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Vanillin as a natural cross-linking agent in chitosan-based films: Optimizing formulation by response surface methodology

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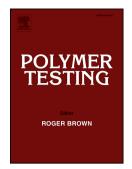
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2	optimizing formulation by response surface methodology
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14	
15	Abstract
16	
17	One way of improving mechanical and water barrier properties of chitosan films is through
18	cross-linking reactions. Cross-linking agents usually used for this purpose include
19	glutaraldehyde, glyoxal, and formaldehyde, which may cause some undesirable side
20	effects and are consider health hazards. Hence, the objective of this work was to optimize
21	the formulation of chitosan (CH) films with vanillin as a natural antioxidant cross-linking
22	agent, to simultaneously improve their physical, barrier, antioxidant and mechanical
23	properties. Three parameters were studied at three levels: vanillin content (0, 25 and 50%
24	w/w chitosan), glycerol content (30, 45 and 60% w/w chitosan) and drying temperature

25 (35, 50 and 65°C). Response surface methodology (RSM) and desirability function (D) were used to find the levels of each factor that simultaneously optimize different properties 26 27 of the films: opacity value, total soluble matter (TSM), Young modulus (YM), T₀ and T_{max} parameters (obtained from thermogravimetric analysis), water vapor permeability (WVP), 28 total phenolic content (TPC) and antioxidant capacity by DPPH method. Fifteen 29 formulations combining the studied factors were prepared according to a Box-Behnken 30 design. An optimal chitosan film formulation was found, with vanillin content of 37.5% 31 32 (w/w of CH), glycerol content of 45% (w/w of CH) and drying temperature of 57.5°C. RSM approach using the desirability function was found to be an effective tool to 33 investigate changes in films properties and to search for the optimal active chitosan film 34 35 formulation with a natural cross-linking agent, such as vanillin.

36

37 Keywords Chitosan films; Response surface methodology; Vanillin; antioxidant film.

38

39 1. INTRODUCTION

40

Recently, with the increasing concern on environmental issues, different authors have focused their attention on the development of natural innovative and active materials for food packaging applications [1], such as biopolymer formulations based on agricultural wastes [2] and active packaging as carrier of antimicrobial and antioxidant compounds [3– 7]. Among polysaccharides, chitosan (CH) has been widely studied due to its excellent film-forming nature [8], antimicrobial properties, biocompatibility and biodegradability [6,9]. However, comparing biodegradable materials properties (such as CH) with non-

48 biodegradable petrochemical-based plastics, biopolymers have relatively poor mechanical49 and barrier properties, which limits their use in the food packaging industry [10,11].

One promising way to overcome the poor mechanical and water barrier properties of 50 hydrocolloid films is to modify their physical properties through chemical, enzymatic, or 51 physical treatments that induce both inter- and intra-molecular chemical bonding [12]. 52 These treatments basically modify the polymer network through cross-linking of the 53 polymer chains, i.e. improving the film functionality. Different cross-linking methods and 54 55 agents are used depending on the biopolymer and on the extent of improvement in desired properties. Particularly, chemical cross-linking involves the use of chemical agents (such 56 as glutaraldehyde [13], glyoxal [14], formaldehyde [15], and polyaspartic acid and its 57 58 sodium salt [16]). Nevertheless, these agents may show some undesirable side effects and could be considered as health hazards. Thus, replacing them with natural non-toxic cross-59 linking agents is being encouraged. 60

Therefore, in recent years more attention has been paid on more green and natural cross-61 linking agents, such as protein, starch and plant extracts (polyphenols and aldehyde 62 63 compounds) [17]. Among these, vanillin, which exists in sugar beet and in vanilla pods, is one of the most popular flavoring agents and it is widely used in several fields such as 64 food, beverages, perfumery and pharmaceutical industries [18,19]. Due to its aldehyde 65 66 group, vanillin has been identified as a bio-based cross-linking agent. It is an attractive bio-based monomer, and it has been successfully incorporated into novel polymers with a 67 wide variety of practical applications [20]. Until now, few studies have been found were 68 69 vanillin is applied for enhancement of chitosan film properties [21].

70 On the other hand, incorporation of antioxidant compounds in the biomaterial is an 71 interesting approach to improve the antioxidant properties of the polymers [22]. Natural

antioxidants (mainly vitamins and polyphenols extracted from plants and fruits) such as vanillin, are being preferred over synthetic ones due to the possible harmful health effects of the latter ones [23]. For example, rosemary antioxidant extracts have been incorporated into cassava starch films [24], propolis incorporated into chitosan films [25], different essential oils incorporated into polysaccharide and protein films [26,27], and some fruit extracts [28,29] have also been studied to develop antioxidant active food packaging.

Together with microbiological growth, the oxidative processes are one of the main causes of food quality deterioration [30,31]; i.e. oxidative processes are responsible for texture modifications, loss of nutritional value, development of undesirable compounds such as off-flavors, colored and even toxic substances to humans, among others [32]. Therefore, antioxidant-active packaging [33] as carrier of natural antioxidant compounds, such as vanillin, is being highlighted as a new mechanism to prevent food oxidation [22,34–36].

Most polysaccharide-based films (e.g. chitosan) are naturally brittle, and usually a plasticizer needs to be incorporated to solve this problem [37]. Plasticizers are compounds with low molecular weight that are incorporated into the film forming solution to increase the flexibility and extensibility of the material. However, its permeability also increases with higher plasticizer content. Therefore, the concentration of plasticizer in the film forming solution is a parameter that needs to be optimized. The most commonly used plasticizer for improving edible films properties is glycerol [38].

Besides its formulation, some process parameters can also significantly affect the properties of the films. For example, drying temperature can affect the physical and mechanical properties [38]. When preparing films with higher drying temperature, the resistance and stiffness of the material can be enhanced [39]. However, especially for the development of antioxidant films, higher drying temperature can reduce the antioxidant

96 properties of the final material. Mayachiew and Devahastin [40] when studying chitosan-97 based edible films incorporated with Indian gooseberry extract stated that high drying 98 temperatures induced degradation of phenolic compounds leading to a lower residual 99 phenolic content on the films.

Hence, this work aimed at optimizing the formulation of edible chitosan-based films obtained by casting containing vanillin as a natural antioxidant cross-linking agent. The studied factors were: vanillin content, plasticizer content (glycerol) and drying temperature. Physical, antioxidant, barrier and mechanical properties were simultaneously improved by response surface methodology (RSM) and desirability function.

105

- 106 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS
- 107

108 **2.1. Materials**

109 Chitosan (CH) (deacetylation degree 90%, $Mv = 1.61 \times 10^5$ g/mol) was supplied by 110 PARAFARM, Mar del Plata, Argentina. Glycerol (Gly) was used as plasticizer and 111 purchased from Biopack (Argentina). Vanillin (V) was incorporated as a natural 112 antioxidant cross-linking agent purchased from Sigma Aldrich (> 97%; St. Louis, MO, 113 USA).

114

115 2.2. Experimental design

116 Three parameters or explanatory factors were chosen based on previous screening 117 experiments: vanillin content (x_1 , % w/w of CH), glycerol content (x_2 , % w/w of CH) and 118 drying temperature (x_3 , °C). In order to analyze the effects of these factors on the physical, 119 barrier, mechanical and antioxidant properties of the chitosan films, Response Surface

Methodology (RSM) with a Box–Behnken (BB) design [41] was used. RSM is a statistical tool that allows to evaluate the effects of many factors and their interactions on response variables. This method has the advantage of reducing the number of experimental runs needed to evaluate multiple variables and the ability to identify interactions between them [42].

For a 3-level–3-factor BB experimental design with three replicates at the central point, a total of 15 experimental runs were needed [43], in which each variable was tested at three different coded levels: low (–1), middle (0) and high (+1). Table 1 shows the experimental design in the coded (X_i) and actual (x_i) levels of the independent variables.

129

	Indeper	Coded variables				
Exp. Run	x ₁ (V) (%w/w CH)	x ₂ (Gly) (% w/w CH)	$\begin{array}{c} x_3 \left(T_d \right) \\ (^{\circ}C) \end{array}$	\mathbf{X}_1	X_2	X ₃
1	0	30	50	-1	-1	0
2	0	60	50	-1	1	0
3	50	30	50	1	-1	0
4	50	60	50	1	1	0
5	25	30	35	0	-1	-1
6	25	30	65	0	-1	1
7	25	60	35	0	1	-1
8	25	60	65	0	1	1
9	0	45	35	-1	0	-1
10	50	45	35	1	0	-1
11	0	45	65	-1	0	1
12	50	45	65	1	0	1
13	25	45	50	0	0	0
14	25	45	50	0	0	0
15	25	45	50	0	0	0

V: vanillin content; Gly: glycerol content; T_d: drying temperature.

131

The chosen response variables were opacity, total soluble matter (TSM), Young modulus (YM), T_0 and T_{max} parameters (obtained from thermogravimetric analysis), water vapor permeability (WVP), total polyphenol content (TPC) and antioxidant capacity of the films evaluated by DPPH method. A second-degree polynomial (eq. 1) was used to fit the measured responses to the coded variables.

138
$$Y_{n} = \beta_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{3} \beta_{i} X_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{j=2, j>i}^{3} \beta_{ij} X_{i} X_{j} + \sum_{i=1}^{3} \beta_{ii} X_{i}^{2}$$
(1)

139 where,

- 140 Y_n is the predicted response,
- 141 β_0 is the model constant,
- 142 β_i is the linear coefficient,
- 143 β_{ii} is the quadratic coefficient,
- 144 β_{ii} is the coefficient for the interaction effect, and
- 145 X_i is a dimensionless coded value of the independent variable x_i .

146

147 2.3. Film preparation

Chitosan film-forming solutions (2%, w/v) were prepared by dissolving chitosan powder 148 in acetic acid solution (1% v/v) at room temperature ($23 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C), according to Pereda et al. 149 [44]. Appropriate amounts of glycerol (Gly) were added to each sample according to the 150 BB design. Once the solutions were homogeneous, vanillin (V) was incorporated as a 151 152 natural antioxidant cross-linking agent in the corresponding proportions (Table 1) and 153 dissolved using a magnetic stirrer. Films were prepared by the casting technique, that is, 15 154 g of the film-forming solutions were poured into each Teflon Petri dish (diameter = 9 cm) 155 and dried at the different drying temperatures according to the BB design, for

- approximately 24 h in a convection oven (30% RH average). After the excess of water was evaporated, the obtained films were peeled off from the plates and kept in a closed reservoir at constant relative humidity (50% RH) and temperature ($23 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C) for 3 days. The films were further characterized and tested.
- 160

161 **2.4.** Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

162 A Thermo Scientific Nicolet 6700 spectrometer (Wisconsin, EEUU) was used to record 163 Spectra. 32 scans with resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ were performed between 400 and 4000 cm⁻¹ on 164 every run, using an attenuated total reflection (ATR) accessory with a diamond ATR 165 crystal.

166

167 **2.5. Film thickness**

Film thickness was measured with a 3400-25 Insize 0–25 mm manual micrometer (Germany) with an accuracy of ± 0.01 mm. Four random locations were measured for each film.

171

172 2.6. Response variables

The effects of vanillin content, glycerol content and drying temperature on chitosan-based
films were simultaneously evaluated through several parameters associated with physical,
barrier, mechanical and antioxidant properties.

176

177 **2.6.1.** Film opacity

Film opacity was determined according to the method described by Irissin-Mangata et al.[45] on rectangular strips directly placed in a UV-Visible spectrophotometer test cell. A

UV-Visible spectrophotometer Shimadzu 1601 PC (Tokyo, Japan) was used to obtain the
absorption spectrum of the sample from 400 to 800 nm. Film opacity was defined as the
area under the curve divided by film thickness and expressed as Absorbance Units ×
nm/mm (AU nm/mm). Three measures were performed for each sample.

184

185 2.6.2. Total soluble matter (TSM)

Total soluble matter (TSM) was expressed as the film dry mass percentage dissolved after 24 h immersion in distilled water. TSM measurements were carried out according to the "wet" method [46], using 30 mL of distilled water with 0.02% of sodium azide to prevent any possible microbial growth.

Three specimens of each film were weighed and then directly immersed in distilled water under the previously described conditions. After 24 h immersion, samples were oven dried ($105^{\circ}C$, 24 h), to determine the dried remnant insoluble mass (m_f). Initial dry mass values (m_0) needed for the TSM calculations were obtained from different specimens cut out from the same film and oven dried at 105°C for 24 h. TSM was then calculated with eq. 2:

195
$$TSM = \frac{m_0 - m_f}{m_0} 100\%$$
 (2)

196

197 2.6.3. Mechanical properties: Young modulus (YM)

Prior to running mechanical tests, films were conditioned for 48 h at constant humidity and temperature ($50 \pm 5\%$ RH, 25° C). An Instron Universal Testing Machine model 8501 (USA) was used to perform tensile tests at room temperature ($23 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C). Specimens were cut according to the ASTM D1708-13 [47]. Five specimens from each film were tested from a minimum of three films per sample. Crosshead speed was set at 10 mm per min. Young modulus (YM) was calculated as thoroughly described in ASTM D638-14 [48]. 204

205 2.6.4. Thermal properties: thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

TGA measurements were carried out on a Shimadzu TGA-50 thermogravimetric analyzer. Thermal degradation was performed under a nitrogen atmosphere up to 600°C with a heating ramp of 10°C per min. Samples of 4–10 mg were used. For the determination of weight loss of the films, initial weight values were taken after moisture evaporation (i.e. the sample weight at 105°C); hence, comparing only thermal degradation of the films, independently of their moisture contents.

212

213 2.6.5. Barrier properties: Water vapor permeability (WVP)

Water vapor transfer rate (WVTR, $g.s^{-1}.m^{-2}$) through films was determined 214 gravimetrically using the ASTM Method E96M-16 [49]. Before testing, films were placed 215 for 3 days in a chamber at room temperature (23 \pm 2 °C) and humidity of 63 \pm 2% RH, to 216 guarantee equilibrium conditions. Then, film specimens were sealed on acrylic permeation 217 cups (diameter = 5 cm) containing distilled water (100% RH). The cups were weighed 218 219 every hour over a 6 h period. Inside the chamber, a fan was used to move the internal air, hence, ensuring uniform conditions at the entire test location. Linear regression was used 220 to fit the data, weight vs. time, and to calculate the slope of the resulting straight line in 221 $g.s^{-1}$. WVP of the films, expressed as $g.m/(Pa.s.m^2)$, was calculated according to equations 222 3 and 4. Four specimens were tested for each film type. 223

224

225
$$WVP = WVTR y (p_2 - p_1)^{-1}$$
 (3)

226 $WVTR = \Delta W (A \Delta t)^{-1}$ (4)

228	where,
229	WVTR is the water vapor transmission rate,
230	y is the film thickness,
231	$(p_2 - p_1)$ is the vapor pressure difference across the film (calculated based on the
232	chamber temperature and RH inside and outside the cup),
233	ΔW is the weight of water absorbed in the cup,
234	A is the exposed area of the film, and
235	Δt is the time for weight change.
236	
237	2.6.6. Antioxidant properties
238	Polyphenol and antioxidant extraction was performed by a shaker holding 0.5 g of each
239	film in flasks filled with 20 mL of methanol at room temperature for 24 h in dark

conditions. Afterwards, these flasks were sonicated in an ultrasound chamber (PS-30A,
RoHs, China) during 20 min at room temperature [50]. The final extract was stored at -20
°C to be used in the determination of total phenolic content (TPC) and antioxidant activity
by DPPH method.

244

245 2.6.6.1. Total phenolic content (TPC)

Total phenolic content (TPC) was determined using the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (FCR) according to the methodology proposed by Viacava et al. [51] with modifications. Extract samples (0.2 mL) were added to 1 mL of 1:10 FCR. After 3 min of incubation at room temperature, 0.8 mL of sodium carbonate solution (Na₂CO₃, 7.5% w/v) was added and the reaction mixture was stirred and incubated for 2 h at the same temperature. The absorbance was measured at 765 nm using a UV 1601 PC UV-visible spectrophotometer (Shimadzu

252	Corporation,	Japan).	TPC	was	calculated	using	a	standard	curve	of	gallic	acid	and
253	expressed as	mg gallio	c acid	equiv	valents (GA	E) per g	gra	um of film					

254

255 2.6.6.2. Antioxidant capacity: DPPH radical scavenging method

Antioxidant activity was measured using the DPPH (2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl) 256 radical, with the methodology previously described by Viacava et al. [51]. Briefly, 0.25 257 mL of sample extract or ethanol (blank) was mixed with 1 mL of an ethanolic DPPH 258 solution (100 μ mol L⁻¹). The mixtures were immediately shaken and allowed to stand for 259 260 60 min at refrigeration temperature (2 °C) in the dark. After that, the decrease in absorbance at 517 nm was measured in a spectrophotometer (FLUOstar Omega). DPPH 261 radical scavenging activity was expressed as percentage of radical scavenging capacity 262 (%*In*) calculated according to the following formula: 263

(5)

264 %
$$In = \frac{A_0 - A_s}{A_0} \times 100$$

265 where,

266 *%In* is the percentage of DPPH radical inhibition;

267 A_0 is the absorbance of the blank sample; and

- 268 A_s is the absorbance of the sample.
- 269 Measurements were performed in triplicate for each treatment.

270

271 2.7. Simultaneous optimization

272 During optimization, several response variables describing the quality characteristics are

usually to be optimized. Some of these variables were to be maximized while some were

to be minimized. In many cases, these responses were competing (i.e. improving one response may have an opposite effect on another one, which further complicates the situation). In this work, the responses predicted by the models were optimized by means of the "desirability optimization methodology" [52]. The desirability function (D) approach is one of the most widely used methods for the optimization of several responses simultaneously.

The general approach is to first convert each response (y_n) into an individual desirability function (d_n) . The desirability scale ranges from 0 to 1, where d = 0 for an unacceptable response value, and d = 1 for a completely desirable one. The individual desirability functions from the considered responses are then combined to obtain the overall desirability (D), defined as the geometric average of the individual desirability functions, also ranging from 0 to 1. An algorithm is then applied to this function to determine the set of values that maximizes D [53].

287

288 **2.8. Validation**

In order to test the reliability of the simultaneous optimization, a new set of experiments using optimal operating conditions obtained with the Desirability function was performed. The experimental and predicted values of the response variables were compared to determine the validity of the model.

- 293
- 294 **2.9. Statistical analysis**

SAS software (version 9.0, North Carolina, USA) was use for data analysis. Fit quality of the model was evaluated by R^2 parameter and analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the Response Surface Regression (RSREG) procedure. Statistical testing of the model was

- done by Fisher's statistical test. The robustness of the model was assessed by determination coefficient (R^2), correlation coefficient (R), or F-test.
- 300 Statistica software (version 7.0, Stat Soft Inc., Tulsa, USA) was used to perform
- 301 simultaneous optimization, desirability functional analysis and 3D plots of the responses.
- 302
- 303 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
- 304

305 3.1. FT-IR analysis

306 Chemical structure of the films often has a close relationship with their behavior at a 307 macro scale. Hence, FT-IR analysis could explain the effects of the studied parameters on 308 the physicochemical and mechanical properties of the composite films. Table 2 portrays 309 the FTIR spectral details. The FTIR spectra of all 15 samples are shown in supplementary 310 material (Fig. S1).

- 311
- 312 *Table 2. FT-IR spectral details.*

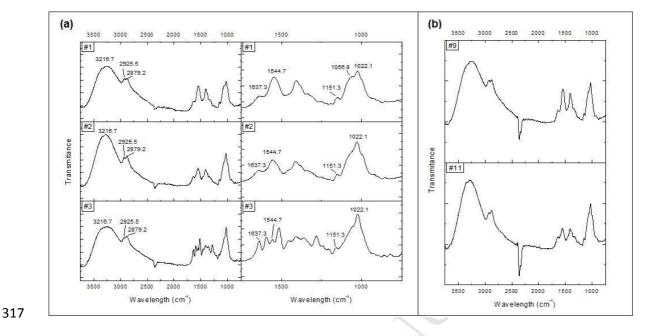
Wavelength (cm ⁻¹)	Responsible functional group			
3216.7	Intermolecular hydrogen bonded OH stretching, NH stretching in secondary amides			
2925.5	Asymmetrical C-H stretching in CH ₂ (aliphatic)			
2879.2	symmetrical C-H stretching			
1637.3	C=O stretching in secondary amides, and vibration of imine band (Schiff			
	base)			
1544.7	-NH bending in secondary amides			
1151.3	Symmetrical CH bending in CH ₃ (wagging)			
1056.8, 1022.1	C-O stretching			

³¹³

chitosan and vanillin, FT-IR spectra of samples #1, #2 and #3 were compared (Fig. 1.a).

In order to further discuss the interactions between chitosan and glycerol and between

316



318 *Fig. 1: FT-IR spectra: (a) samples #1, #2 and #3; (b) samples #9 and #11.*

319

Samples #1 (0% V, 50°C and 30% Gly) and #2 (0% V, 50°C and 60% Gly) were compared in order to analyze the effect of glycerol content on the chemical structure of the films. The absorption peaks at 1022.1 cm⁻¹ and 1056.8 cm⁻¹ are associated with C-O stretching. When glycerol content is increased from sample #1 to sample #2, these peaks are joined to become a single peak, suggesting interactions between hydroxyl groups of chitosan and glycerol by hydrogen bonding, as was previously described by Leceta et al. [54].

With regards to chitosan-vanillin interaction, it can be seen when comparing samples #1 and #2 (CH films without vanillin) with sample #3 (CH film with 50% of vanillin) that the band at 1544.7 cm⁻¹ (corresponding to deformation vibration of amino in pure chitosan films) decreases its intensity in the composite film. Moreover, the vibration of imine band has appeared at 1637.3 cm⁻¹ in the composite film (sample #3), in accordance with results presented by Zhang et al. [21]. These findings support that there were interactions ofvanillin with amino groups in chitosan matrix.

334 Regarding the effect of the drying temperature on the chemical structure of chitosan films, analysis was performed by comparing the spectra of samples #9 and #11 (Fig. 1.b), which 335 formulations corresponded to 0% V, and 45% Gly, and drying temperatures of 35°C and 336 65°C, respectively. Each peak was noted in the same wavelength position for both drying 337 conditions, but with different intensities. The same result result was found by Jahit et al. 338 [55] when studying the properties of gelatin/CMC/chitosan films as affected by drying 339 temperature. It was found that the peaks at 3216.7 cm^{-1} (which correspond to the 340 intermolecular hydrogen bonded) were slightly sharper in samples dried at 65 °C 341 342 compared to those dried at 35 °C (Fig. 1.b). Hence, higher drying temperature may induce higher intermolecular interactions. These results were in accordance with those found by 343 Mayachiew & Devahastin [40], who studied different drying methods, and different drying 344 conditions on the characteristics of chitosan films enriched with Indian Gooseberry extract. 345

346

347 **3.2. Model fitting**

Table 3 shows the mean values of the response variables found for each of the fifteen formulations of chitosan films. Second order polynomial equations coefficients were calculated with experimental data to obtain the significance of the model. Table 4 shows the regression coefficients for the second order polynomial equations together with the linear, quadratic and interaction terms, and also the correlation coefficients (\mathbb{R}^2).

			Experi	mental r	esponse	s	K	
Even Duen	Opacity	TSM	YM	To	T _{max}	WVP	TPC	DPPH
Exp. Run	(AU nm/mm)	(%)	(MPa)	(°C)	(°C)	$(g.m/Pa.s.m^2 10^{10})$	(mg GAE/g)	(inhibition %)
1	1215.2	27.41	355.6	128.9	153.8	4.01	1.65	7.12
2	1113.6	11.39	86.6	127.35	197.1	4.33	1.13	5.22
3	4618.3	27.25	1925.4	139.4	163.2	3.87	7.03	38.1
4	4449.7	30.91	1453.2	132.3	155.2	3.59	7.67	45.02
5	2962.6	26.41	413.0	126.0	161.1	4.07	3.25	25.09
6	3554.7	20.51	1945.7	142.1	171.6	2.96	2.94	10.23
7	2444.1	19.57	77.2	124.9	174.8	3.74	2.29	15.52
8	2671.0	20.98	1030.5	143.6	180.7	3.26	2.59	10.02
9	902.0	24.52	67.0	119.6	182.7	3.82	1.44	6.12
10	2970.9	27.56	1265.2	131.5	176.0	3.61	4.66	30.45
11	1357.1	23.56	361.1	134.7	198.8	3.00	1.45	1.03
12	3353.7	36.37	2188.7	145.7	178.3	3.44	5.95	20.55
13	2739.3	25.83	510.4	128.8	175.0	2.77	3.25	25.88
14	2460.8	21.86	855.8	134.4	197.0	2.92	3.32	22.10
15	2870.0	19.65	651.6	133.8	184.6	2.86	2.53	17.52

C C E

Table 3. Mean values of all responses of chitosan edible films with different formulations

	Response variables								
Coefficients	Opacity (UA nm/mm)	TSM (%)	YM (MPa)	T _o (°C)	T _{max} (°C)	WVP (g.m/Pa.s.m ² 10 ¹⁰)	TPC (mg GAE/g)	DPPH (inhibition %)	
β_0 (intercept)	2690.1***	22.44***	672.6***	132.3***	185.5***	2.84***	3.03**	21.33**	
$\beta_1(V)$	1350.6***	4.40^{**}	745.3***	4.8^{***}	-7.5**	-0.082	2.45^{***}	14.25***	
β_2 (Gly)	-209.1	-2.34*	-249.1*	-1.1	7.3**	0.000	-0.15	-0.62	
$\beta_3(T_d)$	207.1	0.41	462.9***	8.1^{***}	4.3	-0.322**	0.16	-4.37	
β_{12} (V x Gly)	-16.8	4.92^{*}	-50.8	-1.4	-12.8**	-0.150	0.29	2.25	
β_{13} (V x T _d)	-18.1	2.44	157.4	-0.2	-3.4	0.160	0.32	-1.25	
β_{23} (Gly x T _d)	-91.3	1.83	-144.8	0.6	-1.1	0.157	0.15	2.50	
β_{11} (V x V)	-301.5	3.96**	193.2	-0.8	-3.1	0.530^{**}	0.97*	0.83	
β_{22} (Gly x Gly)	460.7	-2.17	89.3	0.5	-15.1**	0.567^{**}	0.36	1.58	
$\beta_{33} \left(T_d x T_d \right)$	-242.6	1.59	104.6	1.5	1.6	0.087	-0.63	-7.92^{*}	
\mathbf{R}^2	0.936	0.9045	0.959	0.948	0.907	0.939	0.948	0.928	

Table 4. Regression coefficients (from coded data) and R^2 of the response surface models

V: vanillin content; **Gly**: glycerol content; **T**_d: drying temperature. Level of significance: $p < {}^{*}0.05$; ${}^{**}0.01$; ${}^{***}0.001$

Level of significance: *p* < 0.05; 0.01; 0.001

361 362 363

Predicted models were found to be significant (p < 0.01) with high regression coefficients 364 $(0.90 < R^2 < 0.96)$ and not significant lack of fit (p > 0.1). ANOVA results (Table 5) 365 366 indicated that all the independent variables exhibited a significant effect on the different film properties. Vanillin concentration was a significant factor (p < 0.05) on every 367 response, either by the linear term (opacity, YM, T₀, T_{max}, DPPH), the quadratic term 368 (TSM, WVP) or both (TPC). Glycerol linear term significantly affected YM and T_{max} , and 369 had a quadratic effect on TSM, T_{max} and WVP. Drying temperature also significantly (p < p370 0.05) affected TSM, E, T₀ and WVP in linear terms, and in quadratic terms only DPPH. 371 The only significant interaction effect found (p < 0.05) was between glycerol and vanillin, 372 which affected both TSM and T_{max} values. 373

Table 5. Results of the ANOVA for regression equation for opacity, TSM, E, T₀, T_{max}, WVP, TPC
 and DPPH.

Responses	Source	DF	F value	Pr > F
Opacity	Linear	3	22.33	0.0025
	Quadratic	3	2.11	0.2173
	Cross-product	3	0.05	0.9825
	Total model	9	8.16	0.0162
	Lack of fit	3	1.36	0.4505
TSM	Linear	3	7.47	0.0270
	Quadratic	3	3.31	0.1152
	Cross-product	3	7.23	0.0356
	Total model	9	8.26	0.0344
	Lack of fit	3	0.85	0.5792
YM	Linear	3	37.60	0.0007
	Quadratic	3	1.05	0.4486
	Cross-product	3	1.09	0.4330
	Total model	9	13.25	0.0055
	Lack of fit	3	2.59	0.2906
T_0	Linear	3	29.52	0.0013
	Quadratic	3	0.44	0.7343
	Cross-product	3	0.40	0.7588
	Total model	9	10.12	0.0101
	Lack of fit	3	0.74	0.6188
T_{max}	Linear	3	6.36	0.0369
	Quadratic	3	5.51	0.0483
	Cross-product	3	4.44	0.0711
	Total model	9	5.44	0.0284

	Lack of fit	3	0.06	0.9738
WVP	Linear	3	6.98	0.0309
	Quadratic	3	16.28	0.0052
	Cross-product	3	2.30	0.1946
	Total model	9	8.52	0.0148
	Lack of fit	3	7.74	0.2364
TPC	Linear	3	26.50	0.0017
	Quadratic	3	3.15	0.1243
	Cross-product	3	0.46	0.7218
	Total model	9	10.04	0.0103
	Lack of fit	3	4.70	0.1803
DPPH	Linear	3	18.33	0.0040
	Quadratic	3	2.63	0.1621
	Cross-product	3	0.53	0.6810
	Total model	9	7.16	0.0215
	Lack of fit	3	2.64	0.2868
DE 1 f	C 1			

DF: degrees of freedom

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380 3.2.1. Influence of formulation on physical properties (opacity, TSM)

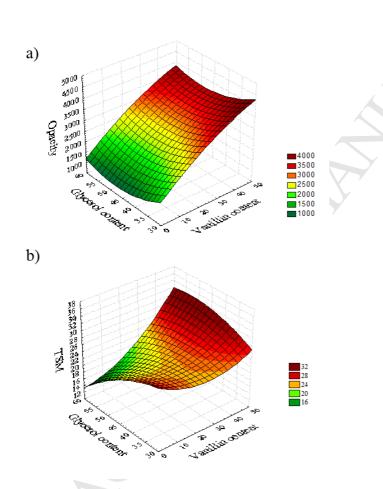
Optical properties such as the opacity and transparency of the material are essential to define its potential as films and coatings to be applied over a food surface, since these affect the appearance of the coated product, which is an important quality factor. In general, transparent films are preferred, therefore, the opacity of films should be quite low [56,57].

Results show that opacity of the film was only significantly affected (p < 0.001) by vanillin concentration. The linear and positive term of vanillin concentration resulted significant in the model. The resulting response surface equation described the opacity of the film perfectly ($\mathbb{R}^2 = 0.936$). Lack of fit was not significant (p = 0.4505) showing that the response surface equation adequately described the data (Table 5).

391 Canonical analysis shows that stationary point was a saddle point, suggesting that 392 movement away from this point would cause an increased or decreased response, 393 depending upon movement direction. Fig. 2.a presents the response surface showing the

combined effects of vanillin and glycerol concentrations on the opacity values of the chitosan films (with T_d kept constant at middle level). As it can be seen, the opacity of the films increased with increasing vanillin content, which could be explained by the crosslinking reaction. The aldehyde group of vanillin molecule with chitosan amine group can lead to a secondary aldimine, better known as a Schiff base, which is a well-described reaction [58], as previously seen in the FT-IR analysis.





401

402 Fig. 2: Response surface curves for physical properties of chitosan-based films. Variation of (a)
403 opacity and (b) TSM with vanillin and glycerol concentrations. Drying temperature was kept
404 constant at middle level (50°C).

In accordance with our findings, Zhang et al. [21] investigated chitosan films properties modified with vanillin. These authors found that vanillin concentration had a significant (p< 0.05) effect on film color and transmittance. This phenomenon is due to the cross-linking reaction of vanillin with chitosan to form a network structure [21]. Higueras et al. [59] studied chitosan films with cinnamaldehyde and found a significant change in the optical properties of the films due to the presence of a conjugated double bond after Schiff base formation.

413 A simple way to confirm the development of interactions between the main constituents of our films is to determine their water-soluble fraction. The effect of both vanillin and 414 glycerol concentrations on the total soluble matter (TSM) of the films is shown on Fig. 2.b. 415 Both, linear and quadratic terms of vanillin were significant (p < 0.05) in the model, 416 showing an increment in TSM of the films with higher vanillin concentration. Glycerol 417 linear term was also significant; however, the behavior of TSM with Gly was more 418 419 complex with a significant interaction between vanillin and glycerol. Canonical analysis show that stationary point was a saddle point. Fig. 2.b represents TSM as a function of 420 glycerol and vanillin content, holding drying temperature at a middle level (50°C), since 421 this variable presented the least influence on this response. At lower vanillin concentration, 422 an increment in glycerol content resulted in a decrease on the film solubility, as it can be 423 seen in Fig. 2.b. This result could be related to the observations previously made at the 424 425 FTIR section. In the absence of cross-linker, there might be interactions between the hydroxyl groups of chitosan and glycerol by hydrogen bonding, hence, reducing the 426 solubility of the film in water [60,61]. On the contrary, as vanillin concentration increases, 427 the plasticizer has an opposite effect on the film solubility: with higher glycerol content, 428

429 the TSM increases as well. With vanillin cross-linking chitosan, glycerol-water430 interactions may occur, increasing the solubility of the film.

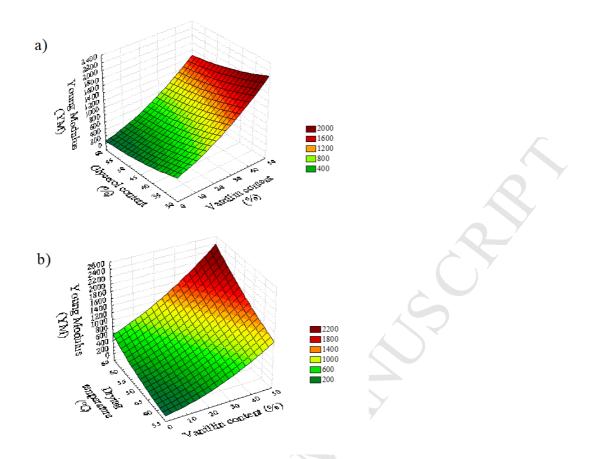
431 Souza et al. [36] studied physical properties of chitosan films incorporated with natural antioxidants. These authors also reported higher water solubility and moisture in films 432 incorporated with natural extracts in comparison with pure chitosan films due to the 433 interaction of water, chitosan and polyphenols present on the studied extracts [36]. Even 434 though higher water solubility may have positive effects, such as enhancing the film 435 436 biodegradability, it would also limit the use of films in food matrices. The bioplastic tends to solubilize in the food (especially in products with high water content) making it difficult 437 to separate the plastic from the food being packed [36]. 438

439

440 3.2.2. Influence of formulation on mechanical properties (YM)

Young modulus (YM) is a measure of the stiffness of the film. The regression analysis of
the data showed that YM was significantly affected by the drying temperature, and vanillin
and glycerol concentration the concentration of vanillin and glycerol. The three studied
variables significantly affected the mechanical properties in a linear way.

Canonical and stationary point analysis indicated that the stationary point was a point of
minimum response predicting that the estimated conditions were inside the experimental
design region. The relationship between YM and independent variables is depicted in Fig.
3 (a and b).



450

451

452 Fig. 3: Response surface curves for mechanical properties of chitosan-based films. Variation of
453 Young modulus with (a) vanillin and glycerol concentrations, and (b) vanillin concentration and
454 drying temperature. The remaining variables were kept constant at middle level.

455

456 Mechanical properties of films are mainly associated with distribution and density of inter-457 and intra-molecular interactions in the chitosan matrix [54].

Results showed that the addition of vanillin caused an increment in the young modulus of the chitosan films (Fig. 3.a). Zhang et al. [21] also found similar results when studying mechanical properties of chitosan films with vanillin. These results indicate that adding vanillin, which acts as a cross-linking agent, enhances the structure of chitosan films by forming a relatively dense network.

With regards to the plasticizer, YM decreased with glycerol content (Fig. 3.a), which could be induced by the interactions between chitosan and the plasticizer, as it was shown by the FT-IR study. Mechanical properties of the films can be mainly linked to the physicochemical characteristic of the chitosan/glycerol interaction. These results were also found by Lavorgna et al. [62], who showed a decrease in the elastic modulus when glycerol was incorporated into chitosan-based films.

With regards to T_d , higher YM were achieved with higher drying temperatures (Fig. 3.b). In accordance with our findings, Jomlapeeratikul et al. [38] also studied the effect of drying temperature and glycerol content in Konjac flour films, and found that higher elastic modulus values (stiffer films) were obtained at higher drying temperatures.

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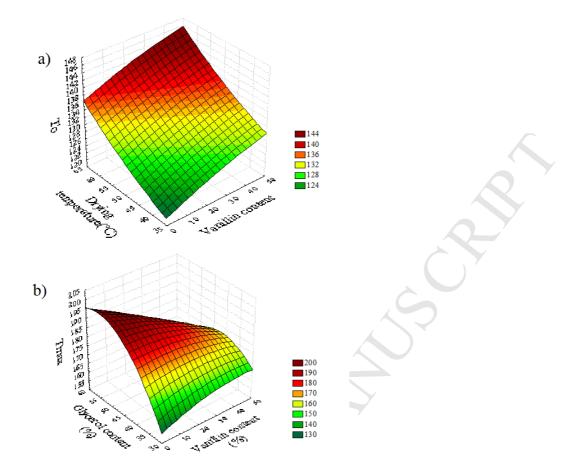
474 3.2.3. Influence of formulation on thermal properties (TGA: T_{0} , T_{max})

The thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) was used to measure the thermal stability of the chitosan films. From the curves, two parameters (T_0 and T_{max}) were determined. T_0 is defined as the initial decomposition temperature (IDT, also called onset decomposition temperature). T_0 differed among samples and ranged between 119 and 146°C (Table 3).

TGA showed that the different chitosan films had two well-defined degradation stages (see 479 Fig S.2 as an example in supplementary data). Region I is related to the loss of water 480 bounded and absorbed on the polymer structure. The peak temperature (temperature of 481 maximum rate of weight loss) in this region (T_{max}) was detected for each sample from the 482 first derivative of the weight loss curves (DTG), and ranged between 153 and 199°C 483 484 (Table 3). Region II is related to the polymer decomposition. The decomposition peak temperatures in this region showed little fluctuations among the different samples (271-485 282°C). 486

487 The estimated values of the model coefficients describing the parameters effects on T_0 and 488 T_{max} , together with their *p*-values are presented in Table 4.

The variance analysis revealed that T_0 was significantly (p < 0.001) affected by vanillin 489 concentration and drying temperature. For both independent variables, linear and positive 490 effects were observed, while glycerol exerted no significant effect. Therefore, Fig. 4.a 491 represents T₀ as a function of vanillin content and drying temperature, holding glycerol 492 content at middle level (45% w/w of CH). It can be seen that with increasing vanillin 493 494 content, T₀ increases. This result shows that the incorporation of vanillin significantly increases thermal stability of chitosan matrixes, which could be explained by the reaction 495 between vanillin and chitosan. In accordance with our findings, Kavianinia et al. [63] 496 497 studied the effects of different cross-linking agents on thermal properties of chitosan-based films. These authors also found that the cross-linking of the chitosan matrix increases its 498 499 thermal stability.



501

502 *Fig. 4:* Response surface curves for thermal properties of chitosan-based films. (*a*): Variation of T_0 503 with vanillin concentration and drying temperature. (*b*): Variation of T_{max} with vanillin and 504 glycerol concentrations. The remaining variables were kept constant at middle level.

505

With regards to T_{max} , the variance analysis in Table 5 revealed that it was significantly affected (p < 0.01) by both vanillin and glycerol concentrations. No significant effect of drying temperature was observed. Fig. 4.b. shows the effects of both vanillin and glycerol content on T_{max} of the chitosan films. Both linear and quadratic effects of glycerol were observed on T_{max} , and only linear effect was observed for vanillin concentration. The interaction between vanillin and glycerol significantly affected (p < 0.01) T_{max} in a negative manner.

513 As it can be seen in Fig. 4.b, at low glycerol concentrations the peak temperature slightly 514 increases with increasing vanillin concentration. On the contrary, at higher glycerol 515 content, the effect of vanillin on T_{max} was the opposite, with a drastic negative slope. This 516 result indicates that the vanillin-chitosan matrix tends to retain less water, which in turn volatilizes more easily than it does in chitosan membranes, suggesting that the cross-linked 517 chitosan films have lower affinity to water. This indicates the higher hydrophobic 518 character of chitosan after crosslinking agent could increase the binding of water in the 519 520 chitosan matrix. These results are in accordance with those found by Beppu et al. [13] who studied the effect of glutaraldehyde as a cross-linking agent in chitosan membranes. 521

522

523 3.2.4.Influence of formulation on barrier properties (WVP)

WVP is considered a crucial property for films potentially used as food films and coatings, because most natural biopolymers are very prone to absorbing water [64]. One of the main functions of films is to separate the product from vapor in the surrounding atmosphere to prevent or retard food deterioration. Hence, to keep foods fresh, the WVP value should be maintained as low as possible [64].

The regression analysis of the data showed that WVP was significantly affected by all three tested parameters. None of the interactions were significant in the model. The relationship between WVP and independent variables is shown in Fig. 5 (a and b). A strong curvature of the surface is observed due to high significance of pure quadratic terms as shown through the variance analysis.

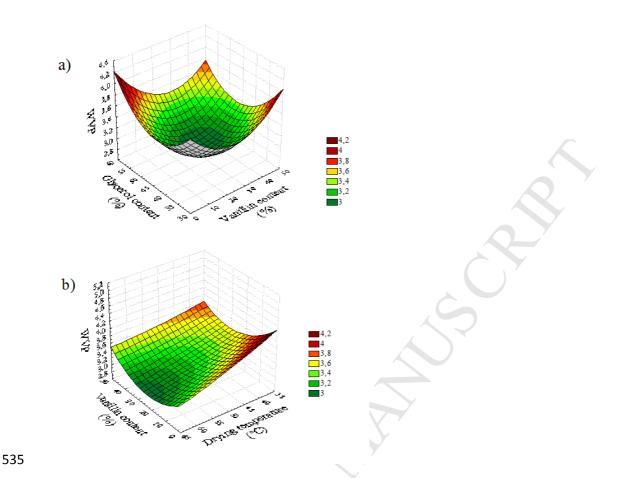


Fig. 5: Response surface curves for barrier properties of chitosan-based films. Variation of water
vapor permeability with (a) vanillin and glycerol concentrations, and (b) vanillin concentration
and drying temperature. The remaining variables were kept constant at middle level.

539

Vanillin concentration significantly (p < 0.01) affected WVP in a quadratic manner. WVP tends to decrease with increasing vanillin concentration presenting a minimum at 30% vanillin, from which point WVP started to increase with increasing vanillin content. Polyphenols such as vanillin, may establish the interactions with chitosan molecules through the potential hydrogen bonding, which may limit the interactions between hydrophilic groups of chitosan and water molecules due to the competitive binding effect [65]; therefore, resulting in the lower WVP.

547 Glycerol concentration also affected WVP in a quadratic manner. At glycerol content less 548 than 45%, WVP decreased with increasing glycerol concentration, while an increase in this 549 index was observed with further increase in glycerol content. The results found in previous 550 studies with respect to the effect of plasticizers in the WVP of films have also been opposed. The inclusion of glycerol molecules in the chitosan polymer network has 551 demonstrated to increase the interchain spacing by reducing intermolecular interactions. 552 The added plasticizer disrupts hydrogen bonding between the polymer chains, reducing the 553 554 interchain bonds and thus facilitating the diffusion of water molecules through the film. In addition, because of the hydrophilic nature of glycerol, this compound acts as a humectant, 555 enhancing the water-holding capacity of the polymer matrix and also contributing to 556 557 higher WVP values of the films [44]. On the other hand, some authors have observed a reduction in WVP with increasing glycerol concentration, like Xu et al. [66] while working 558 with corn starch and chitosan blend films. This decrease could be attributed to the 559 formation of intermolecular hydrogen bonding between NH₃⁺ groups of the chitosan and 560 hydroxyl groups of the glycerol [67]. 561

Finally, drying temperature significantly affected WVP in a linear way: higher drying temperatures resulted in lower WVP of chitosan films. In accordance with these results, Jahit et al. [55] stated that higher temperatures led to increase cohesive strength between polymer chains, thus, creating a more compact structure with less free volume, which consequently achieved lower permeability.

567

568 3.2.5. Influence of formulation on antioxidant properties (DPPH, TPC)

569 Chitosan antioxidant properties have been thoroughly explained in the past and most food 570 products could benefit from them when chitosan is used to form films [68]. Furthermore,

to enhance these inherent characteristics, a possible strategy is to add antioxidantcompounds such as vanillin into the chitosan films.

The effects of the independent variables on total phenolic content (TPC) and antioxidant capacity (DPPH) are shown in Fig. 6 (a and b, respectively). For both responses, the canonical and stationary point analysis indicated that the stationary point was a saddle point.

- 577 Total phenolic content was only significantly affected by vanillin concentration, in both
- 578 linear (p < 0.01) and quadratic (p < 0.05) terms. Results confirmed that increasing vanillin

579 content significantly increased TPC of the films, as it can be portrayed in Fig. 6.a.

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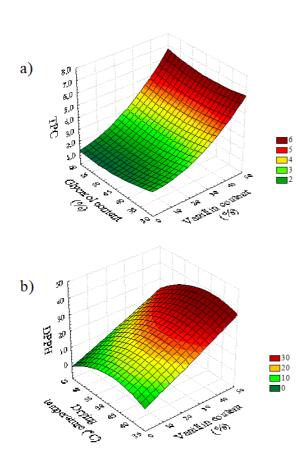


Fig. 6: Response surface curves for antioxidant properties of chitosan-based films. (a): Variation
of TPC with vanillin and glycerol concentrations. (b): Variation of DPPH with vanillin
concentration and drying temperature. The remaining variables were kept constant at middle level.

585

With regards to DPPH, the variance analysis revealed that the antioxidant capacity was 586 significantly affected by vanillin content (p < 0.001) and drying temperature (p < 0.05). A 587 curvature of the surface is observed due to the significance of the pure quadratic term for 588 589 the drying temperature of the films as shown through de variance analysis. However, the most significant parameter on the antioxidant capacity of the films was vanillin 590 concentration. A linear and positive effect was observed for vanillin content. As it can be 591 seen in Fig. 6.b, a similar trend to that found for TPC was obtained for DPPH: the 592 incorporation of vanillin in the formulation significantly increased the antioxidant capacity 593 of the films. Therefore, vanillin as a natural cross-linking agent could significantly 594 enhance antioxidant properties of chitosan films, which could implicate important benefits 595 for the food industry. 596

597

598 **3.3. Simultaneous optimization and validation**

Simultaneous optimization by desirability approach was carried out on the independent 599 variables to get the optimum levels within the experimental conditions, using the 600 significant coefficients of the predicted models. In this work, opacity, TSM and water 601 vapor permeability (WVP) of the films were minimized, while YM, T_0 and T_{max} 602 parameters, TPC and inhibition of DPPH radical were maximized. In these conditions, it 603 was found an optimal chitosan film formulation with vanillin content of 37.5% w/w of CH 604 605 $(X_1 = 0.5)$, Gly content of 45% w/w of CH $(X_2 = 0)$ and drying temperature of 57.5°C (X_3) = 0.5). 606

607 In order to test the reliability of the models in predicting optimal responses, validation experiments were carried out at the optimal levels predicted by the simultaneous 608 609 optimization. Predicted values for opacity, TSM, YM, T₀, T_{max}, WVP, TPC and DPPH were 3328.3 AU nm/mm, 26.85%, 1390.5 MPa, 138.8°C, 182.7°C, 2.84.10⁻¹⁰ g.m/Pa.s.m², 610 4.51 mg GA/g and 24.19% of inhibition, respectively. These predicted responses were 611 verified experimentally, with the following experimental values (mean value ± standard 612 deviation) for opacity, TSM, YM, T_{0} , T_{max} , WVP, TPC and DPPH: 3136.9 ± 10.2 AU 613 nm/mm, 20.6 ± 3.9, 1225.0 ± 134.7 MPa, 147.0 ± 1.0°C, 196.4 ± 1.0°C, 2.95 ± 0.12.10⁻¹⁰ 614 g.m/Pa.s.m², 4.95 ± 0.43 mg GA/g, 25 ± 1.2 % inhibition, respectively; confirming the 615 616 accuracy of the model generated from the analysis. 617 Comparison of predicted and experimental response values at the optimal level are depicted in Table 6, confirming the accuracy of the model generated from the analysis. 618 619

620 *Table 6.* Predicted and experimental response values for the optimal chitosan film formulation.

Response variables	Predicted	Experimental
Opacity (AU nm/mm)	3328.3	3136.9 ± 10.2
TSM (%)	26.85	20.6 ± 3.9
YM (Mpa)	1390.5	1225.0 ± 134.7
T_0 (°C)	138.8	147.0 ± 1.0
T_{max} (°C)	182.7	196.4 ± 1.0
WVP $(g.m/Pa.s.m^2 10^{10})$	2.84	2.95 ± 0.12
TPC (mg GA/g)	4.51	4.95 ± 0.43
DPPH (%In)	24.19	25 ± 1.2

621

622 4. CONCLUSIONS

623

RSM approach using Box-Behnken design and the desirability function was found to be an
effective tool to investigate changes in films properties and to search for the optimal active
chitosan film formulation with a natural antioxidant cross-linking agent, such as vanillin.

627	An o	ptimal chitosan film formulation was found with vanillin content of 37.5% w/w of
628	CH,	glycerol content of 45% w/w of CH, and a drying temperature of 57.5°C. Results
629	concl	uded that chitosan-based films with vanillin can be successfully developed with
630	desira	able mechanical, antioxidant and barrier properties to be potentially used in the food
631	packa	aging industry.
632		
633	Ackr	nowledgments
634	This	work was supported by Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas
635	(CON	NICET), Agencia Nacional de Promoción Científica y Tecnológica (ANPCyT) and
636	Univ	ersidad Nacional de Mar del Plata (UNMDP).
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Highlights

- Vanillin was used as a natural crosslinker in chitosan films
- Vanillin, glycerol content and drying temperature were optimized through RSM
- Different properties of the films were simultaneously optimized with Desirability function
- RSM and Desirability function are effective tools in the optimization of the films formulation