

REVIEW

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Marine microalgae for bioremediation and waste-to-worth valorization: recent progress and future prospects

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Abstract

In the quest for sustainable environmental solutions, marine microalgae emerge as powerful allies in bioremediation and biomass valorization endeavors. This review navigates through various facets of marine microalgae utilization, starting with isolation, screening, and identification techniques, which lay the foundation for understanding strain diversity and capabilities. Delving deeper, bioremediation mechanisms performed by marine microalgae are elucidated, showcasing the natural capacity to cleanse polluted environments via biosorption, bioaccumulation, and biodegradation. Furthermore, the waste-to-worth valorization of marine microalgae is explored, with comprehensive discussions on conversions into biofuels, bioplastics, high-value products, and animal feed. As one way forward, emerging advancements in genetic engineering to enhance pollutant removal capacities are presented alongside the development of microalgae consortia and integrated waste treatment processes. This multidimensional approach highlights the ultimate potential of marine microalgae in bioremediation and biomass valorization, laying the groundwork for a sustainable future achieved by working with nature, hand-in-hand.

Keywords Marine microalgae, Bioremediation, Valorization, Wastewater, Pollutant removal, Sustainable

Introduction

The health of our planet relies heavily on the well-being of both aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, which serve as life support systems and provide a vast array of resources. Despite the essential contributions of nature to human existence, targets for halting the degradation of land and oceans have not yet been met [1]. Our oceans, already burdened by the presence of around 5.25 trillion microplastics particles [2], are further threatened by an estimated numbers of 2.4 million tons oil spills entering water bodies annually [3]. At the same time, Earth has lost one-third of arable land in the past 40 years due to

pollution and soil contamination [4], and the remaining two thirds are at risk of unsustainable agricultural practices, deforestation, and urbanization [5]. Moreover, industrial facilities, such as smelters, battery manufacturing plants, and mines, often release heavy metals and toxic chemicals which not only contaminate water bodies but also seep into the soil, posing a serious threat on the life on land and below water [6].

The tide of ecological damages can be stemmed by advancements in marine biotechnology, particularly through bioremediation—the process of using living organisms, mostly microorganisms and plants, to degrade, decompose, and detoxify environmental pollutants [7]. Among the most promising bioremediation agents are marine microalgae, performing natural purification with an excellent salinity and pollutant tolerance [8]. Marine microalgae are naturally adapted to thrive in high salinity, exposed to a constant influx of nutrients

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from upwelling zones and a broad spectrum of pollutants in the surrounding seawater. In contrast to freshwater microalgae, utilizing marine microalgae for bioremediation eliminates the need for complex and energy-intensive desalination processes [9]. Furthermore, marine microalgae demonstrate remarkable versatility in nutrient removal from wastewater under various trophic cultivation modes, even in high-stress conditions such as low light, limited inorganic carbon (CO₂), and anoxic environments [10–12].

A new wave in bioremediation using marine microalgae is pushing the boundaries by focusing on retrieving additional value from harvested biomass and intracellular metabolites, not only offsetting carbon emissions and cultivation costs but also creating valuable products [13]. However, cultivating microalgae in wastewater raises a significant concern: potential presence of contaminants or toxins in the resulting biomass [14]. Despite limitations for food and feed applications, wastewater-cultured microalgae present an opportunity for biofuel production. High lipid content, reaching up to 37% in *Dunaliella tertiolecta* [15] and 46% in *Nannochloropsis* sp. [16], is ideal for biodiesel production via transesterification [12]. This approach offers a double benefit of creating a valuable end product and avoiding the risk associated with contaminated biomass for human or animal consumption. Additionally, anaerobic digestion remains a viable closed-loop valorization option, generating methane for energy production and nutrient-rich digestate for fertilizer [17]. Simultaneous utilization of pollutants and production of carbon-neutral energy ultimately align with Sustainable Development Goal 7 (Affordable and Clean Energy).

First and foremost, we ask: “How can humanity collaborate in harmony with marine microalgae for environmental restoration?” This review begins with an overview of isolation techniques and strain diversity to delve into the question, followed by bioremediation mechanisms and waste-to-worth valorization. As the urgency for sustainability intensifies, emerging advancements are showcased as an all-inclusive plan to foster circular bioeconomy, ensuring a greener future for years to come.

Isolation and screening techniques

Successful application of marine microalgae in bioremediation hinges on isolating strains with potent pollutant removal capabilities. Traditional methods involve DNA extraction, purification, amplification, sequencing, and taxonomic identification, which are time-consuming and require specialized equipment. Jahn et al. pioneered a new approach combining plate isolation with direct PCR (dPCR) to amplify a specific gene region, followed by electropherogram analysis to confirm single-species

cultures. This cascade was shown to eliminate the need for DNA cloning, thereby reducing processing time to about three weeks [18]. Although dPCR may exclude some flagellates, combining it with single-cell Raman spectroscopy (SCRS) may capture a broader spectrum of strains [19]. As another strategy, microfluidic devices offer a high-throughput solution for screening and isolating diverse strains through automatic isolation. By cultivating single cells, seamless screening can be carried out with minimal sample volumes [20].

Despite the ease, downstream analysis remains crucial for identifying strains with desired bioremediation traits. One example of analysis technique is flow cytometry, which facilitates rapid screening of large cell populations with relevant bioremediation traits based on size and specific markers [21, 22]. Next-generation sequencing (NGS) and metagenomics provide deeper insights into genetic makeup and functionalities linked to bioremediation by revealing the entire genome, thus allowing precise analysis of pollutant reduction, nutrient removal, and coliform inhibition [23, 24]. Following identification, enrichment cultures and selective media further isolate and confirm desired traits, such as growth rate, pollutant tolerance, and biocompatibility, ultimately to ensure efficient and effective climate repair.

Strain diversity of marine microalgae

Vast diversity of marine microalgae offers a wide range of pollutant removal capacity [25], as summarized in Table 1. While fast-growing strains with high tolerance to pollutants are generally preferred, careful selection of strains is crucial, as different microalgae excel at removing specific types of pollutants, be it nutrients in wastewater [26], hydrocarbons [27], pharmaceuticals [28], and dyes [29].

Green microalga

Ezenweani and Kadiri studied the performance of *Nannochloropsis oculata* and *Porphyridium cruentum* in petroleum fuel fractions, and reported that *N. oculata* biomass increased in the presence of hydrocarbons, while *P. cruentum* growth was inhibited [27]. Another green microalga, *Scenedesmus obliquus*, can withstand high doses of sulfamethazine, sulfamethoxazole [33], and doxylamine [34], and achieve up to 62% removal of pharmaceutical contaminants. In wastewater remediation, *Scenedesmus* sp. and *Desmodesmus* sp. utilized nitrogen and phosphorus for growth, attaining biomass as high as 0.4 g/L with 91.2% and 66.2% removal of total nitrogen and phosphorus, respectively [26].

Intriguingly, Gowthami et al. investigated *Picochlorum maculatum* for the biodegradation of low-density polyethylene (LDPE) to address the so-called “white

Table 1 Strain diversity and pollutant removal capability

Strains	Pollutant	Removal	Cultivation strategy	Remarks	Ref
<i>Desmodesmus</i> sp.	10.8 mg/L N 0.9 mg/L P	66.2% N 75% P	Indoor 1 L PBR 8 days	Final biomass yield of 0.42 g/L	[26]
<i>Nannochloropsis oculata</i>	Water soluble fraction of petroleum	84.6% kerosene 65.5% diesel 70.8% gasoline	Indoor 500 mL flask 14 days	Final biomass yield of 0.69 g/L	[27]
<i>Navicula</i> sp.	10 mg/L carbamazepine	87.3% carbamazepine	Indoor 250 mL flask 72 h	EC ₅₀ ^a of 0.18 mg/L	[30]
<i>Navicula</i> sp.	~800 ng/L triclosan	98.8% triclosan	Indoor 100 mL flask 72 h	EC ₅₀ ^a of 0.17 mg/L	[31]
<i>Phaeodactylum tricornutum</i>	1 mg/L chromium	76%	Indoor 250 mL flask 3 days	Final OD ₆₀₀ of 0.48	[32]
<i>Scenedesmus obliquus</i>	0.25 mg/L sulfamethazine	62.3%	Indoor 250 mL flask 14 days	EC ₅₀ ^a of 1.23 mg/L	[33]
<i>Scenedesmus obliquus</i>	1 mg/L doxylamine	63%	Indoor 250 mL flask 7 days	Addition of 2 g/L bicarbonate to enhance removal	[34]
<i>Scenedesmus</i> sp.	10.8 mg/L N 0.9 mg/L P	91.2% N 78.7% P	Indoor 1 L PBR 8 days	Final biomass yield of 0.34 g/L	[26]
<i>Thalassiosira pseudonana</i>	1.27 mg/L copper	46.3%	Outdoor 10 L tank 96 h	Elevated CO ₂ at 1000 µatm to reduce toxicity	[35]

^a EC₅₀ is defined as inhibition concentration where the response is reduced by half

pollution". While the study reported weight loss and changes in LDPE properties, the observed 20% weight loss over 45 days suggested a very slow degradation rate [36], which might be due to the significant difference in polarity between the hydrophilic cell surface of Chlorophyta and hydrophobic LDPE [37].

Diatoms

Diatoms are noteworthy for their unique properties, such as rigid silica frustules and specialized transporters. The first complete genome sequence of *Diplonema papillatum* reveals a central role in polysaccharide degradation by utilizing carbohydrate-active (CAZyme families) enzymes, suggesting applications in mitigating eutrophication events [38]. Additionally, studies on two benthic oleaginous diatoms, *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* and *Navicula pelliculosa*, have shown potential in pharmaceuticals [30, 31, 39, 40] and heavy metal removal [32, 41], although growth inhibition remained a challenge. *Thalassiosira pseudonana*, another diatom strain, adapts to higher CO₂ by employing a unique copper uptake mechanism: reducing copper accumulation to alleviate copper toxicity [35]. This highlights such a complex interplay in the event of ocean acidification, as it may lead to decreased metal interactions

in marine organisms, although specific effects depend on the organism, metal type, and timescale of exposure.

Cyanobacteria

Cyanobacteria, also referred to as blue-green algae, are known for nitrogen fixation and nutrient cycling in polluted environments. Beyond nutrient assimilation, *Synechococcus* sp. and *Aphanocapsa* sp. show promise in removing chromium and lead [42], while *Microcystis aeruginosa* tackles zinc and cadmium [43]. Interestingly, habitat influences heavy metal uptake, as observed in *Nostoc* sp. isolated from limestone and freshwater. Ghorbani et al. revealed that *Nostoc* sp. N27P72 isolated from limestones have higher stress tolerance and higher uptake capacity of heavy metal ions compared to *Nostoc* sp. FB71 isolated from freshwater [44].

As environmental contamination grows, exploring microalgae diversity becomes increasingly significant. Continued efforts in isolating novel strains, conducting whole-genome studies, and exploring heavy metal cross-tolerance are essential in pushing microalgae-based bioremediation forward [45].

Bioremediation mechanism

Marine microalgae, poised to revolutionize environmental decontamination, utilize a diverse array of bioremediation mechanisms, broadly categorized into three: biosorption, bioaccumulation, and biodegradation [46]. Each of these mechanisms shown in Fig. 1 is discussed in detail throughout this section.

Biosorption

Biosorption involves the passive binding of various pollutants, including heavy metals, organic compounds, and dyes, to the surface of microalgae, which is rich in carbohydrates and proteins. Functional groups (i.e., carboxyls, amines, phosphates) on the cell wall and extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) interact with pollutants via mechanisms including electrostatic interactions, chelation, and complex formation. Notably, even after microalgae are rendered inactive through death or autoclaving, EPS remains intact in quantities

comparable to living cells or isolated EPS, underscoring the crucial role of cell-associated polymeric substances. Several studies have confirmed the persistence of EPS in the removal of ibuprofen [39], dichromate [32], and dye [47] by *Phaeodactylum tricornerutum*. Nonetheless, it is important to acknowledge that pollutants interact with EPS differently, possibly influencing the efficiency and mechanisms of biosorption.

As microalgae bind pollutants, available sites for further adsorption decrease, leading to a decline in removal efficiency, especially with a high initial concentration of pollutants or the presence of competing ions in the medium. For instance, the presence of copper in a mixed solution can affect the adsorption capacity of *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Scenedesmus obliquus* for cadmium [48, 49]. Some strategies are explored to enhance biosorption such as cultivation in higher pH range of 7.5 to 9.5 [50], elevating phosphorus content in medium [51], harvesting biomass at stationary phase

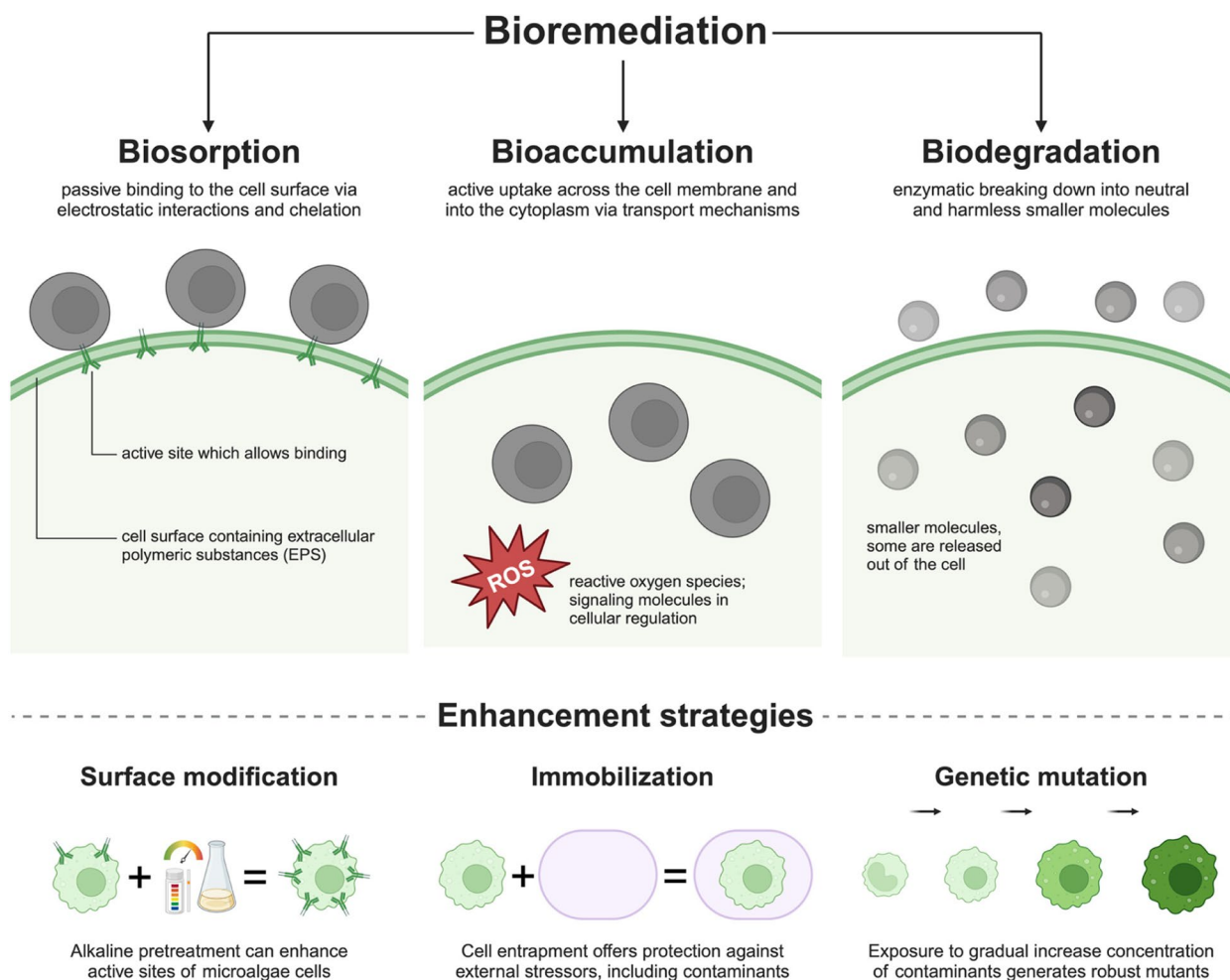


Fig. 1 Bioremediation mechanism by marine microalgae, encompassing biosorption, bioaccumulation, and biodegradation

[52], and employing alkaline pretreatment on microalgae biomass [53].

Bioaccumulation

Bioaccumulation refers to the uptake of pollutants across the cell membrane and into the cytoplasm through specific transport mechanisms, mainly facilitated transmembrane diffusion and energy-dependent active uptake [54]. This uptake can induce stress in microalgae and subsequently trigger alterations in metabolic pathways and antioxidative defenses. For example, *Dunaliella salina* upregulates arsenic transporters when exposed to arsenic and performs detoxification by converting it into less harmful organoarsenicals [55].

A key consequence of bioaccumulation is the generation of intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) that acts as signaling molecules in regulating cellular function and metabolism. However, ROS levels increase with higher concentrations of pollutants, potentially overwhelming the antioxidant defenses within microalgae cells [56, 57]. Studies have shown increased ROS content in *Chlorella vulgaris* with increasing concentrations of perfluorooctane sulfonate, triflumizol, and nonylphenol [58]. To counteract damages from excessive ROS, microalgae upregulate the production of superoxide dismutase, catalases, and glutathione to scavenge ROS and maintain photosynthetic capacity [57, 58].

Complications arise when multiple pollutants are present, and competition for uptake is inescapable. For instance, microalgae may prioritize binding nanoparticles over metal ions due to the abundance, but high nanoparticle concentrations can trigger cell wall thickening and further reduce cellular metal uptake [59]. To address challenges posed by ROS and optimize bioaccumulation efficiency, immobilization can be employed for increased density, improved contact, and enhanced resilience. Numerous attempts have been made to maximize bioaccumulation by immobilized microalgae, such as optimizing bead size [60], formulating nutrient-rich media [61], and selecting appropriate entrapment matrices [62]. Achieving selective uptake of target pollutants while minimizing unwanted elements are ongoing research areas with significant promise for enhancing the bioaccumulation efficiency and sustainability.

Biodegradation

Biodegradation involves enzymes acting as biological catalysts in breaking down contaminants into specific molecules, including organic compounds, sugars, or CO₂, in order to neutralize harmful effects without introducing toxic residues into the food chain (Fig. 1). Certain microalgae species exhibit selective biodegradation capabilities, targeting specific contaminants while

leaving beneficial components in the water unharmed. For example, *Nannochloropsis oculata* performed up to 94% polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) removal by employing oxidoreductase [63]. In pharmaceuticals, *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Phaeodactylum tricorutum* demonstrated remarkable efficiency in iohexol and sulfadimethoxine biodegradation, respectively, and attained final removal rates of 40–59% [64, 65]. Recently, a newly isolated marine microalgae, *Rhodomonas* sp. JZB-2, was reported for the capacity to remove 30 mg/L para-xylene within 6 days [66].

The complexity of contaminants contributes to the slow pace of biodegradation in marine microalgae, as they may need to produce or adapt existing enzymes to break down complex molecules, limiting applicability in situations requiring rapid remediation. One approach to address this challenge is Adaptive Laboratory Evolution (ALE), which involves exposing microalgae to gradual increase of a specific contaminant over multiple generations. Li et al. successfully leveraged ALE to address time-sensitive bioremediation needs by generating *Isochrysis galbana* mutants capable of degrading high-level phenol at 300 mg/L within 10 days [67]. However, it is important to consider that ALE-derived strains may require further evaluation for adaptation to seawater environments typically used in marine microalgae bioremediation applications with different salinity and nutrient levels.

Waste-to-worth valorization

Waste-to-worth is a perspective of envisioning marine microalgae beyond the mere capture of nutrient buildup in water bodies and waste streams [68], to convert the nutrient-rich biomass into valuable products and promote circular bioeconomy (Fig. 2). This section explores the various applications of microalgae-derived biomass as a means of valorization.

Biofuels

The integration of microalgae cultivation with wastewater treatment presents a comprehensive approach to biofuel production, often referred to as the "waste-to-biofuels" concept. Marine microalgae, cultivated directly in wastewater streams, efficiently consume excess nitrogen and phosphorus for growth [13, 26, 69], then subsequently yield valuable lipids suitable for biofuel feedstock (Table 2). Cicci et al. reported that *Scenedesmus dimorphus* and *Arthrospira platensis* can produce lipid content as high as 48% when grown in modulated olive mill wastewater and cattle digestate [70]. However, one primary challenge lies in extracting these valuable lipids for biofuel production without compromising the bioremediation capacity of microalgae. For instance, maximizing lipid content for biofuels through nutrient depletion

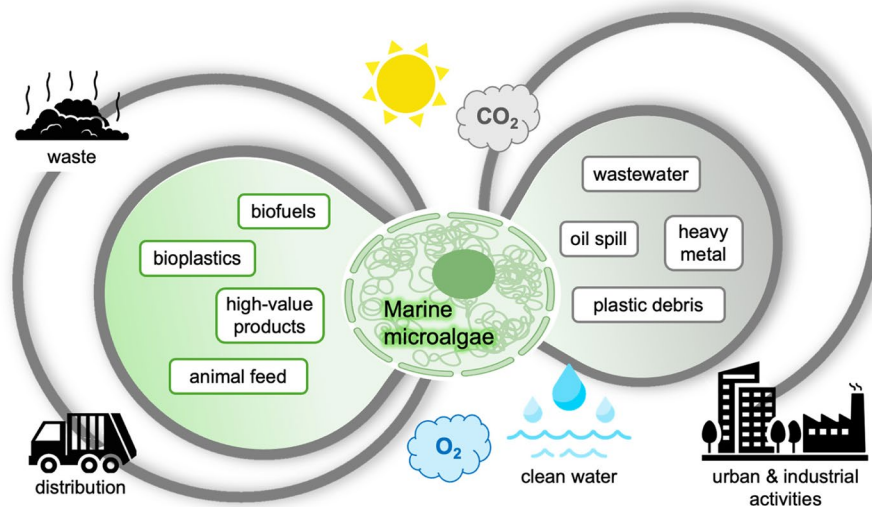


Fig. 2 Marine microalgae as the center of waste-to-worth perspective and circular bioeconomy, linking wastewater, oil spill, plastic debris, and heavy metal generated from urban and industrial activities to valuable products such as biofuels, bioplastics, high-value products, and animal feed

Table 2 Waste-to-worth valorization by specific microalgae strain

Strain	Pollutant	Target product	Yield	Strategy	Ref
Cyanobacteria consortium (<i>Nostoc</i> , <i>Phormidium</i> , <i>Geitlerinema</i>)	Wastewater, anaerobic digestion	Phycocyanin, biomethane	0.02 g/L PC, 200 mL biomethane/g volatile solid	Integration of pigment extraction and biogas production from residual biomass	[72]
<i>Chaetoceros gracilis</i>	Aquaculture wastewater, nano silica	Carotenoid	2.04 mg total carotenoid/g dry cell weight	Addition of nano silica as catalysts to promote nutrient uptake and cell growth	[73]
<i>Cyanobacterium aponinum</i>	Industrial wastewater	Phycocyanin (PC)	1.23 g/L biomass, 0.5 g/L PC	Cultivation at elevated salinity and temperature	[74]
<i>Oscillatoria</i> sp.	Industrial wastewater	Biomethane	97 mL/g total solid	Cultivated at diluted waste stream and seawater	[75]
<i>Scenedesmus dimorphus</i>	Olive mill wastewater, cattle digestate	Biofuel	48% lipid content	Fine-tuning wastewater and digestate as cultivation medium	[70]
<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	Palm oil mill effluent	Phycocyanin, biofuel	1.16 g/L biomass, 0.17 g/L PC	Formulation of appropriate waste stream concentration	[76]
<i>Synechocystis</i> sp.	Secondary urban wastewater	Phycobiliprotein (PCB), PHB, lipid	1.43 g/L biomass, 7.4–4.8–44.7% PCB-PHB-lipid	Semi-continuous cultivation using hydraulic retention time (HRT) to modulate starvation period	[77]
<i>Synechococcus leopoliensis</i>	Aquaculture wastewater, biogas digestate	PHB	6 g/L biomass, 0.9% PHB	Varying starvation regime in open system	[78]
<i>Synechococcus</i> sp.	Heavy metal (lead)	Phycocyanin	0.8 g/L biomass, 40% PC	Supplementation of nitrogen source (nitrate and ammonia)	[79]

in *P. tricorutum* and *N. pelliculosa* can lead to reduced overall biomass, hindering overall nutrient removal and heavy metal detoxification [32]. To address this challenge,

attempts are directed toward two-stage cultivation system (TSCS), where growth and production stages are separated [71]. TSCS allows for efficient bioremediation

during the first stage in a nutrient-rich environment, followed by transfer to a nutrient-depleted environment in the second stage to trigger increased lipid production for biofuel generation.

Reintegrating the remaining biomass, still rich in nutrients and residual lipids, back into the wastewater treatment process is a promising strategy for enhancing bioremediation efficiency. Another attempt was done by Arashiro et al. where higher energy recovery was achieved by combining pigment extraction and biogas production from residual biomass [72]. This integrated approach has the potential to improve overall bioremediation efficiency and reduce processing costs by minimizing waste generation.

Bioplastics

Bioplastics, specifically derived from marine microalgae, offer a sustainable alternative to traditional plastics. Numerous strains, particularly cyanobacteria such as *Anabaena* sp. [80], *Synechocystis* sp. [77], and *Synechococcus* sp. [78], are able to accumulate polyhydroxybutanoates (PHB) when cultivated in wastewater, with PHB content ranging from 2.4% to 7.4% dry cell weight (Table 2). Furthermore, the biomass itself can serve as a resource for developing starch-based bioplastics [81], or as reinforcing agent to enhance the properties of existing bioplastics through blending. Previous studies have demonstrated success in blending microalgae biomass with avocado-based starch [82] and chitosan [83], resulting in bioplastics with improved mechanical strength, thermal stability, and biodegradability.

However, efficiently integrating different waste streams, especially in large-scale processes, remains a challenge in the microalgae cultivation for bioplastics production. An innovative three-stage system utilizing large outdoor tanks (PBRs), each with a capacity of 11,700 L (3,100 gallons), demonstrated effective bioplastics production from cyanobacteria using agricultural runoff as the nutrient source. The first tank focused on selecting and growing cyanobacteria, achieving a high removal efficiency of 95% and 99% for total nitrogen and phosphorus, respectively. Inorganic carbon was introduced in a feast-famine regime to the second tank to promote cyanobacteria growth, followed by continuous inorganic carbon supply in the final tank to enhance bioplastics production [84]. Ultimately, ensuring waste compatibility with microalgae growth and optimizing nutrient extraction are crucial for driving waste-to-bioplastics initiatives forward.

High-value products

Microalgae possess the remarkable ability to convert waste streams into a diverse array of high-value products with applications in pharmaceuticals, food additives,

and cosmetics. One notable example is C-phycoerythrin, a vibrant red pigment protein (phycobiliprotein) which can accumulate to more than 15–20% of the total dry weight in cyanobacteria such as *Spirulina* sp. [85], *Synechococcus* sp. [79], and *Cyanobacterium aponinum* [74]. Another noteworthy valuable chemical is carotenoid, which has been produced through the valorization of aquaculture wastewater using *Chaetoceros gracilis*. Interestingly, nano silica was added in the culture medium as a catalyst to trigger utilization of excess nutrients in the wastewater, thus promoting growth and biomass accumulation [73].

Additionally, microalgae serve as valuable sources of essential fatty acids (EFAs), particularly long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) namely gamma-linolenic acid, arachidonic acid, eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) [75]. Studies have demonstrated that cultivating microalgae in waste streams, such as palm oil mill effluent and fish waste hydrolysate, can yield higher concentrations of high-value compounds compared to conventional media [76, 86]. For example, increased production of arachidonic acid has been observed in *Porphyridium purpureum* under stress conditions when cultivated in a mixotrophic mode supplemented with organic carbon sources [75].

Nonetheless, a significant challenge in the bioremediation process lies in the downstream purification of these compounds from the complex mixtures present in waste streams, not to mention the essential encapsulation stage. Emerging non-destructive and selective extraction techniques, say osmotic shock and enzymatic extraction, enable the recovery of high-value products while facilitating the reuse of microalgae for subsequent bioremediation cycles [87]. This closed-loop system enhances sustainability and economic viability by maximizing the utility of microalgal biomass for the waste-to-worth concept.

Animal feed

Microalgae biomass represents a nutrient-rich source of protein, vitamins, and minerals in animal feed production, particularly beneficial for aquaculture. *Spirulina* and *Chlorella* are renowned for their high protein content, ranging from 50–70% of dry weight, along with essential fatty acids (EFAs), antioxidants, and micronutrients crucial for livestock and fish health. However, a critical challenge arises regarding potential toxin accumulation through bioaccumulation pathways. Research on *Dunaliella salina*, for instance, revealed high levels of arsenic accumulation in contaminated environments [55]. Similarly, concerns about phenanthrene accumulation in *Nannochloropsis oculata* during bioremediation underscore the importance of careful strain selection and monitoring for animal feed applications [63]. Conversely,

recent study on Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) shows promise for *Nannochloropsis oculata* as a dietary supplement to mitigate environmental pollutant effects. Incorporating *N. oculata* into tilapia diets reduced mercury bioaccumulation, improved blood cell health, and mitigated organ damage [88], illustrating the dual benefits of microalgae in nutrition and environmental protection.

Strain selection for animal feed must prioritize high digestibility and minimal toxin accumulation. For example, *Scenedesmus* sp. DDVG I demonstrated 62% digestibility, potentially lowering toxin absorption risks due to reduced undigested material [89]. Addressing the challenge of toxin accumulation involves ongoing research into developing and selecting strains less prone to heavy metal and organic pollutant accumulation. Moreover, implementing proper pre-treatment and post-treatment processes, such as washing, enzymatic treatment, or fermentation, can reduce or eliminate toxins before utilizing biomass as feed. To ensure safety and quality, edible products should come from “safe” wastewater streams, such as those from the food, dairy, beverage, and brewery industries. Another possibility lies in combining microalgae cultivation with aquaculture systems, where microalgae serve as live feed for fish or shellfish, providing nutrients while simultaneously removing excess nutrients from the water [90]. This closed-loop system reduces reliance on external feed sources and improves water quality within the aquaculture unit.

Emerging advancements and future perspectives

Synthetic biology and genetic engineering

Ongoing research dives even deeper into the natural ability of marine microalgae, exploring possibilities of genetic engineering to enhance pollutant removal capabilities and the subsequent waste-to-worth concept, or to manipulate microalgal metabolism and introduce novel power. For instance, bacterial PHB biosynthesis pathway from *Ralstonia eutropha* H16 has been introduced into the cytosolic compartment of the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricorutum*, which enabled PHB accumulation of 10.6% dry weight in a granule-like form within the cell cytosol [91]. As another advancement in bioplastics, Moog et al. engineered a microalgae-based system for degrading PET, a common plastic found in marine environments, via heterologous overexpression of PETase from *Ideonella sakaiensis* into *Phaeodactylum tricorutum*. Functional PETase was successfully produced, allowing for the degradation of both PET and PETG plastics, even at moderate temperatures (21 °C) in saltwater, on a par with real-world ocean conditions [92]. Understanding the underlying mechanism of pollutant removal at omics scale is essential to reveal novel target genes. For example, research has shown that ferroptosis is a key

mechanism of Bisphenol A detoxification [93], which can be explored further by introducing it to desired hosts and explore wider possibilities of strain diversity. Another gene worth exploring is sulfate transporter gene encoding SULTR2, reported to increase chromium accumulation in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* [94].

CRISPR technology, stands for Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats, serves as the foundation of developing genetic toolbox for marine microalgae. While it has been well established in freshwater green algae *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, progress in marine microalgae is maturing, as implemented in *Nannochloropsis oceanica* [95], *Phaeodactylum tricorutum* [96], *Chaetoceros muelleri* [97], and diverse strains of cyanobacteria [98]. Breakthrough in in silico sgRNA design tools [99] and anti-CRISPR proteins [100, 101] are also employed to mitigate cytotoxicity and improve Cas9 expression. Further optimization strategies, including fine-tuning expression levels of heterologous genes, enhancing the efficiency of gene delivery methods, and precise mutagenesis without off-targets, are vital for maximizing the application genetic engineering in marine microalgae.

Development of microalgae consortia for complex scenario

Real-world bioremediation often faces the challenge of complex environmental scenarios with multiple pollutants, where axenic cultures may not suffice. Microalgae consortia, composed of multiple microalgae strains and even bacteria, offer advantages over single-strain cultures, including reduced environmental risk, higher biomass yields, and improved nutrient removal, with some consortia achieving over 70% nitrogen removal [102].

Metagenomics analysis, a powerful tool for studying microbial communities, can identify beneficial interactions between different microalgae and bacteria for bioremediation. For example, bacteria can act as “vitamin prototrophs” and provide essential vitamins to vitamin-auxotrophic microalgae in order to enhance productivity [103]. In a co-culture system, *Pelagibaca bermudensis* was reported to promote the growth of *Tetraselmis striata*, resulting in a 3.6-fold increase in biomass even under fluctuating temperature, light, and salinity conditions [104]. *P. bermudensis* secretes metabolic products that serve as growth substrates for *T. striata*, thereby enhancing growth and mitigating inhibitory effects from other bacterial metabolites.

Further optimization strategies, such as nitrate limitation or adjusting light and nutrient conditions, can enhance the effectiveness of these consortia. Developing robust microalgae-bacteria consortia tailored to specific environmental conditions and pollutants represents a significant leap forward in bioremediation, serving as a

versatile tool to tackle complex environmental challenges and promote sustainable waste-to-worth valorization.

Integration of microalgae cultivation with external processes

Moving beyond standalone applications, integrating microalgae cultivation with existing bioremediation processes is foreseen to enhance overall system efficiency, specifically by capitalizing on the unique capabilities of microalgae to optimize treatment effectiveness. Combining microalgae cultivation with constructed wetlands for wastewater treatment allows microalgae to act as biofilters, which reduce nutrient load, enhance efficiency, and minimize downstream processing [105]. Additionally, microalgae can serve as a pre-treatment step in removing organic pollutants and particulates before the membrane filtration stage, thus extending membrane lifespan and improving filtration efficiency [106].

Microalgae-based biohybrid micro/nano-robots (MNRs) represent a groundbreaking approach to bioremediation (Fig. 3) by combining living microalgae with engineered components, such as magnetic nanoparticles or light-sensitive materials, to enhance targeted contaminant removal and treatment efficiency [107]. Another cutting-edge application is biophotovoltaics (BPVs), which utilize photosynthetic microorganisms to generate

electricity for powering wastewater treatment processes. Okedi et al. demonstrated that *Synechococcus elongatus* sp. PCC7942 can absorb nutrients from wastewater while producing an electric current. This research highlighted the relationship between cell shape and electron transfer rates, with wider and longer cells showing better electron transfer, although this varies throughout the growth phase [108]. In future projections of ocean carbon storage, microalgae act as microbial carbon pumps, mediating the carbon reservoir through refractory dissolved organic carbon and contributing to negative carbon emissions in the ocean [109].

Conclusion

Utilization of marine microalgae presents a promising avenue for addressing environmental challenges while simultaneously unlocking valuable resources, such as biofuels, bioplastics, high-value compounds, and animal feed. However, realizing the full potential requires ongoing research and innovation. Future studies should focus on optimizing genetic engineering techniques, understanding long-term effects, and maximizing efficacy in specific contaminant removal processes. Additionally, developing robust, commercial-scale microalgae-based bioremediation facilities, and applying artificial intelligence for database analysis are essential for widespread

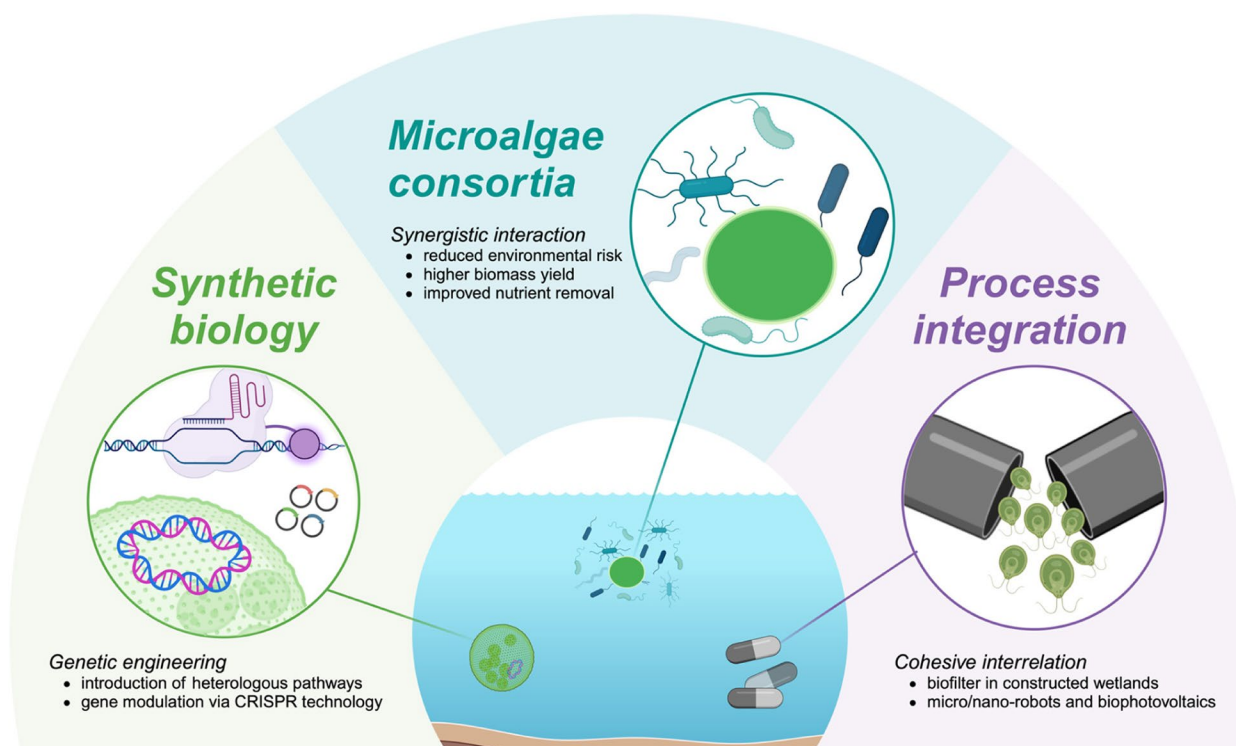


Fig. 3 Cutting-edge advancement in bioremediation performed by marine microalgae, including synthetic biology, consortia development, and process integration

implementation. Continued efforts and collaboration will undoubtedly lead to innovative solutions, leveraging the unique capabilities of marine microalgae to mitigate environmental pollution and foster a greener, more resilient planet.

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Authors' contributions

Priskila Adjani Diankristanti: writing original draft and conceptualization, prepared all tables and figures. I-Son Ng: conceptualization, resources, supervision, writing-original draft, writing-review, and editing.

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Availability of data and materials

All the figures are prepared by the authors, unnecessary for the permission of reproduced images.

Data availability

No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This article does not involve human subjects, including tests on live vertebrates and/or higher invertebrates.

Consent for publication

The authors declare that they fully understand the manuscript content and they have agreed to submit it to "Blue Biotechnology".

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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