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Microalgal biofuels: Pathways towards a positive energy balance.

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Abstract

Current microalgae biofuel production pathways are still far from being energetically self-2 sufficient. Simulations scenarios (1 $t \cdot y^{-1}$ of biomass) under a purely energetic perspective, have 3 revealed some bottlenecks mainly in the cultivation and metabolite recovery processes. Technologies such as intensified photobioreactors such as AlgoFilm(C), infrared light filtering units, 5 photovoltaic panels, solvent-free metabolite recovery processes, and high biomass concentration treatments at $\geq 145 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ are suggested and discussed to also have a major contribution 7 on the net energy ratio of the process. An energy-driven biorefinery approach has been pro-8 posed to increase the energy output by obtaining bioethanol and biodiesel liquid fuels, but also photovoltaic energy during the same production process. The latter may also compensate for 10 the large amounts of energy consumed in typical operations of the wet-pathway processes like 11 harvesting-concentration, cell disruption, or solvent recycling processes. This perspective in-12 creased the final volume of liquid biofuels up to 57%. It was found a maximum net energy ratio 13 of 1.9 for a double biofuel process, and 8.5 if photovoltaic energy is also considered. 14

¹⁶ Keywords: Biofuels; Biorefinery; Photobioreactor; Net Energy ratio; Process simulation

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18 1 Introduction

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Energy-efficient fuel processes are crucial for the sustainable transport industry. During the last 19 decades, biofuels from microalgae have been shown as an alternative for supplying the ever-growing 20 energy demand of liquid biofuels while contributing to the CO_2 emissions decrease [1–6]. Similarly, 21 it has been demonstrated that microalgae-based biofuels can be produced while treating wastewater, 22 which increases the environmental impact of the production process [7–9]. However, microalgae-23 based processes are still challenging in terms of sustainability, economics, and energy efficiency 24 for large-scale implementation [10–12]. The accumulation of energy-rich metabolites in the cell, 25 and the chosen process to produce, recover and transform such molecules into biofuels is key for 26 recovering the maximum of energy from microalgae biomass while investing a minimum of energy 27 during the processing. 28

The first challenge is to increase the productivity of strains with large content of energy-rich 29 metabolites during the cultivation stage. Several works have described culturing protocols and 30 screening systems to choose the most interesting strain with high metabolite contents [13–18]. For 31 example, Parachlorella kessleri (freshwater species) and Nannochloropsis gaditana (marine species) 32 have been described to accumulate triacylglycerol TAG, both up to $24\%_X$; and $64\%_X$ and 23% of 33 carbohydrates respectively under nitrogen limitation, chemostat mode and continuous light [19, 20]. 34 In comparison, N. gaditana has also accumulated TAG up to $40\%_X$ during batch nitrogen-depleted 35 cultivation [21, 22]. Important attention has also to be paid to the conception and operation of 36 the photobioreactor systems to produce microalgae biomass[23, 24]. Process intensification is an 37 approach that takes advantage of dimension optimization to create more energy-efficient process 38 technologies [25]. Such a concept can be applied to microalgal culture systems, leading to high 30 volumetric productivity photobioreactors (HVP PBRs). Increasing the specific illuminated surface 40 is translated into a culture depth reduction. Thus, volumetric productivity, as well as biomass 41 concentration, are increased for a given light supply, and then surface productivity. As shown in 42 Pruvost et al. [26] and Legrand [27], introducing thin-film PBR can lead to a volume reduction of one 43 or two orders of magnitude for a given biomass production when compared to usual culture systems 44 with depths in the usual range of 0.05 - 0.15 m. For the energy investment during the biomass 45 production stage, Nwoba et al. [28] recently reported an alternative to reduce the energy input by 46

⁴⁷ using a flat panel photobioreactor constructed of insulated-glazed units (IGUs, for Infrared light ⁴⁸ filtering) with an integrated energy-generating photovoltaic (PV) panel. With this technology, ⁴⁹ it is argued to isolate the microalgae culture of >90% of the ultraviolet and infrared spectral ⁵⁰ components, while still letting pass >75% of visible light. As a result, the energy needs for thermal ⁵¹ regulation are strongly reduced while simultaneously producing electricity from the PV panel.

Once larger amounts of energy-rich metabolites are produced in photobioreactors PBR, they need to be recovered and converted into biofuels: TAG into BioDiesel, and carbohydrates into bioethanol. One of the first approaches to do so was the dry pathway in biodiesel production. After harvesting and drying the biomass during the culture stage, TAG molecules are recovered via solid-liquid extraction. However, this process invests large amounts of energy for heating and to facilitate extraction, and solvent recycling. This may strongly impact the global energy efficiency by investing more energy than the potentially recoverable [29, 30].

⁵⁹ An alternative approach is the wet-pathway. It considers the release of all the intracellular ⁶⁰ material into the bulk medium through cell disruption, and then the recovery of the energy-rich ⁶¹ metabolites from the liquid phase (liquid-liquid extraction). This process has been shown to reduce ⁶² energy consumption by the avoidance of around 17.71 MJ·kg⁻¹_{Biomass} used during the drying process ⁶³ of the dry-pathway [31].

There exist several methods that may be applied for the cell disruption stage during a wet pathway process [32]. Safi et al. [33] and Lee et al. [34] compared several methods regarding energy consumption. They concluded that bead-milling processes required less intensive operating conditions (like operating time or pressure) which impacts directly the energy cost of the operation. Bead milling was already proved efficient for microalgal biomass [35–37]

The recovery of the released TAG after cell disruption is based on the affinity to different solvents 69 during the liquid-liquid extraction (considering the TAG as a hydrophobic compound). Several 70 methods have been studied on this matter [10, 38, 39, 30] and it is considered that lipid extraction 71 after cell disruption is still a bottleneck in the biodiesel production process. The chosen method is 72 expected to be energy efficient but also to optimize the extraction of targeted compounds (ideally 73 TAG) while being sufficiently metabolite-selective to minimize the purification steps before final 74 biodiesel conversion [30]. Harris et al. [40] has pointed out the benefits of using wet biomass during 75 the extraction, mainly regarding again the energy-saving by the avoidance of drying biomass. It also 76

suggested the interest in intensified processes, which will enhance the economic and environmental 77 impacts of the process. Regarding intensified operations, the centrifugal extraction technologies 78 (as continuous centrifugal extraction CCE) combined with the appropriate solvent choice arises as 79 a promising technology capable of simultaneously performing extraction and separation operations 80 [41–43]. However, some parameters such as biomass concentration, solvent choice, or feeding flow 81 rates may promote emulsification phenomena which would reduce the operating work-zone and 82 extraction yield of the process [44]. It is important to note that centrifugal extraction technologies 83 also enable the separation and recovery of the available carbohydrates in the non-extracted phase 84 [45] for concomitant bioethanol production. 85

An interesting strategy to optimize the biofuel process is to maximize the energy output by lead-86 ing an energy-driven biorefinery approach. So far, the biorefinery is considered one of the strategies 87 to exploit the highest value of microalgal cultures. Even though, biorefinery is mainly proposed as 88 a strategy to recover by-products for other market fields (eq. nutraceuticals or cosmetics) [46-48], 89 it could also be applied to energy valorization [49]. Some authors have argued that the only way 90 to improve the economic or life-cycle analysis of solely liquid biofuels production (often only for 91 biodiesel) is by the valorization of by-products/co-products [50–52]. As part of this approach, a 92 double recovery of energy reserve molecules (lipids and carbohydrates) towards the conversion into 93 two liquid biofuels (bioethanol and biodiesel) is proposed in this work. 94

Yuan et al. [31] showed a net energy ratio <1 for BioDiesel only, implying that the chosen 95 production system is not capable of producing more energy than it consumes. In this last study, 96 cultivation and oil extraction dominated energy consumption. Likewise, according to Sander and 97 Murthy [53], for each 24 kg (28 L, 1 GJ of energy) of algal BioDiesel, 34 kg of byproducts are 98 produced. If a cellulose-to-ethanol yield of 85% was assumed on the byproducts, it may result 99 in an additional 6.28 L of ethanol. Borowitzka and Moheimani [54] also argued that an average 100 yield of 0.13 L bioethanol per kg of algal biomass and 0.12 L biodiesel per kg of algae biomass, 101 may appear to be reasonable for biofuel valorization. Harun et al. [55], Karemore and Sen [56] 102 and Sivaramakrishnan and Incharoensakdi [57] have shown the viability of the double liquid biofuel 103 production at lab scale. They yielded 4-6 $kg \cdot m^{-3}$ of ethanol during the fermentation of lipid-104 extracted and hydrolyzed microalgae biomass. By itself, the bioethanol production process from 105 microalgae manifested a net energy ratio of 0.45 with an energy consumption of 2 749.6 $GJ \cdot y^{-1}$ 106

107 (for 200 t·y⁻¹ biomass production) according to Hossain et al. [58].

Based on the above, the purpose of this work is to simulate the conjunction of particular emerging technologies (from culture to metabolite recovery process only) for microalgae-based biofuels production under an energy-driven biorefinery approach and to evaluate the impact on the process energy efficiency only (Techno-economical and Life Cycle Assessments are out of the scope of this work). The simulations will be mainly focused on biodiesel production with the supplemental inclusion of photovoltaic and bioethanol as secondary energy outputs issued from microalgae cultivation.

¹¹⁵ 2 Materials and Methods

¹¹⁶ 2.1 General process description and system boundaries

An algorithm sequence in Excel (Microsoft, USA) has been used to simulate the biofuel production 117 process. Four operation blocks (each with its corresponding operation units) have been organized 118 (Fig. 1) for biomass production (Prod-100), metabolite recovery (Rec-200), and biodiesel (BioD-119 300) and bioethanol conversions (BioE-400). Each operation block includes operation units or tech-120 nologies that may differ for each simulated case (see further details in section 2.4). The biomass 121 production block includes the photobioreactor (PBR-101) and concentration operations (centrifu-122 gation C-102, flotation Fl-102, band filtration F-102, or none). Metabolite recovery block includes 123 pretreatment operations (thermal dryer TD-201 or bead milling BM-201) and lipid recovery units 124 (solid-liquid extraction DX-202, centrifugal liquid-liquid extraction CX-202, or decantation Dec-125 202). The biodiesel conversion block comprises extraction solvent recovery by evaporation (D-301), 126 transesterification in a stirred tank reactor STR (R-302) and biodiesel purification (D-302). The 127 bioethanol conversion block considers the fermentation in a stirred tank reactor STR (R-401) and 128 ethanol purification (D-402) units. 129

The system only considers four general mass inputs streams (S) which directly participate in energy conversion: culture medium and initial inoculum (S-101) for biomass growth, lipid extraction solvent (S-203) to recover energy-rich molecules, methanol Me-OH for transesterification (S-303) and water dilution streams (S-202 and S-401) to adjust concentrations in the process. It also considers three mass outputs: biodiesel (S-305), bioethanol (S-403), and general waste streams.





Similarly, energy outputs were only photovoltaic Energy (E_{PV}) and energies from biodiesel and bioethanol (E_{BioD} and E_{BioE} respectively). This work is focused on global energy consumption and, as consequence the only energy inputs considered were those related to electricity consumption at each operation unit. Further details about the specific values and calculations for each operation unit are detailed in section 2.2.

Energy inputs like embodied energies, labor, pumping, inoculum and medium production, plant deconstruction, and other maintenance sub-operations were not considered here. Some of the latter may add information not related to the net energy process within the scope of this energy balance since they depend on the logistics and infrastructure of a given installation when the main operations units of the process do remain the same. Therefore, the energy costs related to the mentioned aspects will not be considered in this work.

The two main biofuel production pathways have been simulated: the dry-pathway and the wet-pathway. Simulations were conducted for 1 t·y⁻¹ of dried biomass and operating process time (t_{OP}) of 365 d. The simulated production process can be described as follows:

First, biomass is grown in PBR-101 using S-101 as mass input. Main equipment description,
 protocols, and strains according to each simulation case are described in Table 1. For PBR 101, the only energy input was due to electric consumption for culture mixing. Photovoltaic
 co-production (PV) may be considered in the energy output for some scenarios.

- Next biomass is harvested and may be concentrated using C-102, Fl-102, or F-102. The
 mass outputs, S-103 and S-104, go to the Rec-200 block and to the general waste stream
 respectively. For the wet-pathway scenarios, the collected biomass in S-103 passes into a
 storage tank to be further batched at the first pretreatment unit. Ever since the following
 operations units were considered also as batch processes in wet-pathway scenarios only.
- 3) For the dry-pathway, the TD-201 unit dries the harvested biomass in S-103 for obtaining the S-201 stream (dry biomass) and the S-202 (with the evaporated water to waste). For the wet-pathway, a batched stream with harvested biomass from the storage tank (usually referred to here as S-103a) is treated by the BM-201, which will disrupt it and release all the cellular content in the S-201 stream. Process output S-201 is then directed to lipid recovery units (DX-202, CX-202, or Dec-202).

8

- 4) In the dry-pathway, non-released lipids (still intracellular lipids) in the stream S-201 are
 extracted using n-hexane Hex (S-203) using the solid-liquid extraction unit DX-202. The
 mixture of solvent and lipids go to the BioD-300 block via the S-204 stream, while residual
 dried cells are disposed to the general waste stream via the S-205 stream.
- For the wet-pathway, a S-201a stream may be supposed for the dilution of S-201 with the S-202 stream (water) just before the centrifugal liquid-liquid extraction equipment CX-202. Then, for the lipid extraction, 2-methyl-tetra-hydrofuran Me-THF (S-203) is used. By centrifuge force action, two outputs are recovered: S-204 and S-205. The stream S-204 (with the mixture of solvent and lipids only) is conducted to the BioD-300 block.

A non-solvent process for the wet-pathway has been also proposed for lipid recovery. The decantation operation Dec-202 takes as well the S-201 stream (wet-disrupted biomass) to obtain the S-204 stream charged with lipids.

- No matter the option chosen to simulate the lipid extraction unit, the stream S-205 (with the rest of the polar components, carbohydrates included, and the non-extracted lipids) is directed to either the general waste stream or the BioE-400 block in case of double biofuel recovery.
- 5) In the BioD-300 block, lipids molecules are separated first from the extraction solvent using the D-301 unit. The content of the S-301 stream is then considered to be entirely composed of lipid molecules heading towards R-302, while the content of S-302, is only composed of extraction solvent going to the general waste stream.
- 6) Next, the transesterification reaction takes place in R-302 using the lipid molecules (more precisely triacylglycerol TAG molecules) and the Me-OH required for the reaction (S-301 and the S-303 respectively). After the reaction, the resultant compounds go to D-303 for the final recovery.
- 7) The biodiesel final treatment occurs in the D-303 unit. No particular technology has been proposed for this operation. The fatty acid methyl esters FAME's (biodiesel) produced during the transesterification of TAG molecules are separated from the reaction residuals or nonreactant compounds (*eg.* Me-OH, glycerol, fatty acids). The latter are collected in the S-306

¹⁹² stream and the biodiesel in the S-305.

8) In case of double biofuel recovery, the output stream S-205 (containing polar components and carbohydrates) may be diluted to constitute the S-401 stream, and then used as input of the R-401 unit at the BioE-400 block. The output S-402 directs the produced bioethanol to the D-402 purification unit

9) Similarly, at the D-402 bioethanol purification unit, no particular technology has been proposed for the operation. Fermentation subproducts (*eg.* glycerol, residual carbohydrates, enzymes, water) are part of the S-404 stream and go to the general waste stream, while the refined bioethanol is recovered in the S-403 stream.

To note that the general waste stream (composed of S-104, S-202 of case 1, S-302, S-306, and S-404) was not considered a municipal discharge but it only helps to elucidate the amount of discarded mass outputs at each cycle of processing.

204 2.2 Input calculations

205 2.2.1 Streams balance, S

 $M_{i,j}$ refers to the mass flow rate of the species *i* in the stream *j* (if indicated). For all the streams, the total mass flow rate $(M_T, \text{kg} \cdot \text{d}^{-1})$ were calculated as:

$$M_T = M_X + M_W + M_S + M_{Me-OH} + M_{BioD} + M_{BioE} + M_Z$$
(1)

$$M_X = M_{TAG} + M_{Sq} + M_{XR} \tag{2}$$

 M_W is for water, M_S for extraction solvent, M_{Me-OH} for Me-OH, M_{BioD} for biodiesel, M_{BioE} for bioethanol, M_Z for waste (any other residual compound) and M_X for biomass. The latter divided in sub-fractions of TAG (M_{TAG}), carbohydrates (M_{Sg}) and residual biomass (M_{XR}).

Volumetric flow rates $(Q_j, \mathbf{m}^3 \cdot \mathbf{d}^{-1})$ were dependent on the composition of a stream j and will be described below for the corresponding operation unit.

Case	1, 2 & 2.a.	3 & 3.a., 5, 6	4
-Photobioreactor Technology	Raceway	HVP+IGU	HVP+IGU
-Photovoltaic production	no	yes	yes
-Iluminated surface	166	166	185
A^* (m ²)	100	100	165
-Operative Volume	25	0.33	0.37
V_O (m ³)	20	0.00	0.01
-Specific Iluminated surface	667	500	500
$a_s \ (\mathbf{m}^{-1})$	0.01	000	000
-PBR Depth	0.150	0.002	0.002
L (m)			
-Strain	Ideal Strain [†]	Ideal Strain [†]	N. $gaditana^{\uparrow\uparrow}$
-Surface Productivity	16.5^{\dagger}	16.5^{\dagger}	$14.9^{\dagger\dagger}$
$S_X \left(\cdot 10^{-3} \mathrm{kg} \cdot \mathrm{m}^{-2} \cdot \mathrm{d}^{-1} \right)$			
-Dilution rate	0.036^{\dagger}	0.036^{\dagger}	$0.01^{\dagger\dagger}$
$D(\mathbf{h}^{-1})$		0.000	0.0_
-TAG content	$36^{\dagger\dagger\dagger}$	$36^{\dagger\dagger\dagger}$	$15^{\dagger\dagger}$
$%_X$ TAG			
-Carbohydrates content	$40^{\dagger\dagger\dagger}$	$40^{\dagger\dagger\dagger}$	$23^{\dagger\dagger}$
\mathcal{V}_{0X} Sg			
-Potentially Recoverable biodiesel energy $(ML)^{-1}$	14 196	14 196	5 836
$E_{P,BioD} (MJ \cdot t - \cdot y)$			
-Potentially Recoverable bioethanol energy $E = (MIt^{-1}t^{-1})$	$5\ 447$	5 447	$3\ 132$
$E_{P,BioE} (MJ \cdot t^{-} \cdot y^{-})$			
-rotentially recoverable blordel energy $F_{\rm p}$ (MI t ⁻¹ u ⁻¹)	19642	19642	8 968

Table 1: Upstream operations synthesis for each simulated Case.

[†]Pruvost et al. [24], ^{††}Heredia et al. [19], ^{†††}Proposed

HVP+IGU: High Volumetric Productivity Photobioreactor with an Insulated-Glazed Unit

211 2.2.2 Culture unit: PBR-101

To compare ideal strain simulations to the one using experimental values (C4), all the other cultures simulated were also assumed to be in continuous mode. Inputs values may be surface productivity, S_X (kg·m⁻²·d⁻¹); TAG and carbohydrate contents as fraction of the dry biomass concentration (%_XTAG and %_XSg respectively); dilution rate, D (h⁻¹); and specific illuminated surface, a_s (m⁻¹). The S-101 volumetric flow rate (Q_{S101}) was consider so that the $M_{X,102}$ at S-102 reaches the 1 t·d⁻¹. Then, by using the Q_{S101} the following equations were calculated:

$$Q_{S101} = Q_{S102} \tag{3}$$

$$P_X = S_X \cdot a_s \tag{4}$$

$$X_{S102} = S_X \cdot a_s / D \tag{5}$$

$$L = 1/a_s \tag{6}$$

$$V_{Op} = Q_{S101}/D \tag{7}$$

$$A^* = V_O/L \tag{8}$$

where P_X is for biomass volumetric productivity (kg·m⁻³·d⁻¹), V_{Op} is the culture operating volume 212 (m³), A^* is the illuminated surface (m²) and X is the dry biomass concentration (kg·m⁻³). 213 Mixing energy of 0.368 kWh·m⁻³·d⁻¹ was considered for the raceway culture system, as a result 214 of mechanical (paddle) agitation and which is close to the values found in the literature [59, 60]. 215 For the high volumetric productivity photobioreactor HVP, it was considered a pneumatic (air 216 injection) agitation leading to 1.0 kWh·m⁻³·d⁻¹ [61]. It must be noticed that energy for mixing 217 could be further refined, for example by using a pump to circulate the culture in technology such 218 as AlgoFilm[©] PBR. But the influence on results remains moderate because of the large decrease in 219 volume which in turn reduced the impact of energy requested for mixing (here expressed per unit 220 of culture volume). Different values for both technologies were however retained to illustrate the 221 impact of the technical solution to circulate the culture (pneumatic vs mechanical). This aspect 222 will be discussed in section 3.1. 223

The energy input of the operation $E_{Input,PBR101}$ is then related to the culture operating volume

 V_{Op} (m³) and to the operating process time t_{OP} , as detailed here:

$$E_{Input,PBR101} = P_{El,PBR101} \cdot V_O \cdot t_{OP} \tag{9}$$

224 2.2.3 Concentration unit: C-102, Fl-102 and F-102

The technology chosen for the continuous concentration operation depended on the simulation case, however, the calculation set was the same for all of the cases. As an example for the centrifugation operation C-102, the mass balance inputs were the volumetric and mass flow rates of the stream S-102 (Q_{S102} and $M_{X,102}$), as well as equipment efficiency (η_{C102}) and moisture percentage for the output ($\%_{W,C102}$, w/w). Then, such process would be calculated as follows:

$$Q_{103} = M_{T,103} / \rho_W \tag{10}$$

$$M_{X,103} = M_{X,102} \cdot \eta_{C102} \tag{11}$$

$$M_{W,103} = M_{X,103} \cdot \left(\frac{\%_{W,C102}}{(1 - \%_{W,C102})} \right)$$
(12)

where ρ_W (water density, 1000 kg·m⁻³) was considered as an average density for the whole culture broth [62].

Total energy input also depended on the technology used. For this operation it was determined from:

$$E_{Input,C102} = Q_{103} \cdot P_{El} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{13}$$

²²⁷ The value P_{El} was of 8 kWh·m⁻³ for centrifugation [63], 0.021 kWh·m⁻³ for flottation (which was ²²⁸ estimated from Zhang and Zhang [64], Xu et al. [65] with values ranged between 0.015 and 0.46 ²²⁹ kWh·m⁻³) and 0.55 kWh·m⁻³ for band filtration [63].

230 2.2.4 Pre-treatment units: TD-201 and BM-201

The pre-treatment unit was simulated considering the harvested biomass in S-103, which was further processed by either thermal drying TD-201 or bead milling BM-201 units according to the corresponding simulation case. The BM-201 process is considered an intermediate storage tank ²³⁴ for daily batch treatment.

The mass balance for the TD-201 unit was calculated as follows:

$$Q_{201} = M_{T,201} / \rho_W \tag{14}$$

$$M_{X,201} = M_{X,103} \tag{15}$$

$$M_{W,201} = M_{X,201} \cdot \left((1 - \%_{DW,TD201}) / \%_{DW,TD201} \right)$$
(16)

where the dry biomass percentage for the S-201 output is represented by $\mathcal{H}_{DW,TD102}$ (w/w) and the water density ρ_W was considered as an average density for the biomass.

The energy input for the TD-201 unit was calculated based only on the specific latent heat of vaporization for water ($\Delta H_{vap,W}$ 2 256.8 kJ·kg_W⁻¹). The TD-201 unit was computed as follows:

$$E_{Input,TD-201} = \Delta H_{vap,W} \cdot M_{S,202} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{17}$$

where t_{OP} is the operating full process time described in Section 2.1.

For the mass balance of the BM-201 unit it can be assumed that the S-103 must be processed in a day, it can be assumed equal to the storage tank volume $V_{Op,Tank}$ (m³). Therefore, the operating time for the BM-201 $t_{Op,BM201}$, takes into account $V_{Op,Tank}$, the theoretical stream going out from the intermediate storage tank Q_{103a} and the number of equipment needed to process it, $No_{Eq,BM201}$. This relation is represented in the following equations:

$$Q_{103} = V_{Op,Tank} \tag{18}$$

$$Q_{103a} = V_{eff,BM201}/t_D \tag{19}$$

$$Q_{201} = M_{T,201} / \rho_W \tag{20}$$

$$M_{X,201} = M_{X,103} \tag{21}$$

$$M_{W,201} = M_{W,103} \tag{22}$$

$$V_{eff,BM201} = V_{BM201} \cdot T_{ff} \tag{23}$$

$$t_{Op,BM201} = V_{Op,Tank} / (Q_{103a} \cdot No_{Eq,BM201})$$
(24)

where t_D is the disruption residence time (d) with value of 0.004 d (0.097 h) taken from Heredia

et al. [44] for *N. gaditana*, ranging from 10 to 30 kg·m⁻³ dry biomass concentration, and achieving around 80% disruption rate (τ_D). $V_{eff,BM201}$ is the effective grinding chamber volume (8 ·10⁻³ m³) for a particular bead-milling device with nominal grinding chamber volume V_{BM201} (10 ·10⁻³ m³) and filled percentage value T_{ff} (80%) according to Zinkoné et al. [36]. The water density ρ_W was considered as an average density for the biomass.

The energy consumption for BM-201 was computed using $P_{El,BM201}$ of 1.2 kWh·kg⁻¹_{DW} determined by Zinkoné [66]. Calculations were then established as follows:

$$E_{Input,BM201} = P_{El,BM201} \cdot t_{Op,BM201}$$
(25)

where t_{OP} is the operating full process time described in Section 2.1.

245 2.2.5 Lipid recovery units: DX-202, CX-202 and Dec-202

In the dry-pathway lipids are recovered using the solid-liquid extraction unit DX-202. Mass balance for this operation was calculated as follows:

$$Q_{203} = S/F \cdot Q_{201} \tag{26}$$

$$M_{S,203} = Q_{203} \cdot \rho_{Hex} \tag{27}$$

$$M_{S,204} = M_{S,203} \tag{28}$$

$$M_{TAG,204} = M_{TAG,201} \cdot \eta_{E,TAG} \tag{29}$$

where S/F is solvent to feed inlet ratio with a value of 20 for a TAG extraction efficiency $\eta_{E,TAG}$ of 90% according to Delrue et al. [63]; and ρ_{Hex} is the n-hexane density (659 kg·m⁻³ by Kim et al. [67].

The energy input for DX-202, considers the heat demand value $P_{Q,DX202}$ of 1.74 kWh·kg⁻¹_{DW}, and the electricity demand $P_{El,DX202}$ of 4.5·10–4 kWh·kg⁻¹_{DW} according to Delrue et al. [63]. The resulting calculations were:

$$E_{Q,DX202} = M_{X,201} \cdot P_{Q,DX202} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{30}$$

$$E_{El,DX202} = M_{X,201} \cdot P_{El,DX202} \cdot t_{OP}$$
(31)

$$E_{Input,DX202} = E_{Q,DX202} + E_{El,DX202}$$
(32)

where t_{OP} is the operating full process time described in Section 2.1.

In the wet-pathway, lipids are recovered using either the centrifugal liquid-liquid extraction CX-202 or the decantation Dec-202 units. For the CX-202 unit, mass input values are from the optimized protocol from Heredia et al. [44]. The process may need to consider the dilution of the S-201 stream (to achieve 7.9 kg·m⁻³ in biomass concentration) for obtaining 84% of TAG extraction efficiency $\eta_{E,TAG}$ using an optimal solvent to feed inlet ratio (S/F) of 1.65. With the latter, it is calculated the amount of solvent Me-THF to be used in the S-203. The calculations describing this operation unit were:

$$ToT = Q_{203} + Q_{201a} \leftrightarrow Q_{204} + Q_{205} \tag{33}$$

$$Q_{203} = S/F \cdot Q_{201a} \tag{34}$$

$$M_{TAG,204} = M_{TAG,201a} \cdot \eta_{E,TAG} \cdot \tau_D \tag{35}$$

$$M_{Sg,205} = M_{Sg,201a} \tag{36}$$

where the stream S-201a is the dilution of S-201, and τ_D corresponds to the disruption rate achieved in BM-201 (80%, Heredia et al. [44]).

The process was considered to not create emulsions, and so streams S-204 and S-205 will only contain TAG and cell debris (carbohydrates included) respectively. ToT is the total flow supplied and determines the size and power $P_{El,CX202}$ of the centrifugal extractor (0.025 kW, Rousselet Robatel, France). Then, the energy consumption for the CX-202 unit is calculated as follows:

$$E_{Input,CX202} = P_{El,CX202} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{37}$$

where t_{OP} is the operating full process time described in Section 2.1.

For the Dec-202 unit, the mass balance has been computed using the following equations:

$$Q_{201} = M_{T,201} / \rho_{AlgLip} \tag{38}$$

$$M_{TAG,204} = M_{TAG,201} \cdot \eta_{E,TAG} \cdot \tau_D \tag{39}$$

$$M_{Sg,205} = M_{TAG,201} \tag{40}$$

$$M_{Sg,205} = M_{Sg,201} \tag{41}$$

where τ_D corresponds to the disruption rate achieved in BM-201 (80%), $\eta_{E,TAG}$ is the TAG extraction efficiency (here assumed in 95%), and ρ_{AlgLip} is for the density of algal lipids (1 060 kg·m⁻³, Miao and Wu [68]).

The energy input for the Dec-202 operation $E_{Input, Dec202}$ was defined as follows:

$$E_{Input, Dec202} = P_{El, Dec202} \cdot Q_{201} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{42}$$

where $P_{El,Dec202}$ is the energy demand for the operation established at 0.01 kWh·m⁻³ by Zhang and Zhang [64], and t_{OP} is the operating full process time described in Section 2.1.

258 2.2.6 Solvent Recovery unit: D-301

If some solvent has been used during the lipid recovery process, it has to be recovered by the solvent recovery unit D-301. The simulation considers a perfect separation of the components by evaporation. Therefore it is assumed:

$$M_{TAG,204} = M_{TAG,301} \tag{43}$$

$$M_{S,302} = M_{S,204} \tag{44}$$

For energy consumption calculation it was only assumed the theoretical latent heat required for phase change:

$$E_{Input,D301} = \Delta H_{vap} \cdot M_{S,204} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{45}$$

with ΔH_{vap} as the specific latent heat of vaporization (for Me-THF is 375 kJ·kg $_{MeTHF}^{-1}$ taken from

Sicaire et al. [69] and for n-hexane is 360 kJ·kg⁻¹_{Hex} taken from Pashchenko and Kuznetsova [70]), and t_{OP} the operating full process time described in Section 2.1.

262 2.2.7 Transesterification unit: R-302

Conversion of TAG into fatty acid methyl esters (FAME, biodiesel) takes place in the stirred reactor R-302. The process is described by the following equations:

$$M_{BioD,304} = (M_{TAG,301}/MW_{AlgLip}) \cdot 3 \cdot Y_{Trans} \cdot MW_{FAME}$$

$$\tag{46}$$

$$M_{T,303} = (M_{TAG,301}/MW_{AlgLip}) \cdot (Me - OH/TAG) \cdot MW_{Me - OH}$$

$$\tag{47}$$

where MW_{AlgLip} is the molecular weight of algal lipids, FAME or Me-OH (920, 299.32, 32.04 g·mol⁻¹ respectively) based on Faried et al. [29].

The value of 3 in the first equation, represents the stoichiometric coefficient of FAME products during transesterification. It has been shown that high transesterification yields Y_{Trans} may only be achieved when using a 6 or 12 Me-OH-to-TAG-moles ratio (*Me-OH/TAG*) [71, 29]. For this work, it has been used a ratio of 6 *Me-OH/TAG* yields 98% conversion in the reaction.

For the calculation of energy consumption, the work of Batan et al. [72] has been used as a reference. The author has reported specific energies for stirring and heating based on the amount of biodiesel produced, leading to:

$$E_{Input,R302} = (P_{El,R302} + P_{Q,R302}) \cdot M_{BioD,304}$$
(48)

with $P_{El,R302}$ and $P_{Q,R302}$ for the specific energies for stirring and heating respectively with values of 0.03 kWh·kg⁻¹_{BioD}·y⁻¹ and 2.1 MJ·kg⁻¹_{BioD}·y⁻¹ respectively.

271 2.2.8 Fermentation: R-401

Another stirred reactor R-401 was considered to perform the fermentation reaction. It takes as input the mass of carbohydrates contained in the S-205 stream, $M_{Sg,205}$. The simulation used the values reported by Karemore and Sen [56], which also deal with lipid extraction followed by chemical pretreatment of the residual biomass with H₂SO₄ (not simulated) and fermentation by Saccharomyces cereviseae. Under this protocol 90% of carbohydrates $\eta_{Fer,Sg}$, were converted into bioethanol with a yield Y_{Fer} , 0.23 kg_{BioE}·kg_{Sg}⁻¹ (theoretical yield of Ethanol conversion, 0.51 kg_{BioE}·kg_{Sg}⁻¹ [73, 74]). Calculations used to describe the fermentation process were:

$$M_{BioE,402} = M_{Sg,205} \cdot Y_{Fer} \tag{49}$$

$$M_{Sg,402} = M_{Sg,205} \cdot (1 - \eta_{Fer,Sg}) \tag{50}$$

The energy consumption was based on the specific power $P_{El,R401}$ related to the algal biomass produced in PBR-101, accounting 0.05 MJ·kg $_{DW}^{-1}$:

$$E_{Input,R401} = P_{El,R401} \cdot M_{X,102} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{51}$$

272 2.2.9 Bioethanol and Biodiesel purification unit: D-402 and D-303

The final stages in bioethanol and biodiesel production are the purification units D-402 and D-302 respectively. The same set of equations were used for both processes. It was considered the operation efficiency (90% for η_{D402} and η_{D303}) and final purity of the corresponding biofuel (95% for Pu_{D402} and Pu_{D303}). The final liquid biofuel is recovered in the streams S-403 ($M_{BioE,403}$, kg·d⁻¹) for bioethanol, and S-305 for biodiesel ($M_{BioD,305}$, kg·d⁻¹). This leads to the following equations:

$$M_{BioD,305} = M_{BioD,304} \cdot \eta_{D303} \cdot Pu_{D303} \tag{52}$$

$$M_{TAG,305} = M_{TAG,304} \cdot \eta_{D303} \cdot (1 - Pu_{D303}) \tag{53}$$

$$M_{BioE,403} = M_{BioE,402} \cdot \eta_{D402} \cdot P u_{D402} \tag{54}$$

$$M_{Sq,403} = M_{Sq,402} \cdot \eta_{D402} \cdot (1 - Pu_{D402}) \tag{55}$$

273 No particular technology for the purification of both biofuels was suggested in calculations, 274 therefore energy consumption was not considered. Note that some purification processes for ²⁷⁵ bioethanol, like distillation, which could be high energy-consuming, were not included here. This
²⁷⁶ aspect will be discussed later.

277 2.3 Output calculations

Three different energy outputs were obtained from simulations: the theoretical energy content of the biomass E_X , the potentially recoverable fuel energy E_P , and the actual total energy E_T .

The theoretical energy content of the biomass E_X considered a heating value for algae biomass H_{AlgX} of 25.7 MJ·kg⁻¹_{DW} reported by Tibbetts et al. [75], and it was computed as follows:

$$E_X = M_{X,103} \cdot H_{AlqX} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{56}$$

As biomass production for all the simulation cases was set at $1 \text{ t} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$, the theoretical energy content is 25 700 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹ also for all scenarios.

The potentially recoverable total fuel energy E_P was described by Heredia et al. [19] as the energy that can be recovered in a 100% efficient process, and so it shows the maximum energy achievable from biomass energy-rich compounds (TAG and carbohydrates). Here is presented per each Ton of biomass produced (MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹). It sums the potentially recoverable biodiesel energy $E_{P,BioD}$ (MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹) and the potentially recoverable bioethanol energy $E_{P,BioE}$ (MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹) for a double biofuel recovery. In addition, calculations of potentially recoverable biodiesel and bioethanol energies considered the maximum theoretical yield in the stoichiometric reactions, which leads to:

$$E_{P,BioD} = (S_X \cdot \%_X TAG/MW_{AlgLip}) \cdot \eta_{E,TAG} \cdot 3 \cdot Y_{Trans} \cdot MW_{FAME} \cdot \Delta H^{\circ}_{comb,BioD} \cdot A^* \cdot t_{OP}$$
(57)

$$E_{P,BioE} = (S_X \cdot \%_X Sg) \cdot \eta_{E,Sg} \cdot Y_{Fer} \cdot \Delta H^{\circ}_{comb,BioE} \cdot A^* \cdot t_{OP}$$
(58)

$$E_P = E_{P,BioD} + E_{P,BioE} \tag{59}$$

As it can be noted in the calculation of the potentially recoverable total fuel energy E_P , it was considered a 100% extraction recovery efficiency for TAG and carbohydrates ($\eta_{E,TAG}$ and $\eta_{E,Sg}$). The same was considered for the transesterification yield Y_{Trans} , but not for the fermentation yield Y_{Fer} , where Lee et al. [73], Okamoto et al. [74] have referred a 0.51 kg_{BioE}·kg_{Sg}⁻¹ for the theoretical value. The heat of combustion of biodiesel and bioethanol ΔH_{comb}° were 40.4 and 26.7 MJ·kg $_{BioFuel}^{-1}$ respectively [29, 76, 77]. Note that the illuminated surface A^* in Eq. 57 and 58 for the culture system is specific for each simulation case.

Likewise, the actual energy obtained from biodiesel E_{BioD} and bioethanol E_{BioE} per 1 t of biomass here simulated (MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹) were calculated as follows:

$$E_{BioD} = M_{BioD,305} \cdot \Delta H^{\circ}_{comb,BioD} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{60}$$

$$E_{BioE} = M_{BioE,403} \cdot \Delta H^{\circ}_{comb,BioE} \cdot t_{OP} \tag{61}$$

Some simulations also included the co-production of photovoltaic energy E_{PV} (MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹) in the PBR-101. This was calculated based on the values reported by Nwoba et al. [28], where each installed PBR of 1.8m^2 produced $110.2 \text{ kWh} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$ (for a solar irradiance from 16 to 28 MJ·m⁻²·y⁻¹ and from 7 to 9 sunlight hours per day). This brings a PV areal power $P_{PV,PBR101}$ of 61.23 kWh·m⁻²·y⁻¹. The PV energy recovered at the culture unit may be then calculated as follows:

$$E_{PV} = P_{PV,PBR101} \cdot A^* \tag{62}$$

Therefore, the actual total energy produced by the simulated process is the sum of the latter equations including, if mentioned, the PV energy produced in PBR-101. The final energy output of a simulated process is then:

$$E_T = E_{BioD} + E_{BioE} + E_{PV} \tag{63}$$

Finally, the net energy ratio NER was calculated as follows:

$$NER = E_{output} / E_{input} \tag{64}$$

where E_{input} accounts for the sum of all the energy inputs for each equipment previously described in the corresponding simulation case. Note that E_{output} can be replaced with any other energy output previously described (or with any other partial energy) to represent different *NER* assumptions. Such values may differ from each other even though simulation cases were conducted for the same

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yearly produced biomass $(1 \text{ t} \cdot \text{y}^{-1})$. NER values were retrieved in this study as:

- a) using the maximum energy content:
- 295

• NER_X : considering the theoretical energy content of the biomass E_X ,

• NER_{EP} , $NER_{EP,BioD}$ or $NER_{EP,BioE}$: considering the potentially recoverable total fuel energy E_P , or the corresponding partial values $E_{P,BioD}$ or $E_{P,BioE}$,

b) using the actual energy for the simulation case (including or not the photovoltaic energy E_{PV}):

• NER_T , NER_{EBioD} or NER_{EBioE} considering the actual total energies E_T , or the actual partial energies E_{BioD} or E_{BioE} for a simulation case.

³⁰² Therefore an energy-positive process will have values greater than or equal to 1.

303 2.4 Simulation Cases Description

Eight simulation cases have been proposed in this work to simulate $1 \text{ t} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$ of microalgae culture. Relevant and cumulative changes in operation blocks are added to complete and follow the also cumulative NER_T improvement from case to case.

In contrast to operation blocks Prod-100 and Rec-200, technologies for operation blocks BioD-308 300 and BioE-400 have been maintained for all the cases, except for the D-301 unit in case 6. 309 Some other minor considerations regarding the size or power of equipment may have been adapted 310 in each case to treat the resultant flow rate. Main process values in the culture unit (*eg.* PBR 311 technology description, strains, and culture productivities) are summarized in Table 1. Other minor 312 descriptions and those related to downstream treatment are detailed below:

³¹³ Case 1: The first simulation considers the dry-pathway for biodiesel production only and an ³¹⁴ ideal strain. The PBR-101 unit is a raceway pond of 15 cm in depth. No thermal ³¹⁵ regulation technology has been considered as it will be discussed in Section 3.1. The ³¹⁶ culture was supposed in continuous mode with an ideal strain based on Pruvost et al. ³¹⁷ [24]. The downstream operations here considered were: i) concentration unit using ³¹⁸ centrifugation as the C-102 unit, and collecting biomass at $\%_{W,C102}$ of 80% w/w (*ie.* ³¹⁹ 200 kg·m⁻³); ii) pretreatment unit with a thermal dryer TD-201 and $\%_{DW,TD102}$ of 320 321 100% (fully dry); iii) for the lipid recovery unit, a centrifugal L-L extractor using n-hexane as solvent; and iv) all the BioD-300 block;

- Case 2: This simulation uses the wet-pathway for biodiesel production only and an ideal strain. 322 The PBR-101 unit is also a raceway pond of 15 cm depth following the same consid-323 eration for no thermal regulation technology. Culture mode and strain were the same 324 as in case 1. The downstream operations considered here were: i) harvesting biomass 325 using flotation as the Fl-102 unit, and concentrating at $\%_{W,Fl102}$ of 99% w/w (ie. 10 326 kg·m⁻³), ii) pretreatment unit with a bead miller BM-201 achieving 80% of disruption 327 rate, iii) for the lipid recovery, an S-L extractor using 2-methyl-tetra-hydrofuran as a 328 solvent, and iv) the entire BioD-300 block. 329
- Case 2.a. was proposed as a variation of Case 2, for adding the block BioE-400 for
 bioethanol production (*ie.* double biofuel recovery)
- Case 3: Simulation considers also the wet-pathway for double biofuel recovery and an ideal 332 strain. In this case, the PBR-101 includes the intensified culture technology of high 333 volumetric productivity photobioreactor HVP, also referred to as AlgoFilm[©] [26, 27]. 334 The culture unit PBR-101 is 2 mm in depth. In addition, the operation unit included 335 the use of an insulated-glazed unit IGU [28] with which the need for thermal regulation 336 is no longer required. Culture production mode and strain were the same as in pre-337 vious cases. For downstream operations: i) no concentration unit was required since 338 HVP PBR biomass concentration was high enough for the ii) bead miller BM-201, 339 which was considered again for an 80% of disruption rate; iii) then an S-L extractor 340 was proposed using 2-methyl-tetra-hydrofuran as a solvent; iv) the BioD-300 block; 341 and v) the BioE-400 block was included again. 342
- *Case 3.a.* completes Case 3 with a PV panel at the PBR-101 unit as described
 in Nwoba et al. [28], which enables to produce PV energy in addition to the double
 biofuel recovery.
- Case 4: Simulation is for the wet-pathway for double biofuel recovery and PV energy co production, and an actual strain. It takes into account the same upstream and down-

349

350

stream operations as in case 3.a., but now considering experimental values reported for the nitrogen-limited culture of *Nannochloropsis gaditana* according to Heredia et al. [19]. The values used for the simulation are presented in Table 1.

- Case 5: The wet-pathway for the double biofuel recovery with PV energy co-production is 351 maintained for this scenario with an ideal strain. The culture in an HVP+IGU 352 photobioreactor has been considered once more but with a variable output biomass 353 concentration for testing the interest of such an increase in the downstream processing. 354 Operations units for the downstream processing were i) a band filtration F-102 unit 355 enabling to concentrate of the biomass to an optimum value (further discussed); ii) a 356 bead miller BM-201 as shown for in the previous cases; iii) an S-L extractor using 357 2-methyl-tetra-hydrofuran as a solvent, which was supposed to work at the same 358 optimum F-102 value and, as consequence avoid the S-202 dilution stream; iv) and 359 finally the BioD-300 and v) the BioE-400 blocks. 360
- Case 6: For the last scenario, also the wet-pathway for double biofuel recovery with PV energy
 co-production from an ideal strain was proposed. The production process was the
 same as in Case 5 except for the lipid recovery unit where a decantation operation
 Dec-202 was proposed to simulate the avoidance of a solvent-based process. The
 followed operation blocks remained the same.

366 3 Results and Discussion

³⁶⁷ 3.1 Culture system impact on energy balance

The cultivation step alone can induce a significant energy expenditure. This energy expenditure is mainly due to two items, namely thermal regulation and mixing.

The energy consumption of a microalgae culture system is highly dependent on the technology used [60, 28, 78, 79]. For example, closed photobioreactor technologies are known to be subjected to overheating, which is more limited in open systems because of water evaporation. It is also very much related to the targeted range of temperature and level of control applied. It was investigated in detail in Pruvost et al. [80] for open raceway used in harsh desert conditions. A temperature

regulation of 35 °C (*ie.* optimal temperature of a thermal resistant strain) during the summer period 375 led to the energy consumption of 16.7 kWh·m⁻²·d⁻¹, whereas leaving the possibility of temperature 376 drift in the range of 28 - 40 °C led to 3.8 kWh·m⁻²·d⁻¹. This may be applied to a closed system, but 377 ultimately with higher energy consumption, due to the absence of evaporation to naturally reduce 378 heating. Pruvost et al. [81] estimated the yearly energy consumption linked to thermal regulation 379 of vertical PBR at around 500 - 1000 kWh·m⁻² for France location (*ie.* 1.4 - 2.8 kWh·m⁻²·d⁻¹) 380 but peak values are encountered in summer and winter periods. For example Pérez-López et al. 381 [78] presented a detailed study with data for different periods other the year, emphasizing a 15 and 382 5-fold increase between summer and winter, and between summer and fall respectively. Although 383 energy requirements highly depend on several conditions (*ie.* technology, location, period of the 384 year, targeted temperature range), it can be emphasized that thermal regulation alone may lead 385 to very large energy needs. 386

The same conclusion may be made with the energy requested for mixing. In general, mixing 387 energy is related to culture volume [82, 83]. Airlift technologies as well as tubular PBRs are 388 also known to have high energy consumption due to significant pressure drops, with electrical 389 power consumption in the range $300 - 2000 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$. For example, Norsker et al. [84] reported 390 an electrical power value for mixing of 30 $W \cdot m^{-2}$ for an airlift system of 2cm depth, leading to 391 1500 $W \cdot m^{-3}$. Conversely, raceway-type cultivation systems exhibit low to moderate consumption 392 due to paddlewheel agitation and moderate pressure drops. Values are also highly dependent on 393 the raceway design, culture depth, and paddle wheel rotation speed and design. Electrical power 394 requirements in the range of around 0.25 - 4 $W \cdot m^{-2}$ are usually reported (*ie.* 2 - 40 $W \cdot m^{-3}$) 395 [60, 85, 86, 78, 59]. Note here the large difference when values are expressed per unit of culture 396 volume between PBR $(300 - 2000 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-3})$ and raceway $(2 - 40 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-3})$. This is related to the 397 large variation of culture volume per area of culture when comparing airlift PBR to raceway culture 398 system (around a few liters to a few hundred liters per m^2 respectively) [87, 26]. Consequently, 399 decreasing the culture volume (*ie.* depth of culture) will decrease the resulting energy needed for 400 mixing. This will be investigated in this work. 401

Both energies for mixing and thermal regulation show the wide range of energy consumption on the cultivation stage. Thermal regulation in the range of $1 - 4 \text{ kWh} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ are usually encountered (possibly with significant higher values depending on the climate-species-culture system adequacy). For a 12 h mixing per day (*ie.* no mixing during the night), energy for mixing will range between $0.024 - 0.48 \text{ kWh} \cdot \text{m}^{-3} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ and $3.6 - 24 \text{ kWh} \cdot \text{m}^{-3} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ for raceway and airlift PBR respectively, corresponding approximately to $2.4 - 48 \text{ Wh} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ for a raceway of 10 cm depth, and to 72 - $408 \text{ Wh} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ for an airlift PBR of 2 cm depth.

Considering a biomass calorific value of about 20 $MJ \cdot kg^{-1}$ (*ie.* 5.56 kWh · kg⁻¹) and a maximum 409 biomass productivity of 11 - 27 g·m⁻²·d⁻¹ (40 - 100 t·ha⁻¹·y⁻¹), energy recoverable from microalgal 410 biomass can be estimated in the range $0.06 - 0.15 \text{ kWh} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ [81]. Increasing the energy-411 rich biomolecules in the cell by applying for example a growth limitation by nitrogen source will 412 increase such a value. In this regard, Illman et al. [88] reported a calorific value of 21 $MJ\cdot kg^{-1}$ 413 and 29 $MJ \cdot kg^{-1}$ with *Chlorella emersonii* with 29% and 63% in total lipids respectively. But such 414 limitation will be also detrimental to biomass productivity (as shown later). A maximal value of 415 recoverable energy in the biomass of 0.15 kWh·m⁻²·d⁻¹ (540 kJ·m⁻²·d⁻¹) can then be considered 416 as a good upper limit in first instance (as described later, Heredia et al. [19] estimated a potentially 417 recoverable biofuel energy at 19 642 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹, corresponding to 0.003 - 0.002 Wh·m⁻²·d⁻¹). 418 This shows that it is easy to have a much higher energy consumption in the culture stage than that 419 recoverable in biomass, even without introducing energy needs for downstream processing of the 420 biomass up to biofuel conversions. 421

To simplify the analysis presented here, only two main categories of technologies were retained 422 for simulations, both assuming that thermal regulation was negligible leading to little energy con-423 sumption: a raceway culture system without thermal regulation, and a closed PBR with passive 424 thermal regulation. In both cases, the temperature was assumed to be maintained in the range of 425 optimal growth all over the year. Passive thermal regulation for closed PBRs could be found as an 426 optimistic hypothesis, but such a principle was introduced recently by Nwoba et al. [28] using an 427 insulated-glazed photovoltaic photobioreactor and also discussed in Goetz et al. [89] where phase 428 change materials and IR filtering were combined for passive regulation. As a result, energy con-429 sumed at the culture stage was then only related to mixing. It was fixed at $0.368 \text{ kWh} \cdot \text{m}^{-3} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ 430 hereafter (data obtained in our facility from experiments on raceways systems of various depths, in 431 accordance with literature). 432

Case		1	L	2 & 2.a.		3 & 3.a.		4		5		6	
	a) Input Energies, E_{input} (MJ·t ⁻¹ ·y ⁻¹)												
Prod-100	PBR-101 102	238 714	$12 \ 067$ $226 \ 647$	12 662	$12 \ 067 \\ 595$	437	$437 \\ 0$	485	$485 \\ 0$	626	$437 \\ 189$	626	$437 \\ 189$
Rec-200	201 202	15 293	$9\ 027$ 6 266	$5\ 159$	$4\ 370\ 788$	$5\ 159$	$4\ 370\ 788$	$5\ 159$	$4\ 370\ 788$	$5\ 159$	$4\ 370\ 788$	4 370	$4\ 370\ 0.1$
BioD-300	D-301 R-302	5 430	$4745 \\ 684$	67 511	$\begin{array}{c} 67 \ 000 \\ 511 \end{array}$	67 511	$\begin{array}{c} 67 \ 000 \\ 511 \end{array}$	67 210		4 163	$3\ 652\ 511$	578	0 578
BioE-400	R-401	-	-	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
		259 436 85 381		73 157		72	72 903		9 998		5 625		
		b) Biofuel Produced volume $(L \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1})$											
BioD		31	11	23	32	23	32	9	5	23	32	26	62
\mathbf{BioE}				9	5	9	5	5	5	9	5	9	5
Total E	BioFuel	31	11	33	27	32	27	15	50	32	27	35	57
		c) Output Energy $(MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1})$											
E_{BioD}		10 705		7 993		7 993		3 286		7 993		9 040	
E_{BioE}				2 (004	2 (004	11	52	2 (004	2 (004
E_{PV}					36 689		40 666		36 689		36689		
	E_T	10	705	9 9	997	46	686	45	105	$4\overline{6}$	686	$4\overline{7}$	732

Table 2: Input/output energies and liquid biofuel volumes produced for the simulated cases. All the values correspond to a total production of $1 \text{ t} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$ of microalgal biomass.

Table 3: Net Energy Ratio from the different energy sources at each simulation case. All the values correspond to a total production of $1 \text{ t} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$ of microalgal biomass.

(Case	1	2 & 2.a.	3 & 3.a.	4	5	6		
		a) Maximum energy content							
NER_X		0.099	0.301	0.351	0.353	2.571	4.569		
NEI	$R_{EP,BioD}$	$0.055 0.166 \qquad 0.194 0.080 1.420 2.$				2.524			
NEI	$R_{EP,BioE}$	0.021 0.064 0.074 0.043 0.545 0.96					0.968		
NER_{EP}		0.076	0.230	0.268	0.123	1.965	3.492		
		b) Simulated recovered energy							
- E_{PV}	NER_{EBioD}	0.04	0.09	0.11	0.05	0.80	1.61		
	NER_{EBioE}		0.02	0.03	0.02	0.20	0.36		
	NER_T	0.04	0.12	0.14	0.06	1.00	1.96		
$+ E_{PV}$	NER_{EBioD}			0.61	0.60	4.47	8.13		
	NER_{EBioE}			0.53	0.57	3.87	6.88		
	NER_T			0.64	0.62	4.67	8.49		

433 **3.2** Cases comparisson

Table 1 includes the potentially recoverable energy values for each biofuel produced in each scenario.
The corresponding actual input/outputs energy values are described in Table 2 and represented
in Figure 2a. The corresponding maximum and actual *NER* values are presented in Table 3 and
Figure 2b.



Figure 2: Energy output a) and NER_T b) comparison for the simulated cases. Red-dashed lines are: a) reference for theoretical energy content of the biomass E_X , potentially recoverable energy $E_{P,Ideal}$ for the ideal strain, potentially recoverable total fuel energy $E_{P,Ngaditana}$ for N. gaditana, and b) energy neutrality ($NER_T = 1$).

438 3.2.1 Cases 1 and 2 & 2.a.: Dry and Wet-pathway comparison, and Double biofuel 439 recovery

Using an ideal strain, the biodiesel production process under a classical dry-pathway (Case 1) and 440 a wet-pathway (Case 2) resulted in NER_T equal to 0.04 and 0.09 respectively, which are much 441 below the energy neutrality. Both process may recover $E_{P,BioD}$ up to 14 196 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹, however 442 in Case 1 it was only recovered 10 705 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹ of E_{BioD} (311 L·t⁻¹·y⁻¹) and consumed E_{input} 443 of 259 436 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹. In comparison, Case 2 produced 7 993 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹ of E_{BioD} but consumed 444 only E_{input} of 85 381 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹. In other words, Case 1 recovered only around 34% more biodiesel 445 energy than Case 2 (2 712 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ more), but also Case 1 consumed 3 times more energy than 446 Case 2. 447

The dry-pathway consumed most of the energy, 238 714 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹, (*ie.* 92% of the E_{input}) during the Prod-100 block. The raceway culture system produced 0.13 kg·m⁻³ of biomass in 166 m², which was concentrated to 200 kg·m⁻³ (80%_{W,C102}, w/w), which is the recommended value prior to the thermal dryer TD-201 unit [63]. Then the recovery block R-200 consumed 15 293 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹ (6% of the E_{input}) including 9 027 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹ for the thermal dryer TD-201 only.

Besides, the wet-pathway consumed most of the energy at the BioD-300 block, representing 79% of the corresponding E_{input} with 67 511 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹. Almost the entire of this energy consumption (99%) was due to the need for evaporating 178 t·y⁻¹ of extraction solvent at D-301 unit. Such an amount of solvent was a consequence of the low productivity associated with the raceway culture system (in 15 cm depth) and the eventual dilution (from 10 to 7.9 kg·m⁻³) for reaching an optimal disrupted-biomass concentration for the L-L extraction (Heredia et al. [44]). The resulting 127 t·y⁻¹ were then treated using the 1.65 S/F ratio.

Biodiesel production via the wet-pathway is shown here to be a more energetically viable process compared to the dry pathway. However, note as well that Case 1 also obtained a NER_{EBioD} of 75% of the maximum recoverable $NER_{EP,BioD}$ (42% of NER_X), and Case 2 a NER_{EBioD} of 56% of the corresponding maximum $NER_{EP,BioD}$ (39% of NER_X). This highlights a potential optimization in the wet-pathway to not only develop intensified efficient technologies with low-energy consumption but also processes that would allow treating high biomass concentrations (>10 kg·m⁻³) during the lipid recovery step.

Increasing the energy output is another way to improve the NER_T . Simulation case 2.a. 467 includes the additional recovery of bioethanol after valorization of the carbohydrates in the non-468 extracted residues of the centrifugal extractor. Such a process, as part of an energy-driven biore-469 finery approach, aimed to increase the energy output of the biofuel production process [56, 55, 57]. 470 The NER_T considering such double biofuel recovery has only increased to 0.12, but recovering 471 now 327 $L \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ of two liquid biofuels instead of the 232 $L \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ in a only-biodiesel wet-472 pathway process (representing 140% increase in volume of liquid biofuels). This indicates that 473 the co-production of bioethanol does not improve the energy balance, but increases the amount 474 of biofuel produced for given biomass. Notably, the double biofuel recovery takes advantage of 475 the amount of carbohydrates and lipids available in the cell to be converted into liquid biofuels. 476 Therefore, microalgae culture protocols where biomass accumulates large amounts of these energy-477 rich molecules, are ideal for this approach. 478

Even if the fermentation and recovery process are optimized at the maximum yields, the double 479 biofuel recovery might remain below the energy neutrality (NER_{EP} of 0.23). Note from Tables 1 480 and 2, that the actual recovered energy differs in about 65% of the $E_{P,BioE}$. Bear in mind that the 481 final yield for the microalgal biomass hydrolysis and the subsequent fermentation is significantly 482 lower than the theoretical value, even for separated processes [90, 91]. Klinke et al. [92] suggested 483 that microalgae hydrolysate may contain inhibitory chemicals for ethanol fermentation which may 484 reduce the yield. [91] suggested another process application known as the simultaneous sacchari-485 fication and fermentation (SSF) using carbohydrate-rich biomass and bacteria, which has yielded 486 87.1% of the theoretical value (0.209 g ethanol/g biomass). Such a process is expected to be less 487 inhibitory but it may take a longer operation time. 488

Note that energies for both biodiesel and bioethanol purification units (D-303 and D-402) were 489 not considered here and might be different for both. Recovering the bioethanol from the fer-490 mentation broth or FAME's (biodiesel) from methanol traditionally requires a distillation process 491 which may be more energy-consuming. For example, lower carbohydrate concentrations affect the 492 bioethanol concentrations at the end of fermentation, hence more energy would be invested via a 493 distillation process turning into a not energy-efficient the whole operation. Membrane technologies 494 like those presented by Wei et al. [93] and Lewandowicz et al. [94] may be suitable for a more 495 energy-efficient biofuel process. 496

The double biofuel recovery approach opens the way to the energy recovery from other sources in an energy-biorefinery perspective (*eg.* biohydrogen, methanization or PV energy) [95, 96, 1, 97, 28].

499 3.2.2 Cases 3 & 3.a. and 4: Improvements for the Upstream processing

⁵⁰⁰ By using the HVP+IGU photobioreactor with an ideal strain and integrating the double biofuel ⁵⁰¹ production during Case 3, the NER_T slightly increased to 0.14. For the same amount of energy ⁵⁰² and volume of liquid biofuels produced as in Cases 2 & 2.a., the energy input E_{input} was reduced in ⁵⁰³ 73 157 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹. This represents a reduction of 14% in energy consumption due to the Prod-100 ⁵⁰⁴ block which only consumed 437 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹.

The use of the HVP+IGU technology as a PBR-101 unit, not only removes the energy con-505 sumption due to thermal control but also discards the need for biomass concentration. Pruvost 506 et al. [26] already discussed the PBR depth and light absorption optimization leading to higher 507 biomass concentrations. By reducing the PBR depth to 2 mm, the biomass concentration reached 508 $9.53 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ and the final volume of the culture passed from 25 m³ (for raceway PBR) to 0.33 m³ 509 (for HVP PBR) on the same surface. However such volume reduction was not enough to impact 510 the amount of solvent used and the associated energy consumption for the evaporation, because 511 the optimum biomass concentration for the CX-202 unit still requires a previous dilution to reach 512 7.9 kg·m⁻³. The BioD-300 block still consumed 67 511 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹. 513

Another relevant feature of HVP-PBR is the decrease in volume (ie. process intensification). 514 Figure 3 compares the effect of the depth of the culture for raceway (Case 2) and HVP+IGU 515 (Case 3) PBR on the final NER_{BioD} (Biodiesel only) and the NER_T (double biofuel recovery). 516 Simulations indicated that the maximum NER_T of 0.14 is attained at depths less than 1 - 3 cm 517 for raceway and, inferior to around 0.5 cm for HVP+IGU. Greater depths also induce losses in 518 NER, which are more pronounced for HVP+IGU, down to approximately 0.02, and to 0.08 for 519 the raceway. This is explained by the mixing energy here considered, which was greater per unit 520 volume for the HPV-PBR than for the raceway culture system. A raceway with a depth below 521 a few centimeters would certainly be impossible to operate in practice, but Figure 3 emphasizes 522 here the relevance of the mixing energy. By designing HVP-PBR with low mixing energy (as with 523 AlgoFilm[©] PBR in Pruvost et al. [26]), a further gain in NER can be obtained. Whatever the 524 mixing energy, Figure 3 demonstrates the interest of increasing specific illuminated surfaces on 525



Figure 3: Impact of the depth of the culture using a raceway (Case 2) and a HVP+IGU (Case 3) photobioreactor on the NER_{BioD} and the NER_T during the wet-pathway biofuel production. The NER_T includes the double biofuel recovery but not the PV energy co-production.

the energy-saving for given biomass production. HVP+IGU PBR has for example values of the specific illuminated surface around 75 higher than for raceway (500 m⁻¹ to 6.67 m⁻¹, Table 1), then saving a significant amount of energy because of the culture volume reduction (0.3 m³ and 25 m³ respectively).

In addition to the previous process, Case 3.a. adds the co-production of PV energy on the same 530 microalgae culture surface as suggested by Nwoba et al. [28]. PV panels coupled to HVP+IGU 531 PBR increased the NER_T to 0.64 which is 239% greater than the NER_{EP} and 182% more than the 532 NER_X . The additional E_{PV} of 36 698 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹ is 50% of the E_{input} for the entire process. It can 533 be noted that this approach produced enough energy to sustain the entire Prod-100, Rec-200, and 534 BioE-400 blocks, and still contribute 31 043 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹ more for the BioD-300 block consumption. 535 Case 4 calculates the NER using experimental data obtained on Nannochloropsis gaditana (the 536 actual strain) and the process used in Cases 3 & 3.a. NER_T (without considering PV energy, $-E_{PV}$) 537 was reduced to 0.06, which is about half of the obtained with an ideal strain. The difference did not 538 only strive in the energy consumption of the process, which slightly decreased to 72 903 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$; 539 but in the energy obtained from biofuels, which was reduced in 44% to attain 4 438 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ 540 (where 3 286 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ were issued from biodiesel and 1 152 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ from bioethanol). The 541 biofuel volumes produced were reduced to 150 $L \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ (95 and 55 $L \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ of biodiesel and 542



Figure 4: Impact of the harvesting biomass concentration (X-axis) on the NER_T using the band filtration F-102 unit. X-axis is also presented as moisture percentage ($\%_{W,F102}$, w/w). The blackcircle plot consider the double biofuel recovery but not the PV energy; the white-circle plot is for a biodiese-only production process; and the values over the red dash line are considered as energyneutral processes.

⁵⁴³ bioethanol respectively).

⁵⁴⁴ No significant changes were observed in energy consumption of production blocks E_{input} . The ⁵⁴⁵ losses in energy production were mainly only associated with the reduction in surface productivity ⁵⁴⁶ with *Nannochloropsis gaditana*. However, the losses may be compensated when co-producing PV ⁵⁴⁷ energy: with lower surface productivity, a larger culture surface of 185 m² was needed to produce ⁵⁴⁸ 1 t·y⁻¹, and thus more PV energy was available. This additional 40 666 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹ turned the ⁵⁴⁹ *NER_T* to 0.62, a value similar to the obtained with an ideal strain in Cases 3 & 3.a.

The previous simulations, highlight the relevance of sharing the same illuminated surface between HVP+IGU PBR and PV panels, which may be a step forward in making energetically selfsustaining the production of algae biofuels even when using savage strains. Nevertheless, the entire process still needs optimization, mainly in key production blocks such as Rec-200 and BioD-300. Other technology set-ups will be discussed below that may take better advantage of the previous culture optimization for targeting better NER_T values.

556 3.2.3 Cases 5 & 6: Improvements for the Downstream processing

As discussed in section 3.2.2, the L-L extraction in CX-202 may play a major role in the *NER* because the lipid recovery is limited by the concentration of the disrupted cell suspension [44], and consequently, the resulting treated volume also impacts the energy consumption during solvent evaporation. The following Case 5 aims to elucidate the question of the optimal harvested biomass concentration to process maximal biomass with a minimum solvent in CX-202.

Using Case 3 as reference, the Figure 4 show the NER_T for 20 simulations issued of varying the harvested biomass concentration at F-102 unit. For retrieving NER_T values greater to energy neutrality ($NER_T \ge 1$), concentration should be above to 145 kg·m⁻³ ($85.5\%_{W,F102}$, w/w) considering a double biofuel recovery (without including PV energy, $-E_{PV}$); and above 321 kg·m⁻³ ($68\%_{W,F102}$, w/w) for a biodiese-only production process.

These values imply as well that operation units BM-201 and CX-202 should operate in the same concentration intervals as F-102. Bead milling may treat concentrations in the 1 to 145 $kg \cdot m^{-3}$ range, with direct impact on the cell disruption rate and energy consumption [98, 99, 35– 37]. However, the treatment at such high biomass concentration in centrifugal extractions may be limited by the emulsion formation, and the solvent-to-feed or partition ratios. Only the range 2 to 10 kg $\cdot m^{-3}$ has been investigated to date [100, 44, 43] and it should then request further investigation.

⁵⁷⁴ Band filtration, as F-102 unit, is a reliable option to achieve concentrations up to 200-300 ⁵⁷⁵ kg·m⁻³ [63]. It may be argued that flocculation, as a low energy consumption technology is ideal ⁵⁷⁶ for this concentration step [101, 5]. However, adding either organic (*eg.* chitosan or guar gum which ⁵⁷⁷ is carbohydrate-based) or inorganic (like $FeCl_3$ or Al_2SO_4) agents may fake yields or interfere with ⁵⁷⁸ future chemical reactions as fermentation or transesterification. More important, flocculation does ⁵⁷⁹ not concentrate enough of the biomass within the treatment limits of the next operations units ⁵⁸⁰ [102–104]

It is also important to highlight that high biomass concentration processes may also reduce the water consumption in the system. This has not only an impact on the energy consumption but also the water footprint of microalgal biofuel production (which is already lesser than crop-based fuels as described by Pugazhendhi et al. [105]).

For a process at $NER_T = 1$ (- E_{PV}) with harvested biomass of 145 kg·m⁻³ by band filtration, 585 9 998 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ were consumed in total. In Case 5 the Rec-200 and BioD-300 were blocks that 586 consumed the most with 52% and 42% of the NER_T (- E_{PV}) respectively, but with only 5 159 587 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ and 4 163 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$) respectively, which is much lower than for Case 3.a. Working at 588 larger biomass concentrations results in a large reduction in energy consumption (18 times) at the 589 D-301 unit by saving especially water, thus amount of solvent and so the energy for final solvent 590 evaporation, obtaining NER_{EP} and NER_X values of around 1.96 and 2.6 respectively. Even 591 though the PV energy is no longer necessary to achieve a positive energy balance for the process 592 in Case 5, an additional 36 689 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ would be produced (46 686 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$ in total), for 593 finally recovering 4.67 times more energy than the invested for the whole process (NER_T with 594 E_{PV}). 595

As may be inferred from the above Case 5, the use of solvents in the wet-pathway biofuel production may have a strong impact on the net energy ratio of the process, therefore it is essential to either increase the operational work concentration of the metabolite recovery block or use technologies that do not rely at all on solvents.

In this regard, Case 6 simulates a process at the same previous biomass concentration but 600 substitutes now the centrifugal extraction with a decantation process (no solvents involved). Such 601 process is energetically self-sustaining without a double biofuel recovery (NER_{EBioD} of 1.61) or 602 PV co-production ($NER_T - E_{PV}$ of 1.96) but, if included, the final NER_T may result in the value 603 of 8.49. The resultant process produces $357 \text{ L} \cdot \text{t}^{-1} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$ or $11.044 \text{ MJ} \cdot \text{t}^{-1} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$ from liquid biofuels 604 only. Additional E_{PV} (36 689 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹) will increase the E_T to 47 732 MJ·t⁻¹·y⁻¹, which is not 605 much different from the final energy production from Case 5. However, the use of a decantation 606 Dec-202 unit reduced the energy consumption at the Rec-200 block to only 4 370 $MJ \cdot t^{-1} \cdot y^{-1}$. 607 As consequence, 86% less energy was consumed during the BioD-300 due to the avoidance of a 608 solvent recovery unit, indicating here a major perspective to improve the energy balance of the 609 microalgae-based biofuels process. 610

Other biorefinery approximations like the concomitant wastewater biorefinery [7–9], the zerowaste microalgal biorefinery [106] or multiple value-added biorefinery [107] have also identified similar bottlenecks in the production processes like harvesting efficiency, hybrid technologies and intensification, water consumption and culture productivity. The here proposed energy-driven ⁶¹⁵ biorefinery approach may give some additional insights for retrieving and saving energy in other
⁶¹⁶ production processes where the use of a solvent-free metabolite recovery, the surplus of photovoltaic
⁶¹⁷ energy, and high biomass concentration processes, may be well integrated.

618 4 Conclusions

The here presented cumulative-improvement simulations have suggested that technologies such as intensified photobioreactors (thinner than 1-3 cm), infrared light filtering units, photovoltaic panels, solvent-free metabolite recovery processes such as decantation, and high biomass concentration treatments at $\geq 145 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ are major contributors on the net energy ratio of microalgae-based biofuel process. The conclusion was found consistent for both ideal and actual strains. These operations were also found to be key to the design of a sustainable microalgae-based biofuel process and also probably well integrated into other biorefinery approaches

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⁹⁶⁶ Authorship contribution statement

Vladimir Heredia: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft.
Jeremy Pruvost: Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision. Jack Legrand:
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970 Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
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