

Document downloaded from:

<http://hdl.handle.net/10251/64019>

This paper must be cited as:

Moreno Marro, O.; Atarés Huerta, LM.; Chiralt A. (2015). Effect of the incorporation of antimicrobial/antioxidant proteins on the properties of potato starch films. *Carbohydrate Polymers*. 133:353-364. doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2015.07.047.



The final publication is available at

<https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2014.05.015>

Copyright Elsevier

Additional Information

# Effect of the incorporation of antimicrobial/antioxidant proteins on the properties of potato starch films

Olga Moreno\*, Lorena Atarés, Amparo Chiralt

Departamento de Tecnología de Alimentos – Instituto de Ingeniería de Alimentos para el  
Desarrollo. Universitat Politècnica de València, Camino de Vera s/n 46022 Valencia, Spain.

## **Abstract:**

Glycerol plasticized potato starch films containing bioactive proteins (lactoferrin (LF) and/or lysozyme (LZ), at 0.1 and 0.2 ratio with respect to starch) were obtained by casting method and characterised as to their microstructural, thermal and physical (water content, mechanical, water and oxygen barrier, optical) properties. The bioactive properties, named antioxidant and antimicrobial, of the proteins and the films were also characterized. The incorporation of proteins affected the structural and physical properties of potato starch films, while modifying their thermal behaviour and increasing the glass transition temperature. Both proteins showed a certain degree of compatibility with starch chains through the bond formations (increase in Tg), while a part is separated and migrates to the film surface. Their incorporation, especially that of lactoferrin, greatly increased the film's brittleness, regardless of the films water content, although they enhance the water vapour and oxygen barrier properties, whatever the age of the film. Protein also reduced the film's transparency and gloss, while lactoferrin induced colour changes. The thermal degradation of blend films and isolated proteins occurred at temperatures of over 250°C, which means that blend starch films can be thermoprocessed, according to their thermoplastic properties and following the usual practices of the plastics industries. A synergistic antimicrobial action against *E.coli* and coliforms was observed when both LZ and LF were simultaneously applied. Both of these exhibited antioxidant capacity.

Keywords: edible films, potato starch, lactoferrin, lysozyme, bioactive properties.

\*corresponding author: Olga Moreno. Fax: 0034 96 387 73 69 e-mail: [olmomar1@upvnet.upv.es](mailto:olmomar1@upvnet.upv.es)

## 1. Introduction

Nowadays, the accumulation of non-biodegradable plastics is a paramount environmental concern which still has not been efficiently addressed (Azeredo, 2009). Bioplastics produced from renewable resources are being recognized as a solution to environmental problems concerning waste and dependence on fossil fuels (Byun & Kim, 2014). Starch is one of the most widely used and promising materials in the bioplastics market due to its biodegradability, availability, renewability and low cost (Wilhelm et al., 2003; Barnett, 2011). Native starch does not have thermoplastic properties; however, with the addition of plasticizers and thermal-shearing processing, native starch gelatinizes and turns into thermoplastic starch (TPS), from which films can be obtained by using both solution casting or thermoprocessing (Zhang et al., 2014).

Biodegradable packaging materials can additionally be carriers of antioxidant and/or antimicrobial agents (Sánchez-García et al., 2008) in order to obtain active packaging products, in which active compounds are released into the food or the surrounding environment (e.g. head space) in the package so as to extend the shelf life of food and to improve its safety and quality properties (Realini & Marcos, 2014).

Oxidation is a chemical process, slower than microbial spoilage, which lies in a primary quality factor limiting the shelf-life of a wide variety of foods, mainly dry and/or fatty foods. With the aim of avoiding the oxidation damage, edible films and coatings can be used as oxygen barrier layer and vehicle for antioxidant delivery. A trend towards using natural antioxidants instead of synthetic ones exists due to consumer perceptions of the safety and acceptance of such antioxidants compared to synthetics (Lee, 2014). Edible films containing natural antioxidants have been extensively applied to fresh products and dried foods (Das et al., 2013; Gimenez et al., 2011; Han et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2008).

As regards microbial spoilage, the growth of microorganisms is not only detrimental to the organoleptic characteristics of food (such as off-odors and accelerated changes in aroma, color and texture), but also some microorganisms and their toxins may cause food recalls and serious foodborne outbreaks (Corrales et al., 2014). In order to prolong the food shelf-life and maintain product safety, quality and freshness, it is necessary to select adequate materials and packaging technologies, of which biodegradable films containing antimicrobials are being extensively studied (Kechichian et al., 2010). The incorporation of active compounds into food packaging increases the efficiency of food preservation (Moreno et al., 2014). Likewise, the use of natural antimicrobials is gradually growing because of the greater consumer awareness of the potential health risks of some synthetic antimicrobials (Gyawali & Ibrahim, 2014; Moreira et al., 2005).

Lactoferrin and lysozyme could be used for the purposes of conferring active properties to biodegradable films (Jenssen and Hancock, 2009). Lactoferrin (LF) is an iron-binding glycoprotein (approximately 80KDa), belonging to the family of transferrin proteins (Farnaud and Evans, 2003; García-Montoya et al., 2012; Jenssen and Hancock, 2009; Pan et al., 2007), which has been reported as an antimicrobial enzyme against a wide array of Gram positive and Gram negative bacteria (Drago,

2006; Pan et al., 2007). The antibacterial action of LF is based on both bacteriostatic and bactericidal mechanisms. The bacteriostatic effect is due to its ability to sequester iron making this nutrient unavailable for bacteria (Arnold et al., 1977; Reyes et al., 2005). The bactericidal effect has been attributed to its direct interaction with the bacterial membranes (García-Montoya et al., 2012). Specifically, LF has the ability to damage the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria directly due to its interaction with lipopolysaccharide (LPS) (Ellison et al., 1988). The use of Lysozyme (LZ) in antimicrobial packaging applications has been described by several authors (Barbiroli et al., 2012; Gemili et al., 2009, Buonocore et al., 2005). The antimicrobial activity of this protein is based on its ability to break the bonds between N-acetylmuramic acid and N-acetylglucosamine of the peptidoglycan of the cell walls of Gram-positive bacteria (Guçbilmez et al., 2007). In order to amplify the antimicrobial spectrum of the lysozyme, some authors have pointed out the possibility of combining it with detergents and chelators which lead to the destabilization of the outer membrane in Gram-negative bacteria (Gill & Holley, 2000; Branen & Davidson, 2004). In this sense, LF has the ability to enhance the antibacterial activity of LZ, due to its interaction with the LPS (García-Montoya et al., 2012; González-Chávez et al., 2009, Sung et al., 2013). Yamauchi (1992) observed a direct interaction between both proteins against *Micrococcus luteus*, while Suzuki et al. (1989) obtained a greater bacteriostatic effect when both proteins were used in combination. Recently, other authors (Barbiroli et al., 2012) have obtained similar results, reporting a synergistic action against *Listeria*.

As concerns the antioxidant activity, LF has been pointed out as a natural antioxidant protein (García-Montoya et al., 2012; Joubran et al., 2013; Samarasinghe et al., 2014; Stejins and Hooijdonk, 2000; Wakabayashi et al., 2006). Elias et al. (2008) reported that different alimentary proteins and peptides can interfere with radical reactions, acting as primary or secondary antioxidants. LF could act as a secondary or preventive antioxidant, due to its chelation capability of transition metals (e.g. iron and copper), which would retard the oxidation process (Huang et al., 2005). On the other hand, LZ has been reported as capable of suppressing the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Liu et al., 2006), which confers it with antioxidant activity.

In order to obtain active starch films with adequate functional properties, the effect of incorporating LF, LZ, and their blend, on the structural, thermal and physical properties of starch biodegradable films was analysed. To evaluate the active properties of the films, the antioxidant and antibacterial properties were analyzed in both pure LF and LZ, and their blend, and in the obtained films.

## **2. Materials and methods**

### **2.1. Raw materials**

Potato starch (PS) with 17.9% amylose content was supplied by Roquette Laisa Spain, S.A. (Lestrem cedex, France); lyophilized bovine lactoferrin (LF) was provided by ABIAL Tecnología e Innovación S.L. (Santander, Spain) and lysozyme (LZ) by DSM Food Specialties B.V. (Delft, Netherland). Glycerol, magnesium nitrate and phosphorus pentoxide were supplied by Panreac

116 Química S.A. (Castellar de Vallès, Barcelona, Spain). Stock cultures, *Escherichia coli* (CECT 101) and  
117 *Listeria innocua* (CECT 910), employed for the antimicrobial activity analysis, were supplied by the  
118 Spanish Type Culture Collection (CECT, Burjassot, Spain). Tryptone Soy Broth, Agar bacteriological,  
119 Buffered peptone water, Plate Count Agar, Palcam Agar and Violet Red Bile Agar were provided by  
120 Scharlab, (Barcelona, Spain). NaCl was purchased from (Panreac, Barcelona, Spain). Acetic Acid  
121 glacial and Potassium Iodide (KI) were supplied by Panreac Química S.A. (Castellar de Vallès,  
122 Barcelona, Spain), Iodine by Acros Organics (Geel, Belgium) and 1-Decanol by Alfa Aesar (Karlsruhe,  
123 Germany).

## 124

### 125 **2.2. Experimental design and film casting**

## 126

127 PS was dispersed in distilled water at 2% wt., using magnetic stirring for 5 to 10 minutes. These  
128 PS dispersions were heated in a thermostatic bath at 99°C for 30 minutes and stirred every 5 minutes.  
129 After cooling down with running water, glycerol was added (mass ratio of glycerol to PS was 0.25:1).  
130 The dispersions were homogenized with a rotor stator ultraturrax D125 for 4 minutes at 13,500 rpm,  
131 and finally were degassed at room temperature by means of a vacuum pump (MZ 2C NT, Vacuubrand  
132 GMBH + CO KG, Wertheim, Germany). Separately, protein (LF and/or LZ) aqueous dispersions at  
133 10% wt. were prepared with magnetic stirring for 20 minutes and degassed. Finally, the PS-glycerol  
134 dispersion and the protein dispersions were mixed in different proportions through magnetic stirring  
135 and degassed. Seven different combinations of PS, LF and LZ were obtained, with 0.1 or 0.2 g protein  
136 per g PS. Net LZ or LF and 1:1 blend of both were used. Sample codes (two digits) indicate the g of  
137 LF and LZ per g of PS.

138 Teflon plates (150mm diameter) were used for film casting. The mass of film forming  
139 dispersions corresponding to 1.5 g of solids was cast on each plate. After drying for 48 h at 45 %RH  
140 and 25°C, the films were separated from the plates. For the purposes of studying the effect of storage  
141 time on the physical properties of the films, the samples were stored, at 25°C, for 1 or 5 weeks prior to  
142 analyses in desiccators at 54% RH, by using an oversaturated Mg(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> solution. In order to assess  
143 the role of moisture content on the mechanical properties of the films, a part of the dried films was also  
144 conditioned, for 1 or 5 weeks, at 33 % RH and 25°C, by using MgCl<sub>2</sub> oversaturated solution.

### 145

### 146 **2.3. Microstructural characterization**

## 147

148 Cross-section and surface images of the films were obtained by Scanning Electron Microscopy  
149 (SEM) using a JEOL® microscope, model JSM-5410. The film samples were previously stored in a  
150 desiccator with P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> in order to eliminate film moisture. Film stripes (5x2mm approximately) were  
151 cryofractured by immersion in liquid nitrogen and mounted on copper stubs. After gold coating, the  
152 samples were observed using an accelerating voltage of 10 kV.

156 **2.4. Thermal characterization**

157  
158 2.4.1. THERMOGRAVIMETRIC ANALYSIS (TGA)

159  
160 The thermal behaviour of the conditioned film samples at 54% RH was analysed using a  
161 thermogravimetric analyzer (TGA/SDTA 851e, Mettler Toledo, Schwarzenbach, Switzerland).  
162 Approximately 3mg of film samples were gradually heated at 10°C/min from room temperature to  
163 600°C, under nitrogen flow (50 mL/min). The initial degradation temperature ( $T_0$ ), i. e. the temperature  
164 at which 5% mass loss is registered, was recorded. The temperature at which the maximum  
165 degradation rate was observed ( $T_{max}$ ), i.e. the temperature of the peak in the first derivative graphs, as  
166 well as the percentage of mass loss at the end of the test (600°C), were also registered.  
167 Measurements were run in duplicate.

168  
169 2.4.2. DIFFERENTIAL SCANNING CALORIMETRY (DSC)

170  
171 Film samples were desiccated with  $P_2O_5$  and submitted to DSC analyses. Approximately 10mg  
172 of sample were weighed and sealed into aluminium pans. An empty sample pan was used as  
173 reference. Aiming to determine the glass transition temperature of the samples ( $T_g$ ), a first heating  
174 scan was done between 0 and 160°C at 50°C/min (in order to allow the removal of residual water),  
175 followed by a cooling scan to 0°C and a second heating scan to 200°C at 10°C/min. The tests were  
176 performed with a DSC (TA Instruments, model DSC1 STAR<sup>®</sup> System, Mettler Toledo) with a 20 mL/min  
177 nitrogen flow. Each sample was analysed in duplicate.  
178

179 **2.5. Physical characterization**

180  
181 2.5.1. WATER CONTENT

182  
183 The moisture content of conditioned film samples (at 33 or 54 % RH) was determined using a  
184 gravimetric method. Five samples per formulation were considered. Water was eliminated from the  
185 samples using a two-step process: they were firstly desiccated in a vacuum oven (60°C-24h), and  
186 secondly stored in desiccators with  $P_2O_5$  until constant weight was reached. The results were  
187 expressed as g of water per 100 g of dry film.  
188

189 2.5.2. MECHANICAL PROPERTIES

190  
191 The mechanical behavior of the films was analyzed using a texture analyser (TA-XTplus, Stable  
192 Micro Systems, Surrey, United Kingdom) according to ASTM D882 (2001). Twelve film stripes (25.4  
193 mm wide and 100 mm long) per formulation were tested. Thickness was measured in four positions  
194 along the stripe by means of a hand-held digital micrometer (Electronic Digital Micrometer, Comecta

195 S.A., Barcelona, Spain). Film strips were mounted in the tensile grips (ATG model) and stretched at a  
196 rate of 50 mm/min until breaking. The elastic modulus (EM (MPa)), tensile strength at break (TS  
197 (MPa)) and percentage of elongation at break (%E) were determined from stress–Hencky strain  
198 curves, obtained from force–deformation data. Films conditioned at 33% and 53% RH and 25°C for 1  
199 and 5 weeks were characterized.

### 201 2.5.3. WATER VAPOUR AND OXYGEN PERMEABILITIES

202  
203 The water vapour permeability (WVP) of the film samples was measured with a modification of  
204 the ASTM E96-95 (ASTM, 1995) gravimetric method, (McHugh *et al.*, 1993) using Payne permeability  
205 cups (Elcometer SPRL, Hermelle/s Argenteau, Belgium) of 3.5 cm in diameter. Six round samples per  
206 formulation were cut, and the thickness was measured in six points per sample (Electronic Digital  
207 Micrometer, Comecta S.A., Barcelona, Spain). WVP was determined at 25°C and 53-100% RH  
208 gradient, which was generated by using an oversaturated  $Mg(NO_3)_2$  solution and pure water,  
209 respectively. The side of the film which was in contact with air during drying was oriented towards the  
210 gas phase at 53%RH. The cups were weighed every 1.5 h, for 24 h with an analytical balance (ME36S  
211 Sartorius, Alemania). After the steady state was reached, the slope obtained from the weight loss vs.  
212 time was used to calculate WVP.

213 The oxygen permeability (OP) was measured following the standard method (ASTM D3985-05,  
214 2005), by using an Oxtran System (Mocon, Minneapolis, USA). The measurements were obtained at  
215 53%RH using 50 cm<sup>2</sup> film samples. Oxygen permeability was calculated by dividing the oxygen  
216 transmission rate (OTR) by the difference in oxygen partial pressure between the two sides of the film,  
217 and multiplying by the average film thickness. At least two replicates per formulation were made.

### 219 2.5.4. OPTICAL PROPERTIES: TRANSPARENCY, COLOUR AND GLOSS

220  
221 A spectrophotometer (CM-3600d, Minolta Co., Tokyo, Japan) was used to obtain the infinite  
222 reflectance spectra of the film samples. Measurements were taken on black and white backgrounds.  
223 The internal transmittance ( $T_i$ ) of the films was determined by applying the Kubelka–Munk theory  
224 (Hutchings, 1999) for multiple scattering to the reflection spectra, following the methodology described  
225 by Pastor *et al.* (2010). Six samples per formulation were analyzed, and three measurements per  
226 sample were taken. The measurements were performed on the side of the film in contact with air  
227 during drying.

228 CIE-L\*a\*b\* coordinates: lightness ( $L_{ab}^*$ ), chrome ( $C_{ab}^*$ ) and hue ( $h_{ab}^*$ ) of the films were obtained  
229 from the surface reflectance spectra using D65 illuminant/10° observer. The whiteness index (WI) was  
230 also calculated according to Atarés *et al.* (2010).

231 The gloss was measured on the film side in contact with air during drying, at a 60° incidence  
232 angle, according to the ASTM standard D-523 (ASTM, 1999), using a flat surface gloss meter (Multi-  
233 Gloss 268, Minolta Co., Tokyo, Japan). Ten replicates were obtained per formulation. All the results

234 were expressed as gloss units, relative to a highly polished surface of black glass standard with a  
235 value near to 100.

## 237 **2.6. Characterization of active properties.**

### 239 **2.6.1 Antimicrobial tests**

241 In order to evaluate the antimicrobial activity of the proteins in the films, stock cultures of *Listeria*  
242 *innocua* (CECT 910) and *Escherichia coli* (CECT 101) were used. These were kept frozen (-18°C) in  
243 Tryptone Soy Broth (TSB), supplemented with 30% of glycerol. To regenerate each culture, a loopful  
244 was transferred into 10 mL of TSB, then the tube was incubated at 37°C overnight and 10µL were  
245 again transferred into 10 mL of TSB. The tube was kept at 37°C for 24h to reach the exponential  
246 phase of growth.

#### 248 2.6.1.1. In vitro assays.

250 The antimicrobial activity of the proteins was analysed following a modification of the method  
251 described by Kristo et al. (2008). Pure LF and LZ and their 1:1 wt. ratio blend were tested as to their  
252 antibacterial activity against *Listeria innocua* and *Escherichia coli*. Tryptone Soy Agar (TSA) with 3%  
253 NaCl was used as a model solid food system (TSA-NaCl) (Sánchez-González et al., 2011). 10mL of  
254 TSA-NaCl were poured into sterile petri dishes and left to solidify. Bacteria cultures in exponential  
255 phase of growth were adequately diluted for the inoculation of the agar plates in order to obtain 10<sup>2</sup>  
256 CFU/cm<sup>2</sup> target inoculum. At that point, 1mL of protein dilution (LF, LZ or their blend) was poured into  
257 the agar and left to adsorb on the surface under sterile conditions. The protein dilutions were prepared  
258 in order to obtain the same surface solid density of protein as that contained in the films with 0,2 g of  
259 protein/g of starch (1.17mg protein/cm<sup>2</sup>). Inoculated TSA-NaCl petri dishes without protein were used  
260 as inoculum control. Plates were then sealed with parafilm to avoid dehydration and incubated at  
261 10°C and 25°C for 24 hours. Then, the agar was aseptically removed from the petri dishes and placed  
262 in a sterile plastic bag with 90 mL of buffered peptone water. Homogenization was performed for 2  
263 minutes in a Stomacher blender (Bag Mixer 400, Interscience). Then, serial dilutions were made and  
264 poured onto the specific culture media for *L.innocua* and *E.coli*, Palcam Agar and Violet Red Bile Agar,  
265 respectively. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 48 h before colonies were counted. All the tests were  
266 run in triplicate.

267 The same method was used to analyze the antimicrobial activity of the films containing the active  
268 proteins (0,2 g /g of starch; film samples: 0.2-0; 0-0.2; 0.1-0.1), in order to evaluate the effect of their  
269 inclusion in the film matrix on their activity. Instead of the protein dilutions, films with the same area  
270 were placed on the inoculated TSA-NaCl petri dishes. The film free drying surface (where the highest  
271 density of protein was found) was always put in contact with the agar medium. Inoculated petri dishes  
272 without film were used as inoculum control, while inoculated dishes coated with the starch film without  
273 proteins (sample 0-0) were used as film control. All the tests were also run in triplicate.



#### 2.6.1.2. In vivo assays.

The effectiveness of the antimicrobial ability of the films in a real food system was tested in minced pork meat, which was obtained from a local supermarket and was processed immediately after arriving at the laboratory. The meat was ground with a mincer (Severin Elektrogeräte GmbH, Sundern, Germany) and amounts, 10g in weight, were molded by using petri dishes to obtain the test samples. Then, the surface of both sides of the samples was coated with the films with 0.2 g protein/g starch (samples 0.2-0; 0-0.2; 0.1-0.1). Non-coated samples and samples coated with the formulation without protein (0-0) were used as controls. All the samples were stored at 10°C for 14 days; meanwhile, total aerobic and coliforms counts were obtained. Each sample was aseptically obtained and homogenized in a Stomacher blender (Bag Mixer 400, Interscience) with 90mL of Buffered peptone water for 2 min. Then, serial dilutions were made and plated out. Total aerobic counts were determined in Plate Count Agar incubated at 30°C for 72h, while coliforms were determined in Violet Red Bile Agar incubated at 37°C for 48h. All the tests were run in triplicate.

### 2.6.2 Antioxidant tests

#### 2.6.2.1. ABTS radical scavenging assay

The antioxidant capacity of LF, LZ, and their 1:1 wt. ratio blend was determined through a spectrophotometric method, as described by Re et al. (1999). The objective of this method is to compare the antioxidant activity of the analyzed substance with that of an antioxidant standard, trolox (6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid), a vitamin E analogue.

ABTS (2,2'-azino-bis[3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid]) was dissolved in water to a concentration of 7 mM, and allowed to react with a 2.45 mM potassium persulfate solution (final concentrations) for 16 h in the dark. ABTS radical cation (ABTS<sup>•+</sup>), a blue chromophore, was produced during that period. The ABTS<sup>•+</sup> solution was diluted with ethanol until an initial absorbance of 0.70 ( $\pm 0.02$ ) at 734 nm ( $A_0$ ). 10 $\mu$ l of the test solution was added to 990 $\mu$ L of this solution, and the percentage of absorbance reduction at 6 minutes was registered. All absorbance measurements were taken with a Beckman Coulter DU 730 spectrophotometer, using ethanol as blank. In order to obtain the test solutions, both LF and LZ, as well as their blend, were completely dissolved at 5% in bidistilled water while stirring at 250 rpm for 16h. All tests were performed in triplicate.

A calibration curve (% absorbance reduction vs. concentration of Trolox) was obtained with different dilutions (0 mg/l to 50 mg/l) of trolox as standard antioxidant agent. The Trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC) of the proteins was defined as the concentration (g protein/L) producing the same perceptual absorbance reduction as 1mM Trolox.

#### 2.6.2.2. Peroxide value (PV)

The antioxidant ability of the films containing 0.2 g protein/g starch (samples 0.2-0;0-0.2; 0.1-0.1) was tested on a real food system, pure fresh fat (lard), which was purchased in a local market and kept in refrigeration until the experiment was started (no more than 24 h). Inert glass cups (36.5 mm diameter and 6.6mm depth) were totally filled with fat and compressed to ensure the total absence of air bubbles. At this point, each cup surface was completely covered with a film disk. The film free drying surface (where the highest density of protein was found) was always put in contact with the lard. Non-covered cups and cups covered with film without protein (0-0) were used as controls. All the samples were stored at 40°C and 53% RH for 190 days. The extent of fat oxidation was evaluated throughout the storage by obtaining the peroxide value (PV). An automatic titrator was employed to perform the measurements (Titrand, Metrohm Ion Analysis, Switzerland). With this aim, between 1 g and 2 g of lard was dissolved in 10 mL of solvent (glacial acetic acid and 1-decanol containing 10-15 mg iodine, in a 3:2 mass ratio) and blended with 200 µL of an oversaturated KI solution. The mixture was thoroughly mixed and kept in the dark for 1 min. Then, 50mL of distilled water was added and the solution was titrated with 0.01 M or 0.001 M Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, depending on the PV predicted. Prior to the test, a blank value of solvent was obtained following the procedure mentioned above, without the addition of lard. PV was expressed as mequivalents of oxygen per kilogram of pork fat. All the analyses were performed in triplicate.

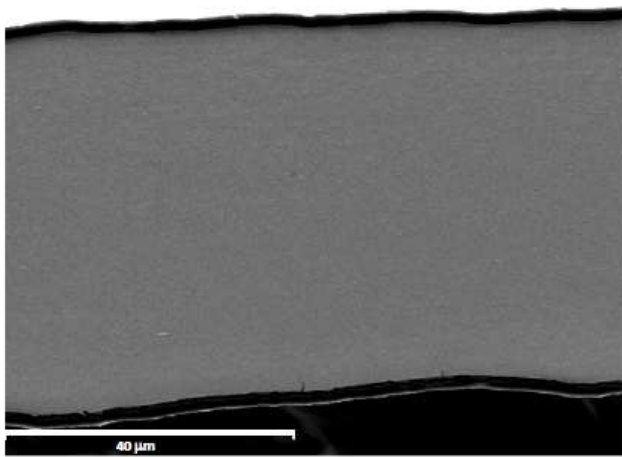
### 2.7. Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis of the data was performed through analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Statgraphics Centurion XVI. II. Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) procedure was used.

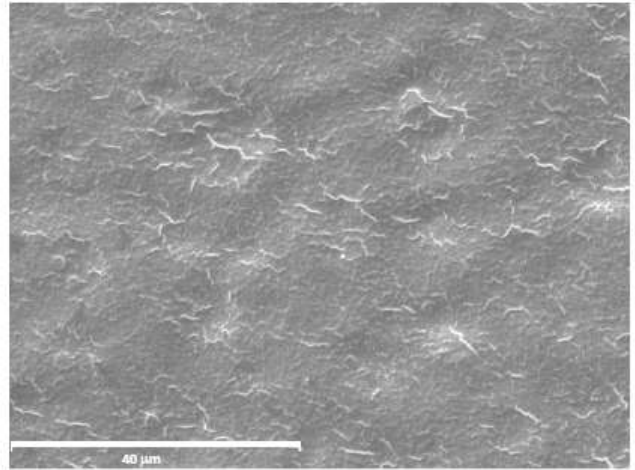
## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Microstructural characterization

Figure 1 shows the SEM images of PS films (cross section and film surface) while Figures 2 and 3 show, respectively, SEM images of the cross section of the blend films and their surface, after 1 week of storage. The films with no protein (Figure 1) exhibited a homogeneous, compact structure without pores. Protein addition gave rise to more heterogeneous structures, as a result of the partial incompatibility of both proteins and starch. On blend film surfaces (Figure 3), globular formations can be observed which can be attributed to protein separation from the starch matrix, in agreement with a lack of complete miscibility of the polymers. The limited miscibility favoured protein creaming during the film drying, due to their lower density, which implied a heterogeneous distribution of protein through the film matrix.



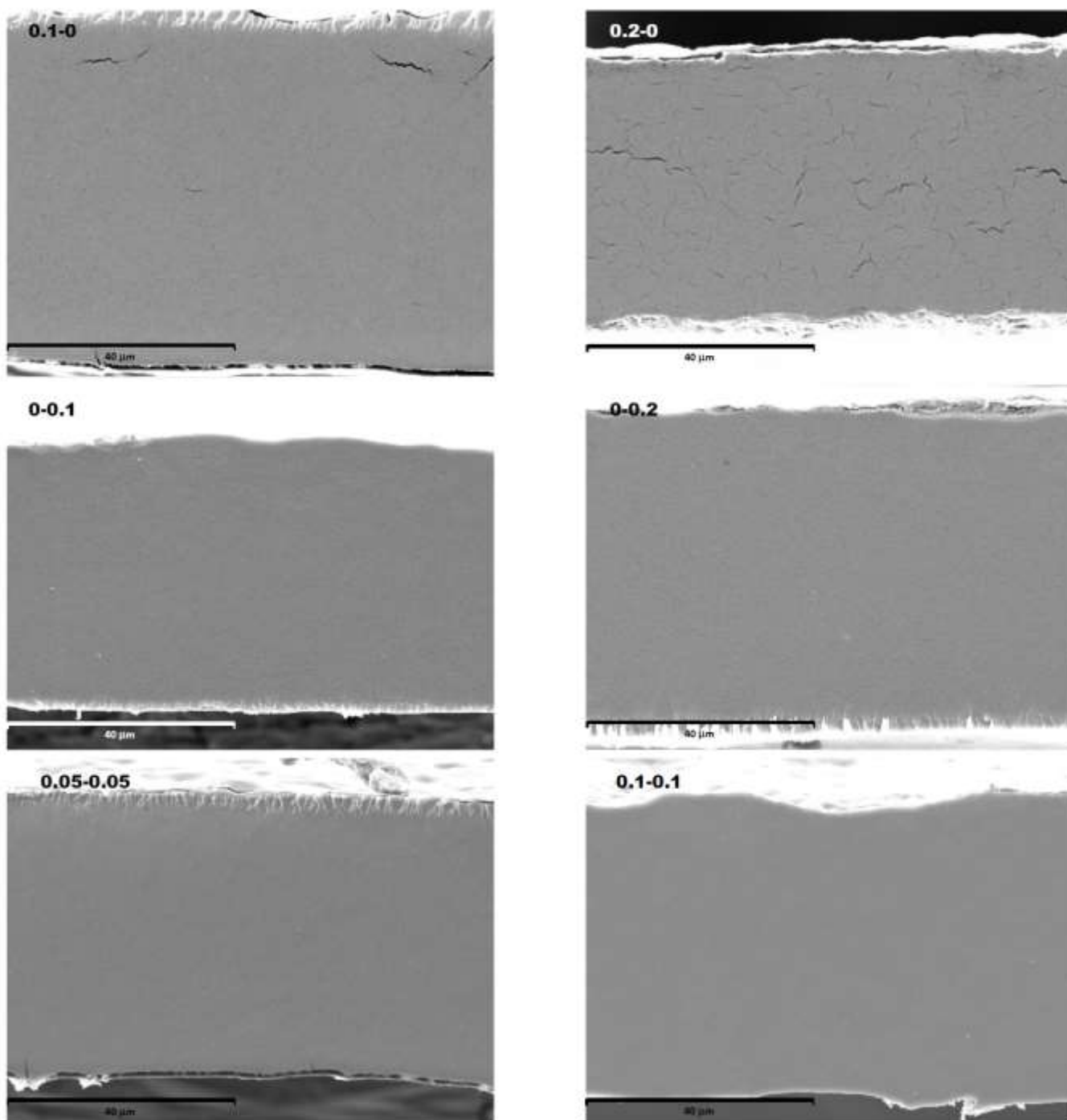
Cross section



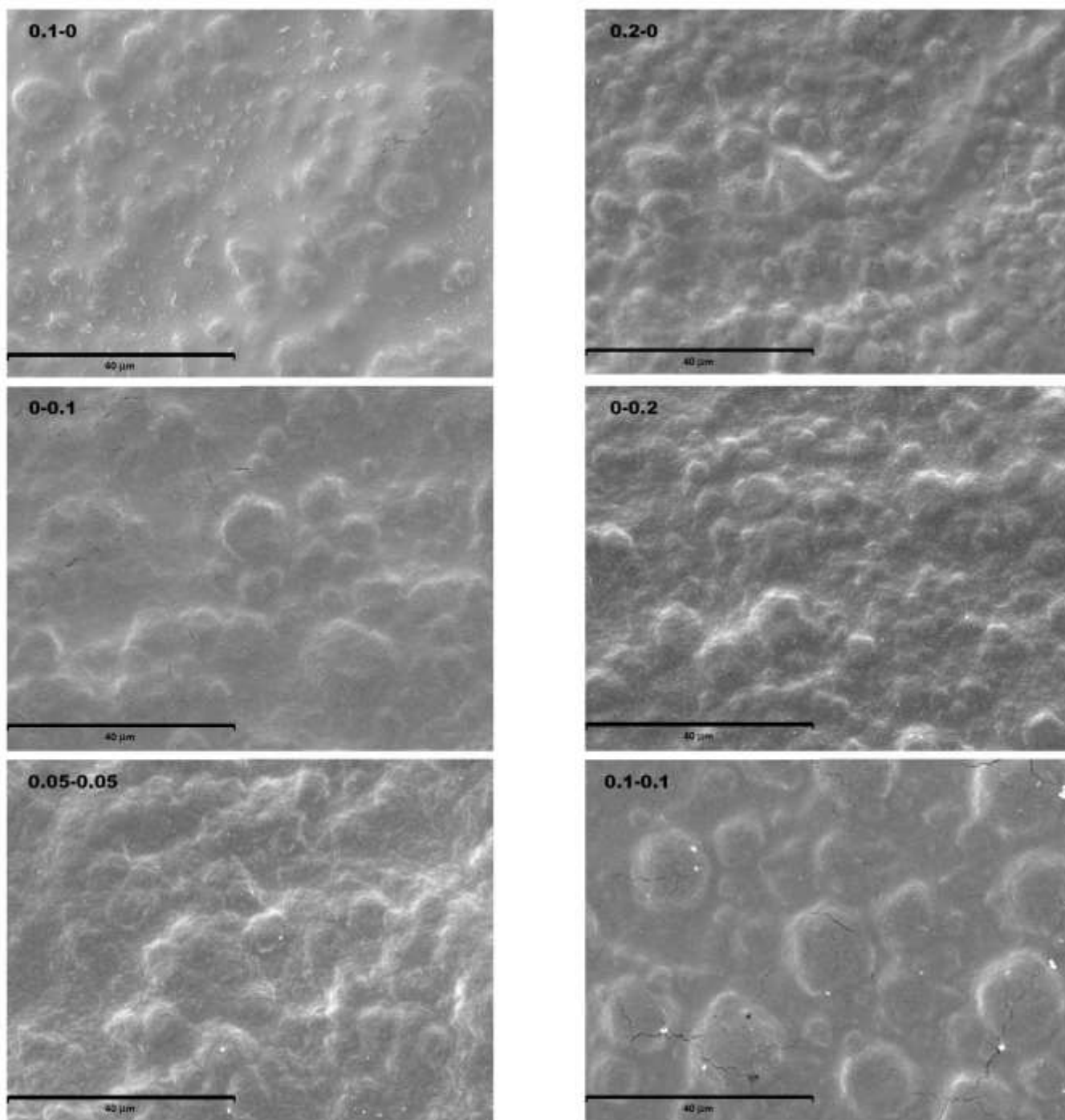
Surface

**FIGURE 1.** SEM images of the cross section and surface of dried net starch films (0:0 sample).

Likewise, the fact that a protein fraction remained dispersed in the PS matrix produced discontinuities, which generated micro-fractures in the film structure. This fragility was mainly noticeable in films with LF, particularly in the films with the highest LF proportion (sample 0.2-0), which suggests that PS is more compatible with LZ than LF. With the same protein ratio, films containing LZ or LZ-LF blends appeared more homogenous without discontinuities in the matrix. Differences in the proteins' compatibilities could be due to differences in their molecular weight, namely 80 kDa for LF (Barbiroli et al., 2012) and 14.4 kDa for LZ (Corradini et al., 2013) as well as their aminoacid sequence (primary structure) and the secondary and the tertiary structures, which can play a key role in the chemical interactions with the starch matrix. These differing molecular structures would, in turn, affect the availability of functional groups able to establish favourable interactions with the starch chains.



360  
 361 **FIGURE 2.** SEM images of the cross section of the dried films. Sample codes refer to the mass  
 362 ratio of LF (first digit) and LZ (second digit) with respect to PS.



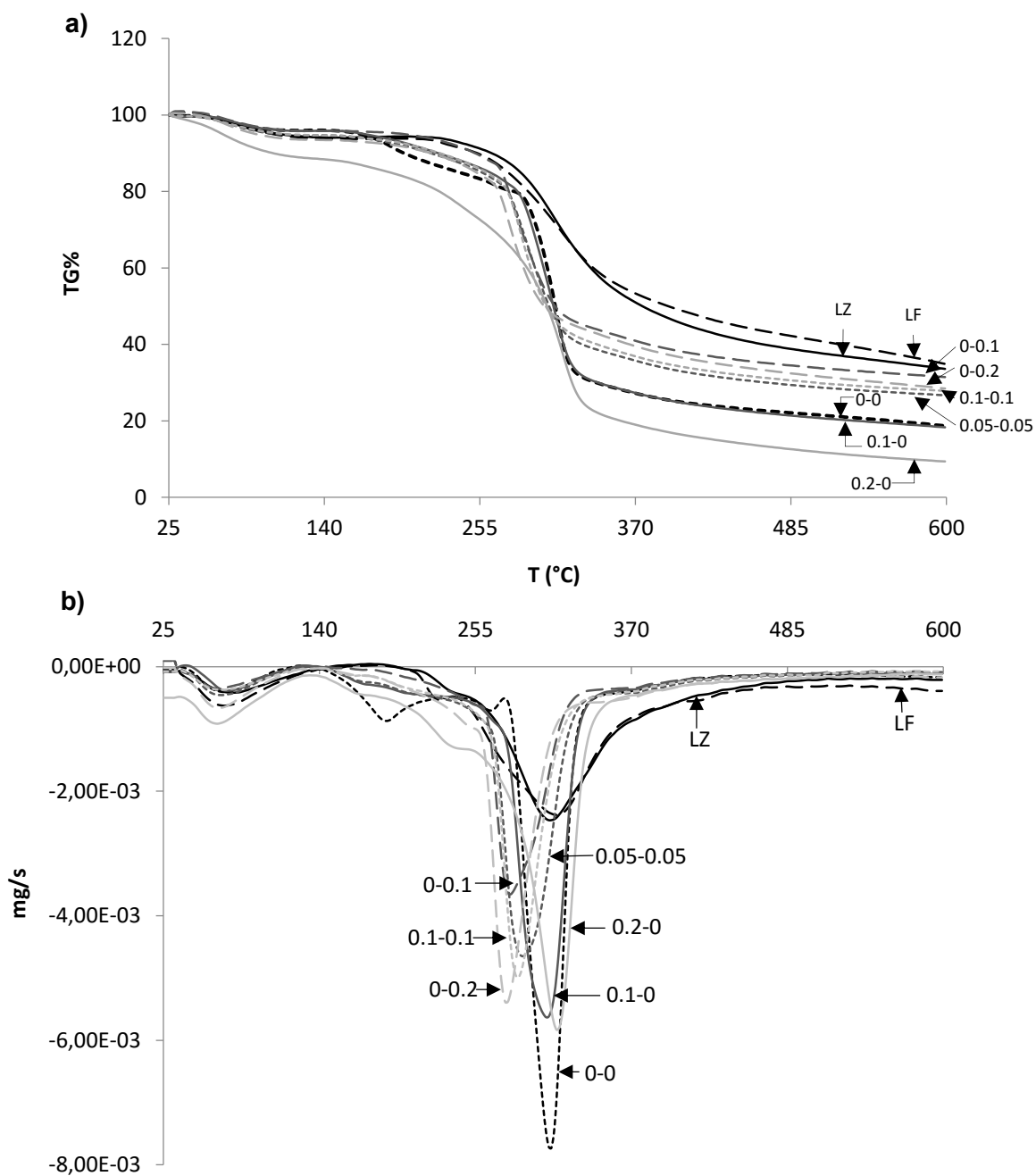
363  
 364 **FIGURE 3.** SEM images of the surface of the dried films. Sample codes refer to the mass ratio  
 365 of LF (first digit) and LZ (second digit) with respect to PS.

366  
 367 **3.2. Thermal characterization**  
 368

369 Figure 4a shows the thermal degradation curves, determined by TGA, of the different films and  
 370 pure proteins, where the influence of proteins (type and content) in the starch-based films' thermal  
 371 behavior can be appreciated. A first weight loss step with a peak temperature near 100°C was  
 372 observed in all cases, due to the initial dehydration of the films. Table 1 shows the values of the initial

373  
374

degradation temperature ( $T_0$ ), maximum degradation rate temperature ( $T_{max}$ , in Figure 4b) and the percentage mass loss at the end of the TGA test (600°C) for both the pure proteins and films.



375  
376  
377  
378

**FIGURE 4.** a) Thermogravimetric curves for the film samples and pure proteins (LZ and LF) . b) First derivative from TGA curves for the film samples and pure proteins (LF and LZ). Sample codes refer to the mass ratio of LF (first digit) and LZ (second digit) with respect to PS.

379  
380  
381  
382

The  $T_0$  and  $T_{max}$  values of the starch films (sample 0-0) were 282°C and 310°C, respectively, similar to previous reported values for potato, wheat and maize starch films (He et al., 2012; Soares et al., 2005). These values were significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) than that of the pure proteins (Table 1), which showed a similar degradation behaviour, although LF degraded slightly faster according to its

383 lower molecular weight. Protein incorporation into starch films provoked significant changes in the  
 384 degradation pattern of the films, depending on the protein type and ratio, always decreasing the  $T_0$   
 385 and  $T_{max}$  values, but in some cases reducing the percentage mass loss.

386 It is remarkable that, whereas films with 0.1 of LF show degradation curve which practically  
 387 overlaps with that of starch films, samples with 0.2 LF showed the highest and fastest thermal  
 388 degradation. Nevertheless, LZ or LZ-LF blends slightly accelerated the thermal degradation of the  
 389 starch films, but reduced the total mass loss with respect to pure starch or starch-LF films. In this  
 390 sense, it is remarkable that residual mass loss was greater for pure proteins than for starch films and  
 391 that starch films containing LZ (pure or blended with LF) showed an intermediate residual mass  
 392 between net starch and proteins, in contrast with films containing only LF which exhibit higher mass  
 393 degradation. This suggests that degradation compounds are different depending on the presence of  
 394 protein and its type, thus also pointing out to the different starch-protein interactions in each case, as  
 395 deduced from the microstructural observations. Hydrogen bonds between hydroxyl groups of starch  
 396 and amino group of the protein chains can occur to different extent depending on the protein  
 397 conformation in the blend. In fact, helical conformation of amylose could entrap different segments of  
 398 the proteins, as occurs with other organic compounds, in a selective way.

399 **TABLE 1.** Thermal properties of the films obtained by TGA ( $T_0$ ,  $T_{max}$ , % Mass loss at 600°C)  
 400 and DSC ( $T_g$ ).

Film sample	$T_0$ (°C)	$T_{max}$ (°C)	%Mass loss	$T_g$ (°C)
<b>0-0</b>	282.1 ±0.4 <sup>e</sup>	310.3 ±0.2 <sup>d</sup>	80.4 ±1.3 <sup>e</sup>	125.9 ±0.2 <sup>a</sup>
<b>0.1-0</b>	279.1 ±0.4 <sup>e</sup>	308.1 ±0.4 <sup>d</sup>	77 ±7 <sup>de</sup>	129.62 ±1.07 <sup>b</sup>
<b>0-0.1</b>	265.1 ±0.5 <sup>c</sup>	281.1 ±0.7 <sup>a</sup>	67.4 ±1.7 <sup>abc</sup>	153.2 ±0.9 <sup>c</sup>
<b>0.05-0.05</b>	270.0 ±0.3 <sup>d</sup>	290.8 ±0.2 <sup>c</sup>	73.1 ±0.2 <sup>cd</sup>	138.6 ±0.7 <sup>c</sup>
<b>0.2-0</b>	283 ±5 <sup>e</sup>	314 ±2 <sup>e</sup>	88 ±4 <sup>f</sup>	138.9 ±1.1 <sup>c</sup>
<b>0-0.2</b>	263.0 ±0.9 <sup>bc</sup>	278.3 ±0.5 <sup>a</sup>	71.1 ±0.6 <sup>abcd</sup>	161.8 ±0.2 <sup>d</sup>
<b>0.1-0.1</b>	269.0 ±0.3 <sup>d</sup>	286.1 ±0.4 <sup>b</sup>	72.3 ±0.2 <sup>bcd</sup>	154.6 ±1.5 <sup>c</sup>
<b>LF</b>	248.4 ±0.3 <sup>a</sup>	317 ±4 <sup>e</sup>	65.25 ±0.19 <sup>a</sup>	-
<b>LZ</b>	259.4 ±0.8 <sup>b</sup>	309.2 ±0.5 <sup>d</sup>	66.36 ±0.09 <sup>ab</sup>	-

401 Different letters (a, b, c, d,e) in the same column indicate significant differences among the different formulations ( $p < 0.05$ ).

402 Sample codes refer to the mass ratio of LF (first digit) and LZ (second digit) with respect to PS.

403  
 404 Table 1 also shows the values of the glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) of the films. The  $T_g$  values  
 405 of potato starch films without protein were similar to previously reported values for potato starch  
 406 (Farahnaky *et al.*, 2009). As proteins were incorporated into the film, a significant increase ( $p < 0.05$ ) of  
 407  $T_g$  was found. This increase was promoted when the protein ratio increased and was more marked for  
 408 films with LZ. This suggests that molecular interactions between the starch and the protein chains  
 409 occurred in the films to a different extent depending on the kind of protein and the ratio. Likewise, the  
 410 increase indicates that the amorphous starch region behaves with a higher mean molecular weight,  
 411 which could be explained through the establishment of protein-amylose or amylopectin bonds forming  
 412 starch-protein complexes. As commented on in section 3.1, LZ seemed to interact with PS to a greater  
 413 extent than LF, thus leading to the highest complexation degree and, thereby, a greater  $T_g$  increase.

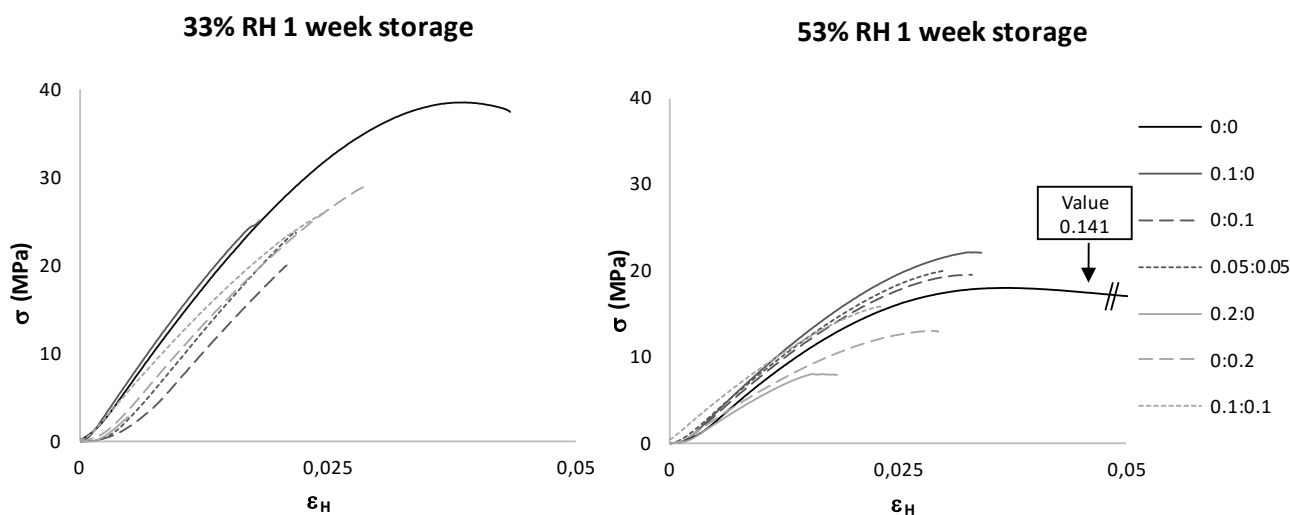
At both protein:starch ratios, the films with the two proteins showed  $T_g$  values between those of films with only one protein. This behaviour points to a partial miscibility of both proteins with starch chains, through complex formation with a higher mean molecular weight than starch chains. This was more notable for LZ, in agreement with a higher protein compatibility with starch.

### 3.3. Physical characterization

#### 3.3.1. THICKNESS, WATER CONTENT AND MECHANICAL PROPERTIES

The thickness of the obtained films ranged between 60 and 80  $\mu\text{m}$  (results not shown). The protein addition led to thicker films, coherently with the protein proportion with respect to PS. This indicates that the packing of starch chains was partially limited by the presence of protein in the films probably due to the induced changes in the chain interactions.

Figure 5 shows stress-strain curves for the films stored for 1 week at 33 and 53 % relative humidity. Protein incorporation greatly reduced the films' stretchability, even when conditioned at 53% RH, when net starch films showed a notable extensibility due to the increase in water content and its plasticization effect. This was not observed for protein-containing films, which must be attributed to the discontinuities introduced in the starch matrix which increased its brittleness and to the anti-plasticizing role of the proteins ( $T_g$  increase) in the starch blend.

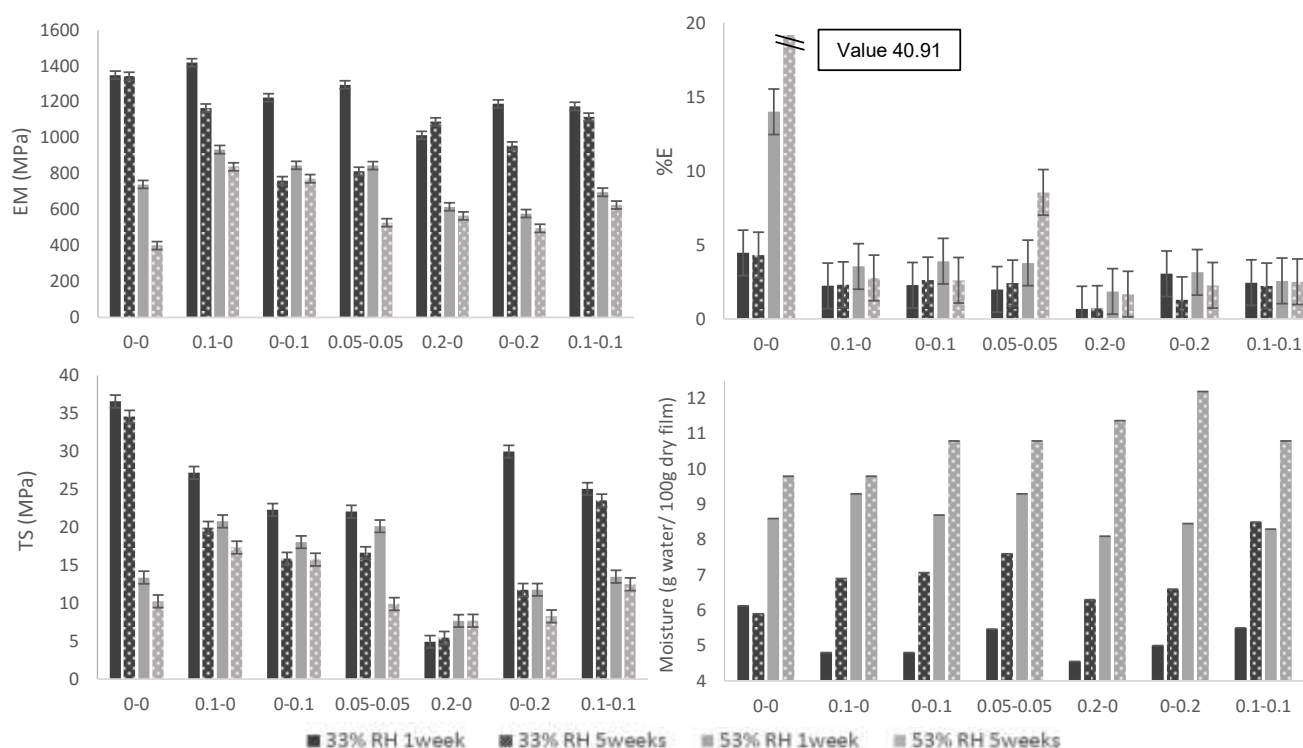


**FIGURE 5.** Stress – strain curves of the films conditioned for 1 week at 33 % and 53 % RH. Sample code refers to mass ratio of LF (first digit) and LZ (second digit) with respect to PS.

Figure 6 shows the values of the mechanical parameters and moisture content of all the studied films conditioned for 1 and 5 weeks at 30% and 45%RH. The elasticity modulus (EM (MPa)), is related with the stiffness of the film; the tensile strength (TS (MPa)) corresponds to the resistance to fracture and the deformation percentage at break (%E) describes the stretchability of the films. Films showed 4 levels of moisture content depending on the time and RH of conditioning. These levels ranged



between 5 and 12 g water per 100 g of dried film and, in general, increased for a determined RH level throughout the conditioning time, thus indicating that after 1 storage week, the equilibrium moisture content was not reached. Nevertheless, it is remarkable that, whereas the moisture content of net starch films hardly changed during storage time, that of films containing proteins increased in every case, which suggests that water uptake in protein-containing films was slower, so, these films took longer to reach the near-equilibrium value. At 33 % RH, films containing protein blends gained significantly greater water content than those containing only LF or LZ. Both moisture content and film composition affected the mechanical response of the films.



**FIGURE 6.** Values of the mechanical parameters (elastic modulus –EM (MPa)- tensile strength –TS (MPa)- and deformation - %E- at break) and moisture content of the films conditioned for 1 and 5 weeks at 33% and 53 % RH and 25°C. Sample codes refer to the mass ratio of LF (first digit) and LZ (second digit) with respect to PS. Mean values and 95% LSD intervals.

Water uptake provoked a significant decrease in EM and TS of net starch films while film stretchability was enhanced. This expected behaviour, associated with the water plasticization effect, has previously been described for corn starch films containing 25 % glycerol, establishing the critical water content for an effective water plasticization at about 9 % (Jiménez et al. 2013). In films containing proteins, water plasticization also occurred, thus decreasing EM and TS when moisture content rose, but did not suppose a notable increase in the elongation at break, which showed very low values for all moisture contents in every film. Only the film sample 0.1-0.1 with the highest moisture content showed a significantly higher elongation at break, as compared with the other films with proteins. Likewise, films with 0.2 LF were especially brittle, showing the lowest values of TS and %E, regardless of their moisture content. This behaviour suggests that, although starch matrix was

466 plasticised in all cases, the overall weakening of the starch network cohesion forces due to the  
467 presence of protein chains, and the development of specific molecular interactions with the starch  
468 molecules, limits the ability of the matrix to stretch, breaking at very low deformation values. The  
469 highest ratio of LF provoked the poorest mechanical response, which is coherent with its lower  
470 compatibility with starch, as deduced from structural and thermal analyses. The effect of storage time  
471 could not be analysed independently because of the overlapped effect of the moisture content  
472 increase. Other authors described film hardening and an increased in the film brittleness throughout  
473 storage time of starch films, which was attributed to the progressive starch chain aggregation or  
474 crystallization during storage (Jiménez *et al.* 2012; Cano *et al.* 2014).

### 475 476 3.3.2. WATER VAPOUR AND OXYGEN PERMEABILITIES

477  
478 The water vapour permeability (WVP) of the films after 1 and 5 weeks of storage is reported in  
479 Table 2. This parameter is closely linked to the films' ability to reduce the water vapour diffusivity when  
480 applied to food products, and accordingly it should be as low as possible (Ma *et al.*, 2008). The WVP  
481 of films with net starch (sample 0-0) was in the order of those previously reported by Han *et al.*, 2006,  
482 Ma *et al.*, 2008, Jiménez *et al.*, 2012 and Cano *et al.* 2014 for different starch films. WVP was slightly  
483 reduced when proteins were added to the films, according to their ratio. This improvement in the water  
484 vapour barrier could be due to two combined effects: the specific interactions between the starch and  
485 the proteins, which implied a greater Tg of the amorphous matrix and the formation of a surface  
486 protein layer, as observed by SEM, on the top of the film (Figure 3). WVP values of some protein films  
487 are lower than those of starch films (Monedero *et al.*, 2010), which, in turn, can contribute to modify  
488 barrier properties of blend films. No significant differences ( $p>0.05$ ) were observed in WVP values due  
489 to the storage time, despite the abovementioned increase in the moisture content of the films. So, the  
490 small changes in water content in the films did not notably affect their water vapour barrier properties.

491 The oxygen permeability (OP) of the films is also reported in Table 2. OP values of net starch  
492 film were similar to those previously reported by Cano *et al.*, (2014) for potato starch films, after both 1  
493 and 5 storage weeks. They also observed a decrease in OP after storage time, which was attributed to  
494 the structural changes in the starch matrix, such as the progressive chain aggregations, that enhance  
495 the oxygen barrier properties, by limiting the mass transport of gas molecules. The protein addition led  
496 to a decrease in OP values in the films, with no significant changes due to the storage time. This  
497 behaviour can be explained in terms of the formation of starch-protein bonds, as commented on in  
498 section 3.1, which increased the effective size of the polymer chains, thus being more effective at  
499 limiting mass transfer processes. Likewise, the absence of changes in OP of the protein-containing  
500 films throughout time indicates that structural changes in starch matrix could be limited by protein  
501 interactions. No notable differences in oxygen barrier properties due to the kind or ratio of proteins  
502 were observed.

**TABLE 2.** Values of the water vapor permeability (WVP) and oxygen permeability (OP) for films conditioned at 53% RH and 25°C for 1 and 5 weeks.

Samples	WVP (g·mm/kPa·h·m <sup>2</sup> )		OP (10 <sup>-14</sup> cm <sup>3</sup> /m s Pa)	
	1 w	5 w	1 w	5 w
<b>0-0</b>	6.7 ± 0.3 <sup>c,1</sup>	7.5 ± 0.8 <sup>d,1</sup>	15.7 ± 1.0 <sup>c,2</sup>	8.64 ± 0.09 <sup>a,1</sup>
<b>0.1-0</b>	6.4 ± 0.16 <sup>bc,1</sup>	6.7 ± 0.4 <sup>cd,1</sup>	13 ± 3 <sup>abc,1</sup>	10 ± 3 <sup>a,1</sup>
<b>0-0.1</b>	6.1 ± 0.3 <sup>b,1</sup>	5.8 ± 0.3 <sup>abc,1</sup>	14.0 ± 0.3 <sup>bc,1</sup>	11 ± 1 <sup>a,1</sup>
<b>Films 0.05-0.05</b>	6.4 ± 0.4 <sup>bc,1</sup>	5.9 ± 0.3 <sup>abc,1</sup>	11.83 ± 0.17 <sup>ab,1</sup>	10 ± 2 <sup>a,1</sup>
<b>0.2-0</b>	5.66 ± 0.14 <sup>a,1</sup>	6.4 ± 1.1 <sup>bc,1</sup>	10 ± 1 <sup>a,1</sup>	9.50 ± 0.16 <sup>a,1</sup>
<b>0-0.2</b>	5.62 ± 0.11 <sup>a,1</sup>	5.7 ± 0.3 <sup>ab,1</sup>	12 ± 2 <sup>ab,1</sup>	9.787 ± 0.014 <sup>a,1</sup>
<b>0.1-0.1</b>	6.49 ± 0.17 <sup>c,2</sup>	5.6 ± 0.3 <sup>a,1</sup>	10 ± 1 <sup>a,1</sup>	9.058 ± 0.119 <sup>a,1</sup>

Different letters (a, b, c) in the same column indicate significant differences among the different formulations for the same storage time ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Different numbers (1, 2) in the same row indicate significant differences between both storage times for the same formulation ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Sample codes refer to the mass ratio of LF (first digit) and LZ (second digit) with respect to PS.

### 3.3.3. OPTICAL PROPERTIES: TRANSPARENCY, COLOUR AND GLOSS

Table 3 shows the corresponding colour parameters (lightness, chroma, and hue), the gloss values at 60°, and the internal transmittance ( $T_i$ ) at 430 nm, as an indicator of their transparency, for the different films conditioned for both 1 and 5 weeks. Protein incorporation provoked a statistically significant reduction ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the film transparency ( $T_i$  values) at 430 nm. The most relevant reduction was found for films with LF, due to the selective light absorption of LF components. This agrees with the greater structural heterogeneity of films with protein, which introduced changes in the refractive index through the films, thus promoting light scattering. The higher the protein ratio, the greater the light dispersion and the transparency reduction. Selective light absorption of LF led to film coloration, as commented on below.

Net starch films were practically colourless, as revealed by the very low Chroma values and high lightness. Some lightness reduction was observed in the films after both 1 and 5 storage weeks, with no relevant effect of the protein ratio. LF incorporation had an important effect on the Chroma and hue values, causing a significant increase in both ( $p < 0.05$ ), in agreement with its selective light absorption at low wavelength (430 nm). Coherently, those films with protein blend also showed Chroma increase and greater redness.

Gloss of the starch films was reduced by protein incorporation by about half, which can be attributed to the increase in their surface roughness associated with the protein migration to the film surface, observed by SEM. While no changes in gloss were observed for films containing proteins at different storage times, net starch films reduced their gloss during storage, such as has previously been observed by other authors (Jiménez *et al.* 2012; Cano *et al.* 2014). This change has been

543 attributed to starch recrystallization on the film surface, with greater water availability and molecular  
 544 mobility.

545 **TABLE 3.** Colour parameters of the films ( $L^*$ ,  $C_{ab}^*$ ,  $h^*$ ), gloss at 60° and  $T_i$  at 430nm after 1  
 546 and 5 storage weeks at 25°C and 54% RH.

Film samples	$L^*$		$h_{ab}^*$		$C_{ab}^*$		$T_i$ (430nm)		Gloss (60°)	
	1 w	5 w	1 w	5 w	1 w	5 w	1 w	5 w	1 w	5 w
<b>0-0</b>	84.6	84.4	286	302	1.2	0.99	0.858	0.850	22.7	15
	$\pm 0.4^{e,1}$	$\pm 0.7^{e,1}$	$\pm 6^{b,1}$	$\pm 3^{d,2}$	$\pm 0.5^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.13^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.004^{e,1}$	$\pm 0.007^{c,1}$	$\pm 1.9^{d,2}$	$\pm 3^{d,1}$
<b>0.1-0</b>	77.35	79.0	63.8	63.41	8.3	7.58	0.826	0.832	8.3	10.3
	$\pm 0.009^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.2^{b,2}$	$\pm 0.5^{a,1}$	$\pm 1.08^{b,1}$	$\pm 0.6^{d,1}$	$\pm 0.05^{e,1}$	$\pm 0.002^{b,1}$	$\pm 0.007^{b,1}$	$\pm 0.7^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.9^{c,2}$
<b>0-0.1</b>	83.1	82.01	308	308	1.4	1.2	0.850	0.851	8.3	8.8
	$\pm 0.6^{d,1}$	$\pm 1.15^{d,1}$	$\pm 17^{c,1}$	$\pm 10^{d,1}$	$\pm 0.5^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.3^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.005^{d,1}$	$\pm 0.002^{c,1}$	$\pm 0.7^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.6^{ab,1}$
<b>0.05-0.05</b>	80.8	79.0	67.13	63.92	5.2	4.6	0.840	0.835	8.5	8.4
	$\pm 0.9^{c,2}$	$\pm 0.2^{b,1}$	$\pm 1.08^{a,2}$	$\pm 1.12^{b,1}$	$\pm 0.8^{b,1}$	$\pm 0.2^{c,1}$	$\pm 0.002^{c,2}$	$\pm 0.005^{b,1}$	$\pm 0.8^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.8^{a,1}$
<b>0.2-0</b>	76.4	75.8	59.0	57.36	11.3	10.4	0.811	0.813	8.23	8.52
	$\pm 0.3^{a,2}$	$\pm 0.5^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.6^{a,2}$	$\pm 0.18^{a,1}$	$\pm 1.2^{e,1}$	$\pm 0.3^{f,1}$	$\pm 0.004^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.006^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.17^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.16^{ab,2}$
<b>0-0.2</b>	84.2	84.82	300	292	1.6	2.0	0.851	0.853	10.1	9.6
	$\pm 0.9^{e,1}$	$\pm 1.13^{e,1}$	$\pm 13^{c,1}$	$\pm 5^{c,1}$	$\pm 0.7^{a,1}$	$\pm 0.5^{b,1}$	$\pm 0.003^{d,1}$	$\pm 0.003^{c,1}$	$\pm 0.6^{c,2}$	$\pm 0.6^{bc,1}$
<b>0.1-0.1</b>	79.3	80.4	59.2	60.4	6.8	6.4	0.830	0.837	9.4	9.2
	$\pm 1.3^{b,1}$	$\pm 1.5^{c,1}$	$\pm 1.3^{a,1}$	$\pm 1.4^{ab,1}$	$\pm 0.6^{c,1}$	$\pm 0.8^{d,1}$	$\pm 0.004^{b,1}$	$\pm 0.004^{b,2}$	$\pm 0.7^{b,1}$	$\pm 0.5^{ab,1}$

547 Different letters (a, b, c, d, e) in the same column indicate significant differences among the different formulations for the same storage time (p  
 548 < 0.05).

549 Different numbers (1, 2) in the same row indicate significant differences between both storage times for the same formulation (P < 0.05).

550 Sample codes refer to the mass ratio of LF (first digit) and LZ (second digit) with respect to PS.

### 551 3.4. Active properties

#### 552 3.4.1. ANTIMICROBIAL PROPERTIES

553  
 554  
 555  
 556 Microbial counts obtained for protein solutions and films in the *in vitro* assays are shown in  
 557 Table 4. As concerns the protein solutions, no notable reduction in the growth of *L.innocua* with  
 558 respect to the control was observed at either 10°C or 25°C, since only a small, but significant,  
 559 reduction was detected at 25°C for LF with respect to the control sample. However, the mixture of both  
 560 proteins resulted in a significant reduction in the growth of inoculated *E.coli*; at both tested  
 561 temperatures. The application of both proteins resulted in a synergistic action against the gram-  
 562 negative bacteria *E.coli*, which led to a decimal reduction of 1.3 and 1.9 at 10 and 25°C, respectively.  
 563 Barbiroli et al. (2012) observed similar behavior by applying both proteins against *E.coli*. The ability of  
 564 the LF to increase the outer membrane's permeability can facilitate the access of LZ to the  
 565 peptidoglycan in the inner cell membrane. Nevertheless, no reduction in the growth of either bacterium  
 566 was observed when LF and LZ were included in the PS films, probably due to the relatively weak  
 567 activity detected in the proteins and the fact that their diffusion to the cells was hindered by the  
 568 interactions with starch chains in the film matrix (section 3.2). In this sense, it is remarkable that counts  
 569 in samples coated with protein-free starch films were significantly higher than in the uncoated control

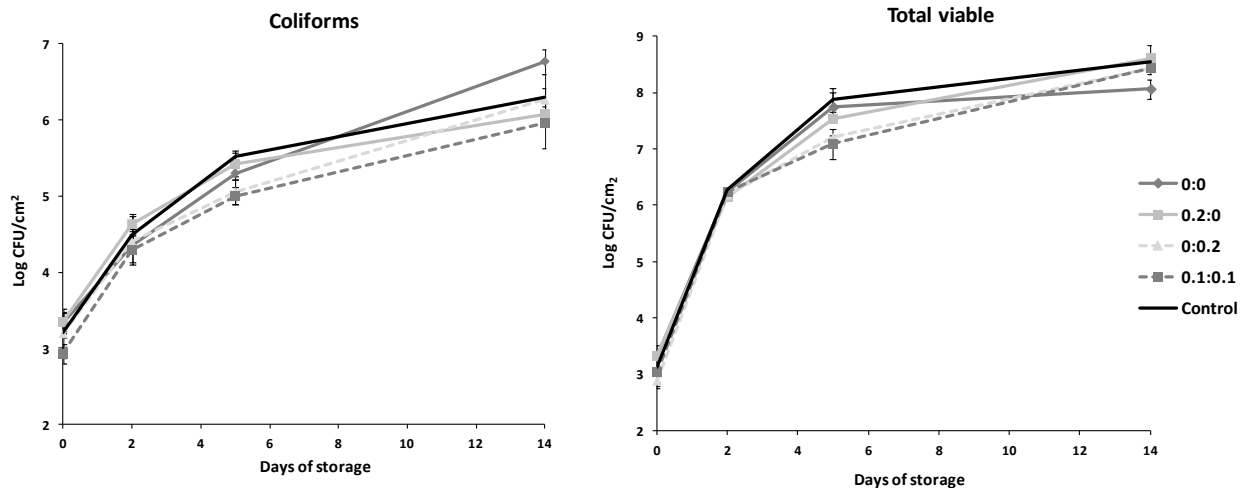
sample, which reveals that the starch support can act as an effective nutrient for bacteria, while inhibiting the protein diffusion to the culture medium.

**TABLE 4.** Microbial counts of *L.innocua* and *E.coli* after a period of incubation of 24h at 10°C and 25°C on TSA-NaCl medium for pure protein solutions and films. Mean values and standard deviations of log CFU/cm<sup>2</sup>.

Formulation		L.innocua		E.coli	
		10°C	25°C	10°C	25°C
Protein solution	Control	2.6 ±0.3 <sup>ab</sup>	6.9 ±0.3 <sup>b</sup>	3.57 ±0.09 <sup>b</sup>	7.73 ±0.19 <sup>d</sup>
	LF	2.4 ± 0.2 <sup>ab</sup>	6.41 ±0.08 <sup>a</sup>	3.41 ±0.04 <sup>b</sup>	7.1 ± 0.2 <sup>b</sup>
	LZ	2.25 ±0.04 <sup>a</sup>	6.8 ±0.3 <sup>b</sup>	3.52 ±0.09 <sup>b</sup>	7.41 ±0.14 <sup>c</sup>
	LF-LZ	2.60 ±0.09 <sup>b</sup>	6.86 ±0.14 <sup>b</sup>	2.3 ±0.2 <sup>a</sup>	5.86 ±0.02 <sup>a</sup>
Films	Control	2.5 ±0.2 <sup>a</sup>	6.91 ±0.14 <sup>a</sup>	2.15 ±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	7.18 ±0.17 <sup>bc</sup>
	0-0	2.8 ±0.3 <sup>b</sup>	7.32 ±0.10 <sup>cd</sup>	2.90 ±0.06 <sup>e</sup>	6.88 ±0.10 <sup>a</sup>
	0.2-0	2.90 ±0.09 <sup>b</sup>	7.07 ±0.11 <sup>b</sup>	2.33 ±0.05 <sup>b</sup>	6.83 ±0.07 <sup>a</sup>
	0-0.2	2.87 ±0.08 <sup>b</sup>	7.34 ±0.07 <sup>d</sup>	2.51 ±0.05 <sup>b</sup>	7.31 ±0.05 <sup>c</sup>
	0.1-0.1	2.86 ± 0.07 <sup>b</sup>	7.17 ±0.07 <sup>bc</sup>	2.43 ±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	7.04 ±0.04 <sup>b</sup>

Different letters (a, b, c, d) in the same column indicate significant differences among the different formulations for the same bacterium and incubation conditions ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Accordingly, when films with and without proteins were applied to minced meat (Figure 7), no notable antimicrobial activity was observed, since no significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the counts of total aerobic meat bacteria of the different samples were found after 15 incubation days. Both proteins and their mixtures embedded in the films were ineffective against the natural aerobic microbiota of minced meat pork. However, in samples coated with films containing both proteins (0.1-0.1), the coliform counts after 14 incubation days showed a reduction of about 1 log, with respect to the samples coated with the control film (without proteins). As observed in the *in vitro* test, samples coated with the control film exhibited higher coliform counts than uncoated samples. The results agree with what was observed in *in vitro* assay, with respect to the nutritive role of the starch support for bacteria and the synergistic action against Gram-negative bacteria of combined proteins. Neither LF nor LZ were effective enough when they were applied separately, but a weakly enhanced antimicrobial activity against *E.coli* and coliform microbiota of pork meat was observed when they were combined.

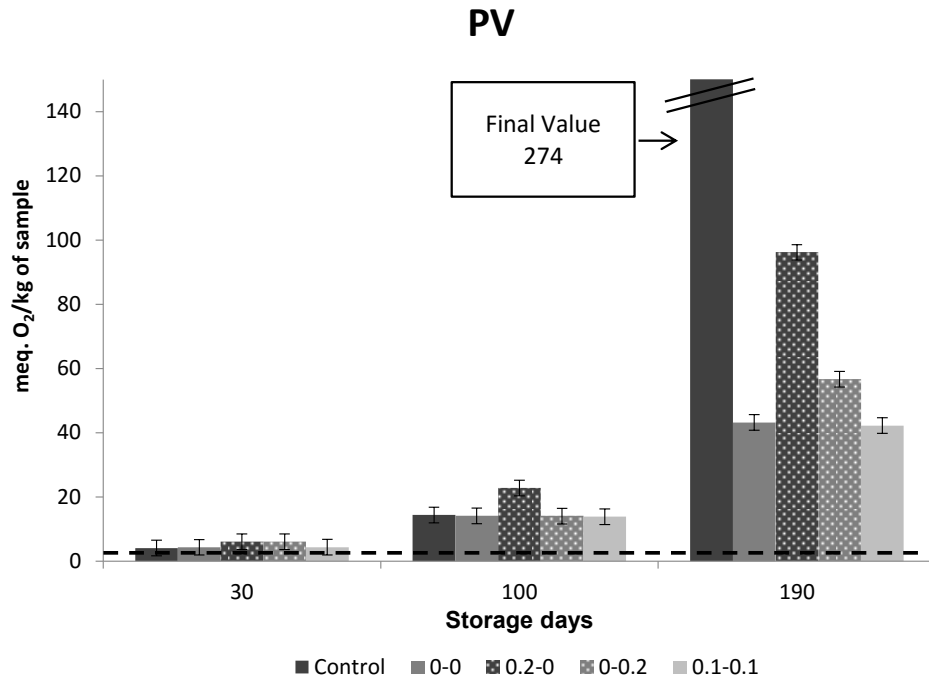


**FIGURE 7.** Microbial counts of minced pork meat samples coated with PS based edible films containing LF and/or LZ as a function of storage time at 10 °C. Mean values and standard deviation. Control = non-coated samples.

### 3.4.2. ANTIOXIDANT PROPERTIES

The antioxidant capacity of proteins, expressed as TEAC value (trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity) in g protein/L was  $13.2 \pm 0.7$ ,  $15.3 \pm 0.4$  and  $15.4 \pm 0.6$ , respectively for LF, LZ and their blend. So, the antioxidant activity of LF was significantly higher than those obtained for LZ and the LF-LZ blend ( $p < 0.05$ ). LF has previously been pointed out as a protein with antioxidant ability, mainly due to its strong chelation capacity of transition metals. Therefore, its use as a natural antioxidant preservative in food has great potential (Stejins and Hooijdonk, 2000). LZ showed lower antioxidant ability than LF ( $p < 0.05$ ), but it was high enough for LZ to be considered as a natural antioxidant compound. No synergistic activity between either protein was observed for the LF-LZ mixture.

Figure 8 shows peroxide values of lard samples, both uncoated and coated with the films, after differing storage times. Low PV values, with no significant differences among the samples, were obtained after relatively short storage periods. Nevertheless, they increased considerably after long storage times. In this case, significant differences were observed for both uncoated and coated samples. This can be attributed to the low oxygen permeability of the films (Table 2), which inhibits the oxygen reactions with the substrate. Among the samples coated with the different films, the highest



**FIGURE 8.** Peroxide value (PV) of fat samples coated with PS based edible films containing LF and/or LZ at different storage times at 40°C and 53 % RH. Mean values and 95% LSD intervals. Control = non-coated samples. Dashed line corresponds to the PV initial value of the fat.

OP value was obtained for the films containing 0.2 g LF/g starch, despite the fact that the highest antioxidant activity was found for LF in the TROLOX test. This could be due to the inherent iron content of LF which could promote oxidation reactions at high concentrations of the protein, as reported by Nielsen et al., (2004).

#### 4. Conclusion

The incorporation of antimicrobial proteins (lactoferrin and/or lysozyme) had an impact on the structural and physical properties of potato starch films and affected their thermal behaviour by increasing the glass transition temperature. Both proteins showed a certain degree of compatibility with starch chains through the bond formations which increased the Tg values, while a part separates and migrates to the film surface, there giving rise to globular heterogeneous formations. The incorporation of proteins, especially lactoferrin, greatly increased the film's brittleness, regardless of the film's water content, although they enhanced the water vapour and oxygen barrier properties. The protein also reduced the film's transparency and gloss, while lactoferrin induced colour changes, associated with its selective light absorption. The thermal degradation of blend films and isolated proteins occurred at temperatures of over 250°C, which means that starch-protein blends can be thermoprocessed according to the starch's thermoplastic properties and following the usual practices of the plastics industries. The films containing a blend of lactoferrin and lysozyme reduced the total coliform counts in minced pork meat, but did not show significant antimicrobial activity against *L. innocua* and *E. coli*. Nevertheless, all the films were effective at reducing lard oxidation after long storage times. Studies into the release kinetics of the bioactive proteins or peptides in food systems

652 are required to establish the usefulness of both LF and LZ in developing biodegradable and bioactive  
653 packaging materials.

#### 654 **Acknowledgements**

655 The authors acknowledge the financial support provided by the Generalitat Valenciana  
656 (GV/2013/152) and Ministerio de Economía y Competividad (Projects AGL2013-42989-R) and the  
657 services rendered by the Electron Microscopy Service of the UPV. Olga Moreno Marro also thanks the  
658 Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte for the FPU 2012-1121 grant.

#### 660 **References**

663 Arnold, R. R., & Cole, M. F. (1977). A bactericidal effect for human lactoferrin. *Science*, 197(4300), 263-265.

664 Atarés, L., Bonilla, J., & Chiralt, A. (2010). Characterization of sodium caseinate-based edible films  
665 incorporated with cinnamon or ginger essential oils. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 100(4), 678-687.

666 ASTM. (1995). Standard test methods for water vapour transmission of materials. In *Standard designations:*  
667 *E96-95 annual book of ASTM standards*. Philadelphia, PA: American Society for Testing and Materials.

668 ASTM. (1999). Standard test methods for specular gloss. *Designation (D523): Annualbook of ASTM*  
669 *standards* (Vol. 06.01) Philadelphia, PA: American Society for Testing and Materials.

670 ASTM. (2001). Standard test method for tensile properties of thin plastic sheeting. In *Standard D882 annual*  
671 *book of American Standard Testing Methods*. Philadelphia,PA: American Society for Testing and Materials.  
672 ASTM.

673 ASTM. (2005). Standard test method for oxygen gas transmission rate through plasticfilm and sheeting  
674 using a coulometric sensor. In *Standard designation: D3985-05:annual book of American Society for Testing*  
675 *Materials*. West Conshohocken, PA: ASTM.

676 Azeredo, H. M. C. d. (2009). Nanocomposites for food packaging applications. *Food Research International*,  
677 42(9), 1240-1253.

678 Barbiroli, A., Bonomi, F., Capretti, G., Iametti, S., Manzoni, M., Piergiovanni, L., et al. (2012). Antimicrobial  
679 activity of lysozyme and lactoferrin incorporated in cellulose-based food packaging. *Food Control*, 26 (2),  
680 387-392.

681 Barnett, I., (2012). Packaging Solutions Throughout the Supply Chain: Technology, Trends and Future  
682 Outlook. Business Insight, London.



683 Branen, J. K., & Davidson, P. M. (2004). Enhancement of nisin, lysozyme, and monolaurin antimicrobial  
684 activities by ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid and lactoferrin. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 90,  
685 63-74.

686 Buonocore, G.G., Conte, A., Corbo, M.R., Sinigaglia, M., Del Nobile, M.A., (2005). Mono and multilayer  
687 active films containing lysozyme as antimicrobial agent. *Innovative Food Science and Emerging*  
688 *Technologies* 6, 459–464.

689 Byun, Y., & Kim, Y. T. (2014). Chapter 14 - bioplastics for food packaging: Chemistry and physics. In J. H.  
690 Han (Ed.), *Innovations in food packaging (second edition)* (pp. 353-368). San Diego: Academic Press.

691 Cano, A., Jiménez, A., Cháfer, M., González, C., & Chiralt, A. (2014). Effect of amylose:Amylopectin ratio  
692 and rice bran addition on starch films properties. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 111(0), 543-555.

693 Corradini, C., Alfieri, I., Cavazza, A., Lantano, C., Lorenzi, A., Zucchetto, N., et al. (2013). Antimicrobial films  
694 containing lysozyme for active packaging obtained by sol–gel technique. *Journal of Food Engineering*,  
695 119(3), 580-587.

696 Corrales, M., Fernández, A., & Han, J. H. (2014). Chapter 7 - antimicrobial packaging systems. In J. H. Han  
697 (Ed.), *Innovations in food packaging (second edition)* (pp. 133-170). San Diego: Academic Press

698 Das, D.K., Dutta, H., Mahanta, C.L., 2013. Development of a rice starch-based coating with antioxidant and  
699 microbe-barrier properties and study of its effect on tomatoes stored at room temperature. *LWT—Food*  
700 *Science Technology*. 50, 272-278.

701 Drago, M.E. (2006). Actividades antibacterianas de lactoferrina. *Enfermedades Infecciosas y Microbiología*,  
702 26 (2), 58-63.

703 Elias, R. J., Kellerby, S. S., & Decker, E. A. (2008). Antioxidant activity of proteins and peptides. *Critical*  
704 *Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 48(5), 430–441.

705 Ellison, R. D., Giehl, T. J., & LaForce, F. M. (1988). Damage of the outer membrane of enteric gram-  
706 negative bacteria by lactoferrin and transferrin. *Infection and Immunity*, 56(11), 2774-2781.

707 Farahnaky, A., Farhat, I. A., Mitchell, J. R., & Hill, S. E. (2009). The effect of sodium chloride on the glass  
708 transition of potato and cassava starches at low moisture contents. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 23(6), 1483-1487.

709 Farnaud, S., & Evans, R. W. (2003). Lactoferrin—a multifunctional protein with antimicrobial properties.  
710 *Molecular Immunology*, 40(7), 395-405.

711 García-Montoya, I. A., Cendón, T. S., Arévalo-Gallegos, S., & Rascón-Cruz, Q. (2012). Lactoferrin a  
712 multiple bioactive protein: An overview. *Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - General Subjects*, 1820(3),  
713 226-236.

714 Gemili, S., Yemenicioglu, A., Altinkaya, S.A., (2009). Development of cellulose acetate based antimicrobial  
715 food packaging materials for controlled release of lysozyme. *Journal of Food Engineering* 90, 453–462.

716 Gill, A. O., & Holley, R. A. (2000). Inhibition of bacterial growth on ham and bologna by lysozyme, nisin and  
717 EDTA. *Food Research International*, 33, 83-90.

718 Gimenez, B., Gomez-Guillen, M.C., Perez-Mateos, M., Montero, P., Marquez-Ruiz, G., 2011. Evaluation of  
719 lipid oxidation in horse mackerel patties covered with boragecontaining film during frozen storage. *Food*  
720 *Chemistry*. 124, 1393-1403.

721 González-Chávez, S. A., Arévalo-Gallegos, S., & Rascón-Cruz, Q. (2009). Lactoferrin: structure, function  
722 and applications. *International journal of antimicrobial agents*, 33(4), 301-e1.

723 Güçbilmez, Ç. M., Yemenicioğlu, A., & Arslanoğlu, A. (2007). Antimicrobial and antioxidant activity of edible  
724 zein films incorporated with lysozyme, albumin proteins and disodium EDTA. *Food Research International*,  
725 40(1), 80-91.

726 Gyawali, R., & Ibrahim, S. A. (2014). Natural products as antimicrobial agents. *Food Control*, 46(0), 412-  
727 429.

728 Han, J. H., Seo, G. H., Park, I. M., Kim, G. N., & Lee, D. S. (2006). Physical and mechanical properties of  
729 pea starch edible films containing beeswax emulsions. *Journal of Food Science*, 71(6), E290-E296.

730 Han, J.H., Hwang, H.-M., Min, S., Krochta, J.M., 2008. Coating of peanuts with edible whey protein film  
731 containing  $\alpha$ -tocopherol and ascorbyl palmitate. *Journal of Food Science*. 73, 1750-3841.

732 He, Y., Kong, W., Wang, W., Liu, T., Liu, Y., Gong, Q., et al. (2012). Modified natural halloysite/potato starch  
733 composite films. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 87(4), 2706-2711.

734 Huang, D., Ou, B., & Prior, R. L. (2005). The chemistry behind antioxidant capacity assays. *Journal of*  
735 *Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 53(6), 1841–1856.

736 Hutchings, J. B. (1999). Food and colour appearance (2nd ed.). Gaithersburg, MD:Chapman and Hall *Food*  
737 *Science Book, Aspen Publication*.

738 Jenssen, H., & Hancock, R. E. W. (2009). Antimicrobial properties of lactoferrin. *Biochimie*, 91(1), 19-29.

739 Jiménez, A., Fabra, M. J., Talens, P., & Chiralt, A. (2012). Effect of re-crystallization on tensile, optical and  
740 water vapour barrier properties of corn starch films containing fatty acids. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 26(1), 302-  
741 310.

742 Jiménez, A., Fabra, M. J., Talens, P., & Chiralt, A. (2013). Phase transitions in starch based films containing  
743 fatty acids. effect on water sorption and mechanical behaviour. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 30(1), 408-418.

744 Joubbran, Y., Mackie, A., & Lesmes, U. (2013). Impact of the Maillard reaction on the antioxidant capacity of  
745 bovine lactoferrin. *Food chemistry*, 141(4), 3796-3802.

746 Kaur, B., Ariffin, F., Bhat, R., & Karim, A. A. (2012). Progress in starch modification in the last decade. *Food*  
747 *Hydrocolloids*, 26(2), 398-404.

748 Kechichian, V., Ditchfield, C., Veiga-Santos, P., & Tadini, C. C. (2010). Natural antimicrobial ingredients  
749 incorporated in biodegradable films based on cassava starch. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 43(7),  
750 1088-1094.

751 Kristo, E., Koutsoumanis, K. P., & Biliaderis, C. G. (2008). Thermal, mechanical and water vapor barrier  
752 properties of sodium caseinate films containing antimicrobials and their inhibitory action on *Listeria*  
753 *monocytogenes*. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 22(3), 373-386.

754 Lee, D. S. (2014). Chapter 6 - antioxidative packaging system. In J. H. Han (Ed.), *Innovations in food*  
755 *packaging* (second edition) (pp. 111-131). San Diego: Academic Press.

756 Lin, L., Wang, B., Wang, M., Cao, J., Zhang, J., Wu, Y., et al., 2008. Effects of a chitosan-based coating  
757 with ascorbic acid on post-harvest quality and core browning of 'Yali' pears (*Pyrus bertschneideri* Rehd.).  
758 *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*. 88, 877-884.

759 Liu, H., Zheng, F., Cao, Q., Ren, B., Zhu, L., Striker, G., & Vlassara, H. (2006). Amelioration of oxidant  
760 stress by the defensin lysozyme. *American Journal of Physiology-Endocrinology and Metabolism*, 290(5),  
761 824-832.

762 Ma, X., Chang, P. R., & Yu, J. (2008). Properties of biodegradable thermoplastic pea starch/carboxymethyl  
763 cellulose and pea starch/microcrystalline cellulose composites. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 72(3), 369-375.

764 Mc Hugh, T. H., Avena-Bustillos, R., & Krochta, J. M. (1993). Hydrophobic edible films: modified procedure  
765 for water vapor permeability and explanation of thickness effects. *Journal of Food Science*, 58(4), 899-903.

766 Monedero, F. M., Fabra, M. J., Talens, P., & Chiralt, A. (2010). Effect of calcium and sodium caseinates on  
767 physical characteristics of soy protein isolate–lipid films. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 97(2), 228-234.

768 Moreira, M. R., Ponce, A. G., Del Valle, C. E., & Roura, S. I. (2005). Inhibitory parameters of essential oils to  
769 reduce a foodborne pathogen. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 38, 565-570.

770 Moreno, O., Pastor, C., Muller, J., Atarés, L., González, C., Chiralt, A. (2014). Physical and bioactive  
771 properties of corn starch – Buttermilk edible films. *Journal of Food Engineering* 141, 27–36.

772 Nielsen, N. S., Petersen, A., Meyer, A. S., Timm-Heinrich, M., & Jacobsen, C. (2004). Effects of lactoferrin,  
773 phytic acid and EDTA on oxidation in two food emulsions enriched with long-chain polyunsaturated fatty  
774 acids. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 52(25), 7690–7699.

775 Pan, Y., Shiell, B., Wan, J., Coventry, M. J., Roginski, H., Lee, A., et al. (2007). The molecular  
776 characterisation and antimicrobial activity of amidated bovine lactoferrin. *International Dairy Journal*, 17(6),  
777 606-616.

778 Pastor, C., Sánchez-González, L., Cháfer, M., Chiralt, A., & González-Martínez, C. (2010). Physical and  
779 antifungal properties of hydroxypropylmethylcellulose based films containing propolis as affected by  
780 moisture content. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 82(4), 1174-1183.

781 Pyla, R., Kim, T., Silva, J. L., & Jung, Y. (2010). Enhanced antimicrobial activity of starch-based film  
782 impregnated with thermally processed tannic acid, a strong antioxidant. *International Journal of Food*  
783 *Microbiology*, 137(2-3), 154-160.

784 Re, R., Pellegrini, N., Proteggente, A., Pannala, A., Yang, M., & Rice-Evans, C. (1999). Antioxidant activity  
785 applying an improved ABTS radical cation decolorization assay. *Free radical biology and medicine*, 26(9),  
786 1231-1237.

787 Realini, C. E., & Marcos, B. (2014). Active and intelligent packaging systems for a modern society. *Meat*  
788 *Science*, 98(3), 404-419.

789 Reyes, R. E., Manjarrez, H. A., & Drago, M. E. (2005). El hierro y la virulencia bacteriana. *Enfermedades*  
790 *Infeciosas y Microbiología*, 25, 104-7.

791 Samarasinghe, R. M., Kanwar, R. K., & Kanwar, J. R. (2014). The effect of oral administration of iron  
792 saturated-bovine lactoferrin encapsulated chitosan-nanocarriers on osteoarthritis. *Biomaterials*, 35(26),  
793 7522-7534.

794 Sánchez-García, M.D., Giménez, E., & Lagaron, J.M. (2008). Morphology and barrier properties of solvent  
795 cast composites of thermoplastic biopolymers and purified cellulose fibers. *Carbohydrate Polymers* 71, 235-  
796 244.

797 Sánchez-González, L., Cháfer, M., Hernández, M., Chiralt, A., & González-Martínez, C. (2011).  
798 Antimicrobial activity of polysaccharide films containing essential oils. *Food Control*, 22(8), 1302-1310.

799 Soares, R. M. D., Lima, A. M. F., Oliveira, R. V. B., Pires, A. T. N., & Soldi, V. (2005). Thermal degradation  
800 of biodegradable edible films based on xanthan and starches from different sources. *Polymer Degradation*  
801 *and Stability*, 90(3), 449-454.

802 Steijns, J. M., & Van Hooijdonk, A. C. M. (2000). Occurrence, structure, biochemical properties and  
803 technological characteristics of lactoferrin. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 84(S1), 11-17.

- 804 Sung, S. Y., Sin, L. T., Tee, T. T., Bee, S. T., Rahmat, A. R., Rahman, W. A. W. A., ... & Vikhraman, M.  
805 (2013). Antimicrobial agents for food packaging applications. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 33(2),  
806 110-123.
- 807 Suzuki, T., Yamauchi, K., Kawase, K., Tomita, M., Kiyosawa, I., & Okonogi, S. (1989). Collaborative  
808 bacteriostatic activity of bovine lactoferrin with lysozyme against *Escherichia coli* O111. *Agricultural and*  
809 *biological chemistry*, 53(6), 1705-1706.
- 810 Wakabayashi, H., Yamauchi, K., & Takase, M. (2006). Lactoferrin research, technology and applications.  
811 *International Dairy Journal*, 16(11), 1241-1251.
- 812 Wilhelm, H. -, Sierakowski, M. -, Souza, G. P., & Wypych, F. (2003). Starch films reinforced with mineral  
813 clay. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 52(2), 101-110.
- 814 Yamauchi, K. (1992). Biologically functional proteins of milk and peptides derived from milk proteins. *Bulletin*  
815 *of the International Dairy Federation*, 272, 51-58.
- 816 Zhang, Y., Rempel, C., & McLaren, D. (2014). Chapter 16 - thermoplastic starch. In J. H. Han (Ed.),  
817 *Innovations in food packaging (second edition)* (pp. 391-412). San Diego: Academic Press.