2	GREEN CHEMISTRY TO VALORIZE SEAFOOD SIDE STREAMS:
3	AN ECO-FRIENDY ROADMAP TOWARDS SUSTAINABILITY
4	
5	Vazhiyil Venugopal ^{a*} , Abhilash Sasidharan ^{bc} and Turid Rustad ^c
6	
7	* Corresponding author, vvenugopalmenon@gmail.com
8	
9 10	^a Formerly of Food Technology Division, Bhabha Atomic Research Center, Mumbai, India 400085 wvenugopalmenon@gmail.com
11	Narayana Mandir, St. Mary's college road, Thrissur, Kerala, India 680020
12	
13 14	^b Department of Fish Processing Technology, Kerala University of Fisheries and Ocean Studies, Kerala, India, 682506\abhilash.sasidharan@ntnu.no,
15	
16 17	^c Department of Biotechnology and Food Science, Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU), Trondheim, Norway, 7491
18	turid.rustad@ntnu.no,
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	

26 CONTENTS

- 27 1.0. Introduction
- 28 2.0. Loss and wastage of seafood
- 29 2.1. Compositional nature of seafood side streams
- 30 3.0. Sustainable seafood production
- 31 4.0. Green chemistry to valorise seafood side streams.
- 4.1. Principles of green chemistry
- 4.2. Green processing of seafood side streams
- 4.3. Microbial bioconversions
- 4.4. Enzyme-based bioconversions
- 4.5. Extractions by green solvents
- 4.6. Non-thermal technologies
- 4.7. Isoelectric solubilization precipitation (ISP)
- 4.8. Membrane processes
- 40 5.0. Green extractions of ingredients of seafood side streams
- 41 5.1. Proteins
- 42 5.2. Lipids
- 5.3. Pigments
- 5.4. Chitin, chitosan, and their oligosaccharides
- 45 5.5. Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs)
- 5.6. Mineral compounds
- 47 5.7. Biofuel
- 48 6.0. Marine biorefinery for integrated bioprocesses
- 49 7.0. Factors favoring green processing.
- 7.1. Life cycle assessment
- 7.2. Availability of functionally active novel compounds
- 52 7.3. Commercial potentials
- 53 7.4. Challenges facing green processing
- 7.5. Potential contribution to seafood sustainability

Abstract

55

A major challenge facing sustainable seafood production is the 56 voluminous amounts of nutrients-rich seafood side streams consisting of by-57 catch, processing discards and process effluents. There is a lack of a 58 comprehensive model for optimal valorisation of the side streams. Upcoming 59 green chemistry-based processing has potential to recover diverse valuable 60 compounds from seafood side chains in an eco-friendly manner. Microbial 61 and enzymatic bioconversions form major green processes capable of 62 releasing biomolecules from seafood matrices under mild conditions. Novel 63 green solvents, because of their low toxicity and recyclable nature, can 64 extract the bioactive compounds. Non-thermal technologies such as 65 ultrasound, supercritical fluid as well as membrane filtration can complement 66 green extractions. The extracted proteins, bioactive peptides, polyunsaturated 67 fatty acids, chitin, chitosan, and others function as nutraceuticals, food 68 supplements, additives, and others in diverse industries. Green processing can 69 also encourage bio-energy production. Multiple green processes integrated in 70 a marine biorefinery can optimize valorisation on a zero-waste trade-off, 71 encouraging a circular blue economy. The technology can address 72 environmental, economic, and technological challenges of valorisation of 73 seafood side streams thereby supporting sustainable seafood production 74 .Green chemistry-based valorisation framework has potentials to meet the 75 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the United Nations. 76

- 77 Keywords:
- 78 Seafood side streams, Green chemistry, Marine biorefinery, Valorisation,
- 79 Seafood sustainability

1.0. Introduction

Commercial fishing activities and aquaculture provide a wide variety of finfish and shellfish. The finfish include herring, cod, anchovy, mullet, mackerel, salmon, tuna and others, while the shellfish includes crustaceans (shrimp, prawn, krill, crab, and lobster), bivalves (mussel, oyster, clam, and scallop), cephalopods (squid, octopus, and cuttlefish), and gastropods (abalone and snail). In the year 2020, global fisheries and aquaculture production reached a value of 214 million tons (MT), aquaculture alone producing 122.6 MT in 2020 (1). Fishery products including both finfish and shellfish provide consumers a rich and diverse array of nutrients including proteins, unsaturated lipids, carotenoids, micronutrients including vitamins A, D, and B, and minerals such as iodine, zinc, calcium, phosphorus, iron, and selenium (2, 3).

2.0. Loss and wastage of seafood

Food loss and wastage (FLW) occur throughout the food value chain including seafood. The annual loss of world fisheries is around 30%, of seafood production essentially due to the generation of significant amounts of 'seafood side streams', which include fishery by-catch, process discards and process effluents (1). The by-catch, consisting of undersized, damaged as well as commercial seafood caught in low amounts, is essentially due to destructive fishing practices. By-catch, because of its poor

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

commercial value, is often dumped in the ocean, causing reduced oxygen levels at the ocean bottom leading to burial or smothering of living organisms, damaging marine ecosystem (4). A large portion of high value seafood is discarded as side streams during centralized pre-processing operations. These are generated during operations such as beheading, removal of fins, filleting, de-shelling, scaling, meat/bone separation, and washing. These side streams range from 20 to 80% of raw material, depending upon the fish/shellfish species and nature of processing. Finfish discards comprise of heads, liver, dark muscle, belly flaps, skeletal frames, backbones, skin, scales and viscera, roe and others, constituting up to 25-60% of the total raw material wet weight (5). Processing of crustaceans such as shrimp and lobster generate about 60 to 70% of the raw material as discards, which consist of heads, shells, livers and eggs (6-8). Currently, portions of the side streams find uses as raw material for fish meal, oil, ensilage, fertilizer, animal feed, etc. for use in agriculture and animal husbandry. Discarding of the seafood side streams is responsible for heavy nutritional loss, besides serious environmental and heavy financial costs. In the United States, about 47% of the seafood supply including bycatch was unavailable to consumers during the 2009 -2013 period. This amounted to a loss of about 208 billion g of proteins and 1.8 billion g of long chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), particularly eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), and docosahexaenoic acid, (DHA) (9). Seafood processing also

generates voluminous amounts of effluents, which is another major reason for nutrient loss and environmental pollution. The effluents are characterized by high levels of total suspended solids (TSS) as a result of suspended myofibrillar proteins, collagen, gelatine, pigments, enzymes, soluble peptides and amino acids, as well as FOG (fats, oils, and grease). The TSS and FOG values are responsible for high biological oxygen demand (BOD) and chemical oxygen demand (COD) indices of the effluents, which indicate adverse oxygen balance favoring microbial growth. Such adverse environmental factors are particularly associated with discharges from fishmeal factories. Harvesting and processing vast quantities of fish also leads to the production of byproducts, further creating disposal challenges (10).

2.1. Compositional nature of seafood side streams

The solid discards, on a dry weight basis, contain as high as 60% proteins (including myosin and collagen, gelatine, enzymes, bioactive peptides, essential amino acids), 7 to 19% fat (rich in omega-3 PUFA), and up to 30% ash, composed of calcium, phosphorus, sodium and magnesium and other minerals. They are also sources of chitin, chitosan, glycosaminoglycans, and others (8, 11). Shellfish side streams contain up to 65% proteins, 21% ash, 15 to 20% chitin, besides small amounts of lipids and carotenoids (7). Crab discards, depending on the species, have 72, 34,

and 28.5% of moisture, protein and ash contents, respectively (12). Dry crab shell, lobster shell and squid skeletal pen have chitin contents ranging from 67 to 72, 70 and 41%, respectively (13). The proteins present in seafood side streams have good bioactivities and functional properties. The proteins are sources of bioactive peptides having anticoagulant, anticancer and hypocholesterolemic and other activities (11, 14). Fish oils are excellent sources of omega-3 PUFA, having interesting therapeutic properties (3). Figure 1 shows the food waste recovery hierarchical pyramid and strategies to prevent food waste.

3.0. Sustainable seafood production

Sustainable production is defined as the process in which the exploitation of natural resources, the allocation of investments, the process of technological development, and organization changes are in harmony with each other for the current and future generations (15). Sustainability, in general, dwells on three pillars, namely, (i) renewable resources should not be exploited at a rate higher than their regeneration levels, (ii) non-renewable resources should not be depleted at rates higher than the development rate of renewable substitutes, and, (iii) the absorption and regeneration capacity of the natural environment should not be exceeded (15). Reducing food loss and waste is a major effort for sustainability (16) (Figure 1).

Sustainable seafood production is facing challenges due to a variety of problems, which include global warming, acidification, excessive and destructive fishing, destruction of coral reefs, pollution and others. These are causing particular concerns especially when global demand for seafood is rising due to population rise as well as increasing awareness on the nutritional value of fishery products. It has been recognized that by 2050, global food production including seafood availability need to increase roughly by 50%, when the population is expected to cross 9 billion (17). Potential demand for food from the sea in the year 2050 is projected to be about 103 MT (18). Currently, 90% of fish stocks are exploited at maximum sustainable levels (1). Availability of seafood is showing decreasing trends due to problems mentioned above. An example is the intense heat wave during 2018 to 2019 that crashed the crab industry worth US \$ 200 million (19). Against this situation, the available seafood is not fully utilized for human consumption, essentially due to heavy loss and wastage in the commodity. The nutritional and environmental consequences of rising demand will depend on making better use of available resources. There is a need for responsible and equitable use of marine resources through sustainable manner to address challenges regarding the environment, climate change, economic limitations, and resource efficiency with respect to marine products (20)

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

The United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development consists of 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (21). The Agenda recognizes that the natural world must be urgently protected to fulfil the needs of 9.8 billion people by 2050. The SDG 12 aims at ensuring sustainable consumption and production patterns. The SDG 12.3 aims halving global food waste by 2030 at the retail and consumer levels, as well as the reduction of food loss along production and supply chains, including post-harvest losses. The SDG 12.5 aims at substantial reduction of waste generation through prevention reduction, recycling and reuse by the year 2030. Food waste valorisation involves management strategies by seafood processors to exploit food side streams for producing compounds that can command a high market value.

There is an urgent need to make the seafood system resilient to make competent to provide food and nutrition security in a way that does not deprive future generations of their benefits. The SDG 14 aims protection of life below water (21). This requires a robust oceanic health through a blue transformation of aquatic supply chains. This could be achieved by science based policies and new technologies for both wild caught and aquacultured seafood. This demands total utilization of available seafood resources including high-potential waste, which can support seafood sustainability. Such solutions also address major challenges like climate change, disaster risk reduction, food and water security, biodiversity loss and human health.

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

The demand for a healthy ocean has encouraged interests in 'blue economy', defined as sustainable productive, service, and all other related activities using and protecting marine and coastal resources (21).

There are other international efforts also to protect health of the oceans. These include 'The Ocean Decade of the UN to deliver sciencebased solutions to achieve the 2030 Agenda (https://oceandecade.org/ (accessed March 5, 2023), and the World Economic Forum (WEF) presents an action-oriented roadmap for estimated benefits in terms of reduced food waste, water usage, lower greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and increased productivity to promote sustainability, inclusivity, nutrition, and health It has been anticipated that transforming the world's food systems could generate \$1.0 trillion in economic return and help to create a net-zero, nature-positive world, while also ensuring social justice and food security (22; https://oceandecade.org/accessed March 5, 2023), Other international efforts include the 'Nature 2030' of the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (https://www.iucn.org/nature-2030, accessed Septemner 12, 2023), the Future of Sustainable fisheries of the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) (https://seafoodsustainability.org/, accessed September 12, 2023), and the Ocean Panel (https://oceanpanel.org/), accessed September 12, 2023). The large amount of seafood side streams need to be profitably utilized through effective eco-friendly strategies to support sustainability and food security (11, 23). Recent challenges in finding value to seafood

processing discards are demanding sustainable options for their utilization.

This article examines the advantages of green chemistry based transformation of seafood side streams to improve seafood sustainability.

236

233

234

235

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

4.0. Green chemistry to valorise seafood side streams

4.1. Principles of green chemistry

Green chemistry (also known as sustainable chemistry) emerged in the 1990s as an environmentally benign alternative to conventional valorisation methods. It aims at design of chemical products and processes that reduce or eliminate the use or generation of hazardous substances. Green chemistry applies across the life cycle of a chemical product, including its design, manufacture, use, and ultimate disposal (24, 25). It is defined as 'a scientific concept that seeks to improve the efficiency with which natural resources are used to meet human needs for chemical products and services' (26). Recently, sustainable chemistry has evolved as a closely related, yet more holistic approach. Its concept includes design and use of benign chemicals, development and use of alternative solutions for problematic applications, reduction of impacts, conservation of natural resources, promotion of reuse and recycling, increase of market opportunities and application of corporate social responsibility (27). The Framework Manual of the UNEP introduces various facets of green and

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

sustainable chemistry. The framework seeks to promote chemistry innovation that is compatible with and supports the implementation of the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda of the United Nations (21, 24). The twelve objectives of green and sustainable chemistry encompass minimizing chemical hazards, sustainable sourcing of resources and feed stocks, advancing sustainability of products, enabling non-toxic circularity, advancing circularity of production processes, avoiding regrettable substitutions and alternatives, minimizing chemical releases, and maximizing social benefits and protecting consumers and vulnerable populations developing solutions for sustainability challenges (28). Green extraction is a major practice in green chemistry to protect both the environment and consumers. Green extraction deals with the use of alternative solvents, reduction of unit operations as well as energy, production of co-products, and development of materials without loss of their functionality (29). Green and sustainable chemistry innovation can play an important role in advancing a circular economy. It stimulates design of molecules, materials and products that can be more easily recycled and up-cycled than those currently on the market. Innovative green technologies to tackle food loss in the supply chain are a vibrant field with large potential (16). Green process engineering based on green chemistry tools, ideally through a biorefinery, provides a sustainable route for the recovery of valuable products from waste biomass (30).

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

4.2. Advantages of green processing of seafood side streams

Green processing has several advantages over conventional processes for valorisation of seafood side streams. In conventional processes, neutralizations of hydrochloric acid (HCl) and alkali (NaOH) have a high insidious impact on the environment. Other disadvantages are high energy consumption as well as possible thermal degradation of target compounds. During hydrolysis of proteins, the amino acids bound to polypeptide bonds are likely to undergo racemisation. Amino acids such as tryptophan, cysteine, tyrosine, serine, and threonine may also undergo partial or complete destruction. Conventionally, chitin is extracted from crustacean shells by initial demineralization with strong HCl followed by removal of protein by NaOH extraction. These may affect molecular size of the biopolymer. Traditionally fish oil is extracted by wet reduction involving cooking, pressing and filtration. The extracted oil is refined by carbon treatment, degumming, and alkali refining. The process can cause oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids and hence loss of their functionality. Furthermore, conventional processes require vessels which are resistant to acids and alkali, which increases treatment costs. The limitations of conventional chemical processing on components of seafood side streams are shown in Table 1.

Innovative green processing, on the other hand, has high potentials for safe transformation of seafood side streams through extraction of novel products at higher efficiencies and possibly at lower costs, protecting the environment and therefore satisfying a green economy, which require optimization of intervention strategies (31, 32). The biotransformation of food discards is generally on a zero-waste strategy and the recovered products can retain their functionality and therefore can have multiple uses. (33). Therefore, suitable bio-transformations of global biomass have potentials to satisfy a green economy (34, 35). The choice of the green process and the extent of product recovery are dependent on the nature and type of raw material, food matrices, the chemistry of the targeted compounds and environmental and economic challenges (24, 36, 37). The multiple uses of the extracted ingredients in agriculture, health, and other industries enhance the value of the seafood materials (38, 39). Table 2 gives advantages of green chemistry-based technologies.over traditional methods

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

Eco-friendly extraction is the salient feature of green chemistry based processing of seafood side streams, which involve initial bioconversions of components present in seafood side chains. The bioconversions make use of microbial fermentations, ideally with appropriate microbial strains and/or enzymatic processes. Eco-friendly non-thermal processes can enhance bioconversion and extractability of compounds. The released components

are recovered by downstream processing, making use of the principles of biotechnology (39, 40).

4.3. Microbial bioconversions

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

Microbial biotechnology offers 'green' innovations, to improve sustainability and resilience of agri-food systems while meeting the needs of future generations (41). The microbe-mediated bioconversion, generally termed as fermentation, is an efficient low-cost green process for biorefining of food side streams including seafood resources. Fermentation, which results in modification and release components attached to food matrices, can be of different types, namely, solid state, submerged or liquid state, anaerobic, batch, continuous, or fed batch. Fermentation employs aerobic, anaerobic, or facultative microorganisms including bacteria, fungi, microalgae and protozoa to degrade organic matter. The process is safe, environmental, and energy-friendly. Its efficiency is influenced by the nature of the starter culture, time, pH, and substrate composition (42). A robust microbial strain is critical in the fermentation process. Lactic acid bacteria (LAB) are popularly used in fermentation systems. Lactic acid (LA) is the most predominant industrial product obtained from LAB. LAB fermentations may be performed in solid (SSF) or in the fed-batch mode. SSF has good scope for the synthesis of microbial products such as food, feed, enzymes, fuel, industrial chemicals, and pharmaceutical products.

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

Some of the advantages of SSF are low sterility requirement, less water demand and high volume production. The advantages of SSF over conventional submerged fermentations could push the technology towards a future bioeconomy (43). Lactic acid (LA) bacteria are used to produce a wide variety of chemicals of high commercial interests. These organisms are used to produce a wide variety of chemicals of high commercial interest such as bacteriocins, lipoteichoic acid, and probiotics. Hence, the creation of new ways to revalorize LA production processes is of high interest and could further enhance economic value of the process (44). The fed-batch fermentation targets isolation of microbial biomass, organic acids (mainly lactic acid), ethanol, bioactive peptides, organic acids, antibiotics, vitamins, enzymes, and other compounds (45). Since the 1980s biomass fermentation has emerged in the food industry for the production of cell mass for further use as sources of enzymes, flavours, food, biomaterials, therapeutics, fuels and in recent times, as sources of alternative proteins to develop cultivated seafood formulations (46). Precision fermentation is intended to produce specific functional ingredients using tailor-made microbial hosts. The global fermentation industry focused on animal-free alternatives to conventional proteins. Scientific advances, new products and prototypes, manufacturing facilities, and partnerships brought the world more meat, seafood, eggs, and dairy made via microorganisms—a nature-inspired technology primed to transform the future of food (47).

Fermentation, which is traditionally used to increase the shelf-life of fishery products, results into the formation of bacteria metabolites of interest. Fermentation of seafood by-products results in protein hydrolysates and production of oil and antioxidant compounds. Fermentation is safe, environmental-friendly and low energy consuming (48). Seaweed associated bacteria; namely, Bacillus spp., Brevibacterium spp. and Vibrio spp. degraded crustacean shells as well as fish scales in a seawater-based broth (49). Microorganisms can treat seafood industry process effluents in reaction systems such as activated sludge, aerobic lagoons, trickling filters, and rotating disc contactors. Anaerobic digestion (AD) has been identified as a potential green technology for treatment of high-strength industrial wastewaters including aquaculture and fishery wastes. Studies have indicated that AD of freshwater, brackish, and saline wastewater has shown promising results (10, 45).

Microalgae such as Chlorella spp., Spirulina spp., Dunaliella spp., diatoms, and cyanobacteria (commonly referred to as blue green algae), are promising agents for the bioconversion of biomass including seafood discards. These organisms can be grown in nutrient medium under appropriate phototrophic (light and CO₂) conditions. Algal cultivation can be in open ponds or in closed photo-bioreactors, or heterotrophically in closed systems. Heterotrophic cultivation in closed systems eliminates the requirement of light, but the culture can be prone to contamination by other

microbial species (50). The algal biomass, ideally grown in medium supplemented with food discard biomass, is known as single cell proteins (SCP), which is a promising alternative to conventional food and feed. Enzymatically hydrolyzed fishery products can support growth of algae. The dried pellet of rainbow trout supported the growth of the red alga, Galdieria sulphuraria. No pathogens such as Salmonella sp. could be detected under the non-sterile conditions (51). The SCP contains high amounts of protein and oil, besides being a good source of polysaccharides, minerals, and pigments including chlorophylls, carotenoids, and phycobiliproteins. Stringent nitrogen limitations stimulate algae to synthesize lipids, as high as 75%, with high contents of n-3 PUFA (52). The ingredients from SCP can be extracted by suitable downstreFam green processes including enzyme, supercritical-fluid, microwave-assisted and pressurized-liquid-based extractions or by the novel impinging jet mixers. The proteins isolated from SCP can be used for food purposes, while the oil can be a PUFA-rich nutrient. It can also serve as raw material for biofuel. The extraction efficiency of nutrients from SCP can vary highly depending on the methods used and the target compounds (36, 53).

4.4. Enzyme-based bioconversions

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

Enzymatic processes have significant importance in food waste management. Enzymes, because of their specificity, catalytic properties and appreciable activities at moderate temperatures, could enhance reaction rates,

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

offering reduction in process cost, time and energy. Compared to synthetic catalysts, enzymes have higher specificity and improved environmental sustainability in performing chemical transformations, Therefore, enzymatic bioconversions are favorable over chemical processes, and are promising and emerging field in green chemistry practice (54, 55). Seafood side streams can provide several enzymes such as proteases, lipases, chitinase, lipases, alkaline phosphatase, transglutaminase, hyaluronidase, acetyl glycosaminidase, among others. Enzymes from organisms from colder habitats such as fish and shellfish are particularly useful since they can function comparatively at lower temperatures thereby saving energy and protecting the food products. Recovery of these enzymes from various fishery sources serves additional benefit of waste disposal. Methodologies for isolation of enzymes from seafood side streams have been summarized (56). Hydrolases, which include proteases, carbohydrases, chitinases and lipases, are popular enzymes for bio-refining. Protease treatment can help preparation of protein hydrolysates, tenderization of fish meat and squid, extraction of flavourings from marine products, scaling of fish, removal of viscera from clam, ripening of salted fish, among others (56). Immobized enzymes can have different applications for transforming food components. These include hydrolysis of complex molecules, debittering, removal of allergens, flavour modification, and others (57). Valorisation of food processing waste streams using immobilized enzyme systems, particularly hydrolases, presents a unique technological approach to increase the

environmental and economic sustainability of food production. For commercial applications, inexpensive carriers, carrier-free immobilized enzyme systems as well as multi-enzyme systems need to be explored (57).

4.5. Extractions by green solvents

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

'Green solvents' have received considerable attention and wide applications in different research fields, such as chemistry, biology, catalysis, energy, and environmental sciences. This is attributed to a growing awareness on the adverse impacts of conventional solvents on the environment, energy usage, air quality and climate change. Most prominent green or sustainable solvents include ionic liquids (ILs), deep eutectic solvents (FESs), switchable solvents, supercritical fluids and others (58). Ionic liquids (ILs) represent liquids that exist in only ionic form, fused salt, molten salt, liquids organic salt, and others. ILs possess a very low viscosity and vapor pressure or non-volatility under ambient conditions, thermal stability, and low corrosivity relative to mineral acids and bases. ILs can be recycled, recovered, and easily separated after use. A typical example of ILs is the ethyl ammonium nitrate (59, 60). Deep eutectic solvents (DESs) are nontoxic, recyclable and biodegradable. They share the solvent characteristics of ILs, such as thermal and chemical stability and low vapor pressure. The DES system is made up of essentially two, or occasionally more than two, components: a hydrogen bond donor (HBD) and a hydrogen bond acceptor (HBA). When HBD and HBA combine, they create a new eutectic phase whose melting point is lower than that of individual components,

which are usually below 100 °C. Their renewability, low toxicity, biodegradability, and most significantly low cost make these solvents distinctive and viable sources for extraction of bioactive compounds. A classic example of DES is the eutectic mixture formed when choline chloride (ChCl) and urea having melting points of 302° and 133°C, respectively, are mixed in the ratio 1:2 at room temperature. Some of the other eutectic solvents are choline chloride—lactic acid (CCLA), choline chloride—malonic acid (CCMA), choline chloride—urea (CCUR), and choline chloride—citric acid (CCCA). DESs have been proposed as potential solvents to dissolve and extract valuable compounds such as proteins, lipids, and carbohydrates such as chitin from food discards. They can be used for waste water treatment. DESs are generally less expensive and easier to prepare (61, 62, 63).

Pressurized liquid extraction (PLE) is a promising green technology to extract various added-value compounds from marine biomass. Supercritical CO₂ extraction is based on the pressurization of water with CO₂, which has a moderate critical temperature and pressure (31.1° C and 7.4 MPa). It gives an acidic, hot, and pressurized environment to extract ingredients including lipids and pigments from seafood and plant side streams and also algae (58). The PLE technique at pressures typically 5 to 20MPa and at high temperatures as high as 200°C, allows appreciable extraction of intracellular compounds in a short time. Subcritical water (SCW) has attracted interest as a green solvent for waste and biomass conversion. SCW extraction uses water at 100–300 °C and pressure

above saturation value but less than critical, just to maintain water as liquid.

Pressurized extractions are highly beneficial to extract components from marine biomass and others, generated by bio-transformations. The technique dramatically reduces solvent consumption compared to conventional extraction processes (64). Table 3 indicates some potential green solvents for extraction of components from seafood side streams.

4.6. Non-thermal technologies

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

Eco-friendly non-thermal processes such as ultrasound, pulsed electric field, pulsed light, high pressure are recent technologies. These can be used either alone or in conjunction with bioconversion processes to enhance the efficiency of extraction processes. They have minimum effects on color, flavor and nutrients of the resources. Interests in non-thermal technologies are essentially due to their short duration of treatment and lower environmental impacts. Ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE), pulsed electric field (PEF), high hydrostatic pressure (HHP) and membrane technology offer green techniques that can assist extraction. Microwaves are non-ionizing electromagnetic radiation with frequencies in the range of 300 MHz to 300 GHz. The use of short microwave pulses can reduce heat and benefit extraction. High-intensity ultrasounds have low frequency (20 kHz-100 kHz) and high power >1 W/cm² and are used for extraction purposes either in pulse or continuous mode. UAE allows the extraction of labile bioactive compounds without losing their functional quality and stability. The impact of ultrasound

offers greater penetration of solvents into the sample matrix for better extraction of compounds. UAE has a great potential to recover products such as oil, polysaccharides, fatty acids, organic acids, proteins, lipids, and enzymes from food waste and can also assist production of bioenergy. UAE can be merged with other innovative methods such as SFE or vacuum-based or enzymatic extractions (65, 66, 67, 68). PEF involves applying an external electric field on living or non-living cells for a short duration of time, which results in the formation of pores on the cell membrane of the living cells. The electroporation process does not cause changes in the organoleptic and nutritional properties of the treated products (69). The advantages of microwave-assisted extraction (MAE), which is a thermal process over conventional thermal protein extraction, are uniform flow of heat, faster extraction rate, reduced solvent consumption, as well as short extraction time (70). With challenges in recovering intracellular bioactive compounds, these methodologies are being relooked continuously in the quest for sustainable production practice (66).

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

4.7. Isoelectric solubilization precipitation (ISP)

Isoelectric solubilization precipitation (ISP) is a technique valuable to recover proteins from protein-rich feedstock. The process involves homogenization of the protein-rich material with either dilute acid (pH 2.5 to 3.5) or alkali (pH 10.8 to 11.5). Raising the pH of the homogenate to their isoelectric pH of pH 5.2 to 6.0, results in precipitation of up to 90% of the

dissolved proteins. The precipitated proteins are then concentrated by centrifugation or membrane filtration. The technique has been applied to recover proteins from several types of seafood discards including bycatch. In general, the ISP recovered proteins have good functionalities including gelation and textural properties and viscosities, whiteness and color. They also retain good nutritive value and digestibility (71).

4.8. Membrane processes

Membrane filtration has emerged as novel environment-friendly method to efficiently to concentrate, separate, or fractionate bioactive compounds from the downstream processing streams of the agro-food chains. Depending on the types of membranes used, the major membrane processes are microfiltration (MF), ultrafiltration (UF), nanofiltration (NF), reverse osmosis (RO), and forward osmosis (FO). Membrane processes are cost-effective essentially due to their low energy requirement. They have potentials for commercial treatments of food process effluents and also seawater and groundwater. Membrane bioreactors integrate bioreactor vessel with a membrane separation unit for isolation of bioactive materials, which include peptides, chito-oligosaccharides and polyunsaturated fatty acids from seafood side streams (72).

The advantages of membrane technology, non-thermal processing methods, and enzyme-assisted methods are they are highly environmentally savvy. They can recover compounds, for example bioactive peptides from marine protein hydrolyzates, without loss of their functionality (45, 72). From

an industrial perspective, the reusability of immobilized enzymes and membrane separation techniques offer viable, cost-effective. Nevertheless, further research is needed to overcome the challenges related to large-scale production of bioactive molecules (73).

5.0. Green extractions of ingredients of seafood side streams

5.1 Proteins

Protein is an essential nutrient for healthy living. The demand for protein is expected to increase due to several reasons. These include rise in global population, depletion of natural resources, climate change and delete (current) inefficiencies in current food systems. The situation demands development of healthy, sustainable, and innovative proteins from diverse and novel sources. Aquatic proteins, in comparison with plant sources, are nutritionally superior with a better balance of dietary essential amino acids. Currently, fish, crustaceans and molluscs provide only 17% of edible meat, globally. In 2018 fishery products contributed a total of 13, 950 Kt proteins (7,13Kt and 6,815 Kt contributed by capture fisheries and aquaculture, respectively). This amounted to 15.3% of total animal proteins (74). There is good scope in using seafood side streams as substantial source of marine proteins (75, 76). There is interesting scope for

the recovery of proteins from food discards to include them as an important component of food supply chains (77).

Proteins from diverse seafood side streams belonging to both finfish and shellfish have been recovered by the ISP process. The pH modulation associated with the process removes insoluble impurities such as bone, skin, oil, and membranes, separating the proteins (71). The separated proteins can be extracted by DES or ILs solvents, due to their unique physicochemical and solubilisation properties (59). The DES-based methods exhibit high efficiency in extracting proteins, and also amino acids, and enzymes without loss of functional properties. Non-thermal processes like microwave irradiation in conjunction with ISP and also DESs have potentials to enhance extraction of seafood proteins.

Some specific examples of uses of green solvents for protein recovery can be cited. The DES systems for protein extraction include choline chloride-glycerol, choline chloride-oxalic acid, choline chloride-urea ethanol (62, 79). Betaine/polyol-based deep eutectic systems extracted proteins from sardine biomass. The extracted proteins retained bioactive functions. Most DES extracts obtained at 80 °C surpassed the antioxidant and antimicrobial potential of water extracts, with an increase in activity of up to 3-fold and more than 250-fold, respectively (80). In another study, sequential fractionation of sardine discards was carried out using subcritical

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

CO₂ (SC-CO₂) and subcritical water (SCW). Initial removal of fat of the feedstock enhanced protein recovery and its purity (81). DES solvent composed of citric acid, xylitol and water at a molar ratio of 1:1:10 extracted type I collagen from blue shark fins having good biocompatibility. The green method required much lower extraction time, gave a yield 2.5 times higher than the conventional method (82). A greener approach for collagen extraction involving multiple processes including fermentation, high shear mechanical homogenisation, and non-thermal methods avoided use of chemicals and shortened processing time (83). Collagen type I from codfish skin was extracted by an aqueous DES solution containing urea and lactic acid in a 1: 2 molar ratio (84). An integrated process of UAE for 5 min at a pH of 13.0 in presence of 250 mg of chitosan as flocculant recovered up to 90% proteins from lobster heads (85). Pepsin isolated from rainbow trout stomach was used for collagen extraction from wasted yellowfin skin supported by ultrasound cavitation for 15 min, which recovered 24% collagen having highest imino acid content of 18%. The protein had superior functionality in acidic environments and lower salt concentrations, suggesting a green technology for collagen recovery (86). Several novel green technologies have been suggested for extraction of gelatin. These encompass ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE), subcritical water extraction, high-pressure processing, and microwave-assisted extraction (MAE). These processes safeguard the environment as they

reduce solvent usage and carbon footprint along the way (87). Hydrothermal pre-treatment at 159 °C for 2 min, followed by heating at 121 °C for a period of 70 min optimally extracted fish bone proteins (88). UF using food grade polysaccharides such as carrageenan, alginate and carboxy methylcellulose followed by dewatering by filtration, sedimentation and centrifugation recovered up to 77 to 80% proteins from shrimp boiling waters (89). Membrane processes such as UF have been successful in recovering functionally active proteins from cuttlefish waste water, shrimp shell wastewater, snow crab cooking effluents, surimi wash water and. presalting brine used for marination of herring (72).

Development of animal/plant-based protein hydrolysates and their application in food, feed and nutraceutical industries have been discussed (90). Fish proteins, protein hydrolysates and bioactive peptides offer opportunities as nutraceuticals, fortificants, and texturizers in food and pharmaceutical industries. They can also function as milk replacers, bakery substitutes, soups, and infant formulas. Marine bioactive peptides function as antimicrobial, antiviral, antitumor, antioxidant, antihypertensive, cardio-protective, anti-amnesiac, immune modulatory, analgesic, anti-diabetic, antiaging, appetite-suppressing, and neuro-protective activities (39, 85).

Protein-rich edible products can be prepared from seafood by-catch. The general methodology involves isolation of meat from the eviscerated fish as mince. The mince can be converted into secondary products such as surimi

and surimi-based restructured products, extrusion-cooked products, sausages, and fermented products (46, 91). Fermentation technology has been used to develop edible paste of jellyfish, having unique sensory characteristics in terms of umami, smoked, dried fruit, spices odours, besides desirable nutritional traits (92). The microbial protein market, however, will mostly depend on a favourable legislation, public acceptance, and acceptable costs (42).

5.2. Lipids

The livers of albacore, cod, salmon, haddock, tuna and others are good sources of PUFA-rich oil, which could be recovered by natural, thermal, solvent, enzyme extractions or microbial fermentation. The drawbacks of conventional solvent extraction are low efficiency, longer time and higher temperature, which can cause oxidation of the extracted lipids. In this regard, the applications of green chemistry based processes are much vital for better recovery, product quality, lower investment and sustainable production.

Enzymatic processes disrupt the tissue and membranes under mild conditions to release oil from liver, roe and other fish products (93, 94). SC-CO₂ is a promising technology for extracting high-quality lipids from fishery discards including liver, viscera and heads.(23). The lipid fraction of sardine waste was isolated through SFE with SC-CO₂ at 250 bar and 40 °C, yielding 20 g oil per 100 g waste with up to 17.2 % wt. of PUFAs (81). Ultrasonic coupled

technologies normally extract lipids more efficiently due to the synergistic effect. The UAE assisted lipid extraction has been discussed details with respect to its mechanism, solvent, feedstock, quality evaluation and coupled technologies (95). UAE combined with enzymes or SFE improved oil extraction from fish meal (36, 68). MAE could extract high-quality oil from fish byproducts without loss of functionality of PUFA. Under optimal MAE conditions 60 and 100% of oil could be recovered in about 19 min with less solvent consumption (96). As high 20% oil was isolated from sardine waste with SC-CO₂ (81). The high price of the extracted fish oils makes the various technologies viable for the process. The market value of EPA and DHA in 2020 was US \$1.41 billion (https://goedomega3.com/, accessed Dec.1, 2021). 5.3. Carotenoids

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

The major carotenoids present in seafood by-products are astaxanthin, cantaxanthin and zeaxanthin. Marine carotenoids are used in food products, pharmaceuticals, and cosmetics. The SC-CO₂ method extracts carotenoids in high yield at lower temperature without the use of harmful organic solvents. Solvents, which are generally recognized as safe (GRAS), can also be used to stimulate extraction of carotenoids (97). Fermentation of shrimp waste by Lactobacillus plantaram has given good yield of astaxanthin, along with chitin. The alternative microbial process displayed advantage over existing hazardous, non-economical chemical process (98). Cultivation of the microalga, H.

pluvialis, for both single cell proteins (SCP) and astaxanthin has been economically sustainable (99).

54. Chitin, chitosan and their oligosaccharides

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

Chitin is the most abundant polysaccharide in the marine ecosystem, and second in nature, after cellulose. It is made up of Nacetylglucosamine units, joined by 1,4 covalent linkages. Crustacean (crab, shrimp, lobsters and krill) shell discards contain chitin up to 70% on dry weight basis. Chitosan is a linear polysaccharide comprising of deacetylated and acetylated units of D-glucosamine, linked by β -(1, 4) glycosidic bonds. The ratio of glucosamine and N-acetyl glucosamine generally defines the degree of deacetylation in chitosan. Chitin, chitosan and their derivatives have been explored as sustainable safe, biodegradable, materials for various applications such as agriculture, textiles, cosmetics, food processing, packaging, and others. Seafood discards have a promising benefit for the development of environmentally friendly food packaging systems. Therefore, the green packaging from seafood leftover can be better exploited and replace the synthetic counterparts. Their nanomaterials in different forms such as fibres, hydrogels, beads, sponges, and membranes have interesting applications in biomedical fields such as urgical sutures, artificial skin, rebuilding of bone, controlled drug delivery, and others (100, 101, 102, 103).

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

Conventionally, chemical extraction is employed for chitin and chitosan recovery from crustacean shells (104). In view of the limitations of these processes, in recent years, environmentally safe green routes are finding uses for chitin/chitosan extraction. These include enzymatic hydrolysis, microbial fermentation, ultrasonic or microwave-assisted processes and extraction by ionic liquids, and deep eutectic solvents (13, 23, 105,106). The microbe-enabled chitin production probably offers the highest potential for commercial application. The dominant status of microbial approach as the preferred valorisation strategy for chitin production from crab waste has been recognized (12, 105). Deproteinization and demineralization of chitin at 68% and 96%, respectively, were achieved by solid state fermentation by L. brevis and R. oligosporus. The isolated chitin retained about 94% acetylation. Protein hydrolysate and astaxanthin were the other products of fermentation (107). Fermentation of shrimp waste by Lactobacillus plantaram could recover chitin (98). The use of proteolytic enzymes for chitin and chitosan from shrimp and crab shells has been studied (108). In a combination process, protease was used to remove Ca²⁺ and protein, followed by fermentation by B. coagulants to recover chitin from crayfish shell waste (109).

Chitin could be dissolved in DESs such as choline chloride-thiourea in a ratio of 1:2(CCT 1:2), choline chloride-urea (CCU 1:2), choline bromide-urea (CBU 1:2), and betaine hydrochloride-urea (BHCU 1:4),

betaine hydrochloride -urea, ChCl-ethylene glycol, and ChCl-glycerol. The dissolution can be assisted by conventional, microwave or ultrasound-assisted heating. Almost 90% chitin was extracted from shrimp shell, with a purity of 98%, using choline chloride-lactic acid CCLA). It is possible to recycle the DES several times without loss of capacity to fractionate shrimp shell (110)). A sustainable strategy for chitin extraction involves dissolution in choline chloride—malic acid as DES along with microwave treatment. The treatent removed most proteins and minerals from crustacean shells and the isolated chitin had 76% crystallinity (60). Ammonium-based ILs are promising green solvents to extract chitin from shrimp shells (111). Table 3 gives some examples of green solvents for chitin extraction.

Nano-chitin can be made from chitin by using acid hydrolysis, ultrasonication, grinding, microwave irradiation, and electro-spinning. Chitin microfibrils were produced using DESs prepared from choline chloride and organic acids such as lactic, oxalic, citric, malonic and malic acids. DESs were useful for shape-controlled synthesis of nanoparticle (102). Nano-chitin finds wide application in the food industry due to its unique characteristics, including its smaller size, solubility, low density, high surface area, superior chemical reactivity, low toxicity, biodegradability, biocompatibility, antioxidant activity, antimicrobial properties, and excellent mechanical strength. It can be used to stabilize

emulsions, as a reinforcing agent in food films, inhibition of starch retrogradation, and others (102).

(Para) Enzymatic preparation of chitosan uses chitinolytic enzymes belong to the glycosyl hydrolase family, which hydrolyse the β-1, 4-glycosidic bonds between N- acetyl- D- glucosamine residues in the chitin chain. Another green process for chitosan preparation involves hydrolysis of N-acetyl amide linkage of chitin by fungal chitin deacetylases isolated from *Mucor rouxii, M. mechei*, or *Aspergillus Niger*. To enhance the accessibility of the enzyme to acetyl groups of natural crystalline chitin, pre-treatment by ultrasonication and microwave radiation were beneficial (101).

Green processes are emerging for the production of degraded products of chitin or chitosan, namely, chito-oligoosaccharides (COSs), N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) or glucosamine (GlcN), and also hetero-oligosaccharides composed of GlcNAc and GlcN with enhanced biological activities such as anti-microbial, anti-inflammatory, anti-oxidant and anti-tumor activities. Bacterial chitinases play a fundamental role in the degradation of chitin (112). To date, various green-chemical strategies involving enzymatic synthesis of COS with designed sequences and desired biological activities are available. In recent years, chitinolytic enzymemediated hydrolysis of chitin into N-acetyl glucosamine (GlcNAc) is a more attractive and greener approach due to its high yields under mild

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

755

756

757

758

759

condition. The enzymatic strategies involve transglycosylation or glycosynthase reactions using reducing end-activated sugars as the donor substrates (113, 114). Immobilized microbial α-amylase could convert 73% of the chitosan to COSs using continuous stirred tank reactor before flowing through a packed bed reactor (57). Another green process to hydrolyze chitin into its monomer employed acidified lithium halide molten salt hydrate (AMSH) systems to convert native chitin into N-acetyl glucosamine (NAG). Kinetic investigations indicated the superacidic property of LiBr and LiCl AMSHs to be the key for the fast cleavage of β -1,4-glycosidic linkages, leading to NAG formation. The critical role of Li⁺ in the disruption of the hydrogen bonding network of chitin on the acetamido group was indicated which promoted chitin swelling and dissolution (114). Because of their biocompatible, biodegradable and nontoxic nature, COSs find applications in biomedical, food, pharmaceutical, agricultural, and cosmetic industries (115).

Chitin has has remarkable potential for as raw material the production of renewable, value-added platform chemicals, especially N-containing compounds. In this respect, the Diels–Alder (DA) cyclo-addition of furans has been the subject of extensive research, in particular, usage of biomass derived furans such as furfural and 5-hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF). The direct conversion of chitin, chitosan and (NAG) into the less explored chitin

761

762

763

764

765

766

767

768

769

770

771

772

773

774

775

776

777

778

779

780

derived furan, namely, 3-acetamido-5-acetylfuran (3A5AF) through the DA reaction is a green process. The 3A5AF is an important platform compound that can be utilised for synthesising value-added N-containing fine chemicals. So far, nineteen new products have been obtained from 3A5AF in high yields that can have interesting applications in areas such as materials, energy and drug discovery. Future applications of this chemistry can lead to considerable advances in sustainability and carbon neutral economy (116). An integrated engineered fermentative process was developed for upcycling chitin into tyrosine and L-3,4-dihydroxy phenylalanine (L-DOPA) (117). Another chemo-enzymatic process to convert chitin into 3A5AF has been reported. It involves initial enzymatic chitinolysis of chitin to NAG, which is then converted to 3A5AF using ammonium thiocyanate as catalyst. The protocol provided a good option to convert chitin resources into 3A5AF (118). Future opportunities include improving the efficiency and selectivity of chitin separation from wastes, redesigning its chemical structure, converting it into value-added chemicals, and developing new chitin and chitosan applications, all of which can contribute towards the UN SDGs (119). In summary, fermentation, enzymatic processes and extractions by green solvents are ideal for chitin extraction. Chitin and chitosan can be subjected to hydrolysis by chitinases for oligraphenegosaccharides. These have high value for use as feedstock for platform chemicals.

5.5. Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs)

Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) are linear polysaccharides consisting of repeating disaccharide units. They include chondroitin sulfate (CS), hualuronic acid, (HA), heparan sulfate, dermatan sulfate, among others. Eco-friendly processes for their isolation have been discussed. The methodologies include combination of microbial, enzymatic and other strategies to produce CS, HA, and also chitin and chitosan (120).

5.6. Mineral compounds

Fish bones are rich in calcium and other minerals. Calcium from fish bones has received attention as a natural supplement for individuals having calcium deficiency. Several traditional methods have been pointed out for mineral extraction (23). Treatment by flavourzyme followed by fermentation with *Leuconostoc mesenteroides* of fish bones gave a preparation rich in soluble calcium lactate, calcium acetate and also small amounts of calcium peptides. The calcium is bioavailable and can promote growth, suggesting its use as a calcium supplement (121). The high calcium contents of mollusc shells make it an alternative to natural limestone. Eco-friendly cement has been produced by incorporating crushed oyster shell at 10 to 20%. This can also partially mitigate CO₂ emission (122). Fish industry waste has also potentials for the development of sustainable materials for energy storage

devices including lithium-ion batteries. These materials present advantages including high conductivity, high tensile strength, low density, and the possibility to obtain different structures by a careful selection of the starting material (123).

5.7. Biofuel

802

803

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

Biofuel can be defined as the energy (work, heat or electrical) derived from biomass and its refined products such as bioethanol, biodiesel, bio-kerosene, natural gas, etc. Global concerns on energy and also food security along with escalating challenges of biowaste disposal have attracted interests in biological materials as feedstock for the production of sustainable and renewable energy. Seafood discards offer valuable options in this respect. The crustacean shell waste, which is composed of 20 to 50 %calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), 15 to 40 % chitin, and 20 to 40 % protein is an interesting raw material (119). Chitin has potential to be a potential cheap and renewable source for bioethanol. In a recent study, chitin was hydrolyzed to oligosaccharides by chitinase from a marine bacterium, Bacillus haynesii. The COS was used as an effective renewable substrate by *Mucor circinelloides* to produce bioethanol. The authors reported production of 7.4 g/L of ethanol from 30 g/L of COS (124). Seaweed associated bacteria; namely, Bacillus spp., Brevibacterium spp. and Vibrio spp degraded crustacean shells as well as fish scales within a few days in a

824

825

826

827

828

829

830

831

832

833

834

835

836

837

838

839

840

841

842

843

844

seawater-based broth. The sugars released are fermented to give bioethanol by Saccharomyces cerevisiae (49). Oil-rich fish discards are promising feedstocks for energy. The oil can be purified followed by methanol esterification at 60°C for 1 hr initially under acidic followed by alkaline conditions. The preparation satisfied viscosity, flash point and other required standards (125, 126). The oil was transesterified in presence of methanol. The reaction was catalyzed by calcium oxide generated by calcination of shrimp shell itself A maximum biodiesel yield was obtained from the oil at an oil to methanol molar ratio of 1:12, at a catalyst concentration of 5 wt% of oil, reaction temperature of 65 °C, and reaction time of 120 min. The biodiesel production was scaled up to a 50 L oil volume batch and achieved a good yield of 88.7 wt%. The physicochemical properties and cold flow property of the biodiesel suggested its as fuel (127). Lipases from Candida antarctica B were used to hydrolyse and then esterify cooking oil to produce biodiesel. Over 90% conversion was achieved after 10 hr hydrolysis and 10 hr esterification (57).

Microalgae have the key advantage to produce third generation biofuel. Cultivation of microalgae and other organisms in fish discards medium including process effluents under appropriate conditions can yield oil-rich single cell proteins. The algae use primary carbon recovered from food side streams. The productivity of algal biomass is generally 40–50% higher than that of terrestrial crops with a high atmospheric carbon

fixation rate (128). The various methods of both biomass harvesting and lipid extraction for biofuel production from microalgae have been discussed (129). There has been a growing focus on biodiesel production from various recalcitrant wastes for cultivation of oleaginous yeasts. The metabolic pathways that facilitate the conversion of the recalcitrant wastes into single-cell oil (SCO) have been pointed out. Emphasis has been provided on the application of Ohmic techniques to increase waste bioconversion into lipids for the process commercialization (130).

A number of green processes for seafood process effluents are available. The process of dissolved air flotation (DAF) reduces BOD and COD of the effluents. Anaerobic digestion of seafood industry effluents in a dissolved air flotation (DAF) system removed organic contents. (10). Suitable membrane processes including microfiltration (MF), ultrafiltration (UF), nanofiltration (NF), reverse osmosis (RO) and forward osmosis (FO) can remove proteins, lipids, etc. Electro-chemical oxidation reduces organic matter from aquaculture effluents. Electro-flocculation or flocculation by chitosan, carrageenan, alginate, carboxymethyl cellulose, and other flocculants can sediment proteins and other components (72).

6.0. Integrated green processing: Perspectives of a marine refinery

A biorefinery integrates biomass conversion processes and equipment to produce value-added materials chemicals (food, feed,

chemicals and fuel) from biomass. The biorefinery approaches involving multiple processes on a circular economy protocol aim at total utilization of the raw material at higher efficiency and at reduced production costs. This ensures sustainability and economic benefits besides protecting the environment (35, 131, 132). The bioconversion of feedstock on a zero-waste strategy involves essentially three steps, known as '3R', namely, 'reuse-remake-recycle' (22). A marine biorefinery envisages integration of green methods for recovery of various ingredients present in marine resources, essentially through a circular blue economy framework (131).

Integrated green chemistry-based tools to manufacture ocean-based resources provide a sustainable route to a range of products including minerals, fuels, polymers, and nutritional supplements. The innovative biochemical, thermo-chemical and hybrid methods can convert aquatic biomass into valuable materials. The products include proteins, lipids, polysaccharides, biofuels, minerals, and others, which are recovered from oceanic resources in the format of petroleum refinery. Their implementation, however, requires expertise in all stages of manufacturing, in addition to a clear vision of all raw materials, residues, and products. Ocean-based industries are adopting new sustainable production models, particularly biorefineries, which are effective for converting low-value biomass into commercially relevant by-products (132.133. 134, 135).

890

891

892

893

894

895

896

897

898

899

900

901

902

903

904

905

906

907

908

909

910

A typical marine biorefinery is the shell bioreinery, intended for sequential treatments of crustacean waste to recover chitin, proteins, lipids, carotenoids, calcium carbonate and chitin monomers (136). The shell refinery can isolate products from the crustacean shell waste on an environmentally safe manner, on a zero-waste perspective (137). Another shrimp shell biorefinery produced commercially important biomolecules such as astaxanthin-rich oil, protein, chitin, and chitosan. SC-CO₂ extraction was performed for the recovery of astaxanthin and oil. Astaxanthin yield was about 30 mg per kg dry shell weight. The extracted oil was rich in PUFA, in particular, PUFA, particularly, EPA and DHA. The remaining waste was used for protein extraction at a yield of about 22%. The left over residue provided 224 g chitin per kg, which was then deacetylated to give chitosan at 57 g per kg (138). A maximum of 44% protein and 37.4 g per kg oil were recovered from snow crab discards using proteolysis of shells with entrails along with 24 mg carotenoids and 100 g chitin per kg of waste. The protein and oil could be extracted in scalable processes in a profitable way (19). In another process, two recombinant aspartic proteases were used for protein hydrolysis, recombinant chitinase for chitin hydrolysis, and ethyl acetate for astaxanthin extraction. The process recovered 91.4% protein and 89% chitin, without loss of functional properties (139). An integrated biorefinery process to develop two aromatic nitrogen containing chemicals, namely tyrosine and L-3,4-dihydroxy

phenylalanine (L-DOPA) was developed. The process involved pretreatment of chitin-containing shell waste followed by an enzymatic/fermentative process using metabolically engineered *Escherichia coli*. The process gave 0.91g/L or 0.41 g DOPA from 22.5 per per liter unpurified shrimp shell waste (119). The valorisation of wastes generated in the processing of farmed fish is currently an issue of extreme relevance for the industry, aiming to accomplish the objectives of circular bioeconomy (44). An integral process based on enzyme proteolysis for the production and recovery of fish protein hydrolysates (FPHs), oils, bioactive peptides and fish peptones has been reported. The procedure was initially applied to ten fish discards to lab scale. FPHs of high quality in terms of soluble protein and amino acid contents, digestibility and bioactivities were obtained. Pilot plant trials confirmed the results of FPHs production obtained at lab scale (140)

Microalgae can be an interesting component of seafood biorefineries (10, 72). Cultivation of microalgae in nutrient rich medium from seafood sources under appropriate conditions can single cell proteins (SCP) rich in oil, which can be used for biofuel production. Techno-economic studies on commercial production of biofuel along with other SCP components including pigments and animal feed have suggested economic viability of microalgae-based biorefineries. The technology can promote a circular bioeconomy (141). The current state-of-the-art on marine biorefineries and the sources and applications of their by-products have been provided. The

economic viability of individual biorefineries needs to be evaluated for their successful commercialization (99). Suggestions have been put forward to integrate green chemistry and blue economy principles into ocean-based industries towards a more sustainable, profitable, and conscious ocean-based economy (142). Table 4 shows a few examples of seafood waste biorefinery for multiple products,

7.0. Factors favouring green processing

7.1. Life cycle assessment

LCA is defined as a product oriented environmental tool, which provides a systematic way to quantify the environmental effects of individual products or services from 'cradle to grave' (37). LCA studies throw light on environmental impacts of processing of seafood and other food side stream systems. These impacts include ozone depletion, climate change, terrestrial acidification, freshwater eutrophication, toxicological stress, water depletion, land use and fossil depletion. These occur while extracting resources, producing materials, manufacturing, during their consumption/use, and at end-of-life of the products. LCA analysis of food waste as a bioenergy source can significantly contribute to closing the carbon cycle by reintroducing energy into the food supply chain.

The LCA data of bioconversion and valorisation have been provided for more than 60 seafood items (143). LCA studies suggested economic viability of chitin extraction using hot water and carbonic acid (144).

7.2. Availability of functionally active novel compounds

Innovative processing presents prospects for industries for novel compounds and hence significant additional revenue. The beneficial factors that favor green processing of seafood side streams include low cost of the raw material, general lower cost of processing compared to conventional processes, lower environmental hazards due to processing, high market values of the recovered ingredients and therefore increased profitability. Unlike most agro-waste, the seafood side streams can be transformed into high value items, which can command significant commercial values because of their diverse functionalities as well as interesting applications Green processing of seafood side streams employing novel technologies have scope to isolate these ingredients thereby generating more value for the ocean biomass (38, 39,134).

7.3 Commercial potentials

Green chemistry-based processing of seafood side streams into ingredients presents an opportunity for novel industries and prospects for additional revenue (146). Considering invariably the huge gap between cost of raw material and products, these technologies can offer viable processes, which can ultimately support seafood security. The high value of the recovered products makes the generally low value seafood side streams a valuable feedstock that benefits the global economy. In view of the

advantages, novel green chemistry related processes are evolving in recent times. There are indications that the ocean-based industries are adopting new sustainable production models, similar to biorefineries, which are effective for waste valorization (142).

Some interesting green processes have evolved during the last few years. Processes such as ISP, green solvent extraction, fermentation and non-thermal technologies can favor economically viable protein extractions from the seafood side streams. A recent cost analysis of the chemical-only, enzymatic-chemical, and microbial fermentation based chitin extraction suggested that the microbial chitin production pathway constituted the most appropriate technology for future (12). The polysaccharide released by the bioconversion process can be extracted by DESs. The extracted chitin offers interesting scope for several novel products including bio-energy, as discussed in this article. A method for mild extraction of chitin using hot water and carbonic acid was economically beneficial (144). There are potentials for green extractions of glycosaminoglycans and minerals from seafood discards. Microbial fermentation, enzymatic processes particularly proteases and chitinases, ISP extraction, green solvents, and others may be integrated in a marine refinery.

996

997

998

977

978

979

980

981

982

983

984

985

986

987

988

989

990

991

992

993

994

995

Currently several marine products are available in the market for diverse applications (3). The demand for seafood-based innovative products

is likely to reach new realms the near future making theme part of expanding global green chemical market, which stood at US\$9413 million in 2020 and is expected to reach to US\$ 22,039 million in 2030.

(https://www.psmarketresearch.com/market-analysis/green-chemicals-market-outlook, accessed September 15, 2023). Products recovered from seafood side streams through green processing can significantly contribute to the market in the near future. Consumers in general favourably respond to efforts to protect the environment. It is important to increase consumer awareness of the valuable products and their production routes, which protect the environment.

. The crustacean and bivalve side streams have been recognized raw materials complying with specific EU regulations (6). The Bio-based Industries Joint Undertaking (BBIJU) has promoted bio-based platform chemicals and materials. The up-scaled technologies can be catalysts for a green transition under the European Green Deal (147). Partnerships, collaboration and a genuinely trans-disciplinary approach based on green processing can favor management of seafood side streams in a way that can meet sustainability goals (21).

7.4. Challenges facing green processing

In spite of ample scope, green processing faces some challenges. Many of the novel technologies employed in recent times are at the laboratory or

1022

1023

1024

1025

1026

1027

1028

1029

1030

1031

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

1040

1041

pilot plant scale; sufficient data on commercial as well as economic aspects are lacking, particularly with respect to valorization through a marine biorefinery. Although eco-friendly, they have limitations in the up-scaling process (13). Anaerobic digestion of seafood effluents although is promising, it faces considerable operational and process stability issues due to low solid concentrations, salinity, low carbon/nitrogen ratio, and high lipid content in the waste streams (10). Success in green processing of seafood side streams depends on regular availability of sufficient quantity of seafood side streams, technical feasibility of the processes at industrial scale, techno-economic potential, and life cycle assessment to evaluate environmental benefits of the processes. It is recommended that the green processing plants may be located at a centralized location near the coast where seafood plants will be located. There is much scope for research and investments in developing green technologies to harness the full potential of utilizing seafood side streams to address seafood sustainability. Another challenge is with respect to the nature of seafood feedstock, which is generally bulky with its nature significantly varying with respect to fish/shellfish resource, their species and size and susceptibility to rapid microbial spoilage (11).. It is essential to know not only the composition of the seafood feedstock, but importantly the potential market value and application of the biomolecules, chemicals, and other by-products that can be isolated or converted from each type of waste.

Valorisation of seafood side streams through green processing into commercially viable products needs efforts to popularize the concept.

Several challenges have been recognized with respect to marine biorefinery. The crucial step in successfully designing a marine biorefinery is an in-depth knowledge of each resource, productive chain, operational limitations, and field of application. Clustering of different production chains into a single biorefinery mode is technologically demanding. Demonstration plants are necessary to evaluate commercial success in the development of sustainable technologies. The current state-of-the-art on marine biorefineries and the sources and applications of their by-products have been provided (142).

8.0. Green processing to enhance seafood sustainability

Scientific management of seafood side streams within the perspective of green chemistry encourages environmental friendly utilization of the biomass. Valorization of the feedstock needs to be based on the strategy of 3R, viz.,'Reduce' the waste as much as possible, 'Reuse', and after 'Recycle', and, finally if nothing else works, eliminate. An ecologically conscious valorisation approach based on the above concept is likely to minimize waste, develop valuable products, improve food security, nutrition, social benefits and provide economic profit, within the concept of

a circular economy (134,135, 145). Because of the regenerative nature of the seafood biomass, its utilization is highly significant. An ecologically conscious valorisation of the biomas, ideally through a marine biorefinery using green chemistry based valoristion technologies, can reduce the seafood side streams, environmental pollution, support sustainability and encourage blue economy. Reduction of seafood discards satisfies the sustainable development goal (SDG) #12.3, which calls for halving global food waste including waste from marine sources at the production and supply chains (21). There are other benefits also on the SDG. Table 5 gives likely contributions of seafood side stream management to SDG 12. In view of its potentials, green chemistry needs to get more attention to meet seafood sustainability

erences

- 1.FAO. *The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture* 2022. Towards Blue
 Transformation.FAO, Rome, 2022, pp. 226.
- 1. Einarsson, A.; Óladóttir, A. D. Fisheries and Aquaculture: The Food

 Security of the Future, Elsevier, 2020, pp. 374.
- Venugopal, V. Marine products for healthcare: Bioactive and functionally active nutraceuticals from the ocean, 2009, Taylor & Francis, Fl.
- Roberson, L.A.; Watson, R.A.; Klein, C.J. Over 90 endangered fish and invertebrates are caught in industrial fisheries. *Nat. Commun.*, 2020, 11, 4764.
- 4. Olsen, R. L.; Toppe, J.; Karunasagar, I.Challenges and realistic opportunities in the use of by-products from processing of fish and shellfish, Trends Food Sci. Technol., 2014, 36, 144-151.
- 5. Zou, Y., Heyndrickx, M., Debode, J., Raes, K. et al Valorisation of crustacean and bivalve processing side streams for industrial fast time-to-market products: A review from the European Union regulation perspective, Front. Mar. Sci. 2023, 10:1068151
- Yan, N., Chen, X. Sustainability: Don't waste seafood waste. *Nature*,
 2015, 524, 155–157.
- 7. Nguyen, T.T.; Barber, A.R.; Corbin, K.; Zhang W. Lobster processing by-products as valuable bioresource of marine functional

ingredients, nutraceuticals, and pharmaceuticals. 1098 Bioresour.Bioprocess., 2017, 4, 27-46. 1099 Love, D.C.; Fry, J. P.; Milli, M. C.; Neff, R. A. Wasted seafood in 8. 1100 the United States. Quantifying loss from production to consumption 1101 and moving toward solution, Global Env. Challenge, 2015, 35, 115-1102 124 1103 Choudhury, A., Lepine, C., Witarsa, F., Good, C., 2022. Anaerobic 9. 1104 digestion challenges and resource recovery opportunities from land-1105 based aquaculture waste and seafood processing byproducts: a 1106 review. Bioresour. Technol. 354, 127144. https://doi.org/ 1107 10.1016/j.biortech.2022.127144 1108 10. Coppola, D.; Lauritano, C.; Palma Esposito, F.; Riccio, G.; Rizzo, C.; 1109 de Pascale D. Fish waste: from problem to valuable resource. *Mar*. 1110 Drugs, 2021, 19, 116 1111 Okoro, O.V.; Nie, L.; Gunduz, O.; Ulag, S.; et al., A. technoeconomic 11. 1112 assessment of biopolymer production from crustacean waste with the 1113 UK as a case study. Sustainability, 2023, 15, 2280. 1114 Verardi, A., Sangiorgio, P., Moliterni, S., Errico, F., Spagnoletta, A.; 12. 1115 Dimatteo S. Advanced technologies for chitin recovery from 1116

crustacean waste. Clean Tech. Recycling, 2023, 3, 4-43

1118	13.	Sasidharan, A., Venugopal, V. Proteins and co-products from seafood
1119		processing discards: their recovery, functional properties and
1120		applications. Waste Biomass Valor. 2020, 11, 5647–5663.
1121	14.	WECD, World Commission on Environment and Development, Our
1122		common future: The Brund land Report, Oxford, Oxford University
1123		Press, 1987, pp. 374
1124	15.	WRI, Reducing food loss and waste: Setting a Global Action
1125		Agenda, Washington, DC: World Resource Institute, 2019
1126	16.	Kruijssen, F.; Tedesco, I.; Ward, A.; Pincus, L.; et al., Loss and waste
1127		in fish value chains: A review of the evidence from low and middle-
1128		income countries, Global Food Security, 2020, 26, 100434.
1129	17.	Mossler, M. The Future of Food from the Sea, explained, 2020,
1130		https://sustainablefisheries-uw.org/food-from-the-ocean-2050/,
1131		accessed March 21, 2023
1132	18.	Lindberg, D.; Solstad, R. G.; Arnesen, J. A.; Helmers, A. K.;
1133		Whitaker, R. D. Lab scale sustainable extraction of components from
1134		snow crab (Chionoecetes opilio) co-products, and estimation of
1135		processing costs based on a small-scale demonstration plant, (Biotep)
1136		Økonomiskfiskeriforskning, 2021, 31,1, 42-57
1137	19.	World Bank, Fish to 2030: Prospects for fisheries and aquaculture,
1138		Report No.83177-GLB, 2017, pp. 102

1139	20.	UN, Transforming Our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable
1140		Development. Report No. A/RES/70/1, United Nations, 2015, pp. 35,
1141	21.	WEF, Transforming food systems: Pathways for country-led
1142		innovations, World Economic Forum, 2022, pp. 27.
1143	22.	Roy, V.C.; Islam, M.R.; Sadia, S.; Yeasmin, M.; Park, JS.; Lee, H
1144		J.; Chun, BS. Trash to Treasure: An Up-to-Date Understanding of
1145		the Valorization of Seafood By-Products, Targeting the Major
1146		Bioactive Compounds. Mar. Drugs 2023, 21, 485.
1147		https://doi.org/10.3390/md21090485
1148	23.	UNEP, 2021, Green and sustainable chemistry framework manual,
1149		United Nations Environment Programme, www.unep.org
1150	24.	US EPA, United States Environmental Protection Agency, Basics of
1151		green chemistry, 2017
1152	25.	OECD, Sustainable Chemistry, Organisation for Economic Co-
1153		operation and Development, 2018
1154	26.	Blum, C., Bunkeb ,D., Hungsbergc , H., Roelofsd , E. et al The
1155		concept of sustainable chemistry: Key drivers for the transition
1156		towards sustainable development, Sust. Chem. Pharm. 2017, 94-104
1157	27.	Anastas, P.T. and Zimmerman, J.B. (2003). Design through the 12
1158		principles of green engineering: sustainability requires objectives at
1159		the molecular, product, process, and system levels. <i>Env.</i>
1160		Sci Technol 37 94A-101A https://doi.org/10.1021/es032373g

1161	28.	Chemat, F., Vian, M. A., & Cravotto, G. Green extraction of natural
1162		products: Concept and principles. International Journal of Molecular
1163		Sciences, 2012, 13, 8615–8627.
1164		https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms13078615
1165	29.	Patel, D.; Kellici, S.; Saha, B. Green process engineering as the key to
1166		future processes. Processes, 2014, 2, 311-332.
1167	30.	WIPO, Green Technology Book , Solutions for climate change
1168		adaptation, World Intellectual Property Organization, 2022, Geneva
1169		https://www.wipo.int/portal/en/index.html
1170	31.	Zhu, J., Luo, Z., Sun, T. et al. Cradle-to-grave emissions from food
1171		loss and waste represent half of total greenhouse gas emissions from
1172		food systems. Nat Food 2023, 4, 247–256.
1173		https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-023-00710-3)
1174	32.	Chakraborty, K.Recent advances in marine biotechnology In Lakra,
1175		V. S., Goswami, M. and Trudeau, L. (Eds.) Frontiers in Aquaculture
1176		Biotechnology, Acad. Press, 2023, pp. 187-217.
1177	33.	Rudovica, V.; Rotter, A.; Gaudêncio, S.P.; Novoveská, L.; et al.,
1178		Valorisation of marine waste: use of industrial by-products and beach
1179		wrack towards the production of high added-value products. Front.

Mar. Sci., 2021, 8, 723333

- 1181 34. Dessie, W.; Luo, X.; Wang, M.; Feng, L.; Liao, Y.; et al., Current

 1182 advances on waste biomass transformation into value-added products.

 1183 Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol., 2020, 104, 4757-4770.
- 35. Bruno, S. F.; Ekorong, F. J. A. K.; Karkal, S. S.; Cathrine, M. S. B.

 Green and innovative techniques for recovery of valuable compounds

 from seafood by-products and discards: A review. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.*, 2019, 85, 10–29
- Boye, J. I.; Arcand, Y. Current trends in green technologies in food production and processing, *Food Eng. Rev.*, 2013, 5, 1–17
- 37. Shahidi, F.; Varatharajan, V.; Peng, H.; Senadheera, R. Utilization of marine by-products for the recovery of value-added products. *J. Food Bioact*. 2019, 6, 10–61.
- 38. Freitas, A.C.; Rodrigues, D.; Rocha-Santos, T.A.P.; Gomes, A.M.P.;

 Duarte, A.C. Marine biotechnology advances towards applications in

 new functional foods. *Biotechnol. Adv.*, 2012, 30, 1506-1515
- 1196 39. Venugopal, V. (2021), Valorisation of seafood processing discards:

 1197 bioconversion and bio-refinery approaches, Front. Sustain. Food Syst.

 1198 5:611835., doi: 10.3389/fsufs, 2021.611835
- 1199 40. Capozzi, V.; Fragasso, M.; Bimbo, F. Microbial resources,

 1200 fermentation and reduction of negative externalities in food systems:

 1201 patterns toward sustainability and resilience. *Fermentation*, 2021, 7,

 1202 54.

Ciani, M.; Lippolis, A.; Fava, F.; Rodolfi, L.; et al., (2021) Microbes: 41. 1203 Food for the Future. *Foods*, 2021, 10, 971. 1204 Cerda-Cejudo, N.D.; Buenrostro-Figueroa, J.J.; Sepúlveda-Torre, L. 42. 1205 et al. Solid-state fermentation for the recovery of phenolic compounds 1206 from agro-wastes. Resources, 2023, 12, 36 1207 Mora-Villalobos, J.A.; Montero-Zamora, J.; Barboza, N.; Rojas-43. 1208 Garbanzo, C.; et al., Multi-product lactic acid bacteria fermentations: 1209 A Review. Fermentation 2020, 6. 1210 23 https://doi.org/10.3390/fermentation6010023 1211 Puyol, D.; Batstone, D. J.; Hulsen, T.; Astals, S.; Peces, M.; Krömer, 44. 1212 J. O. Resource recovery from wastewater by biological technologies: 1213 Opportunities, challenges, and prospects. Front. Microbiol., 2017, 7, 1214 2106 1215 Lami, L.; Bomkamp, C.An ocean of opportunity: challenges and 45. 1216 opportunities for developing cultivated seafood In Lakra, V. S., 1217 Goswami, M. and Trudeau, L. (Eds.) Frontiers in Aquaculture 1218 Biotechnology, Acad. Press, 2023, pp. 111-113. 1219 GFI. State of the industry report: Fermentation, Good Food Institute, 46. 1220 2022, pp. 79. 1221 Marti-Quijal, F. J.; Remize, F.; Meca, G.; Ferrer, F.; et al., 47. 1222

Fermentation in fish and by-products processing: An overview of

current research and future prospects, Curr. Opin. Food Sci., 2020, 1224 31, 9-16. 1225 48. Samant, S.; Naik, M. M.; Vaingankar, D. C.; Mujawar, S. Y.; Parab, 1226 P.; Meena, S. N. Biodegradation of seafood waste by seaweed-1227 associated bacteria and application of seafood waste for ethanol 1228 production, Adv. Biol. Sci. Res., 2019, 149-159. 1229 49. Nigam, S., Sinha, S., Srivastava, A. and Srivastava, A. Cultivation and 1230 production techniques of marine algae. In Encyclopedia of Marine 1231 Biotechnology, S.K. Kim (Ed.), John Wiley & Sons Ltd, 2020, pp. 1232 327-340. 1233 50. Pleissner, D., Schönfelder, S., Händel, N., Dalichow, J. et al., 1234 Heterotrophic growth of Galdieria sulphuraria on residues from 1235 aquaculture and fish processing industries, Biores. Technol., 2023, 1236 384, 129281, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2023.129281 1237 51. Stengel, D. B.; Connan, S. Marine Algae: a source of biomass for 1238 biotechnological applications, in: Methods Mol. Biol., Springer New 1239 York, **2015**, pp. 1–37 1240 52. Venugopal, V. Functional proteins through green refining of seafood 1241 side streams, Frontiers Nutrition, 2022, 1242 https://doi.org/10.3389/fnut.2022.974447 1243 53. Fernandes, P. Enzymes in fish and seafood processing. *Front. Bioeng.* 1244

Biotechnol., 2016, 6, 4, 59

1246	54.	Blamey, J.M.; Fischer, F.; Meyer, H.P.; Sarmiento, F.; Zinn,
1247		M.Enzymatic biocatalysis in chemical transformations: A promising
1248		and emerging field in green chemistry practice. In Biotechnology of
1249		Microbial Enzymes; Brahmachari, G., Ed.; Academic Press: San
1250		Diego, CA, USA, 2017, pp. 347–403.
1251	55.	Venugopal, V, Enzymes from seafood processing waste and their
1252		applications in seafood processing. In: Se-Kwon Kim and Fidel
1253		Toldrá, (Eds.), Adv. Food and Nutr. Res., 2016, 78, .47-69.
1254	56.	Andler, S.M., Goddard, J.M. Transforming food waste: how
1255		immobilized enzymes can valorize waste streams into revenue
1256		streams. npj Sci Food, 2018 19,. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41538-018
1257		<u>0028-2</u>
1258	57.	Clarke, C. J., Tu, W-C., Levers, O., Brohl, A. and Hallett, J. P.Green
1259		and sustainable solvents in chemical processes Chem. Rev.2018, 118
1260		747–800
1261	58.	Singh, S. K. and Savoy, A. W. Ionic liquids synthesis and
1262		applications: An overview, J. Mol. Liquids, 2020, 297, 112038
1263	59.	Huang , J.; Guo, X.; Xu, T.; Fan, L.; Zhou, X.; Wu, S. Ionic deep
1264		eutectic solvents for the extraction and separation of natural products

J. Chromatography *A*,2019, 1598, 1-19

1266	60.	Hansen, B., B., Spittle, S., Chen, B., Poe, D. et al Deep Eutectic
1267		Solvents: A Review of Fundamentals and Applications, Chem.
1268		Rev.2021, 121 1232-1285
1269	61.	Bowen, H., Durrhanni, H., Delavault, A. Durand, et al., Application
1270		of deep eutectic solvents in protein extraction and purification, Front.
1271		Chem., 06 Green and Sustainable Chemistry, 10, 2022,
1272		https://doi.org/10.3389/fchem.2022.912411
1273	62.	Suthar, P., Kaushal, M., Vaidya, D. Thakur, M., Chauhan, P.
1274		Angmo, D., Kashyap, S., Negi, N., Deep eutectic solvents (DES): An
1275		update on the applications in food sectors, J. Agri. Food Res.2023,
1276		14, 100678
1277	63.	Poojary, M.M.; Laurora, A.; Lund, M.N.; Tiwari, B.K. Application of
1278		pressurized liquids to extract high-value compounds from marine
1279		biomass, In: Garcia-Vaquero, M., Rajauria, G. (Eds.), Innovative and
1280		Emerging Technologies in the Bio-marine Food Sector. Academic
1281		Press, 2021, pp. 441–479.
1282	64.	Chakka, A. K.; Sriraksha, M. S.; Ravishankar, C. N. Sustainability of
1283		emerging green non-thermal technologies in the food industry with
1284		food safety perspective: A review, LWT, 2021, 151, 112140.
1285	65.	Thirukumaran, R.; Anu Priya, V. K.; Krishnamoorthy, S.;

Ramakrishnan, P.; et al., C. Resource recovery from fish waste:

1287		Prospects and the usage of intensified extraction technologies,
1288		Chemosphere, 2022, 299, 134361.
1289	66.	Zhao, Y.M.; de Alba, M.; Sun, DW.; Tiwari, B. Principles, and
1290		recent applications of novel non-thermal processing technologies for
1291		the fish industry—A review. Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr., 2019, 59,
1292		728–742.
1293	67.	Al Khawli, F.; Ferrer, E.; Berrada, H.; Barba, F.J.; et al. Innovative
1294		green technologies of intensification for valorisation of seafood and
1295		their by-products. Mar. Drugs. 2019, 6, 17(12). 689.
1296	68.	Arshad, R. N.; Abdul-Malek, Z.; Roobab, U.; Munir, M. A.; et al
1297		(2021). Pulsed electric field: A potential alternative towards a
1298		sustainable food processing. Trends Food Sci. Technol., 2021, 111,
1299		43–54
1300	69.	Chandran, A. S., Suri, S., Choudhury, P. Sustainable plant protein: A
1301		recent overview of sources, extraction techniques and utilization
1302		ways, Sust. Food Technol. 2023, 1-57
1303	70.	Sasidharan, A., Venugopal, V. Proteins and co-products from seafood
1304		processing discards: their recovery, functional properties and
1305		applications. Waste Biomass Valor 2020, 11, 5647–5663.
1306	71.	Venugopal, V.; Sasidharan, A. Seafood industry effluents:
1307		Environmental hazards, treatment and resource recovery, J. Env.
1308		Chem. Eng.2020, 104758

1309	72.	Mora, L. Toldrá, F. Advanced enzymatic hydrolysis of food proteins
1310		for the production of bioactive peptides, Curr. Opn. Food Sci.2023,
1311		49, 100973
1312	73.	Boyd, C.E.; McNevin, A.A.; Davis, R.P. The contribution of fisheries
1313		and aquaculture to the global protein supply. Food Sec., 2022, 14,
1314		805–827
1315	74.	Healy, L. F., Tiwari, B. K. The need for future proteins, In Future
1316		Proteins, Sources, Processing, Applications and the Bioeconomy,
1317		2023, Academic Press, pp.3-12
1318	75.	Avelar, Z., Rodrigues, R. M., Pereira, R. N., Vicente, A. A., Future
1319		food proteins—Trends and perspectives, In Future Foods, Rajeev
1320		Bhat, R. (Ed.), 2022, Academic press, Ch. 15, pp. 267-285
1321	76.	Peydayesh, M., Bagnani, M., Soon, W.L., Mezzenga, R., Turning
1322		food protein waste into sustainable technologies. Chem. Rev. 2023,
1323		123, 5, 2112–2154
1324	77.	Periera, R. N., Avelar, Z., Periera, S. G., Rocha, C. M. R., Teixeira, J.
1325		A. Innovative and emerging technologies in the bio-marine food
1326		sector. Applications, regulations and prospects. Garcia-Vaquero, M.,
1327		Rajauna, G.(Eds.) 2021, Elsevier, pp. 173-195
1328	78.	Zhou, Y., Wu, W., Zhang, N., Soladoye, O. P., Zhang, Y. an Fu, Y.
1329		Deep eutectic solvents as new media for green extraction of food

1330		proteins: Opportunity and challenges, Food Res. Int. 2022, 161,
1331		111842
1332	79.	Rodrigues, L. A., Leonardo, I. C., Gaspar, F. B., Roseiro, L. C., et
1333		al, Unveiling the potential of betaine/polyol-based deep eutectic
1334		systems for the recovery of bioactive protein derivative-rich extracts
1335		from sardine processing residues, Sep. Purif.Technol. 2021, 276,
1336		119267,https://doi.org/10.1016/j.seppur.2021.119267.
1337	80.	Melgosa, R., Trigueros, E., Sanz, M.T., Cardeira, M., et al, 2020.
1338		Supercritical CO2 and subcritical water technologies for the
1339		production of bioactive extracts from sardine (Sardina pilchardus)
1340		waste. J. Supercrit. Fluids 2020, 164, 104943.
1341		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2020.104943
1342	81.	Batista, M.P.; Fernández, N.; Gaspar, F.B.; Bronze, Md.R.; Duarte,
1343		A.R.C. Extraction of biocompatible collagen from blue shark skins
1344		through the conventional extraction process intensification using
1345		natural deep eutectic solvents. Front. Chem., 2021,10, 937036.
1346	82.	Razali, U. H. M., Ya'akob, H., Sarbon, N. M., Zainan, N. H. et al.,
1347		Improving collagen processing towards a greener approach: current
1348		progress, Chem. Technol. Biotechnol., 2023, 1063-1082
1349	83.	Bisht, M., Martins, M., Dias, A. C. R. V. et al. Uncovering the
1350		potential of aqueous solutions of deep eutectic solvents on the extraction

1351		and purification of collagen type I from Atlantic codfish (Gadus morhua),
1352		Green Chem., 2021, 23 , 8940-8948
1353	84.	Nguyen, T.T.; Heimann, K.; Zhang, W. Protein recovery from
1354		underutilised marine bioresources for product development with
1355		nutraceutical and pharmaceutical bioactivities. Mar. Drugs, 2020, 18,
1356		391.
1357	85.	Heidari, M.G.; Rezaei, M. Extracted pepsin of trout waste and
1358		ultrasound-promoted method for green recovery of fish
1359		collagen. Sustain. Chem. Pharm., 2022, 30, 100854
1360	86.	Noor, N.Q.I.M.; Razali, R.S.; Ismail, N.K.; Ramli, R.A.; et al.,
1361		Application of green technology in gelatin extraction: A
1362		review. <i>Processes</i> 2021, 9, 2227. https://doi.org/10.3390/pr9122227
1363	87.	Dong, Y.; Yan, W.; Zhang, X.D.; Dai, Z.Y.; Zhang, Y.Q. Steam
1364		explosion-assisted extraction of protein from fish backbones and
1365		effect of enzymatic hydrolysis on the extracts. Foods, 2021, 10, 1942
1366	88.	Forghani, B.,. Bordes, R., Ström, A., and. Undeland, I. Recovery of a
1367		protein-rich biomass from shrimp (Pandalus borealis) boiling water:
1368		A colloidal study, Food Chem., 2020, 302, 125299
1369	89.	Etemadian, Y.; Ghaemi, G.; Shaviklo, A. R.; Pourashouri, P.; et al.
1370		Development of animal/plant-based protein hydrolysate and its
1371		application in food, feed and nutraceutical industries: state of the
1372		art. J. Clean. Prod., 2021, 278, 123219.

- 90. Racioppo, A.; Speranza, B.; Campaniello, D.; Sinigaglia, M.; Corbo,
 M.R.; et al., Fish loss/waste and low-value fish challenges: state of
 art, advances, and perspectives. *Foods*, 2021, 10, 2725.
- 1376 91. Ramires, F.A.; Bleve, G.; De Domenico, S.; Leone, A. combination of solid state and submerged fermentation strategies to produce a new jellyfish-based food. *Foods*, 2022, 11, 3974.
- 92. Aitta, E.; Marsol-Vall, A.; Damerau, A.; Yang, B. Enzyme-assisted extraction of fish oil from whole fish and by-products of Baltic herring (*Clupea harengus membras*). *Foods*, 2021, 5, 10(8), 1811.

- 93. Routray, W.; Dave, D.; Ramakrishnan, V. V.; Murphy, W. Production of high quality fish oil by enzymatic protein hydrolysis from cultured Atlantic salmon by-products: investigation on effect of various extraction parameters using central composite rotatable design. *Waste Biomass Valor.*, 2018, 9, 2003–2014.
 - 94. Deng, W., Wang, W., Zhao, S., Yang, X. et al., Ultrasound-assisted extraction of lipids as food components: Mechanism, solvent, feedstock, quality evaluation and coupled technologies A review Trends Food Sci Technol, 2022, 83-96
- 95. Pinela, J.; Fuente, B.d.l.; Rodrigues, M.; Pires, T.C.S.P.; et al.,

 Upcycling fish by-products into bioactive fish oil: The suitability of

 microwave-assisted extraction. *Biomolecules*, 2023, 13, 1.

1394	96.	Singh, A.; Ahmad, S.; Ahmad, A. Green extraction methods and
1395		environmental applications of carotenoids: A Review. RSC Adv.
1396		2015, 46: : https://doi.org/10.1039/C5RA10243J
1397	97.	Prameela K.; Venkatesh, K.; Divya Vani, K.; Sudesh Kumar, E.;
1398		Murali Mohan, C.H. Eco-Friendly extraction of biopolymer chitin
1399		and carotenoids from shrimp waste. IOP Conf. Ser.: Mater. Sci. Eng.
1400		2017, 225, 012266
1401	98.	Shah, M. M. R.; Lian, Y.; Cheng, J.J.; Daroch, M. Astaxanthin-
1402		producing green microalga <i>Haematococcus pluvialis</i> : from single cell
1403		to high value commercial products. Front. Plant Sci., 2016, 28,531.
1404	99.	Bose, I., Nousheen, Roy S, Yaduvanshi P, et al. Unveiling the
1405		potential of marine biopolymers: sources, classification, and diverse
1406		food applications. Materials, 2023; 16,4840.
1407		https://doi.org/10.3390/ma16134840
1408	100.	Yadav, M.; Goswami, P.; Paritosh, K.; Kumar, M.; Pareek,
1409		V.Seafood waste: a source for preparation of commercially
1410		employable chitin/chitosan materials. Bioresour. Bioprocess., 2019,
1411		6, 8.
1412	101.	Ngasotter, S., Sampath, L. and Xavier, K.A. M. Nanochitin: An
1413		update review on advances in preparation methods and food
1414		applications, Carbohyd. Polym. 2022, 291, 119627

1415	102.	Gulzar, S., Tagrida, M., Prodpran, T., Li, L., Benjakul, S. Packaging
1416		films based on biopolymers from seafood processing wastes:
1417		Preparation, properties, and their applications for shelf-life extension
1418		of seafoods—A comprehensive review, Comp. Rev. Food Sci. Food
1419		Saf. 2023, https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-4337.13230
1420	103.	Rasweefali, M. K., Sabu, S., Muhammed Azad, K. S. Raseel Rahman
1421		M. K. et al., Influence of deproteinization and demineralization
1422		process sequences on the physicochemical and structural
1423		characteristics of chitin isolated from Deep-sea mud shrimp
1424		(Solenocera hextii), Adv.Biomarker Sci.Technol. 2022, 4,12-17,
1425		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.abst.2022.03.001
1426	104.	Mathew, G. M., Mathew, D. C., Sukumaran, R. K., Sindhu, R., et al.
1427		Sustainable and eco-friendly strategies for shrimp shell valorisation.
1428		Environmental Pollution, 2020, 267, 115656
1429	105.	Maddaloni, M.; Vassalini, I.; Alessandri, I. Green routes for the
1430		development of chitin/chitosan sustainable hydrogels. Sustain. Chem.
1431		2020, 1, 325-344.
1432	106.	Aranday-García, R.; Guerrero, A. R.; Ifuku, S.; Shirai, K. Successive
1433		inoculation of Lactobacillus brevis and Rhizopus oligosporus on
1434		shrimp wastes for recovery of chitin and added-value products. <i>Proc.</i>
1435		Biochem., 2017, 58, 17-24

1436	107.	Suryawanshi, N.; Jujjavarapu, S.; Ayothiraman, S.Marine shell
1437		industrial wastes—An abundant source of chitin and its derivatives:
1438		Constituents, pretreatment, fermentation, and pleiotropic
1439		applications—A revisit. Int. J. Env. Sci. Technol., 2019, 1–22.
1440	108.	Dun, Y.; Li, Y.; Xu, J.; Hu, Y.; Zhang, C.;et al. Simultaneous
1441		fermentation and hydrolysis to extract chitin from crayfish shell
1442		waste. Int. J. Biol. Macromolecules, 2019, 123, 420-426
1443	109.	Bradić, B.; Novak, U.; Likozar, B. Crustacean shell bio-refining to
1444		chitin by natural deep eutectic solvents. Green Proc. Synth.,2020, 9,
1445		13-25.
1446	110.	Tolesa, L. D.; Gupta, B.; Lee, M. Chitin and chitosan production from
1447		shrimp shells using ammonium-based ionic liquids. Int. J. Biol.
1448		Macromol., 2019, 130, 818–826.
1449	111.	Subramanian, K., Sadaiappan, B., Aruni, W. et al. Bioconversion of
1450		chitin and concomitant production of chitinase and N-
1451		acetylglucosamine by novel Achromobacter xylosoxidans isolated
1452		from shrimp waste disposal area. Sci Rep 10, 11898 (2020).
1453		https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-68772-y
1454	112.	Thomas, R.; Fukamizo, T.; Suginta, W. Green-chemical strategies for
1455		production of tailor-made chitooligosaccharides with enhanced
1456		biological activities. Preprints.org 2023, 2023051985.

1457	113.	Sabu, S.; Sasidharan, A.; Venugopal, V. Influence of isolation
1458		conditions on the physicochemical and biological properties of
1459		chitosan and chitosan oligosaccharides from marine crustacean shell
1460		wastes. In: Kim, SK. (eds) Chitooligosaccharides. Springer,
1461		Cham.2022, pp 333–352
1462	114.	Gözaydın, G. Song, S., Yan, N, Chitin hydrolysis in acidified molten
1463		salt hydrates, Green Chem. 2020, 22, 5096-5104
1464	115.	Pereira, J. G., Ravasco, J. M. J. M., Vale, J. R. Queda, F. and Gomes,
1465		R. F. A.direct Diels-Alder reaction of chitin derived 3-acetamido-5-
1466		acetylfuran, Green Chem., 2022, 24,7131
1467	116.	Ma, X., Gözaydın, G., Yang, H. Zhou, K. Upcycling chitin-containing
1468		waste into organo-nitrogen chemicals via an integrated process, <i>Proc.</i>
1469		Natl. Acad. Sci.2020, 1
1470	117.	Vedula, S. S. and Yadav. G. D.Some recent developments in
1471		valorisation of chitosan to a valuable platform chemical 5-
1472		hydroxymethylfurfural (5-HMF): a short review. Catalysis in Green
1473		Chemistry and Engineering 2022, 5, 1-18 17, 7719-7728
1474	118.	Amiri, H., Aghbashlo, M., Sharma, M. et al. Chitin and chitosan
1475		derived from crustacean waste valorisation streams can support food
1476		systems and the UN Sustainable Development Goals. Nat Food, 3,
1477		822–828 (2022).

1478	119.	Vazquez, J.A., Rodríguez-Amado, I., Montemayor, M.I., Fraguas, J.,
1479		et al., Chondroitin sulfate, hyaluronic acid chitin/chitosan production
1480		using marine discard sources: characteristics, applications and eco-
1481		friendly processes: a review. Mar. Drugs 2013, 11, 747–777.
1482	120.	Tang, S.; Dong, S.; Chen, M.; Gao, R.; Chen, S.; Zhao, Y.; Liu, Z.;
1483		Sun, B. Preparation of a fermentation solution of grass fish bones and
1484		its calcium bioavailability in rats. <i>Food Funct.</i> , 2018, 9, 4135–4142.
1485	121.	Chilakala, R.; Thannaree, C.; Shin, E.J.; Thenepalli, T.; Ahn, J.W.
1486		Sustainable solutions for oyster shell waste recycling in Thailand and
1487		the Philippines. Recycling, 2019, 4, 35
1488	122.	Lionetto, F.; Bagheri, S.; Mele, C. Sustainable materials from fish
1489		industry waste for electrochemical energy
1490		systems. Energies 2021, 14, 7928.
1491		https://doi.org/10.3390/en14237928
1492	123.	Govindaraj V, Subramani AK, Gopalakrishnan R et al., Bioethanol: A
1493		new synergy between marine chitinases from Bacillus haynesii and
1494		ethanol production by <i>Mucor circinelloides</i> . Fermentation, 2023, 9,
1495		40. https://doi.org/10.3390/fermentation9010040
1496	124.	Saravanan, A., Yuvaraj, D., Kumar, P.S., Karishma, S. et al. Fish
1497		processing discards: A plausible resource for valorisation to
1498		renewable fuels production, optimization, byproducts and challenges,
1499		Fuel, 2023, 335, 127081

1500	125.	Kara, K.; Ouanji, F.; Mostapha, L. E.; Mahi, M. E.Biodiesel
1501		production from waste fish oil with high free fatty acid content from
1502		Moroccan fish-processing industries. Egyptian J. Petroleum., 2018,
1503		27, 249–255.
1504	126.	Karkal, S.S., Kudre, T.G., Valorisation of fish discards for the
1505		sustainable production of renewable fuels. J Clean Prod 2020,
1506		275:122985. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. jclepro.2020.122985
1507	127.	Upadhyay, A. K. Algae as sustainable resource for green economy
1508		and deteriorating environment, In Upadhyay, A. K. and Singh, D. K.
1509		(eds). Algae and sustainable technologies: Bioenergy,
1510		Nanotechnology and Green chemistry, CRC Press, 2022, pp 315.
1511	128.	Enamala, M. K.; Enamala, S.; Chavali, M.; Donepudi, J., Yadavalli,
1512		R.; Kolapalli, B.; Aradhyula, T. V.; Velpuri, J.; Kuppam, C.
1513		Production of biofuels from microalgae - A review on cultivation,
1514		harvesting, lipid extraction, and numerous applications of microalgae.
1515		Ren. Sust. Energy Rev., 2018, 94, 49-68.
1516	129.	Sartaj, Km., Prasad, R., Matsakas, L., Patel, A.Transforming
1517		recalcitrant wastes into biodiesel by oleaginous yeast: An insight into
1518		the metabolic pathways and multi-omics landscape, Chem. Eng. J.
1519		2023, 474, 145625, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2023.145625
1520	130.	IEA, Bioenergy: Task 42, Biorefining, Sustainable and synergetic
1521		processing of biomass into marketable food & feed ingredients,

1522		chemicals, materials and energy (fuels, power, heat) International
1523		Energy Agency, Wageningen, the Netherlands, August 2014
1524	131.	Siddiqui, S. A., Schulte, H., Pleissner, D., Schönfelder, S., et al.
1525		(2023). Transformation of seafood side-streams and residuals into
1526		valuable products. Foods, 12, 422
1527	132.	Rogers, R. D.; Kerton, F. M. Marine-based green chemistry, Green
1528		Chem., 2022, 24, 2265.
1529	133.	Venugopal, V. Green processing of seafood waste biomass towards
1530		blue economy. Current Res. Environ. Sust., 2022, 4, 100164.
1531	134.	Cooney, R.; Baptista de Sousa, D.; Fernández-Ríos, A.; Mellett, S.; et
1532		al. A circular economy framework for seafood waste valorisation to
1533		meet challenges and opportunities for intensive production and
1534		sustainability, J. Cleaner Prod., 2023, 392, 136283
1535	135.	Hülsey, M. J. Shell biorefinery: A comprehensive introduction. <i>Green</i>
1536		Energy Environ., 2018, 3, 4, 318-327.
1537	136.	Vicente, F. A.; Ventura, S. P.M.; Passos, H.; Dias, A. C.R.V.; et al.
1538		Crustacean waste biorefinery as a sustainable cost-effective business
1539		model. Chem. Eng. J., 2022, 442, 2, 135937.
1540	137.	Aneesh, P. A.; Anandan, R.; Kumar, L. R. G.; Ajeeshkumar, K. K.;
1541		Ashok Kumar, K.; Mathew, S. A step to shell biorefinery—
1542		Extraction of astaxanthin-rich oil, protein, chitin, and chitosan from
1543		shrimp processing waste. <i>Biomass Conv. Bioref.</i> , 2023, 13, 205–214.

138. Deng, J. J.; Mao, H. H.; Fang, W.; Li, Z. Q.; et al. Enzymatic 1544 conversion and recovery of protein, chitin, and astaxanthin from 1545 shrimp shell waste. *J. Cleaner Prod.*, 2020, 271,122655. 1546 Vázquez, J.A.; Fraguas, J.; Mirón, J.; Valcárcel, J.; et al., Valorisation 139. 1547 of fish discards assisted by enzymatic hydrolysis and microbial 1548 bioconversion: Lab and pilot plant studies and preliminary 1549 sustainability evaluation. J. Clean. Prod. 2020, 246, 119027 1550 Banu, J. R.; Preethi, S.; Kavitha, S.; Gunasekaran, M.; Kumar, G. 1551 1552 Microalgae based biorefinery promoting circular bio-economytechnology. Economic and life-cycle analysis, *Bioresource*. Technol., 1553 2020, 302, 22822. 1554 Veríssimo, N. V., Mussagy, G. U., Oshiro, A. A., Mendonça, C. M. 1555 N., Santos-Ebinuma, V. C. et al. From green to blue economy: Marine 1556 biorefineries for a sustainable ocean-based economy, *Green Chem.*, 1557 2021, **23**, 9377-9400, DOI: 10.1039/D1GC03191K 1558 142. Lam, C. M.; Iris, K. M.; Hsu, S. C.; Tsang, D. C.Life-cycle 1559 assessment of food waste recycling waste biorefinery, Elsevier, 2020, 1560 pp. 481-513. 1561 143. Yang, H.; Gözaydın, G.; Nasaruddin, R.; Har, J. R. G.; Chen, 1562 X.; Wang, X.; Yan, N. Toward the shell biorefinery: processing 1563 crustacean shell waste using hot water and carbonic acid. ACS 1564

Sustain. Chem. Eng., 2019, 7, 5532–5542. .

1566	144.	Mak, T. M.W.; Xiong, X.; Tsang, D. C.W.; Yu, I. K.M.; Poon, C. S.
1567		Sustainable food waste management towards circular bioeconomy:
1568		Policy review, limitations and opportunities. Bioresource Technol.,
1569		2020, 297, 122497.
1570	145.	Tsironi, T.; Koutinas, A.; Mandala, I.; Stoforos, N. G. Current and new
1571		Green Deal solutions for sustainable food processing, Curr. Opin.
1572		Env. Sci. Health, 2021, 21, 100244
1573	146.	Johnson, C.; Sierra, A. R.; Dettmer, J.; Sidiropoulou, K.; et al. The
1574		bio-based industries joint undertaking as a catalyst for a green
1575		transition in Europe under the European green deal, EFB Bioecon.
1576		J.,2021, 1, 100014

Table 1. Limitations of chemical processing on components of seafood side streams

Component	Method	Disadvantages
Proteins	Chemical extraction under elevated temperatures	Longer time, high energy consumption, possible racemization of amino acids, splitting of disulphide bonds, loss of cysteine, serine and threonine via β-elimination reactions, formations of toxic compounds such as lysin alanine. D- amino acids are not absorbed by humans
Peptides	Chemical hydrolysis and solvent extraction	Toxic compounds, residual solvents
Oil and biodiesel from oil	Acid digestion using HCl at high temperature until complete dissolution, other conventional methods	High reaction temperature, contamination of glycerol with alkali, soap formation,waste generation
Chitin, chitosan, chitin oligosaccharides	Demineralization by mineral acids, deproteinization by alkali such as sodium or potassium hydroxide	Hazardous, energy consuming, chemicals-rich effluents can cause health and safety concerns. affects intact nature of chitin, higher costs
Chitin, chitosan	Derivatization of functional groups for a wide spectrum of compounds	Chemicals used entail risks for human health and the environment
Chondroitin and hyaluronic acid	Solvent extraction	Most solvents used entail risks for human health and the environment. May also lead to compound degradation

Source: Summarized from references, 13, 24, 97,114

Table 2. Comparison of traditional processes and green processes

Parameters	Traditional processes	Green processes
General reaction conditions	Chemical treatment, likely at high temperature and pressure	Chemical reactions take place usually at ambient temperature and pressure
Nature of reagents	Reactive, persistent, or toxic Many organic solvents have adverse health effects	Green solvents are inert, recyclable and sustainable
Energy source	High energy generally from fossil feedstock	Low-energy chemical reactions
CCatalysts	Catalysts may include elements from the entire periodic system. Some may be toxic. Some processes require high heat or pressure conditions	Microorganisms and enzymes serve as low cost, stable biocatalysts.
Changes in resources	Drastic degradation Design exclusively for use phase	Degradation is part of design, 'timed degradation' or 'triggered instability'.
Creation of functionality of the product	Functionality is created by the new material itself	Functionality is created by the structure. Scope for improved bioactivities
Type of processes	Linear	Circular
Management approach	Waste treatment	Waste utilization
Profitability Adapted from R	Maximum chemical production for minimum profitability	Maximum chemical production with minimum benign material use for increased profitability

Adapted from Ref.24

Table 3. Some green extraction systems for seafood side streams

Raw material	Green solvent	Product
Shrimp shell waste	Deep eutectic solvents	Chitin
	(DESs) such as choline chloride and malic acid alone or in combination with non-thermal methods	Chitin
Shrimp shell waste	Hot water-carbonic acid	Chitin
Seafood side streams	Ionic deep eutectic solvents	Proteins
Seafood side streams	Deep eutectic solvents (DESs) choline chloride-glycerol, choline chloride-oxalic acid, choline chloride-urea ethanol	Proteins
Marine biomass	Pressurized extraction systems	Higher extraction efficiency. Reduces solvent consumption compared to conventional extraction processes
Agro-food items	SC-CO ₂ extraction	Carotenoids
Different marine wastes	Cmbination of microbial, chemical, enzymatic and membranes strategies	Chondroitin Sulfate, Hyaluronic acid, chitin, chitosan

Source: References 60, 62, 63, 64, 79, 97, 120

Table 4: Some green processes used in seafood waste bio-refinery for multiple products

Green processes	Products	Reference
Lactic fermentation	Several useful products including astaxanthin, hydrolyzed protein and chitin	44
Pretreatment of shell waste and an enzymatic/fermentative process using metabolically engineered <i>Escherichia coli</i>	L-3,4-dihydroxy phenylalanine (DOPA) and tyrosine from crustacean shell waste	117
Proteolysis of shells for proteins, and conventional processes for chitin and carotenoids	Protein, oil, carotenoids and chitin from snow crab shell waste	19
Supercritical carbon dioxide extraction for the extraction of astaxanthin and oil, supercritical fluid extraction for protein extraction	Protein, chitin, chitosan, PUFA- rich oil, astaxanthin, from shrimp waste	138
Water, acetic acid, and buffers, with solid–liquid extraction, along with centrifugation, and membrane filtration	Proteins, chitin, calcium carbonate, astaxanthin from crustacean waste	137
Rcombinant aspartic proteases, recombinant chitinase and ethyl acetate	Protein, chitin and astaxanthin from shell waste	139
Microbial, enzymatic and membranes strategies	Chondroitin sulfate, hyaluronic acid and chitin/chitosan from marine waste	120
Chitin was hydrolyzed to oligosaccharides, which were used as substrate by <i>Mucor circinelloides</i> to produce bioethanol	Oligosaccharides, bioethanol from shell waste	124
Isolation of oil followed by transesterification of oil	Renewable fuels	126,127

Table 5.Potential contr sustaina	ibutions of seafoo ble development		agement to
 Sustainable manage (SDG 12.1) Halving global programmed and substantially reduction, recycling the eduction, recycling an age adoption management praction of the eduction of the eduction of the eduction of the eduction of the education of the education	duction of seafoo ce seafood side str g and reuse (SDG n of sustainable s ces by seafood co er on seafood side	d side stream (SDG ream through prevents 12.5) eafood side stream ompanies (SDG 12) e stream resource re	G 12.3) ention, 1.6) ecovery to

1610	
1611	Legends to Figures
1612	Figure 1. (a) Food waste recovery hierarchical pyramid; (b) types of
1613	strategies to prevent food waste. Source: United States Environmental
1614	Protection Agency, with permission
1615	(Please note that color may not be required for this figure)
1616	
1617	
1618	TOC Graphic:
1619	Title:
1620	Major achievable targets through green processing of seafood side
1621	streams
1622	
1623	
1624	•
1625	
1626	
1627	
1628	
1620	
1629	

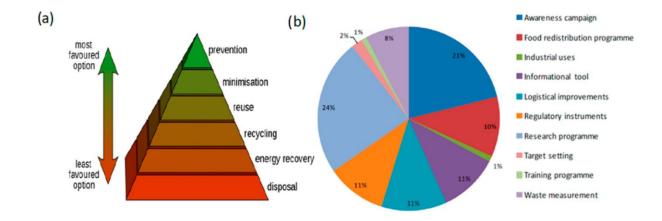


Figure 1.

1638 152.

TOvC Graphic

omments

