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Reference:

Sui Yixing, Jiang Yu, Moretti Michele, Vlaeminck Siegfried.- Harvesting time and biomass composition affect the economics of microalgae production
Journal of cleaner production / Masson - ISSN 0959-6526 - 259(2020), 120782
Full text (Publisher's DOI): <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JCLEPRO.2020.120782>
To cite this reference: <https://hdl.handle.net/10067/1668020151162165141>

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Journal Pre-proof

1 Word count of the manuscript: 5861

2 **Harvesting time and biomass composition affect the economics of microalgae production**

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1 **Abstract**

2 Cost simulations provide a strong tool to render the production of microalgae economically
3 viable. This study evaluated the unexplored effect of harvesting time and the corresponding
4 microalgal biomass composition on the overall production cost, under both continuous light
5 and light/dark regime using techno-economic analysis (TEA). At the same time, the TEA gives
6 evidence that a novel product “proteinaceous salt” from *Dunaliella* microalgae production is a
7 promising high-value product for commercialization with profitability. The optimum production
8 scenario is to employ natural light/dark regime and harvest microalgal biomass around late
9 exponential phase, obtaining the minimum production cost of 11 €/kg and a profitable
10 minimum selling price (MSP) of 14.4 €/kg for the “proteinaceous salt”. For further optimization
11 of the production, increasing microalgal biomass concentration is the most effective way to
12 reduce the total production cost and increase the profits of microalgae products.

13 **Key words**

14 Novel food; microalgae; single-cell protein; food market; biobased economy

15 **1. Introduction**

16 The rising global population and accompanying demands for food, feed, energy and other high-
17 value compounds have brought up microalgae as one of the most important sources in the
18 biobased economy (Fasaei et al., 2018). These photosynthetic microorganisms use natural
19 sunlight and convert carbon dioxide and other nutrients into valuable biomass, which can
20 further be used for various applications (Dassey and Theegala, 2013; Slade and Bauen, 2013).
21 Besides, the fact that microalgae can be cultivated without using arable land and freshwater

22 makes them a sustainable alternative to the current practices of food production, which exploit
23 natural resources (Dassey and Theegala, 2013; Ruiz et al., 2016). Lastly, the possibility of
24 cultivating and harvesting microalgae all-year-round also brings great commercial interests
25 (Ruiz et al., 2016).

26 Nevertheless, microalgae production world-widely is still in its infancy, facing challenge of high
27 production cost (Fasaei et al., 2018; Ruiz et al., 2016). Although large amount of efforts have
28 been invested, exploring ways to reduce the production cost, the current price of microalgae
29 products still remains higher comparing with conventional protein sources. According to Ruiz et
30 al., (2016), the commercial production cost of microalgae products can be significantly reduced
31 by increasing production scales and choosing a suitable production location. Based on these
32 parameters, the projections indicate that only high-value compounds from microalgae used in
33 e.g. food additive, cosmetics and biorefinery can be profitable currently, leaving bulk
34 commodities from microalgae such as carbohydrates, lipids and protein unprofitable (Ruiz et al.,
35 2016). More studies also investigated other parameters affecting the microalgae production
36 cost, including harvesting and dewatering methods (Fasaei et al., 2018; Musa et al., 2019),
37 reactor designs (Norsker et al., 2011; Ruiz et al., 2016) and lighting methods (Blanken et al.,
38 2013). Despite the various considerations in previous studies, almost all existing techno-
39 economic analysis (TEA) on microalgae production still share one fact in common: the
40 harvesting time of microalgae and the microalgal biomass is either assumed fixed, or not
41 mentioned at all. For instance, Ruiz et al., (2016) adopted a fixed harvesting time at biomass
42 concentration of 0.15 g/L with a fixed biomass composition of *Nannochloropsis* sp. with 50%
43 protein, 20% carbohydrate, 20% lipid in the TEA, Rogers et al., (2014) assumed a fixed

44 harvesting time at biomass concentration of 0.5 g/L and fixed 25% lipid content of microalgae in
45 the economic assumption and Tredici et al., (2016) assumed 40-50% protein content of
46 *Tetraselmis suecica* reflecting an average biomass productivity of 15 g/m²/d in the TEA.
47 Whereas other studies did not even specify the biomass composition. For example, Ación et al.,
48 (2012) employed a fixed biomass concentration of 1.26 g/L in a flat panel photobioreactor and
49 Norsker et al., (2011) used three fixed biomass concentration of 0.32 g/L, 1.7 g/L and 2.01 g/L in
50 a raceway pond, horizontal tubular and flat panel photobioreactor, respectively, neither
51 mentioning any biomass composition at all.

52 The biomass composition among different microalgal species can be remarkably different
53 (Sudhakar et al., 2019). Even more, biomass composition of one microalgal strain can also vary
54 significantly depending on multiple factors including the growth phases (Fidalgo et al., 1998; Sui
55 and Vlaeminck, 2019), nutrient levels (Sui et al., 2019a), temperature (Zhu et al., 1997) and light
56 intensities (Sui et al., 2019a). For example, the protein content can typically present an
57 increase-decrease pattern throughout the growth phases, depending on the microalgal species
58 and specific cultivating conditions, reaching the highest protein content around the exponential
59 phase (Piorreck and Pohl, 1984; Sui et al., 2019b; Sui and Vlaeminck, 2019). Although higher
60 microalgal protein content might be very appealing, very little biomass can be accumulated
61 during the exponential phase. Whereas the stationary phase indicates the most microalgal
62 biomass accumulation, this biomass can be poor in protein. As a result, choosing different
63 harvesting times, thus different microalgal growth phases can significantly affect the biomass
64 composition and final production of microalgae and the targeted microalgal compounds e.g.

65 protein or lipid. Ultimately, these factors can influence the overall production cost to large
66 extent.

67 This study uses a TEA method to analyze the variations of microalgae production cost
68 introduced by harvesting time with different biomass composition from different growth
69 phases, with special focus on the protein content. Furthermore, the results from the TEA are
70 complemented with a market analysis, where the economic profitability of a novel high-value
71 product “proteinaceous salt” is proposed and discussed.

72 **2. Scenario description**

73 All biological parameters for the definition of the scenarios were collected from previous
74 experimental studies (Sui et al., 2019b; Sui and Vlaeminck, 2019). In these studies, the authors
75 evaluated the effects of different growth phases and light regimes on *Dunaliella salina* growth
76 and protein accumulation. Based on real experimental data and assumptions obtained from
77 literature studies, this study adopts *Dunaliella salina* cultivation in open raceway ponds which
78 occupies 1 hectare (ha) of area in Belgian or Dutch climate conditions (Table 1). The microalgal
79 biomass production chain is divided into three major steps: medium preparation, cultivation
80 and harvest (Fig. 1). The production regime is batch-harvest, which means after every harvest
81 of entire production volume, a new batch cultivation starts. In total sixteen different scenarios
82 were analyzed in this study, including eight different harvest points at day 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 19,
83 24 and 28 from the exponential growth phase until the stationary growth phase for both
84 continuous light regime (L) and light/dark regime (LD). Each harvest point corresponds to a
85 different biomass and protein productivity.

86 The lifetime of the scenario project is 22 years, including two years of construction period and
87 empowerment, twenty years of production period. To elevate and enhance the value of
88 microalgal biomass, a novel product “proteinaceous salt” was conceived in this study. Instead
89 of microalgal biomass alone, this novel product combines both the values of microalgal protein
90 and their biomass, as well as the salt accumulation properties of halophilic *Dunaliella salina*.
91 Since such novel salt production does not exist on the market, the ideal purpose of
92 “proteinaceous salt” is to complement conventional table salt by supplying major nutritional
93 advantages of proteins in human salt consumption.

94 **3. Techno-economic analysis (TEA)**

95 The TEA method used in this study consists of three steps:

96 1) Production assessment: during this step, both techno- and economic-analyses evaluate
97 the total production cost, total production and individual production cost of the three
98 main products: biomass organics, biomass protein and “proteinaceous salt”, from all
99 sixteen production scenarios. However, these three products are not coexisting. The
100 “proteinaceous salt” contains biomass organics and protein.

101 The production cost is divided into capital expenditure (CAPEX) and operational expenditure
102 (OPEX). The total CAPEX of the project is determined by multiplying the total annual CAPEX
103 (CAPEX_a) with the project lifetime (T) (Equation 1, Table 4). The total annual CAPEX involves the
104 depreciation of the fixed capital investment, property tax, insurance and purchase tax
105 (Equation 2, Table 4). The fixed capital investment (CI) includes direct cost (DC), indirect cost (IC)
106 and other cost (OC), which are all based on multiplying Lang factors to the major equipment

107 expenditure (MEE) (Equation 3, Table 4). The MEE covers all major equipment in need for the
 108 entire production chain from medium preparation to harvest (Table 3).

$$\text{Total CAPEX} = \text{CAPEX}_a \times T \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

$$\text{CAPEX}_a = \frac{CI}{T} + \text{Property tax} + \text{Insurance} + \text{Purchase tax} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

$$CI = DC + IC + OC \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

109 The total OPEX of the project is determined by multiplying the annual OPEX (OPEX_a) with the
 110 project lifetime (T) (Equation 4, Table 6). The annual OPEX involves major utility expenditure
 111 (MUE), labor cost and others (maintenance, overheads, contingency etc.) (Equation 5, Table 6).
 112 The MUE covers all major utilities in need for the entire production chain from medium
 113 preparation to harvest (Table 5). Detailed cost assumptions can be found in Table 2.

$$\text{Total OPEX} = \text{OPEX}_a \times T \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CAPEX}_a = & \text{MUE} + \text{Labor} + \text{Maintenance} + \text{Operating supplies} + \text{General overhead} \\ & + \text{Contingency} \quad \text{Equation 5} \end{aligned}$$

114 The total production cost is the sum of total CAPEX and OPEX, and by dividing the total
 115 microalgal biomass or protein production, the biomass production cost and protein production
 116 cost can be determined. To assess the proteinaceous salt production cost, it is assumed that
 117 after the harvest without washing the biomass, 30% salt from the medium will still remain
 118 together with the biomass. The “proteinaceous salt” is considered to contain 30% salt and 70%
 119 biomass organics, hence its production is simply 30% more than the microalgal biomass

120 production. Based on the outcome, the scenario with the lowest production cost of all three
121 products is considered the base scenario used in all later analyses.

122 2) Economic assessment: the economic feasibility of all sixteen production scenarios are
123 determined using criteria parameters net present value (NPV) and minimum selling
124 price (MSP).

125 Based on the TEA performed, a market analysis was also performed to evaluate the profitability
126 of the proposed project. The analysis calculates the minimum selling price (MSP) in each of the
127 sixteen scenarios in order to reach first positive net present value (NPV) after the project
128 lifetime. The construction period of the project was considered two years, thus no revenues can
129 be generated in those years. It is assumed that 70% of the total project CAPEX is on the loan
130 with an interest rate of 2%. A positive NPV value indicates a good option for investment. The
131 equation to calculate NPV is as follows:

$$132 \quad NPV = \sum_{t=0}^T \frac{R_t}{(1+i)^t} \quad \text{Equation 6}$$

133 where T is the project lifetime (22 years including 2 years construction), t is the year of the cash
134 flow, R_t is the net cash flow in year t and i is the discount rate. The cash flow comprises cash
135 inflow and cash outflow (negative). Cash inflow includes revenues of the product sales. Cash
136 outflows includes total CAPEX, total OPEX, re-investment of equipment and loan interest.

137 3) Sensitivity assessment: this step investigates the impact of varying input parameters on
138 the final output parameters of the TEA results, including changes in total production
139 cost, NPV and MSP.

140 Based on the significances of contribution to the total production cost, three parameters were
141 considered in the sensitivity analysis: spray dryer price, CO₂ usage and labor cost. One
142 additional parameter, microalgal biomass concentration, was also included in the sensitivity
143 analysis because it affects both cash outflows e.g. CAPEX and OPEX, and cash inflows i.e.
144 revenues. The magnitude of variation for these parameters is set at ±10%. Besides, five more
145 scenarios with practical implications were also included in the sensitivity analysis: increased CO₂
146 usage efficiency from 20% to 50% in raceway pond; free CO₂ source from flue gas; varied
147 biomass concentration to 1 g/L and 0.3 g/L in raceway pond; cheaper labor cost if placing the
148 project in countries with lower cost per unit of labor, such as Poland. These factors were tested
149 without considering their associated cost input/output and biological effects, e.g. improved
150 facilities and technologies to enhance CO₂ usage efficiency or biomass concentration, pipeline
151 work and composition of flue gas, relocation to countries with cheaper labor.

152 **4. Results and discussion**

153 Four different aspects of the TEA, including production assessment, economic assessment, cost
154 distribution and sensitivity analysis are included in this section.

155 4.1 Production assessment: variations of total production, total production cost and product 156 production cost

157 As seen in Fig. 2A and 2B, different harvesting time not only substantially affect the total
158 production of biomass organics, microalgal protein and proteinaceous salt, but also the total
159 production cost and the corresponding CAPEX and OPEX distribution. Although the total
160 production of all three products are much higher when cultivated under continuous light (L)

161 than light/dark regime (LD), the associated cost, both CAPEX and especially OPEX, are also
162 considerably more. From both light regimes, the total production of biomass organics and
163 proteinaceous salt both showed peaks around day 16, while the production of microalgal
164 protein started to drop earlier (Fig. 2A and 2B). The main cause is from the changing biomass
165 protein content in *D. salina* at different growth phases (Sui et al., 2019b). As reported, the
166 biomass protein content of *D. salina* presents an increase-decrease pattern with the highest
167 protein content of around 80% achieved in the exponential growth phase and falls by up to 50%
168 towards the stationary phase (Sui et al., 2019b).

169 Microalgal protein result in the highest production cost, while proteinaceous salt showed the
170 lowest production cost under both light regimes (Fig. 2C and 2D). Comparing the two light
171 regimes, continuous light leads to much higher production cost for all biomass organics,
172 microalgal protein and proteinaceous salt (Fig. 2C). Nonetheless, under both light regimes, the
173 production cost of each product gives a similar decrease-increase pattern (Fig. 2C and 2D). This
174 pattern reveals the importance of choosing the optimum harvest point, in the interest of
175 achieving the minimum production cost. The early harvest point around the exponential phase
176 (around day 4) of microalgal growth gives difficulties for harvesting diluted microalgal culture,
177 resulting in higher production cost and low amount of harvested biomass. The late harvest
178 point in the stationary phase (around day 28) in fact reduces the total production cost.

179 However, the longer cultivation period largely hinders the total microalgae production, which
180 elevates the production cost as well. To harvest around late exponential phase (around day 16)
181 seems to be the optimum, with sufficient amount of biomass in the culture and relatively short

182 cultivation time, securing the lowest production cost. At this point, microalgal biomass also
183 possesses the high amount of proteins in the cell, strengthening its nutritional value.

184 From both light regimes, the lowest production costs of biomass organics and proteinaceous
185 salt were 16 €/kg and 11 €/kg, obtained from light/dark regime on day 16 and day 19. The
186 lowest microalgal protein production costs were 25 €/kg from day 13 and 26 €/kg from day 16
187 under light/dark regime. Therefore, day 16 from light/dark regime (LD16) is considered to be
188 the optimum scenario for microalgae production and harvest, having the lowest production
189 cost of all microalgae products. Table 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 report the detailed CAPEX and OPEX from
190 LD16. This scenario is also used as base scenario in the following analyses of e.g. CAPEX and
191 OPEX distribution, NPV calculation and sensitivity. The biomass production cost in this study is
192 similar with other reported values of comparable cultivation conditions. Norsker et al., (2011)
193 has reported a biomass production cost of 18 €/kg based on 1 ha raceway cultivation in the
194 Netherlands. However, when the production scale is increased to 100 ha, the production cost
195 can be significantly reduced to only 5 €/kg. Besides the scale, different photo-bioreactor (PBR)
196 designs such as horizontal and vertical tubular PBR, flat panel PBR can also reduce the
197 production cost by more than 40% (Norsker et al., 2011). Regarding locations, even applying the
198 same 1 ha raceway pond, warmer and cheaper locations such as Canary Islands, Turkey,
199 Curacao, Saudi Arabia and southern Spain can contribute to more than 50% reduction of the
200 biomass production cost (Ruiz et al., 2016). As mentioned, many parameters can influence the
201 microalgae production to different extend, it is therefore crucial to understand how all major
202 causes can affect the production strategies differently. The results from this study can certainly

203 complement the existing knowledge, providing more detailed information to help promoting
204 microalgae production more economically.

205 4.2 Economic assessment: feasibility of “proteinaceous salt” as a novel microalgae product

206 In Fig. 3B, when using a selling price of 1.1 €/kg as microalgal protein (Ruiz et al., 2016), it is
207 evidently that this project will not profit at all (negative NPV) after the lifetime of twenty years,
208 from neither light regimes. This result confirms that selling microalgae as bulk commodities as
209 protein is still too costly, therefore new insights for the market are required to commercialize
210 novel microalgae products (Fasaei et al., 2018; Ruiz et al., 2016). One way is to explore possible
211 high-value compounds (e.g. pigments) from microalgal cells, however it requires more delicate
212 biorefinery steps. Another way is to explore the novel usage of microalgal biomass, hence
213 potentially boosting their relevant market price. For instance, black lava salt has been on the
214 market used in cooking for its enhanced flavor and detoxifying effect from blended activated
215 charcoal, with a selling price of around 23 €/kg. Using this selling price, the NPV of the project in
216 this study can substantially increase, achieving a positive NPV in five years from light/dark
217 regime (Fig. 3B). This result confirms that as long as a novel product with unique nutritional
218 functionalities can fit in a niche market, its economic profitability can achieve positive,
219 benefiting from a higher selling price. Consequently, to elevate the project profitability in this
220 study, a novel microalgae product “proteinaceous salt” is proposed for commercialization. Fig.
221 3A displays the minimum selling price (MSP) of “proteinaceous salt” from all sixteen scenarios
222 under both light regimes. The pattern of the MSP in each light regime is similar with the
223 production costs, giving a decrease-increase form following the harvesting time (Fig. 3A).
224 Continuous light again showed drawbacks resulting in general higher prices compared with

225 light/dark regime (Fig. 3A). The MSP of 14.4 €/kg from day 16 under light/dark regime shows
226 the lowest MSP of all scenarios, agreeing with the base scenario chosen above based on the
227 lowest production cost (Fig. 3A). As seen in Fig. 3B and 3C, apart from using the price of black
228 lava salt, the MSP of 14.4 €/kg is the only case where a positive NPV is achieved after the
229 project time, indicating its great economic potential for commercialization. Comparing with all
230 other fifteen scenarios, Fig. 3C also indicates that only the base scenario of harvesting
231 microalgal biomass at day 16 from light/dark regime can actually contribute to a profitable
232 project, giving the only positive NPV.

233 Besides the economic feasibility, the proposed “proteinaceous salt” also provides some unique
234 nutritional qualities, thus fits in a slightly different market than some conventional microalgae
235 products. Taking *Chlorella* for example, it is currently sold and used as food ingredient in other
236 conventional foods such as pastas, snacks, candies, beverages, or as food supplements in the
237 form of powder, tablets, capsules and liquids (Kay, 1991). The average selling price of *Chlorella*
238 is 25 €/kg in Europe, which can go as high as 267 €/kg (Frost & Sullivan, 2015; Muys et al., 2019).
239 Fitting in the niche market of nutritional and functional food with lasting customers makes
240 *Chlorella* production still profitable by its relatively high selling price (Frost & Sullivan, 2015).
241 *Dunaliella* biomass on one hand is adopting similar market strategy, offering β -carotene rich
242 biomass as an ingredient of dietary supplements and functional foods (Spolaore et al., 2006).
243 Beyond this, the “proteinaceous salt” can also be marketed more into a day-to-day scheme,
244 sharing with conventional table salt, sea salt and other higher valued salts on the kitchen table
245 (Table 7). More importantly, the lower sodium content in “proteinaceous salt” is comparable
246 with other common types of seasoned salt, potentially contributing to health benefits related

247 for instance to high blood pressure (Table 7). Two main advantages can be achieved with this
248 product. Firstly, *Dunaliella* microalgae requires large amount of salt (e.g. from natural sea water)
249 in their medium for cultivation due to the halophilic characteristic, hence washing off the salt to
250 obtain clean biomass will largely increase production cost. Without such washing step, the
251 harvested *Dunaliella* biomass will contain both edible salt and nutritional biomass, saving
252 production cost while presenting a novel nutritional salt product. Secondly, “proteinaceous salt”
253 does not only provide the salt requirement, but also part of protein requirement for human.
254 Assuming an average adult with 70 kg body weight needs 46.2 g protein and consumes 8-12 g
255 salt per day (EFSA, 2015; European Commission, 2012), consuming “proteinaceous salt” can
256 provide 25-37% of the daily protein requirement for human, which certainly reveals top
257 nutritional advantages of the product. Additionally, *Dunaliella* strains are known to tolerate
258 iodine in the culture medium and tend to accumulate small amount of iodine in the biomass
259 (Van Bergeijk et al., 2016). Consequently, when needed, iodine addition to the culture medium
260 is foreseen to increase the amount of iodine in “proteinaceous salt”. Based on the results from
261 this study, “proteinaceous salt” can have a promising future on the market, complementing,
262 expanding or even creating a new niche market for nutritional daily foods.

263 4.3 Cost distribution: artificial light comes with cost

264 Harvesting time day 16 from both continuous light (L) and light/dark regime (LD) was used as an
265 example to look into detailed cost distribution. In Fig. 4, the major equipment expenditure
266 (MEE) and major utility expenditure (MUE) are broken into the three main production steps.
267 The most costly step is further divided into all elements composing that step. From all the
268 results above regarding the total CAPEX and OPEX of the project, production cost of biomass

269 organics, microalgal protein and proteinaceous salt, MSPs and NPVs of different scenarios, it is
270 obvious that continuous light brings much more cost to the project, yields higher potential
271 selling price of the product, thus results in no profitability comparing with using natural
272 light/dark cycles. Using continuous light, the cultivation step is responsible for more than 57%
273 of the total MEE costs, and the investment for the lighting infrastructure contributes to more
274 than 54% of the MEE costs in cultivation step (Fig. 4A). The cultivation step also covers 93% of
275 the total MUE costs, with more than 90% of these costs coming from the energy usage for
276 artificial lighting (Fig. 4B). The breakdown of MEE and MUE gives evidence that artificial lighting
277 comes with great cost, directly elevating the production cost of microalgal biomass. Even
278 though various efforts have been made to improve PBR designs for a more cost-effective
279 lighting strategy, both capital and operational cost of artificial lighting has still been reported as
280 a major issue (Chen et al., 2011). Moreover, using artificial lighting can result in a negative
281 energy balance, meaning the ratio of incorporated energy from energy input into the microalgal
282 biomass can be largely reduced (Blanken et al., 2013). As a consequence, from an economic
283 perspective, natural light/dark cycle is the preferred option for outdoor microalgae production.

284 When the same practice of breaking down MEE and MUE costs is done in the light/dark regime,
285 the harvesting process become the major contribution to the overall MEE costs, taking up 53%
286 of the total MEE costs (Fig. 4C). The cost of spray drying unit composes 51% of the total cost of
287 the harvest step (Fig. 4C). The significance of harvesting and dewatering steps has also been
288 shown in various studies, with a 20-30% cost contribution to microalgae production for biofuels
289 and other purposes (Fasaei et al., 2018; Musa et al., 2019). Regarding MUE, the most significant

290 cost comes from the cultivation step (around 55%) with CO₂ usage covering 81% of the total
291 cost in this step (Fig. 4D).

292 4.4 Sensitivity analysis: key parameters have major impact

293 As seen in Fig. 5A and 5B, the $\pm 10\%$ variations for each of the analyzed parameter in the bas
294 scenario do not bring large changes in the total production cost (less than 4%) and NPV (less
295 than 1900%). If the CO₂ usage efficiency can be increased from 20% to 50% in the raceway pond,
296 7% of the total production cost can be saved while increasing the NPV by 1153% (Fig. 5A and
297 5B). Moreover, if flue gas containing CO₂ can be adopted in the production, the production cost
298 can be reduced by 12%, while increasing the NPV by 1922% (Fig. 5A and 5B). Regarding the
299 labor cost, when cheaper labor can be employed, a substantially 24% drop of total production
300 cost can be reached, meanwhile improving the NPV by 3993% (Fig. 5A and 5B). For most
301 parameters, an increase in total production cost translates into a decrease in the NPV,
302 reflecting a symmetric pattern in Fig. 5A and 5B. Nonetheless, microalgal biomass
303 concentration results in an asymmetric pattern, increasing or decreasing total production cost
304 and the NPV simultaneously (Fig. 5A and 5B). Since biomass concentration is determining
305 several CAPEX and OPEX related costs, such as higher biomass concentration requires more CO₂
306 thus bigger capacity of CO₂ supply unit, adopting a biomass concentration of 1 g/L or 0.3 g/L in
307 the base scenario instead of 0.58 g/L directly determines an increase of 15% or a decrease of 10%
308 total production cost, respectively (Fig. 5A). However, microalgal biomass is also the only
309 source of revenue generated in this project, thereby the less biomass is produced, the less
310 revenues are generated. As seen in Fig. 5B, the decreased biomass concentration results in a
311 8922% lower NPV. Conversely, the NPV increase by increasing biomass concentration achieved

312 the best of all considered parameters, with 13788%. This subsequently results in a 36%
313 reduction of the MSP, from 14.4 €/kg to 9.2 €/kg, largely increasing the profitability of the
314 project (Fig. 5C). Therefore, biomass concentration should be considered primary target for
315 enhanced profitability, rather than any other type of CAPEX or OPEX reduction.

316 Although the results from the sensitivity analysis have very clear indications, in practice, it still
317 requires thorough considerations and calculations regarding the associated influences of each
318 parameter on the total cost, NPV and biological effects on microalgae production. For instance,
319 it is unlikely to increase the CO₂ usage efficiency without investing in more sophisticated
320 equipment and facilities, hence increasing the total production cost (Li et al., 2013).

321 Nevertheless, increased CO₂ usage efficiency will enhance biomass production at the same time,
322 which brings revenues in return (Li et al., 2013). With respect to using flue gas, it also does not
323 just eliminate the cost of CO₂ without bringing extra cost. It is known that transportation of gas
324 is costly, flue gas with unknown impurities which are corrosive can further increase the cost
325 input for pipeline designs (Raheem et al., 2018; Spiller et al., 2020). Although the effect of using
326 flue gas can have various impact on microalgal growth, it is quite possible that the composition
327 of flue gas can also assist microalgal growth, bringing more revenues (Raheem et al., 2018).

328 4.5 New possibilities for cost-effective microalgae production with enhanced nutritional value

329 The results from this study may open doors to more possibilities in optimizing the economics of
330 microalgae production. Two important factors must be considered for further optimizations.

331 Firstly, the harvesting time and the corresponding biomass composition is crucial in
332 determining the value of microalgal biomass with specified characteristics. For example, when
333 aiming at biofuel and bioenergy production, carbohydrate and lipid levels of microalgae surely

334 affect the final yield, thus influencing the production economics. Therefore, it is recommended
335 to conduct an economic assessment including actual variations of carbohydrate and lipid
336 composition to establish the optimal production scenario. Secondly, novel microalgae products
337 with high-value compounds must be identified for better profitability. For instance, to gain
338 extra advantages of novel salt products from *Dunaliella* microalgae, it is essential to include
339 carotenoids and amino acids contents into the economic assessment. For such purpose, a semi-
340 continuous cultivation system can also be opted for, e.g. enhanced carotenoids production (Del
341 Campo et al., 2007). However, for every economic assessment, the actual variations of
342 microalgal composition obtained from experimental work will likely yield the most credible
343 economic assessment.

344 **5. Conclusions**

345 This study addressed the importance of harvesting time and the corresponding microalgal
346 biomass composition in determining the overall production cost, employing both continuous
347 light and light/dark regime. Subsequently, the economic feasibility of a novel microalgae
348 product “proteinaceous salt” was determined. From this study, it is obvious that using artificial
349 light is not economically feasible due to its high cost. The TEA analyses indicate that harvesting
350 time on day 16 (around late exponential phase) from light/dark regime is optimal. This
351 optimum results in protein-rich microalgal biomass with the lowest “proteinaceous salt”
352 production cost at 11 €/kg. Furthermore, this novel product can bring economic profitability in
353 the project with a MSP of 14.4 €/kg, thus presenting great potential for commercialization. To
354 further optimize the economics of microalgae production, it can be suggested that increasing
355 biomass concentration should be the primary focus for future research, as shown by the

356 sensitivity analysis. Moreover, the outcomes of this study provide insights to improve the
357 environmental performance of microalgae production. To eliminate biomass washing, to
358 recycle the medium and to adopt CO₂ from flue gas are indeed potential technological solutions
359 which can contribute to enhance the environmental sustainability of microalgae production
360 while increasing its economic feasibility.

361 **Acknowledgements**

362 This work was supported by the China Scholarship Council (File No. 201507650015) and the MIP
363 i-Cleantech Flanders (Milieu-innovatieplatform; Environment innovation platform) project
364 Microbial Nutrients on Demand (MicroNOD).

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451 **Figure captions:**

452 **Fig. 1.** General process of microalgae production

453 **Fig. 2.** Impact of harvesting time on: total production cost and total production from A)
454 continuous light (L) and B) light/dark regime (LD); production costs of different products of the
455 project from C) continuous light and D) light/dark regime.

456 **Fig. 3** A) Impact of harvesting time on minimum selling price (MSP), B) impact of selling price on
457 the net present value (NPV) of the project and C) impact of harvesting time on NPV of the
458 project, from continuous light (L) and light/dark regime (LD).

459 **Fig. 4** Cost distribution (in percentage) of major equipment expenditure (MEE) and major utility
460 expenditure (MUE) from both continuous light (L) and light/dark regime (LD): A) MEE
461 distribution of L; B) MUE distribution of L; C) MEE distribution of LD and D) MUE distribution of
462 LD.

463 **Fig. 5** Sensitivity analysis of base scenario: A) changes in production cost, B) changes in the NPV
464 and C) resulted MSP.

1 Table 1 Basic assumptions and scenario specific parameters defining the production scenario

Case study	Value	Unit	Reference	2
Basic assumptions				3
Location	BE/NL	n.a.	n.a.	4
Production period	256	Day	(Thomassen et al., 2016)	5
Land area	1	Ha	(Norsker et al., 2011)	6
Raceway pond area	0.9	Ha	(Norsker et al., 2011)	7
Raceway pond volume	1800	m ³	(Norsker et al., 2011)	7
Scenario specific parameters*				8
Cultivation period	16	day	(Sui et al., 2019)	9
Number of batches	16	n.a.	n.a.	10
Biomass concentration	0.58	Kg/m ³	(Sui et al., 2019)	11
Protein concentration	0.35	Kg/m ³	(Sui et al., 2019)	11
Annual production volume	28,357	m ³	n.a.	12
Daily equivalent volume	111	m ³	n.a.	13
Annual biomass production	16	Ton	n.a.	14
Annual protein production	10	Ton	n.a.	15
Annual proteinaceous salt production	23	Ton	n.a.	15
Price of main consumables				16
Electricity price	0.116	€/Kwh	(European Union, 2017)	17
CO ₂ price	0.184	€/kg	(Norsker et al., 2011)	18
Nutrient price	0.44	€/kg dried biomass	(Norsker et al., 2011)	19
Salt price	68.53	€/ton	(Thomassen et al., 2016)	19
				20

21 *: scenarios pecific parameters are using biomass specifics from light/dark regime harvested at day 16

22 n.a. not applicable

23 Table 2 Basic price assumptions from LD16

	Value	Unit	Reference
Medium preparation			
Medium preparation unit ¹	40,767	€	(Norsker et al., 2011)
Medium feed pump ²	2,165	€	(Ruiz et al., 2016)
Medium preparation unit	6.6	kWh/d	(Acién et al., 2012)
Medium feed pump ³	1	kWh/m ³	(Norsker et al., 2011)
Cultivation			
Photobioreactors, PVC liner	7.9	€/m ²	(Norsker et al., 2011)
Paddle wheel	883	€/pond	(Norsker et al., 2011)
CO ₂ supply unit ⁴	6,542	€/unit	(Acién et al., 2012)
Heat exchange	133,830	€/unit	(Tredici et al., 2016)
Mixing power by paddle wheel	5	kW/ha/d	(Norsker et al., 2011)
CO ₂ usage ⁵	9.15	kg/kg DW	(Slade and Bauen, 2013)
Heat exchange power	6,323	€	(Tredici et al., 2016)
Harvest and dehydration			
Harvest pump ⁶	2,165	€	(Ruiz et al., 2016)
Harvest storage tank ⁷	40,767	€	(Norsker et al., 2011)
Decanter centrifuge ⁸	67,151	€	(Ruiz et al., 2016)
Spray drying unit	113,422	€/unit	(Ruiz et al., 2016)
Harvest	1.1	kWh/m ³	(Norsker et al., 2011)
Spray drying	1	kWh/kg Feed	(Fasaei et al., 2018)

24 All prices presented are corrected to year 2018 using consumer prices index

25 ¹: capacity 60 m³, number of units required: 1.8

26 ²: capacity: 2 m³/h, number of units required: 4.6, assuming working 12h daily

27 ³: assuming the same with harvest energy consumption

28 ⁴: capacity: 4 kgCO₂/h, working 12h daily, amount of CO₂ required obtained from biomass concentration and CO₂
 29 requirement per biomass dry weight (DW)

30 ⁵: reported range from 1.83 to 9.15 kg/kg DW, high range is used in this model

31 ⁶: same with medium feed pump

32 ⁷: same with medium preparation unit

33 ⁸: capacity: 16.3 m²/h, unit required: 0.6, assume working 12h daily

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37 Table 3 Major equipment expenditure (MEE)

	Value (€)
<u>Medium preparation</u>	
Medium preparation unit	40,767
Medium feed pump	2,165
<u>Cultivation</u>	
Raceway, PVC liner	7,894
Paddle wheel	7,950
CO ₂ supply unit	6,542
Heat exchange	133,830
<u>Harvest and dehydration</u>	
Harvest pump	2,165
Harvest storage tank	40,767
Decanter centrifuge	67,151
Spray drying unit	113,422
Total MEE	422,654

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48 Table 4 Total capital expenditure (CAPEX) of LD16

		Factor	Value	Unit
Direct investment cost (DC)	Major equipment expenditure (MEE)	1	422,654	€
	Installation costs	0.2 MEE	84,531	€
	Instrumentation and control	0.15 MEE	63,398	€
	Piping	0.2 MEE	84,531	€
	Electrical	0.1 MEE	42,265	€
	Buildings	0.23 MEE	97,210	€
	Yard improvements	0.12 MEE	50,718	€
	Service facilities	0.2 MEE	84,531	€
	Land	0.06 MEE	25,359	€
Indirect investment cost (IC)	Engineering and supervision	0.3 DC	126,796	€
	Construction expenses	0.05 DC	47,760	€
Other investment cost (OC)	Contractor's fee	0.03	28,656	€
	Contingency	0.08 (DC + IC)	92,673	€
Total fixed capital investment (DC + IC + OC)			1,251,083	€
CAPEX	Lifetime		20	year
	Discount rate		10	%
	Depreciation		61,286	€/year
	Property tax	0.01 depreciation	613	€/year
	Insurance	0.006 depreciation	368	€/year
	Purchase tax	0.016 (MEE - Contingency)	18,535	€/year
	Total annual CAPEX		80,801	€/year
Total CAPEX			1,616,026	€

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55 Table 5 Major utility expenditure (MUE) of LD16

	Value (€/year)
<u>Medium preparation</u>	
Medium preparation unit	196
Medium feed pump	3,289
Nutrient	7,174
Salt	479
<u>Cultivation</u>	
Mixing power by paddle wheel	148
CO ₂ usage	27,451
Heat exchange power	6,323
<u>Harvest and dehydration</u>	
Harvest	3,618
Spray drying	12,609
Total MUE	61,289

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67 Table 6 Total operational expenditure (OPEX) of LD16

	Factor	Value	Unit
Materials and utilities	1 MUE	61,289	€/year
Maintenance	0.04 MEE	16,906	€/year
Operating supplies	0.004 MUE	245	€/year
General plant overheads	0.55 (labor + maintenance)	39,033	€/year
Contingency	0.05 MUE	3,064	€/year
Labor	3 FTE*	54,063	€/year
Total annual OPEX		174,601	€/year
Total OPEX cost		3,492,017	€

68 *: Full time equivalent (FTE) is based on the minimum labor cost in the Netherlands (Ruiz et al., 2016)

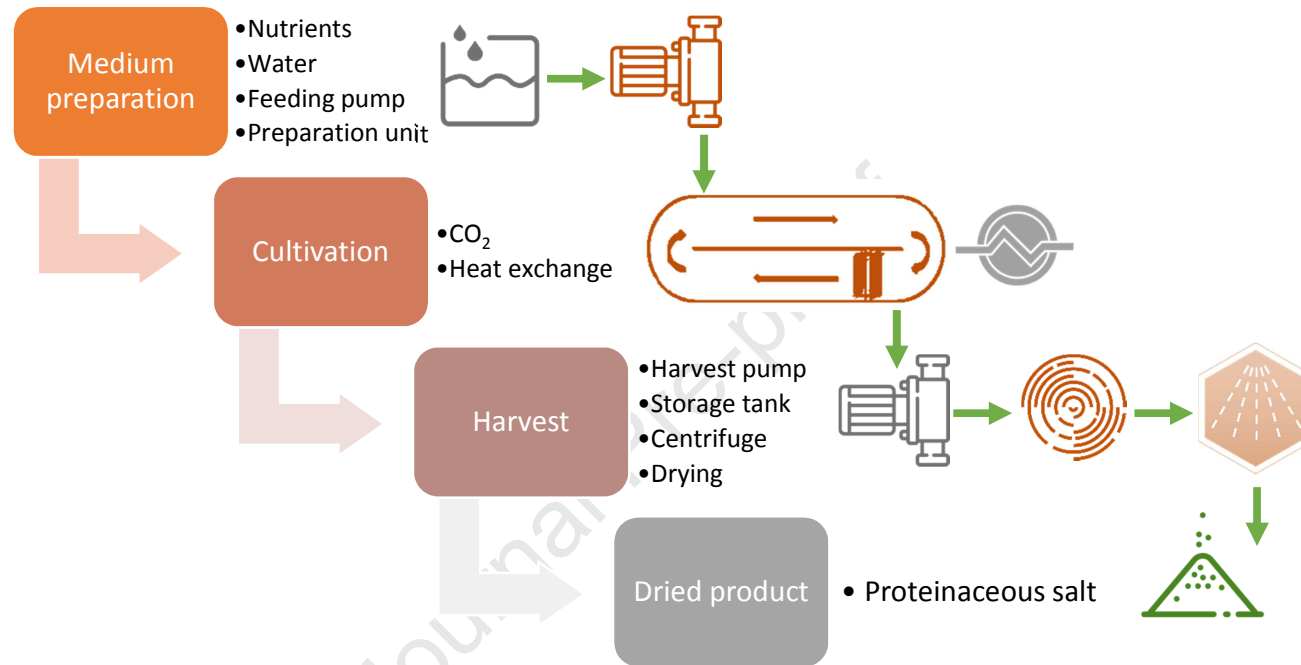
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70 Table 7 Sodium content of different commercially available salt products

	Sodium content (%)	Reference
Table salt		
Rock salt	97.8	(Sui and Vlaeminck, 2019)
Sea salt	99.2	(Sui and Vlaeminck, 2019)
Seasoned salt		
Garlic salt	35	Website ¹
Celery salt	32	Website ¹
Onion salt	35	Website ¹
Saloni salt	73-77	Website ²
Proteinaceous salt	29	(Sui and Vlaeminck, 2019) ³

71 ¹ <https://www.mccormick.com/>72 ² <https://www.indiamart.com/proddetail/saloni-vegetable-salt-1852114855.html>73 ³ 30% salt remaining with 97.8% sodium content in the salt

1 Fig. 1



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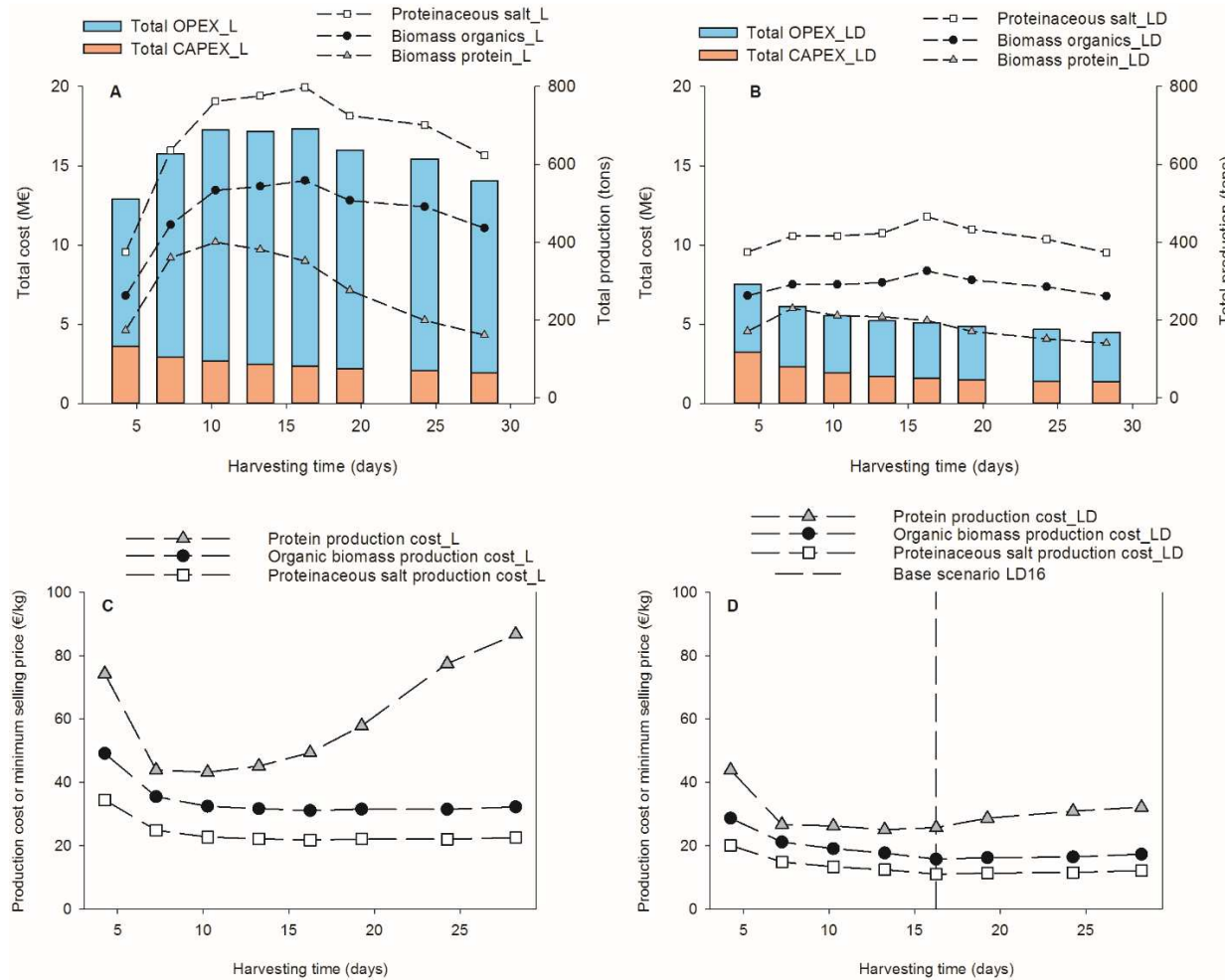
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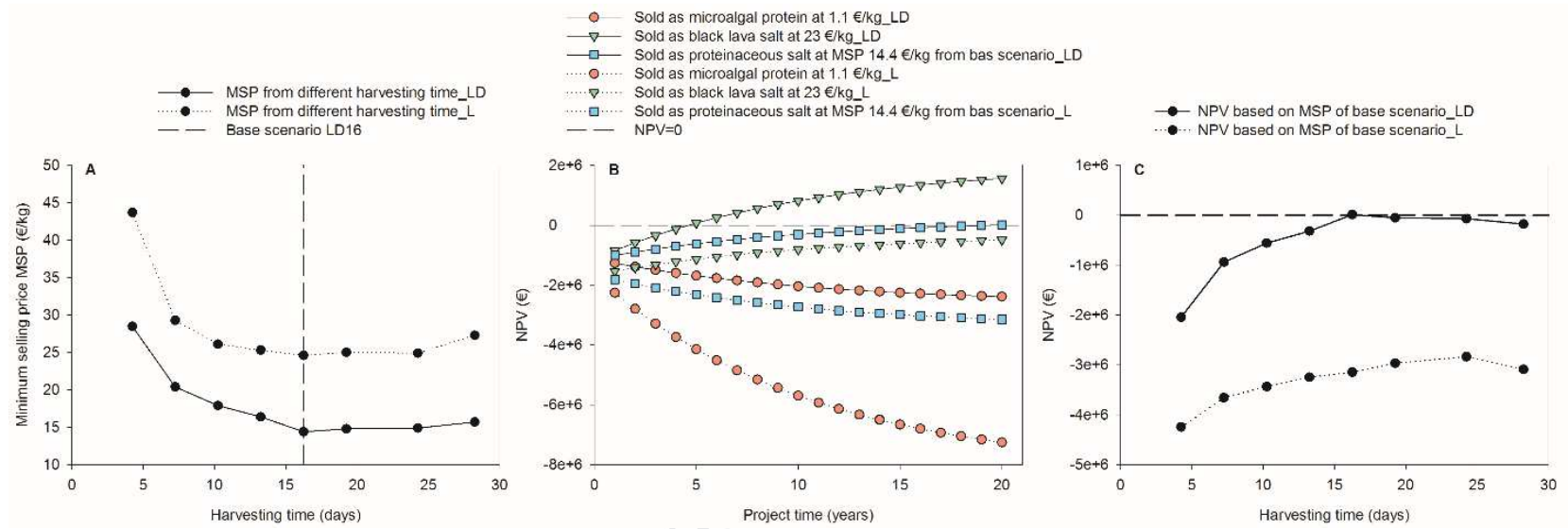
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10 Fig. 3



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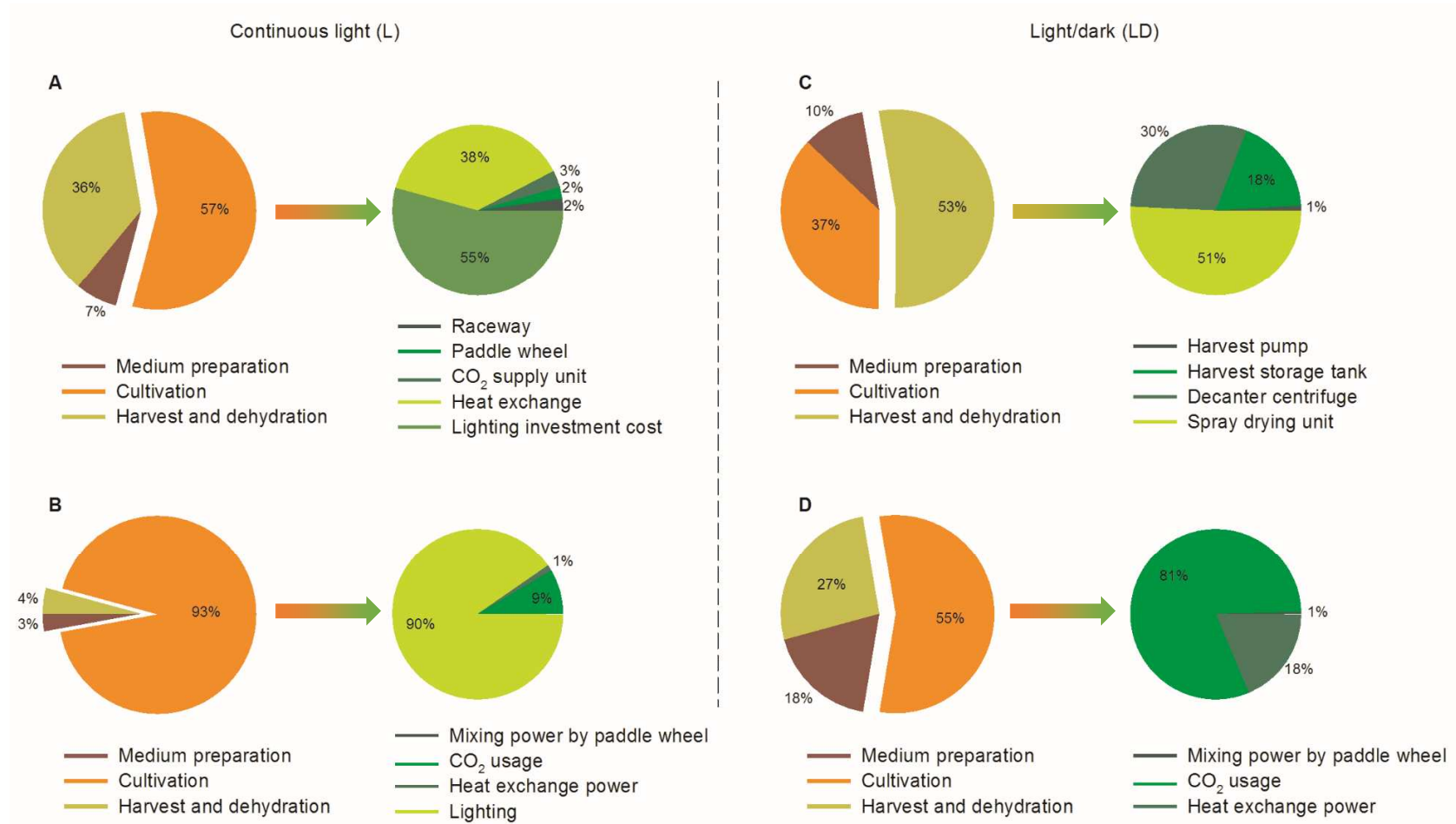
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17 Fig. 4

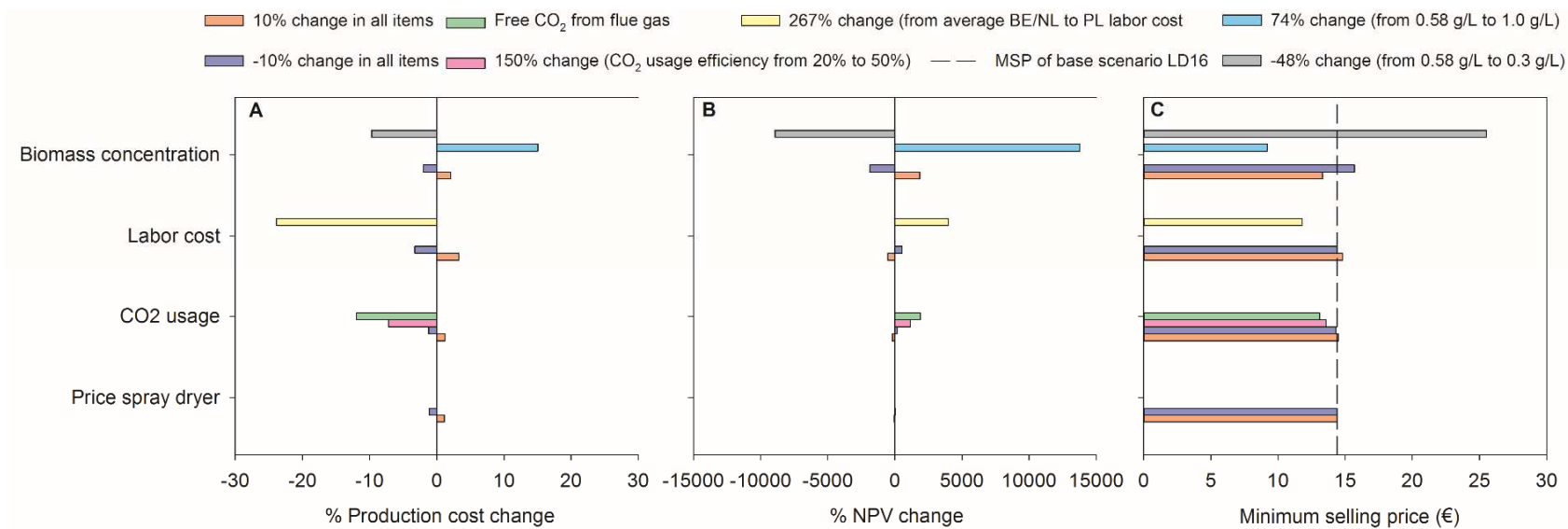


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21 Fig. 5



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Highlights

- Different harvesting time determines different microalgal biomass composition
- Microalgal production cost is considerably affected by harvesting time
- Novel product “proteinaceous salt” from *Dunaliella* microalgae is profitable
- Artificial lighting is not economically feasible due to high cost
- Microalgal biomass concentration primarily influences the total production cost

Declaration of interests

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

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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