**Review Article** 

# ALGAECULTURE: AN ALTERNATIVE TO SOLVING ENERGY SUSTAINABILITY CRISES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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## 5 ABSTRACT

There is an impending need to reduce the dependency on fossil fuels in these areas of the world 6 considering the ever depleting conventional oil resources and climate change, induced by 7 greenhouse gas emissions. Algae are currently being prompted as an ideal next generation 8 9 bioenergy feedstock due to the fact that they do not compete with food or feed crops. They also 10 produce much higher areal oil yields than the current agricultural crops. They can be produced on barren lands and have broad bioenergy potentials as they can be used to produce liquid 11 12 transportation and heating fuels such as biodiesel and ethanol, or anaerobically digested to produce biogas. Algae are fast growing organisms capable of fixing high amount of carbon 13 14 dioxide through photosynthesis to produce biomass. Diverse technologies are currently being pursued to produce algae for bioenergy applications. 15

## 16 KEYWORDS: Algae, Biofuel, Greenhouse, Bioenergy, Feedstock

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## 18 INTRODUCTION

Escalating fuel prices, the emerging concern about global warming that is associated with 19 20 burning fossil fuels, quest for economic growth, fighting poverty and the growing demand for 21 petroleum products have spurred new interest in the search for alternative sources of natural oil 22 for fuel (Abubakar et al., 2012). Microalgae are photosynthetic microorganisms that convert sunlight, water and carbon dioxide to algal biomass. Many microalgae are excitingly rich in oil 23 24 (Chisti, 2007) which can be converted to biodiesel using existing technology. Microalgae are fast growing unicellular or simple multicellular microorganism which have the ability to fix 25 carbondioxide( $CO_2$ ) while capturing solar energy at an efficiency 10 to 50 times greater than that 26 of terrestrial plants and higher biomass production compared to energy crops (Wang et al., 27 2008). Microalgae areknown for their rapid growth and high energy content. The main 28 environmental factors influencing micro algal growth and chemical composition are light, 29

nutrients, temperature and pH (Rousch et al., 2003). Microalgae have several advantages, 30 including higher photosynthetic efficiency as well as higher growth rates and higher biomass 31 production compared to other energy crops. Several micro algae strains have been reported to 32 have the ability to accumulate large quantities of lipids. It has also been observed that nitrogen 33 limitation leads to an increase of lipid content in some chlorella strains (Reiten et al., 34 35 1994). Previous studies have confirmed that lipid content in some micro algae strains could be increased by various cultivation conditions (Illman et al., 2000), under stress conditions a lipid 36 production of 30%-60% of dry cell weight has been reported, one can only imagine the yields 37 under favourable conditions. Since fatty acid methyl esters originating from vegetable oils and 38 animal fats are known as biodiesel, from the energetic point of view, lipids are the most desirable 39 components of microalgae cells (Sostaric et al., 2009). In addition the organic matter produced by 40 41 photosynthetic microalgae can be transformed into a wide range of valuable products, such as biodiesel, food additives and health-care products (Pulz and Gross, 2004). Algal-oil processes 42 into biodiesel as easily as oil derived from land-based crops. Algae have much faster growthrates 43 than terrestrial crops. The per unit area yield of oil from algae is estimated to be from between 44 45 5,000 to 20,000 gallons (18,927 to 75,708 litres) per acre, per year; this is 7 to 31 times greater than the next best crop, palm oil (635 gallons or 2,404 litres). Many companies are pursuing the 46 47 development of algae bioreactors for various purposes, including biodiesel production and CO<sub>2</sub> capturing (Veridium Patents Yellowstone, 2007). This paper highlights the potential of 48 microalgae for sustainably providing biodiesel for displacement of petroleum-derived transport 49 fuels, such as gasoline, jet fuel and diesel. 50

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## 52 Algae Cultivation

## 53 Raceway Ponds

A raceway pond is made of a closed looprecirculation channel that is typically about 0.3m deep. Mixing and circulation are produced by apaddlewheel. Flow is guided around bends bybaffles placed in the flow channel. Raceway channelsare built in concrete or compacted earth, and may belined with white plastic.. Broth is harvested behindthe paddlewheel, on completion of the circulation loop.The paddlewheel operates all the time to preventsedimentation.Raceway ponds for mass culture of microalgae havebeen used since the 1950s. Extensive experience existson operation and engineering of raceways. Evaporative water loss can be significant. Because of significant losses to atmosphere, raceways use carbon dioxide much less efficiently thanphotobioreactors. Productivity is affected by contamination with unwanted algae and microorganisms thatfeed on algae. The biomass concentration remains lowbecause raceways are poorly mixed and cannot sustainan optically dark zone. Raceways are perceived to be less expensive than photobioreactors, because theycost less to build and operate. Although raceways arelow-cost, they have a low biomass productivity compared with photo-bioreactors.

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## 68 **Photo-bioreactors**

69 Unlike open raceways, photo-bioreactors permitessentially single-species culture of microalgae

70 forprolonged durations. Photo-bioreactors have been successfully used for producing large

71 quantities of microalgalbiomass (Carvalho *et al.*, 2006).

A tubular photo-bioreactor consists of an array ofstraight transparent tubes that are usually made of plasticor glass. This tubular array, or the solar collector, iswhere the sunlight is captured (Fig. 1). The solar collector tubes are generally 0.1m or less in diameter. Tubediameter is limited because light does not penetrate toodeeply in the dense culture broth that is necessary forensuring a high biomass productivity of the photo-bioreactor.

77 Microalgal broth is circulated from a reservoirto the solar collector and back to the reservoir.

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80 Figure 1: A tubular photobioreactor with parallel run horizontal tubes

The solar collector is oriented to maximize sunlightcapture (Molina *et al.*, 1999; Sánchez *et al.*, 1999). In a typical arrangement, the solar tubes are placed parallel to each other and flat above the ground (Fig. 1). Horizontal, parallel straight tubes are sometimes arranged like a fence, in attempts to increase thenumber of tubes that can be accommodated in a given area. The ground beneath the solar collector is often painted white, or covered with white sheets of plastic (Tredici,

1999), to increase reflectance, or albedo. A highalbedo increases the total light received by the tubes. Biomass sedimentation in tubes is prevented bymaintaining highly turbulent flow. Flow is producedusing either a mechanical pump (Fig. 1), or a gentlerairlift pump. Mechanical pumps can damage the biomass (Mazzuca et al., 2006), but are easy to design, install and operate. 

- Table 1: Comparison of photo-bioreactor and raceway production methods

	VARIABLE	PHOTO-BIOREACTOR	<b>RACEWAY PONDS</b>
		FACILITY	
	Annual biomass	100,000	100,000
	production (kg)		
	Volumetric productivity	1.535	0.117
	$(kg/m^3/d)$		
	Areal productivity	0.048 <sup>a</sup>	0.035 <sup>b</sup>
	$(kg/m^2/d)$	0.072 <sup>c</sup>	
	Biomass concentration	4.00	0.14
	in broth (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )		
	Area needed (m <sup>2</sup> )	5681	7828
	Oil yield (m <sup>3</sup> /ha)	136.9 <sup>d</sup>	99.4 <sup>d</sup>
		58.7 <sup>e</sup>	42.6 <sup>e</sup>
	Annual CO <sub>2</sub>	183,333	183,333
	consumption (kg)	2	
	Number of units	6	8
92	<sup>a</sup> Based on facility area.		
93	<sup>b</sup> Based on actual pond area.		
94	<sup>c</sup> Based on projected area of p	hoto-bioreactor tubes.	
95	<sup>d</sup> Based on 70% by wt oil in b	iomass.	
96	<sup>e</sup> Based on 30% by wt oil in b	iomass.	
97	(Christi, 2007)		
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## 102 Algae Oils

Oil content of some microalgae exceeds 80% of the dry weight of algae biomass. Agricultural oil crops, such as soybean and oil palm, are widely being used to produce biodiesel; however, they produce oils in amounts that are miniscule (e.g. less than 5% of total biomass basis) compared with microalgae (Chisti, 2007). As a consequence, oil crops can provide only small quantities of biodiesel for blending with petroleum diesel at a level of a few percent, but they are incapable of providing the large quantities of biodiesel that are necessary to eventually displace all petroleumsourced transport fuels (Chisti, 2007).

A conceptual process for producing microalgal oils for making biodiesel is shown in Plate 1. The process consists of a microalgal biomass production step that requires light, carbon dioxide, water and inorganic nutrients. The latter are mainly nitrates, phosphates, iron and some trace elements. Sea water supplemented with commercial nitrate and phosphate fertilizers, and a few other micronutrients, is commonly used for growing marine microalgae (Molina *et al.*, 1999).

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Plate 1: A conceptual process for producing microalgal oil for biodiesel

Approximately half of the dry weight of the microalgal biomass is carbon (Sanchez. *et al.*, 2003), which is typically derived from carbon dioxide. Therefore, producing 100 tons of algal biomass fixes roughly 183 tons of carbon dioxide. This carbon dioxide must be fed continually during daylight hours. Microalgal biomass production can potentially make use of some of the carbon dioxide that is released in power plants by burning fossil fuels (Sawayama *et al.*, 1995). The

algal broth produced in the biomass production stage needs to be further processed to recover the 124 biomass (Molina et al. 2003). The water and residual nutrients recovered at this stage can be 125 recycled to the biomass-cultivation. The concentrated biomass paste is extracted with a water-126 immiscible solvent to recover algal oil, which can then be converted to biodiesel. The biomass 127 residue that remains after extraction of oil could be used partly as high-protein animal feed and, 128 possibly, as a source of small amounts of other high-value microalgal products (Gavrilescu and 129 Chisti, 2005). In both scenarios, the revenue from selling the biomass residues could defray the 130 cost of producing biodiesel. However, the majority of algal biomass residue from oil extraction is 131 expected to undergo anaerobic digestion to produce biogas. The carbon dioxide generated from 132 combustion of biogas can be recycled directly for the production of the microalgae biomass. 133

Energy content of biogas produced through anaerobic digestion typically ranges from 134 16200kJ/m<sup>3</sup> to 30600kJ/m<sup>3</sup>(Wulf, 2005) depending on the nature of the source biomass. 135 Typically, the yield of biogas varies from 0.15 to 0.65kg of dry biomass (Wulf, 2005). Assuming 136 average values of biogas energy content and yield, biogas production from microalgal solids, 137 after their 30% oil content has been removed, could provide at least 9360MJ of energy per metric 138 139 ton. This is a substantial amount of energy and it should run the microalgal biomass production process. The total content of lipids in microalgae vary from about 1-85% of the dry weight 140 (Rodolfi et al., 2009) with values higher than 40% typically achieved under nutrient limitation. 141

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## 143 Algae for Biofuels

Algae for biofuels have been studied for many years for production of hydrogen, methane, 144 145 vegetable oils (triglycerides, for biodiesel), hydrocarbons and ethanol. Methane was the focus of most of the early work in microalgae biofuels production, when microalgae were considered 146 mainly for their applications in wastewater treatment. More simply would be the production of 147 starch by microalgae and its subsequent fermentation by yeasts, as practiced with cane sugar and 148 149 corn starch in fuel ethanol production. Such an approach, however, would compete with very low-cost sugar and starch produced by higher plants. It is, however, not all that different in 150 concept from the production of vegetable oils, triglycerides specifically, which is the focus of 151 152 almost all the current interest in algae biofuels.

#### **Bioenergy Conversion of Algae** 154

155 Biomass from micro- and macroalgae can be converted into solid, liquid or gaseous energy carriers but there are some major differences in the chemical and physical chemical composition 156 157 of algae as well as their physical composition which make them more or less suitable for a given 158 conversion technology.

159 In general the most important issues to remember when evaluating bioenergy conversion 160 technologies for algae are their high content of inorganics (more than 30% can be found), a low 161 level of fermentable sugars, high protein and sulphur content and a potentially very high content of oils. The glycerine has many uses, such as in the manufacture of food, in the production of 162 163 pharmaceuticals as well as a feedstock for biogas. 

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#### **Algae Biodiesel** 165

The term bio-diesel covers diesel type oil made from vegetable oils. In plants oils are found as 166 triglycerides, where three fatty acids of different chain lengths are coupled to a glycerol molecule 167 168 by ester bonds. By splitting the triglycerides into their components via a transesterification reaction the single fatty acids can be separated for used as fuel in diesel engines. In principle the 169 plant oils can be used directly as diesel fuels, but triglycerides have a high melting point and can 170 be solid at low temperatures. 171

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#### **Algae ethanol** 173

The production of ethanol by fermentation of sugars is technically well developed. On 174 commercial scale the sugar glucose is fermented by ordinary yeast to produce ethanol. Glucose is 175 a so called C6 sugar with 6 carbon atoms and can be found in a number of different plant sugars 176 of which cellulose, starch and sucrose are the most common. New microorganisms capable of 177 fermenting C5 sugars are under development, but have not yet reached a commercial scale and 178 applicability. 179

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#### Combustion 181

182 Efficient combustion of biomass requires a low content of inorganic components as well as of nitrogen and sulphur compounds. The chemical composition of algae biomass shows that it is not 183 a suitable feedstock for combustion. Raw algae biomass is thus not suitable for heat and 184

185 electricity production by combustion. No reports on combustion of algae biomass have been186 found.

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### 188 Biogas

Biogas is produced by methanogenic bacterial breakdown of organic matter under anaerobic 189 conditions. It is also known as anaerobic digestion or mesophilic fermentation, and consists of at 190 least three bacterial processes yielding the main final products methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and CO<sub>2</sub>. A wide 191 range of organic matter can be converted in a biogas reactor, with lignin and cellulose being the 192 193 main exceptions. The processing of biomass in a biogas reactor typically takes weeks, but the process as such is robust. The composition of biogas varies depending upon the feedstock. 194 Biogas will contain CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S and water vapour. Typically the methane content 195 196 of biogas is 55-75% CH<sub>4</sub>, 20-40% CO<sub>2</sub> and smaller amounts of the other gases. Purification of 197 the gas is therefore needed and several large-scale methods are available. Following the conversion to biogas there will be residual liquid and fibre fractions. The liquid fraction typically 198 199 has a high content of salts and nitrogen, whereas the fibre fraction contains the biomass that 200 could not be digested by the bacteria.

Biogas production from of algae by methanogenic bacteria is probably the best suited technology
for converting both macro- and microalgae biomass into a practical energy carrier.

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## 204 Algae Harvesting and Strains

The basic concept of algal oil production is to use relatively small (in total area) photo-205 206 bioreactors to produce a modest amount of "inoculum" culture (about 1-2 % of the total biomass 207 produced) to seed much larger, totaling several hundred hectares, open ponds. The biomass 208 would need to be concentrated by an initial factor of at least about thirty-fold, requiring very low-cost harvesting processes, such as "bioflocculation", a spontaneous flocculation-209 210 sedimentation of the algal cells, using no, or at most very little, flocculation chemicals. Such low-cost harvesting processes must be developed and demonstrated for each algal species and 211 212 even strain. At present there are no low-cost harvesting technologies available. The algal strains to be cultivated would be selected based on many criteria, of which oil content, productivity, and 213 214 harvestability would be primary, but also resistance to contamination, tolerance of high oxygen levels and temperature extremes, and adaptation to the local water chemistry and other local 215

conditions experienced by the algal cells in the growth ponds. Figure 2 shows microalgalbiomass being recovered from the culture broth by filtration

After harvesting, further concentration and oil extraction is required, for which various processes are proposed, including cell breakage and solvent extraction, possibly using a three phase centrifugation.

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Figure 2: Microalgal biomass recovered from the culture broth by filtration

## 224 **Biodiesel Production**

Parent oil used in making biodiesel consists oftriglycerides in which three fatty acidmolecules are esterified with a molecule of glycerol.In making biodiesel, triglycerides are reacted withmethanol in a reaction known as trans-esterification oralcoholysis. Trans-esterification produces methyl estersof fatty acids that are biodiesel, and glycerol (Figure 3).

The reaction occurs stepwise: triglycerides are firstconverted to diglycerides, then tomonoglycerides and finally to glycerol.

Triglyceride (parent oil)		Methanol (alcohol)		Glycerol		Methyl esters (biodiesel)
$CH_2 - OCOR_1$ $CH - OCOR_2$ $I$ $CH_2 - OCOR_3$	+	3 HOCH <sub>3</sub>	Catalyst	СН <u>-</u> ОН СН—ОН СН_ОН СН <sub>2</sub> —ОН	+	$R_1 - COOCH_3$ $R_2 - COOCH_3$ $R_3 - COOCH_3$

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Figure 3: Trans-esterification of oil to biodiesel (R1–3 are hydrocarbon groups).

234 Trans-esterification requires 3 mols of alcohol for each mole of triglyceride to produce 1 mol of glycerol and 3 mols of methyl esters (Fig. 3). Industrial processes use 6mol of methanol for each 235 236 mole of triglyceride (Fukuda et al., 2001). Yield of methyl esters exceeds 98% on a weight basis 237 (Fukuda et al., 2001). Trans-esterification is catalyzed by acids, alkalis (Meher et al., 2006) and lipase enzymes 238 (Sharma et al., 2001). Alkali-catalyzed trans-esterification is about 4000 times faster than the 239 acid catalyzed reaction (Fukuda et al., 2001). Alkali-catalyzed trans-esterification is carried out 240 at approximately 60°C under atmospheric pressure; as methanol boils off at 65°C at atmospheric 241 pressure. A higher temperature can be used in combination with higher pressure, but this is 242 expensive. Methanol and oil do not mix; hence the reaction mixture contains two liquid phases. 243 The main advantages with producing micro algae for energy production are: 244 Does not compete with agriculture 245 • High per acre yield 246 • Contains no Sulphur therefore no SO<sub>2</sub> emissions 247 • Nontoxic and highly biodegradable 248 • 249 • Does not require soil for growth Uses as little as 8cm of water per year 250 • 251 Adaptable anywhere even at great distances from water. • Industrial emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> from power plants, refineries, and other stationary emitters 252 • 253 can be productively consumed by micro algae in engineered plants and used to manufacture valuable products, thus making the whole process carbon neutral. 254 255 Hundreds of species of micro algae are being experimented with, such asArthrospira 256 257 platensis (spirulina) which is easy to culture and easy to harvest but does not contain a high oil

content and *Haematococcus pluvialis* (red algae), which is very high in oil yield.
With the correct species in place and the right conditions the species can produce oil at neartheoretical limits

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## 265 Table 2: Oil content of some microalgae

MICROALGA	OIL CONTENT (% DRY WT)		
Botryococcus braunii	25-75		
Chlorella sp.	28–32		
Cylindrotheca sp.	16–37		
Isochrysis sp.	25–33		
Nannochloropsis sp.	31–68		
Schizochytrium sp.	50-77		

266 Modified from Chisti (2007).

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## 268 Economics of Biodiesel Production

Recovery of oil from microalgal biomass and conversion of oil to biodiesel are not affected by 269 whether the biomass is produced in raceways or photo-bioreactors. Hence, the cost of producing 270 271 the biomass is the only relevant factor for a comparative assessment of photo-bioreactors and raceways for producing Microalgal biodiesel. For the facilities detailed in Table 1, the estimated 272 cost of producing a kilogram of microalgal biomass is \$2.95 (N442.5) and \$3.80 (N570) for 273 274 photo-bioreactors and raceways, respectively (Chisti, 2007). If the annual biomass production 275 capacity is increased to 10,000 tonnes, the cost of production per kilogram reduces to roughly \$0.47 (N70.5) and \$0.60 (N90) for photo-bioreactors and raceways, respectively, because of 276 economy of scale. Assuming that the biomass contains 30% oil by weight, the cost of biomass 277 for providing a liter of oil would be about \$1.40 (N210) and \$1.81 (N271.5) for photo-278 279 bioreactors and raceways, respectively (Chisti, 2007). Oil recovered from the lower-cost biomass produced in photo-bioreactors is estimated to cost \$2.80/L (N420/L). Biodiesel from palm oil 280 281 costs roughly \$0.66/L (N99/L) or 35% more than petro-diesel. This suggests that the process of converting palm oil to biodiesel adds about \$0.14/L (N21/L) to the price of oil. For palm oil 282 sourced biodiesel to be competitive with petro-diesel, the price of palm oil should not exceed 283 284 \$0.48/L (N72/L).

Microalgal oils can potentially completely replace petroleum as a source of hydrocarbon feedstock for the petrochemical industry. For this to happen, Microalgal oil will need to be sourced at a price that is roughly related to the price of crude oil. For example, if the prevailing price of crude oil is \$60/barrel (N9000/barrel), then microalgal oil should not cost more than about \$0.41/L (N61.5/L), if it is to substitute for crude oil. If the price of crude oil rises to \$80/barrel (N12000/L) as sometimes predicted, then microalgal oil costing \$0.55/L (N82.5/L) is
likely to economically substitute for crude petroleum.

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## 293 CONCLUSION

Algal biodiesel is technicallyfeasible. Producing low-cost microalgalbiodiesel requires primarilyimprovements to algalbiology through genetic and metabolic engineering.

Biodiesel has great potential; however, the high cost and limited supply of organic oils prevent it 296 from becoming a serious competitor for petroleum fuels. As petroleum fuel costs rise and 297 supplies dwindle, alternative fuels willbecome more attractive to both investors and consumers. 298 299 For biodiesel to become the alternative fuel of choice, itrequires an enormous quantity of cheap biomass. Using new and innovative techniques for cultivation, algae mayallow biodiesel 300 production to achieve the price and scale of production needed to compete with, or even 301 replace, petroleum. Algal biomass needed for production of large quantities of biodiesel could be 302 303 grown in photo-bioreactors, but a rigorous assessment of the economics of production is necessary to establish competitiveness withpetroleum-derived fuels. Achieving the capacity 304 to inexpensivelyproduce biodiesel from microalgae is of strategicsignificance to 305 an environmentally sustainable society. 306

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