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PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM CIÊNCIA E TECNOLOGIA DE
ALIMENTOS**

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**FILMES BIODEGRADÁVEIS COM ADIÇÃO DE LICOPENO OU β -CAROTENO
LIVRES E NANOENCAPSULADOS**

Porto Alegre

2017

RENATO QUEIROZ ASSIS

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LIVRES E NANOENCAPSULADOS**

Dissertação apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos da Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, como um dos requisitos para a obtenção do grau de Mestre em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos.

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Autor: Renato Queiroz Assis

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Ayrton Senna

RESUMO

Filmes biodegradáveis são uma alternativa ao uso de embalagens não biodegradáveis, relacionado ao aumento do uso deste material, impacto e descarte inadequado. Para produção de filmes diversos polímeros podem ser utilizados, em que o amido apresenta boas características e propriedades para obtenção. A adição de antioxidantes naturais nanoencapsulados, como carotenoides, pode auxiliar no desenvolvimento de filmes biodegradáveis com atividade antioxidante, com maior estabilidade e solubilidade destes compostos. Assim, filmes biodegradáveis ativos foram obtidos a partir do amido de mandioca com adição de licopeno ou β -caroteno livres e nanoencapsulados. Diferentes formulações foram desenvolvidas, nos quais os antioxidantes naturais livres ou nanoencapsulados foram adicionados a mesma concentração. Os filmes com adição dos pigmentos nanoencapsulados apresentaram características diferentes da adição dos pigmentos livres, com maior espessura, permeabilidade ao vapor de água, opacidade, propriedades mecânicas, menor transmissão de luz UV/Vis e maior interação do aditivo com a matriz. Os filmes com nanocápsulas também apresentaram maior efeito protetor sobre a estabilidade do óleo de girassol armazenado sob condição acelerada de oxidação, com menor formação de produtos de oxidação e potencial aplicação como embalagem de alimentos. Os filmes foram utilizados para avaliar a estabilidade oxidativa de manteiga, que apresentou maior estabilidade e manutenção da qualidade durante o armazenamento sob incidência de luz quando armazenada nos filmes com adição de nanocápsulas. Além disso, independente da adição de licopeno ou β -caroteno livres e nanoencapsulados, todos os filmes apresentaram estabilidade térmica e rápida biodegradabilidade após 15 dias. Filmes biodegradáveis com adição de carotenoides, licopeno e β -caroteno, apresentaram resultados promissores para o desenvolvimento de embalagens com antioxidantes naturais e manutenção da estabilidade de alimentos com alto teor de gordura durante o armazenamento.

Palavras-chave: filmes biodegradáveis; carotenoides; nanoencapsulação; atividade antioxidante; embalagens ativas.

ABSTRACT

Biodegradable films are an alternative to use of non-biodegradable packaging, related to increased use of this material, impact and inappropriate disposal. For film production, various polymers may be used, wherein the starch has good characteristics and properties for obtaining. The addition of natural nanoencapsulated antioxidants, such as carotenoids, may aid the development of biodegradable films with antioxidant activity, with greater stability and solubility of these compounds. Thus, active biodegradable films were obtained from cassava starch with the addition of free and nanoencapsulated lycopene or β -carotene. Different formulations were developed, where free or nanoencapsulated natural antioxidants were added at the same concentration. The films with the addition of nanoencapsulated pigments presented different characteristics of free pigment addition, with greater thickness, permeability to water vapor, opacity, mechanical properties, lower transmission of UV/Vis light and greater interaction of the additive with the matrix. The films with nanocapsules also had a greater protective effect on the stability of the sunflower oil stored under accelerated oxidation conditions, with less formation of oxidation products and potential application as food packaging. The films were used to evaluate the oxidative stability of butter, which presented higher stability and maintenance of the quality during storage under light incidence when stored in the films with the addition of nanocapsules.

In addition, independent of the addition of free and nanoencapsulated lycopene or β -carotene, all films showed thermal stability and rapid biodegradability after 15 days. Biodegradable films with the addition of carotenoids, lycopene and β -carotene, presented promising results for the development of packages with natural antioxidants and maintenance of the stability of foods with high-fat content during storage.

Keywords: biodegradable films; carotenoids; nanoencapsulation; antioxidant activity; active packaging.

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1. INTRODUÇÃO

As embalagens plásticas que são tradicionalmente utilizadas para embalar e armazenar os alimentos são obtidas em sua maioria a partir de fontes não renováveis. Os plásticos vêm sendo utilizados devido ao baixo custo, fácil obtenção, boas propriedades mecânicas, alta aplicabilidade, baixa permeabilidade a gases e ao vapor de água. Com o aumento do uso de embalagens plásticas e sua alta durabilidade, ocorre acúmulo e muitas vezes o descarte inadequado desse tipo de material no meio ambiente.

Aliado ao desenvolvimento de técnicas para minimizar ou mesmo substituir o uso desse tipo de material, estuda-se a elaboração de filmes biodegradáveis como alternativa às embalagens tradicionais para alimentos. O desenvolvimento de filmes biodegradáveis pode ser realizado a partir de recursos renováveis, em que as principais fontes para sua obtenção são carboidratos e proteínas, ou uma combinação destes com outros compostos. Os filmes apresentam rápida biodegradabilidade em curto período de tempo, o que auxilia em um menor impacto ambiental. O amido é uma das fontes mais utilizadas para a produção destes filmes devido a fácil obtenção e capacidade de proporcionar a formação de uma matriz contínua.

Além disso, com o avanço da tecnologia outra opção são as embalagens ativas, que apresentam interação desejável com o produto, com manutenção da estabilidade, qualidade e consequente aumento da vida de prateleira. Inúmeros agentes naturais podem ser utilizados beneficemente para a formulação de filmes ativos, como pigmentos, vitaminas, compostos fenólicos ou a adição de extratos e produtos que contenham esses tais compostos em sua composição (Park *et al.*, 2004; Souza *et al.*, 2011; Martins *et al.*, 2012; Iahnke *et al.*, 2015; Reis *et al.*, 2015; Pagno *et al.*, 2016; Piñeros-Hernandez *et al.*, 2017)

O uso de aditivos, como antioxidantes, pode levar à mudança da matriz polimérica, com menor permeabilidade ao vapor de água, menor transmissão de luz, maior resistência à tração ou alongamento na ruptura, dependente da característica e interação do aditivo adicionado, de caráter hidrofóbico ou hidrofílico, que pode proporcionar maior proteção aos alimentos durante o armazenamento (Barbosa-Pereira *et al.*, 2013; Noronha *et al.*, 2014; Medina Jaramillo *et al.*, 2016).

Dentre estes, o licopeno e o β -caroteno são importantes carotenoides que apresentam alta atividade antioxidante, porém, como todo composto bioativo, seu uso pode ser limitado devido sua suscetibilidade às reações de oxidação e característica lipossolúvel, o que restringe sua utilização em alimentos com baixo teor de lipídeos. Assim, uma técnica para aumentar a solubilidade e estabilidade é a nanoencapsulação. A nanotecnologia recebe grande atenção

por proporcionar maior estabilidade dos compostos bioativos na escala nanométrica, como a solubilidade de compostos hidrofóbicos em matrizes hidrofílicas e uma liberação contínua e controlada dos compostos ao longo do tempo (Lobato *et al.*, 2013; Dos Santos *et al.*, 2015; González-Reza *et al.*, 2015; Da Silva *et al.*, 2016).

Neste contexto, o licopeno e o β -caroteno podem representar excelentes compostos naturais para adição em filmes biodegradáveis e a nanoencapsulação pode ser uma técnica promissora para aumentar a solubilidade destes carotenoides, além de proporcionar melhor estabilidade frente a diversos fatores. Após obtenção, os filmes são caracterizados quanto as suas propriedades mecânicas, barreira (permeabilidade ao vapor de água, transmissão de luz), morfologia, estabilidade térmica, cor, biodegradabilidade, umidade e solubilidade em água, para verificar a interação dos aditivos com a matriz e as características da embalagem. A determinação destes atributos permite a avaliação e a obtenção de filmes com características semelhantes às embalagens convencionais, em que as propriedades podem indicar o perfil para aplicação como embalagem para determinado alimento. A fim de determinar o efeito da interação embalagem-aditivo-alimento, o caráter protetor sobre a estabilidade, assim como a migração de compostos, é necessário realizar a aplicação dos filmes ativos como embalagem para alimentos e avaliar seu armazenamento.

2. OBJETIVOS

2.1 Objetivo geral

O objetivo do trabalho foi desenvolver filmes biodegradáveis de amido com atividade antioxidante através da adição de licopeno ou β -caroteno livres e nanoencapsulados, avaliar o efeito destes aditivos sob as propriedades físicas, mecânicas e de barreira dos filmes. Além disso, também foi avaliada a aplicabilidade dos filmes como embalagem ativa para alimentos com alto teor de gordura.

2.2 Objetivos específicos

- Desenvolver filmes biodegradáveis à base de amido de mandioca com diferentes concentrações de licopeno e β -caroteno livres ou nanoencapsulados;
- Avaliar as propriedades de barreira dos filmes biodegradáveis relacionadas a permeabilidade ao vapor de água e transmissão de luz;
- Caracterizar as propriedades físico-químicas dos filmes biodegradáveis: espessura, propriedades mecânicas, umidade, solubilidade em água, estabilidade térmica, cor, opacidade, propriedades morfológicas e biodegradabilidade;
- Determinar a atividade antioxidante dos filmes através do armazenamento de óleo de girassol sob condição acelerada de oxidação;
- Aplicar os filmes como embalagem ativa para avaliação da estabilidade de manteiga armazenada sob condições aceleradas de oxidação.

Esta dissertação está estruturada em capítulos. No **Capítulo I** encontra-se uma revisão bibliográfica sobre os principais temas abordados no trabalho, como a atividade antioxidante e estabilidade dos carotenoides, nanotecnologia e filmes biodegradáveis. No **Capítulo II** está descrito os materiais e métodos utilizados para obtenção do licopeno e β -caroteno, nanoencapsulamento, desenvolvimento, caracterização e a aplicação dos filmes biodegradáveis ativos. No **Capítulo III** são apresentados os três artigos elaborados a partir dos resultados obtidos neste estudo, onde os dois primeiros artigos abordam o desenvolvimento e a caracterização dos filmes biodegradáveis de amido de mandioca com

adição de licopeno ou β -caroteno livres e nanoencapsulados; e o terceiro artigo relata a aplicação dos filmes desenvolvidos. O **Capítulo IV** aborda uma discussão geral e a conclusão desta dissertação.

CAPÍTULO I: REVISÃO DA LITERATURA

3. REVISÃO

3.1 Carotenoides

Os carotenoides estão presentes na forma de pigmentos naturais, responsáveis por conferir cor a diversos alimentos, como frutas e legumes, um dos principais parâmetros relacionados à qualidade no momento da escolha de um produto. A cor dos carotenoides é resultante da presença de um sistema de ligações duplas conjugadas, que confere cores que variam entre laranja, amarelo e vermelho. O conjunto de ligações duplas constitui o cromóforo do pigmento, o qual é a parte da estrutura química utilizada como base para sua identificação. A presença de no mínimo sete ligações duplas conjugadas é necessária para a percepção da cor amarela, mas um aumento dessas ligações resulta em bandas de absorção em maiores comprimentos de onda, o que torna o composto mais vermelho (Rodriguez-Amaya e Omni, 2001).

Os carotenoides possuem sua estrutura composta por unidades de isopreno ligadas entre si, o que forma uma molécula simétrica. As estruturas dos carotenoides apresentam algumas modificações, como ciclização, hidrogenação, desidrogenação, encurtamento ou prolongamento da cadeia, isomerização, o que origina inúmeras estruturas. De acordo com sua estrutura, os carotenoides podem ser divididos em dois grupos: carotenos hidrocarbonetos e xantofilas (Rodriguez-Amaya e Omni, 2001; Havaux, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2015).

Os carotenoides são compostos lipofílicos, ou seja, são solúveis em óleos e solventes orgânicos, como acetona, álcool, éter etílico, clorofórmio e acetato de etila (Bobbio e Bobbio, 2001; Rodriguez-Amaya e Omni, 2001). Podem ser utilizados como corantes naturais, mas sua utilização às vezes pode ser limitada devida sua baixa solubilidade em água ou seu uso em alimentos com baixo teor de lipídeos.

Em plantas, os carotenoides desempenham funções importantes na fotossíntese e atuam como pigmento acessório e como fotoprotetor. Como pigmento acessório, são capazes de absorver e transferir a energia na forma singlete-singlete para a clorofila, que será utilizada na fotossíntese. Já o mecanismo de fotoproteção ocorre quando a taxa de energia absorvida é maior que a quantidade necessária para a fotossíntese, assim o carotenoide atua na inibição da formação de oxigênio singlete ($^1\text{O}_2$) (Ronen *et al.*, 2000; Britton *et al.*, 2008; Damodaran *et al.*, 2010).

Como antioxidantes naturais os carotenoides podem desativar radicais livres e oxigênio singlete, uma vez que a superprodução de espécies reativas de oxigênio (EROS)

devido a fatores exógenos ou endógenos resulta em um estado chamado de estresse oxidativo, que pode ser um importante mediador de danos nas estruturas celulares, DNA, proteínas e lipídeos (Jomova e Valko, 2013).

Alguns carotenoides além de apresentar atividade antioxidante, também apresentam atividade de vitamina A, em que os principais compostos são o β -caroteno, α -caroteno e a β -criptoxantina, cujas fontes alimentares mais comuns são a cenoura, batata doce, vegetais de folhas verdes e muitas outras frutas e vegetais caracterizados por sua cor laranja e vermelho (Courraud *et al.*, 2013). Outros carotenoides, como o licopeno, apresentam atividade antioxidante, mas não apresentam atividade vitamínica, pois para apresentar atividade de pró-vitamina A, os carotenoides devem ter em sua estrutura o anel β -ionona não substituído e uma cadeia lateral isoprenoide com pelo menos 11 átomos de carbono com terminação de uma função álcool, aldeído ou carboxila (Damodaran *et al.*, 2010).

Contudo, o sistema de ligações duplas presentes na estrutura destes compostos, o qual é responsável pela cor e pela atividade antioxidante, os tornam mais susceptíveis a oxidação e a isomerização. A degradação oxidativa, a principal causa de perdas significativas, depende da disponibilidade de oxigênio e é estimulada por luz, enzimas, metais e co-oxidação com hidroperóxidos de lipídeos (Rodriguez-Amaya e Omni, 2001). Em geral, essas ligações ocorrem totalmente na forma *trans* e podem sofrer isomerização através de tratamento térmico durante a etapa de processamento, exposição a solventes orgânicos, luz, oxigênio e tratamentos com ácidos, o que resulta na formação de isômeros na forma *cis* (Stahl e Sies, 2003; Calvo e Santa-María, 2008).

Assim, devido às características das moléculas de β -caroteno e do licopeno, pelo seu alto grau de insaturação, esses carotenoides podem apresentar maior susceptibilidade às reações de oxidação e isomerização.

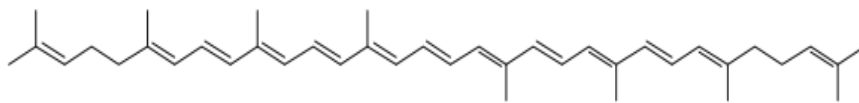
3.2 Licopeno e β -caroteno: estrutura química e fontes alimentares

O licopeno é o carotenoide responsável pela cor vermelha do tomate, melancia, goiaba vermelha, entre outros. O tomate é umas das fontes mais conhecidas e importantes de licopeno, em que a concentração varia de acordo com o grau de maturação dos frutos que contêm aproximadamente de 80 a 90% desse pigmento quando completamente maduros (Shi e Le Maguer, 2000).

O licopeno é um carotenoide acíclico, sem atividade de pró-vitamina A, composto por onze ligações duplas conjugadas e duas não conjugadas, que confere uma estrutura linear e

planar, responsável por conferir cor vermelha (Pennathur *et al.*, 2010; Takehara *et al.*, 2014) (Figura 1). Os carotenoides absorvem luz na região do visível em torno de 400 nm a 500 nm, sendo a estrutura de ligações duplas conjugadas responsável pela absorção, chamada também de cromóforo. Com o aumento do número de ligações duplas conjugadas ocorre uma mudança batocrômica, o que significa que a banda de absorção da luz na faixa do espectro visível muda de um comprimento de onda pequeno para um grande, apresentando mudança na cor (Cardoso, 1997).

Figura 1 - Estrutura química do licopeno



Fonte: Srivastava e Srivastava (2015)

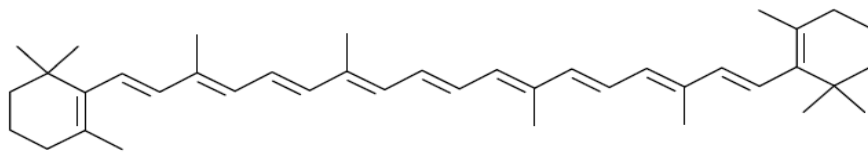
A estrutura do licopeno encontra-se na maioria das vezes na configuração *trans*, que pode ser a forma mais estável deste pigmento. Contudo, com a exposição à luz, oxigênio e processamento térmico pode sofrer oxidação e isomerização, o que leva a alteração de sua configuração para *cis*. Além disso, devido à sua estrutura química, este pigmento é um composto relativamente apolar, solúvel em óleos e insolúvel em água (Chasse *et al.*, 2001; Weisburger, 2002). O licopeno pode apresentar 2048 configurações de sua estrutura, relacionada a presença de onze ligações duplas conjugadas, contudo, 72 isômeros *cis* do licopeno são estruturalmente formados (Srivastava e Srivastava, 2015).

Na obtenção de licopeno, o rendimento e a eficiência da extração estão associados às condições utilizadas (solvente, temperatura), o que pode influenciar na isomerização ou oxidação devido ao uso de temperaturas elevadas. Os teores também são dependentes da fonte utilizada para extração, como variedade de tomate e ou composição dos resíduos (Poojary e Passamonti, 2015a; b).

Outro pigmento de grande importância entre os carotenoides é o β -caroteno, o qual é capaz de conferir cor vermelho-alaranjado, é insolúvel em água e apresenta como principal fonte mais conhecida a cenoura (Zaccari *et al.*, 2015; Behsnilian e Mayer-Miebach, 2017). O β -caroteno apresenta estrutura C40, em que sua atividade de vitamina A e atividade antioxidante estão relacionadas à presença de onze ligações duplas conjugadas e dois anéis nas extremidades de sua estrutura (Figura 2), onde cada anel contém uma dupla ligação

(Ferreira e Rodriguez-Amaya, 2008). Um anel β -ionona não substituído com uma cadeia de polieno C11 é o requisito mínimo para que este pigmento apresente atividade de vitamina A (Rodriguez- Amaya, 2001). A capacidade de conferir cor é atribuída ao seu cromóforo, formado pelas duplas ligações (C=C) que absorvem luz na região do azul-verde, capaz de intensificar a cor amarela de acordo a concentração quando utilizado como corante (Tátraaljai *et al.*, 2014). Licopeno e β -caroteno apresentam onze ligações duplas conjugadas, mas devido a um impedimento estérico entre o C-5 do anel e o hidrogênio presente em C-8, a estrutura do β -caroteno apresenta estrutura na qual os anéis e as ligações duplas C-5,6 e C-5',6' são colocadas fora do plano (Miller *et al.*, 1996).

Figura 2 - Estrutura química do β -caroteno.



Fonte: Britton *et al.* (2008)

O β -caroteno é um dos carotenoides de grande interesse que tem sido estudado e avaliado para determinação de sua estabilidade, atividade antioxidante, atividade de vitamina A, como agente de cor e em relação à métodos de extração ou mesmo a sua concentração em diferentes alimentos. Muitos trabalhos avaliam a concentração deste pigmento em diversas fontes, como a concentração em cenouras (Zaccari *et al.*, 2015; Behnilian e Mayer-Miebach, 2017), batata doce (Islam *et al.*, 2016), variedades de arroz (*Oryza sativa* L.) (Renuka *et al.*, 2016), abóbora (De Carvalho *et al.*, 2012), frutas (Charoensiri *et al.*, 2009), entre outras. Alguns alimentos apresentam importante concentração destes carotenoides, como mostrado na Tabela 1.

Tabela 1- Conteúdo de licopeno e β -caroteno em alguns alimentos.

Alimento	Licopeno ($\mu\text{g/g}$)	β -caroteno ($\mu\text{g/g}$)	Referência
Cenoura (Red nutri)	84	37	Behsnilian e Mayer-Miebach (2017)
Cenoura (cozida)	-	79	Zaccari <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Abóbora	-	141,95 - 244,22	De Carvalho <i>et al.</i> (2012)
Mamão	-	13,3	Nieto Calvache <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Batata doce	-	83,62	Islam <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Manga	-	41,4	Ibarra-Garza <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Melão	-	0,633 - 38,61	Laur e Tian (2011)
Tomate	78,6	1,18	Fattore <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Purê de tomate contendo óleo	85,43	-	Knockaert <i>et al.</i> (2012)
Goiaba	48,5 - 53,4	6,6 - 11,9	Padula e Rodriguez-Amaya (1986)
Pitanga	33,22	2,35	Filho <i>et al.</i> (2008)

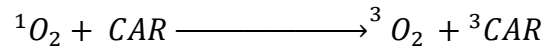
- : não determinado

Esses carotenoides também podem ser encontrados e obtidos a partir da extração de subprodutos do processamento de alimentos, como casca de tomates que apresentam alto conteúdo de licopeno (Rizk *et al.*, 2014), resíduos de polpa de tomate (Poojary e Passamonti, 2015b), cascas de cenouras (Hiranvarachat e Devahastin, 2014), casca de manga (Garcia-Mendoza *et al.*, 2015).

3.3 Ação antioxidante

Os carotenoides são conhecidos por possuírem propriedades antioxidantes, já que são eficientes desativadores do oxigênio singlete ($^1\text{O}_2$) e de outras espécies reativas de oxigênio (EROS). Essa propriedade é de relevante importância, visto que a produção descontrolada e o acúmulo de ROS resulta em estresse oxidativo, o que pode desencadear processos patogênicos de muitas doenças (Fiedor e Burda, 2014). A atividade antioxidante dos carotenoides está relacionada ao sistema de ligações duplas conjugadas, que confere alta reatividade. Esses pigmentos, como o licopeno e β -caroteno, apresentam capacidade de desativar o oxigênio

singleto (1O_2), com diminuição da susceptibilidade a danos oxidativos através da transferência de energia, de acordo com a equação abaixo (Foote e Denny, 1968; Krinsky e Johnson, 2005).

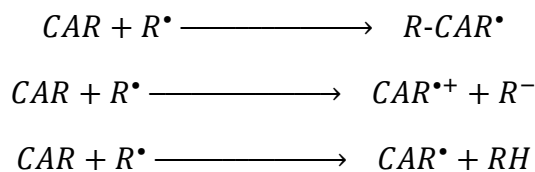


Onde:

1O_2 : oxigênio singleto

CAR: carotenoide

Outro exemplo da ação dos carotenoides é a reação com radicais, através da adição de radicais, transferência de elétrons para o radical e a captação do hidrogênio (Krinsky e Johnson, 2005).



Onde:

CAR: carotenoide

R^\bullet : radical livre

O licopeno é um carotenoide insaturado acíclico de cadeia aberta, que o torna mais facilmente reativo ao oxigênio (Chen *et al.*, 2009). A atividade antioxidante deste pigmento está relacionada a sua alta reatividade, que embora não apresente atividade pró-vitáminica A é capaz de atuar como antioxidante, com maior capacidade de desativar oxigênio singleto que o β -caroteno ou α -tocoferol. O licopeno também é utilizado como corante ou antioxidante natural, por conferir cor e não apresentar toxicidade (Weisburger, 2002; Rizk *et al.*, 2014).

Durante o processo de oxidação de ácidos graxos poliinsaturados ocorre a formação de produtos de oxidação, como peróxidos e hidroperóxidos, como o desenvolvimento de compostos voláteis. Quando adicionados em sistemas alimentares o licopeno e β -caroteno podem atuar como agentes antioxidantes, capazes de inibir a propagação do processo de oxidação e reduzir o período de indução, que confere maior estabilidade e vida útil aos

alimentos durante o armazenamento (Goulson e Warthesen, 1999; Montesano *et al.*, 2006; Kaur *et al.*, 2011; Siwach *et al.*, 2016).

Por apresentarem atividade antioxidante, capazes de proteger contra danos oxidativos, os carotenoides são associados a proteção contra radicais, restauração da função hepática, oxidação de lipídeos e inflamação, ou mesmo um efeito protetor sobre o câncer de próstata ou outras doenças crônicas (Hazewindus *et al.*, 2012; Sheriff e Devaki, 2013; Pereira Soares *et al.*, 2014).

3.4 Nanotecnologia de compostos bioativos

Devido a sua estrutura química os carotenoides são susceptíveis às reações de degradação, principalmente na presença de temperatura, luz e presença de oxigênio (Damodaran *et al.*, 2010). Aliada a suscetibilidade às reações de oxidação e isomerização, outro fator que pode dificultar o uso de carotenoides em diferentes matrizes é seu caráter hidrofóbico, com solubilidade em óleo e solventes orgânicos. Uma alternativa para aumentar a estabilidade de antioxidantes naturais pode ser através da técnica de nanoencapsulação. O encapsulamento de bioativos na escala nanométrica, além de promover maior estabilidade durante o processamento, também pode contribuir para dispersão em água destes compostos, o que amplia seu uso em diferentes matrizes (Lobato *et al.*, 2013; Dos Santos *et al.*, 2015; Da Silva *et al.*, 2016).

Alguns estudos avaliam o encapsulamento a partir de diferentes agentes encapsulantes, como ciclodextrinas, poli- ϵ -caprolactona e ácido polilático (Matioli e Rodriguez-Amaya, 2003; Cao-Hoang *et al.*, 2011; Lobato *et al.*, 2013; Dos Santos *et al.*, 2015; Da Silva *et al.*, 2016).

Na nanoencapsulação de licopeno com núcleo oleoso, através da deposição interfacial de polímeros pré formados, Dos Santos *et al.* (2015) produziram extrato com 93,9 % de pureza e elevada eficiência de encapsulação, de 95,12 %. As nanocápsulas apresentaram diâmetro médio de $193 \pm 4,7$ nm, potencial zeta de -11,5 mV e viscosidade típica de um fluido Newtoniano, devido ao tamanho pequeno das partículas e homogeneidade da suspensão de nanocápsulas. Na análise de estabilidade durante o armazenamento a temperatura ambiente durante 4 semanas, as nanocápsulas não apresentaram alterações no perfil granulométrico, sendo considerada fisicamente estável. Durante o armazenamento houve uma diminuição do conteúdo de licopeno, fato que pode estar relacionado com a presença de oxigênio no frasco

utilizado para o armazenamento da suspensão, mas que mesmo a temperatura ambiente após 14 dias as nanocápsulas apresentaram 50 % do teor inicial.

Os mesmos autores também avaliaram a estabilidade das nanocápsulas de licopeno quando submetidas à fotossensibilização (5 °C - 25 °C), aquecimento (60 °C - 80 °C) e refrigeração (5 °C). Para o estudo da fotossensibilização, as nanocápsulas de licopeno foram armazenadas sob incidência de luz (3000 lux), com aumento da perda de licopeno com o aumento da temperatura. Observou-se uma degradação lenta do teor de licopeno sob N₂ em relação às mesmas condições de armazenamento sob oxigênio, sendo este um fator importante da degradação de licopeno a 25 °C. A energia de ativação para os sistemas com ar saturado foi de 67 Kcal/mol, este elevado valor está relacionado com a maior estabilidade obtida através da técnica de nanoencapsulação. Quando submetidas ao sistema modelo de aquecimento para verificar a estabilidade a temperaturas de 60 °C, 70 °C e 80 °C, observou-se uma perda do teor de licopeno ao longo do tempo, contudo, durante os primeiros 10 min não houve diferença significativa do teor de licopeno entre os tratamentos. Quando armazenada sob refrigeração, as nanocápsulas apresentaram teor final de licopeno após 84 dias de 38,24 ± 1,14 µg/mL, que se manteve estável após 42 dias de armazenamento. A nanoencapsulação conferiu maior estabilidade e solubilidade em água deste carotenoide, o que possibilita seu maior uso em diferentes alimentos ou mesmo sob diferentes tratamentos durante o processamento, sendo esta a técnica a ser utilizada para o desenvolvimento do presente estudo (Dos Santos *et al.*, 2016).

Lobato *et al.* (2013), ao realizar a nanoencapsulação de bixina, verificaram que dentre as formulações (100 µg/mL, 58 µg/mL, 37 µg/mL, 16 µg/mL e 11 µg/mL), as concentrações de 16 µg/mL e 11 µg/mL apresentaram diâmetro médio de 208 nm e 163 nm, respectivamente, e maior estabilidade durante três semanas de armazenamento. As nanocápsulas com concentração de bixina de 16 µg/mL foram submetidas à análise de caracterização e apresentaram coloração amarela, diâmetro médio de 90 % das nanocápsulas de 124 nm e eficiência de encapsulação de cerca de 100 %. Durante o armazenamento à temperatura ambiente (25 °C) durante 119 dias, houve um decréscimo do potencial zeta, mas a suspensão de nanocápsulas apresentou estabilidade em relação ao diâmetro. Após o período de armazenamento, observou-se um teor de bixina de 45,7 ± 1,1 %, que demonstrou que a técnica de nanoencapsulação pode contribuir para uma maior estabilidade de compostos antioxidantes, além de promover um aumento da solubilidade de carotenoides em água.

Em outro estudo, esses mesmos autores avaliaram a estabilidade das nanocápsulas de bixina quando submetidas à fotossensibilização e aquecimento. A solução de nanocápsulas de

bixina foram analisadas nas temperaturas de 5 °C, 15 °C e 25 °C. A degradação de bixina livre e nanoencapsulada aumentou de acordo com as temperaturas, com perdas no processo realizado na presença ou ausência de oxigênio, onde na presença deste houve um aumento da taxa de degradação. Nas condições de degradação, a perda de bixina livre foi maior quando comparada com a bixina nanoencapsulada, onde a constante de degradação para a forma nanoencapsulada foi menor, ou seja, maior estabilidade. Já na análise sob aquecimento, a solução de bixina foi submetida ao aquecimento a temperaturas de 65 °C, 80 °C e 95 °C durante 120 min. Durante esta etapa houve maior perda de bixina com o aumento da temperatura, com perdas mais rápidas de bixina livre, o que indicou que o processo de nanoencapsulação apresentou maior estabilidade para as duas condições de análise (Lobato *et al.*, 2015).

A nanoencapsulação de β -caroteno com poli- ϵ -caprolactona apresentou eficiência de 76 % e potencial zeta de -34,20 mV, o que indicou estabilidade e baixa probabilidade de agregação. Durante a análise de degradação térmica em um permutador de calor de superfície raspada, a maior perda de nanocápsulas de β -caroteno foi de 30 % sob o uso da maior pressão de vapor do sistema, de 180,5 kPa, que demonstrou uma retenção mínima de 70 %. Os resultados mostraram que o biopolímero pode conferir maior estabilidade a compostos antioxidantes quando submetidos a tratamento térmico (González-Reza *et al.*, 2015).

Da Silva *et al.* (2016) avaliaram o desenvolvimento e a caracterização de nanocápsulas contendo β -caroteno, α -caroteno e luteína obtidos a partir de cenouras e nanocápsula de β -caroteno sintético. A técnica de deposição interfacial de polímeros pré formados conferiu eficiência de encapsulação de aproximadamente 100 %, com 26 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, diâmetro médio $142,33 \pm 5,69$ nm para as nanocápsulas com os pigmentos naturais e de $190,33 \pm 32,81$ nm para as nanocápsulas com o carotenoide sintético. Ao analisar a estabilidade das nanocápsulas durante 100 dias de armazenamento a 4 °C, observaram que houve diminuição do teor de β -caroteno entre as nanocápsulas, com manutenção de $67,62 \pm 7,77$ % e de $11,69 \pm 1,65$ % para composto natural e sintético, respectivamente. De acordo com os autores, a maior estabilidade pode estar relacionada com o efeito sinérgico entre os pigmentos naturais, o que auxiliou em uma maior retenção quando comparada com a nanocápsula contendo o composto sintético isolado. Durante o armazenamento também houve a diminuição do pH relacionado com a degradação da parede polimérica, mas que as nanocápsulas apresentaram estabilidade em relação ao diâmetro médio e índice de polidispersão. O encapsulamento conferiu maior estabilidade e solubilidade destes carotenoides, sendo uma técnica promissora para uso destes

compostos em diferentes matrizes ou mesmo o encapsulamento de uma mistura de antioxidantes naturais.

Okonogi e Riangjanapatee (2015) realizaram a caracterização físico-química de nanoestruturas lipídicas carregadas com licopeno para administração tópica. As nanoestruturas foram preparadas com emprego de temperatura e homogeneização de alta pressão, onde obteve-se dispersões com 5 mg, 25 mg e 50 mg de licopeno e diâmetro médio de 157 nm, 160 nm e 166 nm, respectivamente. Na avaliação da liberação *in vitro* do licopeno, a cinética de liberação foi de primeira ordem, com taxa de liberação de 2,3 %/h para dispersão com menor concentração de licopeno e de 0,7 %/h para as demais concentrações. As dispersões com licopeno também apresentaram elevada oclusão, estando diretamente relacionada com o tempo e a concentração de licopeno; com o aumento destes parâmetros houve um aumento desta propriedade. Quando analisadas em relação à atividade antioxidante, a suspensão com 50 mg de licopeno apresentou maior capacidade antioxidante em relação às demais concentrações. As amostras também foram avaliadas em relação à estabilidade durante o armazenamento a 4 °C, 30 °C e 40 °C durante 120 dias e demonstraram degradação mais rápida do licopeno a temperatura mais elevada, com mudanças de cor da suspensão.

Na nanoencapsulação de vitamina E com amidos modificados, Hategkimana *et al.* (2015) observaram que as partículas apresentaram diâmetro médio entre 208 nm e 235nm com o uso do amido de mandioca, em que a nanoemulsão com uso do amido modificado derivado de milho ceroso apresentou maior diâmetro. Após secagem por pulverização, as quantidades de vitamina E retida nas nanocápsulas foram de 79,16%, 73,15%, 71,46%, para os amidos de mandioca e dois amidos derivado de milho ceroso, respectivamente. No armazenamento durante 60 dias, sob 4 °C, 20 °C e 35 °C e umidade relativa de 73%, a encapsulação com o uso do amido MS-B mostrou ser mais eficiente na manutenção da estabilidade da nanoemulsão, o que indicou que encapsulação pode aumentar a estabilidade e solubilidade em água da vitamina E.

Ao avaliar nanoencapsulação de resveratrol e curcumina, Coradini *et al.* (2014) verificaram que as nanocápsulas apresentaram tamanho dentro da escala nanométrica, com diâmetro médio das partículas entre 190 nm e 210 nm e eficiência de encapsulação próxima de 100 %. As nanocápsulas demonstraram estabilidade no armazenamento à temperatura ambiente e ao abrigo da luz durante três meses, não apresentando aglomeração das partículas. A nanoencapsulação melhorou a estabilidade a oxidação, mas a técnica de co-encapsulação do resveratrol apresentou melhores resultados.

O nanoencapsulamento de carotenoides como licopeno e β -caroteno, pode ser uma técnica promissora para ampliar o uso destes pigmentos naturais, como alternativa ao uso de antioxidantes sintéticos. A adição de compostos hidrofóbicos em matrizes hidrofílicas pode alterar a interação entre os componentes da estrutura, como a adição em filmes biodegradáveis. Assim, a nanoencapsulação pode ser utilizada para promover maior estabilidade aos compostos, dispersão em água e liberação controlada ao longo do armazenamento. Características estas desejáveis para adição em filmes biodegradáveis, que podem representar boa alternativa ou novo método para adição de antioxidantes naturais no desenvolvimento de embalagens ativas, uma vez que estudos demonstram que a adição destes compostos na forma livre apresenta bons resultados como embalagens antioxidantes.

3.5 Filmes biodegradáveis com antioxidantes naturais

Com a maior preocupação com os impactos relacionados ao uso de materiais derivados do petróleo e com o avanço da tecnologia, diversos estudos são realizados para o desenvolvimento e caracterização de polímeros obtidos a partir de fontes renováveis. O uso destes polímeros visa a obtenção de embalagens biodegradáveis que apresentem características semelhantes às embalagens tradicionais.

Os filmes biodegradáveis podem ser definidos como uma película fina obtida a partir de materiais biológicos, que surgem como uma alternativa para substituir ou minimizar o uso de embalagens não biodegradáveis, o que auxilia o desenvolvimento e o uso de matérias primas com características para formar filmes (Henrique *et al.*, 2008). Dentre os materiais utilizados no desenvolvimento de filmes encontram-se carboidratos, proteínas ou mesmo a combinação destes com lipídeos, com objetivo de se obter filmes com características específicas. Alguns estudos avaliam o desenvolvimento de filmes biodegradáveis a partir de gelatina (Bitencourt *et al.*, 2014; Iahnke *et al.*, 2015), metilcelulose (Noronha *et al.*, 2014), quitosana (Park *et al.*, 2004; Martins *et al.*, 2012; Santana *et al.*, 2013), proteína de girassol (Salgado *et al.*, 2010) e amido (Reis *et al.*, 2015; Pagno *et al.*, 2016).

Alguns estudos visam a adição de compostos antioxidantes, como compostos fenólicos, carotenoides ou mesmo vitaminas, o que pode auxiliar em uma maior estabilidade a oxidação, um dos principais problemas relacionados a deterioração de alimentos com alto teor de gordura (Siripatrawan e Harte, 2010; Santana *et al.*, 2013; Bitencourt *et al.*, 2014; Noronha *et al.*, 2014; Reis *et al.*, 2015).

No desenvolvimento de filmes à base de amido de mandioca com adição de extrato de erva mate e polpa de manga como aditivos antioxidantes, Reis *et al.* (2015) verificaram que a adição levou a alterações nas propriedades mecânicas e de barreira dos filmes. Houve uma redução da permeabilidade ao vapor de água, relacionada à presença de fibras insolúveis que diminuíram o espaço entre a matriz polimérica. A adição também promoveu uma redução da resistência à tração e alongamento dos filmes, devido à obtenção de estrutura com menor homogeneidade e açúcares naturalmente presentes nos aditivos adicionados. Contudo, a adição desses aditivos antioxidantes proporcionou maior estabilidade do óleo de palma armazenado nos filmes biodegradáveis ao longo de 90 dias (63% UR a 30 °C), onde a adição de extrato de erva mate apresentou maior eficácia quando comparado com o filme adicionado somente de polpa de manga.

A adição de polpa de manga e acerola como antioxidante em filmes de amido de mandioca levou à obtenção de filmes com maior conteúdo de carotenoides, polifenol e vitamina C, de acordo com o aumento da concentração dos aditivos adicionados. Os filmes foram utilizados para armazenar óleo de palma sob condição acelerada de oxidação (30 ° e 63 % UR) durante 45 dias, em que o óleo embalado nos filmes apresentou maior estabilidade à oxidação quando comparado com os controles (filme sem adição de aditivos, filme de polietileno de baixa densidade e sem embalagem). O óleo armazenado no filme adicionado somente de polpa de manga apresentou aumento do índice de peróxidos de 61,28%, enquanto o filme com adição de somente polpa de acerola apresentou índice de aumento de 63,69%, onde a adição de polpa de manga apresentou maior efeito protetor à oxidação do óleo. Durante o armazenamento, o produto embalado nos filmes com aditivos antioxidantes apresentou menor índice de dienos conjugados e conteúdo hexanal, devido ao aumento do tempo de formação desses compostos formados durante o processo de oxidação. Os resultados demonstraram um efeito protetor dependente do tipo do aditivo antioxidante adicionado, polpa de manga ou polpa de acerola. Contudo, os filmes de amido de mandioca sem adição destes também apresentaram maior efeito protetor quando comparado ao filme de polietileno comercial, em que demonstram potencial aplicação como embalagem antioxidante para manutenção da estabilidade de alimentos com alto teor de gordura durante o armazenamento (Souza *et al.*, 2011).

No desenvolvimento de filmes à base de quitosana adicionados de 0,1 % e 0,2 % de α -tocoferol, Martins *et al.* (2012) observaram que o aumento da concentração deste antioxidante contribuiu para a redução do teor de umidade dos filmes, aumento da espessura e da permeabilidade ao vapor de água. A adição de α -tocoferol levou a alteração da matriz

polimérica, diminuindo significativamente a resistência à tração e o alongamento na ruptura dos filmes. Os filmes com antioxidante apresentaram melhor barreira à luz visível e UV, onde a adição de 0,2 % de α -tocoferol conferiu menor nível de transmitância na faixa UV (entre 250 nm e 300 nm), mas ambas as concentrações demonstraram maior capacidade antioxidante quando comparadas com os filmes sem adição de α -tocoferol, o que indicou ser uma opção na proteção de alimentos susceptíveis a oxidação.

Ao desenvolver embalagens biodegradáveis à base de quitosana com adição de urucum como aditivo antioxidante, Santana *et al.*(2013) verificaram que adição deste antioxidante natural não alterou a espessura, atividade água, umidade, permeabilidade ao vapor de água e propriedades mecânicas dos filmes. Contudo, os filmes proporcionaram maior estabilidade à oxidação do azeite de dendê armazenado durante 45 dias (30 °C e 63% UR) em relação ao produto armazenado no filme controle, filme de polietileno de baixa densidade e sem embalagem. A maior adição do antioxidante natural (1 %) levou a um efeito protetor mais amplo em relação às demais concentrações (0,25 % e 0,5 %), visto que quanto maior o percentual do aditivo, menor foi o processo de oxidação do azeite de dendê. Os resultados demonstraram que a adição do antioxidante natural proporcionou maior estabilidade ao produto embalado e não alterou as propriedades dos filmes biodegradáveis, com potencial aplicação para embalar alimentos com alto teor de lipídeos,

Ao adicionar extrato de chá verde, como antioxidante natural, na elaboração de filmes a partir de quitosana, Siripatrawan e Harte (2010) observaram que o aumento da concentração (0 a 20 %) de extrato contribuiu para uma diminuição da luminosidade e opacidade dos filmes. A adição de 5 % de extrato não diferiu significativamente quanto à resistência a tração e alongamento na ruptura, mas a adição superior a esta concentração aumentou significativamente, com melhorias nas características mecânicas dos filmes. O teor de compostos fenólicos aumentou de acordo com a concentração de extrato adicionado, com maior teor e conseqüentemente maior atividade antioxidante para a formulação com 20 % de adição.

Na elaboração de filmes biodegradáveis de amido mandioca com adição de extrato de alecrim, Piñeros-Hernandez *et al.* (2017) observaram que a adição de extrato (5 %, 10 % e 20 %) levou a obtenção de filmes com estrutura com menor homogeneidade e com presença de rachaduras. A adição de extrato levou ao aumento da hidrofobicidade da superfície e maior permeabilidade ao vapor de água dos filmes, devido ao aumento do ângulo de contato da água com a superfície dos filmes e a presença de rachaduras, respectivamente. A obtenção de uma estrutura heterogênea através da adição do extrato levou a diminuição significativa da tensão

na ruptura dos filmes, com redução de aproximadamente 60 % em comparação ao filme controle, com resistência a tração entre 0,5 e 0,8 MPa. Os filmes apresentaram transparência e alta biodegradabilidade durante 14 dias de estudo, o que demonstra que adição de extrato de alecrim pode ser uma alternativa para obtenção de embalagens ativas com atividade antioxidante e biodegradáveis.

Ao desenvolver filmes biodegradáveis de metilcelulose adicionados de nanocápsulas de α -tocoferol, Noronha *et al.* (2014) verificaram que a adição contribuiu para o aumento da espessura dos filmes, de $39,00 \pm 1,84 \mu\text{m}$ para $60,87 \pm 4,91 \mu\text{m}$, para o filme controle e filme com a maior concentração de nanocápsulas (70 %), respectivamente. Quando submetidos à análise das propriedades mecânicas, os filmes apresentaram diminuição da resistência à tração e um aumento do alongamento na ruptura, com diminuição do módulo de elasticidade. A adição de nanocápsulas também contribuiu para o aumento da intensidade de cor dos filmes quando comparados ao filme controle, com diminuição significativa da transmissão de luz na região do UV (210 nm) e visível (500 nm). O aumento da concentração de nanocápsulas levou à obtenção de filmes com estrutura menos compacta e com maior porosidade, resultado da menor miscibilidade e compatibilidade dos filmes adicionados de nanocápsulas de α -tocoferol. De acordo com o aumento da concentração de nanocápsulas de α -tocoferol, houve um aumento da atividade antioxidante dos filmes, com o aumento do perfil de liberação inicial durante 1 h, seguida por uma liberação sustentada ao longo de 10 dias em um simulador alimentar para gorduras, óleo e alimentos lipídicos.

Pagno *et al.* (2016), ao desenvolver filmes biodegradáveis de amido de mandioca contendo nanocápsulas de bixina, observaram que adição não modificou a espessura dos filmes, variando entre $97,2 \pm 8,9$ e $125,5 \pm 14,3 \mu\text{m}$. O aumento da concentração de nanocápsulas de bixina levou a diminuição da resistência a tração e ao aumento do alongamento na ruptura dos filmes, de $12,13 \pm 0,95 \text{ MPA}$ para $1,94 \pm 0,37 \text{ MPA}$ e $6,05 \pm 0,72 \%$ para $34,34 \pm 3,40 \%$, para o filme controle e filme com 10 % de nanocápsulas, respectivamente. Houve um aumento da permeabilidade ao vapor de água dos filmes, variando entre $0,207 \pm 0,014 \text{ g.mm.m}^{-2}.\text{h}^{-1} \text{ kPa}^{-1}$ e $0,273 \pm 0,018 \text{ g.mm.m}^{-2}.\text{h}^{-1} \text{ kPa}^{-1}$, resultado da presença de rachaduras na estrutura dos filmes de acordo com o aumento do antioxidante adicionado. A adição de nanocápsulas de bixina levou ao aumento dos valores de ΔE^* , o que contribuiu para o aumento da opacidade dos filmes, de $14,3 \pm 0,8 \text{ A.mm}^{-1}$ para $41,6 \pm 1,7 \text{ A.mm}^{-1}$ na região do UV (210 nm) e de $12,8 \pm 1,0 \text{ A.mm}^{-1}$ para $21,9 \pm 2,3$ na região do visível (500 nm), para os filmes controle e filme com maior adição do antioxidante (10%). Os filmes adicionados de 2%, 5% e 8% de nanocápsulas de bixina apresentaram maior proteção à

oxidação do óleo de girassol armazenado durante 13 dias sob condições aceleradas de oxidação (35 ± 2 °C e 75 % UR), com índice de peróxidos de $8,6 \pm 0,1$ mEq/kg, $6,2 \pm 0,1$ mEq/kg e $6,0 \pm 0,2$ mEq/kg ao final do estudo, dentro do limite estabelecido pelo *Codex Alimentarius* (10 mEq/kg), respectivamente.

Bitencourt *et al.* (2014) ao desenvolver filmes à base de gelatina e adicionar extrato etanólico de cúrcuma, verificaram que o aumento do extrato contribuiu para um aumento na cor amarela dos filmes, auxiliando na barreira contra luz, onde o filme com maior concentração de extrato apresentou valor de transmitância de 0,01% a 0,35% na faixa de comprimento de onda de 200 nm 500 nm, o que indica boa barreira aos raios UV e luz visível. O aumento da concentração de extrato também contribuiu para uma diminuição a permeabilidade ao vapor de água quando comparado com o filme controle, mas aumentou significativamente a atividade antioxidante, onde os de maiores concentrações de extrato apresentaram maior atividade antioxidante. A adição de extrato cúrcuma também demonstrou interação com a matriz do filme, onde houve um aumento da resistência a tração, alongamento na ruptura e diminuição da elasticidade para as concentrações de 5 g, 50 g e 200 g de extrato por 100 g de gelatina, respectivamente.

Salgado *et al.* (2010) desenvolveram filmes biodegradáveis obtidos a partir da proteína de girassol com diferentes níveis de compostos fenólicos. Os filmes apresentaram maiores absorção de água com a elevação da atividade de água, enquanto o filme elaborado com o isolado proteico de girassol com maior concentração de compostos fenólicos apresentou maior absorção na faixa de atividade de água inferior a 0,85. Os filmes obtidos com maior teor de compostos fenólicos apresentaram cor verde escuro, enquanto filmes com menores teores tinham tom castanho, podendo ser um fator limitante para o uso em alimentos que devem ser facilmente visíveis através da embalagem ou ser utilizado como proteção à luz visível. Todos os filmes de proteína girassol apresentaram aproximadamente o mesmo comportamento mecânico, com resistência a tração de 4 MPa e alongamento na ruptura de 24 %, pois apresentavam a mesma concentração de glicerol e água em sua formulação.

Filmes de gelatina com atividade antioxidante foram elaborados com diferentes concentrações (4%, 6% e 8% v/v de gelatina) de óleo essencial de *Zataria multiflora*. De acordo com o aumento da concentração de óleo essencial os filmes apresentaram maior rugosidade e solubilidade em água, devido à presença de bolhas em sua estrutura e maior interação com o domínio hidrofóbico da gelatina, provocando um aumento na solubilidade dos filmes. Com a adição de óleo essencial também houve alteração nas propriedades mecânicas dos filmes, com uma diminuição da resistência a tração, módulo de Young e

aumento do alongamento na ruptura. A adição contribuiu para aumentar a atividade antioxidante e a opacidade dos filmes, o que auxiliou na proteção contra oxidação e luz durante o armazenamento de produtos (Kavoosi *et al.*, 2014).

Li *et al.* (2014) desenvolveram filmes à de gelatina adicionados de antioxidantes naturais, como extrato de chá verde, extrato de semente de uva (proantocianidinas), extrato de gengibre, extrato de folha de ginkgo. A adição de 1,0 mg/mL de extrato de folha de ginkgo apresentou maior capacidade antioxidante e também melhor barreira à luz UV, mas a adição dos outros extratos também conferiu um efeito antioxidante e protetor à luz no desenvolvimento dos filmes. Na avaliação mecânica, os filmes com adição dos extratos apresentaram uma diminuição na resistência à tração e alongamento na ruptura devido a interação com a gelatina, com diminuição da interação proteína-proteína para estabilizar a rede proteica, mas sem apresentar diferença quanto a permeabilidade ao vapor de água.

Ao desenvolver filmes com farinha de açafraão, resíduo da extração de solvente, Maniglia *et al.* (2014) verificaram que os filmes apresentaram atividade antioxidante devido à presença de compostos antioxidantes como a curcumina, bisdemetoxicurcumina e desmetoxicurcumina. Ao otimizar o processo de produção dos filmes, verificaram que a temperatura ótima e pH eram de 86,7 °C e 8,5, respectivamente, o que proporcionou filmes com maior resistência a tração e baixa solubilidade em água, permeabilidade ao vapor de água e opacidade, com boas características para ser utilizado como embalagem ativa.

Ferreira *et al.* (2014) avaliaram o desenvolvimento de filmes de quitosana com adição de extrato obtido a partir do bagaço de uva. Os filmes com adição de 0,75% de extrato das sementes apresentaram menor solubilidade em água, mas a adição de 0,3% de extrato (óleo) e 0,3 % e 0,75% das sementes contribuíram para uma diminuição significativa na resistência a tração, aumento e diminuição da elasticidade, respectivamente. A adição de extrato de bagaço de uva com promoveu um aumento da atividade antioxidante, quando comparado com o filme controle.

No desenvolvimento de filmes a partir de cápsulas de gelatina com resíduo de cenoura minimamente processada, Iahnke *et al.* (2015) observaram que a adição proporcionou maior atividade antioxidante, relacionada a presença de compostos antioxidante naturais presentes no resíduo. Houve um aumento da espessura dos filmes de acordo com a concentração do resíduo adicionado, com menor coesão com a matriz e diminuição do alongamento, maior intensidade de cor, opacidade e transmissão de luz quando comparado ao filme controle. Contudo, o filme com adição de 26% de cápsulas de gelatina e 8,5% de resíduo de cenoura apresentou maior efeito protetor sobre a estabilidade do óleo de girassol armazenado sob

condição acelerada de oxidação (40 °C e luz: 900–1000 lux), com menor índice de peróxido ($5,32 \pm 0,22$ mEq/Kg) quando comparado com o óleo armazenado em embalagem plástica ($274,91 \pm 22,19$ mEq/Kg), óleo sem proteção ($272,00 \pm 5,11$ mEq/Kg) e filme controle ($9,96 \pm 0,62$ mEq/Kg), após 28 dias de armazenamento. Os filmes apresentaram rápida biodegradabilidade em solo após 15 dias (75 %), que demonstra boa alternativa para obtenção de embalagens biodegradáveis.

Filmes biodegradáveis de amido com adição de microcápsulas de antocianinas apresentaram comportamento distinto de acordo com a proporção do agente encapsulante utilizado. Os filmes não apresentaram diferença quanto a espessura, com média de 0,145 mm. A adição de bioativo encapsulado com maltodextrina (30 %) levou a obtenção de filmes com menor permeabilidade ($5,93 \pm 0,47$), menor opacidade ($0,65 \pm 0,01$ Amm⁻¹) e maior resistência a tração ($0,75 \pm 0,11$ MPa), mas com alongamento semelhante ao filmes com adição de microcápsulas com a combinação de goma arábica:maltodextrina (15:15 %), de $124,2 \pm 10,8$ % e $104 \pm 11,1$ %, respectivamente. De acordo com os autores, o maior alongamento pode estar relacionado ao menor peso molecular da maltodextrina, efeito sinérgico com o glicerol, obtenção de estrutura com maior homogeneidade e menor rugosidade. Os filmes com antocianinas microencapsuladas com maltodextrina apresentaram maior efeito sobre a estabilidade do óleo de girassol após três dias de armazenamento (40 °C e luz: 950 lux), com 4,7 mEq/kg e estabilidade até o sexto dia (Stoll *et al.*, 2016).

A adição de antioxidantes naturais, extratos ou compostos nanoencapsulados, pode melhorar as propriedades funcionais dos filmes, com maior interação e manutenção da qualidade de alimentos durante o armazenamento. O uso destes compostos pode contribuir para melhora das propriedades mecânicas, em que dependendo da matriz atuam como plastificantes; permeabilidade ao vapor de água, barreira a transmissão de luz UV/Vis, maior atividade antioxidante com o aumento da concentração dos antioxidantes adicionados ou a solubilidade em água. Além de contribuir para a atividade antioxidante, o uso de compostos naturais permite o estudo e a utilização como alternativa ao uso de antioxidantes sintéticos, que geralmente são utilizados pela indústria de alimentos. Carotenoides, vitaminas, compostos fenólicos, entre outros, podem ser obtidos a partir de extratos, polpas, farinhas, frutas, verduras, ou mesmo a utilização de resíduos obtidos a partir do processamento de alimentos, que torna uma importante fonte e uso como obtenção destes compostos. O uso de antioxidantes naturais juntamente com o desenvolvimento de filmes biodegradáveis, surge como alternativa ao uso de embalagens não biodegradáveis, com potencial aplicação como embalagem de alimentos, com rápida biodegradabilidade e estabilidade dos alimentos.

CAPÍTULO II: MATERIAIS E MÉTODOS

4. MATERIAIS E MÉTODOS

Os experimentos foram realizados no Laboratório de Compostos Bioativos do Instituto de Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos da Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul. A análise de microscopia eletrônica de varredura foi realizada no Centro de Microscopia Eletrônica e a análise térmica no Laboratório de altas Pressões e Materiais Avançados, ambos localizados na Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul.

4.1 Materiais

O amido de mandioca (Yoki Alimentos, São Paulo, Brasil), óleo de girassol (Cargil Agrícola AS, Brasil), tomates, cenouras e o solo orgânico para análise de degradabilidade dos filmes (Vida Desenvolvimento Ecológico LTDA, Brasil) foram adquiridos no mercado local. O glicerol foi adquirido da Sigma (São Paulo, Brasil). O polímero poli (ϵ -caprolactona), PCL ($M_w = 80.000$) e monoestearato de sorbitano foram obtidos a partir de Sigma (St. Louis, MO, EUA). O triglicerídeo cáprico/caprílico (TCC) e polissorbato 80 foram obtidos de Delaware (Porto Alegre, Brasil). Todos os outros reagentes químicos utilizados foram de grau analítico.

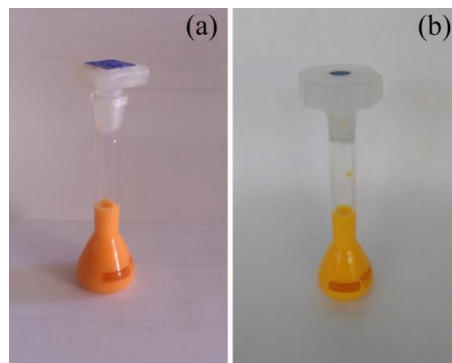
4.2 Extração e cristalização do licopeno e β -caroteno

O licopeno e o β -caroteno adicionados aos filmes biodegradáveis foram extraídos a partir de tomates e cenouras, respectivamente. Os tomates ou cenouras foram cortados (600 g) e os compostos antioxidantes naturais extraídos com acetato de etila (1000 mL). O processo de extração foi realizado em duas etapas sob agitação mecânica (120 min), em que o extrato obtido foi filtrado e concentrado sob pressão reduzida em um rotaevaporador (Fisatom model 801/802, São Paulo, SP, Brazil). Até essa etapa foi obtido o extrato com o antioxidante natural na sua forma livre, em que para se obter os cristais para produção de nanocápsulas o extrato foi totalmente seco através do rotaevaporador. Após esta etapa, em um banho de gelo foi adicionado lentamente diclorometano (5 mL), sendo em seguida adicionado etanol 99,7% (20 mL). O processo de cristalização foi realizado sob o armazenamento a $-18\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ durante 12 h. Os cristais foram filtrados, lavados com etanol 99,7 % (50 mL) e secos sob pressão reduzida ($T < 30^\circ\text{C}$). A pureza dos cristais foi avaliada por cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência (HPLC) (Nunes e Mercadante, 2004).

4.3 Obtenção das nanocápsulas

As nanocápsulas de licopeno ou β -caroteno foram obtidas a partir da deposição interfacial de polímeros pré formados de acordo com a metodologia descrita por Dos Santos *et al.* (2015) e Da Silva *et al.* (2016), respectivamente. As nanocápsulas foram obtidas a partir da formação de duas fases, a fase orgânica e a fase aquosa. Para formação da fase orgânica foram utilizados PCL (200 mg), triglicéridos de ácidos cáprico e caprílico (300 μ L), monoestearato de sorbitano (76 mg), acetona (48 mL), etanol (6 mL), sendo submetida a agitação magnética durante 30 min (40 °C). Os antioxidantes naturais foram adicionados ao volume de acetona, em concentração definida para se obter 85 μ g/mL. Após a solubilização dos polímeros da fase orgânica, esta foi injetada na fase aquosa contendo polissorbato 80 (154 mg) e água ultrapura (106 mL), sob agitação magnética durante 10 min. A solução foi concentrada sob pressão reduzida até o volume final de 20 mL. As nanocápsulas de licopeno apresentaram diâmetro médio de 193 nm e as nanocápsulas de β -caroteno de 286 nm, ambas com concentração de 85 μ g/mL (Figura 1).

Figura 1 - Nanocápsulas de licopeno (a) e nanocápsulas de β -caroteno (b).



4.4 Preparo dos filmes biodegradáveis

Os filmes biodegradáveis foram desenvolvidos de acordo com a técnica de *casting*, através da gelatinização do amido de mandioca em água. As formulações foram definidas através de testes preliminares até se obter filmes com características desejadas. A solução filmogênica foi preparada com 4% de amido de mandioca em água destilada (4 g/100 g de solução). A solução foi gelatinizada em um banho de água a 80 °C/20 minutos, sob agitação constante. Após a gelatinização do amido, o glicerol foi então adicionado (0,25 g g⁻¹ de amido). O licopeno e o β -caroteno na forma livre ou nanoencapsulados foram adicionados nas

concentrações de 2%, 5% e 8% (v/v) na solução filmogênica a 35 °C, respectivamente. A solução filmogênica foi colocada em placas de Petri de poliestireno (0,39 g/cm²) e secou-se em uma estufa com circulação forçada de ar (DeLeo B5AFD) a 35 °C durante 20 horas. Após a secagem, os filmes foram armazenados (48 h) em uma umidade relativa controlada de 58% a temperatura ambiente (25 °C). Filme de amido de mandioca sem adição do antioxidante e filme de polietileno comercial foram utilizados como controle.

4.5 Caracterização dos filmes biodegradáveis

4.5.1 Espessura

A espessura foi determinada através de um micrômetro digital (modelo IP40, Digimess, Brasil) com precisão de 0,001 mm, onde o resultado foi expresso através da média da leitura de cinco pontos aleatórios de cada amostra.

4.5.2 Umidade e solubilidade em água

A umidade e a solubilidade em água dos filmes biodegradáveis foram determinadas de acordo com o método descrito por Gontard *et al.* (1992), com algumas modificações. Para determinação da umidade as amostras foram cortadas (discos de 2 cm de diâmetro), pesadas e submetidas a secagem em estufa com circulação e renovação de ar (105 °C – 24h). Após o processo de secagem e pesagem, as amostras foram adicionadas de 30 mL de água destilada e submetidos a agitação (modelo NT145, Nova técnica, Brasil) durante 24 h a 25 °C. Após esta etapa, a água do recipiente foi retirada e filtrada. As amostras não solubilizadas foram submetidas a secagem a 105 °C durante 24h. A quantidade de matéria não solubilizada foi expressa em porcentagem de massa solubilizada em relação à massa inicial:

$$S(\%) = \left(\frac{W_i - W_f}{W_i} \right) \times 100$$

Onde W_i é o peso seco inicial da amostra (g) e W_f é o peso seco final da amostra (g) após ter permanecido 24 h sob agitação nas capsulas com 30 mL de água destilada.

4.5.3 Permeabilidade ao vapor de água

A permeabilidade ao vapor de água dos filmes foi avaliada de acordo com método padrão da American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM 96-05) e como descrito por Pagno et al. (2015). Os filmes foram fixados em células de permeação de alumínio (diâmetro interno: 63mm e altura: 25mm) contendo CaCl_2 anidro granular e o conjunto foi armazenado em um cuba de vidro com umidade relativa de 75 % e a 25 °C, com gradiente de umidade relativa de 0/75% através de uma solução saturada de NaCl (Figura 2). O ganho de peso do conjunto de permeação foi avaliado após 24 h, onde cada conjunto foi pesado em balança analítica (modelo AY, Shimadzu, Japão). A permeabilidade ao vapor de água foi obtida através do seguinte cálculo:

$$PVA = \frac{w \times L}{A \times t \times \Delta p}$$

onde w é a massa (g) de água permeada através do filme após 24 h, L é a espessura do filme (mm), A é a área de permeação, t é o tempo de permeação (h) e Δp é a diferença de pressão de vapor entre os dois lados do filme (Pa).

Figura 2 - Análise de permeabilidade ao vapor de água dos filmes biodegradáveis.



4.5.4 Propriedades ópticas

4.5.4.1 Cor

A avaliação da cor dos filmes foi realizada por meio de um colorímetro (modelo CR-300, MinoltaCo. Ltd, Japão), operando a luz do dia com D65 e através da escala de leitura CIE $L^* a^* b^*$. Sendo o parâmetro L^* associado à luminosidade das amostras, em que varia de 0 a 100, onde valores próximos de 100 caracterizam amostras mais claras, e próximos de 0

indicam amostras escuras. A coordenada a^* está relacionada com a dimensão vermelho-verde, onde valores positivos indicam amostras na região do vermelho e valores negativos indicam a região verde. A coordenada cromática b^* está associada à dimensão amarelo-azul, onde valores positivos indicam amostras na região do amarelo e valores negativos indicam amostras na região do azul. A diferença de cor em comparação com o padrão foi obtida através do seguinte cálculo:

$$\Delta E = \sqrt{(L^* - L_0^*)^2 + (a^* - a_0^*)^2 + (b^* - b_0^*)^2}$$

Onde L_0^* , a_0^* e b_0^* representam os parâmetros de cor de um disco branco padrão ($L_0^* = 97,45$, $a_0^* = 0,13$ e $b_0^* = 1,66$) e L^* , a^* e b^* os parâmetros de cor da amostra.

4.5.4.2 Transmissão de luz e opacidade

Os filmes foram submetidos à análise de transmissão de luz através de um espectrofotômetro (modelo UV-1800, Shimadzu, Japão), na faixa de comprimento de onda de 200 nm a 800nm. Os filmes foram cortados em retângulos e aderidos à parede interna da cubeta do aparelho, uma cubeta de quartzo vazia foi utilizada como referência (Fang *et al.*, 2002). A opacidade dos filmes foi determinada através da absorvância a 600 nm e calculada através da seguinte fórmula (Park e Zhao, 2004):

$$T = \frac{Abs_{600}}{x}$$

Onde T é a opacidade dos filmes (A/mm), Abs_{600} é o valor da absorvância a 600 nm e x é a espessura dos filmes (mm).

4.5.5 Propriedades mecânicas

Os testes mecânicos foram realizados em um texturômetro TA-XT2 (Stable Micro Systems, Reino Unido), de acordo com o método padrão da American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM D882-2012) (Figura 3). Os filmes foram cortados em corpos de prova com

25 mm de largura e 100 mm de comprimento e acondicionados em umidade relativa de 58 % a temperatura de 25 °C, durante 48 horas antes dos testes. As tiras foram fixadas nas garras com uma distância inicial de 50 mm e com velocidade de 0,8 mm/s. Foram utilizadas dez tiras de cada filme para a análise de resistência a tração e percentagem de alongamento na ruptura, sendo determinada a espessura em pontos aleatórios de cada amostra.

Figura 3 - Análise das propriedades mecânicas dos filmes biodegradáveis através de um texturômetro.



4.5.6 Estabilidade térmica

A estabilidade térmica dos filmes foi avaliada através de um analisador termogravimétrico (modelo TGA-50, Shimadzu, Japão), com taxa de aquecimento de 10 °C/min, de 25 °C até 800 °C (Figura 4). Pequenas quantidades de amostras (4-5 mg) foram submetidas a diferentes taxas de aquecimento, em que a perda de massa (%) foi avaliada em função da temperatura.

Figura 4 - Analisador termogravimétrico.



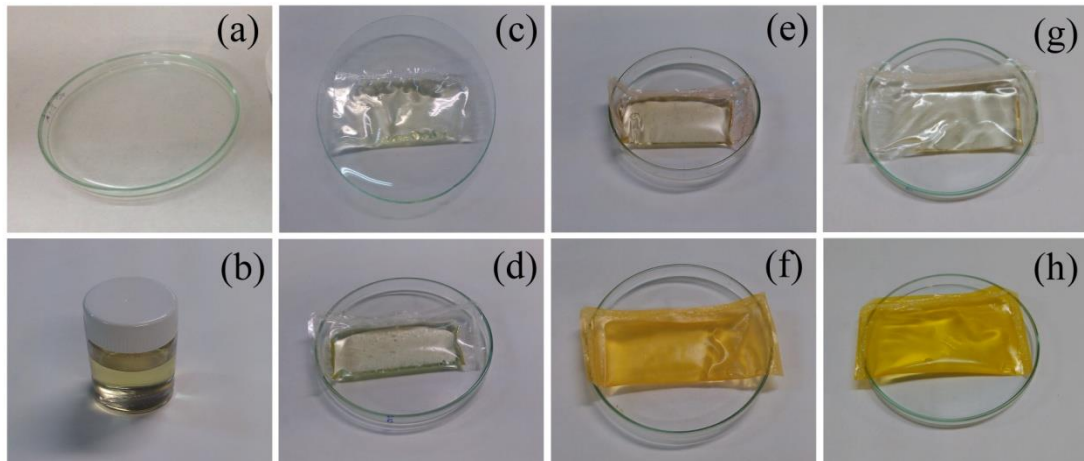
4.5.7 Análise estrutural

A estrutura dos filmes foi analisada através de microscopia eletrônica de varredura (MEV) (modelo JSM 6060, JEOL, Japão), onde as amostras foram fixadas em uma base de alumínio com fita adesiva de dupla face e revestida com fina camada de ouro. Todas as amostras foram observadas a uma voltagem de 5 kV com uma ampliação de 500 vezes a 1000 vezes. A interação do antioxidante com a matriz também foi avaliada através de microscopia óptica (modelo DM500, Leica), em que as imagens foram obtidas através da câmera (modelo ICC50 HD, Leica) acoplada ao software Leica 6.1.

4.5.8 Atividade antioxidante: armazenamento de óleo de girassol sob condições aceleradas de oxidação

Os filmes biodegradáveis ativos adicionados com 5% de licopeno e 5% de β -caroteno livres ou nanoencapsulados, foram utilizados para avaliar a estabilidade do óleo de girassol (sem adição de antioxidantes) durante o armazenamento sob condições aceleradas de oxidação, de acordo com Colín-Chávez *et al.* (2013) com algumas modificações. Os filmes foram cortados em retângulos (10 mm x 10 mm) e selados nas laterais (Modelo F 200 Flash, Fastvac, São Paulo, Brasil), onde foram adicionados 15 mL de óleo e então selados na parte superior (Figura 5). Como controle, o óleo de girassol também foi armazenado em filme de amido de mandioca sem a adição dos antioxidantes, placa aberta sem proteção, frasco fechado e em filme comercial de polietileno de baixa densidade. As amostras foram armazenadas em uma câmara (Tecnal, TE-402, Brazil), sob a incidência de luz fluorescente com uma intensidade de 900-1000 lux (Luxometer VA Instrumento, MS6610, China), a 30 °C e umidade relativa de aproximadamente 70 %. As amostras foram coletadas após 3, 6, 9, 12, 19 e 30 dias de armazenamento para a determinação do índice de peróxidos (IUPAC, 1987), dienos e trienos conjugados (European Regulation EC 2568/91).

Figura 5 - Óleo de girassol armazenado sem proteção (a), frasco fechado (b), filme de polietileno de baixa densidade (c), filme de amido de mandioca sem adição do antioxidante (d), filme com 5% de licopeno livre (e), filme com 5% de nanocápsulas de licopeno (f), filme com 5% de β -caroteno livre (g) e filme com 5% de nanocápsulas de β -caroteno (h).



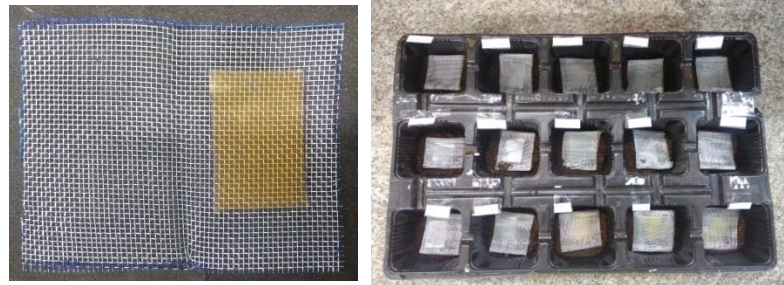
4.5.9 Biodegradabilidade dos filmes

Os filmes foram submetidos à análise de biodegradabilidade de acordo com a metodologia descrita por Martucci e Ruseckaite (2009), com algumas modificações. Os filmes foram cortados (2 cm x 3 cm) e secos em estufa com circulação forçada de ar a 60 °C (Modelo F 200 Flash, Fastvac, São Paulo, Brasil) até peso constante (m_0). Após, foram acondicionados em malhas de alumínio previamente secas e pesadas (Figura 6). O conjunto (malha de alumínio+filme) foi colocado em uma série de caixas de plástico compartimentadas (6 cm x 6 cm x 6,5 cm), preenchidas parcialmente com solo orgânico natural (pH ~ 7,2), onde a microflora presente no solo foi utilizada como o meio de degradação dos filmes. O conjunto (malha de alumínio+filme) foi colocado a uma profundidade de 4 cm e coberto com o solo. A análise foi realizada durante 15 dias, em que após este período o filme foi retirado do solo, cuidadosamente lavado com uma pisseta contendo água para retirada de resíduos do solo e secos superficialmente com papel filtro. As amostras foram submetidas à secagem em estufa com circulação forçada de ar a 60 °C até peso constante (m_t). A biodegradabilidade dos filmes foi determinada a partir da perda de massa dos filmes, de acordo com o seguinte cálculo:

$$WL(\%) = \left(\frac{m_t - m_0}{m_0} \right) \times 100$$

Onde m_0 é a massa inicial da amostra seca e m_t é a massa seca remanescente no tempo t .

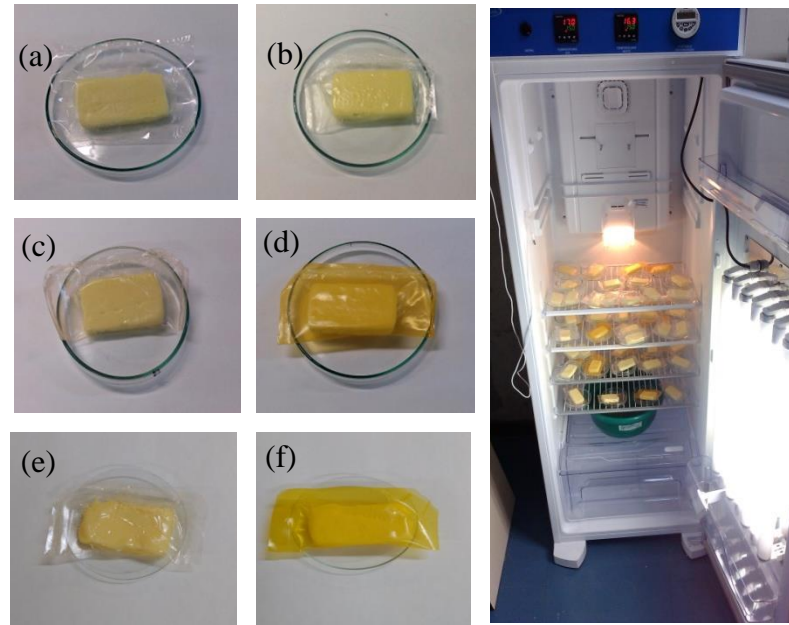
Figura 6 - Filme acondicionado em malha de alumínio para ser armazenado em solo orgânico natural.



4.5.10 Aplicação dos filmes biodegradáveis ativos: armazenamento de manteiga sob condição acelerada de oxidação

Os filmes biodegradáveis ativos adicionados de 5% de licopeno ou β -caroteno livres e nanoencapsulados foram selecionados com base nas melhores características obtidas a partir da caracterização e utilizados como embalagem ativa para alimentos com alto teor de gordura. Os filmes foram utilizados para armazenar manteiga sem adição de antioxidantes sob condição acelerada de oxidação, uma vez que este produto é armazenado em embalagens metálicas (papel+alum para manutenção de sua qualidade e estabilidade. Os filmes foram cortados e selados na forma de sachê, conforme descrito no item 2.4.11, sendo acondicionadas 20 g de manteiga (Figura 7). As amostras foram colocadas em placas de petri e armazenadas em uma câmara (Tecnal, TE-402, Brazil), sob a incidência de luz fluorescente com uma intensidade de 900-1000 lux (Luxometer VA Instrumento, MS6610, China), a 15 °C e umidade relativa de aproximadamente 70 %. A estabilidade da manteiga foi verificada nos tempos 0, 1, 2, 3 e 4 horas. Para determinação da estabilidade oxidativa a amostra foi previamente colocada em um béquer (250 mL) e aquecida em um banho a 50°C, até completa dissolução. O óleo remanescente do aquecimento foi utilizado para se verificar a estabilidade através da determinação do índice de peróxidos (IUPAC, 1987), dienos e trienos conjugados (European Regulation EC 2568/91). Como controles foram utilizados filme de amido de mandioca sem a adição dos antioxidantes naturais e um filme comercial de polietileno de baixa densidade.

Figura 7 - Manteiga armazenada nos filmes de polietileno de baixa densidade (a), filme de amido mandioca sem adição dos antioxidantes naturais (b), filme com 5% de licopeno livre (c), filme com 5% de nanocápsulas de licopeno (d), filme com 5% de β -caroteno livre (e) e filme com 5% de nanocápsulas de β -caroteno (f) em uma câmara sob condição acelerada de oxidação.



4.5.11 Análise estatística

Os resultados foram submetidos à análise estatística utilizando ANOVA e teste de comparação de médias de Tukey ao nível de 5% de significância, através do programa Statistica 12.0 (Statsoft, São Paulo, Brasil).

CAPÍTULO III: ARTIGOS CIENTÍFICOS

ARTIGO 1: Active biodegradable cassava starch films incorporated lycopene nanocapsules

The article was formatted according to the Industrial Crops and Products

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Abstract

The development of biodegradable films with addition of natural antioxidants is an alternative to the use of non-biodegradable packaging and use of synthetic antioxidants. The aim of this study was to develop biodegradable cassava starch films with antioxidant activity by the addition of free lycopene or lycopene nanocapsules and evaluate the effect of addition in the physical, mechanical and barrier of properties the films. Addition of free lycopene showed lower water vapor permeability, tensile strength and elongation of the films, however, the addition of lycopene nanocapsules provided an increase of these parameters compared to the control film. Addition of lycopene nanocapsules also provided greatest barrier to light transmission UV/Vis compared to the control films, films with added free lycopene and the commercial polyethylene film. The films incorporated lycopene nanocapsules provided greater protection to oxidation of stored sunflower oil under accelerated oxidation conditions, which shows potential application as packaging antioxidant to prevent oxidation of foods with a high fat content. The biodegradable films showed good thermal stability when subjected to different heating rates and rapid biodegradability for 15 days, which demonstrates good characteristics and potential applications of lycopene nanocapsules for the development of active biodegradable packaging.

Keywords: natural antioxidants; films properties; biodegradability; packaging.

1. Introduction

The packaging has an important role in storage, transport and maintenance of quality during shelf life of foods. The plastics are traditionally used as packaging, due to good mechanical properties, low cost, low permeability to water vapor and high compatibility with different foods. The increase in food demand and the use of plastic packaging obtained from non-renewable sources, can contribute to the accumulation and often the inappropriate disposal of these materials, which present high durability. Biodegradable films are an alternative to replace or minimize the use of non-biodegradable packaging, due to the greater concern with the impacts related to these materials.

Biodegradable films are thin films, obtained with new materials from renewable sources with good ability to form films, such as chitosan (Bourtoom e Chinnan, 2008; Martins *et al.*, 2012; Shen e Kamdem, 2015; Hafsa *et al.*, 2016), gelatin (Bitencourt *et al.*, 2014; Iahnke *et al.*, 2015; Martucci *et al.*, 2015; Liu *et al.*, 2017), methylcellulose (Tavera Quiroz *et al.*, 2013; Noronha *et al.*, 2014; Zhang *et al.*, 2015), sunflower protein (Salgado *et al.*, 2010; Valenzuela *et al.*, 2013) and cassava starch (Reis *et al.*, 2015).

Starch is one of the most used polymers due to the low cost, easy to obtain and good ability to form films, which can be used without any treatment before processing or addition of plasticizer (Bergo *et al.*, 2008; Henrique *et al.*, 2008). One of the sources used to obtain biodegradable films is cassava starch, which studies have shown that biodegradable films obtained from this polysaccharide have good homogeneity, flexibility, transparency, good biodegradability and can serve as a substitute for conventional packaging (Parra *et al.*, 2004; Souza *et al.*, 2011; Perazzo *et al.*, 2014; Reis *et al.*, 2015; Teodoro *et al.*, 2015; Pagno *et al.*, 2016) (Parra *et al.*, 2004; Souza *et al.*, 2011; Perazzo *et al.*, 2014; Reis *et al.*, 2015; Teodoro *et al.*, 2015; Pagno *et al.*, 2016).

In order to develop active biodegradable films with antioxidant activity for food packaging, films have been developed with the addition of various bioactive natural agents, as phenolic compounds, vitamins, carotenoids or even addition of products containing these compounds in its composition (López-Rubio e Lagaron, 2010; Siripatrawan e Harte, 2010; Souza *et al.*, 2011; Santana *et al.*, 2013; Noronha *et al.*, 2014).

The addition of natural antioxidants in free form, nanocapsules, extracts or fruit pulp, may change the structure of the polymer matrix of the film. The addition of these compounds may provide greater barrier to visible and UV light, lower permeability to water vapor due to hydrophobic character of the added antioxidant, antioxidant activity with the increase in

additive concentration, which assists in greater stability of foods with a high content of fat (Souza *et al.*, 2011; Martins *et al.*, 2012; Noronha *et al.*, 2014; Reis *et al.*, 2015; Pagno *et al.*, 2016).

Among the compounds that have antioxidant activity are the carotenoids, which are present in various foods in the form of pigments, that its antioxidant activity is related to the presence of the set of conjugated double bonds in their structure. One of the carotenoids which have high antioxidant activity is lycopene, with a structure composed of eleven conjugated double bonds. In food systems, lycopene may exhibit antioxidant activity in isolation or act in synergy with other bioactive compounds, capable of acting in the quality of food through the stability of fatty acids and less formation of oxidation products, such as hydroperoxides (Shi *et al.*, 2007; Siwach *et al.*, 2016). In vitro studies, due to its high antioxidant activity, lycopene may contribute to the restoration of liver function, oxidation of lipids and inflammation, or even a protective effect on prostate cancer (Hazewindus *et al.*, 2012; Sheriff e Devaki, 2013; Pereira Soares *et al.*, 2014).

The use of carotenoids, such as lycopene, can be limited due to their susceptibility to oxidation reactions and liposoluble characteristic, which restricts its use in foods with low content of lipids. Nanoencapsulation can be used as an alternative to improve the stability of the carotenoids, minimizing or retard their degradation during processing or storage and also providing water solubility, which increases its use in different food matrices (Lobato *et al.*, 2013; Dos Santos *et al.*, 2015; Da Silva *et al.*, 2016). The nanoencapsulation technique can provide controlled release during storage, which depends on the nature of the polymer, type of core used and pH, however, it can offer a better effect controlled over time about oxidant agents (Friedrich *et al.*, 2015; Pinheiro *et al.*, 2015; Campos *et al.*, 2016; De Souza *et al.*, 2016).

In this context, lycopene can represent an excellent natural antioxidant compound for addition to biodegradable films and nanoencapsulation may be a promising technique for increasing the solubility of the carotenoid, and provides better stability compared to several factors. As there are not work yet with added lycopene nanocapsules in biodegradable films, the objective of this work was to develop biodegradable cassava starch films with antioxidant activity by the addition of free lycopene or lycopene nanocapsules and evaluate the effect of the addition of this natural antioxidant in the physical, mechanical and films barrier properties.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Materials

Cassava starch (Yoki Alimentos, São Paulo, Brazil) was used as basis for the development of biodegradable films and glycerol (Merk, Brazil) was used as a plasticizer. Tomatoes and sunflower oil (Cargill Agrícola SA, Brazil) were obtained from a local market in Porto Alegre, Brazil. To obtain the lycopene nanocapsules the polymer poly ϵ -caprolactone (PCL) and sorbitan monostearate were obtained from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, USA), capric/caprylic triglycerides (CCTs) and polysorbate 80 were obtained from Delaware (Porto Alegre, Brazil). All other chemicals and solvents were of analytic or pharmaceutical grade.

2.2 Lycopene Nanocapsules

The lycopene nanocapsules were obtained according to the technique described by Dos Santos et al. (2015), by interfacial deposition of preformed polymers. To obtain the organic phase were used PCL (200 mg), capric/caprylic triglyceride (300 μ L), sorbitan monostearate (76 mg), subjected to magnetic stirring at 40 °C in a mixture of acetone (40 mL) and ethanol (6 mL). After solubilization, lycopene extract was added and the solution was kept under magnetic stirring for 10 min (40 °C). The organic phase was injected into the aqueous phase (106 mL) containing polysorbate 80 (154 mg), which was subjected to stirring for 10 min. The solution was concentrated under reduced pressure to a final volume of 20 mL. The lycopene nanocapsules have concentration of 85 μ g/mL, with an average diameter of 193 nm.

2.3 Film preparation

The films were developed in accordance with the casting technique by cassava starch gelatinization. The filmogenic solution was prepared with 4 % cassava starch in distilled water (4 g 100g⁻¹ solution). The solution of cassava starch was gelatinized at 80 °C for 20 minutes with constant stirring in a water bath and glycerol was then added at a concentration of 0.25 g g⁻¹ starch. The free lycopene and lycopene nanocapsules were at concentrations of 2 %, 5 % and 8 % (w/w) in the filmogenic solution at 35 °C, respectively. The suspension was poured in polystyrene petri dishes (0.39 g cm⁻²) and dried in an oven with forced air circulation (DeLeo B5AFD) at 35 °C for 20 h. After drying, the films were stored (48 h) in a

controlled relative humidity of 58 % and at room temperature (25 °C). Cassava starch film (CSF) without added free lycopene or lycopene nanocapsules and commercial polyethylene film (LDPE) were used as standard film.

2.4 Thickness and mechanical properties of the films

Thickness of the films was evaluated using a digital micrometer (Digimes, IP40, Brazil), with precision 0.001 mm and resolution 0 mm - 25 mm. Five measurements were randomly taken at different locations for each specimen and the mean value was used. Mechanical properties were measured according to standard method ASTM D882-12, using a texture analyzer (Stable Micro Systems, TA.XT2i, United Kingdom) with a load cell of 5 kg. The films were cut into strips (80 mm x 25 mm) and each one was mounted between the grips of the equipment for testing with initial separation of 50 mm and test speed at 0.8 mm s⁻¹. Ten strips of each formulation were used to determine the tensile strength (TS, MPa) and elongation at break (E, %).

2.5 Water vapor permeability (WVP)

The water vapor permeability (WVP) of the films was determined gravimetrically at 25 ° C according to the method ASTM 96-05 with some modifications (Pagno *et al.*, 2015). The films were fixed in aluminum permeation cell (inner diameter: 63 mm, height: 25 mm), previously filled with anhydrous calcium chloride (0% RH) and hermetically sealed. The system was stored in at 25 °C in a glass chamber containing saturated sodium chloride solution to obtain a relative humidity gradient of 0 %/75 %. The weight gain of the capsules was monitored after 24 h and water vapor permeability was calculated on the basis of equation:

$$WVP = \frac{w \cdot L}{A \cdot t \cdot \Delta p}$$

where w is the weight of water permeated through the film (g), L is the thickness of the film (mm), A is the permeation area (m²), t is the time of permeation (h), and Δp the water vapor pressure difference between the two sides of the film (KPa).

2.6 Moisture and solubility in water

The moisture content and water solubility of the films were determined according to the method described by Gontard *et al.* (1992), with some modifications. To determine the moisture content of the samples were cut into discs with 2 cm diameter, weighed and subjected to drying at 105 °C for 24h (DeLeo, TLK48, Brazil). After drying, the samples were weighed and immersed in 30 mL of distilled water and the whole was subjected to mechanical stirring at 25 °C for 24 h (Nova tecnica, NT145, Brazil). After this period, the samples not solubilized were subjected to drying at 105 °C for 24h. The water solubility of the films was obtained from the equation:

$$S(\%) = \left(\frac{W_i - W_f}{W_i} \right) \times 100$$

where W_i is the initial dry weight of the sample (g), and W_f is the final dry weight (g).

2.7 Color

Films color was evaluated using a Minolta colorimeter (model CR-300; Minolta, Japan) according to CIELab scale, L^* (luminosity), a^* (red-green) and b^* (yellow-blue). The colorimeter was calibrated using the white plate as standard ($L_0^*97.45$, $a_0^*0.13$ and $b_0^* 1.70$) and the color difference (ΔE^*) was determined by means of Equation:

$$\Delta E^* = [(L^* - L_0^*)^2 + (a^* - a_0^*)^2 + (b^* - b_0^*)^2]^{1/2}$$

2.8 Light transmission and Opacity

UV-visible light transmission of the films, 200 nm to 800 nm, was measured with spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, UV-1800, Japan) according to the method of Fang *et al.* (2002). The opacity was measuring the film absorbance at 600nm, calculated as:

$$T = \frac{Abs_{600}}{x}$$

where T is the transparency, Abs_{600} is the value of absorbance at 600 nm and x is the film thickness (mm) (Park *et al.*, 2004).

2.9 Morphological properties

The film samples were fixed on aluminum stubs by a double sided conducting tape, coated with a thin layer of gold (Iahnke *et al.*, 2015). The microstructure and morphology of the surfaces of the films was observed on a Scanning Electron Microscope (JEOL, JSM 6060, Japan) with an accelerating voltage of 5 kV and a magnification of 500× and 1000×.

2.10 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

Thermogravimetric analysis was performed using Shimadzu Instrument model TGA-50. Film samples of 4-5 mg were heated from room temperature to 800 °C, at a rate of 10 °C/min under nitrogen flow.

2.11 Oxidative stability of sunflower oil

The oxidative stability of sunflower oil was used to determine the antioxidant effect of films added of 5 % of free lycopene and lycopene nanocapsules according to the method of Colín-Chávez *et al.* (2013). The films were cut into rectangles (110 mm x 60 mm), sealed (Fastvac, F 200 Flash, Brazil) the sides forming bags, 15 mL of sunflower oil was transferred into the packaging and the film was sealed on top. Sunflower oil samples were packaged in cassava starch films with 5 % lycopene extract (L5%) and cassava starch films with 5 % lycopene nanocapsules (LN5%). As controls, sunflower oil was also packaged in cassava starch films without antioxidant (CSF), low density polyethylene films (LDPE), closed plastic bottles (CP) and placed in a petri dish (WA). All samples were stored in a chamber (Tecnal, TE-402, Brazil) under the incidence of light with an intensity of 900-1000 lux (Luxometer VA Instrument, MS6610, China), at 30 °C and relative humidity of about 70 %. The samples were collected after 3, 6, 9, 12, 19 and 30 days storage for the determination of peroxide value (PV) (IUPAC, 1987), conjugated dienes and trienes (European Regulation EC2568/91).

2.12 Biodegradability of the films

Film samples with 5 % free lycopene and lycopene nanocapsules were cut into rectangles (2 cm × 3 cm) and dried until constant weight. The samples were placed in an aluminum mesh (4 cm × 4 cm), added in plastic boxes (6 cm x 6 cm x 6.5 cm) and covered with natural organic soil (4 cm from the surface). The experiment was carried out for 15 days with relative humidity of about 40 % (Martucci e Ruseckaite, 2009). Biodegradability of the films was determined by the following equation:

$$WL(\%) = \left[\frac{m_t - m_0}{m_0} \right] \times 100$$

where m_0 is the initial mass and m_t the remaining dried mass at time t .

2.13 Statistical analyses

The results were evaluated by analysis of the variance (ANOVA) and Tukey test at a significance level of 5% using the software Statistica 12.0 (Statsoft Inc., USA).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Thickness and Mechanical Properties

Active biodegradable cassava starch films added 2 %, 5 % and 8 % of free lycopene (L2%, L5% and L8%) or lycopene nanocapsules (LN2%, LN5% and LN8%) are showed in Figure 1.

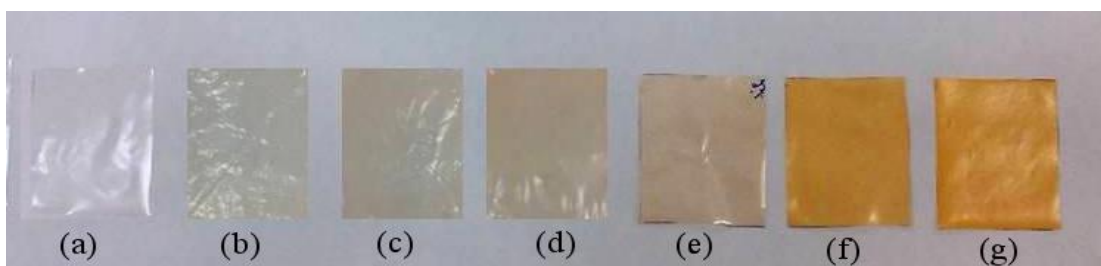


Fig. 1. Biodegradable cassava starch films added lycopene extract or lycopene nanocapsules: CSF (a), L2% (b), L5% (c), L8% (d), LN2% (e), LN5% (f) and LN8% (g).

The thickness of the films ranged from 0.119 mm to 0.152 mm, with significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the formulations (Table 1). Increasing the concentration of

lycopene nanocapsules led to increased thickness of the films, attributed to increased solids content added to the polymer matrix.

Table 1. Thickness, Tensile strength (TS) and Elongation at break (E) of films added lycopene extract and lycopene nanocapsules.

Sample	Thickness (mm)	TS (MPa)	E (%)
LPDE	0,045 ± 0,0006 ^d	18.13 ± 0.06 ^a	399.92 ± 0.05 ^a
CSF	0.123 ± 0.0047 ^c	3.09 ± 0.10 ^b	134.59 ± 2.69 ^e
L2%	0.120 ± 0.0085 ^c	2.48 ± 0.11 ^d	72.73 ± 0.88 ^f
L5%	0.121 ± 0.0080 ^c	2.43 ± 0.18 ^d	62.60 ± 0.41 ^g
L8%	0.119 ± 0.0036 ^c	2.60 ± 0.02 ^d	61.27 ± 1.40 ^g
LN2%	0.134 ± 0.0032 ^{bc}	2.81 ± 0.06 ^c	233.13 ± 1.07 ^b
LN5%	0.143 ± 0.0070 ^{ab}	2.92 ± 0.07 ^c	190.73 ± 0.96 ^c
LN8%	0.152 ± 0.0060 ^a	2.66 ± 0.04 ^d	166.03 ± 0.93 ^d

Values are represented as mean ± standard deviation. Different letters within the same column indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

LDPE: low density polyethylene films; CSF: cassava starch films; L2%: films with 2% free lycopene; L5%: films with 5% free lycopene; L8%: films with 8% free lycopene; LN2%: films with 2% lycopene nanocapsules; LN5%: films with 5% lycopene nanocapsules; LN8%: films with 8% lycopene nanocapsules.

A similar effect was observed by Noronha *et al.* (2014), where the addition of α -tocopherol nanocapsules increased thickness of methylcellulose films, ranging between 0.03900 mm and 0.06087 mm, for the control film and film with higher concentration of nanocapsules (70 %), respectively.

The addition of antioxidant additives in the development of biodegradable film can modify the structure of the polymer matrix. Control film showed higher TS and E values, when compared to films with free lycopene. Increasing the concentration of free lycopene significantly decreases the TS and E values ($p < 0.05$), with 3.09 ± 0.10 MPa and 134.59 ± 2.69 % to 2.60 ± 0.02 MPa and 61.27 ± 1.40 %, for the control films and the sample with high free lycopene concentration (8 %), respectively.

In the development of chitosan-based films added α -tocopherol was observed a reduction in E and TS increasing addition of the antioxidant, effect similar to that found in this study (Martins *et al.*, 2012). The addition of a hydrophobic compound, such as carotenoid, in a hydrophilic matrix can modify the interaction between the chains of the polymer matrix, which decreases the polymer-polymer interaction and promotes the formation

of discontinuities in the structure, reducing the tensile strength and elasticity of the films (Figure 2d) (Martins *et al.*, 2012; Shen e Kamdem, 2015).

The films added lycopene nanocapsules showed higher E compared to control films and films with added lycopene extract ($p < 0.05$). The addition of lycopene nanocapsules increase E (%) probably due to the presence of surfactant in its composition, which can act with glycerol as a plasticizer, decreasing the interaction between the polymer chains and increasing the elasticity of the films. Similar behavior was observed by Noronha *et al.* (2014), where the addition of nanocapsules of α -tocopherol in the development of methylcellulose antioxidant films provided higher elongation at break with increasing concentration of nanocapsules, with greater elasticity to the addition of 70 % (30.03 ± 1.94 %).

The increased concentration of nanocapsules increase the E of the films, however, the addition of 2 % showed a higher E when compared with addition of 5 % and 8 % ($p < 0.05$). This can be explained by scanning electron microscopy, in which the addition of nanocapsules may confer greater compatibility with the matrix as compared to the free antioxidant (Figure 2e-f). Addition of higher concentration can decrease the miscibility of the nanocapsules in the polymeric matrix, because they are added after the process of gelatinization, which increase the competition for water molecules that are already bound to the starch, consequently lower miscibility and the formation of a more porous structure with lower elongation at break.

3.2 Water vapor permeability (WVP), Moisture Content (MC) and Water Solubility (WS).

The water vapor permeability (WVP), moisture content (MC) and water solubility of the biodegradable films and commercial film low density polyethylene are shown in Table 2. The film LDPE had the lowest permeability to water vapor compared to the biodegradable film, with permeability of 0.01 ± 0.00 g mm m⁻² h⁻¹ kPa⁻¹. The permeability of the biodegradable films ranges from 0.28 ± 0.02 g mm m⁻² h⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ to 0.55 ± 0.04 g mm m⁻² h⁻¹ kPa⁻¹. Addition of 2 % and 5 % free lycopene did not affect the permeability to water vapor compared to the control film (CSF), however, the higher concentration of antioxidant (L8%) led to decreased when compared with film CSF and nanocapsules films ($p < 0.05$).

Table 2. Water vapor permeability (WVP), Moisture content (MC) and Water solubility (WS) of films added lycopene extract and lycopene nanocapsules.

Sample	WVP (g mm m ⁻² h ⁻¹ kPa ⁻¹)	MC (%)	WS (%)
LDPE	0.01±0.00 ^d	-	-
CSF	0.36±0.05 ^b	11.50 ± 0.70 ^{bc}	17.88± 0.16 ^{bc}
L2%	0.33±0.01 ^{bc}	12.45 ± 0.16 ^{ab}	17.48 ± 1.44 ^{bc}
L5%	0.31±0.03 ^{bc}	10.68 ± 0.09 ^c	15.18 ± 1.41 ^c
L8%	0.28±0.02 ^c	11.16 ± 0.67 ^c	16.57 ± 0.76 ^c
LN2%	0.57±0.02 ^a	13.03 ± 0.52 ^a	22.45 ± 0.90 ^a
LN5%	0.55±0.04 ^a	13.46 ± 0.24 ^a	20.35 ± 0.56 ^{ab}
LN8%	0.55±0.03 ^a	12.66 ± 0.35 ^{ab}	18.16 ± 0.81 ^{bc}

Values are represented as mean ± standard deviation. Different letters within the same column indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

LDPE: low density polyethylene films; CSF: cassava starch films; L2%: films with 2% free lycopene; L5%: films with 5% free lycopene; L8%: films with 8% free lycopene; LN2%: films with 2% lycopene nanocapsules; LN5%: films with 5% lycopene nanocapsules; LN8%: films with 8% lycopene nanocapsules.

The decrease in permeability to water vapor in films at addition 8% of free lycopene can be related to your hydrophobic character, which reduces its interaction with the water molecules and lead to formation of discontinuities of the matrix (Figure 2d), leading to decrease in permeability to water vapor and elongation of the films. Shen e Kamdem (2015) observed that the permeability to water vapor of chitosan film was affected significantly ($p < 0.05$) by the addition of citronella essential oil or cedarwood essential oil. The reduction in permeability is related to the lowest interaction of hydrophobic compounds to form hydrophilic bonds, leading to formation of discontinuities in the polymeric matrix with a lower mass transfer rate.

The addition of green tea extract on chitosan films resulted in a decrease of the permeability to water vapor, where the highest concentration (20 %) showed a lower permeation rate when compared to the control film, decreased of 0.256 ± 0.023 g mm m⁻² d⁻¹ kPa⁻¹ to 0.087 ± 0.012 g mm m⁻² d⁻¹ kPa⁻¹. The lower permeability is due to the interaction of hydrogen from chitosan and polyphenolic compounds, which reduced the availability of groups to form hydrogen bond with water molecules and led to obtain films with lower affinity for water (Siripatrawan e Harte, 2010).

The use of lycopene nanocapsules aims to assist their use in different food matrices, promoting the solubility of hydrophobic compounds in hydrophilic matrices and increased stability during storage (Dos Santos *et al.*, 2015). Addition of lycopene nanocapsules led to significant increase in the permeability of the films relative to the control film and films added lycopene extract, however showed no difference between films with different concentrations of nanocapsules. In study of Pagno *et al.* (2016) it was observed the addition of bixin nanocapsules in cassava starch films led to increased permeability to water vapor ($p < 0.05$), of $0.207 \pm 0.014 \text{ g mm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1} \text{ kPa}^{-1}$ to $0.273 \pm 0.018 \text{ g mm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1} \text{ kPa}^{-1}$, for the film control and film with addition of 10 % nanocapsules. The increased permeability is related to the presence of cracks in the films, where the addition of 8 % and 10 % showed higher amount of surface crack.

The increase in permeability may result from lower miscibility of the nanocapsules in the matrix after the gelatinization process, which induces the formation of a less compact structure, with higher thickness and the presence of pores (Figure 2), which may facilitate mass transfer through the film.

The moisture content of the films ranged from $10.68 \pm 0.09 \%$ to $13.46 \pm 0.24 \%$, in which the films added of lycopene nanocapsules had higher moisture content when compared to films with free lycopene and film control. Another factor that may influence the increase in permeability is the moisture content of the films, in which the lycopene nanocapsules have a higher affinity for water and led to obtain films with a higher moisture content, which may result in increasing the permeability to water vapor.

The solubility of the films ranges from $15.18 \pm 1.41 \%$ to $22.45 \pm 0.90 \%$, which in addition to free lycopene showed no significant difference when compared to the film control. The films LN2% and LN5% showed higher solubility of $22.45 \pm 0.90 \%$ to $20.35 \pm 0.56\%$, respectively. However, the film with the highest concentration of lycopene nanocapsules (LN8%) showed solubility similar to films with added lycopene extract and film control, no significant difference between them.

Behavior similar to that observed by Pagno *et al.* (2016), where the addition of bixin nanocapsules in cassava starch films led to a decrease in solubility of the films, in which the film control showed solubility of $20.35 \pm 0.56 \%$ and films added 8 % and 10 % of bixin nanocapsules had solubility of $18.93 \pm 0.71 \%$ e $16.44 \pm 1.28 \%$, respectively. The decrease in the solubility of the films may also be related to the presence of PCL in the nanocapsules, since this polymer can reduce the water absorption capacity and consequently the water solubility of the films (Ortega-Toro *et al.*, 2015a; Ortega-Toro *et al.*, 2015b).

3.3 Color parameters

Addition of lycopene extract or lycopene nanocapsules led to a change in color of the films, with decreasing L^* and an increase in a^* and b^* according to the concentration of added antioxidant (Table 3).

Table 3. Color of biodegradable cassava starch films containing different concentrations of lycopene extract or lycopene nanocapsules.

Sample	Color Parameters			
	L^*	a^*	b^*	ΔE^*
LPDE	96.77±0.15 ^a	0.01±0.00 ^g	1.52±0.01 ^h	0.61±0.02 ^h
CSF	96.70±0.07 ^a	0.02±0.01 ^g	2.43±0.04 ^g	1.07±0.02 ^g
L2%	96.34±0.09 ^a	0.26±0.01 ^f	3.67±0.06 ^f	2.24±0.04 ^f
L5%	95.62±0.29 ^b	0.98±0.08 ^e	4.60±0.02 ^e	3.46±0.11 ^e
L8%	94.27±0.09 ^c	2.28±0.11 ^d	7.51±0.15 ^d	6.85±0.15 ^d
LN2%	92.68±0.09 ^d	3.37±0.06 ^c	16.74±0.36 ^c	16.35±0.18 ^c
LN5%	90.60±0.31 ^e	5.64±0.08 ^b	28.40±2.13 ^b	26.91±0.37 ^b
LN8%	87.99±0.20 ^f	10.52±0.16 ^a	43.89±0.63 ^a	44.47±0.64 ^a

Values are represented as mean ± standard deviation. Different letters within the same column indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

LDPE: low density polyethylene films; CSF: cassava starch films; L2%: films with 2% free lycopene; L5%: films with 5% free lycopene; L8%: films with 8% free lycopene; LN2%: films with 2% lycopene nanocapsules; LN5%: films with 5% lycopene nanocapsules; LN8%: films with 8% lycopene nanocapsules.

The films LDPE, CSF and L2% showed no significant difference between them to the L^* parameter, however, the addition of higher concentrations of extract or lycopene nanocapsules led to a decrease in this parameter ($p < 0.05$), indicating that the films were darker (Figure 1). The addition of the antioxidant led to a significant increase of the parameters a^* and b^* ($p < 0.05$), where positive a^* values indicate the red region and positive b^* values indicate the yellow region, color feature that the carotenoids are able to confer. The films added lycopene nanocapsules showed lower L^* values and higher values of a^* and b^* as compared to other films ($p < 0.05$), change due to the orange color of the nanocapsules, presenting the parameters $L^* = 54.22 \pm 2.33$, $a^* = 14.16 \pm 0.28$ e $b^* = 41.06 \pm 1.93$ which is also due to the presence of polymer composition, which confers solution turbidity (Dos Santos *et al.*, 2015).

Pagno *et al.* (2016) observed that the addition of bixin nanocapsules in cassava starch films led to decreased L^* and increased a^* and b^* ($p < 0.05$), where the addition of 10% showed the highest parameters ($L^* = 93.45 \pm 0.1$, $a^* = 0.5 \pm 0.0$ and $b^* = 25.7 \pm 0.0$) when compared to the control film ($L^* = 95.4 \pm 0.1$, $a^* = 0.1 \pm 0.0$ $b^* = 2.47 \pm 0.0$). Due to lower brightness and yellow color of the nanocapsules, the films showed yellow with increase in ΔE^* about the film control, 1.7 ± 0.0 and 4131.6 ± 10.1 respectively, similar behavior to that found in this study (Pagno *et al.*, 2016). With increasing concentration of added antioxidant had an increase of ΔE^* , in which films CSF and LDPE showed lower value of this parameter. The increase of the parameters a^* , b^* and ΔE^* led to obtain more color film, in which the film LN8% showed higher intensity color (Figure 1).

3.4 Light transmission and Opacity

The films showed different behavior when subjected to UV and visible light transmission analysis at different wavelengths, from 200 nm to 800 nm (Table 4). The CSF and LDPE films had lower barrier to light transmission in UV (200 nm to 400 nm) and visible regions (500 nm to 800 nm) when compared with films added of the antioxidant.

Addition of free lycopene or nanocapsules led to a significant decrease in light transmission through the films, in which higher concentrations showed a lower transmission at both wavelengths. However, films added of nanocapsules had a lower light transmission compared with the other films. The lower light transmission is due to gradual color change of the films by addition of the carotenoid (Figure 1), which led to obtaining darker films due to luminosity reduction (Table 3).

Table 4. Light transmission (%) and Opacity ($A \cdot mm^{-1}$) of biodegradable cassava starch films added with different concentrations of lycopene extract (L) or lycopene nanocapsules (LN).

Sample	Light transmission (%) at different wavelengths (nm)									Opacity ($A \cdot mm^{-1}$)
	200	280	300	350	400	500	600	700	800	
LDPE	5.19	67.41	70.31	74.36	77.21	81.29	83.75	85.38	86.56	0.33 ± 0.02^f
CSF	2.46	65.38	74.89	79.52	82.82	84.94	85.85	86.31	86.64	0.40 ± 0.02^e
L2%	1.99	58.78	67.23	73.15	78.19	81.48	83.81	84.97	85.62	0.47 ± 0.03^e
L5%	1.68	54.42	61.07	69.61	76.19	79.77	82.50	84.48	85.26	0.56 ± 0.03^d
L8%	0.87	46.00	51.52	61.64	70.28	75.53	80.07	83.13	84.09	0.59 ± 0.01^d
LN2%	0.35	31.74	38.80	47.91	54.99	58.09	72.34	75.54	77.63	0.93 ± 0.05^c
LN5%	0.07	16.45	21.83	31.51	38.98	46.37	64.78	70.00	73.58	1.22 ± 0.03^b
LN8%	0.01	5.77	8.23	14.58	20.60	27.55	51.71	59.26	64.67	1.89 ± 0.09^a

Values are represented as mean \pm standard deviation. Different letters within the same column indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

LDPE: low density polyethylene films; CSF: cassava starch films; L2%: films with 2% free lycopene; L5%: films with 5% free lycopene; L8%: films with 8% free lycopene; LN2%: films with 2% lycopene nanocapsules; LN5%: films with 5% lycopene nanocapsules; LN8%: films with 8% lycopene nanocapsules.

A similar result was observed in the work of Sartori and Menegalli (2016) in green banana starch films added of solid lipidic microparticles containing ascorbic acid, since the addition provided higher barrier to light transmission. The film without addition of additives or film containing non-encapsulated ascorbic acid, as well as the commercial polyethylene film showed a higher light transmission at 400 nm compared to films added of microparticles, with transmission of 35 %, 25 % and 70 %, respectively.

The addition of α -tocopherol nanocapsules provided better barrier to light transmission methylcellulose films, the higher concentration (70 %) had a lower light transmission of 6.77 ± 0.06 % at 500 nm and 0.73 ± 0.06 % to 210 nm, compared to the methylcellulose film without addition of nanocapsules, of 61.70 ± 2.45 % at 500 nm and 35.47 ± 1.51 % at 210 nm (Noronha et al., 2014). A similar effect found for the addition of lycopene nanocapsules, which promoted lower light transmission at 200 nm and 500 nm.

A decrease in lightness (Table 3), a gradual increase in color (Figure 1) and the lower light transmission of the film contributed to obtain darker films, with greater opacity ($p < 0.05$), that is, films with less transparency. The films LDPE and CSF showed a lower opacity when compared to films added lycopene extract or nanocapsules, $0.40 \pm 0.04 A \cdot mm^{-1}$ and $0.33 \pm 0.02 A \cdot mm^{-1}$, respectively.

The addition of free lycopene or lycopene nanocapsules led to a gradual increase in the opacity of films, in which the films added lycopene nanocapsules had higher opacity compared to films with added free lycopene ($p < 0.05$), where the film LN8% showed higher value ($1.89 \pm 0.09 \text{ A.mm}^{-1}$). Addition of free lycopene or lycopene nanocapsules in biodegradable films may have great importance in the use as food packaging with good barrier to UV light and better stability to lipid oxidation induced by photo oxidation or the antioxidant effect of the additive added (Martins *et al.*, 2012; Noronha *et al.*, 2014; Sartori e Menegalli, 2016).

From the better results cassava starch films (CSF), film with 5 % free lycopene (L5%) and film with 5 % lycopene nanocapsules (LN5%) were selected to be analyzed as to their morphological, thermal and antioxidant properties and biodegradability

3.5 Morphological properties

The scanning electron microscopy of the surface and cross-section of the films CSF, L5% and LN5% are shown in Figure 2.

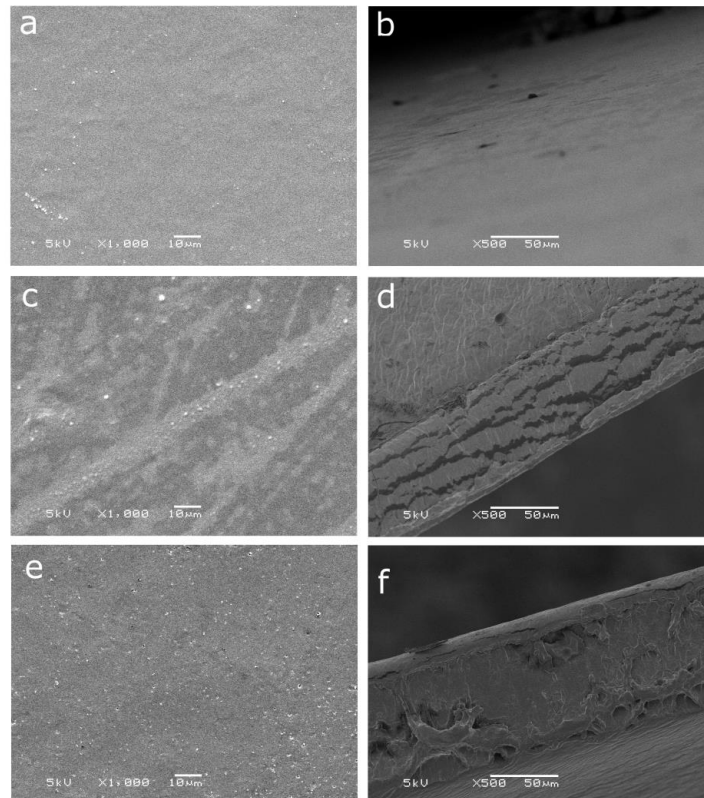


Fig. 2. Scanning electron microscopy of the films: a) CSF surface; b) CSF cross-section; c) Film L5% surface; d) Film L5% cross-section; e) Film LN5% surface; f) Film LN5% cross-section.

The CSF had uniform and compact surface and cross section, which indicates good homogeneity of the matrix and obtaining the film. Addition of lycopene, of hydrophobic character, led to obtain films with rough surfaces and discontinuities in its structure (Figure 2d), due to the reduced interaction of the added antioxidant and the chains of the polymer matrix. The high presence of discontinuities of the cross section justified the decrease in elasticity of the films, where the highest concentrations showed lower value of this parameter when compared to other films.

As previously mentioned, the addition of lycopene nanocapsules provided the addition of a compound in a hydrophilic matrix, but higher concentrations leads obtained of films with greater porosity and lower uniformity of the cross section, justified by lower miscibility and higher competition for water molecules already bound to the starch during the process of gelatinization. A similar effect was observed on addition of nanocapsules of α -tocopherol in methylcellulose films, with decreased miscibility of nanocapsules in the matrix and to obtain films with surface with greater porosity and less compact structure compared to the methylcellulose film without addition of additive (Noronha et al., 2014).

3.6 Thermogravimetric analysis

The thermogravimetric analysis of the films control, film with 5 % lycopene extract and film with 5 % lycopene nanocapsules are shown in the Figure 3.

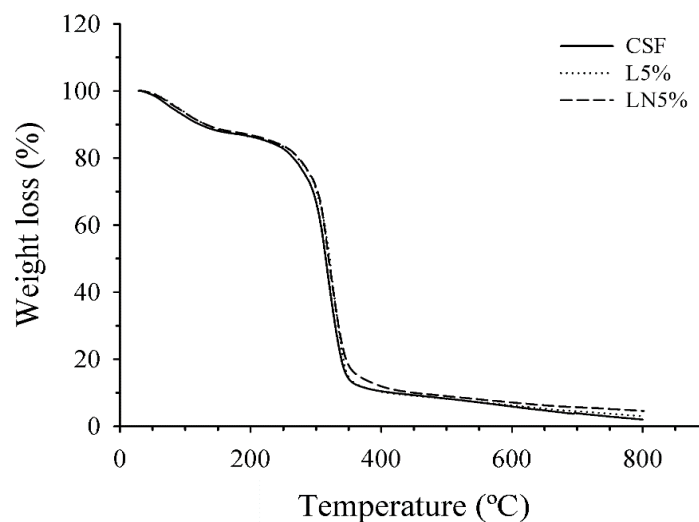


Fig. 3. TGA of the films control, film with 5 % lycopene extract and film with 5 % lycopene nanocapsules.

The TGA shows the weight loss of biodegradable films during heating. Independent from the form of the antioxidant added, free or nanocapsules, the films showed similar behavior when compared to the control film, with three weight loss stages, as described in the literature. The first stage, at a temperature between 100 °C and 150 °C, corresponding to loss of residual moisture (11 %) present in the film after the process of obtaining. The second weight loss stage (16 % - 17 %) occurred in the temperature range between 250 °C and 350 °C, with decomposition of the starch, loss of low molecular weight fraction or water that is bound to the polymer matrix (Pelissari *et al.*, 2009; Shen e Kamdem, 2015). The third stage was from 350 °C, with residual mass of approximately 6 % for film CSF and film L5% and 7 % for films LN5%. This result can be related to presence of high molecular weight polymers present in the nanocapsules (Reis *et al.*, 2015; Pagno *et al.*, 2016).

3.7 Oxidative stability of sunflower oil

Oxidation is primarily responsible for the deterioration of foods rich in lipids, resulting in changes in color, taste, aroma and consistency. The effect of biodegradable films on the stability of sunflower oil stored under accelerated condition oxidation is shown in Figure 4. Sunflower oil presented specific period of induction for each package indicating the protector character according to the rate of reaction in the formation of peroxides. Biodegradable films showed better barrier to oxidation compared to the controls used, however, the L5% and LN5% showed lower induction period. There was an increase in PV during the 30 days of storage, 2.22 ± 0.13 mEq/kg to 274.97 ± 0.45 mEq/kg, with a significant difference between all packaging ($p < 0.05$).

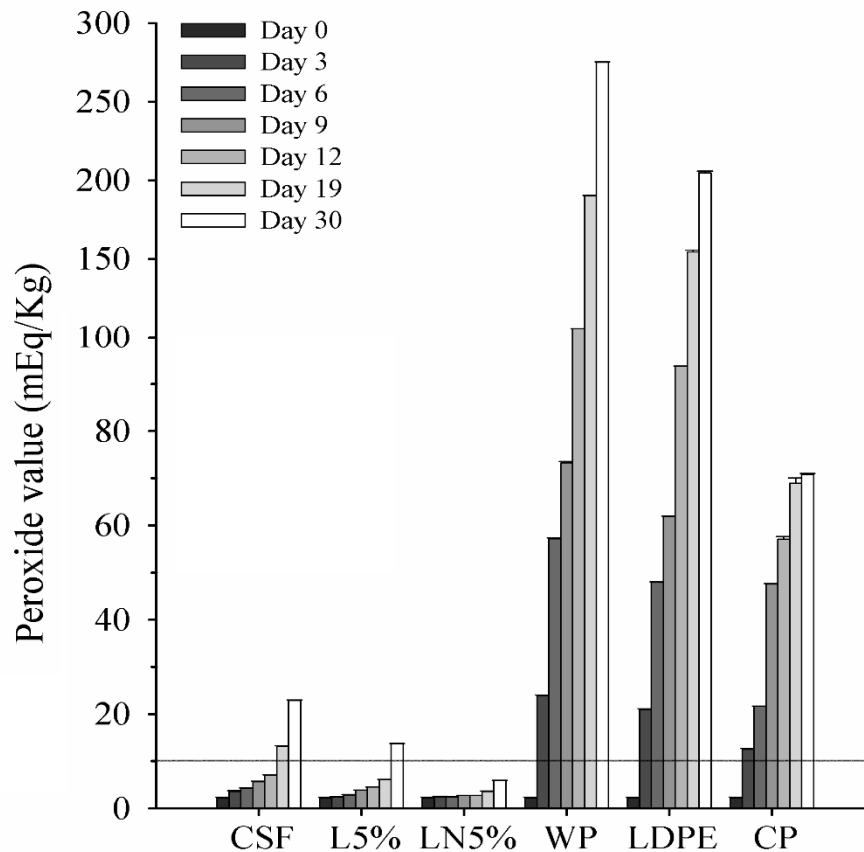


Fig. 4. Peroxide value of sunflower oil stored in cassava starch film (CSF), cassava starch film with 5 % lycopene extract (L5%) and 5 % of lycopene nanocapsules (LN5%), low density polyethylene (LDPE), closed pot (CP) and without packaging (WP).

The oil stored in LDPE, CP and WP in the third day of storage presented PV near or higher than determined by the *Codex Alimentarius*, which sets a maximum level of 10 mEq/kg for vegetable oil. As expected, sunflower oil stored in WP showed higher PV (274.97 ± 0.45 mEq/kg) compared to biodegradable films, LDPE and CP after the storage period ($p < 0.05$). When compared with biodegradable films, sunflower oil stored in LDPE and CP showed higher PV of 204.83 ± 0.96 mEq/kg and 70.81 ± 0.15 meq/kg, respectively. The cassava starch film without addition of lycopene showed higher protective effect against oxidation compared to LDPE, with content of 22.91 ± 0.09 mEq/kg at the end of storage. Similar results were found for palm oil storage cassava starch films for 45 days or 90 days at 30 °C, showing a higher barrier to oxidation and oil stability during storage (Souza *et al.*, 2011; Reis *et al.*, 2015).

During storage sunflower oil showed higher stability when stored in biodegradable films L5% and LN5%, with PV end of 13.76 ± 0.30 mEq/kg and 5.97 ± 0.02 mEq/kg, respectively. However, LN5% showed higher barrier to oxidation compared to all packaging

($p < 0.5$), with peroxide value inside the limit for vegetable oil (Codex Alimentarius, 1999). This result may be associated with a lower transmission UV-VIS light and opacity of the films (Table 4) as well as the antioxidant effect of lycopene, which has a high antioxidant activity by its structure is composed of 12 conjugated double bonds.

The addition of antioxidants in the development of biodegradable films can contribute to a lower transmission UV light, making the films as good barrier to oxidation induced by UV radiation (Martins *et al.*, 2012; Noronha *et al.*, 2014). The addition yerba mate extract and mango pulp in the development of cassava starch films for storage the palm oil stability, Reis *et al.* (2015) observed a dependent protective effect of concentration of the additives used. However, palm oil stored in the film added yerba mate extract only showed lower PV (10.56 mEq/kg) compared to the film with the addition of mango pulp (11.09 mEq/kg). Effects similar to this study, in which films with added antioxidants had high barrier to oxidation compared to other packaging.

The addition of bixin nanocapsules in cassava starch films provided greater protection to oxidation storage sunflower oil under accelerated condition of oxidation. The oil stored in the cassava starch film without antioxidant showed greater stability in relation to the oil stored without any packaging or stored in a closed pot, however, the films with the addition of 2 %, 5 % and 8 % of bixin nanocapsules had PV at the end of 13 days of storage inside the limit set by the *Codex Alimentarius*. Behavior similar to that found in this study, however the film with addition of 10 % nanocapsules presented PV above the established limit, result of the presence of cracks on the surface of the films that can assist contact with oxygen and accelerate the oxidation process (Pagno *et al.*, 2016).

The addition of natural antioxidants or compounds that have these substances in its composition, can contribute to the development of biodegradable packaging with antioxidant activity, assisting in the maintenance and quality of food with a high content of lipids during storage, as the addition of carrot residues minimally processed in the development of gelatin films on sunflower oil stability (Iahnke *et al.*, 2015), palm oil stability stored in cassava starch films added of mango pulp acerola (Souza *et al.*, 2011) and adding plant extracts cellulose films on soybean oil stability (Phoopuritham *et al.*, 2012).

The sunflower oil stability was also analyzed by the determination of conjugated dienes (CD) and conjugated trienes (CT), compounds showing absorptivity at wavelengths of 232 nm and 268 nm due to formation of primer compounds and secondary oxidation, respectively. The CD and CT index are shown in Figure 5.

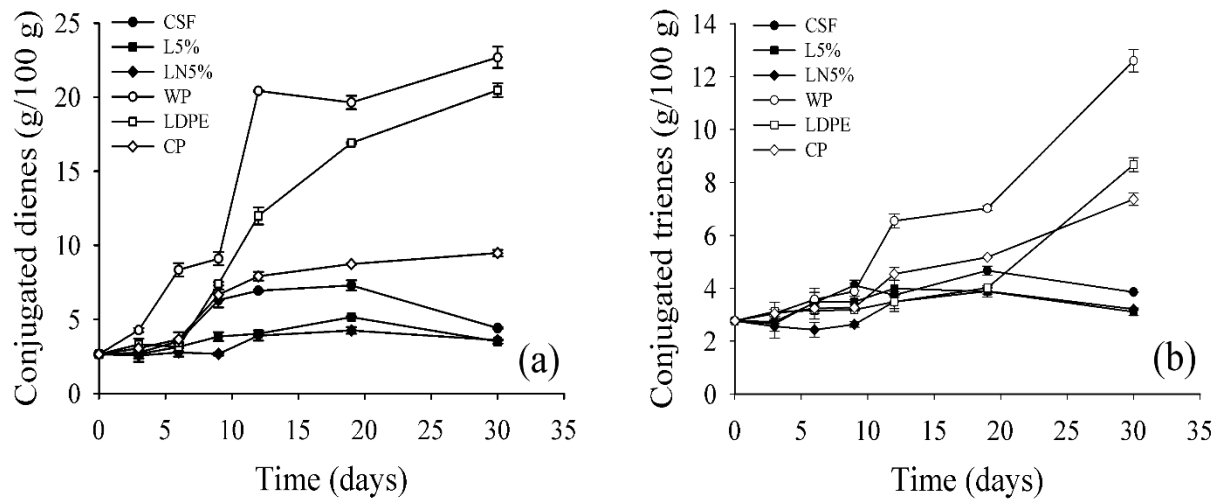


Fig. 5. Conjugated dienes (a) and conjugated trienes (b) of sunflower oil stored in cassava starch film (CSF), cassava starch film with 5% free lycopene (L5%) and 5% of lycopene nanocapsules (LN5%), low density polyethylene (LDPE), closed pot (CP) and without packaging (WP).

There was an increase in CD and CT during the storage period, with significant differences between all samples ($p < 0.05$). CD indices and CT showed behavior similar to PV, where the sunflower oil stored without packaging (WP) showed the highest levels at the end of the study, of 22.68 ± 0.72 meq/kg, 12.60 ± 0.42 meq/kg and 274.97 ± 0.45 meq/kg, respectively. The biodegradable films showed lower rates CD and CT, where CSF film showed less formation of primary and secondary oxidation compounds when compared to LDPE, but the film LN5% had less formation and greater oil stability.

3.8 Biodegradability of the films

The biodegradable films CSF, L5% and LN5% were submitted to biodegradability analysis, where Fig 3 shows the biodegradability rate over 15 days. The biodegradable analysis of the films in a composite soil seeks to play a process of degradation in natural environments, where the soil is generally comprised of microflora consists of bacteria, actinomycetes, fungi and protozoa which act in synergy in the biodegradability process (Martucci e Ruseckaite, 2009).

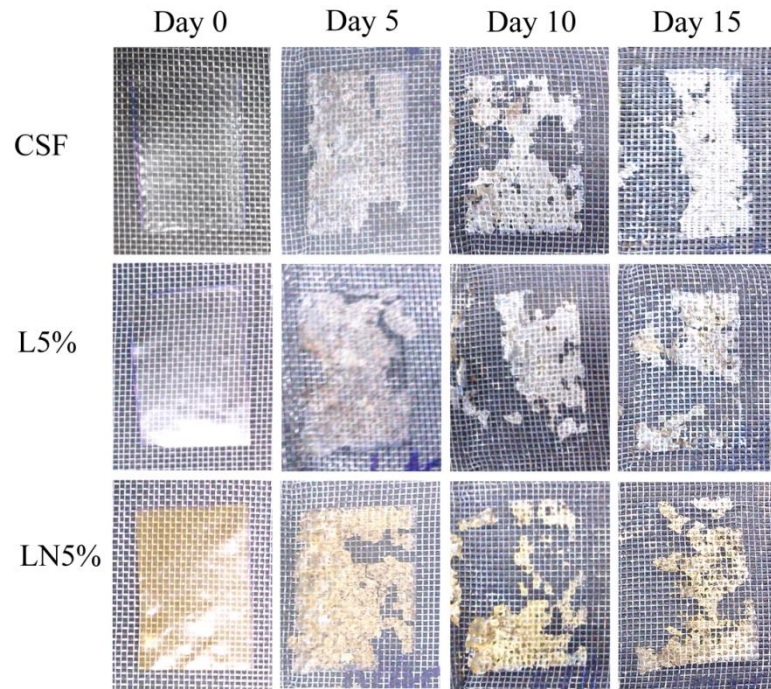


Fig. 6. Biodegradability of the films after 15 days.

The films showed fast biodegradability and increased biodegradation rate through visual analysis of the films, with loss of mass between 55% and 58%, indicating a good alternative to the use of non-biodegradable polymers and inadequate discarding of these materials into the environment.

A similar result was observed was observed by Medina Jaramillo *et al.* (2016) in cassava starch films with yerba mate extract, with rapid biodegradability of the material in 12 days, demonstrating the importance of development biodegradable packaging and substitution packaging obtained from non-biodegradable polymers (Medina Jaramillo *et al.*, 2016). Seligra *et al.* (2016) also a rapid degradation in the first 15 days for starch films, but at the end of the 30 days study the films showed a significant degradation.

Biodegradable films obtained from starch and glycerol, which compounds exhibit hydrophilic character, can present high loss of mass during the process of biodegradation due to increased water absorption. The increased water absorption promotes the growth of microorganisms naturally present in the soil, that act on the source of carbohydrate and results in a greater and more rapid degradation of these materials (Maran *et al.*, 2014; Seligra *et al.*, 2016).

4. Conclusion

The development of biodegradable films from renewable sources, as cassava starch, may be an alternative to non-biodegradable packaging, with high biodegradability in a short period of time. Addition of free lycopene and lycopene nanocapsules can be a good alternative to the development of packaging with antioxidant activity, lower light transmittance UV-Vis, high opacity and protective oxidation of sunflower oil. Addition of free lycopene led to a significant decrease in tensile strength and elongation of the films, however, the addition of lycopene nanocapsules contributed to obtaining films with high tensile strength and elongation, better solubility and potential application of this natural antioxidant.

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ARTIGO 2: Synthesis of biodegradable films based on cassava starch containing free β -carotene and nanocapsulated

The article was formatted according to the Food and Bioprocess Technology

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Abstract

β -carotene may represent an excellent natural antioxidant and nanoscale encapsulation may contribute to development of a new technique for addition of antioxidants in active packaging. The objective of this work was to develop active biodegradable films with addition of free β -carotene obtained from carrots or β -carotene-loaded lipid-core nanocapsules, and to evaluate the interaction with the polymeric matrix. The addition of free β -carotene led to a decrease in the mechanical properties of films (tensile strength and elongation at break), as result of their hydrophobic character and less interaction with the matrix. The addition of nanocapsules caused the increase of color intensity of films, elongation at rupture and less light transmission (UV/Vis), with the gradual increase according to increase in concentration. Films added of 5 % β -carotene nanocapsules presented greater protection of sunflower oil, with lower formation of oxidation products, when stored under accelerated of light and temperature. The lower stability of free antioxidant led to behavior similar to control film (CSF), with less oxidation protection. The addition of nanocapsules can provide better interaction with the structure, since the encapsulated carotenoid exhibits solubility in aqueous medium and present better distribution, without altering the rapid biodegradability and thermal stability of films. The results show that encapsulated bioactive compounds can be used as hydrophobic natural antioxidants and added in active biodegradable packages, for maintaining food safety and extending the shelf life.

Keywords: Active packaging; nanoencapsulation; antioxidant; biodegradability; films properties.

1. Introduction

The interest for materials obtained from renewable sources for the development of packaging has received great attention of researchers, mainly in relation to production of edible films or coatings. Biodegradable/edible films are thin films obtained independently of product to be packed, since the coating is applied directly to the surface of the product.

As material for the production of edible films and coatings are used various natural polymers, such as starch (Sánchez-Ortega *et al.*, 2016), fruit and vegetable residues (Fai *et al.*, 2016), starch/gelatin (Fakhouri *et al.*, 2015), chitosan and carboxymethyl cellulose (Tsfay e Magwaza, 2017), chitosan-cassava starch (De Aquino *et al.*, 2015), alginate (Robles-Sánchez *et al.*, 2013), carrageenan (Thakur *et al.*, 2016), isolated or the development of mixtures for the elaboration of products with specific characteristics. The use of natural polymers assists in the development of materials with rapid biodegradability and greater compatibility with product, besides the possibility of its consumption together with the food, as fruits and vegetables minimally processed (Mannozi *et al.*; Fakhouri *et al.*, 2015; Fai *et al.*, 2016; Khalifa *et al.*, 2016; Guerreiro *et al.*, 2017).

Studies have shown that the development of films or coatings can maintain quality and increase shelf life of minimally processed carrots during storage, with color maintenance and reduction mass loss (Fai *et al.*, 2016); can maintain of carotenoid content (*trans*- α -carotene e *trans*- β -carotene) during drying of pumpkin slices at 70 °C (8h - 10 h) (Lago-Vanzela *et al.*, 2013); inhibition browning in fresh-cut persimmon (Sanchís *et al.*, 2016); can maintain postharvest quality of red peppers (Poverenov *et al.*, 2014) and increase of fresh-cut pineapple stability (Azarakhsh *et al.*, 2014).

Edible films and coatings besides the basic functions, and compatibility with food, can also be carriers of active compounds, known as active films. Many natural compounds can be used for the formulation of these films, an alternative to the use of synthetic antioxidants, such as the addition of yerba extract (Medina Jaramillo *et al.*, 2016) and rosemary extract in cassava starch films (Piñeros-Hernandez *et al.*, 2017), tocopherol (Barbosa-Pereira *et al.*, 2013), α -tocopherol in chitosan films (Martins *et al.*, 2012), residue of minimally processed carrot for packaging films (Iahnke *et al.*, 2015) and mango and acerola pulp as antioxidant

additives in cassava starch film (Souza *et al.*, 2011). The addition of antioxidant compounds to edible films or coatings may provide the interaction or release of these compounds present in the matrix of packaging to food surface (Fai *et al.*, 2016).

Among the group of natural antioxidants, β -carotene is a carotenoid with antioxidant capacity and vitamin A activity, showing red-orange coloration due to the presence of eleven conjugated double bonds, and are oil-solubility. Carotenoids are found as pigments in fruits and vegetables, one of the most well-known sources of β -carotene is carrots (Zaccari *et al.*, 2015; Behsnilian e Mayer-Miebach, 2017). The vitamin A activity is related the presence of two β -ionone ring with one double bond (Ferreira e Rodriguez-Amaya, 2008). When added in food systems, such as high-fat foods, this carotenoid can act as oxidation stability (Goulson e Warthesen, 1999). The double conjugated bonds, makes the β -carotene reactive, being degrade under different conditions, such as high temperatures or exposure to light, which can lead to loss of color or vitamin A activity (Chen e Zhong, 2015).

However, the addition of hydrophobic compounds to hydrophilic matrices may result in a change in structure and lower affinity between the antioxidant and the polymer matrix. One way of minimizing this problem, beyond stability and solubility of bioactive compounds is the nanoencapsulation. The nanoencapsulation provide more stability of these pigments in the presence of oxygen, heat and light, in general improves the stability, solubility and bioavailability of encapsulated species and promotes its controlled release (Lobato *et al.*, 2013; Dos Santos *et al.*, 2015; Da Silva *et al.*, 2016).

The nanoencapsulation of β -carotene presents an alternative for greater use of carotenoid, the encapsulation of this pigment using poly- ϵ -caprolactone with oil nucleus, presents high encapsulation efficiency, able to provide greater retention and stability when subjected to thermal treatments or light presence (González-Reza *et al.*, 2015; Da Silva *et al.*, 2016). In this context, β -carotene may represent an excellent natural compound for addition in biodegradable films and the nanoencapsulation may be a promising technique to increase the solubility and stability of this carotenoid, which to date have not been evaluated for addition in films under nanometer scale. The objective of the work was to develop biodegradable films based on cassava starch with antioxidant activity through the addition of free β -carotene obtained from carrots or β -carotene-loaded lipid-core nanocapsules, and to evaluate the effect of this natural pigment the interaction with the polymeric matrix by determining of physical, mechanical and barrier properties of films.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Materials

The β -carotene was extracted from carrots, the sunflower oil without antioxidants (Cargill Agrícola SA, Brazil) was used to analyze the antioxidant activity. To obtain the β -carotene nanocapsules the capric/-caprylic triglycerides (CCT) and polysorbate 80 (Tween 80) were purchased from Delaware (Porto Alegre, Brazil) and polymer poly- ϵ -caprolactone (PCL) and sorbitan monostearate (Span 60) were obtained from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, USA). For the preparation of the films were used cassava starch (Yoki Alimentos, São Paulo, Brazil) and glycerol (Merk, Brasil) was used as a plasticizer, low-density polyethylene (LDPE) films were obtained from a local market in Porto Alegre – Brazil.

2.2 β -carotene extract

Beta carotene was obtained from carrots, through the method described by Nunes and Mercadante (2004), with some modifications. The carrots were cut (600 g) and added with ethyl acetate (1000 mL), subjected to two extractions under mechanical stirring for 2 h. The extract obtained with free β -carotene was filtered and concentrated in a rotary evaporator (Fisatom model 801/802, São Paulo, SP, Brazil). To produce the nanocapsules, it was necessary to obtain β -carotene crystals. The extract was dried, placed in an ice bath and added with dichloromethane (5 mL) and alcohol 99.7% (20 mL). After, the crystals were filtered, washed with ice-cold ethanol (50 mL) and dried ($T < 30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). The crystals were stored in a freezer until the nanocapsules were obtained.

2.3 β -carotene Nanocapsules

The β -carotene extracted from carrots was nanoencapsulated by technique of interfacial deposition of preformed polymers (Da Silva *et al.*, 2016). The polymer poly- ϵ -caprolactone (200 mg), triglycerides (300 μL) and sorbitan monostearate (76 mg) and β -carotene crystals were dissolved in acetone (40 mL) and ethanol (6 mL), under magnetic stirring (40 min/40 $^{\circ}\text{C}$) to form the organic phase. To form the aqueous phase ultrapure water (106 mL) and polysorbate 80 (154 mg) were used, under magnetic stirring (25 $^{\circ}\text{C}$). The organic phase was injected into the aqueous phase under magnetic stirring (10 min/25 $^{\circ}\text{C}$),

where the resulting solution was concentrated to the final volume of 25 mL. The concentration of beta carotene in the nanocapsules was 85 µg/mL.

2.4 Film preparation

The films were obtained by solubilizing the cassava starch (4g / 100g) in distilled water, under mechanical agitation for 30 minutes at 80 °C, glycerol was used as plasticizer (0.25g / g starch). After cooling the starch solution (35 °C) the nanocapsules or free β -carotene were added at concentrations of 2%, 5% and 8% and were identified as β CN2%, β CN5%, and β CN8%, and β C2%, β C5% and β C8%, respectively. The film without addition of natural antioxidant (CSF) and low density polyethylene commercial film were used as control. The solution with addition of the free or nanoencapsulated antioxidant was placed in polystyrene petri dishes (0.39 g/cm²), dried in a forced-air oven (35 °C/20h) (model B5AFD; DeLeo). The films were stored in a glass vessel with controlled humidity at 58 % (25 °C) for 48h before to characterization.

2.5 Thickness and Mechanical properties

The thickness was obtained by reading at random points and the result expressed as the average of 10 points, using a digital micrometer (Digimess, IP40, Brazil). The mechanical properties analyzes were performed using a texture analyzer (TA.XT2i, Stable Micro Systems, United Kingdom), with a load cell of 5 kg, initial distance between the 50 mm claws and a traction speed of 0.8 mm/s. The tensile strength (TS) and elongation at break (EAB) were determined through ten strips of each film (100 mm x 25 mm), according to the methodology described by ASTM D882-12 (ASTM, 2012).

2.6 Water vapor permeability (WVP)

WVP was determined gravimetrically at 25 °C, the films were placed in permeation capsule (inner diameter: 63 mm, height: 25 mm) containing granular anhydrous calcium chloride and hermetically sealed. The capsules were stored in a glass chamber with saturated sodium chloride solution, the permeation was determined by mass gain after 24 h through a RH gradient of 0 %/75%. The permeability to water vapor was performed according to the

standard method (ASTM 96, 2005) and as described by Pagno *et al.* (2015), calculated by the equation:

$$WVP = \frac{w \cdot L}{A \cdot t \cdot \Delta p}$$

where w is the weight of water permeated through the film (g), L is the thickness of the film (mm), A is the permeation area (m²), t is the time of permeation (h), and Δp the water vapor pressure difference between the two sides of the film (KPa).

2.7 Moisture and solubility in water

To determine the water solubility of the films, the samples (2 cm diameter discs) were previously oven dried (DeLeo, TLK48, Brazil) at 105 °C for 24 h. Then, the remaining samples from the drying process were immersed in distilled water (30 mL) and shaken with shaking (25 °C/24h) (Nova tecnica, NT145, Brazil). All samples were again subjected to drying (105 °C/24h), where the material not solubilized was weighed for determination of dry final weight resulting from the solubilization process (Gontard *et al.*, 1992).

2.8 Optical properties

Color analysis was performed using the Minolta model colorimeter (CR-300; Minolta Co., Ltd., Japan), calibrated with a white surface (L_0^* : 97.45, a_0^* : 0.13 e b_0^* : 1.70). The CIELab system was used, where a^* indicates the region of red (+ a^*) to green (- a^*), b^* indicates the region of yellow (+ b^*) to blue (- b^*) and L^* is luminosity. The color difference in relation to the standard (ΔE^*) was calculated with the following equation:

$$\Delta E^* = [(L^* - L_0^*)^2 + (a^* - a_0^*)^2 + (b^* - b_0^*)^2]^{1/2}$$

The light transmission barrier of films was analyzed in spectrophotometer (model UV-1800, Shimadzu, Japan). Films were cut into rectangles (3 cm x 1 cm) and positioned on the inner wall of the test cell, the light transmission (%) was measured in the UV region (210 nm) and visible (500 nm). An empty quartz test cell was used as control and the analysis was performed in triplicate.

2.9 Morphological properties

The morphology of the previously selected films was evaluated through a scanning electron microscope (JEOL, JSM 6060, Japan). The samples were cut into small pieces and fixed with double-sided tape on aluminum stubs. All samples were metallized with a thin layer of gold, the surface and cross section were observed with an acceleration voltage of 5 kV and a magnification of 500 × and 1000 ×. Morphology of films was also determined by using an Optical Microscope (Leica, DM500), with a magnification 40×.

2.10 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

The thermal stability of the selected films was analyzed using Shimadzu Instrument (model TGA-50). Samples of approximately 5 mg were heated from 25 °C to 800 °C at 10 °C/min heating rate under a nitrogen. The stability was analyzed by weight loss versus temperature.

2.11 Oxidative stability during storage of sunflower oil

The antioxidant effect of the films was analyzed according to Colín-Chávez et al. (2013) with some modifications, through the determination of primary and secondary products of the oxidation of sunflower oil without the addition of antioxidants. The selected films (β C5% and β CN5%) were cut into rectangles and sealed on the sides, by the top of the package were added 15 mL of sunflower oil, in which the films were sealed to form sachets (110 mm x 60 mm). The analysis was performed under accelerated oxidation condition, by storage the samples in a chamber under the incidence of fluorescent light (900-1000 lux) (Luxometer VA Instrument, MS6610, China), humidity (50 % - 60 % RH) and temperature (30 °C). The peroxide value (PV) was determined according to the IUPAC (1987) and specific extinctions at 232 (conjugated dienes - CD) and 268 (conjugated trienes - CT) were determined according to European Regulation EC 2568/91. The oil stored in the starch film without antioxidant addition (CSF), low density polyethylene (LDPE), closed transparent plastic bottle (CP) and without packaging (WP) were used as controls. The analysis was performed on 0, 3, 6, 9, 12, 19 and 30 days

2.12 Biodegradability of the films

Natural organic soil was used to determine the biodegradation rate of the films, placed in plastic boxes (6 cm x 6 cm x 6.5 cm). The films were cut (2 cm x 3 cm), dried at 60 °C for 24 h (m_0) in an oven (model TLK48, DeLeo, Brazil), packed in aluminum mesh pre-weighed and placed in contact with the organic soil, 4 cm from the surface of the plastic box. The films were removed at different times for 15 days and dried at 60 °C for 24 h (m_t) (Martucci e Ruseckaite, 2009). Water was added (5 mL) to maintain soil moisture (40% RH). The rate of biodegradability of the films was determined by weight loss analysis:

$$WL(\%) = \left[\frac{m_t - m_0}{m_0} \right] \times 100$$

2.13 Statistical analyses

Statistica 12.0 (StatSoft, Inc., Tulsa, USA) was used to carry out statistical analysis of data through an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey test, using a level of 95% confidence. All analyzes were performed in triplicate and the results expressed with the mean \pm standard deviation.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Mechanical Properties

The thickness, tensile strength (TS) and elongation at break (EAB) of the films are shown in Table 1. The LDPE film differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) when compared to the active films (Table 1), since it presents lower thickness, an higher values for tensile strength (TS) and elongation at break (EAB). Behavior similar to that found in the literature when evaluated LDPE films, with values varying between 13.26 ± 1.84 MPa and 17.88 ± 1.69 MPa and $314.68 \pm 78.01\%$, $431 \pm 23.20\%$ for EAB (Azlin-Hasim, Cruz-Romero, Morris, Cummins, & Kerry, 2015; Jokar, Abdul Rahman, Ibrahim, Abdullah, & Tan, 2012; Martínez-Camacho et al., 2013; Sun, Lu, Qiu, & Tang, 2017).

Table 1. Tensile strength (TS), Elongation at break (EAB) and Thickness of films added β -carotene free or β -carotene nanocapsules.

Sample	Thickness (mm)	TS (MPa)	EAB (%)
LPDE	0.045 ± 0.001^d	18.42 ± 0.06^a	399.94 ± 0.05^a
CSF	0.123 ± 0.004^c	3.09 ± 0.10^b	134.59 ± 2.69^d
β C2%	0.126 ± 0.009^c	2.60 ± 0.07^c	101.18 ± 5.34^{de}
β C5%	0.129 ± 0.003^c	2.66 ± 0.04^c	84.95 ± 10.78^{ef}
β C8%	0.127 ± 0.007^c	2.53 ± 0.23^c	61.80 ± 8.23^f
β CN2%	0.142 ± 0.002^b	2.74 ± 0.19^{bc}	237.81 ± 7.49^c
β CN5%	0.157 ± 0.002^a	2.56 ± 0.15^c	311.82 ± 6.73^b
β CN8%	0.156 ± 0.003^a	2.63 ± 0.18^c	319.74 ± 3.35^b

Values are represented as mean \pm standard deviation. Different letters within the same column indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

LDPE: low density polyethylene films; CSF: cassava starch films; β C2%: films with 2% free β -carotene; β C5%: films with 5% free β -carotene; β C8%: films with 8% free β -carotene; β CN2%: films with 2% β -carotene nanocapsules; β CN5%: films with 5% β -carotene nanocapsules; β CN8%: films with 8% β -carotene nanocapsules.

The thickness of the films with free β -carotene did not present significant difference when compared to control film CSF. But, significant difference ($p < 0.05$) was observed with the addition of β -carotene nanocapsules in relation to CSF, with increase the thickness of 0.142 ± 0.002 mm to 0.156 ± 0.003 mm, for the films β CN2% and β CN8%, respectively. The increase of thickness is related to nanocapsules concentration in the matrix, due to higher solids concentration added. Similar effect was observed for addition of α -tocopherol nanocapsules in methylcellulose films (Noronha *et al.*, 2014) and bixin nanocapsules in cassava starch films (Pagno *et al.*, 2016), increasing the addition of nanocapsules with poly- ϵ -caprolactone (PCL) led to increase thickness of active films when compared to control films.

The addition of free β -carotene decreases significant ($p < 0.05$) decrease in TS and EAB (Table 1). This reduction is related to hydrophobic character of natural antioxidant, with a reduction of approximately 54% (EAB) for β C8%. Significant difference were not observed ($p > 0.05$) for TS between the films containing β -carotene nanocapsules or free β -carotene, however, significant increase ($p < 0.05$) of EAB was observed for films with β -carotene nanocapsules in relation to the free antioxidant film and the CSF film. The increase of EAB of the films may be related to the carotenoid encapsulation technique, that can provide the solubility of hydrophobic compounds in water, thus decreasing the incompatibility of the

polymer matrix with the added natural antioxidant free (da Silva et al., 2016; dos Santos et al., 2015; Reis et al., 2015). Similar effect was observed by Pagno et al. (2016) and Noronha et al. (2014) for the greater concentrations of the additives, with reduction of 84 % for TS and 82 % for EAB with the addition of bixin nanocapsules in cassava starch films and 60 % for TS and 40 % for EAB of the methylcellulose films with α -tocopherol nanocapsules in relation to the control films, respectively.

In developing of films with poly- ϵ -caprolactone (PCL) and starch plasticized with glycerol, Ortgega-Toro et al. (2015) observed decrease in TS (10.4 ± 1.9 to 1.5 MPa) and increase in EAB (28 ± 10 to 53.5 ± 5 %), for the control film and film with 5 % PCL, stored for one week, respectively, with a plasticizer effect and more flexible and stable films, same with the obtaining of a heterogeneous structure in relation to the control film. The presence of PCL or surfactants used in the production of the nanocapsules may have acted synergistically with glycerol, which conferred plasticizing action, modifying the interaction between the film-forming agents, which increased the spacing between macromolecule chains and elongation of films. Rodríguez, Osés, Ziani, & Maté (2006) observed a synergistic effect of addition of 5 % surfactants (Tween 20, Span 80 or soy lecithin) in the presence of glycerol (20 %) in starch films, with TS between 2.4 ± 0.3 MPa at 7.3 ± 1.6 MPa and 21.1 ± 9.5 % at 31.5 ± 5.7 % for EAB, while the film with glycerol without surfactants showed 20.3 ± 4.9 MPa and 12.1 ± 6.8 %, with the increase of EAB and decrease of TS.

Similar behavior was observed for the films with addition of 5 % and 8 % of free or nanoencapsulated β -carotene for the TS and EAB, thus, the films β C5% and β CN5% were observed by optical microscopy and scanning electron microscopy (Figure 1). The control film (CSF) had a uniform, compact and cohesive structure, without the presence of cracks or pores along the matrix. The decrease of mechanical properties is related to heterogeneous structure and interruption in the continuity of the polymer matrix, result of random distribution of hydrophobic antioxidant and lower affinity with the hydrophilic matrix (Fig. 1 d-f). Behavior similar to that observed in cassava starch films added with rosemary extract, in which the increase of extract concentration led to the obtaining of films with cracks and lower homogeneity. The lower interaction between the antioxidant additive and the matrix resulted in a decrease in the mechanical properties of the films (Piñeros-Hernandez et al., 2017).

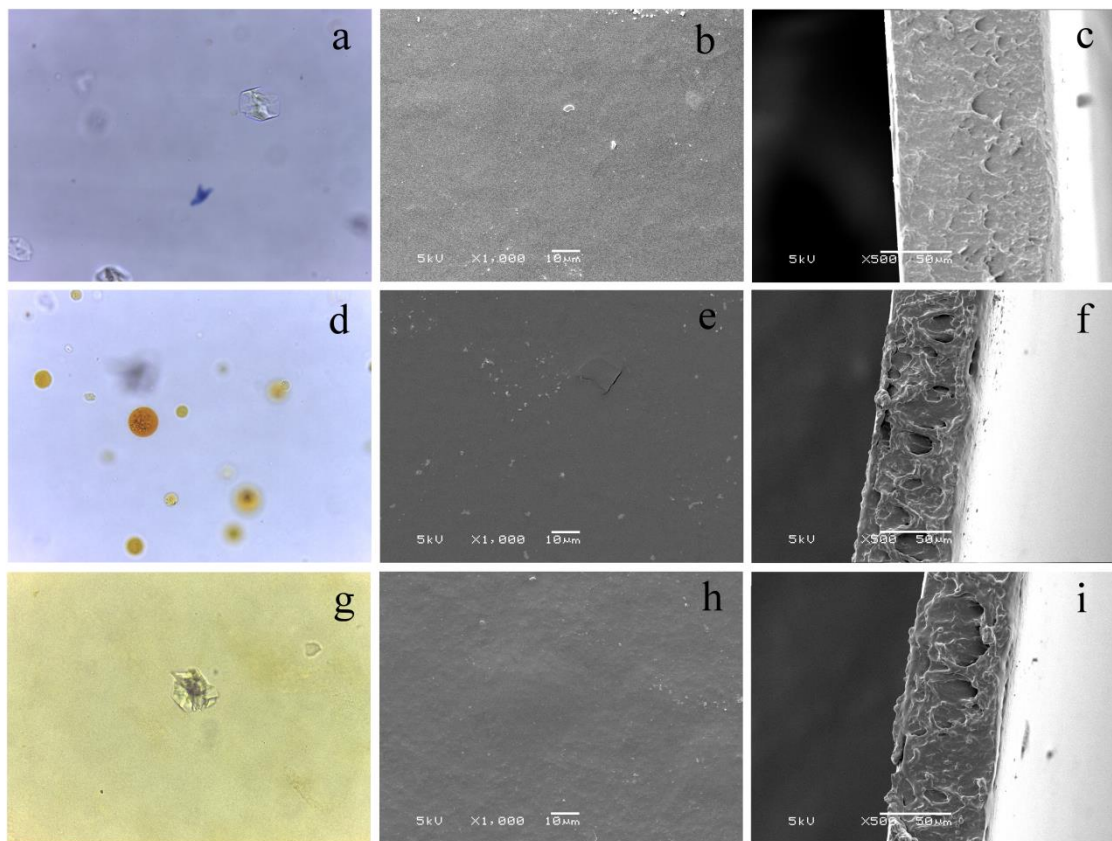


Fig. 1. Optical microscopy, surface scanning electron microscopy and cross section of films ((a-c) CSF; (d-f) β C5%; (g-i) β CN5%).

The addition of β -carotene nanocapsules presented homogeneous distribution in the matrix (Fig. 1g), demonstrating greater affinity of the nanoencapsulated antioxidant with polymer of films, when compared to the addition of the free antioxidant (Fig 1d). The β CN5% film presented a smooth surface with the presence of pores in structure, which resulted in the increase in water vapor permeability of films with β -carotene nanocapsules, related to higher affinity and interaction between the complex starch-nanocapsules-water. The micrograph of the cross section (Fig. 1i) demonstrated presence of structure less uniform compared with CSF film (Fig. 1c), which may be related to the lower miscibility of the nanocapsules in the filmogenic solution after the gelatinization process of starch. Similar effect was observed in the production of methylcellulose and cassava starch films added with α -tocopherol nanocapsules and bixin nanocapsules, respectively, increasing the concentration of nanocapsules, led to obtaining films with not homogeneous and the presence of cracks, and films with α -tocopherol nanocapsules had a structure with higher porosity due to the lower miscibility of the nanocapsules in the polymer matrix (Noronha *et al.*, 2014; Pagno *et al.*, 2016).

3.2 Water vapor permeability (WVP), Moisture Content (MC) and Water Solubility (WS).

The WVP, MC and WS are present in Table 2. The increase in the concentration of free β -carotene did not present significant difference as WVP when compared to the CSF film, where the hydrophilic character did not decrease the permeability through the films, with average of $0.37 \text{ g mm m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ kPa}^{-1}$.

Table 2. Water vapor permeability (WVP), Moisture Content (MC) and Water Solubility (WS) of films added free β -carotene or β -carotene nanocapsules.

Sample	WVP ($\text{g mm m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ kPa}^{-1}$)	MC (%)	WS (%)
LPDE	0.01 ± 0.01^c	-	-
CSF	0.36 ± 0.05^{ab}	11.50 ± 0.70^b	17.88 ± 0.16^b
β C2%	0.39 ± 0.02^{ab}	12.42 ± 0.50^{ab}	17.56 ± 1.45^b
β C5%	0.36 ± 0.03^b	13.94 ± 0.29^a	19.45 ± 1.06^{ab}
β C8%	0.37 ± 0.04^b	13.63 ± 0.98^a	17.63 ± 0.81^b
β CN2%	0.45 ± 0.02^a	12.57 ± 0.45^{ab}	21.48 ± 0.60^a
β CN5%	0.44 ± 0.05^a	13.74 ± 0.74^a	18.79 ± 1.75^{ab}
β CN8%	0.44 ± 0.03^a	12.19 ± 0.51^{ab}	19.51 ± 0.39^{ab}

Values are represented as mean \pm standard deviation. Different letters within the same column indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

LDPE: low density polyethylene films; CSF: cassava starch films; β C2%: films with 2% free lycopene; β C5%: films with 5% free β -carotene; β C8%: films with 8% free β -carotene; β CN2%: films with 2% β -carotene nanocapsules; β CN5%: films with 5% β -carotene nanocapsules; β CN8%: films with 8% β -carotene nanocapsules.

Films added of β -carotene nanocapsules presented higher permeability to water vapor when compared to LDPE, CSF and free β -carotene films ($p < 0.05$), not differing between the different concentrations of nanocapsules added. This result can be related to the hydrophilic character of nanocapsules, associated to the greater availability of hydroxyl groups for water binding, which allied to the hydrophilicity of the polymer matrix allows greater permeability through the films.

Another factor that suggests the increase of the permeability was the obtaining of films with micro pores distributed throughout the surface, which can increase the WVP (Fig. 1). Pagno et al. (2016) also observed that the increase of WVP of 32 %, besides films with higher

concentration of nanocapsules presented greater presence of cracks and higher WVP between all samples. Glycerol, a plasticizer with a hydrophilic characteristic as the polymer matrix, acts between the starch chains and promotes greater mobility, as well as the greater interaction between glycerol-starch-water and the increase of WVP (Rodríguez et al., 2006), associated to greater affinity for the water of the nanocapsules compared to the addition of the free antioxidant.

No significant differences were observed between the different concentrations of the free or nanoencapsulated pigment for moisture content and solubility in water (Table 2). The moisture and solubility of the films depends on the chemical components of their structure and their interaction with water, may indicate the intended application (Martins et al., 2012; Pelissari, Grossmann, Yamashita, & Pineda, 2009). In cassava starch films with addition of bixin nanocapsules (Pagno et al., 2016), the authors obtained films with solubility ranging from 16.44 % and 39.27 %, according to the same, the films can be indicated for application as fresh fruit packaging. In our work the films developed have an average solubility of 19.93 %.

3.3 Optical properties of the films (Color and Light transmission)

Table 3 presents the results of color parameters of films. The values of L*, a*, b* and ΔE^* show that the increase in free or nanoencapsulated β -carotene concentration, were significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in relation to CSF and LDPE films.

Table 3. Color and Light transmission (%) of the biodegradable cassava starch films.

Sample	Color Parameters				Light transmission (%)	
	L*	a*	b*	ΔE^*	210 nm	500 nm
LPDE	96.77 ± 0.15 ^a	0.01±0.10 ^e	1.52 ± 0.01 ^g	0.61 ± 0.02 ^g	28.67 ± 0.25 ^a	83.75 ± 0.81 ^a
CSF	96.70 ± 0.07 ^{ab}	0.02±0.10 ^e	2.43 ± 0.06 ^f	1.07 ± 0.02 ^f	9.21 ± 0.60 ^c	82.23 ± 0.75 ^a
β C2%	96.62 ± 0.12 ^{abc}	0.15 ± 0.02 ^d	2.67 ± 0.05 ^f	1.30 ± 0.06 ^e	17.63 ± 0.66 ^b	85.88 ± 1.64 ^a
β C5%	96.17 ± 0.33 ^c	0.17 ± 0.01 ^d	3.07±0.03 ^e	2.37 ± 0.04 ^d	11.01 ± 0.45 ^c	86.32 ± 0.57 ^a
β C8%	96.29 ± 0.05 ^{bc}	0.15±0.01 ^d	3.84 ± 0.13 ^d	2.45 ± 0.09 ^d	5.92 ± 0.42 ^d	86.39 ± 0.85 ^a
β CN2%	94.47 ± 0.18 ^d	3.47 ± 0.08 ^c	23.68 ± 0.29 ^c	22.44 ± 0.31 ^c	3.83 ± 0.24 ^e	66.96 ± 1.11 ^b
β CN5%	92.15 ± 0.09 ^e	4.46 ± 0.16 ^b	50.59 ± 0.90 ^b	49.38 ± 0.88 ^b	1.84 ± 0.11 ^f	48.82 ± 2.66 ^c
β CN8%	91.31 ± 0.14 ^f	5.14 ± 0.07 ^a	67.85 ± 1.72 ^a	66.63 ± 1.72 ^a	0.28 ± 0.01 ^g	34.84 ± 1.45 ^d

Values are represented as mean ± standard deviation. Different letters within the same column indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

LDPE: low density polyethylene films; CSF: cassava starch films; β C2%: films with 2% free lycopene; β C5%: films with 5% free β -carotene; β C8%: films with 8% free β -carotene; β CN2%: films with 2% β -carotene nanocapsules; β CN5%: films with 5% β -carotene nanocapsules; β CN8%: films with 8% β -carotene nanocapsules.

The films LDPE, CSF and the films with addition of free carotenoid presented higher luminosity ($p < 0.05$) when compared to films with carotenoid nanocapsules. The decrease in the L^* parameter is associated with the increase in the parameters a^* , b^* and ΔE^* , in which the films with the addition of nanocapsules presented higher color intensity according to the increase of the antioxidant concentration (Fig. 1).

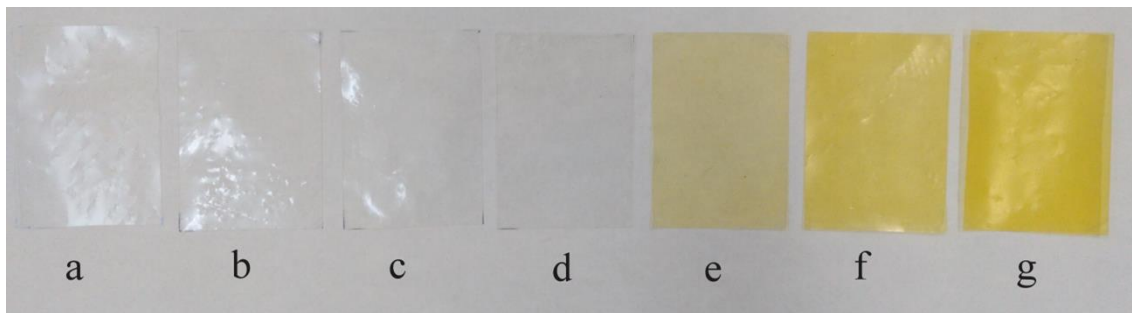


Fig. 1. Visual aspect of biodegradable films CSF (a), β C2% (b), β C5% (c), β C8% (d), β CN2% (e), β CN5% (f), β CN8% (g).

The films with nanocapsules of β -carotene presented yellow coloration, with a gradual increase of the intensity according to the increase of the concentration. Yellow films are related to the color of the nanocapsules ($L^* = 72.16 \pm 0.05$, $a^* = -5.83 \pm 0.05$ and $b^* = 44.87 \pm 0.11$), associated with the characteristic color that carotenoids are able to confer (Da Silva *et al.*, 2016).

The addition of nanocapsules provided the increase of the parameters a^* and b^* , contributed to the significant increase of 98.39 % of ΔE^* , ranged from 1.07 ± 0.02 to 66.63 ± 1.72 , for the CSF and β CN8% films, respectively. Obtaining films with higher color intensity also contributed to lower UV light transmission (210 nm) and visible (500 nm) (Table 3). LDPE and CSF films presented higher light transmission at both wavelengths when compared to films with β -carotene nanocapsules ($p < 0.05$).

Pagno *et al.* (2016) and Noronha *et al.* (2014) reported that the addition of bixin nanocapsules in cassava starch films and α -tocopherol nanocapsules in methylcellulose films led to an increase in the yellow color intensity of films, with a significant increase of the b^* parameter. There was a significant reduction of UV/Vis light transmission, which indicates the protective character of the films at both wavelengths and potential application as food

packaging for the barrier to lipid oxidation induced by light. The effect similar to that found for the addition of nanocapsules of β -carotene, which demonstrates the obtaining of active packages with the addition of natural antioxidant and reduction of the light transmission when compared to the films LDPE, CSF and films with addition of the free antioxidant.

3.4 Selection of biodegradable films for characterization

High concentration of free β -carotene led to a significant reduction of TS and EAB, contrary addition of β -carotene nanocapsules that caused the increase of EAB, with more flexible packaging. Significant differences in WVP values were not observed when free or nanoencapsulated antioxidant were added, but with good barrier to UV/Vis light transmission. The films β C5% and β CN5% were selected and characterized in relation to thermal stability (TGA), application as active packaging for sunflower oil storage under accelerated oxidation condition and biodegradability.

3.4.1 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

The thermal degradation curve of films are presented in Figure 3. The addition of the antioxidant did not change the thermal stability of films when subjected to different temperatures, with stability up to approximately 250 °C.

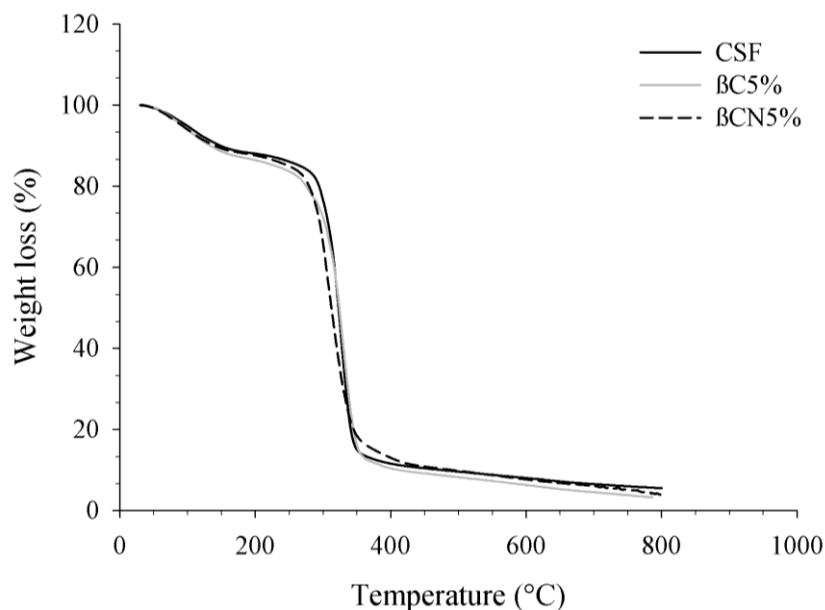


Fig. 3. Thermogravimetric analysis curves of the biodegradable cassava starch films.

The weight loss during thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) presented three characteristic stages, which are described in the literature for the thermal stability of starch films with addition of glycerol as plasticizer (Piñeros-Hernandez *et al.*, 2017; Medina Jaramillo *et al.*, 2016; Pagno *et al.*, 2016). The first stage of thermal degradation occurred up to 150 °C, related to the loss of water or volatile compounds bound to polymer matrix, the estimated amount of water desorbed was nearly 12 %. The second stage occurred between 150 °C and 260 °C, characterized by weight loss through the decomposition of glycerol and beginning of partial decomposition of the starch (Piñeros-Hernandez *et al.*, 2017; Jaramillo *et al.*, 2016). The third and main stage occurred between 260 °C and 350 °C, which corresponds to the sequence of the degradation of the starch initiated in the previous stage and organic phase desorption (65-70 %). The final residue was 6 %, 3 % and 4 % for the films CSF, β C5% and β CN5%, respectively. With a small increase for the film with the addition the nanoencapsulated antioxidant to the free antioxidant, which may be related to the residue of degradation of the polymers used for carotenoid encapsulation (Pagno *et al.*, 2016).

3.4.2 Acceleration of oxidative rancidity in sunflower oil: antioxidant effect of films

Figure 4 presents the changes in the peroxide value (PV) expressed in mEq Kg⁻¹, of sunflower oil packaged in bags made with the films containing nanoencapsulated or free antioxidant, control films(CSF), control without protection (WP), closed control (CP) and low density polyethylene (LDPE). All films containing nanoencapsulated or free antioxidant and CSF retarded the lipid oxidation of sunflower oil during the study period. The sunflower oil used in the tests presented an initial PV of 1.92 ± 0.15 mEq Kg⁻¹, reached values of 188.16 ± 3.56 mEq Kg⁻¹ for WP package after 30 days of storage, resulting in the higher susceptibility and lower induction period for the formation of the oxidation products against the study conditions.

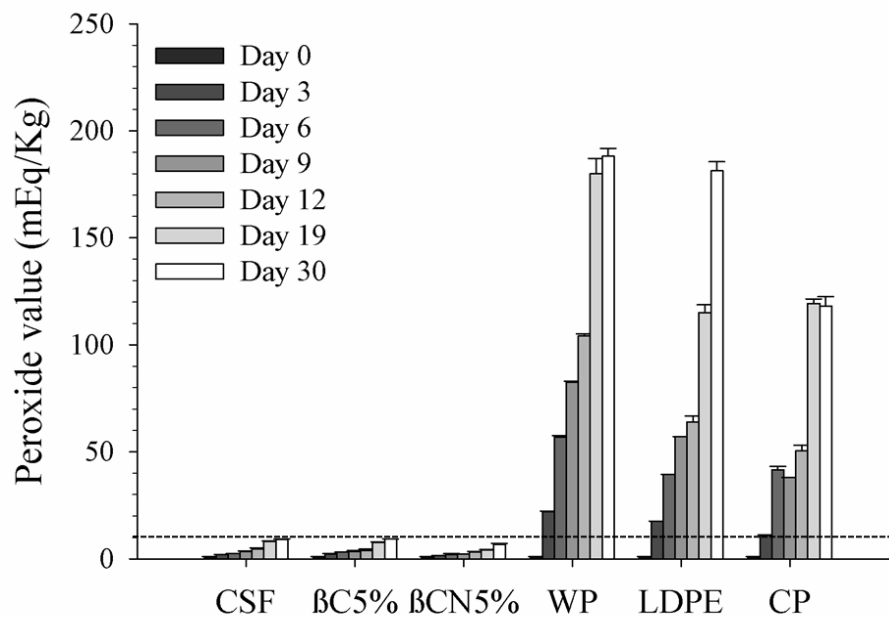


Fig. 4. Increased peroxide value of the sunflower oil peroxide value stored under accelerated oxidation condition

Because of the lower stability of the free carotenoid in the starch film, was observed on the third day the loss of color the β C5% film, that presented similar behavior to the CSF film. This result may be related to the higher light transmission of films after the degradation of the pigment, the carotenoids in their free form presented low stability when subjected to light and temperature combination, which possibly had a similar effect to the CSF film.

The biodegradable films had a greater protective effect on sunflower oil when compared to other packages. The CSF and β C5% films presented PV of 9.12 ± 0.65 mEq Kg⁻¹ and 9.31 ± 1.23 mEq Kg⁻¹ after 30 days of storage, respectively, below that established by the *Codex Alimentarius* for refined oil (10 mEq Kg⁻¹). However, the β CN5% film showed a broader protective effect, with significant difference ($p < 0.05$) and PV of 6.72 ± 0.52 mEq Kg⁻¹. This greater protective effect on sunflower oil is related to the antioxidant activity and the greater stability of the nanoencapsulated carotenoid. Another factor that may be related to stability is the lower UV light transmission (210 nm) and visible (500 nm) (Table 3), where β CN5% film presented lower transmission at both wavelengths in relation to CSF films and β 5%. Souza *et al.* (2011) observed that the starch film without antioxidant addition provided higher stability to palm oil stored under accelerated oxidation condition after 45 days (30 °C and 63 % RH) when compared to the LDPE film, behavior also found for the storage of sunflower oil.

Cassava starch films with the addition of bixin nanocapsules showed higher sunflower oil protection during storage when compared to stored oil without packaging or in closed

transparent plastic bottle stored at 35 °C, 63 % RH and light incidence for 13 days, with PV below 10 mEq Kg⁻¹ (Pagno *et al.*, 2016). Behavior was similar to that found in this study, where the addition of nanoencapsulated β -carotene provided a more significant protective effect on sunflower oil.

During the oxidation process occurs the formation of peroxides, due to the presence of polyunsaturated fatty acids, that can be determined through PV. However, the formation and concentration of primary oxidation products can vary with the treatment conditions, oil composition and stability of these compounds, where their determination can assist in monitoring the quality and subsequent formation of secondary oxidation compounds (Sadoudi *et al.*, 2014; Poiana, 2012; Mohdaly *et al.*, 2011).

The formation of the primary and secondary oxidation products of sunflower oil increased during storage, which occurs in parallel with the oxidation mechanism and the determination of peroxide value. Another factor related to instability is the high content of linoleic acid in sunflower oil, susceptible to oxidation reactions when subjected to different factors such as light and temperature. The initial content of conjugated dienes and trienes for sunflower oil was $0.31 \pm 0.01\text{g}/100\text{mL}$ and $2.06 \pm 0.02\text{g}/100\text{mL}$, respectively, where formation occurred as follows: WP > LDPE > CP > CSF > β C5% > BCN5% (Fig. 5). The biodegradable films showed less formation when compared to the other packages, a behavior similar to that observed for PV. The results showed the protective character of the biodegradable films, especially the film β CN5%, with protection in both wavelengths (UV/Vis) and potential application as active packaging for foods that have a high content of lipids in their composition.

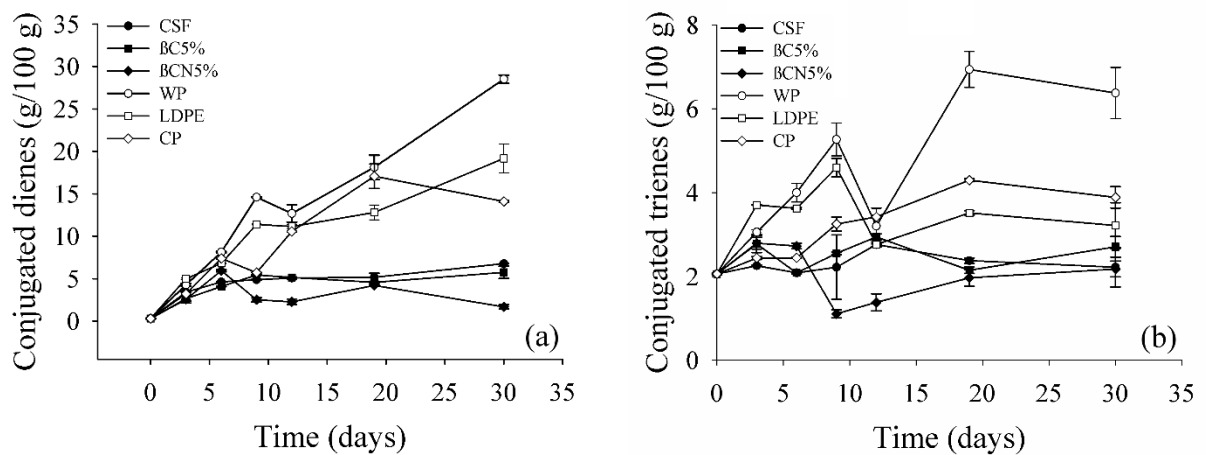


Fig. 5. The increase of conjugated dienes and trienes of the sunflower oil samples under accelerated oxidation condition.

3.4.3 Biodegradability: indoor soil burial degradation

The films before and after 15 days of the biodegradation process is shown in Fig. 6. The visual analysis of the films showed rapid biodegradability in the soil after 15 days when compared to the beginning of the experiment. Significant differences were not observed in the biodegradation of developed films, with average degradation of 60 % at the end of analysis, showing that the addition of free or nanoencapsulated carotenoid can be used to obtain active cassava starch packages without significantly altering the biodegradability.

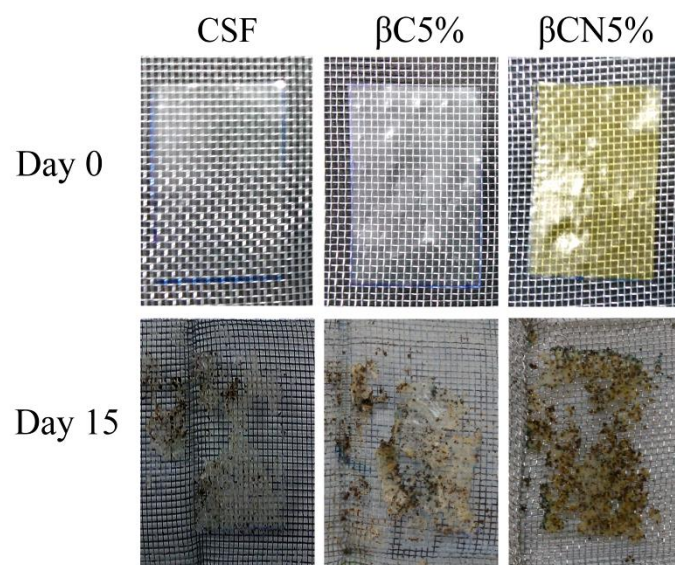


Fig. 6. Appearance of films at first day and after 15 days of biodegradability.

The process of biodegradation is affected by different factors, such as the nature of the polymer, film thickness and water solubility, soil conditions (moisture, pH, microorganisms) and temperature (Mohee *et al.*, 2008; Torres *et al.*, 2011; Nguyen *et al.*, 2016; Colussi *et al.*, 2017). The rapid biodegradability may be related to hydrophilicity and water solubility, in which the films presented on average 20% of solubility, which assists in a greater water absorption and activity, microorganism growth and matrix disintegration during the process. During the biodegradation the microorganisms present naturally in the soil degrade the material, associated to the breaking of the bonds present in the starch structure and glycerol leaching, which leads to weight loss and visible changes in the matrix (Torres *et al.*, 2011).

In films of cassava starch added of rosemary extract, Piñeros-Hernandez *et al.* (2017) observed the beginning of weight loss and alteration of the matrix after 7 days and the increase of the biodegradation after 14 days, where the films with addition of the antioxidant presented structure better preserved in relation to the control film.

In another study, Medina Jaramillo *et al.*, (2016) observed that cassava starch films with addition of yerba mate extract also showed rapid biodegradability, by changing the structure of the films after 6 days and almost completely biodegraded after 12 days, where addition of the antioxidant extract did not affect the biodegradation process and proves to be an alternative to using of non-biodegradable polymers and the development of active packaging.

4. Conclusion

β -carotene may represent an excellent natural antioxidant for the development of biodegradable films with antioxidant activity. Nanoencapsulation showed better compatibility with the matrix, though the addition of the antioxidant in the nanometric scale with greater stability and solubility in comparison to the free antioxidant. The results showed that the oxidation rate of sunflower oil was influenced by the packaging used, where the β CN5% film presented lower formation of oxidation products, higher UV/Vis light barrier and potential application as active packaging for food with high content of lipids. The addition of nanocapsules led to films with greater elongation at break, homogeneous distribution in the polymer matrix, with rapid biodegradability and without altering the thermal stability of the films, which may aid in the development of active packages with greater flexibility.

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ARTIGO 3: Quality and stability of butter packed with active biodegradable films during storage

The article was formatted according to the LWT- Food Science and Technology

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Abstract

Lycopene and β -carotene are pigments with antioxidant activity related to the presence of conjugated double bonds in their structure, in which β -carotene also has vitamin A activity. Carotenoids may be added as color additives or natural antioxidants, however, the addition of these compounds may alter the properties of foods. Another form for use as a natural antioxidant may be through the development of active packaging. The objective of this work was to evaluate the protective effect of films with free or nanoencapsulated lycopene and β -carotene on the oxidative stability of butter during storage (15 °C). The samples were stored under fluorescent light (900-1000 lux), and stability of butter was evaluated by determination of peroxide index (PI), conjugated dienes and conjugated trienes. Biodegradable films have a higher protective effect when compared to low density polyethylene film (LDPE); however, films with the addition of 5% of lycopene or β -carotene nanocapsules have a better effect. The samples stored in the films with nanocapsules presented lower oxidation (PI) and formation of secondary oxidation products. Biodegradable films with natural antioxidants can be an alternative to use as packaging, which can contribute to the maintenance of quality and stability of food during storage.

Keywords: Active packaging; carotenoids; storage; butter; oxidation.

1. Introduction

Oxidation is one of the main problems related to the stability of high fat foods. Dairy products such as butter, with a water-in-oil emulsion structure, have a high content of fatty acids (saturated, monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids). The fatty acid profile may vary according to the composition of milk, animal, and nutrition, wherein the butter generally has palmitic acid (C16:0), myristic acid (C14:0), stearic acid (C18:0), (C18:1) and linoleic acid (C18:2) in its composition (Mallia *et al.*, 2008; Samet-Bali *et al.*, 2009; Karabulut, 2010; Şenel *et al.*, 2011). Factors such as temperature, light, and content of unsaturated fatty acids may contribute to the instability of these foods, with a change in flavor, aroma, and texture during the oxidation process.

During the oxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids occurs the formation of primary and secondary products, such as peroxides, hydrocarbons, ketones and aldehydes (Mallia *et al.*, 2008). For maintenance of the stability and quality of food during storage synthetic antioxidants are generally used, such as BHA (butylated hydroxyanisole) and BHT (butylated hydroxytoluene), which show great effect as a barrier to oxidation (Ozturk e Cakmakci, 2006; Mohdaly *et al.*, 2011). However, there is interest in the substitution of synthetic antioxidants by natural antioxidants or foods without addition of these compounds, associated with their ingestion and toxicity with some diseases (Botterweck *et al.*, 2000; Sasaki *et al.*, 2002; Barlow e Schlatter, 2010; Dolatabadi e Kashanian, 2010).

Another factor that may contribute to food stability is the use of packaging that show less contact of the product with oxygen or exposure to light. Butter is usually stored in plastic packaging or metal packaging under refrigeration, for maintenance of the structure, less light transmission and higher stability of polyunsaturated fatty acids to photooxidation. The packaging used to pack and store food is mostly obtained from non-renewable sources, such as plastic packaging derived from petroleum. However, the increase in the use of non-biodegradable packaging and the accumulation of this material leads to increase demand for renewable sources for the development of packaging. Biodegradable films are an alternative to the use of non-biodegradable plastic packaging, which presents greater and faster biodegradability when compared to these materials (Mohee *et al.*, 2008; Medina Jaramillo *et al.*, 2016; Nguyen *et al.*, 2016).

Considering the oxidation process as one of the main problems related to deterioration, it is studied the use of natural antioxidants in the development of biodegradable films. The addition of natural antioxidant compounds can improve the functional properties of the films

through the development of active packaging with antioxidant activity (Martins *et al.*, 2012; Bonilla *et al.*, 2013; Medina Jaramillo *et al.*, 2016; Piñeros-Hernandez *et al.*, 2017), with potential use as packaging for foods with high fat content or obtaining products without adding antioxidants. Films with antioxidant activity may provide higher stability of high fat foods during storage, such as the stability of palm oil packed in starch films with mate herb extract and mango pulp (Reis *et al.*, 2015), lower oxidation of sunflower oil stored in cassava starch starch films with bixin nanocapsules (Pagno *et al.*, 2016), Films with α -tocopherol nanocapsules showed higher antioxidant activity according to the increase of the additive concentration (Noronha *et al.*, 2014), cassava starch films with green tea extract and palm oil in butter storage (Perazzo *et al.*, 2014) and stability to oxidation of potato chips stored in films of chitosan with ferulic acid (Woranuch *et al.*, 2015).

Among the natural compounds, carotenoids are pigments that have high antioxidant activity related to the presence of conjugated double bonds in their structure, such as β -carotene and lycopene. β -carotene presents a structure composed of 11 conjugated double bonds and the presence of two β -ionone rings, with antioxidant and pro-vitamin A activity, in which lycopene is an acyclic carotenoid with no vitamin activity. In food systems, these compounds can be added as color agents or antioxidants, with effect on the oxidation process through the barrier to the formation of peroxides and hydroperoxides, with increased stability during storage (Karabulut, 2010; Kaur *et al.*, 2011; Siwach *et al.*, 2016). These pigments can be added in the free form in the development of biodegradable films, but an alternative for the addition of hydrophobic compounds in hydrophilic matrices may be through the nanoencapsulation technique. Through the nanoencapsulation, the natural compounds can present greater solubility in water and stability to several factors (light, temperature, and oxidation), which provides the use in different food matrices (Lobato *et al.*, 2013; Dos Santos *et al.*, 2015; Da Silva *et al.*, 2016). The addition of bixin nanocapsules in cassava starch films and α -tocopherol nanocapsules in methylcellulose films showed a greater barrier to UV / Vis light transmission and antioxidant activity of films (Noronha *et al.*, 2014; Pagno *et al.*, 2016). Studies have shown the potential use of biodegradable packaging in the storage of high fat foods, however, there is not much information on the storage of butter in biodegradable films with natural antioxidants. The objective of this work was to evaluate the oxidative stability of butter during storage in biodegradable films with the addition of free and nanoencapsulated lycopene or β -carotene.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Materials

Tomatoes and carrots used to extract lycopene and β -carotene, cassava starch (Yoki Alimentos, São Paulo, Brazil), butter without antioxidants and low-density polyethylene film were obtained from a local market in Porto Alegre, Brazil. Poly ϵ -caprolactone (PCL) and sorbitan monostearate were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, USA). The surfactant polysorbate 80 and triglycerides (capric/caprylic) were purchased from Delaware (Porto Alegre, Brazil). Glycerol (Merk, Brazil) was used as plasticizer.

2.2 Extraction of carotenoids

The natural antioxidants lycopene and β -carotene were obtained from the extraction from tomatoes and carrots, respectively, according to the methodology described by Nunes & Mercadante (2004), with some modifications. Carotenoids were obtained from 600 g of each sample, using ethyl acetate as the solvent (1000 mL). Extraction was performed in two steps under mechanical stirring, each for 120 min. After each extraction step, the extract obtained was filtered and concentrated under reduced pressure through a rotary evaporator (Fisatom model 801/802, São Paulo, SP, Brazil). Until this stage, the extract was obtained with the free natural antioxidant, in which the crystals for the production of the nanocapsules the extract was totally dry and submitted to the crystallization process. In an ice bath, the extract was slowly added dichloromethane (5 mL), then 99.7% ethanol (20 mL) was added. The crystals were obtained from storage at $-18\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 12 h, then filtered, washed with 99.7% ethanol (50 mL) and dried under reduced pressure ($T < 30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$).

2.3 Production of nanocapsules

The nanocapsules of lycopene or β -carotene were obtained from the interfacial deposition of preformed polymers according to the methodology described by Dos Santos *et al.* (2015) and Da Silva *et al.* (2016), respectively, with some modifications. The nanocapsules were obtained from the formation of two phases, the organic phase and the aqueous phase. For formation of organic phase were used PCL (200 mg), caprylic and capric triglycerides (300 μL), sorbitan monostearate (76 mg), acetone (48 mL) and ethanol (6 mL), under magnetic stirring for 30 min ($40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). Natural antioxidants were added to the acetone

volume. After the solubilization of the polymers the organic phase, this was injected into the aqueous phase containing polysorbate 80 (154 mg) and ultrapure water (106 mL) under magnetic stirring for 10 min. The solution was concentrated under reduced pressure to the final volume of 20 mL. The lycopene nanocapsules had a mean diameter of 193 nm and the β -carotene nanocapsules of 0.286 nm, both with an optimal concentration of 85 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.

2.4 Film preparation

The biodegradable films were developed according to the *casting* technique, by gelatinization of the cassava starch in distilled water (4 g/100 g of solution). The solution was gelatinized in a water bath at 80 °C for 30 minutes under constant stirring. After gelatinization of the starch, the glycerol was then added (0.25 g / g starch). Free or nanoencapsulated lycopene and β -carotene were added to 5% in the filmogenic solution after cooling (35 °C). The solution was placed in polystyrene Petri dishes (0.39 g/cm²) and oven dried with forced air circulation (DeLeo B5AFD) at 35 °C for 20 hours. Lycopene or β -carotene were added to 5% in the solution filmogenic, free or nanoencapsulated. The films were identified as LF (5 % free lycopene), LN (5 % lycopene nanocapsules), β CF (5 % free β -carotene) and β CN (5 % β -carotene nanocapsules). Cassava starch film without addition of antioxidants (CSF) and a low density polyethylene film (PF) were used as controls. The concentration of 5% of lycopene or β -carotene, free and nanoencapsulated, was defined through a previous work, in this concentration of carotenoids showed better results from the characterization of biodegradable films. The films with free lycopene or nanoencapsulated presented the following parameters: thickness of 0.121 ± 0.0080 mm and 0.143 ± 0.0070 mm, the tensile strength of 2.43 ± 0.18 MPa and 2.92 ± 0.07 MPa, elongation at break of $62.60 \pm 0.41\%$ and $190.73 \pm 0.96\%$, respectively. For films with free β -carotene or nanoencapsulated, the characteristics are: 0.129 ± 0.003 mm and 0.157 ± 0.0023 mm thick, 2.66 ± 0.04 MPa and 2.56 ± 0.15 MPa of tensile strength, $84.95 \pm 10.78\%$ and $311.82 \pm 6.73\%$, respectively.

2.5 Oxidative stability of butter during storage

To evaluate the protective effect of the films as active packaging for foods with high fat content was used butter without the addition of synthetic antioxidants. The films were cut into rectangles (10 mm x 10 mm) and sealed on the sides (Fastvac, F 200 Flash, Brazil), 20 g butter was added and sealed at the top (Figure 1). The samples were stored in a chamber

(Tecnal, TE-402, Brazil) under fluorescent light intensity of 900-1000 lux (Luxometer VA Instrument, MS6610, China) at 15 °C and relative humidity of approximately 60 %. The stability of the butter was determined at 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4 hours. As control butter was stored in the cassava starch film without the addition of natural antioxidants (CSF) and low density polyethylene film (PF). To determine the oxidative stability, the sample was heated in a 50 °C bath until complete dissolution and separation of the phases. The remaining heating oil was used to determine peroxide index (PI) (IUPAC, 1987), conjugated dienes and conjugated trienes (European Regulation EC 2568/91).

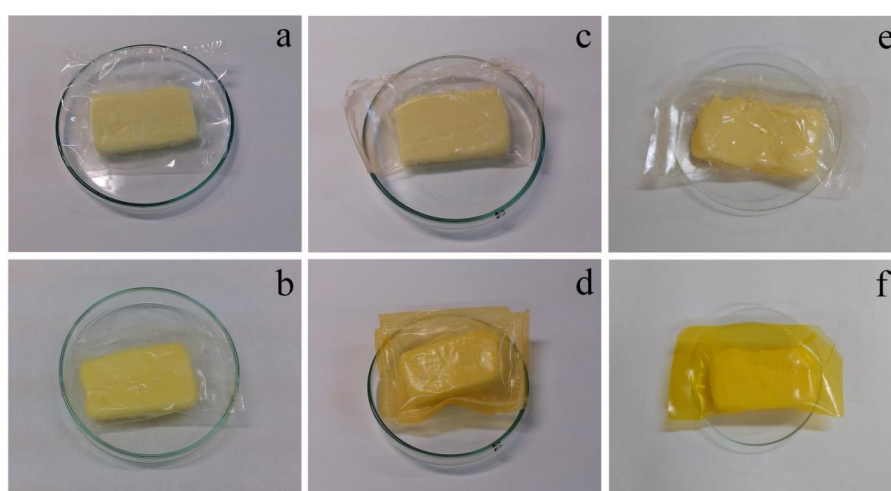


Figure 1. Butter stored in the films of PF (a), CSF (b), LF (c), LN (d), β CF (e) and β CN (f).

2.6 Statistical analyses

The statistical analysis of the data was performed through analysis of variance (ANOVA) and significant differences were evaluated by the Tukey's test at a significant level of $p < 0.05$, using a statistical program Statistica 12.0 (StatSoft, Inc., Tulsa, USA).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Oxidative stability of butter during storage

Foods with a high fat content may change flavor and texture, resulting from the oxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids when exposed to heat treatments or presence of light. Synthetic antioxidants are generally used for maintenance the stability of food during storage.

However, there was an increase in the interest in the substitution of synthetic antioxidants by natural antioxidants or the obtainment of products without the addition these compounds. To aid the stability of food without the addition of antioxidants, natural antioxidants can be added to the development of active packaging, which presents interaction with the product and maintenance of quality parameters during storage. The determination of peroxide index (PI) is used to analyze lipid stability and oxidation through the formation of primary oxidation products (Ozkan *et al.*, 2007). The protective effect of films on butter stability stored under accelerated oxidation condition is shown in Figure 2. The PI presented different behavior among the types of packages, the butter stored with PF film showed rapid formation of oxidation products, UV/Vis light transmission and a higher final PI content at the end of the study, $2.04 \pm 0.03 \text{ mEq kg}^{-1}$. Gonçalves and Baggio (2012) evaluated the quality of butter obtained from different locations (Brazil, France, and Argentina), and observed that the oxidative stability (PI) varied between $0.35 \pm 0.24 \text{ mEq kg}^{-1}$ and $1.80 \pm 0.36 \text{ mEq kg}^{-1}$. The high PI was found for butter stored in transparent plastic packaging, where the stability of the product may be related to the high content of lipids (saturated, monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids) and the packaging used. Butter is stored in metallic packaging for a greater barrier to the transmission of UV/Vis light, in which the presence of unsaturated fatty acids in its composition may present greater susceptibility to photooxidation when subjected to the presence of light.

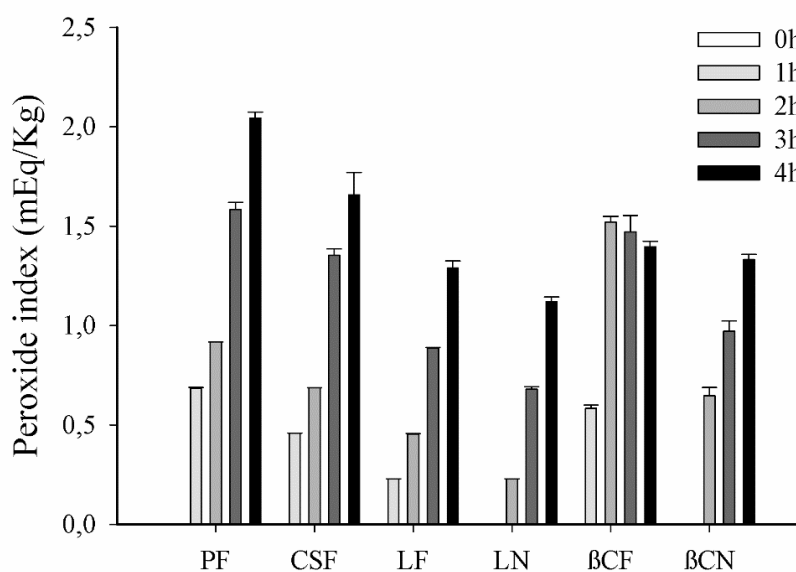


Figure 2. Oxidative stability of butter stored in different packaging at 15 °C and light.

The PI increased as a function of storage time for all biodegradable films. However, LN and β CN had no detectable content in the first hour of storage. After this period there was a gradual increase, with similar behavior between the biodegradable films. This effect may be related to the antioxidant action of the added carotenoids and the high barrier of UV/Vis light through the addition of nanocapsules, with a greater barrier in both wavelengths when compared to the other packaging, from $0.51 \pm 0.01\%$ (210 nm) and $46.47 \pm 1.75\%$ (500 nm) and $1.84 \pm 0.11\%$ (210 nm) and $48.82 \pm 2.66\%$ (500 nm) for films with lycopene or β -carotene nanoencapsulated, respectively. In the development of cassava starch films with the addition of bixin nanocapsules, Pagno *et al.* (2016) observed protective effect on oxidation of sunflower oil stored under accelerated oxidation condition, with a lower formation of primary oxidation products for films with the addition of 2 %, 5 %, and 8 % of nanocapsules. The protective effect of the films may be related to higher opacity as a result of increased color intensity according to the concentration of nanocapsules added. With opacity of $38.9 \pm 1.1 \text{ A mm}^{-1}$ at 210 nm and $18.1 \pm 1.2 \text{ A mm}^{-1}$ at 500 nm for the film with 8% of the natural antioxidant. Siwach *et al.* (2016) observed that addition of lycopene extract at different concentrations in anhydrous cow milk fat showed a protective effect on oxidation. There was an increase of $1.9 \pm 0.6 \text{ mEq kg}^{-1}$ for the sample without antioxidant addition and $1.20 \pm 0.9 \text{ mEq kg}^{-1}$ for the highest concentration of extract added (150 ppm). The addition of lycopene extract also showed protective effect on the content free fatty acids and thiobarbituric acid about to the control, which indicates that addition of natural antioxidants can aid in stability and quality foods with high fat content during storage.

Products derived from milk, such as fat, are composed of phospholipids and triacylglycerols, with approximately 69% of saturated fatty acids, 27% to 34% of monounsaturated fatty acids and 2.5% to 3% of polyunsaturated fatty acids, such as linoleic acid. The butter obtained from the milk also presents phospholipids and triacylglycerols with the structure obtained through the water-oil emulsion, in which the phospholipids have a lower stability about triacylglycerols, in which the presence of polyunsaturated fatty acids increases the susceptibility to oxidation (Papadopoulou e Roussis, 2007; Soulti e Roussis, 2007).. The samples stored in the CSF and β CF presented a higher rate of formation of primary oxidation products when compared to LF films, with PI of $1.66 \pm 0.11 \text{ mEq kg}^{-1}$, $1.48 \pm 0.07 \text{ mEq kg}^{-1}$ and $1.29 \pm 0.09 \text{ mEq kg}^{-1}$, respectively. This behavior may be related to the degradation of free β -carotene as a result of the light incidence and loss of color of the films after the beginning of the study, in which the film with free lycopene presented slight stability and protection of the oxidation of the butter.

Cassava starch films added with green tea and palm oil extracts showed protective effect on butter stability during storage without light at 30 °C. Butter stored without packaging had higher PI when compared to the samples stored in the film without antioxidants and in PF, with an increase of 692.00 %, 559.21 % and 583.73 % after 45 days, respectively. The sample stored in the film with the addition of green tea extract had PI of 3.294 mEq kg⁻¹ and the film with the addition of palm oil extract of 3.980 mEq kg⁻¹, in which the addition of green tea extract presented greater protective effect when compared to the addition of palm oil extract. There was a decrease in the content of carotenoids, polyphenols, and flavonoids present in the films during storage, which may be related to the interaction between the additives and the product, reaction with the oxygen and antioxidant effect on the oxidative stability of the butter (Perazzo *et al.*, 2014). Behavior similar to that found in this study, in which the increase in the peroxide index occurred in the following order LDPE<CSF< βC5%<L5%<βCN5%<LN5%. The use of natural antioxidants in the development of active biodegradable packaging can provide greater stability during food storage, with the maintenance of quality and increase shelf life.

PI analysis is used to determine the formation of primary oxidation products, however, does not indicate the secondary products (Samet-Bali *et al.*, 2009). The concentration of conjugated dienes and conjugated trienes increased according to the storage. However, the samples stored in βCN5% and LN5% showed a lower formation of secondary products of oxidation ($p < 0.05$), which demonstrates the protective effect of films as active packaging (Figure 3). This result is in agreement with PI, the films with nanocapsules showed higher oxidation stability, barrier UV/Vis light transmission and the antioxidant effect of the carotenoids added.

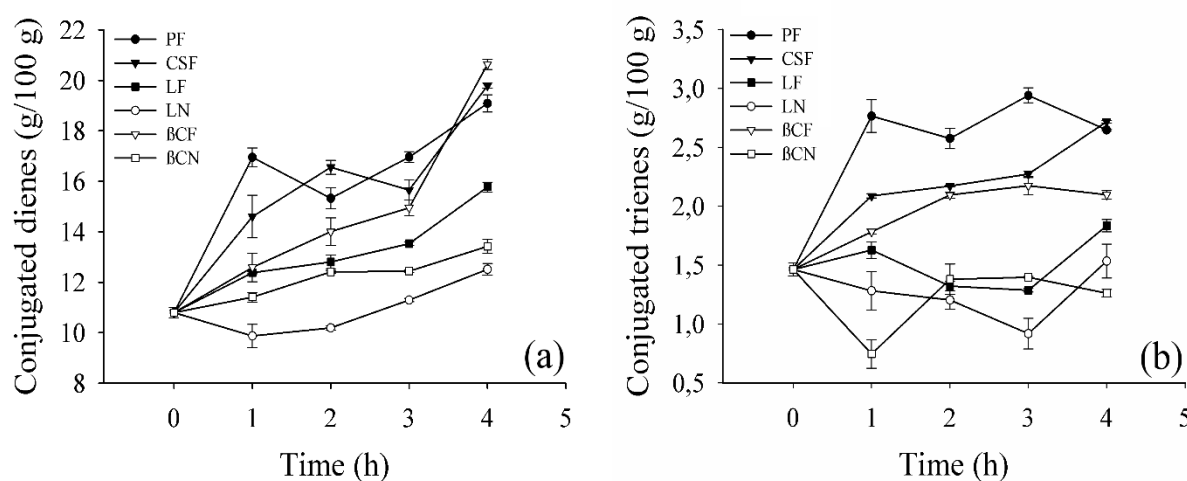


Figure 3. Content of conjugated dienes (a) and conjugated trienes (b) during storage of butter.

When evaluating the stability of traditional Tunisian butter obtained from cow's milk, Samet-Bali et al. (2009) observed an increase in the peroxide content during storage at 60 °C without light, with loss of emulsion and obtaining oil, related to storage temperature. The oil had the lowest formation of primary oxidation products up to 14 days of storage (1.495 mEq kg⁻¹), with a significant increase after 45 days (approximately 8 mEq kg⁻¹). Behavior similar to that observed for determination of secondary oxidation products, with higher absorbance at 232 nm after 20 days (approximately 50) and increase from 0.05 to 0.70 at 270 nm. The main fatty acids present in the butter were palmitic acid (32.04 ± 0.12%), stearic acid (18.80 ± 0.31%), myristic acid (11.38 ± 0.06%) and oleic acid (21.62 ± 0.41%), linoleic acid was also found (2.41 ± 0.01%). The presence of unsaturated fatty acids is related to the stability of the oil during storage. The peroxide index after 14 days is similar to that found for the samples stored in the films CSF, βCF and LF (1.29 ± 0.09 mEq kg⁻¹ at 1.66 ± 0.11 mEq kg⁻¹) under light (15 °C).

In the storage of butter with different concentrations of essential oil of *Satureja cilicica* (0.5%, 1%, and 2%) at 4 °C and 20 °C without light, Ozkan et al. (2007) observed the protective effect on oxidative stability according to the increase of the added natural antioxidant. The higher antioxidant addition showed a better protective effect at both storage temperatures, with an increase in PI of 0.35 mEq kg⁻¹ to 0.50 mEq kg⁻¹ and 0.69 mEq kg⁻¹, at 4 °C and 20 °C after 60 days, respectively. Butter stored without antioxidant presented higher peroxide index at the end of the study, with a content of 1.00 mEq kg⁻¹ (4 °C) and 1.14 mEq kg⁻¹ (20 °C). PI similar to that found after 2h storage for films LN (0.23 mEq kg⁻¹) and βCN (0.65 mEq kg⁻¹), with final content of 1.12 ± 0.02 mEq kg⁻¹ and 1.33 ± 0.03 mEq kg⁻¹ after 4 h of storage under light incidence. The high incidence of light (900-1000 lux) may be related to the greater effect on the oxidative stability of butter when compared to the storage temperature (15 °C). Butter are stored under refrigeration temperature for emulsion maintenance and texture, protected in aluminum foil packaging for less exposure to light and protection against photooxidation. Biodegradable films with the addition of natural antioxidants may represent a good alternative for the storage of foods with a high fat content, with antioxidant activity, a greater barrier to light transmission and protective effect on the oxidation process.

4. Conclusion

This study demonstrates that packaging may have an effect on the stability of food with high content fat, such as butter. The biodegradable LN and β CN films showed the highest protective effect when compared to PF films, with a lower formation of primary and secondary oxidation products. The addition of natural nanoencapsulated antioxidants, lycopene, and β -carotene, may aid in the development of active biodegradable packaging, with potential application as packaging for foods with high-fat content, stability to added additives and a greater barrier to transmission of UV/Vis light. More studies can be done to evaluate the stability and quality of the butter during storage in active biodegradable packages.

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CAPÍTULO IV: DISCUSSÃO GERAL, CONCLUSÕES E PERSPECTIVAS

DISCUSSÃO GERAL

O uso de polímeros naturais, como o amido, para o desenvolvimento de filmes biodegradáveis surge como alternativa para substituir ou minimizar o uso de embalagens não biodegradáveis, obtidas em sua maioria a partir de fontes não renováveis, como o petróleo. O crescente estudo para obtenção e caracterização de polímeros naturais permite o desenvolvimento de filmes biodegradáveis com diferentes características, incluindo funções básicas como embalar e proteger os alimentos ou atuar como carreadores de compostos bioativos. A adição de compostos bioativos, como antioxidantes naturais, auxilia na obtenção de embalagens ativas que apresentam interação com o produto, capaz de conferir maior proteção e manutenção da qualidade durante o armazenamento.

Como alternativa para produção de filmes ativos os carotenoides podem representar uma opção para a adição de antioxidantes naturais em substituição ao uso de antioxidantes sintéticos geralmente utilizados. Esses pigmentos recebem grande atenção por apresentar alta atividade antioxidante, relacionada a presença de ligações duplas conjugadas em sua estrutura. O licopeno e o β -caroteno são encontrados na forma de pigmentos em diversos alimentos, sendo que as fontes mais conhecidas e com alta concentração desses compostos são tomates e cenouras, respectivamente. O uso dessas matérias-primas permite a fácil obtenção de quantidades significativas, extração isolada e alto teor de pureza. Além do uso na forma livre, pode-se também nanoencapsular esses pigmentos e conferir maior estabilidade, solubilidade e aplicabilidade em diferentes matrizes, como a adição em filmes para o desenvolvimento de embalagens com atividade antioxidante. Contudo, é importante a caracterização das propriedades dos filmes, visto que a adição pode levar a alteração da matriz polimérica com menor ou maior interação entre as cadeias de amido e o plastificante.

De forma geral, todos os filmes apresentaram características específicas a partir da adição de licopeno ou β -caroteno livres e nanoencapsulados, o amido de mandioca mostrou ser uma boa fonte para obtenção de películas contínuas e biodegradáveis. Os filmes com adição de 5 % de licopeno ou β -caroteno livres e nanoencapsulados foram caracterizados quanto às propriedades mecânicas, física e de barreira (Tabela 2).

Tabela 2 - Propriedades dos filmes de polietileno de baixa densidade e filmes biodegradáveis.

Propriedades dos filmes	PEBD	Controle	L5%	LN5%	βC5%	βCN5%
Umidade (%)	-	11,50 ^b	10,68 ^b	13,46 ^a	13,94 ^a	13,73 ^a
Solubilidade (%)	-	17,88 ^b	15,18 ^b	20,35 ^b	19,45 ^b	18,79 ^b
Permeabilidade ao vapor de água (g mm/h m ² kPa)	0,01 ^d	0,36 ^c	0,31 ^c	0,55 ^a	0,36 ^c	0,44 ^b
Espessura (mm)	0,0045 ^c	0,123 ^b	0,121 ^b	0,143 ^a	0,129 ^b	0,157 ^a
Tração na ruptura (MPa)	18,42 ^a	3,09 ^b	2,43 ^d	2,92 ^c	2,66 ^d	2,56 ^d
Elongação na ruptura (%)	399,94 ^a	134,59 ^d	62,60 ^f	190,73 ^c	84,95 ^e	311,82 ^b
Diferença de cor	0,61 ^f	1,07 ^e	3,46 ^c	26,91 ^b	1,30 ^d	49,38 ^a
Transmissão de luz (210 nm)	28,67 ^a	9,21 ^c	4,70 ^d	0,51 ^f	7,63 ^b	1,84 ^e
Transmissão de luz (500 nm)	83,75 ^b	82,23 ^b	79,77 ^c	46,37 ^d	85,88 ^a	48,82 ^d
Estabilidade térmica	-	Sim	Sim	Sim	Sim	Sim
Estrutura homogênea	-	Sim	Não	Sim	Não	Sim
Biodegradabilidade (15 dias)	Não	Sim	Sim	Sim	Sim	Sim
Índice de peróxidos do óleo de girassol após 30 dias (mEq/Kg)	204,83 ^a	22,91 ^b	13,76 ^c	5,97 ^f	9,31 ^d	6,74 ^e

Diferentes letras na mesma linha indicam diferença estatisticamente significativa ($p < 0,05$).

PEBD: Polietileno de baixa densidade

Controle: Filme de amido de mandioca

L5%: Filme de amido de mandioca com 5 % de licopeno livre

LN5%: Filme de amido de mandioca com 5 % de nanocápsulas de licopeno

βC5%: Filme de amido de mandioca com 5 % de β-caroteno livre

βCN5%: Filme de amido de mandioca com 5 % de nanocápsulas de β-caroteno

As embalagens tradicionalmente utilizadas, como o polietileno de baixa de densidade, apresentam de modo geral melhores características, como elevada propriedade mecânica e baixa permeabilidade ao vapor de água. Contudo, não apresentam proteção contra a oxidação, característica de grande importância para garantir a qualidade e estabilidade do alimento embalado.

A adição de licopeno ou β-caroteno livres levou a obtenção de filmes com características semelhantes, com menor espessura, permeabilidade ao vapor de água e propriedades mecânicas. A diminuição das propriedades mecânicas está relacionada a menor interação amido-plastificante, resultado da não afinidade e distribuição aleatória na matriz

hidrofílica, com diminuição deste parâmetro quando comparado com o filme controle e adição de nanocápsulas. Contudo, a adição de nanocápsulas de licopeno ou β -caroteno mostrou efeito significativo sobre as propriedades dos filmes, com aumento da espessura, mudança nas propriedades mecânicas, cor, transmissão de luz, permeabilidade ao vapor de água e efeito protetor sobre a oxidação do óleo de girassol. O aumento da espessura dos filmes está relacionado ao aumento da concentração de sólidos adicionados à matriz, em que a presença dos polímeros utilizados para encapsulação pode contribuir para o aumento da espessura. A presença de polímeros (poli- ϵ -caprolactona) e surfactantes presentes nas nanocápsulas podem estar relacionados ao aumento do alongamento dos filmes, em que estes compostos podem interagir sinergicamente com o plastificante adicionado (glicerol), o que contribuiu para maior mobilidade da estrutura e obtenção de filmes com melhor flexibilidade.

Por outro lado, a cor também representa um parâmetro importante das embalagens, em que o aumento da intensidade de cor é capaz de conferir maior opacidade e menor transmissão de luz UV/Vis, comportamento observado nos filmes com adição de nanocápsulas de licopeno ou β -caroteno. A maior barreira a transmissão de luz em ambos os comprimentos de onda pode contribuir para estabilidade de alimentos com alto teor de gordura contra a fotooxidação. Estabelecer o método para avaliar o efeito antioxidante dos filmes pode ser uma dificuldade para indicar tal propriedade, sendo que medidas indiretas podem ser realizadas através da análise de um produto embalado durante o armazenamento. O óleo de girassol representa uma excelente opção para determinação deste parâmetro, visto que este apresenta alto conteúdo de gordura poliinsaturada susceptível a oxidação. Os resultados indicaram que todos os filmes biodegradáveis apresentaram efeito protetor contra a oxidação, quando comparados aos controles utilizados (óleo armazenado no filme de polietileno de baixa densidade, pote plástico transparente fechado e placa aberta). Contudo, os filmes com adição de nanocápsulas apresentaram maior efeito protetor, com menor formação de produtos primários e secundários de oxidação através da ação antioxidante e menor transmissão de luz, com índice de peróxidos dentro do limite estabelecido para óleos vegetais (10 mEq/Kg) (Codex Alimentarius, 1999).

Os filmes com 5% de licopeno ou β -caroteno livres apresentaram comportamento semelhante ao filme de amido sem a adição dos antioxidantes quanto a permeabilidade ao vapor de água, com média de 0,34 g mm/h m² kPa. Contudo, a adição de nanocápsulas conferiu maior permeabilidade, com aumento de 52 % e 22% para os filmes com nanocápsulas de licopeno e β -caroteno, respectivamente. Na análise de microscopia eletrônica de varredura foi possível observar a presença de poros na superfície dos filmes, o que pode contribuir para o aumento da permeabilidade do vapor de água através dos filmes, associada à

característica hidrofílica da matriz e a maior afinidade das nanocápsulas pela água. A análise estrutural dos filmes também permitiu observar a interação dos antioxidantes naturais com a matriz. Os filmes com adição dos carotenoides livres (L5% e β C5%) apresentaram estrutura menos compacta, com rachaduras e menor homogeneidade da seção transversal, o que contribuiu para a diminuição das propriedades mecânicas.

Outro fator importante e favorável dos filmes à base de fontes renováveis é que apresentam boa degradabilidade, mesmo que apresentem algumas propriedades inferiores, como as propriedades mecânicas e permeabilidade ao vapor de água. O grande interesse e desenvolvimento de materiais biodegradáveis pode ser um fator decisivo para escolha ou uso da embalagem. Assim, uma rápida degradação como a encontrada para os filmes de amido, de 15 dias, representa um grande avanço para a área tecnológica, com o estudo de diferentes fontes para obtenção de materiais biodegradáveis com menor impacto ambiental.

Licopeno ou β -caroteno livres e nanoencapsulados proporcionaram potencial desenvolvimento de filmes biodegradáveis com adição de antioxidantes naturais, o que torna importante a aplicação como embalagem, para avaliação do comportamento, interação e estabilidade do alimento durante o armazenamento. Para a avaliação do armazenamento de alimentos utilizam-se modelos com condições aceleradas de degradação, em que a estabilidade e qualidade de alimentos com alto teor de gordura a oxidação têm sido um dos parâmetros mais importantes a serem avaliados. A manteiga apresentou estabilidade oxidativa semelhante ao armazenamento do óleo de girassol, em ambos os casos os filmes com adição de nanocápsulas apresentaram maior efeito protetor à oxidação. Houve um aumento do índice de peróxidos durante o armazenamento, mas por apresentar maior barreira à luz UV/Vis e maior homogeneidade do carotenoide adicionado, os filmes com nanocápsulas apresentaram menor oxidação quando comparados com os filmes de amido, filmes com adição dos antioxidantes livres e filme de polietileno de baixa densidade. Com menor formação de produtos primários de oxidação, houve menor conteúdo de produtos secundários, em que a taxa de oxidação ocorreu na seguinte ordem: PEBD>Controle> β C5%>L5%> β CN5%>LN5%.

CONCLUSÕES

A adição de licopeno e β -caroteno possibilitou o uso de antioxidantes naturais para obtenção de embalagens ativas, que associada a técnica de nanoencapsulamento pôde-se conferir maior estabilidade dos compostos e intensidade cor dos filmes. O nanoencapsulamento também proporcionou a solubilidade em água dos carotenoides, que auxiliou na maior compatibilidade com a matriz polimérica.

De modo geral, a adição de nanocápsulas de licopeno ou β -caroteno conferiu melhores características quando comparados com a adição dos pigmentos na forma livre, maior barreira a transmissão de luz UV/Vis, aumento da intensidade de cor, estabilidade térmica e maior flexibilidade. Todos os filmes apresentaram rápida biodegradabilidade após 15 dias. Quanto à capacidade antioxidante, os filmes com adição de nanocápsulas mostraram maior efeito protetor sobre a estabilidade do óleo de girassol armazenado sob condição oxidativa acelerada, com menor formação de produtos primários e secundários de oxidação. No armazenamento de manteiga, os filmes com nanocápsulas mostraram maior proteção à oxidação, o que demonstra potencial aplicação como embalagens com atividade antioxidante para manutenção da qualidade e estabilidade de alimentos com alto teor de gordura.

PERSPECTIVAS

Os filmes biodegradáveis apresentaram resultados promissores para o desenvolvimento de embalagens ativas através da adição de compostos antioxidantes naturais na escala nanométrica. Contudo, novos estudos podem ser realizados para otimizar as características dos filmes e que possam melhorar a miscibilidade das nanocápsulas na matriz, uma vez que a adição dos antioxidantes, após o processo de gelatinização, conduziu a uma menor miscibilidade, alteração da viscosidade da solução filmogênica e a obtenção de filmes com maior porosidade. Novas aplicações dos filmes como embalagens ativas podem ser feitas para se verificar a interação ou migração dos carotenoides em diferentes matrizes alimentares e para compreender a atuação dos filmes na manutenção da estabilidade e qualidade de alimentos ao longo do armazenamento, bem como a permeabilidade a gases (O_2 , CO_2 e N_2). A aplicação dos filmes como cobertura de alimentos pode ser uma opção para promover maior interação e contato dos antioxidantes com a superfície dos alimentos.

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