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1 **Characterization and Impact of Silver nanoparticles on cell growth, lipid, carbohydrate**
2 **and fatty acids of *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Dictyochloropsis splendida***

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11 **Abstract**

12 **Background:** Many efforts have been made to increase the productivity of microalgae for biodiesel productions. The
13 use of silver nanoparticles is the novel way to elicit stress responses with enhanced lipid level.

14 **Results:** In this study, the biosynthesis of extracellular silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) was reported and their impacts
15 as elicitors on the cell growth and metabolite contents of *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Dictyochloropsis splendida* were
16 evaluated. The production of AgNPs was achieved by the reduction of silver nitrate (AgNO₃) solution, after incubation
17 at 35°C overnight with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* supernatant, and exposed to gamma irradiation at 100 Gy for 1.5
18 mins.

19 The biosynthesis was confirmed by the maximum absorption peak at 455 nm with the UV–Vis Spectrophotometer.
20 The Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) recorded the spherical nanoparticles size of 10 nm, while the Dynamic Light
21 Scattering (DLS) recorded the size range of 6.7 to 12.1 nm (84.2%) and the particles were monodispersed. The Gas
22 Chromatography/Mass Spectroscopic analysis of the bacterial filtrate before reaction with AgNO₃ suggested the
23 presence of ethylene glycol derivatives which may act as a reducing agent of silver ions to silver nanoparticles. Lower
24 AgNPs concentrations (1, 3 and 5 mg/L) enhanced the lipid production but at the expense of cell growth. All AgNPs
25 concentrations however displayed a negative impact on carbohydrates content. The lipid profile of the AgNPs-treated
26 algae showed the appearance or disappearance, and increase or decrease of certain fatty acids, as compared to the

27 untreated control. The Saturated Fatty Acids represented the highest composition (61-67%) of the total fatty acids and
28 Palmitic acids (16:0) were dominant (43.06-46.57%).

29 **Conclusion:** Lipids of this composition could withstand autoxidation during storage and are perfect feedstock for
30 biodiesel and other lipid based applications.

31 **Keywords:** *Dictyochloropsis splendida*, *Chlorella vulgaris*, Cell growth kinetics, Lipid, Carbohydrate, Silver
32 nanoparticles

33 1. Introduction

34 The field of nanotechnology has found diverse applications and the incorporation of nano-materials is increasing in a
35 number of commercial products such as cosmetics, medicine, food packaging, odour-resistant textile, household
36 applications and medical devices (as wound dressings) [1,2]. Metal nanoparticles have unique physico-chemical
37 characteristics including catalytic and antimicrobial activities, and with their nano-size and highly precise surface area,
38 the metal nanoparticles can easily penetrate the cell wall and interact with internal cellular biomolecules [3]. Silver,
39 long known to exhibit inhibitory effects on microorganisms, is commonly present in medical and industrial process
40 [4]. Silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) is one of the most widely synthesized particle which have effects on the growth of
41 microorganisms, plants and mammalian cells[5-7]. The broad spectrum of antimicrobial properties of silver and
42 AgNPs encourage its use in biomedical applications, water and air purification, food production, clothing, household
43 products, cosmetics, contraceptives, cell phones, laptop keyboards, children's toys [8]. Nanoparticles such as AgNPs
44 have exhibited different degrees of *in vitro* cytotoxicity [9,10].

45 Metal and metal oxide nanoparticles (such as Zn, Mg, Se, Cu, TiO₂, Fe₂O₃, MgO and Carbon) have been
46 introduced as elicitors in different microalgal and cyanobacterial species. The use of trace or low nanoparticle
47 concentrations has reportedly induced stimulation of algal biomass and pigment content with enhanced lipid
48 production [11-16]. The effects of AgNPs on diatom *Skeletonema costatum* [17], *Thalassiosira pseudonana* and
49 *Cyanobacterium synechococcus* sp. [18] and the eukaryotic green algae [6] have been reported. AgNPs have also been
50 applied for cell wall disruption to release carbohydrate and lipid from *C. vulgaris* for biofuel production [19]. The
51 AgNP-Algae interactions cause oxidative dissolution, reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation and synergistic toxic
52 effects [20]. The nanoparticles may actually lead to excessive production of ROS resulting in oxidative stress, which

53 ultimately diverts the algal metabolic pathway away from the growth pathways into the production of hydrocarbon
54 (lipids or carbohydrates) as storage compounds [16].

55 Synthesis of nanoparticles and nanomaterials are widely performed using physical, chemical or biological
56 methods. The physical methods which include thermal decomposition, laser irradiation, condensation, diffusion, are
57 low cost and environmentally-friendly, but has low yield. Chemical synthesis on the other hand may incorporate toxic
58 chemical solvents and generate hazardous by-products [21]. Hence, the biological methods with microorganisms
59 (bacteria, yeast, and fungi), algae or plants where the use of culture free-cells of these biological sources are considered
60 as green chemistry approach, fast, and low cost but with high yield. These are widely utilized to reduce the chosen
61 metal solution under controlled conditions and in most cases, the change in the color of the reaction solution is used
62 as an indicator of the nanoparticle being synthesized [22]. The biosynthesis may occur intracellularly or the
63 nanoparticles may be extracellularly released to the reaction solution from which the nanoparticles can be separated
64 out by physical means [23]. The biosynthesis of metal nanoparticles may be triggered by several compounds present
65 in the biological filtrate acting as reducing agents such as hydroxyl or carbonyl groups, terpenoids, phenolics, amines,
66 proteins, pigments and alkaloids [24]. The biosynthesis of AgNPs, in certain conditions, is also attributed to the
67 presence of enzyme Nitrate reductase [25].

68 The objectives of this study were to biosynthesize the AgNPs using bacterial filtrate of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
69 strain (Accession no. 3NPO614) from Silver nitrate solution. The characteristics of the produced AgNPs were analysed
70 by AFM and DLS. The effects of AgNPs on the cell growth, lipid, carbohydrate and free fatty acids content of the
71 green microalgae, *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Dictyochloropsis splendida*, were investigated.

72

73 **2. Materials and Methods**

74 **2.1. Bacterial strain cultivation and extracellular synthesis of AgNPs**

75 The bacterial strain used for AgNPs biosynthesis was isolated from the soil sample contaminated with crude petroleum
76 oil from Suez Canal, Egypt. The strain was molecularly identified (by 16S rRNA) as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and
77 the sequence deposited in Genbank (Accession no. 3NPO 614).

78 The bacterial isolate was cultivated in LB broth (g L^{-1}): 10Tryptone, 5 yeast extract, 5 sodium chloride) [26] for
79 48 h at 37°C . After incubation, the cell-free supernatant was collected by centrifugation at 8000 rpm for 10 min in 250
80 ml conical flask. Solution of AgNO_3 (Sigma Chemical Co., USA) was added to the bacterial culture supernatant to get
81 the final concentration of 3 mM AgNO_3 , and the control was the culture supernatant only. The flasks were left over
82 night at room temperature (35°C), and then exposed to gamma irradiation of 100 Gy (Co-60 unit, 4000-A-India). for
83 1.5 mins at the National Center for Radiation Research and Technology (NCRRT), Egyptian Atomic Energy Authority
84 (EAEA), Egypt. The color change from pale yellow to brown was visually checked, which indicated the extracellular
85 synthesis of AgNPs. To evaluate the effect of gamma radiation on AgNPs synthesis, 3 mM AgNO_3 was irradiated by
86 100 Gy separately.

87

88 **2.2. Characterization of AgNPs**

89 The synthesized AgNPs were confirmed by using UV–Vis spectrophotometer (T60, UK) by detecting their maximum
90 absorbance.

91 The size and shape of AgNPs were analyzed by the Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) (Agilent 5500 AFM
92 Scanning Probe Microscopy, USA). The microscopic images were recorded at different ranges of magnifications using
93 silicon cantilever with force constant of 42 Nm^{-1} .

94 The size and dispersion of the AgNPs were characterized by the Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS, Zetasizer Nano
95 ZS, UK). The size was determined using Nano ZS Zetasizer system (Malvern Instruments, UK). Before DLS
96 measurement, the supernatant was passed through a $0.2\ \mu\text{m}$ polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane, and the
97 sample was loaded into quartz microcuvette. Five measurements were performed and the mean was recorded. The
98 conditions set were: a laser wavelength of 633nm (He-Ne), a scattering angle of 173° (fixed – without changing
99 possibility), a measurement temperature of 25°C , a medium viscosity of 0.8872 mpa.s, a medium refractive index of
100 1.330 and a material refractive index of 0.200.

101

102 **2.3. Determination of the bioreductant in the bacterial filtrate**

103 The bacterial filtrate before reaction with AgNO₃ was analyzed by the Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry
104 (GC/MS, Trace GC1310-ISQ Mass Spectrometer, Thermo Scientific, USA) with a direct capillary column TG-5MS
105 (30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 μm film thickness). The column oven temperature was initially held at 50°C and then
106 increased by 7°C/min to 230 °C hold for 2 min, and increased by 15°C /min to the final temperature 290°C and held
107 for 2 min. The injector and MS transfer line temperatures were kept at 250, 270°C respectively; Helium was used as
108 a carrier gas at a constant flow rate of 1 ml/min. The solvent delay was 3 min and diluted samples of 1 μl were injected
109 automatically using Autosampler AS1300 coupled with GC in the split mode. EI mass spectra were collected at 70
110 eV ionization voltages over the range of m/z 45–650 in full scan mode. The ion source temperature was set at 200 °C.
111 The components were identified by comparison of their retention times and mass spectra with those of WILEY 09 and
112 NIST 11 mass spectral database.

113

114 **2.4. Effects of AgNPs on microalgal cell growth, lipid and carbohydrates**

115 Two fresh water microalgae, *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Dictyochloropsis splendida*, were cultivated in BG-11 medium
116 [27], consisting of (g L⁻¹): 1.5 NaNO₃, 0.04 K₂HPO₄, 0.075 MgSO₄•7H₂O, 0.036 CaCl₂•2H₂O, 0.006 citric acid, 0.006
117 ferric ammonium citrate, 0.02 Na₂CO₃, 0.001 Na-EDTA, and 1 ml of trace metal solution per liter. The trace metal
118 solution contained (g L⁻¹): 2.86 H₃BO₃, 1.81 MnCl₂•4H₂O, 0.222 ZnSO₄•7H₂O, 0.39 Na₂MoO₄•2H₂O, 0.079
119 CuSO₄•5H₂O, 0.0494 Co(NO₃)₂•6H₂O. The cultures were maintained and subcultured for 25 days in 500 mL
120 Erlenmeyer flasks, under continuous illumination of 40 μ E m⁻² s⁻¹ at 25°C.

121 The effects of AgNPs concentrations (1, 3, 5, 15, 25 and 50 mg L⁻¹) on microalgal cell growth, lipid and
122 carbohydrate contents were studied in 500 mL Erlenmeyer flasks under the previously described growth conditions.

123

124 **2.4.1. Determination of Cell growth and kinetics parameters**

125 Three ml of culture was sampled at regular interval of 5 days in triplicates and the cell growth was determined
126 spectrophotometrically by measuring the optical density (O.D.) at 680 nm. The cell dry weight (D.W.) was measured
127 gravimetrically every 5 days during the period of cultivation where 20 mL of culture samples were filtered through

128 pre-weighed filter paper (0.45 μm) and washed with deionized water. The filtered cells were dried at 60°C in the oven
129 until constant weight, cooled in a desiccator, and then weighed. The D.W. was expressed as gL⁻¹.

130 The maximum specific growth rate, μ_{max} (d⁻¹), was calculated as:

131
$$\mu_{max} = \frac{1}{t} * \ln \frac{x_f}{x_0} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

132 where X_f and X_0 are the biomass D.W. (g L⁻¹) at the end and beginning of a batch run respectively, and t is the duration
133 of the run (day).

134 The biomass productivity (BP) (mg L⁻¹d⁻¹) and biomass yield (BY) were calculated as follows [28]:

135
$$BP = \frac{(X_f - X_0)}{(T_2 - T_1)} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

136
$$BY = (X_f - X_0) \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

137 where T_1 and T_2 (day) represent the incubation period of an experiment at the initial time (day 0) and the final day of
138 incubation, respectively.

139

140 2.4.2. Determination of Lipid content

141 Lipids were extracted by a mixture of chloroform:methanol:deionized water at 1:1:0.9 ratios on volumetric basis
142 [29]where 5 ml chloroform, 10 ml methanol, and 4 ml of deionized water were initially added to 0.3 g of dried algal
143 biomass. The mixture was then shaken for 10 min, before another 5 ml of chloroform and 5 ml of deionized water
144 added, and shaken overnight. The mixture was filtered to remove the algal pellets. The filtrate was transferred to a
145 separatory funnel to allow separation of the organic and aqueous layers. The chloroform layer was evaporated using
146 a rotary evaporator (40-45°C) and the extracted lipid was weighed to give lipid content as the percentage of the cell
147 D.W:

148
$$L = \frac{W_L}{W_B} * 100 \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

149 Where L is the lipid content (%), W_L and W_B are the weights of the extracted lipids and the dry biomass, respectively.

150 The lipid productivity (LP) was calculated as follows [30]:

151
$$LP = BP * L \dots \dots \dots (5)$$

152 where LP is the lipid productivity ($\text{mg L}^{-1}\text{d}^{-1}$), BP ($\text{mg L}^{-1}\text{d}^{-1}$) and L (% D.W.) are biomass productivity and lipid
153 content, respectively.

154 Lipid yield was calculated as follows [31]:

$$155 \quad LY = BY * L \dots \dots \dots (6)$$

156 where LY is lipid yield (mg L^{-1}), biomass yield, BY (mg L^{-1}), L (% dry weight) are biomass yield and lipid content,
157 respectively.

158

159 **2.4.3. Fatty acids analyses**

160 Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES) of the total lipid were prepared by transesterification using 2% sulphuric acid in
161 methanol [32]. The fatty acid analysis was performed by gas chromatography (Perkin Elmer Auto System XL)
162 equipped with flame ionization detector and a DB-5 silica capillary column (60 m \times 0.32mm i.d.). The oven
163 temperature was maintained initially at 45°C and then programmed to 60°C at a rate of 1°C/min, before finally
164 programmed from 60°C to 240°C at a rate of 3°C/min. Helium was used as the carrier gas at the flow rate of 1 ml min⁻¹.
165 The injector and the detector temperatures were set at 230°C and 250°C, respectively.

166

167 **2.4.4. Determination of Carbohydrates**

168 The phenol-sulfuric acid technique was used for total carbohydrate concentration determination with glucose as the
169 standard [33]. Five ml aliquot were taken from the cultures and centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 10 min. The pellets were
170 re-suspended in 1 mL of distilled water and 1 mL phenol solution (10% w/v) was added. After thorough mixing, 5
171 mL of concentrated H₂SO₄ was quickly added and thoroughly mixed. The mixture was left to stand for 10 min at room
172 temperature and then centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 min. The absorbance of supernatant was recorded at 485 nm
173 against a reagent blank. Carbohydrate concentrations were obtained from a calibration curve of glucose with
174 concentrations from 10 to 150 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$.

175

176 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

177 The statistical analyses were performed using Minitab software (V18, Minitab Inc., State College, PA, USA). All the
178 experiments were conducted in triplicate. One-way ANOVA was used to determine the significance of difference in
179 dependent variables, and Tukey's test at a reliability level of $p < 0.05$ was used to identify the differences between each
180 level of treatment.

181 3. Results and discussion

182 3.1. Biosynthesis and characterizations of AgNPs

183 The AgNPs formation from silver nitrate solution incubated with *P. aeruginosa* supernatant overnight at 35°C was
184 indicated by the change of the reaction mixture color from yellow to brown (Fig. 1). The UV-Vis spectrometry showed
185 the maximum absorption of AgNPs at 455 nm (Fig. 2), which was consistent with the recorded range at 400-450 nm
186 of AgNPs synthesized from various bioreductant such as bacterial supernatant [34-36]; [19]; [10], fungal filtrates [37-
187 48]. The range of the AgNPs maximum absorbance may be due to the variations in the bioreductant used, the AgNPs
188 size and the reaction conditions.

189 Table 1 shows the size of AgNPs synthesized from irradiation of 100 Gy and supernatant of *P. aeruginosa*
190 irradiated by 100 Gy and Fig. 3a exhibits the AgNPs size distribution based on DLS analysis. The AgNO₃ solutions
191 singly irradiated by gamma rays at 100 Gy dose produced AgNPs of 29.39-70.89 nm in which 90.9% were in the 34-
192 52nm range (Table 1 and Fig.3 a). The exposure of the supernatant reaction mixture to the same dose of gamma rays
193 produced the AgNPs of 6-12 nm, with 84.2% in the 6.77-12.18 nm size range, 14.8% at 14.4-21.18 nm; and 1% in
194 25.37-39.40 nm range (Table 1 and Fig 3b). In comparison, the AgNPs sizes were 5-35 nm when *P. aeruginosa*
195 filtrate is mixed with AgNO₃ solution and incubated at 85°C, pH 7 and 30 mins [34]. This means that the combination
196 of biological method and the 100 Gy irradiation produced the AgNPs of smaller nanosize than those produced by
197 biological method alone. The AFM images suggested that the AgNPs were roughly spherical in shape with sizes
198 mostly of 6-12 nm, monodispersed and not aggregated (Fig. 4).

199

200 3.2. Determination of reducing agent

201 GC/MS analysis of the bacterial filtrate revealed the predominant presence of ethylene glycol derivatives (Table 2)
202 which may act as reducing agent and participate in the reduction of silver ions (Ag⁺) to silver nanoparticles (Ag⁰).

203 These results were in agreement and conformity with previous reports [49, 50]). Cubic silver nanoparticles has been
204 reportedly synthesized by the reduction of AgNO₃ using ethylene glycol at 140 C° in the presence of
205 polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) and HCl [51]. The morphology of the produced AgNPs is suggested to be strongly
206 influenced by the reaction conditions (temperature, AgNO₃ concentration, molar ratio of the units of PVP and AgNO₃).
207 Polyol (alcohol containing hydroxyl group) such as ethylene glycol could act both as solvent and reducing agent.
208 Three different shapes of AgNPs have been synthesized using ethylene glycol as reducing agent [52].

209

210 3.3. Effects of AgNPs on microalgal cell growth

211 Studies on AgNPs have focused mainly on the synthesis, characteristics, antimicrobial activities and the applications
212 in different fields, including the AgNPs toxicity to living organisms, and the inhibition on the aquatic and terrestrial
213 environments. Table (3) and Fig. (5) show that the maximum specific growth rates, biomass productivity and biomass
214 yield of both *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida* progressively decreased with increased AgNPs concentrations, as compared
215 to the control. These reductions with AgNPs concentrations were in agreement with the growth inhibition of
216 *Parachlorella kessleri* (by 30 and 60%) when exposed to bio- or chemo-synthesized AgNPs [53]. The adverse effect
217 of AgNPs on the filamentous green algae *Pithophora oedogonium* and *Chara vulgaris* is exhibited in the progressive
218 depletion of chlorophyll content and the mitotic disturbance is associated with the morphological malformation [6].
219 A study on soil content exposed to AgNPs, bulk Ag or Ag⁺ for 6 days under controlled culture conditions reveals a
220 marked inhibition of photosynthesis and biomass with a significant increase in cell size and membrane permeability
221 [54]. The autotrophic algae *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* in the water bodies, which receive effluents contaminated
222 with various nanoparticles, has been found to experience initial toxic effect leading to the damage of ATP and
223 photosynthesis due to the oxidative stress induced as a result of exposure to AgNPs [55].

224 Various algal species such as *Dunaliella tertiolecta* and *Chlorella vulgaris* [56], *Thalassiosira pseudonana* and
225 *Cryobacterium synechococcus* [18], *Euglena gracilis* [57], and *Pseudokirchveriella subcapitata* [58] have been treated
226 with different concentrations of AgNPs. The uptake, translocation and accumulation of AgNPs in algal cells depend
227 on the cellular structure, membrane permeability, and the size of the nanoparticles [57]. The smaller size and the larger
228 surface area to volume enable AgNPs to pass through the pores of the cell wall and reach the plasma membrane [59].
229 AgNPs may enter the cell membrane [60] and get attached to the various cell organelles and enhance the reactive

230 oxygen species (ROS) which affect the biochemical reactions of the algal cells [61]. From adhesion to cell membrane,
231 as alternative to permeability or ion transport properties, the AgNPs may disturb cellular phosphate management,
232 followed by inhibition of DNA synthesis by breaking the hydrogen bonding, and induce ROS generation, denaturation
233 of ribosomes, and inactivation of enzymes and proteins through bonding on the active sites [62- 64].

234 Algae however do have specific mechanisms to tolerate and reduce the toxic effects of AgNPs or nanoparticles
235 in general. On the entry of nanoparticles, algae may release metal-chelators which repress the availability of metal
236 ions secreted through AgNPs or increase its intake of metals [65]. It may secrete certain compounds to increase the
237 nanoparticles flocculation and decrease its availability [66 - 67]. Algal cells may also release organic carbon
238 compounds that inactivate AgNPs toxicity [64]. Algal defence system generates low molecular weight antioxidant
239 substances and enhances the production of antioxidant enzymes to combat and scavenge the excess ROS generated.
240 The enhancement of biotic generation of antioxidant enzymes has been reported in *Chattonella marina* as a defence
241 mechanism against the adverse effect of AgNPs on PS II, which may involve inhibition of electron transport activity
242 and alteration of oxygen evolution [65] ;[20] ;[17]. Silver ions and AgNPs have reportedly altered the cell division
243 and gene expression (*cdc2* gene) in onion (*Allium cepa*) [68]. The AgNPs, or silver ions foliar application to 4-week
244 old cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*) plant, significantly alter the metabolite profile with the activation of antioxidant
245 defence system, and consequently inhibits respiration, alters membrane properties and reduces inorganic nitrogen
246 fixation [69].

247

248 **3.4. Effects of AgNPs on lipids and carbohydrates**

249 Table (3) and Fig. (6a) show that 5 mg L⁻¹ of AgNPs in *C. vulgaris* promoted the lipid content was elevated to 14.3%
250 while 1-5 mg L⁻¹ of AgNPs in *D. splendida* had the lipid content remained high at 14%. Further increase in AgNPs
251 level resulted in growth retardation and reduced lipid content comparable to control in both species. In general, *D.*
252 *splendida* showed lower biomass growth and lipid productivity, yield and content than the *C. vulgaris*. This result
253 suggests that the effects of AgNPs may be species dependent or may suggest *D. splendida* was more susceptible to
254 the oxidative stress than *C. vulgaris*. Fig. (6b) illustrates that increased AgNPs concentrations induced a significant
255 and progressive decrease in carbohydrate yield in *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida*.

256 The addition of inert nanoparticles in algal cultures may cause a nitrogen starvation condition which enhances
257 lipid content in the algal biomass [70]. Improved lipid production has also been reported in *C. vulgaris* treated with
258 TiO₂ and MgO nanoparticles which is attributable to induced oxidative stress [13]; [12]. *C. vulgaris* has been cultivated
259 in growth media containing different concentrations of metal nanoparticles (Cu, Zn, Mg, Pb) to induce firstly the metal
260 resistance capacity, before being cultivated in second media containing the metal salts of the corresponding
261 nanoparticles under the same controlled culture conditions. As a result, the growth rate, biomass, cellular pigments,
262 protein, carbohydrates and lipid production have increased depending on salt concentration as compared to control
263 and wild strain [16]. The concept of intermediary medium has been proposed where *Morinda elliptica* cell cultures
264 are first acclimatized in a stressed condition with high sucrose medium, before being grown in a production medium,
265 also at high sucrose level, and with the resulting high productivity [71, 72]. In a study on the effect of carbon, ferric
266 oxide and magnesium oxide nanoparticles on the green alga *Scenedesmus obliquus*, it is suggested that the algal
267 metabolism modifies its normal pathways towards, in most cases, lipid production [15]. AgNPs have the ability to
268 break the cell wall of the *C. vulgaris* to release the biomolecules such as proteins and lipids to be used for biodiesel
269 production [19].

270

271 3.5. Effects of AgNPs on fatty acid profile

272 Table (4) exhibits the lipid profile of *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida* before and after AgNPs treatment. Both
273 showed comparable lipid profiles with more or less similar modifications (presence or absence, increase or decrease
274 in certain fatty acid contents). The lipid profile includes the short and long chain saturated fatty acids (C12:0-C24:0).
275 Some fatty acids such as lauric, linolenic, behenic and lignoceric acids which were not recorded in the control algae,
276 were present after the AgNPs treatment. Other fatty acids such as heptadecanoic and eicosadienoic acids were recorded
277 in the control algae, but disappeared after AgNPs treatment. Fatty acids production such as pentadecanoic, linoleic
278 and linolenic acids were elevated, while stearic, oleic and arachidic acids were reduced upon the AgNPs treatment as
279 compared to the control. Generally, the sum of the saturated fatty acids (SFAs) was increased in *C. vulgaris* and *D.*
280 *splendida* (61.47 and 67.27%, respectively) as compared to the controls (54.88 and 52.81%, respectively). The
281 unsaturated fatty acids (UFAs) contents were decreased from 45.11 to 39% and from 47.18 to 32.73%, respectively,
282 while the monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFAs) decreased from 30.99 to 14.33 % and 33.57 to 15.75 %, respectively.

283 Palmitic acid (16:0) at 43.06% and 46.57% represented the highest composition, respectively, and Linoleic acid was
284 the second highest at 20.62% and 20.12 %, respectively, in the AgNPs-treated algae. The high composition of SFAs
285 at 61.47% and 67.27% in *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida*, respectively, after AgNPs treatment as compared to the UFAs,
286 MUFAs and polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) suggest that the produced lipids tend to be more stable and not
287 susceptible to autoxidation (peroxidation) during storage. These lipids are good feedstock for biodiesel production
288 and can be used blended with petroleum oil for transportation and other applications. The lipid profile analyses
289 confirmed that the introduction of nanoparticles and stresses alter the metabolism of many algal species towards
290 hydrocarbon production (lipids and/or carbohydrates) as reported earlier [70] ;[13] ;[12]; [16];[15].

291

292 **4. Conclusion**

293 The biosynthesis of AgNPs was successfully achieved from AgNO₃ and supernatant of *P. aeruginosa* after exposure
294 to 100 Gy irradiation as confirmed by the maximum absorbance at 455 nm in UV–Vis spectrophotometer. The shape
295 of AgNPs was spherical with sizes of 6-12nm at 84.2% as determined by AFM and DLS techniques. The reducing
296 agent in the bacterial filtrate that reduce Ag⁺ to Ag⁰ may be ethylene glycol derivatives. Low concentrations of AgNPs
297 (1,3 and 5 mg/L) enhanced lipid production in *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida* but at the expense of cell growth. However,
298 all AgNPs concentrations reduced the carbohydrates content. The lipid profile of AgNPs-treated microalgae revealed
299 the dominance of palmitic acid (16:0) as well as the saturated fatty acids, suggesting the suitability and excellent
300 criteria as feedstocks for biodiesel production and other lipid applications.

301

302 **Conflict of interest**

303 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

304

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485 **Table captions**

486 **Table 1:** The size of AgNPs synthesized from irradiation of 100 Gy and supernatant of *P. aeruginosa* irradiated by
487 100 Gy

488 **Table 2:** Major compounds in the supernatant of *P. aeruginosa*

489 **Table 3:** Kinetics of cell growth and lipid of *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida* (Results represent mean \pm SD of three
490 replicates; different small letters indicate significant difference ($p < 0.05$))

491 **Table 4:** The fatty acids profiles of *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida* cultured on media with and without AgNPs (5 mg/L)
492 synthesized by *P. aeruginosa* supernatant

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494 **Figure captions**

495 **Fig. 1:** Visual observation of the biosynthesis of silver nanoparticles by supernatant of *P. aeruginosa*. (a) Control
496 supernatant without AgNO₃ (no color change). (b) Bacterial supernatant with AgNO₃ solution (color change
497 from pale yellow to brown).

498 **Fig. 2:** The UV–Vis absorption spectrum of silver nanoparticles synthesized by supernatant of *P. aeruginosa* and
499 irradiated by 100 Gy.

500 **Fig. 3:** Size distribution of AgNPs synthesized from (a) irradiation by 100 Gy, (b) supernatant of *P. aeruginosa*
501 irradiated by 100 Gy

502 **Fig. 4:** AFM images of mono-disperse AgNPs synthesized by *P. aeruginosa* supernatant irradiated by 100 Gy on
503 silicon substrate.

504 **Fig. 5:** Growth curves of (a) *C. vulgaris*, (b) *D. splendida*, under the influence of different AgNPs concentrations
505 synthesized by *P. aeruginosa* supernatant irradiated by 100 Gy (Error bars represent \pm SD of three replicates).

506 **Fig. 6:** a) Lipid contents, b) Carbohydrate contents, of *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida* cultured at different treatment of
507 AgNPs concentrations synthesized by *P. aeruginosa* supernatant irradiated by 100 Gy (Different small letters
508 on the same bars indicate significant difference ($p < 0.05$); error bars represent \pm SD of three replicates).

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Table 1: The size of AgNPs synthesized from irradiation of 100 Gy and supernatant of *P. aeruginosa* irradiated by 100 Gy

Irradiated by 100 Gy		Supernatant of <i>P. aeruginosa</i> irradiated by 100 Gy	
Size of AgNPs (nm)	Volume (%)	Size of AgNPs (nm)	Volume (%)
29.39	5.5	6.78	5.60
34.03	21.0	7.84	18.40
39.41	32.2	9.08	25.40
45.64	25.8	10.52	21.20
52.85	11.9	12.18	13.60
61.2	13.2	14.11	7.60
70.89	0.4	16.34	4.00
82.09	0.0	18.92	2.10
		21.91	1.10
		25.37	0.50
		29.39	0.30
		34.03	0.10
		39.41	0.10

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535 **Table 2:** Major compounds in the supernatant of *P. aeruginosa*

Compound name	R.T.	Area (%)	Molecular Formula
Octaethylene glycol monododecyl ether	12.09 -18.77	30.40	C ₂₈ H ₅₈ O ₉
	22.53- 31.48		
	32.48- 34.18		
	34.41- 34.72		
Heptaethylene glycol	22.53- 26.95	0.48	C ₁₄ H ₃₀ O ₈

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Table 3: Kinetics of cell growth and lipid of *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida* (Results represent mean \pm SD of three replicates; different small letters indicate significant difference ($p < 0.05$))

Microalgal species	AgNPs (mg L ⁻¹)	Max specific growth rate, μ_{max} (d ⁻¹)	Biomass productivity, <i>BP</i> (g L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Biomass yield, <i>BY</i> (g L ⁻¹)	Lipid productivity, <i>LP</i> (g L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Lipid yield, <i>LY</i> (mg L ⁻¹)
<i>C. vulgaris</i>	0	0.137 \pm 0.002 ^a	0.064 \pm 0.003 ^a	1.58 \pm 0.047 ^a	0.63 \pm 0.026 ^a	156.90 \pm 5.14 ^a
	1	0.132 \pm 0.003 ^a	0.056 \pm 0.001 ^b	1.38 \pm 0.036 ^b	0.39 \pm 0.029 ^a	97.81 \pm 4.44 ^b
	3	0.121 \pm 0.005 ^b	0.052 \pm 0.001 ^b	1.28 \pm 0.050 ^b	0.31 \pm 0.008 ^b	77.70 \pm 2.25 ^c
	5	0.111 \pm 0.003 ^c	0.039 \pm 0.003 ^c	1.11 \pm 0.116 ^c	0.57 \pm 0.061 ^{bc}	158.76 \pm 15.51 ^a
	15	0.092 \pm 0.003 ^d	0.031 \pm 0.003 ^d	0.76 \pm 0.033 ^d	0.27 \pm 0.031 ^{cd}	66.55 \pm 3.34 ^{cd}
	25	0.088 \pm 0.005 ^d	0.021 \pm 0.002 ^e	0.62 \pm 0.018 ^d	0.19 \pm 0.026 ^{de}	55.52 \pm 1.19 ^d
	50	0.071 \pm 0.003 ^e	0.016 \pm 0.002 ^e	0.42 \pm 0.022 ^e	0.11 \pm 0.018 ^e	29.95 \pm 3.34 ^e
<i>D. splendida</i>	0	0.121 \pm 0.011 ^a	0.041 \pm 0.002 ^a	1.05 \pm 0.063 ^a	0.38 \pm 0.016 ^a	98.71 \pm 5.55 ^b
	1	0.112 \pm 0.011 ^{ab}	0.031 \pm 0.002 ^b	0.82 \pm 0.030 ^b	0.43 \pm 0.024 ^{ab}	111.20 \pm 3.23 ^a
	3	0.110 \pm 0.007 ^{ab}	0.029 \pm 0.001 ^{bc}	0.69 \pm 0.042 ^c	0.39 \pm 0.019 ^{ab}	96.62 \pm 6.60 ^b
	5	0.097 \pm 0.006 ^{bc}	0.024 \pm 0.003 ^{cd}	0.59 \pm 0.035 ^d	0.34 \pm 0.039 ^b	82.34 \pm 5.57 ^c
	15	0.088 \pm 0.001 ^{cd}	0.018 \pm 0.003 ^{de}	0.52 \pm 0.031 ^{de}	0.16 \pm 0.026 ^c	46.61 \pm 3.46 ^d
	25	0.074 \pm 0.003 ^d	0.015 \pm 0.002 ^e	0.42 \pm 0.030 ^{ef}	0.13 \pm 0.019 ^c	36.70 \pm 3.23 ^{de}
	50	0.070 \pm 0.004 ^d	0.014 \pm 0.003 ^e	0.35 \pm 0.026 ^f	0.11 \pm 0.016 ^c	28.90 \pm 2.23 ^e

1 **Table 4:** The fatty acids profiles of *C. vulgaris* and *D. splendida* cultured on media with and without AgNPs
 2 synthesized by *P. aeruginosa* supernatant

Type of fatty acids	Fatty acid (%)			
	<i>C. vulgaris</i>		<i>D. splendida</i>	
	Control	AgNPs (5 mg/L)	Control	Ag NPs (1 mg/L)
Lauric acid (C12:0)	-	1.12	-	1.30
Myristic acid (C14:0)	0.34	3.30	-	2.60
Pentadecanoic acid (C15:0)	5.53	9.40	5.99	12.47
Palmitic acid (C16:0)	44.51	43.06	40.36	46.57
Palmitoleic acid (C16:1)	8.71	9.10	3.83	8.15
Heptadecanoic acid (C17:0)	1.11	-	1.86	-
Stearic acid (C18:0)	1.75	0.50	2.00	0.54
Oleic acid (C18:1)	22.28	5.23	29.74	5.60
Linoleic acid (C18:2)	12.13	20.62	12.60	20.12
Linolenic acid (C18:3)	-	3.58	1.01	3.92
Arachidic acid (C20:0)	1.63	0.47	2.60	-
Eicosadienoic acid (C20:2)	1.99	-	-	-
Behenic acid (C22:0)	-	1.10	-	1.16
Lignoceric acid (C24:0)	-	2.52	-	2.63
Saturated fatty acid	54.88	61.47	52.81	67.27
Unsaturated fatty acid	45.11	39.00	47.18	32.73
Monounsaturated fatty acid	30.99	14.33	33.57	13.75
Polyunsaturated fatty acid	14.12	24.2	13.61	24.04

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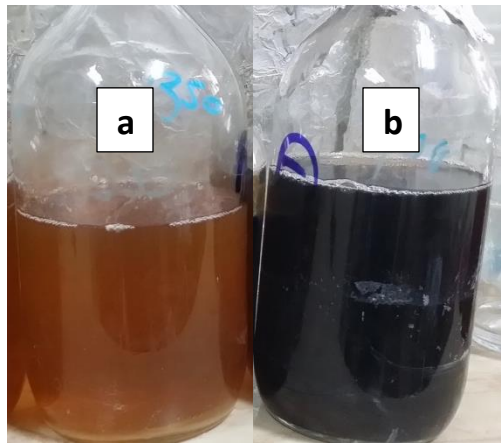
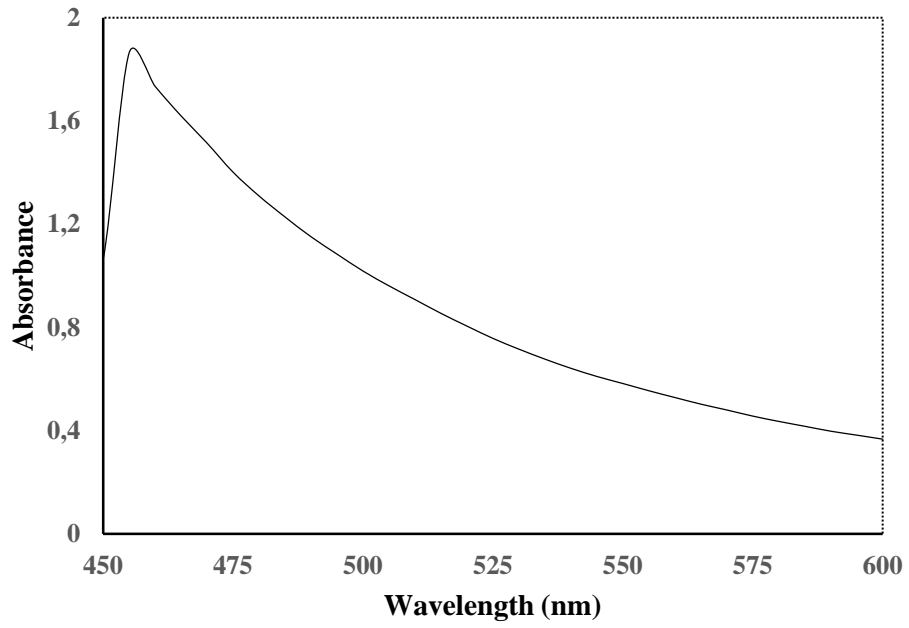


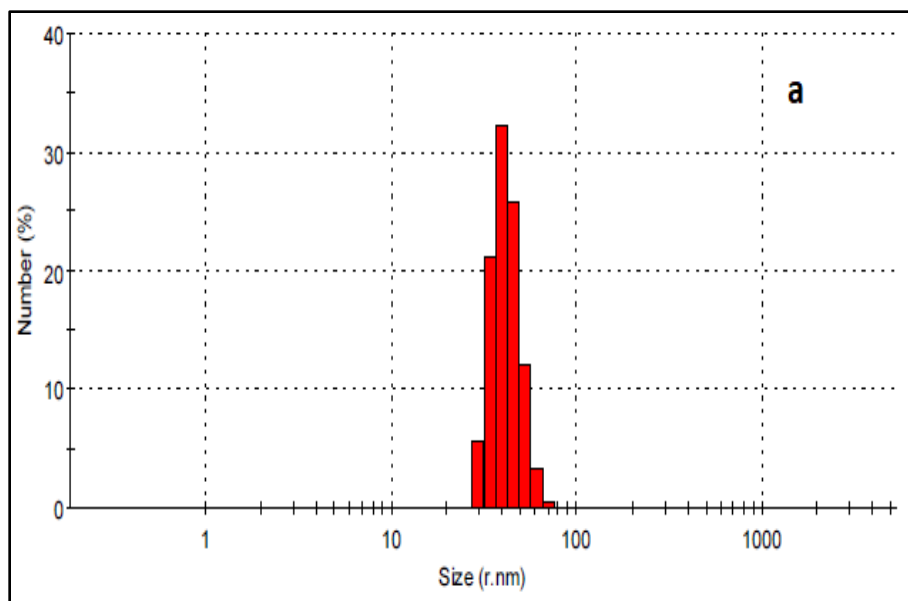
Fig. (1)

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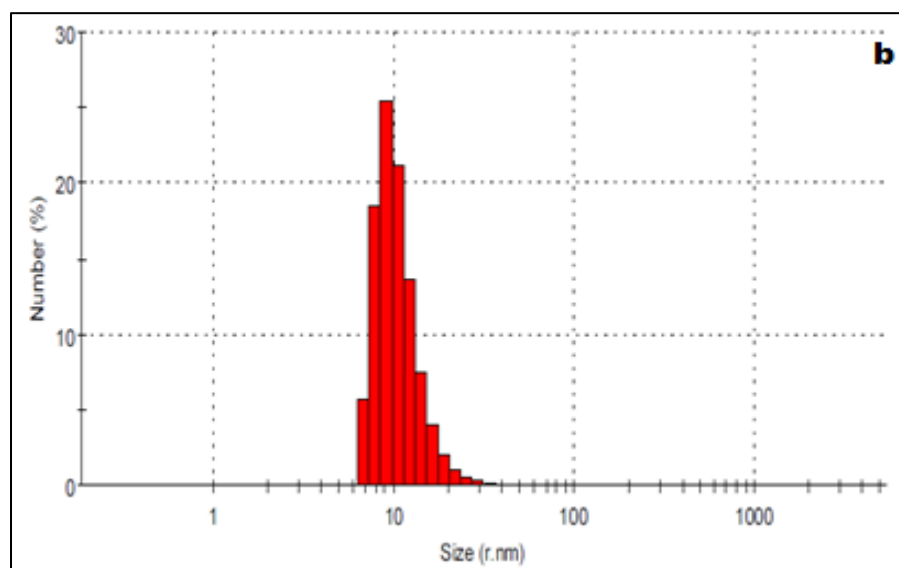
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Fig. (2)



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Fig. (3a, b)

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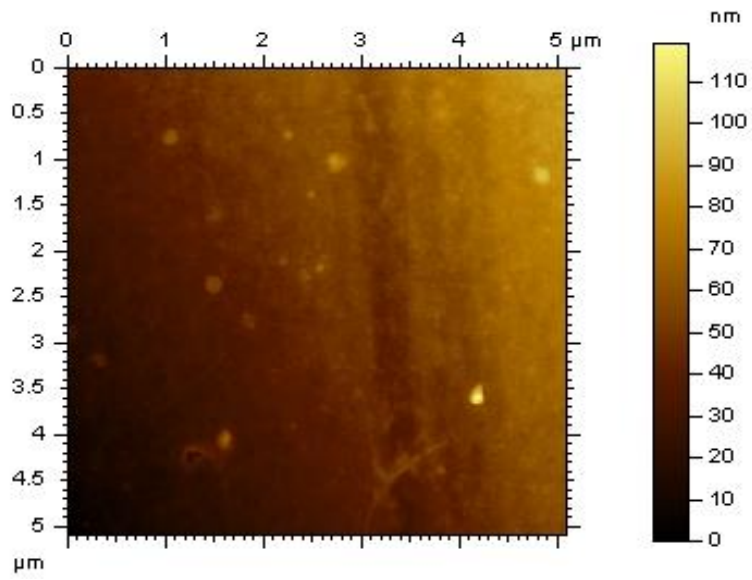
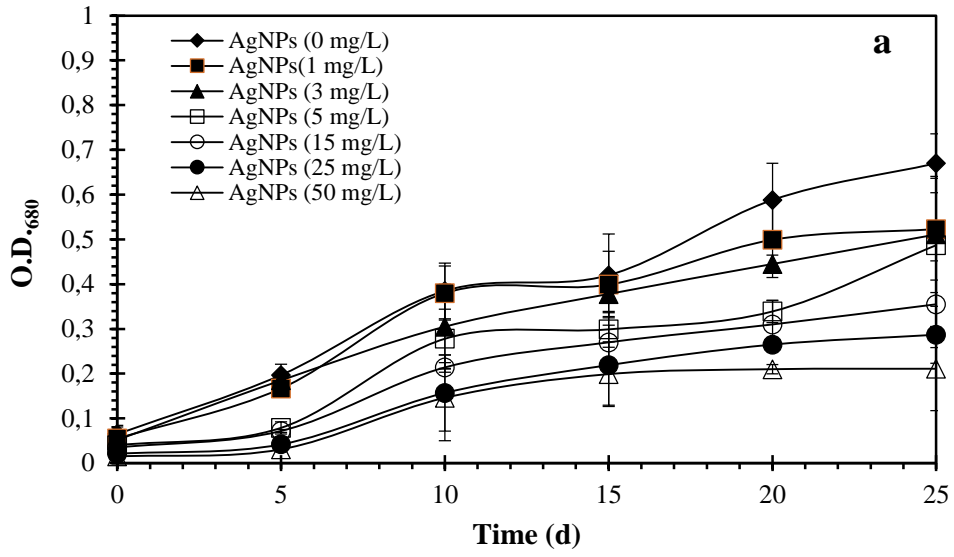
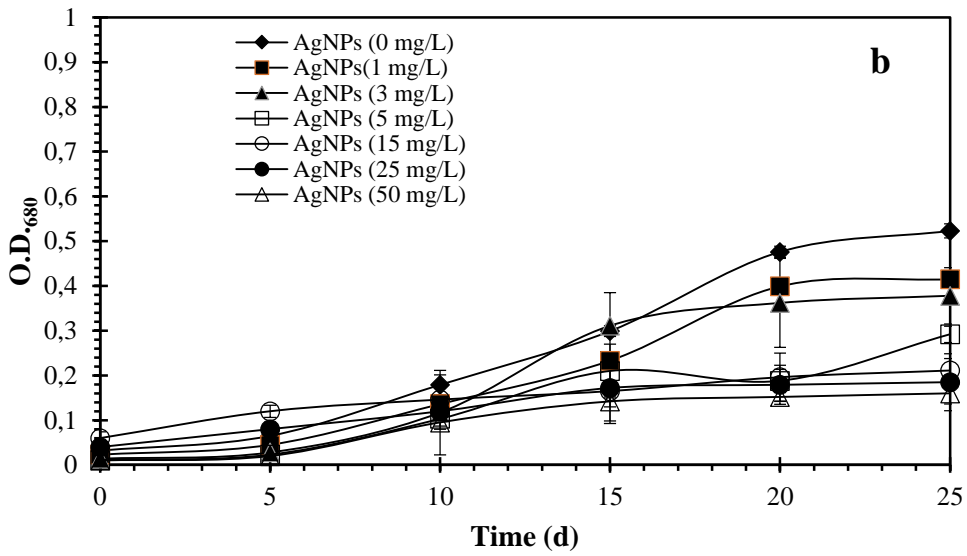


Fig. (4)

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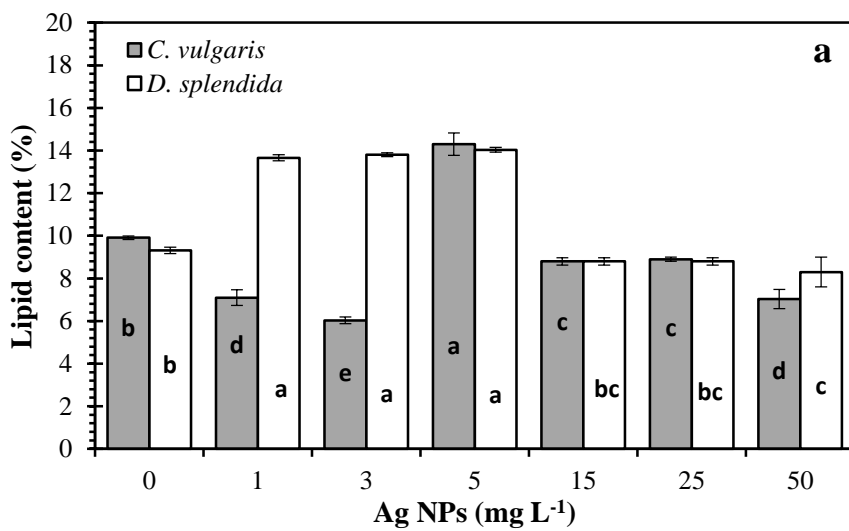
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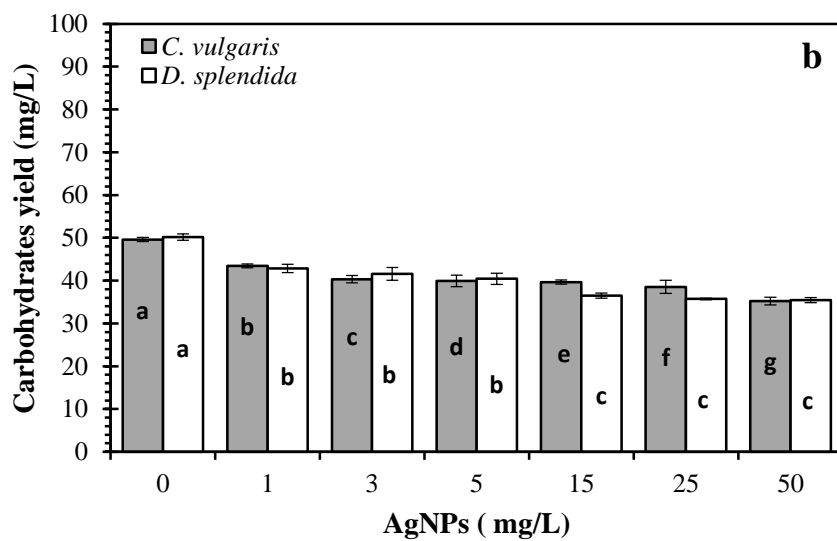
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Fig. (5 a, b)



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Fig. (6 a, b)