

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

**Raceway-based production of microalgae for possible use in
making biodiesel**

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Biotechnology

at Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand

Sadia Tahir

2014

Abstract

Oils from microalgae are of interest as a potential feedstock for producing renewable transport fuels including gasoline, diesel, biodiesel and jet fuel. For producing feedstock oils, an alga must be capable of being grown easily in readily available seawater and have a high productivity of biomass and oil. This study explored the biomass and lipid production potential of the microalga *Chlorella vulgaris* in seawater media, as a potential producer of feedstock oils. The alga was grown photoautotrophically under various conditions in ~2 L Duran bottles and a pilot scale (~138 L) raceway system. Initially, eight species of microalgae of different classes were assessed under nutrient sufficient growth conditions for the production of biomass and lipids in ~2 L Duran bottles. Two of the promising species (*C. vulgaris* and *Nannochloropsis salina*) were then further evaluated extensively under various conditions (i.e. salinity stress, different levels of nitrogen in growth media, continuous light and light-dark cycling). Based on these assessments *C. vulgaris* stood out as the best alga for further detailed study. *C. vulgaris* was evaluated for biomass production and lipid production. The consumption rates of major nutrients (N and P) were quantified. Biomass was characterized for elemental composition and energy content at the end of the growth cycle. A maximum lipid productivity of ~31 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹ was attained in Duran bottle batch culture under nitrogen starvation in continuous light with a lipid content in the biomass of ~66% (dry weight). This appears to be the highest lipid content reported for *C. vulgaris* grown in seawater and demonstrates an excellent ability of this alga to accumulate high levels of oil. Under a 12:12 h light-dark cycle, the lipid content and productivity in Duran bottle batch culture were decreased by 13% and 41%, respectively, relative to the case for continuous illumination. Energy content of the biomass produced in Duran bottle batch culture exceeded 30 kJ g⁻¹ both in continuous light and the 12: 12 h light-dark cycle.

Batch and continuous culture kinetics of *C. vulgaris* in the raceway system were assessed. The alga was subjected to various light regimes and nitrogen starvation conditions. Although the N starvation enhanced the lipid accumulation by 42% relative to nutrient sufficient growth in batch culture, the highest biomass and oil productivities were attained under nutrient sufficient conditions in continuous mode of cultivation. Under nutrient sufficiency in continuous culture with a constant illumination of $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, the productivities of biomass and lipid in the raceway were $>61 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $>8 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, respectively.

This work represents the first detailed study of *C. vulgaris* in a raceway pond in full strength seawater media. Previous studies of this alga were almost always carried out in freshwater media.

Acknowledgments



In the name of Allah, the Entirely Merciful, the Especially Merciful

All praises and gratitude be to Almighty Allah, to Him belongs everything that exists. The One, whose countless blessing and subtle mercy helped me in ways I did not expect and motivated me to accomplish this momentous task. Moreover, immense respect for the last Prophet (peace be upon him) whose command of “seeking knowledge is an obligation” inspired me a lot!

First of all, I must express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Professor Yusuf Chisti, for providing me a scholarship and giving me an opportunity to become part of his research team. I am deeply indebted to him for his guidance, criticism, stimulating ideas, constant support, and for generously providing research facilities to carry out this project. It was a great pleasure to conduct research under his supervision. I am grateful to Neste Oil Corporation, Porvoo, Finland, for funding this work and allowing its publication.

I would also like to thank the staff of Microsuite lab, Anne-Marie Jackson, John Edwards, Julia and Judy Collins. They all were very kind, helpful and professional. The working environment was great. I enjoyed the light moments with them and valued their friendship. The staff of SEAT (School of Engineering and Advanced Technology) also deserves my special thanks for all their help. I also want to pay my gratitude to Natalia

Benquet, International Student Support Officer, who became my friend even before I arrived in New Zealand.

I would like to thank all my colleagues and friends at the Microsuite lab, Tawan, Ziad, Azilah, Ta, Farhan, Elham and Natanam. Their co-operation, experience and valuable suggestions were really helpful throughout this PhD journey.

I also wish to appreciate my other friends, Eka, Umar, Ibraheem and Ahmed. They are irreplaceable and hard to find individuals. Their moral support and view on life were really appreciated. I learned so much from them.

My loving thanks to my all Pakistani friends, especially Amber, an all-time friend. Her outstanding support and bonding is really precious to me, especially during the last stages of my studies. My friend Saima, her company, support and encouragement were unforgettable. My sincere thanks to Sadia, Sofia and Shazrah, I value their timely contribution.

Finally, my humble thanks all my family members. Abbo, Ammi, Ayesha, Roohi, Khurram, Saad and Mukarram. Their unconditional love, care and support followed me in every step of my life. Especially my mother, her dedication, sacrifices, prayers and my sister Ayesha her active online support and expertise were remarkable and always in time during my thesis writing. My lovely nieces and nephews, Khadijah, Hafsa, Yahya and Mujtaba. Their charming faces and meaningful talks were source of joy especially in the stressful moments of PhD.

Table of Contents

Abstract	iii
Acknowledgments.....	v
Table of Contents.....	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
LIST OF TABLES	xxi
Abbreviations	xxiv
Chapter 1	1
INTRODUCTION	1
Chapter 2.....	5
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	5
2.1 Microalgae.....	5
2.2 Microalgae as a fuel source.....	8
2.3 Algal cultivation.....	9
2.3.1 Photosynthesis and algal production.....	10
2.3.2 Growth parameters and limitation to biomass production.....	12
2.3.2.1 Light	12
2.3.2.2 Temperature.....	14
2.3.2.3 Nutrients	15
2.3.2.3a Macronutrients	15
2.3.2.3b Micronutrients and trace elements.....	17
2.3.2.4 Salinity.....	17
2.3.2.5 Mixing	18
2.3.2.6 Biotic factors (contamination).....	18
2.4 Lipids in microalgae.....	19

2.4.1 Lipid accumulation	22
2.4.1.1 Effect of nutrients starvation	23
2.4.1.2 Light stress	25
2.4.1.3 Temperature stress.....	25
2.4.1.4 Salinity stress.....	26
2.5 Strain selection.....	26
2.5.1 <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	27
2.6 Microalgal production systems	34
2.6.1 Raceway and its operation	35
2.2 Contributions of this study.....	44
Chapter 3.....	47
MATERIALS AND METHODS.....	47
3.1 Introduction.....	47
3.2 Microalgal strains, sources, maintenance and cultivation.....	48
3.2.1 Growth media.....	49
3.2.1.1 Preparation of BG 11 medium.....	50
3.2.1.2 Vitamins solution	52
3.2.1.3 Silicate solution (for diatom culture only)	53
3.2.1.4 Artificial seawater	53
3.2.2 Duran bottle batch culture.....	54
3.2.2.1 Harvesting of biomass from Duran bottles.....	55
3.2.3 Raceway pond culture system.....	56
3.2.3.1 Calibration of the impeller speed	66
3.2.3.2 Relationship between the impeller speed and liquid flow velocity.....	66
3.2.3.3 Raceway batch culture.....	67
3.2.3.4 Raceway continuous culture.....	68

3.2.3.5 Harvesting of biomass from the raceway broth.....	69
3.2.4 Freeze drying of microalgal biomass	70
3.3 Analytical methods.....	71
3.3.1 Biomass concentration	71
3.3.2 Irradiance.....	78
3.3.3 Nitrate analysis.....	78
3.3.4 Phosphate analysis	79
3.3.5 Total lipids extraction	81
3.3.6 Nile red staining	83
3.3.7 Fatty acid profile	84
3.3.8 Calorific value.....	85
3.3.9 Elemental analyses	85
3.3.10 Microscopy.....	85
3.3.11 Isolation of bacteria from raceway.....	86
3.4 Calculations of culture kinetic parameters (Doran, 1995; Shuler and Kargi, 2002)	87
3.4.1 Batch culture	87
3.4.2 Continuous culture (at steady state).....	89
Chapter 4	91
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	91
4.1 Introduction	91
4.2 Screening of microalgae in Duran bottles.....	91
4.2.1 Batch cultures under normal growth conditions	91
4.2.2 Effect of salinity	93
4.2.2.1 Salinity tolerance of <i>C. vulgaris</i>	94
4.2.2.2 Salinity tolerance of <i>N. salina</i>	97

4.2.2.3 Salinity tolerance of <i>C. fusiformis</i>	100
4.2.3 Effect of nutrients concentration	104
4.2.3.1 Effect of initial phosphate concentration.....	104
4.2.3.1a <i>C. vulgaris</i>	104
4.2.3.1b <i>N. salina</i>	107
4.2.3.2 Effect of initial nitrate concentration.....	110
4.2.3.2a <i>C. vulgaris</i>	110
4.2.3.2b <i>N. salina</i>	119
4.2.3.2a.a Biomass coloration	124
4.3 Biomass production in the raceway	130
4.3.1 Raceway batch culture	130
4.3.1.1 Standard raceway batch culture (normal operational conditions)	130
4.3.1.1a Analysis of <i>C. vulgaris</i> crude oil from raceway batch-1	138
4.3.1.1b Fractionation of <i>C. vulgaris</i> lipids into different lipid classes.....	138
4.3.1.1c Fatty acid profile of <i>C. vulgaris</i> oil.....	139
4.3.1.1c Concentrations of certain elements in <i>C. vulgaris</i> oil.....	141
4.3.1.2 Effect of low irradiance	143
4.3.1.3 Effect of nitrate stress.....	147
4.3.1.3a Effect of $\leq 21\%$ of normal initial nitrate level on <i>C. vulgaris</i>	148
4.3.1.3b Effect of 10% of normal initial nitrate on <i>C. vulgaris</i>	156
4.3.1.3c Effect of 22% of normal initial nitrate level on <i>N. salina</i>	160
4.3.1.3d Lipid accumulation	166
4.3.2 Raceway continuous culture	169
Chapter 5	179

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION.....	179
5.1 Summary	179
5.2 Conclusion	181
REFERENCES.....	185
APPENDIX.....	225
Experimental data.....	225

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Some examples of microalgae belonging to different classes: a) *Haematococcus pluvialis*, Chlorophyta (CCALA – Culture Collection of Autotrophic Organisms, Czech Republic); b) *Porphyridium cruentum*, Rhodophyta (CCALA – Culture Collection of Autotrophic Organisms, Czech Republic); c) *Dunaliella salina*, Chlorophyta (UTEX – The Culture Collection of Algae of University of Texas, Austin); d) *Chlorella vulgaris*, Chlorophyta (UTEX – The Culture Collection of Algae of University of Texas, Austin); e) *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*, Bacillariophyta (NCMA – Provasoli-Guillard National Center of Marine algae and Microbiota) and f) *Nannochloropsis salina*, Eustigmatophyte (www.sb-roscoff.fr/Phyto/gallery/main.php).6

Figure 2.2 Microalgae applications in various fields. Modified from Dufossé *et al.* (2005). 7

Figure 2.3 Conversion of solar energy into chemical energy by oxygenic photosynthesis in the chloroplast. Modified from Campbell and Reece (2005). 11

Figure 2.4 Light intensity levels and its effect on growth. Adapted from Ogbonna and Tanaka (2000). 13

Figure 2.5 Microalgal metabolic pathways contributing to production of lipids. Based on Radakovits *et al.* (2010). 21

Figure 2.6 Some designs of open and closed microalgal production systems: a) Centre-pivot ponds used for the production of *Chlorella*, Taiwan (www.pureplanet.de); b) Algae wastewater treatment raceway pond at the NIWA's research site, Christchurch, New Zealand (National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research Ltd); c) *Dunaliella bardawil* cultivation in raceway ponds (Nature Beta Technologies Ltd, Eilat, Israel, subsidiary of Nikken Sohonsa Co. Gifu, Japan); d) Bubble column photobioreactors growing algal strains for different pigments at Arizona State

University's Polytechnic campus in Mesa, Arizona, USA; e) Tubular photobioreactor used for biomass production in Klötze, Saxony Anhalt, Germany (© Bioprodukte Prof. Steinberg GmbH); f) Plate-type photobioreactors, NanoVoltaicsk Inc. (www.nanovoltaics.com), Arizona, USA. 34

Figure 2.7 Commercial algal biomass production in raceways: a) and b) Cultivation of *Spirulina* (a blue-green cyanobacterium) and *Haematococcus pluvialis* (an orange pigment producing green alga) by Cyanotech Corporation, Kona, Hawaii (www.cyanotech.com); c) *Dunaliella bardawil* cultivation in raceway ponds (Nature Beta Technologies Ltd, Eilat, Israel, subsidiary of Nikken Sohonsa Co. Gifu, Japan). 36

Figure 2.8 Light profile in a 0.3 m deep raceway at a dry biomass concentration of 0.5 g L⁻¹. The profile was calculated for a suspension of the marine diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* at an incident irradiance level of 2,000 μmol·m⁻² s⁻¹ at the surface of the raceway. The zones of different metabolic activity are: the photoinhibited zone ($I_L \geq 800 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$); the light-saturated zone ($170 \leq I_L \leq 800 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$); the light-limited zone ($4 \leq I_L \leq 170 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$); and the dark zone ($I_L \leq 4 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). I_L is the local irradiance at any depth L from the surface. Source: Chisti (2012). 39

Figure 3.1 Sparged Duran bottle cultures. 55

Figure 3.2 Raceway and paddlewheel. Dimensions in mm. 57

Figure 3.3 Raceway pond (empty). 58

Figure 3.4 Raceway paddlewheel with transparent protective cover. 59

Figure 3.5 The raceway main control panel, the heat exchanger and the paddlewheel motor. 59

Figure 3.6 Raceway with LEDs in day mode of operation. 61

Figure 3.7 Diurnal light output profile of raceway LED array: a) at peak value of 100% light level, the day-night averaged irradiance was 280 μmol·m⁻²s⁻¹; b) at the peak

output set to 50% of full light level, the day-night averaged irradiance was $165 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$	62
Figure 3.8 Irradiance on the surface of culture broth in the raceway at various output settings of the LED array.	63
Figure 3.9 Variation of irradiance at different depths of freshwater in the raceway: a) at different LED light output levels; b) at different fluorescent light levels. The total depth was 0.23 m.	64
Figure 3.10 Irradiance profile of fluorescent light at different depths in the raceway culture broth of <i>C. vulgaris</i> with 0.5 g L^{-1} of biomass concentration. The total culture depth was 0.23 m. The fluorescent light output level was 100%.....	65
Figure 3.11 Impeller speed versus motor potentiometer settings.	66
Figure 3.12 Relationship between impeller rpm and the liquid flow velocity.....	67
Figure 3.13 Continuous flow centrifugation – Algal broth from the black tank is pumped to the centrifuge where the biomass is retained in the bowl shown on the right. The biomass-free effluent leaves the centrifuge and is collected in a waste bottle.	70
Figure 3.14 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for freshwater <i>C. vulgaris</i> obtained under continuous light in Duran bottle using the standard BG11 medium.....	73
Figure 3.15 Spectrophotometric calibration curve (averaged) for <i>C. vulgaris</i> (b) obtained under continuous light in Duran bottles using BG11 seawater medium with different initial nitrate concentrations (0.1 to 1.1 g L^{-1}).	74
Figure 3.16 Spectrophotometric calibration curve (averaged) for <i>C. vulgaris</i> (c) obtained under 12 h:12 h light-dark cycle in Duran bottles using BG11 seawater medium with different nitrate concentrations (0.1 to 1.1 g L^{-1}).	74
Figure 3.17 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for <i>C. vulgaris</i> (d) obtained under continuous light in raceway in BG11 seawater medium.....	75

Figure 3.18 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for <i>C. vulgaris</i> (e) obtained under 12 h: 12 h diurnal light-dark cycle in raceway in BG11 seawater medium.....	75
Figure 3.19 Spectrophotometric calibration curve (averaged) for <i>N. salina</i> (a) obtained under continuous light in Duran bottle using BG11 seawater medium with different initial nitrate concentrations (0.1 to 1.1 g L ⁻¹).....	76
Figure 3.20 Spectrophotometric calibration curve (averaged) for <i>N. salina</i> (b) obtained under 12 h:12 h light-dark cycle in Duran bottles using BG11 seawater medium with different initial nitrate concentrations (0.1 to 1.1 g L ⁻¹).....	76
Figure 3.21 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for <i>C. fusiformis</i> obtained under continuous light in Duran bottle using BG11 seawater medium.	77
Figure 3.22 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for <i>T. subcordiformis</i> obtained under continuous light in Duran bottle using BG11 seawater medium.	77
Figure 3.23 Nitrate standard curve prepared with dilutions of BG11 medium in seawater.....	79
Figure 3.24 Phosphate standard curve.	81
Figure 3.25 Total lipids (crude oil) after evaporation of chloroform.....	83
Figure 3.26 Fluorescence confocal microscope images of algae stained with Nile Red: (a) <i>C. vulgaris</i> ; (b) <i>N. salina</i> ; (c) <i>C. fusiformis</i> ; (d) <i>T. subcordiformis</i>	84
Figure 3.27 Light microscopic images of: (a) <i>C. vulgaris</i> ; (b) <i>N. salina</i> ; (c) <i>C. fusiformis</i> ; (d) <i>T. subcordiformis</i>	86
Figure 4.1 Growth profile of: a) <i>C. vulgaris</i> , irradiance of 105 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; b) <i>N. salina</i> , irradiance of 124 $\mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; c) <i>T. subcordiformis</i> , irradiance of 124 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; d) <i>C. fusiformis</i> , irradiance of 105 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. All algae were grown in BG11 seawater medium, 24 \pm 2 °C, bubbled with 5% (v/v) CO ₂ in air. Silicate was added to the medium for <i>C. fusiformis</i>	92

Figure 4.2 Growth profiles of <i>C. vulgaris</i> in freshwater and different seasalt concentrations	95
Figure 4.3 <i>C. vulgaris</i> cultures on day 23: (a, b) Freshwater culture in duplicate bottles; (c) culture with a salt concentration of 40 g L ⁻¹ (control, salinity 37 ppt); (d, e) cultures with salt concentrations of 50 g L ⁻¹ (salinity 46 ppt) in duplicates; (f, g) cultures with salt concentrations of 60 g L ⁻¹ (salinity 57 ppt) in duplicates. Low biomass concentration can be seen in cultures with a salt concentration of 60 g L ⁻¹ . The exact biomass concentrations are given in Figure 4.2.	95
Figure 4.4 Growth profiles of <i>N. salina</i> under different seasalt concentrations	98
Figure 4.5. <i>N. salina</i> cultures on day 23: (a, b) cultures with a salt concentration of 60 g L ⁻¹ (salinity 57 ppt) in duplicates; (c, d) cultures with salt concentrations of 50 g L ⁻¹ (salinity 47 ppt) in duplicates; (e) culture with a salt concentration of 40 g L ⁻¹ (control, salinity 37 ppt).	98
Figure 4.6 Growth profiles of <i>C. fusiformis</i> under different seasalt concentrations.	100
Figure 4.7 <i>C. fusiformis</i> cultures on day 4: (a) culture with a salt concentration of 40 g L ⁻¹ (control, salinity 37 ppt); (b, c) cultures with salt concentrations of 50 g L ⁻¹ in duplicates (salinity 47 ppt); (d, e) cultures with salt concentrations of 60 g L ⁻¹ (salinity 57 ppt).	101
Figure 4.8 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of <i>C. vulgaris</i> in Duran bottles: a) control, i.e. the standard phosphate concentration in BG11 seawater medium; b) twice the normal initial phosphate concentration in the BG11 seawater medium.....	105
Figure 4.9 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of <i>N. salina</i> in Duran bottles: a) control, i.e. standard phosphate concentration in BG11 seawater medium; b) twice the normal initial phosphate level in BG11 seawater medium.	108

Figure 4.10 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *C. vulgaris* in Duran bottles with different initial nitrate concentrations of 100% (control), 50%, 20% and 10% in BG11 seawater medium: a-1) and b-1) biomass concentrations; a-2) and b-2) nitrate concentration; a-3) and b-3) phosphate concentration. All ‘a’ culture profiles were obtained under continuous light. All ‘b’ culture profiles were obtained under a 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle. In b-2 and b-3 the N and P consumption profiles were obtained only from the control bottles. 113

Figure 4.11 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *N. salina* in Duran bottles with different initial nitrate concentrations of 100% (control), 50%, 20% and 10% in BG11 seawater medium: a-1) and b-1) biomass concentrations; a-2) and b-2) nitrate concentration; a-3) and b-3) phosphate concentration. All ‘a’ culture profiles were obtained under continuous light. All ‘b’ culture profiles were obtained under a 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle. (In b-2 and b-3 the N and P consumption profiles were obtained only from the control bottles.)..... 120

Figure 4.12 Different colors of algal broth as a consequence of different initial nitrate levels in the media: i) *C. vulgaris* (on day 52); ii) *N. salina* (on day 49). (a, b) 100% initial nitrate; (c, d) 50% initial nitrate; (e, f) 20% initial nitrate; (g, h) 10% initial nitrate. All samples labeled “L” had been continuously illuminated. All samples labeled “LD” had been illuminated by a 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle. For biomass concentrations in individual samples, see Table 4.7 and Table 4.9. 125

Figure 4.13 Duran bottles cultures of two microalgae on day 46: (i) *C. vulgaris* (a, b, c, d) 20% initial nitrate, (e, f, g, h) 10% initial nitrate; (ii) *N. salina* (a, b) 20% initial nitrate, (c, d, e, f) 10% initial nitrate. All bottles labeled “L” had been continuously illuminated. All bottles labeled “LD” had been illuminated by a 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle. 126

Figure 4.14 Light microscopic images (day 46) of <i>C. vulgaris</i> cells grown in continuous light with an initial nitrate concentration of: (a) 100% (control) and (b) 10%.....	128
Figure 4.15 Light microscopic images (day 49) of <i>N. salina</i> cells grown in continuous light with an initial nitrate concentration of: (a) 100% (control) and (b) 10%.....	129
Figure 4.16 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of <i>C. vulgaris</i> in raceway: a) Batch-1 with continuous irradiance of $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ from fluorescent light; b) Batch-2, same as batch-1; c) Batch-3 cultured under LED light (100% light output at midday (day-night averaged irradiance of $280 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle). All batches started with 5-6% (v/v) inoculum except batch-1 for which the inoculum size was 10.5% (v/v).	132
Figure 4.17 Fluorescent confocal microscopic image of <i>C. vulgaris</i> culture (stained with Nile Red) from Raceway batch-3 (image taken at day 34 of growth cycle, some debris can also be seen in the image).....	136
Figure 4.18. Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of <i>C. vulgaris</i> in raceway batch-4 with LED light (50% of full light output at midday (day-night averaged irradiance of $165 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle).	144
Figure 4.19 <i>C. vulgaris</i> growth and nutrient consumption profiles under nitrate stress: a) raceway batch-5 grown with ~20% of normal initial nitrate in BG11 (seawater); b) raceway batch-6 grown with ~18% of normal initial nitrate in BG11 (seawater).	151
Figure 4.20 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of <i>C. vulgaris</i> in raceway batch-7 with ~10% of normal initial nitrate in BG11 (seawater).....	156
Figure 4.21 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of <i>N. salina</i> in raceway batch-8 with ~22% of normal initial nitrate in BG11 (seawater). Vertical dotted lines demarcate periods of different settings of paddlewheel speed on the potentiometer: 5, 6, 7 and 9 (the corresponding velocities were $0.21 \pm 0.02 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, $0.23 \pm 0.02 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, $0.27 \pm 0.04 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and $0.32 \pm 0.03 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, respectively).	162

Figure 4.22 Fluorescent microscopy: (a) *C. vulgaris* at day 81; (b) *N. salina* at day 103.167

Figure 4.23 Transmission electron microscopy of algal cells from raceway: (a) *C. vulgaris* on day 111 (batch-6); (b) *N. salina* on day 108 (batch-8). L, represents lipid droplets in cells; S, represents starch; N, represents nucleus. Images taken at Manawatu Microscopy and Imaging Centre, Massey University (sample prepared by glutaraldehyde-osmium tetroxide standard fixation protocol)..... 168

Figure: 4.24 *C. vulgaris* culture in continuous raceway operation (arrows indicate steady states): a) biomass concentration at steady states 1-8, where SS-1 = continuous light at $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-2 = continuous light at $46 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-3 = same conditions as SS-1, SS-4 = light/dark cycle (14 h:10 h) at illumination level of $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-5 = same conditions as SS-1, SS-6 = continuous light at $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-7 = continuous light at $46 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-8 = same conditions as SS-6; a1) oscillation in biomass concentration at SS-4 (due to 14 h: 10 h day/night cycle); b) growth and nutrient profile of *C. vulgaris* culture in continuous raceway..... 175

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Summary of <i>C. vulgaris</i> studies on lipid production	30
Table 2.2 Summary of raceway algal cultivation.....	41
Table 3.1 Microalgal strains.....	49
Table 3.2 Components of BG11 medium	51
Table 4.1 Summary of findings from preliminary screening of the microalgae.....	93
Table 4.2 Biomass characteristics of <i>C. vulgaris</i> under different salinities.....	96
Table 4.3 Biomass characteristics of <i>N. salina</i> grown under different salinities.....	99
Table 4.4 Biomass characteristics of <i>C. fusiformis</i> grown under different salinities ^a ..	102
Table 4.5 <i>C. vulgaris</i> Duran bottle batch culture kinetics (different phosphate concentrations).....	106
Table 4.6 <i>N. salina</i> Duran bottle batch culture kinetics (different phosphate concentrations).....	109
Table 4.7 <i>C. vulgaris</i> Duran bottles culture kinetic parameters (different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater medium) ¹	116
Table 4.8 Lipid content, calorific value and elemental content of <i>C. vulgaris</i> biomass (different initial nitrate concentrations)	117
Table 4.9 <i>N. salina</i> Duran bottles culture kinetic parameters (different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater medium) ¹	121
Table 4.10 Lipid content, calorific value and elemental content of <i>N. salina</i> biomass (different initial nitrate concentrations)	122
Table 4.11 <i>C. vulgaris</i> raceway batch culture kinetics (standard BG11 medium)	134
Table 4.12 Lipid contents and calorific values of biomass samples	136
Table 4.13 Elements (% , w/w) in <i>C. vulgaris</i> biomass from various raceway batches	138
Table 4.14 Fractionation of lipids from raceway batch-1	139

Table 4.15 Fatty acid profile of crude oil of <i>C. vulgaris</i> (raceway batch-1)	140
Table 4.16 Elemental content of crude <i>C. vulgaris</i> oil from the raceway batch-1	142
Table 4.17 <i>C. vulgaris</i> raceway batch culture kinetics (low irradiance condition)	145
Table 4.18 Biomass characteristics of <i>C. vulgaris</i> at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-4	146
Table 4.19 <i>C. vulgaris</i> raceway batch culture kinetics (low initial nitrate concentration)	152
Table 4.20 Biomass characteristics at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-5 (~20% of normal initial nitrate)	153
Table 4.21 Biomass characteristics at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-6 (~18% of normal initial nitrate)	155
Table 4.22 <i>C. vulgaris</i> raceway batch culture kinetics (~10% of normal initial nitrate in BG11).....	157
Table 4.23 Biomass characteristics of <i>C. vulgaris</i> at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-7 (10% of normal initial nitrate)	159
Table 4.24 <i>N. salina</i> raceway batch-8 ^a culture kinetics (at different rotational speeds ¹)	163
Table 4.25 Biomass characteristics of <i>N. salina</i> at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-8 (20% of normal initial nitrate)	1635
Table 4.26 <i>C. vulgaris</i> raceway continuous culture kinetics (standard BG11 seawater medium)	172
Table 4.27 Biomass characteristics at various steady states (Figure 4.24)	173

Abbreviations

<i>A</i>	Surface area for light absorption
Acetyl-CoA	Acetyl coenzyme A
ADP	Adenosine diphosphate
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate
A_{xxx}	Spectrophotometric absorbance at <i>xxx</i> nm
BG11	A medium formulation for growing cyanobacteria/microalgae
CCALA	Culture Collection of Autotrophic Organisms, Czech Republic
CCAP	Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa, Argyll, United Kingdom
<i>D</i>	Dilution rate
<i>DCW</i>	Biomass dry cell weight
DF	Dilution factor
DHA	Docosahexaenoic acid
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
EPA	Eicosapentaenoic acid
<i>F</i>	Feed flow rate
FAME	Fatty acid methyl esters
F/2-Si	A medium formulation for growing diatoms
GC	Gas chromatography
G3P	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate
HRAP	High Rate Algal Ponds
<i>I</i>	Irradiance
ICP-MS	Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry
ICP-OES	Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry
I_L	Local irradiance at any depth <i>L</i> from the surface

ISO	International Organization for Standardization
L	Depth from the surface
LED	Light emitting diode
MBL	A medium formulation for growing cyanobacteria/microalgae
NA	Not available
NADPH	Reduced form of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
ND	Not determined
N_f	Final nitrate concentration
NCMA	Provasoli-Guillard National Center of Marine algae and Microbiota, Maine, USA
N_i	Initial nitrate concentration
NIWA	National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research Ltd, New Zealand
N_1	Nitrate concentration at time t_1
N11	A medium formulation for growing cyanobacteria/microalgae
N_2	Nitrate concentration at time t_2
PAR	Photosynthetically active radiation (light in the wavelength range of 400- 700 nm)
P_b	Biomass productivity
PBR	Photobioreactor
P_f	Final phosphate concentration
PFD	Photon-flux density
P_i	Initial phosphate concentration
P_l	Lipid productivity
ppt	Part per thousand
PUFA	Polyunsaturated fatty acid
P_1	Phosphate concentration at time t_1

P_2	Phosphate concentration at time t_2
q_N	Average biomass specific nitrate consumption rate
q_P	Average biomass specific phosphate consumption rate
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
rpm	Revolutions per minute
RTD	Resistance temperature device
RuBP	Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate
S	Surface area
t	Duration time of a batch (i.e. the time required to attain the biomass concentration X_f)
TAG	Triacylglycerols
UTEX	The Culture Collection of Algae of University of Texas, Austin, USA
V	Volume
V	Volume in the culture vessel
v/v	Volume by volume
w	Weight fraction of the lipids in the biomass
w/w	Weight by weight
w_s	Steady state weight fraction of the lipids in the biomass
x	x-Variable
X	Biomass concentration at any time t
X_i	Initial biomass concentration
X_f	Final biomass concentration
X_s	Steady state biomass concentration
X_1	Biomass concentration at time t_1
X_2	Biomass concentration at time t_2
y	y-Variable

Y_N, Y_{XN}	Biomass yield coefficient on nitrate
Y_P, Y_{XP}	Biomass yield coefficient on phosphate
Y_{XL}	Biomass yield coefficient on light

Greek symbols

μ	Specific growth rate
-------	----------------------

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Microalgae are sources of energy-rich oils and other valuable products (Whyte, 1987; Becker, 1994). The amount of a desired compound in an algal biomass determines its value (Williams and Laurens, 2009). Microalgae have been produced commercially for several decades to obtain high value compounds such as β -carotene, phycobilin, astaxanthin, and long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (Becker, 1994; Dufossé *et al.*, 2005; Spolaore *et al.*, 2006; Williams and Laurens, 2009; Borowitzka, 2010; Borowitzka, 2013). Microalgae are also used as aquaculture feeds and in the future may provide fuels such as biohydrogen and bioethanol (Matsumoto *et al.*, 2003; Ho *et al.*, 2013); methane (Zamalloa *et al.*, 2011); diesel, gasoline, kerosene (jet fuel) (Lestari *et al.*, 2009); and oils obtained via thermochemical conversion of algal crude oil or biomass (Kröger and Müller-Langer, 2012).

Fuels from microalgae are of interest as they are potentially renewable and their production/use may reduce emissions of climate changing greenhouse gases (Farrell *et al.*, 2006; Huntley and Redalje, 2007; Lam and Lee, 2012). According to a recent review by British Petroleum (2013), fossil fuels provide nearly 87% of the total energy consumption of the world. Renewable energy sources currently provide less than 2% of the global energy consumption. Therefore there is a tremendous potential for expanding the supply of renewable energy. According to the International Energy Agency (2010), renewable energy derived from combustion of waste and other forms of renewable sources has a substantial scope for expansion.

Biofuels from microalgae have been receiving increasing attention (Banerjee *et al.*, 2002; Guschina and Harwood, 2006; Hu *et al.*, 2008) but there is also the recognition that commercializing them would require sustained long-term research. Although the technology of algal biomass production is available and has been practiced for decades (Williams and Laurens, 2009), it is expensive. Furthermore, the currently used relatively low-cost open pond production system for algae are suitable only for a few species that either grow rapidly or require extremophilic culture conditions in which other algae do not thrive. Examples of algae and cyanobacteria produced in open ponds currently include *Chlorella*, *Dunaliella salina*, *Haematococcus pluvialis* and *Spirulina* (Borowitzka, 1999a). These species have been cultivated for high value compounds and for use as dietary supplements. As far as cultivating microalgae for fuel oil is concerned, the cultivation needs to be extremely low cost as fuel oils are low-value products (Williams and Laurens, 2009). In 1978, an extensive study of algal fuel production concluded it to be economically nonviable (Sheehan *et al.*, 1998). Increasing price of petroleum oil has renewed the interest in algal fuels. Although commercial production of biomass is feasible (Borowitzka, 1997), it is economic only for high-value products. This and other limitations to commercialization of algal biofuels have been reviewed by Chisti (2013).

At present, the research on microalgae biofuels is focused on assessing the potential in terms of lipid productivity, cultivation methods, production system design and construction, and harvesting techniques (Chen *et al.*, 2011; Lam and Lee, 2012). The use of genetically modified algae (Radakovits *et al.*, 2011; Yu *et al.*, 2011b) is in infancy. Genetic and metabolic engineering (Waltz, 2009; Lü *et al.*, 2011) for improving algal oil production and reduce costs have barely commenced. Much of the existing literature is focused on freshwater algae although a general global shortage of

freshwater requires that algae that can be grown in seawater should be focused on. Limited information is available on algal biomass and lipid production kinetics (Chen *et al.*, 2010) in seawater systems.

This study examined how various growth parameters (e.g. different light regimes, nutrients concentrations, levels of salinity) affect kinetics of algal growth and oil productivity in seawater media. The effect of these growth parameters on the energy content of the biomass and elemental composition of the biomass was studied. Effects of the nitrogen starvation on the lipid production in seawater were a focus of the study as nutrient starvation offers a relatively simple and inexpensive method of increasing the oil content (Sharma *et al.*, 2012). Although the response to nitrogen limitation is well documented in several microalgae (Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981; Piorreck *et al.*, 1984; Illman *et al.*, 2000; Scragg *et al.*, 2002; Widjaja *et al.*, 2009; Chen *et al.*, 2010; Lv *et al.*, 2010; Chen *et al.*, 2011; Wahlen *et al.*, 2011; Yeh and Chang, 2011) , this is almost exclusively in freshwater. Extensive work is reported in this study in a relatively large (~138 L) raceway pond as growth systems of this type are most likely to be used in actual commercial practice.

The relevant literature is reviewed in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 documents the experimental methods. Chapter 4 is concerned with the results and their discussion. Summary of the major findings and conclusions of the study are presented in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Microalgae

Microalgae are microscopic photosynthetic plants that do not have roots, stem and leaves (Lee, 1989). Microalgae occur in diverse environments (Tomaselli, 2004) including deserts and polar regions (Harwood and Guschina, 2009). More than 40,000 species of algae have been estimated to exist (Hu *et al.*, 2008). A few common microalgae are shown in Figure 2.1. The main groups of algae include Chlorophyta (green algae), Bacillariophyta (diatoms), Xanthophyta (yellow-green algae), Chrysophyta (golden algae), Rhodophyta (red algae), Phaeophyta (brown algae), Dinophyta (dinoflagellates) and Eustigmatophyte (pico-plankton) (Hu *et al.*, 2008). The detailed anatomy, biochemistry and classification can be found in the literature (Van den Hoek *et al.*, 1995; Barsanti and Gualtieri, 2005).

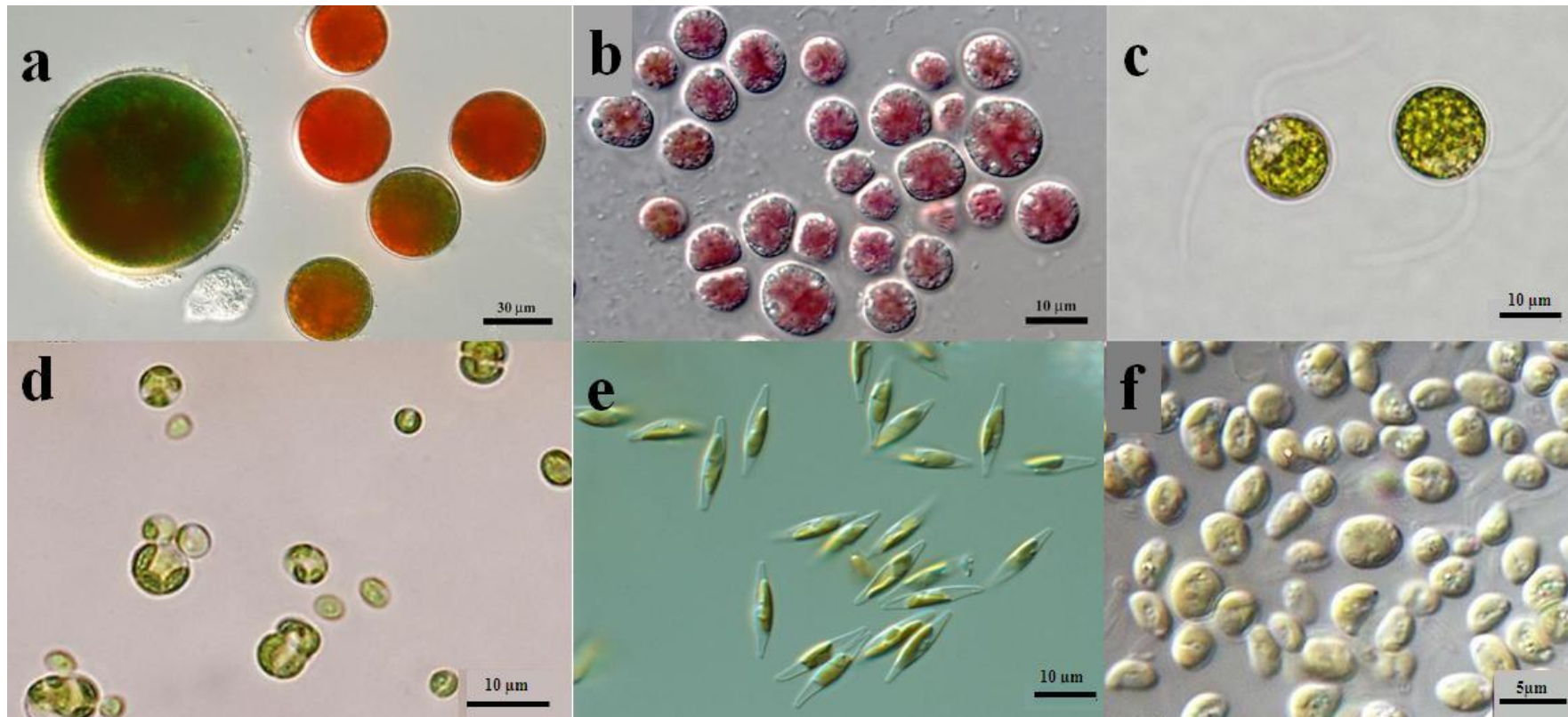


Figure 2.1 Some examples of microalgae belonging to different classes: a) *Haematococcus pluvialis*, Chlorophyta (CCALA – Culture Collection of Autotrophic Organisms, Czech Republic); b) *Porphyridium cruentum*, Rhodophyta (CCALA – Culture Collection of Autotrophic Organisms, Czech Republic); c) *Dunaliella salina*, Chlorophyta (UTEX – The Culture Collection of Algae of University of Texas, Austin); d) *Chlorella vulgaris*, Chlorophyta (UTEX – The Culture Collection of Algae of University of Texas, Austin); e) *Phaeodactylum tricoratum*, Bacillariophyta (NCMA – Provasoli-Guillard National Center of Marine algae and Microbiota) and f) *Nannochloropsis salina*, Eustigmatophyte (www.sb-roscoff.fr/Phyto/gallery/main.php).

Microalgae use energy from sunlight to combine water and carbon dioxide to produce cell mass as described further in this chapter. Typically, algae account for 50% of the photosynthesis occurring on Earth (Moroney and Ynalvez, 2001). As photosynthetic microorganisms, algae are referred to as a primary producers and form the base of the marine food web (Longhurst *et al.*, 1995; Morel and Antoine, 2002). The environmental and ecological significance of microalgae has long been known. Increasingly, microalgae are being examined as sources of high value compounds (Figure 2.2). Microalgae are being cultivated commercially for food, aquaculture feeds, nutraceuticals, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, and environmental applications (Apt and Behrens, 1999; Muller-Feuga, 2000; Pulz and Gross, 2004; Dufossé *et al.*, 2005; Patil *et al.*, 2005; Carvalho *et al.*, 2006).

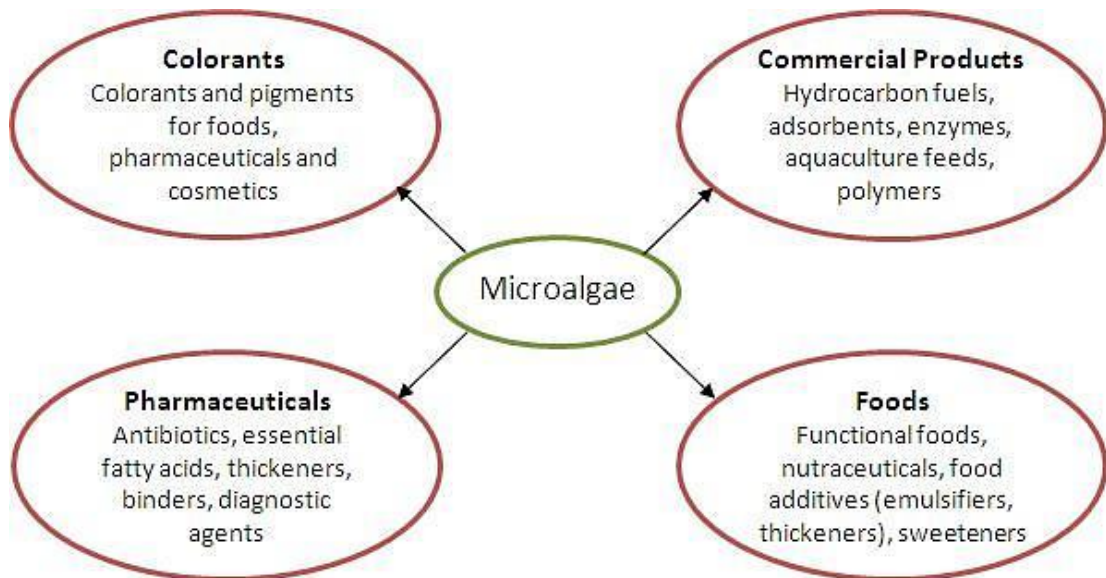


Figure 2.2 Microalgae applications in various fields. Modified from Dufossé *et al.* (2005).

2.2 Microalgae as a fuel source

The concept of obtaining liquid fuels from microalgae is not new (Meier, 1955; Chisti, 1980-81; Nagle and Lemke, 1990; Sawayama *et al.*, 1992). Fuels derived from algal oils are potentially renewable. Algal fuels can be potentially produced and used without a net increase in the concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere (Antolin *et al.*, 2002; Vicente *et al.*, 2004). Algal fuels have not previously received significant attention because they are expensive to produce (Chisti, 2007).

Interest in algae for fuels is reemerging because of considerations of global warming and therefore a need to move away from fossil fuels (Kessel, 2000; Gavrilescu and Chisti, 2005; Pahl, 2005). Various other renewable biofuels have the same advantages (Cook and Beyea, 2000; Lang *et al.*, 2001; Antolin *et al.*, 2002; Vicente *et al.*, 2004) as potential fuels from algae. Unlike biofuels derived from higher plants, algae have much greater oil productivity (Shay, 1993) and appear to be able to provide far greater quantity of oil compared to what could be realistically produced from oil crops (Chisti, 2007, 2008).

Algae can be grown using carbon dioxide in the flue gases produced by fossil fuel burning power plants (Talec *et al.*, 2013; Kumar *et al.*, 2014). Compared to higher plants, microalgae have higher photosynthetic efficiency (Ginzburg, 1993; Shay, 1993), short growth cycles (Chisti, 2007; Meng *et al.*, 2009) and can be harvested daily (Chisti, 2007; da Silva *et al.*, 2009; Meng *et al.*, 2009). Depending on species, microalgae can produce more than 70% their dry weight in the form of lipids, or oils (Andersen, 1992; Sheehan *et al.*, 1998; Banerjee *et al.*, 2002; Tsukahara and Sawayama, 2005; Guschina and Harwood, 2006; Spolaore *et al.*, 2006; Chisti, 2007). Furthermore, algae can be grown on nonarable land (Chisti, 2007, 2008; Dismukes *et al.*, 2008) using seawater. Algae can be produced without compromising the supply of food, feed and freshwater (Chisti, 2007, 2008; Dismukes *et al.*, 2008; da Silva *et al.*, 2009). For all these different

reasons, microalgae are considered ideal candidates for producing biofuels. Microalgae have been viewed as suitable for producing biodiesel (Borowitzka, 2010). Therefore many studies have focused on triacylglyceride oils of microalgae as they are readily converted to biodiesel (Xu *et al.*, 2006; Schenk *et al.*, 2008). Microalgae contain many other kinds of oils and not just triglycerides. All these oils can potentially provide various types of biofuels, although commercial production of algal biofuel remains challenging due to technical (Greenwell *et al.*, 2010) as well as economic reasons (Benemann and Oswald, 1996; Borowitzka, 1999b; Stephenson *et al.*, 2010a; Chisti, 2013). There is, therefore, the need to better understand the various aspects of production of microalgal biomass and lipids (Chen *et al.*, 2010).

2.3 Algal cultivation

Depending upon the requirements and the type of strain, different types of algal cultivation approaches can be used. These include photoautotrophic, heterotrophic, photoheterotrophic and mixotrophic growth (Chojnacka, 2004; Mata *et al.*, 2010). In photoautotrophic growth light is the only source of energy. The heterotrophic growth utilizes only organic compounds as a source of carbon and energy. In photoheterotrophic growth, light and exogenous organic compounds are the sources of energy. In mixotrophic growth, energy source is light and organic carbon (Chojnacka, 2004), but inorganic carbon (CO₂) is also used.

Growth on organic carbon can greatly enhance production of biomass and lipids (Chen, 1996; Miao and Wu, 2004; Xu *et al.*, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2007) compared to photoautotrophic (light as energy source) growth (Liang *et al.*, 2009). Some microalgae possess the features necessary for all these different types of metabolism. Examples of such algae are *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Dunaliella salina* (Scarsella *et al.*, 2009) *Haematococcus pluvialis* and the cyanobacterium *Arthrospira (Spirulina)* (Mata *et al.*,

2010). However using organic compounds as a source of energy is inefficient overall as all the organic carbon must be produced ultimately by photosynthesis (e.g. in plants) for feeding the heterotrophic algae (Chisti, 2007). This review therefore mostly focuses on photoautotrophic growth of algae, its requirements and challenges.

2.3.1 Photosynthesis and algal production

Photosynthesis is a unique process which is responsible for nearly all the life on Earth (Rubio *et al.*, 2003). The plants, algae and cyanobacteria are capable of photosynthesis. The algae generally perform C₃ photosynthesis which is similar to the C₃ photosynthesis of most terrestrial plants. In C₃ photosynthesis the first product of assimilation of CO₂ is a 3-carbon sugar, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (G3P) (Lobban and Harrison, 1994; Ehleringer and Cerling, 2002). The photosynthetic process has been described in detail in the literature (Whittingham, 1952; Lobban and Harrison, 1994; Alberts *et al.*, 2002; Douglas *et al.*, 2003; Lv *et al.*, 2010). A summary follows.

In photosynthesis, light energy is captured by the antenna complex of the photosynthetic apparatus and transferred rapidly to the neighboring chlorophyll molecules present in the photochemical reaction centers in the chloroplast. This light energy (four photons) splits water molecules to remove four electrons from two water molecules. This produces H⁺ ions and O₂ is released as a by-product. To complete a photosynthetic reaction a total of 8 photons are required. This process produces ATP (adenosine triphosphate) and NADPH. ATP (with NADPH) is used as an energy source for fixing the inorganic carbon (CO₂) to a three carbon organic compound, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (G3P). Most of this three-carbon sugar (G3P) in chloroplast is converted into starch and stored as large granules during rapid photosynthesis. The biochemical reactions of photosynthesis are controlled by numerous enzymes which are located in the chloroplast. From the chloroplast stroma,

glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (G3P) is transported into the cytosol to serve as the basis for the biosynthesis of many organic molecules and metabolites. Some of G3P is used for carbohydrate biosynthesis. Some G3P molecules are converted into pyruvate for protein synthesis and some (G3P) is used for fatty acid synthesis for lipid accumulation. All of these organic products contain stored chemical energy, which is utilized by the cell at different stages of growth. The process of photosynthesis is illustrated in Figure 2.3.

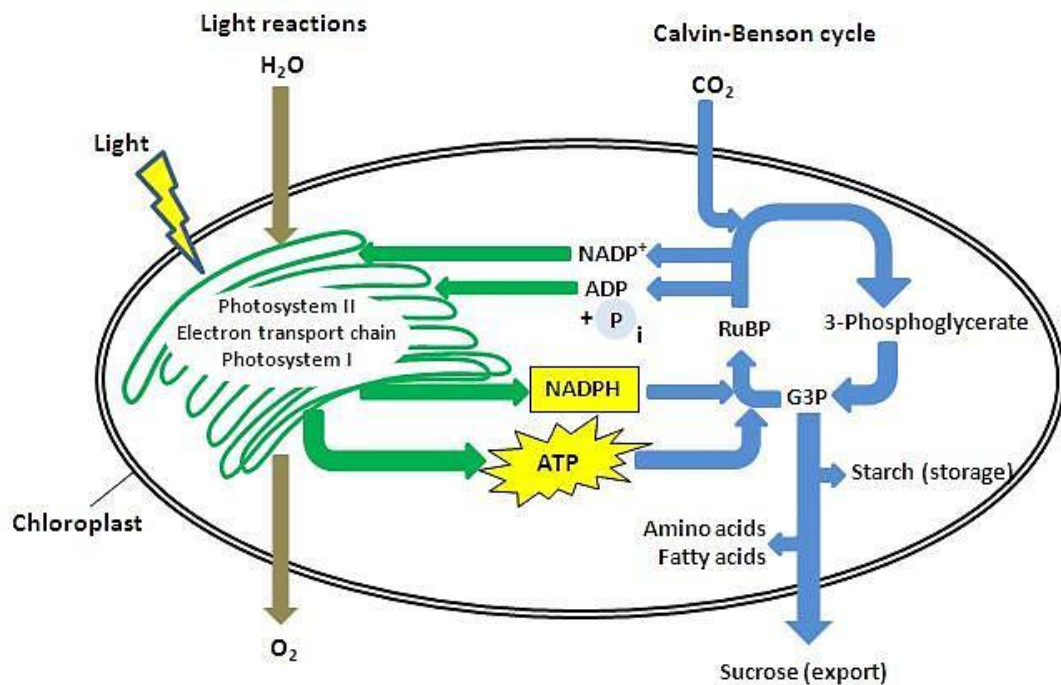


Figure 2.3 Conversion of solar energy into chemical energy by oxygenic photosynthesis in the chloroplast. Modified from Campbell and Reece (2005).

Many factors influence the rate of photosynthesis and any variations in these may affect the rate of biomass growth or change its composition (Hu, 2004). These factors include the concentration of CO₂, the quality and quantity of light, temperature (Vonshak and Torzillo, 2004), and the availability of micronutrients.

2.3.2 Growth parameters and limitation to biomass production

For biomass production in practice, growth is affected by:

- 1) Environmental factors such as light level, temperature, and salinity;
- 2) Chemical factors, i.e. the quality and quantity of nutrients (Borowitzka, 2005);
- 3) Operational factors (e.g. dilution rate, mixing) relating to the culture system; and
- 4) Biotic factors, i.e. contamination from unwanted species (Borowitzka, 1998).

Some of the major factors influencing biomass production are discussed in the following sections.

2.3.2.1 Light

Light is the major controlling factor influencing growth. Availability of light is directly related to the algal production regardless of the optimal level of nutrients and temperature in a cultivation system (Smith, 1983; Richmond, 1999). The effective light utilization by algae depends on cell concentration in the broth, the culture depth in a production system (Richmond, 1999) and the pigment composition of the cells (Carnicas *et al.*, 1999; Six *et al.*, 2009; Sforza *et al.*, 2012). The algal culture is affected by variations in light intensity and its cycles during diurnal and seasonal changes (outdoor) as well as by a very short light-dark cycle, i.e. a split-second cycle (flashing light effect) induced by mixing (Kok, 1953; Vonshak and Torzillo, 2004; Sato *et al.*, 2010).

In a production system with an increasing light intensity, the biomass concentration continues to increase as long as the other nutrients are not limiting. If the biomass concentration is kept low, a maximum value of the specific growth rate is achieved (Figure 2.4) at a certain light level known as the light saturation point (Bouterfas *et al.*, 2002; Macedo *et al.*, 2002; Torzillo *et al.*, 2003). Increasing light intensity from light saturation level may inhibit the growth (Figure 2.4), a phenomenon known as

photoinhibition. The spectrum of light radiation used by algae (i.e., the photosynthetically active radiation, PAR) is within the range of 400-700 nm. PAR is measured as a photon-flux density (PFD) incident on the surface of broth. (Photon flux density is the number of micromoles of photons of 400-700 nm wavelength received per square meter of a surface in 1 second.) The PAR value measured at peak solar irradiation in a tropical region is about $2,000 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (Chisti, 2012). However, for most of the algal strains light saturation level occurs at a PAR value of less than $200 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (Ogbonna and Tanaka, 2000; Torzillo *et al.*, 2003; Chisti, 2012). The effect of increasing light intensity on the growth rate is shown in Figure 2.4.

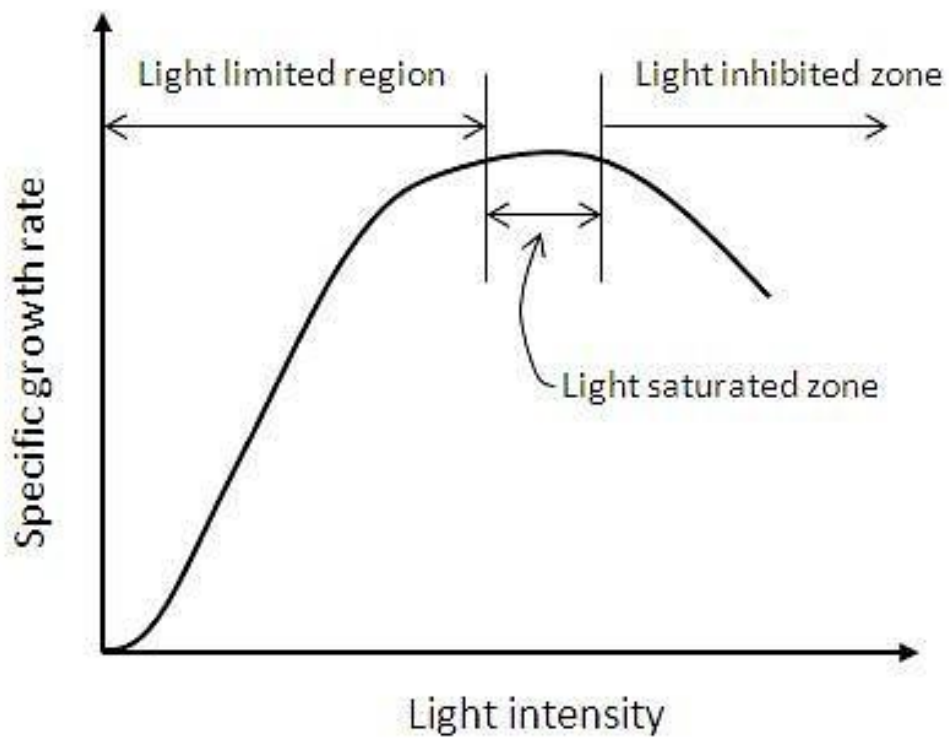


Figure 2.4 Light intensity levels and its effect on growth. Adapted from Ogbonna and Tanaka (2000).

The energy from light is converted into biomass in the form of chemical energy. The fraction of the total incident sunlight energy converted into biochemical energy is known as the photosynthetic efficiency. Theoretically, the photosynthetic efficiency of algae is estimated to be 13% of incident light (Bolton and Hall, 1991), but in practice in outdoor mass culture, the maximum efficiency is about 2.7% (Chisti, 2012). In some earlier studies, the flashing light effect was used to raise the photosynthetic efficiency to a value of 10% (Laws *et al.*, 1983; Sheehan *et al.*, 1998) by generating vortices using foil arrays.

The variation in light intensity also modifies the chemical composition of biomass. The content of carbohydrate, protein and lipids are affected by light-induced changes in intracellular pH. Mg^{2+} and NADPH levels in stroma regulate the key enzymes for fatty acid synthesis (Sukenik and Livne, 1991; Lv *et al.*, 2010). Enzyme activity may be reduced under light limitation and photoinhibition conditions. The effect of light is further discussed in the context of lipid accumulation later in this review (Section 2.4.1.2).

2.3.2.2 Temperature

Temperature is another important factor (Richmond, 1988; Richmond *et al.*, 1990; Torzillo *et al.*, 1991; Richmond, 1999) that regulates algal growth. Temperature affects the rates of all biochemical reactions and therefore the metabolic rates. Any variation in growth temperature can influence the composition of the algal biomass (Geider, 1987; James *et al.*, 1989; Davison, 1991). The optimal growth temperature of algal strains varies according to the climatic conditions of their natural habitat. For most algae of interest, the optimal growth temperature ranges between 24-40 °C (Hanagata *et al.*, 1992). Algae that thrive at 24-40 °C, often can tolerate temperatures as low as 15 °C, but temperatures of 2-4 °C higher than their optimal could cause a culture crash (Richmond,

1999). Irradiance affects culture temperature and effectively interacts with temperature in influencing productivity (Borowitzka, 1998).

2.3.2.3 Nutrients

Algal cells require nutrients to grow which are easily accessible to the cell from its surrounding environment (Chisti and Yan, 2011) (i.e. the aqueous medium). Composition of medium is an important factor in influencing growth via the supply of inorganic nutrients (Chen *et al.*, 2010). Main nutrients for algal culture are carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus (Richmond, 1988). Optimal nutrient requirements depend on species (Maddux and Jones, 1964; Rhee and Gotham, 1981; Smith, 1983; Cromar and Fallowfield, 1997). Kaplan *et al.* (1986) mentioned 30 elements as being essential for the autotrophic growth of algae. These nutrients are typically divided into macronutrients and micronutrients.

2.3.2.3a Macronutrients

These are the most important nutrients and their deficiency can arrest the growth of algae. They include carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, hydrogen and oxygen, which are essential for all algae. Silicon is an important element for the growth of diatoms which use it to build the structural part of the cell wall (Healey, 1973). Water is the main source of hydrogen and oxygen (Knud-Hansen, 1998). The role of the other major elements and their sources are discussed here.

Carbon as a main nutrient constitutes approximately 50% by weight of the algal biomass (Becker, 1994). Usually for photosynthetic algal production, the source of carbon is CO₂, which is either supplied directly to the nutrient media as pure CO₂ or through an air/CO₂ mixture. Carbon is needed to form all essential metabolic compounds including DNA/RNA, carbohydrates, proteins and lipids. According to an

estimate, producing 1 kg of biomass requires 1.5 to 2 kg of CO₂ (Sobczuk *et al.*, 2000). Sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃) can also be used as an inorganic carbon source (Chen *et al.*, 2010; Yeh and Chang, 2010).

After carbon, nitrogen is the next key element needed in relatively large amounts for algal growth. Nitrogen constitutes about 7-10% of the cell dry mass (Hu, 2004). Nitrogen is generally provided to algal cultures in the form of nitrates, ammonium salts or urea. The nitrogen supply affects growth rate of algae, the lipid content (Chen *et al.*, 2010), the fatty acid composition and the general health of culture (Fidalgo *et al.*, 1998). Cells assimilate nitrogen to produce chlorophyll, proteins, nucleic acids and coenzymes (Liu, 2012). As a result of nitrate assimilation, the pH of the culture rises (Becker, 1994). pH is controlled in a production system usually by supplying CO₂. According to an estimate, 50-80 kg of N is required to produce 1000 kg of algal biomass (Borowitzka and Moheimani, 2013).

Oxygen is another major element found in most organic cellular materials. Nearly 20% of cell biomass is oxygen. Oxygen molecule is the final electron acceptor during aerobic respiration of cell (Liu, 2012). The main sources of oxygen are water (Knud-Hansen, 1998). Hydrogen is also required for algal nutrition and occurs in water and nearly all organic molecules. The cell biomass consists of approximately 8% hydrogen by weight (Liu, 2012).

Phosphorus is another essential element for algal metabolism. Although it constitutes only 1-3% by weight of algal biomass, its supply regulates many aspects of growth, composition of the biomass and the cellular metabolic processes. For example, energy transfer during photosynthesis, synthesis of nucleic acids and DNA are affected by the supply of phosphorus (Becker, 1994; Grobbelaar, 2004). Synthesis of phospholipids and certain coenzymes requires phosphorus (Liu, 2012). Phosphorus is provided to the cultures as inorganic salts (Kuhl, 1974), usually as orthophosphate

(PO_4^{2-}) and its use by the algal cell is an energy dependent process (Becker, 1994). The necessary energy is supplied through photosynthesis or respiration.

2.3.2.3b Micronutrients and trace elements

Micronutrients are required in smaller amounts compared to the macroelements but influence algal growth and participate in metabolic activity. Examples of microelements are sulfur, calcium, sodium, potassium, magnesium, iron, manganese, zinc, copper, and cobalt (Goldman and Horne, 1994). A sufficient supply of all these micronutrients is needed to ensure a high yield of the biomass; however, limiting amounts of some nutrients may be used to enhance production of specific metabolites (Grobbelaar, 2004).

2.3.2.4 Salinity

Salinity refers to the saltiness of saline water and is commonly defined as the amount of total dissolved salts (g) per kg of water. The preferred method of determining salinity is by measuring the electrical conductivity of water (Lewis and Perkin, 1978). The salinity scale (Bradshaw and Schleicher, 1980; Culkin and Smith, 1980; Dauphinee *et al.*, 1980; Lewis, 1980) is used for measuring seawater salinity. The average salinity of seawater is about 35 g/kg or 35 parts per thousand (ppt, ‰).

Freshwater algae often fail to grow in saline waters (Luangpipat, 2013). For marine algae, salinity is an important parameter that influences the growth and composition of the cell (Gomez *et al.*, 2003). The optimum salinity range is different for different algae (Brand, 1984), but many marine strains appear to tolerate a wide range (Borowitzka and Borowitzka, 1990; Tredici and Materassi, 1992; Becker, 1994; Fabregas *et al.*, 2000; García-González *et al.*, 2003) without necessarily growing. Increase in salinity beyond the optimal level induces osmotic stress, ionic stress and may modify the ionic ratio of

the cell by affecting cellular water activity (Kirst, 1989). Ion uptake and loss and membrane permeability for some ions may be affected by salinity (Kirst, 1989).

2.3.2.5 Mixing

Another important operational factor for attaining high productivity in all types of algal production systems is mixing (Thomas *et al.*, 1995; Borowitzka, 1996). The mixing requirement depends on the algal strain and the scale of culture operation. Mixing could be induced mechanically or by bubbling an air mixture in the culture broth. Mixing prevents cells from settling into relatively dark zones of a culture system (Barbosa, 2003) and increases light utilization efficiency. Mixing prevents thermal stratification and enhances the nutrients distribution. Mixing facilitates absorption of carbon dioxide in the culture medium and the removal of dissolved oxygen generated by photosynthesis (Terry and Raymond, 1985; Mata *et al.*, 2010). Mixing can also induce damage to algal cells (Thomas and Gibson, 1990; Eriksen, 2008) and to prevent a decline in the biomass yield, the limits to acceptable mixing need to be investigated (Barbosa, 2003).

2.3.2.6 Biotic factors (contamination)

Algal production in open cultivation system is often adversely impacted by unwanted algae, bacteria, yeasts, fungi (Becker, 1994; Borowitzka, 1998; Sheehan *et al.*, 1998), algae grazers (zooplankton) (Richmond, 1990) and sometimes viral infections (Wommack and Colwell, 2000). An algal broth with a low concentration of cells is more prone to contamination (Chisti, 2012). Closed photobioreactors are also not totally free from contamination from accumulation of debris and waste products on the inner surfaces (Richmond, 2004b). Control of contamination is not easy once it has prevailed. To minimize the risk of predators and other unwanted microorganisms getting in the culture, pretreatment of water by sterilization or filtration is recommended (Chisti,

2012). There are other strategies as well that could be applied to minimize contamination; for example the use of extremophilic algae and those capable of growing rapidly (Rodolfi *et al.*, 2009).

2.4 Lipids in microalgae

By definition, lipids are substances that are insoluble in water and soluble in nonpolar solvents such as petroleum ether, chloroform and hexane (Becker, 1994). Lipids are essential components of cells and functionally important as a part of cell membranes. Lipids also constitute energy storage compounds and are involved in the synthesis of some secondary metabolites (Becker, 1994; Qin, 2010).

Generally, lipids are classified based on their chemical characteristics as either neutral or polar (Christie, 2003). Neutral lipids are nonpolar and mainly storage lipids such as mono-, di- and triglyceride oils, waxes, (Greenwell *et al.*, 2010), prenyl derivatives (e.g. carotenoids, tocopherols, quinones, terpenes), pyrrole derivatives (e.g. chlorophyll) as well as hydrocarbons (Hu *et al.*, 2008; Sharma *et al.*, 2012). Polar lipids are usually structural lipids such as phospholipids, glycolipids, sphingolipids, and sterols that have ionizable or otherwise water soluble functional groups in the molecule (Becker, 1994).

Lipid synthesis in microalgae is similar to that of higher plants; however, eukaryotic algae synthesize a unique variety of fatty acids which are not produced elsewhere (Harwood and Guschina, 2009). Fatty acids are the basic components of the triglyceride lipids and some other lipids. Some marine algae produce very long chain polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) (Becker, 1994) such as docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA). DHA and EPA are used as a nutraceuticals (Riekhof *et al.*, 2005; Sharma *et al.*, 2012). The composition of fatty acids may vary in different classes of lipids. Saturated fatty acids and monounsaturated fatty acids may occur in

storage lipid while polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) typically occur in structural lipids (Hu *et al.*, 2008).

Under optimal growth conditions, algal cells predominately synthesize polar lipids. These may constitute approximately 5-20% of the dry cell mass (Aakanksha *et al.*, 2010). These polar lipids (i.e. membrane lipids such as phospholipids, glycolipids and sterols) have structural and maintenance roles; provide platforms for various metabolic processes; and are involved in bioactive signaling (e.g. sphingolipids) for the regulation of cell growth and differentiation (Bartke and Hannun, 2009; Sharma *et al.*, 2012). The polar lipids are located in the plasma membrane, thylakoid membrane and endoplasmic reticulum (Hu *et al.*, 2008). These membrane lipids tend to be rich in polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA). The main components of the storage lipids (i.e. non-polar lipids) are triglycerides (TAGs), which are stored in the cell cytosol in the form of lipid bodies. TAGs synthesis occurs when free fatty acids are transferred from the chloroplast to the endoplasmic reticulum and from there they are released into cytosol in the form of oil droplets (Scott *et al.*, 2010). However, in some green algae, the biosynthesis and accumulation of TAGs may takes place in inter-thylakoid space of the chloroplast (Ben-Amotz *et al.*, 1989). TAGs synthesis generally occurs during light period and its degradation happens in the dark, to provide energy for cell division (Thompson Jr, 1996; Greenwell *et al.*, 2010). TAGs accumulation commonly increases in the stationary phase of growth (Siron *et al.*, 1989; Sicko-Goad and Andresen, 1991; Lombardi and Wangersky, 1995; Alonso *et al.*, 1998; Alonso *et al.*, 2000) when cell division stops and the energy supply in the form of fixed carbon exceeds the metabolic requirements of the cells (Greenwell *et al.*, 2010). TAGs are then accumulated as an energy reserve. TAGs contain saturated, monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids (Alonso *et al.*, 1998; Bigogno *et al.*, 2002; Aakanksha *et al.*, 2010). Stress responses may lead to dismantling of membranes to storage lipids (Makewicz *et al.*,

1997; Bigogno *et al.*, 2002; Khozin-Goldberg and Cohen, 2006). A brief overview of the metabolic pathways that lead to lipid biosynthesis is shown in Figure 2.5.

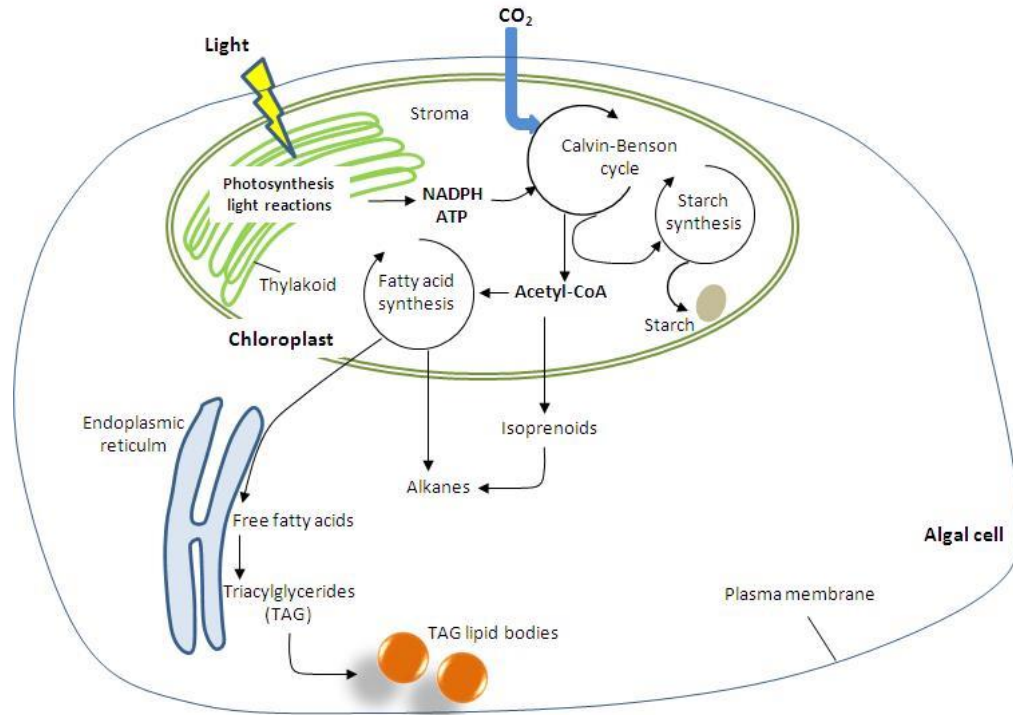


Figure 2.5 Microalgal metabolic pathways contributing to production of lipids. Based on Radakovits *et al.* (2010).

Proportion and composition of the different classes of lipids varies with the stage of growth, the nutrient stress, the diurnal cycle (Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981; Sukenik and Carmeli, 1990; Ekman *et al.*, 2007), cultivation conditions, and the harvesting time (Greenwell *et al.*, 2010). Only a few microalgae have been investigated extensively for lipid production (Harwood and Guschina, 2009).

Knowing the composition of algal lipids is important for assessing a strain's suitability for producing various biofuel (Greenwell *et al.*, 2010). The main focus of microalgal biofuel research has been the production of biodiesel (Chisti, 2013) and,

therefore, the tendency has been to try to maximize the production of TAGs and fatty acids (Courchesne *et al.*, 2009; Khozin-Goldberg and Cohen, 2011; Yu *et al.*, 2011a; Blatti *et al.*, 2012; Sharma *et al.*, 2012). However, the many other types of oils produced by algae can be converted to liquid fuels such as gasoline, diesel and kerosene (Chisti, 2012).

2.4.1 Lipid accumulation

A given alga exhibits different lipid metabolism under different growth conditions. For example, the level of nutrients in the growth medium, the irradiance, the temperature, CO₂ supplementation and salinity influence lipid accumulation and the types of lipids accumulated (Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981; Roessler, 1990). These culture conditions determine the quality and amount of lipid produced (Hu *et al.*, 2008; Rodolfi *et al.*, 2009; Pruvost *et al.*, 2011). Different algal species may respond differently to stressors (Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981). From the perspective of biofuels, modifications in the culture conditions have been used to enhance the lipid contents of the biomass (Illman *et al.*, 2000; Liu *et al.*, 2008; Mazzuca Sobczuk and Chisti, 2010). Lipid content and composition can also vary significantly in different phases of growth (Hu *et al.*, 2008); under favorable growth conditions, more polar lipids may be synthesized (Cagliari *et al.*, 2011) and less TAGs (Hu, 2004). Under stationary phase of growth or adverse growth conditions, production of neutral lipids in the form of TAGs is enhanced (Berge *et al.*, 1995; Tonon *et al.*, 2002; Hu *et al.*, 2008).

The various factors that trigger lipid accumulation and affect its composition have been reviewed for certain algae (Hu *et al.*, 2008; Leonardi *et al.*, 2011; Sharma *et al.*, 2012). Some of these factors are discussed briefly in the following sections.

2.4.1.1 Effect of nutrient starvation

Nutrient starvation can trigger lipid accumulation. Several nutrients including nitrogen, phosphorus, silicon and sulfur are known for inducing lipid accumulation (Sharma *et al.*, 2012). Nitrogen deprivation has often been found to greatly increase the lipid content of many microalgae (Hsieh and Wu, 2009; Yeh and Chang, 2011; Praveenkumar *et al.*, 2012). In addition to the concentration of nitrogen, the source of nitrogen also impacts the accumulation of lipids (Hsieh and Wu, 2009; Yeh and Chang, 2011). The first reported study on lipid accumulation under variable nitrate concentration was by Spoehr and Milner (1949) for *Chlorella pyrenoidosa*. An increase in lipid content of up to 85% was recorded. Extensive work has been reported on the effect of nitrogen deficient conditions on lipid accumulation in green microalgae (Largeau *et al.*, 1981; Piorreck *et al.*, 1984; Sawayama *et al.*, 1992; Illman *et al.*, 2000; Scragg *et al.*, 2002; Khozin-Goldberg and Cohen, 2006; Griffiths and Harrison, 2009; Hsieh and Wu, 2009; Widjaja *et al.*, 2009; Gardner *et al.*, 2009; Chen *et al.*, 2011; Praveenkumar *et al.*, 2012). Diverse responses are sometimes seen within different species of a given genus. For example, most *Chlorella* species accumulate neutral lipids under N starvation, but some species accumulate starch (Hu, 2004). In *Tetraselmis suecica* and some *Dunaliella* species, no change in lipids levels has been seen under N starvation (Borowitzka, 1988). *Nannochloropsis* species have been extensively studied for lipid production (Boussiba *et al.*, 1987; Suen *et al.*, 1987; Sukenik *et al.*, 1989; Chini Zittelli *et al.*, 1999; Hu and Gao, 2006). Except for *Nannochloropsis salina* (Boussiba *et al.*, 1987), members of this genus have often been reported to accumulate lipids under a combination of nitrate depletion condition and high irradiance.

Diatoms (golden or brown algae) usually show multiple responses with regards to nitrate deprivation (Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981; Benemann and Oswald, 1996). Some

diatoms show an increased lipid content, specifically the TAGs, under N deprivation. Examples of such diatoms are *Cyclotella cryptica*, *Nitzschia palea*, *Navicula pelliculosa* (Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981), *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* (Parrish and Wangersky, 1987), and *Chaetoceros muelleri* (McGinnis *et al.*, 1997). Other diatoms may increase the lipid level only a little on N starvation. This happens in *Skeletonema costatum*, for example. Yet other diatoms, e.g. *Synedra ulna* and *Biddulphia aurita*, may show no increase on N starvation while in species such as *Thalassiosira weissflogii* nitrate starvation may actually decrease the lipid content (Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981). The silicate starvation has resulted in lipid content increase in diatoms (Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981). This happens, for example, in the diatoms *Cyclotella cryptica* (Werner, 1966; Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981; Roessler, 1990; Griffiths and Harrison, 2009), *Amphiprora hyalina*, *Chaetoceros muelleri*, *Nitzschia dissipata* and several species of *Navicula* (Griffiths and Harrison, 2009). In the case of *Cyclotella cryptica*, different silicon stress levels enhanced lipid accumulation significantly. Production of TAGs as well as saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids was also enhanced (Roessler, 1990).

A deficiency of other nutrients may also trigger lipid accumulation. For example, deficiency of phosphorus and sulfur may do this in some but not all algae. Phosphate deficiency induced lipid accumulation in *Scenedesmus obliquus* (Mandal and Mallick, 2009) and fatty acid production in *Dunaliella tertiolecta* (Siron *et al.*, 1989), but decreased the lipid level in *Nannochloris atomus* and *Tetraselmis* sp, (Reitan *et al.*, 1994). Deficiency of sulfur caused an increase in lipid content of *Chlorella* sp. and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Matthew *et al.*, 2009). A deficiency or excess of micronutrients also influence lipid accumulation. For example, Fe³⁺ supplementation in certain stages of growth has increased the lipids content of *Chlorella vulgaris* (Liu *et al.*, 2008).

In diatoms, phosphorus limitation increased the lipid content in *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* (Siron *et al.*, 1989; Valenzuela *et al.*, 2013), *Chateoceros* sp. (Reitan *et al.*, 1994) and *Chaetoceros gracilis* (Lombardi and Wangersky, 1995).

2.4.1.2 Light stress

The level of light (both the extent of the photoperiod and the intensity of light) (Brenckmann *et al.*, 1985) also influence lipid production. A high irradiance induces neutral lipid production (Spoehr and Milner, 1949; Orcutt and Patterson, 1974; Sukenik *et al.*, 1989; Roessler, 1990; Napolitano, 1994; Brown *et al.*, 1996) as they tend to protect the cell from photooxidative stress. The latter is usually associated with the production of secondary carotenoids (Rabbani *et al.*, 1998; Zhekisheva *et al.*, 2002). A low irradiance level increases the synthesis of membrane lipids such as glycolipids and phospholipids (Hu *et al.*, 2008). In sunlight driven production processes the light level is not readily manipulated, unfortunately.

2.4.1.3 Temperature stress

Temperature is known to influence the lipid content and composition (Roessler, 1990; Hu, 2004; Guschina and Harwood, 2006; Hu *et al.*, 2008), but no generalized patterns have been identified with respect to the effects of temperature (Hu *et al.*, 2008). This is because of a relative lack of studies in this area possibly because temperature is not easily controlled in many outdoor large-scale commercial culture operations. Some algae have been reported to increase lipid content with increasing temperature. This occurs in the range of 15-30 °C in *Ochromonas danica* (Aaronson, 1973); in the range of 17-35 °C in *Nannochloropsis salina* (Boussiba *et al.*, 1987); in the range of 20-25 °C in *Nannochloropsis oculata*; and in the range of 25-30 °C in *Chlorella vulgaris*

(Converti *et al.*, 2009). Lipid content of *Chlorella sorokiniana* has not shown any obvious effect under variable temperatures of 14 °C, 22 °C and 38 °C.

Interactive effects of temperature and light intensity have been reported (Sorokin and Krauss, 1962; Collins and Boylen, 1982).

2.4.1.4 Salinity stress

The effect of salinity on lipid accumulation has been reported for some green algae (Sonnekus, 2010). In some cases, salinity changes had no significant effect on lipid accumulation but affected the lipid composition (Vazquez-Duhalt and Arredondo-Vega, 1990; 1991). *Dunaliella tertiolecta* has been found to increase its lipid content with increasing salinity (Takagi *et al.*, 2006). Lipid contents of *Isochrysis* sp. and *Nannochloropsis oculata* (Prymnesiophyceae and Eustigmatophyceae, respectively) were also elevated by increasing salinity (Renaud and Parry, 1994). Lipid contents of some diatoms declined at salinity of more than 35 ppt (Renaud and Parry, 1994; Sonnekus, 2010).

As outlined above, many factors can be used to influence lipid accumulation in microalgae. Some of these factors (e.g. temperature) are not easily manipulated in large scale outdoor operations, or are expensive to manipulate. Factors such as N starvation are broadly applicable, easy to control and may actually reduce the cost of producing the algal oils. What specific factors are used to influence oil productivity would depend very much on the specific alga (Pruvost *et al.*, 2011).

2.5 Strain selection

Over the years, thousands of strains of different algae classes have been examined for their lipid contents. Of these hundreds have been characterized as being oleaginous

strains (Hu *et al.*, 2008). An oleaginous microorganism is one that is able to produce and store a significant amount of TAGs under various stress conditions (Hu *et al.*, 2008; Damiani *et al.*, 2010; Gardner *et al.*, 2010).

Most of the oil-rich strains have belonged to the algal class Chlorophyceae (green algae) and Bacillariophyceae (diatoms) (Sheehan *et al.*, 1998), but some belong to other algal classes (Hu *et al.*, 2006). Typically, the oil-rich strains of different algal classes show an average lipid content of ~27% of biomass dry weight under optimal growth conditions and ~44% of dry weight, under unfavorable growth conditions (Hu *et al.*, 2008). However, the lipid content alone is an unsatisfactory criterion for selecting a strain for oil production (Griffiths and Harrison, 2009) as the oil content does not consider the time needed to achieve it. A better criterion is the lipid productivity (Griffiths and Harrison, 2009; Rodolfi *et al.*, 2009; Mata *et al.*, 2010; Pruvost *et al.*, 2011). Other considerations include the ease of growth, harvest and lipid extraction (Greenwell *et al.*, 2010). Once a strain is selected, the production process needs to be optimized for maximal oil productivity. Productivity is the quantity (mass) of oil produced per unit culture volume per unit time.

2.5.1 *Chlorella vulgaris*

Chlorella species have been generally the most favored for large scale production because they typically grow rapidly, are easy to cultivate (Lv *et al.*, 2010) and resistant to contamination (Huntley and Redalje, 2007). Among the various strains of *Chlorella* sp., the freshwater *Chlorella vulgaris* has been investigated most commonly (Görs *et al.*, 2010) but mainly for dietary purposes. This strain was first isolated and cultivated by Beijerinck (1890).

C. vulgaris has been cultivated on a mass scale since 1950 (Görs *et al.*, 2010) and is produced by more than 70 commercial companies (Spolaore *et al.*, 2006). However,

most of the industrial biomass production of *C. vulgaris* is carried out by mixotrophic cultivation (Iwamoto, 2004) for use in nutritional products. Due to difficulties in distinguishing different *Chlorella* species by morphology, most of the studies only state the genus. This poses problems as many metabolites are species specific (Görs *et al.*, 2010). Most of the investigations on *C. vulgaris* have been in freshwater media with a few exceptions reporting the use of marine media (Liu *et al.*, 2008; Lv *et al.*, 2010). Although, *C. vulgaris* is a robust alga, few studies have addressed the effect of pH on its growth for example (Azov, 1982; Goldman *et al.*, 1982; Powell *et al.*, 2009) and the effect of phosphorus level on growth (Grover, 1989).

Freshwater *C. vulgaris* has been suggested as the best algal strain for biodiesel production (Lee *et al.*, 2010; Yeh and Chang, 2010; Choi *et al.*, 2011; Yeh and Chang, 2012; Pignolet *et al.*, 2013) primarily because of its potential to accumulate a substantial amount of lipids under various conditions (Widjaja *et al.*, 2009; Amaro *et al.*, 2011). The other attractive characteristics of *C. vulgaris* for use on a large scale (Ugwu *et al.*, 2008) are its competitive nature under diverse growth conditions (Kessler, 1976; Maxwell *et al.*, 1994; Wilson and Huner, 2000) and tolerance to a pH range of between 5 and 10 (Widjaja *et al.*, 2009; Yeh and Chang, 2011).

Generally, the biomass of *C. vulgaris* comprises 50-58% protein, 12-17% carbohydrate and 14-22% lipids (Spolaore *et al.*, 2006). A similar lipid contents range of 14-25% has been reported for *C. vulgaris* in other studies under nutrient sufficient conditions (Illman *et al.*, 2000; Griffiths and Harrison, 2009; Rodolfi *et al.*, 2009). However, lipid levels of up to 58% of dry weight may be achieved (Mata *et al.*, 2010; Amaro *et al.*, 2011) by manipulating the culture conditions.

N starvation has been found to be particularly promising for enhancing lipid accumulation in *C. vulgaris*. The effect of N has been extensively studied in freshwater *C. vulgaris* (Illman *et al.*, 2000; Scragg *et al.*, 2002; Converti *et al.*, 2009; Liang *et al.*,

2009; Widjaja *et al.*, 2009; Lv *et al.*, 2010; Stephenson *et al.*, 2010a; Yeh and Chang, 2011; Mallick *et al.*, 2012). N starvation leads to a progressive increase in lipid content of the biomass but reduces growth. Some of the above studies also identified the effects of other conditions on lipid accumulation. Lipid content may be influenced by the concentration of CO₂ (Widjaja *et al.*, 2009; Lv *et al.*, 2010), the levels of irradiance (Lv *et al.*, 2010; Yeh and Chang, 2010), the temperature (Converti *et al.*, 2009) and supplementing with iron (Liu *et al.*, 2008). Recently a detailed study was carried out on biomass and lipid productivity of *C. vulgaris* in seawater media in photobioreactors (Luangpipat, 2013). The published studies for lipid accumulation by *C. vulgaris* under various growth conditions are summarized in Table 2.1. With a few exceptions, nearly all reported studies focused on freshwater media. The only extensive study in full strength seawater (Luangpipat, 2013) did not consider the open raceway pond culture systems as would be necessary for any large-scale outdoor culture.

Some studies in *C. vulgaris* have optimized some of the cultivation conditions for lipid production in a laboratory scale (~4 L working volume) photobioreactor (Chen *et al.*, 2010; Lv *et al.*, 2010) in freshwater. No work at all has been reported on *C. vulgaris* culture in open raceway types of systems in full strength marine media.

Table 2.1 Summary of *C. vulgaris* studies on lipid production

Salinity	Production system	Cultivation method	Nutrient medium	Growth variables	Lipid extraction method	Findings	References
Freshwater	8 L tank	Autotrophic	NA ¹	-different sources of N (NH ₄ Cl and KNO ₃) -different concentration of N	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-highest lipid content of 62.9% attained with 10 mg of KNO ₃ but decreased lipid productivity of 1.2 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹	(Piorreck <i>et al.</i> , 1984)
Freshwater	200 mL flask	Autotrophic	WC medium ²	-N starvation	Soxhlet extraction ³	-highest lipid content was 40.6%	(Shifrin and Chisholm, 1981)
Freshwater	2-L bioreactor	Autotrophic	Watanabe	-low N, 5% CO ₂	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-lipid content increased from 18 to 40% by N-starvation -highest lipid productivity was 29 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ -calorific value increased from 18 to 23 kJ g ⁻¹ by N-starvation	(Illman <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
Freshwater	230-L bioreactor	Autotrophic	Watanabe	-low N	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-lipid content increased from 28 to 58% by N-starvation -calorific value increased from 21 to 28 kJ g ⁻¹ by N-starvation	(Scragg <i>et al.</i> , 2002)
Seawater (natural)	250-500 mL flask	Autotrophic	F/2-Si	-iron supplementation at late exponential phase	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-lipid content increased from 7.8 to 56.6% by low iron concentration	(Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
Freshwater	5-L fermenter	Autotrophic	Modified Fitzgerald	-N depleting media -different CO ₂ concentrations	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-highest lipid content was ~42% and 13 folds high TAG content under N depletion condition at CO ₂ concentration of 0.33%	(Widjaja <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
Freshwater	2-L Erlenmeyer flask	Autotrophic	Bold's Basal	-low N -temperature increase from 25-30°C	Ultrasound and Folch ⁴ (1957) method	-lipid content increased from 5.9 to 16.4% under N limitation -lipid content decreased from 14.7 to 5.9% with increasing temperature	(Converti <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
Freshwater	250 mL flask	Autotrophic	BG11	-N replete condition	Charring (1966) method ⁵	-highest lipid content of 18% and lipid productivity of 36.9 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹	(Rodolfi <i>et al.</i> , 2009)

Table 2.1 Summary of *C. vulgaris* studies on lipid production (Cont.)

Salinity	Production system	Cultivation method	Nutrient medium	Growth variables	Lipid extraction method	Findings	References
Freshwater	1-L bottle	Autotrophic, heterotrophic, mixotrophic	Bristol medium+proteose peptone	-different cultivation methods with different C sources -N starvation	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-highest lipid content of 38%, attained in autotrophic, N starvation condition -highest lipid productivity of 54 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ attained with mixotrophic condition	(Liang <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
Freshwater	1-L photobioreactor	Autotrophic	NA ¹	-different levels of N were tested -NaHCO ₃ used as a source of C, various concentrations were tested	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-highest lipid productivity of 114.3 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ (attained at KNO ₃ concentration of 650 mg L ⁻¹ and NaHCO ₃ of 1500 mg L ⁻¹)	(Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2010)
Seawater (~ 34 ppt)	5-L photobioreactor	Autotrophic	NA ¹	-different levels of N, CO ₂ and irradiance were tested	FT-IR spectroscopy ⁶ (2009)	-highest lipid content and lipid productivity was 20% and 40 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ , respectively, attained at 1.0 mM of KNO ₃ , 1.0% CO ₂ and 60 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹	(Lv <i>et al.</i> , 2010)
Freshwater	1-L photobioreactor	Autotrophic	Basal	-effect of C source, i.e. NaHCO ₃ and its concentration -effect of light intensity and light source	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-lipid content of 30-40% attained at 1000 mg L ⁻¹ of NaHCO ₃ of and 41 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹ (fluorescent light)	(Yeh and Chang, 2010)
Freshwater	9-L jar	Autotrophic	BG11	-N replete condition	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	- highest lipid content of 7.8 and lipid productivity of 11 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ by N sufficient condition	(Lee <i>et al.</i> , 2010)
Freshwater	130-L airlift photobioreactor	Autotrophic	Bold's Basal	-N depletion conditions	Folch ⁴ (1957) method	-lipid content was 20-23% i.e. unchanged under N starvation, but increase in TAG content from 3 to 14%	(Pruvost <i>et al.</i> , 2011)

Table 2.1 Summary of *C. vulgaris* studies on lipid production (Cont.)

Salinity	Production system	Cultivation method	Nutrient medium	Growth variables	Lipid extraction method	Findings	References
Freshwater	1-L photobioreactor	Autotrophic	Basal	-2-stage method to induce lipid accumulation -low initial N in one-stage cultivation	Direct transesterification ⁷ (1984)	-two-stage approach did not increase lipid content -one-stage approach maximum lipid content of 55.9% and lipid productivity of 132.4 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ in low N concentration of 313 mg L ⁻¹	(Yeh and Chang, 2011)
Freshwater	2-L glass cylinder photobioreactor	Autotrophic	BG11	-variable light intensity	Gravimetric method using chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v)	-highest lipid productivity within a range of 80.5 to 88.5 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ by light intensity of 200 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹	(Hempel <i>et al.</i> , 2012)
Freshwater	1-L bubble column photobioreactor	Autotrophic	BG11	-2-stage method -effect of various N and P concentrations, irradiance and aeration rate was tested in stage-2	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-highest lipid productivity of ~77 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ attained with N and P limitation ⁸ , light intensity of 100 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹ and 2% of CO ₂	(Mujtaba <i>et al.</i> , 2012)
Freshwater	150 mL Erlenmeyer flask	Autotrophic, Mixotrophic	N11, N11+glucose	-limitation of N, P and Fe	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-highest lipid content of 55% and lipid productivity of with 171.4 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ with N11 medium -highest lipid content of 48.5% and lipid productivity of 1973.9 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ with N11+glucose medium	(Mallick <i>et al.</i> , 2012)
Freshwater	1-L photobioreactor	Autotrophic, heterotrophic, mixotrophic, photoheterotrophic	Bold Basal, modified Bristol's, MBL medium	-different nutrient media -different cultivation methods	Direct transesterification ⁷ (1984)	-highest lipid content of 53% in MBL medium - highest lipid productivity in phototrophic growth was ~56 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ (Basal medium) -highest lipid productivity in mixotrophic growth was 143.9 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ (Bristol's medium)	(Yeh and Chang, 2012)

Table 2.1 Summary of *C. vulgaris* studies on lipid production (Cont.)

Salinity	Production system	Cultivation method	Nutrient medium	Growth variables	Lipid extraction method	Findings	References
Seawater	1-L Duran bottle, 4-8 L stirred tank photobioreactor, tubular photobioreactor	Autotrophic	BG11 medium (seawater)	-nutrient sufficient medium, 25 to 27 °C - N depletion condition and temperature of 10 to 20°C	Bligh and Dyer (1959)	-highest lipid content of 33% and lipid productivity of >37 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ by N sufficient condition -highest lipid content of 59% and lipid productivity of >42 mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ by N starvation and low to normal temperature condition	(Luangpipat, 2013)

¹Medium composition is provided in the article, but the name is not mentioned; ²(Guillard, 1975); ³(Soxhlet, 1879); ⁴(Folch *et al.*, 1957); ⁵(Marsh and Weinstein, 1966); ⁶(Pistorius *et al.*, 2009);

⁷(Lepage and Roy, 1984); ⁸2% and 10% of initial N and P levels, respectively, in BG11 media.

2.6 Microalgal production systems

Mass production of microalgae is carried out in two types of systems (Figure 2.6) (Becker, 1994; Tredici, 2004; Borowitzka and Moheimani, 2012): either open ponds (i.e. natural ponds and lagoons, inclined circular ponds, oblong raceway ponds), or closed photobioreactors of different designs.



Figure 2.6 Some designs of open and closed microalgal production systems: a) Centre-pivot ponds used for the production of *Chlorella*, Taiwan (www.pureplanet.de); b) Algae wastewater treatment raceway pond at the NIWA's research site, Christchurch, New Zealand (National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research Ltd); c) *Dunaliella bardawil* cultivation in raceway ponds (Nature Beta Technologies Ltd, Eilat, Israel, subsidiary of Nikken Sohonsa Co. Gifu, Japan); d) Bubble column photobioreactors growing algal strains for different pigments at Arizona State University's Polytechnic campus in Mesa, Arizona, USA; e) Tubular photobioreactor used for biomass production in Klötze, Saxony Anhalt, Germany (© Bioprodukte Prof. Steinberg GmbH); f) Plate-type photobioreactors, NanoVoltaicsk Inc. (www.nanovoltaiics.com), Arizona, USA.

Both types of systems can be considered as reactors in view of their utility for the cultivation of microalgae (Tredici, 1999). The performance of closed reactors, i.e. photobioreactors (PBR), is far better than that of open reactors (open ponds). This is because closed systems allow a good control over growth parameters, have a higher surface-to-volume (S/V) ratio for light capture and reduce contamination (Becker, 1994; Tredici, 2004; Chisti, 2007). The scale of operation of photobioreactors is, however, smaller compared to that of conventional raceway systems and photobioreactors tend to be expensive (Lehr and Posten, 2009; Tredici *et al.*, 2010). The other major challenges associated with photobioreactors are: an accumulation of oxygen that inhibits photosynthesis at a high concentration; management of an even liquid flow in multiple long tubes; and hydrodynamic stress that can lead to cell damage (Gudin and Chaumont, 1991; Williams and Laurens, 2009). The design and characteristics of photobioreactors have been extensively reviewed in the literature (Lee, 1986; Prokop and Erickson, 1995; Torzillo, 1997; Tredici and Chini Zittelli, 1997; Pulz and Scheibenbogen, 1998; Tredici, 1999; Carvalho *et al.*, 2006; Eriksen, 2008; Lehr and Posten, 2009; Tredici *et al.*, 2010).

2.6.1 Raceway and its operation

A raceway is a shallow open pond that is shaped like a closed loop race track (Figure 2.7). Raceways are most commonly used for commercial microalgal biomass production (Borowitzka, 1999a; Olaizola, 2000). Depending on the type of ground, a pond is constructed either by digging into the ground or erecting walls of concrete blocks or bricks. The ponds are generally lined with a plastic liner (Tredici, 2004; Chisti, 2007). The principles of construction and design of paddlewheel raceway ponds have been extensively reviewed (Dodd, 1986; Oswald, 1988; Borowitzka, 2005; Chisti, 2012). Large scale raceway ponds were first introduced in the 1950s as High Rate Algal

Ponds (HRAP) for wastewater treatment (Oswald *et al.*, 1957). They were later used in commercial production of algal biomass mainly for food and nutraceuticals applications. Algae and cyanobacteria such as *Chorella* sp., *Spirulina platensis*, *Haematococcus* sp. and *Dunaliella salina* (Jiménez *et al.*, 2003a; Borowitzka, 2005) have been successfully cultivated in open ponds. The raceway ponds were first used in attempts to produce algal biofuels under the Aquatic Species Program (Sheehan *et al.*, 1998) in the United States. This extensive demonstration project started in 1976 and continued for several years. These studies were focused on optimization of operational conditions and examination of their effect on biomass and lipid productivities. As an outcome of this program, the inexpensive raceway technology was concluded to be potentially feasible for production of oil for fuels.



Figure 2.7 Commercial algal biomass production in raceways: a) and b) Cultivation of *Spirulina* (a blue-green cyanobacterium) and *Haematococcus pluvialis* (an orange pigment producing green alga) by Cyanotech Corporation, Kona, Hawaii (www.cyanotech.com); c) *Dunaliella bardawil* cultivation in raceway ponds (Nature Beta Technologies Ltd, Eilat, Israel, subsidiary of Nikken Sohonsa Co. Gifu, Japan).

A raceway pond is typically filled with algal culture to a depth of 0.2–0.3 m (James and Boriah, 2010; Chisti, 2012). The culture is circulated in the pond typically by means of a paddlewheel (Figure 2.7). Raceways driven by paddlewheels are one of the most commonly used systems for commercial production of algal biomass (Dodd, 1986; Richmond, 1992; Tredici, 2004). The agitation by paddlewheel is supposed to enhance light utilization for algal cell (Vonshak and Guy, 1992) and keep the cells suspended; however, intensive mixing increases the cost of energy consumption (Béchet *et al.*, 2010; Mata *et al.*, 2010; Stephenson *et al.*, 2010b). In practice, the velocity of flow in the channel is a little higher than the minimum needed to keep the cells suspended. The recommended velocities are 0.15 m s⁻¹ (Park and Craggs, 2010), 0.18 m s⁻¹ (Hase *et al.*, 2000) and 0.3 m s⁻¹ (Lin and Lin, 2011).

Various other types of mixing systems have been used in raceways. These include airlift pumps, propellers, Archimedes screws and water jets (Borowitzka and Moheimani, 2012). Paddlewheels have proven most successful and are widely used because of their low cost and a relatively low energy consumption (Borowitzka and Moheimani, 2012).

Propellers require the same amount of energy as required by paddlewheels, but propellers have not been tested in large ponds (Borowitzka and Moheimani, 2012). The Archimedes screws are reported to have a higher energy consumption compared to paddlewheels (Laws and Berning, 1991). Water jets have also been used in small ponds and found to use more energy than paddlewheels (Becker, 1994). Nevertheless, currently the jet-type of circulation mechanism is being used for large-scale raceways by Aurora Algae (Australia). This patented (Paresh *et al.*, 2010) system is claimed to minimize energy inputs.

The airlift-based mixing systems have been investigated (Persoone *et al.*, 1980; Märkl and Mather, 1985), but require almost twice as much energy as the paddlewheels.

An airlift raceway (23 L) configured by Ketheeshan and Nirmalakhandan (2011, 2012) was assessed for algal cultivation. The biomass productivity of this system was close to the biomass productivity of photobioreactors and the energy efficiency was higher.

To improve the biomass production, CO₂ or air/CO₂ mixture is generally supplied to the culture broth (James and Boriah, 2010) by bubbling at the bottom of the raceway (Ketheesan and Nirmalakhandan, 2012). A drawback of open raceways is that some of the CO₂ supplied is released into the atmosphere (Weissman *et al.*, 1989; Carvalho *et al.*, 2006). This can be a significant economic loss. Different strategies have been proposed to overcome the technical challenges relating to CO₂ supply in a raceway. For example, the use of a carbonation column (Putt *et al.*, 2011) and supplementation with dissolved carbonates (Campbell *et al.*, 2011). The other major limitation of a raceway is water loss through evaporation (Carvalho *et al.*, 2006). This needs to be compensated for by adding freshwater. Although raceways are open to atmosphere, removal of oxygen produced by photosynthesis can be difficult (Richmond, 1990; Moheimani and Borowitzka, 2007). Another problem is contamination through the open surface (Sheehan *et al.*, 1998; Borowitzka, 2005; Mata *et al.*, 2010).

Under conditions of nutrient sufficiency and otherwise optimal physical factors, availability of light is the only factor that governs the photosynthetic biomass productivity in a raceway (Richmond, 2004a). As the culture density increases, the light penetration is reduced by mutual shading by cells (Tamiya, 1957). In such a dense culture, two light zones develop: the photic zone (i.e. the illuminated surface of the broth, where cells can harvest light energy for photosynthesis) and the dark zone (i.e. the volume of the broth where light cannot reach therefore no photosynthesis can occur) (Richmond, 2004a). In addition to cell density, the culture depth also plays a vital role in determining the biomass productivity in a raceway (Richmond, 2004a). Once the

culture reaches a concentration of about 0.5 g L^{-1} light cannot penetrate to its full depth in a raceway and more than 80% of the culture becomes unproductive (Chisti, 2012). The irradiance-depth profile is typically as shown in Figure 2.8.

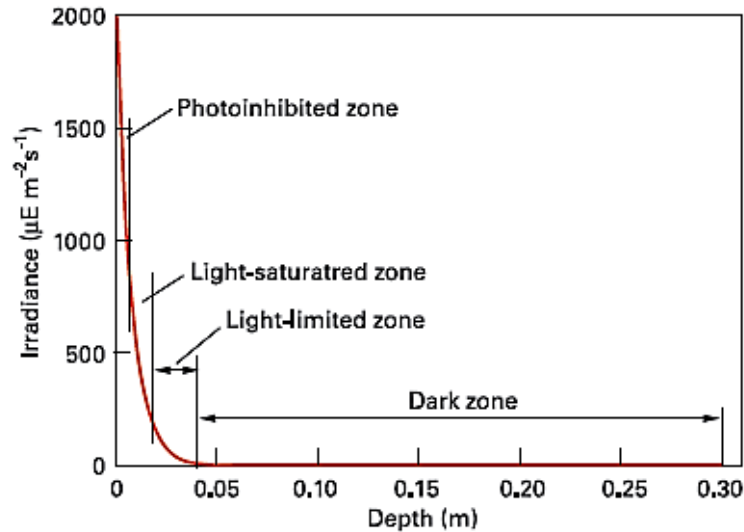


Figure 2.8 Light profile in a 0.3 m deep raceway at a dry biomass concentration of 0.5 g L^{-1} . The profile was calculated for a suspension of the marine diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* at an incident irradiance level of $2,000 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at the surface of the raceway. The zones of different metabolic activity are: the photoinhibited zone ($I_L \geq 800 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$); the light-saturated zone ($170 \leq I_L \leq 800 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$); the light-limited zone ($4 \leq I_L \leq 170 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$); and the dark zone ($I_L \leq 4 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). I_L is the local irradiance at any depth L from the surface. Source: Chisti (2012).

Another factor that regulates the biomass productivity in a raceway is the rapid light-dark cycling as the cells at the illuminated surface periodically move deeper in the darker zones (Richmond, 2004a). Mixing affects this light-dark cycling. If light-dark cycling is sufficiently rapid, the photosynthetic apparatus can use the energy of the photon before the next photon arrives (Richmond, 2004a).

For a given culture volume, the productivity of a culture system generally increases with increasing surface area for light absorption (Pirt *et al.*, 1980; Richmond, 2004a), but large raceways (e.g. 0.5 ha in surface area) cannot be made shallower than about 0.2 m because of issues relating to evaporative losses and difficulties in ensuring flatness of construction so that the flow is not adversely influenced by differences in depth along the channel.

The algal production in a raceway may be by a batch operation, a continuous operation or semicontinuous operation. As summarized in Table 2.2, in a batch culture of raceway that lasts for a period of 4-6 weeks, the maximum biomass productivity is 0.05-0.1 g L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Pulz, 2001). In a 13-month long semicontinuous culture, the averaged biomass productivity was 0.19 g L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Moheimani and Borowitzka, 2006). In a continuous culture, a biomass productivity of 0.204 g L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Boussiba *et al.*, 1987) and 0.19 g L⁻¹ d⁻¹ (Ketheesan and Nirmalakhandan, 2012) have been achieved. The biomass productivity in all these different modes of cultivation is generally similar. However, semicontinuous and continuous culture modes of operation are preferred for commercial algal production because culture operations can be run for long periods of time (Moheimani and Borowitzka, 2006). Based on available information (Table 2.2), the best areal productivities are about 20-22 g·m⁻² d⁻¹ with lipid contents of about 33% (Moheimani and Borowitzka, 2006). A productivity of 22 g·m⁻² d⁻¹ with a lipid contents of 20-40% has also been reported (Sheehan *et al.*, 1998). According to Richmond (2004a), in a well-managed raceway the algal productivity does not generally exceed 20–25 g·m⁻²d⁻¹.

Table 2.2 Summary of raceway algal cultivation

Algal strain	Cultivation Mode	Culture volume (L)	Surface area (m ²)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Volumetric productivity (g L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Areal productivity (g m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Lipid content (% w/w)	Location	References
<i>Micractinium</i> sp ¹	-	-	-	-	-	33	-	Israel	(Shelef, 1982)
<i>Actinastrum</i> sp ¹	-	-	-	-	-	35	-	Israel	(Shelef, 1982)
<i>Phaeodactylum tricornutum</i>	-	-	-	-	0.0028–0.13	2.4–11.3	-	Hawaii	(Laws <i>et al.</i> , 1983)
<i>Nannochloropsis salina</i>	Continuous	300	2.5	0.35-1.3	0.204	3.5-24	16.5-21	Israel	(Boussiba <i>et al.</i> , 1987)
<i>Cyclotella cryptica</i>	-	-	48	0.155	-	29.7	-	Hawaii	(Laws <i>et al.</i> , 1988)
<i>Chlorella</i> sp	-	-	100	-	-	20	-	USA	(Weissman <i>et al.</i> , 1988)
<i>Porphyridium cruenetum</i>	-	120	-	-	0.04-0.20	5.0-24	-	Israel	(Cohen <i>et al.</i> , 1988)
Mixed algal culture ^{1,2}	-	-	-	-	-	15	-	Kuwait	(Banat <i>et al.</i> , 1990)
<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	Semicontinuous	750	2.4	0.4-0.7	0.06–0.18	15-27	-	Israel	(Richmond <i>et al.</i> , 1990)
<i>Tetraselmis suecica</i> ³	-	-	-	-	0.103	-	-	Hawaii	(Laws and Berning, 1991)
<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	Semicontinuous	-	2.5	-	-	11.5-20.8	-	Israel	(Vonshak and Guy, 1992)
<i>Scenedesmus</i> and <i>Coelastrum</i> ¹	-	-	45	-	-	20-40	-	Kuwait	(Al-Shayji <i>et al.</i> , 1994)
<i>Tetraselmis</i> sp	-	600	-	-	0.008-0.060	5-40	-	Japan	(Matsumoto <i>et al.</i> , 1995)

Table 2.2 Summary of raceway algal cultivation (Cont.)

Algal strain	Cultivation Mode	Culture volume (L)	Surface area (m ²)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Volumetric productivity (g L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Areal productivity (g m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Lipid content (% w/w)	Location	References
<i>Chlorella</i> and <i>Ankistrodesmus</i> sp ¹	Continuous	-	-	-	-	18	-	Australia	(Cromar <i>et al.</i> , 1996)
<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	-	282	3.8	0.75	0.18 ± 0.02	14.47 ± 0.16	-	Italy	(Pushparaj <i>et al.</i> , 1997)
<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	-	-	-	-	-	8.2	-	USA	(Belay, 1997)
<i>Platymonas</i> sp	-	-	48	-	-	26	20-40 ^a	Hawaii	(Sheehan <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
<i>Tetraselmis suecica</i>	2-day batch	-	-	-	-	37.5	-	Hawaii	(Sheehan <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
<i>Chlorophyta</i> sp	Semicontinuous	200	~0.1	0.3	0.050	8.2	-	Japan	(Hase <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
<i>Chlorella</i> sp	Semicontinuous	200	~0.1	0.5	0.081	13.2	-	Japan	(Hase <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
Unknown alga	Batch	500	75,000	0.3-0.5	0.05-0.1	-	-	Germany	(Pulz, 2001)
<i>Anabaena</i> sp	Semicontinuous	300	1.0	-	~0.031–0.078	9.4–23.5	-	Spain	(Moreno <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
<i>Spirulina</i> sp	Semicontinuous	135,000	450	-	0.006–0.07	2–15	-	Spain	(Jiménez <i>et al.</i> , 2003b)
<i>Dunaliella salina</i>	Semicontinuous	180-360	3	-	-	1.6–3.5	-	Spain	(García-González <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
<i>Spirulina</i> sp	Semicontinuous	-	6.03	-	-	9–13	-	Mexico	(Olguín <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
<i>Pleurochrysis carterae</i>	Semicontinuous	160-200	1	-	0.11–0.21	16–33.5	33	Australia	(Moheimani and Borowitzka, 2006)

Table 2.2 Summary of raceway algal cultivation (Cont.)

Algal strain	Cultivation Mode	Culture volume (L)	Surface area (m ²)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Volumetric productivity (g L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Areal productivity (g m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Lipid content (% w/w)	Location	References
<i>Dunaliella salina</i>	Semicontinuous	110	1	-	0.22–0.34	20–37	35	Australia	(Moheimani and Borowitzka, 2006)
<i>Haematococcus pluvialis</i>	Batch ⁶	50,000	417	0.202	0.126	15.1	25	Hawaii	(Huntley and Redalje, 2007)
<i>Muriellopsis</i> sp	Semicontinuous	100	1.0	0.2-0.77	-	8-20	23.5±2.5	Italy	(Blanco <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
<i>Cyclotella</i> (wild type)	Semicontinuous	-	2.8	0.76-1.76	0.58-1.23	12	-	USA	(Huesemann <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
<i>Cyclotella</i> sp. CM1-1 (mutant) ⁴	Semicontinuous	-	2.8	0.32-1.50	0.35-1.04	9	-	USA	(Huesemann <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
Mixed algal culture ^{1,5}	Continuous	8,000	31.8	0.27-0.31	-	9-24.7	-	NZ ^b	(Park and Craggs, 2010)
<i>Scenedesmus</i> sp	Continuous	23	-	-	0.16 ± 0.02	-	-	USA	(Ketheesan and Nirmalakhandan, 2011)
<i>Scenedesmus rubescens</i>	-	-	-	0.37 ± 0.03	0.023	4.6	-	USA	(Lin and Lin, 2011)
<i>Botryococcus braunii</i> Kutz.	Batch	1800	6	1.8 ± 0.13	0.114	-	19	India	(Ashokkumar and Rengasamy, 2012)
<i>Scenedesmus</i> sp	Continuous	23	-	1.39 ± 0.03	0.19 ± 0.003	-	20-22	USA	(Ketheesan and Nirmalakhandan, 2012)

Adapted from: (Moheimani and Borowitzka, 2006; Ketheesan and Nirmalakhandan, 2011; Park *et al.*, 2011; Borowitzka and Moheimani, 2012); all blank fields show a lack of data.

¹High rate algal ponds (HRAP); ²the dominant species were *Euglena*, *Chlamydomonas*, *Scenedesmus* and *Coelastrum*; ³Archimedes screws used for circulating water in raceway pond; ⁴small antenna size; ⁵the dominant species were *Scenedesmus* sp, *Micractinium* sp, *Pediastrum* sp and *Ankistrodesmus* sp; ⁷coupled system of continuous culture photobioreactors and batch culture operation. ^aIncreased lipid content during N and P limitation, ^bChristchurch, New Zealand.

Irrespective of the reasons for a low biomass production, raceways remain preferred for large scale algal cultivation because they are relatively cheap to build and operate (Sheehan *et al.*, 1998; Hase *et al.*, 2000; James and Boriah, 2010; Mata *et al.*, 2010). Raceways seem to be the only sustainable system for algal biofuel production (Borowitzka and Moheimani, 2013). So far only a few algae/cyanobacteria are grown commercially on a large scale in raceways. These include the fast growing alga *Chlorella* and extremophilic organisms such as *Spirulina* sp (*Arthrospira*), *Dunaliella salina* and *Haematococcus pluvialis* (Sheehan *et al.*, 1998; Pulz and Gross, 2004). Most of the strains being evaluated for biofuel production have not been optimized for production in raceways (Rodolfi *et al.*, 2009). A promising strain needs to be monitored for biomass production, lipid production (for example, neutral lipids), the harvesting time, and optimized at normal growth conditions as well as unfavorable conditions for lipid accumulation. Competitiveness of selected strain over the other potential algal contaminants needs to be tested (James and Boriah, 2010). Raceway ponds may be effectively utilized in conjunction with photobioreactors in a hybrid system (Rodolfi *et al.*, 2009). A two-stage algal cultivation has been demonstrated (Pushparaj *et al.*, 1997; Huntley and Redalje, 2007). (A two-stage culture involves growing the inoculum in a closed photobioreactor which is then used to inoculate the open raceway.) This may minimize the possibility of culture crash and contamination.

2.2 Contributions of this study

Considering a global shortage of freshwater, any production of algal biofuels must make use of only the algae capable of reliably growing in full-strength seawater. This research focused on raceway-based production of algal biomass and lipids using algae capable of growing in seawater. The impact of culture conditions on production of biomass and lipids was studied under nutrient replete and deficient conditions. The characteristics of

the biomass such as the total lipid content, the energy content and the proportion of different elements in it were quantified under specified growth conditions. The research was driven by the following key hypotheses:

1. Stable long-term culture of seawater microalgae in open ponds as generally used for freshwater algae was hypothesized to be feasible given a judicious selection of the algal species; and
2. As demonstrated for certain freshwater algae, suitable seawater grown algae were hypothesized to be able to produce heightened levels of lipids through deprivation of certain nutrients that were essential for biomass growth.

As discussed in the next chapter, the normally freshwater alga *Chlorella vulgaris* was identified as the focus of the study because it could grow robustly in full-strength seawater and had not been previously evaluated for lipid production in seawater media in raceways as revealed by the summary in Table 2.1. The specific objectives of the study were:

1. Identification of a suitable alga capable of growing easily and stably in full-strength seawater media in raceway pond type of culture systems;
2. Characterization of the selected alga in terms of growth and lipid production in batch and continuous culture under different light conditions to quantify production capabilities and stability in nutrient replete media;
3. Assessment of the selected alga in terms of its lipid production response to deprivation of nutrients necessary for growth;
4. A baseline characterization of the energy content of the algal biomass produced under various culture conditions; and
5. An assessment of the types of oils that may be produced by the chosen alga.

Chapter 3

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Introduction

As an overall plan, the study consisted of the following main steps:

1. A screening of several microalgae for ability to grow in seawater media and rapidly attain a high final biomass concentration (e.g. 2 g L^{-1}) in batch cultures while showing a relatively high (e.g. $\geq 20\%$ by dry weight) lipid content in the dry biomass. This reduced the focus on 2–3 algae for further screening.
2. Further screening of algae from the previous step to see that they were capable of surviving salinity levels exceeding that of the normal seawater as such elevated salinity values would occur in any large-scale open outdoor culture system through evaporative loss of water. This narrowed the choice of the algae to two species for further assessment.
3. Further screening of the algae from the previous step to assess their ability to substantially enhance the cellular lipid content in response to nitrogen starvation post growth. This reduced the choice to one algal species for further indepth assessment.
4. A detailed characterization nutrient sufficient growth of the selected alga in batch raceway cultures with different illumination regimes, to establish growth potential, the baseline lipid production and other growth kinetic parameters.
5. An evaluation of the effect of post growth nutrient starvation on lipid production in raceway batch culture and an identification of the minimum level of nitrogen supply to allow the alga to attain the maximum possible biomass concentration for the available light prior to entering a nitrogen starvation phase.

6. A characterization study of continuous raceway culture of the selected algae at different dilution rates to quantify biomass production capability and the culture stability.

Eight species of microalgae were preliminary screened for biomass and lipid productivity. Based on preliminary screening, one algal species was selected for a detailed evaluation. Experiments were carried out in Duran bottles and a purpose-built raceway operated under various conditions. Both batch and continuous culture operations were evaluated in the raceway. The progress of the cultures was followed in terms of the biomass produced, the nitrate and phosphate consumed, and the total oil produced in the biomass. The total energy content of the selected biomass samples were characterized in terms of the calorific values. The objective was to identify how the culture operation might be used to improve the total oil production in the selected algae. The relevant experimental methods are explained in the following sections.

3.2 Microalgal strains, sources, maintenance and cultivation

For preliminary assessments, eight species of microalgae were used (Table 3.1).

All these microalgae were maintained by aseptic sub-culturing on agar plates and slants at 25 ± 2 °C under continuous irradiance of 109 to 116 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (at the surface of agar plates/slants). Illumination was provided by daylight fluorescent lights (Philips TLD 18W/840, cool white, Thailand). Agar media (Section 3.2.1.1) had the same composition as the BG11 media (Section 3.2.1; Table 3.2), but contained the vitamins specified in Table 3.3 and agar (1% DifcoTM, Agar Noble, Becton, Dickinson and Company, USA). Algal colonies started developing within 1-2 weeks after inoculation.

Afterwards the agar plate cultures were stored at 4 °C under an irradiance of 3 to 8 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. The agar plates were refreshed every two months.

Table 3.1 Microalgal strains

Alga	Normal habitat	Class
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Originally freshwater	Chlorophyceae
<i>Nannochloropsis salina</i> (CCAP 849/3)	Marine	Eustigmatophyceae
<i>Tetraselmis subcordiformis</i> (CCAP 161/1A) synonym <i>Platymonas subcordiformis</i>	Marine	Chlorophyceae
<i>Cylindrotheca fusiformis</i> (CCAP 1017/2)	Marine	Bacillariophyceae (diatom)
<i>Cylindrotheca closterium</i> (CCAP 1017/9) synonym <i>Nitzschia closterium</i>	Marine	Bacillariophyceae (diatom)
<i>Ditylum brightwellii</i> (CCAP 1022/1) synonym <i>Triceratium west</i>	Marine	Bacillariophyceae (diatom)
<i>Hymenomonas elongata</i> (CCAP 961/3)	Marine	Prymnesiophyceae
<i>Chroomonas salina fo. oculus-bovis</i> (CCAP 978/21A)	Marine	Cryptophyceae

C. vulgaris was purchased from Landcare Research, Lincoln, New Zealand. All the other algae were purchased from the *Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa* (CCAP), Argyll, United Kingdom.

3.2.1 Growth media

For maintenance and growth of all microalgal species, BG11 (Stanier *et al.*, 1971) medium made with artificial seawater was used (Section 3.2.1.1). The components of artificial seawater are given in Section 3.2.1.4.

The BG11 is normally made in freshwater. It was originally developed for freshwater cyanobacteria, but has been widely used to grow other freshwater algae. This medium formulated in artificial seawater was used for the marine algae in this work. For growing the marine diatoms, the medium was additionally supplemented as described in Section 3.2.1.3.

3.2.1.1 Preparation of BG 11 medium

Stock solutions 1–4 were made (Table 3.2) separately, sterilized (121 °C, 15 min), cooled, and stored at 4 °C until further use. The storage period did not exceed two months. For preparation of BG11 working medium, the Stock solution 1 (10 mL), Stock solution 2 (10 mL), Stock solution 3 (10 mL), and Stock solution 4 (1 mL) were mixed; 1.5 g of sodium nitrate (LabServ Biolab Australia Ltd.) and 0.02 g of sodium carbonate (LabServ Biolab Australia Ltd.) were added and the volume was made up to 1 L with artificial seawater (Section 3.2.1.4). The final concentration of NaNO_3 and Na_2CO_3 in the culture medium was 1.76×10^{-2} M and 1.89×10^{-4} M, respectively.

Table 3.2 Components of BG11 medium

Component	Source	Quantity in stock	Concentration in
		solution (g·L ⁻¹ deionized H ₂ O)	medium (M)
Stock 1			
CaCl ₂ ·2H ₂ O	LabServ Biolab Australia Ltd.	3.6	2.44 × 10 ⁻⁴
Citric acid monohydrate (C ₆ H ₈ O ₇ ·H ₂ O)	BDH VWR International Ltd, Poole, England	0.6	3.12 × 10 ⁻⁵
Ferric III ammonium citrate (C ₆ H ₁₁ FeNO ₇ ·H ₂ O)	BDH Chemicals Limited, Poole, England	0.6	2.12 × 10 ⁻⁵
Na ₂ EDTA	BDH AnalaR VWR International Ltd, Poole, England	0.084	2.25 × 10 ⁻⁶
Stock 2			
MgSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	LabServ Biolab Australia Ltd.	7.5	3.04 × 10 ⁻⁴
Stock 3			
K ₂ HPO ₄	LabServ Biolab Australia Ltd.	3.05	1.75 × 10 ⁻⁴
Stock 4			
H ₃ BO ₃	LabServ Biolab Australia Ltd.	2.86	4.62 × 10 ⁻⁵
MnCl ₂ ·4H ₂ O	AnalaR NORMAPUR, VWR International, France	1.81	9.14 × 10 ⁻⁶
ZnSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	BDH VWR International Ltd, Poole, England	0.222	7.71 × 10 ⁻⁷

Table 3.2 Components of BG11 medium (Cont.)

Component	Source	Quantity in stock solution (g·L⁻¹ deionized H₂O)	Concentration in medium (M)
CuSO ₄ ·5H ₂ O	BDH Laboratory Supplies, Poole, England	0.079	3.16 × 10 ⁻⁷
CoCl ₂ ·6H ₂ O	BDH Chemicals Ltd, Poole, England	0.050	2.10 × 10 ⁻⁷
Na ₂ MoO ₄ ·2H ₂ O	BDH Chemicals Ltd, Poole, England	0.390	1.61 × 10 ⁻⁶

The pH of the final medium was adjusted to 7.5 with 1 M HCl.

For preparing the solid medium 10 g of agar (DifcoTM, Agar Noble, Becton, Dickinson and Company, USA) per liter of BG11 seawater medium was heated to boiling to dissolve the agar. This medium was autoclaved (121 °C, 15 min) cooled to 40-50 °C and supplemented with filter-sterilized vitamins solution (Table 3.3). This medium was then aseptically poured (15 mL) into a petri-dish and allowed to solidify. The fresh plates were kept at 4 °C and used within a few days of preparation.

3.2.1.2 Vitamins solution

Vitamins (Table 3.3) were added to BG11 media used for maintaining cultures on agar plates and slants. Vitamins were added also to all shake flask stages of inoculum preparation. The vitamin solution was filter-sterilized by using a 0.20 µm membrane filter (28 mm diameter Minisart[®] NML, syringe driven filter unit; Sartorius Stedim

Biotech GmbH, Goettingen, Germany). The final concentration of the vitamins and the type of vitamins added were as used normally in the f/2 medium (Guillard and Ryther, 1962; Guillard, 1975).

Table 3.3 Vitamins added to media

Vitamin	Source	Final concentration (M)
Thiamine – HCl (Vitamin B ₁)	Sigma-Aldrich, USA	2.97×10^{-7}
Biotin (Vitamin H)	Sigma-Aldrich, USA	2.25×10^{-9}
Cyanocobalamin (Vitamin B ₁₂)	Sigma-Aldrich, USA	3.70×10^{-10}

3.2.1.3 Silicate solution (for diatom culture only)

Silicate stock was prepared as for the f/2 medium (Guillard and Ryther, 1962; Guillard, 1975). Thus, 30 g of Na₂SiO₃·9H₂O (Fisher Scientific, UK) was dissolved in 1 L of deionized water. One milliliter of this solution was added to 1 L of the BG11 seawater medium. The final concentration of Na₂SiO₃·9H₂O in the culture medium was 1.05×10^{-4} M.

3.2.1.4 Artificial seawater

Seawater was prepared by dissolving 40 g of seasalt (Pacific natural seasalt; Dominion Salt, Marlborough, South Island, New Zealand) in 1 L of deionized water, unless specified otherwise. The salinity of resulting seawater was 37.0 to 38.9 ppt (EcoSense[®] EC300 conductivity/salinity meter; YSI Inc., Yellow Springs, OH, USA; calibrated with

a 1.0 molal aqueous solution of KCl (conductivity at 25 °C = 108,621 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$; (Pratt *et al.*, 2001; Shreiner and Pratt, 2004)).

Seawater for the raceway pond (138 L) was prepared by dissolving the required amount of the above specified sea salt in 30–40 L of tap water. This solution was passed through two cartridge filters in series. The filters were nominally rated at 50 μm and 10 μm (Filterpure, 10 micron, E10PP10-FG and 50 micron E50PP10-FG, 10” standard, polyester pleated filter; USA). The solution was then filter sterilized (0.45 μm membrane filter; Millipak-100, catalog number MPHL10CA3; Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA) to remove any marine microorganisms that might be present in the natural sea salt mix. Non-sterile prefiltered (1 μm nominal; E1PS10-FG, 10” standard, polypropylene spun melt filter; USA) tap water was then added to make up the volume to the required concentration.

3.2.2 Duran bottle batch culture

Duran bottles (borosilicate glass 3.3, LabServ, Biolab, Auckland, New Zealand) were used in preparation of inocula and in most small scale experiments (Figure 3.1). Prior to use the culture bottles, tubings and fittings that directly contacted the culture were sterilized by autoclaving (121 °C, 15 min).

Typically, 2 L Duran bottles which contained sterilized (121 °C, 15 min) BG11 seawater medium were used. The working volume was ~1.8 L. The broth in the bottles was sparged (2–5 L/min at NTP) with filtered humidified air mixed with 5% (v/v) carbon dioxide. The exhaust gases were also filter sterilized (0.2 μm Teflon membrane filter; Midisart[®] 2000; Sartorius AG, Goettingen, Germany). The other culture conditions were: an ambient temperature of 25 ± 2 °C and a continuous irradiance at the surface of bottles of between 105 and 220 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (for irradiance used in specific

experiments see Chapter 4) provided by daylight fluorescent tubes (Philips TLD 18W/840, cool white, Thailand).

The inocula for the bottles were grown aseptically in shake flasks for 7–14 days, depending upon the species cultured. These shake flasks were seeded from agar plates and slants. Volume of the inoculum was between 10 and 28% (v/v) of the total inoculated culture volume. The bottles were generally sampled daily from the time of inoculation for monitoring of growth and nutrient consumption.



Figure 3.1 Sparged Duran bottle cultures.

3.2.2.1 Harvesting of biomass from Duran bottles

The culture broth from the Duran bottles was harvested usually after the stationary phase had been reached. Harvesting was achieved by centrifugation (Hitachi high-speed refrigerated centrifuge CR22GII; Hitachi Koki Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) at $8,370 \times g$, 4 °C, for 10 min. The supernatant was discarded and the recovered biomass was re-suspended in 1 L of distilled water and centrifuged to wash away the salts. Washing of

the biomass was repeated four times. The final biomass collected by centrifugation was stored at -80°C (Thermoscientific Forma 900 series freezer, Model 995; Ohio, USA) overnight before being freeze dried. In the case of the marine microalgae (i.e. *N. salina*, *C. fusiformis*, *T. subcordiformis*) ammonium formate (0.5 M; Sigma-Aldrich Co., USA) was used for washing (Zhu and Lee, 1997) instead of distilled water.

3.2.3 Raceway pond culture system

A raceway pond (~138 L working volume, 0.23 m depth, 0.61 m² surface area) was built specifically for this project (Figures 3.2–3.5) by Massey University technicians. The approximate dimensions of the raceway and the paddlewheel for circulating the broth are shown in Figure 3.2. The stainless steel raceway was equipped with a central baffle, two stainless steel frits (200 μm ; GKN Filters GmbH, Radevormwald, Germany) for sparging with carbon dioxide, a water cooled heat exchanger for temperature control, a drain, and an overflow harvest tubing (Figure 3.3). The paddlewheel was partly covered with a protective Plexiglas[®] shroud (Figure 3.4). The speed of rotation of the paddlewheel could be controlled (Section 3.2.3.1). The raceway was equipped with sensors for pH (Cole-Parmer EW-27301-21 in-line double junction pH electrode with probe guard and a temperature sensor (100 ohm platinum RTD) for automatic temperature compensation) and temperature (Omega Engineering Inc., Stamford, CT, USA; platinum RTD Sensor PR-19-2-100-1/4-9-E).

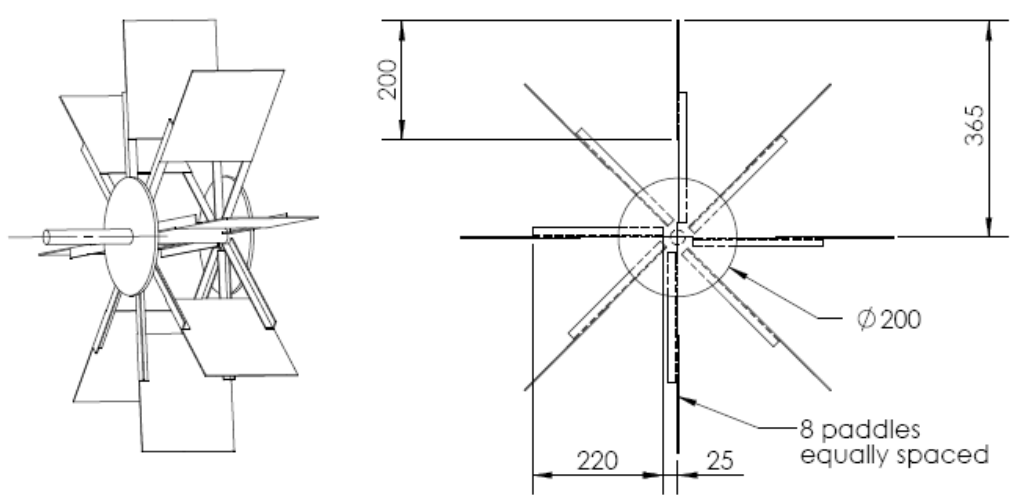
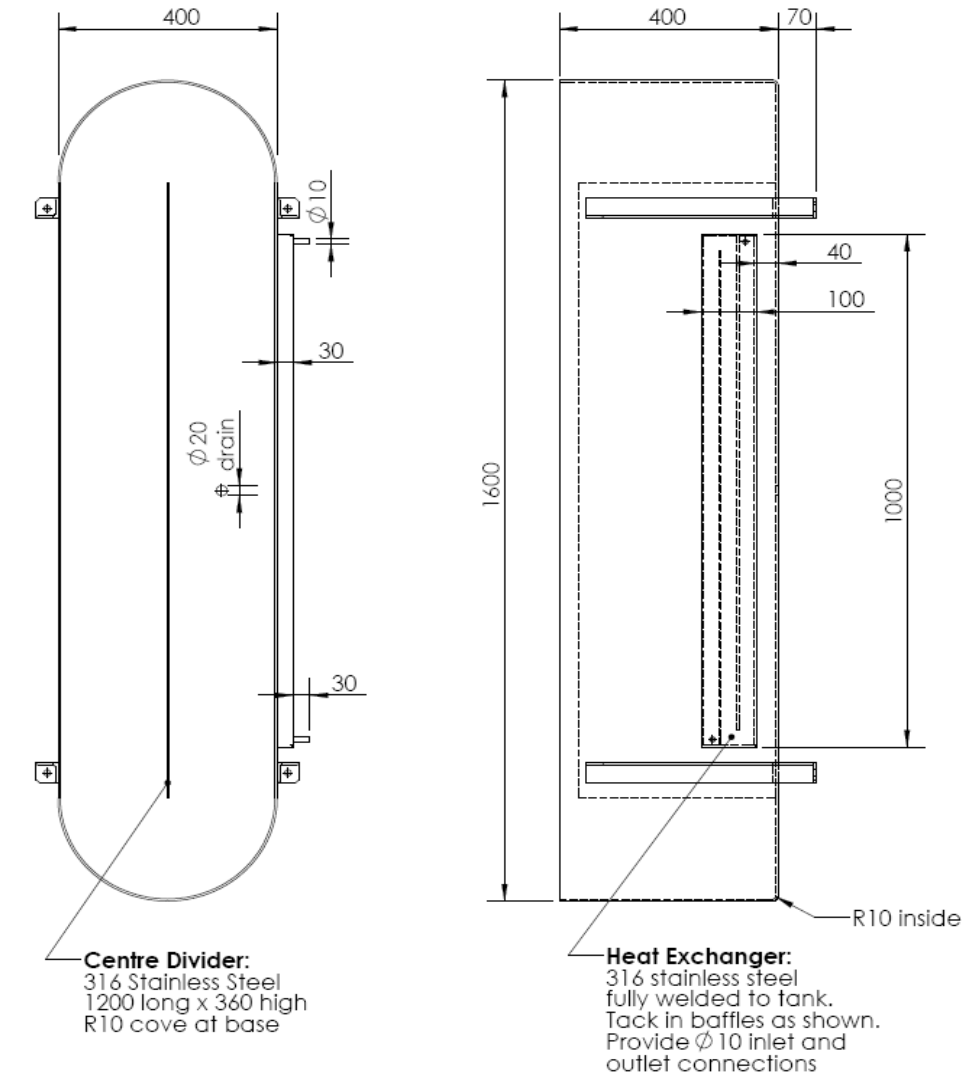


Figure 3.2 Raceway and paddlewheel. Dimensions in mm.

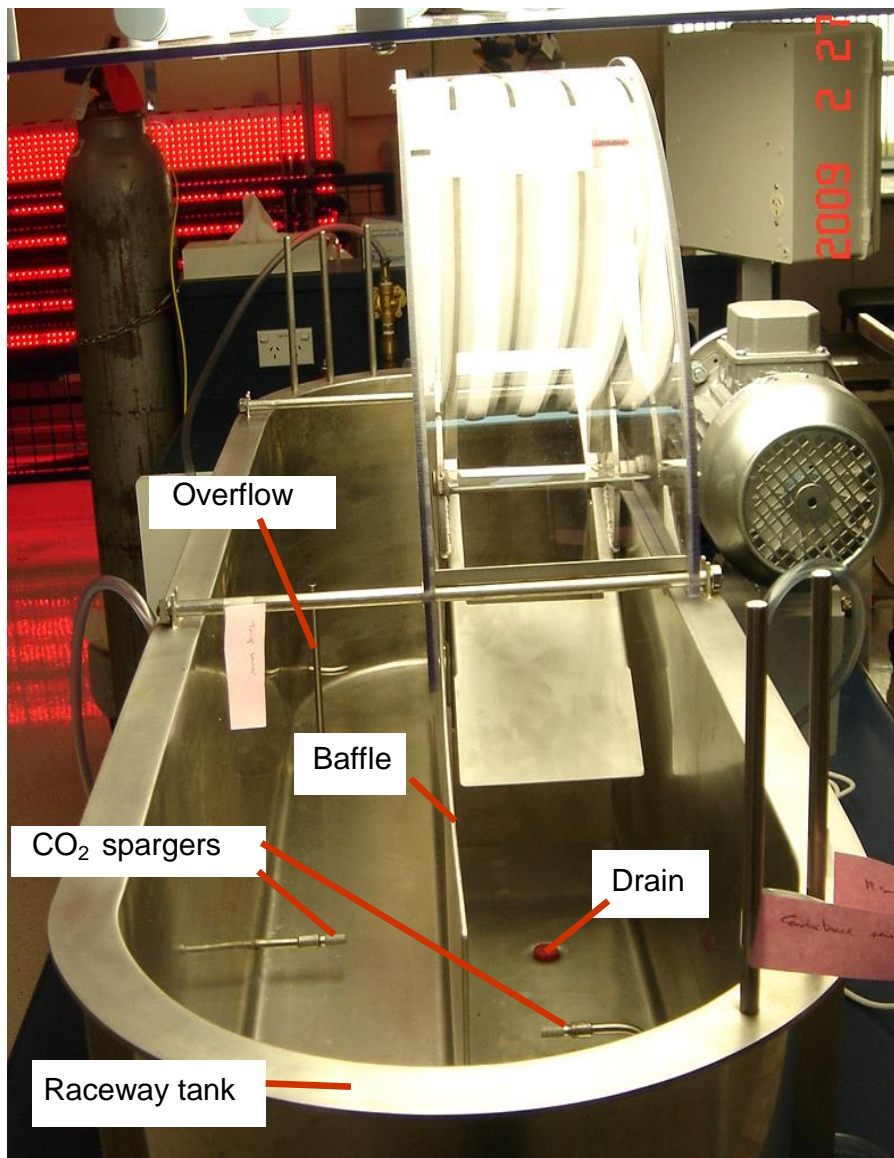


Figure 3.3 Raceway pond (empty).

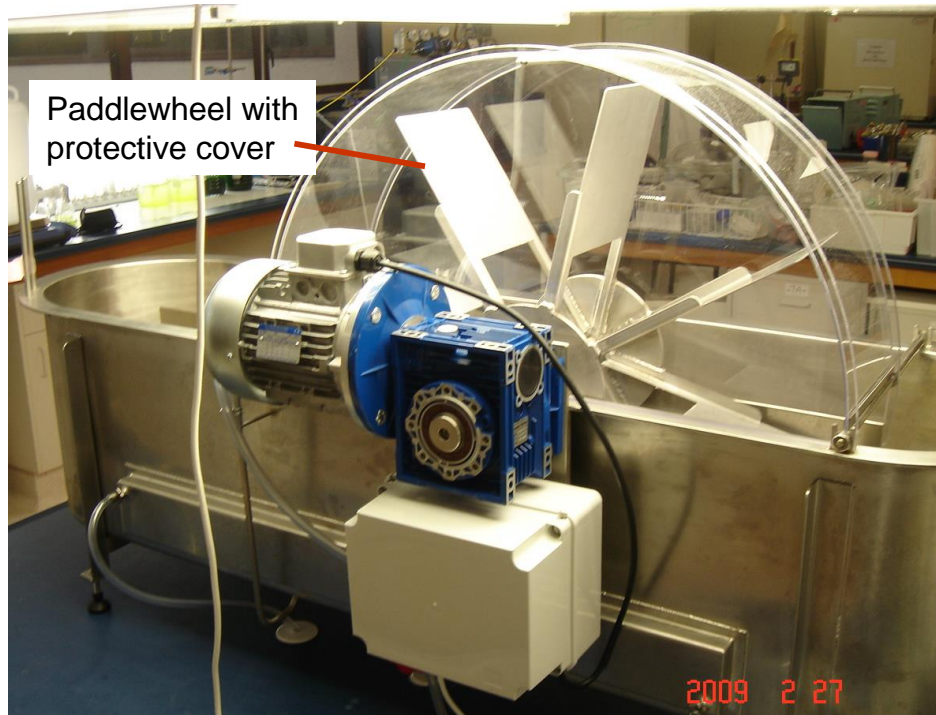


Figure 3.4 Raceway paddlewheel with transparent protective cover.

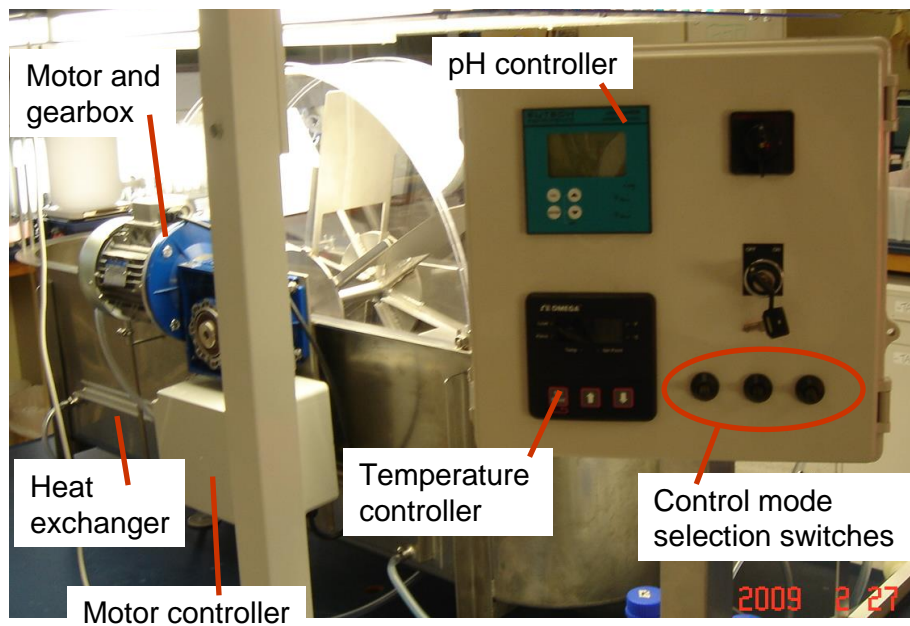


Figure 3.5 The raceway main control panel, the heat exchanger and the paddlewheel motor.

The temperature could be controlled automatically (Omega Engineering Inc., Stamford, CT, USA; 1/4 DIN Compact Temperature Controller model CN2110-R20) by on/off switching (solenoid valve) of the cooling water supply. The water flowed through the heat exchanger (Figure 3.4, Figure 3.5) at a preset value. The temperature measured by the aforementioned sensor provided the control data. The system provided only a cooling capability to remove the heat absorbed as a consequence of illumination. The raceway was located in an air-conditioned room.

The pH was controlled (Figure 3.5) by bubbling carbon dioxide in response to the output of the above mentioned pH sensor. Carbon dioxide was sparged at a preset flow rate (15 L/min) if the pH rose above a specified level. Sparging was discontinued once the set point pH was re-established. This ensured that carbon dioxide did not becoming a limiting factor to photosynthesis. An on/off controller was used (Eutech Instruments 1/4-DIN pH 800 on/off controller KH-56705-05; Cole-Parmer Corp., Vernon Hills, IL, USA) to manage the carbon dioxide flow. Prior to injection into the raceway the carbon dioxide was passed through a sterilizing filter (0.2 μm Acropak 800 PTFE membrane; Pall Corporation, Portsmouth, U.K.). The pH sensor was calibrated every few months in the usual way using standard buffers of pH 7.0 and 4.0.

Initially, raceway was illuminated by an array of daylight fluorescent lights (Sylvania, Premium*extra*, 58 W lamps, China) in which incident light level was controlled at two preset values with maximum output level of $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Later on, illumination was switched to a custom built array (Agricultural Biological Engineering Ltd, Pukekohe, New Zealand) of 660 nm LEDs with a maximum power output of around $280 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ at a distance of 0.3 m from the face of the array (Figure 3.6). The output of the LED array could be adjusted manually or automatically by an internal clock. The light output profiles at different peak settings of the LED array for a diurnal cycle are shown in Figure 3.7. The irradiance received at the surface of the raceway for

a given output of the LED array is shown in Figure 3.8. The irradiance at different depths of freshwater in the raceway at various output light levels on the surface is shown in Figure 3.9 for illumination with LED lights and fluorescent lights. The irradiance profile in a culture broth of *C. vulgaris* (0.5 g L^{-1} biomass concentration) illuminated using fluorescent light is shown in Figure 3.10. Ingress of light from other than the illumination source was prevented by hanging opaque plastic sheets around the raceway as in Figure 3.6.



Figure 3.6 Raceway with LEDs in day mode of operation.

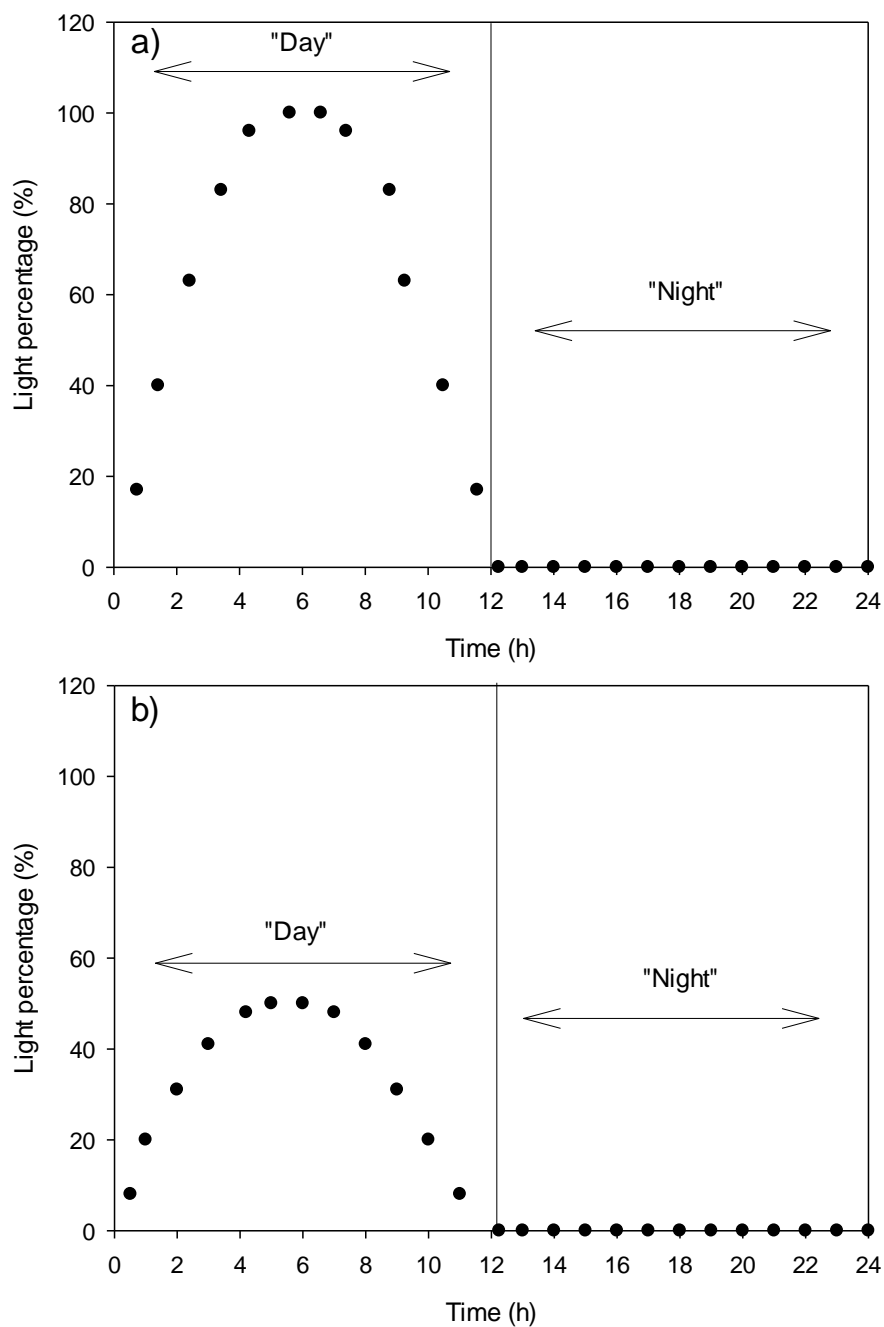


Figure 3.7 Diurnal light output profile of raceway LED array: a) at peak value of 100% light level, the day-night averaged irradiance was $280 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; b) at the peak output set to 50% of full light level, the day-night averaged irradiance was $165 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$.

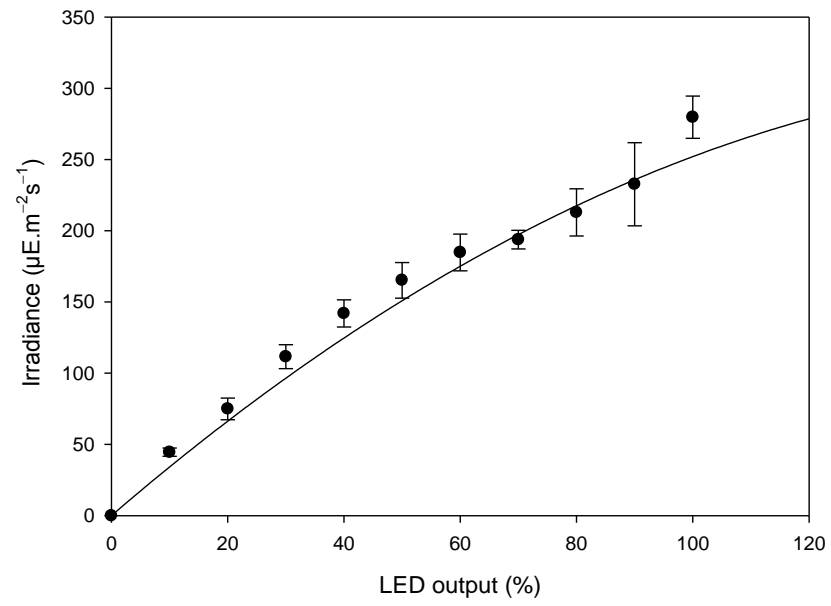


Figure 3.8 Irradiance on the surface of culture broth in the raceway at various output settings of the LED array. Standard deviation values are based on four replicates.

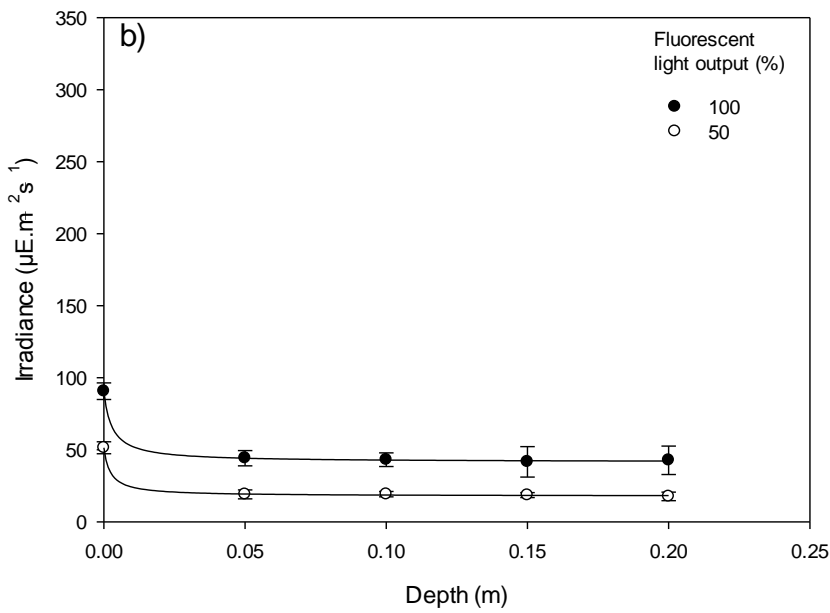
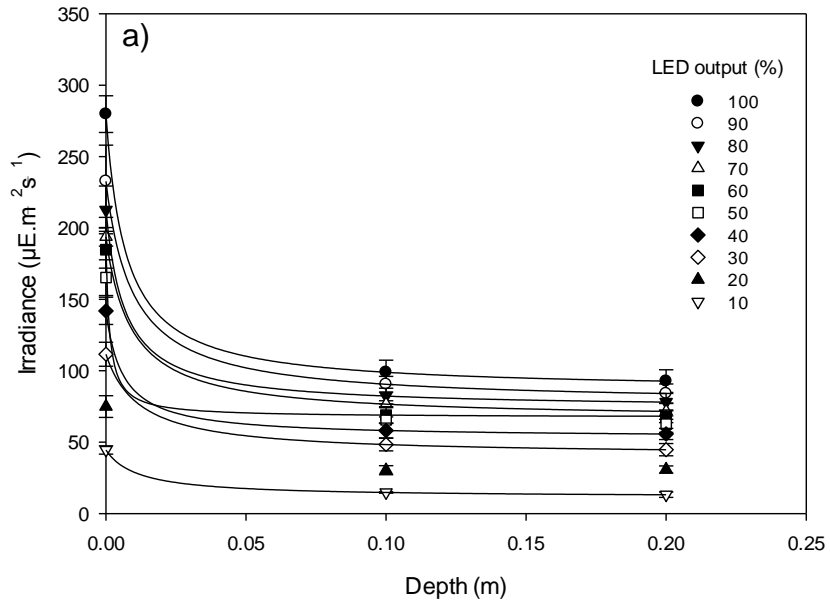


Figure 3.9 Variation of irradiance at different depths of freshwater in the raceway: a) at different LED light output levels; b) at different fluorescent light levels. The total depth was 0.23 m. Standard deviation values are based on four replicates.

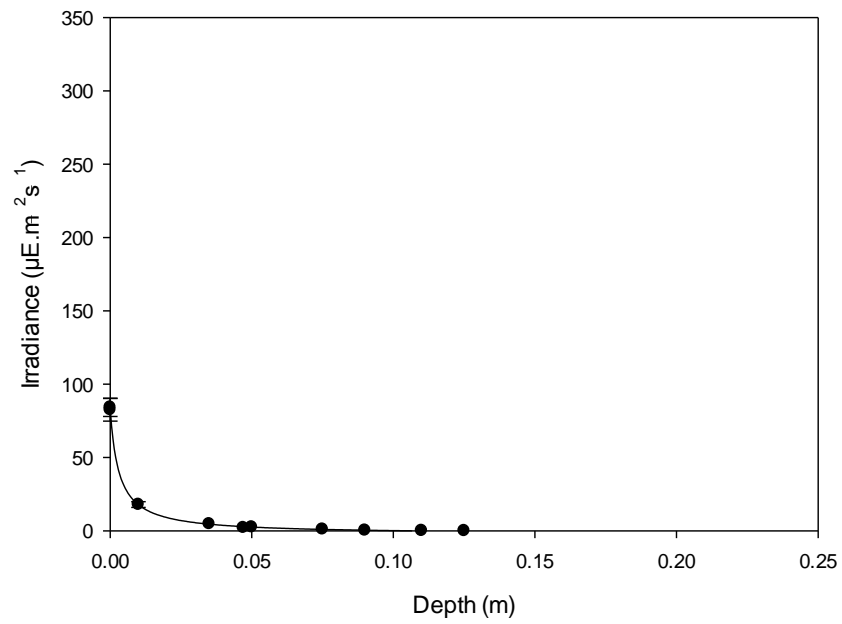


Figure 3.10 Irradiance profile of fluorescent light at different depths in the raceway culture broth of *C. vulgaris* with 0.5 g L^{-1} of biomass concentration. The total culture depth was 0.23 m. The fluorescent light output level was 100%. Standard deviation values are based on duplicates except the value at surface. The latter is based on nine replicates.

3.2.3.1 Calibration of the impeller speed

Agitation was provided by an eight-bladed paddle impeller installed in the raceway pond (Figures 3.2 and 3.4). The rotational speed of the impeller was regulated by a potentiometer, which was normally set at position 5. A calibration curve between the potentiometer setting and the actual measured impeller speed (rpm) is shown in Figure 3.11. The impeller speed was measured as the number of rotations per minute using an optical laser speed counter.

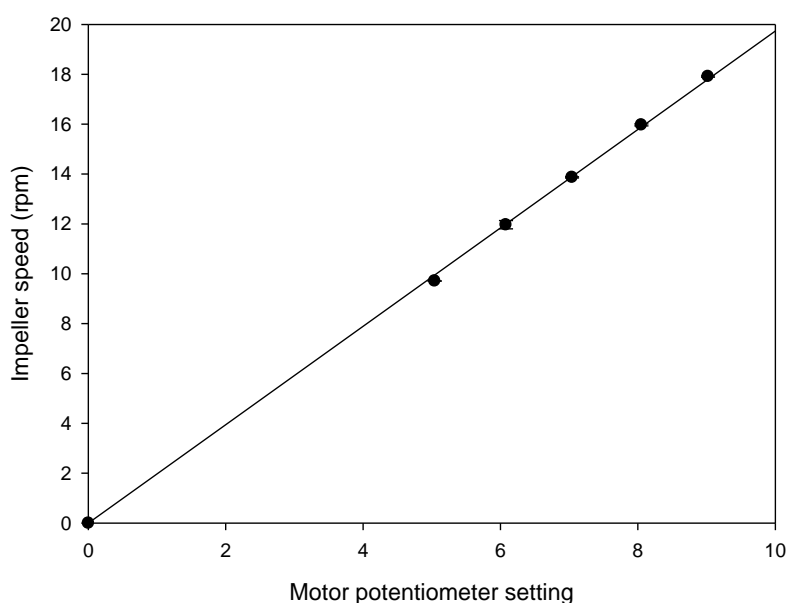


Figure 3.11 Impeller speed versus motor potentiometer settings. Standard deviation values are based on six replicates.

3.2.3.2 Relationship between the impeller speed and liquid flow velocity

Culture broth was circulated in the raceway by the impeller. The full circulation loop length was 2.6 m. At any setting of the impeller speed, the liquid flow velocity was measured by the time taken by a neutrally buoyant flow follower (a bright colored particle of ~1 cm diameter) to complete a circuit. Numerous measurements were made at any setting of the impeller speed and the values were averaged. The relationship

between the flow velocity and the impeller speed is shown in Figure 3.12. Tap water was used in the raceway for these measurements made at room temperature.

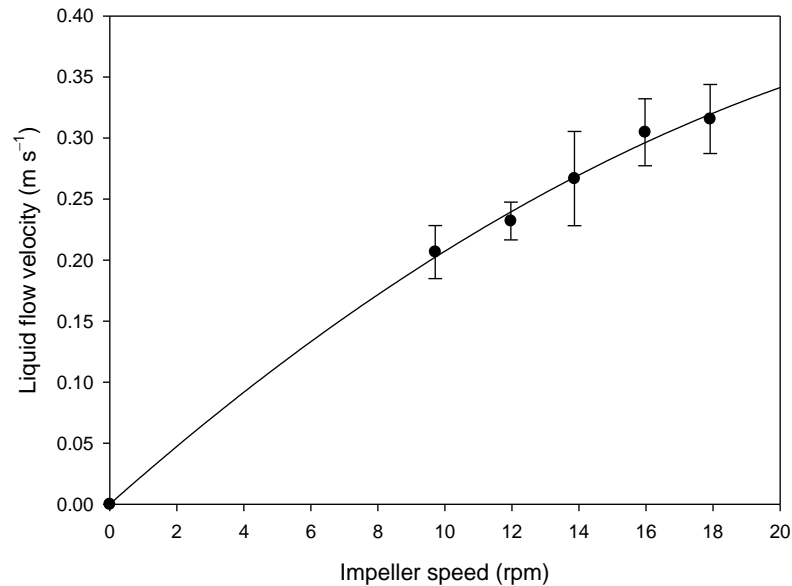


Figure 3.12 Relationship between impeller rpm and the liquid flow velocity. Standard deviation values are based on fifteen replicates.

3.2.3.3 Raceway batch culture

Prior to use, the raceway was thoroughly washed with tap water. The raceway was then filled to above the normal operating level with tap water containing ~5 L of bleach (2-4% v/v sodium hypochlorite; Jeyes Scrubbs Bleach, JohnsonDiversey, New Zealand) and left standing (~1 h) with the paddlewheel running (set at position 5 of the potentiometer unless specified otherwise). All internal surfaces were then scrubbed with a brush. The raceway was then drained and hosed repeatedly with tap water to remove all traces of bleach.

The raceway pond that had been filled with the medium was inoculated using cultures grown in Duran bottles (Section 3.2.2) to a density of around 2–3 g/L. The initial working volume was 138 L. The inoculum was generally 5% (v/v) of the initial

working volume of the raceway. The culture used the BG11 medium made with seawater, unless specified otherwise. The temperature and the pH set points were at 25 °C and 6.8, respectively. The mixing velocity of the culture broth was $0.21 \pm 0.02 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ at a paddlewheel rotational speed setting of 5 on the potentiometer (paddlewheel speed of 9.71 rpm). The irradiance at the surface of the raceway culture was either constant (continuous illumination) at various specified values, or varied with time in accordance with a diurnal cycle (12:12 h day/night mode; with the light level peaking at “midday” during the daylight hours). The conductivity of the medium was monitored using a conductivity meter as explained in Section 3.2.1.4. Conductivity was maintained within the range of 52 to 54 mS/cm (equivalent to a salinity of 37 to 38 ppt). The culture was sampled daily for measuring the biomass concentration (Section 3.3.1) and the nutrients (Sections 3.3.3 and 3.3.4). The temperature, pH and salinity were measured daily. Evaporative losses were compensated by adding distilled water daily to the required level before taking the sample.

3.2.3.4 Raceway continuous culture

Prior to use the raceway was thoroughly washed and sanitized as explained in Section 3.2.3.3.

In continuous culture operations, *C.vulgaris* was grown at various dilution rates and irradiance levels. The continuous mode of operation was initiated by switching a raceway from a batch culture that had been running for 30 days. For continuous culture, fresh medium was pumped (peristaltic pump; Masterflex model no. 7554-60; Cole Parmer Instrument Co., Chicago, IL, USA) into the raceway at an specified flow rate to achieve the desired dilution rate, D . The dilution rate was calculated from the feed flow rate F and the constant broth volume V in the raceway; thus,

$$D = \frac{\text{Feed flow rate}}{\text{Total culture volume in raceway}} = \frac{F}{V} \quad (3.1)$$

The broth volume in the raceway was kept constant at ~138 L by means of an overflow mechanism. The overflow broth was collected into a reservoir held at 4 °C. The harvest reservoir was continuously mixed by a magnetic stirrer (IKA[®] C-MAG MS IKAMAG[™], IKA[®] Werke GmbH & Co. KG, Germany) set at stirring position 4. The broth harvested over specified periods was centrifuged (Section 3.2.3.5) to recover the biomass. Periodic samples for analyses (biomass concentration, nitrate concentration, phosphate concentration) were taken directly from the raceway. The culture temperature and pH were controlled automatically as explained in Section 3.2.3. The salinity was measured daily.

3.2.3.5 Harvesting of biomass from the raceway broth

The algal biomass from the raceway culture broth was recovered by continuous flow centrifugation (CR22GII refrigerated centrifuge, Hitachi Koki Co., Ltd, Tokyo, Japan) at 11,800 × g, 4 °C. The culture broth (~117 L) was siphoned out into large buckets (50 L each), placed on a trolley and transported to the centrifuge. A peristaltic pump (Masterflex model no. 7554-60; Cole Parmer Instrument Co., Chicago, IL, USA) was used to pump the broth into the centrifuge at a flow rate of 1 L/min (Figure 3.11). The supernatant was continuously collected from the centrifuge outlet hose into a waste bucket. The waste was treated with bleach and discarded.

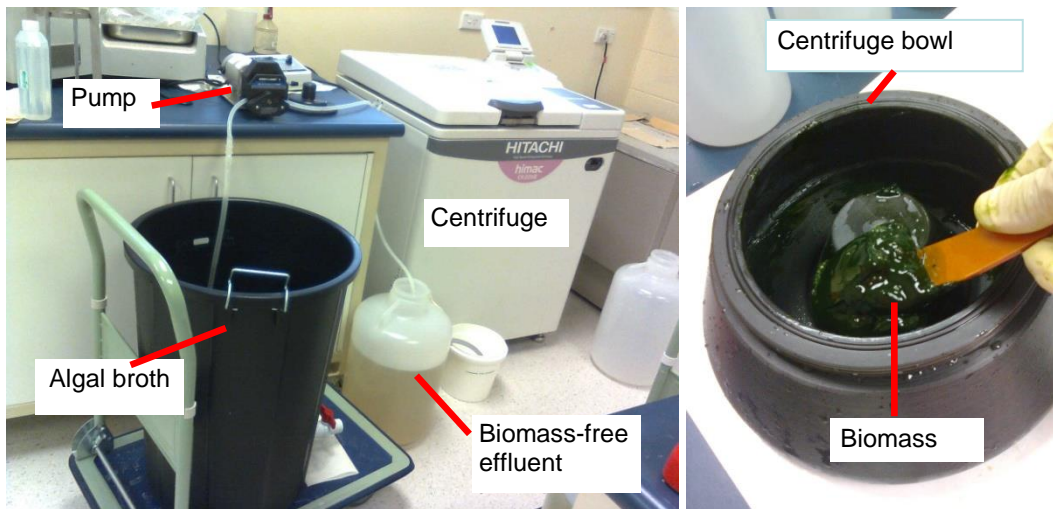


Figure 3.13 Continuous flow centrifugation – Algal broth from the black tank is pumped to the centrifuge where the biomass is retained in the bowl shown on the right. The biomass-free effluent leaves the centrifuge and is collected in the waste bottle.

The biomass collected as a paste was re-suspended in 1 L of distilled water for washing. This suspension was centrifuged in a batch centrifuge at $8,370 \times g$, 4°C , for 10 min. The washing step was repeated four times, each time with 1 L of distilled water. The recovered biomass paste was stored at -80°C for freeze drying later on.

3.2.4 Freeze drying of microalgal biomass

The recovered biomass from Duran bottles and raceway pond (Sections 3.2.2.1 and 3.2.3.5) was freeze dried in a laboratory freeze dryer unit (CRYODOS -80 ; Telstar Industrial, S. L., Barcelona, Spain). For this, the biomass paste was spread as a thin layer (<20 mm thick) in a sample bottle and frozen overnight at -80°C (Thermoscientific Forma 900 series freezer, Model 995; Ohio, USA). Frozen biomass samples were immediately transferred to the vacuum desiccator connected to the condenser cylinder valve of the freeze dryer. The valve was opened slowly to begin the process of freeze drying. (The freeze dryer had been turned on at least 1 h prior to

attaching the sample and displayed a stable vacuum pressure of <1 mbar and a temperature of $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). Depending on the sample size, the drying process typically completed within 24 h to 7 days.

3.3 Analytical methods

3.3.1 Biomass concentration

Dry cell weight in the culture broth was measured by vacuum filtration of a 20 mL sample of the broth through a preweighed Whatman GF-C ($0.45\text{ }\mu\text{m}$) 90 mm microfiber filter. The biomass was washed twice, each time with 20 mL of deionized water (for *C. vulgaris*) or 20 mL of 0.5 M ammonium formate for the other algae. The filter membrane was dried in an oven (Contherm Digital Series Five Oven, Lower Hutt, New Zealand) at $105\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ overnight. Filter membrane was then cooled to room temperature in a desiccator and weighed to calculate the dry biomass in 20 mL of the culture broth.

An identical sample of the broth as used for the dry weight measurements was serially diluted with the fresh culture medium and measured in a spectrophotometer (Ultrospec 2000, Pharmacia Biotech, Model 80-2106-00) at 680 nm to obtain several data points in the absorbance range of 0 to 0.7. The blank was the fresh BG11 freshwater/seawater medium. The samples were diluted serially with fresh BG11 medium with a known dilution factor. The absorbance was plotted against dry weight to obtain a calibration curve. Subsequently, for determining the biomass concentration in an unknown sample, the sample was diluted with the fresh medium to bring the absorbance in the range of 0-0.7. The measured absorbance (A_{680}) and the dilution factor (DF) were used to calculate the biomass dry weight concentration (DCW , g L^{-1}) using equations (Equations 3.2-3.10) of the calibration curves.

Separate calibration curves were made for the different algae and also for the cases when an alga was grown under different physiological conditions. In cases of *C.*

vulgaris and *N. salina*, calibration curves also were prepared at different stages of the growth in media with different concentration of nitrate and different illumination regimes (continuous light; 12 h: 12 h light-dark cycle). The calibration curves obtained under different initial concentration of nitrate in BG11 media were essentially identical. However, the calibration curves obtained under continuous light and the 12 h: 12 h light-dark cycle conditions had different slopes for a given alga. For *C. vulgaris* raceway culture, separate calibration curves were prepared under continuous light as well as for 12 h:12 h diurnal light-dark cycle. For the experiments run under specific conditions, the relevant calibration curves were used for estimating the biomass concentration from spectrophotometric data. The calibration curves are shown in Figures 3.14-3.22. Samples (2 mL) for spectrophotometric measurements of the biomass were taken in duplicate or triplicate.

$$DCW = \frac{A_{680}}{4.7327} \times (DF) \text{ for } C. vulgaris \text{ (a)} \quad (3.2)$$

$$DCW = \frac{A_{680}}{1.3758} \times (DF) \text{ for } C. vulgaris \text{ (b)} \quad (3.3)$$

$$DCW = \frac{A_{680}}{1.6231} \times (DF) \text{ for } C. vulgaris \text{ (c)} \quad (3.4)$$

$$DCW = \frac{A_{680}}{2.2310} \times (DF) \text{ for } C. vulgaris \text{ (d)} \quad (3.5)$$

$$DCW = \frac{A_{680}}{2.6253} \times (DF) \text{ for } C. vulgaris \text{ (e)} \quad (3.6)$$

$$DCW = \frac{A_{680}}{5.4389} \times (DF) \text{ for } N. salina \text{ (a)} \quad (3.7)$$

$$DCW = \frac{A_{680}}{5.9515} \times (DF) \text{ for } N. salina \text{ (b)} \quad (3.8)$$

$$DCW = \frac{A_{680}}{1.9416} \times (DF) \text{ for } C. fusiformis \quad (3.9)$$

$$\text{DCW} = \frac{A_{680}}{1.8203} \times (\text{DF}) \text{ for } T. \textit{subcordiformis} \quad (3.10)$$

The other algae mentioned in Table 3.1 (i.e. *Cylindrotheca closterium*, *Ditylum brightwellii*, *Hymenomonas elongate* and *Chroomonas salina fo. oculus-bovus*) could not be grown despite repeated efforts and therefore were not further examined.

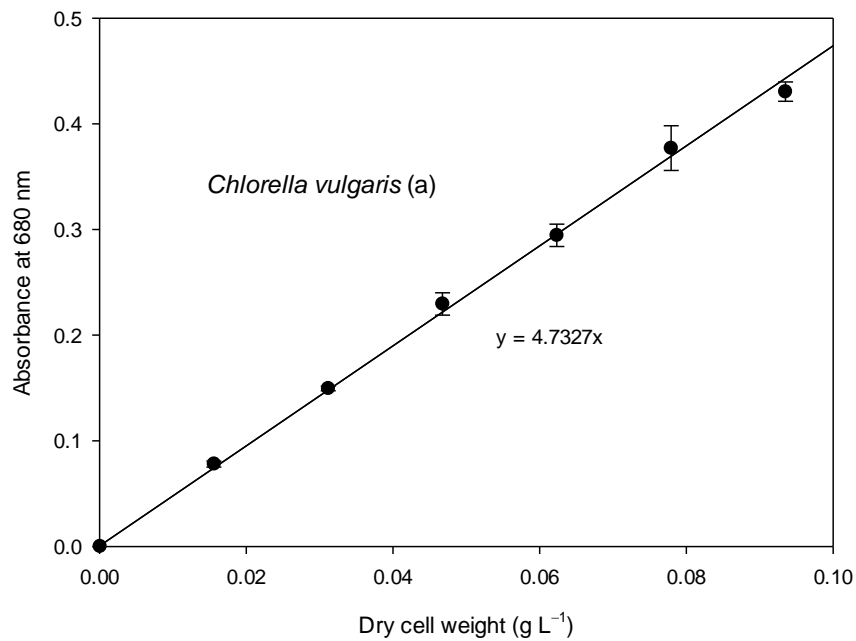


Figure 3.14 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for freshwater *C. vulgaris* obtained under continuous light in Duran bottle using the standard BG11 medium. Standard deviation values are based on duplicate samples.

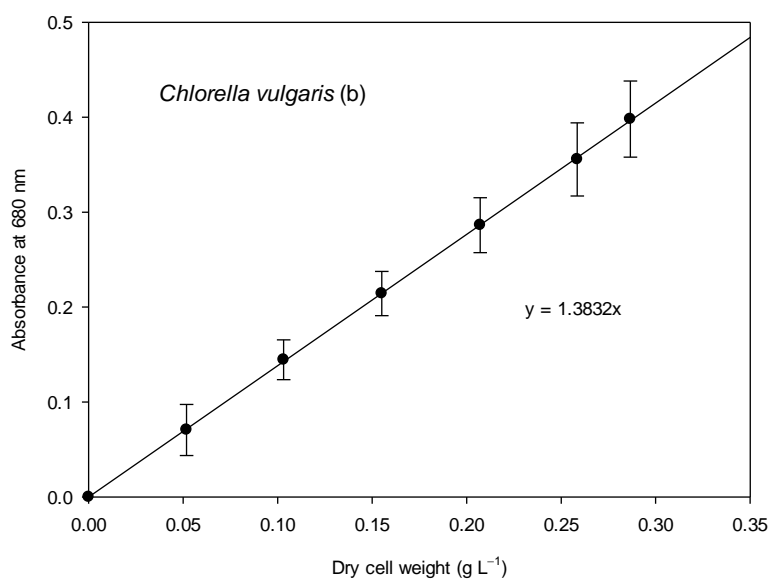


Figure 3.15 Spectrophotometric calibration curve (averaged) for *C. vulgaris* (b) obtained under continuous light in Duran bottles using BG11 seawater medium with different initial nitrate concentrations (0.1 to 1.1 g L⁻¹). Standard deviation values are based on 36 runs.

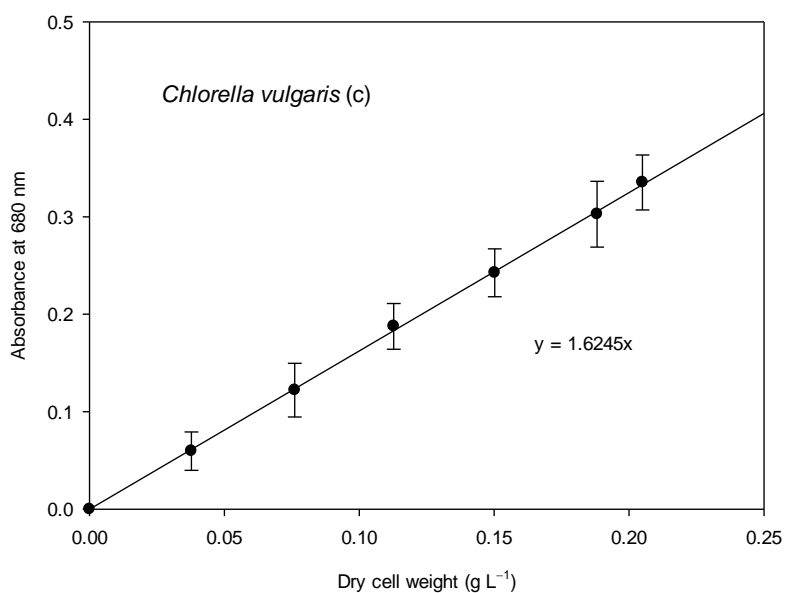


Figure 3.16 Spectrophotometric calibration curve (averaged) for *C. vulgaris* (c) obtained under 12 h:12 h light-dark cycle in Duran bottles using BG11 seawater medium with different nitrate concentrations (0.1 to 1.1 g L⁻¹). Standard deviation values are based on 32 runs.

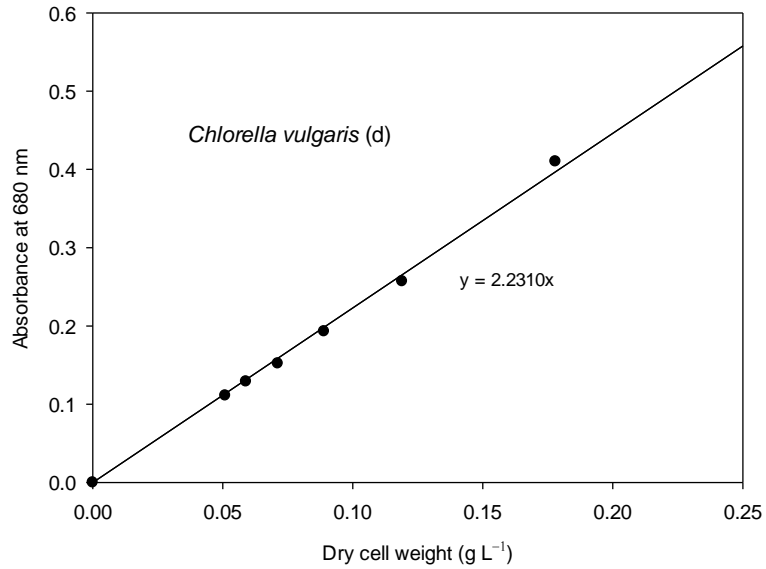


Figure 3.17 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for *C. vulgaris* (d) obtained under continuous light in raceway in BG11 seawater medium.

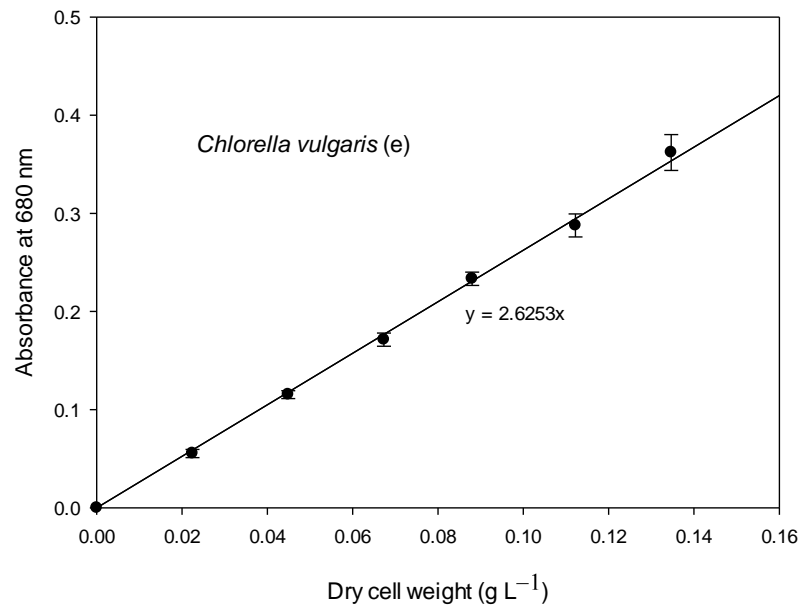


Figure 3.18 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for *C. vulgaris* (e) obtained under 12 h: 12 h diurnal light-dark cycle in raceway in BG11 seawater medium. Standard deviation values are based on triplicate samples.

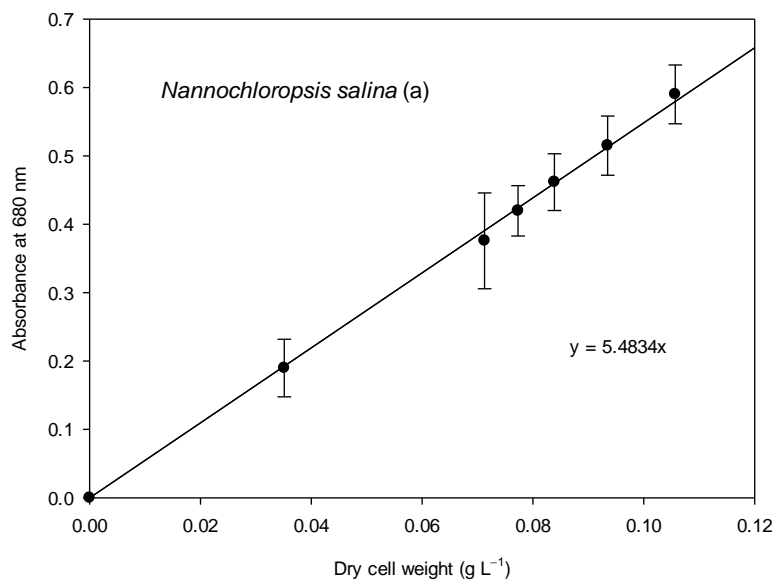


Figure 3.19 Spectrophotometric calibration curve (averaged) for *N. salina* (a) obtained under continuous light in Duran bottle using BG11 seawater medium with different initial nitrate concentrations (0.1 to 1.1 g L⁻¹). Standard deviation values are based on 35 runs.

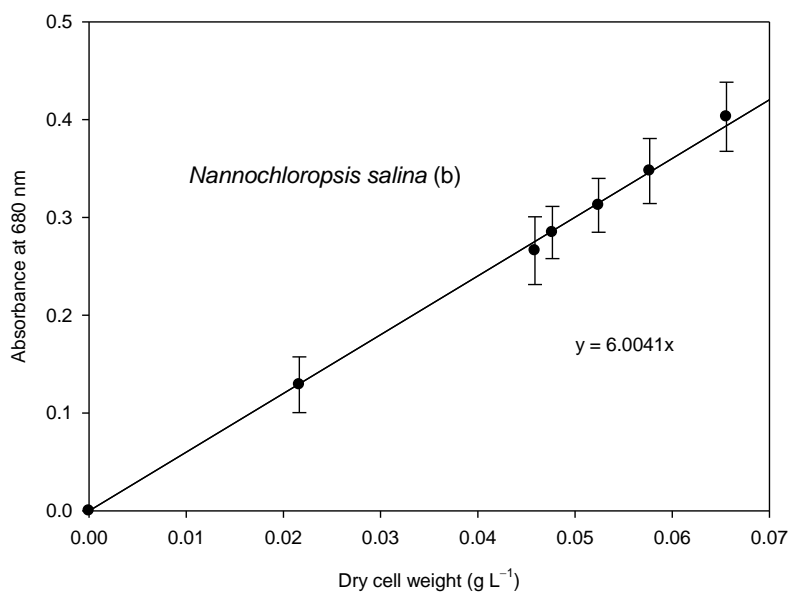


Figure 3.20 Spectrophotometric calibration curve (averaged) for *N. salina* (b) obtained under 12 h:12 h light-dark cycle in Duran bottles using BG11 seawater medium with different initial nitrate concentrations (0.1 to 1.1 g L⁻¹). Standard deviation values are based on 45 runs.

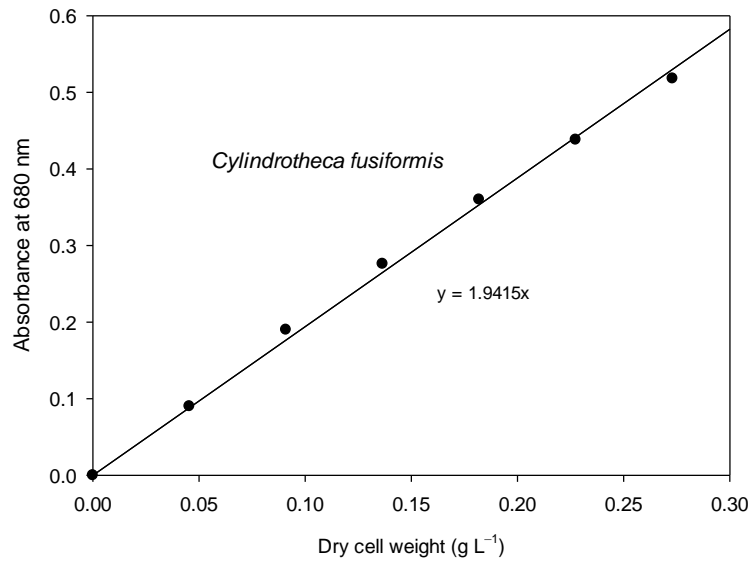


Figure 3.21 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for *C. fusiformis* obtained under continuous light in Duran bottle using BG11 seawater medium.

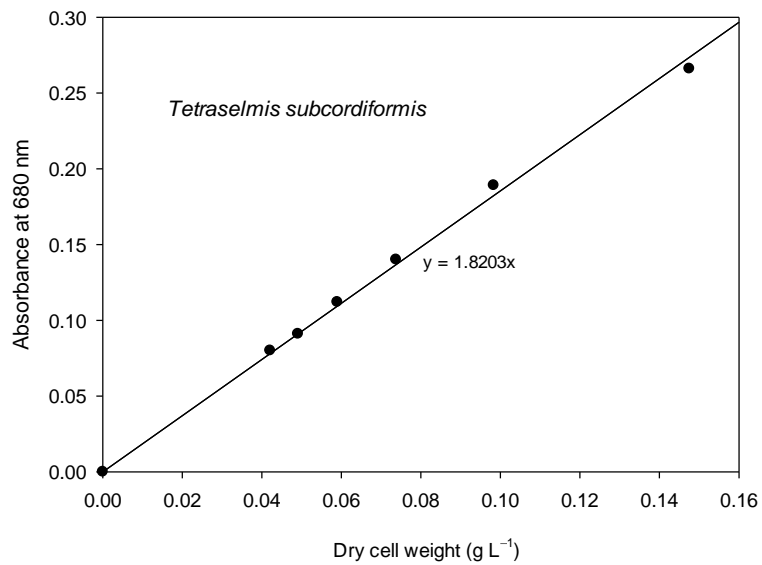


Figure 3.22 Spectrophotometric calibration curve for *T. subcordiformis* obtained under continuous light in Duran bottle using BG11 seawater medium.

3.3.2 Irradiance

Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) incident at the surface of the culture bottles and the raceway pond, was measured using either a QSL-2101 quantum scalar irradiance sensor (Biospherical Instruments Inc, San Diego, CA, USA) or a Li-Cor LI-189 quantum irradiance meter (Li-Cor Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA). Readings of the two instruments were comparable. PAR values at various depths in the raceway were measured using the submersible QSL-2101 sensor.

3.3.3 Nitrate analysis

Nearly all the nitrogen (>99.9% by weight) in the media used was present as nitrate. Residual nitrate in filtered (0.45 μm membrane filter; 28 mm diameter Minisart[®] NML, syringe driven filter unit; Sartorius Stedim Biotech GmbH, Goettingen, Germany) algal broth was measured using the cadmium reduction method (Hach method 8039) as available from Hach Company (Loveland, CO, USA). Contents of a NitraVer[®] 5 nitrate reagent sachet, for a 10 mL sample (Hach Co., Loveland, Co, USA; catalog number 2106169) were added to 10 mL of the culture filtrate diluted with nitrate-free BG11 seawater medium such that the nitrate concentration in the diluted sample was <30 mg L⁻¹. The reaction mixture was vortexed for 1 min exactly and left standing at room temperature for a further 5 min. The amber color developed was measured at 525 nm without disturbing any sediments. The spectrophotometer (Ultrospec 2000, Pharmacia Biotech, Model 80-2106-00) used in the measurements had been zeroed with a 10 mL blank of the nitrate-free BG11 seawater medium treated with the NitraVer[®] 5 reagent in exactly the same way as the samples.

The measured absorbance was converted to a nitrate concentration using a calibration curve and the dilution factor (DF). The calibration curve (Figure 3.23) had the following equation:

$$\text{Nitrate (mg L}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{A_{525}}{0.0017} \times (\text{D F}) \quad (3.11)$$

The calibration curve had been prepared by serially diluting the BG11 seawater medium with nitrate-free BG11 seawater medium to obtain samples with known nitrate concentrations in the range of 0-30 mg L⁻¹. These samples were then treated with NitraVer[®] 5 reagent and their absorbance was measured. A plot of absorbance (corrected for dilution) versus the nitrate concentration was made (Figure 3.23).

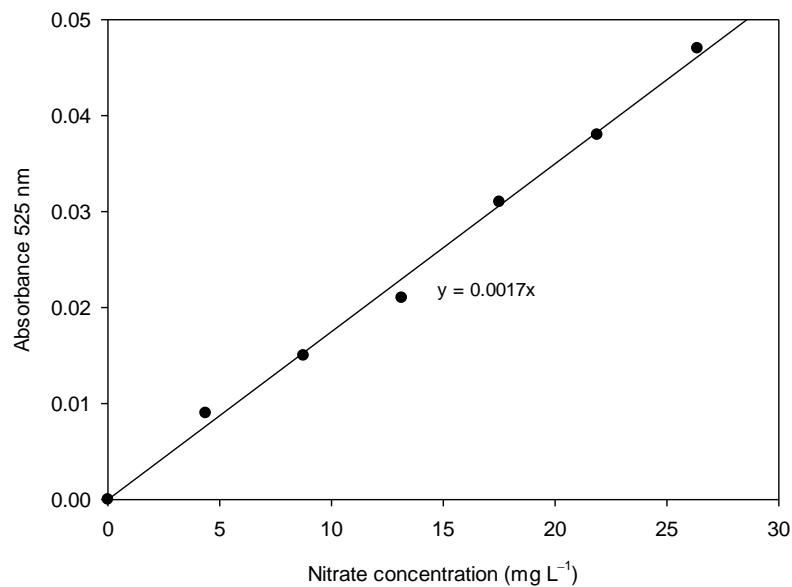


Figure 3.23 Nitrate standard curve prepared with dilutions of BG11 medium in seawater.

3.3.4 Phosphate analysis

Phosphate in the cell-free culture broth was measured using the ascorbic acid-molybdate method (Strickland and Parsons, 1968). The broth samples were prefiltered (0.45 µm membrane filter; 28 mm diameter Minisart[®] NML, syringe driven filter unit; Sartorius Stedim Biotech GmbH, Goettingen, Germany).

The sample filtrate was diluted with distilled water to bring the phosphate concentration within the range of 0–0.3 mg PO_4^{2-} per liter. All glassware used had been acid washed and rinsed with distilled water to prevent potential interference from phosphate contained in some soaps and detergents.

The mixed reagent for phosphate analysis was prepared just before use, by mixing the following:

1. Ammonium molybdate solution (50 mL)
2. Sulfuric acid (125 mL)
3. Ascorbic acid reagent (50 mL)
4. Potassium antimonyl-tartrate solution (25 mL)

The above solutions had been prepared as follows:

1. By dissolving 15 g of ammonium molybdate (VWR, BDH, Prolabo, Belgium) in 500 mL of distilled water. This solution was stored in the dark in a plastic bottle.
2. Adding 140 mL of concentrated sulfuric acid (~2.4 M; Sharlab S.L., Spain) to 900 mL of deionized water and storing in a glass bottle.
3. Dissolving 5.4 g of ascorbic acid (BDH, VWR International, Poole, England) in 100 mL of deionized water. This solution was made fresh every time the phosphate analysis was performed.
4. Dissolving 0.272 g of potassium antimonyl-tartrate (BDH Chemicals Ltd, Poole, England) in 200 mL of deionized water and storing in a plastic bottle.

To 5 mL of the diluted sample, 0.5 mL of a mixed reagent (see above) was added. The resulting solution was mixed and left to stand at room temperature for 20 min. Absorbance of this solution was measured at 885 nm using a spectrophotometer (Ultrospec 2000, Pharmacia Biotech, Model 80-2106-00). The blank was distilled water.

The absorbance was converted to a phosphate concentration using a calibration curve (Figure 3.24). The equation of the calibration curve was:

$$\text{Phosphate (mg L}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{A_{885}}{0.1203} \times (\text{DF}) \quad (3.12)$$

where DF is the dilution factor.

The calibration curve (Figure 3.24) had been prepared by measuring the absorbance of six dilutions of a phosphate standard solution (8.0×10^{-6} M K_2HPO_4 ; LabServ Biolab Australia, Ltd) after treatment with the mixed reagent solution. The dilutions of the standard phosphate solution were such that the maximum phosphate concentration was <0.3 mg/L. The absorbance was plotted against the known phosphate concentrations.

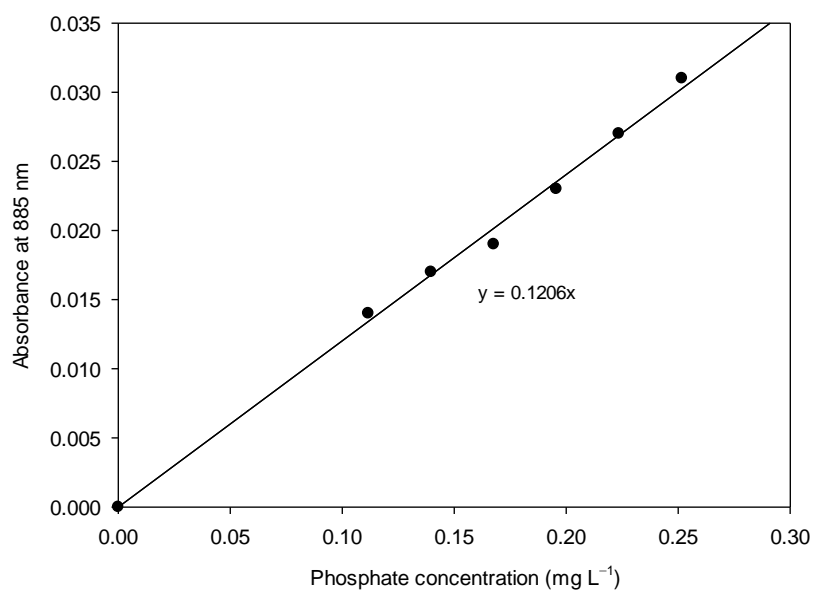


Figure 3.24 Phosphate standard curve.

3.3.5 Total lipids extraction

Freeze-dried biomass was used for quantitative extraction of the total lipids using a modified method of Bligh and Dyer (1959). The volume ratio of chloroform, methanol

and water was always 1:2:0.8 in the extraction step and 2:2:1.8 in the biphasic separation step.

Dry biomass (1 g) was homogenized with 5 mL of chloroform, 10 mL of methanol and 4 mL of distilled water, for 4 h in a 100 mL Duran bottle while being stirred by a magnetic stirrer at 700 rpm (IKA[®] KMO 2 Basic IKAMAG[™], IKA[®] Werke GmbH & Co. KG, Germany) at room temperature. 5 mL of chloroform was then added and the mixture was vigorously stirred for 30 s. 5 mL of distilled water was added and vigorously mixed for 30 s. The resulting dispersion was centrifuged (Hitachi High-speed refrigerated centrifuge CR22GII, Hitachi Koki Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) at 4,000 × g, 4°C, for 10 min. This resulted in separation into three layers. The upper phase (methanol/water) was discarded. The second layer from the top was the biomass residue. The lowest layer was the chloroform layer that contained the dissolved lipids. This layer was pumped out using a capillary glass pipette. The biomass residue (the second layer) was kept for further extraction. This biomass was extracted again using exactly the same protocol as described above. A third extraction of the residual biomass was carried out with 5 mL of chloroform, by mixing for 30 s (vortex mixer) and leaving for 1 h. The chloroform extracts collected from the three extractions were combined. The total lipids were determined gravimetrically by evaporating a known volume of the chloroform extract at room temperature (fume hood) in a preweighed aluminum pan (12 h) followed by further drying (12 h) at room temperature in a desiccator.

The percentage of total lipids in the biomass (Figure 3.25) was determined using the measured volume of the chloroform extract, the total lipids concentration in the chloroform extract and the amount of the dried biomass used in the extraction, as follows:

Total lipids (% w/w)

$$= \frac{\text{volume of chloroform extract (mL)} \times \text{total lipid concentration in extract (mg/mL)}}{\text{mass of biomass extracted (mg)}} \times 100 \quad (3.13)$$

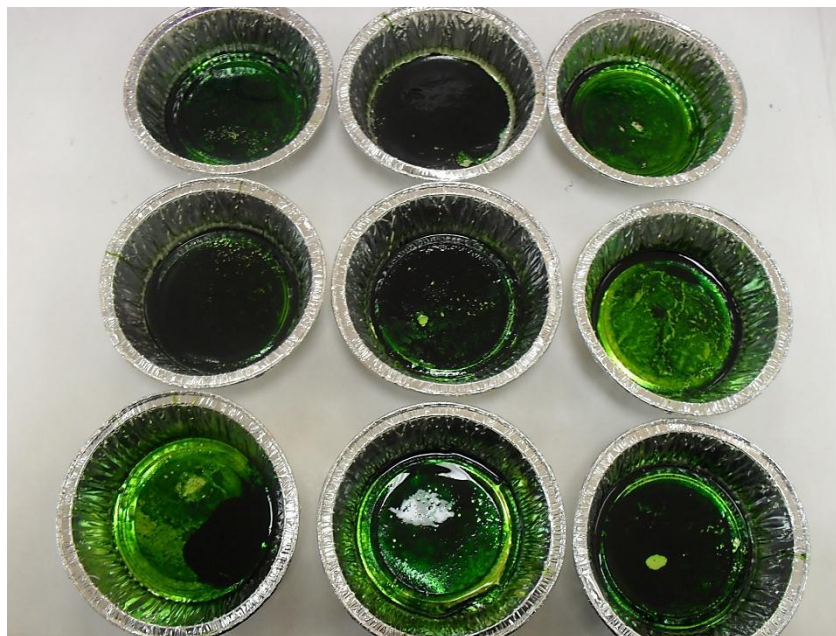


Figure 3.25 Total lipids (crude oil) after evaporation of chloroform.

3.3.6 Nile red staining

For visualization of lipids in microalgal cells, Nile Red (9-diethylamino-5H-benzo[alpha]phenoxazine-5-one, $C_{20}H_{18}N_2O_2$) fluorescent dye (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) was used. The protocol was adapted from Elsey *et al.* (2007). The stained microalgal cells were imaged by a confocal microscope (Leica SP5 DM6000B) at Manawatu Microscopy and Imaging Centre, Massey University, Palmerston North.

A sample of algal broth was diluted with BG11 medium to an spectrophotometric absorbance of 0.1 to 0.2 at 720 nm. A 3 mL sample of the diluted broth was vortexed (1 min) with 10 μ L Nile Red (7.8×10^{-4} M in acetone) to give a final Nile Red concentration of 0.26 μ M. The sample was kept at room temperature for 30-40 min. Then vortexed for 30 s and placed on a microscope slide, covered with a cover slip, and

photographed under a confocal microscope. Neutral lipids stained yellow and the other lipids stained red. Typical images are shown in Figure 3.26.

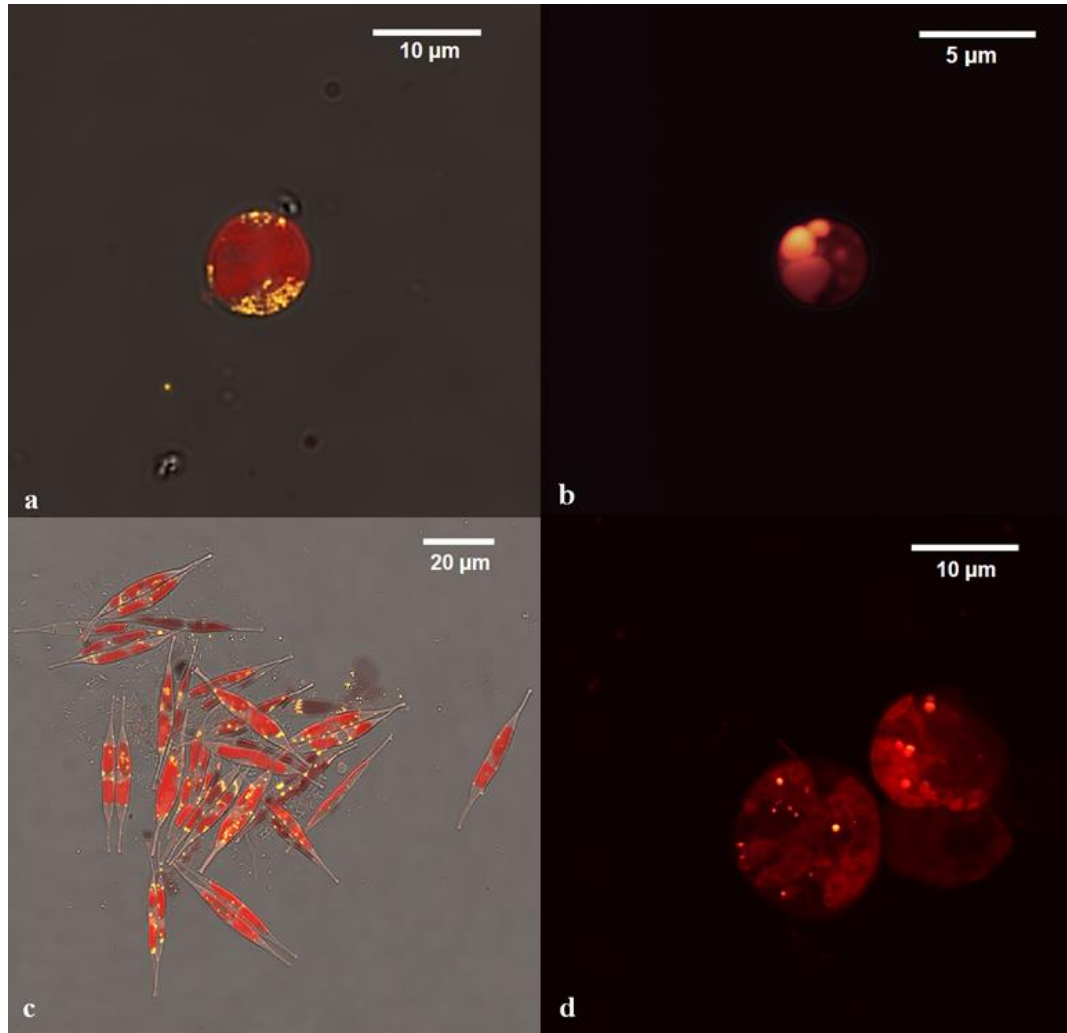


Figure 3.26 Fluorescence confocal microscope images of algae stained with Nile Red: (a) *C. vulgaris*; (b) *N. salina*; (c) *C. fusiformis*; (d) *T. subcordiformis*.

3.3.7 Fatty acid profile

Fatty acid methyl ester from algal crude oil was separated by gas chromatography (GC) according to ISO 15304 [International Standard ISO 15304]. Dried oil sample (~400 mg) was characterized for fatty acid profile at Nutritional Laboratory, Institute of Food, Nutrition and Human Health (Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand).

3.3.8 Calorific value

Total energy content of the algal biomass was established by measuring the heat of combustion, or the calorific value. The freeze-dried biomass samples were measured in a bomb calorimeter (Leco AC-350 calorimeter, Leco Corporation, St Joseph, MI, USA). For each measurement, ~1 g of the biomass sample was used. In some cases the calorific value of algal crude oil was measured if sufficient oil (~1 g per measurement) could be extracted. All measurements were made by the Nutritional Laboratory, Institute of Food, Nutrition and Human Health (Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand). Replicate measurements on a given sample were generally reproducible to within $\pm 3\%$ of the average measured value.

3.3.9 Elemental analyses

The content of carbon (C), nitrogen (N), sulfur (S) and phosphorus (P) in some freeze-dried samples of the algal biomass were measured. For this, the dried biomass samples were sent to the Nutritional Laboratory, Institute of Food, Nutrition and Human Health (Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand). C and N were measured by total combustion in a Leco elemental analyzer. The elemental analyzer used the Dumas combustion method for N (AOAC Official Method 968.06; AOAC International, www.aoac.org; *Official Methods of Analysis of AOAC (OMA)*, 18th edition, AOAC International, Gaithersburg, MD, USA, 2006). S and P were measured by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES).

3.3.10 Microscopy

Algal cultures were periodically examined by light microscopy (Leica DMBRE Compound Light Microscope) to assess the cell morphology, general condition and

possible contamination. Images of the normal cells of the various algae are shown in Figure 3.27.

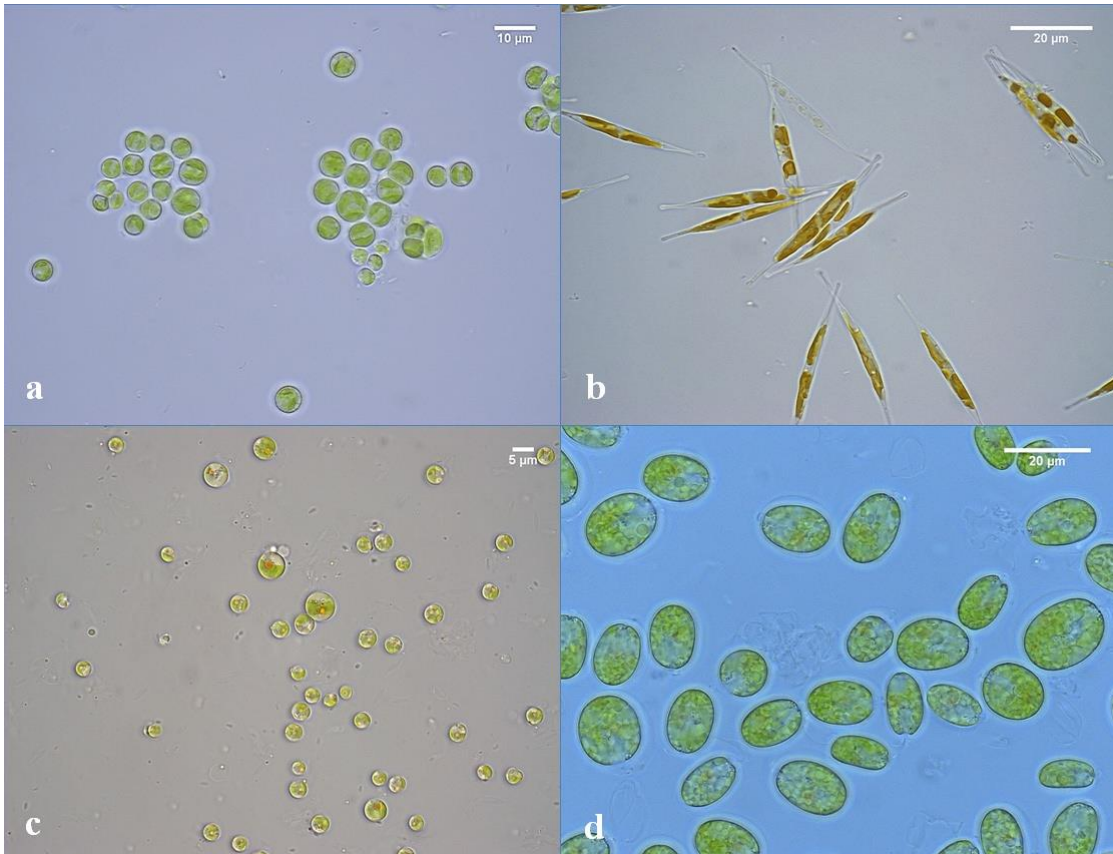


Figure 3.27 Light microscopic images of: (a) *C. vulgaris*; (b) *N. salina*; (c) *C. fusiformis*; (d) *T. subcordiformis*.

3.3.11 Isolation of bacteria from raceway

A few loopfuls of culture from the raceway were streaked on agar plates (1% Difco™, Agar Noble, Becton, Dickinson and Company, USA) prepared in BG11 seawater (Section 3.2.1) to check for contamination with bacteria. These agar plates were placed at 25 ± 2 °C under continuous irradiance of 109 to $116 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Colonies of bacteria started developing within 2-3 days of inoculation. The algal colonies appeared later after 1-2 weeks of inoculation.

3.4 Calculations of culture kinetic parameters (Doran, 1995; Shuler and Kargi, 2002)

The various algae culture kinetic parameters were calculated as explained here.

3.4.1 Batch culture

Specific growth rate, μ (h^{-1})

$$\mu = \frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \ln \frac{X_2}{X_1} \quad (3.14)$$

Where, X_1 is biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) at time t_1 (h) and X_2 is biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) at time t_2 (h). Equation (3.14) applies during exponential growth.

Semilog plots of $\ln X/X_i$ versus time were made from the growth curve. (Here X_i is the initial biomass concentration and X is the biomass concentration at any time t .) The exponential growth phase was identified as the period in which the above plot had the maximum slope.

Biomass productivity, P_b ($\text{g L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$)

$$P_b = \frac{X_f - X_i}{t} \quad (3.15)$$

Lipid productivity, P_l ($\text{g L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$)

$$P_l = \frac{(X_f - X_i) w}{t} \quad (3.16)$$

Biomass yield coefficient on nitrate, Y_N (g mg⁻¹)

$$Y_N = \frac{X_f - X_i}{N_i - N_f} \quad (3.17)$$

Biomass yield coefficient on phosphate, Y_P (g mg⁻¹)

$$Y_P = \frac{X_f - X_i}{P_i - P_f} \quad (3.18)$$

In the above equations, X_f is final biomass concentration (g L⁻¹); X_i is initial biomass concentration (g L⁻¹); t is duration (d) of the batch (i.e. the time required to attain the biomass concentration X_f); w is weight fraction of the lipids in the biomass; N_i is initial nitrate concentration (mg L⁻¹); N_f is final nitrate concentration (mg L⁻¹); P_i is initial phosphate concentration (mg L⁻¹); and P_f is final phosphate concentration (mg L⁻¹).

Average specific nitrate consumption rate, q_N (mg g⁻¹ h⁻¹)

$$q_N = \frac{N_1 - N_2}{(X_2 - X_1)(t_2 - t_1)} \quad (3.19)$$

Average specific phosphate consumption rate, q_P (mg g⁻¹ h⁻¹)

$$q_P = \frac{P_1 - P_2}{(X_2 - X_1)(t_2 - t_1)} \quad (3.20)$$

In the above equations, X_1 is the biomass concentration (g L⁻¹) at time t_1 (h); X_2 is biomass concentration (g L⁻¹) at time t_2 (h); N_1 is nitrate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at time t_1 (h); N_2 is nitrate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at time t_2 (h); P_1 is phosphate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at time t_1 (h); and P_2 is phosphate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at time t_2 (h).

3.4.2 Continuous culture (at steady state)

Specific growth rate, μ (d^{-1})

$$\mu = D = \frac{F}{V} \quad (3.21)$$

Where D is dilution rate (d^{-1}), F is feed flow rate (mL d^{-1}) and V (mL) is the volume in the culture vessel. Equation (3.21) applies to steady state operation.

Biomass productivity, P_b ($\text{g L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$)

$$P_b = DX_s \quad (3.22)$$

Lipid productivity, P_l ($\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$)

$$P_l = DX_s w_s \quad (3.23)$$

In the equations (3.21) – (3.23), D is dilution rate (d^{-1}), X_s is steady state biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) and w_s is the steady state weight fraction of the lipids in the biomass.

Biomass yield coefficient on nitrate, $Y_{X/N}$ (g mg^{-1})

$$Y_{X/N} = \frac{X_s}{N_f - N} \quad (3.24)$$

Biomass yield coefficient on phosphate, $Y_{X/P}$ (g mg^{-1})

$$Y_{X/P} = \frac{X_s}{P_f - P} \quad (3.25)$$

In the equations (3.24) and (3.25), $Y_{X/N}$ is biomass yield coefficient (g mg^{-1}) on nitrate; X_s is steady state biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) in the culture vessel; N_f is nitrate concentration in the feed (mg L^{-1}); N is steady state nitrate concentration (mg L^{-1}) in the

culture vessel; $Y_{X/P}$ is biomass yield coefficient (g mg^{-1}) on phosphate; P_f is phosphate concentration (mg L^{-1}) in the feed; and P is steady state phosphate concentration (mg L^{-1}) in the culture vessel.

Biomass yield coefficient on light, $Y_{X/L}$ ($\text{g } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$) (continuous light only)

$$Y_{X/L} = \frac{FX_s}{IA} \quad (3.26)$$

Where F is feed flow rate (L s^{-1}); X_s is steady state biomass concentration (g L^{-1}); I is irradiance ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$); and A is surface area (m^2) for light absorption.

Average specific nitrate consumption rate, q_N ($\text{mg g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)

$$q_N = \frac{D(N_f - N)}{X_s} \quad (3.27)$$

Average specific phosphate consumption rate, q_P ($\text{mg g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)

$$q_P = \frac{D(P_f - P)}{X_s} \quad (3.28)$$

In the equations (3.26) – (3.28), X_s is steady state biomass concentration (g L^{-1}); D is dilution rate (h^{-1}); N_f is nitrate concentration (mg L^{-1}) in the feed; N is steady state nitrate concentration (mg L^{-1}) in culture vessel; P_f is phosphate concentration (mg L^{-1}) in the feed; and P is steady state phosphate concentration (mg L^{-1}) in the culture vessel.

Chapter 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the key experimental results. Eight microalgae were initially preliminarily screened for their ability to produce biomass and lipids. The relatively promising algae were then further screened for their salinity tolerance with the aim of identifying one that was relatively highly productive in seawater and retained a reasonable productivity under somewhat hypersaline conditions as would occur in an outdoor commercial raceway because of evaporative loss of water. Based on this data, one alga (*C. vulgaris*) was identified as the focus of this study, but work on a second promising alga (*N. salina*) was continued for comparison until it was eliminated from the study as being unresponsive to nitrogen limitation as a means of enhancing oil productivity. Extensive studies are carried out in seawater with *C. vulgaris* in a large (~138 L) raceway in nutrient sufficient and nutrient limited conditions. Batch and continuous culture operations at various steady states were evaluated. Effects of different illumination regimes and turbulence levels on biomass/lipid productivities, lipid contents and calorific values of the biomass were assessed.

4.2 Screening of microalgae in Duran bottles

4.2.1 Batch cultures under normal growth conditions

Initial screening was based on biomass and lipid productivities. Growth profiles of the four screened microalgae were obtained in 2 L Duran bottles (Figure 4.1).

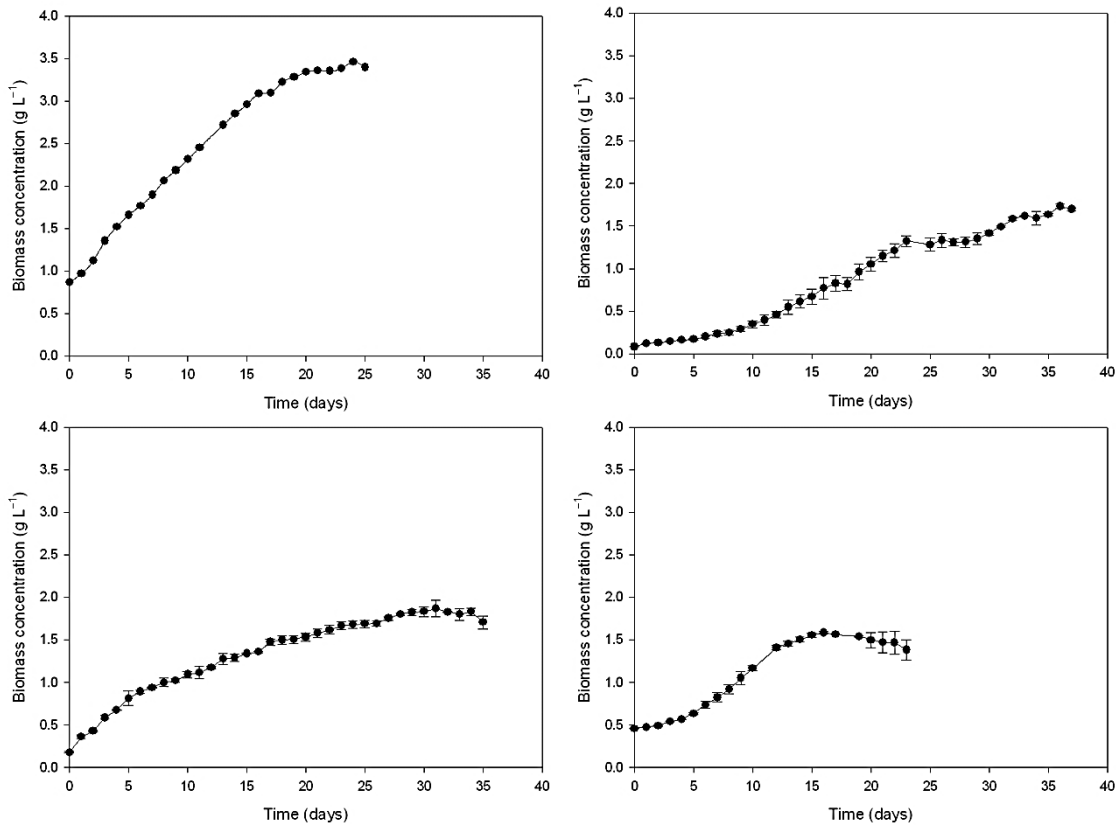


Figure 4.1 Growth profile of: a) *C. vulgaris*, irradiance of $105 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; b) *N. salina*, irradiance of $124 \mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; c) *T. subcordiformis*, irradiance of $124 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; d) *C. fusiformis*, irradiance of $105 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. All algae were grown in BG11 seawater medium, $24 \pm 2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, bubbled with 5% (v/v) CO_2 in air. Silicate was added to the medium for *C. fusiformis*. Standard deviations are based on duplicate runs.

The culture growth and lipid production parameters based on Figure 4.1 are summarized in Table 4.1. The diatom *C. fusiformis* was relatively slow growing (Table 4.1) although its final biomass productivity was comparable to the other algae (Table 4.1) except *C. vulgaris*. *C. fusiformis* cells tended to clump and settle. Also, the cultures tended to require a high initial inoculum. Formation of clumps and sedimentation of cells may have been due to the unique shape (pennate diatom) and relatively large cell size ($\sim 30 \mu\text{m}$) of this strain (Figure 3.27 in Chapter 3).

The estimated lipid content of this strain was high at 27% (w/w) (Table 4.1) and consistent with an earlier report (Suman *et al.*, 2012). Other *Cylindrotheca* sp have been reported to have a high lipid content (Cooksey *et al.*, 1987; Priscu *et al.*, 1990; Elsey *et al.*, 2007). The lipid productivity was low compared to *C. vulgaris* and *N. salina* (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Summary of findings from preliminary screening of the microalgae

Alga	Specific growth rate, μ (d^{-1})	Maximum biomass concentration ^a (g L^{-1})	Biomass productivity, P_b ($\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$)	Lipid content (% w/w)	Lipid productivity, P_l ($\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$)
<i>C. vulgaris</i>	0.142	3.46	108.0	22.8	24.6
<i>N. salina</i>	0.132 ± 0.020	1.73 ± 0.02	45.9 ± 0.7	41.8 ± 0.3	19.2 ± 0.1
<i>C. fusiformis</i>	0.125 ± 0.010	1.47 ± 0.12	48.2 ± 6.0	-	-
^b <i>C. fusiformis</i>	-	1.48	39.9	27.4	10.9
<i>T. subcordiformis</i>	0.223 ± 0.014	1.87 ± 0.10	54.6 ± 3.0	11.4 ± 0.9	6.2 ± 0.5

^aAttained on day 24 for *C. vulgaris*, on day 36 for *N. salina*, on day 21 for *C. fusiformis*, and on day 31 for *T. subcordiformis*. Standard deviations are based on duplicate runs.

^bDifferent batch (measurements were made at harvest on day 25).

In view of the data in Table 4.1, *T. subcordiformis* did not appear to be a promising candidate for oil production. Therefore no further work was done on this alga. Further studies were carried out on the other three algae in Table 4.1, to select a single alga for a more detailed study in pilot-scale raceway production system.

4.2.2 Effect of salinity

Salinity of the culture medium strongly affects the growth and survival of many algae. An open culture system such as an outdoor raceway will inevitably lose water by evaporation and this will increase salinity. Therefore, the effects of salinity mainly on

growth and lipid content of the selected microalgae (*C. vulgaris*, *N. salina* and *C. fusiformis*) were examined.

Three different concentrations of seasalt (40, 50, 60 g L⁻¹) were made in the BG 11 medium (Section 3.2.1) for a batch operation in Duran bottles as described in Section 3.2.2. The irradiance was 135-145 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Identical inocula (15% v/v, prepared in standard BG11 seawater medium) were used for different salt concentration cultures for each individual strain and final working volume was 2 L.

4.2.2.1 Salinity tolerance of *C. vulgaris*

For *C. vulgaris*, a parallel batch of freshwater BG11 was also run along with the different salinities to compare the findings, as originally *C. vulgaris* is a freshwater strain. The inoculum for freshwater *C. vulgaris* culture was prepared in freshwater BG11 medium. The measured salinities at different seasalt concentrations are shown in Table 4.2.

The growth profiles are shown in Figure 4.2. The final biomass concentration and the specific growth rate (Table 4.3) (calculated from the data in Figure 4.2) declined with increasing salinity.

Biomass production of *C. vulgaris* in freshwater BG11 was 50% higher than the culture grown in normal seawater salinity as shown in Table 4.2. The alga was quite sensitive to salinity exceeding the normal seawater (37 ppt) level. For cultures started identically, but at different salinities, differences in the biomass concentrations were reflected in remarkable differences in the intensity of green color as shown in Figure 4.3.

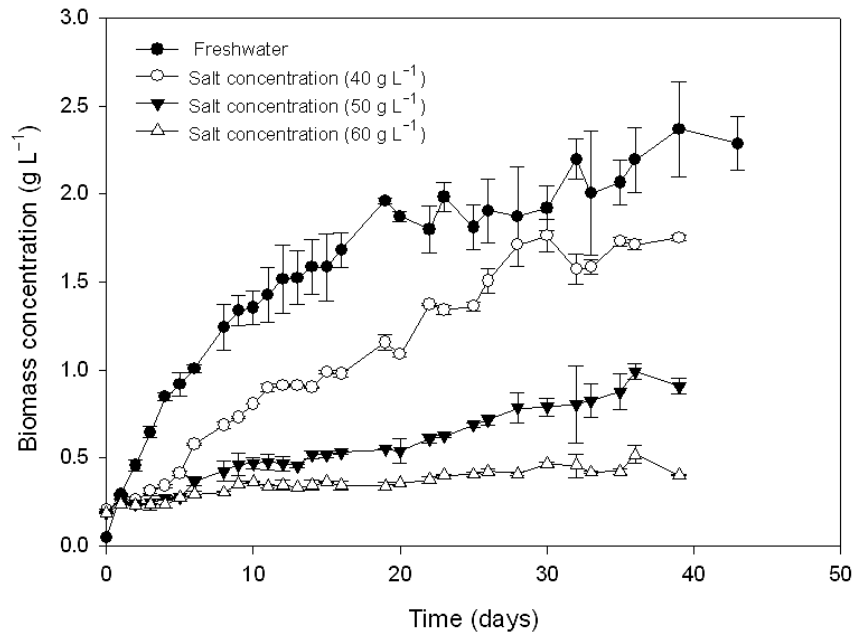


Figure 4.2 Growth profiles of *C. vulgaris* in freshwater and different seasalt concentrations. Standard deviations are based on duplicate runs except for the seasalt concentration of 40 g L⁻¹. The latter standard deviations are based on duplicate samples of a single run.

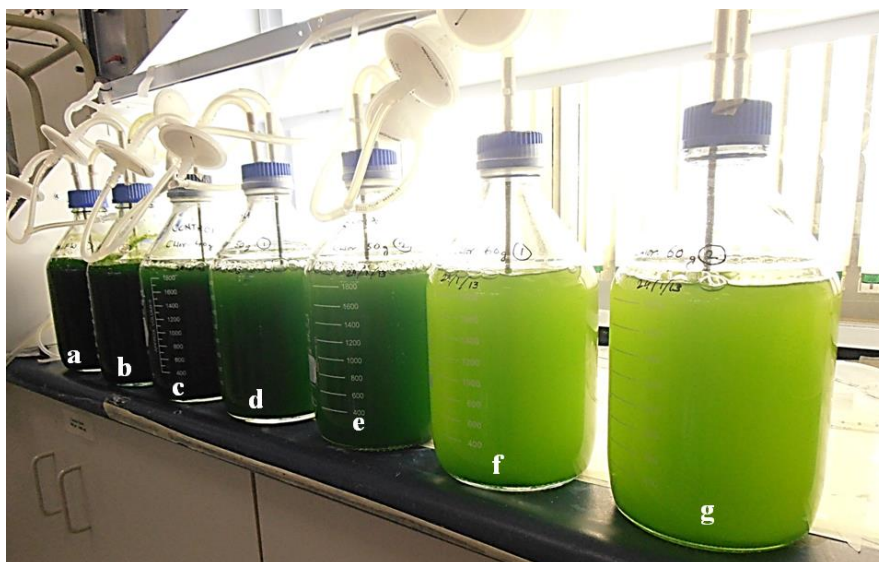


Figure 4.3 *C. vulgaris* cultures on day 23: (a, b) Freshwater culture in duplicate bottles; (c) culture with a salt concentration of 40 g L⁻¹ (control, salinity 37 ppt); (d, e) cultures with salt concentrations of 50 g L⁻¹ (salinity 46 ppt) in duplicates; (f, g) cultures with salt concentrations of 60 g L⁻¹ (salinity 57 ppt) in duplicates. Low biomass concentration can be seen in cultures with a salt concentration of 60 g L⁻¹. The exact biomass concentrations are given in Figure 4.2.

Table 4.2 Biomass characteristics of *C. vulgaris* under different salinities

Seasalt concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Salinity in the final medium (ppt)	Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	Maximum biomass concentration ^a (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass productivity, P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lipid content (% w/w)	Lipid productivity, P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass			
								C (%)	N (%)	S (%)	P (%)
0 ^b	1 \leq	0.317 \pm 0.02	2.37 \pm 0.27	59.6 \pm 6.9	22.2 \pm 3.5	14.7 \pm 0.0	24.9 \pm 0.8	54.5 \pm 1.2	6.4 \pm 0.2	0.3 \pm 0.0	0.2 \pm 0.0
40 (Control)	37	0.175 \pm 0.00	1.75 \pm 0.02	39.7 \pm 0.5	42.8 \pm 0.5	17.0 \pm 0.2	27.8	58.4	5.8	0.6	0.2
50	46	0.133 \pm 0.05	0.91 \pm 0.04	22.3 \pm 1.1	41.4 \pm 1.8	9.2 \pm 0.4	27.4 \pm 0.3	57.8 \pm 0.6	6.0 \pm 0.4	0.5 \pm 0.0	0.3 \pm 0.0
60	57	0.076 \pm 0.03	0.40 \pm 0.00	9.2 \pm 1.3	19.6 \pm 0.8	1.8 \pm 0.1	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND

^aAttained on day 39 for freshwater culture and control (40 g L⁻¹) culture and on day 36 for cultures grown in seasalt concentration of 50 g L⁻¹ and 60 g L⁻¹;

all standard deviations are shown for duplicates runs, except for control (for the latter the standard deviations are based on duplicate samples of a single run).

^bFreshwater culture; a salinity of ~1 ppt was measured.

ND = Not determined

Lipid contents of *C. vulgaris* grown in freshwater media and at different seasalt concentrations are shown in Table 4.2. The lipid contents of biomass from seawater cultures (i.e. within the salinity range of 37-46 ppt) were higher compared to the lipid content of the biomass of freshwater culture and the hypersaline culture (salinity of 57 ppt) (Table 4.2). Calorific value of the biomass of the seawater cultures was comparatively higher than the biomass produced in freshwater (Table 4.2). The C, N and S contents of the biomass samples produced at different salinities (salt concentration $\geq 40 \text{ g L}^{-1}$) were similar, but different relative to freshwater grown culture. The P content in the biomass was always 0.2-0.3% (Table 4.2). A positive correlation was consistently seen between the biomass calorific value, the lipid content and the C content. The correlation between these parameters is further discussed in Section 5.1.

Earlier studies on the effects of salinity on *C. vulgaris* (Abdel-Rahman *et al.*, 2005; Hiremath and Mathad, 2010) reported no effect on growth with increasing salt concentration of up to 14 g L^{-1} , but higher salt concentration decreased growth. The maximum salt concentration tested was 23 g L^{-1} , well below the seawater salinity level. The data in Figure 4.2 show that although the alga grew best in the freshwater, it could grow in full strength seawater. Salinities of greater than seawater adversely affected growth. The lipid accumulation in *C. vulgaris* grown in BG11 saline media (i.e., salt concentration of 40 g L^{-1} and 50 g L^{-1}) was ~1.9 times higher than in *C. vulgaris* grown in freshwater (Table 4.2) after 39 days of culture.

4.2.2.2 Salinity tolerance of *N. salina*

N. salina was grown at various salinities (37-57 ppt) in the BG11 nutrient media as described earlier in Section 4.2.2. The growth profiles of the alga and culture set up are shown in Figure 4.4 and Figure 4.5, respectively. The characteristics of the biomass produced at various salinities are shown in Table 4.3.

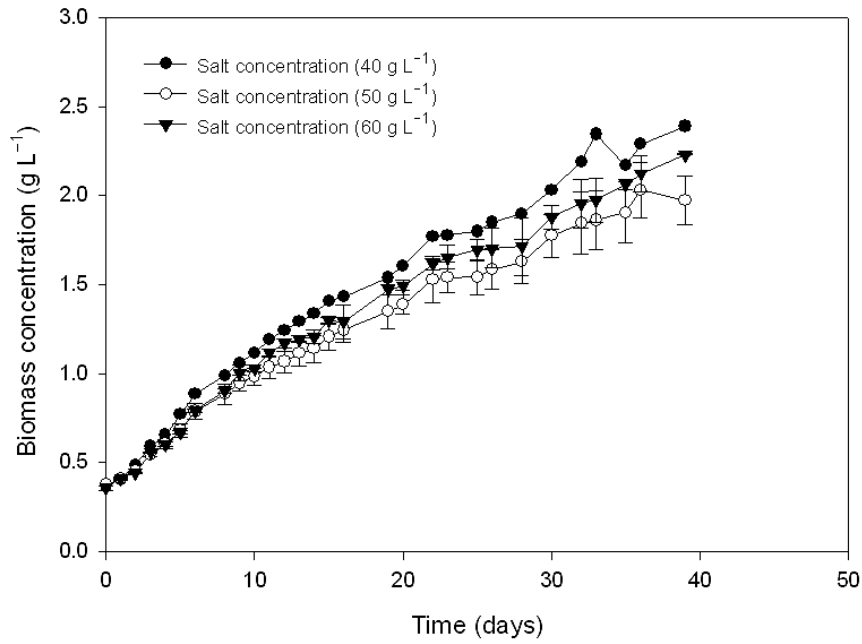


Figure 4.4 Growth profiles of *N. salina* under different seasalt concentrations. Standard deviations are based on duplicate runs.

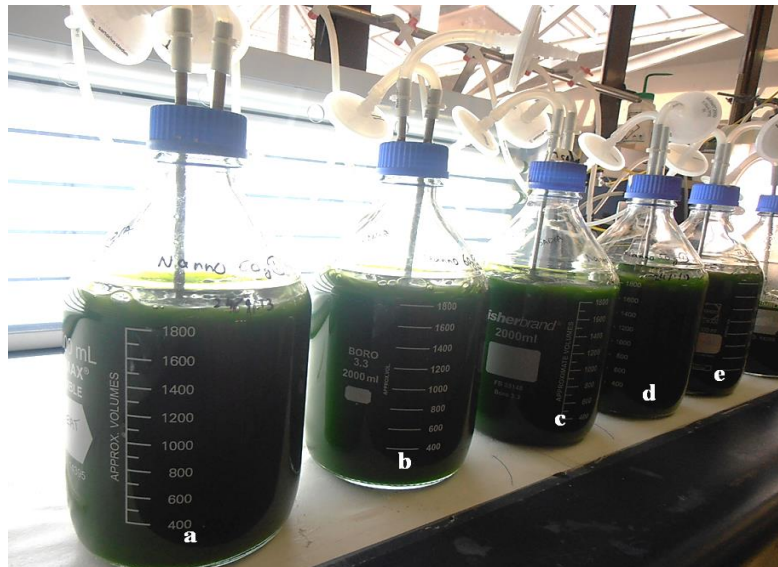


Figure 4.5. *N. salina* cultures on day 23: (a, b) cultures with a salt concentration of 60 g L⁻¹ (salinity 57 ppt) in duplicates; (c, d) cultures with salt concentrations of 50 g L⁻¹ (salinity 47 ppt) in duplicates; (e) culture with a salt concentration of 40 g L⁻¹ (control, salinity 37 ppt).

Table 4.3 Biomass characteristics of *N. salina* grown under different salinities

Seasalt concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Salinity in the final medium (ppt)	Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	Maximum biomass concentration ^a (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass productivity ^a , P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lipid content ^a (% w/w)	Lipid productivity ^a , P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value ^a (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass ^a			
								C (%)	N (%)	S (%)	P (%)
40 (Control)	37	0.154	2.39	51.8	43.1 ± 0.5	22.3 ± 0.2	26.8	55.8	7.8	0.5	0.2
50	47	0.108 ± 0.02	1.97 ± 0.14	40.9 ± 3.5	46.6 ± 0.9	19.1 ± 0.4	27.5 ± 0.1	57.2 ± 0.1	7.7 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0
60	57	0.145 ± 0.01	2.23 ± 0.00	48.1 ± 0.5	46.0 ± 3.6	22.1 ± 1.7	27.9 ± 0.4	58.3 ± 0.4	7.1 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0

^aOn day 39; standard deviations are shown for duplicate runs, except for the control (for the latter the lipid estimation is based on duplicate measurements of a single run).

The growth of this marine alga was not substantially affected by increasing salinity levels of up to 57 ppt (Table 4.3). Within the salinity range of 37-57 ppt, alga appeared to be halotolerant and able to grow and produce lipids (Table 4.3). The other characteristics of algal biomass such as the calorific value and the elemental composition (C, N, S and P) were unaffected within the specified range of salinity (Table 4.3).

4.2.2.3 Salinity tolerance of *C. fusiformis*

C. fusiformis was also found to be quite halotolerant as shown in Figure 4.6. The maximum biomass concentrations attained in the salinity range of 37-57 ppt were quite comparable (Figure 4.6, Table 4.4). Visually, the cultures grown at different salinity levels were similar (Figure 4.7).

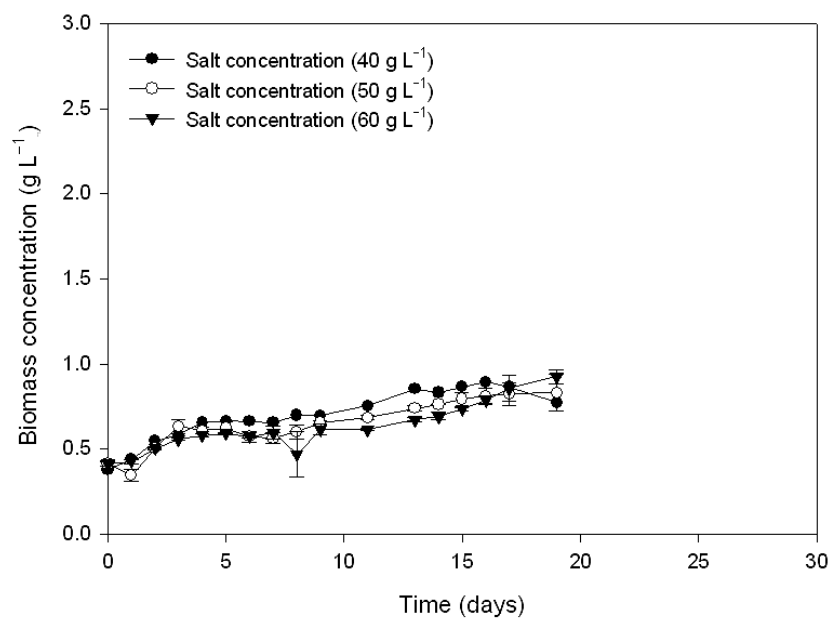


Figure 4.6 Growth profiles of *C. fusiformis* under different seasalt concentrations. Standard deviations are based on duplicate runs.



Figure 4.7 *C. fusiformis* cultures on day 4: (a) culture with a salt concentration of 40 g L^{-1} (control, salinity 37 ppt); (b, c) cultures with salt concentrations of 50 g L^{-1} in duplicates (salinity 47 ppt); (d, e) cultures with salt concentrations of 60 g L^{-1} (salinity 57 ppt).

Table 4.4 Biomass characteristics of *C. fusiformis* grown under different salinities^a

Seasalt concentration (g L⁻¹)	Salinity in the final medium (ppt)	Specific growth rate, μ (d⁻¹)	Final biomass concentration (g L⁻¹)	Biomass productivity, P_b (mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹)	Lipid content (% w/w)	Lipid productivity, P_l (mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹)	Calorific value (kJ g⁻¹)
40 (Control)	37	0.134	0.89	32.3	12.3	4.0	ND
50	47	0.320 ± 0.08	0.83 ± 0.11	22.0 ± 4.8	16.4 ± 4.3	3.6 ± 0.9	19.9
60	57	0.142 ± 0.03	0.92 ± 0.04	26.8 ± 1.6	14.8 ± 2.4	4.0 ± 0.7	ND

^aAttained on day 16 for control and day 19 for the other cultures; standard deviations are shown for duplicate runs except for the control sample.

The lipid contents of the *C. fusiformis* biomass (Table 4.4) were not too much affected by the different salt concentrations. This alga is known for its tolerance to a broad range of salinities in its natural environment (Paul, 1979). However, this alga was not studied further due to difficulty growing it to a high concentration as explained in Section 4.2.1.

In the approximate salinity range of 37-57 ppt, all microalgae tested here were quite salt tolerant. The highest productivity of biomass in *C. vulgaris* was achieved at the normal seawater salinity (~37 ppt) whereas the biomass productivities of *N. salina* and *C. fusiformis* remained high within the tested salinity range.

The adaptability to an elevated salt concentration varies in different species of microalgae (Hiremath and Mathad, 2010). Growth rate generally decreases with increasing salt concentration above the standard seawater level in marine microalgae. A decrease in growth rates with increasing salinity was seen in the case of *C. vulgaris* in this study, but growth rates of the other two halotolerant algae (i.e. *N. salina* and *C. fusiformis*) were not too much affected by increase in salinity. Reduction in growth rate at higher salinities has been associated with a reduced rate of photosynthesis (Vonshak and Richmond, 1981; Gilmour *et al.*, 1984; Ben-Amotz *et al.*, 1985; Kirst, 1989; Endo *et al.*, 1995). The algal cells respond to salinity induced changes in osmotic pressure, either by changing the internal ionic ratios or by degrading or accumulating organic solutes such as glycerol, mannitol, sucrose, glycosides and the amino acid proline (Hellebusi, 1976; Kauss, 1977; Ben-Amotz and Avron, 1983; Wegmann, 1986).

In the cyanobacterium *Spirulina platensis*, changes in salinity are known to affect the biosynthesis of low molecular weight carbohydrates (Warr *et al.*, 1985) and a high salinity induces lipid accumulation in microalgae such as *Dunaliella tertiolecta*, *Isochrysis* sp. and *Nannochloropsis oculata* (Renaud and Parry, 1994; Takagi *et al.*,

2006). In the present study, a salinity of ~57 ppt inhibited lipid accumulation in *C. vulgaris*, but lipid accumulation in *N. salina* and *C. fusiformis* was unaffected with changes in salinity in the range tested.

4.2.3 Effect of nutrients concentration

4.2.3.1 Effect of initial phosphate concentration

Phosphorus is an important macronutrient that is necessary for algal growth and metabolism. The aim of this study was to ascertain whether phosphate concentration of the normal BG 11 seawater medium was limiting. *C. vulgaris* and *N. salina* were used in this study. The algae were grown in parallel in the standard BG11 seawater medium and the same medium formulated to have twice the normal concentration of phosphate.

4.2.3.1a *C. vulgaris*

C. vulgaris batch cultures were grown in two 2 L Duran bottles. One of the bottles contained the standard BG11 seawater medium and the other bottle contained the same medium supplemented to have twice the normal initial phosphate concentration. All other growth conditions were identical (continuous fluorescent illumination at $125 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, 22.4 ± 2 °C, salinity of 37.5 ppt, 5% (v/v) CO₂ in air). Both bottles were inoculated (17% (v/v) inoculum) using the same inoculum that had been grown in the standard BG11 seawater medium. The culture volume was 1.8 L in both cases. Sampling was done once a day for measuring growth and consumption of phosphate and nitrate.

The culture profiles are shown in Figure 4.8. A quantitative comparison of the culture kinetic parameters is shown in Table 4.5. A doubling of the phosphate concentration did not affect the average growth rate of *C. vulgaris* and the final biomass concentration relative to control. The peak biomass concentrations attained at day 23

were essentially the same, i.e. 3.37 g L^{-1} in control and 3.40 g L^{-1} , in the phosphate supplemented medium. Similarly, the biomass productivity values were comparable: $128.6 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (control) and $127.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for the high phosphate culture (Table 4.5). Specific growth rate, however, was 35% higher in the high phosphate culture compared to the control bottle (Table 4.5).

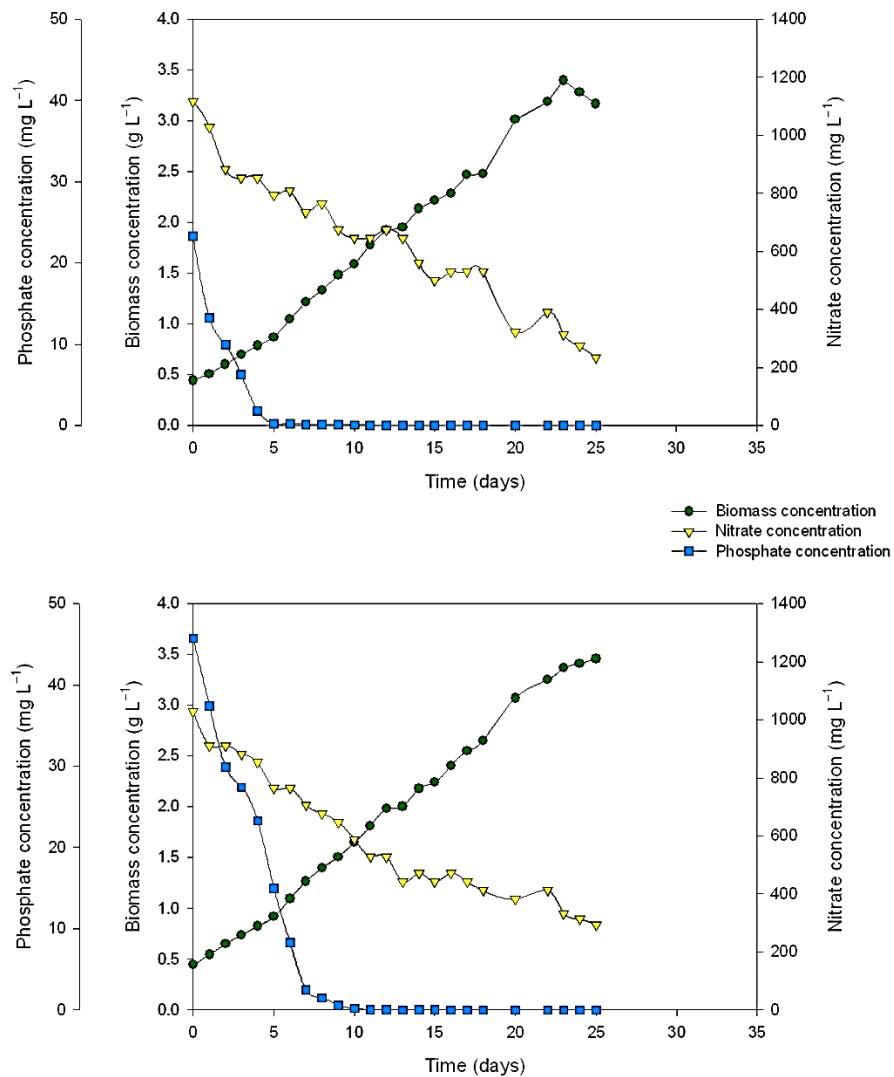


Figure 4.8 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *C. vulgaris* in Duran bottles: a) control, i.e. the standard phosphate concentration in BG11 seawater medium; b) twice the normal initial phosphate concentration in the BG11 seawater medium.

In the control culture, the phosphate was consumed by day 5 whereas in the high phosphate culture, phosphate remained in the medium until day 10 (Figure 4.8). In both cases, the alga continued to grow normally until the end of growth on day 24. Both cultures took up phosphate quantitatively, but had similar levels of the final biomass concentrations. Therefore, the biomass yield on P in phosphate supplemented culture was only ~50% of the yield in the control culture Table 4.5.

Nitrate consumption profiles for the two cases (Figure 4.8) were comparable and at harvest >24% of the nitrate remained in the culture broth.

Table 4.5 *C. vulgaris* Duran bottle batch culture kinetics (different phosphate concentrations)

Kinetic parameters ¹	Duran bottle-1 ^a	Duran bottle-2 ^b
Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	0.113	0.161
Maximum biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	3.40	3.37
Biomass productivity, P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	128.6	127.1
Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg ⁻¹)	0.004	0.004
Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg ⁻¹)	0.127	0.064
Average N consumption rate, q_N (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	11.8	10.4
Average P consumption rate, q_P (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	0.3	0.7
Lipid content (% , w/w)	6.5	9.2
Lipid productivity, P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	8.4	11.7

¹Kinetic parameters were calculated at the point of peak biomass concentration attained on day 23

^aDuran bottle with standard phosphate concentration in BG11 seawater medium; ^btwice the normal initial phosphate level in BG11 seawater medium.

In view of the results, the normal BG11 seawater medium is phosphate sufficient for attaining biomass concentrations in excess of 3 g L^{-1} . The lipid content of the biomass and the lipid productivity (Table 4.5) were not substantially influenced by a doubling of the initial phosphate concentration in media that were phosphate sufficient.

4.2.3.1b *N. salina*

The culture profiles of *N. salina* in the control medium and the phosphate enriched medium are shown in Figure 4.9. The cultures were grown in otherwise identical conditions (continuous fluorescent illumination at $116 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, $22.4 \pm 2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, salinity of 37.5 ppt, 5% (v/v) CO_2 in air, inoculum level of 20% (v/v)). The culture volume was 2 L in each bottle. Culture bottles were set up in duplicates for each medium. A quantitative comparison of the culture kinetic parameters in the two media is provided in Table 4.6.

As was seen in the previous section for *C. vulgaris* (Section 4.2.3.1a), phosphate supplementation of the medium did not improve the final biomass concentration (Figure 4.9, Table 4.5), the biomass productivity and the specific growth rate of *N. salina*. Lipid content of the biomass and the lipid productivity were unaffected by phosphate supplementation (Table 4.6) as both media were phosphate sufficient. Phosphate supplementation reduced the biomass yield on phosphate by ~50% relative to control. In both cases, the phosphate had been fully consumed by the culture at day ≥ 10 (Figure 4.9). Both sets of cultures (Figure 4.9) were always nitrate sufficient.

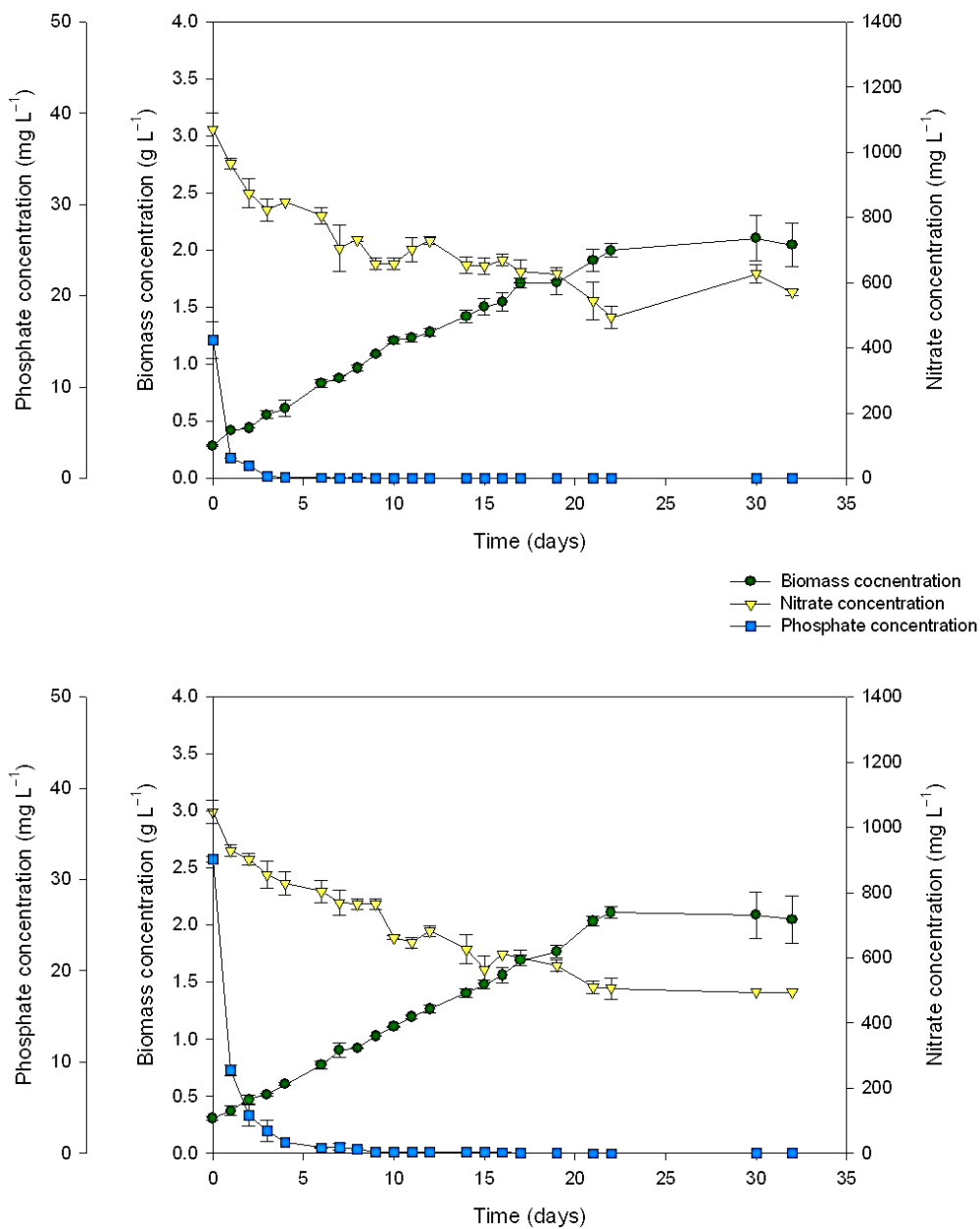


Figure 4.9 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *N. salina* in Duran bottles: a) control, i.e. standard phosphate concentration in BG11 seawater medium; b) twice the normal initial phosphate level in BG11 seawater medium. Standard deviation of biomass is based on duplicate runs. Standard deviations of nitrate and phosphate are based on triplicate and duplicate samples of a single run, respectively.

Table 4.6 *N. salina* Duran bottle batch culture kinetics (different phosphate concentrations)

Kinetic parameters ¹	Duran bottle-1 ^a	Duran bottle-2 ^b
Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	0.181 ± 0.03	0.138 ± 0.01
Maximum biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	2.22 ± 0.21	2.20 ± 0.21
Biomass productivity, P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	81.2 ± 3.2	86.4 ± 3.0
Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg ⁻¹)	0.003	0.004
Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg ⁻¹)	0.119	0.059
Average N consumption rate, q_N (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	14.5	12.9
Average P consumption rate, q_P (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	0.4	0.8
Lipid content (% , w/w)	37.3 ± 0.2	40.4 ± 1.3
Lipid productivity, P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	30.3 ± 2.1	34.9 ± 2.3

¹Kinetic parameters were calculated at the point of peak biomass concentration attained on day 30

^aDuran bottle with standard phosphate concentration in BG11 seawater medium; ^btwice the normal initial phosphate level in BG11 seawater medium. Standard deviations are shown for duplicate runs.

The conclusion of the results of this section is that BG11 seawater medium is phosphate sufficient for attaining a biomass concentration of ≥ 3 g L⁻¹ of *C. vulgaris* and at least 2.5 g L⁻¹ for *N. salina*.

Earlier studies have shown that the excess phosphate in a culture medium is taken up and stored within the cell by microalgae as polyphosphate granules (Miyachi and Miyachi, 1961; Miyachi and Tamiya, 1961; Miyachi *et al.*, 1964; Cembella *et al.*, 1984; John and Flynn, 2000). Furthermore, it has been shown that the phosphate starved

microalgal cells transferred to a phosphate rich medium readily absorb and store phosphate (Hernandez *et al.*, 2006). The stored phosphate is used for growth after the phosphate in the medium has been depleted (Miyachi *et al.*, 1964; Kanai *et al.*, 1965; Elgavish and Elgavish, 1980). Cell division and growth continues for many generations on stored phosphate (Jansson, 1988; John and Flynn, 2000). Thus, the rapid decline in phosphate level upon inoculation (Figure 4.8, Figure 4.9) is attributed to rapid absorption of phosphate by cells transferred from the previous stage of culture that was approaching phosphate depletion.

4.2.3.2 Effect of initial nitrate concentration

Nitrogen is essential for algal growth. Nitrogen limitation in the medium affects the cell growth rate and the composition of the biomass. Nitrogen limitation frequently leads to accumulation of lipids (Piorreck *et al.*, 1984; Sawayama *et al.*, 1992; Illman *et al.*, 2000; Scragg *et al.*, 2002; Griffiths and Harrison, 2009). The need was to determine if a low nitrate concentration could induce lipid accumulation without significantly affecting the biomass production. For this, the cultures of *C. vulgaris* and *N. salina* were carried out at different low initial nitrate concentrations and compared with the controls (standard concentration of nitrate in BG11 seawater media). Effect of a reduced initial nitrate was tested under continuous light as well as in a 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle.

4.2.3.2a *C. vulgaris*

C. vulgaris batch cultures were grown in BG11 (seawater) media with 100%, 50%, 20% and 10% of the normal initial nitrate concentration. All cultures were grown under continuous light as well as under a 12 h:12 h day/night cycle at an incident irradiance of 138-142 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. All experiments were conducted in duplicate in Duran bottles. All other growth conditions were identical (22.4 ± 2 °C, salinity of 37.5 ppt, aeration with

5% (v/v) CO₂ in air). All Duran bottles were inoculated with a 13% (v/v) inoculum that had been produced in the normal BG11 seawater medium. Total volume of the culture broth was 2 L in all cases. Sampling was done once a day, or on alternate days, for measuring growth. Samples for measurements of nitrate and phosphate were taken every 5th day. The cultures under light/dark cycle were not sampled for nitrate and phosphate, except for the control bottle culture (normal nitrate concentration in BG11 seawater medium).

As the pigment composition of microalgal cells can change with time under nitrate-limited conditions (Ben-Amotz *et al.*, 1982; Sheehan *et al.*, 1998) and this can potentially affect the spectrophotometric biomass measurements, separate calibration curves were prepared every fifth day of culture to rule out possible discrepancies in biomass measurements due to changed pigmentation (see Section 3.3.1). The calibration curves obtained at various initial nitrate concentrations were essentially identical and did not vary with time. However, the calibration curves obtained under continuous light differed from those obtained under the 12 h: 12 h light/dark cycle, by ~16%. Therefore, two separate sets of calibration curves (Figure 3.15, Figure 3.16) were prepared for the different illumination regimes by averaging the calibration curve data for a given regime at different initial nitrate levels.

The culture profiles of *C. vulgaris* are shown in Figure 4.10 for the two light regimes and various initial nitrate levels. There was no obvious effect on growth of the various initial nitrate concentrations so long as the concentration was $\geq 50\%$ of the control level. For example, the peak biomass concentration of the control culture on day 46 was $2.45 \pm 0.01 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ (Table 4.7), or nearly the same as a biomass concentration of $2.33 \pm 0.08 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ for the culture with 50% of the normal initial nitrate level. The peak attainable biomass concentration progressively declined (Table 4.7) once the initial nitrate level was reduced to $< 50\%$ of the normal level. In culture with 50% of the initial

nitrate, nitrate ran out on day 20 (Figure 4.10) but slow growth continued until day 40, presumably on internal nitrogen reserves. In cultures with $\leq 20\%$ of the initial nitrate level, nitrogen ran out by day 10 and the growth slowed. For otherwise identical conditions, continuous illumination provided a higher final concentration of biomass and a higher biomass productivity compared to 12 h: 12 h light dark/cycle (Table 4.7).

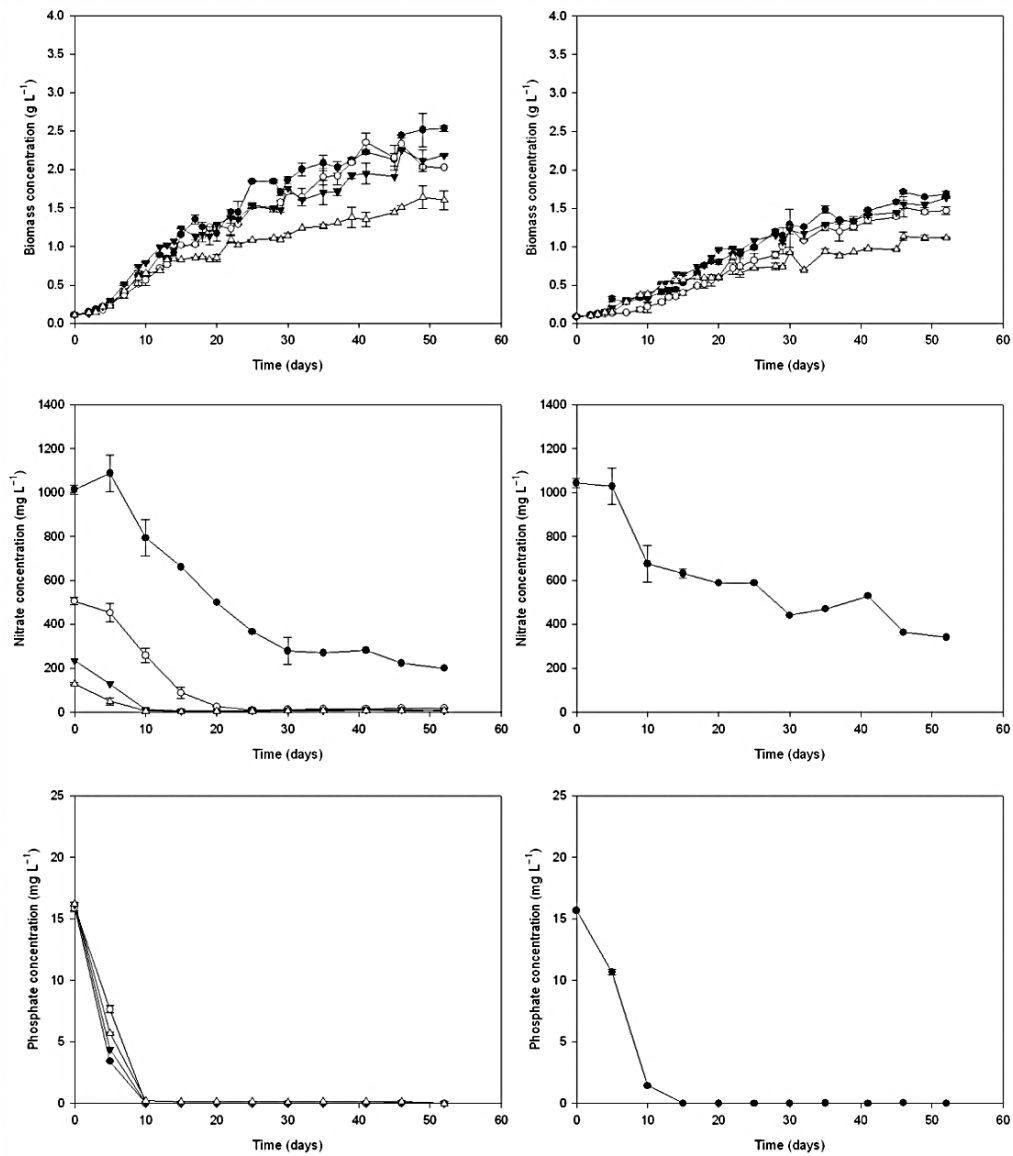


Figure 4.10 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *C. vulgaris* in Duran bottles with different initial nitrate concentrations of 100% (control), 50%, 20% and 10% in BG11 seawater medium: a-1) and b-1) biomass concentrations; a-2) and b-2) nitrate concentration; a-3) and b-3) phosphate concentration. All ‘a’ culture profiles were obtained under continuous light. All ‘b’ culture profiles were obtained under a 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle. In b-2 and b-3 the N and P consumption profiles were obtained only from the control bottles. Biomass standard deviations are shown for duplicate runs, except for the control. The standard deviation for the control are based on duplicate measurements of a single run. Standard deviations of nitrate and phosphate are based on duplicate samples of single run.

In control cultures, nitrate was not fully consumed by harvest (day 46; Figure 4.10), but complete consumption occurred by day 25 or earlier, if the initial nitrate level was $\leq 50\%$ (Figure 4.10, a-2). More biomass was produced in continuous light (Table 4.7) because photosynthesis occurred for nearly twice as long as in the 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle condition. In nitrate-limited media with 20% and 50% of initial nitrate levels relative to control, although nitrate ran out from the media within 10-25 days, growth continued until day 46 (Figure 4.10, a-1 and b-1) without a significant loss in the final biomass concentration (Table 4.7). In the culture with 10% initial nitrate level relative to control, nitrate ran out on day 10, but growth continued at a somewhat reduced pace (Figure 4.10). The main reason for continued growth in the nitrate-limited medium was a continuous flow of carbon (from CO₂) to form starch (and lipids) via photosynthesis but reduced cell division as a consequence of a reduced protein synthesis and DNA synthesis (Hu, 2004). As confirmed later in this study, in nitrogen limitation in *C. vulgaris*, lipids accumulation was increased (Table 4.8) with a simultaneous increase in the C content of the algal biomass (Table 4.8) when compared to the nitrate-sufficient growth.

N uptake rates were directly correlated to the initial nitrate concentration in the media. A higher initial nitrate concentration, increased nitrate consumption rate (Table 4.7). These uptake rates (Table 4.7) were measured in the cultures grown under continuous light. Under light/dark cycled condition, the nitrate consumption profiles of only the control cultures (nitrate sufficient BG11 media) were obtained and the biomass specific uptake rate of nitrate was virtually the same as that of continuously illuminated culture (Table 4.7). This meant that although less biomass was produced under reduced illumination in the control medium, the nitrogen content of the biomass were essentially the same as for the biomass grown in the same medium under continuous light. The biomass yield on N changed with changes in initial concentration of nitrate in the

growth media. Biomass yield on N was higher (3.6 times) in the medium that was the most deficient in nitrate (10% nitrate relative to normal BG11) (Table 4.7).

The biomass specific phosphate uptake rate was independent of the nitrate concentration in the media and was generally similar in all cultures (Table 4.7). On day 10, all phosphate disappeared from culture broths run under continuous light and this occurred later (on day 15) in light/dark cycled cultures (Figure 4.10, a-3 and b-3). This was simply a consequence of slower biomass growth in light/dark cycled culture relative to otherwise identical continuously illuminated cultures.

Table 4.7 *C. vulgaris* Duran bottles culture kinetic parameters (different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater medium)¹

Initial nitrate concentration (% of normal)	Light period ²	Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	Maximum biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass Productivity, P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg ⁻¹)	Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg ⁻¹)	Average specific N consumption rate, q_N (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Average specific P consumption rate, q_P (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)
100 (control)	Continuous	0.180 ± 0.01	2.45 ± 0.01	50.9 ± 0.1	0.003	0.148	7.4	0.1
100 (control)	12 h:12 h	0.116 ± 0.00	1.71 ± 0.03	35.3 ± 0.6	0.002	0.107	8.8	0.2
50	Continuous	0.181 ± 0.03	2.33 ± 0.08	48.3 ± 1.9	0.005	0.140	4.8	0.2
50	12 h:12 h	0.157 ± 0.04	1.52 ± 0.13	31.0 ± 2.9	ND	ND	ND	ND
20	Continuous	0.298 ± 0.03	2.26 ± 0.02	46.7 ± 0.3	0.010	0.133	2.3	0.2
20	12 h:12 h	0.126 ± 0.02	1.55 ± 0.05	31.8 ± 1.3	ND	ND	ND	ND
10	Continuous	0.250 ± 0.06	1.51 ± 0.02	30.4 ± 0.4	0.011	0.087	1.9	0.2
10	12 h:12 h	0.172 ± 0.09	1.14 ± 0.05	22.7 ± 1.0	ND	ND	ND	ND

¹Kinetic parameters were calculated at the point of peak biomass concentration attained on day 46; ND = not determined. Standard deviations are shown for duplicate runs, except for control.

For the latter the standard deviations are based on duplicate samples of a single run.

² Irradiance ~138-142 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ continuously for 24 h or 12 h of light period followed by 12 h of dark period.

Table 4.8 Lipid content, calorific value and elemental content of *C. vulgaris* biomass (different initial nitrate concentrations)

Initial nitrate concentration (% of normal)	Light period ¹	Lipid content (%, w/w)	Lipid productivity, P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass			
					C (%)	N (%)	S (%)	P (%)
100 (control)	Continuous	38.9 ± 0.9	19.8 ± 0.5	27.3	56.2	6.4	0.7	0.2
100 (control)	12 h:12 h	29.2 ± 3.3	10.3 ± 1.0	25.0	53.5	7.1	0.7	0.3
50	Continuous	56.0 ± 1.8	27.4 ± 0.3	30.1 ± 0.5	61.8 ± 0.3	4.7 ± 0.2	0.5	0.2
50	12 h:12 h	32.3 ± 2.4	10.3 ± 1.8	25.7 ± 0.9	54.3 ± 1.1	6.9 ± 0.5	0.7 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0
20	Continuous	65.6 ± 1.4	30.6 ± 0.5	31.3 ± 0.1	63.6 ± 0.0	3.6 ± 0.2	0.4 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0
20	12 h:12 h	56.9 ± 1.5	18.1 ± 1.2	30.2 ± 0.6	61.5 ± 0.2	3.8 ± 0.4	0.5 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0
10	Continuous	64.6	19.6	31.7 ± 0.1	63.8 ± 0.3	2.9 ± 0.4	0.4	0.2
10	12 h:12 h	62.5 ± 1.5	14.2 ± 0.3	30.8 ± 0.1	62.5 ± 0.0	3.7 ± 0.1	0.4 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0

¹Irradiance ~138-142 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ continuously for 24 h or 12 h of light period followed by 12 h of dark.

Standard deviations are shown for duplicate runs, except for control. For the latter duplicate samples of a single run were used to calculate the standard deviations.

N limited growth resulted in elevated lipid content in the biomass (Table 4.8). In continuously illuminated cultures the lipid content increased by 44-66% relative to the N-sufficient controls. In light/dark cycled cultures, the lipid content increased by 10-114% relative to N-sufficient cultures. However, due to less biomass production under light/dark cycling, the average lipid productivity was lower relative to the corresponding continuously illuminated cases (Table 4.8).

The calorific values of the biomass were positively correlated with the lipid content (Table 4.8). Nitrate starvation enhanced the lipid content as well as the calorific value (Table 4.8). The highest measured calorific value was $\sim 31 \text{ kJ g}^{-1}$. The C, N, S and P contents of the biomass grown under various conditions are shown in Table 4.8. Low N and S contents were found in the biomass produced in low-nitrate media. Low nitrogen levels reduced protein-synthesis and this also resulted in low S levels even though the S content of the medium were not changed in any experiment. The relevance of the elemental composition of the biomass and its energy content is discussed in Section 4.3.1.1.

In view of the results in Table 4.8, a 20% initial nitrate concentration relative to the standard BG11 seawater medium is promising for producing a biomass concentration ($2.26 \pm 0.02 \text{ g L}^{-1}$) which is comparable to the control ($2.45 \pm 0.01 \text{ g L}^{-1}$). However, the lipid level was the highest under nitrate deficient condition (20% of normal initial nitrate level); i.e. $\sim 66\%$ lipid content in the biomass and a lipid productivity of $\sim 31 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ compared to the control productivity $\sim 20 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in Duran bottles under continuous light. Production of the biomass and therefore the lipid production was reduced by light/dark cycling relative to the case for continuous illumination.

4.2.3.2b *N. salina*

The culture profiles of *N. salina* in media with different initial N-levels are shown in Figure 4.11 both for continuous light and 12 h:12h light/dark condition cycle. All cultures were grown at otherwise identical conditions of irradiance of 135-145 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, 22.4 ± 2 °C, salinity of 37.5 ppt and 5% (v/v) CO₂ in air. The initial culture volume was 2 L in each bottle and the inoculum level was ~13% (v/v). All inocula were grown in the standard BG11 seawater medium. All cultures were run in duplicates.

Under continuous light, the highest biomass concentration of 2.93 ± 0.00 g L⁻¹ was attained on day 49 in nitrate sufficient medium. Lower initial nitrate concentrations of 50% and 20% of control were still capable of providing biomass concentrations of 2.72 ± 0.11 g L⁻¹ and 2.42 ± 0.12 g L⁻¹, respectively (Table 4.9). However, the culture grown under 10% of the initial nitrate concentration relative to control had a 35% lower final biomass concentration relative to control (Table 4.9). At identical initial nitrate concentrations, the 12 h:12 h light/dark cycling decreased biomass concentrations by 31-40% compared to continuous light cultures. This was explained in Section 4.2.3.2a for *C. vulgaris*. The culture kinetic data for different initial nitrate levels and light conditions are compiled in Table 4.9.

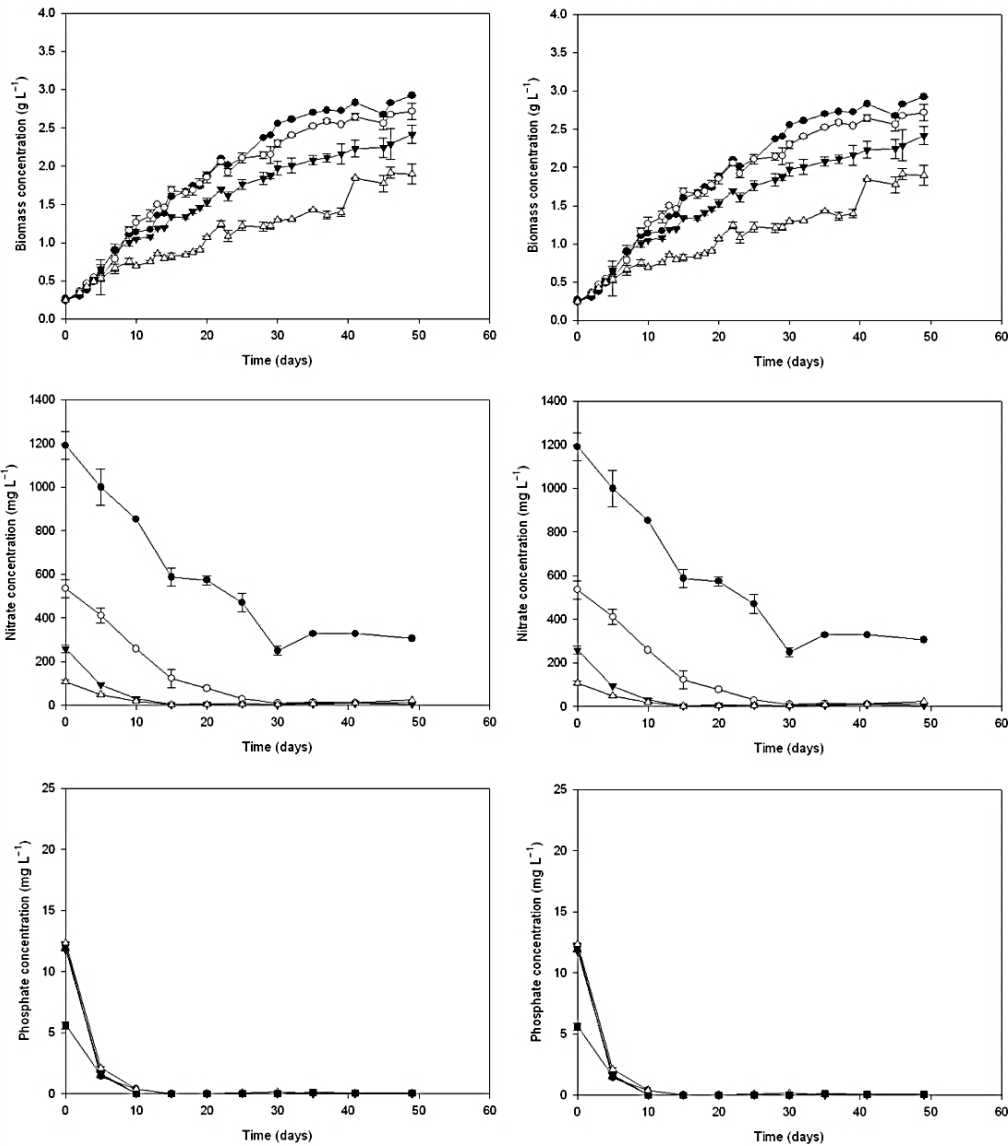


Figure 4.11 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *N. salina* in Duran bottles with different initial nitrate concentrations of 100% (control), 50%, 20% and 10% in BG11 seawater medium: a-1) and b-1) biomass concentrations; a-2) and b-2) nitrate concentration; a-3) and b-3) phosphate concentration. All 'a' culture profiles were obtained under continuous light. All 'b' culture profiles were obtained under a 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle. (In b-2 and b-3 the N and P consumption profiles were obtained only from the control bottles.) Biomass standard deviations are shown for duplicate runs, except for the control. For the latter duplicate measurements of a single run were used to calculate the standard deviations. Standard deviations of nitrate and phosphate are based on duplicate samples of single run.

Table 4.9 *N. salina* Duran bottles culture kinetic parameters (different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater medium)¹

Initial nitrate concentration (% of normal)	Light conditions ²	Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	Maximum biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass productivity, P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg ⁻¹)	Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg ⁻¹)	Average specific N consumption rate, q_N (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Average specific P consumption rate, q_P (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)
100 (control)	Continuous	0.227 ± 0.01	2.93 ± 0.00	54.2 ± 0.1	0.003	0.220	6.8	0.1
100 (control)	12 h:12 h	0.127 ± 0.00	1.84 ± 0.00	33.3 ± 0.0	0.003	0.137	7.1	0.1
50	Continuous	0.125 ± 0.01	2.72 ± 0.11	50.6 ± 2.1	0.005	0.211	4.3	0.1
50	12 h:12 h	0.151 ± 0.01	1.62 ± 0.12	28.5 ± 2.3	ND	ND	ND	ND
20	Continuous	0.257 ± 0.01	2.42 ± 0.12	44.5 ± 2.4	0.009	0.177	2.4	0.1
20	12 h:12 h	0.144 ± 0.00	1.61 ± 0.02	28.4 ± 0.4	ND	ND	ND	ND
10	Continuous	0.115 ± 0.01	1.90 ± 0.13	33.7 ± 2.6	0.019	0.298	1.1	0.1
10	12 h:12 h	0.146 ± 0.01	1.31 ± 0.07	22.5 ± 1.5	ND	ND	ND	ND

¹Kinetic parameters were calculated at the point of peak biomass concentration attained on day 49; ND = not determined.

Standard deviations are shown for duplicate runs, except for the control (for the latter duplicate measurements of a single run were used to calculate the standard deviation values).

² Irradiance ~135-145 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ continuously for 24 h or 12 h of light period followed by 12 h of dark

Table 4.10 Lipid content, calorific value and elemental content of *N. salina* biomass (different initial nitrate concentrations)

Initial nitrate concentration (% of normal)	Light period ¹	Lipid content (%, w/w)	Lipid productivity, P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass			
					C (%)	N (%)	S (%)	P (%)
100 (control)	Continuous	40.9 ± 0.3	22.1 ± 0.1	26.1 ± 0.1	52.5 ± 0.0	9.8 ± 0.0	0.5 ± 0.0	0.1 ± 0.0
100 (control)	12 h:12 h	39.2 ± 0.0	13.1 ± 0.0	25.6 ± 0.3	53.3 ± 0.0	9.5 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.0	0.1 ± 0.0
50	Continuous	38.7 ± 4.6	19.6 ± 1.5	25.7 ± 1.5	52.9 ± 2.2	8.7 ± 0.9	0.5 ± 0.0	0.1 ± 0.0
50	12 h:12 h	44.4 ± 0.7	12.6 ± 0.8	26.6	55.0 ± 0.6	8.6 ± 0.4	0.5 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0
20	Continuous	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
20	12 h:12 h	44.3 ± 3.0	12.6 ± 0.7	26.9 ± 1.1	54.7 ± 2.1	7.8 ± 1.2	0.5 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0
10	Continuous	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
10	12 h:12 h	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND

¹Irradiance ~138-142 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ continuously for 24 h or 12 h of light period followed by 12 h of dark.

Standard deviations are shown for duplicate runs, except for the control (duplicate samples of a single run were used to calculate the standard deviations values for the control);

ND = not determined

For *N. salina*, the lipid content in the biomass was unaffected by nitrate starvation (Table 4.10) and therefore the lipid productivity of the control culture was highest at $22.1 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$. Consistent with the lipid levels, the calorific values were not affected by N starvation (Table 4.10). This behavior is peculiar for *N. salina* and has been reported before (Boussiba *et al.*, 1987). As for the elemental content of the biomass, the N content was low in the biomass produced under low nitrate conditions.

In summary, an initial nitrate level of 20% of control was found to not affect biomass productivity and because of a high lipid content of ~66% in the biomass, the lipid productivity was 1.5 fold higher than in *C. vulgaris* control. Therefore, *C. vulgaris* was assessed to be the most promising of the algal strains tested. A highest lipid productivity of $\sim 31 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ under nitrate deficient conditions could be achieved for this alga. In the literature, the highest lipid productivity reported for *C. vulgaris* under N starvation has been $\sim 132 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (lipid content ~46%) in a freshwater medium in a 1 L photobioreactor (Yeh and Chang, 2011). The biomass concentration of the reported study and present work were comparable at $\sim 2 \text{ g L}^{-1}$. Unfortunately, most freshwater strains of *C. vulgaris* have been found to not grow in full strength seawater.

In the present study, N starvation altered the composition of the biomass and caused a marked increase (~39-66%) in the lipid content of *C. vulgaris*. In *N. salina*, the lipid content was unaffected by N starvation but other changes in the composition of biomass may have occurred that were not considered in this study. Based on earlier studies, under nutrient sufficiency and absence of stress, *C. vulgaris* grown in freshwater media has been reported to have a lipid content of 14-22%, a carbohydrate content of 12-17% and a protein content of 51-58% (Spolaore *et al.*, 2006). In freshwater *C. vulgaris*, Yeh and Chang (2012) reported a lipid content of ~22%, a carbohydrate content of ~58% and a protein content of ~20% under N sufficient conditions. Under N deficiency, the

lipid content increased to ~53%, the carbohydrate level was reduced to ~40% and the protein content was 7%.

4.2.3.2a.a Biomass coloration

Algal biomass coloration appeared to be affected by nitrate limitation. Under nutrient sufficient conditions in continuous light and 12 h: 12 h light/dark cycling, the culture was dark green at peak biomass concentrations for both *C. vulgaris* and *N. salina*. This is expected for most green algae. The biomass is made green by a high content of chlorophyll. However, for both algae, grown under progressively nitrate-limited conditions, the intensity of green progressively reduced to pale green or yellow (Figure 4.12). This was because nitrate limitation induced changes in the composition of photosynthetic pigments. The chlorophyll content (green) was reduced and the content of secondary carotenoids (yellow, orange) may have increased (Ben-Amotz *et al.*, 1982). Nitrogen is essential for the synthesis of chlorophyll as each molecule of this pigment contains the equivalent of two molecules of nitrogen. The level of light is also known for altering the level of photosynthetic pigments. For example, under nitrogen sufficiency, chlorophyll content in the biomass is decreased at high light intensity (Hu, 2004) as less chlorophyll is needed to capture the readily available light. In this study irradiance of $138\text{-}142\ \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ was constant but the duration of light period induced changes in the culture color (Figure 4.13).

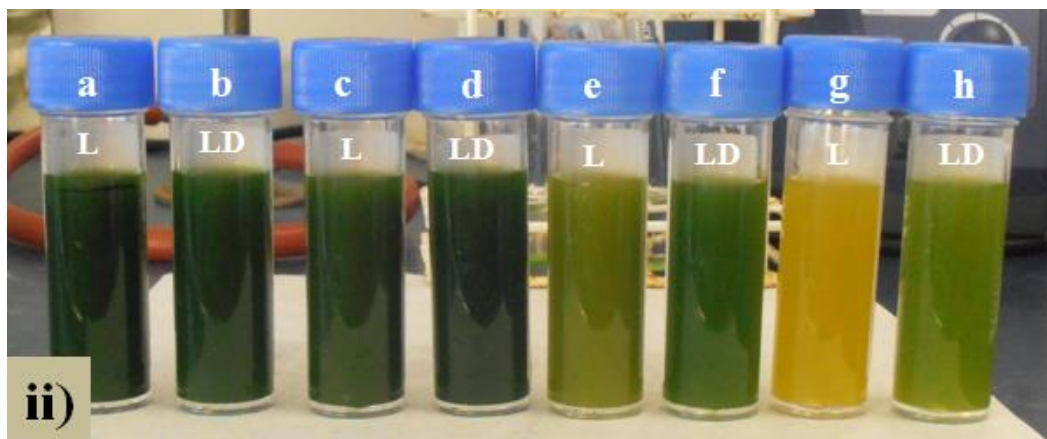
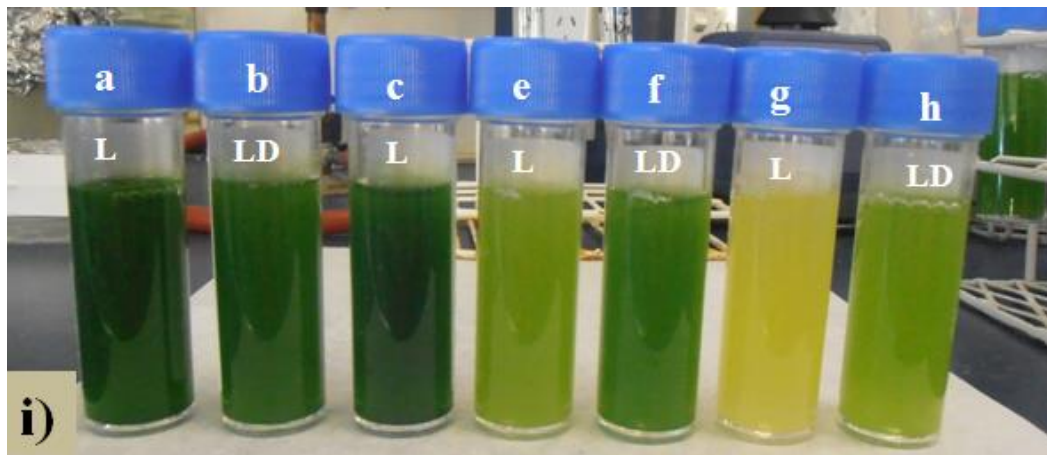


Figure 4.12 Different colors of algal broth as a consequence of different initial nitrate levels in the media: i) *C. vulgaris* (on day 52); ii) *N. salina* (on day 49). (a, b) 100% initial nitrate; (c, d) 50% initial nitrate; (e, f) 20% initial nitrate; (g, h) 10% initial nitrate. All samples labeled “L” had been continuously illuminated. All samples labeled “LD” had been illuminated by a 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle. For biomass concentrations in individual samples, see Table 4.7 and Table 4.9.

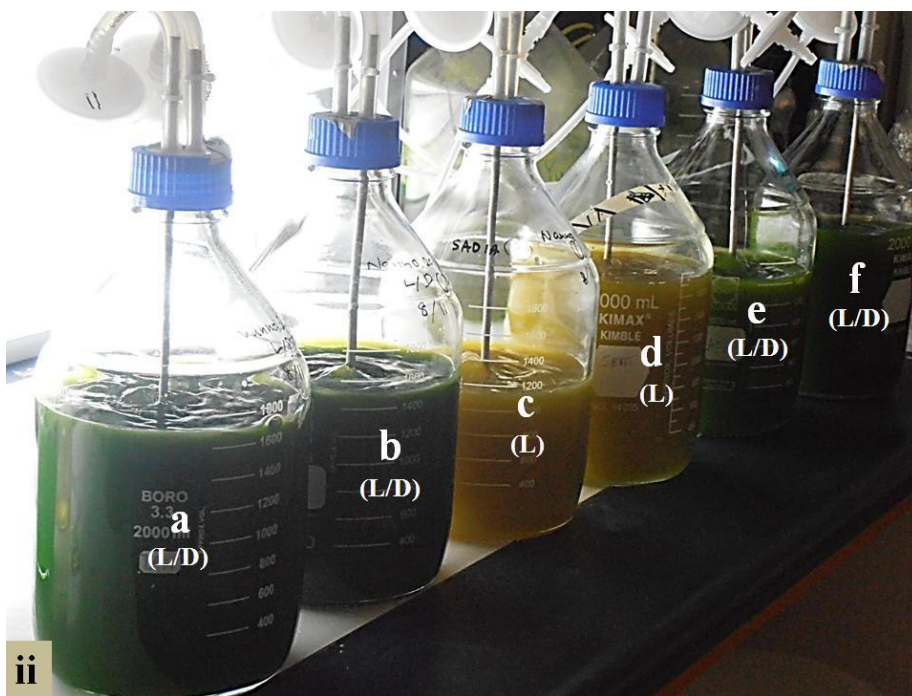
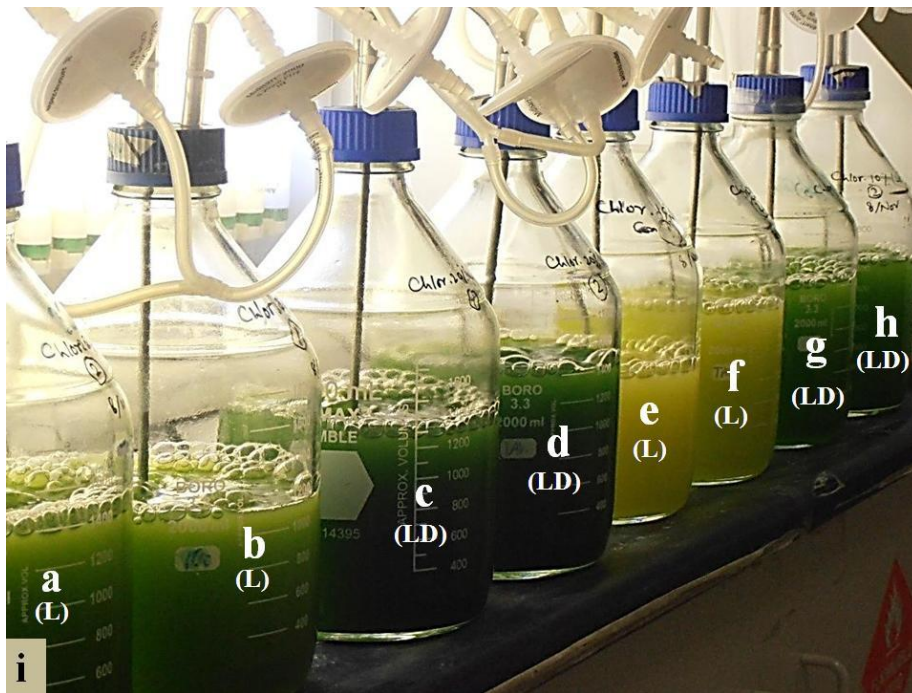


Figure 4.13 Duran bottles cultures of two microalgae on day 46: (i) *C. vulgaris* (a, b, c, d) 20% initial nitrate, (e, f, g, h) 10% initial nitrate; (ii) *N. salina* (a, b) 20% initial nitrate, (c, d, e, f) 10% initial nitrate. All bottles labeled “L” had been continuously illuminated. All bottles labeled “LD” had been illuminated by a 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle.

The microscopic images of the live cells of *C. vulgaris* and *N. salina* were taken (Figure 4.14 and Figure 4.15) at harvest on day 46 and day 49, respectively, to view possible morphological changes. It was noticed that the chlorophyll pigment content of cells were significantly reduced and barely visible in the culture grown at 10% initial nitrate concentration (Figure 4.14 and Figure 4.15). In the control culture, normal levels of chlorophyll pigment could be seen (Figure 4.14 and Figure 4.15). In *C. vulgaris*, rounded bodies could be seen in the cells (Figure 4.14). These occupied roughly 50% of the space in the cells and were more pronounced in cells grown under nitrate-deficient condition. The intracellular inclusions in *C. vulgaris* may have been lipid droplets, but Nile red staining could not be performed on these cultures. (The results in Table 4.8 did show an increased lipid level in this alga as a consequence of N starvation.)

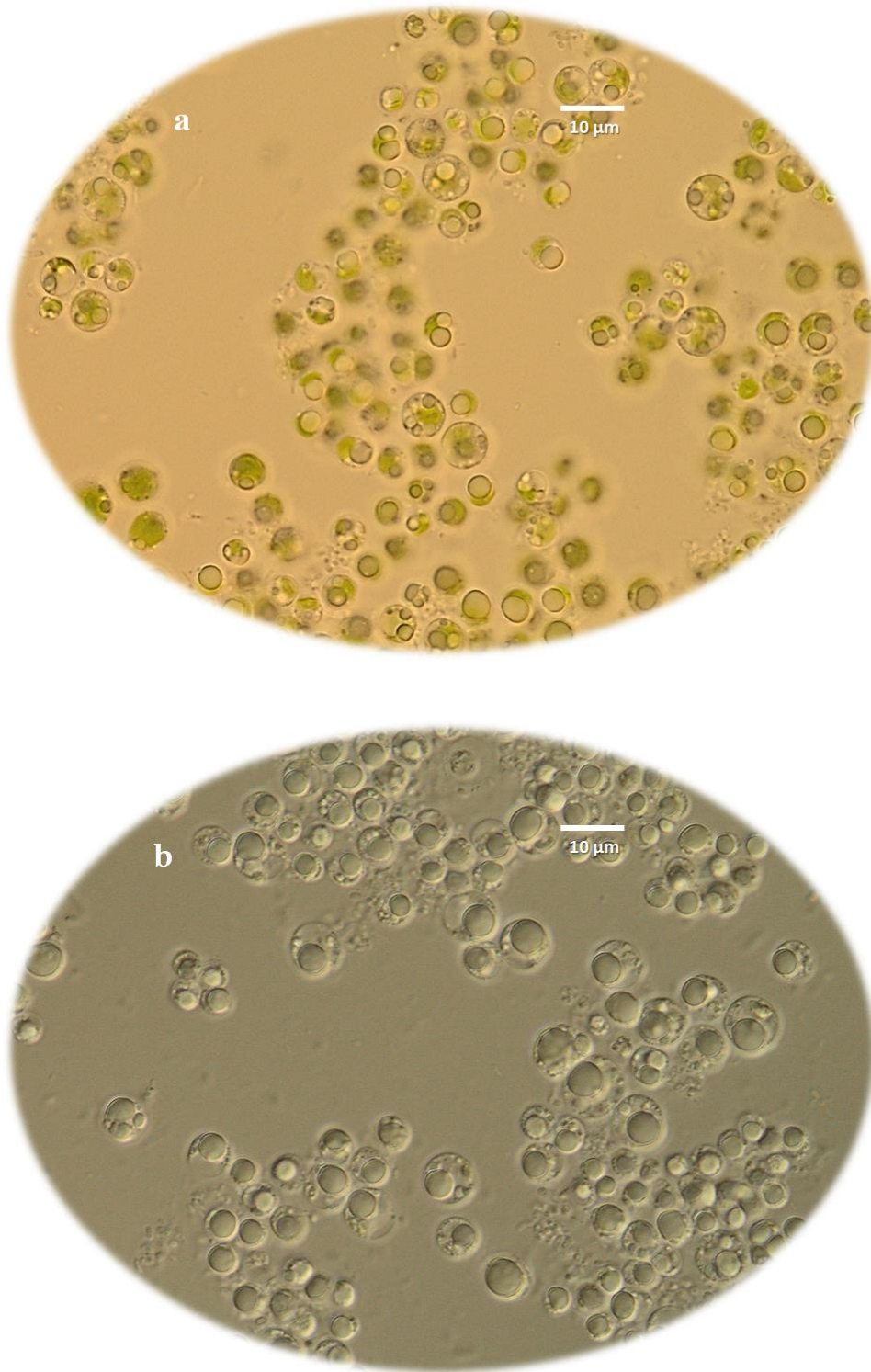


Figure 4.14 Light microscopic images (day 46) of *C. vulgaris* cells grown in continuous light with an initial nitrate concentration of: (a) 100% (control) and (b) 10%.

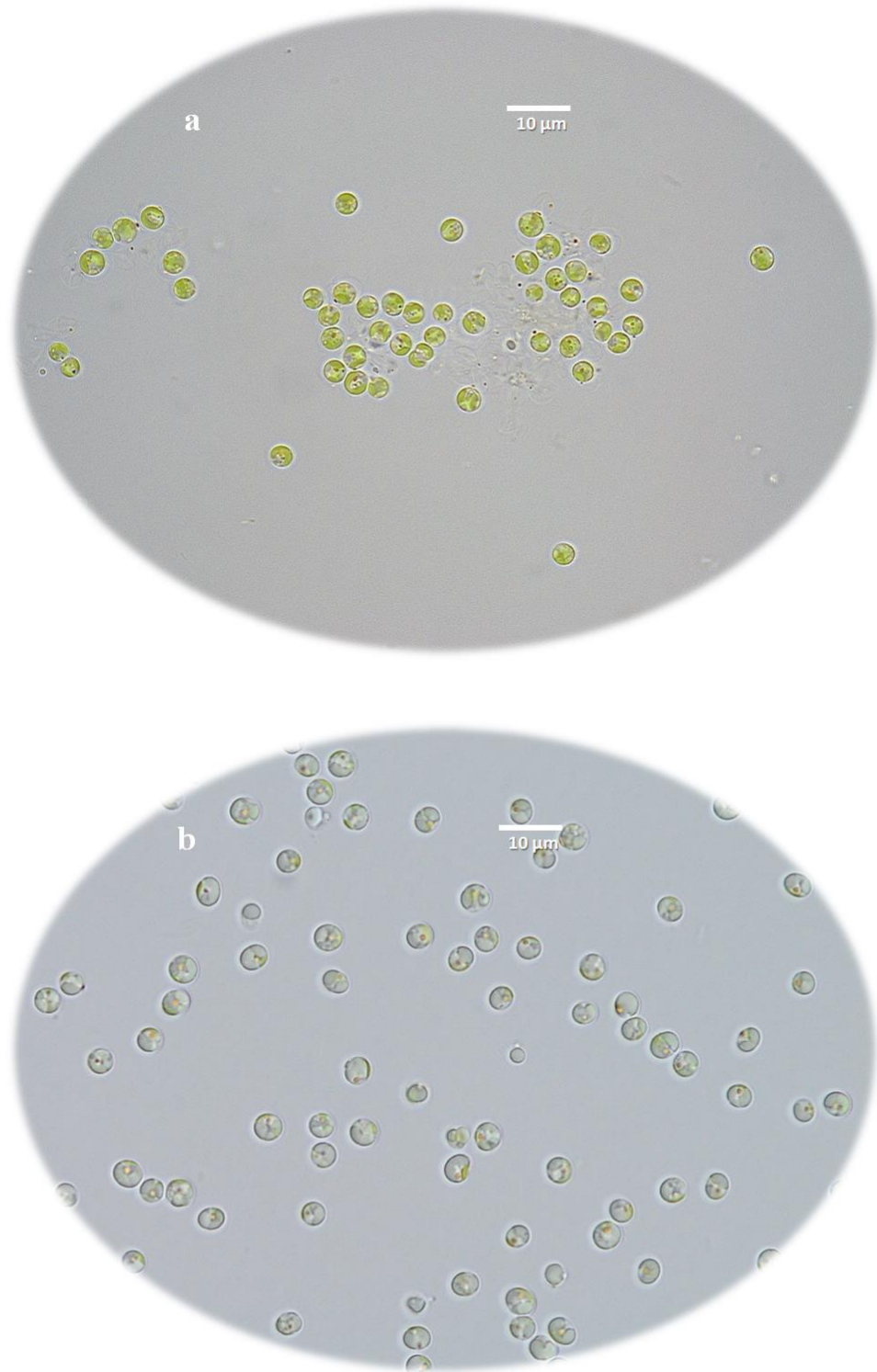


Figure 4.15 Light microscopic images (day 49) of *N. salina* cells grown in continuous light with an initial nitrate concentration of: (a) 100% (control) and (b) 10%.

4.3 Biomass production in the raceway

4.3.1 Raceway batch culture

Based on Duran bottle results, *C. vulgaris* was chosen for further evaluation in the raceway pond. Raceway batch experiments were intended to establish the maximum attainable biomass concentration and lipid contents in the biomass under normal growth conditions and other conditions (e.g. different initial nitrogen levels).

4.3.1.1 Standard raceway batch culture (normal operational conditions)

C. vulgaris was grown in the raceway to obtain baseline data using the standard BG11 seawater medium under continuous illumination and 12 h: 12 h diurnal cycle at various levels. Three batches were run as specified in Section 3.2.3. The batches ran for ~30-65 days each. In all cases the temperature was controlled at 20.5 ± 0.9 °C and the pH was controlled at 6.7 ± 0.1 by automatic feeding of CO₂. The rotational speed of the paddlewheel was 5 on the potentiometer to produce a flow velocity of 0.21 ± 0.02 m s⁻¹ as shown in Figure 3.11 and Figure 3.12. The working volume of raceway was ~138 L, except batch-1 which was ~133 L. Salinity of the individual batches varied a little because of the evaporation and make up, but was generally within the range for seawater, i.e. ~37.2 ppt. The batches 1-3 had salinities of 43.1 ± 0.5 ppt, 38.0 ± 0.3 ppt and 31.9 ± 0.3 ppt, respectively.

The batches 1 and 2 were illuminated using continuous fluorescent light at a PAR level of $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Batch 3 was illuminated using LED lights (Section 3.2.3) under a 12 h:12 h diurnal cycle. The irradiance level varied from zero to the peak value (100% output) from the start of the day to the midday point. Then the irradiance level declined. The actual irradiance profile is shown in Figure 3.7 and Figure 3.8. The inoculum size for the batches was 10% (v/v) in batch 1 and 5-6% (v/v) for batches 2 and 3. The inoculum age was 49 days for batch-1 and 15 days for batches-2 and 3.

The culture profiles of the three batches are shown in Figure 4.16. The batches 1 and 2 that were run under continuous light attained peak biomass concentrations of 0.44 g L⁻¹ and 0.66 g L⁻¹, respectively, in 30-35 days (Figure 4.16). The batch-3 with a day/night irradiance cycle, attained a maximum biomass concentration of 1.11 ± 0.03 g L⁻¹ in 60 days. These biomass concentrations were within the range reported for 25 cm deep outdoor raceways located in tropical regions (Becker, 1994). Biomass productivities in the raceway batch-2 and batch-3 were similar (17.4 and 20 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively; Table 4.11). Although the time to reach the maximum concentration was longer in batch-3 due to day/night cycling, the peak biomass concentration was higher than in batch-2 because the day-night averaged irradiance was nearly 3-fold the level in batch-2.

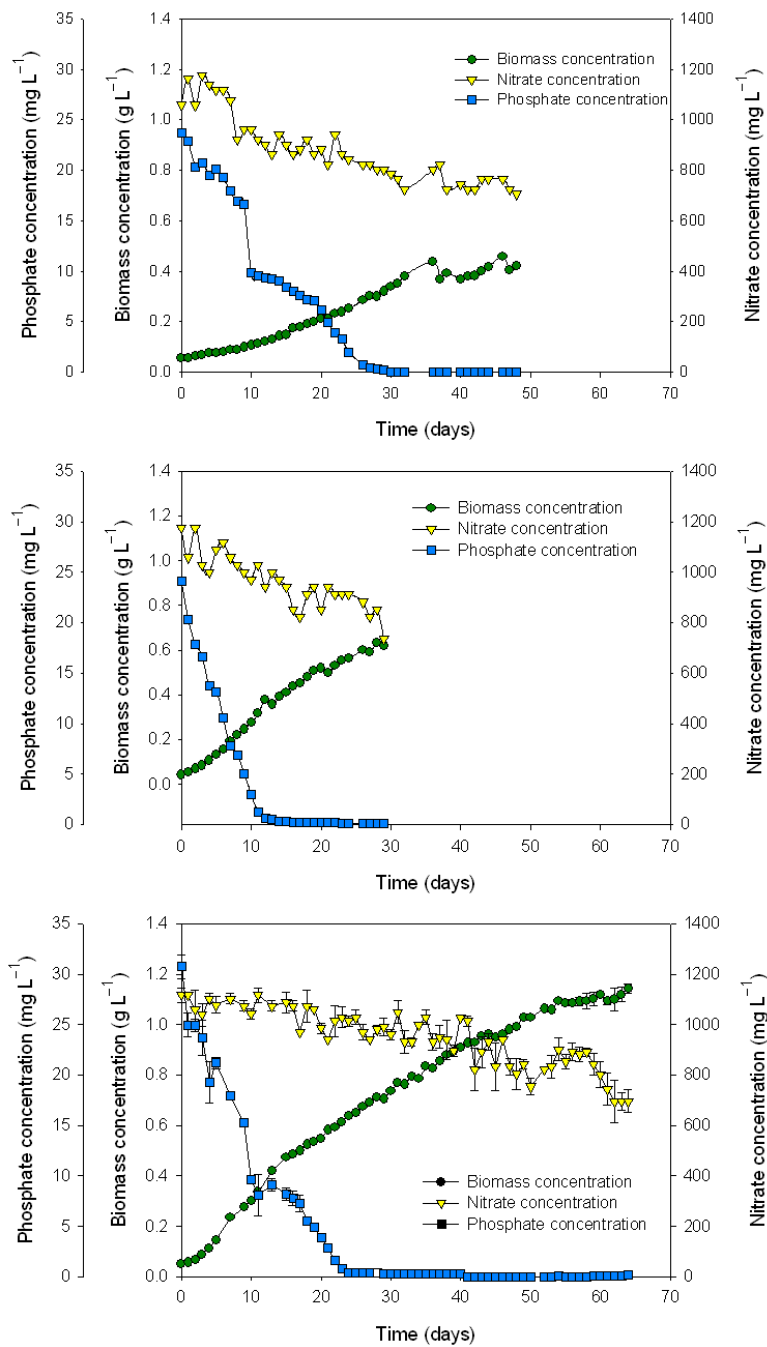


Figure 4.16 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *C. vulgaris* in raceway: a) Batch-1 with continuous irradiance of $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ from fluorescent light; b) Batch-2, same as batch-1; c) Batch-3 cultured under LED light (100% light output at midday (day-night averaged irradiance of $280 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle). All batches started with 5-6% (v/v) inoculum except batch-1 for which the inoculum size was 10.5% (v/v). Standard deviations for the raceway batch-3 are based on triplicate samples for biomass and nitrate and duplicate samples for phosphate.

The raceway batch-2 attained the highest specific growth rate at 0.185 d^{-1} (Table 4.11) demonstrating the capability of the culture system. However, as in all algae culture systems, the growth rate declined (Figure 4.16) as the cell concentration increased and self-shading limited the availability of light, the growth controlling factor.

Nitrate and phosphate concentrations declined with time because of consumption by the biomass. The cultures (Figure 4.16) were always nitrate sufficient and at harvest, $>600 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ of nitrate remained in the broth. This nitrate concentration was enough to support further growth, but the culture did not grow further due to light limitation as explained later in this section.

In view of the extensive prior experience with reproducibility of the various measurements from the Duran bottle cultures, replicate measurements were made only for a selection of samples in the profiles shown in Figure 4.16. Within a sample, the biomass measurements were reproducible within $\pm 3.5 \%$ of the mean value. The fluctuations in the nitrate measurements (Figure 4.16) are a result of evaporation and daily addition of the make-up water.

Phosphate concentration declined to nil within 27 days (Figure 4.16). All cultures continued to grow even after phosphate had run out, a phenomenon that has been commonly seen in microalgae (Miyachi and Tamiya, 1961; Miyachi *et al.*, 1964; Cembella *et al.*, 1984; John and Flynn, 2000) as discussed in Section 4.2.3.1b. The rate of phosphate consumption in the raceway (Figure 4.16) was much slower than seen previously in Duran bottles (Section 4.2.3.1). This was because the biomass growth in the raceway was slower than in the Duran bottles because of light limitations.

The culture kinetics of the three raceway batches are given in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 *C. vulgaris* raceway batch culture kinetics (standard BG11 medium)

Kinetic parameters ¹	Batch-1 ^a	Batch-2 ^b	Batch-3 ^c
Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	0.072	0.185	0.106
Maximum biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	0.44	0.66	1.11 ± 0.00
Biomass productivity, P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	10.5	20.5	17.6 ± 0.55
Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg ⁻¹)	0.001	0.002	0.003
Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg ⁻¹)	0.015	0.026	0.035
Average N consumption rate, q_N (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	18.6	20.7	4.9
Average P consumption rate, q_P (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	1.7	1.3	0.5

¹Biomass kinetic parameters were calculated at the point of peak biomass concentration attained on day 36 (batch-1), day 30 (batch-2) and day 60 (batch-3).

^aBatch-1 = fluorescent continuous light; ^bBatch-2 = fluorescent continuous light; ^cBatch-3 = LED light and 12:12 h day/night cycle.

Standard deviations are based on triplicate samples.

For otherwise identical conditions, the alga grew best under a 12:12 h light-dark cycle as would normally occur in nature (Table 4.11). In this production regimen, the day-night averaged irradiance level was 280 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (Figure 3.7) compared with an average level of 91 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ for continuous illumination. Although the source of light can have an impact on the photosynthetic efficiency (Matthijs *et al.*, 1996) comparing light sources based on the actual measured PAR (photosynthetically active radiation), as in this work, is independent of the source. That is, in principle, red LEDs with a given PAR output should provide the same growth performance as fluorescent light with the same PAR output.

The main reason for the low final biomass concentration in the raceway compared with the Duran bottles was limitation of light. Figure 3.9 shows the measured irradiance profiles in freshwater at various incident irradiance values in the raceway. Even in clear

water, the local irradiance value declined rapidly with depth. The measured irradiance profile in *C. vulgaris* culture with 0.5 g L^{-1} of biomass concentration is shown in Figure 3.10. A sharp decline in irradiance was found just below the surface of the broth. At a depth of 0.02 m from the surface, barely any light remained. This demonstrates that at a concentration of 0.5 g L^{-1} algal cells receive light only at the surface of broth. In commercial raceway ponds, the depth ranges from 0.2 to 0.3 m (Borowitzka, 2005). In some experimental and commercial raceways that were 0.11 to 0.25 m deep, the reported maximum biomass concentrations has ranged between 0.2 and 1 g L^{-1} under conditions of outdoor natural illumination (Richmond, 1990; Hase *et al.*, 2000; Pulz, 2001; Tredici, 2004; Moheimani and Borowitzka, 2006) .

In 2 L Duran bottle experiments, the biomass concentration was considerably higher, e.g. $\sim 3.3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ (Table 4.1) and was attained in a shorter period (20 days) with an irradiance of $100\text{-}150 \text{ }\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (fluorescent light). The culture depth in 2 L Duran bottles was $\sim 0.11 \text{ m}$ (Figure 3.1), which made light penetration easier than in the raceway.

Live cells of *C. vulgaris* were checked for the presence of stored neutral lipids using the Nile red dye method (Else *et al.*, 2007) explained in Section 3.3.6. A photomicrograph is shown in Figure 4.17. The lipid droplets appear as golden-yellow fluorescence while red auto-fluorescence was from chlorophyll (Figure 4.17). The neutral lipids were visible (clear yellow lipid bodies in Figure 4.17) but in a relatively small quantity, as expected, because under nutrient sufficient growth conditions, microalgae generally synthesize polar lipids (i.e. phospholipids and glycolipids) (Guckert and Cooksey, 1990) whereas neutral lipids accumulate (as triglycerides) under nutrient limiting conditions (Hu *et al.*, 2008).

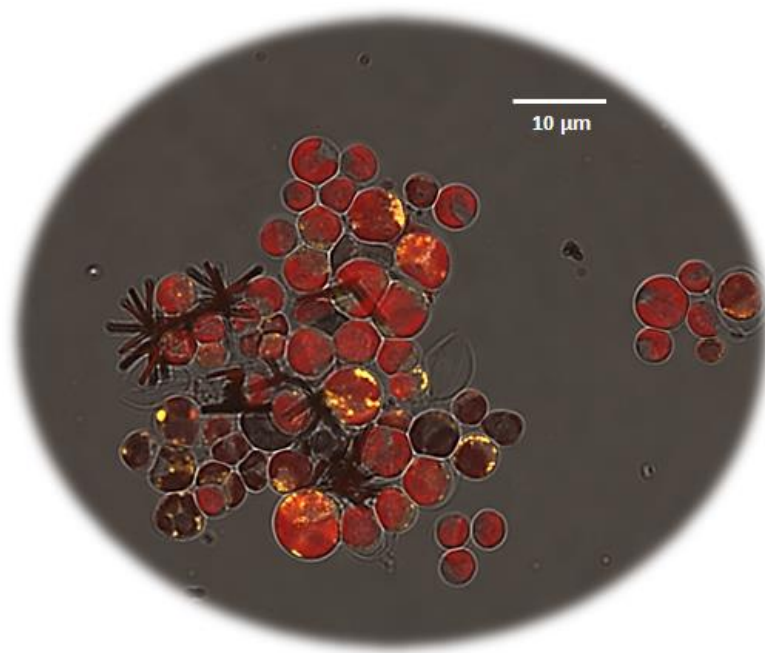


Figure 4.17 Fluorescent confocal microscopic image of *C. vulgaris* culture (stained with Nile Red) from Raceway batch-3 (image taken at day 34 of growth cycle, some debris can also be seen in the image).

The biomass recovered from the culture broth was analyzed for total lipids, the calorific values and the fraction of C, N and S in the biomass. The relevant data are shown in Table 4.12 and Table 4.13.

Table 4.12 Lipid contents and calorific values of biomass samples

Batch	Lipid content (%, w/w)	Lipid productivity, P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value (kJ g ⁻¹)
Batch-1	11.5 ± 0.7	1.2	20.9 ¹
Batch-2	ND	ND	ND
Batch-3	25.1 ± 0.2	4.4 ± 0.0	21.6 ± 0.3

¹The calorific value of the oil was 31.7 kJ g⁻¹; ND = not determined; standard deviations are based on duplicate samples.

Lipid contents of the biomass were in the range of 11.5-25.1% (w/w) (Table 4.12). Lipid content of the biomass of batch-2 could not be estimated because the batch was switched to a continuous mode of operation. The lipid contents of these batches that were run under nutrient sufficient conditions, were within the expected range of ~18-25% w/w.

The calorific values of the biomass samples (Table 4.12) were relatively low but consistent with the other studies. For example, Illman *et al.* (2000) and Scragg *et al.* (2002) reported calorific values of 18 kJ g^{-1} and 21 kJ g^{-1} , respectively, for *C. vulgaris* grown in nutrient sufficient media in freshwater.

Generally, lipids are the most energetic compounds in a cell and, therefore, the calorific value is expected to directly correlate with the lipid content of the biomass (Illman *et al.*, 2000). This notwithstanding, other compounds (carbohydrates, proteins, etc.) also contribute to the energy content of the cell. The composition of the biomass determines its energy content (Sudhakar *et al.*, 2012). The net calorific values can be estimated for a given microalgae by using the following calorific values for individual compounds: 38.3 kJ g^{-1} for lipid, 13 kJ g^{-1} for carbohydrate and 15.5 kJ g^{-1} for protein (Lardon *et al.*, 2009). Thus, for an alga with a composition of 40% lipid, 40% carbohydrate and 20% protein the estimated calorific value would be $(0.4 \times 38.3) + (0.4 \times 13.0) + (0.2 \times 15.5)$, or 23.6 kJ g^{-1} .

The C, N, and S contents of biomass (Table 4.13) were consistent with expectation for general algal biomass (Williams and Laurens, 2009). Carbon of course is an essential part of all organic molecules that make up the cell. N is found mainly in proteins, DNA, RNA and chlorophyll. S is a constituent of certain amino acids. The carbon content was around 47% (w/w) and similar to what has been reported for other

algae (Sánchez Mirón *et al.*, 2003). All the carbon in the biomass is acquired from carbon dioxide, an essential nutrient required by algae.

Calorific value of the oil was also measured in one case and was 31.7 kJ g⁻¹ (Table 4.12). This value was lower than a calorific value of 36.2 kJ g⁻¹ as estimated for algal lipids by Williams and Laurens (2009), or a value of 38.3 kJ g⁻¹ as estimated by Lardon *et al.* (2009). The estimates published are reasonable for only triglyceride oils, but not all algal oils are triglycerides.

Table 4.13 Elements (% , w/w) in *C. vulgaris* biomass from various raceway batches

Raceway batch	Carbon	Nitrogen	Sulfur
	(%)	(%)	(%)
Batch-1	47.6	7.5	0.8
Batch-2	ND	ND	ND
Batch-3	48.2	6.8	0.8

ND = Not determined because the raceway batch-2 was switched to continuous operation

4.3.1.1a Analysis of *C. vulgaris* crude oil from raceway batch-1

C. vulgaris crude oil extracted from the biomass of the batch-1 was fractionated into different lipid classes (i.e., neutral lipids, glycolipids and phospholipids; Table 4.14). Fatty acid profile of the total lipids was determined (Table 4.15). All these analyses were intended to characterize the crude oil with regards to its constituents. These aspects are discussed in the following sections.

4.3.1.1b Fractionation of *C. vulgaris* lipids into different lipid classes

The crude oil consisted of neutral lipids (14.1%), phospholipids (19.4%) and glycolipids (66.2%) (Table 4.14). The neutral lipid content was low, and the neutral lipids were not fractionated further for estimating the triglycerides.

Table 4.14 Fractionation of lipids from raceway batch-1

Lipid class	Lipids fraction in total lipids^{1,2} (%, w/w)	Lipids fraction in biomass (%, w/w)
Neutral lipids	14.1	1.3
Phospholipids	19.4	1.8
Glycolipids	66.2	6.0

¹Fractionation according to Kates (1986)

²Total lipid sample ~257 mg dissolved in chloroform was used for analysis

4.3.1.1c Fatty acid profile of *C. vulgaris* oil

Fatty acid profile of one algal crude oil sample (raceway batch-1) was characterized as explained in Section 3.3.5.2. This is potentially of interest if the intention is to produce biodiesel from algal oil as the characteristics of the biodiesel are influenced by fatty acids present in the triglyceride oil used for making the biodiesel (Williams and Laurens, 2009). The fatty acid profile is shown in Table 4.15. From the data in Table 4.15, fatty acids comprised only 2% (w/w) of the algal crude oil. Of the fatty acids present, 21.2% (w/w) were saturated, 17.2% were monounsaturated and 61.6% were polyunsaturated. This was generally consistent with expectations, as algal oils are known to be rich in polyunsaturated fatty acids (Jamieson and Reid, 1972; Belarbi *et al.*, 2000). In view of a high concentration of polyunsaturated fatty acids, *C. vulgaris* oil is unlikely to be suitable for making biodiesel, but may be used to make diesel, gasoline and kerosene through catalytic treatment (Chisti, 2012).

Table 4.15 Fatty acid profile of crude oil of *C. vulgaris* (raceway batch-1)

Fatty acid profile¹	Concentration in oil² (g/100 g)
C6:0 Caproic	ND
C8:0 Caprylic	ND
C10:0 Capric	ND
C11:0 Undecanoic	ND
C12:0 Lauric	0.03
C13:0 Tridecanoic	ND
C14:0 Myristic	ND
C14:1n5 - cis-9-Myristoleic	ND
C15:1n5 - cis-10-Pentadecenoic	ND
C16:0 Palmitic	0.38
C16:1n7 - cis-9-Palmitoleic	0.05
C17:0 Margaric	ND
C17:1n7 - cis-10-Heptadecenoic	ND
C18:0 Stearic	0.02
C18:1n9t Elaidic	ND
C18:1n7t Vaccenic	ND
C18:1n9c Oleic	0.19
C18:1n7c Vaccenic	0.11
C18:2n6t Linolelaidic	ND
C18:2n6c Linoleic	0.64
C20:0 Arachidic	ND
C18:3n6 - cis-6,9,12-Gamma linolenic	ND
C20:1n9 - cis-11-Eicosenoic	ND
C18:3n3 - cis-9,12,15-Alpha linolenic	0.61
C21:0 Heneicosanoic	ND
C20:2n6 - cis-11,14-Eicosadienoic	ND

Table 4.15 Fatty acid profile of crude oil of *C. vulgaris* (raceway batch-1) (Cont.)

Fatty acid profile ¹	Concentration in oil ² (g/100 g)
C22:0 Behenic	ND
C20:3n6 - cis-8,11,14-Eicosatrienoic	ND
C22:1n9 - cis-13-Erucic	ND
C20:3n3 - cis-11,14,17-Eicosatrienoic	ND
C23:0 Tricosanoic	ND
C20:4n6 - cis-5,8,11,14-Arachidonic	ND
C22:2n6 - cis-13,16-Docosadienoic	ND
C24:0 Lignoceric	ND
C20:5n3 - cis-5,8,11,14,17-Epa	ND
C24:1n9 - cis-15- Nervonic	ND
C22:5n3 - cis-7,10,13,16,19-DPA	ND
C22:6n3 - cis-4,7,10,13,16,19-DHA	ND

¹Method used: FAME, GC separation (Section 3.3.7).

²Dry oil sample ~400 mg sent to Nutritional Laboratory, Institute of Food, Nutrition and Human Health, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.

ND = Not detected.

4.3.1.1c Concentrations of certain elements in *C. vulgaris* oil

Chemical catalytic processes have been developed to convert crude oils to gasoline, diesel and kerosene (Chisti, 2012). These processes are quite different from the process used in making biodiesel from vegetable oils that are predominately triglyceride type of oils. Alternative methods of making conventional fuels from algal crude oil are necessary because triglycerides often constitute only a small portion of the total algal oil and therefore cannot become a viable basis for making biodiesel as a large proportion of the oil would not be used.

Unfortunately, some of the chemical catalysts used in transforming algal oils to useable fuels are susceptible to poisoning by elements such as Ca, Mg, P, Cu, Na, S, Fe and N. Therefore, there was some interest in determining the concentration of the relevant elements in some crude oil samples. As shown in Table 4.16, significant quantities of the undesired elements were present in *C. vulgaris* crude oil. In fact, for most of these elements, the levels present were higher than would be acceptable. Therefore, treatment processes will be required to reduce the concentration of the unwanted trace elements. Possible options may be to wash the crude oil repeatedly with dilute acid, or with dilute acid mixed with a chelating agent such as EDTA, to remove some of the metal ions.

Table 4.16 Elemental content of crude *C. vulgaris* oil from the raceway batch-1

Element	Method used¹	Measured concentration in oil² (mg/kg)	Detection limit (mg/kg)
Calcium, Ca	ICP-OES	78	0.20
Magnesium, Mg	ICP-OES	1700	0.20
Phosphorus, P	ICP-OES	3800	1.0
Sodium, Na	ICP-OES	1400	5.0
Copper, Cu	ICP-MS	42	0.005
Sulfur, S	ICP-OES	3700	1.0
Iron, Fe	ICP-OES	40	0.10
Chloride, Cl	Potentiometric titration	50	<1.0
Nitrogen, N	Dumas combustion	13000	20

¹ICP-OES (inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry) and ¹ICP-MS (inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry); ²Dry oil sample ~500 mg sent to Hills Laboratories, Hamilton, New Zealand, for analysis.

4.3.1.2 Effect of low irradiance

The raceway batch-4 was setup with a relatively low irradiance to determine the maximum attainable biomass concentration and the lipid contents of the biomass. The peak LED light output level was 50% of the maximum and corresponded to a day-night averaged PAR value of $165 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Understanding the effect of light is important in view of its seasonal variations. Other than irradiance, all growth conditions of batch-4 were the same as for raceway batch-3 (Section 4.3.1.1).

The *C. vulgaris* starter culture for raceway batch-4 had been grown in Duran bottles for 21 days under normal culture conditions (standard BG11 seawater medium; continuous fluorescent illumination at $153 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). The inoculum constituted 6% of the total volume of the raceway culture. The growth temperature ($20.6 \pm 1.6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), the pH (6.7 ± 0.1) and salinity (39.7 ± 1.2 ppt) were monitored regularly at samplings and were constant within the above limits.

The illumination was from LED lights (Section 3.2.3) at 12 h:12 h diurnal cycle. The light level varied from zero to the peak value (50% of full light output) in 12 h and then declined, as shown in Figure 3.7b. The day-night averaged PAR value was $165 \mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$.

The culture profiles of the batch-4 are shown in Figure 4.18. The specific growth rate was relatively low, i.e. 0.086 d^{-1} , in comparison with the batch-3 raceway experiment (Table 4.11). (Batch-3 had a specific growth rate of 0.106 d^{-1} .) In raceway batch-4, the peak biomass concentration was $0.39 \pm 0.00 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ attained in 56 days with a day/night cycle (Table 4.17). This was only about 35% compared to the biomass concentration of $1.11 \pm 0.00 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ (Table 4.11) under 100% light level with 12 h:12 h diurnal cycle. Biomass productivity was reduced to $5.8 \pm 0.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ compared to the full light condition productivity of $17.6 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Table 4.11).

Nitrate consumption ceased (Figure 4.18) once the biomass ceased to grow. The phosphate ran out on day 34 but the culture continued to grow. Similar nutrient consumption patterns were discussed previously in Section 4.3.1.1.

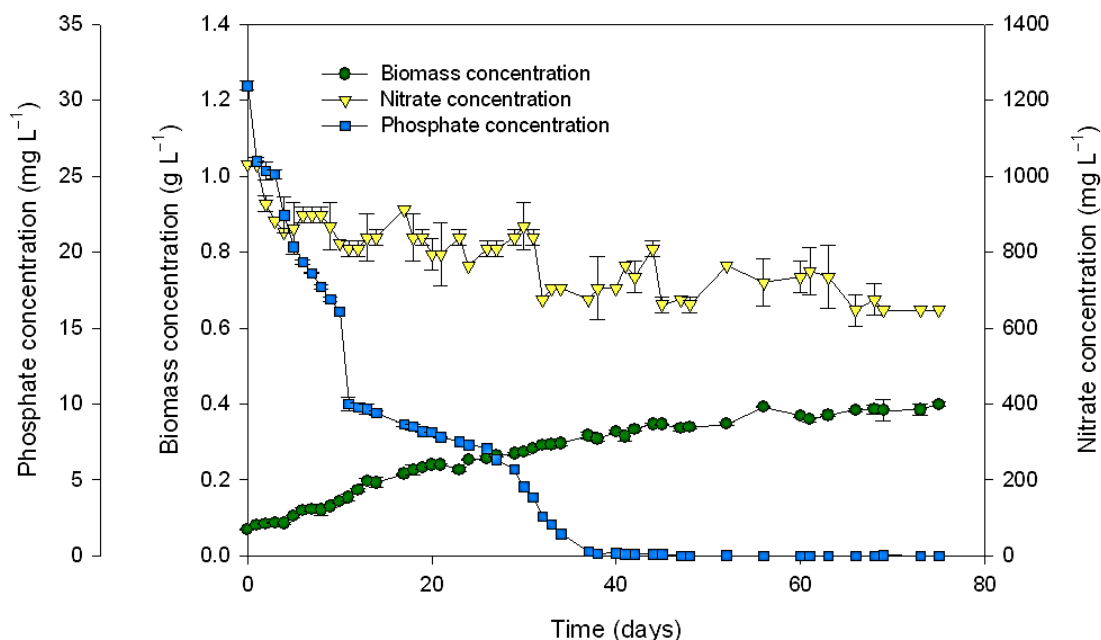


Figure 4.18. Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *C. vulgaris* in raceway batch-4 with LED light (50% of full light output at midday (day-night averaged irradiance of $165 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), 12 h:12 h light/dark cycle). Standard deviations are based on triplicate samples for the biomass measurements and duplicate samples for the nitrate and phosphate measurements.

During stationary phase of growth, a volume of 5-10 L of culture broth was harvested (at different times) to see if the lipid content of the biomass varied with age in the stationary phase (Table 4.18). No significant change in lipid contents was found (Table 4.18). The calorific values, and the contents of C, N, S, P in the biomass are shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.17 *C. vulgaris* raceway batch culture kinetics (low irradiance condition)

Kinetic parameters ¹	At 50% light output level ²
Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	0.086
Maximum biomass concentration ^a (g L ⁻¹)	0.39 ± 0.00
Biomass productivity ^a , P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	5.8 ± 0.02
Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg ⁻¹)	0.001
Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg ⁻¹)	0.010
Average N consumption rate, q_N (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	17.1
Average P consumption rate, q_P (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	1.7
Lipid content ^b (% , w/w)	21.1 ± 0.1
Lipid productivity ^b , P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	1.2 ± 0.0

¹Kinetic parameters were calculated at the point of peak biomass concentration attained on day 56.

² LED lights with a 12:12 h diurnal cycle with 50% of normal full irradiance at peak (Figure 3.9).

^aTriplicate samples; ^bduplicate samples.

Table 4.18 Biomass characteristics of *C. vulgaris* at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-4

Batch harvest time ¹	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass productivity, <i>P_b</i> (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lipid content (%, w/w)	Lipid productivity, <i>P_l</i> (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass			
						C (%)	N (%)	S (%)	P (%)
Day 45	0.35 ± 0.20	6.2 ± 0.0	16.5 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.0	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 56	0.39 ± 0.00	5.8 ± 0.0	21.1 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.0	23.1	48.6	7.0	0.7	0.9
Day 68	0.39 ± 0.01	4.7 ± 0.0	22.9 ± 2.6	1.1 ± 0.0	23.3	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 75	0.40 ± 0.01	4.2 ± 0.1	22.4 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.0	23.8 ± 0.1	51.9 ± 0.4	6.8 ± 0.0	0.8 ± 0.0	0.6 ± 0.0

¹Harvesting was done after the culture had entered the stationary phase of growth.

ND = Not determined because the amount of the dried biomass was not sufficient for analyses.

Biomass standard deviation is based on triplicate samples; all other standard deviations are based on duplicate samples.

Lipid content measured at different harvest times was within the range of 16.5 to 22.4% (w/w) (Table 4.18). Also, the calorific values were essentially constant at $\sim 23 \text{ kJ g}^{-1}$ (Table 4.18). All these measurements were fairly stable throughout the stationary phase from Day 56 to 75. The calorific values as well as the C, N, S and P contents of biomass (Table 4.18) were comparable to the earlier measurements (Table 4.12 and Table 4.13) in the raceway carried out under nutrient sufficient conditions both with continuous light as well as with the day-night cycle (Section 4.3.1.1).

It is obvious from the results that a reduction in the day-night averaged light level to $165 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ reduced growth, but the lipid accumulation in the biomass was the same as was found under full light (i.e. $280 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ day-night averaged light level). Therefore the irradiance level affects the production of the biomass and lipids, but not the lipid content in the biomass at least in the irradiance range of $165\text{-}280 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. A low biomass productivity is expected under reduced irradiance as light always drives photosynthesis (Vonshak *et al.*, 1982; Richmond, 1986).

4.3.1.3 Effect of nitrate stress

The raceway batches were setup with low initial nitrate concentrations to determine the effect of this parameter on the maximum attainable biomass concentration and the lipid contents of the biomass. Based on the studies of nitrate stress in Duran bottles, a $\sim 20\%$ initial nitrate level relative to standard BG11 was used initially for raceway batch culture.

At first, two raceway batches (batch-5 and batch-6) of *C. vulgaris* were run with $\leq 21\%$ nitrate in BG11 (i.e. $\sim 21\%$ of standard BG11 nitrate level in batch-5 and $\sim 18\%$ of standard BG11 nitrate level in batch-6; Section 4.3.1.3a). Furthermore, a concentration of $\sim 10\%$ of normal initial nitrate in BG11 was also tested for *C. vulgaris* in raceway batch-7 (Section 4.3.1.3b). Other than the nitrate level in BG11 (seawater), all other

growth conditions of the various batches were similar: a 12 h:12 h diurnal cycle with 100% peak light output via LEDs (Section 3.2.3 and Section 4.3.1.1.), an average temperature of 19.6 ± 1.5 °C and pH of 6.7 ± 0.1 . The individual salinities of raceway batches 5-7 were 35.0 ± 0.5 ppt, 37.1 ± 0.7 ppt and 38.9 ± 0.4 ppt, respectively. The effect of increased rotational speed of the paddle wheel (i.e. from 5 to 8 on the potentiometer) was tested in raceway batch-6 only, during stationary growth phase (Section 4.3.1.3a). The inocula for all three batches were produced under nitrate sufficient condition in continuous fluorescent light (from 135 to 153 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). The inocula constituted 6% (v/v) of the initial batch volume.

Raceway batch-8 was run under nitrate stress using *N. salina*. During this batch the rotational speed of the paddlewheel was changed as described in Section 4.3.1.3c. The growth conditions were as for the other raceway batches.

4.3.1.3a Effect of $\leq 21\%$ of normal initial nitrate level on *C. vulgaris*

The culture profiles of batch-5 and batch-6 are shown in Figure 4.19. Both batches attained the maximum biomass concentration around day 60. The averaged specific growth rate of batch-5 and batch-6 was 0.131 ± 0.025 d^{-1} (Table 4.19), or comparable to a specific growth rate of 0.106 d^{-1} for the nutrient sufficient batch-3 (Table 4.11). The batch-5 and batch-6 attained comparable biomass concentrations of 0.91 g L^{-1} and 0.66 ± 0.00 g L^{-1} (Table 4.19), respectively. The nutrient sufficient batch-3 (Section 4.3.1.1) had a peak biomass concentration of 1.11 ± 0.03 g L^{-1} (Table 4.11).

In the growth profile of batch-5 the decline in the biomass concentration on day 76 (Figure 4.19a), was due to harvesting of a large volume (30 L) of culture broth and making it up with fresh BG11 (seawater) medium without nitrate and phosphate. Subsequently, periodic harvests occurred as identified in Table 4.20 and each time the

harvested volume was replaced with an equal volume of nitrate and phosphate-free BG11 seawater medium. The final harvest occurred on day 159. Due to periodic harvests, the biomass concentration progressively declined after about day 90 (Figure 4.19a). The biomass of each harvest was characterized for total lipids, calorific value and the elemental profile (Table 4.20).

In batch-6 with similar culture conditions as the batch-5, the speed setting of the paddlewheel was increased to 8 on the potentiometer to give a flow velocity of $0.30 \pm 0.03 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. This was done on day 97. This caused vigorous turbulence in the culture broth and the very next biomass sample on day 98 showed a sudden increase (~16% increase) in the biomass concentration (Figure 4.19b). This was attributed to resuspension of biomass that had settled at the bottom of the raceway pond and not to actual growth. The culture continued to run at the new speed setting for about 70 days (i.e. from day 96 until day 167). During this period the biomass was harvested several times as noted in Table 4.21. On day 162, paddlewheel speed was returned to normal potentiometer setting of 5, consequently to a flow velocity of $0.21 \pm 0.02 \text{ m s}^{-1}$.

The nutrient profiles of batch-5 and batch-6 (Figure 4.19) showed that by day 60 when the biomass stopped growing, the nitrate level in the media was low, but measurable. For both batches, the phosphate (Figure 4.19) had been consumed by around day 20.

Nitrate consumption rates in batch-5 and batch-6 were similar (Table 4.19) and comparable to the consumption rate in batch-3 (Table 4.11). Thus a low initial nitrate level of ~20% of normal, did not affect the specific nitrate consumption rate relative to the nitrate sufficient condition. The average specific phosphate uptake rate of batch-5 and batch-6 were comparable at $0.65 \pm 0.15 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Table 4.19). The nutrient sufficient batch-3 had a similar phosphate uptake rate at $0.5 \text{ mg g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Table 4.11).

The above results suggest that a reduced initial nitrate level of 18-20% of the normal level of BG11 seawater medium produces essentially identical growth results to the nutrient sufficient medium and allows average peak biomass concentration of about 0.8 g L^{-1} to be attained. At the end of the culture in the low nitrate medium, i.e. at the instance of peak biomass concentration, a detectable level of nitrate remained. Thus, in the raceway, where the light level limits the peak biomass concentration to an average of about 0.8 g L^{-1} , an initial nitrate level of ~20% of normal constitutes essentially a nutrient sufficient environment.

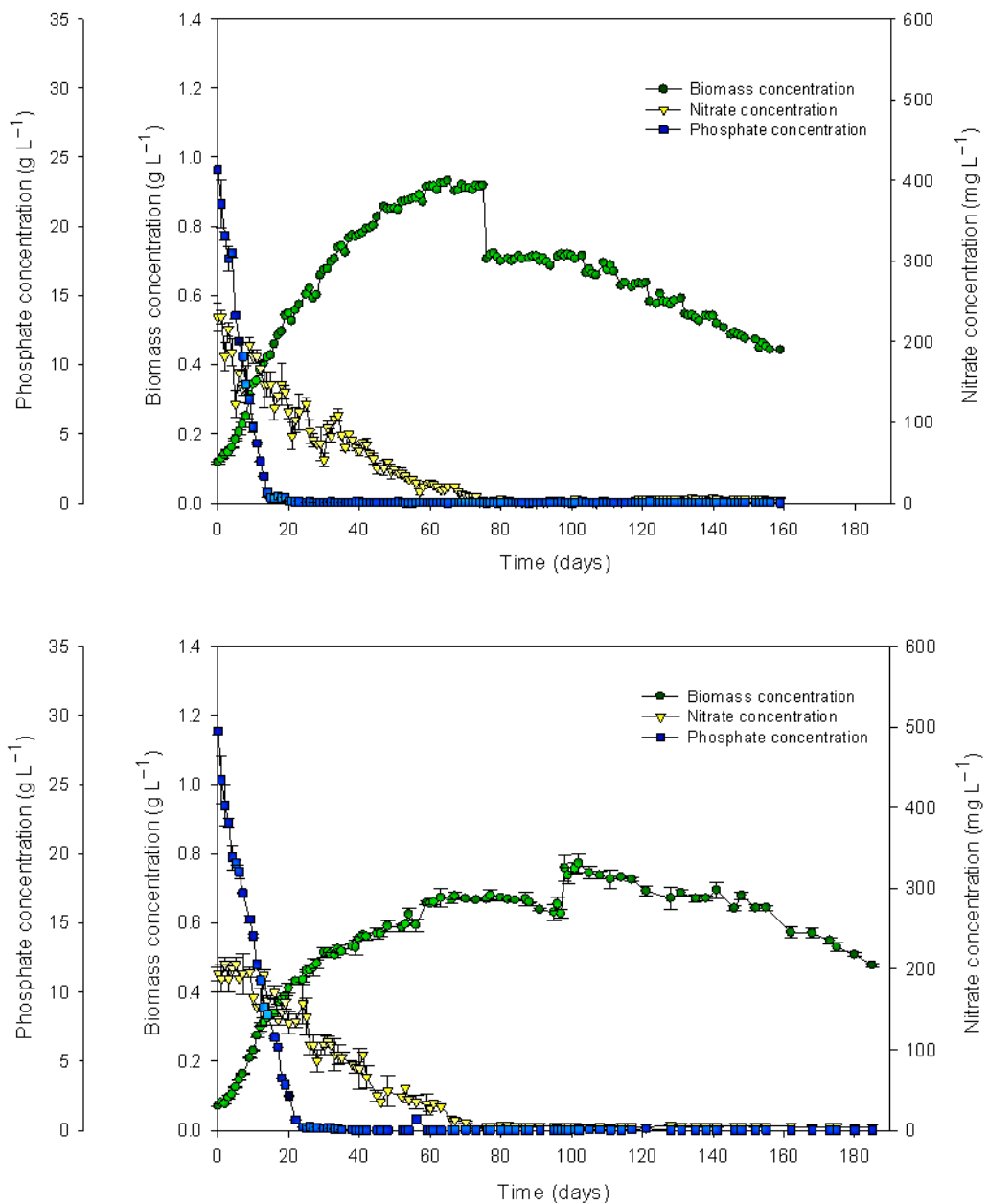


Figure 4.19 *C. vulgaris* growth and nutrient consumption profiles under nitrate stress: a) raceway batch-5 grown with ~20% of normal initial nitrate in BG11 (seawater); b) raceway batch-6 grown with ~18% of normal initial nitrate in BG11 (seawater). Biomass and nitrate standard deviations are based on triplicate samples; phosphate standard deviation is based on duplicate measurements.

Table 4.19 *C. vulgaris* raceway batch culture kinetics (low initial nitrate concentration)

Kinetic parameters ¹	Batch-5 ^a	Batch-6 ^b
Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	0.106	0.156
Maximum biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	0.91	0.66 ± 0.00 ^c
Biomass productivity ^c , P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	13.5 ± 0.1	10.0 ± 0.1
Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg ⁻¹)	0.004	0.004
Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg ⁻¹)	0.033	0.020
Average N consumption rate, q_N (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	4.4	4.7
Average P consumption rate, q_P (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	0.5	0.8
Lipid content ^d (% , w/w)	23.7 ± 1.7	23.4 ± 0.2
Lipid productivity ^d , P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	3.8 ± 0.3	2.5 ± 0.0

¹Kinetic parameters were calculated at the point of peak biomass concentration attained on day 59.

^aRaceway batch with ~20% of normal initial nitrate concentration; ^braceway batch with ~18% of normal initial nitrate.

^cTriplicate samples; ^dduplicate samples.

The lipid contents of the biomass from the nitrate-deficient and nitrate-sufficient raceway batches were similar (Table 4.19 and Table 4.12 batch-3) at the time of peak biomass concentration on day 59. This lends further credence to the argument that an initial nitrate level of ~20% of that found in normal BG11 (seawater) medium is in fact a nutrient sufficient level for attaining average peak biomass concentration of ~0.8 g L⁻¹. After day 59, the raceway cultures with ~20% of the normal initial nitrate level became progressively nitrogen deprived as time progressed. Nitrogen deprivation increased the lipid content of the biomass in batch-5 (Table 4.20, data from day 131 onwards). An increase in lipids to a lesser level occurred in batch-6 (Table 4.21).

Table 4.20 Biomass characteristics at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-5 (~20% of normal initial nitrate)

Batch harvest time ¹	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass Productivity, <i>P_b</i> (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lipid Content ² (%, w/w)	Lipid Productivity ² , <i>P_l</i> (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value ³ (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass ³			
						C (%)	N (%)	S (%)	P (%)
Day 48	0.85	15.3	24.1 ± 0.5	3.7 ± 0.1	22.5	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 65	0.93	12.6	23.7 ± 1.7	3.0 ± 0.2	22.5	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 75	0.92	10.7	22.5 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 0.0	22.8	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 85	0.72	7.1	18.0 ± 0.0	1.3 ± 0.0	23.2	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 90	0.71	6.6	16.2 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.0	23.5	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 96	0.71	6.2	16.3 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.0	23.3	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 103	0.72	5.8	18.0 ± 1.0	1.0 ± 0.1	23.8	52.0	5.4	0.8	ND
Day 112	0.67	4.9	22.5 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.0	24.1	49.4	5.0	0.8	0.3
Day 121	0.64	4.3	22.00	0.9	24.4	50.2	4.8	0.8	0.3
Day 131	0.59	3.6	29.0	1.1	25.2	54.7	4.5	0.8	0.3
Day 141	0.52	2.9	36.8	1.1	25.4	54.9	4.2	0.8	0.3
Day 152	0.47	2.3	41.0	1.0	26.2	56.4	4.0	0.8	0.2
Day 159	0.44	2.1	42.6 ± 1.3	0.9 ± 0.0	26.5 ± 0.2	59.2 ± 0.7	3.8 ± 0.0	0.8 ± 0.0	0.2 ± 0.0

¹Harvesting was done after culture entered the stationary phase of growth. ²Duplicate samples; ³triplicate samples (on day 159 only); ND = not determined

This behavior is consistent with the previously reported (Illman *et al.*, 2000; Scragg *et al.*, 2002; Converti *et al.*, 2009) elevation in lipid levels as a consequence of nitrogen starvation in *C. vulgaris* grown in freshwater, but has not been reported in seawater grown *C. vulgaris* in raceways.

In batch-5, the calorific value of the biomass increased with increasing lipid content (Table 4.20), as expected. This occurred to a lesser level in batch-6 as the oil content in this batch did not increase a lot on nitrogen starvation. In both batches, the N content of the biomass declined with progressive nitrogen starvation (Table 4.20, Table 4.21).

Table 4.21 Biomass characteristics at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-6 (~18% of normal initial nitrate)

Batch harvest time ¹	Biomass concentration ² (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass productivity ² , <i>P_b</i> (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lipid content ³ (%, w/w)	Lipid productivity ³ , <i>P_l</i> (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value ³ (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass ⁴			
						C (%)	N (%)	S (%)	P (%)
Day 80	0.67 ± 0.00	7.5 ± 0.1	23.4 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.0	22.7 ± 0.2	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 88	0.66 ± 0.00	6.9 ± 0.4	23.5 ± 0.9	1.6 ± 0.1	22.7 ± 0.2	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 96	0.65 ± 0.02	6.1 ± 0.2	21	1.3	22.4 ± 0.2	49.1	6.3	0.8	0.5
Day 102	0.77 ± 0.03	6.9 ± 0.2	22.4 ± 0.2	1.5 ± 0.0	23.1 ± 0.1	51.1	6.5	0.8	0.5
Day 111	0.73 ± 0.03	5.9 ± 0.2	21.3 ± 1.7	1.3 ± 0.1	23.0 ± 0.0	51.1	6.2	0.8	0.5
Day 117	0.73 ± 0.01	5.6 ± 0.0	23.9 ± 0.6	1.3 ± 0.0	23.0 ± 0.0	50.2 ± 0.4	5.7 ± 0.2	0.8 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.0
Day 131	0.69 ± 0.01	4.7 ± 0.1	25.7 ± 0.4	1.2 ± 0.0	23.3 ± 0.3	51.3	5.6	0.8	0.4
Day 141	0.70 ± 0.02	4.4 ± 0.2	26.3 ± 1.0	1.1 ± 0.0	23.3 ± 0.2	50.5	5.4	0.8	0.4
Day 148	0.68 ± 0.01	4.1 ± 0.1	27.1 ± 1.8	1.1 ± 0.1	23.3 ± 0.2	51.7	5.8	0.8	0.4
Day 155	0.64 ± 0.01	3.7 ± 0.0	23.1 ± 0.5	0.9 ± 0.0	22.8 ± 0.5	50.8	5.0	0.9	0.4
Day 162	0.57 ± 0.01	3.2 ± 0.1	26.6	0.8 ± 0.0	23.3 ± 0.2	48.9	5.2	0.9	0.4
Day 168	0.57 ± 0.01	3.0 ± 0.1	23.7 ± 1.8	0.7 ± 0.1	22.8 ± 0.2	49.8 ± 0.1	5.5 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0
Day 175	0.53 ± 0.01	2.7 ± 0.1	22.0 ± 1.8	0.6 ± 0.0	23.2 ± 0.0	51.6	5.5	0.9	0.3
Day 185	0.48 ± 0.00	2.2 ± 0.0	28.0 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.0	23.7 ± 0.0	52.6 ± 0.4	5.1 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.0

¹Harvesting was done after culture entered the stationary phase of growth. ²Triplicate samples; ³duplicate samples; ⁴duplicate samples (on day 117, day 168 and day 185 only); ND = not determined

Lipid accumulation in microalgae may start within 1-2 days of nitrogen deprivation (Solomon *et al.*, 1986) but the rate of lipid accumulation may be different for different algae. The rate of lipid accumulation may also depend on the other conditions of a nitrogen deprived culture. Lipid accumulation at the cellular level was visualized by transmission electron microscopy of some samples as described in Section 4.3.1.3d.

4.3.1.3b Effect of 10% of normal initial nitrate on *C. vulgaris*

The aim of this run (raceway batch-7) was to determine if the lipid accumulation in the biomass could further be enhanced relative to the results of Section 4.3.1.3a. Other than the nitrate concentration in BG11 seawater medium, the culture conditions of the raceway batch-7 were similar to those of batch-5 and batch-6, discussed in the previous section. The growth profile of batch-7 is shown in Figure 4.20.

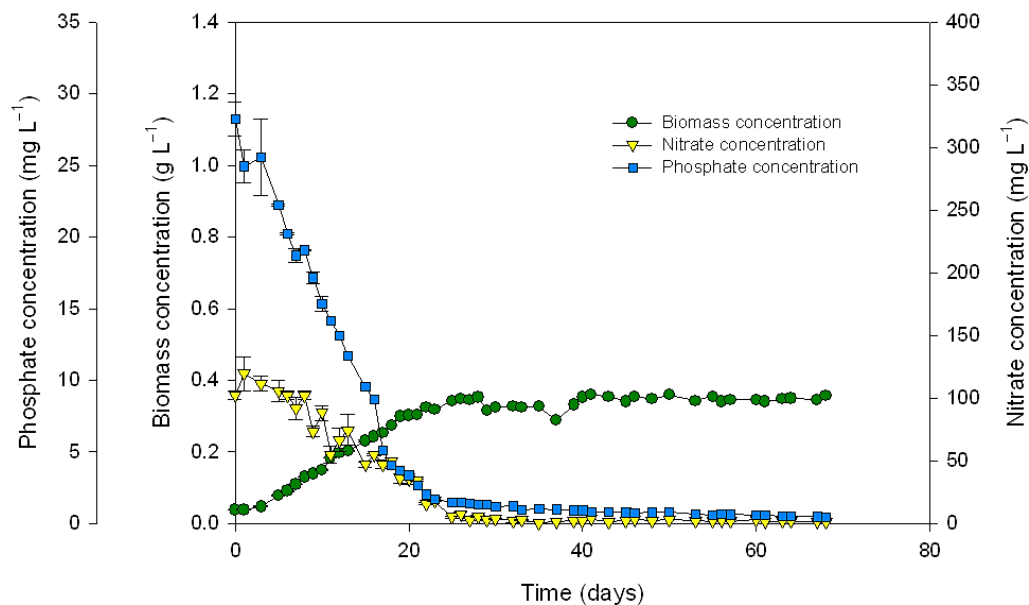


Figure 4.20 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *C. vulgaris* in raceway batch-7 with ~10% of normal initial nitrate in BG11 (seawater). Biomass and nitrate standard deviations are based on triplicate samples; phosphate standard deviation is based on duplicate measurements.

The maximum biomass concentration (0.34 g L^{-1}) attained on day 25 coincided with nitrate depletion from the culture broth (Figure 4.20). Clearly, the peak biomass concentration was limited by nitrate depletion. The growth was rapid with a specific growth rate of 0.214 d^{-1} (Table 4.22) until being arrested by nitrate depletion. Until nitrate depletion on day 25, the culture was essentially nutrient sufficient. Thus, on day 25, the biomass yield on N in batch-7 (Table 4.22) was comparable to the other raceway batches regardless of the initial nitrate concentration in the BG11 media (Table 4.11 and Table 4.19). However, the biomass yield on P was low in raceway batch-7 (Table 4.22) compared to the other batches (batches 3, 5 and 6; Table 4.11 and Table 4.19). This was simply because the biomass production was being limited by nitrate supply and not by phosphate.

Table 4.22 *C. vulgaris* raceway batch culture kinetics (~10% of normal initial nitrate in BG11)

Kinetic parameters¹	Batch-7^a
Specific growth rate, μ (d^{-1})	0.214
Maximum biomass concentration (g L^{-1})	0.34
Biomass productivity ^b , P_b ($\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	12.2 ± 0.0
Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg^{-1})	0.003
Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg^{-1})	0.011
Average N consumption rate, q_N ($\text{mg g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	12.7
Average P consumption rate, q_P ($\text{mg g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	3.5
Lipid content ^c (% , w/w)	18.8 ± 0.2
Lipid productivity ^c , P_l ($\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$)	2.1 ± 0.0

¹Kinetic parameters were calculated at the point of peak biomass concentration attained on day 25

^aRaceway batch with ~10% of normal initial nitrate concentration

^bTriplicate samples; ^cduplicate samples

Once the culture had attained the maximum biomass concentration and all nutrients had exhausted, it was kept running to monitor the effects of nutrient starvation on lipid accumulation. During this period harvests (4 harvests) occurred as shown in Table 4.23. The lipid content progressively increased from ~19% to >41% on day 68 (Table 4.23). Clearly, therefore nitrate starvation leads to progressively increased lipid levels (Table 4.23). The calorific value of the biomass also increased with the increase in lipid level (Table 4.23).

Although the lipid content in the biomass increased with starvation period, the lipid productivity did not increase (Table 4.23). This was because for a fixed biomass concentration, the increased lipid level with time was countered by the negative impact of time on productivity.

Table 4.23 Biomass characteristics of *C. vulgaris* at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-7 (10% of normal initial nitrate)

Batch harvest time ¹	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass productivity, P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lipid content (% w/w)	Lipid productivity, P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass			
						C (%)	N (%)	S (%)	P (%)
Day 28	0.35	7.9 ± 0.2	18.8 ± 0.2	1.5 ± 0.0	21.9	41.4	7.6	0.8	1.1
Day 35	0.33	5.6 ± 0.1	22.7 ± 1.5	1.3 ± 0.1	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 55	0.35	4.1 ± 0.1	29.4 ± 2.3	1.2 ± 0.1	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 68	0.36	3.3 ± 0.1	41.1 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.0	27.0 ± 0.0	55.2 ± 0.7	4.1 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.0

¹Harvesting was done after culture entered the stationary phase of growth.

ND = Not determined.

Biomass standard deviation is based on triplicate samples; all other standard deviations are based on duplicate measurements.

In view of the results, a maximum biomass concentration of 0.66-0.91 g L⁻¹ can be attained with an initial nitrate level of ~20% of normal in BG11 seawater medium. This is the same as would occur in a full nitrate medium. Reducing the initial nitrate level to ~10% of normal, significantly reduces the peak attainable biomass concentration to 0.34 g L⁻¹, or <50% of the peak value of the normal full strength medium. Nitrate starvation subsequent to growth, builds up the lipid content in the biomass and the calorific value of the biomass. Earlier studies on raceways under N starvation reported a maximum biomass concentration of 0.3 g L⁻¹ for *N. salina* (Boussiba *et al.*, 1987) and ~0.4 g L⁻¹ for *Scenedesmus rubescens* (Lin and Lin, 2011) with lipid contents of 16% and 24%, respectively. For *N. salina*, the lipid content did not increase with N starvation as this species does not respond to N stress. However, *Scenedesmus rubescens* showed an increase in lipid content but this was accompanied by a decrease in the biomass growth.

4.3.1.3c Effect of 22% of normal initial nitrate level on *N. salina*

N. salina was studied in the raceway for nitrate stress effects. An initial nitrate level of ~22% of normal in BG11 seawater medium was used. The growth conditions were as described earlier in the Section 4.3.1.3. (This alga had been inoculated accidentally, but the experiment was continued to gain information for comparison with *C. vulgaris*.) The paddlewheel potentiometer setting was at 5 to give a flow velocity of 0.21 m s⁻¹. After the onset of the stationary growth phase, on day 73, the rotational speed was increased gradually to the potentiometer setting of 9 (i.e. a flow velocity of 0.32 m s⁻¹). This was done to check for possible effects of agitation/mixing as they have been found to affect the biomass productivity in some cases (Gudin and Chaumont, 1991; Hu and Richmond, 1996).

The growth profile for this batch-8 is shown in Figure 4.21. After a prolonged lag phase a maximum biomass concentration of 0.44 g L^{-1} was attained on day 69. Unlike in *C. vulgaris* raceway culture at a similar initial nitrate level, the nitrate did not run out completely from the culture broth (Figure 4.21) and $\sim 47 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ of nitrate remained until final harvest on day 125. Phosphate was fully consumed by around day 50 (Figure 4.21). Nutrients uptake rates were similar to the values seen for *C. vulgaris* at a similar initial nitrate level (Table 4.19 and Table 4.24). The biomass yield on N (Table 4.24) was comparable to the values for *C. vulgaris* (Table 4.19). However, the biomass yield on P was 2.2 times lower (Table 4.24) than in *C. vulgaris* (Table 4.19).

The slight jump in biomass concentration on day 103 was a consequence of increase in paddlewheel speed from a potentiometer setting of 5 to a setting of 7 (Figure 4.21). During the period when the paddlewheel setting was 7-9 on the potentiometer, the growth rate improved (Figure 4.21). This may have been a consequence of turbulence associated improvements in desorption of oxygen (an inhibitor of photosynthesis) or improved mixing resulting in more frequent exposure of the biomass from deeper darker zones of the raceway to the better illuminated surface. Once the paddlewheel speed was lowered from 9 on the potentiometer to 5, biomass concentration declined a little (Figure 4.21) possibly because of some sedimentation.

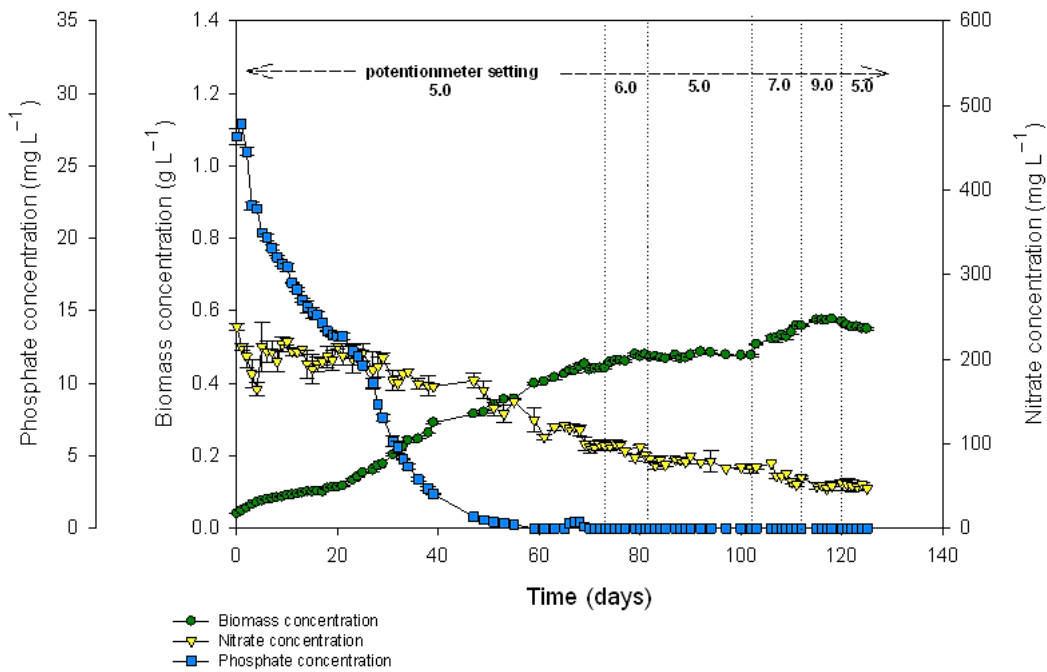


Figure 4.21 Growth and nutrient consumption profiles of *N. salina* in raceway batch-8 with ~22% of normal initial nitrate in BG11 (seawater). Vertical dotted lines demarcate periods of different settings of paddlewheel speed on the potentiometer: 5, 6, 7 and 9 (the corresponding velocities were $0.21 \pm 0.02 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, $0.23 \pm 0.02 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, $0.27 \pm 0.04 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and $0.32 \pm 0.03 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, respectively). Standard deviations of biomass and nitrate are based on triplicate samples; standard deviation of phosphate is based on duplicate samples.

Table 4.24 *N. salina* raceway batch-8^a culture kinetics (at different rotational speeds¹)

Kinetic parameters ²	Paddlewheel potentiometer setting					
	5	6	5	7	9	5
Specific growth rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	0.060	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Maximum biomass concentration ^b (g L ⁻¹)	0.44 ± 00	0.46 ± 00	0.47 ± 00	0.52 ± 01	0.56 ± 00	0.54 ± 00
Biomass productivity ^b , P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	5.3 ± 0.1	4.8 ± 0.0	4.3 ± 0.0	4.1 ± 0.1	4.1 ± 0.0	3.8 ± 0.0
Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg ⁻¹)	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003
Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg ⁻¹)	0.015	0.016	0.017	0.018	0.019	0.018
Average N consumption rate, q_N (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	5.0	4.4	4.1	3.5	3.1	3.1
Average P consumption rate, q_P (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4
Lipid content ^c (% w/w)	34.9	31.9	ND	ND	ND	31.8 ± 0.2
Lipid productivity ^c , P_l (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	1.9	1.5	ND	ND	ND	1.2 ± 0.0

^aRaceway batch with ~22% of normal initial nitrate concentration in BG11 (seawater)

¹Paddlewheel potentiometer setting corresponded to the following flow velocities; 5 = 0.21 ± 0.02 m s⁻¹; 6 = 0.23 ± 0.02 m s⁻¹; 7 = 0.27 ± 0.04 m s⁻¹; 9 = 0.32 ± 0.03 m s⁻¹

²Kinetic parameters were measured when the biomass concentration had stabilized at each rotational speed on day 69, day 81, day 92, day 110, day 118 and day 123, respectively, for potentiometer settings of 5, 6, 5, 7, 9 and 5

^bTriplicate samples; ^cduplicate samples

Culture broth samples from raceway batch-8 were harvested on days 69, 81 and 125 (Table 4.25). The lipid level in the biomass remained stable at ~33% (Table 4.25) and the calorific value was always in the range of 23-26 kJ g⁻¹ (Table 4.25).

The culture in Figure 4.21 was never nitrogen deprived, but earlier work with this alga (Section 4.2.3.2b), showed that nitrate-deprivation does not promote lipid accumulation. This behavior has been previously reported (Boussiba *et al.*, 1987) and is different to that of *C. vulgaris*.

Use of *N. salina* in the raceway was discontinued because of the low biomass and lipid productivities in low-nitrogen conditions and the failure of this alga to respond to nitrogen deprivation by accumulating lipids.

Table 4.25 Biomass characteristics of *N. salina* at various harvesting times in the raceway batch-8 (20% of normal initial nitrate)

Batch harvest time ¹	Pontentio- meter setting	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass productivity, <i>P_b</i> (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lipid content (%, w/w)	Lipid productivity, <i>P_l</i> (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass			
							C (%)	N (%)	S (%)	P (%)
Day 69	5	0.44 ± 00	5.3 ± 0.1	34.9	1.9	25.7	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 81	6	0.46 ± 00	4.8 ± 0.0	31.9	1.5	24.8	ND	ND	ND	ND
Day 125	5	0.53 ± 00	3.7 ± 0.0	31.8 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.0	23.4 ± 0.2	49.3 ± 0.1	8.8 ± 0.0	0.6 ± 0.2	0.6 ± 0.2

¹Between day 81-125, the paddlewheel potentiometer setting corresponded to the following flow velocities; 5 = 0.21 ± 0.02 m s⁻¹; 7 = 0.27 ± 0.04 m s⁻¹; 9 = 0.32 ± 0.03 m s⁻¹

(Table 4.24).

ND = Not determined.

Biomass standard deviation is based on triplicate samples; all other standard deviations are based on duplicate measurements.

4.3.1.3d Lipid accumulation

Lipid bodies in individual algal cells can be observed via Nile red fluorescent microscopy (Elsey *et al.*, 2007) and the transmission electron microscopy (Bozzola and Russell, 1998). *C. vulgaris* and *N. salina* collected from batch-6 and batch-8, respectively), were observed using these methods.

In fluorescent images of *C. vulgaris*, the neutral lipid bodies (i.e. yellow fluorescence) appeared very few and smaller compared to the *N. salina* (Figure 4.22).

TEM (transmission electron microscope) showed a cross section of the algal cells (Figure 4.23). Multiple small lipid droplets were seen in the cytoplasm of *C. vulgaris* (Figure 4.23a) and one or two large lipid bodies occurred in *N. salina* cytoplasm (Figure 4.23b). The number of lipid droplets was not the same in all cells of a given sample of the two strains (Figure 4.23), suggesting that cells were at different stages of lipid accumulation in the same population. The lipid droplets were identified according to the electron micrographs of de-Bashan *et al.* (2002) and Přibyl *et al.* (2013).

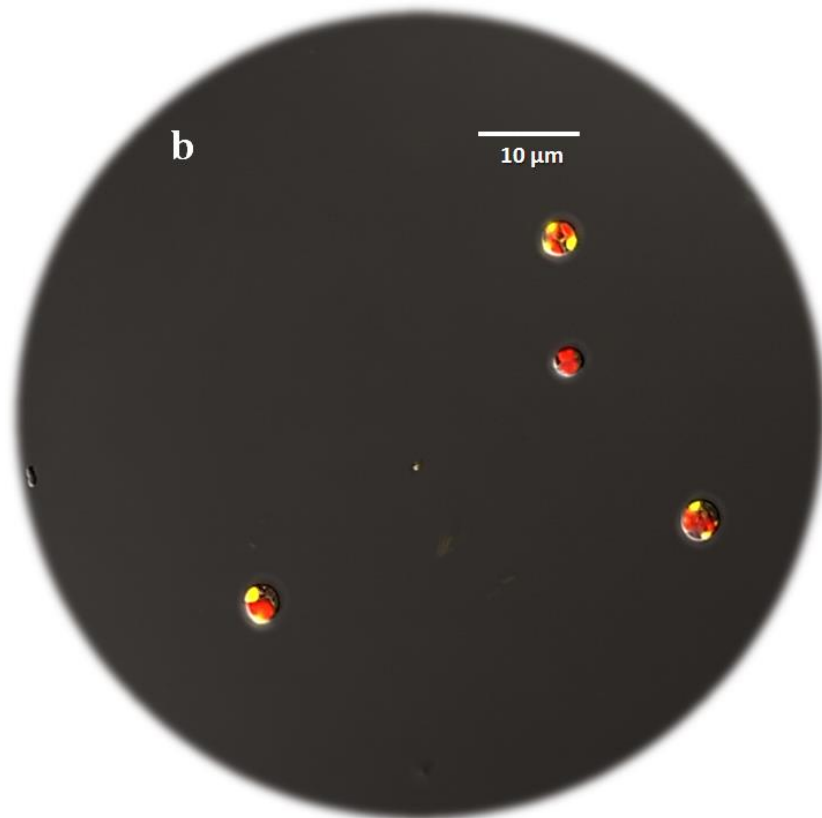
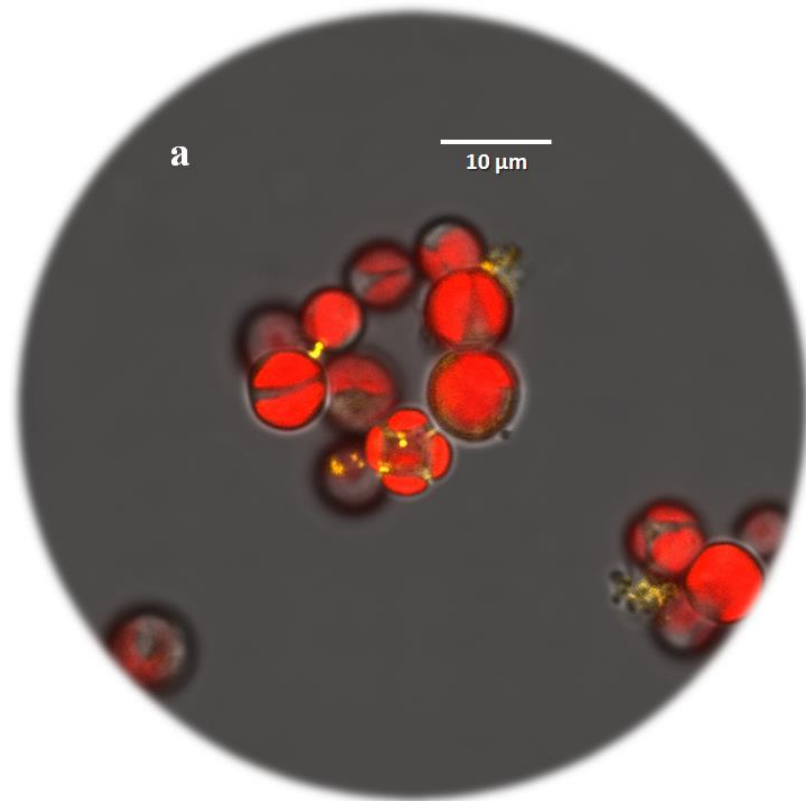


Figure 4.22 Fluorescent microscopy: (a) *C. vulgaris* at day 81; (b) *N. salina* at day 103.

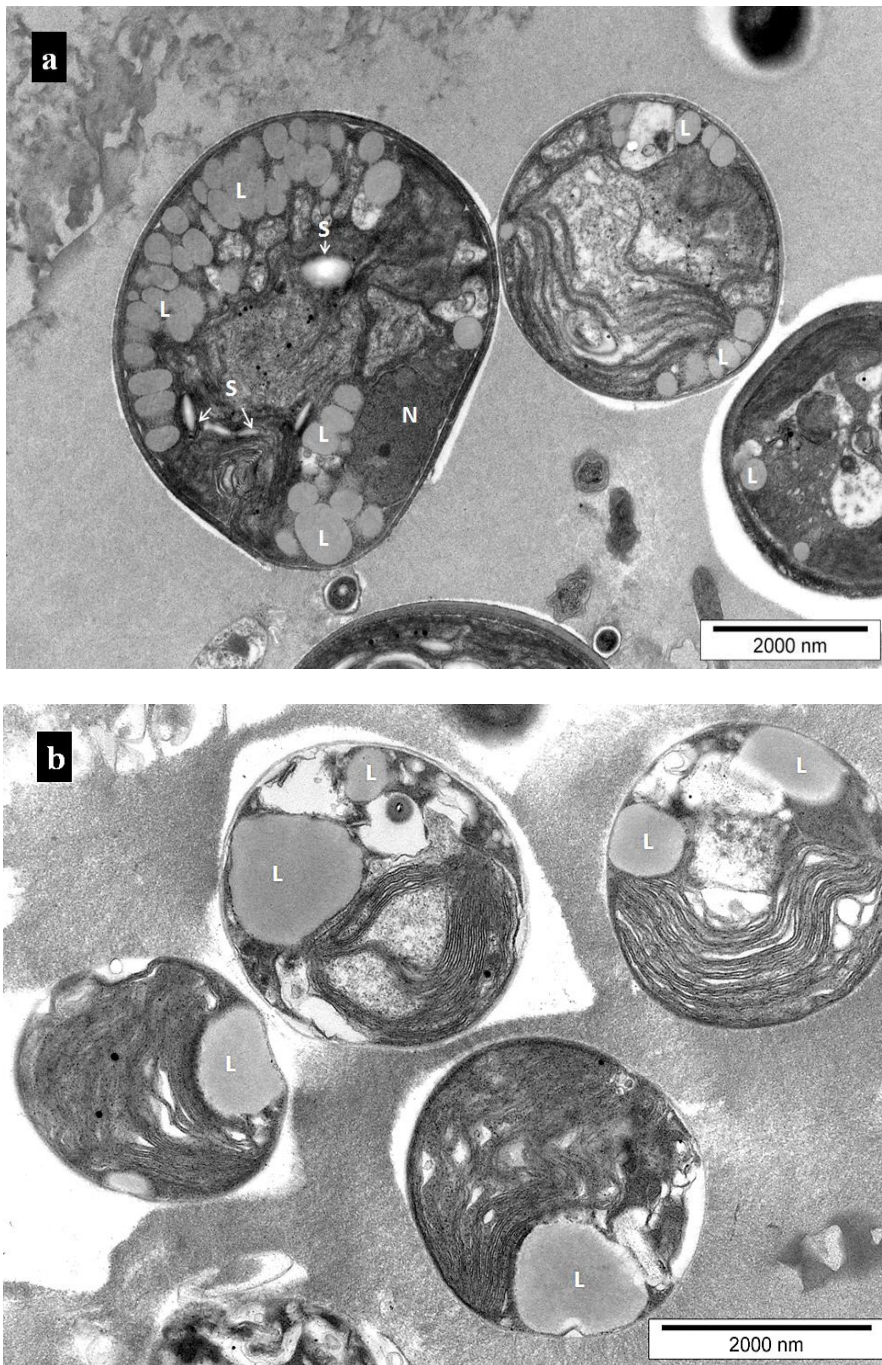


Figure 4.23 Transmission electron microscopy of algal cells from raceway: (a) *C. vulgaris* on day 111 (batch-6); (b) *N. salina* on day 108 (batch-8). L, represents lipid droplets in cells; S, represents starch; N, represents nucleus. Images taken at Manawatu Microscopy and Imaging Centre, Massey University (sample prepared by glutaraldehyde-osmium tetroxide standard fixation protocol).

4.3.2 Raceway continuous culture

C. vulgaris was grown in continuous mode of operation for baseline studies on growth and lipid production. The raceway batch culture shown in Figure 4.16b was switched to a continuous culture mode of operation on day 30. Continuous culture setup was explained in Section 3.2.3.4. At various times, the dilution rate (i.e. the ratio of the feed flow rate ($L d^{-1}$) to the total culture volume in the raceway (L)) values were $0.276 d^{-1}$ and $0.173 d^{-1}$. Illumination was either continuous at $91 \mu mol \cdot m^{-2} s^{-1}$, or at $46 \mu mol \cdot m^{-2} s^{-1}$. In specific cases a 14 h: 10 h light-dark cycle was used. The culture medium was BG11 seawater (Section 3.2.1). The operational temperature and pH were constant throughout at $20 \pm 1 \text{ }^{\circ}C$ and 6.5-6.8, respectively. The rotational speed of the paddlewheel was fixed at setting 5 (flow velocity of $0.21 \pm 0.02 m s^{-1}$) on the potentiometer.

The growth profile of the continuous culture is shown in Figure 4.24. At a dilution rate of $0.276 d^{-1}$ the steady states 1-5 (Figure 4.24) were attained at different illumination regimes (Table 4.26). By definition, at any steady state in a continuous culture, the dilution rate is equal to the specific growth rate (Doran, 1995; Shuler and Kargi, 2002). The biomass concentration at each steady state was different as recorded in Table 4.26. At any given steady state, different combination of biomass concentration and the light regimen were such as to produce the same average light level in the raceway and therefore the same specific growth rate.

A large volume of the broth was continuously harvested at each steady state in a refrigerated ($5 \text{ }^{\circ}C$) carboy and processed later for determining the lipid level, the calorific value and the elemental composition of the biomass (Table 4.27). Feeding and harvesting of the culture which operated under light-dark cycling (Figure 4.24) was stopped each night to prevent washout.

The biomass concentration profile in Figure 4.24 was generally consistent with expectations. Commencing at 0 h, the biomass concentration began to decline from the maximum value attained in the previous batch run (Figure 4.16b). This was because of dilution by the feed. The biomass concentration declined until a steady concentration (steady state 1, SS-1) was attained. At this steady state (and any other steady state in a continuous culture), the specific growth rate of the biomass was assumed equal to the dilution rate (Doran, 1995; Shuler and Kargi, 2002). The dilution rate remained fixed at the values shown in Figure 4.24. Steady state 1 (SS-1) was obtained at the full possible light level (Table 4.26). At the end of steady state 1, the light level was reduced (Table 4.26). This caused the biomass concentration to decline further to a lower steady state value (i.e. steady state 2, SS-2). At the end of steady state 2 (SS-2), the light level was raised again to the initial value of (Table 4.26) and, therefore, the biomass concentration rose to attain the new steady state 3 (SS-3). The light level now remained at full intensity ($91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ continuous illumination) but switched to light-dark cycling (Table 4.26). Consequently, the biomass concentration began to decline and oscillate – a high concentration during ‘day’ and a low concentration at ‘night’ (Figure 4.24, Table 4.26). Eventually, the oscillations settled around a pseudosteady state biomass concentration (steady state 4, Figure 4.24 inset a1). At the end of the steady state 4 (SS-4), the light was switched back to full intensity continuous operation and the biomass concentration rose to a higher steady state value (SS-5). The culture operation was continued beyond 1500 h at a new fixed dilution rate of 0.173 d^{-1} (Figure 4.24). The nutrients (nitrate and phosphate) profiles are shown in Figure 4.24b.

At 1500 h, the dilution rate was reduced to 0.173 d^{-1} , but all other operational conditions were same as described earlier. As specific growth rate at each of the steady states 6-8 was constant at 0.173 d^{-1} , the alga was growing ~62% slower than in the previously discussed steady states 1-5. The steady states 6-8 (Figure 4.24) were solely a

consequence of changes in the incident irradiance at a fixed dilution rate of 0.173 d^{-1} . The biomass concentrations at various light regimens for the steady states in Figure 4.24a are summarized in Table 4.26. The relevant lipids contents and productivities are provided in Table 4.27.

Table 4.26 *C. vulgaris* raceway continuous culture kinetics (standard BG11 seawater medium)

Steady state ¹	Dilution rate ² , μ (d ⁻¹)	Maximum biomass concentration ³ (g L ⁻¹)	Biomass productivity ³ , P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Biomass yield coefficient on N, Y_N (g mg ⁻¹)	Biomass yield coefficient on P, Y_P (g mg ⁻¹)	Biomass yield coefficient on light, Y_{XL} (g μ E ⁻¹)	Average N consumption rate q_N (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Average P consumption rate q_P (mg g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)
1	0.276	0.13 ± 0.01	34.9 ± 1.4	0.004	0.008	8.5 × 10 ⁻⁷	66.0	35.1
2	0.276	0.08 ± 0.00	20.8 ± 0.7	0.000	0.004	1.2 × 10 ⁻⁶	899.8	66.5
3	0.276	0.18 ± 0.00	50.5 ± 0.5	0.017	0.030	3.0 × 10 ⁻⁶	16.1	9.4
4	0.276	0.14 ± 0.00 ^a	38.4 ± 0.5 ^a	0.001	0.014	ND	198.0	20.0
5	0.276	0.16 ± 0.00	43.5 ± 0.3	0.002	0.012	1.1 × 10 ⁻⁶	164.4	22.0
6	0.173	0.36 ± 0.00	61.9 ± 0.5	-0.006	0.025	1.4 × 10 ⁻⁶	-29.2	7.1
7	0.173	0.21 ± 0.01	36.4 ± 1.3	0.009	0.040	2.1 × 10 ⁻⁶	18.8	1.6
8	0.173	0.26 ± 0.00	45.7 ± 0.5	0.003	0.027	1.1 × 10 ⁻⁶	69.2	6.4

¹Biomass kinetic parameters were calculated at steady states 1-8; where SS-1 = continuous light at 91 μ mol·m⁻²s⁻¹, SS-2 = continuous light at 46 μ mol·m⁻²s⁻¹, SS-3 = same conditions as SS-1, SS-4 = light/dark cycle (14 h:10 h) at illumination level of 91 μ mol·m⁻²s⁻¹, SS-5 = same conditions as SS-1, SS-6 = continuous light at 91 μ mol·m⁻²s⁻¹, SS-7 = continuous light at 46 μ mol·m⁻²s⁻¹, SS-8 = same conditions as SS-6.

²Specific growth rate; ³averaged steady state biomass concentration; standard deviations of all steady state values are based on 4-12 samples (one sample per day) taken within the steady state.

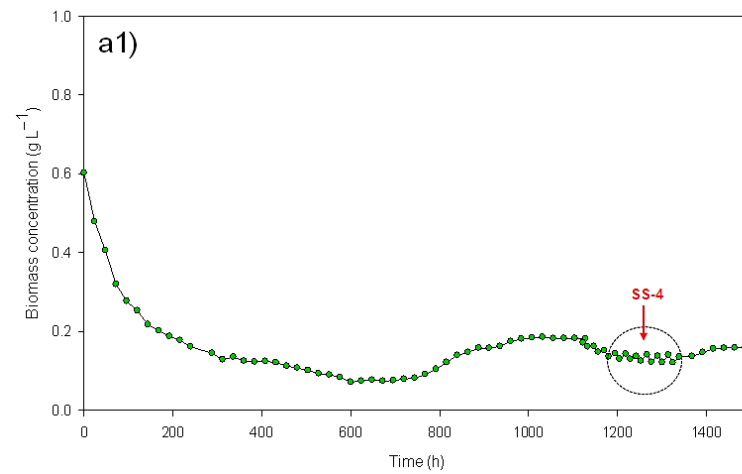
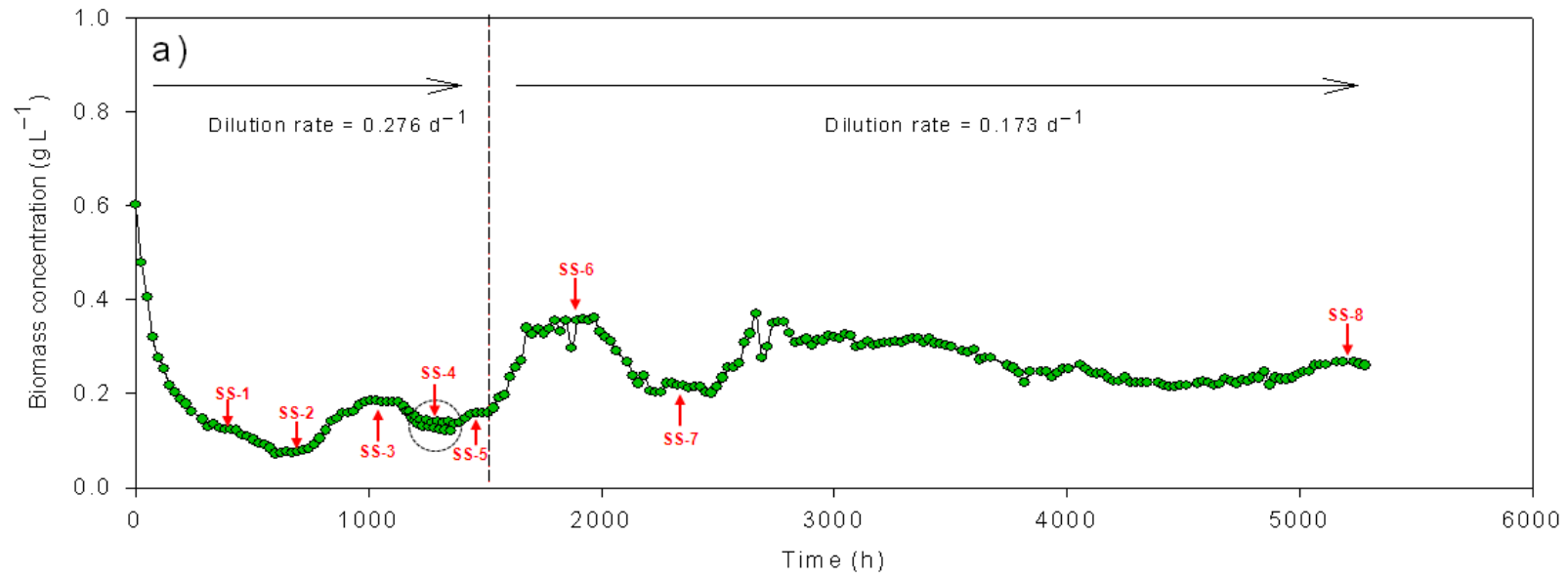
^aLight period (14 h) biomass concentration and productivity; the dark period (10 h) biomass concentration and productivity were 0.12 ± 0.00 g L⁻¹ and 33.9 ± 0.5 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively.

Table 4.27 Biomass characteristics at various steady states (Figure 4.24)

Steady states ¹	Dilution rate, μ (d ⁻¹)	Lipid content (% w/w)	Lipid productivity, P_b (mg L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Calorific value (kJ g ⁻¹)	Elements in biomass		
					C (%)	N (%)	S (%)
1	0.276	12.0	4.2 ± 0.2	20.6	46.2	7.8	0.7
2	0.276	13.9	2.9 ± 0.1	20.5	45.9	8.0	0.7
3	0.276	16.1	8.1 ± 0.1	21.5	47.9	8.4	0.7
4	0.276	13.9	5.0 ± 0.3	20.2	44.9	7.8	0.7
5	0.276	13.9	6.1 ± 0.1	19.6	43.9	7.8	0.6
6	0.173	13.6	8.4 ± 0.1	20.6	45.8	7.8	0.7
7	0.173	14.2	5.2 ± 0.2	21.1	46.8	7.8	0.8
8	0.173	15.1	6.9 ± 0.1	21.5	47.4	8.5	0.8

¹Steady state conditions as described in Table 4.26.

Lipid productivity standard deviations are based on 4-12 samples (one sample per day) taken within a steady state.



Inset (a1) expands the 0-1400 h time scale and the biomass concentration scale of (a) to clearly show the day-night oscillations in biomass concentrations in steady state SS-4

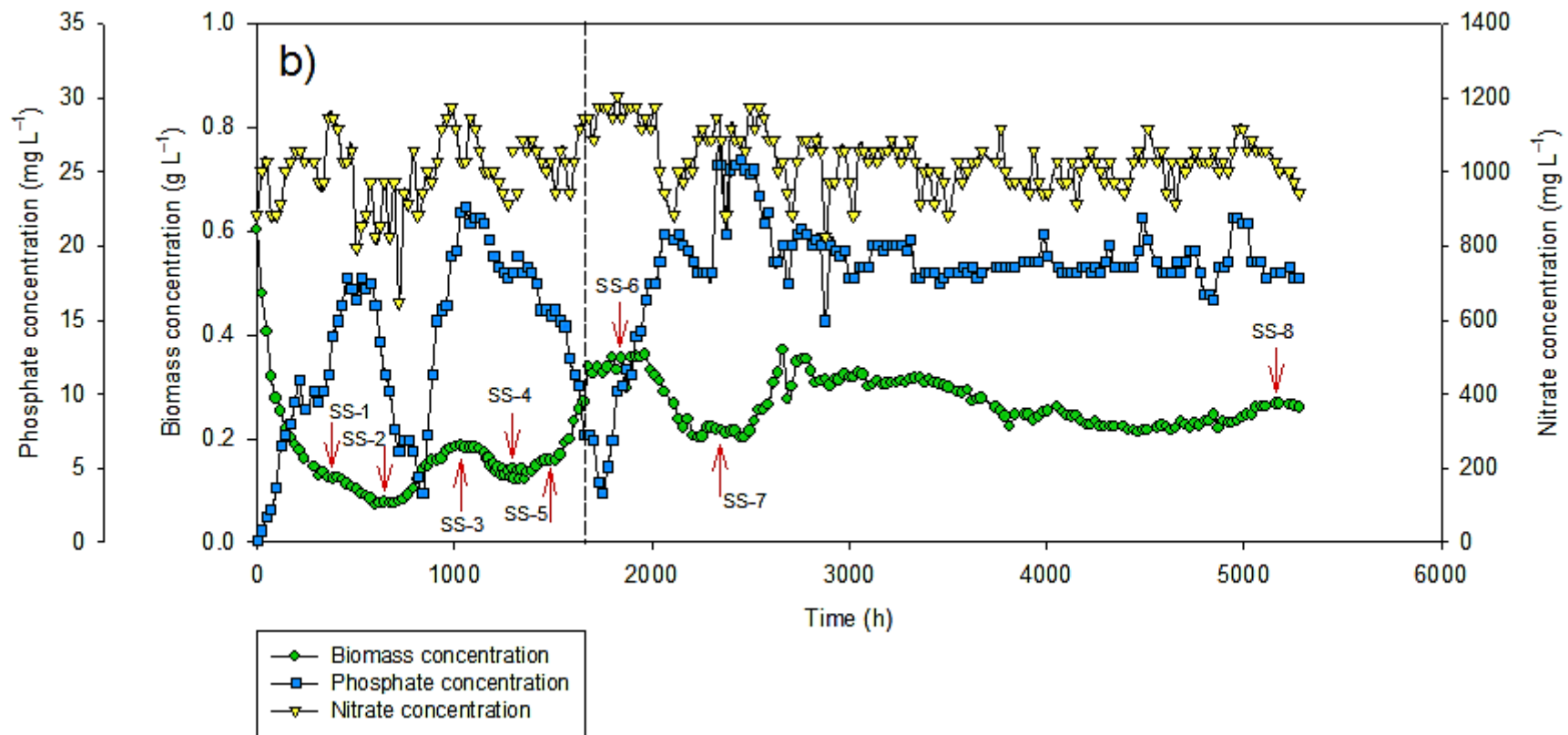


Figure: 4.24 *C. vulgaris* culture in continuous raceway operation (arrows indicate steady states): a) biomass concentration at steady states 1-8, where SS-1 = continuous light at $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-2 = continuous light at $46 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-3 = same conditions as SS-1, SS-4 = light/dark cycle (14 h:10 h) at illumination level of $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-5 = same conditions as SS-1, SS-6 = continuous light at $91 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-7 = continuous light at $46 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, SS-8 = same conditions as SS-6; a1) oscillation in biomass concentration at SS-4 (due to 14 h: 10 h day/night cycle); b) growth and nutrient profile of *C. vulgaris* culture in continuous raceway.

The stable biomass concentrations for steady states 6-8 were higher than for the steady states 1-4 (Figure 4.24, Table 4.26). This was because the dilution rate was higher in the latter set of steady states (i.e. steady states 1-4). The biomass concentrations for steady states 6 (SS-6) and 8 (SS-8) were comparable because of the identical conditions of operation. At steady state 7, the biomass concentration was lower than in steady states 6 and 8 because the incident light level was lower (Table 4.26).

The productivity of the raceway cultures was clearly limited by light as at a culture density of $\sim 0.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, the measured photosynthetically active irradiance level at full incident light was almost nil at a depth of 0.23 cm from the surface (Figure 3.10). Thus, nearly 87% of the volume of the raceway constituted an essentially non-productive dark zone. This of course is an important limitation of also the full-scale commercial raceways placed in full sunlight.

The lipid content and productivity data for the biomass samples from steady states 1-8 are shown in Table 4.27. The maximum biomass productivity was $\sim 62 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ attained in steady state 6 and showed the highest lipid productivity of $8.4 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$. Lipid content of the biomass of all steady states were comparable indicating that the proportion of lipid in the biomass was independent of the specific growth rate and the irradiance level in nutrient sufficient growth in continuous culture. The lipid content of the biomass obtained from raceway continuous culture was not necessarily similar to the lipid content of the biomass of raceway batch cultures (i.e. both ran under nutrient sufficient growth conditions, Section 4.3.1.1 and Section 4.3.1.2). In a raceway continuous run, biomass was harvested continuously and the culture remained in exponential phase of growth and showed a lipid content range of 12-16% (Table 4.27). Whereas in raceway batch cultures, the biomass was usually harvested when the cultures had entered the stationary growth phase and showed more accumulation of lipids at levels of 21-25% in the dry biomass (Table 4.12 and Table 4.18).

Calorific value of the biomass at different steady states was comparable at $20.7 \pm 0.7 \text{ kJ g}^{-1}$ (Table 4.27) irrespective of the light regime and the dilution rate. Also, the calorific value of the biomass of raceway continuous culture (Table 4.27) was consistent with the calorific value of the biomass of raceway batch culture (Table 4.12) produced under nutrient sufficient condition. This suggested that certain variables, i.e. different modes of cultures, various levels of incident light and the specific growth rate, have little effect on energy content of the biomass (i.e. the calorific value) under nutrient sufficient conditions.

The fractions of C, N and S in the biomass obtained at different steady states were essentially independent of the operational conditions (Table 4.27).

In conclusion, among batch and continuous culture operation, the latter was found to be more efficient in terms of attaining highest biomass and lipid productivities of $\sim 62 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $8 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, respectively. This was achieved under nutrient sufficient conditions. Irrespective of the strain and the culture parameters used in other studies in raceways, the biomass and lipid productivities were much lower in the current study. Recently, Ketheesan and Nirmalakhandan (2012) reported biomass and lipid productivities of $190 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $40 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, attained with *Scenedesmus* in continuous mode of cultivation in an airlift raceway system in freshwater. Overall, in the raceway pond, the best biomass productivities were $220\text{-}340 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, achieved under semi-continuous mode of cultivation for *Dunaliella salina* (Moheimani and Borowitzka, 2006). As there is no published data on productivity of *C. vulgaris* in seawater in raceways (see Table 2.1 and Table 2.2), the data obtained here cannot be compared with the literature. For the same *C. vulgaris* as used here, lipid productivities in photobioreactors in seawater have been as high as $37 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (nutrient sufficient

conditions) (Luangpipat, 2013). A lipid productivity of $8 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in the nutrient sufficient raceway is ~22% of the nutrient sufficient lipid productivity of photobioreactors. However, algae production in photobioreactors tends to be much more expensive (e.g. 6 to 10-fold more expensive) than in raceways (Chisti, 2012; Chisti, 2013) and therefore, despite a lower productivity raceways can be a more cost-effective production system than photobioreactors.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary

This research focused on production of lipids by microalgae in seawater media. Several microalgae were initially screened for lipid productivity, biomass productivity, salinity tolerance and response of lipid productivity to nutrient starvation postgrowth. Based on these studies, *Chlorella vulgaris* was identified as the most promising alga. This alga was examined in detail for biomass and lipid production in marine media in a pilot-scale (~ 140 L) purpose-built open raceway.

Studies revealed that *C. vulgaris*, normally a freshwater alga, could be effectively grown in full strength seawater media that would be necessary for any large-scale production as freshwater is in short supply globally. Previous studies of *C. vulgaris* under saline conditions either used media with salinity far below that of seawater (e.g. salt concentrations of $\leq 23 \text{ g L}^{-1}$; Abdel-Rahman *et al.* 2005, Hiremath and Mathad, 2010), or focused on photobioreactors as production systems (Luangpipat, 2013).

Although normal seawater salinity significantly slowed the growth of *C. vulgaris* compared with the case for freshwater medium, the lipid content of the biomass was 1.9-fold higher in seawater. Consequently, this alga had a higher lipid productivity in full strength seawater than in freshwater under nutrient replete conditions.

The effect of salinity on growth, biomass production, lipid production, and the elemental composition of the biomass were reported for the first time for *C. vulgaris* (Table 4.2) and *N. salina* (Table 4.3), another alga of interest. Although the latter

marine alga was more halotolerant than *C. vulgaris*, it had a lower oil productivity and the oil content in the biomass could not be positively influenced by nutrient limitations.

In all cases, the use of a 12 h: 12 h light-dark cycle reduced biomass and lipid productivity of *C. vulgaris* relative to continuous illumination.

Studies confirmed that the phosphate concentration of the standard BG11 seawater medium was nonlimiting to growth at peak biomass concentrations that could be sustained by available light. Although all phosphate was generally consumed within the first few days of the start of a batch culture, growth continued unabated on intracellular stored phosphate. A doubling of the initial phosphate concentration did not influence either the biomass productivity or the final attainable concentration. This was consistent with the behavior previously described for microalgae (Miyachi and Miyachi, 1961; Miyachi and Tamiya, 1961; Miyachi *et al.*, 1964; Cembella *et al.*, 1984; John and Flynn, 2000).

Extensive work on the effects of nitrogen limitation on oil productivity and biomass characteristics was reported for *C. vulgaris* in marine media and also for *N. salina*. Nitrogen starvation postgrowth of *C. vulgaris* generally caused an increase in the lipid content of the biomass and its calorific value. In *N. salina*, nitrogen starvation did not trigger lipid accumulation in keeping with earlier studies (Boussiba *et al.*, 1987).

In raceway cultures at operating depth of ~0.23 m as is typical of industrial operations, the available light can only support a peak biomass concentration of ~0.8 kg m⁻³ and, therefore, nitrogen starvation cannot be achieved if the initial nitrate level is the same as in a standard BG11 medium. Therefore, an initial nitrogen level that could support the peak biomass concentration determined by light availability was experimentally identified. In the raceway, an initial nitrate concentration of 20% of the normal BG11 was found to provide the same lipid content and productivity as the normal BG11 medium, thus representing a nonnitrogen limiting condition for the

attainable biomass level while just consuming all the initial nitrate. Thus, with a 20% initial nitrate relative to standard BG11, a nitrogen limiting regime could be attained postgrowth in the raceway. Prolonged nitrogen starvation in the raceway led to an increase in the lipid content of the biomass so that the biomass contained ~42% of lipid on a dry basis. However, the lipid productivity was adversely affected as the biomass did not grow. Effects of nitrogen limitation in raceway culture of *C. vulgaris* have not been previously reported either in marine media or in freshwater cultures. Unlike in *C. vulgaris*, the lipid content of *N. salina* did not respond to nitrogen starvation in the raceway. Effect of dilution rate in steady state continuous raceway culture of *C. vulgaris* were discussed for the first time in relation to biomass productivity, lipid content, lipid productivity, biomass composition and calorific values.

Growth conditions and nutrient limitation affected the relative amounts of lipids, proteins, carbohydrates and other biomolecules in the biomass and this was reflected in changes in the levels of N, P and C in the biomass. In this work on *C. vulgaris*, depending on the conditions, the C content of the biomass varied from 41% to 64%; the nitrogen content varied from 2.9% to 8.5%; and the P content varied from 0.2% to 1.1%. There was an inverse relationship between the N content of the biomass and the lipid content. The energy content (calorific value) generally positively correlated with the C content. The *C. vulgaris* biomass had up to ~66% lipids under nitrogen deprived condition and a calorific value of $>31 \text{ kJ g}^{-1}$. Under these conditions the C content of the biomass exceeded 63%.

5.2 Conclusion

1. Based on biomass and lipid productivity in full strength seawater media, *C. vulgaris* proved to be the most promising alga compared to the other species tested in this study.

2. Originally a freshwater strain, *C. vulgaris* was successfully grown at normal seawater salinity; higher salinities adversely affected this alga.
3. *C. vulgaris* grown in ~2 L Duran bottle in seawater, attained a lipid content of ~66% of dry biomass and a lipid productivity of ~31 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹ under nitrogen starvation and continuous irradiance. A 12:12 h light-dark cycle reduced lipid content by 13% and lipid productivity by 41% relative to the case for continuous illumination.
4. The energy content and the C content of the biomass generally increased with increasing lipid content. Under nitrogen deficient condition in Duran bottles, the energy content and C content of the biomass increased up to 31 kJ g⁻¹ and >63%, respectively.
5. Lipid contents of the biomass produced in nitrogen sufficient raceway batches were 22-25%, or similar to the biomass grown in Duran bottles under nitrogen sufficient condition. Relative to 2 L Duran bottles, the peak biomass concentration in the raceway was 69% lower because of light limitations.
6. In raceway batch culture, the highest biomass and lipid productivities occurred under nutrient sufficient condition. These were >17 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹ and >4 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively. Under N starvation condition, lipid accumulation rate was slow and the lipid productivity was reduced relative to the nutrient sufficient case.
7. The continuous mode of operation in the raceway was promising, allowing a comparatively high biomass productivity of >61 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹ and a high lipid productivity of >8 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹ at a dilution rate of 0.173 d⁻¹ under nitrogen sufficient condition.

8. The highest energy content and C content of biomass produced in the raceway batch culture were $\sim 27 \text{ kJ g}^{-1}$ and 55-59%, respectively, obtained in low nitrogen media.
9. The proportions of the lipid classes in crude oil of *C. vulgaris* were $\sim 86\%$ of polar lipids and $\sim 14\%$ non-polar (i.e. neutral lipids) for the oil produced in raceway batch culture under nutrient sufficient conditions. The proportion of fatty acid in the algal oil was only 2% and most of the fatty acids were of the polyunsaturated type.

REFERENCES

- Aakanksha, Samantray, S., Guruprasad, S., and Ramachandra, T. V. (2010). *Diversity of lipids in algae*. Paper presented at the Lake 2010: Wetlands, Biodiversity and Climate Change, Bangalore, Energy & Wetlands Research Group, pp. 1-9.
- Aaronson, S. (1973). Effect of incubation temperature on macromolecular and lipid content of the phytoflagellate *Ochromonas danica*. *Journal of Phycology*, 9(1), 111-113.
- Abdel-Rahman, M. H. M., Ali, R. M., and Said, H. A. (2005). Alleviation of NaCl-induced effects on *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Chlorococcum humicola* by riboflavin application. *International Journal of Agriculture and Biology*, 7(1), 58-62.
- Al-Shayji, Y., Puskas, K., Al-Daher, R., and Esen, I. (1994). Production and separation of algae in a high-rate ponds system. *Environment International*, 20(4), 541-550.
- Alberts, B., Johnson, A., Lewis, J., Raff, M., Robertson, K., and Walter, P. (2002). *Molecular Biology of the Cell: Chloroplast and photosynthesis* (4th ed.). New York: Garland Science, <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK21054/>.
- Alonso, D. L., Belarbi, E.-H., Fernández-Sevilla, J. M., Rodríguez-Ruiz, J., and Grima, E. M. (2000). Acyl lipid composition variation related to culture age and nitrogen concentration in continuous culture of the microalga *Phaeodactylum tricorutum*. *Phytochemistry*, 54(5), 461-471.
- Alonso, D. L., Belarbi, E.-H., Rodríguez-Ruiz, J., Segura, C. I., and Giménez, A. (1998). Acyl lipids of three microalgae. *Phytochemistry*, 47(8), 1473-1481.
- Amaro, H. M., Guedes, A., and Malcata, F. X. (2011). Advances and perspectives in using microalgae to produce biodiesel. *Applied Energy*, 88(10), 3402-3410.
- Andersen, R. (1992). Diversity of eukaryotic algae. *Biodiversity & Conservation*, 1(4), 267-292.

- Antolin, G., Tinaut, F., Briceno, Y., Castano, V., Perez, C., and Ramirez, A. (2002). Optimisation of biodiesel production by sunflower oil transesterification. *Bioresource Technology*, 83(2), 111-114.
- Apt, K. E., and Behrens, P. W. (1999). Commercial developments in microalgal biotechnology. *Journal of Phycology*, 35(2), 215-226.
- Ashokkumar, V., and Rengasamy, R. (2012). Mass culture of *Botryococcus braunii* Kutz. under open raceway pond for biofuel production. *Bioresource Technology*, 104, 394-399.
- Azov, Y. (1982). Effect of pH on inorganic carbon uptake in algal cultures. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 43(6), 1300-1306.
- Banat, I., Puskas, K., Esen, I., and Al-Daher, R. (1990). Wastewater treatment and algal productivity in an integrated ponding system. *Biological Wastes*, 32(4), 265-275.
- Banerjee, A., Sharma, R., Chisti, Y., and Banerjee, U. (2002). *Botryococcus braunii*: a renewable source of hydrocarbons and other chemicals. *Critical Reviews in Biotechnology*, 22(3), 245-279.
- Barbosa, M. J. G. V. (2003). *Microalgal Photobioreactors: Scale-up and Optimisation*. PhD Thesis, Wageningen University, Wageningen, the Netherlands, pp. 166.
- Barsanti, L., and Gualtieri, P. (2005). *Algae: Anatomy, Biochemistry, and Biotechnology*. Florida: CRC Press, pp. 320.
- Bartke, N., and Hannun, Y. A. (2009). Bioactive sphingolipids: metabolism and function. *Journal of Lipid Research*, 50(Supplement), S91-S96.
- Béchet, Q., Shilton, A., Fringer, O. B., Muñoz, R., and Guieysse, B. (2010). Mechanistic modeling of broth temperature in outdoor photobioreactors. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 44(6), 2197-2203.
- Becker, E. W. (1994). *Microalgae: Biotechnology and Microbiology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 295.

- Beijerinck, M. W. (1890). Culturversuche mit Zoochlorellen, lichenengonidien and anderen niederen Algen. *Botanische Zeitung* 48, 726-740.
- Belarbi, E. H., Molina, E., and Chisti, Y. (2000). A process for high yield and scaleable recovery of high purity eicosapentaenoic acid esters from microalgae and fish oil. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 26(7), 516-529.
- Belay, A. (1997). Mass culture of *Spirulina* outdoors: the Earthrise Farms experience. In A. Vonshak (Ed.), *Spirulina platensis (Arthrospira): Physiology, Cell-biology and Biotechnology*. London: Taylor and Francis, pp. 131-158.
- Ben-Amotz, A., and Avron, M. (1983). Accumulation of metabolites by halotolerant algae and its industrial potential. *Annual Review of Microbiology*, 37, 95-119.
- Ben-Amotz, A., Katz, A., and Avron, M. (1982). Accumulation of β -carotene in halotolerant algae: purification and characterization of β -carotene-rich globules from *Dunaliella bardawil* (Chlorophyceae). *Journal of Phycology*, 18(4), 529-537.
- Ben-Amotz, A., Shaish, A., and Avron, M. (1989). Mode of action of the massively accumulated β -carotene of *Dunaliella bardawil* in protecting the alga against damage by excess irradiation. *Plant Physiology*, 91(3), 1040-1043.
- Ben-Amotz, A., Tornabene, T. G., and Thomas, W. H. (1985). Chemical profile of selected species of microalgae with emphasis on lipids. *Journal of Phycology*, 21(1), 72-81.
- Benemann, J. R., and Oswald, W. J. (1996). *Systems and Economic Analysis of Microalgae Ponds for Conversion of CO₂ to Biomass. Final Report*. California University, Department of Civil Engineering, Berkeley, California.
- Berge, J.-P., Gouygou, J.-P., Dubacq, J.-P., and Durand, P. (1995). Reassessment of lipid composition of the diatom, *Skeletonema costatum*. *Phytochemistry*, 39(5), 1017-1021.

- Bigogno, Khozin-Goldberg, I., and Cohen, Z. (2002). Accumulation of arachidonic acid-rich triacylglycerols in the microalga *Parietochloris incisa* (Trebuxiophyceae, Chlorophyta). *Phytochemistry*, 60(2), 135-143.
- Blanco, A. M., Moreno, J., Del Campo, J. A., Rivas, J., and Guerrero, M. G. (2007). Outdoor cultivation of lutein-rich cells of *Muriellopsis* sp. in open ponds. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 73(6), 1259-1266.
- Blatti, J. L., Beld, J., Behnke, C. A., Mendez, M., Mayfield, S. P., and Burkart, M. D. (2012). Manipulating fatty acid biosynthesis in microalgae for biofuel through protein-protein interactions. *PLoS ONE*, 7(9), e42949.
- Bligh, E. G., and Dyer, W. J. (1959). A rapid method of total lipid extraction and purification. *Canadian Journal of Biochemistry and Physiology*, 37(8), 911-917.
- Bolton, J. R., and Hall, D. O. (1991). The maximum efficiency of photosynthesis. *Photochemistry and Photobiology*, 53(4), 545-548.
- Borowitzka, M. A. (1988). Fats, oils and hydrocarbons. In M. A. Borowitzka, and L. J. Borowitzka (Eds.), *Micro-Algal Biotechnology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 257-287.
- Borowitzka, L. J., and Borowitzka, M. A. (1990). Commercial production of β -carotene by *Dunaliella salina* in open ponds. *Bulletin of Marine Science*, 47(1), 244-252.
- Borowitzka, M. A. (1996). Closed algal photobioreactors: design considerations for large-scale systems. *Journal of Marine Biotechnology*, 4(4), 185-191.
- Borowitzka, M. A. (1997). Microalgae for aquaculture: opportunities and constraints. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 9(5), 393-401.
- Borowitzka, M. A. (1998). Limits to growth. In Y. S. Wong, and N. F. Y. Tam (Eds.), *Wastewater Treatment with Algae*. Berlin: Springer, pp. 203-226.
- Borowitzka, M. A. (1999a). Commercial production of microalgae: ponds, tanks, tubes and fermenters. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 70(1-3), 313-321.

- Borowitzka, M. A. (1999b). Economic evaluation of microalgal processes and products. In Z. Cohen (Ed.), *Chemicals from Microalgae*. London: Taylor & Francis, pp. 387-409.
- Borowitzka, M. A. (2005). Culturing microalgae in outdoor ponds. In R. Anderson (Ed.), *Algal Culturing Techniques*. London: Academic Press, pp. 205-217.
- Borowitzka, M. A. (2010). Algae oils for biofuels: chemistry, physiology, and production. In Z. Cohen, and C. Ratledge (Eds.), *Single Cell Oils: Microbial and Algal Oils*. Urbana: AOCS Press, pp. 271-289.
- Borowitzka, M. A., and Moheimani, N. R. (2012). Open pond culture system. In M. A. Borowitzka, and N. R. Moheimani (Eds.), *Algae for Biofuels and Energy*. New York: Springer, pp. 133-152.
- Borowitzka, M. A. (2013). High-value products from microalgae—their development and commercialisation. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 25, 743-756.
- Borowitzka, M., and Moheimani, N. (2013). Sustainable biofuels from algae. *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global Change*, 18(1), 13-25.
- Boussiba, S., Vonshak, A., Cohen, Z., Avissar, Y., and Richmond, A. (1987). Lipid and biomass production by the halotolerant microalga *Nannochloropsis salina*. *Biomass*, 12(1), 37-47.
- Bouterfas, R., Belkoura, M., and Dauta, A. (2002). Light and temperature effects on the growth rate of three freshwater algae isolated from a eutrophic lake. *Hydrobiologia*, 489(1-3), 207-217.
- Bozzola, J. J., and Russell, L. D. (1998). *Electron Microscopy: Principles and Techniques for Biologists*. Sudbury, Jones and Barlett, pp. 641.
- BP. (2013). *BP Statistical Review of World Energy*. London, UK, British Petroleum, pp. 45.

- Bradshaw, A., and Schleicher, K. (1980). Electrical conductivity of seawater. *Oceanic Engineering, IEEE Journal of*, 5(1), 50-62.
- Brand, L. E. (1984). The salinity tolerance of forty-six marine phytoplankton isolates. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science*, 18(5), 543-556.
- Brenckmann, F., Largeau, C., Casadevall, E., Corre, B., and Berkaloff, C. (1985). Influence of light intensity on hydrocarbon and total biomass production of *Botryococcus braunii*. Relationships with photosynthetic characteristics. In W. Paiz, J. Coombs, and D. O. Hall (Eds.), *Energy from Biomass*. London: Elsevier, pp. 722-726.
- Brown, M. R., Dunstan, G. A., Norwood, S., and Miller, K. A. (1996). Effects of harvest stage and light on the biochemical composition of the diatom *Thalassiosira pseudonana*. *Journal of Phycology*, 32(1), 64-73.
- Cagliari, A., Margis, R., dos Santos Maraschin, F., Turchetto-Zolet, A. C., Loss, G., and Margis-Pinheiro, M. (2011). Biosynthesis of triacylglycerols (TAGs) in plants and algae. *International Journal of Plant Biology*, 2(1), e10.
- Campbell, N., and Reece, J. (2005). Review of photosynthesis. In *Photosynthesis* (Ed.), Pearson Education *Photosynthesis*: Pearson Education Inc. Publishing as Benjamin Cummings, pp. 76, <http://www.gobooke.org/pearson-education-photosynthesis/>.
- Campbell, P. K., Beer, T., and Batten, D. (2011). Life cycle assessment of biodiesel production from microalgae in ponds. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(1), 50-56.
- Carnicas, E., Jiménez, C., and Niell, F. X. (1999). Effects of changes of irradiance on the pigment composition of *Gracilaria tenuistipitata* var. *liui* Zhang et Xia. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology*, 50(2), 149-158.

- Carvalho, A. P., Meireles, L. A., and Malcata, F. X. (2006). Microalgal reactors: a review of enclosed system designs and performances. *Biotechnology Progress*, 22(6), 1490-1506.
- Cembella, A. D., Antia, N. J., and Harrison, P. J. (1984). The utilization of inorganic and organic phosphorus-compounds as nutrients by eukaryotic microalgae - A multidisciplinary perspective: Part 2. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology*, 11(1), 13-81.
- Chen, C.-Y., Yeh, K.-L., Su, H.-M., Lo, Y.-C., Chen, W.-M., and Chang, J.-S. (2010). Strategies to enhance cell growth and achieve high-level oil production of a *Chlorella vulgaris* isolate. *Biotechnology Progress*, 26(3), 679-686.
- Chen, C.-Y., Yeh, K.-L., Aisyah, R., Lee, D.-J., and Chang, J.-S. (2011). Cultivation, photobioreactor design and harvesting of microalgae for biodiesel production: a critical review. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(1), 71-81.
- Chen, F. (1996). High cell density culture of microalgae in heterotrophic growth. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 14(11), 421-426.
- Chen, M., Tang, H., Ma, H., Holland, T. C., Ng, K. Y., and Salley, S. O. (2011). Effect of nutrients on growth and lipid accumulation in the green algae *Dunaliella tertiolecta*. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(2), 1649-1655.
- Chini Zittelli, G., Lavista, F., Bastianini, A., Rodolfi, L., Vincenzini, M., and Tredici, M. R. (1999). Production of eicosapentaenoic acid by *Nannochloropsis* sp. cultures in outdoor tubular photobioreactors. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 70(1-3), 299-312.
- Chisti, Y. (1980-81). An unusual hydrocarbon. *Journal of Ramsay Society*, 81, 27-28.
- Chisti, Y. (2007). Biodiesel from microalgae. *Biotechnology Advances*, 25(3), 294-306.
- Chisti, Y. (2008). Biodiesel from microalgae beats bioethanol. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 26(3), 126-131.

- Chisti, Y., and Yan, J. (2011). Energy from algae: Current status and future trends: Algal biofuels—A status report. *Applied Energy*, 88(10), 3277-3279.
- Chisti, Y. (2012). Raceways-based production of algal crude oil. In C. Posten, and C. Walter (Eds.), *Microalgal Biotechnology: Potential and Production*. Berlin: de Gruyter, pp. 113-146.
- Chisti, Y. (2013). Constraints to commercialization of algal fuels. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 167(3), 201-214.
- Choi, W.-Y., Oh, S.-H., Seo, Y.-C., Kim, G.-B., Kang, D.-H., Lee, S.-Y., Jung, K.-H., Cho, J.-S., Ahn, J.-H., et al. (2011). Effects of methanol on cell growth and lipid production from mixotrophic cultivation of *Chlorella* sp. *Biotechnology and Bioprocess Engineering*, 16(5), 946-955.
- Chojnacka, K. (2004). Kinetic and stoichiometric relationships of the energy and carbon metabolism in the culture of microalgae. *Biotechnology*, 3, 21-34.
- Christie, W. W. (2003). *Lipid Analysis: Isolation, Separation, Identification and Lipidomic Analysis*. Bridgewater: The Oily Press, PJ Barnes & Associates, pp. 150.
- Cohen, Z., Vonshak, A., Boussiba, S., and Richmond, A. (1988). The effect of temperature and cell concentration on the fatty acid composition of outdoor cultures of *Porphyridium cruentum*. In T. Stadler, J. Mollion, M. C. Verdu, Y. Karamanos, H. Morvan, and D. Christiaen (Eds.), *Algal Biotechnology*. London: Elsevier Applied Science, pp. 421-429.
- Collins, C. D., and Boylen, C. W. (1982). Physiological responses of *Anabaena variabilis* (Cyanophyceae) to instantaneous exposure to various combinations of light intensity and temperature. *Journal of Phycology*, 18(2), 206-211.
- Converti, A., Casazza, A. A., Ortiz, E. Y., Perego, P., and Del Borghi, M. (2009). Effect of temperature and nitrogen concentration on the growth and lipid content of

- Nannochloropsis oculata* and *Chlorella vulgaris* for biodiesel production. *Chemical Engineering and Processing*, 48(6), 1146-1151.
- Cook, J., and Beyea, J. (2000). Bioenergy in the United States: progress and possibilities. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 18(6), 441-455.
- Cooksey, K. E., Guckert, S. A., Williams, S. A., and Callis, P. R. (1987). Fluorometric determination of the neutral lipid content of microalgal cells using Nile red. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, 6, 333-345.
- Courchesne, N. M. D., Parisien, A., Wang, B., and Lan, C. Q. (2009). Enhancement of lipid production using biochemical, genetic and transcription factor engineering approaches. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 141(1), 31-41.
- Cromar, N., Fallowfield, H. J., and Martin, N. (1996). Influence of environmental parameters on biomass production and nutrient removal in a high rate algal pond operated by continuous culture. *Water Science and Technology*, 34(11), 133-140.
- Cromar, N. J., and Fallowfield, H. J. (1997). Effect of nutrient loading and retention time on performance of high rate algal ponds. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 9(4), 301-309.
- Culkin, F., and Smith, N. (1980). Determination of the concentration of potassium chloride solution having the same electrical conductivity, at 15 °C and infinite frequency, as standard seawater of salinity 35.0000‰ (Chlorinity 19.37394‰). *IEEE Journal of Oceanic Engineering*, 5(1), 22-23.
- da Silva, T. L., Reis, A., Medeiros, R., Oliveira, A. C., and Gouveia, L. (2009). Oil production towards biofuel from autotrophic microalgae semicontinuous cultivations monitorized by flow cytometry. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 159(2), 568-578.

- Damiani, M. C., Popovich, C. A., Constenla, D., and Leonardi, P. I. (2010). Lipid analysis in *Haematococcus pluvialis* to assess its potential use as a biodiesel feedstock. *Bioresource Technology*, 101(11), 3801-3807.
- Dauphinee, T., Ancsin, J., Klein, H., and Phillips, M. (1980). The effect of concentration and temperature on the conductivity ratio of potassium chloride solutions to standard seawater of salinity 35‰ (Cl 19.3740‰). *IEEE Journal of Oceanic Engineering*, 5(1), 17-21.
- Davison, I. R. (1991). Environmental effects on algal photosynthesis: Temperature. *Journal of Phycology*, 27(1), 2-8.
- de-Bashan, L. E., Bashan, Y., Moreno, M., Lebsky, V. K., and Bustillos, J. J. (2002). Increased pigment and lipid content, lipid variety, and cell and population size of the microalgae *Chlorella* spp. when co-immobilized in alginate beads with the microalgae-growth-promoting bacterium *Azospirillum brasilense*. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology*, 48(6), 514-521.
- Dismukes, G. C., Carrieri, D., Bennette, N., Ananyev, G. M., and Posewitz, M. C. (2008). Aquatic phototrophs: efficient alternatives to land-based crops for biofuels. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 19(3), 235-240.
- Dodd, J. C. (1986). Elements of pond design and construction. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *CRC Handbook of Microalgal Mass Culture*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, pp. 265-283.
- Doran, P. M. (1995). *Bioprocess Engineering Principles*. London: Academic Press, pp. 439.
- Douglas, S. E., Larkum, A. W. D., and Raven, J. A. (2003). *Photosynthesis in Algae*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic, pp. 479.
- Dufossé, L., Galaup, P., Yaron, A., Arad, S. M., Blanc, P., Chidambara Murthy, K. N., and Ravishankar, G. A. (2005). Microorganisms and microalgae as sources of

- pigments for food use: a scientific oddity or an industrial reality? *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 16(9), 389-406.
- Ehleringer, J. R., and Cerling, T. E. (2002). C3 and C4 photosynthesis. *Encyclopedia of Global Environmental Change. The Earth system: biological and ecological dimensions of global environmental change*, 2, 186-190.
- Ekman, Å., Bülow, L., and Stymne, S. (2007). Elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration and diurnal cycle induce changes in lipid composition in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *New Phytologist*, 174(3), 591-599.
- Elgavish, A., and Elgavish, G. A. (1980). ³¹P-NMR differentiation between intracellular phosphate pools in *Cosmarium* (Chlorophyta). *Journal of Phycology*, 16(3), 368-374.
- Elsay, D., Jameson, D., Raleigh, B., and Cooney, M. J. (2007). Fluorescent measurement of microalgal neutral lipids. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, 68(3), 639-642.
- Endo, T., Schreiber, U., and Asada, K. (1995). Suppression of quantum yield of photosystem II by hyperosmotic stress in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *Plant and Cell Physiology*, 36, 1253-1258.
- Eriksen, N. T. (2008). The technology of microalgal culturing. *Biotechnology Letters*, 30(9), 1525-1536.
- Fabregas, J., Dominguez, A., Regueiro, M., Maseda, A., and Otero, A. (2000). Optimization of culture medium for the continuous cultivation of the microalga *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 53(5), 530-535.
- Farrell, A. E., Plevin, R. J., Turner, B. T., Jones, A. D., O'hare, M., and Kammen, D. M. (2006). Ethanol can contribute to energy and environmental goals. *Science*, 311(5760), 506-508.

- Fidalgo, J. P., Cid, A., Torres, E., Sukenik, A., and Herrero, C. (1998). Effects of nitrogen source and growth phase on proximate biochemical composition, lipid classes and fatty acid profile of the marine microalga *Isochrysis galbana*. *Aquaculture*, 166(1-2), 105-116.
- Folch, J., Lees, M., and Sloane-Stanley, G. (1957). A simple method for the isolation and purification of total lipids from animal tissues. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 226(1), 497-509.
- García-González, M., Moreno, J., Canavate, J., Anguis, V., Prieto, A., Manzano, C., Florencio, F., and Guerrero, M. (2003). Conditions for open-air outdoor culture of *Dunaliella salina* in southern Spain. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 15(2-3), 177-184.
- Gardner, R., Peters, P., Peyton, B., and Cooksey, K. (2010). Medium pH and nitrate concentration effects on accumulation of triacylglycerol in two members of the chlorophyta. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 23, 1005 - 1016.
- Gavrilescu, M., and Chisti, Y. (2005). Biotechnology—a sustainable alternative for chemical industry. *Biotechnology Advances*, 23(7), 471-499.
- Geider, R. J. (1987). Light and temperature dependence of the carbon to chlorophyll a ratio in microalgae and cyanobacteria: implications for physiology and growth of phytoplankton. *New Phytologist*, 106, 1-34.
- Gilmour, D. J., Hipkins, M. F., and Boney, A. D. (1984). The effect of osmotic and ionic stress on the primary processes of photosynthesis in *Dunaliella tertiolecta*. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, 35(1), 18-27.
- Ginzburg, B.-Z. (1993). Liquid fuel (oil) from halophilic algae: a renewable source of non-polluting energy. *Renewable Energy*, 3(2), 249-252.
- Goldman, C. R., and Horne, A. J. (1994). *Limnology*. New York: McGraw-Hill, pp. 464.

- Goldman, J. C., Azov, Y., Riley, C. B., and Dennett, M. R. (1982). The effect of pH in intensive microalgal cultures. I. Biomass regulation. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*, 57(1), 1-13.
- Gomez, P. I., Barriga, A., Cifuentes, A. S., and Gonzalez, M. A. (2003). Effect of salinity on the quantity and quality of carotenoids accumulated by *Dunaliella salina* (strain CONC-007) and *Dunaliella bardawil* (strain ATCC 30861) Chlorophyta. *Biological Research*, 36(2), 185-192.
- Görs, M., Schumann, R., Hepperle, D., and Karsten, U. (2010). Quality analysis of commercial *Chlorella* products used as dietary supplement in human nutrition. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 22(3), 265-276.
- Greenwell, H. C., Laurens, L. M. L., Shields, R. J., Lovitt, R. W., and Flynn, K. J. (2010). Placing microalgae on the biofuels priority list: a review of the technological challenges. *Journal of the Royal Society Interface*, 7(46), 703-726.
- Griffiths, M. J., and Harrison, S. T. L. (2009). Lipid productivity as a key characteristic for choosing algal species for biodiesel production. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 21(5), 493-507.
- Grobbelaar, J. U. (2004). Algal nutrition: Mineral nutrition. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *Handbook of Microalgal Culture: Biotechnology and Applied Phycology*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 97-115.
- Grover, J. P. (1989). Phosphorus-dependent growth kinetics of 11 species of freshwater algae. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 341-348.
- Guckert, J. B., and Cooksey, K. E. (1990). Triglyceride accumulation and fatty acid profile changes in *Chlorella* (Chlorophyta) during high pH-induced cell cycle inhibition. *Journal of Phycology*, 26(1), 72-79.

- Gudin, C., and Chaumont, D. (1991). Cell fragility—the key problem of microalgae mass production in closed photobioreactors. *Bioresource Technology*, 38(2), 145-151.
- Guillard, R. R. L., and Ryther, J. H. (1962). Studies of marine planktonic diatoms. I. *Cyclotella nana* Hustedt and *Detonula confervacea* Cleve. *Canadian Journal of Microbiology*, 8, 229-239.
- Guillard, R. R. L. (1975). Culture of phytoplankton for feeding marine invertebrates. In W. L. Smith, and M. H. Chanley (Eds.), *Culture of Marine Invertebrate Animals*. New York, USA: Plenum Press, pp. 26-60.
- Guschina, I. A., and Harwood, J. L. (2006). Lipids and lipid metabolism in eukaryotic algae. *Progress in Lipid Research*, 45(2), 160-186.
- Hanagata, N., Takeuchi, T., Fukuju, Y., Barnes, D. J., and Karube, I. (1992). Tolerance of microalgae to high CO₂ and high temperature. *Phytochemistry*, 31(10), 3345-3348.
- Harwood, J. L., and Guschina, I. A. (2009). The versatility of algae and their lipid metabolism. *Biochimie*, 91(6), 679-684.
- Hase, R., Oikawa, H., Sasao, C., Morita, M., and Watanabe, Y. (2000). Photosynthetic production of microalgal biomass in a raceway system under greenhouse conditions in Sendai city. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*, 89(2), 157-163.
- Healey, F. P. (1973). Inorganic nutrient uptake and deficiency in algae. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology*, 3(1), 69-113.
- Hellebusi, J. (1976). Osmoregulation. *Annual Review of Plant Physiology*, 27(1), 485-505.
- Hempel, N., Petrick, I., and Behrendt, F. (2012). Biomass productivity and productivity of fatty acids and amino acids of microalgae strains as key characteristics of

- suitability for biodiesel production. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 24(6), 1407-1418.
- Hernandez, J. P., de-Bashan, L. E., and Bashan, Y. (2006). Starvation enhances phosphorus removal from wastewater by the microalga *Chlorella* spp. co-immobilized with *Azospirillum brasilense*. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 38, 190-198.
- Hiremath, S., and Mathad, P. (2010). Impact of salinity on the physiological and biochemical traits of *Chlorella vulgaris* Beijerinck. *Journal of Algal Biomass Utilization*, 1(2), 51-59.
- Ho, S.-H., Kondo, A., Hasunuma, T., and Chang, J.-S. (2013). Engineering strategies for improving the CO₂ fixation and carbohydrate productivity of *Scenedesmus obliquus* CNW-N used for bioethanol fermentation. *Bioresource Technology*, 143, 163-171.
- Hsieh, C.-H., and Wu, W.-T. (2009). Cultivation of microalgae for oil production with a cultivation strategy of urea limitation. *Bioresource Technology*, 100(17), 3921-3926.
- Hu, H., and Gao, K. (2006). Response of growth and fatty acid compositions of *Nannochloropsis* sp. to environmental factors under elevated CO₂ concentration. *Biotechnology Letters*, 28(13), 987-992.
- Hu, Q., and Richmond, A. (1996). Productivity and photosynthetic efficiency of *Spirulina platensis* as affected by light intensity, algal density and rate of mixing in a flat plate photobioreactor. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 8(2), 139-145.
- Hu, Q. (2004). Environmental effects on cell composition. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *Handbook of Microalgal Culture: Biotechnology and Applied Phycology*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 83-93.

- Hu, Q., Zhang, C. W., and Sommerfeld, M. (2006). Biodiesel from alga: lessons learned over the past 60 years and future perspectives. *Juneau, Alaska: Annual Meeting of the Phycological Society of America*, July 7-12, pp. 40-41.
- Hu, Q., Sommerfeld, M., Jarvis, E., Ghirardi, M., Posewitz, M., Seibert, M., and Darzins, A. (2008). Microalgal triacylglycerols as feedstocks for biofuel production: perspectives and advances. *Plant Journal*, 54(4), 621-639.
- Huesemann, M. H., Hausmann, T. S., Bartha, R., Aksoy, M., Weissman, J. C., and Benemann, J. R. (2009). Biomass productivities in wild type and pigment mutant of *Cyclotella* sp. (Diatom). *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 157(3), 507-526.
- Huntley, M. E., and Redalje, D. G. (2007). CO₂ mitigation and renewable oil from photosynthetic microbes: a new appraisal. *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global Change*, 12(4), 573-608.
- IEA. (2010). *Key World Energy Statistics 2010*. Paris, International Energy Agency, pp. 82.
- Illman, A. M., Scragg, A. H., and Shales, S. W. (2000). Increase in *Chlorella* strains calorific values when grown in low nitrogen medium. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 27(8), 631-635.
- Iwamoto, H. (2004). Industrial production of microalgal cell-mass and secondary products - major industrial species. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *Handbook of Microalgal Culture: Biotechnology and Applied Phycology*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 255-263.
- James, C., Al-Hinty, S., and Salman, A. (1989). Growth and ω 3 fatty acid and amino acid composition of microalgae under different temperature regimes. *Aquaculture*, 77(4), 337-351.

- James, S. C., and Boriah, V. (2010). Modeling algae growth in an open-channel raceway. *Journal of Computational Biology: a journal of computational molecular cell biology*, 17(7), 895-906.
- Jamieson, G. R., and Reid, E. H. (1972). Component fatty acids of some marine algal lipids. *Phytochemistry*, 11(4), 1423-1432.
- Jansson, M. (1988). Phosphate uptake and utilization by bacteria and algae. *Hydrobiologia*, 170, 177-189.
- Jiménez, C., Cossío, B. R., and Niell, F. X. (2003a). Relationship between physicochemical variables and productivity in open ponds for the production of *Spirulina*: a predictive model of algal yield. *Aquaculture*, 221(1-4), 331-345.
- Jiménez, C., Cossío, B. R., Labella, D., and Xavier Niell, F. (2003b). The Feasibility of industrial production of *Spirulina (Arthrospira)* in Southern Spain. *Aquaculture*, 217(1), 179-190.
- John, E. H., and Flynn, K. J. (2000). Modelling phosphate transport and assimilation in microalgae; how much complexity is warranted? *Ecological Modelling*, 125(2-3), 145-157.
- Kanai, R., Aoki, S., and Miyachi, S. (1965). Quantitative separation of inorganic polyphosphates in *Chlorella* cells. *Plant and Cell Physiology*, 6(3), 467-473.
- Kaplan, D., Richmond, A. E., Dubinsky, Z., and Aaronson, A. (1986). Algal nutrition. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *Handbook of Microalgal Mass Culture*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, pp. 147-198.
- Kates, M. (1986) *Techniques of Lipidology: Isolation, analysis and identification of lipids, 2nd revised edition* (ed.). Amsterdam: Elsevier, pp. 186-278.
- Kauss, H. (1977). Biochemistry of osmotic regulation. In D. H. Northcote (Ed.), *Algae and Vascular Plants, International review of biochemistry, Plant Biochemistry* (Vol. 13). Baltimore: University Park Press, pp. 119-140.

- Kessel, D. G. (2000). Global warming—facts, assessment, countermeasures. *Journal of Petroleum Science and Engineering*, 26(1), 157-168.
- Kessler, E. (1976). Comparative physiology, biochemistry, and the taxonomy of *Chlorella* (Chlorophyceae). *Plant Systematics and Evolution*, 125(3), 129-138.
- Ketheesan, B., and Nirmalakhandan, N. (2011). Development of a new airlift-driven raceway reactor for algal cultivation. *Applied Energy*, 88(10), 3370-3376.
- Ketheesan, B., and Nirmalakhandan, N. (2012). Feasibility of microalgal cultivation in a pilot-scale airlift-driven raceway reactor. *Bioresource Technology*, 108, 196-202.
- Khozin-Goldberg, I., and Cohen, Z. (2006). The effect of phosphate starvation on the lipid and fatty acid composition of the fresh water eustigmatophyte *Monodus subterraneus*. *Phytochemistry*, 67(7), 696-701.
- Khozin-Goldberg, I., and Cohen, Z. (2011). Unraveling algal lipid metabolism: Recent advances in gene identification. *Biochimie*, 93(1), 91-100.
- Kirst, G. O. (1989). Salinity tolerance of eukaryotic marine algae. *Annual Review of Plant Physiology and Plant Molecular Biology*, 40, 21-23.
- Knud-Hansen, C. F. (1998). Managing algal productivity. In K. McElwee, J. Baker, and D. Clair (Eds.), *Pond Fertilization: Ecological Approach and Practical Application*. Oregon: Pond Dynamics/Aquaculture Collaborative Research Support Program, Oregon State University, pp. 16-33.
- Kok, B. (1953). Experiments on photosynthesis by *Chlorella* in flashing light. In J. S. Burlew (Ed.), *Algal Culture: From Laboratory to Pilot Plant* (Vol. 600). Washington, Carnegie Institution of Washington Publication, pp. 63-75.
- Kröger, M., and Müller-Langer, F. (2012). Review on possible algal-biofuel production processes. *Biofuels*, 3(3), 333-349.

- Kuhl, A. (1974). Phosphorus. In W. D. P. Stewart (Ed.), *Algal Physiology and Biochemistry*. Oxford: Blackwell Scientific, pp. 636-654.
- Kumar, K., Banerjee, D., and Das, D. (2014). Carbon dioxide sequestration from industrial flue gas by *Chlorella sorokiniana*. *Bioresource Technology*, *152*, 225-233.
- Lam, M. K., and Lee, K. T. (2012). Microalgae biofuels: A critical review of issues, problems and the way forward. *Biotechnology Advances*, *30*(3), 673-690.
- Lang, X., Dalai, A., Bakhshi, N., Reaney, M., and Hertz, P. (2001). Preparation and characterization of bio-diesels from various bio-oils. *Bioresource Technology*, *80*(1), 53-62.
- Lardon, L., Hélias, A., Sialve, B., Steyer, J. P., and Bernard, O. (2009). Life-cycle assessment of biodiesel production from microalgae. *Environmental Science & Technology*, *43*(17), 6475-6481.
- Largeau, C., Casadevall, E., and Dif, D. (1981). Renewable hydrocarbon production from the alga *Botryococcus braunii*. In W. Palz, P. Chartier, and D. O. Hall (Eds.), *Energy from Biomass*. London: Elsevier, pp. 653-658.
- Laws, E. A., and Berning, J. L. (1991). A study of the energetics and economics of microalgal mass culture with the marine chlorophyte *Tetraselmis suecica*: implications for use of power plant stack gases. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, *37*(10), 936-947.
- Laws, E. A., Taguchi, S., Hirata, J., and Pang, L. (1988). Optimization of microalgal production in a shallow outdoor flume. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, *32*(2), 140-147.
- Laws, E. A., Terry, K. L., Wickman, J., and Chalup, M. S. (1983). A simple algal production system designed to utilize the flashing light effect. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, *25*(10), 2319-2335.

- Lee, J.-Y., Yoo, C., Jun, S.-Y., Ahn, C.-Y., and Oh, H.-M. (2010). Comparison of several methods for effective lipid extraction from microalgae. *Bioresource Technology*, 101(1), S75-S77.
- Lee, R. E. (1989). *Phycology*, (second ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 645.
- Lee, Y.-K. (1986). Enclosed bioreactors for the mass cultivation of photosynthetic microorganisms: the future trend. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 4(7), 186-189.
- Lehr, F., and Posten, C. (2009). Closed photo-bioreactors as tools for biofuel production. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 20(3), 280-285.
- Leonardi, P. I., Popovich, C. A., and Damiani, M. C. (2011). Feedstocks for second-generation biodiesel: microalgae's biology and oil composition. In M. A. D. S. Bernardes (Ed.), *Economic Effects of Biofuel Production*. Rijeka: InTech, pp. 317-346.
- Lepage, G., and Roy, C. C. (1984). Improved recovery of fatty acid through direct transesterification without prior extraction or purification. *Journal of Lipid Research*, 25(12), 1391-1396.
- Lestari, S., Mäki-Arvela, P., Beltramini, J., Lu, G., and Murzin, D. Y. (2009). Transforming triglycerides and fatty acids into biofuels. *ChemSusChem*, 2(12), 1109-1119.
- Lewis, E. L. (1980). The practical salinity scale 1978 and its antecedents. *IEEE Journal of Oceanic Engineering*, 5(1), 3-8.
- Lewis, E. L., and Perkin, R. G. (1978). Salinity: Its definition and calculation. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans (1978–2012)*, 83(C1), 466-478.
- Li, X., Xu, H., and Wu, Q. (2007). Large-scale biodiesel production from microalga *Chlorella protothecoides* through heterotrophic cultivation in bioreactors. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 98(4), 764-771.

- Liang, Y. N., Sarkany, N., and Cui, Y. (2009). Biomass and lipid productivities of *Chlorella vulgaris* under autotrophic, heterotrophic and mixotrophic growth conditions. *Biotechnology Letters*, 31(7), 1043-1049.
- Lin, Q. A., and Lin, J. D. (2011). Effects of nitrogen source and concentration on biomass and oil production of a *Scenedesmus rubescens* like microalga. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(2), 1615-1621.
- Liu, S. (2012). *Bioprocess Engineering: Kinetics, Biosystems, Sustainability, and Reactor Design*. Amsterdam: Elsevier, pp. 984.
- Liu, Z. Y., Wang, G. C., and Zhou, B. C. (2008). Effect of iron on growth and lipid accumulation in *Chlorella vulgaris*. *Bioresource Technology*, 99(11), 4717-4722.
- Lobban, C. S., and Harrison, P. J. (1994). *Seaweed Ecology and Physiology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 366.
- Lombardi, A., and Wangersky, P. (1995). Particulate lipid class composition of three marine phytoplankters *Chaetoceros gracilis*, *Isochrysis galbana* (Tahiti) and *Dunaliella tertiolecta* grown in batch culture. *Hydrobiologia*, 306(1), 1-6.
- Longhurst, A., Sathyendranath, S., Platt, T., and Caverhill, C. (1995). An estimate of global primary production in the ocean from satellite radiometer data. *Journal of Plankton Research*, 17(6), 1245-1271.
- Lü, J., Sheahan, C., and Fu, P. (2011). Metabolic engineering of algae for fourth generation biofuels production. *Energy & Environmental Science*, 4(7), 2451-2466.
- Luangpipat, T. (2013). *Photobioreactor production of microalgae for potential fuel oils*. PhD Thesis, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand, pp. 347.

- Ly, J.-M., Cheng, L.-H., Xu, X.-H., Zhang, L., and Chen, H.-L. (2010). Enhanced lipid production of *Chlorella vulgaris* by adjustment of cultivation conditions. *Bioresource Technology*, 101(17), 6797-6804.
- Macedo, M. F., Duarte, P., and Ferreira, J. G. (2002). The influence of incubation periods on photosynthesis–irradiance curves. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*, 274(2), 101-120.
- Maddux, W. S., and Jones, R. F. (1964). Some interactions of temperature, light intensity, and nutrient concentration during the continuous culture of *Nitzschia closterium* and *Tetraselmis* sp. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 9(1), 79-86.
- Makewicz, A., Gribi, C., and Eichenberger, W. (1997). Lipids of *Ectocarpus fasciculatus* (Phaeophyceae). Incorporation of [1-¹⁴C] oleate and the role of TAG and MGDG in lipid metabolism. *Plant and Cell Physiology*, 38(8), 952-962.
- Mallick, N., Mandal, S., Singh, A. K., Bishai, M., and Dash, A. (2012). Green microalga *Chlorella vulgaris* as a potential feedstock for biodiesel. *Journal of Chemical Technology and Biotechnology*, 87(1), 137-145.
- Mandal, S., and Mallick, N. (2009). Microalga *Scenedesmus obliquus* as a potential source for biodiesel production. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 84(2), 281-291.
- Märkl, H., and Mather, M. (1985). Mixing and aeration of shallow open ponds. *Archiv für Hydrobiologie–Beiheft Ergebnisse der Limnologie*, 20, 85-93.
- Marsh, J. B., and Weinstein, D. B. (1966). Simple charring method for determination of lipids. *Journal of Lipid Research*, 7(4), 574-576.
- Mata, T. M., Martins, A. A., and Caetano, N. S. (2010). Microalgae for biodiesel production and other applications: A review. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 14(1), 217-232.

- Matsumoto, H., Shioji, N., Hamasaki, A., Ikuta, Y., Fukuda, Y., Sato, M., Endo, N., and Tsukamoto, T. (1995). Carbon dioxide fixation by microalgae photosynthesis using actual flue gas discharged from a boiler. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 51(1), 681-692.
- Matsumoto, M., Yokouchi, H., Suzuki, N., Ohata, H., and Matsunaga, T. (2003). Saccharification of marine microalgae using marine bacteria for ethanol production. In B. Davison, J. Lee, M. Finkelstein, and J. McMillan (Eds.), *Biotechnology for Fuels and Chemicals*. New York: Humana Press, pp. 247-254.
- Matthew, T., Zhou, W., Rupprecht, J., Lim, L., Thomas-Hall, S. R., Doebbe, A., Kruse, O., Hankamer, B., Marx, U. C., et al. (2009). The metabolome of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* following induction of anaerobic H₂ production by sulfur depletion. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 284(35), 23415-23425.
- Matthijs, H. C. P., Balke, H., van Hes, U. M., Kroon, B. M. A., Mur, L. R., and Binot, R. A. (1996). Application of light-emitting diodes in bioreactors: Flashing light effects and energy economy in algal culture (*Chlorella pyrenoidosa*). *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 50(1), 98-107.
- Maxwell, D. P., Falk, S., Trick, C. G., and Huner, N. P. (1994). Growth at low temperature mimics high-light acclimation in *Chlorella vulgaris*. *Plant Physiology*, 105(2), 535-543.
- Mazucca Sobczuk, T., and Chisti, Y. (2010). Potential fuel oils from the microalga *Choricystis minor*. *Journal of Chemical Technology and Biotechnology*, 85(1), 100-108.
- McGinnis, K., Dempster, T., and Sommerfeld, M. (1997). Characterization of the growth and lipid content of the diatom *Chaetoceros muelleri*. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 9(1), 19-24.

- Meier, R. L. (1955). Biological cycles in the transformation of solar energy into useful fuels. In F. Daniels, and J. A. Duffie (Eds.), *Solar Energy Research*. Wisconsin: Madison University Wisconsin Press, pp. 179-183.
- Meng, X., Yang, J. M., Xu, X., Zhang, L., Nie, Q. J., and Xian, M. (2009). Biodiesel production from oleaginous microorganisms. *Renewable Energy*, 34(1), 1-5.
- Miao, X., and Wu, Q. (2004). High yield bio-oil production from fast pyrolysis by metabolic controlling of *Chlorella protothecoides*. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 110(1), 85-93.
- Miyachi, S., Kanai, R., Mihara, S., Miyachi, S., and Aoki, S. (1964). Metabolic roles of inorganic polyphosphates in *Chlorella* cells. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - General Subjects*, 93(3), 625-634.
- Miyachi, S., and Miyachi, S. (1961). Modes of formation of phosphate compounds and their turnover in *Chlorella* cells during the process of life cycle as studied by the technique of synchronous culture. *Plant and Cell Physiology*, 2(4), 415-424.
- Miyachi, S., and Tamiya, H. (1961). Some observations on the phosphorus metabolism in growing *Chlorella* cells. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*, 46(1), 200-202.
- Moheimani, N. R., and Borowitzka, M. A. (2006). The long-term culture of the coccolithophore *Pleurochrysis carterae* (Haptophyta) in outdoor raceway ponds. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 18(6), 703-712.
- Moheimani, N. R., and Borowitzka, M. A. (2007). Limits to productivity of the alga *Pleurochrysis carterae* (Haptophyta) grown in outdoor raceway ponds. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 96(1), 27-36.
- Morel, A., and Antoine, D. (2002). Small critters—big effects. *Science*, 296(5575), 1980-1982.

- Moreno, J., Vargas, M., Rodríguez, H., Rivas, J., and Guerrero, M. G. (2003). Outdoor cultivation of a nitrogen-fixing marine cyanobacterium, *Anabaena* sp. ATCC 33047. *Biomolecular Engineering*, 20(4), 191-197.
- Moroney, J. V., and Ynalvez, R. A. (2001). *Algal Photosynthesis: Encyclopedia of Life Sciences*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, pp. 1-7, <http://www.els.net>.
- Mujtaba, G., Choi, W., Lee, C.-G., and Lee, K. (2012). Lipid production by *Chlorella vulgaris* after a shift from nutrient-rich to nitrogen starvation conditions. *Bioresource Technology*, 123, 279-283.
- Muller-Feuga, A. (2000). The role of microalgae in aquaculture: situation and trends. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 12(3-5), 527-534.
- Nagle, N., and Lemke, P. (1990). Production of methyl ester fuel from microalgae. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology*, 24(1), 355-361.
- Napolitano, G. E. (1994). The relationship of lipids with light and chlorophyll measurements in freshwater algae and Periphyton. *Journal of Phycology*, 30(6), 943-950.
- Ogbonna, J. C., and Tanaka, H. (2000). Light requirement and photosynthetic cell cultivation—Development of processes for efficient light utilization in photobioreactors. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 12(3-5), 207-218.
- Olaizola, M. (2000). Commercial production of astaxanthin from *Haematococcus pluvialis* using 25,000-liter outdoor photobioreactors. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 12(3-5), 499-506.
- Olguín, E. J., Galicia, S., Mercado, G., and Pérez, T. (2003). Annual productivity of *Spirulina* (*Arthrospira*) and nutrient removal in a pig wastewater recycling process under tropical conditions. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 15(2-3), 249-257.

- Orcutt, D. M., and Patterson, G. W. (1974). Effect of light intensity upon lipid composition of *Nitzschia closterium* (*Cylindrotheca fusiformis*). *Lipids*, 9(12), 1000-1003.
- Oswald, W. J., Gotaas, H., Golueke, C., Kellen, W., Gloyna, E., and Hermann, E. (1957). Algae in waste treatment. *Sewage and Industrial Wastes*, 29(4), 437-457.
- Oswald, W. J. (1988). Large-scale algal culture system (engineering aspects). In M. A. Borowitzka, and L. J. Borowitzka (Eds.), *Micro-algal Biotechnology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 357-394.
- Pahl, G. (2005). *Biodiesel: Growing a New Energy Economy*. Vermont, Chelsea Green Pub., pp. 281.
- Paresh, M., Smith, J., Strutner, S., and Radaelli, G. (2010). Systems, methods, and media for circulating fluid in an algae cultivation pond: PCT Patent Application WO2010/147648.
- Park, J. B. K., and Craggs, R. J. (2010). Wastewater treatment and algal production in high rate algal ponds with carbon dioxide addition. *Water Science & Technology*, 61(3), 633-639.
- Park, J. B. K., Craggs, R. J., and Shilton, A. N. (2011). Wastewater treatment high rate algal ponds for biofuel production. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(1), 35-42.
- Parrish, C. C., and Wangersky, P. J. (1987). Particulate and dissolved lipid classes in cultures of *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* grown in cage culture turbidostats with a range of nitrogen supply rates. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 35, 119-128.
- Patil, V., Reitan, K. I., Mortensen, L., Knudsen, G., Kallqvist, T., Olsen, E., Vogt, G., and Gislerod, H. R. (2005). Microalgae as source of polyunsaturated fatty acids for aquaculture. *Current Topics in Plant Biology*, 6, 57-65.

- Paul, J. S. (1979). Osmoregulation in the marine diatom *Cylindrotheca fusiformis*. *Journal of Phycology*, 15, 280-284.
- Persoone, G., Morales, J., Verlet, H., and De Pauw, N. (1980). Air-lift pumps and the effect of mixing on algal growth. In G. Shelef, and C. J. Soeder (Eds.), *Algal Biomass*. Amsterdam: North-Holland Biomedical Press, pp. 505-522.
- Pignolet, O., Jubeau, S., Vaca-Garcia, C., and Michaud, P. (2013). Highly valuable microalgae: biochemical and topological aspects. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 40(8), 781-796.
- Piorreck, M., Baasch, K.-H., and Pohl, P. (1984). Biomass production, total protein, chlorophylls, lipids and fatty acids of freshwater green and blue-green algae under different nitrogen regimes. *Phytochemistry*, 23(2), 207-216.
- Pirt, S. J., Lee, Y. K., Richmond, A., and Pirt, M. W. (1980). The photosynthetic efficiency of *Chlorella* biomass growth with reference to solar energy utilisation. *Journal of Chemical Technology and Biotechnology*, 30(1), 25-34.
- Pistorius, A., DeGrip, W. J., and Egorova-Zachernyuk, T. A. (2009). Monitoring of biomass composition from microbiological sources by means of FT-IR spectroscopy. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 103(1), 123-129.
- Powell, E. E., Mapiour, M. L., Evitts, R. W., and Hill, G. A. (2009). Growth kinetics of *Chlorella vulgaris* and its use as a cathodic half cell. *Bioresource Technology*, 100(1), 269-274.
- Pratt, K. W., Koch, W. F., Wu, Y. C., and Berezansky, P. A. (2001). Molality-based primary standards of electrolytic conductivity (IUPAC Technical report). *Pure and Applied Chemistry*, 73(11), 1783-1793.
- Praveenkumar, R., Shameera, K., Mahalakshmi, G., Akbarsha, M. A., and Thajuddin, N. (2012). Influence of nutrient deprivations on lipid accumulation in a

- dominant indigenous microalga *Chlorella* sp., BUM11008: Evaluation for biodiesel production. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 37, 60-66.
- Přibyl, P., Cepák, V., and Zachleder, V. (2013). Production of lipids and formation and mobilization of lipid bodies in *Chlorella vulgaris*. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 25(2), 545-553.
- Priscu, L. R., Priscu, A. C., Palmisano, A. C., and Sullivan, C. W. (1990). Estimation of neutral lipid levels in Antarctic sea ice microalgae by Nile red fluorescence. *Antarctic Science*, 2(2), 149-159.
- Prokop, A., and Erickson, L. E. (1995). Photobioreactors. In J. A. Asenjo, and J. C. Merchuk (Eds.), *Bioreactor System Design*. New York: Marcel Dekker, Inc. pp. 441-477.
- Pruvost, J., Van Vooren, G., Le Gouic, B., Couzinet-Mossion, A., and Legrand, J. (2011). Systematic investigation of biomass and lipid productivity by microalgae in photobioreactors for biodiesel application. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(1), 150-158.
- Pulz, O., and Scheibenbogen, K. (1998). Photobioreactors: design and performance with respect to light energy input. In T. Scheper (Ed.), *Advances in Biochemical Engineering/Biotechnology* (Vol. 59). Berlin: Springer-Verlag, pp. 123-152.
- Pulz, O. (2001). Photobioreactors: production systems for phototrophic microorganisms. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 57(3), 287-293.
- Pulz, O., and Gross, W. (2004). Valuable products from biotechnology of microalgae. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 65(6), 635-648.
- Pushparaj, B., Pelosi, E., Tredici, M. R., Pinzani, E., and Materassi, R. (1997). An integrated culture system for outdoor production of microalgae and cyanobacteria. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 9(2), 113-119.

- Putt, R., Singh, M., Chinnasamy, S., and Das, K. (2011). An efficient system for carbonation of high-rate algae pond water to enhance CO₂ mass transfer. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(3), 3240-3245.
- Qin, J. G. (2010). Lipid-containing secondary metabolites from algae. In K. N. Timmis (Ed.), *Handbook of Hydrocarbon and Lipid Microbiology: Consequences of Microbial Interactions with Hydrocarbons, Oils and Lipids. Vol. 4*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag, pp. 3022-3028.
- Rabbani, S., Beyer, P., Lintig, J. v., Hugueney, P., and Kleinig, H. (1998). Induced β -carotene synthesis driven by triacylglycerol deposition in the unicellular alga *Dunaliella bardawil*. *Plant Physiology*, 116(4), 1239-1248.
- Radakovits, R., Jinkerson, R. E., Darzins, A., and Posewitz, M. C. (2010). Genetic engineering of algae for enhanced biofuel production. *Eukaryotic Cell*, 9(4), 486-501.
- Radakovits, R., Eduafo, P. M., and Posewitz, M. C. (2011). Genetic engineering of fatty acid chain length in *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*. *Metabolic Engineering*, 13(1), 89-95.
- Reitan, K., Rainuzzo, J., and Olsen, Y. (1994). Effect of nutrient limitation on fatty acid and lipid content of marine microalgae. *Journal of Phycology*, 30, 972 - 979.
- Renaud, S. M., and Parry, D. L. (1994). Microalgae for use in tropical aquaculture II: Effect of salinity on growth, gross chemical composition and fatty acid composition of three species of marine microalgae. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 6(3), 347-356.
- Rhee, G.-Y., and Gotham, I. (1981). The effect of environmental factors on phytoplankton growth: Temperature and the interactions of temperature with nutrient limitation. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 26, 635-648.

- Richmond, A. (1986). Cell response to environmental factors. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *Handbook of Microalgal Culture*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, pp. 69-99.
- Richmond, A. (1988). *Spirulina*. In M. A. Borowitzka, and L. J. Borowitzka (Eds.), *Microalgal Biotechnology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 85-121.
- Richmond, A. (1990). Large scale microalgal culture and applications. In F. E. Round, and D. J. Chapman (Eds.), *Progress in Phycological Research* (Vol. 7). Bristol: Biopress, pp. 269-330.
- Richmond, A., Lichtenberg, E., Stahl, B., and Vonshak, A. (1990). Quantitative assessment of the major limitations on productivity of *Spirulina platensis* in open raceways. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 2(3), 195-206.
- Richmond, A. (1992). Open systems for the mass production of photoautotrophic microalgae outdoors: physiological principles. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 4(3), 281-286.
- Richmond, A. (1999). Physiological principles and modes of cultivation in mass production of photoautotrophic microalgae. In Z. Cohen (Ed.), *Chemicals from Microalgae*. Philadelphia: Taylor & Francis, pp. 353-386.
- Richmond, A. (2004a). Biological principles of mass cultivation. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *Handbook of Microalgal Culture: Biotechnology and Applied Phycology*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 125-177.
- Richmond, A. (2004b). Principles for attaining maximal microalgal productivity in photobioreactors: an overview. *Hydrobiologia*, 512, 33-37.
- Riekhof, W. R., Sears, B. B., and Benning, C. (2005). Annotation of genes involved in glycerolipid biosynthesis in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*: discovery of the betaine lipid synthase BTA1Cr. *Eukaryotic Cell*, 4(2), 242-252.
- Rodolfi, L., Zittelli, G. C., Bassi, N., Padovani, G., Biondi, N., Bonini, G., and Tredici, M. R. (2009). Microalgae for oil: strain selection, induction of lipid synthesis

- and outdoor mass cultivation in a low-cost photobioreactor. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 102(1), 100-112.
- Roessler, P. G. (1990). Environmental control of glycerolipid metabolism in microalgae: commercial implications and future research directions. *Journal of Phycology*, 26(3), 393-399.
- Rubio, F. C., Camacho, F. G., Sevilla, J., Chisti, Y., and Grima, E. M. (2003). A mechanistic model of photosynthesis in microalgae. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 81(4), 459-473.
- Sánchez Mirón, A., Cerón García, M. C., Contreras Gómez, A., García Camacho, F., Molina Grima, E., and Chisti, Y. (2003). Shear stress tolerance and biochemical characterization of *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* in quasi steady-state continuous culture in outdoor photobioreactors. *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 16(3), 287-297.
- Sato, T., Yamada, D., and Hirabayashi, S. (2010). Development of virtual photobioreactor for microalgae culture considering turbulent flow and flashing light effect. *Energy Conversion and Management*, 51(6), 1196-1201.
- Sawayama, S., Minowa, T., Dote, Y., and Yokoyama, S. (1992). Growth of the hydrocarbon-rich microalga *Botryococcus braunii* in secondarily treated sewage. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 38(1), 135-138.
- Scarsella, M., Parisi, M., D'Urso, A., De Filippis, P., Opoka, J., and Bravi, M. (2009). Achievements and perspectives in hetero- and mixotrophic culturing of microalgae. *Chemical Engineering Transactions*, 17, 1065-1070.
- Schenk, P. M., Thomas-Hall, S. R., Stephens, E., Marx, U. C., Mussgnug, J. H., Posten, C., Kruse, O., and Hankamer, B. (2008). Second generation biofuels: high-efficiency microalgae for biodiesel production. *Bioenergy Research*, 1(1), 20-43.

- Scott, S. A., Davey, M. P., Dennis, J. S., Horst, I., Howe, C. J., Lea-Smith, D. J., and Smith, A. G. (2010). Biodiesel from algae: challenges and prospects. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 21(3), 277-286.
- Scragg, A. H., Illman, A. M., Carden, A., and Shales, S. W. (2002). Growth of microalgae with increased calorific values in a tubular bioreactor. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 23(1), 67-73.
- Sforza, E., Simionato, D., Giacometti, G. M., Bertucco, A., and Morosinotto, T. (2012). Adjusted light and dark cycles can optimize photosynthetic efficiency in algae growing in photobioreactors. *PLoS ONE*, 7(6), e38975.
- Sharma, K. K., Schuhmann, H., and Schenk, P. M. (2012). High lipid induction in microalgae for biodiesel production. *Energies*, 5(5), 1532-1553.
- Shay, E. G. (1993). Diesel fuel from vegetable oils: status and opportunities. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 4(4), 227-242.
- Sheehan, J., Dunahay, T., Benemann, J., and Roessler, P. G. (1998). *A look back at the US Department of Energy's Aquatic Species Program: Biodiesel from Algae. Close-Out report*. National Renewable Energy Laboratory, US Department of Energy, Golden, Colorado, NREL/TP-580-24190.
- Shelef, G. (1982). High-rate algae ponds for wastewater treatment and protein production. *Water Science and Technology*, 14(1-2), 439-452.
- Shifrin, N. S., and Chisholm, S. W. (1981). Phytoplankton lipids: interspecific differences and effects of nitrate silicate and light-dark cycles. *Journal of Phycology*, 17(4), 374-384.
- Shreiner, R. H., and Pratt, K. W. (2004). *Primary Standards and Standard Reference Material for Electrolytic Conductivity*: U.S. Department of Commerce, Technology Administration, National Technical Information Service, Washington DC.

- Shuler, M. L., and Kargi, F. (2002). *Bioprocess Engineering, basic concepts*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall PTR, pp. 553.
- Sicko-Goad, L., and Andresen, N. A. (1991). Effect of growth and light/dark cycles on diatom lipid content and composition. *Journal of Phycology*, 27(6), 710-718.
- Siron, R., Giusti, G., and Berland, B. (1989). Changes in the fatty acid composition of *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* and *Dunaliella tertiolecta* during growth and under phosphorus deficiency. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 55(1), 95-100.
- Six, C., Sherrard, R., Lionard, M., Roy, S., Campbell, D. A. (2009) Photosystem II and pigment dynamics among ecotypes of the green alga *Ostreococcus*. *Plant Physiology*, 151, 379-390.
- Smith, V. H. (1983). Light and nutrient dependence of photosynthesis by algae. *Journal of Phycology*, 19(3), 306-313.
- Sobczuk, T. M., Camacho, F. G., Rubio, F. C., Fernández, F. G. A., and Grima, E. M. (2000). Carbon dioxide uptake efficiency by outdoor microalgal cultures in tubular airlift photobioreactors. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 67(4), 465-475.
- Solomon, J. A., R. E. Hand, J., and Mann, R. C. (1986). *Ultrastructural and Flow Cytometric Analyses of Lipid Accumulation in Microalga: A Subcontract Report*. Solar Energy Research Institute, Golden, Colorado, SERI/STR-231-3089.
- Sonnekus, M. J. (2010). *Effects of salinity on the growth and lipid production of ten species of microalgae from the Swartkops Saltworks: A Biodiesel Perspective*. Masters thesis, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth, South Africa, pp 98.
- Sorokin, C., and Krauss, R. W. (1962). Effects of temperature and illuminance on *Chlorella* growth uncoupled from cell division. *Plant Physiology*, 37(1), 37.

- Soxhlet, F. v. (1879). Die gewichtsanalytische bestimmung des milchfettes. *Polytechnisches Journal*, 232, 461-465.
- Spoehr, H. A., and Milner, H. W. (1949). The chemical composition of *Chlorella* - Effect of environmental conditions. *Plant Physiology*, 24(1), 120-149.
- Spolaore, P., Joannis-Cassan, C., Duran, E., and Isambert, A. (2006). Commercial applications of microalgae. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*, 101(2), 87-96.
- Stanier, R. Y., Kunisawa, R., Mandel, M., and Cohenbaz, G. (1971). Purification and properties of unicellular blue-green algae (order Chroococcales). *Bacteriological Reviews*, 35(2), 171-205.
- Stephenson, A. L., Dennis, J. S., Howe, C. J., Scott, S. A., and Smith, A. G. (2010a). Influence of nitrogen-limitation regime on the production. *Biofuels*, 1(1), 47-58.
- Stephenson, A. L., Kazamia, E., Dennis, J. S., Howe, C. J., Scott, S. A., and Smith, A. G. (2010b). Life-cycle assessment of potential algal biodiesel production in the United Kingdom: A comparison of raceways and air-lift tubular bioreactors. *Energy and Fuels*, 24, 4062-4077.
- Strickland, J. D. H., and Parsons, T. R. (1968). Determination of reactive phosphorus. *In: A Practical Handbook of Seawater Analysis* (pp. 49-56): Fisheries Research Board of Canada, Bulletin 167.
- Sudhakar, K., Premalatha, M., and Rajesh, M. (2012). Large-scale open pond algae biomass yield analysis in India: a case study. *International Journal of Sustainable Energy*, 33(2), 304-315.
- Suen, Y., Hubbard, J. S., Holzer, G., and Tornabene, T. G. (1987). Total lipid production of the green-algae *Nannochloropsis* sp QII under different nitrogen regimes. *Journal of Phycology*, 23(2), 289-296.

- Sukenik, A., Carmeli, Y., and Berner, T. (1989). Regulation of fatty acid composition by irradiance level in the eustigmatophyte *Nannochloropsis* sp. *Journal of Phycology*, 25(4), 686-692.
- Sukenik, A., and Carmeli, Y. (1990). Lipid-synthesis and fatty-acid composition in *Nannochloropsis* sp (Eustigmatophyceae) grown in a light-dark cycle. *Journal of Phycology*, 26(3), 463-469.
- Sukenik, A., and Livne, A. (1991). Variations in lipid and fatty acid content in relation to acetyl CoA carboxylase in the marine prymnesiophyte *Isochrysis galbana*. *Plant and Cell Physiology*, 32(3), 371-378.
- Suman, K., Kiran, T., Devi, U. K., and Sarma, N. S. (2012). Culture medium optimization and lipid profiling of *Cylindrotheca*, a lipid- and polyunsaturated fatty acid-rich pennate diatom and potential source of eicosapentaenoic acid. *Botanica Marina*, 55(3), 289-299.
- Takagi, M., Karseno, and Yoshida, T. (2006). Effect of salt concentration on intracellular accumulation of lipids and triacylglyceride in marine microalgae *Dunaliella* cells. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*, 101(3), 223-226.
- Talec, A., Philistin, M., Ferey, F., Walenta, G., Irisson, J.-O., Bernard, O., and Sciandra, A. (2013). Effect of gaseous cement industry effluents on four species of microalgae. *Bioresource Technology*, 143, 353-359.
- Tamiya, H. (1957). Mass culture of algae. *Annual Review of Plant Physiology and Plant Molecular Biology*, 8, 309-334.
- Terry, K. L., and Raymond, L. P. (1985). System-design for the autotrophic production of microalgae. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 7(10), 474-487.
- Thomas, W. H., and Gibson, C. H. (1990). Effects of small-scale turbulence on microalgae. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 2(1), 71-77.

- Thomas, W. H., Vernet, M., and Gibson, C. H. (1995). Effect of small-scale turbulence on photosynthesis, pigmentation, cell division, and cell size in the marine dinoflagellate *Gomaulax polyedra* (Dinophyceae). *Journal of Phycology*, 31(1), 50-59.
- Thompson Jr, G. A. (1996). Lipids and membrane function in green algae. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-Lipids and Lipid Metabolism*, 1302(1), 17-45.
- Tomaselli, L. (2004). The microalgal cell. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *Microalgal Culture: Biotechnology and Applied Phycology*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 3-19.
- Tonon, T., Harvey, D., Larson, T. R., and Graham, I. A. (2002). Long chain polyunsaturated fatty acid production and partitioning to triacylglycerols in four microalgae. *Phytochemistry*, 61(1), 15-24.
- Torzillo, G., Sacchi, A., Materassi, R., and Richmond, A. (1991). Effect of temperature on yield and night biomass loss in *Spirulina platensis* grown outdoors in tubular photobioreactors. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 3(2), 103-109.
- Torzillo, G. (1997). Tubular bioreactors. In A. Vonshak (Ed.), *Spirulina Platensis (Arthrospira): Physiology, Cell-Biology and Biotechnology* (Vol.). London: Taylor & Francis, pp. 101-115.
- Torzillo, G., Pushparaj, B., Masojidek, J., and Vonshak, A. (2003). Biological constraints in algal biotechnology. *Biotechnology and Bioprocess Engineering*, 8(6), 338-348.
- Tredici, M. R., and Materassi, R. (1992). From open ponds to vertical alveolar panels: the Italian experience in the development of reactors for the mass cultivation of phototrophic microorganisms. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 4(3), 221-231.
- Tredici, M. R., and Chini Zittelli, G. (1997). Cultivation of *Spirulina (Arthrospira) platensis* in flat plate reactors. In A. Vonshak (Ed.), *Spirulina platensis*

- (*Arthrospira*): *Physiology, Cell-Biology and Biotechnology*. London: Taylor & Francis, pp. 117-130.
- Tredici, M. R. (1999). Photobioreactors. In M. C. Flickinger, and S. W. Drew (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Bioprocess Technology: Fermentation, Biocatalysis and Bioseparation*. New York: Wiley & Sons, pp. 395-419.
- Tredici, M. R. (2004). Mass production of microalgae: photobioreactors. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *Handbook of Microalgal Culture: Biotechnology and Applied Phycology*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 178-214.
- Tredici, M. R., Chini Zittelli, G., and Rodolfi, L. (2010). Photobioreactors. In M. C. Flickinger, and S. Anderson (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Industrial Biotechnology: Bioprocess, Bioseparation, and Cell Technology* (Vol. 6). Hoboken: Wiley, pp. 3821-3838.
- Tsukahara, K., and Sawayama, S. (2005). Liquid fuel production using microalgae. *Journal of Japan Petroleum Institute*, 48(5), 251-259.
- Ugwu, C. U., Aoyagi, H., and Uchiyama, H. (2008). Photobioreactors for mass cultivation of algae. *Bioresource Technology*, 99(10), 4021-4028.
- Valenzuela, J., Carlson, R. P., Gerlach, R., Cooksey, K., Peyton, B. M., Bothner, B., and Fields, M. W. (2013). Nutrient resupplementation arrests bio-oil accumulation in *Phaeodactylum tricorutum*. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 97(15), 7049-7059.
- Van den Hoek, C., Mann, D., and Jahns, H. M. (1995). *Algae: An Introduction to Phycology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 623.
- Vazquez-Duhalt, R., and Arredondo-Vega, B. O. (1990). Oil production from microalgae under saline stress. In G. Grassi, G. Gasse, and G. Dossantos (Eds.), *Biomass for Energy and Industry. Policy, Environment, Production and Harvesting*. Barking: Elsevier Applied Science, pp. A547-A551.

- Vazquez -Duhalt, R., and Arredondo-Vega, B. O. (1991). Haloadaptation of the green alga *Botryococcus braunii* (Race A). *Phytochemistry*, 30(9), 2919-2925.
- Vicente, G., Martinez, M., and Aracil, J. (2004). Integrated biodiesel production: a comparison of different homogeneous catalysts systems. *Bioresource Technology*, 92(3), 297-305.
- Vonshak, A., and Richmond, A. (1981). Photosynthetic and respiratory activity in *Anacystis nidulans* adapted to osmotic stress. *Plant Physiology*, 68, 504-505.
- Vonshak, A., Abeliovich, A., Boussiba, S., Arad, S., and Richmond, A. (1982). Production of *Spirulina* biomass: Effects of environmental factors and population density. *Biomass*, 2(3), 175-185.
- Vonshak, A., and Guy, R. (1992). Photoadaptation, photoinhibition and productivity in the blue-green alga, *Spirulina platensis* grown outdoors. *Plant, Cell and Environment*, 15(5), 613-616.
- Vonshak, A., and Torzillo, G. (2004). Environmental stress physiology. In A. Richmond (Ed.), *Handbook of Microalgal Culture: Biotechnology and Applied Phycology*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 57-82.
- Wahlen, B. D., Willis, R. M., and Seefeldt, L. C. (2011). Biodiesel production by simultaneous extraction and conversion of total lipids from microalgae, cyanobacteria, and wild mixed-cultures. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(3), 2724-2730.
- Waltz, E. (2009). Biotech's green gold? *Nature Biotechnology*, 27(1), 15-18.
- Warr, S. R. C., Reed, R. H., Chudek, J. A., Foster, R., and Stewart, W. D. P. (1985). Osmotic adjustment in *Spirulina platensis*. *Planta*, 163(3), 424-429.
- Wegmann, K. (1986). Osmoregulation in eukaryotic algae. *FEMS Microbiology Letters*, 39(1-2), 37-43.

- Weissman, J. C., Goebel, R. P., and Benemann, J. R. (1988). Photobioreactor design: mixing, carbon utilization, and oxygen accumulation. *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 31(4), 336-344.
- Weissman, J. C., Tillet, D. M., and Goebel, R. P. (1989). *Design and operation of an outdoor microalgae test facility*. Solar Energy Research Institute, Golden, Colorado, SERI/STR-232-3569.
- Werner, D. (1966). Die Kieselsäure im Stoffwechsel von *Cyclotella cryptica* Reimann, Lewin und Guillard. *Archives of Microbiology*, 55(3), 278-308.
- Whittingham, C. P. (1952). The chemical mechanism of photosynthesis. *The Botanical Review*, 18(4), 245-290.
- Whyte, J. N. (1987). Biochemical composition and energy content of six species of phytoplankton used in mariculture of bivalves. *Aquaculture*, 60(3), 231-241.
- Widjaja, A., Chien, C. C., and Ju, Y. H. (2009). Study of increasing lipid production from fresh water microalgae *Chlorella vulgaris*. *Journal of the Taiwan Institute of Chemical Engineers*, 40(1), 13-20.
- Williams, P. J. L., and Laurens, L. M. L. (2009). Microalgae as biodiesel and biomass feedstocks: Review and analysis of the biochemistry, energetics and economics. *Energy and Environmental Science*, 3(5), 554-590.
- Wilson, K. E., and Huner, N. P. (2000). The role of growth rate, redox-state of the plastoquinone pool and the trans-thylakoid ΔpH in photoacclimation of *Chlorella vulgaris* to growth irradiance and temperature. *Planta*, 212(1), 93-102.
- Wommack, K. E., and Colwell, R. R. (2000). Virioplankton: viruses in aquatic ecosystems. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews*, 64(1), 69-114.
- Xu, H., Miao, X., and Wu, Q. (2006). High quality biodiesel production from a microalga *Chlorella protothecoides* by heterotrophic growth in fermenters. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 126(4), 499-507.

- Yeh, K.-L., and Chang, J.-S. (2010). Effect of light supply and carbon source on cell growth and cellular composition of a newly isolated microalga *Chlorella vulgaris* ESP-31. *Engineering in Life Sciences*, 10(3), 201-208.
- Yeh, K.-L., and Chang, J.-S. (2011). Nitrogen starvation strategies and photobioreactor design for enhancing lipid content and lipid production of a newly isolated microalga *Chlorella vulgaris* ESP-31: Implications for biofuels. *Biotechnology Journal*, 6(11), 1358-1366.
- Yeh, K.-L., and Chang, J.-S. (2012). Effects of cultivation conditions and media composition on cell growth and lipid productivity of indigenous microalga *Chlorella vulgaris* ESP-31. *Bioresource Technology*, 105, 120-127.
- Yu, W.-L., Ansari, W., Schoepp, N. G., Hannon, M. J., Mayfield, S. P., and Burkart, M. D. (2011a). Modifications of the metabolic pathways of lipid and triacylglycerol production in microalgae. *Microbial Cell Factories*, 10, 91.
- Yu, W.-L., Ansari, W., Schoepp, N. G., Hannon, M. J., Mayfield, S. P., and Burkart, M. D. (2011b). Modifications of the metabolic pathways of lipid and triacylglycerol production in microalgae. *Microbial Cell Factories*, 10:91, 1-11.
- Zamalloa, C., Vulsteke, E., Albrecht, J., and Verstraete, W. (2011). The techno-economic potential of renewable energy through the anaerobic digestion of microalgae. *Bioresource Technology*, 102(2), 1149-1158.
- Zhekisheva, M., Boussiba, S., Khozin-Goldberg, I., Zarka, A., and Cohen, Z. (2002). Accumulation of oleic acid in *Haematococcus pluvialis* (Chlorophyceae) under nitrogen starvation or high light is correlated with that of astaxanthin esters. *Journal of Phycology*, 38(2), 325-331.
- Zhu, C. J., and Lee, Y. K. (1997). Determination of biomass dry weight of marine microalgae. *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 9(2), 189-194.

APPENDIX

Experimental data

Data for diurnal light output profile for Figure 3.7

a) At peak value of 100% LED output

Time (h)	LED output (%)
0.7	17
1.4	40
2.4	63
3.4	83
4.3	96
5.6	100
6.6	100
7.4	96
8.8	83
9.3	63
10.5	40
11.6	17
12.3	0
13	0
14	0
15	0
16	0
17	0
18	0
19	0
20	0
21	0
22	0
23	0
24	0

b) At peak value of 50% LED output

Time (h)	LED output (%)
0.5	8
1	20
2.0	31
3.0	41
4.2	48
5.0	50
6.0	50
7.0	48
8.0	41
9.0	31
10.0	20
11.0	8
12.3	0
13	0
14	0
15	0
16	0
17	0
18	0
19	0
20	0
21	0
22	0
23	0
24	0

Data for irradiance on the surface of broth for Figure 3.8

LED output (%)	Irradiance ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)
0	0
10	44.5 ± 2.9
20	74.9 ± 7.6
30	111.6 ± 8.4
40	142.0 ± 9.5
50	165.2 ± 12.5
60	184.8 ± 12.9
70	193.8 ± 6.5
80	212.9 ± 16.5
90	232.7 ± 29.2
100	279.7 ± 14.9

Standard deviation values are based on four replicates

Data for irradiance at different depths for Figure 3.9

a) at different LED light output levels

Depth (cm)	Irradiance ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) at different light levels									
	100%	90%	80%	70%	60%	50%	40%	30%	20%	10%
0	279.7 ± 12.9	232.7 ± 25.3	212.6 ± 16.7	193.8 ± 6.5	184.8 ± 12.9	165.2 ± 12.5	141.9 ± 9.5	111.6 ± 8.4	74.9 ± 7.6	44.5 ± 2.9
10	98.9 ± 8.5	90.6 ± 5.5	82.3 ± 5.5	76.6 ± 2.4	68.9 ± 5.9	65.5 ± 2.2	58.2 ± 5.2	48.3 ± 4.4	30.4 ± 3.2	14.8 ± 0.5
20	92.8 ± 7.9	84.1 ± 6.7	78.1 ± 6.0	71.6 ± 5.5	68.2 ± 4.5	62.6 ± 5.8	55.7 ± 3.9	44.7 ± 4.3	30.8 ± 2.5	13.2 ± 1.9

Standard deviation values are based on four replicates

b) at different fluorescent light levels

Depth (cm)	Irradiance ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) at 100% LED output	Irradiance ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) at 50% LED output
0	90.7 ± 5.8	51.4 ± 4.1
5	44.2 ± 5.3	19.1 ± 3.1
10	43.1 ± 4.7	19.2 ± 1.9
15	41.6 ± 10.6	18.6 ± 1.7
20	42.7 ± 9.9	17.7 ± 3.0

Standard deviation values are based on four replicates

Data for irradiance at different depths for Figure 3.10

Depth (cm)	Irradiance ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)
0.0	$82.5 \pm 7.7^{\text{a}}$
0.0	$84.2 \pm 6.2^{\text{b}}$
1.0	$17.9 \pm 2.0^{\text{b}}$
3.5	4.7
4.7	2.2
5.0	2.5
7.5	1.0
9.0	0.4
11.0	0.1
12.5	0.1

Standard deviation values are based on nine^a replicates and ^bduplicates

Data for impeller speed for Figure 3.11

Potentiometer dial setting	Impeller speed (rpm)
5.0	9.7 ± 0.0
6.1	11.9 ± 0.2
7.0	13.9 ± 0.0
8.1	15.9 ± 0.0
9.0	17.9 ± 0.0

Standard deviation values are based on six replicates

Data for relationship between impeller and liquid flow velocity for Figure 3.12

Impeller speed (rpm)	Liquid flow velocity (m s^{-1})
0.0	0
9.7	0.21 ± 0.02
11.9	0.23 ± 0.02
13.9	0.27 ± 0.04
15.9	0.30 ± 0.03
17.9	0.32 ± 0.03

Standard deviation values are based on 15 replicates

Data for calibration curve for Figure 3.14

Dried biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 680 nm
0.0	0.0
0.016	0.078 ± 0.003
0.031	0.150 ± 0.002
0.047	0.230 ± 0.011
0.062	0.295 ± 0.011
0.078	0.377 ± 0.021
0.094	0.431 ± 0.009

Standard deviation values are based on duplicate samples

Data for calibration curve averaged for Figure 3.15

Dried biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 680 nm
0.0	0.0
0.052	0.071 ± 0.027
0.103	0.144 ± 0.021
0.155	0.214 ± 0.023
0.207	0.286 ± 0.029
0.258	0.356 ± 0.038
0.287	0.398 ± 0.040

Standard deviation values are based on 36 runs

Data for calibration curve averaged for Figure 3.16

Dried biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 680 nm
0.0	0.0
0.038	0.060 ± 0.020
0.076	0.122 ± 0.027
0.113	0.188 ± 0.023
0.150	0.243 ± 0.025
0.188	0.303 ± 0.034
0.205	0.335 ± 0.028

Standard deviation values are based on 32 runs

Data for calibration curve for Figure 3.17

Dried biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 680 nm
0.0	0.0
0.178	0.410
0.119	0.257
0.089	0.193
0.071	0.152
0.059	0.129
0.051	0.111

Data for calibration curve for Figure 3.18

Dried biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 680 nm
0.0	0.0
0.022	0.060 ± 0.021
0.045	0.122 ± 0.043
0.067	0.187 ± 0.065
0.088	0.242 ± 0.085
0.112	0.303 ± 0.104
0.135	0.336 ± 0.105

Standard deviation values are based on triplicate samples

Data for calibration curve averaged for Figure 3.19

Dried biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 680 nm
0.0	0.0
0.035	0.190 ± 0.042
0.071	0.376 ± 0.070
0.077	0.420 ± 0.037
0.084	0.462 ± 0.042
0.093	0.515 ± 0.043
0.106	0.590 ± 0.043

Standard deviation values are based on 35 runs

Data for calibration curve averaged for Figure 3.20

Dried biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 680 nm
0.0	0.0
0.022	0.129 ± 0.028
0.046	0.266 ± 0.035
0.048	0.285 ± 0.027
0.052	0.312 ± 0.028
0.058	0.347 ± 0.033
0.066	0.403 ± 0.035

Standard deviation values are based on 45 runs

Data for calibration curve for Figure 3.21

Dried biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 680 nm
0.0	0.0
0.045	0.090
0.091	0.190
0.136	0.276
0.182	0.360
0.227	0.438
0.273	0.518

Data for calibration curve for Figure 3.22

Dried biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 680 nm
0.0	0.0
0.148	0.266
0.098	0.189
0.074	0.140
0.059	0.112
0.049	0.091
0.042	0.080

Data for nitrate calibration curve for Figure 3.23

Nitrate concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 525 nm
0.0	0.0
4.38	0.009
8.75	0.015
13.14	0.021
17.50	0.031
21.88	0.038
26.36	0.047

Data for phosphate calibration curve for Figure 3.24

Phosphate concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Absorbance at 885 nm
0.0	0.0
0.112	0.014
0.140	0.017
0.168	0.019
0.196	0.023
0.224	0.027
0.252	0.031

Data for biomass concentration (g L⁻¹) for Figure 4.1 (a, b, c and d)

Time (d)	<i>C. vulgaris</i>	<i>N. salina</i>	<i>T. subcordiformis</i>	<i>C. fusiformis</i>
	a	b	c	d
0	0.87	0.08 ± 0.00	0.18 ± 0.01	0.46 ± 0.00
1	0.97	0.12 ± 0.00	0.36 ± 0.02	0.48 ± 0.00
2	1.12	0.13 ± 0.00	0.43 ± 0.01	0.49 ± 0.00
3	1.35	0.15 ± 0.00	0.59 ± 0.02	0.54 ± 0.01
4	1.52	0.16 ± 0.01	0.68 ± 0.01	0.57 ± 0.01
5	1.66	0.17 ± 0.01	0.81 ± 0.08	0.63 ± 0.01
6	1.77	0.20 ± 0.02	0.89 ± 0.02	0.74 ± 0.04
7	1.90	0.23 ± 0.03	0.94 ± 0.00	0.83 ± 0.06
8	2.06	0.25 ± 0.03	1.00 ± 0.05	0.92 ± 0.06
9	2.18	0.29 ± 0.03	1.02 ± 0.02	1.05 ± 0.08
10	2.31	0.34 ± 0.04	1.09 ± 0.04	1.17 ± 0.03
11	2.45	0.39 ± 0.06	1.12 ± 0.07	1.09 ± 0.09
12	2.39	0.46 ± 0.04	1.18 ± 0.01	1.41 ± 0.02
13	2.72	0.55 ± 0.08	1.28 ± 0.06	1.46 ± 0.03
14	2.85	0.61 ± 0.07	1.29 ± 0.04	1.50 ± 0.03
15	2.96	0.67 ± 0.09	1.34 ± 0.00	1.56 ± 0.03
16	3.09	0.77 ± 0.13	1.36 ± 0.01	1.56 ± 0.02
17	3.09	0.83 ± 0.10	1.48 ± 0.04	1.57 ± 0.00
18	3.22	0.82 ± 0.08	1.50 ± 0.05	1.56 ± 0.00
19	3.28	0.96 ± 0.09	1.51 ± 0.05	1.54 ± 0.01
20	3.34	1.05 ± 0.08	1.54 ± 0.05	1.50 ± 0.09
21	3.36	1.15 ± 0.07	1.58 ± 0.05	1.47 ± 0.12
22	3.35	1.21 ± 0.08	1.62 ± 0.05	1.47 ± 0.14
23	3.38	1.32 ± 0.06	1.66 ± 0.05	1.38 ± 0.12
24	3.46	1.42 ± 0.02	1.68 ± 0.04	-
25	3.40	1.28 ± 0.07	1.69 ± 0.04	-
26	-	1.33 ± 0.08	1.69 ± 0.03	-
27	-	1.31 ± 0.04	1.76 ± 0.02	-
28	-	1.31 ± 0.06	1.80 ± 0.01	-
29	-	1.35 ± 0.07	1.83 ± 0.03	-
30	-	1.42 ± 0.02	1.84 ± 0.06	-
31	-	1.49 ± 0.01	1.87 ± 0.10	-
32	-	1.58 ± 0.02	1.83 ± 0.00	-
33	-	1.62 ± 0.00	1.80 ± 0.07	-
34	-	1.59 ± 0.08	1.83 ± 0.04	-
35	-	1.64 ± 0.01	1.71 ± 0.07	-
36	-	1.73 ± 0.02	-	-
37	-	1.70 ± 0.02	-	-

Standard deviation values are based on duplicate runs

Data for biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) for Figure 4.2

Time (d)	Freshwater	Salt concentration		
		40 g L^{-1} (control)	50 g L^{-1}	60 g L^{-1}
0	0.04 ± 0.00	0.20 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.01	0.19 ± 0.01
1	0.29 ± 0.00	0.25 ± 0.01	0.26 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.00
2	0.46 ± 0.03	0.26 ± 0.02	0.24 ± 0.01	0.23 ± 0.00
3	0.65 ± 0.03	0.31 ± 0.02	0.24 ± 0.04	0.24 ± 0.00
4	0.85 ± 0.02	0.34 ± 0.01	0.27 ± 0.01	0.24 ± 0.02
5	0.92 ± 0.06	0.41 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.00
6	1.01 ± 0.02	0.58 ± 0.01	0.37 ± 0.02	0.29 ± 0.02
8	1.24 ± 0.13	0.69 ± 0.02	0.42 ± 0.06	0.30 ± 0.01
9	1.34 ± 0.09	0.73 ± 0.01	0.46 ± 0.06	0.35 ± 0.02
10	1.35 ± 0.10	0.81 ± 0.00	0.47 ± 0.03	0.36 ± 0.00
11	1.43 ± 0.15	0.90 ± 0.02	0.47 ± 0.05	0.34 ± 0.01
12	1.52 ± 0.19	0.91 ± 0.01	0.47 ± 0.04	0.35 ± 0.03
13	1.52 ± 0.15	0.91 ± 0.00	0.45 ± 0.01	0.33 ± 0.00
14	1.58 ± 0.15	0.90 ± 0.00	0.52 ± 0.02	0.34 ± 0.03
15	1.58 ± 0.19	0.99 ± 0.01	0.52 ± 0.02	0.36 ± 0.00
16	1.68 ± 0.10	0.98 ± 0.02	0.53 ± 0.01	0.34 ± 0.02
19	1.96 ± 0.02	1.16 ± 0.04	0.55 ± 0.00	0.34 ± 0.02
20	1.87 ± 0.03	1.09 ± 0.01	0.54 ± 0.07	0.35 ± 0.01
22	1.80 ± 0.13	1.37 ± 0.01	0.61 ± 0.02	0.37 ± 0.02
23	1.98 ± 0.08	1.34 ± 0.02	0.62 ± 0.01	0.40 ± 0.00
25	1.81 ± 0.13	1.36 ± 0.03	0.69 ± 0.01	0.40 ± 0.01
26	1.90 ± 0.18	1.50 ± 0.07	0.72 ± 0.03	0.42 ± 0.02
28	1.87 ± 0.28	1.71 ± 0.00	0.78 ± 0.09	0.41 ± 0.01
30	1.92 ± 0.13	1.76 ± 0.09	0.79 ± 0.05	0.46 ± 0.01
32	2.20 ± 0.12	1.57 ± 0.09	0.80 ± 0.22	0.46 ± 0.07
33	2.00 ± 0.35	1.58 ± 0.04	0.82 ± 0.09	0.42 ± 0.01
35	2.06 ± 0.13	1.73 ± 0.03	0.87 ± 0.10	0.42 ± 0.02
36	2.19 ± 0.18	1.71 ± 0.03	0.99 ± 0.05	0.52 ± 0.05
39	2.37 ± 0.27	1.75 ± 0.02	0.91 ± 0.04	0.40 ± 0.00
43	2.29 ± 0.15	-	-	-

Standard deviation values are based on duplicate runs, except for the control (for this duplicate measurements of a single run were used to calculate standard deviation)

Data for biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) for Figure 4.4

Time (d)	Salt concentration		
	40 g L^{-1} (control)	50 g L^{-1}	60 g L^{-1}
0	0.37	0.38 ± 0.00	0.36 ± 0.01
1	0.41	0.41 ± 0.01	0.41 ± 0.00
2	0.49	0.45 ± 0.01	0.44 ± 0.00
3	0.59	0.54 ± 0.01	0.55 ± 0.00
4	0.65	0.60 ± 0.03	0.60 ± 0.01
5	0.77	0.68 ± 0.04	0.67 ± 0.01
6	0.89	0.79 ± 0.04	0.79 ± 0.01
8	0.99	0.88 ± 0.06	0.90 ± 0.01
9	1.06	0.95 ± 0.05	1.00 ± 0.04
10	1.11	0.98 ± 0.05	1.03 ± 0.02
11	1.19	1.03 ± 0.06	1.12 ± 0.02
12	1.24	1.07 ± 0.06	1.17 ± 0.02
13	1.29	1.11 ± 0.07	1.19 ± 0.02
14	1.33	1.14 ± 0.08	1.21 ± 0.04
15	1.41	1.21 ± 0.07	1.30 ± 0.02
16	1.43	1.25 ± 0.07	1.29 ± 0.09
19	1.54	1.35 ± 0.10	1.47 ± 0.03
20	1.61	1.39 ± 0.05	1.49 ± 0.03
22	1.77	1.53 ± 0.13	1.62 ± 0.03
23	1.78	1.54 ± 0.09	1.65 ± 0.07
25	1.80	1.54 ± 0.10	1.69 ± 0.06
26	1.85	1.58 ± 0.11	1.70 ± 0.11
28	1.90	1.63 ± 0.12	1.71 ± 0.16
30	2.03	1.77 ± 0.12	1.88 ± 0.07
32	2.19	1.85 ± 0.18	1.96 ± 0.14
33	2.34	1.86 ± 0.17	1.97 ± 0.12
35	2.17	1.90 ± 0.17	2.06 ± 0.03
36	2.29	2.03 ± 0.16	2.12 ± 0.10
39	2.39	1.97 ± 0.14	2.23 ± 0.00

Standard deviation values are based on duplicate runs

Data for biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) for Figure 4.6

Time (d)	Salt concentration		
	40 g L^{-1} (control)	50 g L^{-1}	60 g L^{-1}
0	0.38	0.41 ± 0.02	0.41 ± 0.01
1	0.44	0.34 ± 0.03	0.43 ± 0.01
2	0.55	0.51 ± 0.00	0.50 ± 0.01
3	0.58	0.63 ± 0.04	0.56 ± 0.01
4	0.65	0.61 ± 0.02	0.58 ± 0.01
5	0.66	0.62 ± 0.04	0.59 ± 0.00
6	0.66	0.57 ± 0.03	0.57 ± 0.01
7	0.66	0.57 ± 0.03	0.59 ± 0.04
8	0.70	0.60 ± 0.04	0.47 ± 0.14
9	0.70	0.65 ± 0.01	0.61 ± 0.03
11	0.75	0.68 ± 0.01	0.61 ± 0.00
13	0.85	0.74 ± 0.02	0.67 ± 0.01
14	0.83	0.76 ± 0.00	0.69 ± 0.02
15	0.87	0.79 ± 0.04	0.73 ± 0.01
16	0.89	0.81 ± 0.05	0.79 ± 0.02
17	0.87	0.82 ± 0.07	0.86 ± 0.07
19	0.77	0.83 ± 0.11	0.92 ± 0.04

Standard deviation values are based on duplicate runs

Data for *C. vulgaris* culture profile for Figure 4.8: a) Control (standard phosphate concentration in BG11 seawater medium); b) Twice the normal initial phosphate level in BG11 seawater medium.

Time (d)	(a)			(b)		
	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.44	1117.6	23.28	0.44	1029.4	45.72
1	0.51	1029.4	13.30	0.55	911.8	37.41
2	0.60	882.4	9.98	0.65	911.8	29.93
3	0.70	852.9	6.23	0.74	882.4	27.43
4	0.79	852.9	1.87	0.82	852.9	23.28
5	0.87	794.1	0.25	0.92	764.7	14.96
6	1.05	808.8	0.21	1.09	764.7	8.31
7	1.22	735.3	0.18	1.26	705.9	2.49
8	1.33	764.7	0.16	1.40	676.5	1.46
9	1.48	676.5	0.09	1.51	647.1	0.55
10	1.59	647.1	0.08	1.65	588.2	0.21
11	1.78	647.1	0.06	1.81	529.4	0.04
12	1.93	676.5	0.01	1.98	529.4	0.02
13	1.95	647.1	0.02	2.00	441.2	0.01
14	2.14	558.8	0.01	2.18	470.6	0.03
15	2.22	500.0	0.01	2.24	441.2	0.02
16	2.29	529.4	0.01	2.40	470.6	0.01
17	2.47	529.4	0.01	2.55	441.2	0.00
18	2.48	529.4	0.00	2.65	411.8	0.00
20	3.01	323.5	0.00	3.07	382.4	0.00
22	3.19	392.1	0.00	3.25	411.7	0.00
23	3.40	313.7	0.00	3.37	333.3	0.00
24	3.28	274.5	0.00	3.41	313.7	0.00
25	3.17	235.3	0.00	3.46	294.1	0.00

Data for *N. salina* culture profile for Figure 4.9: a) control (standard phosphate concentration in BG11 seawater medium); b) twice the normal initial phosphate level in BG11 seawater medium

Time (d)	(a)			(b)		
	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.30 ± 0.01	1070.6 ± 49.9	15.17 ± 2.06	0.33 ± 0.01	1047.1 ± 35.3	33.21 ± 0.29
1	0.44 ± 0.00	964.7 ± 16.6	2.25 ± 0.05	0.39 ± 0.00	929.4 ± 16.6	9.14 ± 0.59
2	0.47 ± 0.00	874.5 ± 44.5	1.38 ± 0.00	0.50 ± 0.00	901.9 ± 17.9	4.16 ± 1.18
3	0.59 ± 0.04	823.5 ± 33.3	0.28 ± 0.00	0.55 ± 0.04	854.9 ± 41.3	2.49 ± 1.18
4	0.65 ± 0.07	847.1 ± 0.0	0.12 ± 0.02	0.64 ± 0.07	827.5 ± 35.9	1.25 ± 0.00
6	0.88 ± 0.04	805.9 ± 24.9	0.08 ± 0.08	0.82 ± 0.04	803.9 ± 33.9	0.62 ± 0.10
7	0.93 ± 0.02	705.9 ± 71.6	0.05 ± 0.05	0.95 ± 0.02	768.6 ± 37.8	0.71 ± 0.34
8	1.02 ± 0.02	733.3 ± 6.8	0.08 ± 0.08	0.97 ± 0.02	764.7 ± 16.6	0.49 ± 0.11
9	1.15 ± 0.01	658.8 ± 16.6	0.00	1.08 ± 0.01	764.7 ± 16.6	0.18
10	1.27 ± 0.03	658.8 ± 16.6	0.03	1.17 ± 0.03	662.7 ± 6.8	0.15
11	1.30 ± 0.04	701.9 ± 37.8	0.02	1.26 ± 0.04	647.1 ± 16.6	0.13
12	1.35 ± 0.04	729.4 ± 11.8	0.00	1.33 ± 0.04	682.4 ± 16.6	0.12
14	1.50 ± 0.06	654.9 ± 24.5	0.01	1.48 ± 0.06	627.5 ± 44.5	0.13
15	1.59 ± 0.07	650.9 ± 24.5	0.04	1.56 ± 0.07	564.7 ± 42.4	0.12
16	1.63 ± 0.08	670.6 ± 16.6	0.03	1.65 ± 0.08	611.8 ± 0.0	0.10
17	1.81 ± 0.04	635.3 ± 35.3	0.05	1.78 ± 0.04	600.0 ± 23.5	0.09
19	1.81 ± 0.11	627.5 ± 17.9	0.00	1.86 ± 0.11	576.5 ± 16.6	0.05
21	2.01 ± 0.10	545.1 ± 58.0	0.01	2.15 ± 0.10	509.8 ± 17.9	0.00
22	2.11 ± 0.06	494.1 ± 33.3	0.02	2.23 ± 0.06	505.9 ± 33.3	0.00
30	2.22 ± 0.21	627.5 ± 27.2	0.01	2.20 ± 0.21	494.1 ± 0.0	0.05
32	2.16 ± 0.20	570.6 ± 8.3	0.02	2.16 ± 0.20	494.1 ± 0.0	0.02

Biomass standard deviation is based on duplicate runs; standard deviations of nitrate and phosphate are based on triplicate and duplicate samples of a single run, respectively

Data for *C.vulgaris* for Figure 4.10:

a-1) Biomass concentration (g L⁻¹) at continuous light and different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater media

Time (d)	Initial nitrate concentration relative to normal BG11 media			
	100% (control)	50%	20%	10%
0	0.11 ± 0.00	0.11 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.00	0.11 ± 0.01
2	0.15 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.00	0.13 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.00
3	0.18 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.00	0.18 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.02
4	0.22 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.00	0.22 ± 0.01	0.22 ± 0.01
5	0.26 ± 0.02	0.25 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.02
7	0.40 ± 0.02	0.37 ± 0.04	0.51 ± 0.01	0.43 ± 0.03
9	0.62 ± 0.02	0.51 ± 0.01	0.74 ± 0.02	0.59 ± 0.09
10	0.64 ± 0.02	0.56 ± 0.07	0.79 ± 0.01	0.65 ± 0.02
12	0.89 ± 0.02	0.72 ± 0.00	0.99 ± 0.00	0.68 ± 0.02
13	0.84 ± 0.01	0.76 ± 0.02	1.01 ± 0.03	0.82 ± 0.01
14	0.92 ± 0.04	1.01 ± 0.03	1.06 ± 0.02	0.83 ± 0.02
15	1.16 ± 0.02	1.01 ± 0.02	1.24 ± 0.01	0.83 ± 0.00
17	1.35 ± 0.06	1.02 ± 0.02	1.13 ± 0.04	0.86 ± 0.01
18	1.25 ± 0.06	1.13 ± 0.01	1.17 ± 0.10	0.86 ± 0.01
19	1.23 ± 0.02	1.25 ± 0.01	1.14 ± 0.12	0.83 ± 0.02
20	1.17 ± 0.10	1.27 ± 0.02	1.29 ± 0.00	0.85 ± 0.05
22	1.45 ± 0.03	1.23 ± 0.08	1.37 ± 0.02	1.09 ± 0.05
23	1.44 ± 0.15	1.29 ± 0.01	1.36 ± 0.01	1.02 ± 0.02
25	1.85 ± 0.01	1.52 ± 0.02	1.54 ± 0.03	1.08 ± 0.01
28	1.85 ± 0.02	1.48 ± 0.03	1.50 ± 0.02	1.11 ± 0.01
29	1.71 ± 0.04	1.57 ± 0.03	1.47 ± 0.03	1.09 ± 0.03
30	1.86 ± 0.05	1.71 ± 0.03	1.76 ± 0.02	1.14 ± 0.03
32	2.00 ± 0.08	1.64 ± 0.12	1.61 ± 0.01	1.24 ± 0.00
35	2.09 ± 0.10	1.91 ± 0.11	1.70 ± 0.15	1.26 ± 0.03
37	2.03 ± 0.08	1.92 ± 0.12	1.71 ± 0.05	1.31 ± 0.00
39	2.12 ± 0.04	2.09 ± 0.02	1.92 ± 0.04	1.38 ± 0.13
41	2.23 ± 0.02	2.35 ± 0.12	1.95 ± 0.14	1.35 ± 0.09
45	2.13 ± 0.08	2.15 ± 0.16	1.91 ± 0.00	1.44 ± 0.02
46	2.45 ± 0.01	2.33 ± 0.08	2.26 ± 0.02	1.51 ± 0.02
49	2.52 ± 0.22	2.03 ± 0.02	2.12 ± 0.14	1.64 ± 0.15
52	2.53 ± 0.04	2.03 ± 0.00	2.19 ± 0.01	1.60 ± 0.12

Standard deviations are based on duplicate runs except for the control (duplicate samples of a single run were used for the control)

b-1) Biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) at 12 h: 12 h light/dark cycle and different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater media

Time (d)	Initial nitrate concentration relative to normal BG11 media			
	100% (control)	50%	20%	10%
0	0.08 ± 0.00	0.09 ± 0.00	0.09 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.01
2	0.11 ± 0.00	0.10 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.01
3	0.13 ± 0.00	0.11 ± 0.00	0.13 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.01
4	0.14 ± 0.00	0.12 ± 0.00	0.16 ± 0.02	0.14 ± 0.00
5	0.32 ± 0.00	0.13 ± 0.01	0.20 ± 0.01	0.14 ± 0.01
7	0.28 ± 0.00	0.14 ± 0.01	0.31 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.03
9	0.33 ± 0.00	0.18 ± 0.03	0.35 ± 0.03	0.37 ± 0.02
10	0.34 ± 0.00	0.22 ± 0.07	0.33 ± 0.07	0.38 ± 0.03
12	0.41 ± 0.00	0.28 ± 0.01	0.52 ± 0.01	0.48 ± 0.03
13	0.42 ± 0.00	0.34 ± 0.01	0.53 ± 0.02	0.50 ± 0.04
14	0.44 ± 0.00	0.35 ± 0.03	0.65 ± 0.00	0.56 ± 0.03
15	0.53 ± 0.00	0.40 ± 0.03	0.64 ± 0.01	0.57 ± 0.01
17	0.66 ± 0.00	0.49 ± 0.01	0.73 ± 0.04	0.60 ± 0.03
18	0.75 ± 0.00	0.52 ± 0.05	0.75 ± 0.03	0.59 ± 0.01
19	0.80 ± 0.00	0.56 ± 0.07	0.85 ± 0.02	0.59 ± 0.00
20	0.80 ± 0.00	0.60 ± 0.03	0.96 ± 0.01	0.60 ± 0.00
22	0.90 ± 0.00	0.72 ± 0.07	0.98 ± 0.01	0.87 ± 0.01
23	0.90 ± 0.00	0.74 ± 0.10	0.95 ± 0.01	0.66 ± 0.04
25	0.99 ± 0.00	0.82 ± 0.10	1.08 ± 0.00	0.72 ± 0.05
28	1.20 ± 0.00	0.89 ± 0.05	1.15 ± 0.01	0.74 ± 0.01
29	1.14 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.09	1.06 ± 0.02	0.74 ± 0.05
30	1.28 ± 0.00	1.24 ± 0.25	1.22 ± 0.05	0.92 ± 0.01
32	1.25 ± 0.00	1.08 ± 0.01	1.17 ± 0.07	0.70 ± 0.01
35	1.48 ± 0.00	1.25 ± 0.04	1.29 ± 0.01	0.94 ± 0.01
37	1.35 ± 0.00	1.20 ± 0.12	1.33 ± 0.03	0.88 ± 0.03
39	1.33 ± 0.00	1.25 ± 0.03	1.34 ± 0.02	0.93 ± 0.03
41	1.47 ± 0.00	1.34 ± 0.04	1.41 ± 0.01	0.97 ± 0.00
45	1.58 ± 0.00	1.39 ± 0.02	1.45 ± 0.01	0.97 ± 0.01
46	1.71 ± 0.00	1.52 ± 0.13	1.55 ± 0.05	1.14 ± 0.05
49	1.65 ± 0.00	1.45 ± 0.03	1.54 ± 0.04	1.11 ± 0.03
52	1.68 ± 0.00	1.47 ± 0.05	1.64 ± 0.01	1.11 ± 0.01

Standard deviations are based on duplicate runs except for the control (duplicate samples of a single run were used for the control)

a-2) Nitrate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at continuous light and different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater media: b-2) nitrate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at 12 h: 12 h light/dark cycle in control

Time (d)	Initial nitrate concentration relative to normal BG11 media				
	100% (control)		50%	20%	10%
	a-2	b-2	a-2	a-2	a-2
0	1014.7 ± 20.8	1044.1 ± 20.8	505.8 ± 16.6	235.2 ± 0.0	129.4 ± 4.2
5	1088.2 ± 83.2	1029.4 ± 83.2	452.9 ± 41.6	129.4 ± 0.0	50.0 ± 16.6
10	794.1 ± 83.2	676.5 ± 83.2	258.8 ± 33.3	11.8 ± 0.0	5.9 ± 8.3
15	661.8 ± 0.0	632.4 ± 20.8	88.2 ± 24.9	5.6	3.5
20	500.0 ± 0.0	588.2 ± 0.0	26.2 ± 0.4	6.5	4.7
25	367.6 ± 0.0	588.2 ± 0.0	10.6 ± 3.3	8.2	4.7
30	279.4	441.2 ± 0.0	13.5	7.7	6.5
35	270.6	470.6	15.3	8.8	7.1
41	282.4	529.4	16.5	11.2	8.8
46	223.5	364.7	19.4	11.2	7.1
52	200.0	341.2	19.4	8.2	8.8

Standard deviation of nitrate is based on duplicate samples of a single run

a-3) Phosphate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at continuous light and different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater media: b-3) nitrate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at 12 h: 12 h light/dark cycle in control

Time (d)	Initial nitrate concentration relative to normal BG11 media				
	100% (control)		50%	20%	10%
	a-3	b-3	a-3	a-3	a-3
0	15.86 ± 0.26	15.69 ± 0.09	15.88 ± 0.18	16.17 ± 0.00	16.21 ± 0.18
5	3.43 ± 0.03	10.68 ± 0.24	7.65 ± 0.29	4.41 ± 0.00	5.71 ± 0.09
10	0.00	1.43	0.00	0.00	0.22
15	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14
20	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14
25	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14
30	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.11
35	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.12
41	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.12
46	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.12
52	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Standard deviation of phosphate is based on duplicate samples of a single run

Data for *N.salina* for Figure 4.11:

a-1) Biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) at continuous light and different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater media

Time (d)	Initial nitrate concentration relative to normal BG11 media			
	100% (control)	50%	20%	10%
0	0.27 ± 0.00	0.24 ± 0.00	0.24 ± 0.00	0.25 ± 0.00
2	0.30 ± 0.00	0.36 ± 0.01	0.31 ± 0.02	0.34 ± 0.03
3	0.38 ± 0.00	0.47 ± 0.01	0.42 ± 0.01	0.42 ± 0.02
4	0.49 ± 0.00	0.54 ± 0.00	0.52 ± 0.00	0.49 ± 0.00
5	0.64 ± 0.00	0.65 ± 0.08	0.65 ± 0.06	0.53 ± 0.04
7	0.90 ± 0.00	0.78 ± 0.20	0.89 ± 0.01	0.67 ± 0.04
9	1.10 ± 0.00	1.16 ± 0.05	1.00 ± 0.04	0.75 ± 0.04
10	1.14 ± 0.00	1.26 ± 0.09	1.05 ± 0.01	0.69 ± 0.02
12	1.17 ± 0.00	1.35 ± 0.07	1.08 ± 0.02	0.75 ± 0.02
13	1.35 ± 0.00	1.50 ± 0.02	1.19 ± 0.02	0.85 ± 0.02
14	1.38 ± 0.00	1.46 ± 0.02	1.20 ± 0.01	0.80 ± 0.03
15	1.60 ± 0.01	1.69 ± 0.04	1.34 ± 0.01	0.82 ± 0.04
17	1.66 ± 0.00	1.65 ± 0.05	1.34 ± 0.03	0.84 ± 0.02
18	1.75 ± 0.00	1.68 ± 0.06	1.41 ± 0.03	0.87 ± 0.02
19	1.73 ± 0.00	1.77 ± 0.06	1.46 ± 0.03	0.91 ± 0.01
20	1.87 ± 0.00	1.86 ± 0.07	1.53 ± 0.05	1.07 ± 0.02
22	2.10 ± 0.00	2.06 ± 0.04	1.69 ± 0.03	1.24 ± 0.04
23	2.02 ± 0.00	1.92 ± 0.05	1.61 ± 0.06	1.08 ± 0.07
25	2.11 ± 0.00	2.11 ± 0.07	1.76 ± 0.07	1.22 ± 0.06
28	2.37 ± 0.00	2.14 ± 0.04	1.84 ± 0.08	1.21 ± 0.06
29	2.41 ± 0.00	2.15 ± 0.11	1.88 ± 0.04	1.22 ± 0.04
30	2.56 ± 0.00	2.30 ± 0.05	1.98 ± 0.09	1.29 ± 0.01
32	2.61 ± 0.00	2.40 ± 0.01	2.01 ± 0.09	1.30 ± 0.00
35	2.70 ± 0.00	2.52 ± 0.00	2.08 ± 0.06	1.43 ± 0.01
37	2.73 ± 0.00	2.59 ± 0.02	2.11 ± 0.06	1.36 ± 0.05
39	2.73 ± 0.00	2.55 ± 0.00	2.16 ± 0.13	1.40 ± 0.06
41	2.83 ± 0.01	2.64 ± 0.04	2.23 ± 0.11	1.84 ± 0.01
45	2.68 ± 0.00	2.56 ± 0.08	2.24 ± 0.13	1.77 ± 0.11
46	2.83 ± 0.00	2.68 ± 0.00	2.29 ± 0.21	1.91 ± 0.07
49	2.93 ± 0.00	2.72 ± 0.11	2.42 ± 0.12	1.90 ± 0.13

Standard deviations are based on duplicate runs, except for the control (duplicate samples of a single run were used for the control)

b-1) Biomass concentration (g L^{-1}) at 12 h: 12 h light/dark cycle and different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater media

Time (d)	Initial nitrate concentration relative to normal BG11 media			
	100% (control)	50%	20%	10%
0	0.20 ± 0.00	0.22 ± 0.00	0.21 ± 0.00	0.20 ± 0.00
2	0.24 ± 0.00	0.23 ± 0.00	0.27 ± 0.05	0.23 ± 0.00
3	0.29 ± 0.01	0.30 ± 0.01	0.31 ± 0.00	0.27 ± 0.00
4	0.32 ± 0.00	0.33 ± 0.00	0.36 ± 0.00	0.30 ± 0.00
5	0.42 ± 0.00	0.37 ± 0.03	0.43 ± 0.00	0.36 ± 0.00
7	0.49 ± 0.00	0.52 ± 0.00	0.55 ± 0.00	0.49 ± 0.00
9	0.58 ± 0.00	0.57 ± 0.01	0.61 ± 0.01	0.51 ± 0.00
10	0.58 ± 0.00	0.60 ± 0.02	0.63 ± 0.00	0.52 ± 0.00
12	0.59 ± 0.00	0.67 ± 0.01	0.66 ± 0.00	0.53 ± 0.00
13	0.69 ± 0.00	0.79 ± 0.02	0.76 ± 0.01	0.62 ± 0.00
14	0.66 ± 0.00	0.72 ± 0.02	0.71 ± 0.02	0.58 ± 0.00
15	0.81 ± 0.00	0.85 ± 0.01	0.82 ± 0.03	0.64 ± 0.00
17	0.76 ± 0.01	0.80 ± 0.01	0.81 ± 0.01	0.62 ± 0.00
18	0.89 ± 0.00	0.89 ± 0.02	0.90 ± 0.01	0.68 ± 0.00
19	0.86 ± 0.00	0.90 ± 0.00	0.89 ± 0.00	0.69 ± 0.00
20	0.97 ± 0.00	0.97 ± 0.01	0.94 ± 0.01	0.74 ± 0.00
22	1.13 ± 0.00	1.13 ± 0.02	1.12 ± 0.02	0.88 ± 0.00
23	1.02 ± 0.00	1.03 ± 0.01	0.99 ± 0.00	0.76 ± 0.00
25	1.20 ± 0.00	1.12 ± 0.01	1.10 ± 0.02	0.86 ± 0.00
28	1.32 ± 0.00	1.19 ± 0.04	1.13 ± 0.00	0.90 ± 0.00
29	1.32 ± 0.00	1.23 ± 0.04	1.13 ± 0.01	0.91 ± 0.00
30	1.40 ± 0.00	1.26 ± 0.03	1.22 ± 0.01	0.95 ± 0.00
32	1.46 ± 0.00	1.32 ± 0.02	1.26 ± 0.02	1.00 ± 0.00
35	1.61 ± 0.00	1.40 ± 0.08	1.33 ± 0.00	1.09 ± 0.00
37	1.63 ± 0.00	1.40 ± 0.06	1.33 ± 0.01	1.06 ± 0.00
39	1.71 ± 0.00	1.46 ± 0.03	1.43 ± 0.03	1.12 ± 0.00
41	1.76 ± 0.01	1.53 ± 0.10	1.49 ± 0.04	1.18 ± 0.00
45	1.73 ± 0.00	1.44 ± 0.16	1.49 ± 0.01	1.20 ± 0.00
46	1.85 ± 0.00	1.64 ± 0.12	1.58 ± 0.02	1.28 ± 0.00
49	1.84 ± 0.00	1.62 ± 0.12	1.61 ± 0.02	1.31 ± 0.00

Standard deviations are based on duplicate runs, except for the control (duplicate samples of a single run were used for the control)

a-2) Nitrate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at continuous light and different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater media: b-2) nitrate concentration (mg L⁻¹) at 12 h: 12 h light/dark cycle in control

Time (d)	Initial nitrate concentration relative to normal BG11 media				
	100% (control)		50%	20%	10%
	a-2	b-2	a-2	a-2	a-2
0	1191.2 ± 62.4	1132.4 ± 62.4	535.3 ± 41.6	258.8 ± 16.6	108.8 ± 8.3
5	1000.0 ± 83.2	1029.4 ± 41.6	411.8 ± 33.3	94.1 ± 0.0	48.5 ± 6.2
10	852.9 ± 0.0	882.4 ± 0.0	258.8 ± 0.0	29.4 ± 8.3	19.1 ± 2.1
15	588.2 ± 41.6	794.1 ± 41.6	123.5 ± 41.6	3.5	2.9
20	573.5 ± 20.8	764.7 ± 0.0	78.2	6.5	3.5
25	470.6 ± 41.6	691.2 ± 20.8	30.0	6.5	5.9
30	250.0 ± 20.8	602.9 ± 20.8	11.2	3.5	3.5
35	329.4	623.5	14.7	6.5	8.8
41	329.4	635.3	11.8	8.8	11.8
46	305.9	564.7	12.4	5.3	23.5

Standard deviation of nitrate is based on duplicate samples of a single run

a-3) Phosphate concentration (mg L^{-1}) at continuous light and different initial nitrate concentrations in BG11 seawater media: b-3) nitrate concentration (mg L^{-1}) at 12 h: 12 h light/dark cycle in control

Time (d)	Initial nitrate concentration relative to normal BG11 media				
	100% (control)		50%	20%	10%
	a-3	b-3	a-3	a-3	a-3
0	12.09 ± 0.29	11.99 ± 0.03	11.74 ± 0.03	12.36 ± 0.09	5.61 ± 0.29
5	1.41 ± 0.06	2.24 ± 0.06	1.66 ± 0.24	2.12 ± 0.12	1.56 ± 0.21
10	0.38	0.63	0.00	0.40	0.00
15	0.02	0.13	0.03	0.00	0.00
20	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.00
25	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.02
30	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.16	0.02
35	0.07	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.11
41	0.05	0.06	0.03	0.04	0.09
46	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.07

Standard deviation of phosphate is based on duplicate samples of a single run

Data for raceway culture profiles for Figure 4.16: (a, b and c) normal operational conditions

a) Raceway batch-1

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.06	1058.7	23.69
1	0.06	1162.6	22.86
2	0.06	1058.7	20.37
3	0.07	1176.4	20.78
4	0.08	1137.1	19.53
5	0.08	1117.5	20.08
6	0.08	1117.5	19.29
7	0.09	1078.3	17.98
8	0.09	921.5	16.93
9	0.10	960.7	16.63
10	0.11	960.7	9.81
11	0.11	921.5	9.59
12	0.12	901.9	9.38
13	0.13	862.7	9.24
14	0.14	941.1	9.04
15	0.15	901.9	8.45
16	0.17	862.7	8.03
17	0.18	882.3	7.63
18	0.19	921.5	7.20
19	0.20	862.7	7.03
20	0.21	882.3	6.15
21	0.21	823.4	4.89
22	0.23	941.1	3.92
23	0.24	862.7	3.24
24	0.25	843.1	2.00
26	0.29	823.4	0.73
27	0.30	823.4	0.43
28	0.30	803.8	0.33
29	0.32	803.8	0.25

a) Raceway batch-1 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
30	0.34	784.2	0.00
31	0.35	764.6	0.00
32	0.38	725.4	0.00
36	0.44	803.8	0.00
37	0.37	823.4	0.00
38	0.39	725.4	0.00
40	0.37	745.0	0.00
41	0.38	725.4	0.00
42	0.38	725.4	0.00
43	0.40	764.6	0.00
44	0.42	764.6	0.00
46	0.46	764.6	0.00
47	0.40	725.4	0.00
48	0.42	705.8	0.00

b) Raceway batch-2

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.04	1176.5	24.11
1	0.06	1058.8	20.37
2	0.07	1176.5	17.87
3	0.08	1029.4	16.63
4	0.11	1000.0	13.72
5	0.13	1088.2	13.16
6	0.15	1117.6	10.56
7	0.19	1058.8	7.84
8	0.22	1029.4	6.83
9	0.25	1000.0	5.07
10	0.28	970.6	3.01
11	0.32	1029.4	1.21
12	0.38	941.2	0.58
13	0.36	1000.0	0.47
14	0.39	970.6	0.28
15	0.41	941.2	0.28
16	0.44	852.9	0.25
17	0.45	823.5	0.22
18	0.48	911.8	0.22
19	0.51	941.2	0.21
20	0.52	852.9	0.21
21	0.50	941.2	0.20
22	0.53	911.8	0.19
23	0.55	911.8	0.16
24	0.56	911.8	0.12
26	0.60	882.4	0.12
27	0.59	823.5	0.14
28	0.63	852.9	0.10
29	0.62	735.3	0.08

c) Raceway batch-3

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.05	1117.6 ± 29.4	30.76 ± 1.18
1	0.06	1117.6 ± 0.0	24.94 ± 1.18
2	0.07	1058.8 ± 77.8	24.94 ± 0.59
3	0.09	1039.2 ± 44.9	23.69 ± 1.76
4	0.11	1102.9 ± 20.8	19.33 ± 2.06
5	0.15	1078.4 ± 33.9	21.19 ± 0.59
7	0.24	1102.9 ± 20.8	17.92 ± 0.22
9	0.28	1073.5 ± 20.8	15.34 ± 0.35
10	0.30	1044.1 ± 20.8	9.63 ± 0.18
11	0.34	1117.6 ± 29.4	8.09 ± 2.08
13	0.42	1073.5 ± 20.8	9.14 ± 0.60
15	0.48	1088.2 ± 41.6	8.19 ± 0.60
16	0.49	1073.5 ± 20.8	7.82 ± 0.72
17	0.50	970.6 ± 0.0	7.27 ± 0.82
18	0.53	1073.5 ± 62.4	5.55 ± 0.02
19	0.54	1058.8 ± 0.0	4.92 ± 0.05
20	0.55	985.3 ± 20.8	3.92 ± 0.00
21	0.58	941.2 ± 0.0	2.89 ± 0.09
22	0.59	1014.7 ± 62.4	1.63
23	0.61	1029.4 ± 41.6	0.85
24	0.64	1014.7 ± 20.8	0.43
25	0.65	1029.4 ± 29.4	0.45
26	0.67	970.6 ± 29.4	0.38
27	0.69	941.2 ± 0.0	0.40
28	0.71	980.4 ± 16.9	0.41
29	0.71	990.2 ± 33.9	0.32
30	0.74	960.8 ± 20.8	0.37
31	0.77	1049.0 ± 44.9	0.33
32	0.76	931.4 ± 44.9	0.37
33	0.79	931.4 ± 16.9	0.35
34	0.79	1000.0 ± 0.0	0.37
35	0.83	1029.4 ± 29.4	0.37
36	0.83	931.4 ± 33.9	0.31
37	0.85	951.0 ± 44.9	0.29

Standard deviations of nitrate and phosphate are based on triplicate and duplicate samples, respectively

c) Raceway batch-3 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
38	0.88	941.2 ± 77.8	0.29
39	0.89	897.1 ± 20.8	0.30
40	0.91	1029.4 ± 0.0	0.28
41	0.93	1014.7 ± 20.8	0.00
42	0.93	823.5 ± 83.2	0.02
43	0.95	892.2 ± 61.2	0.02
44	0.96	931.4 ± 33.9	0.02
45	0.95	833.3 ± 94.5	0.03
46	0.96	941.2 ± 0.0	0.02
47	0.98	833.3 ± 33.9	0.02
48	0.99	803.9 ± 61.2	0.00
49	1.03	843.1 ± 16.9	0.02
50	1.03	754.9 ± 33.9	0.00
52	1.06	823.5 ± 0.0	0.00
53	1.06	833.3 ± 44.9	0.02
54	1.09	902.0 ± 44.9	0.12
55	1.08 ± 0.00	852.9 ± 29.4	0.02
56	1.08 ± 0.01	892.2 ± 33.9	0.03
57	1.09 ± 0.02	882.4 ± 29.4	0.01
58	1.09 ± 0.03	892.2 ± 16.9	0.03
59	1.10 ± 0.03	843.1 ± 44.9	0.07
60	1.12 ± 0.00	801.5 ± 51.9	0.06
61	1.09 ± 0.01	745.1 ± 62.4	0.10
62	1.10 ± 0.05	696.1 ± 84.9	0.12
63	1.12 ± 0.03	696.1 ± 33.9	0.08
64	1.14 ± 0.02	696.1 ± 44.9	0.17

Standard deviations of biomass and nitrate are based on triplicate samples

Data for raceway culture profile for Figure 4.18: (effect of low irradiance)

Raceway batch-4

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.08 ± 0.00	1029.4 ± 0.0	30.96 ± 0.29
1	0.10 ± 0.00	1029.4 ± 0.0	25.98 ± 0.29
2	0.10 ± 0.00	926.5 ± 20.8	25.35 ± 0.59
3	0.10 ± 0.00	882.4 ± 0.0	25.15 ± 0.29
4	0.10 ± 0.00	852.9 ± 0.0	22.44 ± 1.18
5	0.12 ± 0.00	862.7 ± 67.9	20.37 ± 0.00
6	0.14 ± 0.01	897.1 ± 20.8	19.35 ± 0.15
7	0.14 ± 0.01	897.1 ± 20.8	18.61 ± 0.04
8	0.14 ± 0.02	897.1 ± 20.8	17.72 ± 0.15
9	0.15 ± 0.00	867.6 ± 62.4	16.91 ± 0.16
10	0.17 ± 0.00	823.5 ± 0.0	16.08 ± 0.00
11	0.18 ± 0.01	808.8 ± 20.8	10.02 ± 0.46
12	0.20 ± 0.01	808.8 ± 20.8	9.78 ± 0.27
13	0.22 ± 0.00	838.2 ± 62.4	9.66 ± 0.33
14	0.23 ± 0.01	838.2 ± 20.8	9.38 ± 0.13
17	0.25 ± 0.00	911.8 ± 0.0	8.65 ± 0.14
18	0.26 ± 0.00	838.2 ± 62.4	8.51 ± 0.19
19	0.27 ± 0.01	838.2 ± 20.8	8.19 ± 0.06
20	0.28 ± 0.01	794.1 ± 41.6	8.15 ± 0.02
21	0.28 ± 0.00	794.1 ± 83.2	7.82 ± 0.01
23	0.30 ± 0.00	838.2 ± 20.8	7.51
24	0.30 ± 0.01	764.7 ± 0.0	7.30
26	0.31 ± 0.00	808.8 ± 20.8	7.08
27	0.32 ± 0.01	808.8 ± 20.8	6.32
29	0.32 ± 0.01	838.2 ± 20.8	5.69
30	0.33 ± 0.01	867.6 ± 62.4	4.54
31	0.34 ± 0.01	838.2 ± 20.8	3.84
32	0.34 ± 0.00	676.5 ± 0.0	2.57
33	0.34 ± 0.00	705.9 ± 0.0	2.07
34	0.35 ± 0.01	705.9 ± 0.0	1.45
37	0.37 ± 0.01	676.5 ± 0.0	0.29

Standard deviation of biomass is based on triplicate samples; standard deviations of nitrate and phosphate are based on duplicate samples

Raceway batch-4 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
38	0.36 ± 0.01	705.9 ± 83.2	0.16
40	0.38 ± 0.01	705.9 ± 0.0	0.17
41	0.37 ± 0.01	764.7 ± 0.0	0.12
42	0.39 ± 0.01	735.3 ± 41.6	0.10
44	0.41 ± 0.00	808.8 ± 20.8	0.10
45	0.41 ± 0.00	661.8 ± 20.8	0.11
47	0.39 ± 0.01	676.5 ± 0.0	0.00
48	0.40 ± 0.00	661.8 ± 20.8	0.00
52	0.41 ± 0.01	764.7 ± 0.0	0.02
56	0.46 ± 0.00	720.6 ± 62.4	0.01
60	0.43 ± 0.01	735.3 ± 41.4	0.00
61	0.42 ± 0.01	750.0 ± 62.4	0.00
63	0.45 ± 0.01	735.3 ± 83.2	0.00
66	0.45 ± 0.00	647.1 ± 41.6	0.00
68	0.46 ± 0.00	676.5 ± 41.6	0.00
69	0.43 ± 0.00	647.1	0.03
73	0.47 ± 0.02	647.1	0.00
75	0.45 ± 0.01	647.1	0.00

Standard deviations of biomass and nitrate are based on triplicate and duplicate samples, respectively

Data for raceway culture profile for Figure 4.19: effect of nitrate stress (a) ~20% of normal initial nitrate and (b) ~18% of normal initial nitrate

a) Raceway batch-5

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.12 ± 0.00	230.4 ± 16.9	24.11 ± 0.00
1	0.13 ± 0.00	230.4 ± 8.5	21.61 ± 1.76
2	0.14 ± 0.00	181.4 ± 16.9	19.33 ± 0.29
3	0.15 ± 0.01	215.7 ± 8.5	17.66 ± 0.88
4	0.16 ± 0.00	186.3 ± 16.9	18.08 ± 0.29
5	0.18 ± 0.00	122.5 ± 16.9	13.55 ± 0.24
6	0.21 ± 0.01	161.8 ± 0.0	11.72 ± 0.00
7	0.23 ± 0.01	142.2 ± 8.5	10.60 ± 1.03
8	0.25 ± 0.01	142.2 ± 8.5	8.60 ± 1.32
9	0.31	196.1 ± 8.5	7.48 ± 0.35
10	0.34	181.4 ± 8.5	5.49 ± 0.35
11	0.35	181.4 ± 8.5	4.32 ± 0.06
12	0.38	166.7 ± 8.5	3.01 ± 0.03
13	0.40	147.1 ± 29.4	1.93 ± 0.03
14	0.42	147.1 ± 14.7	0.75 ± 0.36
15	0.43	147.1 ± 14.7	0.36 ± 0.09
16	0.46	117.6 ± 14.7	0.29 ± 0.00
17	0.48	132.4 ± 0.0	0.50 ± 0.00
18	0.50	147.1 ± 25.5	0.35 ± 0.03
19	0.54	137.3 ± 8.5	0.39 ± 0.03
20	0.55	112.7 ± 8.5	0.15 ± 0.03
21	0.53	83.3 ± 16.9	0.10 ± 0.03
22	0.56	102.9 ± 14.7	0.07 ± 0.00
23	0.57	112.7 ± 22.5	0.10 ± 0.01
25	0.60	122.5 ± 8.5	0.04 ± 0.01
26	0.62	88.2 ± 14.7	0.08 ± 0.01
27	0.59	78.4 ± 8.5	0.06 ± 0.02
28	0.60	73.5 ± 0.0	0.05 ± 0.00
29	0.66	73.5 ± 20.8	0.05 ± 0.01

Standard deviations of biomass and nitrate are based on triplicate samples; standard deviation of phosphate is based on duplicate samples

a) Raceway batch-5 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
30	0.67	53.9 ± 8.5	0.06 ± 0.00
31	0.68	93.1 ± 8.5	0.06 ± 0.01
32	0.70	83.3 ± 8.5	0.08 ± 0.01
33	0.71	103.9 ± 1.7	0.05 ± 0.01
34	0.74	108.8 ± 7.8	0.05 ± 0.01
35	0.74	84.3 ± 3.4	0.03 ± 0.01
36	0.72	68.6 ± 3.4	0.04 ± 0.02
37	0.77	85.3 ± 4.2	0.05 ± 0.03
38	0.77	78.4 ± 3.4	0.05
39	0.77	68.6 ± 3.4	0.08
40	0.78	64.7 ± 5.9	0.07
41	0.78	74.5 ± 3.4	0.03
42	0.79	72.5 ± 6.8	0.02
43	0.80	60.8 ± 3.4	0.06
44	0.80	54.9 ± 6.8	0.07
45	0.83	43.1 ± 6.8	0.05
47	0.86	43.1 ± 8.9	0.06
48	0.85	51.0 ± 3.4	0.04
49	0.85	39.2 ± 8.9	0.03
50	0.85	41.2 ± 3.4	0.02
51	0.85	37.3 ± 0.0	0.07
52	0.87	37.3 ± 6.8	0.03
53	0.87	33.3 ± 3.4	0.01
54	0.88	29.4 ± 3.4	0.02
55	0.88	29.4 ± 0.0	0.01
56	0.88	25.5 ± 0.0	0.05
57	0.89	13.7 ± 3.4	0.05
58	0.87	20.6 ± 3.4	0.02
59	0.91	23.5 ± 0.0	0.02
60	0.92	25.0 ± 2.9	0.04
61	0.92	22.5 ± 2.1	0.03
62	0.91	19.6 ± 1.7	0.04
63	0.93	16.3 ± 1.7	0.02
64	0.93	17.1 ± 0.3	0.07

Standard deviations of nitrate and phosphate are based on triplicate and duplicate samples, respectively

a) Raceway batch-5 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
65	0.93	20.0 ± 0.6	0.00
67	0.90	20.0 ± 0.3	0.03
68	0.91	13.7 ± 1.6	0.05
69	0.92	10.4 ± 0.3	0.02
70	0.91	9.4 ± 0.9	0.02
71	0.91	7.3 ± 1.6	0.02
72	0.91	7.6 ± 0.7	0.06
73	0.92	7.8 ± 1.0	0.03
74	0.91	2.2 ± 0.7	0.04
75	0.92	2.6 ± 0.6	0.04
76	0.71	1.6 ± 0.7	0.01
77	0.72	2.2 ± 0.3	0.02
78	0.72	2.9 ± 0.3	0.02
79	0.71	2.2 ± 0.0	0.01
80	0.70	4.5 ± 0.0	0.03
82	0.71	3.3 ± 0.0	0.02
83	0.70	2.5 ± 0.0	0.02
84	0.71	1.2 ± 0.0	0.05
85	0.72	1.8 ± 0.6	0.05
86	0.71	1.2 ± 0.6	0.03
88	0.71	1.8 ± 0.6	0.00
89	0.71	1.6 ± 0.0	0.02
90	0.71	0.6 ± 0.3	0.02
91	0.70	2.4 ± 0.0	0.04
92	0.71	1.6 ± 0.6	0.02
93	0.70	1.4 ± 0.3	0.02
94	0.69	3.7 ± 0.3	0.05
96	0.71	2.7 ± 0.3	0.04
97	0.72	2.5 ± 0.6	0.07
98	0.71	1.0 ± 0.3	0.02
99	0.72	2.2 ± 0.7	0.03
100	0.72	0.8 ± 0.3	0.00
101	0.71	5.3 ± 0.7	0.06

Standard deviation of nitrate is based on triplicate samples

a) Raceway batch-5 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
103	0.72	2.7 ± 0.0	0.09
104	0.67	2.4 ± 0.3	0.02
105	0.68	2.2 ± 0.0	0.06
106	0.66	2.0 ± 0.3	0.03
107	0.66	0.4 ± 0.3	0.03
109	0.69	3.3 ± 0.3	0.03
110	0.67	1.8 ± 0.3	0.05
111	0.69	2.2 ± 0.6	0.02
112	0.67	1.6 ± 0.9	0.03
114	0.63	1.4 ± 0.9	0.05
115	0.64	2.4 ± 0.3	0.05
117	0.62	2.2 ± 0.6	0.05
118	0.63	2.9 ± 0.9	0.03
119	0.64	5.1 ± 0.0	0.04
120	0.63	5.1 ± 0.3	0.02
121	0.64	5.6 ± 0.3	0.05
122	0.58	5.7 ± 0.3	0.07
124	0.58	4.9 ± 0.9	0.05
125	0.61	4.7 ± 0.7	0.05
126	0.58	4.7 ± 0.0	0.03
127	0.58	5.3 ± 0.0	0.04
128	0.57	4.7 ± 0.6	0.05
129	0.59	5.0 ± 0.0	0.06
131	0.59	5.5 ± 0.4	0.02
132	0.55	4.1 ± 0.6	0.04
133	0.54	5.0 ± 0.6	0.04
134	0.54	6.5 ± 0.4	0.05
135	0.53	5.5 ± 0.0	0.02
136	0.53	2.2 ± 0.7	0.05
138	0.54	5.7 ± 0.3	0.04
139	0.54	3.3 ± 0.9	0.05
140	0.54	5.9 ± 0.3	0.03
141	0.52	5.0 ± 0.4	0.06

Standard deviation of nitrate is based on triplicate samples

a) Raceway batch-5 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
143	0.51	3.8 ± 0.9	0.07
145	0.49	3.1 ± 0.4	0.03
146	0.49	4.4 ± 0.3	0.02
147	0.49	5.3 ± 0.4	0.04
148	0.48	5.0 ± 0.6	0.02
149	0.48	4.7 ± 0.4	0.02
152	0.47	5.6 ± 0.0	0.02
153	0.45	4.9 ± 0.3	0.05
154	0.46	4.5 ± 0.3	0.02
155	0.45	4.1 ± 0.3	0.03
156	0.44	3.9 ± 0.6	0.02
159	0.44	3.8 ± 0.3	0.00

Standard deviation of nitrate is based on triplicate samples

b) Raceway batch-6

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.07 ± 0.00	194.1 ± 8.3	28.89 ± 0.29
1	0.08 ± 0.00	188.2 ± 16.6	25.35 ± 1.76
2	0.08 ± 0.00	205.9 ± 8.3	23.48 ± 1.47
3	0.10 ± 0.01	188.2 ± 16.6	22.24 ± 0.29
4	0.10 ± 0.00	200.0 ± 0.0	19.74 ± 0.88
5	0.12 ± 0.00	205.9 ± 8.3	19.33 ± 0.18
6	0.15 ± 0.00	188.2 ± 0.0	18.70 ± 0.47
7	0.16 ± 0.00	194.1 ± 24.9	17.17 ± 0.06
9	0.21 ± 0.00	196.1 ± 6.8	15.25 ± 0.29
10	0.23 ± 0.00	164.7 ± 0.0	14.05 ± 0.12
11	0.27 ± 0.01	152.9 ± 0.0	12.01 ± 0.00
12	0.30 ± 0.01	152.9 ± 23.5	10.87 ± 0.03
13	0.31 ± 0.01	192.2 ± 6.8	8.92 ± 0.09
14	0.33 ± 0.00	160.8 ± 6.8	8.35 ± 0.12
16	0.34 ± 0.01	170.6 ± 8.3	6.75 ± 0.09
17	0.37 ± 0.01	137.3 ± 6.8	6.01 ± 0.03
18	0.38 ± 0.01	147.1 ± 8.3	3.79 ± 0.01
19	0.39 ± 0.01	158.8 ± 8.3	3.28 ± 0.01
20	0.41 ± 0.01	133.3 ± 13.6	2.50 ± 0.01
22	0.43 ± 0.01	135.3 ± 8.3	0.75 ± 0.02
24	0.44 ± 0.01	156.9 ± 24.5	0.22 ± 0.01
25	0.46 ± 0.00	141.2 ± 23.5	0.18 ± 0.00
26	0.46 ± 0.02	105.9 ± 11.8	0.29 ± 0.01
27	0.47 ± 0.02	105.9 ± 11.8	0.17 ± 0.01
28	0.48 ± 0.01	86.3 ± 13.6	0.20 ± 0.01
30	0.51 ± 0.01	105.9 ± 11.6	0.16 ± 0.01
31	0.51 ± 0.01	109.8 ± 6.8	0.18 ± 0.00
32	0.51 ± 0.00	105.9 ± 0.0	0.18 ± 0.01
33	0.51 ± 0.01	94.1 ± 20.4	0.10 ± 0.01
34	0.52 ± 0.01	94.1 ± 11.8	0.12 ± 0.01
35	0.52 ± 0.01	90.2 ± 6.8	0.07 ± 0.01
38	0.53 ± 0.01	82.4 ± 0.0	0.07 ± 0.00
39	0.53 ± 0.02	78.4 ± 6.8	0.00

Standard deviations of biomass and nitrate are based on triplicate samples; standard deviation of phosphate is based on duplicate samples

b) Raceway batch-6 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
40	0.56 ± 0.00	76.5 ± 24.9	0.00
41	0.56 ± 0.00	94.1 ± 0.0	0.00
42	0.56 ± 0.01	66.7 ± 13.6	0.00
45	0.57 ± 0.02	43.1 ± 6.8	0.00
46	0.57 ± 0.01	35.3 ± 0.0	0.00
48	0.59 ± 0.01	49.0 ± 18.9	0.00
52	0.59 ± 0.01	41.2 ± 0.0	0.00
53	0.60 ± 0.00	52.9 ± 0.0	0.00
54	0.63 ± 0.02	38.2 ± 4.2	0.00
56	0.59 ± 0.02	35.3 ± 8.3	0.82
59	0.66 ± 0.00	32.4 ± 12.5	0.00
60	0.66 ± 0.00	27.5 ± 3.4	0.00
61	0.66 ± 0.01	33.3 ± 3.4	0.00
63	0.67 ± 0.03	29.4 ± 0.0	0.00
66	0.67 ± 0.01	14.7 ± 0.0	0.00
67	0.68 ± 0.01	13.2 ± 2.1	0.00
70	0.67 ± 0.00	10.3 ± 2.1	0.02
73	0.67 ± 0.00	2.1 ± 0.4	0.00
76	0.67 ± 0.00	5.3 ± 0.3	0.02
77	0.68 ± 0.02	5.3 ± 0.4	0.02
80	0.67 ± 0.00	5.9 ± 0.0	0.00
82	0.67 ± 0.00	5.9 ± 0.6	0.00
84	0.67 ± 0.00	5.6 ± 0.4	0.00
87	0.67 ± 0.02	4.4 ± 0.4	0.00
88	0.66 ± 0.00	5.3 ± 0.8	0.00
91	0.64 ± 0.00	5.3 ± 0.0	0.00
95	0.63 ± 0.02	5.6 ± 0.4	0.00
96	0.65 ± 0.02	4.1 ± 0.8	0.00
97	0.63 ± 0.01	4.1 ± 0.8	0.00
98	0.76 ± 0.04	5.0 ± 1.3	0.00
99	0.74 ± 0.02	5.6 ± 0.4	0.00
101	0.76 ± 0.02	5.3 ± 0.8	0.04
102	0.77 ± 0.03	3.2 ± 1.3	0.00

Standard deviations of biomass and nitrate are based on triplicate samples

b) Raceway batch-6 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
105	0.75 ± 0.02	3.5 ± 0.0	0.07
108	0.74 ± 0.01	4.7 ± 0.8	0.03
111	0.73 ± 0.03	4.1 ± 0.0	0.00
114	0.73 ± 0.00	5.0 ± 0.4	0.00
117	0.73 ± 0.01	4.7 ± 0.0	0.05
121	0.69 ± 0.01	4.1 ± 0.0	0.12
128	0.67 ± 0.03	6.2 ± 0.4	0.00
131	0.69 ± 0.01	5.0 ± 0.4	0.00
135	0.67 ± 0.01	5.0 ± 1.3	0.00
138	0.67 ± 0.01	5.0 ± 0.4	0.00
141	0.70 ± 0.02	5.0 ± 0.4	0.00
146	0.64 ± 0.01	5.3 ± 0.0	0.00
148	0.68 ± 0.01	4.7 ± 0.0	0.00
152	0.64 ± 0.01	5.3 ± 0.8	0.00
155	0.64 ± 0.01	4.7 ± 0.0	0.00
162	0.57 ± 0.01	5.3 ± 0.0	0.00
168	0.57 ± 0.01	2.9 ± 0.0	0.00
173	0.55 ± 0.01	4.7 ± 0.0	0.00
175	0.53 ± 0.01	4.7 ± 0.0	0.00
180	0.51 ± 0.01	3.8 ± 0.0	0.00
185	0.48 ± 0.00	4.1 ± 0.0	0.00

Standard deviations of biomass and nitrate are based on triplicate samples

Data for raceway culture profile for Figure 4.20: effect of nitrate stress (~10% of normal initial nitrate)

Raceway batch-7

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.04 ± 0.00	102.0 ± 3.4	28.26 ± 1.18
1	0.04 ± 0.00	119.6 ± 13.6	24.94 ± 1.18
3	0.05 ± 0.00	111.8 ± 5.9	25.56 ± 2.65
5	0.08 ± 0.00	105.9 ± 8.3	22.24 ± 0.06
6	0.09 ± 0.00	102.0 ± 3.4	20.24 ± 0.06
7	0.11 ± 0.00	92.2 ± 8.9	18.70 ± 0.47
8	0.13 ± 0.00	102.0 ± 3.4	19.08 ± 0.06
9	0.14 ± 0.00	73.5 ± 4.2	17.17 ± 0.41
10	0.15 ± 0.00	88.2 ± 5.9	15.34 ± 0.53
11	0.18 ± 0.00	54.9 ± 6.8	14.13
12	0.20 ± 0.00	66.7 ± 8.9	13.09
13	0.20 ± 0.00	74.5 ± 12.3	11.72
15	0.23 ± 0.00	47.1 ± 2.0	9.56
16	0.24	54.7 ± 0.8	8.69
17	0.25	47.1 ± 3.3	5.08
18	0.27	49.4 ± 0.0	4.09
19	0.30	35.7 ± 3.8	3.68
20	0.30	35.3 ± 4.1	3.36
21	0.30	34.5 ± 0.7	2.64
22	0.32	16.1 ± 0.7	2.03
23	0.32	18.0 ± 0.7	1.67
25	0.34	5.1 ± 0.7	1.50
26	0.35	7.5 ± 1.7	1.50
27	0.35	3.4 ± 1.0	1.39
28	0.35	5.5 ± 0.9	1.31
29	0.32	2.9 ± 0.6	1.30
30	0.32	3.7 ± 0.3	1.18
32	0.33	2.1 ± 1.3	1.22
33	0.32	2.7 ± 0.3	0.96

Standard deviation of biomass is based on triplicate samples; standard deviations of nitrate and phosphate are based on duplicate samples

Raceway batch-7 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
35	0.33	0.6	1.06
37	0.29	1.2	0.99
39	0.33	2.4	0.91
40	0.35	1.8	0.92
41	0.36	3.5	0.82
43	0.35	1.2	0.80
45	0.34	2.4	0.77
46	0.35	2.9	0.71
48	0.35	2.4	0.76
50	0.36	2.9	0.82
53	0.34	2.4	0.67
55	0.35	1.8	0.61
56	0.34	2.4	0.67
57	0.35	1.8	0.62
60	0.35	2.9	0.57
61	0.34	1.2	0.56
63	0.35	1.8	0.51
64	0.35	1.8	0.52
67	0.35	1.2	0.48
68	0.36	1.5	0.41

Data for raceway culture profile for Figure 4.21: effect of nitrate stress (~22% of normal initial nitrate)

Raceway batch-8

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
0	0.04 ± 0.00	238.2 ± 4.2	27.02 ± 0.59
1	0.05 ± 0.00	214.7 ± 4.2	27.85 ± 0.00
2	0.06 ± 0.00	202.9 ± 12.5	25.98 ± 0.29
3	0.07 ± 0.00	182.4 ± 16.6	22.24 ± 0.29
4	0.07 ± 0.00	164.7 ± 8.3	22.03 ± 0.00
5	0.08 ± 0.00	214.7 ± 29.1	20.37 ± 0.00
6	0.08 ± 0.00	208.8 ± 12.5	20.03 ± 0.24
7	0.08 ± 0.00	208.8 ± 12.5	19.33 ± 0.18
8	0.08 ± 0.00	197.1 ± 12.5	18.70 ± 0.12
9	0.09 ± 0.00	217.6 ± 8.3	18.20 ± 0.12
10	0.09 ± 0.00	220.6 ± 4.2	18.00 ± 0.29
11	0.09 ± 0.00	208.8 ± 4.2	16.92 ± 0.06
12	0.09 ± 0.00	208.8 ± 4.2	16.46 ± 0.12
13	0.10 ± 0.00	211.8 ± 0.0	15.71 ± 0.12
14	0.10 ± 0.00	194.1 ± 16.6	15.25 ± 0.41
15	0.10 ± 0.00	188.2 ± 16.6	14.88 ± 0.35
16	0.10 ± 0.00	194.1 ± 8.3	14.67 ± 0.29
17	0.10 ± 0.00	197.1 ± 4.2	14.13 ± 0.00
18	0.11 ± 0.00	202.9 ± 12.5	13.59 ± 0.06
19	0.11 ± 0.00	199.0 ± 11.9	13.30 ± 0.12
20	0.11 ± 0.00	214.7 ± 2.9	13.26 ± 0.18
21	0.12 ± 0.00	203.9 ± 11.1	13.22 ± 0.24
23	0.13 ± 0.00	200.0 ± 16.6	12.22 ± 0.47
24	0.14 ± 0.00	202.0 ± 9.5	11.85 ± 0.06
25	0.15 ± 0.00	207.4 ± 10.4	11.22 ± 0.00
27	0.16 ± 0.00	187.3 ± 21.3	9.98 ± 0.35
28	0.17 ± 0.00	191.2 ± 11.8	8.56 ± 0.00
29	0.18 ± 0.00	201.5 ± 6.2	7.65 ± 0.24

Standard deviation of biomass is based on triplicate samples; standard deviations of nitrate and phosphate are based on duplicate samples

Raceway batch-8 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
31	0.20 ± 0.00	174.5 ± 12.3	5.98 ± 0.36
32	0.21 ± 0.00	171.6 ± 8.9	5.59 ± 0.38
33	0.23 ± 0.00	182.4 ± 0.0	4.75 ± 0.04
34	0.24 ± 0.01	185.3 ± 0.0	4.26 ± 0.15
36	0.25 ± 0.00	170.6 ± 5.9	3.36 ± 0.12
38	0.26 ± 0.00	168.6 ± 11.9	2.73 ± 0.14
39	0.29 ± 0.00	167.6 ± 0.0	2.36 ± 0.05
47	0.32 ± 0.00	174.5 ± 8.9	0.79
49	0.32 ± 0.00	163.2 ± 10.4	0.57
51	0.34 ± 0.00	142.2 ± 8.9	0.43
53	0.36 ± 0.00	135.3 ± 10.6	0.34
55	0.36 ± 0.00	150.0 ± 0.0	0.23
59	0.40 ± 0.00	127.9 ± 14.6	0.00
61	0.40 ± 0.00	107.8 ± 3.4	0.00
63	0.42 ± 0.01	119.6 ± 4.5	0.00
65	0.43 ± 0.00	121.6 ± 1.7	0.00
66	0.44 ± 0.00	117.6 ± 0.0	0.35
67	0.43 ± 0.01	119.6 ± 1.7	0.41
68	0.45 ± 0.01	116.2 ± 6.2	0.41
69	0.45 ± 0.00	100.0 ± 7.8	0.10
70	0.44 ± 0.00	96.1 ± 6.8	0.00
71	0.44 ± 0.00	95.1 ± 1.7	0.00
72	0.44 ± 0.00	98.5 ± 6.2	0.00
73	0.44 ± 0.00	97.1 ± 2.9	0.00
74	0.46 ± 0.00	97.1 ± 5.1	0.00
75	0.46 ± 0.00	101 ± 3.4	0.00
76	0.46 ± 0.00	98.0 ± 4.5	0.00
77	0.46 ± 0.00	91.2 ± 2.9	0.00
79	0.48 ± 0.00	83.3 ± 3.4	0.00
80	0.47 ± 0.01	96.1 ± 1.7	0.00
81	0.48 ± 0.00	86.8 ± 2.1	0.00
82	0.47 ± 0.00	81.4 ± 3.4	0.00
83	0.47 ± 0.00	74.5 ± 4.5	0.00

Standard deviation of biomass is based on triplicate samples; standard deviations nitrate and phosphate are based on duplicate samples

Raceway batch-8 (Cont.)

Time (d)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)
84	0.47 ± 0.00	80.4 ± 4.5	0.00
85	0.47 ± 0.00	75.0 ± 2.1	0.00
87	0.48 ± 0.00	81.4 ± 1.7	0.00
88	0.47 ± 0.01	80.4 ± 3.4	0.00
89	0.47 ± 0.00	78.4 ± 1.7	0.00
90	0.48 ± 0.00	85.3 ± 0.0	0.00
92	0.49 ± 0.00	77.9 ± 2.1	0.00
94	0.48 ± 0.00	79.4 ± 12.5	0.00
97	0.48 ± 0.00	70.6 ± 0.0	0.00
100	0.48 ± 0.00	72.1 ± 2.1	0.00
102	0.48 ± 0.00	70.6 ± 5.9	0.00
103	0.51 ± 0.00	72.1 ± 2.1	0.00
106	0.52 ± 0.01	76.5 ± 0.0	0.00
107	0.52 ± 0.01	61.8 ± 2.9	0.00
108	0.53 ± 0.00	61.8 ± 0.0	0.00
109	0.53 ± 0.01	64.7 ± 0.0	0.00
110	0.54 ± 0.01	54.9 ± 1.7	0.00
111	0.56 ± 0.00	51.5 ± 2.1	0.00
112	0.56 ± 0.00	60.3 ± 2.1	0.00
115	0.57 ± 0.00	50.0 ± 4.5	0.00
116	0.58 ± 0.00	51.0 ± 1.7	0.00
117	0.57 ± 0.00	47.1 ± 0.0	0.00
118	0.58 ± 0.00	50.0 ± 5.1	0.00
120	0.57 ± 0.00	52.9 ± 4.2	0.00
121	0.56 ± 0.00	52.0 ± 6.8	0.00
122	0.55 ± 0.00	50.0 ± 7.8	0.00
123	0.56 ± 0.00	49.0 ± 4.5	0.00
124	0.55 ± 0.00	51.5 ± 2.1	0.00
125	0.55 ± 0.01	47.1 ± 0.0	0.00

Standard deviations of biomass and nitrate are based on triplicate and duplicate samples, respectively

Data for continuous raceway culture profile for Figure 4.24:

Time (h)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Dilution rate (h ⁻¹)	
0	0.60	882.4	0.15	D = 0.0115 (continuous illumination of 91 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)	
24	0.48	1000.0	0.80		
48	0.41	1029.4	1.68		
72	0.32	882.4	2.19		
96	0.28	882.4	3.65		
120	0.25	911.8	6.56		
144	0.22	1000.0	7.29		
168	0.20	1029.4	8.02		
192	0.19	1058.8	9.48		
216	0.18	1058.8	10.94		
240	0.16	1029.4	8.95		
288	0.15	1029.4	10.21		
312	0.13	970.6	9.48		
336	0.14	970.6	10.21		
360	0.13	1147.1	11.31		
384	0.12	1147.1	13.86		
408	0.12	1117.6	14.95		
432	0.12	1029.4	16.05		D = 0.0115 (continuous illumination of 46 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)
456	0.11	1029.4	17.87		
480	0.11	1058.8	17.14		
504	0.10	794.1	16.41		
528	0.09	852.9	17.87		
552	0.09	882.4	17.14		
576	0.08	970.6	17.51		
600	0.07	823.5	16.05		
624	0.07	852.9	13.49		
648	0.08	970.6	11.31		
672	0.07	823.5	10.21		
696	0.08	970.6	7.66		
720	0.08	647.1	6.20		
744	0.08	941.2	6.93		
768	0.09	911.8	6.93		

Data for continuous raceway culture profile for Figure 4.24 (Cont.):

Time (h)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Dilution rate (h ⁻¹)
792	0.10	1058.8	6.20	D = 0.0115 (continuous illumination of 91 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)
816	0.12	882.4	4.38	
840	0.14	941.2	3.28	
864	0.15	1000.0	7.29	
888	0.16	970.6	11.31	
912	0.16	1029.4	14.95	
936	0.16	1117.6	15.68	
960	0.17	1147.1	16.05	
984	0.18	1176.5	19.33	
1008	0.18	1117.6	19.69	
1032	0.19	1029.4	22.25	
1056	0.18	1029.4	22.61	
1080	0.18	1147.1	21.52	
1104	0.18	1117.6	21.88	
1128	0.18	1058.8	21.88	
1152	0.17	1000.0	21.52	
1162	0.16	-	-	
1176	0.16	1000.0	20.42	
1186	0.15	-	-	
1200	0.15	1000.0	19.33	
1210	0.14	-	-	
1224	0.14	970.6	18.60	
1234	0.13	-	-	
1248	0.14	941.2	18.23	
1258	0.13	-	-	
1272	0.14	911.8	17.87	
1282	0.13	-	-	
1296	0.14	1058.8	18.23	
1306	0.12	-	-	
1320	0.14	941.2	19.33	
1330	0.12	-	-	
1344	0.14	1088.2	18.23	

Data for continuous raceway culture profile for Figure 4.24 (Cont.):

Time (h)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Dilution rate (h ⁻¹)
1354	0.12	-	-	
1368	0.14	1058.8	18.60	D = 0.0115 (continuous illumination of 91 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)
1392	0.14	1088.2	18.23	
1416	0.15	1058.8	17.51	
1440	0.16	1029.4	15.68	
1464	0.16	1000.0	15.68	
1488	0.16	1029.4	15.32	
1512	0.16	941.2	15.68	
1536	0.17	1058.8	14.95	
1560	0.19	1029.4	14.59	
1584	0.20	941.2	12.40	
1608	0.23	1029.4	11.31	
1632	0.26	1117.6	10.58	
1656	0.27	1147.1	7.29	
1680	0.34	1147.1	7.29	
1704	0.33	1088.2	6.93	
1728	0.34	1176.5	4.01	
1752	0.33	1176.5	3.28	
1776	0.34	1176.5	5.11	
1800	0.36	1147.1	6.93	
1824	0.33	1205.9	10.21	
1848	0.35	1147.1	10.58	
1872	0.30	1176.5	11.67	
1896	0.36	1176.5	11.31	
1920	0.36	1176.5	13.86	
1944	0.36	1117.6	14.22	
1968	0.36	1147.1	16.41	D = 0.0072 (continuous illumination of 46 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)
1992	0.33	1117.6	17.51	
2016	0.32	1176.5	17.51	
2040	0.31	1000.0	18.96	
2064	0.29	941.2	20.79	
2112	0.27	882.4	20.42	

Data for continuous raceway culture profile for Figure 4.24 (Cont.):

Time (h)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Dilution rate (h ⁻¹)
2136	0.24	1000.0	20.79	D = 0.0072 (continuous illumination of 46 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)
2160	0.22	970.6	20.06	
2184	0.24	1029.4	19.69	
2208	0.21	1000.0	18.96	
2232	0.20	1088.2	18.23	
2256	0.20	1117.6	18.23	
2280	0.22	1088.2	18.23	
2304	0.22	1088.2	18.23	
2328	0.22	1147.1	25.53	
2352	0.22	1088.2	25.53	
2376	0.21	882.4	20.79	
2400	0.21	1117.6	25.16	
2424	0.21	1088.2	25.53	
2448	0.20	1088.2	25.89	
2472	0.20	1058.8	25.16	D = 0.0072 (continuous illumination of 91 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)
2496	0.21	1176.5	24.80	
2520	0.23	1117.6	25.16	
2544	0.25	1176.5	23.34	
2568	0.26	1147.1	21.52	
2592	0.27	1088.2	22.25	
2616	0.31	1088.2	18.96	
2640	0.33	1000.0	18.96	
2664	0.37	1029.4	20.06	
2688	0.28	941.2	17.51	
2712	0.30	882.4	20.06	
2736	0.35	1029.4	20.79	
2760	0.35	1088.2	21.15	
2784	0.35	1088.2	20.79	
2808	0.33	1058.8	20.06	
2832	0.31	1088.2	20.42	
2856	0.31	1058.8	20.06	
2880	0.32	823.5	14.95	

Data for continuous raceway culture profile for Figure 4.24 (Cont.):

Time (h)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Dilution rate (h ⁻¹)
2904	0.30	970.6	20.06	D = 0.0072 (continuous illumination of 91 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)
2928	0.31	970.6	19.69	
2952	0.31	1058.8	19.33	
2976	0.32	1058.8	19.69	
3000	0.32	970.6	17.87	
3024	0.32	882.4	17.87	
3048	0.33	1058.8	18.60	
3072	0.32	1058.8	18.60	
3096	0.30	1029.4	18.60	
3120	0.30	1058.8	20.06	
3144	0.31	1029.4	20.06	
3168	0.30	1058.8	19.69	
3192	0.31	1058.8	20.06	
3216	0.31	1088.2	20.06	
3240	0.31	1058.8	20.06	
3264	0.31	1029.4	20.06	
3288	0.31	1058.8	19.69	
3312	0.31	1088.2	20.42	
3336	0.32	1029.4	17.87	
3360	0.32	911.8	17.87	
3384	0.31	1000.0	18.23	
3408	0.32	1000.0	18.23	
3432	0.31	911.8	18.23	
3456	0.31	1000.0	17.51	
3480	0.30	970.6	17.87	
3504	0.30	882.4	18.23	
3552	0.29	1029.4	18.23	
3576	0.29	970.6	18.60	
3600	0.29	1000.0	18.23	
3624	0.27	1029.4	18.60	
3648	0.28	1029.4	17.87	
3672	0.28	1058.8	18.23	

Data for continuous raceway culture profile for Figure 4.24 (Cont.):

Time (h)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Dilution rate (h ⁻¹)
3744	0.26	1029.4	18.60	D = 0.0072 (continuous illumination of 91 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)
3768	0.25	1117.6	18.60	
3792	0.24	1000.0	18.60	
3816	0.22	970.6	18.60	
3840	0.25	970.6	18.60	
3888	0.25	970.6	18.96	
3912	0.25	941.2	18.96	
3936	0.23	1058.8	18.96	
3960	0.24	970.6	18.96	
3984	0.25	941.2	20.79	
4008	0.25	941.2	19.33	
4056	0.26	1029.4	18.60	
4080	0.25	970.6	18.23	
4104	0.24	970.6	18.23	
4128	0.24	1029.4	18.23	
4152	0.24	911.8	18.23	
4176	0.23	1000.0	18.60	
4200	0.23	1029.4	18.60	
4224	0.23	1058.8	18.23	
4248	0.23	1029.4	18.60	
4272	0.22	1000.0	18.23	
4296	0.22	970.6	18.96	
4320	0.22	1029.4	20.06	
4344	0.22	970.6	18.60	
4392	0.22	941.2	18.60	
4416	0.22	970.6	18.60	
4440	0.22	1029.4	18.60	
4464	0.21	1058.8	19.69	
4488	0.22	1029.4	21.88	
4512	0.22	1117.6	20.42	
4560	0.22	1029.4	18.96	
4584	0.23	1058.8	18.23	

Data for continuous raceway culture profile for Figure 4.24 (Cont.):

Time (h)	Biomass concentration (g L ⁻¹)	Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Phosphate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Dilution rate (h ⁻¹)
4608	0.22	941.2	18.23	D = 0.0072 (continuous illumination of 91 μmol·m ⁻² ·s ⁻¹)
4632	0.22	1029.4	18.23	
4656	0.22	911.8	18.96	
4680	0.23	1029.4	18.23	
4704	0.23	1000.0	18.96	
4728	0.22	1029.4	19.69	
4752	0.23	1058.8	19.69	
4776	0.23	1029.4	18.23	
4800	0.23	1029.4	16.78	
4824	0.23	1029.4	16.78	
4848	0.25	1058.8	16.41	
4872	0.22	1000.0	18.60	
4896	0.23	1029.4	18.60	
4920	0.23	1000.0	18.96	
4944	0.23	1058.8	21.88	
4968	0.23	1117.6	21.88	
4992	0.24	1117.6	21.52	
5016	0.25	1058.8	21.52	
5040	0.25	1088.2	18.96	
5064	0.26	1058.8	18.96	
5088	0.26	1058.8	18.96	
5112	0.26	1058.8	17.87	
5160	0.27	1029.4	18.23	
5184	0.27	1000.0	18.23	
5232	0.27	1000.0	18.60	
5256	0.26	970.6	17.87	
5280	0.26	941.2	17.87	