

Review

Enhancing CO₂ Fixation in Microalgal Systems: Mechanistic Insights and Bioreactor Strategies

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Abstract: Microalgae are small, single-celled, or simple multicellular organisms that contain Chlorophyll a, allowing them to efficiently convert CO₂ and water into organic matter through photosynthesis. They are valuable in producing a range of products such as biofuels, food, pharmaceuticals, and cosmetics, making them economically and environmentally significant. Currently, CO₂ is delivered to microalgae cultivation systems mainly through aeration with CO₂-enriched gases. However, this method demonstrates limited CO₂ absorption efficiency (13–20%), which reduces carbon utilization effectiveness and significantly increases carbon-source expenditure. To overcome these challenges, innovative CO₂ supplementation technologies have been introduced, raising CO₂ utilization rates to over 50%, accelerating microalgae growth, and reducing cultivation costs. This review first categorizes CO₂ supplementation technologies used in photobioreactor systems, focusing on different mechanisms for enhancing CO₂ mass transfer. It then evaluates the effectiveness of these technologies and explores their potential for scaling up. Among these strategies, membrane-based CO₂ delivery systems and the incorporation of CO₂ absorption enhancers have shown the highest efficiency in boosting CO₂ mass transfer and microalgae productivity. Future efforts should focus on integrating these methods into large-scale photobioreactor systems to optimize cost-effective, sustainable production.

Keywords: microalgae; photobioreactor systems; CO₂ supplementation techniques; large-scale deployment

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1. Introduction

Microalgae have the capability to fix CO₂ through photosynthesis, producing a range of valuable chemicals. Certain species, such as *Botryococcus braunii*, can generate hydrocarbons that constitute 15% to 75% of their dry weight. Other species accumulate glycogen or glycerol, and many have lipid contents exceeding 30% of their dry weight [1,2]. The pyrolysis of microalgal biomass can produce biofuels with an average calorific value of up to 33 MJ/kg [3]. Moreover, microalgae can be cultivated in seawater, alkaline water, or semi-alkaline water, which helps avoid competition with crops for arable land and freshwater. They can also utilize nitrogen-rich wastewater, making them a valuable resource in areas with limited freshwater and degraded land [4,5]. Thus, microalgae present a promising future source of energy and chemicals.

The carbon content in microalgal cells represents about half of their dry weight. During growth, microalgae fix CO₂ into their cellular components through photosynthesis, necessitating a continuous supply of carbon sources in the cultivation medium [6]. In the medium, inorganic carbon exists in three forms: HCO₃[−], CO₃^{2−}, and free CO₂. The concentration and ratio of these forms depend on the total inorganic carbon concentration

and pH [7]. For most economically valuable microalgal species, the optimal growth pH ranges from 6 to 8, during which the primary forms of inorganic carbon in the medium are free CO_2 and HCO_3^- . In contrast, alkaliphilic species, such as *Spirulina*, thrive at a pH of around 9.0, where the dominant carbon species are HCO_3^- and CO_3^{2-} . When sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO_3) is used, the medium's pH increases due to the dissociation of HCO_3^- and CO_2 consumption. This process can convert more than half of the NaHCO_3 into Na_2CO_3 , which is not usable by the microalgae and complicates medium recycling due to the elevated pH [8]. Using CO_2 directly as a carbon source is more effective for microalgae, as it avoids the issue of rising pH and helps maintain an optimal cultivation environment, allowing for extended or repeated use of the medium.

Microalgal cultivation methods are generally divided into open and closed systems [9]. Both typically involve bubbling CO_2 -enriched gas into the cultivation medium, but this method is inefficient due to low CO_2 absorption rates (13–20%), leading to high carbon-source costs [10,11]. Since carbon accounts for approximately half of the dry weight of microalgal cells, an increase of 1 g/L in cell concentration requires the assimilation of around 2 g/L of CO_2 . However, the solubility of pure CO_2 in water is relatively low, at only 1.45 g/L at 25 °C, and even lower when CO_2 is sourced from air, with a solubility of just 0.58 mg/L under the same conditions. This limited solubility poses a significant challenge for maintaining sufficient inorganic carbon availability in the cultivation medium. Therefore, enhancing the concentration of inorganic carbon species and improving CO_2 absorption efficiency are critical for supporting rapid microalgal growth and minimizing cultivation costs.

Recent advancements have led to the development of innovative CO_2 supplementation technologies designed to meet the rapid growth requirements of microalgae while reducing cultivation costs. Examples include in situ CO_2 supplementation devices in raceway ponds, which increase gas–liquid contact time and surface area, and methods that improve CO_2 absorption and conversion using immobilized carbonic anhydrase [7,12,13]. This review categorizes these CO_2 supplementation technologies based on their mechanisms for enhancing CO_2 mass transfer, assesses their effectiveness, and explores the potential for scaling up these technologies. By systematically addressing these objectives, this review aims to offer a comprehensive understanding of CO_2 management in microalgal cultivation and highlight innovative strategies to overcome the limitations of conventional carbon-supplementation methods.

2. Methodologies and Devices for Enhancing CO_2 Mass Transfer in Microalgal Systems

2.1. CO_2 Mass-Transfer Process

Under photoautotrophic growth conditions, microalgae use inorganic carbon sources to synthesize organic compounds and convert light energy into chemical energy. Microalgae can absorb both CO_2 and HCO_3^- but cannot utilize CO_3^{2-} [14]. CO_2 enters the cells through diffusion and is used directly, while HCO_3^- , being a polar and negatively charged ion, requires active transport across the cell membrane, a process that consumes energy [15]. Consequently, the absorption of HCO_3^- is slower compared to CO_2 , though some algae species that thrive in high pH environments, such as *Spirulina*, exhibit better HCO_3^- absorption.

During CO_2 transfer in the cultivation medium, it can react with OH^- and CO_3^{2-} , though these reactions have minimal impact on CO_2 transfer efficiency [16]. In microalgal culture media, CO_2 transfer is a multi-step process involving several stages: from the gas phase to the gas film, diffusion within the gas film, transfer from the gas film to the liquid film, diffusion through the liquid film, movement from the liquid film into the liquid phase,

diffusion within the liquid phase, transfer from the liquid phase to the liquid film at the cell-wall surface, and finally, cellular absorption. According to the two-membrane theory, the primary resistance to CO₂ transfer occurs within the liquid film, which serves as the main barrier limiting the efficiency of gas–liquid mass transfer [17,18]. The mass-transfer rate is proportional to the driving force and the area available for mass transfer. The rate of CO₂ transfer can be expressed as:

$$N_{\text{CO}_2} = K_{L,a}(C_{\text{CO}_2,L}^* - C_{\text{CO}_2,L}) \quad (1)$$

where $K_{L,a}$ is the overall liquid volumetric mass-transfer coefficient for the absorption of CO₂, dependent on factors like phase contact area and the intensity of gas–liquid mixing. $C_{\text{CO}_2,L}^*$ represents the CO₂ concentration in the liquid phase at equilibrium with the gas-phase concentration.

2.2. In Situ CO₂ Supplementation

To enhance CO₂ absorption in algal medium, several in situ CO₂ supplementation devices have been developed. Kumar et al. improved CO₂ mass transfer by using hollow-fiber membranes, which provide a significantly larger interphase contact area compared to traditional bubbling methods, resulting in a mass-transfer coefficient approximately ten times greater (Figure 1A) [19]. This technology enhances CO₂ absorption efficiency and facilitates CO₂ recycling, thereby reducing cultivation costs [20]. Ketheesan et al. introduced a novel airlift raceway-pond design where CO₂ is injected into an ascending channel, increasing CO₂ and liquid contact time and achieving a 50% absorption rate [21]. Our research team implemented an in situ CO₂ supplementation trap device in an open raceway pond for *Spirulina platensis* cultivation (Figure 1B) [22]. This device, featuring a trap container, partition, and gas distributor, effectively extended the gas–liquid contact time from 3 s to 8 s and enhanced CO₂ utilization efficiency to over 90% (Table 1). Chen et al. utilized a leak-proof cover over the cultivation layer, which collected CO₂ and created a large gas–liquid exchange area (Figure 1C), though challenges included limited gas–liquid exchange surface area, the accumulation of oxygen and nitrogen, and reduced light transmittance [23]. Our research team also developed a submerged cover-type CO₂ supplementation device installed at the bottom of open ponds. Transparent glass covers above the aeration points and below the liquid surface allowed bubbles to have extended contact time with the liquid, reducing CO₂ escape and improving CO₂ absorption efficiency [24].

In closed photobioreactors, Bergmann et al. enhanced bubble residence time by modifying flat-panel reactors to multiple chambers, achieving over 80% CO₂ absorption (Figure 2A) [25]. Huang et al. further enhanced gas–liquid mixing in flat-panel reactors by incorporating disturbance columns or inclined baffles (Figure 2B). This modification increased mixing intensity by up to 52%, significantly boosting the CO₂ mass-transfer coefficient [26]. The tubular photobioreactor, currently the most widely used closed photobioreactor, has evolved through multiple generations into a structure comprising light absorption units, gas–liquid exchange units, and circulation pumps. CO₂ can be introduced into the gas–liquid exchange unit or before the culture liquid enters the light absorption unit, or at a specific position within the light absorption unit. Under the action of the circulation pump, the gas moves with the liquid and is gradually absorbed, resulting in high CO₂ absorption rates (Figure 2C) [27].

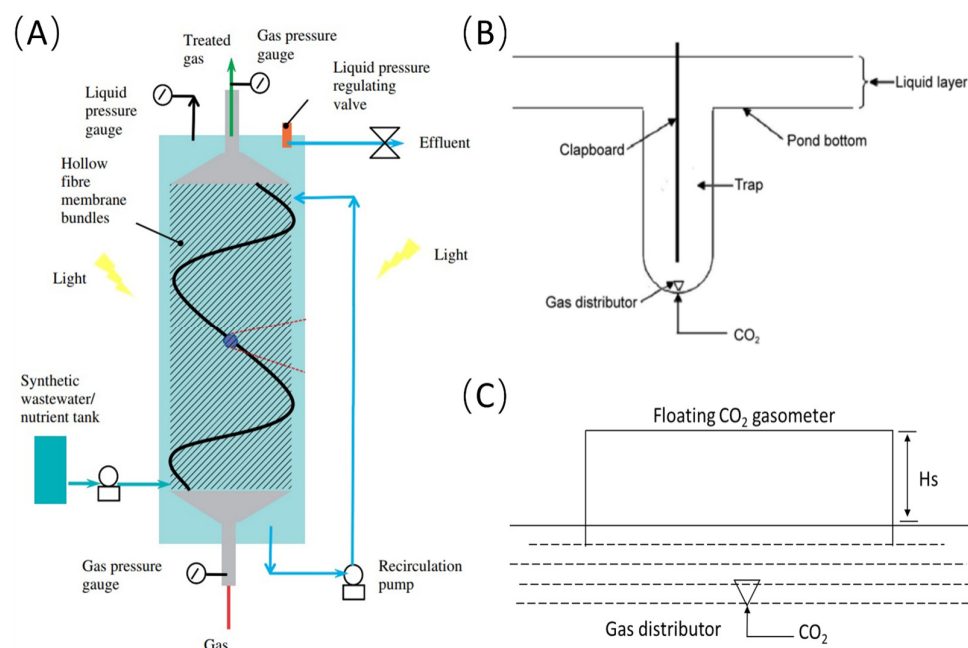


Figure 1. In situ carbon-supplementation devices in microalgae cultivation systems; (A) hollow fiber membrane module; (B) trap-type carbon-supplementation device; (C) leak-proof cover device.

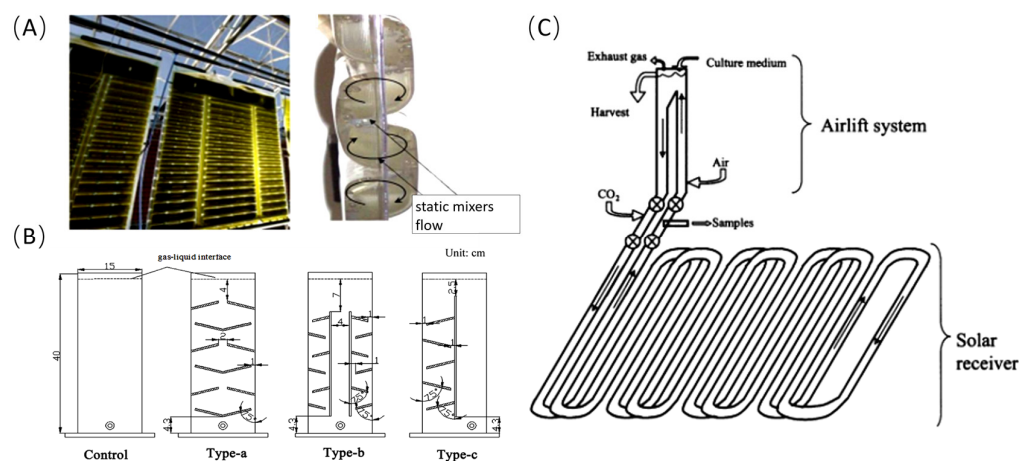


Figure 2. Closed photobioreactor and structural modifications for enhanced CO₂ mass transfer; (A) multi-chamber structure of flexible flat-panel reactor; (B) different types of baffle structures in flat-panel reactors; (C) tubular reactor and CO₂ supplementation positions.

Table 1. Effect of methodologies and devices on microalgae growth and CO₂ utilization efficiency.

Microalgal Culture System	Methodologies or Devices	Species	Biomass	CO ₂ Utilization Efficiency	Mechanisms	Reference
Photobioreactor	Hollow fiber membrane	<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	2131 mg/ L ↑	85% ↑	Increase the interfacial contact area available for gas transfer	[19,20]
Raceway pond	An ascending channel	<i>Scenedesmus</i> sp.	0.16 ± 0.03 g/(L·d) ↑	50% ↑	Increase mixing intensity	[21]
Raceway pond	CO ₂ supplementation trap device	<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	3.45–6.04 g/(m ² ·d) ↑	90% ↑	Prolong gas–liquid contact time	[22]
Open pond	Leak-proof cover	<i>Cyanobacterium</i> sp.	2.5 g/L ↑	80% ↑	Create a large gas–liquid exchange area	[23]

Table 1. Cont.

Microalgal Culture System	Methodologies or Devices	Species	Biomass	CO ₂ Utilization Efficiency	Mechanisms	Reference
Open pond	Submerged cover-type	<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	13.3 g/(m ² ·d) ↑	92% ↑	Prolong gas–liquid contact time	[24]
Photobioreactor	Multiple chambers	<i>Nannochloropsis salina</i>	0.12 g/(L·d) ↑	80% ↑	Enhance bubble residence time	[25]
Flat-plate PBRs	Inclined baffles	<i>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</i>	1.3 g/ L	No data	Increase mixing intensity	[26]
Raceway pond	Vertical absorption tower	<i>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</i>	20 g/(m ² ·d) ↑	83% ↑	Prolong gas–liquid contact time	[28]
Open pond	Absorption tank	<i>Spirulina platensis</i>	6–12 g/(m ² ·d)	>50%	Increase mixing intensity	[4,29]

↑ indicates that the indicators of the experimental group have improved compared with the control group.

2.3. Ex Situ CO₂ Supplementation

In addition to in situ carbon-supplementation devices in photobioreactor systems, some ex situ carbon-supplementation devices have also been developed. Putt et al. set up a vertical absorption tower outside the raceway pond, with a dynamic pump driving the culture medium to circulate between the vertical absorption tower and the raceway pond, achieving a CO₂ absorption rate of 83% [28]. Trench-type carbon supplementation involves excavating a deep trench adjacent to the cultivation pond, allowing the culture medium to flow through it, with aeration pipes installed at the trench bottom to supply CO₂ [30]. In practical applications, these carbon-supplementation trenches are often designed in a funnel or conical shape to enhance flow dynamics. However, this method disrupts the conventional spatial configuration of open ponds, and over time, CO₂ can accumulate at the trench bottom, creating a mass-transfer dead zone and reducing the system's overall effectiveness. Increasing the aeration rate can mitigate the formation of dead zones, but it inevitably shortens bubble residence time, leading to greater CO₂ escape into the atmosphere. During large-scale *Spirulina* cultivation, the culture liquid, after being enriched with CO₂ in a carbon-supplementation tank, is returned to the cultivation pond for photosynthetic production [4,29]. The development and application of these carbon-supplementation technologies have increased the annual production of *Spirulina* by 20%, reduced annual sodium bicarbonate usage by 66%, and lowered carbon-source costs by 58% [31] (Figure 3).

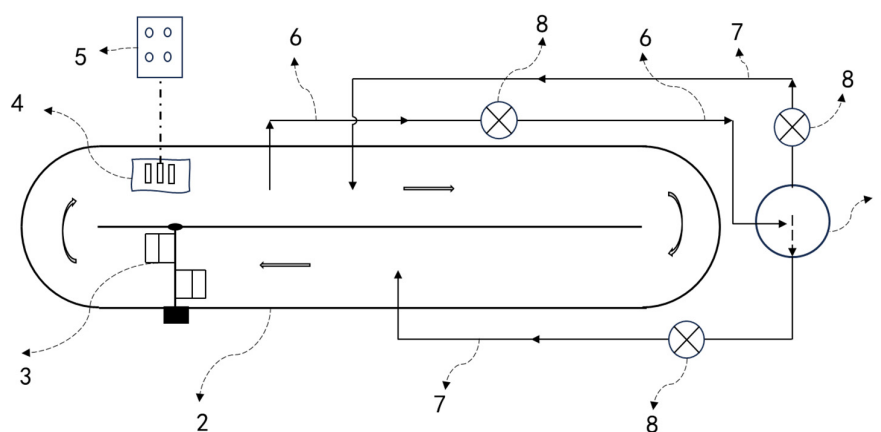


Figure 3. Microalgae cultivation system equipped with ex situ CO₂ supplementation devices. (1) vertical column CO₂ absorption tower, or CO₂ absorption tank, (2) open raceway pond, (3) paddle wheel, (4) pH/O₂ electrode, (5) control system, (6) medium outlet pipe, (7) medium inlet pipe, (8) circulation pump.

In summary, CO₂ supplementation strategies that extend gas–liquid contact time or enhance gas–liquid mixing intensity often come at the cost of increased energy consumption.

For instance, the incorporation of CO₂ supplementation trenches in raceway ponds prolongs bubble residence time; however, maintaining the same liquid flow rate results in an 80% increase in the energy consumption of the paddlewheel system [21]. In contrast, membrane-based technologies enhance CO₂ mass-transfer efficiency without significantly increasing energy demand. This approach diffuses CO₂ into the liquid medium through a nonporous hollow-fiber membrane, eliminating macroscopic bubbles. It achieves three times the CO₂ mass-transfer efficiency of conventional sparging while avoiding the shear forces associated with micro- and nano-bubbles that can damage microalgal cells.

3. Strategies for Enhancing CO₂ Mass Transfer Using Chemical Solvents

According to the two-membrane theory and the CO₂ mass-transfer model in the culture medium (Equation (1)), the primary resistance to CO₂ transfer occurs at the liquid membrane interface. In addition to increasing the overall volumetric mass-transfer coefficient by enhancing gas–liquid mixing intensity, increasing the gas–liquid contact specific area, and extending the gas–liquid contact time, the efficiency of CO₂ mass transfer in the culture medium can also be improved by introducing chemical reactions and altering the physical properties of the culture medium [32,33].

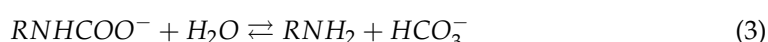
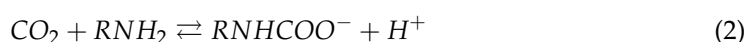
3.1. Novel Enhancing Mechanism of Introducing Chemical Reaction

During CO₂ transfer in the culture medium, it reacts with OH[−] and CO₃^{2−} present in the medium. However, it has been indicated that these chemical reactions have minimal impact on CO₂ transfer and absorption, primarily because the optimal pH for most microalgae is close to neutral, resulting in low concentrations of OH[−] and CO₃^{2−} in the medium under such conditions. If a high-concentration alkaline solution is thoroughly contacted with CO₂-containing gas in an ex situ absorption tower (Figure 3), the resulting carbon-rich solution can be used as a carbon source for microalgae cultivation, ensuring high CO₂ absorption rates and meeting the substantial carbon-source demand of microalgae. Zhu et al. used NaOH and Na₂CO₃ solutions as absorbents, and after convective mass transfer with CO₂-containing gas, the primary inorganic carbon species in the resulting CO₂-enriched solution was HCO₃[−]. This solution was used as a carbon source to achieve high-density cultivation of *Spirulina*, alkali-resistant *Oscillatoria*, and *Isochrysis galbana*, resulting in high CO₂ utilization rates in closed floating photobioreactors [34–36]. However, as previously mentioned, the continuous proliferation of microalgal cells leads to an increase in the pH of the culture medium, promoting the conversion of HCO₃[−] into CO₃^{2−}. Since CO₃^{2−} is not a bioavailable form of inorganic carbon for microalgae, this results in carbon-source wastage. Moreover, the use of NaOH or Na₂CO₃ solutions as absorbents elevates the Na⁺ ion concentration in the culture medium, increasing extracellular osmotic pressure and adversely affecting microalgal growth. For instance, *Chlorella*, a typical freshwater microalga, can tolerate salinity levels of only 5–10‰. In addition to inhibiting growth, elevated salinity complicates the recycling and reuse of the culture medium, further reducing the efficiency of the cultivation process [37,38].

Our research team has explored the strategy of using “ammonium hydroxide” as a nitrogen source to enhance microalgae growth and CO₂ absorption. The primary product of CO₂ absorption by ammonia water is ammonium bicarbonate, which can be directly used by microalgae cells as both a carbon and nitrogen source without introducing additional metal ions. This strategy can significantly reduce nutrient costs in microalgae cultivation [39]. By combining pH-feedback CO₂ supplementation strategies with the metabolic kinetics of microalgae cells regarding nitrogen sources, stable control of low-concentration ammonium salts in the culture medium can be achieved, avoiding the inhibition of algal-cell growth and nitrogen-source loss due to ammonia volatilization [40]. Furthermore, using a closed

gas-lift reactor for cultivating *Chlorella* sp., CO₂ utilization rates reached 87.8%. In open raceway ponds, using a simple bottom-bubbling method for CO₂ supplementation resulted in a CO₂ utilization rate of 35.58%, which is an increase of 14.46% compared to the control group. However, 1 mol of ammonia water absorbs approximately 0.3–0.8 mol of CO₂. Based on the elemental composition of microalgae cells (CH_{1.911}O_{0.496}N_{0.196}P_{0.007}S_{0.005}), the required C/N ratio for the culture medium is approximately 5 [41,42]. Thus, when using the “ammonium hydroxide” strategy for microalgae cultivation, a substantial amount of CO₂ must still be supplemented to meet the fast growth requirements for carbon sources.

Amines are commonly used CO₂ absorbents in carbon capture, storage, and utilization (CCUS) applications [43]. These include monoethanolamine (MEA), diethanolamine (DEA), triethanolamine (TEA), and N-methyldiethanolamine (MDEA), which react reversibly with CO₂ as follows:



The impact of adding amine-based CO₂ absorbents to microalgae cultivation systems on carbon-source utilization and microalgae growth have been investigated by our team and the other researchers (Table 2) [44–67]. The introduction of chemical reactions increases the CO₂ mass-transfer rate (with a chemical absorption enhancement factor $\beta > 1.0$) [32]. Additionally, the resulting carbamate (RNHCOO[−]) acts as a “CO₂ carrier”, becoming the fourth form of carbon species in the culture medium. Under near-neutral pH conditions, as microalgae cells consume CO₂ and HCO₃[−], HCO₃[−] is gradually released from the carbamate, acting as a slow-release carbon reservoir. It is indicated that the addition of amine-based CO₂ absorbents can enhance the biomass productivity of *Spirulina*, and *Chlorella*. In column reactors, CO₂ utilization efficiency increased from 44.5% to 76.1% [46–50]. It is worth noting that most amine molecules are not easily metabolized by microalgae cells, allowing them to act as a repeated CO₂ capture agent in the culture medium [48]. However, Rosa et al. found that high concentrations of chemical absorbents can inhibit microalgae growth. For instance, when MEA concentrations exceed 150 mg/L, microalgae biomass productivity decreases, and cell growth and intracellular metabolic activity are suppressed [51,52]. This phenomenon may be attributed to the corrosive nature of high-concentration amine solutions. Therefore, selecting an appropriate “CO₂ carrier” requires careful consideration of its biocompatibility.

Table 2. Effect of adding chemical absorbents or immobilized enzymes on microalgae growth and CO₂ utilization efficiency.

Absorbents or Immobilized Enzymes	CO ₂ Content	Species	Biomass	CO ₂ Utilization Efficiency	Reference
100 mg/L MEA	10%	<i>Scenedesmus dimorphus</i>	0.293 g/(L·d) ↑	76.1% ↑	[44]
6 mmol/L THAM	100%	<i>Scenedesmus dimorphus</i>	11.57 g/(m ² ·d) ↑	35.58% ↑	[45]
2 mmol/L TEA	4%	<i>Scenedesmus</i> sp.	0.664 g/(L·d) ↑	No data	[46]
1.64 mol/L EDA + 0.41 mmol/L K ₂ CO ₃	0.04%	<i>Spirulina</i> sp. LEB18	0.174 g/(L·d) ↑	No data	[47]
12% N-heptane	15%	<i>Chlorella</i> sp.	0.084 g/(L·d) ↑	64.7% ↑	[48]
100–150 mg/L MEA	50%	<i>Chlorella fusca</i> LEB 111	0.096–0.122 g/(L·d) ↓	37% ↑	[49]
1 mmol/L TMEDA	15%	<i>Chlorella</i> sp. L166	0.072 g/(L·d) ↑	43.29% ↑	[50]
CA–GA beads	Air	<i>Nannochloropsis salina</i>	0.040 g/(L·d) ↑	No data	[13]
Immobilized CA on Electrospun Nanofibers	15%	<i>Dunaliella. tertiolecta</i> ATCC 30929	6.8 × 10 ⁵ cells/(mL·d) ↑	No data	[64]
Metal–organic frameworks	1.50%	<i>Scenedesmus obliquus</i>	0.240 g/(L·d) ↑	21.6% ↑	[65]
CA encapsulation using bamboo cellulose scaffolds	5%	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	0.275 g/(L·d) ↑	No data	[67]

↑ indicates that the indicators of the experimental group have improved compared with the control group,
 ↓ indicates that the experimental group’s indicators have improved compared with the control group.

3.2. Novel Enhancing Mechanism of Altering the Medium's Physical Properties

In industrial applications, methods for CO₂ capture from flue gases also include low-temperature methanol methods (Restisol process), ethylene glycol ether methods, propylene carbonate methods (Flour process), and N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone methods [53,54]. These compounds do not chemically react with CO₂ but enhance CO₂ solubility in the liquid phase by altering the physicochemical properties of the absorbent, such as reducing surface tension. Since CO₂ solubility in solvents follows Henry's Law, these absorbents generally have lower Henry's coefficients compared to aqueous solvents. Therefore, adding such absorbents to microalgae cultivation systems effectively increases the equilibrium concentration of CO₂ in the liquid phase, thereby promoting CO₂ absorption according to the mass-transfer model (Equation (1)) [50,55,56].

Using gas-lift photobioreactors to cultivate *Chlorella* sp., our research indicated that the addition of four types of absorption enhancers—methanol, NHD, PC, and NMP—can significantly increase CO₂ utilization rates during cultivation, with an optimal condition improving CO₂ utilization by 71%, without significantly affecting the biochemical composition of the microalgae [55]. A method is utilized where a water-immiscible solvent is directly added to a microalgal culture, simultaneously allowing for increased CO₂ absorption by the algae while also extracting lipids from the cells in a single process, eliminating the need for separate cultivation and extraction steps; often, n-heptane is used as the water-immiscible solvent due to its ability to act as a "CO₂ sink" and readily extract lipids without significantly harming the algal cells [50].

4. Carbonic Anhydrase-Assisted CO₂ Absorption and Conversion

CO₂ absorption and conversion in microalgae culture can be broadly divided into two stages: gas–liquid mass transfer and biological conversion (Figure 4). After the gas–liquid mass transfer, the dissolved inorganic carbon sources include CO₂ and HCO₃[−]. The latter is further absorbed by algal cells through two main pathways: active transport via membrane carrier proteins or conversion into CO₂ molecules under the action of extracellular carbonic anhydrase, which then rapidly diffuses into the cell [57–59]. Thus, highly active extracellular carbonic anhydrase facilitates CO₂ biological conversion, reducing the concentration of inorganic carbon sources in the liquid phase and promoting CO₂ gas–liquid mass transfer (Table 2). However, most microalgae exhibit low carbonic anhydrase activity under near-neutral conditions [60,61]. The addition of exogenous carbonic anhydrase may enhance microalgae's ability to absorb and convert CO₂, thereby influencing cell growth rates. However, the stability and durability of carbonic anhydrase in photobioreactors are currently poor [62]. In bubbling gas–liquid environments, shear forces significantly degrade enzyme activity, increasing the cost of microalgae cultivation beyond nutrient input and limiting the application of this strategy in microalgae cultivation technologies. The setup of efficient methods for enzyme immobilization makes carbonic anhydrase utilization in continuous bioreactors increasingly attractive and opens up new opportunities for the industrial use of carbonic anhydrase [12,63].

Xu et al. proposed a technique involving the addition of immobilized carbonic anhydrase microbeads to microalgae culture, which effectively addressed the issue of carbon limitation when cultivating microalgae with air CO₂ as the sole carbon source [13]. Jun et al. fixed carbonic anhydrase onto electrospun polymer nanofibers using enzyme deposition coating. This approach increased the microalgae growth rate by 134% in a bubbling reactor [64]. Yang et al. developed carbonic anhydrase-coated nylon fiber membranes and proposed a novel photobioreactor that improves CO₂ solubility and absorption rates in the microalgae solution. Testing revealed that CO₂ conversion rates increased by 62.7% with the use of this immobilized exogenous carbonic anhydrase [65]. Our team has isolated

mineralizing bacteria from soil environments that symbiotically coexist with *Chlorella* sp. These symbiotic bacteria can extensively express extracellular carbonic anhydrase. By optimizing algal–bacterial inoculation ratios and other parameters, we have developed a microalgae cultivation system that enhances CO₂ absorption through immobilized mineralizing bacteria [66]. Wang et al. utilized bamboo cellulose as a renewable porous scaffold to immobilize carbonic anhydrase through oxidation-induced aldehyde formation, followed by Schiff base linkage. The cellulose-immobilized enzyme significantly enhanced microalgal growth and biomass accumulation [67].

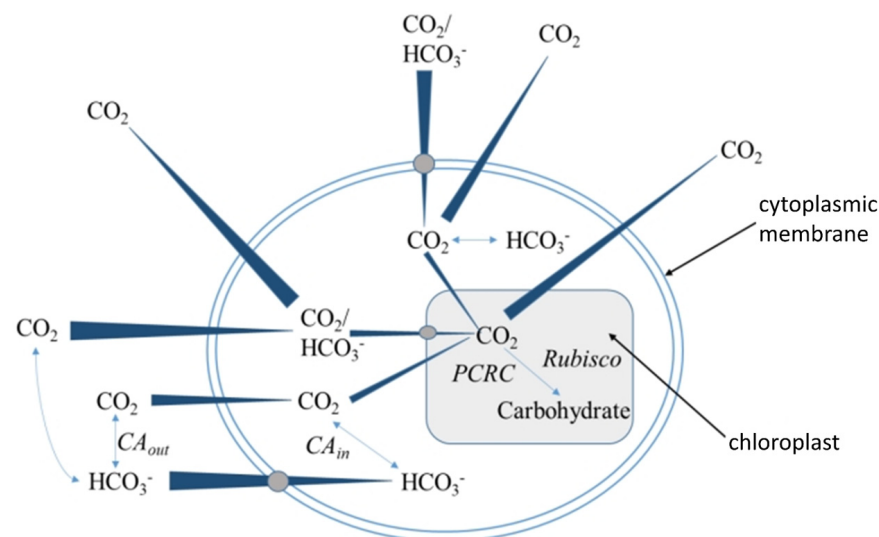


Figure 4. Diagrammatic representation of CO₂ absorption and conversion pathways in microalgae cells.

5. Challenges and Future Prospects

In the large-scale cultivation of alkaliphilic microalgae such as *Spirulina* (with an optimal pH range of 9.0–11.0), the combined use of CO₂ supplementation devices and pH-feedback CO₂ supplementation strategies can achieve carbon-source utilization rates exceeding 80%, effectively reducing cultivation costs. This is primarily due to higher CO₂ absorption rates under alkaline conditions and the higher total inorganic carbon concentration in the culture medium (maintained by adding large amounts of NaHCO₃), which supports rapid microalgal growth and carbon-source demands. In near-neutral (pH 6.0–8.0) cultivation systems (e.g., *Chlorella*, *Scenedesmus*, *Microcystis*, *Euglena*, and other economically significant algae), it is necessary to control the total inorganic carbon concentration in the carbon-rich culture medium from the supplementation device to prevent the loss of free CO₂ during circulation. This results in a lower total inorganic carbon concentration that only supports short-distance flow, depleting the carbon source and affecting algal biomass productivity.

For example, in a typical microalgae cultivation process with pH = 7, a liquid layer depth of 20 cm, an area productivity of 15 g/(m²·d), and 30 °C, if the CO₂ in the culture medium is in equilibrium with the air upon leaving the supplementation point (meaning no CO₂ loss to the air), calculations show that the total inorganic carbon concentration drops to zero after 2 min of flow (although, in practice, microalgae growth is limited before reaching zero). At a flow velocity of 20 cm/s, this equates to a distance of 24 m. Thus, in fixed-scale raceway ponds, such as those with a perimeter of over 200 m in large-scale production, multiple carbon-supplementation points are needed to reduce CO₂ loss, ensure high CO₂ utilization rates, and maintain high algal-cell productivity. For a raceway pond with a single carbon-supplementation point and a perimeter of 200 m, the low concentration

of available carbon sources quickly leads to carbon-source limitation after leaving the supplementation point, impacting algal biomass productivity. Increasing the carbon-source concentration at the supplementation point forces CO₂ to escape, exacerbating losses.

Thus, CO₂ supplementation in microalgal photobioreactor systems must achieve both high CO₂ absorption rates at supplementation points and continuously increase the total inorganic carbon concentration in the culture medium. Future research should focus on multi-scale studies and the precise application of various strategies to optimize the CO₂ absorption process for microalgae.

Firstly, the kinetics of microalgae CO₂ absorption and conversion should be comprehensively studied. Utilize visual experimental methods to explore the kinetics of CO₂ dissolution and mass transfer, identify rate-limiting steps, and establish a balance between CO₂ supplementation, dissolution, transfer, and conversion processes. Precise control strategies and models should be developed. Secondly, create new and efficient microalgae cultivation systems by integrating in situ or ex situ setups with photobioreactor systems. Investigate low-energy methods for bubble nanonization, combine gas–liquid mixing with membrane technologies, and improve CO₂ mass-transfer efficiency under near-neutral pH conditions. Finally, select compounds or enzyme preparations with good biocompatibility that increase CO₂ solubility through chemical reactions or alterations in the physicochemical properties of the culture medium. This will enhance the CO₂ sink in microalgae cultivation systems, meet the rapid carbon-source demands of microalgae growth, reduce the frequency of carbon supplementation, and save energy.

6. Conclusions

This review highlights the various CO₂ supplementation strategies aimed at enhancing the efficiency of microalgae cultivation for biotechnological applications. Traditional aeration methods often result in low CO₂ absorption rates, which hinder microalgal growth and biomass productivity. To address these limitations, several innovative approaches have been developed. Direct CO₂ injection and advanced open-pond designs, such as trap-type carbon-replenishing devices and membrane-based systems, significantly enhance CO₂ mass-transfer efficiency. Modifications to closed photobioreactors further improve CO₂ utilization. Additionally, CO₂ absorption enhancer or immobilized carbonic anhydrase plays a crucial role in optimizing CO₂ absorption and promoting algal growth. Among these strategies, membrane-based CO₂ delivery systems and the incorporation of CO₂ absorption enhancers have shown the highest efficiency in boosting CO₂ mass transfer and microalgae productivity. Future efforts should focus on integrating these methods into large-scale photobioreactor systems to optimize cost-effective, sustainable production.

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