used to separate the compounds. Methanol, at a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min, was used as the mobile phase (isocratic elution), and the analytical wavelength, injection volume, autosampler temperature, and run-time were 248 nm, 10 μL, 10 °C, and

30 min, respectively. The Chromeleon 7 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used for data acquisition. The MK-7 calibration curve was linear between 0.1 mg/L and 50 mg/L ($R^2 = 0.99$).

Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) techniques were applied to confirm the presence and verify the chromatographic retention times of the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomers. The method developed by Szterk et al. [8] was employed as a guide for the LC-MS analysis, and although the fundamental concept was similar, specific aspects of the procedure were tailored to suit the requirements of the LC-MS system that was used in the present study. The LC-MS platform consisted of a Dionex Ultimate 3000 ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) system and a QExactive mass spectrometer with a HESI II source (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The Thermo XCalibur 4.3 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to control the system, and data handling was carried out using the Chromeleon 7.3 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Separation by liquid chromatography was performed using the chromatographic conditions outlined above, except the injection volume was altered to 5 μL, and the run-time was extended to 37 min to adapt to the requirements of the LC-MS system. Data collection was carried out in the positive ionisation mode with an MS1 scan range of 150–1000 *m/z*, a resolution of 70,000, an AGC target of 3×10^6 , and a maximum injection time of 200 ms. The mass spectrometry (MS) data were analysed using the Thermo FreeStyle 1.6 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

Cell density and pH measurements

Bacterial growth was inferred from the cell density, which was determined by measuring the optical density (OD) at 600 nm using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-1900, Kyoto, Japan) after appropriate dilution with distilled water. The pH was directly measured in the cultivation medium with a standard laboratory pH meter (CyberScan pH 100, Eutech Instruments, Paisley, UK).

Results and discussion

LC-MS analysis

Relative to traditional MK-7 analytical techniques, which do not consider the isomer composition of samples, the analysis and measurement of MK-7 isomers present various difficulties. The fundamental issue is the absence of specific analytical standards for the potential *cis* forms of the vitamin, as

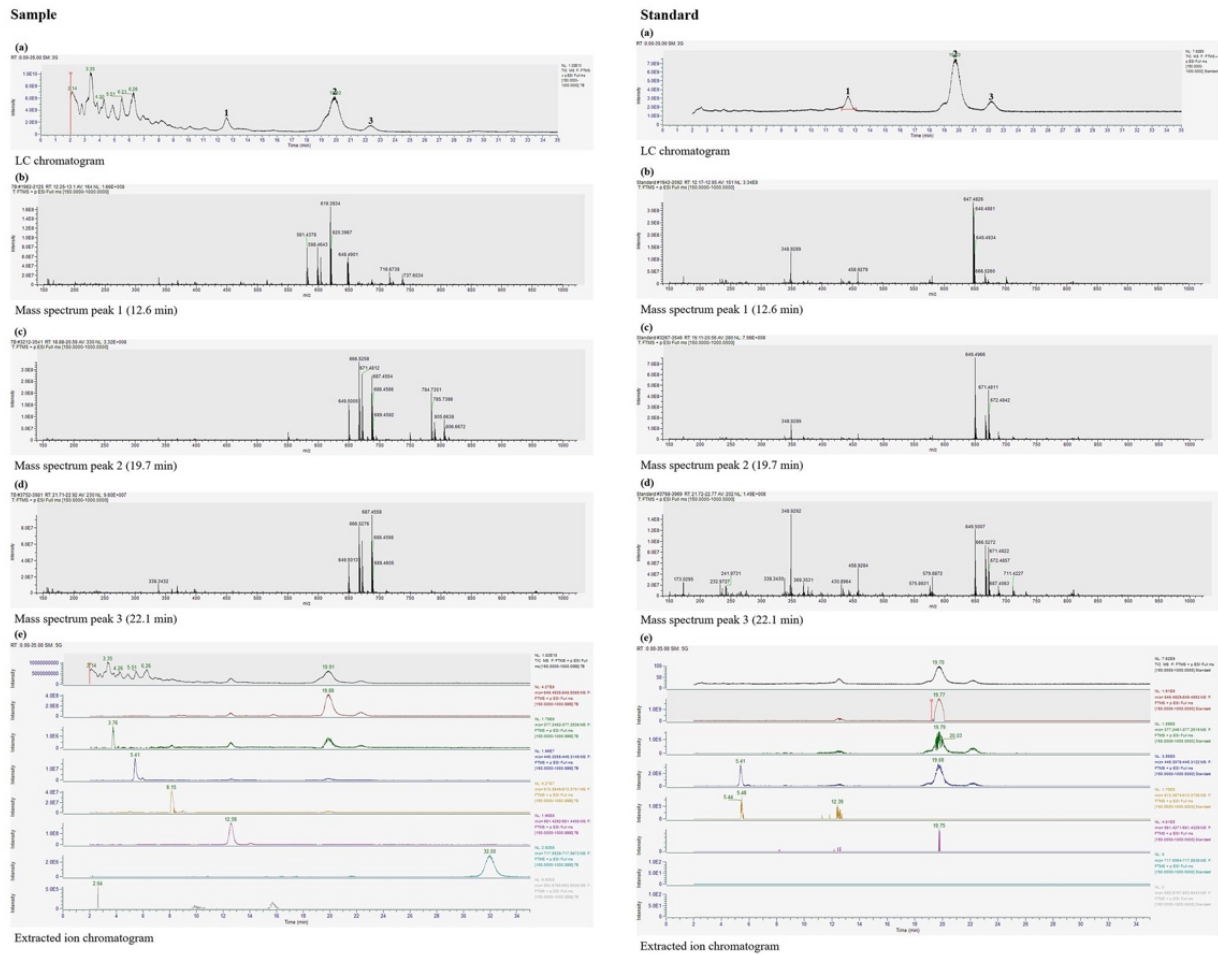


Fig. 3 Liquid chromatography (LC) chromatograms **a**, MS data **b–d**, and extracted ion chromatograms **e** for an experimental sample and the all-*trans* MK-7 reference standard

only the all-*trans* MK-7 standard is commercially available [8, 36]. As a result, the identification and quantification of *cis* MK-7 pose a challenge due to the lack of appropriate reference standards. In addition, very few studies have considered the concept of MK-7 isomers [6, 8, 36, 46, 82], and the primary focus of these investigations has been to analyse the isomer composition of MK-7 dietary supplements and other similar preparations. Therefore, the nature of the MK-7 isomer profile obtained from fermentation is unknown, as fermented samples are yet to be explored.

This study used the all-*trans* MK-7 reference standard to identify and quantify the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomers present in fermented samples. The retention time of the peaks in the analytical standard was used to identify the corresponding peaks in the samples, which consistently appeared at approximately 12.6 min, 19.7 min, and 22.1 min. The compounds pertaining to these peaks were speculated to be MK-7 isomers. Due to the unavailability of suitable

reference standards, MS techniques were used to verify the identity of the isomers by confirming the presence of a peak at approximately 649.5 *m/z* (molecular mass of MK-7) in the MS data and comparing the mass spectra of the samples to that of the all-*trans* MK-7 standard. This approach was valid, as the compounds of interest are isomers and have the same molecular mass (approximately 649.5 *m/z*), and this, together with the mass spectra, can be used to ascertain whether the three chromatographic peaks represent MK-7 isomers. A similar strategy has been successfully demonstrated in the series of studies conducted by Sztark et al. [8], Sztark et al. [36], and Sitkowski et al. [6] for the analysis of MK-7 isomers present in dietary supplements.

The MS analysis determined that the compounds relating to the peaks at approximately 19.7 min and 22.1 min were MK-7 isomers, while the peak at approximately 12.6 min was not (Fig. 3). The MS data for the peaks at approximately 19.7 min and 22.1 min were comparable

and showed a similar set of mass peaks at each retention time across all samples. The MS data for both peaks also showed a mass peak at approximately 649.5 *m/z*. Although other mass peaks, which may indicate impurities or other possible MK of different chain lengths, were observed at these time points, they were not as significant, and evaluation of the MS data obtained from the samples and standard was sufficient to establish that the compounds corresponding to the peaks at approximately 19.7 min and 22.1 min were MK-7 isomers. The chromatographic peak appearing at approximately 19.7 min was notably larger than that at approximately 22.1 min. Consequently, it is anticipated to correspond to the all-*trans* isomer, as all-*trans* MK-7 is the naturally occurring form of the vitamin and is, thus, likely to be produced in a greater quantity relative to the *cis* isomer, which is represented by the peak at approximately 22.1 min. A larger peak at approximately 19.7 min was also observed for the standard, which is a commercial sample of high purity (98.1% all-*trans* MK-7) and, as a result, contains a significantly greater proportion of the all-*trans* isomer.

From the LC–MS analysis of the fermented samples, it was also established that only a single *cis* MK-7 isomer is produced during fermentation (under the conditions employed). In contrast, it may be possible for samples of chemical or other origins to contain more than one *cis* MK-7 isomer, which may arise due to the synthesis procedures or purification techniques implemented in the production of the vitamin or vitamin product. Additionally, while these compounds are isomers, they have slightly different retention times owing to minor differences in their structure, resulting in their differing ability to move through the stereoselective column. The retention time of the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomers is consistent with the analytical standard and across a range of fermented samples, including samples from preliminary experiments that had different media components and compositions. It has also been established through these experiments that when employing the previously mentioned chromatography conditions, the relative retention time (RRT) of the *cis* isomer, which is the ratio of the retention time of the *cis* isomer to that of the all-*trans* isomer, is always constant (1.12) for all samples and is identical to that for the reference standard. Use of the RRT to distinguish the *cis* MK-7 isomer has been recommended in the USP Monograph [83] (RRT of 1.1) and demonstrated in the investigation carried out by Jedynak et al. [82] (RRT of 1.15). Although the suggested values for the RRT vary slightly between these sources and the present study, these minor differences are likely to be due to the different instruments, columns, solvents, chromatographic conditions, and analytical procedures that have been employed in each case to achieve separation. Therefore, the RRT is a reliable method to identify the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomers in fermented samples

using HPLC, which is far more convenient and avoids the need to recurrently use LC–MS techniques for the analysis of samples in subsequent experiments.

Screening study

The selected media components, consisting of different carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources, were initially screened using a PBD to determine the important nutritional factors that significantly affect the fermentation yield of the all-*trans* and *cis* isomers. The carbon and nitrogen sources were considered between 0–2% (*w/v*), while the salt sources were explored in the range of 0–1% (*w/v*). The concentration span of each nutrient was selected based on the literature and from the unfavourable results that were obtained from preliminary experiments, which examined higher nutrient concentrations (up to 10% (*w/v*) for the carbon and nitrogen sources and up to 2% (*w/v*) for the salt sources). The unsatisfactory results may be attributed to the high nutrient concentrations, which are likely to decrease the water activity and induce osmotic stress, consequently inhibiting cell growth, metabolism, and MK-7 production [53, 61]. Hence, it was decided to investigate lower nutrient concentrations in the screening study. Due to the large number of factors being investigated, it was not feasible to consider both the individual and interactive effects of the different nutrients. Therefore, only the individual effects of the media components on the isomer concentration were evaluated to ensure that the number of experimental runs was practical. The experimental design and the isomer concentrations are outlined in Table 1, and the statistical analysis is presented in Table 2.

Carbon sources

Carbon sources are essential for MK-7 synthesis, as the pathway for producing the isoprene side chain and quinone skeleton (1,4-naphthoquinone) of MK-7 relies on the presence of carbon sources in the fermentation media [69]. Numerous carbon sources, including glucose, glycerol, sucrose, molasses, inulin, mannose, starch, dextrose, fructose, corn syrup, and maltose, have been extensively examined in previous investigations focusing on improving the MK-7 yield in a range of contexts and applications, such as SSF, LSF, biofilm reactors, and the development of MK-7 enriched nutraceuticals, functional foods, and animal feed [15, 53, 54, 58, 61–63, 69, 70, 72, 73, 81, 84–86]. However, of these, the majority of studies have determined glucose and glycerol to be the most effective at enhancing MK-7 production. Therefore, simply glucose and glycerol were considered in the screening process.

Of the two evaluated carbon sources, only glucose had a significant effect on the isomer concentration ($P < 0.1$). In

Table 1 Experimental design and measured responses from the screening study

Nutrient factors (% w/v)											Measured responses (mg/L)	
Run	Glucose	Glycerol	Yeast extract	Soy peptone	Peptone	Tryptone	Soytone	K ₂ HPO ₄	CaCl ₂	NaCl	All- <i>trans</i> MK-7 concentration	<i>Cis</i> MK-7 concentration
1	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	0	0.000	0.000
2	2	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	11.940	1.064
3	2	2	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	37.494	2.302
4	2	2	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	57.336	3.343
5	0	2	2	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	10.201	0.869
6	2	0	2	2	2	2	0	0	0	1	40.551	2.480
7	0	2	0	2	2	2	2	0	0	0	53.771	3.512
8	2	0	2	0	2	2	2	1	0	0	43.654	2.723
9	2	2	0	2	0	2	2	1	1	0	21.600	1.285
10	0	2	2	0	2	0	2	1	1	1	0.666	0.000
11	0	0	2	2	0	2	0	1	1	1	19.768	1.330
12	2	0	0	2	2	0	2	0	1	1	21.402	1.385
13	0	2	0	0	2	2	0	1	0	1	5.246	0.609
14	0	0	2	0	0	2	2	0	1	0	20.425	1.481
15	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	1	0	1	12.763	0.996
16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.511	0.000
17	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0.5	0.5	0.5	18.32	1.486
18	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0.5	0.5	0.5	19.118	1.584
19	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0.5	0.5	0.5	30.664	2.387

addition, the positive coefficient for glucose for the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations implies that glucose has a significant positive effect on the two responses and, thus, enhances the concentration of both isomers. Considering that the all-*trans* isomer is the biologically active form of the vitamin, it is beneficial to increase the production of the all-*trans* isomer, whereas, in comparison, *cis* MK-7 has very little or no bioactivity; hence, it is necessary to minimise its fermentation yield.

It has been suggested that glucose promotes cell growth, while glycerol, although not beneficial for cell growth, facilitates MK-7 biosynthesis and secretion in *B. subtilis natto* and increases MK-7 productivity on a per-cell basis [23, 51, 62, 71, 72, 87]. Therefore, glycerol has commonly been used to enhance the MK-7 yield and is often reported as the most efficient carbon source in MK-7 fermentation [53, 61, 62, 69, 81, 88]. However, various investigations, including more recent studies involving biofilm reactors, have demonstrated glucose to be an effective carbon source for MK-7 biosynthesis [54, 71, 73]. Interestingly, only glucose has a significant positive effect on the isomer concentration in the present study. A possible explanation for this could be that since glucose, compared to glycerol, is a more preferable and readily metabolisable carbon source for *B. subtilis* strains, it facilitates rapid microbial growth and, consequently,

has a more substantial contribution to the MK-7 yield, as MK-7 production is partially growth-associated [35, 54, 58, 61, 63, 74, 84, 87–89]. Moreover, prior investigations have only explored the overall fermentation yield of MK-7 without any regard to the isomer profile; thus, the impact of glucose and glycerol may differ when considering MK-7 isomers.

In light of the aims of this study, glucose acts to enhance the production of all-*trans* MK-7, which is favourable; however, it also increases the concentration of the *cis* isomer, which is undesirable. Therefore, it is necessary to balance the glucose concentration in the fermentation media to regulate isomer production.

Nitrogen sources

The selection of nitrogen sources in the fermentation media plays a crucial role in microbial growth and metabolism and the production of proteins involved in the cellular respiration processes of *B. subtilis*, such as haem [54, 61, 88]. The nature of the nitrogen source tends to influence the fermentation yield of MK-7, as inorganic and complex nitrogen sources supply different concentrations and types of amino acids, which may act as precursors or feedback inhibitors of the shikimate pathway that is involved in the synthesis of MK-7 and other MK [61].

Table 2 Statistical analysis of the variables from the screening study

All- <i>trans</i> MK-7 concentration			
Term	Coefficient	Standard error	<i>P</i> -value
Constant	22.391	2.276	9.592e-06
Glucose	6.914	2.480	0.024
Glycerol	2.449	2.480	0.352
Yeast extract	6.429	2.480	0.032
Soy peptone	7.341	2.480	0.018
Peptone	− 0.397	2.480	0.877
Tryptone	4.786	2.480	0.090
Soytone	4.139	2.480	0.134
K ₂ HPO ₄	− 2.204	2.480	0.400
CaCl ₂	− 9.083	2.480	0.006
NaCl	− 3.604	2.480	0.184
<i>Cis</i> MK-7 concentration			
Term	Coefficient	Standard error	<i>P</i> -value
Constant	1.5177	0.1541	9.5025e-06
Glucose	0.3616	0.1679	0.0634
Glycerol	0.1618	0.1679	0.3634
Yeast extract	0.3548	0.1679	0.0675
Soy peptone	0.4388	0.1679	0.0310
Peptone	− 0.0139	0.1679	0.9359
Tryptone	0.3493	0.1679	0.0711
Soytone	0.2493	0.1679	0.1759
K ₂ HPO ₄	− 0.1754	0.1679	0.3266
CaCl ₂	− 0.5344	0.1679	0.0129
NaCl	− 0.1904	0.1679	0.2896

$R^2 = 0.855$; R^2 (adj.) = 0.673; significance accepted at $P < 0.1$

$R^2 = 0.818$; R^2 (adj.) = 0.590; significance accepted at $P < 0.1$

Several inorganic and complex nitrogen sources, including NaNO₃, (NH₄)₂SO₄, KNO₃, urea, soy protein, yeast extract, malt extract, peptone, tryptone, soy peptone, and soytone, have been considered in earlier studies focusing on MK-7 fermentation [15, 23, 51, 54, 58, 60, 62, 63, 69, 81, 87, 88]. Essentially, it has been determined that complex nitrogen sources are superior to inorganic nitrogen sources and are more efficient in supporting *B. subtilis* growth, various microbial processes, and MK-7 synthesis, as they tend to provide an assortment of amino acids and other essential growth factors, such as polypeptides and coenzymes [60, 90, 91]. In particular, yeast extract, soy peptone, peptone, tryptone, and soytone have frequently been employed in MK-7 fermentation studies and are deemed to be the most efficacious complex nitrogen sources for enhancing the yield of the vitamin [15, 54, 58, 62, 63, 85, 88]. Accordingly, only complex nitrogen sources, consisting of yeast extract, soy

peptone, peptone, tryptone, and soytone, were included in the screening study.

From the five nitrogen sources that were screened, all but peptone and soytone had a significant effect on the yield of both isomers ($P < 0.1$). Yeast extract, soy peptone, and tryptone all have positive coefficients for the two isomers, suggesting that all of these complex nitrogen sources have a significant positive effect on the concentration of the all-*trans* and *cis* isomers. Since only the all-*trans* isomer sustains biological activity, it is advantageous to improve its productivity and reduce the proportion of the *cis* isomer achieved during fermentation.

The findings of the present study are supported by observations from prior investigations, which have commonly identified yeast extract, soy peptone, and tryptone as potent nitrogen sources that enhance MK-7 production [54, 58, 61–63, 80, 88, 92]. Yeast extract, soy peptone, and tryptone provide a broad spectrum of nitrogen compounds, such as

short-chained and simple amino acids, that are easily metabolised by *B. subtilis* strains [54]. This is important from the perspective of MK-7 biosynthesis, which is an elaborate process that comprises several interrelated steps, namely the shikimate pathway to form the aromatic ring, the methylerythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) and isopentenyl diphosphate route to produce the isoprenoid tail, and the MK pathway in which the two separately synthesised structures are combined to generate MK-7 [23, 93–95]. The complexity of the MK-7 biosynthetic pathway is likely to have high energy requirements, mainly due to the need to produce the amino acids involved in MK-7 synthesis. The energy requirements can be reduced if the bacteria are supplied with the necessary amino acids, eliminating the need for their synthesis and thereby accelerating MK-7 production.

It has also been established that yeast extract and soy peptone support microbial growth and metabolism and have an interactive influence on MK-7 productivity [58, 61, 96], possibly due to the beneficial effect of the combined range and concentration of amino acids and nutrients, and are, thus, often used in conjunction in MK-7 fermentation [35, 58, 61, 88]. Moreover, the yeast extract, soy peptone, and tryptone used in this study have different origins (the yeast extract is derived from autolysed yeast cells, the soy peptone is papain-digested, and the tryptone is a pancreatic digest of casein) and, hence, are likely to supply a diverse range and concentration of amino acids, growth factors, and other vital compounds that synergistically promote microbial growth and metabolism and, ultimately, MK-7 biosynthesis.

Considering the bioactivity of the two MK-7 isomers and the objectives of this investigation, the effect of yeast extract, soy peptone, and tryptone on the production of all-*trans* MK-7 is beneficial, whereas their impact on the *cis* isomer concentration is not ideal. Consequently, it is important to ensure that the fermentation media contains the correct amounts of these nitrogen sources to control isomer production.

Salt sources

Salts are an important source of trace and essential elements that perform vital functions during cell growth, metabolism, and product formation [91]. Common trace elements include iron (Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+}), zinc (Zn^{2+}), potassium (K^+), magnesium (Mg^{2+}), manganese (Mn^{2+}), molybdenum (Mo^{2+}), sodium (Na^+), cobalt (Co^{2+}), calcium (Ca^{2+}), and copper (Cu^{2+}), which are often supplied in small quantities in the form of mineral salts [91].

Previous experiments have explored the effect of various salts, such as K_2HPO_4 , CaCl_2 , $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{MnCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and NaCl , on MK-7 production, and of these, K_2HPO_4 , CaCl_2 , and NaCl are deemed to be the most effective [35, 51, 61, 63, 69, 80, 85, 86, 90, 92]. Therefore, K_2HPO_4 , CaCl_2 ,

and NaCl were considered in the screening study, and only CaCl_2 had a significant effect on MK-7 isomer production ($P < 0.1$). Additionally, its negative coefficient indicates that CaCl_2 has a significant adverse effect on the isomer concentration. This is not advantageous for the all-*trans* MK-7 yield, as the goal of this study is to maximise its production; conversely, CaCl_2 has a favourable influence on the *cis* isomer concentration, as the intention is to minimise its synthesis during fermentation.

The majority of previous investigations have reported that K_2HPO_4 is an important phosphate source that facilitates the production of primary and secondary metabolites and has a positive effect on MK-7 production [34, 35, 51, 61, 63, 80, 88], which is not consistent with the observations from the present study. However, prior investigations have exclusively focused on the overall fermentation yield of MK-7 and have not considered the proportion of MK-7 isomers that are obtained; therefore, K_2HPO_4 may have an insignificant effect on the production of MK-7 isomers. Inversely, it has been demonstrated in the study conducted by Singh et al. [69] that CaCl_2 has a significant positive effect on MK-7 production, and it has also been established that an adequate concentration of Ca^{2+} benefits MK-7 biosynthesis [23]. It is important to note that in the present study, while it has been determined that CaCl_2 has a significant effect on the MK-7 isomer yield, it acts to decrease the concentration of both isomers. The contrasting effect of CaCl_2 in the two investigations is likely to be a result of the differing aims of each study, as while CaCl_2 may have a positive effect on MK-7 production holistically, it may have the opposite effect when considering the MK-7 isomer profile.

Despite the negative impact of CaCl_2 on the MK-7 isomer concentration, its presence in the fermentation media is imperative to decrease the yield of the *cis* isomer. Therefore, given the biological significance of the different MK-7 compounds and the purpose of this study, the concentration of CaCl_2 needs to be optimised to reduce the synthesis of the *cis* isomer without significantly diminishing the productivity of the all-*trans* isomer.

Optimisation of the fermentation media

The screening study concluded that glucose, yeast extract, soy peptone, tryptone, and CaCl_2 significantly impact MK-7 isomer production. The presence of glucose, yeast extract, soy peptone, and tryptone is advantageous to improve the all-*trans* MK-7 isomer concentration; however, they also increase the concentration of *cis* MK-7, which is unfavourable. Whereas CaCl_2 decreases the production of all-*trans* MK-7, which is not ideal but it is also beneficial, as it reduces the *cis* isomer yield. As a result, given the synonymous nature of the effect of the significant nutrients on the two responses, it is likely not to be possible to eliminate the

Table 3 Experimental design and responses from the optimisation study

Run	Nutrient factors (% w/v)					Observed responses (mg/L)		Predicted responses (mg/L)	
	Glucose	Yeast extract	Soy peptone	Tryptone	CaCl ₂	All-trans MK-7 concentration	Cis MK-7 concentration	All-trans MK-7 concentration	Cis MK-7 concentration
1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	1	2.984	0.585	3.643	0.641
2	2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	7.892	1.078	8.403	1.076
3	0.1	2	0.1	0.1	0.1	10.306	1.254	11.113	1.338
4	2	2	0.1	0.1	1	22.264	2.437	22.222	2.444
5	0.1	0.1	2	0.1	0.1	5.605	0.843	5.521	0.829
6	2	0.1	2	0.1	1	20.102	2.545	19.169	2.453
7	0.1	2	2	0.1	1	15.006	1.791	14.368	1.785
8	2	2	2	0.1	0.1	24.138	2.639	23.353	2.575
9	0.1	0.1	0.1	2	0.1	6.345	0.922	7.607	1.003
10	2	0.1	0.1	2	1	17.065	2.091	17.478	2.094
11	0.1	2	0.1	2	1	10.233	1.265	10.942	1.355
12	2	2	0.1	2	0.1	18.555	2.172	19.116	2.203
13	0.1	0.1	2	2	1	10.708	1.407	10.525	1.398
14	2	0.1	2	2	0.1	33.937	3.512	33.606	3.445
15	0.1	2	2	2	0.1	19.399	1.223	19.364	1.242
16	2	2	2	2	1	27.300	1.635	26.416	1.577
17	0.1	1.05	1.05	1.05	0.55	10.343	0.980	7.846	0.679
18	2	1.05	1.05	1.05	0.55	17.190	1.471	18.681	1.713
19	1.05	0.1	1.05	1.05	0.55	14.031	1.109	12.718	1.152
20	1.05	2	1.05	1.05	0.55	17.528	1.452	17.835	1.350
21	1.05	1.05	0.1	1.05	0.55	18.174	1.521	13.296	1.171
22	1.05	1.05	2	1.05	0.55	15.898	1.274	19.771	1.565
23	1.05	1.05	1.05	0.1	0.55	17.384	1.467	17.890	1.498
24	1.05	1.05	1.05	2	0.55	24.060	1.734	22.548	1.645
25	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05	0.1	26.125	1.738	24.220	1.670
26	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05	1	22.905	1.666	23.805	1.675
27	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05	0.55	16.755	1.218	18.375	1.336
28	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05	0.55	13.270	1.030	18.375	1.336
29	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05	0.55	21.077	1.524	18.375	1.336

synthesis of *cis* MK-7; nevertheless, its yield relative to the all-*trans* isomer can be minimised to achieve the objectives of this study.

The key nutrients identified from the screening study were then further optimised using a CCF design and RSM to determine the ideal fermentation media to enhance the production of the biologically significant MK-7 isomer and reduce the yield of the inactive *cis* isomer. The range of all the factors was altered slightly to reposition the design space near the probable optimum. Table 3 illustrates the CCF design matrix and the observed and predicted all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations corresponding to each sample. The statistical analysis for the optimisation study is outlined in Table 4. Polynomial regression models were developed based on the significant model terms to predict

the yield of the all-*trans* (Eq. 2) and *cis* (Eq. 3) MK-7 isomers as a function of the glucose, yeast extract, soy peptone, tryptone, and CaCl₂ concentrations.

$$Y_1 = 18.375 + 5.417X_1 + 2.559X_2 + 3.237X_3 + 2.329X_4 - 5.112X_1^2 + 5.637X_5^2 - 1.731X_2X_4 \tag{2}$$

$$Y_2 = 1.336 + 0.517X_1 + 0.197X_3 + 0.337X_5^2 - 0.132X_1X_2 - 0.217X_2X_3 - 0.294X_2X_4 - 0.186X_4X_5 \tag{3}$$

Where Y_1 represents the concentration of the all-*trans* MK-7 isomer; Y_2 corresponds to the *cis* isomer concentration; and $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4,$ and X_5 refer to glucose, yeast extract, soy peptone, tryptone, and CaCl₂, respectively.

Table 4 Statistical analysis of the optimisation study

All- <i>trans</i> MK-7 concentration				
Term	Coefficient	Standard error	P-value	
Constant	18.375	1.156	2.454e-07	
X_1	5.417	0.828	1.803e-04	
X_2	2.559	0.828	0.015	
X_3	3.237	0.828	0.004	
X_4	2.329	0.828	0.023	
X_5	-0.207	0.828	0.809	
X_1^2	-5.112	2.244	0.052	
X_2^2	-3.099	2.244	0.205	
X_3^2	-1.842	2.244	0.435	
X_4^2	1.844	2.244	0.435	
X_5^2	5.637	2.244	0.036	
X_1X_2	-1.003	0.879	0.287	
X_1X_3	1.178	0.879	0.217	
X_1X_4	0.605	0.879	0.511	
X_1X_5	0.308	0.879	0.735	
X_2X_3	-0.724	0.879	0.434	
X_2X_4	-1.731	0.879	0.084	
X_2X_5	0.333	0.879	0.715	
X_3X_4	1.109	0.879	0.242	
X_3X_5	-1.213	0.879	0.205	
X_4X_5	-1.584	0.879	0.109	
<i>Cis</i> MK-7 concentration				
Term	Coefficient	Standard error	P-value	
Constant	1.336	0.088	3.501e-07	
X_1	0.517	0.063	3.635e-05	
X_2	0.099	0.063	0.156	
X_3	0.197	0.063	0.014	
X_4	0.073	0.063	0.277	
X_5	0.002	0.063	0.972	
X_1^2	-0.140	0.171	0.437	
X_2^2	-0.085	0.171	0.633	
X_3^2	0.032	0.171	0.854	
X_4^2	0.235	0.171	0.205	
X_5^2	0.337	0.171	0.084	
X_1X_2	-0.132	0.067	0.083	
X_1X_3	0.082	0.067	0.254	
X_1X_4	0.023	0.067	0.740	
X_1X_5	-0.094	0.067	0.199	
X_2X_3	-0.217	0.067	0.012	
X_2X_4	-0.294	0.067	0.002	
X_2X_5	-0.027	0.067	0.696	
X_3X_4	-0.071	0.067	0.319	
X_3X_5	-0.112	0.067	0.133	
X_4X_5	-0.186	0.067	0.024	

X_1 = glucose; X_2 = yeast extract; X_3 = soy peptone; X_4 = tryptone; X_5 = CaCl₂; $R^2 = 0.929$; R^2 (adj.) = 0.753; significance accepted at $P < 0.1$

X_1 = glucose; X_2 = yeast extract; X_3 = soy peptone; X_4 = tryptone; X_5 = CaCl₂; $R^2 = 0.948$; R^2 (adj.) = 0.817; significance accepted at $P < 0.1$

Table 5 ANOVA for the quadratic models

All- <i>trans</i> MK-7 concentration						
Source of variation	DF	SS	MS	F-value	P-value	SD
Total corrected	28	1399.696	49.989	–	–	7.070
Regression	20	1300.898	65.045	5.267	0.011	8.065
Residual	8	98.798	12.350	–	–	3.514
<i>Cis</i> MK-7 concentration						
Source of variation	DF	SS	MS	F-value	P-value	SD
Total corrected	28	10.971	0.392	–	–	0.626
Regression	20	10.399	0.520	7.271	0.004	0.721
Residual	8	0.572	0.072	–	–	0.267

DF degree of freedom, SS sum of squares, MS mean sum of squares, SD standard deviation

The linear term for glucose (X_1) is especially significant ($P < 0.001$) for both responses, which suggests that the concentration of glucose has a direct relationship with MK-7 production in this particular media. This may be attributed to the critical role of glucose in facilitating microbial growth and metabolism and, consequently, MK-7 production. Additionally, the quadratic terms X_1^2 and X_5^2 and the interactive term X_2X_4 were significant ($P < 0.1$) for the all-*trans* MK-7 isomer concentration, whereas the quadratic term X_5^2 and the interactive terms X_1X_2 , X_2X_3 , X_2X_4 , and X_4X_5 were significant ($P < 0.1$) for the *cis* MK-7 isomer concentration.

The ANOVA analysis (Table 5) demonstrated that the developed models were consistent with the experimental results, as the standard deviation of the regression was considerably greater than the standard deviation of the residuals for both the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations. This is also evident from the significant P -value (0.011 and 0.004) and high F -value (5.267 and 7.271) for each response. An R^2 value of 0.929 for the all-*trans* MK-7 response and 0.948 for the *cis* MK-7 response indicate a good model fit, as only 7.1% and 5.2% of the total variation, respectively, is not explained by the proposed models.

Interactions between the different media components and their effect on the production of MK-7 isomers can be visualised using contour plots for each pair of nutrients, while the concentration of the remaining nutrients is fixed at their intermediate value. Ten contour plots were generated for each response, and these are illustrated in Fig. 4 for the all-*trans* isomer concentration and Fig. 5 for the *cis* isomer concentration. Overall, the response surface plots depict a complex scenario, as the two responses are interrelated. The objective of this study was to enhance the all-*trans* isomer yield and decrease the production of the *cis* isomer, and the response surface plots demonstrate an intermediate glucose concentration, high yeast extract, soy peptone, and tryptone concentration, and low CaCl_2 concentration best satisfy this aim.

Validation study

The ideal concentration of the media components to promote the synthesis of the all-*trans* isomer and reduce the production of *cis* MK-7 was determined by solving the regression equations within the design space. The optimum media contained 1% (w/v) glucose, 2% (w/v) yeast extract, 2% (w/v) soy peptone, 2% (w/v) tryptone, and 0.1% (w/v) CaCl_2 , and the experimental concentrations (mean \pm standard deviation (SD)) of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 achieved using the optimised media from triplicate samples were 36.366 ± 2.232 mg/L and 1.225 ± 0.063 mg/L, respectively. Although the experimental concentrations differed from the values envisaged by the model (30.109 mg/L of all-*trans* MK-7 and 1.941 mg/L of *cis* MK-7), the all-*trans* isomer concentration was higher and the *cis* isomer concentration was lower than the concentrations anticipated by the model. Thus, the experimental observations were superior to the model prediction, and the overall results were in accordance with the fundamental aim of this experiment, which was to maximise the production of the all-*trans* isomer and minimise the concentration of *cis* MK-7.

The development of an optimised media to enhance the production of the bioactive MK-7 isomer and decrease the concentration of the inactive isomer is significant from a commercial outlook, as it will improve the process productivity and reduce or eliminate the steps involved in the removal of the *cis* isomer.

Monitoring the isomer composition and the fermentation process using the optimal fermentation media

The all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations, bacterial growth, and pH were analysed each day over the course of fermentation for the optimised media (Fig. 6). The trends

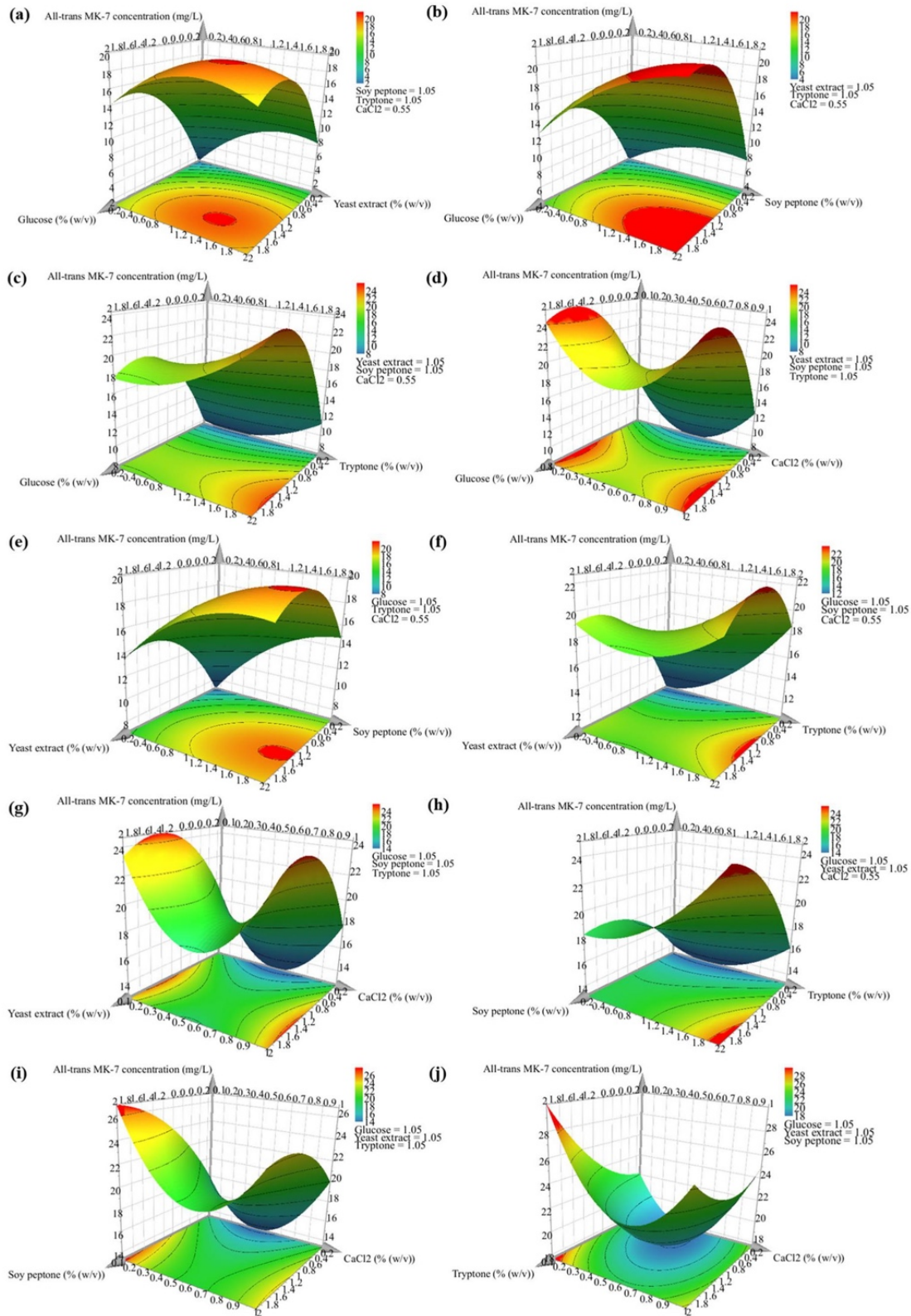


Fig. 4 Response surface plots a-j demonstrating the effect of each pair of nutrients on the all-trans MK-7 isomer concentration

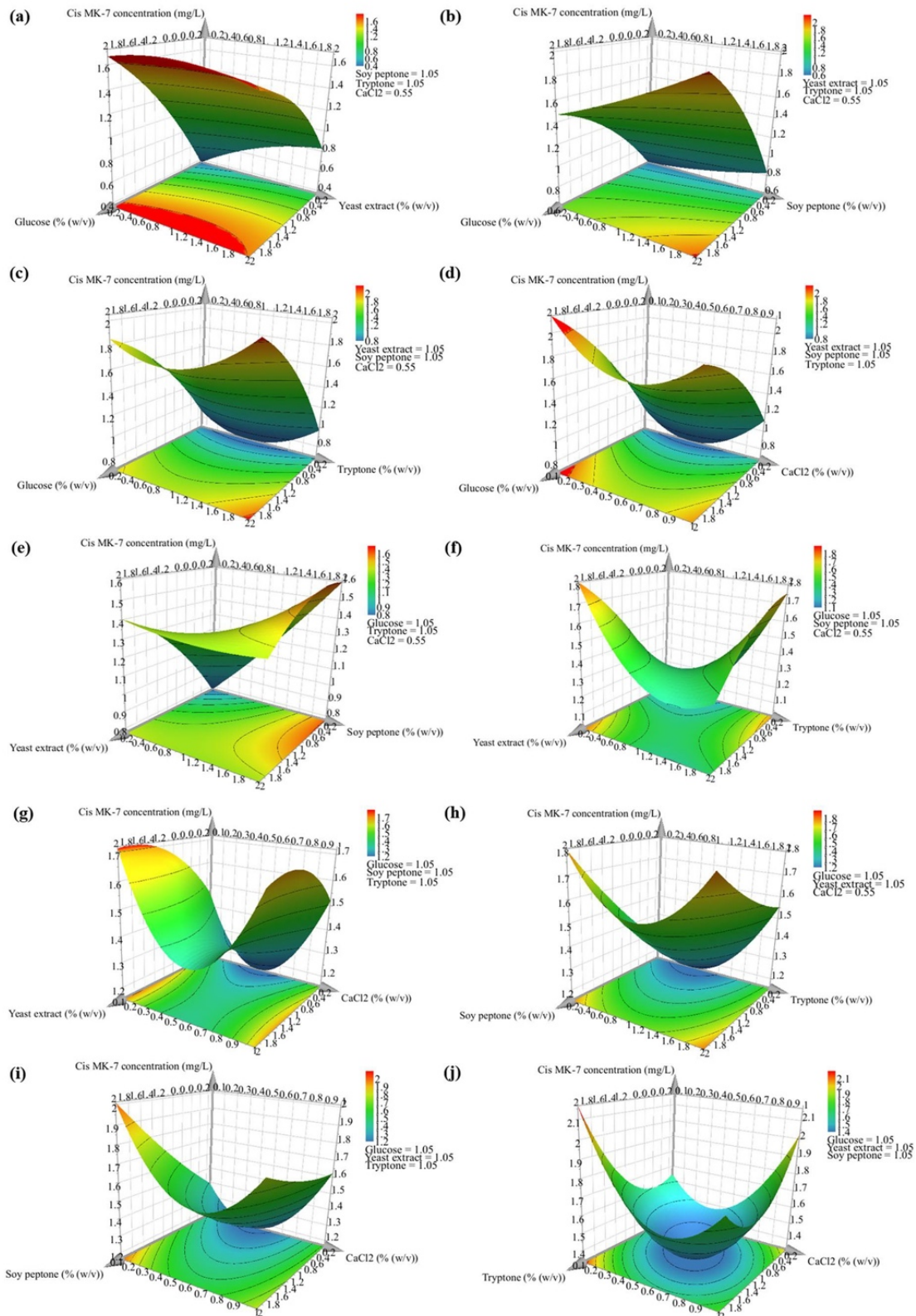
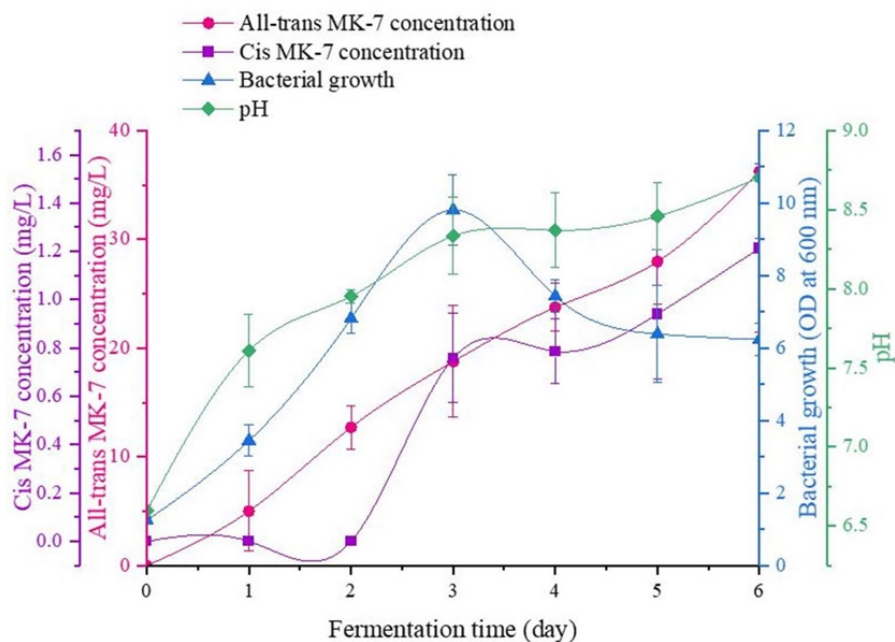


Fig. 5 Response surface plots a-j demonstrating the effect of each pair of nutrients on the *cis* MK-7 isomer concentration

Fig. 6 Changes in the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations, bacterial growth, and pH over the fermentation period for the optimised media, which comprised 1% (w/v) glucose, 2% (w/v) yeast extract, 2% (w/v) soy peptone, 2% (w/v) tryptone, and 0.1% (w/v) CaCl₂ (the error bars represent the SD calculated from four replicate samples for each response)



observed in MK-7 isomer production, particularly the all-*trans* isomer, closely reflected the cell growth pattern, congruous with accounts from previous investigations [61, 84, 89, 97]. The OD increased slowly over the first day of fermentation, after which it escalated to 9.81 on day 3 and decreased to 7.43 on day 4, ultimately reaching a value of 6.24 on day 6. The variation in the OD measurements corresponds to the bacterial growth profile, and days 0 to 1 are likely to represent the lag phase, between days 1 and 3 correlate with the exponential growth period, and days 4 to 6 appear to denote the stationary phase.

It is interesting to note that although the overall variation in the concentration of the two isomers over the investigated timeframe is similar, the day on which their production began was different. Production of the all-*trans* isomer commenced on day 1 and increased over the fermentation period at a rate compliant with the bacterial growth profile, reaching a final concentration of 36.232 mg/L on day 6. Correspondingly, 13.83% of the total all-*trans* MK-7 was noted during the lag phase, 37.95% was synthesised during the logarithmic growth phase, and 48.22% was produced during the stationary phase. In comparison, production of the *cis* isomer initiated on day 3 and increased according to the bacterial growth curve, resulting in a concentration of 1.214 mg/L at the end of fermentation. Accordingly, 0% of the total *cis* MK-7 was observed during the lag phase, 62.47% was produced during the exponential growth phase, and 37.53% was detected during the stationary period. The delay in the production of the *cis* isomer, relative to all-*trans* MK-7, is an intriguing observation, as it would generally be

expected for both isomers to be synthesised simultaneously. There are two probable explanations for this finding. Since the all-*trans* isomer is the naturally occurring form of the vitamin, it is produced in a greater quantity than the *cis* isomer, and thus, the concentration of *cis* MK-7 may be too low to be detected by the instrument. Alternatively, it is possible for the *cis* isomer to be produced from the isomerisation of all-*trans* MK-7 due to the culture or environmental conditions, and this may occur after a few days of fermentation once a sufficient amount of the all-*trans* isomer has been synthesised. The trend in both the all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentrations seems to continue to increase at the end of the fermentation period, which contrasts with the trend in the OD measurements.

Prior studies [61, 84, 97] have reported that the MK-7 concentration plateaus during the stationary phase, suggesting that MK-7 production correlates with bacterial growth. Whereas Xu and Zhang [92], Sato et al. [87], and Song et al. [63] have observed a substantial rise in the MK-7 concentration when the bacterial culture enters the stationary phase, which may be ascribed to the release of intracellular MK-7 as a result of cell lysis [92]. MK-7 is synthesised intracellularly and is secreted from the cell as a soluble complex with an acidic binding factor [92, 95, 98–100]. It has been noted that the amount of MK-7 inside *B. subtilis* cells is greater than the extracellular quantity [53, 92]. Therefore, during the stationary phase, it is anticipated for the extracellular MK-7 concentration to rapidly increase due to cell rupture and the successive release of the intracellular contents [92]. However, when bacterial growth enters the death phase,

the MK-7 concentration is likely to decrease, as over an extended timeframe, proteases, other enzymes, and various cellular components released during cell lysis may degrade the MK-7 present in the fermentation broth. Consequently, it is potentially advantageous to terminate fermentation before the onset of the death phase to ensure maximal all-*trans* MK-7 production.

Consolidating the findings from prior studies and the observations from this investigation, MK-7 is a mixed metabolite, as its production is partly growth-associated. The majority of MK-7 biosynthesis possibly occurs during the logarithmic phase, resulting in a gradual rise in the MK-7 concentration during this stage as some intracellular MK-7 is secreted into the extracellular fraction. A significant increase in the MK-7 concentration may only be noted during the stationary phase when the intracellular MK-7 is released due to cell lysis. Further extension of the fermentation period beyond the stationary phase and into the death phase might not be ideal, as it may lead to a drop in the MK-7 concentration. However, in the present study, it is necessary to prolong fermentation and observe the trends in bacterial growth and MK-7 production beyond day 6 to draw accurate conclusions in this regard.

Additionally, the pH of the media progressively increased from an initial value of 6.60 to 8.71 at the end of the fermentation period. This change in pH is verified by previous investigations [61, 92, 97] and may be attributed to protein hydrolysis and the subsequent release of ammonia by *B. subtilis* [61, 97].

Conclusions

This study was the first to explore the production of MK-7 isomers in a fermentation context and consider the development of an optimised media to enhance the concentration of the biologically significant all-*trans* isomer and minimise the production of the inactive *cis* isomer. A PBD was initially employed to screen ten different carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources to determine the most effective nutrients that have a notable effect on the MK-7 isomer concentration. Glucose, yeast extract, soy peptone, tryptone, and CaCl₂ were then further analysed in an optimisation study using a CCF design and RSM to ascertain the optimum fermentation media. An experimental all-*trans* isomer concentration of 36.366 mg/L and a *cis* isomer concentration of 1.225 mg/L were achieved using the ideal fermentation media, which consisted of 1% (w/v) glucose, 2% (w/v) yeast extract, 2% (w/v) soy peptone, 2% (w/v) tryptone, and 0.1% (w/v) CaCl₂. The experimental concentrations were superior to the values predicted by the model. This media presents a commercially attractive alternative to MK-7 synthesis using fermentation media that does not specifically target the production of the bioactive

isomer and, thus, necessitates the separation and removal of *cis* MK-7 from the desired all-*trans* product. Although the *cis* isomer is inactive, it may not be possible to eliminate its production during fermentation, as it is synthesised in small quantities alongside the all-*trans* isomer. Therefore, MK-7 synthesis using an optimised fermentation media, which enhances the yield of the biologically important all-*trans* isomer and minimises the concentration of *cis* MK-7, is likely to entail fewer downstream processing steps and reduce the costs associated with the industrial fermentation of the vitamin.

Acknowledgements The authors are grateful to Dr Grant Smolenski, executive director of MS3 Solutions Ltd, for conducting the LC-MS analysis. The authors are also thankful to Associate Professor Michele Prinsep from The University of Waikato for her guidance in interpreting the MS data.

Funding Open Access funding was enabled and organised by CAUL and its Member Institutions.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest associated with this publication.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

References

1. Dam H, Schönheyder F, Tage-Hansen E (1936) Studies on the mode of action of vitamin K. *Biochem J* 30:1075–1079. <https://doi.org/10.1042/bj0301075>
2. Dam H (1934) Haemorrhages in chicks reared on artificial diets: a new deficiency disease. *Nature* 133:909–910. <https://doi.org/10.1038/133909b0>
3. Dam H (1935) The antihemorrhagic vitamin of the chick. *Biochem J* 29:1273–1285. <https://doi.org/10.1042/bj0291273>
4. Shearer MJ (1995) Vitamin K. *Lancet* 345:229–234. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(95\)90227-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(95)90227-9)
5. Beulens J, Booth S, van Den Heuvel E, Stoecklin E, Baka A, Vermeer C (2013) The role of menaquinones (vitamin K2) in human health. *Br J Nutr* 110:1357–1368. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114513001013>
6. Sitkowski J, Bocian W, Sztzerk A (2018) The application of multidimensional NMR analysis to *cis/trans* isomers study of menaquinone-7 (vitamine K2MK-7), identification of the (E,

- Z3, E2, ω)-menaquinone-7 isomer in dietary supplements. *J Mol Struct* 1171:449–457. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molstruc.2018.06.029>
7. Pucaj K, Rasmussen H, Møller M, Preston T (2011) Safety and toxicological evaluation of a synthetic vitamin K2, menaquinone-7. *Toxicol Mech Methods* 21:520–532
 8. Szterk A, Zmysłowski A, Bus K (2018) Identification of cis/trans isomers of menaquinone-7 in food as exemplified by dietary supplements. *Food Chem* 243:403–409. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.10.001>
 9. Azuma K, Inoue S (2019) Multiple modes of vitamin k actions in aging-related musculoskeletal disorders. *Int J Mol Sci* 20:2844. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20112844>
 10. Shea MK, Booth SL (2016) Concepts and controversies in evaluating vitamin K status in population-based studies. *Nutrients* 8:8. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu8010008>
 11. Basset G, Latimer S, Fatihi A, Soubeyrand E, Block A (2017) Phylloquinone (vitamin K1): occurrence, biosynthesis and functions. *Mini-Rev Med Chem* 17:1028–1038
 12. Booth SL (2012) Vitamin K: food composition and dietary intakes. *Food Nutr Res* 56:5505
 13. Daines AM, Payne RJ, Humphries ME, Abell AD (2003) The synthesis of naturally occurring vitamin K and vitamin K analogues. *Curr Org Chem* 7:1625–1634
 14. Yan H, Chen Y, Zhu H, Huang W-H, Cai X-H, Li D, Lv Y-J, Si Z, Zhou H-H, Luo F-Y, Zhang W, Li X (2022) The relationship among intestinal bacteria, vitamin k and response of vitamin K antagonist: a review of evidence and potential mechanism. *Front Med* 9:829304–829304. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2022.829304>
 15. Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F (2015) Vitamin K series: current status and future prospects. *Crit Rev Biotechnol* 35:199–208
 16. Ferland G (2012) The discovery of vitamin k and its clinical applications. *Ann Nutr Metab* 61:213–218. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000343108>
 17. Scheiber D, Veulemans V, Horn P, Chatrou M, Potthoff S, Kelm M, Schurgers L, Westenfeld R (2015) High-dose menaquinone-7 supplementation reduces cardiovascular calcification in a murine model of extrasosseous calcification. *Nutrients* 7:6991–7011. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu7085318>
 18. Shearer MJ, Newman P (2008) Metabolism and cell biology of vitamin K. *Thromb Haemostasis* 100:530–547
 19. Vermeer C, Schurgers LJ (2000) A comprehensive review of vitamin K and vitamin K antagonists. *Hematol Oncol Clin North Am* 14:339–353
 20. Shea MK, Holden RM (2012) Vitamin K status and vascular calcification: evidence from observational and clinical studies. *Adv Nutr* 3:158–165. <https://doi.org/10.3945/an.111.001644>
 21. Sato T, Inaba N, Yamashita T (2020) MK-7 and Its effects on bone quality and strength. *Nutrients* 12:965. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12040965>
 22. Vik H (2020) Vitamin K2: a clinically proven cardio-protective powerhouse: known for bone-support benefits, vitamin K2 as Mk-7 has also been recognized as vital for heart health. *Nutra-ceuticals World* 23:44
 23. Ren L, Peng C, Hu X, Han Y, Huang H (2019) Microbial production of vitamin K2: current status and future prospects. *Biotechnol Adv* 39:107453
 24. Schwalfenberg GK (2017) Vitamins K1 and K2: the emerging group of vitamins required for human health. *J Nutr Metab* 2017:1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/6254836>
 25. Juanola-Falgarona M, Salas-Salvadó J, Martínez-González MÁ, Corella D, Estruch R, Ros E, Fitó M, Arós F, Gómez-Gracia E, Fiol M, Lapetra J, Basora J, Lamuela-Raventós RM, Serra-Majem L, Pintó X, Muñoz MÁ, Ruiz-Gutiérrez V, Fernández-Ballart J, Bulló M (2014) Dietary intake of vitamin K is inversely associated with mortality risk. *J Nutr* 144:743–750. <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.113.187740>
 26. Xv F, Chen J, Duan L, Li S (2018) Research progress on the anti-cancer effects of vitamin K2. *Oncol Lett* 15:8926–8934. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ol.2018.8502>
 27. Halder M, Petsophonsakul P, Akbulut A, Pavlic A, Bohan F, Anderson E, Maresz K, Kramann R, Schurgers L (2019) Vitamin K: double bonds beyond coagulation insights into differences between vitamin k1 and k2 in health and disease. *Int J Mol Sci* 20:896. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20040896>
 28. Fusaro M, Gallieni M, Porta C, Nickolas TL, Khairallah P (2020) Vitamin K effects in human health: new insights beyond bone and cardiovascular health. *J Nephrol* 33:239–249. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40620-019-00685-0>
 29. Tarkesh F, Namavar Jahromi B, Hejazi N, Tabatabaee H (2020) Beneficial health effects of Menaquinone-7 on body composition, glycemic indices, lipid profile, and endocrine markers in polycystic ovary syndrome patients. *Food Sci Nutr* 8:5612–5621. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fsn3.1837>
 30. Karamzad N, Maleki V, Carson-Chahhoud K, Azizi S, Sahebkar A, Gargari BP (2020) A systematic review on the mechanisms of vitamin K effects on the complications of diabetes and pre-diabetes. *BioFactors* 46:21–37. <https://doi.org/10.1002/biof.1569>
 31. Dofferhoff ASM, Piscaer I, Schurgers LJ, Visser MPJ, van den Ouweland JMW, de Jong PA, Gossens R, Hackeng TM, van Daal H, Lux P, Maassen C, Karssemeijer EGA, Vermeer C, Wouters EFM, Kistemaker LEM, Walk J, Janssen R (2020) Reduced vitamin K status as a potentially modifiable risk factor of severe COVID-19. *Clin Infect Dis*. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1258>
 32. Anastasi E, Ialongo C, Labriola R, Ferraguti G, Lucarelli M, Angeloni A (2020) Vitamin K deficiency and covid-19. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest* 80:525–527. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00365513.2020.1805122>
 33. Akbulut AC, Pavlic A, Petsophonsakul P, Halder M, Maresz K, Kramann R, Schurgers L (2020) Vitamin K2 Needs an RDI separate from Vitamin K1. *Nutrients* 12:1852. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12061852>
 34. Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F (2012) Advances in menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto: fed-batch glycerol addition. *Am J Biochem Biotechnol* 8:105–110
 35. Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F (2013) Designing of an intensification process for biosynthesis and recovery of menaquinone-7. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol* 172:1347–1357
 36. Szterk A, Bus K, Zmysłowski A, Ofiara K (2018) Analysis of Menaquinone-7 Content and impurities in oil and non-oil dietary supplements. *Molecules* 23:1056. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules23051056>
 37. Lowenthal J, Rivera GV (1979) Comparison of the activity of the cis and trans isomer of vitamin K1 in vitamin K-deficient and coumarin anticoagulant-pretreated rats. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 209:330–333
 38. All-trans means all-bioactive (2019) Kappa Bioscience. <https://www.kappabio.com/papers/cistrans/>. accessed 8 Aug 2019
 39. Knauer TE, Siegfried C, Willingham AK, Matschiner JT (1975) Metabolism and biological activity of cis- and trans-phyloquinone in the rat. *J Nutr* 105:1519–1524
 40. Lal N, Berenjian A (2020) Cis and trans isomers of the vitamin menaquinone-7: which one is biologically significant? *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol* 104:2765–2776. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-020-10409-1>
 41. Yuan P, Cui S, Liu Y, Li J, Du G, Liu L (2020) Metabolic engineering for the production of fat-soluble vitamins: advances

- and perspectives. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol* 104:935–951. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-019-10157-x>
42. Snyder CD, Rapoport H (1974) Synthesis of menaquinones. *J Am Chem Soc* 96:8046–8054. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja00833a035>
 43. Sato K, Inoue S (1973) A new synthesis of vitamin K via π -allylnickel intermediates. *J Chem Soc* 1:2289–2293
 44. Baj A, Walejko P, Kutner A, Kaczmarek L, Morzycki JW, Witkowski S (2016) Convergent synthesis of menaquinone-7 (MK-7). *Org Process Res Dev* 20:1026–1033. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.oprd.6b00037>
 45. Braasch-Turi M, Crans DC (2020) Synthesis of naphthoquinone derivatives: menaquinones, lipoquinones and other vitamin k derivatives. *Molecules* 25:4477. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules25194477>
 46. Orlando P, Silvestri S, Marcheggiani F, Cirilli I, Tiano L (2019) Menaquinone 7 stability of formulations and its relationship with purity profile. *Molecules* 24:829. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24050829>
 47. Wang H, Tao Y, Li Y, Wu S, Li D, Liu X, Han Y, Manickam S, Show PL (2021) Application of ultrasonication at different microbial growth stages during apple juice fermentation by *Lactobacillus plantarum*: Investigation on the metabolic response. *Ultrason Sonochem* 73:105486–105486. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2021.105486>
 48. Wu Y, Li S, Tao Y, Li D, Han Y, Show PL, Wen G, Zhou J (2021) Fermentation of blueberry and blackberry juices using *Lactobacillus plantarum*, *Streptococcus thermophilus* and *Bifidobacterium bifidum*: growth of probiotics, metabolism of phenolics, antioxidant capacity in vitro and sensory evaluation. *Food Chem* 348:129083–129083. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2021.129083>
 49. Kang M-J, Baek K-R, Lee Y-R, Kim G-H, Seo S-O (2022) Production of vitamin K by wild-type and engineered microorganisms. *Microorganisms* 10:554. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms10030554>
 50. Bentley R, Meganathan R (1982) Biosynthesis of vitamin K (menaquinone) in bacteria. *Microbiol Rev* 46:241–280
 51. Sato T, Yamada Y, Ohtani Y, Mitsui N, Murasawa H, Araki S (2001) Production of menaquinone (vitamin K 2)-7 by *Bacillus subtilis*. *J Biosci Bioeng* 91:16–20. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1389-1723\(01\)80104-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1389-1723(01)80104-3)
 52. Goodman SR, Marrs BL, Narconis RJ, Olson RE (1976) Isolation and description of a menaquinone mutant from *Bacillus licheniformis*. *J Bacteriol* 125:282–289
 53. Wu W-J, Ahn B-Y (2011) Improved menaquinone (Vitamin K2) production in cheonggukjang by optimization of the fermentation conditions. *Food Sci Biotechnol* 20:1585–1591
 54. Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2018) Enhanced vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors by optimization of glucose-based medium. *Curr Pharm Biotechnol* 19:917–924
 55. Puri A, Iqbal M, Zafar R, Panda BP (2015) Influence of physical, chemical and inducer treatments on menaquinone-7 biosynthesis by *Bacillus subtilis* MTCC 2756. *Songklanakarin J Sci Technol* 37:283–289
 56. Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2019) Effects of medium components in a glycerol-based medium on vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess Biosyst Eng* 42:223–232. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-018-2027-8>
 57. Mahdinia E, Mamouri SJ, Puri VM, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2019) Modeling of vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) fermentation by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors. *Biocatal Agric Biotechnol* 17:196–202. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2018.11.022>
 58. Berenjian A, Chan NL-C, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F (2012) Effect of biofilm formation by *Bacillus subtilis* natto on menaquinone-7 biosynthesis. *Mol Biotechnol* 54:371–378
 59. Walther B, Karl PJ, Booth SL, Boyaval P (2013) Menaquinones, bacteria, and the food supply: the relevance of dairy and fermented food products to vitamin K requirements. *Adv Nutr* 4:463–473. <https://doi.org/10.3945/an.113.003855>
 60. Luo M-m, Ren L-j, Chen S-l, Ji X-j, Huang H (2016) Effect of media components and morphology of *Bacillus natto* on menaquinone-7 synthesis in submerged fermentation. *Biotechnol Bioprocess Eng* 21:777–786. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12257-016-0202-9>
 61. Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Biffin R, Regtop H, Valtchev P, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F (2011) Efficient media for high menaquinone-7 production: response surface methodology approach. *New Biotechnol* 28:665–672
 62. Wu W-J, Ahn B-Y (2018) Statistical optimization of medium components by response surface methodology to enhance menaquinone-7 (vitamin k 2) production by *Bacillus subtilis*. *J Microbiol Biotechnol* 28:902–908
 63. Song J, Liu H, Wang L, Dai J, Liu Y, Liu H, Zhao G, Wang P, Zheng Z (2014) Enhanced production of vitamin k2 from *Bacillus subtilis* (natto) by mutation and optimization of the fermentation medium. *Braz Arch Biol Technol* 57:606–612
 64. Mahanama R, Berenjian A, Dehghani F, Kavanagh J (2012) Modeling the effect of bed height and particle size for vitamin K2 production in a static bed fermenter. *Eng Lett* 20:16
 65. Mahanama R, Berenjian A, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM (2011) Solid-substrate fermentation of menaquinone with *Bacillus subtilis* comparison of continuous rotation with stationary bed fermentation at different initial moisture levels. *Engineering a Better World: Sydney Hilton Hotel, Chemeca*
 66. Mahanama R, Berenjian A, Regtop H, Talbot A, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM (2012) Modeling menaquinone 7 production in tray type solid state fermenter. *ANZIAM J* 53:354–372
 67. Mahanama R, Berenjian A, Talbot A, Biffin R, Regtop H, Dehghani F, Kavanagh J (2011) Effects of inoculation loading and substrate bed thickness on the production of menaquinone 7 via solid state fermentation. *Cardiovasc Disord* 2:19–22
 68. Mahanama R, Berenjian A, Valtchev P, Talbot A, Biffin R, Regtop H, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM (2011) Enhanced production of menaquinone 7 via solid substrate fermentation from *Bacillus subtilis*. *Int J Food Eng*. <https://doi.org/10.2202/1556-3758.2314>
 69. Singh R, Puri A, Panda B (2015) Development of menaquinone-7 enriched nutraceutical: inside into medium engineering and process modeling. *J Food Sci Technol* 52:5212–5219. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-014-1600-7>
 70. Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2017) Production and application of menaquinone-7 (vitamin K2): a new perspective. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol* 33:1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11274-016-2169-2>
 71. Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2017) Strain and plastic composite support (PCS) selection for vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess Biosyst Eng* 40:1507–1517. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-017-1807-x>
 72. Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2018) Optimization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto growth parameters in glycerol-based medium for vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess Biosyst Eng* 41:195–204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-017-1857-0>
 73. Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2018) Utilization of glucose-based medium and optimization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto growth parameters for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Biocatal Agric Biotechnol* 13:219–224. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2017.12.009>

74. Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2018) Implementation of fed-batch strategies for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol* 102:9147–9157. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-018-9340-7>
75. Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2019) Biofilm reactors as a promising method for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol* 103:5583–5592. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-019-09913-w>
76. Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A (2019) Evaluation of vitamin K (menaquinone-7) stability and secretion in glucose and glycerol-based media by *Bacillus subtilis* natto. *Acta Aliment* 48:405–414
77. Arora B, Bose D (2022) Role of microbes in industries. *World Sci News* 165:180–196
78. Allikian K, Edgar R, Syed R, Zhang S (2019) Fundamentals of fermentation media. In: Berenjian A (ed) *Essentials in fermentation technology*. Springer, Cham, pp 41–84
79. Wang H, Liu H, Wang L, Zhao G, Tang H, Sun X, Ni W, Yang Q, Wang P, Zheng Z (2019) Improvement of menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in a novel residue-free medium by increasing the redox potential. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol* 103:7519–7535. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-019-10044-5>
80. Hu X-c, Liu W-m, Luo M-m, Ren L-j, Ji X-j, Huang H (2017) Enhancing menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto r127 through the nutritional factors and surfactant. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol* 182:1630–1641. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12010-017-2423-6>
81. Ma Y, Tang PTP, McClure DD, Valtchev P, Ashton JF, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM (2019) Development of a menaquinone-7 enriched functional food. *Food Bioprod Process* 117:258–265. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2019.06.017>
82. Jedynak Ł, Jedynak M, Kossykowska M, Zagrodzka J (2017) A novel method for the determination of chemical purity and assay of menaquinone-7. Comparison with the methods from the official USP monograph. *J Pharm Biomed Anal* 135:116–125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpba.2016.11.052>
83. Dietary Supplements, USP-NF Menaquinone-7 (2020) *US Pharmacopoeia*, Rockville, MD, USA
84. Lal N, Seifan M, Novin D, Berenjian A (2019) Development of a Menaquinone-7 enriched product through the solid-state fermentation of *Bacillus licheniformis*. *Biocatal Agric Biotechnol* 19:101172. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2019.101172>
85. Benedetti A, Daly S, Xaiz R, Pagani H (2010) Process for the preparation of vitamin K2. Google Patents
86. Sumi H (2004) Edible compositions of *Bacillus subtilis* natto cells containing water-soluble vitamin K. Google Patents
87. Sato T, Yamada Y, Ohtani Y, Mitsui N, Murasawa H, Araki S (2001) Efficient production of menaquinone (vitamin K2) by a menadione-resistant mutant of *Bacillus subtilis*. *J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol* 26:115–120
88. Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Biffin R, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F (2011) The effect of amino-acids and glycerol addition on MK-7 production. *Proc World Congr Eng Comput Sci* 11:19–21
89. Ranmadugala D, Ebrahiminezhad A, Manley-Harris M, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A (2017) Impact of 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane-coated iron oxide nanoparticles on menaquinone-7 production using *B. subtilis*. *Nanomaterials* 7:350. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano7110350>
90. Chen Z-M, Li Q, Liu H-M, Yu N, Xie T-J, Yang M-Y, Shen P, Chen X-D (2009) Greater enhancement of *Bacillus subtilis* spore yields in submerged cultures by optimization of medium composition through statistical experimental designs. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol* 85:1353–1360. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-009-2162-x>
91. Willem HK (2014) Nutritional requirements in fermentation processes. In: Todaro CM, Vogel HC (eds) *Fermentation and biochemical engineering handbook*. William Andrew Publishing, Norwich, pp 37–57
92. Xu J-z, Zhang W-g (2017) Menaquinone-7 production from maize meal hydrolysate by *Bacillus* isolates with diphenylamine and analogue resistance. *J Zhejiang Univ Sci B* 18:462–473. <https://doi.org/10.1631/jzus.B1600127>
93. Wu Y, Lv X, Liu Y, Du G, Liu L (2020) Systems and synthetic metabolic engineering for production of biochemicals. In: Liu Y, Du G, Liu L (eds) *Systems and synthetic metabolic engineering*. Elsevier, Amsterdam, pp 207–235
94. Ma Y, McClure DD, Somerville MV, Proschogo NW, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM, Coleman NV (2019) Metabolic engineering of the mep pathway in *Bacillus subtilis* for increased biosynthesis of menaquinone-7. *ACS Synth Biol* 8:1620–1630. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acssynbio.9b00077>
95. Yang S, Cao Y, Sun L, Li C, Lin X, Cai Z, Zhang G, Song H (2019) Modular pathway engineering of *Bacillus subtilis* to promote de novo biosynthesis of menaquinone-7. *ACS Synth Biol* 8:70–81. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acssynbio.8b00258>
96. Pollock ME, Bonner SV (1969) Comparison of undefined medium and its dialyzable fraction for growth of mycoplasma. *J Bacteriol* 97:522–525. <https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.97.2.522-525.1969>
97. Novin D, van der Wel J, Seifan M, Berenjian A (2020) The effect of aeration and mixing in developing a dairy-based functional food rich in menaquinone-7. *Bioprocess Biosyst Eng* 43:1773–1780. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-020-02366-w>
98. Ikeda H, Doi Y (1990) A vitamin-K2-binding factor secreted from *Bacillus subtilis*. *Eur J Biochem* 192:219–224. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1432-1033.1990.tb19218.x>
99. Yanagisawa Y, Sumi H (2005) Natto *Bacillus* contains a large amount of water-soluble vitamin k (menaquinone-7). *J Food Biochem* 29:267–277. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-4514.2005.00016.x>
100. Chatake T, Yanagisawa Y, Inoue R, Sugiyama M, Matsuo T, Fujiwara S, Ohsugi T, Sumi H (2018) Purification and structural characterization of water-soluble menaquinone-7 produced by *Bacillus subtilis* natto. *J Food Biochem*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfb.12630>

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

5

The Impact of Key Fermentation Parameters on the Production of the All- *Trans* Isomer of Menaquinone-7

A journal article published in

Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology
Volume 46, Elsevier, 2022

By

N. Lal, M. Seifan, and A. Berenjian

Chapter 5 – The Impact of Key Fermentation Parameters on the Production of the *All-Trans* Isomer of Menaquinone-7

This chapter draws attention to essential parameters that determine the fermentation conditions during upstream processing and evaluates their effect on the production of MK-7 isomers. Like the fermentation media, the factors defining the fermentation conditions have a direct impact on the growth and metabolic characteristics of the fermentation microorganism. Thus, optimisation of key fermentation parameters to suit the growth and metabolic requirements of *B. subtilis natto* is fundamental in developing an ideal fermentation process to selectively promote the production of the biologically efficacious isomer while reducing the formation of *cis* MK-7.

A DOE strategy was employed to optimise the value of significant fermentation parameters, specifically the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and fermentation period, to increase the concentration of the *all-trans* isomer and diminish the amount of the *cis* isomer obtained from fermentation.

The outcomes of this study contribute to the subsequent chapters (Chapters 6–8) and, along with the findings from the previous chapter (Chapter 4), form the basis of an optimal fermentation process that is then explored in a broader setting in later sections with respect to the overall aims of this research.



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/bab

The impact of key fermentation parameters on the production of the all-*trans* isomer of menaquinone-7

Neha Lal^a, Mostafa Seifan^a, Aydin Berenjian^{a, b, *}

^a School of Engineering, The University of Waikato, Hamilton, 3240, New Zealand

^b Department of Agricultural and Biological Engineering, Pennsylvania State University, 221 Agricultural Engineering Building, University Park, PA, 16802, USA

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Menaquinone-7 isomers

Biological activity

Optimisation

Fermentation parameters

ABSTRACT

Menaquinone-7 (MK-7) offers many health benefits and is the most superior form of vitamin K2 from a health and nutritional perspective. MK-7 can exist as geometric isomers; however, only the all-*trans* isomer is bioactive. Consequently, the therapeutic value of MK-7 products is solely determined by the proportion of the all-*trans* isomer. The fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7 is preferred, and the resulting product comprises both the all-*trans* and *cis* forms of the vitamin. The fermentation conditions influence the isomer profile. Hence, the objective of this investigation was to assess the significant fermentation parameters to enhance the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and diminish the production of *cis* MK-7. Accordingly, a central composite face-centred (CCF) design was used to optimise the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and fermentation time. The optimum conditions comprised an inoculum size of 2% (v/v), a fermentation temperature of 40 °C, an agitation speed of 200 rpm, and a fermentation period of 7 days. This resulted in an all-*trans* MK-7 concentration of 53.292 mg/L and a *cis* isomer concentration of 1.222 mg/L. This study was the first to evaluate the impact of essential fermentation parameters on the MK-7 isomer profile to boost the production of bioactive MK-7 and reduce the concentration of the ineffectual isomer. The ideal fermentation conditions determined from this investigation present a valuable opportunity to develop a fermentation process that selectively favours the production of all-*trans* MK-7, which is commercially attractive, as it will refine the production process and decrease the concomitant expenses.

1. Introduction

Vitamin K collectively refers to a group of fat-soluble compounds that contain a common 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone moiety but differ in the structure of a lateral isoprenoid chain at the 3-position (Beulens et al., 2013). The nature and properties of the different forms of vitamin K are determined by the length and degree of saturation of the isoprenoid side chain (Beulens et al., 2013; Sitkowski et al., 2018).

Vitamin K1 (phylloquinone), vitamin K2 (menaquinones), and vitamin K3 (menadiolone) are the prevalent forms of vitamin K, and only phylloquinone (PK) and menaquinones (MK) are of relevance to human health and nutrition (Azuma and Inoue, 2019). PK is a single compound comprising a side chain of one unsaturated and three saturated isoprenoid residues and functions as an electron carrier in the chloroplasts of photosynthetic plants and algae (Beulens et al., 2013; Ren et al., 2019). Thus, PK can be easily obtained from a range of green vegetables, plant-based oils, and products derived from such vegetable oils and is the predominant dietary form

* Corresponding author. School of Engineering, The University of Waikato, Hamilton, 3240, New Zealand.

E-mail address: aydin.berenjian@waikato.ac.nz (A. Berenjian).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2022.102548>

Received 14 August 2022; Received in revised form 8 November 2022; Accepted 10 November 2022

Available online 12 November 2022

1878-8181/© 2022 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

of vitamin K (Basset et al., 2017; Berenjian et al., 2015; Beulens et al., 2013; Booth, 2012; Szterk et al., 2018a). In contrast, MK encompass a series of structures with side chains of different lengths and degree of saturation, which is described by the notation MK- n , where n is usually between four and thirteen and represents the number of unsaturated isoprenoid units in a chain (Beulens et al., 2013; Szterk et al., 2018b). MK are primarily of microbial origin and are not as readily available in the diet, as they occur at low concentrations in selected fermented, dairy, and animal goods (Berenjian et al., 2013; Beulens et al., 2013; Booth, 2012).

Lately, vitamin K, particularly vitamin K2, has gained extensive interest in the scientific community due to its numerous health benefits. Although all subtypes of vitamin K are involved in haemostasis, several studies have established the valuable role of MK in the prevention of osteoporosis and cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) (Azuma and Inoue, 2019; Berenjian et al., 2015; Beulens et al., 2013; Ferland, 2012; Sato et al., 2020; Scheiber et al., 2015; Shea and Holden, 2012; Shearer and Newman, 2008; Vermeer and Schurgers, 2000; Vik, 2020). Additionally, vitamin K intake has been linked to various other health advantages, including the prevention of cancer, the suppression of Parkinson's disease, assisting the functional recovery of the liver, decreasing the risk of several health conditions, and improving the outcomes associated with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) (Anastasi et al., 2020; Berenjian and Sarabadani, 2020; Dofferhoff et al., 2020; Fusaro et al., 2020; Halder et al., 2019; Janssen et al., 2021; Juanola-Falgarona et al., 2014; Karamzad et al., 2020; Ren et al., 2019; Sato et al., 2020; Schwalfenberg, 2017; Tarkesh et al., 2020; Xv et al., 2018).

Of the different types of vitamin K, MK-7 is the most exceptional and provides significant health gains, owing to its longer half-life and greater extrahepatic availability (Akbulut et al., 2020; Brugè et al., 2011; Schurgers et al., 2007; Vik, 2020). However, it is difficult to obtain adequate levels of MK-7 from regular dietary sources, as it exists in small quantities in limited food products; consequently, satisfying the recommended daily intake requirements would entail the consumption of impractically large quantities of MK-7-rich foods (Berenjian et al., 2012b, 2013). Therefore, the development of nutritional supplements and functional food products to accompany natural food sources and improve the dietary intake of MK-7 has become progressively widespread.

It is important to appreciate that MK-7 molecules exist as geometric isomers, consisting of the biologically significant all-*trans* isomer and various *cis* forms of the vitamin, which are inactive (Sitkowski et al., 2018; Szterk et al., 2018a, 2018b). The bioactivity of MK-7 is determined by the shape of the molecule, and this is governed by the configuration of the double bonds in its isoprenoid chain (Lowenthal and Rivera, 1979; Sitkowski et al., 2018). In the all-*trans* isomer, all seven double bonds in the side chain have the *trans* arrangement, resulting in a linear organisation (Fig. 1) (Lal and Berenjian, 2020). In contrast, the presence of one or more double bonds in the *cis* conformation creates a bend in the isoprenoid side chain, giving rise to a non-linear molecular structure (Fig. 1) (Lal and Berenjian, 2020). Depending on the number of *cis* double bonds and their position in the isoprenoid side chain, in addition to the *trans* bonds, various *cis/trans* isomers, with different combinations of double bonds in the *cis* and *trans* configurations, may potentially be achieved. However, the stability of the diverse molecular shapes resulting from the different *cis* and *trans* bond arrangements is likely to vary, as some conformations may be less energetically favourable and, thus, their occurrence in nature is more improbable than other structures with greater stability.

The existence of MK-7 isomers has only been acknowledged in very few investigations, which have only considered the isomer composition of MK-7-containing consumer end products, particularly dietary supplements and formulations of different origins (Bus et al., 2022; Orlando et al., 2019; Sitkowski et al., 2018; Szterk et al., 2018a, 2018b). Szterk et al. (2018a), Szterk et al. (2018b), and Sitkowski et al. (2018) have recognised five *cis/trans* MK-7 isomers in addition to the all-*trans* form, and Orlando et al. (2019) have demonstrated the presence of various unidentified peaks (postulated to represent the *cis/trans* isomers of MK-7) in different preparations. More recently, Bus et al. (2022) have isolated and established the chemical structure of thirteen new MK-7 isomers and verified the identity of three previously known MK-7 compounds, namely all-*trans* MK-7 ($(E6,\omega)$ -MK-7) and two *cis* isomers ($(Z,E5,\omega)$ -MK-7 and $(E,Z3,E2,\omega)$ -MK-7), from a synthetic mixture of MK-7. Although the presence of *cis* MK-7 isomers in nutritional supplements and other preparations has been established (Bus et al., 2022; Orlando et al., 2019; Sitkowski et al., 2018; Szterk et al., 2018a, 2018b), there are limited reports in the literature exploring the production of MK-7 isomers through fermentation.

It is widely assumed that bacterial fermentation exclusively produces the naturally occurring all-*trans* isomer, and studies specifically focusing on the production of MK-7 isomers from microbial fermentation under different conditions are lacking. Consequently, the isomer profile of fermented samples has not been extensively explored, and our previous study (Lal et al., 2022) was the first to elucidate the presence of a single *cis* MK-7 isomer in fermented samples obtained under the investigated conditions. Observation of *cis*

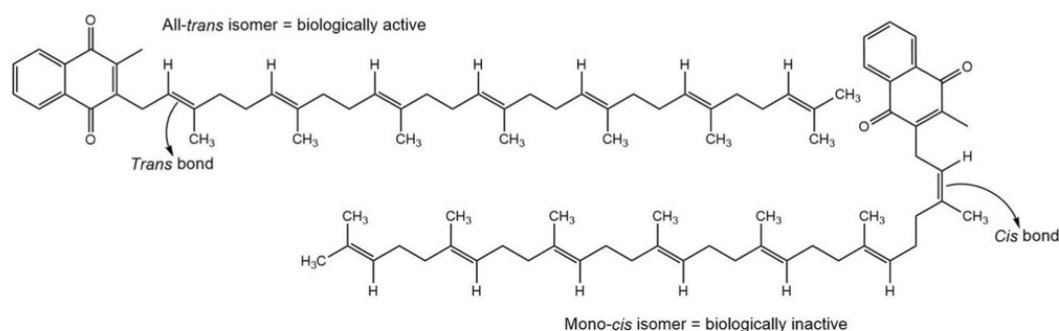


Fig. 1. Double bond configurations in the all-*trans* and *cis* isomers of MK-7 (adapted from Lal et al. (2022)).

MK-7 in fermented samples was an interesting phenomenon, as it has been reported that MK-7 produced from bacterial fermentation only occurs in the all-*trans* configuration. However, it has been suggested that exposure to certain conditions may promote the isomerisation of the all-*trans* isomer to *cis* MK-7. Hence, while the bacterium synthesises the all-*trans* isomer intracellularly, secretion into the fermentation broth subjects all-*trans* MK-7 to the extracellular environment, which can induce its transformation to the *cis* isomer. Since the nature of the fermentation broth is determined by and varies with the fermentation conditions, key aspects of the fermentation process, including the media composition and the value of important fermentation parameters, such as the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and length of fermentation, play a significant role in determining the characteristics of the extracellular environment and, therefore, the MK-7 isomer profile resulting from fermentation.

The isomer composition of MK-7 products is noteworthy, as only all-*trans* MK-7 is bioactive, and it has been recognised that the *cis* isomers of vitamin K merely possess 1% of the biological activity of the all-*trans* form (Knauer et al., 1975; Lowenthal and Rivera, 1979; Matschiner and Bell, 1972; Sitkowski et al., 2018). Moreover, a recent comparison of the bioactivity and carboxylative efficacy of *cis* and *trans* MK-7 has revealed that while not completely ineffective, the *cis* forms of MK-7 have significantly reduced carboxylative capacity, compromising their biological function relative to the all-*trans* isomer (Cirilli et al., 2022).

MK-7 can be produced from chemical reaction schemes or naturally by fermentation with various microbial strains, and the isomer composition of the resulting MK-7 is influenced by the methods used for its synthesis and purification of the post-reaction mixture (Sitkowski et al., 2018; Szterk et al., 2018a, 2018b). Essentially, fermentation-based synthesis is preferred from a consumer's point of view, as it is considered a superior natural and organic alternative to synthetic formulations. In addition, natural synthesis methods are a more sustainable approach for large-scale MK-7 production, and microbial fermentation can help meet both the market demand and sustainable development goals (Kang et al., 2022).

Various aspects of MK-7 fermentation have been comprehensively explored to improve the production of the vitamin in different contexts, including liquid-state fermentation (LSF) (Berenjian et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2012a, 2013; Luo et al., 2016; Puri et al., 2015; Song et al., 2014), solid-state fermentation (SSF) (Lal et al., 2019; Mahanama et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2012a, 2012b; Mahanma et al., 2011; Singh et al., 2015), and biofilm reactors (Mahdinia et al., 2018a, 2018b, 2018c, 2018d, 2019a, 2019b). Several wild-type and engineered bacterial strains, both Gram-positive and Gram-negative, are suitable for the production of MK-7 via fermentation, but members of the *Bacillus* species, namely *Bacillus subtilis natto*, *Bacillus licheniformis*, and *Bacillus amyloxyquifaciens*, are the most prominent (Kang et al., 2022; Mahdinia et al., 2018a; Zhang et al., 2021). *B. subtilis natto* is regarded as the ideal strain for the industrial production of MK-7, as it is generally recognised as safe (GRAS) and enables a high MK-7 yield; hence, it is commonly employed for the production of fermented MK-7 supplements and functional food products (Berenjian et al., 2012a, 2015; Luo et al., 2016; Mahdinia et al., 2019a, 2019b; Puri et al., 2015). In addition to the microbial strain, crucial fermentation conditions, such as the inoculum loading, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and length of fermentation, are instrumental in determining the efficacy of the fermentation process and the resulting MK-7 concentration.

The use of design of experiments (DOE) to optimise the important fermentation parameters is advantageous, as it allows both the individual and interactive effects of the different factors to be evaluated to determine the optimum conditions for a specific fermentation process, which is distinct from the conventional method where the different factors are varied and analysed independently. It is essential to note that while optimisation of the significant aspects of MK-7 fermentation to increase the process productivity has been the focus of many investigations (Berenjian et al., 2012a, 2013; Luo et al., 2016; Mahanama et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2012a; Mahanma et al., 2011; Mahdinia et al., 2018c, 2018d; Novin et al., 2020; Sato et al., 2001; Singh et al., 2015; Wu and Ahn, 2011), the aim has been to enhance MK-7 production holistically, and the isomer composition resulting from fermentation under the conditions examined has not been considered. Knowledge of the MK-7 isomer profile attained from fermentation is beneficial for the development of efficacious MK-7 enriched foods and dietary supplements that predominantly contain the bioactive isomer, as the other isomeric forms of MK-7 are effectively impurities that lack therapeutic value.

Therefore, the objective of this study was to build on our previous investigation (Lal et al., 2022) and evaluate key fermentation parameters to maximise the concentration of the bioactive all-*trans* isomer and minimise the production of *cis* MK-7. To accomplish this, a CCF design was employed to assess and optimise the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and fermentation time. This study will be a valuable step forward in developing a commercially appealing industrial fermentation process that favours the synthesis of the all-*trans* MK-7 isomer, which will streamline the production process and reduce the associated costs. Furthermore, the findings of this investigation will be an important advancement in increasing the availability of biologically active fermented MK-7 nutritional supplements and functional foods, which will help improve the dietary intake of MK-7 and provide consumers with better health outcomes.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals and materials

The all-*trans* MK-7 analytical standard (98.1% purity) was purchased from ChromaDex (Los Angeles, CA, USA). Glucose was acquired from Ajax Finechem Pty Ltd (Taren Point, NSW, Australia). Yeast extract and tryptone were obtained from Becton, Dickinson and Company (Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Glycerol, soy peptone, methanol, 2-propanol, and *n*-hexane were purchased from Merck Millipore (Burlington, MA, USA). NaCl was acquired from a domestic supplier, and CaCl₂ was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). Nutrient agar plates were purchased from Fort Richard Laboratories (Auckland, New Zealand).

2.2. Microorganism and inoculum preparation

The *B. subtilis natto* strain was isolated from a commercially available natto product and prepared as described previously (Berenjian et al., 2011b). Accordingly, the cells were cultivated in a liquid culture medium containing 1% (w/v) tryptone, 0.5% (w/v) yeast extract, and 1% (w/v) NaCl before streaking on nutrient agar plates. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 48 h. Afterwards, the cells were scraped off the plates and suspended in a sterilised saline solution (0.9% (w/v) NaCl). The suspension was then placed in a water bath at 80 °C for 30 min to inactivate the vegetative cells and induce the production of spores before centrifuging (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min to remove the cell debris. The resulting spore suspension (4.8×10^6 CFU/mL) was used as the inoculum for the fermentation experiments.

2.3. Experimental design and statistical analysis

The effect of significant fermentation parameters, specifically the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and length of fermentation, on the production of MK-7 isomers was evaluated and optimised. The inoculum size was examined between 2–10% (v/v), the fermentation temperature was investigated in the range of 35–45 °C, the agitation speed was explored between 100–200 rpm, and the length of fermentation was considered in the span of 4–10 days. The factors were studied at three levels (high, intermediate, and low), and the upper and lower limits of the investigated range for each factor were derived from the literature (Benedetti et al., 2010; Berenjian et al., 2011b, 2012a; Luo et al., 2016; Mahdinia et al., 2018c, 2018d; Sato et al., 2001; Singh et al., 2015; Wu and Ahn, 2011) and our preliminary experiments.

A CCF design was employed to optimise the selected variables, and the results were analysed using response surface methodology (RSM). The experimental values were scaled factors, and the response was described by a quadratic equation. The MODDE 13 software (Sartorius, Gottingen, Germany) was used to create the design matrices, develop a model, and determine the optimum level of the factors to achieve the highest concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 and reduce the concentration of the *cis* isomer. The experimental data was then used to generate a second-order polynomial regression model (Eq. (1)) for each response.

$$Y = b_0 + \sum b_i X_i + \sum b_{ii} X_i^2 + \sum b_{ij} X_i X_j \quad (1)$$

Where Y represents the all-*trans* or *cis* MK-7 isomer concentration; b_0 is a constant term; b_i , b_{ii} , and b_{ij} are the coefficients of the linear, quadratic, and synergistic effects, respectively; and X_i and X_j correspond to the significant factors. The quality of the fit for the developed regression models was expressed via the R^2 value, and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to determine the statistical significance, which was accepted at $P < 0.1$.

2.4. Fermentation procedure

The fermentation media employed in this investigation consisted of 1% (w/v) glucose, 2% (w/v) yeast extract, 2% (w/v) soy peptone, 2% (w/v) tryptone, and 0.1% (w/v) CaCl_2 and was derived from our preceding study (Lal et al., 2022). This was determined to be the optimal media composition to enhance the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and decrease the production of *cis* MK-7. The media for each sample was prepared individually in McCartney bottles and sterilised at 121 °C for 20 min using an autoclave (TOMY SX-700E, Tokyo, Japan). Each sample was then inoculated with the *B. subtilis natto* spore suspension and fermented under aerobic conditions according to the DOE plan, which specified the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and length of fermentation for each sample. A small fermentation volume (6 mL) was used to enable the extraction of the whole sample. This allowed all of the MK-7 produced during fermentation to be analysed and eliminated any errors associated with sampling from the fermentation media.

2.5. MK-7 extraction

Prior to analysis, MK-7 was extracted from the samples using a mixture of 2-propanol and *n*-hexane in the ratio of 1:2 (v/v) and a liquid-to-organic ratio of 1:4 (v/v) (Berenjian et al., 2011b). The mixture was vigorously shaken for 2 min using a vortex mixer and centrifuged (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min to separate the two phases. Since MK-7 is a lipid-soluble vitamin, it preferentially dissolves in *n*-hexane, which is a non-polar solvent. Thus, the upper hexane layer was separated from the aqueous phase and evaporated under a vacuum to recover the extracted MK-7.

2.6. MK-7 analysis

MK-7 analysis was carried out using the method outlined in our previous investigation (Lal et al., 2022). Briefly, a Dionex high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) equipped with four pumps (P680), an automated sample injector (ASI-100), a thermostatted column compartment (TCC-100), and a photodiode array UV detector (UVD340U) was used to determine the MK-7 isomer concentration in the fermented samples. A COSMOSIL Cholesterol packed column (100 mm \times 2 mm \times 2.5 μm ; Nacal Tesque Inc., Kyoto, Japan), which was operated at 40 °C, was employed to separate the compounds. Methanol was used as the mobile phase at a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min (isocratic elution). The analytical wavelength, injection volume, autosampler temperature, and run-time were 248 nm, 10 μL , 10 °C, and 30 min, respectively. Data collection was carried out using the Chromeleon 7 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), and a relative retention time (RRT) of 1.12 allowed the identification of the *cis* MK-7 isomer.

Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) techniques were implemented to verify the presence and confirm the chromatographic retention times of the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomers. The LC-MS system consisted of a Dionex Ultimate 3000 ultra-high-

performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) instrument and a QExactive mass spectrometer with a HESI II source (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The Thermo XCalibur 4.3 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was employed to control the system, and the Chromeleon 7.3 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used for data handling. The chromatographic conditions outlined above were applied to separate the compounds by liquid chromatography; however, the injection volume was altered to 5 μ L, and the run-time was extended to 37 min to adapt to the requirements of the LC-MS platform. Data collection was carried out in the positive ionisation mode with an MS1 scan range of 150–1000 m/z , a resolution of 70,000, an AGC target of 3×10^6 , and a maximum injection time of 200 ms. The Thermo FreeStyle 1.6 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to analyse the mass spectrometry (MS) data.

A calibration curve was constructed based on the peak area corresponding to known concentrations of the MK-7 analytical standard and used to infer the MK-7 concentration of the fermented samples. The resulting MK-7 calibration curve was linear between 0.1 mg/L and 50 mg/L ($R^2 = 0.99$).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Fermentation experiments and statistical analysis

The inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and fermentation time were optimised using a CCF design and RSM to determine the ideal values of these fermentation parameters to increase the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 and reduce the production of the *cis* isomer. The CCF design matrix and isomer concentrations for each sample are outlined in Table 1, and the statistical analysis for the optimisation study is provided in Table 2. Polynomial regression models, including only the significant model terms, were generated to determine the concentration of the all-*trans* (Eq. (2)) and *cis* (Eq. (3)) MK-7 isomers depending on the inoculum size, temperature, agitation speed, and length of fermentation.

$$Y_1 = 36.287 - 5.736 X_2 - 10.033 X_4^2 - 9.453 X_2 X_3 \quad (2)$$

$$Y_2 = 1.037 - 0.178 X_2 - 0.296 X_2 X_3 - 0.289 X_2 X_4 \quad (3)$$

Where Y_1 represents the all-*trans* isomer concentration; Y_2 corresponds to the concentration of *cis* MK-7; and X_1, X_2, X_3 , and X_4 refer to the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and fermentation time, respectively.

The linear term for temperature (X_2) and interactive term for temperature and agitation ($X_2 X_3$) were particularly significant for both responses. This implies that the fermentation temperature is directly related to the MK-7 isomer concentration, and the fermentation temperature and agitation speed have a combined effect on the isomer concentration. The fermentation temperature plays a crucial role in bacterial growth and metabolism, as it influences the microbial growth rate and enzyme activity (Weissbrodt et al., 2020). The preferred temperature for each bacterial strain encompasses a narrow range of values. Generally, the rate of microbial

Table 1
Experimental design and responses from the optimisation study.

Sample	Inoculum size (% (v/v))	Temperature (C)	Agitation speed (rpm)	Fermentation time (days)	All- <i>trans</i> MK-7 concentration (mg/L)	<i>Cis</i> MK-7 concentration (mg/L)
1	2	35	100	4	24.606	0.627
2	10	35	100	4	22.596	0.621
3	2	45	100	4	11.411	0.528
4	10	45	100	4	23.313	0.692
5	2	35	200	4	34.96	0.837
6	10	35	200	4	35.637	0.942
7	2	45	200	4	17.047	1.024
8	10	45	200	4	10.119	0.696
9	2	35	100	10	24.038	0.860
10	10	35	100	10	23.032	0.998
11	2	45	100	10	29.649	0.834
12	10	45	100	10	33.93	1.022
13	2	35	200	10	41.729	1.819
14	10	35	200	10	43.775	1.901
15	2	45	200	10	2.528	0.000
16	10	45	200	10	3.940	0.000
17	2	40	150	7	46.121	1.190
18	10	40	150	7	42.202	1.125
19	6	35	150	7	36.459	1.255
20	6	45	150	7	26.896	0.865
21	6	40	100	7	31.795	1.262
22	6	40	200	7	48.237	1.039
23	6	40	150	4	32.814	1.832
24	6	40	150	10	24.69	1.029
25	6	40	150	7	29.772	0.832
26	6	40	150	7	31.116	0.856
27	6	40	150	7	32.987	1.013

Table 2
Statistical analysis of the optimisation study.

All-trans MK-7 concentration			
Term	Coefficient	Standard Error	P-value
Constant	36.287	2.443	0.000
X_1	-1.016	1.682	0.558
X_2	-5.736	1.682	0.006
X_3	-0.619	1.682	0.720
X_4	-0.552	1.682	0.749
X_1^2	5.376	4.133	0.220
X_2^2	-7.108	4.133	0.113
X_3^2	1.231	4.133	0.771
X_4^2	-10.033	4.133	0.034
X_1X_2	-0.862	1.800	0.641
X_1X_3	0.549	1.800	0.766
X_1X_4	1.740	1.800	0.354
X_2X_3	-9.453	1.800	0.000
X_2X_4	-1.960	1.800	0.299
X_3X_4	-0.610	1.800	0.741
Cis MK-7 concentration			
Term	Coefficient	Standard Error	P-value
Constant	1.037	0.109	0.000
X_1	-0.040	0.070	0.585
X_2	-0.178	0.070	0.030
X_3	-0.010	0.070	0.892
X_4	0.038	0.075	0.620
X_1^2	0.053	0.182	0.778
X_2^2	-0.045	0.182	0.810
X_3^2	0.046	0.182	0.807
X_4^2	-0.182	0.223	0.432
X_1X_2	-0.080	0.075	0.310
X_1X_3	0.023	0.075	0.767
X_1X_4	0.091	0.075	0.252
X_2X_3	-0.296	0.075	0.003
X_2X_4	-0.289	0.075	0.003
X_3X_4	-0.002	0.075	0.978

X_1 = inoculum size; X_2 = temperature; X_3 = agitation speed; X_4 = fermentation time; R^2 = 0.8; significance accepted at $P < 0.1$.

X_1 = inoculum size; X_2 = temperature; X_3 = agitation speed; X_4 = fermentation time; R^2 = 0.817; significance accepted at $P < 0.1$.

growth and enzyme activity increase with a rise in the fermentation temperature and reach a maximum at the optimum temperature. Any further increase in the temperature decreases the microbial growth rate and enzyme activity due to the thermal denaturation of proteins and enzymes that facilitate microbial growth and vital metabolic processes. Therefore, since MK-7 production is partly growth-associated (Berenjian et al., 2011b, 2013; Lal et al., 2019; Novin et al., 2020; Ranmadugala et al., 2017; Song et al., 2014), the fermentation temperature has a substantial contribution to the MK-7 yield. The agitation speed also affects microbial growth and MK-7 biosynthesis, as it impacts the homogeneity of the fermentation broth, cellular oxygen and nutrient availability, and rate of mass transfer. The quadratic term for time (X_4^2) and interactive term for temperature and time (X_2X_4) were also significant for the all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentrations, respectively. This suggests that the fermentation time has a notable effect on the isomer concentration. The length of fermentation is closely associated with the microbial growth profile (Lal et al., 2022); thus, the MK-7 concentration that is attained varies depending on the stage of growth that the microbial culture is in at the conclusion of fermentation.

The results from the ANOVA analysis (Table 3) established that the proposed models were coherent with the experimental observations, as the standard deviation (SD) of the regression was considerably greater than the SD of the residuals for both the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations. This is further illustrated by the significant P -value (0.006 and 0.035) and high F -value (4.799 and 3.200) for each response. An R^2 value of 0.859 for the all-*trans* MK-7 response and 0.817 for the *cis* MK-7 response indicate a good model fit. The observed versus predicted plot for each response, which compares the actual experimental observations with those predicted by the statistical model, is also provided in Fig. 2. It can be seen that for both responses, the data points fit relatively close to the line with only a small amount of scatter. This supports the conclusions inferred from the ANOVA analysis and implies that the model developed for each response is appropriate.

Table 3
ANOVA for the quadratic models.

All-trans MK-7 concentration						
Source of variation	DF	SS	MS	F-value	P-value	SD
Total corrected	25	3425.112	137.004			11.705
Regression	14	2943.271	210.234	4.799	0.006	14.499
Residual	11	481.841	43.804			6.618
Cis MK-7 concentration						
Source of variation	DF	SS	MS	F-value	P-value	SD
Total corrected	24	4.176	0.174			0.417
Regression	14	3.413	0.244	3.200	0.035	0.494
Residual	10	0.762	0.076			0.276

DF: degree of freedom; SS: sum of squares; MS: mean sum of squares; SD: standard deviation.

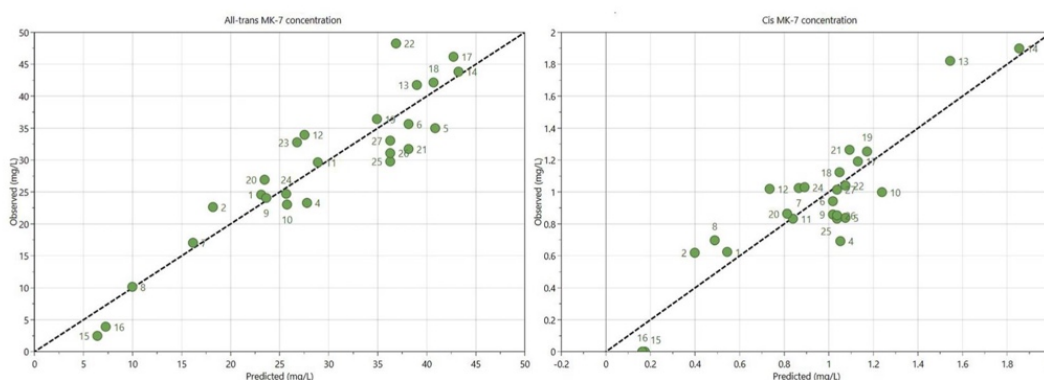


Fig. 2. Observed versus predicted plot for the all-trans and cis isomer concentrations.

Six response surface plots were generated for the all-trans and cis MK-7 isomer concentrations to display the interactions between each pair of fermentation conditions when the level of the remaining factors is set at their intermediate value. The contour plots are provided in Fig. 3 for the all-trans MK-7 response and Fig. 4 for the cis MK-7 response. The response surface plots portray a complex picture, as the concentration of both isomers is interdependent and is synonymously determined by the investigated factors. Overall, the contour plots demonstrate that a small inoculum size, moderate temperature, high agitation speed, and an intermediate fermentation time best satisfy the aim of this study, which was to maximise the production of the all-trans isomer and minimise the concentration of cis MK-7.

3.2. Optimum fermentation conditions

It is necessary to understand that despite being the inactive form of MK-7, production of the cis isomer during fermentation is unlikely to be eliminated, as it is synthesised in small quantities alongside the all-trans isomer. Nonetheless, it is possible to optimise the fermentation conditions to favour the production of the bioactive isomer and reduce the relative concentration of cis MK-7.

The optimum fermentation parameters comprised an inoculum size of 2% (v/v), a temperature of 40 °C, an agitation speed of 200 rpm, and a fermentation period of 7 days. The resulting all-trans and cis isomer concentrations (mean \pm SD) from triplicate samples were 53.292 ± 1.291 mg/L and 1.222 ± 0.050 mg/L, respectively. Moreover, compared to fermentation using only the optimal media (Lal et al., 2022), employing the optimised fermentation conditions resulted in an approximately 46.5% increase in the concentration of the biologically active isomer, while the cis isomer concentration was comparable. This clearly demonstrates the vital contribution of the fermentation environment in determining the yield of the intended product.

It has generally been established that a small inoculum size is appropriate for MK-7 biosynthesis. Higher inoculum levels have an adverse effect on MK-7 production, which is likely attributed to a decrease in oxygen availability and the depletion of essential nutrients required for the production of microbial metabolites, such as MK-7, in the presence of a large biomass concentration (Mahanama et al., 2011b; Zhao et al., 2021). Consequently, an inoculum size of 2% (v/v) has been frequently used in MK-7 fermentation studies (Berenjian et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2012a, 2012b; Ma et al., 2019).

B. subtilis natto can tolerate a wide range of temperatures, typically between 28–45 °C (Berenjian et al., 2015; Ren et al., 2019), but our results demonstrate that 40 °C is the optimum temperature for high MK-7 production, which is comparable to prior studies (Berenjian et al., 2011a, 2011b, 2012a, 2012b, 2015; Ma et al., 2019; Mahanama et al., 2011; Ren et al., 2019; Takenaka et al., 2002; Wu and Ahn, 2011). *B. subtilis natto* is a mesophilic microorganism, and 40 °C is the optimum temperature to promote high enzyme activity in mesophiles (da Rosa et al., 2019). Therefore, a fermentation temperature of 40 °C facilitates critical metabolic processes in *B. subtilis natto* and enhances MK-7 biosynthesis.

While various agitation speeds have been considered in the context of MK-7 fermentation, higher agitation speeds tend to be preferable (Berenjian et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2019; Novin et al., 2020), as greater agitation rates increase the homogeneity of the fer-

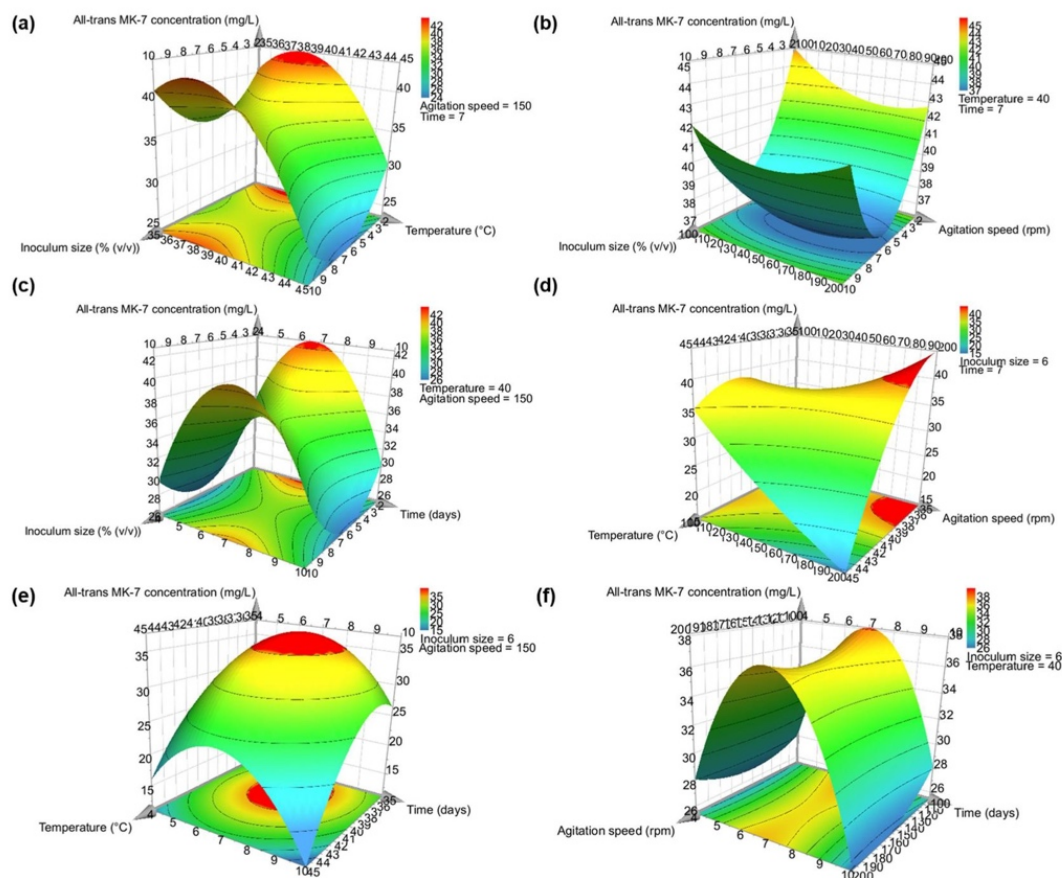


Fig. 3. Response surface plots (a–f) illustrating the pairwise effect of key fermentation parameters on the all-*trans* MK-7 isomer concentration.

mentation broth, enhance the rate of mass transfer, and improve the availability of oxygen and nutrients to cells. Although an agitation speed of 200 rpm was determined to be the optimum in this investigation, the experimental observations suggest that higher agitation rates may be beneficial to promote a greater all-*trans* MK-7 yield.

Additionally, the length of fermentation significantly influences the MK-7 concentration that is achieved, as it largely depends on the stage of microbial growth. MK-7 is synthesised intracellularly, and during fermentation, it is secreted from the cell as a soluble complex with an acidic binding factor (Chatake et al., 2018; Ikeda and Doi, 1990; Ma et al., 2022; Yanagisawa and Sumi, 2005). A comparison of MK-7 production with the microbial growth profile has revealed that MK-7 synthesis gradually increases as the bacterial culture proceeds from the lag to the exponential growth stage, and a notable increase in the MK-7 concentration occurs during the stationary phase when the intracellular MK-7 is released into the fermentation broth due to cell lysis (Lal et al., 2022; Sato et al., 2001; Song et al., 2014; Xu and Zhang, 2017). Our previous investigation (Lal et al., 2022) determined that the bacterial culture enters the stationary phase from day 4 onwards, and a fermentation time of 7 days potentially corresponds to the end of the stationary growth period; therefore, maximal MK-7 release is likely to occur at this stage. It is advantageous to terminate fermentation before the onset of the death phase, as exposure to proteases and other cellular components that are released during cell lysis may degrade the MK-7 present in the extracellular environment and decrease its concentration over an extended timeframe. Consequently, MK-7 fermentation is usually carried out for 6–7 days (Benedetti et al., 2010; Berenjian et al., 2011b; Gao et al., 2020; Mahanama et al., 2012b; Sato et al., 2001; Tani and Taguchi, 1989; Xu and Zhang, 2017), which correlates with the late stationary phase.

A desirability study was also performed to visualise how variation in the fermentation parameters, namely the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and fermentation time, impact the resulting all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations, and this is depicted in Fig. 5.

It is essential to note that excluding our preceding investigation (Lal et al., 2022), prior research focusing on the production of MK-7 isomers through fermentation by analysing the isomer composition of fermented samples is scarce. Hence, the absence of existing studies on this subject limits the ability to make comparisons with directly applicable literature. However, it is possible to draw parallels with the findings of previous MK-7 fermentation studies of relevance, as although they have not examined the production of MK-7 isomers, they have considered MK-7 synthesis in a wide range of fermentation-based scenarios. The fundamental outcomes of which are, to a large extent, likely to be pertinent to the production of MK-7 isomers from fermentation employing different conditions. Furthermore, the lack of comparable studies on this topic demonstrates the novelty of our research, and the findings of this investigation

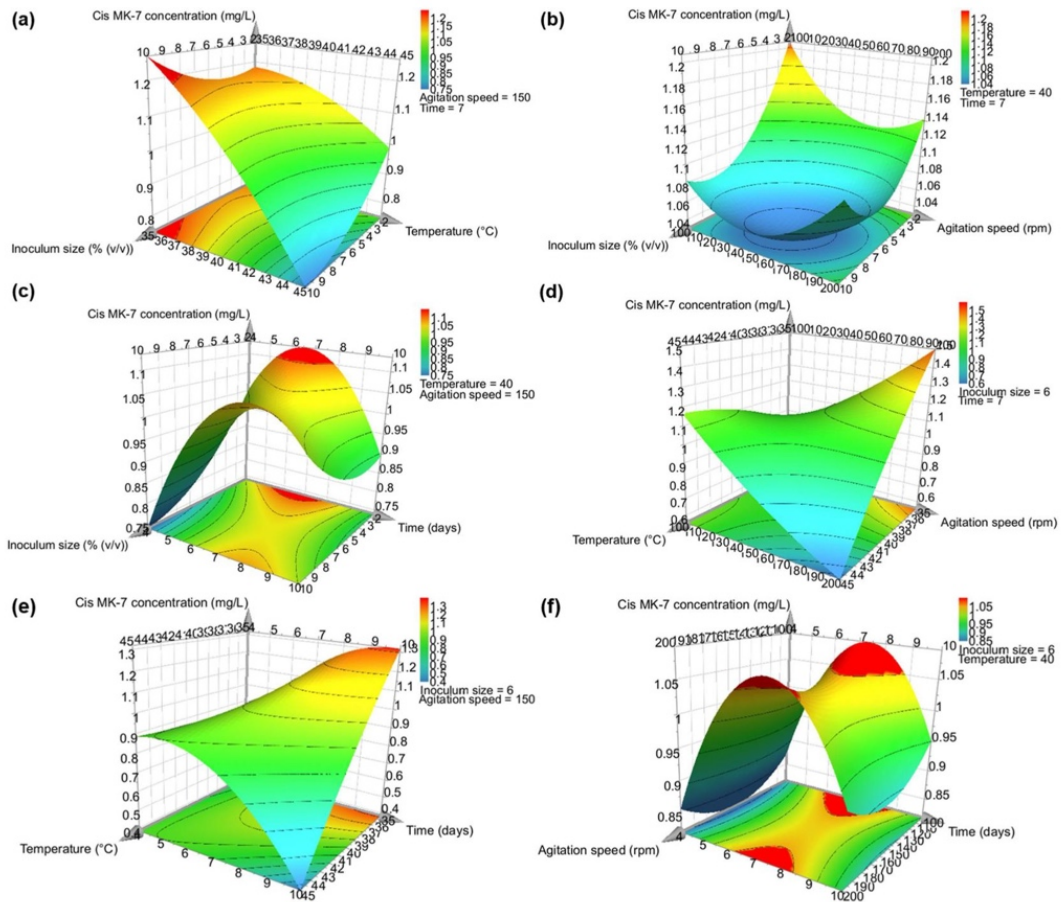


Fig. 4. Response surface plots (a–f) illustrating the pairwise effect of key fermentation parameters on the *cis* MK-7 isomer concentration.

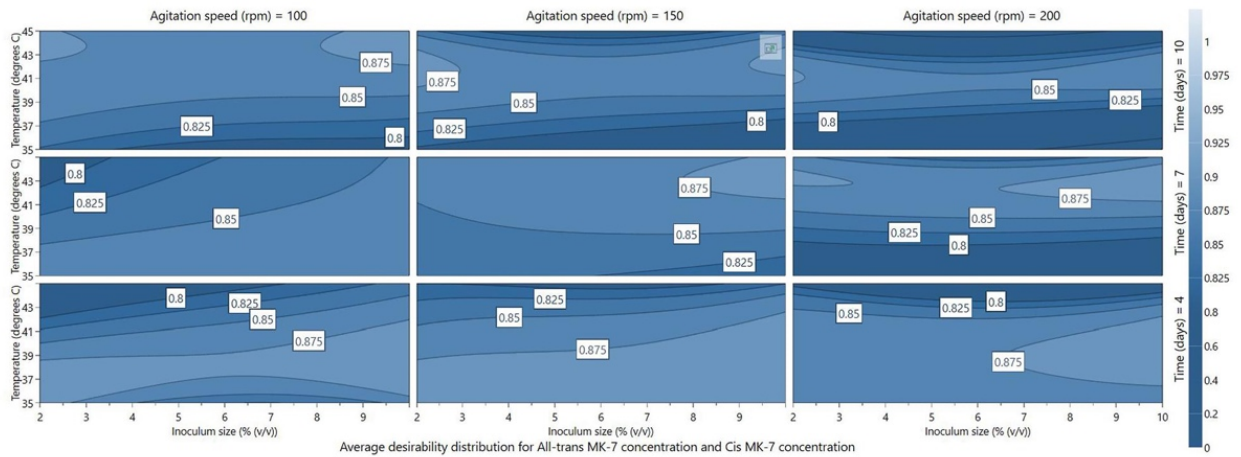


Fig. 5. Desirability chart for both responses.

will contribute new knowledge and improve the current understanding of the MK-7 isomer profile resulting from fermentation under various conditions.

4. Conclusions

This study was the first to evaluate the impact of key fermentation parameters on the MK-7 isomer profile to enhance the concentration of the bioactive *all-trans* MK-7 isomer and reduce the production of the inefficacious *cis* isomer. The inoculum size, fermenta-

tion temperature, agitation speed, and fermentation time were evaluated and optimised using a CCF design. An inoculum size of 2% (v/v), a temperature of 40 °C, an agitation speed of 200 rpm, and a fermentation period of 7 days were determined to be the optimum conditions, which resulted in an all-*trans* isomer concentration of 53.292 mg/L and a *cis* isomer concentration of 1.222 mg/L. MK-7 production employing optimised fermentation conditions is a favourable alternative to conventional fermentation processes that do not specifically target the production of the bioactive isomer, as it will necessitate fewer downstream purification steps and increase the productivity of the fermentation system, which is commercially promising.

Compliance with ethical standards

This article does not contain studies involving human or animal participants.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Data availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article.

References

- Akbulut, A.C., Pavlic, A., Petsophonsakul, P., Halder, M., Maresz, K., Kramann, R., Schurgers, L., 2020. Vitamin K2 needs an RDI separate from vitamin K1. *Nutrients* 12 (6), 1852. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12061852>.
- Anastasi, E., Ialongo, C., Labriola, R., Ferraguti, G., Lucarelli, M., Angeloni, A., 2020. Vitamin K deficiency and covid-19. *Scand. J. Clin. Lab. Invest.* 80 (7), 525–527. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00365513.2020.1805122>.
- Azuma, K., Inoue, S., 2019. Multiple nodes of vitamin K actions in aging-related musculoskeletal disorders. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 20 (11), 2844. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20112844>.
- Basset, G., Latimer, S., Fathi, A., Soubeyrand, E., Block, A., 2017. Phylloquinone (vitamin K1): occurrence, biosynthesis and functions. *Mini-Rev. Med. Chem.* 17 (12), 1028–1038.
- Benedetti, A., Daly, S., Zaiz, R., Pagani, H., 2010. Process for the Preparation of Vitamin K2. Google Patents.
- Berenjian, A., Chan, N.L.-C., Mahanama, R., Talbot, A., Regtop, H., Kavanagh, J., Dehghani, F., 2012a. Effect of biofilm formation by *Bacillus subtilis* natto on menaquinone-7 biosynthesis. *Mol. Biotechnol.* 54 (2), 371–378.
- Berenjian, A., Mahanama, R., Kavanagh, J., Dehghani, F., 2015. Vitamin K series: current status and future prospects. *Crit. Rev. Biotechnol.* 35 (2), 199–208.
- Berenjian, A., Mahanama, R., Talbot, A., Biffin, R., Regtop, H., Kavanagh, J., Dehghani, F., 2011a. The effect of amino-acids and glycerol addition on MK-7 production. *Proc. World Congr. Eng. Comput. Sci.* 11, 19–21.
- Berenjian, A., Mahanama, R., Talbot, A., Biffin, R., Regtop, H., Valtchev, P., Kavanagh, J., Dehghani, F., 2011b. Efficient media for high menaquinone-7 production: response surface methodology approach. *N. Biotech.* 28 (6), 665–672.
- Berenjian, A., Mahanama, R., Talbot, A., Regtop, H., Kavanagh, J., Dehghani, F., 2012b. Advances in menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto: fed-batch glycerol addition. *Am. J. Biochem. Biotechnol.* 8 (2), 105–110.
- Berenjian, A., Mahanama, R., Talbot, A., Regtop, H., Kavanagh, J., Dehghani, F., 2013. Designing of an intensification process for biosynthesis and recovery of menaquinone-7. *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.* 172 (3), 1347–1357.
- Berenjian, A., Sarabadani, Z., 2020. How menaquinone-7 deficiency influences mortality and morbidity among COVID-19 patients. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* 29, 101792. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2020.101792>.
- Beulens, J., Booth, S., van Den Heuvel, E., Stoecklin, E., Baka, A., Vermeer, C., 2013. The role of menaquinones (vitamin K2) in human health. *Br. J. Nutr.* 110 (8), 1357–1368. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114513001013>.
- Booth, S.L., 2012. Vitamin K: food composition and dietary intakes. *Food Nutr. Res.* 56 (1), 5505.
- Brugè, F., Bacchetti, T., Principi, F., Littarru, G.P., Tiano, L., 2011. Olive oil supplemented with menaquinone-7 significantly affects osteocalcin carboxylation. *Br. J. Nutr.* 106 (7), 1058–1062. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114511001425>.
- Bus, K., Sitkowski, J., Bocian, W., Zmyslowski, A., Ofiara, K., Szyrk, A., 2022. Separation of menaquinone-7 geometric isomers by semipreparative high-performance liquid chromatography with silver complexation and identification by nuclear magnetic resonance. *Food Chem.* 368, 130890. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2021.130890>.
- Chatake, T., Yanagisawa, Y., Inoue, R., Sugiyama, M., Matsuo, T., Fujiwara, S., Ohsugi, T., Sumi, H., 2018. Purification and structural characterization of water-soluble menaquinone-7 produced by *Bacillus subtilis* natto. *J. Food Biochem.* 42 (6). <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfbc.12630>.
- Cirilli, I., Orlando, P., Silvestri, S., Marcheggiani, F., Dlundla, P.V., Kaesler, N., Tiano, L., 2022. Carboxylative efficacy of trans and cis MK7 and comparison with other vitamin K isomers. *Biofactors*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/biof.1844>.
- da Rosa, L.M., Koerich, D.M., Della Giustina, S.V., 2019. Bioreactors operating conditions. In: Berenjian, A. (Ed.), *Essentials in Fermentation Technology*. Springer International Publishing, pp. 169–212. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-16230-6_6.
- Dofferhoff, A.S.M., Piscaer, I., Schurgers, L.J., Visser, M.P.J., van den Ouweland, J.M.W., de Jong, P.A., Gosens, R., Hackeng, T.M., van Daal, H., Lux, P., Maassen, C., Karssemeijer, E.G.A., Vermeer, C., Wouters, E.F.M., Kistemaker, L.E.M., Walk, J., Janssen, R., 2020. Reduced vitamin K status as a potentially modifiable risk factor of severe COVID-19. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1258>.
- Ferland, G., 2012. The discovery of vitamin K and its clinical applications. *Ann. Nutr. Metab.* 61 (3), 213–218. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000343108>.
- Fusaro, M., Gallieni, M., Porta, C., Nickolas, T.L., Khairallah, P., 2020. Vitamin K effects in human health: new insights beyond bone and cardiovascular health. *J. Nephrol.* 33 (2), 239–249. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40620-019-00685-0>.
- Gao, Q., Chen, H., Wang, W., Huang, J., Tao, Y., Lin, B., 2020. Menaquinone-7 production in engineered *Escherichia coli*. *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 36 (9), 132. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11274-020-02880-9>.
- Halder, M., Petsophonsakul, P., Akbulut, A., Pavlic, A., Bohan, F., Anderson, E., Maresz, K., Kramann, R., Schurgers, L., 2019. Vitamin K: double bonds beyond coagulation insights into differences between vitamin K1 and K2 in health and disease. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 20 (4), 896. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20040896>.
- Ikeda, H., Doi, Y., 1990. A vitamin-K2-binding factor secreted from *Bacillus subtilis*. *Eur. J. Biochem.* 192 (1), 219–224. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1432-1033.1990.tb19218.x>.
- Janssen, R., Visser, M.P.J., Dofferhoff, A.S.M., Vermeer, C., Janssens, W., Walk, J., 2021. Vitamin K metabolism as the potential missing link between lung damage and thromboembolism in Coronavirus disease 2019. *Br. J. Nutr.* 126, 191–198. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114520003979>.
- Juanola-Falgarona, M., Salas-Salvadó, J., Martínez-González, M.Á., Corella, D., Estruch, R., Ros, E., Fitó, M., Arós, F., Gómez-Gracia, E., Fiol, M., Lapetra, J., Basora, J., Lamuela-Raventós, R.M., Serra-Majem, L., Pintó, X., Muñoz, M.Á., Ruiz-Gutiérrez, V., Fernández-Ballart, J., Bulló, M., 2014. Dietary intake of vitamin K is inversely associated with mortality risk. *J. Nutr.* 144 (5), 743–750. <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.113.187740>.
- Kang, M.-J., Baek, K.-R., Lee, Y.-R., Kim, G.-H., Seo, S.-O., 2022. Production of vitamin K by wild-type and engineered microorganisms. *Microorganisms* 10 (3), 554. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms10030554>.

- Karamzad, N., Maleki, V., Carson-Chahhoud, K., Azizi, S., Sahebkar, A., Gargari, B.P., 2020. A systematic review on the mechanisms of vitamin K effects on the complications of diabetes and pre-diabetes. *Biofactors* 46 (1), 21–37. <https://doi.org/10.1002/biof.1569>.
- Knauer, T.E., Siegfried, C., Willingham, A.K., Matschner, J.T., 1975. Metabolism and biological activity of cis- and trans-phyloquinone in the rat. *J. Nutr.* 105 (12), 1519–1524.
- Lal, N., Berenjian, A., 2020. Cis and trans isomers of the vitamin menaquinone-7: which one is biologically significant? *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 104 (7), 2765–2776. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-020-10409-1>.
- Lal, N., Seifan, M., Berenjian, A., 2022. Optimisation of the fermentation media to enhance the production of the bioactive isomer of vitamin menaquinone-7. *Bioproc. Biosyst. Eng.* 1–20.
- Lal, N., Seifan, M., Novin, D., Berenjian, A., 2019. Development of a Menaquinone-7 enriched product through the solid-state fermentation of *Bacillus licheniformis*. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* 19, 101172. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2019.101172>.
- Lowenthal, J., Rivera, G.V., 1979. Comparison of the activity of the cis and trans isomer of vitamin K1 in vitamin K-deficient and coumarin anticoagulant-pretreated rats. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Therapeut.* 209 (3), 330–333.
- Luo, M.-m., Ren, L.-j., Chen, S.-l., Ji, X.-j., Huang, H., 2016. Effect of media components and morphology of *Bacillus natto* on menaquinone-7 synthesis in submerged fermentation. *Biotechnol. Bioproc. Eng.* 21 (6), 777–786. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12257-016-0202-9>.
- Ma, G., Zheng, Z., Wang, H., Wang, L., Zhao, G., Tang, H., Ding, X., Wang, P., 2022. Preparation of cellulose-based flocculant and its application in the enrichment of vitamin K2 in fermentation supernatant. *Polymers* 14 (12), 2410. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym14122410>.
- Ma, Y., Tang, P.T.P., McClure, D.D., Valtchev, P., Ashton, J.F., Dehghani, F., Kavanagh, J.M., 2019. Development of a menaquinone-7 enriched functional food. *Food Bioprod. Process.* 117, 258–265. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2019.06.017>.
- Mahanama, R., Berenjian, A., Dehghani, F., Kavanagh, J., 2012a. Modeling the effect of bed height and particle size for vitamin K2 production in a static bed fermenter. *Eng. Lett.* 20 (1), 16.
- Mahanama, R., Berenjian, A., Dehghani, F., Kavanagh, J.M., 2011a. Solid-substrate Fermentation of Menaquinone 7 with *Bacillus Subtilis*: Comparison of Continuous Rotation with Stationary Bed Fermentation at Different Initial Moisture Levels. *Chemeca: Engineering a Better World. (Sydney Hilton Hotel, NSW, Australia)*.
- Mahanama, R., Berenjian, A., Regtop, H., Talbot, A., Dehghani, F., Kavanagh, J.M., 2012b. Modeling Menaquinone 7 production in tray type solid state fermenter. *ANZIAM J.* 53, 354–372.
- Mahanama, R., Berenjian, A., Talbot, A., Biffin, R., Regtop, H., Dehghani, F., Kavanagh, J., 2011b. Effects of inoculation loading and substrate bed thickness on the production of menaquinone 7 via solid state fermentation. *Cardiovasc. Dis.* 2 (2), 19–22.
- Mahanama, R., Berenjian, A., Valtchev, P., Talbot, A., Biffin, R., Regtop, H., Dehghani, F., Kavanagh, J.M., 2011. Enhanced production of menaquinone 7 via solid substrate fermentation from *Bacillus subtilis*. *Int. J. Food Eng.* 7 (5). <https://doi.org/10.2202/1556-3758.2314>.
- Mahdinia, E., Demirci, A., Berenjian, A., 2018a. Enhanced vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors by optimization of glucose-based medium. *Curr. Pharmaceut. Biotechnol.* 19 (11), 917–924.
- Mahdinia, E., Demirci, A., Berenjian, A., 2018b. Implementation of fed-batch strategies for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 102 (21), 9147–9157. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-018-9340-7>.
- Mahdinia, E., Demirci, A., Berenjian, A., 2018c. Optimization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto growth parameters in glycerol-based medium for vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Bioproc. Biosyst. Eng.* 41 (2), 195–204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-017-1857-0>.
- Mahdinia, E., Demirci, A., Berenjian, A., 2018d. Utilization of glucose-based medium and optimization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto growth parameters for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* 13, 219–224.
- Mahdinia, E., Demirci, A., Berenjian, A., 2019a. Effects of medium components in a glycerol-based medium on vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors. *Bioproc. Biosyst. Eng.* 42 (2), 223–232. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-018-2027-8>.
- Mahdinia, E., Mamouri, S.J., Puri, V.M., Demirci, A., Berenjian, A., 2019b. Modeling of vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) fermentation by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* 17, 196–202. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2018.11.022>.
- Matschner, J.T., Bell, R.G., 1972. Metabolism and vitamin K activity of cis phyloquinone in rats. *J. Nutr.* 102 (5), 625–629.
- Novin, D., van der Wel, J., Seifan, M., Berenjian, A., 2020. The effect of aeration and mixing in developing a dairy-based functional food rich in menaquinone-7. *Bioproc. Biosyst. Eng.* 43 (10), 1773–1780. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-020-02366-w>.
- Orlando, P., Silvestri, S., Marcheggiani, F., Cirilli, L., Tiano, L., 2019. Menaquinone 7 stability of formulations and its relationship with purity profile. *Molecules* 24 (5), 829. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24050829>.
- Puri, A., Iqbal, M., Zafar, R., Panda, B.P., 2015. Influence of physical, chemical and inducer treatments on menaquinone-7 biosynthesis by *Bacillus subtilis* MTCC 2756. *Songklanakaraj. J. Sci. Technol.* 37 (3), 283–289.
- Ranmadugala, D., Ebrahiminezhad, A., Manley-Harris, M., Ghasemi, Y., Berenjian, A., 2017. Impact of 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane-coated iron oxide nanoparticles on menaquinone-7 production using *B. Subtilis*. *Nanomaterials* 7 (11), 350. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano7110350>.
- Ren, L., Peng, C., Hu, X., Han, Y., Huang, H., 2019. Microbial production of vitamin K2: current status and future prospects. *Biotechnol. Adv.* 39, 107453.
- Sato, T., Inaba, N., Yamashita, T., 2020. MK-7 and its effects on bone quality and strength. *Nutrients* 12 (4), 965. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12040965>.
- Sato, T., Yamada, Y., Ohtani, Y., Mitsui, N., Murasawa, H., Araki, S., 2001. Efficient production of menaquinone (vitamin K2) by a menadione-resistant mutant of *Bacillus subtilis*. *J. Ind. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 26 (3), 115–120.
- Scheiber, D., Veulemans, V., Horn, P., Chatrou, M., Potthoff, S., Kelm, M., Schurgers, L., Westenfeld, R., 2015. High-dose menaquinone-7 supplementation reduces cardiovascular calcification in a murine model of extraosseous calcification. *Nutrients* 7 (8), 6991–7011. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu7085318>.
- Schurgers, L.J., Teunissen, K.J., Hamulyák, K., Knapen, M.H., Vik, H., Vermeer, C., 2007. Vitamin K-containing dietary supplements: comparison of synthetic vitamin K1 and natto-derived menaquinone-7. *Blood* 109 (8), 3279–3283.
- Schwalfenberg, G.K., 2017. Vitamins K1 and K2: the emerging group of vitamins required for human health. *J. Nutr. Metab.* 2017, 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/6254836>.
- Shea, M.K., Holden, R.M., 2012. Vitamin K status and vascular calcification: evidence from observational and clinical studies. *Adv. Nutr.* 3 (2), 158–165. <https://doi.org/10.3945/an.111.001644>.
- Shearer, M.J., Newman, P., 2008. Metabolism and cell biology of vitamin K. *Thromb. Haemostasis* 100 (10), 530–547.
- Singh, R., Puri, A., Panda, B., 2015. Development of menaquinone-7 enriched nutraceutical: inside into medium engineering and process modeling. *J. Food Sci. Technol.* 52 (8), 5212–5219. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-014-1600-7>.
- Sitkowski, J., Bocian, W., Sztzerk, A., 2018. The application of multidimensional NMR analysis to cis/trans isomers study of menaquinone-7 (vitamine K2MK-7), identification of the (E,Z,3,E,ω)-menaquinone-7 isomer in dietary supplements. *J. Mol. Struct.* 1171, 449–457. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molstruc.2018.06.029>.
- Song, J., Liu, H., Wang, L., Dai, J., Liu, Y., Liu, H., Zhao, G., Wang, P., Zheng, Z., 2014. Enhanced production of vitamin K2 from *Bacillus subtilis* (natto) by mutation and optimization of the fermentation medium. *Braz. Arch. Biol. Technol.* 57 (4), 606–612.
- Sztzerk, A., Bus, K., Zmysłowski, A., Ofiara, K., 2018a. Analysis of menaquinone-7 content and impurities in oil and non-oil dietary supplements. *Molecules* 23 (5), 1056. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules23051056>.
- Sztzerk, A., Zmysłowski, A., Bus, K., 2018b. Identification of cis/trans isomers of menaquinone-7 in food as exemplified by dietary supplements. *Food Chem.* 243, 403–409. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.10.001>.
- Takenaka, T., Inoue, S., Takenaka, Y., Matsumoto, H., Fujii, A., 2002. Effects of vitamin K2 (menaquinone-7) from fermented okara on alkaline phosphatase activity of human dental pulp. *J. Jpn. Soc. Food Sci. Technol.* 49 (5), 348–352.
- Tani, Y., Taguchi, H., 1989. Extracellular production of menaquinone-4 by a mutant of *Flavobacterium* sp. 238-7 with a detergent-supplemented culture. *J. Ferment. Bioeng.* 67 (2), 102–106.
- Tarkesh, F., Namavari Jahromi, B., Hejazi, N., Tabatabaee, H., 2020. Beneficial health effects of Menaquinone-7 on body composition, glycemic indices, lipid profile, and endocrine markers in polycystic ovary syndrome patients. *Food Sci. Nutr.* 8 (10), 5612–5621. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fsn3.1837>.
- Vermeer, C., Schurgers, L.J., 2000. A comprehensive review of vitamin K and vitamin K antagonists. *Hematol. Oncol. Clin. N. Am.* 14 (2), 339–353.
- Vik, H., 2020. Vitamin K2: a Clinically Proven Cardio-Protective Powerhouse: known for bone-support benefits, vitamin K2 as MK-7 has also been recognized as vital for

- heart health. *Nutraceuticals World* 23 (1), 44.
- Weissbrodt, D.G., Laurenzi, M., van Loosdrecht, M.C.M., Comeau, Y., 2020. Basic microbiology and metabolism. In: Chen, G.H., van Loosdrecht, Mark C.M., Ekama, G.A., Brdjanovic, D. (Eds.), *Biological Wastewater Treatment: Principles, Modelling and Design*. IWA Publishing, pp. 11–76.
- Wu, W.-J., Ahn, B.-Y., 2011. Improved menaquinone (Vitamin K2) production in cheonggukjang by optimization of the fermentation conditions. *Food Sci. Biotechnol.* 20 (6), 1585–1591.
- Xu, J.-z., Zhang, W.-g., 2017. Menaquinone-7 production from maize meal hydrolysate by *Bacillus* isolates with diphenylamine and analogue resistance. *J. Zhejiang Univ. - Sci. B* 18 (6), 462–473. <https://doi.org/10.1631/jzus.B1600127>.
- Xv, F., Chen, J., Duan, L., Li, S., 2018. Research progress on the anticancer effects of vitamin K2. *Oncol. Lett.* 15 (6), 8926–8934. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ol.2018.8502>.
- Yanagisawa, Y., Sumi, H., 2005. Natto BACILLUS contains a large amount of water-soluble vitamin K (MENAQUINONE-7). *J. Food Biochem.* 29 (3), 267–277. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-4514.2005.00016.x>.
- Zhang, Z., Liu, L., Liu, C., Sun, Y., Zhang, D., 2021. New aspects of microbial vitamin K2 production by expanding the product spectrum. *Microb. Cell Factories* 20 (1), 84. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12934-021-01574-7>.
- Zhao, C., Wan, Y., Tang, G., Jin, Q., Zhang, H., Xu, Z., 2021. Comparison of different fermentation processes for the vitamin K2 (Menaquinone-7) production by a novel *Bacillus velezensis* ND strain. *Process Biochem.* 102, 33–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procbio.2020.11.029>.

6

The Effect of Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menaquinone-7 Isomer Composition and Synthesis of the Biologically Significant All- *Trans* Isomer

A journal article published in

Nanomaterials

Volume 13, Issue 12, MDPI, 2023

By

N. Lal, M. Seifan, A. Ebrahiminezhad, and A. Berenjian

Chapter 6 – The Effect of Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menquinone-7 Isomer Composition and Synthesis of the Biologically Significant *All-Trans* Isomer

This chapter centres on investigating nanobiotechnological approaches to overcome the primary challenges associated with the fermentation and downstream processing of MK-7. The low fermentation yield and many complex downstream processing steps raise the cost of MK-7 production and increase the price of the fermented product, which, consequently, cannot be invariably afforded by all populations. Bacterial cell immobilisation with IONs holds great promise for enhancing the MK-7 concentration and yield achieved from fermentation, and the magnetic properties of IONs can be utilised to aid cell separation for process intensification. Furthermore, given the differing biological significance of MK-7 isomers, the value of IONs for this purpose is only justified if *all-trans* MK-7 is attained almost exclusively or in the greatest fraction.

Naked (uncoated) IONs were synthesised from the co-precipitation of Fe (II) and Fe (III) ions and characterised using various methods to assess the structure and properties of the prepared IONs and their interaction with *B. subtilis natto* cells. The impact of fermentation with immobilised bacterial cells on microbial growth and the MK-7 isomer yield was also studied. The optimum naked ION concentration, which resulted in the greatest *all-trans* MK-7 yield, was additionally examined in a monitoring study to explore its effect on the bacterial growth, MK-7 isomer, and pH profiles.

This chapter acts as a foundation for the successive chapter (Chapter 7), which considers amine-functionalised IONs to further develop the use of nanobiotechnological strategies to improve the fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7.

Article

The Effect of Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menaquinone-7 Isomer Composition and Synthesis of the Biologically Significant All-Trans Isomer

Neha Lal ¹, Mostafa Seifan ¹ , Alireza Ebrahimezhad ² and Aydin Berenjian ^{1,3,*}

¹ School of Engineering, The University of Waikato, Hamilton 3240, New Zealand; neha.natasha.lal@gmail.com (N.L.); mostafa.seifan@waikato.ac.nz (M.S.)

² Biotechnology Research Center, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz P.O. Box 71348-14336, Iran; a_ebrahimi@sums.ac.ir

³ Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80523, USA

* Correspondence: aydin.berenjian@waikato.ac.nz

Abstract: Menaquinone-7 (MK-7) is the most therapeutically valuable K vitamin owing to its excellent bioavailability. MK-7 occurs as geometric isomers, and only all-*trans* MK-7 is bioactive. The fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7 entails various challenges, primarily the low fermentation yield and numerous downstream processing steps. This raises the cost of production and translates to an expensive final product that is not widely accessible. Iron oxide nanoparticles (IONPs) can potentially overcome these obstacles due to their ability to enhance fermentation productivity and enable process intensification. Nevertheless, utilisation of IONPs in this regard is only beneficial if the biologically active isomer is achieved in the greatest proportion, the investigation of which constituted the objective of this study. IONPs (Fe₃O₄) with an average size of 11 nm were synthesised and characterised using different analytical techniques, and their effect on isomer production and bacterial growth was assessed. The optimum IONP concentration (300 µg/mL) improved the process output and resulted in a 1.6-fold increase in the all-*trans* isomer yield compared to the control. This investigation was the first to evaluate the role of IONPs in the synthesis of MK-7 isomers, and its outcomes will assist the development of an efficient fermentation system that favours the production of bioactive MK-7.

Keywords: menaquinone-7 isomers; biological significance; iron oxide nanoparticles; bacterial cell immobilisation; fermentation



Citation: Lal, N.; Seifan, M.; Ebrahimezhad, A.; Berenjian, A. The Effect of Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menaquinone-7 Isomer Composition and Synthesis of the Biologically Significant All-*Trans* Isomer. *Nanomaterials* **2023**, *13*, 1825. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano13121825>

Academic Editors: Monika Mortimer and Anne Kahru

Received: 26 April 2023

Revised: 5 June 2023

Accepted: 7 June 2023

Published: 8 June 2023



Copyright: © 2023 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

1. Introduction

The vitamin K group comprises a series of lipid-soluble molecules that share the same basic structure, consisting of a 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone component, but vary in the arrangement of an isoprenoid side chain at the 3-position [1]. The characteristics of the various forms of vitamin K are governed by the length and degree of unsaturation of its isoprenoid chain [2]. Of the different types of vitamin K, only vitamin K1 (phylloquinone) and vitamin K2 (menaquinones) are nutritionally relevant to humans [3]. Phylloquinone (PK) is an individual compound and is abundantly available from a range of photosynthetic plants, vegetable oils, and their derivatives [2,4–6]. In comparison, menaquinones (MK) are a collection of molecules that have isoprenoid chains of various lengths and the degree of unsaturation, which is represented by the general description MK-*n*, where *n* is typically between four and thirteen and signifies the number of unsaturated isoprenoid units in the side chain [2,7,8]. MK are predominantly from microbial sources and exist in low quantities in certain fermented, dairy, and animal products [2,5,8–10].

While all K vitamins participate in haemostasis, studies have revealed that the health benefits of vitamin K, especially MK, transcend the activation of hepatic coagulation factors.

Specifically, vitamin K consumption has been linked to a decreased risk of cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) and osteoporosis, as well as many other health gains, such as improving the outcomes of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) and reducing the likelihood of cancer, Parkinson's disease, immune disorders, type 2 diabetes mellitus, neurological disease, obesity, and chronic kidney disease [2,3,11–28].

MK-7 is the superior subtype of vitamin K and offers the most significant health advantages due to its longer plasma half-life and exceptional extrahepatic availability [25,29]. However, it is not prevalent in the diet and occurs at low concentrations in certain food items [30,31]. Consequently, the formulation of nutritional supplements and functional foods to accompany natural sources and satisfy daily intake requirements has become increasingly popular.

MK-7 exists as geometric isomers, and solely all-*trans* MK-7 is bioactive. The *cis* forms of the vitamin have comparatively little or no biological significance, and it has been ascertained that *cis* MK-7 has considerably compromised carboxylative capacity and biological function compared to the all-*trans* isomer [6,8,32,33]. The bioactivity of MK-7 is related to the configuration of double bonds in its isoprenoid chain, which influences the shape of the molecule and its ability to interact with subcellular structures [32,34]. All double bonds in the isoprenoid chain of all-*trans* MK-7 have the *trans* arrangement, which gives rise to a linear organisation (Figure 1), whereas the occurrence of one or more unsaturated bonds in the *cis* format distorts the structure of the side chain, resulting in a non-linear shape (Figure 1).

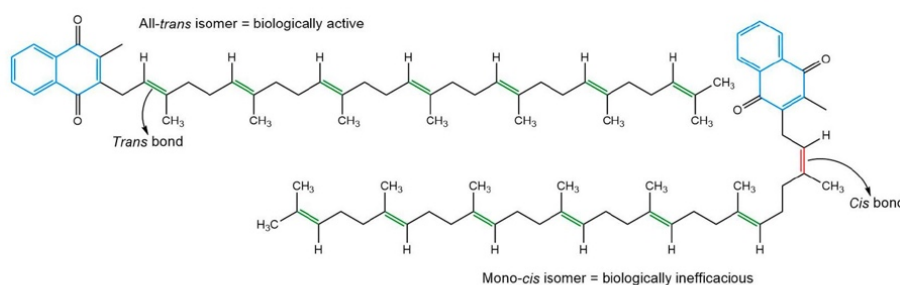


Figure 1. Comparison of the chemical structure and bond arrangement of MK-7 isomers.

MK-7 can be synthesised via chemical methods or from fermentation with several bacterial strains, and the production process and techniques employed to purify the post-reaction mixture impact the isomer profile of MK-7 [6–8,32,35–40]. From a consumer's perspective, fermentation-based synthesis is more favourable, as it is a natural and organic substitute for synthetic preparations. However, various challenges are linked to the natural synthesis of MK-7, the fundamental issue being the low fermentation yield [41,42]. Additionally, the large number of tedious unit operations involved in the downstream processing of the vitamin increases production expenses and, consequently, the price of the final product, thereby reducing its accessibility [41,43].

Numerous investigations have attempted to improve the MK-7 concentration and yield obtained from fermentation by optimising different aspects of the fermentation process, namely the fermentation method, media composition, and operating conditions [30,44–55]. Other approaches, including the genetic modification of microbial strains, the use of surfactants to increase the bacterial membrane permeability, and the application of various treatments to enhance MK-7 extraction from the culture medium, have also been explored to boost the synthesis and concentration of MK-7 achieved from fermentation [56]. Although these advancements have provided significant insights and increased the production of the vitamin, there is still scope for further improvement. All but our previous studies [47,57] have not accounted for the synthesis of MK-7 isomers, consideration of which is essential given their differing bioactivity. Moreover, optimising features of the fermentation process itself only enhances MK-7 production and does little to streamline the fermentation system

(process intensification). Hence, there is a need for novel approaches to improve the fermentation yield and/or reduce the number of unit operations involved and ensure that the biologically significant *all-trans* isomer is produced almost exclusively or in the greatest proportion. In this respect, the application of nanomaterials (NMs) in MK-7 fermentation is a promising and innovative technique that can potentially address the challenges associated with MK-7 production.

NMs are materials that have structural elements less than 1 μm (1000 nm) in at least one dimension [58,59]. The nanoscale size of NMs offers a large surface-area-to-volume ratio and confers unique properties not observed in the corresponding bulk material, making them suitable for various purposes [58,60–63]. Of the several classes of NMs, nanoparticles (NPs) can be used to address the major issues accompanying the fermentation-based synthesis of MK-7. NPs can be employed to enhance the productivity of the process by increasing the metabolic efficiency of the cells and/or simplifying the downstream processing steps (process intensification) through bacterial cell immobilisation. Iron-based NPs, specifically IONPs, have the ability to boost the MK-7 yield and improve fermentation productivity [41–43,64]. IONPs also exhibit superparamagnetism, which can allow cell separation using an external magnetic field to prospectively overcome the downstream limitations of industrial MK-7 fermentation [43].

Several studies have examined the potential for bacterial cell immobilisation with IONPs to enhance MK-7 production and aid cell recovery for process intensification [41–43,64]. In these investigations, *Bacillus subtilis natto* cells were decorated with IONPs to evaluate the effect of cell immobilisation on bacterial growth, MK-7 production, and the opportunity for in situ product recovery and cell recycling. These studies demonstrated that bacterial immobilisation with IONPs enhances the production and yield of MK-7 relative to free-cell fermentation. Ebrahiminezhad and co-workers also utilised the superparamagnetic nature of IONPs to run consecutive recycle batches, and it was noted that the capture efficiency and MK-7 production were not greatly compromised [41,43]. Magnetic separation technology is scalable and can be incorporated into a recycle loop in a bioreactor to recover bacterial cells during fermentation and enable process intensification [43]. Integrating product formation and in situ cell recovery has many advantages, including cell reusability, simple equipment requirements, and low energy consumption [43].

Despite the extensive interest in the application of IONPs in MK-7 fermentation, their effect on the production of MK-7 isomers has not been explored. Although bacterial cell immobilisation with IONPs can increase the concentration and yield of MK-7, the resulting isomer composition is yet to be elucidated. Considering that solely *all-trans* MK-7 is biologically effective, using IONPs to enhance MK-7 production and enable process intensification is only valuable if the *all-trans* isomer is attained in the greatest proportion.

Therefore, this investigation aimed to assess the influence of bacterial cell immobilisation with IONPs on the MK-7 isomer profile obtained from fermentation. Accordingly, IONPs were synthesised and characterised, and their effect on microbial growth and the production and yield of *all-trans* and *cis* MK-7 was evaluated. The findings of this study will broaden the current knowledge and understanding of the role of IONPs in MK-7 fermentation and facilitate the development of an innovative large-scale fermentation process that selectively promotes the synthesis of the biologically significant isomer. This, together with process intensification achieved through magnetic separation technology, has the potential to streamline the production system and decrease related expenses. Enhancing the efficiency of the fermentation process will help reduce the price and increase the availability of fermented bioactive MK-7 dietary supplements and functional foods. This is likely to alleviate the low dietary intake of MK-7, provide consumers with greater health benefits, and aid the prevention of and improve the outcomes associated with globally relevant diseases.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Chemicals and Materials

The reference standard for all-*trans* MK-7 was acquired from ChromaDex (Los Angeles, CA, USA). Glucose and $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were purchased from Ajax Finechem Pty Ltd. (Taren Point, NSW, Australia), and tryptone and yeast extract were supplied by Becton, Dickinson and Company (Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Soy peptone, ethanol, methanol, 2-propanol, *n*-hexane, and NH_4OH (32%) were obtained from Merck Millipore (Burlington, MA, USA). NaCl was purchased locally, and CaCl_2 , $\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, glutaraldehyde (25%), and sodium cacodylate were acquired from Sigma-Aldrich Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). Nutrient agar plates were obtained from Fort Richard Laboratories (Auckland, New Zealand).

2.2. Microorganism and Inoculum Preparation

B. subtilis natto was selected as the ideal microbial strain for this investigation, as it has been commonly employed in MK-7 fermentation, including studies considering NPs [41–43]. It is also deemed the most suitable for industrial MK-7 production and is preferentially used to manufacture MK-7 products, as it is generally recognised as safe (GRAS) and results in a high MK-7 yield [48,65]. A spore suspension was prepared according to the procedure outlined by Berenjian et al. [45]. The cells were cultured in an aqueous medium comprising yeast extract, tryptone, and NaCl before streaking on agar plates, which were then incubated for 48 h at 37 °C. Following incubation, the bacterial cells were scraped off the plates and immersed in a sterile saline solution (0.9% (*w/v*) NaCl). The bacterial suspension was then kept in a water bath set at 80 °C for 30 min to deactivate the vegetative cells and promote the production of spores. Afterwards, the cell debris was removed by centrifuging (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) the mixture at 3000 rpm for 10 min. The resulting *B. subtilis natto* spore suspension served as the inoculum for the fermentation studies.

2.3. NP Synthesis and Characterisation

2.3.1. Synthesis of Fe_3O_4 NPs

Naked (uncoated) Fe_3O_4 NPs were synthesised from the co-precipitation of Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} ions with an alkali (NH_4OH) in an inert atmosphere, as described by Ranmadugala et al. [42]. Accordingly, 0.74 g of $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 1.17 g of $\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were dissolved in distilled water (50 mL), and the solution was briskly stirred at 70 °C under nitrogen to prevent oxidation. After 1 h, 5 mL of NH_4OH solution was added to the reaction mixture. The solution was further stirred for 1 h until the IONPs precipitated. The magnetic particles were separated using a permanent magnet, and the resulting black precipitate was washed with hot distilled water to remove impurities and dried overnight (24 h) in an oven (Contherm Thermotec 2000, Contherm Scientific Ltd., Wellington, New Zealand) at 50 °C. Approximately 0.75 g of naked IONPs were obtained from the reaction.

2.3.2. Characterisation

The morphology and size of the IONPs were ascertained by transmission electron microscopy (TEM; Philips, CM 10, Philips Electron Optics, Eindhoven, The Netherlands). For the TEM procedure, a drop of the NP dispersion (in distilled water) was placed on a carbon-coated copper grid, and images were captured at HT 100 kV. Fourier-transformed infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy (Bruker VERTEX 70 FTIR spectrometer, Bruker, Kassel, Germany), in the range of 4000–400 cm^{-1} , was used to characterise the NPs and determine the presence of key chemical bonds and functional groups. For the FTIR analysis, a pellet with a NP-to-KBr ratio of 1% was prepared and placed in a hydraulic press for 10 min to form a compact disc, and the samples were analysed at room temperature. The crystal structure of the NPs was established by X-ray powder diffraction (XRD; Siemens D5000, Munich, Germany) with an exploration range (2θ) between 20° and 90° and a step size of 0.0530° at 45 kV, 40 mA, and ambient temperature.

2.3.3. Sample Preparation for SEM

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM; Hitachi Regulus SU8230 FE-SEM, Tokyo, Japan) was employed to visualise the surface structure of the NPs and the interactions between the IONPs and the bacterial cells. Cell fixation of the free and immobilised bacterial cells was carried out using an approach similar to that employed by Ebrahimezhad et al. [43]. A small drop of the sample was placed on a glass coverslip and heat-fixed by passing through the flame of a Bunsen burner three times. The bacterial cells were fixed with 2.5% (*v/v*) glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer for 45 min and rinsed with saline (0.9% (*w/v*) NaCl) for 15 min. Cell dehydration was conducted by placing the coverslip in a graded series of ethanol (30, 50, 70, 80, 90, and 95%) for 10 min each. The dehydrated sample was kept in absolute ethanol for 20 min and subjected to critical point drying (Polaron E3000, Quorum Technologies, East Sussex, UK). Prior to the SEM analysis, the dried bacterial samples and the IONP powder were mounted on an aluminium stub and coated with platinum. SEM images of the pure IONPs, untreated bacterial cells, and cells immobilised with IONPs were taken at 3 kV.

2.4. Bacterial Cell Immobilisation and Fermentation

The fermentation media, containing glucose (1% (*w/v*)), yeast extract (2% (*w/v*)), soy peptone (2% (*w/v*)), tryptone (2% (*w/v*)), and CaCl₂ (0.1% (*w/v*)) [47], was prepared and sterilised at 121 °C in an autoclave (TOMY SX-700E, Tokyo, Japan) for 20 min. The samples were then inoculated with 2% (*v/v*) of the microbial spore suspension. A stock solution of the IONPs was prepared using sterilised distilled water (0.01 g/mL), and different concentrations (0–600 µg/mL) of the NP stock solution were added to the samples. It is recognised that naked IONPs with bare surfaces tend to be susceptible to agglomeration owing to their high surface energy and the presence of strong magnetic and other attractive forces between particles [66]. Hence, before the IONP stock solution was added to the samples and used to coat the bacterial cells, it was thoroughly sonicated to fully disperse the NPs and prevent them from aggregating. The samples were prepared in triplicate (3 samples for each NP concentration that was investigated) and fermented for 7 days at 40 °C and 200 rpm under aerobic conditions to allow the NPs to interact with and adhere to the bacterial cell surface. The inoculum volume and operating conditions were derived from our previous study [57].

2.5. MK-7 Extraction

The fermented MK-7 was extracted using 2-propanol and *n*-hexane, which was combined in the ratio of 1:2 (*v/v*) with a liquid-to-organic ratio of 1:4 (*v/v*) [45]. The mixture was vortexed for 2 min, and the two phases were separated by centrifugation (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min. The top layer of liquid was then removed and evaporated under a vacuum to obtain the MK-7.

2.6. MK-7 Analysis

MK-7 was analysed using the approach proposed in our earlier study [47]. High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was employed to evaluate the MK-7 isomer concentration of the fermented samples. A Dionex HPLC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), consisting of a thermostatted column compartment, an automated sample injector, a photodiode array UV detector, and four pumps, was used for the analysis. The compounds were separated at 40 °C with a reversed-phase column (COSMOSIL Cholester, 100 mm × 2 mm × 2.5 µm, Nacalai Tesque Inc., Kyoto, Japan). Pure methanol comprised the mobile phase and had a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min (isocratic elution). The autosampler temperature, run time, injection volume, and analytical wavelength were 10 °C, 30 min, 10 µL, and 248 nm, respectively. Data were collected using the Chromeleon 7 application (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). An MK-7 standard curve, which was linear between 0.1 mg/L and 50 mg/L ($R^2 = 0.99$), was implemented to estimate

the isomer concentration, and a relative retention time (RRT) of approximately 1.12 enabled the identification of *cis* MK-7.

The presence of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomers and their chromatographic retention times were verified using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS), as described in our previous investigation [47]. The chromatograms and mass spectrometry (MS) data for the reference standard and an experimental sample are provided in the supplementary materials (Figures S1 and S2). The LC-MS apparatus included a Dionex Ultimate 3000 ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) system and a QExactive mass spectrometer with a HESI II source (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The Thermo XCalibur 4.3 platform (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to control the equipment, and data handling was carried out with the Chromeleon 7.3 program (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The compounds were separated using liquid chromatography and the aforementioned chromatographic conditions. However, the run-time and injection volume were modified to 37 min and 5 μ L, respectively. Data were obtained in the positive ionisation mode with an AGC target of 3×10^6 , a MS1 scan range of 150–1000 m/z , and a maximum injection time of 200 ms. The MS data were analysed with the Thermo FreeStyle 1.6 package (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

2.7. Cell Density and pH Measurements

Cell density measurements were used to approximate bacterial growth, which was evaluated with a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-1900, Kyoto, Japan). The samples were diluted with distilled water, and the optical density (OD) was assessed at a wavelength of 600 nm. A handheld meter (CyberScan pH 100, Eutech Instruments, Paisley, UK) was used to measure the pH of the samples.

2.8. Statistical Methods

Statistical significance was evaluated using analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the mean values of different groups were compared using a two-sample *t*-test. Significance was accepted at $p < 0.05$, and the data were described as the mean \pm standard error (SE) of three replicates.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Synthesis and Characterisation of IONPs

IONPs were synthesised in an aqueous medium from the co-precipitation of Fe (II) and Fe (III) ions. The addition of NH_4OH to the reaction mixture resulted in a rapid colour change from reddish brown to black, denoting the formation of iron oxide cores in the solution. Extension of the reaction with continued stirring enabled the production of magnetic Fe_3O_4 NPs, as described in Equation (1).



The SEM image (Figure 2) and TEM micrograph (Figure 3) of the IONPs illustrate that the NPs have a spherical shape. IONPs with a relatively uniform size distribution between 7 and 20 nm and an average size of 11 nm were synthesised from three reproducible batches, and the sizes achieved are comparable with previous studies [43,67].

The FTIR spectrum of the synthesised NPs is presented in Figure 4 and shows the characteristic Fe-O peaks at approximately 617 cm^{-1} and 430 cm^{-1} . During the synthesis of IONPs via the co-precipitation method, the surface of the Fe_3O_4 NPs is altered by OH groups from the liquid medium due to the coordination of unsaturated surface iron atoms with water molecules and OH^- ions [43]. These OH groups also absorb infrared waves, and this can be visualised at approximately 3449 cm^{-1} (stretching point) and 1980 cm^{-1} (deforming point) [43].

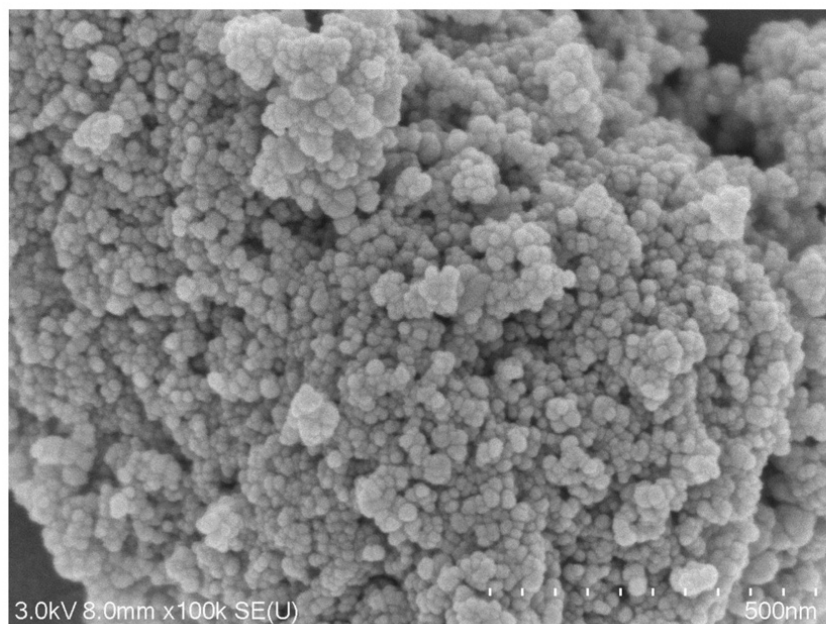


Figure 2. SEM image of the surface structure of the prepared IONPs.

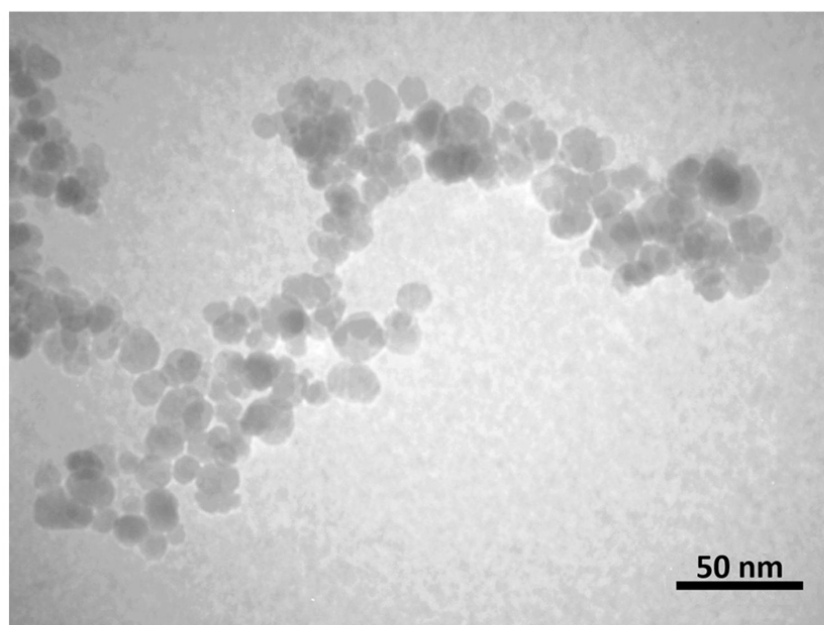


Figure 3. TEM micrograph of the IONPs.

The XRD pattern obtained for the fabricated IONPs displays distinctive intensity peaks at 2θ degrees of 30° , 35.5° , 43° , 53° , 57° , and 63° , which correspond to (220), (311), (400), (422), (511), and (440) Bragg reflections, respectively (Figure 5). These characteristic peaks denote the crystalline structure of magnetite and verify the formation of Fe_3O_4 NPs [43].

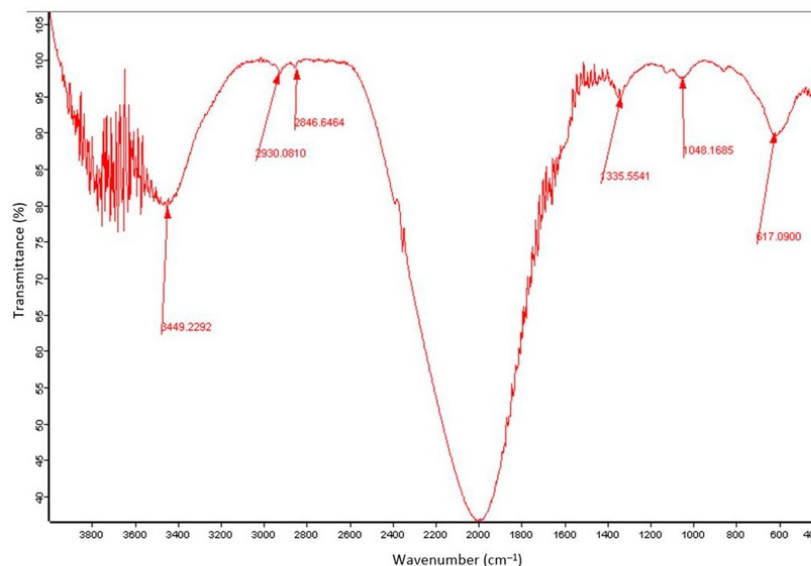


Figure 4. FTIR spectrum of the synthesised IONPs.

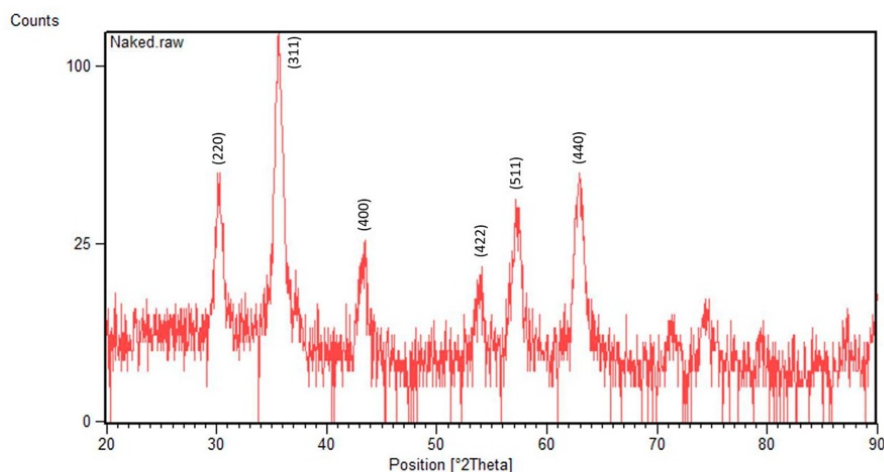


Figure 5. XRD pattern of the IONPs.

3.2. Interaction of IONPs with the Bacterial Cell Surface

SEM was used to view the interactions between the IONPs and bacterial cells. Figure 6 illustrates the successful decoration of *B. subtilis natto* cells with the IONPs compared to the free-floating cells. IONPs have a small size and large surface-area-to-volume ratio, which facilitates their attachment to the bacterial cell surface via various non-specific interactions, such as hydrogen bonds, Van der Waals forces, electrostatic forces, and hydrophobic interactions [43]. Due to the non-specific nature of these interactions, the IONPs randomly attach to the bacterial cell surface. Since the interaction is not uniform among all cells, some bacterial cells tend to be more heavily decorated than others. The immobilisation of bacterial cells with magnetic IONPs is a unique feature that provides an opportunity to reduce the number of downstream processing steps (process intensification) through cell separation using an external magnetic field. The use of magnetic cell separation will decrease the complexity of the overall fermentation system and allow the separated cells to be reused in successive fermentation batches, thus reducing production expenses. However,

to enable bacterial cell recycling, it is vital to ensure that immobilisation with magnetic IONPs does not significantly impact cell viability.

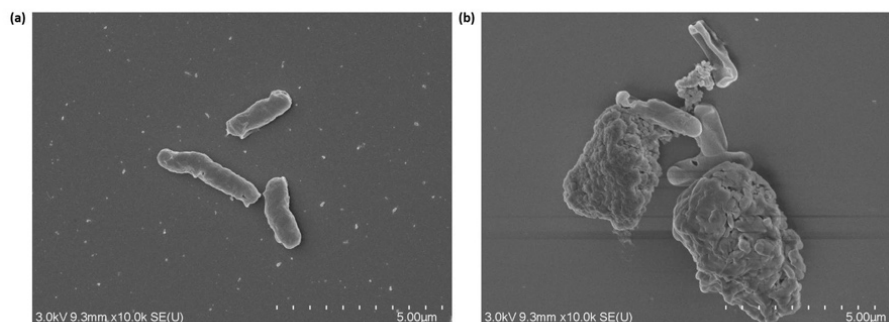


Figure 6. SEM images of the (a) free bacterial cells and (b) bacterial cells decorated with IONPs.

3.3. The Impact of IONPs on Microbial Growth

The effect of bacterial cell immobilisation with IONPs on microbial growth was assessed (Figure 7). Bacterial growth declined with an increase in the concentration of IONPs from 0 to 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, and the minimum cell density was obtained at 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$. A further increase in the IONP concentration from 300 to 600 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ resulted in a rise in the OD. Despite the variation in the cell density measurements that were observed, the ANOVA results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference ($p = 0.075$) in the OD between the different IONP concentration groups. Hence, it is evident that immobilisation of *B. subtilis natto* cells with IONPs has little effect on microbial growth.

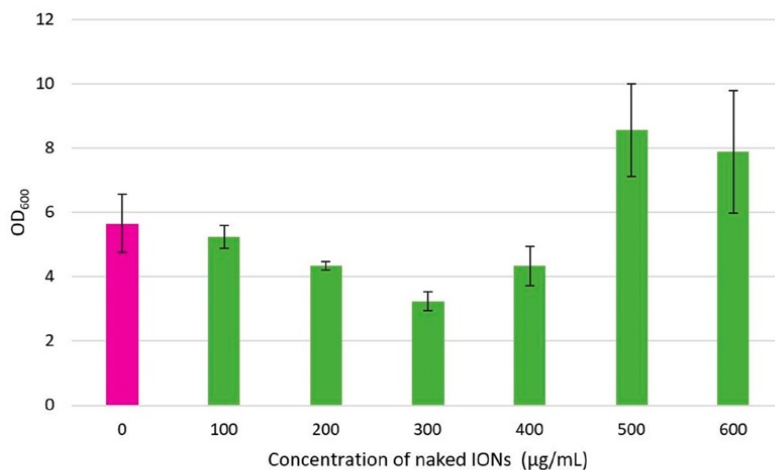


Figure 7. Bacterial growth in the presence and absence of IONPs.

Bacterial cells tend to exhibit variable responses to magnetic cell immobilisation with IONPs. The specific nature of the interaction between IONPs and microbial cells depends on many aspects, such as the bacterial species, the properties of the IONPs, and the culture conditions [68,69]. Possible outcomes include changes in cell growth (may result in either enhanced growth or growth inhibition), alteration of cell morphology, induced gene expression, altered membrane permeability (increased membrane conductance and facilitation of mass transfer), penetration of IONPs into the bacterial cell membrane (membrane damage and cell inactivation), and the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (can lead to cell membrane disruption, DNA damage, lipid peroxidation, mitochondrial damage, and oxidation of cellular components) [69,70]. It has been noted that the effect of IONPs differs

between Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacterial strains, most likely due to the differences in their cell wall structure, cellular composition, and metabolic characteristics [70]. Gabrielyan et al. [70] compared the impact of IONPs on the growth profile of *Enterococcus hirae* and *Escherichia coli*, which can be considered model organisms for Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacterial strains, respectively. The authors determined that IONPs had a concentration-dependent inhibitory effect on the growth of *E. coli*, whereas for *E. hirae*, growth stimulation or inhibition was observed depending on the NP concentration, and it was established that Fe₃O₄ NPs do not exhibit significant antibacterial activity against Gram-positive bacteria. These findings are largely comparable with the present study, as *B. subtilis natto* is also a Gram-positive bacterium, and stimulation or inhibition of bacterial growth (denoted by the OD measurements) was noted for different concentrations of IONPs. However, holistically, there was no significant difference in the OD between the various NP concentration groups, implying that the IONPs did not show substantial antibacterial activity against *B. subtilis natto*. Ebrahiminezhad et al. [43] evaluated the effect of IONPs on the growth profile of *B. subtilis natto* in particular, and it was determined that in comparison to the free-floating cells, approximately 5% growth inhibition occurred for the magnetically immobilised bacteria at the end of fermentation. Furthermore, the final cell density attained for untreated bacteria was approximately 10% greater than that for the cells coated with IONPs, which suggests that in this investigation, magnetic immobilisation with IONPs had an unfavourable effect on the growth of *B. subtilis natto*. These outcomes contrast the present study and can likely be attributed to the different NP concentrations that were explored. An IONP concentration of 0–600 µg/mL was examined in the current study, whereas Ebrahiminezhad et al. [43] focused on a lower range of concentrations (0–150 µg/mL). It is also interesting to note that the NP concentrations explored by Ebrahiminezhad et al. [43] fall within the band of concentrations in the present investigation for which a decrease in the OD was observed (0–300 µg/mL). Therefore, the findings of these two studies can be deemed consistent when considering the same range of concentrations, and it appears that the effect of magnetic cell immobilisation with IONPs on the growth profile of *B. subtilis natto* is indeed concentration-dependent.

3.4. The Influence of Bacterial Cell Immobilisation with IONPs on the MK-7 Isomer Yield

The impact of bacterial cell immobilisation with IONPs on the productivity of the fermentation process was determined by measuring the MK-7 isomer yield. Figures 8 and 9 depict the effect of the various concentrations of IONPs on the yield of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7, respectively. The yield of both isomers followed a similar bell-shaped pattern. A small yield was obtained for low (0–200 µg/mL) and high (400–600 µg/mL) IONP concentrations, and the greatest yield was achieved at an IONP concentration of 300 µg/mL.

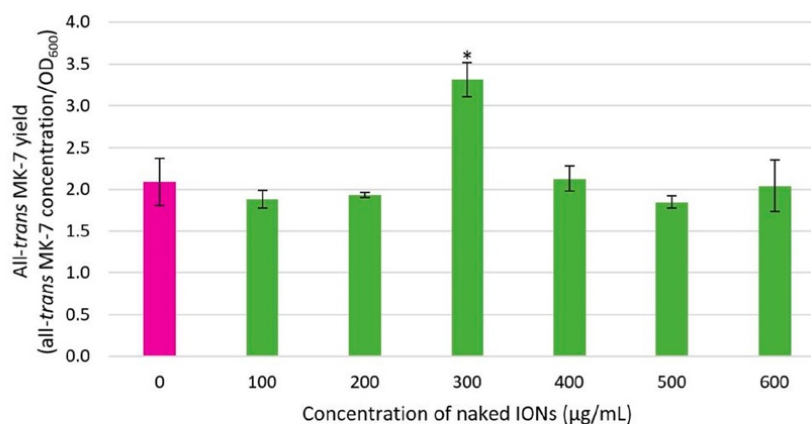


Figure 8. The impact of bacterial cell immobilisation with IONPs on the yield of the all-*trans* MK-7 isomer, where * indicates a significantly different all-*trans* MK-7 yield compared to the control ($p < 0.05$).

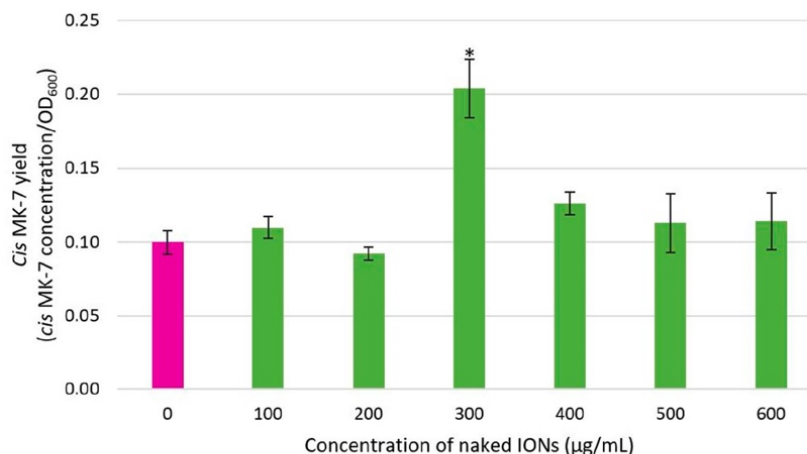


Figure 9. The impact of bacterial cell immobilisation with IONPs on the yield of the *cis* MK-7 isomer, where * indicates a significantly different *cis* MK-7 yield compared to the control ($p < 0.05$).

The ANOVA assessment established a statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer yield between the various IONP concentration groups ($p = 0.008$ for all-*trans* MK-7 and $p = 0.007$ for *cis* MK-7). The yield of both isomers for each IONP concentration was also compared with the control (0 µg/mL). It was determined that the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer yield for only an IONP concentration of 300 µg/mL was significantly different from the control ($p = 0.047$ for the all-*trans* isomer and $p = 0.015$ for the *cis* isomer). The all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 yield was also compared for different pairs of IONP concentrations. From this analysis, it was ascertained that there is a statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* MK-7 concentration between the 300 µg/mL group and all other NP concentrations ($p = 0.008$ for 100 µg/mL and 300 µg/mL, $p = 0.006$ for 200 µg/mL and 300 µg/mL, $p = 0.020$ for 300 µg/mL and 400 µg/mL, $p = 0.006$ for 300 µg/mL and 500 µg/mL, and $p = 0.048$ for 300 µg/mL and 600 µg/mL), while the difference for the remaining groups was insignificant ($p > 0.05$). In contrast, for the *cis* isomer, the 100 µg/mL and 300 µg/mL ($p = 0.021$), 200 µg/mL and 300 µg/mL ($p = 0.010$), 200 µg/mL and 400 µg/mL ($p = 0.037$), and 300 µg/mL and 400 µg/mL ($p = 0.039$) IONP concentration groups were significantly different, and all other groups were comparable ($p > 0.05$).

Since only all-*trans* MK-7 is biologically important, it is desirable to exclusively enhance the yield of this isomer from fermentation; however, the yield of all-*trans* MK-7 is positively correlated with the yield of the biologically inefficacious *cis* isomer. Thus, a higher yield of all-*trans* MK-7 is associated with a greater *cis* MK-7 yield. Although the yield of both isomers was notably greater for the optimum IONP concentration (300 µg/mL), the proportion of the total yield for each isomer was similar to that for the other IONP concentration groups, including the control. This implies that despite the considerable difference in the isomer yield between an IONP concentration of 300 µg/mL and the remaining IONP concentration groups, the fraction of the total yield for each isomer did not vary appreciably, which is beneficial. Therefore, 300 µg/mL can be regarded as the optimum IONP concentration, as it significantly enhances the yield of bioactive MK-7 without increasing the proportional yield of the undesirable isomer. This is advantageous, as the *cis* isomers are comparatively redundant with respect to their carboxylative potential, and the therapeutic benefits of MK-7 nutritional supplements are only determined by the quantity of all-*trans* MK-7. Furthermore, fermentation processes that are not optimised to selectively promote the production of all-*trans* MK-7 would necessitate additional downstream purification steps to remove appreciable amounts of the *cis* isomer, which is unfavourable, as it will increase the manufacturing costs for biologically effective MK-7 products.

Although all-*trans* MK-7 production at an IONP concentration of 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ was comparable to the control, the OD was lower. This suggests that magnetic IONPs at the optimum concentration slightly inhibited bacterial growth. However, the all-*trans* isomer yield at an IONP concentration of 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ was 58.61% greater than the free cells, which suggests that magnetically immobilised cells have superior metabolic efficiency. It has been proposed that the non-specific interactions between IONPs and the bacterial cell surface promote disorganisation of the lipid packing and increase the permeability of the cell membrane [42,68]. Hence, while the presence of IONPs slightly decreased bacterial growth at the optimum IONP concentration, the improved metabolic efficiency of the cells facilitated mass transfer and enabled greater MK-7 secretion into the fermentation medium, resulting in a higher yield of the biologically efficacious isomer and enhancing the productivity of the entire fermentation system.

3.5. Monitoring Study in the Presence of the Optimum IONP Concentration

Figure 10 illustrates the changes in the MK-7 isomer profile, microbial growth, and pH over a time-course fermentation study employing the optimal IONP concentration (300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$).

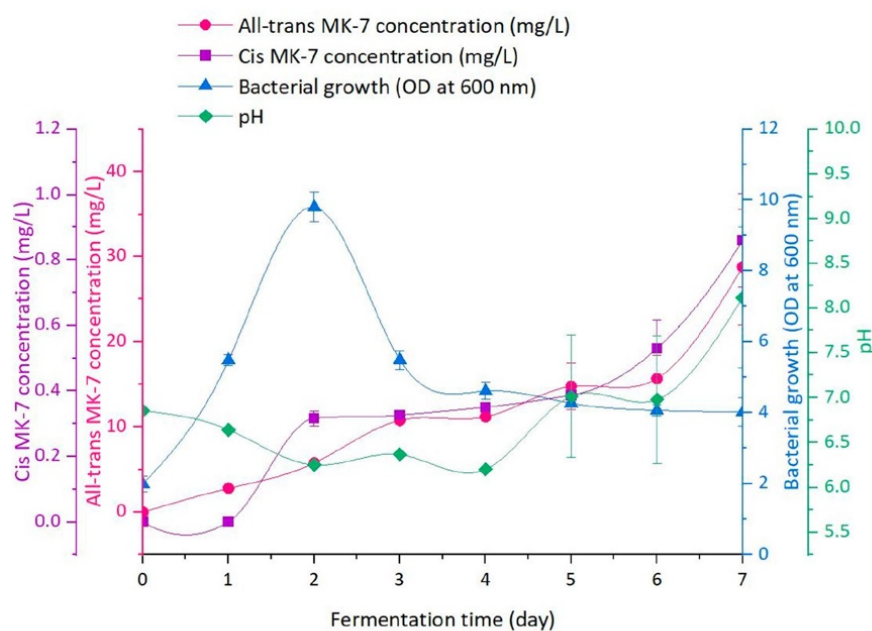


Figure 10. Variation in the MK-7 isomer profile, bacterial growth, and pH in the presence of the optimal IONP concentration over a time-course fermentation study (the error bars represent the SE calculated from three replicate samples for each response).

The variation in the OD during fermentation reflects the typical bacterial growth curve depicting the lag, exponential, and stationary phases of growth, which are three of the four characteristic stages of the cell growth profile. The OD gradually increased from 1.99 to 5.48 between days 0 and 1, after which it quickly rose to a maximum of 9.81 on day 2 of fermentation. The OD then declined to 5.49 on day 3 and plateaued for the remainder of the fermentation period, reaching a final value of 4.01 on day 7. The final stage of microbial growth was not observed during the investigated timeframe, as fermentation was terminated before the death phase to avoid degradation of MK-7 in the fermentation broth due to exposure to proteases and other cellular contents released upon cell lysis.

MK-7 isomer production mirrored the bacterial growth profile, which is consistent with accounts from previous studies [42,45,47,71,72]. Synthesis of all-*trans* MK-7 commenced at

the start of fermentation and increased steadily until day 3. As the bacterial culture entered the stationary phase of growth, a notable increase in the production of the all-*trans* isomer occurred, particularly from day 6 onwards, reaching a final concentration of 28.78 mg/L at the conclusion of fermentation. In contrast, synthesis of the *cis* isomer began on day 2 and remained relatively steady (0.32–0.39 mg/L) until day 5, following which it increased more rapidly to a concentration of 0.86 mg/L on day 7. Essentially, 9.69% of the total all-*trans* and 0% of the total *cis* MK-7 was synthesised during the lag stage, 10.33% of the total all-*trans* and 36.79% of the total *cis* MK-7 was detected during the exponential period, and 79.98% of the total all-*trans* and 63.21% of the total *cis* MK-7 was produced over the remainder of the fermentation time (stationary phase). It is evident that very little or no MK-7 is observed during the lag phase, a small amount of both isomers is synthesised during the exponential growth stage, and the majority of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 is noted during the stationary phase of growth. These observations comply with prior studies [47,73–75] and indicate that MK-7 is a mixed metabolite, as its synthesis is partially growth-associated.

The pH of the medium fluctuated over the fermentation period and increased from an initial value of 6.86 to 8.12 on day 7. While the pH increased overall, it first decreased to a minimum of 6.20 on day 4 before rising to the final value during the latter part of the process. The changes in the medium pH can be correlated with the variation in the OD and, thus, the phases of microbial growth. It is apparent that the pH slowly decreases with an increase in the OD during the initial stages of bacterial growth and only begins to rise once the OD levels off during the stationary phase. Moreover, a rapid increase in the pH of the medium occurred on the final day of fermentation (between days 6 and 7), corresponding to the sharp rise in the MK-7 isomer concentration. Similar trends have been observed in previous investigations and can be ascribed to the metabolic activities of *B. subtilis natto* [42,45,47,72,75].

It is worth mentioning that the overall trends in the bacterial growth, MK-7, and pH profiles are comparable to our initial investigation [47], which presented the findings of a monitoring study in the absence of IONPs using the same bacterial strain and fermentation media. Although the value of key fermentation parameters differed slightly between the two reports, the fundamental outcomes of both studies are congruent and suggest that bacterial cell immobilisation with IONPs does not adversely affect the growth and metabolic characteristics of *B. subtilis natto* and the fermentation process as a whole. The only substantial dissimilarity between the two studies is the length of each phase in the bacterial growth curve. In the present investigation, each phase of microbial growth occurred a day earlier than in our previous study, which had a flow-on effect on the timing of MK-7 isomer production. There are two probable explanations for this observation. Firstly, since the duration of fermentation differed for each analysis (6 days in our prior study as opposed to 7 days in the present investigation), it may have impacted the start and length of the individual stages of bacterial growth. Alternatively, and more likely, the presence of IONPs in the fermentation media and their interaction with the microbial cells in the current study may have altered the permeability of the bacterial cell membrane, facilitating mass transfer and improving MK-7 secretion into the fermentation broth. This would have served to enhance the metabolic efficiency of the cells, resulting in faster growth, thereby reducing the length of the lag and exponential stages of the microbial growth curve.

While this study has considered the effect of uncoated IONPs on bacterial growth and the production of MK-7 isomers, it is important to appreciate that relative to naked IONPs, coated IONPs are more stable and less susceptible to agglomeration. Surface functionalisation with different coating materials can also enable the synthesis of a vast range of biocompatible IONPs that can be customised for different applications. Therefore, it would be valuable to investigate and compare the impact of naked and coated IONPs on *B. subtilis natto* cells and MK-7 isomer production in the future.

4. Conclusions

This study presents a novel insight into the role of IONPs in the production of MK-7 isomers. Naked Fe₃O₄ NPs were synthesised and characterised, and their effect on the MK-7 isomer profile and bacterial growth was evaluated. The results demonstrated that although bacterial cell immobilisation with IONPs inhibited bacterial growth at most of the concentrations explored, it enhanced the metabolic efficiency of the cells. An IONP concentration of 300 µg/mL was the optimum, resulting in a 1.6-fold rise in the all-*trans* MK-7 yield compared to the uncoated bacteria. The conclusions drawn from this investigation are a valuable step forward in establishing innovative production techniques that target the synthesis of the biologically important all-*trans* isomer and overcome the challenges in MK-7 fermentation. This will reduce production-related expenses and decrease the price of fermented bioactive MK-7 products. The improved accessibility of which will notably benefit the health and well-being of consumers and reduce the burden of globally significant diseases.

Supplementary Materials: The chromatograms and MS data for the reference standard (Figure S1) and an experimental sample (Figure S2) can be downloaded at: <https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/nano13121825/s1>.

Author Contributions: Conceptualisation, A.B. and M.S.; methodology, N.L., M.S. and A.B.; validation, N.L.; formal analysis, N.L., M.S., A.E. and A.B.; investigation, N.L.; data curation, N.L., M.S. and A.B.; writing—original draft preparation, N.L.; writing—review and editing, N.L., M.S. and A.B.; visualisation, N.L. and A.E.; supervision, A.B. and M.S. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research received no external funding.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data that support the findings of this investigation are included in this article and the Supplementary Materials.

Acknowledgments: The authors appreciate the assistance offered by the SEM facility at The University of Waikato.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Shearer, M.J. Vitamin K. *Lancet* **1995**, *345*, 229–234. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
2. Beulens, J.; Booth, S.; van Den Heuvel, E.; Stoecklin, E.; Baka, A.; Vermeer, C. The role of menaquinones (vitamin K2) in human health. *Br. J. Nutr.* **2013**, *110*, 1357–1368. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
3. Azuma, K.; Inoue, S. Multiple Modes of Vitamin K Actions in Aging-Related Musculoskeletal Disorders. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **2019**, *20*, 2844. [[CrossRef](#)]
4. Basset, G.; Latimer, S.; Fatihi, A.; Soubeyrand, E.; Block, A. Phylloquinone (vitamin K1): Occurrence, biosynthesis and functions. *Mini-Rev. Med. Chem.* **2017**, *17*, 1028–1038. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
5. Booth, S.L. Vitamin K: Food composition and dietary intakes. *Food Nutr. Res.* **2012**, *56*, 5505. [[CrossRef](#)]
6. Szterk, A.; Bus, K.; Zmysłowski, A.; Ofiara, K. Analysis of Menaquinone-7 Content and Impurities in Oil and Non-Oil Dietary Supplements. *Molecules* **2018**, *23*, 1056. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Daines, A.M.; Payne, R.J.; Humphries, M.E.; Abell, A.D. The synthesis of naturally occurring vitamin K and vitamin K analogues. *Curr. Org. Chem.* **2003**, *7*, 1625–1634. [[CrossRef](#)]
8. Szterk, A.; Zmysłowski, A.; Bus, K. Identification of cis/trans isomers of menaquinone-7 in food as exemplified by dietary supplements. *Food Chem.* **2018**, *243*, 403–409. [[CrossRef](#)]
9. European Food Safety Authority. Vitamin K2 added for nutritional purposes in foods for particular nutritional uses, food supplements and foods intended for the general population and Vitamin K2 as a source of vitamin K added for nutritional purposes to foodstuffs, in the context of Regulation (EC) N° 258/97-Scientific Opinion of the Panel on Dietetic Products, Nutrition and Allergies. *EFSA J.* **2008**, *6*, 822.
10. Sato, T.; Schurgers, L.J.; Uenishi, K. Comparison of menaquinone-4 and menaquinone-7 bioavailability in healthy women. *Nutr. J.* **2012**, *11*, 93. [[CrossRef](#)]
11. Fusaro, M.; Gallieni, M.; Porta, C.; Nickolas, T.L.; Khairallah, P. Vitamin K effects in human health: New insights beyond bone and cardiovascular health. *J. Nephrol.* **2020**, *33*, 239–249. [[CrossRef](#)]

12. Halder, M.; Petsophonsakul, P.; Akbulut, A.; Pavlic, A.; Bohan, F.; Anderson, E.; Maresz, K.; Kramann, R.; Schurgers, L. Vitamin K: Double Bonds beyond Coagulation Insights into Differences between Vitamin K1 and K2 in Health and Disease. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **2019**, *20*, 896. [[CrossRef](#)]
13. Juanola-Falgarona, M.; Salas-Salvadó, J.; Martínez-González, M.Á.; Corella, D.; Estruch, R.; Ros, E.; Fitó, M.; Arós, F.; Gómez-Gracia, E.; Fiol, M.; et al. Dietary Intake of Vitamin K Is Inversely Associated with Mortality Risk. *J. Nutr.* **2014**, *144*, 743–750. [[CrossRef](#)]
14. Karamzad, N.; Maleki, V.; Carson-Chahhoud, K.; Azizi, S.; Sahebkar, A.; Gargari, B.P. A systematic review on the mechanisms of vitamin K effects on the complications of diabetes and pre-diabetes. *BioFactors* **2020**, *46*, 21–37. [[CrossRef](#)]
15. Ren, L.; Peng, C.; Hu, X.; Han, Y.; Huang, H. Microbial production of vitamin K2: Current status and future prospects. *Biotechnol. Adv.* **2019**, *39*, 107453. [[CrossRef](#)]
16. Sato, T.; Inaba, N.; Yamashita, T. MK-7 and Its Effects on Bone Quality and Strength. *Nutrients* **2020**, *12*, 965. [[CrossRef](#)]
17. Schwalfenberg, G.K. Vitamins K1 and K2: The Emerging Group of Vitamins Required for Human Health. *J. Nutr. Metab.* **2017**, *2017*, 6254836. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
18. Tarkesh, F.; Namavar Jahromi, B.; Hejazi, N.; Tabatabaee, H. Beneficial health effects of Menaquinone-7 on body composition, glycemic indices, lipid profile, and endocrine markers in polycystic ovary syndrome patients. *Food Sci. Nutr.* **2020**, *8*, 5612–5621. [[CrossRef](#)]
19. Xv, F.; Chen, J.; Duan, L.; Li, S. Research progress on the anticancer effects of vitamin K2. *Oncol. Lett.* **2018**, *15*, 8926–8934. [[CrossRef](#)]
20. Ferland, G. The Discovery of Vitamin K and Its Clinical Applications. *Ann. Nutr. Metab.* **2012**, *61*, 213–218. [[CrossRef](#)]
21. Scheiber, D.; Veulemans, V.; Horn, P.; Chatrou, M.; Potthoff, S.; Kelm, M.; Schurgers, L.; Westenfeld, R. High-Dose Menaquinone-7 Supplementation Reduces Cardiovascular Calcification in a Murine Model of Extrasosseous Calcification. *Nutrients* **2015**, *7*, 6991–7011. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
22. Shea, M.K.; Holden, R.M. Vitamin K Status and Vascular Calcification: Evidence from Observational and Clinical Studies. *Adv. Nutr.* **2012**, *3*, 158–165. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
23. Shearer, M.J.; Newman, P. Metabolism and cell biology of vitamin K. *Thromb. Haemost.* **2008**, *100*, 530–547.
24. Vermeer, C.; Schurgers, L.J. A comprehensive review of vitamin K and vitamin K antagonists. *Hematol. Oncol. Clin. N. Am.* **2000**, *14*, 339–353. [[CrossRef](#)]
25. Vik, H. Vitamin K2: A Clinically Proven Cardio-Protective Powerhouse: Known for bone-support benefits, vitamin K2 as MK-7 has also been recognized as vital for heart health. *Nutraceuticals World* **2020**, *23*, 44.
26. Anastasi, E.; Ialongo, C.; Labriola, R.; Ferraguti, G.; Lucarelli, M.; Angeloni, A. Vitamin K deficiency and COVID-19. *Scand. J. Clin. Lab. Investig.* **2020**, *80*, 525–527. [[CrossRef](#)]
27. Berenjian, A.; Sarabadani, Z. How menaquinone-7 deficiency influences mortality and morbidity among COVID-19 patients. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* **2020**, *29*, 101792. [[CrossRef](#)]
28. Dofferhoff, A.S.M.; Piscaer, I.; Schurgers, L.J.; Visser, M.P.J.; van den Ouweland, J.M.W.; de Jong, P.A.; Gosens, R.; Hackeng, T.M.; van Daal, H.; Lux, P.; et al. Reduced vitamin K status as a potentially modifiable risk factor of severe COVID-19. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* **2021**, *73*, 4039–4046. [[CrossRef](#)]
29. Akbulut, A.C.; Pavlic, A.; Petsophonsakul, P.; Halder, M.; Maresz, K.; Kramann, R.; Schurgers, L. Vitamin K2 Needs an RDI Separate from Vitamin K1. *Nutrients* **2020**, *12*, 1852. [[CrossRef](#)]
30. Berenjian, A.; Mahanama, R.; Talbot, A.; Regtop, H.; Kavanagh, J.; Dehghani, F. Advances in menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto: Fed-batch glycerol addition. *Am. J. Biochem. Biotechnol.* **2012**, *8*, 105–110.
31. Berenjian, A.; Mahanama, R.; Talbot, A.; Regtop, H.; Kavanagh, J.; Dehghani, F. Designing of an intensification process for biosynthesis and recovery of menaquinone-7. *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.* **2013**, *172*, 1347–1357. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
32. Sitkowski, J.; Bocian, W.; Sztzerk, A. The application of multidimensional NMR analysis to cis/trans isomers study of menaquinone-7 (vitamine K2MK-7), identification of the (E,Z3,E2, ω)-menaquinone-7 isomer in dietary supplements. *J. Mol. Struct.* **2018**, *1171*, 449–457. [[CrossRef](#)]
33. Cirilli, L.; Orlando, P.; Silvestri, S.; Marcheggiani, F.; Dłudla, P.V.; Kaesler, N.; Tiano, L. Carboxylative efficacy of trans and cis MK7 and comparison with other vitamin K isomers. *BioFactors* **2022**, *48*, 1129–1136. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
34. Lowenthal, J.; Rivera, G.V. Comparison of the activity of the cis and trans isomer of vitamin K1 in vitamin K-deficient and coumarin anticoagulant-pretreated rats. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* **1979**, *209*, 330–333.
35. Baj, A.; Walejko, P.; Kutner, A.; Kaczmarek, L.; Morzycki, J.W.; Witkowski, S. Convergent Synthesis of Menaquinone-7 (MK-7). *Org. Process Res. Dev.* **2016**, *20*, 1026–1033. [[CrossRef](#)]
36. Berenjian, A.; Mahanama, R.; Kavanagh, J.; Dehghani, F. Vitamin K series: Current status and future prospects. *Crit. Rev. Biotechnol.* **2015**, *35*, 199–208. [[CrossRef](#)]
37. Braasch-Turi, M.; Crans, D.C. Synthesis of Naphthoquinone Derivatives: Menaquinones, Lipoquinones and Other Vitamin K Derivatives. *Molecules* **2020**, *25*, 4477. [[CrossRef](#)]
38. Sato, K.; Inoue, S.; Saito, K. A new synthesis of vitamin K via π -allylnickel intermediates. *J. Chem. Soc.* **1973**, *1*, 2289–2293.
39. Snyder, C.D.; Rapoport, H. Synthesis of Menaquinones. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1974**, *96*, 8046–8054. [[CrossRef](#)]
40. Yuan, P.; Cui, S.; Liu, Y.; Li, J.; Du, G.; Liu, L. Metabolic engineering for the production of fat-soluble vitamins: Advances and perspectives. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2020**, *104*, 935–951. [[CrossRef](#)]

41. Ebrahimezhad, A.; Varma, V.; Yang, S.; Ghasemi, Y.; Berenjian, A. Synthesis and Application of Amine Functionalized Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on Menaquinone-7 Fermentation: A Step towards Process Intensification. *Nanomaterials* **2015**, *6*, 1. [[CrossRef](#)]
42. Ranmadugala, D.; Ebrahimezhad, A.; Manley-Harris, M.; Ghasemi, Y.; Berenjian, A. Impact of 3-Aminopropyltriethoxysilane-Coated Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on Menaquinone-7 Production Using *B. subtilis*. *Nanomaterials* **2017**, *7*, 350. [[CrossRef](#)]
43. Ebrahimezhad, A.; Varma, V.; Yang, S.; Berenjian, A. Magnetic immobilization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto cells for menaquinone-7 fermentation. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2015**, *100*, 173–180. [[CrossRef](#)]
44. Berenjian, A.; Mahanama, R.; Talbot, A.; Biffin, R.; Regtop, H.; Kavanagh, J.; Dehghani, F. The effect of amino-acids and glycerol addition on MK-7 production. *Proc. World Congr. Eng. Comput. Sci.* **2011**, *11*, 19–21.
45. Berenjian, A.; Mahanama, R.; Talbot, A.; Biffin, R.; Regtop, H.; Valtchev, P.; Kavanagh, J.; Dehghani, F. Efficient media for high menaquinone-7 production: Response surface methodology approach. *New Biotechnol.* **2011**, *28*, 665–672. [[CrossRef](#)]
46. Lal, N.; Berenjian, A. Cis and trans isomers of the vitamin menaquinone-7: Which one is biologically significant? *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2020**, *104*, 2765–2776. [[CrossRef](#)]
47. Lal, N.; Seifan, M.; Berenjian, A. Optimisation of the fermentation media to enhance the production of the bioactive isomer of vitamin menaquinone-7. *Bioprocess. Biosyst. Eng.* **2022**, *45*, 1371–1390. [[CrossRef](#)]
48. Luo, M.-m.; Ren, L.-j.; Chen, S.-l.; Ji, X.-j.; Huang, H. Effect of media components and morphology of *Bacillus natto* on menaquinone-7 synthesis in submerged fermentation. *Biotechnol. Bioprocess Eng.* **2016**, *21*, 777–786. [[CrossRef](#)]
49. Mahanama, R.; Berenjian, A.; Talbot, A.; Biffin, R.; Regtop, H.; Dehghani, F.; Kavanagh, J. Effects of inoculation loading and substrate bed thickness on the production of menaquinone 7 via solid state fermentation. *Cardiovasc Disord* **2011**, *2*, 19–22.
50. Mahdinia, E.; Demirci, A.; Berenjian, A. Strain and plastic composite support (PCS) selection for vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess. Biosyst. Eng.* **2017**, *40*, 1507–1517. [[CrossRef](#)]
51. Mahdinia, E.; Demirci, A.; Berenjian, A. Enhanced Vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) Production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in Biofilm Reactors by Optimization of Glucose-based Medium. *Curr. Pharm. Biotechnol.* **2018**, *19*, 917–924. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
52. Mahdinia, E.; Demirci, A.; Berenjian, A. Implementation of fed-batch strategies for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2018**, *102*, 9147–9157. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
53. Mahdinia, E.; Demirci, A.; Berenjian, A. Effects of medium components in a glycerol-based medium on vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess. Biosyst. Eng.* **2019**, *42*, 223–232. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
54. Puri, A.; Iqbal, M.; Zafar, R.; Panda, B.P. Influence of physical, chemical and inducer treatments on menaquinone-7 biosynthesis by *Bacillus subtilis* MTCC 2756. *Songklanakarin J. Sci. Technol.* **2015**, *37*, 283–289.
55. Singh, R.; Puri, A.; Panda, B. Development of menaquinone-7 enriched nutraceutical: Inside into medium engineering and process modeling. *J. Food Sci. Technol.* **2015**, *52*, 5212–5219. [[CrossRef](#)]
56. Liao, C.; Ayansola, H.; Ma, Y.; Ito, K.; Guo, Y.; Zhang, B. Advances in enhanced menaquinone-7 production from *Bacillus subtilis*. *Front. Bioeng. Biotechnol.* **2021**, *9*, 695526. [[CrossRef](#)]
57. Lal, N.; Seifan, M.; Berenjian, A. The impact of key fermentation parameters on the production of the all-trans isomer of menaquinone-7. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* **2022**, *46*, 102548. [[CrossRef](#)]
58. Buzea, C.; Pacheco, I.I.; Robbie, K. Nanomaterials and nanoparticles: Sources and toxicity. *Biointerphases* **2007**, *2*, MR17–MR71. [[CrossRef](#)]
59. Suganeswari, M.; Shering, A.; Bharathi, M.; JayaSutha, J. Nano particles: A novel system in current century. *Int. J. Pharm. Biol. Sci. Arch.* **2011**, *2*, 847–854.
60. Durán, N.; Marcato, P.D. Nanobiotechnology perspectives. Role of nanotechnology in the food industry: A review. *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.* **2013**, *48*, 1127–1134. [[CrossRef](#)]
61. Nile, S.H.; Baskar, V.; Selvaraj, D.; Nile, A.; Xiao, J.; Kai, G. Nanotechnologies in Food Science: Applications, Recent Trends, and Future Perspectives. *Nano-Micro Lett.* **2020**, *12*, 45. [[CrossRef](#)]
62. Rashidi, L.; Khosravi-Darani, K. The Applications of Nanotechnology in Food Industry. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2011**, *51*, 723–730. [[CrossRef](#)]
63. Taghizadeh, S.-M.; Lal, N.; Ebrahimezhad, A.; Moeini, F.; Seifan, M.; Ghasemi, Y.; Berenjian, A. Green and Economic Fabrication of Zinc Oxide (ZnO) Nanorods as a Broadband UV Blocker and Antimicrobial Agent. *Nanomaterials* **2020**, *10*, 530. [[CrossRef](#)]
64. Novin, D.; van der Wel, J.; Seifan, M.; Ebrahimezhad, A.; Ghasemi, Y.; Berenjian, A. A functional dairy product rich in Menaquinone-7 and FeOOH nanoparticles. *Food Sci. Technol.* **2020**, *129*, 109564. [[CrossRef](#)]
65. Wang, H.; Liu, H.; Wang, L.; Zhao, G.; Tang, H.; Sun, X.; Ni, W.; Yang, Q.; Wang, P.; Zheng, Z. Improvement of menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in a novel residue-free medium by increasing the redox potential. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2019**, *103*, 7519–7535. [[CrossRef](#)]
66. Ali, A.; Zafar, H.; Zia, M.; ul Haq, I.; Phull, A.R.; Ali, J.S.; Hussain, A. Synthesis, characterization, applications, and challenges of iron oxide nanoparticles. *Nanotechnol. Sci. Appl.* **2016**, *9*, 49–67. [[CrossRef](#)]
67. Ebrahimezhad, A.; Ghasemi, Y.; Rasoul-Amini, S.; Barar, J.; Davaran, S. Impact of amino-acid coating on the synthesis and characteristics of iron-oxide nanoparticles (IONs). *Bull. Korean Chem. Soc.* **2012**, *33*, 3957–3962. [[CrossRef](#)]
68. Ranmadugala, D.; Ebrahimezhad, A.; Manley-Harris, M.; Ghasemi, Y.; Berenjian, A. Iron oxide nanoparticles in modern microbiology and biotechnology. *Crit. Rev. Microbiol.* **2017**, *43*, 493–507.
69. Ranmadugala, D.; Ebrahimezhad, A.; Manley-Harris, M.; Ghasemi, Y.; Berenjian, A. Magnetic immobilization of bacteria using iron oxide nanoparticles. *Biotechnol. Lett.* **2018**, *40*, 237–248. [[CrossRef](#)]

70. Gabrielyan, L.; Hovhannisyanyan, A.; Gevorgyan, V.; Ananyan, M.; Trchounian, A. Antibacterial effects of iron oxide (Fe₃O₄) nanoparticles: Distinguishing concentration-dependent effects with different bacterial cells growth and membrane-associated mechanisms. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2019**, *103*, 2773–2782. [[CrossRef](#)]
71. Lal, N.; Seifan, M.; Novin, D.; Berenjian, A. Development of a Menaquinone-7 enriched product through the solid-state fermentation of *Bacillus licheniformis*. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* **2019**, *19*, 101172. [[CrossRef](#)]
72. Novin, D.; van der Wel, J.; Seifan, M.; Berenjian, A. The effect of aeration and mixing in developing a dairy-based functional food rich in menaquinone-7. *Bioprocess. Biosyst. Eng.* **2020**, *43*, 1773–1780. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
73. Sato, T.; Yamada, Y.; Ohtani, Y.; Mitsui, N.; Murasawa, H.; Araki, S. Efficient production of menaquinone (vitamin K₂) by a menadione-resistant mutant of *Bacillus subtilis*. *J. Ind. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2001**, *26*, 115–120. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
74. Song, J.; Liu, H.; Wang, L.; Dai, J.; Liu, Y.; Liu, H.; Zhao, G.; Wang, P.; Zheng, Z. Enhanced Production of Vitamin K₂ from *Bacillus subtilis* (natto) by Mutation and Optimization of the Fermentation Medium. *Braz. Arch. Biol. Technol.* **2014**, *57*, 606–612.
75. Xu, J.-Z.; Zhang, W.-G. Menaquinone-7 production from maize meal hydrolysate by *Bacillus* isolates with diphenylamine and analogue resistance. *J. Zhejiang Univ. Sci. B* **2017**, *18*, 462–473. [[CrossRef](#)]

Disclaimer/Publisher’s Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.



Supplementary Materials

The Effect of Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menaquinone-7 Isomer Composition and Synthesis of the Biologically Significant All-*Trans* Isomer

Neha Lal ¹, Mostafa Seifan ¹, Alireza Ebrahimezhad ² and Aydin Berenjian ^{1,3,*}

¹ School of Engineering, The University of Waikato, Hamilton 3240, New Zealand; neha.natasha.lal@gmail.com (N.L.); mostafa.seifan@waikato.ac.nz (M.S.)

² Biotechnology Research Center, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, P.O. Box 71348-14336, Iran; a_ebrahimi@sums.ac.ir

³ Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80523, USA

* Correspondence: aydin.berenjian@waikato.ac.nz

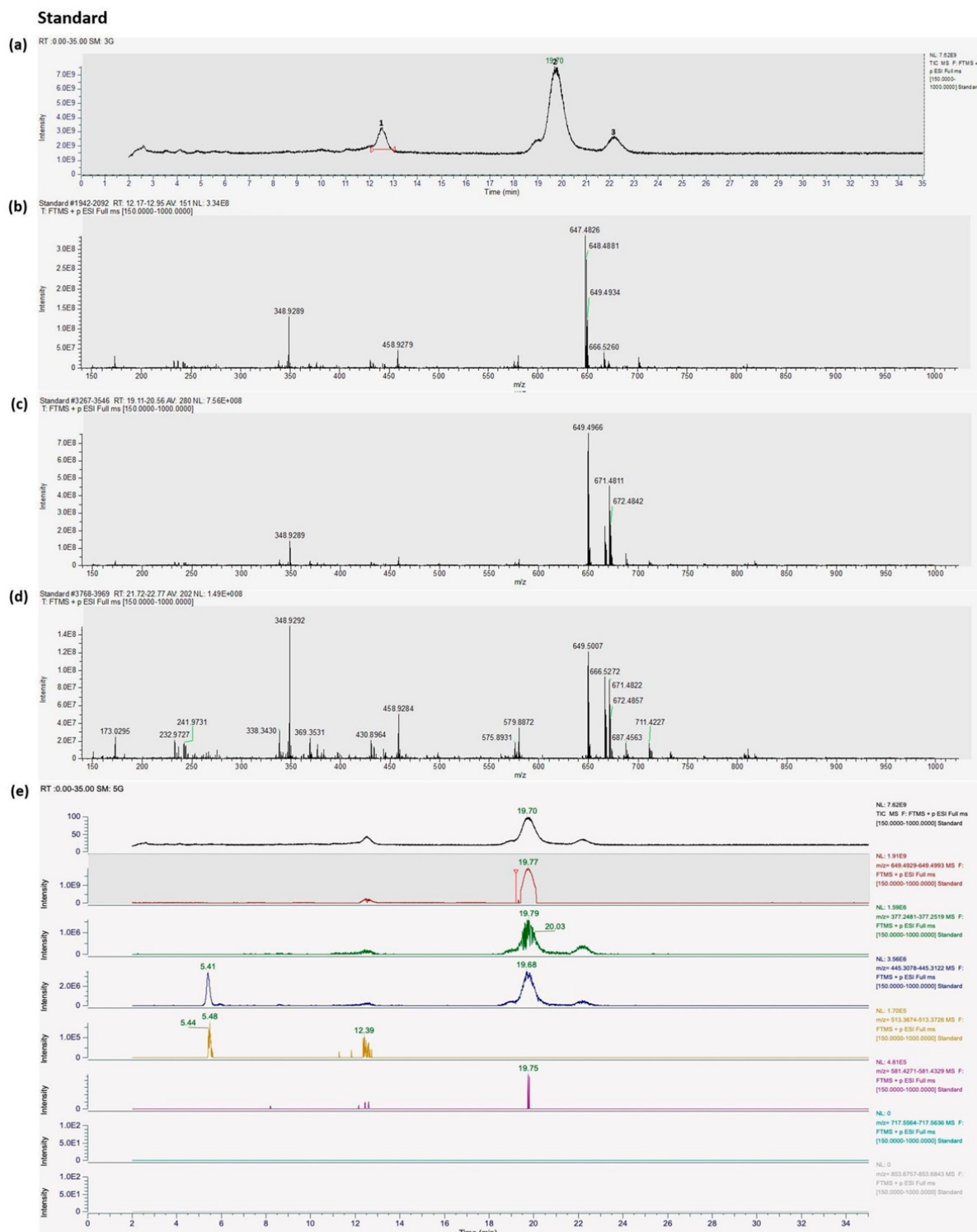


Figure S1. (a) Liquid chromatography chromatogram, (b) MS data for peak 1, (c) MS data for peak 2, (d) MS data for peak 3, and (e) extracted ion chromatogram for the all-*trans* MK-7 reference standard.

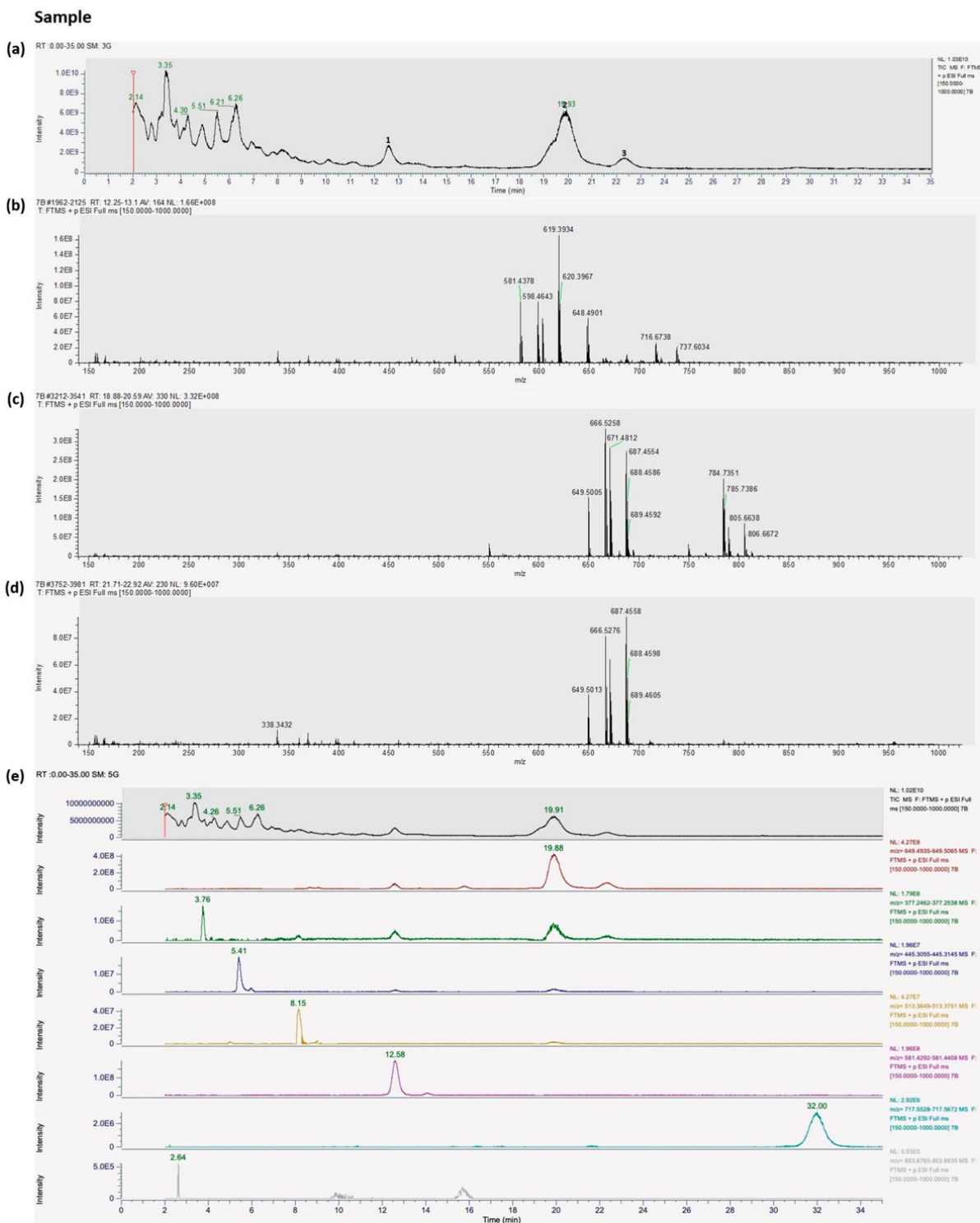


Figure S2. (a) Liquid chromatography chromatogram, (b) MS data for peak 1, (c) MS data for peak 2, (d) MS data for peak 3, and (e) extracted ion chromatogram for an experimental sample.

7

The Impact of Amine-Functionalised Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menaquinone-7 Isomer Profile and Production of the Bioactive Isomer

A journal article published in

Molecular Biotechnology

Springer, 2023

By

N. Lal, M. Seifan, A. Ebrahiminezhad, and A Berenjian

Chapter 7 – The Impact of Amine-Functionalised Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menquinone-7 Isomer Profile and Production of the Bioactive Isomer

This chapter expands on the preceding chapter (Chapter 6) and continues to explore the potential of nanobiotechnological strategies to enhance the production and yield of the all-*trans* isomer and address the underlying challenges of MK-7 fermentation. Although the findings of Chapter 6 indicate that naked IONs positively influence the fermentation yield of bioactive MK-7, their properties are inferior to IONs coated with biocompatible materials, such as amino acids. Amino acid coatings, for example, APTES and L-Lys, can mitigate the unfavourable characteristics of naked IONs, increase the stability and biocompatibility of IONs, and promote beneficial interactions with *B. subtilis natto* cells. Moreover, certain amino acid coatings can reduce biofilm formation and offer additional advantages for MK-7 fermentation on a large scale. Hence, IONs with biocompatible coatings are superior and more apt to improve the production and yield of the biologically effective MK-7 isomer and overcome the difficulties in industrial MK-7 fermentation.

Accordingly, two amine-functionalised IONs, namely IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs, were synthesised, and several techniques were employed to characterise the coated IONs and visualise their association with the microbial cells. The effect of fermentation with bacterial cells immobilised with each type of biocompatible amino acid-coated ION on microbial growth and the production and yield of MK-7 isomers was also evaluated. The optimal concentration of the amine-functionalised ION that resulted in the most favourable outcomes with regard to the investigated parameters was subsequently assessed in a monitoring study to examine the trends in bacterial growth, isomer production, and pH over the fermentation period.

The outcomes of this chapter conclude the aims set out in the previous chapter (Chapter 6) and demonstrate the value of nanobiotechnological methods in enhancing the production and yield of bioactive MK-7 and providing an opportunity to streamline the overall fermentation system through process intensification.



The Impact of Amine-Functionalised Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menaquinone-7 Isomer Profile and Production of the Bioactive Isomer

Neha Lal¹ · Mostafa Seifan¹ · Alireza Ebrahiminezhad² · Aydin Berenjian^{1,3}

Received: 15 June 2023 / Accepted: 13 July 2023
© The Author(s) 2023

Abstract

The K family of vitamins includes a collection of molecules with different pharmacokinetic characteristics. Menaquinone-7 (MK-7) has the finest properties and is the most therapeutically beneficial due to its long plasma half-life and outstanding extrahepatic bioavailability. MK-7 exhibits *cis-trans* isomerism, and merely the all-*trans* form is biologically efficacious. Therefore, the remedial value of MK-7 end products is exclusively governed by the quantity of all-*trans* MK-7. Consumers favour fermentation for the production of MK-7; however, it involves several challenges. The low MK-7 yield and extensive downstream processing requirements increase production costs, resulting in an expensive final product that is not universally available. Bacterial cell immobilisation with iron oxide nanoparticles (IONs) can potentially address the limitations of MK-7 fermentation. Uncoated IONs tend to have low stability and can adversely affect cell viability; thus, amine-functionalised IONs, owing to their increased physicochemical stability and biocompatibility, are a favourable alternative. Nonetheless, employing biocompatible IONs for this purpose is only advantageous if the bioactive MK-7 isomer is obtained in the most significant fraction, exploring which formed the aim of this investigation. Two amine-functionalised IONs, namely 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane (APTES)-coated IONs (IONs@APTES) and L-Lysine (L-Lys)-coated IONs (L-Lys@IONs), were synthesised and characterised, and their impact on various parameters was evaluated. IONs@APTES were superior, and the optimal concentration (300 µg/mL) increased all-*trans* MK-7 production and improved its yield relative to the untreated cells by 2.3- and 3.1-fold, respectively. The outcomes of this study present an opportunity to develop an innovative and effective fermentation method that enhances the production of bioactive MK-7.

Keywords Menaquinone-7 isomers · Biocompatible iron oxide nanoparticles · 3-Aminopropyltriethoxysilane · L-Lysine · Bacterial cell immobilisation · Fermentation

Introduction

The vitamin K series encompasses a range of structurally similar fat-soluble molecules. Vitamin K1 or phyloquinone (PK) and vitamin K2 or menaquinones (MKs) are the prevalent types of dietary vitamin K that have nutritional value for

humans [1]. Both PK and MKs contain a 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone constituent, but the structure of the isoprenoid group at the 3-position is unique for each isoform [2]. PK is an individual molecule that is ubiquitous in the chloroplasts of plants and algae that carry out photosynthesis [3, 4]. Hence, it can be readily obtained from numerous dietary sources, including green vegetables (e.g. spinach, broccoli, and iceberg lettuce), plant oils (e.g. olive, cottonseed, canola, and soybean), and products derived from vegetable oils (e.g. salad dressings, margarines, and spreads) [5, 6]. In contrast, MKs consist of a group of molecules with distinct side chains, which can be described by the script MK-*n* (*n* is commonly between four and thirteen and symbolises the number of repeating isoprene units) [7, 8]. MKs are mostly of microbial origin and function as electron acceptors in the electron transport system; thus, they are found in specific

✉ Aydin Berenjian
aydin.berenjian@colostate.edu

¹ School of Engineering, The University of Waikato, Hamilton 3240, New Zealand

² Biotechnology Research Center, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, Iran

³ Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80523, USA

dairy, animal, and fermented goods but at low concentrations [6, 8, 9].

All vitamin K subtypes are essential cofactors for the γ -glutamyl carboxylase (GGCX) enzyme and play a role in the activation of both hepatic and extrahepatic vitamin K-dependent proteins (VKDPs) [10]. VKDPs participate in several key metabolic pathways, such as the blood coagulation cascade, increasing bone mineralisation, and preventing arterial calcification, which are the primary health gains linked to the sufficient intake of vitamin K [8, 10–12]. Additionally, recent research has revealed that vitamin K consumption also contributes to reducing the risk of various other illnesses and globally relevant diseases, including type 2 diabetes mellitus, Parkinson's disease, cancer, neurological illnesses, immune disorders, chronic kidney disease, and obesity, and improving the recovery and outcomes of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) [1, 13–22].

As a result of its long plasma half-life and excellent extrahepatic bioavailability, MK-7 has the greatest efficacy and superior therapeutic value among all K vitamins [23, 24]. However, the dietary sources of MK-7 are limited, and it occurs in small amounts in foods that interest mainstream consumers [25, 26]. This has heightened the demand for MK-7 dietary supplements and nutraceuticals with widespread appeal to accompany natural foods and satisfy the daily intake needs of all populations.

It must be appreciated that, like many natural molecules, MK-7 exhibits geometric isomerism. The all-*trans* isomer is biologically significant, and the *cis* isomers have negligible bioactivity [8, 27, 28]. The all-*trans* isomer has a linear organisation (Fig. 1) due to the *trans* bond arrangement. In contrast, the *cis* isomers, which contain one or more *cis* double bonds, have a non-linear shape (Fig. 1). The biological activity of MK-7 molecules is dictated by the double bond configuration in the isoprenoid side chain, as it impacts their shape and ability to associate with subcellular structures and perform their biological function [29, 30]. It has been

established that the *cis* isomer has reduced carboxylative capacity and biological significance in comparison to all-*trans* MK-7 [31]. Therefore, consideration of the amount of the different geometric isomers in MK-7 consumer products is vital, as only the all-*trans* isomer is biologically effective.

Natural fermentation or chemical reaction methods can be used to synthesise MK-7, and the manufacturing process and techniques employed to purify the crude reaction mixture influence the isomer profile of the MK-7 product [28, 32–36]. Although chemical approaches tend to be cheaper, natural synthesis has greater acceptance among consumers. Moreover, fermentation-based production using microorganisms for the industrial synthesis of MK-7 ensures environmental sustainability and, hence, can fulfil the desire of consumers while supporting sustainable development initiatives [37]. Nevertheless, MK-7 production by fermentation is accompanied by many challenges, the major concerns being the low yield of the vitamin and the need for several complex steps and unit operations to satisfy its extensive downstream processing requirements [38, 39]. These drawbacks increase the production cost and result in an expensive final product that is not widely accessible to consumers.

Many studies have aimed to boost the fermentation yield and MK-7 concentration by exploring and optimising various facets of the fermentation process, such as the media composition, fermentation strategy (using liquid-state fermentation (LSF), solid-state fermentation (SSF), or biofilm reactors), operating conditions, and cell treatment methods [40–48]. The outcomes of prior investigations and their associated developments have contributed significantly to the comprehension of the different features of MK-7 fermentation and enhanced the production of this essential K vitamin. However, further opportunities for improvement still exist, and all except our prior studies [41, 47] have not considered the occurrence of MK-7 isomers, accounting for which is paramount in view of their differing bioactivity. Additionally, optimising aspects inherent to the fermentation process

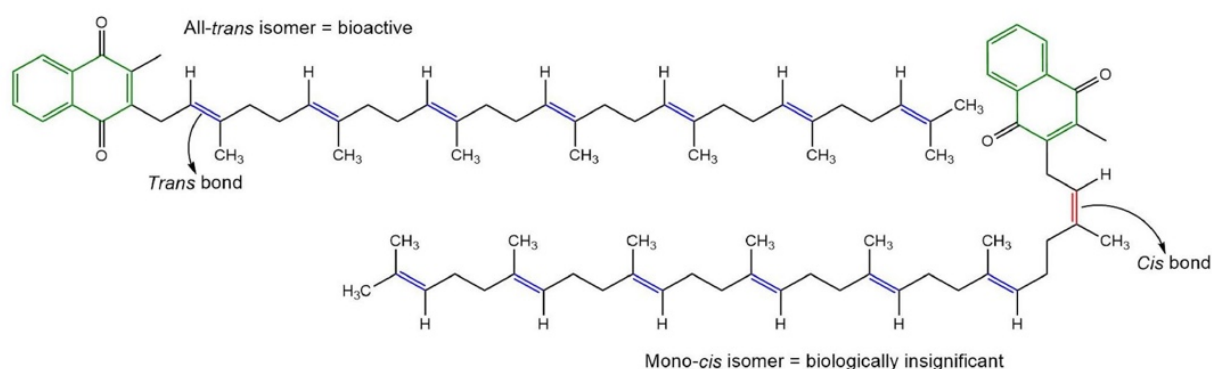


Fig. 1 The double bond arrangement and resulting molecular structure of the all-*trans* and *cis* geometric isomers of MK-7

alone only has the capacity to increase the production of MK-7 and provides minimal scope to refine the overall fermentation scheme through process intensification. Consequently, there is a demand for new methods to enhance the MK-7 yield achieved from fermentation and/or streamline the production system by decreasing the number of complex unit operations required, in addition to ensuring that the bioactive MK-7 isomer is obtained entirely or in the largest proportion. In this regard, nanomaterials (NMs) show great promise in addressing the limitations of MK-7 fermentation.

NMs contain structural components between 1 and 100 nm in size in at least one aspect [49]. The nanoscale structure increases the surface area-to-volume ratio and provides NMs with unique biological and physicochemical characteristics, which are absent in the equivalent macroscopic material, making them ideal for many novel applications [49–52]. Among the various types of NMs, nanoparticles (NPs) are pertinent to MK-7 fermentation and have the ability to overcome the primary challenges linked to the fermentation-based production of the vitamin. IONs are particularly relevant to MK-7 fermentation and have been employed to immobilise bacterial cells to increase the MK-7 yield and enhance the process output by improving the metabolic productivity of the cells [38, 39, 53]. Furthermore, IONs display superparamagnetism, which can be manipulated to allow cell separation and dispersion with an external magnetic field [38]. This will decrease the number of downstream purification steps and create an opportunity for process intensification. Thus, it is apparent that the use of IONs for bacterial cell immobilisation is an innovative approach to address the obstacles in large-scale MK-7 production.

Previous investigations [38, 39, 53] have explored the ability of bacterial cell immobilisation with IONs to increase MK-7 synthesis and enable process intensification using magnetic separation technology to facilitate cell recovery. In these studies, magnetic IONs were employed to immobilise *Bacillus subtilis natto* cells, and the surface of the cells was decorated through several non-specific bonds. The effect of cell immobilisation on bacterial growth and MK-7 production was also assessed, along with the prospect for in-place product removal and cell reutilisation. It was established that immobilisation with IONs improves both the concentration and yield of MK-7 relative to fermentation with free microbial cells. Moreover, the superparamagnetic nature of IONs allows the separation of bacterial cells using an externally applied magnetic field with a high capture efficiency that is not significantly compromised over successive cycles.

In light of the differing efficacy of MK-7 isomers, using IONs to increase the productivity of MK-7 fermentation and aid process intensification is only advantageous if the all-*trans* isomer is synthesised almost exclusively or in the largest quantity. It is important to understand that all earlier studies have examined MK-7 production without considering

the isomer composition obtained from fermentation. Our previous investigation was the first to assess the impact of uncoated IONs on microbial growth and the MK-7 isomer concentration and yield achieved from fermentation [54]. Immobilisation of *B. subtilis natto* cells improved the efficiency of the fermentation process, and a 1.6-fold greater yield of the bioactive isomer was attained at the optimal NP concentration compared to the free cells. However, it has been observed that although naked IONs positively affect MK-7 production, they exhibit low physicochemical stability and toxic effects on microbial cells, inhibiting bacterial growth. This is disadvantageous from the perspective of cell recycling using magnetic separation, as it is essential to preserve the viability and metabolic efficiency of bacterial cells to ensure the effectiveness of this technique.

Therefore, biocompatible coatings like amino acids could eliminate such unfavourable properties. Amino acids are an ideal coating material due to their biocompatibility, chemical stability, and surface activity. Many amino acids are also suitable for human consumption and have been used as biocompatible coatings or constituents in dietary supplements. Thus, amino acid coatings can mitigate the toxic effects of IONs in food-related applications. L-Lys is especially desirable, as it does not have a detrimental impact on the fundamental properties of IONs [39]. It also adds amine functional groups to the structure of NPs, which improves their interaction with negatively charged regions of the bacterial cell membrane and, consequently, increases the potential for surface associations [39]. Another suitable amine-functionalised coating is APTES, which confers the same properties as L-Lys but prevents oxidation of NPs and preserves their crystalline structure [55]. Furthermore, IONs@APTES significantly decrease biofilm formation without impairing cell growth and viability [53]. This is beneficial for industrial MK-7 production, as the formation of biofilms is one of the dominant issues in large-scale fermentation since it leads to many process and operational problems that decrease the performance of the system, reduce the yield and quality of the target product, and increase the process and equipment-related costs. Overall, previous studies suggest that IONs, particularly IONs with biocompatible coatings, are a valuable tool to enhance the production and yield of the vitamin and overcome the challenges accompanying large-scale MK-7 fermentation.

Hence, this study focused on assessing the effect of amine-functionalised IONs on the MK-7 isomer composition obtained from fermentation. Two types of biocompatible NPs, specifically IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs, were prepared and analysed using various methods, and the impact of each on microbial growth and MK-7 isomers were evaluated. The conclusions drawn from this investigation will expand the existing knowledge of the ability of biocompatible amino acid-coated IONs to boost the productivity

of MK-7 fermentation. This, in addition to the potential for process intensification with the assistance of magnetic separation technology, will likely enable the evolution of a streamlined industrial fermentation process that selectively targets the production of the all-*trans* isomer. A more efficient fermentation system will possibly entail lower production costs and improve the affordability and accessibility of biologically efficacious fermented MK-7 nutraceuticals, functional products, and dietary supplements.

Materials and Methods

Chemicals and Materials

The all-*trans* MK-7 (98.1%) analytical standard was obtained from ChromaDex (Los Angeles, CA, USA). $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and glucose were supplied by Ajax Finechem Pty Ltd (Taren Point, NSW, Australia), and tryptone and yeast extract were acquired from Becton, Dickinson and Company (Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Methanol, ethanol, *n*-hexane, 2-propanol, NH_4OH , and soy peptone were procured from Merck Millipore (Burlington, MA, USA). CaCl_2 , $\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, glutaraldehyde, sodium cacodylate, APTES, and L-Lys were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). NaCl was obtained from a domestic source, and nutrient (BHI) agar plates were acquired from Fort Richard Laboratories (Auckland, New Zealand).

Microorganism and Inoculum Preparation

B. subtilis natto is often utilised in MK-7 fermentation experiments, as well as those involving NPs [38, 39, 53, 54]. Additionally, *B. subtilis natto* enables a high fermentation yield and is classed as generally recognised as safe (GRAS); thus, it is considered suitable for large-scale MK-7 production and is preferably employed for manufacturing MK-7 products [42, 56]. Therefore, it was deemed the most appropriate microbial strain for this investigation. The microbial spore solution was produced using the approach implemented by Berenjjan et al. [40]. The *B. subtilis natto* cells were grown in a liquid mixture of NaCl, yeast extract, and tryptone and plated on BHI agar plates. The plates were stored in an incubator at 37 °C for 48 h. The bacterial growth was scraped off the agar plates and submersed in a sterile saline solution. The microbial suspension was then placed in an 80 °C water bath for 30 min to inactivate the growing cells and induce the generation of spores. Centrifugation (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min was used to isolate the cell debris. The consequent microbial spore suspension acted as the inoculum for the NP fermentation procedures.

NP Synthesis and Characterisation

Synthesis of Uncoated IONs

Uncoated IONs (Fe_3O_4) were produced in an inert atmosphere using the co-precipitation technique outlined by Ebrahiminezhad et al. [38]. $\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (1.17 g) and $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.74 g) were combined in 50 mL of distilled water, and the solution was briskly agitated for 1 h at 70 °C in a nitrogen atmosphere to avoid oxidation. NH_4OH (5 mL) was rapidly added to the solution, which was then stirred for a further 1 h until precipitation occurred. After the reaction, the magnetic particles were separated with a permanent magnet. The IONs were washed several times with boiled distilled water to eliminate unwanted compounds before drying for 24 h at 50 °C in an oven (Contherm Thermotec 2000, Contherm Scientific Ltd, Wellington, New Zealand).

Synthesis of IONs@APTES

APTES coating was carried out using the methodology proposed by Ebrahiminezhad et al. [55]. Uncoated IONs (0.7 g) were added to a 1:1 (v/v) solution of ethanol and distilled water (25 mL) and sonicated (Qsonica-Q800R, Newtown, CT, USA) while kept in an ice bath for 2 min to achieve a homogenous mixture. Afterwards, 2.8 mL of APTES solution was injected into the mixture under nitrogen and vigorously stirred for 2 h at 40 °C. The coated IONs were then collected with a permanent magnet. A mixture of ethanol and distilled water was used to wash the magnetic particles to exclude contaminants before drying for 24 h at 50 °C in an oven (Contherm Thermotec 2000, Contherm Scientific Ltd, Wellington, New Zealand).

Synthesis of L-Lys@IONs

The procedure employed by Ebrahiminezhad et al. [39] was used to synthesise the L-Lys@IONs. Accordingly, $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.74 g), $\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (1.17 g), and L-Lys (1.6 g) were combined in 50 mL of distilled water, and the solution was robustly mixed at 70 °C under nitrogen for 1 h. NH_4OH (5 mL) was successively added to the reaction mixture, which was agitated for another 1.5 h until precipitation occurred. The particles were then magnetically separated, washed with boiled distilled water to extract pollutants, and dried for 24 h at 50 °C in an oven (Contherm Thermotec 2000, Contherm Scientific Ltd, Wellington, New Zealand).

Characterisation

The size and morphology of the synthesised NPs were determined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM; Philips, CM 10, Philips Electron Optics, Eindhoven, The Netherlands). A NP dispersion was prepared in distilled water for the TEM analysis, and a drop of the solution was put on a copper grid coated with carbon. All TEM images were taken at HT 100 kV. The identity of important chemical bonds and functional groups was established using Fourier-transformed infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy (Bruker VERTEX 70 FTIR spectrometer, Bruker, Kassel, Germany) in the span of 4000–400 cm^{-1} . Before the FTIR procedure, a pellet with a NP-to-KBr ratio of 1% was made and subjected to a hydraulic press for 10 min to create a solid disc. All samples were assessed at room temperature by the FTIR instrument. X-ray powder diffraction (XRD; Siemens D5000, Munich, Germany) was used to evaluate the crystalline structure of the coated NPs. The dried powder was packed on a zero-background silicon holder, and the excess was removed using a brush and straight edge. The analysis was conducted at ambient temperature, 40 mA, and 45 kV, with a step size of 0.0530° and an exploration range (2θ) within 20° and 90°.

Cell Fixation and Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) Analysis

SEM (Hitachi Regulus SU8230 FE-SEM, Tokyo, Japan) was used to visualise the surface structure of the coated NPs and their interaction with the bacterial cells. The bacterial cell samples were prepared following a similar technique to Ebrahiminezhad et al. [38]. A 10 μL drop of the sample was put on a coverslip before passing it through the flame of a Bunsen burner to heat-fix the bacterial smear. The sample was then chemically fixed for 45 min by placing the coverslip in 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer before rinsing with saline for 15 min. The coverslip was then kept in a series of ethanol concentrations (30, 50, 70, 80, 90, and 95%) for 10 min each to dehydrate the bacterial cells. Afterwards, the sample was stored for 20 min in pure ethanol and dried using a critical point dryer (Polaron E3000, Quorum Technologies, East Sussex, England, UK). The dried microbial samples and pure ION powders were coated with platinum after mounting them on an aluminium stub. SEM images of IONs, free-floating cells, and bacterial cells immobilised with coated IONs were captured at 3 kV.

Bacterial Cell Immobilisation and Fermentation

The fermentation media, comprising 1% (w/v) glucose, 2% (w/v) yeast extract, 2% (w/v) soy peptone, 2% (w/v) tryptone, and 0.1% (w/v) CaCl_2 [41], was made and autoclaved (TOMY SX-700E, Tokyo, Japan) at 121 °C for 20 min.

Following sterilisation, the samples were inoculated with 2% (v/v) of the bacterial spore suspension. Stock solutions of IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs (0.01 g/mL) were individually prepared with sterilised distilled water and added to the samples at various concentrations (0–600 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$). The samples for each type of coated NP were prepared separately, and three replicate samples for each concentration were considered. All samples were fermented aerobically at 200 rpm and 40 °C for 7 days to enable the coated NPs to attach to the surface of the microbial cells. The fermentation parameters were selected from our earlier investigation [47].

MK-7 Extraction

Preceding analysis, MK-7 was removed from the fermented samples, as summarised by Berenjjan et al. [40]. A solution of *n*-hexane and 2-propanol was added to the samples in a ratio of 1:2 (v/v) while maintaining a liquid-to-organic ratio of 1:4 (v/v) before thoroughly mixing for 2 min with a vortex mixer. The different layers of liquid were split by centrifuging (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) the mixture for 10 min at 3000 rpm. The top layer was separated from the remaining liquid and evaporated to isolate the extracted MK-7.

MK-7 Analysis

MK-7 analysis was performed employing the methodology discussed in our previous report [41]. The MK-7 isomer concentration was assessed with a Dionex high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), which consisted of a photodiode array UV detector, an automated sample injector, four pumps, and a thermostatted column compartment. Separation was conducted at 40 °C using a COSMOSIL Cholesterol packed (reversed-phase) column (100 mm \times 2 mm \times 2.5 μm ; Nacalai Tesque Inc., Kyoto, Japan). The compounds were eluted isocratically with methanol (mobile phase) at a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min. The injection volume was 10 μL , the autosampler temperature was 10 °C, the analytical wavelength was 248 nm, and the run-time was 30 min. Data were collected with the Chromeleon 7 program (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), and the *cis* MK-7 isomer was ascertained by a relative retention time (RRT) of 1.12. The MK-7 concentration of the samples was deduced from a linear MK-7 standard curve ($R^2=0.99$), which was developed by measuring the area of peaks corresponding to known concentrations of the reference standard.

Liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry (LC–MS) was utilised to validate the identity of the MK-7 isomers and confirm their retention times, as outlined in our earlier study [41]. The LC–MS setup contained a Dionex Ultimate 3000 ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC)

apparatus and a QExactive mass spectrometer with a HESI II source (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The equipment was controlled with the Thermo XCalibur 4.3 platform (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), and data handling was accomplished using the Chromeleon 7.3 package (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The previously described chromatography conditions were employed to separate the MK-7 isomers using liquid chromatography; however, an injection volume and a runtime of 5 μL and 37 min, respectively, were used to suit the needs of the LC-MS equipment. Data were acquired in the positive ionisation mode with a maximum injection time of 200 ms, a resolution of 70,000, an AGC target of 3×10^6 , and a MS1 scan range between 150 and 1000 m/z . The mass spectrometry (MS) data were evaluated with the Thermo FreeStyle 1.6 application (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

Cell Density and pH Measurements

Bacterial growth was estimated from measurements of the cell density. The optical density (OD) of the samples was measured using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-1900, Kyoto, Japan) at an analytical wavelength of 600 nm after suitable dilution with distilled water. The pH of the samples was assessed using a laboratory pH meter (CyberScan pH 100, Eutech Instruments, Paisley, UK).

Statistical Methods

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the statistical significance, and the mean values of different groups were compared with a two-sample t -test. All data were described as the mean \pm standard error (SE) of

triplicate samples, and statistical significance was accepted at $p < 0.05$.

Results and Discussion

Synthesis and Characterisation of Biocompatible Amine-Functionalised IONs

The co-precipitation method was used to synthesise biocompatible amino acid-coated IONs (IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs). The SEM images (Fig. 2) and TEM micrographs (Fig. 3) show that both types of amine-functionalised IONs have a spherical morphology. The NPs also have a reasonably uniform size distribution ranging from 7–20 nm for the IONs@APTES and 4–10 nm for the L-Lys@IONs, with an average particle size of 11 nm and 7 nm, respectively.

The FTIR spectra of the coated IONs are provided in Fig. 4 and illustrate the distinguishing Fe–O peaks at around 608 cm^{-1} and 420 cm^{-1} for the IONs@APTES and 612 cm^{-1} and 425 cm^{-1} for the L-Lys@IONs. The peak at approximately 1081 cm^{-1} signifies the stretching vibration of the Si–O bond in the IONs@APTES [53]. The successful coating of IONs with APTES is also indicated by the peaks at about 2850 cm^{-1} and 2900 cm^{-1} , which depict the presence of aliphatic $-\text{CH}_2$ groups and can be ascribed to the symmetric and asymmetric $-\text{C}-\text{H}$ stretching vibrations, respectively [53]. For the L-Lys@IONs, C–O and C=O stretching vibrations can be visualised at approximately 1440 cm^{-1} and 1630 cm^{-1} , respectively, and the peak at roughly 2925 cm^{-1} denotes the overlap between the C–H and N–H stretching vibrations with the O–H stretching vibration [57]. In addition, during the production of IONs using the co-precipitation technique, the unsaturated iron atoms at the surface interact with water molecules and OH^- ions in the

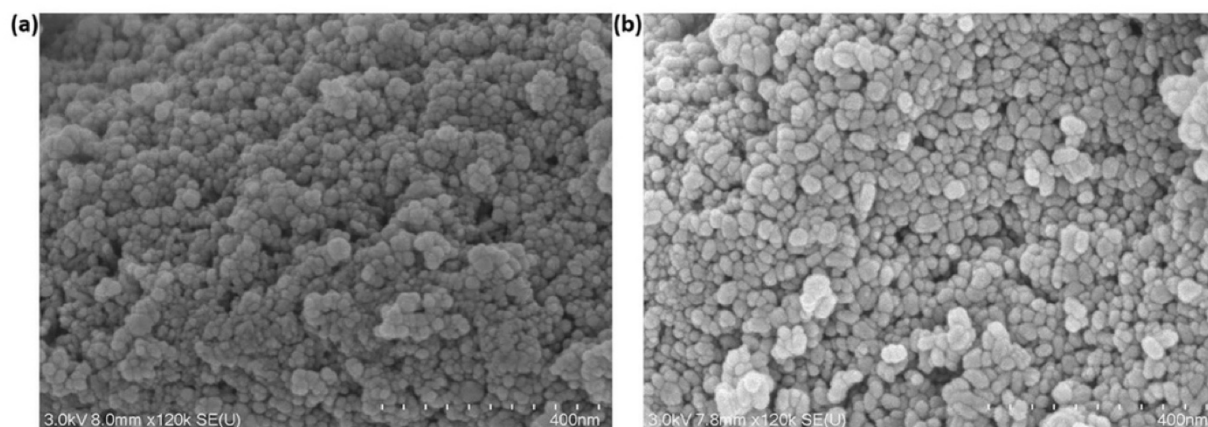


Fig. 2 SEM image of the exterior surface structure of the **a** IONs@APTES and **b** L-Lys@IONs

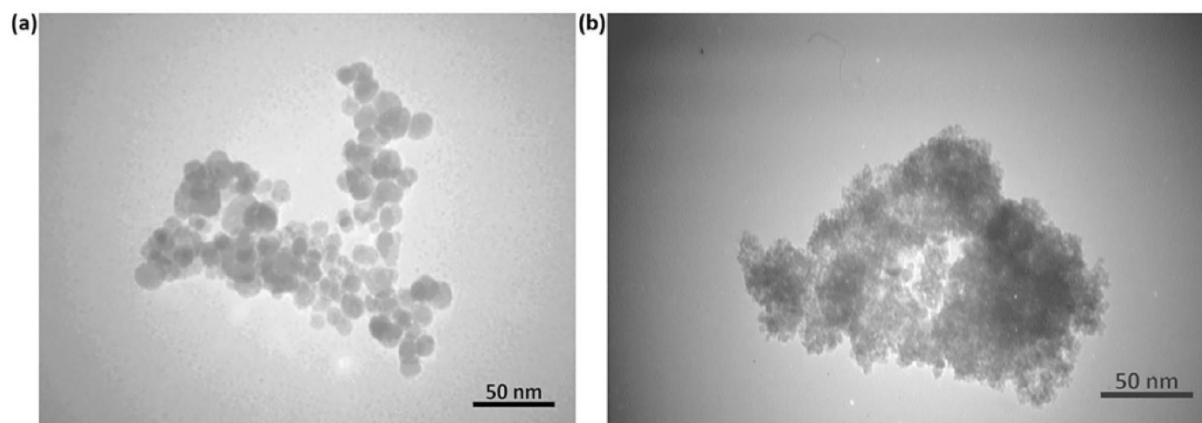


Fig. 3 TEM micrograph of the **a** IONs@APTES and **b** L-Lys@IONs

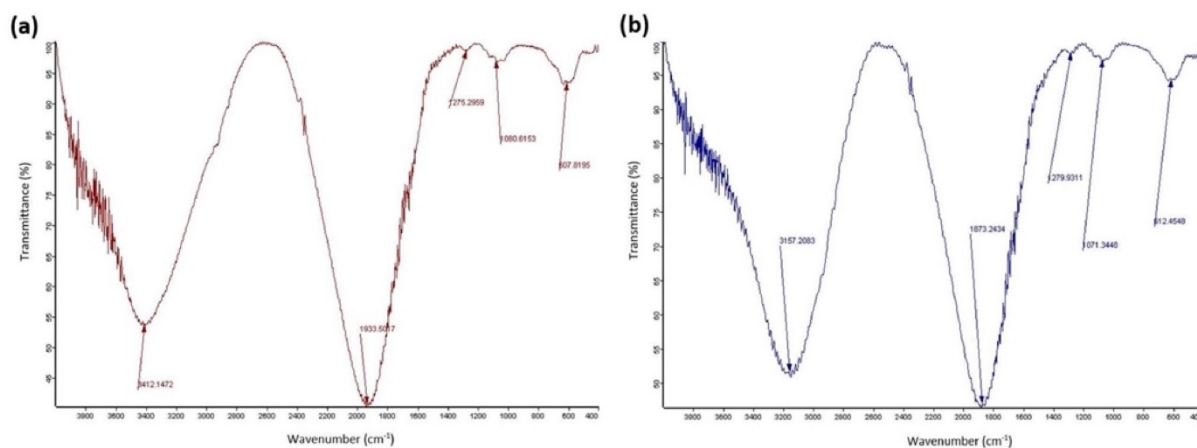


Fig. 4 FTIR spectrum of the **a** IONs@APTES and **b** L-Lys@IONs

aqueous medium and modify the surface of the NPs [38, 57]. This is represented by the peaks at about 3412 cm^{-1} and 1934 cm^{-1} for the IONs@APTES and 3157 cm^{-1} and 1873 cm^{-1} for the L-Lys@IONs, which correspond to the O–H bending and stretching vibrations, respectively.

The XRD patterns for the amine-functionalised IONs are presented in Fig. 5, and the intensity peaks obtained from the analysis are comparable for the two kinds of coated IONs. The XRD pattern for the IONs@APTES shows definite intensity peaks at 2θ degrees of 30° , 35.5° , 43° , 53° , 57° , and 63° , which represent (220), (311), (400), (422), (511), and (440) Bragg reflections, respectively. Similarly, the XRD pattern for the L-Lys@IONs displays characteristic intensity peaks at 2θ degrees of 30° , 35.5° , 43° , 57° , and 63° , which denote (220), (311), (400), (511), and (440) Bragg reflections, respectively. These distinctive peaks correspond to the crystal structure of magnetite and confirm the production

of IONs [39, 53]. The sharper peaks for the IONs@APTES suggest that they have greater crystallinity than the L-Lys@IONs synthesised in this study. However, since the XRD analysis resulted in equivalent peaks for both types of coated IONs, it indicates that amine-functionalisation with biocompatible amino acid coatings does not significantly impact the crystal structure.

Interaction of Coated IONs with the Bacterial Cell Surface

Interactions between the biocompatible IONs and microbial cells were viewed using SEM. The effective decoration and immobilisation of *B. subtilis natto* cells with IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs in comparison to the free bacterial cells are depicted in Fig. 6. Both types of amine-functionalised IONs are many orders of magnitude

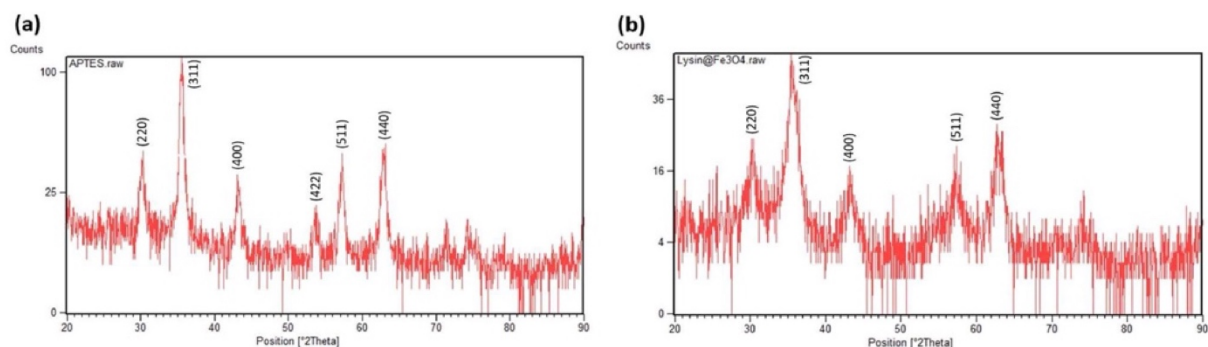


Fig. 5 XRD pattern of the **a** IONs@APTES and **b** L-Lys@IONs

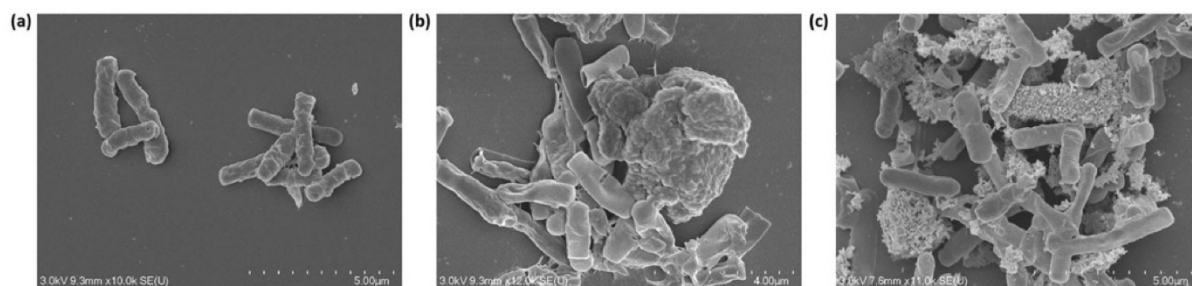


Fig. 6 SEM image of the **a** untreated bacterial cells, **b** bacterial cells immobilised with IONs@APTES, and **c** bacterial cells immobilised with L-Lys@IONs

smaller than the microbial cells. The small particle size and large surface-area-to-volume ratio of the coated IONs and the presence of positively charged amine groups allow them to attach to the surface of the bacterial cells through several bonding interactions, including hydrogen bonds, hydrophobic interactions, electrostatic attractions, and Van der Waals forces [39, 53]. As the interactions between the NPs and microbial cells are non-specific, the IONs arbitrarily attach to their surface. Since the interaction between all cells is not consistent, some bacteria are more extensively decorated than others.

Decoration of microbial cells with biocompatible magnetic IONs is advantageous, as it can enable cell removal with an external magnetic field, which creates an opportunity for process intensification by reducing the number of complex downstream processing steps required for the isolation and purification of MK-7. This will streamline the production process and permit the separated bacterial cells to be re-employed in subsequent fermentation batches, decreasing production costs. Nonetheless, to allow the cells to be recycled, it is vital to preserve their growth and metabolic characteristics and ensure that immobilisation

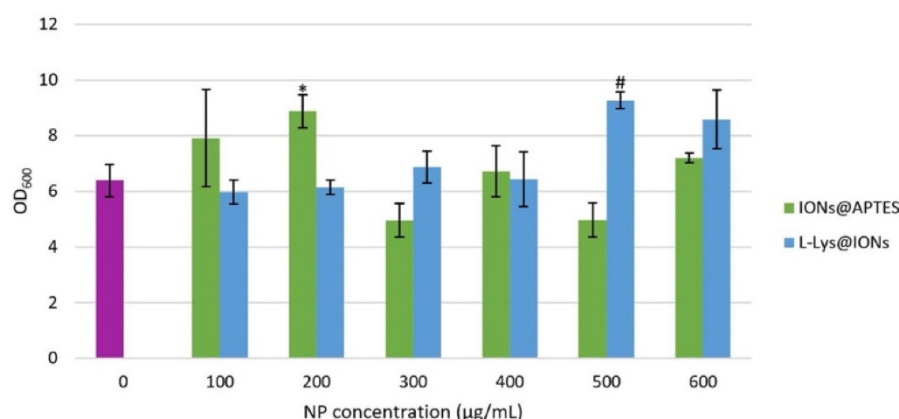
with amine-functionalised magnetic IONs has no undesirable effects on cell viability.

The Influence of Bacterial Cell Immobilisation with Amine-Functionalised IONs on Microbial Growth

The effect of microbial cell immobilisation with IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs on bacterial growth was considered, and it can be seen that the impact on cell growth differs between the two types of amino acid coatings (Fig. 7).

For the IONs@APTES, the OD for the control (6.39), 400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (6.72), and 600 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (7.21) groups is comparable. The OD attained for an IONs@APTES concentration of 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (7.91) and 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (8.88) is relatively similar and noticeably higher than the other groups, whereas that for the 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (4.96) and 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (4.97) groups is alike and considerably lower than all other concentration groups. In contrast, for the L-Lys@IONs, the OD obtained for the majority of the investigated concentrations (control, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, and 400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) is fairly consistent (between 5.97 and 6.87), while that for the 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ and 600 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ groups is appreciably greater than

Fig. 7 The impact of bacterial cell immobilisation with coated IONs on microbial growth, where * and # indicate a significantly different OD compared to the control ($p < 0.05$) for the IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs, respectively



the other L-Lys@IONs concentration groups. Interestingly, the OD achieved at an IONs@APTES concentration of 100 µg/mL and 200 µg/mL and a L-Lys@IONs concentration of 500 µg/mL and 600 µg/mL is almost equivalent.

The ANOVA assessment demonstrated that the difference in the OD between all ION concentration groups is not statistically significant for the IONs@APTES ($p = 0.106$) but is statistically significant for the L-Lys@IONs ($p = 0.038$). The OD achieved at each NP concentration for both forms of amino acid coatings was also compared with the control using a *t*-test. It was determined that the OD obtained for an IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs concentration of 200 µg/mL and 500 µg/mL, respectively, were appreciably higher than the untreated cells ($p = 0.018$ for the IONs@APTES and $p = 0.004$ for the L-Lys@IONs). The ANOVA results also established a statistically significant difference ($p = 0.028$) in the OD measurements between the different concentrations of IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs when considered together, implying that the nature of the amino acid coating influences bacterial growth.

The response of microbial cells to immobilisation with magnetic IONs is often variable and tends to differ among Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacterial strains, possibly as a result of the dissimilarities in their cell wall structure, metabolic characteristics, and cellular composition [58]. The exact nature of the interaction between IONs and bacterial cells is determined by several factors, such as the characteristics of the IONs, bacterial species, and culture conditions [59, 60]. Possible outcomes encompass alteration in cell growth, changes in cell shape and morphology, variation in membrane permeability, induced gene expression, permeation of IONs into the microbial cell membrane, and the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) [58, 60]. It has been observed that IONs do not demonstrate substantial antibacterial activity against Gram-positive bacteria, and stimulation or inhibition of growth occurs depending on the concentration of NPs [58]. Furthermore, in our previous

study [54], *B. subtilis natto* (Gram-positive) growth was either stimulated or inhibited at different concentrations of uncoated IONs; however, an insignificant difference in the OD measurements between the various NP concentration groups suggested that IONs have negligible antibacterial activity against *B. subtilis natto*.

Overall, the OD values attained in the present investigation for both types of amine-functionalised IONs are substantially greater than that achieved in our earlier study [54], which explored uncoated IONs in a similar context. Ebrahiminezhad et al. [39] considered the influence of L-Lys@IONs on microbial growth, and it was determined that while bacterial immobilisation reduced cell growth by approximately 16% at the end of fermentation, the difference in the OD between the NP concentrations assessed was not significant. However, Ebrahiminezhad et al. [39] examined a lower band of L-Lys@IONs concentrations (0–150 µg/mL) and evaluated bacterial growth using the plate count method over 5 days of fermentation. Despite these minor differences, the findings of this study are essentially similar to the current investigation, as it was determined that L-Lys@IONs do not have a significant negative impact on bacterial growth. It is also worth mentioning that the NP concentrations explored by Ebrahiminezhad et al. [39] are within the range of concentrations in this study for which a decline in the OD occurred (0–200 µg/mL). On the other hand, Ranmadugala et al. [53] examined the effect of different concentrations of IONs@APTES (0–700 µg/mL) on *B. subtilis* growth. It was seen that the cell density increased with an increase in the IONs@APTES concentration up to 500 µg/mL, where it reached a maximum, and a decrease in the OD was seen at higher concentrations (600 and 700 µg/mL). A similar trend in the OD measurements was observed in the present investigation, except the maximum cell density was obtained at a lower IONs@APTES concentration (200 µg/mL). This disparity may be assigned to the different

fermentation media and operating conditions employed in each study.

Moreover, it is intriguing that despite the higher cell densities attained from fermentation with the IONs@APTES in comparison to the naked IONs synthesised in our earlier investigation [54], the size of both types of NPs is the same (7–20 nm, with an average particle size of 11 nm). It is likely that the biocompatible amino acid (APTES) coating on the surface of the IONs@APTES decreases the toxicity of these NPs and results in more favourable interactions with *B. subtilis natto* cells. The L-Lys@IONs have a much smaller particle size (4–10 nm, with an average particle size of 7 nm) than the IONs@APTES and the naked IONs from our initial investigation (7–20 nm, with an average particle size of 11 nm) [54]. Certain amino acids in the reaction mixture can inhibit the growth of magnetite NPs during synthesis, resulting in smaller-sized particles, and this effect is more profound for L-Lys [57]. It has been suggested that the size of IONs influences their antimicrobial properties and toxicity towards microbial cells [59]. Smaller particles tend to have greater antimicrobial capacity, as they can easily penetrate the bacterial cell membrane relative to larger particles due to their greater surface-area-to-volume ratio, which substantially enhances their interaction with bacterial cells [59, 61, 62]. Penetration of IONs into the microbial cell can lead to membrane damage and cell inactivation through various mechanisms, primarily oxidative stress mediated by the generation of ROS (can cause DNA damage, mitochondrial impairment, lipid peroxidation, cell membrane disruption, and the oxidation of biological macromolecules), the release of metal ions (can react with the bacterial membrane and other cellular components), and the physical disruption of the cell membrane and cellular transport processes [59, 62, 63]. Nevertheless, although the L-Lys@IONs are considerably smaller than the other two types of IONs, they did not negatively affect the cell density. Also, the OD values for the L-Lys@IONs were noticeably higher than those for the uncoated IONs. This demonstrates the value of the L-Lys coating, as it reduces the antimicrobial characteristics of the NPs and significantly enhances their biocompatibility, mitigating the adverse consequences of their small particle size.

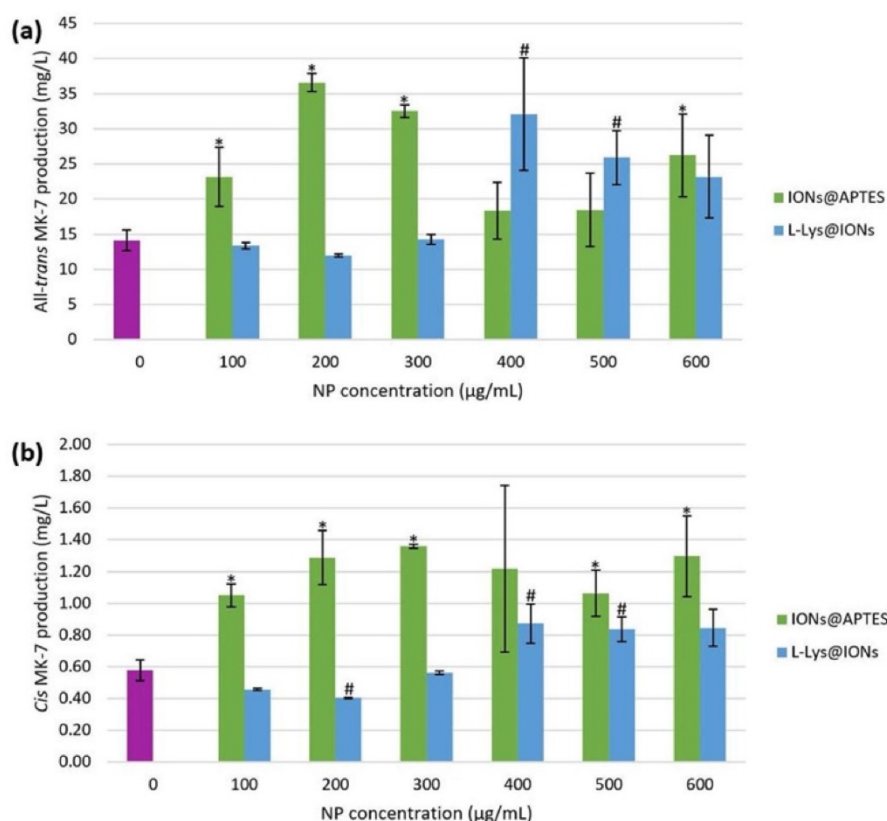
Collectively, the outcomes of the current investigation and prior studies imply that biocompatible amino acid coatings promote beneficial interactions with bacterial cells, thus reducing harmful effects on cell growth and viability. Therefore, immobilisation of *B. subtilis natto* cells with biocompatible amine-functionalised IONs does not have a negative impact on bacterial growth. Preserving the growth and metabolism of the bacteria is advantageous to enhance MK-7 synthesis and the yield of the vitamin.

The Effect of Biocompatible IONs on the Production of All-*Trans* and *Cis* MK-7 Isomers

The influence of bacterial cell immobilisation with different concentrations of biocompatible IONs on MK-7 isomer production was assessed, and the results are outlined in Fig. 8. For the APTES-coated NPs, the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer increased with an increase in the IONs@APTES concentration to a maximum of 36.57 mg/L at a NP concentration of 200 µg/mL, and a marginally lower concentration (32.51 mg/L) was attained at an IONs@APTES concentration of 300 µg/mL. The all-*trans* MK-7 concentration was appreciably lower for the 400 and 500 µg/mL groups, and a slightly greater all-*trans* isomer concentration (26.24 mg/L) was obtained at the highest NP concentration. A similar trend was observed for the *cis* MK-7 concentration, except the maximum *cis* concentration was achieved at an IONs@APTES concentration of 300 µg/mL. Conversely, for the L-Lys-functionalised IONs, a comparable all-*trans* isomer concentration was obtained at a NP concentration of 0–300 µg/mL. Considerably greater all-*trans* MK-7 production was observed at higher concentrations of L-Lys@IONs (400–600 µg/mL), almost twice that attained at the lower concentrations. The greatest all-*trans* MK-7 concentration (32.08 mg/L) occurred at a L-Lys@IONs concentration of 400 µg/mL. Production of the *cis* isomer also followed a similar pattern, but the difference in the *cis* MK-7 concentration achieved between the low and high NP concentration groups was not as substantial.

The ANOVA evaluation indicated a statistically significant difference in all-*trans* MK-7 production between the different concentration groups for both kinds of amine-functionalised IONs ($p=0.007$ for the IONs@APTES and $p=0.032$ for the L-Lys@IONs). The ANOVA results also determined a statistically insignificant difference in the *cis* isomer concentration between the various IONs@APTES concentration groups ($p=0.205$), while that for the L-Lys@IONs was significant ($p=0.003$). However, it is important to appreciate that the production of both isomers in the presence of IONs@APTES was greater than the control, whereas the MK-7 isomer concentration achieved at specific concentrations of the L-Lys@IONs was less than the control. A *t*-test comparison of each NP concentration group with the control for both types of coated IONs revealed that relative to the untreated cells, all-*trans* isomer production was significantly greater for an IONs@APTES concentration of 100 µg/mL, 200 µg/mL, 300 µg/mL, and 600 µg/mL and a L-Lys@IONs concentration of 400 µg/mL and 500 µg/mL. In contrast, the *cis* MK-7 concentration was significantly higher than the control for an IONs@APTES concentration of 100 µg/mL, 200 µg/mL, 300 µg/mL, 500 µg/mL, and 600 µg/mL and a L-Lys@IONs concentration of 400 µg/mL

Fig. 8 Isomer production in the presence of various concentrations of amine-functionalised IONs, where * and # indicate a significantly different **a** all-*trans* MK-7 and **b** *cis* MK-7 concentration in comparison to the control ($p < 0.05$) for the IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs, respectively



and 500 µg/mL, while that for a L-Lys@IONs concentration of 200 µg/mL was significantly lower than the free cells.

These observations are supported by the findings of Ranmadugala et al. [53] and Ebrahimezhad et al. [39], who have explored MK-7 production during fermentation with *B. subtilis natto* cells immobilised with IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs, respectively. The MK-7 concentration achieved was greater than the control for all IONs@APTES concentrations (0–700 µg/mL) considered by Ranmadugala et al. [53], whereas Ebrahimezhad et al. [39] obtained a slightly lower MK-7 concentration for the immobilised bacteria (0–150 µg/mL) compared to the untreated cells on each day of fermentation. In addition, Ranmadugala et al. [53] noted significantly greater MK-7 production than the control for an IONs@APTES concentration of 200 µg/mL and 300 µg/mL, which is consistent with this investigation. The MK-7 concentration attained at these IONs@APTES concentrations (around 30 mg/L) is also similar to the all-*trans* isomer concentration obtained in this study for the same IONs@APTES concentrations (36.57 mg/L for 200 µg/mL and 32.51 mg/L for 300 µg/mL). Ebrahimezhad et al. [39] achieved a final MK-7 concentration of 10.80 mg/L, 11.57 mg/L, and 11.56 mg/L for a L-Lys@IONs concentration of 50 µg/mL, 100 µg/

mL, and 150 µg/mL, respectively, and all of these were marginally lower than the control (11.80 mg/L). These outcomes support the results of the current investigation for the same range of L-Lys@IONs concentrations (0–200 µg/mL). In this study, an all-*trans* MK-7 concentration of 14.13 mg/L was obtained for the free-floating cells, which was slightly higher than the cells immobilised with 100 µg/mL (13.33 mg/L) and 200 µg/mL (11.96 mg/L) of L-Lys@IONs.

Holistically, the experimental findings suggest noticeable variation in the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 but not the *cis* isomer between all IONs@APTES concentrations examined. On the contrary, there is a considerable difference in the production of both isomers between all investigated concentrations of L-Lys@IONs. However, when evaluating the effect of bacterial cell immobilisation on the MK-7 isomer concentration by comparing the untreated cells with those immobilised with various concentrations of amine-functionalised IONs, it is apparent that certain concentrations of L-Lys@IONs impair all-*trans* MK-7 production, which is undesirable. Therefore, IONs@APTES are preferable, as production of the bioactive isomer was enhanced in comparison to the control (free cells) at all NP concentrations explored.

The Impact of Coated IONs on the MK-7 Isomer Yield

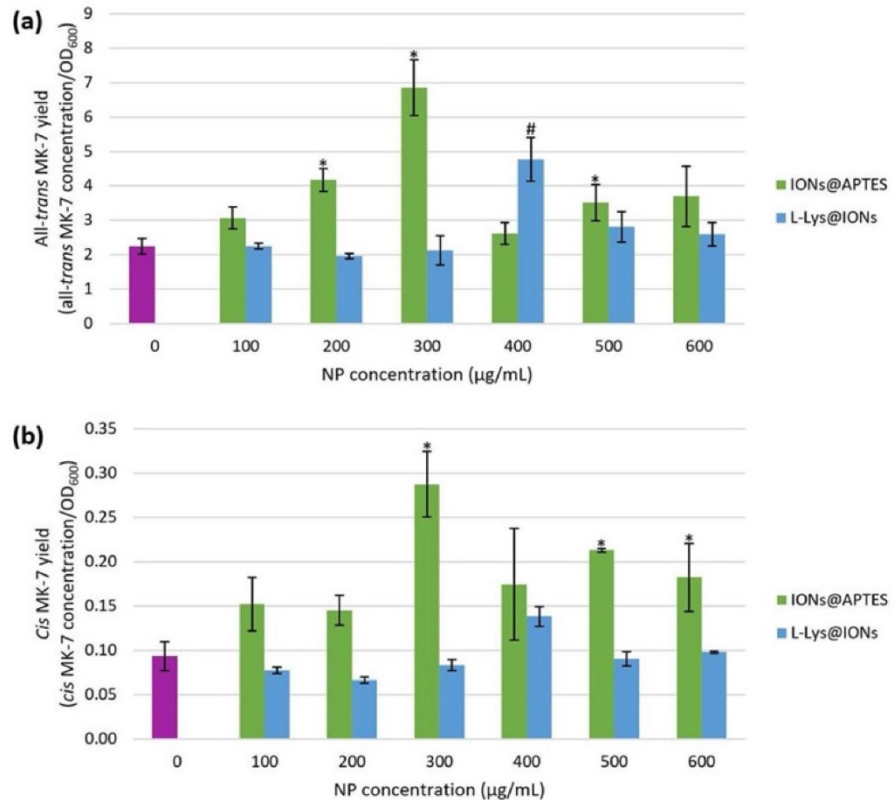
The effect of bacterial cell immobilisation with amine-functionalised IONs on fermentation productivity was evaluated by determining the isomer yield. Figure 9 illustrates the effect of the different concentrations of IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs on the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 yield. The yield of the two isomers for both types of coated IONs depicted a bell-shaped pattern. For the IONs@APTES, the isomer yield was modest for low (0–200 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) and high (400–600 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) ION concentrations, and the maximum yield was obtained at a concentration of 300 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. A similar trend was noted for the L-Lys@IONs, except the greatest yield of both isomers occurred at a concentration of 400 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.

From the ANOVA test, it was established that a statistically significant difference exists in the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 yield between all NP concentrations that were considered for both kinds of coated IONs (all-*trans* isomer: $p=0.001$ for the IONs@APTES and $p=0.001$ for the L-Lys@IONs; *cis* isomer: $p=0.029$ for the IONs@APTES and $p=0.014$ for the L-Lys@IONs). A *t*-test comparison of the various NP concentrations with the control for each type of amine-functionalised ION indicated that the yield of the all-*trans* MK-7 isomer was significantly higher than the untreated cells for an IONs@APTES concentration of

200 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, 300 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, and 500 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and an L-Lys@IONs concentration of 400 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. In addition, the *cis* MK-7 yield was significantly higher than the free cells for an IONs@APTES concentration of 300 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, 500 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, and 600 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, whereas, for the L-Lys@IONs, the difference in the *cis* isomer yield between the control and the remaining concentration groups was insignificant.

It is evident that generally, the yield of the bioactive isomer was higher for the IONs@APTES compared to the L-Lys@IONs. The maximum all-*trans* MK-7 yield obtained for the IONs@APTES (300 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) was 3.1-fold more than the untreated cells (0 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) and 1.4-fold greater than the highest all-*trans* isomer yield for the L-Lys@IONs (400 $\mu\text{g/mL}$). Ranmadugala et al. [53] also noted a significantly higher MK-7 yield at an IONs@APTES concentration of 200 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and 300 $\mu\text{g/mL}$; however, in contrast to our findings, the maximum yield occurred at 200 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. Ebrahiminezhad et al. [39] also observed a significantly greater MK-7 yield from fermentation with bacterial cells immobilised with L-Lys@IONs relative to the control. Furthermore, the yield of the biologically effective isomer achieved in the current investigation with 300 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ of IONs@APTES and 400 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ of L-Lys@IONs was 2.1- and 1.4-fold higher than that obtained for

Fig. 9 The influence of bacterial cell immobilisation with bio-compatible IONs on the isomer yield, where * and # indicate a significantly different **a** all-*trans* MK-7 and **b** *cis* MK-7 yield relative to the control ($p < 0.05$) for the IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs, respectively



the optimum concentration of naked IONs (300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) in our previous study [54], respectively.

It has been proposed that microbial cells immobilised with IONs have better metabolic efficiency due to the non-specific bonding associations between the NPs and the bacterial cell surface. These interactions disrupt the lipid layer of the bacterial cell membrane and increase its permeability, aiding mass transfer and enhancing the secretion of all-*trans* MK-7 into the fermentation broth [53, 59]. This improves the yield of the bioactive isomer and boosts the fermentation productivity. The superior all-*trans* isomer yield resulting from bacterial cell immobilisation with amine-functionalised IONs compared to uncoated IONs can be credited to the biocompatible APTES and L-Lys coatings, which enhance the production of biologically effective MK-7 and have a positive influence on cell growth and metabolism.

Moreover, it is worthwhile to recognise that both the production and yield of bioactive MK-7 have a direct relationship with the production and yield of the *cis* isomer. Accordingly, greater production and yield of the all-*trans* isomer correlates with higher production and yield of the *cis* isomer. While the yield of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 was considerably greater for the optimal concentration of IONs@APTES (300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) and L-Lys@IONs (400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$), the fraction of the overall yield for each geometric isomer was comparable to the remaining concentration groups and the untreated cells for each type of coated ION. This indicates that although there is a noticeable difference in the isomer yield between the optimum concentration of IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs and the other concentration groups for

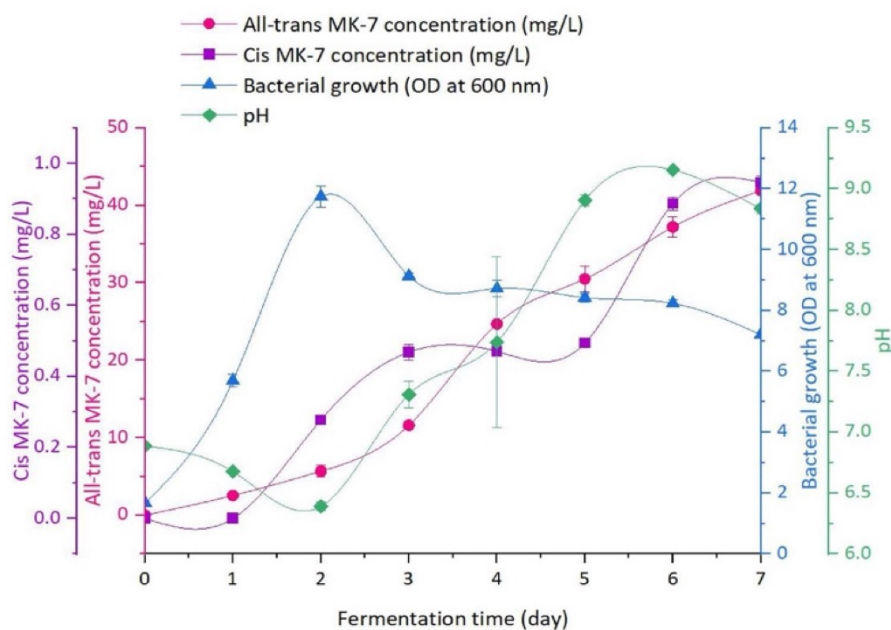
both amine-functionalised IONs, the portion of the total yield for each isomer did not differ significantly. Therefore, bacterial cell immobilisation with the ideal concentration of IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs significantly improves the fermentation yield of the desirable isomer relative to the free cells without enhancing the proportional yield of redundant by-products, which is beneficial.

Monitoring Study Employing the Optimal IONs@APTES Concentration

Of the two biocompatible amine-functionalised IONs that were evaluated, IONs@APTES were superior, as immobilisation of *B. subtilis natto* cells with IONs@APTES improved both the production and yield of the biologically significant isomer. Additionally, IONs@APTES have the ability to decrease biofilm formation, a prevalent issue in industrial fermentation, without any detrimental impact on cell growth and viability [64]. A comparable concentration of the all-*trans* isomer was obtained at an IONs@APTES concentration of 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ and 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$; however, the yield of all-*trans* MK-7 was approximately 64% greater for an IONs@APTES concentration of 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$. Consequently, 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ was determined to be the optimal IONs@APTES concentration to increase the production of bioactive MK-7, preserve microbial growth and metabolism, reduce biofilm formation, lessen production expenses, and enhance the efficiency of the fermentation process.

Figure 10 demonstrates the variation in all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 production, bacterial growth, and pH during a

Fig. 10 Trends in the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer profile, microbial growth, and pH during a monitoring study utilising the optimal IONs@APTES concentration (the error bars represent the SE calculated from triplicate samples for each response)



monitoring analysis using the optimum concentration of IONs@APTES. The trend in the OD illustrates the characteristic microbial growth profile, comprising all four stages of bacterial growth (lag, exponential, stationary, and death). The cell density progressively rose from an initial OD of 1.68 to 5.69 on day 1 before rapidly escalating to a peak value of 11.74 on day 2 of fermentation. The OD subsequently dropped to 9.13 on day 3 and levelled off (8.73–8.24) until day 6, attaining a final value of 7.21 at the conclusion of fermentation.

Production of the all-*trans* and *cis* isomer corresponded to the microbial growth curve, and the rate at which this occurred varied depending on the phase of bacterial growth. Synthesis of all-*trans* MK-7 began from day 0 and gradually increased from 0 to 11.62 mg/L until the stationary phase (day 3). The bulk of the all-*trans* isomer was produced during the stationary period (days 3 to 6), and its concentration continued to increase through to the beginning of the death phase (from day 6), reaching a value of 41.93 mg/L on day 7 of the monitoring study. In contrast, production of the *cis* isomer was first noted on day 2 (0.28 mg/L), and its concentration remained reasonably constant (0.47–0.49 mg/L) between days 3 and 5. The *cis* MK-7 concentration then rapidly increased to 0.89 mg/L on day 6, and a final concentration of 0.95 mg/L was achieved on the last day of fermentation. It appears that a minimal amount of both isomers (approximately 6.06% and 0% of the total all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7, respectively) is synthesised during the lag phase, a slightly greater concentration (around 7.50% and 29.35% of the total all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7, respectively) is observed during the exponential growth stage, and the most significant quantity (roughly 75.23% and 64.38% of the total all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7, respectively) is produced during the stationary phase. A small fraction of each isomer (about 11.21% and 6.28% of the total all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7, respectively) was also noticed during the death phase, which likely commenced on day 6. It is valuable to mention that, unlike this study, the death segment did not occur during the monitoring analyses conducted in our preceding investigations [41, 54], which employed similar fermentation conditions and also considered bacterial cell immobilisation with uncoated IONs [54]. In these studies, fermentation was usually concluded before the death stage to prevent the MK-7 in the fermentation broth from being degraded due to contact with proteases and other cellular constituents released during cell rupture. In the current investigation, it is likely that immobilisation with IONs@APTES enhanced the growth and metabolism of *B. subtilis natto*, decreasing the length of each stage of microbial growth. Thus, the death phase began earlier than our previous studies and was observed during the monitoring period. Overall, the trends and observations from this investigation are

consistent with prior accounts and demonstrate that MK-7 is a mixed metabolite, as its production partially depends on bacterial growth [10, 41, 54, 65–67].

The pH of the medium varied over the time-course study, increasing from a starting value of 6.89 to 8.84 at the completion of the monitoring investigation. The rise in the medium pH during the fermentation process can be ascribed to proteolysis and the consequent release of ammonia, which occurs when the bacterium utilises proteins as a source of energy [40, 67, 68]. Despite the overall increase in the pH, it first declined to the lowest value of 6.39 on day 2 and increased to a maximum of 9.16 on day 6 before decreasing to the final value on day 7. The fluctuation in the pH can be associated with the changes in the OD and, hence, the stages of the bacterial growth curve. It is evident that the pH gradually decreased with an increase in the OD between days 0 and 2, and the lowest pH (6.39) occurred when the peak OD (11.74) was attained on day 2. The pH then increased during the stationary growth phase to the highest value (9.16) on day 6 and decreased to the final value between days 6 and 7, corresponding to the decline in the OD (death stage). The change in the pH profile and its correlation with the OD is accordant with previous reports and can be attributed to the metabolic activities of *B. subtilis natto* during the different stages of microbial growth [40, 41, 54, 67].

Ranmadugala et al. [53] also carried out a time-course fermentation study to evaluate the impact of IONs@APTES on MK-7 production, bacterial growth, and pH. While the IONs@APTES concentration differed (200 µg/mL) from the current investigation (300 µg/mL), the general trends were similar. The final MK-7 concentration achieved by Ranmadugala et al. [53] (37.36 mg/L) was slightly lower than the all-*trans* isomer concentration obtained in the present study (41.93 mg/L), indicating the excellent ability of an IONs@APTES concentration of 300 µg/mL to boost the concentration of the biologically effective MK-7 isomer. The maximum cell density reported by Ranmadugala et al. [53] (42.93) was considerably greater than that in the current investigation (11.74). This disparity may be assigned to the different IONs@APTES concentrations examined (200 µg/mL versus 300 µg/mL) and the interval over which measurements were taken during the fermentation period (every 12 h for 120 h versus every day for 7 days). Furthermore, in this study, a higher OD was achieved at the conclusion of fermentation for an IONs@APTES concentration of 200 µg/mL (8.88) than 300 µg/mL (4.96). Thus, a peak OD similar to Ranmadugala et al. [53] may have been obtained when employing an IONs@APTES concentration of 200 µg/mL for the monitoring study. However, 300 µg/mL was determined to be the optimal IONs@APTES concentration in the present investigation, as it resulted in a superior yield of the all-*trans* isomer.

In addition, the findings of this study are comparable to our earlier investigation [54], which examined uncoated IONs in a similar context, except a higher peak OD and final all-*trans* MK-7 concentration were attained from fermentation using *B. subtilis natto* cells immobilised with IONs@APTES. In particular, the maximum OD and concentration of the bioactive isomer obtained from fermentation with IONs@APTES were 19.71% and 45.66% greater than that achieved in the presence of naked IONs, respectively.

Collectively, these observations indicate that bacterial cell immobilisation with IONs containing a biocompatible APTES coating has a favourable impact on the growth and metabolism of *B. subtilis natto* and serves to enhance the metabolic efficiency of the cells, thereby increasing the concentration of the bioactive isomer and the productivity of the fermentation process.

Conclusions

This investigation was the first to explore the effect of bacterial cell immobilisation with biocompatible amine-functionalised IONs on the concentration and yield of the all-*trans* and *cis* isomers of MK-7 achieved from fermentation. IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs were synthesised and characterised, and the IONs@APTES resulted in better outcomes. Immobilisation of *B. subtilis natto* cells with the optimal IONs@APTES concentration (300 µg/mL) enhanced both the production and yield of the biologically functional isomer relative to the untreated cells by 2.3- and 3.1-fold, respectively. The results of this study offer new perspectives for developing novel production methods tailored to favour the synthesis of the bioactive isomer and address the challenges of MK-7 fermentation. These advancements have the ability to streamline the fermentation system and lower manufacturing costs. This will increase the affordability of biologically efficacious MK-7 consumer end products, and their improved availability will help boost the dietary intake of all-*trans* MK-7, providing consumers with numerous health gains and easing the socioeconomic effects of an ageing global population.

Acknowledgements The authors are grateful to the SEM facility at The University of Waikato for support with the SEM analysis.

Author Contributions AB and MS conceptualised this investigation. NL, MS, and AB developed the associated methodology. The investigation and characterisation studies were carried out by NL and AE, respectively. Formal analysis was conducted by NL, MS, AE, and AB, and NL and AE visualised the data. NL validated the results, and the data were curated by NL, MS, and AB. NL prepared the original draft, and NL, MS, and AB reviewed and edited the paper. All authors have read and approved the manuscript.

Funding Open Access funding was enabled and organised by CAUL and its Member Institutions. This research received no external funding.

Data Availability All relevant data that support the findings of this research are included in this article.

Declarations

Competing Interests All authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Ethical Approval This article does not contain studies involving human or animal participants.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

References

1. Azuma, K., & Inoue, S. (2019). Multiple modes of vitamin K actions in aging-related musculoskeletal disorders. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 20(11), 2844. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20112844>
2. Shearer, M. J. (1995). Vitamin K. *The Lancet*, 345(8944), 229–234. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(95\)90227-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(95)90227-9)
3. Tarvainen, M., Fabritius, M., & Yang, B. (2019). Determination of vitamin K composition of fermented food. *Food Chemistry*, 275, 515–522. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.09.136>
4. Woollard, D. C., Indyk, H. E., Fong, B. Y., & Cook, K. K. (2002). Determination of vitamin K1 isomers in foods by liquid chromatography with C30 bonded-phase column. *Journal of AOAC International*, 85(3), 682–691.
5. Basset, G., Latimer, S., Fatihi, A., Soubeyrand, E., & Block, A. (2017). Phylloquinone (vitamin K1): Occurrence, biosynthesis and functions. *Mini-Reviews in Medicinal Chemistry*, 17(12), 1028–1038.
6. Booth, S. L. (2012). Vitamin K: Food composition and dietary intakes. *Food and Nutrition Research*, 56(1), 5505.
7. Daines, A. M., Payne, R. J., Humphries, M. E., & Abell, A. D. (2003). The synthesis of naturally occurring vitamin K and vitamin K analogues. *Current Organic Chemistry*, 7(16), 1625–1634.
8. Szterk, A., Zmysłowski, A., & Bus, K. (2018). Identification of *cis/trans* isomers of menaquinone-7 in food as exemplified by dietary supplements. *Food Chemistry*, 243, 403–409. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.10.001>
9. European Food Safety Authority. (2008). Vitamin K2 added for nutritional purposes in foods for particular nutritional uses, food supplements and foods intended for the general population and Vitamin K2 as a source of vitamin K added for nutritional purposes to foodstuffs, in the context of Regulation (EC)

- N° 258/97-Scientific Opinion of the Panel on Dietetic Products, Nutrition and Allergies. *EFSA Journal*, 6(11), 822.
10. Lal, N., Seifan, M., Novin, D., & Berenjian, A. (2019). Development of a Menaquinone-7 enriched product through the solid-state fermentation of *Bacillus licheniformis*. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology*, 19, 101172. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2019.101172>
 11. Patti, A., Gennari, L., Merlotti, D., Dotta, F., & Nuti, R. (2013). Endocrine actions of osteocalcin. *International Journal of Endocrinology*, 2013, 846480–846490. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/846480>
 12. Scheiber, D., Veulemans, V., Horn, P., Chatrou, M., Potthoff, S., Kelm, M., Schurgers, L., & Westenfeld, R. (2015). High-dose menaquinone-7 supplementation reduces cardiovascular calcification in a murine Model of extraosseous calcification. *Nutrients*, 7(8), 6991–7011. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu7085318>
 13. Fusaro, M., Gallieni, M., Porta, C., Nickolas, T. L., & Khairallah, P. (2020). Vitamin K effects in human health: New insights beyond bone and cardiovascular health. *Journal of Nephrology*, 33(2), 239–249. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40620-019-00685-0>
 14. Halder, M., Petsophonsakul, P., Akbulut, A., Pavlic, A., Bohan, F., Anderson, E., Maresz, K., Kramann, R., & Schurgers, L. (2019). Vitamin K: Double bonds beyond coagulation insights into differences between vitamin K1 and K2 in health and disease. *International Journal of Molecular Science*, 20(4), 896. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20040896>
 15. Juanola-Falgarona, M., Salas-Salvadó, J., Martínez-González, M. Á., Corella, D., Estruch, R., Ros, E., Fitó, M., Arós, F., Gómez-Gracia, E., Fiol, M., Lapetra, J., Basora, J., Lamuela-Raventós, R. M., Serra-Majem, L., Pintó, X., Muñoz, M. Á., Ruiz-Gutiérrez, V., Fernández-Ballart, J., & Bulló, M. (2014). Dietary intake of vitamin K is inversely associated with mortality risk. *Journal of Nutrition*, 144(5), 743–750. <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.113.187740>
 16. Karamzad, N., Maleki, V., Carson-Chahhoud, K., Azizi, S., Sahebkar, A., & Gargari, B. P. (2020). A systematic review on the mechanisms of vitamin K effects on the complications of diabetes and pre-diabetes. *BioFactors*, 46(1), 21–37. <https://doi.org/10.1002/biof.1569>
 17. Schwallenbergh, G. K. (2017). Vitamins K1 and K2: The emerging group of vitamins required for human health. *Journal of Nutrition and Metabolism*, 2017, 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/6254836>
 18. Tarkesh, F., Namavar Jahromi, B., Hejazi, N., & Tabatabaee, H. (2020). Beneficial health effects of Menaquinone-7 on body composition, glycemic indices, lipid profile, and endocrine markers in polycystic ovary syndrome patients. *Food Science and Nutrition*, 8(10), 5612–5621. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fsn3.1837>
 19. Xv, F., Chen, J., Duan, L., & Li, S. (2018). Research progress on the anticancer effects of vitamin K2. *Oncology Letters*, 15(6), 8926–8934. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ol.2018.8502>
 20. Anastasi, E., Ialongo, C., Labriola, R., Ferraguti, G., Lucarelli, M., & Angeloni, A. (2020). Vitamin K deficiency and covid-19. *Scandinavian Journal of Clinical Laboratory Investigation*, 80(7), 525–527. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00365513.2020.1805122>
 21. Berenjian, A., & Sarabadani, Z. (2020). How menaquinone-7 deficiency influences mortality and morbidity among COVID-19 patients. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology*, 29, 101792. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2020.101792>
 22. Dofferhoff, A. S. M., Piscaer, I., Schurgers, L. J., Visser, M. P. J., van den Ouweland, J. M. W., de Jong, P. A., Gosens, R., Hackeng, T. M., van Daal, H., Lux, P., Maassen, C., Karssemeijer, E. G. A., Vermeer, C., Wouters, E. F. M., Kistemaker, L. E. M., Walk, J., & Janssen, R. (2021). Reduced vitamin K status as a potentially modifiable risk factor of severe COVID-19. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 73(11), 4039–4046. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1258>
 23. Vik, H. (2020). Vitamin K2: A Clinically Proven Cardio-Protective Powerhouse: Known for bone-support benefits, vitamin K2 as MK-7 has also been recognized as vital for heart health. *Nutraceuticals World*, 23(1), 44.
 24. Akbulut, A. C., Pavlic, A., Petsophonsakul, P., Halder, M., Maresz, K., Kramann, R., & Schurgers, L. (2020). Vitamin K2 needs an RDI separate from vitamin K1. *Nutrients*, 12(6), 1852. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu12061852>
 25. Berenjian, A., Mahanama, R., Talbot, A., Regtop, H., Kavanagh, J., & Dehghani, F. (2012). Advances in menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto: Fed-batch glycerol addition. *American Journal of Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 8(2), 105–110.
 26. Berenjian, A., Mahanama, R., Talbot, A., Regtop, H., Kavanagh, J., & Dehghani, F. (2013). Designing of an intensification process for biosynthesis and recovery of menaquinone-7. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 172(3), 1347–1357.
 27. Sitkowski, J., Bocian, W., & Sztzerk, A. (2018). The application of multidimensional NMR analysis to cis/trans isomers study of menaquinone-7 (vitamine K2MK-7), identification of the (E, Z3, E2, ω)-menaquinone-7 isomer in dietary supplements. *Journal of Molecular Structure*, 1171, 449–457. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molstruc.2018.06.029>
 28. Sztzerk, A., Bus, K., Zmysłowski, A., & Ofiara, K. (2018). Analysis of menaquinone-7 content and impurities in oil and non-oil dietary supplements. *Molecules*, 23(5), 1056. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules23051056>
 29. Lowenthal, J., & Rivera, G. V. (1979). Comparison of the activity of the cis and trans isomer of vitamin K1 in vitamin K-deficient and coumarin anticoagulant-pretreated rats. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 209(3), 330–333.
 30. Lal, N., & Berenjian, A. (2020). Cis and trans isomers of the vitamin menaquinone-7: Which one is biologically significant? *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 104(7), 2765–2776. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-020-10409-1>
 31. Cirilli, I., Orlando, P., Silvestri, S., Marcheggiani, F., Dlodla, P. V., Kaesler, N., & Tiano, L. (2022). Carboxylative efficacy of trans and cis MK7 and comparison with other vitamin K isomers. *BioFactors*, 48(5), 1129–1136. <https://doi.org/10.1002/biof.1844>
 32. Baj, A., Walejko, P., Kutner, A., Kaczmarek, L., Morzycki, J. W., & Witkowski, S. (2016). Convergent synthesis of menaquinone-7 (MK-7). *Organic Process Research and Development*, 20(6), 1026–1033. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.oprd.6b00037>
 33. Braasch-Turi, M., & Crans, D. C. (2020). Synthesis of naphthoquinone derivatives: Menaquinones, lipoquinones and other vitamin K derivatives. *Molecules*, 25(19), 4477. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules25194477>
 34. Sato, K., Inoue, S., & Saito, K. (1973). A new synthesis of vitamin K via π -allylnickel intermediates. *Journal of the Chemical Society*, 1, 2289–2293. <https://doi.org/10.1039/P19730002289>
 35. Snyder, C. D., & Rapoport, H. (1974). Synthesis of Menaquinones. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 96(26), 8046–8054. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ja00833a035>
 36. Yuan, P., Cui, S., Liu, Y., Li, J., Du, G., & Liu, L. (2020). Metabolic engineering for the production of fat-soluble vitamins: Advances and perspectives. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 104(3), 935–951. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-019-10157-x>
 37. Kang, M.-J., Baek, K.-R., Lee, Y.-R., Kim, G.-H., & Seo, S.-O. (2022). Production of vitamin K by wild-type and engineered microorganisms. *Microorganisms*, 10(3), 554. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms10030554>
 38. Ebrahiminezhad, A., Varma, V., Yang, S., & Berenjian, A. (2015). Magnetic immobilization of *Bacillus subtilis* natto cells for menaquinone-7 fermentation. *Applied Microbiology*

- and *Biotechnology*, 100(1), 173–180. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-015-6977-3>
39. Ebrahiminezhad, A., Varma, V., Yang, S., Ghasemi, Y., & Berenjian, A. (2015). Synthesis and application of amine functionalized iron oxide nanoparticles on menaquinone-7 fermentation: A step towards process intensification. *Nanomaterials*, 6(1), 1. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano6010001>
 40. Berenjian, A., Mahanama, R., Talbot, A., Biffin, R., Regtop, H., Valtchev, P., Kavanagh, J., & Dehghani, F. (2011). Efficient media for high menaquinone-7 production: Response surface methodology approach. *New Biotechnology*, 28(6), 665–672.
 41. Lal, N., Seifan, M., & Berenjian, A. (2022). Optimisation of the fermentation media to enhance the production of the bioactive isomer of vitamin menaquinone-7. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering*, 45(8), 1371–1390. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-022-02752-6>
 42. Luo, M.-M., Ren, L.-J., Chen, S.-L., Ji, X.-J., & Huang, H. (2016). Effect of media components and morphology of *Bacillus natto* on menaquinone-7 synthesis in submerged fermentation. *Biotechnology and Bioprocess Engineering*, 21(6), 777–786. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12257-016-0202-9>
 43. Mahanama, R., Berenjian, A., Talbot, A., Biffin, R., Regtop, H., Dehghani, F., & Kavanagh, J. (2011). Effects of inoculation loading and substrate bed thickness on the production of menaquinone 7 via solid state fermentation. *Cardiovascular Disorders*, 2(2), 19–22.
 44. Mahdinia, E., Demirci, A., & Berenjian, A. (2018). Implementation of fed-batch strategies for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in biofilm reactors. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 102(21), 9147–9157. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-018-9340-7>
 45. Puri, A., Iqbal, M., Zafar, R., & Panda, B. P. (2015). Influence of physical, chemical and inducer treatments on menaquinone-7 biosynthesis by *Bacillus subtilis* MTCC 2756. *Songklanakarin Journal of Science and Technology*, 37(3), 283–289.
 46. Singh, R., Puri, A., & Panda, B. (2015). Development of menaquinone-7 enriched nutraceutical: Inside into medium engineering and process modeling. *Journal of Food Science and Technology*, 52(8), 5212–5219. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-014-1600-7>
 47. Lal, N., Seifan, M., & Berenjian, A. (2022). The impact of key fermentation parameters on the production of the all-trans isomer of menaquinone-7. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology*, 46, 102548. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bcab.2022.102548>
 48. Mahdinia, E., Demirci, A., & Berenjian, A. (2017). Strain and plastic composite support (PCS) selection for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering*, 40(10), 1507–1517. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-017-1807-x>
 49. Buzea, C., Pacheco, I. I., & Robbie, K. (2007). Nanomaterials and nanoparticles: Sources and toxicity. *Biointerphases*, 2(4), MR17–MR71. <https://doi.org/10.1116/1.2815690>
 50. Durán, N., & Marcato, P. D. (2013). Nanobiotechnology perspectives. Role of nanotechnology in the food industry: A review. *International Journal of Food Science and Technology*, 48(6), 1127–1134. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijfs.12027>
 51. Nile, S. H., Baskar, V., Selvaraj, D., Nile, A., Xiao, J., & Kai, G. (2020). Nanotechnologies in food science: Applications, recent trends, and future perspectives. *Nano-Micro Letters*, 12(1), 45. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40820-020-0383-9>
 52. Taghizadeh, S.-M., Lal, N., Ebrahiminezhad, A., Moeini, F., Seifan, M., Ghasemi, Y., & Berenjian, A. (2020). Green and economic fabrication of zinc oxide (ZnO) nanorods as a broadband UV blocker and antimicrobial agent. *Nanomaterials*, 10(3), 530.
 53. Ranmadugala, D., Ebrahiminezhad, A., Manley-Harris, M., Ghasemi, Y., & Berenjian, A. (2017). Impact of 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane-coated iron oxide nanoparticles on menaquinone-7 production using *B. subtilis*. *Nanomaterials*, 7(11), 350. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano7110350>
 54. Lal, N., Seifan, M., Ebrahiminezhad, A., & Berenjian, A. (2023). The effect of iron oxide nanoparticles on the menaquinone-7 isomer composition and synthesis of the biologically significant all-trans isomer. *Nanomaterials*, 13(12), 1825. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano13121825>
 55. Ebrahiminezhad, A., Rasoul-Amini, S., Kouhpayeh, A., Davaran, S., Barar, J., & Ghasemi, Y. (2015). Impacts of amine functionalized iron oxide nanoparticles on HepG2 cell line. *Current Nanoscience*, 11(1), 113–119.
 56. Wang, H., Liu, H., Wang, L., Zhao, G., Tang, H., Sun, X., Ni, W., Yang, Q., Wang, P., & Zheng, Z. (2019). Improvement of menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis* natto in a novel residue-free medium by increasing the redox potential. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 103(18), 7519–7535. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-019-10044-5>
 57. Ebrahiminezhad, A., Ghasemi, Y., Rasoul-Amini, S., Barar, J., & Davaran, S. (2012). Impact of amino-acid coating on the synthesis and characteristics of iron-oxide nanoparticles (IONs). *Bulletin of the Korean Chemical Society*, 33(12), 3957–3962.
 58. Gabrielyan, L., Hovhannisyian, A., Gevorgyan, V., Ananyan, M., & Trchounian, A. (2019). Antibacterial effects of iron oxide (Fe₃O₄) nanoparticles: Distinguishing concentration-dependent effects with different bacterial cells growth and membrane-associated mechanisms. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 103(6), 2773–2782. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-019-09653-x>
 59. Ranmadugala, D., Ebrahiminezhad, A., Manley-Harris, M., Ghasemi, Y., & Berenjian, A. (2017). Iron oxide nanoparticles in modern microbiology and biotechnology. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology*, 43(4), 493–507. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1040841x.2016.1267708>
 60. Ranmadugala, D., Ebrahiminezhad, A., Manley-Harris, M., Ghasemi, Y., & Berenjian, A. (2018). Magnetic immobilization of bacteria using iron oxide nanoparticles. *Biotechnology Letters*, 40(2), 237–248. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10529-017-2477-0>
 61. Behera, S. S., Patra, J. K., Pramanik, K., Panda, N., & Thatoi, H. (2012). Characterization and evaluation of antibacterial activities of chemically synthesized iron oxide nanoparticles. *World Journal of Nano Science and Engineering*, 2, 196–200. <https://doi.org/10.4236/wjnse.2012.24026>
 62. Saqib, S., Munis, M. F. H., Zaman, W., Ullah, F., Shah, S. N., Ayaz, A., Farooq, M., & Bahadur, S. (2019). Synthesis, characterization and use of iron oxide nanoparticles for antibacterial activity. *Microscopy Research and Technique*, 82(4), 415–420.
 63. Gudkov, S. V., Burmistrov, D. E., Serov, D. A., Rebezov, M. B., Semenova, A. A., & Lisitsyn, A. B. (2021). Do iron oxide nanoparticles have significant antibacterial properties? *Antibiotics*, 10(7), 884.
 64. Ranmadugala, D., Ebrahiminezhad, A., Manley-Harris, M., Ghasemi, Y., & Berenjian, A. (2017). The effect of iron oxide nanoparticles on *Bacillus subtilis* biofilm, growth and viability. *Process Biochemistry*, 62, 231–240.
 65. Sato, T., Yamada, Y., Ohtani, Y., Mitsui, N., Murasawa, H., & Araki, S. (2001). Efficient production of menaquinone (vitamin K2) by a menadione-resistant mutant of *Bacillus subtilis*. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 26(3), 115–120.
 66. Song, J., Liu, H., Wang, L., Dai, J., Liu, Y., Liu, H., Zhao, G., Wang, P., & Zheng, Z. (2014). Enhanced production of vitamin K2 from *Bacillus subtilis* (natto) by mutation and optimization of the fermentation medium. *Brazilian Archives of Biology and Technology*, 57(4), 606–612.
 67. Xu, J.-Z., & Zhang, W.-G. (2017). Menaquinone-7 production from maize meal hydrolysate by *Bacillus* isolates with diphenylamine and analogue resistance. *Journal of Zhejiang University Science B*, 18(6), 462–473. <https://doi.org/10.1631/jzus.B1600127>

68. Novin, D., van der Wel, J., Seifan, M., & Berenjian, A. (2020). The effect of aeration and mixing in developing a dairy-based functional food rich in menaquinone-7. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering*, 43(10), 1773–1780. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-020-02366-w>

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

8

Fermentation of Menaquinone-7: The Influence of Environmental Factors and Storage Conditions on the Isomer Profile

A journal article published in

Processes

Volume 11, Issue 6, MDPI, 2023

By

N. Lal, M. Seifan, and A. Berenjian

Chapter 8 – Fermentation of Menquinone-7: The Influence of Environmental Factors and Storage Conditions on the Isomer Profile

This chapter extends from the fermentation-based production of MK-7 to analyse the quality of the final fermented product with respect to its isomer profile and quantity of the bioactive isomer. While it is important to ensure that the fermentation process itself is optimised to favour the production of the all-*trans* isomer, its concentration must also be maintained over the shelf life of fermented MK-7 dietary supplements and fortified or functional foods to guarantee that the finished product retains biological efficacy and is able to elicit its associated health benefits. Fermented MK-7 products are potentially exposed to several environments and subjected to various conditions during manufacture, transportation, and storage before they reach the consumer and during consumption. Therefore, it is essential to consider the effect of common environmental factors and storage conditions likely to be encountered by fermented MK-7 end products on the isomer composition and stability of all-*trans* MK-7.

Exposure to key environmental and storage conditions, primarily atmospheric oxygen, different temperatures, and light, were first evaluated in a short-term investigation to assess the influence of these factors on the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations over a short timeframe and determine the optimal storage environment. The conditions that resulted in the least deterioration of all-*trans* MK-7 in the initial study were further examined over a prolonged period to explore their effect on the stability of the biologically significant isomer during long-term storage.

This chapter and its findings conclude the overall study and offer unique insights into the factors that have a detrimental impact on the stability and concentration of the all-*trans* isomer in finished fermented products and, ultimately, influence the quality, biological efficacy, and therapeutic value of MK-7 dietary supplements and fortified or functional foods that reach the consumer.

Article

Fermentation of Menaquinone-7: The Influence of Environmental Factors and Storage Conditions on the Isomer Profile

Neha Lal¹, Mostafa Seifan¹  and Aydin Berenjian^{1,2,*}¹ School of Engineering, The University of Waikato, Hamilton 3240, New Zealand² Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80523, USA

* Correspondence: aydin.berenjian@waikato.ac.nz

Abstract: Menaquinone-7 (MK-7) provides significant health gains due to its excellent pharmacokinetic properties. However, MK-7 occurs at low concentrations in mainstream foods, heightening the demand for nutritional supplements. MK-7 exists as geometric isomers, and only all-*trans* MK-7 is bioactive. Exposure to certain environments impacts the isomer profile. Knowledge of these factors and their influence on the isomer composition is important, as the efficacy of fermented MK-7 end products is solely determined by the all-*trans* isomer. This investigation aimed to evaluate the short- and long-term effect of atmospheric oxygen, common temperatures, and light on the isomer profile. From the short-term study, it was ascertained that MK-7 is moderately heat-stable but extremely light-sensitive. The stability of all-*trans* MK-7 was then examined during 8 weeks of storage at a low temperature with minimal oxygen exposure in the absence of light. Negligible change in the all-*trans* MK-7 concentration occurred, suggesting it is reasonably stable during prolonged storage in this environment. These findings will aid the development of optimal storage conditions to preserve bioactive MK-7 in fermented nutritional supplements, the large-scale availability and consumption of which will help compensate for the dietary deficit of this essential vitamin and provide consumers with better health outcomes.

Keywords: menaquinone-7 isomer profile; bioactivity; fermentation; environmental factors; storage conditions



check for updates

Citation: Lal, N.; Seifan, M.; Berenjian, A. Fermentation of Menaquinone-7: The Influence of Environmental Factors and Storage Conditions on the Isomer Profile. *Processes* **2023**, *11*, 1816. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pr11061816>

Academic Editor: Ibrahim M. Abu-Reidah

Received: 24 May 2023

Revised: 9 June 2023

Accepted: 13 June 2023

Published: 15 June 2023



Copyright: © 2023 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

1. Introduction

The vitamin K family consists of a set of fat-soluble vitamins, namely vitamin K1 (phylloquinone), vitamin K2 (menaquinones), and vitamin K3 (menadione). The various K vitamers are structurally similar, as they all contain a 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone group [1]. However, they differ in the nature of an isoprenoid side chain at the 3-position, the length and degree of unsaturation of which confers unique properties to each kind of vitamin K [2]. Phylloquinone (PK) and menaquinones (MK) are the natural forms of the vitamin and play an essential role in human health and nutrition [3]. PK has one unsaturated and three saturated isoprenoid units in its side chain. It is ubiquitous within the chloroplasts of photosynthetic plants and algae, where it functions as an electron carrier during photosynthesis [2,4]. Therefore, PK can be consumed from a selection of everyday foods, including leafy greens, vegetable oils, and products resulting from such plant oils, and is the most abundant type of dietary vitamin K [4,5]. Conversely, MK are a series of compounds with isoprenoid chains of various lengths and degrees of unsaturation. The structure of the side chain can be represented by the format MK-*n*, where *n* is generally between four and thirteen and signifies the number of unsaturated isoprenoid residues in the chain [2]. MK are typically of microbial origin and are present in small quantities in specific animal, dairy, and fermented goods [2,5–8].

It is well-known that all vitamin K subtypes perform essential functions in the coagulation cascade and haemostasis. However, recent research has uncovered numerous other

roles and health gains of vitamin K. The intake of vitamin K₂, in particular, has been related to the maintenance of bone and cardiovascular health, the suppression of neurological conditions, the prevention of cancer, aiding the functional recovery of the liver, reducing the likelihood of many health disorders, and decreasing the morbidity and mortality linked to coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) [2,9–17].

MK-7 is the most notable vitamin K₂ isoform due to its superior physicochemical characteristics and long plasma half-life (72 h), which enhance its extrahepatic bioavailability and therapeutic value [17–19]. Despite the significant health gains associated with MK-7, obtaining sufficient levels of the vitamin from regular food products is challenging for most consumers, as it is present in insufficient concentrations in limited foods. Natto, a Japanese fermented soybean containing nearly 800–1000 µg of MK-7 per 100 g of natto, is the richest source of MK-7 [6,8,20]. However, owing to its strong flavour and pungent aroma, most individuals perceive natto as unappetising and, hence, it tends to be a niche product that is not universally consumed by all populations. The MK-7 concentration in other dietary sources that appeal to mainstream consumers is inadequate. Consequently, meeting the daily intake requirements without the aid of nutritional supplements is not achievable for most populations, as it would require the consumption of unfeasibly large amounts of MK-7-containing foods [6]. This has increased the demand and created a lucrative market for MK-7 dietary supplements and enriched foods to complement natural sources, and the availability of such products has become progressively widespread [21].

It must be acknowledged that MK-7 demonstrates *cis-trans* isomerism, a feature that is common to most biomolecules. The *all-trans* isomer is the naturally occurring and bioactive form of the vitamin, whereas the various *cis* isomers are biologically ineffectual [7,22,23]. The bioactivity of MK-7 is related to its shape and structure, which depend on the arrangement of unsaturated bonds in the side chain. *All-trans* MK-7 has a straight isoprenoid chain (Figure 1), as all double bonds have the *trans* organisation [24]. In contrast, one or more unsaturated bonds in the *cis* conformation deform the linear molecular structure (Figure 1), and different numbers and combinations of *cis* double bonds can give rise to several *cis* MK-7 isomers [24]. The shape of MK-7 molecules determines their capacity to engage with subcellular components, and the non-linear configuration of the *cis* isomers impairs their ability to perform their biological role [25]. The *cis* isomers of vitamin K only sustain 1% of the biological significance of the *all-trans* form [26–28]. More recently, it has been established that *cis* MK-7 isomers have considerably diminished carboxylative potential and compromised bioactivity compared to *all-trans* MK-7 [25]. It is anticipated that the presence of *cis* MK-7 does not diminish the activity of the *all-trans* isomer. When the geometric isomers of the vitamin co-exist in a formulation, it is unlikely for interaction with the *cis* isomer to change the structure and bond arrangement of *all-trans* MK-7. As a result, the shape and, thus, the biological function of the *all-trans* isomer is expected to be unaffected. However, the remedial value of the preparation is only determined by the quantity of the biologically important isomer. Therefore, while the presence of *cis* MK-7 does not explicitly impact the activity of the *all-trans* isomer, its presence in the formulation is essentially an impurity, which decreases the biological function and therapeutic efficacy of *all-trans* MK-7 end products. In this regard, the isomer profile of MK-7 functional foods and dietary supplements is noteworthy, as their effectiveness is fundamentally governed by the proportion of the *all-trans* isomer.

MK-7 can be synthesised via chemical methods or microbial fermentation. The isomer composition of the MK-7 product is determined by various factors, primarily the manufacturing process and the techniques used to purify the post-reaction mixture [7,23]. Although chemical approaches are likely to be cost-effective, fermentation is more favourable from the perspective of both consumers and the environment. This is predominantly due to the recent consumer market trend promoting natural alternatives over synthetic formulations and the call for sustainable production methodologies. Fermentation is not only a natural approach for the synthesis of MK-7, but it is also more eco-friendly for the industrial

production of the vitamin. Hence, microbial fermentation can fulfil both consumer demand and environmental sustainability goals [29].

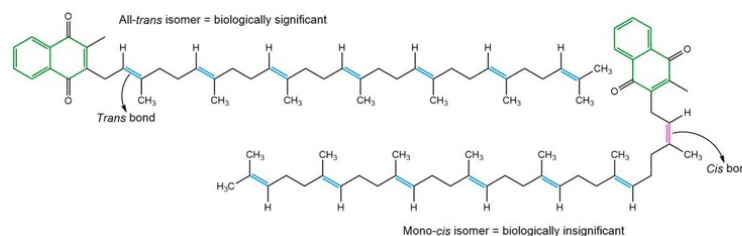


Figure 1. Chemical structure and bond organisation of MK-7 isomers.

The MK-7 isomer composition achieved from fermentation has not been widely examined, and it is generally believed that MK-7 resulting from fermentation-based synthesis exclusively occurs in the all-*trans* conformation. However, it has been proposed that exposure to particular factors may induce the transformation of the all-*trans* isomer to *cis* MK-7, and our previous studies were the first to ascertain the existence of *cis* MK-7 in fermented samples [30,31]. The occurrence of a *cis* isomer in samples obtained from fermentation implies that although the bacterium produces the naturally occurring all-*trans* isomer intracellularly, secretion into the fermentation broth exposes all-*trans* MK-7 to the extracellular milieu, which can promote its isomerisation to the *cis* form. It is important to appreciate that the exact structural identity (the number and location of *cis* double bonds in the isoprenoid side chain) of the *cis* MK-7 isomer produced from fermentation under the investigated conditions cannot be established in the absence of nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy methods. It has been suggested that all-*trans* MK-7 is most likely to isomerise to the mono-*cis* isomer under certain conditions [32]. Therefore, it is anticipated that the *cis* MK-7 observed is a mono-*cis* isomer, which contains a single *cis* double bond in its isoprenoid chain. Nevertheless, complete structure determination is not essential when considering the bioactivity of fermented MK-7 end products, as all *cis* isomers, irrespective of the number and location of *cis* bonds in their isoprenoid side chain, have significantly reduced biological efficacy compared to the all-*trans* isomer.

Although our prior investigations have focused on optimising the extracellular environment, specifically the fermentation media [30] and key fermentation parameters [31], to increase the synthesis of the all-*trans* isomer and reduce the production of *cis* MK-7 during fermentation, it is crucial to guarantee that the quantity of the bioactive isomer is maintained in the final product. Hence, not only is it necessary to achieve a high concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 from fermentation, but its quantity must also be preserved in dietary supplements and functional foods to develop effective fermented MK-7 consumer end products. It has been postulated that exposure to light (especially ultraviolet (UV) light), atmospheric oxygen, and elevated temperatures may encourage the geometric isomerisation of isoprenoid residues in the side chain of MK-7 and result in the formation of *cis* isomers [7,23,25,33,34]. However, this aspect has not been explicitly explored, particularly in the context of MK-7 isomers produced from fermentation. The effect of typical environmental and storage conditions is worthy of consideration from the perspective of fermented MK-7 dietary supplements and fortified or functional foods, as these consumer end products are likely to be subjected to such factors during their manufacture, use, and shelf life, which will influence their effectiveness and therapeutic value.

Therefore, the objective of this study was to assess the effect of various storage conditions on the isomer profile of fermented MK-7 from the perspective of MK-7 end products. Accordingly, factors representing possible conditions and environments that MK-7 dietary supplements and fortified or functional foods may be subjected to during their production, consumption, and general shelf life were selected and examined. These include exposure to atmospheric oxygen, different temperatures, and light. All factors were initially investigated over a short interval, and the conditions that resulted in the least isomerisation

and/or degradation of all-*trans* MK-7 were further evaluated to explore the stability of the all-*trans* isomer in an ideal storage environment over an extended timeframe. The outcomes of this study will offer valuable insights for the development of optimum storage conditions to preserve the quantity of the all-*trans* isomer in fermented MK-7 end products. This will likely be an important progression in improving the accessibility of bioactive fermented MK-7 nutritional supplements and functional foods, as the *cis* isomers of the vitamin are effectively contaminants that have little therapeutic value. The widespread availability and consumption of such products by diverse populations will help boost the dietary intake of MK-7 and offer more significant health benefits to consumers.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Chemicals and Materials

The all-*trans* MK-7 reference standard (98.1% purity) was acquired from ChromaDex (Los Angeles, CA, USA). Glucose was obtained from Ajax Finechem Pty Ltd. (Taren Point, NSW, Australia). Yeast extract and tryptone were supplied by Becton, Dickinson and Company (Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Soy peptone, methanol, 2-propanol, and *n*-hexane were obtained from Merck Millipore (Burlington, MA, USA). NaCl was acquired from a local supplier, and CaCl₂ was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). Nutrient agar plates were procured from Fort Richard Laboratories (Auckland, New Zealand). All media components were microbiology grade, and all solvents were analytical grade.

2.2. Microorganism and Inoculum Preparation

Bacillus subtilis natto was selected for the fermentation experiments since it results in a high MK-7 yield and is considered the most suitable strain for industrial MK-7 production. Furthermore, there are no safety issues accompanying the *B. subtilis natto* strain, and it is generally recognised as safe (GRAS). Consequently, it is ideal for synthesising fermented MK-7 end products expected for human consumption. The procedure outlined by Berenjian et al. [20] was used to prepare the *B. subtilis natto* strain. The microbial cells were grown in an aqueous culture medium comprising yeast extract, tryptone, and NaCl and streaked on nutrient agar plates, which were incubated for 48 h at 37 °C. After incubation, the cells were removed from the plates and submerged in a sterile NaCl solution. The mixture was then put in a water bath for 30 min at 80 °C to inactivate the vegetative cells and stimulate the production of spores prior to centrifuging (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min to remove the cell debris. The resulting bacterial spore suspension functioned as the inoculum for the fermentation studies.

2.3. Fermentation Procedure

MK-7 was synthesised from fermentation using the optimal media and conditions determined from our previous investigations [30,31] to enable maximal all-*trans* and minimal *cis* MK-7 isomer production. The media, containing 1% (*w/v*) glucose, 2% (*w/v*) yeast extract, 2% (*w/v*) soy peptone, 2% (*w/v*) tryptone, and 0.1% (*w/v*) CaCl₂ [30], was prepared in bulk to maintain consistency and sterilised at 121 °C for 20 min by autoclaving (TOMY SX-700E, Tokyo, Japan). Afterwards, the samples were inoculated with 2% (*v/v*) of the *B. subtilis natto* spore suspension and fermented in individual McCartney bottles under aerobic conditions at 40 °C and 200 rpm for 7 days [31].

2.4. MK-7 Extraction

Following fermentation, MK-7 was extracted from the samples with 2-propanol and *n*-hexane, which were mixed in a ratio of 1:2 (*v/v*), and the liquid-to-organic ratio was 1:4 (*v/v*) [20]. The solution was vortexed for 2 min, and phase separation was achieved by centrifugation (laboratory centrifuge, Sigma Laborzentrifugen GmbH, Osterode am Harz, Germany) at 3000 rpm for 10 min. Due to the fat-soluble nature of MK-7, it favourably

dissolves in non-polar solvents, such as *n*-hexane. Thus, the hexane layer was isolated from the mixture and evaporated in another set of McCartney bottles under a vacuum to obtain the extracted MK-7.

2.5. Exposure Studies

The extracted MK-7 samples (contained in transparent McCartney bottles) were then exposed to various environmental and storage conditions to explore the short- and long-term impact of these factors on the MK-7 isomer composition. Different temperature (low (4 °C), ambient (20 °C), and high (100 °C)), light (no light/dark, ambient light, and UV light), and oxygen (exposed to atmospheric oxygen and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen) conditions were selected to simulate likely storage environments for fermented MK-7 consumer end products, such as MK-7-enriched fortified or functional foods and dietary supplements. Possible conditions that fermented MK-7 could be exposed to during the manufacture of these products were also considered.

The effect of short-term exposure to the different temperature, light, and oxygen conditions on the isomer profile of fermented MK-7 was initially assessed. As a part of this process, samples were subjected to the factors outlined in Table 1 for 0, 3, 6, and 9 days to investigate the variation in the isomer composition over a brief timeframe for all conditions.

Table 1. Environmental and storage conditions for the short-term exposure study.

Sample	Conditions
1	Low temperature (4 °C) and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the fridge with the lid off
2	Low temperature (4 °C) and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the fridge with the lid on (purged with nitrogen)
3	High temperature (100 °C) and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the oven with the lid off
4	High temperature (100 °C) and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the oven with the lid on (purged with nitrogen)
5	No light and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the dark with the lid off at ambient temperature (by default)
6	No light and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in the dark with the lid on (purged with nitrogen) at ambient temperature (by default)
7	Ambient light and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in ambient light (lamp) with the lid off at ambient temperature (by default)
8	Ambient light and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in ambient light (lamp) with the lid on (purged with nitrogen) at ambient temperature (by default)
9	UV light and exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in UV light (lamp) with the lid off at ambient temperature (by default)
10	UV light and not exposed to atmospheric oxygen = stored in UV light (lamp) with the lid on (purged with nitrogen) at ambient temperature (by default)

The optimum storage conditions, which resulted in the least deterioration of all-*trans* MK-7, determined from the short-term investigation, were further analysed in a monitoring study to explore the stability of the all-*trans* isomer and variation in the isomer profile over an extended period. Accordingly, samples were prepared in triplicates and stored at a low temperature (4 °C) with minimal oxygen exposure in the absence of light for 8 weeks. The MK-7 isomer composition was analysed after 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 weeks of storage.

2.6. MK-7 Analysis

At the conclusion of the exposure period, the MK-7 isomer composition of all samples was analysed, as discussed in our earlier study [30]. The all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 concentrations were determined using a Dionex high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) instrument (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) composed of four P680 pumps, an ASI-100 automated sample injector, a TCC-100 thermostatted column compartment,

and a UVD340U photodiode array UV detector. A packed column (COSMOSIL Cholesterol, 100 mm × 2 mm × 2.5 μm; Nacalai Tesque Inc., Kyoto, Japan) was used to separate the compounds at 40 °C. Pure methanol constituted the mobile phase, and the compounds were eluted isocratically at a flow rate of 0.2 mL/min. The run-time, analytical wavelength, autosampler temperature, and injection volume were 30 min, 248 nm, 10 °C, and 10 μL, respectively. The Chromeleon 7 program (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used for data collection, and a relative retention time (RRT) of 1.12 was used to ascertain the *cis* isomer.

Liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry (LC–MS) methods were employed to verify the identity and corroborate the retention times of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7, using the approach described in our previous investigation [30]. The LC–MS platform comprised a Dionex Ultimate 3000 ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) system and a QExactive mass spectrometer with a HESI II source (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The Thermo XCalibur 4.3 package (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to operate the equipment, and data were obtained using the Chromeleon 7.3 application (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The conditions summarised above were implemented for liquid chromatography; however, the injection volume was modified to 5 μL, and the run-time was increased to 37 min to suit the LC–MS system. Data were collected in the positive ionisation mode with a resolution of 70,000, a MS1 scan range of 150–1000 *m/z*, a maximum injection time of 200 ms, and an AGC target of 3×10^6 . The Thermo FreeStyle 1.6 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was utilised to evaluate the mass spectrometry (MS) data.

The MK-7 concentration of the samples was determined using a calibration curve (linear between 0.1 mg/L and 50 mg/L ($R^2 = 0.99$)), which was created with reference to the peak area corresponding to known concentrations of the analytical standard.

2.7. Statistical Methods

Statistical significance was determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and a two-sample *t*-test was used to compare the mean values of different groups. The data were reported as the mean ± standard deviation (SD) of three replicates, and significance was accepted at $p < 0.05$.

3. Results and Discussion

The various factors explored were selected to represent the likely storage environments for fermented MK-7 supplements and fortified or functional foods, together with potential conditions to which fermented MK-7 may be exposed during the manufacture of such products. For example, fermented MK-7-enriched dairy goods or supplements requiring cold temperature storage will probably be stored in the fridge at a low temperature (4 °C). In comparison, most other supplements and MK-7-enriched foods are likely to be stored and consumed at ambient temperature (20 °C). The packaging material and design for MK-7 products can influence the amount of light that MK-7 supplements and functional foods are exposed to, as dark, opaque, and transparent materials all permit the passage of variable amounts of light. Additionally, exposure to atmospheric oxygen is inevitable in the case of all MK-7 end products. High temperature (100 °C) conditions and exposure to UV light are likely to represent conditions that fermented MK-7 may be exposed to during the production, transportation, and storage of certain MK-7-enriched supplements and fortified or functional foods. All variables were first considered over a short timeframe. The optimal conditions that promoted minimal degradation and/or isomerisation of bioactive MK-7 were further explored to evaluate the stability of all-*trans* MK-7 over a longer period.

3.1. Effect of Environmental Factors and Storage Conditions on the MK-7 Isomer Composition

3.1.1. Light

The MK-7 isomer profile resulting from short-term storage in the dark at room temperature is outlined in Figure 2. Approximately 61% and 39% of the all-*trans* isomer and

87% and 67% of the *cis* isomer remained in the presence and absence of oxygen after 9 days of exposure. In addition, there is also no statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 isomer concentrations for the dark samples between days 3, 6, and 9 when assessing the presence and absence of oxygen independently ($p = 0.652$ and $p = 0.115$ for all-*trans* MK-7 in the presence and absence of oxygen and $p = 0.785$ and $p = 0.797$ for *cis* MK-7 in the presence and absence of oxygen). These findings indicate that no considerable reduction in the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 concentration occurs during short-term storage in the dark at ambient temperature, both with and without exposure to atmospheric oxygen.

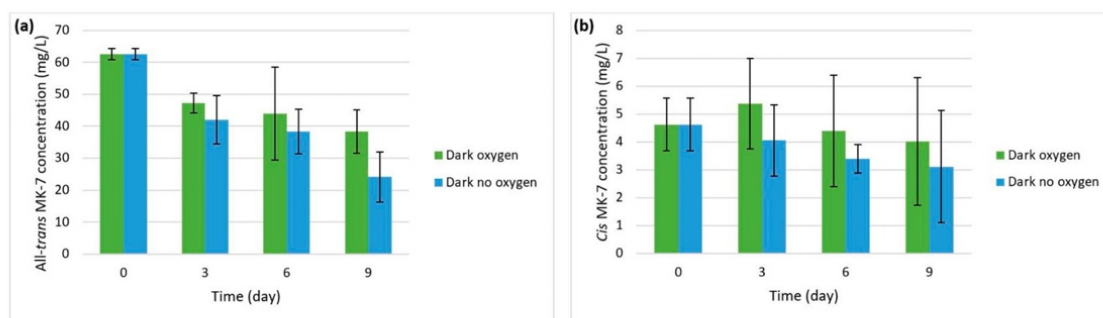


Figure 2. MK-7 isomer composition following short-term storage in the dark at ambient temperature in the presence and absence of oxygen for (a) all-*trans* MK-7 and (b) *cis* MK-7.

Figure 3 illustrates the effect of ambient light at room temperature on the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 concentration, and it is evident that exposure to ambient light has a detrimental impact on the isomer concentration. Over 99% of all-*trans* and 100% of *cis* MK-7 was degraded to undetectable levels within 3 days of exposure to ambient light with and without oxygen, implying that contact with oxygen does not have a noticeable effect on MK-7 stability in the presence of ambient light. The influence of UV light exposure on the MK-7 isomer concentration is displayed in Figure 4. It is apparent that MK-7 is very unstable in UV light, as both all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 were not detected over the entire exposure period, regardless of the presence or absence of atmospheric oxygen.

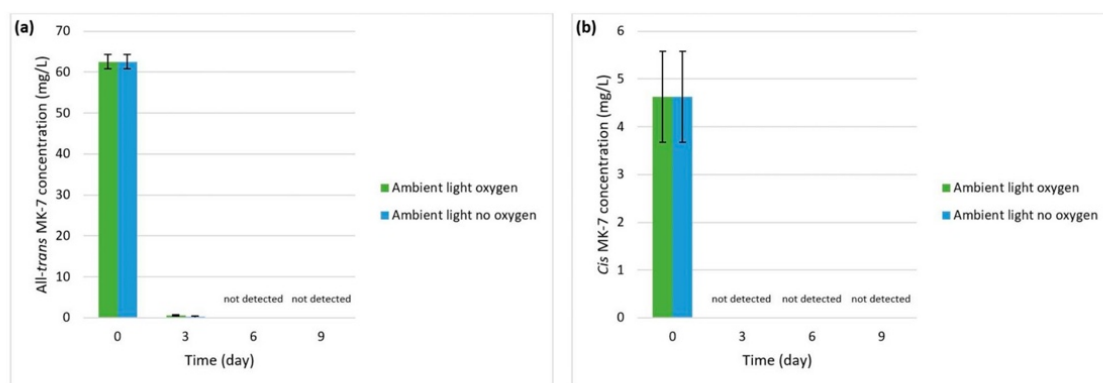


Figure 3. MK-7 isomer profile resulting from short-term exposure to ambient light at room temperature in the presence and absence of oxygen for (a) all-*trans* MK-7 and (b) *cis* MK-7.

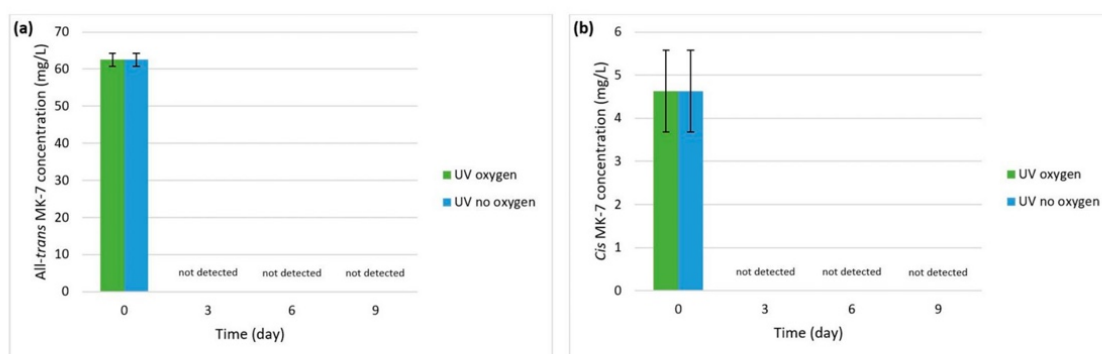


Figure 4. MK-7 isomer composition obtained from short-term exposure to UV light at ambient temperature in the presence and absence of oxygen for (a) all-*trans* MK-7 and (b) *cis* MK-7.

Fat-soluble vitamins, including vitamin K, tend to be light-sensitive and are degraded by exposure to various forms of light, such as ambient light, daylight, and UV light [35–38]. It has been suggested that light exposure may promote photoisomerisation, which refers to the conversion of one isomer of a molecule to another by light. Transformation of all-*trans* MK-7 to one or more *cis* forms of the vitamin may potentially occur due to light; however, there are no specific reports in the literature [7,23,34]. Geometric isomerisation of all-*trans* MK-7 as a result of exposure to ambient or UV light was not observed in the current study. Instead, the concentration of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 was quickly reduced to undetectable levels in the presence of both types of light. It is also worth noting that the degree of photosensitivity of all-*trans* MK-7 might vary depending on the intensity and wavelength of light. Additionally, only particular intensities or wavelengths of light may induce the isomerisation of all-*trans* MK-7. Therefore, it could be that the light sources used in this investigation were not of the appropriate intensity or wavelength to promote this effect.

While it has been established that K vitamins are destroyed by light, limited research has been conducted to explore the stability of MK in the presence of different light sources. Moreover, studies explicitly considering MK-7 and its isomers in this context are absent. Ferland and Sadowski [39] assessed the PK content of several vegetable oils and evaluated the effect of light (daylight and fluorescent light) exposure on the stability of vitamin K1 in rapeseed and safflower oils over 22 days. It was determined that after only 2 days of exposure, the PK content of rapeseed and safflower oils was reduced by 46% and 59%, respectively, in the presence of fluorescent light and by 87% and 94%, respectively, when exposed to daylight. The effect of the type of storage container was also examined for rapeseed oil. It was ascertained that after 36 h of daylight and fluorescent light exposure, the PK content decreased by 93% and 44% for oil stored in clear bottles, respectively. In contrast, storage in amber bottles did not have a significant impact. Despite consideration of different types of light and vitamin K compounds, the results of this research are similar to the present study and demonstrate that vitamin K forms are highly vulnerable to light.

Collectively, these observations illustrate the destructive effect of various light sources on MK-7 and emphasise the importance of using dark or amber bottles and opaque packaging materials for the storage of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 dietary supplements and fortified or functional foods to preserve the quantity of the vitamin over its shelf life. UV exposure must also be avoided and is unsuitable for the manufacture of all-*trans* MK-7-containing supplements, milk, and other products that may require UV treatment as a means of processing or sterilisation. Strategies such as encapsulation, especially for dietary supplements, can also be implemented to further protect the all-*trans* isomer from exposure to light. Furthermore, it would be worthwhile to increase the awareness of consumers and state that exposure to light should be avoided on the product packaging to ensure the optimal performance of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 nutraceuticals.

3.1.2. Temperature

The impact of low (4 °C) and high (100 °C) temperatures on the MK-7 isomer composition was investigated in the presence and absence of oxygen. The results are depicted in Figures 5 and 6 for storage in the fridge (4 °C) and oven (100 °C), respectively. Around 68% and 61% of all-*trans* MK-7 and 79% and 61% of *cis* MK-7 remained in the presence and absence of oxygen at the end of the exposure period under low temperature conditions. There is also no statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 concentration for the fridge samples between days 3, 6, and 9 when considering the presence and absence of oxygen separately ($p = 0.997$ and $p = 0.944$ for all-*trans* MK-7 in the presence and absence of oxygen and $p = 0.749$ and $p = 0.098$ for *cis* MK-7 in the presence and absence of oxygen). This indicates that there is no notable decrease in the all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentration over short-term exposure to low temperature conditions, both with and without contact with atmospheric oxygen. In comparison, approximately 17% and 33% of the all-*trans* isomer and 43% and 43% of *cis* MK-7 remained in the presence and absence of oxygen after 9 days of storage at a high temperature. Furthermore, there is no statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentrations for the oven samples between days 3, 6, and 9 when individually examining the effect of atmospheric oxygen ($p = 0.062$ and $p = 0.488$ for all-*trans* MK-7 in the presence and absence of oxygen and $p = 0.830$ and $p = 0.689$ for *cis* MK-7 in the presence and absence of oxygen). However, there is a statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* isomer concentration for the oven samples in the presence of oxygen between days 3 and 9 ($p = 0.002$). These observations suggest that although there is no appreciable difference in the isomer concentrations with and without contact with atmospheric oxygen between all three days of exposure holistically, there is a substantial decrease in the all-*trans* MK-7 concentration in the presence of oxygen between days 3 and 9. Thus, oxygen seems to accelerate the decomposition of the biologically active isomer at high temperatures. Although the effect of heat treatment and oxygen exposure has not been previously investigated for MK-7 isomers, it has been observed that during heating, oxygen increases the rate of degradation of all-*trans*- β -carotene, a precursor of vitamin A, which, similar to MK-7, is a lipid-soluble vitamin [40].

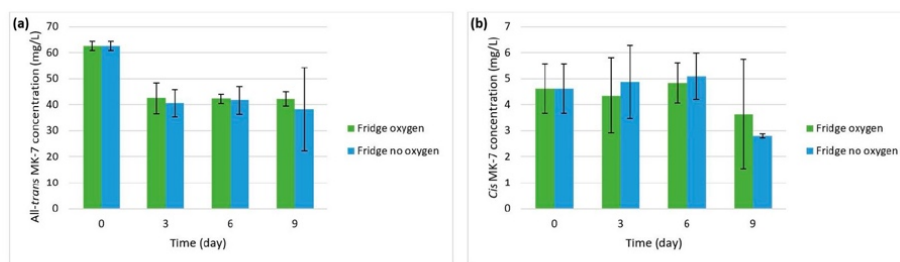


Figure 5. MK-7 isomer profile arising from short-term storage in the fridge at a low temperature in the presence and absence of oxygen for (a) all-*trans* MK-7 and (b) *cis* MK-7.

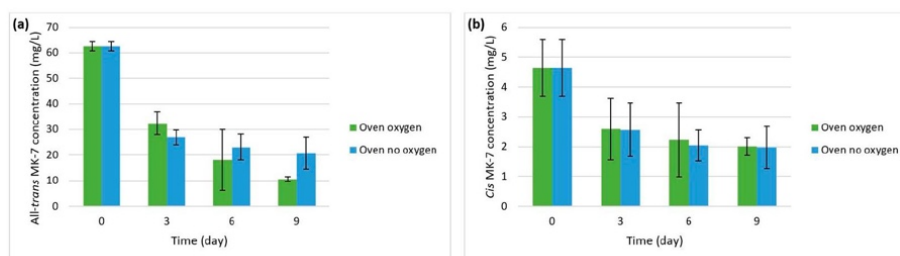


Figure 6. MK-7 isomer composition occurring from short-term storage in the oven at a high temperature in the presence and absence of oxygen for (a) all-*trans* MK-7 and (b) *cis* MK-7.

The stability of vitamin K compounds is only slightly affected by heat exposure; hence, they are regarded as fairly heat-stable [35,36,41]. While there are no prior studies assessing the influence of heat on the stability of MK-7 isomers specifically, Ferland and Sadowski [39] have investigated the thermal stability of vitamin K1 in different vegetable oils at temperatures between 185 and 190 °C over 20 and 40 min. A slight loss of PK was observed, and approximately 7% and 11% of the original vitamin K was lost over 20 and 40 min of exposure, respectively. The findings of this research are largely comparable with the present study. Despite the differences in the investigated K vitamers, temperatures, and exposure times between the two studies, they both demonstrate a moderate loss of vitamin K upon heating, suggesting that MK-7 is relatively stable when exposed to reasonably high temperatures over a short period.

These observations imply that thermal sterilisation and manufacturing processes involving high temperatures, such as milling and drying for the synthesis of MK-7 dietary supplements and extrusion cooking for the production of cereals and other foods fortified with MK-7, may not reduce the MK-7 content significantly. Although such technological processes could require greater temperatures than that investigated in the current study (100 °C), the exposure times are expected to be much shorter (over a few minutes or hours rather than for 3, 6, or 9 days), which will likely mitigate the detrimental effect of higher temperatures. Additionally, encapsulation methods could be used to protect all-*trans* MK-7 in processes involving extreme temperatures and/or long handling times.

It is also evident that storage of MK-7 at ambient temperature is acceptable. This is demonstrated by the relatively high MK-7 content remaining after 9 days for the samples that were stored in the dark at room temperature (Figure 2). Moreover, there is no statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 concentrations between the dark and fridge conditions in the presence and absence of oxygen following short-term exposure ($p = 0.498$ for all-*trans* MK-7 and $p = 0.832$ for *cis* MK-7 from the overall ANOVA analysis of the dark and fridge groups). These outcomes also indicate that the negligible MK-7 isomer concentrations observed for both the ambient and UV light samples were due to exposure to the different light conditions and did not result from storage at room temperature.

The amount of light exposure was similar between the samples kept in the dark, fridge, and oven, as closure of the fridge and oven doors also eliminated light exposure in the low and high temperature conditions. This allows the effect of temperature to be meaningfully assessed between these groups. The ANOVA results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* isomer concentration between the dark, fridge, and oven conditions in the presence and absence of oxygen over the entire exposure period ($p = 2.201 \times 10^{-4}$). However, there is no statistically significant difference in the *cis* MK-7 concentration between these three groups in the presence and absence of oxygen over the investigated timeframe ($p = 0.149$). This suggests that while exposure to high temperatures negatively impacts the concentration of the bioactive isomer, it does not considerably affect the concentration of the biologically insignificant isomer.

3.1.3. Atmospheric Oxygen

Vitamin K is slowly affected by exposure to atmospheric oxygen [35,41]. It has been proposed that contact with atmospheric oxygen during the storage of MK-7 dietary supplements may lead to autoxidation processes, which adversely impact the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and promote its isomerisation to *cis* MK-7 [7,23,34]. Nevertheless, this phenomenon has not been explicitly assessed, particularly for MK-7 isomers produced from fermentation.

The experimental observations from the present investigation suggest that contact with atmospheric oxygen does not have a substantial negative effect on the stability of MK-7 over a short period. The statistical analysis for the dark, fridge, and oven conditions (Table 2) indicates that there is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in the all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 concentrations between the samples that were and were not in contact with atmospheric oxygen for each day of the exposure period. For the ambient and UV light

conditions, all-*trans* MK-7 was only noted in the presence and absence of oxygen for the ambient light samples on day 3 of exposure, and there was no statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* isomer concentration between these two groups ($p = 0.109$). Furthermore, since all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 were essentially undetectable following short-term exposure to ambient and UV light, it is evident that both isomers are rapidly degraded due to the different light exposures, irrespective of contact with atmospheric oxygen.

Table 2. Comparison of the MK-7 isomer concentrations between the oxygen and no oxygen samples on each day of the exposure period for the dark, oven, and fridge conditions using a two-sample *t*-test.

DARK		FRIDGE		OVEN	
All- <i>trans</i> MK-7 concentration		All- <i>trans</i> MK-7 concentration		All- <i>trans</i> MK-7 concentration	
Groups compared	<i>p</i> -value	Groups compared	<i>p</i> -value	Groups compared	<i>p</i> -value
Day 3 oxygen and no oxygen	0.416	Day 3 oxygen and no oxygen	0.754	Day 3 oxygen and no oxygen	0.212
Day 6 oxygen and no oxygen	0.653	Day 6 oxygen and no oxygen	0.893	Day 6 oxygen and no oxygen	0.610
Day 9 oxygen and no oxygen	0.125	Day 9 oxygen and no oxygen	0.748	Day 9 oxygen and no oxygen	0.085
<i>Cis</i> MK-7 concentration		<i>Cis</i> MK-7 concentration		<i>Cis</i> MK-7 concentration	
Groups compared	<i>p</i> -value	Groups compared	<i>p</i> -value	Groups compared	<i>p</i> -value
Day 3 oxygen and no oxygen	0.416	Day 3 oxygen and no oxygen	0.736	Day 3 oxygen and no oxygen	0.984
Day 6 oxygen and no oxygen	0.454	Day 6 oxygen and no oxygen	0.772	Day 6 oxygen and no oxygen	0.852
Day 9 oxygen and no oxygen	0.699	Day 9 oxygen and no oxygen	0.603	Day 9 oxygen and no oxygen	0.960

Therefore, oxygen exposure is unlikely to significantly influence the all-*trans* MK-7 concentration of products that are consumed quickly and have a short shelf life, such as fortified or functional dairy products containing bioactive MK-7. However, it may adversely affect the all-*trans* MK-7 content of dietary supplements and products that are consumed over a longer period and have an extended shelf life. Encapsulation may be an effective technique to minimise the oxygen exposure of MK-7 contained in dietary supplements. Including labels on products to lessen their contact with oxygen (by closing the bottle lid or securing the packaging material) is also advisable for MK-7-enriched goods with a long shelf life.

3.1.4. Geometric Isomerisation of All-*trans* MK-7

It is interesting to notice that although it has been proposed that vitamin K, particularly all-*trans* MK-7, is susceptible to isomerisation upon exposure to various conditions, such as light, atmospheric oxygen, and elevated temperatures [7,23,34], conversion of the all-*trans* isomer to the *cis* form was not observed in the current study (only degradation of the vitamin and reduction in the concentration of both isomers was noted). A decrease in the concentration of the biologically effective isomer and a concurrent increase in the concentration of the *cis* isomer over time would denote the geometric isomerisation of all-*trans* MK-7. The *cis* MK-7 isomer concentration fluctuated considerably over the different days of exposure. While a slight increase in the concentration of *cis* MK-7 was observed for the fridge and dark storage conditions, there is no statistically significant difference in the *cis* isomer concentration in the presence and absence of oxygen between days 0 and 9 for the fridge and dark samples ($p = 0.850$). Moreover, a general downward trend in the *cis* isomer concentration can be noted over the entire exposure period for not only the fridge and dark samples but for all investigated storage conditions. This indicates a gradual decline, rather than an increase, in the *cis* isomer concentration over the 9-day storage period. Hence, it can be concluded that geometric isomerisation of all-*trans* MK-7 did not occur during the short-term exposure study. A potential explanation for the lack of isomerisation observed in this investigation could be that the conditions explored were reasonably mild and may not be sufficient to stimulate the isomerisation of all-*trans*

MK-7 over the timeframe explored. However, it may be possible for isomerisation to occur following longer periods of exposure to the same conditions. Alternatively, different conditions and/or harsher and more extreme environments may be required to promote the geometric isomerisation of the all-*trans* isomer.

3.2. Stability of All-*trans* MK-7 in an Optimal Storage Environment

A monitoring study was conducted to assess the stability of all-*trans* MK-7 and variation in the isomer composition over an extended timeframe during storage at a low temperature (4 °C) with minimal oxygen exposure in the absence of light.

In the short-term exposure study, the smallest decline in the concentration of the bioactive isomer was observed for the samples stored in the fridge at a low temperature and in the dark at ambient conditions. As previously outlined, the results obtained for the dark and fridge samples were comparable over a short span (no statistically significant difference in the MK-7 isomer concentration existed between these two groups). However, it is recognised that heat has a negative impact on the stability of MK-7 over a longer interval. Therefore, it was decided to consider storage at low rather than ambient temperature conditions over an extended period. The samples were also stored in dark/opaque bottles to further eliminate any light exposure, as it was determined from the short-term study that light has a detrimental effect on the stability of MK-7. In addition, no statistically significant difference in the MK-7 isomer concentration was noted between the samples that were and were not in contact with atmospheric oxygen during the short-term exposure investigation. Although oxygen is known to slowly impact the stability of MK-7, the effect of which is only likely to be observed after a prolonged period, the samples for the long-term study were just stored with the lid on (to decrease oxygen exposure) and not purged with nitrogen. This was done to simulate the potential environmental conditions that bioactive fermented MK-7 consumer end products will likely be subjected to during their manufacture, consumption, and overall shelf life, as, in reality, it would not be feasible to avoid exposure to atmospheric oxygen completely.

The samples were kept in an optimum storage environment for an extended timeframe. Figure 7 illustrates the variation in the all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentrations over the long-term storage investigation. There was no appreciable change in the concentration of both isomers during 8 weeks of storage at a low temperature in the dark with minimal oxygen exposure. This implies that all-*trans* MK-7 is reasonably stable in this environment and is not susceptible to geometric isomerisation under optimal conditions.

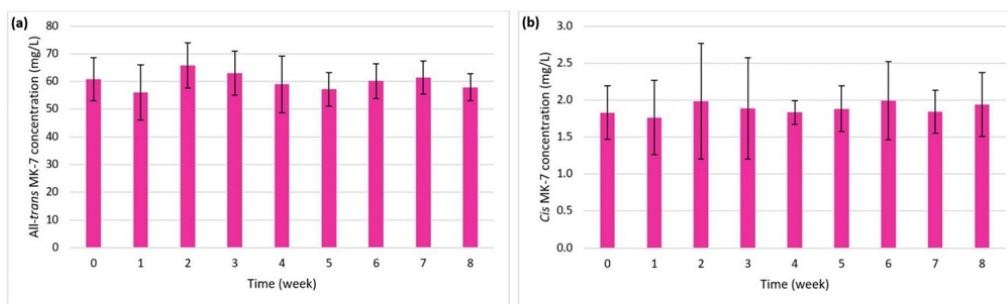


Figure 7. Variation in the isomer concentration over 8 weeks of storage at a low temperature with minimal oxygen exposure in the absence of light for (a) all-*trans* MK-7 and (b) *cis* MK-7.

These observations are supported by the ANOVA assessment, which indicates no statistically significant difference in the all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentrations between the different weeks of exposure ($p = 0.951$ for all-*trans* MK-7 and $p = 1.00$ for *cis* MK-7). Additionally, a comparison of the MK-7 isomer concentration for every week of storage (weeks 1–8) with the control (week 0) via a *t*-test revealed that both the all-*trans* and *cis*

MK-7 concentration for each week of storage did not differ significantly from that of the control ($p > 0.05$).

Overall, the results of the long-term monitoring study demonstrate that low temperature conditions, reduced oxygen exposure, and the absence of light constitute the ideal storage environment for fermented MK-7. These conditions prevent the deterioration and preserve the concentration of the bioactive isomer, thereby retaining the therapeutic value of fermented MK-7 products.

3.3. Study Limitations

The findings of this investigation offer key insights into the effect of typical environmental and storage conditions that fermented MK-7 supplements and fortified or functional foods are likely to be subjected to on the MK-7 isomer profile and have shed light on the stability of the all-*trans* isomer over an extended period in an optimal storage environment. The ideal conditions to preserve the concentration of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 constituted the absence of light, low temperatures, and minimal oxygen exposure. Therefore, it is proposed that, where appropriate, fermented MK-7 products are packaged in dark/opaque bottles or materials and stored with the lid on or packaging tightly secured in the fridge at low temperature conditions (around 4 °C) to ensure that they retain their biological efficacy.

Although the impact of these factors on the isomer composition has been considered from the perspective of fermented MK-7 consumer end products, they have been examined in isolation. Thus, the experimental observations are restricted, and the conclusions drawn may differ slightly when the fermented MK-7 is actually formulated into supplements and fortified or functional foods.

It has been established that MK-7 is liable to degradation during storage, and the rate at which this occurs is accelerated in certain environments. Whilst exposure to specific storage conditions has been investigated in this study, it only covers a subset of the many factors that may be encountered during the manufacture and overall shelf life of a particular product. In addition, different preparations of bioactive fermented MK-7 may be exposed to unique storage environments depending on the characteristics of the final product (tablets, capsules, or fortified/functional foods).

For instance, fermented all-*trans* MK-7 formulated into tablets or capsules is likely to be exposed to various excipient compounds and active ingredients (in the case of multi-nutrient supplements), such as magnesium oxide (MgO), calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), calcium citrate (Ca₃(C₆H₅O₇)₂), cellulose, gelatine, and other vitamins and minerals. Certain compounds, including MgO, may also promote alkalinisation, and since MK-7 is vulnerable to alkaline conditions, such additives can create an unfavourable milieu that may enhance its deterioration. Hence, the inclusion of additional compounds and ingredients and their different combinations can create and expose the vitamin to different environments, which can affect the isomer profile and stability of all-*trans* MK-7 in different preparations. In contrast, fermented bioactive MK-7-enriched fortified or functional foods will likely be subjected to a different set of environmental factors specific to the selected food matrix and its storage requirements. For example, fresh dairy products require refrigeration at low temperatures and have a relatively short shelf life compared to cereals and other dry goods, commonly stored at ambient conditions over a longer period. Therefore, the isomer composition and stability of all-*trans* MK-7 will likely vary with the nature of the end product. Consequently, future research efforts need to be directed towards exploring and comprehensively understanding the effect of different environmental factors and storage conditions on the isomer composition and stability of all-*trans* MK-7 in context rather than independently of the desired application.

While prior studies have examined the stability of commercially available MK-7 dietary supplements and similar preparations, there have been no attempts thus far to explore the stability and isomer profile of fermented MK-7 in different types of formulated products. Furthermore, since the therapeutic benefits of fermented MK-7 nutritional supplements and fortified or functional foods solely result from the quantity of all-*trans* MK-7, it is essential

to ensure that they contain the bioactive isomer almost exclusively or in the most significant proportion following their manufacture, during their consumption, and throughout their overall shelf life. Therefore, in subsequent investigations, it would be advantageous to consider formulating fermented all-*trans* MK-7 into various consumer end products, such as tablets, capsules, and fortified or functional foods, to develop a deeper understanding of the effect of different production processes, preparations, and foods matrices on the MK-7 isomer profile.

In future work, it would also be valuable to carry out shelf life or degradation studies to explore both the short- and long-term stability of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 when formulated in various dietary supplement preparations and fortified or functional foods. This will allow the impact of a range of environmental and storage conditions, including product-specific features and those relating to the proposed packaging materials and design, on the quantity of bioactive MK-7 and the isomer composition resulting from different end uses to be elucidated. Factors often governed by commercial pressures also contribute to the overall shelf life of a product, and these include the time it takes for it to reach the consumer, the range of temperatures and climates that it is likely to be subjected to between production and consumption, and the rate at which it is expected to be consumed. Thus, such aspects also need to be considered in future research when assessing the stability of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 over its shelf life after it has been formulated into a diverse range of consumer products. Additionally, it is vital to ensure that a therapeutically significant concentration of the vitamin remains in the product at the end of its shelf life after taking into account the impact of the many factors that contribute to its holistic storage environment.

Essentially, the outcomes of appropriate shelf life and degradation studies examining the stability of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 in different product formulations will aid the estimation of a realistic shelf life and initial content (overage) of the vitamin in various end products in the future. This will also inform decisions regarding the product packaging and its recommended storage conditions to preserve the quantity of the bioactive isomer in specific applications.

4. Conclusions

This investigation presents unique insights into the impact of various environmental factors and storage conditions that fermented MK-7 consumer end products, such as dietary supplements and fortified or functional foods, may be subjected to during their production, consumption, and overall shelf life. The selected parameters included exposure to atmospheric oxygen, different temperature conditions, and light. These factors were first considered over a short interval to determine the optimal storage conditions. Essentially, there appeared to be no discernible differences in the degradation profiles of all-*trans* and *cis* MK-7 under the studied conditions, as, despite minor dissimilarities (possibly due to experimental variation), the overall trends in the reduction of both isomers with exposure to the various factors were comparable. Storage in the absence of light at a low temperature with minimal oxygen exposure preserved the quantity of the all-*trans* isomer to the greatest extent and was the ideal storage environment for fermented MK-7. The stability of the biologically significant MK-7 isomer under the optimal conditions was then evaluated over an extended period, and negligible change in the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 occurred after 8 weeks of storage. This implies that the all-*trans* isomer is reasonably stable and not prone to substantial degradation during long-term storage in this environment. The findings of this study are significant, as they will facilitate the development of suitable storage conditions to maintain the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer in fermented MK-7 end products. The results will also aid the estimation of suitable overage levels of the vitamin in different products to account for its deterioration during storage, which will ensure that the amount of the biologically important isomer remaining at the end of a product's shelf life is not below the required or stated quantity. Collectively, this will be a significant advancement in improving the availability of bioactive fermented MK-7 nutritional supplements and fortified or functional foods, as the *cis* isomers

have considerably compromised biological function and therapeutic value. The broad consumption of such efficacious products by a range of populations will boost the dietary intake of MK-7 and help decrease the risk and progression of several age-related disorders and diseases of global relevance.

Author Contributions: Conceptualisation, A.B. and M.S.; methodology, N.L., M.S. and A.B.; validation, N.L.; formal analysis, N.L.; investigation, N.L.; data curation, N.L., M.S. and A.B.; writing—original draft preparation, N.L.; writing—review and editing, N.L., M.S. and A.B.; supervision, A.B. and M.S. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research received no external funding.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data that support the findings of this study are included in this article.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Shearer, M.J. Vitamin K. *Lancet* **1995**, *345*, 229–234. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
2. Beulens, J.; Booth, S.; van Den Heuvel, E.; Stoecklin, E.; Baka, A.; Vermeer, C. The role of menaquinones (vitamin K2) in human health. *Br. J. Nutr.* **2013**, *110*, 1357–1368. [[CrossRef](#)]
3. Azuma, K.; Inoue, S. Multiple Modes of Vitamin K Actions in Aging-Related Musculoskeletal Disorders. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **2019**, *20*, 2844. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
4. Basset, G.; Latimer, S.; Fatihi, A.; Soubeyrand, E.; Block, A. Phylloquinone (vitamin K1): Occurrence, biosynthesis and functions. *Mini-Rev. Med. Chem.* **2017**, *17*, 1028–1038. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
5. Booth, S.L. Vitamin K: Food composition and dietary intakes. *Food Nutr. Res.* **2012**, *56*, 5505. [[CrossRef](#)]
6. Berenjian, A.; Mahanama, R.; Talbot, A.; Regtop, H.; Kavanagh, J.; Dehghani, F. Designing of an intensification process for biosynthesis and recovery of menaquinone-7. *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.* **2013**, *172*, 1347–1357. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Szterk, A.; Zmysłowski, A.; Bus, K. Identification of cis/trans isomers of menaquinone-7 in food as exemplified by dietary supplements. *Food Chem.* **2018**, *243*, 403–409. [[CrossRef](#)]
8. Walther, B.; Karl, P.J.; Booth, S.L.; Boyaval, P. Menaquinones, bacteria, and the food supply: The relevance of dairy and fermented food products to vitamin K requirements. *Adv. Nutr.* **2013**, *4*, 463–473. [[CrossRef](#)]
9. Anastasi, E.; Ialongo, C.; Labriola, R.; Ferraguti, G.; Lucarelli, M.; Angeloni, A. Vitamin K deficiency and COVID-19. *Scand. J. Clin. Lab. Investig.* **2020**, *80*, 525–527. [[CrossRef](#)]
10. Berenjian, A.; Sarabadani, Z. How menaquinone-7 deficiency influences mortality and morbidity among COVID-19 patients. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* **2020**, *29*, 101792. [[CrossRef](#)]
11. Dofferhoff, A.S.M.; Piscaer, I.; Schurgers, L.J.; Visser, M.P.J.; van den Ouweland, J.M.W.; de Jong, P.A.; Gosens, R.; Hackeng, T.M.; van Daal, H.; Lux, P.; et al. Reduced vitamin K status as a potentially modifiable risk factor of severe COVID-19. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* **2021**, *73*, 4039–4046. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
12. Fusaro, M.; Gallieni, M.; Porta, C.; Nickolas, T.L.; Khairallah, P. Vitamin K effects in human health: New insights beyond bone and cardiovascular health. *J. Nephrol.* **2020**, *33*, 239–249. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
13. Karamzad, N.; Maleki, V.; Carson-Chahhoud, K.; Azizi, S.; Sahebkar, A.; Gargari, B.P. A systematic review on the mechanisms of vitamin K effects on the complications of diabetes and pre-diabetes. *BioFactors* **2020**, *46*, 21–37. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
14. Mehta, D.; de Souza, A.; Jadhav, S.S.; Kuret, T.; Sodin-Šemrl, S.; Ünal, M.; Fini, E.H.; Ayat, S.; Pahlavan, F.; Bhatti, M.Z. Menaquinone-7: Wide Ranging Physiological Relevance in Muscle and Nerve Health. In *Vitamin K-Recent Topics on the Biology and Chemistry*; Kagechika, H., Shirakawa, H., Eds.; IntechOpen: London, UK, 2021; Volume 27, pp. 57–76.
15. Tarkesh, F.; Jahromi, B.N.; Hejazi, N.; Tabatabaee, H. Beneficial health effects of Menaquinone-7 on body composition, glycemic indices, lipid profile, and endocrine markers in polycystic ovary syndrome patients. *Food Sci. Nutr.* **2020**, *8*, 5612–5621. [[CrossRef](#)]
16. Xv, F.; Chen, J.; Duan, L.; Li, S. Research progress on the anticancer effects of vitamin K2. *Oncol. Lett.* **2018**, *15*, 8926–8934. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
17. Vik, H. Vitamin K2: A Clinically Proven Cardio-Protective Powerhouse: Known for bone-support benefits, vitamin K2 as MK-7 has also been recognized as vital for heart health. *Nutraceuticals World* **2020**, *23*, 44.
18. Brugè, F.; Bacchetti, T.; Principi, F.; Littarru, G.P.; Tiano, L. Olive oil supplemented with menaquinone-7 significantly affects osteocalcin carboxylation. *Br. J. Nutr.* **2011**, *106*, 1058–1062. [[CrossRef](#)]
19. Stafford, D.W.; Roberts, H.R.; Vermeer, C. Vitamin K supplementation during oral anticoagulation: Cautions. *Blood* **2007**, *109*, 3607. [[CrossRef](#)]
20. Berenjian, A.; Mahanama, R.; Talbot, A.; Biffin, R.; Regtop, H.; Valtchev, P.; Kavanagh, J.; Dehghani, F. Efficient media for high menaquinone-7 production: Response surface methodology approach. *New Biotechnol.* **2011**, *28*, 665–672. [[CrossRef](#)]
21. Lal, N.; Seifan, M.; Ebrahimezhad, A.; Berenjian, A. The Effect of Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menaquinone-7 Isomer Composition and Synthesis of the Biologically Significant All-Trans Isomer. *Nanomaterials* **2023**, *13*, 1825. [[CrossRef](#)]

22. Bus, K.; Sitkowski, J.; Bocian, W.; Zmysłowski, A.; Ofiara, K.; Szterk, A. Separation of menaquinone-7 geometric isomers by semipreparative high-performance liquid chromatography with silver complexation and identification by nuclear magnetic resonance. *Food Chem.* **2022**, *368*, 130890. [[CrossRef](#)]
23. Szterk, A.; Bus, K.; Zmysłowski, A.; Ofiara, K. Analysis of Menaquinone-7 Content and Impurities in Oil and Non-Oil Dietary Supplements. *Molecules* **2018**, *23*, 1056. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
24. Lal, N.; Berenjian, A. Cis and trans isomers of the vitamin menaquinone-7: Which one is biologically significant? *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **2020**, *104*, 2765–2776. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
25. Cirilli, I.; Orlando, P.; Silvestri, S.; Marcheggiani, F.; Dłudla, P.V.; Kaesler, N.; Tiano, L. Carboxylative efficacy of trans and cis MK7 and comparison with other vitamin K isomers. *BioFactors* **2022**, *48*, 1129–1136. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
26. Knauer, T.E.; Siegfried, C.; Willingham, A.K.; Matschiner, J.T. Metabolism and biological activity of cis-and trans-phyloquinone in the rat. *J. Nutr.* **1975**, *105*, 1519–1524. [[CrossRef](#)]
27. Lowenthal, J.; Rivera, G.V. Comparison of the activity of the cis and trans isomer of vitamin K1 in vitamin K-deficient and coumarin anticoagulant-pretreated rats. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* **1979**, *209*, 330–333.
28. Matschiner, J.T.; Bell, R.G. Metabolism and vitamin K activity of cis phyloquinone in rats. *J. Nutr.* **1972**, *102*, 625–629. [[CrossRef](#)]
29. Kang, M.-J.; Baek, K.-R.; Lee, Y.-R.; Kim, G.-H.; Seo, S.-O. Production of Vitamin K by Wild-Type and Engineered Microorganisms. *Microorganisms* **2022**, *10*, 554. [[CrossRef](#)]
30. Lal, N.; Seifan, M.; Berenjian, A. Optimisation of the fermentation media to enhance the production of the bioactive isomer of vitamin menaquinone-7. *Bioprocess. Biosyst. Eng.* **2022**, *45*, 1371–1390. [[CrossRef](#)]
31. Lal, N.; Seifan, M.; Berenjian, A. The impact of key fermentation parameters on the production of the all-trans isomer of menaquinone-7. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* **2022**, *46*, 102548. [[CrossRef](#)]
32. Marles, R.J.; Roe, A.L.; Oketch-Rabah, H.A. US Pharmacopeial Convention safety evaluation of menaquinone-7, a form of vitamin K. *Nutr. Rev.* **2017**, *75*, 553–578. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
33. Huang, B.; Zheng, F.; Fu, S.; Yao, J.; Tao, B.; Ren, Y. UPLC-ESI-MS/MS for determining trans- and cis-vitamin K-1 in infant formulas: Method and applications. *Eur. Food Res. Technol.* **2012**, *235*, 873–879. [[CrossRef](#)]
34. Sitkowski, J.; Bocian, W.; Szterk, A. The application of multidimensional NMR analysis to cis/trans isomers study of menaquinone-7 (vitamine K2MK-7), identification of the (E,Z3,E2, ω)-menaquinone-7 isomer in dietary supplements. *J. Mol. Struct.* **2018**, *1171*, 449–457. [[CrossRef](#)]
35. Camire, M.E.; Camire, A.; Krumhar, K. Chemical and nutritional changes in foods during extrusion. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **1990**, *29*, 35–57. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
36. Orlando, P.; Silvestri, S.; Marcheggiani, F.; Cirilli, I.; Tiano, L. Menaquinone 7 Stability of Formulations and Its Relationship with Purity Profile. *Molecules* **2019**, *24*, 829. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
37. Mladěnka, P.; Macáková, K.; Kujovská Krčmová, L.; Javorská, L.; Mrštná, K.; Carazo, A.; Protti, M.; Remião, F.; Nováková, L.; Researchers, O.; et al. Vitamin K—sources, physiological role, kinetics, deficiency, detection, therapeutic use, and toxicity. *Nutr. Rev.* **2022**, *80*, 677–698. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
38. Zhou, S.; Mehta, B.M.; Feeney, E.L. A narrative review of vitamin K forms in cheese and their potential role in cardiovascular disease. *Int. J. Dairy Technol.* **2022**, *75*, 726–737. [[CrossRef](#)]
39. Ferland, G.; Sadowski, J.A. Vitamin K1 (phyloquinone) content of edible oils: Effects of heating and light exposure. *J. Agric. Food. Chem.* **1992**, *40*, 1869–1873. [[CrossRef](#)]
40. Yoon, S.H. Effect of oxygen on isomerization of β -carotene during thermal treatment. *Biocatal. Agric. Biotechnol.* **2015**, *4*, 555–558. [[CrossRef](#)]
41. Ottaway, P.B. Stability of vitamins in food. In *The Technology of Vitamins in Food*; Ottaway, P.B., Ed.; Springer: Cornwall, UK, 1993; pp. 90–113.

Disclaimer/Publisher’s Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.

9

Conclusions and Recommendations

Chapter 9 – Conclusions and Recommendations

9.1 Overview

The primary focus of this research was to evaluate the MK-7 isomer composition of fermented samples resulting from various synthesis conditions to determine the optimal fermentation procedure for selectively enhancing the production of the biologically significant all-*trans* isomer.

Essentially, by systematically investigating the fundamental aspects of a typical fermentation process from its preliminary stages to the final consumer product, this study endeavoured to develop a targeted fermentation method tailored to improve the synthesis and maintain the concentration of bioactive all-*trans* MK-7 while minimising the production of the ineffectual *cis* isomer. Key features of upstream fermentation, specifically the media composition and important fermentation parameters, were initially examined before considering the isomer profile and production of all-*trans* MK-7 from a broader perspective. In this respect, the potential of nanobiotechnological approaches to address the major challenges of MK-7 fermentation and provide an opportunity to simplify the downstream processing of the vitamin through process intensification was explored. Factors influencing the isomer profile of fermented MK-7 preparations were also assessed.

This chapter summarises the notable outcomes of this investigation and proposes directions for future research based on the knowledge gained from this study.

9.2 Key findings

Prior to this study, limited information was available on the topic of MK-7 isomers, especially regarding the type and proportion of MK-7 isomers achieved from fermentation under different synthesis conditions. The majority of previous investigations centred around evaluating the MK-7 isomer composition of dietary supplements and similar formulations, and the isomer profile of fermented samples remained to be elucidated. Therefore, a structured approach was employed to examine the pivotal aspects of a standard fermentation process, and the study was also extended to consider strategies for the large-scale production and storage of the vitamin.

It has been reported that MK-7 produced from microbial synthesis only occurs in the all-*trans* configuration, implying that *cis* isomers cannot arise from fermentation. However, variable amounts of *cis* MK-7 were observed in fermented samples obtained from the different conditions explored in this investigation. This leads to the notion that while bacterial fermentation results in the synthesis of the all-*trans* isomer intracellularly, secretion of the vitamin into the fermentation broth subjects it to the extracellular environment, promoting its isomerisation to the *cis* isomer. Thus, the biologically inferior *cis* isomer is produced in minor amounts parallel to all-*trans* MK-

7, and solely attaining the bioactive MK-7 isomer from fermentation is largely inevitable. Nevertheless, it is possible to maximise the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and minimise the production of *cis* MK-7 to achieve an acceptable compromise. Since the nature of the fermentation broth is governed by and varies with the fermentation conditions, fundamental aspects of the fermentation process, including the media composition and the value of key fermentation parameters, such as the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and length of fermentation, play a significant role in determining the characteristics of the extracellular environment and, consequently, the MK-7 isomer profile obtained from fermentation.

The fermentation media is an important facet of any fermentation process, as every microorganism has specific growth and metabolic requirements. The selection of nutrients and their respective concentrations directly affect the productivity of the fermentation system and the yield of the product of interest and, hence, must be customised to satisfy microbial demands and achieve the desired outcomes in each context. Therefore, as outlined in Chapter 4, numerous carbon, nitrogen, and salt sources were first screened to determine the media components that have a significant effect on MK-7 isomer production. The concentration of the identified nutrients was then optimised to design the optimum fermentation media to enhance the synthesis of the all-*trans* isomer and diminish the production of *cis* MK-7. The optimal media contained 1% (*w/v*) glucose, 2% (*w/v*) yeast extract, 2% (*w/v*) soy peptone, 2% (*w/v*) tryptone, and 0.1% (*w/v*) CaCl₂, which resulted in an all-*trans* isomer concentration of 36.37 mg/L and a *cis* isomer concentration of 1.23 mg/L. Moreover, it was ascertained that only a single *cis* isomer is produced from fermentation under the conditions employed. It was also observed that variation in the composition of the fermentation media resulted in different concentrations of the *cis* isomer, indicating that different combinations of nutrients and their corresponding quantities in the fermentation media create a unique extracellular environment in the fermentation broth, which likely influences the degree of isomerisation of the all-*trans* isomer to *cis* MK-7.

The fermentation conditions are also an integral aspect of upstream fermentation, as they impact microbial growth and metabolism and, ultimately, the efficacy of the fermentation process. Thus, the nature of the fermentation environment must be adapted to suit microbial needs and favour the production of the desired product. Accordingly, key fermentation parameters, namely the inoculum size, fermentation temperature, agitation speed, and length of fermentation, were optimised to establish the ideal fermentation conditions to maximise the all-*trans* isomer concentration and decrease the formation of the insignificant *cis* isomer (Chapter 5). The optimal fermentation conditions comprised an inoculum size of 2% (*v/v*), a fermentation temperature of 40 °C, an agitation speed of 200 rpm, and a fermentation period of 7 days, which resulted in an all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentration of 53.29 mg/L and 1.22 mg/L, respectively. Relative to fermentation using only the optimal media, applying the optimised fermentation conditions resulted in an approximately 46.5% increase in the concentration of the biologically active isomer,

while the *cis* isomer concentration was comparable. This clearly demonstrates the vital contribution of the fermentation conditions in determining the concentration of the preferred product.

A nanobiotechnological approach was then implemented in Chapters 6 and 7 to overcome the obstacles in MK-7 fermentation, primarily the low fermentation yield and extensive downstream processing requirements, and simultaneously boost the synthesis of the biologically efficacious isomer and decrease the concentration of *cis* MK-7. In this respect, magnetic IONs were incorporated into the fermentation process, and the effect of bacterial cell immobilisation with biocompatible IONs on microbial growth and MK-7 isomer production was explored. Naked IONs, IONs@APTES, and L-Lys@IONs were synthesised, characterised, and used to immobilise *B. subtilis natto* cells for the fermentation studies. It was ascertained that IONs@APTES were the most effective in improving the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 and reducing the synthesis of the *cis* isomer. The optimum naked ION concentration was 300 µg/mL, and it increased the process productivity and enabled a maximum all-*trans* isomer concentration of 28.78 mg/L and a 1.6-fold greater all-*trans* MK-7 yield than the free-floating cells. Compared to the naked IONs, the amine-functionalised IONs had excellent properties and resulted in more favourable outcomes. The optimum concentration of IONs@APTES and L-Lys@IONs was 300 µg/mL and 400 µg/mL, and the highest all-*trans* MK-7 concentration achieved was 41.93 mg/L and 32.08 mg/L, respectively. Furthermore, the yield of the all-*trans* isomer, relative to the control, was enhanced at the optimal concentration by 3.1-fold for IONs@APTES (300 µg/mL) and 2.1-fold for L-Lys@IONs (400 µg/mL). This suggests that both types of coated IONs, especially IONs@APTES, have immense potential as a novel approach to increase the fermentation yield of biologically significant MK-7. In addition, the superparamagnetic properties of IONs can facilitate magnetic cell removal, which could streamline the downstream processing of the vitamin and enhance the efficiency of the overall fermentation system. Improved fermentation productivity will likely reduce the price and increase the accessibility of fermented bioactive MK-7 products.

Since the quality and effectiveness of fermented MK-7 products are predominantly dictated by the concentration of the biologically effectual all-*trans* isomer, it is essential to consider the impact of environmental factors and storage conditions on their isomer profile. Accordingly, the influence of common environmental conditions, such as exposure to light, atmospheric oxygen, and various temperatures, on the isomer composition of fermented MK-7 was explored in Chapter 8 to preserve the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and prevent its transformation to *cis* MK-7. The selected factors were initially examined in a short-term study, and it was determined that the vitamin is reasonably heat-stable but extremely sensitive to light. Long-term storage at a low temperature with reduced oxygen exposure in the absence of light resulted in an insignificant change in the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and was, thus, the optimal environment for the prolonged storage of fermented all-*trans* MK-7. These findings will

help establish optimal storage conditions to conserve the quantity of the bioactive isomer in fermented MK-7 preparations.

Overall, this research has significantly contributed to the existing knowledge regarding the production of MK-7 isomers from fermentation in different contexts and provides a basis for further exploration of this topic.

9.3 Prospects for future research

While this study has elucidated the ideal fermentation procedure to favour the production of the biologically significant all-*trans* isomer and minimise the synthesis of the ineffective *cis* isomer in various contexts, a great deal is yet to be explored and ascertained. Aspects relating to the microbial strain, process scale, and development of fermented all-*trans* MK-7-enriched foods and dietary supplements are potential areas that deserve further attention, and the following sections outline possible directions for future research in these respects.

9.3.1 Microbial strain

Only a single strain of *B. subtilis natto* isolated from a commercial natto product was considered in this study, and all inferences drawn were from fermentation processes employing this type of *B. subtilis natto*. It would be advantageous to screen other variants of *B. subtilis natto* isolated from different varieties and brands of natto products available on the market or from culture collection banks to determine the influence of different *B. subtilis natto* strains on the MK-7 isomer profile obtained from fermentation. This is particularly important as different subtypes of the same bacterium tend to have unique characteristics, and it may be possible for other strains of *B. subtilis natto* to produce a greater concentration of the all-*trans* isomer than the variant investigated in this study.

Genetic manipulation strategies to engineer *B. subtilis natto* strains with a high all-*trans* MK-7 production capacity could also be explored. However, their potential for the production of food supplements or functional foods is likely to be limited due to safety concerns and consumer resistance to the use of genetically modified organisms (GMOs) for such applications.

Essentially, examining other suitable forms of *B. subtilis natto* will likely provide an opportunity for the findings of this investigation to be extended to other strains of the bacterium and open up new possibilities to improve the production of bioactive MK-7 and further optimise the isomer profile resulting from fermentation.

9.3.2 Process scale

9.3.2.1 Potential issues associated with increasing the scale of fermentation

Although this study has primarily assessed the production of MK-7 isomers on a small scale, it has drawn attention to some of the difficulties associated with enhancing the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 on a larger scale. Most of the fermentation experiments (Chapters

4, 5, and 8) were carried out in McCartney bottles, and only fermentation involving bacterial cells immobilised with IONs (Chapters 6 and 7) was conducted in small shake flasks. A lower concentration of the all-*trans* isomer was obtained for the control samples in Chapters 6 and 7 (less than 15 mg/L) compared to the optimum sample in Chapter 2 (53.29 mg/L). The media composition and fermentation conditions (inoculum size, temperature, agitation speed, and duration of fermentation) were identical, and only the fermentation volume differed between the two sets of experiments (6 mL for Chapter 2 and approximately 20 mL for Chapters 6 and 7). Hence, it is evident that even a slight increase in the volume and, consequently, the scale of the fermentation process has a notable effect on the concentration of the desired product. These outcomes emphasise that the fermentation volume is a key determinant of the all-*trans* isomer concentration achieved on a larger scale and present basic insight into likely challenges accompanying the scale-up of fermentation processes targeting the production of biologically active MK-7.

The drop in the all-*trans* MK-7 concentration with an increase in the fermentation volume can be attributed to the scale-up phenomenon, as the expansion of the scale of a fermentation process significantly impacts the culture conditions and, ultimately, the productivity of the overall process. The performance of a fermentation system and its inherent dynamics are influenced by many physical, biochemical, and process factors, the majority of which are likely to vary with an increase in the fermentation volume and the geometry of the culture vessel [1]. Even minor increases in the fermentation volume and changes in the vessel characteristics, such as progressing from a small McCartney bottle to a larger shake flask or from a shake flask to a laboratory-scale fermenter, can greatly alter the fermentation environment and reduce the product yield, as it is not feasible to precisely replicate the fermentation conditions when increasing the scale of the process.

Therefore, since the present study suggests that MK-7 isomer production and the all-*trans* and *cis* isomer concentrations attained are sensitive to changes in the process scale, further research and experimentation on different fermentation strategies to boost all-*trans* MK-7 production on a larger laboratory scale are necessary to enable the large-scale production of bioactive MK-7 by microbial fermentation.

9.3.2.2 Scale-up fermentation studies

Despite the value of small-scale experiments in facilitating the development of a targeted fermentation process to favour the production of the biologically significant MK-7 isomer, it is imperative to increase the experimental scale and consider a greater fermentation volume to gain an understanding of the effect of scale-up on the isomer profile and all-*trans* MK-7 concentration and realise industrial-scale production. Essential parameters inherent to large-scale fermentation processes, especially the agitation speed, rate of aeration, and pH, must also be adapted to meet the goals of a particular fermentation process on a larger scale.

Consequently, evaluating MK-7 isomer production in a benchtop fermenter is an important direction for future research. Optimisation of factors such as the agitation speed, aeration rate, and pH on a larger laboratory scale while employing the fermentation media and conditions previously optimised on a small scale (Chapters 1 and 2) will lay the foundation for the development of a large-scale fermentation process that selectively enhances the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 and reduces the production of the *cis* isomer.

In this regard, the agitation speed and rate of aeration can initially be investigated and optimised in a benchtop bioreactor in a free pH environment to maximise the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and minimise the concentration of *cis* MK-7. The ideal agitation and aeration levels without pH control can then be used to examine the effect of different pH environments (acidic, neutral, and basic) on isomer production. This will allow the isomer concentrations achieved from fermentation at different pH values to be compared with those obtained from fermentation under uncontrolled conditions to ascertain the optimal pH environment (acidic, neutral, basic, or uncontrolled) to favour the production of bioactive MK-7 on a laboratory scale. These experimental findings could subsequently be extended to explore and optimise the process in larger-sized fermenters, as it is expected that there will be difficulties associated with selectively increasing the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer at progressively greater fermentation volumes.

9.3.2.3 Fermentation strategies to enhance all-*trans* MK-7 production on a larger scale

Previous studies have investigated and demonstrated the success of various approaches, including adding key nutrients at specific time points or intervals and methods to decrease foam generation, to obtain high concentrations of MK-7 from fermentation in benchtop bioreactors [2-4]. However, it must be noted that these analyses solely focused on improving MK-7 production on a laboratory scale as a whole and did not account for the occurrence of MK-7 isomers. Thus, it is necessary to delve into such fermentation techniques and consider their impact on the isomer profile to determine their value in increasing the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 on a laboratory scale.

Possible strategies that have the potential to enhance the concentration of the bioactive MK-7 isomer and minimise the concentration of *cis* MK-7 achieved in larger-scale fermentation processes are discussed below. It would be valuable to examine these methods in greater depth in future research to assess their suitability in this context and determine the ideal strategy to obtain a high concentration of the all-*trans* isomer when increasing the fermentation scale.

9.3.2.3.1 Fed-batch nutrient addition

Fed-batch fermentation techniques allow high biomass densities and are advantageous for processes where the synthesis of the desired product is positively correlated with microbial

growth, as is the case for MK-7 production. Different feeding regimes can be employed to add either a fixed or variable volume of fresh medium or nutrients continuously, at different rates, in pulses, or at specific time points or intervals over the course of fermentation. The nutrient concentrations(s) and feeding strategy can also be tailored to satisfy the aims and requirements of each fermentation process. Accordingly, different nutrient feeding schemes could be considered to improve the production of all-*trans* MK-7 using a fed-batch approach in a benchtop fermenter.

9.3.2.3.1.1 Glucose

In this study, glucose, the primary carbon source, was present in the media at its optimal concentration from the start of the process and allowed to deplete in accordance with bacterial utilisation during fermentation. Since bacteria use carbon sources for growth, metabolism, and MK-7 synthesis, the glucose concentration in the media decreases as fermentation proceeds, consequently leading to the exhaustion of glucose in the fermentation media and impeding MK-7 productivity after a certain timeframe. If glucose is added to the fermentation media at particular time points or intervals or when its concentration drops below a specified value, it will likely sustain microbial growth, metabolism, and MK-7 production over a longer period. This may also result in a different MK-7 isomer profile at the end of fermentation and possibly boost the final concentration of the all-*trans* isomer. Hence, it would be beneficial to develop fed-batch strategies for the addition of glucose during fermentation in a benchtop bioreactor. Different feeding regimes, glucose concentrations, and supplementation rates can be explored and optimised to selectively increase the production of the biologically effective MK-7 isomer on a larger laboratory scale.

9.3.2.3.1.2 Glycerol

Fed-batch glycerol addition may also be advantageous to improve the yield of all-*trans* MK-7. Although glycerol was determined to have an insignificant effect on MK-7 isomer production on a small scale, it aids MK-7 biosynthesis and secretion in *B. subtilis natto* and increases MK-7 productivity on a per-cell basis [5-7]. Thus, glycerol is often reported as the most effective carbon source in MK-7 fermentation [2, 4, 8, 9]. As the characteristics and dynamics of the fermentation system change with the process scale, incorporating glycerol using a fed-batch approach may benefit all-*trans* MK-7 production in a laboratory- or large-scale fermentation process. Therefore, subsequent studies could explore the effect of fed-batch glycerol addition on the MK-7 isomer composition and production of the biologically efficacious isomer in a benchtop fermenter. Various glycerol concentrations and different schemes and rates of glycerol addition can be examined to maximise the concentration of all-*trans* MK-7 and reduce the production of the *cis* isomer.

9.3.2.3.2 Foam reduction

Due to the high foaming tendency of solutions containing biomaterials, foaming is an inherent issue in most fermentation processes, especially on a larger scale [10]. Foam refers to the dispersion of gas bubbles in a continuous liquid phase and is located above the fermentation broth [11, 12]. Several factors contribute to foaming during fermentation, such as cell growth, metabolite formation, temperature, and pH, as well as the medium composition (concentration of sugars, proteins, and salts), viscosity and rheological properties of the broth, agitation speed, aeration rate, vessel geometry, and presence of surface-active substances and other compounds [11-13]. It has been noted that a high protein content in the fermentation broth promotes foaming during fermentation, and high agitation and aeration rates also favour foam production [10-12]. Furthermore, the bacterial growth phase influences foam generation. It tends to be more pronounced during the early stages of fermentation, most likely due to the presence of proteins and other foaming-forming agents in the initial fermentation medium, and the latter phases of the process, possibly owing to protein release during cell lysis or other properties of the bacterial culture [11].

Unrestrained foaming during fermentation is undesirable, as it decreases the fermentation productivity and may result in sterility and containment issues due to loss of the fermentation broth, cells, and product from the air outlet and seepage into bearings and other attachments [10, 13]. However, a certain degree of foam production improves the mass transfer characteristics of the fermentation broth, as the presence of gas bubbles increases the surface area available for mass transfer [11, 12]. Thus, to enhance product formation and ensure the optimal performance of the fermentation system, a compromise must be achieved between the two conditions to permit controlled foam generation and repress excessive foaming during fermentation.

While various methods have been proposed to control foaming during laboratory- or large-scale fermentation in a bioreactor, they have not been examined from the perspective of MK-7 isomers. Potential approaches are outlined below, and investigating the impact of such foam reduction strategies on the production of MK-7 isomers in the future will benefit the development of an effective fermentation process that selectively enhances the concentration of bioactive MK-7 on a large scale.

9.3.2.3.2.1 Antifoaming agents

The use of surface-active chemical agents (antifoams) is the most common approach to restrict foaming during laboratory- and large-scale fermentation processes [10]. Many classes of antifoaming agents exist, including alcohols, esters, oils, fatty acids and their derivatives, silicones, and sulfonates [10-12]. Generally, the properties of a chemical antifoaming agent should enable it to successfully regulate foam production and be appropriate for the fermentation organism and end application of the fermentation product [11, 14]. Additionally, the choice of antifoam must be non-toxic to humans and the environment, have minimal impact on oxygen and mass transfer, be stable during sterilisation, and not interfere with the desired product and the

methods used for its downstream isolation and purification [11]. Consequently, antifoam selection usually depends on its compatibility with the fermentation microorganism, its suitability for the fermentation system, and the nature and intended use of the final product.

Of the numerous antifoams available, silicone-based antifoams are the most effective for foam control in bacterial fermentations [11]. Moreover, fermentation products with food-related applications necessitate food grade antifoaming agents, and many chemical antifoams, including silicone-based products, are available for such microbial fermentations [14]. However, the main drawback of chemical antifoams is their potential negative impact on oxygen and mass transfer in the fermentation broth, as the addition of antifoaming agents can reduce gas holdup and the air/solution interfacial area, which decreases the volumetric mass transfer coefficient (k_{La}) and impairs the availability of oxygen to the bacterial cells, hampering the process productivity [10-12, 14].

It has been reported that adding large amounts of silicone-based antifoaming agents to control foaming during fermentation impedes MK-7 production, possibly due to their adverse effect on oxygen transfer and solubility in the fermentation broth [2]. Hence, optimising the concentration and amount of antifoam added to the fermentation system to regulate foaming is necessary. Alternatively, although silicone-based antifoams are best suited to bacterial fermentations, it may be worthwhile to trial other types of antifoaming agents that are not silicone-based, such as polyalkylene glycol-based antifoams and those derived from fatty acids/esters, polyesters, and oils.

It is essential to appreciate that the foam formation profile is specific for each fermentation process. The nature and extent of foaming for a fermentation system targeting the production of the bioactive MK-7 isomer will likely be unique, developing an understanding of which is important, as it will influence the choice of antifoam and the concentration and amount required to achieve adequate foam control. Therefore, with respect to MK-7 isomer production, once the ideal agitation speed, aeration rate, and pH conditions have been determined on a laboratory scale, it would be advantageous to study the foaming characteristics of the fermentation broth in a laboratory-scale bioreactor to gain insight into the foam generation profile for the optimal process parameters to enhance the production of all-*trans* MK-7 on a larger scale. Chemical antifoams of different compositions can then be screened to determine the most suitable antifoaming agent. Subsequently, observation of foam evolution over the fermentation process employing the optimal antifoaming agent can guide the development of the most effective foam control strategy and can help determine the appropriate time(s) and condition(s) for antifoam addition (for example, antifoam can be automatically dispensed when the foam height reaches a pre-decided level), as well as the concentration(s) and amounts(s) in which it is added to the fermentation broth to restrict foaming without impairing the productivity of the fermentation process.

9.3.2.3.2.2 Alternative methods for foam control and medium reformulation

While chemical antifoams are the most feasible and effective approach to regulate foaming during fermentation, it is recognised that antifoaming agents can decrease the fermentation productivity, largely due to the reduction in oxygen and mass transfer in the fermentation broth upon antifoam addition. Thus, it is valuable to consider alternative options to decrease foaming that do not negatively impact the characteristics of the process and can be used in conjunction with antifoams to avoid using only chemical agents as the primary method of foam control.

Various mechanical and physical foam disruption techniques, including mechanical foam breakers (revolving disks, impellers, stirrers, injectors, ejectors, and orifices) and ultrasound, thermal, and electrical treatments, have been used to mitigate foaming during fermentation; however, they are often not as effectual as chemical agents, entail high power consumption, and may adversely affect cell viability [11-13, 15]. Nevertheless, combining mechanical devices and chemical antifoaming agents can lessen antifoam addition by 33-50% and may be a viable compromise [10, 11]. Reformulation of the fermentation medium is another approach that can be employed to alleviate excessive foaming during fermentation, and it has been successfully applied in MK-7 fermentation to reduce antifoam addition [2].

The optimal fermentation media determined from this study consists of several complex protein sources (yeast extract, soy peptone, and tryptone), which increase the protein content of the media and are likely to encourage foam formation during all-*trans* MK-7 production on a larger scale. Higher agitation speeds were also favourable for improving the production of the all-*trans* isomer in the small-scale experiments, and high rates of agitation and aeration during fermentation in a bioreactor are known to enhance MK-7 biosynthesis. These findings are expected to apply to the production of all-*trans* MK-7, and high agitation and aeration conditions, especially coupled with the large amount of protein in the optimal media, will possibly heighten foam generation.

Since it is desirable to minimise antifoam addition to the fermentation system, it may be advantageous to consider reformulation of the fermentation medium in future studies to lessen the extent of foaming, mainly at the start of fermentation, by decreasing the initial protein content of the media. This can be achieved by reducing the amount of protein-rich nutrients that are added to the preliminary fermentation media, and the remaining quantity required to satisfy the substrate demand and achieve optimal all-*trans* MK-7 productivity can be supplemented in the fermentation broth at specified intervals or during one or more stages of the fermentation process. This will likely diminish the requirement for antifoam addition and improve the yield of the bioactive isomer.

9.3.3 Development of fermented all-*trans* MK-7-enriched foods

The isomer profile of fermented MK-7-enriched fortified or functional foods has not yet been considered, and investigating the isomer profile of such products is worthy of attention, as

they hold great promise to help increase the widespread dietary intake of bioactive MK-7. While MK-7 nutritional supplements are currently the most popular and accessible form of MK-7 supplementation, they only reach selected groups of individuals who have exposure and are able to afford dietary supplements. In contrast, enriching commonly consumed food items with all-*trans* MK-7 will allow the development of biologically effective fermented MK-7-rich fortified or functional food products that can be made available to a diverse range of consumers at a reasonably low price. Broad consumption of such products by large populations is likely to improve the vitamin K status of individuals and provide greater health benefits relative to nutritional supplements in the form of tablets or capsules.

9.3.3.1 Possible matrices for fortified or functional foods

Foods that are widely accessible and can be easily incorporated into the dietary routine of different populations are ideal matrices for the development of fermented all-*trans* MK-7-enriched fortified or functional foods, as they have the potential to reach nearly all individuals universally. The suitability of a specific food matrix depends on many factors, including the intended population, the types of production processes likely to be involved, and the desired health outcomes. Hence, it would be valuable to first screen a diverse range of food sources and assess their ability to act as an appropriate matrix for fortification and the development of functional goods in different contexts.

Generally, foods can either be fortified with fermented all-*trans* MK-7 or used as a substrate that can be fermented to create a bioactive MK-7-enriched functional product. Items such as cereals, dairy goods, fats, oils, beverages, and condiments are possible foods that can serve as favourable matrices for the production of fermented biologically significant MK-7-containing fortified or functional foods.

Dairy products, in particular, have immense potential for the development of fermented bioactive MK-7 fortified or functional foods, and this has been exemplified in previous studies considering the enrichment of milk, yoghurt, and other dairy goods with MK-7 to achieve various health outcomes [16-22]. Furthermore, dairy products are a good source of Ca, and supplementation with all-*trans* MK-7 will enhance their nutritive value and help improve bone health, decrease the incidence of fractures, and reduce the progression of osteoporosis. Therefore, in forthcoming studies, it is of benefit to investigate the fortification of dairy items with fermented all-*trans* MK-7 or the fermentation of suitable dairy products with *B. subtilis natto* or other MK-7-producing microorganisms commonly used for the manufacture of dairy goods, such as lactic acid bacteria, to produce fermented bioactive MK-7-enriched functional foods with probiotic properties. However, for such nutritionally enhanced products to have high therapeutic value, they must contain the biologically significant all-*trans* isomer in the greatest proportion. Consequently, fermentation strategies should focus on improving the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer and reducing the production of *cis* MK-7.

Other edible and food grade substrates, especially those with a high existing nutrient profile, could also be assessed to develop fermented bioactive MK-7-enriched fortified or functional foods in a similar manner. Moreover, this will give a good indication of the effect that assorted food matrices have on the fermentation yield of all-*trans* MK-7 and their influence on the quantity of the bioactive isomer during the short- or long-term storage of different types of fortified or functional products.

9.3.3.2 The use of NPs to increase all-*trans* MK-7 production for fermented functional foods

This investigation considered the use of biocompatible magnetic IONs for bacterial cell immobilisation, which has the potential to increase the yield of the all-*trans* isomer and address the major challenges associated with large-scale MK-7 fermentation. However, these magnetic IONs are not appropriate for developing fermented bioactive MK-7-enriched functional foods, as they are not safe for human consumption. Generally, when NPs are used to produce and enhance the MK-7 concentration of fermented functional foods, they often remain in the final product and are not removed, unlike magnetic IONs. Thus, NPs must be non-toxic and coated with biocompatible food grade materials to be suitable for inclusion in fermented functional foods.

Iron-based NPs are particularly valuable for the development of MK-7-rich fermented functional foods, as they have the ability to boost the MK-7 concentration and can serve as a source of iron. Iron supplementation, in addition to MK-7, through the consumption of such fermented functional foods can help increase the dietary intake of iron and reduce the incidence of iron deficiency anaemia, a health condition affecting a substantial proportion of the population worldwide.

Previously, biocompatible XG-coated FeOOH NPs have been used for bacterial cell immobilisation to enhance the MK-7 yield of a fermented functional dairy product (milk) [23]. Although using XG-coated FeOOH NPs increased the MK-7 concentration in the fermented milk product, the study evaluated MK-7 production holistically without accounting for the proportion of the bioactive all-*trans* isomer achieved. This is important, as the therapeutic value of fermented MK-7 functional foods stems from their content of the all-*trans* isomer. As a result, exploring the potential for biocompatible XG-coated FeOOH NPs to enhance the all-*trans* MK-7 concentration of fermented MK-7 functional foods would be beneficial.

Other types of NPs with nutritional benefits, including ZnO (source of Zn) and ferric pyrophosphate (FePO₄) and various Fe₂O₃ compounds (sources of iron), have also been explored for the development of food products, and they can be evaluated for their suitability to increase the concentration of the bioactive MK-7 isomer for the development of fermented functional foods.

Furthermore, other biocompatible polysaccharide coatings with favourable properties, such as acacia gum, guar gum, carrageenan, pectin, alginates, inulin, and dextran, could be studied

in combination with FeOOH or other nutritionally relevant NPs to boost the all-*trans* MK-7 profile of fermented functional foods. These biocompatible polysaccharides, along with XG, are commonly used as thickeners, emulsifiers, and stabilisers in the food industry and are considered safe for human consumption and the development of food products.

In this regard, there is a substantial domain for further research into different types and combinations of nutritionally valuable NPs and biocompatible coatings that can be used to fabricate non-toxic NPs to enhance the all-*trans* MK-7 content of dairy-based and other fermented functional foods. However, many factors, such as the safety and properties of the NPs used, the concentration of NPs in foods, the digestion and clearance of NPs following consumption, and the potential for the accumulation of NPs in the body, must be investigated for the various types and combinations of NPs and biocompatible coatings for food-related applications. Additionally, finished products will likely be subjected to several regulatory criteria before they are deemed safe and acceptable for human consumption.

9.3.3.3 Shelf life studies of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 after formulation into various consumer products

It has been acknowledged that MK-7 is liable to degradation during storage, and the rate at which this occurs is accelerated in certain environments. While exposure to specific storage conditions has been considered in this study, it only covers a subset of the many factors encountered during the manufacture and overall shelf life of a particular product. In addition, different preparations of fermented bioactive MK-7 may be subjected to unique storage environments depending on the characteristics of the final product (tablets, capsules, or fortified/functional foods).

For instance, fermented all-*trans* MK-7 formulated into tablets and capsules is likely to be exposed to several excipient compounds and active ingredients (in the case of multi-nutrient supplements), such as MgO, CaCO₃, calcium citrate (Ca₃(C₆H₅O₇)₂), cellulose, gelatine, and other vitamins and minerals. Certain compounds, including MgO, may also promote alkalisation, and since MK-7 is vulnerable to alkaline conditions, such additives can create an unfavourable milieu that enhance its deterioration. Hence, the inclusion of supplementary compounds and ingredients and their various combinations can create and expose the vitamin to distinct environments, which can affect the isomer profile and stability of all-*trans* MK-7 in different preparations. In contrast, fermented bioactive MK-7-enriched fortified or functional foods will likely be subjected to a different set of environmental factors specific to the selected food matrix and its storage requirements. For example, fresh dairy products require refrigeration at low temperatures and have a fairly short shelf life in comparison to cereals and other dry goods, commonly stored at ambient conditions over a longer period.

Consequently, the isomer composition and stability of all-*trans* MK-7 will likely vary with the nature of the end product, and in order to comprehensively understand the effect of

various environmental factors and storage conditions on the isomer profile and stability of all-*trans* MK-7, it is imperative to examine these aspects in context. Although prior studies have assessed the quality of commercially available MK-7 dietary supplements and similar preparations, there have been no attempts thus far to explore the isomer composition and stability of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 in different formulated products.

Therefore, in future research, it would be advantageous to formulate fermented all-*trans* MK-7 into various consumer end products, such as tablets, capsules, and fortified or functional foods, to develop a deeper understanding of the effect of different production processes, preparations, and foods matrices on the MK-7 isomer profile. It would also be valuable to carry out shelf life or degradation studies to explore both the short- and long-term stability of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 when formulated into assorted dietary supplement preparations and fortified or functional foods to elucidate the impact of a range of environmental factors and storage conditions, including product-specific features and those relating to the proposed packaging materials and design, on the quantity of bioactive MK-7 and the isomer composition resulting from different end uses.

9.3.4 Concluding remarks

Essentially, there is broad scope and ample opportunity for additional investigation regarding the production of MK-7 isomers during fermentation. Research with a greater emphasis on further improving the concentration of the all-*trans* isomer, particularly on a larger scale, evaluating the isomer profile and stability of fermented all-*trans* MK-7 in different formulations, and assessing the shelf life of possible end applications is warranted. This will likely enable the commercial production of fermented bioactive MK-7 dietary supplements and fortified or functional foods.

Although the findings of this research are not yet ready to be implemented on an industrial scale to enable commercial production, food companies could apply the fermentation process developed in this study in their research to create a MK-7-enriched product. Dairy companies, in particular, would be a good start, as previous research considering the development of MK-7-enriched functional dairy products has provided promising results. Furthermore, dairy products have a rich existing nutrient profile that could complement the function of MK-7 in the body. Research could focus on using a current dairy good, such as milk or yoghurt, as a fermentation substrate to synthesise a bioactive MK-7-enriched product by optimising and enhancing the synthesis of all-*trans* MK-7 in each food matrix. Alternatively, companies could use the synthesis procedure developed in this study to produce fermented all-*trans* MK-7 to add to or fortify different dairy goods and create a functional dairy product rich in bioactive MK-7. Subsequently, the sensory characteristics of such functional products can be investigated to assess important features relating to consumer acceptance, including appearance, taste, texture, and aroma. If these trials are successful, it will likely reduce the time required for bioactive MK-7 products to become

available on the market and increase the accessibility of consumers to effective and therapeutically significant all-*trans* MK-7-enriched products in the future.

9.4 References

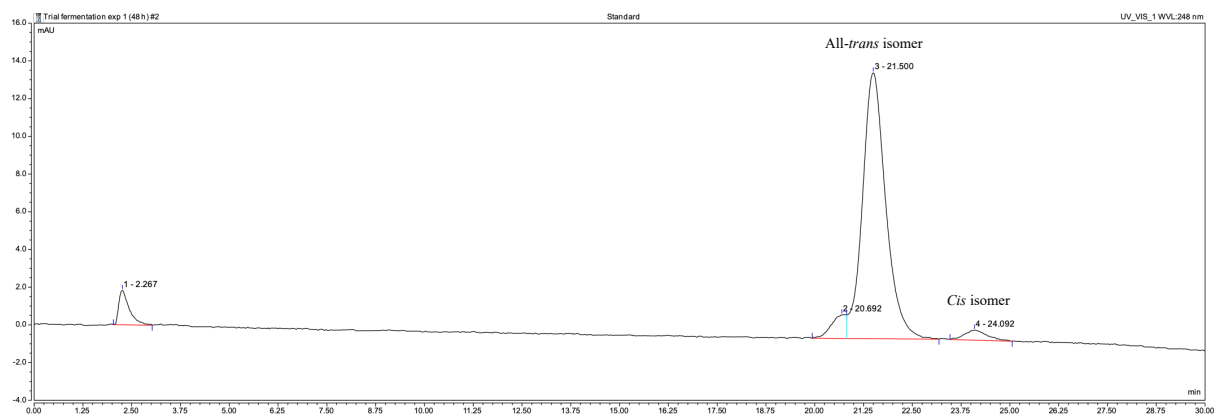
- [1] Mahdinia E, Cekmecelioglu D, Demirci A (2019) Bioreactor scale-up. In: A. Berenjian (ed) *Essentials in Fermentation Technology*. Springer Nature, pp 213-236.
- [2] Ma Y, Tang PTP, McClure DD, Valtchev P, Ashton JF, Dehghani F, Kavanagh JM. Development of a menaquinone-7 enriched functional food. *Food and Bioproducts Processing* 2019, *117*, 258-265. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2019.06.017>
- [3] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Implementation of fed-batch strategies for vitamin K (menaquinone-7) production by *Bacillus subtilis natto* in biofilm reactors. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2018, *102*(21), 9147-9157. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-018-9340-7>
- [4] Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Regtop H, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Advances in menaquinone-7 production by *Bacillus subtilis natto*: fed-batch glycerol addition. *American Journal of Biochemistry and Biotechnology* 2012, *8*(2), 105-110.
- [5] Wu W-J, Ahn B-Y. Statistical Optimization of Medium Components by Response Surface Methodology to Enhance Menaquinone-7 (Vitamin K₂) Production by *Bacillus subtilis*. *Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2018, *28*(6), 902-908.
- [6] Sato T, Yamada Y, Ohtani Y, Mitsui N, Murasawa H, Araki S. Efficient production of menaquinone (vitamin K₂) by a menadione-resistant mutant of *Bacillus subtilis*. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2001, *26*(3), 115-120.
- [7] Mahdinia E, Demirci A, Berenjian A. Optimization of *Bacillus subtilis natto* growth parameters in glycerol-based medium for vitamin K (Menaquinone-7) production in biofilm reactors. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering* 2018, *41*(2), 195-204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-017-1857-0>
- [8] Berenjian A, Mahanama R, Talbot A, Biffin R, Regtop H, Valtchev P, Kavanagh J, Dehghani F. Efficient media for high menaquinone-7 production: response surface methodology approach. *New Biotechnology* 2011, *28*(6), 665-672.
- [9] Sato T, Yamada Y, Ohtani Y, Mitsui N, Murasawa H, Araki S. Production of Menaquinone (vitamin K₂)-7 by *Bacillus subtilis*. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering* 2001, *91*(1), 16-20. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1389-1723\(01\)80104-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1389-1723(01)80104-3)
- [10] da Rosa LM, Koerich DM, Della Giustina SV (2019) Bioreactors Operating Conditions. In: A. Berenjian (ed) *Essentials in Fermentation Technology*. Springer Nature, pp 169-212.
- [11] Junker B. Foam and its mitigation in fermentation systems. *Biotechnology Progress* 2007, *23*(4), 767-784.
- [12] Prins A, Van't Riet K. Proteins and surface effects in fermentation: foam, antifoam and mass transfer. *Trends in Biotechnology* 1987, *5*(11), 296-301.

- [13] Vardar-Sukan F. Foaming and its control in bioprocesses. *Recent Advances in Biotechnology* 1992, 113-146.
- [14] Pelton R. A review of antifoam mechanisms in fermentation. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology* 2002, 29(4), 149-154.
- [15] Routledge SJ. Beyond de-foaming: the effects of antifoams on bioprocess productivity. *Computational and Structural Biotechnology Journal* 2012, 3(4), e201210001.
- [16] Novin D, van der Wel J, Seifan M, Berenjian A. The effect of aeration and mixing in developing a dairy-based functional food rich in menaquinone-7. *Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering* 2020, 43(10), 1773-1780. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-020-02366-w>
- [17] Southee R, Haroon S, Ebrahiminezhad A, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. Novel functional fermented dairy product rich in menaquinone-7. *Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology* 2016, 7, 31-35.
- [18] Cirilli I, Orlando P, Silvestri S, Marcheggiani F, Tiano L. Bioavailability of menaquinone-7 in milk formulation. Comparison of different solubilization techniques. *International Journal on Nutraceuticals, Functional Foods and Novel Foods* 2019, 1, 34-39.
- [19] Kanellakis S, Moschonis G, Tenta R, Schaafsma A, van den Heuvel EGHM, Papaioannou N, Lyritis G, Manios Y. Changes in Parameters of Bone Metabolism in Postmenopausal Women Following a 12-Month Intervention Period Using Dairy Products Enriched with Calcium, Vitamin D, and Phylloquinone (Vitamin K1) or Menaquinone-7 (Vitamin K2): The Postmenopausal Health Study II. *Calcified Tissue International* 2012, 90(4), 251-262. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00223-012-9571-z>
- [20] Knapen MHJ, Braam LAJLM, Teunissen KJ, Van't Hoofd CM, Zwijsen RML, van den Heuvel EGHM, Vermeer C. Steady-state vitamin K2 (menaquinone-7) plasma concentrations after intake of dairy products and soft gel capsules. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2016, 70(7), 831-836. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ejcn.2016.3>
- [21] Knapen MHJ, Braam LAJLM, Teunissen KJ, Zwijsen RML, Theuwissen E, Vermeer C. Yogurt drink fortified with menaquinone-7 improves vitamin K status in a healthy population. *Journal of Nutritional Science* 2015, 4, 35. <https://doi.org/10.1017/jns.2015.25>
- [22] Kruger MC, Booth CL, Coad J, Schollum LM, Kuhn-Sherlock B, Shearer MJ. Effect of calcium fortified milk supplementation with or without vitamin K on biochemical markers of bone turnover in premenopausal women. *Nutrition* 2006, 22(11), 1120-1128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nut.2006.08.008>
- [23] Novin D, van der Wel J, Seifan M, Ebrahiminezhad A, Ghasemi Y, Berenjian A. A functional dairy product rich in Menaquinone-7 and FeOOH nanoparticles. *Food Science and Technology* 2020, 129, 109564. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2020.109564>

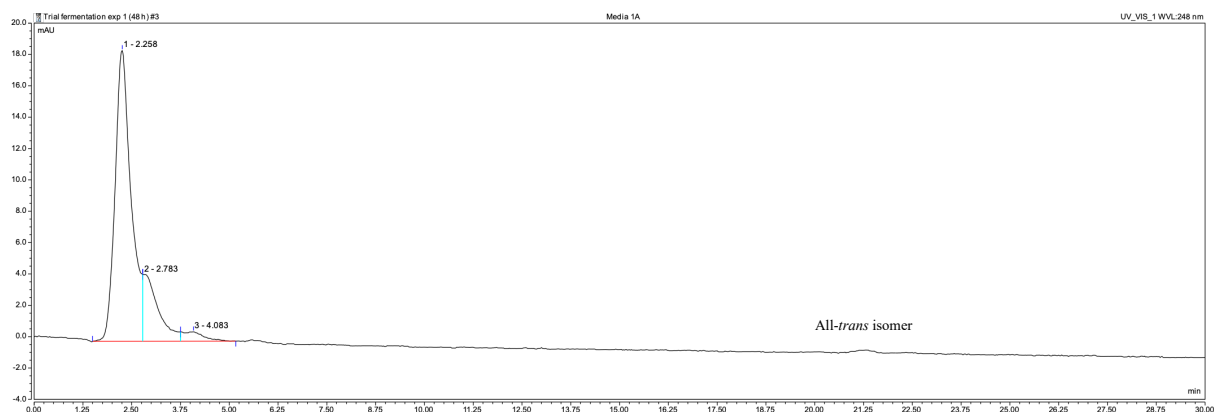
Appendices

Appendix A – Preliminary Results

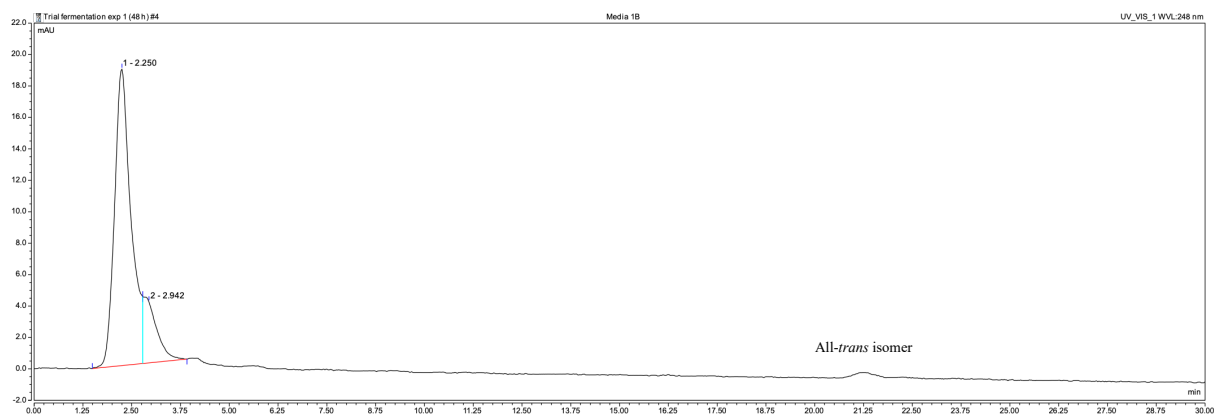
Experiment 1 Standard



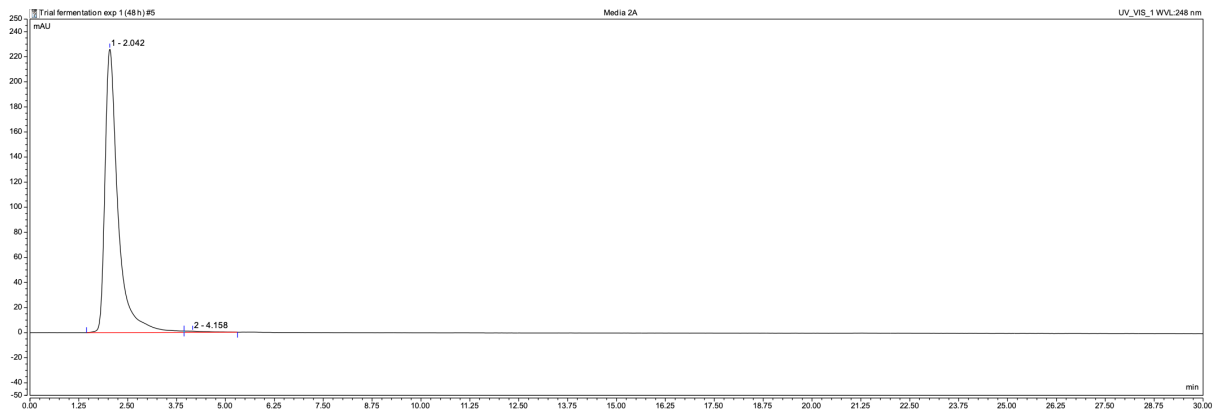
Media 1A



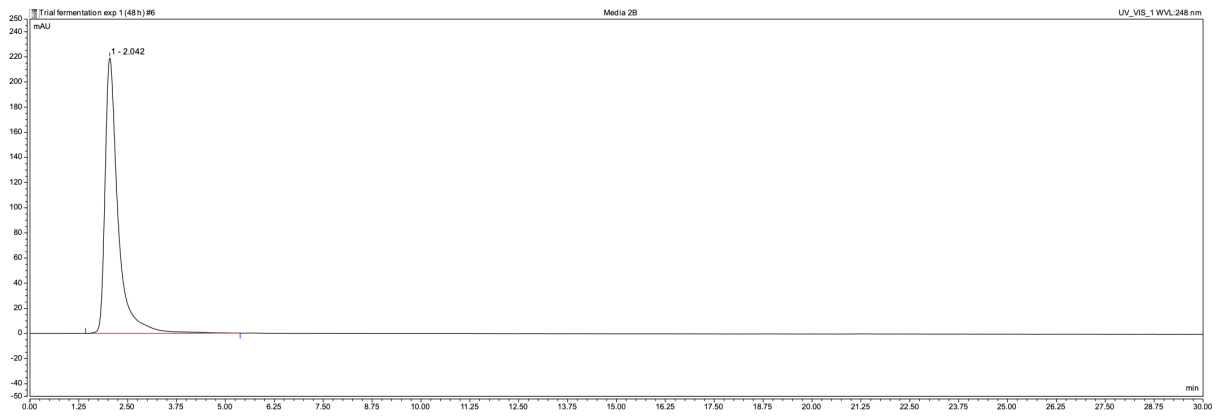
Media 1B



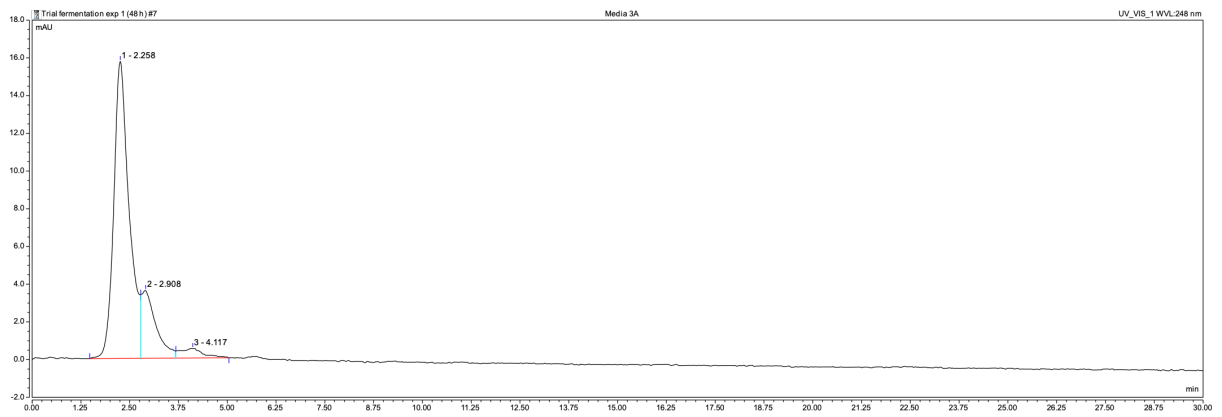
Media 2A



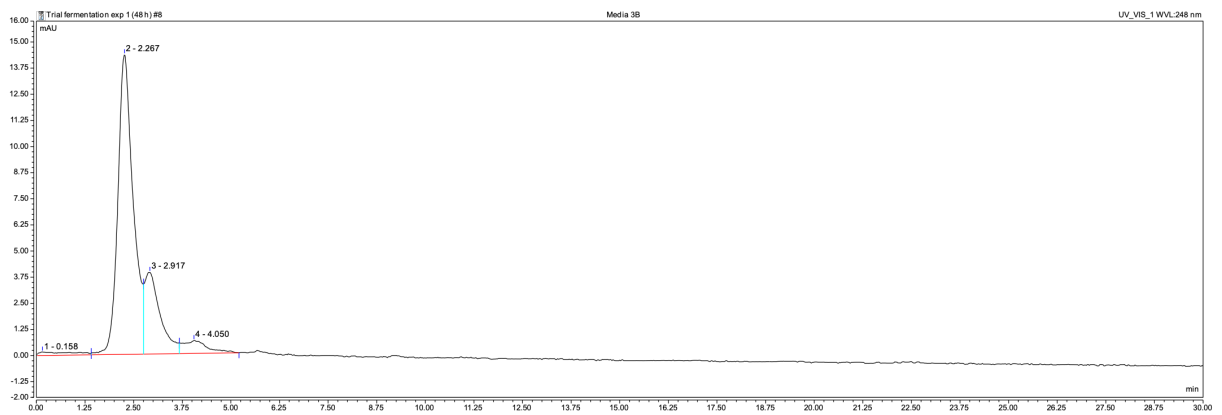
Media 2B



Media 3A

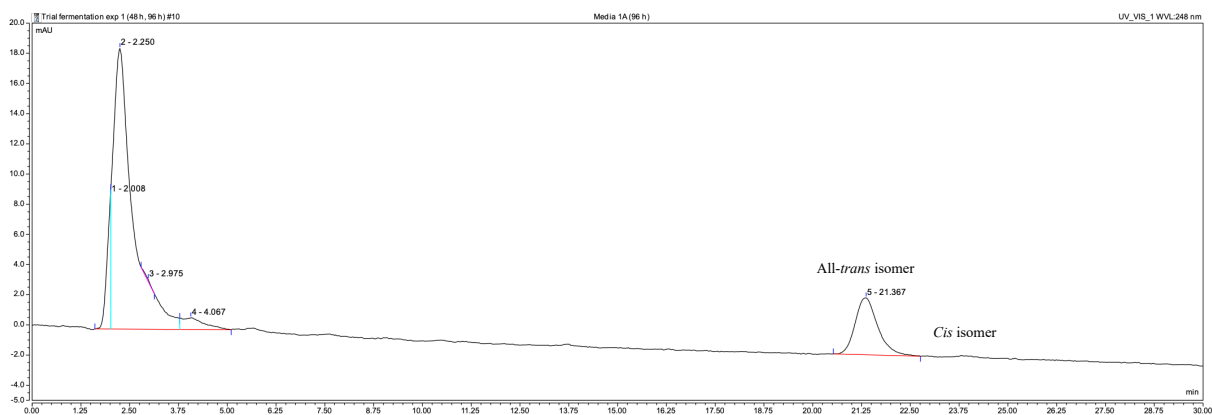


Media 3B

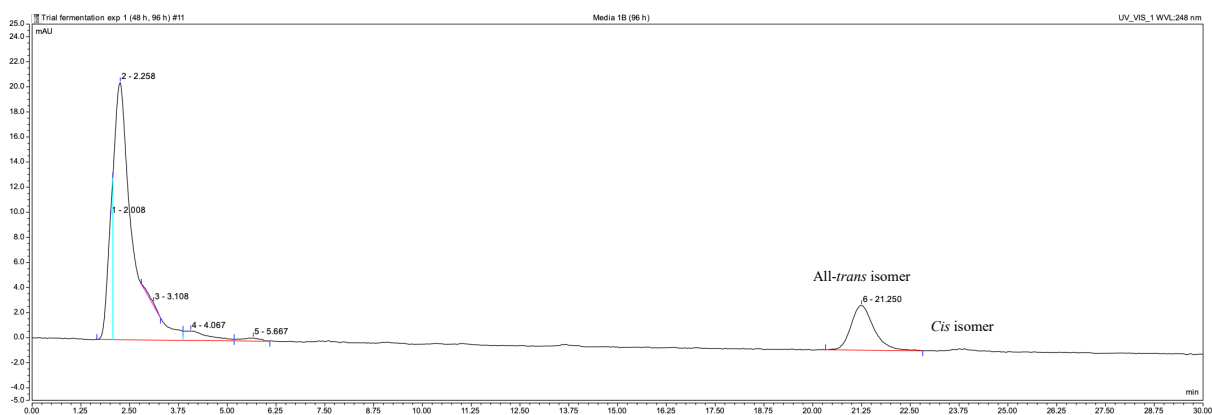


Experiment 2

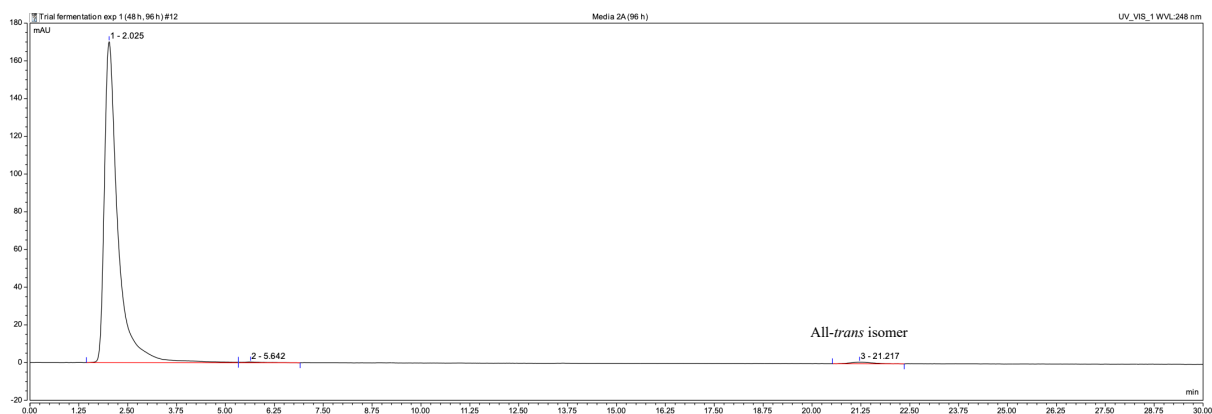
Media 1A



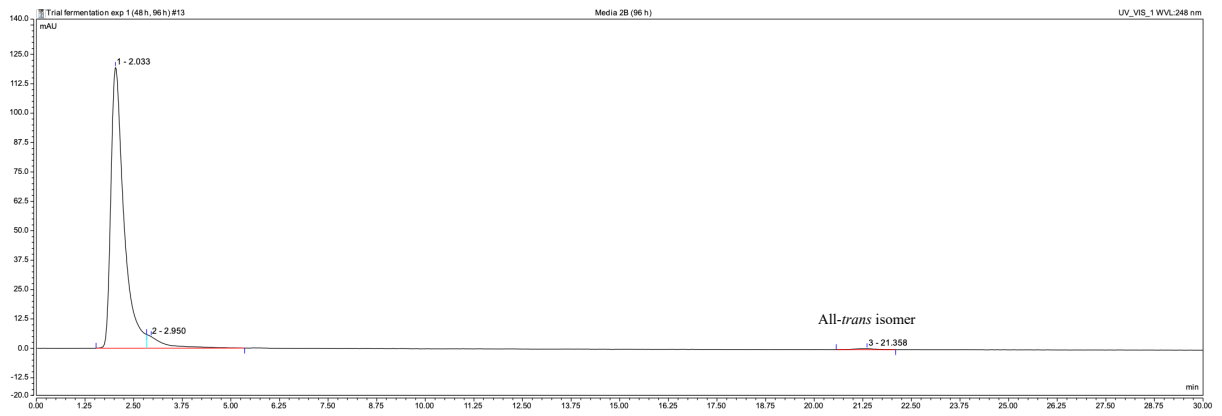
Media 1B



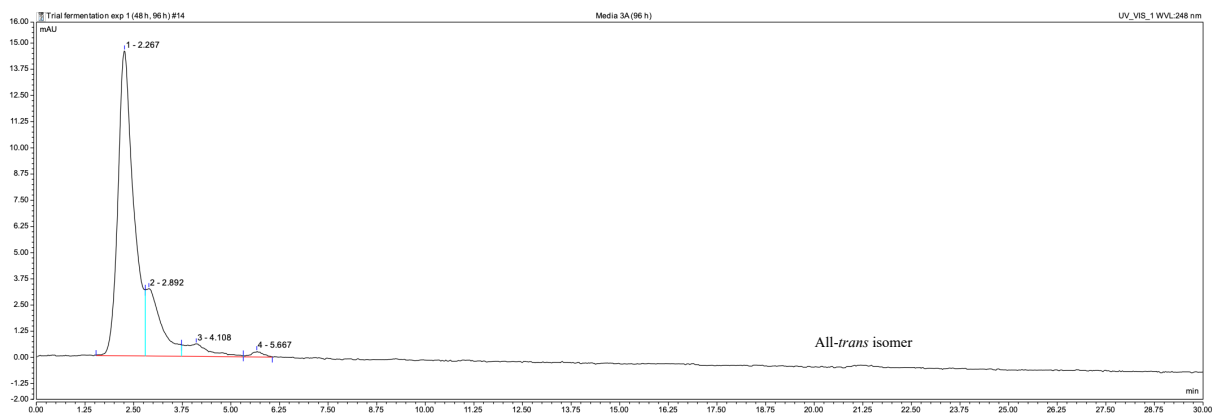
Media 2A



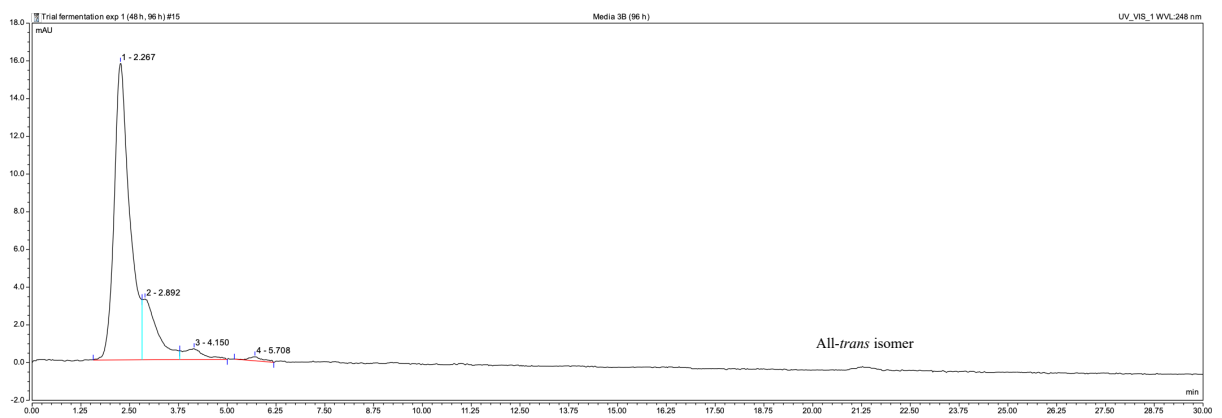
Media 2B



Media 3A

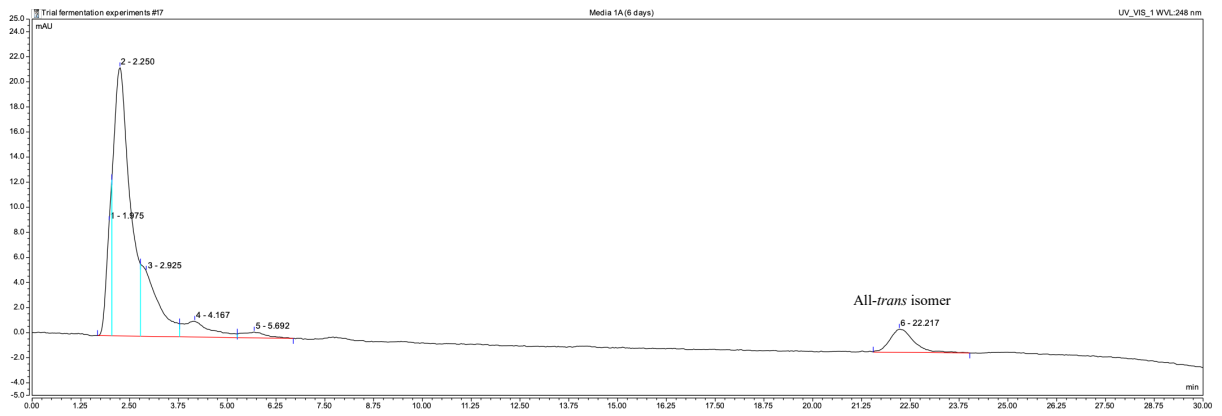


Media 3B

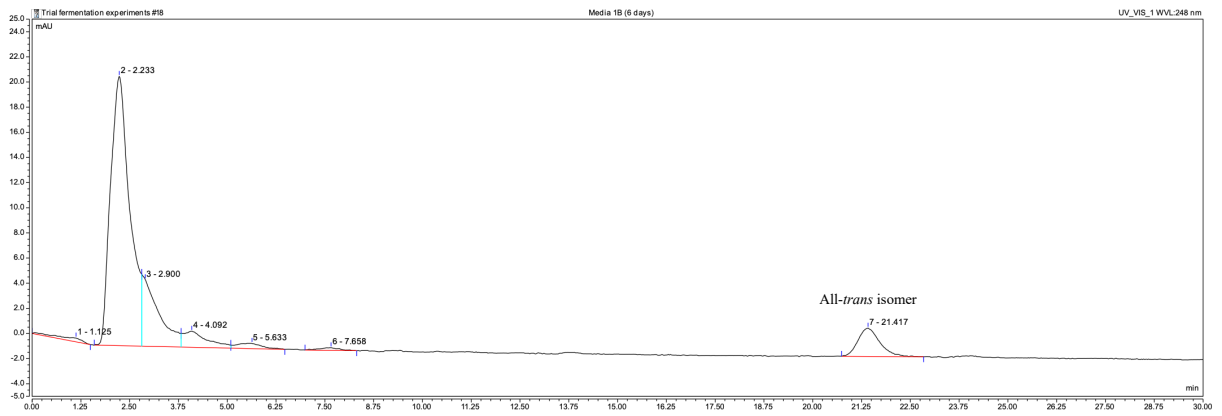


Experiment 3

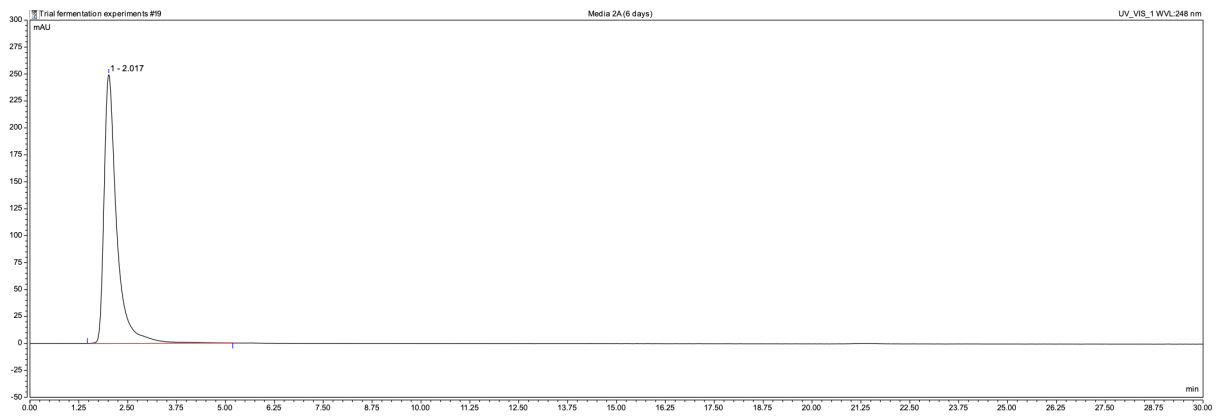
Media 1A



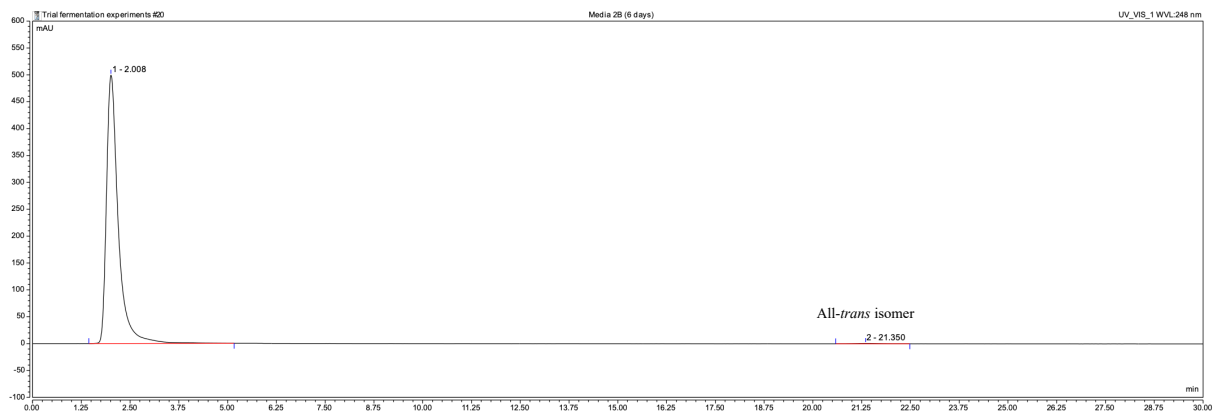
Media 1B



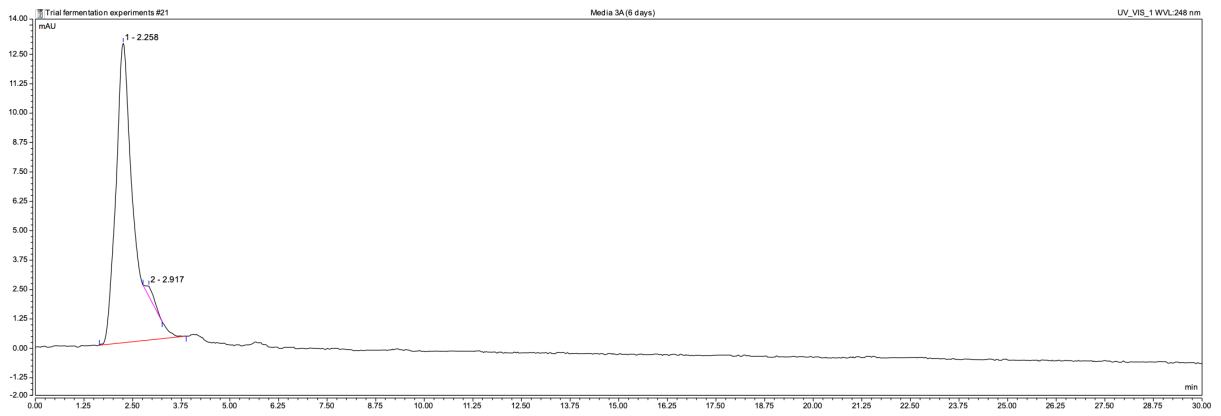
Media 2A



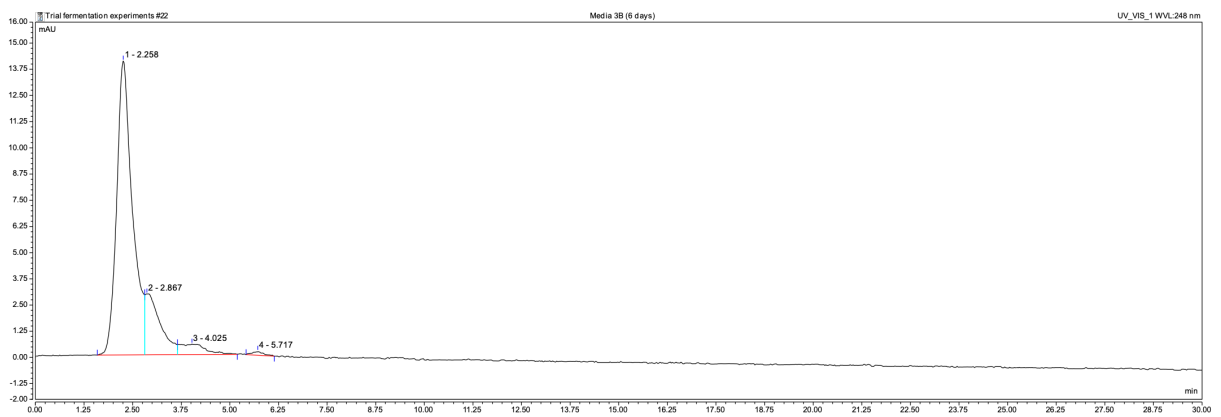
Media 2B



Media 3A

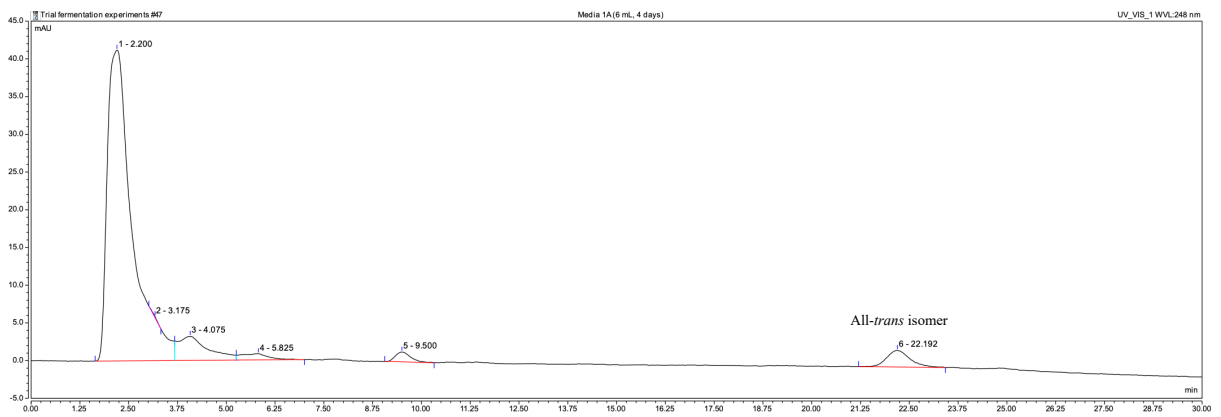


Media 3B

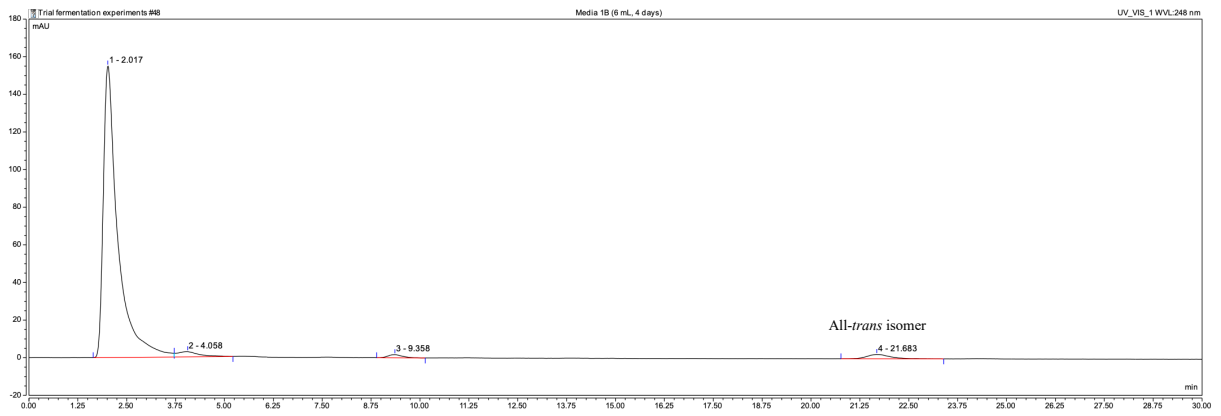


Experiment 4

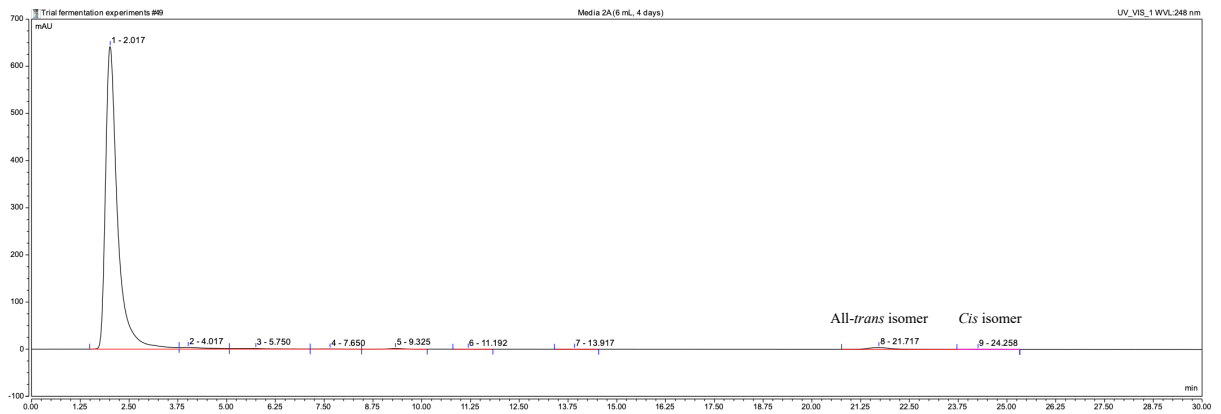
Media 1A



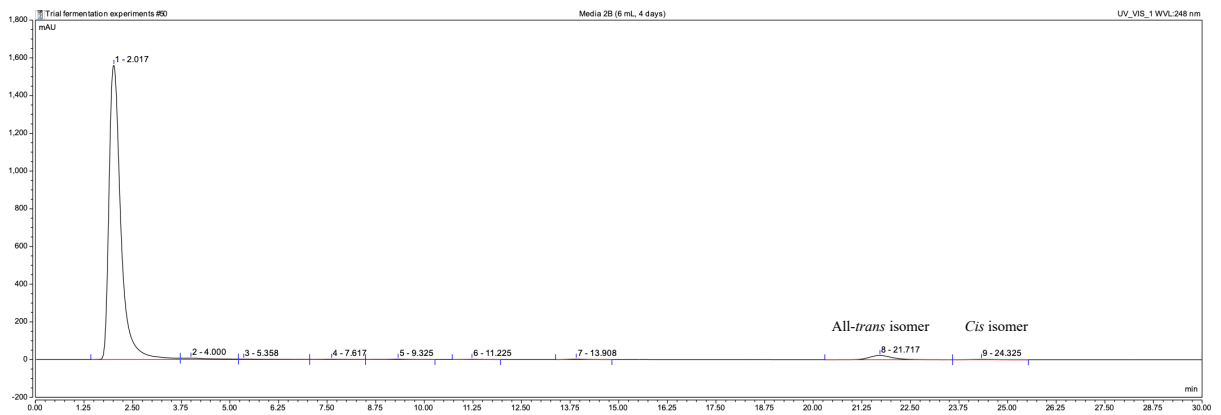
Media 1B



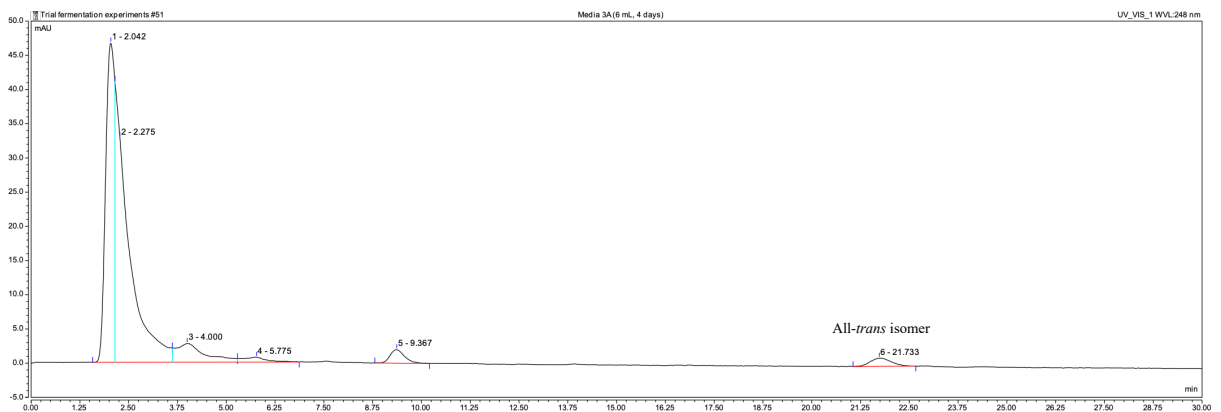
Media 2A



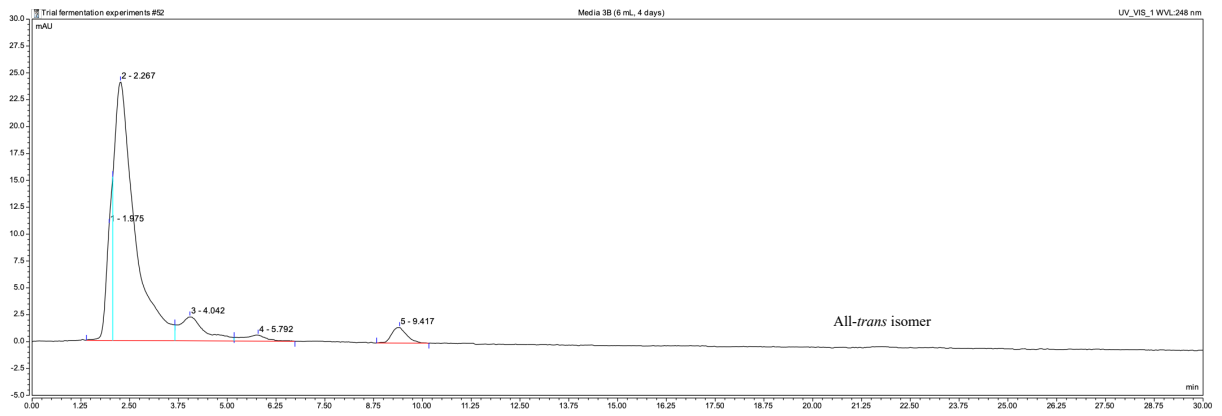
Media 2B



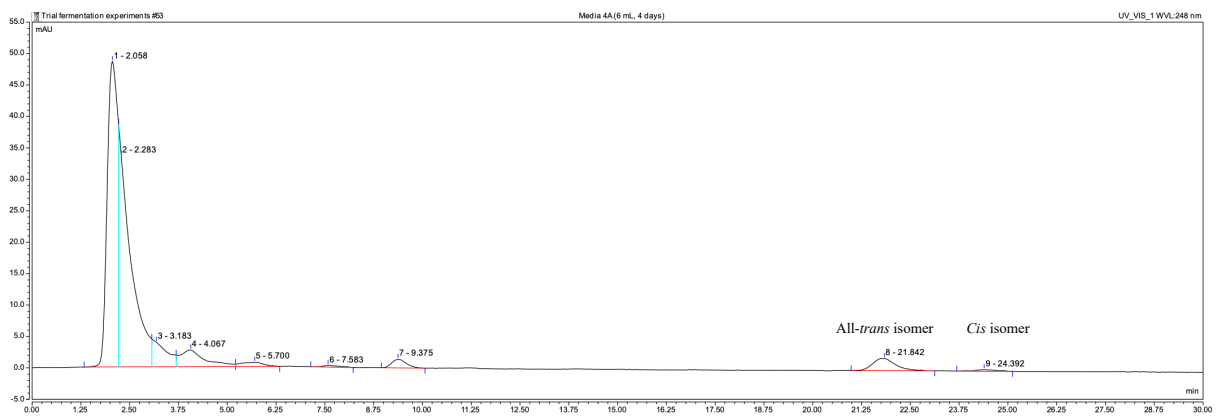
Media 3A



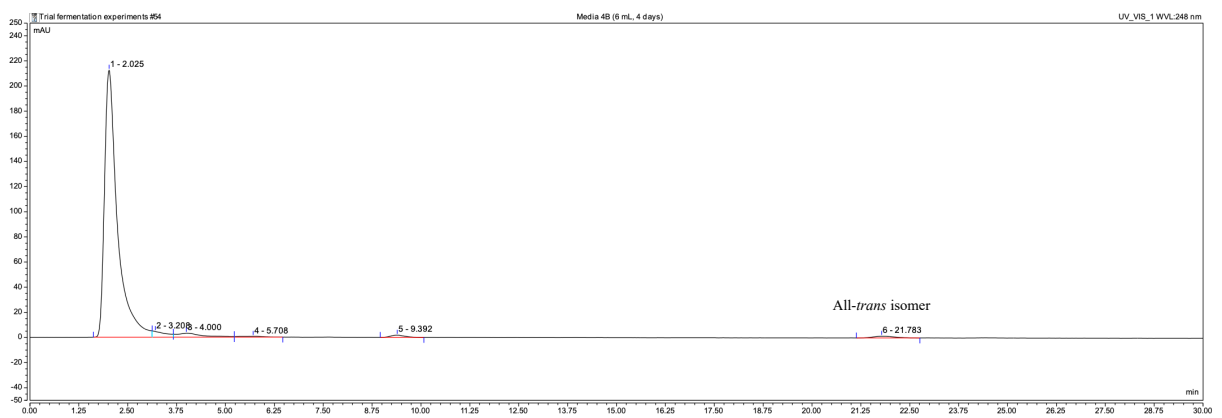
Media 3B



Media 4A

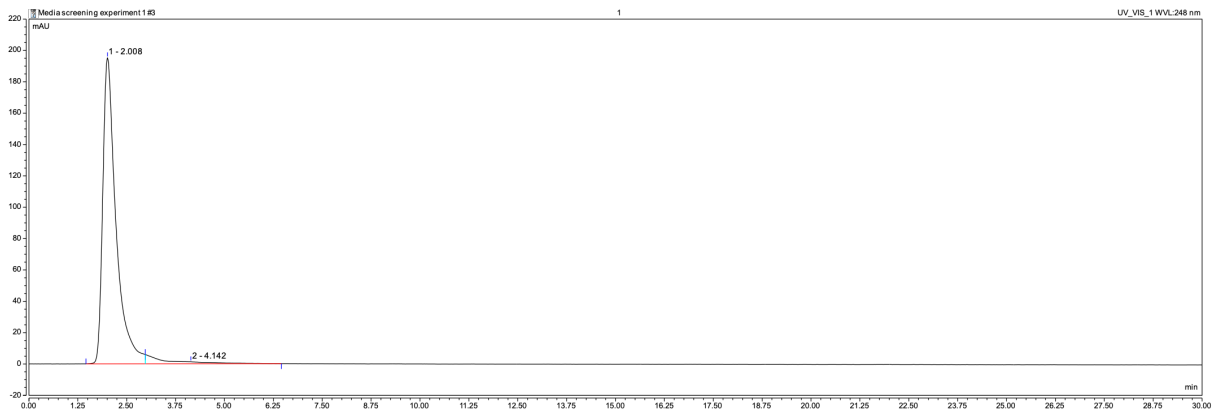


Media 4B

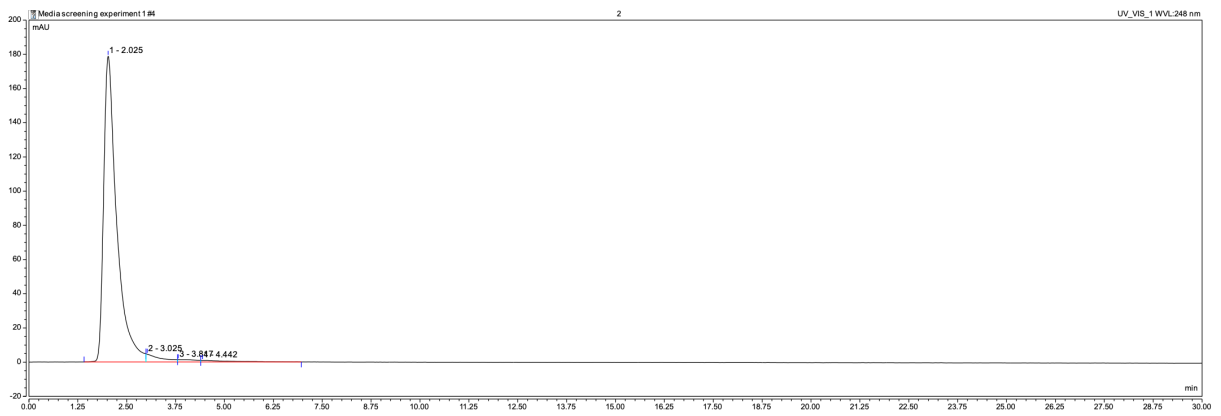


Experiment 5

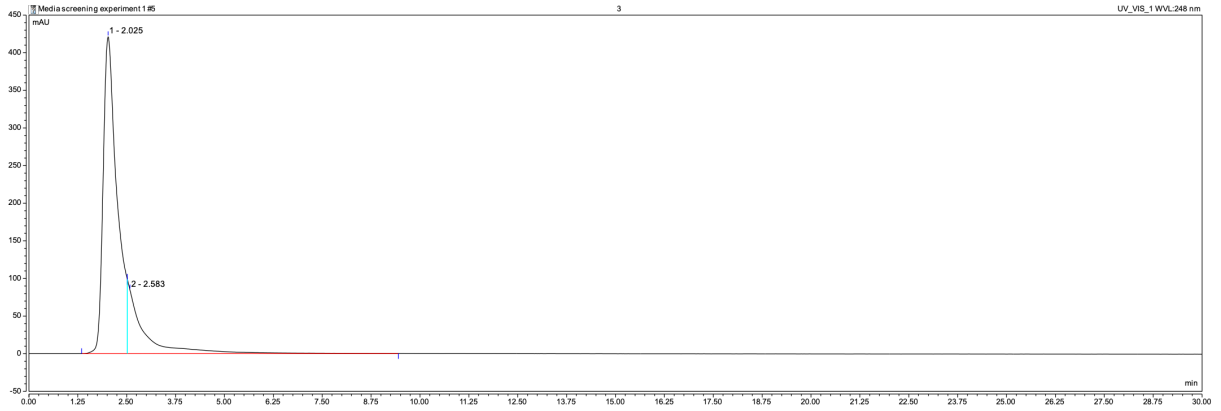
Sample 1



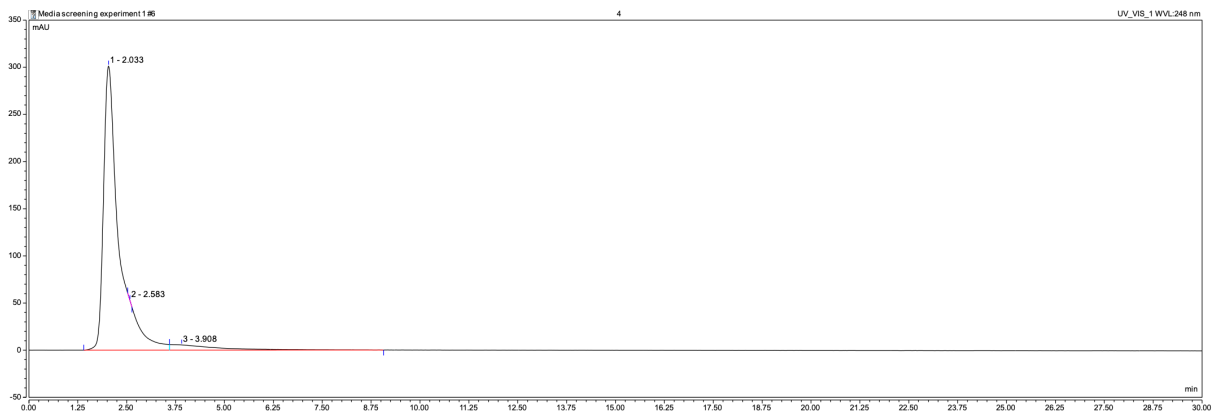
Sample 2



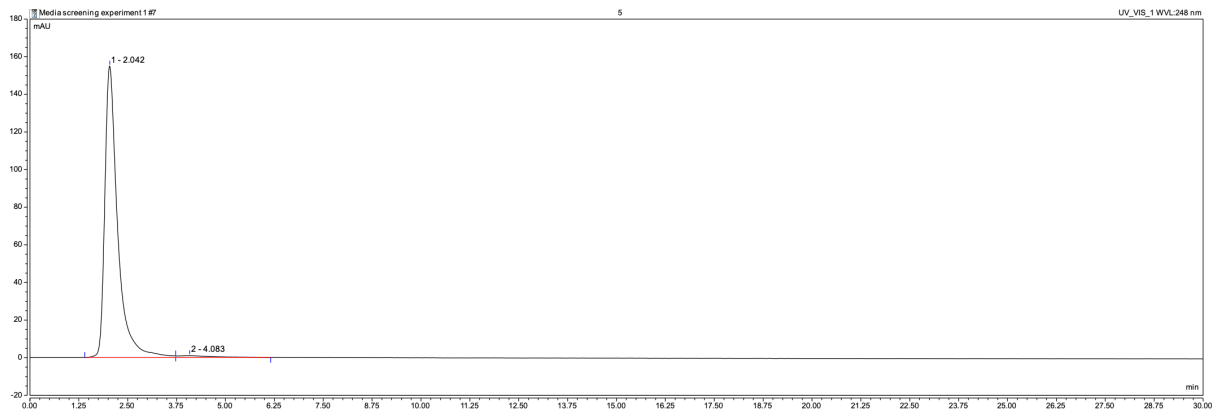
Sample 3



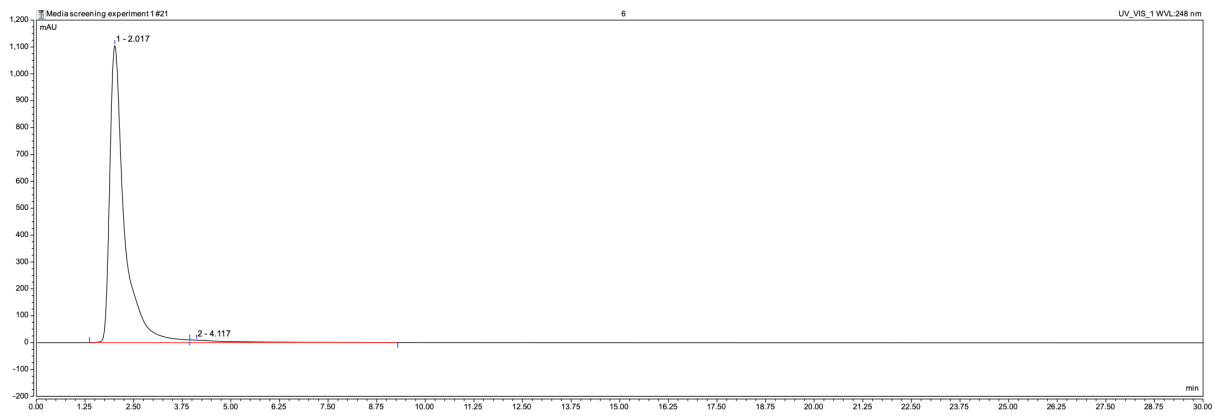
Sample 4



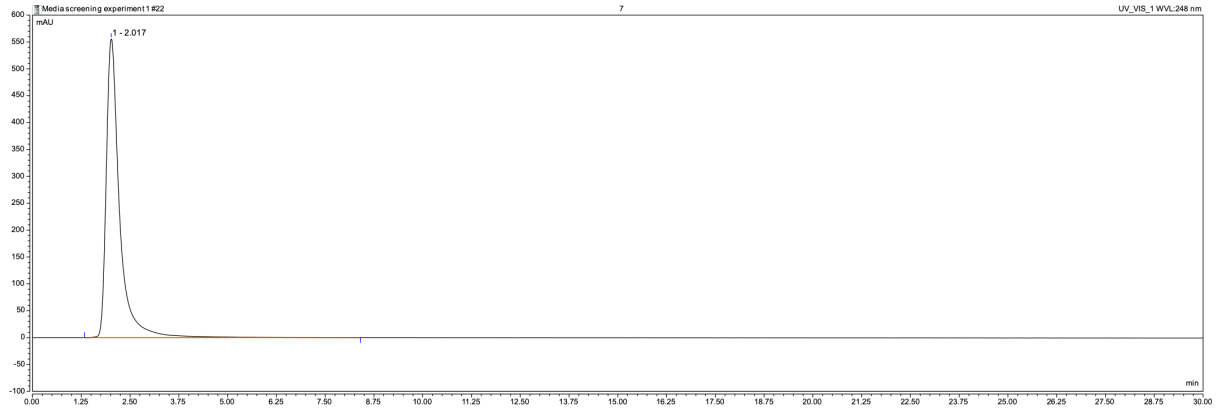
Sample 5



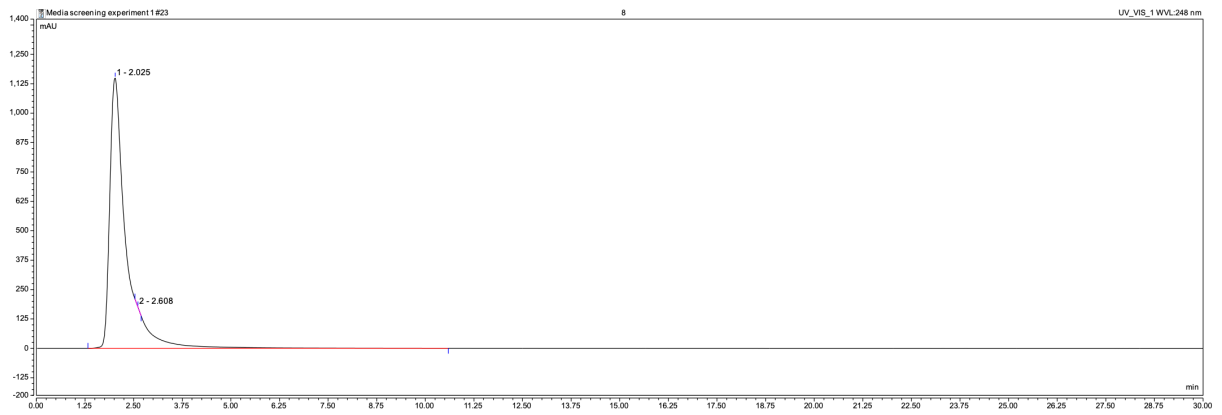
Sample 6



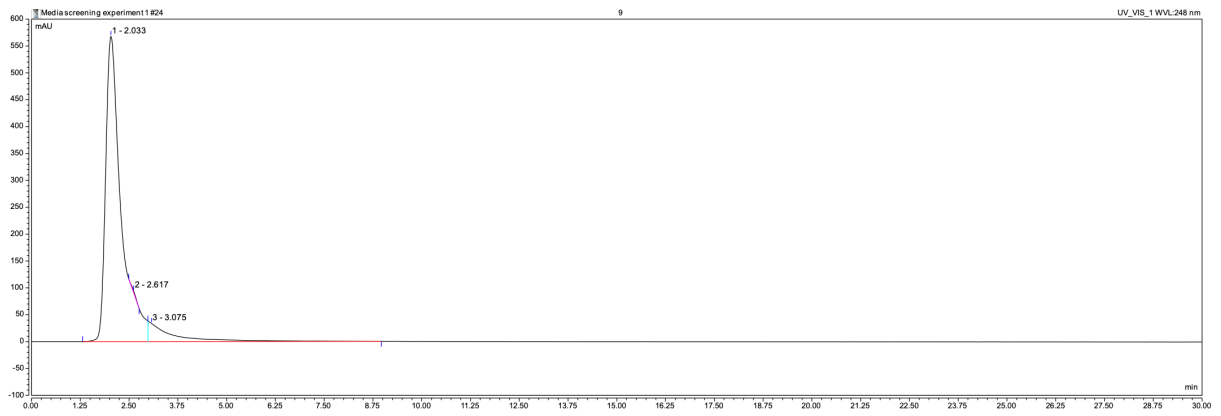
Sample 7



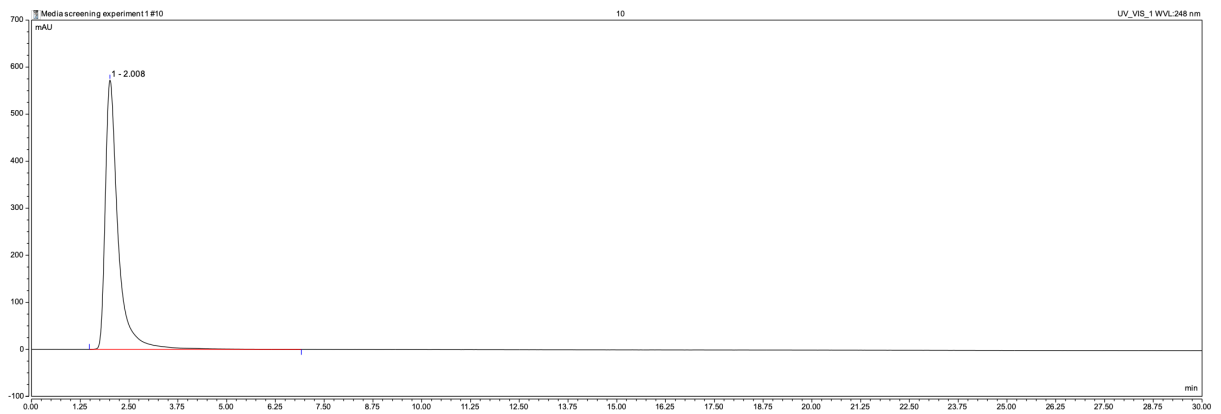
Sample 8



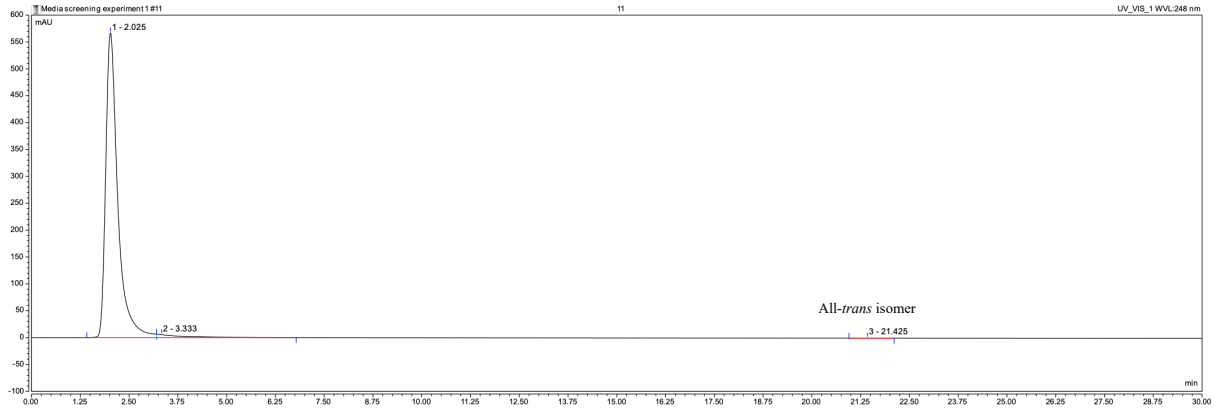
Sample 9



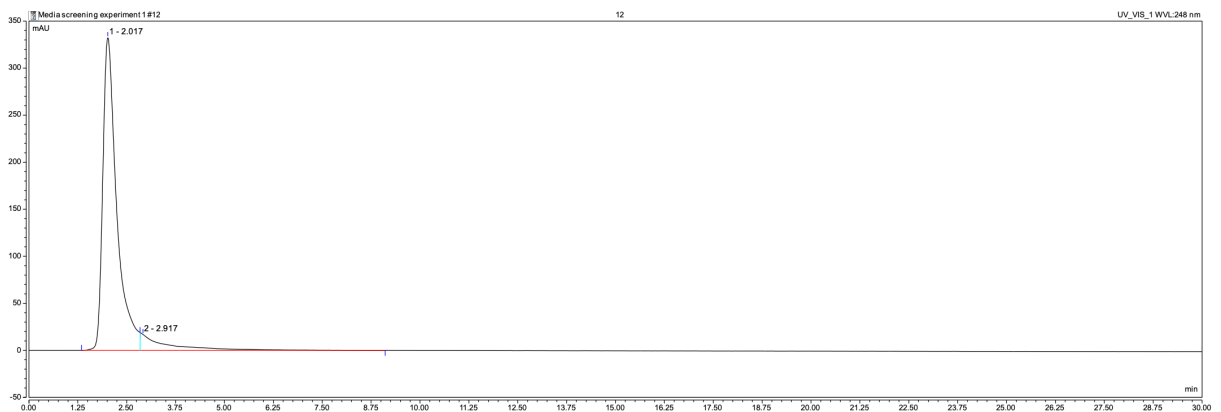
Sample 10



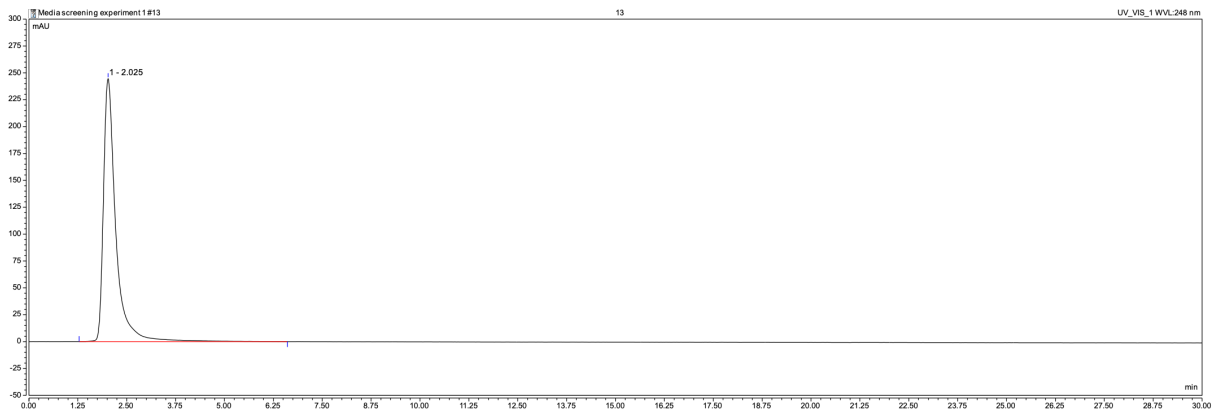
Sample 11



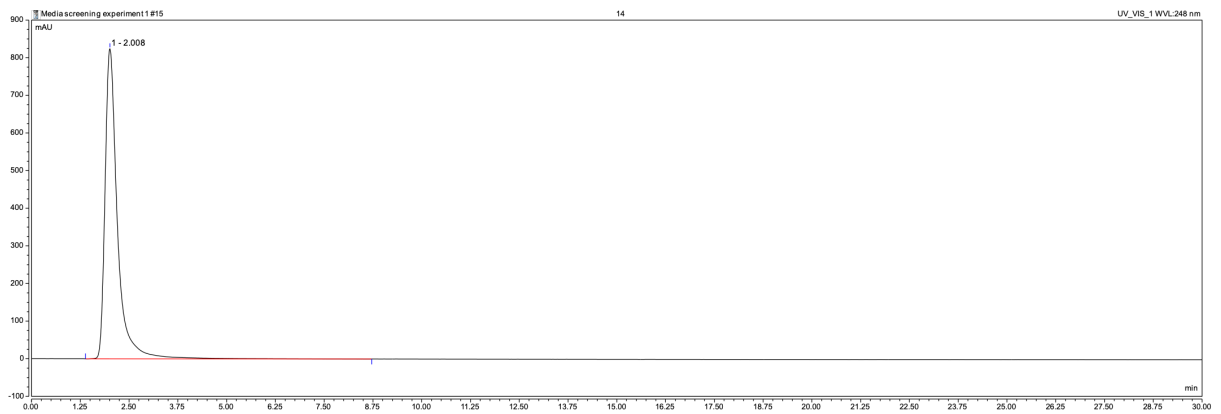
Sample 12



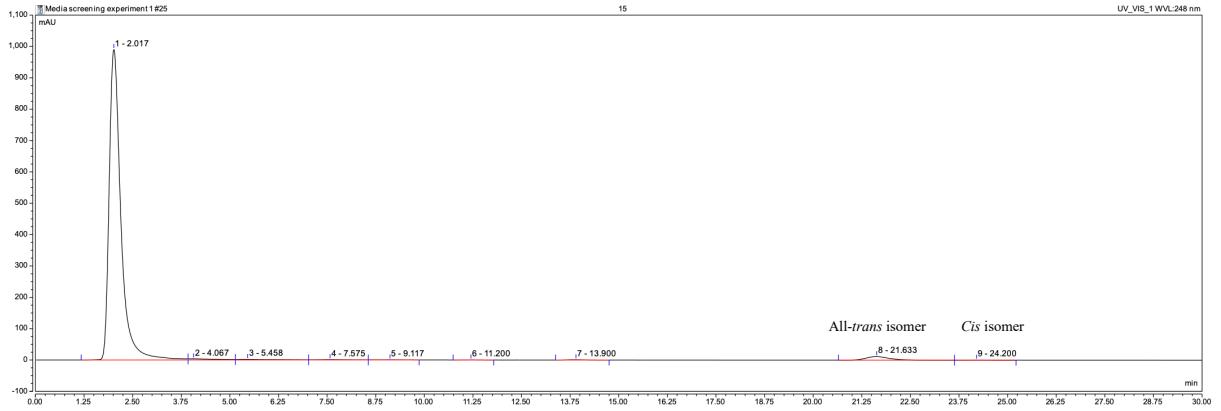
Sample 13



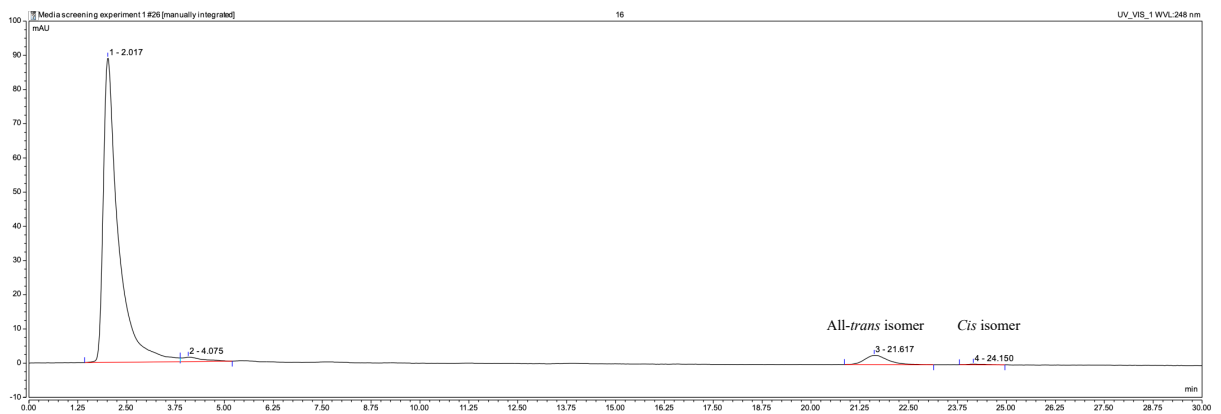
Sample 14



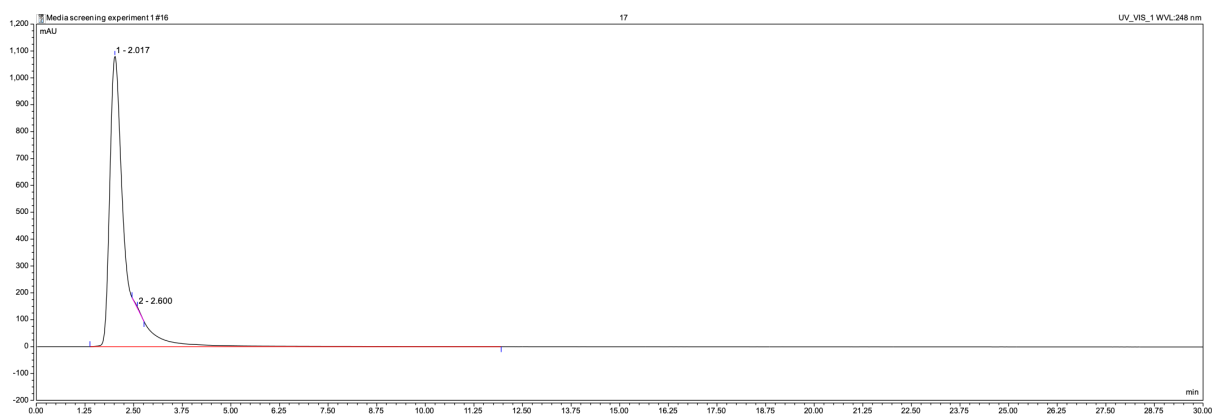
Sample 15



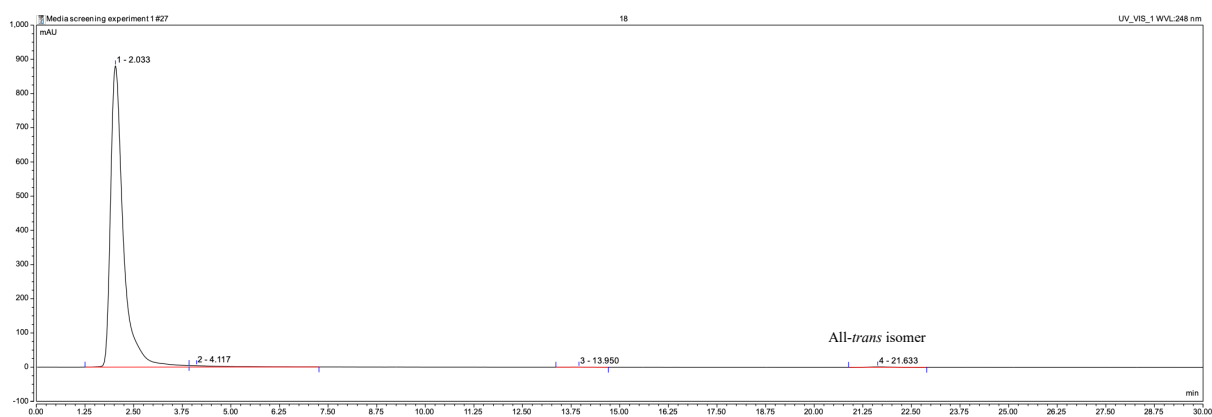
Sample 16



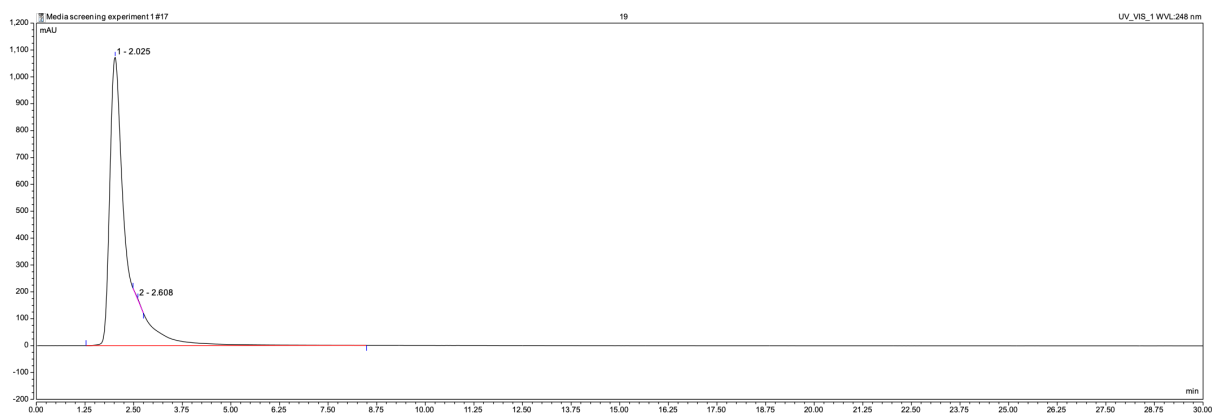
Sample 17



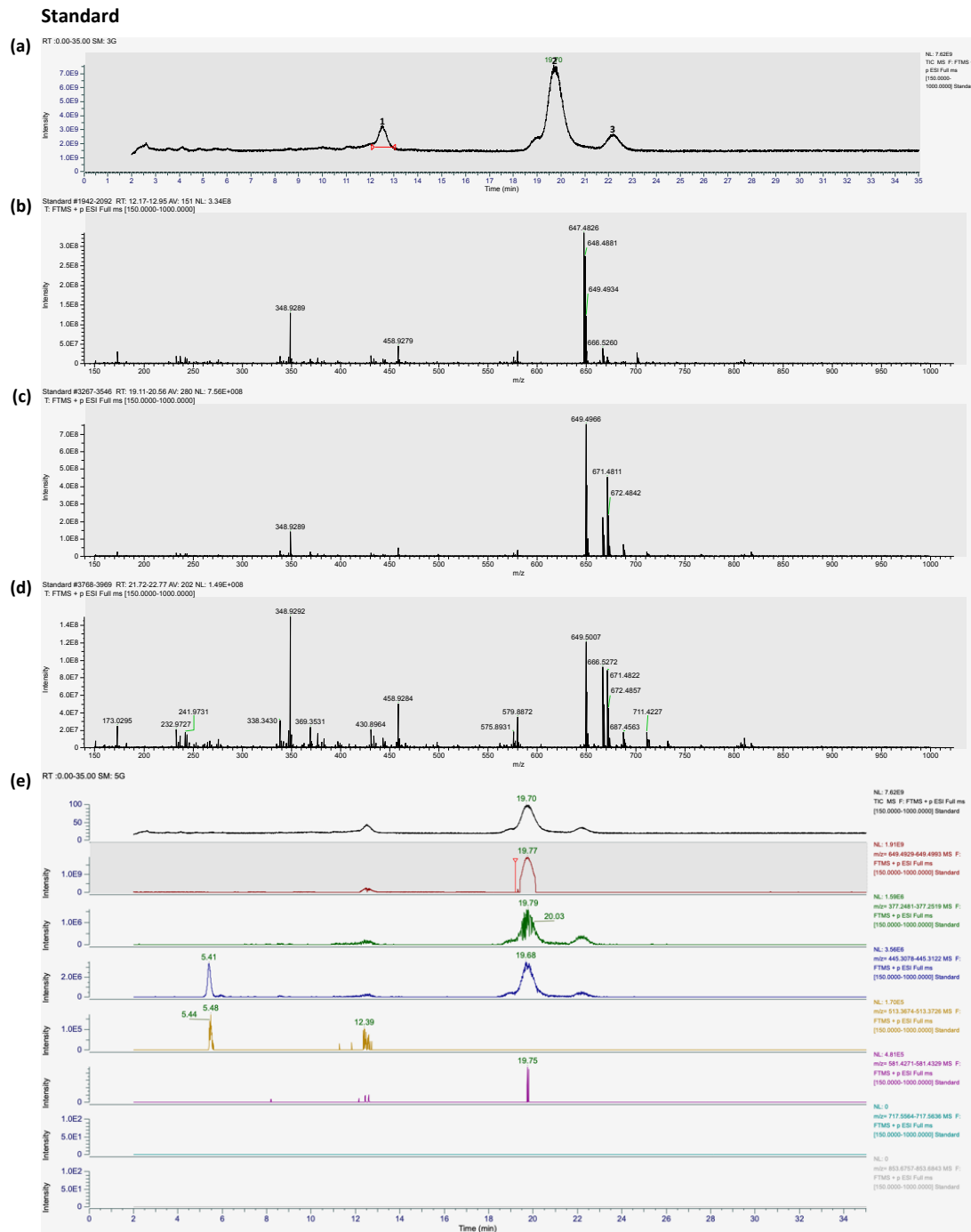
Sample 18



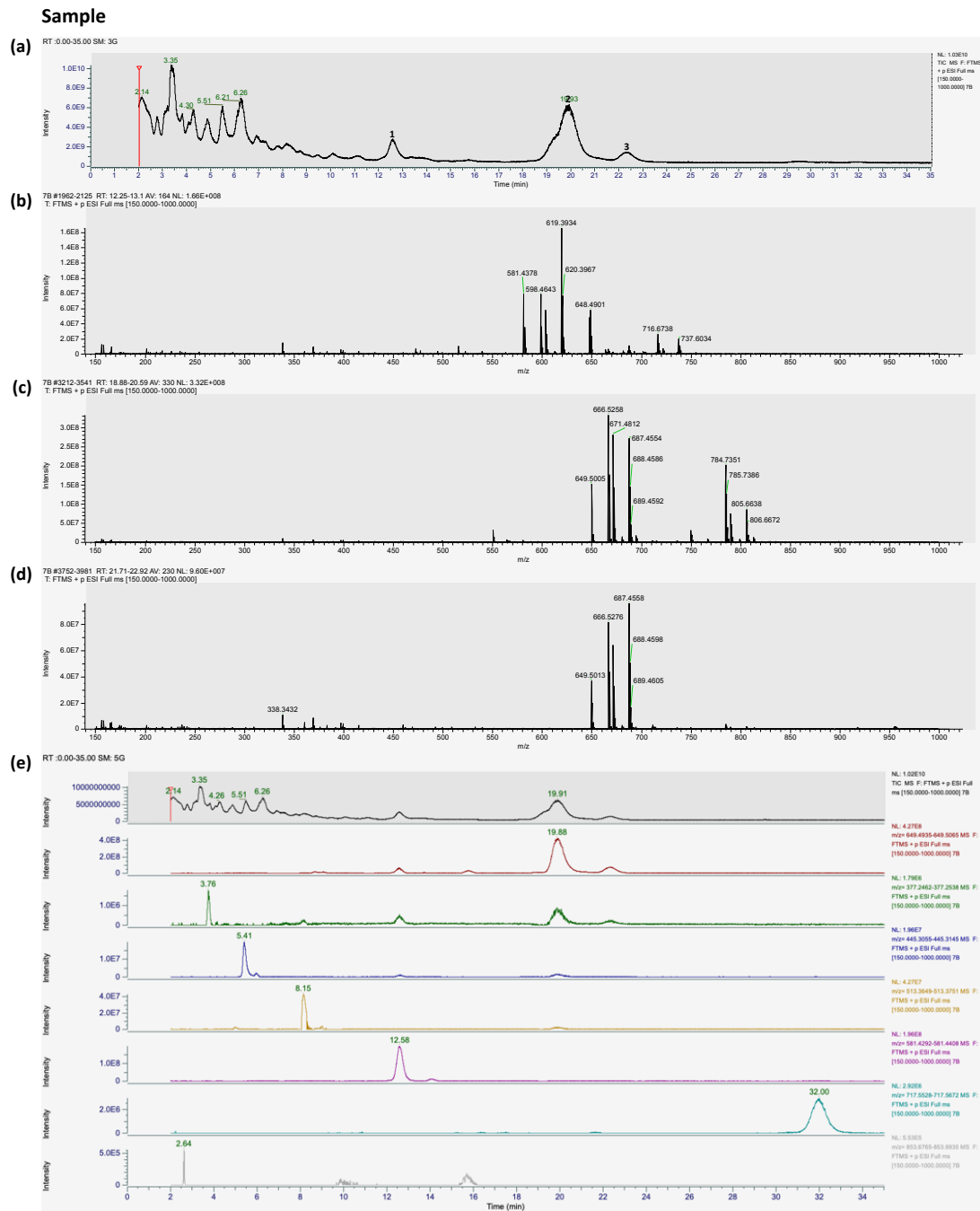
Sample 19



Appendix B – LC-MS Data



(a) LC chromatogram, (b) MS data for peak 1, (c) MS data for peak 2, (d) MS data for peak 3, and (e) extracted ion chromatograms for the all-*trans* MK-7 reference standard



(a) LC chromatogram, (b) MS data for peak 1, (c) MS data for peak 2, (d) MS data for peak 3, and (e) extracted ion chromatograms for an experimental sample

Appendix C – Co-Authorship Forms

The co-authorship forms detailing the contribution of all co-authors to each publication included in this thesis are provided on the following pages.



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Co-Authorship Form

Postgraduate Studies Office
Student and Academic Services Division
Wahanga Ratonga Matauranga Akonga
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton 3240, New Zealand
Phone +64 7 838 4439
Website: <http://www.waikato.ac.nz/sasd/postgraduate/>

This form is to accompany the submission of any PhD that contains research reported in published or unpublished co-authored work. **Please include one copy of this form for each co-authored work.** Completed forms should be included in your appendices for all the copies of your thesis submitted for examination and library deposit (including digital deposit).

Please indicate the chapter/section/pages of this thesis that are extracted from a co-authored work and give the title and publication details or details of submission of the co-authored work.

Chapter 4: "Optimisation of the Fermentation Media to Enhance the Production of the Bioactive Isomer of Vitamin Menaquinone-7"

This journal article has been published in Bioprocess and Biosystems Engineering.

Nature of contribution by PhD candidate

Extent of contribution by PhD candidate (%)

CO-AUTHORS

Name	Nature of Contribution
Mostafa Seifan	Conceptualisation, methodology, data curation, writing-review and editing, supervision
Aydin Berenjian	Conceptualisation, methodology, data curation, writing-review and editing, supervision

Certification by Co-Authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

- ❖ the above statement correctly reflects the nature and extent of the PhD candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors; and

Name	Signature	Date
Mostafa Seifan		8 July 2023
Aydin Berenjian		8 July 2023

July 2015



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Co-Authorship Form

Postgraduate Studies Office
Student and Academic Services Division
Wahanga Ratonga Matauranga Akonga
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton 3240, New Zealand
Phone +64 7 838 4439
Website: <http://www.waikato.ac.nz/sasd/postgraduate/>

This form is to accompany the submission of any PhD that contains research reported in published or unpublished co-authored work. **Please include one copy of this form for each co-authored work.** Completed forms should be included in your appendices for all the copies of your thesis submitted for examination and library deposit (including digital deposit).

Please indicate the chapter/section/pages of this thesis that are extracted from a co-authored work and give the title and publication details or details of submission of the co-authored work.

Chapter 5: "The Impact of Key Fermentation Parameters on the Production of the All-*Trans* Isomer of Menaquinone-7"

This journal article has been published in Biocatalysis and Agricultural Biotechnology.

Nature of contribution by PhD candidate Methodology, investigation, formal analysis, validation, visualisation, data curation, writing–original draft preparation, writing–review and editing

Extent of contribution by PhD candidate (%) 90

CO-AUTHORS

Name	Nature of Contribution
Mostafa Seifan	Conceptualisation, methodology, data curation, writing–review and editing, supervision
Aydin Berenjian	Conceptualisation, methodology, data curation, writing–review and editing, supervision

Certification by Co-Authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

- ❖ the above statement correctly reflects the nature and extent of the PhD candidate’s contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors; and

Name	Signature	Date
Mostafa Seifan		8 July 2023
Aydin Berenjian		8 July 2023

July 2015



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Co-Authorship Form

Postgraduate Studies Office
Student and Academic Services Division
Wahanga Ratonga Matauranga Akonga
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton 3240, New Zealand
Phone +64 7 838 4439
Website: <http://www.waikato.ac.nz/sasd/postgraduate/>

This form is to accompany the submission of any PhD that contains research reported in published or unpublished co-authored work. **Please include one copy of this form for each co-authored work.** Completed forms should be included in your appendices for all the copies of your thesis submitted for examination and library deposit (including digital deposit).

Please indicate the chapter/section/pages of this thesis that are extracted from a co-authored work and give the title and publication details or details of submission of the co-authored work.	
Chapter 6: "The Effect of Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menaquinone-7 Isomer Composition and Synthesis of the Biologically Significant All- <i>Trans</i> Isomer"	
This journal article has been published in Nanomaterials.	
Nature of contribution by PhD candidate	Methodology, investigation, formal analysis, validation, visualisation, data curation, writing–original draft preparation, writing–review and editing
Extent of contribution by PhD candidate (%)	90

CO-AUTHORS

Name	Nature of Contribution
Mostafa Seifan	Conceptualisation, methodology, formal analysis, data curation, writing–review and editing, supervision
Alireza Ebrahiminezhad	Formal analysis, visualisation
Aydin Berenjian	Conceptualisation, methodology, formal analysis, data curation, writing–review and editing, supervision

Certification by Co-Authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:
❖ the above statement correctly reflects the nature and extent of the PhD candidate’s contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors; and

Name	Signature	Date
Mostafa Seifan		8 July 2023
Alireza Ebrahiminezhad		8 July 2023
Aydin Berenjian		8 July 2023



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Co-Authorship Form

Postgraduate Studies Office
Student and Academic Services Division
Wahanga Ratonga Matauranga Akonga
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton 3240, New Zealand
Phone +64 7 838 4439
Website: <http://www.waikato.ac.nz/sasd/postgraduate/>

This form is to accompany the submission of any PhD that contains research reported in published or unpublished co-authored work. **Please include one copy of this form for each co-authored work.** Completed forms should be included in your appendices for all the copies of your thesis submitted for examination and library deposit (including digital deposit).

Please indicate the chapter/section/pages of this thesis that are extracted from a co-authored work and give the title and publication details or details of submission of the co-authored work.

Chapter 7: "The Impact of Amine-Functionalised Iron Oxide Nanoparticles on the Menaquinone-7 Isomer Profile and Production of the Bioactive Isomer"

This journal article has been published in Molecular Biotechnology.

Nature of contribution by PhD candidate Methodology, investigation, formal analysis, validation, visualisation, data curation, writing—original draft preparation, writing—review and editing

Extent of contribution by PhD candidate (%) 90

CO-AUTHORS

Name	Nature of Contribution
Mostafa Seifan	Conceptualisation, methodology, formal analysis, data curation, writing—review and editing, supervision
Alireza Ebrahiminezhad	Characterisation studies, formal analysis, visualisation
Aydin Berenjian	Conceptualisation, methodology, formal analysis, data curation, writing—review and editing, supervision

Certification by Co-Authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

- ❖ the above statement correctly reflects the nature and extent of the PhD candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors; and

Name	Signature	Date
Mostafa Seifan		8 July 2023
Alireza Ebrahiminezhad		8 July 2023
Aydin Berenjian		8 July 2023

July 2015



Co-Authorship Form

Postgraduate Studies Office
Student and Academic Services Division
Wahanga Ratonga Matauranga Akonga
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton 3240, New Zealand
Phone +64 7 838 4439
Website: <http://www.waikato.ac.nz/sasd/postgraduate/>

This form is to accompany the submission of any PhD that contains research reported in published or unpublished co-authored work. **Please include one copy of this form for each co-authored work.** Completed forms should be included in your appendices for all the copies of your thesis submitted for examination and library deposit (including digital deposit).

Please indicate the chapter/section/pages of this thesis that are extracted from a co-authored work and give the title and publication details or details of submission of the co-authored work.

Chapter 8: "Fermentation of Menaquinone-7: The Influence of Environmental Factors and Storage Conditions on the Isomer Profile"

This journal article has been published in Processes.

Nature of contribution by PhD candidate: Methodology, investigation, formal analysis, validation, visualisation, data curation, writing—original draft preparation, writing—review and editing

Extent of contribution by PhD candidate (%): 90

CO-AUTHORS

Name	Nature of Contribution
Mostafa Seifan	Conceptualisation, methodology, data curation, writing—review and editing, supervision
Aydin Berenjian	Conceptualisation, methodology, data curation, writing—review and editing, supervision

Certification by Co-Authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

- ❖ the above statement correctly reflects the nature and extent of the PhD candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors; and

Name	Signature	Date
Mostafa Seifan		8 July 2023
Aydin Berenjian		8 July 2023

July 2015