1 The fourth industrial revolution in the food industry— Part II:

2 Emerging food trends

3 Abdo Hassoun^{a,b,*}, Alaa El-Din Bekhit^c, Anet Režek Jambrak^d, Joe M. Regenstein^e,

4 Farid Chemat^f, James D. Morton^g, María Gudjónsdóttir^h, María Carpenaⁱ, Miguel A.

5 Prietoⁱ, Paula Varela^j, Rai Naveed Arshad^k, Rana Muhammad Aadil^l, Zuhaib Bhat^m,

6 Øydis Ueland^j

- ⁷ ^aSustainable AgriFoodtech Innovation & Research (SAFIR), 62000 Arras, France
- ^bSyrian AcademicExpertise (SAE), 27200 Gaziantep, Turkey
- ⁹ ^cDepartment of Food Science, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand
- ¹⁰ ^dFaculty of Food Technology and Biotechnology, University of Zagreb, Zagreb, Croatia
- ¹¹ ^eDepartment of Food Science, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, 14853-7201, USA
- ¹² ^fGreen Extraction Team, INRAE, Avignon University, 84029 Avignon, France
- ^gDepartment of Wine Food and Molecular Biosciences, Lincoln University, New Zealand
- ¹⁴ ^hFaculty of Food Science and Nutrition, School of Health Sciences, University of Iceland,
- 15 102 Reykjavík, Iceland
- ¹⁶ ⁱUniversidade de Vigo, Nutrition and Bromatology Group, Department of Analytical
- 17 Chemistry and Food Science, Faculty of Science, E32004 Ourense, Spain.
- ^jNofima Norwegian Institute of Food, Fisheries and Aquaculture Research, Ås, Norway
- ^kInstitute of High Voltage & High Current, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310, Skudai,
 Johor, Malaysia
- ¹National Institute of Food Science and Technology, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad,
 38000, Pakistan
- 23 ^mDivision of Livestock Products Technology, SKUAST-J, India
- 24
- 25 * Corresponding author. E-mail addresses: <u>a.hassoun@saf-ir.com</u>(A. Hassoun).

26 ABSTRACT

The food industry has recently been under unprecedented pressure due to major global challenges, such as climate change, exponential increase in world population and urbanization, and the worldwide spread of new diseases and pandemics, such as the COVID-19. The fourth industrial revolution (Industry 4.0) has been gaining momentum since 2015 and has revolutionized the way in which food is produced, transported, stored, perceived, and consumed worldwide, leading to the emergence of new food trends.

33 After reviewing Industry 4.0 technologies (e.g., artificial intelligence, smart sensors, robotics, blockchain, and the Internet of Things) in Part I of this work (Hassoun, Aït-kaddour, et al., 34 2022), this complimentary review will focus on emerging food trends (such as fortified and 35 functional foods, additive manufacturing technologies, cultured meat, precision fermentation, 36 37 and personalized food) and their connection with Industry 4.0 innovations. Implementation of new food trends has been associated with recent advances in Industry 4.0 technologies, 38 enabling a range of new possibilities. The results show several positive food trends that 39 40 reflect increased awareness of food chain actors of the food-related health and environmental 41 impacts of food systems. Emergence of other food trends and higher consumer interest and engagement in the transition towards sustainable food development and innovative green 42 strategies are expected in the future. 43

44 **KEYWORDS**: Alternative proteins; cultured meat; consumer food behavior; 3D printing;
45 food waste; Industry 4.0; personalized food; sustainability

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Climate change is one of the most pressing issues that currently challenges humankind and calls for immediate solutions. From catastrophic droughts and fires in some parts of the world 48 to severe flooding and landslides in others, extreme dramatic weather has been occurring 49 more often worldwide over the past few years. The food industry and the current food 50 systems are among the significant contributors to climate change and other environmental 51 52 damage (Crippa et al., 2021; Rolnick et al., 2022). Many reports show that the emergence of the fourth industrial revolution (or Industry 4.0) has dramatically affected and disrupted the 53 food sector, and social and environmental sustainability aspects of food production 54 55 (Galanakis et al., 2021; Oláh et al., 2020). Industry 4.0 technologies and digitalization have the potential to enhance smart production, boost industrial productivity, improve 56 sustainability and benefit the United Nations'(UN) sustainable development goals (Bai et al., 57 58 2020; Marvin et al., 2022).

59 Industry 4.0 is an interdisciplinary approach that combines physical, digital, and biological 60 domains. The main Industry 4.0 technologies in the agriculture and food industry are artificial intelligence (AI) the Internet of Things (IoT), smart sensors, robotics, and 3D printing 61 (Hassoun, Cropotova, et al., 2022; Klerkx et al., 2022). Since 2015, more attention has been 62 paid to Industry 4.0 technologies, and the adaptation of these frontier technologies has 63 accelerated global digitalization and digital transformation (Echegaray et al., 2022; 64 Jagatheesaperumal et al., 2021). Consistent with Industry 4.0, several food megatrends have 65 evolved during the last few years, some of them being reinforced by the COVID-19 66 67 pandemic. For example, as healthy nutrition is an important pillar in the fight against the COVID-19 crisis (Galanakis et al., 2020; Vishwakarma et al., 2022), food fortification and 68 functional food ingredients are receiving renewed attention as ways to address malnutrition 69 70 and strengthen immunity (Olson et al., 2021; Tiozon et al., 2021). For example, the use of phenolic compounds and other bioactive ingredients in fortification has been widely reported
to enhance antioxidant and antimicrobial properties (Chen et al., 2021).

One of the increasing food trends generally supported by environmentalists is the 73 74 replacement of animal-based foods (e.g., meat, fish, eggs, milk, and their products) by plantbased products. Indeed, plant-based products have increased in popularity owing to increased 75 awareness of consumers about the benefit of this diet to both health and the environment 76 77 (Alcorta et al., 2021; McClements & Grossmann, 2021). Meat alternatives (e.g., cultured meat and plant-based substitutes) have been receiving increasing attention due not only to the 78 huge burden of meat production on the planet (i.e., pollution, greenhouse gas emissions, and 79 80 water requirements) but also to the potential concerns of high meat consumption on public health issues (Noguerol et al., 2021; van der Weele et al., 2019). Recent technological 81 advances have also accelerated the development of cultured meat, with many different 82 83 implications for the environment, human health, and animal welfare (Nobre, 2022; Treich, 2021). In addition of animal-free meat, other products, such as eggs and dairy can be 84 85 produced from a range of raw materials, including animal cells, plants, fungi, and non-living organisms (Takefuji, 2021). 86

The emerging technology breakthroughs of Industry 4.0 have paved the way for a new 87 generation of food products and production methods. As an example, the advances in AI, 88 bioinformatics, and systems and computational biology have enabled the emergence of 89 90 precision fermentation; a potential substitute for traditional fermentation with a promise of producing large amounts of a specific compound at a low price (Singh et al., 2022; Teng et 91 92 al., 2021). Further optimization of the fermentation process and application of other biotechnological advances, such as enzymatic hydrolysis are good examples of sustainable 93 strategies for the recovery of value-added compounds from food wastes and by-products. 94 95 Many recent publications have shown that a range of bioactive compounds could be 96 recovered from a large variety of food processing wastes and by-products using these new
97 technologies (Ozogul et al., 2021; Socas-Rodríguez et al., 2021).

Three dimensional (3D) printed products have been increasing in many industries, including 98 the food sector. Recent technological advancements in 3D food printing have enabled 99 tailoring food properties to individual needs, paving the way for promising applications of 100 personalized nutrition (Baiano, 2020; Portanguen et al., 2019). Personalized foods have 101 102 recently become an important focus area and could shape the future of the food industry (Derossi et al., 2020; Ueland et al., 2020). A wide variety of carbohydrate-rich foods (e.g., 103 mashed potatoes and fruits), proteins (e.g., soy and insect proteins), and lipid-based materials 104 105 (e.g., cheese and chocolate) has been investigated for the formulation of food inks (Zhang et 106 al., 2021).

At the time, while food insecurity is significantly increasing, particularly during the current 107 COVID-19 pandemic, there is an immediate need to promote sustainable management of 108 109 food wastes and optimal valorization of food by-products. More and more consumers 110 embrace sustainable consumption patterns, such as shifting to animal-free food products, switching to climate-friendly foods, and showing positive attitudes toward compounds 111 recovered from food wastes and by-products. However, consumer acceptance and attitudes 112 towards these emerging food trends and new food technologies should be carefully 113 considered and studied in depth to better understand consumer food choice and preference 114 (Siegrist & Hartmann, 2020; Tso et al., 2021). Consumer food choices are driven not only by 115 the general aspects related to health, sensory properties, price, and sustainability but also by 116 personal preferences associated with taste, color, shape, etc.; hence the potential development 117 of personalized nutrition. 118

The most characteristic technologies of Industry 4.0 (e.g., AI, blockchain, IoT, robotics, and 119 nanotechnology) have been reviewed in Part I of this work (Hassoun, Aït-Kaddour, et al., 120 121 2022). Part II will summarize the recent developments regarding emerging food trends in the age of Industry 4.0 by compiling and discussing scientific results from the existing literature 122 published over the last six years. The aim of this review is not to provide comprehensive 123 coverage of all emerging food trends but rather to highlight recent developments and 124 125 implications of Industry 4.0 technologies in evolving the selected food trends. The rest of this manuscript is organized as follows: A short overview of the UN Sustainable Development 126 127 Goals (SDG), especially those connected with food, and their implication with Food Industry 4.0 and new food trends will be first given. Selected emerging food trends will be then 128 presented and the significant role of Industry 4.0 technologies in accelerating these trends 129 will be highlighted. Consumer acceptance of new technologies and emerging food trends will 130 also be discussed. Finally, current issues and future perspectives will be defined and 131 conclusions will be provided. 132

133 **2. SDG**

134 Depletion of fossil resources, global warming, and increasing world population represent a major Damocles' Sword for humanity to avoid famine and climate change while supporting 135 the end of the petroleum era, which are interconnected. The Food and Agricultural 136 Organization (FAO) of the UN reports that 815 million people are suffering from famine, 155 137 million of them are children under 5 suffering from stunted growth, and 52 million are 138 children victim of weight deficiency. The 2030 Agenda of the UN for Sustainable 139 Development identifies 17 objectives that should be incorporated within development 140 projects and future programs. Researchers even in academia and industry are starting to use 141 new and greener techniques to meet the SDG: a) no poverty, b) zero hunger, c) good health 142 143 and well-being, d) quality education, e) gender equality, f) clean water and sanitation, g) affordable and clean energy, h) decent work and economic growth, i) industry, innovation,
and infrastructure, j) reduced inequalities, k) sustainable cities and communities, l)
responsible consumption and production, m) climate action, n) life below water, o) life on
land, p) peace, justice, and strong institutions, and q) partnerships for the goals.

148 Based on the information available in the literature and the immense importance of food and feed, it is believed that green food processing and other sustainable food strategies could 149 150 directly or indirectly meet the seventeen SDG. The panoramic vision entails the ecological, economic, and social dimensions of sustainability, providing principles and a reference for 151 national and local policy (Mancini et al., 2019; United Nations, 2021). For example, the 152 growing interest in edible insects, which according to market research by Meticulous 153 Research® is expected to reach \$ 8 billion US dollars (USD) by 2030 and the insect for 154 animal feed market is projected to reach a value of \$1.4 billion USD by 2024. This highlights 155 the transition of industries reliance on conventional protein sources that have had detrimental 156 effects on the planet to a sustainable protein source (such as insects) that ensures not only 157 economic viability but also boosts the move to a circular economy. 158

3. Emerging trends in the food industry

160 *3.1. Food fortification and functional foods*

The interest in development of foods that can positively impact human health beyond basic nutrition is gaining momentum. Although a clear definition of fortified and functional foods has been lacking, there has been a general agreement that these foods have healthy ingredients and/or nutrients (occurring naturally or produced industrially) intended to provide nutritional or health benefits (Aguilar-Pérez et al., 2021; Balthazar et al., 2022). For example, a possible procedure to prevent cardiovascular disease was suggested by Piepoli et al. (2016), i.e., that consuming 2 g/day of phytosterol-rich functional foods can reduce low-density

lipoprotein cholesterol by 10%. Besides phytosterols, many other bioactive compounds, such 168 as dietary fibers, antioxidants, omega-3 and other polyunsaturated fatty acids have been 169 170 suggested as being interesting functional ingredients that can be applied in the development of functional foods (Granato et al., 2020). Additionally, probiotics (ingested live 171 microorganisms that induce health benefits in the host if added in adequate amounts) and 172 prebiotics (selected substrates used by the beneficial host microorganisms) have received 173 174 attention leading to their being among the most studied functional components (Comunian et al., 2021; Sirini et al., 2022). Moreover, the use of postbiotics, which are products or 175 176 metabolic byproducts produced by probiotics when they consume prebiotics, has been tested in many applications in the food industry (Moradi et al., 2020). 177

Recent studies have shown new sources of bioactive molecules for functional food 178 development. For example, algae have high amounts of proteins which are also high in 179 180 essential amino acids, unsaturated fatty acids, and vitamins, and can be added as a functional ingredient to meat and meat-based products to obtain healthier foods (Wang et al., 2022). The 181 protein contents are higher than in traditional animal products, such as those from beef, 182 chicken, or dairy. Moreover, some natural microalgae-derived compounds, such as 183 biologically active peptides, have shown promising antioxidant, antihypertensive, 184 185 immunomodulatory, anticancerogenic, hepatoprotective, and anticoagulant activities (Caporgno & Mathys, 2018; Vrenna et al., 2021). However, variation in the nutritional and 186 functional composition of algae and a lack of knowledge regarding bioavailability and limited 187 188 understanding of the role of algae in human metabolism and intermediary metabolic processes are the main limitations (Birch & Bonwick, 2018; Wells et al., 2017). 189

Food fortification refers to the addition of nutrients (e.g., vitamins and minerals) in foods (mainly staple foods) to prevent or correct a demonstrated deficiency and to enhance its intake in the general population or specific population groups (Vishwakarma et al., 2022). For example, fortifying wheat flour with folic acid has been included in national fortification
programs in many countries, especially in industrialized countries (Mannar & Hurrell, 2018;
Zimmerman & Montgomery, 2018). Adoption of large-scale food fortification programs can
improve health and well-being of millions of people around the world (Mannar et al., 2018).
A major focus has been on functional and fortified foods during the COVID-19 pandemic due
to their potential to improve immunity to withstand this disease (Afroz et al., 2021; Tripathy
et al., 2021).

Food fortification and manufacturing of functional foods take advantage of technological 200 advances and the strengthening of the concept of Industry 4.0. For example, emerging 201 202 innovations in the field of algae biotechnology, as discussed above, are offering substantial opportunities for the development of low-cost production with exciting possibilities of 203 automation through the application of IoT and other technological advances (Fabris et al., 204 205 2020). Machine learning is the core of AI and data science (Jordan & Mitchell, 2015) and has found its way into various food-related applications, including functional foods and 206 207 fortification. Machine learning allows a computer system to develop an algorithm that can map input information, such as details about packaged foods and beverages, and to predict a 208 specified output (e.g., fiber content) based on commonly available nutrient information 209 210 (Davies et al., 2021). The integration of AI into the discovery and development of functional food ingredients can lead to a safer and more sustainable food chain achieving safe and cost-211 effective solutions for improved human and animal health (Doherty et al., 2021). In addition 212 213 to machine learning, AI, and IoT, other Industry 4.0 components, such as 3D printing, can have a significant role in food fortification and manufacturing of functional foods. For 214 example, a functional chicken meat-based snack was developed using 3D printing. In this 215 study, the printability was significantly improved by the addition of 1.8% gelatin as a natural 216 ingredient (Bulut & Candoğan, 2022). 217

Despite the benefits of functional and fortified foods, their application is challenged by 218 certain critical limitations related to degradation and loss of functionality and the instability 219 of bioactive compounds, affecting in particular the sensory properties of food products 220 (Ayuso et al., 2022; Granato et al., 2020). As traditional extraction and processing methods 221 (such as conventional thermal treatments) can cause additional challenges, emerging 222 alternative techniques, including among others supercritical fluids, cold plasma, pulsed 223 224 electric field, ultrasound, and high pressure processing have been studied (Balthazar et al., 2022), using the substantial scientific and technological advances of Industry 4.0. For 225 226 example, the application of ultrasound treatment combined with pH-shifting increased the in vitro digestibility and foaming properties of amaranth protein (Figueroa-González et al., 227 2022). 228

229 One of the most promising trends is the development of innovative and reliable delivery 230 systems based on recent advances in nanotechnology and encapsulation (Aguilar-Pérez et al., 2021; Tripathy et al., 2021). Current research has been focused on the use of encapsulation 231 and micro- and nano-encapsulation to develop new functional and fortified foods, which can 232 be reflected by the increased number of publications on these topics (Figure 1). 233 234 Technological innovations and scientific advances in this field are rapidly evolving leading to 235 the emergence of nano-engineered materials that can be used to improve the delivery of bioactive compounds at target sites (Delshadi et al., 2020; Sahoo et al., 2021). Other 236 advantages include effective protection of bioactive compounds against environmental and 237 238 processing conditions, enhanced functional properties, improved nutritional profiles, and increased bioavailability (Chen et al., 2021; Comunian et al., 2021). 239

240 3.2. Additive technologies (3D printing)

Digitization and creation of smart systems of production processes is a need of today's 241 industry given the current tendency to change manufacturing from mass to custom 242 production. The advancement of technologies and their application in industry could ensure 243 higher productivity, sustainable processing, and eco-food designs with minimal 244 environmental impact (Nara et al., 2021; Portanguen et al., 2019). Additive manufacturing, 245 also known as 3D printing, is one of the main Industry 4.0 components that has experienced 246 247 major advances (Enfield et al., 2022; Hassoun, Aït-Kaddour, et al., 2022). Additive techniques provide opportunities for the production of personalized products and offer 248 249 several advantages, such as high performance, high speed, and low cost (Demei et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2017). In addition, 3D printing can offer the possibility of using food wastes and 250 by-products as well as other low-value products, e.g., tougher cuts of meat (Bhat et al., 2021). 251

Several 3D printing methods and software could be used to develop the model to be printed
(Table 1): The following 3D printing methods are available in the food sector: extrusionbased printing, selective sintering printing, binder jetting, and inkjet printing (Le-Bail et al.,
2020; Mantihal et al., 2020). A brief description of these techniques follows:

256 a) The extrusion-based printing, or fused deposition modelling (FDM), was invented in 1988 by Scott Crump to produce plastic objects (Baiano, 2020; Jambrak et al., 2021). 257 FDM has become the main 3D food printing method. This technology is based on the 258 extrusion of semi-plastic materials from a movable head that is being deposited in 259 ultra-thin layers. The material is heated at temperatures that are slightly above their 260 melting point so they can easily solidify after extrusion. One of the main advantages 261 is undoubtedly the freedom of design, which allows the creation of complex shapes 262 that are difficult to achieve with traditional methods. This technique can be used for 263 many types of food materials, such as meat puree and cheese, cookie dough, cereal 264

derivatives, and chocolate (Navaf et al., 2022; Tejada-Ortigoza & Cuan-Urquizo,
266 2022).

b) Selective sintering printing is a technology where the sintering source is a laser or hot
air that generates energy, allowing the fusion of particles together layer by layer into a
final 3D structure. The laser scans cross-sections of the specific areas of each layer
and selectively fuses the material. This technology allows applying different food
material components to each layer, making it suitable for multiple printing materials
in one product (Bedoya et al., 2022; Mantihal et al., 2020).

c) In the binder jetting 3D printing, a powdered material is deposited evenly layer by 273 layer and the binder is selectively ejected between each layer to bind two consecutive 274 powder layers, while the unfused material can be removed and recycled. The 275 advantages of this technology include high printer speed, suitability for complex and 276 delicate 3D models, and the potential to create colorful 3D food products by varying 277 the composition of the binder. The main limitations of this technology are limited 278 279 printing materials and the need for post-processing operations, such as curing at high 280 temperatures or dehydration (Baiano, 2020; Enfield et al., 2022).

d) Inkjet printing technology is based on dispensing droplets from a thermal or
piezoelectric head for surface filling in certain regions. Inkjet printers are suitable for
low viscosity materials (e.g., chocolate, liquid dough, gels, and jams). The technique
is used to print drawings on flat moving products, and cannot be used for complex
food structures, and the printed material cannot be recycled (Varvara et al., 2021;
Zhang et al., 2022).

In the last few years, 3D printing has become mainstream, and has been used in many industrial sectors, including the food industry. Numerous studies published over the past

decade on 3D food printing have shown the value of this technology in the food industry, as can be shown from data obtained using the Scopus dataset (**Figure 2**). For example, a range of bakery products (Zhang et al., 2022) and meat products (Dick et al., 2019) can be produced using 3D printing technology. In addition, recent technological advances in 3D printing have enhanced many other food-related applications, such as intelligent food packaging (Tracey et al., 2022).

295 Moreover, 3D food printing is also of import for other food trends, especially personalized nutrition (Derossi et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022) and cultured meat (Handral et al. 2022). 296 This cutting-edge and rapidly evolving technology has shown potential to design tailored 297 298 foods with specific characteristics (e.g., texture, flavor, shape and size, and nutritional 299 quality) that meet the needs of special consumer segments (e.g., the elderly, dysphagia patients, children, pregnant women, and athletes). For example, 3D printed chicken meat 300 301 based products can be developed and customized to meet manufacturing needs by optimizing printing parameters and the levels of added gelatin, using the response surface methodology 302 303 (Bulut & Candoğan, 2022). In another study, binder jetting 3D printing was used to create protein-rich snack foods with different texture properties by changing calcium caseinate 304 305 content, binder amounts, and the post-treatment (Zhu et al., 2022).

One of the interesting applications of 3D printing is the so-called 'bioprinting' to produce textured and appealing meat products that can have a healthier content and be convenient for people with allergies (Handral et al. 2022; Portanguen et al. 2019). Automation and recent technological innovations and achievements in 3D bioprinting could bring major environmental benefits and achieve an economically scalable production of clean meat (Lindner & Blaeser, 2022).

Examples of 3D printer food can be found in Table 1. 3D printed food can be found in 312 professional kitchens, in small confectionery production, in start-ups that are printing meat, 313 etc. Different materials that are food-grade, such as sugar, gelatin, dough, and chocolate, can 314 be used as material for 3D printing (Mantihal et al., 2020). It is important to emphasize that 315 food waste material can be successfully used as "ink" in 3D printing (Jagadiswaran et al., 316 2021). It should be stressed that the used materials must provide optimal rheological 317 318 properties to improve the food's material flowability and printability (Mantihal et al., 2020). In addition, polymeric materials can be used for 3D printing. Food safe 3D printing filaments 319 320 include polylactic acid (also known as poly or polylactide) and acrylonitrile butadiene styrene that are commonly used thermoplastic polyesters. Other materials, such as polypropylene, 321 polyethylene terephthalate and polyethylene terephthalate glycol, can provide significant 322 chemical resistance, durability, and excellent formability for manufacturing (Mikula et al., 323 2020). 324

Although food 3D printing offers huge possibilities when it comes to food sustainability, such as reduced carbon footprint, reduced need for energy-intensive manufacturing, and reduced amount of raw material, the unnaturalness perception of 3D printed products by consumers remains the main limitation (Jambrak et al., 2021; Siegrist & Hartmann, 2020).

329 3.3. Alternative proteins

The demand for protein has always been high due to its nutritional and biological importance, expanding human populations, and world crises (e.g., climate changes and wars). These factors have re-emerged in recent years with varying importance for various nations. Several re-emerging and new protein sources from plants, microbes, the marine environment, insects, and *in-vitro* meat may offer opportunities to obtain higher quality protein and new sources of bioactive peptides (Aguilera, 2022; Derossi et al., 2020; Glaros et al., 2022). Over the last decade, there has been a strong interest from industry, academia, and consumers inestablishing alternatives to animal-based proteins.

338 *3.3.1. Drivers for alternative proteins*

The trend towards diversification of protein sources and the development of alternative protein food systems is motivated by health, environmental, and economic factors. For example, many of the alternative protein sources may have higher quality proteins that offer better nutritional and health benefits due to a lower content of undesirable nutrients (e.g., saturated fat and cholesterol) or higher contents of nutritionally desirable components, such as unsaturated fat and secondary metabolites.

One of the most interesting protein sources are plants. The healthiness of plant-based diet is 345 supported by the backing of health authorities, such as the World Health Organization 346 347 (WHO) of the UN that recommends "Eat a wide variety of foods from different food groups, with an emphasis on plant-based foods" as a guideline for healthy eating (Lehikoinen & 348 Salonen, 2019; WHO, 2018). Environmentally, alternative proteins are considered to have 349 lower greenhouse gas emissions and discharged organic matter, water use and ecological 350 footprint compared to animal farming. Therefore, systems proposed for alternative proteins 351 352 are considered more resilient and sustainable than animal-based protein production. Required increases in animal production to meet future demands cannot be met by plant-based 353 354 ingredients needed for animal production due to the low protein conversion ratio in animals, 355 as approximately 3.3, 3.85, and 11 kg of protein are required in the US to produce 1 kg of protein of poultry, pork and beef, respectively (Mekonnen et al., 2019). These estimates may 356 be substantially higher for less developed agricultural systems. However, the role of animals 357 358 in converting plant by-products and other waste materials to a high-quality food should also not be overlooked. Furthermore, alternative proteins avoid issues of animal welfare and may 359

offer new sensory attributes that resonate well with modern consumers (Weindl et al., 2020). 360 The alternative protein sector, especially companies targeting animal-like food products, is 361 seeing fast growth rates and the number of companies involved in the sector are increasing 362 https://pivotfood.org/plant-based-companies/) due to increased venture capital 363 (see investments, rapid technological development, and increased interest from a number of 364 consumer groups who are not able to or do not wish to eat animal-based products (e.g., 365 366 vegans or those with health issues). However, sales of plant-based alternatives in the US seem to have leveled off in 2021. There is also an increase in "flexitarians", i.e., consumers 367 368 who are decreasing but not eliminating animal foods but are increasing alternative foods.

369 Most of the technological advances were already discussed in Part I (Hassoun, Aït-Kaddour, 370 et al., 2022). Advanced technologies are being used to unlock new opportunities to revolutionize the way food protein is produced. For example, technological developments 371 372 and recent advances in green technologies, such as biotechnology, nanotechnology, nonthermal extraction and processing techniques (e.g., pulsed electric field, high pressure 373 374 processing, and ultrasound) and other Industry 4.0 technologies have enabled the production of protein foods with better nutritional and sensory qualities and reduced energy consumption 375 376 and gas emissions, from alternative sources, including food wastes and by-products (Bradu et 377 al., 2022; Ozogul et al., 2021). For example, the application of ultrasound was found to provide many advantages (such as enhanced physical stability, improved desirable bacterial 378 fermentation, and reduced pathogenic microorganisms) to plant-based milks (Sarangapany et 379 380 al., 2022). Recently, it was argued that the combination of 3D food printing and AI offers significant potential and promising perspectives for exploring alternative protein sources 381 from plants, insects, fungi, and algae (Bedoya et al., 2022). In the following section, the 382 discussion will focus on plant proteins only since it is probably 383 the most developed/established alternative protein source. 384

385 *3.3.2. Plant proteins*

Legumes, grains, and nuts are the major sources of plant proteins in the human diet. Many plants have been used as stable sources of protein that vary among nations depending on environmental, cultural, and economical factors. Legumes such as peas (chickpea, cowpea, split pea, and grass pea), beans (kidney, azuki, pinto, faba, and soy), lentils and lupin, cereals (barley, maize, millets, rice, sorghum and wheat), pseudocereals (amaranth, broomcorn millet buckwheat, canary seed, chia, quinoa, and teff), seeds (flaxseed, hemp, pumpkin, sunflower, and sesame), and nuts are widely consumed.

The quality of protein is normally assessed by the evaluation of its essential amino acid 393 content and by bioassays that involve the use of growing rats or piglets. The results are 394 reported as protein efficiency ratio (PER, body weight gain (g)/g protein consumed by the 395 experimental animal model), net protein utilization (NPU, the portion of the amino acids that 396 is converted into protein divided by the total amino acid provided to the subject model), 397 biological value (BV, the absorbed amino acid content converted into protein by the animal 398 399 model) or protein digestibility- corrected amino acid score (PDCAAS, the amount of the first 400 limiting amino acid in 1 g of protein divided by the amount of the same amino acid in 1 g of a reference protein corrected for the true digestibility in a rat model) (Mattila et al., 2018; 401 Riley, 2021). The NPU, BV and PDCAAS values of animal proteins (range 73-94, 79-100 402 and 92-100%, respectively) are higher than plant proteins (range 53-67, 56-74 and 25-100%, 403 404 respectively) (Berrazaga et al., 2019). Each of these methods has important limitations. The digestible indispensable amino acid scores (DIAAS) is the most recent and accepted method 405 406 for determining protein quality. This method is based on the digestibility determined for each amino acid at the distal ileum (which unfortunately means the sacrifice of the experimental 407 animal), and it allows for the calculation of the protein value of individual ingredients and 408 409 mixed meals consisting of several proteins (Fanelli et al., 2021; Messina et al., 2022).

According to the current recommendation, a good protein should have a DIAAS value >0.75,
while this value should be ≥1 for excellent proteins (Jiménez-Munoz et al., 2021).

To meet the biological protein requirement for body maintenance and growth, dietary protein 412 should contain sufficient total amino acid nitrogen from digestible protein that also provides 413 suitable amounts of the essential amino acids (histidine, isoleucine, leucine, lysine, 414 methionine, phenylalanine, threonine, tryptophan and valine) as well as conditionally 415 416 essential amino acids (cysteine, tyrosine, taurine, glycine, arginine, glutamine and proline). Plant proteins lack or have suboptimal content of certain essential amino acids, such as 417 methionine, lysine, tryptophan, and threonine, which are considered limiting amino acids 418 419 (Kumar et al., 2022; Lea et al., 2016). Despite the perceived "lower" quality of plant protein, 420 Riley, (2021) argued that proper planning of meals to incorporate a variety of plants as well as adapting a flexitarian diet could deal with the limitations of any single plant protein. This 421 422 has traditionally been referred to as complementation.

423 Another consideration that can explain the low protein quality scores (BV, NPU, and 424 PDCAAS) of plant proteins compared to animal protein is their low digestibility (range 92-425 100 and 80-99% for animal and plant proteins, respectively (Berrazaga et al., 2019). This low digestibility could be explained by differences in the secondary structure (Nguyen et al., 426 2015) and the presence of several compounds in plants that affect protein digestibility 427 (Akande et al., 2010). Animal proteins have higher proportions of α -helixes and lower 428 429 amounts of β -sheet secondary protein structures, which facilitates access of proteases to cleavage sites and results in better digestion (Kumar et al., 2022; Nguyen et al., 2015). 430 431 Furthermore, plants contain a number of anti-nutrient compounds that can interfere with protein digestion and lead to incomplete digestion or absorption of essential amino acids 432 (Sharma, 2020). 433

434 *3.3.3. Opportunities and challenges with a plant-based diet*

The amino acid profile of soybeans and its current production level provides an opportunity to be used in food and nutraceutical applications. The world production of soybeans is higher than all other legumes combined with only 6% used for direct human consumption and the remaining balance is used for oil production and animal feed (Riley, 2021). Diverting a portion of that used for animal feed toward human food products could immediately positively impact the food supply.

441 Better health could be achieved by shifting from a high animal-based diet to a more plantbased diet. Huang et al. (2020) investigated the effect of source of dietary protein on 442 mortality in 50- to 71-year-old population (n > 617,000) from the US. A negative relationship 443 between all-cause mortality risk and higher plant-based diet intake was reported. A 3% 444 replacement of animal protein with plant protein could reduce mortality by 10%. The 445 negative relationship between consumption of plant protein and mortality due to 446 cardiovascular diseases was confirmed in other large cohort studies and recent meta-analysis 447 448 studies (Chen et al., 2020; Naghshi et al., 2020; Qi & Shen, 2020). There are several reports 449 that provide specific information on mechanistic effects of plant proteins/plant-based diets on satiety, cardiovascular risk, modulation of the immune system, glycemia, diabetic risk, 450 renoprotective effects and inflammation (Chatterjee et al., 2018; Naghshi et al., 2020; Qi & 451 Shen, 2020; Song et al., 2016). The positive outcomes reported for plant-based foods are 452 likely due to the large number of bioactive compounds (e.g., vitamins, carotenoids and 453 flavonoids as well as many secondary metabolites) and the low content of precursors of some 454 455 diseases (e.g., no cholesterol, low saturated fatty acids and pro-oxidant compounds, such as iron. Despite of the negative perceptions of cholesterol and the potential oxidative effects of 456 iron, these compounds are essential for several biochemical pathways, e.g., hormones 457 458 syntheses and oxygen metabolism, respectively.

A plant-based diet as well as the inclusion of other alternative protein sources will require a 459 major progressive shift in consumers' acceptability, food production systems, and food 460 461 chains and will have political, technical, financial, legal and environmental challenges that need to be overcome. These barriers will require collective efforts from scientists, investors, 462 regulators, and politicians to ensure sufficient access to healthy and nutritious alternative 463 proteins (Ishaq et al., 2022). For example, affordability of plant-based foods needs to be 464 465 facilitated by increasing the production of plant foods and balance the growth in these products with increased productivity. Although it is generally assumed that plant-based 466 467 products are cheaper than animal-based products (Kumar et al., 2022), this may not always be true as some vegetarian products could remain more expensive than animal products. Cost 468 competitiveness and economical barriers to converting grasslands into plant food farms need 469 470 to be managed, otherwise the increased demand for plants will only increase their prices and this will disadvantage low-income consumers. Further, crops production in modern times is 471 characterized by their intensive use of energy, chemical fertilizers/pesticides and expensive 472 machinery/technology to improve land productivity, which can add more pressure on 473 production economics. 474

Alternative proteins are important for future food security and for sustainable food 475 476 production. Plants are probably the most promising candidate as they are familiar to consumers since they do not have any religious restrictions, except for few cases in Judaism 477 and Jainism, or are perceived with disgust by some, unlike edible insect. However, new value 478 479 chains that consider consumer acceptance, scalability, food safety, and production costs need to be developed. It is expected that interactions among the forces of social media, political 480 systems, food research institutes, and stakeholders will influence the rate of innovation 481 progress and provide consumers with messages on the role of various traditional and new 482 protein sources to ensure food security. 483

484 *3.4. The cultured meat industry*

485 Conventional animal farming systems are considered as the main driver of many environmental issues, including greenhouse gas emissions, degradation of soil and water, 486 deforestation and the loss of habitat and biodiversity (Bhat et al., 2021; Bhat et al., 2017). 487 488 Cellular agriculture, which is promoted as a prospective solution, is the industrial production of animal products using cell-based technologies. While leather, fish, milk, egg and seafood 489 490 proteins have been produced successfully, cultured meat production has received public and media attention and is currently being proposed as a clean product with claimed advantages 491 over conventional meat production systems (Bhat et al., 2014). However, it should be noticed 492 493 that cultured meat requires a factory to produce it with issues such as nutritional composition 494 and possible contamination when manufacturing is scaled up (Chriki & Hocquette, 2020).

495 Cultured meat or biofabrication of meat involves the production of animal tissue inside 496 bioreactors for human consumption using synthetic cultured media and stem cells harvested 497 from farm animals (Bhat et al., 2020). **Table 2** compares the merits and demerits of cultured 498 meat production over conventional meat production systems.

Despite all this hype and the efforts of researchers, academics and entrepreneurs, the cultured 499 500 meat currently produced is only at a research level within the labs or within industry, and it 501 lacks several essential elements of functional meat. The products made so far are typically 502 mimicking burgers or processed meat while the aim is to recreate a steak. The superiority of 503 this production system and its consumer acceptance is still at an early conceptual stage. The current claims of this production system to be environmentally friendly, sustainable, free of 504 animal cruelty and with higher efficiency are unproven until commercial production of 505 506 cultured meat becomes a reality (Bhat et al., 2019).

As of now the product that is feasible with the existing technologies is a loose skeletal muscle 507 tissue that lacks the anisotropic 3D structure of muscle fibers and the other structural 508 elements, such as nervous, adipose and connective tissues and does not technically fit the 509 description of meat per se (Bhat et al., 2019). Several technologies, both realistic and 510 speculative, have been proposed, however, only tissue culture and cell culture have actually 511 been used to produce cultured meat so far. The speculative methods of production, such as 512 513 nanotechnology and biophotonics, are currently at the conceptual stage (Glaros et al., 2022). However, recent research suggests that a combination of scaffolding innovations and other 514 tissue engineering applications with food science technologies, along with integrating 515 systems biology with machine learning will offer greater opportunities to transform cultivated 516 meat to commercial reality (Levi et al., 2022; Seah et al., 2022). Major investments are 517 currently being undertaken to industrialize lab-grown food worldwide (Smith et al., 2022). 518 How consumers will react to these products is still a concern. 519

520 Recently, 3D and 4D printing have attracted attention of researchers as a potential technology 521 for steak-like cultured meat-based products due to the control over composition and structure (Bhat et al., 2021; Handral et al., 2022). For example, Kang et al. (2021) used a cell 522 bioprinting technique to produce bovine cell fibers (muscle, fat and blood vessel), which 523 524 were assembled to produce a beef steak-like tissue. Tendon-gel integrated bioprinting was developed to mimic the natural structure of meat that contains an aligned assembly of the 525 fibers connected to a tendon. The final product was a 1.0 cm long and 0.5 cm diameter 526 527 cylinder consisting of 42 muscle, 28 adipose tissue and 2 blood capillary fibers, which were constructed using tendon-gel integrated bioprinting and then assembled manually to fabricate 528 a steak-like meat. 529

Another innovative technology that can be used to produce cultured meat is precisionfermentation; a process that programs micro-organisms to produce specific products with

controlled circumstances (Singh et al., 2022). This technology permits the use of a serum-free
media for cell proliferation and differentiation, enabling the precise production of target
ingredients or safe food biomaterials without the need for any animal components.

Figure 3 shows a general method for the production of cultured meat. The cell culture 535 technologies preferably use adult tissue derived stem cells (satellite cells or myoblasts) as the 536 starting material which grow inside the media and fuse together to form myotubes. These 537 myotubes differentiate into myofibers which can be harvested and used for production of 538 ground meat products, such as nuggets, patties and sausages. On the other hand, the tissue 539 culture technologies begin with muscle explants which contain all the structural elements of 540 541 fully structured meat and are allowed to grow in the media in the presence of specific 542 physicochemical and environmental cues. Skeletal muscle cells are anchorage-dependent and require a surface to grow, therefore an attachment surface in the form of scaffolds, carrier 543 544 beads or small spheres are generally provided to support their growth. Myoblasts have been reported to grow well in 1.5 L stirred bioreactors on these carrier beads (Post & Hocquette, 545 2017). Recently, naturally available materials, such as blades of grass, have been evaluated as 546 edible scaffolds for cultured meat (Briggs, 2019). Both these production methods require a 547 continuous supply of cells or tissues obtained from farm animals in the form of biopsies 548 549 which are believed to be painless. The growth of the tissues in each of these technologies is limited by the absence of a functional circulatory system. The exchange of the nutrients and 550 gases between the media and the cells happens by the diffusion process aided by the 551 552 continuous agitation of the media. This is a major obstacle to scaling up and commercialization of the production process. Another important constraint on the 553 commercial production of cultured meat is the lack of a growth medium, which can fully 554 support the growth of muscle tissues without addition of animal ingredients. The cultured 555 meat is produced in the laboratories at small scales using media available for bioengineering 556

research purposes which contain fetal calf or other animal sera as a source of various growth factors. These media are available in limited amounts and cannot support the large-scale production of meat, hence the currently prohibitive cost of these products. These will also become less available if the desired reduction in livestock farming comes about. The sourcing of the stem cells and other animal products from either live animals or recently slaughtered animals may also be affected by various religious requirements. Extensive research is underway to develop a plant based medium and scaling up of the process.

Many survey or interview-based studies on the acceptance and attitude of the consumers 564 towards cultured meat in different countries have been published during the last five years 565 566 and have reported mixed results (Bhat et al., 2021). Much of the consumer support for 567 cultured meat is based around perceptions of a reduction in amount of animal suffering with fewer animals, and increased chemical and microbial safety, areas where cultured meats are 568 expected to have varying levels of success. However, this system does not seem likely to 569 completely replace animal agriculture any time soon. The system itself is dependent on 570 571 animal agriculture and will have to maintain small animal herds for a continuous supply of cells/tissues. The cultured meat and meat products which are currently technologically 572 possible cannot match the conventional meat industry for variety or cost. There is still much 573 574 research needed to establish the monitoring, quality control and regulatory systems to safeguard the production of meat in such a sophisticated production system. Further, some 575 recent research papers have questioned the potential carbon footprint of cultured meat 576 577 production and suggested the long-term environmental effects to be greater than current meat production systems (Chriki & Hocquette, 2020; Lynch & Pierrehumbert, 2019). Apart from 578 these major issues for the development of a large-scale cultured meat industry there are other 579 unknowns, particularly the concerns about toxicity and allergenicity, and the effect of long-580 term consumption on human health. Therefore, cultured meat is an exciting possibility but 581

there are many obstacles for the commercial production of safe cultured meat with desirablenutritional and sensorial characteristics at a competitive price for consumers.

584 3.5. Precision fermentation

Fermentation has been known for a long time and until recently it was known as the yeast-585 586 driven transformation of one product into a new one with different characteristics. However, this definition has been broadened to include all microbial procedures at different levels of 587 the industry (Dank et al., 2021; Reboleira et al., 2021). Traditionally, fermentation happened 588 589 spontaneously by the action of endogenous microbes present in the product. In modern times fermentative processes use a specific strains or commercial starter cultures to assure the 590 efficiency, predictability, and safety of the process leading to more homogeneous products 591 that may lose some specific desirable characteristics (Dank et al., 2021; Teng et al., 2021). 592 Current emphasis is on how to apply fermentation to process food wastes and recover 593 valuable compounds (Marti-Quijal et al., 2020). 594

595 Recently, the term "precision fermentation" was used to describe a new approach based on 596 the use of cells as factories to synthesize target compounds by modifying their metabolic pathways and altering the genes involved in those processes (Teng et al., 2021). Genomics 597 and synthetic biology have been the main approaches to improve its further application 598 (Figure 4). Precision fermentation is strongly related to genetically modified organisms 599 (GMO) in creating optimized cell factories able to produce specific molecules. Traditional 600 fermentation has always been used in food applications, but there are currently some 601 602 important specific processes where genetic improvement is being applied. Some of these approaches involve the production of enzymes used in food production, washing powders and 603 chemical manufacturing (Spinnler, 2021), but also the production of other compounds, such 604 as fatty acids or phenolic compounds (Al-Hawash et al., 2018; Leonard et al., 2021). 605

Metabolic engineering has been studied to improve the synthesis of phenolic compounds, 606 particularly flavonoids from plant-based food using two methods: 1) expression of plant-607 608 originated genes that are part of the phenyl propanoid pathway (Rodriguez et al., 2017) and 2) through manipulation of the malonyl pathway (Pandey et al., 2016). In addition, 609 combinatory approaches have shown good results, such as the improved production of γ -610 linolenic acid by inducing mutagenesis on the fungi *Cunninghamella echinulate* and applying 611 612 a pulsed high magnetic field, thus obtaining higher yields between 19 - 46% for use as dietary neuroprotective supplements (Al-Hawash et al., 2018). The production of additives was also 613 614 achieved using non-enzymatic oxidative decarboxylation of α -acetolactate in modified strains of Bacillus cereus for the increased production of diacetyl, a widely use flavor, by different 615 mechanisms from deletion of the gene encoding the enzymes to homologous recombination 616 617 (Wang et al., 2019). Traditional fermentations (e.g., milk products) are also benefiting from precision fermentation, essentially to screen the different genomes and connections between 618 phylogeny, environmental and phenotypic features for the selection of specific desired 619 characteristics. Next generation sequencing techniques are essential to identify and predict 620 the behavior and potential of the strains (Zhao et al., 2021). 621

Due to the growing population, economic progress and food requirements, solid food waste 622 generation has rapidly increased (Chilakamarry et al., 2022; Jimenez-Lopez et al., 2020). One 623 technique, solid-state fermentation (SSF) applies natural biotechnological green processes to 624 agriculture wastes to create an environment for microorganisms to grow on a solid or semi-625 626 solid substrate with a low water content (Chilakamarry et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2021). Its low-cost and environmental impact have been used to obtain value-added products from 627 various biomasses, such as bioactive compounds, enzymes, biosurfactants or biofuels (Banat 628 et al., 2021; Leite et al., 2021; Spinnler, 2021). Moreover, SSF can be used in mixed culture 629 fermentation to enhance substrate nutritional profile (Ong & Lee, 2021). 630

631 SSF was applied to improve the production of cellulase and xylanase using sugarcane waste
632 as a solid substrate for a recombined lipase of the fungi *Penicillium oxalicum* by deleting a
633 pair of transcription repressor genes (Lin et al., 2021).

634 The production of biofuels from food wastes is another goal. Most of the research is focused on the use of different sugar sources (i.e., xylose lignocellulose biomass) for the production 635 636 of bioethanol and the enhancement of ethanol yield (Komesu et al., 2020). The complementation with other techniques, such as saccharification with co-fermentation is used 637 for advancing bioethanol production by hydrolyzing cellulose and fermenting sugars at the 638 same time. This can be achieved by inserting sugar-fermenting genes in bacteria to enable 639 640 them to ferment different kinds of sugars (Sharma et al., 2021). The use of algae for bioethanol production has recently been studied, but no commercially viable strain has yet 641 been isolated. Organisms involved in the process must have an efficient carbohydrate 642 metabolism and capacity to resist changes in temperature, light, salinity, pathogen load, and 643 other conditions. In addition, they should show a strong plasticity towards being 644 metabolically engineered (Poblete-Castro et al., 2020; Surendhiran & Sirajunnisa, 2019). The 645 same technologies have been used for butanol production from biomass, which focused on 646 improving yield and tolerance of the end product as well as increasing the ratio of butanol : 647 solvent (Zheng et al., 2015). 648

Precision fermentation has many applications for the future development of plant-based products, new food ingredients, and other applications. Nevertheless, it is important to understand the main challenges and limitations of these systems. Some of the limitations include the scaling process from laboratory to industrial scale, identifying the abundance of mRNA and enzymes activities, the maintenance of the strain's efficiency for a long duration, i.e., stability, the screening methods needed for selecting overproducing strains, and the profitability of the processes (Komesu et al., 2020; Spinnler, 2021). For instance, further

knowledge of the algae genomes is needed to produce genetically engineered algae biofuels 656 but this could increase their costs compared to fossil fuels. Further innovation to reduce the 657 costs of precision fermentation is still required for widespread use of this technology. 658 Traditionally fermented foods are well accepted by consumers, whereas most consumers are 659 often hesitant to accept new technologies, such as precision fermentation, GMO, and gene 660 editing technologies (Siegrist & Hartmann, 2020; Teng et al., 2021). Although most 661 662 applications are still under development, some products, obtained using this technology, are already available in the market. For example, Impossible Foods uses precision fermentation 663 664 to produce a soy heme protein for plant-based burgers (see https://impossiblefoods.com/). Much to many people's surprise, there has been little consumer pushback for this GMO 665 containing product. Recently, a new concept (called fermentation 4.0) was introduced that 666 discussed the incorporation of modern digital technologies and other Industry 4.0 elements 667 into fermentation, allowing remote access and control, identifying and communicating the 668 fermentation state to humans and other equipment and machines (Alarcon & Shene, 2021). 669

670 3.6. Personalized foods

Increasing evidence suggests that there is no one-size-fits-all diet, as food preferences and 671 needs vary from person to person (Gan et al., 2019; Ordovas et al., 2018). Consumers have at 672 all times personalized food intake depending on their food choices and the factors influencing 673 674 them, such as culture and society, availability, and health issues. However, following the sequencing of the human genome in 2003, personalized nutrition took on a new meaning, and 675 possibilities for the personalization of foods received a boost (Mathers, 2019; Ordovas et al., 676 677 2018). Scientific and technological advances have created new opportunities and accelerated progress towards precision health (Gan et al., 2019). 678

There is no general agreement on the definition of personalized nutrition, but it can be seen as 679 an approach that is based on the relationship between nutrients and a person's unique 680 phenotypic and genotypic profile, and the microbiome in the gut. Personalized nutrition uses 681 information on individual characteristics to deliver more specific healthy eating guidance and 682 develop targeted nutritional advice, products, or services, suited to each individual (Derossi et 683 al., 2020; Ordovas et al., 2018). Personalized nutrition (or precision nutrition) is often 684 685 associated with concepts like nutrigenetics and nutrigenomics that study the interaction between diets and genomes (Ramos-Lopez et al., 2017; Szakaly et al., 2019). 686

Emerging technologies and Industry 4.0 innovation, such as AI and big data, as well as recent 687 688 advances in biotechnologies, omic sciences, and digital technologies have the potential to 689 facilitate the adoption of personalized nutrition (Kwon & Kwon, 2020; Rosenthal et al., 2021). For example, big data can be used to learn about the impact of food on DNA 690 expression and the expression of different genes, allowing the determination of the health 691 effects of eating different foods and to then produce healthy personalized foods (Kwon & 692 Kwon, 2020). Another Industry 4.0 technology with a bright future in various applications of 693 personalized foods is 3D food printing (Derossi et al., 2020; Portanguen et al., 2019). 694 Foodomics is a emerging field that combines the use of advanced omics, such as proteomics 695 696 and metabolomics, with biostatistics, chemometrics, and bioinformatics, to evaluate complex biological systems (Valdés et al., 2021). Technological advances in this field have offered 697 important new capabilities and possibilities to accelerate developments in personalized 698 699 nutrition (Chaudhary et al., 2021).

To make personalized nutrition work for the individual, food products that fit their requirements must be available. However, apart from the possibilities using 3D-printing, producing foods for the individual is currently not cost-effective. Personalizing foods for the consumer segments who share certain characteristics is, however, possible. Within theseconsumer segments, there is still a need for the individual to personalize their own diet.

Among all population groups who might benefit from personalized foods (Derossi et al., 2020; Ueland et al., 2020), older adults have received the greatest attention due to the paramount importance of personalized foods to this group. It is expected that by 2050, more than 2 billion individuals in the world will be >60 years, including >400 million 80 years and over (Aguilera, 2022; Portanguen et al., 2019). The reasoning and factors to take into account (**Figure 5**) in personalization of foods can be generalized and applied to other consumer groups.

Recent research has highlighted how the food intake of older adults declines with increasing 712 age while nutrient requirements stay the same or may even increase, e.g., proteins and 713 vitamin D (Groot, 2016; Pilgrim et al., 2015; Robinson, 2018). Aging is associated with a 714 loss of muscle mass and strength and, thus, there is a need to ingest a greater amount of 715 protein to maintain muscle function (Landi et al., 2016). Other physical changes that are 716 occurring during aging, and which have consequences for food intake, are related to sensory 717 718 perception, chewing, swallowing, and digestion (Baugreet et al., 2017; Doets & Kremer, 719 2016; Rusu et al., 2020). The daily diet of older adults normally consists of what they have been used to eating earlier in life, although in smaller amounts as their appetite is reduced 720 (Giezenaar et al., 2016). Many also adjust food intake for medical reasons based on advice 721 from doctors and nutritionists. Therefore, the smaller amounts eaten in combination with 722 avoidance of certain foods can be a problem for older adults' abilities to consume sufficient 723 724 nutrients each day (Burton et al., 2018; Rusu et al., 2020). The risk of malnutrition among older adults is high, and one major challenge for this group is consumption of sufficient high-725 726 quality proteins (Landi et al., 2016).

Improving nutritional health of older adults is also important from a societal viewpoint. 727 Governments and health organizations have launched strategies and plans for how to increase 728 729 longevity (WHO, 2017). The research has recently focused on increasing the proteinenrichment of products for the elderly (Broeckhoven et al., 2021; Song et al., 2018; Wendin 730 et al., 2021). Different solutions that have been tested to increase protein content in foods 731 include recipe reformulations (Douglas et al., 2017) and fortification with protein ingredients 732 733 such as protein isolates and hydrolysates (Clegg & Williams, 2018). Changing recipes by adding components that contain more protein can improve total protein content and quality 734 735 (Wendin et al., 2021). Other relevant groups that need and benefit from protein-enriched products are persons recovering from illnesses, and athletes. 736

737 Challenges occurring when incorporating more protein in products are related to the sensory properties of the modified products. Proteins influence the texture by increasing attributes 738 739 such as hardness and dryness which can make products more difficult to chew and swallow, and less pleasant (Laguna et al., 2016). Recently, the concept of oral comfort related to 740 741 chewing, moisturizing, and swallowing of foods has been highlighted as important for food consumption among older adults (Vandenberghe-Descamps, Labouré, et al., 2018). Older 742 adults often experience reduced oral comfort and problems related to food intake due to lower 743 744 saliva production that makes food difficult to form into a bolus and to swallow. In addition, dental problems due to loss of teeth, dentures, or pain can make regular protein-rich foods 745 difficult to chew (Cichero, 2016; Vandenberghe-Descamps, Sulmont-Rossé, et al., 2018). 746

Textural modifications to make a product softer, smoother, and easier to chew and swallow can be achieved by incorporating liquids or emulsifiers, although this will dilute the nutritional content of the product (Cichero, 2016). Adding protein concentrates or isolates from protein-rich foods may, however, increase protein content of the diluted product without adding too much bulk to the food. Furthermore, the breakdown of proteins into peptides, of which some might be bioactive, and amino acids of high nutritional quality can be useful improvements to products for older adults (Granato et al., 2020). Hydrolysates from enzymatic protein hydrolysis of foods have been used as fortification agents in foods (Aspevik et al., 2021). However, protein-derived ingredients, particularly hydrolysates, can have sensory attributes that increase the perception of bitterness and negatively influence the taste of the product (Steinsholm et al., 2020). Further research is needed to investigate if masking agents can reduce the bitterness of most protein hydrolysates.

In addition to the fortification of food products, different types of processing and emerging technologies can be used to modify the textural properties of foods and to personalize foods for easier consumption (Castro-Muñoz et al., 2022; Ueland et al., 2020). High pressure processing, enzymatic treatments, and pulsed electric fields are examples of technologies that can be used to modify food texture (Aguilera & Park, 2016). Such technologies are less intrusive than traditional processing methods, such as mincing or pureeing, and allow for better retention of colors and flavors in the products while increasing softness.

766 In developing protein-rich and nutrient-dense foods for older adults, consumers' acceptance and appearance of the products are crucial factors (See Section 4). Since older adults often 767 have less appetite and eat smaller amounts than adults, liking of the product and appropriate 768 eating context are particularly important (Grini et al., 2020; Wendin et al., 2021). Liking may 769 be reduced due to changes in sensory perception such as difficulties with certain textures, 770 reduced olfaction, and flavor and taste perception (Doets & Kremer, 2016). Reduced 771 sensitivity can also cause undesirable food behavior as older adults compensate with, for 772 773 instance, over-salting (Clegg & Williams, 2018; Doets & Kremer, 2016). Personalizing foods that can improve appetite and food intake in older adults include the use of healthy taste 774 enhancers, vivid colors, and variability in the composition of dishes (Doets & Kremer, 2016; 775 776 Wendin et al., 2021).

3.7. Value-added compounds recovery from food wastes and by-products

778 The environmental costs of the current food systems are high as the food sector is the largest freshwater consumer, and is responsible for a high percentage of global greenhouse gas 779 emissions and reduced biodiversity due to pollution linked to excessive use of fertilizer and 780 pesticides (Crippa et al., 2021; Mekonnen et al., 2019). At the same time, more than one-third 781 of food produced globally is wasted (Kalpana et al., 2019; Rolnick et al., 2022). Due to the 782 783 growth of population and economic advances, larger amounts of traditional agricultural and food wastes are produced (e.g., discarded fruits and vegetables, peels, stalks, shells, and other 784 residues). Most of these residues are not recycled but accumulate causing different 785 786 environmental problems (He et al., 2019). The concept of a circular economy has been 787 driving current research to address this unsustainable situation (Jurgilevich et al., 2016). The scientific community is trying to apply the 6R (reuse, recycle, redesign, remanufacture, 788 789 reduce, and recover) principles to create a functional agro-economic system and advise different management strategies and policies for the management of these by-products 790 791 (Jimenez-Lopez et al., 2020; Winans et al., 2017).

Recently, agro-food industries have been discovering new alternatives to incorporate the 792 concept of a circular economy (Santhosh et al., 2021; Winans et al., 2017). By-products 793 derived from the food industry are often inexpensive, abundant and easy to handle sources of 794 795 bioactive compounds, including phenolic compounds, fatty acids, amino acids, proteins, prebiotics, minerals, vitamins, pigments, and other phytochemicals, which can be used in the 796 food, cosmetic, and pharmaceutical industries (Coman et al., 2020; Fierascu et al., 2019). A 797 798 basic scheme of the process of obtaining value-added compounds from food waste is shown in **Figure 6**. 799

Phenolic compounds have attracted much of the attention. They are secondary metabolites 800 produced by plants as a defense mechanism using the pentose phosphate, shikimate and 801 802 phenylpropanoid pathways, with more than 10,000 different structures, containing in their simpler form an aromatic ring with one or more hydroxyl substituents (Jimenez-Lopez et al., 803 2020; Pagano et al., 2021). Protein production is being studied due to the necessity of finding 804 additional non-animal proteins for the formulation of protein supplements or enriched feed 805 806 for animals (LaTurner et al., 2020; Prandi et al., 2019). Fatty acids can be recovered from food waste and have potential applications for liquid biofuels, among others (Motavaf et al., 807 808 2021). In addition, food wastes (e.g., orange peels) can be used as a substrate for SSF to obtain natural pigments (Gupta et al., 2019; Kantifedaki et al., 2018). 809

Once the target compounds are identified, the extraction steps need to be determined. 810 Extraction techniques have evolved from the most conventional processes, such as 811 812 maceration or Soxhlet to innovative green techniques aimed at minimizing the use of solvents, reagents, time and energy costs to optimize extraction yields and to obtain high-813 quality extracts in a green eco-friendly way (Fierascu et al., 2019; Otero et al., 2021). Recent 814 technological advances, helped by the recent development of Industry 4.0 innovations, have 815 led to new extraction technologies. These newer techniques include microwave, supercritical 816 fluid, ultrasound, steam current distillation, pulsed electric field, high hydrostatic pressures, 817 enzyme, and ohmic heating-assisted extractions (Arun et al., 2020; Saberian et al., 2018). 818 These advanced extraction methods can improve the yield, reduce process time, and maintain 819 properties of the extracted compounds (Castro-Muñoz et al., 2022). 820

Isolation and purification are still underdeveloped due to the complexity and high cost of these processes (Gianico et al., 2021; Wen et al., 2020). New solvents have been developed, such as deep eutectic solvents that can be easily prepared (by mixing two or more hydrogen bond acceptor and hydrogen bond donor compounds) and are biodegradable and have a low

toxicity (Freitas et al., 2021; Gullón et al., 2020). Moreover, for the valorization of the food 825 wastes different techniques, such as fermentation, anaerobic digestion or composting can be 826 827 also done in combination with these techniques (Mehmood et al., 2021). However, the main limitations of the use of by-products from the food industry are the heterogeneity of residues, 828 perishability, and high microbial load, seasonality of the residues, unavailability of 829 appropriate logistics, and the feasibility of the processes. For these reasons, optimization 830 831 tools (to achieve higher yield and less food wastes), standardization, and rethinking of food waste revalorization strategies are needed before a successful scaling up of the process in the 832 833 Food Industry 4.0 era (Caldeira et al., 2020; Freitas et al., 2021). In addition, technoeconomic, market, and profitability assessments of food wastes are also necessary (Cristóbal 834 et al., 2018). 835

The application of extracted value-added compounds is the last step. Therefore, multiple studies have focused on their possible applications in the food industry (e.g., food additives, functional foods, prebiotics, postbiotics and active packaging systems, and animal feed), environmental science (pesticides, fertilizers and sensors), and the pharmaceutical industry (Badawy et al., 2022; Jimenez-Lopez et al., 2020). Moreover, the use of extracted compounds as cosmetic ingredients (Faria-Silva et al., 2020) and in biotechnological applications in the field of food and drugs (Sakr et al., 2021) has been widely reported.

Some of the applications of value-added compounds are related to the production of specific molecules (such as organic acids or phenolic compounds), the formulation of new products (such as nutraceuticals) or their use for the synthesis of nanoparticles, the production of biopolymers (e.g., polylactic acid), the use of food waste as a substrate for single cell protein production or the synthesis of biofertilizers (Mehmood et al., 2021).

More advanced applications combine these with other techniques, such as 3D food printing.For example, a recent study used grape pomace and broken wheat as printing material to

produce functional cookies with enhanced nutritional value and antioxidant properties 850 (Jagadiswaran et al., 2021). The results showed that this sustainable approach led to food 851 products with customized shapes and a higher content of proteins and dietary fiber. In another 852 study, 3D food printing was used to prepare noodles from potato peel waste (Muthurajan et 853 al., 2021). The product was shown to be nutrient-rich and could be customized to any shape 854 or layering, enhancing its consumer acceptance as a good choice for breakfast. Wheat and 855 856 amaranth bran bioprocessed with bakery yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae alone or combined with the enzyme inulinase, and the yeasts Kluyveromyces marxianus or Limosilactobacillus 857 858 fermentum for the removal of fructans were investigated for potential application in 3Dprinted dietary fiber-enriched snacks (Habuš et al., 2022). The results showed that the 859 fabrication of snack products using these milling by-products was suitable for patients with 860 irritable bowel syndrome and other sensitive individuals. 861

Recent advances in nanotechnology have provided promising prospects for different food 862 packaging strategies and other applications in the food industry (Jagtiani, 2022; Sahoo et al., 863 2021). This technology and nanoparticles can help make sustainable packaging from food 864 wastes (Gupta et al., 2022; Lamri et al., 2021). For example, nanotechnology was used to 865 reduce wine waste in obtaining new food ingredients and sustainable packaging (Montagner 866 et al., 2022). Enzymatic hydrolysis is another innovative technology that can be used to 867 valorize food wastes and by-products (Anderssen & McCarney, 2020; Hassoun et al., 2021). 868 However, the production of specific short protein sequences is likely to be done using genetic 869 870 editing of micro-organisms and/or direct synthesis, making the impact on food waste minimal. 871

More recently, digital technologies and other Industry 4.0 components are being applied to reduce or valorize food wastes and by-products, providing important environmental and economic benefits (Kler et al., 2022; Onwude et al., 2020). The role of digital technologies and IoT was also highlighted as important emerging technologies for the study of food loss and waste in food supply chains (Chauhan et al., 2021). For example, the use of IoT to monitor potato waste in food manufacturing and determine various causes of waste generation was reported by (Jagtap et al., (2019). Other advanced technologies, such as digital twins were also reported to help tailor supply chains to maximize the shelf life of food and reduce food loss and food waste (Defraeye et al., 2021).

The importance of consumer acceptance of the products containing value-added compounds 881 882 from food wastes and by-products remains an unanswered question. Although limited, most recent studies highlight the increasing awareness of consumers about the need for the 883 sustainability of the food chain, and the benefit of properly labeled sustainable and ecological 884 products (Donner et al., 2021; Plazzotta & Manzocco, 2019). Regulatory politics and 885 frameworks need to be further developed to ensure the safety and traceability of these 886 products and to satisfy the environmental and sustainability concerns of both, companies and 887 consumers (Alexa et al., 2020; Plazzotta & Manzocco, 2019). Moreover, public financial 888 support and public-private cooperation and investment would accelerate this process (Donner 889 et al., 2021). 890

4. Consumer acceptance

Modern developed economies have two important problems with the prevalence of obesity and non-communicable diseases on health, and the environmental burden of intensive consumption in terms of sustainability on the other hand (Aschemann-Witzel, 2015). Consumers' involvement in the solution of these issues by improving healthy choices and contributing to sustainability goals is necessary and underlies many of the current consumer trends.

898 4.1. Consumers and health

Health is one of the main reasons underlying consumers' food choices. However, it is not 899 always easy for them to choose the healthy option, living in an environment of over-900 abundance (Frank-Podlech et al., 2021). To support the transition of consumers to healthier 901 diets, it is necessary to increase awareness of the relation between food choices and health, 902 through nutritional advice, information and education, and to also improve the food 903 environment to facilitate healthy choices (Spiteri & Soler, 2018). An important contribution 904 905 to this would be the reformulation of products towards healthier versions lower in calories, sugar, salt and fat, particularly products targeted to vulnerable populations like children. 906 907 Velázquez et al. (2021) showed, for example, that significant sugar reduction is feasible in children's products without affecting preferences. Some countries have implemented public-908 private partnerships with the industry involving voluntary pledges to improve public health 909 910 through product reformulation (salt, sugar, and saturated fats reduction) and for the implementation of more informative nutrition labeling, which can be beneficial, but 911 sometimes difficult to implement (Knai et al., 2015). Food packages are an unavoidable part 912 of the modern food environment, attracting consumers and influencing their purchase 913 decisions. Thus, comprehensive packaging regulations and the inclusion of clear front-of-914 pack nutrition labeling can avoid misinformation. Many countries are now implementing 915 such regulations, by limiting the use of marketing strategies and implementing clearer 916 917 nutritional labeling (Ares et al., 2022).

One of the most recent consumer concerns regarding the food environment has been the sale
of ultra-processed foods, which is being discussed more since the development of the NOVA
classification based on the extent and purpose of industrial processing (Fardet & Rock, 2019).
However, this new concept has not yet been introduced to most consumers, and there is still
professional disagreement about its benefits and accuracy. Therefore, there is a definite need
for more information and guidance supporting the shift to healthier consumer eating patterns

924 (Ares et al., 2016). Currently, there is still a gap between the need for processing (technical
925 and safety) and consumer perception of processing. The assumption that all processing is bad
926 among consumers can at times be counterproductive to the healthfulness and safety of food.
927 Therefore, more research is necessary for a better understanding of the relationship between
928 food processing level and health outcomes.

929

4.2. Clean label and naturalness perception

Food naturalness has been important for consumers, particularly for consumers in the 930 931 developed countries, and it is a trend that is expected to continue (Battacchi et al., 2020; Román et al., 2017). Perception of naturalness is an important parameter underlying food 932 choices, and often important for food acceptability, but the meaning of naturalness is not 933 always consistent, or easily interpreted by producers to translate into food products (Murley 934 & Chambers, 2019). Naturalness is a complex issue with multiple facets having different 935 degrees of importance for consumers, as food origin (e.g., organic, local), production 936 937 (technology and ingredients), and the properties of the final product all are involved. In 938 addition, different consumer segments give different importance to naturalness with traditionalist, women and older consumers particularly interested in this concept 939 (Aschemann-Witzel et al., 2019; Román et al., 2017). Natural food perception is linked to 940 food safety and risk perception, and can be regarded as part of the "clean label" concept, 941 reflecting various intrinsic characteristics, such as absence of negative elements like 942 943 additives, nanomaterials, GMO and the presence of positive elements like natural ingredients, and extrinsic food products' characteristics. How the properties of the product are 944 945 communicated (e.g., traditional, or homemade) can also impact consumer perception. Some production methods are also regarded by consumers as less natural (Asioli et al., 2017). The 946 "clean label" need has led to the food industry trying to communicate whether a certain 947 948 ingredient or additive is not present as opposed to the declaration of the contents, or if the food has been produced using methods perceived as more natural (Asioli et al., 2017). Health concerns are the major consumer motive behind the search for clean label products, however, Asioli et al. (2017), in their review, discuss a number of influencing drivers including intrinsic (compositional) and extrinsic (labeling, communication) product characteristics as well as socio-cultural factors. On the other hand, many of the compounds added to foods have important health and safety benefits and their absence may at times make clean labeled products less safe and/or healthy.

956 The impact of labeling and information on consumer attitude towards 3D printed foods was recently studied for commercially available foods (Feng et al., 2022). It was determined that 957 958 the consumer perception of the quality of 2/3 of the products was increased by the label, without changing the flavor, texture, or overall acceptance ratings. Mantihal et al. (2020) 959 reported that consumer acceptance of 3D printed foods is affected by three factors, namely 960 961 sensory perceptions, knowledge, and perceived benefits, while Ross et al. (2022) discussed the role of personal relevance, trust in science, and consumer attitude towards naturalness in 962 overcoming barriers to acceptance of these foods. However, the question of whether these 3D 963 foods were ultraprocessed in the consumers' perception was not studied. Consumer 964 acceptance of cultured meat has also been studied and showed the importance of emphasizing 965 966 positive information in improving consumer willingness to taste cultured meat (Guan et al., 2021; Rolland et al., 2020). Another recent study reported that the consumer acceptance of 967 functional foods is affected by five factors, namely product characteristics, socio-968 969 demographic characteristics, psychological characteristics, behavioral characteristics, and physical characteristics (Baker et al., 2022). However, the results of this study may not be 970 971 applicable to other types of food.

972 It will be interesting to follow how consumers interested in food naturalness and clean label,
973 perceive new foods and innovative food technologies, particularly with the growing concern
974 about ultra-processing.

975 4.3. Consumers and sustainability

976 Consumer food-related behaviors impact the environment (Lusk & McCluskey, 2018).
977 Consuming food is environmentally costly from a natural resources' utilization perspective
978 and carbon footprint, impacting climate change. Better consumer choices regarding food
979 selection and reduction of food wastes could certainly contribute to a reduction of their
980 climate impact (Aschemann-Witzel et al., 2018). However, there is a need to better
981 understand these trends from a consumer perspective, to support policies and strategic
982 consumer communication.

983 From an industrial perspective, innovative solutions for utilizing new sources of protein that can decrease the demand for meat, like the use of plant-based proteins and exploiting new 984 raw materials or current by-products are increasingly being implemented (Lang, 2020). The 985 utilization of up-cycled ingredients is a challenging new trend that can potentially improve 986 sustainability (Perito et al., 2020). Onwezen et al. (2021) reviewed consumers acceptance of 987 988 alternative proteins (pulses, algae, insects, plant-based alternative proteins, and cultured 989 meat), drawing comparisons across countries. The results showed that their acceptance was 990 relatively low as compared to meat, with pulses and plant-based proteins having the highest 991 acceptance level, and the lowest for insects followed by cultured meat. Drivers for acceptance across studies were highlighted as taste and healthiness, familiarity, attitudes, food 992 neophobia, disgust and social norms. However, attitudes towards those new sources of 993 994 proteins are slowly changing, as shown in a recent study (Bryant & Sanctorum, 2021). Their 995 cross-sectional survey highlighted that the number of Belgian consumers who said that the

existing plant-based meat alternatives met their needs, increased significantly from 2019 to
2020 (+7%), as well as met their concerns for agricultural issues and the environment.
Different segments of consumers have different levels of acceptance for alternative proteins;
a topic that should be tackled in future studies to optimize the uptake of the more sustainable
options.

Food waste in households has been reported as an important negative contributor to the 1001 1002 environment with avoidable food waste accounting for more than half of the total food waste 1003 generated in consumer homes in countries like the UK or Denmark (Shaw et al., 2018). Food 1004 waste at the consumption stage is an increasing multifactorial problem, linked to diverse 1005 factors, such as behavioral, product, personal, and societal concerns. Interventions to target it 1006 should be multilevel, i.e., before consumption as package size and date labels, or at the retail 1007 stage, such as discounts and product presentation (Roodhuyzen et al., 2017). However, it 1008 should be underlined that smaller packages and more deliveries increase other aspects of environmental abuse. Additionally, different consumer segments have different food waste 1009 1010 behaviors and perceptions, thus adapting interventions and communication to different customer types can make a valuable contribution to reducing food waste (Aschemann-Witzel 1011 1012 et al., 2021). In a recent study, the main drivers of intention to purchase products with a by-1013 product, namely grape pomace powder, were evaluated (Baldissera et al., 2022). The results indicated that informing consumers positively of the presence of this by-product in food 1014 formulation enhanced the consumer acceptance of the product. 1015

1016 4.4. Consumers and the future

Health has been linked in the past to an individual responsibility while the environment has
been a wider, shared issue with regards to consumers' attitudes. Also, consumers interested in
health might think a product that enhances sustainability aspects might do so at the expense

1020 of healthfulness or quality (Aschemann-Witzel, 2015). However, the COVID-19 pandemic 1021 has changed some food behaviors (Janssen et al., 2021) with the observed effect that 1022 environmental and health concerns may be converging in consumers reasons for their 1023 underlying food choices (Gilchrist et al., 2020). This behavioral change, if sustained over 1024 time, could help towards the transition to more sustainable and healthier diets, with more 1025 consumers thinking about both health and sustainability in their food choices.

In the future when consumers risk perception will be challenged with new products and processes, new sources of alternative ingredients becoming more available, and potential new pandemics, product traceability, quality assurance and data sharing, will be more important within the fourth industrial revolution in the food industry to enhance consumers' acceptability and consumers' trust.

1031 5. Future perspectives and conclusions

This review has focused on current work on selected emerging food trends with an emphasis 1032 on the role of Industry 4.0 technologies. The UN SDG were set in 2015 as an urgent call for 1033 global actions to define optimizing strategies for ending hunger and poverty, along with 1034 improving health and education, reducing inequalities, and spurring economic growth, while 1035 1036 simultaneously contributing to ocean and forest preservation and minimizing the effect of 1037 climate change. Each of the 17 SDG relates to the nutrition, the food industry, and food 1038 consumption either directly or indirectly. Motivating the food industry to apply more 1039 sustainable production standards can therefore have important impacts on whether the SDG are reached according to the UN plan or not. 1040

Achieving more sustainable utilization of side-streams, by-products, and all available raw materials is necessary for increased global food security, biodiversity, and human health. The development of diverse products and increased valorization of underutilized raw materials,

side-streams and by-products can be achieved by applying appropriate combinations of 1044 traditional and Industry 4.0 technologies. Studies have already shown that applying biological 1045 Industry 4.0 processing technologies, such as precision fermentation and enzymatic 1046 hydrolysis, allow the recovery of a range of valuable, functional ingredients and bioactive 1047 compounds from underutilized processing side-streams and by-products. These compounds 1048 can then be incorporated into complex food matrices for fortification purposes or other 1049 1050 applications. 3D food printing is one of the emerging Industry 4.0 technologies that have been shown to be effective for food fortification, in addition to allowing more diverse 1051 1052 presentation of printable food products, especially for challenging consumer groups, such as children and the elderly, or with the aim of improving the sensory characteristics (primarily 1053 visual, texture, and mouth feel characteristics) of plant- or insect-based meat substitutes, and 1054 1055 other bioprinting solutions.

1056 Simultaneously, as many of the world's traditional biological resources for food production are being depleted, consumers are calling for both healthier and more sustainable products, 1057 1058 increasing the need for alternative food resources. New products based on meat cultivation, meat substitutes, plant-based and insect-based proteins, etc. have shown significant potential. 1059 1060 These raw materials and emerging technologies can be valuable tools to develop more precise 1061 personalized nutrition recommendations, encourage positive consumer behavior and more 1062 diverse consumption patterns leading to better health and food sustainability, in an affordable 1063 way.

However, these new raw materials and emerging technologies are facing several challenges related to, among others, consumer acceptance. The current consumer acceptance levels are affected by consumers' unfamiliarity with the sensory characteristics of these materials and products, and the lack of detailed information on these products' safety and quality. However, the introduction of more new products and alternative protein sources, along with detailed 1069 characterization of them are likely to increase consumer interest and engagement in the transition towards sustainable food development and innovative green strategies in the future. 1070 1071 The ongoing crisis of the COVID-19 pandemic has reshaped consumer behavior giving opportunities for several food trends to increase. For example, data shows that the pandemic 1072 has accelerated the demand for plant-based foods, the adaptation of the "food as medicine" 1073 concept, the explosion of takeaway food companies and food delivery apps (e.g., Deliveroo 1074 1075 and Just Eat), and the rise of dark kitchens (restaurants that engage customers digitally, without dining space), to mention just a few. These emerging food trends and others food 1076 1077 consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic should be studied.

1078 The main conclusion of this review is that the Industry 4.0 technologies can contribute 1079 significantly towards achieving more sustainable food production and consumption systems, 1080 supporting the UN's SDG. These digital technologies and other advanced innovations have 1081 revolutionized the way food is produced and consumed worldwide, leading to the emergence of new food trends. If these technologies are supported by more detailed and high-quality 1082 1083 studies, which contribute towards wider consumer acceptance, these technologies have the potential to enhance smart production, boost industrial productivity, quality, affordability, 1084 1085 and increase digitalization within the food industry even further. However, applying new 1086 technical solutions alone will not be enough to achieve the SDG, especially in the developing 1087 countries. Achieving the SDG also calls for significant changes to international policies and politics, including, but not limited to, climate and food related policies. 1088

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1090 **Disclosure statement**

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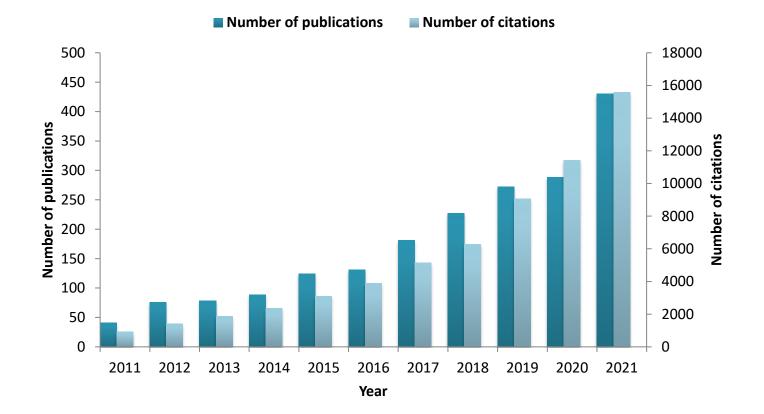


Figure 1. Number of publications and citations per year on fortified and functional foods over the last decade (search query was done on June 27, 2022). The following keyword search query was used in Scopus: TITLE-ABS-KEY (Encapsulation) OR (Microencapsulation) OR (Nanoencapsulation) AND (Food fortification) OR (Fortified food) OR (Functional food)

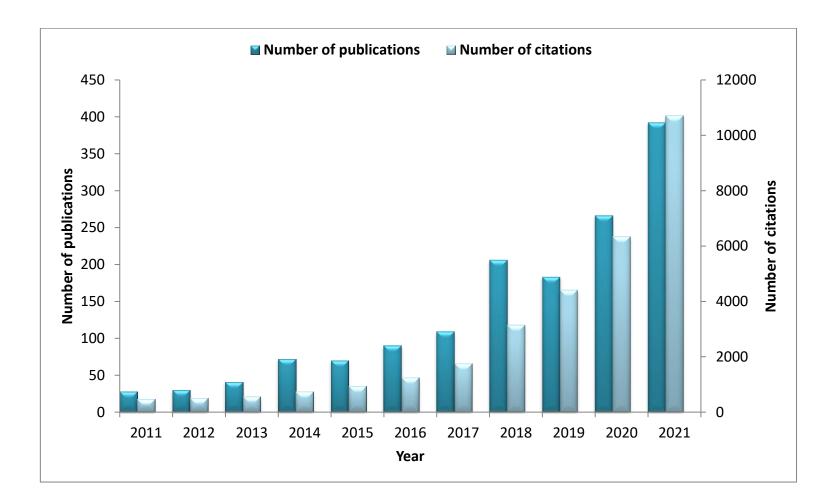


Figure 2. Number of publications and citations per year on 3D food printing over the last decade (search query was done on June 18, 2022). The following keyword search query was used in Scopus: TITLE-ABS-KEY (3D Food Printing) OR (Food Additive Manufacturing)

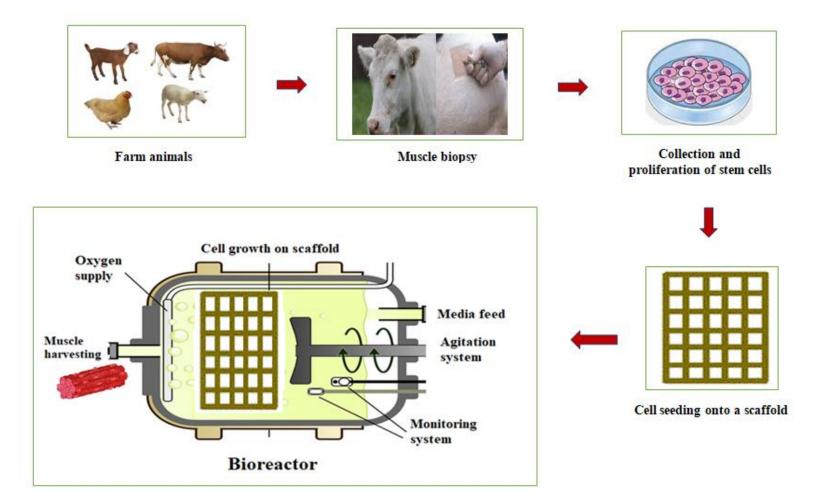


Figure 3. A cultured meat production system (Adapted from Bhat et al., 2011)

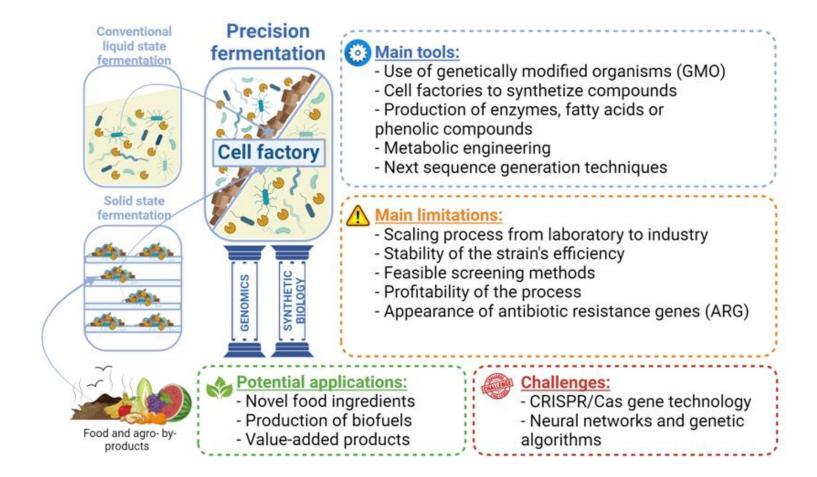


Figure 4. Tools, limitations, potential and challenges of precision fermentation

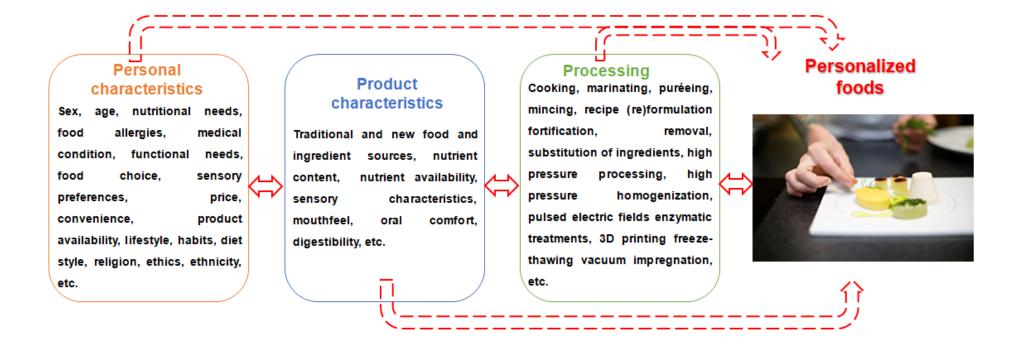


Figure 5. Examples of factors to take into account in personalization of foods

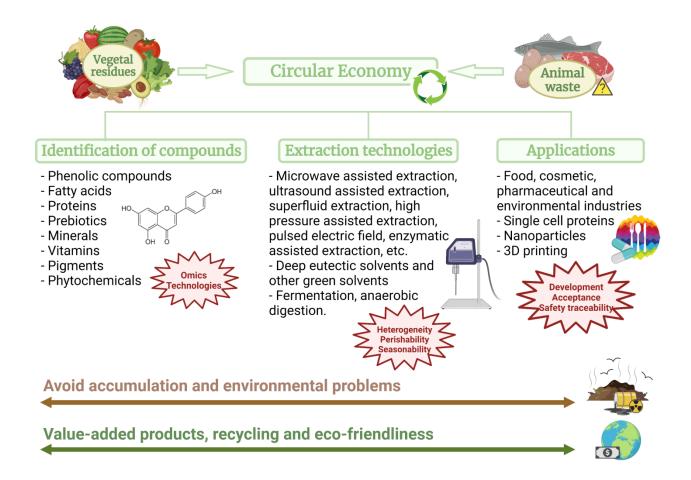


Figure 6. Workflow of the basic process to obtain value-added compounds and the main points to consider for future researches and applications

Table 1. Several examples of commercial 3D food printers and software solutions

Types	Pictures	Examples
byFlow 3D Printer		Printing edible films
https://www.3dbyflow.com/		Food matrix like creamy,
Slic3r – a program which		puree type - extrusion
transforms your 3D model to	Tet	process.
a file which is recognized by		(Jambrak et al., 2021)
the printer.		
Dovetail Design Studio		3D printing of fruit
http://www.dovetaildesignst		Microsoft Dovetail uses a
udio.com/		molecular 3D technique
https://www.dovetailed.co/nu	1117	called spherification that
food		allows it to print any fruit in
Application for running on	STATE OF	seconds.
iOS and Android.		
	0	

Dinara https://dinarakasko.com/ Software: Ultimaker Cura	The pastry chef of 3D printing 3D technologies to design the plastic mold for baked goods.
3D Systems CocoJet. <u>https://www.3dsystems.com/</u> Digital Cookbook software	Like Inkjet printing technology.
AZO Materials <u>https://www.azo.com/en-</u> <u>de/azo-special/additive-</u> <u>manufacturing/metal-powder</u> CAD software	Making things easier to swallow PERFORMANCE (PERsonalised FOod using Rapid MAnufacturing for the Nutrition of elderly ConsumErs) Like Inkjet printing technology

PancakeBot	<u>a</u>	The PancakeBot 2.0 uses a
https://www.pancakebot.co	Pancasegor	special batter dispensing
<u>m/</u>	CONTROL OF CONTRO	system, allowing the3D
Parametric modeling		printerto put the liquid
software such as Onshape,		pancake batter onto the
TinkerCAD, etc.		griddle.
Choc Edge		Provides 3D chocolate
http://chocedge.com/		printing solutions.
Using special CAD software	Contraction of the second seco	

MMuse chocolate 3D printer https://www.3dprintersonlin	Mmuse	Chocolate 3D printer Printing different shapes
estore.com/mmuse-touch- screen-chocolate-3d-printer		with melted chocolate. Chocolate 3D printer uses similar technology as traditional FDM printers.
Procusini https://www.procusini.com Software: Procusini® with template library.		Individual and creative food design in every commercial kitchen.

Mycusini	mycBsini	3D Choco varieties
https://mycusini.com/en		Printing different shapes
3D Chocomycusini®		with melted chocolate.
- Mycusini software.		Mostly, 3D printing of foods
		- works much like a printing
		filament with a regular FDM
		3D printer, in the sense that
		a viscous material is
		deposited onto a surface to
		create a final object.
Upprinting Food		Upprinting Food specializes
https://www.upprintingfood.		in printing food using
<u>com/</u>		leftovers like old bread and
		leftover vegetables to create
		new products.
	Contraction of the second	Extrusion technology similar
		to melt deposition
		technology.

Natural Machines		World's first 3D food printer
https://www.naturalmachine	-	making savory and sweet
s.com/how-it-works		foods, using fresh, real
		ingredients.
	*	3D printer works with an
		open capsule system. Users
		can insert fresh ingredients
		into a capsule, that they can
		they put inside the 3D
		printer. These ingredients
		are then 3D printed
		according to the recipe
		chosen by the users. The 3D
		print layer thickness depends
		on the ingredient, but the
		smallest available nozzle
		size is 0.5 mm.

ChefJet		3D printer that uses sugar as
https://www.3dsystems.com/	A .	its printing material.
		Instead of plastic filament,
		these printers use sugar and
		water as the base materials,
	Flot	with the ChefJet Pro also
	ChefJet	sporting an inkjet head that
		adds food coloring to the
		creations for custom
		standalone candies or cake
		toppers.
BeeHex		This robot can 3D-print and
https://www.beehex.com/		bake a pizza in six minutes.
BeeHex software		Layer by layer printing

Chef-It <u>https://www.trendhunter.co</u> <u>m/trends/chef-it</u>	Simultaneously prints and cooks burgers on demand. simultaneously printing and cooking a plant-based patty in 10 minutes
<u>Creative Machines Lab</u> <u>https://www.creativemachin</u> <u>eslab.com/</u> Combining additive manufacturing and software into the cooking process allows for creative food design and enables cooks to customize meals with precision.	3D printer that prints edible materials. Blue lasers and infrared light with pulsed heating is applied to the meat product and calibrated for a variety of parameters such as cooking depth, moisture retention, and flavor. Each parameter is then analyzed independently and controlled during the research study while maintaining stringent food safety protocols.

Dutch Research Institute - TNO https://www.barillagroup.co m/en/press-room/press- releases/barilla-10-stories- of-innovation/		Barilla, which specializes in pasta worked with the TNO.
WASP 2040 https://www.3dwasp.com/en /delta-3d-printer-delta-wasp- 2040-pro/ Official Slicing: Simplify3D®	Glub e co la r tle, o uos tela mat	Gluten-free 3D printed food Extrusion 3D printing technology

Cults Platform https://cults3d.com/en/3d- model/game/flexi-burger Database of 3D models to be printed		3D printed dishes https://cults3d.com/en
ZMorph https://zmorph3d.com/		Print with chocolate
<u>Different software:</u> <u>https://zmorph3d.com/blog/u</u> <u>seful-free-3d-printing-</u>		Paste extrusion.
software-can-choose/	-	
STRUCTUR3D DISCOV3RY https://www.structur3d.io	DISCOURANY	Printing both plastic and paste materials.
	distant.	

Redefine Meat https://www.redefinemeat.co	3D printing to improve the texture and mouthfeel of vegetable-based meat substitutes. Redefine Meat uses a range of proprietary and patented technologies, including Meat
	Matrix Additive Manufacturing TM
Nova Meat https://www.novameat.com/	Bioprinter to assemble a vegetarian filament made from peas, seaweed, and rice, with the goal of a meat- like taste and feel. Using layer by layer deposition style.
Marfrig Global Foods https://www.marfrig.com.br/ en	Soy-based revolution burger

SystemsandMaterialsResearchCorporation(SMRC) http://systemsandmaterials.c om/technologies/3d-printed-food/	Complete meals and nutrition for long duration space missions.
Mosa Meat https://mosameat.com/	They created the world's kindest burger: The first ever cultured beef burger.
Aleph Farms <u>https://www.aleph-</u> <u>farms.com/</u>	3D printed meat experiment on the International Space Station (ISS). Their actual steak in space (picture left)

3D Bioprinting Solutions https://www.3dnatives.com/ en	Cultured and printed Aleph Farms' muscle tissue
Finnish Biotech Solar Foods https://solarfoods.fi/	Farms protein from thin air
MeaTech https://meatech3d.com/	Industrial cultured meat production process with integrated 3D printing technology.

Couette- Cell Machine		Shear-cell machine makes
https://www.delta.tudelft.nl/		fibrous, meaty fare by
article/new-machine-makes-		shearing a doughy substance
beef	HOT Surface	between two nested, steam-
		heated cylinders.
SavorEat		Revolutionary robot chef
https://savoreat.com/		with customizable 3D
		printing technology;
		culturing bovine muscle
		cells in bioreactors.

Production attributes		Cultured meat production	Conventional meat production	
Pollution		Water pollution	Low	High
		Soil erosion	Low	High
Requirement of resources		Land	Low	High
		Water	Low	High
Loss of habitat and biodiversity		Low	High	
5		hort term effects	Low	High
GHG emissions	Long term	Clean energy	Low	Low
	effects -	Unclean energy	High	Low
Animal suffering and slaughter		Low	High	
Microbial and chemical safety		High	Low	
Production cost and technical skills		High	Low	
Time required for meat production		Less	More	
Capital/initial investment		High	Low	
Consumer acceptance		Low	High	

Table 2. Merits and challenges of cultured meat production compared to conventional meat production systems (Bhat et al., 2019)