2 products, seaweeds and microalgae - an update. Rocío Gallego, Mónica Bueno, Miguel Herrero* 3 Laboratory of Foodomics, Institute of Food Science Research, CIAL, CSIC, Nicolás Cabrera 4 9, 28049 Madrid, Spain. 5 6 7 8 *Corresponding author: 9 M. Herrero, Laboratory of Foodomics, Institute of Food Science Research, CIAL, CSIC, 10 Nicolás Cabrera 9, 28049 Madrid, Spain, e-mail: m.herrero@csic.es, Tel: +34 910 017 946. 11 12 13 TABLE OF CONTENTS 14 15 1. Introduction 16 2. Plants as a source of bioactives 3. Extraction of bioactive compounds from food and agricultural by-products 17 4. Extraction of bioactive compounds from seaweeds and microalgae 18 5. Conclusions and further perspectives 19 6. References 20

Sub- and supercritical fluid extraction of bioactive compounds from plants, food-by-

Abstract

Following our previous reviews, this manuscript presents an updated perspective on the use of compressed fluids, mainly under sub- and supercritical conditions, for the extraction of bioactive components from natural matrices covering the period from 2015 to present. These extraction technologies might have an important role in the development of sustainable and efficient extraction processes to cope with the high demand of natural bioactive compounds. Moreover, more complex approaches based on process integration, intensification and the development of sequential valorization chains are being increasingly developed. Most recent and interesting applications grouped according to the type of natural material used (plants, seaweeds, microalgae and food-related by-products) are described and critically commented. Furthermore, we discuss the potential future outlooks related to this field in agreement with our own experience.

Keywords: Algae; Bioactive compounds; Compressed fluids; Food by-product; Green extraction; Microalgae; Nutraceutical; Plant; Subcritical water extraction; Supercritical fluid extraction

1. INTRODUCTION

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Since we firstly reviewed the research performed on this field back in 2006 [1], a lot has 40 changed and evolved. However, one thing still remains at the bottom of this topic: the 41 interest on functional ingredients from natural sources that could be potentially used in the 42 food industry in an effort to improve consumers' health and well-being. Indeed, the number 43 of research projects and published papers focused on the relationship between food and food 44 ingredients and health do not stop growing year after year [2-4]. As a consequence, the search for natural compounds that could provide with a biological activity is still a hot-topic. 46 47 There are important natural sources of bioactives that could be grouped into plants, food and 48 agricultural-related by-products, and algae, including seaweeds and microalgae. During these last years, the interest in plants as potential natural sources is intact, as new species are 49 being explored. However, the other two groups have increased their relative importance 50 51 nowadays with respect to the past. One of them is considering agrifood by-products as sources of valuable compounds [5-7]. With the advance on environmental awareness, much 52 53 effort is being centered on developments related to circular economy and bioeconomy. Under these perspectives, by-products, which were often underestimated and underused, are 54 now valorized in order to obtain high added-value products at the same time that food 56 wastes are reduced. As described in the present review, a good number of applications have been recently developed in order to produce an efficient valorization of food-related by-57 products, which are demonstrated to be important sources of valuable compounds. 58 The other group of sources is formed by algae, either seaweeds or microalgae [8]. Whereas the marine environment is an understudied source of bioactives, the use of these organisms 60 is even more interesting considering that they can be cultivated and grown for a variety of 61 uses. Among these uses, the attainment of high added-value compounds is found. Besides, 62

64 consequently, better used by obtaining bioactive compounds from them. At present, the use of the mentioned natural sources to obtain bioactive compounds cannot 65 be separated from the use of appropriate, environmentally friendly, advanced extraction 66 techniques and processes. In this regard, the extraction processes developed should comply 67 with the Green Chemistry principles related to extraction [9]. This is an aspect that has also 68 69 significantly evolved in the last 10 years. Compressed fluids-based extraction techniques are among those that may fulfill the criteria to be considered suitable under the mentioned 70 perspective. Sub- and supercritical extraction methods, mainly characterized by pressurized 71 72 liquid extraction (PLE), gas-expanded liquids extraction (GXL) and supercritical fluid extraction (SFE) are efficient tools to extract bioactives from natural sources. Besides, all 73 these techniques may be scalable and provide interesting advantages over the conventional 74 75 extraction protocols, while they have also the possibility to be coupled to other processes within a biorefinery approach. This latest characteristic is very interesting, as nowadays the 76 77 efforts focused on the development of biorefineries in order to minimize or completely 78 eliminate any wastes related to agri-food products are increasing. Readers interested on gaining deeper insight on the technical aspects of these extraction tools are referred to other 79 80 previous reviews already published [10,11]. Having all these ideas in mind, the main goal of the present contribution is to provide an 81 updated overview on the use of compressed fluids-based extraction techniques, mainly PLE 82 and SFE to obtain bioactive compounds from natural sources from 2015 to present, 83 84 following our previous review [11]. The most notable applications showing major technological and methodological advances are highlighted and critically discussed. 85 Moreover, future needs and trends are commented. 86

there are species that do not actually possess any commercial value that could be,

2. PLANTS AS A SOURCE OF BIOACTIVES

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Compressed fluids-based extraction techniques, including sub- and supercritical fluid approaches have been widely employed for the extraction of bioactive compounds from plants. These organisms contain a large amount of different metabolites, including phenols, essential oils, proteins, terpenoids and flavonoids, among others, that are considered bioactive components. In this section, recent and remarkable studies about the recovery of bioactive compounds from plant material will be highlighted. Other recent reviews can be consulted for the extraction of specific and non-specific compounds from different plant material, including polyphenols and phenolic compounds [12-14], essential oils [15], pigments [16], phyosterols [17], and other bioactives [18-22]. One of the most studied extraction techniques when using plant materials is SFE. Some of the most recent and remarkable applications of SFE in plants are listed in Table 1. As it can be observed, the vast majority of target compounds using this technique are non-polar or mid-polar compounds such as lipids, essential oils and carotenoids. This is obviously due to the fact that supercritical CO₂ (scCO₂) is the preferred solvent for the extractions, due to the advantages that it possesses [46]. The use of CO₂ is limited by its low polarity, although SFE processes can be aided by a co-solvent in order to extract more polar compounds. In general, vegetable matrices are very complex and many techniques are usually performed before or during the extraction itself to allow a better recovery of the bioactives. One of the most useful pretreatments for the extraction of compounds is the use of enzymes, which are able to break the plant cell wall, producing an increase in mass transfer rate. As an example, Lenucci et al. [33] used glycosidases before scCO₂ extraction of lycopene from freeze-dried tomato, reaching up to 153% of this carotenoid and 137% of lipid concentration compared to the control process using only scCO₂ extraction. An interesting point of this work is the addition of hazelnuts seeds as a co-matrix of the raw material, which could improve the

scCO₂ diffusion and increased the total lycopene yield in the final extract. Another example of the use of enzyme-assisted SFE (EAE-SFE) was performed by Krakowska et al. [31]. Here, a commercial enzyme preparation containing xylanase, β-glucanase, cellulase, amylase and protease, responsible for the degradation of plant cell walls, was added to Medicago sativa leaves. After optimization of the extraction parameters (68 °C, 20.5 MPa and 15.5% of the ethanol as co-solvent), an increase of total phenols content and antioxidants was reached, compared to the control (without enzymatic treatment) and the conventional extraction method. Furthermore, the use of a sub- or supercritical extraction step can also be used to improve a subsequent extraction, as a combined extraction process. This concept was performed by Babova et al. [23], who extracted anthocyanins and other phenolic compounds from bilberries (*Vaccinium myrtillus*) using SFE before a PLE with aqueous ethanol as co-solvent. In their work, a multistep supercritical/subcritical extraction was carried out at 2.5 MPa and 40 °C for a total of 5 h and they could selectively obtain specific compounds such as cyanidin-3-O-glucoside or cyanidin-3-O-arabinoside, which were demonstrated to have a high antioxidant activity. It is well-known that the modification of the variables (pressure, time, feed and CO₂ flow rate, use of co-solvent, among others) can dramatically affect the composition of the final extracts [47]. As an example of this concept, Wei et al. [32] carried out a complete study of the effects of modulating some extraction parameters such as dynamic extraction time, CO₂ flow rate, co-solvent proportion, and extraction pressure and temperature, in the recovery of triterpenic acids from Hedyotis diffusa and Hedyotis corymbosa. Just to mention some of them, in terms of dynamic time, a longer time increased the extraction yield of the extracts although, after some point the increase of extraction yield was minimal since there is no more compound to extract from the matrix. This behavior was also previously corroborated

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in other vegetable materials [48,49]. Another important parameter that should be optimized is scCO₂ flow, as it was comprehensively explained by the authors [32]. They showed that a really low scCO₂ flow leads to an insufficient contact and thus, insufficient extraction of the compounds whereas an extremely high scCO₂ flow can make the scCO₂ flows around the matrix, limiting the contact between the solvent and the target compounds. The modification of the extraction parameters affects not only the amount of extractable compounds but also can alter the composition of the extracts, giving an extra selectivity within the process. In this sense, Bayrak et al. [28] studied the addition of methanol as cosolvent of a SFE process (35 °C, 24.7 MPa, 1.5 mL min⁻¹ scCO₂) in which colchicine and other derived-compounds were extracted. After the incorporation of 3 % (v/v) of methanol as co-solvent, they obtained an almost colchicine-pure extract from Colchicum speciosum, although the extraction yield was lower than without using co-solvent. These results show the potential and selectivity that can offer this extraction technique due to the different extraction conditions that can be modulated depending on the target compound. On the other hand, PLE has also been widely applied for the recovery of bioactives from vegetable matrices. Some representative applications of this technique are shown in Table 1. In comparison with SFE, pressurized liquid extraction is more flexible in the use of solvents. The most common ones for the extraction of natural sources are water (which is named as subcritical water extraction, SWE), ethanol, methanol or ethyl acetate, and their mixtures. As these solvents have different polarities, this technique covers a great range of compounds that can be extracted, from very polar components (such as sugars or proteins) to mid/nonpolar compounds (such as carotenoids and lipids). The use of pretreatments is not limited to foster a weakening on cell wall structure but also can be used to remove some components of the samples that hamper the extraction process of the target components. For instance, Castejón et al. [35] achieved a great oil extraction

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from chia (Salvia hispanica L.) seeds using PLE, after a pre-treatment based in ultrasounds, in which a large amount of mucilage was removed from the seeds. This way, optimum conditions for the PLE extraction using ethyl acetate or hexane as extracting solvent, 90 °C and only ten minutes of static extraction time, were obtained, allowing the recovery of interesting compounds such as α -linolenic acid, tocopherols and tocotrienols. Many researches are not only focused on the extraction of plant components but also in the biological activity and/or the application of those extracts as complex mixtures. For instance, Švarc-Gajić et al. [37] characterized ginger (Zingiber officinale) extracts obtained by SWE (150 °C, 5 MPa for 60 min), and both antimicrobial and cytotoxic activities were observed for several cell lines in subcritical extracts. A cytoprotective activity against oxidation was showed by several immature fruit extracts obtained by SWE using 100 °C as extraction temperature and pressures up to 1.5 MPa [36]. Also, a great amount of polyphenols was found in the aqueous extracts, which could be responsible of the mentioned activity, with the highest content in grape fruit extract. Another example of application of PLE extracts was given by López-Padilla et al. [40]. They studied the antioxidant activity of some PLE extracts from Vaccinium meridionale Swartz in order to add it in beef burgers, obtaining an optimum phenol-rich extract using a mixture of ethanol:water (1:1), 200 °C and only 15 min static extraction time. Thus, the idea of introducing this natural extract to control the oxidation of beef burgers could be an alternative to the use of synthetic antioxidants which are commonly used by food industries. Depending on the extraction conditions and the chemical characteristics of the target compound, sometimes it is difficult to obtain pure extracts, and a subsequent fractionation or purification steps must be done. Indeed, this is one of the most promising research lines in extraction process design and application. Thus, the integration of extraction processes is gaining more and more relevance. One of the most common techniques to purify extracts is

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the coupling of a sub- or supercritical extraction (or another extraction technique) and the fractionation using supercritical antisolvent fractionation (SAF). Using SAF, compounds will precipitate depending on their polarity and the polarity of the system itself. The continuous contact of a liquid extract (i.e PLE extract dissolved in ethanol/water) with pressurized CO₂ dissolves the less polar compounds in the extracts and can be separated from the more polar compounds, which precipitate within the extraction cell. Torres et al. [50] reviewed some applications of SAF for the fractionation of plant extracts. An example of this integrated process was given by Villanueva-Bermejo et al. [51] who carried out a SAF process starting from an ultrasonic-assisted ethanolic extract from yarrow (Achillea millefolium) L. Figure 1 shows a schematic diagram of the SAF precipitation cell used. Within the range of 10 and 20 MPa, the fractions obtained were richer in terms of phenolic compounds compared to the original extract. Going even further using the same approach, Villalva et al. [52] studied different conditions of SAF process in order to determinate the biological activities of the fractions. Interestingly, they obtained two welldefined extracts, which presented different activities: the separator-fraction with higher antiinflammatory activity and the remaining fraction (precipitated within the vessel), rich in phenolic compounds with higher antioxidant activity. Another approach of integrated process was developed by Sánchez-Camargo et al. [39]; in this case, PLE and SAF were integrated to obtain phenolic-rich extracts from rosemary in order to increase the bioactivity of the extracts. After obtaining a PLE extract using optimum conditions (150 °C, 10 MPa, ethanol/water (80:20) and 20 min as extraction time) previously determined, a second optimization of SAF step was performed. Best results were achieved using 10 MPa, 50% (v/v) of water in the feed solution (PLE extract) and a feed/SC-CO₂ mass flow ratio of 0.025.

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As there are many different products that can be extracted and valorized from a single matrix, the concept of biorefinery has emerged in the last years. As it is well-known, this concept relies on the application of a sequential process of extraction techniques, without the manipulation of the biomass, in which diverse compounds are effectively recovered. Table 1 can be consulted for some representative examples of biorefinery processes for plants. An interesting biorefinery approach was studied by Kraujalis et al. [45]. Here, a scCO₂ extraction of Viburnum opulus L. fruits was performed followed by a PLE using different solvents (acetone, ethanol and water) in order to obtain valuable compounds such as oleic and linoleic fatty acids, tocopherols, polyphenols and other antioxidants. Both steps were optimized to reach the highest concentration of those compounds. In the first case, at 57 MPa and 50 °C for 131 min and with a flow of 2.5 L CO₂ min⁻¹, extraction yields ranged from 6.6 to 19.1 %, depending on the raw material (whole berries, unwashed and washed berry pomace, respectively). The SFE residue was subsequently extracted using the mentioned solvents (at 70-120 °C, 10.3 MPa and three cycles of 5 min each) and all extracts presented strong antioxidant activity and a great amount of phenolic compounds. A similar study was followed by Bendif et al. [44]. The Algerian Thymus munbyanus was extracted by SFE and then, by successive pressurized extractions using acetone, ethanol and water. In this case, the target compounds were phenolic compounds and antioxidants. As the matrix and target compounds are not similar, extraction parameters were also different. Thus, the SFE process was conducted at 70 °C and 45 MPa for 210 min, using 2 L min⁻¹ as CO₂ flow rate, whereas the second step were performed at 70 or 120 °C and 10.3 MPa for 15 min. Results showed that SFE extracts where rich in terpenoids, long chain hydrocarbons and tocopherols while PLE extracts contained a great amount of phenolic compounds and also a higher antioxidant activity in comparison with SFE extracts, being increased with solvent polarity.

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Another example of fractionation was given by Santos et al. [42], who studied the antiproliferative activity of neem (*Azadirachta indica* A. Juss) extracts after a sequential PLE process. Here, they used hexane, ethyl acetate and, lastly, ethanol as solvents and a fixed temperature, pressure and solvent flow (25 °C, 10 MPa and 1 mL min⁻¹ respectively), obtaining extracts richer in terpenes when ethyl acetate was used as solvent. Furthermore, these extracts showed higher antiproliferative activity after several assays against human tumor cells, compared to the other extracts. A relevant issue was also accomplished in this study, since all neem extracts seemed to be more selective for malignant cell in comparison to normal cells. This fact could be a promising tool in further oncological studies.

3. EXTRACTION OF BIOACTIVE COMPOUNDS FROM FOOD AND

AGRICULTURAL BY-PRODUCTS

The reduction of agricultural processing wastes and residues generated by the industry is a topic of utmost importance for sustainability. Food processing by-products are often still rich in bioactive compounds which, if properly extracted and recovered, can be valorized into valuable food supplements or in nutraceutical formulations, mitigating their environmental impact and also adding economic benefits. To recover bioactives from food wastes, environment-friendly processes such as sub- and supercritical fluid technologies using green solvents, in single or combined ways, are preferred. In the period covered by the present review, different applications were developed to extract several kind of bioactive compounds from agricultural by-products. Generally, SFE is suitable for extracting non-polar compounds while PLE or SWE are capable to extract polar and semi-polar compounds, as for any other natural matrix. Table 2 summarizes the extraction conditions employed in the most remarkable applications. For more in-depth information on the role of sub- and supercritical fluids in the reutilization of wheat residues [83], winemaking-related

wastes [84,85], coffee by-products [86], fruit [87-89] or olive oil [90,91] industries by-262 263 products, among others [92-95], readers are referred to these excellent reviews. 264 As already mentioned, extraction solvent and temperature are parameters that can give an 265 extra selectivity within the extraction process. As an example, an anthocyanin- rich fraction was obtained separately from other phenolic compounds present in grape marc using a 266 sequential PLE process changing the solvent and increasing the temperature in the second 267 268 step [70] and juçara residues [55]. In the latter example, the PLE optimized solvent for the extraction of anthocyanins was employed as co-solvent in SFE. By using this approach, 269 extracts were further enriched in anthocyanins. Another example was given by Ersan et al. 270 271 [79], who were able to produce a selective extraction of gallantannins and flavonols while anacardic acids, sensitizing and possible allergenic substances, remained in the residue. 272 273 When using aqueous methanol for control extraction, large amounts of total anacardic acids 274 (67.5 g/kg dry pistachio hulls) were found in the extract. By employing SWE, substantially lower amounts of anacardic acids (<3 g/kg dry pistachio hulls) were extracted. 275 276 Generation of compounds that could arguably pose a risk for food safety, such as 277 hydroxymethylfurfural, has been observed during SWE processes. This is the case of the extraction of polyphenols from grape pomace carried out at high temperatures [96]. The 278 279 addition of ethanol (up to 15%) could reduce the process temperatures, thus, decreasing the generation of some Maillard reaction products with known cytotoxicity in grape pomace 280 [72] or spent coffee grounds [82]. In addition, a resin purification of the extract with 80% of 281 282 ethanol maintained the overall polyphenols recovery at the same time 283 hydroxymethylfurfural was eliminated (95%) from the purified extract retaining the antioxidant capacity of the crude extract between 60% and 88%, depending on the assay 284 employed (DPPH and ORAC) [82]. 285

Omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) represent a very important class of bioactives present in fish processing residues. SFE carried out with neat scCO₂ is the preferred technique for PUFAs extraction. In general, temperatures from 30 to 60 °C and pressures between 20 and 35 MPa were used. The main advantages of PUFAs extraction using SFE are: 1) the significant enrichment of eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) that are related to prevention of heart-related diseases, 2) the better sensory parameters (color and viscosity) of the oil obtained, and 3) a significant reduction of toxic heavy metals extraction in comparison with conventional methods [97,98]. As it is obvious that optimum extraction conditions will vary depending not only on the matrix but also on the target components, optimization of the extraction parameters using experimental designs is widely employed. Furthermore, compounds recovered from agricultural processing wastes possess some interesting bioactivities such as antioxidant, anti-proliferative or anti-inflammatory with obvious advantages from the health and economical standpoints. However, their diverse chemical structure mean that the extraction conditions should be properly tuned. For example, one remarkable application of extracts from by-products which combines both antibacterial and antioxidant activities could be their addition in new food products as natural preservatives for reducing food spoilage and therefore, prolonging food shelf life. Thus, new multi-analytical platforms and bio-based directed methodologies have been developed to this aim. For instance, Ballesteros-Vivas et al. [58] combined PLE, liquid chromatography and gas chromatography quadrupole time-offlight mass spectrometry, in vitro antioxidant assays and mathematical modelling tools for guiding extraction optimization of withanolides from goldenberry calyces. Regarding the anti-inflammatory activity showed by winemaking by-products extracts obtained by PLE, Nieto et al. [73] reported that these phenolic-rich extracts act as effective inhibitors of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Therefore, these PLE extracts could have a great

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311 potential to be used as natural ingredients in the development of anti-atherogenic products. 312 Another interesting example was given by Ndavishimive et al. [61] who studied the use of citrus seeds oils as co-solvent for scCO₂ to enhance the carotenoids extraction from citrus 313 peels. However, the relevant fact was that the combination of both by-products has a 314 synergistic effect in the antioxidant activity of resulting oils. 315 In order to make the whole extraction more efficient, new approaches have been developed 316 317 coupling processes or integration of procedures within the same process. One example is the coupling of ultrasound treatment and extraction in sequence or simultaneously. Sumere et al. 318 [63] corroborated that the simultaneous combination of ultrasound and pressurized liquid 319 320 extraction (UAE+PLE, Figure 2) is able not only to improve the extraction of phenolic compounds from pomegranate peels but also to recover these faster (requires less cycles). 321 Different parameters including the ultrasound power and particle size, important to 322 323 determine the influence of the application of ultrasounds to assist the extraction process, were optimized. Interestingly, they found that ultrasound power had no effect on the 324 325 extraction using small particles (0.68 mm) samples. In contrast, the effect was evident and 326 positive applying 480 and 640W ultrasound powers to large average particle size (1.05 mm) 327 samples. 328 There are other interesting published works on the extraction of polyphenols using ultrasounds as pretreatment showing its versatility at the time of coupling to any technique 329 of pressurized fluids, for instance, from grape marc by UAE+SFE [71], from different 330 berries by UAE+PLE [74], or spent coffee grounds by UAE+SWH [81]. 331 332 Nevertheless, sometimes the strong cell walls of the samples hamper to a certain extent the efficiency of extraction. For this reason, the use of enzyme treatments, very high pressures 333 (>300 MPa) or the combination of both, provide better results in terms of recovery of 334 bioactive compounds [62]. However, enzymatic assisted extraction is not the only 335

biotransformation that enhances the release of bioactives from agricultural by-products. Recently, the fermentation process of orange pomace using the fungus *Paecilomyces variotii* was evaluated [60]. When the orange pomace was biotransformed, phenols extracted increased more than twice in SFE with CO₂ + 6% ethanol/water (9:1 v/v) and thus promoted the functional activity of antioxidants comparing with the non-fermented pomace. The low stability of some bioactive compounds during their extraction, purification and storage has been increasingly a subject of interest. Under this topic, research is focused on new forms of processing with minimal degradation. A typical example in this regard is the coupling of compressed fluids extraction and drying processes. Firstly, a proper optimization of the PLE or SFE processes towards the extraction of target compounds should be done. Later on, the extracts attained are dried using Supercritical AntiSolvent (SAS). The technique is based in putting into contact an organic solution with scCO₂ in the same way as it was explained before for SAF. SAS method can also be used to encapsulate or coprecipitate target compounds by super saturation of the polymer/solute, leading to submicrometric particles with controlled size. Oliveira et al. [67] produced passion fruit seed oil particles encapsulated with the biopolymer, PLGA (poly(lactic-co-glycolic) acid). By using the selected SAS encapsulation conditions (35°C, CO₂ mass fraction between 92.5 and 95%, and a pressure of 9 MPa), they obtained spherical shape particles with an encapsulation efficiency from 67.8 to 91%. After an initial burst, the oil released raised gradually (until 24 h), followed by a uniform release up to 72 h, reaching up to 88% of entrapped oil released. These approaches are doubly valuable since they preserve the biological activities of the extracted compounds at the same time that are presented on an interesting form from an energetic point of view, considering that the drying step is usually regarded as very energydemanding. There is even a trend to use the same equipment for PLE and SAS as the one

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360 described by Zabot et al. [57] to extract flavonoids from onion wastes. In this way, wastes 361 and energy consumption are even more reduced. Taking into account the industrial scale proportion of agricultural by-products, the scale-up 362 [59] and the economic evaluation [99] of the compressed fluid extractions should be studied 363 to assess the economic feasibility of the processes. For example, the software SuperPro 364 Design can be used to perform material and energy balance calculations for all process 365 366 streams, as well as to perform a project cost analysis, including capital and manufacturing costs. In this sense, a PLE technique using ethanol for carotenoids extraction from pressed 367 palm fibers was evaluated [54]. The economic analysis showed that the cost of 368 manufacturing for this technique was 29.2 US\$ kg⁻¹ extract for a 0.5 m³ vessel capacity 369 while its selling price is higher than 667 US\$ kg-1 extract. These values can be obtained due 370 to its faster extraction time and higher extract productivity in comparison to conventional 371 372 techniques (45.1 US\$ for Soxhlet extraction). The use of this kind of estimations is interesting to know if an extraction is competitive compared to the selling price. 373 374 Another expensive procedure is the removal of water from by—products before extraction; 375 thus, an interesting approach is to find out which matrices can be processed in their native state. In this sense, Ferrentino et al. [65] compared the phenol recovery and antioxidant 376 377 activity of freeze-dried, oven dried and fresh apple pomace. Total phenol content were higher in dried samples (66-70%) in comparison to fresh pomace (58%); however, antioxant 378 values were significantly higher in fresh samples. This fact makes the extraction of fresh 379 apple pomace an industrial viable process since both time and money are reduced (avoiding 380 381 drying steps). Considering the intrinsic nature of agro-industrial by-products, these have gained a special 382 383 attention of the scientific community in a circular economy perspective, and different biorefinery approaches based on integrated processes have been developed [53,75,77]. For 384

instance, the combined used of high pressure extractions and hydrolysis with or without enzymatic assistance has been studied to obtain value added fractions from olive pomace [78], namely, oil, proteins, fermentable sugars and lignin (Figure 3). Moreover, the obtained sugars were used to produce bioethanol. Another interesting example dealing with a biorefinery approach is a two-step extraction conducted to evaluate a sequential SFE process base on the use of neat scCO₂ and addition of co-solvents (ethanol+ water) to extract lipids and phenolic compounds consecutively from cranberry pomace [76]. Different compositions of ternary mixtures (CO₂ + ethanol + water) were systematically evaluated in this work. The final molar ratio chosen was CO₂ + ethanol + water 0.312:0.048:0.640. The inclusion of water had several advantages: fast and quantitative recovery of the phenolic compounds and high anthocyanin concentration and antioxidant capacity. The possibility of using low amounts of ethanol also reduces the cost and environmental impact of the process. This work shows that the presence of water in ternary compressed fluids leads to the *in situ* formation of carbonic acid which provokes a decrease in pH. This decrease in turn, might have a stabilizing effect on the target compounds and might also lead to higher diffusivities due to increased cell membrane permeability resulting from the effect of low pH on cell membrane proteins. Many of the above described examples are based on process integration achieved by the combination of different unit operations, whereas process intensification is based on the use of the same equipment, as described for the biorefinery of cocoa bean hulls [80] or mango peel [66]. A nice example of a multipurpose equipment has been used to consecutively extract different passion fruits seeds compounds using SFE and PLE. Several sequential SFE processes were studied based on the use of neat scCO2 with different densities by changing temperatures and pressures (see Table 2) to produce fractions enriched on tocols (tocopherols and tocotrienols), fatty acids and carotenoids [68], followed by a PLE to

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recover phenols [69]. The use of this kind of approach shows how, by tuning the extraction parameters and coupling different techniques, a complete biorefiery of by-products can be obtained using the same system. Therefore, process intensification can be considered a way to optimize systematically the use of energy, capital or other benefits through the development of efficient techno-economical systems [100].

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4. EXTRACTION OF BIOACTIVE COMPOUNDS FROM SEAWEEDS AND

MICROALGAE

Marine sources, especially seaweeds and microalgae are still an untapped reservoir of bioactive compounds, since there are still thousands of different species that have not been studied yet, which have considerable potential to supply novel ingredients towards food and pharmaceutical industries. Other strains might also have potential for other uses, such as biodiesel production. In addition, most micro- and macroalgae produce highly valuable metabolites such as fatty acids, proteins, pigments or polysaccharides with biological activities (antioxidant, antiinflammatory, neuroprotective or antimicrobial activities) due to their adaptation to the extreme environments of light, salinity, and temperature [101]. That is why, during the last years, extraction of compounds from seaweeds and microalgae was a subject of growing interest. There are several updated reviews which can be consulted for the green extraction of these bioactives from seaweeds [102-105] and microalgae [106-108]. More compoundspecific ones can also be found, i.e. lipids [109] carotenoids [110] or phenols [8]. A list of remarkable applications of compressed fluid extraction applied to these matrices are shown in Table 3. Some of them involve the use of scCO2 as extraction solvent, or CO2expanded ethanol (CXE). In general, these techniques are commonly used for the extraction of non-polar or mid-polar compounds such as lipids, carotenoids and chlorophylls, since these matrices are rich in those compounds, as it happens for the rest of natural sources

described in the present review. On the other hand, pressurized liquid extraction in microalgae is mainly focused on the recovery of carotenoids and lipids, since these bioactive compounds are very appreciated in many industries such as oil, pharmaceutical or cosmetics, while in macroalgae, research is mainly focused on phenolic compounds and polysaccharides. A selection of the most remarkable studies about the recovery of bioactive compounds from marine material are highlighted in this section. Castro-Puyana et al. [126] studied the potential of the microalga Neochloris oleoabundans as a natural source of bioactives. For this goal, they evaluated extracts obtained by PLE in terms of in vitro antiproliferative activity using different colon cancer cell lines. Interestingly, extracts with highest content of carotenoids (obtained at 100 °C, 10.3 MPa during 20 min and ethanol as extracting solvent) showed also the highest antiproliferative activity, specifically when carotenoids monoesters were in a higher concentration in the extracts. These results leave the door open to new in vivo studies about the possible potential of this microalga as a functional food ingredient or nutraceutical and the prevention of colon cancer development. Another interesting example relating extraction and bioactivity was given by Heavisides et al. [122], where the application of a definitive screening designbased optimized PLE extraction combined with an untargeted metabolomics approach was used for the identification of seasonal variations in both metabolome and bioactivity of the macroalgae Fucus vesiculosus. The extracts were simultaneously screened for their in vitro methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus inhibitory activity, caspase-induced Panc1 cancer cell apoptosis and free radical scavenging activities. The greatest radical scavenging and apoptotic activities against pancreas cancer cells were observed in the summer months, which were attributed to high phlorotannin content, while antimicrobial activity was produced year-round without a clear seasonal trend. This study highlights the significant

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effect of the sampling month on the chemical composition and, therefore, the possibility to design different approaches to maximize the yield of specific bioactive compounds. In light of the health and safety risks posed by commonly used organic solvents, nowadays, the use of green solvents is preferred for different reasons already mentioned here and comprehensively described elsewhere [135]. Even though the use of carbon dioxide in SFE is unquestionable, the use of other new green emerging solvents has been increased in PLE approaches. Deep eutectic solvents (DES) are obtained by mixing two or more organic compounds and the new solvent present a melting point lower than that of either individual components. DES are cheaper to produce than ionic liquids (ILs) but they have similar characteristics such as high thermal and chemical stabilities, negligible vapor pressure and wide solvating range, which make DES and ILs suitable as catalysts to enhance the yield and increase dissolution of polysaccharides [124,127] or phenolic compounds [128] from different seaweed matrices. Regarding biodegradation and sustainability of the extraction process, some researchers are investigating the use of bio-based solvents such as ethyl acetate or ethyl lactate for compressed fluid extractions of bioactives from microalgae [136], among other natural sources [35,38,137,138] since these solvents can be prepared from renewable sources (Figure 4). Another upcoming solvent is 2-methyltetrahydrofuran (MTHF), which was studied for the first time by Damergi et al. [120] as a new alternative solvent for the extraction of carotenoids from Chlorella vulgaris. MTHF is a green solvent derived from renewable resources (lignocellulosic biomass) and has the advantages to be biodegradable and easy recyclable. Using PLE and a mixture of ethanol/MTHF (1:1) as extraction solvent (at 110 °C for 30 min), they obtained promising results in terms of total carotenoids. Thus, MTHF appears to have the potential to be an alternative to n-hexane for the extraction of carotenoids due to its unique properties.

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To illustrate the effect of the solvent in PLE processes, Otero et al. [123] investigated the selectivity of five solvents of different polarities (hexane, ethyl acetate, acetone, ethanol and ethanol:water 50:50) towards the extraction of lipids from Fucus vesiculosus by PLE. They observed that ethyl acetate is a selective solvent to enhance the extraction of long chain fatty acids including oleic, arachidonic and eicosapentaenoic acids (EPA), producing extracts that at least double the fatty acids quantity in comparison to the other solvents. However, the lowest ω -6/ ω -3 ratio was achieved with the most polar solvent (ethanol:water 50:50) with a value of 1.92, much lower than those recommended by FAO (ω -6/ ω -3 = 10) [139]. Parameters involving solvent-solute behavior are also studied by several researchers. In this way, Kwan et al. [130] studied the influence of some parameters related to solvatochromism (consult Maiwald and Schneider work [140] for more information about this concept) in order to select the best conditions to extract triacylglycerides (TG) and astaxanthin from Haematococcus pluvialis using SFE. Interestingly, results showed that it was possible to separately extract these compounds by changing the density of the scCO₂ with pressure: at low densities, TG were recovered (up to 78 %) with only 1 % of astaxanthin and, at high densities, over 70 % of astaxanthin were extracted whereas the amount of TG were less than 5 % of total TG in the microalga. This fractionation process can be also considered among the biorefinery platform, since different fractions are obtained by coupling diverse procedures. Astaxanthin recovery from H. pluvialis have been widely studied using all kind of compressed fluid extraction techniques, since this carotenoid is a high-value compound and its purification is not easily achieved. In contrast to the study mentioned before, Cheng et al. [114] achieved a great recovery of astaxanthin using low pressures (8 MPa in comparison to 48 MPa) in SFE. In this case, the addition of ethanol as co-solvent notably reduced

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extraction time from 15 h to 30 s, showing once again, the huge importance of the 508 509 optimization of extraction parameters for the recovery of bioactives. 510 In the search for an appropriate solvent or bio-solvent for obtaining good selectivity, Hansen 511 Solubility Parameters (HSP) help to predict an estimation of the solubility of the solute in the solvent, as it was already set by many authors [141,142]. In this sense, Sánchez-512 513 Camargo et al. [121] compared several green solvents in subcritical (water, ethanol and ethyl 514 lactate) and supercritical (scCO₂ and scCO₂ with different proportions of ethanol) conditions to extract phlorotannins from Cystoseira abies-marina seaweeds. Theoretically, pure ethanol 515 at low temperature (25 °C) was shown to be the most suitable solvent. Nevertheless, it was 516 517 experimentally demonstrated using a comprehensive two-dimensional liquid chromatography (LC×LC-MS/MS) method, that pure ethanol at 100 °C in subcritical state 518 519 (10.3 MPa) showed the highest selectivity to extract phlorotannins among different solvents 520 studied. Similarly, a recent study for the selective extraction of β-carotene from Dunaliella salina was carried out by Tirado et al. [112]. Using HSP, ethanol (with 5 % mass fraction) 521 522 was predicted as the best co-solvent for SFE to achieve this goal (up to 25 mg of β-carotene 523 per g microalgae, in comparison to 6 mg per g microalgae that was obtained using only scCO₂). 524 525 The vast majority of studies for the recovery of bioactives from macro- and microalgae 526 involve a drying pre-treatment of the raw material prior extraction in order to increase the direct contact between solvent and sample, although this step highly increases costs and 527 sometimes can damage the sample. To avoid this situation, some researchers studied the 528 529 influence of the water content during extraction process. For instance, Mouahid et al. [113] investigated not only the influence of the water content but the drying mode applied in 530 Dunaliella salina for the recovery of carotenoids by SFE, concluding that at certain 531 conditions (60 °C and 20-40 MPa) a water content of 23 wt.% helped to recover a higher 532

content of \(\beta\)-carotene (major carotenoid in \(D.\) salina) without affecting the extraction process. Another curious approach was performed by Reyes et al. [116], who effectively extracted carotenoids from Neochloris oleoabundans paste (containing around 70-80 % water) mixing this paste with adsorbents as supporting media. After comparing different adsorbents with diverse adsorbent capacities, results showed that chitosan allowed the higher recovery of carotenoids. As discussed in the previous sections, novel technologies such as ultrasound, and enzymeaided extraction are used as powerful tools in providing high extraction of bioactive compounds. Although not all the examples are successful, they leave the way open for future practical applications. For instance, EAE process using either proteases or carbohydrases before PLE did not improve the attainable results in terms of total polyphenols and phlorotannins recoveries from the seaweed Sargassum muticum [129], suggesting that more selective enzymes directed to algal polysaccharides from the cell wall would be required to selectively release these compounds. Another interesting study using enzymes was carried out by Shomal et al. [118]. Here, they used immobilized lipases during the supercritical CO₂ extraction of microalga Scenedesmus sp. for a simultaneous extraction and reaction of the oils to produce biodiesel. After the optimization of some parameters, a maximum recovery of biodiesel (up to 19.3 % of yield) was achieved at 35 °C and 40 MPa during 6 h, using a specific amount methanol for the catalytic reaction (methanol:oil molar ratio of 8:1). Unfortunately, this yield is lower than the one obtained with separate extraction and reaction processes, but further studies and optimization of this one-step process could simplify the overall biodiesel production by microalgae. In general, this type of studies also involves a comprehensive characterization of the extracts using modern techniques for the identification and quantification of the bioactive compounds such as high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) or

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chromatography (GC) coupled to mass spectrometry (MS). However, new and more sophisticated equipment, which allow a simultaneous extraction and characterization of compounds, are emerging in the last years. As an example, Abrahamsson et al. [111] developed a SFE-UV/Vis-ELSD equipment (Figure 5) capable of detecting carotenoids, chlorophyll A, ergosterol and total lipids from a microalgae extract obtained by SFE. This approach not only simplifies the whole extraction-identification-quantification process but also avoid the possible damage that extracts can suffer during these steps. Besides, common one-step extraction procedures, SFE and PLE are being studied as potential unit operations to be employed in biorefinery processes involving algae. As can be observed in Table 3, microalgae are among the organisms with higher potential in this regard. In order to increase, even further, the economic competitiveness of these processes, some researchers have applied the innovative concept of CO₂ as a switchable solvent for the biorefinery valorization of algae biomass [119]. A switchable solvent is a solvent that can be reversibly converted from one form to another, where the two forms differ in one or more physical properties [143]. In this regard, carbon dioxide-expanded liquids (CXLs) was defined as a type of switchable solvent that is half way between pressurized liquids and supercritical fluids by increasing the amount of compressed CO₂ [144]. Just to highlight some recent examples, Gilbert-López et al. [134] achieved the fractionation of the microalga Scenedesmus obliquus into several high-value compounds such as total phenols, carotenoids, proteins and sugars. The process began with pure scCO₂, the next step involved gas expanded liquids (75 % ethanol and 25 % scCO₂) and after that, a PLE was performed using water as solvent. Thus, non-polar compounds (such as TG) were extracted in the first step whereas mid-polar compounds and polar compounds (almost pigments) were extracted in the following steps. A similar approach was carried out by Sánchez-Camargo et al. [132]. In this study, previous high-pressure homogenization (HPH) prior extraction was performed to

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Nannochloropsis gaditana biomass in order to break or weaken the cell wall and to foster a better extraction of its components. After that, a two-step extraction was carried out: firstly, a SFE using neat scCO₂ was performed and non-polar lipids and pigments were recovered. In a second step, a PLE process was optimized in order to obtain extracts with antioxidant activity. Optimum extracts were obtained using pure ethanol at 170 °C for 20 min, containing carotenoids, chlorophylls and polar lipids.

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5. CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER PERSPECTIVES

As shown in the previous sections, the use of compressed fluids-based extraction technologies still retains a lot of potential for the efficient extraction of bioactive compounds from very different natural matrices. Although some important leaps forward have been produced in the last years and the use of these techniques is mature, there is still room for improvement in different aspects. One of them is linked to the knowledge about the natural materials. In fact, the attainment of new relevant information on the chemical composition of the natural sources is of utmost importance. As a previous step to process design, to precisely know which components and in which amount are present in the different matrices help to increase the efficiency of the later on applied extraction process. Different parameters directly related to sample composition affect to the extraction, as shown in sections 2-4, such as moisture, carbohydrate or lipid content to name a few. For this reason, it is always interesting to acquire as much as possible information about the sample chemical composition in order to be able to propose the most suitable extraction approach in order to not only maximize the extraction of the target bioactive compounds, but also to produce a recovery of other components in parallel that could also be of interest. It is clear that the natural matrices described in this review have been demonstrated to be feasible alternatives for the production of bioactive compounds. However, further search for

new natural sources (plant and algae species, other underexploited by-products) is foreseen in the future research on this field. The marine environment can still provide with new relevant discoveries. Moreover, microalgae culture conditions could be further fine-tuned in order to increase the amount of particular bioactive compounds within their chemical composition. At the same time, new interesting species could be cultured under controlled conditions at an industrial level. These advances, although not directly related to compressed fluids, will have an impact on the design of processes. Likewise, multiple agri-food byproducts are still valorizable should the correct approaches are applied. Thus, further development in these areas will significantly influence the appearance of new applications of compressed fluids-based extraction technologies. Concerning new designs of processes, novel green solvents will have a lot to say in the future. Green solvents already proposed, such as subcritical water, some ionic liquids, as well as other solvents less used, such as DES, switchable solvents should be further studied in order to perfectly understand how they could be efficiently applied to the extraction of bioactive substances in a high-pressure environment. This is also the case of other foodgrade solvents, such as ethyl lactate or d-limonene, which use could be of great interest in some applications. Moreover, it could be also interesting to fully study how these can be combined with supercritical CO₂ in order to foster the extraction and purification of bioactives. In fact, the combination of process unit operations into more complex combined processes can be considered as an important future line of research. There are a wide array of possibilities going from combination of extraction processes to produce purification of bioactive compounds as well as generating valuable co-products from the natural material extracted, to the use of other technologies in parallel. Among them, the use of enzymes has already been explored as above described [31,33,62,78,118], although their potential has not been fully established yet. The use of enzymes at pressurized conditions could theoretically

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help to combine extraction and modification processes in order to produce a particular compound in higher extent. Ultrasounds could be also employed to increase the extraction rate in sub- and supercritical extraction processes. The effect that ultrasounds may infer in the samples is well-known. Their coupling during a particular extraction protocol could effectively help to weaken the matrix structure favoring and increasing the mass transfer rate, thus, improving the extraction efficiency, as some applications have already shown. Other combined processes that are worth to be further studied are related to the coupling of drying steps to the extraction protocols. Some methods based on the use of compressed fluids have been developed and applied to this field, including supercritical antisolvent (SAS), rapid expansion of a supercritical solution (RESS) or solution-enhanced dispersion by supercritical fluids (SEDS) [38,39,57,67,145]. Moreover, other alternatives combining the extraction with subcritical water and particle formation on-line have been presented [146-148], although their wider used could be expected considering the benefits of applying those approaches. Moreover, these developments could be important from the ever more relevant field of biorefinery since some of them have the potential to be scaled up and applied in combination with other technologies in order to establish complete valorization chains. In fact, all the mentioned future advances could be applied to biorefineries, although the combination of different unit operations into wider platforms that operate in a continuous or semi-continuous mode is still an important challenge. Lastly, aspects related to scale-up of these developments should be further studied. Indeed, most of the processes published covered by this review are at a lab or relatively small scale. Once the concept is demonstrated, scale-up and integration has to be performed, also including techno-economical assessment and life-cycle analysis. At the end, any promising process or alternative based on the use of compressed fluids for the attainment of bioactive compounds from natural matrices has to demonstrate its feasibility at a larger scale in order

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to transfer these technologies to the industry. Only by doing this, the environmental and efficiency-related advantages that compressed fluids may provide will effectively achieved in a context in which circular economy may accomplish a decisive leap forward.

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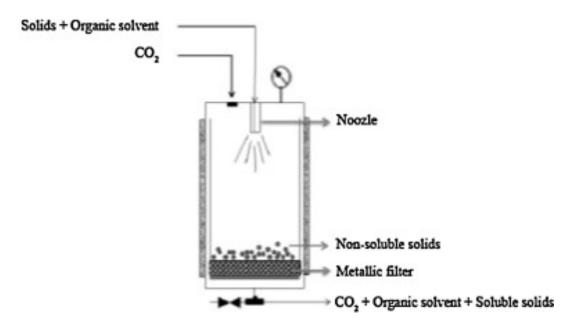
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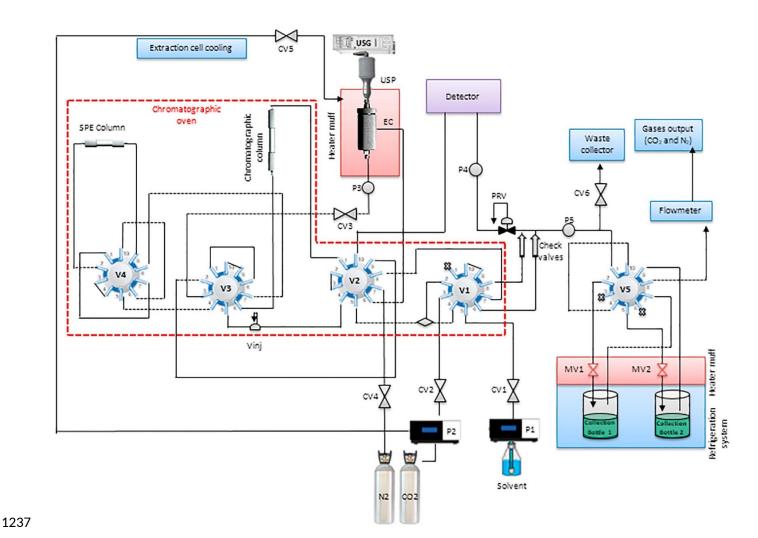
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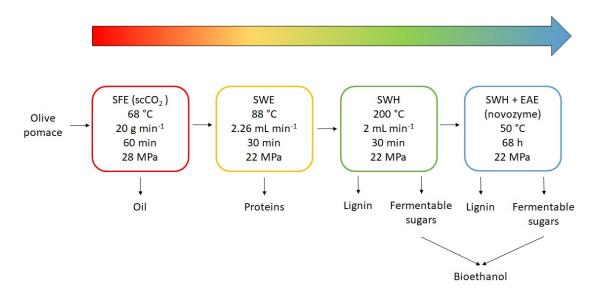
FIGURES 1216 1217 Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the SAF precipitation cell of the equipment. Reprinted with permission from Villanueva-Bermejo et al [51]. 1218 Figure 2. Integrated EXTRACT-US diagram system. P1: Liquid pump; P2: CO₂ pump; 1219 PRV: Pressure Regulating Valve; EC: Extraction Cell; USG: Ultrasound Generator; SPE: 1220 Solid Phase Extraction; USP: Ultrasound Probe; P1-5: Pressure transducer; V1-5: Automatic 1221 Valve 2-position/10-port; CV1-6: Check Valve; Vinj: Manual injection valve; MV1-2: 1222 Micrometric valve. *Dotted section represents the chromatographic oven. Reprinted with 1223 permission from Sumere et al. [63]. 1224 1225 **Figure 3.** Biorefinery cascade processing of olive pomace. Adapted from Kazan et al. [78]. Figure 4. Cycle of sustainable production of ethyl lactate. Reprinted with permission from 1226 Kua et al. [138]. 1227 Figure 5. Instrumental setup of the SFE-UV/Vis-ELSD equipment. Reprinted with 1228 permission from Abrahamsson et al. [111]. 1229 1230 1231 1232 1233



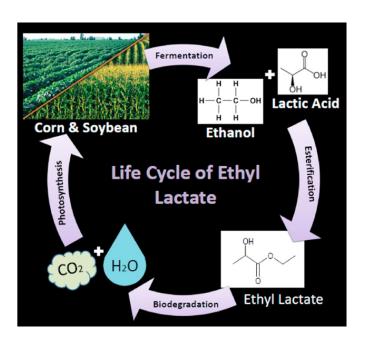
1235 Figure 1.



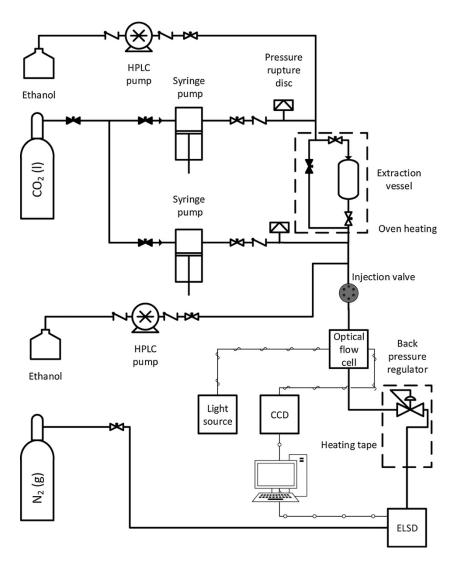
1238 Figure 2.



1241 Figure 3.



1244 Figure 4.



1247 Figure 5.

Table 1.Some representative applications involving the use of sub- and supercritical fluid extractions for bioactive compounds from plants published during the period 2015–19

Matrix	Compounds of interest	Extraction method	Extraction solvent	T (°C) / P (MPa)	Extraction time (min)	Flow CO ₂ rate (mL min ⁻¹)	Ref.
		SFE	CO ₂ (+ 6 % ethanol/water 70:30)		60	133.3 #	
Bilberry (Vaccinium myrtillus)	Anthocyanins and other phenolic compounds	SubFE	CO ₂ (+ 6 % ethanol/water 50:50)	45 / 25	60	100 #	[23]
		SubFE	CO ₂ (+ 9 % ethanol/water 10:90)		180	100 #	
Black pepper (Piper nigrum)	Piperine	SFE	CO ₂ (+5 % ethanol)	40 / 20-30	240	8 ± 2 *	[24]
Carrentia hadraid Garrens	Cannabinoids	SFE	CO_2	50-70 / 12.8-24.9		2.5	[25]
Cannabis hybrid flowers	Cannaoinoids	SFE	CO ₂ (+ 6 % ethanol)	50 / 16.5-24.0		2.5	- [25]
	Sesquiterpenes and phenols	SFE / SFEAP	CO ₂	40 / 15	20 + 14	-	[26]
Clove (Syzygium aromaticum)	Monoterpenes and vitamin E	SFE	CO_2	40 / 15-22	30 + 50	-	[27]
Colchicum speciosum	Colchicine	SFE	CO ₂ (+3 % methanol)	35 / 24.7	25 + 30	1.5	[28]
Melaleuca cajuputi	Sesquiterpenes and phenolics	SFE	CO ₂	43 / 25	120	6	[29,30]
Medicago sativa	Polyphenolics	EAE + SFE	CO ₂ (+ 15 % ethanol)	68 / 20.5	-	4	[31]
Tea (Hedyotis diffusa and Hedyotis corymbosa)	Oleanolic and ursolic acids	SFE	CO ₂	55 / 24.5	84	2.1	[32]
Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum)	Lycopene	SFE	CO ₂	86 / 50	15 + 270	4	[33]
Black tea, celery, and ginseng leaf	Flavonoids	SWE	Water	170–200 / 10	15		[34]
Chia (Salvia hispanica L.)	Omega-3 oil	UAE + PLE	Ethyl acetate	90 / -	10		[35]
Fruits	Polyphenols	SWE	Water	100 / 1-1.5	40–45		[36]
Ginger (Zingiber officinale)	Sugars, diols, phenolic compounds, terpenoids, and other compounds.	SWE	Water	150 / 5	60		[37]
Green tea leaves (Camellia sinensis)	Catechins	PLE + SAF	Ethyl lactate	100 / 10	20		[38]
Rosemary (Rosmarinus officinalis)	Carnosic acid, carnosol and rosmarinic acid	PLE + SAF	Ethanol/water 80:20	150 / 10	20		[39]

Stevia rebaudiana	Antioxidants and steviol glycosides	PLE	Water	100-160 /10.34	10 ***		[21]
Vaccinium meridionale Swartz	Phenolic compounds	PLE	Ethanol/water 50:50	200 / 10.3	15		[40]
Biorefinery approaches							
		SFE	CO_2	40-50 / 50	210	2–3	
Combana	Forantial all and antiquidant fractions		Acetone				
Cymbopogon nardus	Essential oil and antioxidant fractions	PLE	Ethanol	40 / 10	5 ***		[41]
			Water				
			Hexane				
Neem (Azadirachta indica A. Juss)	Terpenes and phenolic compounds	nes and phenolic compounds PLE Ethyl acetate 25/10 60 Ethanol/water 80:20	60	0.001	[42]		
			Ethanol/water 80:20	<u> </u>			
	Lipids (tocopherol)	SFE	CO_2	45/47.5	10 + 120	2-3	[43]
Phyllanthus phillyreifolius	A .: :1 .	DLE	Acetone	70 / 10	70 / 10 5 ***		
	Antioxidants	PLE	Ethanol/water 70:30	— 70 / 10			
		SFE	CO_2	70 / 45	70 / 45 30 + 180 5 70 / 10.3 5 15	2	[44]
Ti	Dhamalia anno ann da an dan disari dan da		Acetone	70 / 10 2			
Thymus munbyanus	Phenolic compounds and antioxidants	PLE	Ethanol	— /0 / 10.3			
			Water	120 / 10.3			
	Oleic and linoleic acids and tocopherols	SFE	CO_2	50 / 57	131	2.5	
Vil I Cmita			Acetone	70 / 10 2			[45]
Viburnum opulus L. fruits		PLE	Ethanol	— 70 / 10.3	5 ***		—— [45]
	Phenolic compounds		Water	120 / 10.3	_		

1258 CO₂ flow rate: # means g min⁻¹; extraction time: n. of * means no. cycles; extraction time: static + dynamic. EAE: enzyme-assisted extraction; PLE: pressurized liquid extraction; SAF:

supercritical antisolvent fractionation; SFE: supercritical fluid extraction; SubFE: subcritical fluid extraction; SWE: subcritical water extraction; UAE: ultrasound-assisted extraction.

Table 2. Some representative applications involving the use of sub- and supercritical fluid extractions for bioactive compounds from by-products published during the period 2015–19

Matrix	Compounds of interest	Extraction method	Extraction solvent	T (°C) / P (MPa)	Extraction time (min)	Flow CO ₂ rate (mL min ⁻¹)	Ref.
Hemp residue	Cannabinoids Flavonoids Flavonoids Mono and disaccharides	SFE PLE PLE EAE	CO ₂ Acetone Ethanol/water (80:20)	70 / 46.5 100 / 10.3 100 / 10.3	10 + 120 15*** 15***	2000-3000	[53]
Pressed palm fibers	Carotenoids	PLE	Ethanol	35 / 4	17	2.4 #	[54]
Juçara residues	Anthocyanins Non-anthocyanic phenolic compounds	SWE PLE	Acidified water Acidified ethanol/water (50:50)	40 / 10 80 / 10	-	1.5 1.5	_ [55]
Juçara residues	Anthocyanins	SFE	CO ₂ + 10% acidified ethanol/water (50:50)	60 / 20	7 + 39 12.48 #		_ [33]
Sugar beet pulp	Pectin	UAE + SWE	Water	120.72 / 10.70	30.49		[56]
Onion peels	Quercetin	PLE + SAS	Ethanol	40 / 12	20		[57]
Goldenberry calyces	Withanolides	PLE	Ethanol/ethyl acetate (75:25)	125 / 10	20		[58]
Mandarin peel	Flavonoids	SWE	Water	130 / 3	15	1000	[59]
Orange pomace	Phenolic compounds	FAE + SFE	$CO_2 + 6\%$ ethanol/water (90:10)	60 / 25	20+75	16.02 #	[60]
Citrus peels and seeds	Catotenoid and antioxidant compounds	SFE	CO ₂ + seeds' oil	41-45 / 25-30	120	27 #	[61]
Domesonousta masla	Phenolic compounds	EAE-HPE	Water	-/300	15		[62]
Pomegranate peels	Polyphenols	UAPLE	Water	70 / 10	10*		[63]
Apple seed	Lipids	UHSFE	CO_2	63 / 130	300	6-10	[64]
Fresh apple pomace	Polyphenols	SFE	CO ₂ + 5% ethanol	45 / 30	120	33	[65]
Mango peel	Nonpolar flavonoids and carotenoids Polyphenols	SFE PLE	CO ₂ Ethanol	40 / 30 40 / 30	450 330	1100 1100	[66]
Passion fruit seeds	Antioxidants	SFE + SAS	CO ₂	40 / 15	150	8.33 #	[67]
Passion fruit seeds	Tocols FAs Carotenoids Phenols (piceatamol and scirpusin B)	SFE SFE SFE PLE	CO ₂ CO ₂ CO ₂ Ethanol/water (50:50)	60 / 17 50 / 17 60 / 26 70 / 10	- - - 120	20.64 # 20.64 # 20.64 # 30 #	[68,69]

C	Monomeric anthocyanins Other phenolic compounds	PLE PLE	Acidified ethanol/water (50:50) Ethanol/water (50:50)	40 / 10 100 / 10	40 180	5 #	[70]
Grape marc	Lipids Polyphenols (proanthocyanidins)	SFE UAE + SFE	CO_2 $CO_2 + 10\%$ ethanol	45 / 28 40 / 8	180 300	167 # 100 #	[71]
Grape pomace	Polyphenols	PLE-RP	Water/ethanol (85:15)	90 / 10.3	-		[72]
Grape stem Grape seeds	Phenolic and anti-inflammatory compounds	PLE PLE	Ethanol/water (70:30) Ethanol/water (75:25)	120 / - 20 / -	10 11		[73]
Blackberry, blueberry and grumixama residues	Polyphenols (anthocyanins)	UAE + PLE	Ethanol/water (70:30)	80 / 10	30		[74]
Raspberry pomace	Lipids Polyphenols	SFE PLE	CO ₂ Ethanol/water (50:50)	60 / 45 80 / 10.3	10 + 110 5***	2000	[75]
Cranberry pomace	Lipids Phenolic compounds	SFE SFE	CO ₂ CO ₂ /ethanol/water		90 90	1000	[76]
Olive mill waste	Squalene, mono and polyunsaturated FAs Polyphenols, squalene, mono and polyunsaturated FAs	SFE SFE	CO_2 $CO_2 + 0.25\%$ ethanol	70 / 25 70 / 25	420 480	1.33 # 1.33 #	[77]
Olive pomace	Oil Proteins Lignin and fermentable sugars Lignin and fermentable sugars	SFE SWE SWH SWH + EAE	CO ₂ Water Water Water	68 / 28 88 / 22 200 / 22 50 /22	60 30 30 4080	20 # 2.26 2	[78]
Pistachio hulls	Phenolic compounds (gallantannins and flavonols)	SWE	Water	110-190 / 6.9	30	4	[79]
Cocoa bean hulls	FAs and phenolic compounds Phenolic compounds and alcaloids	SFE PLE	CO ₂ Ethanol	40 /20 70 / 10	120 20	11 #	[80]
Spent coffee ground	Phenols, flavonids, reducing sugars and proteins	UAS/MAE + SWH	Water + CO ₂ or N ₂	180-240 / 20-60	10		[81]
Spent corree ground	Polyphenols	PLE-RP	Water/ethanol (84:16)	90 / 10.3	-		[82]

CO₂ flow rate: # means g min⁻¹; extraction time: n. of * means no. cycles; extraction time: static + dynamic. EAE: enzyme-assisted extraction; FAs: Fatty acids; FAE: fermented assited extraction; GXL: gas expanded liquids; HPE: high pressure extraction; MAE: Microwave-assisted extraction; PLE: pressurized liquid extraction; RP: resin purification; SAF: supercritical antisolvent fractionation; SAS: supercritical antisolvent; SFE: supercritical fluid extraction; SubFE: subcritical fluid extraction; SWE: subcritical water hydrolysis; UAE: ultrasound-assisted extraction; UAPLE: ultrasound and pressurized liquid extraction; UHSFE: ultra-high pressure supercritical fluid extraction.

Table 3.Some representative applications involving the use of sub- and supercritical fluid extractions for bioactive compounds from seaweeds and microalgae (period 2015–19).

Matrix	Compounds of interest	Extraction method	Extraction solvent	T (°C) / P (MPa)	Extraction time min)	Flow CO ₂ rate (mL min ⁻¹)	Ref.
Chlorella sp., and Scenedesmus sp.	Carotenoids, chlorophyll A, ergosterol	SFE	CO ₂ (+ ethanol)	40-60 / 15-30	-	0.5 - 4 #	[111]
Dunaliella salina	Carotenoids	SFE	CO ₂ (+5 % ethanol)	45 / 20	180	-	[112]
Dunaliella salina	Carotenoids	SFE	CO_2	60 / 20-40	-	6.7 - 8.3 #	[113]
Haematococcus pluvialis	Carotenoids (astaxanthin)	SFE	CO ₂ (+20 % ethanol)	55 / 8	0.5	-	[114]
Lessonia vadosa ^{BM}	Fucosterol	SFE	CO ₂ (+1.5 % ethanol)	50 / 18	100	100 #	[115]
Neochloris oleoabundans	Carotenoids	SFE	CO ₂ (+10 % ethanol)	40 / 40	120	0.6 #	[116]
Sargassum muticum ^{BM}	Fucoxanthin	SFE	CO ₂	45 / 10	60	25 #	[117]
Scenedesmus sp.	Lipids	SFE	CO ₂	35 / 40	360		[118]
Schizochytrium sp.	Lipids	GXL	CO ₂ (+14 % ethanol)	40 /6.9	120	6	[119]
Chlorella vulgaris	Carotenoids	PLE	Ethanol/MTHF (50:50)	110 / 10.3	30		[120]
Cystoseira abies-marina ^{BM}	Phlorotannins	PLE	Ethanol	100 / 10	20		[121]
Fucus vesiculosus ^{BM}	Phlorotannins, chlorophylls, carotenoids and lipids	PLE	Methanol + DCM	40 / 10	5+5		[122]
Fucus vesiculosus ^{BM}	Long chain Fas	PLE	Ethyl acetate	120 / 10	10		[123]
Kappaphycus alvarezii ^{RM}	_K -Carrageenan	SWE (IL)	Water + 1% C ₄ C ₁ im	150 / 5	30-40		[124]
Nannochloropsis salina	Lipids	SWE	Ethanol/water (75:25)	90	120		[125]
Neochloris oleoabundans	Carotenoids	PLE	Ethanol	100 / 10.34	20		[126]
Saccharina japonica ^{BM}	Polysaccharides (alginate and fucoidan)	SWE (DES)	Water/(ChCl: G, 1:2 mol/mol) (70:30)	150 / 2	-		[127]
Saccharina japonica ^{BM}	Phenolic compounds	SWE (IL)	Water $+ 0.25M$ [C ₄ C ₁ im][BF ₄]	175 / 5	5		[128]
Sargassum muticum ^{BM}	Phlorotannins	PLE	Ethanol/water (95:5)	160 / 10	20		[129]

Biorefinery approaches

Ha amata a a a a a a a luni alia	TG	SFE	CO_2	45 / 11.7	20+240	2700 ± 300	[120]
Haematococcus pluvialis	Carotenoids (astaxanthin)	SFE	CO_2	45 / 48.2	20+240	2700 ± 300	— [130 <u>]</u>
	Carotenoids and non-polar lipids	SFE	CO_2	50 / 30	60	5000	
Isochrysis galbana	Carotenoids, chlorophylls and mid/polar lipids	GXL	CO ₂ (+45 % ethanol)	50 / 7	60	5000	[131]
	Carbohydrates and proteins	PLE	Ethanol and water	80 / 10	30	-	
Nava o hlovoraja po ditava	Non-polar lipids and pigments	SFE	CO_2	55 / 40	270	10000	[122]
Nannochloropsis gaditana	Carotenoids, chlorophylls and polar lipids	PLE	Ethanol	170 / 10	20	-	— [132]
Porphyra umbilicalis ^{RM} , Ulva lactuca ^{GM} and Saccharina	Phlorotannins and carbohydrates	PLE	Acetone/water (70:30)	0 / 7	7		[133]
latissima ^{BM}	Proteins	PLE	Methanol/water (50:50)	37 / 10	5**		
	Lipids	SFE	CO ₂	50/36	120	7000	
Scenedesmus obliquus	Carotenoids	GXL	CO ₂ (+75 % ethanol)	50/7	150	7000	[134]
	Carbohydrates and proteins	PLE	Water	50/10	45	-	

CO₂ flow rate: # means g min⁻¹; extraction time: n. of * means no. cycles; extraction time: static + dynamic. DES: deep eutectic solvents; IL: ionic liquids; FAs: fatty acids; FAMEs: fatty acids methyl esters; PUFAs: polyunsaturated fatty acids; TG: triacylglicerides. BF4: tetrafluoroborate; C4C1im: 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium; ChCl: Choline chloride; DCM: Dichloromethane; G: glycerol; MTHF: 2-methyltetrahydrofuran. Brown macroalgae (RM); red macroalgae (RM); green macroalgae (GM). GXL: gas expanded liquids; HPE: high pressure extraction; PLE: pressurized liquid extraction; SFE: supercritical fluid extraction; SWE: subcritical water extraction.



TrAC-Trends in Analytical Chemistry

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Special Issue: "Green Extraction Techniques"

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Madrid, May, 14th, 2018

Dear Dr. Herrero,

As you definitely know, *TrAC-Trends in Analytical Chemistry* is an indexed journal with an impact factor of 8.442 (2016-JCR Science Edition) that covers relevant developments in analytical methodology, instrumentation, computation and interpretation as well as their application in many different fields of research.

After the success of the previous special issue on "Green extraction techniques" Edited by Elena Ibañez and Alejandro Cifuentes in September 2015 (Volume 71), and with the aim of providing the scientific community with up-to-date information on technologically and methodologically innovative strategies, together with the current trends and applications of advanced analytical techniques and methods in Green Extraction Techniques, we are preparing a TrAC Special Issue devoted to this topic. This special issue on "Green Extraction Techniques" will include top of the line **review papers** from experts in the field. Therefore, it is our pleasure to invite you to contribute with your recognized experience to this TrAC Special Issue with a review paper tentatively titled:

Plants, food-by-products, algae and microalgae as natural source of functional ingredients obtained using sub- and supercritical fluid extraction

Please feel free to contact Prof. Ibañez (<u>elena.ibanez@csic.es</u>) if you have any questions about the special issue or on your contribution.

The whole submission and editorial process are entirely managed via the journal's online system EVISE. Please see below submission instructions:

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- First-time user will need to register first;
- Please select special issue short title "VSI: Green extraction techniq" during submission process;
- Please follow step-by-step guide in completing the submission procedures
- Submission deadline: 1st February 2019

You are kindly requested to send, by e-mail to, an answer (positive or negative) on this invitation providing a tentative title of your contribution ideally together with a brief scope and section headings within three weeks.

Thank you in advance for your interest and your cooperation. Looking forward to hearing from you soon. Sincerely,

Elena Ibáñez and Alejandro Cifuentes