

1 **Production of polymers by cyanobacteria grown in wastewater: current**  
2 **status, challenges and future perspectives**

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13

14 **Abstract**

15       Cyanobacteria are prokaryotic oxygenic phototrophs receiving attention in a wide variety  
16 of technological applications such as food and feed supplements, and production of valuable  
17 polymers. Among these, carbohydrates (e.g. glycogen) and polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) are  
18 of increasing interest due to their potential as a biofuel substrate and bioplastics, respectively.  
19 However, biofuels and bioplastics from cyanobacteria have seen many years of effort towards  
20 commercialization with only limited success. Their main limitation for polymer production is  
21 the high cost of the nutrient source; wastewater, as an inexpensive and widely available  
22 alternative, may overcome this bottleneck. Though cyanobacteria have demonstrated a capacity  
23 to treat wastewater effluents, their cultivation in such a variable environment involves certain  
24 challenges of which the chief one is linked to contamination by other species, especially green  
25 algae. This would represent a serious drawback during cyanobacterial biomass production and  
26 affects further PHA and carbohydrate production. The present study reviews the potential of  
27 cyanobacteria to grow in wastewater effluents from different sources. Conditions favoring them  
28 in mixed-culture reactors are described, focusing on nutritional and operational aspects. Current  
29 advances and future prospects in PHA and carbohydrate production are explored and discussed.

30

31 *Keywords:* Biofuels, Bioplastics, Mixed cultures, Microalgae, Wastewater treatment.

32

## 33 **Introduction**

34 Cyanobacteria, also known as blue-green algae, have existed for more than 3.5 billion years.  
35 They were the first organisms to produce molecular oxygen, and thus contributed to changing  
36 the biosphere from anaerobic to largely aerobic conditions [1]. They are by far the largest group  
37 of photosynthetic prokaryotic organisms as judged by their widespread occurrence, frequency,  
38 abundance and morphological diversity [2,3]. Moreover, when growth conditions are not  
39 suitable, some species can survive adverse conditions for long periods [4]. In general, efficient  
40 adaptation of cyanobacteria to almost any environment implies that their cultivation does not  
41 require energy-rich compounds as do other non-photosynthetic microorganisms [5]. Simple  
42 nutrient requirements give them potential to create low cost, eco-friendly technologies for  
43 wastewater treatment as well as generation of bioproducts [5]. The capacity of cyanobacteria to  
44 grow in different effluents such as municipal and industrial wastewater has been already  
45 documented [6,7]. The strategy of growing cyanobacteria in wastewaters offers a second  
46 advantage as wastewater is treated to produce clean - or at least cleaner - water, in addition to  
47 economically valuable byproducts [6,8]. Indeed, they are known to store polymeric compounds  
48 such as polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) and carbohydrates under certain nutrient deprived  
49 conditions [9]. PHA and carbohydrate production from cyanobacteria has received considerable  
50 attention because of their potential uses as substrates for bioplastics and biofuels production,  
51 respectively.

52 Commercialization of cyanobacteria bioplastics and biofuels has met with limited success  
53 [10,11], the main bottleneck being the high cost of nutrients. The use of wastewater as feedstock  
54 may overcome this bottleneck by offering an inexpensive and readily available substrate.  
55 Although cyanobacteria have demonstrated their capacity to treat a range of wastewater  
56 effluents, cultivation in variable environments such as many wastewater streams involves  
57 certain challenges of which the main one is contamination by other species, especially by green

58 algae [12]. This could be seriously detrimental to cyanobacterial biomass production and affect  
59 further PHA and carbohydrate production.

60 This review considers the characteristics of cyanobacteria, their potential to grow in wastewater  
61 effluents, and their use for polymer production. A critical analysis of the conditions favoring  
62 cyanobacteria in mixed-culture reactors is provided, as well as a description of current advances  
63 and future prospects in polymer production from mixed cyanobacterial cultures.

#### 64 **Overview of cyanobacteria**

65 Cyanobacteria are prokaryotic oxygenic phototrophs found in almost every habitat [13]. They  
66 constitute one of the largest groups of Gram-negative prokaryotes with a wide diversity in  
67 morphology, physiology, cell division patterns, cell differentiation and habitats (**Figure 1**) [14].

68 Due to their high protein and vitamin content, and good digestibility, cyanobacteria are used  
69 commercially for a variety of purposes including food and feed supplements as well as many  
70 other applications [13,15–17]. Since cyanobacteria are naturally transformable, they can be  
71 genetically manipulated relatively easily, leading to successful applications in genetic  
72 engineering [18,19], including production of a number of value-added compounds at high rates  
73 at laboratory scale (*e.g.* ethanol, isobutyraldehyde, isobutanol, 1-butanol, isoprene, ethylene,  
74 hexoses, cellulose, mannitol, lactic acid, fatty acids) [15,20]. Recent studies have demonstrated  
75 that cyanobacteria form ideal consortia with chemotrophic bacteria and can effectively be used  
76 to clean oil-contaminated sediments and wastewaters [13]. In these processes, wastewater  
77 streams have been frequently used as a readily available and low-cost substrate for growth,  
78 biomass production and nutrient removal and have been recognized as the only economic and  
79 sustainable source of nutrients for cyanobacteria biomass cultivation [21].

#### 80 **Cyanobacteria cultivation in wastewater treatments systems**

81 The use of photosynthetic microorganisms (eukaryotic microalgae as well as cyanobacteria) for  
82 wastewater treatment was first proposed by Oswald and Golueke [22]. Through the use of open  
83 raceway ponds in California for municipal wastewater treatment, cyanobacteria and eukaryotic  
84 microalgae were grown in association with aerobic heterotrophic bacteria [13,23]. In this  
85 process, photosynthetic microorganisms produce molecular oxygen to be used as an electron  
86 acceptor by bacteria degrading organic matter. In return, bacteria release CO<sub>2</sub> during the  
87 mineralization process, providing substrate for photosynthesis [13]. Cyanobacteria can be used  
88 in wastewater treatment for a range of purposes such as the removal of nutrients, the reduction  
89 of both Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD) and Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD) and also for  
90 the removal of heavy metals [24–26]. This kind of wastewater treatment is regarded as an  
91 economical and environmentally friendly process with no secondary pollution as long as the  
92 biomass produced can be reused and allows efficient nutrient recycling [21,26]. Technologies  
93 based on cyanobacteria have been successfully applied to the treatment of municipal, livestock  
94 and industrial wastewaters [27]. Efficiencies found are often superior to those achieved in  
95 conventional aerobic activated sludge processes in terms of nutrient assimilation and pathogen  
96 removal, with much lower energy demands [28]. However, most of the studies have been  
97 performed at laboratory scale and with monocultures. **Table 1** shows how cyanobacteria  
98 cultures can be successfully applied for wastewater treatment purposes. The comparison of all  
99 these results is only indicative, since they have been carried out under different operating  
100 conditions.

#### 101 *Municipal wastewater*

102 Removal of N and P has been the main objective of cyanobacteria cultures for municipal  
103 wastewater systems, since nutrient enrichment and consequent eutrophication can alter the  
104 structure and function of aquatic ecosystems, potentially endangering health, biodiversity and  
105 ecosystem sustainability [29]. Cyanobacteria are used for this purpose since they can assimilate

106 different forms of N and P for growth ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) [24]. Different species of  
107 cyanobacteria, mostly filamentous such as *Phormidium sp.* [30] or *Spirulina platensis* [31] have  
108 been successfully cultivated using municipal wastewater, not only for the removal of N and P  
109 (>60%), but also for the reduction of COD and BOD (>80%) indicating the presence of  
110 heterotrophic bacteria in the culture (Table 1).

#### 111 *Industrial wastewater*

112 The diversity and dominance of cyanobacterial species in different aquatic polluted bodies  
113 demonstrate the tolerance of this group to a wide variety of contaminants [32]. Through several  
114 studies, cyanobacteria have demonstrated their ability to biodegrade and biosorb persistent  
115 chlorinated hydrocarbons and heavy metals, respectively [33,34]. Filamentous *Oscillatoria*  
116 *brevis*, *Westiellopsis prolifica*, *Anabaena sp.* and *Nostoc muscorum* have been shown  
117 encouraging results in treatment of several industrial effluents, including from cheese factory  
118 [35], oil, soap and fodder industry [36], dye industry [37], distillery [38], and aquaculture [39],  
119 reducing nutrients and organic matter by 50-100% (Table 1). Other studies also include the  
120 biodegradation of phenol and dichloroacetate from pulp-and-paper wastewater (up to c. 100%)  
121 [40] and the removal of copper (75%), cobalt (11.8%), lead (100%) and manganese (61.5%)  
122 from mixed domestic-industrial effluent [34]. These studies have been only performed at  
123 laboratory scale.

#### 124 *Secondary effluents*

125 Tertiary wastewater processes aim at removing  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  from secondary effluents,  
126 and generally are more expensive than secondary treatments. Cyanobacteria cultures could  
127 offer an efficient solution for tertiary treatment due to their ability to use remaining nutrients  
128 from previous wastewater treatments due to their low nutrient requirements. The utilization of

129 cyanobacteria has been documented for tertiary treatment of different secondary effluents by  
130 filamentous species as *Oscillatoria* sp. [12], *Phormidium* sp. [35] and *Spirulina maxima* [41]  
131 and mixed cultures dominated by cyanobacteria *Aphanocapsa* sp. and *Phormidium* sp. [42]  
132 (Table 1).

### 133 *Digestates*

134 Recent research has been focused on the use of the liquid part of anaerobic digestion effluents  
135 for microalgal and cyanobacterial growth. Due to the characteristics of digestate, which is rich  
136 in  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  and acids, it is a potential substrate for cyanobacteria requirements [43,44].  
137 Several species of microalgae and cyanobacteria can grow on diluted and undiluted digestates  
138 from various sources, including swine slurry [43], municipal organic waste [45], abattoir  
139 digestate [46], swine manure [41,47], poultry manure [48] and microalgal anaerobic digestate  
140 [49,50]. Thus, recycling nutrients from digestates could also be an economic and  
141 environmentally friendly option to growing cyanobacterial biomass for nonfood byproducts.  
142 These studies demonstrated the successful application of cyanobacteria to treat wastewater  
143 effluents; however, the critical challenge concerning the maintenance of a culture dominated  
144 by the same species of cyanobacteria during the entire cultivation period was not described.

### 145 **Selection and maintenance of cyanobacteria-dominated cultures in wastewater treatment** 146 **systems**

147 Cyanobacteria cultivation in such a variable medium implies competition with other  
148 microorganisms, especially green microalgae. Thus, a challenge facing cyanobacteria  
149 cultivation in laboratory and large-scale open (e.g., high rate algal ponds (HRAP)) or closed  
150 (e.g., photobioreactors (PBR)) systems is maintaining the dominance of these microorganisms  
151 throughout long periods. Dominance of a single species typically occurs when it is able to adapt  
152 to certain environmental conditions better than other species [51]. Most of the studies on

153 cyanobacteria interactions and dominance have occurred in natural ecosystems such as lakes  
154 and rivers and growth has been related to complex interactions among biotic (competition for  
155 resources and selective predation by zooplankton grazers) [52] and abiotic factors (e.g. light  
156 intensity, temperature, turbulence, pH and nutrients [52–56]). Some cyanobacteria are able to  
157 survive and compete across a wide range of water temperature, light, oxygen, pH and nutritional  
158 conditions [52,56–59]. Most studies agree that the nitrogen and phosphorus ratio (N:P), and  
159 absolute concentration levels are the two key factors determining competition capacity of  
160 cyanobacteria [53,56,60–65]. It is reasonable to assume that cyanobacteria behave in a similar  
161 way in open and closed wastewater treatment systems carried out in HRAP and PBR. Feasibility  
162 of controlling dominant cyanobacteria or microalgae in either system is limited to a few studies  
163 focused on the relationship between nutrient conditions in wastewater [42,50] and the factors  
164 controlling the competitive relationships in these systems are poorly understood [66,67].

165 From the first studies in open pond systems treating wastewater and in contaminated aquatic  
166 ecosystems, an enormous diversity of microalgae, cyanobacteria, protozoa and small metazoan  
167 has been identified [68]. Cyanobacteria *Oscillatoria* sp. and *Phormidium* sp., together with  
168 some species of green algae (*Chlorella* sp., *Scenedesmus* sp., *Chlamydomonas* sp.,  
169 *Stigeoclonium* sp., the diatom *Nitzschia* sp., and the protist *Euglena* sp.) were found to be the  
170 photosynthetic taxa most tolerant to polluted environments [68]. Starting from these first  
171 studies, small and large-scale wastewater treatment systems were inoculated with pure or mixed  
172 cultures of these photosynthetic microorganisms. For cyanobacteria monocultures, many  
173 species, especially filamentous ones, were cultivated on batch laboratory scale [30,64,69].  
174 Despite being a relevant issue, the contamination by other microorganisms in the culture was  
175 not mentioned.

176 Several studies using wastewater-borne mixed cultures in open and closed systems have been  
177 performed in order to treating wastewater from different sources. The type of influent, total



178 nutrient concentration and operation of the system have defined the dominance of green algae  
179 or cyanobacteria in the culture, as seen in **Table 2**. Important environmental conditions that  
180 may affect cyanobacteria dominance can be found below.

### 181 *Role of nitrogen and phosphorus*

182 Filamentous cyanobacteria *Pseudanabaena* sp. and colonial *Aphanocapsa* sp. are the genera  
183 most frequently dominant in waste streams, out-competing green algae genera such as *Chlorella*  
184 sp. and *Stigeoclonium* sp. These cyanobacteria genera grow in different types of wastewater,  
185 and tolerate a wide range of nutrient concentrations. A 50% dominance of *Pseudanabaena* sp.  
186 was achieved in open systems with high N and P concentrations in the mixed liquor (Total  
187 Inorganic Nitrogen (TIN) 100 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, Total Inorganic Phosphorus (TIP) 14.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) [73],  
188 while the same organisms were observed at lower N and P concentrations (TIN 12.88 mg L<sup>-1</sup>,  
189 TIP 0.90 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) [52]. Similarly, in the case of *Aphanocapsa* sp., studies found this organism  
190 to be dominant in wastewaters exhibiting TIN and TIP concentrations of 4.12-13.82 and 0.20-  
191 0.89 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively [52,74], while *Aphanocapsa* was reported dominant in systems  
192 exhibiting TIN and TIP values of 2.99 and 2.17 mg L<sup>-1</sup>[44]. One remarkable characteristic in  
193 these studies was that the N:P ratios in selected wastewaters were all higher than 32:1, despite  
194 the wide range in concentrations. The only exception to this was [42]. In general, the N:P ratio  
195 favoring dominance of *Pseudanabaena* and *Aphanocapsa* was more than twice the Redfield  
196 ratio (inorganic N:P molar ratio of 16:1), considered the standard for microalgal growth [42].  
197 These studies suggest that a very low phosphorus concentration or phosphorus limitation with  
198 respect to nitrogen is an important factor determining the dominance of cyanobacteria in  
199 wastewater systems. This ability to out-compete other microalgae under P limitation may be  
200 related to their higher affinity for phosphorus than many other photosynthetic organisms  
201 [70,71], attributed to their capacity for luxury uptake by storage as polyphosphate [61,72].

202 *Role of operational conditions*

203 While nutrients play a crucial role in species dominance, this factor cannot be considered the  
204 only aspect favoring the competition of cyanobacteria. Some systems studied have noted  
205 absence or low abundance of cyanobacteria in environments of high N:P ratios (Table 2) [52,80-  
206 82]. This indicates that other factors influence the proportion of cyanobacteria to green algae.  
207 Many types of operating conditions, such as hydraulic regimes (continuous, sequencing batch,  
208 semi-continuous), solids retention time (SRT), hydraulic retention time (HRT), organic  
209 loadings, incorporation of a settling period and recirculation of biomass all may have substantial  
210 impacts on microbial dynamics.

211 *Hydraulic regimes (continuous, sequencing batch, semi-continuous)*

212 In general, closed photobioreactors are considered the most appropriate systems for effective  
213 species control because open systems are more susceptible to changes of environmental  
214 conditions (pH, temperature). Dominance of cyanobacteria has been mainly obtained in closed  
215 systems (Table 2). *Pseudanabaena* sp. dominance was achieved in HRAP only in the reports  
216 of [73] and [74], probably as a result of operations being based on recirculation and in  
217 sequencing batch modes, respectively.

218 Continuous and semi-continuous feeding are the most conventional hydraulic regimes in closed  
219 and open systems. Continuous feeding is used in HRAP at full scale for practical reasons [75]  
220 and consists of constant feeding of the reactor over time (usually with variable flows and  
221 concentrations) (**Figure 2a**). This usually promotes the growth and dominance of green algae  
222 (*Chlorella* sp., *Stigeoclonium* sp.), and usually results in strongly seasonal microbial variability  
223 [76,77]. Such changing conditions make it difficult to select preferred species (e.g. for harvest).  
224 In contrast, photobioreactors operated in a semi-continuous feeding mode, with a single feeding  
225 per day (Figure 2b), result in an environment which is more favorable for microorganisms such

226 as cyanobacteria which possess a higher affinity for nutrients compared to many other  
227 photosynthetic organisms [70,71]. Dominance of cyanobacteria under this type of operation has  
228 been achieved in [50].

229 Another less conventional regime in green algae/cyanobacteria-based wastewater  
230 treatment systems is the sequencing batch operation, successfully used for activated sludge  
231 systems [78,22,79] and implemented in both HRAP and PBR [42,74] with green  
232 algae/cyanobacteria cultures. It consists of a single feeding per day in conjunction with  
233 uncoupled SRT and HRT. The process begins as a volume of mixed liquor is discharged from  
234 the reactor, followed by a settling period and removal of supernatant (Figure 2c). Such operation  
235 provides several advantages over semi-continuous operation since nutrient loads can be easily  
236 controlled while maintaining SRT adequate for specific species. The settling period encourages  
237 the formation of flocs with faster settleability, while un-settleable cells are removed with the  
238 supernatant [80]. In contrast to continuous and semi-continuous hydraulic regimes, which do  
239 not promote extensive spontaneous flocculation, this approach can facilitate subsequent  
240 harvesting. Thus, it presents a logistical advantage by favoring microorganisms such as  
241 cyanobacteria that form spontaneous aggregates [81,82], while removing non-settling green  
242 algae (*Chlorella* sp., *Scenedesmus* sp., *Chlamydomonas* sp. *Desmodesmus* sp., *Micractinium*  
243 sp.) with poor settling characteristics [74] (**Figure 3**).

#### 244 - *Other operational factors*

245 An important factor also affecting cyanobacteria selection is SRT. In general, SRT greater than  
246 10 days are adequate for cyanobacterial cultures mainly composed of filamentous species such  
247 as *Phormidium* sp. and *Pseudanabaena* sp. [50,67,81,83–85]. SRTs of less than 8 days promote  
248 species of green algae such as *Scenedesmus* sp. *Chlorella* sp. and *Stigeoclonium* sp. [86–88].  
249 Another operational process influencing microbial dominance is the recirculation of material

250 from settler tanks (e.g. used for harvesting) to reactors to maintain biomass production and  
251 species composition in the reactors (Figure 2d). Studies of this type of operation report only  
252 improvement in selection and maintenance of green algae [75,86,89,90]; it fails when applied  
253 to cyanobacteria maintenance in HRAP [91]. The dominance of the cyanobacteria *Oscillatoria*  
254 sp. (90%) was maintained in a closed PBR for 90 days under a recirculation flow rate of 4.2 L  
255  $\text{min}^{-2} \text{min}^{-1}$  and 10 days SRT [50]; *Oscillatoria* dominance declined when the recirculation flow  
256 increased and the SRT decreased.

### 257 **Polymer accumulation in cyanobacteria**

258 Cyanobacteria have received attention as a rich source of bioactive compounds and have been  
259 considered as one of the most promising groups of organisms producing them [13]. The use of  
260 waste streams as sources of nutrients reduces the range of biomass production applications due  
261 to possible contamination by various pollutants present in wastewater [8]. Thus, cyanobacteria  
262 grown in wastewater should be used mainly for production of non-food applications, e.g.  
263 bioenergy, biofuels and bioplastics [64]. Interest in cyanobacteria cultivation has focused on  
264 the production of PHAs and carbohydrates, used as a bioplastic and a biofuel substrate  
265 respectively. Cyanobacteria producing both polymers have been mainly studied in pure  
266 cultures, but recent investigations have focused on the utilization of mixed non-sterile cultures.

#### 267 *Production of PHAs in pure cyanobacteria cultures*

268 PHAs are polyesters of 2-, 3-, 4-, 5- or 6-hydroxyacids with potential application as renewable  
269 and biodegradable plastics [92–94]. They are produced and stored as carbon reserve polymer  
270 by a variety of prokaryotes [111] acting on a wide range of substrates from renewable sources  
271 (sucrose, starch, cellulose, triacylglycerols), fossil resources (methane, mineral oil, lignite, hard  
272 coal), byproducts from food processing (molasses, whey, glycerol), chemicals (propionic acid,  
273 4-hydroxybutyric acid) and carbon dioxide [95].

274 Cyanobacteria can accumulate PHAs as carbon and energy storage material [111]. They hold  
275 special interest as low-cost PHA producers due to their low nutrient requirements and ability to  
276 accumulate PHAs by oxygenic photosynthesis [13,96,97]. Several studies have demonstrated  
277 their capacity to accumulate bioplastics in both autotrophic and heterotrophic conditions,  
278 mainly in the form of polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB), but also as co-polymers of PHA as poly(3-  
279 hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate) (P(3HB-co-3HV)) [98]. Similar to other prokaryotes,  
280 cyanobacteria are capable of storing nutrients for future consumption in conditions of essential  
281 nutrient excess [98]. Table 3 includes species that have been assessed for the presence of PHAs,  
282 mostly in form of PHB. In most studies, PHA accumulation was species-dependent and a  
283 function of operational and nutritional conditions affecting growth (light-dark cycles,  
284 temperature, pH, nutrient limitation), as well as carbon source (organic or inorganic carbon).  
285 Among these conditions, nutrient limitation is the most common approach to increase PHA  
286 accumulation. As shown in Table 3, nutrient limitation, along with organic carbon sources (as  
287 glucose or acetate) have increased PHB content to from 10 to 46% in terms of cell dry weight  
288 (cdw) *Synechococcus* sp., *Spirulina* sp. and *Nostoc* sp., reaching the maximum of 85% cdw in  
289 *Aulosira fertilissima*, a similar percentage to the obtained by *Ralstonia eutropha* (90% of PHB)  
290 [99], the most promising heterotrophic bacteria for PHA production. The use of inorganic  
291 carbon sources with N or P limitation has increased PHB concentration up to 20% cdw. The  
292 specific strain used in [107], *Synechocystis* sp. MA19, reached the highest accumulation of 60%  
293 of PHB.

#### 294 *Production of carbohydrates in pure cyanobacterial cultures*

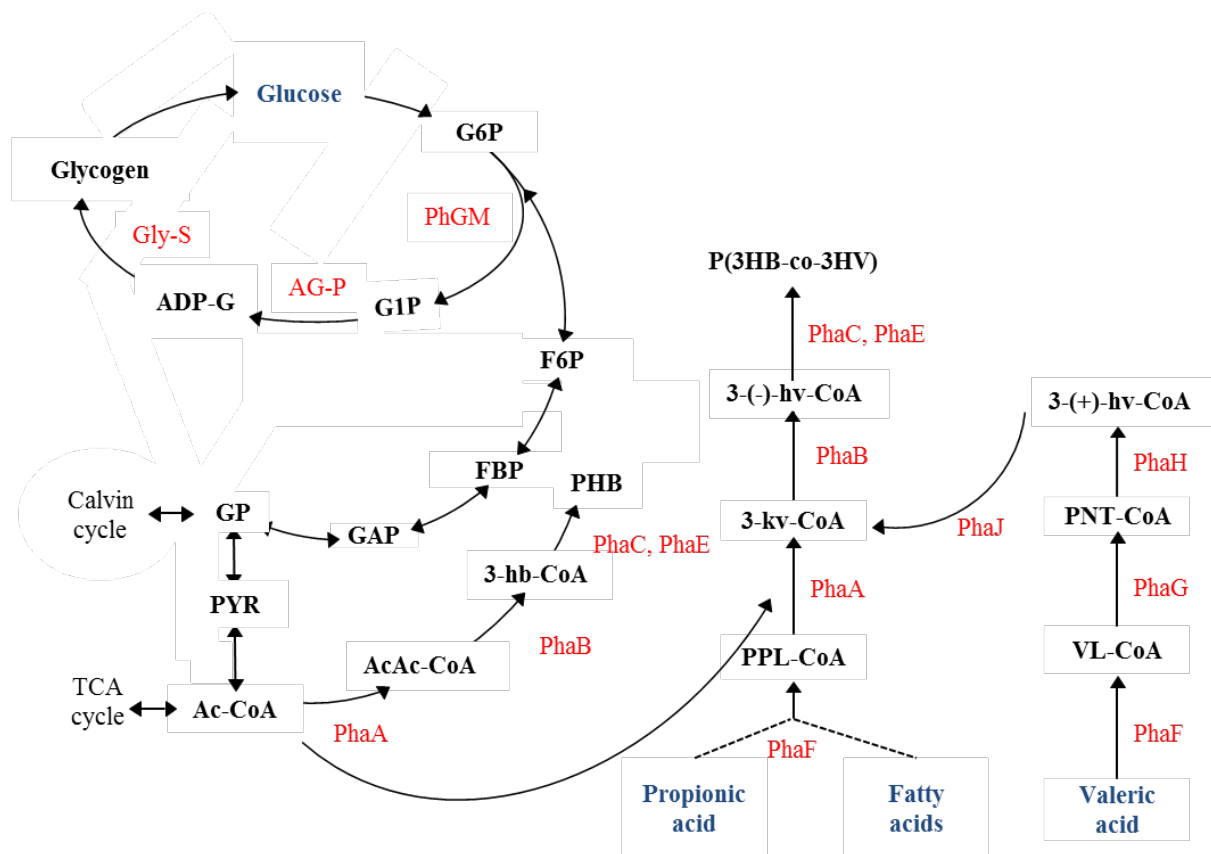
295 Carbohydrates, including monosaccharides and glucose-based polymers (di-, oligo-, and poly-  
296 saccharides), are energy-storage and cell wall components in green algae/cyanobacteria cells.  
297 Cyanobacteria synthesize glycogen ( $\alpha$ - 1,4 linked glucan) during photosynthesis and deposit it  
298 as granules within the thylakoid membrane [100], with the physiological function of providing

299 maintenance energy for cell integrity and viability in dark periods [101]. Accumulation of  
300 carbohydrates by cyanobacteria has attracted attention as an alternative to first generation  
301 biodiesel feedstocks (sugar, grain and oleaginous crops) that have significant drawbacks related  
302 to the “food versus fuel” tradeoff [102–105]. The use of cyanobacterial or microalgal  
303 carbohydrates has several advantages, including their high growth rate, high areal (or  
304 volumetric) productivity, and capacity to grow in wastewater effluents. The harvesting cycles  
305 of cyanobacteria are shorter (~1–10 days), compared to other feedstock (harvest once or twice  
306 a year). These advantages improve suitability for ethanol production [106]. Furthermore,  
307 glycogen from cyanobacteria compared with carbohydrates from other higher plants or green  
308 algae is also advantageous [20] due to a lack of a cellulose cell wall, which typically requires  
309 additional pretreatments and expensive conversion processes [16,20,107]. Although  
310 cyanobacterial cultivation offers several advantages for bioethanol production, their potential  
311 to become a competitive raw material in this area is still limited by several factors, including  
312 the cultivation of algae and the production of carbohydrate-enriched biomass, dehydration and  
313 collection, pre-treatment of the biomass and ensuring the maximum fermentation [103]. These  
314 factors need to be optimized in order to achieve cost-effective and feasible bioethanol  
315 production.

316 Similar to PHAs, intracellular accumulation of carbohydrates in cyanobacteria has been  
317 facilitated by manipulation of environmental and cultivation factors, mainly N and P deficiency  
318 using inorganic carbon (**Table 4**). In general, the highest carbohydrate content is obtained under  
319 N limitation (65-70%), although maximum carbohydrate content and periods of accumulation  
320 are species-dependent. *Spirulina maxima* exhibited higher accumulation (70%) under N-  
321 deficiency, but lower content under P-deficiency for a period of 2.7 days [108].

322 *Polyhydroxybutyrate and carbohydrate competition*

323 Table 3 shows that PHB accumulation from inorganic carbon obtained generally lower values  
 324 than with organic carbon sources. There are few reports of the interaction between glycogen  
 325 and PHB. The studies [108–110] confirmed that glycogen in cyanobacteria plays a greater role  
 326 (in terms of energy storage) than PHB in survival under adverse conditions such as nutrient  
 327 starvation, as shown in **Figure 4**. However, the advantage of cyanobacteria is that PHB or other  
 328 PHA compounds can also accumulate in heterotrophic conditions. Co-polymer P(3HB-co-  
 329 3HV) and polyhydroxyvalerate (PHV) can be obtained using glucose, acetate, propionic and  
 330 valeric acids as carbon source. In this case, the process involves as intermediate either acetyl-  
 331 CoA (Ac-CoA) or acyl-CoA and ends with monomer polymerization by PHA synthases  
 332 [98,111,112].



333

334 **Figure 4.** Cyanobacteria metabolic pathways for polyhydroxybutyrate (PHB), co-polymer  
 335 poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate) (P(3HB-co-3HV)) and glycogen from different

336 carbon sources (in blue color). Abbreviations: acetyl-CoA (Ac-CoA), pyruvate (PYR),  
337 glycerate-3-P (GP), glyceraldehyde-3-P (GAP), fructose-1,6-bis-P (FBP), fructose-6-P (F6P),  
338 glucose-6-P (G6P); glucose-1-P (G1P), ADP-glucose (ADP-G), acetoacetyl-CoA (AcAc-  
339 CoA), 3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA (3-hb-CoA), propionyl-CoA (PPL-CoA), 3-ketovaleryl-CoA (3-  
340 kv-CoA), 3-hydroxyvaleryl-CoA (3-hv-CoA), pentenoyl-CoA (PNT-CoA), valeryl-CoA (VL-  
341 CoA). Enzymes involved in this pathway: phosphoglucomutase (PhGM), ADP-glucose  
342 pyrophosphorylase (AG-P), glycogen synthase (Gly-S), PhaA,  $\beta$ -ketothiolase; PhaB,  
343 acetoacetyl-CoA reductase; P(3HB) polymerase (PhaC), PHA synthase (PhaE), Acyl-CoA  
344 synthase (PhaF), Acyl-CoA-dehydrogenase (PhaG), 3-hydroxyacyl-coA-hydrolase (PhaH), 3-  
345 hydroxyacyl-CoA-dehydrogenase (PhaJ). Adapted from [98,109,111,112].

346 *Polyhydroxybutyrate and carbohydrate production in cyanobacterial cultures using*  
347 *wastewater substrates*

348 A few studies have focused on processes of wastewater treatment and simultaneous polymer  
349 production. *Aulosira fertilissima* has been grown using wastewater from an aquaculture system  
350 operating in batch conditions [9] with promising results of 200 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of PHB after 15 days  
351 incubation, while P-PO<sub>4</sub>, N-NO<sub>3</sub> and N-NH<sub>4</sub> were completely depleted. Cultivation of  
352 *Synechocystis salina* in a pilot scale PBR (200 L) has been described using diluted digestate  
353 from municipal sludge (1:3 in distilled water) [113]. After 40 days of incubation in batch  
354 conditions, 88 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of PHB accumulated while 86%, 50% and 60% of COD, TN and TP,  
355 respectively, were removed.

356 As noted, the potential production of PHB and carbohydrates from cyanobacteria has been  
357 based on pure strains fed with sterile growth media [114,115]. This practice is associated with  
358 high operational cost, increased polymer production costs, may prevent further scale-up of the  
359 technology and limits its marketability. A more sustainable alternative approach could be the



360 use of mixed wastewater-borne cultures dominated by cyanobacteria. Although previous  
361 reports of PHB production by pure cultures have used organic carbon, in mixed cultures this  
362 substrate would decrease cyanobacterial dominance and increase heterotrophic bacteria  
363 activity. Thus, the use of inorganic carbon is clearly the most favored option in the case of  
364 mixed cultures and is made more attractive due to the role of CO<sub>2</sub> in climate change. The  
365 availability of cyanobacteria-dominated cultures, instead of pure cultures, for producing PHBs  
366 and carbohydrates using inorganic carbon as substrate has been reported. Mixed wastewater-  
367 borne cyanobacteria were subjected to N and deficiency under different photoperiods (24 h  
368 light, 12h light dark) during 15 days of incubation [123]. Under conditions of N-deficiency and  
369 12h light/dark, the maximum PHB content obtained was 6.5%, derived from 75% cdw of  
370 carbohydrates accumulated in 12 days. In another study [116], the time of incubation was  
371 reduced by employing a carbon “feast and famine” strategy, mostly used in bacterial  
372 fermentation systems [117–119]. This strategy consisted of brief periods of carbon availability  
373 during the cultivation period, in conjunction with nutrient deficiency. The use of this strategy  
374 during the cultivation period led to 3.8% cdw of PHB and 53% cdw of carbohydrates in less  
375 than 1.2 days of incubation.

376 PHB content of wastewater-borne cyanobacteria reported in [123, 124] are within the range  
377 from pure cultures using inorganic carbon as substrate (0.2-8.5%) [96,108,109,113,115,120].  
378 Exceptionally, a slightly higher accumulation percentage was observed, but only after longer  
379 periods of time (21 days) [121]. Only the studies in [114] reported higher PHB content (55%)  
380 in only 5 days with specific strains of cyanobacteria *Synechococcus* sp. MA19 submitted to  
381 nutrient limited conditions with inorganic carbon as the carbon source (Table 3). The  
382 percentages and contents of carbohydrate obtained with wastewater-borne cyanobacteria under  
383 N-limitation in [122] were similar to those obtained in most of the previous studies carried out  
384 in pure cultures of *Spirulina/Arthrospira* sp. (Table 4) [103,108,123]. Although percentages of

385 both PHB and carbohydrates reported [116] are lower than those in most of the other studies,  
386 they correspond to only 1.2 days of incubation, while most other studies required more than 10  
387 days. This means that the “feast and famine” strategy during the cultivation phase of  
388 cyanobacteria can reduce the prolonged periods necessary to accumulate both polymers,  
389 resulting in incubation periods even shorter than those required by pure cultures (Table 4).

390 Promising results for wastewater treatment and PHB and/or carbohydrate accumulation lead  
391 one to conclude that waste streams could be used as substrate to obtain valuable products from  
392 cyanobacteria without the additional costs related to consumption of freshwater and nutrients  
393 used as growth medium in pure cultures.

394 Aspects to consider in production of polymers from cyanobacteria cultivated in wastewater and  
395 future approach

396 Through several studies, it is clear that the production of polymers from cyanobacteria  
397 cultivated in wastewater is promising, but still has challenges to be overcome prior to scale-up.  
398 The first is the requirement to maintain cyanobacteria-dominated cultures over prolonged  
399 periods. The keys for the control and maintenance of the culture are to establish the most  
400 appropriate medium for growing cyanobacteria, while hindering other microorganisms. The  
401 control of nutrient concentrations and (molar) ratios, as well as optimal operational conditions,  
402 are crucial in order to maintaining cyanobacteria dominance in mixed culture, and preventing  
403 contamination. For nutrients, the best approach favoring cyanobacteria seems to be the  
404 maintenance of high N:P ratios (>32:1). The high affinity for P exhibited by cyanobacteria and  
405 their capacity through luxury uptake to store it as polyphosphate could increase the likelihood  
406 of dominance over green algae species *Chlorella* sp. and *Stigeoclonium* sp. In terms of influent  
407 sources, it seems that the utilization of waste streams with stable characteristics (e.g. diluted  
408 digestate) or low nutrient sources (e.g. secondary effluents) can be the most appropriate for

409 cyanobacterial selection. Nutrient loading from these waste streams can be more easily  
410 controlled than in others with more variable nutrient concentrations (e.g. municipal  
411 wastewaters). Other factors to consider are operating conditions; literature suggests that the  
412 sequencing batch operation is most appropriate for the selection of easy settleable  
413 cyanobacteria. However, nutrient loads and adequate SRT should be carefully tested, mostly  
414 due to the appearance of other easy settleable microorganisms like *Stigeoclonium* sp. or  
415 *Pediastrum* sp.

416 Another challenge concerns carbohydrate and PHB production from mixed wastewater-borne  
417 cyanobacteria. Results suggest that mixed cyanobacterial cultures can compete with pure  
418 cultures. The occurrence of both polymers has been confirmed in mixed cultures dominated by  
419 several cyanobacteria species. Using mixed cultures can avoid the high production costs  
420 required for controlled sterile conditions which are necessary for maintenance of pure cultures,  
421 where high production costs limit large-scale production. Overall, mixed cyanobacteria-  
422 bacteria cultures grown in wastewater treatment systems offer an alternative for polymer  
423 production and enhance the environmental and economic benefits of bioplastics and biofuels.  
424 The efficient production of PHAs (bioplastics) and carbohydrates (biofuel substrate) using  
425 cyanobacteria cultivated in wastewater is still limited to a few studies carried out at the  
426 laboratory and pilot scales, under controlled conditions. Further research needs to focus on  
427 scale-up of the technology and careful analysis of the effects of outdoor conditions (e.g. direct  
428 sunlight and temperature).

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