

1 **Preparation of active films with enhanced antioxidant and antibacterial properties**
2 **by incorporating ginger essential oil nanoemulsions with xylan and PVA**

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31 **Abstract**

32 In this study, active films were successfully prepared using xylan/polyvinyl alcohol
33 (PVA) as the film-forming matrix, combined with ginger essential oil nanoemulsions
34 (GEO-NEs) at varying concentrations (2.0%, 4.0%, 6.0%, and 8.0% w/w). The GEO-
35 NEs, produced via ultrasound, had an average particle size of 176.4 ± 1.2 nm. FTIR and
36 XRD analyses revealed that interactions between GEO-NEs and the film matrix
37 occurred through hydrogen bonding, indicating good compatibility between the
38 components. Incorporating GEO-NEs significantly enhanced the UV shielding
39 performance and mechanical properties of the composite films, achieving mechanical
40 properties comparable to those of commercial packaging materials such as high-density
41 polyethylene (HDPE). The GEO-NEs also boosted the antioxidant and antimicrobial
42 activities of the films, producing inhibition zones against *Staphylococcus aureus* and
43 *Escherichia coli*. These results suggest that the composite films have excellent UV
44 shielding, mechanical properties, as well as antioxidant and antibacterial activities,
45 indicating their potential application as active food packaging materials.

46

47 **Keywords**

48 Ginger essential oil, Nanoemulsions, Xylan, Polyvinyl alcohol, Active films

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61 **1. Introduction**

62 As conventional plastic production continues to deplete petroleum resources,
63 significant attention has shifted towards novel packaging materials derived from
64 biopolymers such as polysaccharides, proteins, and lipids. These biopolymers offer
65 advantages such as non-toxicity, biodegradability, renewability, and edibility, thereby
66 presenting broad prospects for various applications (Chen et al., 2024; Jurić, Maslov
67 Bandić, Carullo, & Jurić, 2024).

68 Xylan is a primary component of plant hemicellulose, characterized by a backbone
69 composed of β -(1,4)-linked D-xylopyranosyl residues. It is widely distributed in nature
70 and plentiful in dicots, grasses, and gymnosperms, making it the second most abundant
71 renewable plant polysaccharide on Earth after cellulose (Curry, Peña, & Urbanowicz,
72 2023; Ye & Zhong, 2022). However, xylan main chains contain numerous hydroxyl
73 groups, leading to the formation of dense hydrogen bonding structures during the film
74 formation process. This results in defects such as brittleness and hygroscopicity in pure
75 xylan films, which are unsuitable for food packaging (Höije, Gröndahl, Tømmeraas, &
76 Gatenholm, 2005; Sárossy et al., 2013). To address these issues, researchers have
77 modified the structure of xylan (Mikkonen et al., 2015; Rao et al., 2021; Šimkovic et
78 al., 2014; Zhang, Li, Qi, & Xiang, 2024) or blended xylan/modified xylan with
79 plasticizers and other polymers to enhance the properties of pure xylan films (Bao et
80 al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019b; Sousa, Ramos, Evtuguin, & Gamelas, 2016; Wang et al.,
81 2022; Wang et al., 2021). Polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) is a widely used, non-toxic, water-
82 soluble polymer known for its excellent chemical stability, biocompatibility, and
83 biodegradability, making it highly promising for food packaging applications (Oun,
84 Shin, Rhim, & Kim, 2022). Previous studies have shown that composite films made by
85 blending xylan with PVA exhibit good compatibility and mechanical properties (Liu et
86 al., 2019b; Wang et al., 2014). However, the antioxidant and antibacterial activities of
87 xylan/PVA films are relatively weak or absent, posing a challenge for extending the
88 shelf life of food products.

89 Ginger essential oil (GEO), derived from the rhizomes of ginger (*Zingiber officinale*
90 *Roscoe*), contains an array of compounds including α -zingiberene, geranial, β -

91 sesquiphyllylandrene, α -curcumene, and β -bisabolene. These compounds impart GEO
92 with its distinctive aroma and confer antimicrobial and antioxidant activities (He et al.,
93 2023). Essential oils (EOs) have been classified as Generally Recognized as Safe
94 (GRAS) by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration as natural preservatives (Pandey,
95 Islam, Shams, & Dar, 2022). However, EOs typically exhibit strong taste, high volatility,
96 and low water solubility, which limits their effective application in food packaging
97 (Lakshmayya et al., 2023). An effective strategy to overcome these limitations is to
98 encapsulate EOs into oil-in-water nanoemulsions, creating essential oil-based
99 nanoemulsions (EO-NEs). This approach helps mask the strong aroma of EOs and
100 enhances their compatibility with various biopolymer matrixes (Mirsharifi, Sami,
101 Jazaeri, & Rezaei, 2023). EO-NEs can be prepared using high-energy emulsification
102 techniques such as high-pressure homogenization, ultrasonication, and
103 microfluidization, yielding droplets with an average size ranging from 20 to 200 nm
104 (Singh & Pulikkal, 2022). Research indicates that EO-NEs not only effectively preserve
105 the bioactive constituents of EOs but also exhibit superior antibacterial activity (Shi,
106 Zhang, Chen, & Wang, 2022). In recent years, researchers have attempted to
107 incorporate EO-NEs into various biopolymer-based films such as gelatin (Li et al., 2020;
108 Sun et al., 2021), chitosan (Rui et al., 2024), sodium alginate (Mutlu, 2023), pectin
109 (Norcino et al., 2020), starch (Fan et al., 2024; Kong et al., 2020; Sanchez, Pinzon, &
110 Villa, 2022), and zein (Li et al., 2022). Furthermore, the results indicate good
111 compatibility between these biopolymers and EO-NEs.

112 To our knowledge, no studies have been reported on xylan/PVA films containing GEO-
113 NEs. The primary objective of this study was to develop active films based on
114 xylan/PVA with enhanced antioxidative and antibacterial properties (Fig. 1).
115 Furthermore, the influence of different concentrations of GEO-NEs on the
116 physicochemical, antioxidative, and antibacterial properties of the films was examined
117 to evaluate the potential application of xylan/PVA-based active films in food
118 preservation.

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121 **2. Materials and methods**

122 *2.1. Materials*

123 Xylan derived from corn cobs was purchased from Aladdin Reagent Co., Ltd.
124 (Shanghai, China). Polyvinyl alcohol, glycerol, and Tween 80 were obtained from
125 Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Ginger essential oil was
126 supplied by Huashuo Spice Oil Co., Ltd. (Jiangxi, China). Mueller Hinton agar was
127 purchased from Weiju Biotechnology Co., Ltd. (Nanjing, China). *Escherichia coli*
128 ATCC 25922 and *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 6538 were deposited in the College of
129 Food Science and Engineering, Shandong Agricultural University. All other reagents
130 were of analytical grade.

131

132 *2.2. Preparation and characterization of nano-emulsions*

133 According to the method of Li et al. (2023), with slight modifications, the crude
134 emulsion was obtained by mixing a 1% Tween-80 solution with 2 g of ginger essential
135 oil and shearing at $20,000 \times g$ for 5 min using a high-speed shear (T18 digital Ultra-
136 Turrax, IKA, Germany). The nanoemulsion was then produced using an ultrasonic cell
137 crusher (VCX 130, SONICS, USA) with a 10-min ultrasonic crushing time, a 3-sec
138 ultrasonic crushing interval, and an ultrasonic crushing power of 130 W.

139 The particle size, polydispersity index (PDI), and zeta potential of GEO-NEs were
140 determined at 25°C using a nanoparticle size and potential analyzer (NS-90Z, OMEC,
141 China). To reduce the multiple light scattering effect, the GEO-NEs were diluted 100
142 times with deionized water and left for 1 minute before testing (Shi et al., 2022).
143 Additionally, the average particle size, PDI, and zeta potential of GEO-NEs were
144 recorded at 7, 14, 21, and 28 d to assess the stability of GEO-NEs. The GEO-NEs were
145 also observed at 40× magnification using an inverted fluorescence microscope (MF53-
146 N, MSHOT, China)

147

148 *2.3. Preparation of films*

149 The composite films were prepared using the solution casting method, based on the
150 procedure outlined by Wang et al. (2014), with slight modifications.

151 Briefly, 1.5 g of PVA particles were dissolved in 90 mL of deionized water and stirred
152 at 95°C until the PVA formed a homogeneous solution. Once cooled to 80°C, 0.5 g of
153 xylan was added to the PVA solution and stirred for 30 min. After further cooling to
154 40°C, 20% glycerol (based on the total weight of PVA and xylan) was added and stirred
155 for an additional 30 min to obtain a film-forming solution (FFS). GEO-NEs (at
156 concentrations of 2%, 4%, 6%, and 8% of the total film volume) were added to the FFS
157 and stirred for 20 min at room temperature to obtain active FFS, labeled as GEO-NEs
158 2%, 4%, 6%, and 8%, respectively. After stationary defoaming, 25 g of the resulting
159 active FFS was cast onto polystyrene molds (10 cm × 10 cm) and dried in an oven at
160 40°C for 6 to 8 h. All films were conditioned at 23°C and 50% RH for 48 h before
161 analysis.

162

163 *2.4. Characterization of active films*

164 *2.4.1. Attenuated total reflectance–Fourier transform infrared (ATR–FTIR)*

165 The ATR-FTIR spectra of the films were recorded using a Nicolet iS10 FTIR
166 spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The absorption spectra were collected
167 in the wavenumber range of 4000 to 400 cm⁻¹ with a scan rate of 32 scans and a
168 resolution of 4 cm⁻¹.

169

170 *2.4.2. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) observation*

171 The morphology characteristics of the film surface and cross-section were observed
172 using a field emission scanning electron microscope (SEM, JSM-7800F, JEOL Ltd.,
173 Tokyo, Japan). To observe the cross-section, the film was immersed in liquid nitrogen
174 for 5 min and then fractured. All samples were sputter-coated with gold for 50 sec at a
175 current of 15 mA to make them conductive, followed by observation at magnifications
176 of 500× and 1000×.

177

178 *2.4.3. X-ray diffraction test (XRD)*

179 The crystallinity of the films was evaluated using an X-ray diffractometer (D8
180 ADVANCE, Bruker, Germany). Samples were scanned at diffraction angles (2θ)

181 between 5° and 80° at a scanning rate of 5°/min.

182

183 2.4.4. Optical properties

184 The white standard plate ($L^*=92.7$, $a^*=1.01$, $b^*=0.64$) was used as the background, and
185 the L (lightness), a (redness), and b (yellowness) values were determined by using a
186 colorimeter (CR-400, Konica Minolta Co., Ltd., Japan) to take samples from six
187 random positions of each film. The total color difference (ΔE) was calculated by the
188 following equation:

$$189 \quad \Delta E = \sqrt{(L^* - L)^2 + (a^* - a)^2 + (b^* - b)^2}$$

190 where L^* , a^* , b^* are the color values of the white standard plate, L, a, b were the color
191 values of film samples.

192

193 The UV-visible transmittance of the films was recorded using a UV-visible
194 spectrophotometer (UV-2600i, Shimadzu, Japan) in the wavelength range of 200-800
195 nm. The opacity of the films was determined according to the following equation:

$$196 \quad \text{Opacity} = \frac{A_{600}}{X}$$

197 where A_{600} is the absorbance at 600 nm and X is the film thickness (mm).

198

199 2.4.5. Thickness and mechanical properties

200 Film thickness was measured using a digital micrometer caliper (Sanfeng Precision
201 Meter Co., Ltd., Shanghai, China) at twelve random positions on the film. The tensile
202 strength (TS) and elongation at break (EB) of the films were determined using an auto
203 tensile tester (Labthink Instruments Co. Ltd., Jinan, China) based on a previous method
204 by Qin, Yang, Zhu, and Wei (2022). Before analysis, films were cut into strips
205 measuring 150 mm × 15 mm. The initial clamping distance and the velocity were set at
206 100 mm and 100 mm/min, respectively.

207

208 2.4.6. Water contact angle (WCA)

209

210 A contact angle goniometer (JC2000C1, Shanghai Chen Digital Technology Instrument
211 Co., Ltd., China) was utilized to measure the spread of water droplets on the film
212 surface using the sessile droplet method. The contour data of water droplets were fit
213 using the Laplace-Young equation (Zhang et al., 2023c).

214

215 *2.4.7. Water vapor permeability (WVP)*

216 The WVP of the films was determined using a WVP tester (W3/031, Labthink
217 Instruments Co., Ltd., Jinan, China). Round films with a diameter of 80 mm were tested
218 at 38.0°C and 90% relative humidity (RH) with a preheating time of 4 h and a weighing
219 interval of 2 h. The WVP value was calculated from triplicate measurements.

220

221 *2.4.8. Water solubility (WS)*

222 WS was determined according to the method of Gao et al. (2022) with some
223 modifications. The films were cut into samples measuring 40 mm × 40 mm and dried
224 at 40°C until a constant weight (m_1) was achieved over 24 h. Subsequently, the dried
225 film samples were immersed in 50 mL of distilled water for 24 h, then removed, dried
226 again at 60°C for 24 h, and weighed (m_2). The calculation method for WS (%) was as
227 follows:

$$228 \quad WS = \frac{m_1 - m_2}{m_2}$$

229

230 *2.4.9. Thermogravimetric (TG) analysis*

231 Thermal degradation behavior was measured using a TG analyzer (TGDTA7300,
232 Hitachi, Ltd., Japan). The TG test involved placing 10 mg of film sample in an alumina
233 crucible and heating it in the range of 40-600°C with a heating rate of 10°C/min and an
234 N₂ flow rate of 50 mL/min. Derivative TG (DTG) curves were derived from the
235 differential of TG values.

236

237 *2.4.10. Release of essential oils in different food simulants*

238 Two food simulants were selected: 10% ethanol (for aqueous-based foods) and 90%

239 ethanol (for fatty foods). Film samples measuring 20 × 40 mm were immersed in 10
240 mL of food simulants, and 2 mL of the solutions were removed at specific time intervals
241 at room temperature to determine the released GEO. Subsequently, 2 mL of the simulant
242 solutions were added to maintain the original conditions. The release of GEO from the
243 films was measured using a UV-visible spectrophotometer at 278 nm (Zhang et al.,
244 2021).

245

246 2.4.11. Antioxidant properties

247 The DPPH and ABTS radical scavenging rate (%) of the films were determined using
248 a previous method with some modifications (Shen et al., 2021).

249 A 50 mg film was immersed in 10 mL of anhydrous ethanol and shaken for 4 h at 25°C.
250 Subsequently, 1 mL of the film extract solution was mixed with 3 mL of 0.1 mM DPPH
251 anhydrous ethanol solution and reacted in the dark for 30 min. Afterward, the
252 absorbance at 517 nm was measured.

253

254 Equal amounts of ABTS (7 mM) solution and K₂S₂O₈ solution (2.45 mM) were mixed
255 and placed in the dark for 12 h. The absorbance of the mixed solution was then adjusted
256 to be 0.70 ± 0.02 (at 734 nm) to prepare the ABTS working solution. Subsequently, 200
257 µL of film extract solution was mixed with 3 mL of ABTS working solution and reacted
258 in the dark for 30 min. Afterward, the absorbance at 734 nm was measured. The DPPH
259 radical scavenging activity (%) and ABTS radical scavenging activity (%) were
260 calculated as follows:

$$261 \quad \text{scavenging rate}(\%) = 1 - \frac{A_1 - A_2}{A_0} \times 100$$

262 where A₁ is the absorbance of the sample, A₀ is the absorbance measured under the
263 same conditions with anhydrous ethanol instead of the film extract solution, and A₂ is
264 the absorbance measured with anhydrous ethanol instead of DPPH or ABTS.

265

266 2.4.12. Antibacterial properties

267 The antibacterial activity of the films against *S. aureus* and *E. coli* was analyzed using

268 the disc diffusion method (Hasheminya et al., 2019). Pathogens were inoculated and
269 streaked on Mueller-Hinton agar medium, which was then incubated at 37°C for 12 h.
270 The bacterial cultures were subsequently transferred to 0.85% (w/v) NaCl solution to
271 adjust the turbidity of the bacterial suspension to 0.5 McFarland (1.5×10^8 CFU/mL).
272 The bacterial suspension was then evenly spread onto Mueller-Hinton agar plates using
273 a cotton swab. Sterile filter paper discs (6 mm) were immersed in the film extraction
274 solution and placed on the agar surface using forceps. The plates were then incubated
275 at 37°C for 24 h. After incubation, the antibacterial activity was assessed by measuring
276 the size of the zone of inhibition surrounding the discs.

277

278 *2.5. Statistical analysis*

279 SPSS statistical software version 22.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA) was applied to
280 analyze the Data, and the difference between the mean values was analyzed by Waller-
281 Duncan's multiple range test at the significance level of $p < 0.05$.

282

283 **3. Results and discussion**

284 *3.1 Characterization of GEO-NEs*

285 Oil-in-water (O/W) type GEO-NEs were prepared using the ultrasonic emulsification
286 method. As depicted in Fig. 2A, the average particle size of the GEO-NEs was
287 176.4 ± 1.2 nm, with a PDI of 0.276 ± 0.012 , indicating the homogeneous dispersion of
288 the GEO-NEs droplets. This observation was further confirmed by microscopy images
289 (Fig. 2B). GEO-NEs were formulated using Tween 80, a non-ionic surfactant, with
290 steric repulsion as the primary mechanism for stabilizing the nanoemulsion (Campolo
291 et al., 2020). Consequently, the zeta potential of the nanoemulsion is expected to
292 approximate zero, whereas nanoemulsions stabilized by electrostatic repulsion require
293 a zeta potential of at least ± 30 mV (Zhang et al., 2022). The zeta potential of GEO-NEs
294 was measured to be -12.37 ± 0.05 mV, indicating a negative surface charge, which may
295 be attributed to the dissociation of ionizable compounds present in GEO (Campolo et
296 al., 2020; Hasheminya & Dehghannya, 2021). Additionally, no phase separation was
297 observed for GEO-NEs after storage at 4°C and 25°C for 28 days (Fig. 2C), and there

298 were no significant changes in the average particle size and PDI (Fig. 2D), indicating
299 the excellent stability of GEO-NEs.

300

301 *3.2. Characterizations of composite films*

302 *3.2.1 Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) analysis*

303 The intermolecular interactions within the film matrix were analyzed using FTIR
304 spectroscopy. As illustrated in Fig. 3A, a broad and strong band was observed in the
305 range of 3500-3300 cm^{-1} , attributed to the stretching vibrations of hydroxyl groups (-
306 OH) present in PVA, xylan, and glycerol (Wang et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2024). A
307 gradual shift of the peak from 3290 cm^{-1} to 3280 cm^{-1} was noted in the wavenumber of
308 films containing GEO-NEs compared to the control group, implying the formation of
309 hydrogen bonds between GEO-NEs and the film matrix (Wu et al., 2023). Their
310 potential hydrogen-bonding interactions are depicted in Fig. 3C. The weak band around
311 2927 cm^{-1} was related to the stretching vibrations of C-H in the CH_2 and CH_3 groups.
312 Additionally, films containing GEO-NEs all exhibited a characteristic peak at 1740 cm^{-1}
313 ¹, with the peak amplitude progressively strengthening with increasing concentrations
314 of GEO-NEs. This peak was associated with the C=O stretching vibration of the
315 aldehyde or ester carbonyl groups of GEO. Similar findings were reported by Cai and
316 Wang (2021). The characteristic peaks at 1417 and 1034 cm^{-1} corresponded to the
317 stretching vibrations of -C-H and C-O-C in the pyranose ring of xylan, respectively,
318 and the β -pyranose configuration of xylan was confirmed by the characteristic peak at
319 846 cm^{-1} (Liu et al., 2019b; Shahrampour & Razavi, 2023). FTIR results indicated that
320 hydrogen bonding dominated the interaction between the GEOs-NEs and the
321 xylan/PVA base matrix, and GEOs-NEs did not change the chemical structure of the
322 films.

323

324 *3.2.2 X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis*

325 The crystal structure of the films was investigated using XRD. As depicted in Fig. 3B,
326 a prominent diffraction peak was observed at $2\theta = 19.3^\circ$ for all films. Importantly, the
327 incorporation of GEO-NEs did not result in any new diffraction peaks, suggesting that

328 GEO-NEs did not induce alterations in the crystal structure of the xylan/PVA base
329 matrix. This observation validates the compatibility between GEO-NEs and the film
330 matrix (Fan et al., 2023). However, the incorporation of GEO-NEs resulted in a
331 reduction in the crystallinity of the films. This effect was particularly noticeable at
332 GEO-NEs concentrations of 2% and 4%, where a weakening in the intensity of the film
333 diffraction peaks was observed. On the one hand, FTIR analysis confirmed the
334 formation of new hydrogen bonds among GEO-NEs and the film matrix, thereby
335 weakening the original ordered structure formed by xylan and PVA, consequently
336 reducing the crystallinity (Liu et al., 2019b). On the other hand, reduced crystallinity
337 implies increased mobility among xylan and PVA molecules, which may affect the
338 mechanical properties of the films, such as elongation at break (Tavassoli et al., 2021).

339

340 *3.2.3 SEM analysis*

341 The surface and cross-section SEM micrographs of films are presented in Fig. 4. The
342 control film appeared smooth and continuous without any pores, confirming the good
343 compatibility between xylan and PVA. However, as the concentration of GEO-NEs
344 increased, the film surfaces became rougher, and pores began to appear in the cross-
345 sections. This phenomenon was particularly noticeable at GEO-NEs concentrations of
346 6% and 8%. The presence of pores and roughness can be attributed to the high
347 concentration of GEO-NEs hindering the ability of the film matrix to capture more oil
348 droplets through hydrogen bonding. This leads to increased flocculation and
349 coalescence of oil droplets during the film formation process, causing them to migrate
350 towards the film surface and resulting in a non-homogeneous morphology. Additionally,
351 the evaporation of the oil droplets during this process contributes to the formation of
352 pores (Acevedo-Fani, Salvia-Trujillo, Rojas-Graü, & Martín-Belloso, 2015;
353 Hasheminya et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). Similar observations have been reported
354 in other studies where biopolymer-based films became rough and porous after mixing
355 with EO-NEs (Cai et al., 2021; Chu et al., 2020; Fan et al., 2024; Norcino et al., 2020).
356 These changes in microstructure may affect the barrier properties of the film, such as
357 water barrier performance (Hasheminya et al., 2021), as confirmed in section 3.2.7.

358

359 *3.2.4 Optical properties*

360 As shown in Table S1, with the increasing concentration of GEO-NEs, the L* and a*
361 values of the composite film decreased while b* increased, indicating that the film
362 became darker and more yellowish. Moreover, the opacity gradually increased, which
363 is attributed to light scattering caused by the surface roughness and internal porous
364 structures of the film (Lin et al., 2020). Transparency is particularly important for food
365 packaging materials, as foods retaining their original colors and appearances are more
366 likely to be accepted by consumers (Liu et al., 2022). From a visual perspective (Fig.
367 5A), the composite film containing 8% GEO-NEs still exhibited relatively high
368 transparency.

369 The UV transmittance of the films is illustrated in Fig. 5B. It can be observed that the
370 incorporation of GEO-NEs effectively shielded the spectra of UVC (275-200 nm),
371 UVB (320-275 nm), and UVA (400-320 nm), which significantly enhanced the UV
372 shielding performance of the films. The light scattering by the small lipid droplets of
373 the nanoemulsion and the absorption of UV and visible light by the phenolic
374 compounds in the GEO may be responsible for the enhanced UV shielding performance
375 of the films (Chen et al., 2016; Fu et al., 2023), which is positive for inhibiting the
376 oxidative deterioration of foodstuffs (Zhang et al., 2023c).

377

378 *3.2.5 Mechanical properties*

379 Mechanical properties are crucial attributes of films, ensuring their ability to withstand
380 external stresses during transportation, handling, and storage. Tensile strength (TS) and
381 elongation at break (EAB) represent the strength and flexibility of the films,
382 respectively (Erfanifar, Majdinasab, & Shaghaghian, 2023). As illustrated in Fig. 5C
383 and D, the xylan/PVA composite films exhibited the capability to withstand various
384 deformations, with their TS and EAB comparable to the mechanical properties of the
385 prevalent commercial packaging material, high-density polyethylene (HDPE) (TS,
386 approximately 22-23 MPa; EAB, approximately 150%) (Lee, Garcia, Shin, & Kim,
387 2019). As the concentration of GEO-NEs increased, the TS gradually decreased from

388 27.38±3.25 MPa in the control film to 20.27±2.55 MPa in the 8% GEO-NEs film.
389 Conversely, the EAB of the films significantly increased ($p<0.05$) and reached its
390 maximum at a moderate concentration (GEO-NEs 4%), measuring 258.4±38.6%. Due
391 to the weakened hydrogen bonding between xylan and PVA caused by GEO-NEs, the
392 cohesive forces of the film matrix were reduced, resulting in a lower TS (Almasi, Azizi,
393 & Amjadi, 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). At the same time, the chain entanglement of xylan
394 and PVA was weakened, leading to an increase in molecular mobility and consequently
395 enhancing the EAB (Chen et al., 2016). These results were also verified in the XRD
396 analysis. It is worth noting that the continued addition of GEO-NEs resulted in a
397 reduction in EAB. This may be attributed to the uneven dispersion of high
398 concentrations of GEO-NEs within the film matrix, leading to flocculation and the
399 formation of localized hardened regions during the film formation process. Ultimately,
400 this phenomenon affected the overall flexibility of the thin film.

401

402 *3.2.6 Thermostability*

403 The thermostability of the films was investigated using thermogravimetric analysis
404 (TGA) and the first derivative of TGA curves (DTG). As shown in Fig. 5E, the films
405 exhibited multiple stages of weight loss within the temperature range of 40-600°C. The
406 initial stage of weight loss (40-120°C) was attributed to the loss of moisture from the
407 film matrix. Subsequently, a second stage of weight loss occurred in the temperature
408 range of 150-250°C, attributed to the degradation of glycerol and PVA chains (Chen,
409 Ren, & Meng, 2015). A third stage of weight loss was observed between 250-330°C,
410 involving further degradation of PVA chains and degradation of xylan chains (Liu et al.,
411 2019b; Wang et al., 2014). In the final stage, from 350-600°C, polymer matrix
412 carbonization occurred, leading to a stabilization of film mass loss (Zhang et al., 2023b).
413 In Fig. 5F, it was observed that the maximum thermal degradation rate of the film was
414 achieved at around 320°C. The maximum thermal degradation temperature (T_{max})
415 reflects the thermostability of the film, with a higher T_{max} indicating better thermal
416 stability (Qin et al., 2022). Compared to the control group with a T_{max} of 322.9°C, the
417 T_{max} for films containing 2%, 4%, 6%, and 8% of GEO-NEs were 326.6°C, 322.3°C,

418 325.4°C, and 325.9°C, respectively, showing a slight improvement in thermostability.
419 In summary, the inclusion of GEO-NEs exerted negligible influence on the
420 thermostability of the xylan/PVA films.

421

422 3.2.7 WCA, WS and WVP analysis

423 Film surface hydrophobicity was assessed by WCA, with $\theta > 65^\circ$ generally indicating
424 a hydrophobic surface (Zhang et al., 2023c). As shown in Fig. 6A, all films exhibited
425 hydrophilic surfaces, which can be attributed to the inherent hydrophilic properties of
426 xylan and PVA in the film-forming matrix. The control film had the highest WCA of
427 $50.1 \pm 3.9^\circ$. However, with the increasing concentration of GEO-NEs, there was a
428 significant decrease in the WCA of films ($P < 0.05$). This decrease can be associated
429 with the strong surface hydrophilicity of GEO-NEs droplets, as Tween80 and GEO can
430 form emulsion droplets with hydrophilic tails pointing to the aqueous solution (Liu et
431 al., 2022). WCA was also influenced by the surface roughness and porosity of the film
432 (Liu et al., 2019a; Qin et al., 2022). Higher surface roughness and internal porous
433 structures increased the surface area of the film in contact with water molecules, leading
434 to increased hydrophilicity or even water solubility of the film (Fig. 6B).

435 The efficiency of moisture penetration through the film was assessed by determining
436 the WVP. A higher WVP indicates insufficient water barrier properties of the film,
437 which would create favorable conditions for microbial growth and lead to food spoilage.
438 As illustrated in Fig. 6C, there was a significant decrease followed by a remarkably
439 increased trend in WVP with increasing concentration of GEO-NEs ($P < 0.05$).
440 Compared to the WVP of the control film, which was $10.45 \pm 0.72 \times 10^{-13} \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{Pa}^{-1}$,
441 the film containing 2% GEO-NEs exhibited the lowest WVP of $7.45 \pm 0.71 \times 10^{-13}$
442 $\text{g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{Pa}^{-1}$. The decrease in WVP is associated with an increase in the tortuosity of
443 the path of water molecules through the film. On the one hand, GEO-NEs droplets at
444 low concentrations were able to disperse uniformly in the film matrix, thereby
445 increasing the length of the path for water molecules through the film (Hasheminya et
446 al., 2021). On the other hand, XRD results indicated that GEO-NEs caused
447 discontinuities in the film matrix, which could potentially further increase the tortuosity

448 path. However, films containing high concentrations of GEO-NEs (6% and 8%)
449 exhibited a large number of pores within their structure, which provided additional
450 space and channels for water molecules to traverse through the film, thus causing an
451 increase in WVP (Mirsharifi et al., 2023; Rui et al., 2024). Despite the significant
452 improvement in water barrier performance observed in composite films containing 2%
453 GEO-NEs, their WVP remains higher than that of commercial low-density
454 polyethylene (LDPE) films, which typically exhibit a WVP of approximately 7.00×10^{-14}
455 $\text{g} \cdot \text{m}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{Pa}^{-1}$ (Silva et al., 2024). Therefore, further research is required to improve
456 the water barrier performance, it is also the direction of future efforts for bio-based
457 packaging materials.

458

459 *3.2.8 Release of GEO in different food simulants*

460 The release curves of GEO in two different food simulants are shown in Fig. 7. Initially,
461 GEO exhibited a rapid release, which gradually decelerated until reaching a constant
462 level. As described by Dong et al. (2024), water molecules initially diffused from the
463 simulated solution into the film matrix, resulting in swelling and dissolution of the film,
464 which led to the detachment of GEO from the film matrix and its subsequent release
465 into the simulated solution until achieving thermodynamic equilibrium. Due to the
466 higher hydrophilicity of the xylan/PVA composite film, its swelling phenomenon was
467 more obvious in a 10% ethanol solution with lower polarity, which led to a faster release
468 of GEO and reached equilibrium in a shorter time. Fig. 7 also demonstrates that the
469 release rate of GEO in both simulated systems decreased with increasing concentration
470 of GEO-NEs. This trend can be explained by the reduction in the mass transfer
471 concentration gradient, as the increasing accumulation of GEO in the simulant reduced
472 the concentration gradient between the film matrix and the simulant, making the release
473 of GEO to the simulant slower (Xu et al., 2019).

474

475 *3.2.9 Antioxidant and antimicrobial activities*

476 As shown in Fig. 8A, xylan/PVA films without GEO-NEs also exhibited certain
477 antioxidant activity, with DPPH and ABTS radical scavenging rates of $5.53 \pm 1.20\%$ and

478 11.06±1.22%, respectively, which was related to the fact that xylan (derived from corn
479 cobs) as a reducing polysaccharide branched by arabinose and glucuronic acid (Bao et
480 al., 2018). With the increase in GEO-NEs concentration, the antioxidant activity of the
481 composite films significantly increased ($P < 0.05$). Films containing 8% GEO-NEs
482 showed a 45.90% and 59.87% increase in DPPH and ABTS radical scavenging rates,
483 respectively, compared to the control films. A study by Badrunanto et al. (2024),
484 indicated that terpene compounds such as β -myrcene, D-limonene, α -sabinene, geranyl
485 acetate, α -curcumene, α -zingiberene, α -farnesene, β -bisabolene, and β -
486 sesquiphellandrene were closely associated with the antioxidant activity of GEO.

487 The antimicrobial activity of the films was assessed using the disc diffusion method, as
488 depicted in Fig. 8B. It was noted that inhibition zones against both Gram-positive
489 bacteria (*S. aureus*) and Gram-negative bacteria (*E. coli*) were observed when the
490 concentration of GEO-NEs in the film reached 6%. Similar findings were reported by
491 Zhang et al. (2021) and Mutlu (2023), suggesting that the films exhibited antimicrobial
492 activity only upon the addition of high concentrations of EO-NEs. Generally, Gram-
493 negative bacteria tend to exhibit greater tolerance to EOs when compared to Gram-
494 positive bacteria. Apart from the peptidoglycan layer, the outer membrane of Gram-
495 negative bacteria contains lipopolysaccharides, rendering the diffusion of hydrophobic
496 EOs into the cells more challenging (Zhang et al., 2023a). However, in this study, it was
497 observed that composite films strongly inhibited *E. coli* compared to *S. aureus*. This
498 could be attributed to the accumulation of certain specific hydrophobic compounds
499 from the essential oils on the outer membrane of *E. coli*, disrupting its permeability and
500 inhibiting bacterial growth (Ran et al., 2023). Additionally, studies have also reported
501 controversies regarding the effectiveness of black pepper essential oil (Acharya et al.,
502 2024; Amalraj, Haponiuk, Thomas, & Gopi, 2020; Saranti et al., 2021), oregano
503 essential oil (Hosseini, Rezaei, Zandi, & Farahmandghavi, 2015; Lee et al., 2019), and
504 cinnamon essential oil (Ran et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023) in various film matrixes
505 against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. In conclusion, numerous
506 factors, including the type of film matrix, the type and concentration of EOs, as well as
507 the initial number of bacteria and growth conditions, collectively influenced the

508 antibacterial activity of the films (Hasheminya et al., 2021).

509

510 **4. Conclusion**

511 In this study, active films with UV resistance, antioxidant, and antimicrobial properties
512 were prepared using xylan and PVA as the film-forming matrix and blended with GEO-
513 NEs. The results indicated good compatibility among xylan, PVA, and GEO-NEs. The
514 incorporation of GEO-NEs improved the UV shielding properties, with films
515 containing 8% GEO-NEs maintaining high transparency. Despite a decrease in tensile
516 strength and an increase in elongation at break, the mechanical properties of all films
517 met the standards of commercial packaging material HDPE. Furthermore, the
518 antioxidant activities of xylan/PVA films were significantly enhanced upon the addition
519 of GEO-NEs, exhibiting inhibitory activities against both *S. aureus* and *E. coli* at a 6%
520 concentration. Therefore, xylan/PVA films containing GEO-NEs demonstrate potential
521 applications as active packaging materials. However, further research is needed to
522 improve their hydrophobicity and water barrier properties.

523

524 **Declaration of competing interest**

525 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

526

527 **Acknowledgements**

528 This research was supported by the *Key R&D Project* of Shandong Province
529 (2023TZXD070).

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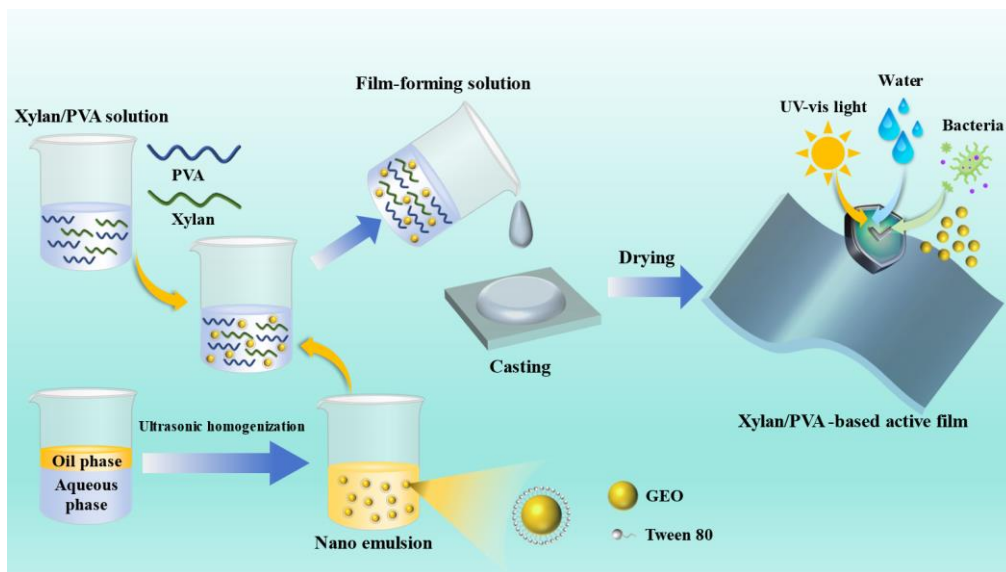


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the preparation of xylan/PVA-based active films.

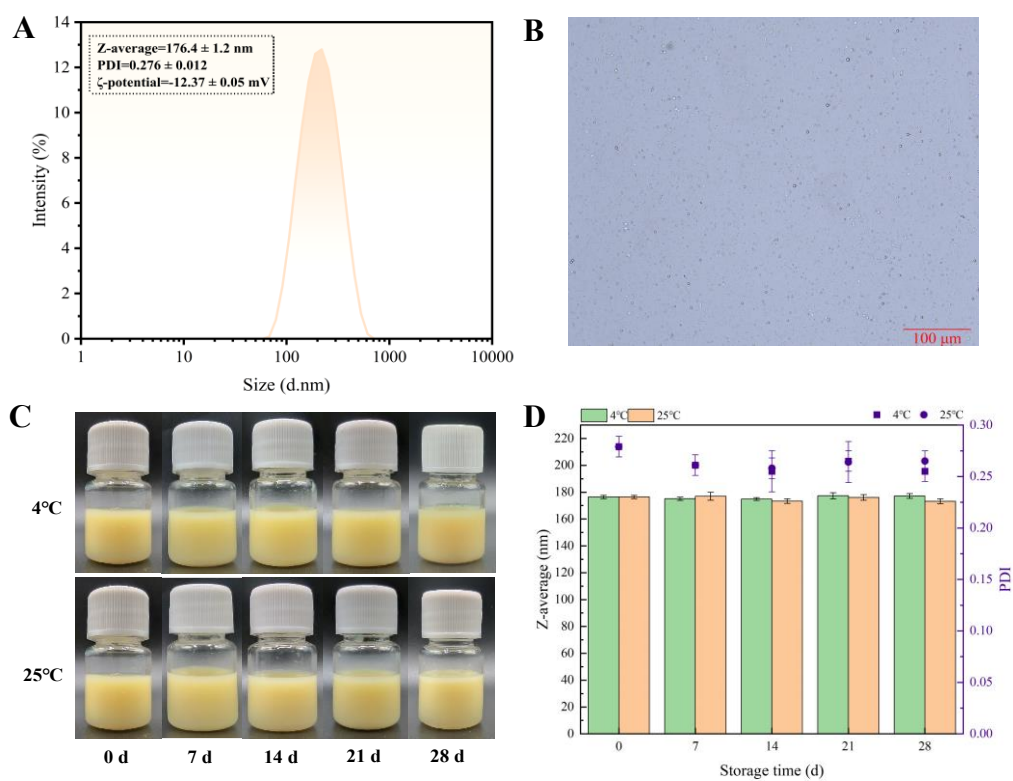


Fig. 2. Particle size distribution, zeta-potential and PDI of GEO-NEs (A), microscopy images of GEO-NEs (B), and changes in appearance, average particle size, and PDI of GEO-NEs during 0~28 d.

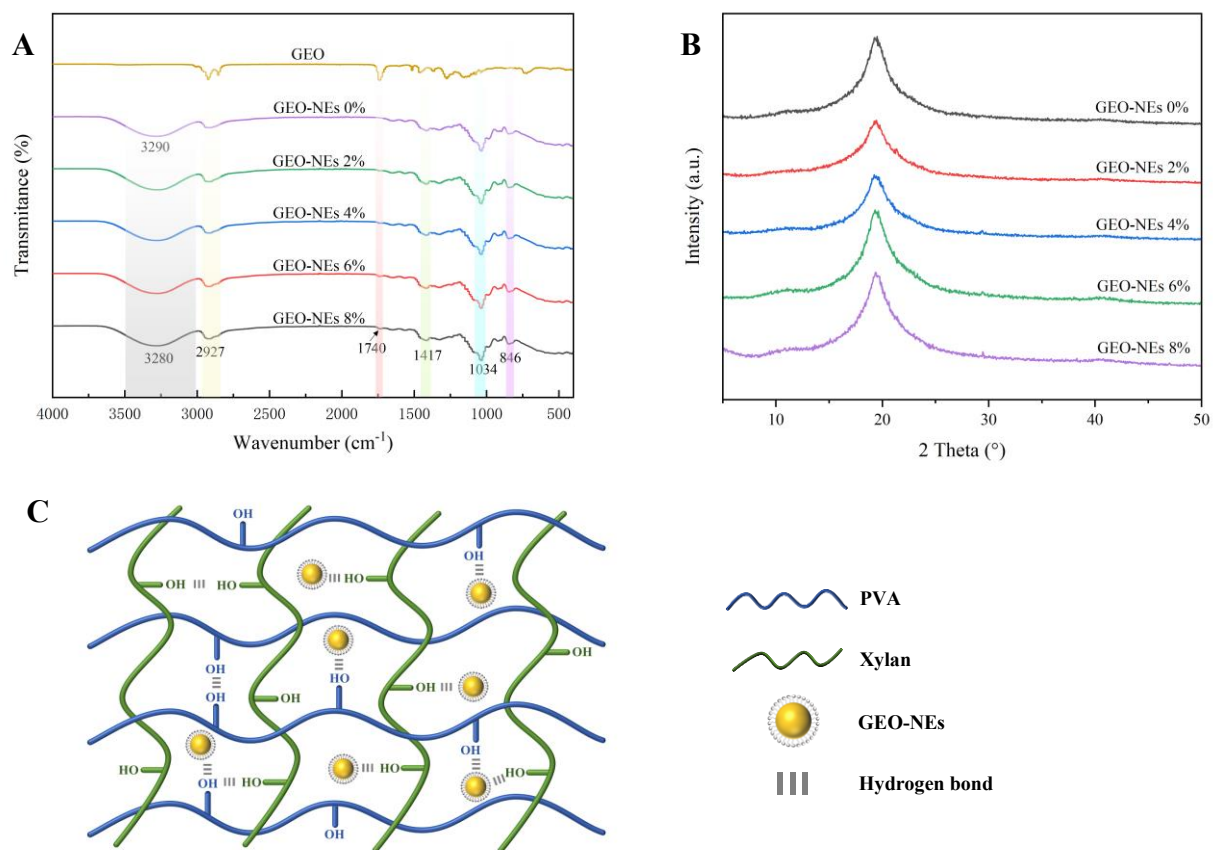


Fig. 3. FT-IR spectra (A), X-ray diffraction spectra (B) of xylan/PVA films containing different concentrations of GEO-NEs and schematic illustration of hydrogen bonding interactions in the film matrix (C).

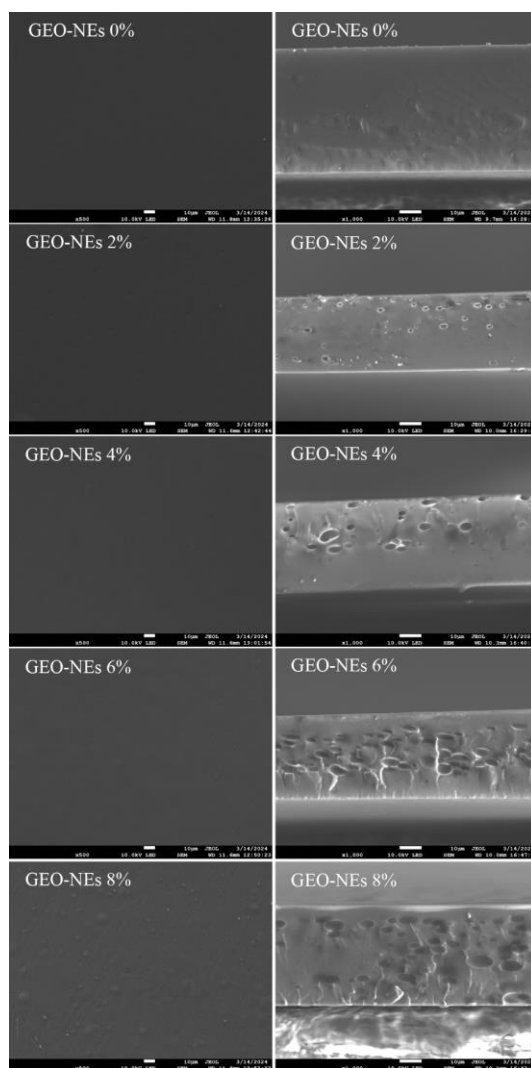


Fig. 4. SEM micrographs of the surfaces (left column) and the cross-sections (right column) of xylan/PVA films containing different concentrations of GEO-NEs.

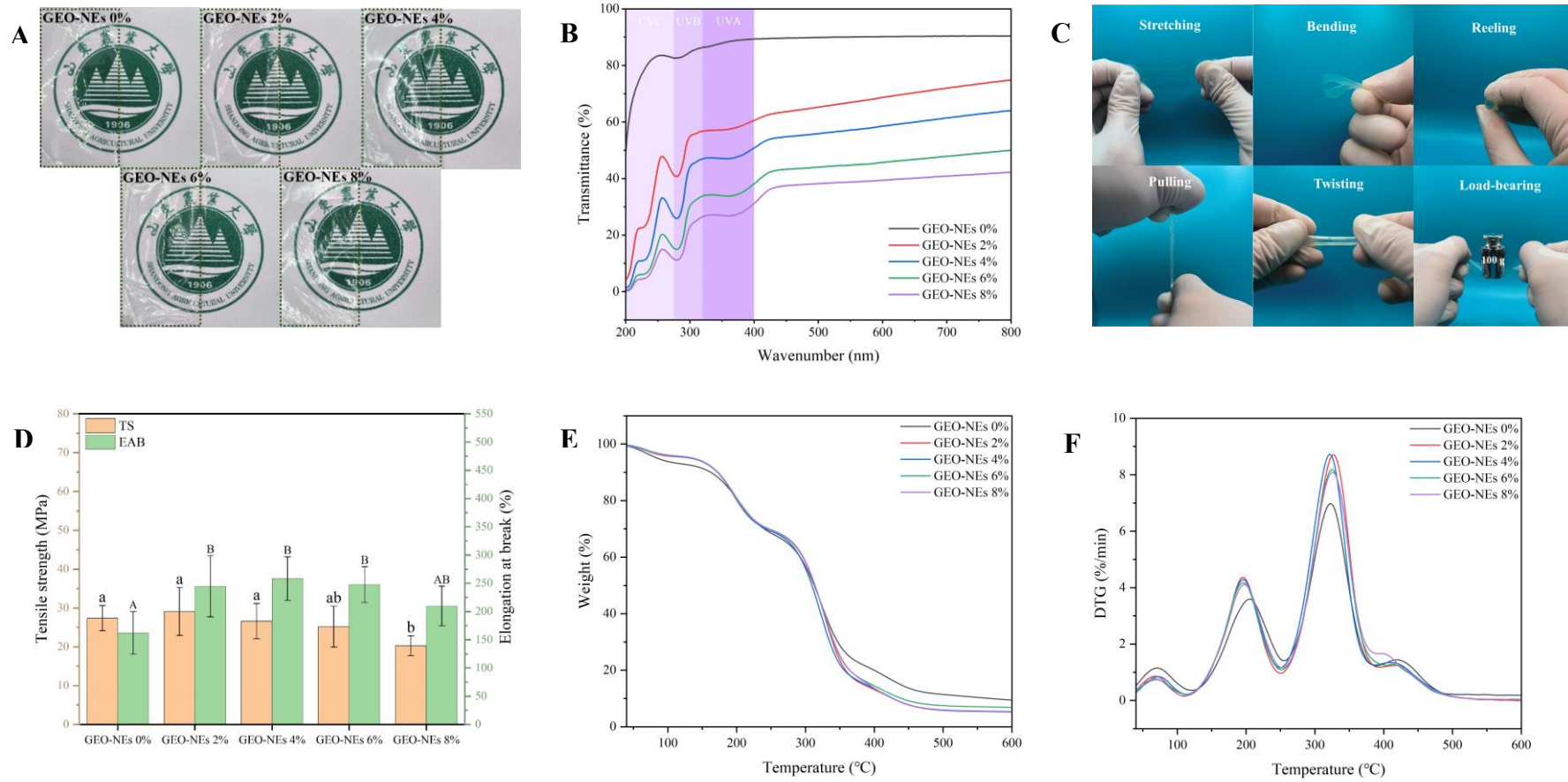


Fig. 5. Digital photographs (A), UV transmittance (B), various deformations (C), tensile strength and elongation at break (D), TGA (A) and DTG (B) thermograms of xylan/PVA films containing different concentrations of GEO-NE.

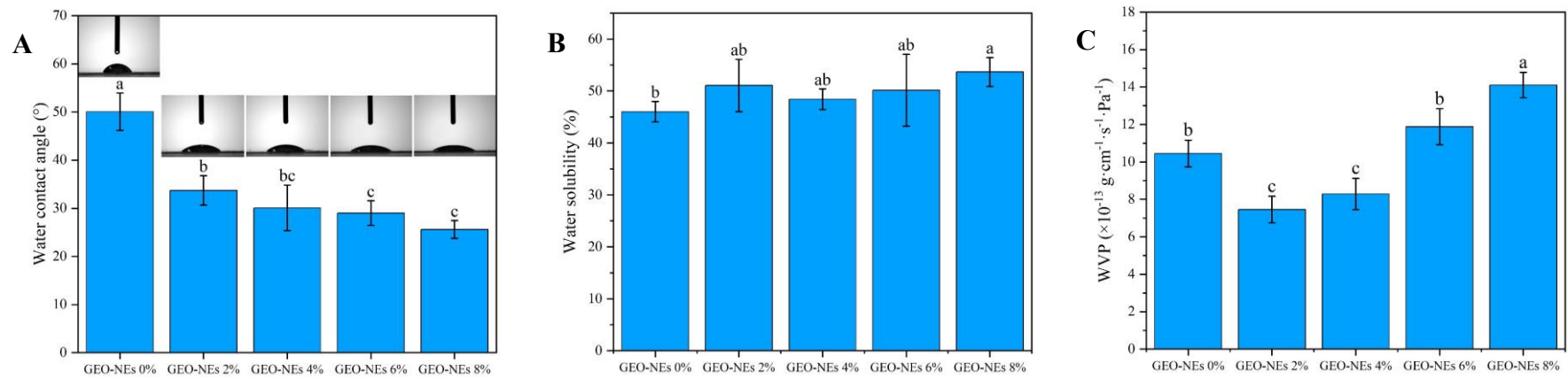


Fig. 6. WCA (A), WS (B) and WVP (C) of xylan/PVA films containing different concentrations of GEO-NEs.

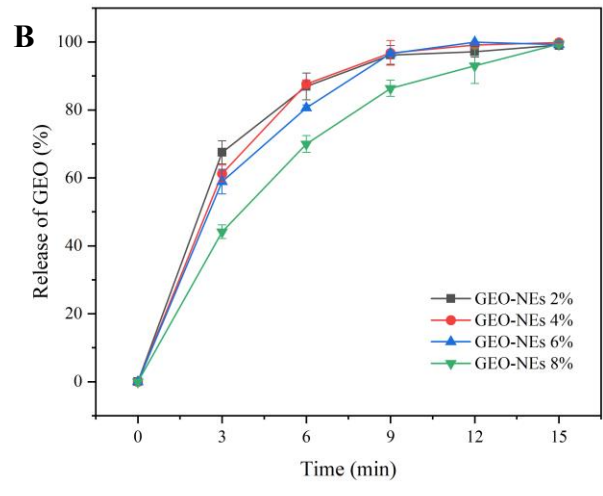
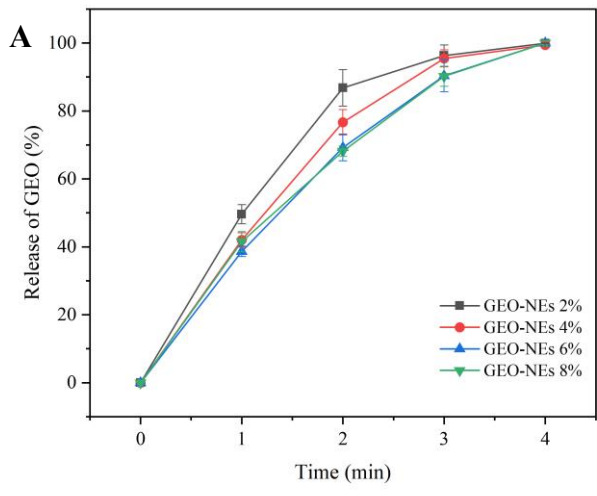


Fig. 7. Release of GEO from films in 10 % ethanol (A) and 90 % ethanol (B).

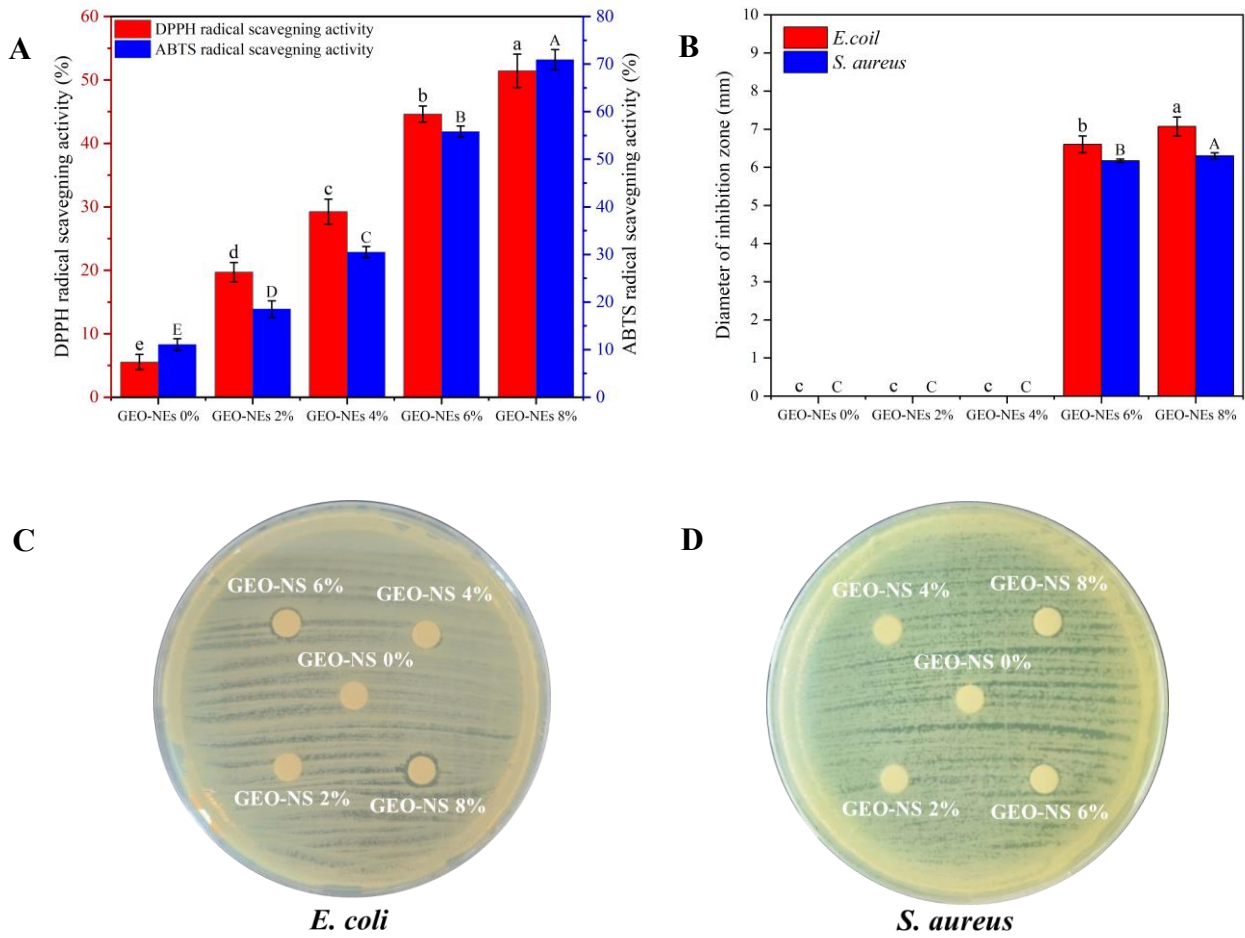


Fig. 8. Antioxidant activity (A), inhibition zones (B) and antibacterial pictures (C, D) of xylan/PVA films containing different concentrations of GEO-NEs.

Supplementary material

Table S1 The color parameters and opacity of films.

	L*	a*	b*	ΔE	Opacity
GEO-NEs 0%	92.72±0.03 ^a	1.08±0.03 ^a	0.76±0.08 ^c	0.15±0.06 ^e	0.84±0.07 ^c
GEO-NEs 2%	92.17±0.11 ^b	0.89±0.06 ^b	1.65±0.18 ^d	1.16±0.19 ^d	3.05±0.14 ^b
GEO-NEs 4%	92.01±0.29 ^b	0.83±0.05 ^{bc}	2.00±0.05 ^c	1.55±0.19 ^c	3.89±0.11 ^{ab}
GEO-NEs 6%	91.94±0.10 ^b	0.78±0.08 ^c	2.38±0.16 ^b	1.93±0.17 ^b	5.07±0.64 ^a
GEO-NEs 8%	91.53±0.25 ^c	0.65±0.05 ^d	2.95±0.31 ^a	2.63±0.39 ^a	5.47±1.45 ^a

Note: Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$).