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Bioplastics based on wheat gluten processed by extrusion

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Running title header: Influence of modification of protein-based biodegradable
polymeric materials processed through extrusion

30 **ABSTRACT**

31 Recently, bioplastic have generated an increasing interest as an alternative to
32 conventional plastics. For this reason, their manufacture using the traditional techniques
33 used for the production of plastics, such as extrusion, would help transferring
34 bioplastics production to an industrial scale. In this way, the preparation of wheat gluten
35 bioplastics by extrusion was the main objective of this research, modifying their
36 structure by varying the pH value or by incorporating additives (glyoxal or xanthan
37 gum). These bioplastics were characterized by the measurement of their mechanical
38 properties and their water uptake capacity, proving that the modification of bioplastics
39 cause variations in their properties. Thus, extrusion resulted in a greater gluten-
40 plasticizer compatibility compared to compression, as denoted the temperature ramp
41 tests, especially in the presence of additives (ie. Xanthan gum, glyoxal). Moreover,
42 tensile strength was enhanced at pH 9, probably due to bonding promotion at alkaline
43 conditions. These results demonstrate the great potential of these materials for the
44 replacement of conventional plastics.

45

46 ***Keywords:* rheology; additives; wheat gluten; extrusion; bioplastics**

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Bioplastics, such as protein-based bioplastics, are a potential alternative to replace
49 conventional plastics. So they would help minimizing the environmental issues
50 associated with the predominant use of plastics derived from petrochemicals (Derraik,
51 2002; Sheavly and Register, 2007). Moreover, it should be highlighted that the Food
52 and Agriculture Organization (FAO) has reported that around 1.3 billion tons of food
53 are lost or wasted every year in the world. In addition, the fact that the land area used to
54 grow biomass for the production of bioplastics in 2018 corresponded to less than 0.02
55 percent of the global agricultural area (European Bioplastics, 2018), supports the idea
56 that there is no competition between the use of biomass to produce bioplastics and the
57 use of biomass for food and feed. In this context, the use of wheat gluten, which is
58 obtained as a by-product from the bio-ethanol industry, to make protein-based
59 bioplastics is a potential option (Ye et al., 2006). Thus, Guillaume et al. (2010) showed
60 that wheat gluten-coated paper was very effective at improving the shelf life of
61 mushrooms compared to PVC films; Tunc et al. (2007) studied its properties as
62 nanocomposite and Gennadios et al. (1994) found that it is a very effective oxygen
63 barrier at low relative humidity. Moreover, it is used mainly as animal feed, thereby its
64 use as raw material for bioplastics could increase its value (Ye et al., 2006). Therefore,
65 its use in the development of bioplastics would result in a revalorization of an abundant
66 by-product of the food industry (Patni et al., 2014). In this way, as wheat gluten is
67 profusely available and relatively inexpensive, a growing interest on its potential
68 application as packaging for the food industry has arisen due to its interesting
69 biodegradation, film formation, gas barrier, and mechanical properties (Olabarrieta et
70 al., 2006).

71 One of the most used techniques for the production of plastics is extrusion, due to its
72 high mixing and molding efficiency for thermoplastic materials (Pommet et al., 2003).
73 Most of the commercial synthetic plastic films (i.e. polyethylene) are produced in
74 extruders (Hernandez-Izquierdo and Krochta, 2008). The use of this widespread
75 technology with an agricultural renewable raw material, such as wheat gluten,
76 represents an interesting opportunity for the industrial production of bioplastics (Gug et
77 al., 2018; Herniou-Julien et al., 2019; Mathiot et al., 2019; Pommet et al., 2003),
78 helping their industrial scale-up (Ferrar et al., 2018). Unlike thermoplastic polymers,
79 wheat gluten protein may undergo some crosslinking reactions upon heating, which
80 would eventually result in an increase in the viscoelastic properties of plasticized
81 gluten-based materials. These structural changes occur at lower temperatures compared
82 to synthetic polymers (Balaguer et al., 2014; Lagrain et al., 2010). In this way, the
83 extrusion of wheat gluten is only possible under certain operating conditions, ranging
84 from the point at which protein chains begin to flow to the point where they start to
85 aggregate.

86 In the extrusion of wheat gluten proteins, certain key parameters must be considered in
87 order to have optimal operating conditions, such as plasticizer content, mechanical
88 energy input, applied shear, as well as operating time, temperature and pressure.
89 Therefore, the degree of aggregation, molecular conformational changes and chemical
90 crosslinking that occur along the extrusion process can be determined by these
91 parameters. In this respect, it is important not only to select an adequate temperature
92 window to obtain a moderate viscosity, which facilitates the processing of the
93 protein/plasticizer blend, but also to ensure a proper aggregation of protein molecules
94 that allows the formation of a homogeneous material, without exceeding thermal
95 conditions leading to degradation. On the one hand, the lowest temperature is defined

96 by the glass transition temperature of the protein, which is required to allow the material
97 to achieve its final shape (Ullsten et al., 2009). On the other hand, the upper temperature
98 limit is defined by either an extensive aggregation or the thermal degradation of the
99 protein. Thus, wheat gluten materials are generally processed between 80 and 130 °C,
100 with their properties depending on those operating conditions (Redl et al., 2003).

101 Another parameter to be considered when replacing conventional plastics with any
102 alternative bioplastic is their final properties, such as their mechanical characteristics
103 and water uptake capacity. Within this scope, several techniques have been investigated
104 to reinforce bioplastics and improve their characteristics (Rasheed et al., 2018;
105 Thammahiwes et al., 2018, 2017). In this manner, studies can be found where the pH of
106 the bioplastics has been modified (Cortes-Trivino and Martinez, 2018), altering the net
107 charge of the protein system as it moves further away from the isoelectric point. Thus, a
108 pH shift may enhance certain bioplastic properties, such as Young's modulus or
109 absorption capacity, as it strongly influences the nature of intermolecular interactions.
110 Another procedure investigated to improve the quality of bioplastics is the inclusion of
111 different additives in the system (Cieśła et al., 2006; Erdohan and Turhan, 2005;
112 Gounga et al., 2007; Parris et al., 1995; Siracusa et al., 2008; Turkoz et al., 2018). The
113 addition of polysaccharides into a protein matrix, with both of them being complex
114 heteropolymers, may promote the formation of non-covalent interactions and
115 intermolecular linkages between them (Turgeon et al., 2003). For this reason, protein-
116 polysaccharide mixtures may present a wide range of structures with different
117 rheological and physical-chemical properties that may allow the tailoring of the final
118 properties of the bioplastic material (Coughlan et al., 2004; Gómez-Martínez et al.,
119 2009; López-Castejón et al., 2016; Schmitt et al., 2009, 1998; Turgeon and Beaulieu,
120 2001; Zaleska et al., 2000). Although some gums, such as xanthan gum, have proved to

121 be stable over a wide pH and temperature range, as well as to enzymatic degradation or
122 in the presence of salts (Sworn, 2009; Vega et al., 2015), all these factors may alter the
123 protein-polysaccharide interactions. Since xanthan gum is an anionic polymer,
124 depending on whether the pH is below or above the protein isoelectric point (IEP),
125 attractive or repulsive electrostatic interactions between the protein and the
126 polysaccharide are expected (Gosh and Bandyopadhyay, 2012). On the other hand, the
127 incorporation of crosslinking additives, such as aldehydes (e.g. glyoxal), to wheat gluten
128 protein-based bioplastics has proved to promote covalent crosslinking both intra- and
129 intermolecularly in wheat gluten protein (Zárate-Ramírez et al., 2014b). However,
130 Bruyninckx et al. (2016) have recently shown that an increase in crosslink density does
131 not always lead to enhanced mechanical properties of gluten-based bioplastics. These
132 authors postulated that crosslinks between protein segments may lead to a positive
133 reinforcement of the protein network, although but they may also force some kind of
134 unfavorable configurations that could prevent the formation of further physical
135 entanglements, thus compromising the overall network quality.

136 Taking into account all these parameters, the overall aim of this research was to process
137 biodegradable protein-based bioplastics with wheat gluten by extrusion, comparing this
138 with the compression molding method and determining the influence of the pH
139 modification and the addition of xanthan gum (polysaccharide) and glyoxal (aldehyde)
140 to them. In this way, their rheological properties and water uptake capacity were
141 studied.

142 **2. Experimental**

143 **2.1. Materials**

144 The protein-based biopolymer used was wheat gluten (WG) from Productos Riba S.A.
145 (Spain). This material, according to its technical data sheet, contains a minimum of 83
146 wt.% protein, 10 wt.% starch, 3 wt.% lipids and 1 wt.% ashes and the rest is moisture.
147 Glycerol (GL), provided by Panreac Química S.A.U. (Spain), and distilled water (W)
148 were used as protein plasticizers. Xanthan gum (*Xanthomonas Campestris*, XG), from
149 Sigma Aldrich (USA) and glyoxal (GXAL) from Panreac Química S.A.U. (Spain), were
150 used as additives. Finally, NaOH 2 M solution was used to modify the pH of the
151 systems from 6 to 9.

152 **2.2. Processing of gluten/plasticizer samples**

153 **2.2.1. Batch Mixing of gluten/plasticizer samples**

154 Prior to extruding, gluten/glycerol/water blends were obtained by a mixing stage using a
155 mixer torque rheometer fitted with two delta-shaped counter-rotating rollers which turn
156 at an angular velocity ratio of 3:2 (Brabender Plastograph, PL 3s model). In the
157 literature on rheometry, a detailed description of this equipment, which can record the
158 evolution of torque over mixing time, may be found (Dealy, 1982). These dough-like
159 blends, which were referred to as reference, had a pH of 6 and were composed of 50
160 wt.% WG, 18 wt.% GL, 32 wt.% W, following the relation used previously (Zárate-
161 Ramírez et al., 2014a, 2014b, 2011).

162 Some modifications were made to this reference sample: (i) by adding the necessary
163 amount of NaOH 2M solution to reach a pH of 9; (ii) by adding 3 wt.% GXAL with
164 respect to the wheat gluten protein percentage or (iii) by adding 1.5 wt.% XG dispersed
165 in the water fraction. The percentage of XG or GXAL was counteracted with the

166 percentage of water required to maintain the initial ratio WG:GL (25:9). These
167 modifications were carried out following the same procedure used in previous papers
168 (Zárate-Ramírez et al., 2014b) (Zárate-Ramírez et al., 2014a)

169 The mixing process was carried out under adiabatic conditions at 50 rpm for 10 min
170 approximately. Other authors have also used this mixing step (Ottenhof and Farhat,
171 2004; Türe et al., 2012; Ullsten et al., 2009) in order to facilitate the thermomechanical
172 processing through extrusion (Chantapet et al., 2013; Ottenhof and Farhat, 2004),
173 thermo or compression molding (Jerez et al., 2007; Sun et al., 2008) and injection
174 molding (John et al., 1998). All of them, traditional polymer processing techniques that
175 can improve the industrial escalation of this bioplastic. However, the properties of the
176 final dough-like material blends may affect their subsequent processing. Thus, it is very
177 convenient to monitor parameter such as, torque and temperature throughout the mixing
178 time.

179 2.2.2. Extrusion of gluten/plasticizer bioplastics

180 The dough-like materials after the mixing step were introduced into a Rheomex 302p
181 screw extruder (Thermo-Haake, Germany) coupled to the mixer. This extruder has a
182 spindle barrel diameter of 19 mm with a total length of 830 mm. In addition, it has an
183 electric heating system at four zones (feed, nozzle and two in the mixing zone) from
184 where the temperature profile indicated in Table 1 was established for the different
185 blends (based on previous studies). The nozzle used was of laminar geometry, and the
186 spindle speed applied was 30 rpm.

187 **Table 1:** Temperature profile used during the extrusion of the dough-like materials of wheat gluten (WG), glycerol
 188 (GL), water (W) and different percentages of xanthan gum (XG, 0 and 1.5 wt.%).

Systems	Feed (°C)	Mixing zone 1(°C)	Mixing zone 2(°C)	Nozzle
WG/GL/W pH6	55	65	80	100
WG/GL/W pH9	55	65	80	100
WG/GL/GXAL-W	80	110	120	100
WG/GL/XG-W	80	120	110	100

189

190 2.2.3. Die cutting

191 The material obtained after the extrusion step was subjected to punching to obtain
 192 bioplastic specimens with different dimensions: rectangular probes (50x10x3 mm) and
 193 type IV probes (“ASTM D638-14: Standard Test Method for Tensile Properties of
 194 Plastics,” 2014).

195 2.2.4 Compression molding of gluten/plasticizer blends

196 Different bioplastic specimens (rectangular and type IV) of the reference formulation
 197 (WG/GL/W at pH 6) were also processed by compression molding in order to make a
 198 comparison with those specimens prepared by extrusion (and die-cutting). In this case,
 199 the blends were subjected to compressing molding at 130 °C and 9 MPa for 10 min,
 200 following a procedure previously described (Zárate-Ramírez et al., 2014a, 2014b,
 201 2011).

202 2.2.5 Conditioning of moisture content of gluten/plasticizer specimens

203 All the probes obtained by extrusion and die cutting or by compression molding were
204 subjected to a conditioning step for 2 weeks before testing into recipients at 53%
205 relative humidity (RH) to reach moisture equilibrium at room temperature. After this
206 conditioning period, the actual moisture content was determined maintaining each
207 sample for 24 h at 105 °C ((AOAC), 2003).

208 ***2.3. Characterization of gluten/plasticizer bioplastic specimens***

209 **2.3.1. Dynamic Mechanical Temperature Analysis (DMTA)**

210 DMTA tests were carried out with a dynamic-mechanical strain analyser RSA3 (TA
211 Instruments, USA) with a dual cantilever bending geometry. The tests were performed
212 on rectangular probes from -30 to 130 °C at a heating rate of 3 °C·min⁻¹. The frequency
213 was kept constant at 1 Hz and a strain between 0.01 and 0.3 was used (i.e, well within
214 the linear viscoelastic region). Results were obtained for the elastic (E') and viscous
215 (E'') moduli and loss tangent (tan δ).

216 **2.3.2. Uniaxial tension tests**

217 The Insight 10 kN Electromechanical Testing System (MTS, USA) was used to perform
218 the tensile measurements, according to ASTM D638 (“ASTM D638-14: Standard Test
219 Method for Tensile Properties of Plastics,” 2014). So, type IV probes were subjected to
220 an extensional rate of 22 mm·min⁻¹ at room temperature, recording the strain at break
221 (ϵ_{\max}), maximum tensile stress (σ_{\max}) and Young's modulus (E).

222 **2.3.3. Water absorption tests**

223 Water absorption tests was carried out following the ASTM D570-98 norm (“ASTM
224 D570-98: Standard Test Method for Water Absorption Of Plastics,” 2005), where
225 rectangular probes were immersed in 300 mL of distilled water for 24 h at room
226 temperature.

227 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

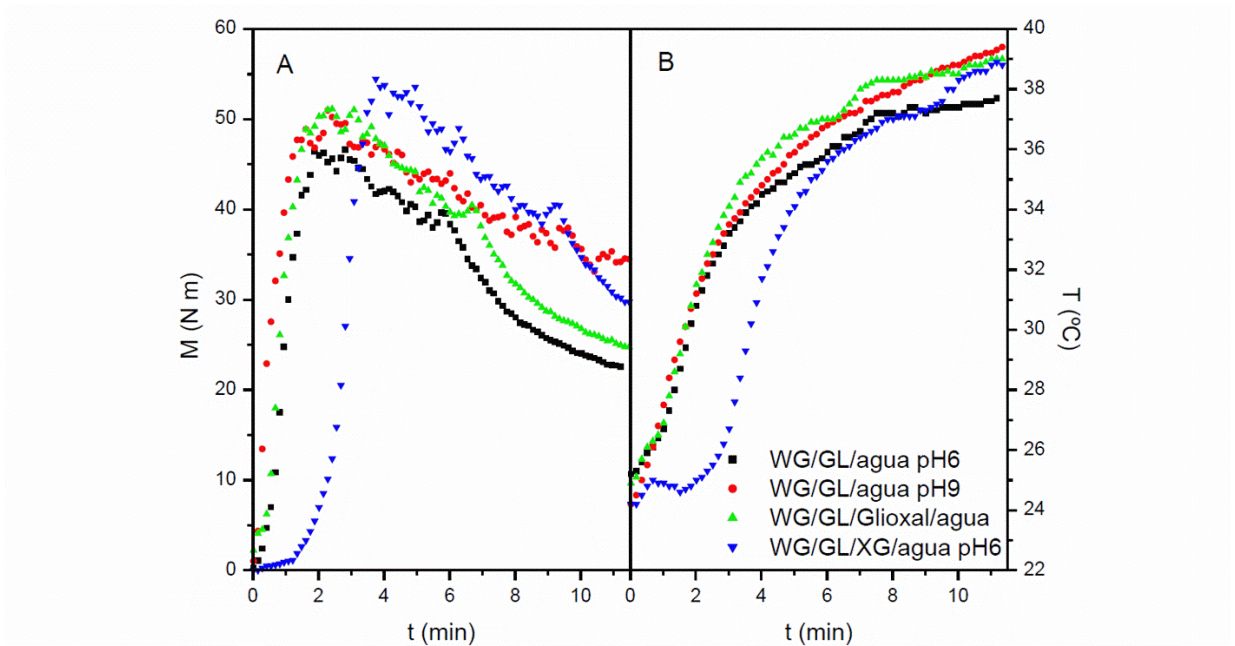
228 The data were presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) of at least three (water
229 uptake capacity and DMTA tests) or six (tensile tests) determinations. A probability
230 value of $p < 0.05$ was considered significant.

231 **3. Results and discussion**

232 **3.1. Batch Mixing of gluten/plasticizer samples**

233 Figure 1 shows the torque (M) and temperature (T) profiles obtained by the systems
234 WG/GL/W with different modifications during the mixing step. As may observed in
235 Figure 1A, all systems show an increase in the mixing torque up to a maximum value,
236 followed by an asymptotic decrease. The torque profile for the blend prepared with XG
237 shows a delay time in its evolution over the other blends, as well as a displacement
238 towards higher values. Both effects can be also observed in the thermal profile (Figure
239 1B). These results might be caused by the higher mobility induced by the presence of
240 water, which exhibits a higher plasticising efficiency than the XG dispersion. The
241 plasticizing efficiency is generally based on the ability of an ingredient to decrease the
242 glass transition temperature, T_g , resulting in a softening of the structure (Verbeek and
243 van den Berg, 2010). Water is an efficient plasticizer for proteins as it enters easily the
244 protein network, preventing protein-protein interaction and thereby promoting chains
245 mobility. It must be considered that when a hydrophilic compound like XG is present,
246 the large number of hydroxyl groups present within its structure show a great affinity to
247 bind water. The high-water binding capacity of XG reduces the amount of free water
248 available, which retards the movement of particles along mixing (Noorlaila et al., 2017).
249 Moreover, the energy dissipation is higher for modified blends as the change (pH or
250 additives) contributes a higher viscosity to the medium. This behaviour is also found in

251 data reported in the literature (Redl et al., 2003). Thus, in absence of water, torque and
 252 temperature profiles typically show an induction stage (Jerez et al., 2005; Redl et al.,
 253 2003), whereas the induction period vanishes when water is used in combination with
 254 other plasticizer (Zárate-Ramírez et al., 2011). It seems that water plays the same role as
 255 temperature as reported by Pommet et al. (2003) who did not find such induction stage
 256 at temperatures above 40 °C.



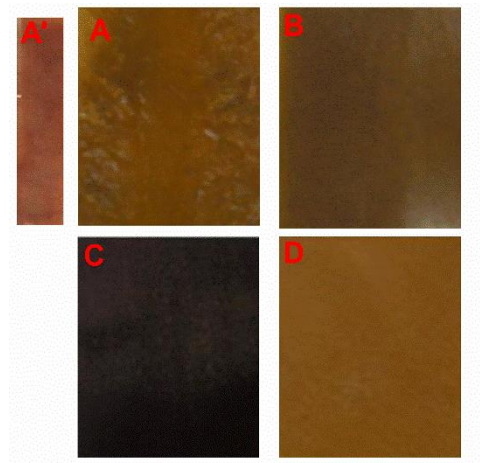
257
 258 **Figure 1:** Torque (A) and temperature (B) profiles along mixing. WG: Wheat gluten. GL: Glycerol. GXAL: Glyoxal.
 259 XG: Xanthan gum.

260 In view of the results from the mixing-rheometry test the selected mixing time for the
 261 preparation of the different blends was 10 min. This mixing time seems to be long
 262 enough to ensure a proper homogenization degree since it is much longer than the time
 263 at which the torque peak is located and temperature remains moderate, indicating that
 264 crosslinking reactions still play a minor role.

265 *3.2. Extrusion of gluten/plasticizer bioplastics*

266 The dough-like blends, once mixed, were introduced in an extruder as mentioned in
 267 section 2.2.2. Figure 2 shows the appearance of the bioplastic sheets after passing

268 through the extrusion or compression molding. As can be seen, the modification of
269 compression molding to extrusion (Figures 2A' and 2A) made a smooth change in the
270 colour of the bioplastic. In addition, the change of pH to that of the extruder reference
271 matrix WG/GL/W (Figures 2B and 2A, respectively) made its appearance more
272 homogeneous, with no surface roughness. This same behaviour was observed with the
273 incorporation of XG to the sample (Figure 2D). When GXAL was incorporated (Figure
274 2C), apart from the homogenization of its surface, there was also a significant browning
275 effect conferred by GXAL itself, which was due to occurrence of Maillard reactions.



276

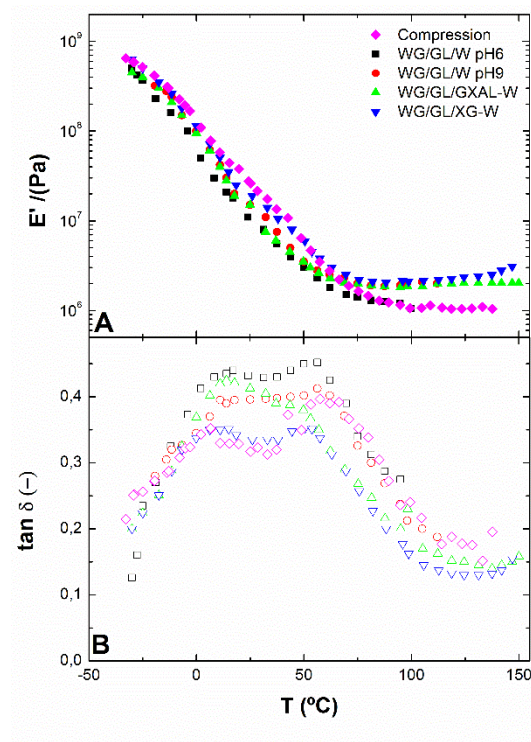
277 **Figure 2:** Bioplastics obtained with wheat gluten (WG), glycerol (GL), water (W), glyoxal (GXAL) and xanthan gum
278 (XG) through compression moulding and extrusion. A': WG/GL/W by compression moulding. A: WG/GL/W by
279 extrusion. B: WG/GL/W pH9. C: WG/GL/GXAL-W. D: WG/GL/XG-W.

280 **3.3. Characterization of gluten/plasticizer bioplastic specimens**

281 3.2.1. Dynamic Mechanical Temperature Analysis (DMTA)

282 Figure 3 shows the flexural storage modulus (E') and loss tangent ($\tan \delta$) values from
283 DMA tests, carried out by means of dual cantilever bending geometry, for modified
284 WG/GL/W bioplastics (pH variation, addition of XG or GXAL) processed by extrusion.
285 This figure also includes the results for the reference systems (WG/GL/W at pH 6)
286 prepared either by extrusion or compression molding. It can be observed that, regardless

287 of the composition of the specimen, E' had a similar evolution for all systems as
 288 temperature rose up from -30 to 100 °C, undergoing a dramatic decrease up to a plateau
 289 value at 100 °C. Later, there was a pronounced increase when temperature was further
 290 increased for the sample with XG. This increase in elastic properties at temperatures
 291 higher than 100°C when XG is present indicates that it is possible to process those
 292 systems at a molding temperature higher than 130 °C in order to achieve an enhanced
 293 microstructure, which would result in higher E' values.



294

295 **Figure 3:** Values of elastic flexural modulus E' (A) and loss tangent $\tan \delta$ (B) from DMA temperature ramp
 296 measurements for the different bioplastics obtained. WG: Wheat gluten. GL: Glycerol. W: Water. GXAL: Glyoxal.
 297 XG: Xanthan gum.

298 In Figure 3B, $\tan \delta$ profiles display two well-defined peaks for all the systems. These
 299 maximum peaks were identified in a previous research for systems containing wheat
 300 gluten as biopolymer and glycerol/water as plasticizer (Zárate-Ramírez et al., 2011).
 301 The first peak may coincide with the characteristic glass transition of the plasticizer
 302 blend, affected by some fraction of wheat gluten protein, whereas the second peak was

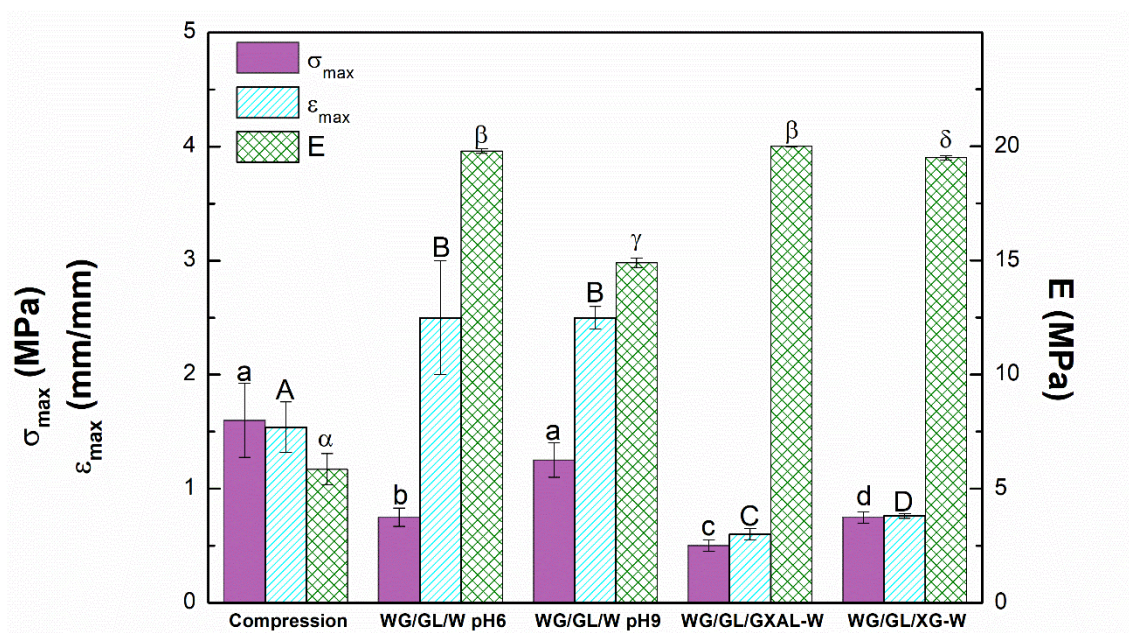
303 attributed to a glass transition of the plasticized wheat gluten (Jerez et al., 2005; Sun et
304 al., 2008, 2007). The change from compression molding processing to extrusion causes
305 an approach between the two peaks. A further approach takes place when any of the
306 additives is incorporated into the bioplastic, suggesting a greater degree of compatibility
307 between phases in the presence of the additives included. Therefore, extrusion proves to
308 be a more effective processing technique for the production of gluten bioplastics,
309 regarding the compatibility among ingredients. Moreover, extrusion shows the
310 advantage of being a continuous process compared to the discontinuous compression
311 molding.

312 The high values of E' for bioplastics with gum and the overlap of the $\tan \delta$ peaks for
313 specimens with GXAL and XG, indicate that the shear and the relatively high
314 temperatures inside the extruder favour a greater degree of crosslinking and
315 compatibilization of the systems that incorporate these components, compared to those
316 that are free of additives. In fact, the shear can decrease the activation energy of the
317 crosslinking reactions and facilitate the interaction between the reactive groups of the
318 additives and those of the protein chains, while the high profiles of temperature would
319 help fix the structure of the bioplastic matrix (Domenek et al., 2003; Redl et al., 2003).

320 3.2.2. Uniaxial tension measurements

321 Figure 4 shows the values of the parameters obtained from tensile tests for the different
322 bioplastics studied. This figure collects the maximum strain (ϵ_{\max}), the maximum stress
323 (σ_{\max}) and the Young's modulus (E) values. First, the change from compression
324 molding to extrusion processing produced an increase in ϵ_{\max} and E values, but a
325 decrease in σ_{\max} values. On the other hand, regarding the different bioplastics made by
326 extrusion, the WG/GL/W specimen prepared at pH 9 showed the highest values of σ_{\max}
327 and ϵ_{\max} . This behaviour may be due to the fact that the alkaline pH favours the

328 aggregation of wheat gluten proteins and the formation of bonds through SH-SS
 329 exchange, oxidation of SH groups, lanthionine formation (LAN) and/or Maillard
 330 reactions (Gerrard and Brown, 2002; Olabarrieta et al., 2006). The slightly darker
 331 extrusion profiles obtained at pH 9 seems to support this later mechanism. Therefore,
 332 the alkaline medium would allow the formation of a wheat gluten matrix with a good
 333 degree of crosslinking, being more stable and with stronger intermolecular interactions
 334 between components. Secondly, the high temperatures used for the formation of sheets
 335 with GXAL and XG lead to a high polymerization, giving rise to bioplastics with low
 336 values of σ_{\max} and ϵ_{\max} , which are more pronounced for the bioplastics containing
 337 GXAL (WG/GL/GXAL-W).



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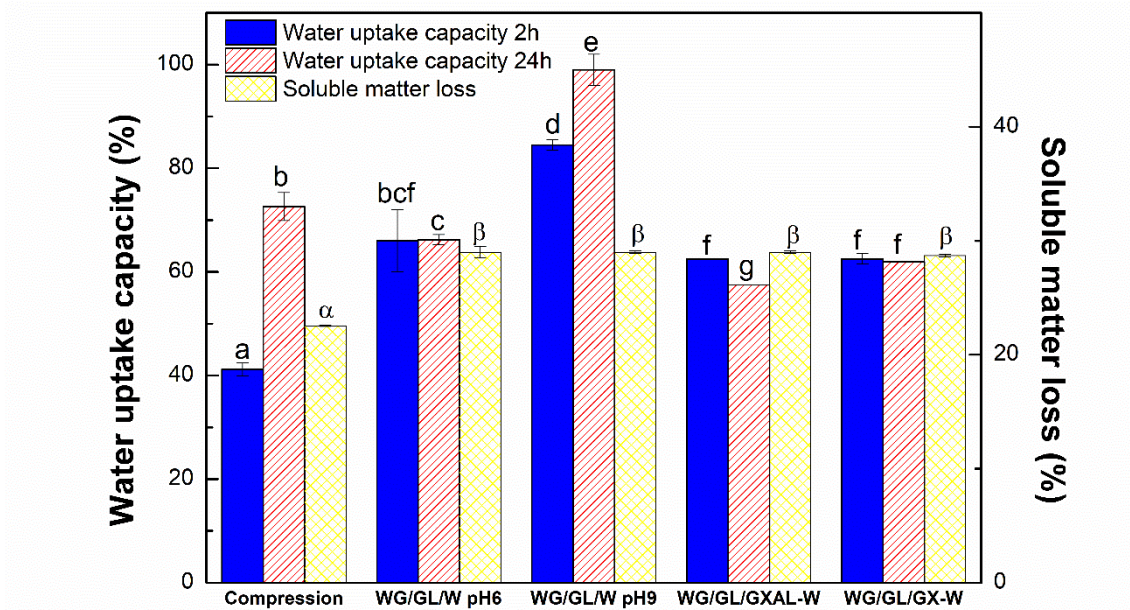
339 **Figure 4:** Representative parameters (σ_{\max} , ϵ_{\max} and E) obtained from tensile strength tests performed on the different
 340 samples processed by compression moulding and extrusion. WG: Wheat gluten. GL: Glycerol. W: Water. GXAL:
 341 Glyoxal. XG: Xanthan gum.

342 Mechanical properties of wheat gluten bioplastics here presented are well below that
 343 reported for some typical commercial polymeric materials, like polypropylene (E: 1.5-2
 344 GPa) or epoxies (E: 2-3 GPa), (Lagrain et al., 2010) and even lower than low molecular

345 weight polyethylene (LDPE. E: 250 MPa) (“ASTM D638-14: Standard Test Method for
346 Tensile Properties of Plastics,” 2014) but bring biodegradability or a dependency on a
347 renewable resource as advantages. However, they still need to prove they are cheaper to
348 produce than their petrochemical counterparts to successfully penetrate in the plastic
349 market (Patni et al., 2014).

350 3.2.3. Water absorption tests

351 The parameters obtained from water absorption tests is showed in Figure 5. Thus, the 2
352 and 24 h water uptake capacity values and the soluble matter loss are represented. As
353 can be observed, the use of extrusion instead of compression molding lead to a clear
354 improvement for the water uptake capacity after 2h but to a reduction after 24 h. When
355 comparing the different bioplastics made by extrusion, the WG/GL/W system at pH 9
356 presented a noticeable improvement in water uptake (particularly after 24 h) over the
357 reference (WG/GL/W at pH 6 by extrusion), whereas the rest of specimens showed a
358 moderate decrease in values as compared to the reference, being the GXAL system
359 which yielded the lowest values. It is worth pointing out that among the extruded
360 systems, the specimen showing higher WUC was one of the systems processed under
361 milder thermal conditions and was also the system displaying the lowest Young’s
362 modulus. On the other hand, the bioplastics with additive (GXAL or XG) have a
363 crosslinked structure that would give less space to the interaction with water molecules,
364 resulting in lower percentages of water uptake capacity.



366

367 **Figure 5:** Water uptake capacity and soluble matter loss obtained for samples subjected to immersion for 2 and 24 h
 368 of immersion. WG: Wheat gluten. GL: Glycerol. W: Water. GXAL: Glyoxal. XG: Xanthan gum.

369 As for the soluble matter loss, this was lower when the bioplastic was made by
 370 compression molding. This fact together with the lower water uptake capacity denotes
 371 that a more closed structure is achieved when the bioplastics are made through
 372 compression molding. In addition, significant differences were not found between the
 373 different systems elaborated by extrusion.

374 **4. Conclusions**

375 In order to face the environmental issues related to the ubiquitous presence of plastic
 376 materials, it is interesting to assess the industrial production of bioplastic materials
 377 through well-established technologies, such as extrusion or compression.

378 Firstly, it was observed that extrusion gave rise to bioplastics with greater compatibility
 379 between their components when compared to compression molding, assuming an
 380 improvement both in mechanical properties and water uptake capacity. These results

381 may be due to a greater level of aggregation/crosslinking and structural alignment
382 within the sheets in the flow direction of the extrusion.

383 Different results were obtained when the effect of pH or the presence of additives
384 (glyoxal and xanthan gum) were studied. Therefore, it was observed that a change of pH
385 to a more alkaline pH improved the water uptake capacity of the bioplastics. Although
386 this took place at the expense of mechanical properties such as Young's modulus, the
387 physical integrity was clearly maintained. However, when bioplastics were produced
388 with additives (GXAL and XG), a higher polymerization occurred due to the high
389 temperatures used, giving rise to bioplastics with mechanical and absorption properties
390 which slightly differ from those of the reference system (WG/GL/W at pH 6 by
391 extrusion). So, the presence of additives resulted in materials that were generally less
392 deformable and, consequently, presented a limited swell-ability, retaining a lower
393 amount of water.

394 These results prove the great potential presented by wheat gluten-based bioplastics
395 processed through extrusion for the replacement of conventional plastics. The use of the
396 most frequently used technique for plastic processing may facilitate the bioplastic
397 production at an industrial scale.

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