

PAPER • OPEN ACCESS

A Review Study of Biofilm Bacteria and Microalgae Bioremediation for Palm Oil Mill Effluent: Possible Approach

Recent citations

- [Biocarriers for biofilm immobilization in wastewater treatments: a review](#)
Sajjad Al-Amshawee *et al*

To cite this article: S K Al-Amshawee *et al* 2020 *IOP Conf. Ser.: Mater. Sci. Eng.* **736** 022034

View the [article online](#) for updates and enhancements.

A Review Study of Biofilm Bacteria and Microalgae Bioremediation for Palm Oil Mill Effluent: Possible Approach

S K Al-Amshawee¹, M Y Yunus^{1,2}, A A Azoddein¹

¹Faculty of Chemical and Natural Resources Engineering, Universiti Malaysia Pahang, Gambang, 26300 Gambang, Pahang, Malaysia.

²Earth Resource and Sustainability Centre (ERAS), Universiti Malaysia Pahang, Gambang, 26300 Gambang, Pahang, Malaysia.

Corresponding e-mail: yusri@ump.edu.my

Corresponding address: Faculty of Chemical and Natural Resources Engineering, Universiti Malaysia Pahang, Gambang, 26300 Gambang, Pahang, Malaysia.

Abstract. It was known where water is, there is a life, but presently, water is the primary source of diseases, viruses, and microbes. Before the industrial revolution, freshwater was available in vast quantities and everywhere, but the unwell treatments of wastewater have contaminated our fresh water. The palm oil industries discharge palm oil mill effluent (POME) under the forced standards, but it still pollutes the freshwater because it streams contaminated water, and not freshwater. There are many methods for wastewater treatment, but most of it reached its maximum effort, for example, physical technologies probably can give 90% removal of total pollutants with high capital cost. Hence, industries are trying to evolve biological treatments such as microalgae, and biofilm because of being friendly, and cost-efficient. This article reviews microalgae and biofilm bacteria ability for POME processing, and what possible advantages or valuable byproducts can produce. It concluded that uniting both treatments can lead to outstanding performance defeating withdraws and limitations.

1. Introduction

Palm tree requires tropical areas to grow which made Malaysia and Indonesia are appropriate places for palm tree evolution. Its originated from the west of Africa, and it is called *Elaeis guineensis*. Indonesia and Malaysia produce about 85% of the worldwide palm oil production. Over the years, Malaysian production of palm oil had been developing quickly. So, Malaysia is turned into the prime producer and exporter of palm oil and its derivatives. For instance, in the year 1960, palm oil mills were around 10 units, while it had increased to 410 units in the year 2008. Since palm oil industry is agriculture based production, so more than 3.79 million hectares were employed for cultivation purposes which its equal to 11% of the total Malaysian land area, and more than one-third of the total cultivated land area in the year 2003 [1]. The records show that palm oil production in Malaysia was around 16,044,874 and 17,734,441 ton in the year 2009 and 2008, respectively (Malaysian Palm Oil Board 2008, 2009).

Palm oil industries need 5 to 7.5 ton of water to produce one ton of crude palm oil (CPO), associated with 2.5 to 3.5 ton of palm oil mill effluent (POME) generation [2][3]. POME can be defined as a thick brownish viscous liquid having high concentration of chemical oxygen demand (COD), biochemical oxygen demand (BOD), total suspended solids (TSS), and turbidity [4]. In Malaysia, about 44 million ton of POME was produced in the year 2008, while 20 million ton of POME was generated in the year



Content from this work may be used under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 licence](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/). Any further distribution of this work must maintain attribution to the author(s) and the title of the work, journal citation and DOI.

1993 [5]. Discharging unwell treated POME to the environment leads to severe aquatic issues because it contains a wide range of pollutants (e.g., 19,020 mg/l of suspended solids (SS), 43,635 mg/l of total solids, 8370 mg/l of oil and grease, 53,630 mg/l of COD, 25,000 mg/l of BOD) [6][7]. Although, daily streaming of effluents which is poorly treated are discharged into rivers and waterways in Malaysia. The Malaysian Department of Environment (DOE) had set a discharging regulation and rules to secure the environment, and the watercourses. The 1977 regulation stated to limit the wastewater discharge to range 100 mg/l of BOD₃ concentration, 5 to 9 of pH, 200 mg/l of total nitrogen, 50 mg/l of oil and grease, and 400 mg/l of suspended solids [8][9][10]. Therefore, the treatment system should be designed to meet the streaming standards, and to control the environmental pollution.

There are many kinds of POME treatments, such as an aerated lagoon, anaerobic digester, decanter, and holding system, but ponding system is the most common method for POME treatment [11][12]. On the other hand, the open ponding releases greenhouse gases (e.g., CO₂ and CH₄) into the atmosphere. Sustainable treatment of POME is achievable by creating an efficient treatment system to guarantee excellent discharge quality of POME and securing waterways from harmful nutrients and heavy metals. Chin et al. (2013) estimated the conceivable electricity generation from biogas generation from POME treatment which can be equal to 3.8 million ringgit per year for milling 60 tons/hr of palm oil [13]. In the year 2011, 92.9 million ton of oil palm got processed which makes Malaysia able to save equal to 671.65 million ringgits yearly. However, this biogas is still harmful because it produces CO₂ once its converted into energy. Finally, attentions have been made to seek and develop a sustainable method like microalgae and biofilm treatment to treat POME achieving zero waste energy [13].

2. Biological Treatments For POME

There are a lot of biological mechanisms and methods to polish POME, but microalgae and biofilm bacteria are novel ways and still in their earlier stages. Besides, POME is a suitable and appropriate medium for the growth of algae and bacteria. Biological treatment occurs in one of the most common POME treatments, known as ponding system. It utilises bacteria to decompose large organic molecules into smaller, while algae perform photosynthesis consuming dissolved CO₂ and producing oxygen under the sunlight availability. It is considered a low-cost operation barely needs management. In contrast, some researchers reported that biological treatment is not entirely efficient because it is slow, and hard to control. In conclusion, biological POME treatments still require a lot of research and development to attain the optimal conditions and production quality [14].

Bacteria in POME has a decent desire to seek surfaces to attach and start their life cycle, and it is called immobilisation or granulation process. Yu, Mu, and Zhang found biofilm bacteria acting fast to form and develop biofilms under aerobic circumstances, but it takes an extended period for granulation process [15][16]. It was occurred based on temperature, pH, nutrients availability, surrounding environment, and biofilm carrier physical and chemical compositions [16].

During 1950's, microalgae were identified as a potential food source for animals and humans [17][18]. Now, microalgae are highly preferred than other wastewater treatments because it can treat high organic load POME and convert the dissolved CO₂ into oxygen. Besides, algae seek a medium like POME having high nutrient content to grow and develop. Biofilm bacteria and microalgae approaches are reviewed in separated subjects in below, to show their details, latest developments and to examine their promising future towards wastewater treatment.

2.1 Biofilm Bacteria

Biofilms are complicated matrix of microorganisms that are assembled in a unique structure with the help of extracellular polymeric substance (EPS). These communities of microorganisms attach to various kinds of surfaces [19][20][21]. The development of biofilms start by single kind or different sorts of microorganisms that have potential to attach and develop on biotic, and abiotic surface [19][22][23]. The biofilm growth can be summarised in few steps, starting with initial attachment, then maturation, and development, and finally detachment from the surface [19][20][24]. Biofilm bacteria produce EPS as an adhesive substance to start building the colonies at the selected surface. Figure 1 shows Biofilm bacteria process.

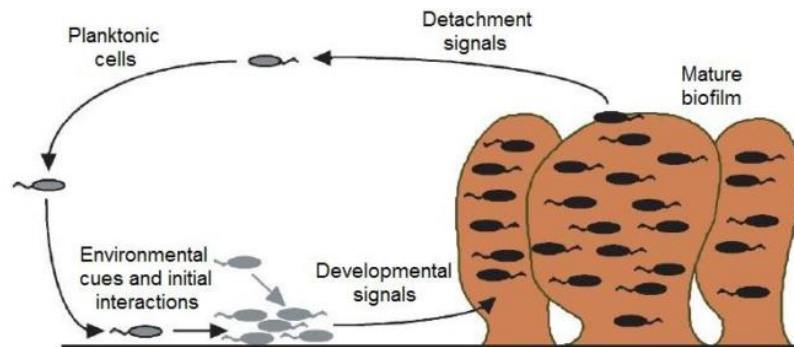


Figure 1. Biofilm bacteria life cycle

Watnick and Kolter (2000) reported that the human community built is like the bacterial biofilm formation [25]. Also, these bacteria have enough potential to attach and get densely on surfaces ranging from plastics to metals [26]. The structural integrity is variant based on many factors, such as temperature, nutrients amount, and physical and physiological circumstances [27]. The complex bacterial communities consist of surrounding immediate detritus, particulate material, metabolites, absorbed nutrients, and polymers, and the bacterial EPS stability is affected by the flow velocity, the shear rate, and the environmental hydrodynamic conditions [28]. Biofilm matrix protects and secures the community from any harmful effect like environmental distress [29]. The negative impact of severe changes in toxic materials, temperature, and pH can be minimised by the bacterial EPS, according to Wingender [30]. Usually, biofilms bacteria require an extended period to complete process POME, but they produce poor amount of biomass.

Biofilm process is accessible by utilizing planktonic microorganisms in a high surface area reactor. They have high chance to adapt and survive even in unfavourable conditions. It receives massive attention compared to chemical and physical treatments because of being efficient and economical [31]. Decho et al. (2000) found the biofilm treatment safe, having good potential, and capable for high organic load [29]. Biodegradation process by biofilm microorganisms means bacterial enzymes decompose various elements and matters, while biosorption refers to converting elements from the liquid phase to solids phase. Also, biofilm bacteria can remove dyes and achieve decolourisation since they possess biosorption and degradation mechanism [25]. Hence, researchers look to develop biofilm treatment to achieve tremendous bioremediation for contaminations removal from wastewater. There are a lot of technologies use biofilm treatment as a significant factor for wastewater treatment. Table 1 Presents various technologies that involve biofilm bacteria in their processing.

In POME treatment, microorganisms utilise nutrients of POME as a source of energy for their growth and development. Also, it decomposes harmful elements (e.g., heavy metals) and compounds [36]. Microorganisms continue to grow and mature the complicated matrix till it reaches its maximum thickness. Then, it can be considered stable, thin, and active to offer numerous benefits to process POME [27]. It is highly recommended to optimise the startup time, and growth speed of biofilm treatment to avoid any required extra maintenance, and biofilm clog [37]. Therefore, biofilm bioremediation process is appropriate method to process POME by removing suspended solids, turbidity, COD, BOD, and nutrients. Biofilm reactors are classified into fixed biofilm bed, and unfixed biofilm bed.

The unfixed biofilm reactor is the most widely used compared to the fixed film bed reactor. Its involved in many technologies such as internal circulation reactors, biofilm airlift suspension (BAS), expanded granular sludge blanket (EGSB), fluidised biofilm bed, and up-flow sludge blanket [38]. The influent rate and active biomass concentration decide the bioremediation performance and effluent quality [39][40]. Also, a successful active control on biofilm thickness might lead to efficient, stable treatment and prevent biofilms from washout [37].

Table 1. Biofilm Technologies for Wastewater Remediation

| Method | Operation | Capability | Ref. |
|--|--|--|------|
| Integrated anaerobic-aerobic fluidised bed reactor | Comprises from cylindrical fluidised bed and pulverised pumice-stone as carrier for planktic microorganism's attachment and growth | Able to remove nitrogen, and organic carbon. | [32] |
| Anaerobic-aerobic fixed film bioreactor | Arranged media combined with two fixed film bioreactors | Able to treat high levels of oil and grease | [33] |
| Anaerobic-aerobic granular biofilm bioreactor | biofilms present mineralisation process for various pollutants inside up-flow anaerobic sludge bed (UASB) reactor | Able to remediate chlorinated contaminates | [34] |
| Rotating biological contactors | Includes entirely or partially submerged sequential disc configuration, which supports and gives a good chance for biofilm attachment | Able to handle COD range 12,000 mg l ⁻¹ | [24] |
| Aerobic membrane bioreactor | Biodegradation process occurs along with membrane filtration which leads to retaining the large molecules in the reactor, while the small gets pass through the membrane layer | Able to process high strength wastewater | [35] |

The fixed biofilm reactor is a very suitable process for a wastewater having extreme contamination (e.g., high biomass concentrations). It involves an immobilised inert medium inside the reactor to increase the chances of biofilm bacteria attachment on the medium surfaces [41].

A researcher reported using two staged anaerobic biofilm treatment involving one methanogenic and one acidogenic reactor for food waste-recycling wastewater. It achieved stable process with COD removal range 73 to 85.9% [42]. Wang et al. (2010) confirmed the functional stability of bioremediation process by using full-scale two-staged wastewater system [43]. Moreover, it was reported that biofilm treatment could deliver maximum effort under temperature equal to 44.5 °C, and 5.7 of pH.

Westerholm et al. (2010) reported the segregation of one bacterium from numerous microorganisms in the mesophilic methanogenic digester, known as *Syntrophaceticus schinkii* [44]. It showed the capability to consume lactate, betaine, and ethanol as carbon sources and grows under pH range 6 to 8, and 25 to 40 °C of temperature range. Another bacterium got isolated named as *Comamonas* sp., and it showed ability to grow on consuming n-butyric, propionic, and acetic acids with exceptional potential to form poly hydroxy alkanates [45]. The methanogenic population involves 2, 14, 84% of Methanobacteriales, Methanosarcinales, and Methanomicrobiales, respectively [46]. Chemicals have been found effecting wastewater microbial population, for instance, *Methylocystis* sp. dominates in high ammonium circumstances, while *Methylomicrobium album* dominates in high nitrite mediums [47]. Hence, biogas production quantity and quality is based on the dominant producer activity [48]. Zhou et al. (2010) used Polymerase chain reaction-denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (PCR-DGGE), triphenyl tetrazolium chloride (TTC) dehydrogenase activity, and gas chromatograph (GC) analysis to examine microbial quantity, structure, and activity [49][50]. Other researcher used PCR-DGGE to detect UASB microbial population [58]. On the other hand, there are some limitations have led to restricting biofilm treatment such as clogging, costly liquid distributors, uncontrollable thickness, overgrowth, long startup time, and challenges in handling large amounts of POME having high organic loading rate [38].

2.2 Microalgae

Among numerous types of significant microorganisms, a unique organism has been versatile, and functional to survive and develop under different circumstances known as algae. It exists in marine and aquatic environments. Algae is classified based on the size into macroalgae and microalgae which both are available in POME. Microalgae species have different quantities of protein, starch, and lipid (fat) [51]. They are classified up to their chemical properties of stored products, cell wall ingredients, and pigment sort, such as red algae (Rhodophyta), brown algae (Phaeophyta), golden algae (Chrysophyta),

blue-green algae (cyanobacteria), green algae (Chlorophyta), and Diatoms (Bacillariophyta) [52]. Microalgae possess unique feature known as photosynthesis, which allows algae to grow and develop under sunlight availability. Precisely, microalgae seize light energy for cell generation and producing simple sugar as an energy source by converting inorganic molecules via cell metabolism [53]. Microalgae can deliver various metabolism, like photoheterotrophic, mixotrophic, heterotrophic, and autotrophic [54][55][56]. Previous studies reported that blue-green algae, like *Prochloron*, is considered cyanobacteria, because it is unlike eukaryotes by having single circular chromosome and lack of membrane-bound organelles [57]. Cyanobacteria and microalgae offer high potential towards nutrients decomposition of wastewater by performing photosynthesis with different approaches [57]. Table 2 presents various strains of microalgae with their characteristics.

In the current wastewater treatments, open ponds are made for microalgae growth. It requires 3 to 4 meters of pond depth to ensure light penetration during the photosynthesis process. Other factors can cause significant impacts on microalgae treatment quality such as thermal stratification, and mechanical mixing. If the appropriate conditions are not made, the photosynthesis would completely shut off.

Other researchers have found microalgae as a source of biofuel and biomass, such as biodiesel, fertilizer, medicines, bioethanol, jet fuel, nutritional compounds, animal feed, food, omega-3 fatty acids, vaccines, pharmaceuticals, recombinant proteins, biodegradable plastics, gasoline, aviation gas, and various pigments [59][60]. Also, algal biofuel has many advantages compared to fossil-based fuel, such as carbon neutral to the environment, non-toxic, and clean burning [61]. Hence, studies had improved biomass and bioenergy generation of wastewater treatment by microalgae. On the other hand, microalgae have drawbacks presented as a costly growth medium, and complicated methods of cultivation. Although, POME can be used as an appropriate growth medium, with no demand for expensive means of cultivation. Also, it has been suggested to use a hybrid system consisting of the open and closed system, which they are an open pond and closed photobioreactor [57][62][63]. Researchers and wastewater industries prefer using an open system because of less supervision requirement, low maintenance, durability, low cost, and simplicity. Raceway ponds with an endless loop, circular ponds, and inclined ponds are different types of algae cultivation ponds which had been structured and functioned on a large scale.

The inclined system had been built in Western Australia for *Chlorella* cultivation. Richmond et al. (1999) reported about the inclined ponds capability to deliver adoption of less than one-centimetre thin culture to operate maximum cell concentration up to 10 gm/l by using gravity and pumping flow to generate high turbulent flow [64].

In Earthrise Farms in California and Hawaii, many companies and researchers applied raceway ponds for cyanobacteria cultivation with capacity 150,000 m² and 75,000 m², respectively. Raceway pond is highly proposed because of being capable of substantial scales, easy to maintain, economical, and simple operation [64]. Paddlewheel inside raceway ponds provides force to distribute and keep microalgae suspended in the growth medium.

Agitation occurs in circular ponds by using long rotating mixing arm. Circular ponds are not commercially proposed for being employed at large scales for microalgae growth. There are several limitations, and disadvantages impact raceway ponds efficiency like other microorganism's contaminations, lack of temperature control, and direct exposure to sunlight, while circular ponds face different issues like mixing energy, and high capital cost [51][65]. Despite circular pond's limitations, it is still widely employed to cultivate *Chlorella* for biomass production in Asia, mostly in Taiwan, and Japan [66]. Also, there are some negative impacts of using inclined ponds such as pumping energy demand and cells sedimentation process, and generally, the open pond system causes CO₂ emission, contamination, and evaporation. Thus, closed ponds offer a potential reduction of various contaminations in the microalgae cultivation process. The tubular reactor, the vertical photobioreactor, and the flat plate reactor are examples of the advancements on the closed photobioreactor design [67][68][69][70][71]. The closed system had overcome open ponds disadvantages and can deliver contamination removal, controllable temperature, high productivity, high light utilisation, clean microalgae culture, but its costly [72].

Table 2. Microalgal strains with their content and productivity of lipid, and biomass productivity [58]

| Group | Strain | Habitat | Lipid content (%) biomass) | Lipid productivity (mg/L/day) | Biomass productivity (g/L/day) |
|------------------|---|------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Red algae | <i>Porphyridium cruentum</i> | Marine | 9.5 | 34.8 | 0.37 |
| Prymnesiophytes | <i>Pavlovasalina</i> CS 49 | Marine | 30.9 | 49.4 | 0.16 |
| | <i>Pavlovalutheri</i> CS 182 | Marine | 35.5 | 50.2 | 0.14 |
| Eustigmatophytes | <i>Nannochloropsis</i> sp. F&M-M26 | Marine | 29.6 | 61.0 | 0.21 |
| | <i>Nannochloropsis</i> sp. F&M-M27 | Marine | 24.4 | 48.2 | 0.20 |
| | <i>Nannochloropsis</i> sp. F&M-M24 | Marine | 30.9 | 54.8 | 0.18 |
| | <i>Nannochloropsis</i> sp. F&M-M29 | Marine | 21.6 | 37.6 | 0.17 |
| | <i>Nannochloropsis</i> sp. F&M-M28 | Marine | 35.7 | 60.9 | 0.17 |
| | <i>Isochrysis</i> sp(T-ISO) CS 177 | Marine | 22.4 | 37.7 | 0.17 |
| | <i>Isochrysis</i> sp F&M-M37 | Marine | 27.4 | 37.8 | 0.14 |
| Green algae | <i>Chlorococcum</i> sp. UMACC 112 | Freshwater | 19.3 | 53.7 | 0.28 |
| | <i>Scenedemus quadricauda</i> | Freshwater | 18.4 | 35.1 | 0.19 |
| | <i>Scenedemus</i> F&M-M19 | Freshwater | 19.6 | 40.8 | 0.21 |
| | <i>Scenedemus</i> sp.DM | Freshwater | 21.1 | 53.9 | 0.26 |
| | <i>T.suecica</i> F&M-M33 | Marine | 8.5 | 27.0 | 0.32 |
| | <i>Tetraselmis</i> sp. F&M-M34 | Marine | 14.7 | 43.4 | 0.30 |
| | <i>T.suecica</i> F&M-M35 | Marine | 12.9 | 36.4 | 0.28 |
| | <i>Ellipsoidion</i> sp. F&M-M31 | Marine | 27.4 | 47.3 | 0.17 |
| | <i>Monodus subterraneus</i> UTEX 151 | Freshwater | 16.1 | 30.4 | 0.19 |
| | <i>Nannochloropsis</i> sp. CS 246 | Marine | 29.2 | 49.7 | 0.17 |
| Diatoms | <i>Chaetoceros muelleri</i> F&M-M43 | Marine | 33.6 | 21.8 | 0.07 |
| | <i>Chaetoceros calcitrans</i> CS 178 | Marine | 39.8 | 17.6 | 0.04 |
| | <i>P. tricornutum</i> F&M M40 | Marine | 18.7 | 44.8 | 0.24 |
| | <i>Skeletonomacostatum</i> CS 181 | Marine | 21.0 | 17.4 | 0.08 |
| | <i>Skeletonoma</i> sp. CS 252 | Marine | 31.8 | 27.3 | 0.09 |
| | <i>Thalassiorhizidium pseudonana</i> CS 173 | Marine | 20.6 | 17.4 | 0.08 |
| | <i>Chlorella</i> sp. F&M-M48 | Freshwater | 18.7 | 42.1 | 0.23 |
| | <i>Chlorella sorokiniana</i> IAM-212 | Freshwater | 19.3 | 44.7 | 0.23 |
| | <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> CCAP 211/11b | Freshwater | 19.2 | 32.6 | 0.17 |
| | <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> F&M-M49 | Freshwater | 18.4 | 36.9 | 0.20 |

The algal potential for wastewater remediation was discovered and introduced in 1940's by Caldwell [73][74][75]. After 10 years, it has been utilised to treat wastewater and produce biomass. Since then, researchers have examined algal treatment for various kinds of wastewater, such as soybean processing [76][77], piggyery [78], textile [79], steel plant [80], and municipal [71]. The goal of making examinations and studies on microalgae treatment is to reach a sustainable treatment with no harm, or pollution effect on the waterways and the microalgae treatment is a promising method and eco-friendly. It was suggested to use microalgae as a tertiary stage to treat domestic and municipal wastewater removing nutrients (e.g., phosphorus and nitrogen) [81]. Also, various researches had declared microalgae potential towards nutrients removal which leads to a reduction in COD, and BOD concentrations [82]. A significant removal in BOD and COD had been showed on olive farming, piggyery, and textile wastewater by using microalgae application in laboratory scale [83]. A previous study reported that employing *Chlorella vulgaris* microalgae can achieve 50% reduction in COD concentration. Another researcher utilised *Scenedesmus obliquus* microalgae to polish urban wastewater. It achieved 97, and 100% removal of phosphorus, and ammonium concentrations, respectively [84].

Table 3. Latest empirical works on wastewater bioremediation by bacteria and microalgae

| Method | Wastewater | Characteristics (All in mg/l, except pH) | Results (All in mg/l, except pH) | Ref. |
|--|--------------------------------------|---|--|-------|
| Biofilm airlift loop bioreactor (ALR) | high ammonia wastewater | pH 7.8, COD 655, BOD 312, NH ₄ ⁺ -N 365, total nitrogen (TN) 395, SS 122 | pH 7.5, COD 73.1, BOD 20, NH ₄ ⁺ -N 4.5, TN 183, SS 26 | [95] |
| Moving bed biofilm reactor (MBBR) | coking wastewater | 2020±5 of COD | COD removal at carrier filling ratio are 357±4 at 20%, 287±4 at 30%, 229±3 at 40%, 210±3 at 50%, 230±4 at 60% | [96] |
| Anaerobic biofilm reactor (Up-flow) | Whey wastewater | - | COD removal is 91% by using Polyethylene/clay packing media | [97] |
| Anaerobic biofilm reactor (Up-flow) | Synthetic dairy wastewater | - | COD removal is 97.9–98.8% by using PVC rings | [97] |
| Fluidized bed membrane bio electrochemical reactor | cheese factory wastewater | - | 87.1% of COD removal at 24 h of HRT, and 56% of COD reduction at 12 h of HRT | [98] |
| Anaerobic granular sludge (AGS) UASB | Municipal wastewater | COD 722, BOD 386, SS 317, NH ₃ -N 35 | BOD 15, SS 10, NH ₃ -N 2 | [99] |
| | Natural rubber processing wastewater | - | Total removal efficiency (%) is about 55.6±16.6 for COD and 77.8±10.3 for BOD | [100] |
| Anaerobic baffled reactor (ABR) – Algal Tank | Natural rubber processing wastewater | 5.5 of pH, 3,700 of total chemical oxygen demand (TCOD), 3,450 of total biochemical oxygen demand (TBOD), 200 of TSS, 220 of TN, 108 of ammonia | 8.1 of pH, 222 of TCOD, 92 of TBOD, 126 of TSS, 97 of TN, 77 of ammonia | [100] |
| Hybrid membrane-aerated biofilm reactor (MABR) | Oil-field wastewater | 480 of COD, 22.4 of oil content, 5.3 of NH ₄ ⁺ -N, 31 of TN | 85 of COD, 3.2 of Oil content, 3.6 of NH ₄ ⁺ -N, 8.7 of TN | [101] |
| Anoxic moving bed biofilm reactor (ANMBBR) | Coal gasification wastewater | COD 138.0, total organic carbon (TOC) 60.0, NO ₂ -N 0.8, NH ₄ ⁺ -N 32.0, TN 49.0, total phosphorus (TP) 30.0, BOD5 5.5 | COD 52.1, TOC 27.2, NO ₂ -N 0.6, NH ₄ ⁺ -N 15.4, TN 15, TP 9.1, BOD5 17.7 | [102] |
| Chlorella vulgaris + activated sludge | Synthetic Wastewater | - | 83.6% COD, 89.4% Nitrogen, 91.4% Phosphorus | [103] |
| Chlorella. | Swine | - | 62.3% COD, 82.7% Nitrogen, | [104] |
| sorokiniana + aerobic sludge | wastewaters | - | 58.0% Phosphorus | [105] |
| Scenedesmus sp. ZTY2 | Domestic wastewater | Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) 42.7 ± 0.60, COD 142.0 ± 0.00, TN 27.7 ± 0.11, TP 1.59 ± 0.03 | DOC (%) 63.4±0.02, COD (%) 40.8±0.05, TN (%) 14.0±0.01, TP (%) 35.4 ± 0.04 | [106] |
| Scenedesmus sp. ZTY3 | Domestic wastewater | DOC 42.7 ± 0.60, COD 142.0 ± 0.00, TN 27.7 ± 0.11, TP 1.59 ± 0.03 | DOC (%) 52.9 ± 0.07, COD (%) 39.4±0.04, TN (%) 9.8±0.01, TP (%) 32.7±0.06 | [106] |
| Chlorella sp. ZTY4 | Domestic wastewater | DOC 42.7 ± 0.60, COD 142.0 ± 0.00, TN 27.7 ± 0.11, TP 1.59 ± 0.03 | DOC (%) 64.4±0.01, COD (%) 40.8±0.02, TN (%) 15.8±0.01, TP (%) 49.9±0.05 | [106] |
| Pilot high-rate algal ponds (HRAPs) | Urban Wastewater | T (°C) 16±1, DO 7±2, pH 8±1, COD 342±107, NH ₄ N 19±4 | T (°C) 13±1, DO 12±2, pH 9±1, COD 52±7 (88%), NH ₄ -N 0.4±0.1 (98%), TSS 149±15, Biomass production 6±0.3 | [107] |

Microalgae use POME as a source of food to generate more cells because its full of nutrients. Hence, a significant reduction is approachable in COD, and BOD concentrations. For instance, K, Ca, Mg, P, Zn, and Fe are essential elements for microalgae growth, and entirely are available in POME. Some

researchers reported that COD, phosphorus, and nitrogen removal is achievable for POME by utilising *Spirulina plantesis* microalgae and other commercial strains [85][86]. CO₂ supply is vital to optimise microalgae growth rate, but most of the sparged CO₂ in POME escape with the bubbles into the atmosphere. Inorganic carbon source like CO₂ and organic carbon sources like fructose, acetate, and glucose are consumed by microalgae to generate and produce lipid [87]. Also, ammonium concentration has a negative impact on POME quality, but it is highly demanded by microalgae because it is considered the favoured sort of nitrogen source [88]. On the other hand, high range of ammonium concentration can prevent the active growth of microalgae, for instance, *Spirulina platensis* microalgae can grow and develop within 100 ppm (5.65 μmol L⁻¹) of ammonium level. Unfortunately, POME ammonium concentration is ranging 4 to 80 mg L⁻¹ (222.22 to 4,444.44 μmol L⁻¹), which means it is not a fanciful medium for microalgae growth [89]. Luckily, there are some methods can be used to decline ammonium concentration like diluting POME with another kind of wastewater, or increasing temperature and pH, which leads to ammonium volatilizing into the atmosphere [57][88].

Determining microalgae strain for POME treatment is a difficult selection because each species has different characteristics and tolerances to culture conditions (e.g., CO₂ range, ammonium concentration, light tense). A researcher achieved 67.35% of COD reduction by employing *Chlorella incerta* for POME treatment in 28 days. Another researcher found that *Chlamydomonas* microalgae are the best species for POME remediation because of its fast growth. However, some other studies suggest cyanobacteria because its inherent with high effective potential. A researcher studied *Chlorella* sp. growth in POME medium. POME having 6.8 to 7.2 of pH level, under 3000 to 6000 lux of fluorescence lamp, and 1.0 g/l of urea was employed for *Chlorella* sp. microalgae growth. The cultivation process delivered 0.066 per day of *Chlorella* sp. specific growth rate for 15 days. Meng et al. (2014) suggested using Green macroalgae *Cladophora* species for wastewater dyes degradation and biosorption process [90][91][92].

The biotreatment for POME can generate biomass, which can be utilised for commercial products, like biodiesel and biofertilizer [93]. Also, biomass production of POME treatment proves waste to wealth system is quite approachable by microalgae treatment. It can provide a vast revenue and welfares not just financially but also eco-friendly. Microalgae is highly capable of producing around 5,000 to 15,000 gallons per acre/year of biodiesel. Also, microalgae performance of oil production is 30 times more than terrestrial oilseed crops capability. Thus, it seems that microalgae are the tremendous option to replace fossil-based diesel production [53][94]. After reviewing microalgae and biofilm treatments, different findings are listed in Table 3 with details to show the real ability of biofilm bacteria and microalgae towards wastewater treatment

3. Conclusion and Future studies

It is quite hard to prefer or compare between biofilm bacteria and microalgae because both have different lifecycle, and process. However, both treatments are promising methods towards sustainability and clean energy. However, the algal and bacterial treatments are in their earlier stages and researchers found limitations need to be solved. It is expected that fossil-based fuel will be replaced with biofuel. Thus, biotreatment will be a significant option for wastewater treatment to produce biomass and biofuel.

This review found using a hybrid system in treating wastewater is very efficient, easy to operate, high quality, and able to defeat numerous limitations of microalgae and biofilm treatments. Hence, microalgae are highly feasible and convenient from being integrated with biofilm bacteria inside one reactor. Although, it requires studies to find cultivation temperature, overgrowth, oxygen depletion, light tense, CO₂ concentration, and sludge production. The facultative pond is an example of integrating microalgae with biofilm bacteria for wastewater bioremediation, where microalgae produce oxygen as by-product and consuming CO₂, while biofilm bacteria generate CO₂, and gather oxygen for the cell generation, growth, and development.

4. References

- [1] Yusoff S and Hansen S B 2007 Feasibility study of performing an life cycle assessment on crude palm oil production in Malaysia. *Int. J. Life Cycle Assess.* **12** 50–8.
- [2] Ahmad A L, Ismail S and Bhatia S 2003 Water recycling from palm oil mill effluent (POME)

- using membrane technology. *Desalination* **157** 87–95.
- [3] Choo, Y.M., Lau, L.N.H. and Loh S . 2011 Renewable energy from oil palm. *Further advances in oil palm research (2000-2010)*. (Kuala Lumpur: Malaysian Palm Oil Board, Ministry of Plantation Industries and Commodities) pp 847–95.
- [4] Rupani P, Singh R, Ibrahim M and Esa N 2010 Review of current palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment methods: vermicomposting as a sustainable practice. *World Appl. Sci. J.* **11** 70–81.
- [5] Wu T Y, Mohammad A W, Jahim J M and Anuar N 2010 Pollution control technologies for the treatment of palm oil mill effluent (POME) through end-of-pipe processes. *J. Environ. Manage.* **91** 1467–90.
- [6] Ma A N, Tajima Y, Hannif M and Asahi J 1996 A novel treatment process for palm oil mill effluent. *Palm Oil Res Instit Malaysia (PORIM) Occasional Paper.* **19** pp 201–12.
- [7] Davis J B and Reilly P J A 1980 Palm oil mill effluent-a summary of treatment methods. *Oleagineux* **35** 323–30.
- [8] Department of Environment 1977 *Environmental Quality Act 1974- Environmental Quality (Prescribed Premises) (Crude Palm Oil) (Amendment) Regulation 1977*. (Percetakan Nasional Malaysia Berhad).
- [9] Kamyab H, Md Din M F, Tin C L, Ponraj M, Soltani M, Mohamad S E and Roudi A M 2014 Micro-macro algal mixture as a promising agent for treating POME discharge and its potential use as animal feed stock enhancer. *J. Teknol. (Sciences Eng.* **68** 1–4.
- [10] Vinet L and Zhedanov A 2011 A “missing” family of classical orthogonal polynomials. *J. Phys. A Math. Theor.* **44** 541.
- [11] Lansing S, Botero R B and Martin J F 2008 Waste treatment and biogas quality in small-scale agricultural digesters. *Bioresour. Technol.* **99** 5881–90.
- [12] Ma A N and Ong A S H 1985 Pollution control in palm oil mills in Malaysia. *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.* **62** 261–6.
- [13] Chin M J, Poh P E, Tey B T, Chan E S and Chin K L 2013 Biogas from palm oil mill effluent (POME): Opportunities and challenges from Malaysia’s perspective. *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.* **26** 717–26.
- [14] Ahmad A L, Ismail S and Bhatia S 2005 Ultrafiltration behavior in the treatment of agro-industry effluent: Pilot scale studies. *Chem. Eng. Sci.* **60** 5385–94.
- [15] Yu H Q and Mu Y 2006 Biological hydrogen production in a UASB reactor with granules. II: Reactor performance in 3-year operation. *Biotechnol. Bioeng.* **94** 988–95.
- [16] Lutpi N A, Jahim J M, Mumtaz T, Abdul P M and Mohd Nor M T 2015 Physicochemical characteristics of attached biofilm on granular activated carbon for thermophilic biohydrogen production. *RSC Adv.* **5** 19382–92.
- [17] Park K Y, Lim B R and Lee K 2009 Growth of microalgae in diluted process water of the animal wastewater treatment plant. *Water Sci. Technol.* **59** 2111–6.
- [18] Sheehan J, Dunahay T, Benemann J and Roessler P 1998 *Look Back at the U.S. Department of Energy’s Aquatic Species Program: Biodiesel from Algae; Close-Out Report*.
- [19] O’Toole G, Kaplan H B and Kolter R 2000 Biofilm Formation as Microbial Development. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* **54** 49–79.
- [20] Singh R, Paul D and Jain R K 2006 Biofilms: implications in bioremediation. *Trends Microbiol.* **14** 389–97.
- [21] Wood T K, Hong S H and Ma Q 2011 Engineering biofilm formation and dispersal. *Trends Biotechnol.* **29** 87–94.
- [22] Simões M, Simões L C and Vieira M J 2010 A review of current and emergent biofilm control strategies. *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.* **43** 573–83.
- [23] LI M Y, ZHANG J, LU P, XU J L and LI S P 2009 Evaluation of Biological Characteristics of Bacteria Contributing to Biofilm Formation. *Pedosphere* **19** 554–61.
- [24] Seow T, Lim C, Nor M, Mubarak M, Lam C, Yahya A and Ibrahim Z 2016 Review on Wastewater Treatment Technologies. *Int. J. Appl. Environ. Sci.* **11** 111–26.

- [25] Watnick P and Kolter R 2000 Biofilm, city of microbes. *J. Bacteriol.* **182** 2675–9.
- [26] Van Houdt R and Michiels C W 2005 Role of bacterial cell surface structures in *Escherichia coli* biofilm formation. *Res. Microbiol.* **156** 626–33.
- [27] Lazarova V and Manem J 1995 Biofilm characterization and activity analysis in water and wastewater treatment. *Water Res.* **29** 2227–45.
- [28] Sutherland I W 2001 The biofilm matrix - An immobilized but dynamic microbial environment. *Trends Microbiol.* **9** 222–7.
- [29] Decho A W 2000 Microbial biofilms in intertidal systems: An overview. *Cont. Shelf Res.* **20** 1257–73.
- [30] Van Niel E W J, Braber K J, Robertson L A and Kuenen J G 1992 Heterotrophic nitrification and aerobic denitrification in *Alcaligenes faecalis* strain TUD. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek* **62** 231–7.
- [31] Paul D, Pandey G, Pandey J and Jain R K 2005 Accessing microbial diversity for bioremediation and environmental restoration. *Trends Biotechnol.* **23** 135–42.
- [32] Fdez-Polanco F, Real F J and Garcia P A 1994 Behaviour of an anaerobic/aerobic pilot scale fluidized bed for the simultaneous removal of carbon and nitrogen. *Water Sci. Technol.* **29** 339–46.
- [33] Del Pozo R and Diez V 2003 Organic matter removal in combined anaerobic-aerobic fixed-film bioreactors. *Water Res.* **37** 3561–8.
- [34] Tartakovsky B, Manuel M F and Guiot S R 2005 Degradation of trichloroethylene in a coupled anaerobic-aerobic bioreactor: Modeling and experiment. *Biochem. Eng. J.* **26** 72–81.
- [35] Dhauadi H and Marrot B 2008 Olive mill wastewater treatment in a membrane bioreactor: Process feasibility and performances. *Chem. Eng. J.* **145** 225–31.
- [36] Morikawa M 2006 Beneficial biofilm formation by industrial bacteria *Bacillus subtilis* and related species. *J. Biosci. Bioeng.* **101** 1–8.
- [37] Escudié R, Cresson R, Delgenès J P and Bernet N 2011 Control of start-up and operation of anaerobic biofilm reactors: An overview of 15 years of research. *Water Res.* **45** 1–10.
- [38] Nicolella C, Van Loosdrecht M C M and Heijnen J J 2000 Wastewater treatment with particulate biofilm reactors. *J. Biotechnol.* **80** 1–33.
- [39] Saravanan V and Sreekrishnan T R 2006 Modelling anaerobic biofilm reactors-A review. *J. Environ. Manage.* **81** 1–18.
- [40] Mosquera-Corral A, Monràs A, Heijnen J J and Van Loosdrecht M C M 2003 Degradation of polymers in a biofilm airlift suspension reactor. *Water Res.* **37** 485–92.
- [41] Hall E R 1987 Biofilm reactors in anaerobic wastewater treatment. *Biotechnol. Adv.* **5** 257–69.
- [42] Shin S G, Han G, Lim J, Lee C and Hwang S 2010 A comprehensive microbial insight into two-stage anaerobic digestion of food waste-recycling wastewater. *Water Res.* **44** 4838–49.
- [43] Wang X, Wen X, Criddle C, Yan H, Zhang Y and Ding K 2010 Bacterial community dynamics in two full-scale wastewater treatment systems with functional stability. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* **109** 1218–26.
- [44] Westerholm M, Roos S and Schnürer A 2010 *Syntrophaceticus schinkii* gen. nov., sp. nov., an anaerobic, syntrophic acetate-oxidizing bacterium isolated from a mesophilic anaerobic filter. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **309** 100–4.
- [45] Zakaria M R, Tabatabaei M, Ghazali F M, Abd-Aziz S, Shirai Y and Hassan M A 2010 Polyhydroxyalkanoate production from anaerobically treated palm oil mill effluent by new bacterial strain *Comamonas* sp. EB172. *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **26** 767–74.
- [46] Bergmann I, Nettmann E, Mundt K and Klocke M 2010 Determination of methanogenic Archaea abundance in a mesophilic biogas plant based on 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis. *Can. J. Microbiol.* **56** 440–4.
- [47] Nyerges G, Han S K and Stein L Y 2010 Effects of ammonium and nitrite on growth and competitive fitness of cultivated methanotrophic bacteria. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **76** 5648–51.

- [48] Huang Y, Zong W, Yan X, Wang R, Hemme C L, Zhou J and Zhou Z 2010 Succession of the bacterial community and dynamics of hydrogen producers in a hydrogen-producing bioreactor. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **76** 3387–90.
- [49] Zhou S, Wei C, Liao C and Wu H 2010 Comprehensive study on dynamics of microbial community in Anaerobic-Oxic-Oxic process using PCR-DGGE, gas chromatography analysis, and dehydrogenase activity assays. *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **26** 273–9.
- [50] Bala J D, Lalung J and Ismail N 2014 Palm Oil Mill Effluent (POME) Treatment “Microbial Communities in an Anaerobic Digester”: A Review. *Int. J. Sci. Res. Publ.* **4** 1–24.
- [51] Kamyab H, Tin Lee C, Md Din M F, Ponraj M, Mohamad S E and Sohrabi M 2014 Effects of nitrogen source on enhancing growth conditions of green algae to produce higher lipid. *Desalin. Water Treat.* **52** 3579–84.
- [52] Richmond A and Hu Q 2013 *Handbook of Microalgal Culture: Applied Phycology and Biotechnology: Second Edition*. (John Wiley & Sons).
- [53] Khan S A, Rashmi, Hussain M Z, Prasad S and Banerjee U C 2009 Prospects of biodiesel production from microalgae in India. *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.* **13** 2361–72.
- [54] Brennan L and Owende P 2010 Biofuels from microalgae-A review of technologies for production, processing, and extractions of biofuels and co-products. *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.* **14** 557–77.
- [55] Liang Y, Sarkany N and Cui Y 2009 Biomass and lipid productivities of *Chlorella vulgaris* under autotrophic, heterotrophic and mixotrophic growth conditions. *Biotechnol. Lett.* **31** 1043–9.
- [56] Yang C, Hua Q and Shimizu K 2000 Energetics and carbon metabolism during growth of microalgal cells under photoautotrophic, mixotrophic and cyclic light-autotrophic/dark-heterotrophic conditions. *Biochem. Eng. J.* **6** 87–102.
- [57] Kamarudin K F, Tao D G, Yaakob Z, Takriff M S, Rahaman M S A and Salihon J 2015 A review on wastewater treatment and microalgal by-product production with a prospect of palm oil mill effluent (POME) utilization for algae. *Der Pharma Chem.* **7** 73–89.
- [58] Rodolfi L, Zittelli G C, Bassi N, Padovani G, Biondi N, Bonini G and Tredici M R 2009 Microalgae for oil: Strain selection, induction of lipid synthesis and outdoor mass cultivation in a low-cost photobioreactor. *Biotechnol. Bioeng.* **102** 100–12.
- [59] Gouveia L and Gouveia L 2011 Microalgae as a Feedstock for Biofuels. *Microalgae and Biofuels Production*. pp 1–69.
- [60] Kamyab H, Md Din M F, Ponraj M, Keyvanfar A, Rezaia S, Taib S M and Abd Majid M Z 2016 Isolation and screening of microalgae from agro-industrial wastewater (POME) for biomass and biodiesel sources. *Desalin. Water Treat.* **57** 29118–25.
- [61] Rahaman M S A, Cheng L H, Xu X H, Zhang L and Chen H L 2011 A review of carbon dioxide capture and utilization by membrane integrated microalgal cultivation processes. *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.* **15** 4002–12.
- [62] Sato T, Usui S, Tsuchiya Y and Kondo Y 2006 Invention of outdoor closed type photobioreactor for microalgae. *Energy Convers. Manag.* **47** 791–9.
- [63] Venkata Mohan S, Prathima Devi M, Mohanakrishna G, Amarnath N, Lenin Babu M and Sarma P N 2011 Potential of mixed microalgae to harness biodiesel from ecological water-bodies with simultaneous treatment. *Bioresour. Technol.* **102** 1109–17.
- [64] Lee Y K 1997 Commercial production of microalgae in the Asia-Pacific rim. *J. Appl. Phycol.* **9** 403–11
- [65] Tamiya H 1957 Mass Culture of Algae. *Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol.* **8** 309–34.
- [66] Lee Y K 2001 Microalgal mass culture systems and methods: Their limitation and potential. *J. Appl. Phycol.* **13** 307–15.
- [67] Chaumont D 1993 Biotechnology of algal biomass production: a review of systems for outdoor mass culture. *J. Appl. Phycol.* **5** 593–604.
- [68] Richmond A, Boussiba S, Vonshak A and Kopel R 1993 A new tubular reactor for mass production of microalgae outdoors. *J. Appl. Phycol.* **5** 327–32.

- [69] Hu Q, Guterman H and Richmond A 1996 A flat inclined modular photobioreactor for outdoor mass cultivation of photoautotrophs. *Biotechnol. Bioeng.* **51** 51–60.
- [70] Miyamoto K, Wable O and Benemann J R 1988 Vertical tubular reactor for microalgae cultivation. *Biotechnol. Lett.* **10** 703–8.
- [71] Lahin F A, Sarbatly R and Suali E 2016 Polishing of POME by *Chlorella* sp. in suspended and immobilized system. *IOP Conf. Ser. Earth Environ. Sci.* **36**.
- [72] Borowitzka M A 1999 Commercial production of microalgae: ponds, tanks, and fermenters. *Prog. Ind. Microbiol.* **35** 313–21.
- [73] Caldwell D H 1946 Sewage Oxidation Ponds: Performance, Operation and Design. *Sewage Work. J.* **18** 433–58.
- [74] Steinbrenner J and Linden H 2001 Regulation of two carotenoid biosynthesis genes coding for phytoene synthase and carotenoid hydroxylase during stress-induced astaxanthin formation in the green alga *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Plant Physiol.* **125** 810–7.
- [75] Green F B, Bernstone L S, Lundquist T J and Oswald W J 1996 Advanced integrated wastewater pond systems for nitrogen removal. *Water Sci. Technol.* **33** 207–17.
- [76] Hongyang S, Yalei Z, Chunmin Z, Xuefei Z and Jinpeng L 2011 Cultivation of *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* in soybean processing wastewater. *Bioresour. Technol.* **102** 9884–90.
- [77] Silva-Benavides A M and Torzillo G 2012 Nitrogen and phosphorus removal through laboratory batch cultures of microalga *Chlorella vulgaris* and cyanobacterium *Planktothrix isothrix* grown as monoalgal and as co-cultures. *J. Appl. Phycol.* **24** 267–76.
- [78] González L E, Cañizares R O and Baena S 1997 Efficiency of ammonia and phosphorus removal from a Colombian agroindustrial wastewater by the microalgae *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Scenedesmus dimorphus*. *Bioresour. Technol.* **60** 259–62.
- [79] Lim S L, Chu W L and Phang S M 2010 Use of *Chlorella vulgaris* for bioremediation of textile wastewater. *Bioresour. Technol.* **101** 7314–22.
- [80] Yun Y S, Lee S B, Park J M, Lee C Il and Yang J W 1997 Carbon dioxide fixation by algal cultivation using wastewater nutrients. *J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol.* **69** 451–5.
- [81] Mutanda T, Karthikeyan S and Bux F 2011 The utilization of post-chlorinated municipal domestic wastewater for biomass and lipid production by *Chlorella* spp. under batch conditions. *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.* **164** 1126–38.
- [82] Mata T M, Melo A C, Simões M and Caetano N S 2012 Parametric study of a brewery effluent treatment by microalgae *Scenedesmus obliquus*. *Bioresour. Technol.* **107** 151–8.
- [83] Olguín E J, Galicia S, Mercado G and Pérez T 2003 Annual productivity of *Spirulina* (*Arthrospira*) and nutrient removal in a pig wastewater recycling process under tropical conditions. *J. Appl. Phycol.* **15** 249–57.
- [84] Martínez M E, Sánchez S, Jiménez J M, El Yousfi F and Muñoz L 2000 Nitrogen and phosphorus removal from urban wastewater by the microalga *Scenedesmus obliquus*. *Bioresour. Technol.* **73** 263–72.
- [85] Zainal A, Yaakob Z, Takriff M S, Rajkumar R and Ghani J A 2012 Phycoremediation in anaerobically digested Palm Oil Mill Effluent using cyanobacterium, *Spirulina platensis*. *J. Biobased Mater. Bioenergy* **6** 704–9.
- [86] Bishop D F, O'Farrell T P and Stamberg J B 1972 Physical-Chemical Treatment of Municipal Wastewater. *Water Pollut. Control Fed.* **44** 361–71.
- [87] Huang G H, Chen F, Wei D, Zhang X W and Chen G 2010 Biodiesel production by microalgal biotechnology. *Appl. Energy* **87** 38–46.
- [88] Cai T, Park S Y and Li Y 2013 Nutrient recovery from wastewater streams by microalgae: Status and prospects. *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.* **19** 360–9.
- [89] Bello M M, Nourouzi M M, Abdullah L C, Choong T S Y, Koay Y S and Keshani S 2013 POME is treated for removal of color from biologically treated POME in fixed bed column: Applying wavelet neural network (WNN). *J. Hazard. Mater.* **262** 106–13.
- [90] Meng X, Liu G, Zhou J and Fu Q S 2014 Effects of redox mediators on azo dye decolorization

- by Shewanella algae under saline conditions. *Bioresour. Technol.* **151** 63–8.
- [91] Khataee A R, Dehghan G, Zarei M, Ebadi E and Pourhassan M 2011 Neural network modeling of biotreatment of triphenylmethane dye solution by a green macroalgae. *Chem. Eng. Res. Des.* **89** 172–8.
- [92] Holkar C R, Jadhav A J, Pinjari D V., Mahamuni N M and Pandit A B 2016 A critical review on textile wastewater treatments: Possible approaches. *J. Environ. Manage.* **182** 351–66.
- [93] Ng W P Q, Lam H L, Ng F Y, Kamal M and Lim J H E 2012 Waste-to-wealth: Green potential from palm biomass in Malaysia. *J. Clean. Prod.* **34** 57–65.
- [94] Gouveia L, Oliveira A C, Congestri R, Bruno L, Soares A T, Menezes R S, Filho N R A and Tzovenis I 2017 Biodiesel from microalgae *Microalgae-Based Biofuels and Bioproducts: From Feedstock Cultivation to End-Products*. (Woodhead Publishing) pp 235–58.
- [95] Qiu C, Zhang D, Sun L and Wen J 2015 Purification of high ammonia wastewater in a biofilm airlift loop bioreactor with microbial communities analysis. *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **31** 49–57.
- [96] Gu Q, Sun T, Wu G, Li M and Qiu W 2014 Influence of carrier filling ratio on the performance of moving bed biofilm reactor in treating coking wastewater. *Bioresour. Technol.* **166** 72–8.
- [97] Karadag D, Köroğlu O E, Ozkaya B and Cakmakci M 2015 A review on anaerobic biofilm reactors for the treatment of dairy industry wastewater. *Process Biochem.* **50** 262–71.
- [98] Li J, Ge Z and He Z 2014 A fluidized bed membrane bioelectrochemical reactor for energy-efficient wastewater treatment. *Bioresour. Technol.* **167** 310–5.
- [99] Lim S J and Kim T H 2014 Applicability and trends of anaerobic granular sludge treatment processes. *Biomass and Bioenergy* **60** 189–202.
- [100] Watari T, Mai T C, Tanikawa D, Hirakata Y, Hatamoto M, Syutsubo K, Fukuda M, Nguyen N B and Yamaguchi T 2017 Performance evaluation of the pilot scale upflow anaerobic sludge blanket – Downflow hanging sponge system for natural rubber processing wastewater treatment in South Vietnam. *Bioresour. Technol.* **237** 204–12.
- [101] Li P, Zhao D, Zhang Y, Sun L, Zhang H, Lian M and Li B 2015 Oil-field wastewater treatment by hybrid membrane-aerated biofilm reactor (MABR) system. *Chem. Eng. J.* **264** 595–602.
- [102] Zhuang H, Han H, Jia S, Zhao Q and Hou B 2014 Advanced treatment of biologically pretreated coal gasification wastewater using a novel anoxic moving bed biofilm reactor (ANMBBR)-biological aerated filter (BAF) system. *Bioresour. Technol.* **157** 223–30.
- [103] Wang Y, Ho S H, Cheng C L, Guo W Q, Nagarajan D, Ren N Q, Lee D J and Chang J S 2016 Perspectives on the feasibility of using microalgae for industrial wastewater treatment. *Bioresour. Technol.* **222** 485–97.
- [104] Xu Y, Wang Y, Yang Y and Zhou D 2016 The role of starvation in biomass harvesting and lipid accumulation: Co-culture of microalgae-bacteria in synthetic wastewater. *Environ. Prog. Sustain. Energy* **35** 103–9.
- [105] Hernández D, Riaño B, Coca M and García-González M C 2013 Treatment of agro-industrial wastewater using microalgae-bacteria consortium combined with anaerobic digestion of the produced biomass. *Bioresour. Technol.* **135** 598–603.
- [106] Zhang T Y, Wu Y H, Zhu S feng, Li F M and Hu H Y 2013 Isolation and heterotrophic cultivation of mixotrophic microalgae strains for domestic wastewater treatment and lipid production under dark condition. *Bioresour. Technol.* **149** 586–9.
- [107] Matamoros V, Gutiérrez R, Ferrer I, García J and Bayona J M 2015 Capability of microalgae-based wastewater treatment systems to remove emerging organic contaminants: A pilot-scale study. *J. Hazard. Mater.* **288** 34–42.