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Abstract

The growing general consciousness in relation to gluten intolerance has driven the food industry to find alternatives to provide adequate products to the consumers with disorders related to gluten intake. The present chapter deals with the descriptions, characterisation and main applications of eco-friendly and edible films, coatings and toppings used in the production of bakery products. Particular requirements that must be fulfilled to be applied to gluten free bakery foods are remarked. A description and guidelines of the different components, preparation and application techniques, as well as, the methodology to determine films and coating properties, are summarised. In addition, the main applications of edible matrices to improve the global quality and extend the shelf-life of bakery products are listed. It was also highlighted the overall importance of edible matrices to constitute systems that allow to protect, retain or control the release of different functional additives. Special attention was paid to the potential of edible films and coating as vehicles to incorporate probiotics, bioactive compounds and/or nutrients into the formulation of gluten free baked products. Hence, this chapter pretends to highlight the relevance of edible coverings as a useful and feasible strategy for providing celiac consumers with safe, attractive and nutritious foods products.

Keywords (separated
by “ - ”)

Edible coverings components - Toppings constitution - Physical characterisation
- Functional bakery products - Active films and coatings

Chapter 7

Gluten Free Edible Films, Coatings and Toppings

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Abbreviations

AFM	Atomic force microscopy	8
ASTM	American society for testing materials	9
T _g	Glass transition temperature	10
GF	Gluten free	11
HPMC	Hidroxypropyl methylcellulose	12
LDPE	Low density polyethylene	13
MC	Methylcellulose	14
OPP	Oriented polypropylene	15
SEM	Scanning electron microscopy	16

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17	a_w	Water activity
18	WVP	Water vapour permeability

19 7.1 Introduction

20 The gluten intolerances have determined diet changes based on the elimination of
21 ingredients that contain prolamins and glutenin from wheat, rye and barley being
22 replaced, in part, for alternative grains and tubers that do not induce the disease, for
23 instance, rice, corn, sorghum, and millet (Lebwohl and Green 2021). This has led to
24 an important challenge for the food industry due to the need of developing formula-
25 tion strategies, generally known as “gluten free” (GF) ones, that include the use of
26 suitable additives linked to this dietary modification, while helping to produce
27 safety and organoleptically adequate food products (Zoumpopoulou and Tsakalidou
28 2019). According to the Food and Drug Administration (U.S.A.), the GF food is
29 defined as the food that does not contain gluten, or its presence should be lower than
30 20 ppm (McCabe 2010).

31 Bread and sweet baked goods (cakes, biscuits, doughnuts, etc.) are an essential
32 constituent of the human daily diet, representing the most important basic food
33 worldwide (Nils-Gerrit Wunsch 2020; Xu et al. 2020). There is a wide assortment
34 of such products and, a possible classification is the one proposed by Smith et al.
35 (2004) who grouped them as follow: unsweetened (bread, rolls, buns, crumpets,
36 muffins, and bagels), sweet (pancakes, doughnuts, waffles, and cookies) and filled
37 (fruit and meat pies, sausage rolls, pastries, sandwiches, cream cakes, pizza, and
38 quiche) goods. In their formulation, these products include complex carbohydrates
39 (mainly wheat flour), proteins, lipids, vitamins, and minerals (Soukoulis
40 et al. 2014).

41 Another classification proposed is based on the water activity (a_w), one of the
42 most important product properties affecting the physical and microbial deterioration
43 of bakery products. Smith and Simpson (1995) classified bakery products as follow:
44 (a) low moisture bakery products (cookies and crackers, $a_w < 0.6$) in which micro-
45 biological spoilage is not a problem, (b) intermediate moisture products (chocolate
46 coated, doughnuts, Danish pastries, cream-filled cake, soft cookies, $a_w 0.6-0.85$)
47 where osmophilic yeasts and moulds are the predominant spoilage microorganisms,
48 and (c) high moisture products (bread, pita bread, fruit pies, carrot cake, cheese-
49 cake, pizza crust, pizza, $a_w > 0.85$ and generally 0.94–0.99), where almost all bacte-
50 ria, yeasts, and moulds are capable of growth (Smith et al. 2004).

51 When no preservative additives are added, bread and bakery products are charac-
52 terised by their limited shelf-life reaching a maximum of 3–5 days at room tempera-
53 ture. After this time, physical, chemical and microbiological changes are produced,
54 resulting in the loss of freshness, texture, taste and microbial spoilage (growth of
55 bacteria, yeast and mould) causing consumer’s rejection (Melini and Melini 2018).
56 Those alterations can cause not only economic losses, but also threaten human
57 health. Therefore, to extend bread and bakery products shelf-life and to assure their

quality and safety properties, preservation techniques such as the use of preservatives or adequate packaging materials and the application of innovative processing technologies are proposed (Mitelut et al. 2021; Qian et al. 2021).

Over time, one of the most conventional technique applied to extended freshness quality was the use of chemical additives as was previously detailed in Chap. 4. The bakery industry is looking for novel alternatives including the use of antioxidant and antimicrobial compounds obtained from natural sources, new packaging technologies, application of functional coatings, etc. (Klinmalai et al. 2021; Silva et al. 2021; Nallan Chakravartula et al. 2019a).

Traditionally, to select a suitable packaging material for bakery products, the most important properties usually sought are gases and water vapour barrier, UV barrier, thermal stability, mechanical resistance (Roy and Rhim 2020). The most used packaging materials to preserve bread are different types of paper, such as waxed paper or the glazed imitation parchment which is strong and has grease resistance. It is usually impregnated on both sides with paraffin wax containing low density polyethylene (LDPE) and other additives (Martins et al. 2021). One alternative is LDPE bags with a strip of adhesive tape at the end to be twisted and sealed. Cakes and pastry products, which are more susceptible to crushing damage, are usually packed in grease-resistant paperboard bags with transparent cellophane windows and wrap, such as cling film, plastic nests or aluminium foil base plates and double plastic film layers. For long shelf-life products (biscuits and other), cellulose films coated with LDPE are generally used (De Pilli 2020; Galić et al. 2009) or other multi-layered films such as aluminium-coated LDPE, oriented polypropylene (OPP) or acrylic-coated OPP films which represent more effective barriers to oxygen and water vapour. In the case of fresh baked stuff immediately consumed, it is commonly packaged in bags made of polyolefin film, such as LDPE or polypropylene bags, normally micro-perforated to allow moisture to escape and avoid leathery consistency of the crust (Pasqualone 2019).

Regarding packaging methods, the application of new technologies such as vacuum packaging, nitrogen flushing, modified atmosphere, functional or active packaging (with antimicrobial activity) reduce the growth of spoilage microorganisms, extending bakery products shelf-life (Qian et al. 2021).

It is important to highlight that the plastic derived from fossil hydrocarbons comprise 46% of global plastic waste generation, producing a huge impact to the environment, which often end up in landfill sites or oceans, causing a significant pollution due to the poor infrastructure, the lack of recycling options and to the long periods of time required for their degradation (Tiseo 2021; Geyer et al. 2017). Thus, there is a wide interest in the development of new materials for substituting plastic packaging by using renewable resources to reduce polluting residues.

In this framework, biodegradable packaging has emerged as an innovative and promising solution since they decompose after fulfilling their purpose (Chiralt et al. 2020; Tapia-Blácido et al. 2020). New biodegradable materials can be classified in chemically synthesised polymers made from natural or petroleum-based molecules (polylactic acid, polycaprolactone, polyvinyl alcohol, polyglycolic acid, polybutylene succinate, polybutylene adipate-co-terephthalate); directly extracted from

103 biomass (biopolymers such as cellulose, starches, chitosan, alginate, gelatine, col-
104 lagen, etc.) and biosynthesized via microbial fermentation (polyhydroxyalkanoates,
105 bacterial cellulose) (Zhang et al. 2022; Kamarudin et al. 2022; Birania et al. 2022).
106 These have been used to develop new eco-friendly and active systems that could be
107 applied to protect or improve quality of GF bakery products. In the following sec-
108 tions of this chapter, a special description of biodegradable and edible matrices is
109 performed.

110 **7.2 Edible Films, Coatings and Toppings**

111 **7.2.1 Edible Films and Coatings**

112 The named edible films can be defined as standalone materials disposed as thin lay-
113 ers based on eatable components (biopolymers, food additives, etc.) and are gener-
114 ally used in the production of wraps, pouches, bags, capsules and casings. On the
115 contrary, coatings involve slurries that are directly applied (by deposition, adhesion
116 and drying) on the food surface and are considered as an integral part of the food
117 product. They are designed not to be removed from the food item. Usually, they can
118 be classified according to their formulation or the application method used, as will
119 be described in the methodology section. To obtain edible packaging the following
120 main technique stages must be performed: achieving the solubilisation of the bio-
121 polymer in a suitable solvent to obtain the slurry (for films and coatings) or mixing
122 solid materials if it is used a thermomechanical process (without solvent addition,
123 for films), solvent evaporation when corresponding and film constitution and stabi-
124 lisation. There are no differences in the material composition between coatings and
125 films but they are mainly different in relation to their thickness (Aguirre-Joya
126 et al. 2018).

127 Edible active packaging is an innovative solution due to its capability to carry
128 preservatives compounds, which reduce the microorganism's growth and assure the
129 safety and quality of foods extending their shelf-life (Jafarzadeh et al. 2020; Fang
130 et al. 2017). Certain additives can be incorporated into the edible packaging formu-
131 lation such as antimicrobials and antioxidants compounds (Qian et al. 2021;
132 Dobrucka and Cierpiszewski 2014).

133 There are different methods to incorporate those compounds (Qian et al. 2021):

- 134 (a) Direct incorporation of preservatives (thermally stable) into the packaging
135 materials produced by solvent casting or extrusion technology (co-extrusion,
136 extrusion or injection moulding);
- 137 (b) Surface coating of packaging material with a film containing antimicrobial
138 agents (essential oils derived from plants, such as cinnamon, clove, oregano,
139 thyme, and lemon) entering the headspace through evaporation or migration to
140 the food surface through diffusion (Mani-Lopez et al. 2018; Fang et al. 2017).
141 This method illustrates an additional use of films;

- (c) Sachet/pad of antimicrobial packaging (non-volatile or volatile) are designed to hold by adsorbing or embedding the antimicrobial agents to be released inside the package continuously (Ju et al. 2019; Otoni et al. 2016). This type of packaging presents some limitations such as, the risk of accidental ingestion and additional operational steps to place them in each package;
- (d) Stimuli-responsive antimicrobial packaging, in which responsive nano-carriers can encapsulate active compounds materials and release them on demand when an external stimulus (light, temperature and pressure) is applied (Qian et al. 2021).

Regarding the materials, as structural material or film matrix, biopolymers are generally used. These might be: (a) hydrocolloids that includes proteins such as collagen, gelatine, mung bean protein, corn zein, whey protein, soy protein, casein and others (Chen et al. 2019); and polysaccharides such as starch, cellulose and its derivatives, pectin, chitosan, alginate, carrageenan, pullulan and gellan gum (Kouhi et al. 2020); (b) lipid-based materials (bee wax, paraffin wax, carnauba wax, polyethylene wax, candelilla wax, rice bran wax, ouricury wax and jojoba oil); and (c) blend of hydrocolloids and lipids (Jeya Jeevahan et al. 2020; Zhong et al. 2019).

Moreover, they have to be aligned with the consciousness growth on celiac disease and gluten intolerance, which represents one-third of the global food intolerance market, added to consumer's choice to follow a GF diet that has had an important impact in the growth of GF products in the last 10 years (Juhász et al. 2020). In this context, the use of ingredients that provide safety characteristics and additionally have favourable nutritional and mechanical profiles to be used as edible packaging materials has become a focus of interest (Vilpoux et al. 2019).

Other hydrocolloids are the most crucial ingredients in edible packaging for GF baking products such as hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) and carboxymethylcellulose (CMC), present good barrier properties against oxygen and lipids in film formulation (Roman et al. 2018; Anton and Artfield 2008). Likewise, β -glucan, pectin, carrageenan, xanthan gum, guar gum, locust bean gum, tara gum or agarose are applied in commercially available GF products (Vidaurre Ruiz et al. 2019). CMC, chitosan, ϵ -poly-L-lysine are natural polymers that present desirable film-forming properties and also antimicrobial activity (Fang et al. 2017).

Regarding starch sources, wheat, rye, and barley are common cereals containing gluten. Besides, contamination of oats with wheat, rye or barley can occur during grain harvesting, transport, storage and processing (Xu et al. 2020). Previous research has been extensively focused on GF edible packaging made from various natural GF starches such as potato, sweet potato, cassava, rice, sorghum. Figure 7.1 summarises main materials used to formulate GF edible films and coatings.

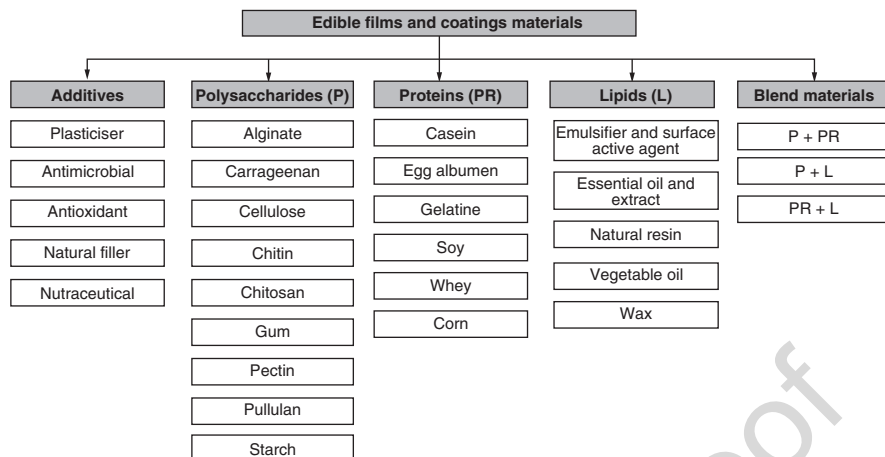


Fig. 7.1 Main materials used to formulate GF edible films and coatings

180 7.2.2 Toppings

181 To achieve a more attractive appearance and therefore a greater degree of accep-
 182 tance by consumers, toppings are incorporated into bakery products. They create a
 183 decorative quality and provide additional flavour with the addition of small particles
 184 (chunky, crisp or chewy bits) contributing different textures, flavours and colours,
 185 widening the range of products considerably. Toppings are applied mainly for aes-
 186 thetic and decorative reasons, however, in some cases they positively contribute by
 187 providing also desired technological effects, such as to promote the regulation of
 188 water activity at the surface of the product or reduce the risk of microbial growth.
 189 Additionally, the access of oxygen can be minimised, preventing the exposure to
 190 light and protecting the product mechanically. By combining these positive effects,
 191 it is possible to extend the shelf-life of bakery products (Tiefenbacher 2017).

192 Frequently, toppings consist of dry ingredients, such as seeds, grains, chopped
 193 nuts, cereal crisps, fruit pieces (candied or dried), chocolate chips or sprinkles,
 194 cocoa (nibs roasted and powder), cookie crumbles, puffed marshmallow, jelly bits,
 195 flavoured bits, cheese, herbs, seasonings (spices), toffee (milk caramel) or fudge
 196 bits, sugar (powder or crystals), or salt that are sprinkled superficially on the dough
 197 or in the final product. When those ingredients in small discrete pieces are added
 198 into filling creams, chocolate enrobing or bakery products are called inclusions
 199 (Tiefenbacher 2017).

200 Moreover, wet toppings or wet ingredients can be applied on bakery products by
 201 frosting (thick and opaque mixture) covering the surface and sometimes filling the
 202 inside of cakes. Some examples are icing, mixture of confectioners powdered sugar
 203 and liquid, thin enough to be brushed on with a pastry brush or spread on pastries,
 204 rolls, and simple cakes; glaze or enrobing. Other examples are a mixture of sugar
 205 and liquid thin enough to be poured – about the consistency of thin corn syrup to
 206 coat fruit cakes, cupcakes and pieces of cake; and fillings like a thick mixture which

is used between the layers of cake. It may be some of the frosting to which nuts, marshmallows or fruits are added. Whipped cream and custard mixtures are sometimes used for fillings (Tiefenbacher 2017) and natural or untreated cocoa is often used in frostings, icings, and fudge (Ortiz 2016).

In bakery products like muffins, toppings can be as simple as a cinnamon/sugar blend or as complex as a nut streusel. Some toppings are also materials meant to 'sink in' to the muffin creating a 'filling' such as the addition of a sweet cream cheese mixture, creating changes in texture and flavour as the consumer eats the product. In bagels, toppings (seeds, finely chopped onion, or salt) are often coated on the top after boiling and before baking (Ortiz 2016). Table 7.1 shows different sources of ingredients used for bakery toppings.

Table 7.1 Raw and partially processed gluten and GF sources used for bakery toppings

Source	GF food matrix	May contain gluten trace	Gluten									
Grains and alternatives	Amaranth, buckwheat, chestnut, corn (maize), millet, cornmeal, quinoa, rice, sago, sorghum, soya, tapioca, teff, uncontaminated oats		Barley, bulgur									
			wheat, couscous,									
			dinkel wheat, durum									
			wheat, einkorn									
			wheat, emmer									
			wheat, Kamut, rye,									
			semolina, spelt,									
			triticale, barley, oats									
			Milk products, cheese and eggs	Cheese, eggs, and milk (liquid and dried) cream (single, double, whipping, clotted, soured), buttermilk, plain yoghurt	Some soft and spreadable cheeses, coffee and tea whiteners, fruit and flavoured yoghurts, and soya desserts	Yoghurt, or muesli with whole grains						
						Fruit, vegetables, nuts, seeds, and pulses	Fresh, frozen, canned, dried, baked, and boiled fruit and vegetables. Plain nuts, seeds, and pulses	Fruit pie fillings, processed vegetable products, deep-fried, microwave, and frozen chips, instant mash, potato waffles, roast potatoes. Roasted nuts and pulses in flavoured sauces (baked beans)	Fruit in batter and bread crumbs			
Home baking	Arrowroot, artificial sweeteners, corn starch, cream of tartar, food colouring, gelatine, icing sugar, potato starch, ground almonds	Baking powder, cake decoration, marzipan, ready-to-use icing							Batter mixes, bread crumbs, stuffing mix			
									Confectionary, desserts, and savoury snacks	GF jelly, licorice root, seaside rock, homemade popcorn, plain rice cakes, and crackers	Chocolate, ice cream mousses, sweets, tapioca pudding. Flavoured popcorn, potato and vegetable crisps, flavoured rice cakes, and rice crackers	Made from wheat, rye, and barley, pretzels, wafers, licorice sweets, pudding made using semolina or wheat flour

Adapted from Jones et al. (2016)

218 **7.3 Preparation and Characterization of Edible Films,** 219 **Coatings and Toppings**

220 Several technologies can be used to produce and study edible films, coatings and
221 toppings. Differences arise basically from food type and form of application on the
222 final product, the materials composition and properties requirements. For instance,
223 edible coatings are usually directly applied on the food product surface, while edi-
224 ble film is separately produced and later used as packaging material. Various bio-
225 polymers such as polysaccharides, proteins, lipids and their composites are used in
226 films and coatings formulations, most of which are GF, thus a wide spectrum of
227 properties and processing conditions are possible and need to be studied and opti-
228 mised regarding the final product requirements. Besides, aiming to further extend
229 the food shelf-life span, many active films and coatings have been developed, most
230 of which contain essential oils (EOs) and other antioxidant or flavonoids rich com-
231 pounds. These are usually volatile or thermosensitive compounds which limit the
232 film or coating preparation and application technologies.

233 **7.3.1 Processing Technologies**

234 Edible films can be manufactured by two techniques: a *wet route* based on a bio-
235 polymer solution (usually water based) with further solvent evaporation, known as
236 *casting*; and a *dry route* in which polymers are processed in low moisture conditions
237 with the presence of plasticisers and other additives (e.g., compression moulding or
238 extrusion). The first is a batch process with some limitations, such as restricted
239 product size and yield, long production times, high energy demand (for solvent
240 evaporation) and large volumes of solvent (since solids do not exceed 10–12% of
241 the suspension total mass). Therefore, it is mainly used at a laboratory scale, still
242 extensively studied for surface coating characterisations. Besides, semi-continuous
243 *tape-casting* and *spread-coating* techniques can also be used for large-scale manu-
244 facture of biodegradable and edible films (Oliveira de Moraes et al. 2013). In both
245 techniques the film forming solution (or suspension) is spread over the laminated
246 material to be coated (paper for example) or directly on a non-adherent carrier-tape.
247 The film thickness is adjusted with micrometric screws that regulate the gap left by
248 the spreading blade and depends strongly on the solution's rheological behaviour
249 (Ortega et al. 2021). The suspension is later dried by heat conduction, circulation of
250 hot air (heat convection) or infrared heating, resulting in a bi-layer material (spread-
251 coating) or film that can be easily removed from the tape-carrier surface. Later on,
252 and depending on the film characteristics, it can be rolled, cut, drilled, stamped or
253 laminated. Various GF edible films obtained by casting have been studied as biode-
254 gradable or edible packaging for foods based on starches (Bertuzzi et al. 2007;
255 Flores et al. 2007; Müller et al. 2008; Oliveira de Moraes et al. 2013; Pérez-Vergara
256 et al. 2020; Mantovan et al. 2018; López and García 2012; Versino et al. 2016),
257 pectins (Troung and Kobayashi 2020; Nallan Chakravartula et al. 2019b; Fishman

et al. 2000; Sucheta et al. 2019; Gouveia et al. 2019), gelatine (Fakhouri et al. 2015; Musso et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2021), chitosan and other marine derived hydrocolloids (Senturk Parreidt et al. 2018a, b; López et al. 2015; Pranoto et al. 2005; Tan et al. 2020; Fu et al. 2021; Morales-Jiménez et al. 2020), soy, whey and pea proteins (Seung and Rhee 2004; Denavi et al. 2009; Nallan Chakravartula et al. 2019b; Seydim et al. 2020; Huntrakul et al. 2020; Sun et al. 2013), among others. Drying conditions are strongly dependent on the biopolymer and solvent used, temperature typically ranges from room temperature to 60 °C with drying times of 5 to over 48 h. In casting method films thickness can be adjusted by controlling the ratio of film suspension weight to plate area. Drying conditions (rate and temperature) determine film characteristics (e.g., water content, crystallinity, etc.), affecting its microstructure and properties (Bader and Göritz 1994)

Larger scale production technologies are needed to produce cost-effective, bio-based edible materials as food packaging. Thus, existing technology for synthetic materials are also used as continuous technologies like extrusion followed by blown, injection or thermo-compression (Mohammadi Nafchi et al. 2013; Flores et al. 2010; Garrido et al. 2016; Huntrakul et al. 2020; Fakhouri et al. 2013). Melt processing requires high temperatures and shear to disrupt the biopolymers' original structure, plasticising it. However, additives, such as plasticisers and antioxidants, are needed to thermally plasticise the polymer mix avoiding its degradation (Ortega et al. 2021).

Thermoplastic starch (TPS) based films are obtained by melt-mixing, though it is highly sensitive to moisture and present stickiness during processing (López et al. 2013b). Therefore, blending the starch with other polymers improves film formability, and mechanical, barrier and thermal properties as has been extensively reported in literature (Dang and Yoksan 2015; Pelissari et al. 2012; Fakhouri et al. 2013; Huntrakul et al. 2020; Ochoa-Yepes et al. 2019; Jebalia et al. 2019; Ferreira et al. 2021; Fishman et al. 2000; Flores et al. 2010). Extrusion can be single, twin or multiple screwed co-rotating or counter rotating (i.e., screws rotate in the same or opposite directions respect to the feed and product flow) or a mixture of both in the case of a multiple screw extruder. Temperature profiles through the extruder are important parameters for polymer processing that facilitate commercial processability and condition the materials properties.

The selected film processing technology influences the film formation mechanism and therefore the resulting physical properties of the material. Casting creates films stabilised largely by non-covalent interactions (hydrogen bonds, hydrophobic and electrostatic interactions) while extrusion and compression moulding may induce covalent interactions among the matrix compounds. Some investigation comparing these technologies indicate that extruded materials result in greater toughness and stiffness while casting films are more flexible, especially when cross linkage was evidenced in thermoformed or extruded materials (Ciannamea et al. 2014; Versino et al. 2016; Ochoa-Yepes et al. 2019).

Active packaging technologies offer new or extra functions such as gases scavengers (O₂, CO₂, and ethylene), moisture regulation, flavours emission control and preservation, microorganism growth prevention, among others, that are aimed to extend the shelf-life of foods maintaining their nutritional quality and safety

304 (Kechichian et al. 2010; Jamróz and Pavel 2020; Remya et al. 2017). Active films
305 are usually prepared with the same methods previously described, though alterna-
306 tives for protection and migration control are usually needed when EOs are used.
307 Encapsulation and electrospinning have been reported as successful methods to pre-
308 serve and modulate the EOs antimicrobial or antioxidant properties (Scaffaro et al.
309 2020; Varghese et al. 2020; Sharifi and Pirsá 2021; Atarés and Chiralt 2016).
310 Moreover, Oriani et al. (2014) stated that a maximum of 0.1% of EOs into an edible
311 coating minimises their sensory impact; encapsulation can also be used in this regard.

312 Edible coating can be applied on a food product by four different techniques:
313 *dipping*, *spraying*, *fluidized-bed*, and *panning* (Senturk Parreidt et al. 2018a, b;
314 Suhag et al. 2020). Its efficiency is strongly dependent on the selected application
315 procedure, regarding the nature of food that should be coated, such as shape and
316 size, their surface characteristics and the desired coating thickness and the coating
317 material properties such as surface tension, density, and viscosity (Andrade et al.
318 2012). Dipping is the most widely used method to apply edible coatings on fresh
319 products, particularly in ready to eat fruits and vegetables. In general, they are sub-
320 merged for 5–30 s in the formulation of edible coatings which commonly can
321 include antimicrobials and/or antioxidant to extend product's shelf-life (Suhag et al.
322 2020; Guerreiro et al. 2015; Senturk Parreidt et al. 2018a, b). It is a simple and low-
323 cost technique commonly used at laboratory scale. The process consists of three
324 steps: immersion, deposition, and evaporation of solvents (Andrade et al. 2012;
325 Costa et al. 2014). Adhesion of the coating solution relies on the interaction with the
326 food surface. For instance, smooth and uniform adhesion on hydrophobic rough
327 surfaces can be very difficult due to the low surface free energy (Senturk Parreidt
328 et al. 2018a, b). Meanwhile, when the coating affinity for the product surface is
329 high, the time required will be minimal, allowing the coating solution to be applied
330 spontaneously (Park and Seo 2011). Multilayer or layer-by-layer coating techniques
331 are often needed in fresh cut products to achieve good adhesion on the highly hydro-
332 philic surface. In this regard, Guerreiro et al. (2015) applied an edible coating to
333 raspberries by first immersion into alginate or pectin coating solution followed by
334 the immersion in a calcium chloride solution, allowing to form the typical egg-box
335 gel due to the chemical gelation of the hydrocolloid in presence of a bivalent cation
336 salt.

337 On the other hand, the spraying method is frequently used for industrial applica-
338 tions, in this technique the coating solution is distributed through the formation of
339 droplets over the targeted food surface area with the help of nozzles (Suhag et al.
340 2020). One of the advantages of the spraying technique is that it needs less amount
341 of coating material to effectively coat the surface product due to the high spraying
342 pressure used (60–80 psi) (Andrade et al. 2012). Additionally, the thickness control
343 as well as the possibility of multilayer applications are also valued characteristics.
344 Spray-flow characteristics are dependent on liquid properties (density, viscosity and
345 surface tension), operating conditions (mainly flow rate and air pressure), and sys-
346 tem conditions (nozzle design, spray angle, etc.). Three types of spraying techniques
347 have been used: (i) air spray atomization, where air is used for fine spraying of the
348 droplet on food products; it is a cost effective method used on food products (Valdés
349 et al. 2017), (ii) air assisted airless atomization, when high-viscosity and high-solids

coatings formulations are used (Peretto et al. 2017), and (iii) pressure atomization, in this technique, the edible coating is applied to food products by passing it through small size nozzles (Andrade et al. 2012).

Likewise, edible coatings can serve as adhesive for decorative toppings, which are commonly included in bakery products (typically between 12% and 22% volume percentage of the total product) to enhance their attractive sensory characteristics (Tiefenbacher 2017). In this sense, small particulate inclusions or decorative toppings of different texture, flavour and colour can be used. Examples of currently used toppings in bakery products are chopped nuts, cereal crisps, candied fruit or toffee pieces, chocolate chips, cookie crumbles, flavoured bits, sugar or chocolate sprinkles, coarse sugar or spices. These are processed by conventional food processing technologies, such as air drying, extrusion cooking, melt mixing, etc. and are usually GF if cleaning protocols are carefully managed.

Recently, 3D printing of edible inks and pastes have been studied and commercialised, especially as food toppings. This technology expands the food processing alternatives for customizable nutrient content food products (Dankar et al. 2018). Current 3D food printing techniques include paste extrusion, ink-jet printing, powder binding deposition, sheet lamination, melt extrusion of chocolate, and bio-printing (Rowat et al. 2021).

7.3.2 Characterisation

The performance of edible films and coatings in extending food products shelf-life depends on the materials light, water vapour and gas permeability and their mechanical properties to resist transport and different ambient conditions. Coating integrity is a critical factor that depends on matrix flexibility, surface tension and adhesion to the food product. Besides, rheological characteristics and surface adherence are of particular importance for edible coating formulations, due to their direct impact on surface covering and durability. Similarly, controlled or slow-release kinetics determine its performance as active material and therefore its effectiveness on the product preservation. Finally, such properties need to be preserved by the film or coating until the food that it wraps is consumed or, in the worst case, disposed of. Consequently, all properties should be evaluated through time, ideally simulating the storage conditions and average time until consumption of the packed or coated food product.

7.3.2.1 Rheological Behaviour and Surface Properties

Rheological properties of film suspension should be tailored to fit the coating process: spraying requires low viscosity while higher viscosity is needed for immersion coating. The thin film formed on food surfaces depends on the viscosity of the coating solutions and can be well controlled with a specific spray-gun application

388 (Andrade et al. 2012; Suhag et al. 2020). This technology offers consistent coating
389 with uniform thickness, and the possibility for multilayer applications (Martín-
390 Belloso et al. 2009; Ustunol 2009). The highly viscous solution cannot be sprayed
391 very easily on the food products so that only dipping methods can be adapted which
392 results in the higher thickness of the coating material on the surface of food prod-
393 ucts (Andrade et al. 2012).

394 Likewise, considering the scale-up of the coating or film production the rheo-
395 logical behaviour of filmogenic solutions or suspensions is critical and conditions
396 the processing operations involved, such as the pumping machine capacity. In gen-
397 eral, starch-based filmogenic suspensions, which are widely used in coating formu-
398 lations, exhibit a pseudoplastic behaviour while other formulations based on
399 polysaccharides such as cellulose derivatives (like methylcellulose (MC) or HPMC)
400 presented a Newtonian behaviour at low concentrations (1%).

401 On the other hand, coating formulation and mainly, its surface tension as well as
402 food product characteristics determine the adhesion to food substrate and successful
403 coating application. Products with smooth and soft surfaces (such as some vegeta-
404 bles like tomato) require formulations with low surface tensions to ensure coating
405 adherence and uniformity. For products with irregular and rough surfaces (such as
406 strawberries) the formulation must include plasticisers to prevent the appearance of
407 cracks or pores in the coating. An alternative to enhance coating adhesion is the
408 addition of surfactants and lipids to filmogenic suspensions, reducing their surface
409 tension. The more similar the surface tensions of the product surface and that of the
410 coating formulation, the greater the compatibility and the better the adhesion of the
411 coating. Coating compatibility also is related to the hydrophilic-hydrophobic char-
412 acteristic of both the surface and the formulation, which could be evaluated through
413 contact angle measurements (Ramírez et al. 2012; Rossi et al. 2019).

414 Film or coating superficial appearance depends on their formulation, since matri-
415 ces without plasticisers are brittle and rigid due to the strong interactions between
416 the polymer chains that can also lead to aggregate formation. Besides, these struc-
417 tures are incompatible with irregular product surfaces leading to cracks and pores
418 and conditioning coating integrity. The presence of these defects also limits barrier
419 and mechanical properties of films and coatings. Plasticiser addition in the formu-
420 lations can solve this problem by improving the coating flexibility (García et al. 1998;
421 López et al. 2010). Likewise, the plasticiser/polymer ratio should be optimised
422 since high plasticiser concentrations reduce barrier properties and may cause segre-
423 gation from the matrix. In starch-based formulations glycerol or sorbitol are com-
424 monly used as plasticisers in concentrations between 5 and 50 g/L, depending on
425 starch concentration (García et al. 2009; Versino et al. 2016).

426 7.3.2.2 Mechanical Properties

427 Uniaxial tensile tests are usually performed to assess the film's mechanical resis-
428 tance. From these tests, strain-stress curves are obtained and the Elastic Young
429 Modulus, maximum tensile strength and elongation at break are assessed. The

mechanical properties depend on additives-matrix interactions that can also be strongly affected by physical, chemical, and environmental conditions, which influence the material stability and flexibility. Plasticisers are often needed to enhance the materials flexibility, especially in starch-based films and coatings (Versino et al. 2016). The addition of lipids, including essential oils has also been reported to increase extensibility of biopolymers-based materials (Bof et al. 2021; García et al. 2001; Jamróz and Pavel 2020).

On the other hand, dynamic mechanical analysis is a useful tool to study relaxation processes associated with glass transition temperatures (T_g). The T_g corresponds to the temperature at which $\tan\delta$ and E'' (loss moduli) curves presented a maximum peak while E' (storage moduli) curve shows an abrupt fall. It has been widely used especially in starch-based formulations. The knowledge of the T_g is crucial since it is strongly related to mechanical film properties and also, modifications on both film formulations and storage conditioning may affect T_g and consequently the mechanical resistance and flexibility of developed films. In this sense, the inclusion of plasticisers decreases the intermolecular forces between polymer chains and consequently reduces T_g values. Thus, being water the most ubiquitous plasticiser of hydrophilic films and coatings, film water content and relative humidity of storage should be carefully controlled and monitored.

7.3.2.3 Barrier Properties

Water and gas barrier properties are key for food products preservation. Gas permeability is usually tested on films or the coating standing by its own (also as a film). Water vapour permeability (WVP) is often determined gravimetrically according to American Society for Testing Materials (ASTM) standard test method, ASTM E96/E96M or a modification of this norm, thus various relative humidity conditions have been reported (Huntrakul et al. 2020; Nallan Chakravartula et al. 2019b; Musso et al. 2017; Ochoa-Yepes et al. 2019; Fakhouri et al. 2015). The WVP indicates the ability of the film or coating to protect the food from moisture migration from or towards the product. For instance, to prevent pastry from drying which would not be desirable for texture acceptance by the costumer or to prevent an increase in moisture content and water activity, which can promote mould growth and a faster degradation of the product. Unplasticised films often yield significantly higher WVP values than plasticised ones, due to the presence of pores and cracks (Versino et al. 2016). Even though plasticisers used in edible films and coatings are generally hydrophilic, its inclusion generates structural modifications on the biopolymer network leading to a less ordered and compact structure. In general, starch-based films exhibit lower WVP values compared to both protein films and other polysaccharide-based films (García et al. 2001, 2004; Versino and García 2014; Rivero et al. 2010; Tavassoli-Kafrani et al. 2016).

Considering that hydrocolloid-based films are very sensitive to relative humidity, physicochemical characterisation generally includes water sorption isotherms determination, useful for the estimation of film stability under different ambient

472 conditions. In general, sorption isotherms are obtained, being experimental data
473 satisfactorily fitted by GAB model, estimating the monolayer water content values
474 (Mali et al. 2002; Müller et al. 2009).

475 Regarding film gas permeability most methods use the same principle: a mea-
476 surement of the gas transmission rate through an edible film located between two
477 compartments. One side of the film is exposed to the gas being studied, and a detec-
478 tor is placed in the other compartment, which is initially free of the permeated
479 compound (Sánchez-Tamayo et al. 2020). These methods were developed for syn-
480 thetic materials, described in the ASTM procedures, and adapted to edible films and
481 coatings (ASTM D3985, F1927). The manometric and the volumetric methods
482 measure the difference in absolute pressure, and the continuous-flow or isostatic
483 method uses a stream flux of the gas to be measured on one side of the film and a
484 nitrogen stream on the other side to carry the gas to the analyser. Coulometric sen-
485 sors, infrared sensors, or gas chromatography may be used for gas concentrations
486 analysis. In the case of O₂ permeability the use of specific equipment, the Mocon
487 Oxtran 2/21, is widely used due to its precision and simplicity. Although for CO₂,
488 N₂ and ethylene the determination requires the use of an especially designed cell
489 and in general chromatography measurements. It is well known that polysaccha-
490 rides films such as starch-based ones exhibit a highly selective gas permeability
491 ratio (CO₂/O₂) compared with conventional synthetic materials. The modified atmo-
492 sphere created by the coating generates a physical capture of CO₂ inside the fruit or
493 vegetable and partial sealing of the pores, reducing the gas exchange and gas trans-
494 fer rates; and this is monitored through respiration activity measurements. This
495 selective gas permeability can be attributed to a higher solubility of CO₂ than O₂ in
496 the film matrix. Development of composite edible films and coatings with selective
497 gas permeability could be promising for controlling respiratory exchange and
498 improving the conservation of food products.

499 7.3.2.4 Microstructure

500 The materials microstructure is generally studied by microscopy techniques, mainly
501 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) or atomic force microscopy (AFM). Compact
502 and homogeneous matrix of films is an indicator of structural integrity and, conse-
503 quently, good mechanical properties are expected. To evaluate this, SEM observa-
504 tions of both the surface and the cross-sections are carried out. Figure 7.2 shows the
505 microstructure of an edible coating based on HPMC applied on pumping vegeta-
506 ble tissue.

507 Topography and roughness of starch films surface can be evaluated by AFM. In
508 the case of nanocomposite films transmission electron microscopy is also conducted
509 to evaluate the nanometric size particles included in the matrices.

510 Interactions among film-formulation components as well as their compatibility
511 are commonly studied by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, being this tech-
512 nique combined with chemometric analysis. In order to evaluate the crystallinity
513 degree of edible films and coatings X-ray diffraction is commonly performed. Film
514 crystallinity depends on the biopolymer source and plasticisers, film drying

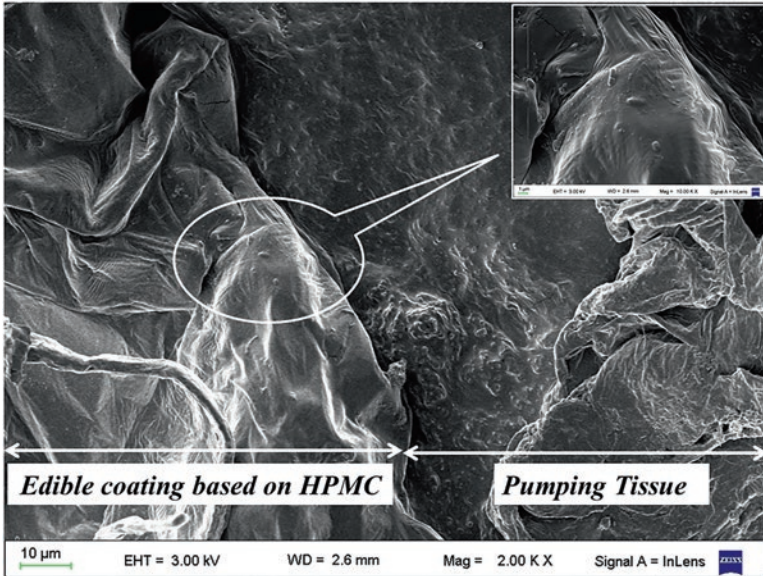


Fig. 7.2 Microstructure of an edible coating based on HPMC supporting *L. casei* cells and applied on pumping vegetable tissue

conditions and their final moisture content (García et al. 2009). Evolution of film matrix crystalline structure during storage can also be evaluated by differential scanning calorimetry, which allows to determine the T_g, being in this case the modulated technique more appropriate since it discriminates between the total heat flux, and the reversible and non-reversible contribution.

7.3.3 Characterisation After Application on Food or Simulated Food Systems

In the case of edible coatings and toppings a complete sensorial analysis is mandatory, showing that the coatings did not influence consumer acceptance, especially when taste is evaluated. In general, sensory panels are performed with both trained and untrained panellists on the basis of a hedonic scale. The selection of panellists includes men and women covering a wide age range to simulate the spectrum of potential consumers of the product being evaluated. In this sense, adhesion properties evaluation should be taken into account, especially for products destined for distant markets or long term storage, since it conditions the coatings' performance (Ncama et al. 2018).

Likewise, the microbiological tests should be conducted to assure the product safety. In this sense, the absence of microorganisms that cause foodborne illness as well as the counts of aerobic mesophilic and psychrophilic bacteria and mould and

534 yeasts are commonly evaluated following standard procedures. This is of particular
535 interest when active films and coatings are applied to extend food shelf-life. In this
536 sense, López et al. (2013a, b) developed films based on blends of native and acety-
537 lated corn starches containing glycerol as plasticiser, potassium sorbate and citric
538 acid as antimicrobial agents. The developed active starch films were able to inhibit
539 *Candida spp.*, *Penicillium spp.*, *S. aureus* and *Salmonella spp.* growth, which are
540 responsible for some foodborne diseases. These active films were effective to extend
541 cheese shelf-life from 14 to 17 days at 4 °C. Besides, sorbate controlled release
542 from the polymeric matrix was studied and diffusion coefficients in aqueous and
543 semisolid media were also determined (López et al. 2013a). Rivero et al. (2013) also
544 studied the controlled release of propionic acid from chitosan films to dough.

545 **7.4 Application as Shelf-Life Improver and as Carriers** 546 **of Bioactive Compounds, Vitamins or Minerals**

547 Actual challenges faced by the food industry involve the extension of food shelf-life
548 without impairing the nutritious properties of food products and through the use of
549 sustainable techniques (Díaz-Montes and Castro-Muñoz 2021). The food products
550 available in the market for celiac population, particularly bakery stuffs, might have
551 reduced nutritional and organoleptic quality due to the necessary change in formu-
552 lation. Such nutrient deficiencies promote an unbalanced diet for GF consumers,
553 especially regarding fibre, bioactive compounds, vitamins and minerals (Capriles
554 et al. 2016). As a consequence, important efforts have been focused in diversifying
555 and improving the offer of GF items with better nutritional characteristics (Genevois
556 et al. 2020).

557 With the purpose of contributing to the development of healthy foods with long
558 shelf-life, many emergent technologies have been explored in the last years. As was
559 previously mentioned, edible films and coatings are one of the hurdles that have
560 been explored. They are produced using polysaccharides, proteins, and lipids, and
561 besides, they can support antioxidants, antimicrobials, vitamins, probiotics, miner-
562 als, flavouring, and colouring agents. The use of antioxidants, antimicrobials and
563 other nutraceuticals supported in these edibles layers allows to control their loca-
564 tion, their release and the matrix also exerts a physical protection that slows down
565 their destruction. As a consequence, films and coatings can help to improve shelf-
566 life and/or food quality (Gerschenson et al. 2018; Alzate et al. 2021). In particular,
567 in the case of considering the probability of consumer's gluten intolerances, the use
568 of edibles films must be adapted to this restriction, ensuring the absence of harmful
569 proteins in the formulation. In this case, alternative proteins, starches, rice by-
570 products or different hydrocolloids like alginate that have algal origin, can be used
571 for films and coatings production (Senturk Parreidt et al. 2018a, b). In addition,
572 edible films and coatings can contribute to enhance the nutritional properties of
573 foods through the support of vitamins, probiotics, and other compounds.

574 In the next items and Table 7.2, there will be described some matrices mainly
575 based on polysaccharides that were developed in the last years and that can be used

Table 7.2 Different GF edible films and coatings used in bakery products

Application	GF matrix	Active agent	Bakery stuff	Main effects	Shelf-life (t, T)	References
Coating	Groundnut oil	N.I.	GF flatbread	Slowing of staling rate	8 days 2 °C	Patil et al. (2019)
Coating	Corn starch, MC, soybean oil, glycerol	N.I.	Crackers	Reduction of the hydration kinetic in a high a_w environment	20 days 25 °C	Bravin et al. (2006)
Coating	Egg protein, hydrocolloid component, vegetable oil	N.I.	Sweet baked goods	Reduction of water migration rate between components	85 days 25 °C	De Pilli (2020)
Coating	<i>Lepidium sativum</i> seed gum	N.I.	Sorghum GF bread	Improvement of crust and overall quality in comparison with normal glazes	N.R.	Sahraiyen et al. (2020)
Coating	Okra mucilage	N.I.	Soft dough biscuits	Improvement of the crispiness	6 days 25 °C	Senanayake et al. (2021)
Coating	Candelilla wax (in sunflower oil), beeswax (in sunflower oil), HPMC	N.I.	Bread	Reductions of bread weight loss and the crumb firmness	14 days 25 °C	Chen et al. (2021)
Coating	Pectin, alginate and whey protein	N.I.	Mini-buns	Reduction of moisture loss and textural changes	N.R.	Nallan Chakravartula et al. (2019c)
Coating	Sodium alginate, whey, glycerol	Lactic acid bacteria	Bread	Reduction of mesophilic and facultative aerobic bacteria count protection against mycelium fungi of genera <i>Aspergillus</i> and <i>Penicillium</i>	5 days 28 °C	Gregirchak et al. (2020)
Coating	Egg white protein	Carvacrol, thymol, <i>trans</i> -cinnamaldehyde	Bread	High antifungal efficacy of coatings supporting thymol and carvacrol nanocomplexes	7 days 25 °C	Deseta et al. (2021)
Coating	Cassava starch, inverted sugar, sucrose	Soluble coffee, cocoa powder or propolis extract	Muffins	High antimicrobial action against mould and yeast maintenance of the global quality	87 days 25 °C	de Oliveira Melo Naponucena et al. (2019)

(continued)

t2.1

t2.2

t2.3

t2.4

t2.5

t2.6

t2.7

t2.8

t2.9

t2.10

t2.11

t2.12

t2.13

t2.14

t2.15

t2.16

t2.17

t2.18

t2.19

t2.20

t2.21

t2.22

t2.23

t2.24

t2.25

t2.26

t2.27

t2.28

t2.29

Table 7.2 (continued)

Application	GF matrix	Active agent	Bakery stuff	Main effects	Shelf-life (t, T)	References
Coating	Sodium alginate or blends sodium alginate and whey protein concentrate	<i>Lactobacillus rhamnosus</i> GG	Pan bread	Improvement of the viability of <i>L. rhamnosus</i> GG No modification of textural, flavour and thermophysical properties of crust	7 days 25 °C	Soukoulis et al. (2014)
Coating	Potato starch, inverted sugar, sucrose	Potassium sorbate and/or citric acid	Mini panettone	Inhibition of mould/yeast growth	48 days 35 °C	Ferreira Saraiva et al. (2016)
Coating	Sodium alginate, whey protein, glycerol	<i>L. brevis</i>	GF cookies	Improvement nutritional quality without modifying physical and sensorial properties	30 days 35 °C	Chávez et al. (2022)
Coating	Mung bean starch, guar gum, sunflower seed oil	Grapefruit seed extract	Non-glutinous rice flour cakes	Improvement stability by retarding starch retrogradation and inhibiting <i>B. cereus</i> and <i>P. citrinum</i> growth	N.R.	Lee et al. (2020)
Film	Starch-based (tapioca, potato, corn), cellulose nanofiber.	N.I.	Muffin	Good performance as a liner to hold the batter and protect the muffins from sticking to the pan during baking. Film could be consumed	N.R.	Shih and Zhao (2021)
Film	MC, polyethylene glycol	Clove bud or oregano essential oil (Tween 80 addition)	Bread slices	Reduction of yeasts and moulds counts	15 days 25 °C	Otoni et al. (2014)
Film	Cellulose-derivative polymer	Cinnamaldehyde	Pastry dough (P d) and bread (B)	Inhibition of aerobic mesophilic, yeast and mould growth.	P d: 30 days 8 °C. B: 12 days 23 °C	Lopes et al. (2013)
Film	Chitosan	Apricot kernel essential oil	Bread	Inhibition of fungal growth	10 days 25 °C	Priyadarshi et al. (2018)
Film and coating	Chitosan-carboxymethyl cellulose-oleic acid	Zinc oxide nanoparticles	Sliced bread	Reduction of fungal growth and retard the staling rate	35 days 25 °C	Noshirvani et al. (2017)

NI not incorporated, *NR* not reported

in the development of food products that need GF formulation. Many advances have been reported in relation to improve global quality of diverse traditional bakery products based on wheat using active edible films and coatings through the extension of microbial stability during storage (de Oliveira et al. 2019; Qian et al. 2021; Axel et al. 2017; Noshirvani et al. 2017), the maintenance of the crispiness and textural characteristic by reducing staling (Senanayake et al. 2021; Nallan Chakravartula et al. 2019c; Chen et al. 2021) and the increase of nutritional or functional properties, through probiotics or prebiotics incorporation (Zoghi et al. 2020; Fernández et al. 2020). On the contrary, few studies were performed combining GF edible films or coatings on GF bakery products. Recently, Chavez et al. (2022) covered GF cookies with an edible coating based on sodium alginate (1% w/w), whey of milk protein (2% w/w) and glycerol (5% w/w) water solution supporting probiotics, *L. brevis* strain, improving functional value without affecting sensorial and physical properties. Another research (Lee et al. 2020), reported that cakes made with non-glutinous rice flour and coated with mung bean starch and guar gum slurry containing sunflower seed oil, decreased the hardness by 29% and the crystallisation rate by 24% compared with those of uncoated samples along storage at 25 °C. The authors concluded that edible coating retard the starch retrogradation in coated cakes. In the same study, the addition of 0.8% (w/w) grapefruit seed extract to coating exerted an effective antimicrobial activity against *B. cereus* and *P. citrinum* during rice cake storage. Similarly, Patil et al. (2019) demonstrated that staling rate was successfully retarded with the help of a groundnut oil coating on the surface of the GF flatbread during storage at 4 °C. Finally, Sahraiyan et al. (2020) analysed the effects of traditional glazes (oil, cheese powder, xanthan gum) on the physicochemical and sensory parameters of sorghum GF bread and were compared with *Lepidium sativum* seed gum coating. Results showed that application of novel glaze was better than the usual glazes to improve the crust and overall quality of GF bread.

7.4.1 Films and Coatings and WVP Control

Bravin et al. (2006) studied the development of emulsified edible films constituted by corn starch, MC and soybean oil. The techniques explored for deposition of the film forming solution were spreading or spraying. The presence of oil depressed the WVP. With this formulation, both techniques produced, in general, similar WVP. Atomization pressure of 2 bar and film thickness of 30 µm were identified as optimum for the application of edible coating to bakery products. Edible coating of previously described characteristics was applied for controlling moisture uptake in crackers submitted to RH of 65–85%. Crackers coated with this formulation showed a longer shelf-life due to the control of moisture transfer exerted by the film, confirming its potential for slowing the hydration rate in the RH range studied. In another study, Shih et al. (2011) developed edible films using various ratios of

616 pullulan and rice wax up to 46.4% (w/w). Authors reported that water vapour barrier
617 increased and hydration capacity decreased with a higher addition of rice wax help-
618 ing to lengthen the shelf-life of food products. Several bio-polymeric matrices were
619 analysed by Cando et al. (2017), who studied the production by casting technique of
620 biodegradable films based on dispersions of a mix (50:50) of cassava, rice or potato
621 starch and bovine gelatine. The total solid concentration of the dispersions was 2%
622 (w/w) and glycerol was used as plasticiser. The films with cassava starch showed the
623 lowest WVP. Nisar et al. (2018) developed antimicrobial films based on citrus pec-
624 tin with the incorporation of different levels of clove bud essential oil. The inclusion
625 of oil diminished the WVP and increased the deformability and heat stability of
626 the films.

627 **7.4.2 Films and Coatings. Weight Loss and Antimicrobial/ 628 Antioxidant Effect**

629 Sadygova and Kozlov (2015) developed an edible foam for coating bakery products,
630 with gram flour (5–15%), ashberry powder (5–10%), table salt (1–3%) and water up
631 to 100%. The film was produced through drying at 55–65 °C for reducing the mois-
632 ture content to 5–10%. This coating lengthens the shelf-life of bakery products
633 helping to decrease microbiological count. Ferreira Saraiva et al. (2016) studied the
634 application of edible coatings based on potato starch (46 g/kg), inverted sugar (14 g/
635 kg) and sucrose (7 g/kg), with the purpose of reducing the preservatives added to
636 mini panettones. The preservatives added to coating formulations were potassium
637 sorbate (1 g/kg), citric acid (10 g/kg) and both additives (1 g/kg sorbate and 10 g/kg
638 citric acid or 0.5 g/kg sorbate and 5 g/kg citric acid). Panettones without coating and
639 additives showed the growth of mould and yeasts after 24 days of storage. On the
640 contrary, the presence of films with both additives showed fungal growth only after
641 40 days. The authors concluded that the use as coatings of films with additives in
642 concentrations lower than those normally used for these foods, increased their
643 shelf-life.

644 Regarding active films added with natural preservatives, Nisar et al. (2018)
645 showed that antimicrobial films based on citrus pectin with the incorporation of dif-
646 ferent levels of clove bud essential oil were effective against *S. aureus*, *E. coli* and
647 *L. monocytogenes* when evaluated through the diffusion tests, showing a diameter
648 increase from 18.50 to 30.27 mm, 12.53 to 21.20 mm and 14.67 to 26.43 mm,
649 respectively, with the increase of oil concentration from 0.5% to 1.5%. The most
650 sensible bacteria was *S. aureus*. According to Alzate et al. (2017) the addition of
651 carvacrol, the main component of the oregano essential oil, to edible film formula-
652 tion based on cassava starch and HPMC, highly improved the antimicrobial barrier
653 action against *Z. bailii*, *L. plantarum*, and *P. fluorescens* in comparison with films
654 containing only potassium sorbate. Recently, Mahcene et al. (2020) studied the use
655 of sodium alginate to constitute films incorporated with essential oils of some
656 medicinal plants (*R. officinalis* L, *A. herba alba* Asso, *O. basilicum* L and *M.*

pulegium L). The films showed a strong antibacterial effect against *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 43300), *Escherichia coli* (ATCC 25922), *Salmonella enterica* (ATCC 14028), *Enterococcus faecium* (ATCC 35667), *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (ATCC 70060) and *Enterococcus faecalis* (ATCC 29212). The antioxidant capacity, reported as DPPH inhibition %, of the different films showed values of 4% for *M. pulegium*'s oil film to 23% for *O. basilicum* oil film in comparison with the control film which revealed no radical scavenging activity. The authors attributed these low values to the destruction of the active principles during film production and/or to the reaction of active principles with alginate.

Utama-ang et al. (2021) studied the microwave-assisted extraction (400 W, 1 min) of phenolic compounds from dried ginger and its incorporation (3.2% w/v) in a rice-based edible film. This edible film showed antioxidant activity due to the presence of 6-gingerol, 6-shogaol, paradol and zingerone. The incorporation to the formulation of 3.2% (w/v) ginger extract determined that the film showed antimicrobial activity against *S. mutans* DMST 18777. Yerramathi et al. (2021) developed a film based on alginate crosslinked with ferulic acid, for extending the shelf-life of different foods. The edible films developed showed an increasing antioxidant effect with the concentration of ferulic acid. Table 7.2 summarises the different GF active edible packaging used to improve the quality or extend the shelf-life of bakery products.

The effectiveness of the methods described in Table 7.2 depend on the food product characteristics (shape and size), the composition of the edible films and coatings, the physical properties (surface tension, density, and viscosity) (Andrade et al. 2012; Debeaufort and Voilley 2009), the processing method used and the sensory compatibility with the food (Restrepo et al. 2018).

7.4.3 Films and Coatings for Supporting Micronutrients/ Probiotics

In particular, edible films have been proposed for the support and protection of probiotics. Probiotics are defined as nonpathogenic living microorganisms that have beneficial effects on host health and disease prevention when administered in adequate amounts (Kunes and Kvetina 2016). Soukoulis et al. (2014) studied the application of film forming solutions based on 1% w/w sodium alginate or in blends of 0.5% w/w sodium alginate and 2% whey protein concentrate, to bread. These solutions contained the probiotic *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG, and after its application on the surface of the bread, a drying step (60 °C, 10 min or 180 °C, 2 min) gave origin to a film that did not affect visually the crust and did not affect bread staling. The presence of whey protein concentrate improved the viability of the lactobacilli during drying and also during bread storage. The authors reported that films based exclusively on sodium alginate increased the viability of lactobacilli under simulated gastro-intestinal and concluded that a slice of bread (3–40 g) can provide approximately 7 log CFU of lactobacilli, contributing to the development of more healthy foods. In another study, Altamirano-Fortoul et al. (2012) developed

698 functional bread combining *L. acidophilus* encapsulation and starch based edible
699 coating. The results demonstrated the ability of the coating to protect the probiotics
700 during baking, allowing their survival. However, significant physicochemical
701 changes were observed on the crust. Many other GF bio-polymeric matrices have
702 been assays as carriers of probiotics to broaden the offer of functional foods and to
703 improve probiotic viability during processing and storage (Zoghi et al. 2020).

704 Likewise, edible coatings may also act as carriers of nutrients. Caseins and whey
705 proteins based matrices have been used to control the release or support of calcium,
706 iron, vitamin D, A, E and folic acid in several food stuffs (Daniloski et al. 2021; Mei
707 and Zhao 2003). Genevois et al. (2016) developed a refrigerated ready-to-eat food
708 based on pumpkin and fortified with iron and ascorbic acid supported in a coating
709 matrix, which helped to enhance their bioaccessibility at *in vitro* simulated lumen
710 conditions. Edible folic acid-nanolaminates were obtained by the layer-by-layer
711 technique using alginate and chitosan biopolymers while the vitamin was incorpo-
712 rated by post-diffusion (Acevedo-Fani et al. 2018). These systems were able to pro-
713 tect folic acid from degradation by UV irradiation whereas the release profiles were
714 affected by pH level, being faster in simulated conditions of the small intestine
715 (pH 7). In another work, Behjati and Yazdanpanah (2021) elaborated a nano-
716 emulsion vitamin D₃ fortified edible film based on quince seed gum which pro-
717 moted high stability of the vitamin. Therefore, the authors concluded that fortified
718 edible films can be used in ready-to-eat food products to improve vitamin intake.
719 Moreover, Vitamin C (L-(+)-ascorbic acid), with important antioxidant activity,
720 could be retained and protected when was supported in an alginate edible coating
721 (De'Nobili et al. 2017) or a high methoxyl pectin edible film (Pérez et al. 2009),
722 constituting an effective strategy for reduce its degradation. The authors demon-
723 strated that the immobilisation of water in the film network modulated vitamin loss.

724 7.5 Conclusions

725 GF edible films, coatings and toppings applied to bakery products provide protec-
726 tion against external factors that can alter their quality. Toppings are essential for
727 flavour and determine the appearance of the product, providing certain short-term
728 barrier protection. On the other hand, edible coatings and films are a great barrier
729 that focuses on extending long-term protection and provide a way to incorporate
730 active components, such as antimicrobials or antioxidants to prevent microbial and
731 oxidative impairment. In addition, edible films and coatings also can improve the
732 nutritional quality of GF bakeries, since they can support vitamins, minerals, probi-
733 otics, etc. Therefore, actual GF available products can become functional foods
734 offering to consumers with disorders related to gluten intake, higher quality and
735 more diversified foods. Thus, improved GF bakery could help to avoid the risk of a
736 nutritional deficiency and to exert a positive effect on health beyond basic nutrition.
737 Future research must be focused on studying the effects of different GF formula-
738 tions and processing of edible films, coatings and toppings on the physicochemical,

sensorial and nutritional properties of GF bakery products. In addition, the influence of the application methodology on such characteristics should be further explored in order to help the achievement of a greater insertion of these technologies in the food industry while contributing to the generation of healthy foods.

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