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Biofiltração de efluentes de aquicultura com *Ulva* spp. (Chlorophyta): ecofisiologia e valorização da biomassa

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Thaís Fávero Massocato

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O presente trabalho em nível de doutorado foi avaliado e aprovado por banca examinadora composta pelos seguintes membros:

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Dr. Caio Cesar França Magnotti,
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Prof. Dr. Fábio de Farias Neves,
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Certificamos que esta é a **versão original e final** do trabalho de conclusão que foi julgado adequado para obtenção do título de doutora em biotecnologia e biociências pelo Programa de Pós-Graduação em Biotecnologia e Biociências.

Prof. Dr. Glauber Wagner
Coordenação do Programa de Pós-Graduação

Prof. Dr. Leonardo Rubi Rörig
Orientador

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Dedico essa tese a cinco eternas e importantes pessoas
Martim H. Massocato, Caetano H. Massocato, Daniel
André Fávero (*in memorian*), Luzia Fantini Fávero (*in
memorian*) e João Antônio Fávero.

“Se as coisas são inatingíveis... ora!
Não é motivo para não querê-las...
Que tristes os caminhos, se não fora
A presença distante das estrelas!”

Mario Quintana

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RESUMO

O incremento descontrolado de resíduos poluentes não tratados decorrente de atividades antropogênicas é um problema mundial que põe em risco ecossistemas continentais e costeiros. A descarga excessiva de nutrientes nos corpos d'água, principalmente na forma de compostos nitrogenados e fosforados, leva ao fenômeno de eutrofização, o qual compromete os ecossistemas aquáticos em termos químicos e biológicos. A aquicultura é uma prática que vem crescendo ao longo dos últimos anos, gerando efluentes ricos em nutrientes que, se não tratados, podem contribuir com o processo de eutrofização. Sistemas de aquicultura multitróficos integrados consistem no cultivo interligado de organismos de diferentes níveis tróficos, permitindo o reuso dos efluentes ricos em nutrientes para o cultivo de organismos filtradores, como algas marinhas. Nesse sentido, algas do gênero *Ulva* têm sido exploradas como biofiltradoras de efluentes de maricultura. Além de atuarem como biofiltros, os cultivos de *Ulva* sp. podem ser fonte de biomassa para obtenção de compostos de interesse biotecnológico, como polissacarídeos denominados ulvanos. Nesse cenário, o presente trabalho buscou, através de experimentos em escala piloto, a perspectiva de utilização de cultivo de duas espécies de *Ulva*: *U. pseudorotundata* e *U. rigida* para biofiltração de efluentes advindos de cultivos de peixes. Além da redução no teor da concentração de compostos nitrogenados, decorrente do processo de remoção dos nutrientes pelas algas no meio, também foram avaliados aspectos fisiológicos obtidos por parâmetros fotossintéticos, crescimento e composição da biomassa. No âmbito relacionado ao uso da biomassa algal, realizou-se a extração e caracterização de polissacarídeos da biomassa obtida nos cultivos de ambas as espécies. Posteriormente foram avaliadas a atividade antioxidante e de citotoxicidade dos polissacarídeos em ensaios *in vitro* de 4 linhagens celulares: câncer de cólon (HCT-116), leucemia (U-937), queratinócitos (HACAT) e melanoma (G361). Tais resultados visaram avaliar o potencial dos polissacarídeos ulvanos, para aplicação na indústria farmacêutica. Para tal, a presente tese está estruturada em três capítulos. Os resultados obtidos no capítulo 1 mostram que cultivos de *U. pseudorotundata* foram eficientes na remoção de NH_4^+ e NO_3^- nas 3 concentrações iniciais testadas de nutrientes (150, 300 e 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) garantindo a biofiltração completa da água em um período de 24 h, embora tenham sido observadas diferenças na eficiência e velocidade de remoção dos nutrientes dependendo da densidade inicial da biomassa algal e do tipo de fonte de nitrogênio. No capítulo 2, ao comparar aspectos de biofiltração e performance fotossintética dos cultivos de *U. pseudorotundata* e *U. rigida* em 50% e 100% de efluente de *Chelon labrosus* verificou-se que ambas as espécies possuem capacidades semelhantes para remover nutrientes inorgânicos de efluentes de peixes. Também foi observado que os cultivos apresentaram desempenho fotossintético e composição de biomassa equivalentes. Com os dados obtidos foi gerado um modelo de regressão linear entre a eficiência de remoção de NO_3^- e a eficiência fotossintética (αETR), este último obtido através de curvas rápidas de luz. O terceiro e último capítulo apresenta que polissacarídeos, constituídos majoritariamente por ulvanos, obtidos de *U. pseudorotundata* e *U. rigida* revelam composição química e estrutural semelhante. Também se constatou que ambos polissacarídeos apresentaram capacidade antioxidante em função do incremento das concentrações testadas. Foi verificado que os polissacarídeos obtidos das duas espécies exibiram toxicidade moderada contra as linhagens celulares HCT-116 e índice de seletividade >3 , demonstrando ser um potencial composto isolado para o desenvolvimento de produtos farmacêuticos. De forma geral, esta tese contribui com o entendimento sobre biofiltração de nutrientes presentes nos efluentes de aquicultura utilizando cultivos de duas espécies de *Ulva* através da performance fisiológica das algas e posterior utilização da biomassa para aplicações biotecnológicas.

Palavras-chave: Aquicultura, Biofiltração, Biomassa algal, Fotossíntese, Nitrogênio, *Ulva* spp., Ulvanos.

ABSTRACT

The increased discharge of wastewater from anthropogenic activities is a worldwide problem which compromises continental and coastal ecosystems. Nutrient discharge into water bodies, mainly as nitrogen and phosphorus compounds, leads to the phenomenon of eutrophication, which can alter chemical and biological composition of aquatic ecosystems. Aquaculture is an activity that has grown over the last few years, generating effluents with a high nutrient content, which, if not treated, can contribute to the eutrophication process. Integrated multi-trophic aquaculture systems (IMTA) consist in the connected cultivation of organisms from different trophic levels, allowing the reuse of nutrient-rich effluents for cultivation by filtering organisms, such as seaweed. In this sense, seaweed from the genus *Ulva* have been explored as biofilters of mariculture effluents. In addition to its role as biofilters, *Ulva* sp. biomass can be a source of compounds with biotechnological interest, such as ulvans polysaccharides. In this scenario, the present work sought, through pilot scale experiments, the perspective of using the cultivation of two *Ulva* species: *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* as biofilters of fish ponds effluents. Besides the reduction in the concentration of nitrogen compounds, physiological aspects obtained by photosynthetic parameters, growth and biomass composition were also evaluated. Regarding the use of algal biomass, the extraction and characterization of polysaccharides from the biomass obtained in the cultures of both species were carried out. Subsequently, the antioxidant capacity and cytotoxicity activity of the polysaccharides were evaluated in vitro assays of 4 cell lines: colon cancer (HCT-116), leukemia (U-937), keratinocytes (HACAT) and melanoma (G361). These analyses aimed to evaluate the potential of ulvan polysaccharides for application in the pharmaceutical industry. To access the objectives mentioned above this thesis is presented in three chapters. The results obtained in Chapter 1 show that *U. pseudorotundata* cultures were efficient in removing NH_4^+ and NO_3^- in the 3 initial concentrations of nutrients tested (150, 300 and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) ensuring complete water remediation in a period of 24 h, although differences were observed depending on the initial biomass stocking density and type of nitrogen source. In chapter 2, when comparing aspects of biofiltration and photosynthetic performance of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* cultures in 50% and 100% of *Chelon labrosus* effluent, it was found that both species possess similar capabilities of removing inorganic nutrients from fish effluents. Additionally, both seaweed species presented equivalent photosynthetic performance and biomass composition. A linear regression model between NO_3^- uptake efficiency and photosynthetic efficiency (α_{ETR}), obtained from Rapid Light Curves, is presented. The third and final chapter shows that the ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction (UPRF) isolated from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* presented similar chemical and structure composition. Similar antioxidant capacity was obtained with increasing potential in response to the increment of polysaccharide concentrations. Both UPRF presented moderate toxicity against HCT-116 cell lines and a selectivity index ≥ 3 , suggesting a good potential for use in pharmaceutical products. In general, this thesis contributes to the understanding of nutrients biofiltration present in aquaculture effluents using cultures of two *Ulva* species through the physiological performance of algae and subsequent use of biomass for biotechnological applications.

Keywords: Aquaculture, Biofiltration, Algal biomass, Photosynthesis, Nitrogen, *Ulva* spp., Ulvan.

LISTA DE FIGURAS

Figure. 1 Resumo gráfico da abordagem desenvolvida na presente tese ilustrando o uso do cultivo de algas do gênero *Ulva* como biofiltro para purificação de efluentes advindos da aquicultura. A biomassa obtida foi direcionada para a obtenção de polissacarídeos para valorização da biomassa..... 30

Capítulo 1

Figure 1. Changes in concentrations of nitrogen nutrients during 1440 minutes of incubation with *U. pseudorotundata* under different nutrient initial concentrations. (a) NH_4^+ with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (b) NH_4^+ with 10 g FW L^{-1} ; (c) NO_3^- with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (d) NO_3^- with 10 g FW L^{-1} of stocking biomass. The data represents the means \pm SD for $n = 3$ 43

Figure 2. NH_4^+ and NO_3^- removal efficiency – NUE (%) by *U. pseudorotundata* over 1440 min of incubation under different nutrient initial concentrations. (a) NH_4^+ with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (b) NH_4^+ with 10 g FW L^{-1} ; (c) NO_3^- with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (d) NO_3^- with 10 g FW L^{-1} of stocking biomass. The data represents the means \pm SD for $n = 3$ 44

Figure 3. NH_4^+ and NO_3^- uptake rates - NUR ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) by *U. pseudorotundata* over 1440 min of incubation under different nutrient initial concentrations. (a) NH_4^+ with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (b) NH_4^+ with 10 g FW L^{-1} ; (c) NO_3^- with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (d) NO_3^- with 10 g FW L^{-1} of stocking biomass. The data represents the means \pm SD for $n = 3$ 46

Figure 4. *In situ* electron transport rate (ETR_{situ}) expressed as $\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ of *U. pseudorotundata* after 15 and 1440 min cultivated in NH_4^+ and NO_3^- under different concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. The figure represent only conditions where significant factor effects were detected by multifactorial ANOVA (*biomass density:nutrient source:nutrient's initial concentrations:incubation time*). Bars are means \pm SD; different letters indicate statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) of differences for $n = 5$ 47

Figure 5. Diurnal changes of maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m) of *U. pseudorotundata* during 1440 minutes cultivated on two densities of biomass (6 g L^{-1} and 10 g L^{-1}) under different initial concentrations of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- : 150, 300, and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. The figure represents only conditions where significant factor effects were detected by multifactorial ANOVA (*biomass density:nutrient source:nutrient's initial concentrations:incubation time*). Bars are means \pm SD; different letters indicate statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) of differences for $n = 3$ 48

Figure 6. Diurnal changes of maximum electron transport rate (ETR_{max}) measured *ex situ* of *Ulva pseudorotundata* during 1440 minutes in NH_4^+ and NO_3^- on two densities of

biomass 6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹ under different initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. The figure represent only conditions where significant factor effects were detected by multifactorial ANOVA (*biomass density:nutrient source:nutrient's initial concentrations:incubation time*). Bars are means ± SD; different letters indicate statistically significant (*p* < 0.05) of differences for n = 3. 49

Figure 7. Diurnal changes of photosynthetic efficiency (α_{ETR}) of *Ulva pseudorotundata* during 1440 minutes in NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ on two densities of biomass 6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹ under different initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. The figure represent only conditions where significant factor effects were detected by multifactorial ANOVA (*biomass density:nutrient source:nutrient's initial concentrations:incubation time*). Bars are means ± SD; different letters indicate statistically significant (*p* < 0.05) of differences for n = 3. 49

Figure 8. Elemental composition of the dry biomass of *Ulva pseudorotundata* cultivated in different nitrogen sources (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻), nutrient initial concentrations (150, 300 and 500 μmol L⁻¹) and biomass densities (FW 6 and 10 g L⁻¹). Data are presented as percentage of carbon, nitrogen and hydrogen (CHN) and C:N ratio obtained at initial (a) and final (b) time of the experiments. Values are mean ± SD (n = 3). 51

Figure 9. Biochemical composition of the dry biomass of *Ulva pseudorotundata* cultivated in different nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), nutrient initial concentrations (150, 300 and 500 μmol L⁻¹) and biomass densities (FW 6 and 10 g L⁻¹). Data are presented as percentage of carbohydrate and protein obtained at initial (a) and final (b) time of the experiments. Values are mean ± SD (n = 3). 52

Figure 10. Principal Component Analysis performed with data from nutrient removal experiments by *Ulva pseudorotundata* subjected to two types of nitrogen source (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻). Circles represent NH₄⁺ treatments and triangles represent NO₃⁻ treatments. Empty and filled symbols indicate treatments with 6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹ of initial biomass, respectively. Symbols in green, blue and black indicate 150, 300 and 500 μmol L⁻¹ of nitrogen nutrient, respectively. NUR is nutrient uptake rate, NUE is nutrient uptake efficiency, ETR_s is electron transport rate in situ, ETR_{max} is the maximal electron transport rate, F_v/F_m is the maximal photochemical efficiency of PSII. The numbers associated with these abbreviations are the measurement times in min. C:N is the carbon to nitrogen ratio, %CH is the percentage of carbohydrates and %PR is the percentage of protein, *ini* and *fin* representing initial and final time of the experiment, respectively. 54

Figure supplementary 1. Temperature (°C) and PAR: photosynthetically active radiation ($\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$) against experimental period in GMT (h) of *U. pseudorotundata* cultivation in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. (a): N-NH₄⁺/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/150 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (b): N-NH₄⁺/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (c): N-NH₄⁺/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (d): N- NO₃⁻/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/150 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (e): N-NO₃⁻/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (f): N-NO₃⁻/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ 66

Figure supplementary 2. pH measurements in the end of experiment of *U. pseudorotundata* under different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Values are mean \pm SD (n = 3). 67

Capítulo 2

Figure 1. Map of Spain indicating the sites sampled in the present study. 85

Figure 2. *Ulva* species identification utilized in this study. Molecular identification of algal material, considering a phylogenetic tree obtained by RbcL sequences (SHF1 and SHR4 markers). ■ *U. pseudorotundata*; ● *U. rigida*. 92

Figure 3. Variation in temperature (°C, dotted line) and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR, $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, solid line) data during the experimental cultivation period of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* in fish effluents. (A) daily temperature and daily solar irradiance for experiment 1 (50% fish effluent) and (B) daily temperature and daily solar irradiance for experiment 2 (100% fish effluent). PAR: $\lambda = 400\text{-}700\text{ nm}$. Gray areas correspond to dark periods. The integrated daily irradiance values (kJ m^{-2}) are displayed at the top of the graphs. 96

Figure 4. Changes in concentrations of NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and PO₄³⁻ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) during the experimental cultivation of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida*. A, B and C refer to experiment 1, conducted during 5 days with 50% fish effluent. D, E and F refer to experiment 2, conducted during 4 days with 100% fish effluent. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 3. 98

Figure 5. NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and PO₄³⁻ removal rate - NUR (bars) and uptake efficiency - NUE (symbols) by *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* in fish effluents. A, B and C refer to

experiment 1, conducted during 5 days with 50% fish effluent. D, E and F refer to experiment 2, conducted during 4 days with 100% fish effluent. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 3. 100

Figure 6. Diurnal changes of photosynthetic parameters: maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m), *in situ* electron transport rate (ETR_{sit}), and maximum electron transport rate (ETR_{max}) of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* in two conditions: 50% fish effluent (5 days): A, B, and C; 100% fish effluent (4 days): D, E, and F. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 3. 102

Figure 7. Linear regression model between NO_3^- uptake efficiency (NUE) and photosynthetic efficiency (α_{ETR}) for the species *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* grown in (A) 50% fish farm effluent and (B) 100% fish farm effluent. The solid line represents the fitted values of the overall model. 105

Figure 8. (A) Growth rate (% day⁻¹), (B) productivity (g DW m⁻² d⁻¹), and (C) nitrogen uptake (g N m⁻² day⁻¹) of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* grown in 50% and 100% fish farm effluents. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 3. Different small letters represent differences related to the factor “*species*”. Different capital letters represent differences caused by the factor “*effluent concentration*”. Different italic letters represent the differences caused by the interaction between the two factors. 106

Capítulo 3

Fig. 1. Infrared spectrum of the ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction isolated from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Six bands (A, B, C, D, E, F and G) of greatest interest were identified according to their absorption bindings. 133

Fig. 2. Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry of the ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* (A) and *U. pseudorotundata* (B). The standards of monosaccharide composition identified: Rha: (rhamnose); Gal: (galactose); Glc: (glucose); GlcA: (glucouronic acid); Rib: (ribose); Xyl: (xylose). 134

Fig. 3. Scavenging effects (%) of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* on ABTS radical. Letters above the symbols indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$, *t*-student test). Values are mean \pm SD, n = 3. 135

Fig. 4. Survival (%) of cell line HCT-116 exposed to different concentrations of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 4. 136

Fig. 5. Survival (%) of cell line G-361 exposed to different concentrations of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 4. 137

Fig. 6. Survival (%) of cell line U-937 exposed to different concentrations of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 4. 137

Fig. 7. Survival (%) of cell line HACAT exposed to different concentrations of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 4. 137

LISTA DE TABELAS

Capítulo 1

Table 1 Maximal removal efficiency of nutrients by seaweed selected to play a role as biofilter in different types of cultivation. 55

Table supplementary 1. Multifactorial ANOVA effects for pH measurements in the end of experiment of *U. pseudorotundata* under different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. *df*: degree of freedom; *F*: F-statistic. The significance differences (*p* < 0.05) are shown in bold..... 67

Table supplementary 2. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning changes pH measurements in the end of experiment of *U. pseudorotundata* under different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻) and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. Different letters indicate significant differences (*p* < 0.05)..... 68

Table supplementary 3. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning changes in concentrations of N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ at 0, 60, 180, 420, and 1440 minutes considering nutrient's initial concentrations (150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹) and biomass densities (FW 6 g L⁻¹ and FW 10 g L⁻¹) of *U. pseudorotundata*. Different letters indicate significant differences (*p* < 0.05). 69

Table supplementary 4. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning nutrient's uptake efficiency (%) of *U. pseudorotundata*. after 60, 180, 420, and 1440 minutes under different N-source (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻) and nutrient's initial concentrations (150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹). Different letters indicate significant differences (*p* < 0.05). 70

Table supplementary 5. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning nutrient's uptake rate (g⁻¹ DW h⁻¹) of *U. pseudorotundata*. after 60, 180, 420, and 1440 minutes under different N-source (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻) and nutrient's initial concentrations (150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹). Different letters indicate significant differences (*p* < 0.05). 71

Table supplementary 6. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning elemental composition of dried *U. pseudorotundata* biomass before cultivation in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. Content of the parameters: carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and hydrogen (H) are presented as their percentage of alga biomass. C:N ratio

was obtained from the measurements of %C and %N. Values are mean (\pm SD), n = 3. Letters represent statistical differences ($p < 0.05$, SNK)..... 72

Table supplementary 7. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning carbohydrate composition of dried *U. pseudorotundata* biomass before cultivation in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μ mol L⁻¹. Since ANOVA results did not indicated significant interaction between factors we represented the results for each factor: nitrogen sources, biomass densities, and nutrient initial concentrations. Values are mean (\pm SD), n = 3. Letters represent statistical differences ($p < 0.05$, SNK). 73

Table supplementary 8. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning carbohydrate composition of dried *U. pseudorotundata* biomass at the end of experiment cultivated in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μ mol L⁻¹. Values are mean (\pm SD), n = 3. Letters represent statistical differences ($p < 0.05$, SNK)..... 73

Table supplementary 9. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning protein composition of dried *U. pseudorotundata* biomass before cultivation in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μ mol L⁻¹. Values are mean (\pm SD), n = 3. Letters represent statistical differences ($p < 0.05$, SNK)..... 74

Table supplementary 10. Values of Pearson correlations among the following parameters: NUR and NUE (60, 180, 300, 420 and 1440 min of experiment), ETR_{situ} (15 and 1440 min of experiment), ETR_{max} and F_v/F_m (15, 180, 420 and 1440 min of experiment), C:N ratio, percentage of carbohydrates and percentage of protein (initial and final times of the experiment)..... 75

Capítulo 2

Table 1. Chemical composition of *Chelons labrosus* effluent used in experiment 1 (50% fish effluent) and experiment 2 (100% fish effluent) for *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* cultivation. Concentration (μ mol L⁻¹) values are mean \pm SD, n = 2..... 95

Table 2. Spearman correlation values between nitrate biofiltration parameters and photosynthetic parameters obtained from *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* cultivation under

two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Symbols indicate significance level: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. Values marked with bold indicate statistically significant p -values..... 104

Table 3. Elemental and biochemical composition of the dry biomass of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* grown in different concentrations of fish pond effluent (experiment 1: 50% and experiment 2: 100%). Values of carbon (C), nitrogen (N), hydrogen (H) and protein are presented as a percentage, while the C:N ratio was calculated from the level of C and N in the dry biomass. Pigments: chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b* and carotenoids are presented as concentrations in the biomass (mg g^{-1} DW). Values are mean \pm SD ($n = 3$). ... 107

Table supplementary 1. Abiotic parameters: pH, salinity and oxygen (mg L^{-1}) profiles measured in the algal tanks cultivation throughout experiments 1 (50% fish effluent) and 2 (100% fish effluent). Values are mean \pm SD, $n = 3$ 116

Table supplementary 2. ANOVA analysis of nutrient concentration data (NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , and PO_4^{3-}) from cultivation of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* under two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Data are shown comparing experimental day, the hour of experiment, and the two species. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold. 117

Table supplementary 3. ANOVA analysis of nutrient uptake rate (NUR) and uptake efficiency (NUE) of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* under two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Data are shown comparing experimental days and the two species. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold..... 119

Table supplementary 4. ANOVA analysis of photosynthetic parameters of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* during cultivation under two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Data are shown comparing species, the time of day (hour) and day of the experiment. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold..... 120

Table supplementary 5. ANOVA analysis of growth rate (GR), productivity, and nitrogen uptake (N uptake) of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* after being cultivated in two medium conditions: 50% fish effluent and 100% fish effluent. Data shown compare experiments and species. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold..... 121

Table supplementary 6. ANOVA analysis of the elemental and biochemical composition of the dry biomass of *Ulva pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* before and after cultivation in different sources of *Chelon labrosus* effluent: 50% and 100% effluent concentrations. Data are shown comparing experiment, species, and time. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold..... 122

Capítulo 3

Table. 1. Total carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and sulfur content (%) in ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction extracted from *Ulva rigida* and *Ulva pseudorotundata*..... 132

Table. 2. Values of IC_{50} ($mg\ mL^{-1}$) obtained from the cell viability assay of HCT-116, G-361, U-937, and HACAT. Cell lines were treated with different ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction concentrations obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. The selectivity index (SI) of polysaccharides against HCT-116, G-361, U-937 are presented. Values are mean (\pm SD), $n = 4$. T-student test results are presented. *df*: degree of freedom; t-value: T-statistic. The significant differences in treatments ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold. 138

LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

α_{ETR} : photosynthetic efficiency
A: Absorptance of the algal thallus
ABTS: 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid)
ATP: adenosine triphosphate
C:N: carbon and nitrogen ratio
Chl *a*: Clorofila *a*
Chl *b*: Clorofila *b*
CHN: carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen
DW: dry weight
 E_k : saturation irradiance
 E_o : incident irradiance of a lamp
 E_{PAR} : PAR irradiance ($\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) obtained by HOBO
 E_t : transmitted irradiance
ETR: electron transport rate
ETR_{max}: maximum electron transport rate
ETR_{situ}: Electron Transport Rates *in situ*
 F_t : basal fluorescence emitted by an organism pre-acclimated to light conditions
 F_0 : intrinsic fluorescence from the antenna of fully oxidized PSII
FAO: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
 F_{II} : fraction of cellular chlorophyll *a* associated with the light harvesting complex of PSII
 F_m : maximum fluorescence of PSII after a saturating light pulse
 F_m' : maximum fluorescence in light, induced by a saturating pulse
FT-IR: Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy
 F_v/F_m : optimal or maximal quantum yield of PSII
 F_v : variable fluorescence corresponding to the difference between F_m and F_0
FW: fresh weight
G-361: human malignant melanoma
Gal: galactose
GC-MS: Gas Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry
Glc: glucose
GlcA: glucouronic acid
GOGAT: glutamine:2-oxoglutarate amino-transferase
GR: Growth rates
GS: glutamine synthetase
HACAT: immortalized human keratinocytes
HCT-116: human colon cancer cell line
IBGE: Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística
IC₅₀: half maximal inhibitory concentrations
IMTA: Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture
KH₂PO₄: Potassium phosphate monobasic

KNO₃: Potassium nitrate
MCL: Maximum Composite Likelihood
MTT: 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5- diphenyl tetrazolium bromide
N: nitrogen
NH₃: non-ionized ammonia
NH₄⁺: ammonium
NH₄Cl: ammonium chloride salt
NO₃⁻: nitrate
NPQ: Non-photochemical quenching
NPQ_{max}: maximum non-photochemical quenching
NUE: nutrient uptake efficiency
NUR: nutrient uptake rate
P: phosphorus
PAM: Pulse Amplitude Modulation
PAR: Photosynthetic Active Radiation
PCA: principal component analysis
PCR: polymerase chain reaction
pH: Potencial hidrogeniônico
PO₄³⁻: phosphate
PSII: photosystem II
Rha: rhamnose
Rib: ribose
RLC: Rapid light curves
RM ANOVA: repeated measures analysis of variance
RuBisCO: Ribulose Bisphosphate Carboxylase-Oxygenase
SI: selectivity index
SNIS: Sistema Nacional de Informações sobre Saneamento
SNK: Student-Newman-Keuls
T: transmittance
TAN: total ammonium nitrogen
U-937: leukemia cell line
UPRF: ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction
Xyl: xylose
 $\Delta F/F_m'$: effective quantum yield

SUMÁRIO

INTRODUÇÃO GERAL	25
OBJETIVOS	30
1. Objetivo Geral	30
2. Objetivos Específicos.....	30
CAPÍTULO 1	32
1. Abstract	33
2. Introduction	34
3. Material and Methods	36
4. Results	42
5. Discussion	57
6. Acknowledgments	64
7. Supplementary Material	66
CAPÍTULO 2	79
1. Abstract	80
2. Introduction	81
3. Material and Methods	84
4. Results	92
5. Discussion	108
6. Conclusions	114
8. Acknowledgments	114
9. Supplementary Material	116
CAPÍTULO 3	123
1. Abstract	124
2. Introduction	125

3.	Material and methods.....	127
4.	Results.....	132
5.	Discussion	138
6.	Acknowledgments	141
	CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS E CONCLUSÃO.....	143
	REFERÊNCIAS.....	146
	APÊNDICE A	156
	ANEXO A	159

INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

A poluição dos recursos hídricos é um problema mundial e crescente, que põe em risco os ecossistemas continentais e costeiros, bem como, a segurança hídrica e alimentar das populações humanas (HÄDER; HELBLING; VILLAFA, 2021). Estima-se que 40% da população mundial vive em uma faixa de até 100 km da costa (FINKL, 2016) e sua sobrevivência dependa da utilização direta ou indireta dos ecossistemas locais. No entanto, a enorme carga de resíduos gerados por essas populações, em grande parte, não recebe tratamento, ou ele é apenas parcial, degradando os ecossistemas e comprometendo seus serviços ambientais e a qualidade da vida humana e marinha (LOTZE et al., 2006; VITOUSEK, 1997). No Brasil, 58% da população total do país vive na zona costeira (IBGE, 2018). De acordo com dados disponibilizados pelo SNIS (SISTEMA NACIONAL DE INFORMAÇÕES SOBRE SANEAMENTO, 2021) menos de 60% da população possui coleta de esgoto, sendo que somente 50,8% do esgoto gerado é tratado. Além da descarga de efluentes domésticos nas zonas costeiras, a indústria, o uso de fertilizantes agrícolas também são atividades em expansão responsáveis pelo escoamento de elevada carga de nutrientes e outros contaminantes nos corpos hídricos. Nesse cenário, atividades antropogênicas são causadoras da contínua emissão de nutrientes impactando a qualidade da água e comprometendo as bacias hidrográficas continentais e costeiras (HÄDER; HELBLING; VILLAFA, 2021).

A descarga de efluentes ricos em nutrientes nos ambientes aquáticos impacta a biodiversidade de diversas formas, sendo o fenômeno de eutrofização uma das mais preocupantes (HÄDER; HELBLING; VILLAFA, 2021). Águas costeiras eutrofizadas são cada vez mais reportadas em diversas regiões do mundo (DIAZ; ROSENBERG, 2008), evidenciando certa incapacidade da sociedade moderna em controlar os impactos negativos do desenvolvimento humano. A eutrofização é caracterizada pela entrada excessiva de nutrientes nos corpos d'água, especialmente nas formas de compostos nitrogenados e fosforados. O abundante aporte desses compostos altera a estrutura da biota aquática qualitativa e quantitativamente, e estudos apontam a eutrofização como responsável pelo colapso de ecossistemas (KHAN; MOHAMMAD, 2014; LE MOAL et al., 2019). O desequilíbrio ocorre uma vez que a entrada excessiva de nitrogênio e fósforo nos corpos d'água leva ao crescimento descontrolado de plantas aquáticas e algas oportunistas, causando alterações na comunidade fitoplanctônica, bem como afetando as relações predador-presa, a transferência de nutrientes e o consequente desbalanço nos

diferentes níveis tróficos (HAN; LIU, 2014; JONES; PINN, 2006; VALIELA et al., 1997).

Aquicultura como atividade impactante ao meio ambiente

Geradora de efluentes ricos em compostos nitrogenados e fosforados, a aquicultura é uma atividade que vem crescendo ao longo dos últimos anos. Entre os anos de 1980 a 2014, a produção de peixes para consumo humano advindos de sistemas de aquicultura cresceu de 9 a 48%, o que torna essa prática cada vez mais necessária diante da crescente demanda por pescado (FAO, 2016). No entanto, a descarga de efluentes ricos em matéria orgânica e nutrientes dissolvidos, tanto em cultivos abertos, quanto em cultivos confinados levanta a atenção aos riscos de poluição ambiental gerados por essa atividade (CHOPIN et al., 2001). De acordo com Wu (1995), dependendo de fatores como a espécie cultivada, ciclo de vida dos animais, densidade dos cultivos e tipo de ração, cerca de 52-95% do teor de nitrogênio e 85% de fósforo na ração pode ser desperdiçado no meio ambiente especialmente na forma de compostos nitrogenados (NH_4^+ e NO_3^-) e fosforados (PO_4^{3-}). Tendo em vista que a produção de animais aquáticos como alimento (principalmente como fonte de proteínas e ácidos graxos) tende a aumentar nas próximas décadas (FAO, 2020) faz-se necessária a adoção de estratégias de cultivo que visem a diminuição do lançamento de efluentes ricos em nutrientes a fim de tornar a aquicultura uma prática menos impactante.

No Brasil, a obtenção de licença ambiental para a implementação da prática de aquicultura deve seguir normativas estabelecidas pelo CONAMA (Conselho Nacional do Meio Ambiente), dentre as quais estão as Resoluções 001, 357 e 430. Tais normas dispõem sobre a regularização da prática de aquicultura no que diz respeito aos impactos ambientais que tal atividade pode acarretar, como por exemplo, a geração de efluentes que põe em risco o meio ambiente, o que não só dificultam a liberação de licenciamento ambiental, como também agregam custos em termos de recursos e área de produção, e.g. construção de bacias de sedimentação, uso de biofiltros e bombas centrífugas que demandam energia elétrica. Nesse sentido, o desenvolvimento e aplicação de estratégias que visam o polimento de efluentes advindos dos tanques de cultivo são ambientalmente e economicamente importantes para implementação da prática de aquicultura.

Entre tecnologias sustentáveis, o cultivo multitrófico integrado, conhecido internacionalmente como *Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture* (IMTA), é uma medida

promissora e ainda pouco aplicada no Brasil (REIS; BAUER; MARTINS, 2019). Sistemas IMTA minimizam o impacto da descarga excessiva de nutrientes advindos da aquicultura através do cultivo interligado de organismos de diferentes níveis tróficos dentro do mesmo sistema produtivo. A integração dos cultivos de organismos geradores de efluentes ricos em nutrientes (e.g. peixes, crustáceos) conectados ao cultivo de organismos biofiltradores (e.g. moluscos e algas) permite que o efluente rico em nutrientes seja ciclado pelos cultivos subsequentes (NEORI et al., 2004). Dessa forma, os nutrientes em excesso na água que são gerados por uma espécie são aproveitados pelos demais níveis tróficos (GRANADA et al., 2018). O cultivo de macroalgas como parte de sistemas IMTA é atrativo tanto por questões ambientais, por diminuir a emissão de efluentes ricos em nutrientes, quanto por questões econômicas, através da produção de biomassa algal associada a produção da espécie alvo do maricultor. No entanto, a escolha da alga para compor o sistema IMTA deve atender alguns critérios básicos como: elevada capacidade de crescimento e remoção de compostos nitrogenados; facilidade de cultivo e controle do ciclo de vida; resistência a epífitas e organismos causadores de doenças; ajuste entre características fisiológicas da espécie alvo com as condições fornecidas pelos sistemas de cultivo (NEORI et al., 2004). Nesse sentido, é importante o conhecimento das algas ocorrentes e tolerantes à regiões destinadas aos sistemas de aquicultura, bem como, o possível uso da sua biomassa para aplicações biotecnológicas. Dessa forma, a compreensão dos mecanismos fisiológicos associados à biofiltração, e do desempenho fotossintético de cultivos algais para compor sistemas IMTA é crucial para a otimização do crescimento, aumento da capacidade de biofiltração e também para melhorar as práticas de gestão dos sistemas de tratamento de efluentes de aquicultura.

A produção de algas em sistemas IMTA pode ir além do tratamento dos efluentes, permitindo o aproveitamento comercial da biomassa algal com a obtenção de biomoléculas de elevado valor como proteínas, lipídios, carboidratos, pigmentos fotossintetizantes, dentre outros (BARCELÓ-VILLALOBOS et al., 2017; FIGUEROA et al., 2008).

Biomassa algal e interesses comerciais

Macroalgas marinhas são um grupo diversificado composto por mais de 12.000 espécies incluindo algas vermelhas (Rhodophyta), marrons (Phaeophyceae) e verdes (Chlorophyta). A diversidade de compostos encontrados nas algas marinhas está

associada a mecanismos fisiológicos adaptativos, que lhes permitem sobreviver em condições de constante mudança, como flutuações na disponibilidade de nutrientes, variações na intensidade de luz, temperatura, dessecação e na síntese de defesas químicas contra herbívoros (HURD et al., 2014). Nesse sentido, a biomassa algal pode ser fonte de metabólitos primários (e.g. proteínas, peptídeos, carboidratos, lipídios) e secundários (e.g. pigmentos, compostos fenólicos, florotaninos e aminoácidos tipo micosporina) o que permite o uso da biomassa para diversas finalidades, não só na indústria alimentícia mas também na cosmética, farmacêutica, nutracêutica, bem como a aplicação na agricultura como fertilizantes e bioestimulantes (BUSCHMANN et al., 2017a).

Potencial de macroalgas do gênero *Ulva* para biofiltração de nutrientes e fonte de biomassa

Macroalgas do gênero *Ulva* são cosmopolitas apresentando cerca de 131 espécies taxonomicamente aceitas (GUIRY et al., 2014; MANTRI et al., 2020). Essas por sua vez, são caracterizadas por apresentarem crescimento rápido devido às altas taxas fotossintéticas e rápida absorção de nutrientes nitrogenados (BERMEJO et al., 2019; VIAROLI et al., 1996). As florações de *Ulva* são conhecidas como *green tides* e vem sendo relatadas com cada vez mais frequência nos últimos anos principalmente em áreas eutrofizadas onde são observados níveis elevados de nutrientes na água do mar (LIU et al., 2013; SMETACEK; ZINGONE, 2013; YE et al., 2011). O expressivo crescimento de *Ulva* spp. e sua capacidade em suportar amplas condições climáticas e ecológicas (e.g. amplitude de temperatura e salinidade), leva ao interesse no seu cultivo para remoção de nutrientes sendo alvo de diversos trabalhos que visam a biorremediação de efluentes ricos em nutrientes advindos da aquicultura (ASHKENAZI; ISRAEL; ABELSON, 2019; GUTTMAN et al., 2019; NEORI; COHEN; GORDIN, 1991; SHPIGEL et al., 2019). Além de aplicação como biofiltradoras de efluentes, a biomassa de *Ulva* também apresenta potencial valor para aplicação biotecnológica devido ao teor de proteínas, compostos fenólicos e polissacarídeos presentes na parede celular (BENJAMA; MASNIYOM, 2011; MICHALAK; CHOJNACKA; SAEID, 2017; SHPIGEL et al., 2017).

Estudos realizados nos últimos anos têm explorado a extração e aplicação de polissacarídeos sulfatados da parede celular de *Ulva* denominados ulvanos. Os ulvanos podem representar entre 9 a 36% da biomassa seca de *Ulva* e são majoritariamente

formados pelos monossacarídeos ramnose, ácido glucurônico, ácido idurônico, xilose, galactose, glicose e manose. Atividades biológicas de ulvanos vem sendo descritas com potencial anticoagulante, imunomodulador, anticancerígeno, antioxidante, antiviral, anti-hiperlipidêmico, dentre outros (KIDGELL et al., 2019a; QI et al., 2012; TZIVELEKA; IOANNOU; ROUSSIS, 2019a). A bioatividade dos ulvanos está ligada à sua similaridade com moléculas celulares de ocorrência natural em animais, como glicosaminoglicanos e proteoglicanos as quais, por sua vez, estão envolvidas em processos biológicos. No entanto, características estruturais de ulvanos, como peso molecular, grau de sulfatação e constituição dos açúcares, podem interferir na bioatividade desses polissacarídeos (KIDGELL et al., 2019a). Dessa forma, a composição de ulvanos obtidos de diferentes espécies de *Ulva*, bem como o ambiente de cultivo e condições ecofisiológicas prévias das algas, podem influenciar significativamente na sua bioatividade.

Contextualização do trabalho

Tendo em vista que algas do gênero *Ulva* apresentam características vantajosas para cultivo em sistemas IMTA, o presente trabalho foi estruturado abordando os seguintes tópicos: (1) avaliação da biofiltração dos cultivos de *Ulva* spp. para a remoção de nutrientes visando a depuração de efluentes advindos da aquicultura; (2) acompanhamento de aspectos fisiológicos dos cultivos algais; (3) direcionamento da biomassa para aplicações biotecnológicas, com o intuito de valorização da biomassa algal gerada nos sistemas de cultivo. Os capítulos desta tese correspondem aos diferentes experimentos realizados. O primeiro capítulo descreve experimentos utilizando cultivos de algas da espécie *U. pseudorotundata* avaliando a biofiltração e performance fisiológica de cultivos submetidos a duas diferentes fontes de nitrogênio (NH_4^+ e NO_3) simulando a descarga de efluentes advindos de cultivos de peixes. O segundo capítulo apresenta e compara a utilização de cultivos de algas das espécies *U. pseudorotundata* e *U. rigida* para biofiltração de efluentes advindos de tanques de peixes da espécie *Chelon labrosus*. Este capítulo também buscou comparar o crescimento, produção e constituição da biomassa algal gerada ao longo do período experimental. Os experimentos retratados no capítulo 1 e 2 foram realizados em escala semi-piloto de cultivo, sob condições não controladas de temperatura e luz. O uso de técnicas de medidas de fluorescência *in vivo* da clorofila-a através de fluorímetros de amplitude modulada permitiu a obtenção de parâmetros e estimativas de desempenho fotossintéticos das algas. O terceiro e último

capítulo apresenta e discute a potencial utilização de polissacarídeos extraídos da biomassa de *U. pseudorotundata* e *U. rigida* para indústria farmacológica através da caracterização dos polissacarídeos extraídos e de ensaios biológicos de atividade antioxidante e de citotoxicidade em 3 linhagens celulares cancerígenas (câncer de cólon, melanoma e leucemia) e 1 linhagem de células não cancerígenas (queratinócitos). A figura 1 apresenta o resumo gráfico do presente trabalho.

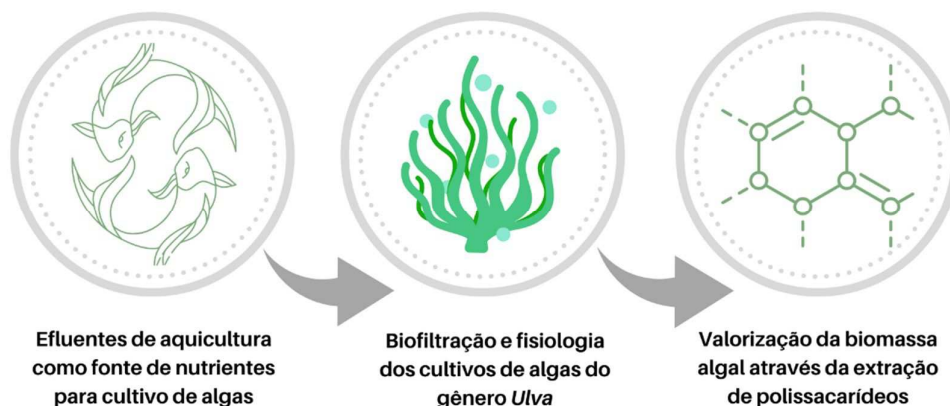


Figure. 1 Resumo gráfico da abordagem desenvolvida na presente tese ilustrando o uso do cultivo de algas do gênero *Ulva* como biofiltro para purificação de efluentes advindos da aquicultura. A biomassa obtida foi direcionada para a obtenção de polissacarídeos para valorização da biomassa.

OBJETIVOS

1. OBJETIVO GERAL

Avaliar aspectos de remoção de compostos inorgânicos nitrogenados através do cultivo de algas do gênero *Ulva* com a perspectiva de biorremediação de efluentes advindos da aquicultura e utilização da biomassa algal para obtenção de polissacarídeos para aplicação biotecnológica na indústria farmacêutica.

2. OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS

Capítulo 1: **Short-term nutrient removal efficiency and photosynthetic performance of *Ulva pseudorotundata* (Chlorophyta): potential use for Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture (IMTA)**

O presente capítulo teve como objetivo principal avaliar a aplicação do cultivo de algas da espécie *Ulva pseudorotundata* para compor sistemas multitróficos integrados.

Buscou-se avaliar o desempenho de biofiltração, performance fotossintética e composição de biomassa dos cultivos. Também foi alvo do estudo comparar a remoção dos nutrientes de duas concentrações iniciais de biomassa algal e a eficiência desses cultivos em remover distintas fontes de concentrações iniciais de nitrogênio inorgânico: NH_4^+ e NO_3^- .

Capítulo 2: Growth, biofiltration and photosynthetic performance of *Ulva* spp. cultivated in fishpond effluents: An outdoor system study.

O presente capítulo teve como objetivo comparar o cultivo de *Ulva pseudorotundata* e *Ulva rigida* em efluentes de peixes *Chelon labrosus* para remoção de nutrientes inorgânicos dissolvidos (NH_4^+ , NO_3^- e PO_4^{3-}), performance fotossintética, crescimento, produtividade e composição elementar e bioquímica da biomassa.

Capítulo 3: Characterization, antioxidant and cytotoxicity activity of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *Ulva pseudorotundata* and *Ulva rigida* and their potential for pharmaceutical application.

O presente capítulo teve como objetivo realizar a caracterização e identificação dos constituintes elementares e estruturais de polissacarídeos extraídos de *U. pseudorotundata* e *U. rigida*. Neste capítulo também buscou-se avaliar o potencial uso dos polissacarídeos obtidos da biomassa algal para indústria farmacêutica através de obtenção da capacidade antioxidante e citotoxicidade dos polissacarídeos em testes *in vitro*.

CAPÍTULO 1

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Short-term nutrient removal efficiency and photosynthetic performance of *Ulva pseudorotundata* (Chlorophyta): potential use for Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture (IMTA)

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1. ABSTRACT

Short-term N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ removal by *Ulva pseudorotundata* under different initial nutrient concentrations and biomass stocking densities, monitoring in parallel photosynthetic parameters obtained by Pulse-Amplitude-Modulation (PAM) Fluorometry of chlorophyll-*a* and evaluating biomass characteristics (CHN, proteins, carbohydrates) was investigated. The results showed that *U. pseudorotundata* cultivated under solar radiation in a land-based out-door pilot scale was efficient in removing N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ even in concentrations as high as 500 μmol L⁻¹ ensuring complete water remediation in a period of 24 h and in all experimental conditions tested, although differences were observed depending on the stocking density and type of N-source. Treatments with N-NH₄⁺ showed faster N removal than those with N-NO₃⁻, however, treatments with N-NO₃⁻ demanded more photosynthetic energy. Part of the ammonium removed in the respective treatments may have been volatilized as a combined effect of the pH increase related to photosynthesis and aeration in the tanks. The results presented here establish the fundamental parameters for the use of *U. pseudorotundata* as a biofiltering organism for effluents with high concentrations of N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻.

Keywords

Algal biomass, aquaculture, biofiltration, chlorophyll-*a* fluorometry, nitrogen, photosynthesis

2. INTRODUCTION

Nutrient discharge plays an important role in natural ecosystems, particularly when considering anthropogenic impacts on water resources (LE MOAL et al., 2019). Considering different nutrient elements, nitrogen and phosphorus are present in high concentrations in aquaculture effluents and the discharge in the natural environment can produce negative impacts (HERATH; SATOH, 2015). In the context of aquaculture, depending on factors such as species type, size of culture organism, stocking density and feeding rate, about 52-95% of N and 85% of P content in the feed can be wasted into the environment (WU, 1995). The disposal of these nutrients not only represents an economic and sanitary problem that raises production costs and requires regular water changes in land-based systems, but also an environmental problem leading to eutrophication of adjacent areas (NAYLOR et al., 2021). As the production of aquatic animals as food (mainly as protein and fatty acid source) tends to increase in the next few decades (FAO, 2020), these problems will be exacerbated unless new strategies are adopted to make animal aquaculture more sustainable. The application of seaweeds as biofilters to remove nutrient loads can become an environmental friendly practice, especially when associated with aquaculture fish production (BUSCHMANN; TROELL; KAUTSKY, 2001; CHOPIN et al., 2001; NEORI et al., 2004; TROELL et al., 2003). Moreover, seaweed biomass is a source of valuable compounds that can be used in a huge range of biotechnology processes and increase the overall profitability of aquaculture activities (Barceló-villalobos et al. 2017; FAO 2018; Vega et al. 2020; Kalasariya et al. 2021). Considering this, the fundamental understanding of the physiological mechanisms behind biofiltration and photosynthetic performance of seaweeds is essential for growth optimization, enhancement of biofiltration capacity and also to improve management practices of aquaculture effluents treatment systems.

Nitrogen in inorganic forms is present in aquaculture effluents especially as ionic forms of ammonium (NH_4^+) and nitrate (NO_3^-), which are taken into the cell and stored by seaweeds through different mechanisms (ROLEDA; HURD, 2019). NO_3^- is described to be taken up by active transport, which occurs against a concentration gradient provided by mechanisms on membrane transport systems, e.g. carrier proteins, and is energy dependent (HARRISON; HURD, 2001). In contrast, NH_4^+ uptake is reported to be through passive transport and demands less energy since it enters cells by passive

diffusion down a concentration gradient (HURD et al., 2014). Assimilation and storage of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ also differ from each other. Studies indicate that once inside the cell, NH_4^+ is not stored in large concentrations and is immediately metabolized to amino acids through glutamine and glutamate synthase in the chloroplasts (TAYLOR; REES, 1999). NO_3^- can be stored in its inorganic form in cellular vacuoles and the cytoplasm, or get converted into NH_4^+ involving activity of two enzymes: nitrate and nitrite reductases (ROLEDA; HURD, 2019). Regulation of this enzymatic pathway is associated with electron transport rates of photosynthesis via the formation of reductant power compounds (NADPH and ferredoxin) (HUPPE; TURPIN, 1994). Consequently, it is suggested that NO_3^- uptake and assimilation is an energy-dependent process which requires energy from the photochemical reactions of photosynthesis (PRITCHARD et al., 2015).

Measurements that assess photosynthetic performance of land-based cultivated seaweeds allow fundamental understanding of their physiological status and capacity to respond to stress events, becoming an essential tool to understand the growth conditions in any production system (FIGUEROA et al., 2006). Photosynthetic activity in aquatic organisms can be estimated by quantifying the accumulation of organic carbon or the production of O_2 . Nonetheless, those methods require laborious techniques e.g. specific optodes, Clark type electrodes, chemical titration, radiolabeled ^{14}C inorganic carbon, or Membrane Inlet Mass Spectrometry. An alternative and complementary methodology is the estimation of quantum yields from chlorophyll fluorescence using Pulse Amplitude Modulation (PAM) (MAXWELL; JOHNSON, 2000). The PAM, designed to measure the *in vivo* chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence of photosystem II (PSII), has become a widely-used technique to study algal physiology since it is rapid, non-intrusive and easily usable *in situ* (JEREZ et al., 2016; MASOJÍDEK et al., 2011). The PAM *in vivo* chlorophyll-*a* fluorometers enable quantifying the performance of photosystem II (photochemical) and the relative loss of light dissipated energy (non-photochemical processes). Several photosynthetic parameters can be estimated using PAM: effective quantum yield ($\Delta F/F_m'$), as an indicator of the acclimation of PSII, due to the redox state of the reaction centers; the optimal or maximal quantum yield of PSII (F_v/F_m), which indicates the maximal photochemical efficiency of PSII, and also the physiological state of the culture and photoinhibition; electron transport rate (ETR) through PSII, used as an estimator of

photosynthetic capacity and productivity (Maxwell and Johnson 2000). The use of PAM to estimate photosynthetic activity has been described for different microalgae and seaweed culture systems (Gómez-Pinchetti et al. 1998; Celis-Plá et al. 2021; Rearte et al. 2021). Moreover, aspects obtained by fluorescence parameters could infer culture performance associated with bio-optical properties of the organisms. Stress can be detected by the variations of PAM-associated variables as decrease of F_v/F_m and maximal ETR, allowing estimation of photoinhibition (MATA et al., 2006). Moreover, fluorescence parameters are usable to estimate energy losses, such as those linked to non-photochemical mechanisms (Figuerola et al., 2020).

Among the seaweed species used as biofilters *Ulva* genus stands out since, in addition to being highly efficient in removing nutrients from the water (Copertino et al. 2009; Al-Hafedh et al. 2014; Macchiavello and Bulboa 2014), it also has a fast growth rate, wide geographical distribution (MANTRI et al., 2020) and potential for biomass application (BENJAMA; MASNIYOM, 2011; KIDGELL et al., 2019b; SHPIGEL et al., 2017, 2018). Several authors have reported aspects of chlorophyll-*a* measurements in order to elucidate *Ulva* spp. metabolism and nutrient uptake (FAN et al., 2014; GORDILLO; FIGUEROA; NIELL, 2003; SHAHAR et al., 2020). In this connection it is important to verify the possible influence of different N-sources present in fish effluents (N-NH₄⁺ produced by animal metabolism and N-NO₃⁻ generated after bacterial nitrification) on algal physiology, as determined by different photosynthetic parameters, and on biomass characteristics, obtained by elemental and biochemical analyses. In the present article we evaluated the performance of *U. pseudorotundata* in removing N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ as its sole nitrogen source in levels above reported from fish tanks in a cycle of 24 hours under outdoor conditions. Simultaneous measurements of nutrient biofiltration capacity and photosynthetic performance were carried out, as well as their effects on biomass composition, in a land based out-door pilot-scale cultivation, considering different initial biomass and nutrient concentrations.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Algal biomass collection and experimental design

Floating specimens of *Ulva pseudorotundata* Cormaci, G.Furnari & Along were collected from the salt marshes in the bay of Cádiz (36°29'-36°30'N, 6°8'-6°10'W)

Andalucía Province, Spain in June and October, 2020. The biomass was transported in thermal boxes, protected from light, to the Grice Hutchinson research center at the Universidad de Málaga where algae cultivation and experiments were conducted. The seaweed was cleaned to remove epiphytes, epibionts and sediments. *Ulva* biomass was then cultivated in 500 L rectangular-shaped tanks containing artificial seawater and supplemented twice a week with NH_4Cl and KNO_3 ($300 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and KH_2PO_4 ($48 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). The salinity and pH of the seawater used for the maintenance were 35 and 8.0 ± 0.2 , respectively. Seaweed biomass was grown suspended in the water column by air diffusers situated at the bottom of each tank under ambient conditions of temperature and light. After collection, some small pieces of algal material were separated for species-level identification using molecular methods. Molecular identification was performed by the amplification and sequencing of the partial *rbcL* gene, using published primer pairs: SHF1 and SHR4 (HEESCH et al., 2009). Species-level identification and phylogenetic analysis are detailed explained by Massocato et al. (2022).

The experiments of biofiltration capacity and photosynthetic performance of *U. pseudorotundata* were conducted in batches of 24 hours. The experimental set-up consisted in verified different nitrogen sources of nutrients, seaweed biomass stocking densities, and nutrient's initial concentrations. Treatments with the same nitrogen source and nutrient concentrations were run simultaneously resulting in six rounds of experiments. All experiments started at 9:00 am (local time) and the tanks were exposed to full sunlight. Temperature and irradiance (Photosynthetic Active Radiation, PAR) in the tanks were recorded every 15 minutes using HOBO Pendant[®] Temperature/Light Data Logger (UA-002-64). Integrated daily irradiance (kJ m^{-2}) was calculated from PAR data to obtain total light energy received by cultures during experimental time. At the beginning and end of the experiments pH measurements were taken in each tank to estimate the overall variation. The abiotic parameters of pH, salinity (35.8 ± 2.0) and conductivity ($54.6 \pm 2.8 \text{ mS}$) were measured using a portable device (LAQUAact PH110, LAQUAact-EC120). At the beginning of all experiments, *U. pseudorotundata* biomass, previously submitted to a starvation period of 5 days (without added N and P), was weighed at initial stocking densities of 6.0 and 10.0 g fresh weight (FW) L^{-1} and placed into three replicate tanks ($n = 3$) with 200 L seawater medium under above mentioned culture conditions. The seaweed stocking densities used in this study were chosen based

on the high uptake efficiency in removing N-NH₄⁺, N-NO₃⁻, and P-PO₄³⁻ by *Ulva lactuca* in similar stocking densities when cultivated in outdoor conditions and receiving discharge water from an abalone culture center (MACCHIAVELLO; BULBOA, 2014).

To evaluate the effects of different nutrient concentrations on nutrient removal and photosynthetic performance, three concentrations of each N-source (NH₄⁺ or NO₃⁻) were used separately: 150, 300 and 500 μmol L⁻¹. Those concentrations were chosen based on data reported in fish tanks by Figueroa et al. (2012) and Abreu et al. (2011) with N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻, with maximum values ranged from 200 μmol L⁻¹ and 450 μmol L⁻¹. Nutrient's concentrations were obtained by adding NH₄Cl as a source of ammonium and KNO₃ as a source of nitrate. To avoid P shortage of nitrogen uptake in the higher N concentrations (500 μmol L⁻¹) an approximate ratio of 17:1 (PROVASOLI; MCLAUGHLIN; DROOP, 1957) was obtained by adding 29 μmol L⁻¹ PO₄³⁻ (KH₂PO₄) in all treatments. To evaluate the removal of N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ over time, a 10 mL water sample was taken from each tank after 60, 180, 300, 420 and 1440 minutes from the beginning of the experiment. Water samples were filtered (GF/F Whatman) and stored at -20 °C in polyethylene flasks for later analysis. In the meantime, algal samples were taken out of the same tanks for chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence measurements in order to determine the photosynthetic performance of algal cultivation.

Nutrient analysis

To determine changes in concentration of N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻, water samples were analyzed colorimetrically using a continuous flow automated analyzer (Technicon AA-2) according to the methods described by Grasshoff et al., (1999). The reduction in nutrient concentration between the time intervals is expressed as a percentage and defined as nutrient uptake efficiency (NUE) and was calculated by equation 1 assessing the changes in N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ concentrations:

$$\text{NUE (\%)} = 100 - \left[\left(\frac{C_{t+1} \times 100}{C_t} \right) \right] \quad (1)$$

where C_t represents the initial concentration of nutrients, C_{t+1} represents the concentration of nutrients after $t+1$. The amount of nutrients removed per unit of time per volume by seaweed dry weight represent the nutrient uptake rate (NUR) and is determined from changes in N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ according to equation 2:

$$\text{NUR } (\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}) = \frac{(C_t \times V_t) - (C_{t+1} \times V_{t+1})}{B \times \Delta t} \quad (2)$$

where C_t represents the initial concentration of nutrients, V_t represents the initial volume of water (in L), C_{t+1} represents the concentration of nutrients after t+1, V_{t+1} represents the volume of water after t+1 (in L); B represents the dry biomass used (in grams), and Δt represents the time interval between t and t+1 (in hours).

Photosynthetic performance

To evaluate the photosynthetic performance of *U. pseudorotundata*, *in vivo* chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence was measured using two different fluorometers, a Pocket-PAM (Gademann Instruments, Würzburg, Germany) and a Junior PAM (Walz GmbH, Effeltrich Germany) connected to a PC running WinControl software.

In-situ estimation of Electron Transport Rate

Electron Transport Rates *in situ* (ETR_{situ}) were measured by Pocket-PAM, at the beginning and end of the experiment, corresponding to the time 15 and 1440 min. Measurements were done using five samples (pseudoreplication) from each tank. Effective quantum yield of Photosystem II (PSII) was calculated using equation 3:

$$\frac{\Delta F}{F_m'} = \frac{(F_m' - F_t)}{F_m'} \quad (3)$$

and was automatically obtained with the Pocket PAM, where F_m' is the maximum fluorescence in light induced by a saturating pulse, and F_t is the basal fluorescence emitted by an organism pre-acclimated to light conditions. Absorbance of the algal thallus was calculated as $A = 1 - T$, as reported by Figueroa et al. (2009), where T is the transmittance estimated by the equation 4:

$$T = \frac{E_t}{E_o} \quad (4)$$

where E_o is the incident irradiance of a lamp determined by a sensor Li-189 (LI-COR Ltd, Nebraska, USA) connected to a radiometer Li-250 (LI-COR Ltd, Nebraska, USA), and E_t is the transmitted irradiance, measured by placing a small piece of the thallus above the PAR sensor. ETR_{situ} was calculated using equation 5 (GENTY; BRIANTAIS; BAKER, 1989):

$$ETR_{situ} (\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}) = \frac{\Delta F}{F_m'} \times E_{PAR} \times A \times F_{II} \quad (5)$$

where ETR_{situ} is the electron transport rate associated with Photosystem II ($\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$); $\Delta F/F_m'$ is the effective quantum yield of Photosystem II; E_{PAR} was the PAR irradiance ($\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) obtained by HOBO at the same time of the measurements; A was the Absorptance of the algal thallus; and F_{II} represents the fraction of cellular chlorophyll-*a* associated with the light harvesting complex of PSII being 0.5 the value green algae (GRZYMSKI; JOHNSEN; SAKSHAUG, 1997).

Ex-situ (laboratory) measurements of Rapid light-responses curves

Rapid light curves (RLC) were determined using the Junior-PAM and data were obtained at four moments corresponding to 15, 180, 420 and 1440 minutes of experiment. Samples of *U. pseudorotundata* were transported under dark conditions from the outdoor tanks to the laboratory and kept at least 15 min in darkness. The optimal quantum yield (F_v/F_m), an indicator of maximal quantum efficiency, was obtained from the first saturating pulse after a dark period and determined by the equation 6:

$$\frac{F_v}{F_m} = \frac{(F_m - F_0)}{F_0} \quad (6)$$

where F_0 is the basal fluorescence of fully oxidized reaction centers; F_m is the maximal fluorescence of PSII after a saturating light pulse (0.4 s, approx. 9000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), and F_v is the variable fluorescence corresponding to the difference between F_m and F_0 .

Next, to estimate the electron transport rate (ETR), the same samples were exposed for 30s to twelve increasing irradiances (25, 45, 66, 90, 125, 190, 285, 420, 625, 845, 1150, and 1500 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) of actinic light followed by a saturating light pulse. ETR was calculated using equation 7 after the exposure of each light irradiance.

$$ETR (II) = (\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}) = \frac{\Delta F}{F_m'} \times E_{PAR} \times A \times F_{II} \quad (7)$$

ETR versus irradiance obtained from light curves were fitted according to Eilers and Peeters (1988) models to estimate the variables of maximum electron transport rates (ETR_{max}) and photosynthetic efficiency (α_{ETR}).

Elemental and biochemical analysis of the biomass

At the beginning and end of each experimental batches, biomass was collected from all treatments, washed with MilliQ-water to remove salt, freeze-dried, and 2 mg were submitted for carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen content analyses using a LECO CHNS-932 elemental analyser (Michigan, USA) in the Research Support Central Services (SCAI, University of Málaga, Spain). C, H and N values were expressed as percentage of dry mass and the C:N ratio was determined. Protein content was estimated according to Shuuluka et al. (2013) by multiplying the total N by a factor of 5.45. Carbohydrate content was colorimetrically measured according to Dubois et al. (1956).

Data analysis

The data from each treatment were tested for normality (Shapiro–Wilk’s test) and homogeneity of variance (Cochran’s test). Since assumptions were obtained, data from nutrient analysis (changes in concentrations, NUE and NUR) were analyzed with repeated measures analysis of variance (RM ANOVA). For data obtained from photosynthesis coefficients a factorial ANOVA was performed to evaluate interactions between N-source (two levels: $N-NH_4^+$ and $N-NO_3^-$), nutrient concentrations (three levels: 150, 300, and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), biomass densities as factors (two levels: 6 and 10 g L^{-1}), and incubation time. Data from elemental and biochemical analyses were submitted to a factorial ANOVA to assess what were the factors influencing data variability of initial and final biomass composition. In both ANOVAs, the factors utilized were N-source, nutrient concentrations, and initial biomass concentration. When significant differences were observed ($p < 0.05$), the Student-Newman-Keuls (SNK) multiple post hoc comparison test was applied. Statistical analyses were performed using STATISTICA 12 software (StatSoft, Inc. 2011).

In an attempt to visualize in a more integrated way the relationships between the multiple variables and parameters determined in each experiment, a principal component analysis (PCA) was performed based on a correlation matrix of the data, using PAST

software, version 3.2 (HAMMER; HARPER; RYAN, 2001). The variables that composed the matrix were: NUR and NUE at 60, 180, 300, 420 and 1440 min of experiment, ETR_{situ} at 15 and 1440 min of experiment, ETR_{max} and F_v/F_m at 15, 180, 420 and 1440 min of experiment, C:N ratio, percentage of carbohydrates and percentage of protein in the initial and final times of the experiment. Some variables were removed from the final analysis because they had low loadings on the first two principal component axes (average daily temperature, average daily pH, integrated daily irradiance) or because they were collinear with other variables (CNH contents). All data were transformed by logarithmization to reduce the amplitude of values of the different variables. Since the PCA analysis does not present significance data (p), a Pearson correlation analysis was also performed among the same data used in the PCA. Correlations were considered significant if $p < 0.05$.

4. RESULTS

Abiotic parameters

The average irradiance value recorded during the day considering all the experiments was $145.52 \pm 20.65 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and the total light energy received by the cultures varied between 938.89 and 1,552.19 kJ m^{-2} . The water temperature in the algae tanks varied between 10.72 °C and 23.85 °C, with a global average value of $16.43 \pm 2.92^\circ\text{C}$. Irradiance and temperature evolution during the experiments can be seen in Supplementary Material (Fig. S1). The final pH was significantly influenced by the interaction of nitrogen source and initial nitrogen concentration (ANOVA: $F(2) = 113.5$, $p < 0.001$, tables S1, S2). The values varied from 8.15 to 8.58 for treatments with N-NH_4^+ and from 8.40 to 9.82 for treatments with N-NO_3^- (Fig. S2).

Nutrient removal

Considering the total experimental time of 1440 min (24 h), the reduction of nitrogen nutrients was complete for both N-NH_4^+ and N-NO_3^- treatments (Fig. 1). However, some differences were visible and statistically significant considering nutrient's initial concentration, biomass density, and incubation time of experiment (table S3). The reductions were more abrupt in the treatments with N-NH_4^+ (Fig. 1a, b),

especially in the first 60 min and at the lowest initial concentration (150 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). Regarding the biomass density, the reductions were greater in the treatments with 10 g L^{-1} (RM ANOVA, SNK; $p < 0.001$). In treatments with N-NO_3^- (Fig. 1c, d) the smoothest pattern of reduction was similar between treatments with different initial biomass densities, following almost linear trends. These results were influenced by the interaction between the factors initial concentrations, exposure time and biomass densities (RM ANOVA: $\text{N-NH}_4^+ = F(10) = 52.9, p < 0.001$; $\text{N-NO}_3^- = F(10) = 4.3, p < 0.001$).

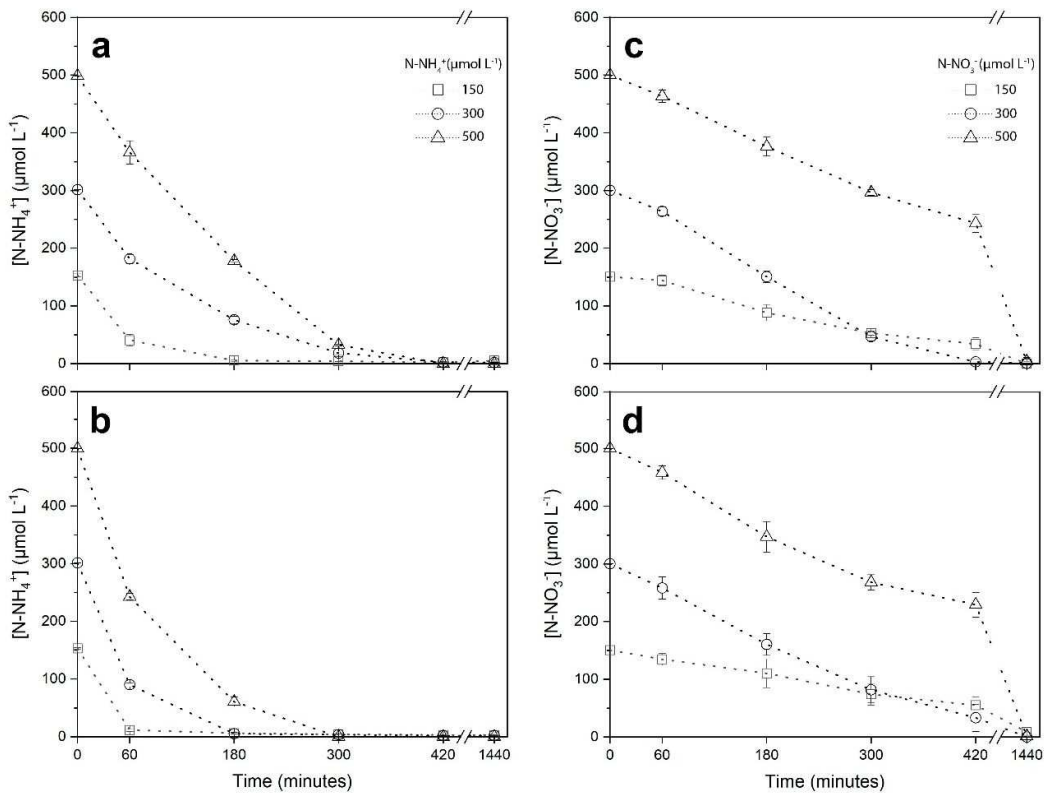


Figure 1. Changes in concentrations of nitrogen nutrients during 1440 minutes of incubation with *U. pseudorotundata* under different nutrient initial concentrations. (a) NH_4^+ with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (b) NH_4^+ with 10 g FW L^{-1} ; (c) NO_3^- with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (d) NO_3^- with 10 g FW L^{-1} of stocking biomass. The data represents the means \pm SD for $n = 3$.

By analyzing the nutrient removal efficiency (NUE) data, the nutrient removal patterns become clearer (Fig. 2, table S4). For treatments with 6 g L^{-1} of N-NH_4^+ , the removal reaches 90% already at 180 min in the case of the initial concentration of 150 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, and at 300 min for concentrations of 300 and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2a). In treatments with 10 g L^{-1} of N-NH_4^+ the removal reaches 90% in 180 min for the initial

concentrations of 150 and 300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (RM ANOVA, SNK; $p > 0.100$), taking a little longer (300 min) for the concentration of 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2b). In contrast, for N-NO_3^- treatments, both biomass presented similar removal efficiencies and no significant difference was observed in 60 min (RM ANOVA, SNK; $p > 0.600$) (Fig. 2c, d). For 6 g L^{-1} , removal efficiencies above 90% were only observed at 1440 min with 150 and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and at 420 min with 300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (RM ANOVA, SNK; $p > 0.900$) (Fig. 2c). In a similar manner, when biomass density was 10 g L^{-1} this removal efficiency was only reached after 1440 min (RM ANOVA, SNK; $p > 0.700$) (Fig. 2d).

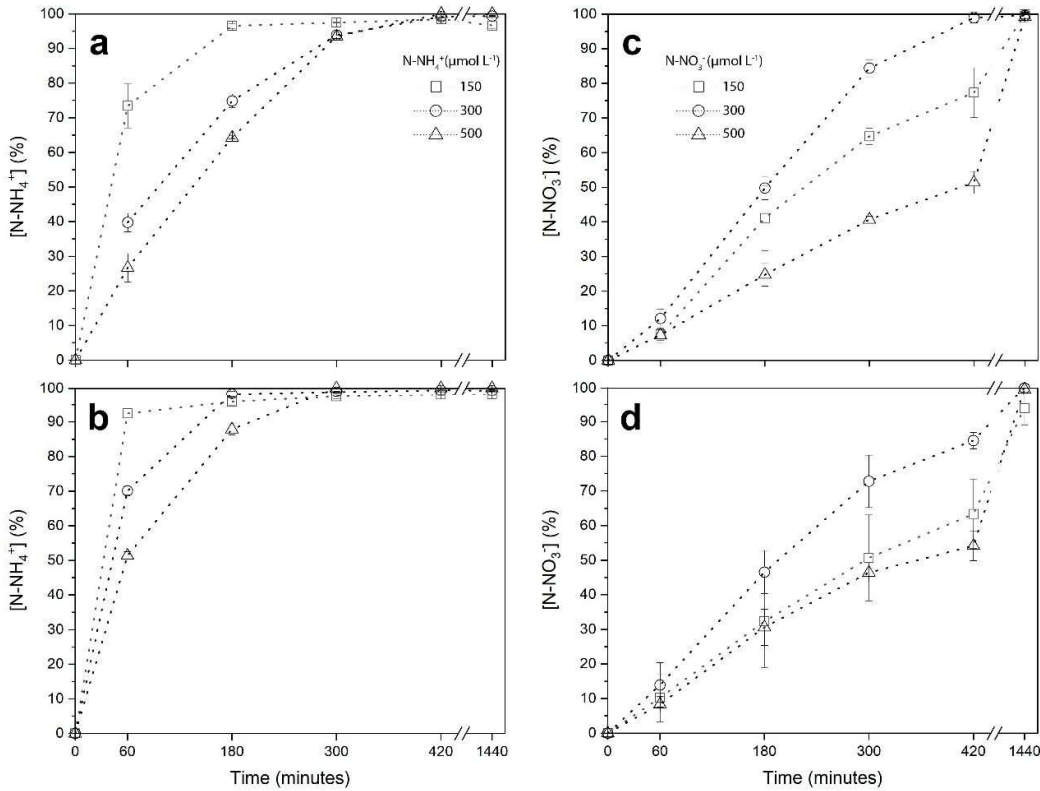


Figure 2. NH_4^+ and NO_3^- removal efficiency – NUE (%) by *U. pseudorotundata* over 1440 min of incubation under different nutrient initial concentrations. (a) NH_4^+ with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (b) NH_4^+ with 10 g FW L^{-1} ; (c) NO_3^- with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (d) NO_3^- with 10 g FW L^{-1} of stocking biomass. The data represents the means \pm SD for n = 3.

The nutrient uptake rates (NUR) also exhibited different patterns for the different N-sources (Fig. 3, table S5). For N-NH_4^+ values decreased continuously over time for both biomass densities used (Fig. 3a, b). In treatments with 6 g L^{-1} of biomass similar results were showed throughout the experiment for initial concentrations of 150 and 300

$\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, and a decay was observed from a maximum of $149.8 \pm 10.0 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ to a minimum of $7.7 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ between 60 and 1440 min of experiment (Fig. 3a). For initial concentrations of $500 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ a maximum uptake rate of $180.4 \pm 7.3 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW min}^{-1}$ was observed after 60 min and a minimum value of $26.0 \pm 0.0 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ was observed at the end of the experiment (Fig. 3a). A similar pattern was observed for treatments with 10 g L^{-1} of biomass (Fig. 3b). The maximum uptake rates occurred after the first 60 min of the experiment for concentrations of $500 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ($193.0 \pm 4.2 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$), followed by concentrations of $300 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and $150 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ($106.4 \pm 2.5 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW min}^{-1}$) (Fig. 3b). At the end of the experiment, the uptake rate decreased to minimum levels of 4.7, 9.4 and $15.6 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$, respectively for the three initial concentrations used.

In contrast, the uptake rate of cultures treated with N-NO_3^- showed a different trend. The values in the initial 60 min were low when compared to the treatments with N-NH_4^+ ($14.3 \pm 3.7 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ in cultures with $150 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and $45.6 \pm 0.19 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ in cultures with 300 and $500 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), increasing a little between 180 and 300 min, decreasing again thereafter (Fig. 3c, d). The values did not show statistical differences among the factors: nutrient's initial concentrations, biomass densities, and time (RM ANOVA: $\text{N-NO}_3^- = F(8) = 1.41, p = 0.21$). For cultures with biomass density of 6 g L^{-1} , N-NO_3^- uptake rate rose initially from 60 min to 180 min, with small variation in values up to 300 min, decreasing progressively until the end (1440 min) (Fig. 3c). Maximum value of $63.3 \pm 1.8 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ was reached at 180 min by the treatment with $300 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3c). For cultures with 10 g L^{-1} of biomass, the N-NO_3^- uptake rate occurred at an almost constant rate (between 12.3 ± 5.1 and $10.3 \pm 1.7 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) in incubations with $150 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, decreasing at the end to $4.4 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3d). In incubations with 300 and $500 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of N-NO_3^- the maximum uptake rates occurred after 180 min reaching values of 35.0 ± 4.8 and $38.4 \pm 6.6 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$. At the end of the experiment, the same treatments decreased to 9.4 and $15.6 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$, respectively.

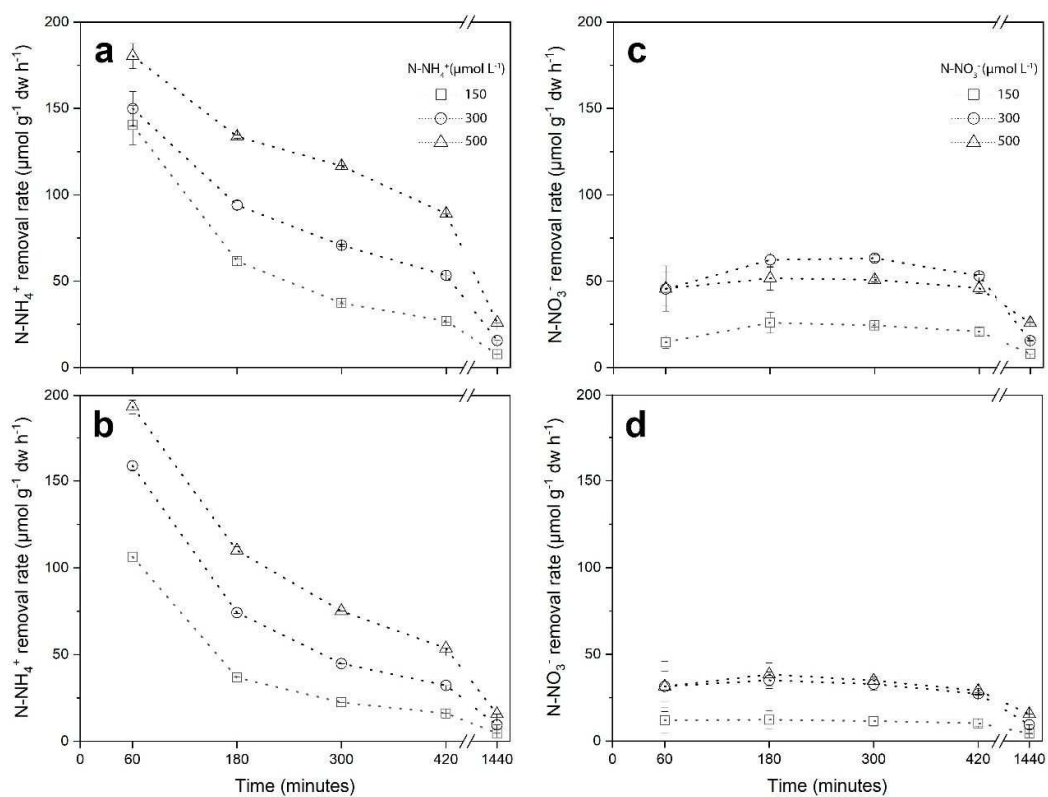


Figure 3. NH_4^+ and NO_3^- uptake rates - NUR ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) by *U. pseudorotundata* over 1440 min of incubation under different nutrient initial concentrations. (a) NH_4^+ with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (b) NH_4^+ with 10 g FW L^{-1} ; (c) NO_3^- with 6 g FW L^{-1} ; (d) NO_3^- with 10 g FW L^{-1} of stocking biomass. The data represents the means \pm SD for n = 3.

Photosynthetic performance

In-situ estimation of Electron Transport Rate

Photosynthetic Electron Transport Rates (ETR) through PSII measured *in situ* (Fig. 4) were significantly affected by the interaction of N-source, nutrient concentrations, and time (ANOVA: $F(2) = 13.74$, $p < 0.001$). Then, considering this interaction, a significant decay on ETR_{situ} was verified in the concentrations of 150 and 300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ from 15 min to 1440 min using N- NH_4^+ as a source of nutrient (ANOVA, SNK; $p < 0.001$). For N- NO_3^- , in the same time interval, a decay on ETR_{situ} was observed for the concentration of 300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (ANOVA, SNK; $p < 0.001$) and no statistical difference was observed for treatments of 150 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (ANOVA, SNK; $p = 0.09$) and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (ANOVA, SNK; $p = 0.13$).

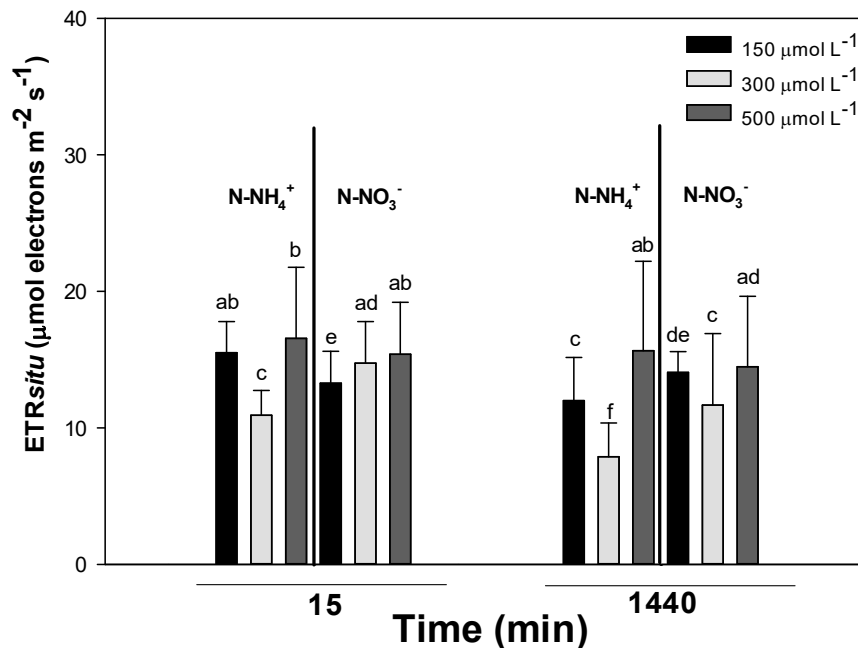


Figure 4. *In situ* electron transport rate (ETR_{situ}) expressed as $\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ of *U. pseudorotundata* after 15 and 1440 min cultivated in NH_4^+ and NO_3^- under different concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. The figure represent only conditions where significant factor effects were detected by multifactorial ANOVA (biomass density:nutrient source:nutrient's initial concentrations:incubation time). Bars are means \pm SD; different letters indicate statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) of differences for $n = 5$.

Ex-situ rapid light-responses curves

The maximal quantum yield (F_v/F_m), which is used as a sensitive indicator of seaweed photosynthetic performance, was significantly affected (ANOVA: $F_v/F_m = F(6) = 3.58, p < 0.05$) by the interaction among *U. pseudorotundata* biomass density, nutrient concentrations and time, but no significant difference (ANOVA, $F(6) = 0.87, p = 0.52$) was found between the different N-source treatments (Fig. 5). The F_v/F_m significantly decreased after 420 min of experiment just for cultures with 6 g L^{-1} of biomass, cultivated on $150 \text{ } \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of nutrients. At this point, the minimal value of F_v/F_m observed was 0.35 ± 0.11 .

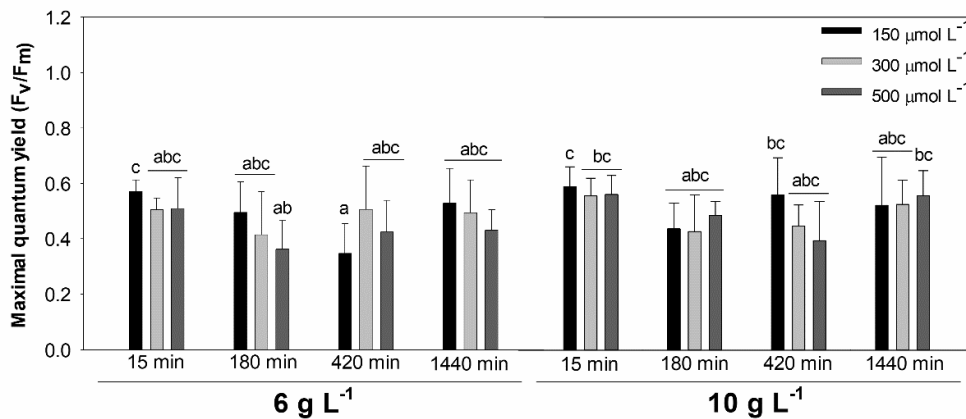


Figure 5. Diurnal changes of maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m) of *U. pseudorotundata* during 1440 minutes cultivated on two densities of biomass (6 g L^{-1} and 10 g L^{-1}) under different initial concentrations of NH_4^- and NO_3^- : $150, 300,$ and $500 \text{ } \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. The figure represents only conditions where significant factor effects were detected by multifactorial ANOVA (*biomass density:nutrient source:nutrient's initial concentrations:incubation time*). Bars are means \pm SD; different letters indicate statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) of differences for $n = 3$.

Maximal electron transport rate (ETR_{max}), described as an indicator of photosynthetic capacity, was influenced by a significant interaction (ANOVA: $F(6) = 6.46, p < 0.05$) among N-source, nutrient concentrations and time, but not by biomass density (ANOVA: $F(6) = 0.65, p = 0.69$; Fig. 6). In an overview, the ETR_{max} showed the lowest values in the N- NH_4^+ treatments at 15 min of the experiment, although some data at later times, especially among N- NH_4^+ treatments, did not show significant differences.

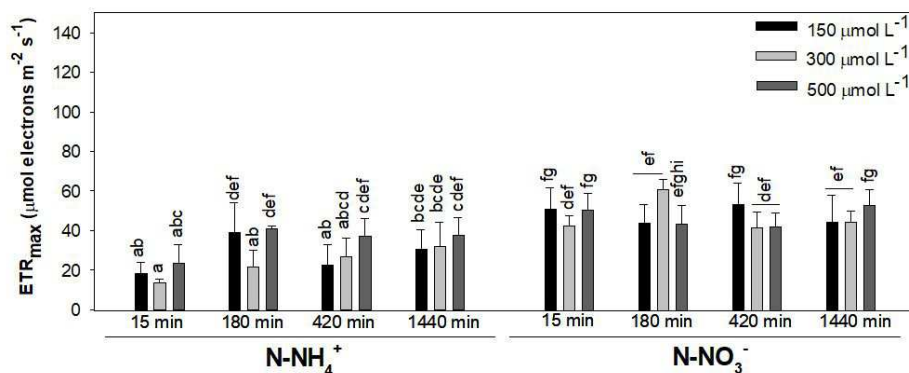


Figure 6. Diurnal changes of maximum electron transport rate (ETR_{max}) measured *ex situ* of *Ulva pseudorotundata* during 1440 minutes in NH_4^+ and NO_3^- on two densities of biomass 6 g L^{-1} and 10 g L^{-1} under different initial concentrations: 150, 300, and $500\text{ }\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. The figure represent only conditions where significant factor effects were detected by multifactorial ANOVA (*biomass density:nutrient source:nutrient's initial concentrations:incubation time*). Bars are means \pm SD; different letters indicate statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) of differences for $n = 3$.

The α_{ETR} , considered as a descriptor of photosynthetic efficiency, was significantly affected by the interaction among biomass density, nutrient concentration and time (ANOVA: $\alpha_{ETR} = F(6) = 3.60, p < 0.05$) (Fig. 7), but no significantly difference (ANOVA, $p = 0.59$) was found between the different N-source treatments. Data obtained from α_{ETR} showed a slight decrease at evening (420 min) for the treatment $150\text{ }\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and 6 g L^{-1} of biomass.

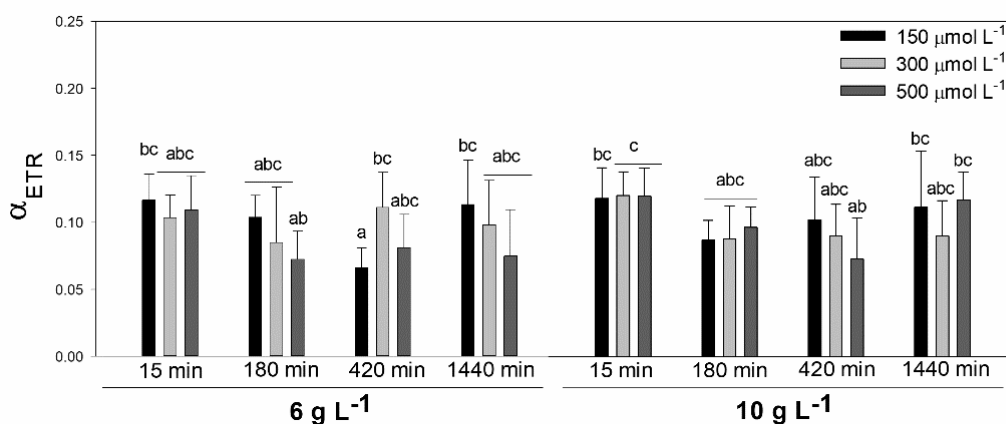


Figure 7. Diurnal changes of photosynthetic efficiency (α_{ETR}) of *Ulva pseudorotundata* during 1440 minutes in NH_4^+ and NO_3^- on two densities of biomass 6 g L^{-1} and 10 g L^{-1} under different initial concentrations: 150, 300, and $500\text{ }\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. The figure represent only conditions where significant factor effects were detected by multifactorial ANOVA (*biomass density:nutrient source:nutrient's initial concentrations:incubation time*). Bars are means \pm SD; different letters indicate statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) of differences for $n = 3$.

Elemental and biochemical composition

The elemental composition of *U. pseudorotundata* biomass at the initial time of the experiments presented significant variability related to the combined conditions used (significant interaction among the factors nitrogen source, initial nutrient concentration and initial algae biomass) (Table S6, Fig. 8a). Regarding the initial carbon content, the values ranged from 30.7 to 36.5% under N-NH₄⁺ and from 32.1 to 35.5% under N-NO₃⁻, presenting differences among treatments (ANOVA: $F(2) = 7.0, p < 0.05$). However, there was no significant difference in the final carbon values between the treatments, which presented a general average value of $32.3 \pm 2.7\%$ (ANOVA: $F(2) = 0.07, p = 0.94$, Fig. 8b). Initial nitrogen content also showed differences among treatments (ANOVA: $F(2) = 3.92, p < 0.05$, Fig. 8b), but final values showed significant differences only for nitrogen source (ANOVA: $F(1) = 37.02, p < 0.05$, Fig. 8b). The initial values ranged from 2.5 to 3.8% in the experiments treated with N-NH₄⁺, and from 3.8 to 4.6% in the experiments treated with N-NO₃⁻, and the final values were lower in treatments with N-NH₄⁺ ($3.1\% \pm 0.5$ SD) than for those with N-NO₃⁻ ($4.0\% \pm 0.4$ SD). The initial hydrogen content, in turn, varied significantly between 4.4 and 5.4% for treatments with N-NH₄⁺ and between 5.7 and 6.3% for treatments with N-NO₃⁻ (ANOVA: $F(2) = 10.47, p < 0.05$, Fig. 8b). The final values were influenced only by the nitrogen source (ANOVA: $F(1) = 6.62, p < 0.05$, Fig. 8b), with lower values for N-NH₄⁺ treatments ($5.23\% \pm 0.2$ SD) when compared to N-NO₃⁻ treatments ($5.43\% \pm 0.2$ SD). Finally, the C:N ratio also showed significantly different initial values ranging from 9.5 to 14.5 in the treatments with N-NH₄⁺ and from 7.8 to 9.2 in the treatments with N-NO₃⁻ (ANOVA: $F(2) = 7.83, p < 0.05$, Fig. 8b). Final values were also influenced by nitrogen source with higher values for N-NH₄⁺ treatments (10.9 ± 1.4 SD) when compared to N-NO₃⁻ treatments (7.9 ± 0.6 SD) (ANOVA: $F(1) = 80.92, p < 0.05$, Fig. 8b). Regarding the biochemical composition (Fig. 9, tables S7-S9), the protein content followed the same pattern described above for nitrogen content, since the protein value derives from this variable, with initial values ranging from 13.7 to 20.9% for the treatments with N-NH₄⁺ and 20.5 to 25.1% for treatments with N-NO₃⁻ (ANOVA: $F(2) = 3.92, p < 0.05$, Fig. 9a). Final values, were lower for N-NH₄⁺ treatments ($16.8\% \pm 2.5$ SD) than for N-NO₃⁻ treatments ($22.0\% \pm 2.2$ SD) (ANOVA: $F(1) = 37.02, p < 0.05$, Fig. 9b). The initial carbohydrate concentration was not influenced by the interaction

between nitrogen source, initial nutrient concentration and initial algae biomass, with average values of 36.9 (± 4.4 SD) for treatments with N-NH₄⁺ and 31.8 (± 6.0 SD) for treatments with N-NO₃⁻ (ANOVA: $F(2) = 0.14, p = 0.87$, Fig. 9a). At the end, the values were influenced by the interaction between nitrogen source and algal biomass density (ANOVA: $F(1) = 4.94, p < 0.05$), being higher in treatments with N-NH₄⁺ (36.83% ± 6.14 SD) than in those treated with N-NO₃⁻ (29.53% ± 5.34 SD), especially for initial algal biomass of 6 g L⁻¹ which reached 38.9% (Fig. 9b).

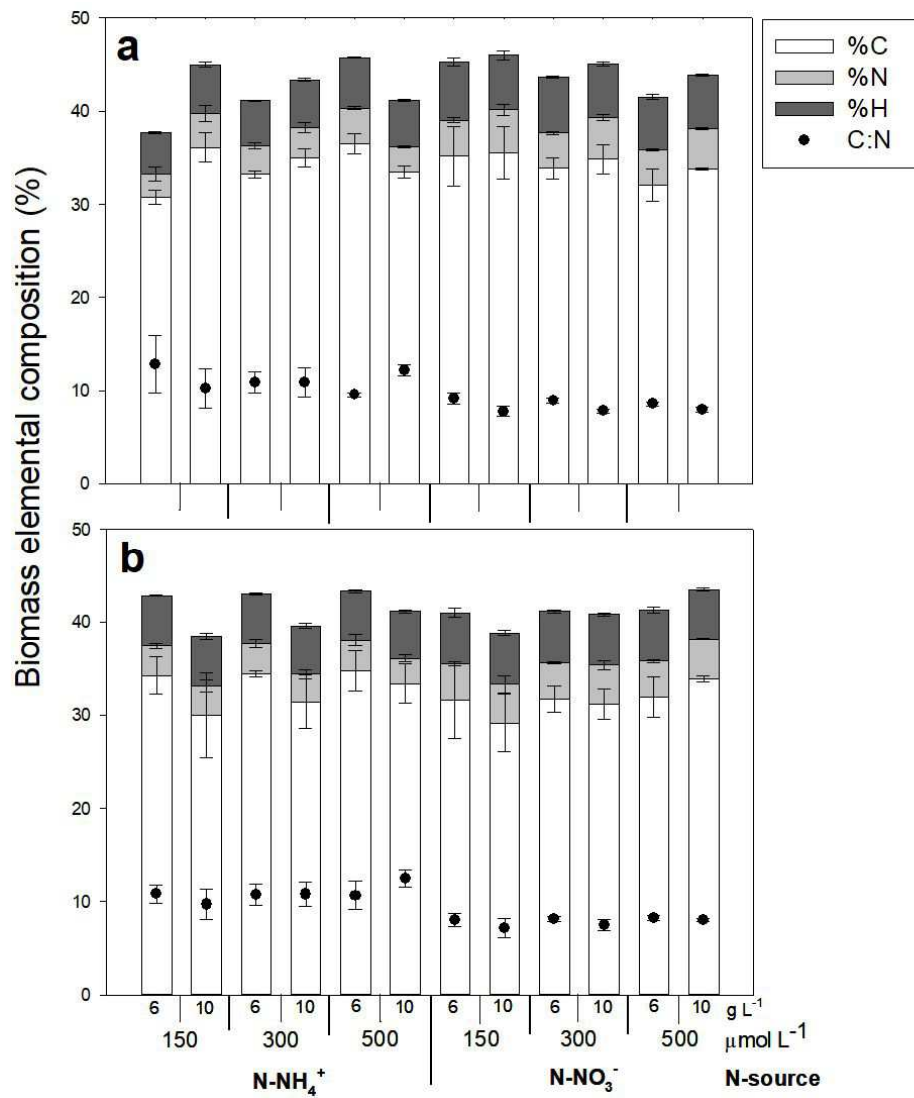


Figure 8. Elemental composition of the dry biomass of *Ulva pseudorotundata* cultivated in different nitrogen sources (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻), nutrient initial concentrations (150, 300 and 500 µmol L⁻¹) and biomass

densities (FW 6 and 10 g L⁻¹). Data are presented as percentage of carbon, nitrogen and hydrogen (CHN) and C:N ratio obtained at initial (a) and final (b) time of the experiments. Values are mean ± SD (n = 3).

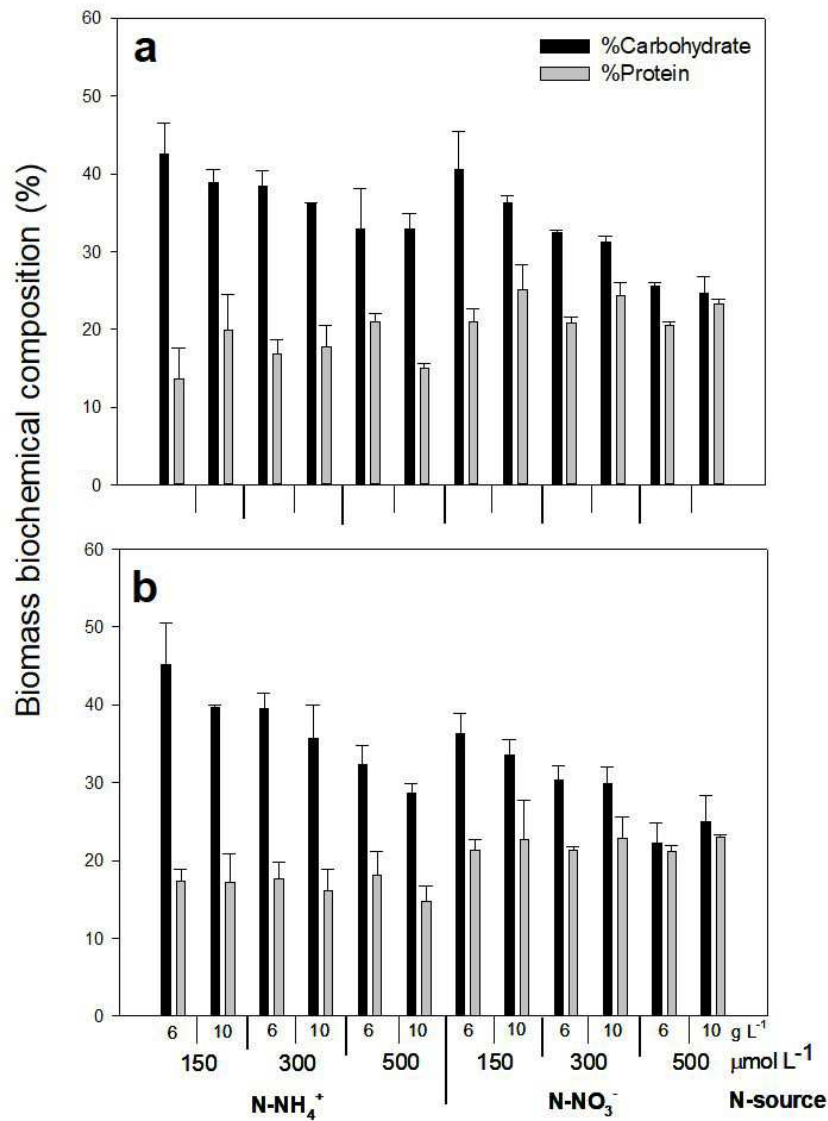


Figure 9. Biochemical composition of the dry biomass of *Ulva pseudorotundata* cultivated in different nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), nutrient initial concentrations (150, 300 and 500 μmol L⁻¹) and biomass densities (FW 6 and 10 g L⁻¹). Data are presented as percentage of carbohydrate and protein obtained at initial (a) and final (b) time of the experiments. Values are mean ± SD (n = 3).

Principal Component Analysis

The PCA showed in an integrated way the main relationships among the variables determined in the experimental tanks. In the presented analysis (Fig. 10) the first principal component explained 58.5% of the variance and the second component 23.3% of the variance. The first component axis clearly showed differences between the treatments with N-NH_4^+ and N-NO_3^- , where the NUR at 60 min and NUE at 180 and at 300 min were the variables with greater load in the treatments with N-NH_4^+ (positive side of component 1). The initial and final C:N ratios also showed greater loads in the first component than in the second, although with low values. In opposition, photosynthetic parameters like ETR_{situ} at 15 and 1440 min, ETR_{max} at 15 min and also initial and final protein contents were higher for N-NO_3^- treatments (negative side of component 1). In the second principal component, NUR at 144, 180, 300 and 420 min showed high loadings in the positive side of the axis, in opposition with F_v/F_m data and initial and final carbohydrate contents in the negative side of the axis.

Observing Pearson's correlation matrix among these variables (Table S10) it is possible to verify that most of the relationships described above based on PCA, whether positive or negative, are statistically validated ($p < 0.05$), evidencing that the main trends shown in the PCA can be confirmed.

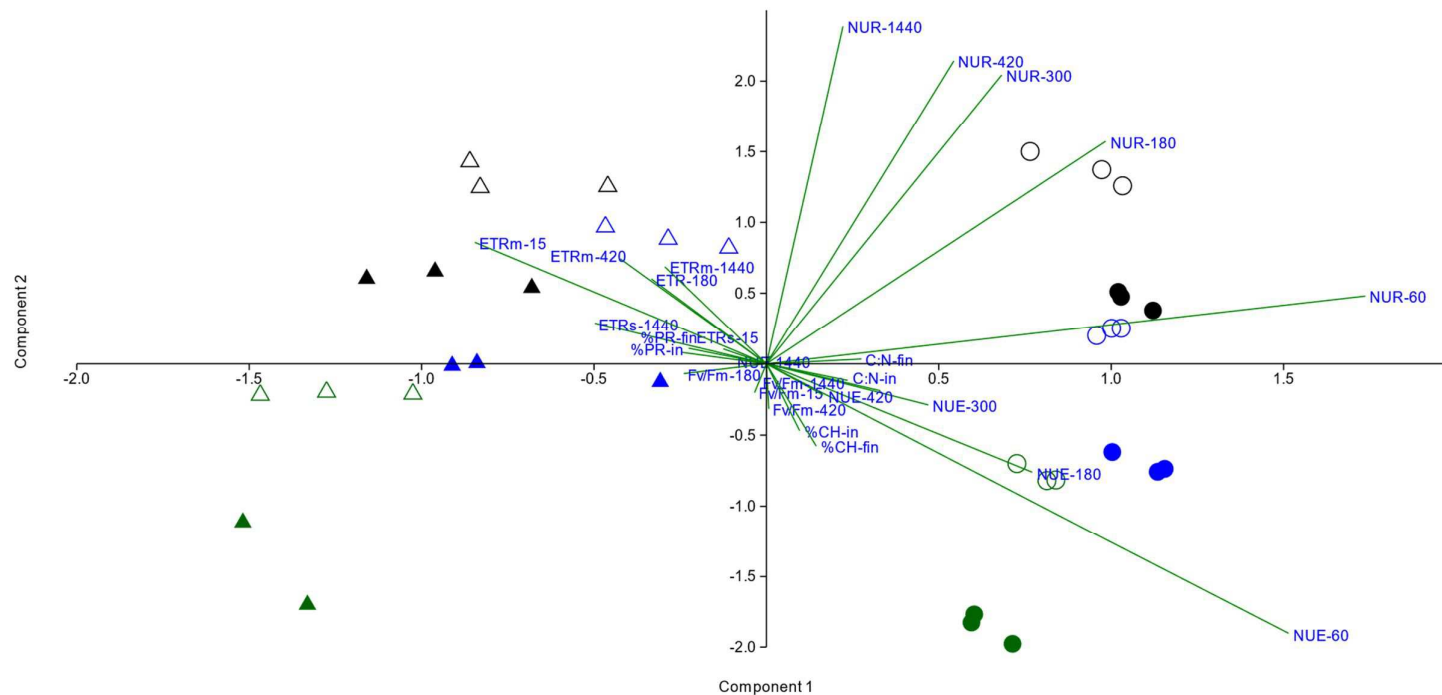


Figure 10. Principal Component Analysis performed with data from nutrient removal experiments by *Ulva pseudorotundata* subjected to two types of nitrogen source (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻). Circles represent NH₄⁺ treatments and triangles represent NO₃⁻ treatments. Empty and filled symbols indicate treatments with 6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹ of initial biomass, respectively. Symbols in green, blue and black indicate 150, 300 and 500 μmol L⁻¹ of nitrogen nutrient, respectively. NUR is nutrient uptake rate, NUE is nutrient uptake efficiency, ETR_s is electron transport rate in situ, ETR_{max} is the maximal electron transport rate, F_v/F_m is the maximal photochemical efficiency of PSII. The numbers associated with these abbreviations are the measurement times in min. C:N is the carbon to nitrogen ratio, %CH is the percentage of carbohydrates and %PR is the percentage of protein, *ini* and *fin* representing initial and final time of the experiment, respectively.

Table 1 Maximal removal efficiency of nutrients by seaweed selected to play a role as biofilter in different types of cultivation.

Species	Type of cultivation	Incubation time	Nutrient source	Nutrient concentrations ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)	Nutrient uptake efficiency (%)	Reference
<i>Ulva pseudorotundata</i>	outdoor conditions - closed system	5 hours (300 min)	NH_4Cl	$500 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	> 90% ammonium	Present work
		24 hours (1440 min)	KNO_3	$500 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	100% nitrate	
<i>Ulva clathrata</i>	outdoor conditions - flow-through system	15 hours	Integrated with shrimp effluent (<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>)	51 to $60 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ < $2.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	82-85% TAN (total ammonia-N) 50% phosphate	Copertino et al. (2009)
<i>Ulva lactuca</i>	outdoor conditions - flow-through system	-	Integrated with fish effluent (<i>Oreochromis spilurus</i>)	$4.44 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	97.54% TAN (total ammonia-N)	Al-Hafedhet et al. (2014)
<i>Ulva lactuca</i>	outdoor conditions - flow-through system	-	Integrated with fish effluent (<i>Haliotis rufescens</i>)	$12 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $0.889 \pm 0.112 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $7.21 \pm 0.47 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $0.97 \pm 0.26 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $182.94 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	16.4-24.03% phosphate 86-100% ammonium 65-83% nitrate 13-65% phosphate 99.3% ammonium	Macchiavello & Bulboa (2014)
<i>Ulva ohnoi</i>	laboratory conditions - Algal Turf Scrubber (ATS) system	24 hours (1440 min)	NH_4Cl	$182.94 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	99.3% ammonium	Salvi et al. (2021)
<i>Ulva prolifera</i>	laboratory conditions - closed system	48 hours	$\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ KNO_3 KH_2PO_4	$92.3 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $194.8 \pm 9.8 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $25.8 \pm 0.6 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	100% phosphate 99.24% nitrate 91.30% phosphate	Fan et al. (2014)
<i>Codium fragile</i>	laboratory conditions - closed system	6 hours	NH_4Cl	$150 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	99.5% ammonium	Kang et al. (2007)
<i>Gracilaria cervicornis</i>	laboratory conditions - closed system	5 hours	NH_4Cl KNO_3 KH_2PO_4	$5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	85.3% ammonium 97.5% nitrate 81.6% phosphate	Carneiro et al. (2011)
<i>Gracilaria vermiculophylla</i>	laboratory conditions - closed system	4 hours	NH_4Cl NaNO_3	$150 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $450 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	63% ammonium 33% nitrate	Abreu et al. (2011a)
<i>Hydropuntia cornea</i>	outdoor conditions - flow-through system	-	Integrated with fish effluent (<i>Sparus aurata</i>)	10 to $200 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	99.55% TAN (total ammonia-N)	Figuroa et al. (2012)
	indoor conditions - flow-through system	-		10 to $200 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	96.23% TAN (total ammonia-N)	
<i>Kappaphycus alvarezii</i>	indoor tanks - flow-through system	-	Integrated with fish effluent (<i>Trachinotus carolinus</i>)	$4.4 \pm 0.8 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $190.6 \pm 23.7 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $12.6 \pm 2.7 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $15.2 \pm 1.7 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$	70.54% ammonium 18.2% nitrate 50.84% nitrite 26.76% phosphate	Hayashi et al. (2008)

5. DISCUSSION

In the present study we investigated the short-term removal of N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ by *U. pseudorotundata* under different initial nutrient concentrations and biomass densities, monitoring nutrient removal efficiencies, photosynthetic parameters and evaluating biomass characteristics. The results showed that *U. pseudorotundata* cultivated under solar radiation in a land-based pilot scale was efficient in removing N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ even in concentrations as high as 500 μmol L⁻¹ ensuring complete water remediation in all experimental conditions tested, although differences were observed depending on the stocking density and type of N-source. Despite the fact that both nutrient sources were extinguished after 1440 min of incubation, N-NH₄⁺ was removed more efficiently by *U. pseudorotundata* cultivation. On the other hand, N-NO₃⁻ was more slowly removed, being completely eliminated only after 1440 min of incubation. This difference in uptake rate was reflected in photosynthesis, where a tendency towards an increase in photosynthetic parameters, especially for maximum electron transport rates (ETR_{max}), was observed when *U. pseudorotundata* was incubated with N-NO₃⁻. The biomass characteristics, despite showing some heterogeneity at the beginning of the experiments, were at the end similar between treatments with different nitrogen sources.

Regarding abiotic parameters monitored during the experiments, temperature and irradiance conditions reflected the characteristics of the time of year in which they were carried out (late autumn and beginning of winter in Southern Spain), with some differences between experiments related to meteorological events. As the experiments lasted 24 h (1440 min), there were no large fluctuations in these variables during each experiment. On the other hand, the pH increased throughout the experiments as a result of photosynthetic activity and showed differences related to the nitrogen nutrient source and its initial concentration, with significantly higher values for the treatments with N-NO₃⁻. The lower pH values for the ammonium treatments are partially related to the acidic character of the ammonium chloride salt (NH₄Cl), which was used as a source of N-NH₄⁺ (BARROSO; PEREIRA; NAHAS, 2006). Potassium nitrate (KNO₃), which was used as source of N-NO₃⁻ does not have this acidic character resulting in greater increases in the pH of its treatments. In addition, the growth of algae in N-NH₄⁺ generates a decrease in pH due to the release of H⁺ ions to the medium. In contrast, growth in N-NO₃⁻ causes an

increase in pH as a function of the release of OH⁻ ions (COLLOS; HARRISON, 2014; RAVEN; SMITH, 1976).

The two parameters used to evaluate nutrient removal evidenced the efficiency of *U. pseudorotundata* for biofiltration processes. While the NUE considers the relative removal of nutrient by time in a specific experimental unit, the NUR represents the removal by time and by volume of water, normalized by the dry mass of algae. NUE values showed that N-NH₄⁺ removal reached about 97% after 300 min (5 h) of experiment, which is within the range of values reported in the literature for other marine algae species (ABREU et al., 2011b; CARNEIRO; FREIRE; MARINHO-SORIANO, 2011; KANG et al., 2008a). Furthermore, these results corroborate those reported for other *Ulva* species grown under lower initial concentrations of N-NH₄⁺ (Copertino et al. 2009; Al-Hafedh et al. 2014; Salvi et al. 2021) (Table 1). Regarding N-NO₃⁻, *U. pseudorotundata* showed more than 60% of removal efficiency after 420 min when cultivated at initial concentrations of 150 and 300 μmol L⁻¹. An equivalent efficiency in the removal of N-NO₃⁻ as the only source of N was observed by (ABREU et al., 2011b) when cultivating *Gracilaria vermiculophylla* with 50 μmol L⁻¹ of initial concentration. At the end of the experiment (24h) the removal of N-NO₃⁻ reached up to 90% in the three initial concentrations tested. Contrasting results were described by Fan et al. (2014) in experiments with *U. prolifera* cultured with 503 μmol L⁻¹ of initial concentration N-NO₃⁻ showing a maximum of 36.24% removal at the end of the experiment (48h).

Biomass stock density is a critical factor for biofiltration systems as it has a direct influence on nutrient uptake efficiency (AL-HAFEDH; ALAM; BUSCHMANN, 2014; COHEN; NEORI, 1991; MAO et al., 2009). For N-NH₄⁺, the removal rate by *U. pseudorotundata* was influenced by stocking densities, that is, the reduction in N-NH₄⁺ concentrations occurred faster when the biomass density was higher. This trend is in agreement with studies carried out with other species, but which used similar biomass stocks, as is the case of *U. lactuca* (COHEN; NEORI, 1991), *G. vermiculophylla* (ABREU et al., 2011a), *G. chilensis* and *U. lactuca* (MACCHIAVELLO; BULBOA, 2014). However, Abreu et al. (2011b) and Macchiavello and Bulboa (2014) observed values of nutrient uptake inversely proportional to stocking densities, while Cohen and Neori (1991) did not observe significant differences. Of course, other factors can also explain these differences, such as crop irradiance, temperature, aeration, genotypic and

phenotypic aspects and physiological status of the species and even the shape of the culture tank.

The fast removal efficiency (NUE) of N-NH₄⁺ by *U. pseudorotundata* is reflected in the observed values of the N-NH₄⁺ uptake rates (NUR). The NUR obtained for N-NH₄⁺ was nonlinear in time and exhibited three distinct phases. First, a strong removal was observed during the first 180 min of experiment on both biomass densities and could be explained by the term "surge uptake" (ROLEDA; HURD, 2019) as a mechanism of fast uptake of a nutrient over a short period of time. Second, a relatively constant phase was observed between 180 and 420 min, followed by a decrease as a third phase. The similar surge uptake of N-NH₄⁺ was also reported by Salvi et al. (2021) for *U. ohnoi* in the first 15 min of incubation time. In laboratory experiments with *U. lactuca*, Pedersen (1994) previously described the three uptake rate phases as observed in the present study, and the period of surge uptake of N-NH₄⁺ was observed between 10-60 min. In contrast, different patterns were observed in treatments with N-NO₃⁻. We verified an increasing uptake rate until 300 min of experiment, followed by a decreasing trend. Similar results were noticed for *U. prolifera* which showed a saturated uptake rate for N-NO₃⁻ with a maximum of $28.4 \pm 1.7 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ in an initial concentration of $195 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (FAN et al., 2014). In this case, the authors considered that external N-NO₃⁻ concentrations were high enough to fill the intracellular N pools. Although in our work *U. pseudorotundata* demonstrated a decay on uptake rate under higher concentrations, a complete removal of N-NO₃⁻ was observed in 1440 min of experiment, even during dark periods (between 420 and 1440 min) signaling non-saturated internal N pools with N-NO₃⁻ as N source even with $500 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ as initial concentrations.

The results discussed above indicate that the concentrations of nitrogenous nutrients and the initial algal biomass used in our experiments were not sufficient to saturate or cause negative effects on the physiology of *U. pseudorotundata*, and that the systems can operate with higher algal biomass and nutrient concentrations than those tested, as long as there is no interference to the irradiance distribution. Considering this, it is possible that an improvement in the nutrient removal process can be obtained by manipulating the effluent flow between different algae cultures, alternating periods of starvation with periods of high concentrations.

Ale et al. (2011) described that the uptake of N-NH₄⁺ by *U. lactuca* was higher even when N-NO₃⁻ and N-NH₄⁺ were supplied together, indicating that the nature of

nitrogen uptake by the species was selective. Experiments with organic (urea and glycine) and inorganic (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻) nitrogenous nutrients showed that *U. prolifera* assimilated N-NH₄⁺ faster than N-NO₃⁻, and also suggested a more efficient absorption of inorganic nutrients than organic ones. The faster N-NH₄⁺ removal compared to N-NO₃⁻ by *U. pseudorotundata* evidenced in our study can be attributed to the different mechanisms of absorption, assimilation and incorporation of these nutrients in the cell, since NO₃⁻ has a higher energy requirement for its absorption and assimilation compared to NH₄⁺ (PRITCHARD et al., 2015). Our results showed a trend towards higher ETR_{max} values in treatments with N-NO₃⁻, which indicates a greater flow of electrons from photosynthesis necessary for the process of reducing NO₃⁻ to NH₄⁺, and then to amino acids and proteins.

Photosynthetic parameters can be used to evaluate the physiological status of seaweed cultivation related to multiple factors of system conditions e.g. temperature, aeration, light irradiance and nutrient supply (Figueroa et al. 2006, Figueroa et al. 2009, Shahar et al. 2020). In respect to maximal quantum yield of PSII (F_v/F_m), our results showed that this parameter, which indicates the maximal algal photosynthetic efficiency, was not influenced by nitrogen source. However, nutrient concentrations, biomass densities and the period of the day contributed to statistical differences. Distinct results were obtained with *U. fasciata* cultivated with N-NO₃⁻ and total ammonium nitrogen (TAN) in which F_v/F_m was affected by the nitrogen source (SHAHAR et al., 2020). In that study, *U. fasciata* was described to present higher F_v/F_m when cultivated with N-NO₃⁻, and the authors justify the lower photosynthetic activity in cultures supplied with TAN than N-NO₃⁻ due to a possible toxicity of the free NH₃⁺. In our case no difference in F_v/F_m was observed between treatments with the two different types of N-source, suggesting no toxicity response at the tested conditions.

When cultivated in IMTA systems algae are subjected to considerable variations in the luminous environment which can lead to photoinhibition and photochemical damage. Photoinhibition mechanisms, recognized as a reversible interruption of the photosynthetic electron transport chain to protect seaweed against overexposure to solar radiation (MAXWELL; JOHNSON, 2000), are usually observed in photosynthetic studies, when F_v/F_m is monitored along the day (FIGUEROA et al., 2020). F_v/F_m usually decreases in periods of higher photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), signaling photoinhibition and increased energy dissipation (FIGUEROA et al., 2020). In this

study, however, this variation did not exhibit a marked depression during the afternoon (between 180 and 420 min of experiment) suggesting that the maximum quantum yield, also considered a stress indicator, was not influenced by the different nitrogen sources. Although our cultures were not exposed to high ambient irradiance since it was winter time with cloudy days, the minimal values of F_v/F_m were observed in cultures with 150 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and 6 g L^{-1} of biomass indicating that low algal biomass densities and nitrogen concentrations caused photoinhibition on *U. pseudorotundata*. This corroborates the results obtained by Huovinen et al. (2006) who observed that in treatments with N-NH_4^+ , the recovery responses of *Grateloupia lanceola* were modified as a function of the nutrient concentration. Moreover, under higher ammonium concentrations (300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) the cultures improved the mechanisms of recovery against high irradiance. In this way Korbee et al. (2005) pointed out that under N-limited conditions, seaweed physiological mechanisms, such as photosynthetic capacity and photoprotection, could be affected. Also, Henley et al. (1991) described that under N-NO_3^- supply *U. rotundata* reduced photoinhibition at noon during daily cycles suggesting that greater nitrogen availability make the algae more resilient to these negative effects. In this sense, the monitoring of F_v/F_m could be an applicable information to avoid photochemical damage when, for example, seaweed is cultivated in conditions under low fluxes of nutrients or starvation conditions in order to improve the efficiency of nutrients removal from mariculture farm effluents.

The elemental and biochemical composition of the biomass was determined to verify if the treatments, even in short-time (24h), would induce detectable changes, either among different treatments or between the initial and final times. The protein content values obtained for *U. pseudorotundata* (general average = 19.7%) were similar to those reported in the literature for other species (BIKKER et al., 2016; CASTRO-GONZÁLEZ et al., 1996; LAKSHMI et al., 2020), and the carbohydrate content (general average = 33.8%) was slightly higher than those mentioned by other authors. Also, the biomass presented greater heterogeneity in the elemental and biochemical composition in the initial experimental times, presenting itself with more homogeneous characteristics at the end of the experiments. The initial heterogeneity is probably associated with small differences in the biomass characteristics of the algae used as inoculum, since they may have come from different culture ponds. This result may be indicating that the algae physiology progresses towards a homogenization of the composition, even with varying

conditions. However, this hypothesis must be evaluated with reservations, since the experimental time of only 24 h may not have been enough to consolidate responses of the varied conditions on the algae composition.

An important point to be considered is that part of the N-NH_4^+ removed from the respective treatments may have been eliminated from the liquid medium by volatilization and not necessarily incorporated into the biomass. This situation is possible due to the increase in pH related to photosynthesis, associated with the aeration of the tanks. Ammonium (NH_4^+) can be converted to non-ionized ammonia (NH_3), which is volatile and even toxic to fish and other organisms. The relative concentration of each form is strongly dependent on pH and, to a lesser extent, on temperature and salinity. Under typical seawater conditions (pH 8.0 and 20°C) there is only about 10% ammonia. As the pH increases, the ammonia concentration increases dramatically. The proportion of unionized ammonia increases 10-fold for each unit increase in pH and 2-fold for each 10°C increase in temperature in the 0-30°C range (Erickson, 1985). Thus, considering the volatility of ammonia, there can be significant losses in tanks where algal photosynthesis promotes increases in pH, especially if there is aeration (Collos and Harrison, 2014). The pH of the tanks, although not continuously monitored, showed a considerable increase at the end of the experiments. As there was intense aeration, the probability of NH_3 losses, reflecting a reduction of dissolved NH_4^+ is very high. In a context of bioremediation, however, the effect of algal photosynthesis would be, in any case, contributing to the reduction of dissolved nitrogen, which would be partially assimilated by the biomass and partially volatilized. The loss of ammonium due to variation of seawater pH and temperature was reported in the green microalga *Chlorella fusca* grown in freshwater enriched by centrate (PERALTA; JEREZ; FIGUEROA, 2019).

Although not all results regarding photosynthetic parameters have showed significant differences between treatments with N-NH_4^+ and N-NO_3^- , the principal component analysis showed in an integrated way the important trends mentioned above, facilitating the understanding of the relationships among data. The N-NH_4^+ and N-NO_3^- treatments were distributed on opposite sides of the principal components plane, especially on the first axis. N-NO_3^- treatments were generally positively associated with ETR_{max} values, but also with protein content and some other photosynthetic parameters, while N-NH_4^+ treatments were positively associated with NUE values. Such results show

that the monitoring of photosynthetic parameters in algae based nutrient removal systems produces a good, fast and practical physiological diagnosis of the algae, allowing, eventually, to verify if the algae are using NH_4^+ or other forms of nitrogen that demand more energy to absorption and assimilation. This can help, for example, in the management of systems with regard to greater exposure of the cultivation tanks to light, or the harvesting of surplus biomass to reduce self-shading.

Concluding remarks

Our pilot scale experiments demonstrated that *U. pseudorotundata* rapidly removed more than 98% of N-NH_4^+ in different initial concentrations and biomass densities suggesting a certain versatility of this alga with regard to possible variations in these parameters – typical situations found in effluent remediation systems. In respect to N-NH_4^+ , the best performance was obtained with initial biomass of 10 g L^{-1} and initial concentrations up to $300 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Using N-NO_3^- as N-source, a removal efficiency above 93% required 24 h. In the reality of effluents from marine fish farming, for example, both nitrogen sources, in addition to others, will be present, with N-NH_4^+ being absorbed (and also volatilized) more quickly, and N-NO_3^- more slowly, acting as a nutrient for long-term maintenance of algae (PRITCHARD et al., 2015). If, on the one hand, algal photosynthesis raises the pH and makes more ammoniacal nitrogen available in the form of non-ionized ammonia, on the other hand, the absorption capacity of algae and the volatilization forced by aeration can compensate for this increase, reducing the risk of ammonia toxicity for fish. As for other *Ulva* species, the biomass produced has a number of uses, including feed for the fish themselves in a circular system (BIKKER et al., 2016).

The monitoring of photosynthetic parameters by PAM fluorescence in parallel with the determination of nutrient removal parameters allowed to verify, in a practical and sensitive way, that the uptake and assimilation of N-NO_3^- demands more energy than in the case of N-NH_4^+ . Since the PAM fluorescence data allow us to estimate the energy transfer efficiency of the PSII, the results obtained in this study also contributes to elucidate seaweed photosynthesis performance by *in situ* and *ex situ* measurements from a cultivation under environmental growing conditions. This greater demand for light energy for uptake and assimilation of N-NO_3^- in relation to N-NH_4^+ suggests different managements in culture and/or remediation systems with regard to biomass density to be

used, timing of harvesting of the grown biomass and other aspects that influence the luminous environment of cultivation or remediation systems.

When practiced inland, IMTA systems could vary in terms of systems design and scale. The results obtained in the present study could be applied for systems in which the effluent flows between different algae cultures, alternating periods of starvation with periods of high concentrations. In this scenario, while a tank will receive effluent, the other one can be maintained under starvation conditions in order to increase the efficiency of nutrient removal from fish farm effluents. Moreover, we concluded that *U. pseudorotundata* can be cultivated in effluents coming directly from fish tanks (rich in N-NH₄⁺) or receiving effluents from bacterial biofilters, in which N-NO₃⁻ may predominate, being possible, if some care and management are considered, the almost total removal of nitrogen nutrients in a period of 24 h.

Finally, our data qualify *U. pseudorotundata*, a species native to the Spanish Mediterranean coast, as another candidate *Ulva* species for managed use in biofiltration of aquaculture effluents, either in land based or in integrated multitrophic aquaculture systems.

6. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Data availability statement

The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Competing Interests

The authors declare have no competing interests as defined by Springer, or other interests that might be perceived to influence the results and/or discussion reported in this paper.

Authors Contribution Statement

Massocato, T., Vega, J., Robles-Carnero, V., Avilés, A., Bonomi-Barufi, J., Rörig, L., and Figueroa, F. participated in the experimental design.

Massocato, T., Vega, J., and Robles-Carnero, V. participated in the experimental execution.

Massocato, T., Vega, J., Robles-Carnero, V., and Avilés, A. dedicated for the chemical analysis.

Massocato, T., Robles-Carnero, V., Bastos, E., Bonomi-Barufi, J., Rörig, L., and Figueroa, F. participated in the execution of statistical analysis and data interpretation.

Massocato, T., Bastos, E., Bonomi-Barufi, J., Rörig, L., and Figueroa, F. wrote, review and editing the manuscript text.

Bonomi-Barufi, J., Rörig, L., and Figueroa, F. supervised and provided funding acquisition.

7. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

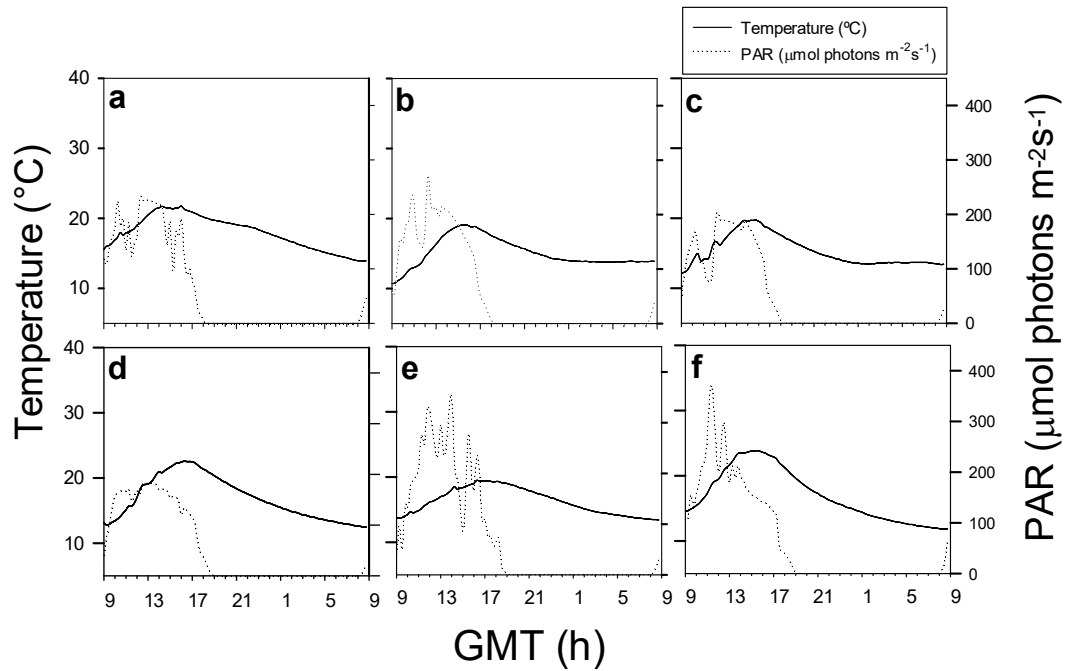


Figure supplementary 1. Temperature (°C) and PAR: photosynthetically active radiation ($\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$) against experimental period in GMT (h) of *U. pseudorotundata* cultivation in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. (a): N-NH₄⁺/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/150 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (b): N-NH₄⁺/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (c): N-NH₄⁺/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (d): N-NO₃⁻/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/150 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (e): N-NO₃⁻/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (f): N-NO₃⁻/6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹/500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$.

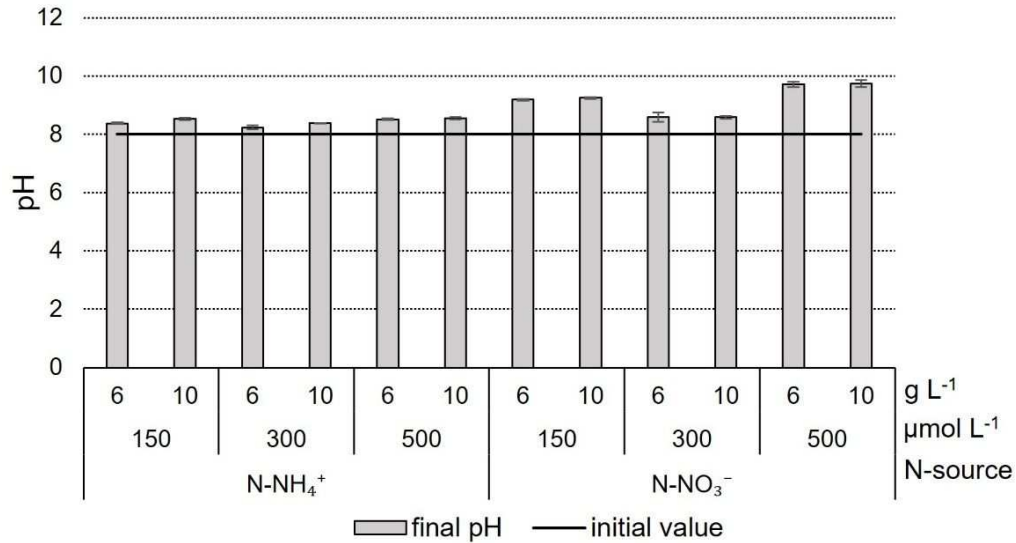


Figure supplementary 2. pH measurements in the end of experiment of *U. pseudorotundata* under different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. Values are mean ± SD (n = 3).

Table supplementary 1. Multifactorial ANOVA effects for pH measurements in the end of experiment of *U. pseudorotundata* under different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. *df*: degree of freedom; *F*: F-statistic. The significance differences (*p* < 0.05) are shown in bold.

<i>Source</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Nutrient source (1)	1	904.70	0.00
Nutrient's initial concentration (2)	2	254.70	0.00
Biomass density (3)	1	8.00	0.01
(1) x (2)	2	113.50	0.00
(1) x (3)	1	3.50	0.07
(2) x (3)	2	1.00	0.40
(1) x (2) x (3)	2	0.80	0.46

Table supplementary 2. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning changes pH measurements in the end of experiment of *U. pseudorotundata* under different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻) and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

N-source	Nutrient's initial concentration (μmol L ⁻¹)		
N-NH ₄ ⁺	150	8.45 ± 0.01	a
	300	8.31 ± 0.04	c
	500	8.53 ± 0.01	ab
N-NO ₃ ⁻	150	9.21 ± 0.01	d
	300	8.59 ± 0.08	b
	500	9.72 ± 0.02	e

Table supplementary 3. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning changes in concentrations of N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻ at 0, 60, 180, 420, and 1440 minutes considering nutrient's initial concentrations (150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹) and biomass densities (FW 6 g L⁻¹ and FW 10 g L⁻¹) of *U. pseudorotundata*. Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

Nutrient's initial concentration (μmol L ⁻¹)	Biomass density (FW g L ⁻¹)	Time (min.)	Nutrient's concentrations								
			N-NH ₄ ⁺				N-NO ₃ ⁻				
150	6	0	153.02	±	2.64	h	150.57	±	0.60	f	
		60	40.74	±	10.14	d	138.85	±	9.32	f	
		180	5.28	±	1.05	a	88.32	±	14.13	de	
		300	3.85	±	0.49	a	52.95	±	3.61	bc	
		420	2.34	±	0.46	a	33.99	±	10.79	b	
		1440	5.10	±	1.23	a	0.00	±	0.00	a	
	10	0	153.11	±	1.38	h	150.60	±	0.60	f	
		60	11.55	±	2.26	ab	134.65	±	10.41	f	
		180	6.27	±	1.57	a	101.51	±	25.26	e	
		300	3.92	±	1.24	a	74.01	±	18.64	cd	
		420	3.12	±	0.37	a	54.95	±	14.91	b	
		1440	2.90	±	0.61	a	9.07	±	7.33	a	
	300	6	0	301.40	±	0.18	k	300.13	±	0.13	i
			60	181.52	±	7.92	i	263.76	±	8.01	h
180			75.84	±	5.99	f	150.64	±	10.15	f	
300			18.41	±	2.96	b	46.83	±	7.45	b	
420			2.51	±	1.45	a	3.11	±	4.56	a	
1440			1.85	±	0.32	a	1.10	±	1.90	a	
10		0	301.42	±	0.03	k	300.13	±	0.23	i	
		60	90.18	±	3.39	g	258.25	±	19.16	h	
		180	5.28	±	2.70	a	160.44	±	18.76	f	
		300	3.40	±	0.64	a	81.70	±	22.68	de	
		420	1.87	±	0.41	a	46.38	±	23.77	bc	
		1440	2.05	±	0.70	a	0.00	±	0.00	a	
500		6	0	498.88	±	0.12	m	500.05	±	0.09	m
			60	365.84	±	20.39	l	463.47	±	10.61	l
	180		178.13	±	2.29	i	376.22	±	16.28	k	
	300		32.40	±	1.36	c	296.72	±	4.99	i	
	420		0.00	±	0.00	a	243.05	±	15.96	gh	
	1440		0.00	±	0.00	a	4.03	±	6.98	a	
	10	0	499.52	±	0.12	m	500.21	±	0.25	m	
		60	242.83	±	5.57	j	458.39	±	11.75	l	
		180	60.60	±	8.12	e	346.98	±	26.26	j	
		300	0.00	±	0.00	a	268.01	±	13.14	h	
		420	0.00	±	0.00	a	229.29	±	21.49	g	
		1440	0.00	±	0.00	a	1.65	±	1.65	a	

Table supplementary 4. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning nutrient's uptake efficiency (%) of *U. pseudorotundata*. after 60, 180, 420, and 1440 minutes under diferent N-source (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻) and nutrient's initial concentrations (150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹). Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

Nutrient's initial concentration (μmol L ⁻¹)	Biomass density (FW g L ⁻¹)	Time (min.)	Nutrient's uptake efficiency							
			N-NH ₄ ⁺			N-NO ₃ ⁻				
150	6	0-60	73.41	±	6.36	f	7.78	±	1.92	a
		0-180	96.55	±	0.71	ijk	41.33	±	9.49	cd
		0-300	97.48	±	0.10	ijk	64.83	±	2.53	ef
		0-420	98.47	±	0.33	k	77.43	±	7.18	gh
		0-1440	96.66	±	0.85	ijk	100.00	±	0.00	j
	10	0-60	92.45	±	1.52	h	10.60	±	6.66	a
		0-180	95.91	±	1.01	hijk	32.57	±	13.40	bc
		0-300	97.44	±	0.79	ijk	50.82	±	12.57	d
		0-420	97.96	±	0.24	jk	63.49	±	10.05	e
		0-1440	98.11	±	0.38	k	93.96	±	4.88	ij
300	6	0-60	39.77	±	2.64	b	12.12	±	2.65	a
		0-180	74.84	±	1.98	f	49.81	±	3.36	d
		0-300	93.89	±	0.98	hij	84.40	±	2.48	hi
		0-420	99.17	±	0.48	k	98.96	±	1.52	j
		0-1440	99.39	±	0.11	k	99.63	±	0.63	j
	10	0-60	70.08	±	1.12	e	13.95	±	6.45	a
		0-180	98.25	±	0.89	k	46.54	±	6.29	d
		0-300	98.87	±	0.20	k	72.77	±	7.57	eg
		0-420	99.38	±	0.14	k	84.55	±	2.35	h
		0-1440	99.32	±	0.23	k	100.00	±	0.00	j
500	6	0-60	26.67	±	4.08	a	7.32	±	2.11	a
		0-180	64.29	±	0.47	d	24.76	±	3.26	b
		0-300	93.50	±	0.27	hi	40.66	±	0.99	cd
		0-420	100.00	±	0.00	k	51.40	±	3.20	d
		0-1440	100.00	±	0.00	k	99.19	±	1.40	j
	10	0-60	51.39	±	1.11	c	8.36	±	2.39	a
		0-180	87.87	±	1.62	g	30.63	±	5.27	bc
		0-300	100.00	±	0.00	k	46.42	±	2.64	d
		0-420	100.00	±	0.00	k	54.16	±	4.30	df
		0-1440	100.00	±	0.00	k	99.67	±	0.33	j

Table supplementary 5. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning nutrient's uptake rate ($\text{g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) of *U. pseudorotundata*. after 60, 180, 420, and 1440 minutes under diferent N-source (N-NH_4^+ and N-NO_3^-) and nutrient's initial concentrations (150, 300, and 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

Nutrient's initial concentration ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	Biomass density (FW g L^{-1})	Time (min.)	Nutrient's uptake rate							
			N-NH_4^+			N-NO_3^-				
150	6	0-60	140.35	±	11.42	p	14.65	±	3.67	ac
		0-180	61.56	±	1.35	j	25.94	±	6.01	c
		0-300	37.29	±	0.68	g	24.41	±	1.05	c
		0-420	26.91	±	0.55	ef	20.82	±	1.94	ac
		0-1440	7.70	±	0.18	a	7.84	±	0.03	bd
	10	0-60	106.44	±	2.52	m	11.99	±	7.49	ab
		0-180	36.80	±	0.39	g	12.30	±	5.09	abc
		0-300	22.43	±	0.03	de	11.52	±	2.89	ab
		0-420	16.11	±	0.14	bc	10.27	±	1.67	ab
		0-1440	4.71	±	0.02	a	4.43	±	0.25	d
300	6	0-60	149.85	±	10.02	q	45.46	±	9.93	ac
		0-180	93.98	±	2.47	l	62.29	±	4.17	c
		0-300	70.75	±	0.69	k	63.33	±	1.83	c
		0-420	53.37	±	0.23	i	53.04	±	0.82	ac
		0-1440	15.60	±	0.01	bd	15.57	±	0.10	bd
	10	0-60	158.83	±	2.52	r	31.49	±	14.58	ab
		0-180	74.22	±	0.67	k	35.01	±	4.76	abc
		0-300	44.81	±	0.09	h	32.85	±	3.44	ab
		0-420	32.18	±	0.05	fg	27.26	±	0.76	ab
		0-1440	9.38	±	0.02	ac	9.40	±	0.01	d
500	6	0-60	180.37	±	7.31	s	45.74	±	13.18	ac
		0-180	133.65	±	1.01	o	51.60	±	6.80	c
		0-300	116.62	±	0.33	n	50.83	±	1.24	c
		0-420	89.09	±	0.02	l	45.89	±	2.86	ac
		0-1440	25.98	±	0.01	ef	25.83	±	0.37	bd
	10	0-60	193.00	±	4.15	t	31.44	±	8.99	ab
		0-180	110.00	±	2.03	m	38.40	±	6.62	abc
		0-300	75.12	±	0.02	k	34.92	±	1.99	ab
		0-420	53.65	±	0.01	i	29.10	±	2.31	ab
		0-1440	15.65	±	0.00	bc	15.62	±	0.05	d

Table supplementary 6. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning elemental composition of dried *U. pseudorotundata* biomass before cultivation in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. Content of the parameters: carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and hydrogen (H) are presented as their percentage of alga biomass. C:N ratio was obtained from the measurements of %C and %N. Values are mean (± SD), n = 3. Letters represent statistical differences (*p* < 0.05, SNK).

Nutrient source	Nutrient's initial concentration (μmol L ⁻¹)	Biomass density (g L ⁻¹)	%C	%N	%H	C:N
N-NH ₄ ⁺	150	6	30.75 ± 0.76 b	2.51 ± 0.72 d	4.42 ± 0.08 e	14.47 ± 1.09 d
		10	36.09 ± 1.59 a	3.65 ± 0.85 abc	5.26 ± 0.28 ad	10.20 ± 2.13 abc
	300	6	33.21 ± 0.38 ab	3.08 ± 0.35 ad	4.84 ± 0.07 d	10.88 ± 1.19 bc
		10	34.96 ± 0.98 ab	3.27 ± 0.50 acd	5.13 ± 0.18 d	10.85 ± 1.61 bc
	500	6	36.50 ± 1.06 a	3.83 ± 0.20 abc	5.41 ± 0.09 abd	9.53 ± 0.23 ab
		10	33.45 ± 0.63 ab	2.76 ± 0.09 ad	4.95 ± 0.07 d	12.15 ± 0.59 c
N-NO ₃ ⁻	150	6	35.20 ± 3.20 a	3.85 ± 0.31 abc	6.26 ± 0.40 c	9.16 ± 0.61 ab
		10	35.57 ± 2.80 a	4.61 ± 0.59 b	5.84 ± 0.50 abc	7.76 ± 0.53 a
	300	6	33.87 ± 1.14 ab	3.81 ± 0.16 abc	6.01 ± 0.13 bc	8.90 ± 0.28 ab
		10	34.82 ± 1.62 ab	4.47 ± 0.32 b	5.80 ± 0.24 abc	7.81 ± 0.25 a
	500	6	32.10 ± 1.73 ab	3.76 ± 0.09 abc	5.67 ± 0.26 abc	8.54 ± 0.25 ab
		10	33.82 ± 0.11 ab	4.27 ± 0.12 bc	5.75 ± 0.11 abc	7.92 ± 0.24 a

Table supplementary 7. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning carbohydrate composition of dried *U. pseudorotundata* biomass before cultivation in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. Since ANOVA results did not indicated significant interaction between factors we represented the results for each factor: nitrogen sources, biomass densities, and nutrient initial concentrations. Values are mean (± SD), n = 3. Letters represent statistical differences (*p* < 0.05, SNK).

%Carb.				
N-source				
	NO ₃ ⁻	31.77	±	4.35 a
	NH ₄ ⁺	36.95	±	6.03 b
Nutrient's initial concentration (μmol L ⁻¹)				
	500	29.01	±	8.64 a
	300	34.53	±	7.98 b
	150	39.54	±	6.94 c
Biomass density (g L ⁻¹)				
	10	33.32	±	4.86 a
	6	35.40	±	6.60 b

Table supplementary 8. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning carbohydrate composition of dried *U. pseudorotundata* biomass at the end of experiment cultivated in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. Values are mean (± SD), n = 3. Letters represent statistical differences (*p* < 0.05, SNK).

Nutrient source	Biomass density (g L ⁻¹)	%Carb.		
		Mean	SD	Letter
N-NO ₃ ⁻	10	29.47	± 4.35	a
	6	29.59	± 6.45	a
N-NH ₄ ⁺	10	34.69	± 5.34	b
	6	38.97	± 6.42	c

Table supplementary 9. Results of the post hoc SNK test concerning protein composition of dried *U. pseudorotundata* biomass before cultivation in different combinations of nitrogen sources (N-NH₄⁺ and N-NO₃⁻), biomass densities (6 g L⁻¹ and 10 g L⁻¹), and nutrient initial concentrations: 150, 300, and 500 μmol L⁻¹. Values are mean (± SD), n = 3. Letters represent statistical differences (*p* < 0.05, SNK).

Nutrient source	Nutrient's initial concentration (μmol L ⁻¹)	Biomass density (g L ⁻¹)	%Prot.			
			Mean	SD	Mean	Letter
N-NH ₄ ⁺	150	6	13.70	± 3.92	d	
		10	19.92	± 4.62	abc	
	300	6	16.78	± 1.92	ad	
		10	17.82	± 2.72	acd	
	500	6	20.89	± 1.09	abc	
		10	15.03	± 0.51	ad	
N-NO ₃ ⁻	150	6	20.97	± 1.71	abc	
		10	25.12	± 3.24	b	
	300	6	20.75	± 0.89	abc	
		10	24.34	± 1.73	b	
	500	6	20.46	± 0.51	abc	
		10	23.29	± 0.63	bc	

Table supplementary 10. Values of Pearson correlations among the following parameters: NUR and NUE (60, 180, 300, 420 and 1440 min of experiment), ETR_{situ} (15 and 1440 min of experiment), ETR_{max} and F_v/F_m (15, 180, 420 and 1440 min of experiment), C:N ratio, percentage of carbohydrates and percentage of protein (initial and final times of the experiment).

	NUR 180min	NUR 300min	NUR 420min	NUR 1440min	NUE 60min	NUE 180min	NUE 300min	NUE 420min	NUE 1440min	ETR_{situ} 15min	ETR_{situ} 1440min	ETR_{max} 15min	ETR_{max} 180min	ETR_{max} 420min	ETR_{max} 1440	F_v/F_m 15min	F_v/F_m 180min	F_v/F_m 420min	F_v/F_m 1440min	C:N Initial	C:N Final	%Carb. Initial	%Carb. Final	%Prot. Initial	%Prot. Final	
NUR 60min	0.86 p=0.000	0.66 p=0.000	0.56 p=0.000	0.25 p=0.145	0.68 p=0.000	0.80 p=0.000	0.81 p=0.000	0.71 p=0.000	0.17 p=0.312	- p=0.085	- 0.79 0.000	0.80 p=0.000	0.46 p=0.005	0.53 p=0.001	0.46 p=0.005	0.16 p=0.366	0.51 p=0.001	0.05 p=0.768	0.33 p=0.050	0.68 p=0.000	0.86 p=0.000	0.26 p=0.126	0.33 p=0.047	- p=0.000	- p=0.000	
NUR 180min		0.94 p=0.000	0.89 p=0.000	0.63 p=0.000	0.25 p=0.146	0.47 p=0.004	0.62 p=0.000	0.59 p=0.000	0.39 p=0.018	- p=0.079	- 0.60 0.000	- 0.53 0.001	- p=0.179	- p=0.117	- p=0.203	0.32 p=0.058	0.47 p=0.004	0.13 p=0.434	0.07 p=0.668	0.46 p=0.005	0.71 p=0.000	- p=0.912	- p=0.938	- 0.48 0.003	- 0.53 0.001	
NUR 300min			0.99 p=0.000	0.79 p=0.000	- p=0.895	0.19 p=0.256	0.42 p=0.010	0.45 p=0.007	0.43 p=0.008	- p=0.132	- 0.39 0.020	- p=0.087	- p=0.755	- p=0.404	- p=0.797	- 0.39 0.020	- 0.42 0.011	- p=0.397	- p=0.569	0.24 p=0.166	0.51 p=0.002	- p=0.287	- p=0.352	- p=0.096	- 0.35 0.039	
NUR 420min				0.85 p=0.000	- p=0.459	0.08 p=0.637	0.32 p=0.057	0.36 p=0.030	0.45 p=0.006	- p=0.241	- 0.28 0.095	- p=0.289	- p=0.995	- p=0.630	- p=0.896	- 0.39 0.018	- 0.38 0.023	- p=0.391	- p=0.379	0.15 p=0.370	0.41 p=0.012	- p=0.137	- p=0.168	- p=0.208	- p=0.124	
NUR 1440min					0.38 p=0.024	- p=0.096	- p=0.400	- p=0.434	- 0.43 0.009	- p=0.159	- 0.10 0.576	- p=0.377	- p=0.734	- p=0.767	- p=0.122	- 0.35 0.035	- p=0.150	- p=0.475	- p=0.141	0.15 p=0.653	0.41 p=0.035	- p=0.357	- 0.58 0.000	- 0.56 0.000	- p=0.780	- p=0.886
NUE 60min						0.93 p=0.000	0.75 p=0.000	0.63 p=0.000	- p=0.487	- p=0.112	- 0.60 0.000	- 0.80 0.000	- 0.48 0.003	- 0.72 0.000	- 0.62 0.000	0.21 p=0.229	- p=0.161	0.20 p=0.253	0.61 p=0.000	0.64 p=0.000	0.61 p=0.000	0.52 p=0.001	0.63 p=0.000	- 0.57 0.000	- 0.64 0.000	

NUE 180min	0.91	0.83	0.07	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.12	-	0.10	0.57	0.72	0.71	0.56	0.63	-	-
	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.
	000	000	675	041	000	000	009	000	000	494	164	564	000	000	000	000	000	000	000
NUE 300min		0.97	0.22	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.03	-	0.03	0.46	0.64	0.70	0.53	0.58	-	-
		p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.
		0.00	203	000	000	000	p=0. 120	001	001	p=0. 846	p=0. 102	p=0. 851	004	000	000	001	000	000	000
NUE 420min			0.24	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.01	-	0.01	0.39	0.57	0.60	0.55	0.57	-	-
			p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.
			159	000	000	000	p=0. 309	007	003	p=0. 953	p=0. 202	p=0. 945	018	000	000	000	000	000	003
NUE 1440min			-	-	-	-	0.10	0.10	0.15	0.06	0.10	-	0.04	0.00	0.12	-	-	0.00	-
			0.01	0.02	0.02	0.10	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	0.24	0.30	0.00	0.04
			p=0. 964	p=0. 891	p=0. 895	p=0. 549	p=0. 580	p=0. 369	p=0. 747	p=0. 577	p=0. 809	p=0. 823	p=0. 991	p=0. 479	p=0. 162	p=0. 077	p=0. 998	p=0. 796	p=0.
ETR _{situ} 15min				0.48	0.34	-	0.02	0.05	0.30	0.09	0.21	0.05	0.04	-	-	-	-	0.09	0.16
				p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.
				003	044	p=0. 896	p=0. 754	p=0. 073	p=0. 612	p=0. 214	p=0. 789	p=0. 807	p=0. 273	p=0. 270	p=0. 020	p=0. 049	p=0. 618	p=0. 348	p=0.
ETR _{situ} 1440min					0.76	0.55	0.37	0.57	0.19	0.53	0.07	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.50	0.62
					p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.
					000	000	027	000	276	001	670	432	000	000	000	000	000	002	000
ETR _{max} 15min					0.54	0.66	0.49	0.03	0.40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.54	0.68
					p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.
					001	000	002	848	015	337	006	000	000	000	010	002	001	001	000
ETR _{max} 180min						0.47	0.24	0.01	0.34	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.32	0.35
						p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.	p=0.
						004	154	934	040	143	514	028	035	174	083	056	034	034	034
ETR _{max} 420min								0.27	0.06	0.38	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.34	0.46
										0.36	0.36	0.35	0.36	0.43	0.13	0.35			

ETR_{max}
1440min

F_v/F_m
15min

F_v/F_m
180min

F_v/F_m
420min

F_v/F_m
1440min

C:N
Initial

C:N
Final

%Carb.
Initial

p=0. 116	p=0. 707	p=0. 021	p=0. 033	p=0. 039	p=0. 031	p=0. 009	p=0. 434	p=0. 034	p=0. 041	p=0. 004
-	0.10	0.26	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.34	0.30
	p=0. 548	p=0. 122	p=0. 385	p=0. 192	p=0. 034	p=0. 041	p=0. 006	p=0. 003	p=0. 046	p=0. 077
		0.47	0.09	0.27	0.00	-	0.12	0.06	0.10	0.04
		p=0. 004	p=0. 612	p=0. 105	p=0. 994	p=0. 291	p=0. 487	p=0. 707	p=0. 560	p=0. 798
			-	0.07	-	-	-	-	0.15	0.35
			0.01	p=0. 957	p=0. 692	p=0. 601	p=0. 018	p=0. 558	p=0. 112	p=0. 391
					0.11	0.00	-	0.03	0.05	0.02
					p=0. 520	p=0. 988	p=0. 412	p=0. 875	p=0. 759	p=0. 893
						0.47	0.38	0.17	0.22	-
									0.41	0.40
					p=0. 004	p=0. 022	p=0. 329	p=0. 189	p=0. 012	p=0. 016
						0.75	0.47	0.48	-	-
									0.94	0.59
						p=0. 000	p=0. 004	p=0. 003	p=0. 000	p=0. 000
							0.26	0.29	-	-
							p=0. 132	p=0. 090	p=0. 000	p=0. 000
								0.87	-	-
								p=0. 000	p=0. 018	p=0. 048

%Carb.
Final

-	-
0.41	0.34
p=0.	p=0.
014	042

%Prot.
Initial

0.57
p=0.
000

CAPÍTULO 2

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Growth, biofiltration and photosynthetic performance of *Ulva* spp. cultivated in fishpond effluents: an outdoor study

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1. ABSTRACT

Anthropogenic impacts on water resources, especially by nutrient discharge, is a worldwide problem in marine coastal areas. In this context, seaweed cultivation in aquaculture wastewater can be considered as an alternative for effluent mitigation, where the biomass becomes a source of valuable compounds. The current study examined the potential use of the seaweeds *Ulva pseudorotundata* and *Ulva rigida* to remove nutrients to treat effluents from the culture of *Chelon labrosus*. Two experiments were conducted under pilot-scale conditions to evaluate the nutrient uptake, photosynthetic activity, and biomass production of the seaweed species cultivated under 50 and 100% effluent concentrations. Photosynthetic parameters were determined by *in vivo* chlorophyll *a* fluorescence associated to photosystem II 3 times a day to estimate photosynthetic performance and seaweed physiology throughout the experiment: optimal quantum yield (F_v/F_m), *in situ* and *ex situ* electron transport rate (ETR), photosynthetic efficiency (α_{ETR}), saturation irradiance (E_k), and the maximum non-photochemical quenching (NPQ_{max}). To evaluate seaweed metabolism and biomass compounds, elemental and biochemical composition were analyzed in the beginning and end of each experiment. Results regarding the nutrient source showed that both species removed more than 65% of ammonium after 3 hours of experimentation. At the end of the experiments, up to 94.8% of the initial ammonium was sequestered from the effluent. Additionally, after 5 days of cultivation under 50% fish effluent both *Ulva* species were able to remove more than 85% of the nitrate. Although a decrease in uptake efficiency was observed in cultures with 100% fish effluent, at the end of the experiment more than 440 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of nitrate was removed, considering all treatment conditions. The biomass values showed that growth rates of seaweed cultivated in 100% effluent were higher than those obtained in 50% effluent. Moreover, when cultivated in the 100% effluent concentration, a significant increment in protein content was detected in both *Ulva* species. Our results contribute to the understanding of biofiltration and photosynthetic performance of two different *Ulva* species in order to improve growth optimization, enhancement of biofiltration capacity and also to boost management practices of seaweed cultivation in aquaculture effluent treatment systems.

Keywords

Aquaculture, biofiltration, *in vivo* chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence, nitrogen, photosynthesis, *Ulva pseudorotundata*, *Ulva rigida*.

2. INTRODUCTION

Eutrophication and the exploitation of natural resources resulting from anthropogenic activity have drastically modified marine coastal areas in the past few decades (LOTZE et al., 2006; SMITH; TILMAN; NEKOLA, 1999). Furthermore, climate change is a threat to marine ecosystems, which is an emerging concern for coastal and ocean resilience. According to the United Nations Decade of Ocean Science for Sustainable Development (2021-2030) (UNESCO, 2018), political strategy and scientific knowledge will be required in the coming years in order to mitigate risk and develop sustainable practices. Hence, the search for innovative technologies that promote structural transformation and sustainable solutions is imperative, aiming to reduce the impact of economic activities on natural resources. The algal industry is an emerging sector that can be exploited in terms of blue bioeconomy, since it holds a very high potential from an economic, social and environmental perspective (ARAÚJO et al., 2021). Algae production also plays an important role in ecosystem services and has the potential to mitigate climate change by reducing carbon emissions (FROEHLICH et al., 2019). The diversity of micro- and macroalgae (or seaweed) represents a source of a vast number of valuable compounds, which can be applied to biotechnological approaches in the cosmeceutical, pharmaceutical, agricultural and food industries (BUSCHMANN et al., 2017a; JUSADI et al., 2021; VEGA et al., 2021)

According to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO, 2020), world algae aquaculture production has increased over the years, reaching 32.4 million tons of biomass in 2018, which is dominated by seaweeds. Much of the productivity is still limited to countries in Eastern and Southeastern Asia, however, as bioeconomic development grows worldwide, seaweed farming is gaining attention, especially in European countries. Many different technologies have been developed to produce seaweed, and their incorporation in fish, crustacean, and mollusc farms is growing as well. Integrating Multi-Trophic Aquaculture (IMTA) systems consists of the coupling of seaweed production with mariculture waste waters, which decreases the amount of inorganic nutrients in the discharge effluent. IMTA systems are considered an eco-friendly practice since they reduce the impact of the aquaculture industry and increase the overall profitability of fish production through the cultivation of algal biomass which can be applied in different economic sectors (CHOPIN et al., 2001; NEORI et al., 2004; SHPIGEL et al., 1993). When practiced inland, IMTA systems require a deep understanding of broad concepts such as: systems design and scale, seaweed

biomass quality and value, and how to improve the efficiency of algae species to absorb and remove nutrients from mariculture waste. Seaweed culture conditions (e.g. depth, light, stocking density, water turnover rates) and specific properties of the seaweed species (e.g. biology and physiology) are the main factors contributing to the nutrient reduction efficiency and uptake rate. Moreover, understanding 1) how seaweed biofiltering performance changes over diurnal and seasonal cycles, 2) which local seaweed strains/species can perform better in biofiltering effluents, and 3) what factors, other than light and nutrients, may narrow seaweed production, is also important for the successful implementation of integrated aquaculture systems (TROELL et al., 2003). Thus, great efforts are made to understand algal physiology in order to improve growth optimization, upscaling of production volumes, enhancement of biofiltration capacity, and management practices of seaweed cultivation in aquaculture effluent treatment systems.

The green macroalgae genus *Ulva* is one of the most studied seaweeds for its use as a biofilter of dissolved nutrients from mariculture effluents. *Ulva* has a worldwide distribution, with 131 taxonomically recognized species (GUIRY et al., 2014), playing an important ecological role in marine nutrient cycling and provisioning a source of food and habitat for a diversity of species. *Ulva* spp. are frequently associated with the formation of massive algal aggregations denominated “green tides”, commonly in eutrophicated areas where elevated nutrient levels in seawater are observed (LIU et al., 2013; SMETACEK; ZINGONE, 2013; YE et al., 2011). Fast growth rates, phenotypic plasticity, the ability to rapidly remove nutrients, and the potential for various biomass applications make these robust seaweeds stand out for cultivation in onshore and offshore systems (GUTTMAN et al., 2018; NEORI et al., 2003; STEINHAGEN et al., 2022). Many studies demonstrate the efficiency of using *Ulva* spp. as a biofilter of fish effluents since it rapidly absorbs organic and inorganic nutrients, especially ammonium (BEN-ARI et al., 2014; COHEN; NEORI, 1991; DEL RÍO; RAMAZANOV; GARCÍA-REINA, 1996; NARDELLI et al., 2019). Under outdoor conditions, the efficiency of ammonia removal by *Ulva* in IMTA systems may reach more than 80%, which greatly improves the quality of mariculture effluents (AL-HAFEDH; ALAM; BUSCHMANN, 2014; COPERTINO; TORMENA; SEELIGER, 2009; MACCHIAVELLO; BULBOA, 2014). Moreover, dried *Ulva* spp. biomass can contain up to 40% protein (SHAHAR et al., 2020; SHPIGEL et al., 2019), and is a source of cell wall polysaccharides that are sought after for biotechnology applications (KIDGELL et al., 2019a). In this context, *Ulva* spp. can act as bioremediators by extracting

waste nutrients from mariculture effluents and converting them into biomass that may be beneficial as a source of raw material. Nonetheless, nutrient uptake performance and growth rate can vary among species, depending on local environmental conditions (photoperiod and temperature) and the characteristics of the cropping system (nutrient loads, salinity, turbidity) which can affect the biofiltration performance and the cultivation biochemical composition.

Ulva species have also been used as a model organism in ecophysiology studies where relationships between photosynthesis and chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence have been explored (CRUCES et al., 2019; OSMOND et al., 1993). Photosynthesis assessments of *Ulva* spp. using Pulse Amplitude Modulation (PAM) of chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence has allowed inferences about the process of photoinhibition and the triggering of photoinhibitory damage and photoprotection mechanisms. Cruces et al. (2019) evaluated the photosynthetic performance of *U. rigida* using PAM and were able to quantify electron transport rates and aspects of photoinhibition in response to diurnal changes in solar radiation. Electron transport rates measured by PAM can also vary with nitrate concentration. Cabello-Pasini and Figueroa (2005) demonstrated that the maximum rate of electron transport (ETR_{max}) of *U. rigida* increased with the increase of nitrate in the medium. Figueroa et al. (2020) conducted experiments with *U. rigida* cultivated under predicted values of pCO₂, nutrient enrichment and temperature that showed multiple aspects of photosynthetic parameters obtained by PAM measurements and provided information about the physiological impacts of future global changes.

Researches with other seaweed species showed that PAM was a useful tool to evaluate photosynthetic responses of seaweed cultured under multiple factors such as irradiance (FIGUEROA et al., 2006; KANG et al., 2008b; MATA et al., 2006), temperature (FIGUEROA et al., 2009b), system aeration (FIGUEROA et al., 2006), and different nitrogen sources (SHAHAR et al., 2020). Understanding photosynthesis and the biofiltration process can help to improve aspects of IMTA cropping systems. In the present study, two seaweed species naturally occurring in the Mediterranean and with potential for use in biofiltration (*U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida*) were evaluated for their (1) ability to remove dissolved inorganic nutrients (NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ and PO₄³⁻), (2) photosynthetic performance, (3) biomass productivity, and (4) biomass elemental and biochemical composition. The experiments were carried out on a land-based pilot scale using fishpond effluents at two different concentrations. The main objective was to compare and parameterize the two species for use in biofiltration processes associated with IMTA systems.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Algal material collection and culture conditions

The *Ulva* species used in this study were collected in two different places: in the bay of Cádiz (36°30'N, 6°10'W), where specimens were collected from salt marsh areas, and in the bay of Málaga (36°42'N, 4°19'W), where *Ulva* sp. specimens were collected fixed to rocky intertidal shores, both situated in Andalusia, Spain (**Figure 1**). The algae were transported to the Grice Hutchinson Research Center at Malaga University where the experiments were conducted. After collection, small pieces of algal material were separated for species-level identification using molecular methods. Clean and healthy fronds of *Ulva* were maintained in rectangular tanks (200 L; 1 m² surface area and 50 cm depth) and exposed to full solar radiation in which air diffusers situated at the bottom of each tank kept the algae unattached and suspended. Prior to the experiments, seaweed biomass was grown in artificial seawater and supplemented twice a week with NH₄Cl (300 µmol L⁻¹), KNO₃ (300 µmol L⁻¹) and KH₂PO₄ (48 µmol L⁻¹). The salinity and pH of the seawater were 35 and 8.0, respectively.

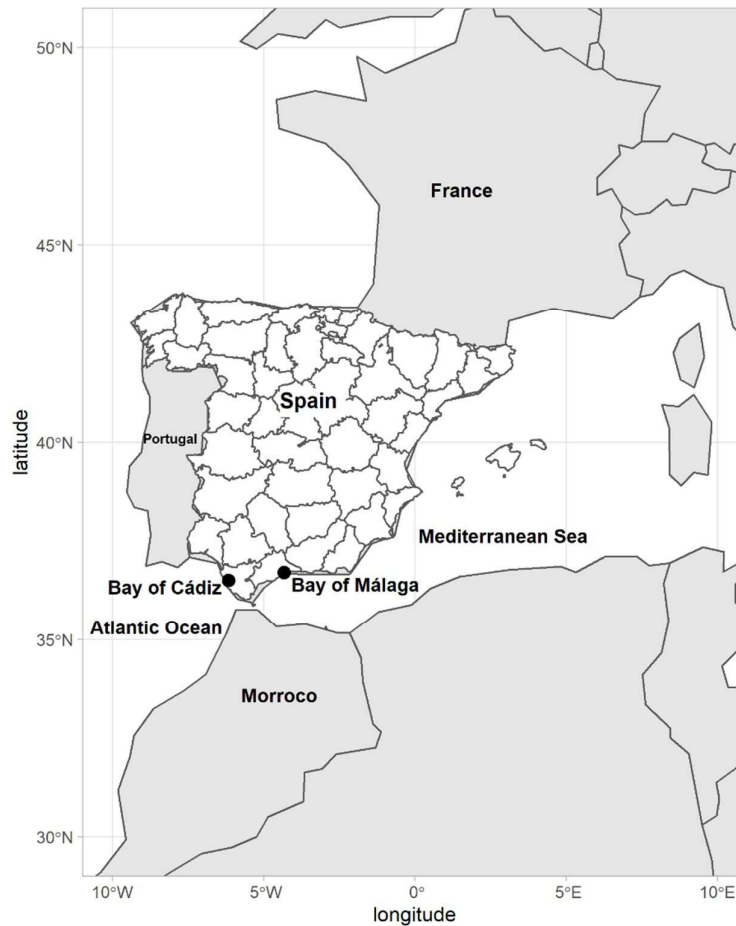


Figure 1. Map of Spain indicating the sites sampled in the present study.

Species-level identification and phylogenetic analysis

Algal samples were dried in silica-gel and submitted to DNA extraction, amplification, sequencing, and identification. The large subunit of the plastid-encoded Ribulose Bisphosphate Carboxylase-Oxygenase (RuBisCO) gene region (*rbcL*) was amplified in a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using published primer pairs SHF1 (CCGTTTAACTTATTACACGCC) and SHR4 (TTACATCACCACCTTCAGATGC) (HEESCH et al., 2009). The following were added to each sample: 0.25 μ l of Taq DNA polymerase (5u/ μ l) (Qiagen), 2.5 μ l of CoralLoad PCR Buffer, 2.5 μ l of dNTPS (2mM), 5 μ l of Q-solution, 3.5 μ l MgCl (2 μ l for H3) (25mM), 1 μ l of each primer (10 μ M), 2 μ l of total DNA, and 7.25u of MiliQ water, leading to a final volume of 25 μ l. PCR proceeded as follows: denaturation at 94°C for 3 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of 94°C for 1 minute and 30 seconds of denaturation, 37°C for 2 minutes for annealing step,

and then 72°C for 3 minutes for final extension. The strings were aligned and edited in Geneious 10.0.9. The species identification was carried out through BLASTn and compared in the GenBank database.

The evolutionary history was inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method and Kimura 2-parameter model (KIMURA, 1980). The bootstrap consensus tree inferred from 1000 replicates (FELSENSTEIN, 1985) was taken to represent the evolutionary history of the taxa analyzed. Branches corresponding to partitions reproduced in less than 50% bootstrap replicates were collapsed. Initial tree(s) for the heuristic search were obtained by applying the Neighbor-Joining method to a matrix of pairwise distances estimated using the Maximum Composite Likelihood (MCL) approach. A discrete Gamma distribution was used to model evolutionary rate differences among sites (5 categories (+G, parameter = 0.1073)). The rate variation model allowed for some sites to be evolutionarily invariable ([+I], 45.04% sites). This analysis involved 19 nucleotide sequences. There were a total of 675 positions in the final dataset. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA11 (TAMURA; STECHER; KUMAR, 2021).

Experimental design

To assess the biofiltration capacity of the seaweed, two consecutive experiments were conducted using effluents from the cultivation of *Chelon labrosus* (Osteichthyes, Mugilidae). The fish effluent was obtained from a closed recirculating water system connected to a filter with chemoautotrophic nitrifying bacteria. Chemical composition of the effluents was characterized prior to experiments by ion chromatography (METROHM 863 Compact IC Autosampler). The first experiment was performed during 5 days using an effluent diluted to 50% with tap water. For the second one, we used pure effluent and it lasted 4 days. At the beginning of each experiment, *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* biomass was weighed at initial stocking densities of 6.0 g FW L⁻¹ (n = 3). These seaweed stocking densities were established based on previous studies of *U. lactuca* cultivated in abalone culture effluent which demonstrated high uptake efficiency in removing NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, and PO₄³⁻ (MACCHIAVELLO; BULBOA, 2014). Both experiments started at 1:00 pm (local time) and the algae were kept without nutrients before the beginning of the experiments to provide starvation conditions. During experiments, pH, dissolved oxygen, and salinity were measured daily using portable devices (LAQUAact PH110, HANNA Instruments) (Table S1). Temperature and Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR, λ = 400-700 nm) were recorded every 15 minutes

from HOBO data loggers (Zippo-HOBO U12, SQ-212 PAR) installed in one of the tanks. Integrated daily irradiance (kJ m^{-2}) was calculated from PAR data to obtain total light energy received by cultures during the experiment.

Biofiltration capacity

To evaluate the nutrient removal performance of the algae, water samples were obtained from each tank three times a day for N-NO_3^- analysis (morning 8:00 - 9:00, noon 12:00 - 13:00 and evening 16:00 - 17:00); and once a day for NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-} analysis (evening 16:00 - 17:00), except the first day, when samples were taken at 13:00 and 16:00. Aliquots of 10 mL were filtered (GF/F Whatman) and stored at -20°C in polyethylene flasks for further analysis using a segmented flow analyzer (SFA; Seal Analytical autoanalyzer QuAAtro) according to the methods described by (GRASSHOFF; KREMLING; EHRHARDT, 1999).

Nutrient uptake efficiency (NUE) was calculated as:

$$\text{NUE (\%)} = 100 - \left[\left(\frac{C_{t+1} \times 100}{C_t} \right) \right]$$

where C_t represents the initial concentration of nutrients, C_{t+1} represents the concentration of nutrients after t+1. The nutrient uptake rate (NUR), which represents the amount of nutrients removed per unit of time, per volume, per unit of seaweed dry weight, was determined from changes in nutrient concentrations according to the following equation:

$$\text{NUR } (\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}) = \frac{(C_t \times V_t) - (C_{t+1} \times V_{t+1})}{B \times \Delta_t}$$

where C_t represents the initial concentration of nutrients, V_t represents the initial volume of water (in L), C_{t+1} represents the concentration of nutrients after t+1, V_{t+1} represents the volume of water after t+1 (in L), B represents the dry biomass used (in grams), and Δ_t represents the time interval between t and t+1 (in hours).

Photosynthetic performance

Photosynthetic performance was assessed at the same time points as nitrate sampling described above by *in vivo* chlorophyll-a fluorescence of Photosystem II (PSII) measured *in situ* and *ex situ*. Measurements *in situ* were conducted using a Pocket-PAM (Gademann

Instruments, Würzburg, Germany) on five algal samples from each tank to obtain the effective quantum yield of PSII ($\Delta F/F_m'$) using the equation:

$$\frac{\Delta F}{F_m'} = \frac{(F_m' - F_t)}{F_m'}$$

where F_m' is the maximum fluorescence in light, induced by a saturating pulse, and F_t , the basal fluorescence emitted by an organism pre-acclimated to light conditions. The data of $\Delta F/F_m'$ obtained was used to calculate the Electron Transport Rate (ETR_{situ}) associated with PSII according to Genty et al. (1989):

$$ETR_{\text{situ}} (\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}) = \frac{\Delta F}{F_m'} \times E_{\text{PAR}} \times A \times F_{\text{II}}$$

where $\Delta F/F_m'$ is the effective quantum yield of PSII, E_{PAR} is the PAR ($\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) obtained by HOBO at the same time of the measurements, A was the absorbance of the algal thallus, and F_{II} was a constant that represents the fraction of cellular chlorophyll a associated with the light harvesting complex of PSII being 0.5 the value for green algae (FIGUEROA; CONDE-ALVAREZ; GOMEZ, 2003). Absorbance of the algal thallus was calculated according to (FIGUEROA et al., 2009b) as follows:

$$A = 1 - \frac{E_t}{E_o}$$

where E_o is the incident irradiance of a lamp determined by a sensor Li-189 (LI-COR Ltd, Nebraska, USA) connected to a radiometer Li-250 (LI-COR Ltd, Nebraska, USA), and E_t is the transmitted irradiance, measured by placing a small piece of the thallus above the PAR sensor.

Ex situ measurements consisted of rapid light-response curves (RLC), which were obtained using a Junior PAM (Walz GmbH, Effeltrich Germany) connected to a PC running WinControl software. Algal samples were transported under dark conditions from the outdoor tanks to the laboratory. After dark-adapted for at least 15 min, the maximum quantum yield of PSII F_v/F_m was obtained from the first saturating pulse and determined by the equation:

$$\frac{F_v}{F_m} = \frac{(F_m - F_0)}{F_0}$$

where F_0 is the initial fluorescence of PSII (intrinsic fluorescence from the antenna of fully oxidized PSII); F_m is the maximum fluorescence of PSII after a saturating light pulse (0.4 s, approx. 9000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), and F_v is the variable fluorescence corresponding to the difference between F_m and F_0 . Afterwards, to estimate the electron transport rate (ETR), the same samples were exposed for 30s to twelve increasing irradiances (25, 45, 66, 90, 125, 190, 285, 420, 625, 845, 1150, and 1500 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) of actinic blue light, each one followed by a saturating blue light pulse. ETRs were calculated as previously described and plotted against the actinic light intensities generating light curves that were fitted according to the Eilers and Peeters (1988) model to obtain photosynthetic parameters (ETR_{max} , α_{ETR} , and E_k) in which ETR_{max} represents the maximum electron transport rates, α_{ETR} is the algal photosynthetic efficiency and E_k saturation irradiance for the photosynthetic electron transport. Non-photochemical quenching (NPQ), which corresponds to the total energy dissipation, was calculated after each saturating pulse during the RLCs, and NPQ *versus* irradiance relationships were determined. Curves were then fitted using Eilers and Peeters (1988) models, allowing the calculation of maximum NPQ values (NPQ_{max}). All rapid light curves were fitted using the statistical environment R, version 4.2 (The R Development Core Team, 2022).

Biomass growth and composition

Growth rate, biomass productivity (also known as biomass yield), and biochemical composition were measured from the biomass obtained at the beginning and at the end of the experiments. Growth rates (GR) were calculated according to Lignell and Pedersén (1989):

$$\text{GR (\% day}^{-1}\text{)} = \left[\left(\frac{W_t}{W_i} \right)^{\frac{1}{t}} - 1 \right] \times 100$$

where W_i = initial wet weight, W_t = wet weight after t days and t = days of cultivation. The productivity of the tanks was calculated according to (MATA et al., 2003):

$$\text{Productivity (g DW m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{\left[\frac{(W_t - W_i)}{t \left(\frac{F_w}{D_w} \right)} \right]}{A}$$

where, W_t = wet weight after t days, W_i = initial wet weight, t = the number of days, (FW/DW) is the fresh weight/dry weight ratio, and A is the area covered by the tank in m^2 . To obtain the fresh weight/dry weight ratio, ten samples of ~ 3 g were dried to constant weight at $60^\circ C$ (48–72 h). Triplicate seaweed samples of each tank (~ 5 g FW) were taken at the beginning and end of the experiments, washed with MiliQ-water to remove salt and freeze-dried for 48h (Telstar Lyoquest-55) for tissue biochemical analysis. 2 mg of dried biomass were submitted for carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen content analyses using a LECO CHNS-932 elemental analyser (Michigan, USA). C, H and N values were expressed as percentage of dry weight and the C:N ratio was determined.

The daily N content of the produced biomass was also used as an estimate of the biofiltration capacity, being calculated by multiplying the biomass yield by the N content of the seaweeds (MATA; SCHUENHOFF; SANTOS, 2010). Total protein content was estimated according to Shuuluka et al., (2013) by multiplying the total N by a factor of 5.45. Chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*), chlorophyll *b* (Chl *b*) and total carotenoids (Car) were extracted from samples of the *Ulva* spp. thalli (10-15 mg DW) by incubating them in 5-10 mL of acetone 90% + $C_4Mg_4O_{12}$ for 12 h in the dark at $4^\circ C$ and then centrifuging for 15 min at $4^\circ C$ and 5000 rpm. Subsequently, the absorbances were measured photometrically at 480, 647, 664, and 750 nm (UV-2600 Shimadzu). The contents of Chl *a*, Chl *b*, and Car ($mg\ g^{-1}$ DW) were calculated according to Ritchie (2006) and Parsons and Strickland (1963), respectively.

Statistical analyses

The averages of integrated daily irradiance and temperature were analyzed to compare experiment 1 and 2 by a test of independent samples (t -student) using the STATISTICA 12 software (StatSoft, Inc. 2011). We tested the effect of effluent (two levels), species identity (two levels), hour (five levels), day (five levels) and their interaction on nutrient concentrations (NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-}), algal biofiltration capacity (NUE and NUR), photosynthetic performance (F_v/F_m , ETR_{situ} , ETR_{max}), biomass growth (growth rate, productivity, N uptake) and composition (hydrogen, nitrogen, carbon, C:N ratio, protein, Chl *a*, Chl *b*, carotenoids) using analyses of variance (ANOVA) with permutation tests, as implemented in the ‘lmPerm’ package in R (Wheeler, 2016). We chose permutational methods since they are suitable when sample sizes are small and do not make assumptions about normal distribution. Permutation analysis randomizes the data set while retaining the data structure to generate all possible

permutations of the values obtained in the experiment. Then, the p -value is obtained comparing each permuted data set to the raw data set to assess whether the treatment effects are the same or greater. When the null hypothesis was rejected after ANOVA, we followed with Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests for multiple pairwise comparisons.

First, to test for changes in nutrient concentration during the experiment, days (between-group), hours (within-group), species identity (within-group) and their interaction were used as independent variables in a three-way ANOVA, where NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-} were used as response variables in each model. Second, to test for differences in the performance of nutrient removal between algal species during the experiment, days (between-group), species identity (within-group), and their interaction were used as predictors in a two-way ANOVA, whereas NUE and NUR were used as response variables in each model. Then, to test for differences in the photosynthetic performance between algal species during the experiment, days (between-group), hours (within-group), species identity (within-group) and their interaction were used as independent variables in a three-way ANOVA, where F_v/F_m , ETR_{situ} , ETR_{max} were used as response variables in each model. Finally, to test for differences in the biomass growth and composition between algal species and effluent concentration, effluent (between-group), species identity (within-group) and their interaction were used as independent variables in a two-way ANOVA, where growth rate, productivity, N uptake, hydrogen, nitrogen, carbon, C:N ratio, protein, Chl *a*, Chl *b* and carotenoids were used as response variables in each model.

Spearman's correlation analyses were performed to measure the strength and direction of associations among chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence parameters (ETR_{situ} , F_v/F_m , ETR_{max} , α_{ETR} , E_k , and NPQ_{max}), and algal nitrate biofiltration capacity (NUE and NUR) using the function *ggpairs* from the 'GGally' package (Schloerke et al., 2021). We used non-parametric statistics since no normal distribution was found (p -value > 0.05; Shapiro test).

Multiple linear models with permutation tests were performed using the 'lmPerm' package in R (Wheeler, 2016) to assess the relationship between nutrient uptake efficiency (NUE) and photosynthetic performance. The variables used as predictors in the models were F_v/F_m , α_{ETR} , E_k , ETR_{max} , NPQ_{max} , and ETR_{situ} . Only significant (p -value < 0.05) predictors were retained in the model (α_{ETR} , NPQ_{max} , and ETR_{situ}). Then, we used simple linear models to assess the relationship between each predictor and NUE. The adjusted coefficient of determination (adjusted- R^2) was used to examine the fraction of the explained variance by the model.

Statistical analyses described above were performed in the R statistical software version 4.2.0 (R Core Team 2022).

4. RESULTS

Molecular identification

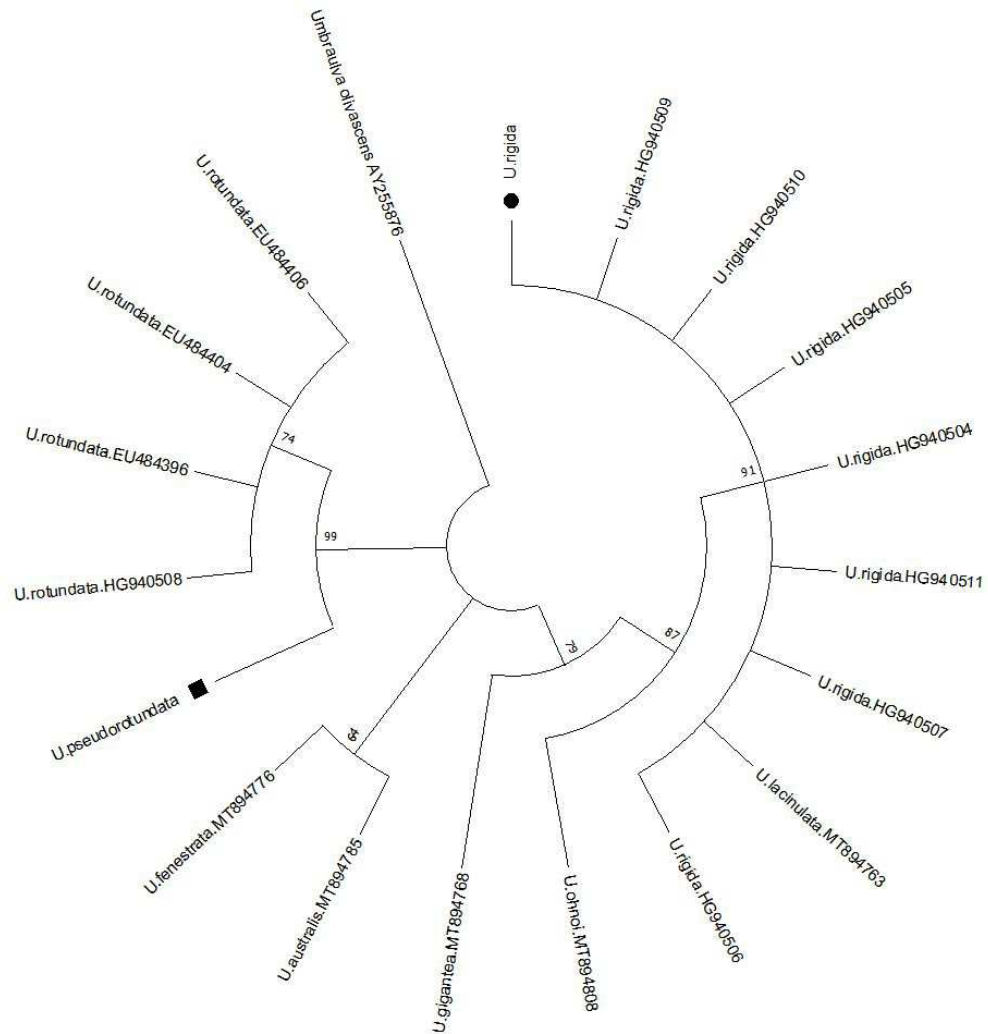


Figure 2. *Ulva* species identification utilized in this study. Molecular identification of algal material, considering a phylogenetic tree obtained by RbcL sequences (SHF1 and SHR4 markers). ■ *U. pseudorotundata*; ● *U. rigida*.

Ulva specimens collected from the Spanish Mediterranean coast were identified as *Ulva pseudorotundata*, from the bay of Cádiz, and *Ulva rigida*, from the bay of Málaga (Figure 2). Alignment of rbcL DNA sequences obtained from algal samples showed a monophyletic

clade for each species in a phylogenetic tree with the sequences found in GenBank for *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Sequences obtained from *U. pseudorotundata* were grouped in the same clade as *U. rotundata* collected from Ireland (LOUGHNANE et al., 2008; WAN et al., 2017) and, according to Guiry et al., (2014), could be considered as the same species since the specific epithet *rotundata* it's not usual anymore.

Cultivation conditions

The concentration of the main ions presented in *Chelon labrosus* effluents used as culture media for the algae are presented in **Table 1**. Clearly the dominant nitrogen form in the effluents was NO_3^- . Low values of NH_4^+ were detected since the subsequent oxidation of this nutrient was carried out by chemoautotrophic nitrifying bacteria in the fishing system cultivation. The N:P molar ratios were approximately 12 for both effluents, which is about half the typical value for the main algal culture media used (e.g. F/2 and von Stosch; Andersen, 2005).

Table 1. Chemical composition of *Chelons labrosus* effluent used in experiment 1 (50% fish effluent) and experiment 2 (100% fish effluent) for *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* cultivation. Concentration ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) values are mean \pm SD, n = 2.

Inorganic nutrients	[Cl ⁻]	[NO ₃ ⁻]	[PO ₄ ³⁻]	[SO ₄ ²⁻]	[Na ⁺]	[NH ₄ ⁺]	[K ⁺]	[Ca ²⁺]
Exp. 1	15138.85 \pm 2240.62	1671.7 \pm 25.59	153.58 \pm 7.70	699.02 \pm 40.93	14099.50 \pm 2181.60	157.4 \pm 8.04	342 \pm 38.07	496.4 \pm 136.61
Exp. 2	15760 \pm 192.92	1578.73 \pm 15.39	148.1 \pm 0.85	764.3 \pm 21.29	14937.67 \pm 303.28	237.58 \pm 0.10	377.24 \pm 2.88	831.43 \pm 111.13

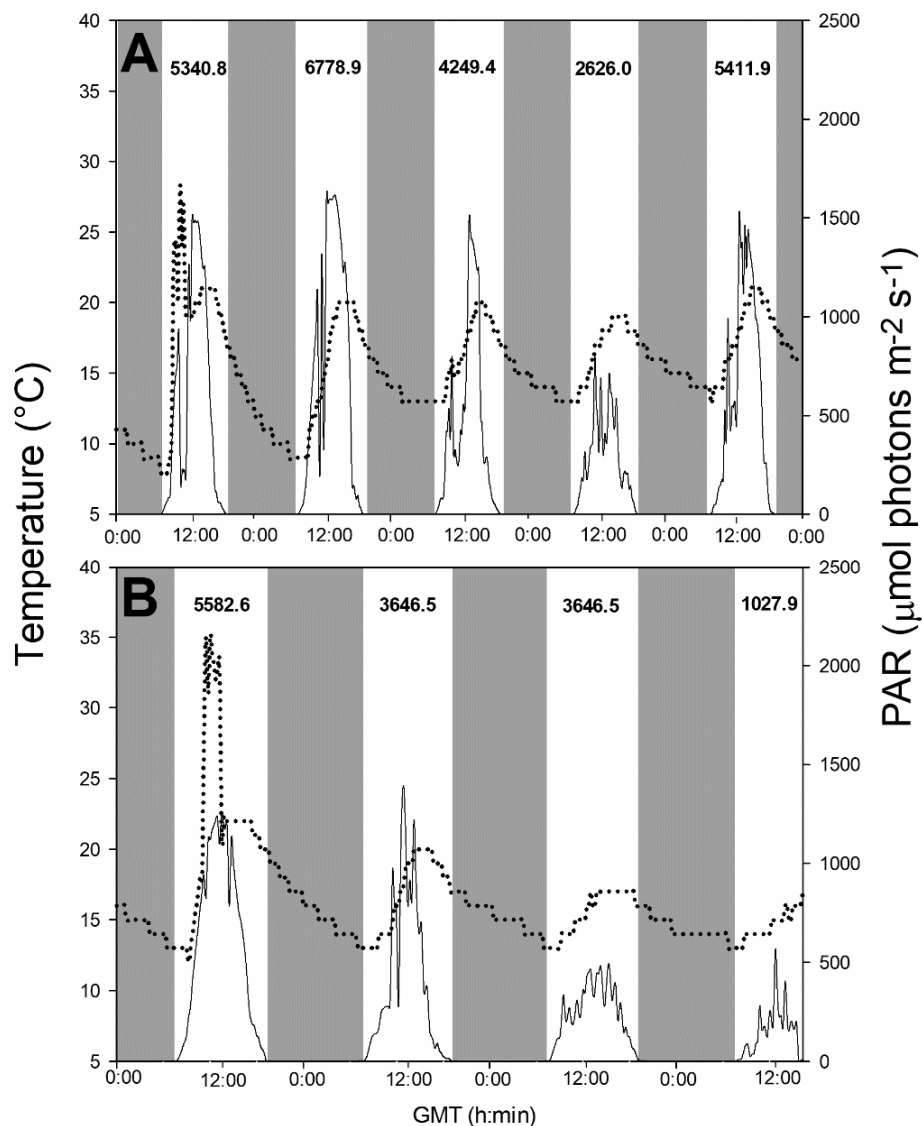


Figure 3. Variation in temperature (°C, dotted line) and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR, μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, solid line) data during the experimental cultivation period of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* in fish effluents. (A) daily temperature and daily solar irradiance for experiment 1 (50% fish effluent) and (B) daily temperature and daily solar irradiance for experiment 2 (100% fish effluent). PAR: λ = 400-700 nm. Gray areas correspond to dark periods. The integrated daily irradiance values (kJ m⁻²) are displayed at the top of the graphs.

Temperature, PAR and daily integrated irradiance obtained from algal tanks during experiments 1 and 2 are presented in **Figure 3**. Temperature and PAR clearly presented daily patterns of low values in the mornings and evenings and higher values at noon. For experiment 1, daily mean values of irradiance varied from 289.88 to 748.29 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ during the experimental period and temperature ranged

from 8.0 to 28.0 °C (**Figure 3A**). For experiment 2, the irradiance oscillated from 149.15 to 603.13 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and temperature from 12.0 to 35.0 °C (**Figure 3B**). No significant differences were observed between the two experiments when comparing the average values of integrated daily irradiance (*t*-student, $t(7) = 1.526$, $p = 0.17$). The same was observed when comparing the averages of daily temperatures (*t*-student, $t(7) = -0.745$, $p = 0.48$).

Biofiltration performance

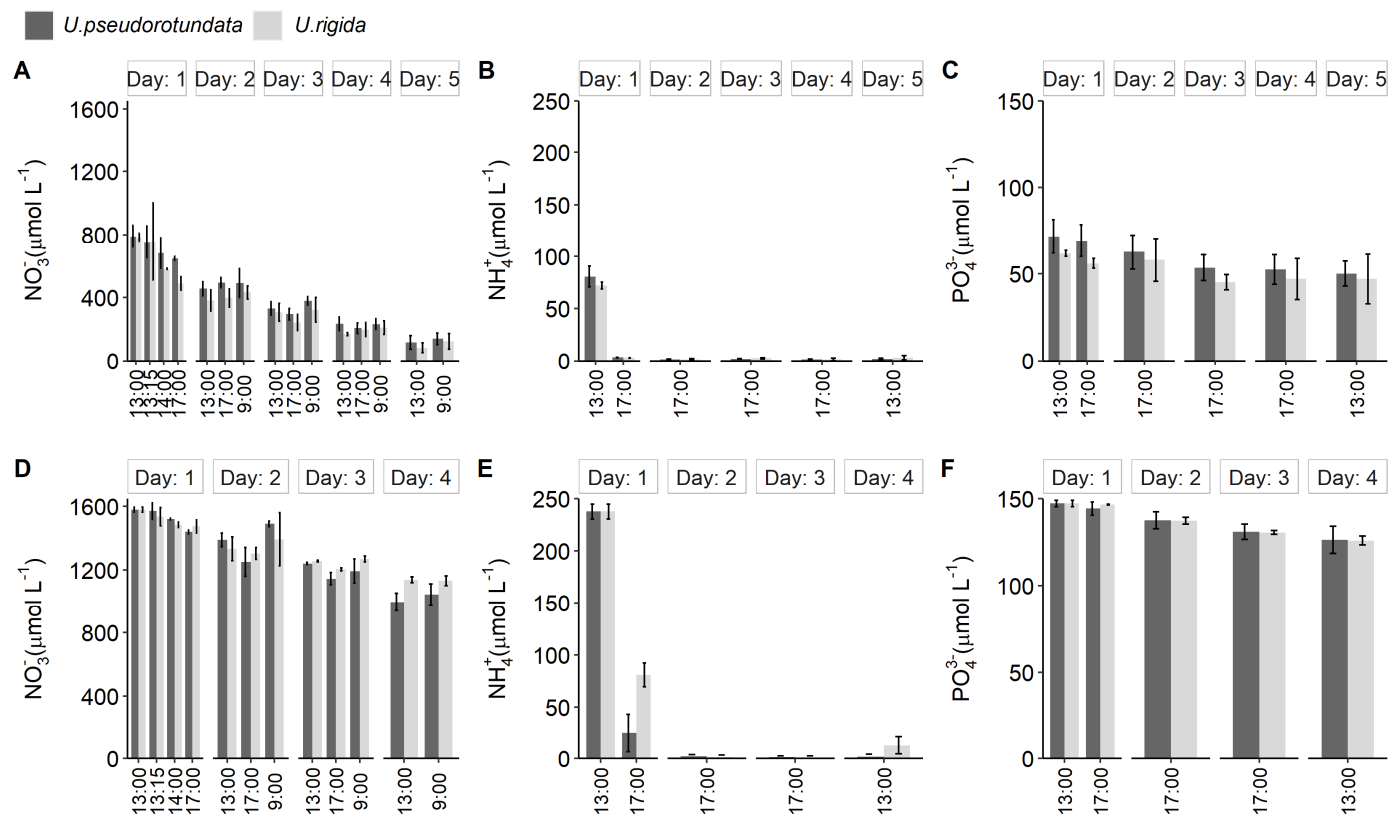


Figure 4. Changes in concentrations of NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , and PO_4^{3-} ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) during the experimental cultivation of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida*. A, B and C refer to experiment 1, conducted during 5 days with 50% fish effluent. D, E and F refer to experiment 2, conducted during 4 days with 100% fish effluent. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 3.

Both *Ulva* species showed similar capacity for the removal of NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , and PO_4^{3-} when cultivated in *C. labrosus* fishpond effluents (**Figure 4**) and significantly reduced concentrations of these nutrients over time in the two experimental conditions (Table S2). Considering NO_3^- , at the end of experiment 1 *U. pseudorotundata* reached a removal of $672.0 \pm 86.2 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ while *U. rigida* removed $700.6 \pm 28.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, but there was no statistical difference between the performances of the two species throughout the experiment (**Figure 4A**, ANOVA: $F(1) = 6073.0$, $p = 0.134$, Table S2). In experiment 2, cultivated with 100% effluent, *U. pseudorotundata* removed about $582.8 \pm 41.8 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ while *U. rigida* was responsible for the reduction of $441.3 \pm 26.5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ from water, with no significant differences between the two species on the last day (**Figure 4D**, Tukey post hoc test, $p = 1.0$).

NH_4^+ removal was fast and efficient for the two species in both experiments. In experiment 1 both species removed more than 95% of NH_4^+ in just 3 hours, reaching $78.7 \pm 9.7 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for *U. pseudorotundata* and $69.0 \pm 4.9 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for *U. rigida* (Figure 4B). A sharp decline was also observed in experiment 2 (**Figure 4E**), leading to a final removal of $225.1 \pm 5.6 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for *U. rigida* and $236.0 \pm 8.6 \text{ SD } \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for *U. pseudorotundata*. The removal of PO_4^{3-} was less pronounced than the nitrogen sources, both species being equally efficient at removing about $20 \pm 3.3 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in both experiments (**Figures 4C,F**).

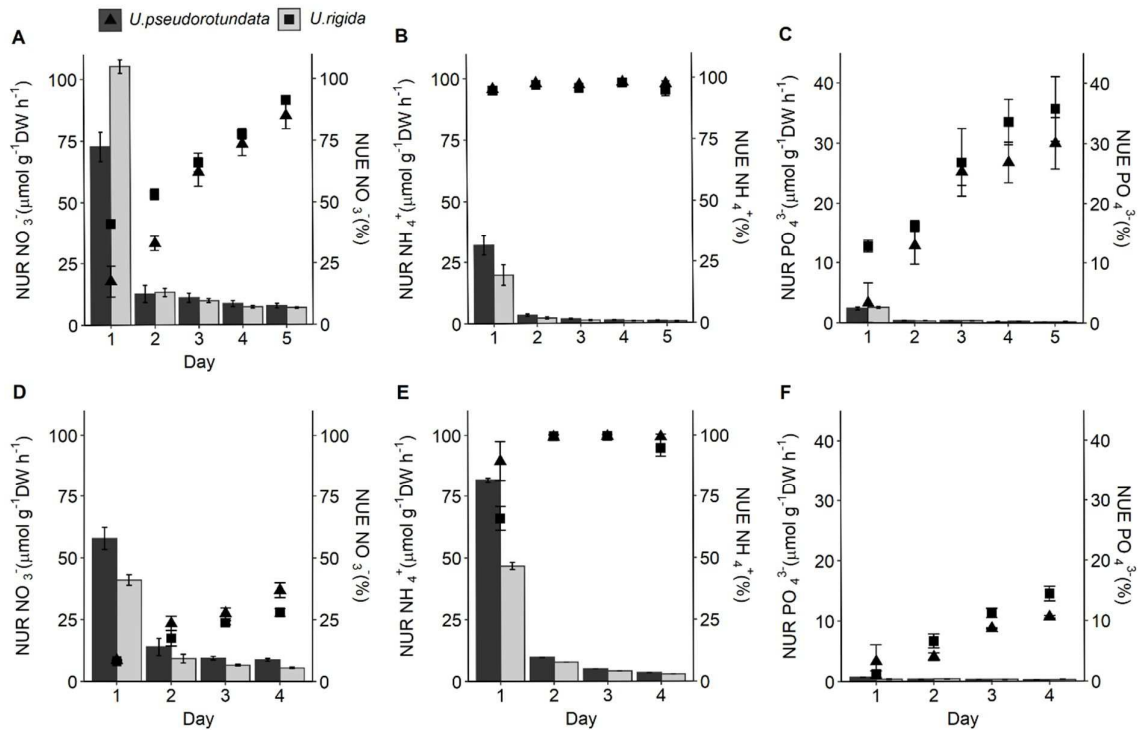


Figure 5. NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and PO₄³⁻ removal rate - NUR (bars) and uptake efficiency - NUE (symbols) by *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* in fish effluents. A, B and C refer to experiment 1, conducted during 5 days with 50% fish effluent. D, E and F refer to experiment 2, conducted during 4 days with 100% fish effluent. Values are mean ± SD, n = 3.

The two species evaluated showed similar patterns for both biofiltration parameters (NUR and NUE) in the two conditions tested (50% and 100% fish effluent) (**Figure 5**). For nitrogenous nutrients, the uptake rates reached a maximum on the 1st day then decreased over time. In experiment 1, uptake rates for NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ differed significantly (ANOVA: NO₃⁻ = $F(1) = 264.7, p < 0.001$; NH₄⁺ = $F(1) = 65.1, p < 0.001$, Table S3) between the two species (**Figures 5A,B**). On the 1st day, *U. rigida* exhibited the highest NO₃⁻ uptake rate (Tukey post hoc test, $p < 0.001$) reaching values of $105 \pm 2.7 \mu\text{mol NO}_3^- \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$ (**Figure 5A**). However, the NH₄⁺ uptake rate was higher (Tukey post hoc test, $p < 0.001$) in *U. pseudorotundata* ($31.9 \pm 4.0 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$) than in *U. rigida* ($19.7 \pm 4.2 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$) when compared at the same moment (**Figure 5B**). After the initial drop, the uptake rates for NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ showed similar patterns until the end of the experiment. In experiment 2, NUR values on the 1st day were different between the two species for both nitrogenous nutrients (Tukey post hoc test, $p < 0.001$), and *U. pseudorotundata* showed better performance, reaching $57.8 \pm 4.5 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$ of NO₃⁻ and $81.8 \pm 0.9 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$ of NH₄⁺ (**Figures 5D,E**).

Maximum uptake efficiency for NO_3^- (NUE) was reached at the end of each experiment and values ranged between 85.1% and 91.3% in experiment 1 and from 29.9% to 36.9% in experiment 2, considering both species (**Figures 5A,D**). NH_4^+ was biofiltered at a high percentage in all cultures just after 3 hours of seaweed treatment in both experiments. On the first day NUE reached at least 95% in experiment 1, while in experiment 2 the values ranged between 65.9-89.5%. At the end of both experiments, the two species removed up to 94.8% of NH_4^+ (**Figures 5B,D**). Regarding PO_4^{3-} , in experiment 1 both species showed equivalent removal rates (ANOVA: $F(1) = 0.019, p = 0.155$, Table S3), ranging from 2.4 to 0.2 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ for *U. pseudorotundata* and 2.6 to 0.2 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ for *U. rigida* (**Figure 5C**). However, in experiment 2 there was a significant difference associated with the interaction between *species* and *time* (ANOVA: $F(3) = 0.139, p < 0.001$, Table S3), with the NUR for PO_4^{3-} being higher in *U. pseudorotundata* ($0.42 \pm 0.18 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) than in *U. rigida* ($0.34 \pm 0.06 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) (**Figure 5F**).

Photosynthetic performance

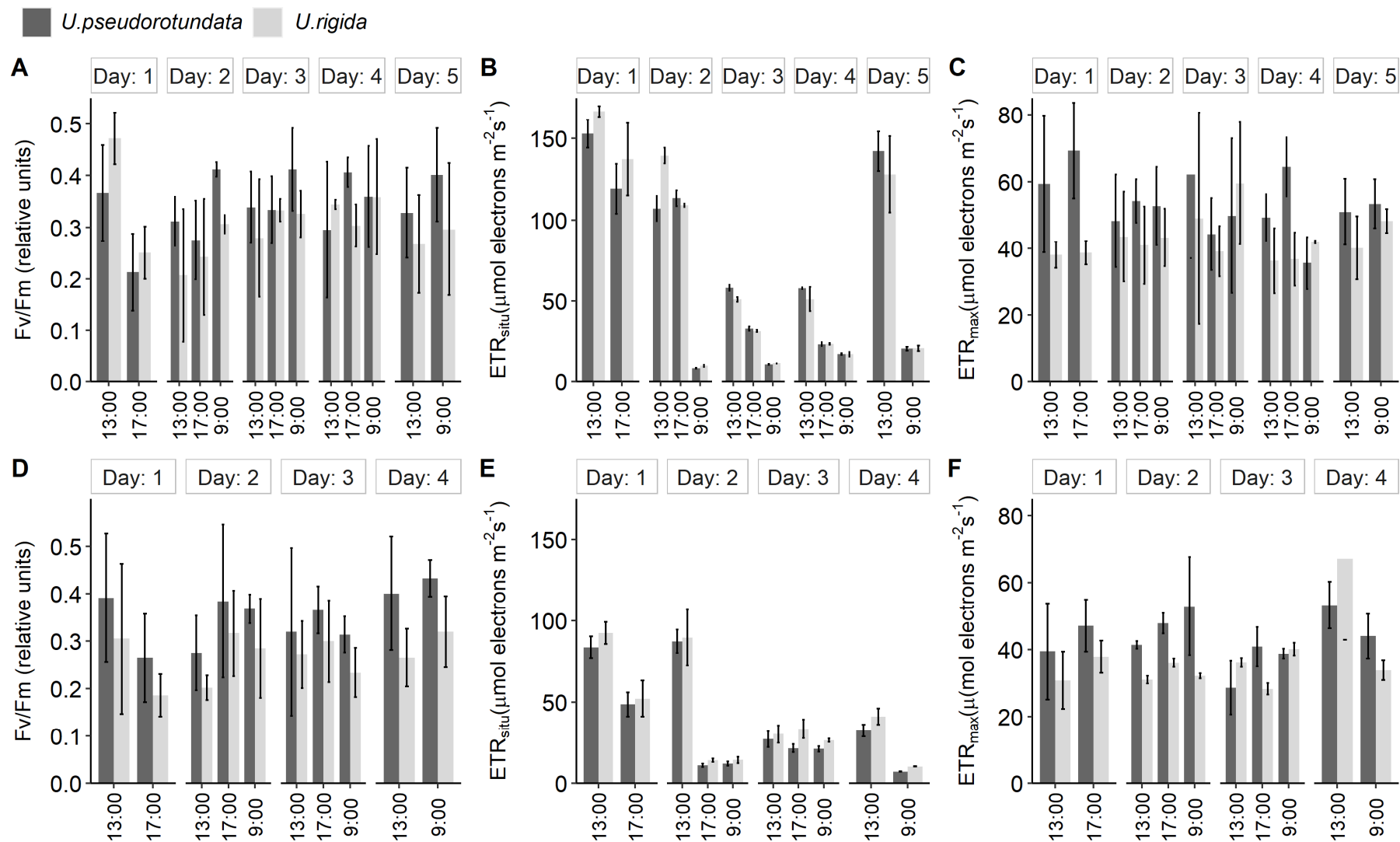


Figure 6. Diurnal changes of photosynthetic parameters: maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m), *in situ* electron transport rate (ETR_{situ}), and maximum electron transport rate (ETR_{max}) of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* in two conditions: 50% fish effluent (5 days): A, B, and C; 100% fish effluent (4 days): D, E, and F. Values are mean \pm SD, $n = 3$.

Photosynthetic parameters measured during the experimental period by PAM-fluorometers are presented in **Figure 6**. In general, both *Ulva* species exhibited similar photosynthetic performance throughout the two experiments, except for electron transport rate measured directly under algal cultivation conditions (ETR_{situ}). Regarding the maximum values of potential quantum yield (F_v/F_m), although the ANOVA analysis showed a significant interaction between *time* and *day* (ANOVA: 50% = $F(6) = 0.112$, $p = 0.014$; 100% = $F(4) = 0.101$, $p = 0.029$, Table S4) such differences were not detected by the Tukey post hoc test ($p > 0.05$), which indicate that there was absence of photoinhibition even when irradiance was highest (**Figures 6A,D**). ETR_{situ} was significantly affected (ANOVA: $F(6) = 1400.8$, $p = 0.008$, Table S4) by the interaction of *species*, *hour*, and *day* just experiment 1 (50% effluent) (**Figures 6B,E**). Maximum electron transport rate (ETR_{max}) was influenced by a significant interaction (ANOVA: $F(4) = 1733.7$, $p < 0.001$, Table S4) between *hour* and *day* only in experiment 2, and no significant difference has been detected between variables in experiment 1 (**Figures 6C,F**).

Photosynthesis-nitrate removal relationship

Table 2. Spearman correlation values between nitrate biofiltration parameters and photosynthetic parameters obtained from *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* cultivation under two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Symbols indicate significance level: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. Values marked with bold indicate statistically significant p -values.

	NUR	F_v/F_m	α_{ETR}	E_k	ETR_{max}	NPQ_{max}	ETR_{situ}	Species
NUE	-0.367*	0.190	0.312*	-0.123	0.138	0.024	0.052	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>
	-0.110	0.248	0.506***	-0.162	0.213	0.010	0.151	<i>U. rigida</i>
NUR		-0.374**	-0.451***	0.393**	0.261*	0.076	0.346**	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>
		-0.173	-0.086	0.085	-0.042	0.510***	0.481***	<i>U. rigida</i>
F_v/F_m			0.781***	-0.541***	-0.164	0.056	-0.433***	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>
			0.667***	-0.588***	-0.172	0.029	-0.353**	<i>U. rigida</i>
α_{ETR}				-0.639***	-0.015	0.289*	-0.301*	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>
				-0.482***	0.066	0.145	-0.203	<i>U. rigida</i>
E_k					0.553***	-0.020	0.345**	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>
					0.425***	-0.153	0.131	<i>U. rigida</i>
ETR_{max}						0.314*	0.203	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>
						-0.193	-0.034	<i>U. rigida</i>
NPQ_{max}							0.289*	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>
							0.268*	<i>U. rigida</i>

Spearman's correlation analysis between the different fluorescence parameters and nitrate biofiltration measurements (NUR and NUE) obtained from *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* are shown in **Table 2**. The correlations obtained considering the data from experiments 1 and 2 showed that F_v/F_m , as an indicator of photoinhibition, was negatively correlated with ETR_{situ} and saturation irradiance (E_k), but positively correlated with photosynthetic capacity (α_{ETR}). α_{ETR} was positively correlated with NUE, and NPQ_{max} was positively correlated with ETR_{situ} .

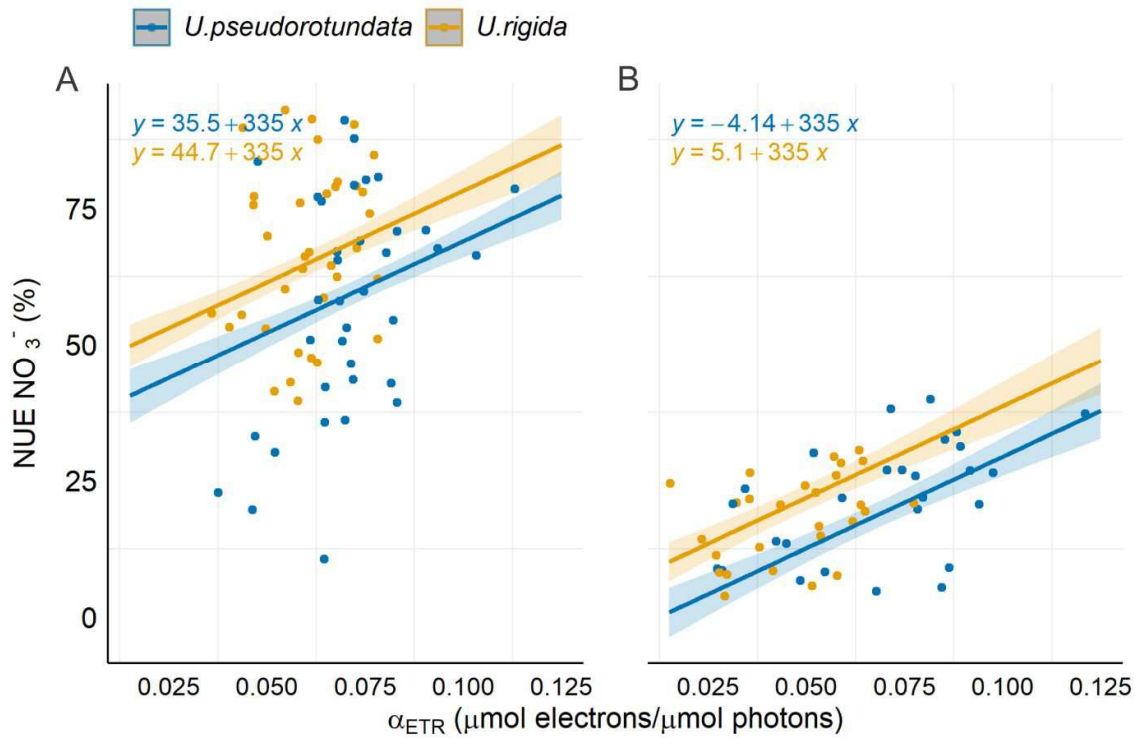


Figure 7. Linear regression model between NO_3^- uptake efficiency (NUE) and photosynthetic efficiency (α_{ETR}) for the species *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* grown in (A) 50% fish farm effluent and (B) 100% fish farm effluent. The solid line represents the fitted values of the overall model.

The linear regression model revealed that NO_3^- uptake efficiency (NUE) has a positive relationship with photosynthetic efficiency (α_{ETR}) in both *Ulva* species (**Figure 7**). In both experiments, the NO_3^- uptake efficiency significantly increased with increasing α_{ETR} ($R^2 = 69.77\%$, F-statistic = 97.14, $p < 0.001$).

Biomass growth rate, productivity and N content

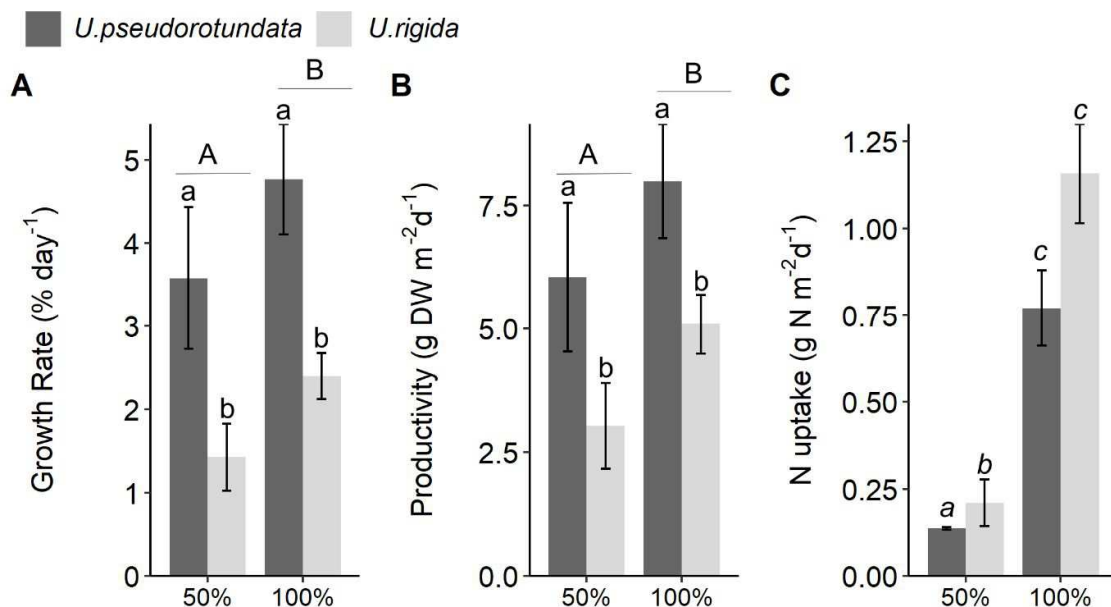


Figure 8. (A) Growth rate (% day⁻¹), (B) productivity (g DW m⁻² d⁻¹), and (C) nitrogen uptake (g N m⁻² day⁻¹) of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* grown in 50% and 100% fish farm effluents. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 3. Different small letters represent differences related to the factor “species”. Different capital letters represent differences caused by the factor “effluent concentration”. Different italic letters represent the differences caused by the interaction between the two factors.

The growth rates of both species were higher when cultivated in 100% fish farm effluent (ANOVA: $F(1) = 3.49$, $p = 0.015$, **Figure 8A**, Table S5), with *U. pseudorotundata* showing higher values than *U. rigida* (Tukey post hoc test, $p < 0.001$). Productivity data were significantly influenced by effluent concentration (ANOVA: $F(1) = 12.04$, $p = 0.009$, **Figure 8B**, Table S5), and the highest values were also associated with *U. pseudorotundata* (Tukey post hoc test, $p = 0.002$). Total nitrogen assimilation per tank was higher in *U. rigida* than in *U. pseudorotundata* in the 50% effluent experiment (Tukey post hoc test, $p = 0.005$), but there was no difference between the two species in the 100% effluent experiment (Tukey post hoc test, $p = 0.783$, **Figure 8C**).

Biochemical composition

Table 3. Elemental and biochemical composition of the dry biomass of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* grown in different concentrations of fish pond effluent (experiment 1: 50% and experiment 2: 100%). Values of carbon (C), nitrogen (N), hydrogen (H) and protein are presented as a percentage, while the C:N ratio was calculated from the level of C and N in the dry biomass. Pigments: chlorophyll *a*, chlorophyll *b* and carotenoids are presented as concentrations in the biomass (mg g⁻¹ DW). Values are mean ± SD (n = 3).

		Time	C	H	N	C:N	Protein	Chl <i>a</i>	Chl <i>b</i>	Carotenoids
Experiment 1										
50% effluent	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>	Initial	33.13 ± 4.53	5.38 ± 0.91	3.74 ± 0.55	8.86 ± 0.54	20.41 ± 2.98	1.41 ± 0.06	0.50 ± 0.02	0.24 ± 0.01
		Final	32.41 ± 1.83	5.57 ± 0.32	3.87 ± 0.29	8.38 ± 0.18	21.10 ± 1.59	1.49 ± 0.04	0.59 ± 0.02	0.28 ± 0.01
	<i>U. rigida</i>	Initial	37.19 ± 1.61	6.04 ± 0.21	3.85 ± 0.23	9.70 ± 0.97	20.97 ± 1.24	0.79 ± 0.03	0.45 ± 0.02	0.26 ± 0.01
		Final	34.55 ± 1.37	5.70 ± 0.27	3.86 ± 0.25	8.97 ± 0.29	21.03 ± 1.34	1.50 ± 0.07	0.55 ± 0.03	0.26 ± 0.01
Experiment 2										
100% effluent	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>	Initial	32.24 ± 1.94	5.67 ± 0.22	3.47 ± 0.38	9.34 ± 0.58	18.90 ± 2.08	1.20 ± 0.02	0.53 ± 0.02	0.29 ± 0.01
		Final	32.83 ± 0.08	5.70 ± 0.05	4.00 ± 0.20	8.22 ± 0.41	21.81 ± 1.08	1.00 ± 0.02	0.45 ± 0.04	0.24 ± 0.03
	<i>U. rigida</i>	Initial	33.28 ± 1.91	5.52 ± 0.13	3.14 ± 0.01	10.61 ± 0.61	17.10 ± 0.04	0.70 ± 0.18	0.29 ± 0.08	0.15 ± 0.05
		Final	36.84 ± 1.15	5.82 ± 0.11	4.48 ± 0.21	8.23 ± 0.36	24.41 ± 1.15	0.77 ± 0.07	0.25 ± 0.09	0.12 ± 0.04

Biomass elemental and biochemical composition of the two *Ulva* species are presented in Table 3. The contents of carbon, nitrogen and proteins, as well as the C:N ratio, showed significant differences related to the interaction between the factors *effluent concentration* and *time* (ANOVA: C% = $F(1) = 21.135$; N% = $F(1) = 1.131$; Protein% = $F(1) = 33.609$; C:N = $F(1) = 1.933$, $p < 0.05$, Table S6) and an absence of significant differences between species. Both species showed a significant increase in nitrogen and protein content when cultivated in 100% effluent (Tukey post hoc test, $p < 0.001$) while a significant reduction was observed in the C:N ratio between the beginning and end of the experiment (Tukey post hoc test, $p < 0.001$). The hydrogen content were not affected by the effluent concentration (ANOVA, $F(1) = 1.641$, $p = 0.615$, Table S6), but differences were observed between the species (ANOVA, $F(1) = 47.455$, $p = 0.004$, Table S6), with higher values for *U. rigida* (Tukey post hoc test, $p = 0.006$). The chlorophyll-*a* content was influenced by the interaction of the factors *concentration*, *species* and *time* (ANOVA, $F(1) = 0.049$, $p = 0.018$, Table S6) and the highest values were obtained at the end of experiment 1 for both species (Tukey post hoc test, *U. pseudorotundata*: $p < 0.001$; *U. rigida*: $p < 0.001$). Considering both *Ulva* species, there was an increment in Chl *b* when cultivated in 50% effluent (Tukey post hoc test, $p < 0.001$). For carotenoids, considering both *Ulva* species, the higher values were obtained when *Ulva* were cultivated in 50% fish effluent (Tukey post hoc test, $p < 0.001$).

5. DISCUSSION

To develop an efficient integrated system of fish and marine algae biomass production, a deep understanding of the physiology of species used in the system is essential. Cultivation of *Ulva* spp. using fish farming effluents as a culture medium is a promising process, as these algae have a high capacity to remove nutrients. They act as a biofilter and generate biomass with several biomolecules of high economic value such as cell wall polysaccharides (ulvans) and pigments. The improvement of marine algae cultivation systems, as well as their use in bioremediation, implies the selection of native species that are adapted to local conditions, thus avoiding the introduction of exotic species. In the current study, we compared biofiltration capacity, photosynthetic performance, productivity and biomass characteristics of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* cultivated in effluents of *Chelon labrosus* ponds. Comparisons

were performed at two effluent concentrations under environmental conditions of light and temperature, simulating commercial production conditions. The results indicated that both *Ulva* species presented similar biofiltration performance to remove dissolved inorganic nutrients (NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-}) from fish farm effluents, enabling them as good candidates for use in integrated aquaculture systems.

Biofiltration performance

The investigation of the ability of different seaweed species to biofiltrate nutrients is fundamental for the use of these organisms as nutrient scrubbers of waste waters from mariculture activities. According to Gevaert et al. (2007), *Ulva* species can differ in their ability to uptake and assimilate nutrients due to their adaptation to stressful conditions, such as fluctuations of inorganic nitrogen concentrations. Based on this, we hypothesized that the species used in the present study could have different behaviors since they were collected from different environments. *U. rigida* was collected directly from intertidal rock pools and bare rocks, while *U. pseudorotundata* was obtained from salt marshes where they were floating suspended in the water column. Intertidal algae like *U. rigida* are exposed to a broad range of conditions such as variation in nutrients, oxygen and inorganic carbon concentrations, apart from changes in temperature, desiccation, and pH fluctuations. On the other hand, species like *U. pseudorotundata*, deal with constantly high temperatures, extreme salinities, and intense solar radiation. Despite these different stressful conditions, both species exhibited similar biofiltration performance, removing considerable amounts of nitrate (NO_3^-), ammonium (NH_4^+), and phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) from the experimental tanks. These similar responses suggest high phenotypic plasticity of both species, an important finding for use in bioremediation.

In our experiments both species showed higher uptake efficiency (NUE) for NH_4^+ when compared to NO_3^- , quickly reducing NH_4^+ concentrations at the beginning of the experiment. Our findings of this faster NH_4^+ uptake efficiency is in agreement with previous studies on *Ulva* spp. (SHAHAR et al., 2020; SHPIGEL et al., 2019) and must be related to the mechanisms of uptake and assimilation of different nitrogen forms (ROLEDA; HURD, 2019). Since less energy is required for NH_4^+ assimilation and metabolization into amino acids, *Ulva* spp. tend to remove this nutrient more efficiently than NO_3^- . On the other hand NO_3^- metabolism is described as an energy-dependent mechanism that requires active transport to cross cell walls, followed by storage in intracellular pools such as nitrate and/or metabolization into ammonia

through two-step sequential enzymes (nitrate and nitrite reductase) (HURD et al., 2014). As observed by Shpigel et al. (2019), nitrate uptake by *U. lactuca* initiated only 24 hours after total ammonia depletion, which was suggested by the authors as the time required for nitrate reductase synthesis. A study performed with *U. fasciata* revealed nitrate reductase activity after 28 hours of transferring the algae from a medium with total ammonia nitrogen as the only nitrogenous nutrient to NO_3^- enriched seawater (SHAHAR et al., 2020). Considering the high concentrations of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- available in the effluents used, the remaining stock of NO_3^- measured at the end of the second experiment may be related to a saturation of nitrogen required by algae metabolism. Similar results were described by Fan et al. (2014), which observed that increasing NO_3^- levels, over a concentration of $503 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, lead to a decay in NO_3^- uptake rate by *U. prolifera*.

PO_4^{3-} concentrations in the fish farm effluents used in our study were enough to avoid phosphorus limitation for seaweed growth during experimental time. The lower values of PO_4^{3-} removal, when compared to the removal of nitrogenous nutrients, are probably related to the differentiated assimilation rates of these nutrients (Redfield ratio), which is typical of photosynthetic organisms. If, on the one hand, this result suggests that fish farming effluents are not ideally balanced for algal growth, on the other hand, it indicates that this excess of P is not harmful to their growth, since the productivity values were similar in both effluent concentrations.

Photosynthetic performance

Unlike cultures developed in the laboratory, where algae are subjected to controlled and regular conditions of light and photoperiod, cultures performed under environmental conditions are subjected to considerable variations in the luminous environment. Under these conditions, photoinhibition and photochemical damage without proper recovery have been known to occur in the middle of the day, i.e. chronic photoinhibition, when increased irradiances reach the cultivation systems and the amount of absorbed light is higher than the photosystem's capacity. In a practical way, photoinhibition has been detected by the determination of the maximum quantum yield of PSII (F_v/F_m) using PAM fluorimeters (CRUCES et al., 2019; FIGUEROA et al., 2006, 2020; HANELT; NULTSCH, 1995). In the present study, we did not detect significant differences in the values of F_v/F_m determined at different times of the day for the two algae, suggesting the absence of photoinhibition. These

results differ from other studies carried out under similar conditions which observed a decrease in F_v/F_m at noon (CRUCES et al., 2019; FIGUEROA et al., 2020; MASOJÍDEK et al., 2021), and can be explained by special adaptations of *Ulva* spp. to light fluctuations. Some of the adaptive mechanisms described for *Ulva* spp. are the synthesis of UV-screening and antioxidant compounds (e.g. phenolic compounds), dissipation of energy as heat (xanthophyll cycle), and enzyme-based antioxidant activity (e.g. superoxide dismutase and ascorbate peroxidase) (BISCHOF et al., 2002; CRUCES et al., 2019). The regulation of internal physiological mechanisms of seaweeds to face photoinhibition and photodamage may be related to cultivation conditions, such as the supply of nutrients. Previous studies showed that photoinhibition caused by an increase in PAR was reduced under the increment of nutrient supply (CABELLO-PASINI et al., 2011; FIGUEROA et al., 2006; HENLEY et al., 1991). Since our culture systems contained sufficient nutrients, we can expect that such mechanisms were active for both species.

Contrasting with results obtained in other studies (eg. Cruces et al., 2019) that showed that ETR_{max} fluctuations along the day had an inverse relationship with PAR irradiances, our study does not identify a decrease in ETR_{situ} and ETR_{max} during irradiance peaks, but an increasing trend confirming the absence of photoinhibition. Similar results were obtained by Figueroa et al. (2020), which described increased ETR values and decreased F_v/F_m at noon. Our findings of a negative correlation between F_v/F_m and ETR_{situ} obtained from both *Ulva* species corroborate the aforementioned inverse correlation. These results reflect that while photosynthetic activity (ETR) tends to increase, the maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m) tends to decrease as solar irradiance rises as a result of the photoprotection mechanisms presented by algae. Also, the negative correlation we detected between F_v/F_m and E_k is consistent with results reported by Figueroa et al. (2020), being related to the diurnal variations in irradiance. Finally, the photochemical efficiency (α_{ETR}) extracted from rapid light curves and F_v/F_m , despite being obtained from different methods, showed a positive correlation, reinforcing the reliability of PAM fluorometer data.

Photosynthesis-nitrate removal relationship

Nitrogen metabolism requires energy supplied directly from photosynthetic electron transport since the assimilation of inorganic nitrogen into amino acids demands carbon skeletons (ketoacids), energy in the form of ATP and reductants (HUPPE; TURPIN, 1994). As described by Huppe and Turpin (1994), inorganic nitrogen metabolism of seaweeds, regardless

of whether the original source is ammonium or nitrate, involves the incorporation of nitrogen into amino acids by the assimilation of ammonium through the glutamine synthetase (GS) and glutamine:2-oxoglutarate amino- transferase (GOGAT) pathway. For the maintenance of GOGAT activity, seaweed requires an adequate supply of carbon assimilated from photosynthetic activity. In this context, in the present study we present a mathematical relation between photosynthetic and biofiltration parameters. Spearman's correlation showed a positive relationship between α_{ETR} and NO_3^- uptake efficiency (NUE) for the two algal species. In addition, a linear model was obtained and reveals a positive relationship ($r^2 = 69.77\%$) between α_{ETR} and NUE, which is largely in line with the evidence that nitrate removal requires a coordination of the metabolic interactions between photosynthesis, respiration, and N assimilation (TURPIN et al., 1988). Moreover, NO_3^- assimilation demands larger quantities of carbon from the respiratory process and therefore we assume that the proposed model is valid only for nitrate as a source of nutrients, and does not include NH_4^+ . The evidence for the integration of carbon and nitrogen assimilation has also been described in previous investigations with microalgae and seaweeds (FIGUEROA et al., 2009b; HUPPE; TURPIN, 1994; TURPIN, 1991). However, as far as we could verify, a mathematical model which correlated NO_3^- biofiltration and a photosynthetic parameter obtained with rapid measurements of *in vivo* chlorophyll *a* fluorescence has not yet been published.

Biomass productivity

Despite productivity values were relatively low compared to other studies, *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* were able to grow in effluent concentrations tested in this study and, considering that the experiments were performed in a system exposed to natural environmental conditions, it confirms the tolerance of both species to non-controlled changes in temperature and light. The best results were achieved for the *U. pseudorotundata* cultivation with system productivity values reaching $8.0 \text{ g DW m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. The feasibility of both *Ulva* species to keep growth even with temperature and light variations was in accordance with studies carried out with other *Ulva* species cultivated in mariculture effluent under open scale conditions. The maximum growth values obtained for *U. pseudorotundata* ($4.8\% \pm 0.7$) and *U. rigida* ($2.4\% \pm 0.3$) were lower than those previously obtained for *U. lactuca* ($4\text{-}18\% \text{ d}^{-1}$, Al-Hafedh et al., 2014; Shpigel et al., 2019) and *U. fasciata* ($7.5\text{-}14.3\% \text{ d}^{-1}$, Shahar et al., 2020). This may be related to the difference in the system's culture conditions such as nutrient source

(SHAHAR et al., 2020), biomass stocking densities (SHPIGEL et al., 2019), and effluent flow rate (AL-HAFEDH; ALAM; BUSCHMANN, 2014). Besides culture systems, environmental conditions directly influence biomass production. As verified by Friedlander et al., (1990), in land intensive seaweed cultivation not limited by nutrients, biomass productivity was influenced by changes in light and temperature as a result of season variability. In a study conducted in Portugal, Abreu et al., (2011) described the optimal relative growth rate and productivity for the red seaweed *Gracilaria vermiculophylla* during spring and summertime, with a decrease in growth rates and nutrient removal during autumn and winter months. In a 6-month study conducted with *U. ohnoi*, Mata et al. (2016) showed that biomass productivity had a temporal variation due to changes in temperature and light, and they also observed a positive relationship between light and biomass productivity. Those achievements indicate that a better understanding of cultivation conditions is essential to optimize system productivity.

Biochemical composition

Seaweed biomass is a source of bioactive compounds like pigments (chlorophyll and carotenoids), proteins, phenolic compounds, sulfated polysaccharides, which are known for their beneficial properties for human health (FARVIN; JACOBSEN, 2013; FLEURENCE; CHENARD; LUÇON, 1999; KALASARIYA et al., 2021; SCHNEIDER et al., 2020). Our results showed that *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* present similar protein content, ranging from 17.1 to 24.4% DW. These values are similar to those found in studies with *U. lactuca* (e.g. 10-25%, Shuuluka et al., 2013), *U. armoricana* (18%-24%, Fleurence et al., 1999), and *U. fenestrata* (20.79%, Steinhagen et al., 2022). In general, the protein content of *Ulva* species could vary between 10 and 47% DW (DOMINGUEZ; LORET, 2019). Higher values (up to 40%) were described for *U. fasciata* (30-38%, Shahar et al., 2020) and *U. lactuca* (24.9-41.1%, Shpigel et al., 2019) grown in nutrient-enriched seawater. In the present study, after cultivated in pure fish effluent, an increment in protein content of 5.1% was detected in both *Ulva* species. Since NH_4^+ concentrations were higher in pure effluent and complete removal of this nutrient was observed, it is plausible to assume that the higher uptake of N may be associated with a higher assimilation of N for amino acids and proteins. This result is in agreement with those reported by Shahar et al., (2020), which observed an increase in protein content in *Ulva* that was cultivated using only total ammonia nitrogen (TAN) rather than NO_3^- as a sole nitrogen source.

Chlorophylls and carotenoids are pigments of interest to the cosmetic and pharmaceutical areas mainly due to their antioxidant and anticancer capacity (BOOMINATHAN; MAHESH, 2015; KALASARIYA et al., 2021; PÉREZ-GÁLVEZ; VIERA; ROCA, 2020). When cultivated under conditions tested in our experiment, both *Ulva* species showed similar amounts of chlorophyll *a*, but not chlorophyll *b* and carotenoids. Moreover, although a variation in pigment composition was detected over the experimental time, it was less pronounced than that reported by Steinhagen et al., (2022), who observed a sharp decay in chlorophyll *a* and *b* and carotenoid content from *U. fenestrata* biomass grown in a sea based cultivation, under non-controlled conditions. So, the biomass of *Ulva* species used in this study remained with available pigments to be profitable in the above mentioned application, in a complementar alternative for biomass utilization.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Our study advanced toward biofiltration capacity, photosynthetic performance, productivity and biomass characteristics of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* cultivated in effluents of *Chelon labrosus* ponds under natural environmental conditions of light and temperature. In conclusion, our findings show that *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* possess similar capabilities for removing inorganic nutrients from fish effluents. Both seaweed species, naturally found on the Spanish Mediterranean coast, presented equivalent photosynthetic performance and biomass composition. A linear regression model between NO_3^- uptake efficiency and photosynthetic efficiency (α_{ETR}) is presented. In addition, we highlighted the application of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* as robust species for nutrient scrubbing of mariculture effluents, and their potential biomass composition as a sustainable source of raw material for the development of industrial products.

8. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Data availability statement

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Author Contributions

TM: participated in the experimental design, experimental execution, water chemical analysis, statistical analysis, data interpretation, and original draft. VR and JV: participated in the experimental design and execution. BM and PCV: participated in the experimental execution. LPS: participated in the execution of statistical analysis and data interpretation. WO: provided the species phylogenetic analysis. AA: dedicated to water chemical analysis. JBB: participated in the experimental design and data interpretation. LR and FF: reviewed, edited the manuscript text, supervised and provided funding acquisition.

9. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Abiotic parameter (pH, salinity, and oxygen) values obtained in experiments 1 and 2 are presented in table S1. In general, pH values in *Ulva* tanks ranged between 7.9 and 10.1 in experiment 1 and from 6.6 to 8.2 in experiment 2, considering all tanks of algae cultivation. The salinity ranged between 34 and 39 in experiment 1 and from 33 to 38 in experiment 2. Oxygen levels obtained in experiment 1 were $8.48 \pm 0.84 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ and in experiment 2, were $8.26 \pm 0.49 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$.

Table supplementary 1. Abiotic parameters: pH, salinity and oxygen (mg L^{-1}) profiles measured in the algal tanks cultivation throughout experiments 1 (50% fish effluent) and 2 (100% fish effluent). Values are mean \pm SD, n = 3.

Time (experimental day)	<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>		<i>U. rigida</i>	
	AVG	SD	AVG	SD
<u>Experiment 1: 50% effluent</u>				
pH				
1	7.9	± 0.1	7.9	± 0.2
2	9.4	± 0.2	9.8	± 0.1
3	10.0	± 0.1	10.1	± 0.1
4	9.3	± 0.1	9.7	± 0.2
5	10.1	± 0.1	9.9	± 0.2
Salinity				
1	36	± 0.8	34	± 4.4
2	37	± 0.9	37	± 2.3
3	38	± 1.0	37	± 2.4
4	38	± 1.0	38	± 2.5
5	39	± 1.0	38	± 2.5
Oxygen (mg L^{-1})				
1	7.88	± 0.24	8.09	± 0.11
2	9.07	± 0.07	8.7	± 0.75
3	–	\pm –	–	\pm –
4	9.35	± 0.8	8.61	± 0.88
5	9.47	± 0.6	9.05	± 0.4
<u>Experiment 2: 100% effluent</u>				
pH				
1	7.1	± 0.0	7.0	± 0.1
2	6.7	± 0.2	6.6	± 0.0
3	7.4	± 0.5	8.0	± 0.0
4	7.9	± 0.0	8.2	± 0.1
Salinity				
1	36	± 0.9	33	± 4.1
2	37	± 1.1	35	± 2.8
3	38	± 0.8	36	± 2.1

4	38	± 1.0	36	± 1.2
Oxygen (mg L ⁻¹)				
1	7.62	± 0.12	7.66	± 0.34
2	8.22	± 0.25	8.23	± 0.12
3	8.59	± 0.30	8.06	± 0.33
4	8.73	± 0.40	9.00	± 0.28

Table supplementary 2. ANOVA analysis of nutrient concentration data (NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and PO₄³⁻) from cultivation of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* under two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Data are shown comparing experimental day, the hour of experiment, and the two species. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold.

Nutrient source	Experiment (effluent concentration)			Experiment (effluent concentration)			
	1 (50% effluent)			2 (100% effluent)			
	<i>df</i>	<i>R Sum Sq</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>R Sum Sq</i>	<i>p-value</i>	
NO ₃ ⁻	Day (1)	4	1854243.0	0.000	3	849860.0	0.000
	Hour (2)	4	137336.0	0.000	4	75427.0	0.001
	(1) x (2)	6	113681.0	0.001	4	2510	0.102
	Species (3)	1	6073.0	0.134	1	4840.0	0.332
	(1) x (3)	4	10564.0	0.548	3	28012.0	0.019
	(2) x (3)	4	15159.0	0.563	4	9704.0	0.526
	(1) x (2) x (3)	6	18297.0	0.727	4	13345.0	0.575
	Residuals	60	278000.0		48	141800.0	
NH ₄ ⁺	Day (1)	4	16375.0	0.000	3	170136.5	0.000
	Hour (2)	1	16061.0	0.000	1	102465.3	0.000
	Species (3)	1	27.0	0.922	1	39.1	0.413
	(1) x (3)	4	72.0	0.183	3	3305.7	0.000
	(2) x (3)	1	49.0	0.031	1	2381.2	0.000
	Residuals	24	225.0		20	1311.6	
PO ₄ ³⁻	Day (1)	4	1842.6	0.004	3	1974.8	0.000
	Hour (2)	1	50.0	0.380	1	9.8	0.667
	Species (3)	1	205.6	0.079	1	0.3	0.961
	(1) x (3)	4	105.6	0.877	3	6.4	0.868
	(2) x (3)	1	8.1	0.824	1	3.7	0.554

Residuals

24 1954.9

20 272.0

Table supplementary 3. ANOVA analysis of nutrient uptake rate (NUR) and uptake efficiency (NUE) of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* under two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Data are shown comparing experimental days and the two species. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold.

Nutrient source	Experiment (effluent concentration)														
	1 (50% effluent)			2 (100% effluent)											
NUR NO ₃ ⁻		<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	NUE NO ₃ ⁻		<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>
	Day (1)	4	30369.6	0.000	3	7444.1	0.000		4	13641.2	0.000	3	1867.9	0.000	
	Species (2)	1	264.7	0.000	1	284.0	0.001		1	1006.8	0.000	1	138.5	0.000	
	(1) x (2)	4	1323.3	0.000	3	198.0	0.001		4	544.5	0.000	3	59.1	0.021	
	Residuals	20	129.1		16	82.3			20	326.1		16	70.4		
NUR NH ₄ ⁺		<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	NUE NH ₄ ⁺		<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>
	Day (1)	4	2862.4	0.000	3	15611.6	0.000		4	27.7	0.007	3	2006.0	0.000	
	Species (2)	1	65.1	0.001	1	557.2	0.000		1	8.2	0.023	1	289.3	0.001	
	(1) x (2)	4	161.3	0.000	3	1295.7	0.000		4	4.8	0.666	3	574.6	0.001	
	Residuals	20	68.4		16	5.2			20	25.5		16	200.9		
NUR PO ₄ ³⁻		<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	NUE PO ₄ ³⁻		<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>
	Day (1)	4	22.987	0.000	3	0.239	0.000		4	2711.6	0.000	3	383	0.000	
	Species (2)	1	0.019	0.155	1	0.034	0.001		1	215.3	0.000	1	18	0.007	
	(1) x (2)	4	0.042	0.414	3	0.139	0.000		4	55.6	0.426	3	31	0.002	
	Residuals	20	0.199		16	0.016			20	265.1		16	24		

Table supplementary 4. ANOVA analysis of photosynthetic parameters of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* during cultivation under two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Data are shown comparing species, the time of day (hour) and day of the experiment. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold.

Variable	Experiment (effluent concentration)						
	1 (50% effluent)				2 (100% effluent)		
F_v/F_m		<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>
	Species (1)	1	0.017	0.073	1	0.027	0.100
	Hour (2)	2	0.006	0.863	2	0.011	0.703
	(1) x (2)	2	0.018	0.183	2	0.001	1.000
	Day (3)	4	0.040	0.201	3	0.039	0.188
	(1) x (3)	4	0.046	0.135	3	0.003	0.975
	(2) x (3)	6	0.112	0.014	4	0.101	0.029
	(1) x (2) x (3)	6	0.030	0.669	4	0.001	1.000
Residuals	52	0.342		40	0.364		
ETR _{situ}		<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>
	Species (1)	1	168.7	0.127	1	227.8	0.006
	Hour (2)	2	4767.0	0.000	2	80.8	0.480
	(1) x (2)	2	47.4	1.000	2	64.4	0.408
	Day (3)	4	56008.0	0.000	3	11157.2	0.000
	(1) x (3)	4	655.2	0.038	3	114.7	0.275
	(2) x (3)	6	23896.4	0.000	4	10827.2	0.000
	(1) x (2) x (3)	6	1400.8	0.008	4	90.6	0.698
Residuals	52	3366.8		40	1508.1		
ETR _{max}		<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>
	Species (1)	1	303.3	0.146	1	169.8	0.073
	Hour (2)	2	431.2	0.203	2	155.1	0.351
	(1) x (2)	2	865.8	0.098	2	316.4	0.108
	Day (3)	4	754.1	0.513	3	604.3	0.053
	(1) x (3)	4	303.9	0.891	3	429.3	0.093
	(2) x (3)	6	1314.0	0.328	4	1733.7	0.000
	(1) x (2) x (3)	6	624.8	0.754	4	425.7	0.174
Residuals	52	9358.9		40	2794.5		

Table supplementary 5. ANOVA analysis of growth rate (GR), productivity, and nitrogen uptake (N uptake) of *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* after being cultivated in two medium conditions: 50% fish effluent and 100% fish effluent. Data shown compare experiments and species. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold.

Variable	GR			Productivity		N uptake	
Source	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p-value</i>
Experiment (1)	1	3.49	0.015	409.60	0.863	1.87	0.000
Species (2)	1	15.36	0.000	152240.38	0.003	0.16	0.003
(1) x (2)	1	0.03	0.745	658.51	0.725	0.07	0.027
Residuals	8	2.81		21415.69		0.07	

Table supplementary 6. ANOVA analysis of the elemental and biochemical composition of the dry biomass of *Ulva pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* before and after cultivation in different sources of *Chelon labrosus* effluent: 50% and 100% effluent concentrations. Data are shown comparing experiment, species, and time. *df*: degree of freedom; *R Sum Sq*: sum of squared deviations. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are shown in bold.

Variable		%C		%H		%N		C:N		%Protein		Chl <i>a</i>		Chl <i>b</i>		Car.	
Source	<i>df</i>	R Sum Sq	<i>p</i> -value	R Sum Sq	<i>p</i> -value	R Sum Sq	<i>p</i> -value	R Sum Sq	<i>p</i> -value	R Sum Sq	<i>p</i> -value	R Sum Sq	<i>p</i> -value	R Sum Sq	<i>p</i> -value	R Sum Sq	<i>p</i> -value
Experiment (1)	1	1.641	0.548	1.641	0.615	0.021	0.804	0.087	0.444	0.619	0.667	0.863	0.000	0.119	0.000	0.023	0.000
Species (2)	1	47.455	0.002	47.455	0.004	0.021	0.615	2.755	0.007	0.622	0.686	0.665	0.000	0.103	0.000	0.025	0.000
(1) x (2)	1	0.507	0.804	0.507	0.706	0.001	0.922	0.007	0.941	0.034	0.961	0.006	0.314	0.048	0.001	0.026	0.000
Day (3)	1	0.233	0.843	0.233	0.706	1.516	0.000	8.313	0.000	45.021	0.000	0.156	0.000	0.002	0.408	0.001	0.408
(1) x (3)	1	21.135	0.044	21.135	0.063	1.131	0.005	1.933	0.023	33.609	0.005	0.314	0.000	0.035	0.001	0.005	0.021
(2) x (3)	1	0.404	0.765	0.404	0.980	0.179	0.144	0.852	0.183	5.308	0.103	0.316	0.000	0.001	0.505	0.000	0.516
(1) x (2) x (3)	1	8.987	0.191	8.987	0.175	0.320	0.085	0.376	0.335	9.507	0.079	0.049	0.018	0.001	0.706	0.001	0.223
Residuals	16	74.126		74.126		1.451		4.705		43.094		0.098		0.037		0.012	

CAPÍTULO 3

Manuscrito a ser submetido ao periódico *Marine Biotechnology*

Characterization, antioxidant and cytotoxicity activity of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *Ulva pseudorotundata* and *Ulva rigida* and their potential for pharmaceutical application.

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1. ABSTRACT

Seaweed from the genus *Ulva* (Ulvales, Chlorophyta) has worldwide distribution presenting a potential biomass source for biotechnological applications. In the present study we investigated ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction (UPRF) isolated from two *Ulva* species (*U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*), naturally occurring in the Spanish Mediterranean coast. Elemental and chemical characterization of UPRFs were performed in order to explore the polysaccharides composition. Biological assessment of UPRFs were compared by antioxidant activity and *in vitro* toxicity tests in human cell lines: HCT-116 (colon cancer), G-361 (malignant melanoma), U-937 (leukemia), and HACAT cells (immortalized keratinocytes). Chemical analysis revealed that both UPRFs presented rhamnose as the major sugar constituent (>50%) followed by glucose in *U. rigida* and xylose in *U. pseudorotundata* and also presenting glucuronic acid, galactose, ribose and mannose as the remaining monosaccharides. Similar antioxidant activity was obtained with increasing potential in response to the increment of polysaccharide concentrations. Both UPRFs presented moderate toxicity against HCT-116 cell lines and a selectivity index ≥ 3 , suggesting a good potential for use in pharmaceutical products.

Keywords

Algal biotechnology, Antioxidant activity, *In vitro* cytotoxicity, *Ulva* spp., ulvan polysaccharides

2. INTRODUCTION

The search for sustainable sources to the development of industrial products has gained increasing attention in recent years. In this context, marine algae biomass has a huge potential as a source of promising biomolecules, being an emerging sector of the blue bioeconomy (ARAÚJO et al., 2021). Marine macroalgae, also known as seaweed, is a diverse group composed by more than 12,000 species including red (Rhodophyta), brown (Phaeophyceae), and green algae (Chlorophyta). Seaweed biomass can be a source for a wide range of applications such as food, agricultural, cosmetic and pharmaceutical industries since it is rich in primary (e.g. protein, peptides, carbohydrates, lipids) and secondary metabolites (e.g. pigments, polyphenols, phenolic compounds) (BUSCHMANN et al., 2017b). According to FAO (2020), the world production of seaweed has increased through the years, being used primarily for the food sector. Moreover, researchers have shown different potential applications for algal extracts and isolated compounds due to their bioactivity and *in vivo* effects on primary cells (KALASARIYA et al., 2021; MICHALAK; CHOJNACKA; SAEID, 2017; VEGA et al., 2021).

The diversity of compounds found in seaweed is associated to physiological adaptive mechanisms, which enable them to survive in constantly changing conditions like fluctuations in nutrient availability, light intensity, temperature, desiccation and the synthesis of chemical defenses against grazers (HURD et al., 2014). Throughout the synthesis of pigments (phycobilins, carotenoids, and chlorophylls) and other secondary metabolites, seaweeds can deal, for example, with increasing irradiances by developing photoprotection mechanisms such as the production of UV-screening and antioxidant compounds (e.g. mycosporine-like amino acids, phlorotannins, and phenolic compounds) (CRUCES et al., 2019; MENG et al., 2021; VEGA et al., 2021). Several studies demonstrated that molecules isolated from macroalgae have a range of applications in the pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries due to their antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, antiviral, and photoprotective bioactivity (ÁLVAREZ-GÓMEZ et al., 2019; SCHNEIDER et al., 2020; VEGA et al., 2020b). Experiments conducted with polysaccharides isolated from the red algae *Hypnea spinella* and *Halopithys incurva* showed the capacity of these compounds to induce the synthesis of cytokines by murine macrophages (ABDALA-DÍAZ et al., 2011). Immunomodulatory and antioxidant activities of sulfated polysaccharides from *Laminaria ochroleuca*, *Porphyra umbilicalis*, and *Gelidium corneum* were also described by Abdala-Díaz et al. (2019). The

search for compounds of biotechnological interest becomes attractive especially for cultivable seaweed that present features like fast growing and robustness for large-scale cultivation, ensuring high quality biomass and the obtention of bioproducts with consistent composition.

The green macroalgae from the genus *Ulva* (Ulvales, Chlorophyta), commonly named as *sea lettuce*, have worldwide distribution and the ability to grow in a wide range of temperature and salinity (MANTRI et al., 2020). Moreover, *Ulva*'s species have a fast growth rate and high nutrient uptake efficiency (ASHKENAZI; ISRAEL; ABELSON, 2019; COHEN; NEORI, 1991; SHPIGEL et al., 2019). Those features enable *Ulva* spp. for commercial production, especially if linked to mariculture crops acting as a biofilter and as a source of high value biomass. Increasing attention has been given to the *Ulva*'s cell wall polysaccharides, ulvans. Ulvan is a water-soluble sulfated polysaccharide present in the cell wall which could vary from 9 to 36% of *Ulva* dry biomass and is mainly composed of the monosaccharides rhamnose, glucuronic acid, iduronic acid and xylose (LAHAYE; ROBIC, 2007; LAKSHMI et al., 2020; SUDHA; GOMATHI; KIM, 2020). Studies have described biological activities of ulvan as anticoagulant, immunomodulating, anticancer, antioxidant, anti-viral, antihyperlipidemic (KIDGELL et al., 2019b; QI et al., 2012; TZIVELEKA; IOANNOU; ROUSSIS, 2019b). The bioactivity of ulvan is linked to its ability to mimic naturally occurring cellular molecules in animal systems, such as glycosaminoglycans and proteoglycans, which are involved in distinct biological processes. The potential of ulvan as an anticancer molecule has been studied by the cytotoxicity against tumor cells. Ahmed and Ahmed (2014) demonstrated inhibition of cell proliferation of hepatoma (HepG2) and colon carcinoma (HCT116) cell lines with gradual increasing doses of ulvan, suggesting induction of apoptosis and cell cycle arrest of cancerous cells. However, structural features of ulvan, such as molecular weight, degree of sulfation, pattern of sulfation and constituent sugars, can impact its bioactivity performance (KIDGELL et al., 2019a). In this way, the composition of ulvan obtained from different species of *Ulva*, as well as their cultivation environment and previous ecophysiological conditions, could significantly influence ulvan's bioactivity.

The objective of the present study was to determine the structure and biological activities of an ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction (UPRF) from two *Ulva* species: *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* collected in Southern Spain. To achieve these objectives the following procedures were performed: (1) extraction, characterization and identification of polysaccharides elemental constituents and molecular structure, (2) evaluation of

UPRF antioxidant capacity, and (3) determination of UPRF cytotoxicity against human cancer cell lines including HCT-116 (human colon cancer), G-361 (human malignant melanoma), U-937 (leukemia cell line). In order to determine the selectivity index of the UPRF, the cytotoxicity was also determined in HACAT cells (immortalized human keratinocytes). The results provide a background for the exploration of seaweeds as sources for medicinal and health products.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Collection and cultivation of algal biomass

Ulva species used in the present study were collected from two different places: *U. pseudorotundata* was collected from the salt marshes in the bay of Cádiz (36°30'N, 6°10'W) and, *U. rigida* was obtained from rocky intertidal shores of Málaga (36°42'43"N, 4°19'19"W), both situated at Andalusia (Spain). Algal biomass was transported and cultivated at Grice Hutchinson research center at Malaga University during the summer of 2020. Prior to cultivation, the biomass was cleaned to remove epiphytes, epibionts and sediments, then it was allocated in 500 L rectangular-shaped tanks containing artificial seawater and supplemented twice a day with 75 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of NH_4NO_3 , as nitrogen source, and 5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of KH_2PO_4 , as phosphorus source. Salinity and pH of the seawater were maintained at 35 and 8.0, respectively, and cultivation system was placed outdoor under ambient conditions of irradiance and temperature. When cultures reached sufficient fresh weight, the biomass was washed with Milli Q-water to remove salt and freeze-drying for further polysaccharides extraction.

Extraction of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction

Considering that ulvan is the mainly polysaccharide from *Ulva* sp. cell wall, all analysis were performed using an ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction (both sulphated and non-sulphated), also identified in this paper as UPRF. To obtain the UPRFs from *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* the freeze-drying biomass was subjected to the following steps: pre-extraction, extraction, and precipitation process. The pre-extraction procedure consisted of removing and eliminating possible co-extraction of other compounds during the final extraction of the UPRFs (e.g. pigments). For pre-extraction, 10 g of freeze-dried tissue was homogenized in 200 mL absolute ethanol with constant stirring at room temperature for 2 hours and then centrifuged

(4000 rpm) for 15 min. The pellet was resuspended and re-extracted, as previously described, until a completely colorless supernatant was obtained. For polysaccharides extraction, the biomass was re-suspended in 200 mL of distilled water and warmed until reached 100°C. The solution was maintained for 2 hours at 100°C with constant stirring, and further centrifuged (4000 rpm) for 15 min. A second extraction was carried out with the precipitate resulted from the centrifugation. Polysaccharides were obtained by precipitation of the supernatant with 96% (v/v) ethanol 3:1 ratio during 48 h under 4°C. The solution was further centrifuged (4000 rpm for 10 min) and freeze-dried to obtain the UPRFs.

Elemental analysis

Total carbon (C), hydrogen (H), nitrogen (N), and sulfur (S) were determined from the UPRFs by total combustion technique using LECO TruSpec Micro CHNSO-Elemental Analyzer. The complete and instantaneous oxidation of the sample was obtained by pure combustion with controlled oxygen at a temperature of up to 1050°C (C, H, N, S) and pyrolysis at 1300°C (O) for decomposition of O as CO and oxidation to CO₂. The resulting combustion products, CO₂, H₂O, SO₂, and N₂, were subsequently quantified by a selective IR absorption detector (C, H, S) and TCD differential thermal conductivity sensor (N). The result of each element (C, H, N, S) is expressed in % with respect to the weight of the sample.

Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy

Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra of the UPRFs from *U. pseudorotundata* and *U. rigida* were obtained by using self-supporting pressed disks of 16 mm in diameter of a mixture of polysaccharides and KBr (1% w/w) with a hydrostatic press at a force of 15.0 t cm⁻² for 3 min. The FTIR spectra were obtained with a Thermo Nicolet Avatar 360 IR spectrophotometer (Thermo Electron Inc., USA) having a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ with a DTGS detector and using an OMNIC 7.2 software (bandwidth 50 cm⁻¹, enhancement factor 2.6) in the 400–4000 cm⁻¹ region. Baseline adjustment was performed using the Thermo Nicolet OMNIC software to flatten the baseline of each spectrum. The OMNIC correlation algorithm was used to compare sample spectra with those of the spectral library (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA).

Gas Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS)

Hydrolysis and derivatization of the UPRFs were performed by methanolysis and silylation reaction. For hydrolysis, 600 μL of HCl and MeOH 3N (Sigma Adrich) was added to 2 mg of polysaccharides samples. The resultant solution was kept at 80°C for 24 h. Next, samples were washed with methanol and dried under nitrogen gas flow at 50°C (Stuart Block Heater, SBH200D/3). For derivatization, a trimethylsilyl reaction was carried out with 300 μL of Tri-Sil (Pierce, Thermo) at 80°C for 1 h. The derivatized samples were cooled to room temperature and dried under a stream of nitrogen. The dry residue was extracted with 500 μL of hexane and centrifuged (15 min). The solution containing silylated monosaccharides was concentrated and reconstituted in 150 μL of hexane (LC-MS, Sigma), filtered and transferred to a GC-MS autosampler vial. Sample preparation and analyses were performed in duplicate. Polysaccharides samples and monosaccharides standards were treated using the same procedure.

The analyses GC-MSc were carried out using a gas chromatography Trace GC (Thermo Scientific), autosampler TriPlus AS (Thermo Scientific), and DSQ mass spectrometer quadrupole (Thermo Scientific). The column was ZB-5 Zebron, Phenomenex (5% Phenyl, 95% Dimethylpolysiloxane) with dimensions of 30 m \times 0.25 mm i.d. \times 0.25 μm . The column temperature program started at 80°C (held 2 min) and underwent a gradient of 5°C min^{-1} to reach a final temperature of 230 °C. The carrier gas was helium (flow 1.2 mL min^{-1}). The injection volume was 1 μL in splitless mode at 250°C. The source and MS transfer line temperature were 230°C. The mass spectrometer was set for a Select Ion Monitoring (SIM) program in electron ionization mode (EI) at 70 eV. The TMS-derivatives were identified by characteristic retention times and mass spectrum compared to those of the standards that were used for the identification of monosaccharides (glucose, galactose, mannose, xylose, rhamnose, ribose, and glucouronic acid). The compounds were identified by comparing the mass spectra with those in the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST 2014) library.

Antioxidant capacity (ABTS) Free-Radical Method

The determination of the antioxidant capacity of UPRFs were verified by the ABTS method based on the protocol of Re et al. (1999), with modification. ABTS radical was obtained by the dissolution of 7mM ABTS (2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) with 2.45mM potassium persulfate for 16 hours in the dark at room temperature. After the incubation time for the formation of free-radicals, the solution was diluted to an absorbance of 0.75 at 727

nm with the phosphate buffer. The final concentrations of UPRFs were 2.5, 5.0, 7.5, 10.0, 15.0, and 20.0 mg.mL⁻¹. A total of 50 µL of these samples were mixed with 950 µL of ABTS solution. The resulting mixture was allowed to stand for 8 min at room temperature and absorbance was immediately recorded with a spectrophotometer at 427 nm. ABTS radical scavenging capacity was calculated according to the following equation:

$$AA\% = \left(\frac{Abs_{control} - Abs_{sample}}{Abs_{control}} \right) \times 100$$

where, $Abs_{control}$ is the absorbance of the ABTS radical in phosphate buffer at time 0 and Abs_{sample} is the absorbance of the ABTS radical solution mixed with the sample after 8 min.

Cell Cultures

Five cell lines were used: human colon cancer cell line (HCT-116, ATCC, USA), human malignant melanoma (G-361, ATCC, USA), leukemia cell line (U-937, ATCC, USA), and one human health cell lines related to the skin (immortalized human keratinocytes: HACAT, ATCC, USA). Cell lines HCT-116 and G-361 were routinely cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Biowest, ref. L0103- 500) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Biowest ref. S1810-500), 1% penicillin–streptomycin solution 100x, (Biowest ref. L0022-020), and 0.5% of amphotericin B (Biowest ref. L0009-020). HACAT and U-937 were grown in RPMI-1640 medium (BioWhittaker, ref. BE12-167F) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Biowest ref. S1810-500), 1% penicillin–streptomycin solution 100x, and 0.5% of amphotericin B. All the cells were maintained sub-confluent at 37 °C in humidified air containing 5% CO₂. Cultured cells were collected by gentle scraping when confluence was reached 75% in the case of the HCT-116, HACAT, and G-361, as they are adherent cells. Scrapping of U-937 cells was not performed because these were cells in suspension. Thus, U-937 cells were collected by centrifugation at 1500 rpm for 5 min.

Cell Viability Assay

For cell viability assay, cells (6×10^3 cells well⁻¹) were incubated with different concentrations of UPRFs (5 to 9.7×10^{-3} mg.mL⁻¹) in serial dilutions. The experiment was conducted with each cell line in a 96-well microplate for 72 h at 37°C and 5% CO₂. Cell proliferation was estimated by the MTT (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl

tetrazolium bromide) assay (ABDALA-DÍAZ et al., 2011). Briefly, a volume of 10 μL of the MTT solution (5 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ in phosphate buffered saline) was added to each well and the plates were incubated at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 4h. The yellow tetrazolium salt of MTT is reduced by metabolically active cells due to the activity of the mitochondrial dehydrogenases resulting in insoluble purple formazan crystals. Formazan was dissolved by the addition of acid isopropanol (150 μL of 0.04 N HCl) and measured spectrophotometrically at 550 nm (BIO-TEK, FL600, INC. Winooski, VT, EUA). The relative cell viability was calculated with the follow equation:

$$\text{Cell viability(\%)} = \frac{\text{DO}_{\text{treatments}}}{\text{DO}_{\text{control}}} \times 100$$

where $\text{DO}_{\text{treatments}}$ is the absorbance of the treated cells, and $\text{DO}_{\text{control}}$ is the absorbance of the control cells (untreated cells). For the calculation of parameter EC_{50} we used the result obtained by cell viability (%) *versus* concentration ($\text{mg polysaccharide mL}^{-1}$). Four samples for each tested concentration were included in each experiment.

Determination of IC_{50} and selectivity index (SI)

The half maximal inhibitory concentrations (IC_{50}) of the UPRFs for each cell line was calculated by the linear part of the sigmoid curve of dose response relationship. To evaluate the cytotoxic selectivity of the UPRFs, we calculated the selectivity index (SI), defined as the ratio of the toxic concentration of a sample against its effective bioactive concentration (INDRAYANTO; PUTRA; SUHUD, 2020). The SI was calculated by the IC_{50} obtained from the normal cell line (HACAT) *vs* IC_{50} obtained from cancer cells lines according to the follow equation:

$$\text{SI} = \frac{\text{IC}_{50(\text{non-cancer cell})}}{\text{IC}_{50(\text{cancer cell})}}$$

Statistical Analysis

Antioxidant capacity and cell viability assay are presented as means \pm standard deviations of experiments. Student's *t* test for paired comparisons were used to compare the effect of the UPRFs obtained from different *Ulva* species for antioxidant capacity and values

of IC₅₀ obtained in all cell lines tested. Student's *t* test were also performed with the values obtained from selectivity index. Statistically significant differences were considered at $p < 0.05$.

4. RESULTS

Chemical Assessment

Elemental composition of Polysaccharides

The elemental composition of total carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen and sulfur content of UPRFs obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* are presented in Table 1. Carbon was the predominant element in both UPRF and similar values of sulfur were also observed.

Table. 1. Total carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and sulfur content (%) in ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction extracted from *Ulva rigida* and *Ulva pseudorotundata*.

	C	H	N	S
<i>U. rigida</i>	31.15	5.13	5.86	3.78
<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>	28.09	4.66	3.15	3.88

Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy

The FT-IR spectroscopy of the UPRFs obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* exhibited the presence of several bands from 4,000 to 600 cm⁻¹ (Figure 1). Both FT-IR spectra revealed similar band patterns, however, UPRF from *U. rigida* presented stronger peaks for all bands. A strong and wide signal was localized between 3,000 and 3,600 cm⁻¹ (A). Strong absorbances were also observed at approximately 1,650–1,700 (B) and 1,000–1,100 cm⁻¹ (E). Peaks in the polysaccharides from both seaweeds were also observed at about 1,400 (C), 1,250, (D) 800-900 (F), and 600 cm⁻¹ (G).

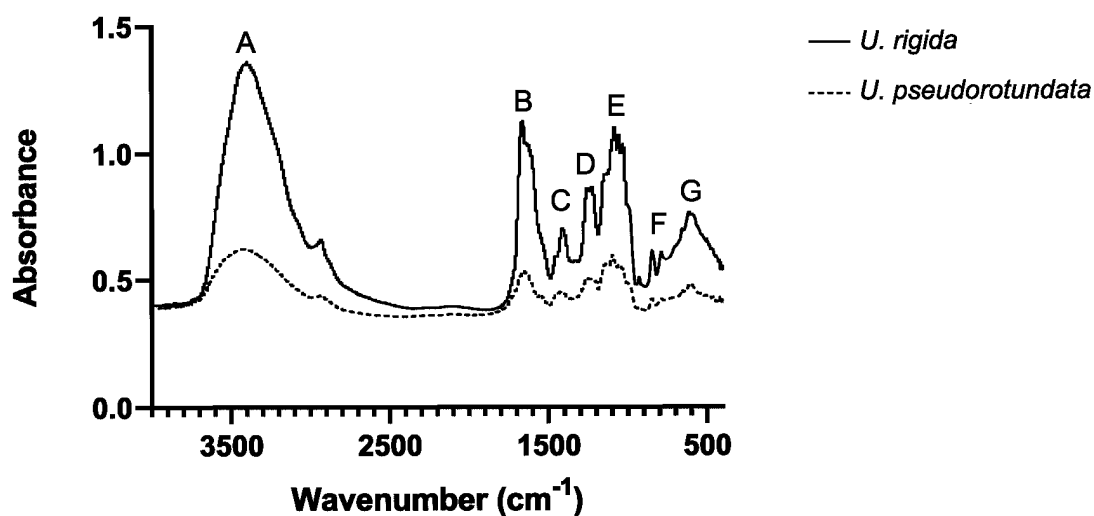


Fig. 1. Infrared spectrum of the ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction isolated from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Six bands (A, B, C, D, E, F and G) of greatest interest were identified according to their absorption bindings.

Gas Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS)

The gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis (Figure 2) showed that chemical structure of the UPRF obtained from *U. rigida* (Figure 2A) are constituted by the monosaccharides rhamnose (67.0%), glucose (23.8%), glucuronic acid (4.0%), xylose (3.0%), and galactose (2.0%). For *U. pseudorotundata*, rhamnose was also the main monosaccharide (about 51.2%), followed by xylose (24.1%), glucose (13.9%), glucuronic acid (4.8%), and galactose (2.8%). The presence of ribose and mannose were also detected representing only 1.6% and 1.2%, respectively.

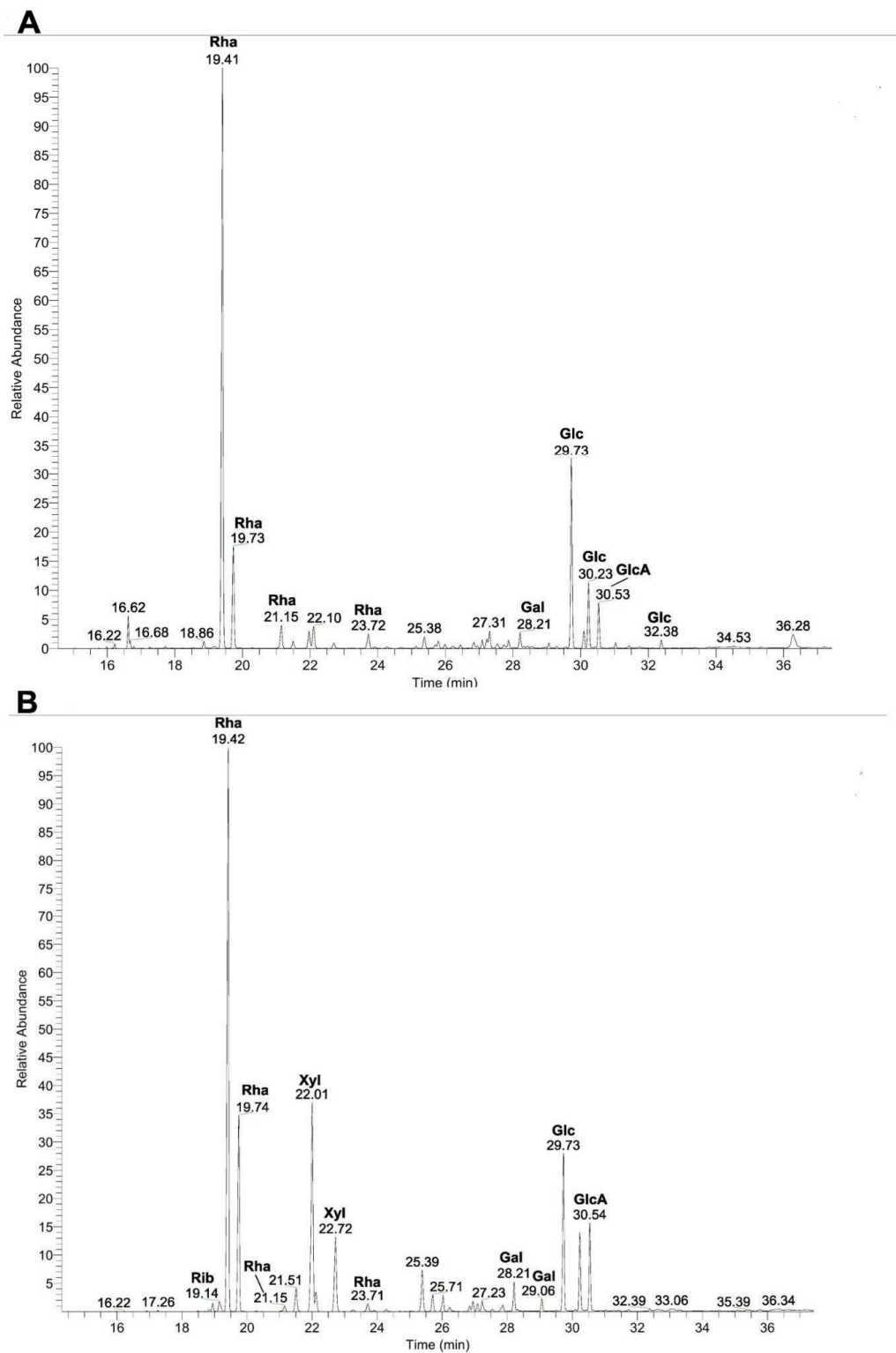


Fig. 2. Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry of the ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* (A) and *U. pseudorotundata* (B). The standards of monosaccharide composition identified: Rha: (rhamnose); Gal: (galactose); Glc: (glucose); GlcA: (glucouronic acid); Rib: (ribose); Xyl: (xylose).

Biological Assessment

Antioxidant Capacity

The antioxidant capacity of UPRFs obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* was measured using the radical ABTS⁺. The antioxidant (reduction) potential of ABTS methodology is based on electron transfer. Figure 3 shows ABTS radical scavenging capacity of UPRFs from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* and it was observed a dose-dependent radical scavenging capacity. The two UPRFs exhibited the same radical scavenging capacity at all tested concentrations except for the of 10 mg mL⁻¹ where the UPRF extracted from *U. rigida* presented a higher antioxidant capacity than *U. pseudorotundata* (*t*-student, $t(4) = 4.468$, $p = 0.011$).

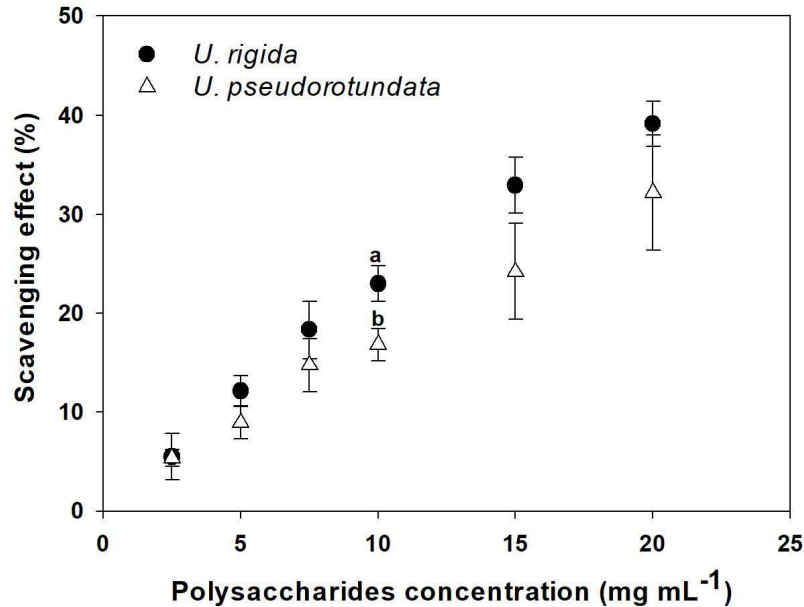


Fig. 3. Scavenging effects (%) of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* on ABTS radical. Letters above the symbols indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$, *t*-student test). Values are mean \pm SD, $n = 3$.

Cell Viability Assay

The survival (%) of HCT-116, G-361, U-937, and HACAT cell lines were verified under different concentrations of UPRFs obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* (Fig. 4, Fig.5, Fig.6, Fig. 7, and Table 2). In regard to tumoral cell lines, the results obtained with the MMT assay indicated a lower IC₅₀ values obtained to HCT-116 cells and no differences were

observed between both UPRFs with IC_{50} values of $0.31 \pm 0.04 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ for *U. rigida* and $0.32 \pm 0.02 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ for *U. pseudorotundata*. For G-361, no differences were observed in IC_{50} values comparing both UPRFs with IC_{50} value of $5.19 \pm 0.40 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ and $4.67 \pm 0.72 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ for *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*, respectively. Considering U-937 cell lines, UPRF isolated from *U. pseudorotundata* (IC_{50} : $2.47 \pm 0.26 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$) were more effective for inhibition of cell proliferation than UPRF obtained from *U. rigida* which presented an IC_{50} equivalent to $3.42 \pm 0.18 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$. In regard to the health cell line (HACAT), it was observed a higher IC_{50} for *U. rigida* ($2.51 \pm 0.75 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$) than for *U. pseudorotundata* ($1.3 \pm 0.30 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$) isolated UPRF. The selectivity index (SI) of UPRF's toxicity against HCT-116, G-361, U-937 are presented in Table 2. It was noticed that UPRFs extracted from both *Ulva* species presented the highest selectivity index against HCT-116 cell lines with values of 4.05 (± 1.11) for *U. pseudorotundata* and 8.03 (± 1.48) for *U. rigida*.

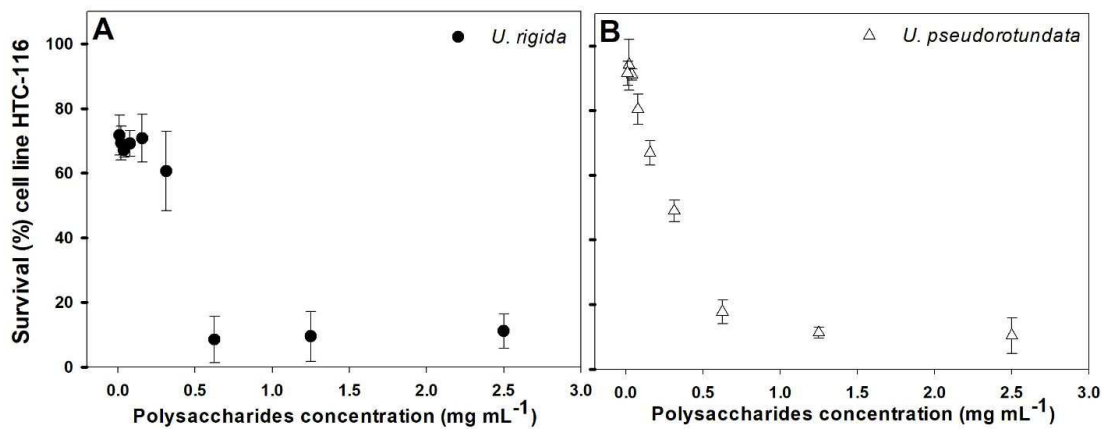


Fig. 4. Survival (%) of cell line HCT-116 exposed to different concentrations of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 4.

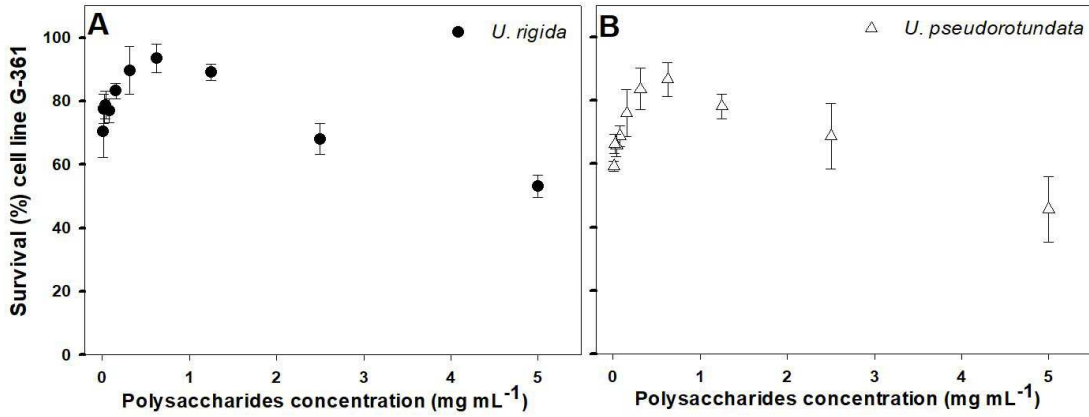


Fig. 5. Survival (%) of cell line G-361 exposed to different concentrations of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 4.

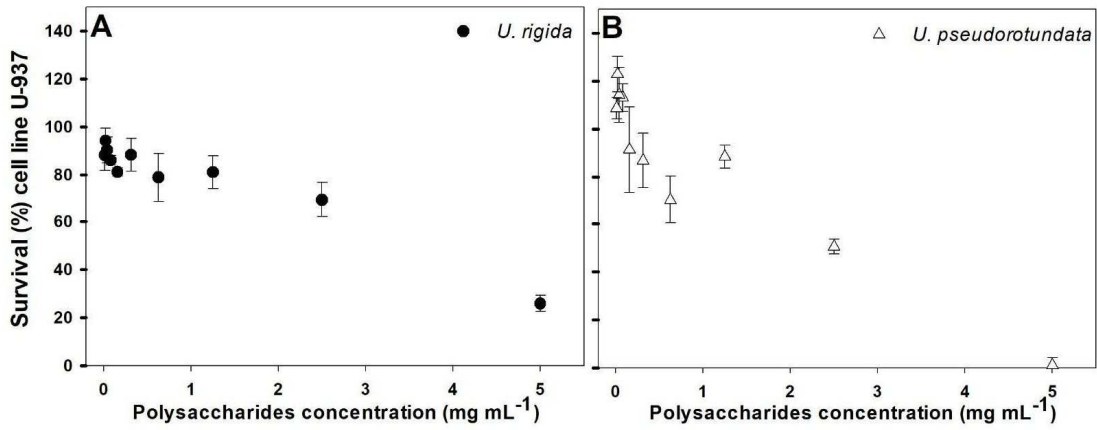


Fig. 6. Survival (%) of cell line U-937 exposed to different concentrations of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 4.

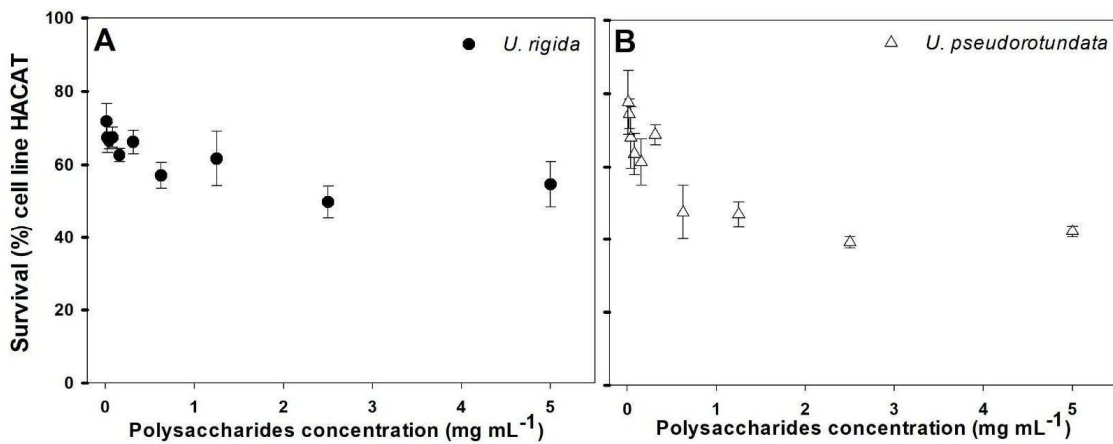


Fig. 7. Survival (%) of cell line HACAT exposed to different concentrations of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Values are mean \pm SD, n = 4.

Table. 2. Values of IC₅₀ (mg mL⁻¹) obtained from the cell viability assay of HCT-116, G-361, U-937, and HACAT. Cell lines were treated with different ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction concentrations obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. The selectivity index (SI) of polysaccharides against HCT-116, G-361, U-937 are presented. Values are mean (± SD), n = 4. T-student test results are presented. *df*: degree of freedom; *t*-value: T-statistic. The significant differences in treatments (*p* < 0.05) are shown in bold.

	<i>U. rigida</i>		<i>U. pseudorotundata</i>		<i>df</i>	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i>
IC₅₀							
HCT-116	0.31	± 0.04	0.32	± 0.02	6	0.72	0.50
G-361	5.19	± 0.40	4.67	± 0.72	6	-1.26	0.25
U-937	3.42	± 0.18	2.47	± 0.26	6	-5.93	0.00
HACAT	2.51	± 0.75	1.30	± 0.30	6	-3.01	0.02
SI							
HCT-116	8.03	± 1.48	4.05	± 1.11	6	-4.31	0.01
G-361	0.49	± 0.15	0.28	± 0.02	6	-2.78	0.03
U-937	0.74	± 0.27	0.52	± 0.11	6	-1.51	0.18

5. DISCUSSION

As bioeconomic development grows worldwide there is an increasing attention for the use of natural products as raw materials. In this context, seaweed biomass can be a source of a vast number of valuable compounds, which can be applied for biotechnological purposes. In the present study we characterized and obtained biological assessment of ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction (UPRF) extracted from two *Ulva* species: *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata*. Both UPRF presented similar chemical structure and composition. By the FT-IR spectroscopy we observed that UPRFs isolated from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* revealed the presence of several functional groups: carboxylic, hydroxyl, and sulfonate groups. The spectra presented similar absorption peaks for both polysaccharides indicating the presence of the same functional groups in their composition. Moreover, absorbance peaks observed in the present work correspond to the typical infrared spectrum of ulvan already reported by Ray and Lahaye (1995) and Robic et al. (2009) characterized by high absorbances in the regions of 3,300-3,600, 1,650, 1,070, and 1,250 and smaller ones at about 1,400, 850, and 790 cm⁻¹. The broad and strong signal centered at around 3,000-3,600 can be related to hydroxyl (-OH) and amino (-NH) groups, typical of polysaccharides from seaweed (ABDALA-DÍAZ et al., 2019). Peaks in the regions of 1,650 and 1,400 correspond to carboxylate groups while the region of 1,070 could be related to the sugars rhamnose and glucuronic acid (C-O) (ROBIC et al., 2009). The presence of sulfate esters (S=O) are detected by the peak in the region of 1,250, which can be attributed

to the sulfate groups already described for sulfated polysaccharides in other different marine algae (ABDALA-DÍAZ et al., 2011, 2019). Bands located in 850 and 790 are related to sugar cycles (ROBIC et al., 2009).

As the composition of ulvans can vary depending on conditions prior to extraction (eg. species, location, cultivation conditions) and the following steps during extraction procedure (e.g. solvents, temperature, duration of extraction), the identification of ulvan's monosaccharides composition assumes a critical role in the study of biological properties. Monosaccharide composition analysis by GC-MS revealed that both UPRFs contained mainly rhamnose, which constituted over 50% of detected monosaccharides. This result is in agreement with previous data demonstrating the presence of rhamnose as a major sugar in ulvan (LAHAYE et al., 1999; MAO et al., 2006; RAY; LAHAYE, 1995). Although, in the present study, both species were previously acclimated under the same conditions and submitted to the same procedures for polysaccharides extraction, a variation was observed on the remaining monosaccharides composition. Besides rhamnose, UPRF extracted from *U. rigida* presented a higher quantity of glucose than *U. pseudorotundata*, which presented a higher concentration of xylose. According to Kidgell et al. (2019) ulvans obtained from *U. rigida* may present 1.6 to 46.1% glucose. In a study with ulvans obtained from various *Ulva* species, Lahaye et al. (1999) observed that the polysaccharide isolated from *U. rigida* tended to be mainly composed by rhamnose (50.9-58.3%) followed by glucuronic acid (19.0-30.4%) and presented glucose levels in a range between 6.3 and 12.0%. In the same study, *U. rotundata* (synonym of *U. pseudorotundata* - Guiry et al. 2014) exhibited predominantly rhamnose (46.7-54.0%) followed by glucuronic acid (17.8-28.9%) and xylose (5.4-23.8%). Those results demonstrated the variability of ulvan composition and chemical structure indicating the need of ulvan characterization prior to biological studies and potential applications.

In overall perspective, it should be noted that UPRF extracted from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* presented similar antioxidant capacity, reaching between 32 and 39% of free radical scavenging. The antioxidant activity of ulvans has been verified in other *Ulva* species including *U. intestinalis* and *U. pertusa* (RAHIMI; TABARSA; REZAEI, 2016; ZHANG et al., 2010). Le et al. (2019) reported similar antioxidant capacity of ulvan extracted from *U. pertusa* however using a lower concentration of ulvan (0.8 mg mL⁻¹). The high antioxidant capacity presented by the previous work was obtained in an optimized ulvan extraction condition by microwave-assisted extraction technology under modulation of time, power, water-to-raw-

material ratio, and pH indicating that extraction processes do not affect antioxidant capacity of ulvans. According to Le et al. (2019) the antioxidant activity of ulvans depends on factors such as the presence of sulfate group, the content of hydroxyl and carboxyl groups of the monosaccharides as well as the hydrogen donation potential. Castro-Varela et al. (2022) reported significant antioxidant properties of sulfate polysaccharide and Phycoerythrin concentration from the red algae *Sarcopeltis skottsbergii* which were increased using ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) and high pressure homogenization (HPH) extraction techniques. In this context, we suggest that techniques employed for the ulvan extraction process e.g. microwaving, ultrasonication, and enzymatic reduction could enhance the availability of polysaccharides, releasing possible interaction sites that could promote greater antioxidant capacity.

Cell viability assay indicated that UPRFs obtained from both *Ulva* species exhibited anti-tumor activity against colon carcinoma (HCT-116) cell lines with an IC_{50} value lower than 0.33 mg mL^{-1} . In the case of tumor cell lines G-361 and U-937, the antiproliferative potential of both UPRFs were lower than that obtained from HTC-116 with IC_{50} higher than 4.6 and 2.4 mg mL^{-1} , respectively. In study with *U. lactuca*, Ahmed and Ahmed (2014) verified that ulvan had anti-tumor activity against HCT-116 and HepG2 (hepatoma) cell lines, exhibiting an IC_{50} 22.65 and 55.56 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$, respectively. In comparison with polysaccharides extracted from other seaweed, the values obtained in the present work demonstrated that UPRF was more cytotoxic in HCT-116 cell line than sulfated polysaccharides isolated from the brown seaweed *Laminaria ochroleuca*, which exhibited a IC_{50} of 0.44 mg mL^{-1} (ABDALA-DÍAZ et al., 2019). According to Weerapreeyakul et al. (2012) an extract with IC_{50} value between 0.1 – 0.5 mg mL^{-1} could be considered as having moderate cytotoxicity, which was observed only for HTC-116 cell lines. As reported by Ahmed and Ahmed (2014), the anti-proliferative effect of ulvan against tumor cells line could be related to the upregulation of via pro-apoptotic and cell cycle arrest protein p53 but also by the down-regulation of Bcl-2 protein, responsible for promote cell viability. In this context, further studies with proteins and genes involved in the life of cancer cells should verify how ulvan is interfering in tumor suppressor mechanisms.

According to Indrayanto et al. (2020) the calculation of selectivity index should be obtained as part of the validation of in-vitro bioassay of an isolated compound. In this context, we evaluated whether the toxicity of our UPRFs against HCT-116 cell lines also affected normal cell lines (HACAT). As described by Weerapreeyakul et al. (2012), an isolated

compound with SI value ≥ 3 (IC_{50} 10 - 100 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) could be selected for further investigation. As the UPRFs obtained from *U. rigida* and *U. pseudorotundata* exhibited SI values greater than 3, we suggest that both polysaccharides should be considered in future evaluations regarding their potential anticancer bioactivity. Besides anti-cancer capacity, several works have been describing the potential of ulvan as an anti-coagulating, immunomodulating, and antiviral compound (CHIU et al., 2012; LEIRO et al., 2007; MAO et al., 2006). In work reported by Leiro et al. (2007), sulphated polysaccharides obtained from *U. rigida* demonstrated an *in vitro* immunomodulating activity by the stimulation of RAW264.7 macrophage cell lines. Anticoagulant potential of sulfated polysaccharides isolated from *U. conglobata* was described by the mediation of coagulation pathways as the inhibition of thrombin activity (MAO et al., 2006). In the study performed with sulfated polysaccharide obtained from *U. lactuca*, Chiu et al. (2012) reported the antiviral activity of the polysaccharide against Japanese encephalitis virus (JEV) due to mechanisms related to the reduction virus adsorption, inhibiting them to get into Vero cells. In this context the potential of ulvan for biomedical applications has been highlighted for nutraceutical and pharmaceutical product development.

In conclusion, our study suggested that ulvan polysaccharide-rich fraction isolated from *Ulva rigida* and *Ulva pseudorotundata*, native species from the Spanish Mediterranean coast, presented similar chemical and structure composition. Moreover, both UPRFs presented *in vitro* antioxidant capacity and selectivity cytotoxicity against HCT-116 cell line, which could be considered a potential valuable ingredient for the development of biotechnological products. We also suggest that further studies are needed to deeply understand the cellular and molecular mechanisms involved in the interaction of ulvan and cancer cells.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare they have no competing interests as defined by Springer, or other interests that might be perceived to influence the results and/or discussion reported in this paper.

Data availability statement

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request

Author Contributions

Massocato, T. dedicated to experimental design, algal cultivation, ulvan's extraction, statistical analysis, data interpretation, and original draft;

Robles-Carnero, V. responsible for algal cultivation and biomass provision;

Moreira, B. responsible for cells viability assay and data interpretation;

Castro-Varela, P. responsible for cells viability assay and ulvan's chemical assessment;

Bonomi-Barufi, J. reviewed and edited the manuscript text;

Abdala-Díaz, R. supervised polysaccharides extraction procedure, chemical assessment and cells viability assay;

Röriq, L. reviewed, edited the manuscript text, supervised and provided funding acquisition;

Figuerola, F.L. reviewed, edited the manuscript text, supervised and provided funding acquisition;

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CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS E CONCLUSÃO

O presente trabalho buscou entender aspectos de biofiltração de nutrientes presentes em efluentes advindos do cultivo de peixes utilizando macroalgas marinhas de duas espécies: *Ulva rigida* e *Ulva pseudorotundata*. Além do papel como organismos biofiltradores, também foi analisada a performance fisiológica dos cultivos algais através de medidas de fluorescência *in vivo* da clorofila-*a* para obtenção de parâmetros fotossintéticos. A biomassa gerada nos experimentos foi analisada em termos de composição elementar e bioquímica. Para avaliação da biomassa algal para aplicação biotecnológica foram extraídos polissacarídeos para posterior caracterização e ensaios de atividade anti-oxidante e citotoxicidade celular.

No primeiro capítulo, foram utilizadas, de forma isoladas, 3 diferentes concentrações de duas fontes de nitrogênio inorgânico (NH_4^+ e NO_3^-) simulando nutrientes presentes no efluente de peixes. Os experimentos realizados em condições não controladas de luz e temperatura nos permitiram analisar a performance dos cultivos em condições próximas de escala piloto de produção comercial de algas. Os dados obtidos nos possibilitam observar que, em 24 horas de experimento, as biomassas de algas utilizadas foram suficientes para remoção total dos nutrientes nas concentrações testadas. No entanto, observamos que a remoção de NH_4^+ foi mais rápida que a remoção NO_3^- . Tal aspecto condiz com dados obtidos por outros trabalhos também realizados com algas do gênero *Ulva*, sob condições *indoor* e *outdoor* de experimentos, o que é explicado pela preferência de *Ulva* em assimilar NH_4^+ que NO_3^- . A rápida remoção de NH_4^+ em relação a NO_3^- está ligada aos mecanismos de absorção e incorporação dessas duas diferentes fontes de nitrogênio, envolvendo maior gasto energético de NO_3^- . Ao analisar os dados de forma integrada observamos que os maiores valores dos parâmetros de ETR_{max} (taxa máxima de transporte de elétrons) obtidos das curvas rápidas de luz (RLC), estão agrupados próximos aos que correspondem à remoção de NO_3^- , o que indica o maior custo energético para absorção e assimilação dessa fonte de nutriente. No âmbito de composição elementar e bioquímica da biomassa não foi verificada diferenças significativas em decorrência dos nutrientes usados.

Os dados apresentados no segundo capítulo nos mostram que as espécies de *U. rigida* e *U. pseudorotundata*, apesar de coletadas em locais ambientalmente distintos em termos de variação de luz, temperatura, dessecação e disponibilidade de nutrientes, apresentaram aspectos similares de remoção de nutrientes e performance fotossintética. Neste capítulo foi utilizado efluentes advindos dos cultivos de *Chelon labrosus* em que estavam presentes as duas fontes

de nutrientes usadas no capítulo 1. Ambas as espécies removeram mais rapidamente NH_4^+ que NO_3^- , o que condiz com os dados obtidos no capítulo 1. Dessa forma, concluímos que quando as duas fontes de nutrientes estiverem disponíveis no meio, os cultivos de *Ulva* removerão preferencialmente NH_4^+ que NO_3^- . Os dados obtidos através dos parâmetros fotossintéticos mostraram que, mesmo expostas às condições ambientais de irradiância, os cultivos não apresentaram fotoinibição nos períodos do dia de maior incidência de luz, o que pode estar atrelado à condição de nutriente suficiente fornecida aos cultivos, permitindo mecanismos de fotoproteção das algas. Nesse sentido, podemos inferir que a disponibilidade suficiente de nitrogênio no meio permite a redução dos efeitos inibitórios comuns de estresse a curto prazo, como o aumento da irradiância, na fotossíntese. Os dados obtidos ao longo do período experimental correspondentes à eficiência de biofiltração de NO_3^- (NUE) e eficiência fotossintética das algas (α_{ETR}) permitiram a obtenção de um modelo de regressão linear evidenciando correlação positiva entre fotossíntese e remoção de NO_3^- . Dados de biomassa mostraram que as taxas de crescimento das algas cultivadas em 100% efluente foram maiores do que aquelas obtidas em 50% efluente. Além disso, quando cultivadas na concentração de 100% de efluente, foi detectado um incremento significativo no teor de proteína em ambas as espécies de *Ulva*.

Como possível destino da biomassa de *Ulva* foram realizadas extração, caracterização elementar e química dos polissacarídeos. Concluímos que os polissacarídeos, compostos majoritariamente por ulvanos, apresentaram capacidade antioxidante em função do aumento das concentrações utilizadas dos mesmos. Em ensaios *in vitro* com cultivos celulares de diferentes linhagens celulares verificamos que os polissacarídeos de ambas as algas apresentaram maior toxicidade para linhagens celulares de câncer de cólon (HTC-116). O índice de seletividade (*selectivity index*) nos permitiu verificar que apesar de apresentarem toxicidade às células cancerígenas (HTC-116) estes compostos não são potencialmente tóxicos para células de linhagens não cancerígenas (queratinócitos – HACAT) o que indica a potencial utilização dos polissacarídeos para formulação de componentes farmacológicos.

Como sugestões para trabalhos futuros destacamos a realização de experimentos com cultivos acoplados de algas e peixes. Também se propõe a elaboração de sistemas de cultivo que poderiam potencializar o papel biofiltrador das algas, como por exemplo, a alternância da entrada de efluentes entre diferentes cultivos algais, permitindo que os cultivos passem por um período de *starvation* o que poderia manter máxima capacidade de remoção dos nutrientes

advindos dos efluentes. Também sugerimos que experimentos realizados especialmente com o nutriente NH_4^+ tenham o monitoramento contínuo do pH do meio afim de compreender se os cultivos algais atuam na remoção indireta de nitrogênio através da atividade fotossintética.

Com respeito à exploração da biomassa para diferentes destinos comerciais, sugere-se a realização de ensaios com a biomassa remanescente da extração de polissacarídeos, como por exemplo, para a utilização como fertilizantes na agricultura.

Os dados obtidos na presente tese permitem verificar a aplicabilidade na utilização de cultivos de espécies de *Ulva* coletadas na costa mediterrânea da Espanha para depuração de nutrientes de efluentes da maricultura gerando potencial biomassa como fonte sustentável de matéria-prima para o desenvolvimento de produtos industriais. No entanto, é importante destacar que no litoral brasileiro, até o atual momento, já foram descritas a ocorrência de 15 espécies de algas deste gênero (CARNEIRO, 2021) evidenciando a potencialidade do Brasil como país promissor para cultivos de *Ulva* em sistemas multitróficos integrados e posterior exploração da biomassa algal.

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APÊNDICE A

O sequenciamento obtido das identificações moleculares das algas estudadas neste trabalho: *Ulva rigida* e *Ulva pseudorotundata*, através de marcadores do gene *RbcL*, foram depositados no banco de dados GenBank - National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI), Números de acesso: OP020918.1 (*U. rigida*) and OP020919.1 (*U. pseudorotundata*). Os dados presentes nesse anexo complementam a árvore filogenética apresentada no capítulo 2 desta tese.

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Ulva rigida ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subu - Nucleotide - NCBI



An official website of the United States government

[Here's how you know.](#)

[Log in](#)

Nucleotide

GenBank

Ulva rigida ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit (rbcL) gene, partial cds; chloroplast

GenBank: OP020918.1

[FASTA](#) [Graphics](#)

[Go to:](#)

LOCUS OP020918 1174 bp DNA linear PLN 03-AUG-2022

DEFINITION Ulva rigida ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit (rbcL) gene, partial cds; chloroplast.

ACCESSION OP020918

VERSION OP020918.1

KEYWORDS .

SOURCE chloroplast Ulva rigida

ORGANISM [Ulva rigida](#)

Eukaryota; Viridiplantae; Chlorophyta; Ulvophyceae; OOU clade; Ulvales; Ulvaceae; Ulva.

REFERENCE 1 (bases 1 to 1174)

AUTHORS Massocato, T.F.

TITLE Growth, biofiltration and photosynthetic performance of Ulva spp. cultivated in fishpond effluents: an outdoor study

JOURNAL Front Mar Sci (2022) In press

REFERENCE 2 (bases 1 to 1174)

AUTHORS Massocato, T.F.

TITLE Direct Submission

JOURNAL Submitted (18-JUL-2022) Department of Botany, Federal University of Santa Catarina, R. Eng. Agronomico Andrei Cristian Ferreira, S/N - Trindade, Florianopolis, Santa Catarina 88040-900, Brazil

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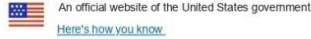
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//

04/08/2022 16:55 Ulva pseudorotundata ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase I - Nucleotide - NCBI



Log in

Nucleotide [dropdown menu]

GenBank

Ulva pseudorotundata ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit (rbcl) gene, partial cds; chloroplast

GenBank: OP020919.1

FASTA Graphics

Go to:

LOCUS OP020919 611 bp DNA linear PLN 03-AUG-2022

DEFINITION Ulva pseudorotundata ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit (rbcl) gene, partial cds; chloroplast.

ACCESSION OP020919

VERSION OP020919.1

KEYWORDS .

SOURCE chloroplast Ulva pseudorotundata

ORGANISM Ulva_pseudorotundata Eukaryota; Viridiplantae; Chlorophyta; Ulvophyceae; OOU clade; Ulvales; Ulvaceae; Ulva.

REFERENCE 1 (bases 1 to 611)

AUTHORS Massocato,T.F. TITLE Growth, biofiltration and photosynthetic performance of Ulva spp. cultivated in fishpond effluents: an outdoor study

JOURNAL Front Mar Sci (2022) In press

REFERENCE 2 (bases 1 to 611)

AUTHORS Massocato,T.F.

TITLE Direct Submission

JOURNAL Submitted (18-JUL-2022) Department of Botany, Federal University of Santa Catarina, R. Eng. Agronomico Andrei Cristian Ferreira, 5/N - Trindade, Florianopolis, Santa Catarina 88040-900, Brazil

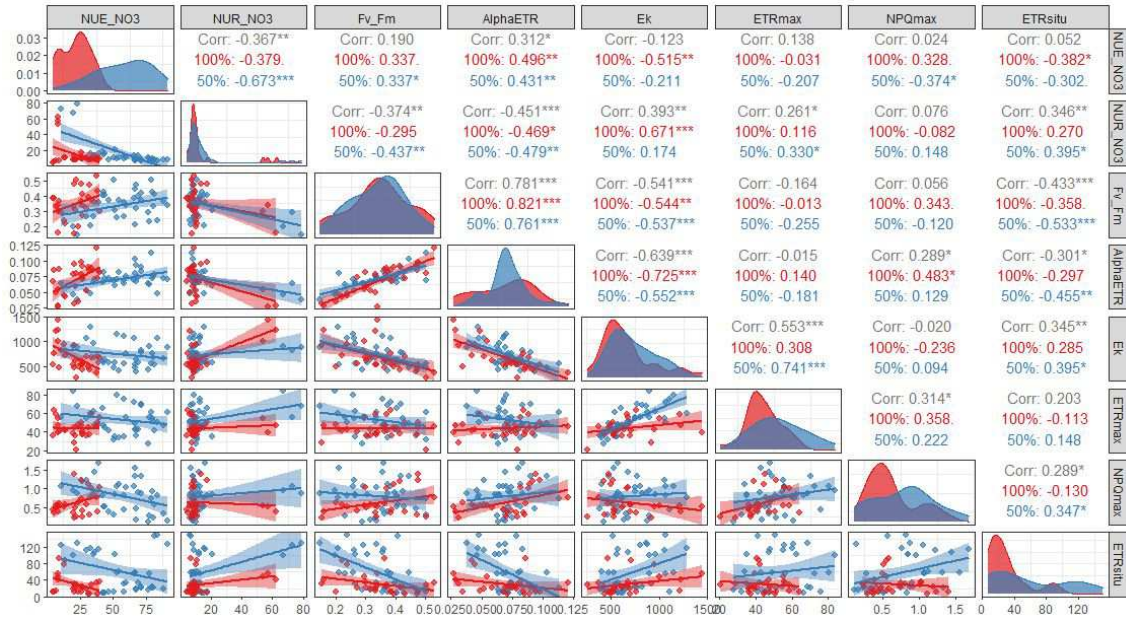
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FEATURES Location/Qualifiers

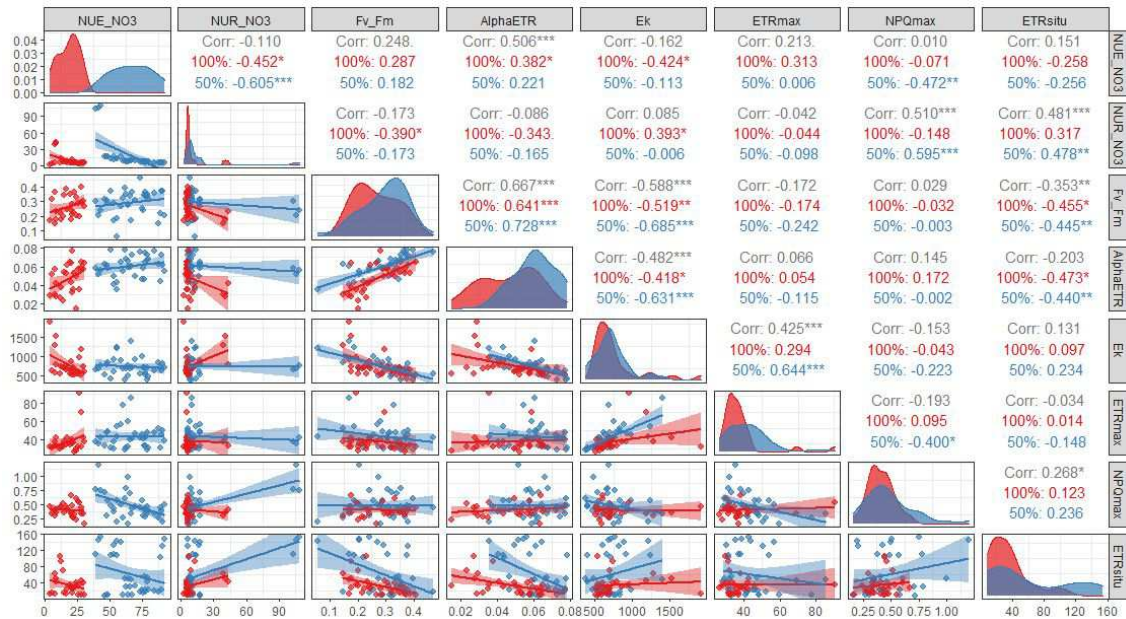
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ORIGIN

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Anexo 1. Spearman correlation values between nitrate biofiltration parameters and photosynthetic parameters obtained from *U. pseudorotundata* cultivation under two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Symbols indicate significance level: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.



Anexo 2. Spearman correlation values between nitrate biofiltration parameters and photosynthetic parameters obtained from *U. rigida* cultivation under two experimental conditions: (1) 50% fish effluent and (2) 100% fish effluent. Symbols indicate significance level: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

ANEXO A

A seguir estão apresentadas equações de conversão:

$$\text{NH}_4 \text{ (mg/L)} = \text{NH}_4 \text{ (}\mu\text{mol)} \cdot 0,018$$

$$\text{NO}_3 \text{ (mg/L)} = \text{NO}_3 \text{ (}\mu\text{mol)} \cdot 0,062$$

$$\text{PO}_4 \text{ (mg/L)} = \text{PO}_4 \text{ (}\mu\text{mol)} \cdot 0,094$$