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9 **Alginate-based Edible Coating Impregnated with Phenolic-rich**
10 **Extract from Acorns Improves Oxidative Stability and Odor Liking in**
11 **Ready-to-Eat Chicken Patties**

12 **Running title:** *Edible Coatings in Ready-to-Eat Patties*

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14 **ABSTRACT**

15 This study was designed to analyze the efficacy of alginate-based coating impregnated
16 with phenol-rich extract from acorns (*Quercus ilex subsp. Ballota*) on the extent of lipid
17 and protein oxidation and odor liking in ready-to-eat (RTE) chicken patties. Depending
18 on the coating and the addition of acorn extracts, 3 groups of chicken patties were
19 considered, namely control (CON, no coating), coated with alginate edible films (FILM)
20 and coated with alginate films impregnated with acorn extract (FILM-ANTIOX). Further,
21 all patties were analyzed at three processing stages, namely, cooked chicken patties
22 (COOKED); cooked and refrigerated chicken patties (CC); and cooked, refrigerated and
23 reheated chicken patties (CCR). The application of FILM-ANTIOX led to a significant
24 increase in protection against oxidative deterioration of lipids and proteins, intensifying
25 the reddish color of reheated cooked patties and maintaining its acceptability above CON
26 and FILM samples. The barrier mechanisms of the edible film and the antioxidant actions
27 of bioactive compounds from acorn extracts are thoroughly discussed. This study shows
28 that applying edible coatings impregnated with plant-based antioxidants is a realistic and
29 effective strategy to protect minced and cooked meat derivatives against oxidation due to
30 storage and reheating, resulting in a positive reduction in oxidative changes at both
31 biochemical and sensory levels. This strategy is in line with current trends linked to the
32 application of bioactive compounds from plant-kingdom to extend commercial shelf life
33 of convenience RTE muscle foods.

34 **Keywords:** Alginate coating; acorns; convenience food; oxidation; consumers

35

36 1. INTRODUCTION

37 Chicken meat is commonly used for the production of burger patties and many other
38 ready-to-eat (RTE) muscle foods owing to its notable nutritional value and distinctive
39 flavor (Jahan et al., 2004; Patsias et al., 2008). However, poultry-based muscle foods are
40 highly perishable products because of the onset of oxidative rancidity even at refrigeration
41 temperatures (Al-Juhaimi et al., 2016; Santana Neto et al., 2021). Preceding studies found
42 that lipid oxidation can be controlled in muscle foods by means of the addition of natural
43 or food-grade synthetic additives (Armenteros et al., 2016; Ferreira et al., 2017; Mielnik
44 et al., 2003; Serra et al., 2021). Additives with antioxidant activity such as nitrites,
45 ascorbate and sulphur compounds are regularly used in the food industry. However, there
46 is a growing demand among consumers for the so-called “clean label” foods in which
47 classical additives are replaced by bioactive compounds obtained from plant kingdom
48 (Kola and Carvalho, 2023; Zhu, 2021). On this line, profuse research has been carried out
49 for assessing the antioxidant effects of Mediterranean fruits and berries, such as rose hips
50 (*Rosa canina* L.), oak nuts (*Quercus ilex* subsp. *ballota*), strawberry tree (*Arbutus unedo*
51 L.) or common hawthorn (*Crataegus monogyna* Jacq.) in various meat and ready-to-eat
52 products. Some examples are lamb chops (Morcuende et al., 2020), cooked pork hams
53 (Armenteros *et al.*, 2016), RTE pork (Ganhão et al., 2010), beef patties on high-oxygen
54 modified-atmosphere packaging (Vallejo et al., 2023), chicken patties (Ferreira et al.,
55 2017), smoked beef sausages (Zheleuova et al., 2021) and frankfurters (Vossen et al.,
56 2012). Notably, one of the above-mentioned Mediterranean fruits, oak nut (*Quercus ilex*
57 *subsp. ballota*), was selected and applied as sprayed extract on lamb chops and prevented
58 lipid and protein oxidation during chilled storage (Morcuende et al., 2020). By using an
59 extract from oak nut, Ferreira et al. (2017) extended the shelf-life of RTE chicken patties
60 and increased consumer acceptance. While acorns are a profuse and costless source of

61 nutrients and bioactives for humans and animals in the Mediterranean forest, it is still
62 underused and hence, their potential as food ingredient/additive worth further
63 applications.

64 As noted by Santana Neto et al. (2021), the means of antioxidant application may affect
65 the antioxidant effectiveness of plant phenolics and currently, several innovative
66 strategies are being introduced in the meat industry such as the manufacture of processed
67 meat products with edible films. Edible films and coatings are key components in the
68 food industry due to their ability to improve the quality, safety, and shelf life of foods
69 (Tavassoli et al., 2016). They are composed of edible ingredients such as polysaccharides,
70 proteins and lipids, which create a thin and flexible layer capable of wrapping or coating
71 foods (Zhu, 2021). In the context of meat products, edible coatings offer notable
72 advantages (Tavassoli et al., 2016). First, they serve as protective barriers, reducing
73 moisture loss and, consequently, mitigating dryness, while also improving meat
74 succulence (Xie et al., 2022). Additionally, these coatings function as protective layers
75 against external contamination and oxidation, thus extending the shelf life of the meat
76 product (Kandasamy et al., 2021; Xie et al., 2022). Alginate, commonly used in the
77 formulation of edible coatings, is a polysaccharide obtained from seaweed (Song et al.,
78 2011; Tavassoli et al., 2016). Alginate is a copolymer with a structure of (1 → 4)- α -L-
79 guluronate with variable residues of (1 → 4)- β -D-mannuronate which has been shown
80 the ability to form translucent, uniform, and resilient water soluble films (Mahcene et al.,
81 2020). The ability of this biomolecule to form gels and flexible films is well known (Xie
82 et al., 2022), and hence, it is a suitable candidate for the development of food coatings. In
83 addition, alginate-based coatings can be enriched with natural extracts rich in polyphenols,
84 bioactive compounds widely recognized for their antioxidant properties (Pei et al., 2022).
85 For example, Song et al. (2011) applied edible alginate-based coatings to golden carp

86 (*Megalobrama amblycephala*) meat showing remarkable reduction in moisture loss and
87 lipid oxidation rate.

88 These innovative edible films, backed by scientific research, have substantial potential to
89 revolutionize the food industry and meet the demands of contemporary consumers for
90 safe and high-quality food products (Zhu, 2021). However, the utilization of edible films
91 infused with plant-based antioxidants for safeguarding ready-to-eat (RTE) muscle foods
92 against oxidative reactions has remained relatively unexplored. In light of this gap, the
93 current study was undertaken to analyze the efficacy of an alginate-based edible coating
94 enriched with a high-content acorn phenol extract. The primary objective was to enhance
95 oxidative stability, counteract discoloration, and evaluate the influence on sensory
96 preferences, particularly in relation to the olfactory appeal, of RTE patties.

97 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

98 **2.1 Chemicals**

99 Chemical species and reagents for analytical procedures were acquired from
100 Extrasynthese (Genay, France), Scharlau (Scharlab S.L., Sentmenat, Spain) and Merck
101 (Merk, Darmstadt, German).

102 All material for coating applications were commercial food grade ingredients and were
103 supplied by Sosa Ingredients S.L. (Moià, Spain). Sodium alginate (Sosa Alginat[®]) from
104 brown algae (*Fucus*, *Laminaria*, *Macrocystis* spp.) was used as a polysaccharide-based
105 edible coating. Glycerol was applied as a plasticizer. Finally, a mixture of calcium lactate
106 hydrate and calcium gluconate, commercially named as *Gluconolactate*[®], was used for
107 gel forming and cross-linking reactions.

108 **2.2. Biological material**

109 Acorns from different specimens of evergreen oaks (*Quercus ilex* L. subsp. *ballota* [Desf.]
110 Samp.), were harvested as full ripened fruits in the Caceres region, Spain.
111 Straightforwardly, the samples were transported to the laboratory, washed, and sorted to
112 eliminate damaged fruits. They were subsequently frozen at -80°C. Fresh boneless and
113 skinless chicken thighs for burger patties were acquired from the company Avinatur
114 Producciones S.L.U, (El Viso del Alcor, Spain).

115 **2.3. Preparation and characterization of acorn aqueous extract**

116 Extracts were produced following the procedure described by Cando et al. (2014) with
117 some modifications. After defrosting, shells from acorns were removed, and the fruit was
118 then cut into pieces, and finely grounded. One hundred grams of shredded acorn was
119 divided equally between two 250 mL wide-mouth LDPE centrifuge bottles with closure
120 (Nalgene, Ruchester, USA), and dispersed with 180 mL of 80% food-grade acetone using
121 an Omni-mixer homogenizer (model 5100). The ensuing homogenates were dispensed
122 into an ultrasonic bath (Ultrasound, J.P. Selecta, Spain) for 30 min and subsequently
123 stored in darkness for 12 h at 3 °C. After maceration, samples were centrifuged at 150 xg
124 for 10 min at 4 °C. The supernatants were collected and mixed in an Erlenmeyer flask and
125 subsequently concentrated using a rotary evaporator at 40 °C. The resultant aqueous
126 residue was brought to volume (100 mL) with distilled water, analyzed for total phenolic
127 contents and eventually stored at 1°C until subjected to all other analyses (< 24h). The
128 extraction technique herewith explained was optimized in a previous study to maximize
129 the amount of bioactive compounds.

130 The total phenolic content (TPC) of acorn aqueous extracts was assessed following the
131 Folin-Ciocalteu procedure (Soong and Barlow, 2004) with minor modifications. An
132 aliquot of 200 µL of diluted extract (1:100) was mixed with 1000 µL of 1:10 diluted Folin-
133 Ciocalteu's phenol reagent, followed by 800 µL of 7.5% (w/v) sodium carbonate. The

134 mixture was shaken and allowed to stand for 45 min at 20 °C temperature in the dark. In
135 due course, the absorbance was measured at 765 nm (Hitachi spectrophotometer, Tokyo,
136 Japan). The concentration of total phenols was calculated using a standard curve of gallic
137 acid.

138 **2.4. Preparation of sodium alginate coating**

139 An optimized food grade alginate/Ca²⁺ coating formulation was used, based on Song *et*
140 *al.* (2011) with modifications. Alginate solution was prepared by slowly dissolving 30 g
141 of sodium alginate in 1 L of sterile distilled water at 40 °C. The mixture was initially
142 blended for 10 min until a homogenous solution was achieved. Then, it was stirred for 2
143 h at 70 °C until the mixture turned into a clear solution. After this was achieved, the
144 temperature was decreased down to 30 °C and then, 200 mL of glycerol was added under
145 magnetic stirring. The basic film was prepared by adding 100 mL of solution containing
146 distilled water. For the preparation of the film impregnated with acorn extract, 100 mL of
147 such aqueous acorn extract (800 GAE equivalent according to total phenolic content) was
148 added. Thereafter, the mixed solution was made up to 2000 mL with distilled water and
149 mixed under magnetic stirring for 10 min and finally refrigerated (T^a < 4 °C) before
150 coating applications.

151 **2.5. Chicken patties preparation.**

152 The experimental patties were produced in a pilot plant. All patties were manufactured
153 using the same basic formulation. For each replicate, 1.5 kg of chicken patties was
154 prepared by using the general recipe as follows (g/kg raw batter): 800 g chicken thighs,
155 180 g distilled water and 20 g sodium chloride. Fresh boneless and skinless chicken thighs
156 (5.29 % fat and 19.87% protein, according to the manufacturer) were purchased from a
157 local supermarket in Cáceres (Spain).

158 As previously made by Ganhão et al. (2010) for the manufacture of emulsified pork
159 patties, chicken thighs were first cut into 2.5 cm³ pieces and minced through a 4.5 mm
160 plate (Mainca mincer, Barcelona, Spain). Next, all ingredients were minced using a bowl
161 cutter (Mainca Mod. CM-14, Barcelona, Spain) until a homogeneous batter was achieved
162 (6 min/2000 rpm/T^a < 8 °C). Chicken patties (43 g, 5 cm diameter and 1 cm thickness)
163 were molded from the emulsion using a semi-automatic hamburger maker (Mainca Mod.
164 MH-55 Barcelona, Spain). Finally, patties were cooled down to 4 °C for 2 h before coating
165 applications.

166 **2.6. Experimental setup and coating application.**

167 Raw chicken patties were randomly divided into three groups depending on the coating
168 strategy, namely, control patties without coating “CON”, patties with alginate coating
169 “FILM”, and patties with alginate coating containing 800 GAE of acorn extract “FILM-
170 ANTIOX”. This concentration was chosen based on previous studies (Ferreira et al., 2017)
171 that guaranteed positive antioxidant outcomes under the tested conditions. Within each
172 of these three experimental groups, three additional subgroups of samples were
173 considered depending on the technological treatment and processing stages applied to
174 patties, completing a 3 x 3 factorial design. The processing stages were: “COOKED”,
175 cooked patties at day 0 after coating application, “CC”, cooked and chilled patties, and
176 “CCR”, which correspond to cooked and refrigerated patties subjected to subsequent
177 reheating in a microwave. Two chicken patties per experimental group and processing
178 stage were produced (technical replicates) and the entire experimental procedures was
179 repeated three times in independent production batches (true replicates). Figure 1 shows
180 the entire technological process and the preparation and application of the edible films.
181 Coating applications were as follows: “FILM” and “FILM-ANTIOX” patties (6 units per
182 batch) were placed in a polypropylene drain grate and immersed in 1.5 liters of their

183 respective alginate solutions. After 2 minutes, patties were removed and allowed to drain
184 for 1 minute and subsequently, immersed in 1.5 liters of 4% calcium gluconolactate for
185 another two minutes to complete the formation of the coating. After 2 hours of
186 refrigeration, coated and uncoated patties were cooked in an electric oven at 170 °C for
187 18 min (9 min each side; Unox, Mod. GN2.1, Cadoneghe, Italy). Preliminary cooking
188 trials were performed to establish the cooking conditions required to achieve a
189 temperature of 73 °C in the core of the product. Then, coated and uncoated patties
190 belonging to the “COOKED” group were frozen at -80° for further analysis. The
191 remaining patties were dispensed in polypropylene trays, wrapped with polyvinyl
192 chloride film (Tecnodur S.L., Valencia, Spain) and stored at 4±1 °C for 8 days in darkness.
193 After this storage, two batches from each treatment were taken randomly; one was frozen
194 at -80° (“CC” patties), and the remaining patties were reheated in a microwave (TEKA,
195 Mod. MW 213 INOX) for 1 minute at 600W of net power (“CCR” patties). Upon
196 reheating, “CCR” patties were also frozen at -80° for further analysis.

197 **2.7. Analytical procedures in patties**

198 **2.7.1. Coating absorption and weight loss measurement**

199 The weight of the individual patties was recorded during the different stages of processing
200 and storage. The percentage of weight gain in relation to coating absorption was
201 calculated as follows: $[(W_c - W_u)/W_u] \times 100$ where W_c and W_u are the weights of the
202 chicken patties before and after alginate coating application, respectively. The weight loss
203 during oven cooking or microwave reheating was calculated as follows: $[(W_b - W_a)/W_b] \times$
204 100 where W_b and W_a are the weights of the chicken patties before and after thermal
205 treatments, respectively. Storage loss was calculated as the weight loss during refrigerated
206 storage of cooked chicken patties as follows: storage loss = $[(W_0 - W_8)/W_0] \times 100$ where
207 W_0 and W_8 are the weight of the cooked patties at days 0 and 8, respectively.

208 **2.7.2. Instrumental color measurement**

209 Color analyses were made on the surface of cooked chicken patties using a Minolta CR-
210 300 chromameter (Minolta Camera Corp., Meter Division, Ramsey, NJ, USA). Previous
211 to the assessment of color, the chromameter was calibrated on the CIE color space system
212 using a white tile. The L^* -value (lightness), a^* -value (redness) and b^* -value (yellowness)
213 values were recorded from the average of three random readings across each patty
214 surfaces. Color measurements were made at room temperature (≈ 22 °C) with illuminant
215 D65 and a 0° angle observer.

216 **2.7.3. Thiobarbituric Acid Reactive Substances (TBARS)**

217 TBARS and other reactive secondary products of lipid oxidation were quantified in
218 chicken patties using de 2-thiobarbituric acid methods following the procedure reported
219 by Ganhão et al. (2011) with slight modifications. Briefly, 5 g of chicken patty were
220 dispensed into 50 mL polypropylene tubes and homogenized with 15 mL of perchloric
221 acid (3.86 %) and 0.5 mL BHT (4.2 % in ethanol). Two mL of the filtered and centrifuged
222 suspension (260 xg for 5 minutes) were mixed with 2 mL of TBA (0.02 M) in screw cap
223 test tubes. The tubes were placed in a boiling water bath for 45 minutes together with the
224 standard curve tubes. After cooling, the sample were centrifuged at 260 xg for 5 min.
225 Absorbance was measured at 532 nm against a blank containing 2 mL of the extraction
226 solution and 2 mL TBA solution. The standard curve was prepared using a solution of
227 1,1,3,3-tetraethoxypropane (TEP) in 3.86 % perchloric acid. Results were calculated as
228 mg MDA per kg of chicken patty.

229 **2.7.4. Protein carbonyls**

230 The total carbonyl content was used as a marker of the extent of protein oxidation and
231 analyzed using 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine (DNPH) method according to the procedure

232 reported by Ganhão et al. (2010), with minor changes. Chicken patties (1 g) were ground,
233 mixed with 1:10 (w/v) ratio 10 mL 0.6 M NaCl in 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH
234 6.5) and then homogenized for 30 s using an Ultra-Turrax homogenizer. Two aliquots of
235 150 μ L, each, of this homogenate were used to quantify total protein concentration and
236 total protein carbonyls, respectively. In both cases, the proteins were precipitated with 1
237 mL of cold 10% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) after centrifugation (4 °C) at 2000 xg. For the
238 determination of carbonyls, 1 mL of 0.2 % DNPH in 2N HCl was added. For protein
239 concentration, 1 mL of 2N HCl was added. After incubation at room temperature for 1 h,
240 the proteins were again precipitated with 1 mL of cold 10 % TCA and centrifuged at 1800
241 xg for 10 minutes. After two washes with 1 mL of ethanol/ethyl acetate (1:1, v/v) followed
242 by centrifugation at 1800 xg for 5 minutes, the precipitated proteins were dissolved in 1.5
243 mL of 20 mM phosphate buffer (pH 6.5) with 6 M guanidine HCl solution. The protein
244 concentration of the samples was calculated from the absorbance read at 280 nm using a
245 five-point of albumin standard curve. The amount of carbonyl was expressed as nmol of
246 carbonyls per mg of protein using a hydrazone molar extinction coefficient (21.0 nM^{-1}
247 cm^{-1}) with absorbance reading at 370 nm.

248 **2.8. Sensory evaluation**

249 The trained sensory panel consisted in 19 assessors aged between 23 and 60 and all were
250 regular consumers of chicken products. Prior to the assessment of samples, panelists
251 attended 3 training sessions during which they assessed similar products with increasing
252 intensity levels of the attributes under investigation (rancidity and warmed-over favor).
253 Assessors provided a written consent for their involvement in the study which was
254 approved by the Ethical Committee from the University of Extremadura (IRB: 2516/23).
255 They carried out an odor analysis of “CCR” patties as described as follows. All tests were
256 conducted at room temperature ($20 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) and in individual booths located in

257 standardized sensory cabins (UNE-EN ISO 8589, 2010). Coated and uncoated patties
258 were evaluated for the intensity of rancidity and warmed-over-flavor (WOF) using a 10-
259 point scale (1= non perceptible; 10=extremely intense), and overall acceptability
260 employing a 7-point scale (1=extremely dislike; 7=extremely like). Five grams of each
261 sample were finely minced, dispensed in falcon tubes, sealed, and wrapped with
262 aluminum foil and offered to the panelists after being warmed up to 37° C in a
263 thermostatic chamber. All samples were blind coded with 3-digital random numbers and
264 the orders of serving samples were randomized.

265 **2.9. Statistical analysis**

266 The application of alginate coatings with acorn extracts (main variable under study) was
267 repeated three times in three independent processing batches. Two chicken patties per
268 experimental group (“CON”, “FILM”, and “FILM-ANTIOX”) and per processing stage
269 (“COOKED”, “CC” and “CCR”), were produced in each batch, totaling 54 chicken
270 patties, and consequently, means and standard deviations were calculated from 6 data (3
271 technical replicates x 2 true replicates). Data were evaluated using a two-way analysis of
272 variance (ANOVA) to assess the effect of coating (3 levels) and processing stage (3 levels)
273 along with interaction. Tukey's test was performed when ANOVA revealed significant
274 differences ($p < 0.05$) among treatments. The significance level was set at $p < 0.05$. The
275 SPSS computer program (v. 21.0) was used to perform the statistical test.

276 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

277 **3.1 Characterization of acorn (*Quercus ilex* subsp. *Ballota*) extracts**

278 The concentration of bioactive compounds and antioxidant activity of the acorn extract
279 have been detailed in previous work (Morcuende et al., 2020). Briefly, remarkable
280 contents in total phenolics (~2055 mg GAE/100 fruits) were found in the extracts within

281 these quantities exceeding those reported by Ganhão et al. (2010); Ferreira et al. (2017)
282 and Cantos et al. (2003) in the same fruits, Among the specific phenols of interest, we
283 identified hydroxybenzoic acids (~41.8 mg/100g dry matter) procyanidins (~904
284 mg/100g dry matter), ellagitannins (~317 mg/100g dry matter) and flavonoids (~1.50
285 mg/100g of dry matter), and to a lesser extent, tocopherols (~0.58 mg/100g of dry matter)
286 and ascorbic acid (~0.05 mg/g of dry matter). Acorn extract showed significant
287 antioxidant activity under DPPH, ABTS and CUPRAC assays as mentioned by
288 Morcuende et al. (2020). As already stated in that previous paper, the acorn extract
289 contains an interesting variety of phenolic compounds, tocopherols and ascorbic acid,
290 which have been shown to display intense antioxidant activities (Morcuende et al., 2020).
291 Since each type of antioxidant displays different modes of action, the combination is
292 likely to perform efficient antioxidant protection against both lipids and proteins (Santana
293 Neto et al., 2021; Lund, 2021).

294 **3.2. Influence of alginate coatings on lipid oxidation during chicken patties** 295 **processing.**

296 The effect of edible coating with and without acorn extract on the formation of TBARS
297 on cooked chicken patties (C); refrigerated and cooked chicken patties (CC); and cooked,
298 refrigerated, and reheated chicken patties (CCR) compared to the control group of
299 samples (patties without coating) is shown in Table 1. The TBARS levels in C patties
300 were considerably low irrespective of the treatment (< 1 mg TBARS/kg sample in all
301 samples). The extent of lipid oxidation significantly increased between 2 and 4-fold times
302 during refrigerated storage of all types of cooked patties. While a certain increase in
303 TBARS occurred during the subsequent reheating, this processing stage had no
304 significant effect on TBARS numbers. These results, which are in agreement with
305 previous works (Akcan et al., 2017a; Fernandes et al., 2017; Nitteranon and Sayompark,

2021), indicates that cooking induce changes in patties which makes these samples appear to be highly susceptible to oxidation during the following chilled storage. In fact, the final microwave reheating had a negligible effect on the extent of lipid oxidation as compared to the previous chilled storage. According to literature, some of the pro-oxidative mechanisms of cooking, may involve denaturation of proteins and structural damage of structural lipids (phospholipids), release of pro-oxidant metals (heme iron), depletion of endogenous antioxidant defenses from muscle, and formation, during heating, of early oxidation products able to induce further oxidative damage (Domínguez et al., 2019; Soladoye et al., 2015). This same behavior, albeit to a lesser extent, was observed in FILM patties and even milder in the FILM-ANTIOX counterparts.

The application of alginate-based coatings (FILM and FILM-ANTIOX) significantly reduced ($p < 0.05$) TBARS values during C, CC, and CCR compared to the CONTROL. These results suggest that, irrespective of the incorporation of antioxidant extracts in the coating, the edible film acted as a physical barrier against oxidative reactions. Polysaccharide-based edible films, such as those produced from alginate, are reported to display effective properties against oxygen diffusion, as a result of their well-structured hydrogen-bonded linkage (Matloob et al., 2023; Song et al., 2011). As expected, the incorporation of the acorn extract provided additional protection against lipid oxidation as TBARS values were lower in FILM-ANTIOX patties compared to FILM treatment. This effect was particularly observed in patties subjected to CC and CCR treatments. These results indicate the effectiveness of this acorn extract in controlling lipid oxidation in cooked, refrigerated, and reheated chicken patties. This effectiveness can be compared with the study by Song et al. (2011), where alginate coating with antioxidants such as vitamin C and tea polyphenols contributed to inhibiting lipid oxidation in refrigerated fish fillets. Similar results were obtained in muscle foods such as chicken nuggets coated with

331 pomegranate peel powder and sodium alginate (Bashir et al., 2022), chicken breasts
332 coated with alginate and enriched with *Ferulago angulata* (Schlecht.) essential oil
333 (Panahi and Mohsenzadeh, 2022) and lamb patties coated with alginate film impregnated
334 with oregano essential oil (Vital et al., 2021). In agreement with all these previous papers,
335 this study originally report the effectiveness of an acorn extract to improve the antioxidant
336 properties of an alginate-based edible film. Taking into account the manifold antioxidant
337 components of the acorn extract applied, the protection could be attributed to the
338 combination of polyphenols, tocopherols and ascorbic acid. Whereas some other previous
339 studies have reported the antioxidant potential of acorn extracts when directly applied as
340 ingredients in processed meat products (Fernandes et al., 2017; Özdemir et al., 2022), this
341 new study proves the efficiency of incorporating the antioxidant extract from acorn to
342 edible-films. This protective effect could have positive consequences in terms of
343 nutritional value and sensory properties since lipid oxidation products are responsible for
344 rancidity (Patil et al., 2023). This extent would be confirmed by the sensory evaluation
345 discussed in due course.

346 **3.3. Influence of edible coatings on protein oxidation during RTE chicken patties** 347 **processing.**

348 The effect of edible coating with and without acorn extract on the formation of protein
349 carbonyls in cooked (C), refrigerated and cooked (CC), and cooked, refrigerated and
350 reheated (CCR) chicken patties, compared to the control group of samples (uncoated
351 patties), is shown in Table 1. Protein carbonyl levels in C patties were considerably low
352 regardless of treatment (<3.6 nmol/mg protein). Protein oxidation increased significantly
353 during storage and remained so during reheating, with this latter process having no
354 significant effect on the extent of protein oxidation. These findings, along with those
355 reported in previous works (Ferreira et al., 2017; Nitteranon and Sayompark, 2021; Raeisi

356 et al., 2019), indicate that cooking causes alterations in patties, generating conditions that
357 make them prone to protein oxidation during refrigerated storage. In agreement with the
358 aforementioned results for lipid oxidation, reheating of patties had a minimal impact on
359 the oxidation of proteins. As reported above, cooking may cause damage to phospholipids,
360 lead to the release of heme iron and the depletion of endogenous antioxidant defenses that
361 could eventually facilitate the oxidative damage to proteins (Soladoye et al., 2015;
362 Domínguez et al., 2019).

363 Application of alginate-based coatings did not reduce protein oxidation levels during
364 cooking (C), storage (CC) and subsequent reheating (CCR) of chicken patties, which
365 indicates that the effectiveness of the barrier effect of the edible film against lipid
366 oxidation was not efficient for protecting meat proteins. These results can be explained
367 by the different mechanisms implicated in lipid oxidation and protein carbonylation.
368 While the former requires molecular oxygen for the propagation of the reactions and
369 hence exert the degradation of unsaturated fatty acids into TBARS, the formation of
370 protein carbonyls is an oxygen-independent process as reported by Estévez et al. (2022).
371 In fact, Ferreira et al. (2017) reported that the extent of protein carbonylation in modified
372 atmosphere packaged chicken patties was independent of the concentration of molecular
373 oxygen. Hence, the limitation in oxygen diffusion and the protection of lipids did not
374 contribute to inhibiting protein oxidation in FILM patties.

375 Yet, compared to the control and FILM patties, the extent of protein carbonylation was
376 significantly lower in samples coated with the extract of acorn (FILM-ANTIOX),
377 suggesting that bioactive compounds from this extract were effective against the onset
378 of protein oxidation during chilling of cooked patties and the subsequent reheating. In a
379 previous study (Ferreira et al., 2017), we tested the ability of phenolic-rich acorns extract
380 to control protein oxidation in RTE chicken patties and found consistent results. It is,

381 however, worth to emphasize that in that study the extract was simply mixed as an
382 additional ingredient within the food matrix. The present study proves that bioactive
383 compounds from this fruit are also efficient in inhibiting protein oxidation when
384 impregnated in an edible coating. In line with the mechanisms proposed by Ferreira et al.
385 (2017), the radical scavenging ability of condensed tannins and polyphenols naturally
386 present in the acorn could explain the antioxidant protection of meat lipids.

387 The scientific literature is scarce in articles describing the benefits of plant phenolics
388 against protein oxidation in muscle foods protected by edible films, which highlights the
389 original contribution of the current study. In the study conducted by Pei et al. (2022),
390 tragacanth gum-sodium alginate coatings containing epigallocatechin gallate were
391 effective in delaying protein oxidation by inhibiting hydrogen peroxide generation and
392 maintaining the activity of key enzymes. In addition, these coatings preserved the
393 secondary and tertiary structure of proteins during storage. Charoenphun et al. (2023)
394 presented significant findings with regard to the remarkable protection against protein
395 oxidation in shrimp coated with alginate and Longkong pericarp extract during storage at
396 4°C. The positive results in controlling protein oxidation by plant phenolics in edible
397 films reported in of those studies agree with the findings of the present study. Altogether,
398 this protection may have consequences in terms of improved nutritional value and health
399 benefits since the intake of oxidized proteins from ultra-processed muscle foods has been
400 linked to impaired digestibility (Ferreira et al., 2018; Estévez et al., 2022) and risk of
401 suffering oxidative stress and certain pathological conditions (Estévez and Xiong, 2019;
402 Yin et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023).

403 **3.4. Influence of edible films on weight loss during processing of RTE chicken patties.**

404 During the storage process (CC), all chicken patties experienced weight loss, as shown in
405 Figure 2. No significant differences in weight loss was found between CONTROL and

406 FILM patties during storage and reheating though a clear trend in inhibiting such loss. In
407 fact, the calculation of the global weight loss from the beginning until the end of the
408 processing, led to significant differences in which using edible films revealed to be
409 effective against weight loss. Furthermore, the incorporation of the acorn extract to
410 FILM-ANTIOX patties improved this protection as significant differences were found for
411 the reheating process and for the overall weight loss calculation. The impact of the
412 alginate-based coating on this parameter may be explained by the ability of the film to
413 minimize moisture loss during processing. Furthermore, polyphenolics from acorn extract
414 such as procyanidins and ellagitannins are known to interact with biomaterials from films
415 and form macromolecular complexes via covalent linkages (Engin et al., 2022). The
416 incorporation of the acorn extract could have contributed to a denser coating structure and
417 greater impermeability though this speculation needs further experimental proof.
418 Additionally, the antioxidant protection of the phenolic-rich extract on muscle proteins
419 may have also contributed to increase the water holding ability of these proteins and hence,
420 inhibiting the moisture loss. The connection between the integrity and extent of protein
421 oxidation in myofibrillar proteins and the water-holding capacity of muscle foods is well-
422 documented (Bao & Ertbjerg, 2019).

423 Previous studies demonstrated how phenol-rich extracts affect the structure of edible
424 films, improving their barrier effect and solid content (Engin et al., 2022). Similar results
425 were reported using sodium alginate incorporating purple onion peel extract in food
426 (Santos et al., 2021), rosemary and oregano essential oils in beef loin (Vital et al., 2016),
427 and the use of nanocapsules of cinnamon essential oil and nisin in beef fillets (Zhang et
428 al., 2022). This effect is crucial, as weight loss in meat could influence the perception of
429 its sensory quality and freshness. The reduction in weight loss suggests that the sodium
430 alginate coating with acorn extract helped in retaining some moisture in the meat,

431 potentially contributing to positive sensory features such as juiciness. The
432 aforementioned hypothesis of certain polyphenolics complexing to film materials could
433 explain the observed effects but further research is required for clarification. This result
434 is relevant to the food industry, demonstrating the potential use of extracts alongside
435 alginate-based coatings to preserve certain meat quality features during storage.

436 **3.5. Influence of edible films on color changes during processing of RTE chicken** 437 **patties.**

438 The color of meat and processed meat products is a significant factor for consumers'
439 assessment of freshness and likeability, directly influencing their purchasing decisions
440 (Tomasevic et al., 2021). The characteristics of an edible coating are linked to its
441 constituent materials and have the ability to influence meat color (Vital et al., 2018). The
442 effect of alginate coating, with and without acorn extract, was evaluated against the
443 control (without coating) in the color parameters L* (lightness), a* (redness), and b*
444 (yellowness) at different stages of pre-cooking (COOKED), storage (CC), and reheating
445 (CCR). Table 2 shows that redness decreased significantly ($p < 0.05$) in chicken patties
446 from the CONTROL and FILM groups during processing while yellowness displayed the
447 opposite trend and increased over time (from C to CC and finally CCR). This evolution
448 of color parameters is typical for meat and chicken products subjected to consecutive
449 processing technologies and is commonly associated to undesirable discoloration
450 mechanisms. To this conclusion came Santos et al. (2020) and Santana Neto et al. (2021),
451 who observed redness decline and increase of yellowness in RTE chicken patties during
452 chilled storage. The authors reported that this discoloration may be due to the oxidation
453 of myoglobin pigments and the accretion of brownish pigments formed from advanced
454 oxidative reactions. Similar hypotheses were formulated by Akcan et al. (2017b) after the
455 assessment of the color evolution of RTE pork patties subjected to chilled storage. It is

456 reasonable to attribute these changes to oxidative reactions since it is known that cooking
457 (C) of muscle foods induces certain physicochemical changes that make the meat system
458 very prone to oxidation (release of pro-oxidative iron, depletion of antioxidants etc.)
459 during the subsequent technological stages (CC and CCR) (Soladoye et al., 2015; Estévez,
460 2011). This hypothesis seems plausible since the addition of the phenolic-rich extract to
461 edible films protected the chicken products against discoloration at the CC and CCR
462 stages. The color displayed by FILM-ANTIOX samples in the CCR stage was redder
463 (higher a^* values) and darker (lower L^* values) than that from FILM and CONTROL
464 counterparts. The antioxidant effects of acorn extract rich in polyphenols (especially
465 procyanidins and anthocyanins) may be behind the differences between treatments.
466 Similar results were reported using sodium alginate with nanocapsules of cinnamon
467 essential oil and nisin in refrigerated meat slices (Zhang et al., 2022). Santos et al. (2021)
468 determined that the optical properties of an alginate-based film with added polyphenols
469 from purple onion peel (*Allium cepa*) promote the development of red color, leading to
470 better interaction between polymeric networks. Similar results were reported by Rojas-
471 Bravo et al. (2019) when applying polyphenols from mango peel (*Mangifera indica L. cv*
472 *Manila*) in films and edible coatings. These findings support the viability of utilizing
473 coatings in terms of visual quality and their potential antioxidant properties.

474 **3.6. Influence of edible films on the sensory evaluation of RTE chicken patties.**

475 The ability of plant antioxidants to neutralize the adverse effects of lipid and protein
476 oxidation may not only be limited to a reduction in oxidation products since the benefits
477 of such antioxidants may be manifested in terms of better sensory and/or nutritional
478 quality (Santana Neto et al., 2021). In this study, the intensity of odor (rancidity and WOF)
479 and overall acceptability of chicken patties coated with an edible film, both with and
480 without acorn extract (FILM and FILM-ANTIOX), were evaluated in comparison to

481 CONTROL patties. In this regard, the antioxidant protection displayed by the acorns
482 extract added to the edible films had significant effects in terms of sensory profile and
483 overall acceptability (Figure 3). Considering that all samples were evaluated right after
484 reheating; simulating the stage at which RTE patties may be consumed, the results
485 indicate that the undesirable oxidation-driven sensory deterioration of chicken patties
486 were efficiently controlled by the application of edible films impregnated with plant
487 antioxidants. The rancidity and WOF were perceived as “weak” and “very weak” in
488 FILM-ANTIOX samples while such sensory traits were identified as “moderately intense”
489 in samples from CONTROL group ($p < 0.05$). Samples from the FILM had intermediate
490 positions reflecting that, in line with the biochemical analysis, the application of edible
491 films, alone, was not efficient enough to counteract completely the harmful effects of
492 lipid and protein oxidation.

493 In a recent study, Panahi and Mohsenzadeh (2022) assessed the impact of a sodium
494 alginate coating containing essential oil from *Ferulago angulata*, nisin, and NaCl on the
495 sensory characteristics of refrigerated chicken, and the results are consistent with the
496 aforementioned. Similarly, Zhang et al. (2022) reported sensory improvements in beef
497 fillets using a sodium alginate edible coating with nanocapsules of cinnamon essential oil
498 (*Cinnamomum zeylanicum*), while Vital et al. (2016, 2018) incorporated essential oils
499 from rosemary and oregano into alginate to coat beef fillets, highlighting the effectiveness
500 of these combinations in enhancing the sensory quality of food products. These findings
501 underscore the promising application of sodium alginate coatings in the food industry,
502 offering significant potential to improve sensory quality and extend the shelf life of
503 various meat products.

504 4. CONCLUSIONS

505 The use of alginate-based edible coatings impregnated with a phenol-rich extract from
506 acorns (*Quercus ilex subsp. Ballota*) resulted in a positive reduction in oxidative changes
507 at both biochemical, and sensory levels. The barrier effect of the edible film was found
508 to diminish the intensity of certain reactions but that was not reflected in a better sensory
509 quality. Moreover, the coating method could be tested on an industrial scale, as it is a
510 simple and relatively inexpensive technique. This strategy is in line with current trends
511 linked to the usage of plant materials as sources of bioactive compounds to extend
512 commercial shelf life in RTE muscle foods.

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516

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690 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

691 **FIGURE 1.** Preparation of alginate-based edible films with phenolic-rich acorn extract
692 and application to ready-to-eat chicken patties.

693 **FIGURE 2.** Percent weight loss (means \pm standard deviations) during chilled storage and
694 reheating of chicken patties as affected by the application of Alginate-based edible
695 coating. a–b Different letters on top of bars denote significant differences between
696 treatments within a processing stage. NS: non significant.

697 CONTROL: chicken patties without coating; FILM: control treatment with coating; and
698 FILM-ANTIOX: treatment with coating and fruit extract.

699 **FIGURE 3.** Intensity of rancidity and warmed-over flavor (WOF) (left “y” axis) and
700 overall acceptability of odour (right “y” axis) (means \pm standard deviations) of cooked,
701 chilled and reheated chicken patties as affected by the application of Alginate-based
702 edible coating.

703 a–b Different letters on top of bars denote significant differences between treatments
704 within a processing stage.

705 CONTROL: chicken patties without coating; FILM: control treatment with coating; and
706 FILM-ANTIOX: treatment with coating and fruit extract.

707

FIGURE 1.

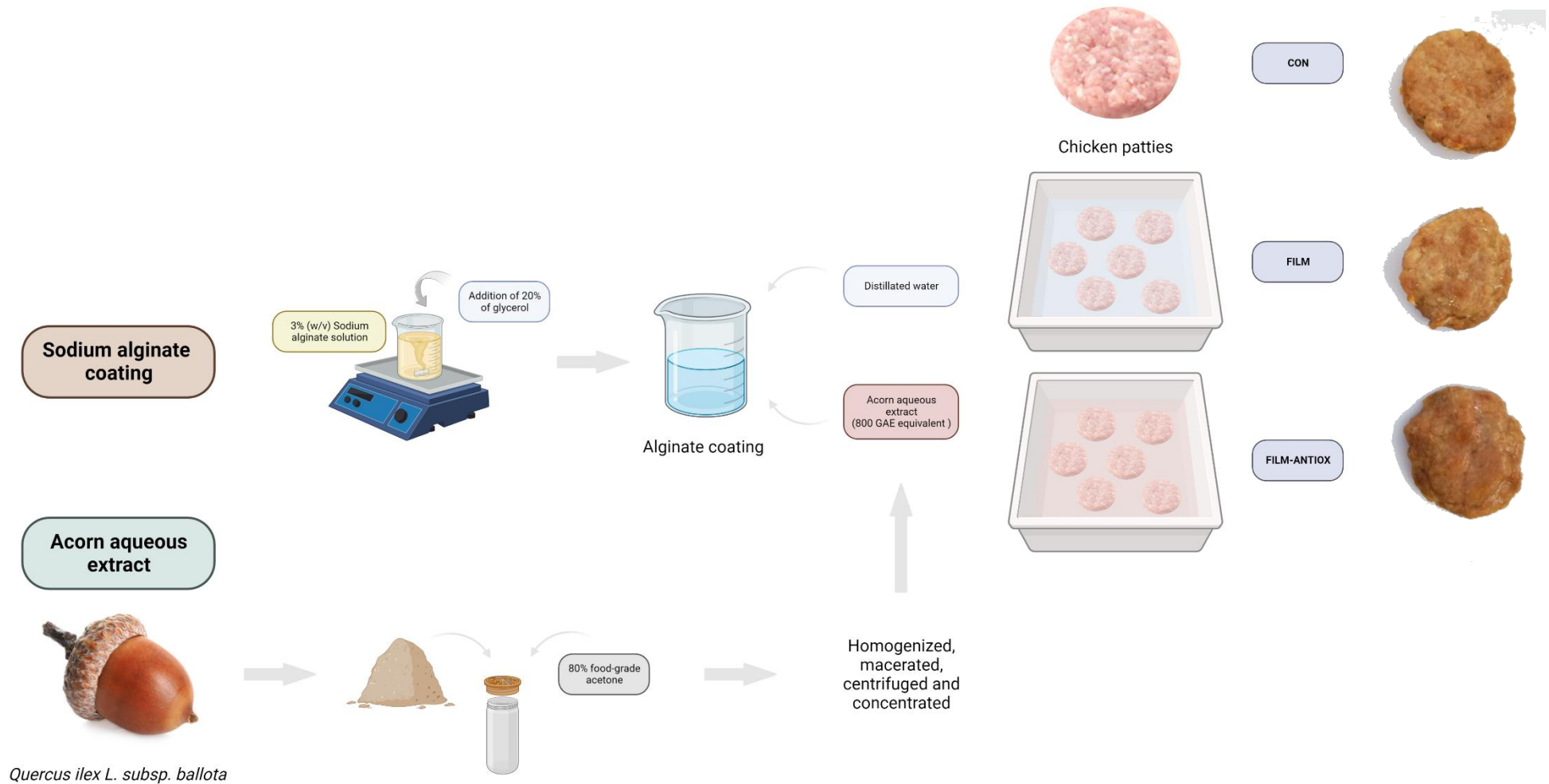


FIGURE 2.

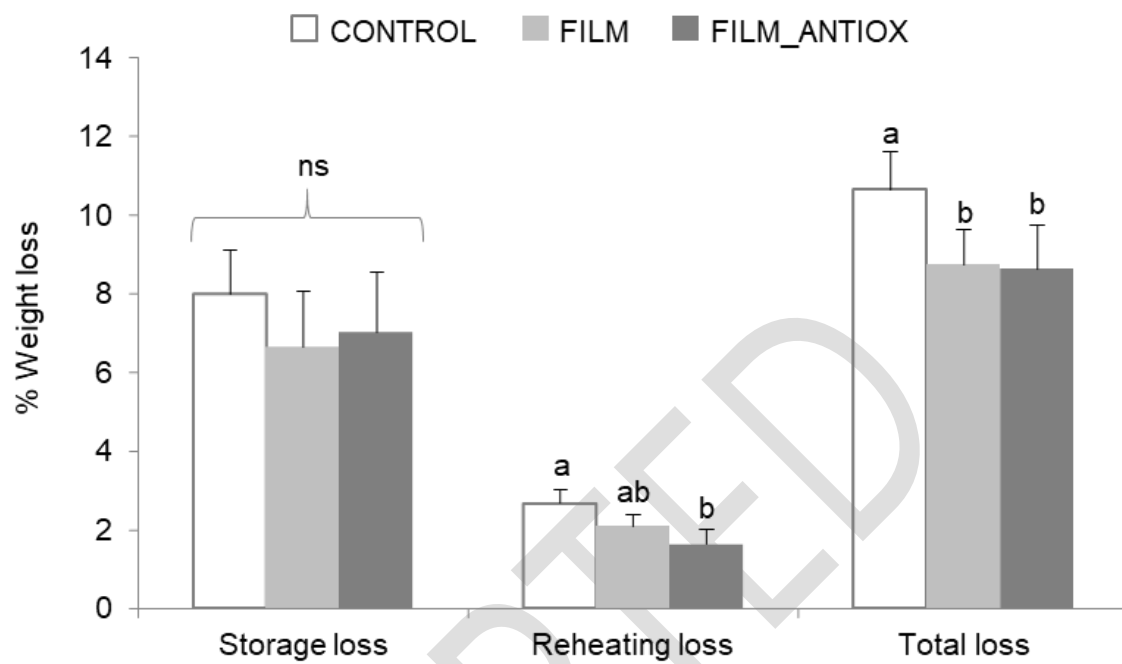


FIGURE 3.

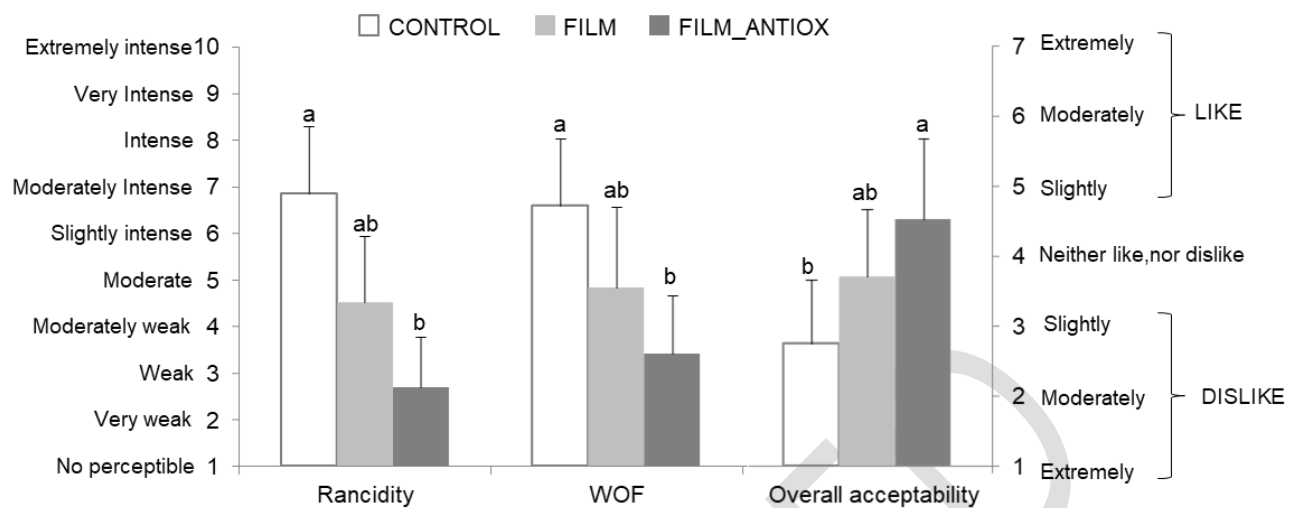


TABLE 1. Concentration of thiobarbituric-reactive substances (TBARS) (mg/mg sample) and protein carbonyls (nmol/mg protein) (means \pm standard deviations) in chicken patties as affected by the processing stage and the application of alginate-based edible coatings.

TBARS	CONTROL	FILM	FILM-ANTIOX	p^1
C	0.98a,y \pm 0.14	0.77b,y \pm 0.18	0.74b,y \pm 0.22	*
CC	3.98a,x \pm 0.50	3.06b,x \pm 0.36	2.09c,x \pm 0.51	*
CCR	4.20a,x \pm 0.27	3.46b,x \pm 0.37	2.47c,x \pm 0.35	**
p^2	***	***	**	
Protein carbonyls				p^1
C	3.52y \pm 1.07	3.59y \pm 1.07	3.45y \pm 0.98	ns
CC	7.55a,x \pm 2.00	7.06a,x \pm 0.90	4.52b,xy \pm 0.85	**
CCR	8.38a,x \pm 1.75	7.90a,x \pm 1.16	5.14b,x \pm 1.02	**
p^2	**	**	*	

p^1 : Significance level in Tukey test for evaluating the impact of Alginate-based edible coating (CONTROL, FILM & FILM-ANTIOX) within a processing stage. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$; p^2 : Significance level in Tukey test for evaluating the impact of processing stage (C, CC & CCR) within a type of chicken patty. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$; ns: non significant a–b Means with different superscripts within the same line were significant different. x–z Means with different superscripts within the same column were significant different. C: Cooked chicken patties; CC: Cooked & Chilled chicken patties; CCR: Cooked & Chilled & Reheated chicken patties.

TABLE 2. Instrumental color parameters (means \pm standard deviations) measured on the surface of chicken patties as affected by the processing stage and the application of alginate-based edible films.

Redness	CONTROL	FILM	FILM-ANTIOX	p^1
C	5.38b,x \pm 0.18	4.43c,x \pm 0.65	6.24a,y \pm 0.93	*
CC	2.01b,y \pm 0.17	1.65b,z \pm 0.50	10.75a,x \pm 0.65	***
CCR	2.96b,y \pm 0.47	2.93b,y \pm 0.53	10.38a,x \pm 0.43	***
p^2	***	***	**	
Yellowness				p^1
C	16.41a,z \pm 0.56	15.70ab,y \pm 1.10	13.94b \pm 0.98	*
CC	17.40a,y \pm 0.61	16.66a,y \pm 0.87	13.09b \pm 0.71	**
CCR	21.30a,x \pm 0.18	20.61a,x \pm 0.73	14.41b \pm 0.88	***
p^2	**	**	ns	
Lightness				p^1
C	60.19a,y \pm 1.04	61.43a,y \pm 0.98	58.56b,x \pm 0.60	**
CC	63.77b,x \pm 0.50	65.29a,x \pm 0.63	49.38c,y \pm 1.32	***
CCR	59.37b,y \pm 0.53	62.17a,y \pm 1.33	49.52c,y \pm 1.01	***
p^2	*	**	***	

p^1 : Significance level in Tukey test for evaluating the impact of Alginate-based edible coating (CONTROL, FILM & FILM-ANTIOX) within a processing stage. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$

p^2 : Significance level in Tukey test for evaluating the impact of processing stage (C, CC & CCR) within a type of chicken patty. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$

a–b Means with different superscripts within the same line were significant different.

x–z Means with different superscripts within the same column were significant different.

C: Cooked chicken patties; CC: Cooked & Chilled chicken patties; CCR: Cooked & Chilled & Reheated chicken patties.