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Additional Information

1 **IMPROVING FUNCTION OF BIOCONTROL AGENTS INCORPORATED IN**
2 **ANTIFUGAL FRUIT COATINGS. A REVIEW.**

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6 **ABSTRACT**

7 The in-field performance of microbial biocontrol agents against fungal pathogens in
8 fruit is subject to considerable variability due to their sensitivity to both adverse
9 environmental conditions and their fluctuations. Therefore, to achieve an adequate
10 development and implementation of biological agent-based products, it is necessary to
11 improve their resistance and ability to control fungal diseases under a wide range of
12 conditions. In this review, an overview of the latest strategies for the enhancement of
13 the action of biocontrol agents is given. The combination of the antagonists with edible
14 polymers able to form coatings is one of the approaches with the greatest potential and
15 it is analysed in depth. This formulation approach of biocontrol products, including
16 adequate microbial protectants, can yield stable products with high microbial viability,
17 ready for field applications, with improved adherence and survival of the biocontrol
18 agent once applied in plant. The most recent studies into this field are reviewed and
19 summarized.

20 **Key words:** antagonists, biological control, biocontrol products, edible coatings,
21 postharvest decay

22 1. INTRODUCTION

23 Fruit losses caused by fungal diseases both in the field, during storage and under
24 commercial conditions can reach more than 25% of the total production in industrialized
25 countries, and over 50% in developing countries (Nunes, 2012; Spadaro & Gullino,
26 2004). Fungal diseases can be somewhat controlled by using non-chemical methods or
27 non-selective fungicides, such as sodium carbonate, sodium bicarbonate, active chlorine
28 and sorbic acid, although synthetic fungicides, applied both in orchard and post-harvest,
29 represent the most widely-used method to control fungal diseases, with several
30 shortcomings.

31 Firstly, synthetic pesticides are a source of environmental contamination and have a
32 long degradation period (Tripathi & Dubey, 2004). Secondly, the use of these chemicals
33 may lead to the presence of residues in food, which represent a toxicological hazard to
34 human health. This is of particular importance in the case of fruit, since nowadays there
35 is a rising consumer awareness of the need to follow a healthier diet, in which the role
36 of fruit is essential. Ultimately, the continued use of chemical fungicides has generated
37 the occurrence of resistance in the pathogen populations and, consequently, some of
38 them have become ineffective against such strains (Panebianco et al., 2015; Tripathi &
39 Dubey, 2004; Vitale, Panebianco & Polizzi, 2016). Consumer awareness in this regard
40 has motivated an increasing demand for a reduction in the use of potentially harmful
41 chemicals in order to obtain fruit free of pesticide residues (Liu, Sui, Wisniewski,
42 Droby & Liu, 2013). Additionally, the authorities have developed stricter regulatory
43 policies that require the search for eco-friendly strategies as an alternative to the
44 chemical control of fungal decay.

45 In the past thirty years, the use of biocontrol agents (BCAs) or biological control has
46 been considered as one of the approaches with the greatest potential against fungal
47 pathogens, either alone or as part of integrated systems for pest management (Spadaro
48 & Gullino, 2004). Consequently, extensive research has been devoted to exploring and
49 developing this field, as recently reported by Spadaro & Droby (2016).

50 Fungi, yeasts and bacteria are potential microorganisms to be used as antagonists for
51 controlling the post-harvest diseases of fruits and vegetables. An ideal BCA should
52 meet a number of requirements, as reported by several authors (Abano & Sam-Amoah
53 2012; Droby, Wisniewski, Macarisin & Wilson, 2009; Sharma et al., 2009). The
54 characteristics of an ideal antagonist are that it must be: genetically stable, effective at
55 low concentrations, undemanding in terms of its nutrient requirements, capable of
56 surviving under adverse environmental conditions, effective against a wide range of
57 pathogens in different commodities, amenable to production on inexpensive growth
58 media, amenable to formulation with a long shelf-life, easy to dispense, resistant to
59 chemicals used in the post-harvest environment, not detrimental to human health,
60 compatible with other chemical and physical treatments and not detrimental to the
61 quality of the fruits and vegetables it preserves.

62 An extensive body of research has been devoted to the understanding of the
63 mechanisms by which BCAs exert their action against pathogens. Nonetheless, in many
64 cases, the suggested modes of action whereby antagonists wield their biocontrol effect
65 are not totally elucidated, especially due to the fact that several mechanisms frequently
66 take place at the same time since and successful BCAs are generally equipped with
67 several attributes which often work in concert and may be crucial for controlling disease
68 development (Droby et al., 2009; Jamalizadeh et al., 2011; Janisiewicz & Korsten,
69 2002). Despite the difficulties, insight into the action modes involved will permit an

70 improvement in both the biocontrol performance and the development of appropriate
71 formulations and methods of application. Competition for nutrients and space between
72 the pathogen and the antagonist is considered to be the major mode of action, but other
73 mechanisms such as parasitism, the production of secondary metabolites or the
74 induction of host defences, have also been reported, as shown in Table 1.

75 The potential BCAs often show some significant limitations, such as their sensitivity to
76 both adverse environmental conditions and their fluctuations, and their narrow range of
77 activity because BCAs act on specific hosts against well-defined pathogens (Spadaro &
78 Gullino, 2004). For these reasons, the performance of biological-based control strategies
79 in the field is subject to significant variability which constitutes a significant constraint
80 to their practical implementation (Droby et al., 2009; Wisniewski et al., 2007). In these
81 sense, different approaches have been reported to make the BCAs more efficient: the
82 use of mixed cultures (Conway, Janisiewicz, Leverentz, Saftner & Camp, 2007;
83 Panebianco, Vitale, Polizzi, Scala & Cirvilleri, 2016), their physiological manipulation
84 (Usall et al., 2009; Wang, He, Xia, Yu & Zheng, 2014) and their combination with
85 different types of substances (Guo et al., 2014; Qin et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2016). The
86 application of BCAs in combination with coating materials has been reported to
87 enhance the BCA effectiveness at inhibiting the growth of plant pathogens, as discussed
88 in the next section.

89 **2. EDIBLE COATING FORMULATIONS FOR ANTIFUNGAL CONTROL** 90 **ON FRUIT**

91 The application of commercial coatings is a common practice for many fruits. These
92 coatings are generically known as waxes, since their composition is based on paraffin
93 wax or a combination of various other waxes, such as beeswax or carnauba. They are
94 anionic microemulsions that may also contain synthetic components, such as

95 polyethylene and petroleum waxes, ammonia or morpholine, which are applied to
96 reduce fruit weight loss and shrinkage, while improving their appearance and physical
97 resistance. Commercial waxes are often amended with synthetic fungicides in order to
98 control post-harvest diseases (Palou et al., 2015).

99 However, due to the potential hazards of synthetic coatings, such as the presence of
100 potentially toxic substances on the fruit surface, the use of edible coatings (ECs) as a
101 replacement for these currently-used commercial waxes has been widely studied. Then,
102 the use of edible coatings (ECs) to protect fruits from fungal decay at postharvest
103 conditions cannot be considered as a new approach anymore, since there are a great
104 number of studies dealing this topic, in which different matrices and active compounds
105 are used, such as EOs and food preservatives (Table 2). However, the use of ECs to
106 carry antagonistic microorganisms, to be used at both pre and post-harvest conditions, is
107 an area that has been less widely explored.

108 Coating formation on the surface of a product implies the application of a film-forming
109 solution or dispersion of a polymeric material with filmogenic capacity (Campos,
110 Gerschenson & Flores, 2011). Those coatings and films obtained with food-grade
111 polymers/ingredients can be eaten as part of the whole product and their use is
112 interesting for fruits and vegetables which can be directly consumed. Therefore, the
113 composition of ECs and films must conform to the regulation that applies to the food
114 product concerned (Guilbert, Gontard & Cuq, 1995).

115 Their basic components are typically hydrocolloids (polysaccharides and proteins) and
116 lipids, and these can either be used individually or in combination, in order to obtain
117 composite or blend coatings. The composite coatings take advantage of the specific
118 functional characteristics of each group, reducing their drawbacks (González-Martínez
119 et al., 2011). Other components, such as plasticizers and emulsifiers (or surfactants),

120 may be added to the matrices as a means of improving the flexibility, extensibility
121 and/or the stability of the structure (Palou et al., 2015). Moreover, formulations can act
122 as carriers of a very wide range of other minor compounds, such as antioxidants,
123 antimicrobials, certain nutrients like vitamins, volatile precursors, flavours, firming
124 agents or colorants (González-Martínez et al., 2011). Multilayer coatings applied by the
125 “layer by layer” technology have also described as effective enhancers of fruit quality
126 during storage, optimizing the coating functionality through the complementary
127 properties of different hydrocolloids (Poverenov et al., 2014). Additionally, ECs may be
128 used as carrier matrices of bioactive compounds to enhance the safety and the quality of
129 fruit (Quirós-Sauceda, Ayala-Zavala, Olivas & González-Aguilar, 2014). Bioactive
130 compounds can be carried by the ECs to the fruit skin by diffusion release, which is
131 controlled by their solubility and permeability in the polymer matrix. Table 2 shows
132 some examples of different coatings applied to fruits and vegetables to improve their
133 quality preservation, using different polysaccharide or protein matrices.

134 Polysaccharides are the most commonly used components in fruit ECs, probably due to
135 their better microbial and physical stability over time in comparison with protein-based
136 coatings, especially in high relative humidity environments (González-Martínez et al.,
137 2011). Other compounds which are commonly used in fruit ECs are lipids, which have
138 low water vapour permeability and are very useful for controlling their desiccation
139 (Vargas et al., 2008). In fact, TAL-Prolong and Semperfresh are two commercially
140 available composite coating formulations based on carboxymethylcellulose, sucrose
141 fatty acid ester, sodium salt and an emulsifier, used for the shelf-life extension of
142 bananas and other fruits (Nisperos-Carriedo, Baldwin & Shaw, 1992; Tharanathan,
143 2003).

144 Intensive research has been devoted to the application of ECs as a means of improving
145 the quality and shelf-life of fruit. For instance, Fakhouri, Martelli, Caon, Velasco & Mei
146 (2015) studied the effect of ECs based on native and/or waxy corn starch and gelatine
147 on the quality of grapes; Nadim, Ahmadi, Sarikhani & Amiri Chayjan (2015) applied
148 methylcellulose-based coatings to strawberries for the purposes of studying their quality
149 throughout storage; and Muangdech (2016) developed ECs based on aloe vera gel,
150 chitosan and carnauba wax to study the post-harvest storage life of mango. These are
151 only some recent examples of the numerous studies published on this topic.

152 As far as the prevention of microbial decay is concerned, especially that caused by fungi
153 in fruit, ECs and films based on the biopolymer components (with the exception of CH)
154 are not capable of accomplishing this task. Hence, in order to obtain ECs with
155 antifungal properties, food-grade antimicrobial agents have to be incorporated into the
156 formulations (Liu, 2009; Palou et al., 2015). In this sense, the use of ECs containing
157 antimicrobial substances may be more efficient than the direct application of
158 antimicrobial agents, given that active compounds may selectively and gradually
159 migrate from the coating onto the surface of the fruit, helping to maintain a high
160 concentration of bioactive compounds where needed (Elsabee & Abdou, 2013; Quirós-
161 Saucedo et al., 2014).

162 According to Palou et al., (2015), the antifungal compounds that can be incorporated
163 into ECs might be classified in the following categories: (a) synthetic food preservatives
164 or GRAS compounds with antimicrobial activity, which include some organic and
165 inorganic acids and their salts (benzoates, carbonates, propionates or sorbates) and
166 parabens (ethyl and methyl parabens) and their salts, among others; (b) natural
167 compounds, such as EOs or other natural plant extracts (capsicum, carvacrol, cinnamon,
168 cinnamaldehyde, citral, eugenol, grape seed extracts, lemongrass, propolis extract,

169 oregano, rosemary, thyme oil, vanilla, vanillin, etc.); (c) antimicrobial antagonists, such
170 as BCAs. Several studies have been summarized in Table 2.

171 **3. EDIBLE COATINGS CONTAINING BIOCONTROL AGENTS**

172 BCA agents can also be incorporated to the coating-forming formulations to obtain
173 coatings or films loaded with the antagonist cells, with the ability to maintain their
174 viability and allowing for cell distribution on the coated product. In this sense, the
175 coating-forming formulations should contain components which not only allow for
176 coating formation, but also be compatible with the cells and provide them an adequate
177 substrate for nutrition and growth. An ideal formulation for BCA-coating product must
178 be: 1) water soluble or dispersible, without organic solvents toxic for cells, 2) able to
179 maintain or increase cell population when applied in the product, 3) able to impart gloss
180 and modulate plant respiration and 4) contain safe ingredients for the final consumers.
181 Likewise, in the case of formulated BCAs with coating-forming agents, these should
182 provide adequate properties to maintain microbial and physical stability of the
183 formulation during storage throughout the commercialization period. The latter aspect is
184 highly dependent on the final format of the product (liquid or dried products).

185 In comparison with the large number of studies dealing with the incorporation of
186 antifungal compounds into ECs for fruit applications, there is little information about
187 coatings including antifungal microbial antagonists for the purposes of controlling fruit
188 pathogens. Some studies were published in the 1990s, but there has been little recent
189 research. This approach, consisting of the combination of BCA and coatings as a means
190 of preserving fruit from fungal decay has proven to be effective. This effectiveness is
191 attributed to the advantages of both strategies, which are summarized in Figure 1.

192 While BCA endows the coating with antifungal capacity, the coating provides good
193 adherence (binding element) and survival (potential nutrient) to the BCA, protecting

194 them against ultraviolet (UV) radiation, desiccation, and rain and temperature variations
195 in the field (Potjewijd, Nisperos, Burns, Parish, & Baldwin, 1995). Likewise, coating-
196 forming agents can improve the stability and dispersability of cell suspensions, which
197 could allow for a more homogeneous spatial distribution on the fruit surface. All these
198 aspects may extend the time available for the BCA to multiply and become established
199 (Cañamás et al., 2011). This is of vital importance in the case of antagonists whose
200 main mechanism of action is competition for nutrients and space, since to successfully
201 compete with pathogens, there has to be a sufficient quantity of cells at the correct time
202 and location (El-Ghaouth, Wilson & Wisniewski, 2004; Sharma et al., 2009).

203 ECs can also exert a direct effect against a pathogen both via their intrinsic antifungal
204 properties or by acting as a mechanical barrier to protect fruit (Chien, Sheu & Lin, 2007;
205 Meng, Qin & Tian, 2010). When the EC exhibit antifungal properties (e.g. chitosan
206 based coatings) it could negatively influence the viability and performance of the BCA.
207 Therefore, in the design of the coating formulation aimed to carry microbial antagonists,
208 the study of their compatibility is required in order to optimize their ability and efficacy
209 in improving the performance of the microorganisms under practical conditions.

210 As regards the technique whereby the combined application of ECs and BCAs takes
211 place, some authors have reported the separated application of the EC and the BCA
212 suspension, where the microbial antagonists might be applied before or after coating
213 (Meng, Qin & Tian, 2010; Rahman, Mahmud, Kadir, Abdul Rahman & Begum, 2009).

214 Another option is the incorporation of the BCA directly into the coating-forming
215 dispersion and then their joint application in only one step (McGuire & Baldwin, 1994;
216 Aloui, Licciardello, Khwaldia, Hamdi & Restuccia, 2015; Marín et al., 2016)

217 Meng et al. (2010) applied the yeast *Cryptococcus laurentii* on grapes at pre-harvest and
218 then, the treated fruit was coated with CH solutions. The results revealed that the

219 combined treatments enhanced the control of the fungal decay of grapes. Rahman,
220 Mahmud et al. (2009) applied separated suspensions of the BCA *Burkholderia cepacia*
221 and CH on papaya at post-harvest, in combination with CaCl₂, as stimulant of the
222 antagonistic activity, showing that the combination of the different treatments resulted
223 in a more effective disease control. In these particular cases, the coating performed
224 more as an additional treatment than as a support for the BCA due to the antifungal
225 properties of the polysaccharide.

226 As concerns the joint application of coating agent and BCA in only one step, several
227 recent studies have been reported (Aloui et al., 2015; Marín et al., 2016; González-
228 Estrada, Carvajal-Millán, Ragazzo-Sánchez, Bautista-Rosales & Calderón-Santoyo,
229 2017). Aloui et al. (2015) incorporated the BCA *Wickerhamomyces anomalus* into
230 sodium alginate and locust bean gum coatings to control the growth of *Penicillium*
231 *digitatum* on oranges. These authors reported that the coatings maintained more than
232 85% of the initial BCA and that this combination completely inhibited the pathogen.
233 Similarly, Marín et al. (2016) applied on grapes several formulations of ECs, based on
234 polysaccharides or proteins, as support of the BCA *Candida sake* for the purposes of
235 controlling the pathogen *Botrytis cinerea*. The study showed that the adherence and
236 survival of the BCA was improved with the combined application and consequently a
237 better control of the fungal decay was observed. In the same way, González-Estrada
238 (2017) reported that the incorporation of the antagonist *Debaromyces hansenii* in a
239 coating matrix based on arabinoxylan allowed for a maintenance of more than 97% of the
240 initial yeast population. Moreover, they observed that the application of yeast entrapped
241 in the coating improved its efficacy against blue mold decay under storage of lime.
242 Different studies regarding the combined application of edible and commercial coatings
243 containing antagonistic microorganisms are summarized in Table 3. In the reported

244 studies the applied concentrations of the different BCA ranged from 10^7 to 10^9 CFU per
245 millilitre of coating suspension, depending on the antagonist, whereas greater
246 differences can be found in the concentration of solids in the coating dispersions (Table
247 3). In some of the studies, concentrations lower than 1% of coatings solids were applied
248 while percentages up to 20% were used in others cases. This is an important factor since
249 the amount of coating solids will affect not only to the final price if the commercial
250 application is intended, but also the efficacy of the BCA. Marín et al. (2016) observed
251 that a minimum value of the polymer:CFU ratio is required to observe significant
252 increase in the BCA population with respect to the control application (without coating)
253 in grapes. Similarly, Parafati et al. (2016) tested different concentrations of locust bean
254 gum dispersions incorporated with two yeasts and observe that the highest percentage of
255 coating solids enhanced to a greater extent their activity against blue mould decay of
256 mandarin.

257 In general, an enhancement of the BCA viability on the fruit surface and an increased
258 control of the pathogens can be achieved with combined applications of BCA and ECs,
259 even in applications carried out in the field (Cañamás et al., 2008b, Cañamás et al.
260 2011, Calvo-Garrido et al., 2013). Nevertheless the specific mechanisms whereby a
261 determined ECs influence the performance of a determined microbial antagonist, and
262 also their effects of pathogen, require further studies

263 **4. FORMULATION OF BIOCONTROL AGENTS WITH COATING-** 264 **FORMING AGENTS**

265 A biocontrol product (BCP) could be defined as a mixture of the active ingredient
266 (BCA), a carrier providing physical support for the microorganism, which can be liquid
267 (aqueous dispersion) or a dried powder, It is common practice to incorporate adjuvants
268 and/or protectants, which can be incorporated at different points, such as in the mass

269 production, formulation and storage steps or just before the application in the mixing
270 tanks (Cañamás et al., 2008a; 2008b). Additives can be used as stickers, diluents,
271 suppressants, dispersants, emulsifiers, wetters, gelants, humectants, brighteners,
272 spreaders, stabilizers, sunscreens, synergists, thickeners, nutrients, binders, or
273 protectants, depending on their function in the formulations. As previously described,
274 some of these functions can be accomplished by components of ECs.

275 The formulation of BCAs with EC agents can enhance their efficacy, extend the range
276 of conditions over which they are effective, increase their ability to withstand drastic
277 changes in the phyllosphere and improve their survival under unfavourable
278 microclimatic conditions (Cañamás et al., 2011). In this sense, the formulation process
279 is decisive and has a significant influence on the successful delivery of the antagonists,
280 the shelf-life and storage requirements of the BCP and on its cost (Janisiewicz &
281 Korsten, 2002; Spadaro & Gullino, 2004; Yáñez-Mendizábal et al., 2012).

282 In comparison with the large number of effective antagonists under laboratory
283 conditions, the success of formulated BCA-based products has been limited and just a
284 few products have reached advanced stages of development and commercialization.

285 Generally, information on the specific composition and production of formulations of
286 commercial BCA is largely proprietary (Sztejnberg, 1993; Howard Davies, Ebbinghaus,
287 GÖRTZ & Carbonne, 2014; Brandi, Trainer & Westerhuis, 2016). Table 4 summarizes
288 some characteristics for different comercial BCP. As can be observed, the concentration
289 of BCA varies between 10^8 - 10^{10} CFU or conidia/g, depending on the product, and the
290 ratio of BCA:inert solids, also differs for the different products. For instance, Aspire™
291 a bioproduct based on *Candida oleophila*, contains 55% of the yeast isolate and 45% of
292 inert ingredients, while Bio-Save 10 LP, based on *Pseudomonas syringae* only contains
293 30% of the bacteria and 70% of other ingredients.

294 Some of the reasons for the limited success of BCA-based commercial products are the
295 inconsistency and variability of the efficacy under commercial conditions, the narrow
296 tolerance to fluctuating environmental conditions of the BCAs and the difficulties in
297 developing shelf-stable formulated products that retain a biocontrol activity similar to
298 that of the fresh cells (Janisiewicz & Jeffers, 1997; Usall et al., 2009). Another
299 drawback is the difficulty involved in the market penetration and perception of the
300 customers/industry and small-sized companies whose available resources are too low to
301 maintain development and commercialization (Spadaro & Droby, 2016).

302 According to Melin, Håkansson & Schnürer (2007) an ideal BCP should satisfy a set of
303 criteria. It should: be inexpensive to produce, be easy to distribute to the intended
304 environment, have a long shelf-life, preferentially also upon storage at ambient
305 temperature and be easily rehydrated (in the case of dry formulations). Finally, the
306 biocontrol activity must be maintained through all the formulation steps, long-term
307 storage and rehydration. Coating-forming agents can contribute to improve the
308 properties of formulations from different points of view, depending on kind of
309 formulation (physical state), as discussed below.

310 Liquid formulations are aqueous suspensions which consist of biomass suspensions in
311 water or oils, or combinations of both (emulsions) (Schisler, Slininger, Behle &
312 Jackson, 2004). They are the simplest way to stabilize the viability of microbial cells,
313 but require refrigeration (Droby, Wisniewski, Teixidó, Spadaro & Jijakli, 2016). In
314 aqueous formulations of BCA cells, different substances may be incorporated to adjust
315 the water activity (a_w) to obtain the same water chemical potential of the cells (isotonic
316 solutions).

317 Some examples of the liquid formulation of different BCA have been reported by
318 several authors: *Candida sake* CPA-1 formulated in isotonic solutions (Abadias et al.,

319 2003); heat-adapted *Candida sake* CPA-1 cells and combined with an EC (Cañamás et
320 al., 2011); *Cryptococcus laurentii* and *Pichia membranaefaciens* with sugar protectants
321 and antioxidants (Liu et al., 2009) and *Pichia anomala* with different substances (Melin,
322 Schnürer & Håkansson, 2011). For their part, Batta (2007) and Peeran, Nagendran,
323 Gandhi, Raguchander & Prabakar (2014) developed formulations of different BCAs
324 supported in emulsions. Coating forming agents could enhance the stability of the
325 emulsions without implying relevant changes in the a_w , because of their high molecular
326 weight, and could also play a nutrient and protectant role for the cells.

327 In general, dry formulations have a longer shelf life and exhibit a lower risk of
328 contamination than liquid ones, and allow for easier transport, distribution, storage and
329 manipulation (Fravel, 2005; Usall et al., 2009). However, they also present some
330 shortcomings, such as a marked loss of viability in the cells not only during dehydration
331 and storage but also during the subsequent rehydration process (Melin, Håkansson,
332 Eberhard & Schnürer, 2006).

333 Dry formulations of BCAs take several forms. Wettable powders consist of dry inactive
334 and active ingredients (BCA cells) intended to be applied as a suspension in liquid.
335 Dusts are powder-like and consist of dry inactive and active ingredients to be applied
336 dry, generally to seeds or foliage. Granules are described as free-flowing aggregated
337 products composed of dry inactive and active ingredients (Schisler et al., 2004). Dry
338 formulations can be applied directly to the target plant or, in the case of wettable
339 powders and water dispersible granules, mixed into water where the suspension of
340 biomass and inactive ingredients are applied as a spray.

341 The inactive ingredients of dry formulations act as carriers of the antagonists and may
342 be organic (grain flours, powders from plants, starches and their derivatives, etc.) or
343 mineral (peats, talc, diatomaceous earths, kaolin, clay, etc.) (Mokhtarnejada, Etebariana,

344 Fazelib & Jamalifarb, 2011; Schisler, Slininger & Olsen, 2016). The use of coating-
345 forming agents as carriers in the formulation of dry BCP can represent several
346 advantages. The EC compound would firstly act as support for the BCA cells during the
347 drying and storage steps and, when applied, the EC would provide the BCA with the
348 previously described benefits, such as an improved adherence and survival on the fruit
349 surface or as a source of nutrients. Wettable powders or water dispersible granules
350 would be the most adequate forms for dry BCA-EC formulations, since previous water
351 dispersion of coating-forming agents is necessary to form the ECs. Moreover, the
352 polymeric nature of the coating-forming agents confer them high values of the glass
353 transition temperature and water sorption capacity, which contributes to limit the
354 product a_w after drying, while they have a high value of the critical water content for
355 plasticization, which benefit the physical stability of the product.

356 There are few publications on the use of EC-forming agents as support for microbial
357 antagonist based formulations and, in most of the cases, different kinds of starch and
358 derivatives are the used ingredients. This is because the production cost is a key factor
359 that must be borne in mind and kept to a minimum (Melin et al., 2011), and starch is
360 low cost and readily available. Lewis, Fravel, Lumsden & Shasha (1995) obtained
361 granular formulations using pre-gelatinized starch and the BCA *Gliocladium virens* and
362 Mounir et al. (2007) used maize starch to produce a formulation of *A. pullulans*. More
363 recently, Soto-Muñoz et al. (2015) and Gotor-Vila et al. (2017) developed different dry
364 formulations of *Pantoea agglomerans* and *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* respectively
365 using native potato starch as carrier and Marín, Atarés, Cháfer & Chiralt (2017)
366 characterized the most relevant properties of formulations of *Candida sake* based on
367 pre-gelatinized starch and maltodextrins.

368 Dehydration is a very critical step since not all microorganisms are amenable to drying
369 and many tend to lose viability during both the drying process and subsequent storage.
370 For that reason, many approaches have been developed in order to reduce the losses in
371 viability, such as adding protectants to growth media or directly to cells (Abadias,
372 Torres, Usall, Viñas & Magan, 2001; Schisler et al., 2016; Yáñez-Mendizábal et al.,
373 2012). Of the protectant agents, skim milk and sugars, used either alone or in
374 combination, have been widely used because of their relatively low prices and
375 chemically innocuous nature (Costa, Usall, Teixidó, Torres & Viñas, 2002; Khem,
376 Woo, Small, Chen & May, 2015; Santivarangkna et al., 2008). Sugars, especially
377 disaccharides, are able to protect the cell membranes from dehydration (Leslie, Israeli,
378 Lighthart, Crowe & Crowe, 1995). The proteins present in milk provide a protective
379 coat for the cells and seem to restore injured cells during dehydration, avoiding osmotic
380 shock, disruption and the death of cells (Champagne, Gardner, Brochu & Beaulieu,
381 1991). Many coating-forming agents such as whey protein and maltodextrins has been
382 reported as excellent cell protectants during drying of different microorganisms,
383 especially probiotics (Eratte et al. 2015; Huang et al. 2017; Liao et al. 2017).

384 The classical dehydration processes applied to obtain BCPs are freeze-drying, spray-
385 drying and fluidized-bed drying. Although these methods present several differences,
386 the inclusion of cells in a carrier containing protectants or different adjuvants before the
387 drying step is common to all methodologies. In this sense, biopolymers used as coating-
388 forming agents could act as effective carriers together with other cell protectant agents.

389 **4.1 Stability of biocontrol formulations during storage**

390 The preservation of the cell viability during fermentation, drying, storage and
391 rehydration is one of the main goals of the formulation process (Schisler et al., 2004).
392 After the drying process, storage conditions have a great influence on the shelf-life of

393 the dry BCP. The final moisture content or, preferably, a_w of the products, and
394 temperature and relative humidity conditions during storage can profoundly affect the
395 survival of BCA in the formulations (Fravel, 2005). Therefore, all of these parameters
396 deserve careful research in order to maintain the formulation in optimal conditions for
397 its further applications (Torres et al., 2014).

398 Low moisture content after the drying process and its maintenance at the same level
399 during storage has been reported as being critical to the preservation of cell viability.
400 Dunlap & Schisler (2010) obtained dried granules based on *Cryptococcus flavescens* in
401 an inert support with different moisture contents using a fluidized-bed dryer and
402 evaluated its storage stability at 4°C for up to one year. These authors reported that 4%
403 moisture content (the lowest tested) had the best long-term survival (1 year). Mokiou &
404 Magan (2008) found that a moisture content of >10% was best for the viability of
405 *Pichia anomala* formulations obtained by fluidized bed drying. Nevertheless, more than
406 moisture content, a_w is the most critical parameter at defining the cell viability
407 preservation during storage. Recently, Marín et al. (2017) reported that the viability of
408 *Candida sake* formulated in starch derivatives by fluidized bed drying was greatly
409 affected by the product a_w (or RH of equilibrium); the lower the a_w the higher the cell
410 viability preservation during storage. There are few reports dealing with the influence of
411 a_w during storage on BCA-formulations and the majority of the published studies have
412 been carried out using probiotics. Miao et al. (2008) observed that the retention of the
413 cell viability of *Lactobacillus paracasei* and *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* was greatest for
414 cells stored at a_w of 0.11 and compromised at higher a_w . Likewise, Poddar et al. (2014)
415 studied the viability of dried *Lactobacillus paracasei* during storage at 25°C under
416 different a_w . These authors reported that, at a_w of 0.11, cell viability loss was minimal,
417 while viability was lost in all powders within 22 days at a_w of 0.52. Recently, Agudelo,

418 Cano, González-Martínez & Chiralt (2017) reported that the lower the a_w of whey
419 protein-maltodextrin based formulations of *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* the better the cell
420 preservation during storage.

421 At high humidity conditions, water act as a plasticizer and increases the molecular
422 mobility of the components of the dry formulations (Poddar et al., 2014). This increase
423 results in caking and the crystallization of the amorphous structures and in an
424 instantaneous loss of microbial viability during storage. The glassy (non-crystalline)
425 state has been shown to enhance the storage life (Miao et al., 2008; Poddar et al., 2014).
426 In this sense, coating-forming agents increase the critical water content for the powder
427 plasticization, which contributes to enhance both physical and microbial stability.

428 Additionally, the shelf-life of dry products containing microorganisms is highly
429 dependent on the storage temperature. In general, as the storage temperature increases,
430 mortality also increases and storage time is reduced (Costa et al., 2002). This has been
431 attributed to the fact that temperatures between 4 and 10°C cause a slowing down of
432 both cell division and metabolic rate in microorganisms and, in this situation, cells are
433 capable of withstanding the depletion of nutrients and the accumulation of toxic
434 metabolites (Mejri, Gamalero & Souissi et al., 2013).

435 Several studies have reported the effect of the storage temperature on the viability of
436 different biological formulations. Abadias, Teixidó, Usall, Benabarre & Viñas (2001)
437 reported that storage at 4°C was required to maintain the viability of *Candida sake* cells
438 obtained by freeze-drying. Likewise, Torres et al. (2014) studied the viability of freeze-
439 dried *Pantoea agglomerans* cells, which was significantly higher at -20 and 5°C, as
440 opposed to at 25°C. Similar tendencies have been reported by other authors for different

441 microorganisms (Kinay & Yilniz, 2008; Melin et al., 2011; Spadaro, Ciavorella, Lopez-
442 Reyes, Garibaldi & Gullino, 2010).

443 **5. FINAL REMARKS**

444 From a practical point of view, the obtaining of BCPs competitive in price and
445 effectiveness, with easy distribution in the market, offers many advantages both to the
446 production sector and to consumers. For producers, the BCA-based products might be a
447 way of reducing both the losses caused by fungal diseases and the presence of pesticide
448 residues on their fruit, thus being able to respond to the increasing consumer demand
449 for chemical-free products. For agrochemical companies, BCPs might represent a
450 viable alternative to gain access to both the organic fruit and vegetable markets and to
451 integrated production systems, which have shown huge potential in the last few years.
452 Dry formulations of BCA with edible coating-forming agents, including adequate
453 microbial protectants, can yield stable products with high microbial viability, ready for
454 field applications, with improved adherence and survival of the biocontrol agent once
455 applied in plant. Likewise, polymeric coating-forming agents exhibit high glass
456 transition temperatures and water sorption capacity, which contributes to limit the
457 product a_w after drying, while they have a high value of the critical water content for
458 plasticization, which benefits the product physical stability. On the other hand, the
459 control of the product a_w after drying and the storage conditions (temperature and water
460 impermeable packaging) are key factors to guarantee the stability and efficacy of BCP
461 in field applications. An ideal coating agent aimed to act as carrier of a BCA would be
462 one capable of supporting the antagonist cells when applied on fruit and during the
463 storage of the final product, both from a nutritional point of view but also regarding
464 their stability. Moreover, it should be adequate to participate in the formulation
465 processes and also inexpensive in order to ensure a competitive final price.

466 Therefore, more studies are necessary to elucidate the best polymer and protectant
467 components of the BCA formulation, the more adequate drying conditions and the
468 optimal storage conditions of the BCP in order to extend shelf life for crop applications.

469

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843 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

844 **Figure 1.** Advantages of the joint application of biocontrol agents and edible coatings.

845 **Table 1.** Representative antagonistic fungi, bacteria and yeasts used as biocontrol agents and suggested mechanisms of action
 846

Biocontrol agent	Mechanism of action	Source	Pathogen	Application	Reference
<i>Bacillus amyloliquefaciens</i>	Competition for nutrients and space, production of secondary metabolites	Apple	<i>Botryosphaeria dothidea</i>	Apple	Li et al. (2013)
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Competition for nutrients and space, production of secondary metabolites	Soil and stone fruit	<i>Monilinia fructicola</i>	Stone fruit	Yáñez-Mendizábal et al. (2012)
<i>Cryptococcus laurentii</i>	Competition for nutrients	Pear	<i>Penicillium expansum</i>	Pear	Zeng et al. (2015)
<i>Hanseniaspora uvarum</i>	Competition for nutrients and space, induction of host defense	Strawberry	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i> <i>Rhizopus stolonifer</i>	Strawberry	Cai, Yang, Xiao, Qin & Si (2015)
<i>Metschnikowia pulcherrima</i>	Competition for nutrients, parasitism	Fig	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i> <i>Cladosporium cladosporioides</i> <i>Monilia laxa</i> <i>Penicillium expansum</i>	Apple and nectarine	Ruiz-Moyano et al. (2016)
<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i>	Competition for space and nutrients, attachment to pathogen, parasitism	Plum	<i>Monilinia fructicola</i>	Plum	Janisiewicz, Jurick, Vico, Peter & Buyer (2013)

<i>Penicillium oxalicum</i>	Induction of host defense	-	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i>	Melon and watermelon	De Cal, Sztejnberg, Sabuquillo & Melgarejo (2009)
<i>Pichia membranaefaciens</i>	Competition for nutrients and space, attachment to pathogen, induction of host defense		<i>Colletotrichum gloeosporioides</i>	Citrus	Zhou, Zhang & Zeng (2016)
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Induction of host defense	Grape	<i>Aspergillus</i> spp.	Grape	El-Shanshoury, Bazaid, El-Halmouchm & Ghafar (2013)
<i>Trichoderma</i> spp.	Competition for nutrients and space, induction of host defense, production of secondary metabolites, parasitism	Soil	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i>	Melon	Gava & Pinto, 2016

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852 **Table 2.** Edible coatings carrying different antimicrobial agents with antifungal effects in different fruits. AG: Arabic gum; AV: aloe vera; CH:
853 chitosan; CMC: carboxymethylcellulose; EOs: essential oils; G: gelatin; HPMC: hydroxypropylmethylcellulose LBG: locust bean gum; MC:
854 methylcellulose; P: pectin; QP: quinoa protein; S: starch; SB: sodium benzoate; SP: soy protein; SEP: sodium ethyl paraben; SMP: sodium
855 methyl paraben; WP: whey protein
856

Matrix	Antimicrobial agent	Application	Pathogen	Additional beneficial effects	Reference
CH	Citral, lemongrass EO	Lime and orange	<i>Penicillium digitatum</i> <i>Penicillium italicum</i>	-	El-Mohamedy, El-Gamal, & Bakeer (2015)
CH	Thyme or cinnamon EOs	Strawberry	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	-	Mohammadi, Hashemi & Hosseini (2015)
CH	AV	Blueberry	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	Slowing down of water and weight loss and preservation of pH values and total soluble solids	Vieira et al. (2016)
CH, AG	AV, Thyme EO,	Avocado	<i>Colletotrichum gloeosporioides</i>	Slowing down of weight loss and preservation of firmness and flesh colour	Bill, Sivakumar, Korsten & Thompson (2014)
CH, LBG	Citrus EOs	Date	<i>Aspergillus flavus</i>	-	Aloui et al. (2014)
CMC, MC, CH	-	Strawberry	Molds and yeasts	Slowing down of weight loss and preservation of total soluble solids, pH	Gol, Patel & Rao

				values, titratable acidity, ascorbic acid content, phenolic compounds and anthocyanins	(2013)
G, shellac	-	Banana	Molds and yeasts	Delay of ripening process	Soradech, Nunthanid, Limmatvapirat, & Luangtana-anan (2017)
HPMC, beeswax	(NH ₄) ₂ CO ₃ , NH ₄ HCO ₃ , NaHCO ₃	Plum	<i>Monilinia fructicola</i>	-	Karaca, Pérez-Gago, Taberner & Palou (2014)
HPMC, beeswax	SMP, SEP, SB	Cherry tomato	<i>Alternaria alternata</i>	Preservation of firmness and slowing down of respiration rate and weight loss	Fagundes, Palou, Monteiro & Pérez-Gago (2015)
QP, CH, sunflower oil	-	Blueberry	Molds and yeasts	Preservation of firmness	Abugoch <i>et al.</i> , (2016)
S	AV	Cherry tomato	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i>	Slowing down of weight loss	Ortega-Toro, Collazo-Bigliardi, Roselló, Santamarina, Chiralt (2017)
S, gum	Ascorbic acid, CaCl ₂ , cinnamon	Fresh-cut apple	Molds, yeasts, aerobic mesophilic and	Preservation of firmness, delay of browning, respiration rate and CO ₂ and	Pan, Chen & Lai (2013)

	oil		psychrophilic	ethylene production	
SP	Limonene	Lime	<i>Penicillium italicum</i>	Slowing down of water loss and preservation of colour	González-Estrada, Chaliér, Ragazzo-Sánchez, Konuk, & Calderón-Santoyo (2017)
WP, P	-	Strawberry	Molds and yeasts	Slowing down of respiration rate	Valenzuela <i>et al.</i> , (2015)
WP, P	-	Fresh-cut apple	Molds and yeasts	Slowing down of weight loss and preservation of firmness	Rossi Marquez <i>et al.</i> , (2017)

857 **Table 3.** Edible coatings containing biocontrol agents and different coating forming agent concentration (CFA: wt. %) applied to preserve
 858 different fruits against target pathogens. A: arabinoxylan; C: cellulose; CMC-Na: carboxymethylcellulose sodium; GlyCH: glycolchitosan;
 859 HPC: hydroxypropylcellulose; LBG: locust bean gum; MC: methylcellulose; NaAL: sodium alginate; NaCas: sodium caseinate; S: starch; PP:
 860 pea protein.
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CFA	wt. %	Biocontrol agent	CFU/ml	Fruit	Pathogen	Reference
A	1	<i>Debaromyces hansenii</i>	10 ⁸	Lime	<i>Penicillium italicum</i>	González-Estrada, Carvajal-Millán, Ragazzo-Sánchez, Bautista-Rosales & Calderón-Santoyo (2017)
CMC, HPC, MC	2	<i>Candida guilliermondii</i>	2.3·10 ⁸	Orange	<i>Geotrichum candidum</i>	Potjewijd et al. (1995)
		<i>Debaromyces spp.</i>	1.7·10 ⁸		<i>Penicillium digitatum</i>	
					<i>Penicillium italicum</i>	
CMC-Na	0,3	<i>Rhodospiridium paludigenum</i>	10 ⁸	Jujube	<i>Alternaria alternata</i>	Wang et al. (2011)
C, shellac, sucrose ester	-	<i>Candida oleophila</i>	4·10 ⁸	Grapefruit	-	McGuire (2000)
		<i>Pseudomonas spp.</i>	8·10 ⁹			
Commercial EC	5	<i>Candida sake</i>	5·10 ⁷	Grape	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	Cañamás et al. (2011)*

(Fungicover®)						Calvo-Garrido et al. (2013)*
	5	<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i>	2·10 ⁸	Orange	<i>Penicillium digitatum</i>	Cañamás et al. (2008b)*
Commercial wax	20	<i>Pichia guilliermondii</i>	10 ⁸	Orange	<i>Penicillium italicum</i>	Lahlali et al. (2014)
GlyCH	0,2	<i>Candida saitoana</i>	10 ⁸	Apple, citrus	<i>Diplodia natalensis</i> <i>Penicillium digitatum</i> <i>Penicillium italicum</i> <i>Phomopsis citri</i>	El-Ghaouth, Smilanick & Wilson (2000)
HPC, MC	4, 2	<i>Candida oleophila</i> <i>Cryptococcus albidus</i> <i>Rhodotorula mucilaginosa</i>	4·10 ⁸	Grapefruit	-	McGuire & Baldwin, 1994
HPMC, NaCas, PP	S, 2	<i>Candida sake</i>	5·10 ⁷	Grape	<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	Marín et al. (2016)
LBG	0.5, 1	<i>Aureobasidium pullulans</i> <i>Metschnikowia pulcherrima</i> <i>Wickerhamomyces</i>	10 ⁹	Mandarin	<i>Penicillium digitatum</i> <i>Penicillium italicum</i>	Parafati, Vitale, Restuccia & Cirvillieri, (2016)

		<i>anomalus</i>				
Shellac	-	<i>Candida oleophila</i>	$4 \cdot 10^8$	Grapefruit	<i>Penicillium italicum</i>	McGuire & Dimitroglou (1999)
NaAL	2	<i>Cryptococcus laurentii</i>	10^9	Strawberry	Non specified	Fan et al. (2009)
NaAL, LBG	2, 1	<i>Wickerhamomyces anomalus</i>	10^7	Orange	<i>Penicillium digitatum</i>	Aloui et al. (2015)

862 *Field application

863 **Table 4.** Some characteristics of different commercial biocontrol products.

Product	Biocontrol agent	Concentration	Application	Crop	Physical state
AQ-10-biofungicide™ Fargro Ltd (West Sussex, UK)	<i>Ampelomyces quisqualis</i>	5·10 ⁹ spores/g	Pre-harvest	Apple, curcubits, grape, strawberry,	Solid
Aspire™** Ecogen, Inc., (Langhorne, PA, USA)	<i>Candida oleophila</i>	2·10 ¹⁰ CFU/g	Post-harvest	Apple, citrus, pear	Solid
Binab™ Binab USA, Inc. (Bridgeport, CT, USA)	<i>Trichoderma harzianum</i> , <i>T. polysporum</i>	10 ⁵ spores/g	Pre-harvest	Strawberry	Solid
Bio-Save 10LP, 11LP, 110™ JET Harvest Solutions (Longwood, FL, USA)	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i>	9·10 ¹⁰ CFU/g	Post-harvest	Apple, citrus, cherry, pear, potato	Solid
BlightBan A506™ Nufarm Americas Inc. (Burr Ridge, IL, USA)	<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	10 ¹⁰ CFU/g	Pre-harvest	Apple, pear, potato, strawberry	Solid

BoniProtect™	<i>Aerobasidium pullulans</i>	5·10 ⁹ CFU/g	Pre-harvest	Apple	Solid
Bio-Protect Gmbh (Konstanz, GER)					
Botry-Zen™	<i>Ulocladium oudemansii</i>	2·10 ⁸ spores/g	Pre and post-harvest	Grape, kiwi	Solid
Botry-Zen Ltd. (Dunedin, NZ)					
Candifruit™**	<i>Candida sake</i>	10 ⁹ CFU/ml	Pre and post-harvest	Apple	Liquid
Sipcam Iberia (Valencia, SP)					
Nexy™	<i>Candida oleophila</i>	8·10 ⁹ CFU/g	Post-harvest	Banana, citrus, pome fruit	Solid
BioNext sprl (Gembloux, BE)					
Serenade™	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	10 ⁹ – 10 ¹⁰ CFU/g	Pre-harvest	Apple, grape, pear, vegetables	Solid and liquid
Bayer Crop Science (Leverkusen, GE)					
Shemer™	<i>Metschnikowia fructicola</i>	1.6·10 ¹⁰ CFU/g	Pre and post-harvest	Apricots, citrus, tropical fruits, grape, peach, strawberry	Solid and liquid
Bayer Crop Science (Leverkusen, GE)					
Trichodex™	<i>Trichoderma harzianum</i>	10 ⁹ spores/g	Pre-harvest	Grape	Solid
Makhteshim-Agan (DeCeuster,					

BE)

Yieldplus™**

Cryptococcus albidus

Not available

Pre and post- Pome fruit
harvest

Not available

Anchor Yeast (Cape Town, SA)

864 *CFU/g (*colony forming units per gram*)

865 ***Not currently commercialized*

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