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4 **Long-term photosynthetic CO₂ removal from biogas and flue-gas: exploring the**
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6 **potential of closed photobioreactors for high-value biomass production**
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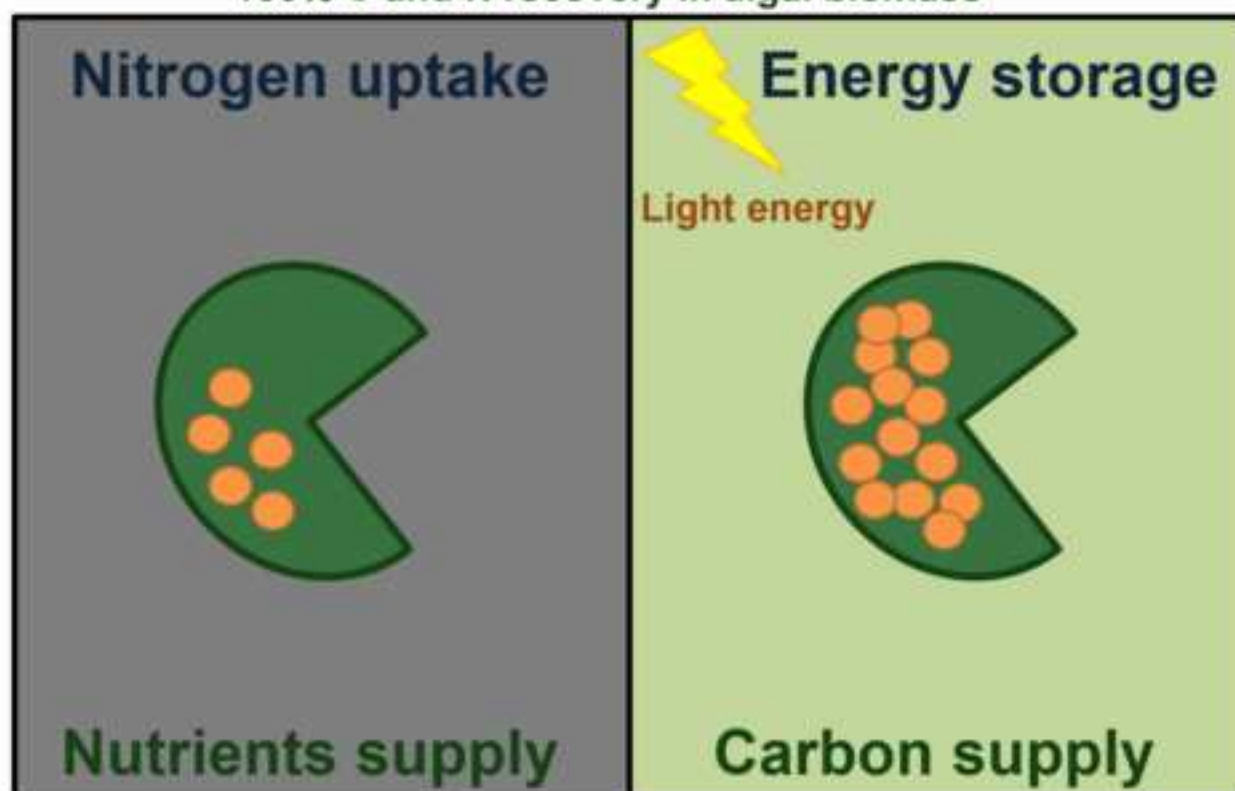
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Continuous production of high-energy storage compounds



100% C and N recovery in algal biomass



Continuous CO₂ abatement from biogas and flue-gas

Highlights

- CO₂ abatement from biogas and flue-gas was studied in a tubular photobioreactor
- A feast-famine regime was applied for continuous production of high-energy storage compounds
- CO₂ removals > 98% and complete C and N recovery as biomass was achieved
- Microalgae consumed nitrogen in the dark period regardless of the N source
- The N-dark feeding strategy increased the carbohydrates productivity by 1.7 times

15 **Abstract**

16 The long-term performance of a tubular photobioreactor interconnected to a gas
17 absorption column for the abatement of CO₂ from biogas and flue-gas was investigated.
18 Additionally, a novel nitrogen feast-famine regime was implemented during the flue-gas
19 feeding stage in order to promote the continuous storage of highly-energetic
20 compounds. Results showed effective CO₂ (~98%) and H₂S (~99%) removals from
21 synthetic biogas, supported by the high photosynthetic activity of microalgae which
22 resulted in an alkaline pH (~10). In addition, CO₂ removals of 99 and 91% were
23 observed during the flue-gas operation depending on the nutrients source: mineral salt
24 medium and digestate, respectively. A biomass productivity of ~8 g m⁻² d⁻¹ was
25 obtained during both stages, with a complete nitrogen and carbon recovery from the
26 cultivation broth. Moreover, the strategy of feeding nutrients during the dark period
27 promoted the continuous accumulation of carbohydrates, their concentration increasing
28 from 22% under normal nutrition up to 37% during the feast-famine cycle. This
29 represents a productivity of ~3 g_{-carbohydrates} m⁻² d⁻¹, which can be further valorized to
30 contribute to the economic sustainability of the photosynthetic CO₂ removal process.

31

32 **Keywords:** Algal-bacterial technology; Biogas upgrading; Carbohydrates production;
33 CO₂ abatement; Photobioreactors.

34

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Carbon dioxide (CO₂) represents nowadays the most important greenhouse gas (GHG),
37 with ~77% of the total GHG emissions worldwide and an annual atmospheric
38 concentration increase of 0.5% over the last decade (López *et al.*, 2014). In addition, the
39 amount of CO₂ emitted from anthropogenic sources has increased from 22 Gt in 1990 to
40 33 Gt in 2010, and it is expected to reach 41 Gt by 2030 (World Bank, 2014; United
41 Nations, 2015). From these anthropogenic CO₂ emissions, ~93.5% are produced from
42 the combustion of fossil fuels, with a typical concentration in the emitted gases ranging
43 from 5 to 20% (Raesossadati *et al.*, 2014; Warmuzinski *et al.*, 2014). Energy
44 production from biogas also constitutes an important source of anthropogenic CO₂
45 emissions (CO₂ content in raw biogas can vary from 15 up to 60%), which production
46 in Europe is expected to reach 18-20 million m³ by 2030 (Muñoz *et al.*, 2015). The
47 detrimental effects of this GHG on the environment (*i.e.* global warming, modification
48 of the pH of oceans, etc.) demand the implementation of cost-effective technologies for
49 CO₂ removal from industrial emissions. In the particular case of biogas, the abatement
50 of the CO₂ not only entails environmental benefits but also contributes to the upgrading
51 of this biofuel, decreasing its transportation costs and increasing the energy content.
52 Conventional physical/chemical technologies for CO₂ removal from flue-gas or biogas,
53 such as scrubbing, adsorption, or cryogenic separation, have been widely implemented
54 due to the extensive knowledge on their design and operation and the high removal
55 efficiencies achieved. However, only biological technologies offer a low environmental
56 impact, besides reducing the operating costs associated to the treatment process. In this
57 regard, CO₂-capturing biotechnologies supported by the photosynthetic activity of
58 microalgae in photobioreactors allow for the removal of CO₂ in a cost-effective,
59 environmentally friendly way (Raesossadati *et al.*, 2014; Muñoz *et al.* 2015). In this

60 microalgae-based process, the CO₂ is transferred from the gas to the liquid phase when
61 the flue-gas/biogas is sparged into the cultivation broth, being subsequently fixed by
62 microalgae during photosynthesis in the presence of light. Therefore, the CO₂ is not
63 only removed from the gas preventing its emission to the atmosphere, but the C-CO₂ is
64 recovered as valuable algal biomass, which can be further valorized (Raeesossadati *et*
65 *al.*, 2014; Muñoz *et al.* 2015). Moreover, the necessary nutrients for microalgae growth
66 can be supplemented from wastewaters, which increases the environmental
67 sustainability of the process (Park and Craggs, 2010). However, most wastewaters are
68 characterized by a low C/N/P ratio compared to that needed for microalgae growth
69 (20:8:1 for urban wastewaters *vs* 106:16:1 to ensure balanced algae growth), therefore
70 carbon limitation usually hinders nutrient recovery from wastewater. In this sense, CO₂
71 supply into the cultivation broth from biogas or flue-gas increases the availability of
72 inorganic carbon, enhancing biomass productivity, ensuring complete nutrient recovery
73 from wastewater and mitigating microalgae pH-derived inhibition (Arbid *et al.*, 2013;
74 Posadas *et al.*, 2015).

75 The potential of algal-bacterial symbiosis for biogas (Toledo-Cervantes *et al.*, 2016;
76 Toledo-Cervantes *et al.*, 2017b) or flue-gas (Posadas *et al.* 2015) purification combined
77 to wastewater treatment has been already studied and demonstrated in open
78 photobioreactors. However, few studies have focused on the implementation of this
79 process in closed photobioreactors, which offers higher photosynthetic efficiencies by
80 avoiding light limitation, enhanced biomass productivities and better CO₂ mass transfer
81 (Chisti, 2007; Arbid *et al.*, 2013). On the other hand, this photosynthetic CO₂-abatement
82 process can be further optimized by implementing nutrient supplementation strategies to
83 promote the production of storage compounds in the algal biomass (Mooij *et al.*, 2013).
84 In this context, the production of a biomass with a high content in the metabolites of

85 interest will increase the economic sustainability of the process (Toledo-Cervantes *et*
86 *al.*, 2017a).

87 This work aimed at evaluating the long-term performance of a tubular photobioreactor
88 interconnected to a CO₂ absorption column for the abatement of CO₂ from biogas and
89 flue-gas. Furthermore, a feast-famine regime was implemented in order to exploit the
90 cyclic nitrogen absence for the continuous production of high-energy storage
91 compounds.

92

93 **2. Materials and methods**

94 **2.1 Experimental system**

95 The experimental system consisted of a tubular photobioreactor interconnected to a
96 mixing chamber and a CO₂ absorption column (AC) (Figure 1). The tubular
97 photobioreactor was composed of 12 tubes of 6 cm inner diameter and 94 cm of length,
98 with a total volume of 45.5 L. The mixing chamber (60 cm height, 50 cm width and 35
99 cm length) had a working volume of 60 L. The absorption column was 2 m height (1.73
100 m water column) with an internal diameter of 5 cm and a working volume of 3.5 L. Two
101 sets of high intensity LED PCBs were placed at both sides of the photobioreactor to
102 provide a photosynthetic active radiation (PAR) of $\sim 1100 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Light:dark
103 cycles of 12:12 h of the PAR were fixed. The cultivation broth was re-circulated
104 through the tubular photobioreactor and the mixing chamber at a linear velocity of 0.5
105 m s⁻¹. The absorption column was operated by supplying co-currently the cultivation
106 broth from the mixing chamber and biogas/flue-gas (through a stainless steel diffuser of
107 2 μm pore size) at the bottom of the column. The operating parameters such as liquid
108 and gas flow rates of the absorption column and nutrients/digestate solution flow rates
109 are described in section 2.2.

110

111 **2.2 Experimental system operation**

112 **2.2.1 Operation with biogas (A):**

113 Prior operation, an abiotic CO₂/H₂S removal test was performed in order to determine
114 the optimum liquid to gas flow rates (L/G) ratio in the AC, which maximizes the CO₂
115 and H₂S removal from biogas without compromising the CH₄ content and the quality of
116 the upgraded biogas due to N₂ and O₂ desorption (Toledo-Cervantes *et al.*, 2016). The
117 biogas used was a synthetic mixture of 29.5% CO₂, 0.5% H₂S and 70% CH₄. The liquid
118 phase was a modified Bristol medium (final pH = 7.5) (g L⁻¹): NaNO₃ (1.5), CaCl₂
119 2H₂O (0.025), MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.075), K₂HPO₄ (0.075), KH₂PO₄ (0.175), NaCl (0.025),
120 and 1 mL L⁻¹ of a micronutrient solution (2.86 g L⁻¹ H₃BO₃, 1.81 g L⁻¹ MnCl₂ 4H₂O,
121 0.22 g L⁻¹ ZnSO₄ 7H₂O, 0.39 g L⁻¹ Na₂MoO₄ 2H₂O, 0.079 g L⁻¹ CuSO₄ 5H₂O and 49.4
122 mg L⁻¹ Co(NO₃)₂ 6H₂O). The liquid recirculation rates tested were 60, 150, 300 and 450
123 mL min⁻¹ while the biogas flow rate was set at 40 mL min⁻¹. Hence, L/G ratios ranging
124 from 1 to 11 were studied. The AC was allowed to stabilize for two times the hydraulic
125 retention time prior monitoring the upgraded biogas composition by GC-TCD.

126

127 The system was inoculated with the microalgae *Acutodesmus obliquus* at an initial
128 suspended solids concentration (SST) of 0.1 g L⁻¹, and operated for biogas upgrading
129 during 150 days. The CO₂ contained in the synthetic biogas previously described was
130 used as carbon source for microalgae growth, while nutrients were supplied by means of
131 the modified Bristol medium. During stage IA (from day 1 to 54) the synthetic biogas
132 was fed during the illuminated period into the absorption column at a flow rate of 40
133 mL min⁻¹ and the liquid broth was recirculated through the AC at a flow rate of 400 mL
134 min⁻¹ (L/G ratio = 10). The modified Bristol medium was fed into the mixing chamber

135 at a flow rate of 3 mL min⁻¹ (hydraulic retention time, HRT = 50 d) during the light
136 period. The feed flow rate was selected according to the nitrogen load needed for the
137 complete photosynthetic fixation of the CO₂ contained in the biogas, assuming a
138 biomass composition of 50 % of carbon and 10 % of nitrogen (Groobelar, 2004). From
139 days 54 to 77 (stage IIA) the synthetic biogas was continuously fed into the absorption
140 column (24 h gas feeding), therefore the mineral medium flow rate was increased to 6
141 mL min⁻¹ (HRT= 25 d). During this stage, both the gas and the liquid flow rates through
142 the AC were maintained constant (L/G ratio = 10). Finally, in Stage IIIA (days 77 to
143 150) the synthetic biogas was only fed during the light period at 80 mL min⁻¹ (L/G ratio
144 = 5) while the mineral medium feeding flow rate was kept at 6 mL min⁻¹ (HRT= 25 d).

145

146 **2.2.2 Operation with flue-gas (B):**

147 During experiment B, a synthetic flue-gas composed of 20% of CO₂ and 80% of N₂ was
148 used as carbon source for the growth of microalgae. During Stage IB (from day 151 to
149 280) the synthetic flue-gas was fed at 50 mL min⁻¹ during the light period (L/G = 5).
150 The mineral medium previously described was modified by decreasing the NaNO₃
151 concentration to 0.75 g L⁻¹ and the nitrogen load rate was adjusted to the photosynthetic
152 fixation of the CO₂ contained in the flue-gas. Therefore, the nutrient solution was fed
153 into the mixing chamber at a flow rate of 10 mL min⁻¹ (HRT= 15 d). From days 284 to
154 297 (Stage IIB) no nitrogen source was added to the mineral medium in order to
155 decrease the concentration of nitrogen in the cultivation broth to the non-assimilative
156 nitrogen concentration (<2 mg-N L⁻¹). No further modifications were implemented
157 during this period.

158 During stage IIIB (days 297 to 336) mineral medium was fed at the same HRT (15 d)
159 only during the dark period in order to promote the production of high-energy

160 compounds. The nitrogen load was set at 511 mg d^{-1} based on the biomass productivity
161 observed in stage IIB and considering a biomass nitrogen content of 7% (experimental
162 data from stage IB). No nutrient was supplemented during the light period in which the
163 flue-gas was fed (Mooij *et al.*, 2015). From days 336 to 380 (Stage IVB) the synthetic
164 nutrient solution was substituted by a diluted anaerobic digestate solution obtained from
165 the wastewater treatment plant of Valladolid city (Spain), with an average composition
166 of total nitrogen (TN), inorganic carbon (IC) and total phosphorus (TP) of 660 ± 46 , 524
167 ± 49 and $48 \pm 3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, respectively. The digestate feeding flow rate was adjusted to
168 ensure the same nitrogen load as in Stage IIB.

169 The steady state biomass chemical (C, N, P, and S) and biochemical (proteins,
170 carbohydrates, lipids, and ashes) composition were determined at the end of the light
171 and dark periods two times a week.

172 During both operating periods (*i.e.* A and B), the biomass concentration, measured as
173 TSS, was determined twice a week. The temperature and dissolved oxygen
174 concentration (DO) in the cultivation broth were daily in-situ monitored. Inlet (biogas
175 and flue-gas) and outlet (upgraded biogas and treated gas) gas samples were drawn
176 twice a week to analyze the composition by GC-TCD. The inlet and outlet gas flow
177 rates in the AC were also periodically measured in order to perform the gas mass
178 balance. Samples of 100 mL of the cultivation broth and mineral medium or diluted
179 digestate were taken twice a week to determine the pH and concentrations of TN, IC,
180 nitrate (NO_3^-), sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) and phosphate (PO_4^{3-}). The population of microalgae in
181 the photobioreactor was identified by microscopic observation at the end of each steady
182 state.

183

184 **2.3 Analytical methods**

185 Biomass concentration was determined by dry weight (105 °C, 24 h). NO_3^- , PO_4^{3-} and
186 SO_4^{2-} concentrations were analyzed by HPLC-IC according to Serejo *et al.*, (2015).
187 Dissolved IC and TN concentrations were determined using a Shimadzu TOC-VCSH
188 analyzer (Japan) equipped with a TNM-1 chemiluminescence module. The PAR was
189 measured with a LI-190 quantum sensor and recorded with a LI-250A light meter
190 (Lincoln, Nebraska, USA). The pH was monitored with a pH meter Eutech Cyberscan
191 pH 510 (Eutech instruments, The Netherlands), while the DO concentration was
192 measured with an Oxi 330i oximeter (WTW, Germany). The gas composition (CO_2 ,
193 H_2S , O_2 , N_2 , and CH_4 concentrations) was analyzed by GC-TCD according to Posadas
194 *et al.* (2015). Microalgae identification was performed by microscopic observations
195 (OLYMPUS IX70, USA) after sample fixation with 5% of lugol acid.

196 The carbohydrate and protein content of the biomass was determined according to the
197 methodology described in Dubois *et al.* (1956) and Lowry *et al.* (1951), respectively.
198 For carbohydrates determination, 1.5 mL of cultivation broth (biomass concentration
199 $\sim 0.2 \text{ g L}^{-1}$) was mixed with 4 mL of H_2SO_4 1 M. Afterwards, the sample was heated for
200 20 min at 100 °C and centrifuged for 5 min at 10000 rpm. A volume of 0.5 mL of the
201 supernatant was mixed with 0.5 mL of a 5% phenol solution and stood for 40 min. After
202 that period, 2.5 mL of concentrated H_2SO_4 were added, and then the optical density was
203 determined at 485 nm. Protein content was measured by mixing 1 mL of the cultivation
204 broth and 1 mL of NaOH 1 N and heated at 100 °C for 20 min. After centrifugation (5
205 min at 10000 rpm), 0.4 mL of the supernatant were mixed with 2 mL of a solution
206 composed of 1:25 (v/v) of 5% (w/v) Na_2CO_3 and 0.5% (w/v) CuSO_4 in 1% (p/v) sodium
207 potassium tartrate. The mixture was stood for 10 min. Subsequently, 0.4 mL of 1 N
208 Folin & Ciocalteu's phenol reagent was added and kept in dark for 30 min. The optical

209 density of the preparation was then read at 750 nm. Total lipids were determinate by
210 direct extraction in an automatic Soxhlet extraction unit (SER 148 Series, Velp
211 Scientifica) using hexane as solvent. The extraction conditions were set as follows:
212 extraction temperature 130°C, immersion time 60 min, and solvent recovery time 120
213 min. The ashes content was determine as volatile solids according to Standard methods
214 (Eaton *et al.*, 2005). Finally, the elemental composition of biomass was determined
215 using a CHNS analyzer (LECO CHNS-932) for C and N content, while an Inductively
216 Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectrometer (ICP-OES, Varian 725-ES) was used
217 for P and S content determination.

218

219 **3. Results and Discussions**

220 **3.1. Biogas upgrading**

221 **3.1.1. Abiotic removal of CO₂ and H₂S**

222 Table 1 shows the upgraded biogas composition and removal efficiencies obtained at
223 different liquid to biogas flow rate ratios during the preliminary abiotic test. Maximum
224 mass transfer efficiencies for both CO₂ and H₂S were obtained at an L/G of 11 (~91 and
225 99%, respectively). Similar studies have reported higher CO₂ and H₂S removal
226 efficiencies (REs) of 98.8 ± 0.2 and $97.1 \pm 1.4\%$, respectively, regardless of the L/G
227 ratio tested but using the algal-bacterial broth at a pH of 10 (Toledo-Cervantes, 2016).
228 Furthermore, Serejo *et al.* (2015) obtained a CO₂-RE of $95 \pm 2\%$ at L/G ratios above 15
229 because of the lower pH (≈ 7.9) of the cultivation broth. During these studies, higher N₂
230 (7-25%) and O₂ (3-7%) concentrations were observed in the upgraded biogas as a result
231 of the photosynthetic activity ($DO \geq 8 \text{ mg-O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$) and the nitrogen concentration in the
232 liquid broth ($\sim 14 \text{ mg-N}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$), and its subsequent stripping from the cultivation broth. In
233 this context, closed photobioreactors are considered a viable alternative to open systems

234 for preventing desorption of nitrogen in the absorption column, since the cultivation
235 broth is not in contact with the atmosphere. However, to the best of our knowledge, this
236 is the first study reporting the upgraded biogas composition in a closed tubular
237 photobioreactor (Table 1). Maximum methane concentrations of ~85% were achieved in
238 the abiotic test since methane content in the upgraded biogas is compromised between
239 the low nitrogen desorption and the low CO₂ removal reached at L/G ratios <11 and a
240 pH of the cultivation broth of 7.5. In this sense, it is worth noticing that, since H₂S and
241 CO₂ are acidic gases, higher absorption of these components from the biogas is
242 expected under biotic conditions as a result of the increase in pH by algal
243 photosynthetic activity.

244

245 **3.1.2. Photosynthetic CO₂ and H₂S removal from biogas**

246 During stage IA, CO₂ and H₂S were effectively removed from biogas at 97.6 ± 0.4 and
247 $98.3 \pm 0.0\%$, respectively (Figure 2a). As previously discussed, the high removals here
248 observed were supported by the photosynthetic activity of microalgae, which allowed
249 for a dissolved oxygen concentration of 8.1 ± 1.1 mg-O₂ L⁻¹ and a pH of 10.7 ± 0.5 .
250 Some studies have previously reported efficient biogas upgrading by alkalophilic
251 microalgae cultivation or by using highly alkaline digestate (Franco-Morgado *et al.*,
252 2017; Toledo-Cervantes *et al.*, 2016, 2017b). However, during this study, only the high
253 photosynthetic activity of microalgae supported the alkaline pH needed for the effective
254 transfer of CO₂ and H₂S from the gas phase into the cultivation broth. Under these
255 conditions, the upgraded biogas had a composition of CO₂ 0.4 ± 0.4 %, H₂S $0.01 \pm$
256 0.01% , O₂ $8.3 \pm 2.9\%$, N₂ $7.7 \pm 2.9\%$ and CH₄ $83.6 \pm 1.8\%$, which is suitable for
257 electricity production in motor generators (Figure 2b).

258 During stage IIA, the operating strategy of feeding the biogas continuously decreased
259 the pH of the cultivation broth to 7.2 ± 0.7 . This acidic condition and the likely toxic
260 effect of the H_2S inhibited the microalgae activity, which was confirmed by the low DO
261 concentration observed, $3.6 \pm 1.8 \text{ mg-O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$. Despite some studies have demonstrated
262 that biogas containing up to 0.5% of H_2S (5000 ppm_v) does not inhibit microalgae
263 growth, González-Sánchez and Posten (2017) have recently reported inhibitory effects
264 at concentrations higher than 200 ppm_v. These results were associated to the closed
265 configuration of the photobioreactor, which likely induced the accumulation of HS^- in
266 the cultivation broth during the dark period when dissolved oxygen concentration
267 decreases, thus preventing further HS^- oxidation. However, the H_2S removal remained
268 similar to that observed in stage IA at $99.7 \pm 0.0 \%$, due its higher solubility compared
269 to that of CO_2 (Henry law constants: $\text{H}_2\text{S} = 1 \times 10^{-3}$ vs. $\text{CO}_2 = 3.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol m}^{-3} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$)
270 (Sanders, 1999). This promotes the mass transfer of H_2S to the liquid phase, leading to a
271 toxic effect at low DO concentrations. In contrast, because of the decrease in pH driven
272 by the low photosynthetic activity, the CO_2 removal decreased to $57.0 \pm 0.1 \%$ (Figure
273 2a). It is worth noticing that similar photosynthetic biogas upgrading studies have
274 reported CO_2 removals in the range of 50–98.8% depending on the alkalinity of the
275 cultivation broth and the environmental conditions in high rate algal ponds (both
276 indoors and outdoors) (Franco-Morgado *et al.*, 2017; Posadas *et al.*, 2017; Toledo-
277 Cervantes *et al.*, 2017). These findings highlight the need of pH control in this
278 bioreactor configuration to avoid the deterioration of the CO_2 removal performance.

279 In order to recover the cultivation broth conditions suitable for biogas upgrading, the
280 biogas inlet flow was doubled during the illuminated period (stage IIIA). This operating
281 strategy allowed increasing the pH up to 10.0 ± 0.2 and the CO_2 and H_2S removals
282 stabilized at 98.3 ± 0.0 and $99.9 \pm 0.0\%$, respectively (Figure 2a). Under these favorable

283 conditions, the upgraded biogas had a similar composition of that obtained in stage IA:
284 CO₂ 1.8 ± 3.4%, H₂S 0.00 ± 0.00, O₂ 9.6 ± 3.3%, N₂ 6.0 ± 2.2% and CH₄ 82.6 ± 3.8%
285 (Figure 2b). The slightly higher oxygen concentration recorded in the upgraded biogas
286 was correlated with the higher DO concentration in the cultivation broth (10.8 ± 1.2 mg-
287 O₂ L⁻¹) when compared to stage IA.

288 Regarding algal biomass production, the photobioreactor operation at a HRT = 50 d
289 during stage IA lead to a biomass productivity of 2.5 ± 0.2 g m⁻² d⁻¹, which entailed
290 nitrogen and carbon recoveries of 56.6 ± 3.1% and 50.5 ± 4.5%, respectively. In stage
291 IIA, the lower HRT of 25 days resulted in an increase in biomass concentration from 1.6
292 ± 0.1 to 2.2 ± 0.1 g L⁻¹, that corresponded to a biomass productivity of 7.2 ± 0.3 g m⁻² d⁻¹.
293 During this period, the mass balance showed that 86.2 ± 2.6% of the C-CO₂ removed
294 from biogas and 81.4 ± 3.2% of the nitrogen fed were recovered as biomass. Finally, in
295 stage IIIA, the doubling of the carbon load during the illuminated period allowed
296 increasing the biomass concentration to 2.5 ± 0.1 g L⁻¹ together with a biomass
297 productivity of 8.0 ± 0.2 g m⁻² d⁻¹. Under these conditions, a complete nitrogen and
298 carbon recovery as algal biomass was observed. These results confirm the potential of
299 tubular photobioreactors for effective C-CO₂ recovery from biogas and nutrients
300 removal. Furthermore, closed photobioreactors are recognized for the higher biomass
301 productivities achieved in comparison with open systems. However, due to the lack of
302 standardization of the reported values, volumetric productivities (g L⁻¹ d⁻¹) are often
303 used for closed photobioreactors instead of areal productivity (g m⁻² d⁻¹), which hampers
304 a fair comparison between both configurations. In this sense, while productivities of
305 0.06 g L⁻¹ d⁻¹ have been reported for closed photobioreactors treating biogas (Meier *et*
306 *al.*, 2016), productivities in the range of 2.2 – 15 g m⁻² d⁻¹ are commonly achieved in
307 open systems, which in fact represents volumetric productivities between 0.015 and 0.1

308 g L d⁻¹ (Toledo-Cervantes *et al.*, 2016; Posadas *et al.*, 2017; Toledo-Cervantes *et al.*,
309 2017). In this study, the biomass productivity of 8.0 g m⁻² d⁻¹ was equivalent to a
310 volumetric biomass productivity of 0.18 g L d⁻¹, which exceeds previous values
311 reported for open systems.

312

313 **3.2. High-value algal biomass production from flue-gas**

314 Microalgae are capable of producing high-energy compounds, which can contribute to
315 the economic viability of the photosynthetic CO₂ removal processes either from biogas
316 or flue-gas. Carbohydrates accumulation triggered by nitrogen starvation is one of the
317 most effective ways to obtain added-value biomass (Ho *et al.*, 2015). It is important to
318 highlight that this operation is performed batch-wise, since a previous biomass
319 production stage is typically required before inducing such accumulation due to the
320 different nutrient requirements of both biochemical processes. In this sense, the concept
321 of “survival of the fittest” introduced by Mooij *et al.* (2013) was here applied as a
322 strategy to induce the continuous accumulation of high-energy storage compounds in
323 the produced microalgae while cleaning flue-gas.

324 In stage IB, the biogas fed during operation stages IA-III A was replaced by a synthetic
325 flue-gas containing 20% of CO₂; therefore, the mineral medium was modified
326 accordingly in order to balance the carbon/nitrogen load to keep the same assimilative
327 nutrient removal reached in *section 3.1.2*. Consequently, the nutrient solution was fed at
328 an HRT of 15 days and the system was operated until constant biomass concentration of
329 1.5 ± 0.0 g L⁻¹ was achieved. Under steady conditions, ~100% of the N-NO₃ fed and the
330 C-CO₂ removed from flue-gas were recovered as biomass (Table 2). The harvested
331 biomass, corresponding to the total effluent obtained at the end of the alimentation

332 period (*i.e.* after the light period), reached $8.3 \pm 0.2 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, with a composition of
333 ~22.1% carbohydrates, 48.3 % proteins and 14.6 % ashes (Table 3).

334 During stage IIB, the nitrogen source was removed from the mineral medium while
335 maintaining the same nutrients load (Figure 3). The latter strategy was implemented in
336 order to decrease the nitrogen concentration in the cultivation broth to a non-
337 assimilative concentration of $\sim 1.3 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1}$ in which the accumulation of high-energy
338 compounds such as lipids and/or carbohydrates can occur (Figure 3).

339 Once N concentrations $< 2 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1}$ were achieved in the cultivation broth, the mineral
340 medium was supplemented with N-NO_3 and fed only during the dark period at the
341 required nitrogen load to keep the same biomass productivity of that recorded in stage
342 IIB (Table 2). As can be observed from Figure 3, microalgae were initially not able to
343 consume the nitrogen in the absence of light (days 297-320 of stage IIB). This can be
344 explained by the fact that nitrogen assimilation requires the fixed CO_2 and the energy
345 generated in the photosynthetic process. Moreover, to assimilate nitrate, the molecule
346 has to be transported across the membrane and be reduced to ammonia, consuming in
347 the process large amounts of energy, carbon, and protons (Perez-Garcia *et al.*, 2011).

348 After this initial adaptation period of ~ 20 days, consumption of the supplied nitrogen
349 during the dark phase was observed from day 320 onwards. This fact was attributed to
350 the concomitant degradation of storage starch in the dark period. This phenomenon
351 would require a regenerative cycling of adenine nucleotides and phosphate that can be
352 supported by chlororespiration, which plays an important role in the dark recovery of
353 plants from photoinhibition through *de novo* protein synthesis (Beardall *et al.*, 2003). It
354 has been suggested that chlororespiration supplies ATP for maintenance and synthetic
355 processes in chloroplasts in the dark, supplementing ATP from glycolysis in the plastids
356 (Raven and Beardall, 2003). Therefore, the accumulated high-energy molecules in the

357 form of glucose-based carbohydrates might be oxidized through the Embden–Meyerhof
358 pathway and/or the Pentose Phosphate pathway, the energy production routes (NADPH,
359 ATP), during the dark period. In that way, enzymes involved in nitrate assimilation
360 (nitrate reductase and nitrite reductase) that work sequentially, had the required energy
361 to catalyze nitrate to ammonium in the dark period; while during the light period CO₂ is
362 reduced to carbohydrates through the Calvin cycle. This hypothesis was supported by
363 the higher carbohydrate content recorded by the end of the light period, *i.e.* the 12 h
364 nitrogen famine period, in contrast to that recorded by the end of the dark period, *i.e.* the
365 12 h nitrogen supplementation period (Table 3).

366 Similar results were observed during stage IVB, when the mineral medium was replaced
367 by an anaerobic digestate but keeping the same nitrogen (N-NH₄⁺) load. At this point, it
368 is worth noticing that the variation in biomass productivity observed in stage IVB was
369 likely due to the decrease in CO₂ removal down to 91.6± 11.3%, driven by the lower pH
370 as a result of ammonium feeding. Furthermore, during this period the occurrence of
371 *Pseudanabaena* sp. (12%) was recorded which was attributed to lack of aseptic
372 conditions of the digestate. This fact is frequently reported in open systems where rapid
373 variations in microalgae population are expected. Moreover, the appearance of this
374 cyanobacterium has been previously reported in wastewater treatment processes
375 coupled to biogas upgrading (Serejo *et al.*, 2015).

376 Finally, carbohydrates productivities ~3 g m⁻² d⁻¹ were recorded under the N-dark
377 feeding strategies, which represents 1.7 times the productivity reached under normal
378 nutrition conditions (Figure 4). The high concentration of carbohydrates reached is
379 preferred for its chemical or biological valorization, for instance as the substrate for
380 biohydrogen by dark-fermentation (Chen *et al.*, 2016), ethanol (John *et al.*, 2011) or
381 biogas production (Zamalloa *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, the biomass production through

382 wastewater treatment significantly contributes to the flue-gas or biogas cleaning process
383 (Toledo-Cervantes *et al.*, 2017a.). These results confirm the feasibility of applying this
384 novel strategy for inducing the accumulation of high-energy storage compounds during
385 the photosynthetic abatement of CO₂ coupled with wastewater treatment, since it allows
386 for a continuous production of added-value algal biomass.

387

388 **4. Conclusions**

389 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first experimental study reporting the long-term
390 performance of a tubular photobioreactor for the abatement of CO₂ from exhaust gases
391 (biogas and flue-gas) coupled with algal biomass production. The system here proposed
392 showed an efficient removal of CO₂ from gas streams (>98%), the upgraded biogas
393 composition meeting the required standards for electricity production. Moreover, the
394 innovative nutrient supplementation strategy, *i.e.* feeding nutrients during the dark
395 period, allowed enhancing the carbohydrates content in the produced biomass by 1.7
396 times regardless of the nitrogen source. In summary, this study confirmed the potential
397 of the photosynthetic CO₂ removal process in closed photobioreactors to support
398 nutrient recovery from digestate and production of added-value biomass with high
399 carbohydrates content, resulting in a cost-efficient and environmentally-friendly
400 technology.

401

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407

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500 **Figure captions**

501

502 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram of the experimental system used for the photosynthetic
503 CO₂ removal from biogas and flue-gas.

504 **Figure 2.** Time course of **a)** the CO₂ (○) and H₂S (▲) removal efficiencies; and **b)** the
505 upgraded biogas composition CH₄ (●), CO₂ (■), N₂ (□) and O₂ (+).

506 **Figure 3.** Time course of the total nitrogen (TN) concentration in the cultivation broth.

507 Open circles represent the nitrogen concentration at the end of the dark period where the

508 nitrogen supplementation took place (8:00 am) and solid squares represent the nitrogen

509 concentration at the end of the illuminated period (8:00 pm).

510 **Figure 4.** Biomass concentration (■) and carbohydrates productivity (white bars)

511 achieved under different N-supplementation strategies.

Table 1. Abiotic removal efficiencies and upgraded biogas composition obtained at different liquid to biogas flow rate ratios (L/G).

L/G	Removal efficiencies (%)		Upgraded biogas composition (%)				
	H ₂ S	CO ₂	CH ₄	H ₂ S	CO ₂	N ₂	O ₂
1	88.2 ± 1.3	61.6 ± 3.1	84.1 ± 0.4	0.05 ± 0.0	10.6 ± 1.1	4.1 ± 1.0	2.2 ± 0.1
4	93.2 ± 0.4	76.6 ± 1.5	85.9 ± 0.6	0.03 ± 0.0	6.7 ± 0.1	6.0 ± 0.7	3.5 ± 0.2
7	95.5 ± 1.3	89.6 ± 2.3	81.3 ± 0.3	0.02 ± 0.0	3.1 ± 0.4	14.3 ± 2.5	6.5 ± 0.9
11	98.6 ± 0.9	90.8 ± 3.0	82.8 ± 0.1	0.01 ± 0.0	2.7 ± 1.2	13.2 ± 2.5	7.1 ± 0.5

Table 2. Average values for operating parameters recorded during flue-gas cleaning.

Stage	pH	DO (mg-O₂ L⁻¹)	Productivity (g m⁻² d⁻¹)	CO₂ removal (%)
IB	10.1 ± 0.1	10.7 ± 0.8	8.3 ± 0.2	99.8 ± 0.7
IIB	10.5 ± 0.4	8.7 ± 0.3	6.7 ± 0.1	99.3 ± 0.1
IIIB	10.4 ± 0.2	6.0 ± 0.2	6.8 ± 0.3	99.3 ± 0.0
IVB	9.3 ± 0.4	6.2 ± 0.3	5.8 ± 0.4	91.1 ± 1.4

Table 3. Biochemical composition of algal biomass under different nutrition strategies

Stage	I-IIB (Regular nutrition)	IIIB		IVB	
		N-famine - light	N-NO ₃ ⁻ - dark	N-Famine - light	N-NH ₄ ⁺ - dark
Carbohydrates (mg g _b ⁻¹)	221.4 ± 56.2	439.9 ± 32.3	369.7 ± 27.9	453.6 ± 58.1	378.3 ± 11.9
Proteins (mg g _b ⁻¹)	482.9 ± 57.7	349.4 ± 53.0	526.0 ± 18.0	424.4 ± 54.7	476.8 ± 26.6
Lipids (mg g _b ⁻¹)	48.5 ± 3.9	40.0 ± 4.2	48.0 ± 2.5	31.5 ± 5.7	31.6 ± 3.8
Ashes (mg g _b ⁻¹)	146.0 ± 1.2	70.0 ± 0.0	40.0 ± 0.3	76.0 ± 0.1	56.8 ± 0.0

Figure 1
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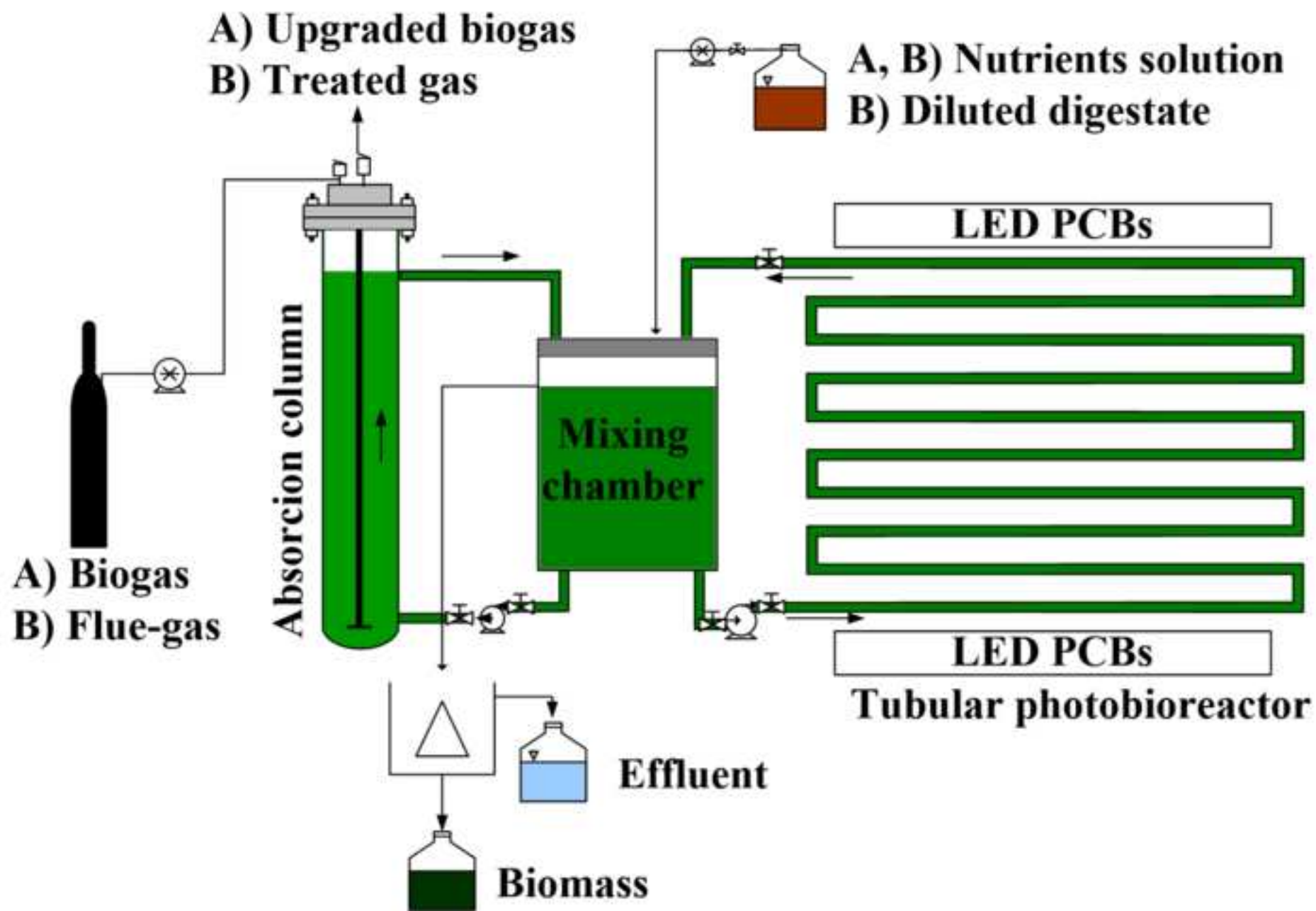


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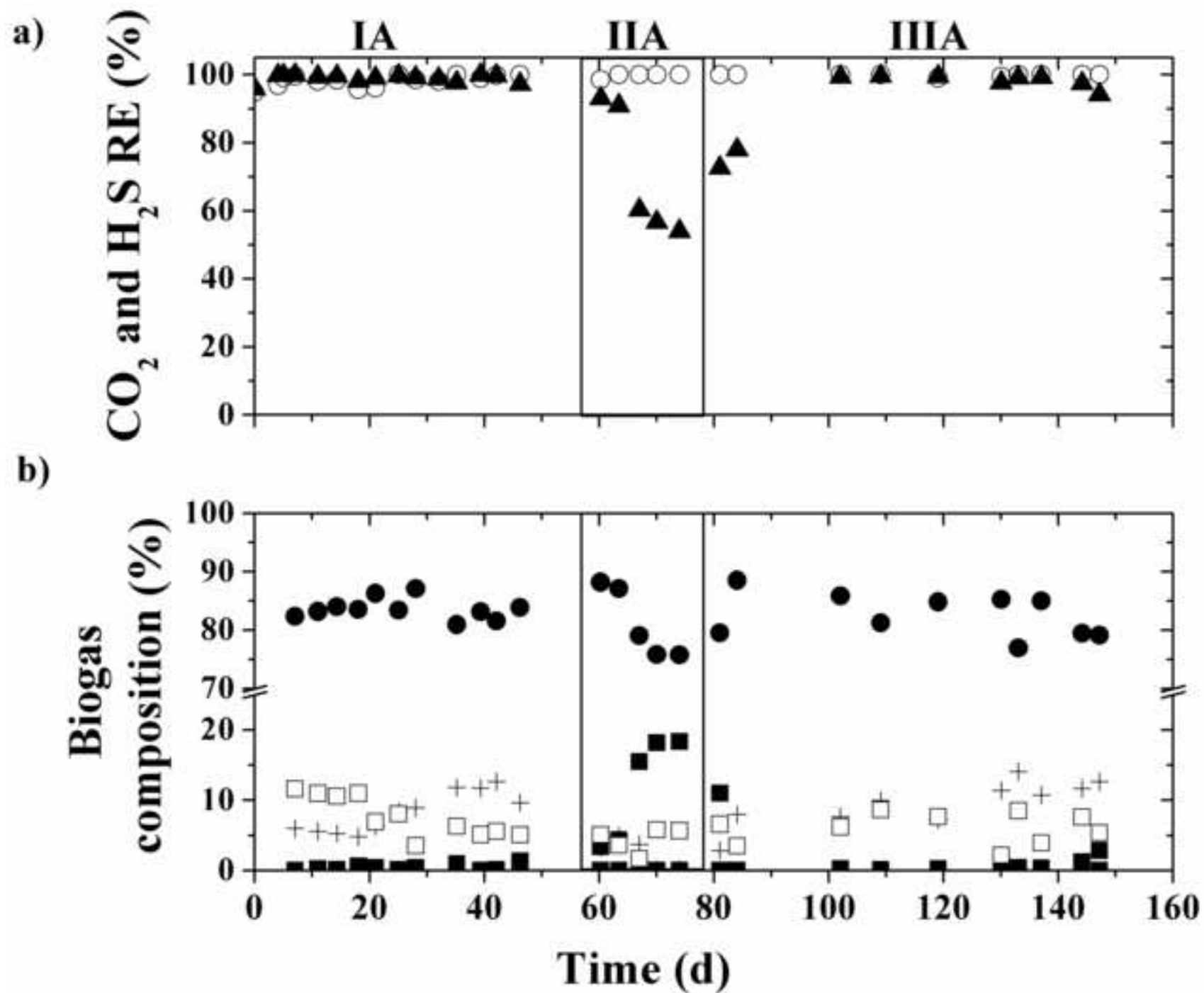


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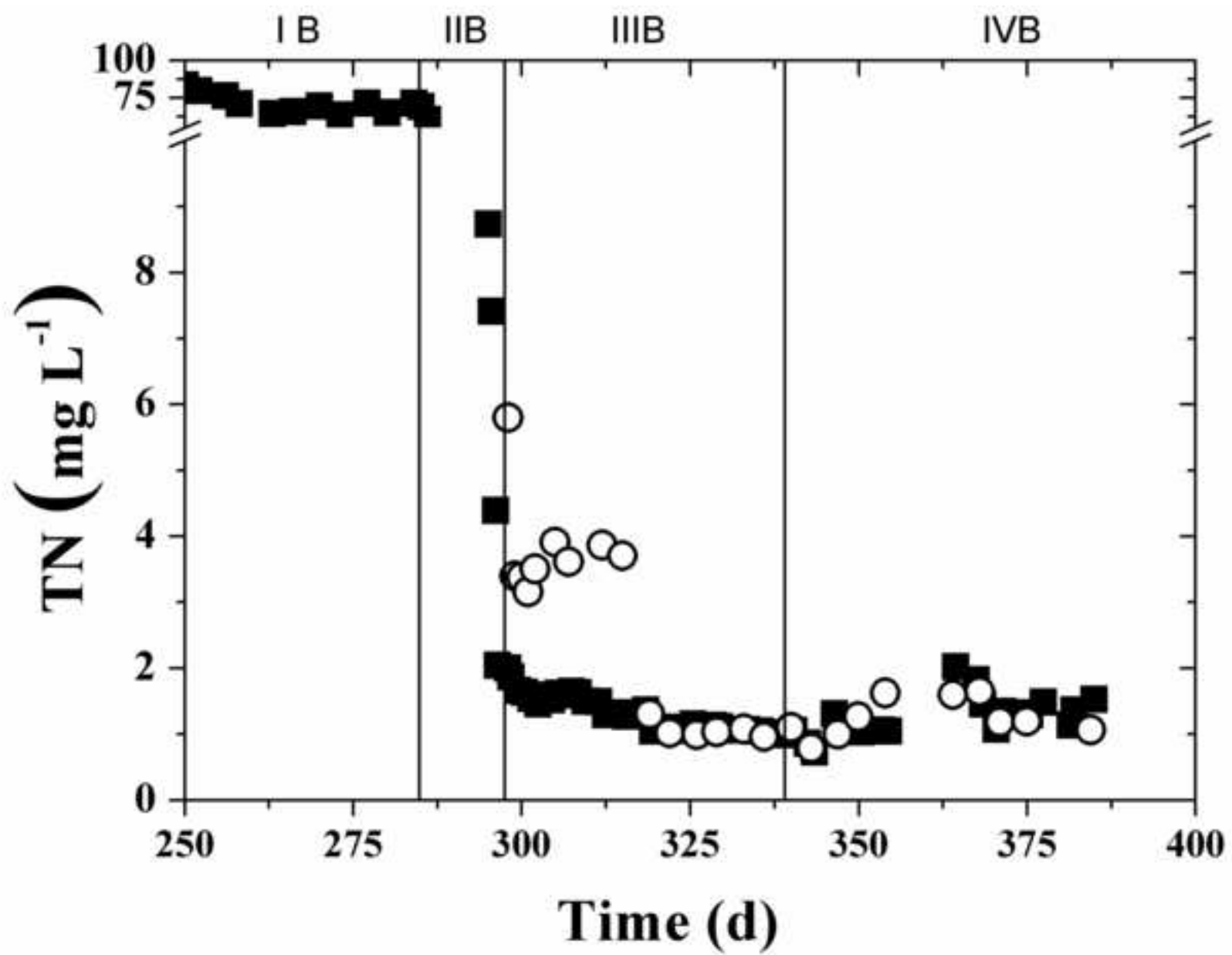
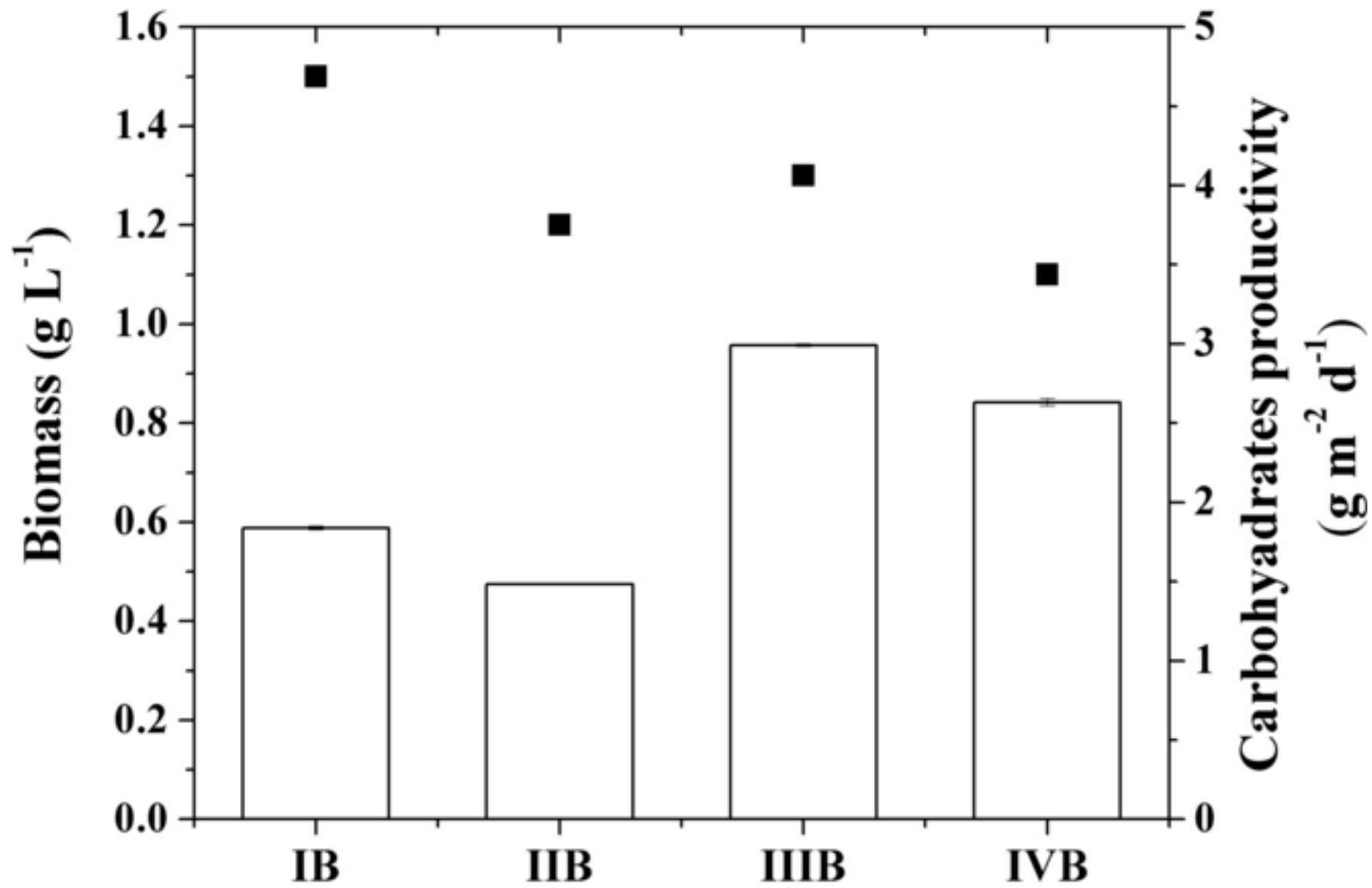


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