

Harmful Algal Blooms: A rising threat to water ecosystems

Subhabrata Ghosh

Department of Botany
Mahadevananda Mahavidyalaya, Barrackpore - 700120 (India)
Email: sgphyco@gmail.com

Abstract

Harmful algal blooms (HABs) are progressively recognized as a significant problem to aquatic ecosystems. This baneful condition caused by nutrient pollution, climate change, and various human activities. HABs destroy ecological equilibrium by reducing oxygen levels, generating toxins, and negatively impacting aquatic organisms. This review emphasizes the regulating factors and ecological impacts of HABs in both freshwater and saltwater ecosystems. It also describes how human actions like farming and city runoff lead to the formation of blooms. As global temperatures rise and climate patterns change, the occurrence and intensity of HABs are predicted to rise. Governing this issue necessitates coordinated monitoring, management, and policy initiatives. This review consolidates existing information and highlights the necessity for sustainable approaches to reduce the effects of HABs.

Key words : Harmful Algal Bloom, attributes.

Aquatic ecosystems are essential for maintaining global biodiversity, providing critical resources such as food, water, and livelihoods for millions of people. However, these ecosystems are increasingly under threat from both natural and anthropogenic stressors. Among the most pressing of these challenges is the proliferation of harmful algal blooms (HABs), which have gained global attention due to their ecological, economic, and public health impacts. HABs occur when colonies of algae—often phytoplankton—grow excessively in water bodies, sometimes producing toxic compounds that harm aquatic organisms, degrade water quality, and disrupt ecosystem

functions¹.

Historically, algal blooms were seen as natural occurrences, but their increasing frequency and severity over the past few decades suggest a strong linkage to human-induced environmental changes. Nutrient enrichment from agricultural runoff, untreated sewage discharge, and industrial effluents are key drivers fueling eutrophication, one of the leading causes of HABs⁷. Additionally, rising global temperatures and altered precipitation patterns due to climate change have been shown to enhance the growth conditions for many harmful algal species¹³.

HABs are not only ecologically damaging but also carry significant socio-economic implications. They contribute to hypoxic zones or “dead zones” in coastal areas, resulting in massive fish kills and collapse of fisheries. Moreover, toxins produced by certain species can contaminate drinking water sources and accumulate in shellfish, posing severe risks to human and animal health⁶. These impacts often lead to substantial economic losses in sectors such as aquaculture, tourism, and public health.

While much research has been conducted on HABs, understanding their complex causes and multidimensional effects remains a challenge. This review synthesizes the current knowledge on the ecological impacts of HABs, emphasizing their cascading effects on aquatic food webs, biodiversity, and ecosystem services. It also highlights the economic costs associated with HAB outbreaks and discusses the need for integrated management approaches to mitigate their occurrence and severity.

By drawing from recent literature, this article aims to underscore the urgent need for coordinated global action to address HABs. It calls for strengthened policies, enhanced monitoring systems, and investment in sustainable land and water use practices. As HABs continue to pose growing threats to aquatic ecosystems, a comprehensive understanding of their dynamics is crucial for informing future conservation and management strategies.

Ecological Consequences of HABs :

HABs have a profound impact on aquatic ecosystems, often leading to ecosystem-

wide disruptions. One of the most immediate ecological consequences is the depletion of dissolved oxygen in water, known as hypoxia. This occurs when dense algal mats die and decompose, consuming oxygen and creating inhospitable conditions for most aquatic organisms⁴. The result is often large-scale fish kills and the collapse of benthic communities, particularly in coastal and estuarine zones.

In addition to oxygen depletion, many harmful algal species produce potent biotoxins that can severely affect aquatic organisms. For instance, *Microcystis aeruginosa*, a common cyanobacterial species, produces microcystins, which are hepatotoxic and can bioaccumulate in aquatic food chains³. Similarly, *Karenia brevis*, responsible for red tides in the Gulf of Mexico, releases brevetoxins that impair the nervous systems of fish and marine mammals¹⁰. These toxins not only affect individual species but also alter predator-prey dynamics, reproductive success, and interspecies interactions, ultimately reducing biodiversity and ecosystem resilience.

Furthermore, HABs can significantly alter aquatic food webs. In ecosystems dominated by toxic algal species, grazers such as zooplankton and filter feeders are either poisoned or outcompeted, resulting in a shift toward less diverse and more opportunistic species¹⁵. These changes can have cascading effects across trophic levels, impacting the abundance and composition of higher organisms such as fish, birds, and marine mammals.

Economic Impacts of HABs :

The economic toll of HABs is substantial

and multifaceted. One of the most affected sectors is fisheries and aquaculture. HAB-related fish kills, contamination of shellfish, and closures of fishing grounds can result in millions of dollars in losses annually. For example, a single HAB event in 2015 off the U.S. West Coast led to the closure of the Dungeness crab fishery, causing losses exceeding \$100 million¹¹.

Tourism is another industry severely impacted by HABs. Blooms can cause unpleasant odors, discoloration of water, and beach closures, all of which deter recreational activities. In Florida, the 2018 red tide event led to a significant decline in coastal tourism, affecting hotels, restaurants, and other businesses dependent on beachgoers⁹. These effects often ripple through local economies, particularly in regions heavily reliant on aquatic tourism.

Public health costs also add to the economic burden. Exposure to HAB toxins through drinking water or recreational contact can result in acute and chronic health issues, including skin irritation, gastrointestinal illness, and even liver damage. Governments are often forced to invest in expensive water treatment upgrades and public awareness campaigns to minimize health risks⁸.

Drivers and Amplifying Factors :

Anthropogenic nutrient loading remains one of the most significant drivers of HABs. Nitrogen and phosphorus inputs from fertilizers, wastewater, and stormwater runoff act as fertilizers for algae, leading to excessive growth in both freshwater and coastal marine systems². Urbanization, deforestation, and poor land-use practices further exacerbate nutrient

runoff, particularly during heavy rainfall and flooding events.

Climate change is another major amplifying factor. Rising sea surface temperatures favor the growth of certain HAB species that thrive in warmer conditions. Additionally, altered rainfall patterns can influence the timing and magnitude of nutrient delivery to water bodies¹². Ocean acidification and changes in salinity due to sea-level rise may also affect the composition and toxicity of HAB species.

Invasive species and hydrological modifications—such as dam construction and canal systems—can further disrupt natural aquatic processes, creating environments conducive to bloom formation. The complexity and interrelationships of these drivers highlight the importance of taking a holistic approach to understanding and managing HABs.

Monitoring, Management, and Mitigation:

Monitoring and early warning systems are crucial for reducing the impact of HABs. Advances in satellite remote sensing, in situ sensors, and molecular tools have improved the detection and prediction of bloom events¹⁴. However, data integration and real-time analysis remain challenges in many regions, particularly in developing countries with limited resources.

Management strategies generally fall into two categories: prevention and control. Preventive measures aim to reduce nutrient inputs through best management practices (BMPs) in agriculture, improved wastewater treatment, and buffer zone restoration. Control

strategies include mechanical removal, chemical treatments, and biological control using grazers or bacteria. However, many of these methods are either costly or risk causing unintended ecological side effects⁵.

Public education and stakeholder engagement are also key components of HAB management. Increasing public awareness about the causes and consequences of HABs can lead to behavioral changes that reduce nutrient pollution, such as minimizing fertilizer use or properly disposing of waste.

Policy and Research Gaps :

Despite growing awareness, significant gaps remain in HAB policy and research. Regulatory frameworks often lack coherence across regions and sectors, making it difficult to implement coordinated action. There is also a need for more long-term monitoring programs and ecosystem-based approaches that account for the cumulative effects of multiple stressors.

Research is particularly needed in understanding the synergistic effects of climate change and nutrient loading on HAB dynamics, as well as in developing cost-effective and environmentally safe mitigation technologies. In this line we can incorporate Biomonitoring approach, various international cooperation, data sharing, and capacity building are essential to tackle this global issue effectively.

References :

1. Anderson, D.M. (2009). *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 52(7): 342–347.
2. Anderson, D. M., P. M. Glibert, and J.M. Burkholder, (2002). *Estuaries*, 25(4): 704–726.
3. Carmichael, W. W. (2001). *Human and Ecological Risk Assessment*, 7(5): 1393–1407.
4. Diaz, R. J., and R. Rosenberg, (2008). *Science*, 321(5891): 926–929.
5. Glibert, P. M., *et al.* (2014). *Harmful Algae*, 8(1): 39–53.
6. Gobler, C. J. (2020). *Harmful Algae*, 91: 101731.
7. Heisler, J., *et al.* (2008). *Harmful Algae*, 8(1): 3–13.
8. Hilborn, E. D., and V. R. Beasley, (2015). *Toxins*, 7(4): 1374–1395.
9. Kirkpatrick, B., *et al.* (2021). *Harmful Algae*, 102: 101939.
10. Landsberg, J. H. (2002). *Reviews in Fisheries Science*, 10(2): 113–390.
11. NOAA. (2016). *2015 West Coast Harmful Algal Bloom*. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. <https://www.noaa.gov>
12. Paerl, H. W., and J. Huisman, (2008). *Science*, 320(5872): 57–58.
13. Paerl, H. W., and V. J. Paul, (2012). *Water Research*, 46(5): 1349–1363.
14. Schnetzer, A., *et al.* (2007). *Harmful Algae*, 6(3): 372–387.
15. Smayda, T. J. (1997). *Limnology and Oceanography*, 42(5): 1137–1153.