



Technical note

Comparison of pretreatment methods for total lipids extraction from mixed microalgae



Anna Patrícia Florentino de Souza Silva^a, Mayara Carantino Costa^a,
Alexandre Colzi Lopes^a, Eliezer Fares Abdala Neto^a, Renato Carrhá Leitão^b,
César Rossas Mota^c, André Bezerra dos Santos^{a,*}

^a Federal University of Ceará (UFC), Brazil

^b Brazilian Agricultural Research Corporation (Embrapa Agroindústria Tropical), Brazil

^c Newcastle University, School of Civil Engineering and Geosciences, United Kingdom

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 4 March 2013

Accepted 22 October 2013

Available online 9 November 2013

Keywords:

Microalgae biomass

Stabilization ponds

Cell disruption

Lipid extraction

ABSTRACT

Cell disruption can increase the extraction efficiency of total lipids from microalgae for further conversion to biodiesel. Four different pretreatment methods were tested on mixed cultures of microalgae harvested in a stabilization pond system treating sewage: ultrasonication (US), microwaving (MW), autoclave (AC) and electroflotation by alternating current (EFAC). The best results in terms of total lipid yield were: MW ($33.7 \pm 5.3\%$), followed by EFAC ($24.8 \pm 7.1\%$), AC ($15.4 \pm 2.3\%$), and US ($13.3 \pm 3.0\%$). However, when both efficiency and costs are considered, EFAC gave the best result and can be an excellent option for simultaneous microalgae harvesting and cell disruption.

© 2013 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

The depletion of oil reserves, the resulting increase in fossil fuel prices and the international awareness of the environmental impact of greenhouse gas emissions have contributed to worldwide interest in developing sustainable alternative energy sources to meet current and future demands [1–3]. Some of the promising alternative energy sources include biohydrogen, biodiesel, bioethanol and biomethane produced from various raw materials, including microalgae biomass [4–6]. Production of biodiesel from microalgae biomass presents some advantages: it can be produced year round (depending on climate and solar radiation); can grow at very high rates; can utilize of a wide variety of water sources (fresh, brackish, seawater and wastewater); and can be produced on marginal land, hence not competing for arable land used to produce food and the production of valuable co-products [6–9].

The lipid content of microalgal cells can vary from 2 to 77% depending on species and environmental/growth conditions

[4,10,11]. Lipids extracted from microalgae may be converted into biodiesel with low energy consumption [9] by transesterification, the most common method [12]. Biodiesel can be used in conventional diesel engines without modification and can be mixed with petroleum diesel in any proportion, making it the preferred final product from microalgae [9,13].

Cultivation of microalgae in closed and controlled systems (photobioreactors) usually presents high costs and may not be economically feasible [14,15]. Microalgae cultivation in open systems such as waste stabilization ponds can be achieved at very low costs by using CO₂, water and nutrients readily available in sewerage [15]. Waste stabilization ponds can be a cheap option for microalgal biomass and biodiesel production [9,15]. However, their applicability depends on the local climate and land availability. In Brazil, a country with a tropical climate and vast land availability at a low cost, these systems are widely used [16]. For example, in the state of Ceará, located in the Northeast of Brazil, near the equator line, there are approximately 85 waste stabilization pond systems, which correspond to more than 80% of the sewage treatment systems in operation in the state. However, biomass separation and reuse are not widely used in pond systems and microalgae are often discharged directly into water bodies, representing potential hazards to the environment and to human health [17]. In order to effectively couple pollution control with biodiesel production from microalgae it is necessary to separate the biomass from the treated

* Corresponding author. Department of Hydraulic and Environmental Engineering, Federal University of Ceará, Campus do Pici, Bloco 713, Pici, CEP: 60455-900 Fortaleza, Ceará, Brazil. Tel./fax: +55 85 3366 9490.

E-mail addresses: andre23@ufc.br, andre.bezerra.santos@gmail.com (A. Bezerra dos Santos).

sewage and subsequently carry out biomass drying, cell wall disruption, lipid extraction and transesterification [18]. Biomass recovery has often been achieved by coagulation/flocculation, filtration, dissolved air flotation and centrifugation, and all these processes often present very high costs [2,19].

Oil and other intracellular products can be difficult to extract from wet biomass. Dewatering of microalgae is commonly performed to increase the shelf life of biomass feedstock in order to produce biofuels and to enhance the range of possible solvents. Some drying methods used include spray drying, drum drying, freeze-drying and sun drying [7].

Cell disruption can be used to enhance the release of lipids from algae and improving the access of the extracting solvent to fatty acids [4]. Ultrasonication, microwave, bead mill and autoclave pretreatments are the commonly used methods to promote vegetable cell disruption and have been tested in pure cultures of microalgae cells [20–23]. There are no reports in the literature of using electrolytic processes to promote microalgae cell disruption.

This work aims to compare microwave, ultrasonication and autoclave methods on the disruption of microalgae cells harvested from waste stabilization ponds as well as to propose an electroflotation by alternating current as a methodology which combine harvesting and cell disruption steps on this biomass.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Microalgae harvesting and identification

Microalgae biomass was harvested from a stabilization pond system treating sewage composed of a mechanically aerated

facultative pond, followed by a secondary facultative pond and two maturation ponds in series. The ponds were located in the city of Fortaleza, state of Ceará, Brazil. Samples were collected in the last maturation pond, near the outlet, using a plankton nylon net with a 20 μm opening. Although some microalgae have smaller sizes than the openings used, the filtered volume enables the collection of many species at random, allowing the study of phytoplankton diversity.

Samples were placed in a sterile glass container and fixed with *Transeau* solution (6 parts of water, 3 parts of 95% ethanol and 1 part of formaldehyde) in a 1:1 ratio (effluent:*Transeau*).

Identification of the dominant genus was carried out in quintuplicate with a trinocular optical microscope (L-1000T, Bioval, Brazil) and taxonomic identification guides [24,25].

The *Transeau* solution was used only to preserve the morphology of microalgal specimens and these samples were used exclusively in the microalgae identification assays.

2.2. Pretreatment methods

Biomass was harvested from the maturation pond and concentrated to 4 $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ using a 20- μm nylon plankton net. Drying was carried out by lyophilization (Liotop, L202, Brazil).

To perform the pretreatments in the modified Bligh and Dyer method, experiments were divided into two blocks, according to Fig. 1. According to Halim et al. (2012) [4], the microalgae cell disruption process step may take place before or after biomass drying, as some methods require a certain amount of water in the biomass to be successful, while others are more efficient with dry biomass. For the group of dried samples, lyophilization was

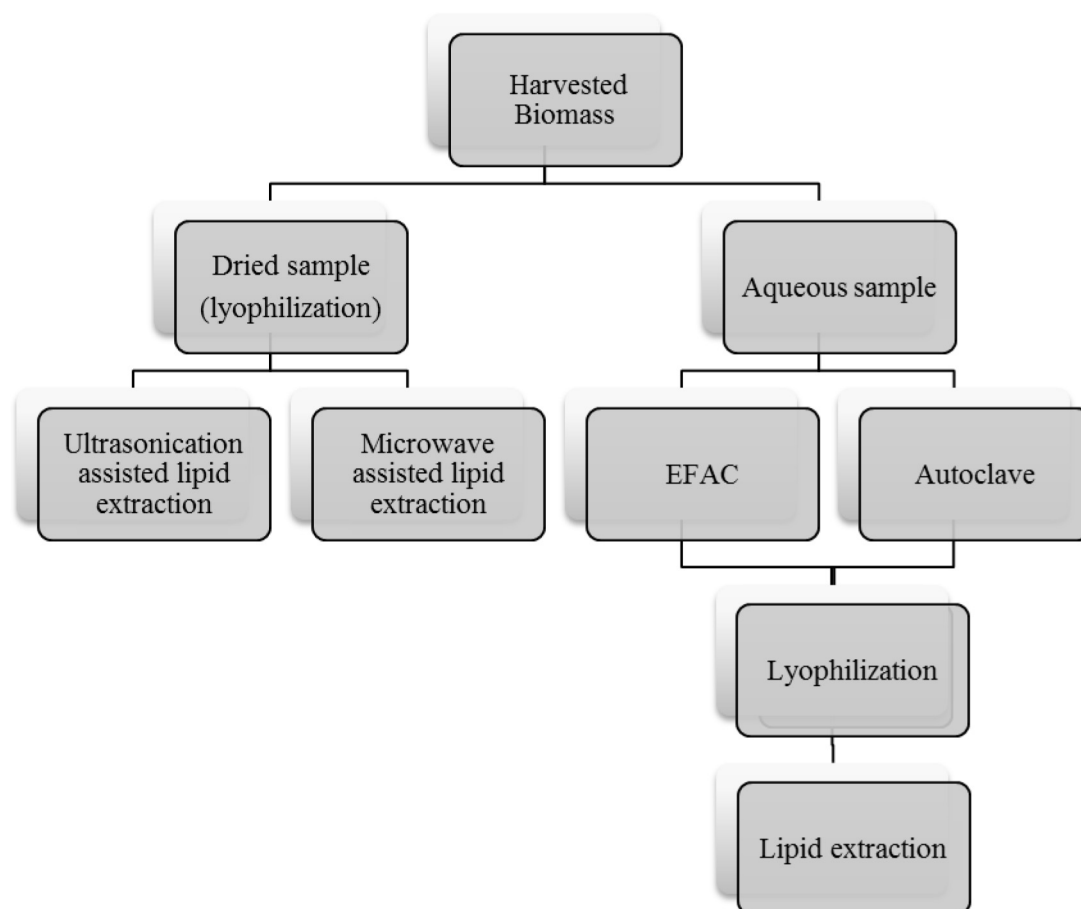


Fig. 1. Experimental flow diagram.

performed before cell disruption by ultrasonication and microwave. For the wet biomass group, samples were lyophilized after cell disruption by EFAC and autoclave.

For the control group, cell disruption was not performed. Lipids were extracted by the modified method of Bligh and Dyer (1959) [26]. All samples were analyzed in triplicate, with lipid extraction starting from 500 mg of dried biomass.

2.3. Pretreatment of dried biomass: ultrasonication and microwaving

Ultrasonic assisted extraction was carried out using a 80 W ultrasonic processor (Ultra cleaner, 1600A, Unique, Australia) at 40 KHz of frequency. Biomass (500 mg) was re-suspended with 2.5 mL of methanol, 1.25 mL of chloroform and 1 mL of deionized water and then brought to the ultrasonic bath for 40 min. Then, 1.25 mL of chloroform and 1.25 mL of 1.5% sodium sulfate were added and the solution was kept an additional 20 min in the ultrasonic bath.

Microwave assisted extraction was carried out by a 400 W microwave oven (Mars 5, CEM Corporation, USA). Each 500 mg biomass was diluted with 2.5 mL of methanol, 2.5 mL of chloroform, 1.25 mL of 1.5% sodium sulfate and 1.0 mL of deionized water and then brought to the microwave oven to be heated for 3 cycles. Each cycle used a 70 s radiation ramp temperature stage to reach 100 °C and 45 s at the hold stage. The amount of biomass used during the microwave trial was 1.5 g.

After each pretreatment, samples were centrifuged at 1.000 rpm (Excelsa II 206 BL, Famen, Brazil) for 2 min and the pellet was vacuum filtered. The filtrate was taken to an oven at 100 °C until constant weight.

2.4. Pretreatment of wet biomass: electroflotation by alternating current (EFAC) and autoclave

The electrolytic process applied (by alternating current) in this study is based on the principle of superposition of waves, causing a resonance phenomenon [27]. In the frequency range used, a resonance is obtained with the natural frequency of the water molecule (1643.5 cm^{-1} , 2127.5 cm^{-1} , 3404.0 cm^{-1}) which breaks the atoms connections. The fragments H^+ and O^{2-} are very reactive and promote the formation of oxidant species (O_3 , H_2O_2 and $-\text{OH}$) which may effectively act on cell disruption.

An electrolytic reactor was developed for the EFAC experiments. The cathode and anode were made of five 316L-stainless steel bars, resistant oxidative action, measuring $15 \times 5\text{ cm}$, thickness 0.2 mm, and spaced at 5 mm.

In electrolysis using alternating current (AC), an electrode is alternately positive (anode) and negative (cathode). Although the motion of an ion in solution is always uncertain, the presence of an electric field inserts a guided movement component and the ions migrate through the solution.

A direct current/alternating current (DC/AC) converter (HY 125 Hobby, Hayama, Brazil) was used applying a voltage of 12 V and a maximum current of 5 A to generate a frequency band from 0 to 1.5 KHz, corresponding to a range of $0\text{--}4.000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ wave numbers. Experiments were conducted in batch mode. The amount of biomass used during the EFAC trial in a working volume of 2.9 L was 3.6 g.

The autoclave process was carried out at 100 °C for 10 min in a mini-reactor (BR-300, Berghof, Germany) for 200 mL sample volume. After maintaining samples at the set temperature for 10 min, the reactor was opened; the Teflon vessel was removed and cooled to ambient temperature.

Lyophilization was performed after each pretreatment in this block. Dried biomass (500 mg) was diluted with 2.5 mL of methanol, 1.25 mL of chloroform and 1 mL of deionized water and then

homogenized in a shaker for 20 min, after which 1.25 mL of chloroform and 1.25 mL of 1.5% sodium sulfate was added and the solution was held to an additional 2 min of homogenization.

The homogenized sample was centrifuged at 1.000 rpm for 2 min (Excelsa II 206 BL, Famen, Brazil). After that, the chloroform–methanol phase which contains the extracted lipids was separated from the microalgae powder by filtration using a funnel with mild suction followed by the evaporation of the solvent in an oven at 100 °C until constant weight was achieved. The mass of the lipid obtained from each sample was determined gravimetrically.

2.5. Data analysis

The efficiency of each pretreatment method was determined based on the lipid yield which was calculated by the ratio of total lipid extracted and the initial weight of microalgae. Additionally, comparison of methods was performed, taking into account the efficiencies, applicability and energy consumption.

In order to verify any significant differences amongst the parameters, the software Statgraphics® Centurion XV (StatPoint, USA) was used. As the number of samples was small, it was not possible to verify their normality. For this reason, the more conservative non-parametric tests of Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA and Mann–Whitney were applied. The evaluation was made based on *p*-values, using a 95% confidence interval.

Descriptive statistics was performed using the softwares Statgraphics® Centurion XV (StatPoint, USA) and Microcal Origin 8.6 (Originlab, USA).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Microalgae identification in the stabilization pond effluent

In analyzed samples, 12 genera of algae were identified in the pond effluent and divided into four classes (Table 1). Chlorophyceae and Cyanophyceae showed the highest number of taxa, the first group with five and the second with four, followed by Euglenophyceae with two genera and Bacillariophyceae with one.

The genera found in this study are common in eutrophic environments and have been reported in some studies [16,28–31]. These authors also reported the classes Cyanophyceae and Chlorophyceae as the dominant group, since they are well adapted to polluted waters.

3.2. Comparison of pretreatments for lipid yield from microalgal biomass

Statistical analyses showed no significant differences between the pretreatments applied, except for the microwave method

Table 1
Main genera found in microalgae harvested in the stabilization pond.

Class	Genus
Chlorophyceae	<i>Micractinium</i>
	<i>Eudorina</i>
	<i>Chlorella</i>
	<i>Pandorina</i>
	<i>Carteria</i>
Cyanophyceae	<i>Aphanocapsa</i>
	<i>Microcystis</i>
	<i>Oscillatoria</i>
	<i>Planktothrix</i>
Euglenophyceae	<i>Hyalophacus</i>
	<i>Phacus</i>
Bacillariophyceae	<i>Cyclotella</i>

which was significantly different to ultrasonication ($p = 0.004$) and autoclave ($p = 0.005$). In general, microwaving and EFAC presented the highest lipid yields, with percentages of $33.7 \pm 5.3\%$ and $24.8 \pm 7.1\%$, respectively ($p = 0.15$). These methods were followed by autoclave ($15.4 \pm 2.3\%$) and ultrasonication ($13.3 \pm 3.0\%$). In the absence of pretreatment, total lipid extraction reached 4.8% efficiency, showing significant differences with all methods evaluated (Fig. 2).

Previous studies have shown better lipid yields by using microwave as compared to other pretreatment methods. Koberg et al. (2011) [5] compared the efficiency of microwaving with ultrasonication in lipid extraction from *Nannochloropsis* using an ultrasonicator with a frequency of 20 KHz for 5 min and a microwave oven operating at 2.45 GHz for 5 min at 70% power (cycle mode of 21 s on and 9 s off). The authors attributed these results to temperature increases that occurred under microwave radiation. Lee et al. (2010) [22] compared five methods (autoclave, bead-beating, microwave, ultrasonication and osmotic shock), and reported that microwaving, at 100 °C and 2.45 GHz for 5 min, was the most efficient method in extracting lipids from all species of microalgae studied (*Botryococcus* sp., *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Scenedesmus* sp.).

However, other authors have reported contrasting results. Prabakaran and Ravindran (2011) [23] described ultrasonication (using a sonicator at a resonance of 50 Hz for 15 min) as the most efficient among five cell disruption methods tested, including microwaving, for extracting lipids from *Chlorella*. Lee et al. (2010) [22] tested autoclaving and microwaving on three different microalgae species and showed that autoclaving outperformed microwaving for lipid extraction from *Chlorella vulgaris*, whereas microwaving outperformed autoclaving when *Botryococcus* sp. and *Scenedesmus* sp. species were used. The results reported by Lee et al. (2010) [22] suggest that lipid extraction efficiency from microalgae depends on the microalgae species and pretreatment methods involved.

The vast majority of open systems used for microalgae production generate biomass with diverse microalgae communities, especially the ones treating wastewater [32]. For such samples it is very difficult to determine the contribution of each species to the total lipid yield and this highlights the need for more investigations on appropriate extraction methods from complex samples. Wahlen et al. (2011) [8] achieved a lipid content of 14.4%, using ultrasonication for 30 s from microalgae collected from a wastewater

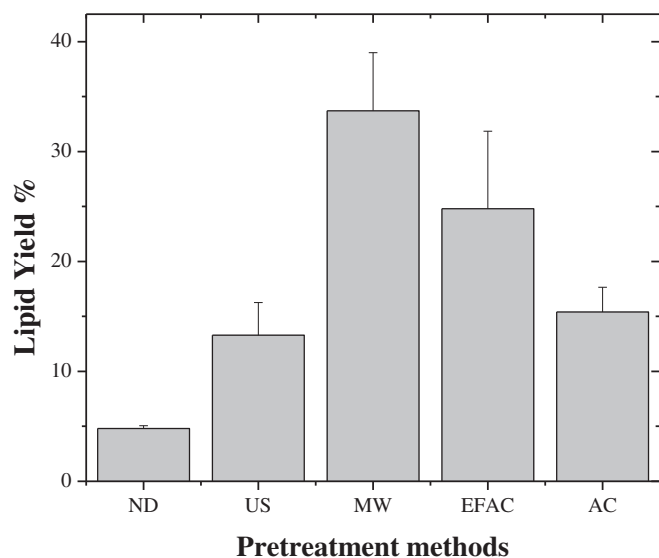


Fig. 2. Lipid extraction efficiencies for different pretreatment methods. ND – no disruption; US – ultrasonication; MW – microwave; EFAC – electroflotation by alternating current; AC – autoclave.

Table 2

Summary of recent studies comparing pretreatment methods for lipid extraction from different microalgal cultures.

Microalgal culture	Pretreatments	Lipid yield (%)	Reference
<i>Nannochloropsis</i>	Microwave	32.8	Koberg et al. (2011) Ref. [5]
	Ultrasonication	18.9	
(Pure cultures)	Autoclave	5.4–11.9	Lee et al. (2010) Ref. [22]
<i>Botryococcus</i> sp.,	Microwave	10–28.6	
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> ,	Ultrasonication	6.1–8.8	Prabakaran and Ravindran (2011) Ref. [23]
<i>Scenedesmus</i> sp.	Microwave	38	
<i>Chlorella</i> sp.	Autoclave	24	
Mixed culture from a raceway pond	Ultrasonication	40	Wahlen et al. (2011) Ref. [8]
	Ultrasonication	14.4	
Mixed culture from stabilization pond	Microwave	33.7	This study
	Autoclave	15.4	
	Ultrasonication	13.3	
	EFAC	24.8	

treatment plant. This value is close to the result obtained in the present study for ultrasonic-assisted extraction (13.3%), although the applied protocols have been significantly different.

Table 2 lists the major results for lipid yield achieved from different microalgal cultures by the above-mentioned authors in comparison with the results achieved in the present study. The current paper describes the first attempt at using EFAC to harvest and disrupt microalgae cells and therefore no direct comparison with previous studies can be made.

4. Conclusions

All cell pretreatment methods analyzed were applicable to microalgal biomass originating from waste stabilization ponds, showing lipid extraction efficiencies significantly higher than the control. Microwaving and EFAC achieved the highest lipid extraction efficiencies and showed no statistically difference between each other.

The authors are currently working on further tests that will guide the scaling-up of EFAC for biodiesel production.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank – CNPq (Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico), CAPES (Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior), organizations of the Brazilian Government for the development of Science and Technology, for the scholarships, along with FINEP (Financiadora de Estudos e Projetos), CAGECE (Companhia de Água e Esgoto do Ceará) and the Royal Society (grant reference number JP090804) for the financial support.

References

- [1] Posten C, Schaub G. Microalgae and terrestrial biomass as source for fuels—a process view. *J Biotechnol* 2009;142:64–9.
- [2] Rawat I, Ranjith Kumar R, Mutanda T, Bux F. Dual role of microalgae: phycoremediation of domestic wastewater and biomass production for sustainable biofuels production. *Appl Energy* 2011;88:3411–24.
- [3] Smith VH, Sturm BS, Denoyelles FJ, Billings SA. The ecology of algal biodiesel production. *Trends Ecol Evol* 2010;25:301–9.
- [4] Halim R, Danquah MK, Webley PA. Extraction of oil from microalgae for biodiesel production: a review. *Biotechnol Adv* 2012;30:709–32.
- [5] Koberg M, Cohen M, Ben-Amotz A, Gedanken A. Bio-diesel production directly from the microalgae biomass of *Nannochloropsis* by microwave and ultrasound radiation. *Bioresour Technol* 2011;102:4265–9.
- [6] Yen HW, Brune DE. Anaerobic co-digestion of algal sludge and waste paper to produce methane. *Bioresour Technol* 2007;98:130–4.

- [7] Brennan L, Owende P. Biofuels from microalgae—a review of technologies for production, processing, and extractions of biofuels and co-products. *Renew Sust Energy Rev* 2010;14:557–77.
- [8] Wahlen BD, Willis RM, Seefeldt LC. Biodiesel production by simultaneous extraction and conversion of total lipids from microalgae, cyanobacteria, and wild mixed-cultures. *Bioresour Technol* 2011;102:2724–30.
- [9] Parmar A, Singh NK, Pandey A, Gnansounou E, Madamwar D. Cyanobacteria and microalgae: a positive prospect for biofuels. *Bioresour Technol* 2011;102:10163–72.
- [10] Chisti Y. Biodiesel from microalgae. *Biotechnol Adv* 2007;25:294–306.
- [11] Amaro HM, Guedes AC, Malcata FX. Advances and perspectives in using microalgae to produce biodiesel. *Appl Energy* 2011;88:3402–10.
- [12] Lam MK, Lee KT. Microalgae biofuels: a critical review of issues, problems and the way forward. *Biotechnol Adv* 2012;30:673–90.
- [13] Singh J, Gu S. Commercialization potential of microalgae for biofuels production. *Renew Sustain Energy Rev* 2010;14:2596–610.
- [14] Cheng CH, Du TB, Pi HC, Jang SM, Lin YH, Lee HT. Comparative study of lipid extraction from microalgae by organic solvent and supercritical CO₂. *Bioresour Technol* 2011;102:10151–3.
- [15] Pittman JK, Dean AP, Osundeko O. The potential of sustainable algal biofuel production using wastewater resources. *Bioresour Technol* 2011;102:17–25.
- [16] Furtado A, Calijuri M, Lorenzi A, Honda R, Genuário D, Fiore M. Morphological and molecular characterization of cyanobacteria from a Brazilian facultative wastewater stabilization pond and evaluation of microcystin production. *Hydrobiol* 2009;627:195–209.
- [17] Uduman N, Bourniquel V, Danquah MK, Hoadley AFA. A parametric study of electrocoagulation as a recovery process of marine microalgae for biodiesel production. *Chem Eng J* 2011;174:249–57.
- [18] Kanda H, Li P. Simple extraction method of green crude from natural blue-green microalgae by dimethyl ether: extraction efficiency on several species compared to the Bligh-Dyer's method. In: *World Renewable Energy Congress, Sweden* 2011. p. 7.
- [19] Molina Grima E, Belarbia E-H, Acien Fernandez FG, Robles Medina A, Chisti Y. Recovery of microalgal biomass and metabolites: process options and economics. *Biotechnol Adv* 2003;20(7–8):491–515.
- [20] Halim R, Gladman B, Danquah MK, Webley PA. Oil extraction from microalgae for biodiesel production. *Bioresour Technol* 2011;102:178–85.
- [21] Kita K, Okada S, Sekino H, Imou K, Yokoyama S, Amano T. Thermal pre-treatment of wet microalgae harvest for efficient hydrocarbon recovery. *Appl Energy* 2010;87:2420–3.
- [22] Lee JY, Yoo C, Jun SY, Ahn CY, Oh HM. Comparison of several methods for effective lipid extraction from microalgae. *Bioresour Technol* 2010;101(Suppl. 1):S75–7.
- [23] Prabakaran P, Ravindran AD. A comparative study on effective cell disruption methods for lipid extraction from microalgae. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 2011;53:150–4.
- [24] Bellinger EG, Sigeo DC. *Freshwater algae – identification and use as bio-indicators*. Great Britain: Wiley-Blackwell; 2010.
- [25] Huynh M, Serediak N. *Algae identification – field guide*, in, Canada; 2006. p. 40.
- [26] Bligh EG, Dyer WJ. A rapid method of total lipid extraction and purification. *Can J Biochem Physiol* 1959;37:911–7.
- [27] Hewitt PG. *Conceptual physics*. 9th ed., New York: Addison Wesley; 2001. p. 789.
- [28] Athayde STS. *Algal and bacterial dynamics in waste stabilization ponds and wastewater storage and treatment reservoirs*. University of Liverpool; 2001.
- [29] Chellappa NT, Borba JM, Rocha O. Phytoplankton community and physical-chemical characteristics of water in the public reservoir of Cruzeta, RN, Brazil. *Braz J Biol* 2008;68:18.
- [30] Pearson H. In: IWA, editor. *Microbiology of waste stabilization ponds*. Londres: Integrated Environmental Technology; 2008. p. 479.
- [31] Shanthala M, Hosmani SP, Hosetti BB. Diversity of phytoplanktons in a waste stabilization pond at Shimoga Town, Karnataka State, India. *Environ Monit Assess* 2009;151:437–43.
- [32] Eland LE, Davenport R, Mota CR. Evaluation of DNA extraction methods for freshwater eukaryotic microalgae. *Water Res* 2012;46:5355–64.