



Flocculation of oleaginous green algae with *Mortierella alpfina* fungi

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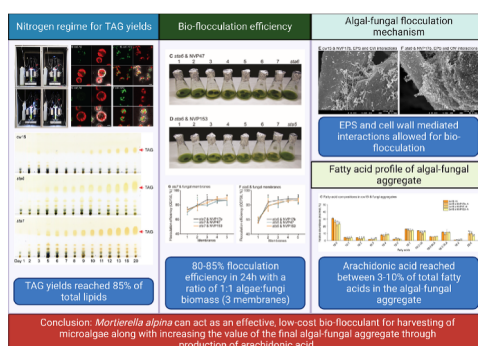
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Nitrogen regime to facilitate the lipid accumulation in algae.
- Incubating fungi in cell culture plates to equalize fungal biomass for each assay.
- High efficient and sustainable algae harvesting with oleaginous *Mortierella alpfina* fungi.
- Valuable algae-fungi biomass enriched in unsaturated fatty acids.
- Revealing the interaction between the algae and fungal cells.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Microalgae
Triacylglycerol
Filamentous fungi
Cell wall interaction
Nitrogen regime and starvation
Polyunsaturated fatty acid
Biofuel

ABSTRACT

Microalgae are promising sources of valuable bioproducts such as biofuels, food, and nutraceuticals. However, harvesting microalgae is challenging due to their small size and low biomass concentrations. To address this challenge, bio-flocculation of starchless mutants of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (*sta6/sta7*) was investigated with *Mortierella alpfina*, an oleaginous fungus with high concentrations of arachidonic acid (ARA). Triacylglycerides (TAG) reached 85 % of total lipids in *sta6* and *sta7* through a nitrogen regime. Scanning electron microscopy determined cell-wall attachment and extra polymeric substances (EPS) to be responsible for flocculation. An algae-fungal biomass ratio around 1:1 (three membranes) was optimal for bio-flocculation (80–85 % flocculation efficiency in 24 h). Nitrogen-deprived *sta6/sta7* were flocculated with strains of *M. alpfina* (NVP17b, NVP47, and NVP153) with aggregates exhibiting fatty acid profiles similar to *C. reinhardtii*, with ARA (3–10 % of total fatty acids). This study showcases *M. alpfina* as a strong bio-flocculation candidate for microalgae and advances a mechanistic understanding of algae-fungal interaction.

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1. Introduction

Microalgae are vastly untapped resources of valuable lipids, proteins, and bioproducts. More specifically, oleaginous microalgae are projected to be an essential part of a sustainable, green future by their inherent capabilities to produce oil efficiently for a myriad of uses, including biofuel and food. They possess several advantages over other prospective biofuel crops (e.g., corn) due to their relatively rapid growth rate, flower arable land usage, amenability to genetic engineering for greater oil yield, flower freshwater usage, ability to utilize wastewater streams, and potential for carbon neutrality or negativity (Du et al., 2018a; Ifti et al., 2022). In one estimate, microalgal oil could be produced at a rate of 10,000 L hectare⁻¹ year⁻¹, which is much greater than traditional biofuel crop sources such as sunflower, canola, and palm (Chowdhury and Loganathan, 2019). Moreover, microalgae have incredible genetic diversity owing to their adaptations to natural environmental conditions, as they must continually deal with stresses such as pH, temperature, and chemical fluctuations (Benedetti et al., 2018). This genetic diversity can be harnessed to screen for microalgal strains with naturally high levels of oil and valuable bioproduct generation. In the model green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, biosynthetic pathways have been studied in detail to elucidate targets for optimized oil production (Yao et al., 2023). Microalgae possess two main types of lipids: polar lipids (glycerolipids) and non-polar lipids (triacylglycerols), both of which can be transformed into biodiesel (fatty acid methyl esters, FAME) via a transesterification reaction (Alfiah et al., 2019) while producing glycerol as a valuable byproduct. One goal of developing genetic model resources for *Chlamydomonas* is to apply knowledge of key target genes and pathways to more biotechnologically relevant species and strains of microalgae for biofuel production.

Although widely explored in the past, the biofuel industry from microalgae has slowed in recent years due to issues with production costs. A recent review of techno-economic analyses of biofuel production from microalgae has recommended biorefinery approaches (wastewater as a nutrient source, multi-product extraction, etc.) be integrated to be economically feasible (Venkata Subhash et al., 2022). However, microalgal biomass isn't limited to biofuels; it can also be used for high-value functional food and essential nutrients. For example, *C. reinhardtii* has a high percentage of essential ω -3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), with around 42.4 % being the essential fatty acid α -linolenic acid (ALA; C18:3) (Darwish et al., 2020), which humans cannot synthesize. Adequate concentrations of ALA have been shown to reduce pro-inflammatory cytokines, which could reduce the risk of cardiovascular disease (Yue et al., 2021). Thus, nutraceuticals developed from *C. reinhardtii* biomass could help to alleviate these health concerns. Furthermore, *C. reinhardtii* is promising as a green cell factory for novel and rare bioproducts through the progress made in metabolic and genetic engineering. Heterologous diterpene synthases were expressed in the chloroplast of *C. reinhardtii* and showed remarkable production with up to 80 mg 13R (+) manoyl oxide g⁻¹ cell dry mass⁻¹ (Lauersen et al., 2018). Moreover, through rational promoter engineering, sesquiterpene (*E*)- α -bisabolene was improved by 18-fold and 4-fold compared to the native promoter and traditionally used expression systems, respectively (Efinhaus et al., 2021). In the future, *Chlamydomonas* could serve multiple roles as a sustainable source of biofuels, nutraceuticals, and other high-value products through metabolic engineering.

Regardless of their uses, one of the most significant hurdles in microalgae production is harvesting, due to factors such as their small cell size, low concentration in medium, and negative surface charge (Singh and Patidar, 2018). Traditional mechanical harvesting techniques generally require energy-intensive steps such as flocculation, thickening, dewatering, and drying, which can account for 20–30 % of the total cost of the operation (Ananthi et al., 2021). Specifically, as a first step, flocculating microalgal biomass from the bulk media is challenging due to low cell concentrations. Current flocculation methods for microalgal biomass include chemical flocculation and

electrocoagulation, among others, all of which have sizable disadvantages (Matter et al., 2019; Pugazhendhi et al., 2019; Vafaei et al., 2021). Chemical flocculation can rely on toxic compounds, which need to be removed prior to use in food applications, and electrocoagulation can introduce high concentrations of iron into the microalgal biomass, making it potentially unsuitable for consumption (Liber et al., 2020). Therefore, new strategies for flocculating microalgae in an economical, environmentally friendly, and efficient manner are urgently needed.

Recently, bio-flocculation of microalgae with other organisms, including fungi and bacteria, has gained attention (Du et al., 2018a; Ifti et al., 2020). There are several key advantages that bio-flocculation presents over traditional flocculation techniques: 1) it is sustainable, with culture medium being able to be recycled; 2) there are no toxic chemicals involved in the process; and 3) higher yields of metabolites and biomass can be obtained from symbiotic relationships between algae and bio-flocculate (Nazari et al., 2020; Umashyama et al., 2022). It has been postulated that the mechanism for bio-flocculation depends on the neutralization of the negative surface charge of microalgae with EPS, as well as the direct interaction with the flocculate (Ifti et al., 2020). Some fungi, in particular, are interesting as bio-flocculates owing to their high flocculation efficiency, as well as their naturally high lipid content, and valuable fatty acid profile (Bansfield et al., 2022; Du et al., 2018a; Liber et al., 2020). In such cases, fungal biomass contributes to the overall pool of lipids for use in biofuels or functional foods. Many fungal strains have been used in industry to produce lipid products. For example, *Mortierella alpina* family of widespread oleaginous saprotrophs with biotechnology significance owing to their impressive biosynthesis capacity for ARA (C20:4, ω -6), which can reach 30–70 % of the total fatty acid yield (Kfikukawa et al., 2018). The health benefits of ARA are profound as a PUFA. It functions as a key precursor of eicosanoids for cell signaling, regulating cell membrane fluidity, and participating in the immune response. *M. alpina* fungi are usually non-pathogenic to plants and animals and considered safe for the production of food ingredients (Streekstra, 1997). As a result, ARA from *M. alpina* has been commercialized and used in a variety of industrial sectors, such as pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, and nutrition (Taffima and El Ridi, 2018).

In this study, a nitrogen regime was developed for simple controls of lipid accumulation in *C. reinhardtii*. Two oleaginous starchless mutant strains, *sta6* and *sta7* were used to produce a high amount of oils (Goodenough et al., 2014; Work et al., 2010). Next, algal flocculation was tested with oleaginous *M. alpina* strains that can make high levels of ARA. Optimal biomass was also determined, which is the dry weight and amount of fungal mycelium, namely the number of fungal membranes (membrane-like fungal mycelium grown in cell culture plates), to be used for the flocculation of *C. reinhardtii*. The interaction phenotype was further elucidated through scanning electron microscopy (SEM), showing details of the cell wall interactions and EPS facilitating the attachment between the algal and fungal cells. Lastly, the three *C. reinhardtii* strains were each flocculated with three different *M. alpina* strains, with or without nitrogen starvation, to test for effects on the lipid and fatty acid contents. It was demonstrated that bio-flocculation of *C. reinhardtii* with *M. alpina* was highly efficient, resulting in higher lipid yields and an increase in the proportion of valuable PUFAs. These findings provide insights into the interaction between the microalgae and fungi, to develop an efficient and sustainable algal harvesting method with oleaginous fungal flocculate, and to ascertain how lipids and fatty acid contents change with microalgal-fungal flocculation and the value of the biomass.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Strains and growth condition

The *sta6* and *sta7* mutants and the parental control cw15 of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* were obtained from the *Chlamydomonas* Resource Center (<https://www.chlamycoflection.org>). Regular incubation of the

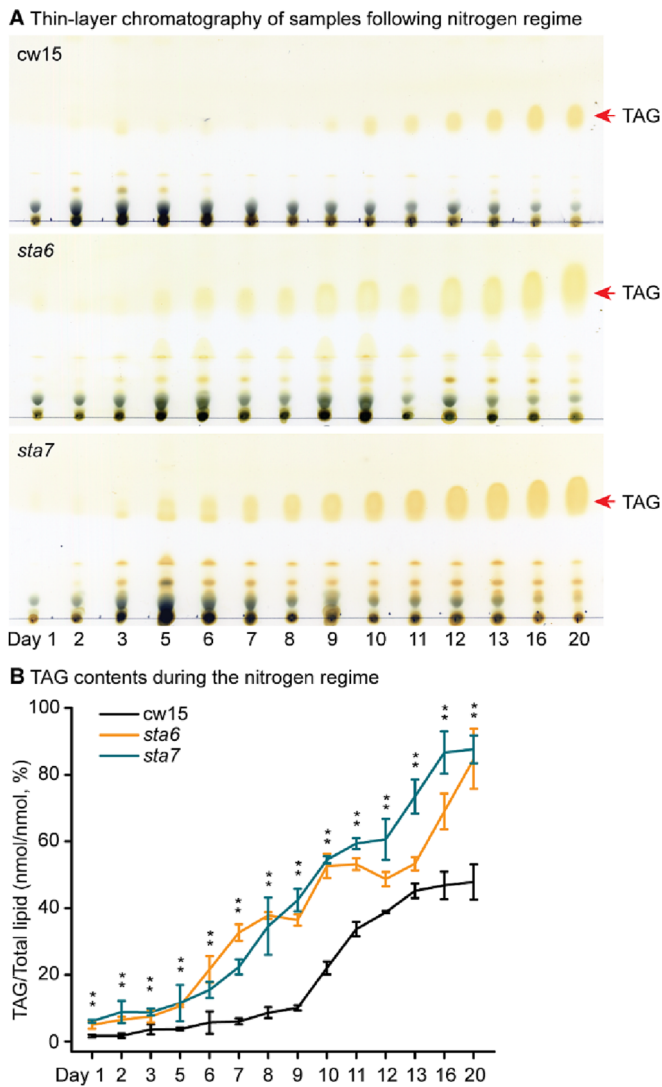


Fig. 1. The nitrogen regime over the course of 10 days in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. **A**, Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) of samples following a nitrogen regime using ammonium as the N source. Algal cells were grown in environmental photobioreactors (ePBR) with TAP medium. **B**, TAG contents during the nitrogen regime. The mutant strains *sta6* and *sta7* showed significant differences from the cw15 control (n = 3, **p ≤ 0.01).

algae used TAP + N medium (20 mM Tris, 0.4 mM MgSO₄, 0.34 mM CaCl₂, 18 mM acetate, 10 mM NH₄Cl, 1 mM phosphate, and trace elements, pH 7.0) (Gormant & Levine, 1965). For nitrogen deprivation experiments, log-phase cells (6–10 × 10⁶ cells per mL) were collected by centrifugation (800 g for 5 min, RT). The supernatant was removed and the pellet cells were resuspended with fresh N-deprived TAP medium (TAP-N). These steps were repeated once to remove the nitrogen in the culture. Subsequently, the washed cells were incubated in TAP-N for up to 72 h. Nitrogen regime was performed following the previously published protocol with modifications (Du et al., 2018b). In brief, log-phase cw15, *sta6*, and *sta7* cells were inoculated in TAP-N at OD₇₅₀ 0.1, with a daily supplement of 1 mM NH₄Cl, until the cultures reached the early stationary phase as the control cultures in TAP + N medium, when the daily NH₄Cl supplement was ceased. The N-regime cultures entered N starvation and accumulated TAG. The N-regime and control cultures were incubated in environmental photobioreactors developed by Luckner et al., 2014: ePBRs, continuous 1,000 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ at 23 °C and sparged with air (5 % CO₂) at 0.37 L min⁻¹ for 2 min per h. The ammonium concentration was monitored using an ion analyzer

NICO2000 (ELIT). For algae-fungi flocculation experiments, the algae were grown in flasks on shakers at 120 rpm and continuous light (~80 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) at 23 °C.

Moniliella affinis strains (NVP17b, NVP47, and NVP153) were isolated from soil samples in Michigan, as previously described (Vandepoel et al., 2020). The fungi were incubated in potato dextrose broth (PDB) medium (12 g/L potato dextrose broth with 1 g/L yeast extract, pH 5.3) at 23 °C, in flasks or 12-well cell culture plates to obtain equal biomass of each fungal membrane. Algal cell concentrations were determined with hemocytometers. Standard curves of the cell concentrations by hemocytometers were generated for OD₇₅₀ measure with a photometer. Algal and fungal dry biomass/total solids (TS) basis was determined according to the standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater (Rice et al., 2017). Briefly, triplicate samples of 30 mL of stationary phase algae or two fungal membrane were filtered with pre-weighed and baked (105 °C) glass microfiber filters (Whatman), and washed with double distilled water (Millipore IQ7000). The algal or fungal biomass captured on the glass filters was then baked at 105 °C to remove moisture. The difference between the final weight of the dried glass filters with algae or fungi and their respective initial weights were then taken as the dry biomass TS.

2.2. Algal-fungal flocculation assays

Algal-fungal flocculation assays were conducted in 125 mL shaker flasks in TAP-N medium. Briefly, 30 mL of *C. reinhardtii* was grown to the early stationary phase in TAP + N, washed twice with TAP-N, and resuspended in TAP-N. Concurrently, fungal membranes were grown in 12-well cell plates to an even shape and size, washed twice with TAP-N, and 1–7 membranes were added into the flasks with the algae. At the end of 24 h, the final OD₇₅₀ of the cultures were measured. The flocculation efficiency of *M. affinis* on *C. reinhardtii* was determined through the following equation:

$$\text{Flocculation efficiency} = 1 - \frac{\text{OD}_{750\text{final}}}{\text{OD}_{750\text{initial}}} \times 100\%$$

2.3. Confocal microscopy for lipid droplet assays

Confocal microscopy was performed to analyze lipid accumulation. The algal cells were stained with 10 μg mL⁻¹ BODIPY 493/503 (ThermoFisher Scientific) in PBS buffer for 30 min at room temperature. The samples were observed using an Olympus FV10i microscope after two washes with PBS. An argon (488 nm) laser and a solid-state laser (556 nm) were used for lipid droplet/BODIPY (excitation, 510 to 530 nm) and chloroplast (excitation, 655 to 755 nm) fluorescence.

2.4. Lipid extraction and analysis

Lipid extraction and analyses were carried out following the published protocol (Du et al., 2018b) with modifications. In brief, log-phase algal cells were collected by centrifugation (1,000 g for 5 min), while fungal mycelia with or without algal cells were collected with tweezers. For total lipid extraction, algae-fungi aggregates were collected with tweezers and frozen in liquid nitrogen prior to grinding with mortar and pestle. The fine powders were transferred to pre-weighed and -frozen glass tubes, and total lipids were extracted with methanol-chloroform-88 % formic acid (1:2:0.1 by volume) on a multi-tube vortexer (1,500 g for ~20 min), followed by addition of 0.5 vol of 1 M KCl and 0.2 M H₂PO₄. After phase separation by centrifugation (2,000 g for 3 min), total lipids were collected for TAG separation and fatty acid analysis. The solids were dried at 80 °C overnight to provide the non-lipid biomass.

TAG was separated by TLC using G60 silica gel TLC plates (Machery-Nagel) developed with petroleum ether-diethyl ether-acetic acid (80:20:1 by volume). An internal standard of 5 μg of tridecanoic acid

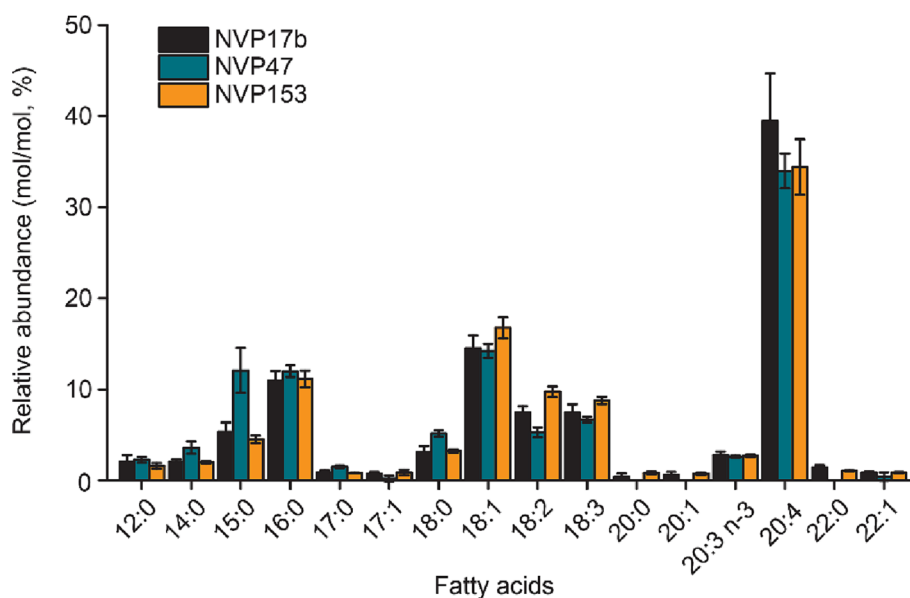


Fig. 2. Fatty acid assays of *M. alpina* NVP17b, NVP47, NVP153. The fungi were incubated in flasks with PDB medium. These *M. alpina* strains were screened and selected for having the highest amount of polyunsaturated fatty acids. Results are the average of 3 replicates with error bars to indicate the standard deviation ($n = 3$).

(C13:0) was added to each tube containing TAG or total lipid FAMES were then prepared with 1 mL of 1 M methanolic HCl at 80 °C for 25 min, followed by quick cooling to RT with the water bath. One mL of hexane and 1 mL of 0.9 % NaCl were added to the samples, centrifuged (3,000 g for 3 min), and then the upper phase containing FAMES was collected in a fresh glass tube. The samples (~1 mL) were dried with nitrogen gas and resuspended in ~50 µL of fresh hexane for the following gas chromatography and flame ionization detection (GC-FID), which was performed with an Agilent 8860 GC. The FAMES were quantified using an Agilent DB-23 column (length 30 m, diameter 0.25 mm, film thickness 0.25 µm), following the protocol: initial temperature 140 °C, increased by 25 °C/min to 160 °C, 8 °C/min to 250 °C, and then held at 250 °C for 4 min. The dry weight of algae-fungal biomass was obtained by summing up non-lipid and total lipid mass.

2.5. Scanning electron microscopy for interaction assays

SEM was performed to investigate the physical interaction between *C. reinhardtii* and fungi at the Center for Advanced Microscopy of Michigan State University (CAM, MSU). Algae-fungal aggregates were collected after 6-d co-culture of the algae *C. reinhardtii* with *M. alpina* (NVP17b) and were fixed in 4 % (v/v) glutaraldehyde solution at 4 °C overnight, followed by drying in a critical point dryer (Model 010, Balzers Union). The samples were then mounted on aluminum stubs with high vacuum carbon tabs (SPI Supplies) and were coated with osmium using a NEOC-AT osmium coater (Mettawafsis). The samples were observed with a JSM-7500F scanning electron microscope (Japan Electron Optics Laboratories).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Significant amounts of TAG accumulate in *sta6* and *sta7* under nitrogen deprivation

In order to increase the oil production in *Chlamydomonas*, *sta6* and *sta7*, two oleaginous starchless mutant strains, were used for this study, with the parental strain cw15 as control. To elucidate lipid droplet (LD) accumulation of these strains, cells were viewed under confocal microscopy using BODIPY staining (see Supplementary Material). At 0 h of the nitrogen deprivation, chloroplasts (as denoted by red fluorescence) were

organized through the stacking of thylakoids. In contrast, 72 h into the nitrogen starvation, the inner cell morphology changed as the chloroplasts broke down and LDs drastically accumulated in *sta6* and *sta7*. Concomitant with this phenotype, TAG content increased over time. At 0 h, TAG levels were similar in cw15, *sta6*, and *sta7*. At 72 h, TAG levels reached 0.2, 0.75, and 0.7 mmol g⁻¹, for cw15, *sta6*, and *sta7*, respectively.

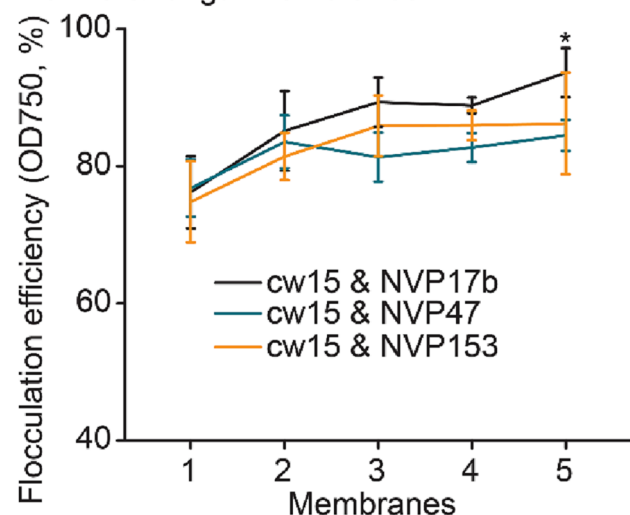
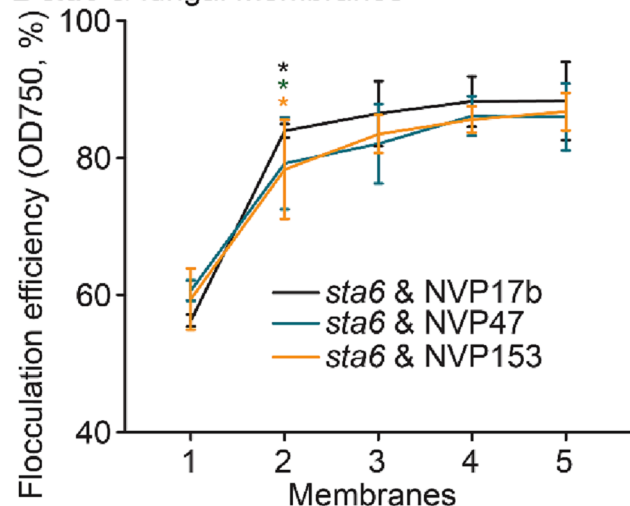
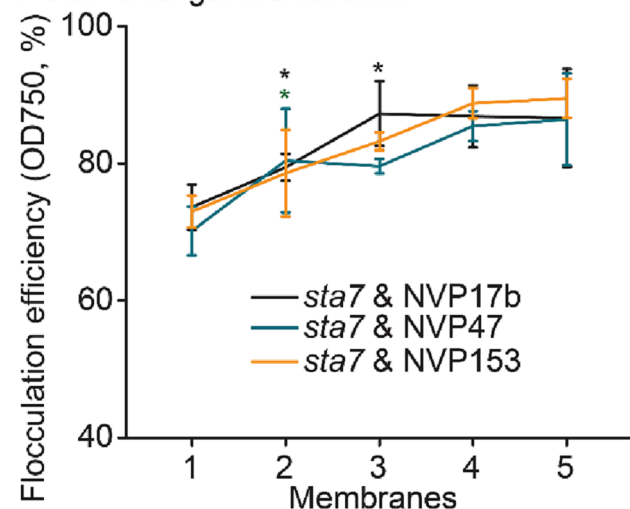
3.2. Significant amounts of TAG accumulate in *sta6* and *sta7* under the nitrogen regime

The conventional nitrogen deprivation process by washing and treating algae cells with TAP-N is both time-consuming and labor-intensive, making it impractical for implementation in an industrial setup. Here a nitrogen regime method was developed as a means to streamline the process, offering a simplified approach to control the nitrogen supply and facilitate the lipid production. Using ePBRs that can control multiple growth conditions (see Supplementary Material), the algae cultures were subjected to a nitrogen regime (daily supplement of 1 mM NH₄Cl in early stationary phase) to precisely control lipid accumulation at specific time points (Fig. 1). Thin layer chromatography (TLC) of cw15, *sta6*, and *sta7* under the nitrogen regime at days 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 16, and 20 showed continuous TAG increases (Fig. 1A). At day 20, total TAG in the lipid fraction reached 85 % in the *sta6/sta7*, both of which were significantly different from cw15 (43 %) (Fig. 1B).

Thylakoid remodeling under stressful conditions for algae has been studied in some detail. Previous research has shown that in *Chlamydomonas*, under nitrogen limitation, a large portion of PUFA from membrane lipids are recycled into LDs (Du et al., 2018b; Young et al., 2022; Young and Hill, 2021). Based on the confocal imaging and TLC results showing the increase in TAG over time in cw15, *sta6*, and *sta7*, the results confirm this and indicate that the nitrogen regime can precisely control TAG accumulation in *C. reinhardtii* for use in the food or biofuel industries.

3.3. Direct fungal hyphae attachment and extracellular polymeric substances were responsible for algae-fungal flocculation

Chlamydomonas were tested for bio-flocculation with *M. alpina*

A cw15 & fungal membranes**B** sta6 & fungal membranes**C** sta7 & fungal membranes

(caption on next column)

Fig. 3. Flocculation efficiency of multiple *Mortierella qipfina* fungal membranes with *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Optical density measurements of the culture after one day using one to seven fungal membranes. **A**, cw15 with the three *M. qipfina* strains. No significant increase in the flocculation efficiency with more fungal membranes than just one. **B**, sta6 with the fungal membranes. Using two fungal membranes increased flocculation efficiency significantly compared to using one membrane, while using more than two membranes showed no significant increase. **C**, sta7 with the fungal membranes. Significant increases with two and three membranes. Results are the average of 3 replicates with error bars to indicate standard deviations ($n = 3$, $*P \leq 0.05$, $**P \leq 0.01$).

strains NVP17b, NVP47, and NVP153. Fungal mycelia grown in PDB (see [Supplementary Material](#)) were added to the cw15 cultures (early stationary phase in TAP + N; [Fig. 3A](#)). After 24 h co-cultivation, the algal cells had aggregated along the *M. qipfina* fungal mycelium (see [Supplementary Material](#)). Similar to *C. reinhardtii*, *Mortierella* fungi produce high amounts of TAGs and PUFAs, specifically ARA, an essential fatty acid (Ji et al., 2014; Kikukawa et al., 2018; Sakuradani et al., 2009). A fatty acid assay revealed that NVP17b, NVP47, and NVP153 contain approximately 39.4 %, 34.0 %, and 34.4 % ARA of total lipid, respectively ([Fig. 2](#)).

To further investigate the mechanism of the interaction between *C. reinhardtii* and *M. qipfina*, SEM was performed with cw15, sta6 and NVP17b (see [Supplementary Material](#)). Images revealed the presence of direct physical attachments between the algal cells and fungal mycelium, indicating their intimate interactions may be due to more than just positive and negative charge attraction. The axenic culture of cw15 ([Fig. 4A](#)) showed a smooth cell wall surface, and sta6 had a more rugose cell wall surface. Upon co-culture, cw15 and sta6 appeared to attach to fungal hyphae through cell wall-cell wall interactions. Under higher magnification SEM, the attachment between algae and fungi was observed to be strengthened by EPS, which are metabolic compounds (e.g., proteins, amino acids, nucleic acids, enzymes, phospholipids, among others) that are secreted outside of algal cells or fungal hyphae to provide a barrier against environmental stresses (Babik and Krzeminska, 2021; Breitenbach et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022; Xiao and Zheng, 2016). There is increasing evidence that EPS can facilitate algal-fungal interaction. For example, flocculation of *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* and *Aspergillus fumigatus* revealed that for algal-fungal interaction to occur, the cells need to be viable and undamaged (Bhattacharya et al., 2017). Analysis through FTIR (Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy) also indicates that high C-N and C-H functional groups are involved in the flocculation of *Chlorella* spp. and *Aspergillus* spp. (Bhattacharya et al., 2017; Lai et al., 2021). As fungi grow, the zeta potential tends to increase from negative (−20 mV) to slightly positive (+5–10 mV), potentially caused by the EPS being secreted (Pati et al., 2021). Taken together, the *Chlamydomonas*-*Mortierella* flocculation is most likely facilitated by: 1) direct algal-fungal cell wall attachment through the rugose surface of the fungal hyphae; and 2) the functional group interaction of potential EPS from the algae and fungi.

3.4. *Mortierella qipfina* can effectively harvest microalgal biomass

Unlike unicellular microalgae, fungal mycelium is challenging to standardize biomass for replicability without damaging the cells. Based on the algal culturing experience, fungal mycelium was designed to grow in 12-well cell culture plates to solve the problem. From each plate, 3 to 6 mycelia can be used to determine the average dry biomass of each mycelium, and the rest were used for algal flocculation.

Following this protocol, *M. qipfina* NVP17b, NVP47, and NVP153 mycelia were grown in 12-well plates with PDB, and the resulting fungal membranes were used to test optimal biomass for the flocculation of *C. reinhardtii*. One to seven fungal membranes were placed into shaker flasks of *C. reinhardtii* and TAP medium for 24 h (see [Supplementary Material](#)). No significant differences in the flocculation efficiency for cw15 were found when increasing the number of fungal membranes,

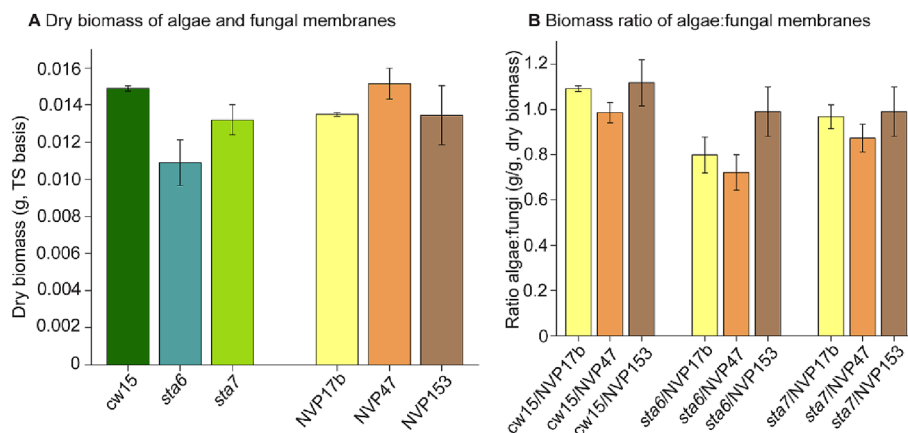


Fig. 4. Biomass assays of the algae and fungi. **A**, Dry biomass of algae (30 mL) and fungi (two membranes) determined by the total solids method. **B**, Ratio of algae:fungi dry biomass in flocculation assays.

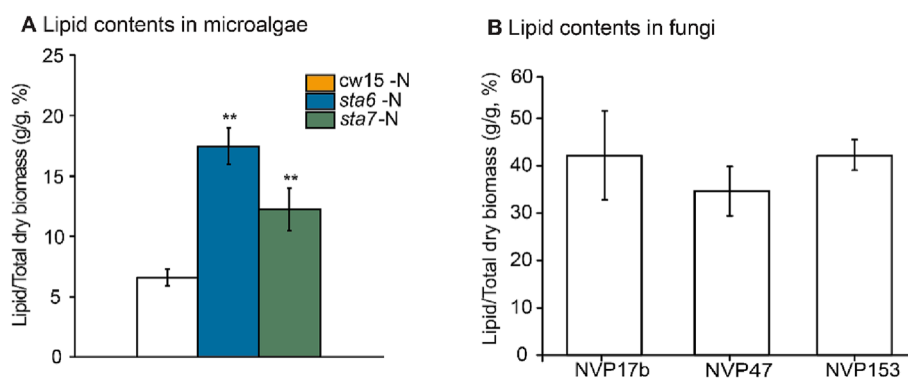


Fig. 5. Biomass ratio of lipid dry weight to total dry biomass in algae and fungi before flocculation. **A**, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* strains under nitrogen deprivation. **B**, *Mortierella alpfina* grown in PDB medium. -N, nitrogen deprivation. n = 3, **P ≤ 0.01.

with the exception of NVP17b, whereby five fungal membranes yielded a flocculation efficiency of 93.6 % (Fig. 3A). For the starchless mutant *sta6*, there was a significant increase in flocculation efficiency in all of the tested fungal membranes when using two fungal membranes instead of one (27.7 % increase for NVP17b, 18.6 % increase for NVP47, and 18.9 % increase for NVP153). There were no more significant differences after increasing the fungal membrane count above two (Fig. 3B). For the starchless mutant *sta7*, significant increases were observed with *M. alpfina* NVP17b when using two membranes instead of one (5.8 % increase), and three membranes instead of two (7.8 % increase) (Fig. 3C). There was also a significant increase when using two NVP47 membranes instead of one (10.3 % increase), and no significant differences between any amount of NVP153 membranes. These results showed that two fungal membranes can efficiently collect the algal cells with similar flocculation efficiencies: cw15 & three *M. alpfina* strains, 83.4 ± 1.9 %, *sta6* & three *M. alpfina* strains, 80.5 ± 3 %, *sta7* & three *M. alpfina* strains, 79.5 ± 0.9 %; Three algal strains & NVP17b, 82.9 ± 3 %, three algal strains & NVP47, 81.1 ± 2.3 %, three algal strains & NVP153, 79.4 ± 1.7 %. The slightly lower flocculation efficiency of NVP153 was most likely due to the lower biomass of the fungal membranes compared to the other two fungal strains (Fig. 4A).

To determine the dry biomass of *C. reinhardtii* and *M. alpfina*, 30 mL of stationary phase algae and three fungal membranes were vacuum filtered on individually preweighed and predried glass fiber filters, washed thoroughly with MilliQ water, and dried at 105 °C to determine the dry biomass. The dry biomass of cw15, *sta6*, and *sta7* ranged between 0.01–0.015 g, with NVP17b, NVP47, and NVP153 ranging between 0.01345 and 0.015 g per three membranes (Fig. 4A). The dry biomass of ratios of algae:fungi were then determined. Overall, the three

fungal strains were able to harvest algae effectively around a 1:1 ratio (Fig. 4B). The cw15:fungi treatments had the highest ratios ranging between 0.99 and 1.12; followed by *sta7*:fungi at 0.87–0.99; and lastly *sta6*:fungi at 0.72–0.82.

Previous studies used higher fungi:algae ratios to effectively harvest algal cells. *Aspergillus oryzae* was used to flocculate *Microcystis aeruginosa* at 1.47:11.0 g/L (ratio of ~0.13), respectively, with a flocculation efficiency of 95 % and 5 h (Njie et al., 2022). In another study, *Aspergillus* sp. was used to flocculate *Chlorella* sp. MJ11/11 at an algae:fungi ratio of 1:3 with 90 % flocculation efficiency at a pH of 3 in 5 h. Compared to the above studies, the flocculation efficiencies are lower with three fungal membranes (80–85 %) but also have higher algae:fungal biomass ratios. *Mortierella alpfina* could have more surface area for algal attachment or particularly strong interactions with *C. reinhardtii*, leading to less fungal biomass needed for effective flocculation.

3.5. Flocculation of cw15, *sta6*, and *sta7* with *Mortierella alpfina* provides PUFAs

Lipid contents of the algae and fungi were determined before flocculation (Fig. 5). The mutants *sta6/7* showed significantly higher total lipid contents (12.1 %–17.2 %) compared to the cw15 control (Fig. 5A). Each strain of *M. alpfina* (NVP17b, NVP47, NVP153) showed similar overall lipid content ranging between 35 % and 42 % (Fig. 5B). After harvesting the microalgae with *M. alpfina* biomass, fatty acid profile of the microalgae-fungi aggregate were quantified (Fig. 6). The nitrogen-starved algae controls showed higher abundance in saturated fatty acids (SFA) and lower unsaturated fatty acids (UFA), compared to the algae-fungi aggregates: saturated fatty acids, cw15, 43.9 %, cw15 &

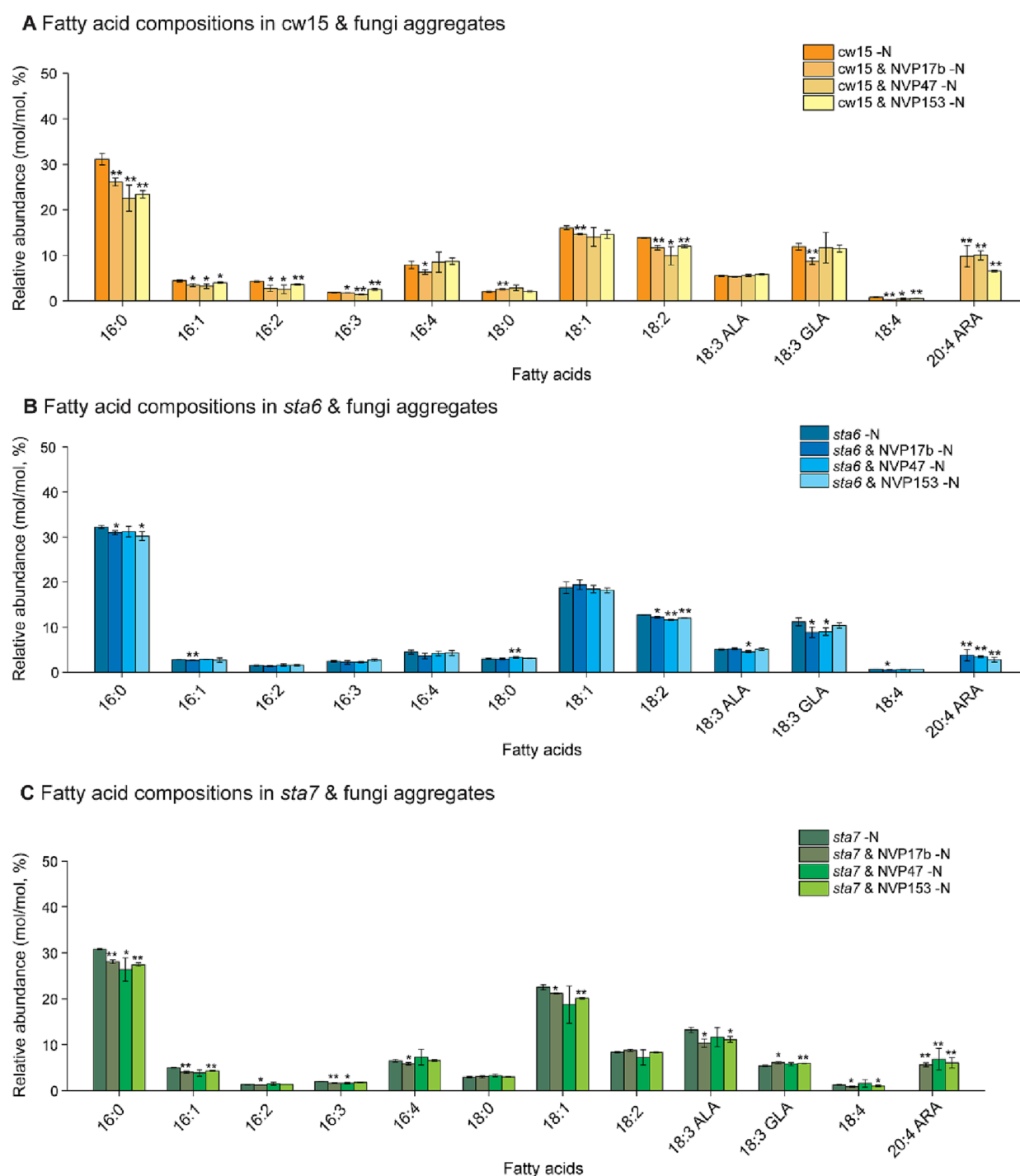


Fig. 6. Fatty acid assays of the alga-fungus aggregates. *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* and *Montierella alipina* after one-day flocculation at 100 rpm. *M. alipina* was collected from PDB medium and washed, and then added to the TAP medium containing the *C. reinhardtii* strains cw15, sta6, or sta7. ALA, α -linolenic acid, 18:3; ARA, arachidonic acid, 20:4; GLA, γ -linolenic acid, 18:3. Results are the average of 3 replicates with error bars to indicate standard deviations ($n = 3$, $*P \leq 0.05$, $**P \leq 0.01$).

fungi, 33.6 %, sta6, 41.8 %, sta6 & fungi, 37.9 %, sta7, 41 %, sta7 & fungi, 35.5 %; monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA), cw15, 26 %, cw15 & fungi, 20.1 %, sta6, 25.4 %, sta6 & fungi, 25 %, sta7, 29.7 %, sta7 & fungi, 26.9 %; PUFA, cw15, 30.1 %, cw15 & fungi, 39.4 %, sta6, 33.6 %, sta6 & fungi, 36.3 %, sta7, 32.9 %, sta7 & fungi, 37.6 %. Both MUFA and PUFA are considered important for health benefits (Sefilem et al., 2019; Yue et al., 2021), and the addition of fungal biomass improved the UFA to SFA ratios from 1.4 to 1.8. In addition, the fungal strains added 3.9 to 8.7 % of ARA to the algae-fungal aggregates. Because ARA is an

economically important and safe fatty acid that is used in foods and supplements including baby formula, this bioflocculation method provides an interesting alternative to upgrade microalgal biomass through natural processes.

4. Conclusions

Montierella alipina was investigated as an oleaginous bio-flocculating agent to harvest the microalga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. A nitrogen

regime was applied along with confocal microscopy and TLC/GC-FID to determine the optimal time to harvest *C. reinhardtii* to maximize lipid and TAG production. The optimal fungal biomass to efficiently harvest microalgae was then determined, leading to 80–85 % flocculation efficiency. The fatty acid profiles of each strain and algal-fungal aggregates of *C. reinhardtii* and *M. glysera* were determined by GC-FID. Overall, this study provides new directions for efficient and sustainable algal flocculation and enhances mechanistic understanding of algal-fungal interactions.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

Acknowledgments

This work is supported by the Center for Tropical and Subtropical Aquaculture through Grant No. 2020-38500-32559 from the U.S. Department of Agriculture National Institute of Food and Agriculture, and USDA NIFA HATCH project HAW05047-H, and the National Science Foundation grant number 2121410. G.B. acknowledges support from NSF DEB-1441728 and MTRAC Grant Case-48166 of the 21st Century Jobs Trust Fund received through the MSF from the State of Michigan. We thank CAM, MSU for the assistance of SEM.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bfotech.2023.129391>.

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