

## ORIGINAL RESEARCH ARTICLE

### Review study for carbon dioxide capturing technologies

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### ABSTRACT

Greenhouse gas emissions, particularly CO<sub>2</sub>, continue to drive global warming and threaten energy security. This review evaluates current CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies—including membrane separation, cryogenic separation, chemical absorption, adsorption using porous solids, chemical looping, and microalgae-based carbon capture. While advanced, conventional CCS methods face challenges such as high energy demand, costly infrastructure, solvent degradation, and environmental risks. Among emerging alternatives, bioenergy with carbon capture and storage (BECCS) and microalgae cultivation show strong potential for achieving negative emissions. Vertical tubular photobioreactors and flue-gas-fed cultivation systems demonstrate high biomass productivity and effective CO<sub>2</sub> biofixation. This review summarizes the advantages and limitations of each technology and highlights the need for developing low-energy solvents, durable membrane materials, optimized adsorption media, and cost-effective microalgae cultivation systems. These insights support future efforts to improve the economic viability and environmental sustainability of CO<sub>2</sub> mitigation technologies.

**Keywords:** microalgae-based CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration; bioenergy; negative emissions technologies; bioreactors; BECCS, microalgae-based CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration, negative emissions technologies.

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## 1. Introduction

Every year, human activity releases roughly 7 gigatons of carbon into the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide makes up the majority of this carbon, with fossil fuel power plants accounting for 30% of it. One of the primary causes of global warming is carbon dioxide, which is being emitted quickly due to industrialization<sup>[1]</sup>. Before the era of industrialization, the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was about 280ppm, which increased to 380ppm afterwards<sup>[2]</sup>. Moreover, the rise in CO<sub>2</sub> levels has stimulated concerns about climate change, as its further increase can destroy human civilization<sup>[3]</sup>. Energy consumption is on the rise, which leads to two major issues of<sup>[1]</sup> pollution of the environment caused by burning fossil fuels and<sup>[3]</sup> exhaustion of fossil fuel supplies.

The latest report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)<sup>[4]</sup>, states that in order to prevent the global average

temperature from increasing by 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels, greenhouse gas emissions must be reduced immediately.

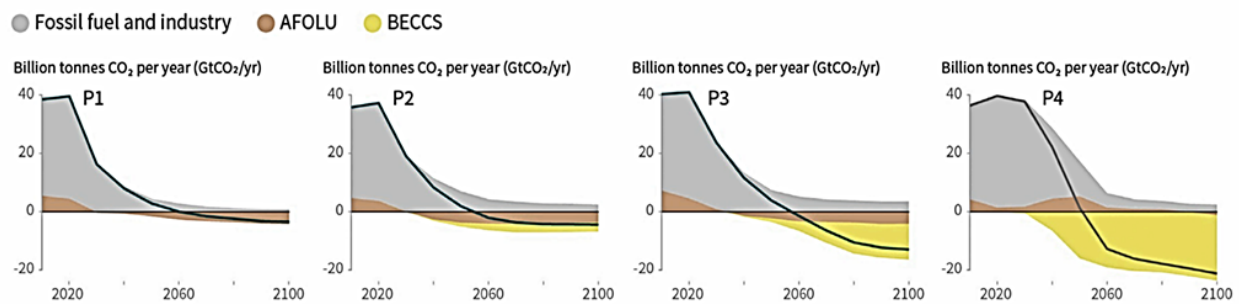
Despite the implementation of a high CO<sub>2</sub> price and existing CO<sub>2</sub> reduction measures, total residual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions across many industries (e.g., transport, buildings, energy sources) are expected to remain at 850-1150 GtCO<sub>2</sub> between 2016 and 2100, <sup>[5]</sup> This is due to the growth of the world's population expansion, food production, and rising energy use. Therefore, CO<sub>2</sub> must be removed from the atmosphere <sup>[5]</sup>.

The IPCC released four scenarios (Fig .1) that describe how global average temperature could be limited to 1.5 degrees Celsius. The assumptions made regarding food and energy consumption were the main cause of the differences across the scenarios, and the stringent enforcement of climate regulations <sup>[4]</sup>, in which CO<sub>2</sub> removal is of paramount importance. CO<sub>2</sub> removal involves two categories: CCS and CCU. The idea is simple: by 2100, the world could follow a path to reduce carbon emissions. The diagram shows four images, each with a different rate of reduction and reliance on different carbon removal technologies. Each color represents the amount of carbon dioxide emissions.

The gray area: emissions from fossil fuels and industry.

The brown area: emissions from agriculture and forestry (often remaining close to zero).

The yellow area: carbon capture and storage in biomass.



**Figure 1.** An analysis of the sources contributing to Global net carbon dioxide emissions under four emission reduction scenarios aimed at restricting the average global temperature increase to 1.5 °C.

Scenario 1 (P1): AFO LU serves as the sole CO<sub>2</sub> removal strategy, depending on innovations that require less energy. Scenario 2 (P2): Society transitions to sustainability through health-conscious habits, low-emission technologies, and a limited role for BECCS. Scenario 3 (P3): Society and technology adhere to historical trends, with minor reductions in energy demand and a larger BECCS contribution than in the P2 scenario. Scenario 4 (P4): Extensive energy and resource utilization occur alongside elevated energy demands and livestock production, with significant emissions removal facilitated by BECCS <sup>[6]</sup>.

Biological methods are considered to be the most economical, sustainable, and ecologically favorable approach to carbon capture and storage. Plants, microalgae, and other organisms are frequently employed for the sequestration of biological carbon. On a general level, Plants only reduce carbon emissions by about 3–6%, but under the right circumstances, microalgae such as green algae and cyanobacteria have the potential to be 50 times more effective<sup>[7]</sup>.

### 1.1. Carbon capture, storage, and utilization (CCS and CCU) overview

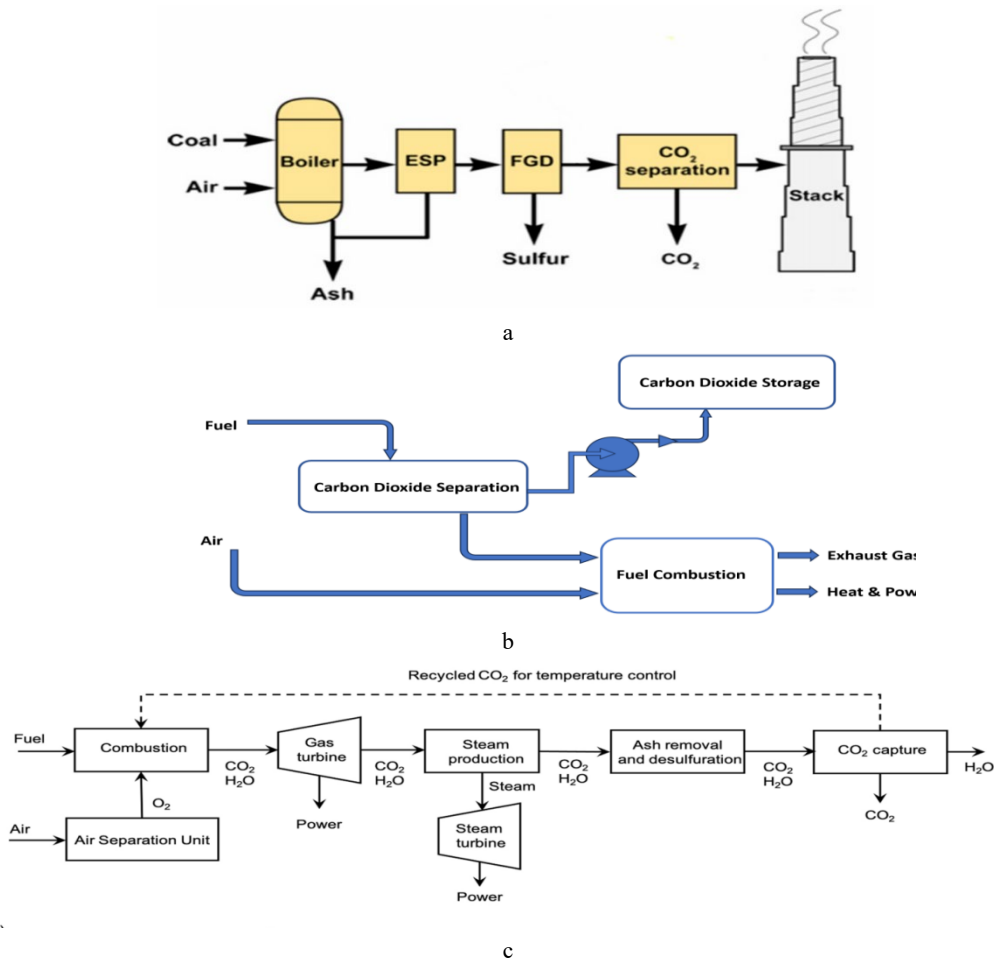
There are three primary processes in carbon capture systems: 1) CO<sub>2</sub> capture and storage; 2) CO<sub>2</sub> gas compression and transportation; 3) CO<sub>2</sub> storage in a storage facility or use of captured CO<sub>2</sub> in the production of energy sources or chemical products. Post-combustion, pre-combustion, and oxy-combustion are the three primary categories into which the numerous capture procedures fall (Table 1).

## 1.2. Post-combustion technology

Technology used after combustion is typically used only on flue gases and can capture high concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  in various applications, such as enhanced oil recovery<sup>[8]</sup>. Membrane separation, cryogenic distillation, adsorption, and chemical absorption are examples of modern post-combustion systems. (Fig 2.a) Schematic diagram of a simplified flue gas cleanup process for post-combustion carbon capture<sup>[9]</sup>. The high temperature of exhaust gas further limits the  $\text{CO}_2$  capture efficiency. Furthermore, pollutants like  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{SO}_x$ , or fly ashes may be present in the flue gas, which raises the cost of separation using current technology<sup>[9],[10]</sup>. This figure is the crucial stage where carbon dioxide is separated and isolated from other gases using various techniques (such as chemical absorption or membranes). Final stage - outlet (stack): The remaining clean gases are released into the atmosphere through the stack, while the separated carbon dioxide is transported for storage or use in other applications. In short, this process transforms conventional power plants into environmentally friendly ones by capturing carbon before it reaches the atmosphere.

## 1.3. Pre-combustion technology

Initially, the fuel is transformed into a flammable gas. This gas is used to generate energy<sup>[11]</sup>. Before combustion,  $\text{CO}_2$  is separated and sequestered from this gas, which is produced from fossil fuels<sup>[12]</sup>. Figure 2 shows a schematic diagram of the process. Syngas is produced from fossil fuels and consists primarily of  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{CO}$ , with trace amounts of  $\text{CO}_2$ . Steam is added to the fossil fuel to do this. We refer to this procedure as steam reforming<sup>[13]</sup>. Figure 2.b: Schematic diagram of the pre-combustion  $\text{CO}_2$  capture process<sup>[14]</sup>. The separated carbon dioxide is transported to underground geological storage facilities (in deep layers of earth or sealed wells), where it remains permanently trapped and does not return to the atmosphere.



**Figure 2.** (a) Schematic diagram of (a) simplified flue gas cleanup process for post-combustion carbon capture<sup>[9]</sup>, (b) pre-combustion carbon capture process<sup>[14]</sup>, and (c) Oxy-combustion with  $\text{CO}_2$  capture applied to a combined cycle power plant<sup>[15]</sup>

## 2. Oxy-fuel combustion

Oxy-fuel combustion refers to the combustion of a fuel using pure  $O_2$  instead of air. In the case of oxy-fuel combustion, the products of fuel combustion are  $CO_2$  and  $H_2O$ , and instead of air, pure oxygen is supplied via cryogenic or membrane methods, in which water is separated by condensation<sup>[16]</sup>. Oxy-combustion was developed at the beginning of the 1980s and gained interest in the 1990s due to the environmental impact of fossil fuels<sup>[17]</sup>. Nowadays, there are a few pilot plants (TRL-7) operating on a commercial scale. Some examples are the 30 MW coal plant promoted by Endesa, CS Energy, and Vattenfall, or the 35 MW oil plant of Total SA<sup>[18]</sup>. Fig. 2 c. Oxy-combustion with CO capture applied to a combined cycle power plant, instead of burning fuel with ordinary air (which contains 79% nitrogen), the fuel is burned with pure oxygen ( $O_2$ ). This radically changes the nature of the emissions. Since the emissions consist primarily of  $CO_2$  and  $H_2O$ , separating the carbon becomes very easy. Water ( $H_2O$ ) is easily separated from carbon dioxide. The ultimate use of the captured  $CO_2$  can be divided into two main pathways: carbon capture and storage (CCS) and carbon capture and utilization (CCU). CCS is estimated to contribute more to negative net emissions, whereas CCU reuses  $CO_2$  in industrial operations to generate economic benefits<sup>[19]</sup>. Table 1 presents the main categories of carbon mitigation technologies along with their associated benefits and limitations.

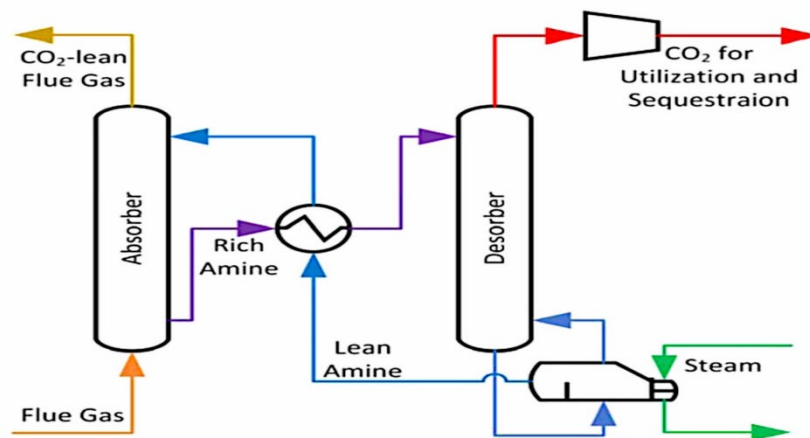
**Table 1.** List of categories of carbon mitigation technologies with their benefits and downsides [20,21]

Category of capture	Summary	Benefits	Downsides
Post-combustion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Removes <math>CO_2</math> from exhaust gases after fuel combustion</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Easy integration with current industrial infrastructure; risk reduction from the most advanced technology</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The lower pressure of <math>CO_2</math> in the flue gas leads to an increase in the consumption of energy and the cost of capture; large equipment is necessary for this.</li> <li>Location specific</li> </ul>
Pre-combustion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>produces <math>H_2</math> and <math>CO_2</math> when it reacts with oxygen or water vapor to remove <math>CO_2</math> from fuel.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Less regenerative energy; little equipment is required to capture it</li> <li>The output stream can have a high concentration of <math>CO_2</math>.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Implementation of this technology is difficult in existing power plants.</li> <li>Complex procedures and lack of operational knowledge</li> </ul>
Oxy-fuel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Use pure oxygen to burn fuel rather than air.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High concentration of captured <math>CO_2</math>; less <math>NO_x</math> formation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Costs money to maintain, and requires an expensive air filter.</li> <li>Reduced efficiency and greater energy loss</li> </ul>

## 3. Carbon capture technologies

### 3.1. Chemical absorption-stripping process

The most sophisticated technology is chemical absorption for removing carbon dioxide from flue gas. It has been widely used for the removal of carbon dioxide and hydrogen sulfide from natural gas for more than 60 years, and has also been used for post-combustion capture in recent decades<sup>[22]</sup>. Solvent absorption and stripping system. The standard procedure in a power plant for chemical absorption and stripping (Figure 3) first passes the flue gas through a tower filled with an amine aqueous solution to absorb carbon dioxide. After the amine solution is saturated, it is moved into a stripper and heated to 100–120 °C, typically with the help of power plant waste steam, to be converted back into a reusable solution<sup>[23]</sup>. Following its release, after compression, the  $CO_2$  is moved for usage or sequestration.



**Figure 3.** illustrates the process of an absorption-stripping unit. The carbon dioxide absorber is usually an amine solution. The absorber separates the captured carbon dioxide from the amine solution. Before returning the amine solution to the absorber, it is passed to a cooler [23].

As technology develops, the technology of capturing carbon dioxide using organic amine solutions is becoming more and more efficient. Researchers have conducted numerous investigations of how organic amine solutions absorb  $\text{CO}_2$  because of their superior capture capacity and separation efficiency [24].

Despite the organic amine solution's exceptional capacity to absorb  $\text{CO}_2$ , the desorption process requires a significant amount of energy, and this energy consumption makes up roughly 70% to 80% of the total energy required for  $\text{CO}_2$  capture. Consequently, one of the most important steps in the future development of  $\text{CO}_2$  capture technology is resolving the energy consumption issue of organic amine solution desorption [25]. Four monoethanolamine-based absorbents (MEA/water, MEA/ethanol, and two types of MEA/ethanol/water) were tested for their absorption and desorption performance. According to the results, the MEA that was mixed with ethanol had a higher desorption effect, a lower desorption temperature, and a good capacity for regeneration.

The process is referred to as chemical absorption if the solvent and  $\text{CO}_2$  combine to form chemical compounds. Later,  $\text{CO}_2$  is extracted from the chemical components. However, if the solvent is chemically inert, it does not react with  $\text{CO}_2$ . It soaks the  $\text{CO}_2$  physically. This process is called physical absorption [14]. After that, it is saved and compressed. The lean solvent from the  $\text{CO}_2$  regeneration is returned to the absorber [26].

### 3.2. Adsorption

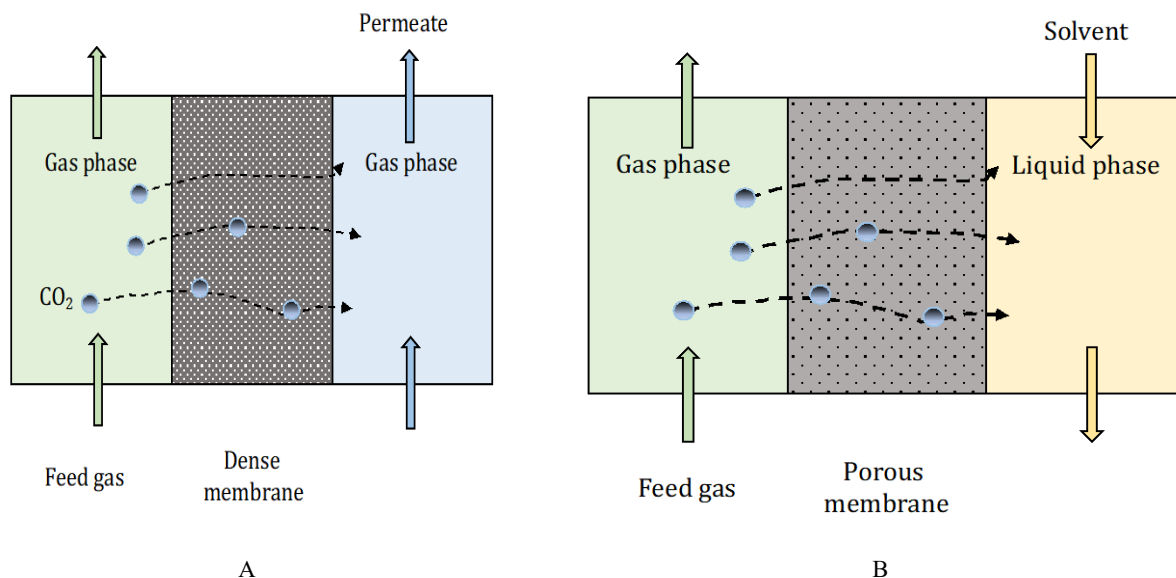
This is the method of employing a solid surface to extract a component from a mixture. In contrast to absorption mechanisms, the solid phase adsorbent surface and  $\text{CO}_2$  create physical or chemical connections. Intermolecular forces between the surfaces of the gas and the solid are what propel adsorption [27].

One or more layers of gas can be taken in depending on the size of the adsorbent's pores, as well as factors such as temperature, pressure, and surface forces [28]. Initially, the column is packed with the adsorbent material. Next, a gas stream containing  $\text{CO}_2$  is directed through this column. As the gas flows, the  $\text{CO}_2$  attaches itself to the adsorbent's solid surface until the material reaches saturation. Once the surface is fully saturated with  $\text{CO}_2$ , it is extracted and desorbed through various cycles for  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption [27].

Pressure swing adsorption is one type of post-combustion based adsorption technology, vacuum pressure swing adsorption, temperature swing adsorption, and electric temperature swing adsorption. Solid adsorbents can be divided into two categories: Amine-based adsorbents are chemical (chemisorption), whereas metal-organic materials and zeolites are physical (physisorption) [10]. While the latter takes advantage of non-bonded contacts, the former releases  $\text{CO}_2$  through a selective reaction with surface-bound amine groups [29].

### 3.3. Membrane-based system

Membranes function similarly to a filter, and how well they work depends on how permeable and selective they are to particular molecules <sup>[30]</sup>. Both pre- and post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> collection processes can benefit from membrane-based technology. Membrane contractor (MC) and membrane gas separation (MGS) are the two primary choices (Fig. 4). The former diffuses into the permeate side using ion-conducting membranes or selective surface diffusion to desorb through a dense membrane matrix <sup>[31]</sup>, Whereas the latter promotes mass transfer using a highly hydrophobic microporous membrane, where the solvent dominates the CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity <sup>[32]</sup>. MGS systems are widely used to separate natural gas from CO<sub>2</sub> /CH<sub>4</sub> <sup>[33]</sup>.



**Figure 4.** A; membrane gas separation (MGS) and B; Schematics for membrane contractors (MC). While MC employs porous membranes with a liquid solvent on the other side that has good CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity, MGS uses a dense membrane with the gas phase on the other side that uses selective surface diffusion.

Membranes can be categorized into two classes: organic membranes, which are made of polymer material, and inorganic membranes, which are composed of mineral material. Today, polymeric membranes are involved in numerous applications that involve CO<sub>2</sub> differentiation. However, they have suboptimal CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity, making them unsuitable for large-scale CO<sub>2</sub> separation and purification <sup>[[34],[35]]</sup>. On the other hand, inorganic membranes are a promising separation membrane material because of their superior stability, resistance to corrosion, and separation performance <sup>[35]</sup>. Membranes, however, have a number of drawbacks: Because of their short lifespan, the membranes require periodic replacement and are costly. High temperatures in the stream output can cause the modules to deteriorate, and fouling can lower their permeability. As a result, the flue gas needs to cool down before passing through the membrane. Furthermore, moisture and traces of acidic substances can affect membranes <sup>[[36],[37],[38]]</sup>.

### 3.4. Chemical looping

Chemical looping combustion is a new method of carbon capture that is innovative in the field. This approach has the potential to be the most effective and budget-friendly method for capturing CO<sub>2</sub> for power plants that use fossil fuels. The IPCC considered this method to be among the least priced carbon removal <sup>[39]</sup>. It has the benefits of CO<sub>2</sub> detection with a minimum amount of energy required. The air and fuel cannot communicate directly with one another; this is why the practice is also called unmixed combustion <sup>[11]</sup>. The primary benefit of the air and fuel are not combined in the chemical loop, which results in no dilution of the products of fuel transformation using nitrogen <sup>[40]</sup>. It removes the requirement for a second Separation Unit. However, the intricate process engineering design, which includes intricate interactions between substances



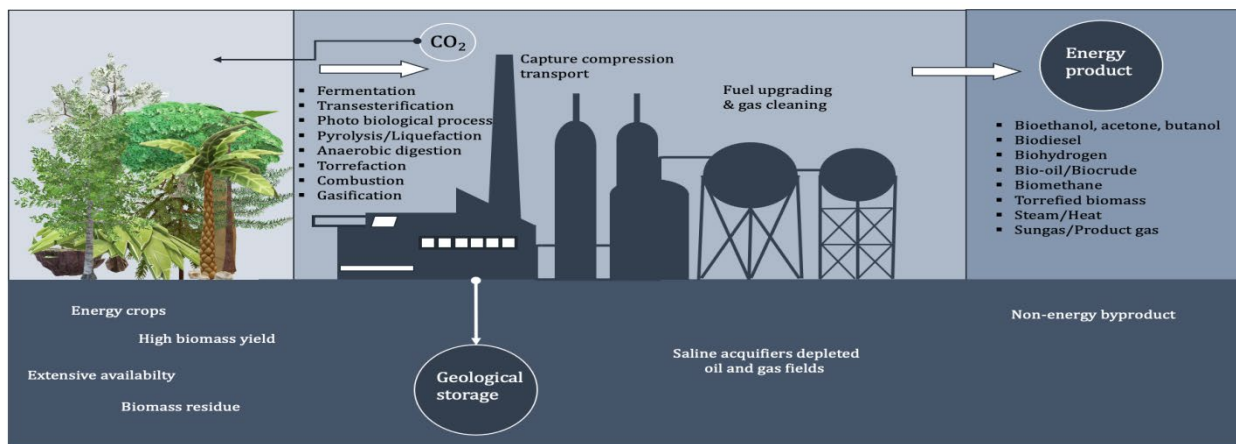
and gases, the stability of the material, and the design of the reactor, presents several challenges to the technology's implementation [41].

### 3.5. Cryogenics

The cryogenic method of removing CO<sub>2</sub> from flue gases uses distinct gas condensation and desublimation properties to extract CO<sub>2</sub> with a purity of greater than 99.99%<sup>[42]</sup>. The collected CO<sub>2</sub> can be utilized for chemical purposes, including fertilizers or food. Physical sorbents and chemical solvents are not needed when using cryogenic CO<sub>2</sub> capture<sup>[43]</sup>. Compared to other technologies, CO<sub>2</sub> removal is made possible by low-temperature techniques; certain cryogenic systems have attained a 99.99 percent purity level<sup>[44]</sup>. The flue gas is cooled until it is below the boiling point of CO<sub>2</sub>, which is around 75°C<sup>[37]</sup>. This process's benefit is that it makes it possible to recover pure CO<sub>2</sub> in a transportable liquid form<sup>[38]</sup>. Even though the cryogenic separation method produces extremely high levels of CO<sub>2</sub> purity, it is typically only useful in situations where the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> is high<sup>[37]</sup>. High temperature, low partial pressure, and low CO<sub>2</sub> concentration flue gas are not suitable for the cryogenic separation process<sup>[45]</sup>.

### 3.6. Bioenergy with carbon capture and storage (BECCS)

BECCS is seen as a potentially effective negative emissions technology (NET) due to the fact that the total CO<sub>2</sub> taken from the atmosphere through biological processes, combined with CO<sub>2</sub> captured during the conversion of biomass to energy, exceeds the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions generated from the energy utilized in this conversion (Figure 5). BECCS can serve as a suitable replacement for current coal-fired power facilities that save jobs and boost the economy without requiring government help<sup>[46]</sup>, alongside facilitating job growth<sup>[47]</sup>. BECCS is expected to be more socially embraced due to its environmentally friendly and sustainable image when compared to fossil fuel CCS<sup>[48]</sup>.



**Figure 5.** Diagram illustrating the BECCS process, starting from plantation, through the fixation of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> with high biomass output, to the transformation into energy products. Once harvested, biomass is moved for processing via combustion, fermentation, gasification, or anaerobic digestion. During the conversion phase, the CO<sub>2</sub> that is released is caught and kept in storage. Electrical power, biofuels, or heat are examples of the energy output<sup>[49]</sup>.

In this framework, BECCS (bioenergy with carbon capture and storage) becomes an important technology, notably because it provides negative emissions<sup>[[50],[51]]</sup>. BECCS is a set of procedures that capture, move, and store carbon dioxide produced during the production of bioenergy in deep geological formations<sup>[[51],[52]]</sup>. Installing carbon capture and storage systems at bioenergy facilities has the potential to generate negative emissions because biomass growth through photosynthesis absorbs carbon dioxide that is normally released back into the atmosphere during bioenergy production<sup>[52]</sup>.

Environmental issues such as overuse of land, excessive use of water, and deteriorating soil health and biodiversity pose obstacles to bioenergy with carbon capture, storage, and sequestration (BECCS)<sup>[53]</sup>.

#### 4. Critical comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies

To strengthen the quantitative comparison, this section has been expanded to include capture cost ranges, energy penalties, and maturity levels for major CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies. Conventional CCS systems, such as amine absorption, typically have capture costs of ~70–200 US\$/tCO<sub>2</sub> with energy penalties of 5–15 percentage points, while advanced membranes and cryogenic systems show lower reported costs in favorable conditions. Microalgae-based systems currently have higher implied CO<sub>2</sub> capture costs unless coproducts are valued, but offer co-benefits such as wastewater treatment and potential for negative emissions when integrated with BECCS pathways.

Every one of the aforementioned CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies has benefits and drawbacks (Table 2). This subsection offers prospects and suggested directions for various technologies while comparing and analyzing a number of capture technologies.

**Table 2.** Comparison and analysis of CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies.

Capture Technology	Benefits	Boundary	Future expectations	Ref.
Chemical absorption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•A relatively developed technology, outstanding CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity, and superior CO<sub>2</sub> capture performance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•The release of absorbed solvents, high running costs and energy consumption, and high equipment corrosion rates will all contribute to pollution of the environment.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Create novel absorbent solvents that have low corrosion and high absorption capacities. For desorption, use energy-efficient machinery and absorption techniques.</li> </ul>	[54]
Solid adsorption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Multiple methods of adsorption (TSA, PSA, and ESA); low regeneration energy consumption; nearly non-corrosive; appropriate for low-concentration CO<sub>2</sub> capture; reasonably easy operation.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Due to its lower capture capacity compared to chemical absorption, industrial flue capture gases should be enhanced.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•The adsorption material must be changed, and multiple adsorption technologies must be optimized to improve the CO<sub>2</sub> capture efficiency even more.</li> </ul>	[35]
Membrane separation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Highly effective purification, low cost, low energy consumption, and a simple process that is friendly to the environment.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Most membranes have a short service life and are readily destroyed; the separation purity is low; the permeability of the polymer membrane is more affected by moisture; and a bigger membrane area is needed for industrial applications.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Create cutting-edge novel membrane materials to increase the effectiveness of CO<sub>2</sub> separation; further funding for industrial pilot research is required.</li> </ul>	[55]
Cryogenic separation	<p>It works well for capturing CO<sub>2</sub> at high partial pressures and concentrations, and the separation purity is very good.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expensive and difficult to operate; unsuitable for capturing low CO<sub>2</sub> volume fraction; pipeline blockages due to low-temperature CO<sub>2</sub> solidification.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•The issue of CO<sub>2</sub> solidification obstructing the pipeline must be resolved, and a simpler, more efficient, low-temperature process must be designed and optimized.</li> </ul>	[56]



Capture Technology	Benefits	Boundary	Future expectations	Ref.
Microbiological method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Direct conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into organic matter, low cost, high return value, and no need for a convoluted process.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is still in the theoretical stage and there are not many related studies.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To advance the development of microbiological techniques for CO<sub>2</sub> capture, more experimental research is required.</li> </ul>	[57]

**Table 2.** (Continued)

In addition to being costly and complicated, conventional CCS technologies have the potential to produce secondary pollution. Algae technologies for carbon capture are of great interest.

One of the most crucial elements to reduce GHG emissions is the use of microalgae to sequester CO<sub>2</sub> using biomass energy. Removing CO<sub>2</sub> from stack gases and then storing it in microalgae ponds for a long time is a straightforward and straightforward method of mitigating greenhouse gas emissions.

## 5. Photosynthesis, microalgae and cyanobacteria

### 5.1. Photosynthesis

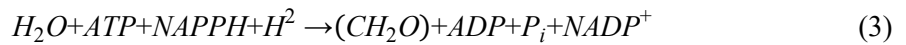
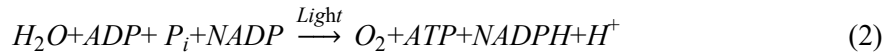
The biochemical process that fixes CO<sub>2</sub>, photosynthesis, is powered by photons, or light energy. It produces about 140 billion tons of oxygen as a reaction byproduct and transforms about 200 billion tons of CO<sub>2</sub> into intricate organic substances every year [58].

Essentially, microalgae use photosynthesis as a mechanism to convert CO<sub>2</sub> into glucose and use sun energy for material and energy exchange with their environment [59]. It can be expressed by Equation (1):



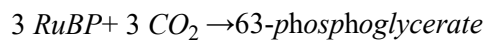
Additionally, there are two stages to photosynthesis: the photoreaction stage, which converts light energy into chemical energy that is active, and the dark reaction, which converts chemical energy from active to stable.

Equations (2) and (3) demonstrate that to immobilize and convert CO<sub>2</sub> to sugar, the dark reaction needs the strong reductant (NADPH) and the energy (ATP) produced by the light reaction. Through the PSII and PSI photosystems, the light energy is transformed into chemical energy to reduce NADP<sup>+</sup> into NADPH. The pH gradient was produced by the thylakoid membrane and subsequently utilized to produce ATP [60].



**There are three stages to the cycle:**

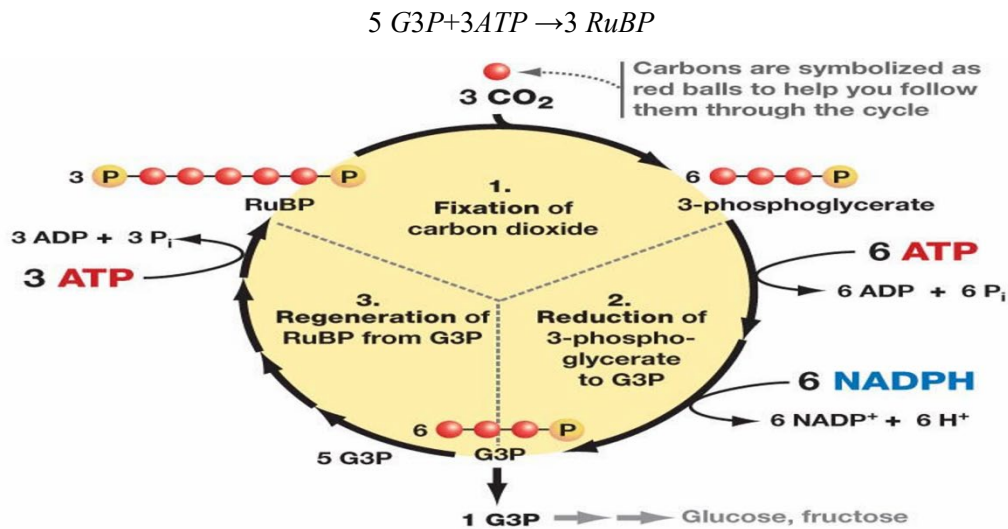
1) Fixation of carbon: Inside the chloroplast, the enzyme ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCo) catalyzes the reaction of gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> with RuBP, resulting in the production of six molecules of 3-phosphoglycerate (3PGA), also referred to as three-carbon organic acids [61].



2) Reduction reaction: 3PGA undergoes a reduction reaction with ATP and NADPH to create single 3-carbon molecules (G3P), of which one of its six components is extracted for the plant's use or storage.



3) Regeneration of ribulose-1, 5-bisphosphate (RuBP): the remaining G3P is recycled back into the cycle to produce more RuBP, which powers the stage of carbon fixing [62].



**Figure 6.** A Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle schematic using RuBisCo. Three steps include 1) CO<sub>2</sub> fixation, 2) reduction of 3-phosphoglycerate to G3P, and 3) regeneration of RuBP from G3P. ATP and NADPH molecules are supplied by the light dependent reaction <sup>[63]</sup>.

## 5.2. Microalgae for carbon capture

Single-celled microorganisms called microalgae transform the energy from solar radiation into chemical energy through a process known as photosynthesis <sup>[64]</sup>. Many bioactive compounds with great potential for commercial and industrial use can be found in their biomass. Numerous cellular metabolites, including premium Vitamins, proteins, lipids, carbohydrates, and colors for the alternative energy, food and feed, and cosmetics industries, can be produced by microalgae <sup>[65]</sup>.

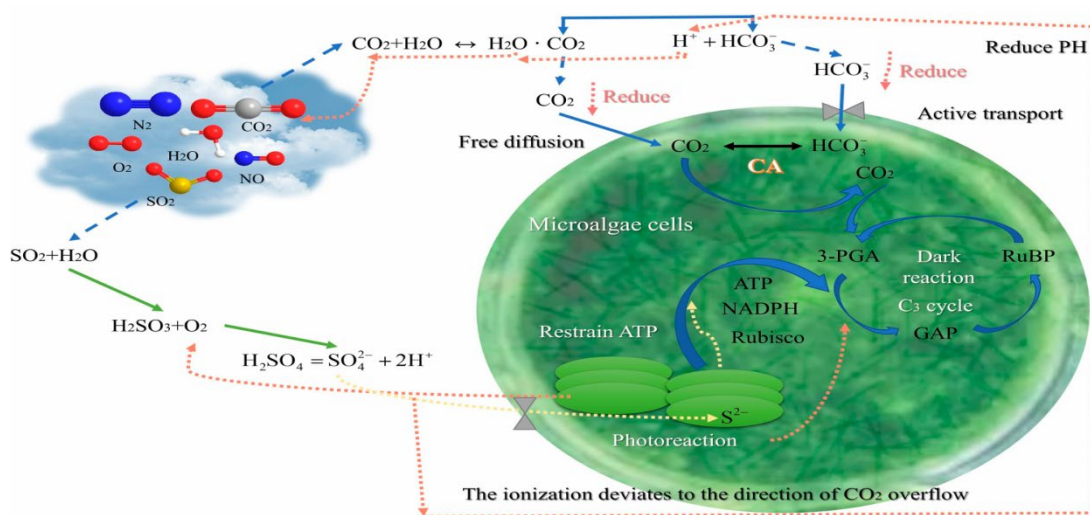
Because they can replicate 100 times more quickly than terrestrial plants, microalgae can produce more biomass<sup>[66]</sup>. Every kilogram of microalgae biomass generated may fix about 1.83 kg of CO<sub>2</sub> <sup>[67]</sup>.

The effectiveness of ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate (Rubisco) carboxylation/oxygenation,

a photosynthesising enzyme that is crucial for carbon assimilation and sequestration, is enhanced by the elevated CO<sub>2</sub> levels surrounding thylakoid membranes. Rubisco has a low CO<sub>2</sub> binding affinity, having evolved in CO<sub>2</sub>-rich and O<sub>2</sub>-poor environments. Therefore, the pyrenoid works to keep the ideal conditions for a higher capacity to bind CO<sub>2</sub> <sup>[68]</sup>. <sup>[69]</sup> examined how light intensities affected *Chlorella vulgaris* using two CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (2 and 13% v/v). At 13% v/v CO<sub>2</sub> and light intensity of 180 Hmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, the greatest CO<sub>2</sub> removal rate was 0.98 g CO<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> utilizing two sources of CO<sub>2</sub>: a blend of pure 11% v/v CO<sub>2</sub> and flue gas from a municipal trash incinerator that contains 10–13% v/v CO<sub>2</sub> and air—<sup>[70]</sup> employed *C. vulgaris* to produce biomass. Compared to the control gas, the CO<sub>2</sub> fixation rate was greater when the flue gas was used (4.4 g CO<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>).

Applications of microalgae-harnessing systems in engineering and environmental protection are becoming more and more popular, particularly in the areas of technology for biofuel production, wastewater treatment, flue gas (including CO<sub>2</sub>) reduction, and solid waste neutralization (Figure 7) <sup>[71]</sup>. This figure illustrates the complete cycle of an algae-based circular economy, where carbon dioxide is captured from the atmosphere or industrial sources, used to cultivate algae, and then converted into a variety of clean biofuels. This technology represents a comprehensive and sustainable solution to both the energy and climate crises.





**Figure 8.** Mechanisms via which Sox inhibits microalgae CO<sub>2</sub> fixation [77].

Acidification is frequently linked to the decreased growth rate at high CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, which results in the inactivation of important C<sub>3</sub> cycle enzymes. Homeostatic reactions allow CO<sub>2</sub>-resistant strains to regulate their pH [78]. According to Yen et al., *Chlorella* sp. demonstrated a high CO<sub>2</sub> tolerance by reaching its maximum growth rate at a 10% CO<sub>2</sub> concentration [79]. The maximum quantity of CO<sub>2</sub> biofixation in flue gas each day was shown by *Chlorella fusca* LEB 111 [80].

### 6.3. In waste water

Water usage has sharply increased as a result of global population expansion and urbanization, making the treatment of wastewater one of the world's biggest challenges. Systems for treating wastewater using microalgae are far more valuable than traditional techniques, which raise greenhouse gas emissions and depend on costly energy and chemicals [81]. Ammonia, phosphate, iron, copper, zinc, and other trace metals are among the majority of the nutrients needed for microalgae growth and photosynthesis. , are found in wastewater.

Waste water purification, CO<sub>2</sub> capture, and microalgae cultivation can all work together to cut sewage treatment costs, utilize fewer chemicals during processing, and slow down CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Sustainable and cost-effective wastewater treatment technique combines CO<sub>2</sub> removal from flue gas combined with wastewater treatment using microalgae culture to produce biofuels [82].

## 7. Current technologies for algae

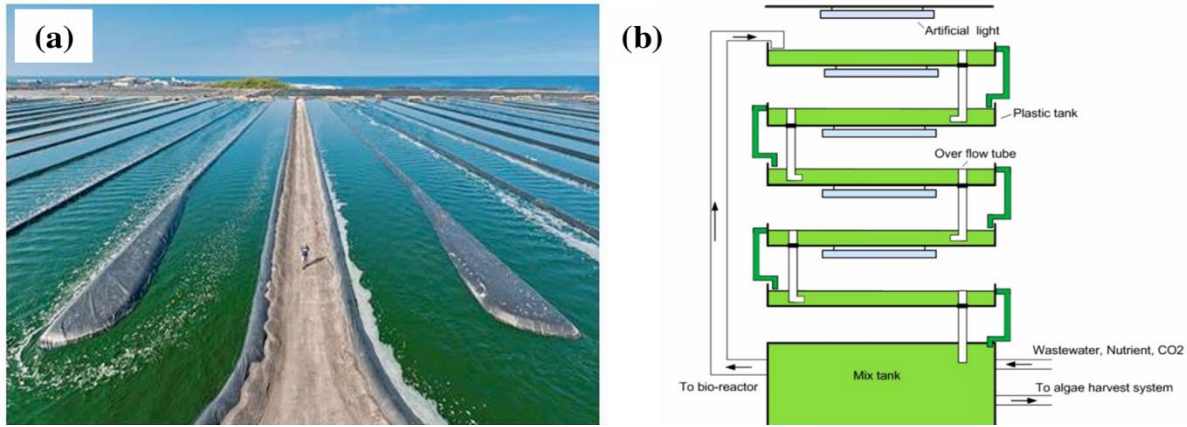
The three primary technologies for growing algae are closed (PBRs), open (ponds and raceways), and biofilm systems. The choice of the best growing system is influenced by several factors, including cost, the source of CO<sub>2</sub> capture, the desired products, and the source of nutrients [59].

### 7.1. Open ponds

Artificial ponds and natural waters (lakes and ponds) are the two categories of open systems. Over the past few decades, biomass production has been achieved globally by the mass growing of microalgae in open settings [83]. It is frequently carried out in raceway ponds, circular ponds, and large ponds [84].

For commercial cultivation, raceway ponds are the most commonly utilized (Figure 9.a). Usually, the depth is between 15 and 25 cm, and agitation is achieved with a paddle wheel to promote circulation and facilitate nutrient medium mixing. The local climate and latitude determine the light environment, and pond temperature is often uncontrolled [85].

Wastewater treatment tests were conducted in an open space on a 40,000 L multi-layer bioreactor open pond system (Figure 9.b) [86]. The nutritive medium flowed under gravity and was pushed back to the top of the multilayer bioreactor, which was made up of multiple tiers of tanks stacked on top of one another (Figure 9 b). Reports indicate that the biomass productivity ranged from 19 to 23 g m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> [87], which exceeded that of traditional open pond systems [88].



**Figure 9.** (a) pond of algae [89] and (b) a bioreactor with layers [90].

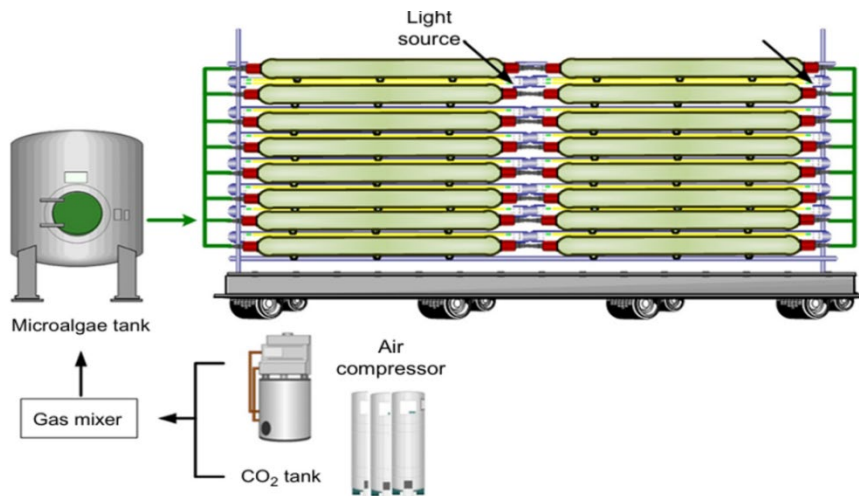
A transparent cover over a raceway may boost CO<sub>2</sub> fixation efficiency to 95%, according to [91].

## 7.2. Closed photobioreactors (PBRs)

Many of the drawbacks of open systems have been addressed by the development of enclosed PBRs [92]. As well as to reduce light shading, increase photosynthesis, and mass transfer CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> [66], Tubular, airlift, flat panel, and bags are examples of PBR designs. According to some research, some PBRs had CO<sub>2</sub> capture potential that was on par with solvent absorption based on amines.

### 7.2.1. Tubular photobioreactors

Transparent glass or plastic tubes with a diameter of 5 to 20 cm are used to make tubular PBRs. For optimal circulation and to enable efficient CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> exchange between the liquid medium and the aeration gas, the system is typically connected to a sizable reservoir and above tubes. An airlift device can also be employed [93]. To ensure proper distribution of light to individual cells, prevent cell deposition, and provide adequate mixing, flow rates are usually between 30 and 50 cm s<sup>-1</sup> [94]. Long tubes can create a significant gradient in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, which can in certain cells and cause a pH gradient, which interferes with carbon fixation. This is one of the primary issues with tubular PBRs [95].



**Figure 10.** Microalgae growth in photobioreactors with horizontal tubing [95].



### 7.2.2. Airlift bubble column photobioreactors

Using a baffle or draft tube, an airlift PBR separates fluid volume into two connected zones. Gas mass transfer is enhanced and light exposure is increased by the liquid's circular motion and micro-macro bubbles [96]. The biological performance of certain microalgae may be impacted by high shear stress, but increasing the aeration rate can efficiently distribute CO<sub>2</sub> and prevent O<sub>2</sub> accumulation [97].

However, scaling up this aeration mode is challenging because of its intricate flow patterns [91]. The scale-up problem was recently resolved with the development of a split-column airlift PBR, whose biomass productivity was found to be 15–30% higher than that of traditional bubble column systems [98].

### 7.2.3. Flat plate photobioreactors

Because of their exceptionally high surface area to volume ratios, flat plate PBRs can transmit enough light to sustain a high biomass production. Baffles can be added for aeration, and reactors are usually built with short light paths in mind [99]. At the reactor's bottom, a perforated tube is used to admit gas. Aeration rates between 0.023 and 1.000 vvm are appropriate for a CO<sub>2</sub>/air mixture of 5–10% v/v [100]. However, there are disadvantages, including hydrodynamic stress, growth restriction close to the wall region, and difficulty controlling temperature [94]. Because of their flat shape, these reactors may expose a vast surface area to light. They are frequently employed in small-scale applications and research because of their excellent CO<sub>2</sub> capture efficiency.

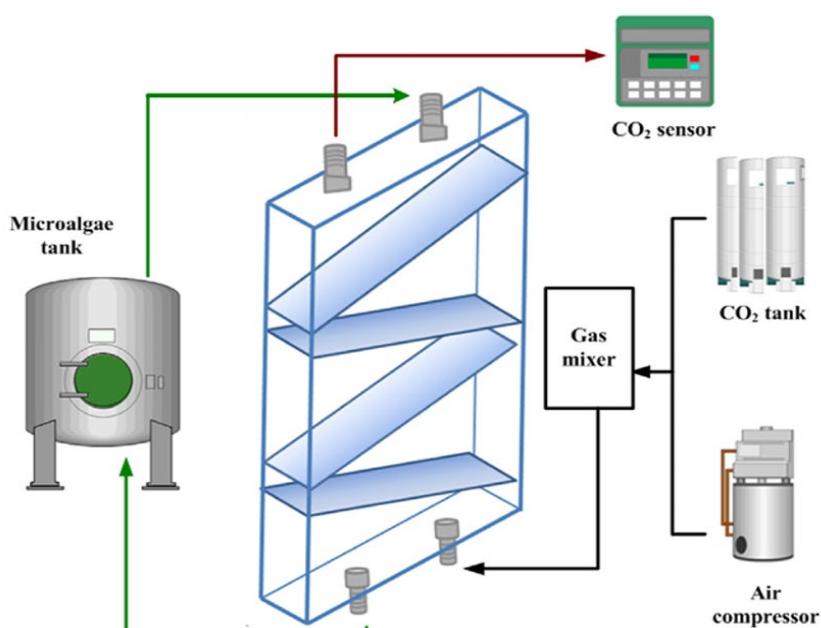


Figure 11. Photobioreactors with plates for growing microalgae

### 7.2.4. Membrane photobioreactors

Modified versions of tubular or airlift PBRs, membrane PBRs use a membrane to circumvent the mass transfer restriction. To help the CO<sub>2</sub> dissolve in the liquid, the membrane produces microscopic bubbles [101]. The mechanical strength, oxygen buildup restriction, CO<sub>2</sub> distribution, and corrosion and fouling resistance of a good membrane PBR are all important. However, fine bubbles could make the reactor hazy, which would make it impossible for light to enter. Separating gas and light supply systems into separate parts was recommended; however, this would be costly and challenging to scale. In order to provide a broad surface area for gas exchange, these reactors use hollow fibers. They are frequently employed in cutting-edge research applications and are effective at trapping CO<sub>2</sub> [102]. *Chlorella vulgaris* cultures' ability to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere was evaluated by [105]. In the membrane-treated air, the CO<sub>2</sub> levels were correlated with the CO<sub>2</sub>



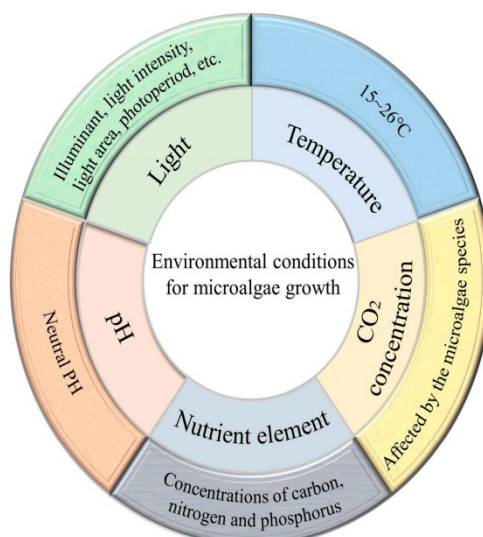
collection efficiency. Table 3 summarizes the different *Chlorella* species and their corresponding CO<sub>2</sub> fixation rates or removal percentages under various cultivation conditions.

**Table 3.** *Chlorella* species and their CO<sub>2</sub> fixation rate or removal percentage. Adapted from<sup>[103]</sup>. (PBR = photobioreactor).

Chlorella type	Initial CO <sub>2</sub> (%) (v/v)	CO <sub>2</sub> fixation rate (g L <sup>-1</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	% of removal accomplished (v/v)	Cultivation system	References
<i>C. vulgaris</i>	0.03 (Air)	0.06	92.2	Sequential bioreactor	[104]
	0.09 (Air)	3.55	96.9	Membrane sparged helical tubular bioreactor	[105]
	5	1.5	35	Sequential bioreactor	[104]
	0.106	3.55	80	Lab scale PBR	[106]
<i>Chlorella</i> sp.	5	0.86	0.86	Bubble column	[107]
	15	0.75	85.6	Air lift PBR	[108]
	10	0.89	46	Open way pond	[66]
	5	0.7	1.5	Vertical tubular bioreactor	[109]

## 8. Environmental factors affecting microalgal growth

Environmental Factors Affecting Microalgae Growth Figure 12 displays the effects of different environmental factors on the rate of microalgae growth. Each species of microalgae has a different range of ideal conditions for attaining high growth efficiency and CO<sub>2</sub> fixation rates. The following summarizes how the microalgae's growing circumstances have an impact on how well they sequester carbon and biomass production.



**Figure 12.** The rate at which microalgae grow is affected by various growth environment conditions <sup>[57]</sup>.

### 8.1. Light

The primary energy source that affects photosynthetic dynamics is light in microalgae. Modifying the light source, intensity, interval, area, etc., it can influence cell growth and metabolism <sup>[110]</sup>. An excessive amount of light might cause photooxidation. The primary energy source influencing microalgae's photosynthetic dynamics is light, it regulates the light source, light intensity, interval, area, etc. to influence

cell growth and metabolism <sup>[36]</sup>. Too much light can cause photooxidation and photoinhibition, while too little light would restrict growth <sup>[111]</sup>. According to the majority, the main factor lowering algal output is photoinhibition. The microalgae growth rate at low light levels increases linearly with increasing light intensity until light saturation is reached. Microalgae typically grow best at light intensities between 26 and 400 mol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup><sup>[112]</sup>.

## 8.2. Temperature

Temperature is another crucial environmental component for microalgae growth and target-product production in commercial microalgae cultivation systems. Temperature variations for outdoor microalgae cultivation are heavily influenced by seasonal variations and light exposure, or the day/night cycle. In Taiwan, the temperature variation range is between 25°C and 45°C. While microalgae biomass production would decline at high temperatures mainly because of denaturation of vital proteins and enzymes and inhibitory effects on cellular physiology, microalgae growth could be encouraged by the right cultivation temperature. The effect of temperature on the growth rate of microalgae has been reported for a variety of microalgae species. For example, when *Chaetoceros pseudocurvisetus* was cultivated at 25°C, its growth rate peaked <sup>[113]</sup>.

## 8.3. PH

An additional crucial environmental factor for the growth of microalgae and the creation of target products is pH. For the majority of cultivated microalgae species, a pH of 7 to 9 is ideal <sup>[114]</sup>. Because it largely determines the solubility and availability of carbonates and CO<sub>2</sub> as well as the optimal operation of intracellular and cell-wall-associated enzymes, the pH of the culture medium has a significant impact on the growth of microalgae. The majority of microalgae can be grown in environments with a pH of neutral <sup>[115]</sup>, with some exceptions, like *Spirulina* at pH 11 and *Chlorococcum* at pH 4.0 <sup>[51]</sup>. found that the ideal pH range for *Nannochloropsis oculata* growth was between 5.5 and 6.5 <sup>[116]</sup>. The highest lipid content and CO<sub>2</sub> fixation rate were found in *Graesiella* sp. WBG-1 at pH 8.0–9.0, at 46.28% and 0.26 g/L/d, respectively <sup>[117]</sup>.

## 8.4. Nutrient element

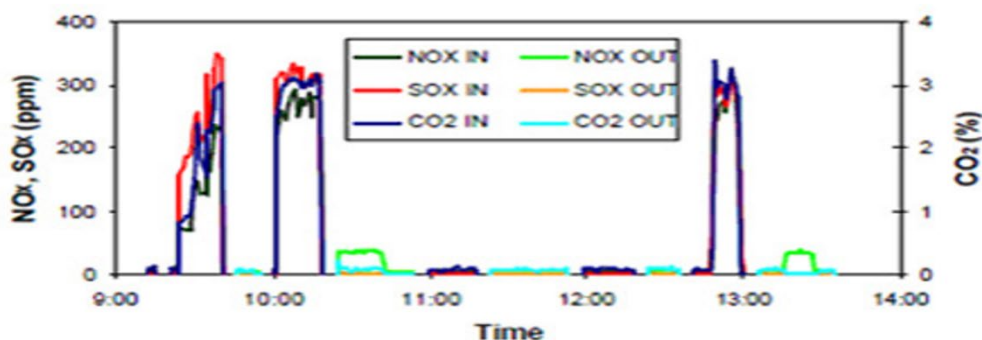
Phosphorus, carbon, and nitrogen are essential for biomass growth and the synthesis of microalgae cells. In microalgae, the species, morphology, and nutrient quality all affect photosynthesis. One of the key elements influencing biomass accumulation, value-added component productivity, and carbon fixation efficiency is the carbon–nitrogen ratio (C/N). *Spirulina platensis* was cultivated in particular cultures after being exposed to nuclear radiation. The hybrid process's carbon utilization efficiency could reach 40.45% when NH<sub>4</sub>HCO<sub>3</sub> to NaNO<sub>3</sub> was fixed at a ratio of 1:4. However, microalgae will also become poisonous due to an overabundance of NH<sub>4</sub>HCO<sub>3</sub>, which lowers the biological yield <sup>[118]</sup>.

## 8.5. Carbon dioxide capture and sequestration by microalgae

Algal mass culture pond systems can be used to convert CO<sub>2</sub> from a variety of industrial sources, including power plants, cement, steel, and chemical industries, among others, into biomass. It is possible to send flue gases straight to microalgae production or to remove the CO<sub>2</sub> from the flue gases before injecting it. Indirect stimulation of land species by flue gases is an alternate method that may be cost-effective while being much less direct and efficient than applying CO<sub>2</sub> directly to terrestrial crops via enclosures, which is likely to be prohibitively expensive. Because of these factors, many people think that the only viable way to produce biodiesel is through microalgae [23, 29], even though there is a lot of debate concerning it <sup>[119]</sup>.

The carbon-concentrating mechanism (CCM) is a mechanism used by microalgae to absorb CO<sub>2</sub>, utilizing a particular organelle (pyrenoid) to boost CO<sub>2</sub> levels surrounding thylakoid membranes <sup>[120]</sup>. Due to its evolution in both CO<sub>2</sub>-rich and O<sub>2</sub>-poor environments, rubisco has a low affinity for binding CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the pyrenoid works to preserve ideal circumstances for a higher CO<sub>2</sub> binding capability <sup>[68]</sup>.

Figure 13 displays the typical coal combustion flue gas composition both before and after it enters the 2,000-liter pilot-scale PBR microalgal photobioreactor. When the culture was kept at pH 7.5, the mass calculations show that the microalgal culture was able to absorb around 70% of the available CO<sub>2</sub>. Examination of the coal combustion gases both before and after they pass through the pilot-scale photobioreactor <sup>[121]</sup>.



**Figure 13.** shows the composition of the flue gas before and after entering the tubular reactor. It is demonstrated in this report that <sup>[121]</sup>.

- Microalgae have the capacity to absorb anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> from real coal and combustion gases as well as from a wide range of simulated flue gases.
- Under a broad range of pH and gas concentrations, microalgae may absorb anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>.
- The pH of the culture has a direct impact on the microalgae's ability to collect CO<sub>2</sub>, but variations in the gas composition have no effect.
- The procedure can be scaled up to industrially meaningful levels.

## 9. Conclusion

The usage of fossil fuels is growing along with the demand for energy, which leads to carbon emissions. This makes a commercially feasible carbon conversion technology even more necessary. The three main techniques for capturing CO<sub>2</sub> (adsorbents, solvents, and membranes) were determined. It was described how algae are used to collect and sequester CO<sub>2</sub> during photosynthesis. An approach to capturing carbon and using it to potentially create biodiesel has been made possible by algae growing systems. Although closed systems are superior because they offer a controlled environment and a higher biomass productivity, open systems are frequently employed since they are easier to use and less expensive. Research on the suitability of microalgae species for CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration is required. Closed systems have higher production costs than open systems, while the latter have higher operating costs. Additionally, compared to the open system, the close cultivation system requires a smaller plant capacity, but the closed system produces a vast amount of microalgae. Future progress in microalgae-based CO<sub>2</sub> capture requires addressing several research gaps. First, the development of low-cost and energy-efficient photobioreactor designs is essential to reduce capital and operational expenses that currently limit large-scale deployment. In addition, hybrid systems that integrate conventional CCS technologies with microalgae cultivation could enhance overall capture efficiency while enabling simultaneous production of high-value biomass. Further investigation is also needed to optimize microalgae strains capable of tolerating fluctuating flue-gas compositions and harsh industrial environments.

From a policy perspective, supporting frameworks and incentives are crucial to accelerate the adoption of microalgae-based carbon capture. Policies that encourage carbon pricing, renewable-energy integration, and circular-bioeconomy strategies can significantly improve the feasibility of these systems. Moreover, coupling microalgae cultivation with renewable-energy sources such as solar or waste-heat recovery can reduce the carbon footprint of the process and enhance long-term sustainability. These directions highlight the need for

coordinated scientific, technological, and policy efforts to advance microalgae-driven CO<sub>2</sub> mitigation. It is still necessary to investigate the CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration technique's cost-effectiveness for microalgae cultivation and harvesting in light of current economic realities. For the technology to compete favorably with current technologies, cost-effectiveness should be the primary focus of both design and operation.

## Nomenclature

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CCM	CO <sub>2</sub> concentrating mechanism
3PGA	3-phosphoglycerate
AFOLU	Agriculture, forestry and other land use
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate
BECCS	Bioenergy with carbon capture and storage
CCS	Carbon capture and storage
PBRs	Photobioreactors
RuBP	Ribulose-1, 5-bisphosphate
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate
DAC	Direct air capture
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
RuBisCo	Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase

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## Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest

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