

Chapter 6

Application of Alternative Technologies for the Recovery of Bioactive Compounds from Microbial Sources



Susana Ochoa and J. Felipe Osorio-Tobón

Abstract Indiscriminate chemical compound usage, such as agrochemicals, pesticides, fungicides, antibiotics, drugs, and other synthetic products, such as dyes, polymers, and heavy metals, have devastated soils, waters, and even living beings themselves. In this way, the development process for providing bioactive compounds for human, animal, and environmental health is one of the most urgent needs to enhance the balance between human exploitation and nature. These needs focus on obtaining healthy and safe products obtained in sustainable processes. Therefore, the search for natural compounds that can be used as nutrients, natural pesticides, and antibacterial or anticancer agents is increased.

Keywords Bioactive · Metabolites · Antimicrobial · Ultrasound-assisted extraction

6.1 Introduction

Plants, animals, and microorganisms are valuable sources of natural products with bioactivity [1, 2]. The natural products market was valued at USD 189 billion in 2021. This market is projected to reach USD 300 Billion by 2030 [3]. Natural compound research from plants is a well-known field. However, further research regarding natural compounds obtained from microorganisms is necessary.

Microorganisms produce primary metabolites such as amino acids, carbohydrates, proteins, and enzymes [3, 4]. Moreover, microorganisms can produce secondary metabolites with potential use for conservation or protection. These compounds are recognized by their bioactive properties, such as antimicrobial, antioxidant, anticarcinogenic, antiparasitic, and anti-inflammatory [2]. Therefore, the production and recovery of these compounds allow for obtaining high-value products. As can be observed in Table 6.1, microorganisms such as Archaea, bacteria, fungi, yeast, algae, and even some parasites produce bioactive compounds.

S. Ochoa · J. F. Osorio-Tobón (✉)

Faculty of Health Sciences, University Institution Colegio Mayor de Antioquia (COLMAYOR), Medellín, Antioquia, Colombia

e-mail: juan.tobon@colmayor.edu.co

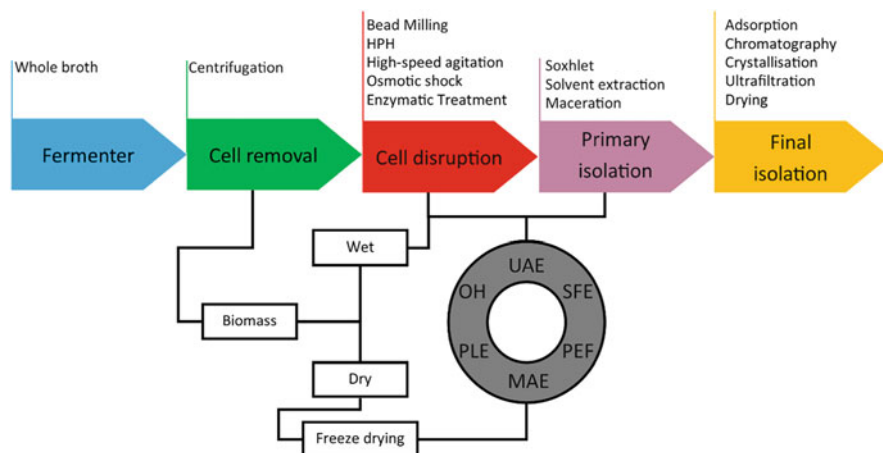
Table 6.1 Bioactive compounds derived from different microbial sources

Source	Organism	Bioactive compound (s)	Bioactive properties	References
Archaea	<i>Haloferax larsenii</i> HA1	Halocin	Antibacterial protein and cell protector	Kumar and Tiwari [5]
	<i>Halorubrum</i> sp. SH1	Bacterioruberin	Antioxidant	de la Vega et al. [6]
Bacteria	<i>Streptomyces</i>			
	<i>Streptomyces anulatus</i> NEAE-94	Unsaturated and saturated fatty acids, alkenes, fatty acid esters, alkanes, and triterpenes	Antimicrobial activity against <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	El-Naggar et al. [7]
	<i>Streptomyces globisporus</i> BU2018	Exopolysaccharides	Antioxidant	Abdel-Aziz et al. [8]
	<i>Streptomyces tunisialis</i> sp	Fatty acids and menaquinones	Antimicrobial activity against gram-positive, and gram-negative bacteria, yeast, and filamentous fungi	Ayed et al. [9]
	<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. BO7	Biphenyls	Antibacterial, antioxidant, and anticancer	Taechowisan et al. [10]
	<i>Bacillus</i>			
	<i>Bacillus licheniformis</i>	Bacitracin	Antimicrobial	Ali et al. [11]
	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Fengycin	Antifungal	Wu et al. [12]
	<i>Pseudomonas</i>			
	<i>Pseudomonas cedrina</i>	Biomass extract rich in diketopiperazines	Anticancer	Sánchez-Tafolla et al. [13]
<i>Lactobacillus</i>				
	<i>Lactobacillus coryniformis</i> NA-3	Exopolysaccharides (α -rhamnose, α -mannose, α -galactose, and α -glucose)	Antioxidant and anti-biofilm	Xu et al. [14]
Fungus	<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> MF029	Chaetominine, sphingofungin, emodin, chaetominine, sphingofungin, and trypacidin	Antitubercular activity	Song et al. [15]
	<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	Biomass extract rich in phenolic compounds (rutin, quercetin, caffeic acid, kaempferol, and ellagic acid)	Antibiofilm, antiproliferative, antioxidant, and antimutagenic	Kaur et al. [16]

(continued)

Table 6.1 (continued)

Source	Organism	Bioactive compound (s)	Bioactive properties	References
	<i>Fusarium redolens</i>	Biomass extract rich in chrysophanol and fumaric acid	Antimicrobial	Nazir et al. [17]
Yeast	<i>Metschnikowia yeast genus</i>	Alkaloids, antibiotics, and long-chain fatty acids	Antifungal	Fernandez-San Millan et al. [18]
Microalgae	<i>Nannochloropsis gaditana</i>	Omega-3 eicosapentaenoic acid	Prevention of cardiovascular diseases	Martínez et al. [19]
	<i>Spirulina (Arthrospira platensis)</i>	Phycocyanin	Anti-inflammatory antioxidant, antiviral, immunity-boosting, and anticancer	Lauceri et al. [20]
	<i>Nannochloropsis oculata</i> and <i>Porphyridium purpureum</i>	Biomass extract rich in anticancer and antioxidant activities	Anticancer	Garcia-Parra et al. [21]

**Fig. 6.1** Steps involved in the recovery of bioactive compounds from microorganisms

The production of the compounds depends on the environmental or culture media conditions. Moreover, most of these bioactive compounds could have high demand in the medical, pharmacological, and food industries [22].

The recovery of bioactive compounds from microbial sources comprises several steps in a downstream process. A further selection of recovery and purification steps will depend on whether the product is inside or outside the cell. Figure 6.1 represents the main steps involved in the recovery of bioactive compounds from microorganisms. Cell disruption is an initial step that is fundamental in the recovery of

compounds, and thus, the disruption method choice is crucial. In this context, the cell wall composition also influences the disruption method performance. For example, some microalgae with high cellulose, glucose, and mannose contents have more rigid cell walls. Moreover, cells in the stationary phase or growth in rich nutrient media can have strong cell walls, which influences the selection of the disruption method and its parameters [23].

Among conventional disruption methods, mechanical and nonmechanical methods such as bead milling, high-pressure homogenization (HPH), osmotic shock, and enzymatic treatments are used for bioactive compound recovery. In the past decades, many alternative technologies have been explored for bioactive extraction from microbial sources, such as ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE), supercritical fluid extraction (SFE), pulsed electric field extraction (PEF), microwave-assisted extraction (MAE), and others (Fig. 6.1). These alternative approaches are considered environmentally friendly and enhance extraction yields. In this context, the extraction with no previous cell disruption represents an excellent alternative to less energy-consuming process development. Alternative extraction techniques such as UAE, PEF, and MAE are mechanical methods that apply mechanical forces by waves or electric currents to break the cellular membrane.

6.2 Bioactive Compounds from Microbial Sources

Microorganisms produce novel antimicrobial, antitumoral, and anti-inflammatory molecules. Moreover, these compounds have potential applications in the biotechnological, nutraceutical, pharmaceutical, and environmental industries [24]. As shown in Table 6.1, bioactive compounds with antimicrobial, antifungal, and antioxidant activities are produced by Archea, Prokaryotic, and Eukaryotic domains. Moreover, the production of macromolecules such as amino acids, proteins, lipids, and carbohydrates is influenced by temperature, pH, humidity, aeration, and substrate. In this context, the interaction between these parameters and niches like oceans, mangroves, and caverns, even specific parts of plants or animal represent new opportunities to find novel bioactive compounds [25]. However, further research is necessary to identify the easy-to-cultivate and most productive microorganisms to scale up the production on a large scale for their subsequent application. Next, mainly microbial sources of bioactive compounds are described.

6.2.1 *Main Microbial Sources of Bioactive Compounds*

6.2.1.1 **Archea Bioactive Compounds**

Archaea compounds are produced under extreme conditions such as salt saturation, high temperature, and elevated UV radiation [26]. *Archea* produces bioactive

compounds such as exopolysaccharides, carotenoids, and proteins. These compounds have potential applications in biomedical, pharmaceutical, cosmetic, environmental, and industrial fields. Gómez-Villegas et al. [27] reported strains of *Haloarchaea* as a potential source of compounds. *Haloferax larsenii* HA1 [28] produces halocins and sulfolobocins [29]. Halocins and sulfolobocins are proteinic compounds that could be used as food preservative because it causes cellular deformation and release of cell contents leading to cell death. Carotenoids are produced by *Haloarcula japonica*, *Halobacterium salinarum*, and *Halococcus morrhuae*. Moreover, extremozymes are produced by *Pyrococcus furiosus*, *Thermococcus littoralis*, and *Thermus aquaticus* [30]. On the other hand, some pigments, such as carotenoids, bacteriorhodopsin, and bacterioruberin, are produced by *Halobacterium Salinarum*. These compounds help cells to adapt to hypersaline conditions by acting as a water barrier, allowing ions and oxygen molecules to pass through the cell membrane. Therefore, these compounds can be used as antioxidants and photoprotective in food and cosmetics.

6.2.1.2 Bacteria Bioactive Compounds

Actinomycetes are one of the most reported genera that produce bioactive compounds. For example, *Streptomyces* spp. can synthesize microbial compounds such as vinaceuline, bafilomycin, and antimycin [24]. Moreover, antioxidant compounds such as violacein and prodigiosin are produced by *Streptomyces rubrircetuli* and *S. longisporus ruber* [31]. These molecules or their derivatives are known for their antimalarial, antibacterial, and anticancer activities. Other strains of the genera *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Myxobacteria*, *Cyanobacteria* [1], and *Lactobacillus* [32] can produce other bioactive molecules. For example, the antimicrobial compounds bacitracin and bacilysin are produced by *B. liquenoformis* and *B. subtilis*, respectively [33]. On the other hand, *Pseudomonas* spp. (*P. aeruginosa*, *P. fluorescent*, and *Pseudomonas chlororaphisin*) produce antimicrobial compounds such as pyocyanin [3].

Lactic acid bacteria (LAB), such as *Lactococcus* and *Pediococcus*, have been reported to produce bacteriocins. Bacteriocins are known as immunomodulators with antimicrobial activity [32]. Phenolic compounds with antioxidant properties such as chlorogenic acid and gallic acid are produced by several cyanobacterial species [31]. On the other hand, fabclavines, xenocoumactins, xenorhabdins, and PAX peptides are antiparasitic compounds identified in *Xenorhabdus* and *Photorhabdus* [34]. Strains of *Photorhabdus luminescens* and *Xenorhabdus nematophila* showed anti-trypanosomal activity and potential use to develop novel drugs against Chagas disease [35]. Prokaryotes are an excellent choice for bioactive compound production due to their metabolic versatility and easy handling in the laboratory. Moreover, synthetic biology tools or heterologous systems could enhance bioactive compound production [31, 36].

6.2.1.3 Fungi and Yeast Bioactive Compounds

Fungi are eukaryotic organisms known to inhabit almost all ecological niches of the Earth, especially where there are organic sources and are in a state of decomposition. Many bioactive compounds are generated after mycelial growth and can affect direct sporulation. For example, *Aspergillus nidulans* and *Fusarium graminearum* produce linoleic acid and zearalenone. Moreover, *Alternaria alternata* produces melanins as a protective compound from UV rays. In addition, *Aspergillus terreus* has been recognized to produce lovastatin, which has metabolic activity. The most reported groups of secondary metabolites in this domain are polyketides, non-ribosomal peptides, and terpenes [3]. Some endophytic fungi isolated from plants possess antimicrobial, antioxidant, and cytotoxic activities [37]. For example, compounds with antiprotozoal, antibacterial, and antiviral activity have been found in endophytic fungi such as *Colletotrichum*, *Diaporthe*, *Fusarium*, *Trichoderma*, *Penicillium*, and *Xylariagenera* [25]. Moreover, yeasts and other nonfilamentous eukaryotic microorganisms produce metabolites with antifungal such as piperidine and protoemetine (alkaloids), p-coumaroyl quinic acid (phenylpropanoid), which are produced by *Metschnikowia pulcherrima* [18]. Moreover, the yeast used in fermented beverage production (wine, beer) produces alcohols such as tyrosol, which is responsible for the flavor in fermented beverages and is recognized for its antioxidant and cardioprotective properties [38]. Yeast can also be used as a model cell for genetic engineering assays to produce compounds derived from plants when the expression in a complex system is required [39].

6.2.1.4 Microalgae Bioactive Compounds

Microalgae are found in oceans, fresh and wastewater, and extreme environments. Microalgae are an excellent source of metabolites such as fatty acids, carbohydrates, proteins, vitamins, and bioactive compounds [19]. Antimicrobial and anticancer compounds have been found in microalgae [21]. For example, phenolic compounds and hydroxycinnamic acids such as gallic acid, chlorogenic acid, ferulic acid, and caffeic acid have been found in *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Haematococcus pluvialis*, *Diatrypa lutheri*, *Phaeodactylum tricorutum*, *Tetraselmis suecica*, *Ankistrodesmus* sp., *Spirogyra* sp., *Euglena cantabrica*, *Caespitella pascheri*, and *Porphyridium purpureum* [31]. Metabolites such as exopolysaccharides with immunomodulatory, anti-inflammatory, antiviral, antifungal, and antibacterial capacities are produced by *Porphyridium* sp., *Arthrospira* sp., and *Chlorella* sp. [21]. On the other hand, some specific compounds, such as polyunsaturated aldehydes with anticancer activity, are found in marine diatoms [40]. Therefore, microalgae could be an excellent source of novel bioactive compounds with multiple applications.

6.3 Production of Bioactive Compounds

During the past few decades, the bioactive compounds market from microbial sources has been growing due to its impact on the agriculture, food, and pharmaceutical industries. For example, the agroindustry uses bioactive compounds for pest control and plant growth promotion. Therefore, to take advantage of all properties offered by microorganisms, it is necessary to develop a sustainable process that produces bioactive compounds at low cost and high quality and effectiveness. Next, an overview of the main compounds produced by microbial sources is presented. Almost all bioactive compounds from microorganisms are related to their antimicrobial activity. Currently, there is a concern regarding the increase in antimicrobial resistance. As mentioned before, some antimicrobial molecules can disrupt the cell membrane. For example, membrane synthesis is inhibited by lipopeptides and polymyxin produced by *Bacillus* sp. and *Paenibacillus polymyxa* [33], respectively. In that context, antibiotics such as streptomycin, gentamicin, and tetracycline are produced by *Streptomyces griseus*, *Micromonospora purpurea*, and *Streptomyces aureofasciens* [24]. These antibiotics inhibit protein synthesis in cells. Many of these compounds are recovered from marine microorganisms, which grow in extreme temperatures, under osmotic stress [41]. On the other hand, compounds such as bacteriocins isolated from the gastrointestinal tract are recognized for their immunomodulatory properties and antimicrobial capacity. Moreover, bacteriocins are used as a food preservative [32].

In the case of microalgae, the antimicrobial activity is related to the overproduction of fatty acids that can reduce the ability to breathe and cause cell death [24]. On the other hand, antifungal compounds such as glycolipids produced by *Bacillus licheniformis* can inhibit *Aspergillus niger* [2]. Antioxidant compounds such as polyphenols, carotenoids, or exopolysaccharides are produced by *Aspergillus* spp. and *Artrospira* sp., among others. These compounds can scavenge free radicals and are recognized for their photo-protective properties. Exopolysaccharides are high-molecular-weight carbohydrate polymers with radical scavenging activities, metal chelation activity, and lipid peroxidation inhibition [31]. These compounds are one of the most exploited bioactive substances due to their antiaging capacity. Other bioactive properties, such as anticholinesterase, antituberculosis, and antimalarial activity, have been shown in microorganisms. Further research is necessary to explore the microbial capacity to obtain bioactive compounds. Combined with the develop alternative extraction processes can allow the obtaining of pure and safe molecules with application in the medical field, pharmaceuticals, food, and environment industries.

6.3.1 Conventional Extraction Processes

Conventional extraction methods such as maceration, Soxhlet, solvent extraction, and hot reflux extraction have been used for compound recovery from microbial sources. Although they consume large quantities of solvents and employ longer extraction times, these processes are recognized for their simplicity and low-cost implementation [42]. Generally, they are used as a reference to compare with alternative technologies. Maceration is a straightforward extraction process carried out at ambient temperature under agitation. Bioactive compounds from *Pleurotus ostreatus* were recovered by maceration after 90 min at 25 °C, 150 rpm, using water and ethanol as extraction solvents [43]. Different fractions rich in proteins and phenolic compounds were recovered depending on the solvent proportion. For example, a mixture with 95% ethanol enhances protein extraction, while 50% ethanol increases the content of phenolic compounds. In a similar approach, Daud et al. [44] recovered red pigments from the fungus *Monascus purpureus* at 30 °C but during 16 h under agitation (180 rpm). The red pigment solubility depends on the solvent polarity, where the best solvent was 60% ethanol, which allows a maximum yield of 207 AU/g dry fermented solids. On the other hand, hot water extraction is used for obtaining polysaccharides from mushrooms. For example, polysaccharides were obtained from *Ganoderma resinaceum* by hot reflux extraction at 100 °C for 8 h [45].

Recently, Soxhlet extraction of oil from the microalgae *Spirogyra* [46] and *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* [47] was studied using extraction times ranging between 1 and 4 h at boiling temperatures depending on the solvents (n-Hexane and 2-Methyltetrahydrofuran). Oil extraction from *Spirogyra* required previous drying and milling pretreatments to enhance the extraction process due to a finer algae size causing better contact with the solvent. Moreover, usually, the more dried, the higher yield. In the drying/dehydration processes, freeze-drying is one of the most used methods. Low temperatures employed by freeze-drying keep the integrity of the compounds. However, freeze-drying is energy consuming, which could limit its application at the industrial scale. In this context, the direct extraction from wet biomass is getting more attention in the scientific community. For example, wet biomass was used as raw material in the oil recovery from *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* by Soxhlet [47]. Although lipid extraction is enhanced, total fatty acids content presented a reduction. Therefore, cell pretreatment influences extraction performance in conventional extraction processes as well as in alternative techniques. Thus, further research is necessary to establish the optimal process conditions. As mentioned, high temperatures and long extraction times are characteristics of conventional extraction methods. Therefore, energy consumption and thermally compound degradation are drawbacks that must be overcome. However, these techniques will continue to be used to compare alternative or novel technologies.

6.3.2 *Alternative Extraction Technologies*

Over the past decades, the recovery of bioactive compounds using alternative technologies has been focused on by researchers in many fields, such as food, chemical, or biotechnology. Generally, alternative extraction methods are more feasible than conventional extraction methods. The use of solvents generally recognized as safe (GRAS), the shorter extraction times, and the higher extraction yields are the main advantages of these methods. Among the most popular alternative extraction methods, ultrasound, microwaves, supercritical fluids, pressurized fluids, and electric fields are the most used technologies for bioactive extraction from microbial sources. Next, the concepts and applications of alternative extraction methods will be presented.

6.3.2.1 Ultrasound-Assisted Extraction (UAE)

Ultrasound is one of the most used extraction technologies employed in the bioactive compound recovery from fruits, vegetables, herbs, spices, seeds, and microorganisms. In UAE, cell disruption is caused by an acoustic phenomenon known as cavitation. In cavitation, the ultrasound waves generate rarefaction and compression cycles, creating gas bubbles in the cytoplasm. Once the bubbles have reached a maximum size, they collapse and release large amounts of energy (5000 K and 2000 atm) [48]. The cell wall is disrupted due to mechanical effects, the solvent has more intimate contact with the target compounds, and the extraction rates are enhanced [49]. Extraction parameters such as ultrasound power, frequency, temperature, solvent, type of device, and extraction time influence the extraction process. As shown in Table 6.2, temperatures ranging from 25 °C and 70 °C are used for compound recovery. Ultrasonic power from 100 W to 1000 W and short extraction times are used (e.g., minutes). Regarding extraction solvents, GRAS solvents such as water, ethanol, buffers, and deep eutectic solvents (DESs) are used. DESs are recognized as environmentally friendly, inexpensive, and chemically stable [50].

Depending on the microorganism, the effect on extraction parameters can be different. Generally, an increase in the ultrasound power, temperature, and extraction time increases the recovery of the compounds. The increase in the ultrasonic power enhances the cavitation, the cell structure is disrupted faster, and the solvent penetrates more efficiently [51]. The increase in temperature enhances the solubility of the compounds. Moreover, the denaturation of the membrane can be promoted by temperature [52]. However, excessive temperature or ultrasonic power may trigger the degradation of the compounds through the failures of the chemical structure or the generation of ROS [53]. Regarding frequency, cell disruption is enhanced by the acceleration caused by higher frequencies. The higher the frequency, the smaller the cavity sizes and the faster the bubbles collapse [48].

Table 6.2 UAE applications of bioactive compounds from microbial sources

Species	Compound (s) recovered	Extraction conditions	References
<i>Morchella importuna</i>	Polysaccharides	62 °C, 600 W, 31 min, choline chloride/oxalic acid (DESS)	Pan et al. [50]
<i>Dictyosphaerium</i> sp.	Polysaccharides	50 °C, 500 W, 50 min, water	Chen et al. [51]
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	Polysaccharides	70 °C, 1000 W, 8 h, 0.2 M sodium hydroxide	Eom et al. [58]
<i>Arthrospira Platensis</i>	Lutein/zeaxanthin	60–70 °C, 10 min, methanol	Sam et al. [59]
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> and <i>Porphyridium purpureum</i>	Carotenoids	70% power, ethanol (60%)	Vintila et al. [60]
<i>Nannochloropsis gaditana</i>	Omega-3 long chain-polyunsaturated fatty acids	50 °C, 100 W, 30 min, ethanol	Castejón and Marko [61]
<i>Diaporthe schini</i>	Antioxidant compounds	25 °C, 400 W, pulsed mode (0.93), 15 min, ethanol	da Rosa et al. [62]
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> , <i>saccharomyces boulardii</i> , <i>Metschnikowia fruticola</i> and <i>Torulaspora delbrueckii</i>	Mannoproteins	80% amplitude, 4 min, 0.1 M phosphate buffer, pH 6.5	Snyman et al. [63]
<i>Grifola frondosa</i>	Polysaccharides	65 °C, 4.5 h, water	Ji et al. [64]
<i>Agrocybe cylindracea</i>	Dietary fiber	Ultrasonic-assisted enzymatic method, the α -amylase concentration of 1.50%, protamex concentration of 1.20%, 150 W	Jia et al. [65]
<i>Haematococcus pluvialis</i>	Astaxanthin	25 °C, 80% amplitude, pulsed mode (3 min off and 12 min on), $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ salt solution/2-propanol	Khoo et al. [66]
<i>Porphyridium cruentum</i> and <i>Porphyridium purpureum</i>	Proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, fatty acids and phycoerythrin	30 °C, 100 W, 13–15 min, 50 mM Na-phosphate buffer (<i>P. cruentum</i>), and water (<i>P. purpureum</i>)	Ardiles et al. [67]

6.3.2.2 Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE)

SFE uses substances at temperatures and pressures above their critical point. These substances are known as supercritical fluids (SCF). Above the critical point, the fluids can diffuse as gas and has liquid solvation power [54]. For SFE, generally, before extraction, the microbial biomass is freeze-dried and disrupted. For instance, a ball mill is used to enhance the extraction of intracellular compounds from *Scenedesmus almeriensis* [55] and *Nannochloropsis* sp. [56]. CO₂ is the most used

Table 6.3 SFE applications of bioactive compounds from microbial sources

Species	Compound (s) recovered	Extraction conditions	References
<i>Scenedesmus almeriensis</i>	Lutein	65 °C, 550 bar, 14.48 g/min CO ₂	Mehariya et al. [55]
<i>Nannochloropsis</i> sp.	Omega-3 fatty acids	75 °C, 550 bar, 14.48 g/min CO ₂	Leone et al. [56]
<i>Aurantiochytrium</i> sp.	Omega-3 fatty acids and phenolic compounds	80 °C, 300 bar, 12 g/min CO ₂	De Melo et al. [68]
<i>Diaporthe schini</i>	Antioxidant compounds	40 °C, 250 bar, 4 g/min CO ₂ , biomass:Ethanol, 1:1.5 (w/v)	da Rosa et al. [69]
<i>Usnea subfloridana</i>	Usnic acid	85 °C, 150 bar, 2 mL/min CO ₂	Boitsova et al. [70]
<i>Schizochytrium</i> sp.	Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA)	77 °C, 465 bar, 5 mL/min CO ₂ , 1.25 mL/min ethanol	Rodríguez-España et al. [73]
<i>Inonotus obliquus</i>	Triterpenoids	50 °C, 350 bar, 3 mL/min CO ₂	Huynh et al. [74]
<i>Coccomyxa onubensis</i>	Lutein and phenolic compounds	70 °C, 400 bar, 2 mL/min CO ₂ , 2.30 mL/min ethanol	Ruiz-Domínguez et al. [75]
<i>Haematococcus pluvialis</i>	Astaxanthin	50 °C, 500 bar, 2 L/min CO ₂	Espinosa Álvarez et al. [76]
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Phenolic compounds	60 °C, 250 bar, 40 g/min CO ₂ (ethanol 10% w/w)	Georgiopoulou et al. [77]

solvent in SFE, and it is recognized as safe (GRAS), inexpensive, has low toxicity, readily available, and has an easily accessible critical point (31 °C and 73.8 bar) [57]. Temperatures between 40 °C and 85 °C and pressures between 250 and 550 bar are suitable for bioactive compound extraction (Table 6.3). The selectivity of the CO₂ is modified by changing the temperature and pressure. For example, the solvent density increases as the temperature increases, and the solvent density increases as the pressure increases. Thus, the solubility of the intracellular compounds is enhanced by increasing the pressure at a constant temperature. This behavior has been observed in the recovery of omega-3 fatty acids and phenolic compounds from *Nannochloropsis* sp. [56] and *Aurantiochytrium* sp. [68].

Although CO₂ is the most common SFC used for bioactive compound extraction from microbial sources by SFE, it only allows the extraction of nonpolar compounds as lipids. Thus, CO₂ is used mainly for lipid or fatty acid extraction from microbial sources such as microalgae, as shown in Table 6.3. On the other hand, for polar compound extraction (e.g., phenolic compounds), a co-solvent such as ethanol is necessary. For instance, ethanol is used as a co-solvent for bioactive compound extraction from fungi [69], microalgae [55], and lichen [70]. SFE allows obtaining higher purity extracts while solvent recycling is possible.

Table 6.4 MAE applications of bioactive compounds from microbial sources

Species	Compound (s) recovered	Extraction conditions	References
<i>Nannochloropsis oceanica</i>	Proteins	40 °C, 700 W, 30 min, choline acetate	Motlagh et al. [72]
<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i>	Chitosan	300 W, 22 min, 1 N NaOH	Sebastian et al. [81]
<i>Haematococcus pluvialis</i>	Astaxanthin	75 °C, 700 W, 7 min dimethyl sulfoxide	Aslanbay Guler et al. [82]
<i>Auxenochlorella Protothecoides</i>	Lipids	2.8 kW, 200 μ s pulse, cell suspension	Zhang et al. [83]
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i> and <i>Botryococcus braunii</i>	Lipids	400 W, 40 s, cell suspension	Rokicka et al. [84]
<i>Kappaphycus alvarezii</i>	β -Carotene, chlorophyll, antioxidants	45 °C, 170 W, 12.5–14.5 min 80% methanol	Baskararaj et al. [85]
<i>Psilocibe cubensis</i>	Psilocin and psilocybin	50 °C, 600 W, 5 min, 60% methanol	Polo-Castellano et al. [86]
<i>Lactococcus lactis</i>	Menaquinones	50 °C, 600 W, 5 min, ethanol	Lee et al. [87]
<i>Porphyridium cruentum</i> and <i>Porphyridium purpureum</i>	Proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, fatty acids, and phycoerythrin	200 W, 60 s, 50 mM Na-phosphate buffer/ water (54:46 v/v)	Ardiles et al. [67]

6.3.2.3 Microwave-Assisted Extraction (MAE)

MAE is an alternative technology recognized by the shorter extraction time and the use of GRAS solvents, which increase extraction yields and preserve the integrity of the extracts. MAE has several applications, mainly in the food industry, regarding the extraction of bioactive compounds. In the compound recovery from microorganisms, microwaves are applied to a cell suspension prepared with an organic solvent. The cell suspension can be prepared using wet or dried biomass. Among organic solvents, dielectric or polar solvents such as water or ethanol are preferred. Microwaves with frequencies ranging between 300 MHz and 300 GHz cause fast boiling of the intracellular liquid, which increases the internal pressure and the size expansion of the cells, producing cell disruption [71]. However, although microwaves can cause cell disruption, previous cell disruption (e.g., high-pressure or bead milling) of microorganisms such as microalgae is recommended before MAE [72]. This pretreatment increases the cell wall disruption and enhances the extraction yields. Microwave power, temperature, solvent, extraction time, and matrix are the main parameters that influence MAE. Interaction between solvent and compounds is fundamental because the target compound should be highly soluble, and the solvent must have a high dielectric constant. Solvents such as water, methanol, and ethanol can absorb high amounts of microwave energy, and as shown in Table 6.4, these

solvents are used for compound recovery from microorganisms. Temperature and extraction time are related. Higher temperatures and longer extraction times allow an increase in extraction yields [78]. For example, as can be observed in Table 6.4, the recovery of compounds from microorganisms is performed using temperatures and extraction times up to 75 °C and 30 min. However, exposure to high temperatures during prolonged times triggers compound degradation.

6.3.2.4 Pulsed Electric Field (PEF) Extraction

PEF is a nonthermal technology with growing interest in biotechnology industries for cell disruption due to its many advantages. PEF is an environmentally friendly process with shorter extraction times that increases extraction yields, avoiding triggering the degradation of the bioactive compounds [79]. In PEF, the sample is placed in the treatment chamber where a uniform and strong electric field is applied. The pass of short high-voltage electric pulses causes an electroporation of the cell membranes without altering the bioactive compounds [80]. This permeabilization allows the recovery of the compounds from the microorganisms, minimizing the formation of cell debris with further simplification of the downstream operations.

As can be observed in Table 6.5, electrical impulses ranging between 15 kV/cm and 40 kV/cm are enough to allow the recovery of the compounds from the microorganisms. Although the effects of the electric field strength depend on the matrix characteristics, this range generates the irreversible permeabilization of microbial cells [88]. During membrane permeabilization, many transmembrane pores are formed, which enhances solvent penetration and further extraction of the bioactive compounds. For example, in the extraction of carotenoids from *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous* after PEF at 20 kV/cm for 135 μ s, 80% of permeabilization was obtained, which increases the extraction yield up to 70% of total carotenoids contained in the yeast suspension. Moreover, extraction parameters such as extraction time, pulse width, conductivity, and pulse frequency can also influence permeabilization and PEF efficiency. For example, the increase from 25 kV/cm to 40 kV/cm in the electric field in the extraction of lipids from *Chlorella* cells increases lipid extraction [89]. However, when the electric field strength reaches a threshold value, the lipid extraction yield decreases due to the release of other compounds and the generation of large amounts of cell debris. This technology could represent many advantages at the industrial scale due to its low-energy consumption and easy incorporation into the processing line [90].

6.3.2.5 Other Alternative Technologies

Other alternative technologies are used for bioactive compound recovery from vegetal sources but with less intensive application in microbial sources. For example, pressurized liquid extraction (PLE) uses solvents above their boiling point but

Table 6.5 PEF applications of bioactive compounds from microbial sources

Species	Compound (s) recovered	Extraction conditions	References
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Water-soluble proteins, carbohydrates, and lipids	25 °C, 20 kV/cm, 100 kJ/kg _{SUSP} , 5 μs of pulse width, water (1 h), ethyl acetate (3 h)	Carullo et al. [80]
<i>Chlorella</i>	Lipids	35 kV/cm, the conductivity of 400 μS/cm, water, 30 min	Zhang et al. [89]
<i>Chlorella pyrenoidosa</i>	Lipids	25 °C, 20 kV/cm, 6 μs of pulse width, chloroform/methanol	Han et al. [101]
<i>Nannochloropsis oculata</i>	Carbohydrates, proteins, and pigments	30 °C, 40 kV/cm, 10 μs of pulse width, water, 30 min	Zhang et al. [102]
<i>Saitozyma podzolica</i>	Lipids	20 °C, 15 kV/cm, 1 μs of pulse width, ethanol and hexane,	Gorte et al. [103]
<i>Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous</i>	Carotenoids, astaxanthin	25 °C, 20 kV/cm, 3 μs of pulse width, ethanol	Aguilar-Machado et al. [104]

below their critical point, applying high pressures. The high pressure allows deeper penetration of the solvent, and the temperature reduces the solvent viscosity, enhancing the extraction of the compounds [78]. Currently, PLE is mainly applied to contaminant detection in several areas. However, PLE can also be used for compound recovery from microorganisms after drying and cell disruption. Unsaturated fatty acids and carotenoids have been recovered from oleaginous yeasts [91] and microalgae [92–94] using temperatures ranging from 80 °C to 150 °C and pressures of 100 bar. An alternative to PLE is continuous pressurized solvent extraction (CPSE), which uses lower temperatures and pressures than PLE, keeping similar or even higher yields. For example, carotenoids and phycobiliproteins from *Cyanobium* sp. LEGE 06113 by CPSE at 70 °C and 1.5 mL/min (ethanol) have been recovered using CPSE [95].

Ultrahigh pressure extraction (UHPE) is similar to PLE but uses higher pressures (up to 8000 bar). This variation allows performing the extraction process without previous cell disruption due to higher pressure can break down the cell membrane. For example, UHPE (one cycle at 6000 bar at 50 °C) enhanced the extraction of carotenoids from *Haematococcus pluvialis* and *Porphyridium cruentum* microalgae compared with PLE [96]. However, the performance also depends on the microorganisms and type of compound. For example, although UHPE (one cycle at 1000 bar and 50 °C) was not superior to PLE in the carotenoid extraction from *Nannochloropsis oceanica*, UHPE increased the extraction of polyunsaturated fatty acids [93].

Ohmic heating (OH) is based on the Joule effect, where an electric current flows through resistive materials such as the cell wall [97]. Heating in OH is faster and more homogeneous than traditional thermal treatments. Moreover, OH causes cell wall breakdown, enhancing the mass transfer of intracellular compounds. For example, the ethanolic extracts obtained from *Cyanobium* sp. by OH (70 °C,

5 min, and 20 kHz) showed high antioxidant capacity [95]. Moreover, yields and antioxidant activity obtained by OH were better than the extraction by homogenization. Recently, OH has been applied in bioactive compound recovery from microalgae. In this context, nutrients from *Coelastrella* sp. LFR1 [98] were recovered by OH at 217 V/cm and 100 °C, showing higher performance for cell disruption. This combination allows the yield increase of chlorophyll and proteins in microalgae biomass. OH is also used for the recovery of bioactive compounds from *Spirulina platensis*. This photosynthetic cyanobacterium is recognized for producing antioxidant, antiviral, anti-cancer, and anti-inflammatory compounds. Ferreira-Santos et al. [99, 100] reported the feasibility of OH in the recovery of intracellular compounds using temperatures between 30 °C and 50 °C, 4 V/cm, and 20 kHz of frequency. OH is a technology with higher extraction yields, lower energy consumption, and shorter extraction times than conventional extraction processes with potential use at an industrial scale (Table 6.5).

6.4 Conclusions and Future Perspectives

Microorganisms can be an excellent source of valuable compounds with applications in several industries. Antibiofilm, antiproliferative, antioxidant, antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, and antimutagenic activities are found in bioactive compounds recovered from microbial sources. Depending on the localization of the compounds, different pretreatments and extraction techniques can be explored. Pretreatment and extraction techniques are applied depending on the localization of the compounds. Pretreatment as drying or cell disruption is necessary for intracellular compounds. Some alternative extraction techniques like UAE, MAE, and OH allow simultaneous cell disruption and extraction. Alternative extraction technologies have higher yields and shorter extraction times than conventional processes. However, the initial cost and the lack of scaling-up criteria still are the main shortcomings. Therefore, large-scale systems development and further research regarding process optimization are necessary. To the extent that industrial-scale equipment and economically viable processes are developed, these alternative technologies could be more extensively used.

References

1. Abdel-Razek AS, El-Naggar ME, Allam A et al (2020) Microbial natural products in drug discovery. *PRO* 8:1–19. <https://doi.org/10.3390/PR8040470>
2. Pham JV, Yilma MA, Feliz A et al (2019) A review of the microbial production of bioactive natural products and biologics. *Front Microbiol* 10:1–27. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.01404>
3. Omokhefe Bruce S (2022) Secondary metabolites from natural products. In: *Secondary metabolites - trends and reviews*. IntechOpen, p 310

4. Steele AD, Tejjaro CN, Yang D, Shen B (2019) Leveraging a large microbial strain collection for natural product discovery. *J Biol Chem* 294:16567–16576. <https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.REV119.006514>
5. Kumar V, Tiwari SK (2017a) Activity-guided separation and characterization of new halocin HA3 from fermented broth of *Haloferax larsenii* HA3. *Extremophiles* 21:609–621. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00792-017-0930-6>
6. de la Vega M, Sayago A, Ariza J et al (2016) Characterization of a bacterioruberin-producing Haloarchaea isolated from the marshlands of the Odiel river in the southwest of Spain. *Biotechnol Prog* 32:592–600. <https://doi.org/10.1002/btpr.2248>
7. El-Naggar NEA, El-Binary AAA, Abdel-Mogib M, Nour NS (2017) In vitro activity, extraction, separation and structure elucidation of antibiotic produced by *Streptomyces anulatus* NEAE-94 active against multidrug-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Biotechnol Biotechnol Equip* 31:418–430. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13102818.2016.1276412>
8. Abdel-Aziz SH, Awady MEE, Nasr-Eldin MA et al (2019) Production and assessment of antioxidant activity of exopolysaccharide from marine streptomycetes *globisporus* BU2018. *Egypt J Bot* 59:645–655. <https://doi.org/10.21608/ejbo.2019.6847.1274>
9. Ayed A, Slama N, Mankai H et al (2018) *Streptomyces tunisialis* sp. nov., a novel *Streptomyces* species with antimicrobial activity. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek. Int J Gen Mol Microbiol* 111:1571–1581. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10482-018-1046-4>
10. Taechowisan T, Chaisaeng S, Phutdhawong WS (2017) Antibacterial, antioxidant and anti-cancer activities of biphenyls from *Streptomyces* sp. BO-07: an endophyte in *Boersenbergia rotunda* (L.) Mansf A. *Food Agric Immunol* 28:1330–1346. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09540105.2017.1339669>
11. Ali S, Nelofer R, Andleeb S et al (2018) Biosynthesis and optimization of bacitracin by mutant bacillus licheniformis using submerged fermentation. *Indian J Biotechnol* 17:251–260
12. Wu JJ, Chou HP, Huang JW, Deng WL (2021) Genomic and biochemical characterization of antifungal compounds produced by *Bacillus subtilis* PMB102 against *Alternaria brassicicola*. *Microbiol Res* 251:126815. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micres.2021.126815>
13. Sánchez-Tafolla L, Padrón JM, Mendoza G et al (2019) Antiproliferative activity of biomass extract from *Pseudomonas cedrina*. *Electron J Biotechnol* 40:40–44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejbt.2019.03.010>
14. Xu X, Peng Q, Zhang Y et al (2020) A novel exopolysaccharide produced by *Lactobacillus coryniformis* NA-3 exhibits antioxidant and biofilm-inhibiting properties in vitro. *Food Nutr Res* 64:10.29219/fnr.v64.3744
15. Song Z, Liu Y, Gao J et al (2021) Antitubercular metabolites from the marine-derived fungus strain *Aspergillus fumigatus* MF029. *Nat Prod Res* 35:2647–2654. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14786419.2019.1660331>
16. Kaur N, Arora DS, Kalia N, Kaur M (2020) Antibiofilm, antiproliferative, antioxidant and antimutagenic activities of an endophytic fungus *Aspergillus fumigatus* from *Moringa oleifera*. *Mol Biol Rep* 47:2901–2911. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11033-020-05394-7>
17. Nazir A, Hafeez S, Habeeb AR (2022) Bioactive potentials of endophyte (*Fusarium redolens*) isolated from *Olea europaea*. *Arch Microbiol* 204:219. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00203-022-02826-9>
18. Fernandez-San Millan A, Gamir J, Farran I et al (2022) Identification of new antifungal metabolites produced by the yeast *Metschnikowia pulcherrima* involved in the biocontrol of postharvest plant pathogenic fungi. *Postharvest Biol Technol* 192:15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.postharvbio.2022.111995>
19. Martínez PM, Ortiz-Martínez VM, Segado SS et al (2022) Deep eutectic solvents for the extraction of fatty acids from microalgae biomass: recovery of omega-3 eicosapentaenoic acid. *Sep Purif Technol* 300:8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2022.121842>
20. Lauceri R, Cavone C, Zittelli GC et al (2023) High purity grade Phycocyanin recovery by decoupling cell lysis from the pigment extraction: an innovative approach. *Food Bioprocess Technol* 16:111–121. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11947-022-02926-w>

21. Garcia-Parra J, Fuentes-Grünewald C, Gonzalez D (2022) Therapeutic potential of microalgae-derived bioactive metabolites is influenced by different large-scale culture strategies. *Mar Drugs* 20:627. <https://doi.org/10.3390/md20100627>
22. Singh R, Kumar M, Mittal A, Mehta PK (2017) Microbial metabolites in nutrition, healthcare and agriculture. *3 Biotech* 7:14. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13205-016-0586-4>
23. Alhattab M, Kermanshahi-Pour A, Brooks MSL (2019) Microalgae disruption techniques for product recovery: influence of cell wall composition. *J Appl Phycol* 31:61–88. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10811-018-1560-9>
24. Rani A, Saini KC, Bast F et al (2021a) A review on microbial products and their perspective application as antimicrobial agents. *Biomol Ther* 11(12):1860. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biom11121860>
25. Cadamuro RD, da Silveira Bastos IMA, da Silva IT et al (2021) Bioactive compounds from mangrove endophytic fungus and their uses for microorganism control. *J Fungi* 7(6):455. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof7060455>
26. Pfeifer K, Ergal İ, Koller M et al (2021) Archaea biotechnology. *Biotechnol Adv* 47:107668. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.BIOTECHADV.2020.107668>
27. Gómez-Villegas P, Vigarà J, Vila M et al (2020) Antioxidant, antimicrobial, and bioactive potential of two new haloarchaeal strains isolated from odier salterns (Southwest Spain). *Biology (Basel)* 9:1–20. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biology9090298>
28. Kumar V, Tiwari SK (2017b) Halocin HA1: an archaeocin produced by the haloarchaeon *Haloferax larsenii* HA1. *Process Biochem* 61:202–208. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.PROCBIO.2017.06.010>
29. Besse A, Peduzzi J, Rebuffat S, Carré-Mlouka A (2015) Antimicrobial peptides and proteins in the face of extremes: lessons from archaeocins. *Biochimie* 118:344–355. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.BIOCHI.2015.06.004>
30. Grivard A, Goubet I, de Souza Duarte Filho LM et al (2022) Archaea carotenoids: natural pigments with unexplored innovative potential. *Mar Drugs* 20(8):524
31. Peyrat LA, Tsafantakis N, Georgousaki K et al (2019) Terrestrial microorganisms: cell factories of bioactive molecules with skin protecting applications. *Molecules* 24(9):1836. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24091836>
32. Hernández-González JC, Martínez-Tapia A, Lazcano-Hernández G et al (2021) Bacteriocins from lactic acid bacteria. A powerful alternative as antimicrobials, probiotics, and immunomodulators in veterinary medicine. *Anim* 11:17. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ani11040979>
33. Tran C, Cock IE, Chen X, Feng Y (2022) Antimicrobial bacillus: metabolites and their mode of action. *Antibiotics* 11:25. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics11010088>
34. Gulsen SH, Tileklioglu E, Bode E et al (2022) Antiprotozoal activity of different *Xenorhabdus* and *Photorhabdus* bacterial secondary metabolites and identification of bioactive compounds using the easyPACId approach. *Sci Rep* 12:13. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-13722-z>
35. Antonello AM, Sartori T, Silva MB et al (2019) Anti-Trypanosoma activity of bioactive metabolites from *Photorhabdus luminescens* and *Xenorhabdus nematophila*. *Exp Parasitol* 204:7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.exppara.2019.107724>
36. Arendt P, Pollier J, Callewaert N, Goossens A (2016) Synthetic biology for production of natural and new-to-nature terpenoids in photosynthetic organisms. *Plant J* 87:16–37. <https://doi.org/10.1111/tpj.13138>
37. Merlin JN, Christudas IVSN, Kumar PP, Agastian P (2013) Optimization of growth and bioactive metabolite production: *fusarium solani*. *Asian J Pharm Clin Res* 6:98–103
38. Mas A, Guillamon JM, Torija MJ et al (2014) Bioactive compounds derived from the yeast metabolism of aromatic amino acids during alcoholic fermentation. *Biomed Res Int* 2014:7. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/898045>
39. Chrzanowski G (2020) *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*—an interesting producer of bioactive plant polyphenolic metabolites. *Int J Mol Sci* 21:1–18. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms21197343>
40. Mohamed SS, Abdelhamid SA, Ali RH (2021) Isolation and identification of marine microbial products. *J Genet Eng Biotechnol* 19:10. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s43141-021-00259-3>

41. Rani A, Saini KC, Bast F et al (2021b) Microorganisms: a potential source of bioactive molecules for antioxidant applications. *Molecules* 26(4):1142. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules26041142>
42. da Costa WA, Bezerra FWF, de Oliveira MS et al (2019) Supercritical CO₂ extraction and transesterification of the residual oil from industrial palm kernel cake with supercritical methanol. *J Supercrit Fluids* 147:179–187. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SUPFLU.2018.10.012>
43. Duarte Trujillo AS, Jiménez Forero JA, Pineda Insuasti JA et al (2020) Extracción de sustancias bioactivas de *Pleurotus ostreatus* (Pleurotaceae) por maceración dinámica. *Acta Biológica Colomb* 25:61–74. <https://doi.org/10.15446/abc.v25n1.72409>
44. Daud NFS, Said FM, Chisti Y, Yasin NHM (2021) Recovery of red pigments from *Monascus purpureus* FTC 5357 by extraction of fermented solids: operational conditions and kinetics. *Brazilian Arch Biol Technol* 64:1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1678-4324-2021200182>
45. Bleha R, Třešňáková L, Sushytskyi L et al (2022) Polysaccharides from Basidiocarps of the polypore fungus *Ganoderma resinaceum*: isolation and structure. *Polymers (Basel)* 14(2):255. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym14020255>
46. Aravind S, Barik D, Ragupathi P, Vignesh G (2020) Investigation on algae oil extraction from algae *spiroyra* by Soxhlet extraction method. *Mater Today Proc* 43:308–313. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matpr.2020.11.668>
47. de Jesus SS, Ferreira GF, Moreira LS et al (2019) Comparison of several methods for effective lipid extraction from wet microalgae using green solvents. *Renew Energy* 143:130–141. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2019.04.168>
48. Liu Y, Liu X, Cui Y, Yuan W (2022) Ultrasound for microalgal cell disruption and product extraction: a review. *Ultrason Sonochem* 87:106054. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2022.106054>
49. Zheng S, Zhang G, Wang HJ et al (2021) Progress in ultrasound-assisted extraction of the value-added products from microorganisms. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol* 37:1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11274-021-03037-y>
50. Pan X, Xu L, Meng J et al (2022) Ultrasound-assisted deep eutectic solvents extraction of polysaccharides from *Morchella importuna*: optimization, physicochemical properties, and bioactivities. *Front Nutr* 9:1–11. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnut.2022.912014>
51. Chen C, Zhao Z, Ma S et al (2020) Optimization of ultrasonic-assisted extraction, refinement and characterization of water-soluble polysaccharide from *Dictyosphaerium* sp. and evaluation of antioxidant activity in vitro. *J Food Meas Charact* 14:963–977. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11694-019-00346-7>
52. Dahmen-Ben Moussa I, Masmoudi MA, Choura S et al (2021) Extraction optimization using response surface methodology and evaluation of the antioxidant and antimicrobial potential of polyphenols in *Scenedesmus* sp. and *Chlorella* sp. *Biomass Convers Biorefin* 13:7185. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13399-021-01850-x>
53. Soquetta MB, Terra L d M, Bastos CP (2018) Green technologies for the extraction of bioactive compounds in fruits and vegetables. *CYTA J Food* 16:400–412. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19476337.2017.1411978>
54. Wang W, Rao L, Wu X et al (2021) Supercritical carbon dioxide applications in food processing. *Food Eng Rev* 13:570–591. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12393-020-09270-9>
55. Mehariya S, Iovine A, Di Sanzo G et al (2019) Supercritical fluid extraction of lutein from *scenedesmus almeriensis*. *Molecules* 24:1–15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24071324>
56. Leone GP, Balducchi R, Mehariya S et al (2019) Selective extraction of ω -3 fatty acids from *nannochloropsis* sp. using supercritical CO₂ extraction. *Molecules* 24(13):2406. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24132406>
57. Sarkar S, Gayen K, Bhowmick TK (2022) Green extraction of biomolecules from algae using subcritical and supercritical fluids. *Biomass Convers Biorefinery*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13399-022-02309-3>

58. Eom SJ, Park JT, Kang MC et al (2022) Use of ultrasound treatment to extract mannan polysaccharide from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *J Food Process Eng* 45:1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfpe.14105>
59. Sam KJ, Nair MS, Velmurugan S et al (2022) Extraction of lutein/zeaxanthin from *Arthrospira Platensis* and optimisation of the saponification process using the response surface methodology. *Indian Chem Eng*:1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00194506.2022.2101146>
60. Vintila ACN, Vlaicu A, Radu E et al (2022) Evaluation of ultrasound assisted extraction of bioactive compounds from microalgae. *J Food Meas Charact* 16:2518–2526. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11694-022-01347-9>
61. Castejón N, Marko D (2022) Fatty acid composition and cytotoxic activity of lipid extracts from *Nannochloropsis gaditana* produced by green technologies. *Molecules* 27(12):3710. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules27123710>
62. da Rosa BV, Sauzem G d S, Kuhn RC (2021) Obtaining antioxidant compounds from the endophytic fungus *Diaporthe schini* using heat- and ultrasound-assisted extraction. *Brazilian J Chem Eng* 38:189–195. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s43153-021-00089-3>
63. Snyman C, Nguela JM, Sieczkowski N et al (2021) Optimised extraction and preliminary characterisation of mannoproteins from non-saccharomyces wine yeasts. *Foods* 10:1–17. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods10050924>
64. Ji H-y, Yu J, Chen X-y, Liu A-j (2019) Extraction, optimization and bioactivities of alcohol-soluble polysaccharide from *Grifola frondosa*. *J Food Meas Charact* 13:1645–1651. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11694-019-00081-z>
65. Jia F, Liu X, Gong Z et al (2020) Extraction, modification, and property characterization of dietary fiber from *Agroclype cylindracea*. *Food Sci Nutr* 8:6131–6143. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fsn3.1905>
66. Khoo KS, Chew KW, Yew GY et al (2020) Integrated ultrasound-assisted liquid biphasic flotation for efficient extraction of astaxanthin from *Haematococcus pluvialis*. *Ultrason Sonochem* 67:1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2020.105052>
67. Ardiles P, Cerezal-Mezquita P, Salinas-Fuentes F et al (2020) Biochemical composition and phycoerythrin extraction from red microalgae: a comparative study using green extraction technologies. *PRO* 8:1–16. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pr8121628>
68. De Melo MMR, Sapatinha M, Pinheiro J et al (2020) Supercritical CO₂ extraction of *Aurantiochytrium* sp. biomass for the enhanced recovery of omega-3 fatty acids and phenolic compounds. *J CO₂ Util* 38:24–31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcou.2020.01.014>
69. da Rosa BV, Kuhn KR, Ugalde GA et al (2020) Antioxidant compounds extracted from *Diaporthe schini* using supercritical CO₂ plus cosolvent. *Bioprocess Biosyst Eng* 43:133–141. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00449-019-02211-9>
70. Boitsova TA, Brovko OS, Ivakhnov AD, Zhil'tsov DV (2020) Optimizing supercritical fluid extraction of Usnic acid from the lichen species *Usnea subfloridana*. *Russ J Phys Chem B* 14: 1135–1141. <https://doi.org/10.1134/S1990793120070040>
71. Zainuddin MF, Fai CK, Ariff AB et al (2021) Current pretreatment/cell disruption and extraction methods used to improve intracellular lipid recovery from oleaginous yeasts. *Microorganisms* 9:1–28. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms9020251>
72. Motlagh SR, Elgharabawy AA, Khezri R et al (2021) Ionic liquid-based microwave-assisted extraction of protein from *Nannochloropsis* sp. biomass. *Biomass Convers Biorefin* 13:8327. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13399-021-01778-2>
73. Rodríguez-España M, Mendoza-Sánchez LG, Magallón-Servín P et al (2021) Supercritical fluid extraction of lipids rich in DHA from *Schizochytrium* sp. *J Supercrit Fluids* 179:1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2021.105391>
74. Huynh N, Beltrame G, Tervainen M et al (2022) Supercritical CO₂ extraction of triterpenoids from Chaga sterile conk of *Inonotus obliquus*. *Molecules* 27(6):1880. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules27061880>

75. Ruiz-Domínguez MC, Medina E, Salinas F et al (2022) Methodological optimization of supercritical fluid extraction of valuable bioactive compounds from the acidophilic microalga *Coccomyxa onubensis*. *Antioxidants* 11(7):1248. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox11071248>
76. Espinosa Álvarez C, Vardanega R, Salinas-Fuentes F et al (2020) Effect of CO₂ flow rate on the extraction of Astaxanthin and fatty acids from *Haematococcus pluvialis* using supercritical fluid technology. *Molecules* 25(24):6044. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules25246044>
77. Georgiopolou I, Tzima S, Louli V, Magoulas K (2022) Supercritical CO₂ extraction of high-added value compounds from *Chlorella vulgaris*: experimental design, modelling and optimization. *Molecules* 27(18):5884. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules27185884>
78. Carpentieri S, Soltanipour F, Ferrari G et al (2021) Emerging green techniques for the extraction of antioxidants from Agri-food by-products as promising ingredients for the food industry. *Antioxidants* 10:42
79. Azmi AAB, Sankaran R, Show PL et al (2020) Current application of electrical pre-treatment for enhanced microalgal biomolecules extraction. *Bioresour Technol* 302:122874. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2020.122874>
80. Carullo D, Abera BD, Scognamiglio M et al (2022) Application of pulsed electric fields and high-pressure. *Foods* 11:1–16
81. Sebastian J, Rouissi T, Brar SK et al (2019) Microwave-assisted extraction of chitosan from *Rhizopus oryzae* NRRL 1526 biomass. *Carbohydr Polym* 219:431–440. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2019.05.047>
82. Aslanbay Guler B, Saglam-Metiner P, Deniz I et al (2022) Aligned with sustainable development goals: microwave extraction of astaxanthin from wet algae and selective cytotoxic effect of the extract on lung cancer cells. *Prep Biochem Biotechnol* 53(5):565–571. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10826068.2022.2116455>
83. Zhang Y, Soldatov S, Papachristou I et al (2022) Pulsed microwave pretreatment of fresh microalgae for enhanced lipid extraction. *Energy* 248:123555. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2022.123555>
84. Rokicka M, Zieliński M, Dudek M, Dębowski M (2021) Effects of ultrasonic and microwave pretreatment on lipid extraction of microalgae and methane production from the residual extracted biomass. *Bioenergy Res* 14:752–760. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12155-020-10202-y>
85. Baskararaj S, Theivendren P, Palanisamy P et al (2019) Optimization of bioactive compounds extraction assisted by microwave parameters from *Kappaphycus alvarezii* using RSM and ANFIS modeling. *J Food Meas Charact* 13:2773–2789. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11694-019-00198-1>
86. Polo-Castellano C, Álvarez J, Palma M et al (2022) Optimization through a Box–behken experimental design of the microwave-assisted extraction of the psychoactive compounds in hallucinogenic fungi (*Psilocybe cubensis*). *J Fungi* 8:4–15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof8060598>
87. Lee SY, Hu X, Stuckey DC (2022) Optimised “green solvent” extraction of long-chain menaquinones (vitamin K₂) from wet *Lactococcus lactis* biomass. *Sep Purif Technol* 287: 120560. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2022.120560>
88. Nowosad K, Sujka M, Pankiewicz U, Kowalski R (2021) The application of PEF technology in food processing and human nutrition. *J Food Sci Technol* 58:397–411. <https://doi.org/10.1007/S13197-020-04512-4/TABLES/2>
89. Zhang R, Gu X, Xu G, Fu X (2021) Improving the lipid extraction yield from *Chlorella* based on the controllable electroporation of cell membrane by pulsed electric field. *Bioresour Technol* 330:1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2021.124933>
90. Aguilar-Machado D, Montañez J, Raso J, Martínez JM (2022) Other applications of pulsed electric fields technology for the food industry. *Food engineering services*. Springer, pp 439–466. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70586-2_15
91. Li Q, Kamal R, Chu Y et al (2020) Automated pressurized liquid extraction of microbial lipids from oleaginous yeasts. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol* 192:283–295. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12010-020-03331-9>

92. Derwenskus F, Metz F, Gille A et al (2019) Pressurized extraction of unsaturated fatty acids and carotenoids from wet *Chlorella vulgaris* and *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* biomass using subcritical liquids. *GCB Bioenergy* 11:335–344. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcbb.12563>
93. Gallego R, Bueno M, Chourio AM et al (2021) Use of high and ultra-high pressure based-processes for the effective recovery of bioactive compounds from *Nannochloropsis oceanica* microalgae. *J Supercrit Fluids* 167:105039. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2020.105039>
94. He Y, Huang Z, Zhong C et al (2019) Pressurized liquid extraction with ethanol as a green and efficient technology to lipid extraction of *Isochrysis* biomass. *Bioresour Technol* 293:122049. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2019.122049>
95. Pagels F, Pereira RN, Amaro HM et al (2021) Continuous pressurized extraction versus electric fields-assisted extraction of cyanobacterial pigments. *J Biotechnol* 334:35–42. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2021.05.004>
96. Bueno M, Gallego R, Chourio AM et al (2020) Green ultra-high pressure extraction of bioactive compounds from *Haematococcus pluvialis* and *Porphyridium cruentum* microalgae. *Innov Food Sci Emerg Technol* 66:1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2020.102532>
97. Torgbo S, Sukatta U, Kamonpatana P, Sukyai P (2022) Ohmic heating extraction and characterization of rambutan (*Nephelium lappaceum* L.) peel extract with enhanced antioxidant and antifungal activity as a bioactive and functional ingredient in white bread preparation. *Food Chem* 382:132332. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.FOODCHEM.2022.132332>
98. Al-Hilphy AR, Al-Musafer AM, Gavahian M (2020) Pilot-scale ohmic heating-assisted extraction of wheat bran bioactive compounds: effects of the extract on corn oil stability. *Food Res Int* 137:109649. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.FOODRES.2020.109649>
99. Ferreira-Santos P, Nunes R, De Biasio F et al (2020) Influence of thermal and electrical effects of ohmic heating on C-phycoerythrin properties and biocompounds recovery from *Spirulina platensis*. *Lwt* 128:109491. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2020.109491>
100. Ferreira-Santos P, Miranda SM, Belo I et al (2021) Sequential multi-stage extraction of biocompounds from *Spirulina platensis*: combined effect of ohmic heating and enzymatic treatment. *Innov Food Sci Emerg Technol* 71:1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2021.102707>
101. Han SF, Jin W, Yang Q et al (2019) Application of pulse electric field pretreatment for enhancing lipid extraction from *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* grown in wastewater. *Renew Energy* 133:233–239. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2018.10.034>
102. Zhang R, Marchal L, Lebovka N et al (2020) Two-step procedure for selective recovery of bio-molecules from microalga *Nannochloropsis oculata* assisted by high voltage electrical discharges. *Bioresour Technol* 302:1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2020.122893>
103. Gorte O, Nazarova N, Papachristou I et al (2020) Pulsed electric field treatment promotes lipid extraction on fresh oleaginous yeast *Saitozyma podzolica* DSM 27192. *Front Bioeng Biotechnol* 8:1–14. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2020.575379>
104. Aguilar-Machado D, Delso C, Martinez JM et al (2020) Enzymatic processes triggered by PEF for Astaxanthin extraction from *Xanthophyllomyces dendrorhous*. *Front Bioeng Biotechnol* 8:1–12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2020.00857>