

Handbook of Research on Bioenergy and Biomaterials

Consolidated and Green Processes

Leopoldo Javier Ríos González
José Antonio Rodríguez-De La Garza
Miguel Ángel Medina Morales
Cristóbal Noé Aguilar
Editors



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**HANDBOOK OF RESEARCH ON
BIOENERGY AND BIOMATERIALS**

Consolidated and Green Processes

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Edited by

Leopoldo Javier Ríos González
José Antonio Rodríguez-De La Garza
Miguel Ángel Medina Morales
Cristóbal Noé Aguilar

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About the Editors

Leopoldo Javier Ríos González, PhD

Leopoldo J. Ríos-González, PhD, is a full-time Professor at the School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, México. He is biologist chemist specializing in microbiology and holds a PhD in biotechnology. He is expert in the production of liquid and gas biofuels from biomass and is a member of the Bioenergy Thematic Network (REMBIO). In 2016, he was granted the Environmental Merit Award by the Autonomous University of Coahuila, and in 2017, he received the Environmental Award of Coahuila. Dr. Rios-Gonzalez has developed research funded by the Secretariat of Agricultural, National Council of Research and Technology (CONACyT) through the International Cooperation Programs CONACyT/CONICyT, Secretariat of Economy and different projects with industry. Dr Rios-Gonzalez has published over 25 original research papers in indexed journals and is member of National Researchers System in México (SNI) from 2018 (Level I).

José Antonio Rodríguez-De La Garza, PhD

Jose A. Rodríguez-De la Garza, PhD, has been a full-time Professor since 2008 at the School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Mexico. in the area Environmental Biotechnology. He currently is head of the Biotechnology PhD program at the same institution. He is member of the Mexican Society of Biotechnology and Bioengineering. Dr. Rodríguez-De la Garza currently develops a research project funded by the State Council of Science and Technology of Coahuila He has been a Thesis Director of PhD, MSc, and BSc theses. He is became a mechanical engineer at the Autonomous University of Nuevo Leon, Mexico. He earned his MSc and PhD degrees in biotechnology from the Autonomous University of Coahuila. He has been in two academic stays, in the USA (Washington State University, Pullman) and in Chile (Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso). Dr Rodríguez-De la Garza has published over 15 original research papers in indexed journals and five book chapters and has participated and contributed in over 40 scientific meetings.

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Miguel Ángel Medina Morales, PhD

Miguel Ángel Medina Morales, PhD, is a full-time Professor at the School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Mexico, in the area environmental biotechnology. He is a member of National Researchers System (SNI) from 2017 (candidate level). In 2017 he was part of a research team that were honored with the Tritio Award given by the Autonomous University of Coahuila. He has published over 14 papers in scientific journals and several book chapters. He graduated as Biologist Chemist at the Autonomous University of Coahuila. He obtained his MSc Degree in Food Science and Technology by the same institution. In 2012 he obtained his PhD in Food Science and Technology at the Autonomous University of Coahuila.

Cristóbal Noé Aguilar, PhD

Cristóbal Noé Aguilar, PhD, is Director of Research and Postgraduate Programs at the Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Mexico. He is also a member of the Bioprocesses and Bioproducts Research Group and Professor in the Food Research Department in the School of Chemistry at the Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Saltillo, Mexico. Dr. Aguilar is Associate Editor of *Heliyon* (Microbiology) and *Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems* (Food Processing) and has published more than 330 papers in indexed journals, more than 40 articles in Mexican journals, and 250 contributions in scientific meetings. He has also published many book chapters, several Mexican books, four editions of international books, and more. He has been awarded several prizes and awards, the most important of which are the National Prize of Research 2010 from the Mexican Academy of Sciences; the Prize “Carlos Casas Campillo 2008” from the Mexican Society of Biotechnology and Bioengineering; National Prize AgroBio–2005; and the Mexican Prize in Food Science and Technology. Dr. Aguilar is a member of the Mexican Academy of Science, the International Bioprocessing Association, Mexican Academy of Sciences, Mexican Society for Biotechnology and Bioengineering, and the Mexican Association for Food Science and Biotechnology. He has developed more than 21 research projects, including six international exchange projects.

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Contributors

Karina Reyes Acosta

Chemical Engineering Department, Faculty of Chemical Sciences, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Saltillo, Coahuila, Mexico

Erika Acosta-Cruz

Departamento de Biotecnología. Facultad de Ciencias Químicas. Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. Venustiano Carranza, 25280 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

Cristóbal N. Aguilar

Bioprocesses and Bioproducts Research Center, FCQ-UAdeC, 25280 Saltillo, México

F. J. Alonso-Montemayor

PhD Program in Materials Science and Technology, School of Chemistry (FCQ), Autonomous University of Coahuila (UAdeC), 25280 Saltillo, México

Christian Javier Cabello Alvarado

CONACYT—Consortio de Investigación Científica, Tecnológica y de Innovación del Estado de Tlaxcala, Calle 1 de mayo No. 22, Col. Centro, C.P. 90000, Tlaxcala de Xicothencatl Tlaxcala, México

Olga B. Álvarez Pérez

Greencorp Biorganiks de México S.A. de C.V., Blvd Luis Donaldo Colosio, Col. San Patricio, Saltillo 25204, México

Paola Angulo-Bejarano

Tecnologico de Monterrey, Centre of Bioengineering, School of Engineering and Sciences, Campus Queretaro, Querétaro, Qro, Mexico

Diana Sofía Segovia Arévalo

Centro de Investigación y de Estudios Avanzados del Instituto Politécnico Nacional Unidad Saltillo, México

F. Ávalos-Belmontes

Department of Polymers, FCQ-UAdeC, 25280 Saltillo, Mexico

B. A. Ayil-Gútierrez

CONACYT—Centro de Biotecnología Genómica, Instituto Politécnico Nacional, Blvd. del Maestro, s/n, Esq. Elías Piña 88710. Reynosa, Tamaulipas, México

R. Baeza-Jiménez

Research Center in Food and Development, A.C. Av. 4ta Sur 3820, Fracc. Vencedores del Desierto, 33089, Cd. Delicias, Chihuahua, México

J. J. Buenrostro-Figueroa

Research Center in Food and Development, A.C. Av. 4ta Sur 3820, Fracc. Vencedores del Desierto, 33089, Cd. Delicias, Chihuahua, México

Guadalupe Bustos-Vázquez

Departamento de Ingeniería Bioquímica, Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas, Unidad Académica Multidisciplinaria Mante, Blvd. Enrique Cárdenas González No. 1201 Pte. Col. Jardín, C.P. 89840 Ciudad Mante, Tamaulipas, México

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Denis A. Cabrera-Munguia

Advanced Materials, School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, México

Mauricio Carrillo-Tripp

Laboratorio de la Diversidad Biomolecular, Centro de Investigación y de Estudios Avanzados del Instituto Politécnico Nacional Unidad Monterrey, Apodaca, Nuevo León, México

Sandra L. Castañón-Alonso

Chemistry Department, Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana-Iztapalapa, Ciudad de México, México

Salvador Castell-González

Colegio de Posgraduados en Ciencias Ambientales y Biotecnología del Sureste, A.C. Mérida, Yucatán, México

E. Cázares-Sánchez

Instituto Tecnológico de la Zona Maya, carretera Chetumal Escárcega Km. 21.5. C.P. 77960 Ejido Juan Sarabia, México

Ana V. Charles-Rodríguez

Department of Food Science and Technology, Universidad Autónoma Agraria Antonio Narro, Colonia Buenavista, Saltillo, México

M. L. Chávez-González

Nanobioscience Group, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. V. Carranza esquina con José Cárdenas Valdés s/n Col, República Oriente, 25280 Saltillo, México
Bioprocesses & Bioproducts Group, Food Research Department, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. V. Carranza esquina con José Cárdenas Valdés s/n Col, República Oriente, 25280 Saltillo, México

Jesús A. Claudio-Rizo

Advanced Materials Department, School of Chemical Sciences, University Autonomous of Coahuila, Saltillo, Mexico

J. C. Contreras-Esquivel

Glycobiology Research Center, FCQ-UAdeC, 25280 Saltillo, Mexico

A. V. Córdova-Quiroz

Facultad de Química, Dependencia Académica de Ciencias Química y Petrolera, Universidad Autónoma del Carmen, Carmen, México

E. A. De la Cruz-Arguijo

Centro de Biotecnología Genómica, Instituto Politécnico Nacional, Blvd. del Maestro, s/n, Esq. Elías Piña, Reynosa 88710, México

Brenda R. Cruz-Ortiz

Ceramic Materials Department, School of Chemical Sciences, University Autonomous of Coahuila, Saltillo, Mexico

Marisol Cruz-Requena

Departamento de Investigación en Alimentos, Facultad de Ciencias Químicas, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, 25280 Saltillo, México

Leopoldo María Antonia Cruz-Hernández

Laboratorio de Interacción Ambiente-Microorganismo, Centro de Biotecnología Genómica, Instituto Politécnico Nacional, Reynosa, Tamaulipas, México

Ben Hur Espinosa-Ramírez

División de Electromecánica Industrial, Universidad Tecnológica de Tecámac, Tecámac, Estado de México, México

Lorena Farías-Cepeda

Chemical Engineering Department, Faculty of Chemical Sciences, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Saltillo, Coahuila, Mexico

María L. Flores-López

Department of Research and Development, Biocampo S.A. de C.V., Blvd. Dr. Jesús Valdés Sánchez Km. 10, Fracc. Presa de las Casas, Arteaga 25350, México

J. J. Fuentes-Avilés

Facultad de Ciencias Químicas, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila. Blvd., Venustiano Carranza y José Cárdenas Valdés, C.P. 25280 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

Adolfo Romero Galarza

Chemical Engineering Department, Faculty of Chemical Sciences, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Saltillo, Coahuila, Mexico

Horacio González

Faculty of Chemical Engineering, Universidad Michoacana de San Nicolás de Hidalgo, México

A. Iliná

Nanobioscience Group, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. V. Carranza esquina con José Cárdenas Valdés s/n Col, República Oriente, 25280 Saltillo, México

Fernando Jasso-Juarez

Departamento de Biotecnología, Facultad de Ciencias Químicas, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. Venustiano Carranza, 25280 Saltillo, México

Arturo I. Martínez Enríquez

Centro de Investigación y Estudios Avanzados del Instituto Politécnico Nacional, CINVESTAV-Saltillo, 25900 Ramos Arizpe, México

J. L. Martínez-Hernández

Nanobioscience Group, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. V. Carranza esquina con José Cárdenas Valdés s/n Col, República Oriente, 25280 Saltillo, México

Marlene Lariza Andrade Guel

Department of Advanced Materials, Centro de Investigación en Química Aplicada, Blvd.

Salvador Carlos Hernández

Centro de Investigación y Estudios Avanzados del Instituto Politécnico Nacional, CINVESTAV-Saltillo, 25900 Ramos Arizpe, México Enrique Reyna Hermsillo No. 140 C.P. 25294 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

V. M. Interián-Ku

Instituto Tecnológico de la Zona Maya, carretera Chetumal Escárcega Km. 21.5, Ejido Juan Sarabia, C.P. 77960 Quintana Roo, México

Alma Berenice Jasso-Salcedo

CONACYT—Centro de Investigación en Química Aplicada, Blvd. Enrique Reyna Hermsillo No. 140 C.P. 25294 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

Lourdes Díaz Jiménez

Centro de Investigación y de Estudios Avanzados del Instituto Politécnico Nacional Unidad Saltillo, México

C. Leyva

Centro de Investigación en Ciencia Aplicada y Tecnología Avanzada-IPN-Unidad Legaria, Ciudad de México, México

Miguel A. De León-Zapata

Research Center for the Conservation of Biodiversity and Ecology of Coahuila (CICBEC), Autonomous University of Coahuila, Saltillo 25280, Mexico

Claudia M. López-Badillo

Ceramic Materials Department, School of Chemical Sciences, University Autonomous of Coahuila, Saltillo, Mexico

L. Margarita López-Castillo

Centro de Biotecnología Femsa. Escuela de Ingeniería y Ciencias, Tecnológico de Monterrey, Monterrey, Nuevo León, México

Claudia M. López-Badillo

Ceramic Materials Department, School of Chemical Sciences, University Autonomous of Coahuila, Saltillo, Mexico

H. A. Luna-García

Nanobioscience Group, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. V. Carranza esquina con José Cárdenas Valdés s/n Col, República Oriente, 25280 Saltillo, México
Bioprocesses & Bioproducts Group, Food Research Department, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. V. Carranza esquina con José Cárdenas Valdés s/n Col, República Oriente, 25280 Saltillo, México

Lucero Rosales Marines

Chemical Engineering Department, Faculty of Chemical Sciences, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Saltillo, Coahuila, Mexico

S. Y. Martínez-Amador

Botany Department, Agronomic Division, Universidad Autónoma Agraria Antonio Narro, Mexico

Humberto Martínez Montoya

Laboratory of Genetics and Comparative Genomics, UAM Reynosa Axtlán—Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas, Reynosa, Tamaulipas, México

Fernando Méndez-González

Departamento de Biotecnología, Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana-Iztapalapa, Ciudad de México, México

Miguel A. Medina-Morales

Department of Biotechnology, School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Mexico

Romeo Rojas Molina

School of Agronomy, Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León, Monterrey, México

Thelma K. Morales-Martínez

Bioprocess and Microbial Biochemistry Group, School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Mexico

I. M. M. Moreno-Davila

Laboratorio de Biotecnología Ambiental. Departamento de Biotecnología. Facultad de Ciencias Químicas. Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Ing J. Cardenas Valdez S/N, República, 25280 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

Mayela Moreno-Dávila

Department of Biotechnology, School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Mexico

L. F. Mora-Cortes

PhD Program in Materials Science and Technology, School of Chemistry (FCQ), Autonomous University of Coahuila (UAdeC), 25280 Saltillo, Mexico

R. I. Narro-Céspedes

Department of Polymers, FCQ-UAdeC, 25280 Saltillo, México

D. Navarro-Rodríguez

Department of Polymers Synthesis, Research Center for Applied Chemistry (CIQA) 25294, Saltillo, Coahuila, México

M. G. Neira-Velázquez

Department of Polymers Synthesis, Research Center for Applied Chemistry (CIQA) 25294, Saltillo, Coahuila, México

E. Ochoa-Reyes

Research Center in Food and Development, A.C. Av. 4ta Sur 3820, Fracc. Vencedores del Desierto, 33089, Cd. Delicias, Chihuahua, México

Carlos Alberto Ávila Orta

Department of Advanced Materials, Centro de Investigación en Química Aplicada, Blvd. Enrique Reyna Hermosillo No. 140 C.P. 25294 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

R. Parra-Saldívar

Tecnologico de Monterrey, Escuela de Ingeniería y Ciencias, Ave. Eugenio Garza Sada 2501, 64849 Monterrey, NL, México

Alejandra Pichardo-Sánchez

Departamento de Biotecnología, Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana-Iztapalapa, Ciudad de México, México

Araceli Martínez Ponce

Escuela Nacional de Estudios Superiores, Unidad Morelia, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Antigua Carretera a Pátzcuaro No. 8701, Col. Ex Hacienda de San José de la Huerta, 58190 Morelia, Michoacán, México

W. Poot-Poot

Laboratorio de Biotecnología, Facultad de Ingeniería y Ciencias, Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas, Centro Universitario, 87120 Ciudad Victoria, Tamaulipas, México

P. Villarreal Quintero

Nanobioscience Group, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. V. Carranza esquina con José Cárdenas Valdés s/n Col, República Oriente, 25280 Saltillo, México
Bioprocesses & Bioproducts Group, Food Research Department, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. V. Carranza esquina con José Cárdenas Valdés s/n Col, República Oriente, 25280 Saltillo, México

V. H. Ramos-García

Biotecnología Vegetal. Centro de Biotecnología Genómica, Instituto Politécnico Nacional, Blvd. del Maestro, s/n, Esq. Elías Piña, 88710 Reynosa, México

A. G. Reyes

CONACYT—CIBNOR, Instituto Politécnico Nacional 195, Playa Palo de Santa Rita Sur, 23096 La Paz, BCS, México

Leopoldo J. Ríos-González

Department of Biotechnology, School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Mexico

C. Rivera-Pérez

CONACYT—CIBNOR, Instituto Politécnico Nacional 195, Playa Palo de Santa Rita Sur, 23096 La Paz, BCS, México

Armando Robledo-Olivo

Department of Food Science and Technology, Universidad Autónoma Agraria Antonio Narro, Colonia Buenavista, Saltillo, México

José A. Rodríguez-de la Garza

Department of Biotechnology, School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Mexico

Luis Víctor Rodríguez-Durán

Departamento de Ingeniería Bioquímica, Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas, Unidad Académica Multidisciplinaria Mante, Blvd. Enrique Cárdenas González No. 1201 Pte. Col. Jardín, C.P. 89840 Ciudad Mante, Tamaulipas, México

Nubia R. Rodríguez-Durán

Departamento de Ingeniería Bioquímica, Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas, Unidad Académica Multidisciplinaria Mante, Blvd. Enrique Cárdenas González No. 1201 Pte. Col. Jardín, C.P. 89840 Ciudad Mante, Tamaulipas, México

M. M. Rodríguez-Garza

Department of Biotechnology, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autonoma de Coahuila, Mexico

Adolfo Romero-Galarza

Department of Chemical Engineering, School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, México

Lucero Rosales-Marines

Department of Chemical Engineering, School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, México

Anilú Rubio Ríos

Chemical Engineering Department, Faculty of Chemical Sciences, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Saltillo, Coahuila, Mexico

A. Ruiz-Marín

Facultad de Química, Dependencia Académica de Ciencias Química y Petrolera, Universidad Autónoma del Carmen, Carmen, México

A. Sáenz-Galindo

Facultad de Ciencias Químicas, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila. Blvd., Venustiano Carranza y José Cárdenas Valdés, C.P. 25280 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

C. Salinas-Salazar

Tecnologico de Monterrey, Escuela de Ingeniería y Ciencias, Ave. Eugenio Garza Sada 2501, 64849 Monterrey, NL, México

Thalía A. Salinas-Jasso

Department of Chemical Metrology, Universidad Politécnica de Ramos Arizpe (UPRA), Ramos Arizpe, México

Rodolfo Torres-de los Santos

Unidad Académica Multidisciplinaria Mante Centro. Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas, Cd. Mante, Tamaulipas, México

Gerardo de Jesús Sosa-Santillán

Departamento de Biotecnología. Facultad de Ciencias Químicas, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Ing J. Cardenas Valdez S/N, República, 25280 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

E. P. Segura-Ceniceros

Nanobioscience Group, School of Chemistry, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Blvd. V. Carranza esquina con José Cárdenas Valdés s/n Col, República Oriente, 25280 Saltillo, México

Leonardo Sepúlveda

Grupo de Bioprocesos y Bioquímica Microbiana, Facultad de Ciencias Químicas, Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, 25280 Saltillo, México

L. E. Serrato-Villegas

Department of Chemical Engineering, School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, México

J. C. Tafolla-Arellano

Departamento de Ciencias Básicas, Laboratorio de Biotecnología y Biología Molecular. Núcleo Básico del Doctorado en Ciencias en Recursos Fitogenéticos para Zonas Áridas, Universidad Autónoma Agraria Antonio Narro, 25315. Buenavista, Saltillo, Coahuila, México

M. C. Tamayo-Ordoñez

Laboratorio de Ingeniería Genética, Departamento de Biotecnología. Facultad de Ciencias Químicas. Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Ing J. Cardenas Valdez S/N, República, 25280 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

Y. J. Tamayo-Ordoñez

Estancia Posdoctoral Nacional-CONACyT, Posgrado en Ciencia y Tecnología de Alimentos. Facultad de Ciencias Químicas. Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Ing J. Cardenas Valdez S/N, República, 25280 Saltillo, Coahuila, México

Luis Fernando Sánchez Terán

Centro de Investigación y Estudios Avanzados del Instituto Politécnico Nacional, CINVESTAV-Saltillo, 25900 Ramos Arizpe, México

J. M. Tirado-Gallegos

School of Animal Science and Ecology, Universidad Autónoma de Chihuahua. 31453, Chihuahua, Chihuahua, México

J. M. Vieira

Department of Food Engineering, Faculty of Food Engineering, University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Campinas, Brazil

Preface

In recent years, an increasing interest in products of natural origin has taken root in the population. Several processes are being developed to address the need for these products and, in particular, biotechnology and green chemistry are the leading areas due to its considerably lower implications of harming the environment. The specific cases of bioenergy, biomaterials, and biomolecules extraction and production have a strong relation with biotechnology, which along with green chemistry, contribute to develop technology that leads to the creation of useful compounds.

The *Handbook of Research on Bioenergy and Biomaterials: Consolidated and Green Processes* will give an insight and an understanding of consolidate processing-biorefinery systems for biofuels production using tools of biotechnology, chemical engineering, among other branches of science.

Bioenergy produced by Fischer–Tropsch, gasification, pyrolysis, combustion, and fermentation from renewable sources (such as plants, animals, and their byproducts) is considered a great technological improvement in the energy sector in regard to lower our dependence of fossil fuels and consequently the greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. In addition to produce biofuels, researchers are looking for the biorefinery concept perceiving agro-industrial value chains. As a result, the subject of biorefinery engineering science may need to grow as a discipline in regard of converting biomass into useful liquid fuels in an attempt to replace totally or partially the fossil fuels consumption.

Biomolecules comprise a wide array of compounds with a wide area of applications. These biomolecules can be included with those with bioactivities such as antioxidants, antimicrobials, anticancer, among many others. Enzymes are among these biomolecules and are important to many processes such as biofuels production, high added-value compounds release, enzymatic synthesis of useful compound, degradation of residual materials, and along many other processes. Production of these types of biomolecules are significant factors for quality improvement in the way of life of humans and to increase production in the meat and agricultural industry sector.

Biomaterials are defined as any material that can interact with biological systems and is also an interesting topic that will be covered in our book. There are several examples that have been used as a treatment, augmentation, and

replacement in certain type of tissue or surface. Organic molecules of biological origin such as polysaccharides or proteins have been used to interact with other compounds or polymers to give way to a different material with new or different features. Also, inorganic molecules have been applied to interact with living tissues or biological molecules to be applied in several fields ranging from medicine to industrial processes. Another interesting aspect in this regard is the fact that microorganisms are able to produce high molecular weight compounds that can be applied in biomaterials and also produce precursors that apply in the same manner.

In all the topics that are covered in this publication, the term “consolidated process” plays a pivotal role due to the fact that it means that fewer unitary operations will be used in a process and in obtaining a more direct method of production. This type of production systems can contribute to decrease the negative effects on the environment, lower costs, energy and time, improving profitability and efficiency.

The editors

Biopolymer Extraction and Its Use in Edible Packaging

THALÍA A. SALINAS-JASSO¹, MARÍA L. FLORES-LÓPEZ², J. M. VIEIRA³, ANA V. CHARLES-RODRÍGUEZ⁴, ARMANDO ROBLEDO-OLIVO⁴, OLGA B. ÁLVAREZ PÉREZ⁵, ROMEO ROJAS MOLINA⁶, and **MIGUEL A. DE LEÓN-ZAPATA^{7*}**

¹*Department of Chemical Metrology, Universidad Politécnica de Ramos Arizpe (UPRA), Ramos Arizpe, México*

²*Department of Research and Development, Biocampo S.A. de C.V., Blvd. Dr. Jesús Valdés Sánchez Km. 10, Fracc. Presa de las Casas, Arteaga 25350, México*

³*Department of Food Engineering, Faculty of Food Engineering, University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Campinas, Brazil*

⁴*Department of Food Science and Technology, Universidad Autónoma Agraria Antonio Narro, Colonia Buenavista, Saltillo, México*

⁵*Greencorp Biorganiks de México S.A. de C.V., Blvd Luis Donald Colosio, Col. San Patricio, Saltillo 25204, México*

⁶*School of Agronomy, Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León, Monterrey, México*

⁷*Research Center for the Conservation of Biodiversity and Ecology of Coahuila (CICBEC), Autonomous University of Coahuila, Saltillo 25280, Mexico*

**Corresponding author. E-mail: miguel.leon@uadec.edu.mx.*

ABSTRACT

This chapter is about methods to obtain biopolymers and their application in edible packaging for

foods. Different processes to extract biopolymers and obtain edible coatings and films have been developed to increase the postharvest shelf life of food products and minimally

processed. This chapter included a description of processes focused on extracting natural biopolymers, as polysaccharides, proteins, lipids. The properties (e.g., gases and humidity barrier ability) of edible coatings and films to reduce the deterioration of vegetable products are acutely examined. Also, this work reviews the parameters that alter the stability of edible packaging.

14.1 INTRODUCTION

The reduction in the use of nonrenewable synthetic materials has promoted research and development of packaging with lower environmental impact.

Even so, the packaging must provide the physical and mechanical properties necessary for food preservation. To achieve this purpose, the promising materials for the manufacture of packaging from renewable sources are biopolymers (Av erous and Poller, 2012). A fundamental characteristic of biopolymers is that its degradation occurs in short periods, from weeks to a few months (Shimao, 2001).

Edible packaging can encapsulate antioxidant (Cheng et al., 2015), antimicrobial (Arismendi et al., 2013), or nutrients (Vanderroost et al., 2014). Packaging must be effective and economically feasible.

Its characteristics depend on the food product application, which

might be coated. Vegetable products are perishable (Barbosa-Pereira et al., 2014), affecting the products quality, causing losses during storage due to various metabolic reactions that promote the growth of microorganisms (Bosquez-Molina et al., 2003). The biopolymers must present thermal stability, flexibility, a barrier to gases and water, should be nontoxic, and biodegradable (Ali et al., 2010).

In this chapter, the processes for biopolymers extraction and its use in edible packaging to improve the quality and prolong the postharvest shelf life of produce and minimally processed foods are described, as well as its properties, factors influencing the stability, and the elaboration methods of edible coatings and films.

14.2 BIOPOLYMERS-BASED EDIBLE FILMS AND COATINGS

Biopolymers have properties for film formation and can be used as cost-effective constituents in the food industry for encapsulation of natural bioactive compounds. Moreover, they exhibit useful functional properties, including gelation, emulsification, and water-holding properties. These properties enable them to exert specific characteristics, such as appropriate appearance and texture, which promote consumer acceptance.

14.2.1 BIOPOLYMERS

According to European Bioplastics (2018), the term “biopolymer” is synonymous with the term “bioplastic.” The oil’s resources scarcity and the gradual decline in synthetic plastics have allowed to strive toward environmental sustainability (Bilal and Iqbal, 2019). Renewable biomaterials are safer and green options to reduce waste generation and environmental pollution. The development of innovative products from biopolymers has promoted the growth and development of ecological and sustainable processes allowing a sustainable economy (Bilal and Iqbal, 2019). Biopolymers, like polysaccharides, proteins, and lipids, are an alternative to traditional plastics and to produce edible coating and films (Espitia et al., 2014). Globally, consumers demand high-quality natural products obtained through economic processes that do not affect the environment. Biotechnology companies and researchers have proposed to develop biodegradable technologies with food principles from biopolymers (Mahalik and Nambiar, 2010) as composite films and coatings (Galus et al., 2013; Kurek et al., 2014). Food packagings are biodegradable technologies from hydrophilic and hydrophobic biopolymers with moisture and gas barrier properties.

14.2.2 POLYSACCHARIDES

Polysaccharides are composed of monosaccharides and glycosidic bonds, in addition to insoluble fibers (lignin, galactomannans, cellulose, and xylans) and soluble fibers (arabinoxylans, pectins, and arabinogalactans) (Caprita et al., 2010). Polysaccharides (NSP) without starch are principally without α -glucan polysaccharid.

Table 14.1 describes the parameters of the polysaccharides involved in film-forming.

All these factors (Table 14.1) influence the main functions, such as thickening, gelling, film-forming, foaming, and emulsification, which contributes to obtaining high-quality products with applications in the pharmaceutical and food industry.

Polysaccharides are widely available in nature, are not toxic, and inedible films have selective permeability to gases (Erginkaya et al., 2014).

14.2.3 PROTEINS

Proteins cover a large amount of polymeric type compounds that fulfill specific functions within plants and animals as the contribution of biological activity in addition to providing structure. Proteins are biomolecules made up of carbon, nitrogen, hydrogen, and oxygen,

TABLE 14.1 Factors that Affect the Film-Forming Properties

Factors	Film-Forming Properties
Structural conformation	Polysaccharide ordered conformations depends on the sugar residues and the glycosidic linkages. The linear polysaccharides produce good film because assume conformations ranging from a twofold helix to a sixfold helix that determines how extended the polymer is and how much can be associated to form hydrogen bonds, which are responsible for gelling, film formation, or thickening
Molecular weight	High molecular weight polysaccharides form stronger films
Ionic charge on the molecule	Ionic groups allow polysaccharides to be more polar by providing greater capacity to form hydrogen bonds
Steric groups	OH groups of the polysaccharides are esterified by ether substitution, altering the hydrogen bonds, and influencing the ability of the polysaccharides to form films

Sources: Patra et al. (2012), Sudo (2011).

which can also contain sulfur, phosphorus, iron, magnesium, and copper, among other elements. They are made up of amino acids, alpha-amino and alpha carboxyl groups, and a side chain with different functional groups. Present multiple functional properties due to intermolecular binding capacity to different bond types can be classified based on the ability of proteins to interact with water molecules. Protein structure can be modified through heat, modifying pH, pressure, mechanical treatments, and among others (Chiralt et al., 2017). Biodegradable materials have been sought for inclusion in the food industry, mainly of plant and animal origin, for its biodegradability and film-forming (Calva-Estrada et al., 2019).

Proteins, in general, have various properties, including that they are edible and can carry nutrients. When combined with some other components, they become materials with great advantages due to the networks that manage to develop when undergoing modifications (Gnanasekaran, 2019). Not only can these biopolymers be used in the food area but also in different aspects such as in medicine and engineering to rebuild or reinforce. In the food packaging industry, proteins from milk, gelatin, gluten, egg, zein, soy, among other sources are the most used because they can be consumed directly on food; however, despite the multiple studies that exist in this regard to improve and find the best alternatives that are biodegradable.

14.2.3.1 PLANT PROTEINS

14.2.3.1.1 Soy Protein

Its origin is agricultural and has been known since the 1930s. The main feature it has is its emulsifying and texturing capacity. Its grains contain approximately 40% protein, among which two main fractions have been identified: albumins that are water-soluble and globulins that are soluble in saline solutions, representing 80% of total proteins. Remaining proteins are composed of intracellular enzymes, hemagglutinins, protein inhibitors, and membrane lipoproteins (Kinsella, 1979), and major components are classified according to their sedimentation properties. Due to biodegradability and a nutritional mixture of proteins, soy proteins promote film-forming. Several studies have been reported on its use in the food industry and recently as packaging materials.

14.2.3.1.2 Wheat Proteins

Wheat proteins are classified for their solubility and functionality. These include albumins, globulins, gliadins, and glutenins (De la Vega, 2009). They can also be found classified as proteins belonging to or without gluten. Gluten proteins account for 80%–85% of total wheat proteins. Gluten proteins can be used for the manufacture of transparent

and homogeneous packaging with mechanical properties of interest.

14.2.3.1.3 Corn Zein

Zein is a natural protein generated by wet milling as a bioproduct. It is a protein derived from corn endosperm and is a biodegradable component. Zein is formed by polypeptides such as leucine, proline, alanine, serine and glutamine, and γ -zinc that has a high cysteine content. Jornet-Martínez et al. (2016) mentioned the amphipathic structure that is created and combines a helical structure with the polyproline, this results in a hydrophobic material, making it an alternative for food packaging.

14.2.3.2 ANIMAL PROTEINS

14.2.3.2.1 Whey Protein

The FDA reports that milk proteins must have all the proteins found naturally in milk and that they must be in the same relationships, while in the whey protein, isolates and concentrate are obtained by the elimination of nonprotein components and are casein free. These milk proteins have properties that can provide desirable textures and other attributes to the final product. They have multiple applications in traditional food products. Various types of milk protein, such as whey protein

concentrates, whey protein isolates, caseins and caseinates, and among others, can be obtained from waste generated by industrial complexes. Whey contains β -Lactoglobulins that are obtained as a residue from the cheese and casein industry (Fox et al., 2015), which provide the properties of solubility, thermal stability, emulsifying, and nutritional value (Walstra et al., 2005). Protein interactions that occur between chains determine the network formation of films and their properties.

14.2.3.2.2 Meat Proteins

They can be classified into three types: sarcoplasmic, stromal, and myofibrillar. Collagen is classified as a fibrous protein and is present in the skin, tendons, bones, and vascular and connective tissue of animals. Due to the presence of covalent bonds, it is said to form intermolecular bridges inside, and disulfide bonds are few due to the low amount of cysteine present. It consists of three parallel chains of the alpha type, which combine to give rise to a triple-stranded superhelical structure (Montalvo et al. 2012). Amino acid sequence is formed by a repeating chain of glycine-proline-hydroxyproline and has been used as packaging for sausages. Gelatin is generated when collagen is subjected to hydrolysis under acidic or alkaline conditions.

Gelatin has large amounts of proline, hydroxyproline, lysine, and hydroxylysine. It is used primarily as a texturing agent. Packaging from this component is usually clear and flexible but very hydrophilic. Moreover, in short, myofibrillar proteins are found in mammals and fish; they have a secondary structure, generating packaging with properties of permeability when subjected to previous denaturation processes (Dangaran et al., 2009).

14.2.4 LIPIDS

Lipids are a set of materials used in the manufacture of food packaging due to their hydrophobic properties. Within the components called hydrophobic substances, we find waxes, oils, and resins. Natural waxes such as candelilla wax, carnauba, bees, and among others are used in the industry. Oil-based waxes such as paraffin, petroleum-derived oils and vegetables, and resins are also found.

14.2.4.1 WAXES

In recent years, waxes have been used to give food, especially those of immediate consumption such as fruits and vegetables, a better look compared to the consumer. Waxes are known to several nonpolar components that can be synthetic or natural. Chemically they are esters

of fatty acids and long-chain fatty acids and are characterized by a high hydrocarbon content (approximately 50%) and a relatively low amount of volatile esters. Due to their nonpolar components, they form materials against humidity (Aguirre-Joya et al., 2017).

14.2.4.2 ANIMAL AND INSECT WAXES

They are as the name indicates the waxes that come from the segregation of certain insects or animals. Within this classification, they are distinguished into two subgroups: wax that comes from terrestrial and marine animals. From terrestrial animals, we find the lanolin that comes from wool and marine animals the Spermaceti, which is no longer marketed. However, the wax of greater industrial importance is beeswax. This compound is the final product of bee metabolism and is segregated by worker bee glands (Rhim and Shellhammer, 2005)

14.2.4.3 VEGETABLE WAXES

Vegetable waxes are the result of the climatic conditions in the regions where many plants are found. Generally, plants store waxes in the epidermis of their leaves as protection against water evaporation, especially in drought season. They are

classified into waxes of trees and shrubs and in turn from the section where the wax is found as leaves, stems, root, and among others. The most used commercial waxes are the carnaúba wax for the production of preservation agents, cleaning, emulsions, and among others. Another, the widely used waxes for the manufacture of cosmetics, foods, and pharmaceuticals is candelilla wax, which is generated in semidesert plants and is found in stems and leaves (Rhim and Shellhammer, 2005).

14.2.4.4 FATS

Fats are polar and neutral lipids insoluble in water with the ability to form a stable hydrophobic layer on a surface. They are used as emulsifiers and dispersing agents forming interfacial micelles. The classification of this group of lipids is given by two fractions: either by the degree of saturation (saturated and unsaturated) or by the length of the chain (short, medium, and long) (Isabel Castro-González, 2002). Saturated fats have a higher melting point and greater water permeability than unsaturated fats.

14.2.4.5 RESINS

Resin is a viscous substance from vegetable (hydroaromatic structure) or of synthetic origin (higher degree

of polymerization) with mechanical, emulsifying, and adhesive properties.

14.3 BIO-BASED POLYMERS EXTRACTION METHODS

Currently, there are several conventional and innovative methods for biopolymers extraction, where the yield depends mainly on geographical conditions of the raw material, physical, and chemical parameters, used solvent, and its polarity. Therefore, the different methods of extracting the main biopolymers as proteins, polysaccharides, and lipids are described below.

14.3.1 POLYSACCHARIDES

Natural polysaccharides such as mucilage, starch, and pectin, present selective permeability to gases (Ergincaya et al., 2014). The extraction of the polysaccharides is based on methods that use solvents, water, salts, and acids (Table 14.2).

14.3.2 PROTEINS

Proteins and peptides are obtained during the technological process, and many extraction methods involving enzymatic hydrolysis, and among others. Protein extraction methods are shown in Table 14.3.

14.3.3 LIPIDS

Lipids such as vegetable oils and waxes are a very heterogeneous family of compounds that minimize moisture loss, provide gloss, and flexibility, in addition to reduce complexity, and cost of films and edible coatings. They present hydrophobicity as a common characteristic and dissolve in organic solvents. In order to carry out the extraction of the most used lipids in films and edible coatings for its application in foods, several methods have been proposed (Tables 14.4–14.9).

14.3.3.1 VEGETABLE OILS

Vegetable oils as sunflower oil, jojoba oil, palm oil, coconut oil, and cocoa butter are mainly composed of triglycerides as palmitic acid, stearic acid, oleic acid, and linolenic acid. They are used in films and edible coatings with the aim of decrease intramolecular forces.

14.3.3.2 SUNFLOWER OIL

Sunflower oil is obtained from the sunflower seed and contains a high concentration of vitamin E and low levels of saturated fat. The pressing method is commonly used to extract sunflower oil. New methods have been developed for the extraction

TABLE 14.2 Main Methods of Polysaccharides Extraction

Polysaccharide	Extraction Method	Parameters (Weight, Volume, Pretreatment, Solvent, pH, Time, Temperature)	Yield (%)	Reference
Starch	Extraction with water	Potato (kg) = 1 Pretreatment process = sliced and crushed The solid residue was washed several times with distilled water to remove all the starch, was filtered and sedimented at the bottom, and finally drying the resulting paste on trays at room temperature	8.6–19.2	Zárate-Polanco et al. (2014)
Starch	Extraction with water	Banana flour (g) = 100 Pretreatment process = shelled, sliced, frozen, lyophilized and milled Solvent = distilled water	56.5	Bello-Lara et al. (2014)
Pectin	Extraction with salts	Banana flour (g) = 100 Pretreatment process = shelled, sliced, frozen, lyophilized and milled Salt = ammonium oxalate (0.05%) pH = 5.6 in a water bath and constant agitation	9.7	Bello-Lara et al. (2014)
Mucilage	Extraction with solvents	Opuntia ficus-indica (g) = 100 Pretreatment process = washed and milled Centrifuged for the aqueous phase = 5000 rpm for 30 min. Solvent ratio (aqueous phase: solvent (acetone)) = 1 : 3	0.8	Abrajan-Villaseñor (2008)
Mucilage	Extraction with solvents	Opuntia ficus-indica (g) = 100 Pretreatment process = washing, grinding and blanching Centrifuged for the aqueous phase = 5000 rpm for 30 min Solvent ratio (aqueous phase: solvent (acetone)) = 1 : 3	0.6	Abrajan-Villaseñor (2008)
Mucilage	Extraction with solvents	Opuntia ficus-indica (g) = 100 Pretreatment process = washed, ground and cooked Centrifuged for the aqueous phase = 5000 rpm for 30 min Solvent ratio (aqueous phase: solvent (acetone)) = 1 : 3 Washing the precipitate with ethanol and dried under vacuum	0.3	Abrajan-Villaseñor (2008)
Pectin	Extraction with acids and solvents	Pretreatment process = chopped, blanched, filtered, solid washed with ethanol, dried and weighed Dry and ground loquat (g) = 25 Acid = HCl 0.003 N $T = 90^{\circ}\text{C}$ $t = 75$ min 98% ethanol was added to the pectic solution to precipitate the pectin, leaving it at rest for 1 h The floating pectin was filtered and washed with ethanol	21–23	Chasquibol-Silva et al. (2008)

TABLE 14.3 Protein Extraction Methods

Extraction Method	Food	Reference
Cell disruption methods		
<i>Homogenization</i>		
<i>Milling and homogenization</i>	Rice	Toldra and Nollet (2013)
	Olive tree seeds	
	Green Alga	Wang et al. (2015)
<i>Ultrasonic homogenization</i>	Peanut	Wang (2017)
	Milk	Ashokkumar et al. (2010)
<i>Pressure homogenization</i>	Milk	(Doona and Feeherry (2008)
	Microalgae	Mulchandani, Kar and Singhal (2015)
<i>Temperature treatments</i>		
	Whey proteins	Schmid and Muller (2018)
<i>Enzymatic treatments</i>	Soybean	Ndlela et al. (2012)
		De Moura et al. (2011a)
	Algae	Wang et al. (2015)
<i>Osmotic and chemical lysis</i>	Lentils and White beans	Bildstein et al. (2008)
	Spiruline	Hadiyanto and Adetya (2018)
	Ginseng roots	Jiang et al. (2014)
Protein Solubilization/ Precipitation	Bovine serum	McArt et al. (2006)
	Soybean	De Moura et al. (2011b)
<i>Aqueous solutions</i>	Almond	Ge et al. (2016)

of sunflower oil, the most used is the extraction with solvents such as hexane, isopropyl alcohol, and petroleum ether (Table 14.4), where the hexane shows high yield at the 12 h of extraction. However, there are many environmental limitations regarding the use of solvents. It is also highlighting the use of solvents as the hexane and ultrasound irradiation, with the aim of decrease the extraction time in the process (90

min) in comparison with solvents extraction, obtaining high yields similar to those obtained in hexane extraction (Table 14.4).

14.3.3.3 JOJOBA OIL

Jojoba oil is obtained from seeds of the jojoba *Simmondsia chinensis*. Jojoba oil is of light color and contains a mixture of triglycerides

TABLE 14.4 Methods to Extract Sunflower Oil

Extraction Method	Parameters (w:v, Solvent, Temperature, Time)	Yield (%)	Reference
Extraction with solvents	Seed = 5 g Hexane = 200 mL $T = 100\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ $t = 8\text{ h}$	37.9	Fornasari et al. (2017)
Extraction with solvents	Seed = 5 g Petroleum ether = 200 mL $T = 100\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ $t = 8\text{ h}$	36.8	Fornasari et al. (2017)
Extraction with solvents	Seed = 50 g Hexane = 300 mL $T = 50\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ $t = 24\text{ h}$	54.3	Rai et al. (2015, 2016)
Extraction with solvents	Seed = 10 g Hexane = 200 mL $T = \text{Normal boiling point}$ $t = 4\text{ h}$	46.2	Ravber et al. (2015)
Extraction with solvents	Seed = 10 g Particle size = 2.0 mm Hexane = 100 mL $t = 12\text{ h}$ $T = 85\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	99.0	Luque-García and Luque de Castro (2004)
Extraction with solvents	Seed = 50 g Hexane = 189 mL $T = 69.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	44.4	Gallegos-Infante et al. (2003)
Extraction with solvents	Seed = 50 g Isopropyl alcohol = 159 mL $T = 82\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	43.4	Gallegos-Infante et al. (2003)
Ultrasound-assisted Soxhlet	Seed = 10 g Particle size = 2.0 mm Hexane = 100 mL $T = 85\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ Ultrasound irradiation of the cartridge for 30 cycles (90 min, output amplitude 40% of the nominal amplitude of the converter, applied power 100 W)	99.0	Luque-García and Luque de Castro (2004)

and long-chain esters of unsaturated fatty acids. Commonly, jojoba oil is obtained by pressing the seeds obtaining yields between 30% and 43% (Table 14.5), depending on the number of pressures that are applied during the process. The use of solvents such as hexane, chloroform, and petroleum ether, allows us to obtain yields of 52%–94.2%, 32.5%, and 92.2%, respectively, thus hexane being the most used solvent. The most recent method of extraction is a supercritical fluid, which uses a mixture of solvents as CO₂ + propane, CO₂ + ethanol, and hexane, obtaining yields of 98%, 80%, and 94%, respectively, and showing the highest yields (Table 14.5). CO₂ is also used; however, this method shows lower yields (44%–50.6%) in comparison with the disolvents mixture (Table 14.5). Therefore, the yields obtained by the supercritical fluid method depend on the polarity of the solvent, as well as the temperature and pressure applied in the process.

14.3.3.4 PALM OIL

Palm oil is rich in triglycerides and is extracted from the palm *Elaeis guineensis* Jacq. Yield depends on the variety of the palm (Table 14.6). Commonly palm oil is extracted by manual pressing with yields of 33%–35% of palmitic acid and 42.2%–43.3% of oleic acid

(Table 14.6), which are lower than those obtained by hydraulic and mechanical pressure (Table 14.6). Where the mechanical pressure of the seed pretreated with preheating, cracking, and flaking turned out to be the process with the highest oil yield (Table 14.6) compared to the hydraulic pressure process of the seed pretreated with preheating, cracking, and flaking (Table 14.6).

14.3.3.5 COCONUT OIL

Coconut oil is obtained from *C. nucifera*. Also, this oil does not undergo degradation at high temperatures. Coconut oil is commonly obtained by heating, where the coconut undergoes a process of cracking, flaking, and scratching of the pulp, to subsequently boil the pulp in water, and separate by density, with this process the highest oil yield is obtained (Table 14.7). The solvent extraction method, mainly with hexane, has the lowest oil yield (Table 14.7). Another innovative method for coconut oil extraction is the method of extraction with saline solution (sodium chloride salt) using temperature, which proved to obtain a yield of 60% (Table 14.7).

14.3.3.6 COCOA BUTTER

Cocoa bean (*Theobroma cacao*) consists mainly of cocoa butter,

TABLE 14.5 Main Methods of Jojoba Oil Extraction

Extraction Method	Parameters (Pressure, Solvent, Time, Number of Pressing, Temperature, Particle Size and Pretreatment Process)	Yield (%)	Reference
Supercritical fluid	Solvent = 30%CO ₂ + propane <i>P</i> (bar) = 70 <i>T</i> (K) = 313	98	Palla et al. (2014)
Supercritical fluid	Solvent = 30%CO ₂ + ethanol <i>P</i> (MPa) = 35 y 45 <i>T</i> (K) = 363	80	Salgin (2007)
Supercritical fluid	Solvent = ScCO ₂ <i>P</i> (bar) = 450 <i>T</i> (K) = 343	44	Salgin (2007)
Supercritical fluid	Solvent = ScCO ₂ <i>P</i> (bar) = 600 <i>T</i> (K) = 363	50.6	Salgin et al. (2004)
Extraction with solvents	Particle size (mm) = 0.48 mm Solvent = Hexane	55	Allawzi et al. (2005)
Extraction with solvents	Particle size (mm) ≤ 1 mm Solvent = Chloroform <i>t</i> = 18 h	32.5	Salgin et al. (2004)
Extraction with solvents	Relation Disolvent/solid (L/Kg) = 15 Solvent = Hexane <i>t</i> = 30 min <i>T</i> = 55 °C	94.2	Zaher et al. (2004)
Extraction with solvents	Relation disolvent/solid (L/kg) = 15 Solvent = Petroleum ether <i>t</i> = 30 min <i>T</i> = 55 °C	92.2	Zaher et al. (2004)
Extraction with solvents	Particle size (mm) ≤ 1 mm Solvent = Hexane <i>t</i> = 18 h	52	Abu-Arabi et al. (2000)
Traditional	Type of press = Hydraulic Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment process = none	35.4	Abu-Arabi et al. (2000)
Traditional	Type of press = Hydraulic Number of pressing = 2 Pretreatment process = Breaking	43.8	Abu-Arabi et al. (2000)
Traditional	Type of press = Rosedowns Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment process = Preheating	38.2	Rawles, (1978)
Traditional	Type of press = Hander Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment process = Preheating	35–39	Rawles, (1978)

TABLE 14.5 (Continued)

Extraction Method	Parameters (Pressure, Solvent, Time, Number of Pressing, Temperature, Particle Size and Pretreatment Process)	Yield (%)	Reference
Traditional	Type of press = Hander Number of pressing = 2 Pretreatment process = Preheating	40–42	Rawles, (1978)
Traditional	Type of press = Hander Number of pressing = 3 Pretreatment process = Preheating	43	Rawles, (1978)
Traditional	Type of press = Hydraulic Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment = Cracking and flaking	30.8	Spadaro and Lambou (1972)

TABLE 14.6 Methods to Extract Palm Oil

Extraction Method	Parameters (Variety of Plant Species, Type of Press, Pretreatment)	Yield (%)	Reference
Traditional	Variety of plant species = <i>D. x Ekona</i> Type of press = Manual Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment process = none	Palmitic acid = 33.1 Oleic acid = 43.3	Sandoval-García et al. (2016)
Traditional	Variety of plant species = <i>D. x Ghana</i> Type of press = Manual Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment process = none	Palmitic acid = 35.4 Oleic acid = 42.2	Sandoval-García et al. (2016)
Traditional	Variety of plant species = <i>D. x Nigeria</i> Type of press = Manual Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment process = none	Palmitic acid = 34.2 Oleic acid = 43.3	Sandoval-García et al. (2016)
Pressing	Variety of plant species = <i>E. guineensis</i> Jacq. Type of press = Mechanic Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment process = Preheating, cracking, flaking	97 y 99	Jaimes-M. et al. (2012)
Pressing	Variety of plant species = <i>Acrocomia aculeata</i> Type of press = Hydraulic Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment = Cracking and flaking	Lauric acid = 51.0	Hernández and Mieres-Pitre (2005)

TABLE 14.7 Main Methods of Coconut Oil Extraction

Extraction Method	Extraction Conditions (w: v, Pretreatment Process, Temperature, Time, Solvent)	Yield (%)	Reference
Traditional	Coconut pulp = 1350 g Pretreatment process = cracking, flaking, striped coconut $T = 98\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ $t = 2\text{ h}$	222	Da Silva-Rodríguez (2017)
Extraction with solvents	Relation disolvent/solid (mL/g) = 300/80 Solvent = Hexane $t = 1.5\text{--}2\text{ h}$ $T = 62\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	57–64	Rivera-Hernández et al. (2001)
Extraction with saline solution	Relation water/solid (mL/g) = 1000/75 sodium chloride salt (g) = 90 $t = 1\text{ h}$ $T = 60\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	60	Ramos-Ramírez and Salazar-Montoya (1995)

which is considered as unique, due to its chemical composition. Cocoa beans pretreated by fermentation, drying, and toasted give yields of 50% (Table 14.8). New methods have been implemented for the extraction of cocoa butter, as the supercritical method, that used pressure (35 MPa), temperature (60 °C), and mixture of solvents as CO₂ + 25% ethanol, CO₂ + 25% isopropanol, and CO₂ + 15% acetone obtaining yields of 100%, 96.7%, and 84%, respectively (Table 14.8). Other methods with high yield consist of the extraction with solvents as the *t*-butanol mixed with a solution of ammonium sulfate, where the system adjusts to

pH 2, and it is heated at 45 °C for 2 h (Table 14.8). Therefore, there is a demand for green technologies as the ultrasound-assisted supercritical method and supercritical method, using CO₂ as an extraction solvent, obtaining yields of 37.5% and 30.6%, respectively (Table 14.8).

14.3.4 WAXES

Waxes refer to a wide variety of substances of vegetable and animal origin because they comprise a mixture of several long-chain fatty acids and other components. Consumers prefer natural and sustainable

TABLE 14.8 Processes to Extract Cocoa Butter

Extraction Method	Extraction Conditions (w:v, Solvent, Pressure, Temperature, Time, Type of Press, Number of Pressing, Pretreatment Process)	Yield (%)	Reference
Supercritical	Cocoa beans (g) = 100 Solvent = CO ₂ P (bar) = 550 T (°C) = 40 t = 360 min	30.6	Rodríguez et al. (2014)
Supercritical	Cocoa beans (g) = 10 Solvent = CO ₂ + 25% ethanol P (MPa) = 35 T (°C) = 60 Flow rate = 2 mL/min	100	Asep et al. (2013)
Supercritical	Cocoa beans (g) = 10 Solvent = CO ₂ + 25% isopropanol P (Mpa) = 35 T (°C) = 60 Flow rate = 2 mL/min	96.7	Asep et al. (2013)
Supercritical	Cocoa beans (g) = 10 Solvent = CO ₂ + 15% acetone P (MPa) = 35 T (°C) = 60 Flow rate = 2 mL/min	84	Asep et al. (2013)
Supercritical	Cocoa beans (g) = 30 Solvent = ethane P (MPa) = 28.3 T (K) = 343.2	100	Saldaña et al. (2002)
Ultrasound-assisted supercritical	Cocoa beans (g) = 100 Solvent = CO ₂ P (bar) = 550 T (°C) = 40 t = 360 min Ultrasound irradiation (resonance frequency of 30 kHz and constant energy of 58 W)	37.5	Rodríguez et al. (2014)
Extraction with solvents	kokum kernel powder (g) = 1 Three phase partitioning system = distilled water (16 mL), ammonium sulphate (50% w/v) and t-butanol (0.5:1–3:1) pH = 2 t = 2 h T = 45 °C	95	Vidhate and Singhal (2013)
Traditional	Type of press = Mechanic Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment process = Fermentation, drying, toasted	50	Codini et al. (2004)

products, which increased the demand for natural waxes global (Attard et al., 2018), mainly the carnauba wax, candelilla wax, and beeswax.

14.3.4.1 CARNAUBA WAX

Carnauba wax is obtained the dried and crushed the palm leaves of *Copernicia prunifera* (Dantas et al., 2013). There are many environmental limitations regarding the use of dangerous solvents. There have been many efforts in order to find cleaner methods, one of these methods is the use of supercritical fluids (Table 14.9), such as CO₂ as a solvent which is inexpensive and completely inert (Palla et al., 2014). Also, obtaining a performance of carnauba wax superior (97%) to that obtained with the use of solvents (3.4%), due to the use of high pressures.

14.3.4.2 CANDELILLA WAX

Candelilla wax is obtained from *Euphorbia antisiphilitica* Zucc. The common name of the plant “candelilla” comes from the particular form of the stems of the bush, which are long, straight, erect, covered, with wax, and with the appearance of small candles (De León-Zapata, 2008; Rojas-Molina et al., 2013). Traditionally, candelilla wax is

extracted with concentrated sulfuric acid to separate the wax in the form of foam (Table 14.9). Candelilla wax is also obtained by solvent extraction as aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbons, but it is flammable and not renewable. Hence, an efficient, economical, and eco-friendly method is required as the extraction method with citric acid in combination with temperature and presion obtaining yields of 4–6% of wax (Table 14.9). Another method is the accelerated drying and scraping of candelilla stems obtaining a yield of 4% of wax (Table 14.9). However, it takes a lot of work and time since it is necessary to scrape stem by stem.

14.3.4.3 BEESWAX

The physicochemical properties of the wax depend on the bee species (Reybroeck et al., 2010). Commonly, the wax is extracted by methods that use heat to melt the wax (Table 14.9). In order to produce high-quality wax, it is recommended not to heat at too high temperature and for too long time, because that may damage darken its color. Wax should be heated in containers made of stainless steel. Combs containing fermented honey should not be melted in order to prevent wax off odor, and water with a low mineral content should be used to avoid the formation of water-wax emulsions (Bogdanov, 2004).

TABLE 14.9 Main Methods of Waxes Extraction

Wax	Extraction Method	Extraction Conditions (w:v, Solvent, Pressure, Temperature, Time, Flow Rate)	Yield	Reference
Carnauba wax	Supercritical fluid	Milled date palm leaves (g) = 100 Solvent = CO ₂ P (bar) = 400 T (°C) = 100 Flow rate = 40 g/min t = 2 h	97	Al Bulushi et al. (2018)
Carnauba wax	Extraction with solvents	Milled date palm leaves (g) = 10 Solvent = Heptane t = 5 h	3.4	Al Bulushi et al. (2018)
Carnauba wax	Dried and crushed	The leaves are collected, dried and crushed to open the plant tissue and then beaten to separate the wax as a powder	–	Morales-Hernandez (2015)
Candelilla wax	Organic acids	Candelilla stems (kg) = 1 Acid = 0.05% citric acid P (kg/cm ²) = 1.05 t = 5 min T = 100 °C	4–6	De León-Zapata et al. (2016)
Candelilla wax	Accelerated drying and scraping	Candelilla stems (kg) = 0.5 Drying = for 48 h at 40 °C	4	Ahumada-Lazo (2012)
Candelilla wax	Traditional	Candelilla stems (kg) = 1 Acid = concentrated sulfuric acid t = 30 min T = 90–100 °C	4	De León-Zapata (2008)
Candelilla wax	Extraction with solvents	Solvent = aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbons or a mixture of both t = 50 min T = 100 °C	–	Taboada-Reyes (1992)
Candelilla wax	Pressing	Type of press = Mechanic Number of pressing = 1 Pretreatment process = None	–	Treviño-García (1929)
Beeswax	Traditional	Extraction with hot water, steam, heat from electrical or solar power, to melt the wax	–	Bogdanov (2004)

14.4 EDIBLE PACKAGING FOR FOOD APPLICATION

The challenge of the agrifood industry is to maintain the quality and organoleptic properties of the fresh vegetable products. In this context, edible coatings have been incorporated in food processing, because they protect them from water loss during the transpiration in postharvest. Typically, the major constituents are biopolymers, mainly polysaccharides (e.g., chitosan), proteins (e.g., whey protein), and lipids (e.g., beeswax) that can be extracted from products and by-products of the agrifood industry. This section discusses the properties, qualities, and effect on shelf life extension that different materials used in the formation of edible coatings.

14.4.1 POLYSACCHARIDES, PROTEINS, AND LIPIDS FOR VEGETABLE PRODUCTS IN POSTHARVEST

Hydrocolloids (protein and polysaccharides), lipids (fatty acids, waxes, oils, and resins), and composites (interaction between hydrocolloids and lipids) (Dhall, 2013; Valencia-Chamorro et al., 2011) must be selected according to the ripening profile and the surface characteristics of the fruits and vegetables to be coated (Flores-López et al., 2016; Yousuf et al., 2018).

14.4.2 HYDROCOLLOIDS

Whey protein (Schmid et al., 2017), chia protein (Capitani et al., 2016), gelatin (Ahmad et al., 2012), soy protein (Yousuf and Srivastava, 2019), corn-zein (Boyacı et al., 2019), and among others are widely used for food packaging. Protein-based materials form coatings/films (Hassan et al., 2018) pliable, and translucent (Yousuf et al., 2018), and also present mechanical properties due to the possibility of forming different types of linkages; although their hydrophilic nature results in high water vapor permeability (Feng et al., 2018; Flores-López et al., 2016).

Polysaccharides have a selective permeability to gases (O_2 and CO_2); however, their hydrophilicity also influences their water vapor permeability. The most commonly used polysaccharides are alginate (Valero et al., 2013), chitosan (Vieira et al., 2016), pectin and cellulose (Moalemiyan et al., 2012; Pastor et al., 2010), starch (García et al., 2012), carrageenan (Hamzah et al., 2013) and, so on. The research into novel natural sources of polysaccharides for the build of edible coatings/films with improved properties has received world attention. Cerqueira et al. (2009) designed edible coatings based on galactomannans from *Adenanthera pavonina* and *Caesalpinia pulcherrima* seeds, to be applied in tropical fruits. Also,

Dick et al. (2015) investigated the effect of glycerol on the physico-chemical and mechanical properties of chia mucilage-based film. The films were found to have a uniform and transparency appearance as the glycerol concentration increased. The use of residues from the agri-food industry has also allowed us to obtain polysaccharides with properties to form bio-packaging. For instance, Torres-León et al. (2018) developed a new edible film based on mango (var. Ataulfo) by-products to extend the shelf life of peach. This improved surface properties and reduced gas transfer rates of the fruit.

14.4.3 LIPIDS

Lipids repel water due to its hydrophobic property (Hassan et al., 2018), in addition, its low gas permeability and its protective capacity in refrigeration conditions allow them to be an excellent alternative for nonclimacteric fruits (Flores-López et al., 2016). Within this group, the application of waxes and oils (synthetic and natural) has been a recurring activity since ancient times (Dhall, 2013). Paraffin wax and beeswax are the most effective lipid materials but alternative natural waxes have become more acceptable in recent years, as in the case of candelilla wax. Candelilla wax based coating formulations have been shown to

prevent senescence of strawberries (Oregel-Zamudio et al., 2017) and avocados (Saucedo-Pompa et al., 2009). However, lipid-based coatings are characterized by improperly adhering to the surface, promote anaerobiosis, and altering the appearance and taste of the product to be coated (Hassan et al., 2018; Flores-López et al., 2016; Perez-Gago et al., 2002).

14.4.4 COMPOSITES

Composites are defined as a blend of hydrocolloids (i.e., polysaccharides or proteins) and lipids (Dhall, 2013), in order to improve their characteristics (e.g., mechanical properties or permeability) while minimizing their drawbacks (Tharanathan, 2003; Valencia-Chamorro et al., 2009; Chiumarelli and Hubinger, 2014; Oliveira et al., 2018). Also, the use of composites can reduce the costs of the final coating/film.

14.4.5 USE OF NATURAL ADDITIVES IN EDIBLE PACKAGING

Fresh vegetable products coated with edible films are a reality (Hassan et al., 2018; Yousuf et al., 2018; Zhao, 2019) forming a barrier against microbial attack and growth, and gas exchange control (the main postharvest problems) (Ortega-Toro et al.,

2017; Ncama et al., 2018). Promoting the retention of nutritional quality (Figure 14.1). Also, these systems are capable of carrying natural bioactive compounds, for example, antimicrobial, antioxidant, nutrients, and flavorings, from various sources within their matrix (Hassan et al., 2018), limiting the use of synthetic chemicals due to their possible agrototoxicological effects on environment and consumers (Ponce et al., 2008; Vieira et al., 2016). Minimally processed vegetable products are extremely perishable, being more susceptible to the physical, enzymatic, microbiological, and consequently at organoleptic level (Yousuf and Srivastava, 2019; Thakur et al., 2019). The use of edible coatings/films becomes an indispensable alternative in their preservation and this

reality is triggered by the consumers' demand for durable, safe, and stable food without compromising the environment through nonbiodegradable packaging. Table 14.10 shows some recently developed works, with examples of base compositions with and without incorporation of bioactive/antimicrobial agents and their effects when applied to a determined fresh or minimally processed fruit or vegetable.

14.5 PRODUCTION OF EDIBLE COATINGS AND FILMS

Edible packaging can be edible films or coatings, edible coatings are liquid produced by wet methods, and films are solid laminates produced by dry methods.

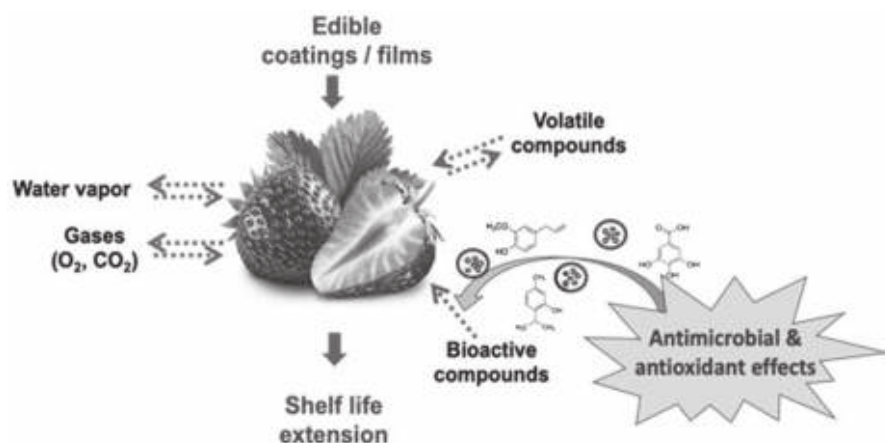


FIGURE 14.1 Edible coatings/films as gas and water vapor barrier and vehicle of natural additives to protect fresh vegetable products.

TABLE 14.10 Coatings/Films Applied in Fresh Vegetable Products

Base Composition	Bioactive Agent	Treatment Conditions	Microorganism Inhibited	Fruit/Vegetable		Shelf-life Improvement	References
				Fresh	Fresh-cut		
Starch	<i>Aloe vera</i>	Storage at 10 °C/85% RH for 7 days, then stored at 25 °C/85% RH for more 7 days	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> ; <i>Bipolaris spicifera</i> ; <i>Curvularia hawaiiensis</i>	Cherry tomatoes		Weight loss reduction, fungal inhibition, and good appearance promotion	Ortega-Toro et al. (2017)
Isolated soy protein	Honey	4 °C/16 days. Honey was applied in combination with coating	Total yeast and mold		Pineapple	Physicochemical and microbiological quality maintenance, extending shelf life up to two weeks	Yousuf and Srivastava (2019)
Shellac and gelatin		Storage at 25 °C for 30 days	Total yeast and mold	Banana		Physicochemical and microbiological quality maintenance, ripening process retarding, weight loss prevention, and good texture promotion	Soradetch et al. (2017)
Starch and glucose	–	Storage at 4 °C for 30 days	–	Cucumber		Ripening process retarding, weight loss prevention, partial barrier to O ₂ and CO ₂ , and WVP control. Also, antioxidant activity, proline, and soluble sugar content increased, while catalase and peroxidase activities and protein content decreased	Patel and Panigrahi (2019)
Chitosan and guar gum	–	4 °C/16 days	–	Shiitake mushroom (<i>Lentinus edodes</i>)		Higher tissue firmness, rate of declines in soluble protein and ascorbic acid slowed, increased the total soluble solids and reducing sugars, malondialdehyde and electrolyte leakage. Sensory evaluation confirmed the positive effects of coating	Huang et al. (2019)
Beetroot, corn, and pectin	–	Storage at 25 °C/80–85% RH for 30 days	–	Tomato		Prevents dehydration and senescence. Improves firmness and appearance. Retains the antioxidant content	Sucheta et al. (2019)

TABLE 14.10 (Continued)

Base Composition	Bioactive Agent	Treatment Conditions	Microorganism Inhibited	Fruit/Vegetable		Shelf-life Improvement	References
				Fresh	Fresh-cut		
Chitosan	<i>Aloe vera</i>	Storage at 5 °C/90% RH for 25 days	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	Blueberry		Weight loss prevention, additional barrier to reduce fungal contamination and good appearance promotion. The use of coating extended the shelf life for about 5 days	Vieira et al. (2016)
Cactus (<i>Opuntia dillenii</i>) polysaccharide	–	Storage at 5 °C for 5 days	Total viable counts	Potato		Browning suppression. Weight loss and microbial growth prevention. Respiration rate and total sugars control	Wu (2019)
Cassava starch and beeswax	–	Storage at 15 °C/90% RH for 15 days	–	Guavas		High WVP reduction. Delay in mass loss and chlorophyll. Physicochemical and organoleptic characterization indicated a quality maintenance and an extended shelf life	Oliveira et al. (2018)
Gellan	Geraniol and pomegranate extract	Storage at 5 °C for 7 days	Mesophilic bacteria, yeast and molds, and psychrophilic bacteria	Strawberry		Geraniol into gellan-based coatings improved the microbiological stability. Gellan-based coatings were found to be good vehicle of natural antimicrobials compatible with organic fresh food	Tomadoni et al. (2018)
Whey protein isolate nanofibrils	Trehalose	Storage at 4 °C for 10 days	–	Apple		Colorless transparent film on the apple surface. It delayed the browning process, the weight loss, and inhibited the total phenolics decreasing. Promotion of greater antioxidant activity and reduction of respiration rate, resulting in an increase of the shelf life.	Feng et al. (2018)

14.5.1 DRY PROCESSING

Biopolymers extracted from biomass, such as proteins, that behaves as thermoplastic materials which they are excellent for processing packaging by dry processing (Table 14.11).

Sustainable use of natural resources for the development of edible coatings and films has taken important global. The most used biopolymers for its elaboration are pectin (Lei et al., 2013; Younis and Zhao, 2019), starch (Galindez et al., 2019; Yildirim-Yalcin et al., 2019), cellulose, zein (Spasojevic et al., 2019), carboxymethyl cellulose (Ruan et al., 2019), methylcellulose (Matta et al., 2019), chitosan (Younis

and Zhao, 2019), agar (Wang et al., 2018), alginate (Salama et al., 2018; Fabra et al., 2018), konjac (Lei et al., 2019), carragenans (Tavassoli-Kafrani et al., 2015), gelatin (Dou et al., 2018), Cassia gum (Cao et al., 2018), mucilage (Gheribi et al., 2018), maltodextrin (Zhang et al., 2019), egg yolk (Fuertes et al., 2017), Tara gum (Ma et al., 2016), and many others. However, the methodology for its preparation is variable from the use of different temperatures, times, stirring, and concentration is according to each polymer used (Table 14.12).

Edible film production consists of solubilizing the base polymer and adding some plasticizer (glycerol)

TABLE 14.11 Main Methods for Obtaining Edible Films by Dry Processing

Methods	Process	Finality	Reference
Thermoforming	The biopolymer is heated and transformed	Elaboration of containers	Hernandez-Izquierdo and Krochta (2008)
Thermopressing	The biopolymer is subjected to high and low temperatures	Elaboration of multilayer materials	Hernandez-Izquierdo and Krochta (2008)
Extrusion	The biopolymer is subjected to shear, high-temperature compression, and cooling	Edible films manufacturing	Ullsten et al. (2006) Barone et al. (2006) Hernandez-Izquierdo et al. (2008) Krishna et al. (2012) Rouilly et al. (2006) Arvanitoyannis and Biliaderis (1999) Fishman et al. (2000) Flores et al. (2010) Li et al. (2011)

TABLE 14.12 Methods for Preparation of Edible Films

Polymer(s)	Concentration	Plasticizer	Time (min)	Temperature	Stirring (rpm)	Drying	Additives	Reference
Ulluco starch	2.0, 2.5, and 3.0% (w/v)	Glycerol (1.0% w/v)	5	95	NR	8 °C	NR	Galindez et al. (2019)
Sodium alginate Carboxymethyl cellulose	1:1 w/w	Glycerol (2.0% v/v)	90	50	NR	50 °C/12 h	Epigallocatechin gallate	Ruan et al. (2019)
Carboxymethyl cellulose	2% (w/v)	NR	NR	NR	NR	50 °C/15 h	Lactobacillus rhamnosus	Singh et al. (2019)
Chitosan	1.5% (w/v) in 1% v/v or acetic acid	Glycerol 18% (w/w)	4–6 h	30	8000	40 °C/36 h	Tween 80	Zheng et al. (2019)
Mucilage	2% (w/v)	Glycerol 25% (w/w)	15	25	500	35 °C/48 h	Tween 80	Ekrami et al. (2019)
Agar	1.5% (w/v)	Glycerol 30% (w/w)	30	95	20,000/2 min	40 °C/72 h	Cellulose	Wang et al. (2018)
Starch and protein	100:0, 90:10, 80:20, 70:30 60:40 and 50:50	Glycerol 20% (w/w)	5	90 °C	NR	35 °C	NR	Chinma et al. (2015)
Chitosan in lactic acid solution	2%; 1% v/v	NR	NR	NR	NR	NR	Essential oil of Thymus zygis	Ballester-Costa et al. (2016)
NaCas	7.5 g/100 g	Glycerol 0.32 (w/w)	2 h	25 °C	NR	23 °C/48 h (50%RH)	NR	Caprioli et al. (2009)
<i>Allysum homolocarum</i> seed gum	1.2% (w/v)	Glycerol (25, 30 and 45% w/w)	30	50 °C	400 rpm	40 °C/24 h (30% RH)	NR	Mohammadi-Nafchi et al. (2017)

NR: nonreported.

to prevent the film from fracturing once it dehydrates. The agitation and temperature depend on the polymer. The incorporation of additives depends on the use and application of the film and ranges from pure compounds, raw extracts, oils, waxes (to reduce permeability). Finally, they are dehydrated at temperatures not exceeding 50 °C for up to 48 h.

14.5.2 WET PROCESSING

Wet processing consists of dissolving the biopolymers with additives and conditioners; this is applied by immersion in the food promoting its spreading over the surface, and

finally, it dried by solvent evaporation (29.13). However, this procedure is not feasible at the industrial scale, mainly by the long drying time (24 h).

An alternative to overcome the various problems of food preservation is the development and application of composite coatings from polysaccharides (Formiga et al., 2019), proteins (Ananey-Obiri et al., 2018), or lipids (Rojas et al., 2015) on their blends. The main production processes of edible coatings are shown in Table 14.14.

In general, the production of edible coatings consists solubilize the polymer by up to 5% (depends on its solubility and its water retention

TABLE 14.13 Wet Processing to Produce Edible Coatings

Methods	Process	Finality	Reference
Tape casting	Film-forming solution is cast as a thin layer on a tape and is dried by heat conduction	Manufacturing of paper, plastic, ceramic, paint and edible, or synthetic films to coat paper, improved the barrier to transmission of oxygen, carbon dioxide, water vapor and UV radiation, in addition to the adherence, transparency, and oil resistance	De Moraes et al. (2013) Guillaume et al. (2010) Farris et al. (2010) Gastaldi et al. (2007) Han and Krochta (2001)
Edible coatings	Consists of dipping the food in the coating solution. The main parameters for the elaboration of the edible coating are the density, viscosity, superficial characteristics of product, and the surface tension	Preserve fresh products of vegetable and animal origin	Cisneros-Zevallos and Krochta (2003) Vargas et al. (2008) Kim et al. (2008)

TABLE 14.14 Methods for Preparation of Edible Coatings

Ingredients	Plasticizer	Conditions	Additives	Reference
Arabic gum, candelilla wax	NR	15,000 rpm/15 min	Tarbush extract (500 ppm)	Rojas et al. (2015)
Laquer wax 2%	Tefose ^o 2000	Dissolving wax in water at 60 °C/5 min	NR	Hu et al. (2019)
Corn starch 4%	Glycerol 1% v/v	Microwave heating (700 W) 10 min, stirring 5 min and pH 5.6	CaCl ₂ (2%)	De Oliveira Alves Sena et al. (2019)
Beeswax, hydroxypropyl methylcellulose, and stearic acid 5:1 (BW:SA)	Glycerol 2:1 (HPMC:Gly)	Microwave (90 °C), 1 min at 968 g and 3 min at 3871 g.	NR	Formiga et al. (2019)
Guar gum (0.8%, candelilla wax (0.2%),	Glycerol (0.3%)	Hot water (80 °C), 20,500 rpm/20 min	Gallic acid (0.15%)	Oregel-Zamudio et al. (2017)
Chitosan (1%) and carboxymethyl cellulose (1.5%)	NR	Solubilization at 80 °C (Chitosan) and stirring in acetic acid (0.7% w/v)/2h to CMC. pH 5.6	NR	Yan et al. (2019)
Carnauba wax (10 g), oleic acid (7.5 mL/100g)	NR	90–95 °C at 1200 rpm/3 min, pH 7 and finally dissolved	NR	Singh et al. (2016)
Carnauba and beeswax (20 g), ammonia solution (30%)	NR	Stirring 30 min/90 °C. add 20 mL water (100 °C) and finally stirring 60 min with hot water (150 mL)	NR	Motamedi et al. (2018)
Soy protein 5% (w/v)	Glycerol 3.5% (w/v)	Solubilization in hot water (90 °C)/30 min. pH adjusted at 10	Essential oil from thyme and oregano (1, 2, or 3%)	Yemis and Candogan (2017)
Peach gum (1%)	NR	90 °C/6 h, centrifuged 5000 g/10 min	NR	Li et al. (2017)

NR: nonreported.

capacity). The use of surfactants is more common. In the case of coatings, the particle size of the emulsion is of great importance, as it is homogenizes at up to 25,000 rpm. The use of additives depends on the purpose (antimicrobial and antioxidant).

14.6 STABILITY OF EDIBLE PACKAGING

The short shelf life of fresh and processed foods has been a human concern since food is scarce and population growth. Because of their physical structure (water activity, nutrients as carbohydrates, proteins, and minerals), foods are susceptible to microbial spoilage and degradation. Thus, microbiological and physiological activities play a role in quality degradation during storage. Nowadays there are some serious environmental and health problems due to plastic packaging uses and their disposal conditions (Haward, 2018; Chae and An, 2018; Windsor, 2019; Lebreton and Andrady, 2019). Promoting an environmental mentality and the development of various scientific studies to obtain edible and biodegradable packagings from natural sources like fruits and vegetables peels and kernels (Wu et al., 2019; Nawab et al., 2018) with good sensory attributes; high barrier and mechanical properties; biochemical, physicochemical, and microbial stability (Brody, 2011).

14.6.1 REORGANIZATIONS OF THE FILM MATRIX AND COATING

The contact of the packaging with the food depends on the molecular size of the biopolymer, the chemical nature of the compounds, the temperature and process conditions, and the film structure. When a coating is in contact with food, the film-coating evaporation flux at the interface between the film-coating/environment should be evaluated, as well as the coating absorption flux on the food due to the interface between the food/film-coating (Montero-Garcia, 2016). Edible films-coating needs one or more additives in order to carry functional compounds intended to provide the improved characteristics (sensory, nutritional, microbiological, enzymatic, color, and other chemical reactions). Reorganizations of the matrix depend on the type of polymer and its functional groups, the concentrations of plasticizers and additives added. A high concentration of additives could generate undesirable odors, turbidity, and promote lipid oxidation (Wambura et al., 2011). The dose of the active compounds needs to be relatively low (Silva-Weiss et al., 2013). The selection of natural additives and their application depends on their properties (antioxidant, antimicrobial, antibrowning), cost-effectiveness, and effect on the sensory attributes of the final product

(Perumalla and Hettiarachchy, 2011). The reorganization of the edible matrix is related to the wounding-to response of the biological material (starch crystallization, protein aggregation, and plasticizer migration), chemical degradation (lipid oxidation, nonenzymatic browning, degradation of active compounds), and enzymatic degradation (proteolysis). The starch crystallizes due to the plasticizers content (Perez Sira and Dufour, 2017) and has low stability upon storage due to retrogradation (recrystallization) process of starch. Retrogradation can be minimized by adding cellulose as a matrix filler (Benito-González et al., 2019). Plasticizers provide greater flexibility to the polymeric matrix and reduce the original brittleness of biopolymers. Plasticizers do not chemically interact with the backbone chain but position themselves between the polymer molecules to reduce polymer chain-to-chain interaction (Kadzińska et al., 2019). The most studied and suitable plasticizer is glycerol, due to its marked hydrophilic nature as compared to sorbitol (Jiménez et al., 2018). Nowadays the research has been focused on finding other sources of plasticizers, in order to fulfill the main limitations of glycerol use (high hydrophilicity, low thermal stability, and surface migration over time) (Blanco-Pascual, 2016). Gheribi et al. (2018) developed an edible film with a mixture of

mucilage from *Opuntia ficus-indica* cladodes and sorbitol as plasticizer, reaching water vapor permeability values up to three times lower than the other films evaluated. Other research works have a focus in using different materials, like chia seed mucilage (Dick et al., 2015), chitosan (Sabbah et al., 2019), epigallocatechin gallate and carboxymethyl cellulose (Ruan et al., 2019), and among others. Proteins can also have a similar function as a plasticizer, either both plant and animal sources, the amino acid functional groups in proteins can improve the stability and form an extended structure of the films. Formulations from polysaccharides and proteins show better structural properties than individual proteins (Cerqueira et al., 2011; Jiménez et al., 2018).

14.6.2 CHEMICAL DEGRADATION

Lipids used as hydrophobic material is well-known and is not strange its use as the barrier in foodstuffs; however, the inconvenience lays in the lipid oxidation. Lipid oxidation is a process that results in rancidity and deterioration of fats and progresses via free-radical propagated chain reactions, which yields hydroperoxides that cause a variety of secondary reactions with the evolution of aldehydes, ketones, acids, and other

low-molecular-weight volatile substances (Ramis-Ramos, 2003).

14.6.3 ENZYMATIC DEGRADATION

Minimally processed foods as fruits and vegetables (Yoruk and Marshall, 2003), meat and meat products (Hernandez-Hernandez, 2009) rich in phenolic components are subjected to the action of antioxidant enzymes. Postharvest oxidative stress occurs during storage, causing an imbalance between the production and removal of reactive oxygen species, such as H_2O_2 , O_2^- , and OH^- radicals, from the tissues. The protection of fruit or vegetable cells from oxidative injury depends on the enzymes and polyphenols level which scavenge the reactive oxygen species, and prevent harmful effects (Amiot et al., 1992; Zeng et al., 2010). Antioxidants and enzymatic inhibitors are used to prevent browning by the chemical reduction of quinones to colorless ortho-diphenol reduction agents (McEvily and Iyengar, 1992). Millard reactions take place if the temperature is increased and reducing sugars are present. Some reducing agents have been investigated to prevent the antioxidant reaction (Table 14.15). Butylated hydroxyanisole and butylated hydroxytoluene are the most commonly used synthetic antioxidants; therefore, natural antioxidants

such as phenolic compounds are alternatives to synthetic antioxidants (Chan et al., 2007; Jongjareonrak et al., 2008; Yen et al., 2008).

14.6.4 MICROBIAL GROWTH

Microbial growth in food products promotes deterioration and reduce the shelf life (Ding et al., 2013). Packaging provides some level of protection to food products from external and internal unfavorable conditions (Mihindukulasuriya and Lim, 2014). Those films have nutrients as substrates for microbial growth. In order to improve the efficiency and stability of edible coating-films, it is essential to find adequate materials (Flores-López, 2015). The incorporation of antimicrobial agents into the used in edible films could enhance its functional properties by retarding microorganism (Soares et al., 2009; Sirelkhatim et al., 2015; Malhotra et al., 2015). Essential oils and polyphenols (tannins, flavonoids, phenolic acids, secondary plant metabolites (Espitia et al., 2014) are listed in Table 14.2, as natural antimicrobials. A concern regarding some functional additives is their flavor and aroma. Sensory evaluation of edible films and food-stuffs packaged is scarce; however, many active compounds are known to be accepted by consumers (Otoni et al., 2017).

TABLE 14.15 Edible Coatings and Films with Natural Antioxidants.

Films Coating	Reduction agent	Application	Reference
Carboximethyl cellulose-based coating	Ascorbic acid	Apple	Saba (2016)
Apple-pectin edible coating		Persimmon	Sanchis (2016)
Aloe vera gel coating		Strawberry	Sogvar (2016)
Carrot puree, carboximethyl cellulose, corn starch, and gelatin edible films	Acetic acid and sodium bicarbonate	Carrot	Wang (2011)
Carrot puree-chitosan-starch	Cinnamaldehyde	Carrot	Wang (2015)
Starch coating	Yerba mate extracts and mango pulp	Mango	Reis (2015)
Xanthan gum nano-coating	Tocopherol	Apple	Zambrano-Zaragoza (2014)
		Apple	Galindo-Perez (2015)
	Cinamic acid	Pear	Sharma (2015)
Nanocapsules-xanthan gum coating	b-carotene	Melon	Zambrano-Zaragoza (2017)
Gum arabic, Aloe vera, chitosan coating	Thyme oil	Avocado	Sivakumar (2014)
Chitosan, carboxymethyl cellulose edible coating	Moringa leaf extract	Avocado	Tesfay (2017)
	Pineapple fruit extract	Apple	Supavanchi (2012)
Alginate edible coating	Plum extract	<i>Prunus salicina</i> Lindl.	Valero (2013)
	Sunflower oil	Kent mangoes	Robles-Sanchez (2013)
	Cinnamon and rosemary essential oils	Apple	Chiabrando (2015)
	Malic acid	Mango	Salinas-Roca (2016)
	Mango peel	Papaya	Valderrain-Rodriguez (2015)
	Lemon grass essential oil	Pineapple	Azaraksh (2014)

TABLE 14.15 (Continued)

Films Coating	Reduction agent	Application	Reference
Chitosan coating	chitosan	Strawberry	Petriccione (2015)
	Rosemary extract	Pear	Xiao (2010)
	cinnamon oil	Sweet pepper (Capsicum annuum L)	Xing (2011)
	cinnamon oil	Peach	Ayala-Zavala (2013)
	Trans-cinnamaldehyde	Melon	Carvalho (2016)
	Sodium chloride	Pear	Xiao (2011)
	Shrimp waste	Shrimp	Arancibia (2015)
	Pomegranate peel extract	Shrimp	Yuan (2016)
	chitosan	Kiwifruit	Drevinskas (2017)
Chitosan-aloe vera coating	NA	Blueberry (<i>vaccinium corymbosum</i>)	Vieira (2016)
Starch-gelatin edible film	NA	Grapes	Fakhouri (2015)
Pectin	Geraniol	Strawberry	Badawy (2016)
Hydroxymethyl cellulose, chitosan	Bergamot essential oil	Grapes	Sanchez-Gonzalez (2011)
Poly (butylene adipate co-terephthalate) PBAT	Oregano essential oil	Fish	Cardoso (2017)
Basil seed gum	Oregano essential oil	Apricot	Hashemi (2017)
Soy protein edible coating	Ferulic acid	Apple	Alvez (2017)
	Honey	Melon	Yousuf (2017)
Whitemouth croaker protein isolate	Oregano-clay	Papaya	Cortez-Vega (2014)

TABLE 14.16 Recent Antimicrobial Film-coating Studies

Film or Edible Coating	Antimicrobial Agent	Application	Target Microorganism	Reference
Chitosan-aloe vera coating	Aloe vera	Blueberry	<i>B. cinérea</i> , <i>P. expansum</i> , <i>A. niger</i>	Vieira (2016)
Chitosan, pectin	Trans-cinnamaldehyde	Papaya	Total aerobic, psychrotrophics, yeast, and molds count	Brasil (2012)
Chitosan edible film	Berberis crataeginas fruit extract and seed oil			
Soy protein film	Thyme and oregano essential oil	Beef	<i>E. coli</i> 0H157:H7, <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>P. Aeruginosa</i> , <i>L. plantarum</i>	Emiroglu (2010)
Gelatin-chitosan edible film	Guarana seeds (<i>Paullinia cupana</i>), leaves of boldolochile (<i>Peumus boldus Molin</i>), cinnamon barks (<i>Cinnamomum</i> sp), leaves of rosemary (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)	Laboratory level	<i>S. aureus</i> and <i>E. coli</i>	Bonilla (2016)
Zein films	<i>Zataria multiflora</i> Boiss essential oil and monolaurin	Meat	<i>E. coli</i> and <i>L. monocytogenes</i>	Moradi (2016)
Pectin-papaya puree	cinnamaldehyde	Laboratory level	<i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> , <i>L. monocytogenes</i> , <i>S. entérica</i> , <i>Choleraesuis</i>	Otoni (2014)
LLDPE	Clove essential oil	Chicken	<i>S. entérica</i> , <i>L. monocytogenes</i>	Mulla (2017)
Chitosan	Green tea extracts	Pork sausages	Total viable count, yeast, mold	Siripatrawa (2012)
	Titanium dioxide	Tomato	fungal	Kaewklin (2018)

KEYWORDS

- **natural polymers**
- **extraction**
- **properties**
- **stability**
- **food packaging**

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ABOUT THE EDITORS

Leopoldo Javier Ríos González, PhD, is Professor at the School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, México. He is a biologist chemist specializing in microbiology. He is an expert in the production of liquid and gas biofuels from biomass and is a member of the Bioenergy Thematic Network (REMBIO). Dr. Ríos-González has developed research funded by the Secretariat of Agricultural and the National Council of Research and Technology and has handled projects with industry. He has published research papers in international journals and is a member of the National Researchers System in México.

José Antonio Rodríguez-De La Garza, PhD, has been a full-time Professor since 2008 at the School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Mexico, in the area environmental biotechnology. He currently is head of the biotechnology PhD program at the same institution. Dr. Rodríguez-De la Garza is developing a research project funded by the State Council of Science and Technology of Coahuila. He has published research papers in journals and book chapters and has participated and contributed in over 40 scientific meetings.

Miguel Ángel Medina Morales, PhD, is Professor at the School of Chemistry, Autonomous University of Coahuila, Mexico, in the area environmental biotechnology. He is a member of the National Researchers System (SNI). In 2017 he was part of a research team that was honored with the Tritio Award given by the Autonomous University of Coahuila. He has published over 14 papers in scientific journals and several book chapters.

Cristóbal Noé Aguilar, PhD, is Director of Research and Postgraduate Programs at the Universidad Autónoma de Coahuila, Mexico. Dr. Aguilar has published more than 160 papers in journals, more than 40 articles in Mexican journals, and 250 contributions in scientific meetings. He has also published many book chapters, several Mexican books, four editions of international books, and more. He has been awarded several prizes and awards, the most important of which are the National Prize of Research 2010 from the Mexican Academy of Sciences; the prize “Carlos Casas Campillo 2008” from the Mexican Society of Biotechnology and Bioengineering; National Prize AgroBio–2005; and the Mexican Prize in Food Science and Technology.

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