

# Sustainable Active Packaging from On-Demand Degradable PLA/PBAT and Zn-Doped TiO<sub>2</sub> Composites

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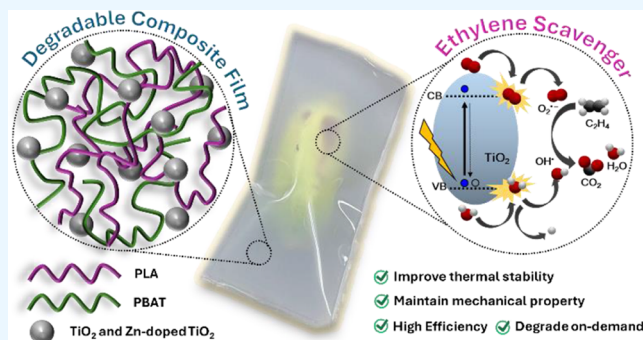


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**ABSTRACT:** Shelf life extendable packaging and ethylene scavenger technologies for climacteric fruits and vegetables have garnered much attention in recent years. These products effectively enable food quality to be maintained, ensure food safety, and prolong food storage life, which are key to helping reduce food waste. Current technologies – both in terms of academic research and broader commercial application – imply the use of chemicals that are of low activity, of high toxicity, or difficult to handle. Therefore, in this work, we prepared Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalysts, containing 0.1 and 2.0 mol % of Zn dopant (Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>), through a simple sol–gel method, which were then applied to be used as ethylene scavenger fillers in the preparation of on-demand degradable active packaging. TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were also prepared under identical conditions for comparison. The active composite film containing Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> was shown to be a better active packaging than the one containing TiO<sub>2</sub> and was able to extend the shelf life of bananas for up to 8 days. In addition, the incorporation of Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles did not significantly compromise either the mechanical properties of the polymer composite film or change its degradation behavior; it slightly improved the thermal stability. Moreover, the active composite film could be degraded on demand by immersing it into a 3 M KOH solution – leading to almost complete polymer film degradation after 4 h at room temperature. The developed active packaging model is a very promising candidate and could serve for future optimization as sustainable active food packaging.



## INTRODUCTION

There is enough food in the world to feed the global population, yet more than 600 million people are undernourished. Food waste is estimated by the Swedish Institute for Food and Biotechnology to be 1.3 billion tons per year – double of what is needed to feed the 600 million undernourished people.<sup>1</sup> The problem is therefore 2-fold. First, food production is carbon-intensive – it contributes up to 37% of global greenhouse gases.<sup>2</sup> Second, food production is unbalanced, leading to the situation described above whereby a surplus of food still leaves a significant proportion of humankind hungry.

To alleviate both of these problems, it would be beneficial to prolong the shelf life of fresh foods. In 2019, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) reported that 14% of food produced for consumption worldwide was deteriorated and lost before even reaching the market.<sup>1</sup> Addressing this problem would enable production to be optimized, instead of being caught in a cycle of overproduction and waste, and thereby reduce the carbon intensity of the global food production system. Equally, a longer shelf life could enable food to be transported more viably to where it is needed.

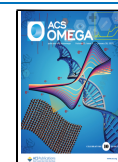
A major factor in the type of food deterioration described above is ethylene. Ethylene, a gaseous phytohormone, controls the ripening process, maturation, and corruption of postharvest climacteric fruits and vegetables such as bananas, mangoes, apples, and tomatoes, etc. Even very low concentrations of ethylene (0.1–1 ppm) have been shown to ripen the fruits. Controlling ethylene concentration not only allows the extension of the shelf life but also maintains high quality and ensures the safety of postharvest climacteric produce.<sup>3–5</sup> There have been many strategies reported to control and scavenge the ethylene gas produced from climacteric fresh produce (Figure 1). For example, high surface area and porous materials such as zeolites,<sup>6–8</sup> metal–organic frameworks (MOFs),<sup>9–11</sup> and activated carbon<sup>12,13</sup> have been studied as ethylene adsorbents. The use of these physical ethylene adsorbents allows minimization and concentration control of

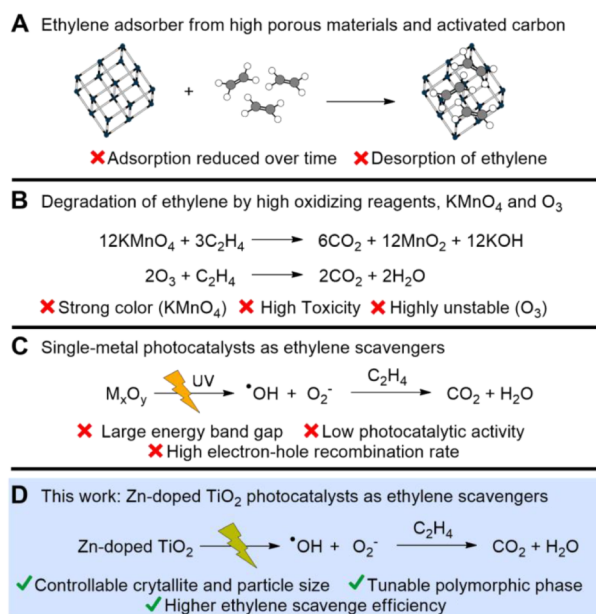
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**Figure 1.** (A) Cartoon shows ethylene adsorption by high porous materials, (B) oxidation of ethylene by strong oxidizing agents,  $\text{KMnO}_4$  and  $\text{O}_3$ , (C) degradation of ethylene by photocatalyst  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and (D) decomposition of ethylene by metal-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  photocatalyst.

ethylene gas in storage containers, leading to the extension of the shelf life of postharvest perishable fruits and vegetables. However, the adsorption ability of these ethylene adsorbents significantly decreases over time as they become saturated. Moreover, the adsorbed ethylene can also be released via a desorption mechanism since these materials only adsorb ethylene rather than decompose it.<sup>11,14</sup> Utilizing an ethylene gas decomposer is another approach that has garnered much attention. Among these,  $\text{KMnO}_4$  is the most widely utilized ethylene scavenger due to its high oxidizing ability.<sup>15–17</sup>  $\text{KMnO}_4$  is generally impregnated onto microporous mineral particles and packaged in small sachets to prevent direct food contact. The main limitations of  $\text{KMnO}_4$  are its high toxicity and deep purple color, which make it difficult and unsuitable to apply for food applications.<sup>15,18</sup> Ozone ( $\text{O}_3$ ) has also been reported to scavenge ethylene by reducing the activities of cell wall enzymes.<sup>19</sup> In addition,  $\text{O}_3$  is considered a safe food additive according to the Food and Drug Administration (FDA). However, it is rather difficult to handle and highly unstable, leading to the formation of oxygen molecules and loss of ability to oxidize ethylene.<sup>4,20</sup>

Another strategy that has received much attention is to degrade ethylene under light by utilizing photocatalysts. This strategy has proven to show high efficiency and low energy consumption and is environmentally friendly. The most employed photocatalyst is  $\text{TiO}_2$  due to its low toxicity, earth abundance, and inexpensive cost.<sup>21–24</sup> Upon photo irradiation, electrons ( $e^-$ ) on the  $\text{TiO}_2$  surface are activated and further produce highly reactive hydroxyl radicals and superoxide ions by reacting with hydroxide ions and water, respectively. These strong oxidizing species can then convert ethylene into carbon dioxide and water.<sup>25</sup> However, due to the large energy bandgap of  $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $\sim 3.0$ – $3.2$  eV),  $\text{TiO}_2$  sometimes shows unacceptably low photocatalytic activity. Additionally, a high-energy light source, especially in the UV region ( $< 380$  nm wavelength), is required to activate  $\text{TiO}_2$ .<sup>22,26</sup> The requirement for UV

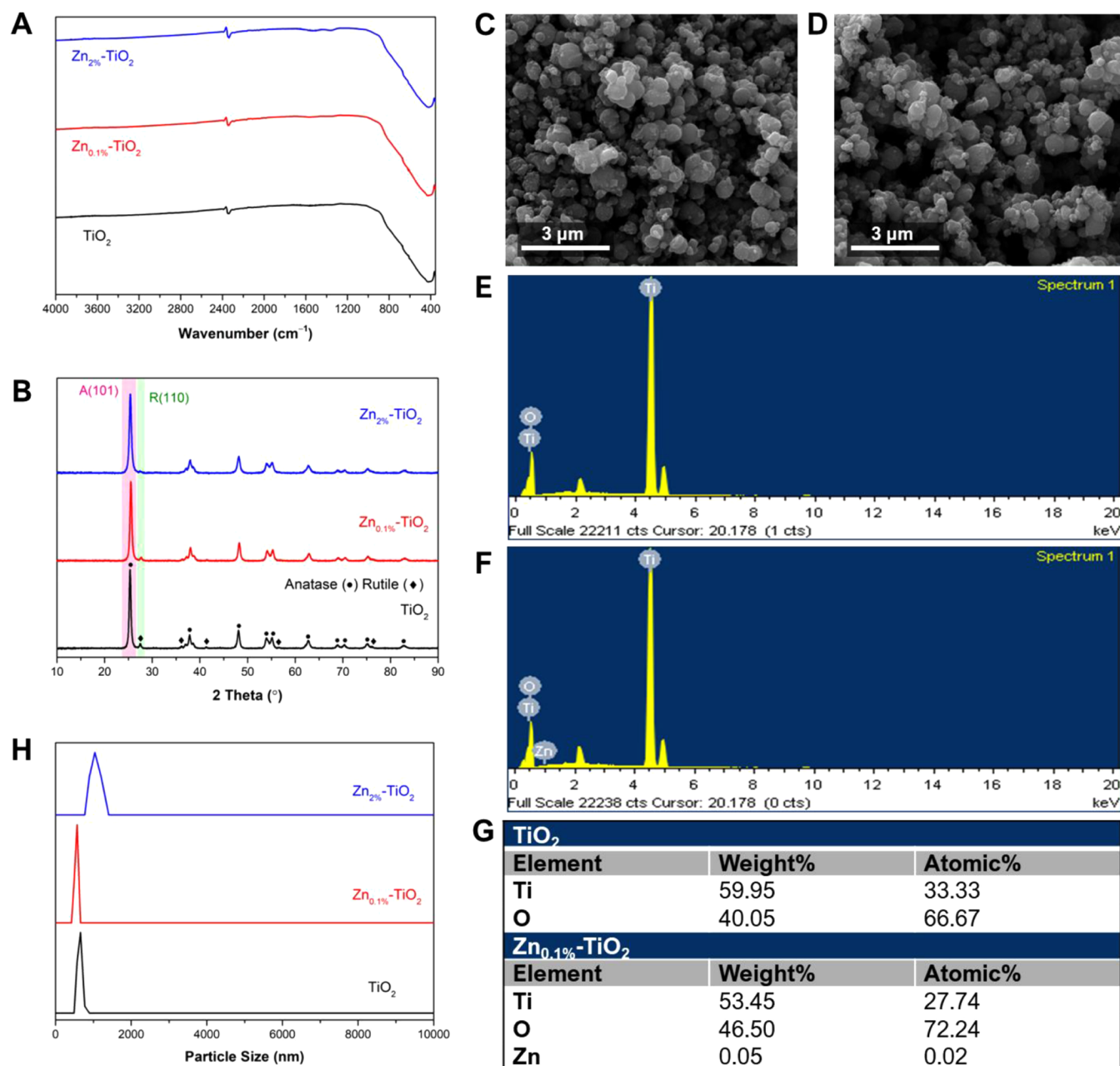
activation of  $\text{TiO}_2$  makes it impractical to use with food applications as certain food nutrients can be degraded upon exposure to UV light, which would further diminish the food quality.<sup>27</sup> There are several strategies reported to improve the photocatalytic activity of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , including controlling crystal structures and morphologies,<sup>28–30</sup> introducing defect,<sup>31–33</sup> and doping with metal and nonmetal elements.<sup>34–36</sup> Modification of  $\text{TiO}_2$  by doping it with metal and nonmetal dopants is found to be one of the highly effective methods to enhance its photocatalytic activity. Particularly, several reports demonstrated that doping  $\text{TiO}_2$  with a Zn dopant reduces the energy bandgap, minimizes the rate of electron–hole recombination, and tunes the crystal structure of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , thus resulting in enhanced photocatalytic performance.<sup>36–39</sup>

As can be seen from the summary above, the current state-of-the-art is not sufficiently advanced – in terms of both academic research and broader commercial application. In response, we envisioned that Zn-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  is a promising candidate to use as ethylene scavenger fillers in active packaging. To the best of our knowledge, there has been no report on using these particles as ethylene scavenger fillers in active packaging. Herein, we prepared Zn-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles with 0.1 and 2.0 mol % of Zn dopant.  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles were also synthesized under the same conditions as a control. The prepared  $\text{TiO}_2$  and Zn-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  were then incorporated into the PLA/PBAT blend films to make composite films by the solvent casting method, which were then studied as active packaging for bananas. The efficiencies of active packaging were evaluated by measuring the green color intensity, analyzing the percentage of browning area of the banana skin upon storage, as well as examining the banana mass loss and firmness. Combination effects between smaller particle and crystallite sizes and a higher anatase polymorph of Zn-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  were found to enhance the effectiveness of the model active packaging. The effects of metal oxide particles on thermal stability, mechanical property, as well as the degradation behavior of the composite films were also determined.

## METHODS

**Synthesis of  $\text{TiO}_2$  Particles.**  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles were synthesized via a sol–gel method. First,  $\text{Ti}(\text{O}^n\text{Bu})_4$  (10.6 g, 31.14 mmol) was filled in a 100 mL round-bottom flask equipped with a magnetic stir bead. Absolute ethanol (30 mL) was then added to the round-bottom flask, and the reaction solution was vigorously stirred at room temperature. A solution of deionized water (2.24 g, 0.12 mol) in EtOH (10 mL) was added dropwise into the stirred solution of  $\text{Ti}(\text{O}^n\text{Bu})_4$  during which white precipitation was formed. The reaction mixture was then stirred at room temperature for 3 h. The white precipitation was then isolated using a centrifuge (UGAIYA, TG16-WS), washed with absolute ethanol ( $2 \times 15$  mL), and dried in a hot air oven at  $50$  °C for 20–24 h. The white precipitation was then calcined at  $500$  °C for 2 h using a heating rate of  $10$  °C/min to give a pale gray solid as a product.

**Synthesis of Zn-Doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  Particles ( $\text{Zn}_{0.1\%}\text{-TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Zn}_{2\%}\text{-TiO}_2$ ).** All Zn-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles ( $\text{Zn}_{0.1\%}\text{-TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Zn}_{2\%}\text{-TiO}_2$ ) were synthesized by utilizing a similar preparation method to  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles. Each Zn-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  particle possesses a general formulation of  $\text{Zn}_x\text{-TiO}_2$  where  $x$  represents mol % of  $\text{Zn}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  used in the preparation of Zn-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  compared to  $\text{Ti}(\text{O}^n\text{Bu})_4$ .



**Figure 2.** Characterizations of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>. (A) Stacked FTIR spectra, (B) stacked powder XRD diffractograms, (C) SEM photograph of TiO<sub>2</sub>, (D) SEM photograph of Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>, (E) SEM-EDS spectrum of TiO<sub>2</sub>, (F) SEM-EDS spectrum of Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>, (G) chemical composition analysis results from SEM-EDS of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>, and (H) stacked DLS spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles.

First, Ti(O<sup>n</sup>Bu)<sub>4</sub> (10.6 g, 31.14 mmol) was filled in a 100 mL round-bottom flask equipped with a magnetic stir bead. Absolute ethanol (30 mL) was then added to the round-bottom flask, and the reaction solution was vigorously stirred at room temperature. A solution of deionized water (2.24 g, 0.12 mol) in EtOH (10 mL), containing different amounts of Zn(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O depending on the type of Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>, was then added dropwise to the reaction mixture, during which white precipitation was formed. Zn(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (6.84 mg, 0.03 mmol) and Zn(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (0.14 g, 0.62 mmol) were used for the preparation of Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The reaction mixture was allowed to be vigorously stirred at room temperature for 3 h. The white precipitation was then isolated using a centrifuge (UGAIYA,

TG16-WS), washed with absolute ethanol (2 × 15 mL), and dried in a hot air oven at 40 °C for 120–144 h. The white precipitation was then calcined at 500 °C for 2 h using a heating rate of 10 °C/min to give light gray solids as products.

**Preparation of Polymer and Polymer Composite Films.** All of the polymer films (P1–P4) were prepared by a solvent casting process. In the case of the pristine polymer film (P1), PLA (5.40 g, 90 wt %) and PBAT (0.60 g, 10 wt %) were dissolved in DCM (113 mL) and allowed to stir at room temperature for 2 h or until all the polymer was fully dissolved. The polymer solution was then transferred to a PTFE-coated aluminum mold (19.5 × 19.5 cm). The mold was covered with aluminum foil and left at room temperature for 18–20 h to allow the solvent to evaporate. The polymer film was then

taken out of the mold and dried in a hot air oven at 40 °C for 120–144 h prior to further characterizations. For polymer composite films (P2–P4), the preparation method was similar to that of the pristine polymer film except in the first step. After the polymers were fully dissolved, the prepared TiO<sub>2</sub> or Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> (1.20 g, 2 wt %) was added to the stirred polymer solution before the solution mixture was transferred to a PTFE-coated aluminum mold.

**Application of the Prepared Polymer Composite Film as an Active Packaging Study.** The prepared polymer (P1) and polymer composite (P2–P4) films were used to make small pouches to package fresh bananas. First, the prepared polymer and polymer composite films were cut into a square shape with dimensions of 17 × 17 cm. The polymer film was then half-folded to make a rectangle-shaped pouch in which the edges of the pouch were sealed together using heat. Five fresh bananas of similar size and ripeness level were selected, cleaned with DI water, and dried. The fresh bananas were then packaged in the prepared pouches, while an unpackaged banana was used as a control sample. The packaged bananas and the control banana sample were left under light exposure at room temperature. Each banana sample was then monitored and photographed every 2 days for 10 days to monitor the change in skin color. The change in skin color was then analyzed in terms of green color intensity and browning area using the ImageJ program.

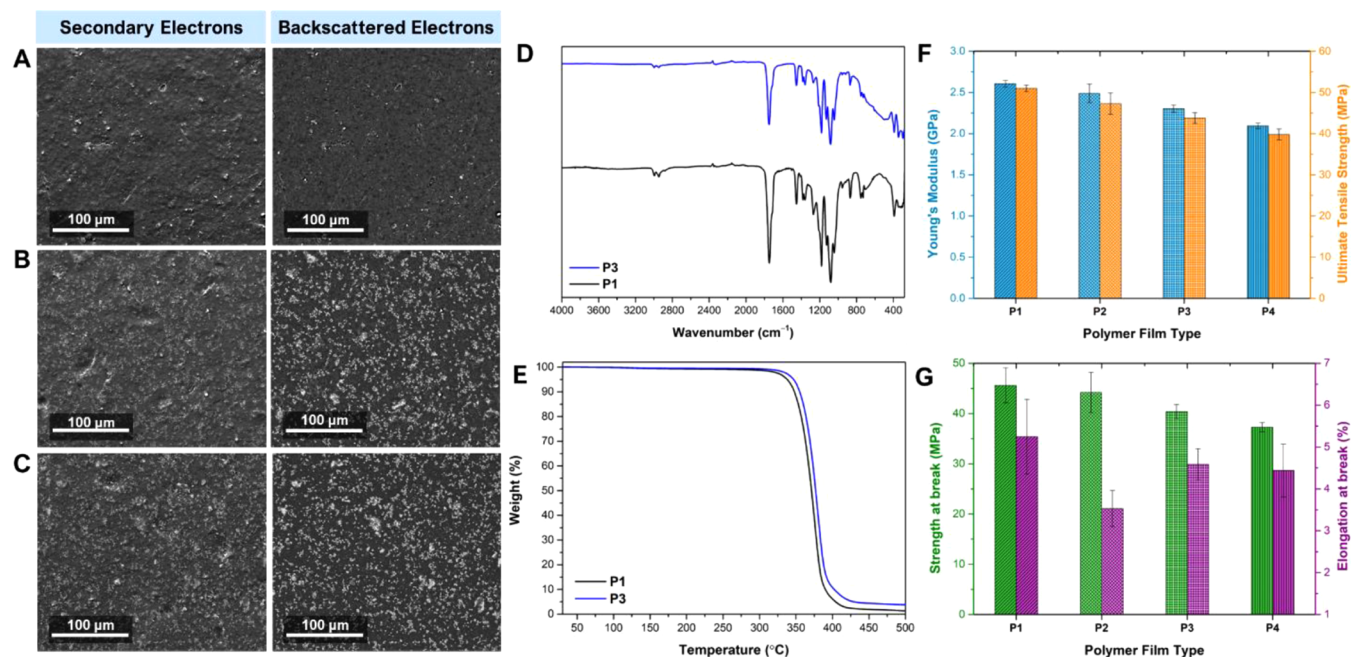
Shelf life extension experiments were also repeated to ensure the reliability of the study. In these repeated analyses, 15 fresh bananas with similar sizes and ripeness levels were used. These bananas were divided into five groups of three bananas each. One group of three bananas was used as a control group, and then, the four other groups of three bananas were packaged into different pouches (18 × 24 cm). For each group of three bananas, two of them were photographed every 2 days for 10 days to observe the change of skin color, which was later analyzed by the ImageJ program in terms of green color intensity reduction and percentage of browning area. The remaining banana in each group was used to analyze firmness and mass loss after 6 days of storage. For the firmness analysis, a penetrometer model FT327 (TR, Italy) with a tip size of 3 mm (1/8 in.) was used.

**On-Demand Degradation Study of the Prepared Polymer and Polymer Composite Films.** The predried polymer (P1) and polymer composite (P2–P4) films were cut into a square shape with dimensions of 30 × 30 mm. The weight of each film was then measured and recorded as the initial weight of the polymer film ( $W_i$ ). A 3 M solution of KOH (30 mL) was prepared in a 100 mL beaker. The polymer and polymer composite films were then immersed in the prepared KOH solution and allowed to vigorously stir at ambient temperature for 4 h. The remaining polymer and polymer composite films were then collected, rinsed with DI water (10 mL × 3), and dried in a hot air oven. The dried polymer and polymer composite film residues were then weighed and recorded as the weight of the polymer film after degradation at 4 h ( $W_f$ ). The degradation rate of the polymer and polymer composite was then determined in terms of percent mass loss (% mass loss) by using eq 1.

$$\% \text{ mass loss} = \frac{W_i - W_f}{W_i} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Synthesis and Characterization of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-Doped TiO<sub>2</sub> Particles.** TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> (Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>) were synthesized by a sol–gel method since it is a fast and straightforward means to prepare various types of metal oxide particles under mild conditions.<sup>40</sup> After calcination at 500 °C for 2 h, an off-white solid was obtained as a product. The chemical compositions of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> were analyzed by ATR-FTIR (Figure 2A). TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> showed a clear characteristic absorption band around 425 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which is assigned to the Ti–O stretching vibration.<sup>41</sup> The lack of a broad absorption band around 3400 cm<sup>-1</sup> (–OH stretching vibration) and an absorption band around 1600 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Ti–OH bending vibration) suggested the absence of water molecules inside or at the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles. Moreover, the disappearance of additional peaks in Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> indicated efficient dispersion of the Zn dopant in TiO<sub>2</sub> and the absence of Zn clusters in TiO<sub>2</sub> structure, which is in good agreement with powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis.<sup>42</sup> Powder XRD measurement confirmed the successful formation and was used to identify the polymorphic phase of the TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles (Figure 2B). TiO<sub>2</sub> exhibited two different sets of diffraction signals, which belong to the two distinct TiO<sub>2</sub> polymorphs, namely, anatase and rutile. The major diffraction signals represented the anatase polymorph according to JCPDS 75–1537, whereas a set of minor diffraction peaks at 2θ of 27.48° (110), 36.15° (101), 41.35° (111), 56.69° (220), and 75.99° (202) were attributed to the rutile polymorph.<sup>43</sup> Analysis of the ratio between the two highest intensity signals for anatase (101) and rutile (110) using the Spurr–Myers equation suggested the formation of around 93% anatase polymorph for TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>44</sup> Interestingly, the addition of Zn dopants resulted in an increase in the formation of the TiO<sub>2</sub> anatase phase, as evidenced by a decrease in diffraction signal intensities of the rutile polymorph (~94% anatase for Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> and ~95% anatase for Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>). A similar behavior was also observed when CuO was used as a dopant for TiO<sub>2</sub> by Pillai and Nolan.<sup>45</sup> This might be explained by enhanced stabilization of the TiO<sub>2</sub> anatase phase over the rutile polymorph by the addition of the Zn dopant. The crystallite size (D) of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> was evaluated by Scherrer's equation using the highest intensity diffraction peak ((101) lattice plane) of the anatase polymorph.<sup>46</sup> TiO<sub>2</sub> demonstrated a bigger crystallite size of 17.08 nm, while the addition of 0.1 mol % of Zn dopant resulted in the formation of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles with a slightly smaller crystallite size (D = 16.43 nm). Increasing the amount of Zn dopant to 2 mol % further decreased the crystallite size to 12.56 nm. The disappearance of diffraction signals corresponding to Zn or ZnO indicated a good dispersion of Zn dopants in TiO<sub>2</sub>, which agreed well with the FTIR analysis.<sup>22</sup> SEM was utilized to analyze particle morphology, and spherical-shaped particles were observed in all cases (Figures 2C,D and S1). Additionally, SEM-EDS suggested that the ratio of Ti and O was very close to 1:2, indicating the formation of TiO<sub>2</sub> particles (Figure 2E). The presence of a Zn dopant in Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> particles was also confirmed by SEM-EDS (Figures 2F and S1). However, a slightly lower atom percent compared with the actual amount of the used Zn precursor was observed (Figures 2G and Table S1).



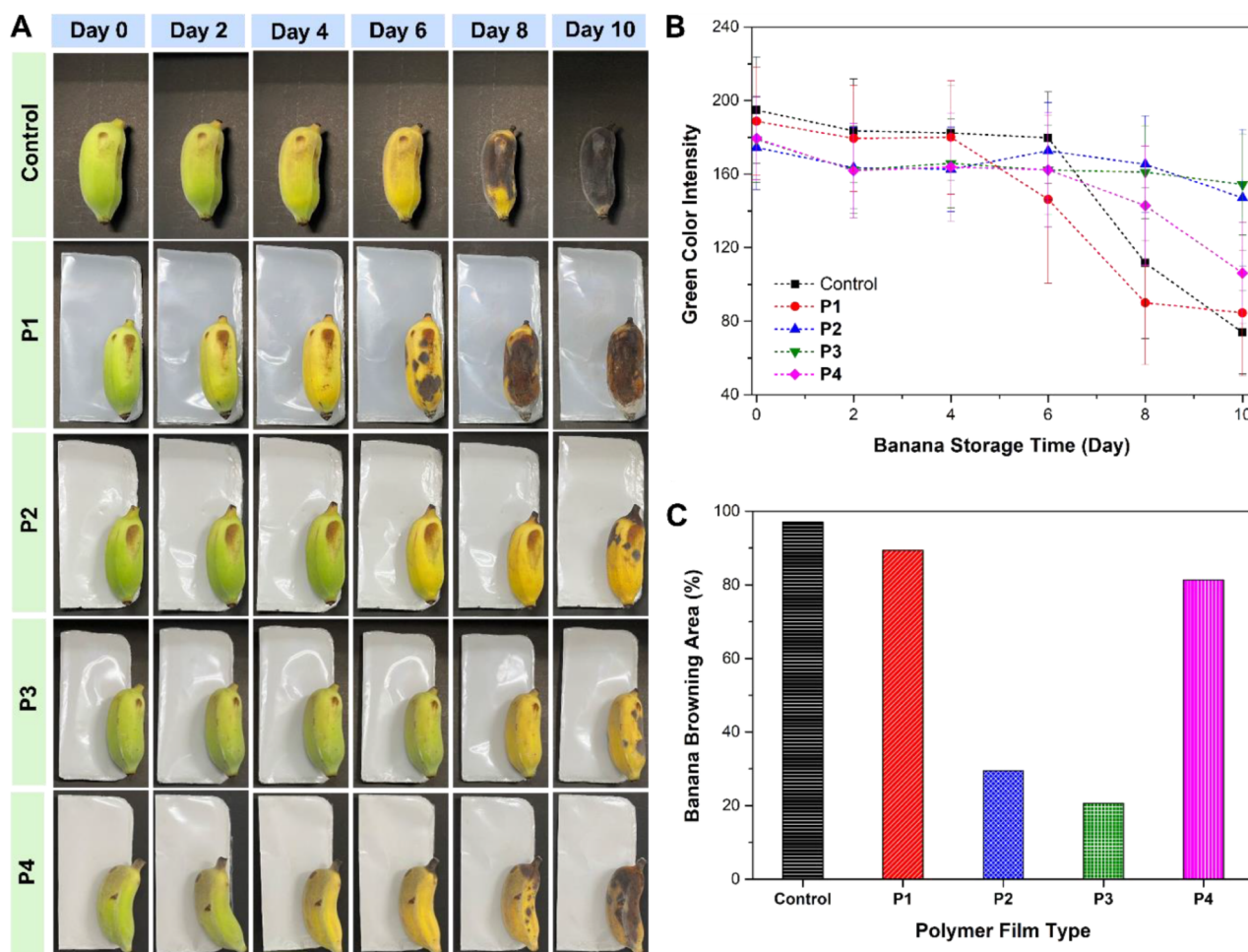
**Figure 3.** Characterizations of polymer and polymer composite films (P1–P4): Backscattered electrons and secondary electrons SEM images of (A) P1, (B) P2, (C) P3, (D) FTIR spectra of polymer (P1) vs polymer composite (P3) films, (E) TGA thermogram of polymer (P1) vs polymer composite (P3) films, (F) plots of Young's modulus and ultimate tensile strength of different polymer films, and (G) bar charts show strength at break and elongation at break of all polymer films.

The particle sizes of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> in the solid state were examined using SEM. After a careful analysis using ImageJ, TiO<sub>2</sub> revealed an average particle size of 672.0 ± 53.16 nm, while Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> exhibited a slightly smaller average particle size of 656.4 ± 91.74 nm. Increasing the Zn dopant to 2 mol % resulted in a further reduction in the particle size to 609.4 ± 40.65 nm. DCM was used as a solvent in the preparation of polymer films. To understand the particle size and aggregation behavior of particles in solution, the particle sizes of TiO<sub>2</sub> and all Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> in DCM solution were examined using a Zeta sizer (Figure 2H). The results demonstrated that TiO<sub>2</sub> possessed a particle size in DCM around 655.4 ± 26.86 nm, while Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> exhibited an average particle size of 542.9 ± 11.77 nm. In contrast, a much larger particle size of 1000.6 ± 70.32 nm was observed for Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>. The latter suggested that there might be some degree of aggregation of Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> particles in the DCM solution.

**Preparation and Characterization of Polymer and Polymer Composite Films.** Control polymer film (P1) was prepared from a pristine PLA/PBAT blend, while polymer composite films (P2–P4) were prepared from the successfully synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub>, Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>, and Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> respectively, and PLA/PBAT blend via a solvent casting process using DCM as a solvent. The prepared polymer and polymer composite films were then characterized by various techniques. First, the surface morphology of all the polymer films (P1–P4) and the dispersion of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles in the polymer composite films were examined by SEM. Secondary electrons SEM micrographs demonstrated that the pristine PLA/PBAT blend film (P1) possessed a smooth surface, suggesting good miscibility between PBAT and PLA (Figure 3A). This agrees with the observation of a single decomposition behavior in TGA analysis. As expected, the incorporation of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> into the PLA/

PBAT blend film resulted in increased surface roughness of the composite films (Figures 3B,C and S2). Moreover, backscattered electron SEM images suggested a good dispersion of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> in the composite films, even though some small aggregations of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were observed. This could be explained by stronger adhesion interaction between metal oxide nanoparticles than that of the cohesive force between metal oxide nanoparticles and the polymer matrix, which is confirmed by the shifting of FTIR signals of polymer composite films.

ATR-FTIR spectroscopy was utilized to study the chemical structure of polymer films and interactions between TiO<sub>2</sub> or Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles with the polymer matrix (Figures 3D and S3). For the pristine polymer film (P1), a strong absorption band at 1749 cm<sup>-1</sup> was observed, representing a stretching vibration of –C=O. Additionally, P1 exhibited two absorption signals at 1180 and 1082 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which were assigned to –C–O stretching vibrations of C–CO–O and O–C–CO, respectively.<sup>47</sup> The appearance of a single –C=O stretching band suggested the interaction between PLA and PBAT.<sup>48</sup> In the case of polymer composite films (P2–P4), similar FTIR spectra to that of the pristine polymer film were obtained, except for the presence of a broad absorption band around 450–460 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which was attributed to the Ti–O stretching vibration. The latter suggested the insignificant change in the chemical structures of both PLA and PBAT upon the addition of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles. Both –C=O (1751–1753 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and –Ti–O stretching bands shifted to higher wavenumbers, compared with those observed in the pristine polymer film and TiO<sub>2</sub> or Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles alone, respectively. However, absorption band shifting was not observed for –C–O stretching vibrations in either the C–CO–O or the O–C–CO. This suggested the interaction of TiO<sub>2</sub> or Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> with the –C=O functional group of the PLA/PBAT matrix.



**Figure 4.** Efficiency evaluation of polymer and polymer composite films in prolonging the shelf life of bananas: (A) control banana samples vs banana packaged in different polymer (P1) and polymer composite (P2–P4) films, (B) green color intensity analysis of the banana skin, (C) analysis of the browning area of the banana skin after 10 days of storage.

**Thermal and Mechanical Properties of Polymer and Polymer Composite Films.** Thermal stabilities of the pristine polymer (P1) and polymer composite (P2–P4) films were evaluated by TGA (Figures 3E and S4). The samples were heated from 25 to 500 °C with a heating rate of 10 °C/min, and polymer mass losses were measured as a function of temperature. In all cases, a single decomposition profile was observed, indicating the homogeneity of the polymer films. The absence of sample mass loss at the beginning of the measurement ( $T = 25\text{--}110$  °C) suggested the disappearance of water and solvent molecules in all the polymer films. P1 shows a decomposition temperature at five percent mass loss ( $T_{d5}$ ) of 338 °C, while slightly higher  $T_{d5}$  compared to the pristine polymer film was observed for polymer composite films P2 and P3 ( $T_{d5} = 342$  and 347 °C for P2 and P3, respectively). The latter suggested that the incorporation of metal oxide particles slightly improved polymer film thermal stability, which might be due to the interaction between metal oxide nanoparticles and the polymer matrix. It should be noted, however, that P4 exhibited a very similar  $T_{d5}$  to that of P1 (Figure S4 and Table S2). In addition, all of the polymer composite films were physically transparent (Figure S5).

Mechanical properties of the pristine polymer (P1) and polymer composite (P2–P4) films were analyzed by tensile

testing (Figures 3F,G and S6). The samples were prepared and measured according to ASTM D882, and the data are listed in Table S3. Standard deviations were calculated from triplicate samples. Overall, the incorporation of 2 wt % of  $\text{TiO}_2$  or Zn-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  into the PLA/PBAT blend film did not significantly compromise the mechanical properties of the polymer composite films. The pristine PLA/PBAT film (P1) showed an ultimate tensile strength of  $51.0 \pm 0.8$  MPa and a tensile strength at break of  $45.6 \pm 3.5$  MPa, while a Young's modulus of  $2.60 \pm 0.04$  GPa and an elongation at break of  $5 \pm 0.9\%$  were obtained. Polymer composite films (P2–P4) showed a similar ultimate tensile strength, tensile strength at break, and elongation at break, while a slightly lower Young's modulus compared to the pristine polymer film was observed.

**Application of Polymer and Polymer Composite Films in Active Packaging.** The application of polymer films as active packaging was investigated using bananas as a fruit model because they are climacteric fruits, showing clear color changes during the ripening process and an appropriate time frame in the deterioration process (Figure 4A). Green bananas with similar sizes and ripeness levels were selected and packaged into pouches prepared from pristine polymer (P1) and polymer composite (P2–P4) films. An unpackaged banana was also used as a control. The control banana and the packaged banana samples were then left under light

exposure at ambient temperature and monitored every 2 days for 10 days. One factor determining the ripeness of bananas is the change of the banana skin color from green to yellow and then brown, thanks to the decomposition of chlorophyll.<sup>49</sup> In general, bananas packaged in pouches made from composite films showed extended shelf life compared to the unpackaged banana. On the contrary, the banana packaged in pristine polymer film (P1) exhibited shorter storage life than the control sample, leading to browning of the banana skin on day 6. One possible explanation for this is that the ethylene gas released from the banana was kept inside the pouch without degrading, thus accelerating the ripening process of the banana. Analysis of green color intensity from the RGB color system using ImageJ allowed the determination of ripening and deterioration rates of bananas (Figure 4B). It was found that in all cases, the green color value was steady at the beginning of the test and started to decline after 4–8 days upon storage, depending on the samples. The banana packaged in the pristine polymer film (P1) exhibited a sharp decline of green color intensity after day 4, while the control sample did not show a sharp reduction of green color value until day 6. Bananas packaged in the TiO<sub>2</sub> composite film (P2) showed extended shelf life and did not exhibit a decrease of green color intensity until day 6 upon storage. Interestingly, the banana packaged in the Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> composite film (P3) demonstrated the longest shelf life, which did not significantly change the green color intensity of the skin until day 8. This is almost twice as long as that of the banana packaged with the pristine polymer (P1) and slightly longer than that of the one packaged with P2. In the case of bananas packaged in the Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> composite film (P4), the banana skin showed a drastic drop of green color intensity on day 6. ImageJ also allowed analyzing the percentage of browning area of each banana sample (Figure 4C). The percentage of browning area of all the bananas after 10 days of storage was examined. Both the control sample and the banana packaged with the pristine polymer film (P1) showed 97% and 89% browning area, respectively. In contrast, a significant reduction of browning area was observed for the banana packaged with the TiO<sub>2</sub> composite film (P2), and only 29% browning area was found. In the case of bananas packaged with Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> composite films, P3 showed 21% browning areas. This confirmed the ability to extend the shelf life of bananas and again agreed well with the green color intensity analysis. The banana packaged in the Zn<sub>2%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> composite film P4, however, exhibited around 81% browning area. The higher efficiency of the composite film incorporating Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> (P3) in extending the shelf life of bananas might be due to the synergistic effect between the smaller average particle size, crystallite size, and higher percent of anatase polymorph of the Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> particles.

To ensure the reliability of the shelf life extension analysis, a repeated experiment was performed with 15 fresh bananas. These bananas were divided into five groups of three bananas each. One group was used as a control, and then, the four other groups were packaged into different pouches made from polymer (P1) and different polymer composite films (P2–P4). Two banana samples in each group were monitored and photographed every 2 days for 10 days to observe the change of green color intensity and percentage browning area of the banana skin (Figures S7–S9). The remaining banana in each group was used to analyze firmness and mass loss upon 6 days of storage (Figure S10).

After a careful analysis of both green color intensity and percentage browning area of banana skin using the ImageJ program, some variation compared to the first test was observed. This can be expected due to the natural variation between individual bananas across the two experiments. However, firmness analysis as well as mass loss determination of banana samples after a 6-day storage confirmed the longest shelf life extension of a banana packaged in P3 (Figure S10). The highest firmness of around 35 N was observed, which was almost 130% higher than that of a control banana sample (firmness ~ 27 N). Mass loss measurement also suggested that bananas packaged in polymer composite films P2–P4 exhibited a significantly lower mass loss of less than 4% compared to almost 20% mass loss for a control sample, suggesting shelf life extension of bananas packaged in the developed composite films. It should, however, be noted that there is no significant difference of mass loss observed in banana samples packaged in polymer (P1) and different polymer composite (P2–P4) films.

**On-Demand Degradation Study of Polymer and Polymer Composite Films.** Additionally, degradation studies of pristine polymer film (P1) and polymer composite films (P2–P4) were carried out in a 3 M aqueous solution of KOH for 4 h (Figure S11). Under these conditions, P1, P3, and P4 exhibited nearly complete degradation – i.e., the films showed more than 88% mass loss. In contrast, the composite film P2 showed a slightly slower degradation, 80% mass loss. The latter suggested that the incorporation of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> did not significantly affect the degradation behavior of the polymer films.

## CONCLUSIONS

In the present study, TiO<sub>2</sub> and two Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were successfully synthesized and characterized. The amount of Zn dopant was found to influence particle size, crystallite size, polymorphic phase, and aggregation behavior in DCM. The prepared TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were then studied as ethylene scavenger fillers in the degradable PLA/PBAT composite films. A uniform dispersion of the fillers and their interactions with the polymer matrix were confirmed by SEM and FTIR, respectively. The incorporation of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> slightly improved the thermal stabilities and did not seriously compromise the mechanical properties of the polymer composite films. The developed composite films containing 2 wt % of either TiO<sub>2</sub> or Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> were shown to extend the shelf life of bananas compared to the pristine polymer film. In addition, the polymer composite containing Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> was found to possess higher efficiency as an active packaging to prolong the storage life of bananas than the one incorporating TiO<sub>2</sub>. This might be explained by the synergistic effects between the smaller average particle size, crystallite size, and improved anatase polymorph of the Zn<sub>0.1%</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> compared to TiO<sub>2</sub>. Moreover, all the polymer composite films could be degraded on demand by immersing them in a 3 M KOH aqueous solution. The work presented in this paper therefore addresses deficiencies with previously reported solutions, with the developed composite films proving to be a promising solution. These could serve as the basis for future optimizations to use as sustainable active packaging for various types of food preservation.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsomega.4c09138>.

Details of materials and instruments, additional characterization data for the prepared metal oxide particles and polymer and polymer composite films, additional experimental results including the application of polymer and polymer composite films in active packaging and on-demand degradation study (PDF)

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## ■ ABBREVIATIONS

FAO, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations; ppm, parts per million; MOF, metal–organic framework; FDA, Food and Drug Administration; UV, ultraviolet; ATR-FTIR, attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform infrared; XRD, X-ray diffraction; JCPDS, Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards; SEM, scanning electron microscope; EDS, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy; DCM, dichloromethane; PLA, polylactide; PBAT, poly(butylene adipate-co-terephthalate)

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