



## **Transformation of Seafood Side-Streams and Residuals into Valuable Products**

Siddiqui, Shahida Anusha; Schulte, Henning; Pleissner, Daniel; Schönfelder, Stephanie; Kvangarsnes, Kristine; Dauksas, Egidijus; Rustad, Turid; Cropotova, Janna; Heinz, Volker; Smetana, Sergiy

*Published in:*  
Foods

*DOI:*  
[10.3390/foods12020422](https://doi.org/10.3390/foods12020422)

*Publication date:*  
2023

*Document Version*  
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

[Link to publication](#)

### *Citation for published version (APA):*

Siddiqui, S. A., Schulte, H., Pleissner, D., Schönfelder, S., Kvangarsnes, K., Dauksas, E., Rustad, T., Cropotova, J., Heinz, V., & Smetana, S. (2023). Transformation of Seafood Side-Streams and Residuals into Valuable Products. *Foods*, 12(2), [422]. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods12020422>

### **General rights**

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal ?

### **Take down policy**

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

Review

# Transformation of Seafood Side-Streams and Residuals into Valuable Products

Shahida Anusha Siddiqui <sup>1,2</sup>, Henning Schulte <sup>1,3</sup> , Daniel Pleissner <sup>4,5,\*</sup>, Stephanie Schönfelder <sup>5</sup>, Kristine Kvangarsnes <sup>6</sup>, Egidijus Dauksas <sup>6</sup>, Turid Rustad <sup>7</sup> , Janna Cropotova <sup>6</sup> , Volker Heinz <sup>1</sup> and Sergiy Smetana <sup>1</sup> 

- <sup>1</sup> German Institute of Food Technologies (DIL e.V.), Professor-von-Klitzing-Straße 7, 49610 Quakenbrück, Germany
  - <sup>2</sup> Department of Biotechnology and Sustainability, Technical University of Munich, Campus Straubing, Essigberg 3, 94315 Straubing, Germany
  - <sup>3</sup> Osnabrück University of Applied Sciences, Albrechtstraße 30, 49076 Osnabrück, Germany
  - <sup>4</sup> Sustainable Chemistry (Resource Efficiency), Institute of Sustainable Chemistry, Leuphana University of Lüneburg, Universitätsallee 1, C13.203, 21335 Lüneburg, Germany
  - <sup>5</sup> Institute for Food and Environmental Research (ILU), Papendorfer Weg 3, 14806 Bad Belzig, Germany
  - <sup>6</sup> Department of Biological Sciences Ålesund, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Larsgårdsvegen 4, 6025 Ålesund, Norway
  - <sup>7</sup> Department of Biotechnology and Food Science, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Sem Sælandsvei 6/8, Kjemiblokk 3, 163, 7491 Trondheim, Norway
- \* Correspondence: daniel.pleissner@leuphana.de

**Abstract:** Seafood processing creates enormous amounts of side-streams. This review deals with the use of seafood side-streams for transformation into valuable products and identifies suitable approaches for making use of it for different purposes. Starting at the stage of catching fish to its selling point, many of the fish parts, such as head, skin, tail, fillet cut-offs, and the viscera, are wasted. These parts are rich in proteins, enzymes, healthy fatty acids such as monounsaturated and polyunsaturated ones, gelatin, and collagen. The valuable biochemical composition makes it worth discussing paths through which seafood side-streams can be turned into valuable products. Drawbacks, as well as challenges of different aquacultures, demonstrate the importance of using the various side-streams to produce valuable compounds to improve economic performance efficiency and sustainability of aquaculture. In this review, conventional and novel utilization approaches, as well as a combination of both, have been identified, which will lead to the development of sustainable production chains and the emergence of new bio-based products in the future.

**Keywords:** recycling; seafood; side-streams; sustainability; treatment



**Citation:** Siddiqui, S.A.; Schulte, H.; Pleissner, D.; Schönfelder, S.; Kvangarsnes, K.; Dauksas, E.; Rustad, T.; Cropotova, J.; Heinz, V.; Smetana, S. Transformation of Seafood Side-Streams and Residuals into Valuable Products. *Foods* **2023**, *12*, 422. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods12020422>

Academic Editor: Edel Oddny Elvevoll

Received: 15 December 2022

Revised: 4 January 2023

Accepted: 12 January 2023

Published: 16 January 2023



**Copyright:** © 2023 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

## 1. Introduction

The growing global population is expected to reach 9.7 billion by 2050, resulting in the search for a healthy lifestyle and appropriate meals to retain good health [1,2], as well as resulting in increasing demand for a nutritious and sustainable food supply [3]. At the same time, the production of animal foodstuffs and factory farming are associated with major negative impacts on the environment and the human health [4,5]. These reasons lead to the search for sustainable food alternatives focusing on the preservation of wasted nutrients within the food chain and conformity with the sustainable circular economy principles [6,7]. The added value given to by-products allows waste reduction and recycling to conserve natural resources, protect the environment, and focus on consumer health [7]. Nutrients and bioactive compounds present in food by-products can be an excellent source for developing new food products to improve the health and wellbeing of consumers and protect the environment at the same time [8].

Fish is regarded as a valuable component of a nutritious diet since it has a high protein content, a steady essential amino acid profile, a beneficial quantity of fat-soluble vitamins like A or D, and the necessary macro- and microminerals [9,10]. Furthermore, oily fish have considerable amounts of long-chain highly unsaturated n-3 fatty acids, which are connected with better cardiovascular health [11,12]. The fish industry has grown continuously over the past decades and rose to about 178 metric tons in 2018 [13]. The per capita intake of fish has also risen to 20.5 kg in a year in 2018 [14]. A resulting increase of fish processing comes with an increase in the quantity of fish side products, which is divided between quickly degradable items with a high enzyme content like viscera, as well as more stable products (skin, heads, and bones) [3,15,16], constituting up to 60% of the fresh fish. As the demand for marine crustaceans grows, so will the amount of processed side-streams [3]. Therefore, there is an urgent need to find proper measures to deal with the increasing amounts of side-streams.

Many conventional techniques, such as enzymatic hydrolysis [17,18], mechanical treatment [19], and chemical extractions [9,20], are employed in refining seafood by-products to get high-value-added components. These techniques are efficient, but they need a lot of energy and may cause thermal deterioration of the target molecules [15,16]. Other extraction processes that require the use of organic solvents would potentially harm both health and nature, as well as cause the destruction of perishable compounds [21]. As a result, in recent years, industries and consumers prefer more environmentally safe processes for ingredient processing, often referred to as green technologies [10,18]. Several biotechnological applications have been utilized, which meet the criterion for sustainability and are likely to become the norm in the future [15]. Green extraction methods have been identified for the separation of high-added-value chemicals through microwave-assisted extraction (MAE) [22], ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) [10], supercritical fluid extraction (SFE) [10], and pulsed electric fields (PEF) [10,22]. These alternative methods offer numerous benefits like faster extraction, reduced demand for solvents as well as non-polluting solvents, and improved selectiveness [23]. This study will explore the challenges, as well as the potential opportunities, of such existing and emerging approaches. This review will further define the best approaches for the future utilization of fish waste from an economic, environmental, and social perspective.

## 2. Current Drawbacks and Challenges Related to Transformation of Seafood Side-Streams into Valuable Compounds

While capture fishery has reached a biological limit, aquaculture has been the fastest growing food production industry for the last fifty years [13]. In 2018, 82 million of the 179 million metric tons of fish (including fish, mollusks, and crustaceans) produced worldwide came from aquaculture. China is by far the largest market player, accounting for 35% of global fish production, followed by the rest of Asia with 34%. Estimations for the year 2030 foresee a further increase to 108 million tons of aquaculture production (+32%), which is expected to be 54% of all fish products [13]. For China, the dominant role of aquaculture in fish production is even more apparent. While the production ratio between fisheries and aquaculture was 74 to 26 in 1978, it had inverted by 2018, then being 23.5 to 76.5. By this, China contributes more than 60% to the global aquaculture volume [13].

The constantly increasing amounts of fish produced, and the fact that around 70% thereof undergo further processing before entering the market, results in the accumulation of large amounts (20–80%, depending on the level of processing and the fish species) of fish waste, too. Even though fish waste represents a valuable resource consisting of many high-value components such as bioactive peptides, collagen, chitin, or enzymes, it is commonly used to produce fishmeal, fertilizers, and fish oil, or serves as direct feed in aquaculture [24]. The demand for fishmeal is very pronounced in the aquaculture industry due to its importance as the main diet for different farmed species [25]. Therefore, of the 12% of fish produced that are used for non-food purposes, 18 million tons are diverted to fishmeal and -oil [13]. In 2020, the amount of fishmeal consumed by China's aquaculture

sector peaked at 2.05 million tons [26]. Due to their standing as the world's most important importer, China accounts for 33% of the global trade each year. Its aquaculture sector underwent further intensification and there has also been a transition "from low input, multitrophic systems (e.g., traditional carp polycultures that do not require formulated feeds) to monocultures or polycultures containing high-valued species dependent on feeds" [27]. This includes a trend towards more carnivorous fish being farmed in China which will further increase the demand for fishmeal. Carnivorous species such as grouper require high amounts of fishmeal in their diet, with fishmeal contents in feed formulations up to 50%. To satisfy the needs of their aquaculture industry, China also uses large quantities of "waste fish" for the production of fishmeal, while further 3 million tons of these fish per year serve as direct feed for high-value marine aquaculture. A "waste fish" is used to describe the smaller fish with an insignificant share of the market value of the catches [27]. According to [28], juveniles of commercially relevant species make up the main proportion of China's "trash fish" (~32–50%).

This practice puts additional pressure on wild fish populations and raises food security issues in areas like Southeast Asia and Africa, where such fish are important for human nutrition [29]. A paradox when against the background of fully or over-exploited marine resources, intensifying aquaculture is deemed a remedy for fulfilling the constantly increasing demand for seafood of a growing world population and to release pressure from wild fisheries. Even though big improvements have been made by reducing the fishmeal and fish oil content in formulated feeds, e.g., by replacing some of the fish content by plant-based ingredients or products from genetically modified microorganisms [30,31], this remains a huge challenge.

Fish losses represent another drawback for the transition of side-streams into valuable products and are recognized as huge economic and environmental concerns. On one hand there are the large amounts of discarded fish, creating literally no value at all, and on the other hand, there are fish losses in the sense of diminished quality due to spoilage or physical damage. According to FAO (2020), the yearly loss and waste is estimated to be ~35% of the global harvest in capture fishery and aquaculture. In several countries, there is a lack of necessary infrastructure, especially in terms of access to electricity, drinking water, an adequate transport network, and the possibility of refrigeration, as well as services and procedures that allow for proper treatment on board and on shore to maintain fish quality [13]. Despite technological progress and innovations, the transition of seafood side-streams into valuable products is challenged by their high perishability. For example, in the case of shrimp this is considered a major problem, as in tropical climates the material is prone to rapid bacterial deterioration [32]. This is also true for fish side-stream valorization. Due to internal enzymes or bacteria, fish biomaterial readily undergoes autolysis of proteins and auto-oxidation of lipids, processes that need to be controlled to maintain the quality of by-products. This poses major hurdles for fishing vessels. Here, more advanced equipment and technologies for capture and better handling would be required [33]. For some components such as collagen, cost-efficient and sustainable extraction methods are lacking which hinders the exploitation of the potential of that side-stream ingredient at a larger scale [34].

Another side-stream of aquacultural seafood production is organic waste, consisting mainly of feces of the farmed animal and feed remains and being released in dissolved and particulate form. Its accumulation represents a major environmental problem, leading to eutrophication and organic matter pollution, respectively [35]. For example, a marked reduction in biodiversity of the benthic ecosystem in proximity to marine salmon farms was observed [36]. A sustainable way to make use of the organic waste produced by one species is using it as feed component for another. This principle is realized in integrated multi-trophic level aquaculture (IMTA), enabling reduction of organic wastes and production of additional, valuable biomass at the same time. Modern approaches to integrated intensive aquaculture include the combined farming of, for example, fish with microalgae or other seafood [37]. Although IMTA is seen as a key towards a sustainable aquaculture, its

comprehensive implementation is hampered by the complexity of managing an operation with multiple species relating to production, processing, and marketing [38]. Moreover, in some areas producers face licensing issues, as regulations for aquaculture frequently prohibit or discourage nutrient recycling and reutilization of wastes as apparent in polyculture [39]. An example of IMTA that is particularly beneficial for small farmers and local food security is integrated rice–fish cultivation. Here, rice paddy fields are stocked with fish, which largely feed on weeds and pests while simultaneously fertilizing the rice crop by their droppings. This leads to increased rice yields and provides an additional source of protein and income to farmers. Although there is long tradition of this co-farming method in Asia and especially in China [40], it is nowadays only marginally adopted. Among the main constraints to a widespread use are that many farmers are lacking education in the required skills and ambivalent policy frameworks favoring intensive rice monoculture [41].

These examples of current drawbacks as well as challenges in aquaculture demonstrate the importance of using the various side-streams to produce valuable compounds. The economic importance of the aquaculture sector and the high demand for feed contrasts with the unused disposal from the mentioned side-streams. Picking up on this relationship, future utilization of side-streams can improve the efficiency and sustainability of aquaculture.

### 3. Potential behind the Transformation of Seafood Side-Streams into Valuable Compounds

Side-streams from seafood production, processing, and consumption appear in great amounts worldwide. Currently, the management of organic side- or waste streams is switching from treatment to utilization. It is a common agreement that the material utilization of side- or waste streams should have priority over energetic use. Even though the latter is still the dominant operated approach, more and more processes have been arising aiming for an almost complete utilization of organic material. The utilization of a material, irrespective of whether it is of organic or inorganic nature, is challenged by its heterogeneous composition [42]. Heterogeneous composition means that more than one material or compound is present, and a separation is crucial for achieving an efficient conversion into new valuable compounds. The single fractions of aquaculture side and waste-streams with a high potential as feedstock in various utilization processes are proteins, carbohydrates, as well as lipids and polyunsaturated fatty acid.

Treatment as an approach aims to minimize the risks that come along with its uncontrolled decomposition and the resulting greenhouse gas emissions. Conventional treatment processes are for instance composting, anaerobic digestion, or incineration. Composting refers to a material use as the produced compost can be applied as fertilizer on arable land. Anaerobic digestion results in the formation of methane, where incineration gives energy and heat. Furthermore, digestate, the remaining material after anaerobic digestion, can also be applied as fertilizer. Contrarily, incineration allows predominantly an energetic use. The three mentioned processes allow the utilization of organic side- and waste streams. However, the understanding of material use as an approach for the wholistic use of organic material and minimization of the risks to humans and environment is still limited.

The aquaculture sector is expanding, and with this so are the possible side-streams which preferably need to be utilized [43–45]. There is wastewater and sludge from fish and shellfish aquacultures. Both streams are rich in nitrogen compounds but also phosphorous [44,46]. There are further organic solid waste streams which need to be managed [47]. Generally, the utilization of side-streams from seafood processing and consumption should follow a cascade use, and the formation of food and feed should have priority over a material and finally energetic utilization. In particular, the proteins and lipids in side-streams are highly valuable [47]. However, the utilization of by-products for the formation of valuable products would make a separate collection necessary.

Even though wastewater treatment is state-of-the-art, it still needs further development to recover phosphorous and nitrogen compounds. In this context, recirculated aquaculture systems provide the opportunity for on-site treatment of water [44]. It is well known that phosphorous is a limited element but is essential for agriculture production. Nitrogen



needs to be recovered and recycled and nitrogen waste should be avoided wherever possible, not only because of the energy-intensive ammonium formation but also because of the emission of the greenhouse gas dinitrogen oxide resulting from the degradation of nitrogen-containing biomass. Arumugam et al. (2020) extracted nitrogen and phosphorous compounds from sludge derived from shrimp and fish ponds [46]. They harvested, dried, and grounded sludge, added Milli-Q water, and treated the suspension at 105 °C and 121 °C for 2 h. Using 20 g sludge powder and 200 g water concentrations between 25 and 82 mg L<sup>-1</sup> for total nitrogen and between 2 and 9 mg L<sup>-1</sup> for total phosphorous were obtained. The authors used the extract as nutrient in algae cultivation and concluded that sludge extract may reduce the cost of producing microalgae and improves growth and nutritional content.

The processing of side-streams from fish processing often considers a silage onboard trawlers to avoid microbial spoilage and to use it afterwards as feed. Silage is a simple decentralized process to conserve organic material. The stabilized material can be stored over a longer period of time and is used, for instance, as feed for broiler chicken [48]. Other simple processes are, for instance, composting [49] and incineration which, however, as outlined above, do not allow a holistic use of the material. A promising strategy is maintaining the structure of organic materials. Fish scales are considered as an innovative composite biomaterial with a highly sorted microstructure, which can be used in various fields such as wastewater treatment due to its beneficial physical and chemical characteristics. Qin et al. (2022) concluded that converting “fish scales into functional materials can avoid waste of resources and achieve great commercial value” [50]. For instance, Eswaran et al. (2021) investigated fish scale waste from *Garra mullya* as material for the fabrication of a supercapacitor [51]. Fish scales were heated for 7 h at 70 °C in 5% (w/v) and the pale nanostructured hydroxyapatite precipitate was washed, dried, crushed, and again heated in the presence of 50% (w/v) NaOH at 100 °C for 2 h. The authors achieved a material with a high conductivity and good mechanical cyclic stability. Mohan et al. (2021) examined the extraction of chitin from shells of crustaceans including shrimp, crab, squilla, and lobster [52]. Shell powder of each crustacean was first demineralized using 2 M HCl for 150 min at 60 °C. Afterwards, it was deproteinized using 3 M NaOH for 120 min at 80 °C, decolorized with a mixture of chloroform, methanol, and water in a ratio of 1:2:4 (v/v/v), and dried at 60 °C for 24 h. The extracted chitins were in the alpha form and of low molecular weight, as well as of nanoporous and nanofiber structures. The authors concluded that the extracted chitin can be considered for various applications. Furthermore, mussel shells revealed the potential to act as catalysts in a transesterification reaction to produce biodiesel [53].

Conserving the structure of, for instance, fish scales seems to have superior advantages in terms of value generation and applications. However, as outlined above, the processes to separate chitin [52] or hydroxyapatite [51] are complex. It seems much simpler to hydrolyze fish waste and to use the hydrolysate as feed for shrimps [54]. Fish waste hydrolysate has further been used as an organic nitrogen source for *Arthrospira platensis* [55]. The authors found 12% more protein in *Spirulina* compared to a control when the cultivation was carried out in the presence of 0.5% FPH. Furthermore, dry cell weight and biomass productivity increased by 34 and 39%, respectively. Hydrolysis has the advantage that different kinds of fish waste and side-streams can be processed simultaneously. Other studies also focused on the use of fish waste for the cultivation of various microorganisms such as microalgae [46,56,57]. Therefore, currently wasted residuals from fish processing can be a source of valuable components (direct extraction) or can be utilized for further cultivation of organisms, utilizing them as nutrient source.

#### 4. Traditional Methods of Transformation of Seafood Side-Streams and Residuals

Seafood side-streams and residuals are usually regarded as the material left after processing. These can include heads, backbones, viscera, skin, and cut-off in the case of fish [58] or shell and other rest raw material in case of crustaceans. By-catch is often also

evaluated as valued residuals [59]. Improving fish processing technology and sanitation standards for better reuse of fisheries' by-products is consistent with the UN Sustainable Development Goals and facilitates the exploration of new opportunities for sustainable use of marine by-products [60]. As a result, more seafood side-streams are currently processed by traditional methods of transformation into animal and fish feed, which also includes products for direct human consumption as well as food ingredients, nutraceuticals, and pharmaceuticals [59].

Different approaches are applied to deal with the fish production residuals (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Comparative analysis of different approaches dealing with marine product residuals.

Approach	Characteristics	Efficiencies	Limitations	Benefits	References
Hydrolysis					
Hydrolysis	Cleavage of peptide bonds in proteins with inclusion of water, resulting in production of smaller peptides and free amino acids	The yield of hydrolysis is influenced by the enzymes and residues used	Development of a bitter taste and unacceptable flavors	Obtained peptides have various advantageous bioactive properties, which are not active before treatment with enzymatic hydrolysis	[61,62]
Conventional thermal treatment techniques					
Cooking	Inactivation pathogenic microorganisms and endogenous enzymes for food safety as well as to modify properties for the benefit of consumer acceptance	Optimizing the processing of oleaginous by-products by combining them with enzymatic hydrolysis	Impairment of the quality of extracted lipids and proteins due to protein denaturation, including their aggregation and coagulation, variations in the yield and quality of extracted ingredients, impairment of nutritional, bioactive, and sensory properties due to overheating	Large knowledge base and long time for optimization due to the long existence	[63–66]
Novel thermal heating techniques					
Microwave cooking	Industrially used for drying, pre-cooking, and pasteurization of ready meals as well as tempering of meat and fish, based on converting electromagnetic energy into thermal energy	Compact structure of the meat with uniform salt distribution due to volumetric temperature rise and the more uniform coagulation of proteins	Meat inside the tail of crayfish is more susceptible to overheating during microwave treatment than during conventional boiling water cooking	Wide range of applications (e.g., drying, pre-cooking microwave-assisted extraction)	[67,68]

Table 1. Cont.

Approach	Characteristics	Efficiencies	Limitations	Benefits	References
Ohmic heating	Heating by passing an electric current	Ability to create pores in cell membranes, gentle extraction	Applications are mainly limited to microbial inactivation, electroporation, enzyme inactivation, and heating of meat products	Faster heating, no influence on the sensory food properties as well as the nutritional value	[69]
Infrared heating technology	Heating and drying of the product due to oscillations of the water molecules on the product surface and the in-depth penetration	Ohmic pre-cooking or combined treatment recommended due to weak surface penetration for improved heat treatment	May increase peroxide levels due to reaction with free radicals and tocopherols due to cell wall breakdown	Extremely energy efficient, inhibits growth of bacteria, spores, yeasts and molds, and inactivates proteolytic enzymes	[70,71]
Extraction techniques					
Chemical extraction	Use of an acid and/or alkali to extract valuable compounds from various foods	Extraction of collagen/gelatin, chitin and chitosan, astaxanthin, vitamins, and minerals from marine raw materials and side-streams	Traditional methods for the recovery of chitin from shells of crustaceans are extremely hazardous, energy consuming, and environmentally polluting	Chemicals are applied for the extraction	[72]
Supercritical fluid extraction using CO <sub>2</sub> acidified water	Use of CO <sub>2</sub> acidified water to extract collagen from fish skin	Water acidification by pressurized CO <sub>2</sub> at 50 bar and 37 °C for 3 h results in 13.8% yield of collagen	Co-extraction of gelatin could not be excluded	Alternative, greener, and more sustainable way to extract collagen	[73]
Innovative technological pre-treatments					
High hydrostatic pressure (HHP)	Use of a liquid (usually water) as the medium, to apply the desired uniform pressure to a product	Inactivation of enzymes and spoilage microorganisms such as yeasts, molds, and gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria, industrially reliable technology that is commercially available in many countries	Positive effect on proteolysis may vary depending on extrinsic and intrinsic factors	Continuous and rapid pressurization of the product without gradient and at low temperatures, used as a cold pasteurization or non-thermal pre-treatment prior to enzymatic hydrolysis with several positive effects	[74–79]



Table 1. Cont.

Approach	Characteristics	Efficiencies	Limitations	Benefits	References
Pulsed electric field (PEF)	Application of short duration electric pulses (1–100 $\mu$ s) in a wide range of electric field strengths for a very short period (from nanoseconds to milliseconds)	Improves extractability, extraction of thermolabile compounds from animal matrices	Exposure to high electrical pulses may trigger further protein oxidation reactions in fish species hydrolysates, a strong electric field could destroy the intra- and intermolecular electrostatic interactions of certain peptides, challenge for industrial development and commercial deployment due to the lack of reliable industrial equipment	Significant microbial inactivation with little impact on the nutritional value, physicochemical quality parameters and the number of health-promoting compounds due to the low treatment temperature, very short exposure time	[80–85]
Ultrasound (US)	Reflection and scattering of acoustic waves, leading to increased mass transfer, turbulence, and energy generation	Great potential and a variety of applications in many fields due to its ability to produce permanent mechanical, chemical, and biochemical changes in fluids and gases	Plant design for large-scale commercial use with continuous flow systems has only recently been optimized	Maintaining the quality of food, ensuring its safety without compromising its nutritional value and health properties, inactivating degradative enzymes, eliminating spoilage-causing bacteria, facilitating the extraction of valuable ingredients with shorter extraction times and higher yields	[86–89]

The comparison of the different technologies shows that the conventional technologies are associated with various disadvantages and challenges, such as the generation of off-flavors or the negative influence on the properties of the product. For these reasons, innovative approaches are being explored to circumvent these drawbacks and consequently provide an efficient approach to the treatment of fish waste. In this context, the use of pulsed electric fields poses the greatest challenge since an application on an industrial scale is not feasible with the existing equipment. In contrast, the use of high hydrostatic pressure and ultrasound are promising approaches with few disadvantages and many advantages.

#### 4.1. Enzymatic Hydrolysis

Seafood and residuals have a beneficial nutritional value. Enzymatic hydrolysis is a process that can be used to extract these proteins. Enzymatic hydrolysis is based on the cleavage of peptide bonds in proteins with simultaneous incorporation of water [90]. These reactions result in smaller peptides and free amino acids that are more water soluble

compared to the original protein. The peptide obtained by using enzymatic hydrolysis are of short sequences of two to twenty amino acids [20,91].

Fish residuals have a high potential for the production of valuable hydrolyzed products. Today, most of the fish processing side-streams are used to produce products with low market value [3]. Peptides obtained by enzymatic hydrolysis have been shown to have multiple bioactives, like anti-oxidation or antimicrobial effects [20,91,92]. These properties are not active when the peptides are enclosed in proteins.

In addition to proteins, seafood residuals may also have a high content of lipids [66]. Enzymatic hydrolysis can separate lipids from proteins in a mild and reproducible manner, so this method has already been investigated as an alternative for fish oil extraction [93,94]. This application can avoid organic solvents that are often needed for the extraction of oil, and since only moderate heating is required, the nutritional components of the oil can be preserved. Šližyte et al. [66] suggested that oil should be separated from the raw material prior to hydrolysis since an increased oil quality and an increased productivity of the hydrolysis could be obtained. Lipids that are present in the protein hydrolysates may result in a darkening of the fish protein hydrolysates (FPH); therefore, the removal of fat from a fatty fish is often required. The amount of oil is related to the part of fish as well as to the amount, and the viscera usually has about 10% more lipids compared to heads and frames [95].

A high number of studies have been carried out on the properties and potential uses of fish side-streams and by-products during the last decade (Table 1). Studies in the latest years include Sockeye heads [96]; Atlantic cod backbones; Atlantic salmon backbones/frames [66,97]; salmon viscera [62,98]; Atlantic salmon heads, frames, and viscera [66,99,100]; rainbow trout heads [101]; rainbow trout byproducts [102]; mackerel heads, frames, and viscera [103]; fish waste [104]; heads, skins, and bones from fish discards [17]; heads and bone frames from catfish [105]; viscera from red tilapia [106]; squid byproducts [107]; and frame and head from tilapia [108].

Enzymatic hydrolysis can be performed using endogenous or exogenous enzymes. Endogenous are naturally present in the raw material, and the production of fish silage is an example of enzymatic hydrolysis performed by these enzymes [103]. Enzymatic hydrolysis by proteases present in the digestive system of the fish was audited by [109]. Although their usage is an economical choice, the standardization of the procedure is difficult due to seasonal factors, type and number of enzymes, fish species, and by-product fraction. In contrast, exogenous enzymes are more suitable for producing food-grade protein hydrolysates [103], since these enzymes are reproducible. The proteases have specific pH levels that they require. Adjusting the pH can lead to high salt contents in the hydrolysates [103].

The use of exogenous enzymes can also increase the price range. Šližytė et al. [66] also showed that using exogenous enzymes relates to higher oil recovery. Exogenous enzymes can be derived from animals, plants, and microbes [20]. The endogenous enzymes are inactivated prior to enzymatic hydrolysis in some studies due to undesirable modes of action [99]. Lapeña et al. [62] conducted a study with salmon viscera, showing that endogenous enzymes are significant in increasing the yield of extracted ingredients during enzymatic hydrolysis.

Together with the optimal temperature and pH range, other factors are also important for the optimization of the enzymatic hydrolysis. Raw materials are often mixed with water prior to enzymatic hydrolysis. However, water is not always used (e.g., when viscera is subjected to enzymatic hydrolysis) and increases the processing costs linked to the drying process [98]. However, a proper dilution can maximize the product yield [103].

For industrial-scale oil extraction, unlike laboratory-scale where addition may reduce oil yield and quality, water might be required to mix the materials. The addition of water to the raw material has been shown to reduce the oil recovery due to the facilitation of the emulsion layer [66,99]. However, [66] also observed the lowest oil yield when water is added. This was likely due to oil entrapped in the viscous mixture, hindering separation

of the oil. Kvangarsnes et al. (2021) observed only trace amounts of emulsion when performing a lab-scale hydrolysis of trout heads with the addition of water to the raw material at a 1:1 ratio [101].

The degree of hydrolysis is commonly used to quantify the progress of the reaction. To be able to evaluate the reaction in terms of its rate of progress, the degree of hydrolysis is often used in practice. This degree refers more precisely to the quotient of the number of released peptide bonds and existing bonds in the native protein. Araujo et al. [104] investigated the relationship between the degree of hydrolysis and the recovery of ingredients. A positive relationship has been observed for the recovery of proteins and oil, while the inverse linear relationship was observed between the degree of hydrolysis and collagen.

The maritime taste, as well as the associated flavors that result from hydrolysis and a release of small hydrophobic peptides of less than 10 amino acids, pose a major hurdle in terms of acceptance process [61,103]. Aspevik et al. [103] also investigated the sensory attributes in hydrolysates from different rest raw materials prepared under comparable process conditions. In this case, the challenges could be addressed either by masking the bitter taste or by removing these peptides [61]. Recent studies demonstrated that the choice of enzyme together with the processing conditions may reduce this bitterness [66,103]. Petrova et al. [110] compared the bitterness of hydrolysates produced by different enzymes, with a combination of papain and bromelain resulting in the least bitterness. Slizyte et al. [66] found that a mixture of papain and bromelain initially increased the bitterness of the hydrolysates, but then decreased in the further course after 60 min. Different residuals from fish will contain other compounds that can influence the bitterness of protein hydrolysates. In addition, protein hydrolysates will also contain other tastes and flavors, and compounds like trimethylamine oxide and biogenic amines [103,111].

#### 4.2. Thermal Treatment

Thermal treatments have been used for centuries as one of the oldest food preservation and processing methods [112]. The main purpose of this method is to inactivate pathogenic microorganisms and endogenous enzymes to ensure food safety and modify the texture, composition, and color of foods to make them acceptable for consumers, including an increase in digestibility and shelf life [113]. Today, traditional heat treatments [114] have been partially replaced by advanced processing methods such as microwave treatment [115], ohmic heating [116] and infrared heating [70].

##### 4.2.1. Conventional Thermal Heating Techniques

Conventional thermal treatment results in denaturation of proteins, including their aggregation and coagulation, which affect the quality of extracted lipids and proteins. At the same time, conventional treatment is heterogeneous and may result in yield and quality variations of the recovered ingredients. Since seafood products are highly sensitive to thermal treatments, overheating can affect their nutritional value, bioactive properties and sensory parameters (Maillard reaction products formation) [64,114]. Therefore, several research investigations were conducted to optimize the temperature and time used during the heat treatment to monitor liquid loss, sensory properties, microbiological decontamination, protein oxidation, and digestibility [111,117,118]. Traditionally, a fish oil extraction process refers to wet heat pressing method or mild cooking under vacuum applied to whole pelagic fish or cod liver in three steps: treating at high temperature (85–95 °C), pressing and centrifugation to obtain crude fish oil/cod liver oil, and refining the steps to suit edible purposes [112].

Normally, sardines (*Sardina pilchardus*) are processed directly into the fish oil or canned. The use of discards from the canning industry (by cooking at 95 °C for 12 min followed by pressing) gives an oil suitable as a raw fraction [119]. Processing of oily by-products such as salmon backbones usually results in high amounts of oil or proteins, but only one of them can be of high quality, depending on technology. As an alternative to conventional cooking, a two-stage processing method was proposed. The first step: thermal separation of the

oil at a mild 40 °C; the second step: enzymatic hydrolysis of the remaining protein-rich fraction. As a result, up to 85% of high-quality oil fraction is separated in the first stage, and good quality fish protein hydrolysates are produced with fewer enzymes in the second stage [66].

#### 4.2.2. Novel Thermal Heating Techniques

##### Microwave Cooking

Microwave cooking may be used for the extraction of lipid and protein compounds from fishery side-streams [68]. This technique is characterized by the conversion of electromagnetic energy into thermal energy, and is industrially used for drying, pre-cooking, and other applications like pasteurization or microwave-assisted extraction [68]. Microwave treatment of grass carp decreased the cooking loss and maintained a compact structure of meat, while maintaining uniform salt distribution compared to traditional water bath cooking [120]. This is due to the formation of high-quality products as a result of the volumetric temperature increase and the more advantageous coagulation of proteins [68]. At the same time, microwave treatment enabled the preservation of polyunsaturated fatty acids in northern pike tissue [121]. Cooking of thermo-sensitive products such as crayfish showed that microwave treatment results in higher cooking uniformity. However, the flesh inside the tail of crayfish was more susceptible to overheating during the microwave treatment compared to conventional cooking in boiling water [67]. Microwave treatment has been used for novel microwave-assisted extraction of lipids [122] as an alternative to Bligh and Dyer [123], Soxhlet [124], and Folch et al. [125] extraction methods. Due to total rupture of the fish tissue under microwave treatment, lipids can be easier released and migrate more efficiently into the solvent. The extraction time can be reduced by 90% with a decrease in solvent consumption by 25% [122].

##### Ohmic Heating

Ohmic heating can be used for assisted extraction of lipid and protein compounds from seafood side-streams. Here, food is heated by the flow of electric current. From this follows a faster heating as well as the preservation of the nutritional value and sensory characteristics. Applications of ohmic heating are mainly limited to microbial inactivation, electroporation, inactivation of enzymes and heating of meat products [69]. However, the ability of generating pores in cell membranes opens a possibility of applying ohmic heating for mild extraction of valuable compounds from seafood raw material. A research investigation on its use for the treatment of surimi has shown that this technique may reduce the decomposition of myosin and actin, while retaining the structure and resulting in greater water retention, better color preservation, and higher concentration of sulfhydryl compounds [83]. The drawback of this method was non-uniform heating with the formation of local hot spots and cold spots [83].

##### Infrared Heating Technology

Infrared heating technology helps to extract high-value compounds from seafood rest raw materials. This technique is highly energy efficient and uses a part of the electromagnetic spectrum with wavelength range from 0.5 to 100 µm. Infrared heating causes vibrations of water molecules on a product surface and an in-depth penetration depending on the wavelength range and product properties. As a result, the product is heated, and the surface is dried. However, this treatment may increase peroxide value, due to free radical reaction, along with an increase in the number of tocopherols, due to the rupture of cell walls. Nevertheless, infrared heating inhibits the growth of bacteria, spores, yeasts, and mold and inactivate proteolytic enzymes [70]. Due to weak surface penetration, ohmic pre-cooking or combined treatment are recommended for enhanced heat treatment [71].

### 4.3. Extraction Techniques

#### 4.3.1. Chemical Extraction

Chemical extraction is a conventional method of extraction applying of an acid and/or alkali for recovery of valuable compounds from different food products, including seafood. Nowadays, this method is successfully applied for the extraction of collagen/gelatin, chitin and chitosan, astaxanthin, vitamins, and minerals from marine raw materials and side-streams. Collagen, as a natural protein polymer, can be found in various connective tissues. It has a wide use in different areas including cosmetic, pharmaceutical, food, and medicine industries [126]. Marine fish normally contains type 1 collagen in skin and bones [127].

The major methods for extraction of collagen/gelatin from various parts of fish species are acid solubilization and pepsin solubilization. Pepsin solubilization produces pepsin-soluble collagen and is more efficient because it leads to higher amount of collagen [127].

Fish side-streams such as skin, fins, swim bladder, and bones can be used for the preparation of type 1 collagen. Generally, in the first step of extraction, the fat is extracted by soaking the raw material in 10% butyl alcohol or another extraction solvent followed by addition of acetic acid. The relationship between the use of conventional chemical extraction and collagen yield has been studied scientifically on a number of occasions. Thus, the yield extracted from skin of Japanese seabass was 51.4%; for chub mackerel, 49.8%; for bullhead shark, 50.1%; for carp, 41.3%; for Bighead carp, 60.3%; for seabass, 15.8%; for Spanish mackerel, 13.68%; and for rohu, 78%. The chemical extraction gave a yield of collagen from the bones of skipjack tuna of 42.3%. For the recovery of collagen from fish bones of other fish, the chemical extraction gave the following yields: 40.7% for Japanese sea bass, 53.6% for ayu, 40.1% for yellow sea bream, 43.5% for horse mackerel, and 1.06% for carp. Bighead carp swim bladders produced 59% yield of collagen [128]. Under similar extraction conditions, salmon skins produced 19.6% collagen, while codfish skins gave a collagen yield of 10.9%. Normally, salmon skin is much easily solubilized under acidic conditions without a need for the re-extraction, compared to cod skin [129]. Thus, in the study of Alves et al. (2017) [129] salmon skin was completely solubilized after 72 h of acid treatment. However, the chemical extraction applied for recovery of collagen/gelatin varies from fish to fish. For example, cod skin is more resilient and needs further enzymatic extraction to recover collagen/gelatin [127].

Enzymatic treatment can be applied together with chemical extraction to assist the recovery of collagen/gelatin. Blanco et al. [126] extracted fish collagen from the skin of small-spotted catshark, blue shark, swordfish, and yellowfin tuna by using chemical and enzymatic treatments. The procedure included alkaline treatment (0.1 M NaOH for 24 h, 4 °C) followed by soaking in 10% butyl alcohol for swordfish and yellowfin tuna to remove fat. Collagen was extracted from the skin residues with 0.5 M acetic acid and 0.1% pepsin. A combination of chemical and enzymatic treatments yielded high-quality collagen in amount of 61.17% for blue shark, 33.00% for small-spotted catshark, 31.33% for yellowfin tuna, and 14.16% for swordfish. Similar treatments with acetic acid and different protease enzymes applied to bigeye tuna skin resulted in 3.05% collagen recovery. The application of trypsin and papain after acid treatment yielded soluble collagen which amounts up to 13.83% and 15.20%, respectively, while bromelain and pepsin resulted in much higher yields of soluble collagen (42.76% and 52.02%, respectively) [130]. The yield of collagen extracted from rabbitfish skin by treatment only with bromelain in a concentration of 1–2% for 2–6 h varied in the range of 3–6.5% of total skin amount, and the best treatment was found to be the use of 2% bromelain for 4 h [131].

Gelatin, as a natural biopolymer produced by thermal acidic, alkaline, or enzymatic degradation of collagen, is generally recovered by the same chemical extraction methods as collagen. Both gelatin and collagen are widely used as functional ingredients in the food industry and medicine because of their characteristic to form thermally reversible structures [132,133]. Some of the recent examples for chemical treatment of fish skin for gelatin production include the treatment of Atlantic cod skin at 50 °C for 3 h at pH 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 8.0, and 9.0, resulting in 51.1%, 51.2%, 55.4%, 49.3%, 49.1% gelatin yield, respectively,



with protein concentration of 86.5–92.8% [134]. The by-products from Alaska pollock and Pacific cod, treated by crab hepatopancreases or animal-derived proteinases for 4 h at 40 °C, produced 18% ± 2% dry fish gelatin powder [132].

Chemical extraction has also been used for the recovery of chitin and chitosan from crustaceans. Chitin is a polysaccharide obtained from shrimp and crab shells or fish scales. Chitin is utilized to produce a vast array of its oligomers as chitosan which is obtained by hydrolytic deacetylation of chitin [59]. The traditional methods for the recovery of chitin from shells of crustaceans are linked with issues such as high energy demand and hazards for the environment. It includes three steps: deproteinization with alkali treatment at high temperatures, demineralization using hydrochloric acid, and bleaching/dicoloration of the shell pigments [72]. With the help of alkaline proteases, it is possible to avoid deproteinization with alkali treatment of blue crab and shrimp shell waste and reach 85–93% deproteinization degree [135,136]. Lactic fermentation of *Allopetrolisthes punctatus* crabs for 60 h excludes chemical treatment and produces 92% yield of chitin compared to traditional chemical treatments [137].

Chemical treatments can also be applied for recovery of antioxidants from fish raw materials. One of the recent examples includes the treatment of fish side-streams with HCl (0.2–1.0 M) to demineralize raw materials and further deproteinize it with 0.1 M NaOH. These treatment steps resulted in increased antioxidant activities of the material. Furthermore, ethanol extraction was used to collect antioxidant-containing components from the treated material [138].

#### 4.3.2. Supercritical Fluid Extraction

Alternative, greener, and more sustainable extraction might be achieved using supercritical fluids. For instance, collagen can be applied using CO<sub>2</sub> acidified water, as it was shown in the study of [73] on collagen recovery from salt brine Atlantic cod skin. The investigation has shown that the water acidification by pressurized CO<sub>2</sub> at 50 bar and 37 °C for 3 h results in 13.8% yield of collagen.

### 5. Innovative Technological Pre-Treatments for Enhanced Extraction of Valuable Compounds from Seafood Side-Streams and Their Sensory Attributes

Various extraction processes have been developed so far to recover valuable compounds from marine raw materials, including enzymatic hydrolysis, chemical-assisted extraction, pressing and cooking under vacuum, etc. The main parameters to be considered during extraction processes are yield, safety, and quality of the obtained compounds. However, traditional methods of extraction listed above may result in degradation of bioactive compounds such as enzymes, thermolabile vitamins and polyphenols, as well as oxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids [113]. At the same time, conventional processing and extraction approaches may affect sensory quality of recovered compounds such as color, taste, bitterness, and texture due to structural and conformational changes in food molecules. Therefore, to improve the quality and increase the yield of valuable compounds recovered from a wide range of raw materials, including seafood side-streams, food professionals should constantly look for more advanced treatments and adapt new innovative processing technologies.

The constantly increasing market pressure for novel attractive ingredients with high bioactive and nutritional properties resulted in the emergence, further development, and use of non-thermal approaches, which exert minimal or no effect on the preservation of essential nutrients and sensory characteristics of food ingredients [81,88,139]. These advanced approaches have a potential to partially, or completely, replace the well-known and largely used conventional methods of extraction [140]. Non-thermal approaches are widely applied for extraction of valuable compounds from different raw materials including fruits, vegetables, seeds, meat, poultry, and seafood due to their ability to inhibit the activity of certain microorganisms and destroy cell walls of food matrices to enhance the release of bioactive compounds without destroying their bioactivity and nutritional profile [141].



The inhibition mechanism of non-thermal approaches is a key factor for the replacement of conventionally used thermal inactivation of enzymes during enzymatic hydrolysis of seafood raw material.

### 5.1. High Hydrostatic Pressure

High hydrostatic pressure (HHP) is a non-thermal, cold pasteurization technique involving the use of a liquid (normally water) as a medium for transferring the desired pressure to a product in a temperature range from 0 °C to 90 °C. A food product is sealed in its final packaging and further submerged in cold or room-temperature water within an enclosed vessel. The product is then subjected to hydrostatic pressure treatment (normally from 200 to 900 MPa) transmitted by the water. While HHP treatment involves continuous and rapid pressurization of the product without gradient and at low temperatures, the comparison between this and thermal processes is often found in the literature, where HHP seems to be more suitable to preserve the food products without affecting the product properties [74,79,142]. Currently, this approach has mostly been applied for inactivation of enzymes and microorganisms [143] in food products like meat [144,145] and fish [24]. This approach has also been widely applied for inactivation of spoilage bacteria in fruits [79,146,147] and in the juice industry [148–150].

However, besides the cold pasteurization effect, HHP may be used as non-thermal pre-treatment prior to enzymatic hydrolysis to assist the enzymatic hydrolysis of both plant-based and animal-based raw material, including seafood to increase the yield and functional and nutritional properties of recovered peptides [75,77]. To accelerate the hydrolysis procedure, a higher number of the binding sites of protein molecules should be exposed to the enzymatic attack. In this regard, mild HHP treatment (300–400 MPa) can be applied to induce protein unfolding [151]. High pressure leads to structural and conformational changes of proteins, which improve the efficiency of the enzymatic cleavage [75,151]. Moreover, HHP may increase the activity of certain enzymes during the hydrolysis of proteins [152]. The increased enzymatic activity and exposure of susceptible peptide bonds to enzymatic cleavage results in faster proteolysis and reduced duration of hydrolysis [153]. Other advantages of HHP over enzymatic hydrolysis include better protein digestibility and antioxidant activity of the resulting hydrolysates [75].

However, the beneficial effect of HHP on proteolysis may vary depending on extrinsic and intrinsic factors, such as processing conditions and type of raw material matrix (soft/hard texture, fish mince, small/big pieces, protein concentrate) [79]. An increase in yield of the desired substances during extraction by increasing the pressure to the critical value is associated with a resulting cell permeability [80,154]. Normally, the operating high hydrostatic pressure conditions are in the range of 100–1000 MPa at a temperature of 5–35 °C depending on the food product and target compounds to be extracted [80]. However, the best yield results for both animal and plant proteins were reported for mild HHP-treatments [75,77,152].

Different studies [75,77,155] analyzed the effect of HHP treatment on the yield as well as the quality of extracted compounds, suggesting that both intrinsic factors such the nature of raw material (plant-based or animal-based), structure, physical state of the food matrix, physicochemical and biochemical properties of the product, and extrinsic factors are relevant parameters to affect the final yield of the extracted compounds. Interestingly, it was also revealed that HHP treatment may increase the number of bioactive compounds extracted from both plant and animal-based tissues, thus enhancing the antioxidant activity of the recovered ingredients. This phenomenon occurs due to pressure-induced damages in the cellular matrix, enhanced mass transfer, and the release of matrix-bound bioactive compounds such as vitamins and certain enzymes, as well as increase in soluble protein content due to unfolding of protein structures resulting in higher fractionation of proteins during enzymatic proteolysis and generating smaller peptides with high antioxidant activity [75,77,156–159].

During the past 30 years, from the position of an emerging processing method, HHP has transformed into an industrially reliable and commercially available option in many countries. Thus, it can be successfully used at the seafood processing companies to enhance enzymatic hydrolysis of marine raw material and optimize the amount and the quality of recovered protein hydrolysates.

### 5.2. Pulsed Electric Field

Pulsed electric field (PEF) is another non-thermal approach, which is used to assist extraction of precious protein compounds from marine raw material. Today, PEF is mainly used to soften plant tissues, especially in potato processing, such as in the french fries industry, to ensure safety, high quality, and nutritional value, as well as to increase the shelf life [81,160]. A typical PEF treatment involves the application of short electric pulses (1–100  $\mu$ s) in a wide range of electric field intensities (low-, moderate-, and high-field intensity). This treatment leads to reversible and irreversible permeabilization of cell membranes [81,88,161,162]. Permeabilization of plant cells is normally reversible and occurs under low PEF intensities (0.1–1  $\text{kV cm}^{-1}$ ), resulting in the release of intracellular compounds through a generated, temporary permeability of the cell membrane. This procedure is currently applied to enhance the extractability in the processing of different agri-food raw materials, but may also be applied for extraction of thermolabile compounds from animal-based matrices [80–82,84,163].

Moderate intensities (1–5  $\text{kV cm}^{-1}$ ) result in irreversible permeabilization of both plant and animal cells, while high intensities (15–70  $\text{kV cm}^{-1}$ ) lead to the same effect for microbial cells [81]. Thus, the application of high PEF intensities may help to inactivate or inhibit proteolytic and degradative enzymes in seafood raw materials prior to enzymatic hydrolysis, as well as spoilage bacteria and other microorganisms present in seafood, thereby providing safety and neutralizing endogenous enzymes prior to hydrolysis for the controlled extraction of proteins [164]. Moreover, the PEF technique, as a cold pasteurization approach, is considered a reliable emerging approach able to ensure a significant microbial inactivation in liquid and semi-liquid food matrices with a minor impact on nutritional value, physicochemical quality parameters, and a number of health-beneficial compounds. Despite the fact that the intensity for microbial decontamination purposes may reach values equal or above  $\text{kV cm}^{-1}$  with a total energy supplied to the product of 40–100  $\text{kJ L}^{-1}$ , the product temperature can be kept below 40 °C [165]. Therefore, one of the main benefits of PEF application for extraction of valuable protein compounds from seafood raw material is a very short exposure time to a pulsed electric field, eliminating the chance of heating. Therefore, undesirable transformations in the food matrix interrelated with high temperatures (oxidation, destruction of vitamins, and protein aggregation, etc.), are eliminated [166]. However, electroporation may still induce the oxidation of lipids rich in polyunsaturated fatty acids due to a free radical chain reaction mechanism, as it was shown in the study of Cropotova [167]. Fish protein hydrolysates obtained from fatty fish species, such as trout or salmon, normally contain small amounts of lipids which may further trigger protein oxidation reactions due to the influence of high electrical pulses. However, this potential disadvantage should be thoroughly studied for each separate fish species hydrolysate. Similar to the PEF-assisted recovery of high-quality compounds from plant- and animal-based raw materials based on permeability and/or rupture of cell membranes [80–82,84,163,168], this approach may successfully be applied for extraction of protein ingredients from seafood [164].

Fish protein hydrolysates contain small bioactive peptides (<3 kDa) with strong antioxidant activities with beneficial properties like a high nutritional value. Conventional extraction methods such as isoelectric precipitation, acid/alkaline pretreatment, or enzymatic hydrolysis can negatively affect the properties of the extracted proteins. Acid/alkaline pretreatment and enzymatic hydrolysis have been already explained above. Isoelectric precipitation can be achieved by adding acid or alkaline and shifting the pH until proteins and peptides reach their isoelectric point with reduced solubility. Contrarily,

PEF is a non-thermal emerging approach which helps to avoid thermal and acid/alkaline pre-treatments during extraction of proteins from raw biomaterials [23], and can further benefit the properties by activating biological activities [169,170]. However, a high-intensity electric field could also result in aggregation of proteins [171].

Recently, the PEF technique has been applied to enhance the recovery of proteins from marine raw material. The maximum extraction yield of mussel protein achieved after the application of PEF treatment was, for example, 77.08% (*w/w*), which is significantly higher in comparison to traditional methods of extraction [172], while PEF-assisted enzymatic hydrolysis of abalone raw material enabled the recovery of a hydrolyzed, high-quality abalone viscera protein with high yield and beneficial emulsifying characteristics [173].

Thus, PEF treatment can be successfully applied as a pre-treatment method before enzymatic hydrolysis of marine raw material [170]. This was very well demonstrated in the mentioned study of Li, Lin, Chen, and Fang (2016) [173] about viscera protein. Under the optimal PEF extraction conditions (intensity strength of  $20 \text{ kV cm}^{-1}$ , treatment time of 600 s, ratio of material to solvent 4:1), a fully hydrolyzed product with high yield and improved characteristics was obtained compared to conventional enzymatic extraction.

PEF-assisted extraction has proven to be a promising approach for the recovery of various compounds from seafood raw materials and by-products including chitosan, collagen, calcium, chondroitin, lipids, and proteins [174,175]. However, regardless of all the advantages of PEF treatments listed above, until now this technology remains a challenge for industrial up-scaling and commercial use due to lack of reliable equipment that could be used under industrial conditions [80,176].

### 5.3. Ultrasound

Ultrasound (US) technology (otherwise called ultrasonication) is also one of the promising non-thermal approaches for this task. “Ultrasound” represents sound waves that exceed the human audible frequency range, i.e., are greater than 20 kHz. The main principle of ultrasound is reflection and scattering of acoustic waves originated from molecular movements oscillating in a propagation medium and generating compressions and decompressions which further result in an increase in mass transfer, turbulence, and production of energy [86]. At present, US is considered an emerging technology with a great potential and number of applications in many fields [87]. Being already a well-known and well-established approach in many processing sectors in the 1990s, it has recently gained an increased interest among food professionals and consumers due to its ability to preserve quality and guarantee safety of food products without deteriorating their nutritional value and health properties, as well as to extract high value compounds from different raw materials [87,88].

High-intensity sonication ( $20\text{--}100 \text{ kHz}$ ,  $>1 \text{ W cm}^{-2}$ ) waves induce acoustic cavitation due to the generation and further collapse of bigger bubbles, releasing a high amount of energy [86]. Low frequencies of ultrasound ( $5\text{--}10 \text{ MHz}$ ,  $<1 \text{ W cm}^{-2}$ ) lead to unstable cavitation and the bursting of bubbles above 20 kHz. At higher frequencies ( $>1 \text{ MHz}$ ), however, the effect of acoustic flow becomes predominant [87]. Low-energy sonication waves are mainly used for non-destructive methods of analysis in medicine, cosmetics, and the food industry, as well as in quality control (homogenization and/or emulsification efficiency, container filling control and fluid flow) [177,178]. High intensity (from 10 to  $1000 \text{ W cm}^{-2}$ ) and low-frequency (from 20 to 100 kHz) ultrasound is considered disruptive due to detrimental influence on the physical (including structure and mechanical properties), physicochemical and biochemical characteristics of biological materials in contrast to low-energy ultrasonic waves. This phenomenon found a wide application in the food industry for improved emulsification and foaming operations, freezing and thawing, concentration, drying, tenderization, as well as control and modification of microstructure and textural properties of fatty and protein-rich foods [61,179–181]. Because of cavitation produced by the high-intensity US, this technology is also used in the seafood industry to inactivate degradative enzymes, eliminate spoilage bacteria, and optimize extraction, while reducing adverse

effects [89,182]. A large number of various classes of compounds have effectively been extracted from different seafood raw materials by using US [175,183–185]. The ultrasound assisted extraction procedure can be explained by the mechanical break of the cell wall through the implosion of bubbles and thus facilitating the penetration of the solvent into the cells and enhancing the release of intracellular material into the medium [186–188]. Therefore, this approach has occupied a special niche in the seafood and food processing industry for the facilitated extraction of valuable ingredients aiming to decrease the extraction time and increase the yield of isolated compounds with less detrimental changes in the quality parameters due to lower processing temperatures [87,175,184,185,188]. This approach has become an efficient technique for industrial applications already for a decade, the equipment design for commercial large-scale use with continuous-flow systems has only been optimized recently [87].

## 6. Emerging Biotech Approaches

Aquaculture is strongly connected to agriculture due to the required feed and its production, which is responsible for 87% of aquaculture GHG emission [189]. Contrarily, as outlined above, aquaculture produces large amounts of side-streams and residuals. Thus, using a novel biotechnology approach as feed for aquacultures can be directly produced from side-streams and residuals, with aquaculture disconnected from agriculture and consequently GHG emissions minimized. The recently started European project “ClimAqua” is specifically focusing on such an approach. In “ClimAqua”, the disconnection of aqua- and agriculture is reached by case- and location-specific side-streams and residuals valorization in feed production via the cultivation of microalgae. This strategy of feed production can be case-specific and adapted to the species reared in aquaculture. The result can be an almost completely digestible feed. Furthermore, a biotechnological side-stream and residuals utilization approach can not only contribute to the use of protein materials, but also to the use of sludge and wastewater. It can be carried out decentralized (on place processing) where aquacultures are located, which minimizes transportation of side-streams, residuals, and feed. ClimAqua considers a full recirculation of aquaculture side-streams as feedstocks in algal biomass, and thus livestock feed production. Wastewater and sludge streams cannot be avoided and require treatment. Particularly, avoidance measures are often beyond the stakeholders’ capacities involved in aquaculture industries [190]. Valorizing side-streams would not only make a treatment, such as incineration, unnecessary, which alone already contributes to a reduction in GHG emission, but would allow the climate beneficial and cost-efficient production of new feed. In ClimAqua, the sludge resulting from aquaculture, consisting of residues from the animals as well as the unused feed, is hydrolyzed and fed to heterotrophic algal strains. Contrarily, phototrophic strains do not grow on hydrolytic products and require nitrate as well as phosphate present in enormous amounts in wastewater from aquaculture. Recirculation of those nutrients would minimize the environmental impact of aquaculture, minimize GHG emissions, and pave the way to resilient aquaculture-based food system by 2050 and improve conditions of an advancing climate change. ClimAqua aims for a flexible algal biomass production system not limited to certain geographic areas and climate zones. For instance, it will be tested in South Africa (moderate and subtropical climate) and Norway (temperate and marine climate). The long sunshine duration over the year in South Africa is beneficial to a phototrophic cultivation, while the relatively long dark duration in Norway indicates a heterotrophic cultivation. It is expected that making use of regional environmental conditions, such as temperature and sunshine duration, can contribute to GHG emission deduction by reduced temperature regulation and artificial illumination. The development of bioprocesses which are adapted to climate and available nutrients is an emerging approach, and necessary to cope with future challenges.

## 7. Conclusions and Future Prospects

Different approaches to the future treatment of fish waste were investigated and compared. The different approaches have some advantages and disadvantages, which define their applicability. Since the traditional methods are associated with many disadvantages, innovative novel approaches can be a feasible alternative. Their potential benefit is based on the biomass transformation with biological means (fermentation, cultivation, hydrolysis) which avoids potential biological and chemical contamination hazards. It is expected that a combination of approaches and technologies would result in the development of sustainable production chains and emergence of new biobased products.

**Author Contributions:** S.A.S.: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Data Curation, Writing—Original Draft, Writing—Review & Editing, Visualization, Project administration. H.S.: Software, Data Curation, Writing—Original Draft. D.P.: Validation, Resources, Writing—Original Draft, Writing—Review & Editing. S.S. (Stephanie Schönfelder): Data Curation, Writing—Original Draft. K.K.: Writing—Original Draft, Validation. E.D.: Writing—Original Draft, Data Curation, Investigation. T.R.: Writing—Original Draft, Writing—Review & Editing, Visualization. J.C.: Writing—Original Draft, Validation. V.H.: Validation, Writing—Review & Editing, Funding acquisition. S.S. (Sergiy Smetana): Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Resources, Supervision, Funding acquisition. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

**Funding:** The authors acknowledge the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) for providing funding within the Era-Net Cofund “FACCE SURPLUS” (Project UpWaste 031B0934) and the Era-Net Cofund “FOSC-ERA” (Project ClimAqua 2821ERA12) Programs. Norwegian University of Science and Technology acknowledges Norwegian Research Council (NRC) for providing funding for project No. 327695 of BIONÆR-Bionæringsprogram as a part of the Era-Net Cofund “FOSC-ERA”. This research is funded by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF), in the frame of FACCE-SURPLUS/FACCE-JPI project UpWaste, grant numbers 031B0934A and 031B0934B, and by the National (Polish) Centre for Research and Development (NCBiR) (Project FACCE SURPLUS/III/UpWaste/02/2020).

**Institutional Review Board Statement:** Not applicable.

**Informed Consent Statement:** Not applicable.

**Data Availability Statement:** Data is contained within the article.

**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## References

1. Wang, M.; Zhou, J.; Selma-Royo, M.; Simal-Gandara, J.; Collado, M.C.; Barba, F.J. Potential Benefits of High-Added-Value Compounds from Aquaculture and Fish Side Streams on Human Gut Microbiota. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2021**, *112*, 484–494. [[CrossRef](#)]
2. Willett, W.; Rockström, J.; Loken, B.; Springmann, M.; Lang, T.; Vermeulen, S.; Garnett, T.; Tilman, D.; DeClerck, F.; Wood, A.; et al. Food in the Anthropocene: The EAT–Lancet Commission on Healthy Diets from Sustainable Food Systems. *Lancet* **2019**, *393*, 447–492. [[CrossRef](#)]
3. Välimaa, A.-L.; Mäkinen, S.; Mattila, P.; Marnila, P.; Pihlanto, A.; Mäki, M.; Hiidenhovi, J. Fish and Fish Side Streams Are Valuable Sources of High-Value Components. *Food Qual. Saf.* **2019**, *3*, 209–226. [[CrossRef](#)]
4. Alonso-Miravalles, L.; Zannini, E.; Bez, J.; Arendt, E.K.; O’Mahony, J.A. Thermal and Mineral Sensitivity of Oil-in-Water Emulsions Stabilised Using Lentil Proteins. *Foods* **2020**, *9*, 453. [[CrossRef](#)]
5. van Vliet, S.; Kronberg, S.L.; Provenza, F.D. Plant-Based Meats, Human Health, and Climate Change. *Front. Sustain. Food Syst.* **2020**, *4*, 128. [[CrossRef](#)]
6. Gregg, J.S.; Jürgens, J.; Happel, M.K.; Strøm-Andersen, N.; Tanner, A.N.; Bolwig, S.; Klitkou, A. Valorization of Bio-Residuals in the Food and Forestry Sectors in Support of a Circular Bioeconomy: A Review. *J. Clean. Prod.* **2020**, *267*, 122093. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Pateiro, M.; Domínguez, R.; Varzakas, T.; Munekata, P.E.S.; Movilla Fierro, E.; Lorenzo, J.M. Omega-3-Rich Oils from Marine Side Streams and Their Potential Application in Food. *Mar. Drugs* **2021**, *19*, 233. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
8. Gullón, B.; Gagaaoua, M.; Barba, F.J.; Gullón, P.; Zhang, W.; Lorenzo, J.M. Seaweeds as Promising Resource of Bioactive Compounds: Overview of Novel Extraction Strategies and Design of Tailored Meat Products. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2020**, *100*, 1–18. [[CrossRef](#)]



9. Abejón, R.; Belleville, M.P.; Sanchez-Marcano, J.; Garea, A.; Irabien, A. Optimal Design of Industrial Scale Continuous Process for Fractionation by Membrane Technologies of Protein Hydrolysate Derived from Fish Wastes. *Sep. Purif. Technol.* **2018**, *197*, 137–146. [CrossRef]
10. Al Khawli, F.; Pateiro, M.; Domínguez, R.; Lorenzo, J.M.; Gullón, P.; Kousoulaki, K.; Ferrer, E.; Berrada, H.; Barba, F.J. Innovative Green Technologies of Intensification for Valorization of Seafood and Their By-Products. *Mar. Drugs* **2019**, *17*, 689. [CrossRef]
11. Tørris, C.; Småstuen, M.C.; Molin, M. Nutrients in Fish and Possible Associations with Cardiovascular Disease Risk Factors in Metabolic Syndrome. *Nutrients* **2018**, *10*, 952. [CrossRef]
12. Zhang, Y.; Sun, Q.; Liu, S.; Wei, S.; Xia, Q.; Ji, H.; Deng, C.; Hao, J. Extraction of Fish Oil from Fish Heads Using Ultra-High Pressure Pre-Treatment Prior to Enzymatic Hydrolysis. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2021**, *70*, 102670. [CrossRef]
13. FAO. *The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2020*; FAO: Rome, Italy, 2020; ISBN 978-92-5-132692-3.
14. Wennberg, A. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. In *Encyclopedia of Toxicology*; Elsevier: Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 2014; pp. 628–630, ISBN 9780123864543.
15. Marti-Quijal, F.J.; Remize, F.; Meca, G.; Ferrer, E.; Ruiz, M.-J.; Barba, F.J. Fermentation in Fish and By-Products Processing: An Overview of Current Research and Future Prospects. *Curr. Opin. Food Sci.* **2020**, *31*, 9–16. [CrossRef]
16. Maschmeyer, T.; Luque, R.; Selva, M. Upgrading of Marine (Fish and Crustaceans) Biowaste for High Added-Value Molecules and Bio(Nano)-Materials. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **2020**, *49*, 4527–4563. [CrossRef]
17. Vázquez, J.; Meduñá, A.; Durán, A.; Nogueira, M.; Fernández-Compás, A.; Pérez-Martín, R.; Rodríguez-Amado, I. Production of Valuable Compounds and Bioactive Metabolites from By-Products of Fish Discards Using Chemical Processing, Enzymatic Hydrolysis, and Bacterial Fermentation. *Mar. Drugs* **2019**, *17*, 139. [CrossRef]
18. Zou, Y.; Robbens, J.; Heyndrickx, M.; Debode, J.; Raes, K. Bioprocessing of Marine Crustacean Side-streams into Bioactives: A Review. *J. Chem. Technol. Biotechnol.* **2021**, *96*, 1465–1474. [CrossRef]
19. Sar, T.; Ferreira, J.A.; Taherzadeh, M.J. Bioprocessing Strategies to Increase the Protein Fraction of *Rhizopus Oryzae* Biomass Using Fish Industry Sidestreams. *Waste Manag.* **2020**, *113*, 261–269. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
20. Ucak, I.; Afreen, M.; Montesano, D.; Carrillo, C.; Tomasevic, I.; Simal-Gandara, J.; Barba, F.J. Functional and Bioactive Properties of Peptides Derived from Marine Side Streams. *Mar. Drugs* **2021**, *19*, 71. [CrossRef]
21. Singh, A.; Ahmad, S.; Ahmad, A. Green Extraction Methods and Environmental Applications of Carotenoids—a Review. *RSC Adv.* **2015**, *5*, 62358–62393. [CrossRef]
22. Poojary, M.; Barba, F.; Aliakbarian, B.; Donsi, F.; Pataro, G.; Dias, D.; Juliano, P. Innovative Alternative Technologies to Extract Carotenoids from Microalgae and Seaweeds. *Mar. Drugs* **2016**, *14*, 214. [CrossRef]
23. Zhang, Z.; Wang, S.; Li, C. Effect of N-3 Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids on Dopaminergic Neurons in Substantia Nigra, Brain Inflammatory Response and Behavior in Mice with Parkinson’s Disease. *Trop. J. Pharm. Res.* **2021**, *18*, 767–772. [CrossRef]
24. Cropotova, J.; Mozuraityte, R.; Standal, I.B.; Ojha, S.; Rustad, T.; Tiwari, B. Influence of High-Pressure Processing on Quality Attributes of Haddock and Mackerel Minces during Frozen Storage, and Fishcakes Prepared Thereof. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2020**, *59*, 102236. [CrossRef]
25. Hassoun, A.; Ojha, S.; Tiwari, B.; Rustad, T.; Nilsen, H.; Heia, K.; Cozzolino, D.; Bekhit, A.E.-D.; Biancolillo, A.; Wold, J.P. Monitoring Thermal and Non-Thermal Treatments during Processing of Muscle Foods: A Comprehensive Review of Recent Technological Advances. *Appl. Sci.* **2020**, *10*, 6802. [CrossRef]
26. Index Mundi. Available online: <https://www.indexmundi.com> (accessed on 14 December 2022).
27. Zhao, Y.; Cao, H.; Qin, H.; Cheng, T.; Qian, S.; Cheng, M.; Peng, X.; Wang, J.; Zhang, Y.; Jin, G.; et al. Balancing the Osteogenic and Antibacterial Properties of Titanium by Codoping of Mg and Ag: An in Vitro and in Vivo Study. *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* **2015**, *7*, 17826–17836. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
28. Jiang, B.; Liang, S.; Yuan, W. Observational Evidence for Impacts of Vegetation Change on Local Surface Climate over Northern China Using the Granger Causality Test. *J. Geophys. Res. Biogeosciences* **2015**, *120*, 1–12. [CrossRef]
29. Altieri, M.A.; Koohafkan, P. Globally Important Ingenious Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS): Extent, Significance, and Implications for Development. In Proceedings of the Second International Workshop and Steering Committee Meeting for the Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS) Project, Rome, Italy, 7–9 June 2004.
30. Fraval, S.; Hammond, J.; Bogard, J.R.; Ng’endo, M.; van Etten, J.; Herrero, M.; Oosting, S.J.; de Boer, I.J.M.; Lannerstad, M.; Teufel, N.; et al. Food Access Deficiencies in Sub-Saharan Africa: Prevalence and Implications for Agricultural Interventions. *Front. Sustain. Food Syst.* **2019**, *3*, 104. [CrossRef]
31. Swinburn, B.A.; Kraak, V.I.; Allender, S.; Atkins, V.J.; Baker, P.I.; Bogard, J.R.; Brinsden, H.; Calvillo, A.; De Schutter, O.; Devarajan, R.; et al. The Global Syndemic of Obesity, Undernutrition, and Climate Change: The Lancet Commission Report. *Lancet* **2019**, *393*, 791–846. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
32. Mutalipassi, M.; Esposito, R.; Ruocco, N.; Viel, T.; Costantini, M.; Zupo, V. Bioactive Compounds of Nutraceutical Value from Fishery and Aquaculture Discards. *Foods* **2021**, *10*, 1495. [CrossRef]
33. Coppola, A.; Salatino, P.; Montagnaro, F.; Scala, F. Hydration-Induced Reactivation of Spent Sorbents for Fluidized Bed Calcium Looping (Double Looping). *Fuel Process. Technol.* **2014**, *120*, 71–78. [CrossRef]
34. Rotter, A.; Barbier, M.; Bertoni, F.; Bones, A.M.; Cancela, M.L.; Carlsson, J.; Carvalho, M.F.; Cegłowska, M.; Chirivella-Martorell, J.; Conk Dalay, M.; et al. The Essentials of Marine Biotechnology. *Front. Mar. Sci.* **2021**, *8*, 158. [CrossRef]



35. Sanz-Lazaro, C.; Sanchez-Jerez, P. Mussels Do Not Directly Assimilate Fish Farm Wastes: Shifting the Rationale of Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture to a Broader Scale. *J. Environ. Manag.* **2017**, *201*, 82–88. [[CrossRef](#)]
36. Arias, A.H.; Menendez, M.C. *Marine Ecology in a Changing World*; Arias, A.H., Menendez, M.C., Eds.; CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL, USA, 2013; ISBN 9780429073854.
37. Neori, A.; Chopin, T.; Troell, M.; Buschmann, A.H.; Kraemer, G.P.; Halling, C.; Shpigel, M.; Yarish, C. Integrated Aquaculture: Rationale, Evolution and State of the Art Emphasizing Seaweed Biofiltration in Modern Mariculture. *Aquaculture* **2004**, *231*, 361–391. [[CrossRef](#)]
38. DeWeerd, S. Can Aquaculture Overcome Its Sustainability Challenges? *Nature* **2020**, *588*, S60–S62. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
39. Ghosh, S.; Lee, S.-M.; Jung, C.; Meyer-Rochow, V.B. Nutritional Composition of Five Commercial Edible Insects in South Korea. *J. Asia. Pac. Entomol.* **2017**, *20*, 686–694. [[CrossRef](#)]
40. Edwards, P. Aquaculture and Poverty: Past, Present and Future Prospects of Impact. In Proceedings of the Fifth Fisheries Development Donor Consultation, Rome, Italy, 22–24 February 1999.
41. Frei, M.; Becker, K. Integrated Rice-Fish Culture: Coupled Production Saves Resources. *Nat. Resour. Forum* **2005**, *29*, 135–143. [[CrossRef](#)]
42. Pleissner, D.; Peinemann, J.C. The Challenges of Using Organic Municipal Solid Waste as Source of Secondary Raw Materials. *Waste Biomass Valorization* **2020**, *11*, 435–446. [[CrossRef](#)]
43. Blancheton, J.-P.; Piedrahita, R.; Eding, E.H.; Lemarie, G.; Bergheim, A.; Fivelstad, S.; Roque D’Orbcastel, E. Intensification of Landbased Aquaculture Production in Single Pass and Reuse Systems. *Aquac. Eng. Environ.* **2007**, *0*, 21–47.
44. Calderini, M.L.; Stevčić, Č.; Taipale, S.; Pulkkinen, K. Filtration of Nordic Recirculating Aquaculture System Wastewater: Effects on Microalgal Growth, Nutrient Removal, and Nutritional Value. *Algal Res.* **2021**, *60*, 102486. [[CrossRef](#)]
45. Piedrahita, R.H. Reducing the Potential Environmental Impact of Tank Aquaculture Effluents through Intensification and Recirculation. *Aquaculture* **2003**, *226*, 35–44. [[CrossRef](#)]
46. Arumugam, K.; Ahmad, M.F.; Yaacob, N.S.; Ikram, W.M.; Maniyam, M.N.; Abdullah, H.; Katayama, T.; Komatsu, K.; Kuwahara, V.S. Enhancement of Targeted Microalgae Species Growth Using Aquaculture Sludge Extracts. *Heliyon* **2020**, *6*, e04556. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
47. Rathod, N.B.; Ranveer, R.C.; Bhagwat, P.K.; Ozogul, F.; Benjakul, S.; Pillai, S.; Annapure, U.S. Cold Plasma for the Preservation of Aquatic Food Products: An Overview. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* **2021**, *20*, 4407–4425. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
48. Shabani, A.; Boldaji, F.; Dastar, B.; Ghoorchi, T.; Zerehdaran, S.; Ashayerizadeh, A. Evaluation of Increasing Concentrations of Fish Waste Silage in Diets on Growth Performance, Gastrointestinal Microbial Population, and Intestinal Morphology of Broiler Chickens. *Anim. Feed Sci. Technol.* **2021**, *275*, 114874. [[CrossRef](#)]
49. Martin, A.M. Composting of Seafood Wastes. In *Maximising the Value of Marine By-Products*; Elsevier: Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 2007; pp. 486–515, ISBN 9781845690137.
50. Qin, D.; Bi, S.; You, X.; Wang, M.; Cong, X.; Yuan, C.; Yu, M.; Cheng, X.; Chen, X.-G. Development and Application of Fish Scale Wastes as Versatile Natural Biomaterials. *Chem. Eng. J.* **2022**, *428*, 131102. [[CrossRef](#)]
51. Eswaran, M.; Swamiappan, S.; Chokkiah, B.; Dhanusuraman, R.; Bharathkumar, S.; Ponnusamy, V.K. A Green and Economical Approach to Derive Nanostructured Hydroxyapatite from Garra Mullya Fish Scale Waste for Biocompatible Energy Storage Applications. *Mater. Lett.* **2021**, *302*, 130341. [[CrossRef](#)]
52. Mohan, K.; Muralisankar, T.; Jayakumar, R.; Rajeevgandhi, C. A Study on Structural Comparisons of  $\alpha$ -Chitin Extracted from Marine Crustacean Shell Waste. *Carbohydr. Polym. Technol. Appl.* **2021**, *2*, 100037. [[CrossRef](#)]
53. Benni, S.D.; Munnolli, R.S.; Katagi, K.S.; Kadam, N.S. Mussel Shells as Sustainable Catalyst: Synthesis of Liquid Fuel from Non Edible Seeds of Bauhinia Malabarica and Gymnosporia Montana. *Curr. Res. Green Sustain. Chem.* **2021**, *4*, 100124. [[CrossRef](#)]
54. De, D.; Sandeep, K.P.; Kumar, S.; Raja, R.A.; Mahalakshmi, P.; Sivaramkrishnan, T.; Ambasankar, K.; Vijayan, K.K. Effect of Fish Waste Hydrolysate on Growth, Survival, Health of *Penaeus Vannamei* and Plankton Diversity in Culture Systems. *Aquaculture* **2020**, *524*, 735240. [[CrossRef](#)]
55. Shanthi, G.; Premalatha, M.; Anantharaman, N. Potential Utilization of Fish Waste for the Sustainable Production of Microalgae Rich in Renewable Protein and Phycocyanin-Arthrospira Platensis/Spirulina. *J. Clean. Prod.* **2021**, *294*, 126106. [[CrossRef](#)]
56. Vidya, D.; Nayana, K.; Sreelakshmi, M.; Keerthi, K.V.; Mohan, K.S.; Sudhakar, M.P.; Arunkumar, K. A Sustainable Cultivation of Microalgae Using Dairy and Fish Wastes for Enhanced Biomass and Bio-Product Production. *Biomass Convers. Biorefinery* **2021**, *11*, 1–15. [[CrossRef](#)]
57. Rajeswari, C.; Padmavathy, P.; Aanand, S. Composting of Fish Waste: A Review. *Int. J. Appl. Res.* **2018**, *4*, 242–249.
58. Rustad, T.; Storrø, I.; Slizyte, R. Possibilities for the Utilisation of Marine By-Products. *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.* **2011**, *46*, 2001–2014. [[CrossRef](#)]
59. Caruso, G.; Floris, R.; Serangeli, C.; Di Paola, L. Fishery Wastes as a Yet Undiscovered Treasure from the Sea: Biomolecules Sources, Extraction Methods and Valorization. *Mar. Drugs* **2020**, *18*, 622. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
60. Kota, H.B.; Singh, G.; Mir, M.; Smark, C.; Kumar, B. Sustainable Development Goals and Businesses. *Australas. Bus. Account. Financ. J.* **2021**, *15*, 1–3. [[CrossRef](#)]
61. Fu, X.; Belwal, T.; Cravotto, G.; Luo, Z. Sono-Physical and Sono-Chemical Effects of Ultrasound: Primary Applications in Extraction and Freezing Operations and Influence on Food Components. *Ultrason. Sonochem.* **2020**, *60*, 104726. [[CrossRef](#)]

62. Lapeña, D.; Vuoristo, K.S.; Kosa, G.; Horn, S.J.; Eijnsink, V.G.H. Comparative Assessment of Enzymatic Hydrolysis for Valorization of Different Protein-Rich Industrial Byproducts. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2018**, *66*, 9738–9749. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
63. Hassoun, A.; Heia, K.; Lindberg, S.-K.; Nilsen, H. Spectroscopic Techniques for Monitoring Thermal Treatments in Fish and Other Seafood: A Review of Recent Developments and Applications. *Foods* **2020**, *9*, 767. [[CrossRef](#)]
64. Yu, T.-Y.; Morton, J.D.; Clerens, S.; Dyer, J.M. Cooking-Induced Protein Modifications in Meat. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* **2017**, *16*, 141–159. [[CrossRef](#)]
65. Afroz, R.; Rahman, A.; Masud, M.M.; Akhtar, R. The Knowledge, Awareness, Attitude and Motivational Analysis of Plastic Waste and Household Perspective in Malaysia. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* **2017**, *24*, 2304–2315. [[CrossRef](#)]
66. Slizyte, R.; Mozuraityte, R.; Remman, T.; Rustad, T. Two-Stage Processing of Salmon Backbones to Obtain High-Quality Oil and Proteins. *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.* **2018**, *53*, 2378–2385. [[CrossRef](#)]
67. Fan, H.; Fan, D.; Huang, J.; Zhao, J.; Yan, B.; Ma, S.; Zhou, W.; Zhang, H. Cooking Evaluation of Crayfish (*Procambarus Clarkia*) Subjected to Microwave and Conduction Heating: A Visualized Strategy to Understand the Heat-Induced Quality Changes of Food. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2020**, *62*, 102368. [[CrossRef](#)]
68. Orsat, V.; Raghavan, G.S.V.; Krishnaswamy, K. Microwave Technology for Food Processing. In *The Microwave Processing of Foods*; Elsevier: Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 2017; pp. 100–116, ISBN 9780081005286.
69. Kaur, N.; Singh, A.K. Ohmic Heating: Concept and Applications—A Review. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2016**, *56*, 2338–2351. [[CrossRef](#)]
70. Aboud, S.A.; Altemimi, A.B.; Al-Hilphy, A.R.S.; Yi-Chen, L.; Cacciola, F. A Comprehensive Review on Infrared Heating Applications in Food Processing. *Molecules* **2019**, *24*, 4125. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
71. Turp, G.Y.; Icier, F.; Kor, G. Influence of infrared final cooking on color, texture and cooking characteristics of ohmically pre-cooked meatball. *Meat Sci.* **2016**, *114*, 46–53. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
72. Casadidio, C.; Peregrina, D.V.; Gigliobianco, M.R.; Deng, S.; Censi, R.; Di Martino, P. Chitin and Chitosans: Characteristics, Eco-Friendly Processes, and Applications in Cosmetic Science. *Mar. Drugs* **2019**, *17*, 369. [[CrossRef](#)]
73. Sousa, R.O.; Martins, E.; Carvalho, D.N.; Alves, A.L.; Oliveira, C.; Duarte, A.R.C.; Silva, T.H.; Reis, R.L. Collagen from Atlantic Cod (*Gadus Morhua*) Skins Extracted Using CO<sub>2</sub> Acidified Water with Potential Application in Healthcare. *J. Polym. Res.* **2020**, *27*, 73. [[CrossRef](#)]
74. Aganovic, K.; Hertel, C.; Vogel, R.F.; Johne, R.; Schlüter, O.; Schwarzenbolz, U.; Jäger, H.; Holzhauser, T.; Bergmair, J.; Roth, A.; et al. Aspects of High Hydrostatic Pressure Food Processing: Perspectives on Technology and Food Safety. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* **2021**, *20*, 3225–3266. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
75. Girgih, A.T.; Chao, D.; Lin, L.; He, R.; Jung, S.; Aluko, R.E. Enzymatic Protein Hydrolysates from High Pressure-Pretreated Isolated Pea Proteins Have Better Antioxidant Properties than Similar Hydrolysates Produced from Heat Pretreatment. *Food Chem.* **2015**, *188*, 510–516. [[CrossRef](#)]
76. Heinz, V.; Buckow, R. Food Preservation by High Pressure. *J. Für Verbrauch. Und Leb.* **2010**, *5*, 73–81. [[CrossRef](#)]
77. Hemker, A.K.; Nguyen, L.T.; Karwe, M.; Salvi, D. Effects of Pressure-Assisted Enzymatic Hydrolysis on Functional and Bioactive Properties of Tilapia (*Oreochromis Niloticus*) by-Product Protein Hydrolysates. *LWT* **2020**, *122*, 109003. [[CrossRef](#)]
78. Khan, J.; Siddiq, M.; Akram, B.; Ashraf, M.A. In-situ synthesis of CuO nanoparticles in P(NIPAM-co-AAA) microgel, structural characterization, catalytic and biological applications. *Arab. J. Chem.* **2018**, *11*, 897–909. [[CrossRef](#)]
79. Pérez-Lamela, C.; Franco, I.; Falqué, E. Impact of High-Pressure Processing on Antioxidant Activity during Storage of Fruits and Fruit Products: A Review. *Molecules* **2021**, *26*, 5265. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
80. Ali, A.; Wei, S.; Liu, Z.; Fan, X.; Sun, Q.; Xia, Q.; Liu, S.; Hao, J.; Deng, C. Non-Thermal Processing Technologies for the Recovery of Bioactive Compounds from Marine by-Products. *LWT* **2021**, *147*, 111549. [[CrossRef](#)]
81. Denoya, G.I.; Colletti, A.C.; Vaudagna, S.R.; Polenta, G.A. Application of Non-Thermal Technologies as a Stress Factor to Increase the Content of Health-Promoting Compounds of Minimally Processed Fruits and Vegetables. *Curr. Opin. Food Sci.* **2021**, *42*, 224–236. [[CrossRef](#)]
82. Franco, D.; Munekata, P.E.S.; Agregán, R.; Bermúdez, R.; López-Pedrouso, M.; Pateiro, M.; Lorenzo, J.M. Application of Pulsed Electric Fields for Obtaining Antioxidant Extracts from Fish Residues. *Antioxidants* **2020**, *9*, 90. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
83. Jaeger, H.; Roth, A.; Toepfl, S.; Holzhauser, T.; Engel, K.-H.; Knorr, D.; Vogel, R.F.; Bandick, N.; Kulling, S.; Heinz, V.; et al. Opinion on the Use of Ohmic Heating for the Treatment of Foods. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2016**, *55*, 84–97. [[CrossRef](#)]
84. López-Gámez, G.; Elez-Martínez, P.; Martín-Belloso, O.; Soliva-Fortuny, R. Pulsed Electric Fields Affect Endogenous Enzyme Activities, Respiration and Biosynthesis of Phenolic Compounds in Carrots. *Postharvest Biol. Technol.* **2020**, *168*, 111284. [[CrossRef](#)]
85. Evdokimov, I.; Oboturova, N.; Nagdalyan, A.; Kulikov, Y.; Gusevskaya, O. The study on the influence of the electrohydraulic effect on the diffusion coefficient and the penetration depth of salt into muscle tissues during salting. *Foods Raw Mater.* **2015**, *3*, 74–81. [[CrossRef](#)]
86. Bhargava, N.; Mor, R.S.; Kumar, K.; Sharanagat, V.S. Advances in Application of Ultrasound in Food Processing: A Review. *Ultrason. Sonochem.* **2021**, *70*, 105293. [[CrossRef](#)]
87. Gallo, M.; Ferrara, L.; Naviglio, D. Application of Ultrasound in Food Science and Technology: A Perspective. *Foods* **2018**, *7*, 164. [[CrossRef](#)]
88. Jadhav, H.B.; Annapure, U.S.; Deshmukh, R.R. Non-Thermal Technologies for Food Processing. *Front. Nutr.* **2021**, *8*, 248. [[CrossRef](#)]

89. Koubaa, M.; Mhemdi, H.; Fages, J. Recovery of Valuable Components and Inactivating Microorganisms in the Agro-Food Industry with Ultrasound-Assisted Supercritical Fluid Technology. *J. Supercrit. Fluids* **2018**, *134*, 71–79. [[CrossRef](#)]
90. Liu, B.; Li, N.; Chen, F.; Zhang, J.; Sun, X.; Xu, L.; Fang, F. Review on the Release Mechanism and Debittering Technology of Bitter Peptides from Protein Hydrolysates. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* **2022**, *21*, 5153–5170. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
91. Zhou, F.; Zheng, T.; Abdel-Halim, E.S.; Jiang, L.; Zhu, J.-J. A multifunctional core-shell nanoplatfor for enhanced cancer cell apoptosis and targeted chemotherapy. *J. Mater. Chem. B* **2016**, *4*, 2887–2894. [[CrossRef](#)]
92. Gómez, B.; Munekata, P.E.S.; Gavahian, M.; Barba, F.J.; Martí-Quijal, F.J.; Bolumar, T.; Campagnol, P.C.B.; Tomasevic, I.; Lorenzo, J.M. Application of Pulsed Electric Fields in Meat and Fish Processing Industries: An Overview. *Food Res. Int.* **2019**, *123*, 95–105. [[CrossRef](#)]
93. Guérard, F.; Shahidi, F. Enzymatic Methods for Marine By-Products Recovery. In *Maximising Value Marine By-Products*; Woodhead Publishing: Sawston, UK, 2007.
94. Kristinsson, H.G.; Rasco, B.A. Fish Protein Hydrolysates: Production, Biochemical, and Functional Properties. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2000**, *40*, 43–81. [[CrossRef](#)]
95. Liu, J.; Hocquette, É.; Ellies-Oury, M.-P.; Chriki, S.; Hocquette, J.-F. Chinese Consumers' Attitudes and Potential Acceptance toward Artificial Meat. *Foods* **2021**, *10*, 353. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
96. Volkov, V.; Mezenova, O.; Moersel, J.-T.; Kuehn, S.; Grimm, T.; Hoehling, A.; Barabanov, S.; Volkov, K. Hydrolysis Products from Sockeye (*Oncorhynchus Nerka* L.) Heads from the Kamchatka Peninsula Produced by Different Methods: Biological Value. *Foods Raw Mater.* **2021**, *9*, 10–18. [[CrossRef](#)]
97. Ajiboye, B.O.; Ojo, O.A.; Okesola, M.A.; Akinyemi, A.J.; Talabi, J.Y.; Idowu, O.T.; Fadaka, A.O.; Boligon, A.A.; Anraku de Campos, M.M. In Vitro Antioxidant Activities and Inhibitory Effects of Phenolic Extract of *Senecio Biafrae* (Oliv and Hiern) against Key Enzymes Linked with Type II Diabetes Mellitus and Alzheimer's Disease. *Food Sci. Nutr.* **2018**, *6*, 1803–1810. [[CrossRef](#)]
98. Rajendran, S.R.C.K.; Mohan, A.; Khiari, Z.; Udenigwe, C.C.; Mason, B. Yield, Physicochemical, and Antioxidant Properties of Atlantic Salmon Visceral Hydrolysate: Comparison of Lactic Acid Bacterial Fermentation with Flavourzyme Proteolysis and Formic Acid Treatment. *J. Food Process. Preserv.* **2018**, *42*, e13620. [[CrossRef](#)]
99. Liu, Y.; Ramakrishnan, V.V.; Dave, D. Enzymatic Hydrolysis of Farmed Atlantic Salmon By-Products: Investigation of Operational Parameters on Extracted Oil Yield and Quality. *Process Biochem.* **2021**, *100*, 10–19. [[CrossRef](#)]
100. 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 Valorization* **2018**, *9*, 2003–2014. [[CrossRef](#)]
101. Kvangarsnes, K.; Kandler, S.; Rustad, T.; Aas, G.H. Induced Oxidation and Addition of Antioxidant before Enzymatic Hydrolysis of Heads of Rainbow Trout (*Oncorhynchus Mykiss*)—Effect on the Resulting Oil and Protein Fraction. *Heliyon* **2021**, *7*, e06816. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
102. Nikoo, M.; Benjakul, S.; Ahmadi Gavlighi, H.; Xu, X.; Regenstein, J.M. Hydrolysates from Rainbow Trout (*Oncorhynchus Mykiss*) Processing by-Products: Properties When Added to Fish Mince with Different Freeze-Thaw Cycles. *Food Biosci.* **2019**, *30*, 100418. [[CrossRef](#)]
103. Aspevik, T.; Thoresen, L.; Steinsholm, S.; Carlehög, M.; Kousoulaki, K. Sensory and Chemical Properties of Protein Hydrolysates Based on Mackerel (*Scomber Scombrus*) and Salmon (*Salmo Salar*) Side Stream Materials. *J. Aquat. Food Prod. Technol.* **2021**, *30*, 176–187. [[CrossRef](#)]
104. Araujo, J.; Sica, P.; Costa, C.; Márquez, M.C. Enzymatic Hydrolysis of Fish Waste as an Alternative to Produce High Value-Added Products. *Waste Biomass Valorization* **2021**, *12*, 847–855. [[CrossRef](#)]
105. Yi, R.; Tan, F.; Liao, W.; Wang, Q.; Mu, J.; Zhou, X.; Yang, Z.; Zhao, X. Isolation and Identification of *Lactobacillus plantarum* HFY05 from Natural Fermented Yak Yogurt and Its Effect on Alcoholic Liver Injury in Mice. *Microorganisms* **2019**, *7*, 530. [[CrossRef](#)]
106. Zapata Montoya, J.E.; Giraldo-Rios, D.E.; Baéz-Suarez, A.J. Kinetic modeling of the enzymatic hydrolysis of proteins of viscera from red tilapia (*Oreochromis Sp.*): Effect of substrate and enzyme concentration. *Rev. Vitae* **2018**, *25*, 17–25. [[CrossRef](#)]
107. Jiang, W.; Liu, Y.; Yang, X.; Wang, P.; Hu, S.; Li, J. Recovery of Proteins from Squid By-Products with Enzymatic Hydrolysis and Increasing the Hydrolysate's Bioactivity by Maillard Reaction. *J. Aquat. Food Prod. Technol.* **2018**, *27*, 900–911. [[CrossRef](#)]
108. Srikanya, A.; Dhanapal, K.; Sravani, K.; Madhavi, K.; Kumar, G.P. A Study on Optimization of Fish Protein Hydrolysate Preparation by Enzymatic Hydrolysis from Tilapia Fish Waste Mince. *Int. J. Curr. Microbiol. Appl. Sci.* **2017**, *6*, 3220–3229. [[CrossRef](#)]
109. Villamil, O.; Váquiro, H.; Solanilla, J.F. Fish Viscera Protein Hydrolysates: Production, Potential Applications and Functional and Bioactive Properties. *Food Chem.* **2017**, *224*, 160–171. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
110. Petrova, I.; Tolstorebrov, I.; Eikevik, T.M. Production of Fish Protein Hydrolysates Step by Step: Technological Aspects, Equipment Used, Major Energy Costs and Methods of Their Minimizing. *Int. Aquat. Res.* **2018**, *10*, 223–241. [[CrossRef](#)]
111. Stormo, S.K.; Skipnes, D.; Sone, I.; Skuland, A.; Heia, K.; Skåra, T. Modeling-Assisted Minimal Heat Processing of Atlantic Cod (*Gadus Morhua*). *J. Food Process Eng.* **2017**, *40*, e12555. [[CrossRef](#)]
112. Rahman, M.S. Food Preservation: An Overview. In *Handbook of Food Preservation*; CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL, USA, 2020.
113. Vinet, L.; Zhedanov, A. A "Missing" Family of Classical Orthogonal Polynomials. *J. Phys. A Math. Theor.* **2011**, *44*, 085201. [[CrossRef](#)]



114. Hassoun, A.; Crobotova, J.; Rustad, T.; Heia, K.; Lindberg, S.-K.; Nilsen, H. Use of Spectroscopic Techniques for a Rapid and Non-Destructive Monitoring of Thermal Treatments and Storage Time of Sous-Vide Cooked Cod Fillets. *Sensors* **2020**, *20*, 2410. [[CrossRef](#)]
115. Ketnawa, S.; Liceaga, A.M. Effect of Microwave Treatments on Antioxidant Activity and Antigenicity of Fish Frame Protein Hydrolysates. *Food Bioprocess Technol.* **2017**, *10*, 582–591. [[CrossRef](#)]
116. Aydin, C.; Kurt, Ü.; Kaya, Y. Comparison of the Effects of Ohmic and Conventional Heating Methods on Some Quality Parameters of the Hot-Smoked Fish Pâté. *J. Aquat. Food Prod. Technol.* **2020**, *29*, 407–416. [[CrossRef](#)]
117. Semedo Tavares, W.P.; Dong, S.; Yang, Y.; Zeng, M.; Zhao, Y. Influence of Cooking Methods on Protein Modification and in Vitro Digestibility of Hairtail (*Thichiurus Lepturus*) Fillets. *LWT* **2018**, *96*, 476–481. [[CrossRef](#)]
118. Skipnes, D.; Johnsen, S.O.; Skåra, T.; Sivertsvik, M.; Lekang, O. Optimization of Heat Processing of Farmed Atlantic Cod (*Gadus Morhua*) Muscle with Respect to Cook Loss, Water Holding Capacity, Color, and Texture. *J. Aquat. Food Prod. Technol.* **2011**, *20*, 331–340. [[CrossRef](#)]
119. Soldo, B.; Šimat, V.; Vlahović, J.; Skroza, D.; Ljubenković, I.; Generalić Mekinić, I. High Quality Oil Extracted from Sardine By-Products as an Alternative to Whole Sardines: Production and Refining. *Eur. J. Lipid Sci. Technol.* **2019**, *121*, 1800513. [[CrossRef](#)]
120. Wang, X.; Muhoza, B.; Wang, X.; Feng, T.; Xia, S.; Zhang, X. Comparison between Microwave and Traditional Water Bath Cooking on Saltiness Perception, Water Distribution and Microstructure of Grass Carp Meat. *Food Res. Int.* **2019**, *125*, 108521. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
121. Pietrzak-Fiećko, R.; Modzelewska-Kapituła, M.; Zakeš, Z.; Szczepkowski, M. The Effect of Thermal Treatment Method on Fatty Acid Composition in Northern Pike (*Esox Lucius*) Fillets. *J. Aquat. Food Prod. Technol.* **2017**, *26*, 1303–1311. [[CrossRef](#)]
122. dos Santos Venâncio Costa, D.; Bragagnolo, N. Development and Validation of a Novel Microwave Assisted Extraction Method for Fish Lipids. *Eur. J. Lipid Sci. Technol.* **2017**, *119*, 1600108. [[CrossRef](#)]
123. Bligh, E.G.; Dyer, W.J. A rapid method of total lipid extraction and purification. *Can. J. Biochem. Physiol.* **1959**, *37*, 911–917. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
124. Pang, G.-F.; Chao, Y.-Z.; Fan, C.-L.; Zhang, J.-J.; Li, X.-M.; Zhao, T.-S. Modification of AOAC Multi-residue Method for Determination of Synthetic Pyrethroid Residues in Fruits, Vegetables, and Grains. Part I: Acetonitrile Extraction System and Optimization of Florisil Cleanup and Gas Chromatography. *J. AOAC Int.* **1995**, *78*, 1481–1488. [[CrossRef](#)]
125. Folch, J.; Lees, M.; Sloane Stanley, G.H.; Bligh, E.G.; Dyer, W.J. A Simple Method for the Isolation and Purification of Total Lipids from Animal Tissues; A Rapid Method of Total Lipid Extraction and Purification. *Can. J. Biochem. Physiol.* **1959**, *226*, 497–509.
126. Blanco, M.; Vázquez, J.; Pérez-Martín, R.; Sotelo, C. Hydrolysates of Fish Skin Collagen: An Opportunity for Valorizing Fish Industry Byproducts. *Mar. Drugs* **2017**, *15*, 131. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
127. Venkatesan, J.; Anil, S.; Kim, S.-K.; Shim, M.S. Marine Fish Proteins and Peptides for Cosmeceuticals: A Review. *Mar. Drugs* **2017**, *15*, 143. [[CrossRef](#)]
128. Lutfee, T.; Alwan, N.F.; Alsaffar, M.A.; Ghany, M.A.R.A.; Mageed, A.K.; AbdulRazak, A.A. An Overview of the Prospects of Extracting Collagens from Waste Sources and Its Applications. *Chem. Pap.* **2021**, *75*, 6025–6033. [[CrossRef](#)]
129. Alves, A.; Marques, A.; Martins, E.; Silva, T.; Reis, R. Cosmetic Potential of Marine Fish Skin Collagen. *Cosmetics* **2017**, *4*, 39. [[CrossRef](#)]
130. Devita, L.; Nurilmala, M.; Lioe, H.N.; Suhartono, M.T. Chemical and Antioxidant Characteristics of Skin-Derived Collagen Obtained by Acid-Enzymatic Hydrolysis of Bigeye Tuna (*Thunnus Obesus*). *Mar. Drugs* **2021**, *19*, 222. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
131. Haryati, D.; Nadhifa, L.; Humairah; Abdullh, N. Extraction and Characterization of Gelatin from Rabbitfish Skin (*Siganus Canaliculatus*) with Enzymatic Method Using Bromelin Enzyme. *IOP Conf. Ser. Earth Environ. Sci.* **2019**, *355*, 012095. [[CrossRef](#)]
132. Zarubin, N.Y.; Kharenko, E.N.; Bredikhina, O.V.; Arkhipov, L.O.; Zolotarev, K.V.; Mikhailov, A.N.; Nakhod, V.I.; Mikhailova, M.V. Application of the Gadidae Fish Processing Waste for Food Grade Gelatin Production. *Mar. Drugs* **2021**, *19*, 455. [[CrossRef](#)]
133. Gvozdenko, A.A.; Siddiqui, S.A.; Blinov, A.V.; Golik, A.B.; Nagdalian, A.A.; Maglakelidze, D.G.; Statsenko, E.N.; Pirogov, M.A.; Blinova, A.A.; Sizonenko, M.N.; et al. Synthesis of CuO Nanoparticles Stabilized with Gelatin for Potential Use in Food Packaging Applications. *Sci. Rep.* **2022**, *12*, 1–25. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
134. Derkach, S.R.; Kuchina, Y.A.; Baryshnikov, A.V.; Kolotova, D.S.; Voron'ko, N.G. Tailoring Cod Gelatin Structure and Physical Properties with Acid and Alkaline Extraction. *Polymers* **2019**, *11*, 1724. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
135. Hamdi, M.; Hammami, A.; Hajji, S.; Jridi, M.; Nasri, M.; Nasri, R. Chitin Extraction from Blue Crab (*Portunus Segnis*) and Shrimp (*Penaeus Kerathurus*) Shells Using Digestive Alkaline Proteases from *P. Segnis* Viscera. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* **2017**, *101*, 455–463. [[CrossRef](#)]
136. Mhamdi, S.; Ktari, N.; Hajji, S.; Nasri, M.; Sellami Kamoun, A. Alkaline Proteases from a Newly Isolated *Micromonospora Chaiyaphumensis* S103: Characterization and Application as a Detergent Additive and for Chitin Extraction from Shrimp Shell Waste. *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* **2017**, *94*, 415–422. [[CrossRef](#)]
137. Castro, R.; Guerrero-Legarreta, I.; Bórquez, R. Chitin Extraction from *Allopetrolisthes Punctatus* Crab Using Lactic Fermentation. *Biotechnol. Rep.* **2018**, *20*, e00287. [[CrossRef](#)]
138. Wai, A.L.S.; Man, R.C.; Mudalip, S.K.A.; Sulaiman, S.Z.; Arshad, Z.I.M.; Shaarani, S.M. Effects of Chemical Hydrolysis Operating Parameters on the Production of Antioxidant from Fish Waste. *IOP Conf. Ser. Mater. Sci. Eng.* **2020**, *991*, 012062. [[CrossRef](#)]
139. Chakka, A.K.; Sriraksha, M.S.; Ravishankar, C.N. Sustainability of Emerging Green Non-Thermal Technologies in the Food Industry with Food Safety Perspective: A Review. *LWT* **2021**, *151*, 112140. [[CrossRef](#)]

140. Režek Jambrak, A.; Nutrizio, M.; Djekić, I.; Pleslić, S.; Chemat, F. Internet of Nonthermal Food Processing Technologies (IoNTP): Food Industry 4.0 and Sustainability. *Appl. Sci.* **2021**, *11*, 686. [[CrossRef](#)]
141. Barbosa-Cánovas, G.V.; Donsi, F.; Yildiz, S.; Candoğan, K.; Pokhrel, P.R.; Guadarrama-Lezama, A.Y. Nonthermal Processing Technologies for Stabilization and Enhancement of Bioactive Compounds in Foods. *Food Eng. Rev.* **2021**, *14*, 63–99. [[CrossRef](#)]
142. Khan, M.K.; Ahmad, K.; Hassan, S.; Imran, M.; Ahmad, N.; Xu, C. Effect of Novel Technologies on Polyphenols during Food Processing. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2018**, *45*, 361–381. [[CrossRef](#)]
143. Tsironi, T.; Houhoula, D.; Taoukis, P. Hurdle Technology for Fish Preservation. *Aquac. Fish.* **2020**, *5*, 65–71. [[CrossRef](#)]
144. Chai, H.-E.; Sheen, S. Effect of high pressure processing, allyl isothiocyanate, and acetic acid stresses on Salmonella survivals, storage, and appearance color in raw ground chicken meat. *Food Control* **2020**, *123*, 107784. [[CrossRef](#)]
145. Pérez-Baltar, A.; Serrano, A.; Montiel, R.; Medina, M. Listeria Monocytogenes Inactivation in Deboned Dry-Cured Hams by High Pressure Processing. *Meat Sci.* **2020**, *160*, 107960. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
146. García-Parra, J.; González-Cebrino, F.; Delgado-Adámez, J.; Cava, R.; Martín-Belloso, O.; Élez-Martínez, P.; Ramírez, R. Effect of High-Hydrostatic Pressure and Moderate-Intensity Pulsed Electric Field on Plum. *Food Sci. Technol. Int.* **2018**, *24*, 145–160. [[CrossRef](#)]
147. Mostafidi, M.; Sanjabi, M.R.; Shirkhan, F.; Zahedi, M.T. A Review of Recent Trends in the Development of the Microbial Safety of Fruits and Vegetables. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2020**, *103*, 321–332. [[CrossRef](#)]
148. Cheng, C.; Jia, M.; Gui, Y.; Ma, Y. Comparison of the Effects of Novel Processing Technologies and Conventional Thermal Pasteurisation on the Nutritional Quality and Aroma of Mandarin (Citrus Unshiu) Juice. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2020**, *64*, 102425. [[CrossRef](#)]
149. Nor Hasni, H.; Koh, P.C.; Noranizan, M.A.; Megat Mohd Tahir, P.N.F.; Mohamad, A.; Limpot, N.; Hamid, N.; Aadil, R.M. High-pressure Processing Treatment for Ready-to-drink Sabah Snake Grass Juice. *J. Food Process. Preserv.* **2020**, *44*, e14508. [[CrossRef](#)]
150. Pallarés, N.; Berrada, H.; Tolosa, J.; Ferrer, E. Effect of High Hydrostatic Pressure (HPP) and Pulsed Electric Field (PEF) Technologies on Reduction of Aflatoxins in Fruit Juices. *LWT* **2021**, *142*, 111000. [[CrossRef](#)]
151. Ambrosi, V.; Polenta, G.; Gonzalez, C.; Ferrari, G.; Maresca, P. High Hydrostatic Pressure Assisted Enzymatic Hydrolysis of Whey Proteins. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2016**, *38*, 294–301. [[CrossRef](#)]
152. Maresca, P.; Ferrari, G. Modelling of the Kinetics of Bovine Serum Albumin Enzymatic Hydrolysis Assisted by High Hydrostatic Pressure. *Food Bioprod. Process.* **2017**, *105*, 1–11. [[CrossRef](#)]
153. Akter, M.; Graham, H.; Iji, P.A. Interactions between Phytase and Different Dietary Minerals in in Vitro Systems. *J. Food Agric. Environ.* **2015**, *13*, 38–44.
154. Marciniak, A.; Suwal, S.; Naderi, N.; Pouliot, Y.; Doyen, A. Enhancing Enzymatic Hydrolysis of Food Proteins and Production of Bioactive Peptides Using High Hydrostatic Pressure Technology. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2018**, *80*, 187–198. [[CrossRef](#)]
155. Boukil, A.; Perreault, V.; Chamberland, J.; Mezdour, S.; Pouliot, Y.; Doyen, A. High Hydrostatic Pressure-Assisted Enzymatic Hydrolysis Affect Mealworm Allergenic Proteins. *Molecules* **2020**, *25*, 2685. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
156. Fernandez, M.V.; Denoya, G.I.; Jagus, R.J.; Vaudagna, S.R.; Agüero, M.V. Microbiological, Antioxidant and Physicochemical Stability of a Fruit and Vegetable Smoothie Treated by High Pressure Processing and Stored at Room Temperature. *LWT* **2019**, *105*, 206–210. [[CrossRef](#)]
157. Zhao, G.; Zhang, R.; Zhang, M. Effects of High Hydrostatic Pressure Processing and Subsequent Storage on Phenolic Contents and Antioxidant Activity in Fruit and Vegetable Products. *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.* **2017**, *52*, 3–12. [[CrossRef](#)]
158. Błaszczak, W.; Amarowicz, R.; Górecki, A.R. Antioxidant Capacity, Phenolic Composition and Microbial Stability of Aronia Juice Subjected to High Hydrostatic Pressure Processing. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2017**, *39*, 141–147. [[CrossRef](#)]
159. Grunovaitė, L.; Pukalskienė, M.; Pukalskas, A.; Venskutonis, P.R. Fractionation of Black Chokeberry Pomace into Functional Ingredients Using High Pressure Extraction Methods and Evaluation of Their Antioxidant Capacity and Chemical Composition. *J. Funct. Foods* **2016**, *24*, 85–96. [[CrossRef](#)]
160. Hill, K.; Ostermeier, R.; Töpfl, S.; Heinz, V. Pulsed Electric Fields in the Potato Industry. In *Food Engineering Series*; Springer: Berlin, Germany, 2022; pp. 325–335.
161. Liu, T.; Burrirt, D.J.; Oey, I. Understanding the Effect of Pulsed Electric Fields on Multilayered Solid Plant Foods: Bunching Onions (*Allium Fistulosum*) as a Model System. *Food Res. Int.* **2019**, *120*, 560–567. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
162. Wang, Q.; Li, Y.; Sun, D.-W.; Zhu, Z. Enhancing Food Processing by Pulsed and High Voltage Electric Fields: Principles and Applications. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2018**, *58*, 2285–2298. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
163. Xi, J.; Li, Z.; Fan, Y. Recent Advances in Continuous Extraction of Bioactive Ingredients from Food-Processing Wastes by Pulsed Electric Fields. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2021**, *61*, 1738–1750. [[CrossRef](#)]
164. Zhao, Y.-M.; de Alba, M.; Sun, D.-W.; Tiwari, B. Principles and Recent Applications of Novel Non-Thermal Processing Technologies for the Fish Industry—A Review. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2019**, *59*, 728–742. [[CrossRef](#)]
165. Režek Jambrak, A.; Vukušić, T.; Donsi, F.; Paniwnyk, L.; Djekic, I. Three Pillars of Novel Nonthermal Food Technologies: Food Safety, Quality, and Environment. *J. Food Qual.* **2018**. [[CrossRef](#)]
166. Vorobiev, E.; Lebovka, N. Pulsed Electric Field in Green Processing and Preservation of Food Products. In *Green Food Processing Techniques*; Elsevier: Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 2019; pp. 403–430, ISBN 9780128153536.

167. Cropotova, J.; Tappi, S.; Genovese, J.; Rocculi, P.; Dalla Rosa, M.; Rustad, T. The Combined Effect of Pulsed Electric Field Treatment and Brine Salting on Changes in the Oxidative Stability of Lipids and Proteins and Color Characteristics of Sea Bass (*Dicentrarchus Labrax*). *Heliyon* **2021**, *7*, e05947. [[CrossRef](#)]
168. He, G.; Yan, X.; Wang, X.; Wang, Y. Extraction and structural characterization of collagen from fishbone by high intensity pulsed electric fields. *J. Food Process. Eng.* **2019**, *42*, e13214. [[CrossRef](#)]
169. Liang, R.; Zhang, Z.; Lin, S. Effects of Pulsed Electric Field on Intracellular Antioxidant Activity and Antioxidant Enzyme Regulating Capacities of Pine Nut (*Pinus Koraiensis*) Peptide QDHCH in HepG2 Cells. *Food Chem.* **2017**, *237*, 793–802. [[CrossRef](#)]
170. Zhang, S.; Sun, L.; Ju, H.; Bao, Z.; Zeng, X.; Lin, S. Research Advances and Application of Pulsed Electric Field on Proteins and Peptides in Food. *Food Res. Int.* **2021**, *139*, 109914. [[CrossRef](#)]
171. Cropotova, J.; Tappi, S.; Genovese, J.; Rocculi, P.; Laghi, L.; Dalla Rosa, M.; Rustad, T. Study of the Influence of Pulsed Electric Field Pre-Treatment on Quality Parameters of Sea Bass during Brine Salting. *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2021**, *70*, 102706. [[CrossRef](#)]
172. Zhou, Y.; He, Q.; Zhou, D. Optimization Extraction of Protein from Mussel by High-Intensity Pulsed Electric Fields. *J. Food Process. Preserv.* **2017**, *41*, e12962. [[CrossRef](#)]
173. Li, M.; Lin, J.; Chen, J.; Fang, T. Pulsed Electric Field-Assisted Enzymatic Extraction of Protein from Abalone (*Haliotis Discus Hannai* Ino) Viscera. *J. Food Process Eng.* **2016**, *39*, 702–710. [[CrossRef](#)]
174. He, G.; Yin, Y.; Yan, X.; Wang, Y. Application of Pulsed Electric Field for Treatment of Fish and Seafood. In *Handbook of Electroporation*; Springer International Publishing: Cham, Switzerland, 2017; pp. 2637–2655, ISBN 9783319328867.
175. De Aguiar Saldanha Pinheiro, A.C.; Martí-Quijal, F.J.; Barba, F.J.; Tappi, S.; Rocculi, P. Innovative Non-Thermal Technologies for Recovery and Valorization of Value-Added Products from Crustacean Processing By-Products—An Opportunity for a Circular Economy Approach. *Foods* **2021**, *10*, 2030. [[CrossRef](#)]
176. Mannozi, C.; Fauster, T.; Haas, K.; Tylewicz, U.; Romani, S.; Dalla Rosa, M.; Jaeger, H. Role of Thermal and Electric Field Effects during the Pre-Treatment of Fruit and Vegetable Mash by Pulsed Electric Fields (PEF) and Ohmic Heating (OH). *Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol.* **2018**, *48*, 131–137. [[CrossRef](#)]
177. Leong, T.S.H.; Zhou, M.; Kukan, N.; Ashokkumar, M.; Martin, G.J.O. Preparation of Water-in-Oil-in-Water Emulsions by Low Frequency Ultrasound Using Skim Milk and Sunflower Oil. *Food Hydrocoll.* **2017**, *63*, 685–695. [[CrossRef](#)]
178. Blinov, A.V.; Siddiqui, S.A.; Blinova, A.A.; Khramtsov, A.G.; Oboturova, N.P.; Nagdalian, A.A.; Simonov, A.N.; Ibrahim, S.A. Analysis of the dispersed composition of milk using photon correlation spectroscopy. *J. Food Compos. Anal.* **2022**, *108*, 104414. [[CrossRef](#)]
179. Arvanitoyannis, I.S.; Kotsanopoulos, K.V.; Savva, A.G. Use of ultrasounds in the food industry—Methods and effects on quality, safety, and organoleptic characteristics of foods: A review. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2015**, *57*, 109–128. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
180. Cheng, X.; Zhang, M.; Xu, B.; Adhikari, B.; Sun, J. The Principles of Ultrasound and Its Application in Freezing Related Processes of Food Materials: A Review. *Ultrason. Sonochem.* **2015**, *27*, 576–585. [[CrossRef](#)]
181. Musielak, G.; Mierzwa, D.; Kroehnke, J. Food Drying Enhancement by Ultrasound—A Review. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2016**, *56*, 126–141. [[CrossRef](#)]
182. Huang, G.; Chen, S.; Dai, C.; Sun, L.; Sun, W.; Tang, Y.; Xiong, F.; He, R.; Ma, H. Effects of Ultrasound on Microbial Growth and Enzyme Activity. *Ultrason. Sonochem.* **2017**, *37*, 144–149. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
183. Kim, H.K.; Kim, Y.H.; Kim, Y.J.; Park, H.J.; Lee, N.H. Effects of Ultrasonic Treatment on Collagen Extraction from Skins of the Sea Bass *Lateolabrax Japonicus*. *Fish. Sci.* **2012**, *78*, 485–490. [[CrossRef](#)]
184. Gulzar, S.; Benjakul, S. Ultrasound Waves Increase the Yield and Carotenoid Content of Lipid Extracted from Cephalothorax of Pacific White Shrimp (*Litopenaeus Vannamei*). *Eur. J. Lipid Sci. Technol.* **2018**, *120*, 1700495. [[CrossRef](#)]
185. Sinthusamran, S.; Benjakul, S.; Kijroongrojana, K.; Prodpran, T.; Agustini, T.W. Yield and Chemical Composition of Lipids Extracted from Solid Residues of Protein Hydrolysis of Pacific White Shrimp Cephalothorax Using Ultrasound-Assisted Extraction. *Food Biosci.* **2018**, *26*, 169–176. [[CrossRef](#)]
186. Chemat, F.; Rombaut, N.; Sicaire, A.-G.; Meullemiestre, A.; Fabiano-Tixier, A.-S.; Abert-Vian, M. Ultrasound Assisted Extraction of Food and Natural Products. Mechanisms, Techniques, Combinations, Protocols and Applications. A Review. *Ultrason. Sonochem.* **2017**, *34*, 540–560. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
187. Tao, Y.; Sun, D.-W. Enhancement of Food Processes by Ultrasound: A Review. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2014**, *55*, 570–594. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
188. Wen, C.; Zhang, J.; Zhang, H.; Dzah, C.S.; Zandile, M.; Duan, Y.; Ma, H.; Luo, X. Advances in Ultrasound Assisted Extraction of Bioactive Compounds from Cash Crops—A Review. *Ultrason. Sonochem.* **2018**, *48*, 538–549. [[CrossRef](#)]
189. Rasenberg, M.M.M.; Poelman, M.; Smith, S.R.; van Hoof, L.J.W. *GHG Emissions in Aquatic Production Systems and Marine Fisheries*; IMARES: Yerseke, The Netherlands, 2013; p. 12.
190. Robb, D.; MacLeod, M.; Hasan, M.R.; Soto, D. Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Aquaculture: A Life Cycle Assessment of Three Asian Systems. *FAO Fish. Aquac. Tech. Pap.* **2017**, *609*, 1–5.

**Disclaimer/Publisher’s Note:** The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.