1 **Sustainable harvesting of microalgae by coupling chitosan flocculation and electro-**

2 **floatation**

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16

17 **Abstract.** Microalgae have been widely used as animal feeds, healthcare products and food

18 additives; however, it still remains a challenge to harvest them safely and effectively from

19 growth medium. In this study, we tested a green method for microalgae harvesting by coupling

20 chitosan flocculation and electro-floatation. Results demonstrated that microalgae can be

21 preliminarily flocculated into unstable flocs by chitosan, and then floated by electro-floatation,

22 during which chitosan was charged by electrolysis and activated to flocculate microalgae,

23 producing a positive priming effect. It is possibly amino groups of chitosan were positively

24 charged by electrolysis, increasing the charge neutralization ability for microalgae flocculation.

25 Thus, the use of stronger current yielded a higher harvesting efficiency at a lower chitosan

26 dosage. At the current intensity of 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 A, microalgae harvesting efficiency reached

27 a maximum of 33.2%, 59.6% and 63.5%, and the optimal chitosan dosage was 6.0, 4.0 and 2.0

28 mg L^{-1}, respectively. The use of edible chitosan and inert carbon electrodes makes it possible

29 to harvest microalgae biomass safely for food or healthcare use and achieve sustainable

30 utilization of culture medium, which will be beneficial to microalgae-based engineering.

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32 **Keywords:** microalgae harvesting, chitosan flocculation, electro-floatation, sustainable

33 utilization, microalgae-based engineering

34

Introduction

In recent years, microalgae have been widely used as animal feeds, healthcare products and food additives.[1,2] Microalgae are more nutritious than traditional animal and aquatic feed like millet, grams and other small fishes in terms of protein, omega 3 fatty acids and carotenoids content.[3,4] Several kinds of antioxidant compounds have been extracted from microalgae to protect against oxidative stress, a cause of many diseases and aging.[1,5] However, it still remains a challenge to find an effective and especially safe method for microalgae harvesting.

Many physical and chemical methods have been tested to harvest microalgae, including sedimentation, centrifugation, filtration, chemical flocculation and electro-flocculation. Sedimentation is simple but time-consuming and only suitable for harvesting large-size microalgae, since most of microalgae have similar density to water, negative surface charge, and thereby low settling velocities.[6] Centrifugation and filtration are rapid but less cost-effective, limiting their applications at large scale.[7,8] Mata *et al*. (2010) considered that filtration consumes large amounts of membranes and pumping energy, especially for harvesting unicellular small microalgae cells.[8] Chemical flocculation and electro-flocculation are rapid and effective, but residual chemical flocculants in the harvested biomass pose potential health risks and limit their utilizations as food and healthcare products.[9] So far, there are few safe and effective technologies for microalgae harvesting.

Chitosan is the second-most abundant natural biopolymer, which is mainly derived from the shells of shrimp and other crustaceans.[10,11] It has received widespread applications in food and pharmaceutical industries due to its biological compatibility, biodegradability, and nontoxic

56   properties.[12,13] Chitosan has positively charged amine groups and thereby exhibits flocculation

57   potentials for negatively charged microalgae.[14] Pan *et al.* (2011) used chitosan to flocculate

58   microalgae cells and then sink them with the aid of soil particles, achieving effective harmful

59   microalgae removal in Lake Taihu, China.[15] Electro-floatation is a separation process in which

60   solids are separated from liquid by micro-bubbles produced from electrode surfaces.[16] It has

61   been widely used to remove floatable materials including activated sludge, oil, surfactants, and

62   flocculants etc.[17,18] The use of non-sacrificial electrodes in electro-floatation will not introduce

63   chemical flocculants.[19,20] Hence, if microalgae are preliminarily flocculated into unstable flocs

64   by chitosan, and then floated by electro-floatation using non-sacrificial electrodes, it is possibly

65   to harvest microalgae biomass safely and effectively.

66   In this study, we proposed a new method for edible microalgae harvesting by coupling chitosan

67   flocculation and electro-floatation using carbon electrodes, and tested it at different operation

68   conditions. The surface charge of microalgae cells was measured to explore the underlying

69   mechanisms. The responses of growth medium to microalgae harvesting were also investigated

70   to evaluate the feasibility of sustainable utilization of culture medium. The objective of this

71   study is to develop a green method for the harvesting of edible microalgae.

72   **Materials and methods**

73   **Microalgae species and culture**

74   In this study, *Chlorella vulgaris* (*C. vulgaris*), an edible green microalgae species, was chosen

75   to test the new harvesting method.[21,22] Here, *C. vulgaris* cells (FACHB-24) were purchased

76   from the Institute of Hydrobiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, and cultured in the BG11

77 medium, which consists of 500 mg L^{-1} Bicin, 100 mg L^{-1} KNO_3, 100 mg L^{-1} b-$C_3H_7O_6PNa_2$,

78 50 mg L^{-1} $NaNO_3$, 50 mg L^{-1} $Ca(NO_3)_2 \cdot 4H_2O$, 50 mg L^{-1} $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, 40 mg L^{-1} Na_2SO_4, 20

79 mg L^{-1} H_3BO_3, 5 mg L^{-1} Na_2EDTA, 5 mg L^{-1} $MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$, 5 mg L^{-1} $CoCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ and 0.8 mg

80 L^{-1} $Na_2MoO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$, 0.5 mg L^{-1} $FeCl_3 \cdot 6H_2O$ and 0.5 mg L^{-1} $ZnCl_2$. The batch cultures were

81 conducted in an illuminating incubator (LRH-250-G, Guangdong Medical Apparatus Co., Ltd.,

82 China) with continuous cool white fluorescent light of 2500 ± 500 lux on a 12 h light and 12 h

83 darkness regime at the temperature of $30 \pm 1°C$.

Microalgae harvesting system

85 The microalgae harvesting system consists of a flat stir paddle (Zhongrun Water Industry

86 Technology Development Co., Ltd., China) for mixing during chitosan flocculation and two

87 round carbon electrode plates (Jinjia Metal Co., Ltd., China) for electro-floatation (Fig. 1). The

88 carbon electrode plate has a surface area of 55.4 cm^2 and a thickness of 0.2 cm, which was

89 horizontally installed at the bottom with a gap of 2 cm between the two plates. There are 85

90 small round holes on each carbon electrode plate to allow gas bubbles freely pass it during

91 electrolysis, such that the effective surface area was 38.7 cm^2. The electric current was supplied

92 by a direct current power supply (DF1730SL5A, Ningbo Zhongce Dftek Electronics Co., Ltd.,
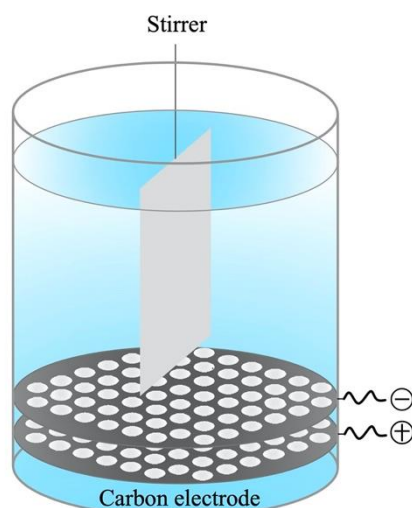
93 China).

94

Fig. 1. The schematic diagram of microalgae harvesting system.

Microalgae harvesting test

C. vulgaris culture at the exponential growth phase was used in the microalgae harvesting test.

The initial cell concentration was set to 3.63×10^{10} cells L^{-1}. 0.5 L of readily prepared *C.*

vulgaris solution was transferred to the harvesting cell. Water-soluble chitosan was purchased

from Qingdao Yunzhou Bioengineering Co. Ltd., China. Prior to the test, a chitosan stock

solution (2 g L^{-1}) was prepared as follows: 1 g chitosan was added to 0.5 L distilled water and

completely diluted by stirring. After chitosan was added, the microalgae solution was stirred

at 200 rpm for 2 min and 40 rpm for another 10 min; electro-floatation was started in the last 5

min during chitosan flocculation. The microalgae solution was allowed to stand for 10 min,

and then water samples were carefully collected from an outlet 2 cm above the carbon electrode

plate to enumerate the cell number using an Axioskop 2 mot plus microscope (Carl ZEISS,

Germany). The microalgae harvesting efficiency was calculated as (initial cell concentration-

sample cell concentration)/initial cell concentration $\times$ 100%. In the test, the chitosan dosage

109   was set to 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 and 15 mg L^{-1}, and the current density was set to 0, 0.2, 0.4 and

110   0.6 A. All the tests were conducted in triplicate at the raw microalgae solution pH of 8.6.

111   The surface charge of microalgae cells was characterized using a Zetasizer 2000 (Malvern Co.

112   United Kingdom). To study the responses of culture medium to microalgae harvesting, medium

113   nutrients (phosphate, ammonium and nitrate) were measured according to Chinese Monitoring

114   Analysis Method of Water and Wastewater;[23] medium pH and temperature were measured

115   using a Yellow Springs Instruments (Yellow Springs, Ohio, USA) before and after microalgae

116   harvesting.

Cost evaluation

118   The cost of microalgae harvesting was estimated by summing flocculants and energy costs per

119   unit of harvested microalgae biomass as follows:

120
$$Cost = (Cost_{floccluation} + Cost_{eletrofloatation})/W_{biomass} \tag{1}$$

121
$$Cost_{floccluation} = Cost_{chitosan} + Cost_{mixting\ energy} \tag{2}$$

122
$$Cost_{eletrofloatation} = Cost_{eletrolysis\ energy} \tag{3}$$

123
$$Cost_{chitosan} = C * v * a \tag{4}$$

124
$$Cost_{mixing\ energy} = P * T * b \tag{5}$$

125
$$Cost_{eletrolysis\ energy} = U * I * t * b \tag{6}$$

126
$$W_{biomass} = v * \beta * \theta * \sigma \tag{7}$$

127   where C is the chitosan dosage, mg L^{-1}; v is the volume of microalgae solution, L; a is the

128   chitosan price, which is 0.03 USD g^{-1} ; P is the stirrer power, which is 40 W; T is the stirring

129   time, h; b is the electric power price, which is 0.08 USD (kWh)$^{-1}$; U is the electrolysis voltage,

130   V; I is the current intensity, A; t is the electrolysis time, h; β is the initial microalgae

131   concentration, cell L^{-1}; θ is the microalgae harvesting efficiency, %; σ is the weight per

132   microalgae cell, 32×10^{-12} g cell^{-1}.

133   **Data analysis**

134   One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to test the statistical significance of

135   differences between treatments. Post-hoc multiple comparisons of treatment means were

136   performed using the Tukey's least significant difference procedure. All statistical calculations

137   were performed using the SPSS (v22.0) statistical package for personal computers. The level

138   of significance was $P < 0.05$ for all tests.

139   **Results**

140   **Surface charge properties of chitosan and *C. vulgaris* cells**

141   The isoelectric point of chitosan was pH 9.7, making it possess net positive charges under most

142   microalgae culture conditions. The zeta potential of chitosan kept above +1.5 mV in the wide

143   pH range of < 9.0, and then decreased to nearly zero at pH 9.7. In contrast, the zeta potential

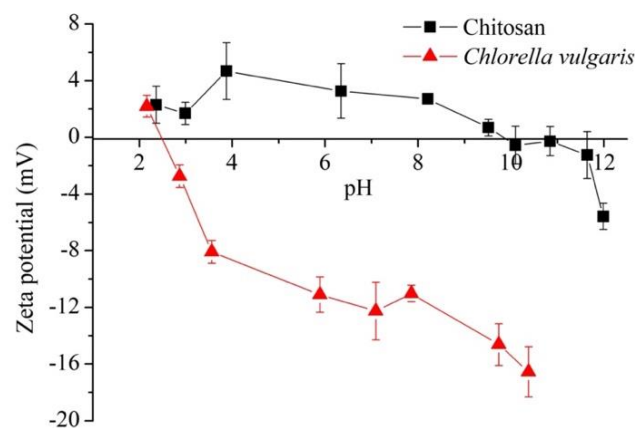144   of *C. vulgaris* cells kept below zero in the pH range of > 2.5 (Fig. 2).

145

146 **Fig. 2.** The surface charge properties of chitosan and *C. vulgaris* cells. Error bars indicate

147 standard deviations.

148 **Microalgae harvesting efficiency**

149 The use of chitosan flocculation alone only achieved limited microalgae harvesting no matter

150 what the chitosan dosage was. The microalgae harvesting efficiency reached 16.9% at the

151 chitosan dosage of 2 mg L^{-1} and maintained stably at this value as the chitosan dosage further

152 increased. Similarly, the use of electro-floatation alone could not effectively harvest microalgae

153 either and the harvesting efficiency was only 4.5%, 13.4% and 22.9% at the current intensity

154 of 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 A, respectively. When chitosan flocculation and electro-floatation were used

155 together, the microalgae harvesting was greatly improved by increasing harvesting efficiency

156 and simultaneously decreasing the optimal chitosan dosage, and this effect was enhanced as

157 the current density increased. When the current intensity of 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 A was applied,

158 microalgae harvesting efficiency reached a maximum of 33.2%, 59.6% and 63.5%, and the

159 optimal chitosan dosage was 6.0, 4.0 and 2.0 mg L^{-1}, respectively. However, a remarkable

160 decrease in microalgae harvesting efficiency was observed as chitosan was overdosed at the

161 current intensity of 0.4 and 0.6 A, and the harvesting efficiency decreased to 35.2% at the

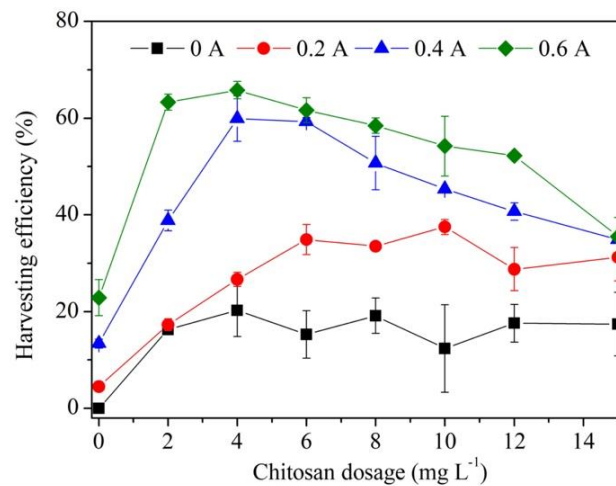162 chitosan dosage of 15 mg L^{-1} (Fig. 3).

163

Fig. 3. Effects of chitosan dosage and current density on microalgae harvesting efficiency.

Error bars indicate standard deviations.

Microalgae surface charge

After chitosan was added, the zeta potential of microalgae cells showed a remarkable increase.

The zeta potential of microalgae cells was gradually increased from –9.2 to –0.9 mV as the

chitosan dosage increased from 0 to 15 mg L^{-1}. The use of electro-floatation further increased

the zeta potential of microalgae cells, indicating a charging effect, and this effect was enhanced

as the current intensity increased (Fig. 4A). When the current density of 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 A was

applied, the zeta potential of microalgae cells was finally increased to +7.3, +8.4 and +10.6

mV at the chitosan dosage of 15 mg L^{-1}, respectively. The charging effect was further evaluated

by subtracting the zeta potential of microalgae cells in presence of electro-floatation from the

value in the absence of electro-floatation. It exhibited chitosan limitation at low chitosan

dosages and current limitation at high chitosan dosages (Fig. 4B). As the chitosan dosage

increased, the increase amplitude of zeta potential gradually increased and then reached an

equilibrium; the use of higher intensity currents yielded a higher equilibrium value at a lower

10

179   chitosan dosage. At the current intensity of 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 A, the increase amplitude of zeta

180   potential of microalgae cells reached a maximum of 9.3, 11.0 and 11.5 mV, and the optimal

181   chitosan dosage was 2, 4 and 8 mg L^{-1}, respectively. In contrast, in the absence of chitosan,

182   there were no significant differences in zeta potential of microalgae cells among different

183   intensity currents ($P < 0.05$), and the zeta potential values kept stably at –9.4 mV at the chitosan

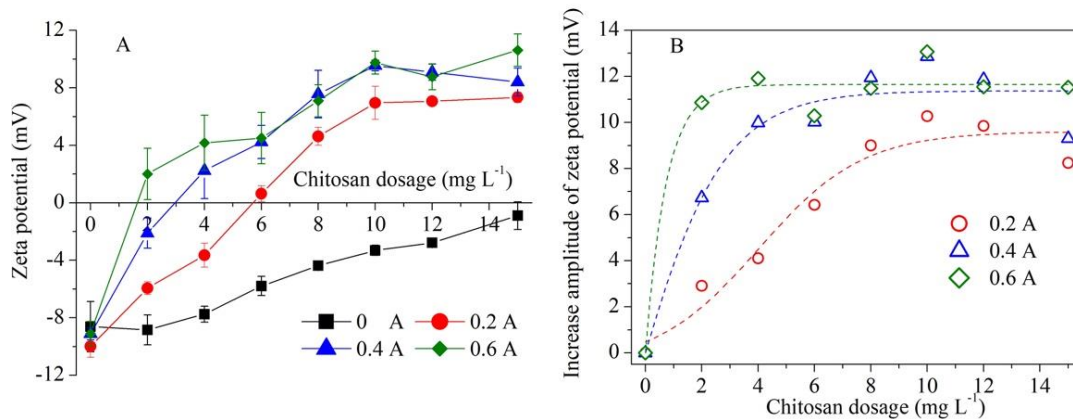184   dosage of 0 mg L^{-1} (Fig. 4A).

185

186   **Fig. 4.** Changes of microalgae cell surface change during microalgae harvesting. (A) Zeta

187   potential of microalgae cells; (B) The charging effect of electro-floatation. Error bars indicate

188   standard deviations.

189   **Microalgae culture medium**

190   Compared with chitosan flocculation alone, ammonium in culture medium was significantly

191   increased after electro-floatation was introduced ($P < 0.05$), and the use of higher intensity

192   currents yielded higher ammonium concentrations. After microalgae harvesting, ammonium

193   concentration maintained stably below 0.2 mg L^{-1} in chitosan flocculation alone, and was

194   increased to 1.0, 1.6 and 2.2 mg L^{-1} when electro-floatation was applied at the current intensity

195   of 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 A, respectively (Fig. 5A). In contrast, there were no significant changes in

196 other parameters observed after microalgae harvesting ($P > 0.05$). In all the tests, medium

197 nitrate and phosphate maintained stably at 250.9 and 4.66 mg L^{-1} (Fig. 5B); medium pH,

198 conductivity, and temperature maintained stably at 7.0, 2.4 mS cm^{-1} and 19.6°C, respectively
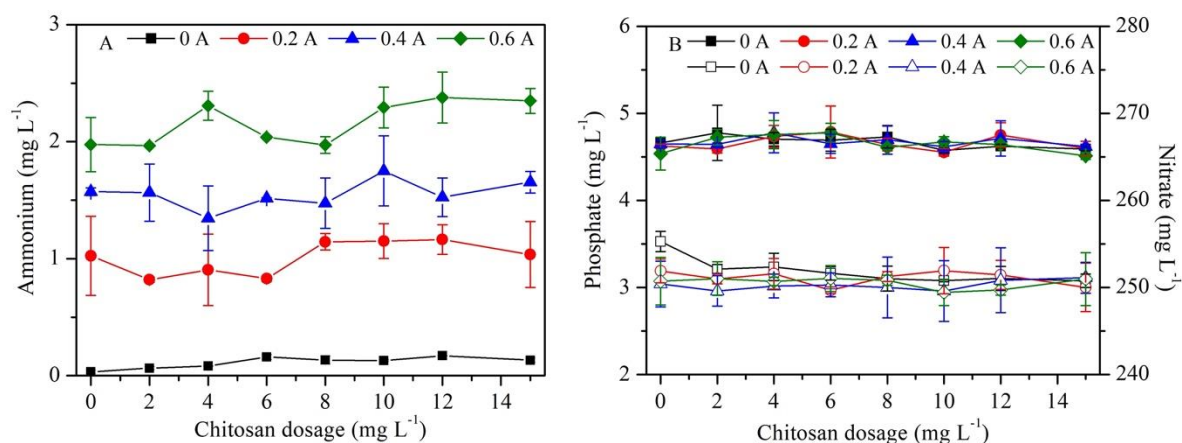
199 (Table S2).

200

201 **Fig. 5.** Changes of nutrients in culture medium after microalgae harvesting. (A) Ammonium;

202 (B) Phosphate and nitrate. Error bars indicate standard deviations.

203 **Microalgae harvesting cost**

204 Compared with chitosan flocculation (0.08×10^{-3} USD g^{-1} biomass), it costed much more to

205 harvest microalgae using electro-floatation, reaching 2.83×10^{-3}, 2.76×10^{-3} and 3.30×10^{-3}

206 USD g^{-1} biomass at the 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 A, respectively. When chitosan flocculation and electro-

207 floatation were used together, the cost could be greatly reduced, but exhibited a potential

208 increase as the current intensity increased. The cost reached 0.41×10^{-3}, 0.64×10^{-3} and 1.18

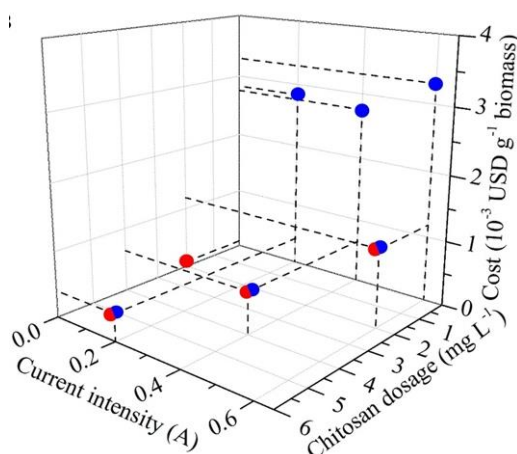209 $\times 10^{-3}$ USD g^{-1} biomass at 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 A, respectively.

210

Fig. 6. The cost evaluation for microalgae harvesting using the coupled chitosan flocculation

and electro-flocculation. The single red and blue circles indicated chitosan flocculation and

electro-floatation were used alone, respectively. The combined red and blue circles indicated

that chitosan flocculation and electro-floatation were used together.

Discussion

The synergistic effect of chitosan flocculation and electro-floatation

Microalgae particles have negative surface charge and often stably suspend in the solution with

electrostatic repulsion.[24,25] Charge neutralization is an essential step in microalgae flocculation,

which eliminates energy barrier for microalgae aggregation.[26-28] Chitosan is positively charged

over a wide range of pH < 9.7, which made it obtain flocculation potential for negatively

charged microalgae (Fig. 2). However, most of the formed microalgae flocs still suspended

with the aid of buoyancy. The zeta potential of microalgae cells showed a remarkable increase

as the chitosan dosage increase (Fig. 4). As a result, the use of chitosan flocculation alone

yielded limited microalgae harvesting efficiency whatever the chitosan dosage was (Fig. 3).

After electro-floatation was introduced, large amounts of tiny gas bubbles were produced,

226 carrying the flocs to water surface where they can be easily collected (Fig. S1). Microalgae

227 harvesting efficiency were therefore remarkably increased when chitosan flocculation and

228 electro-floatation were used together (Fig. 3). However, the use of electro-floatation alone

229 could not effectively harvest microalgae either. This is because microalgae cells stably suspend

230 with electrostatic repulsion, and it is difficult to float them by bubbles without preliminary

231 flocculation.[29]

232 **The positive priming effect of electro-floatation on chitosan flocculation**

233 Chitosan was appointed to neutralize microalgae surface charge for microalgae flocculation

234 (Fig.2 and Fig. 4). Surprisingly, after electro-floatation was introduced, the zeta potential of

235 microalgae cells differed at the same chitosan dosage, depending on current intensity applied.

236 The zeta potential of microalgae cells generally exhibited an increase as the current intensity

237 increased, but this effect disappeared in the absence of chitosan (Fig. 4A). It indicated that

238 electrolysis charged chitosan and increased its charge neutralization ability for microalgae

239 flocculation, producing a positive priming effect. This explained that the use of higher current

240 density yielded higher microalgae harvesting efficiency at a lower optimal chitosan dosage.

241 There are a lot of amino groups on the chain of chitosan, which were possibly charged by

242 electrolysis during electro-floatation.[30] At the low chitosan dosage, the receptor capacity was

243 limited and the charging effect of electrolysis exhibited a chitosan limitation. As the chitosan

244 dosage increased, chitosan limitation was transferred to current limitation (Fig. 4B), and the

245 stronger current has a higher charging effect. However, excess loads of positive charges can

246 cause microalgae cells positively charged and re-establish electrostatic repulsion.[31] Thus, a

247   remarkable decrease in microalgae harvesting efficiency was observed as chitosan was

248   overdosed at the high current intensity (0.4 and 0.6 A, Fig. 3).

249   **Recommendations for future applications**

250   In the microalgae-based engineering, culture medium reuse can offer a promising strategy for

251   saving water and nutrients.[32,33] Because of the electrolysis, the physico-chemical properties of

252   culture medium may change after microalgae harvesting.[34,35] For instance, water temperature

253   may increase as waste heat releases. However, there were no significant changes in medium

254   pH ($P > 0.05$), temperature ($P > 0.05$) and conductivity ($P > 0.05$) after microalgae harvesting

255   in this study (Table S1), which is possibly due to weak electrolysis (low current intensity and

256   short electrolysis time). As for main nutrients, there was a significant increase in ammonium

257   ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 5A). We attributed it to the transformation from nitrate to ammonium under

258   electrolysis according to our additional experiments (Fig. S2). During electrolysis, nitrate

259   reduction ($NO_3^- + 10H^+ + 8e^- = NH_4^+ + 3H_2O$) can occur at the cathode, releasing ammonium

260   to the medium.[36,37] Thus, the stronger current had a higher ammonium yield (Fig.5A and Fig.

261   S2). However, we did not detect the significant decrease in nitrate ($P > 0.05$, Fig. 5B) because

262   of the extremely high levels of nitrate in the BG11 medium (> 250 mg L^{-1}). The shift of nitrate

263   to ammonium can increase nitrogen bioavailability since ammonium is generally favored by

264   microalgae relative to nitrate.[38-40] In contrast, phosphate did not show significant changes after

265   microalgae harvesting ($P > 0.05$, Fig. 5B) due to the use of non-sacrificial electrodes, which

266   differs with the decrease of phosphate concentration by electrolysis using Fe/Al electrodes.[41,42]

267   Hence, nutrient bioavailability increase and other parameter stability (Fig. 5B, Table S2) make

268   medium reusable for microalgae continuous culture.

269   In practical applications, cost is often another major concern for a technology. For the

270   microalgae harvesting technology in this study, there was a trade-off between the harvesting

271   efficiency and the cost, since the cost exhibited a potential increase as the current intensity

272   increased (Fig. 6). It will be cost-effective to apply the low current intensity to harvest

273   microalgae in the continuous system, and the remaining cells can benefit microalgae recovery.

274   Despite the microalgae harvesting efficiency was greatly increased by coupling chitosan

275   flocculation and electro-floatation (Fig. 3), it may be further increased by optimizing operation

276   condition or screening other edible flocculants, such as *moringa oleifera* and tannin.[43,44]

277   **Conclusions**

278   Microalgae harvesting is a crucial step but still remains a challenge for microalgae-based

279   engineering. This study proposed a green way to harvest microalgae by coupling chitosan

280   flocculation and electro-floatation. Microalgae can be preliminarily flocculated into unstable

281   flocs by chitosan, and then floated by electro-floatation; electro-floatation charged chitosan and

282   activated it to flocculate microalgae, producing a positive priming effect. The use of edible

283   chitosan and inert carbon electrodes makes it possible to harvest microalgae biomass safely

284   and effectively for food or healthcare use and achieve the sustainable utilization of culture

285   medium. Further studies are needed to optimize operation conditions to increase harvesting

286   efficiency and reduce the cost.

287   **Acknowledgments**

292   **Supporting Information**

293   The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the web.

294   The microalgae floc image; the effects of electrolysis using carbon electrodes on BG11 medium;

295   changes of physical properties of growth medium after microalgae harvesting.

296   **Notes**

297   The authors declare no competing financial interest.

298

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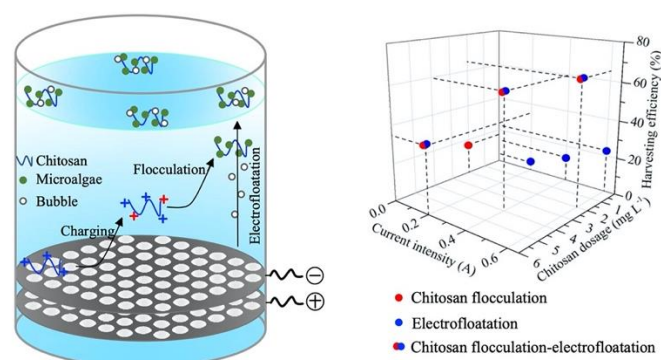
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426   Synopsis: A green method for harvesting microalgae biomass will be beneficial to microalgae-

427   based engineering for healthcare and food use.