

# Benign fabrication of metallic/metal oxide nanoparticles from algae

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## 1 Introduction

The association of materials with biology has built-up new criteria in the burgeoning newfangled part of nanotechnology and focused on developing biologically engineered nanostructured materials to amalgamate their profound research in nanobio-technology. The study, synthesis, and commercialization of nanostructured materials are rapidly increasing day-by-day due to its promising and admirable applications in various fields, including clinical diagnosis, agriculture, medicine, electronics, solar cells, pharmaceuticals, and renewable energy (Jain, 2007; Rai and Ingle, 2012; Rai et al., 2016; Narayanan and Sakthivel, 2010; Sharma et al., 2019; Hussein, 2015). Nanomaterials are the sole source of nanotechnology, and based on the application point of view; the nanomaterials are tailored by surface modification with other metals/compounds/biomolecules (Narayanan and Sakthivel, 2010; Rai et al., 2016). In addition, tuning the nanomaterial size and shape impressively changes its physicochemical properties for enhanced activity (Wang et al., 2008; Cao et al., 2017; Pereira et al., 2015). However, the production of nanomaterials, both metallic and metal oxides, without causing any noxious effects, is a huge prominent concern in the arena of nanotechnology. Generally, classical methods such as chemical and physical methods are mostly used to produce nanostructured materials. Though, scientists found the classical methods are inappropriate and not fulfill the associated environmental issues. The unavoidable issues are as follows, (i) formation of toxic surplus compounds along with synthesized nanomaterials, (ii) requires high temperature, pressure, and plant, (iii) not an environmentally benign and expensive process (Narayanan and Sakthivel, 2010; Singh et al., 2016; Abbasi et al., 2016). These difficult problems turned on the scientists to focus on an alternative process that overcame the classical methods' issues. They have changed their focus on the biological sources used to remediate toxic pollutants in the environment (Narayanan and Sakthivel, 2010; Ojuederie and Babalola, 2017). They have found that some

microorganisms and plants have the potency to survive in the toxic chemical environment (Cabral et al., 2013; Yoon et al., 2006). The evolutionary changes in heavy metal tolerance behavior might be the possible reason that the microorganisms and plants obtained the ability to tolerate the chemical stress and utilize the chemicals as a nutrient for their growth and development at their minimum level. The proteins/enzymes/phytochemicals present in the microorganisms and plants play a significant role in the breakdown of toxic chemicals (Steinberg, 1936; Baldrian, 2003; Salam et al., 2016; Deng et al., 2004). The metal-microorganisms interaction phenomenon helped the researchers utilize the metal stress tolerant microorganisms to remediate toxic chemicals from the aquatic and terrestrial ecosystem. The *Pseudomonas stutzeri* AG259, AG257, AG643, and AG724 are the silver tolerant bacterial strains isolated from the silver mining area's soil by Klaus et al. (1999). Interestingly, they have found some of the nano-sized crystals around 200 nm on the poles of *Pseudomonas stutzeri* AG259 cells during the examination of silver tolerant behavior of *Pseudomonas stutzeri* AG259. Additionally, they reported the silver nanoparticles (Ag NPs) located in the periplasmic region due to the occurrence of silver specific binding proteins (Klaus et al., 1999). Like microorganisms, the plants also have the metal resistant ability that can undergo phytoremediation for their growth (Haverkamp and Marshall, 2009). In plants, roots are the important contact region for the transportation of metals or metal salts into the plant system. There is a vast confusion that metal nanoparticles formed outside of the plant (i.e.) in soil or after uptake of metals or metal salts can be converted to metal nanoparticle inside the plant system (Haverkamp and Marshall, 2009). To evident, a report by Gardea-Torresdey et al. (2003) exemplified the formation of silver nanoparticles inside the living alfalfa plants. Additionally, they stated the silver (Ag) and gold (Au) metals in the form of atoms ( $\text{Ag}^0$  and  $\text{Au}^0$ ) absorbed by the live alfalfa root and inside the plant system, they arranged each other to produce silver and gold nanoparticles (Gardea-Torresdey et al., 2003, 2002). These reports indicated that the availability of reducing candidates might influence the nucleation and growth of metal nanoparticles. Later, the extracts of various plant parts like leaf, fruit, seed, flower, stem, root, and bark were actively used to produce divergent nanoparticles. This chapter includes the participation of algae such as microalgae and macroalgae in the fabrication of various metal and metal oxide NPs. We have explained in detail about the plausible mechanism involved in the production of nanoparticles. Besides, the possible biomolecules/phytochemicals participation and their functional activities in the nanoparticles synthesis process were also well documented.

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## 2 Preference for plants

Mostly, the researchers preferred plant materials-based extracts to produce nanoparticles because of various active phytochemicals. The phytochemical constituents act as excellent reducing/capping/stabilizing agents in the formation of nanoparticles. Microorganisms are also eminent sources for the production of nanoparticles.

However, compared to plant materials, the microorganisms are failed to fulfill certain drawbacks. For instance, avoidance of cross-contamination is the primary demerit in the microbe mediated process. Maintaining a single microbial culture for the nanoparticles' production is a much tedious process in the laboratory condition. During synthesis, the environment should be maintained with an aseptic condition for escaping from the contamination (Kumar and Yadav, 2009; Vanaja et al., 2014; Shah et al., 2015). The plant-mediated synthesis process is simple, cheapest, non-toxic, eco-friendly, and has no microbial contamination (Kumar and Yadav, 2009; Shah et al., 2015). Therefore, nowadays, researchers are preferably chosen the plant materials for the production of metal and metal oxide nanoparticles.

Another important phenomenon is the involvement of prominent non-flowering algae in the production of nanoparticles. Like plant materials, the algae also have active phytochemicals that may participate in the synthesis of various nanomaterials. In the green synthesis process, the non-toxic reducing, capping/stabilizing agents, and admissible solvents are the important aspects. The algae-based NPs synthesis process also meet out all the mentioned criteria and amenable for the environment.

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### 3 Algae

Algae are photosynthetic eukaryotes available in both fresh and marine water. The microalgae are the freshwater algae, and mostly they are a unicellular system. In contrast, marine water algae are macroalgae or seaweeds that hold a multicellular system (Chapman, 2013). Phycoremediation is the process that demonstrates the elimination of toxic pollutants from the contaminated sites by using algae. Among classical methods, the algae's utilization in removing toxic pollutants attained considerable attention due to its lesser influence on the environment (Baghour, 2019). In addition, it is a fine substitute for the microorganisms-based remediation approaches. The presence of a massive amount of enzymes in the algae has effective involvement in the degradation of noxious pollutants (Baghour, 2019; Tolboom et al., 2019). The microalgae such as *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Zhang et al., 2011), *Chlorella* species (Wang et al., 2010), *Dunaliella* species (Imani et al., 2011), and *Chlorococcum* species (Subashchandraboze et al., 2015) actively participate in the bioaccumulation and degradation of toxic pollutants. The sewage is one of the right sources for the growth of microalgae because it can easily uptake the trace elements for their growth and development (Baghour, 2019). Hence, the microalgae are utilized mainly in the various industrial sewage treatment and municipal wastewater treatment plants. The microalgal biomass has remarkably used as biofertilizer in agriculture, in feed animal husbandry, and excellent source materials for biodiesel production (Mulbry et al., 2007; Madeira et al., 2017; Patil et al., 2011). Based on the biodegradation concept of algae, the nanoparticles of metal and metal oxide has been fabricated by the green route using algae in the field of nanobiotechnology. Furthermore, the NPs synthesized from algal materials have talented applications including antibacterial, antidiabetic, anticancer, antitumor, insecticidal, larvicidal, sensor, photocatalytic,

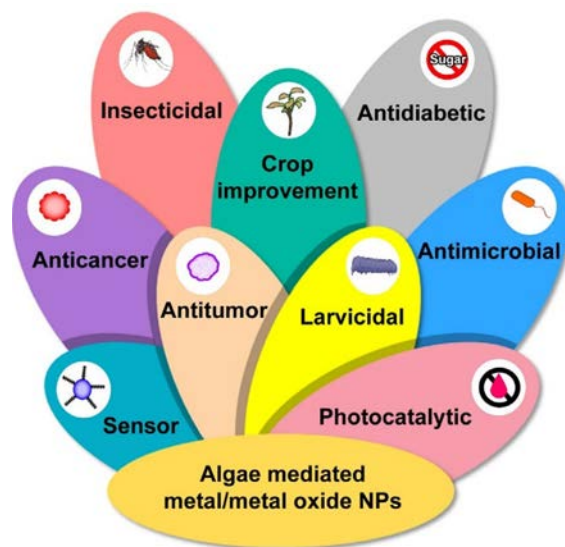


FIG. 1

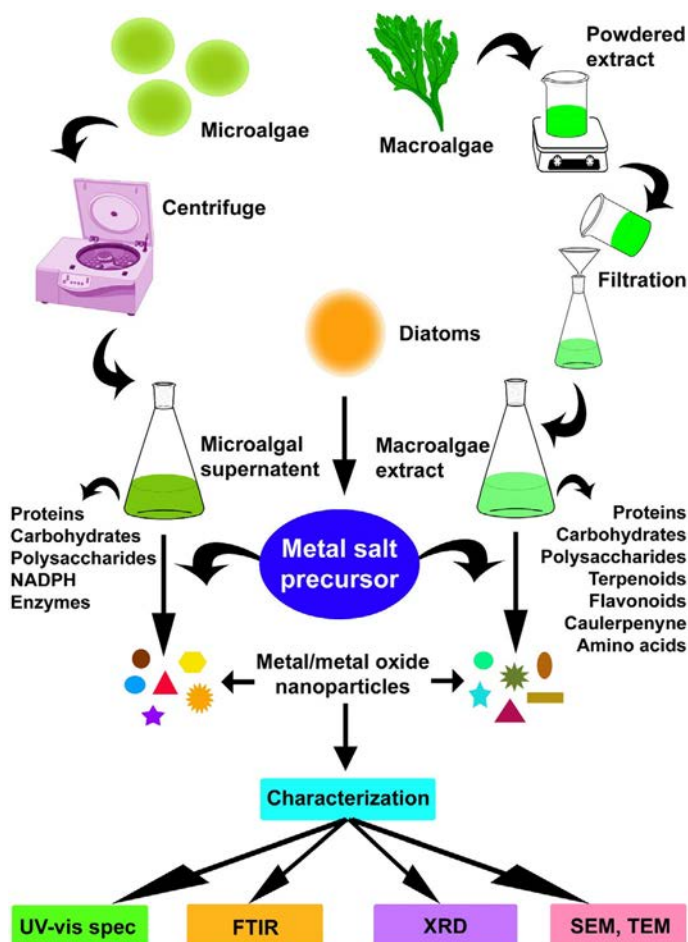
Various applications of algae synthesized metal and metal oxide NPs.

and crop improvement (Govindaraju et al., 2009; Manam and Murugesan, 2014; Priyadharshini et al., 2014; Khalifa et al., 2016; Moorthi et al., 2015; Deepak et al., 2017; Momeni and Nabipour, 2015; Aziz et al., 2015; Venkatachalam et al., 2017) (Fig. 1).

## 4 Nanoparticles from microalgae

### 4.1 Metal NPs

The microalgae cells are tiny, and size ranges from few micrometers to tens of micrometers (Mata et al., 2012), which served as a green micro-machine in nanosized particle production. Generally, most researchers preferentially synthesized Ag and Au NPs using algal extract due to their promising biological activities. Green micro-alga *Scenedesmus* sp. is effectively used to synthesis 3–35 nm range sized Ag NPs through the intracellular process. In contrast, around 5–10 nm-sized silver nanoparticles were fabricated through the extracellular process. After exposure of silver nitrate to the algal cells, the silver ions were uptaken by the algal cells, and accumulation of silver ions was achieved 93% at the 72 h incubation. Inside the cells, the presence of protein moieties in the algal cells may be responsible for the biofabrication of Ag NPs (Fig. 2). While in the extracellular process, the proteins molecules were extracted from the cells and feasibly interacted with silver ions resulted in Ag NPs (Jena et al., 2014). Similarly, the carbohydrate from another strain, *Scenedesmus* sp. 145-3, was used as an extracellular source for the production of Ag NPs (Patel et al., 2015).

**FIG. 2**

Synthesis route and characterization of algae-based metal and metal oxide NPs.

Also, [Patel et al. \(2015\)](#) reported the Ag NPs had been synthesized by using algal cultures such as *Coelastrum* sp. 143-1, *Coelastrum* sp. 46-4, *Botryococcus* sp., *Chlorella* sp. 142-5-2, *Chlorella* sp. 2-4, *Chlamydomonas* sp. Ev-29 and *Scenedesmus* sp. Another report by [Ebrahiminezhad et al. \(2016\)](#) to strengthen [Patel et al. \(2015\)](#) study that carbohydrates available in the cell-free supernatant of *Chlorella vulgaris* responsible for the reduction of metallic Ag ions into Ag NPs ([Fig. 2](#)). On the other hand, the protein moieties present in the cell-free algal extract of *Chlorella vulgaris* may also a crucial reducing agent involved in the production of Ag NPs ([Ebrahiminezhad et al., 2016](#)). Another green microalga, *Acutodesmus dimorphus*, harvested in the dairy effluent actively involved in the fabrication of spherical shaped 2–20 nm-sized Ag NPs ([Chokshi et al., 2016](#)). The potency of silver nanoparticles synthesis was

examined in three freshwater algae, *Pectinodesmus* sp. HM3, *Dictyosphaerium* sp. HM2 and *Dictyosphaerium* sp. HM1 by [Khalid et al. \(2017\)](#). Herein, the transmission electron microscopic (TEM) observation revealed the synthesized Ag NPs were spherical with a size of about 15–30 nm and 40–50 nm for *Dictyosphaerium* sp. HM1 and *Dictyosphaerium* sp. HM2, respectively. The *Pectinodesmus* sp. HM3 alga achieved a predominantly ovoid shape with 50–65 nm-sized Ag NPs. Interestingly, the exopolysaccharides extracted from *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* and *Botryococcus braunii* acted as reducing and stabilizing candidates in the production of Ag NPs ([Gallon et al., 2019](#)) ([Fig. 2](#)).

Like Ag NPs, the microalgae are used as an efficient bioreactor to produce gold nanoparticles. While exposing the algae *Tetraselmis kochinensis* to the chloroauric acid solution, the released Au ions from chloroauric acid reduced to Au NPs inside the *Tetraselmis kochinensis* live cell. This critical study was reported by [Senapati et al. \(2012\)](#), and they postulated the reduced gold nanoparticles were highly deposited on the cell wall compared to the cytoplasm. Because the presence of bioactive enzymes in the cell wall of *T. kochinensis* was keenly involved in the reduction of Au ions into Au NPs ([Fig. 2](#)). The TEM observations exhibited the dense accumulation of Au NPs in the cell wall, and very few were observed in the cytoplasm region ([Senapati et al., 2012](#)). Similarly, [Dahoumane et al. \(2016\)](#) used another microalga *Euglena gracilis* to fabricate Au NPs. They followed a divergent manner to increase Au NPs by altering the growth of *Euglena gracilis*. For that, the microalga was grown in two different conditions, include autotrophic and mixotrophic. Herein, the microalga grown in mixotrophic achieved increased production compared to autotrophic conditions. Interestingly, they have exemplified the lactate in the mixotrophic medium may responsible for the arisen of different shaped Au NPs such as round, hexagonal, triangle, pentagonal, and truncated triangles. The same concept is that through scanning electron microscopy (SEM), the Au NPs were observed mostly in the cell surface region, and the least amount was spotted inside the cell. In addition, observation of a few particles beneath the cell surface indicated the release of NPs from the cells. From the results, they postulated that the spherical shaped NPs were predominantly observed inside the cell. However, the different shaped Au NPs observed in TEM analysis may contribute to the shape-tuned extracellular synthesis of Au NPs by the associating discharged bioactive molecules of lactate lysed cells in the medium (mixotrophic). The cell lysis possibly occurred by the increased concentration of Au(III) ions in the lactate medium ([Dahoumane et al., 2016](#)). The report of [Yin et al. \(2010\)](#) also provided appropriate evidence that the lactate molecules' capability as a reducing agent and possibly responsible for the growth of different shapes Au NPs. An interesting report by [Shakibaie et al. \(2010\)](#) stated the extracellular fabrication of Au NPs by using the extract of microalga *Tetraselmis suecica* cells. The extract from disrupted cells was used as an efficacious source for the apparition of Au NPs. The TEM observation significantly revealed spherical shaped Au NPs with an average particle size of about 79 nm. Also, compared to previous results related to algal mediated Au NPs synthesis, [Shakibaie et al. \(2010\)](#) have taken a very low incubation period (5 min) to synthesize Au NPs.



The palladium (Pd) NPs are also the critical NPs mostly used for photocatalytic and antimicrobial studies. Eroglu et al. (2013) used the *Chlorella vulgaris* to synthesize Pd NPs from an aqueous solution of sodium tetrachloropalladate. The TEM observations stated the size of the synthesized Pd NPs were in the range of 2–15 nm. Herein, interestingly, they have found that the cofactor nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) in *C. vulgaris* possibly involved in the reduction of Pd(II) into Pd NPs (Fig. 2). Similarly, the *C. vulgaris* was utilized by another group Arsiya et al. (2017), for the production of Pd NPs from palladium chloride (PdCl<sub>2</sub>). They have observed that the *C. vulgaris* extract has taken 10 min only to synthesize Pd NPs from PdCl<sub>2</sub>. Through Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy analysis (FTIR), they concluded that amide and polyol functional groups in the phytochemicals or biomolecules of *C. vulgaris* extract might be possible responsible reducing agents involved in the reduction of PdCl<sub>2</sub> into Pd NPs (Arsiya et al., 2017). *Botryococcus braunii*, one of the green algae, was employed to synthesize Pd and platinum (Pt) NPs by Arya et al. (2020). The SEM images clearly showed the synthesized Pd and Pt NPs average size of about 4.89 and 86.96 nm, respectively. Besides, they concluded the hydroxyl groups in fatty acids, polysaccharides, and proteins of *B. braunii* algal extract might be strongly intermingled with synthesized Pd and Pt NPs. Therefore, these biomolecules might be possible reducing/stabilizing agents in the NP synthesis process.

Subramaniam et al. (2015) have developed a phyco-based manufacturing unit using *Chlorococcum* sp.MM11 for the production of iron (Fe) NPs. This green nano factory efficiently synthesized spherical Fe NPs with the size ranges of 20–50 nm. In addition, the TEM observations exhibited the Fe NPs mostly deposited on the surface of *Chlorococcum* sp.MM11 cells due to the presence of glycoproteins and polysaccharides. Moreover, they pointed out the amide and carbonyl groups of *Chlorococcum* sp.MM11 biomolecules might be acting as reducing and capping agents (Subramaniam et al., 2015). The green microalgae *B. braunii* is potentially used as an acceptable source for copper (Cu) NPs. The synthesized Cu NPs hold an average particle size of about 58 nm, and possibly the biomolecules such as polysaccharides, proteins, fatty acids, and amides were involved in the Cu NPs reduction and stabilization process (Arya et al., 2018).

## 4.2 Metal oxide NPs

Microalgae also act as effective excellent power reactors for the production of metal oxide NPs. Like metal NPs (Ag, Au, Pd, and Fe), the metal oxide NPs such as zinc oxide (ZnO), titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>), and copper oxide (CuO) NPs are also exhibited potent biological activities. Therefore, the synthesis of metal oxide NPs is also one of the prominent arenas required to empower and fascinating their nanomedicine applications. Limited reports are available to prove the metal oxide NPs synthesis ability of microalgae. *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, the microalga usually growing in freshwater, was potentially used as a superb bioreactor for the production of ZnO nanoflowers. Here, the *C. reinhardtii* cell-free extract effectively reduces the

zinc acetate dehydrate into ZnO nanorods (NRs). Further, the NRs are aggregated to form a flower-like structure. The proteins/biomolecules present in the extract of *C. reinhardtii* cell might be responsible for stabilizing as-synthesized ZnO NRs (Rao and Gautam, 2016). Zhang et al. (2019) used the extract of *C. vulgaris* to synthesize ZnO NPs. The rich protein moieties of *C. vulgaris* energetically involved in the synthesis of 20–40 nm sized ZnO NPs. Similarly, Khalafi et al. (2019) have taken the *Chlorella* powder extract to synthesize ZnO NPs. They have postulated that the presence of proteins, carbohydrates, peptides, fiber, and vitamins might be involved in both the reduction and stabilization of synthesized ZnO NPs. Due to these biomolecules' presence; they have produced ZnO NPs with an average size of about 20 nm. Another group Taghizadeh et al. (2020), utilizes the carbohydrate waste of *C. vulgaris* to produce ZnO NRs. During bulk culturing of *C. vulgaris*, it can produce the carbohydrates that are the waste byproducts that have been used as a nano-green factory for the synthesis of ZnO NRs. These carbohydrates acted as a growth controlling agent to fabricate the ZnO in the form of NRs.

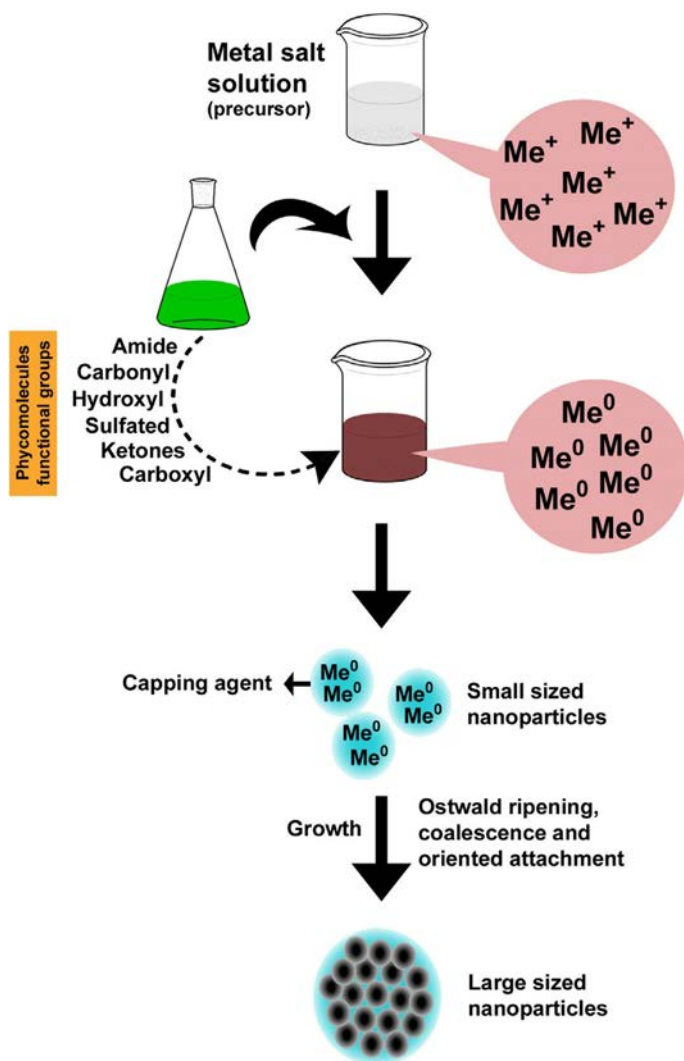
Sharma et al. (2018) documented that the extract of *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* has the ability to synthesize TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs. The SEM analysis exhibited the synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs were in spherical with a diameter of 50 nm. Similarly, Bhattacharya et al. (2019) examined the CuO NPs synthesis capability of a powdered extract of *Anabaena cylindrica* microalgae. The biological substances such as polysaccharides, terpenoids, and flavones of *A. cylindrica* algal extract play a remarkable role as both reducing and capping molecules in the CuO NPs production. Moreover, they hypothesized the synthesized CuO NPs size was significantly less of about 3.6 nm during high centrifugal speed (900 rpm) compared to particles (42.54 nm) obtained at low centrifugal speed (500 rpm). The centrifugal speed is one of the prominent factors to restrict the size of the NPs. During high centrifugal speed, the synthesized NPs were broken down into fine tiny particles (Bhattacharya et al., 2019).

## 5 Nanoparticles synthesized by macroalgae

### 5.1 Metal NPs

Like microalgae, the macroalgae is also primarily involved in the production of Ag and Au NPs. Brown algae *Sargassum wightii* was effectively used as a potential source for the fabrication of silver nanoparticles by Govindaraju et al. (2009). They exemplified the conversion of –OH (alcoholic) to –CHO (aldehyde) through oxidation, and it might have resulted in the reduction of Ag metal ions from silver nitrate salt into Ag NPs (Fig. 3). The TEM observations showed the manufactured Ag NPs were mostly spherical and size in the range of 8–27 nm. Prasad et al. (2013) have used marine brown algae *Cystophora moniliformis* to synthesize Ag NPs. They have concluded that the temperature is one of the key parameters to determine the size of the synthesized Ag NPs. Because they have synthesized Ag NPs in two different temperatures was 65°C and 95°C. In 65°C, the SEM observations exhibited that the average size of the produced Ag NPs was about 75 nm. However, at 95°C,



**FIG. 3**

Possible involvements of phycomolecules in production of NPs.

the average size of fabricated Ag NPs was more than  $2\mu\text{m}$ . During high temperatures, the synthesized NPs were aggregated and resulted in large-sized NPs (Prasad et al., 2013). The Ag NPs synthesis potency was examined in another brown alga, *Sargassum polycystum* by Palanisamy et al. (2017). The results concluded that the

synthesized Ag NPs were spherical, and the amides groups of *S. polycystum* proteins responsible for the capping of Ag NPs.

The extract of marine green algae *Caulerpa serrulata* is actively used as a biological green manufacturing unit to produce Ag NPs (Aboelfetoh et al., 2017). But, this report is controversial compared to the result of Prasad et al. (2013) that high temperature (95°C) revealed the synthesis of nano-sized Ag NPs of about 10 nm. At low temperature (27°C), a weak surface plasmon resonance (SPR) peak was observed 440 nm in the UV-vis spectrum. However, the higher temperature (95°C) exhibited a sharp, intense SPR peak at 412 nm, resulting in the production of smaller sized Ag NPs. Recently, another controversial report by Liu et al. (2020) stated the size of Ag NPs increases with increasing the temperature from 70°C ( $7.8 \pm 2.3$  nm) to 90°C ( $17.6 \pm 4.5$  nm). Therefore, a huge unsolved qualm has raised whether the temperature increases or decreases the size of the NPs. Except for the temperature, other parameters such as pH, metal ion (precursor) concentration, reducing agent concentration, and reaction time also possibly affect the size and morphology of the NPs (Khan et al., 2019). Probably there are two ways involved in the growth of NPs include Ostwald ripening and oriented attachment. In Ostwald ripening, the reduced atoms are aggregated to form large-sized NPs. But the oriented attachment process defines the growth of large-sized NPs because of the aggregation of synthesized small-sized NPs. Hence, the size of the NPs may be related to the temperature on NPs growth (i.e.) during Ostwald ripening and oriented attachment (Madras and McCoy, 2003; Xue et al., 2014) (Fig. 3).

Fatima et al. (2020) examined the Ag NPs synthesis property on medicinally potent *Portieria hornemannii*, red algae obtained from the Gulf of Mannar, Rameshwaram, India. Actually, in this study, the Ag<sup>+</sup> ions have taken only 60 min to complete the reduction of Ag metal ions into Ag NPs. Similarly, *Gelidium corneum*, another red alga, has undergone the production of Ag NPs. The red algae extract employed as a reducing agent to synthesis Ag NPs with the size ranges from 20 to 50 nm. The FTIR analysis revealed the aldehyde group oxidation and the presence of azo-based compounds might be possible functional groups involved in the fabrication of Ag NPs (Ozturk et al., 2020).

Apart from proteins and fatty acids, the medicinally valuable sulfated polysaccharides in the macroalgae play a remarkable role in the production of NPs. Fucoidan is present in marine brown algae actively participating in reducing metal ions into metal NPs (Fig. 2). For instance, fucoidan extracted from the marine algae *Spatoglossum asperum* used to synthesis spherical shape with the size ranges between 20 and 46 nm. The results concluded that the sulfate and aromatic compounds effectively contributed to the bioreduction of ionic Ag to Ag NPs (Ravichandran et al., 2018). Another report brought additional evidence that polysaccharides, including fucoidan, alginate, and laminarin extracted from marine macroalgae *Fucus evanescens* and *Saccharina cichorioides*, also potentially involved in the fabrication of Ag NPs. But the report concluded the alginate from *F. evanescens* expressed increased Ag metal ion reduction compared to fucoidan isolated from both algae and laminarin. The XRD analysis revealed the average particle size for alginate of about 18 nm was smaller compared to laminaran (29 nm), fucoidan from *F. evanescens* (24 nm), and

fucoidan (37 nm) from *S. cichorioides*. In the ionic Ag reduction process, these different polysaccharides acted to reduce and stabilize candidates (Yugay et al., 2020).

The Au NPs are also promising agents filled with various biological activities such as antimicrobial, anticancer, antidiabetic, antitumor, and anti-inflammatory (Patil and Kim, 2017; Guo et al., 2020; Muthukumar et al., 2016; Singh et al., 2018). *S. wightii* is one the marine source has potential involvement in the production of monodispersed Au NPs. The size obtained Au NPs from *S. wightii* of about 8 to 12 nm. They suggested that the polysaccharides present in the extracellular of *S. wightii* might be acting as a possible stabilizing agent to achieve monodispersed Au NPs (Singaravelu et al., 2007). *Stoechospermum marginatum*, another marine brown alga, collected by Rajathi et al. (2012) from coastal area Tuticorin, India, explored the Au NPs production's potency. The recovered Au NPs from *S. marginatum* biomass hold specific shapes such as spherical, triangle, and hexagonal with a size range of 18.7–93.7 nm. The XRD pattern indicated that the appearance of additional peaks with standard Au peaks might be the occurrence of biological moieties of *S. marginatum* associated with synthesized Au NPs. It is a usual matter in biological protocols, and the association these phytochemical constituents of biomolecules was removed by repeated centrifugation of NPs solution with deionized water (Rajathi et al., 2012). Similarly, Venkatesan et al. (2014) have taken *Ecklonia cava* to check the efficacy of Au NPs production. Impressively, the powdered algal extract was taken only 60 s to complete the formation of Au NPs at the reaction temperature of 80°C. The average size of algal extracts synthesized Au NPs was  $30 \pm 0.25$  nm with triangle and spherical shapes. In contrast, a small size of about  $8.4 \pm 2.2$  nm Au NPs was synthesized by the extract of *Cystoseira baccata* (Gonzalez-Ballesteros et al., 2017). The polysaccharides, such as fucoidans and polyphenols, acted as a barrier system to avoid the coalescence and aggregation of synthesized Au NPs (Gonzalez-Ballesteros et al., 2017; Yugay et al., 2020). Similarly, Colin et al. (2018) found that the powdered extract of *Egregia* sp. also can produce Au NPs with a size of about 8 nm. Prior, they have taken different dilution concentration of algal powder extract of 0.025 to 9.0 mg/mL for the production of Au NPs. Finally, the optimized concentration of 2.5 mg/mL of powdered algal extract is appropriate for fabricating small-sized Au NPs. The biologically active algal extract molecules effectively played as reducing agents for reducing aqueous Au ions into Au NPs. Additionally, these biomolecules offered a bio-fence to protect synthesized colloidal Au NPs from aggregation (Colin et al., 2018). The green alga *Caulerpa racemosa* was undergone Au NPs production by interacting with chloroauric acid (Manikandakrishnan et al., 2019). Generally, the formation of Au NPs was primarily identified by the formation of Ruby red color (Kumar et al., 2011). For Ag NPs, the mostly brown color appeared to confirm Ag NPs in the reaction mixture (aqueous silver nitrate with plant extract) (Kumar et al., 2014). The color changes were occurred by the oscillation of electrons of the surface of NPs or the excitation of surface plasmon resonance in synthesized NPs (Mulaney, 1996; Petryayeva and Krull, 2011). The obtained Au NPs size was in the range of 13.7–85.4 nm with spherical and oval shapes. The proteins of *C. racemosa* might be acted as a capping agent in the production of Au NPs (Manikandakrishnan et al., 2019). Similarly, the red alga

*Galaxaura elongate* also actively participated in the fabrication of Au NPs through the interaction with aqueous chloroauric acid. The aqueous powdered algal extract has taken 3 h to initiate the synthesis of Au NPs, whereas the ethanolic algal extract has taken 2 to 5 min to produce the Au NPs. The phytochemical constituents such as epicatechin gallate, gallic acid, stearic acid, alloxanthone, oleic acid, glutamic acid, etc. have mostly extracted from *G. elongate* through ethanol solvent. Moreover, these molecules are plausibly responsible for various processes, including reduction, stabilization, and capping (Abdel-Raouf et al., 2017). Like green alga *C. racemosa* (Manikandakrishnan et al., 2019), the *G. elongate* red alga produced Au NPs size of 3.85 to 77.13 nm with shapes like spherical, triangle, hexagonal, and truncated triangle (Abdel-Raouf et al., 2017). Recently, the alga *Saccharina japonica* has been used to synthesize different size Au NPs of about 72 nm and 10 nm by changing the algal extract concentrations. The 1 mL volume of algal extract reacts with aqueous gold chloride trihydrate to obtain 72 nm large sized Au NPs. Though, increase the volume of algal extract to 2 mL, about 10 nm small-sized Au NPs were produced in the reaction mixture. This algal extract also completed the Au NPs formation process in 20 min (2 mL algal extract) and 40 min (1 mL algal extract) (Khoshnamvand et al., 2020).

The Pd NPs are also familiarly known for their potent catalytic, adsorption, and antimicrobial activities. *Sargassum bovinum* is one of the algae proficiently participated in the production of Pd NPs. About 5–10 nm-sized nanoparticles were identified by TEM analysis, and further, these NPs were used for catalytic applications (Momeni and Nabipour, 2015). Similarly, Prasad et al. (2015) reported the production of Pd NPs by the dried powdered extract of *S. wightii*. The synthesized NPs were dispersed well in a spherical shape with a size range of 5–37 nm identified by SEM analysis. Likewise, the algae *Ulva lactuca* was involved in the synthesis of selenium (Se) nanoparticles. The Se NPs are an essential micronutrient that plays a pivotal role in therapeutic applications. The polysaccharides xylose, uronic acid, rhamnose, and glucose found in *Ulva lactuca* prominently play a crucial role in the green fabrication of Se NPs (Zhu et al., 2017). Another alga, *Sargassum latifolium* also potentially used for the synthesis of Se NPs. The synthesized spherical shaped Se NPs hold a size of about 22.31–95.16 nm (El-Khateeb et al., 2019). The brown algae *Dictyota dicotoma* undergone divergent iron (Fe) NPs synthesis process, and further, the fabricated Fe NPs were processed to examine its antimicrobial nature (Chandran et al., 2016). The potential phytochemical constituents and biomolecules in algal extracts act as excellent sources for the fabrication of various metal nanoparticles. Further, the involvement of macroalgal extract in the synthesis of metal oxide nanoparticles is discussed in detail in the forthcoming section.

## 5.2 Production of metal oxide NPs

Like metal NPs, the metal oxide NPs also gained more attraction due to its promising photocatalytic, agriculture, sensor, antimicrobial, anticancer, and antidiabetic activities (Fu and Fu, 2015; Singh et al., 2019; Muthuchamy et al., 2018; Suresh

et al., 2018a; Bala et al., 2015). The algae, especially macroalgae are largely used to synthesize metal oxide NPs due to their potent reducing agents (phytochemicals) and eco-friendliness. The powdered extract of *Gracilaria edulis* was efficiently involved in the production of rod-shaped ZnO NPs. The occurrence of quinine in the aqueous extract of algae *G. edulis* might be enrolled as a reducing agent in the production of ZnO NPs. The quinines are high redox potential biomolecules effectively involved in reducing  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  from the substrate zinc nitrate to the ZnO NPs (Priyadharshini et al., 2014). The macroalgae are often widely used in food and pharmaceutical industries due to its active biomolecules (McLachlan, 1985; Griffiths et al., 2016). Therefore, the macroalgae are largely used in metal and metal oxide nanoparticle synthesis protocol. Azizi et al. (2014) have taken the macroalgae *Sargassum muticum* to produce hexagonal ZnO NPs, with the size ranges between 30 and 57 nm. Likewise, Pandimurugan and Thambidurai (2016) used the macroalgae *Padina tetrastrum* for the synthesis of ZnO NPs. Through SEM, they have viewed various-shaped ZnO NPs such as plates, rods, and stars. Herein, they have various Zn substrates such as zinc nitrate, zinc chloride, zinc sulfate, and zinc acetate for the ZnO NPs production. The presence of carboxyl groups in macroalgae's phytochemicals might be effectively associated with the Zn ions and responsible for the various morphological changes of synthesized ZnO NPs. Hence, these functional groups play an essential role in the growth of ZnO NPs. The appearance of elemental Zn from ZnO NPs was higher in zinc acetate substrate than zinc chloride, zinc nitrate, and zinc sulfate (Pandimurugan and Thambidurai, 2016). Another group, Troutwar et al. (2019), has taken marine brown macroalgae *Turbinaria ornata* to examine the capability to produce ZnO NPs. They have synthesized the ZnO NPs in various shapes, including hexagonal, rod, and spherical, with the size ranges from 15 to 52 nm. The hydroxyl and carboxyl of the macroalgae biomolecules were responsible for reducing and capping synthesized ZnO NPs (Troutwar et al., 2019). A different and interesting study by Nagarajan and Kuppusamy (2013) that they have used three different macroalgae, *Hypnea valencia* (red algae), *Sargassum myriocystum* (brown algae), and *Caulerpa peltata* (green algae) for the fabrication of nano-sized ZnO. They reported the *S. myriocystum* was actively involved in the synthesis of ZnO NPs compared to *H. valencia* and *C. peltata*. In UV-vis spectroscopic investigation of the ZnO NPs produced by *S. myriocystum* exhibited an SPR peak at 285; in contrast, the ZnO NPs synthesized by *H. valencia*, and *C. peltata* showed no SPR peak in the spectra. Possibly, the effective reducing and capping phytomolecules such as flavonoids, lipids, ascorbic acid, tannins, and alginic acid prevent the aggregation of NPs and might be responsible for the size (36 nm) and shape (hexagonal, spherical, rod, and triangle) controlled ZnO NPs (Nagarajan and Kuppusamy, 2013). Similarly, Ishwarya et al. (2018) have used another *Sargassum* species, *Sargassum wightii*, for the efficient production of ZnO NPs. The uniform spherical shaped ZnO NPs with a size of about 40–50 nm synthesized by *S. wightii*. Another red alga *Gracilaria edulis* has taken into an examination that it can synthesize NPs by reacting with zinc nitrate solution. Expectedly, the algae proficiently synthesizes the ZnO NPs, and it was confirmed by the arisen of SPR peak at 367 in the UV-vis spectrum, and the size of about less than 50 nm revealed by TEM analysis. Further,

they reported the synthesized rod shaped ZnO NPs hold an efficient cytotoxic activity against cervical cancer cells (Gowdhami et al., 2019).

The MgO NPs are also considerably used in the medicinal field because of its unique properties such as bone regeneration, antibacterial, anticancer, catalysis, and sensor (Pan et al., 2020; Leung et al., 2014; Suresh et al., 2018b; Dobrucka, 2018; Jain et al., 2018). Due to these amazing properties, researchers adversely involved in the synthesis of MgO NPs using non-toxic biological resources. Pugazhendhi et al. (2019) have used the brown algae *S. wightii* to reduce magnesium nitrate into MgO NPs. It is well known that *S. wightii* is rich in phytomolecules such as polyphenols, polysaccharides, and terpenoids. Similarly, the production of MgO NPs by other brown macroalgae *Turbinaria ornata* was reported by Anand et al. (2020). The synthesized MgO NPs were dispersed as clusters with an average grain size of about 12 nm. The same algae *T. ornata* were utilized to manufacture magnesium hydroxide (MgOH) NPs documented by Govindaraju et al. (2020). The MgOH NPs were in nanoflakes' morphology with the dimension and thickness of about 16.29 nm and 7.75 nm, respectively. Further, they have proved the MgOH NPs have remarkable bactericidal activity against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*.

The iron oxide (FeO) NPs also has excellent adsorption and photocatalytic properties (Khaleelullah et al., 2017; Vasantharaj et al., 2019) and additionally, the superparamagnetic features of FeO NPs expressed its proficient application in cancer diagnosis and therapy (Yigit et al., 2012). Two marine macroalgae, namely, *Sargassum acinarium* and *Padina pavonica*, effectively reduce ferric chloride into FeO NPs. The sulfur attached polysaccharides play a talented role in the synthesis of FeO NPs as reducing and stabilizing candidates (El-Kassas et al., 2016). Similarly, another *Sargassum* species, *Sargassum muticum* employed to manufacture FeO NPs through the reduction of ferric chloride hexahydrate. Here, the polysaccharides containing sulfur groups are proficiently involved in the reduction and the stabilization process (Mahdavi et al., 2013). Khaleelullah et al. (2017) performed a divergent protocol to synthesis FeO NPs through the addition of powdered *Turbinaria decurrens* extract to the aqueous solution containing both ferric chloride (II) tetrahydrate and ferric (III) chloride hexahydrate. The fabricated FeO NPs derived the average size of about 18 nm, and further, they have used the NPs for the dye degradation applications. Salem et al. (2019) also performed the FeO NPs synthesis process using two different marine macroalgae *Pterocladia capillacea* (red algae) and *Colpomenia sinuosa* (brown algae). The same ferric chloride has been taken by the Salem et al. (2019) for FeO NPs production and obtained the size range of 16 to 23 nm for *P. capillacea* and 11 to 34 for *C. sinuosa*, respectively.

The CuO NPs are also widely synthesized by green procedures due to their broad-spectrum antibacterial activities (Sivaraj et al., 2014). The marine brown algae *Bifurcaria bifurcate* was employed to synthesis CuO NPs from the reduction of aqueous copper (II) sulfate solution. The produced CuO NPs carried a size of about 5 to 45 nm, and diterpenoids of *B. bifurcate* is mainly responsible for reducing and stabilizing process (Abboud et al., 2014). Similarly, another brown macroalga, *Sargassum polycystum* was also undergone CuO NPs synthesis through the involve-



ment with copper sulfate solution. The synthesized CuO NPs exhibited its potent cytotoxicity effect against bacterial, fungal, and cancer cells (Ramaswamy et al., 2016). The *Dictyota indica* is one of the brown algae potentially used as an excellent green biosource to fabricate palladium oxide (PdO) NPs. The spherical shaped and 19 nm-sized PdO NPs showed a remarkable application in removing toxic cadmium metals from the water (Yazdani et al., 2018). Similarly, aluminum oxide (AlO) NPs were synthesized by the green protocol using the powdered extract of *Sargassum ilicifolium*. The algae's biomolecules are responsible for producing spherical and 20 nm-sized AlO NPs (Koopi and Buazar, 2018). In addition, the zirconium oxide (ZrO) NPs was also a strong antibacterial agent synthesized by *S. wightii* through its efficient biomolecules. The monodispersed spherical shaped NPs with an average mean size of 5 nm obtained from algal extract (Kumaresan et al., 2018).

Therefore, the different algal species reacted with various substrate molecules to produce noble metal and metal oxide NPs because of their divergent applications in various fields. Moreover, algal species' green procedure is unique, toxic chemical-free and eco-friendly nature could be the excellent bio-factories for safety production of different NPs. The factors such as metal/metal oxide concentration, reducing/stabilizing/capping agent (algal extract concentration), incubation time, temperature and pH are important to determine the size and shape of the NPs (Patra and Baek, 2014; Tran et al., 2016; Chelli and Golder, 2016; Ovais et al., 2018a). We can tune the NPs morphology and size for the desired catalytic/sensor/biological applications by changing these factors.

## 6 Possible mechanism

According to biological synthesis protocol, numerous reports are available to explain the possible mechanisms involved in NPs synthesis, but the detail and exact process remain unclear. In microbe mediated process, enzymes/proteins including NADH and NADPH dependent enzymes, glucosidase, nitrate reductase, sulfate reductase, and beta-glucosidase acts as a prominent key role in the reduction/stabilization of NPs (Ahmad et al., 2002; Senapati et al., 2005; Ovais et al., 2018a,b; El-Seedi et al., 2019). In plants, several phytochemicals such as phenols, flavonoids, terpenoids, alkaloids, organic acids, and pigments play a proficient role in synthesizing nanoparticles (Ovais et al., 2018b). In plant-mediated synthesis, the algal resources are widely used by the researchers to synthesize metal and metal oxide NPs successfully. Generally, the algae are rich in various phytochemicals, including proteins, carbohydrates, polysaccharides, peptides, terpenoids, flavonoids, and amino acids (Fig. 2). The functional groups of these biomolecules such as carboxyl, hydroxyl, amide, ketones, amine, and sulfonic groups actively participate in the reduction and stabilization of synthesized NPs (Khanna et al., 2019) (Table 1).

It is well known that algal species can grow in the heavy metal contaminated water resources. The algae uptakes the heavy metals and converting them into active nutrients and used it for their growth (Abdel-Raouf et al., 2012; Shanab et al., 2012).

**Table 1** Involvement of various biomolecules and functional groups in NPs production.

S. No.	Algae	Biomolecules	Functional groups	Process	NP	References
<b>Microalgae</b>						
1	<i>Acutodesmus dimorphus</i>	Proteins	Amide linkage	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Chokshi et al. (2016)</a>
2	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Carbohydrates	Hydroxyl, carboxylic, phenolic and carbonyl	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Ebrahiminezhad et al. (2016)</a>
3	<i>Scenedesmus sp.</i>	Proteins	Hydroxyl	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Jena et al. (2014)</a>
4	<i>Botryococcus braunii</i>	Exopolysaccharides	Hydroxyl and carboxyl	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Gallon et al. (2019)</a>
5	<i>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</i>	Exopolysaccharides	Hydroxyl and carboxyl	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Gallon et al. (2019)</a>
6	<i>Dictyosphaerium sp.</i> strain HM2	Biomolecules	Primary alcohols and alkanes	Reduction/Stabilization/Capping	Ag	<a href="#">Khalid et al. (2017)</a>
7	<i>Pectinodesmus sp.</i> strain HM3	Biomolecules	Primary amines and aldehydes	Reduction/Capping	Ag	<a href="#">Khalid et al. (2017)</a>
8	<i>Chlorococcum sp.</i> MM11	Polysaccharides and glycoproteins	Carbonyl and amide	Reduction/Capping	Fe	<a href="#">Subramaniam et al. (2015)</a>
9	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Biomolecules	Polyol and amide	Reduction/Capping	Pt	<a href="#">Arsiya et al. (2017)</a>
10	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Proteins	Carboxylate, cysteine and amine	Reduction/Capping	Ag	<a href="#">Annamalai and Nallamuthu (2016)</a>
11	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Proteins, phenols and flavonoids	Amide	Reduction/Capping	Au	<a href="#">Annamalai and Nallamuthu (2015)</a>
12	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Cofactor- NADPH	–	Reduction	Pd	<a href="#">Eroglu et al. (2013)</a>
13	<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	Proteins	Amide	Reduction/Stabilization/Capping	ZnO	<a href="#">Rao and Gautam (2016)</a>
14	<i>Chlorella</i>	Carbohydrate	Hydroxyl	Reduction	ZnO	<a href="#">Khalifa et al. (2016)</a>
15	<i>Anabaena cylindrica</i>	Terpenoids, flavones and polysaccharides	C–O bond	Reduction/Capping	CuO	<a href="#">Bhattacharya et al. (2019)</a>
16	<i>Botryococcus braunii</i>	Proteins and polysaccharide	Hydroxyl	Reduction/Stabilization/Capping	Cu and Ag	<a href="#">Arya et al. (2018)</a>
<b>Macroalgae</b>						
17	<i>Sargassum wightii</i>	Biomolecules	Carboxylate ions	Reduction	ZrO	<a href="#">Kumaresan et al. (2018)</a>
18	<i>Sargassum muticum</i>	Polysaccharide	Sulfated, carboxyl, amino, and hydroxyl	Stabilization	ZnO	<a href="#">Azizi et al. (2014)</a>

19	<i>Ulva faciata, Jania rubins, Colpomenia sinusa, and Pterocladia capillaceae</i>	Proteins and polysaccharide	Carbonyl, amide and hydroxyl	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">El-Rafie et al. (2013)</a>
20	<i>Sargassum Alga</i>	Sulfated polysaccharide	Sulfated and hydroxyl	Reduction/Capping	Pd	<a href="#">Momeni and Nabipour (2015)</a>
21	<i>Bifurcaria bifurcata</i>	Diterpenoids	Unsaturated ketones	Reduction/Stabilization	CuO	<a href="#">Abboud et al. (2014)</a>
22	<i>Saccharina cichorioides and Fucus evanescens</i>	Laminaran, alginate and fucoidan	Hydroxyl and amine	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Yugay et al. (2020)</a>
23	<i>Caulerpa serrulata</i>	Caulerpenyne and their derivatives	–	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Aboelfetoh et al. (2017)</a>
24	<i>Spatoglossum asperum</i>	Fucoidan	C–C stretching of aromatic compounds and sulfated groups	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Ravichandran et al. (2018)</a>
25	<i>Portieria hornemannii</i>	Proteins/amino acids	Carbonyl	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Fatima et al. (2020)</a>
26	<i>Gelidium corneum</i>	Biomolecules	Aldehyde and azo compounds	Reduction/Stabilization	Ag	<a href="#">Ozturk et al. (2020)</a>
27	<i>Cystoseirabaccata</i>	Polysaccharide	Sulfonic group	Reduction	Au	<a href="#">Gonzalez-Ballesteros et al. (2017)</a>
28	<i>Caulerpa racemosa</i>	Proteins	Amide and carboxylic acid	Reduction/Capping	Au	<a href="#">Manikandakrishnan et al. (2019)</a>
29	<i>Stoechospermum marginatum</i>	Terpenoids	Hydroxyl	Reduction	Au	<a href="#">Rajathi et al. (2012)</a>
30	<i>Ecklonia cava</i>	Biomolecules	Primary amine and hydroxyl	Reduction/Stabilization	Au	<a href="#">Venkatesan et al. (2014)</a>
31	<i>Galaxaura elongata</i>	Amino acids and peptides	Carbonyl	Reduction/Capping	Au	<a href="#">Abdel-Raouf et al. (2017)</a>
32	<i>Saccharina japonica</i>	Glycine, lysine, valine, aspartic acid and glutamic acid	–	Reduction/Stabilization	Au	<a href="#">Khoshnamvand et al. (2020)</a>

Moreover, it can convert inorganic and organic wastes into reliable fuels and bioenergy (Abdel-Raouf et al., 2012; Souza et al., 2012; Piccini et al., 2019). Due to the availability of the phycomolecules as mentioned earlier and other biomolecules, the algae effectively degrade the toxic heavy metal and dyes. For instance, the mercury (Hg) of acutely toxic chemicals causes adverse effects on aquatic organisms and humans. These hazardous  $\text{Hg}^+$  ions from  $\text{HgCl}_2$  were reduced to malleable  $\text{Hg}^0$  and beta  $\text{HgS}$  through the microalgae's enzymatic reaction (Kelly et al., 2007). Similarly, the noxious arsenic (V) also converted arsenic (III) and subsequently to methylated arsenic species through the methylation process by the marine diatoms (Papry et al., 2019). Therefore, based on the concept of phycoremediation, the micro, and macroalgae subjected to the production of metal and metal oxide NPs. The reduction/oxidation (redox) of phytochemicals/biomolecules in the algal extract is the basic phenomenon involved in the synthesis of NPs (Khanna et al., 2019). Interestingly, Eroglu et al. (2013) demonstrated that the NADPH is an important reducing capability cofactor that donates the electrons and reduces Pd(II) ions into Pd NPs.

The nucleation and growth of NPs in the algal medium as follows, initially, in aqueous solution, the metal ions ( $\text{Me}^+$ ) were nucleated from metal salts, and subsequently, the  $\text{Me}^+$  ions were converted to  $\text{Me}^0$  through redox of phycomolecules. Further, the growth of  $\text{Me}^0$  was attributed by Ostwald ripening, coalescence, and oriented attachment to produce small and large-sized Me NPs (Madras and McCoy, 2003; Xue et al., 2014; Khanna et al., 2019) (Fig. 3). The growth and aggregation of metal and metal oxide NPs depended on the availability of reducing and capping agents. These are the important factors to control the size and shape of synthesized NPs.

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## 7 Diatoms

Both fresh and marine water diatoms successfully participated in the fabrication of metal NPs. The freshwater habitat diatom *Navicula* actively reacted with silver nitrate and produced Ag NPs. The hydroxyl groups in proteins moieties of diatoms acted as a reducing agent in the synthesis of Ag NPs (Chetia et al., 2017). The fucoxanthin pigment responsible for photosynthesis in *Amphora* sp. diatom was performed as a reducing agent in reducing Ag metal ions to Ag NPs. The obtained Ag NPs with a size range of 20 to 25 nm showed its adverse cytotoxic effect against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria (Jena et al., 2015). Similarly, the freshwater diatom *Eolimna minima* actively participated with the potassium gold (III) chloride and synthesis Au NPs (Feurtet-Mazel et al., 2016). Further, the Au NPs were also prepared using marine water *Stephanopyxis turris* diatom, as reported by Pytlik et al. (2017). However, the bioreduction mechanism of Au ions to Au NPs was not clearly explained in the report of Pytlik et al. (2017). But, Borase et al. (2017) demonstrated the development of Au NPs by the diatom *Nitzschia* through its bio/phytomolecules such as proteins and carbohydrates. The biomolecules possibly acted as reducing as well as stabilizing agents in the fabrication of Au NPs. The diatoms manufactured

Ag and Au NPs are potentially used in sensing and antibacterial applications (Chetia et al., 2017; Jena et al., 2015).

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## 8 Future outlook

Recently, the green synthesis procedure is a fine and excellent alternative process for the classical NPs synthesis protocol. Hence, the microorganism and plant materials are considered as potential sources to produce NPs. Amid, the algae materials are serving its promising positive impacts on the green synthesis of the NPs process due to its remarkable phycomolecules. The phytochemicals and other biomolecules present in the algae possess an excellent biological activity, including antimicrobial, anticancer and it serving as notable biofertilizer for increased crop production. Nowadays, focused research is ongoing to synthesis NPs with multifunctional properties. For instance, NPs used in the wastewater system may activate against the toxic heavy metals, dyes, and microorganisms. Hence, it is important to fabricate the NPs with these salient characteristic features and fewer side effects. Therefore, the fabrication of these algal phytochemicals (AP) in nanosized forms (N-AP) through novel technologies and along with metal/metal oxide NPs (N-AP-M/MO), this N-AP-M/MO may result in enhanced activity and push the algae combined NPs with widespread applications in all fields. The non-toxic and biocompatibility of algae-based NPs could be useful in biomedical applications, especially in bioimaging and cancer diagnosis. Therefore, the NPs synthesized from algae will open an era to explore new findings for threatening diseases in medicine with appropriate strategies. In the future, it will expand the scientific knowledge of novel and innovative nano-based technologies to another level for our next generation.

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## 9 Conclusion

Recently, the synthesis of metal and metal oxide NPs by green factories attained fascinating attention due to its non-toxic, rapid, cost-effective, and eco-friendly manner. These all features are fulfilled by the algae materials and provide an alternative process for the production of NPs. The cultivation of algae is facile, and according to cost, it is so cheap which makes them large in NPs production. The different parameters such as pH, temperature, metal ion concentration, etc. are employed in the synthesis process to obtain size and shape-controlled NPs. These NPs are opening a promising scientific evolution in medicine, pharmaceuticals, diagnosis, agriculture, cosmetics, and food technology. Nowadays, most material synthesis researchers struggle to find newly biocompatible and cheap greener approaches to synthesize NPs without affecting the environment. However, the NPs synthesis mechanism is still not cleared, and few researchers exemplify the possible phycomolecules involved in the fabrication of NPs. Further, the release of NPs from various industries is also considered a huge challengeable concern, and escaping from the adverse ef-

fects of NPs is a complicated task to protect the aquatic and terrestrial eco-system. Therefore, scientists have to tune the synthesis protocol to obtain non-toxic desired NPs for appropriate applications. This chapter concluded the algal materials are professional greener factories to synthesis metal and metal NPs. In the future, the algae mediated NPs will open a novel scientific evolution through its fabulous performance in various industrial, medicinal, and agricultural applications.

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## Acknowledgments

Authors thank biorender and presentation go for making drawing in this chapter.

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