	Schleiden) and its biochemical composition evaluation. Aquaculture, 515, Art. No.: /34419. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2019.734419 © 2019. Elsevier, Licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International http://creativecommons.org/licenses/
	by-nc-nd/4.0/
1	Production potential of greater duckweed Spirodela polyrhiza (L. Schleiden) and its
2	biochemical composition evaluation
3	
4	
5	JaiGopal Sharma <sup>a*</sup> , William D. Clark <sup>b</sup> , Avanish Kumar Shrivastav <sup>a</sup> , Ravi Kumar Goswami <sup>c</sup> ,
6	Douglas R. Tocher <sup>b</sup> , Rina Chakrabarti <sup>c</sup>
7	
8	<sup>a</sup> Department of Biotechnology, Delhi Technological University, Delhi 110042, India
9	<sup>b</sup> Institute of Aquaculture, Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of Stirling, Stirling FK9
10	4LA, Scotland, UK.
11	<sup>c</sup> Aqua Research Lab, Department of Zoology, University of Delhi, Delhi 110 007, India
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	Running title: Production of Spirodela polyrhiza and its biochemical composition study
21	
22	*Correspondence
23	+91-11-27666496, e-mail: sharmajaigopal@yahoo.com
24	

#### 26 ABSTRACT

The culture technique of greater duckweed Spirodela polyrhiza (L. Schleiden) was standardized in outdoor tanks using three different manures: manure 1 - cattle manure, poultry droppings and mustard oil cake, manure 2 - urea, potash and triple superphosphate and manure 3 - cattle manure, urea, potash and triple superphosphate. Significantly (p < 0.05) higher production was recorded in manure 1 compared to others. Manure 1 was subsequently selected for pond culture. In ponds, the production of duckweed was 2020±150 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup> dry weight basis. Protein content was significantly higher (p < 0.05) in duckweed cultured in manure 1. The amino acid profile study showed the presence of essential (37.4%), non-essential (58.2%) and free (4.5%) amino acids. Leucine, isoleucine and valine contributed 51.4% of total essential amino acids. Duckweed contained 7% lipid and α-linolenic acid (36-37%) was the major fatty acid. The study showed the nutritional value of duckweed as an animal feed ingredient. Keywords: Spirodela polyrhiza, Organic manure, Proximate composition, Amino acids, Fatty acids 

#### 51 **1. Introduction**

The greater duckweed Spirodela polyrhiza (L. Schleiden) is a free-floating, fast 52 growing aquatic plant, widely distributed in the still and slow-flowing water bodies globally. 53 Morphologically, this monocotyledon plant is simple and lack specialised structures such as 54 leaves or stems, but consist of flat ovoid leaf-like structures termed fronds with a rootlet for 55 stabilisation. The bright green (upper part) and purple (lower side) colours of the fronds 56 57 enhance its aesthetic value and make it suitable candidate for aquarium. Recent study shows the whole genome sequencing of S. polyrhiza, the most primitive member of Lemnaceae family 58 59 (Michael et al., 2017; Hoang et al., 2018). It is a useful tool for further investigation with this duckweed. In accordance with other Lemnaceae, the usefulness and potential of S. polyrhiza 60 has been recognized in recent days. It has utilisation for various purposes such as waste water 61 62 remediation as it is able to remove nitrogen (particularly ammonia) with high efficiency (Culley and Epps, 1973; Sutton and Ornes, 1975, 1977), bio-fuel production (Jarvis et al., 1998; Zhao 63 et al., 2012, 2014) and recombinant protein production (Khvatkov et al., 2018). It is also 64 reported as a promising substrate for bio-hydrogen production, and recognised as an ideal plant 65 in bioremediation and carbon cycle research (Kuehdorf et al., 2014; Olah et al., 2015; Tang et 66 al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012, 2015; Xu and Deshusses, 2015; Xu et al., 2015). The copy number 67 of the genes involved in the biosynthesis of two enzymes glutamine synthetase (GS) and 68 glutamate synthase (GOGAT) are amplified in greater duckweed. GS and GOGAT are the 69 70 major biochemical module for ammonium assimilation (Wang et al., 2014). In recent year, duckweeds are also considered as rich protein source for human consumption (Appenroth et 71 al., 2018; de Beukelaar et al., 2019). 72

*S. polyrhiza* is also gathering interest as a feed material/ingredient for fish, poultry and
pigs (Cruz-Velásquez et al., 2014; FAO, 2001; Hasan and Chakrabarti, 2009). Less fibre
content of the plant makes it easily digestible. In grass carp *Ctenopharyngodon idella*, a 75%

digestibility of S. polyrhiza has been observed (Wee, 1991). Similarly, analysis of the 76 proximate composition showed that S. polyrhiza are a rich source of protein, although content 77 varies from 23.8 - 40.9% (Hasan and Edwards, 1992; Hillman and Culley, 1978). Amado et al. 78 (1980) reported the amino acid composition of 94 different strains of duckweeds. They 79 suggested that all essential amino acids (except methionine) are present in sufficient amount in 80 all strains of duckweeds. Recently, Appenroth et al. (2017) found around 25% protein level in 81 S. polyrhiza cultured in nutrient medium. They also suggested that the levels of critical amino 82 acids in duckweeds are within the recommended range of World Health Organization (WHO) 83 84 for human. It is also a rich source of pigments, especially carotene and xanthophylls (Leng et al., 1995). Notably the nutritional and biochemical value of such macrophytes is highly variable 85 and depends largely on water quality of the culture system (Boyd, 1971). Therefore, there is an 86 87 urgent requirement to develop large-scale culture techniques for the production of nutrient-rich duckweeds. There is immense scope for large scale production of duckweeds in tropical climate 88 (Chakrabarti, 2017). 89

In intensive management, supply of water and nutrient are essential for the continuous 90 duckweed production of a predictable and useful biochemical composition (Hasan and 91 92 Chakrabarti, 2009). Moreover, duckweeds are commonly cultured in wastewater which may contain unwanted components that are unsuitable for consumption by fish, other livestock, and 93 ultimately human consumers. Inorganic and organic manures were successfully applied in 94 95 Bangladesh for the production of duckweeds (BFRI, 1997; DWRP, 1998). The aim of the present study is to standardise the culture technique for the production of greater duckweed 96 Spirodela polyrhiza in small tanks, and then large-scale production in ponds. The proximate, 97 98 amino acid and fatty acid profiles of cultured S. polyrhiza are evaluated to establish its nutritional quality and suitability as an animal feed ingredient. 99

### 100 2. Materials and methods

S. polyrhiza were cultured in cemented outdoor tanks (1.2 m x 0.35 m x 0.30 m) using 102 both organic manures and inorganic fertilizers between December 2016 - March 2017. Three 103 different combinations of manures used for the production of duckweeds were as follows. 104 Manure 1: cattle manure, poultry droppings and mustard oil cake (1:1:1) were used at the rate 105 of 1.052 kg m<sup>-3</sup> (Srivastava et al., 2006). Manure 2: urea, potash and triple superphosphate were 106 used at the rate of 20, 4 and 4 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (DWRP, 1998). Manure 3: cattle 107 manure, urea, potash and triple superphosphate were used at the rate of 750, 7.5, 1.5 and 1.5 108 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>day<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (BFRI, 1997). There were three replicates for each treatment. S. 109 *polyrhiza*, grown in the outdoor facility was introduced in the culture tanks (15 g tank<sup>-1</sup>, fresh 110 weight) after 5 days of manure application. All tanks were re-manured at 10 day intervals for 111 sustainable duckweed production. In manure 1, organic manures were applied at a rate of one 112 fourth dose of the initial dose. In manure 2 and manure 3, the amount of manure was equal to 113 the initial dose. All manures were decomposed (5 days) before application. In each treatment, 114 when the surface was fully covered, harvesting was initiated, except the fifth harvest in manure 115 3. At the time of fifth harvest, growth of duckweeds was poor in this treatment; duckweeds are 116 totally harvested from all treatments. In all harvests (except the final), 50% of the total 117 duckweeds were collected; all duckweeds were collected after 118 days of culture and the 118 production was recorded as kg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup> (dry weight, DW). 119

120 *2.2. Pond culture* 

121 Three cemented ponds at the Central Institute of Fisheries Education (Indian Council 122 of Agricultural Research), located at Rohtak, Haryana were used for the production of *S.* 123 *polyrhiza* between July - August 2017. Each pond was 200 m<sup>2</sup> (20 m x 10 m) with water level 124 maintained as 50 cm. Among the three manures used in the tank culture of greater duckweeds, 125 highest production was obtained in manure 1, and so this treatment was selected for pond

production. All the organic manures, cattle manure, poultry dropping and mustard oil cake 126 (Srivastava et al., 2006) were decomposed for 5 days initially. S. polyrhiza cultures were 127 produced in a clean environment (outdoor tanks of Department of Zoology, University of 128 Delhi); then the plants were introduced in each pond at the rate of 1 kg pond<sup>-1</sup> (fresh weight). 129 Initially, these greater duckweeds covered a small area of the water body (Fig. 1). In each pond, 130 after the initial dose, one fourth dose of manure was applied at intervals of 10 days. Greater 131 132 duckweeds were harvested thrice at 10 days intervals during 30 days of culture period. The harvesting pattern was similar to tank production, i.e. duckweeds were harvested when the 133 134 whole water surface was covered. In first and second harvest, 50% duckweeds were harvested and plants were totally collected during the third harvest. The production was expressed as kg 135 ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup> (DW). 136

137 *2.3. Water quality* 

Major water quality parameters were recorded at weekly intervals in both tanks and ponds. A Solar Light lux meter (PMA 2100, USA) was used for the measurement of light intensity in the outdoor systems at fixed time (10.00 a.m.) and it was expressed as an average of replicates of individual treatment. A HACH Multi-meter (HQ 40d, USA) was used for the estimation of temperature, pH, conductivity, dissolved oxygen, ammonia and nitrate levels. Standard methods were followed for the estimation of phosphate and nitrite levels of water (APHA, 2012).

145 2.4. Relative Growth Rate (RGR)

146 The RGR of *S. polyrhiza* was estimated with the formula:

147 RGR =  $\ln (W_t/W_0)/t$ 

148 Where,  $W_t$  and  $W_0$  were the weights of duckweeds at time t and zero reference time, 149 respectively; t was the time interval in days. RGR was expressed as g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>.

150 2.5. Biochemical assays

The proximate composition of S. polyrhiza was assayed following standard methods 151 (AOAC, 2000). Briefly, samples were dried for 24 h at 110 °C in an oven for the estimation of 152 moisture contents. Ash content was determined after incineration at 600 °C for 16 h. Crude 153 protein content was assayed by Kjeldahl distillation and nitrogen content (N x 6.25) was 154 determined using a Tecator Kjeltec Auto 1030 analyser (Foss, Warrington, UK). Crude lipid 155 level was determined gravimetrically using a Tecator Soxtec 2050 (Foss, Warrington, UK) 156 157 after Soxhlet extraction by Hydrotec 8000 digester (Foss, Warrington, UK). Carbohydrate content of sample was subsequently determined by subtraction of protein, lipid and ash values. 158 159 The amino acid profile of greater duckweeds was estimated with an L-8900 Automatic Amino Acid Analyser (Hitachi Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The powdered 160 duckweed sample was first hydrolysed using 6 N HCl for 22 h at 110 °C. Then hydrolysed 161 sample was dried in a Nitrogen Evaporator (PCi Analytics, EV PLUS 08, Maharashtra, 162 India). In the sample, 0.02 N HCl was added and the concentration of protein was 0.5 mg 163 mL<sup>-1</sup> of sample. The sample was kept in the Auto sampler and sample injection volume was 164 20 µL. As methionine, cysteine and tryptophan are destroyed during hydrolysis of sample 165 with 6 N HCl, specific reagents are used for the estimations of these amino acids. Performic 166 acid and hydrobromic acid (48%) were used for methionine and cysteine. For tryptophan, 167 the sample was hydrolysed with 4 N methanesulfonic acid and 3-(2-aminoethyl) indole. The 168 remaining methodology was identical for all amino acids. The ninhydrin derivative of 169 170 proline and hydroxyproline was monitored at 440 nm, and other amino acids were monitored at 570 nm. The amino acids (peak areas) were quantified using the supplied Amino Acids 171 Mixture Standard Solutions, Type B and Type AN-2 (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, 172 Limited, Japan). Standard solutions for glutamine and tryptophan (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) 173 were prepared before analysis. 174

Further S. polyrhiza samples were dried at 40 °C and ground prior to extraction of 175 total lipid for fatty acid composition analysis. Total lipid was extracted from 1 g sample 176 (DW) by homogenising in chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v) using an Ultra-Turrax tissue 177 disrupter (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK), and content determined gravimetrically 178 (Folch et al., 1957). Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) were prepared from total lipid by acid-179 catalysed transesterification at 50 °C for 16 h (Christie, 2003), and FAME extracted and 180 purified (Tocher and Harvie, 1988). The FAME were separated and quantified by gas-liquid 181 chromatography using a Fisons GC-8160 (Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy) equipped with a 182 183  $30 \text{ m} \times 0.32 \text{ mm}$  (i.d.)  $\times 0.25 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  ZB-wax column (Phenomenex, Cheshire, UK), on-column injector, and a flame ionisation detector. Data were collected and processed using 184 Chromcard software for Windows (version 2.01; Thermoquest Italia S.p.A., Milan, Italy). 185 Individual FAME was identified by comparison to known standards and published data 186 (Tocher and Harvie, 1988). 187

188 2.6. Statistical analysis

189 Data were presented as mean  $\pm$  SE unless otherwise stated. One-way analysis of 190 variance, ANOVA, Duncan's multiple range test, DMR (Montgomery, 1984). Student's t-191 test were used for the statistical analysis with significance accepted at p < 0.05 level.

192 **3. Results** 

193 *3.1. Culture in tanks* 

194 *3.1.1. Water quality* 

Major water quality parameters were recorded in all treatments before the application of manures. There was no significant (p > 0.05) difference in temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen, ammonia, nitrite, nitrate and phosphate levels among treatments at the beginning of the study. A wide range of water temperature 9.4 - 26.7 °C was recorded during the culture of duckweed between December and March and this influenced the productivity (Table 1). The

whole culture period was broadly divided into three phases based on the temperature and light 200 intensity in the culture tanks. In phase I (December 2016 - January 2017), water temperature 201 and light intensity were 16.5 °C and 26.0 µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at the beginning and then 202 gradually decreased. The lowest temperature and light intensity were recorded in January. In 203 phase II (February - March 2017) and phase III (March, 2017), water temperature and light 204 intensity showed increasing trends. There was no significant (p > 0.05) difference in 205 temperature and light intensity among the three different treatments during the culture period. 206 Among these three different treatments, there was variation in pH in different phases. 207

Significantly (p < 0.05) higher dissolved oxygen levels were found with manure 2 208 compared to the other two treatments throughout the study period (Fig. 2A). This group was 209 followed by manure 3 and lowest dissolved oxygen level (<1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) was found in manure 1. 210 Ammonia levels were significantly (p < 0.05) higher in manure 1 compared to the other two 211 treatments throughout the study period (Fig. 2B). In manure 1, ammonia levels ranged from 212 1.34 - 30.65, 7.52 - 18.57 and 15.25 - 17.85 mg  $L^{-1}$  in the first, second and third phases, 213 respectively. In manure 2, ammonia levels ranged from 1.94 - 9.34, 0.03 - 7.71 and 1.44 - 3.33 214 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in the first, second and third phases, respectively. In manure 3, ammonia level ranged 215 from 0.17 - 10.97, 0.27 - 4.08 and 0.23 - 0.41 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in the first, second and third phases, 216 respectively. The lowest range of ammonia levels were found in the third phase regardless of 217 manures. 218

Nitrite level was significantly (p < 0.05) higher in manure 2 and manure 3 in the first phase compared to manure 1 (Table 1). There was no significant (p > 0.05) difference between these two former groups. In the second and third phases, nitrite levels were significantly (p < 0.05) higher in manure 2 compared to the other two treatments. Nitrate level was significantly (p < 0.05) higher in manure 2 compared to the other two treatments throughout the study period. Phosphate level was significantly (p < 0.05) lower in manure 2 compared to the other two treatments throughout the study period (Fig. 2C). Conductivity was significantly (p < 0.05) higher in manure 1 compared to the other treatments throughout the study period (Fig. 2D). In manure 1, conductivity ranged from 516 - 1196  $\mu$ S cm<sup>-1</sup>.

228 3.1.2. Production and relative growth rate (RGR)

The production of S. polyrhiza was affected by water temperature. The relative growth 229 rate of greater duckweeds was slow (0.02 - 0.04 g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) at the beginning of the culture 230 period due to low temperature regardless of treatments. Greater duckweeds were first harvested 231 after 69 days of initial introduction in all three treatments. As water temperature increased, the 232 233 growth rate also increased and duckweeds were harvested another four times; second and fourth harvests were performed after 10 days of the respective previous harvest and third and fifth 234 harvests were after 12 days of the respective previous harvest. The RGR values ranged from 235 0.021 - 0.158, 0.007 - 0.12 and -0.024 - 0.129 g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in manures 1, 2 and 3, respectively 236 throughout the study period. In manure 3, poor growth of plant at fifth harvest compared to the 237 previous one resulted into negative RGR value. The average RGR values were  $0.08 \pm 0.02$ , 238  $0.06 \pm 0.03$  and  $0.07 \pm 0.03$  g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in manures 1, 2 and 3, respectively. Total production of 239 duckweeds was significantly (p < 0.05) higher in manure 1 compared to the other manures (Fig. 240 3). This group was followed by manure 3 and minimum production was found in manure 2. 241

- 242 *3.2. Culture in ponds*
- 243 *3.2.1. Water quality*

In three different ponds at the Rohtak centre, water temperature and pH ranged from 32.4 - 30.5 °C and 7.76 - 8.30, respectively during the study period. Dissolved oxygen level ranged from 1.25 - 4.57 mg L<sup>-1</sup> on various days of study. Ammonia, nitrite and nitrate levels of ponds ranged from 5.02 - 17.57, 0.003 - 0.12 and 0.23 - 2.44 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Phosphate level ranged 1.15 - 2.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup> during the study period (Table 2). Conductivity ranged from 1032 - 1251  $\mu$ S cm<sup>-1</sup> throughout the culture period of greater duckweed.

#### 250 *3.2.2. Production and relative growth rate (RGR)*

S. polyrhiza was harvested three times from the ponds at 10 days intervals (Fig. 4A-B). Greater duckweeds were harvested from the ponds and were cleaned thoroughly with tap water to remove organic material, excess water was removed, air dried and then dried at 40 °C in an oven. Dried duckweed was packed in airtight containers for further use. The RGR values were 0.48, 0.14 and 0.03 g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in the first, second and third harvests, respectively. The average RGR value was  $0.22 \pm 0.13$  g g<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. Total production was  $2020 \pm 150$  kg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup> on dry matter basis, equivalent to 24 tonnes ha<sup>-1</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 5).

### 258 *3.3. Biochemical composition*

There was a difference in the proximate composition of greater duckweed cultured with 259 organic manures (manure 1) and inorganic fertilizers (manure 2) in tanks. Protein content was 260 significantly (p < 0.05) higher, and carbohydrate and ash contents were significantly (p < 0.05) 261 lower, in duckweed cultured in manure 1 compared to manure 2 (Table 3). The amino acid 262 profile of greater duckweed cultured in organic manures showed the presence of essential 263 (37.4%), non-essential (58.2%) and free amino acids (4.5%). Among essential amino acids, 264 three branched chain amino acids, leucine, isoleucine and valine contributed 51.4%. Glutamic 265 acid and glutamine consisted 28.3% of the total non-essential amino acids in the greater 266 duckweed. The presence of taurine enhanced the nutritional value of greater duckweed (Table 267 4). 268

The fatty acid composition of *S. polyrhiza* was dominated by polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), which accounted for 47-53% of total fatty acids, primarily α-linolenic acid (ALA, 18:3n-3) at around 36-39% (Table 5). Total saturated fatty acids accounted for 32-39%, followed by linoleic acid (LA, 18:2n-6) at 11-14% and monoenes at 9-11%. As with proximate composition, fatty acid profile was affected by manures. *S. polyrhiza* grown in inorganic fertilizers (manure 2) having a higher proportion of ALA, LA and total PUFA, and lower saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids. Due to the slightly higher (although not statistically
significant) lipid content of *S. polyrhiza* grown in manure 2, all fatty acids were in higher
absolute amounts (mg.100g<sup>-1</sup> dry mass) in macrophytes grown in inorganic fertilizers. *S. polyrhiza* lipid contained no long-chain PUFA such as docosahexaenoic acid (22:6n-3),
although there was a trace level of eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n-3), most likely due to minor
microalgal contamination within the macrophyte biomass.

#### 281 **4. Discussion**

Water temperature and sunlight are major environmental factors that influence the 282 283 growth of duckweed compared to the nutrient concentrations in the water (Hasan and Chakrabarti, 2009). In tank culture, S. polyrhiza was first harvested after 69 days of culture. 284 The water temperature was generally below 15 °C during this period of culture, and lowest 285 light intensity was also recorded during this period. Water temperature increased above 16 °C 286 at the second phase of culture and only then duckweed grew well and harvested. Higher light 287 intensity was also recorded at the second phase compared to the first one. In a comparative 288 study, growth performance of S. polyrhiza was recorded at two temperature ranges of 10 - 12 289 and 26 - 28 °C (Song et al., 2006). It was found that cell growth, the synthesis, and absorption 290 ability of duckweed decreased at low temperature compared to duckweed cultured at higher 291 temperature. There was no change in frond number for 15 days at low temperature range. 292

In the present study, the relative growth rate (RGR) of greater duckweed was low during the first phase of tank culture and then increased regardless of treatments. In manure 3, RGR reduced in fifth harvest of phase three. Among the three manures, significantly (p < 0.05) higher production was found with manure 1 compared to the inorganic fertilizers. Therefore, organic manures were applied in pond culture of greater duckweed. In contrast to the tank culture, RGR value was maximum at first harvest in pond culture of greater duckweed and the average RGR value was higher in pond compared to tank production. The production rate of

greater duckweed was  $0.08 \pm 0.02$  fronds day<sup>-1</sup> in laboratory conditions (Lemon et al., 2001). 300 Higher temperature also resulted in enhanced growth rate in ponds in the present study. In 301 Bangladesh, highest growth of S. polyrrhiza was found at 22.2 - 22.5 °C in pond (Khondker et 302 al., 1993), although S. polyrhiza survived at 10 - 12 °C, it could not grow well at a low 303 temperature (Song et al., 2006). The duckweed exposed to oxidative damage at low 304 temperature. Appenroth (2002) suggested that 15 °C temperature (combined with 30 µM 305 306 phosphate level) was the dominant turion formation inducing factor. In laboratory axenic culture, S. polyrhiza were exposed at 100 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> white light (Appenroth et al., 2017). In 307 308 the present study, good growth of S. polyrhiza was found at light intensity between 105 - 151 umol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> in natural outdoor light. 309

In Bangladesh and India, a pH range from 6.5 - 7.5 (Islam and Khondkar, 1991) and 310 6.8 - 8.5 (Gopal and Chamanlal, 1991; Kaul and Bakaya, 1976) was found to be optimum for 311 the production of greater duckweed. In the present study, pH ranged from 6.98 - 7.86 and 7.76 312 - 8.30 in tank and pond culture systems, respectively. There was no direct effect of dissolved 313 oxygen on the production of greater duckweed as highest production was recorded in manure 314 1 with minimum dissolved oxygen level in tank culture. Leng et al. (1995) suggested that 315 maintenance of low dissolved oxygen with 6 - 7 pH should be the strategy for duckweed pond 316 management. 317

It was found that the root length was shorter in *S. polyrhiza* that grown at low temperature compared to the plants grown at a higher temperature. *S. polyrhiza* with shorter root length were inefficient in absorbing nitrogen, phosphorus and other nutrients from water (Reddy and DeBusk, 1985). In tank culture, highest ammonia level was recorded in manure 1 at first phase and no production was recorded during this period. The ammonia level gradually reduced in the second and third phases and the growth of duckweed enhanced. Even with the same manure system (manure 1), lower levels of ammonia were found in ponds compared to

tanks. Absorption of nutrients helped in the higher production of duckweeds in ponds. The 325 fluctuation of pH between 7.4 and 9.0 enhanced the ammonia toxicity in laboratory culture 326 (Caicedo et al., 2000). In tank culture of duckweed, highest RGR was found in the second 327 phase at  $15.25 \pm 1.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  ammonia concentration in manure 1. It is also interesting to see 328 that in tank culture, poor growth of duckweeds in manure 3 during fifth harvest might be related 329 to the low ammonia level in the culture tank. Leng et al. (1995) suggested that 7 - 12 mg N L<sup>-</sup> 330 <sup>1</sup> was optimum to maintain a protein content of 40% in duckweed. A TKN content of 20 - 30 331 mg L<sup>-1</sup> was required for optimum growth (Culley et al., 1981) and maintenance of high protein 332 333 content. In the present study, the ammonia level in the pond water also helped in the proper growth of the duckweed. Nitrification rate was slower in manure 1 compared to the other two 334 treatments in the tank culture of duckweed. In manure 1, nitrate level was significantly higher 335 in the second phase compared to the other phases. Phosphorus is a major limiting nutrient, 336 although it is required in lesser amount. In the present study, the phosphate levels in manure 1 337 helped in the production of duckweed in both tanks and ponds. The optimum conductivity for 338 maximum production of *S. polyrrhiza* was 650 - 1000 µS cm<sup>-1</sup> (Gopal and Chamanlal, 1991). 339 S. polyrrhiza completely disappeared in May due to reduced conductivity and alkalinity 340 (Khondker et al., 1993). In the tank culture, the growth of greater duckweed was less in the 341 first phase and the conductivity was minimum during this phase regardless of manures applied. 342 Then conductivity increased with higher production of duckweed. In pond culture, the 343 conductivity was always >1000  $\mu$ S cm<sup>-1</sup>. 344

In ponds, the production of greater duckweed was encouraging,  $2020 \pm 150$  kg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup> (24 tonnes ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) on dry matter basis. Literature showed a wide variation in the production of duckweed, with various climatic conditions and nutrient availability mostly being responsible for this variation. Edwards et al. (1990) reported ~20 tonnes ha<sup>-1</sup> year <sup>-1</sup> (DM) production of *S. polyrhiza* during 1-3 months culture period; the yield decreased (~9 tonnes ha<sup>-1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>) when the duration of culture period increased to 6 months. The yield of greater 350 duckweeds in domestic wastewater (Reddy and Debusk, 1985), sewage effluent (Sutton and 351 Ornes, 1975) and nutrient non-limited water (Reddy and DeBusk, 1985) were 17 - 32, 14.6 and 352 11.3 tonnes ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Based on the available data, an average harvest of 10 - 20 353 tonnes duckweed ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> could be expected under optimum environmental conditions 354 (Hasan and Chakrabarti, 2009). In a similar study, Lemna minor was produced in ponds using 355 organic manures. The production was lower (702.5 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> month<sup>-1</sup>, DW) compared to S. 356 polyrhiza (Chakrabarti et al., 2018). The initial amount of duckweed introduced for culture also 357 influenced production. A seeding rate of 60 kg m<sup>-2</sup> for S. polyrhiza was recommended (DWRP, 358 1998). In the pond culture, only 1 kg pond <sup>-1</sup> (200 m<sup>2</sup>) S. polyrhiza was introduced in the present 359 study. 360

The proximate composition of greater duckweed varied with nutrient availability of the 361 culture system. In the present study, the protein, lipid, ash and carbohydrate contents of greater 362 duckweeds were influenced by the quality of the manures. The protein content of the 363 duckweeds  $(30.5 \pm 0.03 - 35.82 \pm 0.14\%)$  was higher in the present study compared to some 364 previous studies. The duckweeds collected from Thailand showed  $23.8 \pm 0.8\%$  protein content 365 (Hasan and Edwards, 1992), whereas  $25.6 \pm 0.2\%$  protein content was recorded in plants 366 collected from a pond in Nigeria (Fasakin et al., 1999). In USA, 13.1% crude protein was found 367 in greater duckweed collected from low-nutrient lagoon (Culley et al., 1981), whereas 40.9% 368 crude protein was found in plants grown in a dairy cattle-waste lagoon (Hillman and Culley, 369 1978). In the present study, lipid contents of duckweeds ranged from 7.11 - 7.2%, whereas lipid 370 contents of 2.5 - 6.7% were reported in the earlier studies (Hasan and Chakrabarti, 2009). 371 Appenroth et al. (2017) found around 5% lipid content in duckweed. Similarly, the ash content 372 of the duckweed in the present study (18.51  $\pm$  0.02 - 20.64  $\pm$  0.26%) was comparable with 373

earlier studies, in which ash contents varied from  $15.2 \pm 0.4 - 18.3 \pm 1.0\%$  in greater duckweeds collected from different geographical areas (Hasan and Edwards, 1992).

These data showed that culture of greater duckweed with a specific management 376 strategy helped in the production of valuable animal feed ingredients. S. polyrhiza is a new 377 generation sustainable crop (Hoang et al., 2018). Song et al (2006) reported that temperature 378 also influenced the soluble protein, chlorophyll  $\alpha$ , chlorophyll  $\beta$  and carotenoid pigment of 379 380 duckweeds. The present study confirmed the earlier study. The presence of essential amino acids viz. histidine, isoleucine, leucine, lysine, methionine, phenylalanine, threonine, and 381 382 valine were documented in greater duckweeds (Ismail, 1998). The present study showed that all the essential (including tryptophan) and non-essential amino acids were present in adequate 383 quantity in cultured duckweed. The present study also showed the presence of taurine in the 384 duckweeds. The presence of glutamic acid and glutamine confirmed the role of greater 385 duckweed in reducing nitrogenous materials in the water. Similar amino acids composition was 386 found in L. minor (Chakrabarti et al., 2018). The nutritional value of duckweed is comparable 387 with alfalfa, being a rich source of lysine and arginine (Guha, 1997). The composition of 388 essential amino acids in greater duckweed is comparable with soybean (NRC, 1998), the most 389 commonly used ingredient in the diet formulation of fish (Table 6). The amino acid 390 requirements of important cultivable species are documented (NRC, 2011). It is clear from the 391 present study that the amino acid profile of greater duckweed meets the nutritional 392 requirements of the cultivable species. The amino acid profiles of Landoltia punctata (= S. 393 oligorrhiza) and different clones of Wolffia arrhiza were sufficient to fulfilled the requirements 394 for human recommended by WHO ((Ismail, 1998; Appenroth et al., 2018). 395

In addition, *S. polyrhiza* demonstrated reasonable lipid content with ALA being the major fatty acid component in present study. Inorganic fertilizers resulted in slightly higher lipid content and relative percentage of ALA, which individually did not reach statistical

significance, but together had a significant effect, increasing the absolute content of ALA. The 399 PUFA content of S. polvrhiza grown in culture media was higher compared to the present study 400 though the total lipid level was higher in the latter (Appenroth et al., 2017). It was interesting 401 that in different species of Wolffia fat content was low, varied from 1-5%. PUFA levels were 402 above 60% of total fat. The n-3 PUFA level was higher compared to n-6 PUFA (Appenroth et 403 al., 2018). In the present study, the lipid and PUFA contents were higher in S. polyrhiza 404 405 compared to Wolffia spp. In L. minor, 60 - 63% of total fatty acid was PUFA; around 41-43%  $\alpha$ -linolenic acid and 17-18% linoleic acid (Chakrabarti et al., 2018). 406

### 407 **5.** Conclusions

The application of organic manures helped in the production of greater duckweed *S. polyrhiza* in a sustainable manner. The temperature, light intensity, ammonia, phosphate and conductivity significantly influenced the productivity of the water bodies. Proximate composition, especially amino acid and fatty acid profiles confirmed the suitability of the greater duckweed as a potential ingredient for the development of diets for fish and other livestock.

#### 414 Acknowledgements

The present investigation was supported by Department of Biotechnology (DBT), Government of India, New Delhi, India (Dy. No. 102/IFD/SAN/4678/2015-2016, dated 28.3.2016) and the Biotechnology and Biological Science Research Council (BBSRC) Newton Fund Global Research Partnership Project (BB/N005031/1) "Development of alternative sustainable fish feeds to promote human health using novel non-conventional indigenous ingredients (SNIPH)". Authors are thankful to the Director, CIFE (ICAR) for providing ponds and other facilities to conduct the study.

422 **References** 

- Amado, R., Muller-Heimeyer, R., Marti, U., 1980. Proteingehalt, aminosaurezusammensetzung and neutralzucker gehalt von lemnaceen. Veroff. Geobot. Inst.
  ETH Stiftung Rubel, Zurich. 70, 102–117.
- 426 AOAC, Association of Official Analytical Chemists, 2000. Official Methods of Analysis.
  427 Association of Official Analytical Chemists Inc., Washington, DC.
- APHA, American Public Health Association, 2012. Standard Methods for the Examination
  of Water and Waste Water. Twenty second ed. American Public Health
  Association, American Water Works Association, Water Environment Federation.
  Washington DC.
- Appenroth, K.J., 2002. A co-action of temperature and phosphate in inducing turion
  formation in *Spirodela polyrhiza* (Great duckweed). Plant Cell Environ. 25, 1079–
  1085. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-3040.2002.00885.x
- Appenroth, K.J., Sree, K.S., Böhm, V., Hammann, S., Vetter, W., Leiterer, M., Jahreis, G.,
  2017. Nutritional value of duckweeds (Lemnaceae) as human food. Food
  chem. 217, 266–273. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.08.116
- 438 Appenroth, K.J., Sree, K.S., Bog, M., Ecker, J., Seeliger, C., Böhm, V., Lorkowski, S.,
- 439 Sommer, K., Vetter, W., Tolzin-Banasch, K., Kirmse, R., 2018. Nutritional value
- 440 of the duckweed species of the genus *Wolffia* (Lemnaceae) as human food. Front.
- 441 Chem. 6, 483. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fchem.2018.00483</u>
- 442 BFRI, 1997. Bangladesh Fisheries Research Institute. Research Progress Report.
- Boyd, C.E., 1971. The limnological role of aquatic macrophytes and their relationship to
- 444 reservoir management. Reservoir Fisheries and Limnology Special Publication No.
- 445 8, American Fisheries Society. pp. 153–166.

- Caicedo, J.R., Vander Steen, N.P., Arce, O., Gijzen, H.J., 2000. Effect of total ammonia
  nitrogen concentration and pH on growth rates of duckweed (*Spirodela polyrrhiza*). Water Res. 34, 3829–3835.
- Chakrabarti, R., 2017. Culture of zooplankton and aquatic macrophytes as non-conventional
  livelihood, in: Dhanze, R., Ninawe, A.S., Dhanze, J.R. (Eds.), Aquaculture for
  Nutritional and Livelihood Security. Narendra Publishing House, New Delhi, pp.
  189–203.
- 453 Chakrabarti, R., Clark, W. D., Sharma, J. G., Goswami, R. K., Shrivastav, A. K., Tocher,
- D. R., 2018. Mass production of *Lemna minor* and its amino acid and fatty acid
  profiles. Front. Chem. 6, 479. doi: <u>10.3389/fchem.2018.00479</u>
- 456 Christie, W.W., 2003. Lipid Analysis, third ed. Oily Press, Bridgewater, UK.
- 457 Cruz-Velásquez, Y., Kijora, C., Vergara-Hernandez, W., Schulz, C., 2014. On-farm
  458 evaluation of Cachama blanca and Nile tilapia fed fermented aquatic plants in a
  459 polyculture. Orinoquia 18, 269–277.
- 460 Culley, D.D., Epps, A.E., 1973. Use of duckweeds for waste treatment and animal feed. J.
  461 Water Pollut. Control Fed. 45, 337–347.
- 462 Culley, D.D., Rejmnkov, E., Event, J., Frye, J.B., 1981. Production, chemical quality and
- 463 use of duckweeds (Lemnaceae) in aquaculture, waste management and animal
- 464 feeds. J. World Aquacult. Soc. 12, 27–49. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-</u>
  465 7345.1981.tb00273.x
- de Beukelaar, M.F., Zeinstra, G.G., Mes, J.J., Fischer, A.R., 2019. Duckweed as human
  food. The influence of meal context and information on duckweed acceptability of
  Dutch consumers. Food Qual. Prefer. 71, 76–86.
- 469 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2018.06.005</u>

- 470 DWRP, 1998. Duckweed Research Project. Duckweed in Bangladesh; Ministry of Fisheries
  471 and Livestock, Government of Bangladesh and Royal Netherlands Embassy.
  472 Dhaka, Bangladesh, pp. 91.
- Edwards, P., Pacharaprakiti, C., Yomjind, M., 1990. Direct and indirect use of septage for
  culture of Nile tilapia *Oreochromis niloticus*. Asian Fisheries Society, pp. 165–
  168.
- FAO, Food and Agricultural Organization, 2001. Duckweed, A tiny aquatic plant with
  enormous potential for agriculture and environment. Food and Agricultural
  Organization of the United Nations, Geneva.
- 479 Fasakin, E.A., Balogon, A.M., Fasuru, B.E., 1999. Use of duckweed, *Spirodela polyrrhiza*480 L. Schleiden, as a protein feedstuff in practical diets for tilapia, *Oreochromis*481 *niloticus* L. Aquacult. Res. 30, 313–318.
- Folch, J., Lees, M., Sloane-Stanley, G.H., 1957. A simple method for the isolation and
  purification of total lipids from animal tissues. J. Biol. Chem. 226, 497–509.
- 484 Gopal, B., Chamanlal, 1991. Distribution of aquatic macrophytes in polluted water bodies
  485 and their bio-indicator value. Verh. Int. Verein. Limnol. 24, 2125–2129.
- 486 Guha, R., 1997. Duckweeds. Envis Newsletter, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, pp.
  487 5–9.
- Hasan, M.S., Edwards, P., 1992. Evaluation of duckweed (*Lemna perpusilla* and *Spirodela polyrrhiza*) as feed for Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*). Aquaculture 104, 315–
  326.
- Hasan, M.R., Chakrabarti, R., 2009. Use of algae and aquatic macrophytes as feed in smallscale aquaculture: a review, FAO fisheries and aquaculture technical paper 531.
  Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Geneva.
- Hillman, W.S., Culley, D.D., 1978. The uses of duckweed. American Scientist 66, 442–451.

495	Hoang, P.N., Michael, T.P., Gilbert, S., Chu, P., Motley, S.T., Appenroth, K. J., Schubert,
496	I., Lam, E., 2018. Generating a high-confidence reference genome map of the
497	greater duckweed by integration of cytogenomic, optical mapping, and oxford
498	nanopore technologies. Plant J. 96, 670-684. doi: 10.1111/tpj.14049
499	Ismail, M., 1998. Chemical characterization of protein concentrates of duckweed (Family
500	Laminaceae). Pertanika JST. 6, 7–21.
501	Islam, A.K.M.N., Khondkar, M., 1991. Preliminary limnological investigations of some
502	polluted water covered by duckweeds. Bangladesh J. Bot. 20, 73–75.
503	Jarvis, M.J., Jenkins, B., Rodgers, G.A., 1998. Southern hemisphere observations of a long
504	- term decrease in F region altitude and thermospheric wind providing possible
505	evidence for global thermospheric cooling. J. Geophys. Res. 103, 20775-20787.
506	doi: 10.1029/98JA01629
507	Kaul, V., Bakaya, U., 1976. Noxious, floating, lemnid Salvinia aquatic weed complex in
508	Kashmir, in: Varshney, C. K., Rzoska, J. (Eds.), Aquatic Weeds in South East Asia.
509	Proceedings of Regional Seminar on Noxious Aquatic Vegetation, New Delhi, 12-
510	17 December 1973. The Hague: Dr. W. Junk B. V. Publishers, pp. 183–192.
511	Khondker, M., Islam, A.K.M.N., Nahar, N., 1993. Study on the biomass of Spirodela
512	polyrrhiza and the related limnological factors of some polluted waters, in: Khan,
513	M. S., Aziz Khan, M.A., Hadiuzzaman, S., Aziz, A. (Eds.), Plants for the
514	Environment. Proceedings of the 7th Botanical Conference, 13-14 December,
515	1992, Bangladesh Botanical Society: Dhaka, Bangladesh, pp. 37-40.
516	Khvatkov, P., Firsov, A., Shvedova, A., Shaloiko, L., Kozlov, O., Chernobrovkina, M.,
517	Pushin, A., Tarasenko, I., Chaban, I., Dolgov, S., 2018. Development of Wolffia
518	arrhiza as a producer for recombinant human granulocyte colony-stimulating
519	factor. Front. Chem. 6, 304. https://doi.org/10.3389/fchem.2018.00304

- Kuehdorf, K., Jetschke, G., Ballani, L., Appenroth, K. J., 2014. The clonal dependence of
  turion formation in the duckweed *Spirodela polyrhiza* an ecogeographical
  approach. Physiol. Plant. 150, 46–54. doi: 10.1111/ppl.12065.
- Lemon, G.D., Posluszny, U., Husband, B.C., 2001. Potential and realized rates of vegetative
  reproduction in *Spirodela polyrhiza*, *Lemna minor*, and *Wolffia borealis*. Aquat.
  Bot. 70, 79–87. doi: 10.1016/S0304-3770(00)00131-5
- Leng, R.A., Stambolie, J.H., Bell, R., 1995. Duckweed a potential high-protein feed
  resource for domestic animals and fish, in: Proceedings of the 7th Animal Science
  Congress of the Asian-Australasian Association of Animal Production Societies
  (AAAP) Conference. Indonesian Society of Animal Science: Bali. Jakarta, pp.
  100–117.
- Michael, T. P., Bryant, D., Gutierrez, R., Borisjuk, N., Chu, P., Zhang, H., Xia, J., Zhou, J.,
  Peng, H., El Baidouri, M., ten Hallers, B., 2017. Comprehensive definition of
  genome features in *Spirodela polyrhiza* by high-depth physical mapping and short-
- read DNA sequencing strategies. Plant J. 89, 617–635. doi: 10.1111/tpj.13400
- 535 Montgomery, D.C., 1984. Design and Analysis of Experiments, John Wiley, New York.
- 536 NRC, 1998. National Research Council. Nutrient Requirements of Swine, The National
  537 Academic Press, Washington.
- 538 NRC, 2011. National Research Council. Nutrient Requirements of Fish and Shrimps, The
  539 National Academic Press, Washington.
- Olah, V., Hepp, A., Meszaros, I., 2015. Comparative study on the sensitivity of turions and
  active fronds of giant duckweed (*Spirodela polyrhiza* (L.) Schleiden) to heavy
  metal treatments. Chemosphere 132, 40–46. doi:
  10.1016/j.chemosphere.2015.01.050.

- Reddy, K.R., DeBusk, W.F., 1985. Nutrient removal potential of selected aquatic
  macrophytes. J. Environ. Qual. 14, 459–462. doi:
  10.2134/jeq1985.00472425001400040001x
- Song, G., Hou, W., Wang, Q., Wang, J., Jin, X., 2006. Effect of low temperature on
  eutrophicated water body restoration by *Spirodela polyrhiza*. Bioresour. Technol.
  97, 1865–1869. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2005.08.012</u>
- Srivastava, A., Rathore, R.M., Chakrabarti, R., 2006. Effects of four different doses of
  organic manures in the production of *Ceriodaphnia cornuta*. Bioresour. Technol.
- 552 97, 1036–1040. doi:10.1016/j.biortech.2005.04.044
- Sutton, D.L., Ornes, W.H., 1975. Phosphorous removal from static sewage effluent using
  duckweed. J. Environ. Qual. 4, 367–370.
- doi:10.2134/jeq1975.00472425000400030018x
- Sutton, D.L., Ornes, W.H., 1977. Growth of *Spirodela polyrhiza* in static sewage effluent.
   Aquat. Bot. 3, 231–237. doi.10.1016/0304-3770 (77)90025-0
- Tang, J., Zhang, F., Cui, W., Ma, J., 2014. Genetic structure of duckweed population of *Spirodela*, *Landoltia* and *Lemna* from Lake Tai, China. Planta 239, 1299–1307.
  doi: 10.1007/s00425-014-2053-y.
- Tocher, D.R., Harvie, D.G., 1988. Fatty acid compositions of the major phosphoglycerides
  from fish neural tissues; (n-3) and (n-6) polyunsaturated fatty acids in rainbow trout
  (*Salmo gairdneri*) and cod (*Gadus morhua*) brains and retinas. Fish Physiol.
- 564 Biochem. 5, 229–239. doi: 10.1007/BF01874800
- Wang, W., Wu, Y., Messing, J., 2012. The mitochondrial genome of an aquatic plant,
   *Spirodela polyrhiza*. PLoS One. 7, 135–139. doi:10.1371/ journal.pone.0046747
- 567 Wang, W., Haberer, G., Gundlach, H., Gläßer, C., Nussbaumer, T., Luo, M.C., Lomsadze,
- 568 A., Borodovsky, M., Kerstetter, R.A., Shanklin, J., Byrant, D.W., Mockler, T.C.,

- 569 Appenroth, K.J., Grimwood, J., Jenkins, J., Chow, J., Choi, C., Adam, C., Cao, X.-
- 570 H., Fuchs, J., Schubert, I., Rokhsar, D., Schmutz, J., Michael, T.P., Mayer, K.F.X.,
- 571 Messing, J., 2014. The *Spirodela polyrhiza* genome reveals insights into its
  572 neotenous reduction fast growth and aquatic lifestyle. Nat. Commun. 5, 3311.
  573 <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms4311</u>
- Wang, W., Yang, C., Tang, X., Zhu, Q., Pan, K., Cai, D., Hu, Q., Ma, D., 2015. Carbon and
  energy fixation of great duckweed *Spirodela polyrhiza* growing in swine
  wastewater. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. Int. 22, 15804–15811. doi: 10.1007/s11356015-4778-y.
- Wee, K.L., 1991. Use of non-conventional feedstuffs of plant origin as fish feeds is it
  practical and economically feasible, in: De Silva, S. S. (Eds.), Fish Nutrition
  Research in Asia, Special Publication No. 5. Asian Fisheries Society, pp. 13–32.
- Xu, J., Deshusses, M.A., 2015. Fermentation of swine wastewater-derived duckweed for
  biohydrogen production. Int. J. Hydrog. Energy 40, 7028–7036.
  https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2015.03.166
- Xu, X.J., Sun, J.Q., Nie, Y., Wu, X.L., 2015. *Spirodela polyrhiza* stimulates the growth of
  its endophytes but differentially increases their fenpropathrin-degradation
  capabilities. Chemosphere 125, 33–40. doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.12.084
- Zhao, X., Elliston, A., Collins, S.R.A., Moates, G.K., Coleman, M.J., Waldron, K.W., 2012.
  Enzymatic saccharification of duckweed (*Lemna minor*) biomass without
  thermophysical pretreatment. Biomass Bioenergy 47, 354–361.
- 590 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2012.09.025</u>
- 591 Zhao, X., Moates, G.K., Wellnder, N., Collins, S.R.A., Coleman, M.J., Waldron, K.W.,
- 592 2014. Chemical characterization and analysis of the cell wall polysaccharides of
  593 duckweed (*Lemna minor*). Carbohydr. Polym. 111, 410–418.

594	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2014.04.079
595	
596	
597	
598	
599	
600	
601	
602	
603	
604	
605	
606	
607	
608	
609	
610	
611	
612	Figure legends
613	Fig. 1 Introduction of S. polyrhiza (1 kg pond <sup>-1</sup> ) in Rohtak, Haryana.
614	Fig. 2 Various water quality parameters (in parenthesis). (A) Dissolved oxygen, (B)
615	ammonia, (C) phosphate and (D) conductivity of water found during three different phases
616	of culture of S. polyrhiza in tanks. Phase I: December 2016 - January 2017, Phase II:
617	February - March 2017 & Phase III: March 2017. Bars with different superscripts are
618	significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) different (n = 3).

- **Fig. 3** Total production of *S. polyrhiza* cultured with three different organic manures and inorganic fertilizers in tanks. Bars with different superscripts are significantly (p < 0.05)
- 621 different (n = 3).
- **Fig. 4** Production of *S. polyrhiza* (A) in ponds & (B) duckweeds after harvest.
- **Fig. 5** Relative growth rate (RGR) and total production of *S. polyrhiza* in ponds. RGR was
- 624 measured thrice at 10 days interval. Bars with different superscripts are significantly (p < p
- 625 0.05) different (n = 3).

# 626 Table 1 Environmental parameters measured in tanks during the culture of *S. polyrhiza*.

Demosrations	Manure 1		Manure 2		Manure 3			
Parameters	Range	Mean ± SE	Range	Mean ± SE	Range	Mean ± SE		
Phase I (December 2016 - January 2017)								
Temperature (°C)	9.36 - 16.55	$14.38\pm0.34$	9.36 - 16.55	$14.38\pm0.336$	9.36 - 16.55	$14.38\pm0.34$		
Light intensity (µmol photons m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	14.56 - 49.43	$27.29 \pm 2.45$	14.56 - 49.43	$27.29\pm2.45$	14.56 - 49.43	$27.29\pm2.45$		
рН	7.20 - 7.91		7.04 - 7.86		6.98 - 7.85			
Nitrite (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	0.007 - 0.26	$0.116\pm0.01$	0.13 - 1.01	$0.47\pm0.05$	0.06 - 1.04	$0.49\pm0.07$		
Nitrate (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	1.68 - 18.70	$5.77 \pm 1.13$	6.58 - 43.66	$30.76\pm2.60$	8.44 - 35.48	$24.40\pm2.01$		
		Phase II	(February - March 20	017)				
Temperature (°C)	15.70 - 19.33	$17.80\pm0.43$	15.70 - 19.33	$17.80\pm0.43$	15.70 - 19.33	$17.80\pm0.43$		
Light intensity (µmol photons m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	49.21 - 105.08	$89.89 \pm 3.25$	49.21 - 105.08	$89.89 \pm 3.25$	49.21 - 105.08	$89.89 \pm 3.25$		
pН	7.09 - 7.59		7.24 - 7.82		7.26 - 7.72			
Nitrite (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	0.02 - 0.12	$0.055\pm0.015$	0.11 - 0.84	$0.44\pm0.08$	0.006 - 0.12	$0.09\pm0.02$		
Nitrate (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	5.95 - 44.73	$25.77\pm 6.04$	15.04 - 46.87	$29.38\pm 4.58$	16.15 - 34.94	$24.42\pm2.61$		
		Pha	se III (March 2017)					
Temperature (°C)	23.26 - 26.70	$24.98 \pm 1.72$	23.26 - 26.70	$24.98 \pm 1.72$	23.26 - 26.70	$24.98 \pm 1.72$		
Light intensity (µmol photons m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	137.41 - 151.16	$143.79\pm6.39$	137.41 - 151.16	$143.79\pm6.39$	137.41 - 151.16	$143.79\pm6.39$		
pН	7.27 - 7.56	-	7.18 - 7.43	-	7.28 - 7.39	-		
Nitrite (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	0.015 - 0.02	$0.016\pm0.00$	0.37 - 0.07	$0.52\pm0.16$	0.082 - 0.12	$0.10\pm0.02$		
Nitrate (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	11.68 - 18.54	$15.11 \pm 3.44$	33.51 - 36.95	$35.23 \pm 1.72$	16.51- 34.94	$24.41 \pm 2.61$		

# **Table 2**

629	Environmental parameters measured	l in S.	polyrhiza	culture pond	s during	the study	period.
-----	-----------------------------------	---------	-----------	--------------	----------	-----------	---------

Parameter	Range	Mean ± SE
Temperature (°C)	30.5 - 33.0	$32.00 \pm 1.0$
рН	7.76 - 8.30	
Dissolved oxygen (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	1.25 - 4.57	$2.50 \pm 0.25$
Ammonia (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	5.02 - 17.57	$15.25 \pm 0.7$
Nitrite (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	0.005 - 0.01	$0.008\pm0.002$
Nitrate (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	0.05 - 2.05	$0.921\pm0.3$
Phosphate (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	1.15 - 2.00	$1.52 \pm 0.07$
Conductivity (µS cm <sup>-1</sup> )	1032 - 1251	$1150\pm37.0$

 630

 631

 632

 633

 634

 635

 636

 637

 638

 639

 640

 641

 642

 643

# **Table 3**

# 645 Proximate composition of *S. polyrhiza* (% of dry weight).

Parameter	Manure 1 (Organic)	Manure 2 (Inorganic)
Protein	$35.82\pm0.14$	$30.50 \pm 0.03*$
Lipid	$7.11 \pm 0.11$	$7.19 \pm 0.06$
Ash	$18.51\pm0.02$	$20.64 \pm 0.26*$
Carbohydrate	$38.38\pm0.26$	$41.68 \pm 0.17*$
etween the two manures a	as determined by Student's t-test.	gnificant difference $(p < 0.03)$

8	
Amino acids	Concentration
Essential	
Histidine (His)	$0.771 \pm 0.053$
Isoleucine (Ile)	$1.703 \pm 0.150$
Leucine (Lue)	$3.322 \pm 0.207$
Lysine (Lys)	$2.280 \pm 0.129$
Methionine (Met)	$0.694 \pm 0.059$
Phenylalanine (Phe)	$2.159 \pm 0.144$
Threonine (Thr)	$1.502 \pm 0.386$
Tryptophan (Trp)	$0.282 \pm 0.018$
Valine (Val)	$2.383 \pm 0.139$
Non-essential	
Alanine (Ala)	$2.384 \pm 0.130$
Arginine (Arg)	$2.386 \pm 0.120$
A sparatate (A sp)	2.500 = 0.120 $4.094 \pm 0.212$
Cysteine (Cys)	$0.369 \pm 0.039$
Glutamic acid (Glu)	$5.303 \pm 0.380$
Glutamine (GluNH <sub>2</sub> )	$1.250 \pm 0.300$
Glycine (Gly)	$2369 \pm 0.110$
Proline (Pro)	$2.509 \pm 0.110$ 1 001 + 0 110
Serine (Ser)	1.001 = 0.110 $1.904 \pm 0.120$
Tyrosine (Tyr)	$1.558 \pm 0.050$
Free	
Phosphoserine (p-Ser)	$0.060 \pm 0.002$
Taurine (Tau)	$0.023 \pm 0.006$
Phospho ethanol amine (PEA)	$0.072 \pm 0.001$
$\alpha$ Amino adipic acid ( $\alpha$ -AAA)	$0.020 \pm 0.001$
$\alpha$ Amino-n- butaric acid ( $\alpha$ -ABA)	$0.141 \pm 0.014$
Cystathionine (Cysthi)	$0.115 \pm 0.001$
$\beta$ -Alanine ( $\beta$ -Ala)	$0.072 \pm 0.011$
$\beta$ -Amino isobutyric acid ( $\beta$ -AiBA)	$0.354 \pm 0.015$
Ethanol amine (EOHNH <sub>2</sub> )	$0.112 \pm 0.004$
Ornithine (Orn)	$0.027 \pm 0.002$
1 Methylhistidine (1 Mehis)	$0.048 \pm 0.003$
Hydroxy proline (Hypro)	$0.197 \pm 0.010$
Υ- Amino isobutyric acid (Υ-AiBA)	$0.478 \pm 0.024$

## **Table 5**

Fatty acid composition of *S. polyrhiza* as percentage of total fatty acids (Percentage)
or as mg fatty acids per 100 g dry weight (Absolute).

Fatty said	Mai	nure 1	Manure 2		
Fatty actu	Percentage	Absolute	Percentage	Absolute	
14:0	$1.01\pm\ 0.22$	$16.9\pm1.86$	$1.10\pm0.30$	$23.65\pm7.42$	
15:0	$0.60\pm0.04$	$10.1 \pm 0.46$	$0.40\pm0.01\texttt{*}$	$8.56\pm0.55$	
16:0	$31.22\pm2.33$	$524.1 \pm 18.32$	$25.50\pm0.40$	$547.04\pm33.88$	
18:0	$2.33\pm0.23$	$39.1\pm0.35$	$2.02\pm0.13$	$43.39\pm4.69$	
20:0	$0.40\pm0.04$	$6.6 \pm 0.10$	$0.33\pm0.01$	$7.04\pm0.55$	
22:0	$0.77\pm0.10$	$12.9\pm0.32$	$0.85\pm0.03$	$18.17 \pm 0.24*$	
24:0	$3.05\pm0.15$	$51.3 \pm 3.16$	$2.28\pm0.05\texttt{*}$	$48.85 \pm 1.15$	
<b>Total saturated</b>	$39.38\pm3.12$	$661.0\pm20.21$	$32.48\pm0.76$	$696.70 \pm 48.49$	
16:1n-9	$4.76\pm2.23$	$86.4\pm27.76$	$6.75\pm0.14$	$144.61\pm3.60$	
17:1 n	$0.00\pm0.00$	$0.0\pm0.00$	$0.30\pm0.02\texttt{*}$	$6.34\pm0.22\texttt{*}$	
18:1n-9	$2.09\pm0.13$	$35.2 \pm 1.68$	$3.01\pm0.64$	$64.93\pm16.74$	
18:1n-7	$2.24\pm0.23$	$37.6\pm0.25$	$1.34\pm0.06\texttt{*}$	$28.68 \pm 2.59 *$	
Total monoenes	$9.09\pm6.37$	$159.2 \pm 124.19$	$11.39\pm0.53$	$244.57\pm22.72$	
18:2n-6	$11.35\pm0.76$	$190.7\pm8.09$	$13.49\pm0.23$	$289.08 \pm 8.33*$	
20:4n-6	$0.00\pm0.00$	$0.0\pm0.00$	$0.33\pm0.01\texttt{*}$	$7.03\pm0.08\texttt{*}$	
Total n-6 PUFA	$11.35\pm0.76$	$190.7\pm8.09$	$13.82\pm0.24$	$296.11 \pm 8.41*$	
18:3n-3	$35.75\pm2.18$	$600.6\pm29.28$	$38.95 \pm 1.08$	$834.63 \pm 15.44*$	
20:5n-3	$0.38\pm0.12$	$6.3\pm1.37$	$0.60\pm0.08$	$12.98\pm2.30$	
Total n-3 PUFA	$36.13\pm0.30$	$606.9\pm27.91$	$39.56 \pm 1.00$	$847.61 \pm 17.75*$	
Total DMA	$4.04\pm0.18$	$68.0\pm4.35$	$2.76 \pm 0.06*$	$59.09 \pm 1.49$	
<b>Total PUFA</b>	$47.48\pm3.07$	$797.6\pm35.99$	$53.37 \pm 1.241$	$1143.72 \pm 26.16*$	
Total Fatty acids		$1685.8 \pm 275.3$		$2144.1 \pm 329.9$	

708 Data are presented as means  $\pm$  SEM (n=3). \*Denotes significant difference (p < 0.05) between the two 709 manures as determined by Student's t-test. DMA, dimethyl acetals; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty 710 acids.

# **Table 6**

\_

The essential amino acid profiles of soybean (*Glycine max*) meal and *S. polyrhiza* and their requirement for *Cyprinus carpio* and *Oreochromis niloticus* (NRC, 1998, 2011).

Amino acids	<i>Glycine max</i> meal (g 100 g <sup>-1</sup> )	<i>Spirodela polyrhiza</i> (g 100 g <sup>-1</sup> )	<i>Cyprinus</i> <i>carpio</i> (g 100 g <sup>-1</sup> diet)	<i>Oreochromis</i> <i>niloticus</i> (g 100 g <sup>-1</sup> diet)
Histidine (His)	1.17	0.77	0.5	1.0
Isoleucine (Ile)	1.99	1.70	1.0	1.0
Leucine (Lue)	3.42	3.32	1.4	1.9
Lysine (Lys)	2.83	2.28	2.2	1.6
Methionine (Met)	0.61	0.7	0.7	0.7
Phenylalanine (Phe)	2.18	2.15	1.3	1.1
Threonine (Thr)	1.73	1.50	1.5	1.1
Tryptophan (Trp)	0.61	0.28	0.3	0.3
Valine (Val)	2.06	2.38	1.4	1.5
Arginine (Arg)	3.23	2.38	1.7	1.2
Cysteine (Cys)	-	0.36	-	-
Tyrosine (Tyr)	-	1.55	-	-
Methionine + Cysteine	1.31	1.07	1.0	1.0
Phenylalanine + Tyrosine	-	3.7	2.0	1.6





Fig. 1.







Fig. 2 (B)





