Random UV Mutagenesis for the production of *Chlorella vulgaris* mutants with low chlorophyll content for the food industry

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Abstract

Microalgae is currently gaining attention as an alternative source for food production. The market is currently demanding colorless algae with high protein and lutein content as an alternative to currently available commodities. This research was aimed at performing random UV metagenesis on *Chlorella vulgaris* to obtain mutants with enhanced growth rates and increased growth characteristics. A total of seven mutants were selected to be analyzed after the random mutagenesis. Small (40 mL) and larger-scale (1,000 mL) reactors were used to analyze the production of *C. vulgaris* mutant biomass, focusing on the dry matter, starch, chlorophyll, protein, fatty acids, and lutein contents. Results implied that mutants showed a

higher specific growth rate (2.1–2.5-fold higher) as compared to the wild type. The three

mutants (MT 1, 2, and 3) that exhibited a yellow color were subsequently chosen for further

scalability. In larger-scale reactors, all mutants exhibited higher protein contents while

displaying lower carbohydrate and chlorophyll contents in comparison to the wild type.

Moreover, MT 1 exhibited the highest concentration of lutein (0.37%–0.38%) and the lowest

concentration of chlorophyll (0.1–0.14%), both of which are of significance for potential

applications in the food industry.

Keywords: alternative food; lutein; microalgae; mutants, yellow algae.

38 1. Introduction

The demand from consumers for nutritionally dense and health-promoting consumables has

increased in recent years. Microalgae possess a balanced biochemical profile and are a

sustainable biological resource; they are abundant in protein and bioactive compounds,

including carotenoids and essential fatty acids, which have the potential to positively impact

human health (Schüler et al., 2020). However, it is worth noting that only a limited selection

of the thousands of microalgal strains that have been identified and described are presently

deemed safe for human consumption. Established on the market and with a long history of

safe use, *Arthrospira platensis* and *Chlorella vulgaris* are permitted for human consumption

in the European Union (Nunes et al., 2023).

Microalgal biomass is extensively utilized in the nutraceutical industry as dietary

supplements (Galasso et al., 2019). In the food industry, it is typically integrated into

conventional food products (e.g., bars, pasta, and cookies) as a healthy supplement or as a

natural food colorant (Lafarga, 2019). However, the integration of microalgae into food items

encounters obstacles primarily attributable to their organoleptic attributes, such as a potent

hue, flavor, and odor (Wu et al., 2023). Consumer acceptance is significantly influenced by

the sensory attributes of foods. Among these attributes, color is the initial parameter that

consumers perceive, and it can potentially determine their dietary inclusion of the food in

question; thus, culinary products derived from microalgae, which are typically green in color,

have a negligible sensory appeal to consumers (Matos et al., 2022). It is imperative to modify

these unfavorable organoleptic attributes of microalgal biomass to enhance its acceptability in

food products.

In an effort to enhance the sensory attributes of food products containing microalgal biomass,

some alternative approaches that have been explored include the simultaneous extraction of

the desired compounds and chlorophyll removal, as well as the incorporation of components

like chocolate to augment the ultimate flavor and color (Galanakis, 2021; Lucas et al., 2018).

Isolation of novel microalgal species exhibiting enhanced organoleptic properties could also

be considered (Schüler et al., 2020). Random mutagenesis is a noteworthy instrument for

manipulating cells in the context of food applications. Unlike other methods that introduce

external genetic material into the target cell, it does not produce genetically modified

organisms (Bleisch et al., 2022; Kanakdande et al., 2021; Trovão et al., 2022).

Mutation breeding is an important method for producing microalgae strains with improved

biomass composition and high growth rates (Thurakit et al., 2022). Chemical mutagenesis

(Thurakit et al., 2022) and ultraviolet (UV) irradiation in particular are two of the most

commonly used mutation breeding techniques for inducing random mutations in the

microalgae genome (Bleisch et al., 2022). One of the major benefits of UV mutagenesis, in

comparison to chemical methods, is that UV mutagenesis is random (Trovão et al., 2022).

Moreover, UV mutagenesis can lead to achieving higher benefits due to the significant

biological effects of the mutations caused by UV on the organism (Kanakdande et al., 2021).

Another major benefit of UV mutagenesis in comparison with the chemical methods is the

ease of application and the relative safety of the procedure (Bose, 2014). UV mutagenesis of

microalgae has been successfully applied for the development of a variety of biotechnology

relevant strains in a wide number of microalgal species including *Chlorella* sp. (Liu et al.,

2015). *Chlorella vulgaris* in particular, has gained increasingly popularity in mutagenesis for

the production of biomass, lipid, and fatty acids (Kim et al., 2020; Sarayloo et al., 2018;

Sivaramakrishnan and Incharoensakdi, 2023; Smalley et al., 2020).

Although the development of some *C. vulgaris* mutants has already been conducted for

biomass, lipid, and fatty acids productions, research on the mutants with low chlorophyll

content and improved growth characteristics is currently limited. This research is aimed at

performing random UV mutagenesis for the production of *C. vulgaris* mutants with low

chlorophyl content and enhanced growth characteristics for further applications in the food

industry. The presented results are expected to enrich the knowledge of the alternative food

sourced from microalgae.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Microorganism and cultivating conditions

Chlorella vulgaris strain R117 (CCALA 1107) was obtained from the culture collection of

Autotrophic Organisms, Institute of Botany, Třeboň, Czech Republic (further abbreviated as

WT). For the growth screening, an RTS-8 multi-channel bioreactor (Biosan, Latvia) with the

following settings: culture volume of 40 mL, temperature of 30 °C, and 2,000 rpm agitation

were used. For growth and biomass composition comparison a set of BioBench twin

fermenter units (Biostream International BV, Netherlands) with working volume of 1 L was

used. The cultivation parameters of the fermenters were set as follows: temperature – 30 °C,

aeration with atmospheric air – 1000 L min^{-1} and stirrer speed – 300 rpm. The cultivation

systems are presented in Figure 1. Unless specified otherwise, all experiments were

performed using ½ ŠS medium (Hlavová et al., 2016) supplemented with 20 g L^{-1} of glucose

under dark condition. All experiments were performed in biological triplicates.

Figure 1. Cultivation systems: Biosan (left) and Biostream fermenters (right)

2.2 Mutagenesis and selection procedure

Cultures of *C. vulgaris* were grown in tubular bioreactors containing 300 ml ½ ŠS medium

supplemented with 10 g L^{-1} glucose. The cultures were cultivated at a temperature of 30 °C

and light irradiation of 500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} photosynthetically active radiation until an optical

density at 750 nm (OD$_{750}$) of approximately 1 was reached. After dilution to an OD$_{750}$ of

approximately 0.1, 25 mL of the cultures were poured into sterile glass Petri dishes with

stirrers. The Petri dishes with the cultures were then irradiated with UV light for 5 minutes in

a sterile hood. The irradiated cells were immediately transferred to sterile 100 ml flasks and

incubated in the dark for at least 12 hours to avoid photoreparation. The cell number of the

cultures was then counted and approximately 1,000 cells were seeded into a Petri dish

containing ½ ŠS medium with 10 g L^{-1} glucose. The Petri dishes were incubated in the dark

at 30 °C until colonies were visible. Cell survival was assessed by counting the number of

colonies in the treated and control cultures. Only the non-green or pale green colonies were

selected for further analysis.

2.3 Cell number measurements and growth assessment

For cell number analysis, 1 ml of the culture was fixed with 100 µL of 2.5% glutaraldehyde

and stored at 4 °C until the time of analysis (Kselíková et al., 2022). Cell numbers were then

analyzed using a Beckman Coulter Multisizer 4 (Beckman Coulter Life Sciences, Brea, CA,

United States) by diluting 50 µL of the fixed cell suspension in 10 ml of 0.9% NaCl (w/v)

electrolyte solution.

2.4 Dry matter measurements and growth assessment

At each sampling point, an aliquot of 2 mL culture suspension was taken and transferred to a

pre-weighted (Sartorius TE214S-0CE, Germany) 2 mL plastic micro test tube that was pre-

dried for 24 hours at 105 °C. The samples were centrifuged (Mikro 200, Hettich, USA) for 2

minutes at 14,000 g. The supernatant was removed and the test tube with the resulting pellet

of cells was dried for 24 hours at 105 °C. After cooling down for at least 2 hours in a

desiccator the test tube was weighted. The weight of the pellet was determined by subtracting

the weight of the previously measured empty test tube (Kselíková et al., 2021).

2.5 Starch analysis

At each sampling point, 2 mL of algal suspension was centrifuged at 15,000 g and stored

at -20 °C until use. The quantity of starch was determined using the approach by McCready

et al. (1950), with the exception of the extraction procedure, which is detailed in the

following section. The algal cells were disintegrated by vortexing with 300 µL of glass beads

in 500 µL of distilled water. Pigments were extracted three times in 1 mL of 80% ethanol at

68 °C for 15 minutes. Total starch within the whitish pellet was hydrolyzed by 1.5 mL of

30% perchloric acid followed by agitation for 15 min at room temperature. Following

centrifugation of the samples, the supernatant was extracted. The procedure was repeated

three times to yield 4.5 mL of hydrolyzed starch extract; this volume was subsequently

diluted to a final volume of 5 mL (Kselíková et al., 2022).

2.6 Total chlorophyll analysis

An aliquot of 10 mL culture suspension was taken and transferred to a 15 mL falcon tube

which was centrifuged for 10 min at 2772 g (Rotina 380R, Hettich, USA) and stored at -20

°C. For the disintegration of the cells, 1 mL of phosphate buffer, pH 7.7, and 500 µL of glass

beads were added to the pellet. The samples were vortexed vigorously for 10 minutes at room

temperature(Vortex Genie 2, Scientific Industries, Inc., NY, USA). The samples were

extracted with 4 mL of 100% acetone, briefly vortexed and centrifuged for 3 min at 4332 g.

The supernatant was transferred into graduated glass test tubes with a stopper and put into a

dark block. The pellet was again extracted by 4 mL of 80% acetone followed by brief

vortexing and centrifugation (3 minutes, 4332 g); the supernatant was transferred into the

same glass tube as before. The two combined extracts in the glass tubes was filled up to 10

mL with 80% acetone. The absorbance of the samples was measured in a spectrophotometer

(UV-1900i, Shimadzu, Japan) at the following wavelengths: 750, 664, 647, 470 and 450 nm.

The total chlorophyll concentration was calculated according to the equations and

coefficients for 80% acetone in Wellburn, 1994 (Wellburn, 1994).

2.7 Fatty acids analysis

The fatty acids analysis was performed according to Ranglová et al. (2022). The samples

were collected throughout the cultivation and an amount corresponding of approximately 5 to

10 mg of freeze-dried biomass was used for the analysis.

2.8 DNA and protein analysis

2.8.1 Total Nucleic Acids

The procedure of Wanka (1962) as modified by Lukavský et al. (1973) was used for the

extraction of the total nucleic acids. The samples were centrifuged in 10 mL centrifuge tubes,

which also served for storage of the samples. The pellet of algal cells was stored under one

ml of ethanol at −20 °C. The pellet was extracted 5 times with 0.2 M perchloric acid in 50%

ethanol for 50 min at 20 °C and 3 times with an ethanol-ether mixture (3:1) at 70 °C for 10

min. Such pre-extracted samples can be stored in ethanol at −20 °C. Total nucleic acids were

extracted and hydrolyzed by 0.5 M perchloric acid at 60 °C for 5 h. After hydrolysis,

concentrated perchloric acid was added to achieve a final concentration of 1 M perchloric

acid in the sample. Absorbance of total nucleic acids in the supernatant was read at 260 nm

(A260) and total nucleic acid concentration was calculated based on the calibration with

DNA standard of the known concentration treated by the same procedure.

2.8.2 DNA and RNA Determination

The light activated reaction of diphenylamine with hydrolyzed DNA, as described by

Decallonne and Weyns (1976) was used with the following modification of Zachleder (1984):

the diphenylamine reagent (4% diphenylamine in glacial acetic acid, w/v) was mixed with the

samples of the total nucleic acid extracts in a ratio of 1:1 and the mixture in the test tubes was

illuminated from two sides with fluorescent lamps (L 40W F33, Tungsram, Budapest,

Hungary). The incident radiation from each side was 150 µmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}. After 6 h of

illumination at 40 °C, the difference between the A600 and A700 nm was estimated. The

concentrations of DNA within the samples were set by comparison to the A600 and A700 nm

values of the sample with known DNA concentration treated the same way. The values were

normalized to the number of cells extracted. The RNA content was calculated as the

difference between the total nucleic acid and DNA content.

2.8.3 Protein Determination

The pellet remaining after nucleic acid extraction was used for protein determination. It was

hydrolyzed by 1 M NaOH for 1 h at 70 °C. The protein concentration in the supernatant after

centrifugation of the hydrolysate (15 min, 5300× g, room temperature) was estimated by

BCA assay (cat. no. 23225, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) according to

manufacturer's conditions. The same procedure was carried out with a calibration curve set

by different concentrations of bovine serum albumin.

2.9 Lutein extraction and HPLC analysis

A 2 mL aliquots of the culture were sampled and transferred to 2 mL plastic micro test tubes.

The plastic test tubes were then centrifuged at 13,148 g for 2 min. (Minispin plus, Eppendorf

SE, Germany) after which the supernatant was removed. For storage purposes the test tubes

with the resulting pellets of microalgae biomass were placed at -20 °C. A total of 2 mL of the

extraction solvent (55.4% (v/v) H_2O, 44.5% (v/v) ethanol, 0.1% (v/v) n-heptane) was added

to each pellet after which the samples were put in an ultrasonic bath for 5 min (Kranitek 6,

Kranitek Czech s.r.o. Czech Republic). After that, the samples were centrifuged for 5 min at

1,073 g. The supernatant was transferred to a graduated glass test tube after which the

extraction step was repeated 1 or 2 more times, depending on the amount of algal biomass.

The total volume of solvent used for each sample was noted and was used later on for the

calculation of the lutein concentration. A total of 1 mL of supernatant was taken from each

graduated glass test tube and was transferred into a glass HPLC vial. The lutein concentration

of the samples was measured on an HPLC (Agilent 1100 Series, Agilent Technologies

GmbH, Germany) equipped with aLuna C8(2) HPLC column (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA,

USA).

2.10   Statistical analysis

All experiments were performed in at least three biological replicates. If not stated otherwise,

all results are presented as means and standard deviation (n = 3).

3. Results and discussions

3.1 Mutagenesis

The cultures of *Chlorella vulgaris* were grown mixotrophically to promote expression of

genes required for both organic carbon utilization and for photosynthesis. Exponentially

growing culture were diluted 10-fold and used directly for mutagenesis by UV light.

Different durations of UV light irradiation were tested to produce mutant populations. As

expected, the survival rates were decreasing with prolonged irradiation. While at irradiation

for 1 and 2 minutes the survival rates ranged between 74-93 %, they dropped to

approximately 30 % after 4 minutes and to 12 % after 5 minutes of irradiation. Survival rate

between 10-15 % was selected as a rate producing enough mutations but not affecting the cell

cultures detrimentally. Approximately 60,000 dark grown mutants were colour selected

yielding 7 mutants (MT 1 to 7) with lighter colors ranging from yellow to light green.

3.2 Biosan experiments: growth and biomass analysis

The seven mutants were characterized in detail in small volume (40 ml) cultures grown

heterotrophically in mineral medium (1/2 ŠS) containing 2% glucose at 30 °C. The wild type

(WT) reached maximum cell concentration of 52×10^6 cells mL^{-1}; the mutants varied

between 44×10^6 cells mL^{-1} and 689×10^6 cells mL^{-1} (Table 1). Two of the mutants, MT 1

and MT 2 reached significantly higher maximum cell concentrations than wild type, 628 and

689×10^6 m L^{-1}, i.e. 12- and 13-fold higher than the wild type. However, the maximum OD

reached was similar between wild type and MT 1 and 2. This together with the cell sizes and

dry matter per cell values suggests the only difference might be in the speed of the final cell

division (Table 1). Specific growth rates (μ) of all the mutants (ranging from 0.28 to 0.33 h^{-1})

were higher than that of wild type (0.13 h^{-1}), consequently the doubling times of the mutants

were shorter (ranging from 2.1 h to 2.45 h) than that of wild type (5.33 h). The specific

growth rate of mutants reached 2.1 to 2.5 fold higher as compared to WT, which is higher as

compared to previous research by Ong et al. (2010) which reported 1.4 – 1.8 fold higher

growth rate of *Chlorella* sp. and Kim et al. (2020) which mention 1.3 fold higher growth of

C. vulgaris mutant as compared to the wild type.

Table 1. Growth characteristics of the mutant strains

Strain	Maximum cell concentration (10^6 cells ml^{-1})	Maximum OD	Specific growth rate μ (h $^{-1}$)	Doubling time (h)
WT	52.06 ± 2.47	40.66 ± 0.82	0.13 ± 0.07	5.33
MT 1	627.7 ± 44.23	51.1 ± 2.73	0.29 ± 0.38	2.39
MT 2	688.9 ± 75.18	56.16 ± 2.15	0.28 ± 0.37	2.45
MT 3	70.3 ± 2.94	13.26 ± 0.23	0.29 ± 0.38	2.39
MT 4	101.3 ± 27.8	21.99 ± 0.07	0.33 ± 0.37	2.1
MT 5	55.4 ± 0	54.05 ± 0	0.29 ± 0	2.39
MT 6	53 ± 6.16	30.44 ± 26.43	0.29 ± 0.34	2.42
MT 7	44.16 ± 2.51	10.32 ± 0.37	0.28 ± 0.37	2.45

The cell composition analyses (Table 2) showed no difference in the proportion of DNA and

RNA per dry matter (DM) or cell; there were some minor differences in the starch content.

The cell composition analysis confirmed low chlorophyll concentration in mutants no. 1-3

(depicted in Figure 2), where chlorophyll *a* and *b* were below detection limit. Low

chlorophyll species of algae is currently gaining attention for further application in food

industries (Schüler et al., 2020), which make these 3 mutants interested to be scaled up

further. In mutants no. 4-7, there was no significant decrease in chlorophyll content despite

the visual change in color. Fatty acid profiles did not show any differences between the wild

type and mutants in either saturated or unsaturated FA. Some mutants (MT 3, 4, 5 and 7)

exhibited higher starch content as compared to WT, which can be related to the accumulation

of some polysaccharides under heterotrophic conditions (Schüler et al., 2020).

Table 2. Biomass composition of mutant strains compared to the wild type

Strain	DNA	Protein	RNA	Chl. a	Chl. b	Carotenoid	Starch
				Average % of DM			
WT	0.77 ± 0.01	25.73 ± 0.11	1.32 ± 0.09	0.03 ± 0	0.01 ± 0	0.02 ± 0	12.86 ± 5.09
MT 1	0.66 ± 0.01	20.96 ± 0.17	1.28 ± 0.03	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.02 ± 0.01	8.16 ± 0.87
MT 2	0.59 ± 0.04	14.90 ± 0.39	1.03 ± 0.03	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.01 ± 0	6.37 ± 0.47
MT 3	0.4 ± 0.02	16.95 ± 0.08	0.62 ± 0.05	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0.05 ± 0.01	26.36 ± 1.37
MT 4	0.46 ± 0.01	18.85 ± 0.11	0.78 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.02	0.04 ± 0	25.71 ± 1.17
MT 5	0.62 ± 0	19.11 ± 0	1.29 ± 0	0.04 ± 0	0.01 ± 0	0.03 ± 0	14.37 ± 0
MT 6	0.56 ± 0.07	20.06 ± 3.47	1.12 ± 0.31	0.04 ± 0.02	0.01 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.02	10.08 ± 5.2
MT 7	0.42 ± 0.02	10.02 ± 0.08	0.7 ± 0.04	0.03 ± 0	0.02 ± 0	0.04 ± 0	31.7 ± 3.33

Figure 2. Differences in colouration of cultures of the wild type and mutant strains 1, 2, 3 grown

in the RTS-8 multi-channel bioreactor after 50 hours.

3.3 Biostream cultivations: growth and biomass analysis

Given the low chlorophyll concentration and high growth rates, the mutant strains no. 1-3

were tested in larger scale, which confirmed the results from a small scale testing. Of all the

strains, no. 1 and 2 seem to be most promising, particularly due to improved growth rates.

Dry matter, OD, and cell number obtained during the Biostream cultivation are depicted in

Figure 3, while calculation of growth rate and doubling time based on OD (28-40 h for WT,

44-48 h for MT1, 36-44 h for MT2, 44-52 h for MT3), are tabulated in Table 3. Even the

obtained growth rate was lower as compared to the Biosan system, mutants maintained a

higher value as compared to the WT. The MT 1 and 3 reached 1.6 fold higher specific growth

rate than WT, similar to some previously published reports (Kim et al., 2020; Ong et al.,

2010). In addition, mutants also maintained lower doubling time and higher dry matter after

cultivation period (maximum of 4.43 g L^{-1} with 3.3 fold higher than WT).

Figure 3. Dry matter, OD, and cell number of the wild type and the three mutant strains during cultivation in the Biostream fermenters. Data are shown as average values and standard deviation (n=4).

Table 3. Growth characteristics of the wild type and the mutant strains cultivated in the Biostream fermenters. Data are shown as average values and standard deviation (n=4).

Strain	Max. DM (g L^{-1})	Max. OD$_{750nm}$ (r.u.)	Specific growth rate μ (h^{-1})	Doubling time h
WT	1.36 ± 0.10	4.54 ± 0.32	0.07 ± 0.01	10.40 ± 1.02
MT 1	3.62 ± 0.44	13.32 ± 1.37	0.11 ± 0.03	6.77 ± 1.60
MT 2	4.31 ± 0.44	14.22 ± 0.37	0.07 ± 0.00	9.72 ± 0.57
MT 3	4.43 ± 0.24	15.82 ± 0.83	0.11 ± 0.00	6.51 ± 0.17

Figure 4. Chlorophyll a+b and lutein content of the wild type and the three mutant strains

during cultivation in the Biostream fermenters. Data are shown as average values and standard

deviation (n=4).

As presented in Figure 2, the yellow colour appeared on the MT 1, 2, and 3 cultures is

subjected to the presence of xanthophyll lutein (Huang et al., 2018). The decreasing of

chlorophyll content accompanied with the increase of lutein are interesting for food scientist

since some microalgae-based food has low consumer sensorial acceptance due to the

appearance of green colour (van Lelyveld and Smith, 1989). The chlorophyll content in WT

was decreased along the test period while fluctuated for all mutants (Figure 4 and Table 4),

with WT showed higher value than mutants as can be seen also by greenish colour in Figure

2. The decrease in chlorophyll content in WT indicate that the cell did not invest in

chlorophyll biosynthesis under heterotrophic condition, while also indicating the degradative

chlorophyll reactions (Beisel et al., 2010).

Figure 5. Biomass composition of the wild type and the three mutant strains during cultivation

in the Biostream fermenters. Data are shown as average values and standard deviation (n=3 for

starch and protein content and n=1 for fatty acids).

Referring to the starch content (Figure 5 and Table 4), WT showed a trend of increasing

starch content which may be referred to the starch accumulation under heterotrophic

conditions (Schüler et al., 2020). A decrease in protein and fatty acids content confirmed that

starch accumulation was a mechanism of microalgae to prevent energy loss by reducing

protein and lipid synthesis (Shi et al., 2022). Different from the wild type, decreasing trend

was obtained for starch accumulation in all mutants, along with the increasing of protein

(Figure 5 and Table 4). This suggests that mutants consumed internal carbohydrate (as the

product of heterotrophic biosynthesis) to synthesize protein (Li et al., 2008), hence reducing

the starch content in biomass. The observation of increased protein levels and decreased

chlorophyll concentrations in mutant species may indicate that the photosystems have

truncated chlorophyll antennas, called chlorophyll-binding proteins and thylakoid membrane

proteins, as has been documented in other mutants lacking chlorophyll (Dall'Osto et al.,

2019; Shin et al., 2016).

Despite the differences found in the starch accumulation, there is no significant difference

found in the content of lipid and fatty acids between WT and mutants (Figure 5 and Table 4).

The obtained result was in accordance with Schüler et al. (2020) which also reported the

insignificant differences of lipid and FA content between WT and mutants. The fraction of

TFA was also varied in each species (Figure 6), while C16:0 (palmitic acid) and C18:2

(linoleic acid) mostly composes the whole distribution (>20% of DW each). Both palmitic

and linoleic acid are major constituents of TFA in the *C. vulgaris* as also stated previously by

(Moradi-Kheibari et al., 2022).

Figure 6. Fraction of total fatty acids in the wild type and the three mutants during cultivation

in the Biostream fermenters (n=1)

Table 4. Range of macronutrients and pigments composition of the wild type and the

mutants during the stationary phase.

Strain	Starch (% of DM)	Protein (% of DM)	FA (% of DM)	Chlorophyll (% of DM)	Lutein (% of DM)
WT	62.74 ⬜ 66.42	3.99 ⬜ 4.59	4.08 ⬜ 4.57	0.54 ⬜ 0.57	0.22 ⬜ 0.25
MT 1	36.12 ⬜ 37.90	12.58 ⬜ 15.00	3.84 ⬜ 4.22	0.10 ⬜ 0.14	0.37 ⬜ 0.38
MT 2	30.01 ⬜ 35.66	12.71 ⬜ 14.95	3.96 ⬜ 4.19	0.16 ⬜ 0.29	0.20 ⬜ 0.25
MT 3	26.62 ⬜ 28.78	13.15 ⬜ 14.93	4.83 ⬜ 5.59	0.24 ⬜ 0.27	0.26 ⬜ 0.31

4. Conclusion

Random UV mutagenesis to *Chlorella vulgaris* showed a good effect in term of chlorophyll, protein, and lutein contents. Based on the obtained results, all mutants showed higher specific growth rate, ranging from 2.1 to 2.5-fold, as compared to the wild type. Three mutants (coded as MT 1, 2, and 3) exhibited low chlorophyll concentrations, which then selected to be scaled up further. All mutants showed higher protein contents, lower starch and chlorophyll contents as compared to wild type in bigger scale reactors. Furthermore, MT 1 showed the highest lutein content 0.37 – 0.38% and lowest chlorophyll content 0.1 – 0.14%, which is interesting for further utilization in food industries.

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