



Antioxidant poly (lactic acid) films with rice straw extract for food packaging applications

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ABSTRACT

Antioxidant PLA films incorporating 2%, 4% and 6% of phenol-rich extract from rice straw (RS) were obtained by melt blending and compression-moulding. Aqueous RS extract was obtained by a combined ultrasound-reflux heating method and characterised as to its total phenolic content (TPC) and antioxidant capacity. The effect of the extract ratio on the functional properties of the films was analysed, as well as the release kinetics of antioxidants in food simulants (ethanol 10% and 50%). Extract incorporation slightly reduced the strength of the polymer matrix, stretchability, resistance to break, barrier capacity and thermostability, while films became brownish and gained antioxidant capacity. Phenolic compounds from the extract were effectively released into food simulants, depending on the extract concentration, the food simulant and contact time. The radical scavenging capacity of the films reached asymptotic values from about 150 h contact time, and films with 6% of the extract exhibited similar values for both simulants. So, PLA films with approximately 6% of extract could be used as biodegradable active packaging material with antioxidant capacity in both aqueous foods (simulant A) and more fatty products (simulant D1). Further studies are required to verify the antioxidant efficiency of the films in real foods.

1. Introduction

Oxidative reactions, microbial growth, and metabolism are the main factors that lead to a loss of quality and the deterioration of foodstuffs, producing waste (Han et al., 2018). Food spoilage through oxidative processes occurs when food is exposed to air, heat or light, producing reactive oxygen species that damage chemical structures, such as proteins, lipids and vitamins (Marzlan et al., 2022; Lourenço et al., 2019). Oxidative reactions can promote food discoloration and lead to a decrease in nutritional value, as well as produce off-odours and off-flavours (Han et al., 2018; Moreno et al., 2018). To overcome these problems, and despite their potential adverse effects on human health, the food industry often uses synthetic antioxidants due to their stability, availability and low cost (Botterweck et al., 2000; Randhawa & Bahna, 2009). The application of non-synthetic antioxidants for food preservation purposes is a current growing trend since consumers increasingly demand healthier and safer food products incorporating natural substances. Of the natural plant antioxidants, phenolic extracts obtained from agri-food residues or by-products represent an interesting alternative. Obtaining active extracts from these residues contributes to

proper environmentally-friendly waste management, produces added-value materials and boosts the circular bioeconomy (Arun et al., 2020). Several studies have been reported to obtain plant extracts from agri-food residues with bioactive properties, such as spinach by-products (Derrien et al., 2017), berry leaves (Ziemlewska et al., 2021), winemaking by-products (Troilo et al., 2021; Jara-Palacios et al., 2020), saffron stigma (Lahmass et al., 2018), rice and coffee husks (Collazo-Bigliardi et al., 2019), and rice straw (Freitas et al., 2020; Menzel et al., 2020).

Of the agro-industrial residues worldwide, the second most widely-produced is rice straw (RS) (*Oryza sativa* L.). The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) concluded that global rice production reached approximately 782 million tons, 90% of which was from the Asian continent (FAOSTAT, 2018). Considering that one kilogram of rice grain provides 1.5 kg of RS (Peannarkdee & Iwamoto, 2019), around 1173 million tons of problematic waste, without any monetary value that is difficult to manage, is produced every year. This leads to a continuous increase in air pollution, as the primary destination of this by-product is to be burnt on the paddies, releasing harmful dioxins, such as polychlorinated dibenzo-*p*-dioxins, dibenzofurans, and

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greenhouse gas emissions (CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O), thus promoting global warming and affecting human health (Yang et al., 2006). Since RS is a lignocellulosic-rich material (39% cellulose, 20% lignin, 23% hemicellulose, and 15% ashes), alternative waste management can be applied with a focus on waste valorisation and the minimisation of environmental impacts (El-Tayeb et al., 2012).

Obtaining phenolic-rich extracts from RS is a promising alternative for the valorisation of RS since the extracted phenolic compounds have been shown to exhibit high antioxidant capacity and antimicrobial activity (Barana et al., 2016; Karimi et al., 2014). Likewise, it is imperative to optimise the main extraction parameters, such as type of solvent, pre-treatments, temperature, time, and pressure. In fact, the processing factors directly affect the extraction efficiency of phenolic compounds, originally esterified or etherified with the lignocellulosic matrix, especially hemicellulose and lignin. Freitas et al. (2020) reported that the ultrasound pre-treatment of RS water dispersion, followed by water reflux extraction, promoted significant damage to the RS cell tissue, giving rise to an aqueous extract with high phenolic content and antioxidant capacity. These phenolic-rich RS extracts can be used for food formulation or can be incorporated into biodegradable food packaging materials to minimise or delay oxidative processes in foods, as well as to replace synthetic antioxidants.

Biodegradable, economic, and sustainable packaging systems are being proposed to induce more efficient and eco-friendly alternatives to the use of non-biodegradable petroleum-based plastics (Balaji et al., 2018). Poly (lactic acid) (PLA) is a bio-based biodegradable polyester currently ranked in first place in the bioplastics market with a percentage of 18.7% of the total production of bioplastics (European Bioplastics nova-Institute, 2020). PLA is included in the group of thermoplastic biopolymers with good barrier and mechanical properties, such as a high resistance to break. Furthermore, PLA has a relatively hydrophobic structure compared with other biopolymers, dissolves fairly easily in solvents such as chloroform, and does not dissolve in water, alcohols, or alkanes (Avérous et al., 2001). PLA has been studied for the purposes of applying it in active food packaging with antioxidant (Jamshidian et al., 2012a,b; Bassani et al., 2019) and antimicrobial properties (Muller et al., 2017a; Vasile et al., 2019; Llana-Ruiz-Cabello et al., 2015). Different processing methods have been used to incorporate bioactive compounds into polymer matrices to provide them with active properties, including solvent casting, electrospinning, supercritical impregnation or spin coating, (Velásquez et al., 2021). However, the incorporation of active compounds into the polymer master batch, by melt blending with thermoplastic polymers, represents a cheaper approach with respect to the other techniques, leading to a good standardization of the active material and being more applicable at industrial scale. The challenge with this method is to maintain bioactivity of the usually thermolabile compounds.

The aim of this study was to obtain PLA-based bioactive films, incorporating phenolic-rich aqueous extract from RS obtained by the combined ultrasound-reflux heating method. PLA films were characterised as to their functional properties; typically, their microstructural, optical, thermal, and barrier properties. Likewise, the release kinetics of phenolic compounds from the PLA active films and their radical scavenging capacity were analysed in two food simulants (aqueous ethanol solutions at 10% and 50%).

2. Material and methods

2.1. Materials

Amorphous PLA 4060D, density 1.24 g/cm³, an average molecular weight of 106,226 D, with 40% low molecular weight fraction (275 D), was purchased from Natureworks (U.S.A). Ethanol and methanol were supplied by Sigma-Aldrich (Sigma-Aldrich Chemie, Steinheim, Germany). Folin-Ciocalteu reagent, 2,2-Diphenyl-1-picryl-hydrazyl (DPPH) and Poly (ethylene glycol) (PEG1000) were purchased from Sigma-

Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃) and magnesium nitrate (Mg(NO₃)₂) were obtained from PanReac Química S.L.U (Castellar del Vallés, Barcelona, Spain). di-Phosphorous pentoxide (P₂O₅) was obtained from VWR Chemicals (Belgium).

2.2. Extract preparation

The plant extract was obtained using a previously described method (Freitas et al., 2020). RS (*Oryza sativa L.*), supplied by the straw bank of Valencia (Spain) and obtained from L'Albufera rice fields, was dried at 50 ± 2 °C, under vacuum (0,8 mbar) for 20 h. Afterwards, the dried RS was milled using a milling machine (IKA, model M20, Germany) and sieved to obtain particles of under 0.5 mm. RS aqueous extract was obtained by ultrasound pre-treatment, followed by a heating reflux step (Freitas et al., 2020). A probe high-intensity ultrasonic homogeniser (Vibra Cell™ VCX750, Sonics & Material, Inc., Newtown, CT, USA) was used to sonicate the RS: a distilled water suspension, with a ratio of 1:20 (m/v), at 25 °C (using an ice bath to prevent excessive heating) for 30 min, applying a frequency of 20 kHz, 750 W power, and 40% sonication amplitude. After that, the plant suspension was heated using a typical reflux device at 100 °C for 1 h. The RS extract was obtained by vacuum filtration using a vacuum pump (MZ 2 C NT, 7.0 mbar, Vacuubrand, Germany) with a Buncher funnel and qualitative filter (Filterlab). Then, the RS dry extract was obtained by freeze drying (Telstar, model LyoQuest-55) at - 60 °C, 0.8 mbar for 72 h, and stored in a dark glass bottle at 4 ± 2 °C until further use. A total volume of about 750 mL of aqueous extract was freeze-dried in each cycle. The total solid yield obtained after freeze drying process was 14 g dried extract 0.100 g⁻¹ RS.

2.3. Preparation of films

PLA pellets was initially conditioned in a desiccator containing P₂O₅ for 2 days to remove residual water. PLA films were obtained both with and without RS freeze-fried extract using PEG1000 (at 8% wt. with respect to the polymer mass), as plasticiser, by melt blending and compression moulding. As summarised in Table 1, the incorporation of the active extracts in the films was performed by adding percentages of 2%, 4%, and 6% wt. of RS extract (with respect to the total polymer mass) to the control mixture (PLA/PEG1000). The mixing process was performed in an internal mixer (HAAKE™ PolyLab™ QC, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Germany) at 160 °C and 50 rpm for 6 min. After cold milling the solid blend, the compression-moulding process was performed using a hydraulic press (Model LP20, Labtech Engineering, Thailand). To this end, 3 g of the pellets were put onto Teflon sheets and placed into the hydraulic press to obtain the films by preheating at 160 °C for 3 min, compressing at 160 °C and 100 bars for 3 min and final cooling for 5 min to 70 °C.

2.4. Film characterisation

2.4.1. Microstructural properties

High resolution Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) was performed to study the structure of the film cross-sections. The films were cryo-fractured by immersion in liquid nitrogen, covered with platinum using an EM MED020 sputter coater (Leica BioSystems, Barcelona, Spain) and the images were taken with a Field Emission

Table 1

Mass fractions of the different formulations: PLA (0% wt. RS extract), PLARS2 (2% wt. RS extract), PLARS4 (4% wt. RS extract), PLARS6 (6% wt. RS extract).

| Formulation | X _{PLA} | X _{PEG1000} | X _{RS extract} |
|-------------|------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| PLA | 0.926 | 0.074 | – |
| PLARS2 | 0.909 | 0.073 | 0.018 |
| PLARS4 | 0.893 | 0.071 | 0.036 |
| PLARS6 | 0.877 | 0.070 | 0.053 |

Scanning Electron microscope equipped with focused ion gun (Auriga Compact, Zeiss, Oxford Instruments), at $\times 400$ magnification (with insets at $\times 2000$), using an acceleration voltage of 2.0 kV.

2.4.2. 2.4.2 Optical properties

A spectro-colorimeter CM-3600d (Minolta Co. Tokyo, Japan) was used to measure the transparency by means of the internal transmittance (T_i) parameter. The Kubelka-Munk theory of multiple scattering, using the film reflection spectra obtained on black and white backgrounds, was used to find T_i at a light wavelength range of 400–700 nm. The measurements were taken six times for each formulation. A D65 illuminant and 10° observer were used to obtain the film's colour coordinates L^* (lightness), a^* (redness-greenness), and b^* (yellowness-blueness) from the infinite reflectance (Freitas et al., 2022).

The film's colour was analysed by means of the psychometric coordinates, Chroma or saturation (C^*) (Eq. 1), and hue angle (h^*) (Eq. 2):

$$C^* = \sqrt{a^{*2} + b^{*2}} \quad (1)$$

$$h^* = \arctg\left(\frac{b^*}{a^*}\right) \quad (2)$$

The colour difference between the films containing extract and the extract-free film was also determined through the Total Colour Difference parameter (ΔE^*) (Eq. 3).

$$\Delta E^* = \sqrt{(\Delta L^*)^2 + (\Delta a^*)^2 + (\Delta b^*)^2} \quad (3)$$

Where ΔL^* , Δa^* and Δb^* correspond to the differences between the colour parameters of the active and the control films.

2.4.3. Mechanical properties

The thickness of the films was measured using a digital micrometer (Palmer, model COMECTA, Barcelona, accuracy of 0.001 mm) at ten random film positions.

Tensile strength (TS), elastic modulus (EM) and the elongation at break (EB) of the films were determined using a universal test machine (TA.XTplus model, Stable Micro Systems, Haslemere, England) following the standardised ASTM D882 method (ASTM, 2012). The control and active films were cut (2.5×10 cm), mounted in the film-extension grips of the testing machine and lengthened at a cross-head speed of 12.5 mm/min until breaking. Eight samples per formulation were evaluated.

2.4.4. Thermal behaviour

A thermogravimetric analyser (TGA 1 Star^e System, Mettler-Toledo Inc., Switzerland) was used to measure the thermal stability of the films. The samples (3–5 mg) were placed in an alumina crucible and heated in a single-step thermal program from 25 °C to 700 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C.min⁻¹ under a nitrogen flow (10 mL.min⁻¹). The derivative curves (DTGA) of the thermograms were obtained using the STAR^e Evaluation Software (Mettler-Toledo, Switzerland). The initial degradation temperature, the temperature at maximum degradation rate and the mass loss percentage in each detected thermal event were determined. The analysis was performed in triplicate for the extract, PEG1000 and PLA films.

Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) analysis was performed in a differential scanning calorimeter (Star^e System, Mettler-Toledo Inc., Switzerland). The film samples (5–7 mg) were placed in aluminium-sealed pans and a five-step thermal program was performed under a nitrogen flow (30 mL.min⁻¹). The samples were heated from –25–200 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C.min⁻¹, maintained at 200 °C for 5 min, cooled down to –10 °C at –50 °C.min⁻¹, maintained at –10 °C for 5 min, and heated up again to 200 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C.min⁻¹. The analysis was performed in triplicate for each film formulation.

2.4.5. Barrier properties

According to ASTM E96/E96M (ASTM, 2005), a gravimetric method, using the modification of Mchugh et al. (1993), was used to determine the water vapour permeability (WVP). The 3.5 cm diameter films were placed on Payne permeability cups (Elcometer SPRL, Hermelle/s Argenteau, Belgium) filled with 5 mL of distilled water (100% relative humidity) and sealed. The cups were placed in a desiccator at 25 °C with Mg(NO₃)₂ to maintain the relative humidity at 53%. A fan was placed on top of each cup to decrease the resistance to water vapour transport. The cups were weighed every 1.5 h for 25 h with an analytical balance (± 0.0001 g) and the WVP was calculated from the slope of the weight loss-time curves (Freitas et al., 2021). The analysis was performed in triplicate for each formulation.

The oxygen permeability (OP) was determined following a modified version of the ASTM,2010. Three replicates per formulation were measured using an OX-TRAN Model 2/21 mL (Mocon Lippke, Neuwied, Germany) at 25 °C and 53% of RH. The film samples (50 cm²) were exposed to an oxygen flow and the oxygen transmission was obtained every 15 min until equilibrium was reached. The OP values were calculated by dividing the oxygen transmission by the difference in partial pressure of oxygen between the two sides of the film, and then multiplying by the average film thickness.

2.5. Antioxidant activity of the RS extract and films

The RS extract, and the amount of it released from the films into food simulants, were characterised as to the total phenolic content (TPC) and antioxidant activity. For this, an aqueous solution of freeze-dried extract was prepared at 2.5 mg.mL⁻¹. The TPC analysis was carried out in triplicate using a modified version of the Folin-Ciocalteu method (Menzel et al., 2020) and the results were expressed as mg gallic acid equivalent (mg GAE) per g of solid extract.

The antioxidant capacity of the dry RS extract was determined by using the DPPH (2,2-Diphenyl-1-picryl-hydrazyl) radical scavenging method (Brand-Williams et al., 1995), with some modifications (Freitas et al., 2020). The antiradical activity was evaluated in triplicate by obtaining the EC₅₀ parameter, defined as the amount of sample required to reduce the DPPH concentration by 50% when the reaction stability is reached.

2.6. Release kinetics of antioxidant compounds in food simulants

The release kinetics of the RS extract compounds from the films to different food simulants (A: ethanol 10% (v/v) and D1: ethanol 50% (v/v)) was analysed following the methodology proposed by Requena et al. (2017), with some modifications. Approximately 2 g of control and active films were cut (1 \times 1 cm squares) and immersed in the corresponding simulant at a ratio of 1:10 and maintained under stirring at 20 °C for 24, 72, 144 and 240 h. After each time, the liquid was filtered (Filter-Lab, 0.45 μ m) and analysed as to TPC and the radical scavenging activity (EC₅₀), as described in Section 2.5. All of the experiments were carried out in duplicate. The EC₅₀ values were referred per mass unit of extract incorporated into the film (mg of dry extract/mg DPPH).

Peleg's equation (Eq. 4) (Peleg, 1988) was used to model the release kinetics, in terms of percentage of phenolic content released with respect to the total content incorporated into the films (M_t), as a function of time. The initial release rate ($1/k_1$) and the maximum release ratio at equilibrium (EV: $1/k_2$) were obtained from model fitting. This was carried out by non-linear optimisation mode, using the solver tool from Excel.

$$M_t = \frac{t}{k_1 + k_2 t} \quad (4)$$

In order to elucidate the mass transfer mechanisms involved in the extract compound release into each food simulant, the Korsmeyer-Peppas model (Eq. 5) (Peppas & Peppas, 1994) was also fitted to the

experimental data.

$$\frac{M_t}{M_\infty} = kt^n \quad (5)$$

Where M_t/M_∞ is the released ratio at time t with respect to the equilibrium value, k is the release rate constant, involving the diffusion coefficient, and n is the transport exponent related to the mass transfer mechanisms.

2.7. Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out using Minitab 17 Statistical Software. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's studentised range HSD (honestly significant difference) tests were used to check the significant differences between the film treatments, using the least significant difference (α) of 5%. Multifactorial regression models were fitted to describe the release of phenolic compounds and antioxidant activity in different food simulants, considering the extract concentration in PLA films and the contact time with the simulants and interactions between both factors. The goodness of fitted models was verified by the lack-of-fit test, the significance of the coefficients by the Student's t -test ($\alpha = 0.05$), and the determination coefficient (R^2).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Film characterisation

3.1.1. Microstructural properties

Fig. 1 shows the FESEM images of the cross section of the cryo-fractured PLA films incorporating or not the active extract at different concentrations. The control PLA film exhibited a smooth and homogeneous surface pattern, showing brittle and rubbery domains in the polymer matrix, as previously observed by other authors for similar PLA films (Muller et al., 2017b). The plastic fracture observed in the PLA film is characteristic of plasticised amorphous polymers, as previously

observed by other authors (Hernández-García et al., 2021; Muller et al., 2017a). When the RS extract was incorporated into the films, small changes in the internal microstructure were revealed by their different cryo-fracture behaviour, which exhibited areas with a more brittle fracture, as observed by other authors when tannic acid was incorporated into starch-chitosan films (Talón et al., 2017). This suggests the possible establishment of interactions between some of the RS extract components and the PLA/PEG1000 matrix. Menzel et al. (2020) identified several phenolic compounds in the aqueous RS extract, such as *p*-coumaric, protocatechuic, ferulic, caffeic, vanilinic, tricinic, and vanillin acids, which can establish hydrogen bonds with the carbonyl group of PLA chains (Fig. 2c). Moreover, as the extract concentration rose in the films, changes in the cross-section appearance were observed along with an increase in the surface roughness. The presence of non-miscible compounds within the polymer matrix produced small aggregates dispersed in the matrix, while both miscible and non-miscible compounds modified the film cryofracture pattern. These differences in the microstructural arrangement in the active films, compared with the control, could affect their physical properties.

3.1.2. Optical properties - Colour and internal transmittance of the active films

The visual appearance of the PLA films is shown in Fig. 2a. Observation with the naked eye showed no marked differences in the transparency of the films, whereas the colourless PLA films became more yellow-brown as the RS extract concentration increased, exhibiting small dot-like shapes with a slightly darker colour due to the dispersed solid fraction of the extract, more visible in the most concentrated films. The presence of the coloured compounds and small solid particles affected the colour properties of the samples: typically, the internal transmittance spectrum (T_i) (Fig. 2a) and the colour coordinates of the PLA films (Table 2).

T_i is closely related to the internal microstructure of the polymer matrix and the component arrangement, which will determine the degree of light scattering and the film transparency (Muller et al., 2017a). As shown in Fig. 2a, neat PLA films exhibited the highest transmittance

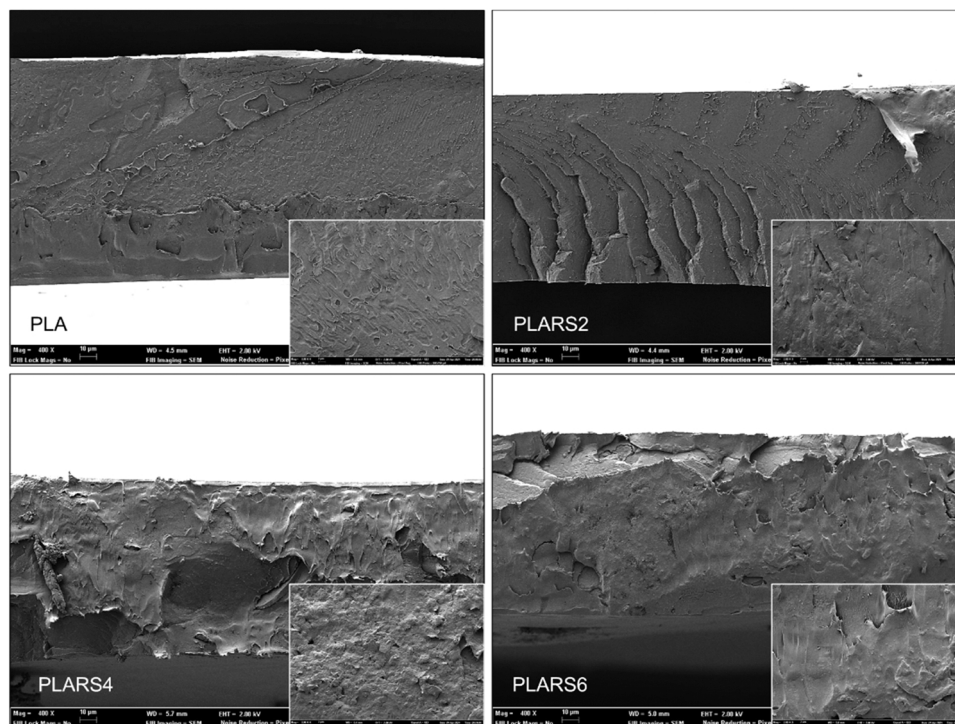


Fig. 1. FESEM images of the cross section of PLA films without extract and with different concentrations of RS extract: 2% wt. (PLARS2), 4% wt. (PLARS4), and 6% wt. (PLARS6).

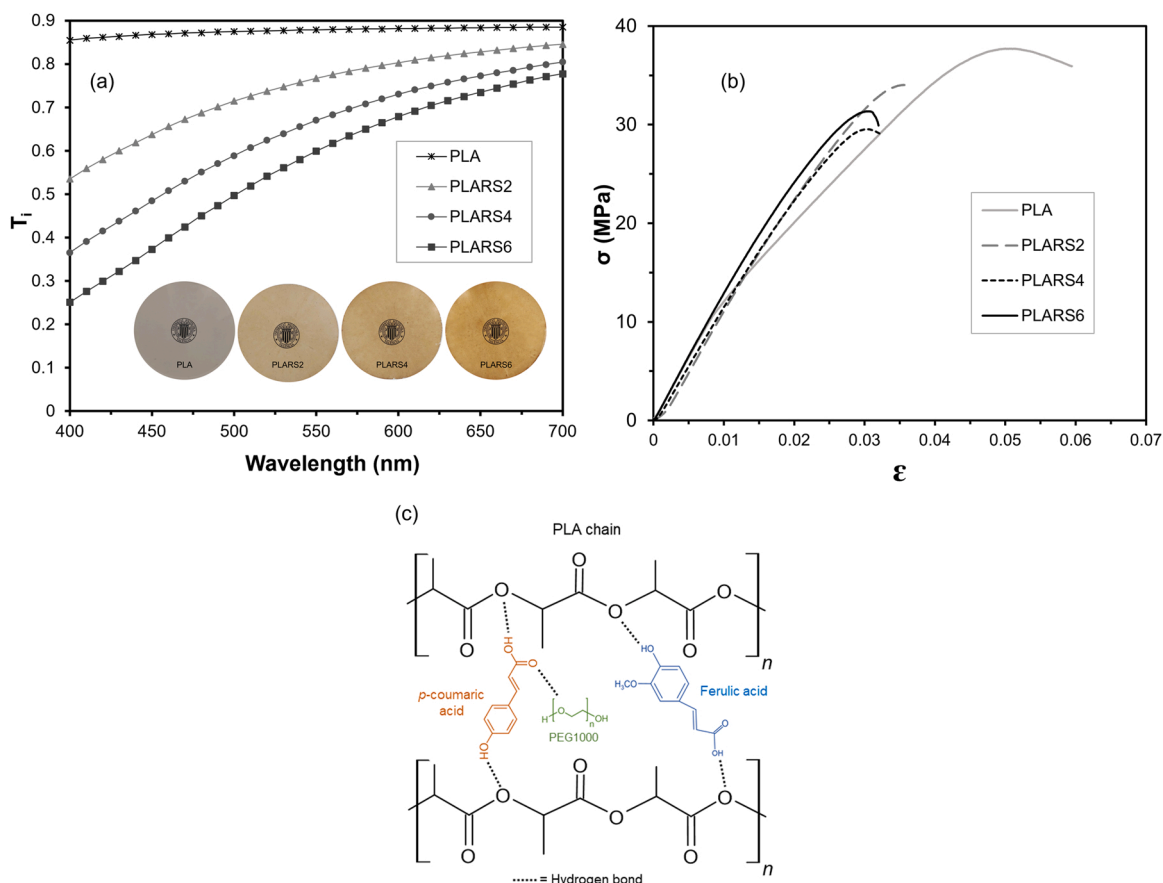


Fig. 2. (a) Visual appearance and internal transmittance spectra of films; (b) Stress-strain curves of PLA films with different RS extract concentrations (PLA: control; PLARS2: 2% wt.; PLARS4: 4% wt.; PLARS6: 6% wt.); (c) Possible hydrogen bonds among the phenolic compounds present in the RS extract and polymer chains.

Table 2

Optical properties of PLA-based films with different RS extract concentrations (0, 2, 4 or 6% wt.). L^* : luminosity; C^* : chroma; h^* : hue; ΔE^* : colour difference. Mean values and standard deviations.

| Formulation | L^* | C^* | h^* | ΔE^* |
|-------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|
| PLA | 90.7 ± 0.2 ^a | 2.50 ± 0.13 ^a | 99.6 ± 0.8 ^a | – |
| PLARS2 | 81.5 ± 0.4 ^b | 18.31 ± 0.50 ^b | 85.6 ± 0.2 ^b | 18.4 ± 0.6 |
| PLARS4 | 73.8 ± 0.3 ^c | 27.31 ± 0.26 ^c | 80.5 ± 0.1 ^c | 30.1 ± 0.4 |
| PLARS6 | 67.6 ± 0.7 ^d | 34.70 ± 0.65 ^d | 77.1 ± 0.3 ^d | 39.7 ± 0.6 |

Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences between films by the Tukey test ($\alpha = 0.05$).

values, in coherence with the high film transparency and homogeneity. A gradual decrease in the T_i values was observed when the concentration of the extract rose, in agreement with that observed by other authors when plant extracts were incorporated into polymer matrices (Collazo-Bigliardi et al., 2019; Freitas et al., 2020). Differences in the T_i values must be attributed to the selective light absorption of the incorporated coloured compounds as well as to the light scattering effect provoked by non-miscible particles in the matrix, thus reducing the light transmission at the corresponding wavelengths.

Table 2 shows the values of colour coordinates for the different films, lightness (L^*), Chroma (C^*), hue angle (h^*) and the total colour difference (ΔE^*) with respect to the extract free PLA film. The L^* and h^* values progressively decreased ($p < 0.05$) as the RS extract rose in the film, whereas the Chroma and total colour difference (ΔE^*) significantly increased. This agrees with the fact that the extract made the films darker and more saturated in a reddish colouration. Menzel et al. (2019) also observed this tendency when incorporating aqueous

extracts from sunflower hulls into starch-based films.

3.1.3. Mechanical properties

Fig. 2b shows the typical stress-strain curves of PLA films with and without differing ratios of RS extract. From the curves, the film's mechanical parameters, namely elastic modulus (EM), tensile strength at break (TS), and elongation at break (E%), were obtained and shown in Table 3. As can be observed in Fig. 2b, the samples exhibited the typical plastic behaviour, where the most resistant and stretchable sample prior

Table 3

Thicknesses, tensile properties (TS, E%, EM), oxygen permeability (OP), and water vapour permeability (WVP) of PLA films containing different RS extract concentrations (PLA: control; PLARS2: 2% wt.; PLARS4: 4% wt.; PLARS6: 6% wt.). Mean values and standard deviations.

| Formulation | Thickness (mm) | E (%) | TS (MPa) | EM (MPa) | OP ($\times 10^{18}$ m ³ .m. m ⁻² . s ⁻¹ . Pa ⁻¹) | WVP ($\times 10^{14}$ kg.m. Pa ⁻¹ .s ⁻¹ . m ⁻²) |
|-------------|----------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|---|--|
| PLA | 0.146 ± 0.009 ^a | 6.0 ± 0.7 ^a | 34 ± 3 ^a | 1255 ± 36 ^{ab} | 1.66 ± 0.01 ^a | 3.14 ± 0.19 ^c |
| PLARS2 | 0.148 ± 0.006 ^a | 3.4 ± 0.2 ^b | 34.0 ± 1.4 ^a | 1288 ± 34 ^{ab} | 1.56 ± 0.04 ^a | 3.55 ± 0.13 ^{bc} |
| PLARS4 | 0.145 ± 0.007 ^a | 3.4 ± 0.3 ^b | 29 ± 3 ^b | 1232 ± 25 ^b | 1.56 ± 0.03 ^a | 4.00 ± 0.05 ^{ab} |
| PLARS6 | 0.142 ± 0.006 ^a | 3.1 ± 0.2 ^b | 30.7 ± 2.2 ^b | 1315 ± 76 ^a | 1.54 ± 0.06 ^a | 4.21 ± 0.39 ^a |

* E%: elongation at break; TS: tensile strength at break; EM: elastic modulus. Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences between films by the Tukey test ($\alpha = 0.05$).

to fracture was the control film without a RS extract. These mechanical parameters slightly worsened in active films, which became more brittle (less extensible with lower resistance to break). This indicates that the compounds of the RS extract modify the chain interactions in the polymer matrix, regardless of their concentration. Table 3 summarises the values of E%, TS and EM obtained for the different film formulations as well as their thickness. The thicknesses of the different films were not significantly different ($p < 0.05$), having an average value of 0.145 mm, in the range of those obtained by Muller et al. (2017b) for the same polymer and process conditions. The addition of the active extract in the polymer matrix provoked a decrease in the E% values of the films ($p < 0.05$), regardless of the extract concentration used. Thus, the active films were less stretchable (about 43%) than the control film. This effect was also observed by Jamshidian et al. (2012a) for antioxidant PLA-based films with ascorbyl palmitate and can be attributed to several factors. The potential hydrogen bonds established between the extract phenolic compounds (Fig. 2c) and both PEG1000 and PLA chains could reduce the polymer matrix stretchability, while the inter-chain forces could be reduced by the interruptions caused by the presence of other molecules/particles, thus giving rise to less resistant and more brittle matrices. Non-significant differences in the TS values ($p > 0.05$) were observed when up to 2% of the extract was incorporated, while higher concentrations provoked a slight decrease (about 13%), leading to less resistant films. The interactions between the extract compounds and PLA and PEG1000 chains and the small, dispersed particles could reduce the cohesion forces in the polymer matrix due to steric hindrance for inter-chain forces. The presence of the small particles (compound aggregates) within the polymer matrix, as observed in the FESEM micrographs (Fig. 1), could act as stress concentrators, thus decreasing the TS

values. Similar results were found by Vilarinho et al. (2021) when incorporating green tea extract into PLA films reinforced with cellulose nanocrystals. In contrast, no notable differences were found between the EM values of the active and control films.

3.1.4. Barrier properties – Water vapour and oxygen permeability

The WVP and OP values of the different PLA films are summarised in Table 3. The extract-free PLA film exhibited WVP and OP values of 3.14×10^{-14} kg.m.Pa⁻¹.s⁻¹.m⁻² and 1.66×10^{-18} m³.m.m⁻².s⁻¹. Pa⁻¹, respectively, similar to those found in previous studies (Hosseini et al., 2016; Muller et al., 2017b). The incorporation of the RS extract slightly decreased the barrier capacity of the films to both water vapour and oxygen, although the OP values were not significantly affected. This can be attributed to the decrease in the matrix cohesion forces provoked by the extract, as deduced from the mechanical behaviour. The hydrophilic nature of the RS extract could also contribute to the lower water vapour barrier capacity of the films, promoting the film's water affinity and the permeation of water molecules. Other studies also reported higher WVP values in PLA-based films with bioactive compounds (Vilarinho et al., 2021; Roy & Rhim, 2020; Srisa & Harnkarnsujarit, 2020). Nevertheless, despite the slight worsening in their water vapour barrier capacity, the films incorporating bioactive extracts present interesting properties with the potential to protect packaged foods from oxidation and microbial spoilage.

3.1.5. Thermal behaviour

Fig. 3(a and b) shows the TGA curves and their derivatives (DTGA), obtained for the different films and RS extract and Table 4 summarises the parameters of the thermal degradation events detected for each film

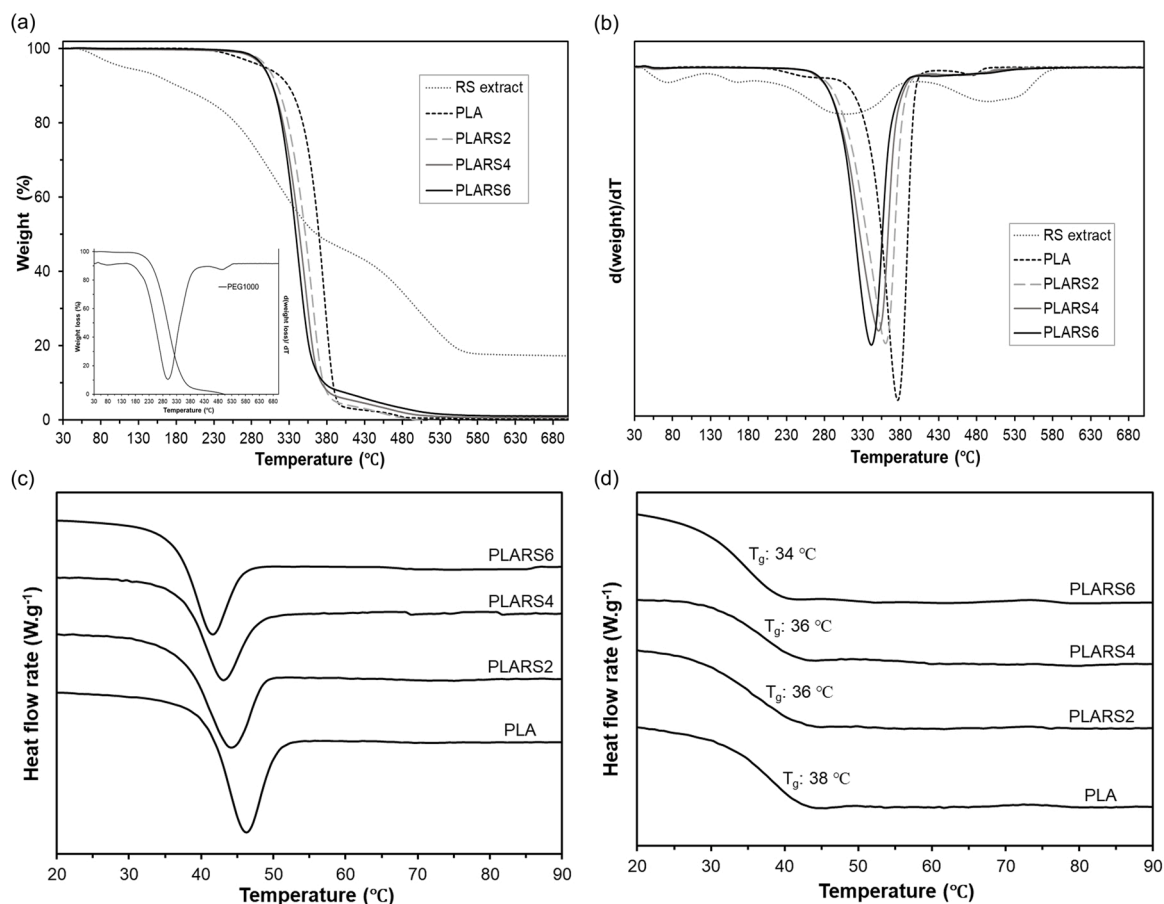


Fig. 3. TGA curves (a), DTGA derivative curves (b), and DSC (c: first heating, d: second heating) thermograms of PLA films with different RS extract concentrations (PLA: control; PLARS2: 2%; PLARS4: 4%; PLARS6: 6%).

Table 4

Thermal degradation parameters (onset (T_o), end (T_e), and peak (T_p) temperatures, mass loss (ΔM), and residual mass) of the films and DSC parameters (relaxation enthalpy $-\Delta H_{relax}$ from the first heating scan, and glass transition temperature (T_g) from the second heating scan). (PLA: control; PLARS2: 2% extract.; PLARS4: 4% extract.; PLARS6: 6% extract).

| Formulation | TGA | | | DSC | | | |
|-------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| | T_o (°C) | T_e (°C) | T_p (°C) | Δm (%) | Residue (%) | ΔH_{relax} (J/g) | T_g |
| PLA | 190 ± 6 ^b | 495 ± 1 ^a | 376 ± 1 ^a | 97.3 ± 0.1 ^a | 0.4 ± 0.2 ^a | 5.4 ± 0.1 ^a | 38 ± 3 ^a |
| PLARS2 | 237 ± 2 ^a | 511 ± 1 ^b | 361 ± 2 ^b | 96.4 ± 0.2 ^b | 0.5 ± 0.1 ^a | 4.3 ± 0.8 ^{ab} | 36 ± 2 ^a |
| PLARS4 | 239 ± 4 ^a | 535 ± 4 ^c | 351 ± 1 ^c | 94.2 ± 0.1 ^c | 0.6 ± 0.6 ^a | 3.1 ± 0.1 ^b | 36 ± 2 ^a |
| PLARS6 | 234 ± 1 ^a | 566 ± 3 ^d | 342 ± 1 ^d | 98.5 ± 0.2 ^d | 1.1 ± 0.3 ^a | 3.4 ± 0.1 ^b | 34 ± 2 ^a |

Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences between films by the Tukey test ($\alpha = 0.05$).

formulation: onset (T_o), peak (T_p) and end temperature (T_e), percentage of mass variation (Δm) and residual mass. The thermal degradation of the RS extract was also analysed to better understand its behaviour during the film thermoprocessing and its potential effect on the thermal behaviour of PLA films. As shown in Fig. 3(a and b), the RS extract showed several thermodegradation steps, coherently with its complex composition: a first step, between 45 and 130 °C, that can be mainly attributed to water loss (mass loss of around 6%) and several steps above 130 °C, which can be attributed to the degradation of the different components present in the extract. These results suggested that a fraction of the extract is likely degraded during the film manufacturing process (160 °C) in agreement with that reported by other authors (Menzel et al., 2019). The great residual mass of the extract (around 20%) suggested that it contains a high percentage of silica and other minerals from RS (Chen, 2011).

As concerns the TGA analysis of the films (Fig. 3a), all of the samples exhibited a single degradation step starting at about 190 °C in the extract-free PLA and 235 °C in films with the RS extract, with a total mass loss of over 95–98%. The temperature at which the maximum degradation rate may be found (T_p in Table 4) is significantly reduced when the RS extract is present in the films. This indicates that the RS extract compounds affect the thermodegradation of PLA, which could be attributed to their interference with the interchain forces affecting the matrix cohesion and compactness, as deduced from the tensile and barrier properties. Likewise, the presence of several types of phenolic acids in the RS extract (Menzel et al., 2020; Elzaawely et al., 2017) could favour the partial hydrolysis of PLA into low molecular weight compounds, thermally less stable, thus lowering the degradation temperatures. In contrast, the thermal degradation of the extract-free PLA film started earlier (lower T_o) than the films with the RS extract (Fig. 3b). This could be attributed to the initial thermal degradation of the plasticiser PEG1000 (T_o : 160 °C, T_p : 300 °C), as observed in its TGA and DTGA curves embedded into Fig. 3a, which seems not to occur in films containing the RS extract. This suggests that PEG could also interact with the extract components, promoting its thermal stability and delaying its degradation at higher temperatures. There was no significant difference in the residual mass of the films (< 1%) despite the different RS extract concentration with notable residual mass. This can be explained by the relatively low amount of RS extract present in every formulation, which not significantly affect the overall residue of the films.

The glass transition temperature (T_g) of the PLA in every film was analysed by DSC. Thermograms of the first and second heating scans of the different films are shown in Figs. 3c and 3d, respectively, where the relaxation endotherms, associated with the ageing of the polymer, can be observed in the first scan in the glass transition region. Table 4 shows the values of T_g obtained from the second heating scan, where thermal history is erased, and the relaxation enthalpy obtained from the first heating scan. The PLA control film showed a T_g value of 37.7 °C, similar to that reported by other authors for PEG 1000 plasticised amorphous PLA (Muller et al., 2017b). The T_g values of active films tended to decrease slightly when the RS extract rose in the films, although the differences were not statistically significant. Likewise, as the extract

concentration increased, the polymer relaxation enthalpy (expressed per gram of polymer) significantly decreased ($p < 0.05$), which suggests that extract compounds also inhibited the degree of PLA chain reassociation during ageing to some extent.

Therefore, the incorporation of the RS extract into PLA films, at the concentration levels used, partially limits the interchain forces in the PLA matrix, making the polymer matrix slightly less cohesive, as reflected in the decrease in the film's mechanical resistance, extensibility and barrier capacity, and the small changes in the thermal behaviour. Nevertheless, the observed changes were no remarkable to compromise the food packaging requirements of films, including thermal, barrier, and mechanical performance. In this sense, besides exhibiting suitable functionality for packaging purposes, the potential antioxidant capacity of the films can be considered an important improvement for food preservation purposes.

3.2. Antioxidant properties of the PLA films containing RS extract

The antioxidant capacity of the films was analysed through the release study of potentially active compounds of RS extracts into food simulants of differing polarities that can emulate foods systems with different fat contents (Requena et al., 2017). The antioxidant capacity of the RS extract was first analysed through its TPC and DPPH radical scavenging capacity. Afterwards, these activities were analysed in the simulants in contact with the films for different times, where differing extents of the potentially active compounds were released.

3.2.1. Content of phenolic compounds and DPPH radical scavenging capacity of RS

The RS extract obtained via aqueous extraction by reflux heating for 1 h after 30 min US pre-treatment was selected on the basis of a previous study where these conditions gave rise to a phenolic-rich extract with high DPPH radical scavenging capacity (Freitas et al., 2020). The value of TPC obtained in the dry extract was 37.1 ± 0.4 mg GAE/g. This value is higher than that obtained by Menzel et al. (2020) in rice straw, using aqueous extraction at room temperature (29 mg GAE/g dry extract). These authors reported that the most abundant phenolic compounds analysed in the rice straw extract were ferulic, protocatechuic and *p*-coumaric acids.

As concerns the DPPH radical scavenging capacity of the RS extract, the EC_{50} value obtained was 6.3 ± 0.3 mg freeze-dried extract/mg DPPH, in agreement with that previously reported for the same extraction conditions (Freitas et al., 2020). This value was a great deal lower (greater antioxidant activity) than that found by Menzel et al. (2020) for the RS extracts obtained at room temperature using water, methanol and ethanol as solvents (12, 20 and 19 mg freeze-dried extract/mg DPPH, respectively). This indicates that the use of US and high temperatures in water extraction promoted the release of highly antioxidant phenolic compounds with potential applications as food antioxidants. Ultrasound provokes an increase in the contact points between the RS matrix and the solvent, caused by collisions between the particles and the shock waves created by the collapse of cavitation bubbles in the liquid, consequently increasing the solid transfer from the RS to the solvent

(Cheung & Wu, 2013; Hayat et al., 2019). Furthermore, when heat treatment is applied, the plant tissue becomes softened, which reduces its integrity and weakens the bonds between phenolics and the plant matrix, enhancing the extraction yield. Indeed, Li et al. (2015) stated that extracting phenolic compounds from a plant matrix is achieved when there is a disruption of the ester and ether bonds between the analyte and the lignocellulosic fraction.

3.2.2. Release kinetics of antioxidant compounds into food simulants

The release of these active compounds is needed for them to exert the protective action in the target substrate. The analyses of TPC and antioxidant capacity at different times of film immersion in two food simulants (A: 10% ethanol, and D1: 50% ethanol) would permit the prediction of the antioxidant capacity of the different films when applied as packaging systems on different foods. Fig. 4 shows the percentage of TPC released in both simulants, with respect to the TPC present in the film with the incorporated RS extract. As expected, the total amount of released phenolic increased as the contact times lengthened and it was higher when the extract concentration in the films rose, according to the higher driving force for mass transfer (greater concentration gradient). The release pattern was also affected by the type of simulant. Thus, the phenolic compounds were released faster and at a higher ratio into simulant D1, whereas in the more polar simulant A, the process was more limited, almost reaching a plateau level after 2 contact days, with a very low percentage of compounds released, especially in the case of the films with the lowest extract ratio. In contrast, simulant D1 (50% ethanol) favoured the release of greater amounts of phenolic compounds, with scarcely any differences between films with differing extract ratios. This variation in release behaviour is coherent with that observed by other authors analysing the release behaviour of different antioxidants from PLA, which was greatly promoted by the ethanol ratio in the food simulant (Jamshidian et al., 2012b). The compound's chemical affinity with the polymer matrix and its solubility in the simulant define the partition coefficient at equilibrium. In this sense, the main phenolic compounds of aqueous RS extract, as determined by Menzel et al. (2020) are ferulic, *p*-coumaric and protocatechuic acids, which are more soluble in ethanol than in water. Thus, the increase of ethanol ratio in the simulant will promote the solubility of these phenolic acids. It is worth mentioning that the nature of the phenolic compounds released in each simulant could be different, being the phenolic compounds released in simulant A more polar than in simulant D1. Likewise, the distinct profiles of phenolic compounds released would lead to different bioactivity of the material due to both the total

amount and nature of the released compounds. In addition to the differences in compound solubility, changes in the polymer matrix in contact with the liquid phase also affected the release behaviour. Thus, the higher ethanol ratio of simulant D1 permitted the penetration of ethanol into the matrix, provoking swelling and the relaxation of the hydrophobic PLA matrix (Sato et al., 2013), which could favour the release of the compound into the simulant, attaining higher percentages of released phenolics. In contrast, the high polarity of simulant A (10% ethanol) makes it difficult for the hydrophobic film to swell, leading to reduced release rates.

The parameters obtained by fitting the Peleg's equation are shown in Table 5, where the values of the determination coefficient (R^2) were also included. As expected, the initial release rate ($1/k_1$) increased when the extract concentration rose in the film and was similar for 4% and 6% of extract in both simulants. The lowest release rate was obtained for films with 2% of RS extract, especially in simulant A. The equilibrium values ($EV=1/k_2$) in simulant A also increased when the extract concentration rose (9–33% release), whereas a complete release was estimated at infinite time (EV value) in simulant D1. In fact, this value must be limited to 100% in the optimisation process of the model parameters. The obtained results point to an enhancement in both the release ratio and rate when the extract concentration was higher than 2%, which can also be attributed to the more open PLA matrix (weaker interchain forces) promoted by the presence of higher extract ratio in the matrix.

The parameters obtained by fitting the Korsmeyer-Peppas model in each food simulant, are also shown in Table 5. The values of n coefficient were equal to or lower than 0.5 for data obtained in simulant A, thus indicating that Fickian or quasi-Fickian diffusion mechanisms are involved in the release of the phenolic compounds from the PLA matrix. Nevertheless, films in the simulant that is richer in ethanol (D1) exhibited n values of over 0.5, attributed to anomalous transport where the compound diffusion is coupled with the polymer relaxation brought about by the effect of the solvent (Peppas & Brannon-Peppas, 1994). This confirms the hypothesised role of ethanol penetrating and swelling the PLA matrix, thus favouring the mass transfer rate by an anomalous mass transport mechanism where the polymer relaxation enhances the compound diffusion. Additionally, the hydrolytic degradation of the PLA matrix in the presence of ethanol has been described by other authors (Iñiguez-Sancho et al., 2016), which will also contribute to the promotion of mass transfer processes. This hydrolysis has been found to be much faster in 50% ethanol-aqueous solutions than in 95% ethanol or pure water. The creation of free volume due to the penetration of ethanol provoked the polymer swelling, thus allowing for more water

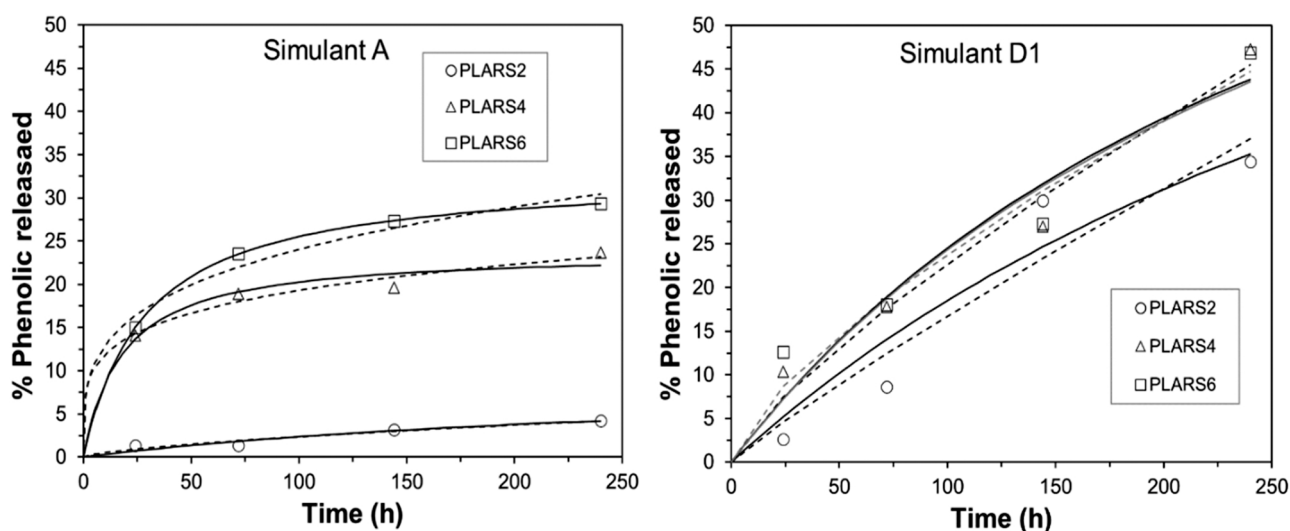


Fig. 4. Percentage of total phenolic released from active films as a function of time for simulants A and D: experimental data (points) and the Peleg (continuous lines) and Korsmeyer-Peppas (dashed lines) fitted models.

Table 5

Parameters of the Peleg and Korsmeyer-Peppas models obtained for simulants A (10% ethanol aqueous solution) and D1: (50% ethanol aqueous solution) for the films with differing concentrations of RS extract.

| Treatment | Simulant A | | | Simulant D1 | | | Simulant A | | | Simulant D1 | | |
|-----------|------------|------|-------|-------------|------|-------|------------|-------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|
| | k_1 | EV | R^2 | k_1 | EV | R^2 | n | k | R^2 | n | k | R^2 |
| PLARS2 | 31.5 | 9.4 | 0.936 | 4.4 | 100 | 0.937 | 0.66 | 0.012 | 0.950 | 0.91 | 0.003 | 0.933 |
| PLARS4 | 0.74 | 23.9 | 0.985 | 3.1 | 100 | 0.964 | 0.21 | 0.307 | 0.992 | 0.79 | 0.006 | 0.982 |
| PLARS6 | 0.86 | 32.8 | 0.999 | 3.1 | 100 | 0.951 | 0.27 | 0.212 | 0.989 | 0.71 | 0.009 | 0.971 |

molecules to diffuse into the PLA matrix, which accelerates the polymer hydrolysis rate up to 3.7 times in comparison with pure water (Tsuji, 2010; Iniguez-Sancho et al., 2016). Nevertheless, all the films maintained their physical integrity throughout the entire experiment, despite changing their appearance, depending on the PLA matrix alteration.

Therefore, the different chemical interactions of the extract compounds with the PLA matrix and the degree of relaxation of the polymeric matrix in contact with the solvent affected the release kinetic parameters. Thus, the amount released at equilibrium was higher in simulant D1, which contains a higher proportion of ethanol, as also observed by other authors (Jamshidian et al., 2012b) studying PLA films containing different antioxidants. So, the maximum percentage of phenolic released was found in simulant D1 for films with higher extract concentrations. In real food systems, different food-PLA interactions could be expected, which would also affect the compound's release and the antioxidant's effectiveness.

The antioxidant capacity of the films was also analysed through the EC_{50} parameter. This indicates the DPPH radical scavenging capacity of the films, representing the amount of sample required to reduce the DPPH concentration by 50% when the reaction stability is reached; so, the lower the value, the higher the radical scavenging capacity. To compare the EC_{50} values obtained at different contact times in both simulants with the value of pure extract, the EC_{50} was expressed as equivalent mg extract/mg DPPH, considering the amount of extract incorporated in each film. Fig. 5 shows the EC_{50} values of the films vs. contact time, where the progressive decrease in EC_{50} was obtained as the release progressed. Therefore, the radical scavenging capacity increased in line with the release of the extract compound; however, in no case did the values reach those of the pure extract, always showing higher EC_{50} values (Fig. 5). However, as the contact time lengthened in simulant A, the films with 6% extract exhibited similar EC_{50} values to the films in simulant D1, in the range of 15 mg extract/mg DPPH. In contrast, the films with 2% and 4% of extract in simulant A reached asymptotic values of about 30 mg extract/mg DPPH, which even rose at final times when

the extract content was 2%, probably due to the oxidative degradation of the released compounds. Therefore, the radical scavenging capacity of the films with 6% RS extract was similar at relatively short contact times (150 h), regardless of the type of substrate in contact. The obtained results indicate that the compounds responsible for the radical scavenging capacity were not completely released from the films or were partially degraded during thermal processing, although there was notable activity ($EC_{50} = 12$ mg incorporated extract/mg DPPH) after about 150 h contact time in different simulated food systems when the films contained 6% of extract. Differences in the amount of phenolic compounds released did not explain the almost constant radical scavenging capacity, which suggests that this capacity was not only related with the total phenolic compounds estimated by the Folin-Ciocalteu method. For comparison purposes, the EC_{50} values of typical strong antioxidants, such as ascorbic acid or α -tocopherol, are 0.12 and 0.26 mg compound /mg DPPH, respectively (Brand-Williams et al., 1995).

3.2.3. Surface response for the antioxidant capacity of the films

In order to obtain a practical model that allows for estimating the released phenolic ratio and the radical scavenging capacity (EC_{50}) as a function of both contact time and extract concentration in the film, multifactorial regression models were also obtained, and the corresponding surface response (Fig. 6). The regression Eqs. 6 and 7 explained 98% and 93% of the variation in %GAE for simulants A and D1, respectively. Likewise, the radical scavenging capacity of the released compounds (EC_{50} parameter), expressed as mg film/mg DPPH were described by Eqs. 8 and 9, explaining 97% and 91%, respectively, in A and D1 simulants, of total EC_{50} variation.

$$\hat{Y}_{\%GAE}(\text{Simulant A}) = 0.040t - 0.0002t^2 + 15.745x - 1.478x^2 + 0.011xt - 26.87 \tag{6}$$

$$R^2 = 0.98$$

$$\hat{Y}_{\%GAE}(\text{Simulant D1}) = 0.162t + 7.940x - 0.763x^2 - 13.340 \tag{7}$$

$$R^2 = 0.93$$

$$\hat{Y}_{EC_{50}}(\text{Simulant A}) = -6.030t - 0.020t^2 - 768.7x + 50.30x^2 + 3459 \tag{8}$$

$$R^2 = 0.97$$

$$\hat{Y}_{EC_{50}}(\text{Simulant D1}) = -13.780t - 0.023t^2 - 1015x + 80.10x^2 + 1.241xt + 3889 \tag{9}$$

$$R^2 = 0.91$$

Fig. 6 clearly shows that, from 150 h contact time onwards, the films with the highest extract concentration in simulant A exhibited antioxidant capacity similar to that in contact with simulant D1, as commented on above. This indicates that, despite the greater release of total phenolics in simulant D1, the phenolics released in simulant A exhibited high antioxidant potential; the greater the amount of extract incorporated into the polymer matrix, the greater the degree of similarity between the antioxidant potential of the films in both simulants.

The maximum release of phenolic compounds and the minimum

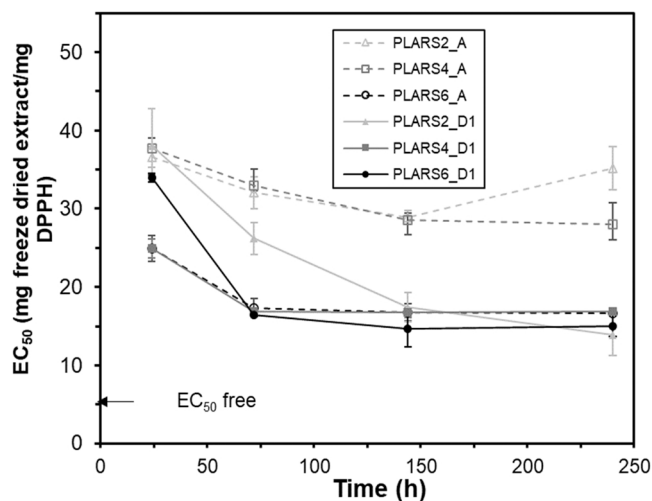


Fig. 5. EC_{50} values for the active films in simulants A and D1 over time. An arrow in the bottom right-hand corner of the graph shows the value of EC_{50} for the free extract (6.3 ± 0.3 mg dry extract/ mg DPPH).

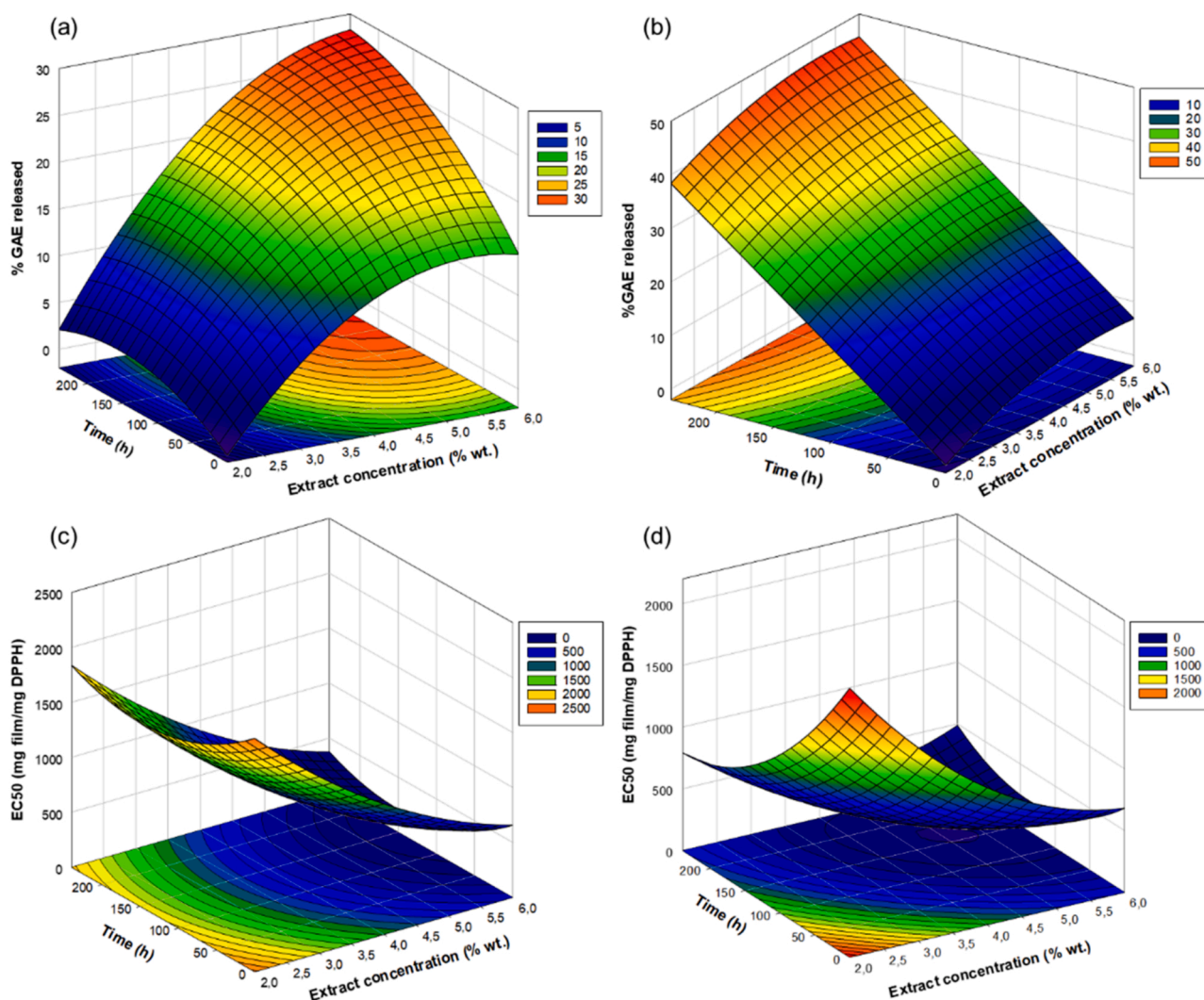


Fig. 6. Response surface plots from the fitted regression models for %GAE released in simulant A (a) and D1 (b), and EC_{50} of the PLA films in the simulants A (c) and D1 (d).

value of EC_{50} (maximum radical scavenging capacity) were obtained from the obtained functions. Thus, in simulant A, the optimal film formulation was that containing 6% wt. extract, with a maximum phenolic release of 30.4% of GAE at the final time (240 h), exhibiting the maximum radical scavenging capacity ($EC_{50} = 209$ mg film/ mg DPPH) at 148 h contact time. In simulant D1, the optimal films would contain 5.1% extract, which released 46.1% GAE at the final time (240 h), exhibiting the maximum radical scavenging capacity ($EC_{50} = 201$ mg film/mg DPPH) at 159 h contact time. Therefore, films with an extract concentration of nearly 6% exhibited a very similar radical scavenging capacity in both simulants after approximately 150 h contact time; this suggests that this extract concentration in the films ensures their potential antioxidant capacity in food systems regardless of their polar nature, despite the fact that the release of phenolic compounds would be greater in less polar substrates. To sum up, both time and extract concentration in the film affected the amount of phenolic compounds released and the potential radical scavenging capacity of films, but the latter reached an almost constant value from about 150 h contact time onwards for films with an extract concentration of nearly 6%. So, these PLA films could be used as biodegradable active packaging materials with antioxidant capacity in both aqueous foods (simulant A) or more

fatty foods, such as oil-in water emulsions (simulant D1).

4. Conclusion

The rice straw aqueous extract obtained by an ultrasound-assisted and reflux-heating process had remarkable phenolic content and radical scavenging capacity. Its incorporation into PLA films turned them a little brown while slightly modifying the polymer chain arrangement and strength of the matrix, which promoted a small loss in the film stretchability, resistance to break, barrier capacity and PLA thermostability. However, the films gained antioxidant capacity when the extract was incorporated. The phenolic components incorporated into the extract were able to be released, depending on the extract concentration in the films, the food simulant polarity and contact time. In the ethanol-rich simulant (D1), the total content of phenolics could be released at equilibrium, whereas only 33% at most could be released in the most aqueous simulant (A). The radical scavenging capacity of the films, referred per mass unit of incorporated dry extract, reach asymptotic values from about 150 h contact time onwards; these were lower than those of the pure extract, but films with an extract concentration of nearly 6% exhibited very similar values in both simulants. This suggests

that this extract concentration in the films ensures their potential antioxidant capacity in food systems regardless of their polar nature. No good correlation between the amount of phenolic compounds released and the radical scavenging capacity was found, which suggests that other extract compounds contributed to this capacity of the films. So, PLA films incorporating about 6% of rice straw extract could be used as biodegradable active packaging material with interesting antioxidant capacity in both aqueous foods (simulant A) and more fatty products, such as oil-in water emulsions (simulant D1). Further studies will be carried out to verify their potential antioxidant efficiency in different real food systems.

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Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Data Availability

The authors do not have permission to share data.

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