

# The Growth Behavior of *Chlorella vulgaris* in Bisphenol a Under Different Cultural Conditions

Lu Wang<sup>1</sup>, Xiurong Chen<sup>1</sup>, Hualin Wang<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Yan Xu<sup>2</sup> and Youjun Zhuang<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>State Environmental Protection Key Laboratory of Environmental Risk Assessment and Control on Chemical Process, East China University of Science and Technology, Shanghai 200237, PR China

<sup>2</sup>National Engineering Laboratory for High-Concentration Refractory Organic Wastewater Treatment Technologies, East China University of Science and Technology, Shanghai 200237, PR China

## Abstract

The effects of different initial concentrations of bisphenol A (BPA) on *Chlorella vulgaris* and removal capacity of BPA by *Chlorella vulgaris* were investigated under the light and the dark cultural conditions. Experiments were performed in 250 mL flasks under light and dark conditions with different BPA concentrations. Results showed that 0-20 mg·L<sup>-1</sup> BPA concentration under the light condition and 0-10 mg·L<sup>-1</sup> BPA concentration under dark condition plays a promoting role on the growth of *Chlorella vulgaris* in terms of cell density. The effect of BPA removal under light condition was obviously better than that under the dark condition. The maximum BPA removal rates were 3.425 ± 0.145 mg (L·d)<sup>-1</sup> and 1.530 ± 0.025 mg (L·d)<sup>-1</sup> under two conditions and were observed during 2-4 d and 0-2 d, respectively. The largest removal amounts of BPA under two conditions were all investigated in L-BPA<sub>50</sub> and D-BPA<sub>50</sub> groups. Both superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT) activities were promoted in all the treatments, which proved that *C. vulgaris* showed a positive response to the BPA stress condition. SOD activity showed sensitive and responsive to the new medium since it was promoted immediately on the incubation day. CAT activity was supposed to be more tightly controlled in response to BPA because its level was related to the BPA removal.

**Keywords:** *Chlorella vulgaris*; Bisphenol A; Light condition; Dark condition; Comparison

## Introduction

With the global industrialization, production and usage of man-made substances in the industry have led to the entry of a wide variety of endocrine-disrupting chemicals into the environment [1]. Bisphenol A (BPA), which is made by Phenol and acetone [2], is an industrially important chemical that is used as a raw material in the manufacture of many products such as engineering plastics (e.g., epoxy resins/polycarbonate plastics), food cans (i.e., lacquer coatings), and dental composites/sealants [3]. Extensive evidence indicates that BPA induces feminization during gonadal ontogeny of fishes [4], reptiles [5], birds [6], and human [7,8], and it is identified as an endocrine disruptor and leads to carcinogenesis [9]. Biology is exposed to ubiquitous BPA. Though its hazardous effects, more than 5 million metric tons of BPA was produced in 2011 and was mainly used in East Asia (Korea, China and Japan), and kept increasing year by year [10,11].

BPA is released into the environment mainly via two ways: sewage treatment effluent [12,13] and landfill leachate [14]. In the aquatic ecosystems, pollutants spread very quickly and have far-reaching consequences and particular attention should be paid to BPA. The previous study has even detected BPA in source water and drinking water [15]. The global level of BPA in most of the aquatic environments was lower than 1 µg/L [16]. BPA imposes deleterious effects on aquatic organisms, even at concentrations of less than 1 µg L<sup>-1</sup> [17], making its detection and removal to non-toxic level a primary concern in water quality management.

Methods to remove BPA in the liquid phase include photo-degradation [16,18,19], oxidation [20-22], bacteria biodegradation [23-25], fungi biodegradation [26,27]. The knowledge on the biodegradation of BPA toward algal growth is of great importance due to its role in natural water bodies as a major primary producer, maintaining the balance of the aquatic ecosystem and are known to be comparatively sensitive to chemicals [28]. *Chlorella* is also one of the most tolerant

eight genera [29] and highly tolerant to soluble organic compounds [30-33]. Wang et al. has identified novel pathways for biodegradation of BPA by green alga, while the maximum initial exposure concentration was low to inhibited algal growth [34]. Ji et al. used two stains of fresh microalgae for the biodegradation of BPA and utilization of algae under light condition [35]. Green alga *Monoraphidium braunii* was cultivated in the mixed medium of different level of BPA and natural organic matter, but the incubation time lasted relatively short (4 days) [36].

*C. vulgaris* can grow under photoautotrophic and heterotrophic conditions and algae tended to accumulate more biomass and grow faster in the organic carbon-rich medium under dark conditions [37-39]. Hence in our study, *C. vulgaris* was cultivated with different initial BPA concentrations under two cultivation conditions (mixotrophic and heterotrophic) to identify the interrelationship of BPA and algae. The biodegradation of BPA by algae and the influence of BPA on algal growth would be investigated. The characteristics of algae at different growth phases and algal stress enzymes were analyzed.

## Materials and Methods

### Chemical

Bisphenol A [2,2-(4,4-dihydroxydiphenyl) propane, 99% purity] was purchased from the Aladdin Chemistry Co., Ltd. (Shanghai,

**\*Corresponding authors:** Hualin Wang, State Environmental Protection Key Laboratory of Environmental Risk Assessment and Control on Chemical Process, East China University of Science and Technology, Shanghai 200237, PR China, Tel: +862164252518; E-mail: wanghl@ecust.edu.cn

**Received** November 14, 2017; **Accepted** November 22, 2017; **Published** November 27, 2017

**Citation:** Wang L, Chen X, Wang H, Xu Y, Zhuang Y (2017) The Growth Behavior of *Chlorella vulgaris* in Bisphenol a Under Different Cultural Conditions. J Environ Anal Toxicol 7: 529. doi: 10.4172/2161-0525.1000529

**Copyright:** © 2017 Wang L, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

China). HPLC grade methanol (MeOH, 99.9%) was supplied by J&K Scientific Ltd. (Beijing, China) and ultrapure water was prepared in the laboratory using an ELGA ultrapure water machine (including water column), England. Other chemicals were used in analytical reagent grade and provided by the Shanghai LingFeng Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China) and Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China).

### C. vulgaris strain and pre-culture conditions

*C. vulgaris* (FACHB-31) used in this study was provided by the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wuhan Institute of Aquatic Organisms. Then it was preserved in the BG-11 medium (Table 1) and cultivated in a 250 mL flask containing 100 mL growth medium to obtain a sufficient amount of cells; temperature was controlled at  $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ , and light density was controlled at 2000 lux (the ratio of light to dark was 14:10) in Boxun light growth chamber (SPX-250B-G, Shanghai Boxun Industry & Commerce Co., Ltd., China). This sample was used throughout the study.

### Experimental procedure

**Cultivation medium:** The basic medium was BG11 medium, which also was set as the control group. Five initial BPA concentrations (2, 5, 10, 20, 50  $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ) were added in the basic medium for the algal cultivation. Experiments were performed using a 500 mL flask with 250 mL of working volume. Reactors were incubated with *C. vulgaris* obtained from a stock *C. vulgaris* reactor to produce an initial cell density of approximately  $5 \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ .

**Light condition:** The reactors were illuminated in a light growth chamber with 2000 lux light intensity (the ratio of light to dark was 12:12) and  $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  temperature for 10 d. The BPA groups under this condition were set as L-BPA<sub>0</sub>, L-BPA<sub>2</sub>, L-BPA<sub>5</sub>, L-BPA<sub>10</sub>, L-BPA<sub>20</sub>, and L-BPA<sub>50</sub>.

**Dark condition:** Five glucose concentrations (1  $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ , 2  $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ , 5  $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ , 10  $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ) were tested for the heterotrophic cultivation of *C. vulgaris* in the previous experiment (statistics were not shown). Considering both benefiting algal growth and limiting the residual glucose at the end of cultivation, 1  $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  was chosen for *C. vulgaris* cultivation. The reactors were put in a thermostatic incubator at  $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  temperature for 10 d. The BPA groups under this condition were set as D-BPA<sub>0</sub>, D-BPA<sub>2</sub>, D-BPA<sub>5</sub>, D-BPA<sub>10</sub>, D-BPA<sub>20</sub>, and D-BPA<sub>50</sub>.

### Sample preparation and analysis

Before sampling was conducted, the biomass attached to the reactor walls was carefully suspended by swirling the culture contents. At different time intervals (mainly on 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 d), approximately

Chemicals	Content g/L	Chemicals	Content g/L
NaNO <sub>3</sub>	1.5 g	K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> ·3H <sub>2</sub> O	40 mg
MgSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O	75 mg	CaCl <sub>2</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O	36 mg
Citric acid	6 mg	Ferric ammonium citrate	6 mg
Na <sub>2</sub> EDTA·2H <sub>2</sub> O	1 mg	Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	20 mg
H <sub>3</sub> BO <sub>3</sub>	2.86 mg	MnCl <sub>2</sub> ·4H <sub>2</sub> O	1.81 mg
ZnSO <sub>4</sub> ·7H <sub>2</sub> O	0.22 mg	Na <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub> ·2H <sub>2</sub> O	0.39 mg
CuSO <sub>4</sub> ·5H <sub>2</sub> O	0.079 mg	Co(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> ·6H <sub>2</sub> O	0.0494 mg

Table 1: The components of BG11.

40 mL of the samples were removed from the reactors to monitor the biomass growth in terms of cell density and stress enzymes. The left aqueous phase was gathered to determine residual BPA concentration. All the experiments were performed in triplicate, and average values were recorded.

**Measurement of *C. vulgaris* cell growth:** *C. vulgaris* proliferation was determined by direct counting by using a Neubauer hemocytometer under an optical microscope (BA200; Shanghai Boxun Industry & Commerce Co., Ltd., China) with eyepiece (10 times) and objective (40 times).

**Chlorophyll-a analysis:** Chlorophyll-a was measured after extraction with methanol. Samples of *C. vulgaris* were centrifuged (5000 rpm, 10 min), washed twice by deionized (DI) water, and the pellet was resuspended in 8 mL of 100% methanol and disrupted in an ultrasonic cleaner (A NA1860, Yingsum Ultrasonic Equipment Co., Ltd., China) at 135 W with ice bag in the dark place for a duration of 40 minutes. After chlorophyll-a extraction, samples were centrifuged (5000 rpm, 10 min); the amount of chlorophyll-a in the supernatants was diluted with methanol to 10 mL and absorbance was measured at 653 and 666 nm. Chlorophyll-a concentration was calculated according to Ritchie's and Zheng's method [40,41].

$$C_a = [15.65 \times \text{OD}_{666} - 7.34 \times \text{OD}_{653}] \times \text{Dilution Ratio} \quad (1)$$

Where,  $C_a$  stands for Chlorophyll-a concentration and OD stands for absorbance which measured at 653 and 666 nm.

**BPA analysis:** BPA contents in the aqueous phase were measured by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, LC-10ATVP, Kyoto, Japan) using a reversed-phase C-18 column (250 nm × 4.6 nm, 5 μm) as the stationary phase and a mixture of methanol and H<sub>2</sub>O (77:23) as the mobile phase. The flow rate was maintained at 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup> and a wavelength of 280 nm was used.

**preparation of enzymes extracts and activity analysis:** For preparing extracts, 25 mL *C. vulgaris* sample was centrifuged (5000 rpm, 10 min), washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; pH=7), and the pellet was resuspended in 5 mL PBS. Next, the suspension was disrupted using a 300 W ultrasonic processor (Fs-300; Shanghai Sonxi Co., Ltd., China) for 4 s at 4 s intervals for a duration of 20 min in an ice-water bath to allow the intracellular substances to move out of the cells and enter the liquid phase. The sample was then centrifuged at 20,000 rpm for 5 min to obtain the supernatant as enzyme extract. All the steps in enzyme extract preparation were performed at 4°C. The extract was used to measure the activities of antioxidant enzymes.

Superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity was assayed by measuring its ability to inhibit the photochemical reduction of nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) and the change in absorbance were measured at 560 nm [42]. The reaction mixture consisted of 25 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.8), 65 μM NBT, 2 μM riboflavin, enzyme extract, and TEMED and the reaction mixture was exposed to the light of 350 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for 15 min. To determine the SOD activity in per 10<sup>6</sup> algal cells indicated in this paper, we divided the SOD activity by the corresponding cell density.

**Catalase analysis:** Catalase (CAT) was measured with KMnO<sub>4</sub> titration method. 5 mL algal suspension was mixed thoroughly with 15 mL distilled water and 2.5 mL hydrogen peroxide (0.1 M). The sample was then incubated for 30 min at 120 r min<sup>-1</sup> and 35 °C; the reaction was stopped by adding 2.5 mL of sulfuric acid (1.5 M). After the mixture was filtered, 25 mL filtrate was acquired and titrated using 10 μM KMnO<sub>4</sub> until it turned to pink (do not fade after 20 s). CAT activity (U) was calculated according to the following Eq. (33):

$$M(U) = (V_0 - V) / W \times C \quad (2)$$

Where, M is the CAT activity,  $V_0$  is the consumption volume of  $KMnO_4$  for the blank sample (without algae), V is the consumption volume of  $KMnO_4$  for the control sample (with algae), W is the quality of activated sludge, and C is the concentration of  $KMnO_4$ .

### Statistical analysis

All data were expressed as means  $\pm$  standard error of the mean (SEM). Statistical analysis was performed using IBM SPSS 22.0 (IBM Corporation, Somers, NY). Analysis of variance (ANOVA/MANOVA) was used to determine the significance of differences between the groups. The Pearson correlation test was performed for determining the correlations between the parameters. The level of statistical significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ .

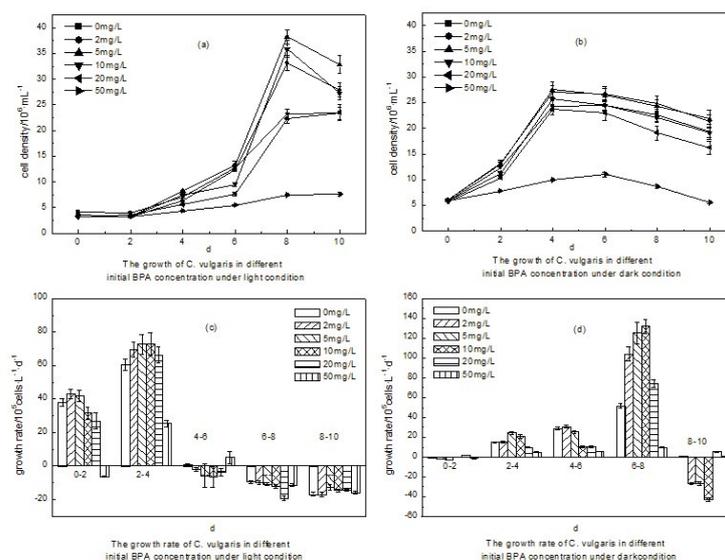
## Results and Discussion

### The growth of *C. vulgaris* under two conditions

The variations of cell density of *C. vulgaris* in different initial BPA concentration under two cultivation conditions and their corresponding growth rates were shown in Figure 1. The first 2 days was investigated to be the lag phase of algal growth since cell density of every group remained at the beginning level and the growth rates were at a very low level under light condition. From the 4<sup>th</sup> day, differences between each group appeared and became obvious with time. Considering the growth trends, period 4-8 d was supposed to be the log phase of *C. vulgaris* growth. The cell density of L-BPA<sub>0</sub> group (control group) reached  $(23.17 \pm 0.98) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1}$  and the highest cell density was obtained by L-BPA<sub>5</sub> group  $((38.25 \pm 1.38) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1})$ , while L-BPA<sub>50</sub> group only gained  $(7.44 \pm 0.17) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1}$  on the 8<sup>th</sup> day. BPA could stimulate the growth of *C. vulgaris* in terms of cell density when the concentration was under 20 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and the cell densities of L-BPA<sub>2</sub>, L-BPA<sub>5</sub>, and L-BPA<sub>10</sub> groups  $((33.25 \pm 1.50) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ ,  $(38.25 \pm 1.38) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ ,  $(35.92 \pm 1.58) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ ) were significantly higher than the control group ( $p < 0.01$ ). This might be because the low concentration of BPA was taken as the organic substance resources by algae for growth. The growth of green alga *Monoraphidium braunii* also was promoted by under 4 mg/L BPA [36]. The growth rates of L-BPA<sub>2,5,10</sub> groups were at the similar level with the control group during 2-6 d, while obviously

higher than the control group ( $p < 0.01$ ) on the 8<sup>th</sup> day. The growth rate of L-BPA<sub>20</sub> group was lower than the control group from 2-6 d, but higher during 6-8 d period. 20 mg L<sup>-1</sup> BPA might be a “critical” concentration for *C. vulgaris* growth. Algae was firstly inhibited and the log phase was prolonged, but finally, could recover and acclimate itself to the toxic circumstance. In Ji’s study, 25 mg L<sup>-1</sup> inhibited BPA concentration was also found on the growth of both *Chlamydomonas mexicana* and *Chlorella vulgaris* [35]. A similar phenomenon was shown when cultivating *C. vulgaris* in 4-chlorophenol and 2,4-dichlorophenol, which also had an inhibition concentration for algal growth [31]. When using microalgae consortium to biodegrade p-chlorophenol (PCP), the lag phase of algae was prolonged from  $12 \pm 1.8 \text{ d}$  to  $14.7 \pm 1.2 \text{ d}$  as the initial PCP concentration was increased from  $100 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  to  $150 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  [43]. The rest time (8-10 d) was considered as the stable phase of the algal growth and the growth rate showed the algae death. The growth of *C. vulgaris* was totally inhibited under 50 mg L<sup>-1</sup> BPA concentration and the growth rate was lower than the control group along the cultivation ( $p < 0.01$ ).

Different from the light condition, there was no obvious lag phase in *C. vulgaris* growth except D-BPA<sub>50</sub> group under the dark condition with 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> glucose. The first 4 days was considered as the log phase since the algae grew rapidly and reached the optimum. After the stable phase (4-6 d) with the growth rate around zero, algae came into the decline phase (6-10 d) with the growth rate less than zero. Compared with the light condition, the addition of BPA (under 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) also would not inhibit the growth of algae, but the beneficial effect was not obvious as that under the light condition, for the cell density relatively higher than the control group. What’s more, the highest cell density gained by D-BPA<sub>5</sub>  $((27.08 \pm 1.22) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1})$  was about  $11 \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1}$  fewer than that of L-BPA<sub>5</sub>  $((38.25 \pm 1.38) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1})$ . The “critical” concentration was 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> under the dark condition which also lower that of light condition. The peak cell density of D-BPA<sub>50</sub> group  $((10.98 \pm 0.44) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1})$  appeared on 4<sup>th</sup> day, which was less than half of the control group’s  $((24.46 \pm 1.18) \times 10^6 \text{ mL}^{-1})$ . Though the growth rate of *C. vulgaris* in dark condition showed faster growth trending during the first 4 days, the highest growth rate (D-BPA<sub>5</sub>:  $(41.84 \pm 3.41) \times 10^5 \text{ (L-d)}^{-1}$ , 0-2 d) which much lower than that of the light condition (L-BPA<sub>5</sub>:  $(124.92 \pm 11.02) \times 10^5 \text{ (L-d)}^{-1}$ , 6-8 h). Light is a very important parameter for



**Figure 1:** (a) The growth of *C. vulgaris* in different initial BPA concentration under light condition (b) the growth of *C. vulgaris* in different initial BPA concentration under dark condition (c) the growth rate of *C. vulgaris* in different initial BPA concentration under light condition (d) the growth rate of *C. vulgaris* in different initial BPA concentration under dark condition.

microalgae growth. Microalgae consortium could biodegrade more p-chlorophenol under light condition [43]. Under light conditions, *C. vulgaris* tended to have higher BPA tolerable concentration and gain more biomass during the cultivation than the dark condition.

### The removal of BPA under two conditions

The removal and residual of BPA under light and dark conditions after 10-days cultivation was shown in Figure 2. BPA removal amount by *C. vulgaris* under light condition increased along with the increase of initial BPA concentration and the maximum removal amount appeared in the L-BPA<sub>50</sub> group (15.79 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). BPA removal under dark condition showed the similar tendency and the maximum removal amount also appeared in D-BPA<sub>50</sub> group (7.30 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), which only half of the light condition. Table 2 shows the BPA removal value and ratio under two cultivation conditions. The final BPA removal amount has good correlation with initial BPA concentrations under cultivation conditions, 0.992 (p<0.01) under light condition and 0.989 (p<0.01) under dark condition, respectively. The light condition would benefit the removal of BPA, especially when the initial BPA concentration up to 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>.

The BPA removal rates during every sampling period under two cultivation conditions has been shown in Figure 3. The removal rate differences between each time period of L-BPA<sub>2</sub> and L-BPA<sub>3</sub> groups were not evident, while the differences became obvious when the initial BPA concentration up to 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. The removal rates of BPA<sub>20</sub> and BPA<sub>50</sub> during 2-4 d were 1.325 ± 0.074 and 3.425 ± 0.145 mg (L·d)<sup>-1</sup> respectively, which was significantly higher than other time period (p<0.01). According to our previous discussion, period 2-4 d was the beginning phase of algal log growth period but not the optimal growth rate period (6-8 d). The BPA removal rates of every group under dark condition were relatively faster during period 0-2 d, which also was the beginning phase of algal log period. The highest removal rate under dark condition was 1.530 ± 0.025 mg (L·d)<sup>-1</sup> of L-BPA<sub>50</sub>, which also much lower than that under light condition. Whatever, the highest BPA removal rates under two cultivation conditions were both shown in BPA<sub>50</sub> group during the initial stage of the log phase of cultivation. A good correlation could be observed between both the removal rate during 2-4 d under the light condition and 6-8 d under the dark condition with the initial BPA concentration (0.998, p<0.001; 0.982, p<0.001). In the study of the biodegradation of p-chlorophenol by a

microalgal consortium, the researchers also found that the duration of the lag phase corresponded to the time needed for complete p-CP degradation to occur [43]. What's more, though the percentage of residual BPA would increase as the initial BPA concentration increased, the absolute removal amount increased [36].

### SOD and CAT analysis

Toxic chemicals and stress conditions would result in oxidative damage to algae [44,45] by overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS), including superoxide radical (O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>), singlet oxygen (O<sub>2</sub><sup>1</sup>), hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), and hydroxyl radical (HO<sup>·</sup>) [46]. The SOD-CAT system is the first line of defense of the body against oxidative stress and can be used as a biomarker of ROS production [47]. In our study, the SOD activity and CAT activity in per 10<sup>6</sup> algal cells were investigated in order to analyze the *C. vulgaris* response to the different concentration of BPA and deeper analysis of BPA removal.

**Effect of BPA on SOD activity of *C. vulgaris*:** SOD acts as antioxidants to against the superoxide radicals and protects cellular components from being oxidized by ROS [48,49]. The effects of BPA on SOD activity of *C. vulgaris* under two conditions were shown in Figure 4. Compared with CAT activity under the light condition, SOD activity was more sensitive and responsive to the new cultivation. The SOD activity of every group was stimulated when incubated to the new medium, even the control group's algae secreted more enzyme (over 4 U/10<sup>6</sup> cells) on the incubation day. Then the control group's SOD activity remained at 2 U/10<sup>6</sup> cells level the rest time of the cultivation. Compared with control group, the SOD activity of BPA groups was obviously promoted by the increasing initial BPA concentration on the incubation day (p<0.05) and on the 2<sup>nd</sup> day (p<0.01). Period 0-2 d was the lag phase of algal growth and SOD activity reacted immediately to the stress condition. The SOD activity level of L-BPA<sub>2</sub> and L-BPA<sub>3</sub> groups dropped to control groups level on the 4<sup>th</sup> day, L-BPA<sub>10</sub> on the 6<sup>th</sup> day and L-BPA<sub>20</sub> on the 8<sup>th</sup> day. While the SOD activity level of L-BPA<sub>50</sub> was higher than the control group along the cultivation time.

Under dark condition, the SOD activity in *C. vulgaris* of every group also showed more sensitive and responsive reaction to the new medium than CAT activity since the SOD activity of every group was promoted on the incubation day. This promotion also lasted during the 0-2 d. Different from the light condition, the SOD activity level of D-BPA<sub>20</sub> and D-BPA<sub>50</sub> didn't drop to the control group's level until the 6<sup>th</sup> day. This phenomenon also supports that the "critical" concentration for *C. vulgaris* under dark condition would be 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. What's more, the maximum SOD activity level was 5.05 U/10<sup>6</sup> cells (D-BPA<sub>50</sub>, 0 d), which was lower than that under light condition (8.44 U/10<sup>6</sup> cells, L-BPA<sub>50</sub>, 0 d). We supposed that the light condition stimulated the SOD activity which contributed to the algal ability to overcome the stress condition.

**Influence of different concentration of BPA on enzymes activity:** CAT is an enzyme present in the peroxisomes and mitochondria where it decomposes H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> into water and oxygen [49]. Increase in CAT activity is believed to maintain the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> steady-state level within the cells. The acute and chronic effects of BPA on CAT activity of per 10<sup>6</sup> algal cells are shown in Figure 5. Under the light condition, the CAT activity of the control group was about 0.2 U during the whole cultivation period. The CAT activities of BPA groups were at the similar level (around 0.2 U) with the control group at the incubation day. While the CAT activities of BPA groups were observed significantly higher than the control group on the 2<sup>nd</sup> day (p<0.01). The CAT activity in per 10<sup>6</sup> algal cells stimulated along with the increase of the initial BPA concentration. The CAT activity of BPA groups decreased at 96 h, but

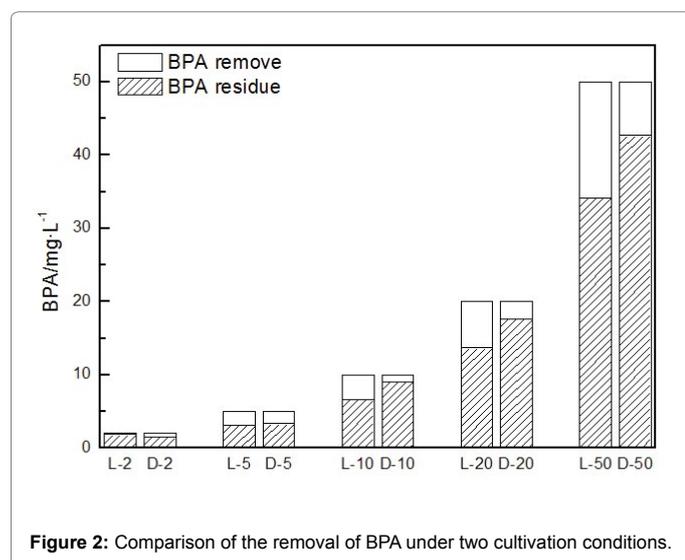


Figure 2: Comparison of the removal of BPA under two cultivation conditions.

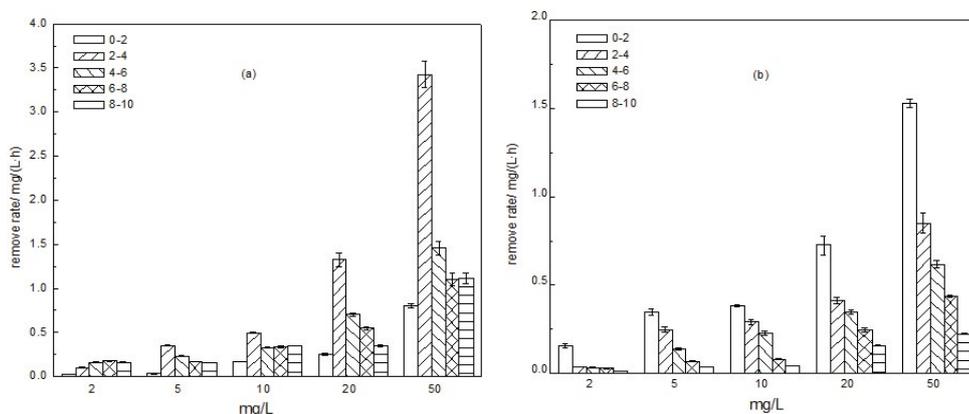


Figure 3: BPA removal rate per unit time (a. Light; b Dark).

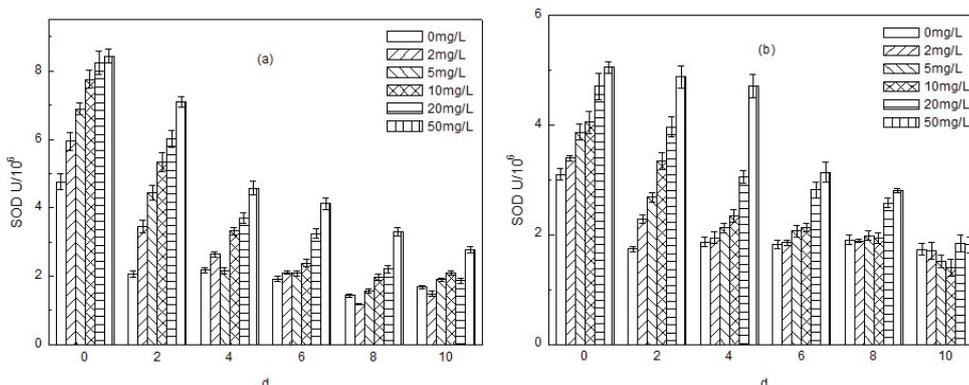


Figure 4: SOD activities of *C. vulgaris* during different periods under various concentrations of BPA.

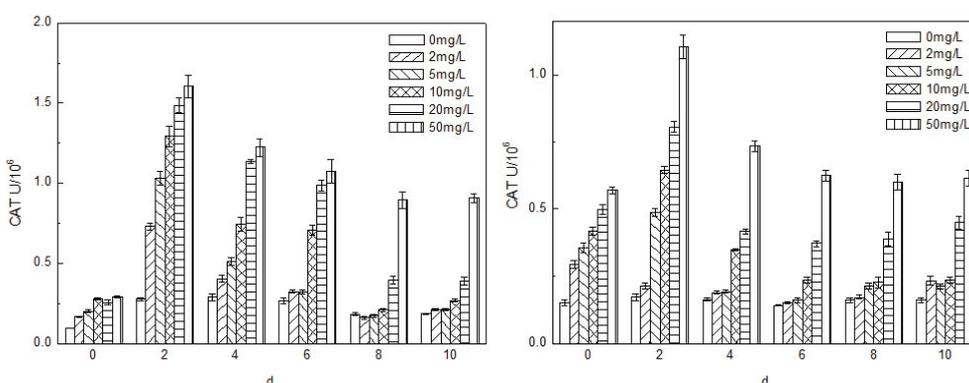


Figure 5: CAT activities of *C. vulgaris* during different periods under various concentrations of BPA.

they still remain at higher levels compared to the control group. As we discussed above, the beginning phase of algal log growth period (2-4 d) gained the highest BPA removal rate, which might be supposed the removal of BPA by algae promoted the CAT activity in the algal cells. Along with the cultivation, the CAT activity of L-BPA<sub>10</sub>, L-BPA<sub>20</sub> and L-BPA<sub>50</sub> were still higher than the control group ( $p < 0.01$ ) while that of L-BPA<sub>2</sub> and L-BPA<sub>5</sub> group were decreased to the level of the

control group. The CAT activity of L-BPA<sub>10</sub> and L-BPA<sub>20</sub> reduced to the control group's level on the 6<sup>th</sup> day and 10<sup>th</sup> day, respectively, while that of L-BPA<sub>50</sub> remained obviously higher than the control group's. CAT activities of BPA groups decreased in the later stages might due to two reasons: 1) metabolism and oxidative stress of *C. vulgaris* could manage toxicity in a culture, time-dependent manner [50]. 2) BPA was biodegraded by algae and the stimulation of residual BPA to algae was correspondingly lower.

	Light condition				
Removal value	1.24	1.86	3.35	6.33	15.79
Removal ratio	0.62	0.372	0.335	0.3165	0.3158
	Dark condition				
Removal value	0.51	1.65	2.03	3.76	7.3
Removal ratio	0.255	0.33	0.203	0.188	0.146

Table 2: BPA removal value and ratio under two cultivation conditions.

Under dark condition, Compared with the light condition, the CAT activities of BPA groups could be observed higher than the control group's at the incubation day and this trend lasted until 48 h, while this period (0-48 h) was also the beginning part of algal log growth phase under dark condition. Different from the light condition, the CAT activity of D-BPA<sub>20</sub> didn't decrease to the control group's level, which also proved that 20 mg L<sup>-1</sup> was the "critical" concentration under the light condition and 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> under dark condition. What's more, the maximum CAT activity of L-BPA<sub>50</sub> group and D-BPA<sub>50</sub> groups was 1.61 U and 1.10 U, respectively. So we supposed that light condition was conducive to the stimulation of CAT in algae cells to overcome the stress condition.

Increased SOC and CAT activity could be considered indirect evidence of enhancing production according to Mittler' study [49]. In Chen's study, SOD and CAT activities of *C. vulgaris* increased during 24-120 h exposure to sodium pentaborate pentahydrate, but gradually decreased as culture time progressed [50]. SOD and CAT activities of both *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* and *Scenedesmus obliquus* were promoted in the treatments of different concentration of BPA according to Zhang's research [51]. In our study, we supposed that addition of BPA caused oxidative damage to *C. vulgaris* and SOD activity in algal cells was considered as the response to this damage. Though the SOD and CAT activity calculated in the total amount at the different time point were investigated that would be promoted by the toxic chemicals, the analysis would be more accurate if the enzymes were analyzed in per unit cells. What's more, SOD activity showed a more sensitive response to BPA stress condition than CAT activity. The enzyme in per 10<sup>6</sup> algal cells helps us to identify that CAT activity acted tightly with optimal BPA removal rate period.

## Conclusions

The *C. vulgaris* was cultivated in different initial concentration BPA under light and dark conditions for both BPA removal and algal growth analysis. Algal growth could be promoted by the low concentration of BPA (light: 20 mg L<sup>-1</sup>; dark: 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) in term of cell density. Algae tended to remove more BPA under light condition than the dark condition. The optimal BPA removal rates were observed during the early stage of algal log growth phase under both conditions. The removal of BPA by *C. vulgaris* increased as the initial BPA concentration increase. Enzymes in per 10<sup>6</sup> algal cells investigated that both SOD and CAT activities were promoted in all the treatments, which proved that algae could respond to the increasing concentration of BPA by secreting more stress enzymes. The enzymes level were tightly controlled in response to BPA and related to the BPA removal.

## Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Shanghai Pujiang Program in China [Grant No. 13PJD009]; the Natural Science Foundation of China [Grant No. 51378207]

and the National Science and Technology Major Project of the Ministry of Science and Technology of China [Grant No. 2014ZX07202-011-002].

## References

- Mendes JA (2002) The endocrine disrupters: a major medical challenge. Food and Chemical Toxicology 40: 781-788.
- Brunelle DJ (2005) Advances in Polycarbonates: An Overview. ACS Symposium Series, pp: 1-5.
- Huang YQ, Wong CK, Zheng JS, Bouwman H, Barra R, et al. (2012) Bisphenol A (BPA) in China: a review of sources, environmental levels, and potential human health impacts. Environment International 42: 91-99.
- Mita L, Bianco M, Viggiano E, Zollo F, Bencivenga U, et al. (2011) Bisphenol A content in fish caught in two different sites of the Tyrrhenian Sea (Italy). Chemosphere 82: 405-410.
- Manshakk LK, Conard CM, Bryan SJ, Deem SL, Holliday DK, et al. (2017) Transcriptomic alterations in the brain of painted turtles (*Chrysemys picta*) developmentally exposed to bisphenol A or ethinyl estradiol. Physiological Genomics 49: 201-215.
- Halldin K, Berg C, Bergman Å, Brandt I, Brunström B (2001) Distribution of bisphenol A and tetrabromobisphenol A in quail eggs, embryos and laying birds and studies on reproduction variables in adults following in ovo exposure. Archives of Toxicology 75: 597-603.
- Takayanagi S, Tokunaga T, Liu X, Okada H, Matsushima A, et al. (2006) Endocrine disruptor bisphenol A strongly binds to human estrogen-related receptor  $\gamma$  (ERR $\gamma$ ) with high constitutive activity. Toxicology Letters 167: 95-105.
- Takeshita A, Koibuchi N, Oka J, Taguchi M, Shishiba Y, et al. (2001) Bisphenol-A, an environmental estrogen, activates the human orphan nuclear receptor, steroid and xenobiotic receptor-mediated transcription. European Journal of Endocrinology 145: 513-517.
- Crain DA, Eriksen M, Iguchi T, Jobling S, Laufer H, et al. (2007) An ecological assessment of bisphenol-A: evidence from comparative biology. Reproductive Toxicology 24: 225-239.
- Hoepner LA, Whyatt RM, Just AC, Calafat AM, Perera FP, et al. (2013) Urinary concentrations of bisphenol A in an urban minority birth cohort in New York City, prenatal through age 7 years. Environmental Research 122: 38-44.
- Yamazaki E, Yamashita N, Taniyasu S, Lam J, Lam PK, et al. (2015) Bisphenol A and other bisphenol analogues including BPS and BPF in surface water samples from Japan, China, Korea and India. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety 122: 565-572.
- Hou G, Zhang R, Hao X, Liu C (2017) An exploration of the effect and interaction mechanism of bisphenol A on waste sludge hydrolysis with multi-spectra, isothermal titration microcalorimetry and molecule docking. Journal of Hazardous Materials 333: 32-41.
- Meesters RJ, Schröder HF (2002) Simultaneous determination of 4-nonylphenol and bisphenol A in sewage sludge. Analytical Chemistry 74: 3566-3574.
- Wintgens T, Gallenkemper M, Melin T (2003) Occurrence and removal of endocrine disrupters in landfill leachate treatment plants. Water Science and Technology 48: 127-134.
- Kleywegt S, Pileggi V, Yang P, Hao C, Zhao X, et al. (2011) Pharmaceuticals, hormones and bisphenol A in untreated source and finished drinking water in Ontario, Canada—occurrence and treatment efficiency. Science of the Total Environment 409: 1481-1488.
- Huang W, Luo M, Wei C, Wang Y, Hanna K, et al. (2017) Enhanced heterogeneous photo-Fenton process modified by magnetite and EDDS: BPA degradation. Environmental Science and Pollution Research 24: 10421-10429.
- Oehlmann J, Schulte-Oehlmann U, Bachmann J, Oetken M, Lutz I, et al. (2006) Bisphenol A induces superfeminization in the ramshorn snail (Gastropoda: Prosobranchia) at environmentally relevant concentrations. Environmental Health Perspectives 114: 127.
- Bechambi O, Jlaiei L, Najjar W, Sayadi S (2016) Photocatalytic degradation of bisphenol A in the presence of Ce-ZnO: Evolution of kinetics, toxicity and photodegradation mechanism. Materials Chemistry and Physics 173: 95-105.
- Zhou Y, Gu X, Zhang R, Lu J (2015) Influences of various cyclodextrins on the photodegradation of phenol and bisphenol A under UV light. Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research 54: 426-433.

20. Chen Z, Zhang Y, Zhou L, Zhu H, Wan F, et al. (2017) Performance of nitrogen-doped graphene aerogel particle electrodes for electro-catalytic oxidation of simulated Bisphenol A wastewaters. *Journal of Hazardous Materials* 332: 70-78.
21. Han Q, Wang H, Dong W, Liu T, Yin Y, et al. (2015) Degradation of bisphenol A by ferrate (VI) oxidation: Kinetics, products and toxicity assessment. *Chemical Engineering Journal* 262: 34-40.
22. Potakis N, Frontistis Z, Antonopoulou M, Konstantinou I, Mantzavinos D (2017) Oxidation of bisphenol A in water by heat-activated persulfate. *Journal of Environmental Management* 195: 125-132.
23. Chen X, Zhao J, Zhao J, Yang N, Zhang F, et al. (2014) The influence of SBR parameters on the sludge toxicity of synthetic wastewater containing bisphenol A. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research* 21: 9287-9296.
24. Xie YT, Li HB, Wang L, Liu Q, Shi Y, et al. (2011) Molecularly imprinted polymer microspheres enhanced biodegradation of bisphenol A by acclimated activated sludge. *Water Research* 45: 1189-1198.
25. Zhao J, Chen X, Lin F, Yang N, Huang H, et al. (2014) Mechanism of toxicity formation and spatial distribution in activated sludge treating synthetic effluent containing bisphenol A (BPA). *Chemical Engineering Journal* 250: 91-98.
26. Chai W, Handa Y, Suzuki M, Saito M, Kato N, et al. (2005) Biodegradation of bisphenol A by fungi. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology* 120: 175.
27. Zhang C, Li M, Chen X, Li M (2015) Edible fungus degrade bisphenol A with no harmful effect on its fatty acid composition. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* 118: 126-132.
28. Abdel-Hamid MI (1996) Development and application of a simple procedure for toxicity testing using immobilized algae. *Water Science and Technology* 33: 129-38.
29. Abdel-Raouf N, Al-Homaidan AA, Ibraheem IB (2012) Microalgae and wastewater treatment. *Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences* 19: 257-275.
30. Kumar MS, Miao ZH, Wyatt SK (2010) Influence of nutrient loads, feeding frequency and inoculum source on growth of *Chlorella vulgaris* in digested piggyery effluent culture medium. *Bioresource Technology* 101: 6012-6018.
31. Sahinkaya E, Dilek FB (2009) The growth behavior of *Chlorella vulgaris* in the presence of 4-chlorophenol and 2, 4-dichlorophenol. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* 72: 781-786.
32. Saygideger SD, Okkay O (2008) Effect of 2, 4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid on growth, protein and chlorophyll-a content of *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Spirulina platensis* cells. *Journal of Environmental Biology* 29: 175.
33. Yen HW, Chen PW, Hsu CY, Lee L (2017) The use of autotrophic *Chlorella vulgaris* in chromium (VI) reduction under different reduction conditions. *Journal of the Taiwan Institute of Chemical Engineers* 74: 1-6.
34. Wang R, Diao P, Chen Q, Wu H, Xu N, et al. (2017) Identification of novel pathways for biodegradation of bisphenol A by the green alga *Desmodesmus* sp. WR1, combined with mechanistic analysis at the transcriptome level. *Chemical Engineering Journal* 321: 424-431.
35. Ji MK, Kabra AN, Choi J, Hwang JH, Kim JR, et al. (2014) Biodegradation of bisphenol A by the freshwater microalgae *Chlamydomonas mexicana* and *Chlorella vulgaris*. *Ecological Engineering* 73: 260-269.
36. Gattullo CE, Bährs H, Steinberg CE, Loffredo E (2012) Removal of bisphenol A by the freshwater green alga *Monoraphidium braunii* and the role of natural organic matter. *Science of the Total Environment* 416: 501-516.
37. Dubey KK, Kumar S, Dixit D, Kumar P, Kumar D, et al. (2015) Implication of industrial waste for biomass and lipid production in *Chlorella minutissima* under autotrophic, heterotrophic, and mixotrophic grown conditions. *Applied Biochemistry and Biotechnology* 176: 1581-1595.
38. Wang H, Guo S, Zheng B, Li C (2004) Growth and biochemical components of *Chlorella vulgaris* under autotrophic heterotrophic and mixotrophic cultivations. *Journal of South China University of Technology (Natural Science)* 32: 47-50.
39. Van Wagenen J, De Francisci D, Angelidaki I (2015) Comparison of mixotrophic to cyclic autotrophic/heterotrophic growth strategies to optimize productivity of *Chlorella sorokiniana*. *Journal of Applied Phycology* 27: 1775-1782.
40. Ritchie RJ (2006) Consistent sets of spectrophotometric chlorophyll equations for acetone, methanol and ethanol solvents. *Photosynthesis Research* 89: 27-41.
41. Zheng H, Gao Z, Yin F, Ji X, Huang H (2012) Lipid production of *Chlorella vulgaris* from lipid-extracted microalgal biomass residues through two-step enzymatic hydrolysis. *Bioresource Technology* 117: 1-6.
42. Beauchamp C, Fridovich I (1971) Superoxide dismutase: improved assays and an assay applicable to acrylamide gels. *Analytical Biochemistry* 44: 276-287.
43. Lima SA, Raposo MF, Castro PM, Morais RM (2004) Biodegradation of p-chlorophenol by a microalgae consortium. *Water Research* 38: 97-102.
44. Chen Z, Song S, Wen Y, Zou Y, Liu H (2016) Toxicity of Cu (II) to the green alga *Chlorella vulgaris*: a perspective of photosynthesis and oxidant stress. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research* 23: 17910-17918.
45. da Costa CH, Perreault F, Oukarroum A, Melegari SP, Popovic R, et al. (2016) Effect of chromium oxide (III) nanoparticles on the production of reactive oxygen species and photosystem II activity in the green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *Science of the Total Environment* 565: 951-960.
46. Gill SS, Tuteja N (2010) Reactive oxygen species and antioxidant machinery in abiotic stress tolerance in crop plants. *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry* 48: 909-930.
47. Ballesteros ML, Wunderlin DA, Bistoni MA (2009) Oxidative stress responses in different organs of *Jenynsia multidentata* exposed to endosulfan. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* 72: 199-205.
48. Alscher RG, Erturk N, Heath LS (2002) Role of superoxide dismutases (SODs) in controlling oxidative stress in plants. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 53: 1331-1341.
49. Mittler R (2002) Oxidative stress, antioxidants and stress tolerance. *Trends in Plant Science* 7: 405-410.
50. Chen X, Pei Y (2016) Effects of sodium pentaborate pentahydrate exposure on *Chlorella vulgaris* growth, chlorophyll content, and enzyme activities. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* 132: 353-359.
51. Zhang W, Xiong B, Sun WF, An S, Lin KF, et al. (2014) Acute and chronic toxic effects of bisphenol A on *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* and *Scenedesmus obliquus*. *Environmental Toxicology* 29: 714-722.