

This article was published in Energy Conversion and Management 85, 530-536, 2014
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enconman.2014.05.085>

1 **The effect of light supply on microalgal growth, CO₂ uptake and nutrient removal**
2 **from wastewater**

3 A.L. Gonçalves, M. Simões, J.C.M. Pires*

4 LEPABE – Laboratório de Engenharia de Processos, Ambiente, Biotecnologia e Energia,
5 Faculdade de Engenharia da Universidade do Porto, Rua Dr. Roberto Frias, s/n, 4200-
6 465, Porto, Portugal.

7

8 *Corresponding author

9 Telephone: +351 22 508 2262

10 Fax: +351 22 508 1449

11 E-mail address: jcpires@fe.up.pt

12

13 **Abstract**

14 Microalgal based biofuels have been reported as an attractive alternative for fossil fuels,
15 since they constitute a renewable energy source that reduces greenhouse gas emissions to
16 the atmosphere. However, producing biofuels from microalgae is still not economically
17 viable. Therefore, the integration of biofuel production with other microalgal
18 applications, such as CO₂ capture and nutrient removal from wastewaters, would reduce
19 the microalgal production costs (and the environmental impact of cultures), increasing
20 the economic viability of the whole process. Additionally, producing biofuels from
21 microalgae strongly depends on microalgal strain and culture conditions.

22 This study evaluates the effect of culture conditions, namely light irradiance (36, 60, 120
23 and 180 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and light:dark ratio (10:14, 14:10 and 24:0), on microalgal growth,
24 atmospheric CO₂ uptake and nutrient (nitrogen and phosphorous) removal from culture
25 medium. Four different microalgal strains, *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Pseudokirchneriella*
26 *subcapitata*, *Synechocystis salina* and *Microcystis aeruginosa*, were studied to ascertain
27 the most advantageous regarding the referred applications.

28 This study has shown that higher light irradiance values and light periods resulted in
29 higher specific growth rates and CO₂ uptake rates. *C. vulgaris* presented the highest
30 specific growth rate and CO₂ uptake rate: $1.190 \pm 0.041 \text{ d}^{-1}$ and $0.471 \pm 0.047 \text{ gCO}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$,
31 respectively. All the strains have shown high nitrogen removal efficiencies, reaching
32 100% removal percentages in cultures with higher light supply. Phosphorus removal
33 increased with light irradiance and with light:dark ratio. The highest removal efficiency,
34 $67.6 \pm 7.1\%$, was achieved by the microalga *C. vulgaris*.

35 **Keywords:** Atmospheric CO₂ capture; light:dark ratio; light irradiance; microalgal based
36 biofuels; nitrogen and phosphorus uptake.

37 **1. Introduction**

38 The increase of atmospheric CO₂ concentration (40% since the industrial revolution),
39 mainly due to fossil fuel combustion, represents one of the most important concerns
40 regarding worldwide sustainability [1-3]. This phenomenon has been associated to
41 climate change, verified by the following observations: (i) atmosphere and ocean have
42 warmed; (ii) the extents of snow and ice have decreased (Greenland and Antarctic ice
43 sheets have been losing mass); and (iii) sea level has risen (an average of 0.19 m since
44 the beginning of the twentieth century) [4, 5]. In addition, the ocean has absorbed about
45 30% of the CO₂ emissions, causing its acidification. Therefore, the world economies
46 should reduce their carbon intensities. Energy and transportation sector represent the
47 major fraction of CO₂ emissions [6]. Thus, the use of lower-carbon fuels may have a
48 strong impact on carbon intensity of the economies. Biofuels are an example of clean
49 energy (if produced in a sustainable manner) that can reduce transportation related
50 emissions, promoting simultaneously economy and energy security by reducing the oil
51 dependence of a country.

52 In this context, microalgae have attracted the attention of the scientific community due to
53 the ability of CO₂ capture and biofuel production. These microorganisms can convert CO₂
54 into biomass through photosynthesis with an efficiency several times higher than
55 terrestrial plants [7-11]. This biomass can be used to produce biodiesel, biohydrogen or
56 biomethane. Thus, biofuel produced from microalgae can present net carbon emissions
57 near zero or even negative [12-14]. Consequently, microalgal production may provide a
58 solution for stabilizing the atmospheric CO₂ concentration. However, microalgal
59 cultivation still presents high process costs. Moreover, it requires large amounts of water
60 and nutrients, which is the reason to be considered a process with high environmental
61 impact [15]. To overcome these disadvantages, microalgal production can be coupled

62 with wastewater treatment. In a study conducted by Lundquist [16], it was concluded that
63 the production of microalgal biofuels is only economically viable when using wastewater
64 as culture medium. The authors performed a techno-economic analysis of biofuel
65 production by microalgae using five case-studies: two of them emphasized wastewater
66 treatment and the others were focused on biofuel production. In this report, the overall
67 production cost of oil and biogas was significantly reduced through the revenues
68 generated from wastewater treatment: oil production cost decreased from \$332 bbl⁻¹ to
69 \$28 bbl⁻¹, whereas biogas production costs decreased from \$0.72 kWh⁻¹ to \$0.17 kWh⁻¹.
70 According to this report, an integrated system combining biomass production with CO₂
71 capture and wastewater treatment, aiming to produce biofuels and bioenergy, through
72 anaerobic digestion of resulting biomass seems to be a promising alternative to produce
73 microalgal biofuels in a cost-effective way. Microalgae can then be cultivated in low
74 quality water, such as agriculture runoff or municipal, industrial or agricultural
75 wastewaters, decreasing the requirements for freshwater and nutrients (nitrogen,
76 phosphorus and minor nutrients) and, at the end of the process, a clean effluent may be
77 achieved to discharge in a watercourse [17, 18].

78 A critical factor to autotrophic growth of microalgae is related to light supply [19, 20]. It
79 is known that in a photosynthetic system, the fixation of one molecule of carbon dioxide
80 requires 8 photons of photosynthetically active radiation (approximately 48% of the
81 incident solar light) [19]. However, high photon flux densities can cause photodamage,
82 reducing photosynthetic efficiency. In this context, the selected light:dark ratio may have
83 an important role in microalgal production, as microalgal cells are able to repair the photo-
84 induced damage during the dark period [21]. Therefore, this study aims to evaluate the
85 effect of light supply (irradiance and light:dark ratio) on the growth of *Chlorella vulgaris*,
86 *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*, *Synechocystis salina* and *Microcystis aeruginosa*,

87 taking into account: (i) specific growth rate; (ii) biomass productivities; (iii) CO₂ fixation
88 rate; and (iv) nitrogen and phosphorus uptake.

89 **2. Materials and methods**

90 *2.1. Microorganisms and culture medium*

91 The microalgae *Chlorella vulgaris* CCAP 211/11B and *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*
92 CCAP 278/4 were obtained from Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa (United
93 Kingdom), while the cyanobacteria *Synechocystis salina* LEGE 06079 and *Microcystis*
94 *aeruginosa* LEGE 91344 were obtained from the Laboratory of Ecotoxicology, Genomic
95 and Evolution – CIIMAR (Centre of Marine and Environmental Research of the
96 University of Porto, Portugal). Stock solutions of these microorganisms were prepared in
97 OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) test medium [22],
98 with the following composition (per litre): 15 mg NaNO₃, 12 mg MgCl₂·6H₂O, 18 mg
99 CaCl₂·2H₂O, 15 mg MgSO₄·7H₂O, 1.6 mg KH₂PO₄, 0.08 mg FeCl₃·6H₂O, 0.1 mg
100 Na₂EDTA·2H₂O, 0.185 mg H₃BO₃, 0.415 mg MnCl₂·4H₂O, 3 µg ZnCl₂, 1.5 µg
101 CoCl₂·6H₂O, 0.01 µg CuCl₂·2H₂O, 7 µg Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O, and 50 mg NaHCO₃. The cells
102 were incubated in 500-mL flasks at room temperature, under continuous fluorescent light
103 with an irradiance of 120 µE m⁻² s⁻¹ at the surface of the flasks. Agitation was obtained
104 by bubbling atmospheric air (filtered through a 0.22-µm cellulose acetate membranes,
105 Orange Scientific, Belgium) in the bottom of the flasks.

106 *2.2. Experimental setup and cultivation conditions*

107 Batch experiments were performed in 500-mL flasks (VWR, Portugal) with a working
108 volume of 400 mL. As the growth medium described above presents a very low
109 concentration of nitrogen and phosphorus, concentrations of these elements were

110 increased to simulate the concentrations commonly present in a domestic effluent.
111 Therefore, cells were cultivated for 12 days in the culture medium described above, but
112 with the following concentrations of NaNO_3 and KH_2PO_4 , respectively: 250 mg L^{-1} and
113 45 mg L^{-1} [23]. In this study, nitrate was used as nitrogen source because this is the most
114 thermodynamically stable form of inorganic nitrogen [24] and also to avoid nitrogen
115 losses due to volatilisation, which is very common when using ammonia as nitrogen
116 source [25]. The experimental conditions were the following: (i) initial biomass
117 concentration of $0.05\text{-}0.08 \text{ g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1}$ (dry weight); (ii) initial pH was set at 7; (iii) room
118 temperature (approximately $24.0 \pm 1.0^\circ\text{C}$); and (iv) continuous aeration with the injection
119 of atmospheric air (filtered through a $0.22\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ cellulose acetate membranes, Orange
120 Scientific, Belgium) in the bottom of the flasks. The assays were carried out under
121 different light irradiance values: 36, 60, 120 and $180 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Several research studies
122 have applied similar light irradiance values for microalgal growth [26-28]. For each
123 irradiance value, different light cycles were evaluated: 10:14, 14:10, and 24:0 (light:dark
124 ratio). The light:dark ratio of 24:0 was used because it promotes continuous
125 photoautotrophic growth. To reduce production costs in terms of light requirements, the
126 light:dark ratios of 10:14 and 14:10 were applied to simulate the number of light hours
127 during winter and summer time, respectively. All the experiments were performed in
128 duplicates.

129 *2.3. Growth monitoring*

130 Duplicate samples were collected at 24-h intervals and biomass concentration was
131 determined by measuring optical density at 750 nm, OD_{750} [29], using a V-1200
132 spectrophotometer (VWR, Portugal). The relationship between OD_{750} and cell dry weight
133 (X , $\text{g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1}$) for all microorganisms was established by linear regression, as it is shown in
134 Table 1.

[Table 1]

135

136 2.4. Kinetic growth parameters

137 Cell concentration values were used to determine specific growth rate (μ , d^{-1}), maximum
138 biomass productivity (P_{max} , $g_{dw} L^{-1} d^{-1}$) and CO_2 fixation rate (R_C , $g_{CO_2} L^{-1} d^{-1}$). Specific
139 growth rates were determined according to Equation 1 [30]:

$$\mu = \frac{\ln X_f - \ln X_i}{t_f - t_i} \quad (1)$$

140 where X_f and X_i correspond respectively to cell concentration in the end and in the
141 beginning of exponential growth phase and t_f and t_i correspond to the end and beginning
142 of the same growth phase. Biomass productivities were calculated from the variation in
143 biomass concentration within a cultivation time, as shown in Equation 2 [30, 31]:

$$P = \frac{X_1 - X_0}{t_1 - t_0} \quad (2)$$

144 where X_1 and X_0 correspond to cell concentration in days t_1 and t_0 , respectively. Finally,
145 CO_2 fixation rates (R_C) were calculated based on the relationship between microalgal
146 carbon content (C_C) and biomass productivities [31], as represented in Equation 3:

$$R_C = C_C \cdot P \cdot \frac{M_{CO_2}}{M_C} \quad (3)$$

147 Considering the typical molecular formula of microalgal biomass, $CO_{0.48}H_{1.83}N_{0.11}P_{0.01}$,
148 each gram of microalgal biomass is equivalent to about 1.88 g of captured CO_2 [8, 31,
149 32].

150 2.5. Nutrients removal

151 Nutrient removal was determined by quantification of nitrogen and phosphorus in the
152 culture medium. For each analytical assay, one-millilitre samples from each culture were
153 collected in the first and last day of culturing. Samples were centrifuged at 16500 *g* for
154 10 min and supernatants were stored at -20 °C until being analysed. Nitrate concentration
155 was then determined through UV spectroscopy at 220 nm using a T80 UV/VIS
156 Spectrophotometer (PG Instruments, UK), according to the method proposed by Collos
157 et al. [33]. On the other hand, inorganic phosphate quantification was performed by
158 measuring absorbance at 820 nm of a phosphomolybdate complex formed by reaction of
159 inorganic phosphate with ammonium molybdate in a Synergy™ HT 96-well microplate
160 reader (Biotek Instruments, Inc., USA), as proposed by Lee et al. [34].

161 *2.6. Statistical analysis*

162 For each parameter, the average and the standard deviation were calculated. The statistical
163 significance of the results was evaluated using the Student's paired *t*-test to investigate
164 whether the differences between the different conditions studied could be considered
165 significant. This analysis was performed using the statistical software SPSS 17.0 (SPSS
166 Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Additionally, the influence of algal stain, light:dark ratio and
167 irradiance, as well as a combination of these factors, in the different parameters studied
168 was evaluated through 3-way-ANOVA using Matlab R2013a. All statistical tests were
169 carried out at a significance level of 0.05.

170 **3. Results and Discussion**

171 Although the production of biofuels from microalgae may be an alternative for non-
172 renewable fossil fuel reserves, this process is still not viable due to the high associated
173 production costs. Therefore, selection of an adequate algal strain and respective culture
174 conditions is an important step towards the achievement of high density cultures.

175 Furthermore, to reduce biofuel production costs, this process should be coupled with other
176 practices, such as CO₂ uptake and nutrient removal from wastewaters [35]. The use of
177 CO₂ from flue gas emissions, as well as wastewaters will significantly decrease the costs
178 associated to CO₂ supply and the requirements for freshwater. Additionally,
179 bioremediation of wastewaters and CO₂ uptake will result in some income, increasing the
180 cost-effectiveness of the process. Four different algal strains were studied in terms of
181 biomass productivity, CO₂ uptake and nutrient removal (nitrogen and phosphorus) from
182 culture medium. Different light irradiance values and different light:dark ratios were
183 applied, aiming to infer about which strain and respective culture conditions promote
184 higher biomass productivities, while contributing for high CO₂ uptake rates and nutrient
185 removal.

186 *3.1. Influence of light supply on microalgal growth*

187 Phototrophic cultivation of microalgae strongly depends on light energy. The growth of
188 different microalgal strains under different light irradiance values and with different light
189 cycles has shown that these factors have a great influence on kinetic growth parameters.
190 Figure 1 shows the evolution of specific growth rates (A) and biomass productivities (B)
191 with increasing light irradiance values and with increasing light cycles for each of the
192 studied strains.

193 **[Figure 1]**

194 Values obtained for specific growth rates have shown a minimum of $0.214 \pm 0.030 \text{ d}^{-1}$ for
195 *S. salina* grown under an irradiance of $36 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and a light:dark ratio of 10:14, which
196 was not statistically different ($p = 0.438$) from the microalga *P. subcapitata* grown in the
197 same conditions. Maximum values of $1.190 \pm 0.041 \text{ d}^{-1}$ were achieved by *C. vulgaris*
198 grown under an irradiance of $180 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and a 24-h light period, which was not

199 statistically different from the value obtained for the microalga *P. subcapitata* ($p = 0.078$)
200 and the cyanobacterium *S. salina* ($p = 0.096$). Similar specific growth rate values between
201 the microalgae *C. vulgaris* and *P. subcapitata* were previously reported in the study
202 performed by Pires et al. [36]. Comparing the effect of light irradiance and light:dark ratio
203 on specific growth rates, Figure 1 shows that an increase in light irradiance and in time
204 of light exposure contributes to higher specific growth rates in all studied algal strains.
205 Apart from a few exceptions, a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) increase in specific
206 growth rate was observed for higher light irradiance values and higher light periods.
207 These results are consistent with previous studies that reported positive correlation
208 between growth rates and light irradiance and period for different microalgae [37, 38].
209 Regarding biomass productivities (Figure 1, B), a similar behaviour was observed. In
210 general, higher light irradiance levels and higher light periods led to an increase in
211 maximum biomass productivities. The lowest maximum biomass productivity, $0.022 \pm$
212 $0.002 \text{ g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, was achieved for the microalga *P. subcapitata* under the lowest light
213 supply (both irradiance and light:dark ratio). On the other hand, the highest biomass
214 productivity value, $0.133 \pm 0.013 \text{ g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, was achieved by the microalga *C. vulgaris*
215 grown with a light irradiance of $180 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and a light:dark ratio of 24:0. The
216 cyanobacteria *S. salina* and *M. aeruginosa* showed a similar behaviour in terms of
217 biomass productivity. The highest values achieved were 0.108 ± 0.005 and 0.107 ± 0.005
218 $\text{g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for *S. salina* and *M. aeruginosa*, respectively, under the highest light irradiance
219 value and with continuous light supply. These values were statistically higher than the
220 highest biomass productivity achieved by the microalga *P. subcapitata*: 0.075 ± 0.003
221 $\text{g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ($p < 0.05$). The increase in light irradiance and in light exposure time also
222 favoured maximum biomass concentrations. The highest value of maximum biomass
223 concentration, $1.346 \pm 0.132 \text{ g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1}$, was achieved for the microalga *C. vulgaris* under

224 an irradiance value of $180 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and a 24-h light period (data not shown). Statistically
225 lower values, $0.798 \pm 0.036 \text{ g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1}$ ($p = 0.002$), were obtained for the microalga *P.*
226 *subcapitata* grown under the same conditions. Maximum biomass concentrations of
227 1.259 ± 0.057 and $1.174 \pm 0.057 \text{ g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1}$ were achieved by the cyanobacteria *S. salina* and
228 *M. aeruginosa* when grown in the same light conditions. However, these values were not
229 statistically different from those achieved by the microalga *C. vulgaris* ($p > 0.05$).

230 These results suggest that all the studied microorganisms behave similarly when light
231 irradiance and time of exposure is increased. However, the lowest productivity values
232 achieved for the microalga *P. subcapitata*, indicate that this algal strain may not be
233 applied when the aim is to maximize the biomass productivity, under atmospheric CO_2
234 concentrations.

235 3.2. Carbon dioxide uptake rate

236 Information about the average composition of microalgal biomass, as well as biomass
237 productivities can be used to determine carbon dioxide uptake rate, assuming that all the
238 CO_2 assimilated was converted into biomass. Figure 2 shows CO_2 uptake rates
239 determined through an average composition of microalgal biomass and the biomass
240 productivities achieved in the different conditions studied, emphasizing the effect of light
241 irradiance and light:dark ratio on this parameter.

242 [Figure 2]

243 For all microalgal strains, an increase in light irradiance resulted in an increase in CO_2
244 uptake rate. An increase in biomass productivities and in CO_2 uptake rates with increasing
245 light irradiance has already been described [39, 40]. In fact, at light irradiance values
246 below the light saturation point, photosynthetic rate is directly proportionally to light
247 irradiance, resulting in an increase in biomass productivities and in CO_2 uptake. For

248 irradiance values above the light saturation point, a photooxidation process occurs,
249 damaging the photosystems and inhibiting photosynthesis and microalgal growth [41,
250 42]. Likewise, an increase in time of exposure to light, resulted in an increase in CO₂
251 uptake rates. Similar results were observed in the studies performed by Jacob-Lopes et al.
252 [31] and Pires et al. [36]. A maximum value of $0.471 \pm 0.047 \text{ g}_{\text{CO}_2} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ was obtained
253 for *C. vulgaris* grown with a light irradiance of $180 \mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and with a light:dark ratio
254 of 24:0. Similar CO₂ uptake rates are expected for both cyanobacteria studied in the same,
255 considering that no statistically differences were observed on biomass productivities
256 achieved by these microorganisms under the same light conditions. However, maximum
257 CO₂ uptake rate observed for *P. subcapitata*, in the same culture conditions, was
258 $0.264 \pm 0.012 \text{ g}_{\text{CO}_2} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$.

259 These results have shown that microalgal culturing can be effective in CO₂ capture from
260 the atmosphere, which may reduce costs associated to CO₂ supply. Apart from the
261 microalga *P. subcapitata*, all studied microalgal strains seem to be effective in CO₂
262 capture due to their high biomass productivities, being promising alternatives for large
263 scale production.

264 3.3. Nutrient removal

265 EU legislation imposes limits for nutrient concentrations in discharged effluents and
266 imposes minimum percentage load reductions [43, 44]. Taking into account the definition
267 of population equivalent (PE), the limits for effluent discharge are: (i) $25 \text{ mg}_{\text{O}_2} \text{ L}^{-1}$ for
268 BOD₅ with a minimum percentage of reduction of 70-90%; (ii) 15 mg L^{-1} (10 to 100
269 thousand PE) or 10 mg L^{-1} (more than 100 thousand PE) for total nitrogen with a
270 minimum percentage of reduction of 70-80%; and (iii) 2 mg L^{-1} (10 to 100 thousand PE)
271 or 1 mg L^{-1} (more than 100 thousand PE) for total phosphorus with a minimum percentage

272 of reduction of 80%. In this study, nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations were
273 determined for the first and last day of culturing, to evaluate the percentages of reduction
274 of these nutrients under the studied conditions. An average of nutrient removal rate, as
275 well as reduction percentages, are presented in Table 2. Microalgae are known for their
276 high nutrient removal efficiencies, since they require high amounts of nitrogen and
277 phosphorus for proteins, which account for 40-60% of cell dry weight, nucleic acids and
278 phospholipids synthesis [45].

279 **[Table 2]**

280 Concerning nitrogen removal, when the lowest irradiance values and the lowest light
281 period were applied (36 and 60 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, 10:14), all microalgal strains showed reduction
282 percentages lower than the values established by EU legislation: reduction percentages in
283 these conditions were not higher than 66.4% (daily removal rate of approximately
284 $11.25 \pm 0.08 \text{ mg}_\text{N} \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$). However, when higher light irradiance values and higher
285 light:dark ratios were applied, percentages of reduction higher than 70% were obtained
286 for all cultures except for the microalga *P. subcapitata* when cultured under the following
287 conditions: 180 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, 10:14 and 60 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, 14:10. Additionally, for the light:dark
288 ratio of 24:0, all microalgal strains showed a reduction percentage of about 100%. The
289 same result was observed for all microorganisms when grown under a 14:10 light:dark
290 ratio and light irradiances of 120 and 180 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. These results show that higher light
291 irradiance values and higher light periods favour nitrogen removal and that, in general,
292 all studied microalgal strains can be effectively applied in nitrogen removal. High
293 nitrogen removal percentages have been described in different studies. In the study
294 performed by Xin et al. [46], the microalga *Scenedesmus* sp. was able to remove 90.4%
295 of nitrate after 13 days of cultivation with an initial nitrate concentration of 10 mg L^{-1} , a
296 light irradiance of 25 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and a light:dark ratio of 14:10. A nitrogen removal

297 efficiency of 82.70% was obtained for the microalga *Chlorella zofingiensis* when cultured
298 in a piggery effluent (with a nitrogen concentration of 148 mg L⁻¹) under a constant light
299 irradiance of 230 μE m⁻² s⁻¹ [47]. Regarding phosphorus uptake, removal efficiencies
300 were far from satisfactory, as the minimum percentage of reduction established by EU
301 legislation, 80%, was not achieved. However, it is possible to state that increasing light
302 irradiance values and increasing time of exposure to light results in higher phosphorus
303 removal rates. In this study, all microalgal strains showed a similar behaviour in terms of
304 phosphorus uptake. However, the highest phosphorus removal, 67.6 ± 7.1% (2.67±0.13
305 mgP L⁻¹ d⁻¹), was achieved by the microalga *C. vulgaris* when cultured under continuous
306 light supply with an irradiance of 180 μE m⁻² s⁻¹. This value was statistically different
307 ($p < 0.05$) from the highest removal efficiencies achieved by the other microalgal strains
308 studied. Phosphorus removal efficiencies obtained in this study were lower than those
309 referred in the literature. Phosphorus removal percentages close to 100% were obtained
310 for the microalgae *Scenedesmus* sp. and *C. zofingiensis* in the studies performed by Xin
311 et al. [46] and Zhu et al. [47], respectively. The effect of light irradiance on nitrogen and
312 phosphorus removal was described by Silva-Benavides and Torzillo [45]: an increase in
313 light irradiance from 20 to 60 μE m⁻² s⁻¹ resulted in a more efficient removal of both
314 nutrients in batch cultures of the microalga *C. vulgaris* and the cyanobacterium
315 *Planktothrix isothrix*. These results are in accordance with the results obtained in this
316 study.

317 The discrepancy between nitrogen and phosphorus removal efficiencies obtained in this
318 study suggests a nitrogen-limitation to microalgal growth in the cases of higher reduction
319 percentages. According to the study performed by Bhola et al. [48], *C. vulgaris* reached
320 its maximum concentration for nitrogen concentrations of 5 g L⁻¹. In this study, nitrogen
321 was supplied at a concentration of 250 mg L⁻¹. As this value is lower than the one used in

322 the referred study, nitrogen-limitation can be confirmed. Furthermore, nitrogen
323 limitations in wastewaters are very common, since low ratios between nitrogen and
324 phosphorus, about 5:1, suggest a limitation of this nutrient to microalgal growth. On the
325 other hand, ratios of about 30:1 suggest phosphorus limitation [49]. As the ratio between
326 these nutrients in this study was very close to 5:1, it is possible to state that nitrogen was
327 supplied in concentrations that limit microalgal growth. To confirm the hypothesis of
328 nitrogen-limitation, higher nitrogen concentrations should be supplied to microalgal
329 cultures. Additionally, to achieve higher phosphorus removal efficiencies, one should
330 consider the use of a consortium between the studied microorganisms. To study this
331 effect, the microorganisms should be cultured in the conditions that enhance their growth
332 and metabolic efficiency for CO₂ uptake and nutrient removal.

333 Nitrogen and phosphorus removal rate values were then used to determine microalgal
334 biomass composition in terms of N and P. Assuming that all the nitrogen and phosphorus
335 consumed were incorporated in microalgal biomass, the mass fraction (% m/m) of both
336 N and P in microalgal biomass for all the studied conditions was estimated. Average mass
337 fractions of N and P were $5.3 \pm 1.3\%$ and $0.7 \pm 0.2\%$, respectively. These values are not
338 statistically different from the mass fractions of N and P observed in the typical molecular
339 formula used in this study: 6.6 and 1.3% for N and P, respectively [8].

340 *3.4. Influence of algal strain and culturing conditions in the overall process*

341 The effect of algal strain, light irradiance and light:dark ratio and the combined effect of
342 these variables on kinetic growth parameters and nutrient removal was evaluated through
343 3-way-ANOVA, as it is shown in Table 2. From Table 2, it is possible to state that kinetic
344 growth parameters, CO₂ uptake rate and nitrogen removal depend on microalgal strain,
345 light irradiance value and on light:dark ratio ($p < 0.05$). On the other hand, phosphorus
346 removal rates depend on light irradiance value and on light:dark ratio ($p < 0.05$), but are

347 not influenced by the microalgal strains used ($p > 0.05$). In fact, a similar response to
348 different light irradiance and light period was observed for all microalgal strains in terms
349 of phosphorus removal. The combined effect of microalgal strain and light irradiance has
350 not a great impact on the parameters studied ($p > 0.05$). Microalgal strain and light:dark
351 ratio strongly affect the kinetic growth parameters and the CO₂ uptake rate ($p < 0.05$), but
352 their influence is not statistically significant in nutrient removal ($p > 0.05$). Finally, all
353 the studied parameters, except phosphorus removal, depend on the combined effect of
354 light irradiance and light:dark ratio ($p < 0.05$). This analysis confirms the importance of
355 the growth conditions and microalgal strain when the aim is to obtain a high density
356 culture with great ability to uptake CO₂ and efficiently remove nutrients, such as nitrogen
357 and phosphorus.

358 [Table 3]

359 4. Conclusions

360 The effect of light irradiance, light:dark ratio and microalgal strains on microalgal growth,
361 CO₂ capture and nitrogen and phosphorus uptake was assessed in this study, in order to
362 obtain an integrated and sustainable biofuel production system. Higher light irradiance
363 values and light periods resulted in higher specific growth rates and CO₂ uptake rates.
364 Furthermore, results have shown that *C. vulgaris*, *S. salina* and *M. aeruginosa* presented
365 the highest specific growth rates and CO₂ uptake rates. Regarding nitrogen removal
366 efficiencies, all microalgal strains showed high removal efficiencies, close to 100%,
367 especially when cultured under higher light irradiance values and higher light:dark ratios.
368 Phosphorus removal increased with light irradiance and with light:dark ratio. The highest
369 removal efficiency, $67.6 \pm 7.1\%$ was achieved by the microalga *C. vulgaris*. Therefore, it
370 is possible to conclude that higher light irradiance values and light periods contribute to

371 higher cell densities, higher CO₂ uptake rates and higher nutrient removal efficiencies.
372 To overcome the low phosphorus removal efficiencies obtained, a consortium between
373 the studied strains must be evaluated. This consortium can also increase lipid
374 productivities, improving biofuel production from microalgae.

375 **Acknowledgements**

376 Ana L. Gonçalves and José C.M. Pires are grateful to Foundation for Science and
377 Technology (FCT), POPH-QREN and FSE for their fellowships SFRH/BD/88799/2012
378 and SFRH/BPD/66721/2009, respectively. The authors also acknowledge CIIMAR
379 (Centre of Marine and Environmental Research of the University of Porto), for providing
380 the cyanobacteria *Synechocystis salina* LEGE 06079 and *Microcystis aeruginosa* LEGE
381 91344.

382

383 **References**

- 384 [1] M.R. Allen, D.J. Frame, C. Huntingford, C.D. Jones, J.A. Lowe, M. Meinshausen, N.
385 Meinshausen, Warming caused by cumulative carbon emissions towards the trillionth
386 tonne, *Nature* 458 (2009) 1163-1166.
- 387 [2] M. Obersteiner, C. Azar, P. Kauppi, K. Möllersten, J. Moreira, S. Nilsson, P. Read,
388 K. Riahi, B. Schlamadinger, Y. Yamagata, Managing climate risk, *Science* 294 (2001)
389 786-787.
- 390 [3] J. Rockström, W. Steffen, K. Noone, Å. Persson, F.S. Chapin, E.F. Lambin, T.M.
391 Lenton, M. Scheffer, C. Folke, H.J. Schellnhuber, A safe operating space for humanity,
392 *Nature* 461 (2009) 472-475.
- 393 [4] IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change), *Climate Change 2013: The*
394 *Physical Science Basis Summary for Policymakers, Working Group I Contribution 416*
395 *to the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report, (2013).*
- 396 [5] M. Tavoni, R. Socolow, Modeling meets science and technology: an introduction to
397 a special issue on negative emissions, *Clim. Change* (2013) 1-14.
- 398 [6] IEA (International Energy Agency), *CO₂ emissions from fuel combustion, Paris,*
399 *France (2011).*
- 400 [7] W. Brilman, L. Garcia Alba, R. Veneman, Capturing atmospheric CO₂ using
401 supported amine sorbents for microalgae cultivation, *Biomass Bioenergy* 53 (2013) 39-
402 47.
- 403 [8] Y. Chisti, Biodiesel from microalgae, *Biotechnol. Adv.* 25 (2007) 294-306.
- 404 [9] A. Demirbas, M.F. Demirbas, Importance of algae oil as a source of biodiesel, *Energy*
405 *Conv. Manag.* 52 (2011) 163-170.
- 406 [10] B. Sialve, N. Bernet, O. Bernard, Anaerobic digestion of microalgae as a necessary
407 step to make microalgal biodiesel sustainable, *Biotechnol. Adv.* 27 (2009) 409-416.

408 [11] R.H. Wijffels, M.J. Barbosa, An outlook on microalgal biofuels, *Science* 329 (2010)
409 796-799.

410 [12] D.J. Farrelly, C.D. Everard, C.C. Fagan, K.P. McDonnell, Carbon sequestration and
411 the role of biological carbon mitigation: a review, *Renew. Sust. Energy Rev.* 21 (2013)
412 712-727.

413 [13] J.A. Mathews, Carbon-negative biofuels, *Energy Policy* 36 (2008) 940-945.

414 [14] J.S. Rhodes, D.W. Keith, Biomass with capture: negative emissions within social
415 and environmental constraints: an editorial comment, *Clim. Change* 87 (2008) 321-328.

416 [15] L. Lardon, A. Hélias, B. Sialve, J.-P. Steyer, O. Bernard, Life-cycle assessment of
417 biodiesel production from microalgae, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 43 (2009) 6475-6481.

418 [16] T.J. Lundquist, I.C. Woertz, N. Quinn, J.R. Benemann, A realistic technology and
419 engineering assessment of algae biofuel production, Energy Biosciences Institute (2010)
420 1.

421 [17] R. Craggs, S. Heubeck, T. Lundquist, J. Benemann, Algal biofuels from wastewater
422 treatment high rate algal ponds, *Water Sci. Technol.* 63 (2011) 660-665.

423 [18] J. Park, R. Craggs, Algal production in wastewater treatment high rate algal ponds
424 for potential biofuel use, *Water Sci. Technol.* 63 (2011) 2403-2410.

425 [19] H.M. Amaro, A. Guedes, F.X. Malcata, Advances and perspectives in using
426 microalgae to produce biodiesel, *Appl. Energy* 88 (2011) 3402-3410.

427 [20] N. Eriksen, The technology of microalgal culturing, *Biotechnol Lett* 30 (2008) 1525-
428 1536.

429 [21] J.C.M. Pires, M.C.M. Alvim-Ferraz, F.G. Martins, M. Simões, Carbon dioxide
430 capture from flue gases using microalgae: engineering aspects and biorefinery concept,
431 *Renew. Sust. Energy Rev.* 16 (2012) 3043-3053.

432 [22] OECD, Freshwater alga and cyanobacteria, growth inhibition test, Test Guideline
433 201 (2011) Organisation for economic co-operation and development.

434 [23] H. Yoo, K.-H. Ahn, H.-J. Lee, K.-H. Lee, Y.-J. Kwak, K.-G. Song, Nitrogen removal
435 from synthetic wastewater by simultaneous nitrification and denitrification (SND) via
436 nitrite in an intermittently-aerated reactor, *Water Res.* 33 (1999) 145-154.

437 [24] L. Barsanti, P. Gualtieri. *Algae - Anatomy, Biochemistry and Biotechnology*. USA:
438 CRC Press; 2006. p. 162-168.

439 [25] J.U. Grobbelaar. Algal nutrition - mineral nutrition. In: Richmond A, editor.
440 Handbook of microalgal culture: biotechnology and applied phycology. Oxford, UK:
441 Blackwell Science Ltd; 2004. p. 3-19.

442 [26] S.-H. Ho, C.-Y. Chen, J.-S. Chang, Effect of light intensity and nitrogen starvation
443 on CO₂ fixation and lipid/carbohydrate production of an indigenous microalga
444 *Scenedesmus obliquus* CNW-N, *Bioresource technology* 113 (2012) 244-252.

445 [27] S.-H. Ho, C.-Y. Chen, K.-L. Yeh, W.-M. Chen, C.-Y. Lin, J.-S. Chang,
446 Characterization of photosynthetic carbon dioxide fixation ability of indigenous
447 *Scenedesmus obliquus* isolates, *Biochemical Engineering Journal* 53 (2010) 57-62.

448 [28] H.J. Ryu, K.K. Oh, Y.S. Kim, Optimization of the influential factors for the
449 improvement of CO₂ utilization efficiency and CO₂ mass transfer rate, *Journal of*
450 *Industrial and engineering chemistry* 15 (2009) 471-475.

451 [29] A.K. Pegallapati, N. Nirmalakhandan, Internally illuminated photobioreactor for
452 algal cultivation under carbon dioxide-supplementation: Performance evaluation,
453 *Renewable Energy* (2012)

454 [30] P. Feng, Z. Deng, L. Fan, Z. Hu, Lipid accumulation and growth characteristics of
455 *Chlorella zofingiensis* under different nitrate and phosphate concentrations, *J. Biosci.*
456 *Bioeng.* 114 (2012) 405-410.

- 457 [31] E. Jacob-Lopes, C.H.G. Scoparo, L.M.C.F. Lacerda, T.T. Franco, Effect of light
458 cycles (night/day) on CO₂ fixation and biomass production by microalgae in
459 photobioreactors, Chem. Eng. Process. Process Intensif. 48 (2009) 306-310.
- 460 [32] B. Wang, Y. Li, N. Wu, C. Lan, CO₂ bio-mitigation using microalgae, Appl.
461 Microbiol. Biotechnol. 79 (2008) 707-718.
- 462 [33] Y. Collos, F. Mornet, A. Sciandra, N. Waser, A. Larson, P.J. Harrison, An optical
463 method for the rapid measurement of micromolar concentrations of nitrate in marine
464 phytoplankton cultures, J. Appl. Phycol. 11 (1999) 179-184.
- 465 [34] B. Lee, S.Y. Park, Y.S. Heo, S.S. Yea, D.-E. Kim, Efficient colorimetric assay of
466 RNA polymerase activity using inorganic pyrophosphatase and ammonium molybdate,
467 Bull. Korean Chem. Soc. 30 (2009) 2485-2488.
- 468 [35] S.A. Razzak, M.M. Hossain, R.A. Lucky, A.S. Bassi, H. de Lasa, Integrated CO₂
469 capture, wastewater treatment and biofuel production by microalgae culturing - a review,
470 Renew. Sust. Energy Rev. 27 (2013) 622-653.
- 471 [36] J.C.M. Pires, A.L. Gonçalves, F.G. Martins, M.C.M. Alvim-Ferraz, M. Simões,
472 Effect of light supply on CO₂ capture from atmosphere by *Chlorella vulgaris* and
473 *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*, Mitig. Adapt. Strateg. Glob. Chang. (2013) 1-9.
- 474 [37] M. Janssen, T.C. Kuijpers, B. Veldhoen, M.B. Ternbach, J. Tramper, L.R. Mur, R.H.
475 Wijffels, Specific growth rate of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* and *Chlorella sorokiniana*
476 under medium duration light/dark cycles: 13–87 s, J. Biotechnol. 70 (1999) 323-333.
- 477 [38] C. Sorokin, R.W. Krauss, The effects of light intensity on the growth rates of green
478 algae, Plant Physiol. 33 (1958) 109.
- 479 [39] K. Richardson, J. Beardall, J.A. Raven, Adaptation of unicellular algae to irradiance:
480 an analysis of strategies, New Phytol. 93 (1983) 157-191.

481 [40] F.C. Rubio, F.G. Camacho, J.M.F. Sevilla, Y. Chisti, E.M. Grima, A mechanistic
482 model of photosynthesis in microalgae, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.* 81 (2003) 459-473.

483 [41] O. Pulz, Photobioreactors: production systems for phototrophic microorganisms,
484 *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 57 (2001) 287-293.

485 [42] I.S. Suh, C.-G. Lee, Photobioreactor engineering: design and performance,
486 *Biotechnol. Bioprocess Eng.* 8 (2003) 313-321.

487 [43] Directive 1991/271/EEC, Directive of the European Council of 21 May 1991
488 concerning urban waste-water treatment, *Official Journal of the European Union L 0271*
489 (1991).

490 [44] Directive 1998/15/EC, Directive of the European Commission of 27 February 1998
491 amending Council Directive 91/271/EEC with respect to certain requirements established
492 in Annex I thereof, *Official Journal of the European Union L 67/29* (1998).

493 [45] A.M. Silva-Benavides, G. Torzillo, Nitrogen and phosphorus removal through
494 laboratory batch cultures of microalga *Chlorella vulgaris* and cyanobacterium
495 *Planktothrix isothrix* grown as monoalgal and as co-cultures, *J. Appl. Phycol.* 24 (2012)
496 267-276.

497 [46] L. Xin, H. Hong-ying, G. Ke, Y. Jia, Growth and nutrient removal properties of a
498 freshwater microalga *Scenedesmus* sp. LX1 under different kinds of nitrogen sources,
499 *Ecol. Eng.* 36 (2010) 379-381.

500 [47] L. Zhu, Z. Wang, Q. Shu, J. Takala, E. Hiltunen, P. Feng, Z. Yuan, Nutrient removal
501 and biodiesel production by integration of freshwater algae cultivation with piggery
502 wastewater treatment, *Water Res.* (2013)

503 [48] V. Bholra, R. Desikan, S.K. Santosh, K. Subburamu, E. Sanniyasi, F. Bux, Effects of
504 parameters affecting biomass yield and thermal behaviour of *Chlorella vulgaris*, *J. Biosci.*
505 *Bioeng.* 111 (2011) 377-382.

506 [49] K. Larsdotter, Wastewater treatment with microalgae - a literature review, Vatten 62
507 (2006) 31.

508

509

510
 511
 512
 513
 514
 515
 516
 517
 518

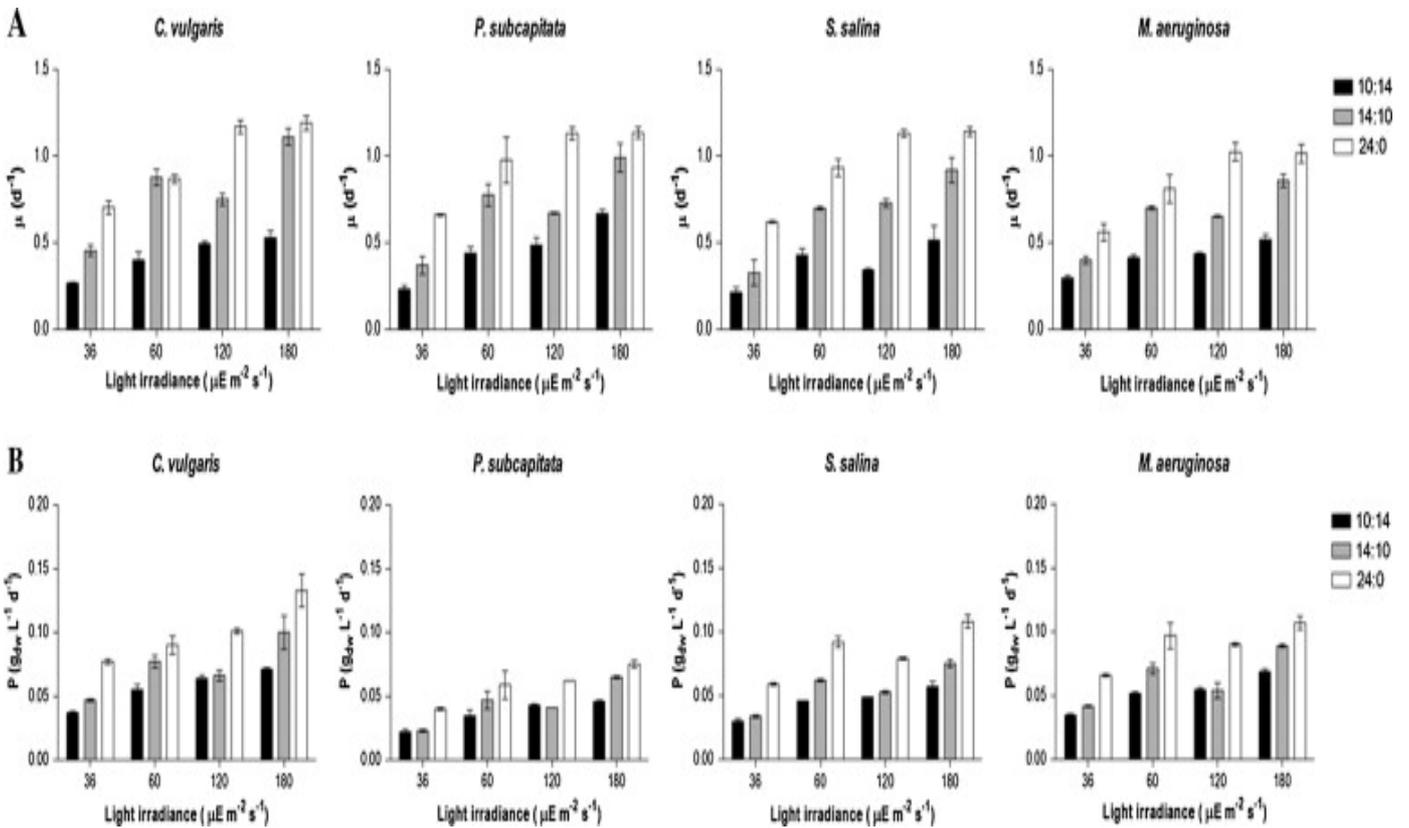


Figure 1. Effect of light irradiance and light:dark ratios on specific growth rates, μ , d^{-1} , (A) and maximum biomass productivities, P_{max} , $g_{dw} L^{-1} d^{-1}$, (B) of *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*, *Synechocystis salina* and *Microcystis aeruginosa*. Values are presented as the mean \pm standard deviation of two independent experiments.

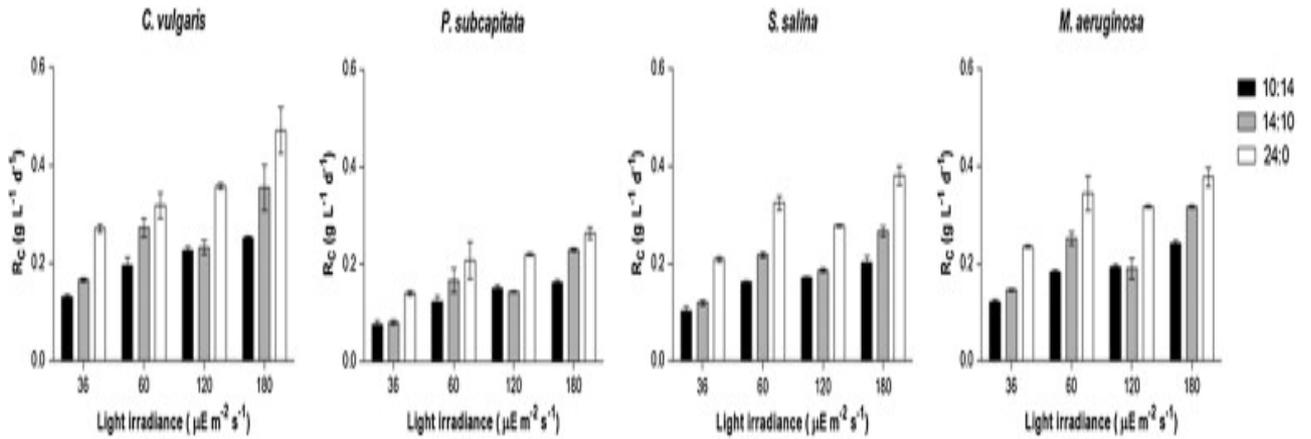


Figure 2. Effect of light irradiance and light:dark ratios on carbon dioxide uptake rates, R_c , $\text{gCO}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, of *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*, *Synechocystis salina* and *Microcystis aeruginosa*. Values are presented as the mean \pm standard deviation of two independent experiments.

Table 1
Calibration curves of OD_{750} and cell concentration in terms of dry weight (X , $\text{g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1}$).

Microalgal strain	$\text{OD}_{750} = mX (\text{g}_{\text{dw}} \text{ L}^{-1}) + b$	R^2
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	$y = 1.796x + 0.043$	0.998
<i>Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata</i>	$y = 2.614x + 0.069$	0.995
<i>Synechocystis salina</i>	$y = 2.316x + 0.174$	0.998
<i>Microcystis aeruginosa</i>	$y = 2.083x + 0.025$	0.992

Table 2
Effect of light irradiance and light:dark ratios on nitrogen and phosphorus removal rates, in $\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ of *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*, *Synechocystis salina* and *Microcystis aeruginosa*.

	Light:dark ratio	Light irradiance ($\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	<i>C. vulgaris</i>	<i>P. subcapitata</i>	<i>S. salina</i>	<i>M. aeruginosa</i>
N	10:14	36	6.75 ± 0.20 (42.3 ± 1.6)	6.79 ± 1.57 (43.5 ± 0.7)	7.94 ± 0.10 (48.5 ± 0.7)	8.85 ± 0.26 (53.6 ± 1.7)
		60	9.39 ± 0.20 (53.6 ± 1.0)	8.97 ± 0.30 (52.1 ± 1.7)	8.13 ± 0.51 (46.9 ± 3.6)	11.25 ± 0.08 (66.4 ± 0.6)
		120	12.73 ± 0.69 (76.4 ± 4.0)	12.73 ± 0.10 (76.7 ± 0.0)	14.04 ± 0.98 (87.1 ± 4.9)	14.75 ± 0.53 (90.2 ± 3.1)
		180	15.07 ± 0.38 (86.2 ± 1.7)	12.35 ± 0.16 (68.9 ± 0.8)	15.35 ± 0.15 (86.1 ± 0.6)	16.23 ± 0.18 (89.8 ± 0.4)
	14:10	36	10.58 ± 1.02 (75.6 ± 5.8)	7.72 ± 0.31 (74.4 ± 2.9)	11.51 ± 0.36 (96.1 ± 0.9)	11.36 ± 0.22 (98.8 ± 1.4)
		60	14.64 ± 0.03 (84.9 ± 0.1)	10.18 ± 0.72 (57.8 ± 5.0)	15.75 ± 1.69 (97.1 ± 4.7)	16.85 ± 1.14 (95.1 ± 3.9)
		120	12.30 ± 0.13 (99.0 ± 1.2)	11.97 ± 0.04 (100.0 ± 0.0)	13.00 ± 0.01 (100.0 ± 0.0)	12.00 ± 0.24 (100.0 ± 0.0)
		180	17.31 ± 0.38 (98.0 ± 2.0)	16.40 ± 1.07 (97.7 ± 2.5)	16.97 ± 0.15 (98.6 ± 0.4)	14.57 ± 1.87 (98.0 ± 0.6)
	24:0	36	16.56 ± 1.00 (97.1 ± 1.7)	16.43 ± 0.51 (88.0 ± 2.7)	17.85 ± 1.18 (92.5 ± 1.0)	18.00 ± 0.41 (97.3 ± 1.1)
		60	18.18 ± 0.69 (97.2 ± 2.7)	12.53 ± 3.00 (98.5 ± 2.6)	22.86 ± 4.90 (98.4 ± 2.1)	19.63 ± 2.84 (99.1 ± 1.8)
		120	16.35 ± 0.11 (94.6 ± 1.0)	17.82 ± 0.40 (93.3 ± 2.3)	18.44 ± 0.27 (95.5 ± 0.5)	17.12 ± 0.39 (95.2 ± 0.6)
		180	16.24 ± 1.23 (99.0 ± 1.3)	14.89 ± 0.39 (100.0 ± 0.0)	13.34 ± 0.28 (99.1 ± 0.7)	16.20 ± 0.21 (100.0 ± 0.0)
P	10:14	36	0.68 ± 0.16 (16.9 ± 3.4)	0.55 ± 0.27 (17.5 ± 7.9)	0.71 ± 0.03 (17.3 ± 0.6)	0.50 ± 0.37 (13.4 ± 8.8)
		60	0.76 ± 0.01 (20.2 ± 0.5)	0.98 ± 0.32 (23.0 ± 6.7)	0.72 ± 0.05 (18.0 ± 1.7)	0.72 ± 0.29 (15.1 ± 5.7)
		120	0.75 ± 0.25 (18.7 ± 5.4)	0.82 ± 0.10 (19.8 ± 1.7)	0.38 ± 0.35 (9.8 ± 9.1)	0.93 ± 0.04 (22.7 ± 2.1)
		180	0.79 ± 0.45 (18.3 ± 9.0)	1.07 ± 0.08 (27.0 ± 2.0)	1.39 ± 0.06 (33.9 ± 0.6)	0.99 ± 0.23 (26.3 ± 5.7)
	14:10	36	1.17 ± 0.09 (29.3 ± 1.6)	0.99 ± 0.46 (24.0 ± 9.6)	1.01 ± 0.15 (35.4 ± 3.4)	0.96 ± 0.25 (22.8 ± 6.4)
		60	1.39 ± 0.03 (30.7 ± 0.6)	1.05 ± 0.17 (40.9 ± 2.3)	1.92 ± 0.36 (23.6 ± 3.8)	1.67 ± 0.05 (39.8 ± 1.9)
		120	1.56 ± 0.56 (32.1 ± 1.2)	1.32 ± 0.13 (34.4 ± 3.1)	0.96 ± 0.04 (25.7 ± 0.8)	1.59 ± 0.12 (38.6 ± 2.6)
		180	1.31 ± 0.15 (31.4 ± 4.0)	1.27 ± 0.09 (32.7 ± 2.0)	1.24 ± 0.19 (32.0 ± 4.8)	1.05 ± 0.18 (25.8 ± 4.4)
	24:0	36	1.27 ± 0.42 (29.3 ± 7.4)	1.18 ± 0.26 (34.2 ± 4.9)	1.43 ± 0.16 (35.4 ± 3.4)	1.16 ± 0.31 (29.7 ± 6.0)
		60	1.30 ± 0.05 (35.0 ± 0.5)	1.46 ± 0.08 (34.2 ± 1.8)	1.45 ± 0.21 (34.7 ± 3.7)	1.53 ± 0.14 (36.4 ± 3.1)
		120	1.76 ± 0.24 (42.7 ± 3.6)	2.22 ± 0.26 (51.3 ± 4.4)	1.57 ± 0.32 (37.9 ± 7.1)	1.48 ± 0.12 (36.2 ± 2.8)
		180	2.67 ± 0.13 (67.6 ± 7.1)	1.78 ± 0.32 (51.2 ± 4.8)	1.44 ± 0.16 (36.6 ± 4.3)	1.62 ± 0.33 (41.1 ± 9.2)

Values are presented as the mean ± standard deviation of two independent experiments. Values in brackets represent nutrient removal efficiencies achieved in percentage.

Table 3
Effect of the different variables studied in the different kinetic and analytical parameters. Results are shown as the *p* value obtained through the statistical test 3-way-ANOVA (significance level was set at 0.05).

Variables in study	<i>p</i> Values				
	μ	P_{max}	R_C	R_N	R_P
Strains	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.008	0.157
Li	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
LP	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Strains × Li	0.860	0.067	0.063	0.869	0.365
Strains × LP	0.018	0.023	0.024	0.379	0.101
Li × LP	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.700

Li – light irradiance; LP – light period; P_{max} – maximum biomass productivity; R_C – carbon dioxide uptake rate; μ – specific growth rate; R_N – nitrogen removal rate; R_P – phosphorus removal rate.