

1 **Characterization of bacterial cellulose films combined with chitosan and polyvinyl**
2 **alcohol: Evaluation of mechanical and barrier properties**

3

4 Patricia Cazón^{1,2}, Gonzalo Velázquez^{1*}, Manuel Vázquez^{2*}

5 ¹Instituto Politécnico Nacional. CICATA unidad Querétaro. Cerro Blanco No. 141.
6 Colinas del Cimatario, Querétaro, 76090, México.

7 ²Department of Analytical Chemistry, Faculty of Veterinary, University of Santiago de
8 Compostela, 27002-Lugo, Spain

9 *Corresponding author: manuel.vazquez@usc.es

10 gvelazquezd@ipn.mx; phone +52 (442)-229-0804 Ext 81058.

11

12 **Abstract**

13 Bacterial cellulose (BC) produced by *Komagataeibacter xylinus* is a biomaterial with a
14 unique three-dimensional structure. To improve the mechanical properties and reinforce
15 the BC films, they were immersed in polyvinyl alcohol (0-4%) and chitosan (0-1%)
16 bathes. Moisture content, mechanical properties and water vapour permeability were
17 measured to assess the effect of polyvinyl alcohol and chitosan. The morphology,
18 optical, structural and thermal properties were evaluated by scanning electron
19 microscopy, spectral analysis, thermogravimetry and differential scanning calorimetry.
20 Results showed that moisture content was significantly affected by the chitosan
21 presence. Tensile strength values in the 20.76 - 41.65 MPa range were similar to those
22 of synthetic polymer films. Percentage of elongation ranged from 2.28 to 21.82% and
23 Young's modulus ranged from 1043.88 to 2247.82 MPa. The water vapour permeability

24 $(1.47 \cdot 10^{-11} - 3.40 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ g/m}\cdot\text{s}\cdot\text{Pa})$ decreased with the addition of polyvinyl alcohol. The
25 developed films own UV light barrier properties and optimal visual appearance.

26

27 **Keywords:** Films; bacterial cellulose; water vapor permeability; chitosan; polyvinyl
28 alcohol; UV protection.

29

30 **1. Introduction**

31 In the last decade, research in biopolymers has been widely carried out to design
32 and develop renewable, biodegradable and biocompatible products with applications in
33 medicine, pharmacy, cosmetics, food industry and biotechnology (Hu, Chen, Yang, Li,
34 & Wang, 2014). Among biopolymers, cellulose is the most abundant natural compound
35 on the earth. This low-cost biopolymer has renewability, non-toxicity, biocompatibility,
36 biodegradability and chemical stability (Cazón, Velazquez, Ramírez, & Vázquez,
37 2017). Due to the properties of cellulose, it has become a very interesting material to
38 develop new biodegradable polymers, like biofilms aimed to food packaging
39 applications.

40 Cellulose is a highly crystalline polymer formed by a linear chain with two
41 anhydroglucose rings $((\text{C}_6\text{H}_{10}\text{O}_5)_n)$, covalently linked through an oxygen in a $\beta(1-4)$
42 glycosidic bond. Cellulose possesses abundant hydroxyl groups forming plenty inter-
43 and intra-molecular hydrogen bonds (Cazón et al., 2017). It is found in plant cell wall
44 and accordingly, it can be obtained from wood, cotton, hemp and plant-based materials.
45 Furthermore, cellulose is also produced by tunicates, several species of algae, and by
46 some species of bacteria including *Acetobacter*, *Agrobacterium*, *Pseudomonas*,

47 *Rhizobium*, *Sarcina* and *Komagataeibacter xylinus*. The last one was renamed as
48 *Acetobacter xylinum* and more widespread as *Gluconoacetobacter xylinus* (Szymańska-
49 Chargot et al., 2017; Yamada et al., 2012). It produces high amounts of cellulose, being
50 one of the most commonly studied sources of bacterial cellulose (BC)
51 (Mohammadkazemi, Azin, & Ashori, 2015; Ruka, Simon, & Dean, 2012).

52 In a suitable culture medium and static conditions, *G. xylinus* synthesizes BC in
53 the form of pellicle on the surface of the liquid medium. This microorganism produces
54 glucose chains from the carbon source contained in the medium. The glucose chains are
55 extruded out through tiny pores present on their cell wall. Combining the glucose
56 chains, the microorganism forms microfibrils that aggregate to form cellulose ribbons.
57 These ribbons form a three-dimensional structure consisting of an ultrafine network of
58 cellulose nanofibers with an expanded surface area and high porosity. The three-
59 dimensional structure determines its physical and mechanical properties (Jozala et al.,
60 2016; Shah, Ul-Islam, Khattak, & Park, 2013; Shao et al., 2016). Unlike vegetable
61 cellulose, BC is obtained with high purity, free of vegetable remains such as lignin and
62 hemicellulose (Jozala et al., 2016).

63 Several studies have been focused on developing new films based on BC.
64 Usually, BC films are combined with other polymers or plasticizers to improve or
65 modify the physicochemical properties and expand its potential applications. There are
66 two main strategies to combine BC with other polymers or plasticizers, keeping the film
67 structure obtained from the fermentation process. One option is by supplementation the
68 culture medium with the desirable reinforcing agents, such as *Aloe vera* (Saibuatong &
69 Phisalaphong, 2010a), chitosan (Phisalaphong & Jatupaiboon, 2008), polyvinyl alcohol

70 (PVOH) (Gea, Bilotti, Reynolds, Soykeabkeaw, & Peijs, 2010) or polyethylene oxide
71 (Brown & Laborie, 2007). Other strategy is by immersion of the BC film in a bath with
72 a solution of the desirable polymer or plasticizer, e.g. polyvinyl alcohol (PVOH) (Gea et
73 al., 2010), polyethylene glycol or diacrylate (Cai & Kim, 2010; Numata, Sakata,
74 Furukawa, & Tajima, 2015).

75 A widespread practice is to use nanofibers or nanowhiskers of BC as reinforcing
76 agent. BC pellicles are usually subjected to a hydrolysis process using strong acids,
77 breaking down the structure of the material into nanofibers or nanocrystals (Martínez-
78 Sanz, Lopez-Rubio, & Lagaron, 2013). These BC nanocomponents are incorporated
79 into the matrix of a polymer to modify the properties of the composite film such as
80 starch (Martins et al., 2009), PVOH (Jipa et al., 2012), arabinogalactan and xyloglucan
81 (Lucyszyn et al., 2016), chitosan (Salari, Sowti Khiabani, Rezaei Mokarram,
82 Ghanbarzadeh, & Samadi Kafil, 2018; Velásquez-Cock et al., 2014; Wang, Xie, et al.,
83 2018), polylactic acid, polyethylene glycol (Martínez-Sanz et al., 2013), fish proteins
84 (Shabanpour, Kazemi, Ojagh, & Pourashouri, 2018), gelatin (George & Siddaramaiah,
85 2012) or agar (Wang, Guo, et al., 2018) among other biopolymers.

86 From the strategies mentioned to obtain BC-polymers composite films, it is
87 interesting to pay special attention to the immersion method. It is a simple technique
88 that allows using the films formed from the culture medium. This method allows
89 avoiding previous steps of dissolution, regeneration or homogeneous dispersion of the
90 cellulose, simplifying the process. In addition, this technique allows taking advantage of
91 the unique structure of the BC as the main component of the final matrix. On the other
92 hand, unlike the supplementation culture media method, by immersion allows

93 expanding the range and concentration of the possible combinations. Some
94 supplementation components in the culture media can interfere with the cellulose
95 production yield. Hence, the concentration of these components in the formulation film
96 are limited (Phisalaphong & Jatupaiboon, 2008; Saibuatong & Phisalaphong, 2010a).

97 Following the strategy of combining polymers to improve the properties of the
98 final material, PVOH and chitosan can improve the potential applications of BC-based
99 films. PVOH is a hydrophilic semi-crystalline polymer produced by polymerization of
100 vinyl acetate to polyvinyl acetate, followed by a hydrolysis process. It is a synthetic
101 polymer, water soluble, non-toxic, biodegradable, with film forming properties, optimal
102 transparency and good elasticity properties (Carvalho et al., 2009; Cazón, Vázquez, &
103 Velazquez, 2018a). These properties make PVOH an ideal polymer to combine with BC
104 by immersion.

105 Chitosan is one of the most studied polysaccharides with potential applications
106 in biomedical, food, and chemical industries. It is the second most abundant
107 polysaccharide in nature. It can be obtained mainly from residues of the shellfish
108 industry. This polymer is non-toxic, biodegradable, with film forming properties and
109 soluble in dilute organic acids such as acetic acid. One of the most interesting properties
110 of the chitosan is its antimicrobial activity against a wide range of foodborne
111 filamentous fungi, yeast, and bacteria, being more active against yeasts (Helander,
112 Nurmiaho-Lassila, Ahvenainen, Rhoades, & Roller, 2001; No, Meyers, Prinyawiwatkul,
113 & Xu, 2007). Among these properties, its solubility and antimicrobial activity make it
114 an ideal polymer to combine with BC by immersion. Incorporating antimicrobial agents
115 from natural source into **BC composite films** addresses the current consumer demand of

116 a natural alternative to chemically synthesized antimicrobial polymers. In food
117 packaging, a strategy to increase the shelf life is to develop active films with
118 antimicrobial properties. The direct contact with the active films inhibit the growth of
119 microorganisms on the surface of the food (Broek Van Den, Knoop, Kappen, & Boeriu,
120 2015; Moreira, Roura, & Ponce, 2011).

121 In previous studies of our group, films based on regenerated vegetable cellulose-
122 PVOH-chitosan were characterized. The results obtained suggested an adequate
123 interaction of cellulose-chitosan-PVOH to combine both polymers by immersion,
124 improving the film properties (Cazón, Vázquez, & Velazquez, 2018b; Cazón et al.,
125 2018a). Nevertheless, as mentioned, there are important structural differences between
126 vegetable cellulose and BC. These differences could affect the interactions of cellulose-
127 PVOH-chitosan, improving the properties of the cellulose-based films and expanding its
128 potential applications. Besides, it was observed the low transmittance of regenerated
129 cellulose and chitosan films developed, manifested UV protect properties of cellulose-
130 based films (Cazón et al., 2018a). Packaging materials against UV light has received a
131 great deal of attention since UV-light is one of those responsible factors of the oxidative
132 process in vitamins, lipids and proteins. These oxidative process produce undesirable
133 off-flavours that decrease the shelf-life of the products (Olarde, Sanz, Federico
134 Echávarri, & Ayala, 2009). Hence, the UV-barrier properties observed increase the
135 interest in the development of BC-based films for food applications.

136 On the other hand, the application of BC-PVOH-chitosan components in the
137 field of controlled drug administration has been also studied. The results suggested that
138 BC-PVOH-chitosan composites could be used as a biopolymeric carrier for drug

139 delivery applications (Pavaloiu, Dobre, & Hlevca, 2013). Despite the good interaction
140 among these biodegradable polymers, the characterization of these films has not been
141 carried out to aim applications like biopolymers for active food packaging.

142 The aim of this work was to developed biodegradable films based on BC with
143 chitosan and PVOH to enhance the mechanical and optical properties to obtain cellulose
144 films more manageable and transparent with antimicrobial and UV-barrier properties.
145 The effect of the ratio of these polymers incorporated to the BC matrix by immersion,
146 maintaining intact the characteristic BC structure, was studied and compared to
147 regenerated cellulose, previously analysed. Polynomial models were used to evaluate
148 the effect of the composition of the blend on the moisture content, mechanical
149 properties (tensile strength, percentage of elongation to break and Young's Modulus)
150 and water vapour permeability. Besides, microstructure, optical properties, structure and
151 thermal analyses of the BC-PVOH-chitosan films were also evaluated.

152

153 **2. Materials and methods**

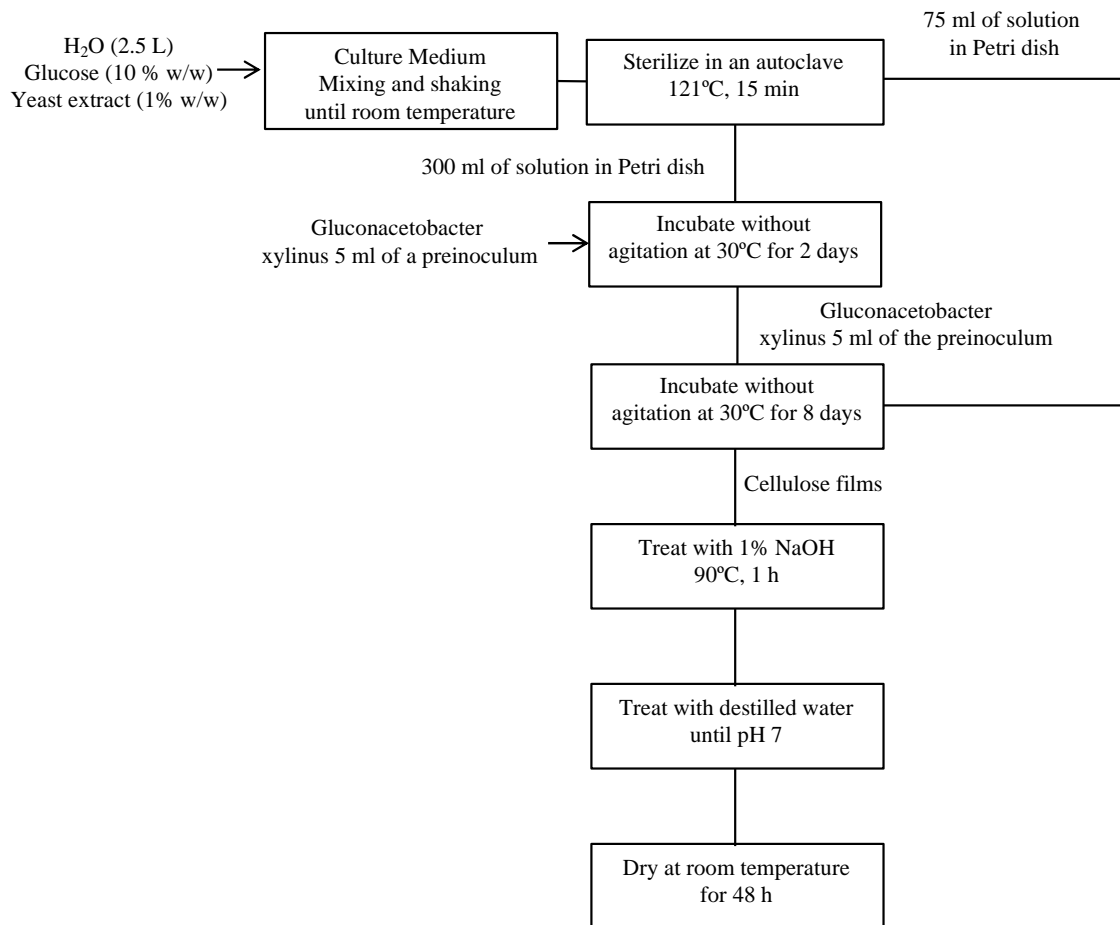
154 *Komagateibacter xylinus* was obtained from the “Colección Española de
155 Cultivos Tipo” (CECT, Valencia, Spain). Extra pure anhydrous sodium bromide (99 %),
156 sodium hydroxide (98 %) and D(+)-glucose monohydrate (99% extra pure) were
157 purchased from Acros organics (Geel, Belgium). Yeast extract was provided by
158 Scharlau Microbiology (Barcelona, Spain). Full-hydrolyzed (>98%) polyvinyl alcohol
159 with average molecular weight (Mw) of 30,000 g/mol and ester value of 12-25 were
160 supplied by Merck (Billerica, MA, US). Chitosan (Mw 100000-300000) was purchased
161 from Acros organics (Geel, Belgium).

162

163 **2.1. Preparation of bacterial cellulose films**

164 The preparation process is shown in Figure 1. Initial culture medium was
165 prepared from 10% of glucose and 1% of yeast extract and sterilized at 121°C for 15
166 min. A pre-culture was prepared by transferring 5 mL of a stock culture to 300 mL of
167 medium in a Petri dish and incubated statically at 30 °C for 2 days. Then, Petri dishes
168 were prepared with 75 ml of culture medium and inoculated with 5 ml of the pre-
169 culture. Petri dish was stored at 30 °C for 8 days. After that time, the film was
170 suspended in the air-liquid medium. The films were treated with 1% (w/v) of NaOH at
171 90 °C for 1 h to remove bacterial cells and washed with running distillate water until pH
172 7. Finally, **BC films** were dried at room temperature for 48 h.

173



174

175 Fig. 1. Overall process proposed for the production of bacterial cellulose-based films.

176

177 **2.2. Preparation of bacterial cellulose-chitosan-PVOH composite films**

178 The resulting wet bacterial films were placed between two sheets of filter paper

179 to remove excessive water. Then, films were immersed in a bath of the mixture

180 chitosan-PVOH. The solution of chitosan was prepared from an aqueous solution of 1%

181 (v/v) of acetic acid at room temperature with vigorous agitation. The PVOH solution

182 was prepared from an aqueous solution heated at 80 °C with vigorous agitation for 2 h.

183 Finally, the BC-PVOH-chitosan films were dried in a Petri dish at room temperature for

184 2 days. The dried films were cut to specific sizes for each test. The samples were stored
185 in desiccators with saturated salt of sodium bromide or silica gel for 5 days as required
186 for each test.

187

188 *2.3. Film thickness measurement*

189 Films thickness (mm) was measured using a thickness meter ET115S (Etari
190 GmbH, Stuttgart, Germany). The measuring was carried out at 5 locations prior to the
191 characterization tests. The average thickness of the films for each formulation are
192 shown in Table 1.

193

194 *2.4. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)*

195 Films were fixed on slides with adhesive carbon tape, metalized with Au,
196 observed and photographed with a high-vacuum microscope (JEOL JSM-6360LV, Jeol
197 Ltd, Tokyo, Japan) at an accelerating voltage of 20 kV.

198

199 *2.5. Moisture content at equilibrium*

200 The water content of the samples stored in desiccators with saturated salt of
201 sodium bromide for 5 days was determined measuring the weight loss. Film portions of
202 $3 \times 3 \text{ cm}^2$ stored in a desiccator with saturated sodium bromide solution were weighed to
203 the nearest 0.0001 g for the initial sample weight. Then, the samples were dried at 105
204 °C in a vacuum oven for 24 h until constant weight (dry sample weight). Samples were
205 analyzed by triplicate. Equilibrium moisture content (%) was calculated using the
206 Equation (1):

207

208 Equilibrium moisture content (%) = $\frac{\text{Initial weight}-\text{Dry weight}}{\text{Initial weight}} \times 100$ (Eq. 1)

209

210 *2.6. Water vapour permeability*

211 Water vapor permeability (WVP) quantifies the amount of water that diffuses
212 through the film per unit area and time (g/s·m·Pa), depending on the differential
213 pressure and film thickness. WVP values were obtained gravimetrically following the
214 ASTM Standard Test Method E96 (<https://www.astm.org/Standards/E96.htm>). A wide-
215 mouth cup (5·10⁻³ m² area) containing 100 ml of distilled water was sealed with the
216 select films. The cup was placed in the centre of a double-bottom box containing silica
217 gel and placed on the plate of a precision balance. The gradient of partial pressure
218 between both sides of the film produced a driving force for the water flux trough the
219 film. The water flux resulted in a decrease of the weight of the cup. Tests were run at 30
220 °C for at least 8 h that it is enough time to reach the equilibrium of the water flux.
221 Weight loss of the cup was recorded to the nearest 1·10⁻⁴ g and plotted as a function of
222 time (Gennadios, Weller, & Gooding, 1994). The slope was evaluated by linear
223 regression (r²>0.99). WVP was calculated according to the combined Fick and Henry
224 laws for gas diffusion through films, using the Equation 2.

225

226 $WVP = \frac{\Delta w \cdot x}{\Delta t \cdot A \cdot \Delta P}$ (Eq. 2)

227

228 Where $\Delta w/\Delta t$ (g/s) is the flux measured as weight loss of the cell per unit of
229 time, x (m) is the film thickness, A (m²) is the exposed area and ΔP (Pa) is the water
230 vapour pressure differential calculated as 4245 Pa at 30 °C (Wexler, 1976). Each test
231 was performed in triplicate.

232

233 *2.7. Mechanical properties*

234 The mechanical properties were measured using a texturometer (TA-XTplus, Stable
235 Micro System, UK). Tensile strength (TS, the maximum stress before breaking),
236 percentage of elongation at break (%E, the maximum elongation of the film before
237 rupture) and Young's Modulus (YM, yield stress divided by yield strain in the
238 viscoelastic region) were measured following the standard method D-882 (ASTM). The
239 tests were run with an initial grip separation of 40 mm and a crosshead speed of 0.08
240 mm/s. Ten samples of each formulation were previously cut into 15×100 mm samples
241 and stored in desiccators with saturated salt of sodium bromide for 5 days. Both ends of
242 the films were fixed in the grips and the strength during extension was measured.

243 In each test, TS and %E were calculated using the **Equations 3 and Equation 4**,
244 respectively (Antoniou, Liu, Majeed, & Zhong, 2015):

245

$$246 \quad TS \text{ (MPa)} = \frac{F}{L \cdot x} \quad \text{(Eq. 3)}$$

247

$$248 \quad \%E \text{ (\%)} = \frac{l-l_1}{l_1} \cdot 100 \quad \text{(Eq. 4)}$$

249

250 In the Equation 3, F is the maximum force before breaking (N), L is the width of the
251 film (mm) and x is the thickness (mm). In the Equation 4, l_i is the initial length (mm)
252 and l is the length of the film (mm) at the breaking point. Young's modulus was
253 calculated from the slope of the curve stress-strain curve in the viscoelastic region.

254

255 2.8. Light barrier properties, transparency and opacity

256 A spectrophotometer V-670 (Jasco Inc, Japan) was used to analyze the
257 ultraviolet and visible light barrier properties of the film, using transmittance mode at 2
258 nm intervals in UV-VIS-NIR regions (190 nm–2500 nm). The test was done in
259 duplicate for each sample. The transparency of the films was calculated from the
260 percent of transmittance at 600 nm using the Equation 5 (Han & Floros, 1997).

261

$$262 \quad \text{Transparency} = \frac{(\log \% T_{600})}{x} \quad (\text{Eq. 5})$$

263

264 Where $\%T_{600}$ is the percent transmittance at 600 nm and x is the film thickness
265 (mm). The opacity of the films was calculated from de absorbance of light at 500 nm,
266 following the Equation 6 (Kanatt, Rao, Chawla, & Sharma, 2012).

267

$$268 \quad \text{Opacity} = \frac{Abs_{500}}{x} \quad (\text{Eq. 6})$$

269

270 Where Abs_{500} is the absorbance at 500 nm and x is the film thickness (mm).

271

272 **2.9. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR)**

273 A FT-IR (Bomen 102. ABB Ltd, Zurich Switzerland) equipped with a Universal
274 Attenuated Total Reflectance (UATR) accessory with diamond crystal was used to
275 collect the FT-IR spectra of the films. Samples were conditioned at relative humidity of
276 $65\pm 2\%$ and $21\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ for at least 48 h prior to the test. FT-IR spectra were collected at a
277 spectral resolution of 4 cm^{-1} over the range from 400 to 4000 cm^{-1} .

278

279 **2.10. Thermal properties of films**

280 The thermal stability of the developed films was analyzed using a
281 Thermogravimetric Analyzer/Differential Scanning Calorimeter (TGA/DSC1)
282 equipment (Mettler-Toledo International Inc., Columbus, OH). The samples (around 2-4
283 mg) were placed in hermetic aluminum pans and the test was carried out at a heating
284 rate of $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ from 50 to 400°C , in atmosphere of N_2 ($50\text{ mL}/\text{min}$).

285

286 **2.11. Statistical analysis**

287 PVOH and chitosan concentration were considered as independent variables
288 (denoted A and B, respectively) and the effect on the select dependent variables
289 (moisture content, TS, %E, YM and VWP) were calculated. The set of experiments
290 followed a factorial design. Table 1 shows the experiment design. Cook's distance was
291 used to detect outliers (Cook, 1977) and the Box-Cox data transformation was used to
292 reduce anomalies (Sakia, 1992). The multifactor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was
293 used. The statistical analysis was accomplished using Design Expert $\text{\textcircled{R}}$ 10.0.6 software
294 (Stat-Ease, Inc., Minneapolis, MN, USA).

Table 1. Formulations assayed for the study of bacterial cellulose based films combined with chitosan and polyvinyl alcohol and experimental results for the mechanical and permeability properties of the films achieved. MC is the equilibrium moisture content of each sample after being stored in desiccators with saturated salt of sodium bromide for 5 days, TS is tensile strength, %E is percentage of elongation at break, YM is Young's modulus and WVP is water vapour permeability.

Exp.	Chitosan % (w/w)	PVOH % (w/w)	Thickness mm	MC %	TS MPa	%E %	YM MPa	WVP g/m s Pa
1	0	0	$2.08 \cdot 10^{-2}$	1.82	20.76	2.28	1043.88	$2.38 \cdot 10^{-11}$
2	0	2	$5.07 \cdot 10^{-2}$	8.58	30.59	4.60	1595.16	$1.47 \cdot 10^{-11}$
3	0	4	$6.62 \cdot 10^{-2}$	8.06	27.50	9.99	1055.57	$1.85 \cdot 10^{-11}$
4	0.5	0	$2.36 \cdot 10^{-2}$	6.41	33.37	4.60	1443.45	$2.46 \cdot 10^{-11}$
5	0.5	2	$3.98 \cdot 10^{-2}$	8.73	38.89	4.71	2247.82	$2.06 \cdot 10^{-11}$
6	0.5	4	$5.04 \cdot 10^{-2}$	8.46	38.29	5.57	1825.22	$2.21 \cdot 10^{-11}$
7	1	0	$2.99 \cdot 10^{-2}$	12.55	39.28	7.08	1579.59	$2.79 \cdot 10^{-11}$
8	1	2	$5.17 \cdot 10^{-2}$	10.68	41.65	13.20	1363.63	$2.68 \cdot 10^{-11}$
9	1	4	$5.71 \cdot 10^{-2}$	9.89	36.81	21.82	1174.37	$3.40 \cdot 10^{-11}$

295

296

297 **3. Results and discussion**

298 Biodegradable films were obtained using bacterial cellulose, PVOH and

299 chitosan at several concentrations following the experimental design showed in Table 1.

300 The concentration of PVOH in the bath ranged from 0 to 4% (w/w) and chitosan ranged

301 from 0 to 1% (w/w). At higher concentrations of chitosan and PVOH, the bath was very
 302 viscous resulting in too thick films. The average thickness of the films and the results
 303 obtained for dependent variables (moisture content, TS, %E, YM and WVP) are listed
 304 in Table 1. The effect of the PVOH and chitosan on the dependent variables (moisture
 305 content, TS, %E, YM and WVP) were modelled using a second-order polynomial
 306 equation. The ANOVA results of the dependent variables are shown in Table 2. **Table 2**
 307 **also shows the fit statistics values of r^2 , predicted r^2 , adjusted r^2 and adequate precision**
 308 **for each dependent variable analyzed.**
 309

Table 2. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) for each of the study dependent variables. TS is tensile strength, %E is percentage of elongation at break, YM is Young's modulus, WVP is water vapour permeability, MC is the equilibrium moisture content of each sample after being stored in desiccators with saturated salt of sodium bromide for 5 days.

Source	MC		TS		%E		YM		WVP	
	F-value	p-value	F-value	p-value	F-value	p-value	F-value	p-value	F-value	p-value
Model	9.04	0.0184	30.63	0.0089	9.80	0.0129	302.83	0.0033	20.11	0.0163
A-Chitosan	15.96	0.0104	107.55	0.0019	10.39	0.0181	63.87	0.0153	68.39	0.0037
B-PVOH	2.35	0.1862	5.98	0.0920	9.21	0.0230	153.05	0.0065	0.19	0.6905
AB	8.81	0.0312	9.05	0.0573			79.11	0.0124	13.08	0.0363
A ²			14.23	0.0326			1054.5	0.0009	2.78	0.1942
B ²			16.35	0.0272			655.51	0.0015	16.13	0.0277

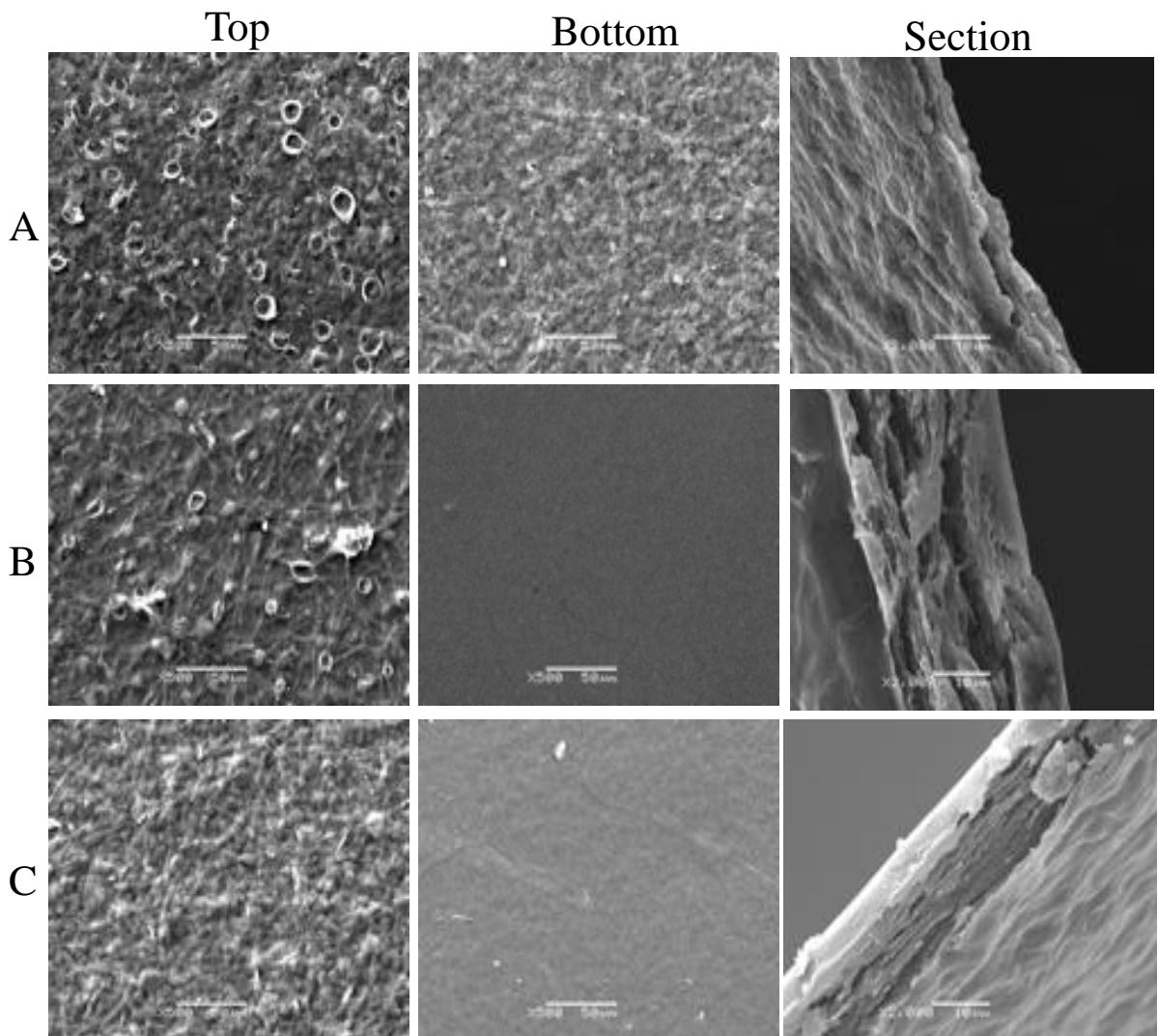
r^2	0.98	0.98	0.77	0.99	0.99
Adjusted r^2	0.97	0.95	0.69	0.99	0.99
Predicted r^2	0.95	0.79	0.45	0.98	0.95
Adequate precision	25.55	16.94	8.85	48.82	39.39

310

311 *3.1. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)*

312 The top and bottom surfaces of both sides and cross section of the films obtained
313 in experiments 1, 3 and 7 were observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM).
314 Figure 2 shows the top and bottom surface of the films as well as the cross section. The
315 selected experiments allowed to analyse the effect of the PVOH and chitosan on the
316 microstructure of the bacterial cellulose films. As shown Figure 2a, bacterial cellulose
317 films presented a continuous matrix with a porous surface. Bottom side showed a denser
318 surface and a rough layer on the opposite side. The difference between both sides
319 depended on the fermentation process. Probably, the less dense and porous side was the
320 most recently formed. The cross section of the bacterial cellulose films (Figure 2a)
321 showed a laminated structure. The acetic bacteria form the pellicle layer by layer. In
322 general, the addition of PVOH and chitosan resulted in a softening of the surface,
323 decreasing the roughness and porosity (Figure 2b and 2c). The bottom sides were
324 smoother than the top because they were in contact with the Petri dish during the
325 drying. According to the cross-section micrographs of the experiment 3 (Figure 2b) and
326 7 (Figure 2c), PVOH and chitosan increased the thickness and the density of the film
327 promoting a more compact structure. The thickness increase was more important in
328 formulations containing PVOH than those with chitosan. Chitosan and PVOH had a

329 similar effect on the surface and on the microstructure than that on vegetable
330 regenerated cellulose films studied in previous work (Cazón et al., 2018b, 2018a).



331

332

333 Fig. 2. Scanning electron microscopy of the samples as well of the section of the films
334 of experiments 1, 3 and 7. A) Pure bacterial cellulose sample. B) Bacterial cellulose-
335 poly(vinyl alcohol) 4% (w/w). C) Bacterial cellulose-chitosan 1% (w/w).

336

337 **3.2. Moisture content at equilibrium**

338 The content of the moisture of the samples were analysed. Bacterial cellulose,
339 chitosan and PVOH are hydrophilic components, but with different affinity and
340 interaction capacity with water. The moisture content can modify the properties of the
341 films, mainly the mechanical properties. Hence, determining the moisture content of
342 each formulation can help to interpret the other tests. The moisture content of the
343 developed films conditioned in desiccators with saturated sodium bromide solution for 5
344 days ranged from 1.82 to 12.55%. Data fitted well to a two-factor interaction
345 mathematical model. The trial 2 was ignored for ANOVA analysis as it was detected as
346 an outlier in the Cook's distance test. The F-value of the model was 68.85 indicating
347 that the model was significant. The p-values of the model terms were significant (p
348 <0.05). The r^2 value was 0.98. **Adjusted r^2 compares the goodness-of-fit for regression**
349 **models that contain differing numbers of independent variables. Predicted r^2 is a**
350 **measure of how well the model predicts a response value. The adjusted r^2 and predicted**
351 **r^2 should be within approximately 0.20 of each other to be in reasonable agreement. In**
352 **this case, the difference between the predicted r^2 (0.98) and the adjusted r^2 (0.95) was**
353 **less than 0.2, which is reasonable. Adequate precision is a signal/noise ratio. It**
354 **compares the range of the predicted values at the design points to average prediction**
355 **error. Ratios greater than 4 indicate adequate model discrimination. The adequate**
356 **precision obtained was 25.55, implying an adequate signal.**

357 The F-values of the terms allow determining which component has greater effect
358 on the response. The F-values of the model terms indicated that the moisture content of
359 the samples was mainly affected by the chitosan concentration, followed by the

360 interaction between chitosan-PVOH. Equation 7 predicts the moisture content of the
361 bacterial cellulose films as a function of chitosan and PVOH concentrations.

362

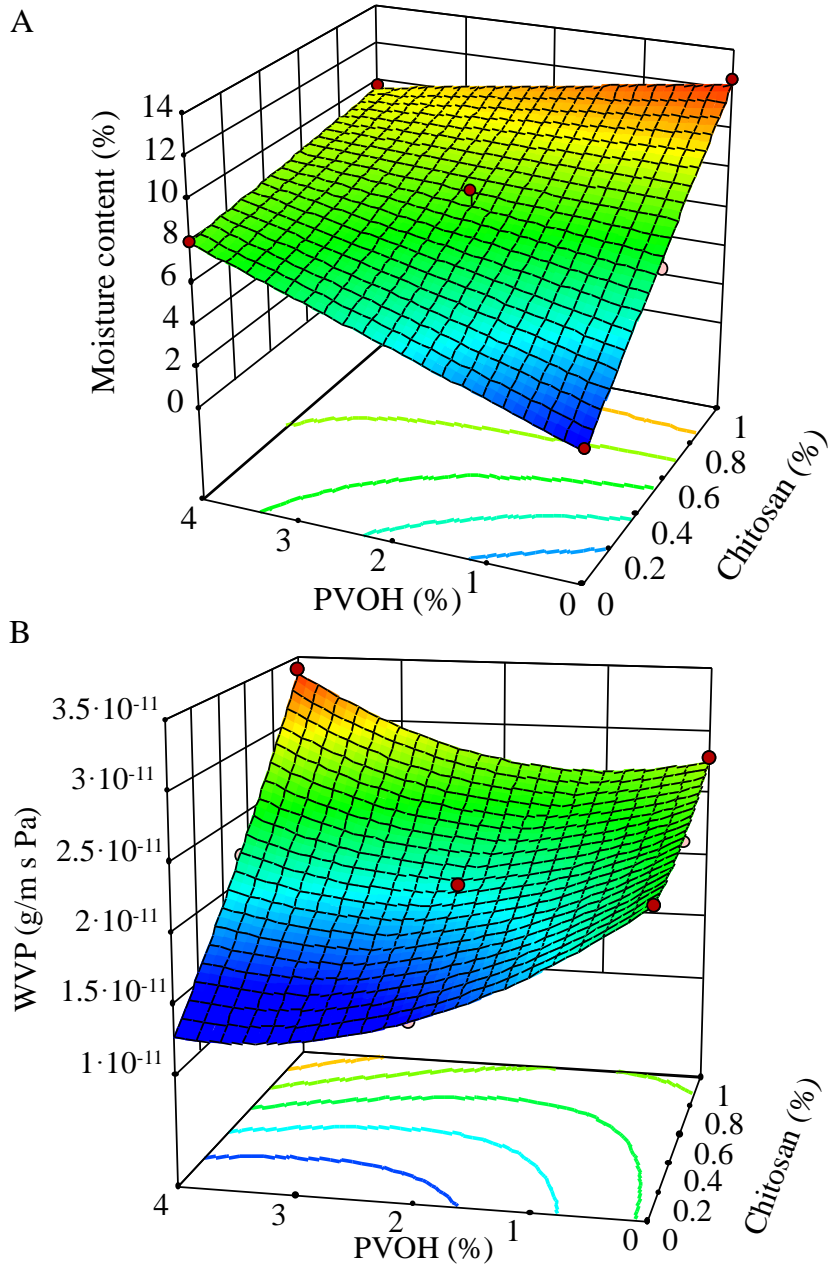
$$363 \text{ Moisture content (\%)} = 1.72 + 10.57 \cdot \text{Chitosan (\%)} + 1.58 \cdot \text{PVOH(\%)} - 2.22 \cdot \\ 364 \text{Chitosan(\%)} \cdot \text{PVOH(\%)} \quad (\text{Eq. 7})$$

365

366 According to the response surface (Figure 3a), the presence of chitosan or
367 PVOH in bacterial cellulose films increased the moisture content. Mainly the chitosan is
368 responsible for the increase of moisture content. This increase was due to the
369 hydrophilic nature of the chitosan and PVOH. The chitosan effect was more significant
370 due to its large amount of hydrophilic amino and hydroxyl groups. The moisture
371 adsorption behaviour of chitosan-PVOH blends in different humidity environments
372 were investigated in previous studies (Liu et al., 2018). Results in this study
373 demonstrated a higher moisture content of the composites when increasing the chitosan
374 concentration.

375

376



377

378

379 Fig. 3. Prediction of the model for the effect on A) moisture content in equilibrium and

380 B) water vapour permeability (WVP) of chitosan and poly(vinyl alcohol) on bacterial

381 cellulose films.

382 **3.3. Water vapour permeability (WVP)**

383 The WVP values ranged from $1.47 \cdot 10^{-11}$ to $3.40 \cdot 10^{-11}$ g/m·s·Pa. Data were well
384 fitted to a quadratic model. Experiment 3 was ignored because it was identified as an
385 outlier by the Cook's distance test. The F-value of the model was 143.37 with a p-value
386 of 0.0069, indicating that the mathematical model was significant. The value of r^2 was
387 0.99. **The predicted r^2 (0.95) was in reasonable agreement with the adjusted r^2 (0.99).**
388 The adequate precision was higher than 4 (39.39), implying an adequate signal. The F-
389 values indicate that the chitosan had the most important effect on the WVP response,
390 followed by the interaction chitosan-PVOH.

391 **Equation 8** predicts the response on WVP as a function of chitosan and PVOH.

392

393
$$WVP (g/m \cdot s \cdot Pa) = 2.38 \cdot 10^{-11} + 4.71 \cdot 10^{-13} \cdot Chitosan (\%) - 6.23 \cdot 10^{-12} \cdot$$

394
$$PVOH(\%) + 4.30 \cdot 10^{-12} \cdot Chitosan(\%) \cdot PVOH(\%) + 3.45 \cdot 10^{-12} \cdot$$

395
$$Chitosan(\%)^2 + 8.65 \cdot 10^{-13} \cdot PVOH(\%)^2 \quad \text{(Eq. 8)}$$

396 As shown in the response surface (Figure 3b), the WVP pattern depended on the
397 components blended with the BC. BC-chitosan blends increased the WVP when the
398 chitosan content increased. The hydrophilic property of the chitosan could explain the
399 increase of WVP. Conversely, BC-PVOH films had lower permeability than pure
400 cellulose films. Pure BC films showed a WVP of $2.38 \cdot 10^{-11}$ (g/m·s·Pa) and pure PVOH
401 films reported a WVP of $1.70 \cdot 10^{-11}$ g/m·s·Pa at 30 °C (Jipa et al., 2012). Pure BC films
402 have an open porous structure, which facilitate the diffusion of the water molecules
403 through cellulose fibers. Some voids between the cellulose fibers could have been filled
404 by the PVOH decreasing the porosity and hindering the diffusion of the water

405 molecules. PVOH is a hydrophilic polymer, but its interaction capacity with water is
406 lower than that of chitosan (Liu et al., 2018). For this reason, bacterial cellulose-PVOH
407 films showed lower WVP values than that of bacterial cellulose-chitosan films.
408 However, this behaviour changed in presence chitosan-PVOH, producing a higher
409 increase of the permeability when the concentration of both polymers increased. This
410 effect has been reported in previous studies as chitosan-PVOH films manifested higher
411 WVP values than pure chitosan or PVOH films. The authors justified this effect as a
412 result of the formation of a more open matrix. The hydration layers of the chitosan
413 resulted in a lower density of the polymeric matrix. This structure facilitated the transfer
414 of water molecules through the network (Bonilla, Fortunati, Atarés, Chiralt, & Kenny,
415 2014). Regenerated cellulose-chitosan-PVOH films showed the same effect on WVP
416 (Cazón et al., 2018b).

417

418 *3.4. Mechanical properties*

419 The TS values ranged from 20.76 to 41.65 MPa. Data fitted well to a quadratic
420 equation. The F-value of the model was 30.63, indicating that the model was significant.
421 All terms in the quadratic model were significant ($p < 0.05$). The value of r^2 was 0.98
422 and the predicted r^2 was in reasonable agreement with the adjusted r^2 . The adequate
423 precision obtained was 16.94, implying an adequate signal. The F-values of the model
424 terms indicated that TS was highly affected by the chitosan. Equation 9 forecasts the
425 values of TS as a function of chitosan and PVOH concentrations.

426

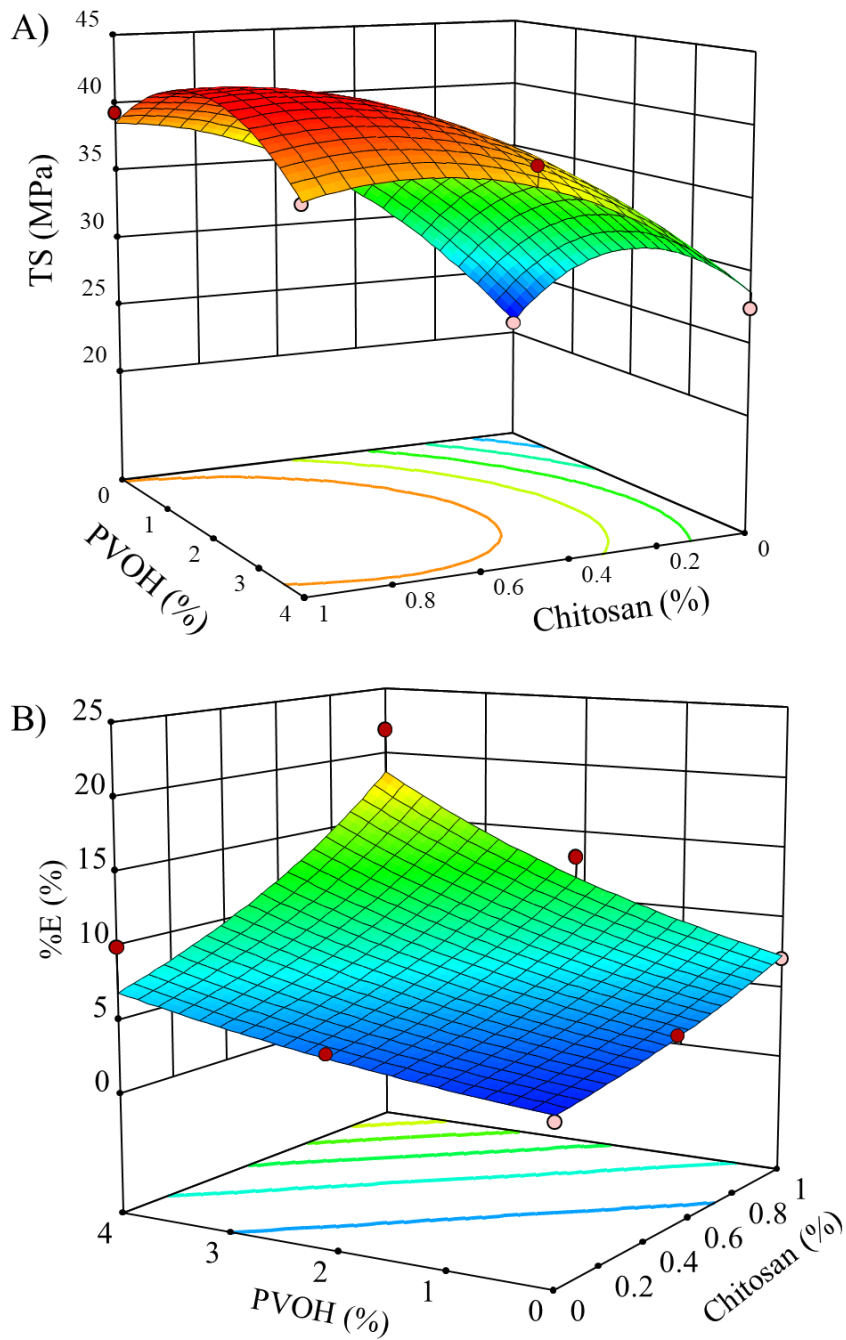
$$TS(\text{MPa}) = 20.99 + 33.90 \cdot \text{Chitosan}(\%) + 6.29 \cdot \text{PVOH}(\%) - 2.30 \cdot \text{Chitosan}(\%) \cdot \text{PVOH}(\%) - 16.33 \cdot \text{Chitosan}(\%)^2 - 1.09 \cdot \text{PVOH}(\%)^2 \quad (\text{Eq. 9})$$

Pure regenerated cellulose film reported a TS value of 38.30 MPa from a dissolution of 4% of cellulose microcrystalline (Cazón et al., 2018b). Pure BC films showed a TS values of 20.76 MPa. BC films showed lower TS values than regenerated cellulose films, despite BC has higher crystallinity, because in its structure there are not remains of amorphous structures. There are two reasons responsible of this TS difference. One reason is the variation of the thickness. Pure regenerated cellulose studied was three folds thicker than pure BC films. Lower thickness could imply lower interaction among the cellulose fibers. It was observed that the TS values of the regenerated cellulose films depended on the cellulose concentration (Cazón et al., 2018b). In addition, bacterial cellulose had a less packed structure than regenerated cellulose, as shown the SEM images. These differences in the microstructure could affect the resistance to rupture, but also could promote the interaction with other polymers in the blend. Probably, longer fermentation time of the acetic bacteria to obtain thicker films, could help to increase the hydrogen bond interactions and increase the TS values. In literature, TS values have been reported between 5 and 96 MPa for pure BC films (Cai & Kim, 2010; Phisalaphong & Jatupaiboon, 2008; Saibuatong & Phisalaphong, 2010b; Szymańska-Chargot et al., 2017). The wide range of TS values could be explained because the properties of cellulose depend on the specific assembling and supramolecular order controlled by the culture medium, fermentation

450 conditions and treatment of cellulose. The measuring conditions or the moisture content
451 of the samples also affect the obtained values (Hu et al., 2014).

452 On the other hand, analysing the interaction with other polymers, the addition of
453 chitosan and/or PVOH increase in general the TS values of the films. The effect on TS
454 of chitosan and PVOH is shown in the Figure 4a. TS values reported for pure chitosan
455 films elaborated from an aqueous solution of acetic acid and similar storage conditions
456 ranged from 50 to 70 MPa (Leceta, Guerrero, & De La Caba, 2013; Li, Zivanovic,
457 Davidson, & Kit, 2010; Liu et al., 2018). Regarding pure PVOH films, the TS values
458 reported ranged from 40 to 50 MPa (Hu & Wang, 2016; Liu et al., 2018; Lu, Wang, &
459 Drzal, 2008).

460



461

462 Fig. 4. Prediction of the model for the effect on **A)** the tensile strength (TS) and **B)**

463 percentage of elongation at break (%E) of chitosan and poly(vinyl alcohol) on bacterial

464 cellulose films.

465

466 Both polymers reported higher TS values than pure BC. Thus, films were
467 reinforced after combining BC with polymers with higher TS values. **New physical**
468 **interactions among the components took place, due to the possibility interaction**
469 **between -OH and -NH₂ groups in these polymers. These new physical interactions were**
470 **able to improve the mechanical properties of the blend films (Bahrami, Kordestani,**
471 **Mirzadeh, & Mansoori, 2003; Bonilla et al., 2014).** Besides, as observed in the SEM
472 **images, the presence of PVOH and chitosan increased the density of the structure,**
473 **obtaining a more compact structure, which explain the increase of TS.** However, at the
474 highest chitosan and PVOH concentrations, TS decreased slightly, but maintained
475 higher values than those of pure BC. This change was due to the increase of the
476 moisture content of the samples due to the hydrophilic nature of chitosan and PVOH.
477 The water had a plasticizing effect on the polymers, promoting the mobility of the
478 polymeric chains (Liu et al., 2018). Higher incubation times (14 days) and freeze drying
479 (-40 °C for 3 days), modified the structure of BC-chitosan films, modified the
480 mechanical properties and allowed obtaining TS values of 450 MPa (Kim et al., 2011).

481 The %E values ranged from 2.28 to 21.82%. Data fitted well to a linear model.
482 The Box-Cox plot recommended transforming the data to logarithmic base 10 of %E to
483 get a better fit of the equation. The F-value of the model was 9.80, indicating that the
484 model is significant. There is only a 1.29% chance that a F-value could be due to noise.
485 All model terms were significant ($p < 0.05$) and the value of r^2 was 0.77. In this case,
486 the predicted r^2 of 0.48 was slightly away from the adjusted r^2 of 0.69. However, the
487 adequate precision obtained was 8.85, indicating an adequate signal to noise ratio. The
488 F-values of the model terms indicated that chitosan produced a slightly higher effect on

489 the %E. Equation 10 predicts the %E response as a function of the chitosan and PVOH
490 concentrations.

491

$$492 \quad \text{Log}_{10}(\%E) = 0.41 + 0.43 \cdot \text{Chitosan} (\%) + 0.10 \cdot \text{PVOH}(\%) \quad (\text{Eq. 10})$$

493

494 Reported %E values for pure BC ranges from 0.6 to 5% (Cai & Kim, 2010).

495 According to the response surface (Figure 4b), the presence of chitosan or PVOH in BC

496 films increased the %E values. This behaviour was more significant in formulations

497 containing chitosan and PVOH. The %E of pure BC films was 2.28%, higher than that

498 of regenerated cellulose (1.55%) (Cazón et al., 2018b). The higher %E of BC allowed

499 an easier manipulation than that of regenerated cellulose. Developed films in this study

500 significantly increased the elasticity up to a maximum value of 21.82% when chitosan

501 and PVOH were added. This increase in elasticity facilitated the manipulation of the

502 films. Besides, adding chitosan and PVOH increased the moisture content which had an

503 plasticizing effect on the film (Liu et al., 2018; Suyatma, Tighzert, Copinet, & Coma,

504 2005). Probably the interaction of cellulose fibres with PVOH and water molecules

505 reduced the frictional forces between polymeric chains, facilitating their mobility. In

506 addition, new interactions cellulose-chitosan-PVOH-water through hydrogen bonds

507 could modify the elasticity of the polymer (Liu et al., 2018; Suyatma et al., 2005).

508 Regenerated cellulose-chitosan-PVOH films reached a maximum elasticity of 12.82%

509 (Cazón et al., 2018b), lower than the bacterial cellulose-chitosan-PVOH films. This

510 result suggests that the more open three-dimensional structure of the BC promoted the

511 interaction among the polymers in the composite film. On the other hand the percentage

512 of elongation at break of the composite films was superior to the individual component,
513 probably promoted by the physical interaction of chitosan-PVOH in the blends (Liu et
514 al., 2018).

515 The Young's modulus values obtained were in the range from 1043.88 to
516 2247.82 MPa. Data fitted well to a quadratic equation. Trial 7 was disregarded because
517 it was identified as an outlier by the Cook's distance test. The F-value of the model was
518 302.83 with a p-value = 0.0033. These statistical parameters indicated that the
519 mathematical model was significant. The value of r^2 was 0.99 and the adjusted r^2
520 (0.99) was in reasonable agreement with the predicted r^2 (0.98). The adequate precision
521 value was higher than 4 (48.82), implying an adequate signal to noise ratio. F-values
522 indicated that the quadratic effect of chitosan and PVOH content had the most important
523 effect on the response of %E, followed by the linear effect of the PVOH. Equation 11
524 predicts the response on Young's Modulus as a function of the components of chitosan
525 and PVOH.

526

$$\begin{aligned} 527 \text{ Young's Modulus (MPa)} &= 1034.58 + 2301.07 \cdot \text{Chitosan (\%)} + 579.66 \cdot \\ 528 \text{ PVOH(\%)} &+ 189.12 \cdot \text{Chitosan(\%)} \cdot \text{PVOH(\%)} - 2929.43 \cdot \text{Chitosan(\%)}^2 - \\ 529 &144.35 \cdot \text{PVOH(\%)}^2 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{Eq.11})$$

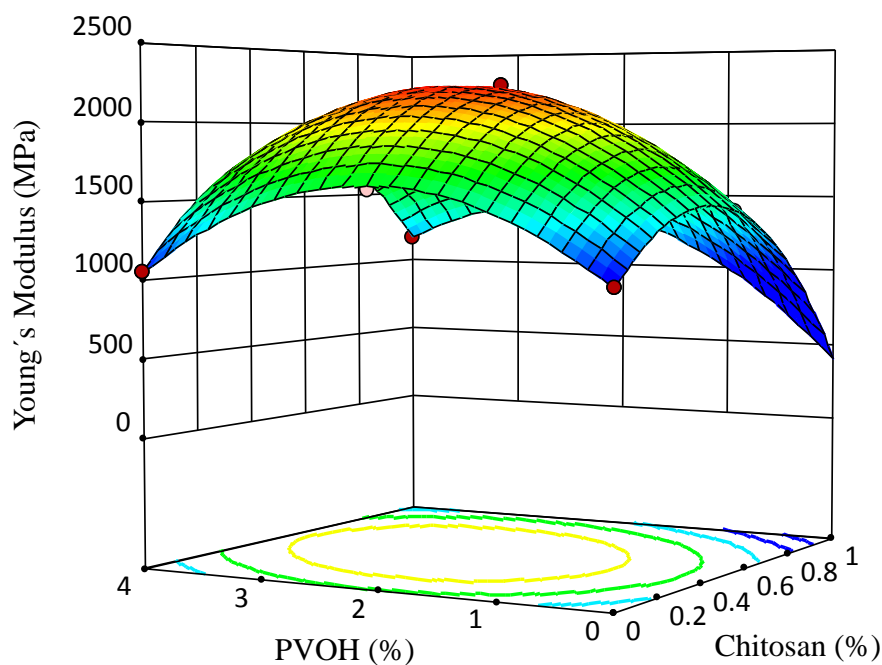
530

531 According to the response surface (Figure 5), YM values increased when the
532 concentration of chitosan and PVOH increased up to intermediate values. This
533 behaviour could be explained due to the intermolecular hydrogen bonds formed among
534 the components in the film. Similar results were observed in regenerated cellulose-

535 chitosan-PVOH (Cazón et al., 2018b). However, if the concentration of chitosan and
536 PVOH continued increasing, YM values decreased, especially with the increasing of
537 chitosan. Also, the increase of moisture content in the films significantly decreased the
538 YM values. The effect of water on YM has been reported in chitosan-PVOH film. In
539 general, YM values of pure chitosan film range from 1500 to 3000 MPa, depending on
540 the chitosan concentration, molecular weight, solvent, deacetylation degree and storage
541 conditions (Fernandes et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2018). YM values for PVOH films range
542 from 1000-1500 MPa (Paralikar, Simonsen, & Lombardi, 2008; Roohani et al., 2008).
543 However, these values dropped to 60 MPa and 5 MPa, respectively when conditioning
544 the films at high relative humidity (75% RH), demonstrating the effect of water
545 molecules on the YM (Liu et al., 2018).

546

547



548

549 Fig. 5. Prediction of the model for the effect on the Young's Modulus of chitosan and
550 poly(vinyl alcohol) on bacterial cellulose films.

551

552 *3.5. Light barrier properties, transparency and opacity*

553 One of the main objectives of active packaging is maintaining the quality of
554 food to increase the shelf life. Hence, to develop biofilms with good optical barrier in
555 the region of UV-radiation is a feasible strategy. UV-light is the main responsible for
556 the appearance of the singlet oxygen, the most common cause of lipid oxidation. This
557 oxidative reaction alters the odour, taste and colour of food, diminishing its organoleptic
558 qualities, that affect the acceptability of food to consumers (Goudarzi, Shahabi-
559 Ghahfarrokhi, & Babaei-Ghazvini, 2017; Vilela et al., 2017). On the other hand,
560 biodegradable films with UV-light barriers properties should have an adequate
561 transparency. Biopolymers with good values of transparency applied directly on food
562 provide a good visual appearance, increasing their consumer acceptancy (Cazón et al.,
563 2018a).

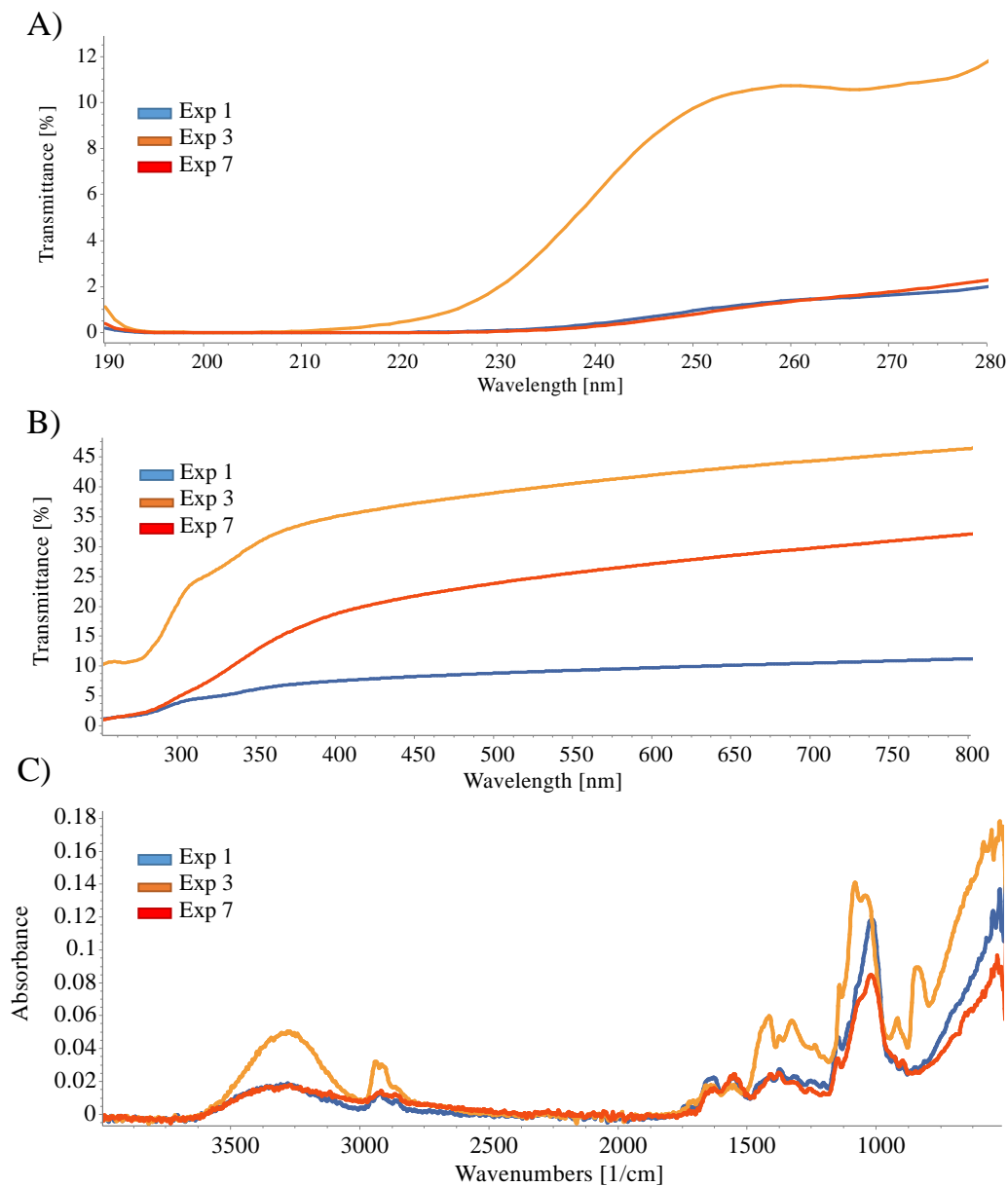
564 The lipids are more susceptible to oxidative reactions in the region from 200 to
565 280 nm wavelength. **Figure 6a** shows the transmittance of the experiments 1, 3 and 7 in
566 the 200-280 nm UV range. The select samples allow to analyse the optical properties of
567 pure bacterial cellulose, and the effect of the PVOH and chitosan on the composite
568 films. In this region, pure bacterial cellulose showed transmittance values of 0% up to a
569 wavelength of 230 nm, then increasing up to 2%. Pure bacterial cellulose films showed
570 lower transmittance values than pure regenerated cellulose which ranged from 0.4 to
571 5.3% (Cazón et al., 2018a). This difference is probably due to the purity of the BC and

572 the structural differences between the films. The addition of PVOH increased the
573 transmittance at 210 nm up to 11.65%. BC-chitosan spectra showed that the
574 transmittance values remained low, without significant differences when compared to
575 pure bacterial cellulose. In previous studies, chitosan showed lower transmittance
576 values in the UV region between 200 and 280 nm (Kalaycıoğlu, Torlak, Akın-Evingür,
577 Özen, & Erim, 2017; Kanatt et al., 2012). That is the reason because BC-chitosan films
578 kept the low values.

579 In the UV-VIS region (280– 800 nm) (Figure 6b), pure BC films kept low values
580 of transmittance, with a maximum transmittance of 11%. Adding PVOH to BC resulted
581 in the greatest effect on transmittance, increasing the value up 46.6%. However, in
582 chitosan-BC samples, the transmittance increased constantly with the wavelength, up to
583 32%. This increase of the transmittance affected the visual properties modifying the
584 transparency and opacity of the films.

585

586



587

588

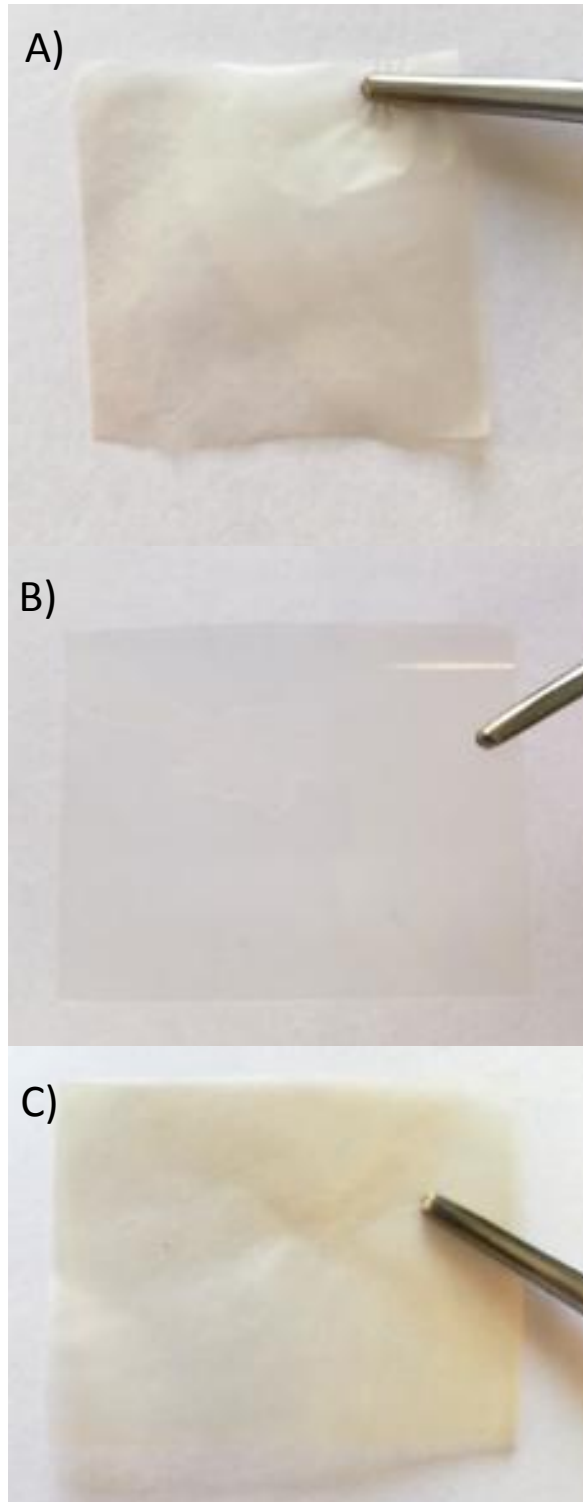
589 Fig. 6. Spectra profile A) and B) of UV-VIS and C) FT-IR of films from experiments 1,

590 3 and 7: Exp 1) Pure bacterial cellulose sample; Exp 3) Bacterial cellulose-poly(vinyl

591 alcohol) 4% (w/w); Exp 7) Bacterial cellulose-chitosan 1% (w/w).

592

593 Pure cellulose films had a smoked colour, but the formulations with PVOH
594 resulted in films with a translucent and shiny appearance. However, the transparency
595 values obtained for samples 1, 3 and 7 were 47.6, 24.5 and 48.0, respectively.
596 According to these results, pure BC film had the best transparency value, followed by
597 the chitosan film and then PVOH film. These values were strongly affected by the
598 thickness. Films with PVOH were three times thicker than pure BC samples. BC-
599 chitosan films were twice as thick as pure BC. For this reason, it is necessary to
600 complete this information with the opacity. The opacity values calculated were 50.9, 6.2
601 and 20.9 for pure BC, BC-PVOH and BC-chitosan films, respectively. The transparency
602 and opacity values indicate that the PVOH, followed by the chitosan, improved the
603 optical properties of the films in the visible region, thus improving their appearance as
604 shown in Figure 7. In this region, the transmittance values were slightly lower than the
605 values obtained for regenerated cellulose-chitosan-PVOH films previously studied
606 (Cazón et al., 2018a).
607



608

609 Fig. 7. Visual appearance of the A) pure bacterial cellulose sample, B) bacterial
610 cellulose-poly(vinyl alcohol) 4% (w/w) and C) bacterial cellulose-chitosan 1% (w/w).

611

612 *3.6. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR)*

613 The interactions between BC-PVOH-chitosan at structural level were evaluated
614 by FT-IR measurements. Figure 6c shows the FT-IR spectra of the experiment 1, 3 and
615 7. The spectra show the characteristic absorption bands of BC, PVOH and chitosan. A
616 broad band in the 3000–3600 cm^{-1} region is attributed to the intermolecular hydrogen
617 bonding and -OH stretching vibrations in BC and PVOH. The addition of PVOH
618 resulted in a slight displacement of this peak at a higher wavenumber, probably due to
619 the increase of -OH groups and the formation of hydrogen bonding. The -NH stretching
620 vibration of chitosan is also located in this region. This increase of the absorbance could
621 also be associated to the interaction with -OH group (Cazón et al., 2018a; Pavaloiu,
622 Stoica-Guzun, Stroescu, Jinga, & Dobre, 2014). A weak signal at 2920 cm^{-1} appeared
623 in the three samples, due to the -CH stretching.

624 The absorbance peaks observed around 1550 cm^{-1} were assigned to -NH₂
625 deformation vibration of chitosan (Zhao, Teixeira, Gänzle, & Saldaña, 2018). However,
626 FT-IR spectra of pure BC and BC-PVOH films showed a peak of absorbance at 1550
627 cm^{-1} , with lower intensity. Probably, due to the presence of residues from the culture
628 medium that could not be completely removed during the washing process, since films
629 elaborated with regenerated cellulose did not show absorbance at this wavelength
630 (Cazón et al., 2018a). The absorption bands with a maximum at 1055 cm^{-1} and 1020
631 cm^{-1} are assigned to the C-O-C pyranose ring stretching vibrations and C-H ring
632 deformation, respectively. In this region, the BC-PVOH bands are shifted in comparison

633 to the pure BC spectra, indicating polymeric association through hydrogen bonding
634 (Pereira, de Arruda, & Stefani, 2015).

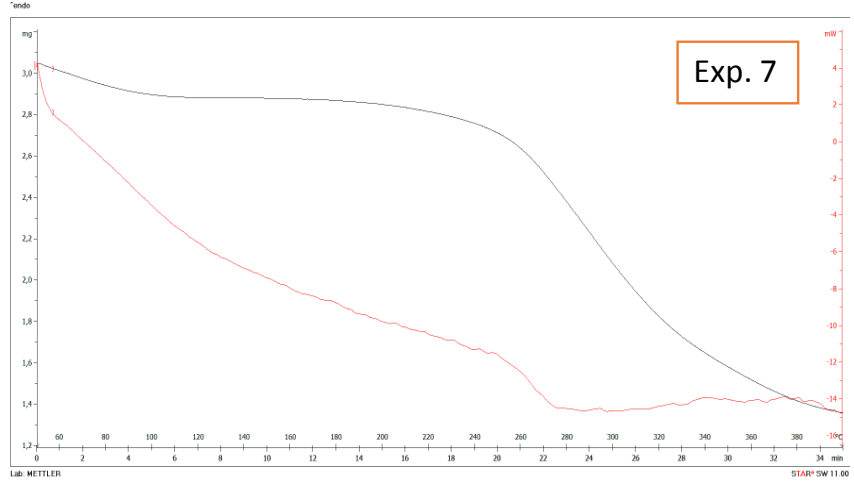
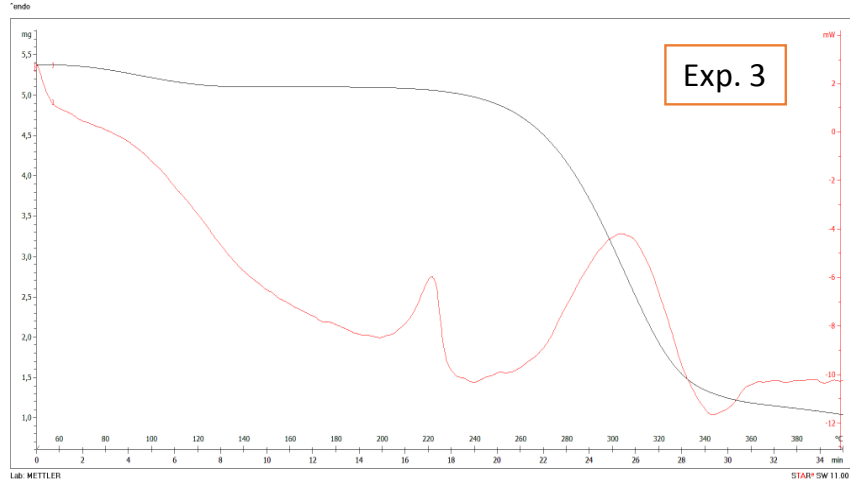
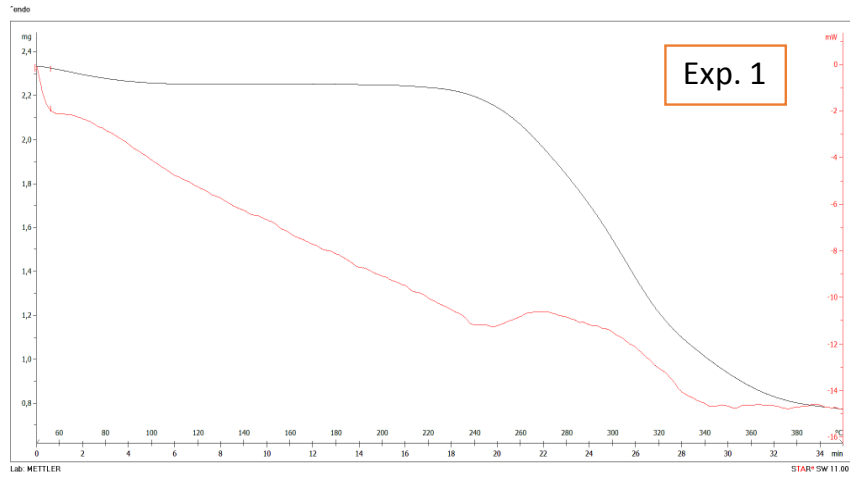
635

636 *3.7. Thermal properties of films TGA-DSC*

637 Thermogravimetry and differential scanning calorimetry of the samples from the
638 experiments 1, 3 and 7 were carried out simultaneously. These measurements allowed
639 assessing the stability of pure BC and the effect of adding PVOH and chitosan on the
640 thermal stability of the films. Figure 8 shows the thermograms obtained for each
641 sample. The first endothermic peak (60 - 110)°C corresponded to the volatilization of
642 water from the films samples (Martins et al., 2009). In agreement with the data obtained
643 in the measurement of moisture content in equilibrium, this first peak resulted in a
644 weight loss of 3.4, 3.9 and 5.3%, for the pure BC, BC-PVOH and BC-chitosan films,
645 respectively.

646

647



648

649

650 Fig. 8. Thermogravimetry and differential scanning calorimetry of experiments 1, 3 and
651 7: 1) Pure bacterial cellulose sample; 3) Bacterial cellulose-poly(vinyl alcohol) 4%
652 (w/w); 7) Bacterial cellulose-chitosan 1% (w/w).

653

654 In Figure 8, the endothermic peak at 250°C corresponded to the onset
655 temperature of thermal degradation of cellulose, in accordance with the data observed in
656 previous works (Mohammadkazemi et al., 2015). At 400 °C the decomposition of the
657 BC corresponded to the 66.7% of the weight loss. The thermogram of the BC-PVOH
658 samples showed two endothermic peaks in the second region. The first endothermic
659 peak, at about 220 °C, corresponds to the thermal degradation of PVA (Bonilla et al.,
660 2014). In the 200-240 °C range, the percentage of the weight loss was 5.2-7.2% of the
661 total initial weight. The loss of weight in this interval was not significant, which
662 indicated that part of PVOH, degraded at higher temperatures probably due to the
663 interaction with cellulose. The second endothermic peak, at 260-340 °C, corresponded
664 to the 11.1-74.4% weight loss of the initial weight. Data suggest that the BC-PVOH
665 interaction increased the thermal stability of the films, increasing the degradation
666 temperature of the PVOH and the BC. On the other hand, in presence of chitosan, the
667 degradation onset temperature of the sample was found in the 260-270 °C region. The
668 presence of chitosan increased the degradation temperature of the sample compared to
669 that of pure BC. At the 260-340 °C region, the weight loss was 12.7-45.0%, reaching a
670 weight loss of 55.1% up to a temperature of 400 °C, indicating that the interaction BC-
671 chitosan increased the thermal stability the sample. Regenerated cellulose-PVOH and

672 regenerated cellulose-chitosan also showed this increase in thermal stability due to the
673 interaction between the polymers (Cazón et al., 2018a).

674

675 **4. Conclusions**

676 Results showed that it is feasible to obtain BC-based films with potential
677 applications as active biopolymer for food packaging. Combining BC with PVOH and
678 chitosan allowed improving or modifying the mechanical, vapour permeability, thermal
679 and optical properties of the films. The equilibrium moisture content had an important
680 effect on the mechanical properties of the films. TS and %E values of the samples
681 increased with the presence of PVOH and chitosan. WVP decreased slightly when
682 PVOH was added into the formulation. Chitosan increased the permeability of the films.
683 PVOH and chitosan decreased the porosity of the BC films and increased the films
684 density. The UV-VIS spectra showed the optimal optical barrier properties of BC-based
685 films against UV-radiation. Adding PVOH increased the transmittance values in the
686 UV-VIS region and improved the transparency and visual appearance of the films. FT-
687 IR and TGA-DSC indicated the interaction among the polymers. These properties could
688 be useful in food industry as an alternative to synthetic film preventing the lipid
689 oxidations in foods.

690

691 **Acknowledgements**

692 A grant from CONACYT (México) (#435948) to author Patricia Cazón is
693 gratefully acknowledged. The financial support for this project was provided by
694 Consellería de Cultura, Educación e Ordenación Universitaria, Xunta de Galicia (ES)

695 (Project # ED431B 2016/009). Authors would like to thank the use of RIAIDT-USC
696 analytical facilities.

697

698 **References**

699 Antoniou, J., Liu, F., Majeed, H., & Zhong, F. (2015). Characterization of tara gum

700 edible films incorporated with bulk chitosan and chitosan nanoparticles: A

701 comparative study. *Food Hydrocolloids*, *44*, 309–319.

702 <https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2014.09.023>

703 Bahrami, S. B., Kordestani, S. S., Mirzadeh, H., & Mansoori, P. (2003). Poly (vinyl

704 alcohol) - Chitosan Blends: Preparation, Mechanical and Physical Properties.

705 *Iranian Polymer Journal*, *12*(2), 139–146.

706 Bonilla, J., Fortunati, E., Atarés, L., Chiralt, A., & Kenny, J. M. (2014). Physical,

707 structural and antimicrobial properties of poly vinyl alcohol-chitosan

708 biodegradable films. *Food Hydrocolloids*, *35*, 463–470.

709 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2013.07.002>

710 Broek Van Den, L. A. M., Knoop, R. J. I., Kappen, F. H. J., & Boeriu, C. G. (2015).

711 Chitosan films and blends for packaging material. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, *116*,

712 237–242. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2014.07.039>

713 Brown, E. E., & Laborie, M.-P. G. (2007). Bioengineering Bacterial

714 Cellulose/Poly(ethylene oxide) Nanocomposites. *Biomacromolecules*, *8*(10),

715 3074–3081. <https://doi.org/10.1021/bm700448x>

716 Cai, Z., & Kim, J. (2010). Bacterial cellulose/poly(ethylene glycol) composite:

717 Characterization and first evaluation of biocompatibility. *Cellulose*, *17*(1), 83–91.

718 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10570-009-9362-5>

719 Carvalho, R. A., Maria, T. M. C., Moraes, I. C. F., Bergo, P. V. A., Kamimura, E. S.,
720 Habitante, A. M. Q. B., & Sobral, P. J. A. (2009). Study of some physical
721 properties of biodegradable films based on blends of gelatin and poly(vinyl
722 alcohol) using a response-surface methodology. *Materials Science and*
723 *Engineering: C*, 29(2), 485–491. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MSEC.2008.08.030>

724 Cazón, P., Vázquez, M., & Velazquez, G. (2018a). Composite films of regenerate
725 cellulose with chitosan and polyvinyl alcohol: Evaluation of water adsorption,
726 mechanical and optical properties. *International Journal of Biological*
727 *Macromolecules*, 117, 235–246. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2018.05.148>

728 Cazón, P., Vázquez, M., & Velazquez, G. (2018b). Novel composite films based on
729 cellulose reinforced with chitosan and polyvinyl alcohol: Effect on mechanical
730 properties and water vapour permeability. *Polymer Testing*, 69(June), 536–544.
731 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.polymertesting.2018.06.016>

732 Cazón, P., Velazquez, G., Ramírez, J. A., & Vázquez, M. (2017). Polysaccharide-based
733 films and coatings for food packaging: A review. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 68, 136–
734 148. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2016.09.009>

735 Cook, R. D. (1977). Detection of Influential Observations in Linear Regression.
736 *Technometrics*, 19(1), 15–18. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1268249>

737 Fernandes, S. C. M., Freire, C. S. R., Silvestre, A. J. D., Pascoal Neto, C., Gandini, A.,
738 Berglund, L. A., & Salmén, L. (2010). Transparent chitosan films reinforced with a
739 high content of nanofibrillated cellulose. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 81(2), 394–401.
740 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2010.02.037>

- 741 Gea, S., Bilotti, E., Reynolds, C. T., Soykeabkeaw, N., & Peijs, T. (2010). Bacterial
742 cellulose–poly(vinyl alcohol) nanocomposites prepared by an in-situ process.
743 *Materials Letters*, 64(8), 901–904.
744 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MATLET.2010.01.042>
- 745 Gennadios, A., Weller, C. L., & Gooding, C. H. (1994). Measurement Errors in Water-
746 Vapor Permeability of Highly Permeable, Hydrophilic Edible Films. *Journal of*
747 *Food Engineering*, 21(4), 395–409. [https://doi.org/Doi.10.1016/0260-](https://doi.org/Doi.10.1016/0260-8774(94)90062-0)
748 [8774\(94\)90062-0](https://doi.org/Doi.10.1016/0260-8774(94)90062-0)
- 749 George, J., & Siddaramaiah. (2012). High performance edible nanocomposite films
750 containing bacterial cellulose nanocrystals. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 87(3), 2031–
751 2037. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2011.10.019>
- 752 Goudarzi, V., Shahabi-Ghahfarrokhi, I., & Babaei-Ghazvini, A. (2017). Preparation of
753 ecofriendly UV-protective food packaging material by starch/TiO₂bio-
754 nanocomposite: Characterization. *International Journal of Biological*
755 *Macromolecules*, 95, 306–313. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2016.11.065>
- 756 Han, J. H., & Floros, J. D. (1997). Casting Antimicrobial Packaging Films and
757 Measuring Their Physical Properties and Antimicrobial Activity. *Journal of Plastic*
758 *Film & Sheeting*, 13(4), 287–298. <https://doi.org/10.1177/875608799701300405>
- 759 Helander, I. M., Nurmiaho-Lassila, E. L., Ahvenainen, R., Rhoades, J., & Roller, S.
760 (2001). Chitosan disrupts the barrier properties of the outer membrane of Gram-
761 negative bacteria. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 71(2–3), 235–244.
762 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1605\(01\)00609-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1605(01)00609-2)
- 763 Hu, D., & Wang, L. (2016). Fabrication of antibacterial blend film from poly (vinyl

764 alcohol) and quaternized chitosan for packaging. *Materials Research Bulletin*, 78,
765 46–52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MATERRESBULL.2016.02.025>

766 Hu, W., Chen, S., Yang, J., Li, Z., & Wang, H. (2014). Functionalized bacterial
767 cellulose derivatives and nanocomposites. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 101, 1043–
768 1060. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2013.09.102>

769 Jipa, I. M., Stroescu, M., Stoica-Guzun, A., Dobre, T., Jinga, S., & Zaharescu, T.
770 (2012). Effect of gamma irradiation on biopolymer composite films of poly(vinyl
771 alcohol) and bacterial cellulose. *Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics
772 Research, Section B: Beam Interactions with Materials and Atoms*, 278, 82–87.
773 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nimb.2012.02.024>

774 Jozala, A. F., de Lencastre-Novaes, L. C., Lopes, A. M., de Carvalho Santos-Ebinuma,
775 V., Mazzola, P. G., Pessoa-Jr, A., ... Chaud, M. V. (2016). Bacterial nanocellulose
776 production and application: a 10-year overview. Springer Verlag.
777 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-015-7243-4>

778 Kalaycıoğlu, Z., Torlak, E., Akın-Evingür, G., Özen, İ., & Erim, F. B. (2017).
779 Antimicrobial and physical properties of chitosan films incorporated with turmeric
780 extract. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 101, 882–888.
781 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJBIOMAC.2017.03.174>

782 Kanatt, S. R., Rao, M. S., Chawla, S. P., & Sharma, A. (2012). Active chitosan–
783 polyvinyl alcohol films with natural extracts. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 29(2), 290–297.
784 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.FOODHYD.2012.03.005>

785 Kim, J., Cai, Z., Lee, H. S., Choi, G. S., Lee, D. H., & Jo, C. (2011). Preparation and
786 characterization of a Bacterial cellulose/Chitosan composite for potential

787 biomedical application. *Journal of Polymer Research*, 18(4), 739–744.
788 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10965-010-9470-9>

789 Leceta, I., Guerrero, P., & De La Caba, K. (2013). Functional properties of chitosan-
790 based films. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 93(1), 339–346.
791 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2012.04.031>

792 Li, J., Zivanovic, S., Davidson, P. M., & Kit, K. (2010). Characterization and
793 comparison of chitosan/PVP and chitosan/PEO blend films. *Carbohydrate*
794 *Polymers*, 79(3), 786–791. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CARBPOL.2009.09.028>

795 Liu, L., Liang, H., Zhang, J., Zhang, P., Xu, Q., Lu, Q., & Zhang, C. (2018). Poly(vinyl
796 alcohol)/Chitosan composites: Physically transient materials for sustainable and
797 transient bioelectronics. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 195, 786–795.
798 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.05.216>

799 Lu, J., Wang, T., & Drzal, L. T. (2008). Preparation and properties of microfibrillated
800 cellulose polyvinyl alcohol composite materials. *Composites Part A: Applied*
801 *Science and Manufacturing*, 39(5), 738–746.
802 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesa.2008.02.003>

803 Lucyszyn, N., Ono, L., Lubambo, A. F., Woehl, M. A., Sens, C. V., de Souza, C. F., &
804 Sierakowski, M. R. (2016). Physicochemical and in vitro biocompatibility of films
805 combining reconstituted bacterial cellulose with arabinogalactan and xyloglucan.
806 *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 151, 889–898.
807 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CARBPOL.2016.06.027>

808 Martínez-Sanz, M., Lopez-Rubio, A., & Lagaron, J. M. (2013). High-barrier coated
809 bacterial cellulose nanowhiskers films with reduced moisture sensitivity.

810 *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 98(1), 1072–1082.
811 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CARBPOL.2013.07.020>

812 Martins, I. M. G., Magina, S. P., Oliveira, L., Freire, C. S. R., Silvestre, A. J. D., Neto,
813 C. P., & Gandini, A. (2009). New biocomposites based on thermoplastic starch and
814 bacterial cellulose. *Composites Science and Technology*, 69(13), 2163–2168.
815 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.COMPSCITECH.2009.05.012>

816 Mohammadkazemi, F., Azin, M., & Ashori, A. (2015). Production of bacterial cellulose
817 using different carbon sources and culture media. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 117,
818 518–523. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2014.10.008>

819 Moreira, M. del R., Roura, S. I., & Ponce, A. (2011). Effectiveness of chitosan edible
820 coatings to improve microbiological and sensory quality of fresh cut broccoli. *LWT*
821 *- Food Science and Technology*, 44(10), 2335–2341.
822 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2011.04.009>

823 No, H. K., Meyers, S. P., Prinyawiwatkul, W., & Xu, Z. (2007). Applications of
824 chitosan for improvement of quality and shelf life of foods: A review. *Journal of*
825 *Food Science*, 72(5). <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2007.00383.x>

826 Numata, Y., Sakata, T., Furukawa, H., & Tajima, K. (2015). Bacterial cellulose gels
827 with high mechanical strength. *Materials Science and Engineering: C*, 47, 57–62.
828 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.msec.2014.11.026>

829 Olarte, C., Sanz, S., Federico Echávarri, J., & Ayala, F. (2009). Effect of plastic
830 permeability and exposure to light during storage on the quality of minimally
831 processed broccoli and cauliflower. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 42(1),
832 402–411. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.LWT.2008.07.001>

833 Paralikar, S. A., Simonsen, J., & Lombardi, J. (2008). Poly(vinyl alcohol)/cellulose
834 nanocrystal barrier membranes. *Journal of Membrane Science*, 320(1), 248–258.
835 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.memsci.2008.04.009>

836 Pavaloiu, R.-D., Stoica-Guzun, A., Stroescu, M., Jinga, S. I., & Dobre, T. (2014).
837 Composite films of poly(vinyl alcohol)–chitosan–bacterial cellulose for drug
838 controlled release. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 68, 117–
839 124. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJBIOMAC.2014.04.040>

840 Pavaloiu, R. D., Dobre, T., & Hlevca, C. (2013). Use of bacterial cellulose-glycerol-
841 poly(vinyl alcohol) composites in drug release. *2013 E-Health and Bioengineering*
842 *Conference (EHB)*. <https://doi.org/10.1109/EHB.2013.6707312>

843 Pereira, V. A., de Arruda, I. N. Q., & Stefani, R. (2015). Active chitosan/PVA films
844 with anthocyanins from *Brassica oleracea* (Red Cabbage) as Time–Temperature
845 Indicators for application in intelligent food packaging. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 43,
846 180–188. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.FOODHYD.2014.05.014>

847 Phisalaphong, M., & Jatupaiboon, N. (2008). Biosynthesis and characterization of
848 bacteria cellulose–chitosan film. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 74(3), 482–488.
849 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CARBPOL.2008.04.004>

850 Roohani, M., Habibi, Y., Belgacem, N. M., Ebrahim, G., Karimi, A. N., & Dufresne, A.
851 (2008). Cellulose whiskers reinforced polyvinyl alcohol copolymers
852 nanocomposites. *European Polymer Journal*, 44(8), 2489–2498.
853 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.EURPOLYMJ.2008.05.024>

854 Ruka, D. R., Simon, G. P., & Dean, K. M. (2012). Altering the growth conditions of
855 *Gluconacetobacter xylinus* to maximize the yield of bacterial cellulose.

856 *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 89(2), 613–622.
857 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2012.03.059>

858 Saibuatong, O., & Phisalaphong, M. (2010a). Novo aloe vera–bacterial cellulose
859 composite film from biosynthesis. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 79(2), 455–460.
860 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CARBPOL.2009.08.039>

861 Saibuatong, O., & Phisalaphong, M. (2010b). Novo aloe vera–bacterial cellulose
862 composite film from biosynthesis. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 79(2), 455–460.
863 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2009.08.039>

864 Sakia, R. M. (1992). The Box-Cox Transformation Technique: A Review. *The*
865 *Statistician*, 41(2), 169. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2348250>

866 Salari, M., Sowti Khiabani, M., Rezaei Mokarram, R., Ghanbarzadeh, B., & Samadi
867 Kafil, H. (2018). Development and evaluation of chitosan based active
868 nanocomposite films containing bacterial cellulose nanocrystals and silver
869 nanoparticles. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 84, 414–423.
870 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.FOODHYD.2018.05.037>

871 Shabanpour, B., Kazemi, M., Ojagh, S. M., & Pourashouri, P. (2018). Bacterial
872 cellulose nanofibers as reinforce in edible fish myofibrillar protein nanocomposite
873 films. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 117, 742–751.
874 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJBIOMAC.2018.05.038>

875 Shah, N., Ul-Islam, M., Khattak, W. A., & Park, J. K. (2013). Overview of bacterial
876 cellulose composites: A multipurpose advanced material. *Carbohydrate Polymers*,
877 98(2), 1585–1598. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2013.08.018>

878 Shao, W., Wang, S., Liu, H., Wu, J., Zhang, R., Min, H., & Huang, M. (2016).

879 Preparation of bacterial cellulose/graphene nanosheets composite films with
880 enhanced mechanical performances. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 138, 166–171.
881 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CARBPOL.2015.11.033>

882 Suyatma, N. E., Tighzert, L., Copinet, A., & Coma, V. (2005). Effects of hydrophilic
883 plasticizers on mechanical, thermal, and surface properties of chitosan films.
884 *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 53(10), 3950–3957.
885 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf048790+>

886 Szymańska-Chargot, M., Chylińska, M., Cybulska, J., Koziół, A., Pieczywek, P. M., &
887 Zdunek, A. (2017). Simultaneous influence of pectin and xyloglucan on structure
888 and mechanical properties of bacterial cellulose composites. *Carbohydrate*
889 *Polymers*, 174, 970–979. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CARBPOL.2017.07.004>

890 Velásquez-Cock, J., Ramírez, E., Betancourt, S., Putaux, J.-L., Osorio, M., Castro, C.,
891 ... Zuluaga, R. (2014). Influence of the acid type in the production of chitosan
892 films reinforced with bacterial nanocellulose. *International Journal of Biological*
893 *Macromolecules*, 69, 208–213. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2014.05.040>

894 Vilela, C., Pinto, R. J. B., Coelho, J., Domingues, M. R. M., Daina, S., Sadocco, P., ...
895 Freire, C. S. R. (2017). Bioactive chitosan/ellagic acid films with UV-light
896 protection for active food packaging. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 73, 120–128.
897 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2017.06.037>

898 Wang, X., Guo, C., Hao, W., Ullah, N., Chen, L., Li, Z., & Feng, X. (2018).
899 Development and characterization of agar-based edible films reinforced with nano-
900 bacterial cellulose. *International Journal of Biological Macromolecules*, 118, 722–
901 730. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2018.06.089>

902 Wang, X., Xie, Y., Ge, H., Chen, L., Wang, J., Zhang, S., ... Feng, X. (2018). Physical
903 properties and antioxidant capacity of chitosan/epigallocatechin-3-gallate films
904 reinforced with nano-bacterial cellulose. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 179, 207–220.
905 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CARBPOL.2017.09.087>

906 Wexler, A. (1976). Vapor Pressure Equation for Water in Range 3 To 100 Degrees C.
907 *Journal of Research of the National Bureau of Standards - A. Physics and*
908 *Chemistry*, 80A(3), 775–785. <https://doi.org/10.6028/jres.075A.022>

909 Yamada, Y., Yukphan, P., Lan Vu, H. T., Muramatsu, Y., Ochaikul, D., Tanasupawat,
910 S., & Nakagawa, Y. (2012). Description of *Komagataeibacter* gen. nov., with
911 proposals of new combinations (Acetobacteraceae). *The Journal of General and*
912 *Applied Microbiology*, 58(5), 397–404. <https://doi.org/10.2323/jgam.58.397>

913 Zhao, Y., Teixeira, J. S., Gänzle, M. M., & Saldaña, M. D. A. (2018). Development of
914 antimicrobial films based on cassava starch, chitosan and gallic acid using
915 subcritical water technology. *The Journal of Supercritical Fluids*, 137, 101–110.
916 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SUPFLU.2018.03.010>

917