

Algae as nutritional and bioactive food ingredients

Las algas como ingredientes nutricionales y bioactivos de alimentos

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Abstract

Humanity currently presents many challenges, among which efficient food production is one of the greatest, which is why research is carried out to find unconventional protein sources. A potential alternative is algae (unicellular or multicellular), which generally develop in aquatic environments, whether in fresh or salt water, with the characteristic that they carry out photosynthesis. These organisms have various colors due to their pigments such as chlorophyll, phycocyanin, carotene, fucoxanthin, among others. Although the consumption of algae is very old, special attention has currently been paid to their nutritional quality since they show a high concentration of minerals, vitamins and proteins with low caloric and lipid content, and have also shown antibacterial, antifungal, antiviral, antioxidant, antihypertensive, immunomodulatory, anticancer, hepatoprotective, anticoagulant activities, among others. New food products have also been developed where algae or some of its components are used as ingredients for their functional and/or nutraceutical properties. In this review, some nutritional and functional properties of some algae are mentioned, as well as research where foods added either with algae or some of their components have been developed.

Keywords: Algae, functional foods, microalgae, nutraceutical foods, seaweeds.

Resumen

La humanidad actualmente presenta muchos desafíos, entre los cuales la producción eficiente de alimentos es uno de los más grandes, por lo que se realizan investigaciones para encontrar fuentes de proteínas no convencionales. Una potencial alternativa son las algas (unicelulares o multicelulares), que generalmente se desarrollan en ambientes acuáticos, ya sea en agua dulce o salada, con la característica de que realizan la fotosíntesis. Estos organismos presentan varios colores por sus pigmentos como clorofila, ficocianina, caroteno, fucoxantina, entre otros. Aunque el consumo de algas es muy antiguo, actualmente se ha prestado especial atención a su calidad nutricional ya que muestran una alta concentración de minerales, vitaminas and proteinas con bajo contenido calórico y lipídico, además han mostrado propiedades antibacterianas, antifúngicas, antivirales, antioxidantes, antihipertensivas, inmunomoduladoras, anticancerígenas, hepatoprotectoras, anticoagulantes, etc., por lo que se consideran alimentos funcionales o nutracéuticos. Las algas han estado presentes en la cocina de muchas culturas, también se han desarrollado nuevos productos alimenticios donde las algas o alguno de sus componentes se utilizan como ingredientes por sus propiedades funcionales y/o nutracéuticas. En esta revisión se mencionan algunas propiedades nutricionales y funcionales de algunas algas, así como investigaciones donde se han desarrollado alimentos adicionados ya sea con algas o alguno de sus componentes. Algas, alimentos funcionales, microalgas, alimentos nutracéuticos, algas marinas.

Palabras clave: Algas, alimentos funcionales, microalgas, alimentos nutracéuticos, algas marinas.

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1 Introduction

Algae, whether microalgae or seaweeds, have been consumed by humans since ancient times, and are currently a focus of study due to their high nutritional quality and the biological activities they present. Much research is being carried out to describe their nutraceutical properties and their potential use in the design of new food products. There are reports on their use as a food or ingredient in food processing, but their metabolites have also been used in both the food and pharmaceutical industries; to mention some algae-based products are energy bars, breads, cookies, cereals, desserts, ice creams, pastes and emulsions, etc., in addition, algae powders and extracts are available in tablets, capsules, crystals, gels and dietary supplements (Rao and Ravishankar, 2018).

1.1 Algae

Algae are organisms that are somewhat difficult to define, however, it can be said that they are generally aquatic and autotrophic through photosynthesis, although they are not higher plants. They are eukaryotic organisms, although there are prokaryotes such as cyanobacteria and there are cases of symbiosis between eukaryotic cells and a photosynthetic cyanobacterium (Raven and Giordano, 2014). Some authors include all the algae within the Protista kingdom, others, for their part, only include unicellular algae and green algae (chlorophytes) in this group, while the rest of the multicellular algae include them in the plant kingdom (Raven and Giordano, 2014). Depending on their size, microalgae are unicellular and microscopic, while multicellular ones can measure many meters in length and are known as macroalgae or marine algae (Figueiredo et al., 2016). There are three main classes of marine algae based on their pigmentation: Rhodophyta (Red seaweed), Phaeophyceae (Brown seaweed) and Chlorophyta (Green seaweed) (Biris-Dorhoi et al., 2020), as well as blue-green algae (cyanobacteria/Cyanophyta), which are the largest prokaryotic and capable of forming colonies.

Rhodophyta. Red algae or Rhodophyta are almost exclusively marine, constituting the largest and most diversified group of tropical reef plants. They present a great diversity of forms, they exist as forms of small filamentous grasses, or of large and beautiful coral reef organisms. These algae have large amounts of phycoerythrin (water soluble), which is a red pigment that, when present together with other pigments in photosynthetic cells, produces colors such as pale pink, purple, iridescent blue, etc. The vast majority of red algae are macroscopic, multicellular, and reproduce sexually (Littler *et al.*, 1983). Phaeophyceae. Brown algae or Phaeophyceae contain large amounts of fucoxanthin, which is the brown pigment, although they also contain significant amounts of alginic acid and fucoidin. These organisms are macroalgae that during their development present a multicellular organization, generating differentiated tissues and producing flagellated spores for their reproduction. They have cellulose in their cell walls, most of these algae have microscopic hair-like structures on their surface that they use in absorbing nutrients (Littler *et al.*, 1983).

Chlorophyta. Green algae or chlorophytes, present chlorophyll and are predominantly green, although they also contain carotenoids and xanthophylls. These algae are considered the ancestors of vascular plants, as they contain these same basic pigments. These algae can be microscopic in size, filamentous or in thin sheets, they can be spongy, gelatinous, leathery or brittle and can measure more than 1.5 m in length. They store their energy reserves in the form of starch, all produce spores and flagellate gametes. The common habitat of green algae is tropical coral reefs and at the bottom of lagoons, which may be interspersed with seagrass sprouts (Littler and Littler, 1994). Several green algae of the filamentous or lamellar type resist stressful conditions and can be considered indicators of recently disturbed areas.

Cyanobacteria (Blue-green algae). The algae in this group are prokaryotic and are not part of true plants. Cyanobacteria are considered to be a very old group and was the first group to develop aerobic photosynthesis. These algae show colors ranging from pink to purple and black, which are the result of a combination of red, blue and green colors provided by the pigments phycoerythrin, phycocyanin and chlorophyll, respectively. Several cyanobacteria also produce hormogonia, which are reproductive filaments that leave the original colony to generate new colonies. The biomass of some cyanobacteria is detrimental to human health and coral reefs, due to the production of some metabolites that present toxicity to many organisms including invertebrates, plankton and fish (Ruetzler et al., 1983). Some cyanobacteria are dangerous to humans and animals as they produce endotoxins, neurotoxins, cytotoxins and hepatotoxins (Paul et al., 2007). It is important to mention that cyanobacteria are the only organisms capable of reducing carbon and nitrogen in aerobic environments, which may be a characteristic that influenced their ecological and evolutionary success in certain coral reef habitats. Blue-green algae are abundant all over the world, they can withstand various extreme conditions, such as severe drought, bright sun and intense heat, rain, high salinity, etc. Cyanobacteria are among the oldest species known on Earth (Littler and Littler, 2013).

1.2 Algal nutritional components

Algae are a very abundant and important natural resource within food chains, impacting ecosystems due to their consumption of CO_2 and inorganic nutrients that, in the presence of sunlight, produce oxygen and biomass. Its chemical composition represents an excellent source of nutrients that include proteins, amino acids, vitamins (A, B1, B2, B6, niacin and C), minerals, lipids, fatty acids, carbohydrates, nucleic acids and pigments, among others (Pawar *et al.*, 2022).

Seaweeds and microalgae are an important source of protein, although their content varies depending on the species of algae, the season of the year and the general conditions in which they develop (Solis-Méndez et al., 2020); however, their content is high and, on many occasions, they present most of the essential amino acids, resembling the quality of proteins from animal sources (Wang et al., 2021). The reported dry weight crude protein content of microalgae biomass varies from 6 to 70%, however, most report values around 40% (Becker, 2007; Chacón-Lee and González-Mariño, 2010). The crude protein content on a dry basis has been reported for several algae. Table 1 shows the values reported for some of them, however, it is important to mention that protein content values can vary even between individuals of the same species, which may be due to the type and concentration of nutrients, the environmental conditions where the algae develop, the conditions and methods of analysis, among others. For example, in Arthrospira maxima the values are 56-71% (Oliveira et al., 1999; Milledge, 2011; Peña-Solis et al., 2023), in Arthrospira platensis the values vary from 55-70% (Oliveira et al., 1999; Becker, 2007; Habib et al., 2008; Niccolai et al., 2020), in Chlorella vulgaris the values are between 51-58% (Becker, 2007; Tibbetts et al., 2015). There are species that were reported very large variations in their crude protein content, such as Euglena gracilis with values of 39-61% (Becker, 2007), Nannochloropsis granulata presented contents between 18-34% (Tibbetts et al., 2015), and Spirogyra sp. showed 6-20% (Becker, 2007).

Table 1 also shows values of the lipid content of some algae; many species produce lipids in considerable quantities, in some cases reaching up to 40-70% of their dry weight, as is the case with *Schizochytrium* sp., *Chlorella* sp. and *Nannochloropsis* sp. (Chisti, 2007; Georgianna and Mayfield, 2012; Bellou *et al.*, 2014). The content of saturated, monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) in algal lipids is a topic of great interest. It can be said that cyanobacteria and green algae (Chlorophyta and Streptophyta) contain low amounts of fatty acids, predominantly saturated and monounsaturated, as well as, small amounts of PUFAs, while Chromalveolata algae contain large amounts of PUFAs (Lang et al., 2011). There are reports on the production of linoleic and α -linoleic acid by Spirulina spp. (Chaiklahan et al., 2008; Sahu et al., 2013). Chaetoceros gracilis produces oleic acid, palmitic acid, linoleic acid, α -linolenic acid, arachidonic acid, docosahexaenoic acid and eicosapentaenoic acid. Phaeodactylum tricornutum contains eicosapentaenoic acid, palmitoleic acid, palmitic acid, hexadecatrienoic acid and myristic acid (Villarruel-López et al., 2017). Recently, in a bibliographical review, the content of fatty acids and PUFAs (16:0, 16:1, 18:1, n6-18:2, n3-18:3, n6-20:4, n3-20:5, n3-22:6) of some species of algae was mentioned, within which are included Chlamvdomonas reinhardtii, Dunaliella salina, Scenedesmus obliquus, Chlorella vulgaris, Lauderia borealis, Phaeodactylum tricornutum, Nannochloropsis gaditana, Emiliania huxleyi, Pavlova lutheri, Ectocarpus siliculosus, Fucus vesiculosus, Porphyridium Chondrus crispus, purpureum (Harwood, 2019). Ohse et al. (2015), reported the lipid content and fatty acid profiles of nine marine species (Nannochloropsis oculate, Thalassiosira pseudonana, Phaeodactylum tricornutum, Isochrysis galbana, Tetraselmis suecica, Tetraselmis chuii, Chaetoceros muelleri, Thalassiosira fluviatilis and Isochrysis sp.) and one freshwater microalga (Chlorella vulgaris), cultured in vitro. Fatty acid composition of each lipid component of the alga Scenedesmus obliquus was also reported (Choi et al., 1987).

Table 1 shows the carbohydrate content of some algae. The carbohydrate content can vary depending on the species of algae as well as the environmental conditions in which they grow, but in general, the carbohydrate content is less than that of proteins and in many cases also less to lipid content (Villarruel-López et al., 2017). Among the carbohydrates present in algae are monosaccharides such as glucose, rhamnose, xylose, mannose, among others, as well as, some disaccharides, oligosaccharides, and polysaccharides. Cyanobacteria do not have cellulose in their cell wall, Arthrospira platensis has a cell wall rich in murein, and they have intracellular glycogen granules; some eukaryotic microalgae have cellulose in their cell wall (Safi et al., 2014). In red algae, cellulose and mucilages such as agar or carrageenan are found in their cell walls and they store starch and glycogen. In brown algae, water-soluble β -1,3-glucans have been found as storage polysaccharides. Green microalgae have cellulose in their cell wall and starch (amylose and amylopectin) as a storage carbohydrate (Villarruel-López et al., 2017).

Since algae are photosynthetic organisms, they contain pigments that are classified as chlorophylls (0.5-1.0% of dry weight), phycobilins (until 8% of dry weight) and carotenoids (carotenes and xanthophylls;

	Protein	Lipids	Carbohydrates	References
Algae	Content (g/100g)			
Acutodesmus dimorphus	28.1	18.8	38.6	Tibbetts et al., 2015
Arthrospira maxima	57	6	15	Peña-Solis et al., 2023
Arthrospira platensis	55.8	14.2	22.2	Tibbetts et al., 2015
Botryococcus braunii	39-40	25-34	19-31	Tibbetts et al., 2015
Chaetoceros calcitrans	34	16	6	Brown, 1991
Chaetoceros calcitrans	40	23	37	Velasco et al., 2016
Chaetoceros gracilis	12	7.2	4.7	Brown, 1991
Chaetoceros muelleri	59	31	10	Velasco et al., 2016
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii	48	21	17	Becker, 2007
Chlorella pyrenoidosa	57	2	26	Chisti, 2007
Chlorella vulgaris	53.3	15.7	25.2	Tibbetts et al., 2015
Dunaliella primolecta	12	-	-	Slocombe et al., 2013
Dunaliella salina	57	6	32	Becker, 2007
Dunaliella sp.	34.17	14.36	14.57	Kent et al., 2015
Dunaliella tertiolecta	11	-	-	Barbarino and Lourencço, 2005
Isochrysis galbana	27	11	34	Gorgônio et al., 2013
Nannochloropsis granulata	18-34	24-48	27-36	Tibbetts et al., 2015
Nannochloropsis sp.	30	22	10	Kent et al., 2015
Neochloris oleoabundans	30.1	15.4	37.8	Tibbetts et al., 2015
Nitzschia closterium	26	13	9.8	Brown, 1991
Pavlova sp.	24-29	9-14	6-9	Brown, 1991; Becker, 2007
Phaeodactylum tricornutum	39.6	18.2	25.2	Tibbetts et al., 2015
Porphyridium aerugineum	31.6	13.7	45.8	Tibbetts et al., 2015
Porphyridium cruentum	28-39	9-14	40-57	Becker, 2007
Prymnesium sp.	28-45	22-38	25-33	Ricketts, 1966
Scenedesmus obliquus	48-56	12-14	10-17	Becker, 2007; González-López et al., 2010
Scenedesmus sp.	31	15	28	Kent et al., 2015
Schizochytrium sp.	-	50-77	-	Chisti, 2007
Skeletonema costatum	25	10	4.6	Brown, 1991
Spirulina maxima	60-71	6-7	13-16	Becker, 2007
Synechococcus sp.	63	11	15	Becker, 2007
Tetraselmis chuii	46.5	12.3	25	Tibbetts et al., 2015
Tetraselmis sp.	36-52	16-45	15-24	Brown, 1991; Schwenzfeier et al., 2011
Thalassiosira pseudonana	34	19	8.8	Brown, 1991
Ulva lactuca	8.44	5.79	25.81	Chakraborty and Santra, 2008

Table 1. Protein, carbohydrate and lipid content of some algae.

usually 0.1-0.2% of dry weight, but achieving up to 14% in some species). Among the algae mostly used to produce pigments are *Chlorella vulgaris* (chlorophylls), *Arthrospira platensis* (phycocyanin), *Dunaliella salina* (β -carotene) and *Haematococcus pluvialis* (astaxanthin) (Silva *et al.*, 2020).

1.3 Bioactive properties of algae

The lifestyle that the world population currently presents has led us to have bad eating habits and coupled with little physical activity, the number of chronic diseases has increased, for which there is much research for the development of new treatments and medications, including bioactive compounds. These compounds with biological activity are a focus of much attention, looking for the producing organisms, as well as, the conditions of maximum production, without neglecting the understanding of their mechanisms of action. Algae are organisms that have been shown to produce a wide variety of compounds with biological activities. Among the bioactive compounds found in algae are lipids, polyphenols, polysaccharides, proteins and peptides, sterols, flavonoids, alkaloids, pigments, etc. (Peñalver et al., 2020). Due to the presence of nutrients and bioactive compounds, algae are considered as nutraceuticals or functional foods. The terms "nutraceutical foods" or "functional foods" are not legally recognized in many parts of the world, and some authors consider them synonymous. However, functional foods can generally be defined as products that, when ingested, in addition to nutrients provide health benefits including the prevention and treatment of diseases, while nutraceuticals are foods added with compounds with biological activity or products

Biological activity	Compound/extract	Biological activities present in some a	References
		0	
Anticancer	Glycoproteins	Laminaria japonica	Go <i>et al.</i> , 2010;
	Fucoindans	Sargassum hornery, Ecklonia cava,	Ermakova <i>et al.</i> , 2011
	Heterofucans	Costaria costata	Costs at $al = 2011$
		Sargassum filipendula Laurencia viridis	Costa <i>et al.</i> , 2011
	Squalene-derived Phlorotannins	Ecklonia cava	Lahaye and Robic, 2007
	Astaxanthin	Dunaliella salina	Kong <i>et al.</i> , 2009 Balasubramaniam <i>et al.</i> , 2021
			Balasublamaniani et at., 2021
	β -carotene	Hamatococcus pluvialis	$Ch_{0} \rightarrow -1$ 2008
	Lutein Violaxanthin	Chlorella vulgaris Dunaliella tertiolecta	Cha et al., 2008
	Fucoxanthin	Phaeodactylum tricornutum	Pasquet <i>et al.</i> , 2011 Neumann <i>et al.</i> , 2019
	Phycocyanin	Spirulina platensis	Deniz <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Prabakaran <i>et al.</i> 2020
	Cis β -carotene	Dunaliella bardawil	Harari et al., 2013
	Aqueous and ethanolic	Gracilaria corticate, Sargassum	Veluchamy and Palaniswamy, 2020.
	extracts	oligocystum	
	Methanolic and	Gracilaria tenuistipitata, Plocamium	
	ethanolic extracts	telfairiae	
Antiviral	Cyanovirin	Nostoc ellpsosporum	Boyd et al., 1997
	Scytovirin	Scytonema varium	Bokesch et al., 2003
	Sulfated	Spirulina platensis, Porphyridium	Mader et al., 2016, Huleihel et al., 200
	polysaccharides	cruentum	,,,,
	Fucans	Dictyota mertensii, lobophoravariegata,	Queiroz et al., 2008
		Spatoglossum schroederi, Fucus	C
		vesiculosus	
Antimicrobial	Extracts	Ulva fasciata, Bryopsis plumosa,	Shanmughapriya et al., 2008; Prarthan
Antimicrobia	(methanol/toluene;	Chaetomorpha antennina, Acrosiphonia	and Maruthi, 2019
	(incuration/tordene, 3:1)	orientalis, Sargassum wightii,	
	5.1)	Grateloupia filicina, Hypnea	
		pannosa, Gracilaria corticate	
		Portieria hornemannii, Cheilosporum	
		spectabile, Centroceras clavulatum,	
		Chnoospora bicanaliculata, and Padina	
		tetrastromatica	
	Methanol extracts	Dunaliella salina	Pane et al., 2015
	Wiethanor extracts	Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata	1 and <i>et ut.</i> , 2015
	Diethyl ether extracts	Ulva rigida, Enteromorpha linza,	Tuney et al., 2006
	Dicuryi culci extracts	Cystoseira mediterranea, Ectocarpus	Tuncy <i>et ut.</i> , 2000
		siliculosus, Gracilaria gracilis	
	Ethanolic extract	Dictyota linearis	
			D 1 1 0 1 2007
Antioxidant	Fucoidan	Fucus vesiculosus	Rocha de Souza <i>et al.</i> , 2007
	Phlorotannins	Ecklonia cava	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2009
	Sesquiterpenoids	Ulva fasciata	Chakraborty and Paulraj, 2010
	Flavonoids	Ulva latuca	Meenakshi <i>et al.</i> , 2009
		Gracilaria dendroides	Al-Saif et al., 2014
	Anthraquinones,	Various microalgae and seaweeds	Martínez-Palma et al., 2015; Biris
	Coumarins,		Dorhoi et al., 2020; Veluchamy an
	Phycobiliproteins,		Palaniswamy, 2020; Peña-Solis et al
	Flavonoids,		2023.
	Carotenoids,		
	Chlorophylls		

Table 2. Biological activities present in some algae.

in the form of capsules, pills or liquid extracts presenting the biological properties (Shahidi, 2012; Bagchi, 2006; Hafting *et al.*, 2012). Interest in algae as nutraceuticals or functional foods has increased recently, as many biological activities have been observed. Table 2 lists some algae and the compounds that have shown anticancer, antiviral, antimicrobial and antioxidant activity. Although other biological activities have been reported in algae such as anti-inflammatory, anti-obesity, neuroprotective,

anti-diabetic, anticoagulant, anti-aging, reduction of blood pressure and fat, antithrombotic, antidepressant and anti-fatigue properties, anti-allergic effect, immunomodulatory activity, neuroprotective effect, among others (Figueiredo *et al.*, 2016; Biris-Dorhoi *et al.*, 2020; Veluchamy and Palaniswamy, 2020; Pawar *et al.*, 2022).

2 Algal-based functional/nutraceutical foods

The research and development of pharmaceutical technologies as well as in the area of health have favored an increase in the life expectancy of the human being, however, the sedentary lifestyle and bad eating habits have generated an increase in the population but with many chronic-degenerative ailments. In this sense, one of the challenges we face is to produce more and better food but in the same existing spaces. It is important to consider underexploited sources such as algae, since as mentioned above, they are organisms with excellent nutritional quality and also with biological properties that would provide health benefits for those who consume them.

It is not known exactly when algae began to be consumed, however, there are records that they have been part of the human diet for approximately 14,000 years BP (Dillehay et al., 2008) and there is evidence of their consumption in China 300 A.D. (Wells et al., 2017). There are also records that the Spirulina alga (Arthrospira maxima) produced in Lake Texcoco, Mexico, was consumed by the Aztec culture in the form of a small dry cake which they called "Tecuitlatl" (Ciferri, 1983). Spirulina used as human food also has a long history among the Kanembu tribes that live around Lake Chad in the Republic of Chad (Qian, 2004). Algae are consumed as a main dish or as an ingredient in food preparation, but there are also some components extracted from algae that, due to their techno-functional properties, favor the design and development of new food products. It is worth noting in Asian food, the use of nori (Porphyra spp.) for making sushi and sea lettuce (Ulva lactuca), wakame (Undaria pinnatifida), kombu (Saccharina japonica), and also Irish moss (Chondrus crispus) and thongweed or sea spaghetti (Himanthalia elongate), are eaten (Matos et al., 2022). Among the foods added with algae are fish, meat, dairy analogues, pasta, bread, etc. (Matos et al., 2022; Onwezen et al., 2021), and within the compounds extracted from algae with techno-functional properties we can mention polysaccharides such as carrageenan, alginate and agar-agar that are used as thickening agents for beverages, ice creams and as gelling agents for jellies (Hung et al., 2021). Microalgae are also used to enhance the flavor and texture of food (Coleman et al., 2022). Among the species of algae with potential use as food or as a food ingredient, some microalgae can be mentioned, such as Botryococcus sp., Chaetoceros sp., Chlorella sp., Crypthecodinium sp. Dunaliella sp., Haematococcus sp., Isochrysis sp., Nannochloris sp., Nitzschia sp., Phaeodactylum sp., Porphyridium sp., Schizochytrium sp., Skeletonema sp. Spirulina sp., Tetraselmis sp. (Sathasivam et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2018), and some seaweeds can also be mentioned, such as Acanthophora navadiformis, Agarum Ascophyllum nodosum, Bifurcaria clathratum, bifurcata, Botryocladia wrightii, Canistrocarpus cervicornis, Chondracanthus chamissoi, Dictyota bartayesiana, Durvillaea antarctica, Ecklonia cava, Egregia menziesii, Eisenia arborea, Fucus spp., Gelidiella acerosa, Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis, Halimeda macroloba, Halymenia durvillei, Hypnea musciformis, Lessonia nigrescens, Lessonia trabeculata, Lobophora variegata, Macrocystis pyrifera, Mazzaella canaliculata, Nizamuddinia zanardinii, Osmundaria obtusiloba, Phaeodactylum tricornutum, Polyopes affinis, Sargassum cinereum, confusum, Sargassum cristaefolium, Sargassum Sargassum fusiforme, Sargassum hemiphyllum, Sargassum horneri, Sargassum wightii, Turbinaria decurrens, Ulva lactuca, Ulva linza, Ulva prolifera, Ulva reticulata (Choudhary et al., 2021).

The design and production of algae-based foods has recently increased, it is estimated that worldwide between 2015 and 2019 an amount of 13090 products with algal biomass or some algal derivative were reached, where dairy products, desserts and ice creams were the most abundant (Boukid and Castellari, 2021). Despite the large number of existing products, research continues seeking the development of new foods with the nutritional and biofunctional benefits of algae. Table 3 shows a list of some algae or products derived from algae used in food formulation, and below are some scientific studies describing the techno-functional properties of algae and their application in the design and production of foods.

microalgae Arthrospira platensis and The Chlorella vulgaris were used as ingredients for 3D printing cookie dough, achieving greater mechanical resistance and elasticity, favoring the 3D printing process of cookies, making them more stable and resistant to baking (Uribe-Wandurraga et al., 2021). The microalga rich in astaxanthin "Haematococcus pluvialis" was dehydrated and pulverized to be used in the preparation of wholemeal cookies. Up to 15% of the whole grain flour was replaced by powder of the alga rich in astaxanthin. It was possible to reduce the release of glucose during the in vitro digestion of the cookies and a high content of astaxanthin was observed with an increase of the amount of phenolic compounds and antioxidant activity (Hossain et al., 2017). Sea grape (Caulerpa racemosa) was incorporated into cookies; the alga increased the water and oil absorption capacity of the flour mixture as well as the retention capacity of other ingredients such as sodium carbonate, lactic acid and sucrose. The content of phenolic compounds and their antioxidant activity increased, the protein and fiber content were higher and the acceptability was adequate (Kumar et al., 2018).

Food group	Specific food	Algae	References
Dairy	Yogurt	Chlorella sp. Pavlova lutheri Spirulina platensis	Cho et al., 2004 Robertson et al., 2016 Bchir et al., 2019; Khaledabad et al., 2020
		Isochrysis galbana	Matos <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	Probiotic fermented milks	Spirulina platensis, Chlorella vulgaris	Beheshtipour <i>et al.</i> , 2013
	Functional fermented dairy products	Spirulina platensis	Varga et al., 2002; Molnár et al., 2005
	Ice cream	Diacronema vlkianum, Porphyridium cruentum, Nannochloropsis oculata	Durmaz et al., 2020
		Spirulina platensis	Agustini et al., 2016; Tiepo et al., 2021
	Processed cheese	Spirulina maxima Chlorella sp.	Mohamed <i>et al.</i> , 2020 Jeon, 2006
	Bacteriologically acidified feta-type (BAF) cheese	Spirulina platensis	Golmakani et al., 2019
	Soft cheese		Agustini et al., 2016
	Greek soft cheese		Bosnea et al., 2020
	Spreadable processed cheese	Chlorella vulgaris	Tohamy et al., 2018
Bakery	Pizza and chocolate cake	Spirulina sp.	Khafagy et al., 2023
	Bread	Dunaliella sp.	Finney et al., 1984
		Microchloropsis gaditana, Tetraselmis chuii, Chlorella vulgaris	Qazi <i>et al.</i> , 2021
		Arthrospira platensis, Chlorella vulgaris	Sukhikh et al., 2022
		Arthrospira fusiformis	Achour et al., 2014
		Arthrospira platensis	Ak et al., 2016
		Arthrospira sp.	Dinu <i>et al.</i> , 2012
		Isochrysis galbana, Tetraselmis suecica, Scenedesmus almeriensis Nannochloropsis gaditana	Garcia-Segovia <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	Gluten free bread	Arthrospira platensis	Figueira et al., 2011
Ez Bi Bi	Extruded snacks	Arthrospira sp.	Lucas et al., 2018
	Biscuits	Isochrysis galbana	Gouveia et al., 2008b
		Arthrospira platensis	Baky et al., 2015; Singh et al., 2015
		Arthrospira platensis, Chlorella vulgaris Tetraselmis suecica, Phaeodactylum tricornutum	Batista et al., 2017
	Breads and crackers	Tetraselmis sp., Nannochloropsis sp.	Lafarga et al., 2019
	Wheat crackers	Arthrospira platensis, Chlorella vulgaris, Tetraselmis suecica, Phaeodactylum tricornutum	Batista et al., 2019
	Cookies	Haematococcus pluvialis	Hossain et al., 2017
	Cookies and granola bars	Chlorella vulgaris	Gelgör <i>et al.</i> , 2022

Table 3. Some algae used in food processing.

	Butter cookies		Gouveia et al., 2007
Pasta Pasta Gluten-free pasta	Pasta	Chlorella vulgaris, Chlorella vulgaris orange (after carotenogenesis), Arthrospira maxima	Fradique et al., 2010
		Isochrysis galbana, Diacronema vlkianum	Fradique et al., 2013
		Dunaliella salina	El-Baz et al., 2017
		Fucus vesiculosus (seaweed)	Ribeiro et al., 2022
	Gluten-free pasta	<i>Laminaria ochroleuca</i> (seaweed) Fradinho <i>et al.</i> , 2019	
	Gluten-free noodles	Spirulina platensis	Riyad et al., 2020
Emulsions Oil/water e	Oil/water emulsions	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> green, <i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> orange (after carotenogenesis)	Raymundo et al., 2005
		Chlorella vulgaris green, Chlorella vulgaris orange (after carotenogenesis), Haematococcus pluvialis (red, after carotenogenesis)	Gouveia <i>et al.</i> , 2006
Gels	Vegetarian food	Chlorella vulgaris, Haematococcus pluvialis, Arthrospira maxima, Diacronema vlkianum	Batista et al., 2008
		Arthrospira maxima, Diacronema vlkianum	Gouveia et al., 2008a
		Haematococcus pluvialis, Arthrospira maxima	Batista et al., 2011; 2012
Drinks	Coffee Soda beverage	Arthrospira platensis	Matos et al., 2022

With the idea of having a nutritious food ready to be consumed, a snack added with 2.6% Spirulina sp. LEB-18 was designed; the product had a sensory acceptance of 82% and an increase of 22.6% in proteins, 28.1% in lipids and 46.4% in minerals with respect to the snack without Spirulina, in addition its physical properties were not affected. (Lucas et al., 2018). A corn flour-based snack was enriched with Spirulina palatensis powder, the contents of anthocyanins, vitamins, proteins, minerals, amino acids and essential fatty acids increased with a decrease in caloric availability. Excellent acceptance was achieved by panelists (Bayat-Tork et al., 2022). Bread is one of the most consumed food products in the world, which is why attempts have been made to nutritionally enrich it in various ways. In this sense, a study reported that in the bread making, red alga (Kappaphycus alvarezii) powder (2-8 %) was added to the wheat flour, seeking to improve the rheological properties of the dough and the quality of the bread. The water absorption of the dough was increased and the stickiness properties were decreased, achieving a firmer bread (Mamat et al., 2014). In another study, the biomass of algae Cladophora sp. and Ulva sp. in amounts of 2.5, 5.0 and 7.5% were added to the bread dough. The addition of macroalgae biomass increased the protein (16 to 18%) and fiber (1 to 2%) contents, while the lipids decreased (17 to 12%). Sensory and technological properties changed slightly compared to bread without seaweed (Menezes et al., 2015). The cultivation conditions of Scenedesmus obliquus (freshwater green microalgae) were established in order to increase its lipid, carbohydrate and protein content and thus use this alga in lyophilized form as a fortifying ingredient in the elaboration of a crunchy chocolate bar seeking to have a product with greater nutritional value due to its contribution of essential amino acids and fatty acids as well as other compounds with biological activity (Hlaing et al., 2020).

Spirulina sp. LEB-18 spray-dried and microencapsulated with maltodextrin and soy lecithin was added to milk that had chocolate powder, a chocolate-flavored milk beverage was obtained with an increase in protein and phenolic content and a reduction in total lipids. The drink presented good suspension stability and low hygroscopicity as well as adequate acceptance by the tasters (Batista de

Oliveira et al., 2021). Spirulina platensis was used to fortify a yogurt, the addition of 0.25% Spirulina accelerated the end of fermentation without affecting the sensory acceptability or textural properties of the final dairy product. The water retention capacity was improved with less whey syneresis during 28 days of storage, the coloring of the product was stable and the antioxidant activity of the yogurt was considerably improved (Barkallah et al., 2017). In fermented milk with a mixed culture (Streptococcus thermophilus, Lactobacillus acidophilus and Bifidobacterium animalis ssp. lactis) an aqueous extract of Gracilaria domingensis alga was evaluated as a substitute for gelatin. In the product added with alga, there were no changes in the pH, titratable acidity and viability of the fermenting bacteria in comparison with the milks fermented with gelatin and without texture modifying agent. The firmness, consistency, cohesion and viscosity index were approximately 10% higher in the fermented milk added with seaweed (Tavares-Estevam et al., 2016).

A vegetable cream (spinach, zucchini, chickpeas, leeks, broccoli and Swiss chard) was added with 3.0 and 1.5% unicellular microalgae (either Chlorella vulgaris, Arthrospira platensis, Nannochloropsis oceanica or Tetraselmis chui) powder. The cream added with 1.5% Chlorella vulgaris was observed as the best formulation, however, the creams added with the four microalgae were considered products with "high protein content" according to current EU legislation (Boukid et al., 2021). The biomass of Spirulina maxima and Chlorella vulgaris was used to enrich fresh spaghetti. The amount of algae added (0.5-2.0%) improved the firmness of the pasta without loss of color (orange or green) after cooking, and the acceptance by the panelists was higher compared to the pasta without microalgae, concluding that the microalgae biomass can improve the nutritional and sensory quality of pasta, without affecting its cooking properties and texture (Fradique et al., 2010).

In another study, 5% of the flour mixture for pasta was replaced with powdered biomass of the Chlorella sorokiniana microalga, in order to provide coloration avoiding artificial colorants. The microalga was previously analyzed to determine its nutritional quality. The pasta added with the microalga showed an increase in protein and lipid content of 15.7 and 4.1 %, respectively; the contents of polyunsaturated fatty acids, chlorophyll and carotenoids also increased (Bazarnova et al., 2021). Sea lettuce (Ulva lactuca), nori (Porphyra tenera) and wakame (Undaria pinnatifida) algae were incorporated separately in the preparation of wheat pasta; it was observed that cooking times decreased as well as a lower hardness value with higher adhesiveness and resilience values, colors were also observed in the pastas provided by each alga used and an increase in protein and soluble fiber content was achieved (Ainsa *et al.*, 2022).

In a study, the addition of powder from the Ulva intestinalis alga and a sulfated polysaccharide on the shelf life of fish surimi was evaluated. With the addition of the two ingredients, lower TBARS (thiobarbituric acid reactive substance assay) values were observed after 6 months, compared to surimi without alga, and the texture and acceptability of the product was better than that of the control product (Jannat-Alipour et al., 2019). Lipid oxidation and physicochemical properties were evaluated in sausages made with chicken meat added with the edible alga Kappaphycus alvarezii. The presence of the alga increased the hardness and chewiness, the water retention capacity, the redness and the pH value of the sausages, there was also a reduction in lipid oxidation and cooking losses (Pindi et al., 2017). The addition of extracts of three brown marine algae (Fucus vesiculosus, Ascophyllum nodosum and Bifurcaria bifurcata) was evaluated on the oxidative rancidity of refrigerated low-fat pork liver pates. Half of the pork fat was replaced by canola and sunflower oil (75:25, v/v) and to prevent oxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids, algal extracts were added. The protein content was increased (2-3%), without changes in the other chemical and microbiological components of the pate. After 180 days of storage, the algae showed a similar degree of protection against oxidation compared to BHT (Butyl hydroxytoluene) (Agregán et al., 2018). In one study, the ability of extracts (ethanolic and acetone) of the Icelandic brown alga Fucus vesiculosus to inhibit the oxidation of lipids present in granola bars fortified with fish oilin-water emulsion was investigated. Algal extracts (0.5 or 1 g extract/100 g emulsion) reduced lipid oxidation during 10 weeks of storage. The antioxidant improvement was possibly due to the fact that the algal extracts improved the incorporation of the emulsions in the bars and increased the total phenolic content (Karadağ et al., 2017).

The alga Himanthalia elongata (10-40 % w/w) was added to cooked beef patties. Patties with seaweed showed reduced cooking losses and were nearly 50% more tender as compared to patties without seaweed. Microbial count and lipid oxidation were decreased compared to patties without seaweed. The content of dietary fiber, the content of phenolic compounds and the DPPH (2,2-Diphenyl-1-Picrylhydrazyl) radical scavenging activity increased considerably. The sensory analysis showed greater acceptance of the patties added with seaweed (Cox and Abu?Ghannam, 2013). In another study, the effect of incorporating the alga Sargassum wightii (0.3, and 5%) on the quality of tuna jerky was studied. The total fiber content increased up to 2.49% due to the addition of seaweed, the amounts of macrominerals and trace elements in

the Tuna jerky also increased and the antioxidant activity was improved (Hanjabam *et al.*, 2017).

Conclusions

Given the continuous growth of the human population, the demand for nutritious and healthy foods also grows, in this sense, functional foods or nutraceuticals are the object of search and study. Currently, algae have become very important due to their use as food or ingredient in the food industry due to its nutritional quality and the biological activities they present. It is extremely important to promote the consumption of algae in any of its presentations, in addition, research on the study of nutritional quality and nutraceutical properties and the design of new foods supplemented with algae should be increased.

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