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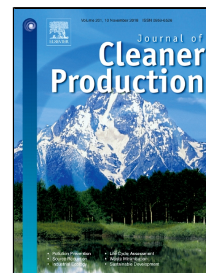


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# Accepted Manuscript

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**From seafood waste to active seafood packaging: An emerging opportunity of the circular economy**

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**1 Abstract**

2 Sustainable development is an overarching objective that requires an interdisciplinary  
3 approach in order to address the societal challenge concerning climate action,  
4 environment, resource efficiency and raw materials. In this context, valorization of  
5 abundant and available bio-wastes with high potential to manufacture value-added  
6 products is the first step to close the loop between waste and consumption in line with  
7 the main goal of the circular economy. In the last years, many research works have  
8 been published in the literature regarding novel food packaging. However, most of  
9 them are focused on packaging composition (scientific aspects) and some of them on  
10 the packaging manufacture (technological aspects), but very few studies are concerned  
11 about the influence of bringing novel food packaging systems into the market on  
12 environmental, social and economic issues. In this regard, this review intends to fill this  
13 gap, considering the potential of developing food packaging from food processing  
14 waste in order to create business for food industries, being aware of the food quality  
15 demanded by consumers and the environmental care demanded by institutions and  
16 society.

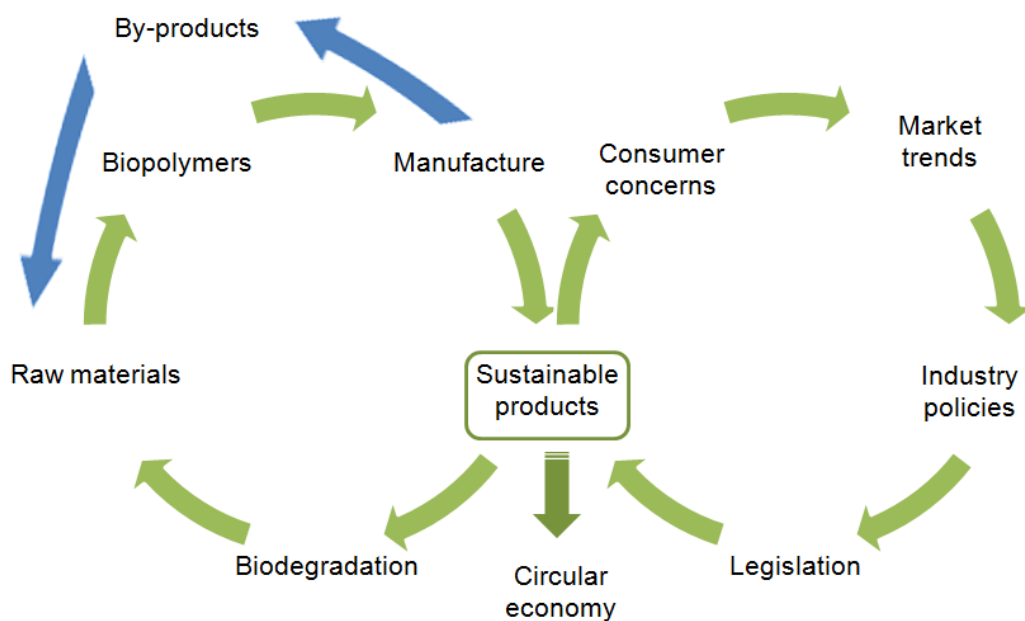
17 **Keywords:** Waste valorization; Resource efficiency; Sustainable packaging;  
18 Interdisciplinary approach; Life Cycle Assessment; Circular Economy.

## 19 **1 Introduction**

20 As populations have grown and the economies of both developed and  
21 developing countries have continued to mature, consumer demand has created a  
22 growing strain on resources. Consumers have also demanded greater safety,  
23 sustainability and responsibility on food production along with convenience and lifestyle  
24 considerations (Aschermann-Witzel et al., 2016; Simoes et al., 2015). Sustainable food  
25 production encompasses three main pillars; environmental, economic, and social.  
26 These aspects are all required to maintain production in the long term without  
27 impacting on the wellbeing of societies, their surrounding environments (Bowen and  
28 Friel, 2012), and the health of the planet as a whole (Janssen et al., 2006). Therefore,  
29 innovation in food market requires a multi-scale, multi-disciplinary, and multi-factorial  
30 approach, involving initiatives from politicians, industries, researchers, and consumers,  
31 who all play a relevant role in the sustainability of the food chain (Fraser et al., 2016;  
32 Wikström et al., 2016). Although many governments place emphasis on local food  
33 production, food production around the globe is ever more dependent on the  
34 international flow of raw materials. Both better-off and poorer countries are dependent  
35 on food imports; the UK is just 60% food-self-sufficient and, according to Fader et al.  
36 (2013), at least 66 countries are not self-sufficient, with countries as diverse as Egypt  
37 and Bangladesh, as they are constrained by a lack of natural resources, such as land  
38 or water, to meet their food production needs. Some food sectors, such as monogastric  
39 livestock (pig, poultry, fish), are particularly dependent on imports of feed ingredients,  
40 notably soybean meal. Cradle-to-grave perspectives using tools such as global value  
41 chain analysis (GVCA) and life cycle assessment (LCA) are appropriate for the  
42 investigation of food production practices, which also must incorporate the technical  
43 and economic realities of globalized food production (Laso et al., 2016).

44 As resources become more precious, governments have placed pressure on  
45 industries and individuals to adopt the “reduce, reuse, repair, and recycle” hierarchy of

46 resource efficiency. This has more recently been adopted into the “circular economy”  
 47 philosophy (Genovese et al., 2017). The essential principles of the circular economy  
 48 are to reduce resource use and environmental emissions by “closing the loop” of  
 49 production (Jurgilevich et al., 2016). According to Stahel (2016), there are two basic  
 50 models for the circular economy: 1) where products at the end of their usable life are  
 51 continually reused through repair and remodeling and 2) where materials are recycled  
 52 to manufacture into replacement products. However, this ignores a third option where  
 53 by-products and wastes from industries are utilized by related industries and may  
 54 eventually be indirectly fed back into the original industry, which is more common in the  
 55 food production sector (Fig. 1). Reuse of by-products within the sector is especially  
 56 important in these related industries, as they are often in competition for similar  
 57 resources, either directly, such as soybeans, or indirectly such as water and land for  
 58 production of crops.



59  
 60 Fig.1. The inter- and multi-disciplinary approach addressed when researching  
 61 packaging.

62 Food processing and packaging are the most important parts of the food  
63 industry (Perrot et al., 2016). More processed and packaged food is consumed as a  
64 proportion of the total in better-off, urbanizing, and industrializing economies (Kearney,  
65 2010). In the specific field of food packaging, there are some clear emergent trends  
66 with regard to the sourcing and use of raw materials. These changes are probably less  
67 related to any depletion of non-renewable resources, but rather to increased interest in  
68 addressing sustainability aspects related to both resource efficiency and waste  
69 disposal and treatment (Stahel, 2016). In this regard, governments, industries, and  
70 consumers are very much concerned about the impacts of the products consumed.  
71 Consumer interest in the sustainable production of foods and food-related issues is  
72 expected to be an increasing trend, and legislation is beginning to reinforce this trend  
73 towards "socially responsible products" (FAO 2015). Furthermore, the improvements in  
74 the development of renewable and biodegradable materials to achieve the properties  
75 required for food packaging applications have largely increased the business potential  
76 of this industrial sector, and the global demand for the food packaging market. In  
77 particular, active packaging, antioxidant and antimicrobial packaging for food shelf-life  
78 extension, is expected to grow at 6.0% to reach a value of approximately US\$ 29.0  
79 billion by 2020 (Future Market Insights, 2017). In this context, materials science and  
80 technology are complementary to support improvements in food quality and safety from  
81 a sustainable point of view.

82 Fundamentally, any food packaging must contain, protect, preserve, inform, and  
83 provide convenience while acknowledging the constraints placed upon their usage from  
84 both legal and environmental perspectives (Kim and Seo, 2018). Additionally  
85 packaging technologies need to address consumer expectations for product quality  
86 (Wilson et al., 2018). In this regard, this highly inter-disciplinary review looks at how a  
87 circular economy principle can be applied to the seafood industry by utilizing food

88 processing by-products in environmentally friendly active packaging solutions to reduce  
89 food spoilage, post-processing, and to extend shelf life.

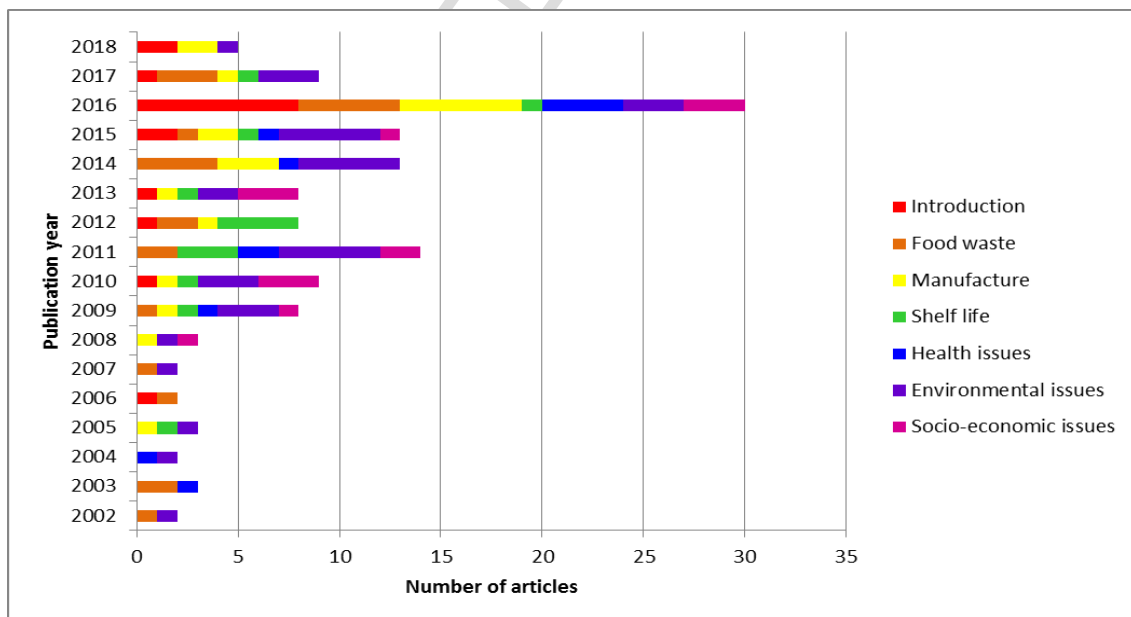
90 In this review, the potential of food processing waste to be valorized by means  
91 of extracting biopolymers that could be used to extend food shelf-life will be revised. In  
92 this regard, the possible allergenic risk when using these raw materials will be  
93 considered. Additionally, the processing methods used to manufacture packaging as  
94 well as the functional properties required to develop antioxidant and antimicrobial  
95 packaging will be assessed. In addition to these scientific and technological issues  
96 concerning food packaging, environmental aspects will be taken into consideration, as  
97 well as socio-economic impacts, in order to develop more sustainable packaging  
98 systems.

## 99 **2 Methods and literature sources**

100 This review brings together a highly interdisciplinary team of experts in  
101 biotechnology, allergen research, environmental management, aquaculture sciences,  
102 consumer behavior, retail studies, social sciences and food policy. Each author has  
103 brought their experiences of years of research in their fields to identify and critique the  
104 most relevant and up-to-date literature appropriate to food packaging and the circular  
105 economy, as well as extensive searches in academic literature databases. The  
106 methodology followed a narrative review approach to give an overview of the key  
107 research areas and identify research gaps that would be necessary to address before  
108 adoption of this circular economy opportunity. The narrative approach fits with the  
109 objectives of an inter-disciplinary review in addressing a broader but interconnected  
110 scope of research (Ferrari, 2015). There were no specific time scale criteria for  
111 inclusion, because literature relevant to different disciplines had heterogeneous  
112 publication histories. As can be seen in Figure 2, the bulk of the literature relating to  
113 technical advances in packaging is the most up-to-date, falling within the last 5 years,



114 whereas literature relating to food waste and environmental and social impacts is more  
 115 wide-spread over the span of the review. However, some of the earliest references  
 116 refer to early work on chitosan as an antimicrobial agent. It is worth noting that 80% of  
 117 the articles studied were published in this decade, of which more than 50% correspond  
 118 to papers published in the last five years (Figure 2). Scientific data bases, such as Web  
 119 of Science, Scopus and Google Scholar, were used to search literature related to  
 120 active packaging, food shelf-life, allergy, sustainability, waste, valorization,  
 121 environmental impact, and circular economy, the principal keywords of this study. The  
 122 information regarding these topics has been obtained mainly from original research  
 123 papers, although some recent reports from international organizations have also been  
 124 considered. In total, 111 peer-reviewed articles, 16 reports and 4 book chapters were  
 125 analyzed. It is worth noting that 80% of the articles studied were published in this  
 126 decade, of which more than 50% correspond to papers published in the last three  
 127 years (Figure 2). Regarding the most recent literature, the relative increase of the  
 128 number of works related to food waste and environmental issues is noticeable, in  
 129 accordance with the consumers' and institutions' concerns on these topics.



130

131 Fig.2. Distribution of the peer-reviewed papers analyzed by the publication year. The  
 132 same articles may appear in more than one section.

133 Information related to the development of active packaging from a global and  
134 sustainable point of view, considering all the aspects from the extraction of raw  
135 materials to the end of life of products, including economic, social, health and  
136 environmental concerns, was analyzed. The references cited are related to those  
137 issues, in particular, food loss reduction, resource efficiency, sustainability, and circular  
138 economy. The journals consulted belong to diverse inter-disciplinary subject areas  
139 such as Green and Sustainable Science and Technology, Environmental Engineering,  
140 Food Science and Technology, and Applied Chemistry (Table 1). The most relevant  
141 information from those sources was selected after reading the full text and analyzing  
142 the results discussion supported by the data shown in the research works. The data  
143 was compiled into an extensive and inclusive review covering all aspects of the circular  
144 economy for seafood packaging and edited by the authors.

145 Table 1. List of the journals cited in each section more than once and their corresponding subject area.

<b>Manuscript section</b>	<b>Total references</b>	<b>Journal name</b>	<b>Reference amount</b>	<b>Subject area</b>
<b>Introduction</b>	17	Trends Food Sci. Tech.	3	Food Science and Technology
<b>Food waste</b>	23	J. Clean. Prod.	2	Green and Sustainable Science and Technology
		J. Food Sci.	2	Food Science and Technology
		Polym. Rev.	2	Polymer Science
		Trends Food Sci. Tech.	2	Food Science and Technology
<b>Manufacture</b>	21	Food Hydrocolloid	4	Chemistry, Applied
		Carbohyd. Polym.	3	Chemistry, Applied
		Int. Food Res. J.	2	Food Science and Technology
<b>Shelf-life</b>	14	Food Hydrocolloid	2	Chemistry, Applied
		J. Food Eng.	2	Engineering, Chemical
<b>Environmental issues</b>	35	J. Clean. Prod.	8	Green and Sustainable Science and Technology
		Int. J. Life Cycle Assess.	6	Engineering, Environmental
		Environ. Sci. Technol.	2	Engineering, Environmental
		Food Res. Int	2	Food Science and Technology
<b>Socio-economic issues</b>	14	Aquacult. Int.	2	Fisheries

146

**147 3 Food waste as a resource for seafood packaging: an interdisciplinary approach**

148 Food waste most commonly refers to edible food products which are intended  
149 for human consumption, but have instead been discarded, lost, degraded, or  
150 consumed by pests. It does not include the inedible or undesirable portions of  
151 foodstuffs. Food losses occur in production, storage, transport, and processing, which  
152 are the four stages of the value chain with the lowest returns. Food waste generated at  
153 the end of the supply chain, within retail and final consumption, represents greater  
154 costs and lost value when diverted away from human consumption; conversely, it is  
155 synonymous with higher value-chain potential. In highly developed countries, food  
156 waste is most prevalent during consumption (Licciardello, 2017; FAO 2011), while the  
157 causes of food losses and waste in low-income countries are mainly connected to  
158 financial, managerial, and technical limitations in harvesting techniques, storage,  
159 packaging, and marketing systems.

160 The percentage of food losses and waste of the edible parts varies between  
161 food groups across different points within the value chain (FAO, 2016; Aschemann-  
162 Witzel et al., 2017) and may also vary according to culture (Wang et al., 2017) . The  
163 proportion of purchased food wasted at the consumer level is especially high for fish  
164 and seafood in industrialized countries. High losses at the distribution level can be  
165 explained by high levels of deterioration occurring during fresh fish and seafood  
166 distribution (FAO, 2011).

167 The production of bio-waste in the EU amounts to more than 100 million tons  
168 each year, of which the majority derives from food processing industries (Ravindran  
169 and Jaiswal, 2016). In particular, fish and seafood processing generates large amounts  
170 of by-products, mainly consisting of shells and bones, which could represent around  
171 50-70% of the original material content (Sayari et al., 2016). This bio-waste has a  
172 potential added-value, but research and innovation are needed to valorize it. The

173 challenge is complex, affects a broad range of interconnected sectors, and requires a  
174 plurality of approaches (Mirabella et al., 2014).

175 Fish by-products contain relatively large concentrations of protein and fat. The  
176 most common products currently derived from fish by-products are collagen, gelatin,  
177 and biodiesel fuel (Trung, 2014). Well-known processes, based on successive steps of  
178 leaching of fish skin to remove water-soluble compounds, extraction of gelatin,  
179 cleansing, concentration, and drying, can give a yield of 125 tons of gelatin/time unit  
180 per 1 kiloton of fish skin. The world fish gelatin production is estimated to be in the  
181 range of 1.0-1.5 kiloton/year with a price of 10-20 USD/kg. Market opportunities exist to  
182 replace traditional bovine gelatins with fish gelatin due to safety concerns related to  
183 transferable spongiform encephalopathies (TSEs) and to replace porcine gelatins  
184 because of religious concerns. Market opportunities for fish gelatins and collagens are  
185 growing (Innovation Norway, 2014); they are often preferable to mammalian-derived  
186 products due to religious considerations as most can be used in both halal and kosher  
187 food (Rustad et al., 2011). Warm-water fish gelatins tend to have more similar  
188 properties to mammalian gelatins, although cold-water gelatins also have attractive  
189 properties for some food applications (Newton et al., 2014). The properties of fish  
190 gelatins vary between species and there are trade-offs between the different properties  
191 depending on the particular application.

192 Fish gelatin, obtained by collagen denaturation, is a highly available raw  
193 material for industrial applications, including the manufacture of films for food  
194 packaging. Residues from fish filleting represent up to 75% of harvested biomass, and  
195 approximately 30% of such residues consists of skin and bones with high collagen  
196 content (Newton et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016). The composition of gelatin is similar  
197 to that of the collagen from which it is prepared, predominantly containing proline (Pro)  
198 and hydroxyproline (Hyp) (Alfaro et al., 2015). In general, the imino acid content (Pro +  
199 Hyp) is lower in cold-water fish gelatins than in mammalian gelatins and, thus, these

200 fish gelatins have lower melting points, which could be a benefit in the manufacture of  
201 fish gelatin-based products by thermo-mechanical processes due to lower energy  
202 consumption and cost, thereby increasing their commercial feasibility (Etxabide et al.,  
203 2016). Hyp content also varies depending on the treatment used to extract gelatin from  
204 collagen. This treatment can be carried out by basic (type B gelatin) or acid hydrolysis  
205 (type A gelatin) (Avena-Bustillos et al., 2006). Both type A and B gelatins show good  
206 film-forming ability and have been used to prepare food packaging films to protect food  
207 from drying and exposure to light and oxygen (Gómez-Guillén et al., 2009).

208           Processing of crustaceans also leads to large quantities of under-utilized by-  
209 products. This bio-waste mainly consists of shells and heads, which account for about  
210 35-40% of total wet weight (Trung and Phuong, 2012). Crustacean shells are a major  
211 source of chitin, which is the most abundant polysaccharide in nature after cellulose  
212 (Dutta et al., 2002). Chitin is a polysaccharide chemically similar to cellulose, in which  
213 the hydroxyl groups in the C2 position are replaced by acetamide groups. These  
214 functional groups make chitin a non-soluble polymer and limit their application.  
215 However, chitosan, obtained after chitin deacetylation, is soluble in acidic solutions,  
216 which enhances processability, as well as other functional properties, such as  
217 antimicrobial characteristics related to the presence of amine groups (Lim and Hudson,  
218 2003). The antimicrobial activity of chitosan against a range of food-borne filamentous  
219 fungi, yeasts, and bacteria has attracted attention as a potential food preservative of  
220 natural origin (Rabea et al., 2003; No et al., 2007). The food preservation qualities of  
221 chitosan, along with its non-toxic nature, ability to chelate metals, and biodegradability  
222 are of interest for its incorporation into various food packaging strategies (Abdollahi et  
223 al., 2012).

224 **4 Manufacture of films and coatings based on fish gelatin and chitosan and their**  
225 **performance**

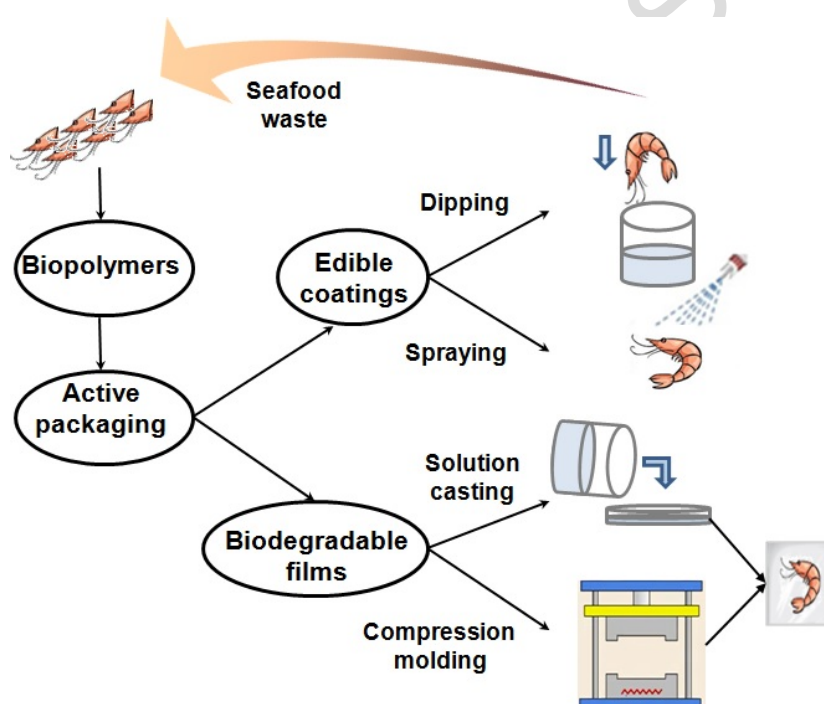
226 *4.1 Manufacturing processes*

227 Chitosan and gelatin films have been manufactured by solution casting and  
228 compression (Figure 3). On the one hand, solution casting involves the solubilization of  
229 the biopolymer in water under appropriate conditions of pH and temperature, followed  
230 by the drying process involving water evaporation. On the other hand, compression  
231 relies on the thermoplastic behavior that proteins and polysaccharides can display at  
232 low moisture contents (Hernández-Izquierdo and Krochta, 2008). At lab-scale, fish  
233 gelatin and chitosan films have been mainly prepared by solution casting due to the  
234 simplicity of the process and the use of water as the solvent. However, compression  
235 molding is less time-consuming and, thus, more appropriate for scaling-up the  
236 production. Recently, fish gelatin films (Chuaynukul et al., 2015) and chitosan films  
237 (Galvis-Sánchez et al., 2016) have been successfully produced by compression  
238 molding.

239 Once produced, the sealing ability of such films is an important characteristic for  
240 their application in materials used for making sachets, pouches, and bags. Heat-  
241 sealing is widely used to join polymer films in the packaging industry. The seal  
242 resistance must be strong enough to keep food products (liquids or solids) inside the  
243 package without leakage. Tongnuanchan et al. (2016) have recently found that fish  
244 gelatin films are heat-sealable and, thus, they can be used for different food packaging  
245 formats.

246 The protective effect of hydrocolloids on food preservation can also be achieved  
247 by coatings applied to food surfaces (Figure 3). The characteristics of specific edible  
248 coatings affect performance, and this is also impacted by application methods, which  
249 influence coating thickness and, thus, its physicochemical properties and food  
250 preservation effects over time. Dipping is the most common application method at lab-  
251 scale due to its simplicity. However, the control of coating thickness and continuous

252 production are two challenges when using this method (Zhong et al., 2014). Those  
 253 drawbacks can be overcome by spraying methods, as these offer more uniform  
 254 coatings (Andrade et al., 2012). For both methods, solution viscosity and application  
 255 time are key parameters that influence coating thickness and, therefore, morphology,  
 256 optical, mechanical, and barrier properties of the resulting coatings. The selection of  
 257 the appropriate method and conditions affects not only the food preservation effect, but  
 258 also the process efficiency and, thus, the production costs. Spraying allows deposit of  
 259 thin coatings, reducing processing time in comparison with dipping and, thus, it opens a  
 260 huge opportunity for continuous production on a commercial scale.



261

262 Fig.3. Manufacturing processes to develop active packaging, including edible coatings  
 263 and biodegradable films.

#### 264 4.2 Functional properties

265 Optical, barrier, and mechanical properties are the most relevant properties  
 266 required for food packaging materials in order to preserve food quality (Atarés and  
 267 Chiralt, 2016). Regarding optical properties, transparency and gloss of packaging films



268 have a great impact on food appearance and, thus, on product acceptability by the  
269 consumer. The polymer network arrangement during film drying defines both internal  
270 and surface structure, and these determine optical properties (Villalobos et al., 2005).  
271 In this sense, image analyses, such as scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and  
272 atomic force microscopy (AFM) analyses, are required to correlate optical and  
273 structural parameters (Fabra et al., 2009). Films based on fish gelatin and chitosan are  
274 colorless and transparent, but they exhibit excellent barrier properties against UV light  
275 (Etxabide et al., 2015b; Hong et al., 2014; Samira et al., 2014). In addition to light  
276 barrier properties, appropriately formulated films and coatings should meet those  
277 aspects related to oxygen barrier to control oxygen exchange between food and the  
278 surrounding atmosphere, protecting food and delaying its deterioration by discoloration  
279 or texture softening.

280 Food packaging requires specific mechanical properties related to food quality  
281 during transportation, distribution, and storage. In this context, plasticizers represent  
282 the most common additives to improve mechanical performance. Demand for natural  
283 plasticizers to replace oil-based products is growing. Water is one of the natural  
284 plasticizers for hydrophilic polymers. As it is well-known, water increases free volume  
285 and so, material flexibility. Besides water, other bio-based plasticizers can be obtained  
286 from industrial by-products, providing available and sustainable resources (Garlapati et  
287 al., 2016). Glycerol, obtained as a by-product of the biodiesel industry, is the most used  
288 plasticizer in edible and biodegradable materials for food packaging applications, since  
289 it is approved as a food additive by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) (Bocqué  
290 et al., 2016). Kaewprachu et al. (2016) have recently compared the mechanical  
291 performance of films based on proteins from different sources (both plant- and animal-  
292 derived proteins) when using glycerol as plasticizer. They found that all films were  
293 uniform and transparent, but gelatin films exhibited higher tensile strength and  
294 elongation at break. In particular, fish gelatin films showed better mechanical

295 performance than bovine gelatin films. This behavior was also reported by Rawdkuen  
296 et al. (2010). Since chitosan films present a higher tensile strength than gelatin films  
297 (Leceta et al., 2013a), and even higher than the values shown by commercial films  
298 (Farhan and Hani, 2017; Kaewprachu et al., 2016), blending fish gelatin and chitosan  
299 seems to be a potential alternative to synthetic polymers to obtain biocomposites with  
300 enhanced properties. Additionally, nanoclays such as montmorillonite (Nouri et al.,  
301 2018), cellulose nanofibers (Niu et al., 2018), and cellulose nanowhiskers (Bao et al.,  
302 2018) have been incorporated into coating- or film-forming formulations to reinforce the  
303 bionanocomposites.

#### 304 **5 Shelf life extension and seafood quality related to active packaging**

305 Food shelf life is defined as the length of time that a food product in a container  
306 will remain in an acceptable condition for its use or application, under specific  
307 conditions of storage (Cruz-Romero and Kerry, 2011). Food shelf life is influenced by  
308 three factors: 1) The product characteristics, including formulation and processing  
309 parameters (intrinsic factors), 2) the properties of the package, and 3) the environment  
310 to which the product is exposed during distribution and storage (extrinsic factors)  
311 (Emblem, 2012a). Intrinsic factors include pH, water activity, enzymes,  
312 microorganisms, and concentration of reactive compounds. Many of these factors can  
313 be controlled by selection of raw materials and ingredients, as well as the choice of  
314 processing parameters. Extrinsic factors include temperature, relative humidity, light,  
315 total pressure, and partial pressure of different gases, as well as mechanical stresses  
316 including consumer handling. Many of these factors can affect the rates of deteriorative  
317 reactions that occur during the shelf life of a product.

318 When considering the preservation function of packaging, it is important to  
319 recognize that, whilst packaging can and does contribute to shelf life, it cannot  
320 overcome inherent product problems. If the product is unsafe or of poor quality at the

321 point of packing, it is likely that the product will remain unsafe or of poor quality inside  
322 the pack. In order to determine the optimum packaging required to extend shelf life, it is  
323 necessary to define the product in terms of what will cause it to deteriorate, i.e. what is  
324 the spoilage mechanism. We then need to understand what process (if any) will be  
325 used to prevent/delay spoilage and the extent to which will affect the packaging used,  
326 and therefore determine its key properties (Emblem, 2012b).

327       Oxidation is one of the processes that causes food degradation, affecting both  
328 sensory and nutritional properties. The oxidation of highly unsaturated food lipids, such  
329 as fish and seafood, causes food quality deterioration, including off-odors, off-flavors,  
330 nutrition losses, and color or textural changes. These problems can significantly reduce  
331 consumer acceptability of food products, increase the deterioration rate of food,  
332 decrease the shelf life, and lead to food losses (López de Dicastillo et al., 2010; Tian et  
333 al., 2012). Synthetic antioxidants can be incorporated into food to prevent oxidation, but  
334 the use of such chemicals is losing favor and interest is growing in their replacement by  
335 natural additives. Hydrophilic films and coatings based on fish gelatin and/or chitosan  
336 provide a good barrier to oxygen due to their tightly packed hydrogen-bonded network  
337 (Bonilla et al., 2012). The use of antioxidant packaging is a novel approach in  
338 controlling oxidation and increasing the stability of oxidation-sensitive products, thereby  
339 prolonging the shelf life of food products (Etxabide et al., 2017).

340       Oxygen is responsible for many degradation processes in food, such as lipid  
341 oxidation, but also for microbial growth. Many types of bacteria typically found in fish  
342 and shellfish (e.g. *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*) or found in processing settings (e.g. *Listeria*  
343 *monocytogenes*) have been found to cause deterioration of food quality and safety  
344 (Enos-Berlage et al., 2005; Rajkowski 2009). In this challenging context, the  
345 development of materials with film-forming capacity that have antimicrobial properties  
346 has been increasingly demanded by the food industry (Vodnar et al., 2015). Since most  
347 fresh or processed products microbial contamination occurs at higher intensity on the

348 product surface, the application of films or coatings on the food surface can be more  
349 efficient than the addition of antimicrobial additives directly in the foodstuff (Falguera et  
350 al., 2011). In this regard, key criteria for materials used for coating seafood products  
351 are sensory inertness and compatibility with the coated seafood product since food  
352 coatings should neither interfere with the flavor of the product nor alter any sensory  
353 properties. The combination of biopolymers, such as chitosan and gelatin, has been  
354 analyzed as antimicrobial packaging. The application of chitosan-gelatin film on fish  
355 has been found to delay or even prevent the growth of microorganisms, indicating the  
356 viability of these films for fish preservation (Gómez-Estaca et al., 2011). Chitosan-  
357 gelatin coatings have also been tested in some fishery products such as rainbow trout  
358 and Pacific white shrimp, both stored under refrigerated conditions (Farajzadeh et al.,  
359 2016; Nowzari et al., 2013). The positive effects of chitosan-gelatin coatings led to both  
360 oxidation and spoilage reduction, increasing food shelf-life. Therefore, it is clear that  
361 chitosan and/or gelatin coatings and films have potential for the control of food  
362 deterioration processes, increasing shelf life and safety; however, the impacts of using  
363 such products in terms of toxicological effects during handling or consumption also  
364 require attention.

## 365 **6 Health and safety aspects of active packaging from by-products**

366 Diverting waste, particularly animal by-products to food applications has various  
367 health and safety aspects regarding the suitability of those materials to be in contact  
368 with food. Legislation regarding those concerns vary regionally, but many draw on  
369 aspects of Codex Alimentarius and Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point (HACCP)  
370 approach, developed by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). More stringent  
371 legislation is enshrined in EU law under EU regulation regarding food, by-products and  
372 packaging where concerns about safe treatment of by-products (EC 2009, 2011a) and  
373 migration of substances in the packaging materials to food are addressed (EC 2004).  
374 However, of most concern perhaps is in relation to seafood allergy. Seafood allergy is a

375 prevalent and potentially lethal condition (Thalayasingam and Lee 2015). Seafood-  
376 allergic individuals, when exposed to relevant allergens at levels that exceed their  
377 threshold for response, may suffer severe allergic reactions, even anaphylactic shock.  
378 Exposure to relevant levels of allergen and subsequent allergic reactions in seafood-  
379 allergic individuals usually occur by eating seafood or, less frequently, by direct skin  
380 contact or inhalation. Individual threshold levels may be low, and ingestion of food that  
381 contains traces of allergen, for example because it was prepared in a kitchen handling  
382 seafood, may result in allergic reactions in highly sensitized individuals. The use of  
383 seafood by-products carries the risk of contaminating foods with seafood allergens and  
384 allergic responses in seafood-allergic consumers. Any development and promotion of  
385 seafood by-product-based packaging and other products therefore requires risk  
386 assessment based on understanding the prevalence and sensitivity to seafood-based  
387 allergens, knowledge of relevant seafood allergens, testing of products made from  
388 seafood by-products for allergen levels, and assessment of the occurrence of allergic  
389 reactions in seafood-allergic individuals exposed to products made from seafood by-  
390 products (FAO, 2014).

391         The prevalence of seafood allergy, namely the sensitization and occurrence of  
392 allergic reactions to fish and shellfish, is estimated to be up to 5% in the human  
393 population and may be increasing (Woo and Bahna, 2011). Regarding allergology, the  
394 most relevant shellfish are shrimps, crabs, lobsters, clams, oysters, and mussels.  
395 Shellfish allergy often develops in early childhood and is usually persistent. Allergic  
396 reactions vary from mild and local responses to life-threatening anaphylactic reactions.  
397 The clinical signs and symptoms include flush, pruritus, angioedema, and urticaria;  
398 rhinitis and conjunctivitis; bronchospasm, cough, and dyspnea; nausea, diarrhea,  
399 emesis, and gastric pain and burning; and a decrease in blood pressure and shock  
400 (Lehrer et al., 2003).

401 Shellfish allergens are mostly flesh-derived, but in shrimps, allergens are also  
402 reported from the shells (Khora, 2016). Tropomyosin is the major shellfish allergen but  
403 several others have been identified including arginine kinase, myosin light chain, and  
404 sarcoplasmic binding protein in crustaceans as well as paramyosin, troponin, actine,  
405 amylase, and hemoyanin in mollusks (Khora 2016). These allergens are highly heat-  
406 stable and biochemically stable. However, since the first step in chitin extraction is  
407 deproteinization, it might be expected that these compounds would be removed from  
408 chitin after this process. However, levels of shellfish allergens must be assessed and  
409 the reliability of their removal established; the most common analytical methods are  
410 western blotting, the radio allergeo-sorbent test, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay,  
411 mass spectrometry, and liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (Korte et  
412 al., 2016). Shellfish allergy is diagnosed based on the clinical history, oral provocation  
413 challenges, in vivo analysis of skin reactivity, and in vitro quantification of specific  
414 serum IgE (Barber and Kalicinsky, 2016). Based on these measures, patients can be  
415 advised on their levels of sensitization and risk for allergic reactions and measures to  
416 prevent and treat them (Moonessinghe et al., 2016). As abovementioned, since  
417 deproteinization is carried out, substances that cause allergies are expected to be  
418 removed. However, further research is needed since the lack of allergenic risks would  
419 potentially expand the use of such packaging. In addition to the allergenic risks, the  
420 environmental risks associated to the extraction of biopolymers from food processing  
421 waste must be considered in order to produce healthier and more sustainable  
422 packaging. Therefore, redirection of seafood processing wastes is likely to have  
423 significant impacts on the size and quality of waste streams and substitution for  
424 environmentally impactful synthetic products and these are now considered.

## 425 **7 Environmental benefits of the circular economy**

426 Life cycle assessment (LCA) has proven to be a powerful tool in measuring  
427 emissions throughout the production value chain of goods and services. Its main

428 advantage is that it identifies areas of disproportionate impact within the chain that can  
 429 then be acted upon without shifting the impact to other areas within the value chain.  
 430 This is particularly pertinent for food packaging as some packaging may be less  
 431 impacting to produce than another, but it may not offer the same degree of protection  
 432 to the food, resulting in higher spoilage and, therefore, much higher environmental  
 433 impact at other points within the value chain (Conte et al., 2015).

434 LCA can also be used to assess the consequences of commercial choices,  
 435 such as switching to renewable energy from fossil fuels and the resulting environmental  
 436 impact across a range of different categories. Most LCAs are termed attributional mid-  
 437 point studies in that they classify the numerous emissions and resource use into  
 438 categories that have the potential to do harm within the environment. The impact  
 439 categories used in LCA are numerous and varied, with some being more applicable to  
 440 certain industries than others. However, out of the many categories, those which are of  
 441 relevance to food production are global warming potential (GWP), acidification potential  
 442 (AP), eutrophication potential (EP), ozone depletion potential (ODP), photochemical  
 443 oxidation potential (POP), increasingly land use (LU), and consumptive water use  
 444 (CWU) (Table 2). Fossil fuel use (FFU) may also be considered as important for  
 445 packaging raw material extractions and other categories, such as various toxicity  
 446 potentials, are also important in many LCAs, including packaging. While the effects of  
 447 different greenhouse gases can be standardized to a single indicator, the effects on  
 448 biodiversity of disposal of different packaging materials is more difficult to quantify and  
 449 standardize. Therefore, although the implications of biodegradation of bio-based  
 450 polymers, such as GWP, ODP, EP, and others, may be measured against conventional  
 451 plastics, quantifying the hazards to wildlife of each are more difficult, especially in  
 452 relation to trade-offs between marine and terrestrial ecosystems (Curran et al., 2011).

453 Table 2. The impact categories which are of relevance in food production.

<b>Environmental impact</b>	<b>Impact category</b>
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Damage to human health	Global warming potential (GWP) Ozone depletion potential (ODP) Photochemical oxidation potential (POP)
Damage to ecosystems	Acidification potential (AP) Eutrophication potential (EP)
Damage to resources	Land use (LU) Consumptive water use (CWU) Fossil fuel use (FFU)

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Europe is the second largest producer of plastics in the world after China with around a 40% market share for packaging purposes (Plastics Europe, 2017). Incorrect disposal of non-biodegradable plastic packaging materials and bags have particularly been associated with negative effects on marine life (EC, 2011b). Although in developed countries common plastic packaging such as polypropylene (PP) (Humbert et al., 2009), polyethylene terephthalate (PET) (Shen et al., 2011), or low density polyethylene (LDPE) (Siracusa et al., 2014) may be recycled effectively, in Europe less than 30% of plastics are recycled, with the rest being sent to landfill sites or to energy-recovery plants (Plastics Europe, 2017). Furthermore, plastic packaging becomes more difficult to recycle if multiple layers of different plastics are used for improving barrier properties, for example (Diop et al., 2017). Persistence of plastic in the (particularly marine) environment has recently been highlighted as a significant issue (Worm et al 2017). Therefore biodegradable bioplastics, particularly ones which are biocompatible and non-harmful if digested such as chitosan films are of considerable interest.

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Numerous LCA studies have been published regarding the manufacture of different packaging materials from both traditional petrochemical-derived materials and natural polymers, but only a few have looked at the implications of these materials on spoilage and the various trade-offs between spoilage of the food product, reduction of waste, and ability to recycle these materials. Although for packaging wastes, the quantity of plastics is generally lower than that of paper, plastics have generally posed a much greater challenge because of their lack of biodegradability, emissions concerned with their incineration (Bohlman, 2004; Vidal et al., 2007), or persistence in



477 landfill sites or the wider environment (Günkaya and Banar, 2016). Conversely,  
478 whereas bio-based films may degrade readily (Günkaya and Banar, 2016), the  
479 composting or landfill of biodegradable polymers may result in greater GHG emissions,  
480 such as carbon dioxide and methane (Ingrao et al., 2015). According to Ferreira et al.  
481 (2014), landfill gas is approximately 50% each of CO<sub>2</sub> and methane. While CO<sub>2</sub>  
482 emissions are biogenic and considered as neutral, methane has a global warming  
483 equivalence 25 times higher than CO<sub>2</sub> and may become a problem during degradation,  
484 particularly if anaerobic conditions are allowed to develop in poorly managed  
485 composting or landfill sites. Bio-based films also generally contribute more highly to  
486 land use (Leceta et al., 2013b; 2014) and water use (Hermann et al., 2010) for growing  
487 the crops from which the raw materials originated. Interestingly, few LCAs of bio-based  
488 films include either land or water consumption, considering the reliance of the raw  
489 materials on these resources compared to fossil fuel-derived materials. However, many  
490 biopolymers may receive environmental credits from redirecting wastes, where the raw  
491 materials originate from agricultural by-products.

492 Many LCAs focus on the various trade-offs between traditional plastics vs. bio-  
493 based polymers from different aspects. Some of the studies are at a concept or pilot  
494 level only and do not include commercial-scale production techniques necessary for  
495 direct comparisons. Individual LCAs of bio-based packaging materials include  
496 polylactic acid (PLA) (Hermann et al., 2010; Ingrao et al., 2015; Madival et al., 2009),  
497 PLA and starch composites (Benetto et al., 2015; Vidal et al., 2007), pectin and maize  
498 starch (Günkaya and Banar, 2016), wheat gluten (Deng et al., 2013),  
499 polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA) (Khoo et al., 2010), chitosan (Leceta et al., 2013b; 2014),  
500 soy protein (Leceta et al., 2014), and agar (Leceta et al., 2014). In most cases,  
501 including chitosan films (Leceta et al., 2013b), the impacts from biopolymer production,  
502 apart from land and water utilization, were better or comparable to conventional plastic  
503 except for PHA (Khoo et al., 2010) and pectin and maize starch (Günkaya and Banar,

504 2016 ), where the biopolymer was considerably worse performing due to energy-  
505 intensive processes during production. Considering chitosan films are made from  
506 waste materials, there are considerable advantages compared to some other  
507 bioplastics for which the raw material requires a dedicated industry or redirection from  
508 human food chains. This was borne out by Muñoz et al. (2018) that showed raw  
509 materials for chitosan were redirected from composting. In other circumstances, chitin  
510 may be redirected from shrimp meal. However, shrimp meal is poor nutritionally and  
511 better efficiencies can be obtained by separating the chitin for chitosan production and  
512 retaining the protein and lipid fractions for animal nutrition (Newton et al., 2014).

513 Biopolymers perform particularly well compared to plastics in toxicity impacts  
514 related to disposal by incineration. In many cases, studies focus only on the production  
515 and subsequent disposal of an equivalent quantity of packaging material (e.g. 1 m<sup>2</sup> of  
516 film) with little focus on the performance of the packaging itself in reducing food waste  
517 (Wikström et al., 2016; 2014). In the case of chitosan (and other active) packaging, it  
518 performs a more complex function than standard plastic in terms of the added shelf life  
519 provided for the packaged product. It is important to factor this extra functionality into  
520 the environmental impact assessment in terms of avoided waste from the retailer and,  
521 potentially, the consumer (Wikström et al., 2016, 2014; Zhang et al., 2015). As chitosan  
522 film has already shown to perform well against standard plastic films, environmental  
523 benefits from avoided waste and the associated emissions of its disposal, at both the  
524 raw material supply end and at the retailer would be expected to add considerable  
525 benefits to this type of packaging. Although extension of shelf life of seafood using  
526 chitosan packaging has not been shown, directly applied chitosan coatings have been  
527 shown to considerably extend the shelf life of herring (Jeon et al., 2002), salmon  
528 (Sathivel, 2005), and mackerel (Wu et al., 2016). As the impacts associated with the  
529 food product vastly outweigh those of the packaging (Zhang et al., 2015), even minor  
530 shelf life extension will significantly reduce global emissions as consumption  
531 efficiencies are gained. Quantifying these reductions in impact is highly researchable.

532 A WRAP report (2015) showed that considerable financial savings could be  
533 made through extending shelf life of food and that the greatest savings could be made  
534 on the most perishable goods, such as seafood, because of the proportionately greater  
535 time for sale or utilization within the home. Zhang et al. (2015) demonstrated that by  
536 using antimicrobial packaging, considerable environmental impact savings could be  
537 made by reducing wasted beef at the retailer by 1.8% because of the substantial  
538 impacts associated with beef production. In most livestock production, including  
539 aquaculture, the majority of environmental impacts occur throughout the feed  
540 production stage with little contribution from the actual farming system, processing, or  
541 packaging, although the embodied impact accumulates at every stage throughout the  
542 life cycle of the product up to and including disposal. Therefore, small reductions in  
543 food waste at and after the processing stage result in larger reductions in accumulated  
544 upstream impacts and, consequently, the performance of the packaging in terms of its  
545 ability to reduce food wastage is often of much more consequence than the impacts  
546 associated with manufacture of the packaging material itself (Williams et al., 2008;  
547 Wikström et al., 2014, 2016).

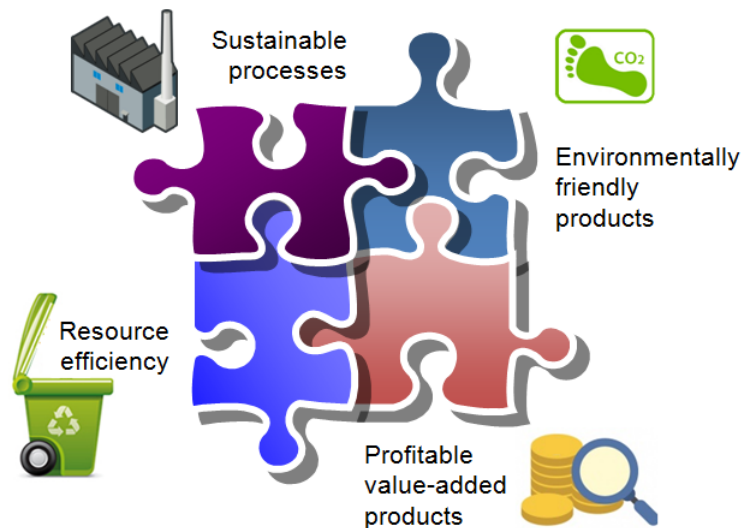
548 Considering the large quantities of waste highlighted above by Gustavson et al.  
549 (FAO, 2011), in developed nations at the retailer and consumer level, substantial  
550 environmental impact reductions could be made with better packaging technology.  
551 However, as the environmental footprint of a food item becomes lower, as with salmon  
552 (Pelletier et al., 2009) compared to beef (Pelletier et al., 2010), the relative importance  
553 of the packaging manufacture becomes higher compared to food waste savings  
554 (Wikström et al., 2014, 2016; Williams and Wikström, 2011).

555 It is important to note that, while food safety and quality aspects associated with  
556 reducing spoilage by utilizing active packaging are of importance, physical attributes  
557 related to consumer-friendly packaging can be critical. Wikström et al. (2014) pointed  
558 out that a high percentage of waste may occur in the household if the packaging is not

559 easy to use and/or does not meet the consumption requirements of a wide range of  
560 demographic groups, from large families with young children, to frail and elderly people  
561 living on their own. Therefore, ease-of-use characteristics are important to maintain  
562 when developing shelf life extension technologies. Such factors include: being easy to  
563 open without spillage, ability to reseal to prevent contamination, drying, and other  
564 spoilage, and easy to empty (Wikström et al., 2014; Williams and Wikström, 2011).  
565 Although packaging may extend shelf life considerably, its effect on consumer behavior  
566 to reduce waste is of more importance and difficult to measure (Williams and Wikström,  
567 2011), but as pointed out in the WRAP report (2015), it is likely that consumers may be  
568 highly influenced by extended shelf life, particularly on more perishable goods.

## 569 **8 Discussion of socio-economic implications of a circular economy for seafood** 570 **packaging**

571 An interdisciplinary approach to enhancing the circular economy around use of  
572 aquaculture by-products has been critical to this holistic analysis. A range of technical  
573 challenges that draw on knowledge related to polymer chemistry through to food  
574 processing and quality are of course central but there has also been a need to identify  
575 potential public health risks and, critically, to articulate the social and economic  
576 dimension (Figure 4). Reducing food losses, minimizing waste, and adding-value to  
577 fisheries (and aquaculture) output are highlighted as being of critical importance for  
578 humanity and the planet in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) adopted under  
579 the United Nations' 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (UN, 2015). In support  
580 of the goal related to sustainable consumption and production patterns, two targets are  
581 of relevance, in particular target 12.3 and target 12.5.



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583 Fig.4. Assembly of the different aspects that must be considered when the  
 584 development of novel packaging systems is addressed.

585 Target 12.3 relates to food waste at the retail level and consumption at home.  
 586 Losses and waste of fish in developing countries mainly occurs in the postharvest  
 587 stages of the value chain, due to poor handling and processing techniques, and lack of  
 588 cold storage and ice, in part because small-scale producers are unable to access  
 589 technology to maintain quality effectively. In developed countries a major proportion of  
 590 food waste happens at the consumer level. For fish and seafood it has been estimated  
 591 that in Europe about one-third of overall waste and losses in the fish and seafood value  
 592 chain happen at the consumer-level (FAO, 2011). A reduction of fish waste at the  
 593 consumer level through improved packaging and extending shelf life would therefore  
 594 have potential to contribute to this target. A systematic assessment of opportunities for  
 595 active packaging to counter unsustainable aspects of prevailing seafood product value  
 596 chains could be conducted using the DPSIR (Driving forces-Pressures-State-Impacts-  
 597 Responses) framework (Bunting, 2016).

598 Target 12.5 is about waste and losses along production and distribution chains.  
 599 The large observed levels of by-product generated by the fish and seafood processing  
 600 sector result in significant amounts of waste, when considering that in 2014 globally,

601 capture fisheries and aquaculture together supplied about 167 million tons of fish, of  
602 which about 88% was utilized for human consumption. Of the latter, 54% (equal to 79  
603 million tons) was supplied to consumers in different processed forms, and in Europe  
604 and North America this was as high as two-thirds of total fish for human consumption  
605 (FAO, 2016). The logistical challenges of adding enough value to processing by-  
606 products in undeveloped markets are such that much still becomes waste. Enhancing  
607 the value of fisheries value chains would therefore have potential to contribute to end  
608 hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable  
609 agriculture (UN, 2015).

610         When considering the social and economic costs and benefits of transforming  
611 fish by-products into packaging material, it should be noted that definitions of food  
612 losses and waste are not always straightforward, and what is edible also varies across  
613 contexts and time (Rutten, 2013). In addition, it depends on the reference frame of the  
614 analysis, as from a food security perspective biofuels, feed, and other non-food uses of  
615 resources intended for human consumption are considered a loss, while from a  
616 perspective of economics and value added they are not (Rutten, 2013). Who benefits  
617 from adopting alternative packaging solutions will also not be spread evenly or  
618 equitably across product value chains. Consequently, development of new techniques  
619 and packaging solutions should ideally occur in collaboration with value chain actors  
620 and be responsive to consumer needs and expectations. Approaches to engaging with  
621 stakeholders to understand their different perspectives, and challenge people to re-  
622 evaluate their knowledge and perceptions, can include focus groups, product testing,  
623 and stakeholder Delphi assessments (Bunting, 2008; 2010).

624         Appropriate safeguards must be devised to ensure there are no adverse social  
625 impacts associated with changing packaging solutions. These impacts could come  
626 from three sources. First, diverting edible parts of fish away from consumption by the  
627 poor. In Bangladesh, for example, it has been shown that prawn heads and legs,

628 removed as by-products during processing, are used for direct consumption (Ahmed et  
629 al., 2010). Second, diverting materials away from local processing industries may  
630 disadvantage poor and marginal groups employed in such activities. Value-added  
631 items produced from such by-products (e.g. pastes and sauces) can in turn contribute  
632 to the nutrition and food security of those directly involved and also communities not  
633 involved in aquaculture or fisheries (Plews-Ogan, 2013). Third, by-products may be  
634 diverted away from processing into formulated feed for fish, livestock, or poultry, thus  
635 affecting feed security indirectly (Anh et al., 2011; Muir, 2013).

636         There is circumstantial evidence that seafood by-product-derived packaging  
637 would find favor in the market place. Trends in corporate social responsibility (CSR) are  
638 strongly towards reduction in environmental impact in food processing and retail and  
639 food service sectors. Evidence shows that some seafood consumers have an interest  
640 in buying more environmentally friendly fish and that a significant portion of consumers  
641 is willing to pay more for it (Honkanen and Olsen, 2009; Olesen et al., 2010). Beneficial  
642 attributes of active packaging derived from seafood by-products may encourage  
643 consumers to seek out such products and to pay a premium for them. In markets  
644 where environmental certification is already well accepted, inclusion under existing  
645 schemes may be an efficient means to ensure that sustainable seafood packaging is  
646 adopted as a core element of broader assurance protocols. Alternatively, seafood  
647 brands and multiple retailers could invest in awareness-raising and labelling to  
648 communicate the benefits of sustainable packaging to consumers.

649         Whilst a novel type of active packaging may be technologically possible and  
650 environmentally beneficial, the packaging must also be commercially acceptable to  
651 those stakeholders in the distribution channel who effectively control access to end  
652 consumers, namely retailers, wholesalers, and food service providers. Organized forms  
653 of retailing, whether through multiple chains or affiliated networks, control increasing  
654 shares of product markets, store numbers, and floor-space in all parts of the world.

655 This concentrates buying power and decision-making into fewer nodes, therefore  
656 acceptance by these stakeholders is crucial to the adoption of any form of packaging  
657 innovation. Mainstream grocery retailers, in general terms, operate a high volume/low  
658 margin business model, therefore incremental gains in cost reduction or increasing  
659 sales value are attractive, especially when the scale of the overall business is taken  
660 into account. Gains associated with high value/high margin product, such as shellfish,  
661 are particularly attractive.

662 However, retailers are notoriously cautious and are late adopters of technology-  
663 based food innovation (Esbjerg et al., 2016), particularly if they feel there is any risk or  
664 potential risk to their established customer franchise. Consumers eat food not  
665 packaging, therefore most retailer reluctance relates to new food production techniques  
666 where it is feared that customers do not understand or appreciate the technology  
667 concerned. However, consumers also have expectations and exhibit routine norms of  
668 behavior relating to packaging and product presentation. These need to be taken into  
669 account. Concerns have been expressed that packaging-related benefits can raise  
670 customer concerns if accepted norms are breached, for example, if shelf life is deemed  
671 to be too long and not “natural” (i.e. beyond the assumed/accepted norm).  
672 Communication with customers in terms and language that they understand is  
673 therefore important to raise awareness of any benefits and to encourage acceptance.

674 The benefits of novel packaging would, however, appear to positively align with  
675 a number of current agendas within the retail grocery industry. The broad CSR and  
676 waste agendas are growing in importance, not just through increased legal compliance,  
677 but also as a point of differentiation and in response to increased consumer interest  
678 and expectations. Additionally, the CSR agenda provides the opportunity for cost  
679 savings or cost transfer within the distribution channel. Cost savings may be most  
680 evident in terms of the potential for extended shelf life, reduced waste, and less  
681 handling of products including shelf replenishment (which incurs direct costs and can



682 increase shrinkage and waste). A third consideration is the consumer facing benefits  
683 relating to product quality and waste reduction, although commercial issues concerning  
684 the attractiveness of the packaging, and its role in product presentation as both an item  
685 and a category on a shelf display, play an important role. These considerations,  
686 alongside the reassurance that any packaging meets legal requirements relating to  
687 health and safety and carries minimal risk from allergies, will be taken into account by  
688 channel stakeholders when deciding if to adopt. They are commercial considerations,  
689 not technological considerations.

690 As a basic requirement it would be important to label packaging as  
691 biodegradable. Currently no major sustainability seafood certifier has moved to  
692 incorporate packaging into its standards, but this may simply recognize the current  
693 availability of technologies. Such organizations have also shown interest in moving  
694 from production-centric standards to whole value chain sustainability recognizing whole  
695 product value and rewarding innovations through certification. Other food packaging  
696 such as Tetrapak has moved to more sustainable raw material sourcing strategies and  
697 sought to raise attention to this change in pack-level labeling.

698 Potential benefits of adopting biodegradable active packing will also depend on  
699 the means of disposal. Often this depends on the municipal authorities or private  
700 operators, and investment of public money to facilitate recycling may be needed.  
701 Inappropriate disposal to landfill sites, for example, may result in significant negative  
702 environmental impacts negating gains elsewhere across the product value chain. Even  
703 where appropriate recycling facilities exist, consumer behavior can dictate how  
704 effective such schemes are and appropriate awareness-raising and support mechanics  
705 could be critical in realizing the potential of sustainable seafood packaging. Conditions  
706 needed to facilitate the widespread and successful adoption of active and  
707 biodegradable seafood packaging could be assessed using the STEPS (social,  
708 technical, environmental, political, sustainability) framework.

709 In sum, adding value to fish processing by-products may benefit processors  
710 financially as increased sales will enhance their revenue and waste disposal costs may  
711 be avoided. However, a critical analysis of the long-term total costs and benefits of  
712 producing such materials needs to be made.

## 713 **9 Conclusions and future prospects**

714 This review highlights the need for an inter-disciplinary approach to the  
715 development of active seafood packaging within a circular economy. Massive waste  
716 generated during seafood processing can be properly managed in order to obtain  
717 renewable and biodegradable raw materials. This management implies the use of  
718 environmentally friendly and cost-effective processes for the extraction of materials to  
719 ensure that the innovative biorefinery practices designed to add value to by-products  
720 contributes to the sustainable development of materials. Nowadays, the production of  
721 chitosan and fish gelatin has been scaled up and these materials are commercially  
722 available. Furthermore, some bioactive compounds can be separated after chitosan or  
723 gelatin extraction and can be incorporated into the film-forming formulations to produce  
724 packaging and extend food shelf life and reduce food losses. Although some attempts  
725 have been successfully carried out to manufacture films and coatings based on  
726 chitosan and/or gelatin, more research in this field is needed in order to scale-up  
727 production using the techniques employed by the industries dedicated to the production  
728 of the conventional plastics and, thus, to produce sustainable and profitable seafood  
729 packaging. From a global and interdisciplinary point of view, adoption of technical,  
730 environmental, economical, and social considerations is needed to ensure that well  
731 intended initiatives to instigate a circular economy have positive impacts on the  
732 development of active food packaging, thereby contributing to food security and  
733 nutrition.

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## Highlights

- The loop from food processing waste to food packaging **can be closed**
- Sustainable biorefinery processes **can be used** to extract value-added raw materials
- Food shelf-life extension and food loss reduction **can be achieved** through novel food packaging
- Environmental, social and economical benefits **can be obtained from** food shelf life extension
- An interdisciplinary approach **is needed** toward decision-making on novel food packaging



Sustainable  
processes



Environmentally  
friendly  
products



Resource  
efficiency



Profitable  
value-added  
products

