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**Bioactive films based on cuttlefish (*Sepia officinalis*) skin gelatin
incorporated with cuttlefish protein hydrolysates: physicochemical
characterization and antioxidant properties**

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Abstract

The objective of this study was to apply cuttlefish (*Sepia officinalis*) skin protein isolate (CSPI) and hydrolysates (CSPH), using commercial Savinase® and Purafect® enzymes, as bioactive additives in the elaboration of gelatin-based films. CSPH and CSPI enriched films were colored and exhibited a higher UV-barrier properties compared to gelatin film. In addition, compared to CSPI added film, an increase of the glass transition temperature by 20% and 4%, respectively, for Purafect and Savinase hydrolysates enriched films was noted. However, elongation at break decreased significantly for CSPH incorporated films by 2.5-fold. The tensile strength was reduced by 28.2% and 44.4% for Purafect and Savinase hydrolysates added films, respectively. Furthermore, a decrease of water contact angle by 45% and 51% for films added with Purafect and Savinase hydrolysates, respectively, was displayed compared to gelatin film. Interestingly, CSPH enriched films also displayed higher antioxidant potential than control gelatin films evaluated by several *in vitro* assays.

Keywords: Cuttlefish skin proteins and hydrolysates; Edible films; Functional properties; Antioxidant activity.

1. Introduction

In recent years, the interest in by-products (viscera, head, trimmings, bones and skin) from the fishing industry has been gradually increased, now being considered as a potential source of resources rather than a disposal waste (Alfaro, Balbinot, Weber, Toniai, & Machado-Lunkes, 2015). In order to valorize fish by-products, several bioactive molecules can be extracted from the skin of various marine species such as gelatin, protein isolate, etc. Indeed, fish proteins have advantageous filmogenic properties that can promote the development of films, such as the ability to form networks, plasticity, elasticity and good barrier to oxygen (Cortez-Vega, Pizato, de Souza, & Prentice, 2014).

Gelatin is an important biopolymer derived by hydrolysis from collagen, the primary protein component of animal connective tissues, including skin and tendon (Poppe, 1997). Gelatin is widely used by food, cosmetic and pharmaceutical industries because of its functional and technological properties. Fish gelatins have been also extensively studied as biodegradable biopolymers due to their good film forming ability leading to produce transparent, almost colorless, water-soluble and highly extensible films (Hosseini & Gómez-Guillén, 2018; Alfaro et al., 2015). Furthermore, these biodegradable films are considered as ecofriendly packaging reducing thereby plastic wastes (Hoque, Benjakul, & Prodpran, 2011a; Alinejad, Motamedzadegan, Rezaei, & Regenstein, 2017).

Gelatin films could be used as carrier agents for many types of additives such as antimicrobial agents in order to delay or prevent the growth of microorganisms on the products surface and thereby extend the shelf life and improve the safety of packaged foods (Etxabide, Uranga, Guerrero, & de la Caba, 2017). Antioxidants including plant extracts (Gómez-Guillén, Ihl, Bifani, Silva, & Montero, 2007; Hoque, Benjakul, & Prodpran, 2011b; Jridi et al., 2017), phenolic compounds (Bao, Xu, & Wang, 2009; Benbettaïeb et al., 2016), essential oils (Martucci, Gende, Neira, & Ruseckaite, 2015) or polysaccharides (Abdelhedi et

al., 2018) are additives often incorporated in fish gelatin films preparation to prevent or delay food oxidation. Recently, many studies dealt with the elaboration and characterization of protein hydrolysates from various marine sources. Protein hydrolysates, generally obtained by autolytic or heterolytic enzymatic hydrolysis process under controlled conditions from marine sources, are considered as bioactive peptides which are characterized by several biological activities including antioxidant (Abdelhedi et al., 2016; Nasri et al., 2013), antibacterial (Beaulieu, Bondu, Doiron, Rioux, & Turgeon, 2015), anti-diabetic (Harnedy et al., 2018), anti-hypertensive (Lassoued et al., 2015), anti-inflammatory (Ahn, Cho, & Je, 2015), cholesterol-lowering ability and immunomodulating effects (Nasri, 2017).

However, few studies were interested in protein hydrolysates incorporation as antioxidant agents into gelatin films. In this context, Giménez, Gómez-Estaca, Alemán, Gómez-Guillén, & Montero (2009) investigated the effect of the incorporation of giant squid gelatin hydrolysates on the antioxidant property of the gelatin film. Additionally, Alinejad et al. (2017) studied the influence of adding protein hydrolysates obtained from whitecheek shark on the physical-mechanical properties and antioxidant activity of bovine gelatin films. Abdelhedi et al. (2018) reported that bioactive blend and bilayer films based on gelatin and smooth-hound viscera proteins, incorporated or not with sulfated polysaccharide or smooth-hound peptides were successfully made and showed interesting antioxidant potential.

In a previous work, blend films based on cuttlefish (*Sepia officinalis*) skin gelatin (CSG) and protein isolate (CSPI) at different ratios were prepared and showed interesting antioxidant activity which is CSPI content dependent (Kchaou et al., 2017). In the present research, enzymatic hydrolysis was used in order to produce different protein hydrolysates (CSPH) from CSPI. Therefore, the aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of CSPH incorporation on the physical-chemical and antioxidant properties of gelatin films.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Collection and preparation of cuttlefish skin

Cuttlefish (*S. officinalis*) by-products were obtained from the local fish market of Sfax City, Tunisia. Cuttlefish were collected from February to April at the golf of Gabes. The samples were packed in polyethylene bags, placed in ice and transported to the research laboratory within 30 min. Upon arrival, cuttlefish skins were washed several times with tap water to eliminate residues and dark ink and then stored at -20 °C in plastic bags until used for gelatin and protein isolate production.

2.2. Extraction of gelatin

Gelatin extraction was carried out from cuttlefish skin as described by Jridi et al. (2013a). Cuttlefish skin was first cut into small pieces (1 cm × 1 cm) and soaked in 0.05 M NaOH (1:10, w/v). The mixture was stirred for 2 h at room temperature (25±2 °C) and alkaline solution was changed every 30 min. The alkaline-treated skins were then washed with distilled water until a neutral pH was obtained. The prepared skins were soaked in 100 mM glycine-HCl buffer, (pH 2.0) with a solid/solvent ratio of 1:10 (w/v) for 18 h at room temperature (25±2 °C) (hydrolysis of collagen), and then treated at 50 °C for additional 18 h to extract the gelatin fractions. The supernatant of the obtained mixture was then freeze-dried (Moduloyd Freeze dryer, Thermo Fisher, USA) at -50 °C and 121 mbar during 72 h. The resulting cuttlefish skin gelatin (CSG) was used for film preparation.

2.3. Extraction of cuttlefish skin protein isolate

Protein isolate was extracted from cuttlefish skin as reported in our previous work (Kchaou et al., 2017) using the pH-shifting method. An aqueous dispersion of cuttlefish skin mince was first prepared, by solubilisation in distilled water. The pH was adjusted at 11.0

using 2 M NaOH solution for 30 min. The ratio cuttlefish mince and water was 1:3 (w/v). Solubilisation was maintained under continuous stirring at room temperature (25 ± 2 °C). The resulting mixture was centrifuged. The obtained pellet containing the collagen underwent an acidic treatment with an HCl solution (1 M) at pH 2.0 for 15 minutes, followed by a thermal treatment at 50 °C for 1 hour to denature the triple helix collagen structure. The resulting mixture was centrifuged and the resulted supernatant was freeze-dried (at -50 °C and 121 mbar during 72 h) and referred to as cuttlefish skin protein isolate (CSPI).

2.4. Preparation of protein hydrolysates from CSPI

In order to obtain protein hydrolysates, CSPI was first dissolved in distilled water at 50 °C with a solid/solvent ratio of 1:4 (w/v). Then, the pH of the mixture was adjusted to the optimum value of each enzymatic activity (pH 10.0) by adding 4 N NaOH solution. Thereafter, protein isolate was subjected to enzymatic hydrolysis, using two exogenous enzymes, Savinase® and Purafect®, added at the same enzyme/protein ratio 6/1 (U/mg of protein) to compare their hydrolytic efficiencies. During the reaction (50 °C), the pH of the mixture was maintained constant (pH 10.0) by continuous addition of NaOH solution. After the achievement of the final digestion reaction time (7 h), the reactions were stopped by heating the different solutions at 95 °C for 20 min to inactivate the enzymes. The supernatants, corresponding to the different protein hydrolysates, were then collected, freeze-dried (at -50 °C and 121 mbar during 72 h) and stored at -20 °C for further use. Hydrolysates prepared using Savinase® and Purafect® were noted as Savinase and Purafect hydrolysates, respectively.

The degree of hydrolysis (DH), defined as the percent ratio of the number of peptide broken to the total number of bonds, was calculated based on the volume of NaOH added during the reaction, as described by Adler-Nissen (1986) using the following formula:

$$DH (\%) = \frac{(B \times Nb) * 100}{(MP \times \alpha \times h_{tot})}$$

where B is the amount of NaOH consumed (mL), Nb is the normality of the base, MP is the mass (g) of the protein (N = 6.25), α represents the average degree of dissociation of the α -NH₂ groups in protein substrate ($\alpha = \frac{10^{pH-pK}}{1 + 10^{pH-pK}}$) and h_{tot} is the total number of peptide bonds in the protein substrate and was assumed to be 8.6 meq/g (Alder-Nissen, 1986).

CSPI was hydrolyzed with Purafect® and Savinase® in order to elaborate bioactive peptides. The hydrolysis kinetic curves (data not shown) displayed the same evolution, characterized by a high rate of hydrolysis during the first hour, which was subsequently slowing down with the reaction time and then reached a stationary phase. Regarding the protease activity, Savinase® was more efficient than Purafect®. After 30 min of hydrolysis, DHs values reached 6.92% and 3.84% for Savinase hydrolysate and Purafect hydrolysate, respectively. After 7 h of hydrolysis, DHs values were 13.52% and 8.87% using Savinase® and Purafect®, respectively. Indeed, the difference in DH values between Purafect and Savinase hydrolysates is essentially due to the difference in the specificity of enzymes used. During hydrolysis, Savinase® and Purafect® have different cleavage positions on polypeptide chains. Savinase® and Purafect® produce therefore different hydrolysates (Bkhairia et al., 2016). Typical hydrolysis curves were reported for protein hydrolysates of smooth hound (*Mustelus mustelus*) (Abdelhedi et al., 2016), thornback ray (*Raja clavata*) (Lassoued et al., 2015) and Goby (*Zosterisessor ophiocephalus*) (Nasri et al., 2013). In the following work, we will focus only on hydrolysates obtained after 7 hours (end of hydrolysis).

2.5. Films preparation

CSG film forming solution was prepared by dissolving 4 g of CSG in 100 mL distilled water. The mixture was heated at 60 °C for 30 min with continuous stirring and the pH was

adjusted to 5.5 with NaOH (0.5 M) to ensure fully dissolution and to obtain an homogeneous colloidal solution of gelatin, that conduct to less crystalline and more homogeneous films. CSG-enriched films were prepared by incorporating CSPH and CSPI at a concentration of 10% (w/w gelatin) in the film forming solutions. Then, the mixtures were gently stirred at room temperature (25 ± 2 °C) for 30 min. Glycerol was used as plasticizer at a concentration of 15% (w/w of gelatin). Films were obtained by casting each solution (25 mL) into plastic Petri dishes (12 cm of side). Control films were made from the CSG film forming solutions without adding CSPH and CSPI. Drying was then performed in a ventilated climatic chamber (KBF 240 Binder, ODIL, France) at 25 °C and 50% relative humidity (RH) for 24 h. Dried films were manually peeled off from the surface and equilibrated at 25 °C and relative humidity (RH) of 50% before analyses.

2.6. Physical characterization of the films

2.6.1. Thickness

Films thickness was measured using a digital thickness gauge (PosiTector 6000, DeFelsko Corporation, USA). Five measurements at different locations were taken from each film sample peeled from Petri dish, one from the center and four from the perimeter. The average value was used in the calculation and taken into account for mechanical properties.

2.6.2. Color

Color of films was determined using a CIE colorimeter (CR-200; Minolta, Japan). A white standard color plate ($L_0^* = 97.5$, $a_0^* = -0.1$, and $b_0^* = 2.3$) was used as background for the color measurements of the films. Color of the films was expressed as L^* (lightness/brightness), a^* (redness/greenness) and b^* (yellowness/blueness) values. The

difference in color (ΔE^*) for enriched films was calculated referred to the control CSG films according to the following equation:

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

Where ΔL^* , Δa^* and Δb^* are the differences between the color parameters of the enriched films and those of control CSG films.

2.6.3. Light transmission

Film portions (1 cm x 3 cm) were placed in the test cell of a UV–Visible spectrophotometer (SAFAS UVmc). An empty test cell was used as a reference. UV-vis absorption spectra were recorded in the wavelength ranging from 200 to 800 nm. Results of UV-vis absorption spectra were then converted in terms of transmission spectra using the following formula:

$$T(\%) = 10^{(-A)} \times 100$$

Where T is the light transmission (%) and A representing the absorbance

2.6.4. FTIR spectroscopy

FTIR spectra of films were obtained using a Perkin-Elmer spectrometer (Spectrum 65, France) equipped with an attenuated total reflectance (ATR) accessory with a ZnSe crystal. 32 scans were collected with 4 cm⁻¹ resolution in the wavenumber range 650-4000 cm⁻¹. Calibration was done using background spectrum recorded from the clean and empty cell at 25 °C. The Spectrum Suite ES software was used for FTIR data treatment.

2.6.5. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)

Thermal properties of films were studied using a differential scanning calorimeter (DSC Q20, TA Instruments). Films (5 mg) were placed into aluminum pans, sealed and subjected to a double heating-cooling cycle from -50 °C to 150 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min. The empty aluminum pan was used as a reference. Nitrogen was used as purge gas at a flow rate of 25 mL/min. Glass transition temperature (T_g) for each sample was then determined from the mid-point of the second heating cycle using TA Universal Analysis 2000 software (version 4.5 A, TA instruments).

2.6.6. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

Thermogravimetric analysis was carried out to determine the thermal stability of the film samples. This technique permits the continuous weighing of the film as a function of the temperature rise in a controlled atmosphere (nitrogen). Thermogravimetric measurements were performed using a TGA instrument (SDT Q 600). The samples (approximately 10 mg) were heated from 25 to 600 °C at a heating rate of 5 °C/min under nitrogen atmosphere. Data analysis was performed using TA Universal Analysis 2000 software (version 4.5 A, TA instruments).

2.6.7. Observation of film microstructure

The cross-section morphology of film samples was determined using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Hitachi S4800), at an angle of 90° with the surface, using different magnifications. Prior to imaging the film cross-section, film samples were cryofractured by immersion in liquid nitrogen and fixed on the SEM support using double side adhesive tape, and observed under an accelerating voltage of 2.0 kV and an absolute pressure of 60 Pa, after sputter coating with a 5 nm thick gold.

2.6.8. Mechanical properties

Tensile strength (TS, MPa) and elongation at break (EAB, %) of film samples were determined using a texture analyzer (TA. HD plus model, Stable MicroSystems, UK) with a 300 N load cell, according to the standard method ISO 527-3 (similar to the ASTM D882 method). Rectangular film samples with dimensions (2.5 cm x 8 cm) were cut using a standardized precision cutter (Thwing-Albert JDC Precision Sample Cutter) in order to get tensile test piece with an accurate width and parallel sides throughout the entire length. Before testing, all the samples were equilibrated for two weeks at 25 °C and 50% RH. Equilibrated films samples were then installed vertically in the extension grips of the testing machine and stretched uniaxially with a cross-head speed of 50 mm/min until breaking according to the ISO standard. The maximum load and the final extension at break were determined from the corresponding stress-strain curves and used for the calculation of TS and EAB as follows:

$$TS \text{ (MPa)} = \frac{\text{Maximum force}}{t \times w}$$

$$EAB(\%) = 100 \times \frac{(l - l_0)}{l_0}$$

where, t is the thickness (mm), w the width (mm) of films, l_0 the initial length of the film and l is the length of the film when it breaks. Measurements were carried out at room temperature (25 ± 2 °C) and six samples for each film formulation were tested.

2.6.9. Surface properties

The surface tension of films (γ_{film}) and its polar ($\gamma_{\text{film}}^{\text{P}}$) and dispersive ($\gamma_{\text{film}}^{\text{D}}$) components were determined using the Owens & Wendt (1969) method, using water ($\gamma_{\text{Liq}} = 72.8$ mN/m ; $\gamma_{\text{Liq}}^{\text{D}} = 21.8$ mN/m ; $\gamma_{\text{Liq}}^{\text{P}} = 51$ mN/m), ethylene glycol ($\gamma_{\text{Liq}} = 47.7$ mN/m ; $\gamma_{\text{Liq}}^{\text{D}} = 30.9$ mN/m; $\gamma_{\text{Liq}}^{\text{P}} = 16.8$ mN/m) and diiodomethane ($\gamma_{\text{Liq}} = 50.8$ mN/m ; $\gamma_{\text{Liq}}^{\text{D}} = 50.8$ mN/m ; $\gamma_{\text{Liq}}^{\text{P}} = 0$ mN/m) according the following equations:

$$\gamma_S = \gamma_S^D + \gamma_S^P$$

244

$$\gamma_{Liq}(1 + \cos\theta) = 2(\sqrt{\gamma_{film}^D \times \gamma_{Liq}^D} + \sqrt{\gamma_{film}^P \times \gamma_{Liq}^P})$$

246

247 Where θ , γ_{Liq} , γ_{Liq}^D and γ_{Liq}^P are respectively the contact angle, the surface tension, the
 248 dispersive and the polar components of the surface tension of the tested liquid; γ_{film}^P and γ_{film}^D
 249 are the polar and dispersive components of the surface tension of the film surface tested. The
 250 contact angle is expressed in degree and all the surface tension parameters are expressed in
 251 $mN.m^{-1}$.

252 Three liquids (water, ethylene glycol and diiodomethane), with well-known polar γ_{Liq}^P
 253 and dispersive γ_{Liq}^D contributions, were used. The contact angle measurements were carried
 254 out using the sessile drop method on a goniometer (Drop Shape Analyzer 30 from
 255 KrussGmbH), equipped with an image analysis software (ADVANCE). First, a droplet of
 256 each liquid ($\sim 2 \mu L$) was deposited on the film surface with a precision syringe. The method is
 257 based on image processing and curve fitting for contact angle measurement from a theoretical
 258 meridian drop profile, determining contact angle between the baseline of the water drop and
 259 the tangent at the drop boundary. Then, the contact angle was measured at 0 time (< 2 s) and at
 260 30 s on both sides of the drop and averaged. Five measurements per film were carried out. All
 261 the tests were conducted in an environmental chamber with a constant environment at a
 262 temperature of 25 ± 2 °C and a relative humidity of $50 \pm 1\%$.

263 2.7. *In vitro* antioxidant activity

264 2.7.1. Reducing power assay

The ability of CSPI, CSPH and films to reduce iron (III) was determined according to the method of Yildirim, Mavi, & Kara (2001). The hydrolysates and the protein isolate were tested alone or in films with a concentration of 4.4 mg/mL. For this, a volume of 0.5 mL of each sample or small pieces of each film (10 mg), was mixed with 1.25 mL of 0.2 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.6) and 1.25 mL of 1% (w/v) potassium ferricyanide. The mixtures were then incubated for 30 min (3 h for the films) at 50 °C. After incubation, 1.25 mL of 10% (w/v) trichloroacetic acid was added to the mixtures which were centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000g. Finally, 1.25 mL of the supernatant solution of each sample mixture was mixed with 1.25 mL of distilled water and 0.25 mL of 0.1% (w/v) ferric chloride. After 10 min reaction time, the absorbance of the resulting solutions was measured at 700 nm using polystyrene spectrophotometry cuvettes. Higher absorbance of the reaction mixture indicated higher reducing power. The values are presented as the means of triplicate analyses.

2.7.2. DPPH free radical-scavenging activity

The DPPH free radical-scavenging activity of CSPH, CSPI and films was determined as described by Bersuder, Hole, & Smith (1998) with some modifications. 500µL of each sample or small pieces of each film (10 mg) were added to 375 µL of ethanol solution and 125 µL of 0.02 mM DPPH in ethanol. The mixtures were then incubated for 1 h at room temperature in the dark. Control tubes were assessed in the same manner without film samples. The reduction of DPPH radical was measured at 517 nm, using a UV–visible spectrophotometer.

The free radical-scavenging activity was calculated as follows:

$$DPPHscavenging(\%) = \frac{A_c - (A_s - A_b)}{A_c} \times 100$$

where A_c is the absorbance of DPPH solution without addition of the films, A_s is the absorbance of DPPH solution containing the film samples and A_b is the absorbance of blank tubes containing film samples without addition of the DPPH solution.

A lower absorbance of the reaction mixture indicated a higher radical-scavenging activity. The test was carried out in triplicate.

2.7.3. β -carotene-linoleate bleaching assay

The ability of CSPH, CSPI and films to prevent β -carotene bleaching was determined according to the method of Koleva, van Beek, Linssen, de Groot, & Evstatieva (2002). 0.5 mg β -carotene in 1 mL chloroform was mixed with 25 μ L of linoleic acid and 200 μ L of Tween-40. The chloroform was completely evaporated under vacuum in a rotator evaporator at 40 °C, then 100 mL of double distilled water were added and the resulting mixture was vigorously stirred. The emulsion obtained was freshly prepared before each experiment. Aliquots (2.5 mL) of the β -carotene-linoleic acid emulsion were transferred into test tubes containing 0.5 mL from each sample or small pieces of each film (10 mg). The tubes were immediately placed in a water bath and incubated at 50 °C for 2 h. Thereafter, the absorbance of each sample was measured at 470 nm using polystyrene spectrophotometry cuvettes. The control tube was prepared in the same conditions by adding 0.5 mL of distilled water instead of the sample solution. The antioxidant activity was evaluated in terms of β -carotene bleaching inhibition using the following formula:

$$\beta - \text{carotene bleaching inhibition (\%)} = \left(1 - \left(\frac{A_{\text{sample}}^0 - A_{\text{sample}}^{120}}{A_{\text{control}}^0 - A_{\text{control}}^{120}} \right) \right) \times 100$$

where A^0 : absorbance at $t=0$ min, A^{120} : absorbance at $t=120$ min. The test was carried out in triplicate.

2.8. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed with SPSS ver. 17.0, professional edition using ANOVA analysis at a p level < 0.05. Duncan's multiple range test (p-value < 0.05) was used to detect differences among mean values of all the parameters analyzed for the different films. A standard deviation at the 90% confidence level was used to compare the DSC data for the different films.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Functional properties of films

3.1.1. Color of films

The color data of CSG films and those enriched by CSPI and CSPH are given in Table 1. The highest L* and lowest b* values were detected with control films. Decreases in L*-values and increases in a* and b*-values were observed in films, when CSPI and CSPH were incorporated, indicating a decrease in lightness and an increase in browning color. Enriched films are slightly brown compared to control films. The color difference was confirmed by the calculation of ΔE^* taking the gelatin film as reference. The obtained ΔE^* -values ranged from 5.47 to 6.94. Indeed, at the final moment of the enzymatic hydrolysis, more colored peptides are generated. According to Dong et al. (2008), the longer hydrolysis time probably accelerated the pigments oxidation and Maillard reaction. This may explain the darkening and browning color of CSPH. Similarly, Nuanmano, Prodpran, & Benjakul (2015) reported that the addition of fish gelatin hydrolysates with higher DH (95%) to fish myofibrillar protein films leads to the same behaviour. Indeed, the yellowness may be due to the amino groups (-NH₂) of the hydrolysate, which may interact with the carbonyl groups (C=O) of lipid oxidation products in the polymeric matrix via the Maillard reaction,

particularly during drying of the film (Nuanmano et al., 2015; Rocha et al., 2018). Hasanzati Rostami, Motamedzadegan, Hosseini, Rezaei, & Kamali (2017) indicated a rise of the yellowish (b-values) and ΔE^* values in gelatin films with the silver carp protein hydrolysate content. Furthermore, Lin et al. (2018) attributed the increase of yellowness to the higher content of lysine and histidine amino acids incorporated in the gelatin film matrix. Regarding the increase in redness with the addition of CSPH to gelatin films, this fact could be due to the initial colored compounds existing in CSPI (undigested protein) as it has been reported in previous work (Kchaou et al., 2017). Indeed, as a function of hydrolysis time, more peptides were generated, which may explain the darker color of CSPH.

3.1.2. UV and light barrier efficacy

Transmission of UV and visible light of gelatin films and those enriched with CSPI and CSPH was determined at selected wavelengths from 200 to 800 nm. Fig. 1 illustrated that prepared films have a high UV-barrier property in the range of (200-280 nm). This is attributed to the presence of some aromatic amino acids such as phenylalanine and tyrosine in the gelatin that absorb UV light (Jongjareonrak, Benjakul, Visessanguan, Prodpran, & Tanaka, 2006). Hoque et al. (2011a) reported similarly a very low transmission (0.01%) at 200 nm for cuttlefish (*Sepia pharaonis*) gelatin films. At 350 nm, light transmission decreases remarkably by about 56% for both hydrolysates incorporated films, respectively. These finding should be explained by the fact that CSPH could contain more aromatic amino acids than the gelatin. In the visible range, control CSG film was the most transparent ($\approx 80\%$ transmission). The light transmission decreased with the incorporation of CSPI and CSPH in the UV (200-400 nm) and the visible (400-800 nm) ranges. Enriched films provided slighter barrier against light incidence and could be used as barrier packaging to protect packaged foods against light oxidative deterioration.

3.1.3. FTIR spectra

The infrared spectroscopy was used in this study in order to assess and determine the interactions established between gelatin and CSPH or CSPI in the film matrix. Fig. 2 showed the infrared spectra of gelatin film and those enriched with CSPI and protein hydrolysates. Prepared films displayed similar spectra in the range of 700-1800 cm^{-1} . The main characteristic absorption bands in gelatin films are located at 1560-1680 cm^{-1} (representing C=C and C=O stretching of primary and secondary amine N-H band of amide-I), 1540-1610 cm^{-1} (assigned to NH of amide-II) and 1230-1340 cm^{-1} (assigned to aromatic primary amine, C-N and N-H stretch of amide-III or vibrations of CH_2 groups of glycine) (Hoque et al., 2011a). Moreover, all spectra of gelatin films showed major bands at approximately 3300-3500 cm^{-1} and 2920-2945 cm^{-1} , corresponding to amide A (NH-stretching coupled with hydrogen bonding) and amide B (asymmetric stretching vibration of $=\text{C}-\text{H}$ and $-\text{NH}_3^+$). In addition, a band located at 1040-1080 cm^{-1} was found in all film samples, corresponding to the glycerol (-OH group) added as a plasticizer (Bergo & Sobral, 2007). The spectra did not show significant difference in the position of the amides I, II and III. In addition, all the samples of gelatins, protein isolates and protein hydrolysates derived from the same raw material (cuttlefish skin). Thus, the added protein hydrolysates did not generate or suppress the overall interactions present initially in gelatin films. However, for the amide A region, a shift to lower wavenumbers was detected with the enriched films compared to gelatin film. Indeed, amide A shifted from 3320 cm^{-1} to 3314 cm^{-1} , 3313 cm^{-1} and 3317 cm^{-1} with the addition of CSPI, Purafect and Savinase hydrolysates, respectively. Generally, the decrease in vibrational wavenumber and broadening of the OH and NH vibration bands could be linked to the water content changes and water-biopolymer interactions via hydrogen bonding, which could affect the network organization (Arfat, Benjakul, Prodpran & Osako, 2014; Kchaou et

al., 2017). This strengthening of the matrix by hydrogen bond is often revealed by a higher thermal stability or Tg

3.1.4. Thermal properties by DSC and TGA analyses

The thermal properties of gelatin films and those enriched with CSPI and CSPH were examined by DSC and the glass transition temperature (Tg) was determined from the second cycle of heating. The glass transition is associated with the molecular segmental motion of disordered (amorphous phase) structure, which undergoes from a brittle glassy solid state to a rubbery state (Nilsuwan, Benjakul, & Prodpran, 2018). As shown in Table 1, Tg value of control gelatin film was 58.4 °C and increased gradually to 59.5 °C and 61.8 °C with the addition of CSPI and Savinase hydrolysate, respectively. Tg value of control gelatin film (58.4 °C) was higher than that reported by Nilsuwan et al. (2018) for tilapia skin gelatin based films (45.5 °C) and lower than that stated by Jridi, Abdelhedi, Zouari, Fakhfakh, & Nasri (2019a) for films based on grey triggerfish skin gelatin (71.3 °C). The difference on Tg values for gelatin-based films depends on gelatin sources, compositions of film and process used (Tongnuanchan, Benjakul, Prodpran, & Nilsuwan, 2015).

Interestingly, Purafect hydrolysate incorporated films showed the highest Tg values which reached 71.4 °C. The increase in Tg values with the incorporation of CSPH could be explained by the establishment of interactions between hydrogen bonds of CSG and CSPH in the film matrix as displayed from FTIR experiments. An increase of the Tg value was also reported by Lin et al. (2018) with the addition of amino acids (lysine, arginine and histidine). Therefore the thermal stability of gelatin films was improved. However, Hasanzati Rostami et al. (2017) stated a decrease of Tg values with the addition of silver carp protein hydrolysates to fish gelatin films. The authors suggest that this decrease of Tg might be due to the lower molecular weight of protein hydrolysates which can position between protein chains themselves. Protein hydrolysates can also interfere with the protein-protein interaction, which

led to increasing the free volume between the polymer chains and the mobility of molecules *i.e.* a plasticizing mechanism (Giménez et al., 2009).

The thermal stability of films was assessed by TGA at temperatures ranging from 25 to 600 °C. The TGA is a technique in which the mass change of a substance is measured when it is subjected to a controlled temperature program. The thermal degradation temperature, the weight loss (Δw) and the residue of films are presented in Table 1. From the TGA curves (supplementary data), two main stages of weight loss were observed. The first step of transformation starts from the ambient temperature until around 175 °C. This weight loss (Δw_1) step corresponds to the loss of free and bound water in the films (above 100 °C) and varied from 11% to 14%. The second stage of transformation is related to the thermal degradation or the decomposition of the gelatin chains. The degradation temperatures (T_{max}) were ranging from 296.0 °C to 310.7 °C. In this stage, the weight loss (Δw_2) of films is greater and ranged from 64.9% for gelatin films to around 60% for enriched films. The residual mass at 600 °C, rose from 19% to about 23 and 25% when the protein hydrolysates and CSPI were incorporated in gelatin films. The increase in T_{max} and residual mass values suggest that the addition of CSPI and protein hydrolysates limited the thermal degradation of gelatin films. The interactions between CSPH or CSPI and CSG in the film matrix, as previously demonstrated by FTIR and DSC results, mostly yielded the stronger film network, leading to higher heat resistance of enriched films than that of the CSG films (Arfat et al., 2014). Their interactions mainly determine the thermal stability of enriched gelatin films by hydrogen bonds (de Morais Lima et al., 2017).

3.1.5. Microstructure

Scanning Electron Microscopy observations were conducted in order to better understand the microscopic structure of enriched films. Fig. 3 illustrates the scanning electron

micrographs of the cross-section of control gelatin film and those containing CSPI and Purafect hydrolysate. The cross-section micrographs allow not only the observation of film internal microstructures but they also contribute to a better knowledge of the film-forming behavior of polymers. The micrographs revealed homogenous and uniform structure of control and CSPI enriched films, suggesting therefore that the polymer and the additives interacted well with each other. This allowed to form a cohesive and continuous matrix (de Morais Lima et al., 2017). However, the micrograph of Purafect hydrolysate added film displayed a relatively heterogeneous structure.

3.1.6. Mechanical properties

Results of tensile strength (TS) and elongation at break (EAB) of gelatin films and those enriched with CSPI and CSPH are shown in Table 1. Among the different films, control gelatin film showed the highest TS (22.67 MPa) and EAB (32.83%) values, followed by CSPI enriched film, 22.09 MPa and 26.26%, respectively. The CSPH incorporation leads to a significant decrease in the mechanical properties of gelatin films. Indeed, TS decreased by 30.1% and 45.8% for films added with Purafect and Savinase hydrolysates, respectively. The EAB were around three-fold lower for CSPH enriched films compared to control film. The decrease in both TS and EAB for CSPH incorporated films revealed the fragility of these films, which are mechanically weaker and less deformable compared to control film. The small peptides could be easily inserted in the protein network and establish hydrogen bondings with the gelatin chains, which is detrimental for the chain–chain interactions. These tend to decrease the density of intermolecular interactions and to increase the free volume between gelatin chains (Giménez et al., 2009).

Our findings were in accordance with those of Jridi et al. (2013b) who indicated that both TS and EAB values of CSG films decreased with the increase of pepsin used for gelatin

extraction (or the extent of gelatin hydrolysis). Moreover, Hasanzati Rostami et al. (2017) reported that the mechanical strength was significantly reduced for gelatin films with the addition of fish protein hydrolysate obtained from silver carp. In addition, Giménez et al. (2009) reported that increasing the content of gelatin hydrolysates in the squid skin gelatin films leads to a decrease of the mechanical resistance (puncture force) coupled to an increase of the distensibility (puncture deformation) revealing a plasticization process. Furthermore, microstructure results displayed a heterogeneous structure for Purafect hydrolysate enriched films. This result correlates with the decrease in tensile strength and elongation at break for CSPH incorporated films.

3.1.7. Surface properties

Surface properties of gelatin film and those enriched with CSPI and CSPH were determined firstly by measuring their water contact angles (WCA) at 0 and 30 s as shown in Fig. 4A. CSPI enriched film showed the highest initial water contact angle ($WCA=114^{\circ}$) followed by the gelatin film (88°). The higher WCA of CSPI added films could be explained by the fact that CSPI contains more hydrophobic amino acids (leucine, isoleucine, valine, methionine, tyrosine and phenylalanine, which represents 191.6 residues per 1000 residues) compared to CSG that contains 80.4 residues per 1000 residue of hydrophobic acids (Kchaou et al., 2017). The incorporation of the CSPH leads to a significant decrease in WCA values which were in the range of $56-63^{\circ}$. Such results could be the consequence of the hydrophilic character of the CSPH, which has shorter protein chains that contain polar amino acids able to be re-oriented at the surface of the films. This provides a higher hydrophilicity. In this context, Hoque et al. (2011a) indicated that protein hydrolysis could expose more carboxylic group and amino group to the surface, which might then form hydrogen bonds with the water molecules and lead to the higher hydrophilicity of the resulting films. Moreover, several studies have shown that fish protein hydrolysates have excellent water holding capacity

478 favored by the presence of polar groups such as COOH and NH₂ generated by the enzymatic
479 hydrolysis. These polar groups have a substantial effect on the water absorption and
480 hydrophilicity (Wasswa, Tang, Gu, & Yuan, 2007; Kristinsson & Rasco, 2000). A decrease of
481 WCA values has been similarly indicated by Hasanzati Rostami et al. (2017) for gelatin films
482 incorporated with silver carp protein hydrolysates because of its high hydrophilic character.
483 Abdelhedi et al. (2018) reported that the smaller WCA obtained for gelatin films added with
484 smooth-hound peptides revealed their sensitivity against moisture. After 30 s, a slight
485 decrease of WCA was revealed for control gelatin films and those containing CSPI and
486 Purafect hydrolysate due to exclusively evaporation of the solvent in the surrounding
487 atmosphere that was not saturated with the liquid vapor (25 °C, 50% RH). For Savinase
488 hydrolysate enriched films, a higher decrease of WCA measured at 30 s was noted which
489 explain the faster absorption of the water droplet into the film surface.

490 In order to better understand the effect of CSPH incorporation on the gelatin films
491 surface properties, the surface tension, besides its polar and dispersive components, were
492 determined using two other liquids (ethylene glycol and diiodomethane) and results are given
493 in Fig. 4B. The shape of droplets deposited at the films surface are shown in Fig. 4C. Relative
494 contact angles values between the film surface and the solvent remained approximately
495 constant during 30 s (data not shown). Results presented in Fig. 4B displayed that control
496 gelatin films showed the highest dispersive component (35.8 mN/m) and the lowest polar
497 component (2.17 mN/m). Similarly, CSPI enriched films presented similarly a low polar
498 component (2.35 mN/m) but lower dispersive component (20.67 mN/m) compared to gelatin
499 films. After CSPH incorporation, the surface tension of incorporated films showed
500 modification due to the concomitant increase of polar component (16.04-22.55 mN/m) and
501 the decrease of dispersive component (20.61-23.91 mN/m). Thus, the CSPH addition
502 increased the wettability of gelatin films.

3.2. Antioxidant activity of films

The antioxidant activity was generally determined by different techniques that involved direct or indirect measurement of the rate/extent of formation/decay of free radicals (Antolovich, Prenzler, Patsalides, McDonald, & Robards, 2002). Indeed, the different assays used for measuring the antioxidant activity are based on the fact that oxidation is largely inhibited by the capture of initiating or propagating free radicals in the autoxidation process. Therefore, they focus on monitoring the capacity of additives for radical capture or inhibition of radical formation rather than on monitoring the actual oxidation itself (Benbettaïeb, Debeaufort, & Karbowiak, 2018).

Three assays were conducted in order to evaluate the effect of CSPH and CSPI incorporation on the antioxidant potential of gelatin films and to define the different mechanisms of action of these additives (Fig. 5): reducing power, free radical-scavenging activity (DPPH) and β -carotene bleaching inhibition.

First, the ability of CSPI and CSPH enriched films to reduce ferric ion (Fe^{3+}) was investigated and data displayed that incorporated films exhibited higher activity than control gelatin film ($\text{OD}_{700\text{nm}} = 0.30$) (Fig. 5A). The slight increase of the reducing power regarding the enriched films was found to be more significant for those incorporated with CSPH. However, the reducing activity of CSPH and CSPI in their free form was more important than enriched films. These results could be explained either by the delayed release of the active molecules from the gelatin film matrix or by the interactions established between the gelatin and the active molecules in the film, which limited their release. Similarly, Giménez et al. (2009) reported that squid gelatin hydrolysates showed lower antioxidant capacity in the gelatin films than in the free form at the same amount added into the filmogenic solution probably due to interactions between the peptides and gelatin film matrix formed via hydrogen bonding.

Moreover, the antioxidant activity of gelatin films was highlighted by the DPPH free radical-scavenging assay (Fig. 5B). Control gelatin film showed the lowest antioxidant activity (39.88%). Whereas, the addition of CSPH and CSPI interestingly increased the antioxidant capacity of gelatin films. Savinase and Purafect hydrolysates enriched films displayed the highest radical scavenging activity (75.01% and 68.66%, respectively), followed by CSPI enriched films (61.48%). This difference in the antioxidant activity between enriched films could be ascribed to differences in film pore size which could affect the amount of released compounds. In addition, it has been reported that the release of active compounds from polymeric matrices is influenced mainly by the properties of both the polymer and the active compound (López-de-Dicastillo et al., 2011). Moreover, the nature of films seems to have as well a significant effect on films bioactivity and the blend film was found to accelerate the release of the bioactive molecules from the film matrix (Abdelhedi et al., 2018). In the free form, CSPI displayed the highest radical scavenging activity followed by Savinase and Purafect hydrolysates. Indeed, the difference in protein hydrolysates and isolate activity may be related to the difference in their molecular weight and to their solubility in ethanol solution. CSPH showed higher antioxidant activity in the film matrix than that in the free form. Indeed, the formation of protein-protein interactions or hydrogen bonding between the film network and the added peptides may affect the antioxidant activity of CSPH enriched films (Giménez et al., 2009). As the DPPH-radical scavenging assay is based on the electron donating and hydrogen-bond donor properties, both of the CSPH molecules and the presence of hydrogen bonding in CSPH enriched films could explain the higher antioxidant activity of CSPH added films compared to their respective free form (Benbettaieb, Debeaufort, & Karbowiak, 2018).

Furthermore, the β -carotene-linoleate bleaching assay, which is based on the disappearance of β -carotene color under thermally-induced oxidation (50 °C), was used to

evaluate the lipid peroxidation inhibitory activity of gelatin films. As shown in Fig. 5C, all gelatin films prevent β -carotene bleaching by donating hydrogen atoms to peroxy radicals of linoleic acid. Control gelatin films exhibited the lowest antioxidant activity (29.42%) which increased significantly and reached 52.75%, 48.63% and 44.12% with the addition of CSPI, Savinase and Purafect hydrolysates, respectively. A low β -carotene bleaching inhibition activity (20.35%) was also reported by Jridi et al.(2019b) in the case of grey triggerfish skin gelatin films. Regarding the free form, CSPI, Savinase and Purafect hydrolysates displayed high β -carotene bleaching with percentages of inhibition of $96.79 \pm 0.55\%$, $95.03 \pm 0.34\%$ and $90.08 \pm 1.14\%$, respectively. Thus, CSPH and CSPI contain probably hydrogen or electrons donating peptides that are able to stabilize the free radicals. However, the higher antioxidant activity of active molecules in the free form suggest that it will be better to use CSPH or CSPI directly in foods rather than to incorporate them into packaging due to their delayed release.

Natural antioxidant activity was similarly reported for fish gelatin based films from different species (sole, catfish or cuttlefish), which has been mainly attributed to the peptide fraction of such protein, probably elaborated during the gelatin extraction process (Gómez-Estaca, Giménez, Montero, & Gómez-Guillén, 2009; Jridi et al., 2017).

4. Conclusion

This study investigates the effect of CSPH incorporation in gelatin films properties. The addition of CSPH led to colored films with lower homogenous microstructure, higher UV-barrier property and Tg values, compared to CSPI enriched film. However, mechanical properties and hydrophobicity decreased for CSPH added films compared to gelatin and CSPI enriched films. Furthermore, the antioxidant activity of the resulting enriched films was enhanced, suggesting their possible potential use as active packaging against packaged foods oxidation.

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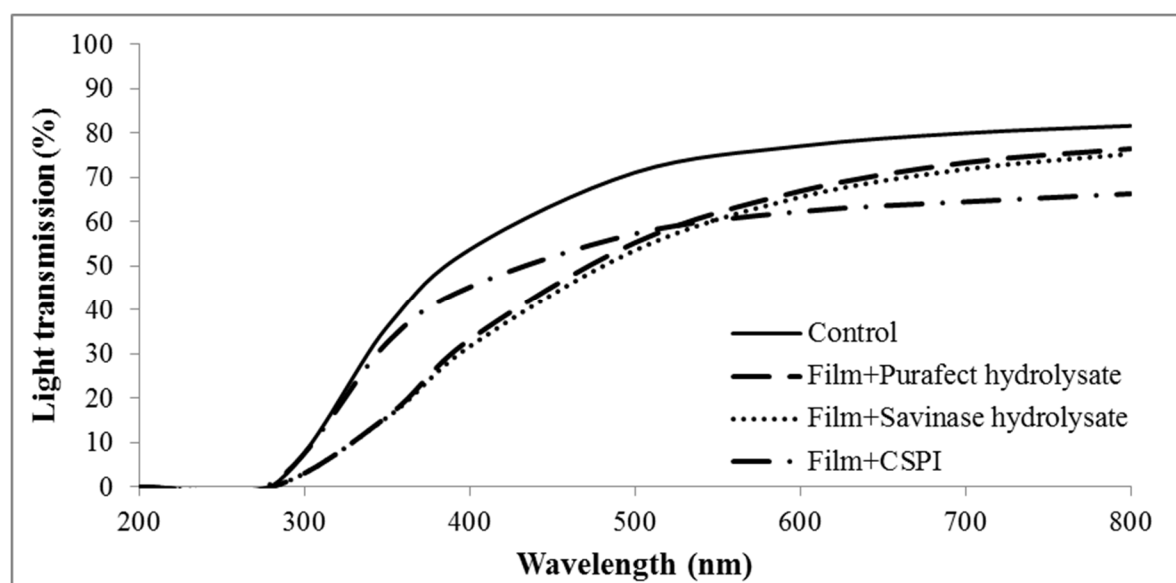
752 Yildirim, A., Mavi, A., & Kara, A. A. (2001). Determination of antioxidant and antimicrobial
753 activities of *Rumex crispus* L. extracts. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*,
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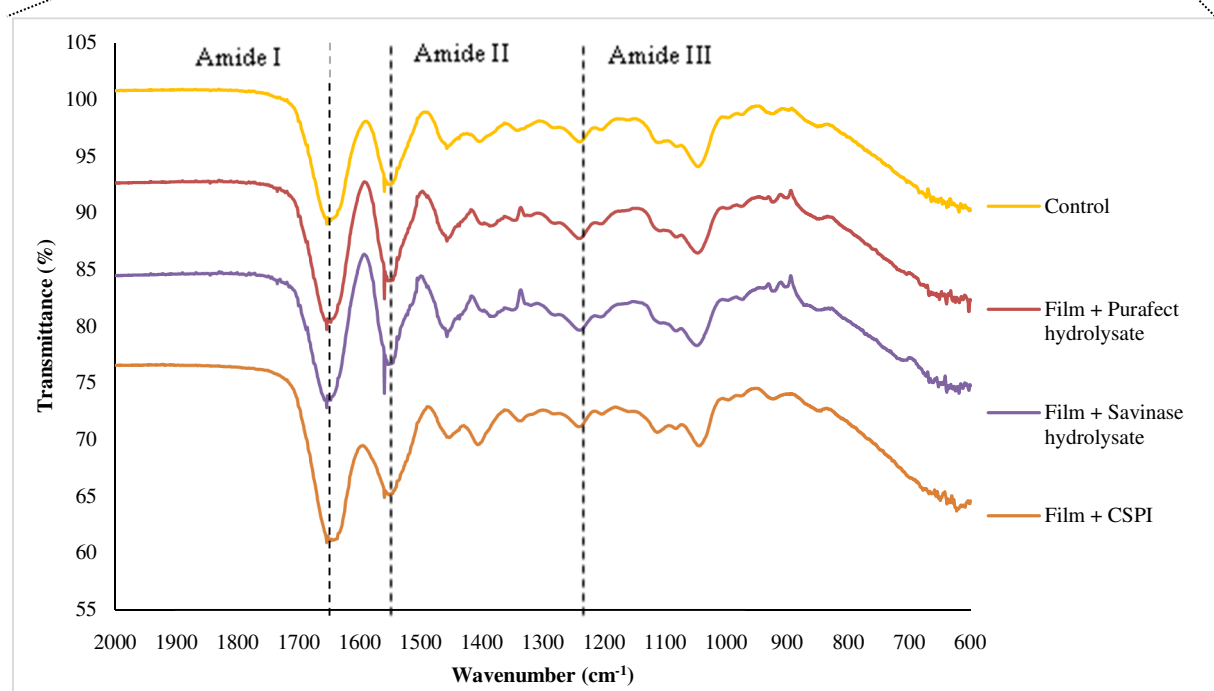
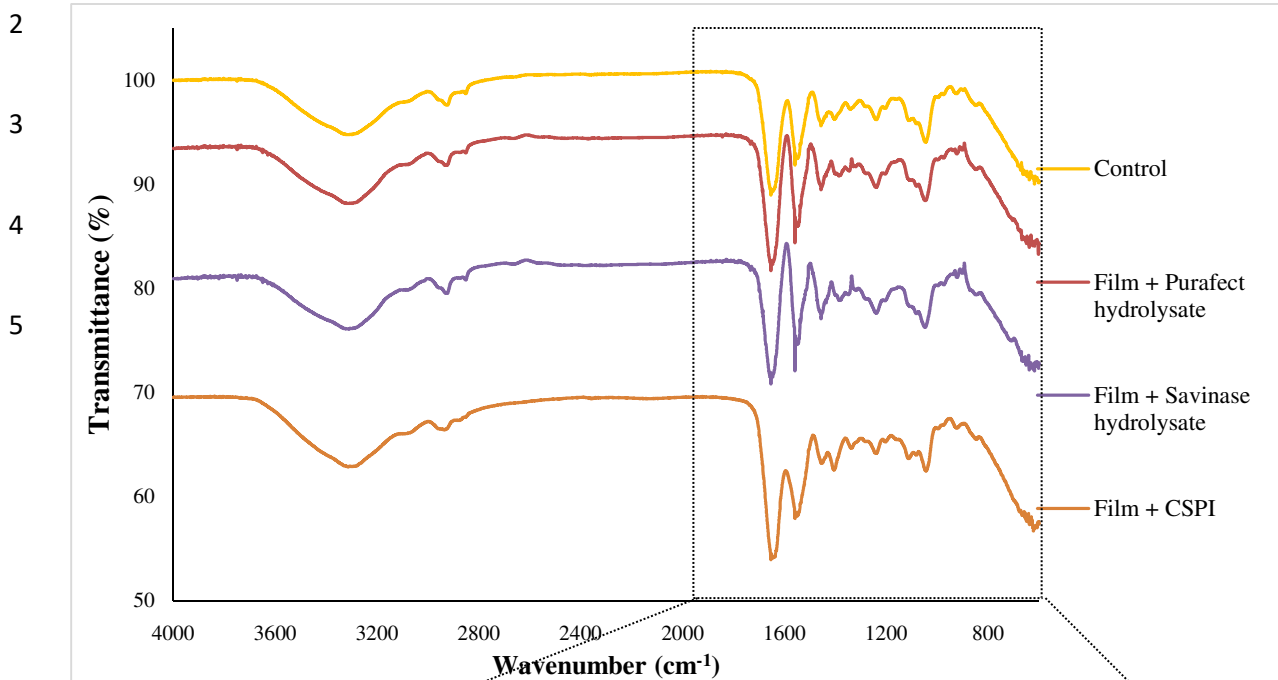
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1 **Fig. 1**



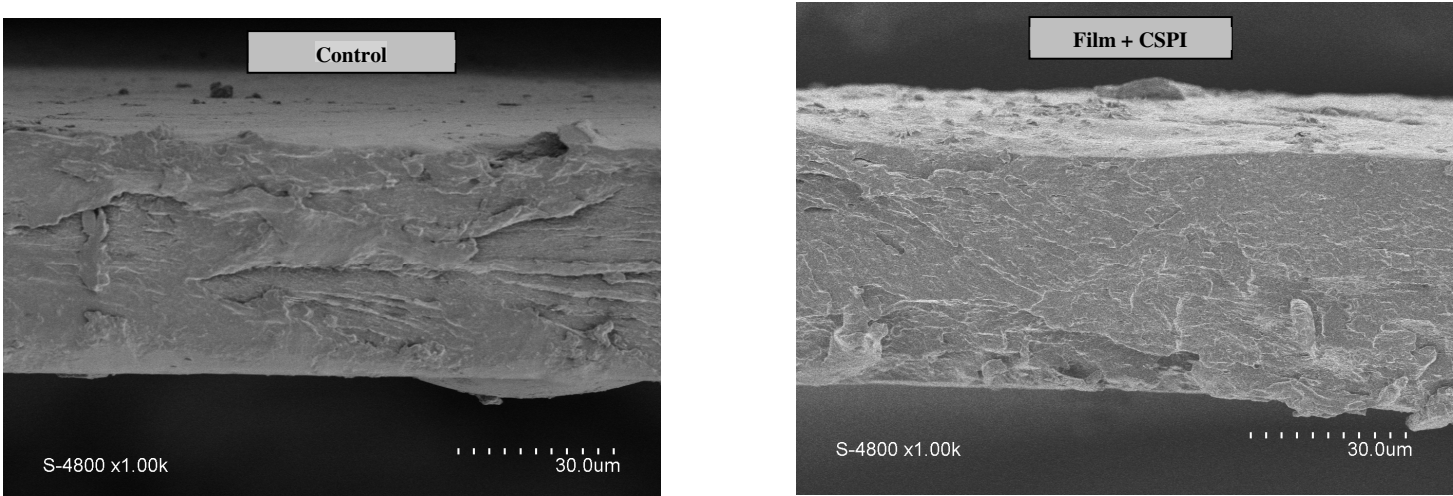
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1 **Fig. 2**



1 **Fig. 3**

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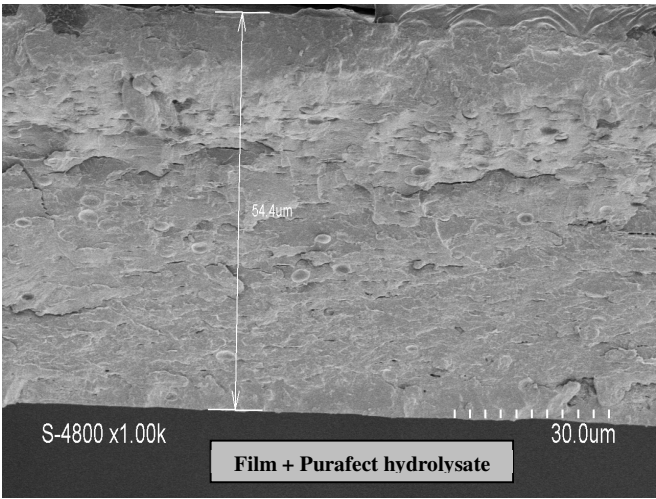
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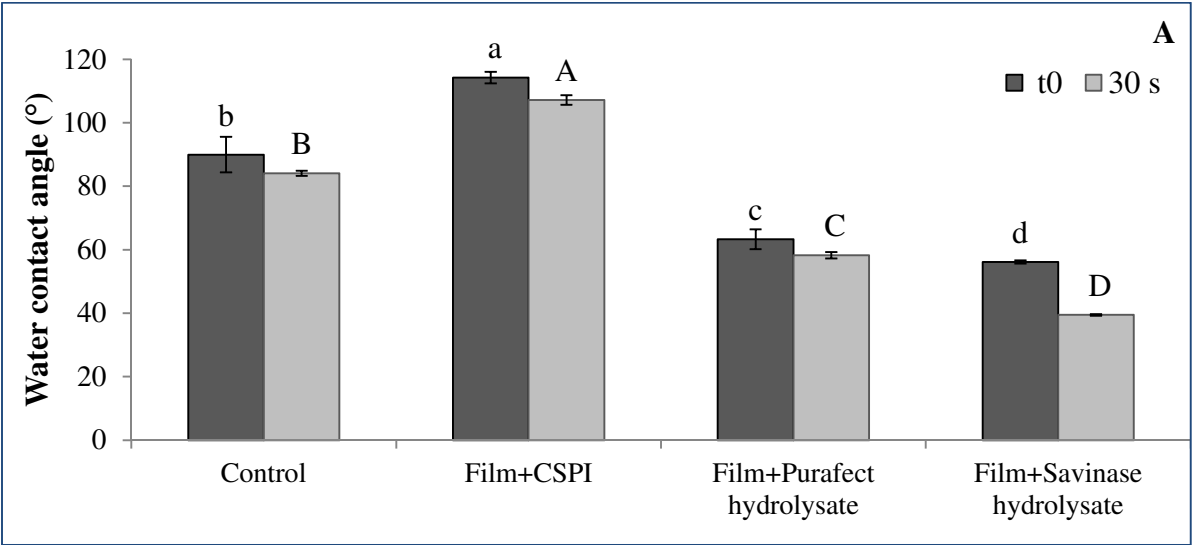
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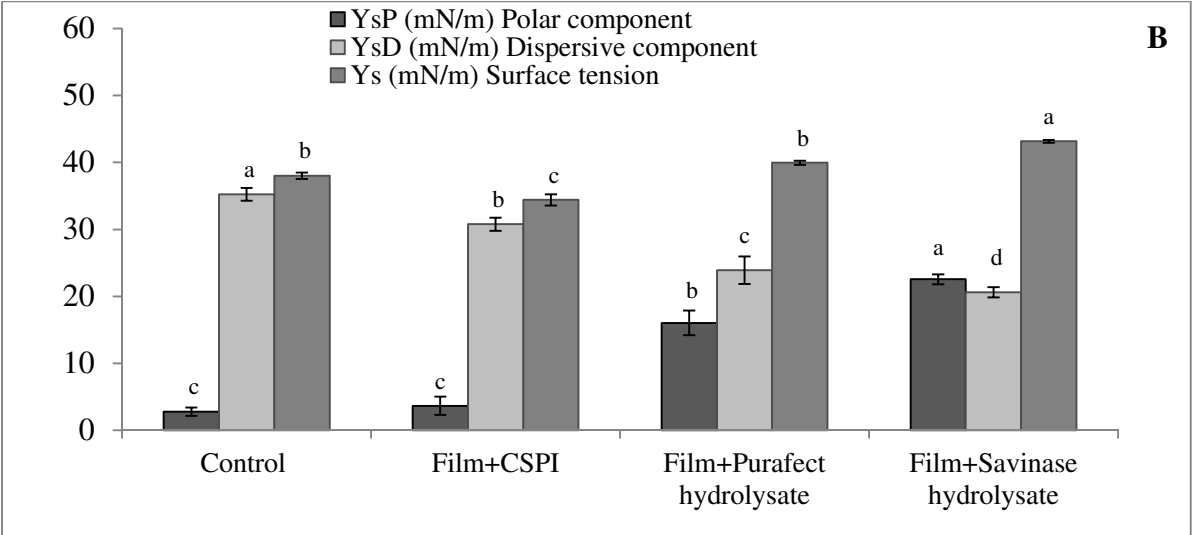


1 **Fig. 4**

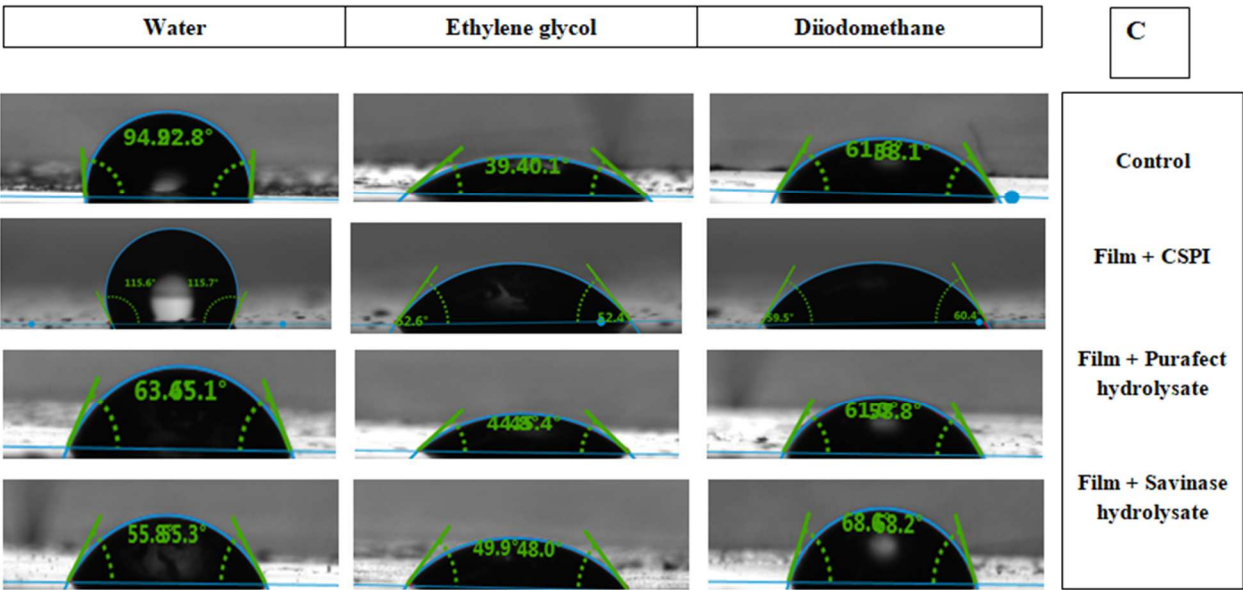
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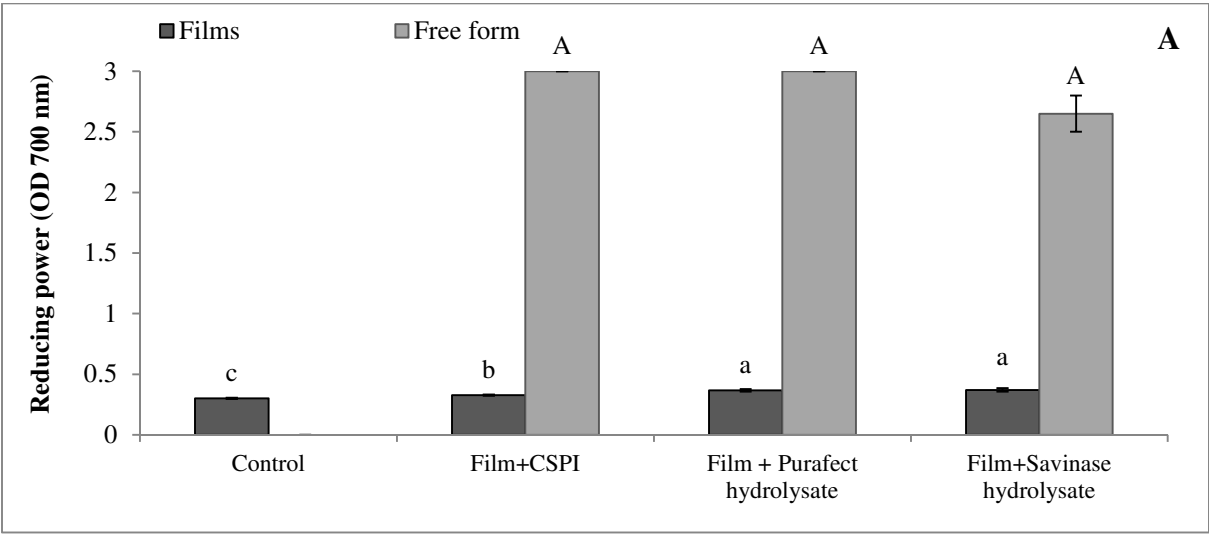


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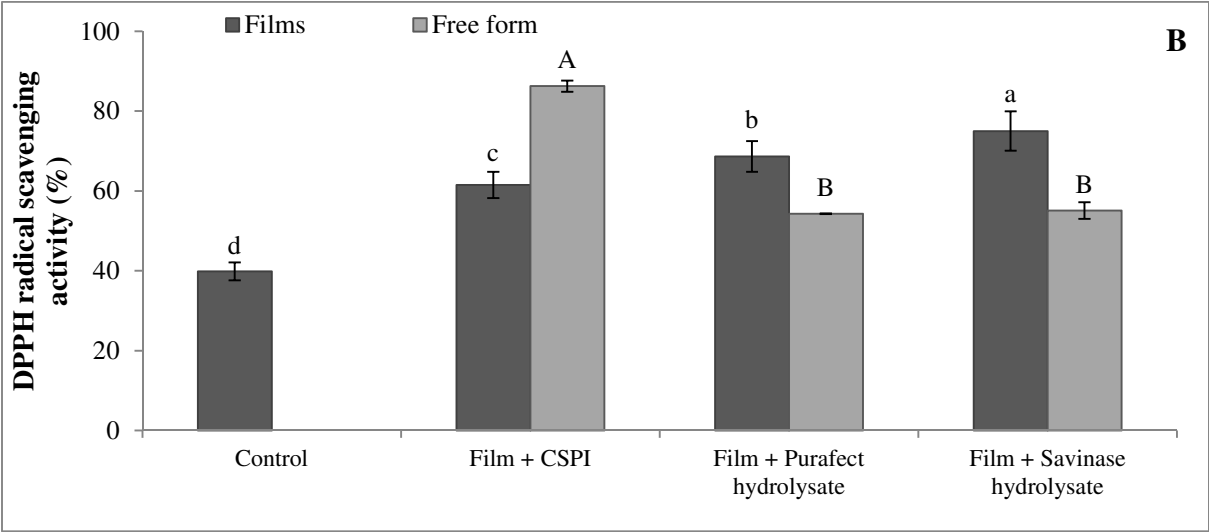


1 **Fig. 5**

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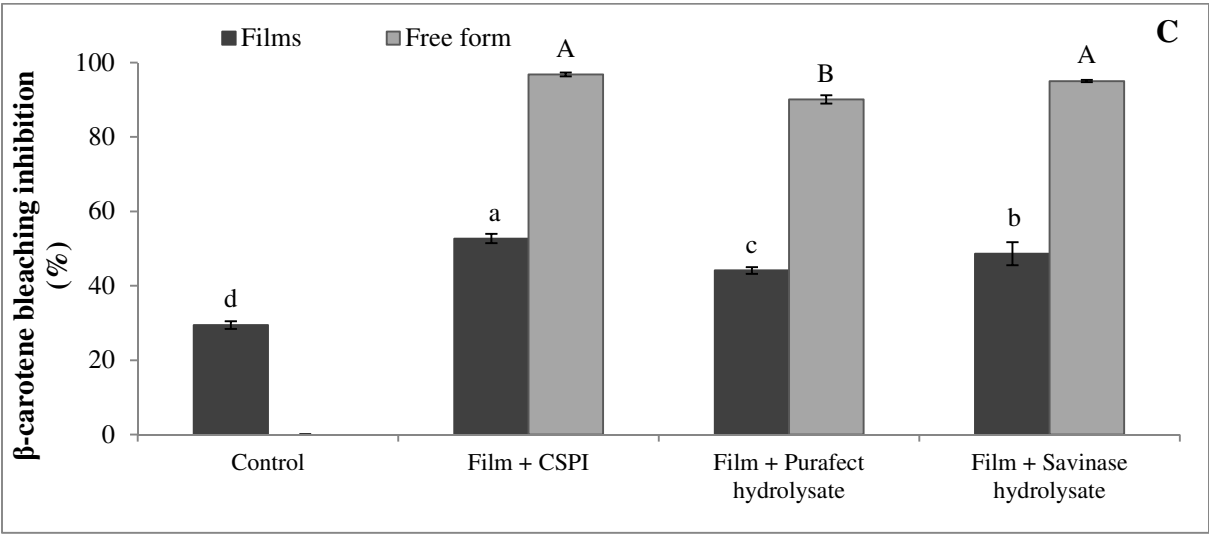


Table 1: Thickness, color parameters (L^* , a^* , b^* , ΔE^*), thermal properties (glass transition temperature T_g , weight loss Δw , thermal degradation temperature T_{max} and residual mass), mechanical properties (Tensile strength TS and elongation at break EAB) of CSG films and those enriched by CSPI and CSPH. All films were previously stored at 25 °C and 50% RH for the determination of the mechanical properties.

Film characterizations		Control	Film + CSPI	Film + Purafect hydrolysate	Film + Savinase hydrolysate
Thickness (μm)		84.22 \pm 4.01 ^a	79.34 \pm 6.07 ^a	75.62 \pm 1.56 ^a	77.45 \pm 1.34 ^a
Color properties	L^*	89.63 \pm 0.12 ^a	85.73 \pm 0.42 ^{bc}	86.27 \pm 0.25 ^b	85.43 \pm 0.32 ^c
	a^*	0.37 \pm 0.12 ^d	1.97 \pm 1.97 ^c	2.20 \pm 0.10 ^b	2.63 \pm 0.15 ^a
	b^*	3.63 \pm 0.23 ^c	7.37 \pm 0.45 ^b	7.40 \pm 0.10 ^b	8.53 \pm 0.21 ^a
	ΔE^*	/	5.72 \pm 0.57 ^b	5.47 \pm 0.11 ^b	6.94 \pm 0.07 ^a
Thermal properties *	T_g (°C)	58.4 ^b	59.5 ^{ab}	71.4 ^a	61.8 ^{ab}
	Δw_1 (%)	14.3	10.9	12.8	12.4
	Δw_2 (%)	64.9	60.5	62.1	62.2
	T_{max} (°C)	296.0	310.7	301.7	297.3
	Residue (%)	18.9	25.7	23.2	23.6
Mechanical properties	TS (MPa)	22.67 \pm 2.95 ^a	22.09 \pm 0.46 ^a	15.85 \pm 1.50 ^b	12.29 \pm 0.47 ^c
	EAB (%)	32.83 \pm 1.97 ^a	26.26 \pm 3.51 ^b	10.57 \pm 1.28 ^c	10.32 \pm 1.39 ^c

Values are given as mean \pm standard deviation. Means with different superscripts (a-d) within a same row indicate significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in terms of films samples.

* The average relative error on TGA data is lower than 5%

