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Title:

High variability in nutritional value and safety of commercially available *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* biomass indicates the need for smart production strategies

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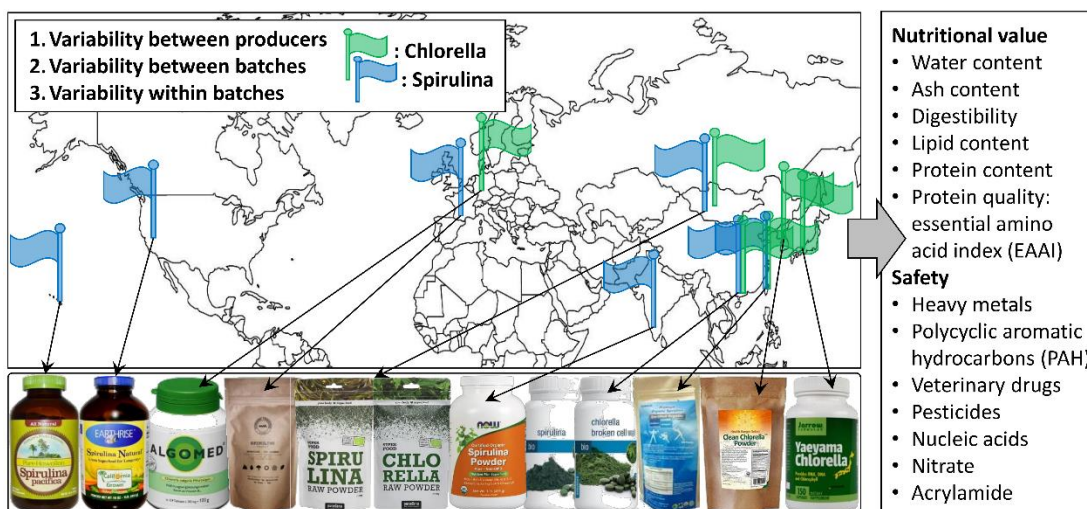
Abstract

Microalgal biomass production is a resource-efficient answer to the exponentially increasing demand for protein, yet variability in biomass quality is largely unexplored. Nutritional value and safety were determined for *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* biomass from different producers, production batches and the same production batch. *Chlorella* presented a similar protein content ($47\pm 8\%$) compared to *Spirulina* ($48\pm 4\%$). However, protein quality, expressed as essential amino acid index, and digestibility were lower for *Chlorella* (1.1 ± 0.1 and $51\pm 9\%$, respectively) compared to *Spirulina* (1.3 ± 0.1 and $61\pm 4\%$, respectively). Generally, variability was lower between batches and within a batch. Heavy metals, pesticides, mycotoxins, antibiotics and nitrate did not violate regulatory limits, while polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon levels exceeded the norm for some samples, indicating the need for continuous monitoring. This first systematic screening of commercial microalgal biomass revealed a high nutritional variability, necessitating further optimization of cultivation and post-processing conditions. Based on price and quality, *Spirulina* was preferred above *Chlorella*.

Keywords

Arthrospira platensis, *Chlorella vulgaris*, nucleic acids, food supplement, cyanobacteria

Graphical abstract



Highlights

- Variability in Chlorella and Spirulina products demands process optimization
- A high protein or lipid content does not necessarily imply a high nutritional value
- Safe consumption doses indicate capacity as protein source rather than as supplement
- Potential PAH contamination requires systematic control to guarantee product safety
- Based on price and nutritional quality, Spirulina was preferred above Chlorella

1. Introduction

Microalgal biomass is an emerging source of sustainable protein that could meet predicted global protein requirements. However, microalgae have not gained significant importance as food protein source (Draaisma et al., 2013; OECD, 2013). Major obstacles are the rather high production costs as well as technical difficulties to incorporate dried algal powder into generally accepted conventional food (Becker, 2007). Interestingly, recent technical improvements in reactor design, production and post-processing techniques and successful research towards high-value compounds resulted in a more efficient microalgae production at lower cost (Enzing et al., 2014). In addition, increasing awareness of environmental problems related to the demographic explosion, as well as the high ecological footprint of conventional agriculture, resuscitated the interest in microalgae as a sustainable protein source with additional functional quality, in food and feed applications (Verstraete et al., 2016; Vigani et al., 2015). This translates in a considerable growth expectation of the global microalgae market in the years to come (Pulz & Gross, 2004).

Biomass of the cyanobacterium *Arthrospira* spp., known as “Spirulina”, and the green microalga *Chlorella* spp. has been commercially produced at large scale for food and feed applications since the early 1960s. *A. platensis*, *A. maxima*, *C. vulgaris* and *C. pyrenoidosa* are the most commonly utilized species at a commercial level. Currently, the estimated global production volumes of *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* are 6600 and 12000 tons of dry matter per year, respectively (Frost & Sullivan, 2015; Garcia et al., 2017). The global *Chlorella* market price was estimated to be 28.7 €/kg in 2014 with a 28.4% compound annual growth rate (CAGR) (Frost & Sullivan, 2015), while the market price of *Spirulina* was 24€/kg in 2014, growing at a CAGR of 10% (Garcia et al., 2017).

Furthermore, *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* gain increasing attention as a protein source in regenerative life support systems (RLSS). Examples are the MELiSSA concept of the European Space Agency (ESA) in which *Spirulina* plays a vital role to upgrade nutrients to a high-value dietary protein source while providing the crew of oxygen (Clauwaert et al., 2017), and the PBR@LSR concept of the German Aerospace Center (DLR) applying *Chlorella* for similar purposes (Keppler et al., 2018).

Variability of nutritional value exists not only among species and strains but also within the same strain (Chacon-Lee & Gonzalez-Marino, 2010; Hu, 2004). Depending on cultivation parameters such as temperature, pH, nutrient concentrations, light quality, light intensity and photoperiod, protein values are recorded between 7 and 70% dry weight (DW) for *C. vulgaris* and between 17 and 73% DW for *A. platensis* (Figure 1). Protein data should, however, always be interpreted carefully as many researchers overestimate protein content based on a total nitrogen (N) or Kjeldahl-N measurement, also including non-protein nitrogen (Maehre et al., 2018). In literature, species-specific nitrogen-to-protein conversion factors are suggested, even though it was shown that these factors cannot be considered constant (Safi et al., 2013). Besides protein, also lipid content depends on cultivation conditions with observed values between 12 and 53% DW for *C. vulgaris* and between 9 and 17% DW for *S. platensis* (Piorreck et al., 1984).

Finally, biomass post-processing can have adverse effects on nutritional quality. An example is freeze-drying which can result in a 5% protein loss, and convective drying with a potential 27% protein loss (Desmorieux & Decaen, 2005). Most commercial production systems for microalgae are open ponds, harder in control compared to closed photobioreactors. Only when the exact effects of production parameters and process

conditions on nutritional quality are known, fine-tuning is possible to alter the microalgal metabolism in favor of the particular compound of interest.

In addition to nutritional characteristics, biomass quality is based on the level of potentially hazardous components such as heavy metals, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), toxins, pathogens and pesticides. European legislation sets maximum residue levels for contaminants in food supplements for heavy metals (cadmium, mercury and lead) and PAH (PAH4: benzo(a)pyrene, benzo(a)anthracene, benzo(b)fluoranthene and chrysene). Allergens, toxins, pathogens and pesticides were also detected in microalgal biomass (van der Spiegel et al., 2013), however, no maximum levels are set. Multiple sources of these hazardous components exist. Since microalgae production often takes place using surface or groundwater and nutrients are supplied from commercial fertilizers, microalgae can accumulate toxic compounds present in these resources (Al-Dhabi, 2013). Additionally, open pond cultivation allows pathogens to occur (van der Spiegel et al., 2013). Further, microalgae contain nucleic acids (DNA and RNA), of which human overconsumption causes increased levels of uric acid in the blood, leading to gout (Edozien et al., 1970). Lastly, improper post-processing (e.g. thermal treatment, drying) can be a potential source of PAH contamination (Zelinkova & Wenzl, 2015).

Current research that determines nutritional value or safety of full-scale produced *Spirulina* and *Chlorella* (Al-Dhabi, 2013; Campanella et al., 1999; Kent et al., 2015; Ortega-Calvo et al., 1993) investigated only a limited amount of products. In addition, a systematic approach to determine the exact magnitude of nutritional variability in industrial quality microalgae is lacking. Furthermore, some biomass characteristics are rarely determined such as protein quality (i.e. essential amino acid profile), digestibility

and the content of heavy metals, PAH, nucleic acids and nitrate. Some contaminants such as pesticides, mycotoxins and antibiotics were even never determined before in commercial microalgal biomass. Finally, the variation between production batches and within the same batch produced at one company was never researched.

In view of this knowledge gap, this study aims at defining the variability in nutritional quality and safety of microalgae originating from different companies situated worldwide. Doing so, the viability of process optimization was assessed to increase product quality (i.e. nutritional value and safety), while also the nutritional parameters with a large potential improvement were determined. Furthermore, nutritional variability was defined between production batches and within a production batch from one company. The analyzed parameters were also used to evaluate package information and to make a price-quality comparison between *Chlorella* and *Spirulina*. Finally, safe consumption doses were determined based on measured contaminants and their legal limits in food.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Sample collection

In total 11 *Chlorella* and 11 *Spirulina* samples in the form of powder were obtained from shops in Belgium, retailers in the Benelux or directly from the producing companies (Table 1). Within each group of 11 samples, 5 samples originated from the same company having a different expiration date (different production batch) or the same expiration date (same production batch). A Pearson correlation test in IBM SPSS statistics 24 indicated that expiration date (shelf life) had no significant influence ($p < 0.05$) on the measured nutritional parameters (see supplementary material).

2.2. Nutritional parameters

Biomass dry weight (Total Solids, TS), water content, organic (Volatile Solids, VS) and inorganic (ash fraction) contents were determined gravimetrically in triplicate on 300 mg sample by drying at 105 °C until constant weight and incineration at 550 °C for 2 hours, respectively.

Human digestibility was determined in-vitro following the harmonized protocol of Minekus et al. (2014). A triplicate aliquot of 0.05 g was mixed with simulated gastric fluid (SGF), containing pepsin (2000 U/mL), and incubated for 2 hours at 37 °C at 1200 rpm (Grant-Bio PHMT PSC24, Cambridge, United Kingdom). Subsequently, simulated intestinal fluid (SIF) containing pancreatin (100 U trypsin activity/mL) and bile salt (10 mM) was added before the sample was incubated for 2 hours as described earlier. After centrifugation, the pellet was analyzed for Kjeldahl nitrogen (KjN) (AOAC International., 1995). Digestibility was determined by subtracting KjN in the pellet after digestion (undigested fraction) from the KjN content of the sample before digestion.

Total lipid content of all samples was measured according to Bligh and Dyer (1959). A triplicate aliquot of 0.05 g sample was mixed with 0.2 mL demineralized water and 0.75 mL mixed solvent containing 2:1 chloroform:methanol. The mixture was homogenized using a thermoshaker for 10 min (Grant-Bio PHMT PSC24, Cambridge, United Kingdom). After centrifugation at 5000 g for 5 min, the supernatant was carefully transferred and mixed with a 50% chloroform solution. After centrifuging at 5000 g for 5 min, the bottom chloroform phase was evaporated at 40 °C for at least 20 hours, after which the remaining lipids were determined gravimetrically. In parallel, a control sample with sunflower oil and a blank sample were included.

Protein content was determined in two ways, based on a Kjeldahl nitrogen measurement on 0.025 g biomass with a conversion factor of 6.25 as described above and based on Markwell et al. (1978), an adaptation of Lowry et al. (1951). Subsequent to protein extraction on 5 mg biomass with trichloroacetic acid following Slocombe et al. (2013), part of the extract was used to determine biomass protein and part was used for essential amino acid (EAA) analysis.

Prior to EAA analysis, protein extracts were hydrolyzed with 6M HCl for 24 hours at 110 °C in vacuum-sealed hydrolysis tubes (Wilmad Labglas). To avoid amino acid oxidation, hydrolysis and subsequent acid evaporation were performed under a vacuum atmosphere, alternating with nitrogen gas flushing. After evaporation and dissolution in 0.75 mM HCl, samples were stored at -20 °C. EAA were derivatized with propyl chloroformate following the Phenomenex EZ:faast amino acid analysis procedure (solid phase extraction, derivatization and liquid/liquid extraction), after which separation was performed with gas chromatography (Agilent HP6890 Series GC system Plus, Santa Clara, United States) and detection with mass spectrometry (HP 5973 Mass selective detector, Palo Alto, United States). Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) was used as a control to determine amino acid recovery after hydrolysis. Norvaline was used as an internal standard during EZ:faast sample preparation.

EAA data were normalized based on the WHO/FAO/UNU (2007) established human reference pattern, with a value of 100 representing the best match between the sample EAA content and the consumer's needs. The essential amino acid index (EAAI) was calculated according to the following equation (Oser, 1959):

$$EAAI = \sqrt[n]{\frac{aa1}{AA1} \times \frac{aa2}{AA2} \times \dots \times \frac{aan}{AA_n}}$$

Here, *aan* represents the percentage of the EAA content in the sample and *AA_n* represents the FAO/WHO established human reference content (WHO/FAO/UNU, 2007). Finally, the digestible essential amino acid index (DEAAI) was calculated by multiplying EAAI with the analyzed in-vitro digestibility.

2.3. Safety parameters

For heavy metal analysis (Pb, Hg, Cd, As, Zn, Cu, Ni, and Cr) an aliquot of 0.5-1 g was weighted in digestion tanks (CEM Mars Xpress, Matthews, United States). Around 0.6g internal standard solution, 10 mL of 65% nitric acid and 1.5 mL 30% HCl was added. After digestion, each container was filled with Millipore water to approximately 60 g. Around 3 g of the digested solution was mixed with 3.25% nitric acid to around 9 g, after which the sample was analyzed with ICP-MS (Agilent ICP-MS 7500cx Series, Santa Clara, United States).

Samples for polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) analysis were homogenized (Robot Coupe Retsch GRINDOMIX, Haan, Germany) after which 5 g was supplemented with internal standard and extracted using acetonitrile. Further, Bekolut citrate kit 01 was added and the homogenate was centrifuged for 5 min at 6000 rpm. The upper phase was removed, followed by a dispersive solid phase cleanup (d-SPE) (Bekolut PSA-Kit-04). After mixing and centrifugation, the supernatant was evaporated with nitrogen gas. Acetonitrile was used to reconstitute the sample, after which analysis took place using GC-MS/MS (Agilent Technologies GC 7890A and 7000 Triple Quad MS/MS; Agilent Technologies Select PAH, Santa Clara, United States). Measured PAH included benzo[a]anthracene, benzo[a]pyrene, benzo[b]fluoranthene,

benzo[j]fluoranthene, benzo[k]fluoranthene, chrysene, cyclopenta[cd]pyrene and triphenylene. Both, benzo[a]pyrene and the sum of four PAH's (Σ PAH4: benzo[a]anthracene, benzo[a]pyrene, benzo[b]fluoranthene and chrysene) were used as an indicator for contamination (see supplementary material).

Nucleic acid (DNA and RNA) content was determined in triplicate by absorbance at 260 nm of phenol/chloroform extracts. A volume of 500 μ L lysis buffer (10 mM Tris, 10 mM EDTA, 0.1 M NaCl, 2% SDS, pH 8.0) was added to 5-20 mg sample and vortexed for at least 10 minutes (Vortex Genie, Scientific industries, New York, United States). Next, 500 μ L of a mixture of 2.3:1 phenol:chloroform (pH 7) was added. The neutral pH assured the extraction of both DNA and RNA due to the negative charge on their phosphate groups, however, the possibility exists that biomass RNA content decreased already due to its innate instability, prior drying, processing, and storage at temperatures above 15°C. The sample was vortexed as before, incubated for 30 minutes at -80 °C and centrifuged for 30 minutes at 15000g at 4 °C. The watery layer on top was transferred and 0.6 times the volume of ice cold isopropanol was added. After incubation at -80 °C for 30 minutes and centrifugation for 30 sec at 15000g at 4 °C, the supernatant was discarded. The nucleic acid pellet was then washed with 500 μ L of ice cold EtOH (70%). The samples were incubated for 30 minutes at -20 °C and centrifuged for 20 minutes at 15000g at 4 °C. The supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was air-dried. Once all ethanol was evaporates, the pellet was suspended in 100 μ L H₂O and stored at -20 °C upon analysis with a HTX Synergy, using a Take3 plate (Biotek, Winooski, United States). For every sample, the nucleic acid concentration and quality of the samples was determined based on the absorbance at 260 nm, 280 nm, and 320 nm. All samples showed adequate quality.

Nitrate was extracted from 5-6 g with 50-70 mL water for 15 min in a water bath at 80 °C. After cooling to 20 °C, water was added up to 100 mL, shaken and filtered through a fluted filter. Part of the solution was filtered (0.45 µm) and measured with ion chromatography and UV-detection (Dionex ICS 3000; IonPac AS 17-C, VWD 5000, Waltham, United States).

For antibiotics analysis (full list in supplementary material), a sample of 2 g ± 0.1 g was homogenized with 100 µL of antibiotics internal standard solution and 2 mL of Na₂EDTA-McIlvaine buffer. For protein precipitation, 8 mL of acetonitrile was added. After centrifugation, the resulting supernatant was purified by means of mixing with around 500 mg C18EC bulk sorbent. After the bulk sorbent settled using centrifugation, 5 mL of supernatant was evaporated with nitrogen gas at 45 °C, reducing the residual volume to less than 0.5 mL. The residue was reconstituted with 2 mL HPLC mobile phase (initial conditions), vortexed and centrifuged for 5 min at 6000 rpm. Finally, the supernatant was filtered (PTFE, 0.2 µm) and analyzed using HPLC-MS/MS (Agilent Technologies HPLC 1290; RRHD Eclipse Plus C18 column; Agilent 6490 Triple Quad LC/MS, Santa Clara, United States).

Pesticides (chlorpyrifos, ametryn, benzalkonium chloride (BAC) C12, C14 and C16, didecyldimethylammonium chloride (DDAC) C10, tebuconazole) and mycotoxins (aflatoxin B1, B2, G1 and G2, deoxynivalenol, fumonisin B1 and B2, HT-2 toxin, ochratoxin-A, T-2 toxin, zearalenone) were measured by subjecting the homogenized sample to an acetonitrile liquid-solid partition extraction in the frozen state.

Triphenylphosphate was added as internal standard together with acetonitrile.

Subsequently, a citrate salt kit (Bekolut Citrate-Kit-01) was added, whereby excess water was separated and the acetonitrile phase stabilizes at pH 5-5.5. After shaking and

centrifugation (5 min at 6000 rpm), an aliquot of the acetonitrile phase was filtered and pesticides were measured by GC-MS/MS (Agilent Technologies GC-QQQ-MS 7890A; G7000B Triple Quadrupole, Santa Clara, United States), mycotoxins by HPLC-MS/MS (Agilent Technologies HPLC 1290; RRHD Eclipse Plus C18 column; Agilent 6490 Triple Quad LC/MS, Santa Clara, United States).

For acrylamide analysis, a sample of $2.0 \text{ g} \pm 0.1 \text{ g}$ was homogenized and mixed with 50 μL of C13-acrylamide working solution, 5 mL of n-hexane, 5 mL of water and 10 mL of acetonitrile. Thereafter, a citrate salt kit (Bekolut Citrate-Kit-01) was added, mixed well and centrifuged. A 2 mL aliquot of the acetonitrile extract was filtered (0.45 μm) and measured using HPLC-MS/MS (Agilent Technologies 1200 QQQ-HPLC; 6460 Triple Quadrupole, Santa Clara, United States).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Nutritional value

3.1.1. Water and organic matter

To understand the content of water, organic matter and minerals in the microalgal biomass, figure 2 presents the variability in VS/TS ratio and water content between different producers (Figure 2A), production batches (Figure 2B) and within the same production batch (Figure 2C). Biomass water content was below 10% for all *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* samples, which enables safe storage (Hosseinzand et al., 2017). *Chlorella* biomass originating from different producers presented on average a 36% lower water content (3.7%) compared to *Spirulina* (5.0%), which could be due to producer dependent drying methods and drying times (Show et al., 2013). As expected, the variability between producers was higher for both species compared to the variability between different production batches and within a batch (Figure 2B, C).

Concerning the average VS/TS ratio, slightly higher values were observed for *Chlorella* (0.94) compared to *Spirulina* (0.92), indicating a higher ash content in *Spirulina* biomass. Elevated ash fractions can be positive since it typically includes essential minerals (e.g. Ca^{2+} and K^{+}), however, careful monitoring is advised since the ash fraction also contains toxic heavy metals (e.g. Hg^{2+}) (Campanella et al., 1999). As discussed further, the total heavy metal content represents only 0.04–0.13% of the ash fraction, which indicates the predominance of non-risky minerals. The higher *Spirulina* ash fraction could be due to the higher salt content of the cultivation medium. Depending on the washing method applied, the biomass can contain residual salts (Zhu & Lee, 1997). Tokusoglu and Unal (2003) also measured a higher total ash content for the washed biomass of three freshwater *Spirulina* of 7.4, 7.5 and 10.4%, compared to freshwater *Chlorella* with a 6.3% ash content. Similar to the variability in water content, biomass VS/TS ratio variability (comparing minimum to maximum) for *Chlorella* (60%) and *Spirulina* (55%) was higher between producers compared to the variability between different production batches and within a batch (Figure 2B, C). Except for the variability between *Chlorella* production batches a similar variability in VS/TS ratio of 60% was observed. This indicates the possible influence of cultivation conditions, providing that post-processing conditions are not subjected to changes. Costard et al. (2012) also observed an ash content variability of 66% in one species of *Chlorella* sp. with an increase from exponential to stationary growth phase.

3.1.2. Digestibility

Although a higher biomass digestibility is not adding nutritional value in a direct manner, it determines the availability of nutritional compounds for further uptake by the body. Because *Chlorella* features a rigid cellulosic cell wall, which is lacking in

cyanobacteria like Spirulina, a lower in-vitro digestibility of Chlorella can be expected (Becker, 2004). Indeed, compared to the average digestibility of Chlorella samples from different producers (51%), the average digestibility of Spirulina (61%) was 19% higher (Figure 2A). Literature data for Chlorella and Spirulina in-vitro digestibility presents a wide range, but most researchers use different in-vitro protocols which makes comparison difficult (Tibbetts et al., 2015). Reported in-vitro protein digestibility ranges between 27 and 70% for Chlorella (Hedenskog et al., 1969; Morris et al., 2008) and between 70 and 85% for Spirulina (Devi et al., 1981). The variability in biomass digestibility between producers was 74% for Chlorella and 23% for Spirulina (comparing minimum to maximum). To increase digestibility, many Chlorella producing companies apply physical or chemical cell wall disruption techniques, which can be the reason for the larger observed variability within Chlorella samples. Cell wall disruption methods found for the samples in this study are the patented low-pressure flash expansion (sample C1) and high-impact, jet-spray drying (sample C3). Additionally, processing can alter digestibility as was observed by Becker (2007) who reported digestibility coefficients of 59 and 89 for air and drum dried Chlorella and values of 84 and 76 for drum and sun-dried Spirulina, respectively. Finally, lower variabilities in digestibility were observed between production batches of Chlorella (19%) and Spirulina (12%) and within a production batch of Chlorella (10%) and Spirulina (13%) (Figure 2B, C). Hence, a similar trend in decreasing variability between producers, between batches and within a batch was observed, similar to the trend for water content and ash fraction.

3.1.3. Lipids

Chlorella samples present an average lipid content of 7.4% while the average lipid content of Spirulina is slightly higher with 10% (Figure 2A). Chlorella lipid content presents the largest variability between producers with the highest lipid content (12%) more than double the value of the lowest (3.6%), while the variability in Spirulina lipid content is lower with 43% (between minimum and maximum). Due to the importance of microalgae in biofuel production, the influence of cultivation conditions on the lipid content has been researched extensively. It was found that nitrogen limitation is an effective method to increase lipid content, mostly at the expense of protein (Piorreck et al., 1984). However, cyanobacteria do not show significant changes in their lipid content and fatty acid composition in response to nitrogen supply (Becker, 2004). This was also reflected in the larger variability in lipid content between different production batches and within a production batch of Chlorella (19% and 9%, respectively) compared to that of Spirulina (6% and 1%, respectively). Finally, Chlorella lipid content is rather underestimated on the package, while Spirulina lipid content is overestimated.

Although not measured in this study, abundant data on lipid quality (fatty acid composition) is available in literature. Two essential fatty acids (EFA), α -linolenic acid (18:3n-3; ALA) and linoleic acid (18:2n-6; LA), determine lipid quality. Furthermore, the conversion products of ALA, eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n-3; EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (22:6n-3; DHA), are also considered important. Otlés and Pire (2001) observed that commercial *C. pyrenoidosa* (n=3) lipids exist out of 14-16% ALA, 11-22% LA and 0-0.53% DHA+EPA, while *S. platensis* (n=3) lipids contain no ALA or DHA, 16-17% LA and 0-0.19% EPA. This species dependent variability in EFA composition indicates the potential for lipid quality improvement.

3.1.4. Protein and essential amino acids

Despite the general assumption that *Spirulina* contains a higher protein content compared to *Chlorella*, both species contain a similar average amount of protein of 48%. However, the average digestible protein content is lower for *Chlorella* (24%) compared to *Spirulina* (29%), due to the lower digestibility of *Chlorella* biomass. Comparing minimum to maximum protein content, *Chlorella* presents 55% variability between producers, which is higher compared to the variability in *Spirulina* biomass of 23% (Figure 2A). The cultivation parameter dependent variability in protein content reported by different authors (as presented in Figure 1) is reflected in the variability in this study for both *Chlorella* and *Spirulina*. Figure 1 shows an even larger variability in literature compared to the measured variability in this study. This can be explained by the inclusion of experiments under unfavorable conditions (e.g. nitrogen limitation) and by the use of different analytical methods based on total nitrogen (Maehre et al., 2018). In contrast, microalgae producing companies strive for the highest possible biomass productivity and quality, avoiding nutrient limitations or other harmful cultivation conditions. Furthermore, since not all intracellular nitrogen is present in protein but also in other nitrogenous constituents like nucleic acids, amines, glucosamides and cell wall material, a total nitrogen measurement overestimates the real protein content. This is also observed in this study, where a higher average protein content based on KjN was obtained (60% for *Chlorella* and 67% for *Spirulina*), compared to the protein measured based on the Markwell essay. Additionally, the ratio Markwell-protein over KjN-protein is larger for *Chlorella* compared to *Spirulina*, indicating the higher *Spirulina* non-protein nitrogen content. Indeed non-protein nitrogen amounts to 11.5% in *Spirulina* (Becker, 2004) and 10.3% in *Chlorella* (Fowden, 1952). Values for package match of KjN-

protein verify that KjN measurements are standard practice for protein determination in the food industry. Although this easy KjN is used as standard protein measurement, still up to 37% difference in package match between producers can be observed. This might suggest that protein content is not measured for every batch but an average value is displayed on the package. Finally, the variability comparing minimum and maximum protein content between production batches (6% for Chlorella and 22% for Spirulina; Figure 2B) and within a batch (8% for Chlorella and 3% for Spirulina; Figure 2C) is smaller compared to the variability between producers, but still indicates the room for nutritional optimization within one company.

In addition to bulk protein content, its quality in terms of EAA is a core marker for nutritional value (Figure 3). Humans are limited to the biosynthesis of certain amino acids only (non-essential amino acids) while the remaining (essential) amino acids have to be provided through food. Despite the similar average protein content in Chlorella and Spirulina samples originating from different producers, Spirulina contains a more favorable EAA composition according to human requirements. This is reflected in a higher EAAI for Spirulina (1.25), compared to Chlorella (1.05) (Figure 3G). Spirulina originating from different producers presents the largest variability in EAA with EAAI values between 1.01 and 1.45. Considering the separate amino acids, Chlorella biomass was mainly short in the sulfur containing amino acids (methionine and cysteine) with an average value of 14 ± 3 mg (met+cys)/g protein compared to the required 22 mg (met+cys)/g protein (Figure 3A; supplementary material). Furthermore, also histidine content (11 ± 2 mg his/g protein) was limiting compared to the required 15 mg his/g protein. Lysine was only short in some samples (C2, 3, 4 and 7), with a minimum of 33 mg lys/g protein. Spirulina also contained deficiencies in the sulfur containing amino

acids (18 ± 5 mg (met+cys)/g protein) and histidine (10 ± 3 mg his/g protein) (Figure 3D; supplementary material). In contrast with *Chlorella*, *Spirulina* did not present a deficiency in lysine (53 ± 7 mg lys/g protein). Taking into account digestibility, the DEAAI dropped below the optimal score of 1 for most samples, indicating an EAA shortage compared to the required reference intake (Figure 3G). In general, EAA profiles found in literature of most studied microalgae are favorably compared to the reference EAA profile, with minor deficiencies among the sulfur-containing amino acids methionine and cysteine. In contrast to the EAA variability of 4-56% and EAA differences between *Spirulina* and *Chlorella* observed in this study, Brown (1991) observed a rather similar AA composition in 12 genera (16 different species), however, excluding *Spirulina* and *Chlorella*. In terms of growth conditions, James et al. (1989) observed the temperature dependency of *Chlorella* sp. AA composition. Most of the EAA such as threonine, valine, methionine, isoleucine, leucine and lysine were present more at 30 and 35 °C compared to 15 °C and cystine and methionine showed an increasing trend with increasing temperature up to 30 °C. Compared to this study, the sufficient cysteine and methionine content in sample S1 could indicate that cultivation temperature was optimal. Furthermore, Ogbonda et al. (2007) also observed an influence of temperature and pH on the AA composition of *Spirulina* sp. with the highest EAA content at pH 9 and 30 °C. At 25 °C, the EAAI was only 0.4 while at 30 °C a value of 1.0 was obtained, while the presented amino acids show a relative standard deviation between 24 and 75%, indicating the significant room for EAA profile altering. Choi et al. (2003) determined the amino acid composition of *S. platensis* cultivated with ammonium, nitrate, nitrite and urea as nitrogen source. After 30 days, urea resulted in the highest amino acid content (174 mg/g dry weight), while the amino

acid profile was similar for all N sources. Further, within the ammonium treatment, the highest amino acid content (127 mg/g dry weight) was reached after 16 days, compared to only 73 mg/g dry weight after 30 days. Since it is not known which nitrogen source or harvesting time was applied to cultivate the biomass in this study, the exact magnitude of EAA variation due to these parameters cannot be determined.

3.2. Contamination and safe consumption

3.2.1. Heavy metals

Heavy metals end up in microalga biomass due to their presence as trace contaminants in fertilizers (Al-Dhabi, 2013) and because microalgae are known to bioaccumulate metals (Arunakumara & Xuecheng, 2008). While some metals are toxic (i.e. As, Cd, Hg, Pb, Ni), others are considered essential in human nutrition (Cu, Zn, Cr) but become hazardous when a certain intake value is exceeded. With the advice of the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), the European Union (EU) dictates maximum residue levels for toxic trace elements in food and recommends daily intake levels for essential trace elements (see supplementary material).

No violations of the EU regulation for food supplements were observed for cadmium, mercury and lead (Figure 4A, B). The measured mercury, cadmium and arsenic content in *Chlorella* ranged between 0.02 and 0.10 mg/kg, 0.01 and 0.10 mg/kg and 0.59 and 1.1 mg/kg, respectively, while no lead was detected (Figure 4A). In the *Spirulina* samples, mercury and cadmium levels were similar, ranging between 0.02 and 0.11 mg/kg and between 0.01 and 0.17 mg/kg, respectively, while no arsenic or lead was detected (Figure 4B). Nickel was mainly found in the *Spirulina* samples in concentrations between 1.1 and 3.4 mg/kg. These (heavy) metal contents are in the same range as those reported in other studies except for lead, which is often observed in a

concentration between 0.1 and 15 mg/kg (Al-Dhabi, 2013; Al-Homaidan, 2006; Campanella et al., 1999; Ortega-Calvo et al., 1993). For inorganic mercury, EFSA's Scientific Panel on Contaminants in the Food Chain (CONTAM) determined a tolerable weekly intake (TWI) level of 4 µg/kg body weight, corresponding with a daily safe consumption quantity of 444-2000 g Chlorella and 364-2000 g Spirulina (see supplementary material). For cadmium, a TWI level of 2.5 µg/kg body weight indicates a safe daily consumption quantity of 313-2500 g Chlorella and 313-2083 g Spirulina. For arsenic, no maximum levels are established for food, however, based on the benchmark dose lower confidence limit (BMDL₀₁) of 0.3-8 µg/kg body weight/day a daily consumption of 20-36 g Chlorella (only detected in C7a, C7b and C7c) can be considered safe (see supplementary material). For nickel the TDI is set at 2.8 µg Ni/kg body weight, permitting a consumption of 163 g per day for Chlorella (detected only in C7c1) and between 58 and 178 g/d Spirulina (detected in S1, S3, S4, S5, S7c2 and S7c3).

Copper and zinc were present in both types of microalgae as they are common fertilizers in microalgae cultivation, while chromium was only detected in Spirulina between 2.1 and 22.3 mg/kg. Copper content ranged between 1.2 and 22.3 mg/kg in the Chlorella samples while a content between 0.94 and 6.4 was measured in Spirulina. Zinc was present in larger concentrations between 14 and 69 mg/kg in Chlorella and between 17 and 50 mg/kg in Spirulina. Because copper and zinc are essential to sustain the health and function of the human body, an adequate daily intake (ADI) is advised of 1.6 mg copper/day, while the average requirement (AR) of zinc is set at 7.3 and 5.5 mg zinc/day for males and females, respectively. Finally, no average requirements are set for chromium, however, the TDI of 300 µg/day should not be exceeded, indicating a

daily safe consumption dose of at least 940 g Spirulina (S4, S7c2,3; see supplementary material).

3.2.2. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons

PAH can originate from natural and anthropogenic processes, mainly by incomplete combustion of organic matter. Because microalgae undergo a drying process PAH contamination is possible. Benzo(a)pyrene and Σ PAH4 levels exceeded the EU norm of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ and 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$, respectively (Figure 4C, D; supplementary material). The samples of Chlorella that were highly contaminated with values between 538 and 873 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ benzo(a)pyrene and between 2323 and 3423 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ PAH4, were originating from the same batch (C7c1, C7c2 and C7c3). Different production batches of Chlorella from the same company (C7a and C7b) did not violate the limits. Within the Spirulina samples originating from the same company, a violation of the Σ PAH4 norm was observed for samples S7a, S7b, S7c2 and S7c3, with values between 56 and 84 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$. Benzo(a)pyrene concentrations were safe with values between 3 and 4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$. Considering the average exposure of the European population to benzo(a)pyrene (0.24 $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$) and PAH4 (1.17 $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$), a safe daily consumption dose of 39-1700 g Chlorella and 25-1900 g Spirulina can be determined (see supplementary material). Zelinkova and Wenzl (2015) analyzed several food supplements, including 1 Chlorella and 9 Spirulina samples, for the occurrence of Σ PAH4 and detected levels between 17 and 68 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ benzo(a)pyrene and between 97 and 275 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ PAH4 in 3 Spirulina samples.

The potential violation of PAH limits and the observation that violations are not constant over time but batch specific, makes periodic monitoring essential. Special attention should be given towards downstream processing, such as a drying step, a

known source of PAH (Zelinkova & Wenzl, 2015). Sources of pollutants should be identified for highly contaminated products and remediating measures taken.

3.2.3. Other potentially hazardous components

Nucleic acids (DNA and RNA) are sources of purines that may cause an elevated uric acid level in the blood and increased urinary excretion of uric acid (Edozien et al., 1970). The measured nucleic acid content for *Chlorella* (1.4 ± 0.8 %DW) and *Spirulina* (1.6 ± 0.4 %DW) was lower compared to the reported values by Ortega-Calvo et al. (1993) of 5.4%DW for one commercial *Chlorella* sample and between 4.8 and 5.7%DW for three commercial *Spirulina* samples. Considering the tolerable daily intake of nucleic acids from unconventional sources of 2 g, the measured nucleic acid contents permit a safe consumption dose between 73 and 425 g/d *Chlorella* and between 106 and 265 g/d *Spirulina* (Figure 4E, F; supplementary material).

Finally, low concentrations of some pesticides were measured in one *Chlorella* sample (C1: 0.017 mg/kg chlorpyrifos) and in three *Spirulina* samples (S1: 0.014 mg/kg chlorpyrifos, 0.014 mg/kg ametryn; S4: 0.13 mg/kg BAC-C12, 0.13 mg/kg BAC-C14, 0.01 mg/kg BAC-C16, 0.11 mg/kg DDAC-C10; S7a: 0.007 mg/kg tebuconazole). Only *Chlorella* sample C4, originating from India, contained traces of the antibiotic sulfadoxine, present in antimalarial medication, with a concentration of 135 μ g/kg. No mycotoxins or acrylamide was detected. Finally, nitrate content varied between 9 and 188 mg/kg DW for *Chlorella* and between 8 and 368 mg/kg DW for *Spirulina* (data in supplementary material). Although these values hardly contribute to the total amount of N in the biomass, the highest values could indicate that nitrate was used as nitrogen source during cultivation. Considering the ADI for nitrate of 3.7 mg/kg body weight,

the highest nitrate content (368 mg/kg DW in sample S4) accord to the consumption of 700 mg biomass.

3.3. Overall appreciation based on nutritional quality and price

The systematic nutritional and safety analysis, including protein content, EAA composition (protein quality), lipid content and in-vitro digestibility, on a significant amount of industrial *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* samples, indicate the superiority of *Spirulina* compared to *Chlorella*. With respect to potential hazardous contamination mainly heavy metal, PAH and nucleic acid contents were determining. Based on these contaminants, *Spirulina* would be the overall safer choice. Figure 5 presents the price for the purchased microalga biomass, bought in typical food supplement volumes between 100 and 350 g for *Chlorella* and between 100 and 453 g for *Spirulina*. A large difference in price for the same product can be observed between 50 and 267 €/kg for *Chlorella* and between 48 and 191 €/kg *Spirulina*. Based on total biomass, *Chlorella* is on average 18% more expensive compared to *Spirulina* and based on protein content, *Chlorella* is 15% more expensive. Given the fact that the average *Spirulina* biomass digestibility and EAAI are both on average 19% higher compared to *Chlorella*, it is the preferred purchase. Additionally, *Spirulina* would be the most interesting species to research for RLSS applications. Currently, microalgae are produced as a food supplement and manufacturers report a recommended dose on the package between 2 and 9 gram per day (table 1). However, if microalgae are consumed as full or partial protein source the consumed doses increase, as well as the risk on contaminant exposure. Aside from the samples containing an exceptionally high PAH content, calculated safe consumption doses indicate the capacity as protein source rather than as food supplement (see supplementary material).

4. Conclusion

The revealed variability in nutritional quality within one microalgal type originating from different producing companies, and from different batches within a company, indicates the importance of growth parameter optimization. Furthermore, a high total protein or lipid content does not imply a high overall nutritional quality, since the EAA profile could still be unfavorable or a low digestibility could result in a lower nutrient availability. Furthermore, current package information lacks often accuracy and product safety is not always guaranteed. This necessitates careful and continuous monitoring of nutritional quality and safety. Finally, based on price and nutritional quality, Spirulina was preferred above Chlorella.

E-supplementary material of this work can be found in the online version of the paper.

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7. Figure captions

Table 1. Overview of examined *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* samples (all in powder form, except for S6, which were fine rods). The expiration date was used as a proxy for production batch. The reported recommended dose was given on the package. Empty cells for the samples C7 and S7 indicate that the same info is applicable as for C7a and S7a.

Figure 1. Variability in protein content of *Chlorella* spp. and *Spirulina* spp. based on literature research on the influence of cultivation parameters (autotrophic cultivation; lab scale) (see supplementary material). Dotted line: average; full line: median.

Figure 2. Overview of the variability in several markers for nutrition quality for *Chlorella* (green) and *Spirulina* (blue). 1A. Variability between producers; 1B. Variability between different batches; 1C. Variability within the same batch. Digestibility is measured in-vitro. Package match is expressed as 'measured content/package content'. VS: volatile solids; TS: total solids; KjN: Kjeldahl nitrogen. Dotted line: average; full line: median.

Figure 3. Essential amino acid (EAA) profiles for *Chlorella* (green; A, B and C) and *Spirulina* (blue; D, E and F) samples normalized for human essential amino acid requirements (circle indicates a value of 100 which is a perfect match with human requirements according FAO/WHO). Essential amino acid index (EAAI) and digestible essential amino acid index (DEAAI) variability for *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* (G, H and I) representing protein quality (a value of 1 represents a perfect match with human requirements). Used digestibility values are presented in figure 2. Data expressed as mg AA/g protein are presented in supplementary materials.

Figure 4. Safety parameters: heavy metal (4A. *Chlorella*; 4B. *Spirulina*), polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) content (4C. *Chlorella*; 4D. *Spirulina*) and nucleic acid content (4E. *Chlorella*; 4F. *Spirulina*). Dotted lines represent the limits in food supplements according to the European regulation for food supplements (see supplementary material). If no dotted line is displayed, no European limits are established for food supplements.

Figure 5. Variability in price per kg biomass and per kg protein for *Chlorella* (green; left) and *Spirulina* (blue; right). Dotted line: average; full line: median.

8. Tables

Table 1. Overview of examined *Chlorella* and *Spirulina* samples (all in powder form, except for S6, which were fine rods). The expiration date was used as a proxy for production batch. The reported recommended dose was given on the package. Empty cells for the samples C7 and S7 indicate that the same info is applicable as for C7a and S7a.

Genus	Code	Brand	Region of origin	Cultivation system	Reported species	Expiration date ^(a) (DD/MM/YY)	Recommended dose (g/d)
Chlorella	C1	Febico	Ping-Tung	Outdoor pond	<i>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</i>	04/03/19	3
	C2	Not specified	Hainan	Outdoor pond	Not specified	16/09/18	Not specified
	C3	Jarrow formulas	Ishigaki	Outdoor pond	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	01/07/17	2
	C4	Clean Chlorella	South Korea	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	5
	C5	Algomed	Klötze	Indoor tubular photobioreactor	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	14/12/18	3
	C6	Iswari	Hainan	Not specified	Not specified	01/03/17	6
	C7a	Purasana	Mongolia/Hainan ^(b)	Not specified	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> Beijerinck	30/03/19	9
	C7b					30/04/19	
	C7c1					31/05/18	
	C7c2						
C7c3							
Spirulina	S1	Febico	Ping-Tung	Outdoor pond	<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	14/01/19	3
	S2	Not specified	Hainan	Outdoor pond	Not specified	11/09/18	Not specified
	S3	Parry Nutraceutical	Chennai	Not specified	Not specified	01/11/17	3.3
	S4	Nutrex Hawaii	Hawaii	Outdoor pond	<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	01/01/19	3
	S5	Earthrise	Irvine	Outdoor pond	<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	01/01/19	3
	S6	Domaine traverse ^(c)	Toulon	Greenhouse pond	Not specified	Not specified	3 – 5
	S7a	Purasana	Mongolia/Hainan ^(b)	Not specified	<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	31/05/18	9
	S7b					30/03/19	
	S7c1					30/04/19	
	S7c2						
S7c3							

^(a) Expiration date was assumed to reflect the biomass production batch

^(b) "Mongolia or Hainan" was mentioned on the package as production location, however, due to the known large-scale production in Inner Mongolia, the sample could also originate from there

^(c) Fine rods (extrusion process)

NA: Not applicable

9. Figures

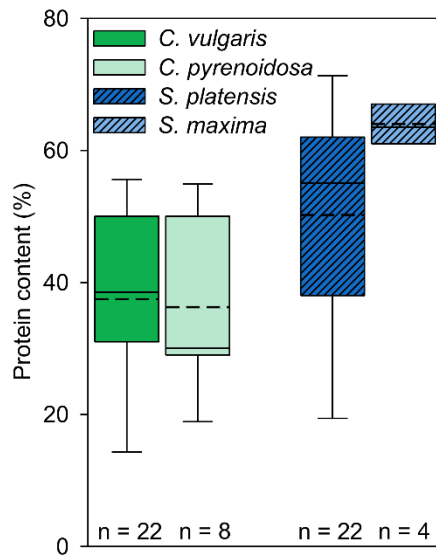


Figure 1. Variability in protein content of *Chlorella* spp. and *Spirulina* spp. based on literature research on the influence of cultivation parameters (autotrophic cultivation; lab scale) (see supplementary material). Dotted line: average; full line: median.

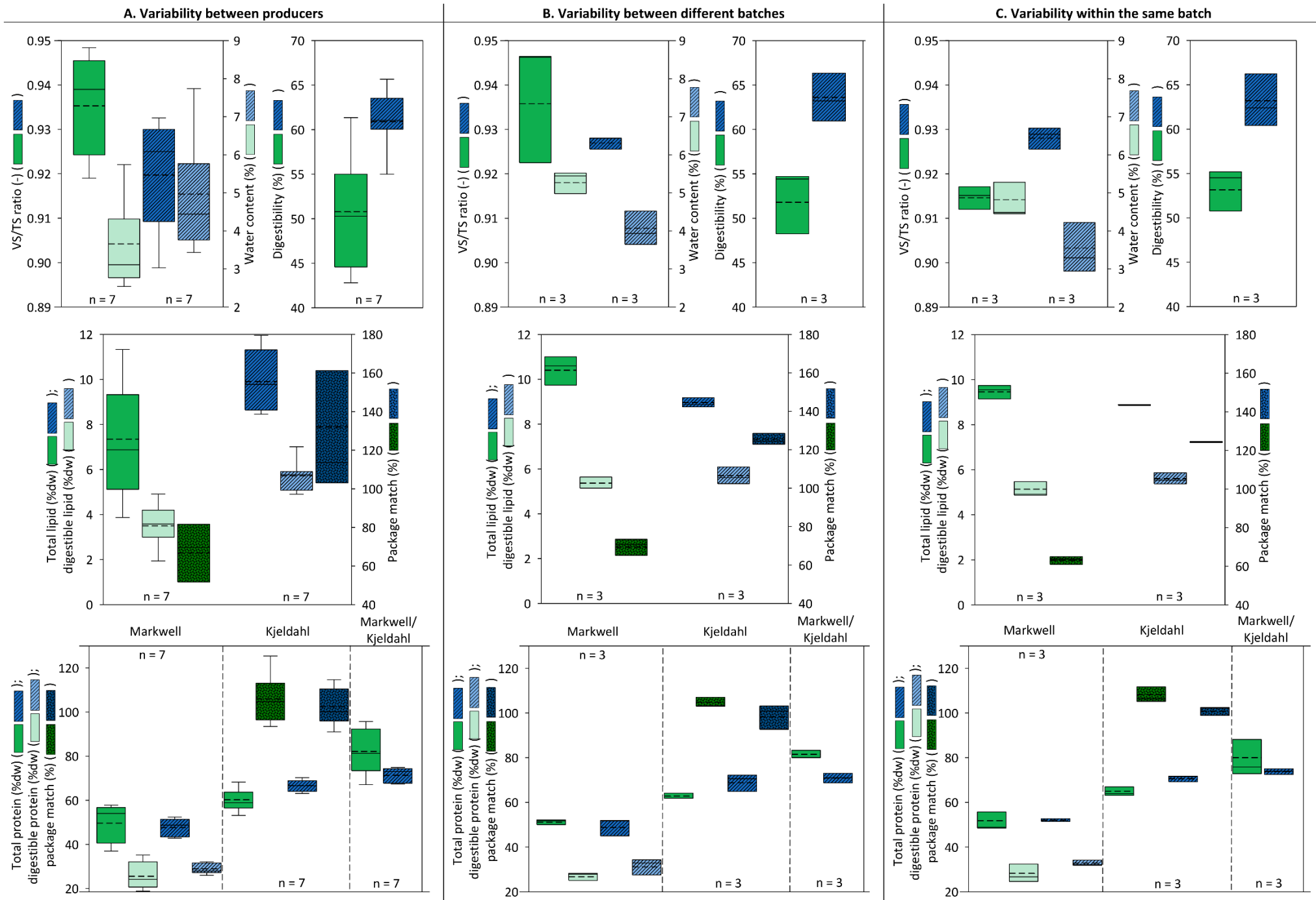


Figure 2. Overview of the variability in several markers for nutrition quality for Chlorella (green) and Spirulina (blue). 1A. Variability between producers; 1B. Variability between different batches; 1C. Variability within the same batch. Digestibility is measured in-vitro. Package match is expressed as 'measured content/package content'. VS: volatile solids; TS: total solids; KjN: Kjeldahl nitrogen. Dotted line: average; full line: median.

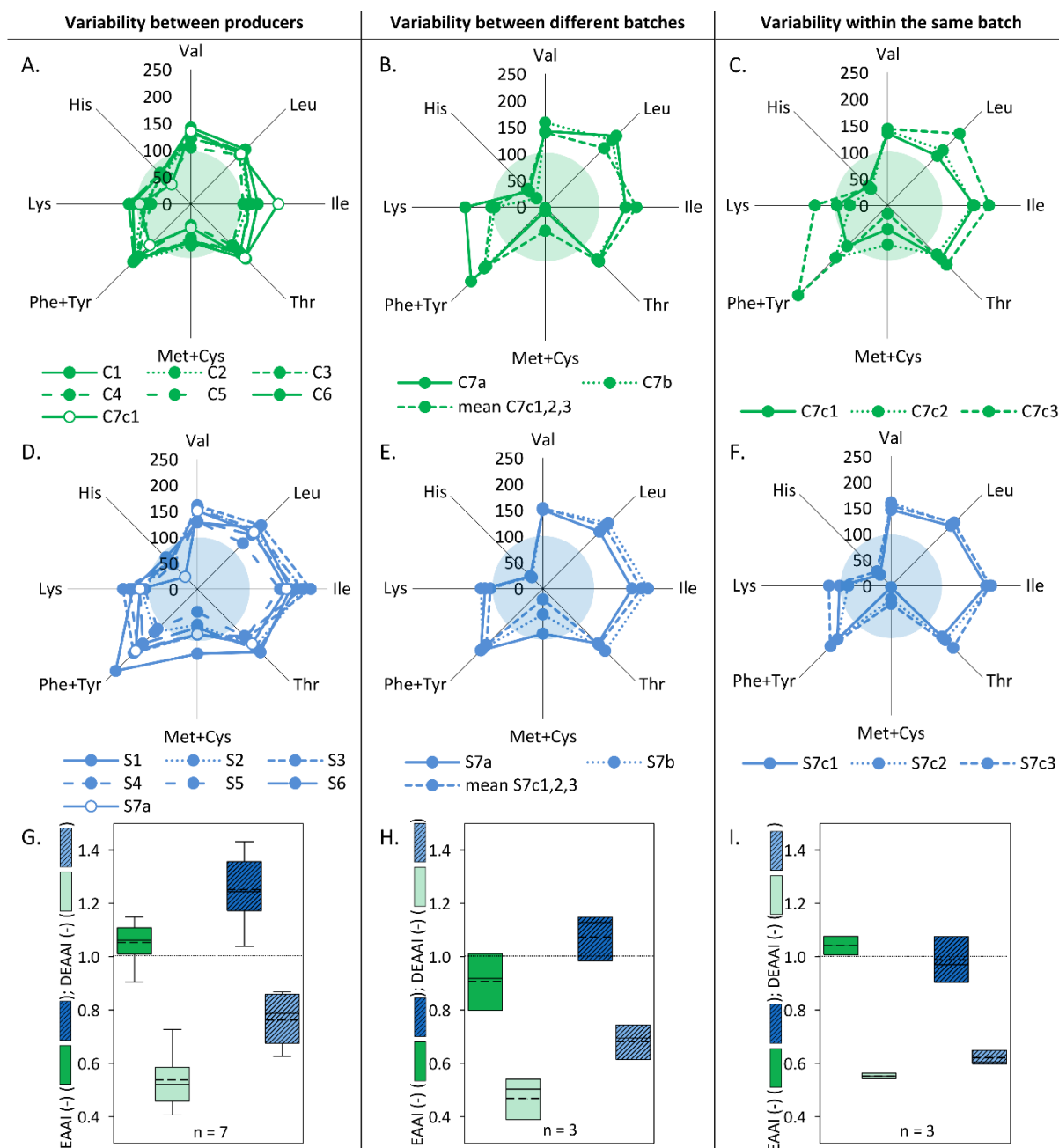


Figure 3. Essential amino acid (EAA) profiles for Chlorella (green; A, B and C) and Spirulina (blue; D, E and F) samples normalized for human essential amino acid requirements (circle indicates a value of 100 which is a perfect match with human requirements according FAO/WHO). Essential amino acid index (EAAI) and digestible essential amino acid index (DEAAI) variability for Chlorella and Spirulina (G, H and I) representing protein quality (a value of 1 represents a perfect match with human requirements). Used digestibility values are presented in figure 2. Data expressed as mg AA/g protein are presented in supplementary materials.

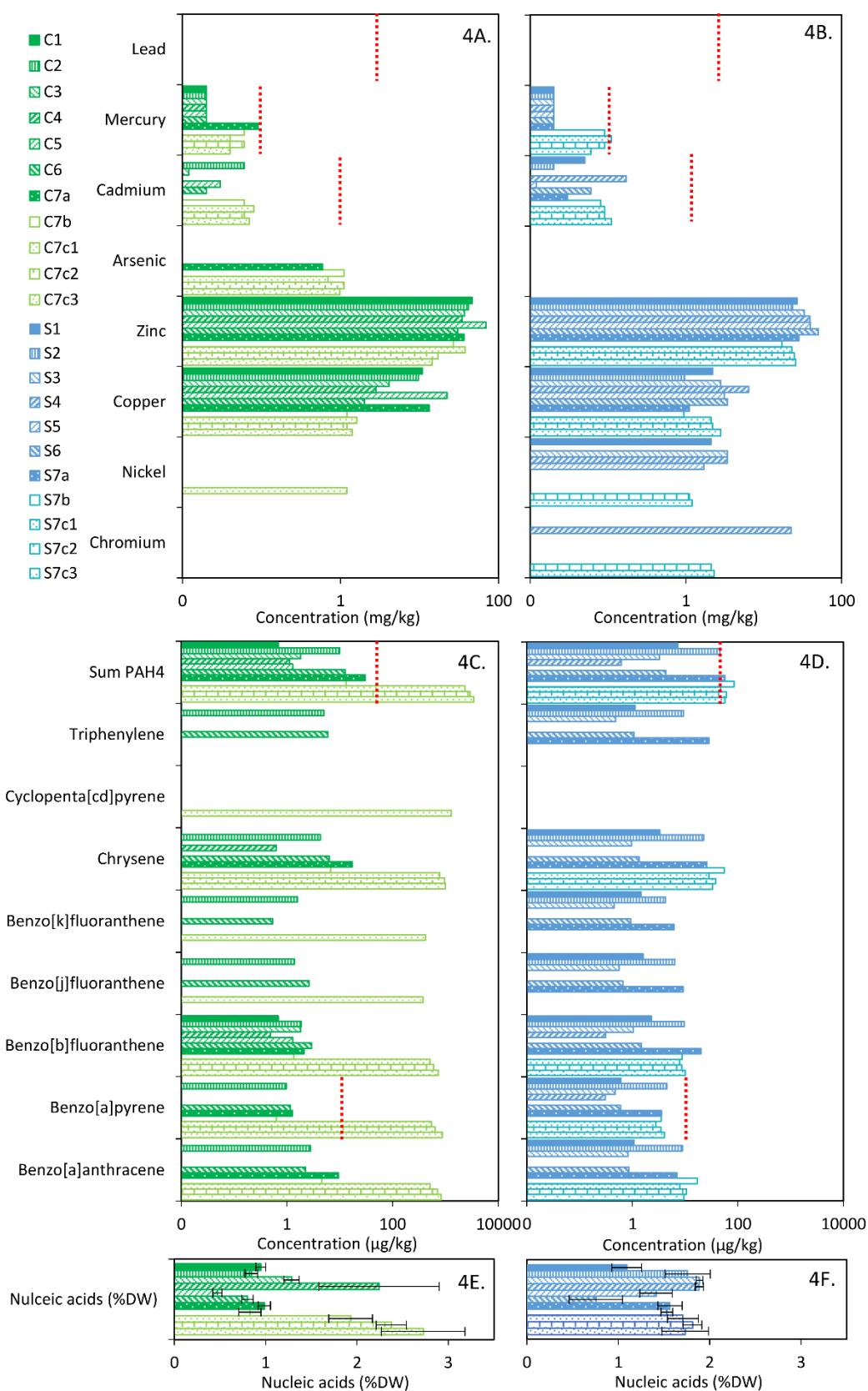


Figure 4. Safety parameters: heavy metal (4A. Chlorella; 4B. Spirulina), polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) content (4C. Chlorella; 4D. Spirulina) and nucleic acid content (4E. Chlorella; 4F. Spirulina). Dotted lines represent the limits in food supplements according to the European regulation for food supplements (see supplementary material). If no dotted line is displayed, no European limits are established for food supplements.

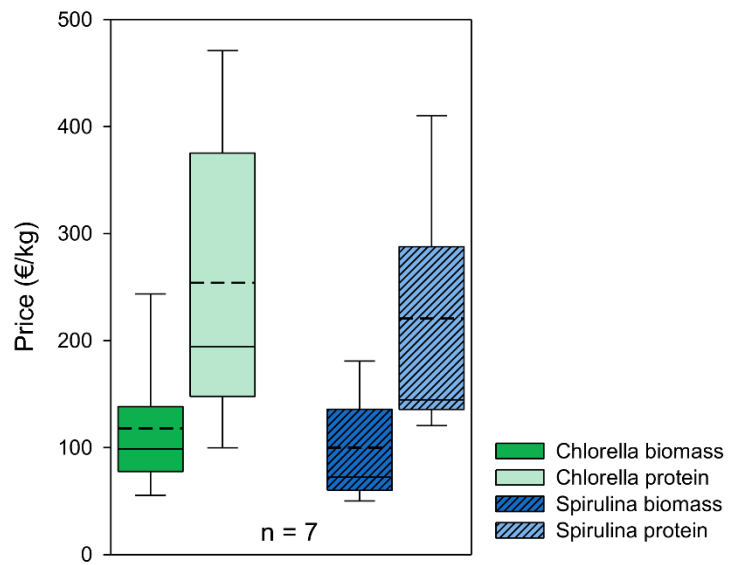


Figure 5. Variability in price per kg biomass and per kg protein for Chlorella (green; left) and Spirulina (blue; right). Dotted line: average; full line: median.