

Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro Centro de Ciências da Saúde Programa de Pós-graduação em Biotecnologia Vegetal e Bioprocessos

VARIAÇÃO DAS CONDIÇÕES NUTRICIONAIS PARA OTIMIZAÇÃO DO CRESCIMENTO E PRODUÇÃO DE LIPÍDEOS POR MICROALGAS

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RESUMO

A otimização do meio de cultivo é uma etapa crucial para a viabilização da produção de biodiesel a partir dos lipídeos oriundos do metabolismo de microalgas. Neste trabalho foram avaliados os efeitos da combinação da limitação de nutrientes, do aumento da salinidade e da suplementação de CO₂ no acúmulo dos lipídeos de duas linhagens de microalgas Clorofíceas, Ankistrodesmus sp. (ANRF-01) e Chlamydomonas sp. (CHLRN-01), a fim de determinar a condição ótima para este acúmulo. Os resultados obtidos revelaram que a redução em 75% da concentração original de nitrato e fosfato do meio ASM-1 apresentou melhores resultados de produção de biomassa e de lipídeos, na ordem de 23,0 g.L⁻¹ e 31,4%, para ANRF-1, e, 60 g.L⁻¹ e 22.5%, para CHLRN-1, respectivamente. Ambas as linhagens mostraram-se aptas para o cultivo em meio salobro contendo 0,5g L-1 de NaCl. ANRF-1 apresentou um expressivo aumento na produção de biomassa e no rendimento lipídico quando cultivada em meio ASM-1 suplementado com 5% de CO₂ demonstrando um importante potencial para a mitigação de CO₂ proveniente de gases de combustão. Por outro lado, em CHLR-01, foi verificado um efeito inibitório no crescimento celular acompanhado e uma diminuição do acúmulo de lipídeos sendo, portanto, não recomendada a aplicação de 5% de CO₂ no meio para o cultivo desta linhagem. O perfil de ácidos graxos produzidos por ANRF-1 e CHLRN-1 foi majoritariamente constituído por C16:0 (ácido palmítico), C18:1n-9c (ácido oleico), 18:2n-6c (ácido linolênico) e C18:3n-3 (ácido α linolênico), um perfil lipídico promissor não apenas para a indústria de biocombustíveis, mas também para as indústrias de fármacos e alimentícia, pela alta variedade de ácidos graxos poliinsaturados ômega 3 e ômega 6.

ABSTRACT

Culture medium optimization is a crucial step for viability of biodiesel production from lipids of microalgae. In this work were evaluated the effects of nutrients limitation, salinity increase and CO₂ addition in lipid production by two strains of Chlorophyceae microalgae, Ankistrodesmus sp. (ANRF-01) e Chlamvdomonas sp. (CHLRN-01), to determine the optimal condition for these production. The results revealed that the reduction to 75% of ASM-1 nitrate and phosphate concentrations presented superior results of biomass and lipid production, in order of 23.0 g.L⁻¹ and 31.4% for ANRF-1 and 60 g.L⁻¹ and 22.5% for CHLRN-1, respectively. Both strains were suitable for cultivation in brackish medium containing 0,5g L⁻¹ NaCl. ANRF-1 showed an expressive increase in biomass production and lipid yield in ASM-1 medium 5% CO₂ added, showing an important potential for CO₂ mitigation from combustion gases. In other hand, for CHLRN-1 the 5% CO₂ addition leaded to an inhibitory effect on cell growth with a decrease in lipid production. Being therefore the addition of 5% CO₂ not recommended for this strain. The Fatty acid profile produced by ANRF-1 and CHLRN-1 was mainly composed of C16:0 (palmitic acid), C18:1n-9c (oleic acid), 18:2n-6c (linolenic acid) and C18:3n-3 (α-linolenic acid) promising not for biofuels industry only, but also for the pharmaceutical and food industries, due to the high variety of polyunsaturated fatty acids of omega3 and omega 6.

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1 Introdução

O termo microalga é uma designação genérica dada a um grupo de organismos extremamente diversificado, que desempenha funções importantes nos ambientes em que ocorrem e variam sazonalmente sua distribuição na medida em que as condições físicas e químicas da água mudam (Guschina & Harwood, 2006). As microalgas são consideradas fundamentais para a manutenção da vida na Terra, uma vez que contribuem com a produção do O_2 da atmosfera (Bold, 1942; Bolton, 2006). Elas também despertam o interesse por aplicações biotecológicas em diversos grupos de pesquisa, devido à sua ampla versatilidade metabólica e também por sua importância nutricional, econômica e ecológica (Reynolds, 2006; Schenk et al. 2008; Sun et al. 2014).

As principais aplicações biotecnológicas das microalgas incluem a utilização dos pigmentos carotenóides na aquicultura de moluscos, crustáceos e peixes, bem como na produção de suplementos para alimentação humana (Ben-Amotz 1995; WU et al. 2001; Benemann 2008; Chisti 2008; Schenk et al. 2008). Mas além da produção de pigmentos, outras aplicações também podem ser conferidas a esses organismos: (i) o uso direto da biomassa no pré-tratamento de águas residuais (Larsdotter, 2006); (ii) a extração de proteínas, vitaminas, ácidos graxos poliinsaturados e outros compostos, relacionados a alguma atividade benéfica para sistemas biológicos (Buono et al. 2014); (iii) a utilização da biomassa residual na fertilização de solos agrícolas (Šingliar et al. 2013). Contudo, dada à complexidade dos elementos envolvidos em um sistema de cultivo em larga escala, a produção em escala comercial destes compostos é restrita a poucos gêneros de microalgas.

Nos últimos 30 anos indústrias de biotecnologia de microalgas do Japão, Estados Unidos, México, Itália, Israel, França, Canadá, Austrália e Índia têm aprimorado técnicas para produção e utilização de produtos a partir de microalgas e desenvolvido novas técnologias de valorização da biomassa desses organismos (Borowitzka & Borowitzka 1988; Ben-Amotz et al. 1989; WU et al. 2000; Chisti 2007). No Brasil os cultivos de microalgas para fins comerciais, em sua maioria, restringem-se à produção de insumos para aquicultura, contudo, o setor de bioenergia vive uma expectativa pela consolidação das microalgas como fonte viável de biomassa para a produção de biodiesel.

O biodiesel é um biocombustível formado por uma mistura de ésteres metílicos ou etílicos de ácidos graxos, produzida pela reação de um óleo ou gordura com um álcool, na presença de um catalisador (Marchetti et al., 2007). Os triacilgliceróis de cadeia longa, com 14 a 18 carbonos, são os principais ácidos graxos utilizados para a produção de biodiesel por serem facilmente transesterificáveis (Huang et al. 2009). As microalgas possuem um excelente potencial de produção de triacilgliceróis, pois estes constituem a principal forma de armazenamento de energia metabólica nestes organismos. Dependendo da espécie, do tempo e das condições de cultivo, é possível alcançar um rendimento de 80% em triacilgliceróis do total de lipídeos extraídos da biomassa (Meng et al. 2008).

De modo geral, a biomassa de microalgas é constituída de 10 a 20% de lipídeos, 20 a 30% de carboidratos e 40 a 60% de proteínas, além de em quantidades menores, ácidos nucleicos e pigmentos (Spolaore et al. 2006; Su et al. 2014). A composição lipídica varia dependendo das condições físico-químicas do cultivo e do estado fisiológico das microalgas (Veraart et al. 2008). Quando cultivadas em condições ótimas de crescimento, as microalgas produzem predominantemente ácidos graxos livres, glicolipídeos e fosfolipídeos. Quando submetidas às condições de estresse fisiológico intensificam a produção de lipídeos com ácidos graxos em sua composição, principalmente triacilglicerol (TAG), monoacilglicerol, diacilglicerol e esteróis, que juntos, chegam a constituir até 80% da massa seca total de lipídeos (Huerlimann et al. 2010; Renaud et al. 2002). Estudos realizados em ambientes naturais verificaram que ácidos graxos saturados, como por exemplo, C14:0 (ácido mirístico), C16:0 (ácido plamítico) e C18:0 (ácido esteárico) são componentes majoritários do conjunto de ácidos graxos instaurados apresentam especificidades por existirem rotas alternativas na produção não compartilhadas entre determinadas classes de microalgas, estas variações são reflexos dos processos de adaptação das microalgas ao ambiente (Sushchik et al. 2010; Lang et al. 2011; Sun et al. 2014).

A produção e o consumo de biodiesel no Brasil tem aumentado progressivamente desde que a Lei 11.097, de 13 de janeiro de 2005, estabeleceu a obrigatoriedade da adição de biodiesel ao óleo diesel comercializado em qualquer parte do território nacional. A diversificação das fontes ricas em lipídeos para conversão em biodiesel é fundamental para se alcançar as metas governamentais de substituição do diesel mineral. Contudo, um dos desafios impostos para a comercialização do biodiesel produzido a partir de microalgas é a sua viabilidade econômica. Portanto, estudos ecofisiológicos que visem à otimização das condições de cultivo de linhagens isoladas de corpos d'água brasileiros e potencialmente promissoras para a produção de biodiesel são bastante recomendáveis.

1.1 Fatores que afetam o crescimento e o metabolismo de microalgas

1.1.1 Luz

Dentre os fatores ambientais que impactam o crescimento e a produtividade lipídica de microalgas, a luz (bem como sua qualidade e fotoperíodo) está entre os fatores primários que se destacam pela sua importância (Wahidin et al. 2013). A luz é a fonte de energia básica da fotossíntese e essencial para a produtividade de culturas fotoautotróficas. Na natureza, a intensidade luminosa frequentemente está bem acima da saturação e pode ser suficiente para inibir o crescimento durante grande parte do dia.

As microalgas absorvem energia luminosa através dos pigmentos, em comprimentos de onda entre 400 e 700nm. Os limites de tolerância à luz variam extensamente entre as espécies de microalgas e também conforme a seu habitat de origem. As intensidades de saturação e inibição também dependem da adequação de outros fatores do ambiente, incluindo temperatura, concentração de CO_2 e de nutrientes (Jacob-Lopes et al. 2009; Passarge et al. 2006). A concentração de clorofila *a* e de carotenoides é um importante indicador do estado fisiológico de microalgas mantidas em cultivo. Normalmente em condições adequadas de crescimento as culturas inicialmente apresentam uma redução na concentração de clorofila em função da disponibilidade de luz para as células, seguido por um aumento desta concentração em função do auto-sombreamento decorrente do crescimento celular (Bolton 2006).

Estudos sobre a influência da luz nos níveis de síntese de carotenoides e de ácidos graxos de *Dunaliella salina* reportam um aumento expressivo da produção de β -caroteno e do acúmulo de C16:0 e C18:1, após o aumento da intensidade luminosa (Ben-Amotz et al. 1989). Para *Hematoccocus pluvialis*, o aumento do conteúdo de astaxantina é positivamente correlacionado ao aumento da intensidade luminosa dos

cultivos (Giannelli et al. 2015). Por outro lado, altas intensidades luminosas podem ser estressantes para as microalgas. Quando a taxa fotossintética se estabiliza, o excesso de luz pode provocar a fotoinibição das culturas, levando a danos que resultem na redução do crescimento celular e da produção de metabólitos, ou até mesmo, na morte celular (Samuelsson et al. 1987).

Em culturas muito densas, a irradiância da superfície da cultura diminui rapidamente em direção as partes mais profundas da cultura. Entre as várias estratégias que podem ser aplicadas para lidar com a flutuação da irradiância durante o cultivo, a agitação das culturas por aeração do cultivo é a mais utilizada. Movimentando as células de regiões com baixa iluminação para regiões de alta iluminação e permitindo que as células sejam expostas a um padrão luz/ escuro alternado. Contudo, um aspecto que não pode ser ignorado é que a agitação por aeração da cultura não pode ser aplicada a todas as culturas, devido à sensibilidade da parede celular ao cisalhamento de muitas espécies de microalgas (Richmond, 2013; ZHU et al. 2013).

1.1.2 Temperatura

A temperatura é outro fator limitante para as microalgas. No ambiente, a temperatura afeta principalmente a distribuição das espécies. Em cultivos, a temperatura impacta os mecanismos bioquímicos e biofísicos das células, levando determinadas espécies a prosperarem em condições incompatíveis com a sobrevivência de outras (Sarmento, 2012). A adaptação de microalgas a uma extensa faixa de temperatura é uma característica particularmente interessante para a manutenção de cultivos, uma vez que, em ambientes abertos, a temperatura tende a variar amplamente ao longo do dia. No Brasil, as regiões com maiores potenciais econômicos e de sustentabilidade ambiental (norte e nordeste) são caracterizadas por temperaturas predominantemente

elevadas ao longo de todo o ano. Com exceções de espécies adaptadas ao frio e de espécies termofílicas, a grande maioria das microalgas atinge maiores taxas de crescimento específico em temperaturas de 25 a 35 °C (Reynolds, 2006).

A temperatura também afeta a produção de lipídeos e a composição dos ácidos graxos de microalgas. De modo geral, maiores acúmulos de ácidos graxos saturados são verificados em baixas temperaturas (17 e 18 °C) (Guschina & Harwood 2006b). Para algumas espécies de ambientes extremamente frios, tende-se a verificar um aumento do número de ramificações n-3 e n-6 (ômega 3 e 6, respectivamente) no conteúdo de ácidos graxos poliinsaturados (Léveillé et al. 1997). Tais variações são entendidas como um processo de adaptação comum primariamente relacionado ao papel destes ácidos graxos na fluidez de membranas celulares (Thompson, 1996).

1.1.3 Carbono inorgânico

Além da luz e da água, a disponibilidade do carbono inorgânico é necessário, para que a fotossíntese ocorra. Em sistemas aquáticos as concentrações de CO_2 dissolvidos são controlados por fatores que incluem troca atmosférica, decomposição da matéria-orgânica, fotossíntese, respiração dos organismos e pH do meio . As principais formas de carbono inorgânico solúveis no meio aquático incluem CO_2 , HCO_3^- , H_2CO_3 e CO_3^{-2} . Geralmente, em pH abaixo de 5,0 o conteúdo de carbono inorgânico está presente na forma de CO_2 , HCO_3^- em pH entre 7,0 e 9,0 e CO_3^{-2} em pH acima de 9. Em temperatura acima de 25° C, o conteúdo de ácido carbônico pode ser ignorado devido à sua rápida deprotonação (Fan et al. 2008).

A baixa pressão parcial relativa de CO_2 no ar, entre 0,03 e 0,04%, pode limitar a taxa de fotossíntese das microalgas, como deixa evidente o aumento do crescimento celular em resposta à suplementação de 5% de CO_2 em cultivos (Tsuzuki et al. 1990;

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Klinthong et al. 2015). As microalgas demonstram alta eficiência fotossintética devido à existência de mecanismos de concentração de carbono, constituídos pelo transporte ativo de carbono inorgânico e pela presença da enzima anidrase carbônica, que catalisa a conversão do íon bicarbonato à CO_2 livre, na região periplasmática quando o CO_2 é limitado. Através desses mecanismos o CO_2 consegue facilmente atravessar a membrana celular orientado pelo gradiente de força de densidade aumentando a assimilação do carbono inorgânico pelas células (Raven et al. 2008). Altas concentrações de CO_2 podem ser prejudiciais à fotossíntese e ao crescimento celular de algumas espécies da mesma maneira que uma oferta limitada de CO_2 pode restringir a fotossíntese e o crescimento da maioria das espécies fotoautotróficas (Yoo et al. 2010; Gardner et al. 2011).

1.1.4 pH

O pH é um importante fator para o crescimento de microalgas por interferir na solubilidade do dióxido de carbono e de minerais no meio de cultura. Consequentemente o pH também influencia o metabolismo das microalgas, sendo estreita a faixa de pH ótimo para cada espécie de microalga (Reynolds, 2006). O pH depende da composição e capacidade tamponante do meio, da quantidade de dióxido de carbono (CO_2) dissolvido, da temperatura (que determina a solubilidade do CO_2) e da atividade metabólica das células (Blanchemain et al.1994).

A grande maioria de microalgas são cultivadas na faixa de pH entre 7,0 e 9,0, com pH ótimo na faixa de 8,2 a 8,7 e cessando seu crescimento em pH 9,5 (Bolton 2006). Contudo, é reportado que algumas espécies de microalgas crescem bem em pH extremamente alto (entre 9,0 e 10,0) e extremamente baixo (abaixo de 4,0) (Cuaresma et al. 2011; Berge et al. 2012). Em relação à absorção de carbono, as espécies que conseguem utilizar HCO_3^- como fonte de carbono inorgânico quando o CO_2 é limitado, conseguem também realizar fotossíntese em pH elevado (Giordano et al. 2005).

1.1.5 Oxigênio dissolvido

A alta concentração de oxigênio dissolvido é um sinal de que uma cultura fotoautotrófica saudável, com alta taxa de fotossíntese (Richmond 2013). Por outro lado, uma concentração elevada de oxigênio em culturas com intensidade luminosa elevada é indesejável porque a combinação entre oxigênio elevado e alta intensidade de luz promove a oxidação dos produtos da fotossíntese em CO_2 (fotorespiração). Uma vez que a Rubisco possui funções carboxilase/oxigenase competitivas, uma concentração elevada de O2 promove a atividade oxigenase da Rubisco, resultando na captação preferencial de O_2 em vez de CO_2 e converte ribulose-1,5-bifosfato em ácido2-fosfoglicérico e 2-fosfoglicolato. O efeito da fotorespiração é ainda pior em condições de O_2 , luz e temperaturas elevadas, resultando em uma perda significativa de carbono, refletindo na perda de produtividade de biomassa (Giordano et al. 2005; Beardall & Giordano 2002). Os efeitos negativos de elevadas concentrações de O_2 em cultivo podem ser reduzidos mantendo elevada razão $CO_2:O_2$ e através da intensificação da atividade dos mecanismos de concentração de carbono, a fim de promover maior atividade carboxilase da enzima Rubisco (Fon Sing et al. 2013).

1.1.6 Salinidade

A salinidade é outro fator que influencia vários mecanismos fisiológicos e bioquímicos associados ao crescimento de microalgas. As microalgas, de modo geral, possuem boa tolerância ao aumento da salinidade nos cultivos e seus efeitos estão baseados nos mecanismos de absorção de água, dirigidos osmoticamente, e na concentração de solutos usados para gerar pressão osmótica (Renaud & Parry 1994). Em condições de estresse salino as microalgas alteram seu metabolismo diminuindo o crescimento e aumentando acúmulo de solutos e proteínas de resposta ao choque osmótico, alterando a proporção dos ácidos graxos saturados e insaturados presentes na membrana. Isto permite que as microalgas regulem o transporte de íons através da membrana celular, protegendo-as das injúrias do meio circundante até que as condições favoráveis ao crescimento sejam reestabelecidas (Takagi et al. 2006).

Fon Sing e colaboradores (2013) ao selecionarem espécies de microalgas de ambientes hipersalinos da Austrália, para uso em cultivos abertos, encontraram linhagens com habilidade para crescimento em salinidade de 3 a 11% NaCl (v:v) verificando, contudo, que tanto a biomassa como a produtividade lipídica foram mais elevadas com salinidade de 3% (NaCl). Comparativamente a água do mar possui salinidade próxima de 3,5% em massa de sais dissolvidos cuja maior parte é cloreto de sódio. *Dunaliella salina* é talvez a espécie de microalga mais halotolerante além de outras espécies, incluindo *Dunaliella tertiolecta, Chlamydomonas* sp. e *Tetraselmis* sp., que também demonstraram boa resistência ao aumento da salinidade em cultivos (Sonnekus 2010).

A tolerância a uma ampla faixa de salinidade é um dos critérios importantes para o cultivo de microalgas em sistemas abertos, ao ar livre. Isto porque a variação da salinidade decorre devido à extensa evaporação e/ou diluição dos cultivos causados por altas temperaturas e chuva, respectivamente. Para compensar as perdas por evaporação, adiciona-se água doce à cultura para manter a salinidade constante. Alternativamente, água salina é usada levando ao aumento da salinidade ao longo do tempo (Ho, Ye, et al. 2014). Estudos demonstram que as espécies de microalgas tolerantes a uma ampla gama de salinidade são menos propensas à contaminação durante o escalonamento do cultivo (Cohen et al. 1991). Dessa maneira, o uso de espécies com capacidade de crescimento em água salobra ampliam o potencial econômico e da sustentabilidade ambiental desses cultivos, especialmente em regiões áridas e semi-áridas brasileiras, não competindo com água doce destinada para o consumo humano.

1.1.7 Nutrientes

Além de luz, temperatura e carbono, as microalgas necessitam de nutrientes inorgânicos para produção de biomassa. Os principais nutrientes para o crescimento de microalgas são nitrogênio, fósforo, ferro, oligoelementos e vitaminas. O nitrogênio é o nutriente mais importante para a produção de biomassa e culturas expostas a concentrações não limitantes de nitrogênio, respondem com o aumento do conteúdo de proteínas nas células (Grobbelaar 2013). Em meios de cultivo sintéticos o nitrogênio inorgânico disponível para a absorção está preferencialmente sob a forma de nitrato (NO_3^-) ou na forma de íons amônio (NH_4^+) (Bolton 2006). É mais comum a utilização do nitrato, pelas implicações que a utilização do íon amônio produz no equilíbrio do pH do meio. Porém, a capacidade de utilização de diferentes fontes de nitrogênio é característica específica entre as espécies de microalgas.

O nitrogênio é, provavelmente, o nutriente mais estudado dentre aqueles que podem causar efeitos no metabolismo lipídico de microalgas, sendo a privação de nitrogênio no meio de cultura uma estratégia amplamente utilizada para aumentar o conteúdo lipídico em culturas de microalgas (Gardner et al. 2011). Contudo, a deficiência de nitrogênio nem sempre está diretamente ligada ao acúmulo de lipídeos. *Tetraselmis* sp., por exemplo, acumula mais carboidratos em condições de limitação de

nitrogênio, indicando que o acúmulo de lipídeos pela limitação de nitrogênio é uma resposta espécie específica (Huerlimann et al. 2010).

Em culturas de microalgas, a produção de lipídeos é influenciada pela razão carbono/ nitrogênio (C/N) disponível no meio. De maneira geral, uma elevada razão C/N favorece o acúmulo de lipídios devido à depleção de N na cultura. Por outro lado, uma baixa razão C/N favorece uma maior proporção de ácidos graxos poliinsaturados (Isleten-Hosoglu et al. 2012). Existem algumas hipóteses para explicar a biossíntese e o acúmulo de lipídeos de microalgas em condições de nitrogênio reduzido. Sob a limitação de nitrogênio, a energia derivada da fotossíntese, que normalmente é direcionada para a produção de proteínas e subsequente crescimento celular, é em parte desviada para a produção de compostos de reserva que não possuem nitrogênio, como carboidratos e lipídeos (Klok et al. 2013). A conversão da glicose em lipídeos, quando o nitrogênio é exaurido do meio, ocorre em situações com alta energia armazenada no interior das células, em outras palavras, sob alta razão ATP/AMP (adenosina trifosfato e adenosina monofosfato, respectivamente) intracelular.

O acúmulo de lipídeos pela redução de nitrogênio, além de estar relacionado com níveis mais elevados de enzimas de síntese de lipídeos, também pode estar relacionado com a diminuição nos níveis de enzimas associadas ao crescimento e proliferação celular (Takagi et al. 2000). De acordo com esses mesmos autores, são verificadas pelo menos três modificações no metabolismo das microalgas sob escassez de nitrogênio que, por sua vez, levam ao aumento do conteúdo lipídico intracelular: (i) diminuição da membrana tilacóide, (ii) ativação de lipases (acil-hidrolase e aciltransferase) responsáveis pela hidrólise e síntese de ésteres a partir do glicerol e ácidos graxo de cadeias longas, e, (iii) estimulação da hidrólise de fosfolipídeos. A disponibilidade de nitrogênio também influencia o acúmulo de carotenoides em algumas espécies de microalgas (Cuaresma et al. 2011).

O fósforo é o principal fator limitante da produtividade primária aquática, devido à sua capacidade de se ligar facilmente a outros íons, como Ca²⁺ e Fe²⁺, o que resulta na sua precipitação e indisponibilização para absorção pelas microalgas (Grobbelaar 2013). A exigência de fósforo para um crescimento ótimo varia consideravelmente de espécie para espécie, mas de maneira geral, a maioria das microalgas pode crescer sob baixa (< 10 μ g L⁻¹) ou média (de 10 a 30 μ g L⁻¹) concentração de fósforo. Em meios de cultivo, o fósforo inorgânico está presente sob a forma de ortofosfato (PO₄⁻³) ou de fosfatos monobásico (H₂PO₄⁻) ou dibásico (HPO₄⁻²) (Bolton 2006).

Embora também sejam capazes de absorver outras frações de fosfato, a forma preferencial para absorção pelas microalgas é o ortofosfato. A absorção do fosfato é estimulada com a presença de luz, mas o que se observa é que as concentrações intra e extracelular de fosfato tem fundamental importância porque a velocidade máxima de absorção varia em função da concentração interna e externa desse elemento (Powell et al. 2008). Os efeitos do fósforo sobre a composição química das microalgas têm sido relatados em vários estudos (Chu et al. 2013; Oh et al. 2010; Khozin-Goldberg & Cohen 2006; Řezanka et al. 2011). Na Tabela 1 é apresentado um resumo geral das mudanças na composição bioquímica de microalgas em resposta às concentrações de nitrogênio, fósforo e carbono disponíveis no meio de cultura.

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Tabela I. Respostas de algi	imas microalgas as c	oncentracoes de nitrogeni	o tostoro e carbono dispon	iveis no meio de cultura
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Fator	Organismo Condições Mudan		Mudanças Bioquímicas Observadas	Referência
	Phaeodactylum tricornutum	Limitação	Aumento da síntese de lipídeos, diminuição do conteúdo de proteínas	Morris et al. 1974
Nitrogênio	Chlorella vulgaris	Redução em 75%	Aumento da síntese de lipídeos de 2,9 para 16,4%	Converti et al. 2009
		Estarvação	Aumento da assimilação de fósforo em 3,8 vezes e aumento do acumulo de lipídeos de 37,7 para 54,8%	Chu et al. 2013
Fósforo	Ankistrodesmus falcatus Limitação		Diminuição do conteúdo de clorofila a e proteínas, aumento do conteúdo de carboidratos e lipídeos	Healey et al. 1979
	Selenastrum minutum	Estarvação	Diminuição das taxas de respiração e de fixação de CO ₂	Theodorou et al. 1991
Carbono	C. reinhardtii	pH acima de 9,0	Diminuição do acúmulo de carbono e alta demanda por carbonato para manter a atividade fotossintética	Moroney et al. 1985
-	Dunaliella salina	CO_2 de 2% para 10% por 7 dias	Aumento do conteúdo de ácidos graxos em 2,7 vezes	Muradyan et al. 2004

1.2 Justificativa

Movido pelos benefícios para a saúde humana e por constituírem uma matériaprima atraente para a produção de biodiesel, o conhecimento das variações na biossíntese e composição química de ácidos graxos de microalgas vem crescendo nas últimas décadas. Contudo, sua produção em larga escala constitui um desafio pela dificuldade de se obter culturas com alta produtividade e pelo alto custo de produção. Muito embora a literatura apresente formas de manipulação do meio de cultura para obtenção biomassa com elevados teores de lipídeos, a maioria destas pesquisas contempla estudos com espécies de microalgas isoladas de ambientes temperados, distantes das condições de luz e temperatura encontradas no Brasil. De modo que este conhecimento necessita ser revisto e aprimorado para as linhagens nativas brasileiras.

Os cultivos cujos objetivos almejam maiores produções de biomassa e de lipídeos, mostram-se dependentes de um grande número de variáveis, com efeitos sinérgicos entre elas, sendo necessários estudos de otimização que considerem as interações entre os diferentes fatores e seus impactos na fisiologia da espécie de interesse.

1.3 Objetivo geral

O objetivo geral desse estudo foi estabelecer as concentrações de nitrato, fosfato, cloreto de sódio e CO_2 dirigidos ao acúmulo de ácidos graxos e com o menor comprometimento do crescimento de duas microalgas nativas, *Ankistrodesmus* sp. e *Chlamydomonas* sp. Adicionalmente, foi realizada a caracterização e a quantificação do perfil de ésteres produzidos por essas linhagens frente às modificações da cultura testadas, considerando que o conhecimento dos perfis lipídicos fornecem subsídios para a seleção de linhagens cujo alvo lipídico esteja estabelecido.

1.3.1 Objetivos específicos

(i) Reunir informações através de revisão da literatura sobre as perspectivas e os desafios da produção de biodiesel a partir de microalgas e as condições que aumentam o potencial econômico e a sustentabilidade ambiental dos sistemas de produção de microalgas.

(ii) Avaliar a utilização de uma abordagem fatorial para otimização do meio de cultura visando estabelecer a melhor condição de crescimento e de acúmulo de lipídeos das linhagens de microalgas estudadas.

(iii) Testar os efeitos da redução da concentração de nutrientes (nitrogênio e fósforo) e
do aumento da disponibilidade de carbono inorgânico (CO₂) sob o crescimento e
acúmulo de lipídeos pelas mesmas linhagens de microalgas.

2 Material e métodos

2.1 Linhagens de microalgas utilizadas no estudo

Foram utilizadas duas linhagens de microalgas da classe Chlorophyceae (Round 1965,1971): *Ankistrodesmus* sp. (ANRF-1), Figura 1A, isolada a partir de amostras de água bruta do rio Paraíba do Sul coletadas em 2009 no Reservatório do Funil e *Chlamydomonas* sp (CHLRN-1), Figura 1B, gentilmente cedida pelo Centro de Pesquisas e Desenvolvimento Leopoldo A. Miguez de Mello, (CENPES) no ano de 2013.

O gênero Ankistrodesmus (Corda) está entre os gêneros de microalgas da classe Chlorophyceae que merecem atenção por ser um dos mais comuns em coletas de fitoplâncton. Esses organismos são comumente encontrados em ambientes continentais de clima tropical e temperado, principalmente aqueles grande disponibilidade de nutrientes (Ramos et al. 2016). De maneira geral organizam-se em colônia, raramente células solitárias, formando fascículos paralelos ou às vezes dispostos em espiral uma célula em torno do outra. A parede celular é discreta e o cloroplasto parietal, sem pirenóides. A reprodução ocorre por autósporos, dispostos em paralelo dentro da célula mãe e liberados após a dissolução da parede celular (Bicudo & Menezes, 2006). No Brasil, há registro da ocorrência de dez espécies nativas, porém não endêmicas, em oito das doze regiões hidrográficas do país, incluindo Atlântico Leste, Amazônica, Atlântico Nordeste oriental, Atlântico Sul, Atlântico Sudeste, Paraná, São Francisco e Tocantins-Araguaia (Tucci et al. 2015). Representantes desse gênero apresentam grande potencial para cultivo, devido a sua elevada taxa de crescimento em cultura. Contudo, o conhecimento sobre o comportamento fisiológico dos representantes deste gênero de microalgas ainda é escasso e restrito a poucos estudos (Sipaúba-Tavares & Pereira 2008; Kilham S S et al. 1997; Nascimento et al. 2013).

Chlamydomonas (Ehrenberg) é um gênero de microalga unicelular também da classe Clorophyceae, sendo talvez, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii a espécie de microalga mais estudada (Merchant et al. 2012). O gênero compreende indivíduos normalmente monadóides, de hábito solitário e vida livre, com grande variedade de formas das quais a elipsoide e a ovóide são as mais comuns. A parede celular é nítida e na maioria das espécies é verificada uma papila anterior mediana. O cloroplasto é parietal, único por célula, podendo ocorrer desde um até vários pirenoides. Os dois flagelos apresentam tamanhos iguais entre si, são homodinâmicos e se inserem apicalmente no polo anterior da célula, apresentam vacúolos contráteis e um estigma conspícuo, de coloração avermelhada (Bicudo & Menezes, 2006). No Brasil há registro de vinte e sete espécies nativas, não endêmicas, nas regiões hidrográficas do Atlântico Sudeste e do Paraná, com ocorrência confirmada nos estados do Espírito Santo, Rio de Janeiro e São Paulo (Tucci et al. 2015). O gênero Chlamydomonas é um importante modelo para estudos sobre fotossíntese, motilidade, respostas à estímulos, reconhecimento celular e outros temas de biologia celular e molecular, além de apresentar crescimento elevado e perfil lipídico adequado para a produção de biodiesel.

Ambas as linhagens encontram-se depositadas na coleção de culturas do Laboratório de Ecofisiologia e Toxicologia de Cianobactérias (LETC) localizado no Instituto de Biofísica Carlos Chagas Filho na Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro.



Figura 1: Micrografia óptica da microalga (A) *Ankistrodesmus* sp. (ANRF-1) e (B) *Chlamydomonas* sp. (CHLRN-1) em aumento de 400x e após 4 dias de cultivo em meio ASM-1.

2.2 Manutenção das linhagens

A manutenção das linhagens utilizadas como pré-inóculo dos experimentos foi realizada através de repicagem periódica em meio de cultivo ASM-1 completo (Gorham *et al.*, 1964), contendo para cada litro de meio 0,17 g NaNO₃, 0,05 g MgSO₄ 7 H₂O, 0,04 g MgCl₂ 6 H₂O, 0,03 g CaCl₂ 2H₂O, 0,02 g KH₂PO₄, 0,03 g Na₂HPO₄ 12 H₂O, 0,003 g H₃BO₃, 0,001 g MnCl₂ 4H₂O, 0,001 g FeCl₂ 6H₂O, 0,0002 g ZnCl, 0,00002 g CoCl₂ 6H₂O, 0,000001 g CuCl e 0,008 g Na₂ EDTA. A intensidade luminosa de manutenção utilizada foi de 200 µmols fótons m²⁻¹ s⁻¹, fotoperíodo de 12 horas, temperatura de 23 °C ± 2 °C e regime de alimentação em batelada. O meio de cultivo ASM-1 foi escolhido por ser um meio adequado ao crescimento de microalgas, que contém 2 vezes mais nitrato (0,17 g L⁻¹) e 5 vezes mais fosfato (0,05 g L⁻¹) do que, por exemplo, o meio WC que contém 0,08 g L⁻¹ NaNO₃ e 0,01 g L⁻¹ KH₂PO₄ (Guillard & Larentzen, 1972), permitindo, com isso, o aumento entre os intervalos de repiques das culturas.

2.3 Parâmetros de cultivo do pré-inóculo

Foram adotados intervalos de 15 dias entre os repiques da cultura até os que fosse alcançado volume de 500 mL e posteriormente 1000 mL, momento em que foi inserido o aparato de aeração com ar comprimido, em um fluxo constante de 1L min⁻¹. A intensidade luminosa dos cultivos foi elevada para de 200 para 1.400 μ mol fótons m⁻² s⁻¹, considerando que cultivos de microalgas são preferencialmente realizados ao ar livre, utilizando as condições naturais de iluminação. A temperatura dos cultivos experimentais foi mantida em 27 °C ± 1 °C e dado ao aumento do metabolismo das linhagens, em consequência ao aumento intensidade luminosa, o intervalo de repique foi reduzido para 10 dias até os cultivos alcançarem um volume final de 4L.

2.4 Parâmetros físicos e químicos

2.4.1 Luz

A iluminação artificial de cultivos é utilizada para simular intensidades luminosas encontradas em ambientes naturais em faixas que permitam a realização da fotossíntese. Estudos anteriores realizados pelo nosso grupo mostraram que a utilização de altas intensidades luminosas foi uma forma eficiente de alcançar a redução do tempo de cultivo. Neste estudo foram utilizadas lâmpadas fluorescentes e de cor branca (lâmpada fria), sendo 10 lâmpadas de 20W, dispostas atrás dos frascos com as culturas e 6 lâmpadas de 40 W, dispostas no centro e nas extremidades laterais da área reservada para as culturas, com fotoperíodo de 12 horas (Figura 2). A densidade de fótons disponível para os cultivos medida no interior dos frascos de 1400 µmol fótons.m²⁻¹.s⁻¹ e a medida da densidade do fluxo de fótons foi realizada através de um sensor quântico modelo US-SQS/L acoplado a um integrador radiométrico esférico (LiCor, Inc. USA).

2.4.2 Temperatura

Neste estudo as culturas foram mantidas em condição de temperatura ambiente de 23 °C \pm 2 °C (temperatura de manutenção do pré-inóculo) e 27 °C \pm 1 °C (temperatura experimental), ambos valores médios registrados no intervalo de 24 horas durante 10 dias. A temperatura dos cultivos foi acompanhada através de um termohigrômetro digital (Impac) acoplado a um sensor de contato, cujo sensor de medição foi mantido na área externa dos cultivos (Figura 2).



Figura 2: Área designada ao cultivo de Ankistrodesmus sp. (ANRF-1) demonstrando a disposição das lâmpadas e do sensor para medição da temperatura externa.

2.4.3 pH

Nesse estudo, a determinação do pH do meio e de sua variação durante os cultivos foi realizada por meio de um medidor de pH calibrado com solução tampão de pH 4 e 7 em temperatura ambiente. A verificação nos experimentos com suplementação de CO_2 , descritos adiante no item 2.4, foi realizada em dias alternados após 5 horas do início do fotoperíodo concomitantemente à injeção de CO_2 nos cultivos.

2.5 Experimentos

2.5.1 Experimento Fatorial simples 2³ para otimização do meio de cultivo

Um planejamento fatorial simples 2^3 a dois níveis (+1) e (-1) foi utilizado para avaliar os efeitos das interações de três variáveis (NO₃, PO₄³⁻ e NaCl) no acúmulo dos lipídeos das linhagens de *Ankistrodesmus* sp e *Chlamydomonas* sp em cultivos em batelada. Foram incluídas três repetições do ponto central, nível (0) para cada variável. O nitrato e o fosfato foram testados nas proporções de 0 (-1), 25 (0) e 50% (+1) da concentração original indicada para o meio ASM-1, conforme descrito na Tabela 2. O controle dos experimentos foi realizado com meio ASM-1 repleto. No total foram realizados 12 experimentos simultâneos para cada linhagem (Tabela 3). Os experimentos tiveram duração de 10 dias e tanto as experiências quanto o controle foram iniciados a partir de um inoculo com densidade celular de $5x10^{-5}$ cel.mL⁻¹, pH 7, temperatura de 27 °C ± 1 °C, intensidade luminosa de 1.400µmols fótons.m²⁻¹.s⁻¹, fotoperíodo de 12 horas e aeração constante (Figura 3).

Variávais	Símbolos	Níveis dos fatores testados			Controlo
v arravers	511100108	(-1)	(0)	(+1)	Controle
NaNO ₃	X ₁	0	0,04 g L ⁻¹	0,08 g L ⁻¹	0,17 g L ⁻¹
KH ₂ PO ₄ and Na ₂ HPO ₄	\mathbf{X}_2	0	0,01 g L ⁻¹	0,02 g L ⁻¹	0,05 g L ⁻¹
NaCl	X_3	0	5,0 g L^{-1}	10,0 g L ⁻¹	0

Tabela 2: Concentrações de nitrato, fosfato e cloreto de sódio utilizadas no planejamento fatorial 2^3 , nas repetições do ponto central e no controle (meio ASM-1).

Experimentos	Nitrato	Fosfato	Cloreto de sódio
1	0 (-1)	0 (-1)	0 (-1)
2	0,08 g L ⁻¹ (+1)	0 (-1)	0 (-1)
3	0 (-1)	0,02 g L ⁻¹ (+1)	0 (-1)
4	0,08 g L ⁻¹ (+1)	0,02 g L ⁻¹ (+1)	0 (-1)
5	0 (-1)	0 (-1)	10,0 g L ⁻¹ (+1)
6	0,08 g L ⁻¹ (+1)	0 (-1)	10,0 g L ⁻¹ (+1)
7	0 (-1)	0,02 g L ⁻¹ (+1)	10,0 g L ⁻¹ (+1)
8	0,08 g L ⁻¹ (+1)	0,02 g L ⁻¹ (+1)	10,0 g L ⁻¹ (+1)
9	0,04 g L ⁻¹ (0)	0,01 g L ⁻¹ (0)	5,0 g $L^{-1}(0)$
10	0,04 g L ⁻¹ (0)	0,01 g L ⁻¹ (0)	5,0 g $L^{-1}(0)$
11	0,04 g L ⁻¹ (0)	0,01 g L ⁻¹ (0)	5,0 g $L^{-1}(0)$
Controle	0,17 g L ⁻¹	0,04 g L ⁻¹	0

Tabela 3: Matriz das experiências do planejamento fatorial 2^3 para otimização das concentrações de nitrato, fosfato e cloreto de sódio visando o aumento do rendimento lipídico das microalgas testadas.



Figura 3: Experimento fatorial para otimização do meio de cultivo. Da esquerda para direita experimentos 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 e controle da linhagem ANRF-1.

Os limites das variáveis foram escolhidos com base em revisão da literatura em que também foi considerada a viabilidade operacional dos experimentos. Os
experimentos foram analisados através do modelo matemático proposto por Montgomery (2008):

$$y=b_0+(b_1x_1)+(b_2x_2)+(b_3x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{23}x_2x_3)+(b_{123}x_1x_2x_3)+(b_{11}x_1x_1)+(b_{22}x_2x_3)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_3)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_2)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_2)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_2)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{12}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_2)+(b_{12}x_2x_2)+(b_{13}x_1x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13}x_2)+(b_{13$$

Onde: y= resposta de interesse; b_0 = intercepção do modelo; b_1 , b_2 e b_3 , b_{12} , b_{13} , b_{23} , b_{123} , b_{11} , b_{22} e b_{33} são os coeficientes de regressão obtidos por regressão linear. As respostas de interesse desse estudo foram a produção de biomassa (mg L⁻¹) e o rendimento lipídico (mg L⁻¹).

2.5.2 Experimentos com suplementação de CO₂

Neste estudo também foi avaliado o efeito do aumento da concentração de CO₂ sobre o crescimento e a produção de lipídeos das linhagens ANRF-1 e CHLRN-1. Os cultivos foram realizados com meio N-P reduzido, que continha 0.04 g L^{-1} de NaNO_{3:} 0,01 g L⁻¹ de KH₂PO₄ e Na₂HPO₄ 5,0 g L⁻¹ NaCl e demais micronutrientes nas concentrações originais do meio ASM-1. Foram repetidas as mesmas condições de luz, fotoperíodo, pH e temperatura, bem como a duração dos cultivos conforme descrito nos experimentos do item 2.2.2. Além do CO₂ proveniente do ar atmosférico, em torno de 0,04%, os cultivos receberam suplementação de CO₂ em uma proporção equivalente a 5,0% do volume do ar injetado utilizando um aparelho para mistura de gases (Figura 4). A suplementação foi adicionada diariamente, em um fluxo contínuo de 0,5 L min⁻¹, durante 8 horas seguidas e a partir da terceira hora do início do fotoperíodo. 0 controle dos experimentos com meio otimizado foi realizado com meio ASM-1 repleto sem cloreto de sódio. O controle da suplementação de CO₂ foi realizado através dos experimentos com meio otimizado e dos experimentos com meio ASM-1 repleto, sem a adição de CO₂. Todos os experimentos foram realizados em triplicata.



Figura 4: Misturador de gases para misturas de dióxido de carbono e ar utilizados nos experimentos com adição de 5% de CO2.

2.6 Parâmetros fisiológicos

2.6.1 Avaliação do crescimento celular das linhagens

O crescimento celular das linhagens ANRF-1 e CHLRN-1 foi acompanhado através da contagem do número de células utilizando-se o contador automático Casy Counter, calibrado para determinação somente de células viáveis presentes na amostra. As análises foram realizadas nos experimentos com e sem adição de CO₂, descritos no item 2.4, nos tempos amostrais t0, t2, t4, t6, t8 e t10.

2.6.2 Determinação do peso seco da biomassa das microalgas

A biomassa foi estimada por gravimetria da massa seca, de forma que alíquotas de 20 a 30 mL dos cultivos foram filtradas em membrana de fibra de vidro com diâmetro de 47mm (Sartorius Glasfiber Prefilter 13400-47-Q), conforme apresentado na Figura 5. Em seguida os filtros foram mantidos em estufa a 60 °C até atingirem peso constante. Foi determinada a massa de cada membrana antes filtragem das amostras e após filtração das amostras. Para o calculo de produção da biomassa em mg L⁻¹, utilizou-se a seguinte equação:

Biom= $P_{f} - P_{i} \times 1000 / V$

Onde: Biom= biomassa seca mg L⁻¹, P_f = massa do filtro com amostra, P_i =massa inicial do filtro, 1000= equivalente ao volume de 1L do cultivo em mL e V= volume filtrado da amostra em mL.



Figura 5: Membranas com concentrado de Ankistrodesmus sp (ANRF-1) para determinação da biomassa seca.

2.6.3 Concentração de clorofila a

O estado fisiológico das linhagens foi acompanhado *in vivo* através da medida da concentração de clorofila-*a*, utilizando um fluorímetro PHYTO-PAM com detector de emissão PHYTO ED (Schreiber et al. 1998). O instrumento foi calibrado com

amostras de ANRF-1 e CHLRN-1 cultivadas em meio ASM-1 repleto nas condições de manutenção descritas no item 2.1. As análises foram realizadas nos experimentos com e sem adição de CO₂, descritos no item 2.4, nos tempos amostrais T0, T2, T4, T6, T8 e T10.

2.6.4 Determinação do rendimento lipídico da biomassa produzida

A extração dos lipídeos totais foi realizada pelo método Bligh & Dyer (Bligh & Dyer, 1969), adaptado. Volumes de 80mL retirados de cada cultivo, contendo de 13 a 40 mg de biomassa (conforme o tempo do cultivo), foram concentrados por centrigufação a 2,800 x g por 10 minutos e ressuspenso em água ultra pura (2x) para remoção dos sais restantes do meio de cultivo. A biomassa úmida foi congelada, liofilizada e armazenada em -20°C até o seu uso. Nas amostras de biomassa seca (de 20 a 90mg) foram adicionados 0.8mL de água destilada, as amostras foram sonicadas durante 10 min em seguida 1mL de clorofórmio e 2mL de metanol foram adicionados e homogeneizados até formação de uma única fase. Para a extração dos lipídeos a mistura permaneceu em agitação em agitador orbital por 2 horas e em seguida foi centrifugada a 2,800 x g durante 15 minutos para separação das fases (orgânica e lipídica). O sobrenadante foi retirado com pipeta Pasteur e reservado, em seguida o pellet foi ressuspenso novamente em 1mL de clorofórmio, 2mL de metanol e 0.8mL de água destilada e homogeneizada até formação de uma única fase. A segunda extração também teve duração de 2 horas sob agitação em agitador orbital. Novamente a mistura foi centrifugada a 2,800 x g durante 15 minutos para separação das fases e em seguida o sobrenadante contendo o extrato lipídico foi retirado e acrescentado ao anterior. A evaporação dos solventes contidos no extrato lipídico foi realizada com nitrogênio

gasoso e a massa do extrato foi determinada por análise gravimétrica do peso seco. Para o cálculo da massa do extrato lipídico em mg L-1 utilizou-se a seguinte equação:

$$EBL = P_L x 1000 / V$$

Onde: EBL= Massa do extrato lipídico em mg L⁻¹, 1000 = equivalente ao volume de 1L do cultivo em mL e V = volume da amostra utilizada na extração.

2.6.5 Quantificação dos ésteres metílicos de ácidos graxos

Os procedimentos descritos a seguir foram realizados em colaboração com o Laboratório de Bioquímica de Lipídeos do Instituto de Bioquímica Médica da UFRJ. Os ésteres contidos no extrato lipídico foram obtidos através de adaptações ao método descrito por Christie (1989). Amostras de extrato lipídico contendo até 15mg foram dissolvidas em 1mL de tolueno e 2mL de ácido sulfúrico 1% em metanol. A mistura foi homogeneizada e deixada em banho a 50°C durante uma noite. Posteriormente foi adicionado 1 mL de cloreto de sódio 5% em água destilada e em seguida novamente homogeneizada. Foram adicionados 2mL de hexano para extração dos ésteres. A mistura foi homogeneizada e centrifugada a 3000rpm durante 10 minutos para separação das fases. A fração contendo os ésteres metílicos (inferior) foi retirada com pipeta Pasteur e reservada. Uma segunda extração com 2mL de hexano realizada. Os solventes foram removidos por evaporação com nitrogênio gasoso e os ésteres metílicos permaneceram armazenados a -20°C até o momento da análise, quando foram ressuspendidas em 50µL de hexano.

Para análise dos ésteres foi utilizado um CG-MS Shimadzu (GP2010 Plus) equipado com uma coluna Agilent (HP Ultra 2), com fase estacionária de 5% fenil metilpolisiloxano, comprimento de 25m, diâmetro interno de 0,20mm e 0,33µm de espessura de filme. O injetor foi mantido a 250°C, com divisão de fluxo split, na razão de 1:1. A temperatura do forno da coluna foi elevada a 40-160°C, com taxa de aquecimento de 30°C/min; de 160-233°C, com taxa de aquecimento de 1°C/min e de 233-300°C, com taxa de aquecimento de 30°C/min, mantida nessa temperatura por 10 minutos. O gás de arraste utilizado foi o hélio, com velocidade linear de 36.1cm/seg. Para detecção por espectrometria de massas foi utilizado detector contendo fonte de ionização por elétrons (EI-70 eV) e analisador de massas quadrupolo operando em varreduras de 50 a 650 unidades de massa atômica (u.m.a.). A interface foi mantida a 240°C e a fonte de íons a 240°C. A identificação dos constituintes da mistura foi feita por comparação dos tempos de retenção e padrões de fragmentação das amostras aos padrões de referência (Supelco 37 Component FAME Mix, Sigma Aldrich). O ácido graxo C19:0 (nonadecaenóico)foi utilizado como padrão interno.

2.7 Análise estatística dos resultados

2.7.1 Metodologia de superfície de resposta

A determinação da região ótima de trabalho foi obtida através da metodologia de superfície de resposta introduzida em 1951 por Box & Wilson. Embora a maioria das publicações envolvendo MSR tenha sido observada na indústria química e alimentícia, o interesse em MSR se espalhou para as áreas biológicas, biomédicas e farmacêuticas (Rambali et al.2001). O método empregado neste trabalho para a construção das superfícies de resposta, a partir do modelo matemático adotado, consistiu em fixar uma das variáveis (concentração de cloreto de sódio) em diferentes níveis (-1), (0) e (+1) e atribuir incrementos de 0,1 as demais variáveis (concentrações de nitrato e fosfato) varrendo-se a faixa (-1) a (+1) (Myers et al. 2009). Assumindo a concentração de cloreto de sódio como fator fixo, as superfícies de resposta foram representadas por um

gráfico tridimensional, onde as concentrações de nitrato e fosfato corresponderam, respectivamente, aos eixos y e x. O eixo z correspondeu ao resultado obtido (biomassa e rendimento lipídico em mg L^{-1}) através da previsão do modelo. As respostas foram representadas por um plano e projetadas em um gráfico bidimensional utilizando o software Sigma Plot ® versão 12.5.

2.7.2 Função de Derringer

A inspeção visual de um gráfico de superfície pode não ser o suficiente para determinar as condições ótimas de produção, principalmente quando mais de uma resposta é avaliada (Divjak et al.1998; Aguiar et al.1997). A função de Derringer é uma metodologia de decisão multicritério que consiste na atribuição de um número a uma qualidade (resposta) matematicamente, e, portanto, numericamente é possível escolher a resposta mais satisfatória. Esta transformação é realizada através da determinação de uma escala adimensional, de forma que a pior resposta ou a resposta não desejável é definida na escala como d=0, e para a melhor resposta ou a resposta desejável d=1. Neste estudo foram admitidos como valores não desejáveis os resultados de biomassa e lipídeos (avaliados simultaneamente) que estiveram abaixo da metade dos valores obtidos no experimento controle de cada linhagem. Valores iguais ou superiores aos resultados obtidos nos experimentos controle foram admitidos como desejáveis.

O cálculo dessa transformação foi realizado através do sistema de equações:

- $d_i = 0$, para y <= y_{min}
- $d_i = 1$, para y >= y_{max}
- $d_i = \left[(y \text{ } y_{min}) \; / \; \left(y_{max} \text{ } y_{min} \right) \right]$

$$\mathbf{D} = \sqrt{(d_1 x d_2)}$$

Onde d_i= valores individuais obtidos a partir do sistema de equações para cada critério utilizado (biomassa e rendimento lipídico em mg.L⁻¹); y_{min}= valor a partir do qual a resposta não é desejada (179,2 mg L⁻¹ e 32,4 mg L⁻¹ para ANRF-1; 440,0 mg L⁻¹ e 48,0 mg L⁻¹, para CHLRN-1); y_{max}= valor a partir do qual a resposta é desejada (358,4 mg L⁻¹ e 64,8 mg L⁻¹ para ANRF-1; 880,0 mg L⁻¹ e 170,0 mg L⁻¹ para CHLRN-1) e D= ao valor global, obtido a partir da média geométrica dos valores individuais.

2.7.3 Analise da variância (ANOVA)

As diferenças nos valores médios obtidos entre os tratamentos e o controle dos experimentos foram medidas através da análise da variância e a significância das diferenças foi definida por comparação das médias aplicando-se o Teste de Tukey. Ambos os testes foram realizados através do software Sigma Plot ® versão 12.5.

3 Resultados

3.1 Microalgae Lipid and Biodiesel Production: A Brazilian Challenge

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Abstract

Global increases in atmospheric CO₂ and climate change are drawing considerable attention to identifying sources of energy with lower environmental impact than those currently in use. Biodiesel production from microalgae lipids can, in the future, occupy a prominent place in energy generation because they represent a sustainable alternative to petroleum-based fuels. Several species of microalgae produce large amounts of lipids per biomass unit. Triacylglycerol is the fatty acid used for biodiesel production and the main source of energy reserves in microalgae. A review of the current literature indicates that nutrient limitations could lead to triacylglycerol accumulation in different species of microalgae. This revision focused in the biotechnological potential and viability of biodiesel production from microalgae in Brazil. Further efforts in microalgae screening for biodiesel production are needed to discover a native microalgae that would be feasible for biodiesel production in terms of biomass productivity and oil. Brazil is located in a tropical region with high light rates and adequate average temperatures for the growth of microalgae. The wide availability of bodies of water would allow the country to produce renewable energy from microalgae.

Keywords: Biodiesel, microalgae, lipids, cultivation

3.1.1 Introduction

The use of renewable energy sources and reduction of environmental impacts is the main theme of the global public policy for reducing the effects of greenhouse gas emissions on global climate change (Schenk et al. 2008). In 2013, the emissions associated with the Brazilian energetic matrix exceeded 400 million tons of carbon dioxide released into the atmosphere, most of which was generated by the transport sector. The Brazilian annual emission *per capita* for producing and consuming energy was estimated to be 2.3 tons, which is 8 times less than the American and 3 times less than the European or Chinese emissions per capita. Despite the fact that 41% of the internal Brazilian energy supply originated from renewable sources, in transportation sectors only 16.5% of fuel sources have renewable origin. The main biofuels used are ethylic alcohol (14.3%) from sugar cane; and biodiesel (2.4%) from vegetable oils, fatty materials such as chicken fat, pork fat and used frying oil (EPE, 2014). Projections made by federal institutions and energy companies, indicate continuous increase in fuel consumption by the transportation sector, in this sense, biofuels play an important role in the future of clean energy generation and environmental security (Kan et al. 2009; Pant et al. 2010).

Following the worldwide movement, Brazil turned its attention to biodiesel research in the late 1990s. The initial goal was to introduce biodiesel into the Brazilian energy matrix, with a focus on social inclusion and regional development. However, it was the diffusion of the National Program for Production and Use of Biodiesel (PNPB) and definition of a legal and regulatory framework for biodiesel production, distribution and investment resources that made significant progress in the use of biodiesel. In 2005, the addition of 2% biodiesel in diesel oil was mandated, which was successfully extended to 5% by the National Energy Policy Council (CNPE) in 2010, anticipating

the three-year goal set by Law No. 11.097 on January 13, 2005. To suit these targets, there was an increase in biodiesel production in the country. In 2005, production was approximately 4.6 million petroleum barrel equivalent (BEP), while in 2014, driven by the increase in the diesel oil mix, production reached 19.4 million BEP, which is 4.2 times more than in 2005. Brazil currently imports a more expensive diesel than the biodiesel produced internally because the expectation for the coming years is for the biodiesel content in diesel oil to increase to 40% (EPE, 2014).

As of 2013, there are 65 authorized plants located in 16 Brazilian states with a nominal capacity for biodiesel production of 7.1 million m³/year. The highest concentration of these biodiesel plants is in the states of Mato Grosso (31%), Rio Grande do Sul (11.5%) and Goiás (9.8%) (EPE, 2014). The raw materials for biodiesel production in Brazil are diverse, such as palm in the north; soybeans, sunflower and peanuts in the South, Southeast and Midwest; and castor beans, which are considered the best option in the northeast but have not shown significant results in other regions. Soybean has been prominent in the commercial production of biodiesel in Brazil, and the second most common raw material is bovine fat, which accounts for approximately 10%. Even the cultivation of oilseeds is a true alternative for biofuel production, and some relevant aspects need to be considered, including the competition for land that could be used for food production, increased market prices of derived products, growing and harvesting crop-based regimes, among others. Therefore, research on biodiesel production has highlighted the use of additional renewable sources such as microalgae. These microorganisms are promising raw materials in the production of third-generation fuels, especially if they are associated with the use of other high-value compounds produced by microalgae (Chisti et al. 2008b; Harun et al. 2010; Greenwell et al. 2010; Rajendran et al. 2015).

In the last decade, Brazil multiplied government and private initiatives related to researches in microalgae biodiesel, increasing the number of researches and scientific publications in the area. Advances are being obtained in order to optimize the resources and transpose laboratory scale to production scale. In 2010 it was created Microalgae Network, which involves 10 Brazilian institutions of the south, southeast, north and northeast of the country. Currently some pilot plants for algae cultivation in higher scale are found in the states of Santa Catarina, Rio de Janeiro, Pernambuco and Natal.

This work aims to present some fundamental aspects of microalgae screening, cultivation, lipid improvement, oil extraction and conversion related to advances and challenges in the generation of microalgae biodiesel in Brazil.

3.1.2 Biotechnological potential of microalgae

Microalgae is a generic term for organisms, mostly photosynthetic and predominantly aquatic, that are distributed in the water column guided by spatial and seasonal gradients according physical, chemical and biological parameters. The main taxonomic divisions are Cyanophyta, Chlorophyta, Charophyta, Euglenophyta, Heterokontophyta, Cryptophyta, Dinophyta and Prymnesiophyta. It is estimated that there are approximately 26000 species of microalgae in the environment, of which only a few have been identified for successful commercial application (Guschina & Harwood 2006a; Bicudo & Menezes 2006). Within the US Department of Energy's Aquatic Species Program (ASP) to develop microalgae as a source of biodiesel, more than 3000 strains of microalgae from ponds and oceans have been identified in inland waters, soil and/or sub aerial environments, particularly from the Chlorophyta class s (Parmar et al. 2011).

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Chlorophyta is a division of green algae that includes approximately 500 genera and 8000 species and is preferably found in environments with a great availability of nutrients (Becker, 2004). The main representatives belong to the Chlorococcales and Volvocales orders and have wide morphological variety, including unicellular, colonial and filamentous forms. The photosynthetic pigments are chlorophyll *a* and *b*; xanthophylls; lutein and prasinoxantin; and carotenoids α , β , and γ , which can be synthesized and accumulated outside of the chloroplast under conditions of nitrogen limitation or other cellular stress (Wiltshire et al. 2000; Work et al. 2012).

Microalgae are recognized by their photosynthetic efficiency, high growth rates and proportionally high level of lipids. The commercial exploitation of these organisms began in the 1960s in Japan, when strains of Chlorella were used to produce high concentrations of polysaccharides and value-added fatty acids. In the last 30 years, industries in Japan, the United States, Mexico, Italy, Israel, France, Canada, Australia and India have enhanced techniques, such as combustion, gasification, pyrolysis, fermentation and oil extraction, from microalgae biomass. The use of pigments in aquaculture, animal feed and supplements for human consumption are widely reported. Recently, the bioenergy industry has experienced an expectation by the consolidation of the use of microalgae as a viable biomass source for methane, biodiesel and biohydrogen production. The commercial production of microalgae for these uses shows the potential of microalgae use as a feedstock for high value-added products. Indeed, for biofuel production, microalgae can be cultivated in places unsuitable for food cultivation, eliminating wasted space by making use of non-arable, nutrient-poor land that will not support conventional agriculture(Fon Sing et al. 2013; Ben-Amotz et al. 1989; Benemann, 2000; Raposo et al. 2013).

3.1.3 Cultivation

Microalgae are usually cultivated at a large scale using two types of systems: open systems (open ponds) and closed systems (photobioreactors). Open ponds are generally shallow and constructed of concrete, fiberglass or polycarbonate; the cultures are maintained in constant circulation with natural lighting and temperature. These systems are suitable for crops that tolerate extreme conditions, such as high pH (Spirulina) and high salt concentrations (Dunaliella), or those with fast growth, for example, Chlorella, Chlamydomonas, Scenedesmus and Ankistrodesmus (Richmond, 1988; Ben-Amotz, 1995). Under optimal conditions, biomass production rates are estimated to be 50 g m⁻² day⁻¹ and lipid production to be 12 L m⁻² a⁻¹ (Sheehan et al. 1998). Until recently, only production in open ponds was considered due to the high cost of the most advanced bioreactors. However, open ponds are more susceptible to contamination by indigenous species that have low lipid productivity, predators, extreme temperatures and low light-utilization efficiency. In this sense, it is common to use the combination of open ponds and closed bioreactors, i.e., a closed-tank bioreactor that grows algae inside a contained environment in which ideal growing conditions can be artificially maintained to ensure the growth of only the desired strains of microalgae (Koller et al. 2012).

Photobioreactors could minimize contamination by other microorganisms and have the potential for higher lipid productivity scales, compensating, in theory, for the high associated cost. The most-used materials are plastic, glass and polycarbonate. A vertical photobioreactor such as a thin-plate photobioreactor is cited in the literature for the high yields reported, 24 g m⁻² day⁻¹ and lipid production of 23 Lm⁻² a⁻¹ (Ho et al. 2012). These systems reduce the light path by increasing the light availability for each cell. They also have advantages in continuous operation mode and the control of culture

conditions. Therefore, the amount of nutrients, temperature, light and pH can be adjusted to obtain higher biomass production in a shorter time. Even though closed bioreactors solve some of the problems of open ponds, they come with their own set of challenges, such as higher costs due to more specialized equipment and more intensive energy needs (Jian-Ming et al. 2010; Liu et al. 2011; Rodolfi et al. 2009).

3.1.4 Light, CO₂ and nutrients

Light provides energy to transfer electrons from water to NADP+, forming NADPH (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate) and generating ATP (adenosine tri-phosphate). The light saturation point of microalgae is approximately 600 foot-candles. Once the light energy is received by the microalgae, only a fraction of it is assimilated in the form of biomass. It is assumed that no efficiency can exceed 32% of the photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) available. However, even though light is the primary substrate for the photosynthetic energy conversion, the excess of light can reduce growth by photoinhibition or promote cell death by damaging the polypeptides in the PSII reaction center. The light regime and photoperiod are also critical components in determining the biomass production of culture. Optimal light/dark regimes have been found to vary from 12:12 to 16:8 hours for most cultures (Parmar et al. 2011; Wahidin et al. 2013).

 CO_2 is the one of the most important nutrients for microalgal growth, and high concentrations of CO_2 are responsible for lipid synthesis during microalgal growth. The availability and mechanisms of the CO_2 concentration are closely linked to the photosynthetic efficiency, nutrient acquisition, assimilation, cell growth and lipid production. CO_2 concentrations up to 5% promote an increase in cell growth, but further investigations are still required to determine the influence of higher CO_2 concentrations on the physiology of microalgae, with special attention to growth, biomass and lipid production (Giordano et al. 2005; Gardner et al. 2011; Huang et al. 2010).

The nutrient availability affects the chemical composition and growth rate of the algae. The nutritional process of microalgae is based on the uptake of dissolved nutrients, mainly in their inorganic form. Thus, some elements are required in low concentrations (on the order of nanograms or micrograms per liter), such as silica, iron, manganese, molybdenum, copper, cobalt, zinc, boron and vanadium. These micronutrients are incorporated into essential organic molecules that participate in the primary reactions for these organisms. Other elements are required in higher concentrations, on the order of milligrams per liter, such as carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, phosphorus, potassium, sulfur and sodium. These macronutrients form structural components of biomolecules and membranes, participate in energy processes, and regulate metabolic activities, and their absence or insufficiency can affect vital functions of these microorganisms. The most important nutrients are phosphorus and nitrogen, which are only directly available for the growth of microalgae in their dissolved form (Fogg & Thake, 1987; Dowhan, 1997; Andersen, 2005; C. S. Reynolds 2006).

Phosphorus comprises the molecules involved in vital processes such as nucleic acids and adenosine triphosphate (ATP), enzymatic phosphorylation, dephosphorylation modulations and composition of the phospholipids. The relatively small amount of bioavailable phosphorus makes it a limiting element of aquatic primary productivity. Although microalgae are capable of absorbing phosphate from different sources, orthophosphate is preferred. The phosphorous absorption is stimulated in the presence of light and the maximum absorption rate varies depending on the intracellular and extracellular concentrations of this element. In phosphorus deficiency conditions, microalgae can achieve higher absorption rate than cells in phosphate-saturating conditions, absorbing 8-16 times more than the minimum cell share of phosphate and converting the internal stock in the form of polyphosphate bodies. This mechanism sustains 3-4 generations of growth in phosphate-depleted conditions. However, the relationship between the reduction in phosphorus present in the medium and the increase in lipid synthesis is not clear, but it is physiologically interesting when considering that these organisms have compartments capable of storing phosphorous in the form of polyphosphate bodies (Harold, 1963; Hutchinson, 1973; Yao et al. 2011).

Nitrogen is another important nutrient for cell growth. The inorganic nitrogen source available for absorption is ammonium ions (NH_4^+) , nitrite (NO_2^-) and nitrate (NO_3^-) . Nitrate is the most used form in culture medium because when using ammonia the pH could drop significantly during cell growth due to the release of H⁺ ions. A nitrogen limitation promotes a decrease in the content of the thylakoid membrane, the activation of acyl hydrolase, and the stimulation of phospholipid hydrolysis. On the other hand, limiting the concentrations of nitrogen promotes the activation of diacylglycerol acyltransferase, which converts acyl-CoA to triglyceride in microalgae. This indicates that the utilization of intracellular stores of nitrogen-rich compounds provides energy and carbon for the biosynthesis of triacylglycerols (Piorreck & Pohl, 1984; Msanne et al. 2012).

Several factors can stress microalgae. For biotechnological purposes, the limitation of nutrients is the most studied stress condition because it leads to the accumulation of high value compounds. When light sources and CO2 are available and the photosynthetic mechanism is active, there is a decrease in cell division, photosynthetic rates, protein synthesis and the deviation of the photosynthetic energy waived for cell division for the accumulation of carbohydrates and lipid synthesis (Courchesne et al. 2009; Pancha et al. 2014).

3.1.5 Lipids from microalgae

Different types of microalgae have different lipid yields, i.e., lipid productivity largely depends on the microalgae species (Nascimento et al. 2013). Using carbon, photosynthetically fixed microalgae synthesize fatty acids from sources of inorganic carbon and also directly from organic carbon sources such as glucose and acetate. The lipids are compounds of glycerol, sugar or base esterified with 12-22 carbon chains, saturated or unsaturated, primarily classified into polar lipids and neutral lipids. Polar lipids include phospholipids, galactolipids, sphingolipids, steroids and prostaglandins. The neutral lipids are divided into monoacylglycerol, diacylglycerol and triacylglycerol, along with the number of esterifications present in fatty acid chain. Fatty acids comprise the largest fraction of lipids, between 25-60% of the total lipids. Among the neutral lipids, triacylglycerols are targeted for biodiesel production (Derner et al. 2006).

As observed for most photosynthetic organisms, the biosynthesis of fatty acids from microalgae is divided into three main stages: (1) acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl CoA) synthesis in the cytosol; (2) saturated fatty acids synthesis with 16-18 carbons, desaturation and carbon chain elongation and (3) acyl glycerol (triglyceride) synthesis. Lipids are produced throughout the cell cycle, and initially the synthesis is directed to form structural lipids for primary metabolism and then to the triacylglycerol formation. Triacylglycerols are the main form of energy stored in microalgae, and the composition of this fatty acid class seems to be related to not only the genetics of species but also environmental conditions and cellular stress by which microalgae are submitted (Chiu et al. 2009b; Pereira et al. 2013).

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The concentration and composition of oils in microalgae can vary significantly at different stages of growth and among species. For example, in the early stages of growth, green algae produce relatively high concentrations of polar lipids and polyunsaturated. While in the stationary phase, green algae produce predominantly neutral lipids (Li et al. 2014; Sánchez-Saavedra & Voltolina 2006). The major profile of lipids and fatty acids methyl are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Composition of neutral and polar lipids of *Isochrysis galbana*, *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* and *Porphyridium cruentum* under continuous cultivation in tubular photobioreactor. Adapted from Cartens et al. 1996, Giménez et al. 1998 and Molina Grima et al. 2003.

	% of lipids					
Lipids	Isochrysis galbana	Phaeodactylum tricornutum	Porphyridium cruentum			
Neutral	26.5 (43.0)	23.2 (51.0)	39.5 (47.0)			
Polar	73.5 (57.0)	76.8 (49.0)	60.5 (53.0)			
Glycolipids	59.3 (37.0)	49.1(35.0)	45.0 (43.0)			
Phospholipids	14.2 (20.0)	27.7 (14.0)	15.5 (10.0)			

Table 5: Fatty acids methyl esters (FAMEs) of soybean (*Glycine max*), cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*) and microalgae. Adapted from Ma & Hanna 1999, Yoo et al. 2010 and La Russa et al. 2012.

Fatty agida	% of FAMEs						
Fatty actus	Soybean	Cotton	Microalgae ¹	Microalgae ²	Microalgae ³		
Palmitoleic (C16:1)	-	-	4	1,7	3.4		
Palmitic (C16:0)	11.75	28.33	36.3	32.9	2.1		
Linolenic (C18:3)	6.31	-	-	9.1	-		
Linoleic (C18:2n6)	55.53	57.51	31.1	17.7	47.8		
Oleic (C18:1n9)	23.26	13.27	25.9	18.3	24.8		
Estearic (C18:0)	3.15	0.89	2.7	5.09	1.3		

(1) Scenedesmus sp. (KCTC AG20831), (2) Chlamydomonas reinhardtii (CC3491) and

(3) Chlorella vulgaris.

Microalana	Lipid	Microalgaa	Lipid	
Microalgae	% biomass	Microargae	% biomass	
Ankistrodesmus sp	29 - 40	Nannochloris sp	30 - 50	
Amphidinium sp	8 - 10	Nannochloropsis sp	31 – 68	
Amphora sp	21	Nannochloropsis sp	44	
Botryococcus braunii	25 - 80	Nannochloropsis salina	22	
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii	21	Navicula jeffreyi	6	
Chlorella emersonii	28 - 32	Neochloris oleoabundans	35 - 54	
Chlorella protothecoides	57	<i>Nitzschia</i> sp	45 - 37	
Chlorella pyrenoidosa	46	Parietochloris incise	30	
Chlorella vulgaris	14 - 22	Pavlova pinguis	3 - 7	
Chlorella zofingiensis	51	Phaeodactylum sp	20 - 30	
Chlorococcum sp	7	Pleurochrysis carterae	30 - 50	
Crypthecodinium cohnii	20	Proteomonas sulcata	8	
Cyanobium sp	8	Prymnesium parvum	22 - 38	
Cylindrotheca sp	16 - 37	Rhodomonas salina	5	
Dunaliella primolecta	23	Scenedesmus dimorphus	16 - 40	
Dunaliella salina	6	Scenedesmus obliquus	12 - 14	
Dunaliella tertiolecta	35	Skeletonema sp	3	
Euglena gracilis	14 - 20	Schizochytrium sp	50 - 77	
Hormidium sp	38	Spirulina maxima	6 - 7	
Heterocapsa sp	6	Spirulina platensis	4 - 9	
Isochrysis sp	25 - 33	Thalassiosira sp	8	
Monoraphidium sp	20	Tetraselmis sp	12–14	
Monallanthus salina	> 20	Tetraselmis suecica	15 - 23	

Table 6: Lipid content of microalgae. Adapted from Becker, 1994; Chisti 2008a; Yoo et al. 2010; Miranda, 2011 and Pereira et al. 2012.

The fatty acid profile for green algae is quite similar to other terrestrial plants, such as soy and cotton, and is being considered as a potential alternative to biofuel industries (

Table 5). For over 50 years, studies of microalgae for biofuel production have been described in the literature (Uziel et al. 1975). However, the microalgae fermentation processes for the production of methanol and ethanol and oil production are relatively new approaches and the studies are limited to a few strains (Pulz et al. 2008; Mata et al. 2010; Ho et al. 2012). In terms of lipid production, microalgae are divided into two categories: those with high lipid content and low growth rate and those with high growth rate and low lipid content (Table 6). Species such as *Phaeodactylum tricornutum, Scenedesmus almeriensis, Chlorella vulgaris* and *Nannochloropsis oculata*, under specific conditions, showed yields of approximately 90% of recovered methyl esters(Musharraf et al. 2012; Rawat et al. 2013). However, in the Brazilian scope, the industrial potential of these organisms remains to be met, largely due to the incomplete knowledge surrounding the production of metabolites in strains isolated in Brazilian environments.

3.1.6 Conversion of fatty acids into biodiesel

Biodiesel is a mixture of methyl or ethyl esters of long chain produced from oils by esterification and transesterification of fatty acids. The esterification is the reaction of fatty acids with an alcohol, such as methanol or ethanol, to form methyl or ethyl esters and water. Generally, mineral acids such as sulfuric acid catalyze the esterification reaction. Both reactions are reversible, and the displacement of the balance to obtain the products may occur by removing one of the products, preferably water, or using an excess of a reagent such as alcohol. The reactions start with the conversion of triglycerides to diglycerides and then diglycerides to monoglycerides; finally, the monoglycerides are converted into alkyl monoesters and glycerol (Fukuda et al. 2001; Marchetti et al. 2007).

The physical and chemical characteristics of the oil are determined by the nature of the fatty acids. Each oil has specific characteristics with respect to the density, viscosity, oxidation stability, solidification point and acid index. Table 7 presents data

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relating the properties found in microalgae biodiesel and conventional diesel (Monyem & Van Gerpen, 2001; Boehman, 2005).

The alkaline transesterification is the route most used industrially in oil matrices for economic reasons. However, it is recognized that basic catalysis has operational problems when the vegetable oil has a high content of free fatty acids, which, during the reaction, produce emulsions that hinder the separation of the glycerine esters at the end of the reaction. Considering the high rate of free fatty acids in the oil from microalgae, the basic catalyst is not suitable for the process of transesterification (Fukuda et al. 2001; Khalil, 2006; Griffiths et al. 2010; Suarez et al. 2009). It showed that the use of acid catalysts to produce methyl esters from microalgae resulted in higher yields than when catalysts were in the presence of base (Nagle & Lemke, 1990).

Table 7: Comparison of properties between diesel with microalgae biodiesel and with the standard of the American Society for Testing and Materials (ATSM). Adapted from Miao & Wu 2006.

Properties	Biodiesel of Microalgae	Diesel	Standard ASTM
Density (Kg/l)	0.864	0.838	0.86-0.9
Viscosity (mm ² /s CST a 40 °C)	5.2	1.9-4.1	3.5-5.0
Flash point (°C)	115	75	Min 100
Freezing point (°C)	-12	-50-10	-
Pour Point (°C)	-11	-3.0 (Max6)	Summer Max.= 0; Winter < -15
Acid value (mg KOH, g ⁻¹)	0.374	Max 0.5	-
Calorific value (MJ/Kg)	41	40-45	-
Proportion of H/C	1.81	1.81	-

The direct acid-catalyzed transesterification has also proven to be a promising technology for the production of biodiesel from a feedstock that contains large amounts of free fatty acids, such as seed oil of *Jatropha curcas* (Shuit et al. 2010). Therefore, acid transesterification biomass may prove to be an important technology for the production of biodiesel, not only from microalgae oils. Recently, hydroesterification has been viewed as an alternative to microalgae biodiesel production due to its promising results to obtain fatty acids with above 80% recovery from the hydrolysis of wet biomass (Almarales et al. 2012; Reyes et al. 2012).

3.1.7 Challenges, prospect and conclusion

One of the challenges for the commercialization of biodiesel from microalgae is the economic viability. Certain barriers still need to be overcome since the energy demanded for cultivation, harvesting, oil extraction and conversion could be higher than the energy produced. The demand for water, nutrients and carbon are also aspects that have been considered. From a technical point of view biodiesel production from microalgae is not yet feasible but with possibilities for improvements (Lardon et al. 2009; Carioca et al. 2009).

In the course of fatty acid production, there are other useable products such as proteins, carbohydrates, essential fatty acids and other nutrient contents. The encouragement of the total use of biomass improves the industrial value of microalgae biomass and becomes economically attractive microalgae biodiesel production (Lardon et al. 2009; Stuart et al. 2010). As part of the integrated biorefineries concept, it is recommended the efficient use of natural resources and recovery of materials, energy and nutrients contained in the by-products or generated from other processes. The utilization of domestic wastewater in microalgae ponds has demonstrated a possibility

for the integrated process to produce oil for biodiesel. These ponds can be used in secondary or tertiary treatment and are advantages in terms of cost, energy requirements and greenhouse gas mitigation (Sydney et al. 2011).

Some countries, such as China, Taiwan, Israel, India, Germany, Canada and the United States, have announced initiatives for the commercial production of microalgae for biodiesel production purposes. It is clear the advance of knowledge about this theme. However, it is also observed that this effort takes place in an isolated form, with few cross-actions and exchange of know-how (Franco et al. 2013). The Brazilian market is faced with the prospect of a significant increase in biodiesel demand by the evolution of biodiesel addition to the diesel blend. A lot of work is still needed before the potential offered by microalgae as source of biodiesel is fully exploited.

The literature cited throughout this review shows that most of these studies were performed with strains isolated from temperate regions and therefore environmental conditions different than those observed in Brazil. Another point is that these studies are not effective in elucidating what would be the best growing conditions in both laboratory and scale production, which enables the use of microalgae as the raw material for the production of biodiesel. It reiterates the need to obtain Brazilian strains that can withstand the climatic conditions to which they will be exposed to in our country, as well as to enhance the design and development of technologies that can reduce costs while increasing yields.

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3.2 Optimization of nitrogen, phosphorus and salt for lipid accumulation of microalgae: Towards the viability of microalgae biodiesel

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Abstract

In recent years, microalgae biodiesel have attracted expressive attention and investment, once they were considered a potential resource for energy. Although, the wide use of microalgae biodiesel is restricted by its high production cost. For costefficient and sustainable production of biodiesel from microalgae, a proper understand of the variables and their impacts on physiology of the strains is required. In this study a simple factorial design 2^3 was used to find optimal conditions for the cultivation of Ankistrodesmus sp. and Chlamydomonas sp. in batch culture. The three components considered were nitrate, phosphate and sodium chloride, used to assess the metabolic versatility of the strains in brackish conditions. The results showed that culture medium with 0.04 g.L⁻¹ nitrate, 0.01 g.L⁻¹ phosphate and 5.0 g.L⁻¹ sodium chloride resulted to be the most effective condition to growth and fatty acids accumulation. Using this optimal condition, Ankistrodesmus sp. and Chlamydomonas sp. increased in 2.1 and 2.4 folds their fatty acids yield, respectively. Importantly, this protocol reduced 75% of the nitrate and phosphate concentrations of the original medium (ASM-1). Additionally, fatty acids analysis found that these strains were mainly constituted of C16-C18, in accordance with the requirements for biodiesel production. The simple factorial design applied here proved to be an important tool towards a better understanding of synergistic effects of

tested factors on microalgae metabolism, and the resulting information could be used effectively to improve microalgae cultivation.

Keywords: Optimization, Microalgae, Lipids, *Ankistrodesmus*, *Chlamydomonas*, Experimental Design

3.2.1 Introduction

Optimization of microalgae growth in cultures has been a challenge ever since culturing conditions were established by pioneering studies more than a century ago [1,2]. Interest in this issue increased when microalgae became an alternative choice for the exploitation of several high value products including lipids, pigments, bioactive compounds and chemicals for industrial applications. According to current knowledge, microalgae biodiesel is at the forefront of the next generation of biofuel systems (Ma & Hanna 1999; Huang et al. 2010; Brennan & Owende 2010). The numerous attributes of microalgae include: (i) high phototrophic productivity and thus the ability of large scale microalgae to use natural light (Koller et al. 2012; Sforza et al. 2012); (ii) fast growth rates (Venkata Mohan & Devi 2014; Passarge et al. 2006); (iii) the potential for noncropland cultivation (Wijffels et al. 2013; Smith et al. 2010); (iv) the potential to trap greenhouse gases (CO₂) and recycle waste water and nutrients (Chen et al. 2015; Larsdotter 2006; Quiroz Arita et al. 2015); and (v) huge potential to convert sunlight into reduced carbon molecules, such as carbohydrates and lipids (Thompson 1996). So far the production of biodiesel from microalgae has obtained significant advances in laboratory scale. However, the costs of microalgae production, low lipid yield and water demand still restrict their large scale exploitation. In this sense, the optimization of culture conditions figure as a key step to minimizing costs and to achieving desirable conditions to exploit the production of microalgae as a biodiesel feedstock (Li et al. 2011; Work et al. 2012; Picardo et al. 2013).

Microalgae growth is controlled by light, nutrients, temperature, salinity and pH. To adapt their metabolism to different environments, changes in shape, size, mobility and chlorophyll content occur to ensure the acquisition of light and nutrients (C. S. Reynolds 2006; Sommer 1999). Lipids are fundamental components in virtually every aspect of microalgae life. Processes such as energy transfer, signal transduction, biosynthesis of macromolecules and photosynthesis are membrane bound, and highly dependent on lipid composition. Thus, lipids that maintain the physiological functions of membranes allow microalgae to re-adjust to environmental change and to tolerate severe stress. Microalgae species can accumulate lipids in the form of triacylglycerol (TAG) up to 20 - 30% of their dry cell weight, and some few species even up to 50% (Miranda et al. 2015). TAGs are constituted of three fatty acids esterified to a glycerol backbone and are one of the most concentrated forms of energy available in eukaryotic cells (Gurr et al. 2002). There is a vast range of commercial applications for these lipids, which includes biodiesel production, leading to an increased interest to improve microalgae culture techniques that ensure high levels of productivity (Mata et al. 2010; Spolaore et al. 2006; Meng et al. 2009). Until now, the most commonly applied stress to improve TAG accumulation in microalgae has been the removal of nitrogen from culture medium (Rezanka et al. 2011; Gao et al. 2013). However, the deficiencies have been also observed to limit the growth of microalgae bring an unsatisfactory result. Other stress conditions such as phosphorus depletion, and high pH, salinity, light or temperature have been described, but quantitative data is still lacking. High concentrations of sodium chloride (up to 1.0 M) have been reported to increase intracellular accumulation of fatty acids in microalgae (Siaut et al. 2011; Takagi et al.

2006). In addition, the inhibitory effect of sodium chloride in cultures of microalgae has been exploited for contamination control that could lead to biomass losses in open ponds systems, however advances in these area are still in progress (Ho, Ye, et al. 2014),(Rawat et al. 2013). Nevertheless, since culturing success generally depends on the environmental conditions of the proposed cultivation area, as well as the available infrastructure, it can be difficult to compare data reported by different authors.

Our study aimed to establish the nitrate, phosphate and sodium chloride concentrations to improve the fatty acids accumulation of two indigenous strains of microalgae, as well as to provide an effective way of saving resources without thereby compromising the performance of cultures. Additionally, microalgae biomass obtained at optimized condition were subjected to further fatty acids analysis. The option of using brackish water instead of fresh-water for algae culturing, especially in Brazilian arid and semi-arid regions, can enhance the economic potential and environmental sustainability of microalgae biofuel systems. We chose a simple factorial design combined with response surface methodology (RSM) to assess a large range of experimental concentrations in order to optimize culture conditions and avoid the defects brought by single-factor optimization. These methods have been successfully utilized in others fields such as the chemical industry and engineering, but to our knowledge has been scarcely reported to optimization of microalgae cultures (Nicolaisen et al. 2014; Chen et al. 2014).

3.2.2 Material and Methods

3.2.2.1 Strains and cultivation

Ankistrodesmus sp. (ANRF-1) and Chlamydomonas sp. (CHLRN-1) isolated from Brazilian ponds were obtained from the Laboratory of Cianobacterial Ecophysiology and Toxicology culture collection in the Biophysics Institute Carlos Chagas Filho - Federal University of Rio de Janeiro. Strains were chosen with respect to their ability to grow under high light intensities and their potential to produce lipids with biotechnological relevance. Batch cultures were growth in ASM-1 medium, containing 0.17 g NaNO₃, 0.05 g MgSO₄ 7 H₂O, 0.04 g MgCl₂ 6 H₂O, 0.03 g CaCl₂ 2H₂O, 0.02 g KH₂PO₄, 0.03 g Na₂HPO₄ 12 H₂O, 0.003 g H₃BO₃, 0.001 g MnCl₂ 4H₂O, 0.001 g FeCl₂ 6H₂O, 0.0002 g ZnCl, 0.00002 g CoCl₂ 6H₂O, 0.000001 g CuCl, 0.008 g Na₂ EDTA and salinity 0.5 ppt per liter of ultrapure water. Cultures were sparged with constant air bubbling (0.5 L min⁻¹) and incubated at 22 \pm 2°C with a light intensity of 1.400 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ provided by cool white fluorescent light and a photoperiod of 12 hours. The initial concentration of both strains was 5x10⁻⁵ cells mL⁻¹, corresponding to 43.3 mg biomass for *Ankistrodesmus* sp. and 19.0 mg for *Chlamydomonas* sp.

3.2.2.2 Determination of growth, biomass production and lipid extraction

The microalgae growth was measured using a Casy Counter equipment standard for dye-free determination of cell viability by Electrical Current Exclusion (ECE). 100.0 μ L of lugol-fixed samples diluted in 5.0 mL Casy Ton were gently stirred to determine cell concentrations by measuring capillary 60 μ m. For biomass analysis samples of each culture was harvested on the tenth day of cultivation (at the stationary stage of cells) and then concentrated by centrifugation at 2,800 x g for 15 min at 4 °C. Pellets were washed with ultrapure water and dried in a freeze dryer and stored at -20°C until analysis. The dry weight was determined gravimetrically. For lipid extraction, biomass was pretreated using methanol and then kept for 10 min in a sonifier cell disruptor on ice. Lipid extraction was performed using the Bligh & Dyer method (Bligh & Dyer 1959) adapted

for microalgae cells. A solution of chloroform, methanol and water (1:2:0.5 v/v) was added to the mixture and shaken for 3 hours at 160 rpm to extract the lipids. The solution was centrifuged to separate biomass of the organic phase and evaporated under flowing nitrogen gas to determine the yield of lipid extract by gravimetry.

3.2.2.3 Experimental design

A simple 2^3 factorial design was used in order to optimize nitrate, phosphate and salt concentrations to improve the lipid yield of *Ankistrodesmus* sp. and *Chlamydomonas* sp. (Table 8). In addition, three experiments were performed at intermediate concentrations (level 0) for an estimate of the experimental error. The compounds were tested at three different concentrations: absence (-1), intermediate (0) and elevated (+1). These were as follows: for NaNO₃ (X1) 0.00 g L⁻¹ (-1), 0.04 g L⁻¹ (0) and 0.08 g L⁻¹ (+1), for KH₂PO₄/Na₂HPO₄7H₂O (X2) 0.00 g L⁻¹ (-1), 0.01 g L⁻¹ (0) and 0.02 g L⁻¹ (+1), and for NaCl (X3) 0.00 g L⁻¹ (-1), 5.0 g L⁻¹ (0) and 10.0 g L⁻¹(+1). Except for NaCl, the levels (0) and (+) correspond to 25 and 50% of their concentrations in ASM-1 medium. Limits chosen for each variable were based on previous experiments and literature review, taking into account the operating viability. As controls, we included three replicates of the intermediate concentrations of level (0) for each compound tested. Experiments were analyzed using a mathematical model as follows:

y=b0+(b1x1)+(b2x2)+(b3x3)+(b12x1x2)+(b13x1x3)+(b23x2x3)+(b123x1x2x3)+(b11x1x1)+(b22x2x2)+(b33x3x3)

Where y is the predictive response (biomass production and lipid yield); b_0 is the model intercept and b_1 , b_2 , b_3 , b_{12} , b_{13} , b_{23} , b_{123} and b_{11} , b_{22} , b_{33} are the regression coefficients obtained by linear regression (Montgomery 2009). Were evaluated the responses of biomass productivity (mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹); lipid productivity (mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹) and lipid yield (percentage of biomass).

Variables	Symbols	Levels of the factors				
variables	Symbols	(-)	(0)	(+)	Control	
NaNO ₃	X1	0	0.04 g L ⁻¹	0.08 g L ⁻¹	0.17 g L ⁻¹	
KH ₂ PO ₄ and Na ₂ HPO ₄	X2	0	0.01 g L ⁻¹	0.02 g L ⁻¹	0.05 g L ⁻¹	
NaCl	X3	0	5.0 g L^{-1}	10.0 g L ⁻¹	0	

Table 8: Variables and factor levels of the simple factorial design.

3.2.2.4 Surface response

The optimum response range was determined by Surface Response Methodology (RSM) (Rambali et al. 2001). Using all three variables, this methodology was applied by fixing one of the variables (sodium chloride) at different levels (concentrations), and preparing the surface with the two remaining variables assigning increments of 0.2 in the range of the nitrate and KH₂PO₄/Na₂HPO₄7H₂O concentrations between -1 and +1 levels. The response surfaces were represented by a three-dimensional graph and significance analysis of these variables was evaluated trough Derringer Function, a multi criteria decision methodology. Data analysis was performed with Sigma Plot® version12.5.

3.2.2.5 Fatty acid methyl ester analysis (FAMEs)

Lipid samples extracted from *Ankistrodesmus* sp. and *Chlamydomonas* sp. were esterified according to Christie (1989). Samples up to 50.0 mg were dissolved in 1.0 mL of toluene to which 2.0 mL sulfuric acid 1% (in methanol) was added. The solution was kept overnight at 50°C, after which 1.0 mL of sodium chloride 5% was added. The fatty acids were extracted twice with 2.0 mL of hexane and dried under flowing nitrogen gas. All samples were analyzed by gas chromatography using a Shimadzu (GP2010 Plus),

equipped with an electron ionization detector (EI-70 eV), a quadrupole mass analyzer and an Agilent HP Ultra 2 (5%- phenyl)-methylpolysiloxane column. Helium was used as carrier gas with a flow rate of 32.9 cm s⁻¹. The injector was set at 250 °C and temperature programming was performed as follows: the column temperature was elevated to 40-160 °C at a heating rate of 30 °C min⁻¹, 160-233 °C at a heating rate of 1°C min⁻¹ and from 233 °C until 300 °C at a heating rate of 30 °C min⁻¹ for 10 min. The interface and the ion source were kept at 240 °. The components were identified by comparing their retention times and fragmentation patterns with standard Supelco 37 Component FAME Mix-Sigma. Nonadecanoic acid (C19:0) was used as an internal standard.

3.2.3 Results and discussion

3.2.3.1 Optimization of nitrate, phosphate and sodium chloride concentrations

So far various studies have been carried out to demonstrate that the nitrogen and phosphorous concentration affect the growth and lipid accumulation contrary. To maximize cell growth, sufficient concentrations of these nutrients would be required while their starvation can increase lipid accumulation for several microalgae species (Xiong et al. 2008; Su et al. 2011). It is imperative that an ideal condition for microalgae culturing should favor these two aspects.

In this study, a majority of the cells inoculated was viable and in a condition to divide immediately after inoculation of twelve experiments. The exponential growth was observed to begin after first day of inoculation being zero the length of lag phase. However, nitrogen and phosphorous absence limited the exponential growth of the cultures, as showed in design points 1 and 3, respectively reflecting in a shorter duration of exponential growth phase (data not shown). The results indicate that modifications of nitrate, phosphate and sodium chloride concentrations strongly affected the biomass productivity of Ankistrodesmus sp. and Chlamydomonas sp., between $14.0 - 30.4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ 1 d⁻¹ and 21.6 – 85.0 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively (Table 9). These results are in consonance with the general findings of other authors (Widiaja et al. 2009; Lv et al. 2010). The results also showed that reduced nitrate and phosphate concentrations improved lipid accumulation in the tested strains. Lipid productivity of Ankistrodesmus sp. and Chlamydomonas sp. varied between the twelve experimental conditions, ranging from 3.0 to 7.8 mg L^{-1} d⁻¹ and from 10.3 to 16.5 mg L^{-1} d⁻¹, respectively. Significant enhancements of lipid yield, up to 20% of biomass dry weight for both strains were obtained in most of the conditions tested except in experiments 2 and 4 for Ankistrodesmus sp. and 2, 4, 6, and 8 for Chlamydomonas sp., all of which had the highest nitrate concentrations. Reduced nitrate and phosphate concentrations when combined with added sodium chloride also affected positively the lipid accumulation of Chlamydomonas sp. (experiments 6 to 8 and level 0), even with a slight decrease of biomass productivity, in accordance with results reported by other researchers (Rawat et al. 2013; Sharma et al. 2012).

Design	Factors and levels			ANRF-1			CHLRN-1		
points	X1	X2	X3						
				Biomass	Lipid	%	Biomass	Lipid	%
1	(-)	(-)	(-)	18.2	5.0	27.6	45.3	16.5	36.5
2	(+)	(-)	(-)	25.6	4.9	18.5	73.6	13.3	18.8
3	(-)	(+)	(-)	21.4	6.0	28.3	45.0	13.2	29.4
4	(+)	(+)	(-)	30.4	5.0	16.2	85.0	15.1	17.7
5	(-)	(-)	(+)	15.5	4.0	26.2	21.6	11.0	49.8
6	(+)	(-)	(+)	18.5	6.0	31.6	70.0	11.5	16.4
7	(-)	(+)	(+)	14.0	3.0	21.2	42.3	11.6	27.4
8	(+)	(+)	(+)	18.2	6.0	33.3	80.6	12.0	14.8
9	(0)	(0)	(0)	24.1	7.8	32.6	56.0	14.4	25.8
10	(0)	(0)	(0)	21.0	6.4	30.9	60.3	10.0	16.6
11	(0)	(0)	(0)	24.0	7.3	30.8	65.0	16.3	25.2
Level 0	(9 to 1	1)							
Average				23.0	7.2	31.4	60.4	13.6	22.5
DP				1.8	0.7	1.0	4.5	3.2	5.15
Control									
ASM-1				36.8	6.4	18.0	88.0	9.6	10.9

Table 9: Matrix of the experimental design with experimental values for biomass productivity, lipid productivity and lipid yield (% of biomass dry weight) on the 10th day of cultivation, at stationary phase of growth.

The Derringer function (D) in Figure 6 illustrates the statistical analysis of the results. In this figure, the Y axis corresponds to the design points, the X axis corresponds to the desirability degree ranging from 0 (undesirable) to 1 (most desirable) and the bar length corresponds proportionally to the significance of each factor and its association at the levels tested (-1), (0) and (+1) on the variables biomass and lipid productivity, simultaneously. Values that exceed the vertical line are statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. The results indicated that the three factors as

their interactions were significant for both biomass and lipid productivity of *Ankistrodesmus* sp. and *Chlamydomonas* sp., at the 95% confidence level. According to this statistical analysis, cell productivity and lipid yield are attained by concentrations of 0.08 g L⁻¹NaNO₃, 0.02 g L⁻¹ KH₂PO₄/Na₂ HPO₄ (design point 4) at the 95% confidence level. The interaction between NaCl with NaNO₃ and KH₂PO₄/Na₂HPO₄ is also significant (at the 95% confidence level) when all factors were at mid-level (design point 0).



Figure 6: Derringer function of biomass and lipid productivity from *Ankistrodesmus* sp. (ANRF-1) and *Chlamydomonas* sp. (CHLRN-1) for each design point experimented.

3.2.3.2 Surface response analysis

The surface response analysis (Figure 7 A) showed that maximal biomass productivity for *Ankistrodesmus* sp. was achieved with concentrations of nitrate at midlevel (0.04 g L⁻¹), phosphate at the +1 level (0.02 g L⁻¹) and sodium chloride at the -1 level (0.00 g L⁻¹). For *Chlamydomonas* sp., maximum productivity (90.0 mg L⁻¹ d⁻¹)

was produced when nitrate and phosphate were set at the +1 level (0.08 and 0.02 g L^{-1} , respectively), independent of the sodium chloride concentration (Figure 8 A, C and E). In addition, was verified that changes in the order of 0.5 of the phosphate concentration decreasing from the +1 level (0.02 g L^{-1}) to the -1 level (0.00 g L^{-1}) had an important impact on biomass productivity of both strains, leading to a significant reduction on biomass production. The highest lipid productivity for Ankistrodesmus sp. $(9.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1} \text{ d$ ¹) was achieved with concentrations of nitrate at mid-level (0.04 g L^{-1}), phosphate at the +1 level (0.02 g L^{-1}), sodium chloride at mid-level (5.0 g L^{-1}) and at the +1 level (10.0 g L⁻¹), as shown in Figure 7 (D and F). Lipid yield in *Chlamydomonas* sp. (Figure 8 B) was higher when nitrate, phosphate and sodium chloride concentrations were kept at the -1 level. A combination of nitrate at the -1 level, phosphate at the +1 level and sodium chloride at the -1 level resulted in a highly satisfactory lipid yield. However, to achieve this outcome, the concentrations must be rigorously controlled since small deviations may result in a significant decrease of biomass and lipid production. The most robust surface with high yields of biomass and lipids was obtained at intermediate levels (0) for nitrate (0.04 g L^{-1}), phosphate (0.01 g L^{-1}) and sodium chloride (5.0 g L^{-1}) and can therefore be considered as better conditions for both strains.


Figure 7: 3D response surface and contour plots of nitrate, phosphate and sodium chloride concentrations levels on biomass production (A, C and E) and lipid yield (B, D and F) of *Ankistrodesmus* sp. when NaCl was fixed at level (-1), (0) and (+1), respectively.



Figure 8: 3D response surface and contour plots of nitrate, phosphate and sodium chloride concentrations levels on biomass production (A, C and E) and lipid yield (B, D and F) of *Chlamydomonas* sp. when NaCl was fixed at level (-1), (0) and (+1), respectively.

The accuracy of these protocol was verified through experiments repetition using the optimized conditions described above (level 0), as well as ASM-1 medium (control) in triplicate. The results of both treatments (optimized condition and control) were very similar, confirming the validity of the model and protocol used in this study. After a 10 day growth period in optimized medium, we observed a strong increase of lipid content (126%) in Chlamydomonas sp. compared with lipid production in ASM-1 medium (Figure 9 B). Chlamydomonas was not considered an oleaginous alga until recent studies indicated that they can accumulate considerable amounts of fatty acids under appropriate conditions (Morowvat et al. 2010; Merchant et al. 2012; Fan et al. 2011). In our study, Chlamydomonas sp. (CHLRN-1) achieved a lipid productivity of 15.0 mg $L^{-1} d^{-1}$ (24% of biomass) of which 68% were fatty acids, higher than reported in other relevant studies with indigenous strains of Chlamvdomonas (Ho Ye, et al. 2014; Talebi et al. 2013 and Díaz et al. 2014). The lipid content of Ankistrodesmus sp. (ANRF-1) increased by 36% in the optimized medium (Figure 9 A), with a lipid productivity of 8.4 mg $L^{-1} d^{-1}$ rich in fatty acids (13% of lipid extract) favorable for biodiesel production. Compared with Chlamydomonas sp., the Ankistrodesmus strain had a slower growth rate resulting in a biomass yield that could be considered a limiting factor for industrial purposes. However, in addition to the key importance of volumetric biomass and lipid yield, other factors such as ease of cultivation, harvesting, and prevailing environmental conditions also affect the final choice of microalgae strains as feedstock for biodiesel production (Talebi et al. 2013). While cell growth was reduced with the reduction of nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations, the successful increase of lipid accumulation under the same condition may counterbalance the losses in biomass productivity. It is relevant from a biotechnological point of view, which must also consider the economic cost of chemicals for industrial cultivation of microalgae.

3.2.3.3 Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs)

The degree of saturation/unsaturation of fatty acids determines the quality of biodiesel. Therefore, we examined the fatty acid profiles produced from cultures of *Ankistrodesmus* sp. and *Chlamydomonas* sp. under operating conditions determined in this study. Fatty acids were identified and quantified by GC/MS following extractive methylation to fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs). The total content of FAMEs for *Ankistrodesmus* sp. was 47.4 mg g⁻¹ of the produced biomass in the optimized medium, and did not differ significantly from that obtained in ASM-1 medium (19.9 mg g⁻¹, Figure 9A). For *Chlamydomonas* sp. the total content of FAMEs was significantly higher (at 99% of confidence level) in the optimized medium than in ASM-1 (162.7 mg g⁻¹ and 68.1 mg g⁻¹ of biomass produced, respectively, Figure 9 B).



Figure 9: Differences between optimized medium and ASM-1 in the lipid content and FAMEs of *Ankistrodesmus* sp. (A) and *Chlamydomonas* sp. (B). Data points are means of three independent experiments and error bars show SD.

The reduction of nutrients or the addition of sodium chloride did not trigger variations of FAME profiles in the two tested microalgae, with the exception of C18:5 in Chlamydomonas sp., which increased significantly in comparison to the control condition, explaining the distinct increase of FAMEs overall. *Ankistrodesmus* sp. showed high concentrations of unsaturated fatty acids with therapeutic properties

(Figure 10 A and B). The predominant fatty acids were: C18:3n3 (alpha-linolenic acid), C18:1n9c (oleic acid) and C18:2n6c (linoleic acid), representing omega 3, 6 and 9, respectively (Figure 10 C). In accordance to the literature (Piorreck & Pohl 1984; Converti et al. 2009), C16:0 (palmitic) was the most representative saturated fatty acid in both microalgal strains, and its concentration did not significantly change under the various concentrations of nutrients tested. This is not surprising since palmitic acid is a major component of most microalgal classes, while the profiles of unsaturated fatty acids differ among algal groups (Reuss & Poulsen 2002; Lang et al. 2011). *Chlamydomonas* sp. (Figure 11 A and B) produced large amounts of C18:1n9c and C18:3n3 when cultivated in optimized medium. We observed a larger variety of saturated fatty acids in this strain, including C15:0 (pentadecanoic acid), C17:0 (hepatdecanoic acid), C:20 (arachidic acid) and C:22 (behenic acid) (Figure 11 C). A similar variety is characteristic for tallow or palm oils, which are rich in saturated fatty acids and used to produce biodiesel in Brazil.



Figure 10: GC chromatogram of representative FAMEs from microalgae *Ankistrodesmus sp.* in optimized medium (A) and ASM-1 (B) after 10 days of cultivation. Numerals above peaks show the retention time of appropriate peak in minutes. (C) FAMEs content in lipid extract in optimized medium (black columns) and ASM-1 (gray columns) * The position of the double bond was not identified, ** correspond to 16:3n3 $^{\Delta4,7,10}$ and *** 16:3n3 $^{\Delta7,10,13}$. Data points are means of three independent experiments and error bars show SD.



Figure 11: GC chromatogram of representative FAMEs from microalgae *Chlamydomonas sp.* in optimized medium (A) and ASM-1 (B) after 10 days of cultivation. Numerals above peaks show the retention time of appropriate peak minutes. (C) FAMEs content in lipid extract in optimized medium (black columns) and ASM-1 (gray columns) * The position of the double bond was not identified, ** correspond to 16:3n3 $^{\Delta4,7,10}$ and *** 16:3n3 $^{\Delta7,10,13}$. Data points are means of three independent experiments and error bars show SD.

3.2.4 Conclusion

The simple factorial design associated with response surface methodology was found to be effective in optimizing the concentrations of nitrate and phosphate for an efficient use of chemicals in microalgae cultivation. In order to increase lipid production nitrate and phosphate concentrations of the ASM-1 medium can be reduced by 75%, reducing biomass losses and improving the control of operation conditions. Our results conclude that Ankistrodesmus sp. (ANRF-1) and Chlamydomonas sp. (CHLRN-1) could be suitable for biodiesel production due to a high proportion of C16-C18 fatty acids, attending the basic requirements for biodiesel production. In addition, the ability to grow in a medium with added sodium chloride also contributes to the significant potential of these strains for biodiesel production, demonstrating that fresh-water is not required for further scaling up to semi-pilot scale. This is particularly relevant in a global scenario where fresh water supplies must be protected to maintain environmental and public health.

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3.3 Impacts of nutrients and CO2 concentrations on growth and lipid production by microalgae

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Abstract

One of the greatest challenge to increase the production of biofuels by microalgae is to reduce the cost of the biomass production with a linked of mitigation for potential environment impacts generate from some industrial activities. CO₂ fixation by microalgae is a promising method for carbon capture and storage due to their capacity to assimilate CO₂. In this work two different genera of Chlorophyceae, Ankistrodesmus sp. and Chlamydomonas sp., were grown autotrophycally under aeration with compressed air and 5% CO_2 (v/v) in order to investigate the impacts on growth and fatty acids production in batch cultures. The cultures were tested in ASM-1 medium and N-P reduced to 25% of ASM-1 original concentrations. For Ankistrodesmus sp. the highest yield of biomass and lipids was 0.5 and 0.01 $g_{dw} L^{-1}$, respectively (in ASM-1, 5% CO₂) with increase of the total content of polyunsaturated fatty acids of 12,4%. The highest yield of biomass and lipids of Chlamydomonas sp. were 1.0 and 0.2 g_{dw} L⁻¹ (in N-P reduced and 5% CO₂) with no significative variation of polyunsaturated fatty acids content due to CO₂ increase. The results showed that the impacts of N, P and CO₂ concentrations on growth and fatty acid production was species specific with no general trend for the two strains. Nevertheless, changes in fatty acid composition in each strain were observed as a function of culture conditions. Fatty acids analysis found that these strains were mainly constituted of C16-C18. These fatty acids are suitable for transesterification and conversion into biodiesel.

Keywords: Microalgae; Fatty acids; CO₂; Nutrients; Biodiesel

3.3.1 Introduction

Microalgae as a eukaryotic group of photoautotrophic organisms that need three essential blocks of requirements to growth: light, a source of inorganic carbon and inorganic nutrients. Of course the tremendous variation on the amount and quality of these requirements by different microalgae species and even strains constitute an excellent source of metabolic biodiversity to be explored (Talebi et al. 2013; Sahu et al. 2013). One of biotechnology challenges in the last decades is the search for microalgae strains capable to present an adequate growth and biomass production for biofuel use. However for economic and social interest this condition should be associated with low cost of production and remediation of some anthropogenic impact.

Microalgae use CO₂ as a carbon source and absorption of CO₂ from microalgae in water is a key factor in cultivation due to low solubility of CO₂ in pure water, generally 1650ppt at 25°C. CO₂ in water will be present in four different forms: CO₂ at pH below 5, HCO₃⁻² at pH between 7 and 9, CO₃⁻² at pH 9 and H₂CO₃. At temperature above 25° the carbon acid content can be ignored due to its rapid deprotonation. In general, microalgae can assimilate CO₂ through three different pathways: (I) directly via plasmatic membrane, (II) through the use of bicarbonate by inducing the enzyme carbonic anhydrase in a mechanism that converts HCO₃⁻ to CO₂ and water or vice-versa, and (III) the direct transport of bicarbonate via plasmatic membrane (Raven et al. 2008; Klinthong et al. 2015). Inside the chloroplast, CO₂ is fixed by rubisco producing two molecules of 3-phosphoglycerate in which, through a series of reactions, these two 3-carbon organic acids are synthesized as substrates for starch and lipid (Roberts et al. 2007). The CO₂ capture capacity is between 22 and 52% with optimal CO₂

concentrations for most microalgae at 5% CO_2 conditions. Some species are able to tolerate concentration of 15%, and very few species can grow under extremely high CO_2 levels (up to 70%), however, with the carbon fixation and biomass production rates lower than under lower CO_2 concentration (Řezanka et al. 2011; Klok et al. 2013).

On the other hand, the increase of CO₂ emissions from different sources, including industrial exhaust gases and soluble carbonate salts, providing a promise alternative for the use of microalgae for CO₂ mitigation while producing several high-value products, such as lipids. Lipids are a group of molecules that comprise the building blocks of biological membranes acting as metabolic regulators and cellular signaling of living systems. Storage lipids in the form of triacylglycerol (TAG) are one of the most concentrated forms of energy available in eukaryotic cells (Gurr et al. 2002). These fatty acids vary in length of the carbon chain, number, orientation and position of the double bonds and represent a relatively inert class of compounds that is easy to isolate from biological material. For this reason they are considered chemotaxonomic markers to define groups in flowering plants, trees and algae (Lang et al. 2011). The analysis of fatty acids in microalgae is an emerging field which is expected to reveal the identification of novel fatty acids with new functional group as well as chemically similar to that produced by plants and founded in fossil fuel (Talebi et al. 2013; Sahu et al. 2013). Thus, microalgae offer a very promising source of raw material for biodiesel production due to relative high productivity and its potential to CO₂ mitigation (International Energy Agency 2012). However, to enable commercial applications of microalgae in industry, reliable forms to enhance the production at a reduced cost are needed. It is already demonstrated that CO₂ availability improves the lipid yield without restricting the growth of microalgae (Ho et al. 2012). The improvement of carbon supplying leads to an acceleration of microalgae metabolism rapidly increasing the

production of starch to the point where additional carbon is used directly for lipid production (Murray et al. 2012; Chiu et al. 2009b).

The impacts of light intensity (Jakob et al. 2007; Wahidin et al. 2013), temperature (Converti et al. 2009; Kurpan et al. 2015), salinity (Sonnekus 2010; Pancha et al. 2015), pH (Gardner et al. 2011; Posadas et al. 2015), nutrient content and supply and cultivation procedures (Roleda et al. 2013; Yeesang & Cheirsilp, 2011) on microalgae metabolism are being heavily investigated in the last years in order to identify promise lipid producers. The lipid content of microalgae is most commonly increased by limitation of some essential nutrients such as nitrogen. It is observed that acetyl-CoA carboxylase enzyme activity and transcripts is strongly induced during these conditions, leading to an enhancement of primary metabolites such as lipids (Harwood & Guschina 2009; Guschina & Harwood 2006b). Phosphorous is an essential element in the process of photosynthesis, and an important nutrient for algal growth. This element can affect lipid productivity under nitrogen deficiency. It is reported that in lower concentrations of phosphorous, microalgae use assimilate phosphorous to synthesizing compounds consisted of protein such as enzymes for the lipid synthesis, providing material and energy for lipid accumulation in algal cells (Chu et al. 2013; Bold 1942; Khozin-Goldberg & Cohen 2006).

Microalgae metabolism could be adapted to produce specific molecules with biotechnological relevance, providing a wide array of opportunities to develop products using innovative approaches of bio-refinery concept (Khan et al. 2009; Duong et al. 2012). However the economic feasibility of microalgae products is critically dependent of their yield and cost. Despite the increasing number of reports describing relevant technological solutions for microalgal-based production, they still need to be hardly revisited during the optimization of laboratorial and industrial phases. This study aimed to investigate the impact of nitrogen, phosphorous and carbon dioxide concentrations on growth and fatty acid production of two local strains of microalgae in order to verify the potential of these organisms for industrial application. N and P starvation and CO_2 addition have been successfully utilized to induce lipid accumulation in microalgae towards the biodiesel production (Chiu et al. 2009a; Ho, Nakanishi, et al. 2014).

3.3.2 Materials and Methods

3.3.2.1 Strains and culture conditions

Ankistrodesmus sp. (ANRF-1) and Chlamydomonas sp. (CHLRN-1) isolated from Brazilian ponds were obtained from the Laboratory of Cyanobacterial Ecophysiology and Toxicology culture collection at Biophysics Institute Carlos Chagas Filho - Federal University of Rio de Janeiro. Cultures were batch cultivated in ASM-1 medium 0.17 g NaNO₃, 0.05 g MgSO₄ 7 H₂O, 0.04 g MgCl₂ 6 H₂O, 0.03 g CaCl₂ 2H₂O, 0.02 g KH₂PO₄, 0.03 g Na₂HPO₄ 12 H₂O, 0.003 g H₃BO₃, 0.001 g MnCl₂ 4H₂O, 0.001 g FeCl₂ 6H₂O, 0.0002 g ZnCl, 0.00002 g CoCl₂ 6H₂O, 0.000001 g CuCl, 0.008 g Na₂ EDTA per liter of ultrapure water, and N-P reduced medium containing 25% of nitrate and phosphate concentrations of ASM-1 (0.04 g L^{-1} NaNO₃, 0.01g L^{-1} PO₄³⁻) and 5.0 g L^{-1} NaCl per liter of ultrapure water (Miranda et al. 2016). Experimental conditions were mixed with compressed air containing 5% CO₂ supplemented at 0.5 L min⁻¹ during 8 h/day (following the light cycle) and the control of each condition were mixed with compressed air containing approximately 0.04% CO₂ at 22 °C \pm 2 °C, 1400.0 µmol photons m² s⁻¹ and photoperiod of 12 hours. Initial pH was 7.0 once nitrogen and phosphorous uptake efficiencies in neutral/alkalic circumstances were proved to be larger than in acid circumstances (Zhang et al. 2014). Culture inoculum was consisted in a stock of cells incubated in ASM-1 medium at the same conditions of light and

temperature described above during six days at concentration of 1×10^{-6} cells mL⁻¹ (0.04 g_{dw} L⁻¹ for *Ankistrodesmus* sp. and 0.02 g_{dw} L⁻¹ for *Chlamydomonas* sp.). All conditions were tested in triplicate and during cultivation time pH, chlorophyll total content and photosynthetic activity were measured *in vivo* at 48-h intervals using a standard bench top pH meter and a Phyto-Pam Phytoplankton Analyzer, equipped with the Optical Unit ED101-US, respectively.

3.3.2.2 Growth and biomass dry weight

Samples lugol-fixed were collected at 48-h intervals to determine cell density (cell mL⁻¹) by capillary measurement in Casy Counter in duplicates. Biomass dry weight were determinate at each two days by filtering 10.0 mL of culture using glass fiber filters to collect the biomass. The biomass was washed with 10.0 mL of ultrapure water twice, to remove media salts and dried for 20-h at 60°C oven until the filter weight was constant. Dry weight was calculated by subtracting the dry weight of the clean filter from the oven dried weight of the filter with biomass. Average biomass production was calculated from the difference in biomass dry weight within the cultivation time, as show in Eq. (1):

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{f}} \cdot \mathbf{X}_{\mathbf{i}} \tag{Eq. 1}$$

Where X_f correspond to biomass concentration in $g_{dw} L^{-1}$ at sampling interval (days 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10) and X_i correspond to biomass concentration at beginning of cultivation time (day 0).

Biomass concentration values were used to determine specific growth rates (μ d⁻¹) as indicate below:

$$\mu = \ln X_2 - \ln X_1 / T_2 - T_1$$
 (Eq. 2)

Where X_2 and X_1 correspond to biomass concentration in $g_{dw} L^{-1}$ at times T_2 and T_1 (in days), the end and the beginning of the exponential growth phase, respectively.

3.3.2.3 Lipid Analysis

Microalgae cells were pretreated by ultrasonication in water using a needle sonifier at ice bath to lipid extraction using a modified method of Bligh & Dyer [2]. Lipids were twice extracted with chloroform, methanol and water (1:2:0.5 v/v) for 3 hours under orbital shaking, separated into chloroform and aqueous methanol layers by centrifugation and dried in flowing nitrogen gas. Fatty acids were esterified according to Christie (1989), in which until fifty-miligram of crude lipid extract samples were solved with 1mL of toluene and then 2 mL sulfuric acid 1% (in methanol) was added. The solution was kept overnight at 50°C and after that 1mL of sodium chloride 5%. The fatty acids were extracted with 2 mL of hexane (2 times) and dried under flowing nitrogen gas. The crude lipid extract and the fatty acids total contents were measured gravimetrically (g L^{-1}) and used to determine the contribution in percentage terms on biomass dry weight.

Fatty acids profile was analyzed by gas chromatography using a Shimadzu (GP2010 Plus) equipped with a electron ionization detector (EI-70 eV) quadrupole mass analyzer and column Agilent HP Ultra 2 (5% - phenyl)-methylpolysiloxane. Helium was used as carrier gas with a flow rate 32.9 cm s⁻¹. Injector was set at 250 °C and temperature programming was performed. The column temperature was elevated to 40-160 °C with heating rate 30 °C min⁻¹, 160-233 °C with heating rate 1°C min⁻¹ and from 233 °C until 300 °C with heating rate 30 °C min⁻¹ for 10 min. The interface was kept at 240 ° C and the ion source at 240 ° C. The components were identified by comparing

their retention times and fragmentation patterns with standards Supelco 37 Component FAME Mix-Sigma. Nonadecanoic acid (C19:0) it was used as an internal standard.

3.3.2.4 Statistical analysis

All data are shown as the means and standard deviation $(\pm SD)$ of three independent biological replicates. The results were analyzed by analyses of variance (ANOVA). The significance of the differences was defined by comparison of the means by applying the Tukey's test. Both tests were performed using Sigma Plot \circledast software version 12.5.



Figure 12: Growth curves and biomass production of *Ankistrodesmus* sp. (A and B) and *Chlamydomonas* sp. (C and D). Data points are means of three independent experiments and error bars show SD.

Growth curves analysis of *Ankistrodesmus* sp. showed that the highest value of growth $(2.1 \times 10^7 \text{ cells mL}^{-1})$ and biomass dry weight (0.48 g L^{-1}) was verified in ASM-1 and 5% CO₂ cultures, values significant higher than those obtained in N-P reduced medium $(1.3 \times 10^7 \text{ cells mL}^{-1} \text{ and } 0.35 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, respectively) at 99% of confidence level. In ASM-1 and 5% CO₂ cultures the specific growth rate was 0.36 d⁻¹ with exponential growth of four days, starting at first day and entering in stationary growth phase at

fourth day cultivation (Figure 12 A and B). Cultures in ASM-1 without CO_2 supplementation follow the same growth interval than in ASM-1 5% CO_2 , however, with a slightly smaller specific growth rate (0.34 d⁻¹) and dry weight content (0.4 g L⁻¹), as shown in Table 10.

For N-P reduced cultures the specific growth of *Ankistrodesmus* sp.was 0.25 d⁻¹ with potential for exponential growth also of four days, starting at first day and beginning the stationary phase at fourth day cultivation. On this condition, the specific growth rate decreased significantly to 0.25 d⁻¹, in comparison to ASM-1 and 5% CO₂ at 99% of confidence level. Under nitrogen and phosphate limitation, cell division and biomass dry weight were severely retarded. However in this condition biomass dry weight increased 1.75 folds after ten days of cultivation, from 0.2 to 0.35 g_{dw} L⁻¹, indicating that nitrate and phosphate concentrations was sufficient for cell division. The chlorophyll content was drastically reduced from 5.8 (ASM-1) to 1.8 pg cell⁻¹ at tenth day cultivation, when the concentration of nitrate and phosphate was available at limited concentrations.

Chlamydomonas sp. showed higher values of growth and biomass dry weight $(3.1 \times 10^7 \text{ cells mL}^{-1} \text{ and } 1.0 \text{ g L}^{-1}$, respectively) in ASM-1 cultures, at 99% of confidence level (Figure 12 C and D). Growth curves analysis showed that in this condition the specific growth rate was 0.69 d⁻¹ with exponential growth of four days, starting at first day and entering in stationary growth phase at fourth day cultivation. N-P reduced cultures showing a limited condition for cell division of *Chlamydomonas* sp. and the values of specific growth rate and biomass dry weight (0.59 and 0.50 d⁻¹, 0.62 and 0.46 g_{dw} L⁻¹, respectively) tended to be lower even with the increase of 5% CO₂ concentrations, without changing the length of exponential growth phase at any concentration of

nutrients, multiplying rapidly and increased cell density exponentially with the time. It could be as result of the inoculums which were started from stocks of culture at exponential phase of growth. Similar findings were reported by Vasumathi et al. for *Scenedesmus* sp. (Vasumathi et al. 2012).

The chlorophyll content of *Chlamydomonas* sp. was also drastically reduced in N-P reduced condition, from 3.2 (ASM-1) to 1.3 pg cell⁻¹ in this condition. Indeed, in both strains it was observed that chlorophyll content decreased staring at second day, in response to light improvement by inoculums dilution, and keeps the drop during microalgae growth, seemingly, by nitrate exhaustion of medium. It was apparent that chlorophyll cell content was closely connect with the nutrients concentration in culture medium, thus, it seems reasonable hypothesize that under medium optimized conditions nitrogen was limiting at an initial nitrate concentrations, thus under those conditions microalgae may could be used part of its proteins from antenna complex as a source of nitrogen, to sustain the cellular growth and other cell metabolism functions.

Strains	Conditions	Number of cells	Growth rate	Dry weight	pH	Chlorophyll
		Cell mL ⁻¹	μ d ⁻¹	$g_{dw} L^{-1}$	At 10 th day	pg cell ⁻¹
ANRF-1	N-P reduced	$1.3x10^7 \pm 1.5x10^{6}^{(\rm cd)}$	$0.25 \pm 0.04^{\ (bc)}$	$0.35 \pm 0.007^{\;(\text{cc})}$	$9.9 \pm 0.34^{(bc)}$	1.8 ± 0.04 (cc)
	N-P reduced 5% CO ₂	$1.2x10^7 \pm 5.8x10^{5~(\text{cb})}$	$0.28\pm0.02^{\text{(ba)}}$	$0.30\pm0.002^{~\text{(cb)}}$	$10.3\pm0.05^{~(\text{bb})}$	$1.6\pm0.002~^{(\text{ca})}$
	ASM-1	$1.8 x 10^7 \pm 1.7 x 10^{6 \ (\text{bc})}$	$0.34 \pm 0.02^{(ab)}$	$0.39 \pm 0.002^{\ (\text{bc})}$	$10.1\pm0.02^{~(\text{ac})}$	$5.8\pm0.03^{~(\text{bb})}$
CHLRN-1	ASM-1 5% CO ₂	$2.1 x 10^7 \pm 1.5 x 10^{5 \ (\text{aa})}$	$0.36\pm0.04^{\text{(aa)}}$	$0.48 \pm 0.003^{\text{ (aa)}}$	$10.7\pm0.02~^{\text{(aa)}}$	$6.8\pm0.04^{\text{ (aa)}}$
	N-P reduced	$1.5 x 10^7 \pm 3.2 x 10^{5 \ (\text{bd})}$	$0.59\pm0.02~^{(\text{bd})}$	$0.62\pm0.004~^{(\text{cd})}$	$8.5\pm0.11^{(\text{bc})}$	$1.3\pm0.01^{(\text{dc})}$
	N-P reduced 5% CO ₂	$1.0x10^7 \pm 1.6x10^{6(\text{cb})}$	$0.50\pm0.04~^{(\text{bb})}$	$0.46\pm0.005^{\text{ (bb)}}$	$9.6\pm0.93^{\text{(ba)}}$	$2.0\pm0.04~^{(\text{ca})}$
	ASM-1	$3.1x10^7 \pm 5.4x10^{6(\text{ac})}$	$0.69\pm0.05~^{(ac)}$	$1.03 \pm 0.004^{\ (ac)}$	$10.5\pm0.7~^{(ab)}$	$3.2\pm0.04^{\text{ (bb)}}$
	ASM-1 5% CO ₂	$3.0x10^7 \pm 4.3x10^{6}{}^{(\text{aa})}$	$0.63\pm0.13^{\text{ (aa)}}$	$0.98\pm0.003^{\text{ (aa)}}$	$10.2\pm0.2^{\text{ (aa)}}$	$2.4\pm0.03^{\text{ (aa)}}$

Table 10: Effect of culture conditions on number of cells, specific growth rate, dry weight of biomass, pH and chlorophyll at 10^{th} day cultivation. The values are means of three independent experiments \pm SD.

Specific growth rate was obtained by linear regression from the logarithm of biomass dry weight (g L⁻¹) at the exponential growth phase.p-

Table 11 summarized the changes in lipid production during cultivation of *Ankistrodesmus* sp. and *Chlamydomonas* sp. For *Ankistrodesmus* sp. the highest lipid content of dry weight (25%) was observed in cultures N-P reduced and 5% CO₂. Although, under ASM-1 and 5% CO₂ (nutrient replete conditions), lipid content of *Ankistrodesmus sp.* biomass was improved in 24% from 0.07 to 0.11g L⁻¹, at 99% of confidence level. At this condition the lipid productivity was 57% higher than compared with N-P reduced and 5% CO₂ condition, showing an improvement of the lipid yield as function of biomass increase, in opposition to the knowledge that microalgae growth and increased oil yield are mutually exclusives.

Compared to cultures N-P reduced and 5% CO₂, at ASM-1 and 5% CO₂ *Ankistrodesmus* sp. showed a significant improvement of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) yield, from 39.3 to 50%. Similar proportions of saturated fatty acids (SFAs) on average 27,6% were verified among the conditions tested. Except from a few exceptions, CO₂ has been demonstrate to be favorable for high accumulation of polyunsaturated fatty acids (Zeng et al. 2011).

Chlamydomonas sp. showed that N-P reduced and 5% CO₂ was the most effective treatment to improve lipid productivity and FAMEs content (at 99% of confidence level) varying from 10.5% and 0.07 g L⁻¹ in ASM-1 to 35.3% and 0.10 g L⁻¹, respectively, of biomass dry weight (Table 11) In opposition, ASM-1 and 5% CO₂ cultures showed the lowest lipid productivity (7.34%) even though it has revealed the highest yield of FAMEs in lipid content, 95.7%.

Strains	Conditions	Lipid extract	Lipid/dry weight	FAMEs	FAMEs/Lipid	FAMEs/SFA	FAMEs/MUFA	FAMEs/PUFA
		g L ⁻¹	%	g L ⁻¹	%	%	%	%
ANRF-1	N-P reduced	$0.08\pm0.02^{(\text{cc})}$	$24.1 \pm 0.01^{(cc)}$	$0.05 \pm 0.001^{~(\text{cc})}$	$66.4\pm0.02^{\text{ (bd)}}$	$25.2\pm3.7^{\text{ (bb)}}$	$27.6\pm4.6^{(\textbf{cb})}$	$44.0\pm3.8^{(\text{cc})}$
	N-P reduced 5% CO ₂	$0.07 \pm 0.02^{(cb)}$	$25.0 \pm 0.03^{\text{(ca)}}$	$0.05 \pm 0.008^{\;(\text{ca})}$	$67.7 \pm 0.08^{\ (bb)}$	$28.5\pm3.9^{\text{(ba)}}$	$28.9\pm4.4^{\text{(ca)}}$	$39.3 \pm 2.9^{(cb)}$
	ASM-1	$0.07\pm0.01^{~(\text{bc})}$	$17.7 \pm 0.02^{(\text{bb})}$	$0.02\pm0.001^{\text{ (bb)}}$	$44.1 \pm 0.18^{(\text{ac})}$	$29.1\pm6.4^{(ab)}$	$31.4\pm5.4^{\text{(bb)}}$	$37.6\pm1.8^{~(\text{bc})}$
	ASM-1 5% CO ₂	$0.11 \pm 0.05^{\text{(aa)}}$	$23.4 \pm 0.01^{\text{(aa)}}$	$0.05 \pm 0.005 ^{\text{(aa)}}$	$47.7 \pm 0.04^{\text{(aa)}}$	$27.7\pm1.2^{(\text{aa})}$	$19.5\pm0.9^{\text{(aa)}}$	$50.0\pm1.4^{\text{(aa)}}$
CHLRN-1	N-P reduced	$0.15\pm0.01^{~(\text{cd})}$	$23.8\pm0.01^{\text{(dd)}}$	$0.10\pm0.001^{\text{ (bb)}}$	$68.4\pm0.01^{\text{(cc)}}$	$34.3\pm1.3^{(\text{bb})}$	$28.9\pm1.6^{(\text{bb})}$	$33.9\pm1.0^{\text{(bb)}}$
	N-P reduced 5% CO ₂	$0.16 \pm 0.02^{(\text{cb})}$	$35.3 \pm 0.01^{\text{(cb)}}$	$0.10 \pm 0.001^{\text{ (ba)}}$	$65.4 \pm 0.08^{\ (cb)}$	$34.8\pm2.4^{\text{ (ba)}}$	$33.1\pm4.3^{(\text{ba})}$	$29.2\pm4.5^{\text{(ba)}}$
	ASM-1	$0.11 \pm 0.01^{\ (\text{bc})}$	$10.5\pm0.01^{~(\text{bc})}$	$0.07 \pm 0.002^{(\text{ab})}$	$65.2\pm0.18^{(\text{bc})}$	$28.1\pm7.2^{(\text{ab})}$	$34.9\pm1.8^{(\text{ab})}$	$36.3\pm3.8^{\text{(ab)}}$
	ASM-1 5% CO ₂	$0.07\pm0.01^{\text{ (aa)}}$	$7.34 \pm 0.01^{\text{ (aa)}}$	$0.06 \pm 0.002^{\text{(aa)}}$	$95.7 \pm 0.22^{(\text{aa})}$	$33.7 \pm 4.8^{(aa)}$	$25.9\pm4.5^{(\text{aa})}$	$36.5 \pm 3.4^{(aa)}$

Table 11: Lipid crude extract, Lipid content (% of biomass dry weight), total FAMEs and percentage of saturated, monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids regarding to the FAMEs content at 10^{th} day cultivation. The values are means of three independent experiments \pm SD.

The similar relative proportions of SFAs, MUFAs and PUFAs of *Chlamydomonas* sp. among the conditions tested showing that the decrease and the increase of fatty acids unsaturation are not rationalized in terms of adaptation to growing conditions. It is hypothesized that the reduced concentration of nitrogen and phosphorous promoted a reorganization of lipid metabolism in detriment of other lipid compounds, since the relative proportion of fatty acids remained the same, without major changes among the conditions tested. This view was supported by indings observed by other studies as shown in Léveillé et al. (1997) and Harwood & Guschina (2009).

Fatty acids analysis was conducted in order to investigate the potential application of these organisms for biodiesel production and other relevant applications, considering the potential for application in an integrated biorefinery concept. It was observed a huge variety of fatty acids since from the most common components that naturally occurring as to the minors and more exclusively components found in oil from microalgae. Some of lipid compounds were not been identified with available standards. Important notice that lignoceric acid (C24:0) verified on ester profile of the two studied strains can be resulting of the disruption of cell wall indicating that the pretreatment used to breaking cell wall before lipid extraction procedure was efficient (Breuer et al. 2013).

In *Ankistrodesmus* sp. the predominant fatty acids obtained were C18:3n-3 (alpha-linolenic acid) and C18:1n-9c (oleic acid 6), omega-3 and 9, respectively. C16:0 (palmitc acid) and C18:2n-6c (linoleic acid), commonly found in microalgae, oil plants and animal tissues were also found in higher levels (Figura 13 A). Some esters were better induced by nutrient reduction, especially C18:1n-9t (elaidic acid) fairly widespread as minor component in microalgae oil. For this reason his commercial value

is quite elevate. Interestingly C20:0 (arachidic acid) and C22:0 (behenic acid) were exclusively verified in conditions of ASM-1 with CO_2 supplementation in opposition to Kilham et al (Kilham S S et al. 1997) whose do not verified modifications in lipid composition between phosphorus-limited, nitrogen-limited and non-limited cells.

For *Chlamydomonas* sp. the major fatty acids produced were found to be C18:3n-3 (alpha-linolenic acid), C18:1n-9c, C16:0, C18:0 (stearic acid), C16:3n-3 $\Delta^{7,10,13}$ (hexadecatrienoic acid – HTA) and C18:2n-6c (Figura 13 B). Under concentrations of nitrogen and phosphorous reduced fatty acids content differing significantly from those obtained with ASM-1 medium, achieving 22.8% of biomass produced. It was observed that CO₂ supplementation responses by the occurrence of C17:1 (*cis*-10-heptadecenoic acid) and C24:1 (nervonic acid), this second one an elongation product of oleic acid. The profile identified was consistent with those previously reported for *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* wild-types by James et al., Merchant et al. and Siaut et al (James et al. 2011; Merchant et al. 2012; Siaut et al. 2011).



Figura 13: Esters profile of most representative FAMEs produced by *Ankistrodesmus* sp (A) and *Chlamydomonas* sp (B) after 10 days of cultivation. * There was not identified the position of the double bond, ** correspond to 16:3n-3 $^{\Delta4,7,10}$ and *** 16:3n-3 $^{\Delta7,10}$,13. Data points are means of three independent experiments and error bars show SD.

Fatty acid profiles are an important consideration for biodiesel production once biodiesel properties and quality are inherent to the mixtures of fatty acids used (Hellier & Ladommatos 2015; Xiao et al. 2000). MUFAs, such as C18:1 provides a reasonable balance between cold flow, oxidative stability and combustion properties and are therefore preferable to SFAs or PUFAs (Knothe 2005; Knothe & Steidley 2005). Some proportion of PUFAs in a biodiesel feedstock can be beneficial to the flow properties under cold conditions but under higher levels can impact negatively its oxidative stability, leading to an increasing of production costs due to the need for anti-oxidant fuel additives (Olmstead et al. 2013). On the other hand, the presence of SFAs improves the combustion properties of the biodiesel but also give rise to cold flow problems that limit its geographical market or year-round suitability (Jeong et al. 2008). Is evident the difficulty in determine an ideal fatty acid profile for biodiesel production. However, discussion of lipid accumulation pathway and their attributes can inform critical decisions related to the selection of microalgae and culture processes for commercial production. Further analysis of biodiesel quality produced from these raw materials and their acceptance for industrial production becomes important.

3.3.4 Conclusion

Lipid productivity of *Chlamydomonas* sp. (CHLRN-1) and *Ankistrodesmus* sp (ANRF-1) was better improved by N-P reduced and 5% CO₂. In addition *Ankistrodesmus* sp. showed that 5% CO₂ supplementation is an efficient method for its fatty acid improvement, for this reason could be taken in order to obtain higher lipid productivity of this strain. The major fatty acids palmitc, oleic, linolenic and α linolênic fatty acids were the same in both strains, indeed these fatty acids are specific

biomarkers of Chlorophycea class. The relative high proportions of omega-3 fatty acids founded in lipid content of these two microalgae were quite relevant because could increase process flexibility in a commercial scale, through the combination of biodiesel and omega-3 production. We believe that our results will contribute to extending the general knowledge on microalgae culturing and on the applicability of these strains to produce lipids with biotechnological relevance.

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4 Discussão geral

No Brasil e no mundo, a busca por segurança energética tem feito com que centros de pesquisa empenhem-se na busca por fontes de energia alternativas ao petróleo, procurando mitigar problemas econômicos, sociais e ambientais com especial interesse no aproveitamento de microalgas devido a sua promissora capacidade de crescimento e síntese de ácidos graxos. A utilização do meio de cultivo apropriado é de grande importância para a viabilidade da produção de biodiesel por lipídeos oriundos do metabolismo de microalgas, especialmente a otimização do meio de cultura, considerando que além de conter os nutrientes necessários para a produção de biomassa o meio também fornece condições para o acúmulo desses lipídeos. Contudo, o crescimento celular e acúmulo de lipídeos seguem rotas metabólicas antagônicas e as condições que favorecem o crescimento celular limitam a síntese lipídica, que alcança seu potencial máximo em condições adversas ao crescimento de microalgas. É crescente o número de trabalhos buscando alternativas para superar a limitação desse antagonismo. Mas considerando que o preço final do biodiesel comercializado é baixo, em comparação a outros produtos derivados de microalgas com alta pureza e utilizados na produção de fármacos, esses esforços se concentram principalmente em alternativas que não encareçam o custo de produção da biomassa de microalgas e de seus produtos.

Nesse sentido, a limitação e a redução da concentração de nitrato e fosfato no meio de cultura são, talvez, as maneiras mais utilizadas para indução do acúmulo de lipídeos em microalgas. Contudo, esta redução também acarreta um efeito inibitório do crescimento celular, devido à escassez desses nutrientes no meio de cultivo, necessitando que sejam estabelecidas concentrações e até mesmo estratégias de cultivo que permitam a produção adequada de biomassa e também a produção de lipídeos.

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A partir destas considerações, a otimização das concentrações de nitrato e fosfato do meio de cultivo apresentadas neste trabalho procurou estabelecer as concentrações destes nutrientes que favorecessem o acúmulo de lipídeos com o menor comprometimento da produção de biomassa pelas linhagens estudadas.

A literatura sobre esse assunto é vasta, crescente e fornece informações que, embora não possam ser extrapoladas para diferentes linhagens, contribuem para o desenvolvimento de cultivos mais produtivos. Neste estudo a utilização de uma metodologia fatorial, durante a investigação dos efeitos de diferentes concentrações de nitrato, fosfato e cloreto de sódio sobre o crescimento e o acúmulo de lipídeos de ANRF-1 e CHLRN-1, foi de grande importância para que se alcançassem melhores condições para ambas as respostas, e, além de fornecer dados mais precisos, por considerar o efeito sinérgico entre as variáveis testadas. Esta metodologia também possibilitou a economia de tempo e recursos através do modelo gerado capaz de prever um maior número de resultados a partir de um número menor de experimentos. Esta ferramenta é, portanto, imprescindível para a otimização do meio de cultivo de microalgas, cujo sucesso é dependente de um grande número de variáveis.

Através dos experimentos de otimização, buscou-se avaliar os efeitos gerados pela combinação da limitação de nutrientes e do aumento da salinidade no acúmulo dos lipídeos produzidos pelas microalgas testadas a fim de determinar a melhor condição para este acúmulo. Porque assim como a limitação nutricional, a salinidade é um fator altamente limitante do crescimento de algumas microalgas podendo levar ao acúmulo de substâncias de reserva por esses organismos. Os resultados da otimização do meio mostrou que a condição contendo 25% da concentração original de nitrato e fosfato do meio ASM-1 foi a mais apropriada, resultando em valores de produtividade de biomassa e rendimento lipídico na ordem de 23,0 g.L⁻¹ e 31,4%, respectivamente, para ANRF-1,

e, 60 g.L⁻¹ e 22.5%, respectivamente, para CHLRN-1. Para algumas linhagens de microalgas, incluindo ANRF-1 e CHLRN-1, o aumento da salinidade atua como um fator de estresse e de uma forma indireta repercute sob a produção e o acúmulo dos lipídeos produzidos por esses organismos. Estes resultados também mostram que é possível cultivar ambas as linhagens em meio de cultivo salobro, sem que isso interfira negativamente sobre o crescimento ou no acúmulo de lipídeos por estas linhagens.

A partir desses primeiros resultados, duas estratégias de cultivo dirigidas ao crescimento e ao acúmulo de lipídeos foram consideradas: a suplementação do meio de cultivo com 5 % de CO_2 e a redução em 75% da concentração original de nitrato e fosfato do meio, respectivamente. O conceito por trás da estratégia de usar uma maior concentração de CO_2 para melhorar o desempenho da produtividade lipídica de microalgas é simples e baseia-se na maximização das taxas de crescimento e da conversão do CO_2 em biomassa e compostos complexos que beneficiam a biomassa produzida, tais como os lipídeos. Para entender o efeito dessas condições sobre o crescimento e a produção de lipídeos pelas linhagens testadas, cultivos contendo altas concentrações de nitrato e fosfato e cultivos sem a suplementação de CO_2 foram realizados, permitindo a comparação dos resultados enquanto utilizavam-se altas e baixas concentrações de nitrato, fosfato e dióxido de carbono no meio.

Os resultados de crescimento da linhagem ANRF-1 mostraram que altas concentrações de nitrato e fosfato com 5% de CO₂ promoveram o maior crescimento e o maior rendimento em peso seco da biomassa entre as condições testadas. Também foi observado um aumento expressivo do acúmulo de lipídeos de ANRF-1 que resultou em uma produtividade lipídica superior as das culturas cultivadas em meio com concentrações de nitrato e fosfato reduzidas para 25% das concentrações originais do meio ASM-1. O perfil lipídico de ANRF-1, em ambas as condições, foi constituído

majoritariamente por C16:0 (ácido palmítico), C18:1n-9c (ácido oleico), 18:2n-6c (ácido linolênico) e C18:3n-3 (ácido α linolênico), um perfil considerado adequado para a produção de biodiesel. Outro aspecto interessante do perfil lipídico de ANRF-1 refere-se à presença dos ácidos graxos saturados C20:0 (ácido araquídico) e C22:0 (ácido beênico), exclusivos dos cultivos realizados sob altas concentrações de nitrato e fosfato e 5% CO₂. Estes ácidos graxos são usados industrialmente para retardar a evaporação de solventes e em óleos lubrificantes, o que pode ampliar o potencial de aplicação de ANRF-1 para esta rota biotecnológica. Além de promover o aumento do crescimento e do acúmulo de lipídeos, a suplementação das culturas com 5% de CO₂ também resultou em um importante aumento na proporção relativa de ácidos graxos poliinsaturados do total de ácidos graxos produzidos por ANRF-1, deixando evidente que esta linhagem é capaz de utilizar efetivamente o CO₂ para o crescimento e síntese de lipídeos.

A linhagem CHLRN-1, embora também tenha alcançado maior crescimento celular na condição de alta concentração de nitrato e fosfato, a suplementação de 5% de CO₂ não apresentou efeito importante sobre rendimento final do número de células ou sobre o peso seco da biomassa nesta condição. A ausência de modificações no número total de células e no peso seco da biomassa de *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* entre os cultivos aerados com ar atmosférico e os suplementados com 5% de CO₂ também é reportada por Gardner e colaboradores (2011). Duas possíveis explicações para a ausência de modificações no rendimento final das culturas de CHLRN-1 suplementadas com 5% de CO₂ podem ser consideradas: o aumento em 5% da concentração de CO₂ não foi suficiente para promover modificações no ritmo de crescimento da cultura e/ou possivelmente as culturas estavam limitadas por algum outro fator importante para o crescimento celular, como por exemplo o nitrogênio, um efeito comum dos cultivos

realizados em regime nutricional de batelada. Contudo, a comparação dos resultados de crescimento entre as linhagens mostrou que CHLRN-1 apresentou um rendimento celular final expressivamente maior do que obtido por ANRF-1.

Para CHLRN-1, a redução em 75% das concentrações de nitrato e fosfato do meio sem a suplementação de CO_2 mostrou-se a mais apropriada para obtenção de maior produtividade lipídica por esta linhagem. O aumento de 5% da concentração de CO2 associado a redução das concentrações de nitrato e fosfato mostrou um efeito inibitório no crescimento celular e uma diminuição do acúmulo de lipídeos nesta condição, sendo, portanto, não recomendada a sua aplicação para o cultivo desta linhagem. O perfil de ácidos graxos produzidos por CHLRN-1 quando cultivada sob concentrações de nitrato e fosfato reduzidas foi majoritariamente constituído por C16:0 (ácido palmítico), C18:1n-9c (ácido oleico), 18:2n-6c (ácido linolênico) e C18:3n-3 (ácido α linolênico), como o de ANRF-1, igualmente interessante para a produção de biodiesel. Esta condição também responde, pela ocorrência do ácido graxo C16:3n-3 Δ 4,7,10, um ácido graxo da família dos Ω 3 gerado pela conversão de C16:1 (ácido palmitoleico) através da reação de desaturação do tipo Δ 12.

Ainda existem desafios a serem enfrentados antes que a produção de microalgas para produção de biodiesel possa ser viabilizada ampliada em escalas comerciais. Contudo, as microalgas tem-se mostrado uma excelente matéria-prima para obtenção de diversos compostos de interesse comercial. Os lipídeos produzidos pelas microalgas têm se consolidado como matéria-prima para vários setores da indústria de transformação e no desenvolvimento de tecnologias limpas, devido às suas propriedades biotecnológicas, podendo atuar na biorremediação de metais pesados bem como na biofixação de nitrogênio e fósforo. Isto confere uma possibilidade de aplicação comercial em múltiplas áreas, como tratamento de águas residuais, produção de energia e obtenção de lipídeos de alto valor agregado. Os resultados encontrados nesse estudo confirmam que as linhagens ANRF-1 e CHLRN-1 possuem perfil lipídico promissor não apenas para a indústria de biocombustíveis, mas também para as indústrias de fármacos e alimentícia, pois possuem alta variedade de ácidos graxos poliinsaturados das famílias Ω 3 e 6, constituindo uma alternativa para viabilizar a produção de biodiesel de microalgas através da integração de biotecnologias para obtenção de produtos intermediários e finais a partir de microalgas.

5 Conclusões

- A otimização do meio de cultivo foi obtida com uma redução de 75% das concentrações originais de nitrato e fosfato do meio ASM-1.
- Ambas as linhagens estudadas mostraram-se aptas para o cultivo em meio salobro contendo 0,5g L-1 de NaCl.
- ANRF-1 alcançou um expressivo aumento na produção de biomassa e no rendimento lipídico quando cultivada em meio ASM-1 suplementado com 5% de CO₂, demonstrando um importante potencial para a mitigação de CO₂ proveniente de gases de combustão.
- Para CHLRN-1 a condição de nitrato e fosfato reduzido mostrou-se a mais adequada em termos de produtividade lipídica.
- As diferenças entre as linhagens ANRF-1 e CHLRN-1 demonstraram que as respostas ao aumento da concentração de CO₂ no meio de cultivo são espécieespecífica, sendo necessária uma investigação mais aprofundada da influência desse fator na fisiologia das microalgas, com especial atenção para o crescimento, mecanismos de concentração de carbono e sobre a eficiência no uso dos nutrientes pelas linhagens de interesse.
- Apesar do atual cenário de alto custo de produção, que pode restringir o seu uso, e da clara necessidade de mais investimentos em P&D nesta área, a utilização de microalgas para a produção de biodiesel apresenta um potencial único de uso, especialmente na perspectiva integrada de uma biorrefinaria, devido às múltiplas aplicações de sua biomassa e da alta qualidade dos lipídeos produzidos.

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7 ANEXO I – COMUNICAÇÕES CIENTÍFICAS

7.1 Artigos publicados

- Miranda, C.T., Pinto, R.F., de Lima, D.V.N., Viegas, C.V., da Costa, S.M. and Azevedo, S.M.F.O. (2015). Microalgae Lipid and Biodiesel Production: A Brazilian Challenge. *American Journal of Plant Sciences*, **6**, 2522-2533. http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ajps.2015.615254

- Miranda, C.T., de Lima, D.V.N., Atella, G.C., de Aguiar, P.F.and Azevedo, S.M.F.O. (2016) Optimization of Nitrogen, Phosphorus and Salt for Lipid Accumulation of Microalgae: Towards the Viability of Microalgae Biodiesel. Natural Science , 8, 557-573. http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ns.2016.812055

7.2 Resumos publicados em congressos

- Some aspects of microalgae oil production. V Workshop on Pollutants in the Environment. Rio de Janeiro, 2013.

 Avaliação da produção de lipídeos em três linhagens de clorofíceas submetidas a diferentes condições nutricionais visando à produção de biodiesel. IV Latin American Congress of Algae Biotechnology & Workshop of the National Network of Marine Algae Biotechnology. Florianópolis, 2013.

- Avaliação do aumento temporal da exposição à alta intensidade luminosa sob o crescimento e produção de lipídeos por Ankistrodesmus sp. e Scenedesmus sp. IV Latin American Congress of Algae Biotechnology & Workshop of the National Network of Marine Algae Biotechnology. Florianópolis, 2013.

 Variação das condições nutricionais para otimização da produção de lipídeos por Ankistrodesmus sp. (Chlorophyceae). IV Latin American Congress of Algae Biotechnology & Workshop of the National Network of Marine Algae Biotechnology. Florianópolis, 2013.

7.3 Palestras

- Microalgas: Matéria prima para produção de biocombustíveis de 3ª geração. A presentada na Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro (UERJ). Rio de Janeiro, 2013.

- Microalgas: Energia, a estrela do tema. Apresentada na Universidade do Grande Rio (UNIGRANRIO), Rio de Janeiro, 2013.

- Aspectos fisiológicos e potencial biotecnológico das microalgas. Apresentada na Universidade Federal do Estado do Rio de Janeiro (UNIRIO), Rio de Janeiro, 2013.

8 ANEXO II – COORIENTAÇÃO DE INICIAÇÃO CIENTÍFICA

1- Daniel Vinícius Neves de Lima (2011-2015): Avaliação do aumento temporal da exposição à alta intensidade luminosa sob o crescimento e produção de lipídeos por *Ankistrodesmus* sp. e *Scenedesmus* sp.