

1 **Emulsion stabilizing properties of citrus pectin and**  
2 **its interactions with conventional emulsifiers in oil-**  
3 **in-water emulsions**

4 **Verkempinck, S.H.E.<sup>1\*</sup>, Kyomugasho, C.<sup>1</sup>, Salvia-Trujillo, L.<sup>1/2</sup>, Denis, S.<sup>1</sup>,**  
5 **Bourgeois, M.<sup>1</sup>, Van Loey, A.M.<sup>1</sup>, Hendrickx, M.E.<sup>1</sup>, Grauwet, T.<sup>1\*\*</sup>**

6

7 <sup>1</sup>Laboratory of Food Technology and Leuven Food Science and Nutrition Research Centre  
8 (LFoRCe), Department of Microbial and Molecular Systems (M<sup>2</sup>S), KU Leuven, Kasteelpark  
9 Arenberg 22, PB 2457, 3001, Leuven, Belgium

10 <sup>2</sup>Food Technology Department, University of Lleida, Rovira Roure 191, 25198 Lleida, Spain

11

12 **Author's email addresses:**

13 Verkempinck, S.H.E.: sarah.verkempinck@kuleuven.be

14 Kyomugasho, C.: clare.kyomugasho@kuleuven.be

15 Salvia-Trujillo, L.: lsalvia@tecal.udl.cat

16 Denis, S.: denis.sofie@gmail.com

17 Bourgeois, M.: marjan\_bourgeois@hotmail.com

18 Van Loey, A.M.: ann.vanloey@kuleuven.be

19 Hendrickx, M.E.: marceg.hendrickx@kuleuven.be

20 Grauwet, T.: tara.grauwet@kuleuven.be

21

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27 \*author whom correspondence should be addressed during submission process:

28 sarah.verkempinck@kuleuven.be

29 +32 16 37 63 32

30

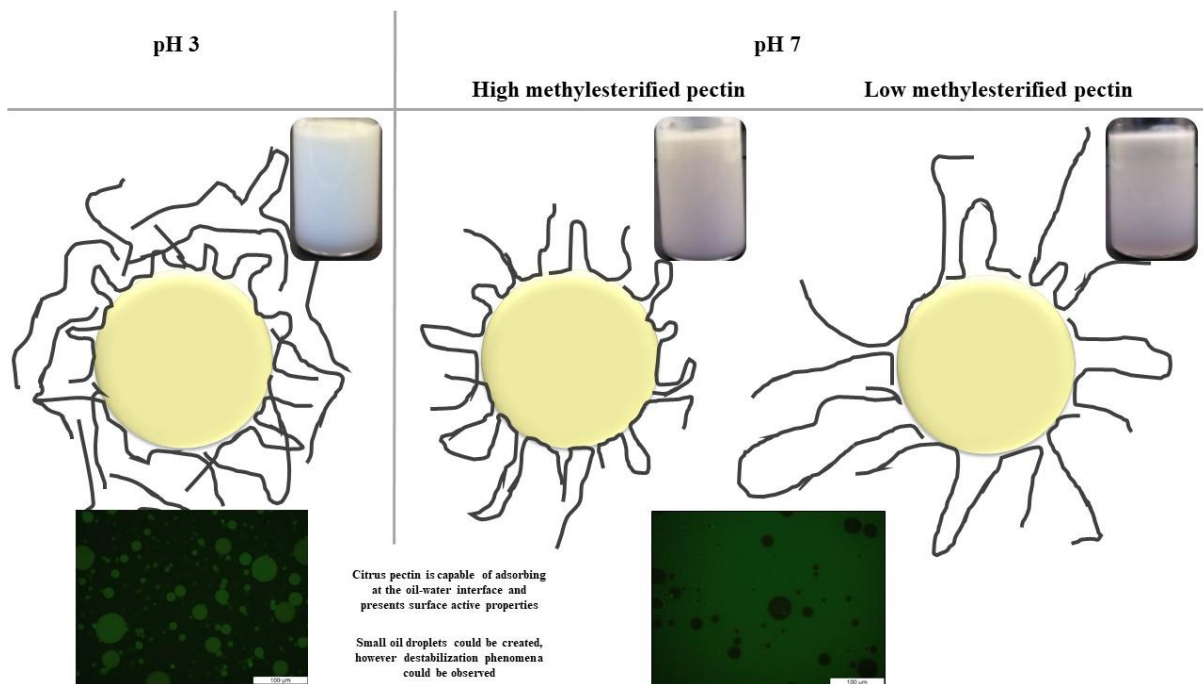
31 \*\* author whom correspondence should be addressed post-publication:

32 tara.grauwet@kuleuven.be

33 +32 16 32 19 47

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35 **Graphical abstract:**



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39 **Highlights:**

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- Citrus pectin is a surface-active molecule

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- Addition of citrus pectin allows creation of emulsions with small droplet sizes

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- Pectin structure influences its organization at the oil droplet surface

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- Emulsion acidity determines the way pectin stabilizes the oil droplet interface

44

- Combination of pectin and conventional emulsifier led to depletion flocculation

45

## 46 **Abstract**

47 The present work focused on the *(i)* physical characterization of the emulsion stabilizing  
48 potential of citrus pectin (CP) with different degree of methylesterification (DM; CP82, CP38  
49 and CP10) and *(ii)* evaluation of interactions that occur between CP and conventional  
50 emulsifiers (Tween80 and phosphatidylcholine) used for emulsion stabilization.

51 Firstly, the emulsifying properties of different samples were studied by evaluating the  
52 electrical charge, hydrodynamic radius, adsorbed layer thickness and change in interfacial  
53 tension. The results showed that the pectin charge was strongly dependent on its DM and pH  
54 of the aqueous phase. For example, the hydrodynamic volume and adsorbed layer thickness  
55 of CP10 were larger compared to CP38 and CP82 at neutral pH due to the presence of more  
56 chargeable carboxylic groups. Moreover, it was quantitatively shown that CP is capable of  
57 reducing the interfacial tension of an oil droplet regardless its DM, evidencing its adsorption  
58 at the oil-water interfaces and surface active properties.

59 Secondly, the physicochemical stability of oil-in-water emulsions was evaluated during short-  
60 term storage at 4°C. All pectin-emulsions showed the formation of a cream layer after one  
61 day. However, the nature and extent of this layer depended on the emulsion composition. All  
62 pectin single-emulsifier stabilized emulsions presented a cream layer most likely caused by  
63 bridging flocculation induced by the pectin structures. Contrastingly, depletion flocculation  
64 was observed in case of the multiple-emulsifier stabilized emulsions. In all cases, the  
65 destabilization phenomena observed were reversible as the particle size did not dramatically  
66 change over storage time, showing that CP has emulsion stabilizing potential.

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68 **Keywords: citrus pectin, emulsion, stability, degree of methylesterification**

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70

71 **Abbreviations:**

72 CP: citrus pectin

73 CP82; CP38 or CP10: citrus pectin with a degree of methylesterification of 82%, 38% and  
74 10%, respectively

75 CP82 emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 1% (w/v) citrus pectin  
76 with a degree of methylesterification of 82%

77 CP38 emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 1% (w/v) citrus pectin  
78 with a degree of methylesterification of 38%

79 CP10 emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 1% (w/v) citrus pectin  
80 with a degree of methylesterification of 10%

81 DB<sub>abs</sub>: absolute degree of blockiness

82 DM: degree of methylesterification

83 GalA: galacturonic acid

84 HMP: high methylesterified pectin

85 LMP: low methylesterified pectin

86 MF: Melamine fluoride

87 MMP: medium methylesterified pectin

88 o/w emulsion: oil-in-water emulsion

89 PC: Phosphatidylcholine

90 PC emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 1% (w/v)  
91 phosphatidylcholine

- 92 PCCP82 emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 1% (w/v)  
93 phosphatidylcholine and 1% (w/v) citrus pectin with a degree of methylesterification of 82%
- 94 PCCP38 emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 1% (w/v)  
95 phosphatidylcholine and 1% (w/v) citrus pectin with a degree of methylesterification of 38%
- 96 PCCP10 emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 1% (w/v)  
97 phosphatidylcholine and 1% (w/v) citrus pectin with a degree of methylesterification of 10%
- 98 PME: pectin methylesterase
- 99 PS: polystyrene
- 100 TW: Tween 80
- 101 TW emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 0.5% (w/v) Tween 80
- 102 TWCP82 emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 0.5% (w/v) Tween  
103 80 and 1% (w/v) citrus pectin with a degree of methylesterification of 82%
- 104 TWCP38 emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 0.5% (w/v) Tween  
105 80 and 1% (w/v) citrus pectin with a degree of methylesterification of 38%
- 106 TWCP10 emulsion: 5% (w/v) olive oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with 0.5% (w/v) Tween  
107 80 and 1% (w/v) citrus pectin with a degree of methylesterification of 10%
- 108

## 109 **1 Introduction**

110 Oil-in-water (o/w) emulsions are interesting delivery systems of lipophilic bioactive  
111 compounds, such as vitamins and antioxidants (McClements, 2010). These emulsions are  
112 thermodynamically unstable systems, consisting of dispersed oil droplets in a continuous,  
113 aqueous phase. Emulsifiers are often added to kinetically stabilize o/w emulsions and the type  
114 being used depends on the desired product shelf life, stability and functionality. Most  
115 commonly used emulsifier types in food industry are small molecule surfactants, biopolymers  
116 and phospholipids (McClements, 2016a). Besides, there is an increasing interest for more  
117 natural ingredients from both costumer and industry sides (McClements & Gumus, 2016;  
118 Alba & Kontogiorgos, 2017). Several proteins, polysaccharides and phospholipids belong to  
119 this category of emulsifiers which can be extracted from natural resources. In the past,  
120 extensive research was already performed to investigate the emulsifying properties of  
121 different proteins (e.g. whey protein,  $\beta$ -lactoglobulin and caseinates) to stabilize o/w  
122 emulsions (Dickinson, 1994; Elizalde, Bartholomai, & Pilosof, 1996; DEMETRIADES,  
123 COUPLAND, & McClements, 1997; Tokle & McClements, 2011; Qian et al., 2012). By  
124 contrast, only limited information is available regarding the emulsion stabilizing properties of  
125 certain polysaccharides and phospholipids. In this context, pectin represents an interesting  
126 polysaccharide, naturally present in plants.

127 Pectin is a group of polysaccharides rich in galacturonic acid (GalA) units and predominantly  
128 located in the primary cell wall and middle lamella of higher plants (Willats et al., 2001).  
129 Pectin can be extracted from several plant sources, but commercially available pectin sources  
130 are mainly citrus peel, apple pomace and sugar beet pulp (Chan et al., 2017). The variation in  
131 pectin structure and composition results in different functionalities of which its gel-forming  
132 capacity was extensively studied in the past (Lofgren et al., 2005; Fraeye et al., 2010;  
133 Ngouémazong et al., 2012). Recently, more attention is given to the emulsifying and

134 emulsion-stabilizing properties of pectin. These emulsifying and emulsion-stabilizing  
135 properties are determined by both intrinsic (e.g. degree of methylesterification, protein  
136 content, acetyl groups and molecular weight) as well as extrinsic (e.g. pectin concentration,  
137 pH and ionic strength) factors (Ngouémazong et al., 2015; Alba & Kontogiorgos, 2017).  
138 Pectin is a biopolymer used for its emulsion stabilization properties, because the addition of  
139 the polymer can lead to an increased viscosity of the aqueous phase of an o/w emulsion  
140 (Dickinson, 2003). In addition, it may confer negative charge ( $\text{pH} > \sim 3.5$ ) in the surrounding  
141 areas of oil droplets due to its anionic nature, contributing to the electrostatic stability of o/w  
142 emulsions (Morris, Foster, & Harding, 2000). However, it has been recently suggested that  
143 pectin might actually act as a surface active emulsifier. In this context, although being a  
144 water-soluble polymer, pectin might have some slightly hydrophobic moieties (e.g. acetyl  
145 groups and methylesters) that provide pectin the ability to adsorb at the oil-water interface  
146 (Schmidt et al., 2015b; Chen, Fu, & Luo, 2016; Schmidt, Schütz, & Schuchmann, 2017;  
147 Kpodo et al., 2018). For example, commercially available citrus pectin with medium (55%)  
148 and high (70% and 84%) degree of methylesterification is able to create stable emulsions at  
149 low pH (pH 2-4) (Schmidt et al., 2017). Nevertheless, the exact mechanism and the actual  
150 adsorption capacity remains unrevealed as well as the possible interactions between pectin  
151 and conventional emulsifiers in o/w emulsions.

152 Therefore, the first part of this work focuses on exploring the emulsifying properties of citrus  
153 pectin with distinct degree of methylesterification at low and neutral pH. More specifically,  
154 several physical characteristics of the different pectin samples are evaluated: pectin charge,  
155 hydrodynamic diameter and adsorbed layer thickness. In addition, a dynamic interfacial  
156 tension evaluation was performed and is measured for both pure pectin solutions as well as  
157 for pectin in presence of a conventional emulsifier, namely Tween 80. This dynamic  
158 evaluation allows the determination of both the adsorption rate as well as the final emulsion



159 surface tension value. In the second part, the emulsifying properties are evaluated during a  
160 short-term storage study using the different citrus pectin samples as single-emulsifier or in a  
161 multiple-emulsifier solution in which citrus pectin will be combined with a more  
162 conventional emulsifier, such as Tween 80 or phosphatidylcholine. It was hypothesized that  
163 possible interactions could occur in case of the multiple-emulsifier emulsions and therefore  
164 could influence the organization and stability of the emulsion. The overall results of this work  
165 lead to a proposed hypothesis on how pectin is organized in the different emulsions (pectin  
166 only, pectin combined with Tween 80 or pectin combined with phosphatidylcholine) at two  
167 distinct pH values, which was visualized by fluorescently labeling the pectin and  
168 corresponding microscopic images.

## 169 **2 Material and methods**

### 170 **2.1 Materials**

171 High methylesterified citrus pectin (HMP) was obtained from Sigma Aldrich (Diegem,  
172 Belgium) and used to prepare medium and low methylesterified citrus pectin (MMP and  
173 LMP, respectively). Orange carrots (*Daucus carota* cv. Nerac), kiwis (*Actinidia deliciosa* cv.  
174 Hayward) and olive oil were bought in a local shop. The carrots were peeled, cut into small  
175 pieces, frozen with liquid nitrogen and stored at -40 °C until extraction of pectin  
176 methylesterase (PME). The PME inhibitor was extracted from ripened kiwis. Melamine  
177 fluoride (MF) and polystyrene (PS) microspheres were purchased from microParticles GmbH  
178 (Berlin, Germany) and had an average diameter of 1.04 µm (± 0.03) and 1.05 µm (± 0.03),  
179 respectively. All analytical chemicals and reagents were purchased from Sigma Aldrich  
180 (Diegem, Belgium), VWR Chemicals (Leuven, Belgium) or Acros Organics (Geel, Belgium).  
181 Ultrapure water (organic free, 18.2 MΩ cm resistance) was used for all sample preparations  
182 and was supplied by a Simplicity™ 150 water purification system (Millipore, Billerica, USA).

### 183 **2.2 Pectin preparation**

184 MMP and LMP were obtained through enzymatic demethylesterification of HMP as  
185 described by Ngouémazong et al. (2011). Carrot pectin methylesterase (PME) removes  
186 methyl esters blockwise, creating long contiguous stretches of demethylesterified carboxylic  
187 groups (Jolie et al., 2010) which might be of interest for its emulsifying properties.  
188 First, the enzyme PME was extracted from carrots and purified according to the procedure  
189 described by Jolie et al. (2009). Briefly, carrot puree was mixed with Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8)  
190 containing 0.1 M NaCl (1:1.3 w/v) overnight at 4 °C to extract the PME from the carrots. The  
191 PME-extract was purified through affinity chromatography with PME inhibitor from kiwi  
192 and concentrated using different centrifugation steps (Vivaspin 20 with Molecular weight

193 cut-off =  $5 \times 10^3$  g/mol, Sartorius, Germany; JA-14 rotor, Beckman Coulter, USA). An  
194 automatic titration (718 STAT titrino, Metrohm, Switzerland) was used to determine PME  
195 activity and the concentrated PME-extract was stored at  $-80$  °C until further use. Secondly,  
196 pectin was demethylesterified by dissolving 0.8% CP82 in 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer  
197 (pH 7) and incubating this pectin solution with PME at  $30$  °C for different time periods. PME  
198 was inactivated by reducing the pH of the pectin solution to pH 4.5 and applying a heat shock  
199 (4 min,  $85$  °C) (Ngouémazong et al., 2011). Hereafter, the pectin solutions were immediately  
200 cooled ( $4$  °C) and the pH was adjusted to pH 6 so the carboxylic groups are negatively  
201 charged which is important for determining the DM (section 2.3). Finally, the pectin solutions  
202 were dialyzed for 48 hours (Spectra/Por<sup>®</sup>, Molecular weight cut-off =  $12-14 \times 10^3$  g/mol)  
203 against demineralized water at  $4$  °C and lyophilized (Christ Alpha 2-4 LSC, Germany).

### 204 **2.3 Pectin structure characterization**

205 The pectin samples obtained were characterized in terms of DM, absolute degree of  
206 blockiness ( $DB_{abs}$ ), molecular weight and protein content. The pectin DM was determined  
207 using Fourier transform infra-red (FT-IR) spectroscopy (IRAffinity-1, Shimadzu, Japan)  
208 following the method and calibration curve described by Kyomugasho et al. (2015). Since the  
209 mother pectin was enzymatically modified, a blockwise organization of the carboxylic groups  
210 is expected. Therefore, the  $DB_{abs}$  was estimated using the polynomial function determined by  
211 Ngouémazong et al. (2011), which quantitatively represents the distribution pattern of  
212 methylesters in each pectin sample. The procedure of Shpigelman et al. (2014) was used to  
213 evaluate the molecular weight distributions of the different pectin samples. High performance  
214 size exclusion chromatography (HPSEC) was used to elute pectin structures based on their  
215 hydrodynamic volume. Pectin samples (2% w/v) were dissolved in ultrapure water and  
216 incubated at  $65$  °C for 15 minutes to facilitate subsequent filtration. Subsequently, these  
217 pectin solutions were filtered (Chromafil PET filter,  $0.45$   $\mu$ m pore size, 25 mm diameter) and

218 injected (100  $\mu$ L). The HPLC system was equipped with a series of three columns  
219 (Ultrahydrogel 250, 1000 and 2000; Waters, Milford, USA) kept at 35 °C and different  
220 detectors, namely a multi-angle laser light scattering (MALS) detector (PN3621, Postnova  
221 analytics, Germany), a refractive index (RI) detector (Shodex RI-101, Showa Denko K.K.,  
222 Kawasaki, Japan), a diode array detector (DAD) (Agilent Technologies, Diegem, Belgium)  
223 and a viscometer (PN3310, Postnova analytics, Landsberg am Lech, Germany). A flow rate  
224 of 0.5 mL/min of 0.1 M acetic acid buffer with 0.1 M NaNO<sub>3</sub> was applied. The molecular  
225 weight of all samples was obtained using the software provided by the MALS detector  
226 manufacturer (NovaMALS 1.2.0.0, Postnova analytics, Germany) (Shpigelman et al., 2014)  
227 and the dn/dc value was taken as 0.146 mL/g (Shpigelman et al., 2014). Lastly, the Dumas  
228 method was used to determine the protein content of all pectin samples, since proteins have  
229 emulsifying properties. An automatic elemental analyzer (Carlo-Erba EA1108, Thermo  
230 Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to measure the nitrogen content of each pectin  
231 sample. A conversion factor of 6.25 was applied to calculate the protein content. The analysis  
232 was performed in duplicate.

#### 233 **2.4 Exploring the emulsifying properties of citrus pectin**

234 The different pectin samples were investigated at the level of their emulsifying properties.  
235 For that reason, the effect of the pectin concentration and pH was evaluated on the pectin  
236 electrical charge (section 2.4.1). Additionally, the hydrodynamic diameter and adsorbed layer  
237 thickness of the different pectin samples were measured as an attempt to study the colloidal  
238 size of the biopolymer in aqueous solution and the capacity to adsorb to different particle  
239 surfaces, respectively (sections 2.4.2 and 2.4.3, respectively). Lastly, the dynamic interfacial  
240 tension was measured to evaluate the surface active properties of the emulsifiers studied  
241 (section 2.4.4).

#### 242 **2.4.1 $\zeta$ -potential**

243 The emulsifying potential of pectin was explored firstly through the determination of pectins  
244  $\zeta$ -potential at different concentrations using an automated capillary electrophoresis equipment  
245 (Zetasizer NanoZS, Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, UK). Different pectin  
246 concentrations (0.25-3% w/v) were prepared in ultrapure water and the pH was afterwards  
247 adjusted to pH 3 or 7 with HCl or NaOH, respectively. Pectin solutions were further diluted  
248 1:100 (v/v) with ultrapure water set at pH 3 or 7 and transferred into a capillary cell having  
249 two electrodes. An electrical voltage was applied over the electrodes, resulting in particle  
250 movement which was influenced by the particle charge. The velocity of the hydrocolloid was  
251 monitored and used to determine the electrophoretic mobility. Finally, the equation of Henry  
252 was applied by the instrument's software to determine the  $\zeta$ -potential of the measured  
253 particles. A similar measurement was performed with 1% (w/v) pectin solutions in a broad  
254 pH range (2-7) to evaluate the charge of the different pectin structures in the pH range of  
255 plant-based food systems. All  $\zeta$ -potential measurements were performed in duplicate.

#### 256 **2.4.2 Hydrodynamic diameter**

257 The hydrodynamic diameter of the different pectin samples was measured to evaluate the size  
258 of the pectin with different DM in solution and the impact of pH on this size, according to the  
259 procedure described by Schmidt, Schütz & Schuchmann (2017). Briefly, solutions with  
260 different pectin concentrations (0.01-0.25% v/v) were prepared at pH 3 as well as pH 7.  
261 These pectin solutions were further diluted 1:1 with ultrapure water (pH 3 or 7, respectively)  
262 and transferred into a macro UV-cuvette. Each concentration was measured twice in terms of  
263 size using the dynamic light scattering principle of the zetasizer instrument (Zetasizer  
264 NanoZS, Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, UK). Laser light was diffracted and energy  
265 was transferred, which accelerates the particle movement depending on their size. Analysis of  
266 this Brownian motion using the Stokes-Einstein relationship resulted in a particle size. Each

267 pectin concentration was measured twice with a minimum of 12 runs. The detected particle  
268 size was plotted against the corresponding pectin concentration and extrapolated to zero to  
269 obtain the hydrodynamic diameter of each pectin sample at a certain pH (Schmidt et al.,  
270 2017).

### 271 **2.4.3 Adsorbed layer thickness**

272 The adsorbed layer thickness of all pectin samples to both PS as well as MF microspheres  
273 was measured in order to investigate the possible pectin organization at a droplet surface.  
274 Both the PS particles as well as the pectin samples are negatively charged at low pH, giving  
275 an indication about the hydrophobic interactions occurring with pectin. Oppositely, the MF  
276 microspheres are positively charged at low pH, which could give more information about the  
277 electrostatic interactions with pectin. Briefly, a 2% (w/v) pectin solution (pH 3 or 7) was  
278 mixed 1:1 overnight with 0.5% (v/v) microspheres (pH 3 or 7) as described by Schmidt et al.  
279 (2017). The particle size in this mixture was measured in triplicate using the zetasizer  
280 instrument, as described above. As the size of the PS and MF microspheres was known  
281 (section 2.1), the adsorbed pectin layer thickness could be calculated from the difference in  
282 size measured for adsorbed and non-adsorbed MF or PS microspheres.

### 283 **2.4.4 Dynamic interfacial tension**

284 Finally, a pendant drop tensiometer (CAM 200, KSV Instruments, Finland) was used as  
285 described by Dopierala et al. (2011) to evaluate the change in interfacial tension caused by  
286 the different pectin samples in comparison with a conventional emulsifier, namely Tween 80  
287 (TW). Pectin single-solutions (1% w/v, pH 3 or 7) were prepared and used for the  
288 measurement as such or as multiple-emulsifier solutions in combination with 0.5% (w/v) TW.  
289 In this way, the emulsifying potential of the individual and combined emulsifier structures  
290 can be explored as an indication of possible competitive adsorption. Purified olive oil was  
291 used to form a droplet at the tip of a U-shaped needle, while the emulsifier solutions were

292 located in a cuvette. The olive oil was purified to remove all surface-active molecules by  
293 following the procedure of Bahtz et al. (2009), with some minor modifications. Briefly, 10 g  
294 Florisil was rotated for 2 hours with 50 mL of olive oil, whereafter the oil was filtered and  
295 stored in dark until use. It was opted to use purified olive oil for the experiments to study the  
296 effect of the emulsifier(s) only on the change in interfacial tension. The pendant drop  
297 measurements recording the changes in the interfacial tension were performed for 2 hours  
298 and in duplicate.

## 299 **2.5 Emulsion preparation**

300 O/w emulsions were prepared by mixing 5% (w/v) olive oil and an emulsifier solution for 10  
301 minutes at 9500 rpm (Ultra-Turrax T25, IKA, Staufen, Germany), resulting in a coarse  
302 emulsion. The emulsifier concentration in solution depended on the emulsifier type, namely  
303 0.5% (w/v) TW, 1% (w/v) citrus pectin (CP), 1% (w/v) phosphatidylcholine (PC) or a  
304 combination of these emulsifiers (TWCP or PCCP) was used to stabilize the emulsions. The  
305 coarse emulsion was further stabilised by applying a high pressure homogenisation step at  
306 100 MPa (Pressure Cell Homogenizer, Stansted Fluid Power LTD., UK). The pH of all  
307 emulsions was adjusted to pH 3 or pH 7 using HCl or NaOH. The emulsions were stored at 4  
308 °C, protected from light and oxygen. An emulsion stabilised with 0.5% Tween 80 and 1%  
309 citrus pectin with a DM of 82 will be indicated as 'TWCP82'. Overall, 11 different emulsion  
310 types were prepared and studied at both pH 3 and 7, in analogy being referred to as TW;  
311 CP82; CP38; CP10; TWCP82; TWCP38; TWCP10; PC; PCCP82; PCCP38 and PCCP10.  
312 The emulsions stabilized by one emulsifier type (i.e. TW; PC and CP) will be called 'single-  
313 emulsifier stabilized emulsions', while the emulsions stabilized by citrus pectin in  
314 combination with Tween 80 or phosphatidylcholine (i.e. TWCP and PCCP) will be referred  
315 to as 'multiple-emulsifier stabilized emulsions'.

## 316 **2.6 Physicochemical stability of emulsions**

317 The physicochemical stability of all emulsions was evaluated by performing a storage  
318 experiment. All emulsions were stored at 4 °C for 4 days. The particle electrical charge,  
319 particle size and creaming index of all emulsions was determined, and visually monitored by  
320 taking photographic images.

### 321 **2.6.1 Particle electrical charge**

322 The oil droplets  $\zeta$ -potential was measured based on the principle of electrophoretic mobility  
323 and dynamic light scattering using an automated capillary electrophoresis equipment  
324 (Zetasizer NanoZS, Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, UK). Samples were prepared and  
325 measured as described before (section 2.4). The  $\zeta$ -potential obtained describes the charge of  
326 the measured oil droplet.

### 327 **2.6.2 Particle size**

328 A laser diffraction equipment (Beckman Coulter Inc., LS 13 320, Miami, Florida, USA) was  
329 used to determine the particle size of the emulsions. Emulsions were shaken, brought into a  
330 stirring tank filled with demineralized water and pumped (speed 30%) to the measurement  
331 cells. There, particles diffract the laser light (wavelength main illumination source: 750 nm;  
332 wavelengths halogen light for Polarization Intensity Differential Scattering (PIDS): 450 nm;  
333 600 nm; 900 nm) whereafter the intensity is detected, analyzed with the Fraunhofer model  
334 and transformed to particle sizes. The reported  $d_{43}$  value is the mean volume-weighted  
335 particle size. Volume-weighted particle sizes were preferred as these are more prone to the  
336 presence of a small amount of large particles and so is a more sensitive indicator for  
337 emulsions instability than surface-weighted particle sizes.



### 338 **2.6.3 Creaming index**

339 The creaming index of the emulsions was measured daily. Capped, glass tubes were filled  
340 with 5 mL of emulsion and the total height was measured using a caliper (Mitutoyo Belgium,  
341 Kruibeke, Belgium). The height of the upper cream layer was measured daily, allowing to  
342 calculate the creaming index. The creaming index (%) is expressed as the ratio of the height  
343 of the upper, cream layer (mm) to the height of the total emulsion (mm). Tubes used for  
344 determination of the creaming index were not shaken during this storage experiment.

### 345 **2.7 Visualization of the microstructure of citrus pectin-based coarse emulsions**

346 The microstructure of the pectin containing emulsions were visualized using fluorescent  
347 microscopy as described by Nordmark & Ziegler (2000) with the aim of visually  
348 strengthening the proposed stabilizing mechanisms of the emulsions under consideration.  
349 More specifically, each pectin sample was labeled with the non-ionic fluorescent dye  
350 BODIPY FL hydrazide (4,4-difluoro-5,7-dimethyl-4-bora-3a,4adiaza-s-indacene-3-  
351 propionylhydrazide). As described in section 2.5, coarse emulsions were prepared by mixing  
352 5% (w/v) olive oil with an emulsifier solution (10 minutes at 9500 rpm), containing 1% (w/v)  
353 CP, a combination of 0.5% TW and 1% CP or a combination of 1% PC and 1% CP. The  
354 acidity of these coarse emulsions was adjusted to pH 3 or 7. Hereafter, the microstructure of  
355 each coarse emulsion was visualized using the Olympus BX-41 microscope (Olympus,  
356 Optical Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) equipped with epifluorescence illumination (X-Cite  
357 Fluorescence Illumination, Series 120Q EXFO Europe, Hants, United Kingdom) and Image-  
358 analysis software (cell\*, Soft Imaging System, Münster, Germany). It was opted to visualize  
359 the microstructure of the coarse emulsion since oil droplets of this particle size can be better  
360 visualized in comparison to oil droplets with smaller particle sizes as a consequence of high  
361 pressure homogenization of the coarse emulsion. All images were taken with the same  
362 settings.

## 363 **2.8 Statistical analysis**

364 All statistical analyzes were performed using the statistical software JMP (JMP Pro13, SAS  
365 Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Significant differences in hydrodynamic diameter and pectin  
366 adsorption thickness were determined calculating the 95% confidence intervals. One way  
367 ANOVA and Tukey's Studentized Range Post-hoc test with a 95% level of significance  
368 ( $p < 0.05$ ) was used to evaluate significant differences in particle charge and size of all  
369 samples.

## 370 **3 Results and discussion**

### 371 **3.1 Emulsifying properties of citrus pectin with different degree of** 372 **methylesterification**

373 In a first part, the emulsifying potential of citrus pectin with different DM was evaluated  
374 based on different structural and physical characteristics. The results obtained are described  
375 in detail in the following sections.

#### 376 **3.1.1 Structural properties of citrus pectin**

377 All results regarding the structural properties of the citrus pectin samples are summarized in  
378 **Table 1**. The average DM of each pectin sample was measured. The values obtained for  
379 HMP, MMP and LMP were 82.2% ( $\pm 1.2$ ), 38.3% ( $\pm 0.9$ ) and 10.4% ( $\pm 1.0$ ), respectively.  
380 Therefore, these pectin samples will be further referred to as CP82, CP38 and CP10. It must  
381 be noted that these values are averages, representing the DM of the main population of the  
382 pectin samples. In addition, the  $DB_{abs}$  was calculated and the resulting values were 10.8% ( $\pm$   
383 0.9); 51.0% ( $\pm 1.0$ ) and 85.9% ( $\pm 1.3$ ) for CP82, CP38 and CP10, respectively. As expected  
384 (Celus et al., 2018), enzymatically decreasing the DM resulted in an increased  $DB_{abs}$ . The  
385 molecular weight was determined as this could influence the emulsifying properties of pectin  
386 (Akhtar et al., 2002; Leroux et al., 2003). The resulting weight-average molecular weights  
387 were  $58.7 \pm 1.3 \times 10^3$  g/mol,  $54.5 \pm 2.0 \times 10^3$  g/mol and  $54.1 \pm 1.2 \times 10^3$  g/mol for CP82,  
388 CP38 and CP10, respectively. These results show that the use of PME for the reduction of  
389 pectin DM did not significantly change the molecular weight. Additionally, the concentration  
390 distribution as function of elution time of the different pectin samples is shown in **Figure 1**.  
391 Lastly, the protein content of the pectin samples was evaluated since these functional units  
392 can improve the emulsifying potential of pectin by acting as hydrophobic anchors at the  
393 interface (Alba & Kontogiorgos, 2017). The protein content was 1.72% ( $\pm 0.01$ ), 1.44%

394 ( $\pm 0.01$ ) and 1.55% ( $\pm 0.03$ ) for CP82, CP38 and CP10, respectively. These values are  
395 comparable to the ones of apple pectin ( $\sim 1.6\%$ ) (Kravtchenko, Voragen, & Pilnik, 1992), but  
396 rather low compared to the protein content of sugar beet pectin ( $\sim 5\%$ ) (Chen et al., 2016),  
397 tomato serum pectin ( $\sim 11\%$ ) or broccoli serum pectin (up to  $\sim 33\%$ ) (Santiago et al., 2018).  
398 Therefore, it is assumed that the protein content will only have a minor influence on the  
399 emulsifying properties of the pectin samples studied. To conclude, the results of the structural  
400 characterization of the different pectin samples allows to attribute possible differences in  
401 emulsifying potential of citrus pectin to its degree of methylesterification only.

### 402 **3.1.2 Pectin electrical charge as function of concentration and pH**

403 Pectin polymers are built up from galacturonic acid units which can be methylesterified at the  
404 C-6 carboxyl group (Mohnen, 2008). These carboxylic groups can be negatively charged  
405 depending on the pH of the continuous phase and will influence the functional properties of  
406 the pectin structure (Sila et al., 2009). Therefore, the  $\zeta$ -potential of the different pectin  
407 samples (CP82, CP38 and CP10) was measured in terms of pectin concentration and pH of  
408 the aqueous phase (**Figure 2A and B**, respectively).

409 In general, negative charges were observed, showing that the CP samples are anionic as was  
410 expected. The effect of pectin concentration on the charge of pectin was limited. From a 0.75-  
411 1% (w/v) pectin concentration onwards, the charge did not significantly change. Therefore, a  
412 1% (w/v) pectin concentration was chosen to conduct the following experiments. Moreover,  
413 previous research showed that oil-in-water (o/w) emulsions with small initial oil droplet sizes  
414 could be produced with a pectin concentration of 1% (Verrijssen et al., 2014; Schmidt et al.,  
415 2015a). From **Figure 2B** it can be seen that pectin solutions at low pH (pH 2) barely carried  
416 any charge (-8 to 0 mV). The increase of pH allowed proton release from the free carboxyl  
417 groups present in the pectin structure, resulting in a higher charge density of the pectin  
418 chains. For example, the  $\zeta$ -potential of a 1% CP95 solution changed from -7.6 mV to -34.1

419 mV when the acidity of the solution was altered from pH 3 to pH 7. Moreover, the DM had a  
420 significant impact on the  $\zeta$ -potential change, as more demethylesterified pectin can carry  
421 more negative charges. For instance, the  $\zeta$ -potential dropped from -7.6 mV to -20.1 mV and -  
422 21.0 mV, when the pectin DM decreased from 82% to respectively, 38% and 10% at pH 3.  
423 Similar observations apply to and were even more distinct in case of the pectin solutions at  
424 pH 7. Upon reaching the pKa value (around 3.38 to 4.10), 50% of the free carboxyl groups  
425 are negatively charged and an inflection point in the curve was observed (**Figure 2B**). Lastly,  
426 it could be noted that even below the pKa, pectin structures carry a negative charge, which  
427 was more pronounced for pectin with lower DM. Two pH levels were selected to be further  
428 studied, namely pH 3 and 7 as these conditions are relevant for the acidity of fruit- and  
429 vegetable-based products as well as the acidity of the gastric and small intestinal phase. The  
430 latter can be of interest for future work, since the emulsion stability along the digestive tract  
431 can determine the (lipid) digestion extent (Verkempinck et al., 2018).

### 432 **3.1.3 Hydrodynamic diameter of citrus pectin samples**

433 The hydrodynamic diameter  $D_h$  of the different pectin samples is presented in **Table 2**. In  
434 general, a higher  $D_h$  was observed for the samples having a higher particle charge. At pH 3,  
435 no significant differences were observed between CP82 and CP38 (227-230 nm), while their  
436  $D_h$  is significantly smaller than the one of CP10 (270 nm). All pectin samples carried almost  
437 no charges at pH 3 (**Figure 2B**) since this pH was below the pKa value of the pectin  
438 structures (section 3.1.2). Nevertheless, a small fraction of carboxyl groups of CP10 was  
439 ionized, probably leading to some intramolecular repulsion and an increased  $D_h$  compared to  
440 CP82 and CP38. By contrast, at pH 7, all three pectin samples had a significantly different  
441  $D_h$ , which was increasing with a decreasing pectin DM. At pH 7, all pectin samples are above  
442 their pKa value, resulting in a large fraction of negatively charged carboxyl groups (section  
443 3.1.2). The presence of these negative charges caused inter- and intramolecular repulsion,

444 leading to an increased  $D_h$  of all pectin samples compared to the  $D_h$  at pH 3. Moreover, the  
445 lower the DM, the more negatively charged carboxylic groups were present in the pectin  
446 structure (CP10 > CP38 > CP82). Therefore, it can be postulated that the intramolecular  
447 repulsion was most pronounced for CP10, resulting an increased volume occupation and thus  
448  $D_h$ . The results obtained were of the same magnitude as those reported by Schmidt et al.  
449 (2017). For example, citrus pectin with a DM of 84% at pH 3 had a  $D_h$  of around 280 nm in  
450 their study. Additionally, and similar to our results, these researchers showed that the  
451 differences in  $D_h$  between citrus pectin samples with different DM is more pronounced with  
452 increasing pH.

#### 453 **3.1.4 Adsorbed layer thickness of pectin**

454 In order to evaluate the possible organization of pectin at an oil-water interface, the pectin  
455 adsorbed layer thickness was determined of the different pectin samples, using polystyrene  
456 (PS) and melamine fluoride (MF) microspheres with a known diameter ( $1.04 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{m}$  and  
457  $1.05 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively). The PS microspheres were negatively charged, while the MF  
458 microspheres were positively charged. The results obtained are shown in **Table 3**.  
459 Determination of the 95% confidence intervals showed no significant differences in the  
460 pectin layer thickness adsorbed for the different pectin samples at pH 3 with both  
461 microsphere types. In case of the PS microspheres, the adsorbed layer had a size of 989-1064  
462 nm which is around 4 times the hydrodynamic volume of pectin (section 3.1.3). The adsorbed  
463 layer at the MF particles was somewhat smaller and had a size of 826-886 nm. These  
464 observations led to the hypothesis that the almost neutral pectin samples (section 3.1.2) can  
465 adsorb at the particle in multilayers. Similar observations were made with okra and sugar beet  
466 pectin (Alba, Sagis & Kontogiorgos (2016) and Siew et al. (2008), respectively), and were  
467 partially attributed to the lower hydrodynamic diameter of pectin at low pH, allowing pectin  
468 to adsorb at the interface in a multilayered way. This type of steric organization was

469 visualized by Alba & Kontogiorgos (2017). In **Figure 3**, a schematic representation of our  
470 hypothetical organization of pectin at the oil-water interface is shown. The small difference in  
471 adsorbed layer thickness at the PS and MF particles could be attributed to the different  
472 functional groups determining the charge of the microspheres. Methylol and imino groups  
473 bring a positive charge to the MF particles, while sulfate groups produce a negative charge  
474 for the PS particles. It can be hypothesized that the negatively charged pectin samples can  
475 form a more compact multilayer when adsorbing to an opposite charged surface, namely the  
476 positively charged MF particles.

477 The layer thickness of the adsorbed pectin structures was of different sizes at pH 7 (**Table 3**).  
478 At high pH, the pectin conformation is more extended as almost all carboxyl groups are  
479 ionized (i.e. section 3.1.2). Consequently, more inter- and intramolecular repulsion occurs  
480 which can lead to fewer groups adsorbing at the oil-water interface (Alba & Kontogiorgos,  
481 2017). It can be postulated that at high pH, pectin is adsorbing to droplets in a loop-tail way  
482 and stabilizes the droplet in an electrostatic way. Hereby, the hydrophobic regions (such as  
483 acetyl and methyl groups) attach at the oil-water interface, while the hydrophilic regions  
484 (charged galacturonic acid components) stay in the continuous phase. Especially in case of  
485 CP38 and CP10, its structures can support this hypothesis since these pectin samples have a  
486 blockwise organization of carboxylic groups created by the enzymatic demethylesterification  
487 treatment by plantPME. The loop-tail organization of pectin was visualized by Leroux et al.  
488 (2003) and more recently by Alba & Kontogiorgos (2017). In **Figure 3**, we depict our  
489 hypothetical drawing of the organization of HMP and LMP at the oil-water interface in a  
490 neutral environment. The adsorbed pectin layer thickness of the pectin samples at pH 7 were  
491 of different magnitude in comparison to pH 3. This could be attributed to the negative  
492 charges of CP which increased with a lower pectin DM. The lower the pectin DM is, the  
493 more negative charges will be present at pH 7 (**Figure 2B**) and the less flexible the pectin

494 structure will be (Morris et al., 2000). Hence, it can be assumed that the lower the pectin DM  
495 is, the more extended the organization will be at the droplet interface leading to a larger  
496 adsorbed layer thickness and more exposed interface.

### 497 **3.1.5 Evaluation of the oil droplet interfacial tension**

498 **Figure 4** shows the results obtained of the dynamic interfacial tension of an olive oil droplet  
499 present in a single-emulsifier solution (0.5% TW or 1% CP with different DM) or multiple-  
500 emulsifier solution (0.5% TW mixed with 1% CP with different DM) at pH 3 and 7. As a  
501 reference, the interfacial tension of the purified olive oil was measured against ultrapure  
502 water at pH 3 or 7. It could be observed that, for this reference, the interfacial tension only  
503 slightly changes, showing that the olive oil was relatively free of surface-active components,  
504 such as polyphenols.

505 In general, it could be observed that all emulsifier solutions were able to decrease the  
506 interfacial tension of the olive oil droplet (**Figure 4**). In addition, no effect of pH of the  
507 emulsifier solutions was detected.

508 Of all single-emulsifier solutions, the TW solution was the fastest in decreasing the oil  
509 droplet interfacial tension and the final interfacial tension reached, was the lowest of all  
510 conditions studied. The former could be attributed to the lower molecular weight of TW  
511 ( $\approx 1200\text{-}1350$  Da) in comparison with the CP samples ( $\approx 60 \times 10^3$  g/mol; section 2.3).

512 Therefore, it can be postulated that TW can adsorb much faster to the oil-water interface and  
513 subsequently decreases the interfacial tension. Among the CP samples, an effect of pectin  
514 DM on the change in interfacial tension could be observed. The CP82 single-emulsifier  
515 decreased the interfacial tension of the oil droplet to a lower plateau value than the CP38 and  
516 CP10 single-emulsifiers both at pH 3 as well as pH 7. HMP can be assumed to have a more  
517 hydrophobic character compared to MMP and LMP as a limited number of chargeable  
518 carboxyl groups are present. Consequently, it has long stretches which are methylesterified



519 causing CP82 to occupy the oil-water interface in a higher extent in comparison to CP38 and  
520 CP10.

521 In case of the multiple-emulsifier TWCP solutions, the rate with which the interfacial tension  
522 of the oil droplet is decreased is similar or even slightly faster than of the single-emulsifier  
523 TW solution. Consequently, it can be hypothesized that the TW emulsifier with low  
524 molecular weight adsorbed at the oil-water interface, while the CP structures remained in  
525 solution. In addition, the presence of both TW as well as CP in the multiple-emulsifier  
526 solution probably provided an additional driving force for TW to adsorb at the oil droplet,  
527 resulting in a faster decrease of the interfacial tension and lower final plateau values in  
528 comparison with the single-emulsifier TW. In these cases, no effect of pectin DM could be  
529 observed, which could be attributed to the assumption that CP did not adsorb at the oil-water  
530 interface, but remained in the surrounding medium.

### 531 **3.2 Physicochemical stability of emulsions with pectin addition**

532 Based on the results obtained in the first part of this study (section 3.1), it could be  
533 hypothesized that CP has emulsifying potential at both low as well as neutral pH. Therefore,  
534 o/w emulsions were created and stabilized with 0.5% TW, 1% PC, 1% CP with different DM  
535 or a combination of CP with TW or PC (i.e. TWCP and PCCP multiple-emulsifier stabilized  
536 emulsions, respectively). The pH of these emulsions was adjusted to pH 3 or 7, whereafter  
537 they were stored at 4 °C for 4 days. The physicochemical stability of all emulsions was  
538 evaluated by determination of the particle charge, particle size and creaming index, in  
539 combination with visual observations. The results obtained will be discussed in the following  
540 sections. It must be noted that non-purified olive oil was used, containing surface-active  
541 components such as polyphenols, which can attribute to emulsion stability by, for example,  
542 decreasing the interfacial tension (Dopierala et al., 2011). However, the use of non-purified  
543 olive oil was opted for since this comes more close to a realistic food system.

### 544 3.2.1 Electrical charge

545 The electrical charge of emulsified oil droplets was measured to evaluate the emulsifiers  
546 behavior at the interface and the interactions between the emulsified oil droplets and  
547 components present in the surrounding medium (e.g. pectin). **Figure 5** shows the results of  
548 the  $\zeta$ -potential of all emulsions in function of storage time at 4 °C. In general, it could be  
549 observed that the  $\zeta$ -potential did not dramatically change during the short storage experiment.  
550 The emulsions stabilized with the non-ionic TW was negatively charged at both pH 3 as well  
551 as pH 7, which might be attributed to the presence of impurities in the oil phase (i.e. free fatty  
552 acids; FFA) or the preferential adsorption of hydroxyl ions from the continuous phase to the  
553 hydrophilic head of the surfactants (McClements, 2016b). Oppositely, the emulsions  
554 stabilized with the zwitterionic (i.e. carrying both positive as well as negative charges)  
555 phosphatidylcholine (PC) presented a slightly positive charge at pH 3 which could be  
556 explained by the shielding of the negatively charged phosphate groups by hydrogen ions at  
557 low pH (Lin et al., 2014). The emulsions stabilized with pectin only presented a negative  
558 charge, influenced by both the DM of the pectin structures and the pH of the aqueous phase.  
559 The results showed that the pectin emulsions had a charge between -10 and -30 mV at pH 3  
560 (**Figure 5A**), whereby the emulsion charge became more negative with a decreased pectin  
561 DM as more chargeable non-methylesterified groups were present. At this low pH, the pectin  
562 samples were below their pKa value, but still some carboxylic groups were negatively  
563 charged as was described in section 3.1.2. At pH 7, the pectin emulsions presented even more  
564 negative charges as almost all carboxylic groups were negatively charged. The  $\zeta$ -potential of  
565 the emulsions stabilized with both TW and CP, had a similar particle charge as the TW  
566 emulsion (at both pH values studied) (**Figure 5B**). TW is a non-ionic surfactant with  
567 hydrophilic-lipophilic balance value 15 and a relatively low molecular weight, while all  
568 pectin samples had a much higher molecular weight of around  $60 \times 10^3$  g/mol (section 2.3). It

569 can be hypothesized that the small TW molecules adsorbed much faster at the oil-water  
570 interface during the homogenization step(s) than the large pectin structures. Hence, TW  
571 probably covered the complete oil droplet surface in case of these TWCP emulsions, while  
572 pectin remained in the aqueous phase. Consequently, the TWCP emulsions could exhibit the  
573 same charge pattern as the TW emulsion. This hypothesis is supported by the results  
574 discussed in section 3.1.5, showing that the TWCP combination reduced the interfacial  
575 tension as fast as in the emulsion where TW was solely present. By contrast, the PCCP  
576 multiple-emulsifier stabilized emulsions did not show the same charge pattern as the PC  
577 single-emulsifier stabilized emulsion, but an effect of pectin DM was observed. In the case of  
578 the PCCP emulsions, most likely both PC and pectin were located at the oil-water interface to  
579 a certain extent despite the low molecular weight of PC ( $\approx 758\text{-}810$  Da). PC is known to have  
580 an intermediate hydrophobicity (hydrophilic-lipophilic balance value of 2-8) and are often  
581 used in combination with other emulsifiers to form stable o/w emulsions (McClements &  
582 Gumus, 2016; McClements, 2016b).

### 583 **3.2.2 Creaming index, particle size and visual observations**

584 The physicochemical stability was evaluated by measuring the upper creaming layer formed,  
585 the emulsion particle sizes and by visual evaluation (images). The results from these analysis  
586 can be evaluated in **Figure 6, Figure 7, Figure 8 and Figure 9**.

587 TW emulsions at both pH 3 and 7 remained stable for 4 days as no upper, cream layer was  
588 visible. Moreover, the mean particle size was around  $1.3\ \mu\text{m}$  and did not change over storage  
589 time, as is visualized by the particle size distribution. Similar particle sizes were observed by  
590 Salvia-Trujillo et al. (2017). These observations show that TW is efficient in stabilizing o/w  
591 emulsions.

592 Different observations were made for the PC emulsions, which were stable at pH 7 for 4  
593 days, but unstable at pH 3. The initial oil droplet size of the PC emulsion at pH 3 ( $1.61 \pm 0.10$

594  $\mu\text{m}$ ) was significantly higher than the initial oil droplet size of the PC emulsion at pH 7 ( $1.04$   
595  $\pm 0.01 \mu\text{m}$ ). Moreover, the former emulsion showed a shift to larger particle size over storage  
596 time ( $2.33 \pm 0.02 \mu\text{m}$ , day 4), while the latter emulsion remained stable in terms of particle  
597 size ( $1.02 \pm 0.02 \mu\text{m}$ , day 4). Research of Comas, Wagner & Tomás (2006) had similar  
598 findings and attributed this behavior to the swelling of phospholipids after acid addition.  
599 Consequently, the emulsifying capacity of the lecithin diminished leading to simultaneous  
600 creaming and coalescence phenomena.

601 In case of the pectin emulsions, formation of a cream layer was observed for all pectin  
602 samples at both pH 3 and 7. The cream layer was thicker at pH 7 in comparison with the  
603 emulsions at pH 3, except for the CP82 emulsion. The formation of this cream layer could be  
604 attributed to the more extended adsorption of pectin at the oil-water interface at high pH. In  
605 sections 3.1.3 and 3.1.4, it was described that on the one hand pectin at pH 7 showed a larger  
606 hydrodynamic diameter than at pH 3, and on the other hand organized itself differently at the  
607 oil droplet water interface at low or neutral pH. More specifically, at pH 7 it was  
608 hypothesized that pectin was adsorbing in a loop-tail way and the lower DM is, the more  
609 uncovered spaces were present at the oil droplet. In this way, the high pH might have caused  
610 the pectin emulsions to be less stable than at low pH. Nevertheless, a cream layer was also  
611 observed for the pectin emulsions a low pH and thus are also considered to be unstable.  
612 Additionally, the measured particle sizes only slightly increased after 4 days at both pH 3 and  
613 7. Therefore, the observed cream layer could be attributed to and bridging flocculation and  
614 limited coalescence. In addition, the particle size distributions presented a small intensity  
615 peak at larger particle sizes. All pectin emulsions had a particle size between  $1.5$  and  $2 \mu\text{m}$ ,  
616 showing that CP can be used to form small emulsified oil droplets. Similar droplet sizes were  
617 obtained for 1% CP emulsions formulated in a previous study of Verrijssen et al. (2015).

618 The multiple-emulsifier stabilized emulsions, i.e. TWCP and PCCP emulsions, showed a  
619 dramatic increase in the cream layer thickness after 1 day of storage, followed by a gradual  
620 decrease. Analyzing the images presented in **Figure 9**, complete phase separation was  
621 observed in these cases, attributed to the phenomena of depletion flocculation. The presence  
622 of pectin in the aqueous phase created an osmotic imbalance between the aqueous phase and  
623 the spaces around the oil droplets. This caused water migration from the intervening gap  
624 between the oil droplets to the continuous phase, whereby oil droplets were driven towards  
625 each other (Dickinson, 2003). Eventually these oil droplets moved upwards due to their lower  
626 density than water, so an upper, oil droplet layer and a lower, aqueous layer were observed.  
627 The depletion flocculation phenomena were also observed by Surh, Decker & McClements  
628 (2006), Gharsallaoui et al. (2010) and Qiu, Zhao & McClements (2015), however all studying  
629 emulsions stabilized with pectin and a certain protein type. The thickness of the cream layer  
630 was more extended for the PCCP emulsions than for the TWCP emulsions. It was  
631 hypothesized (section 3.2.1) that in the former, pectin was located to a certain extent at the  
632 oil-water interface, while all pectin was in the aqueous phase in the latter. Therefore, it could  
633 be postulated that the osmotic driving force in the PCCP emulsions was smaller in  
634 comparison to the TWCP emulsions. Consequently, for the PCCP emulsions the water  
635 migration went slower, leading to a thicker cream layer after 4 days of storage compared to  
636 the TWCP emulsions. Moreover, multiple-emulsifier stabilized emulsions at pH 7, showed an  
637 increased cream layer with decreasing pectin DM. This could be attributed to the more  
638 extended structure of CP10 and CP38 compared to CP82, as the presence of less compact  
639 pectin structures might have slowed down the water migration process. Only the reversible  
640 depletion flocculation phenomenon occurred in the case of the TWCP emulsions as the  
641 particle sizes and distributions of these emulsions remained stable during the time period  
642 studied (**Figure 7C, 7D and 8**). In the case of the PCCP emulsions, besides depletion

643 flocculation, also coalescence was observed as the particle size of the emulsions slightly  
644 increased over 4 days of storage (**Figure 7E, 7F and 8**).

### 645 **3.3 Microstructure of pectin-based emulsions**

646 In order to verify the hypothetical organization mechanism of pectin in the emulsions studied  
647 (**Figure 3**), microscopic images were taken with fluorescently labelled pectin present in  
648 coarse emulsions. In addition, control images of the CP82-based emulsions were taken  
649 without the dye at the same magnification and light intensity. Representative micrographs are  
650 depicted in **Figure 10**.

651 From the control images, it can be observed that autofluorescence is negligible. Therefore,  
652 fluorescent dye was added to visualize pectin. The addition of the small dye molecule is  
653 anticipated to have negligible influence on the microstructure of the emulsions.

654 In case of the single-emulsifier emulsions containing CP only, a clear difference could be  
655 visualized between the coarse emulsions with pH of 3 on the one hand and the coarse  
656 emulsions with a pH of 7 on the other hand. At pH 3, it was postulated (section 3.1) that  
657 pectin adsorbs at the oil-water interface in multilayers. The presence of pectin at the droplet  
658 surface can be confirmed by the fluorescent micrographs, whereby green-colored oil droplets  
659 are observed within a black background. This means that all pectin structures are located at  
660 the oil-water interface and none of the pectin remains in the surrounding medium. A different  
661 organization was observed at pH 7. All pectin samples carry a high negative charge at neutral  
662 pH, which induces inter- and intramolecular repulsion. Consequently, it was hypothesized  
663 that at neutral pH, the pectin adsorbs at the oil-water surface in a loop-tail way. This  
664 hypothesis is strengthened by the fluorescent micrographs since brown oil droplets were  
665 visualized in a green continuous phase. In other words, most of the pectin structures are  
666 located in the aqueous phase, while a few pectin structures can adsorb at the interface with

667 their hydrophobic groups attached to the oil droplet and their hydrophilic regions are very  
668 likely located in the continuous phase. Subsequently, the majority of the pectin fraction is  
669 located in the surrounding aqueous phase, as evidenced by the green fluorescence of the  
670 background.

671 For the multiple-emulsifier stabilized emulsions, containing both TW as well as CP, it was  
672 hypothesized that TW is present at the oil droplet surface and CP in the aqueous phase  
673 (section 3.1). Both for pH 3 as well as pH 7, this was confirmed by the microstructures  
674 visualized by fluorescent microscopy. These micrographs clearly show oil droplets (brown  
675 colored) surrounded by a fluorescent background (green colored aqueous phase), containing  
676 pectin.

677 Lastly, in the case of the PCCP emulsions, it was assumed that both emulsifier types were  
678 present at the oil-droplet interface for both pH levels studied (section 3.1). From the  
679 micrographs, it can be observed that flocculated structures were formed embedding the oil  
680 droplets. At pH 3, it is possible that a double emulsion was created, whereby the PC adsorbed  
681 first at the oil-water interface, followed by the negatively charged CP. This mechanism was  
682 also suggested by Guo et al. (2017). Surprisingly, these flocculated structures were also  
683 observed at pH 7, whereby both PC as well as CP are negatively charged. However, these  
684 flocs are broken after high pressure homogenization in both cases (micrographs not shown).

685 To conclude, the micrographs of the coarse emulsions containing pectin, confirm the  
686 hypotheses suggested in section 3.1. For the single-emulsifier CP emulsions, pectin is located  
687 at the oil-water interface in multilayers when the acidity is low. By contrast, pectin is  
688 organized in a loop-tail way in a neutral environment whereby the charged pectin stretches  
689 are present in the surrounding medium. In case of the TWCP emulsions, the assumption that  
690 TW adsorbs at the oil droplet, while pectin was located in the aqueous phase was confirmed  
691 by the micrographs. Lastly, in case of the PCCP emulsions, floc-like structures are created by

692 interactions between PC and CP, in which the oil droplets are embedded. For future work, it  
693 could be interesting to gain unambiguous information for all emulsions by visualization of  
694 the interface and structural organization in the aqueous phase by using for example cryo-  
695 scanning electron microscopy.



## 696 **4 Conclusions**

697 In the work presented in this paper, the emulsifying properties of citrus pectin with different  
698 degree of methylesterification (DM) were explored. Moreover, emulsions were prepared in  
699 which a commonly used emulsifier (Tween 80 or phosphatidylcholine) was combined with  
700 citrus pectin to evaluate the influence of the presence of pectin on the emulsion stability. It  
701 was shown that citrus pectin is a surface-active molecule as it was able to lower the  
702 interfacial tension of an oil droplet. Moreover, small initial oil droplets were created when  
703 pectin only was used to form an emulsion. In addition, citrus pectin stabilized the emulsions  
704 by both steric as well as electrostatic interactions, depending on the pectin DM and pH of the  
705 continuous phase. Nevertheless, visually a small cream layer was observed in the emulsions  
706 stabilized with pectin only. In the case where pectin was combined with Tween 80 or  
707 phosphatidylcholine for emulsion stabilization, a totally different behavior was observed.  
708 More specifically, a complete phase separation was detected, regardless of the pectin DM and  
709 the pH of the aqueous phase. The combination of two emulsifiers caused pectin to be  
710 (partially) in the continuous phase, creating an osmotic imbalance which led to the  
711 phenomena of depletion flocculation. This can be of relevance for food product design in  
712 which emulsions are mixed with pectin-containing ingredients. Nevertheless, the occurrence  
713 of irreversible destabilization phenomena (such as coalescence) was limited. In conclusion,  
714 this work showed the potential of citrus pectin as natural emulsifier and/or emulsion  
715 stabilizer. In this sense, small oil droplets could be created using pectin as an emulsifier and  
716 these emulsions remained stable during short-term storage. By contrast, there is still a  
717 challenge regarding the multiple-emulsifier stabilized emulsions which showed phase  
718 separation. For future work, it could also be interesting to visualize the emulsifier  
719 organization at the oil-water interface and in the aqueous phase by, for example, cryo-  
720 scanning electron microscopy. In addition, the emulsion behavior in presence of other

721 components (e.g. ions and proteins) could be studied. Lastly, the emulsion stability during  
722 digestion and its interactions with digestive components (e.g. bile, lipase and calcium) can be  
723 evaluated in perspective of food product design taking into account nutritional aspects as  
724 well.

725

## 726 **Acknowledgment**

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736

## 737 ***Declaration of interests***

738 The authors of the present work declare no conflict of interests.

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**Table 1: Summary of the structural properties of the pectin samples.**

<b>Sample code</b>	<b>DM (%)</b>	<b>DB<sub>abs</sub> (%)</b>	<b>M<sub>w</sub> (x 10<sup>3</sup> g/mol)</b>	<b>Protein content (%)</b>
<b>CP82</b>	82.2 ± 1.2	10.8 ± 0.9	58.7 ± 1.3	1.72 ± 0.01
<b>CP38</b>	38.3 ± 0.9	51.0 ± 1.0	54.5 ± 2.0	1.44 ± 0.01
<b>CP10</b>	10.4 ± 1.0	85.9 ± 1.3	54.1 ± 1.2	1.55 ± 0.03

885



886 **Table 2: Hydrodynamic diameter  $D_h$  (nm) of the citrus pectin (CP) samples with different**  
887 **degree of methylesterification (DM; 82, 38 or 10%), measured at both pH 3 as well as pH 7.**  
888 **Different letters indicate significant differences among the samples (95% confidence interval).**

<b>Hydrodynamic diameter (nm)</b>	
<b>CP82 pH 3</b>	$229.8 \pm 5.7^a$
<b>CP38 pH 3</b>	$227.0 \pm 6.2^a$
<b>CP10 pH 3</b>	$269.8 \pm 7.9^b$
<b>CP82 pH 7</b>	$259.8 \pm 6.2^b$
<b>CP38 pH 7</b>	$312.5 \pm 6.2^c$
<b>CP10 pH 7</b>	$350.2 \pm 7.2^d$

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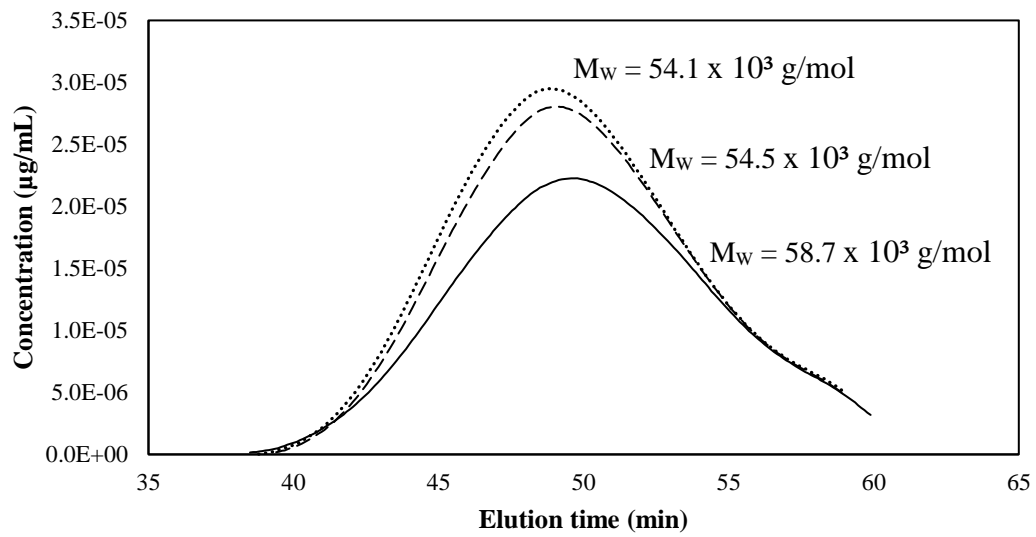
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891 **Table 3: Adsorbed layer thickness (nm) of the citrus pectin (CP) samples with different degree**  
 892 **of methylesterification (DM; 82, 38 or 10%) onto polystyrene (PS) and melamine fluoride (MF)**  
 893 **microspheres, measured at both pH 3 as well as pH 7. Different letters in the same**  
 894 **column indicate significant differences among the samples (95% confidence interval).**

Adsorbed layer thickness (nm)				
	PS		MF	
	pH 3	pH 7	pH 3	pH 7
<b>CP82</b>	1064.3 ± 84.4 <sup>a</sup>	556.8 ± 26.7 <sup>b</sup>	826.0 ± 141.2 <sup>a</sup>	403.7 ± 52.6 <sup>b</sup>
<b>CP38</b>	989.0 ± 109.2 <sup>a</sup>	868.9 ± 56.7 <sup>a</sup>	865.5 ± 114.6 <sup>a</sup>	828.5 ± 31.9 <sup>a</sup>
<b>CP10</b>	1009.3 ± 134.7 <sup>a</sup>	1045.2 ± 94.4 <sup>a</sup>	885.9 ± 96.4 <sup>a</sup>	1030.5 ± 160.3 <sup>a</sup>

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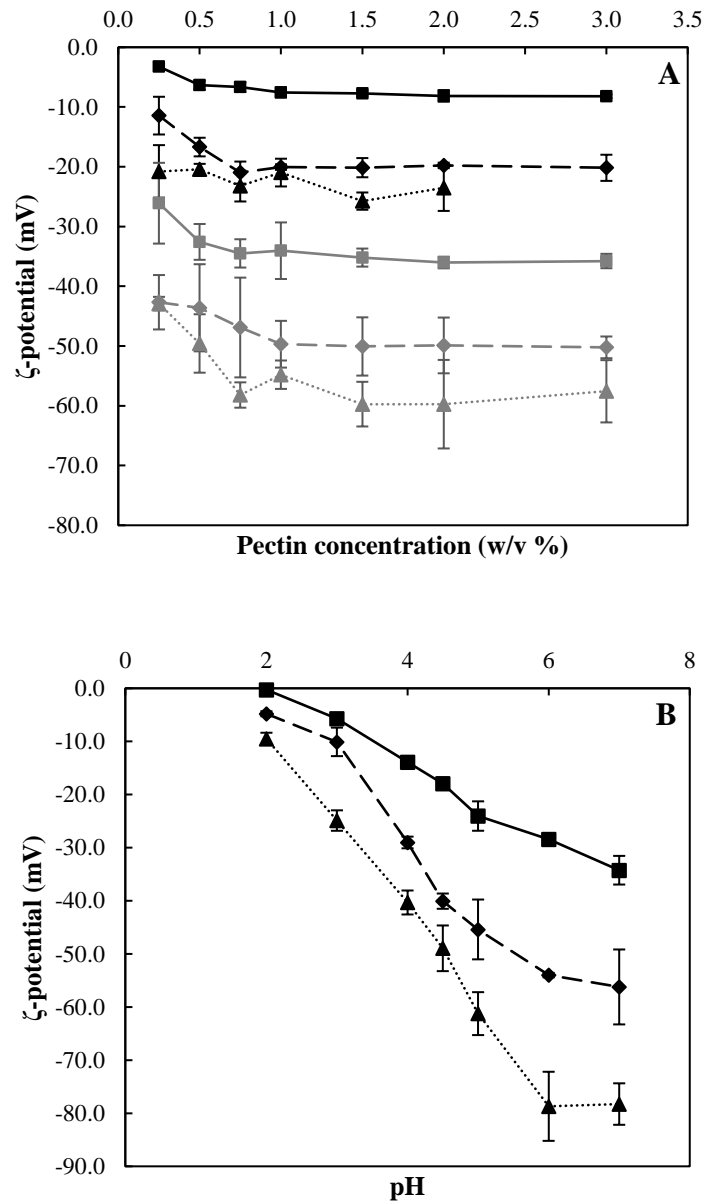
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**Figure 1: Concentration profile and corresponding weight-average molecular weight ( $M_w$ ) of the pectin samples (full line: CP82; dashed line: CP38 and dotted line: CP10).**

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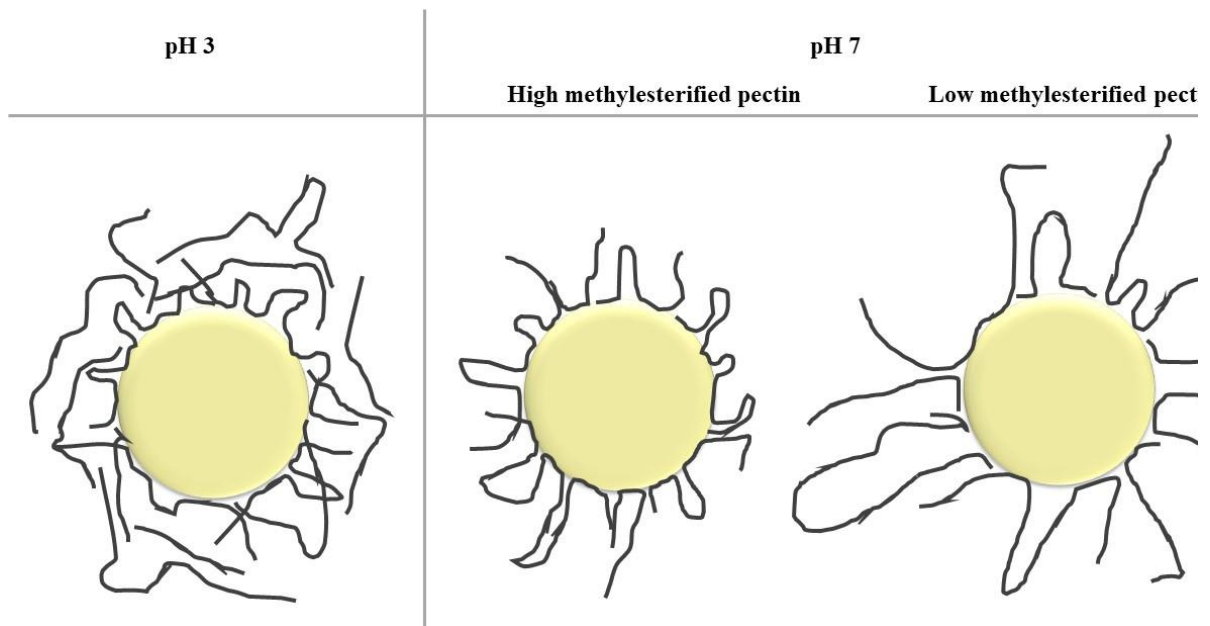
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**Figure 2: The  $\zeta$ -potential of different citrus pectin structures with different degree of methylesterification (■ 82%, ◆ 38% or ▲ 10%) as function of (A) pectin concentration (black: pH 3; grey pH 7) and (B) pH of the continuous phase (1% w/v pectin solution).**

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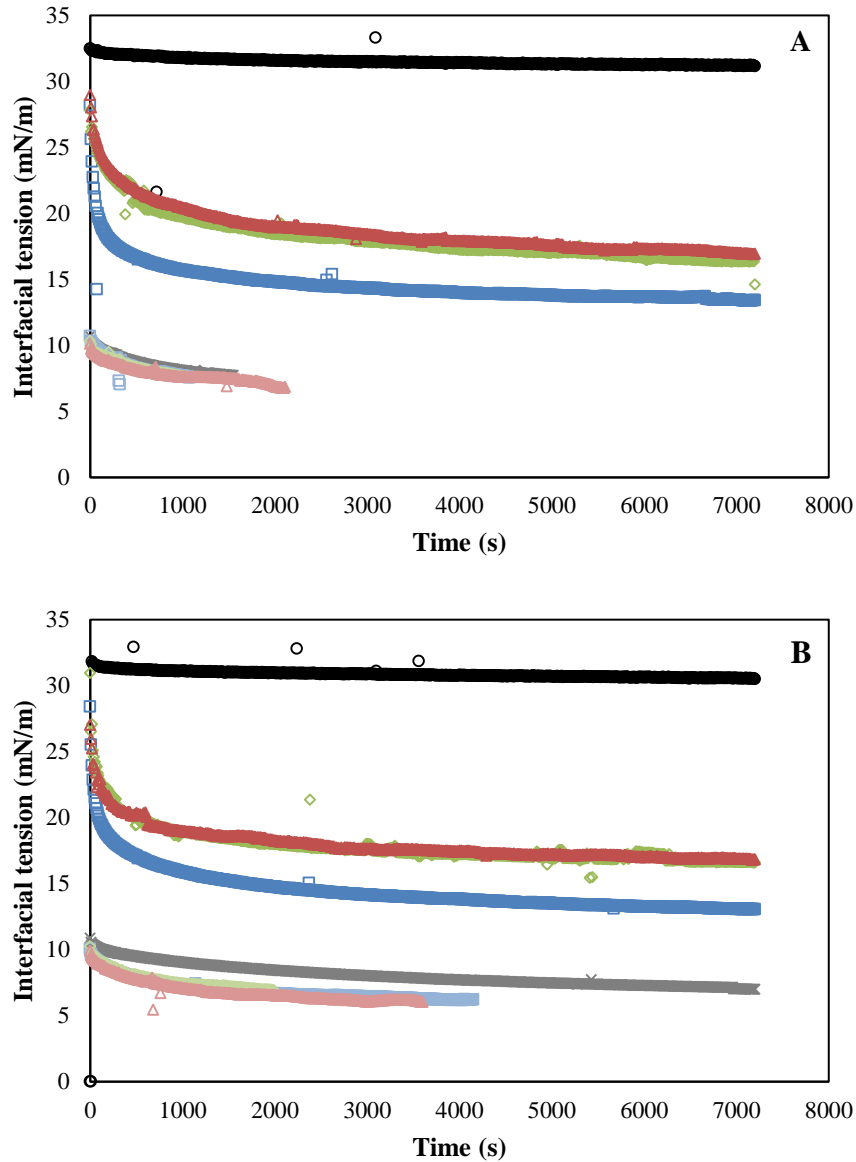
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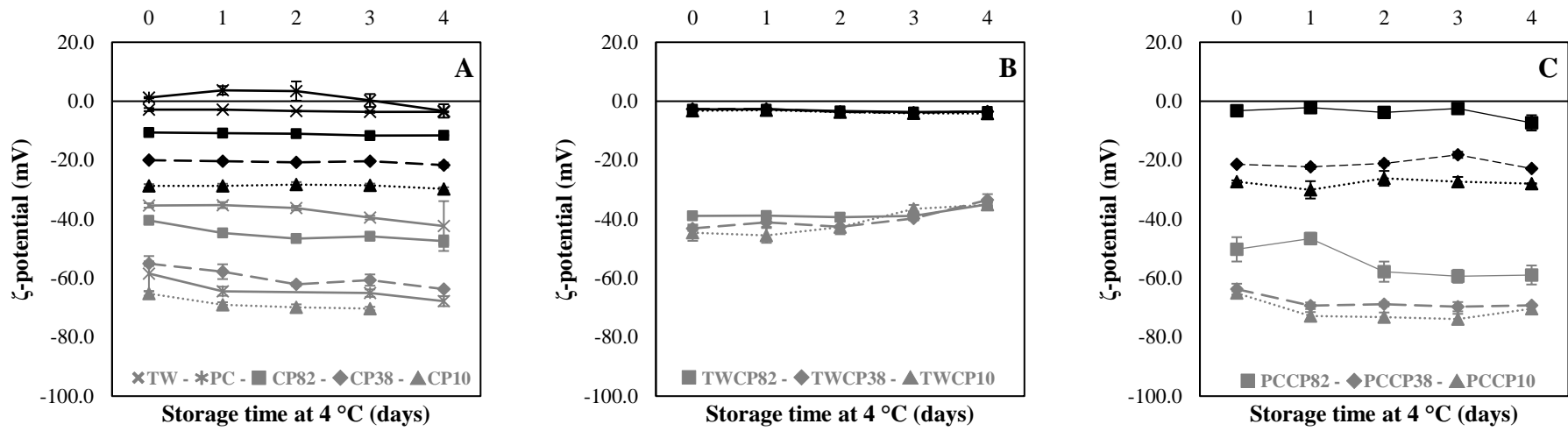
**Figure 3: Schematic representation of the hypothetical organization of citrus pectin at the oil-water interface at pH 3 versus pH 7 based on the experimental data obtained in the presented study**

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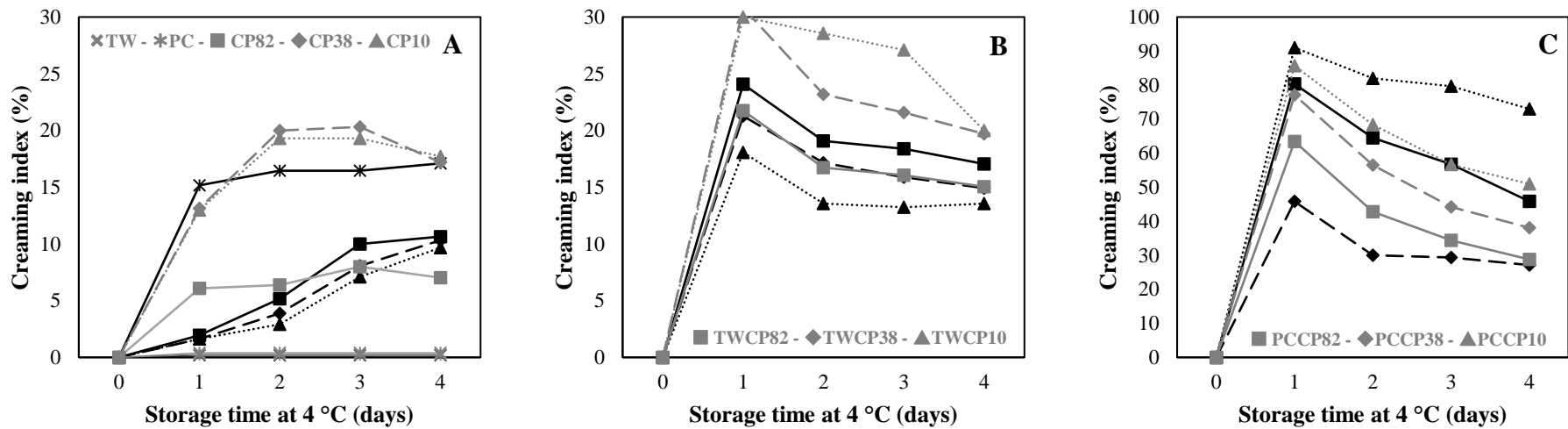
**Figure 4: Surface tension as function of time for purified olive oil in presence of water or different emulsifier solutions at (A) pH 3 versus (B) pH 7 (○ MilliQ water; × TW; □ CP82; ◇ CP38; △ CP10; □ TWCP82; ◇ TWCP38 and △ TWCP10). For representation in color is referred to the online version. For interpretation of the abbreviations is referred to the abbreviation list.**



**Figure 5: The  $\zeta$ -potential of the (A) single-emulsifier, (B) Tween-pectin and (C) phosphatidylcholine-pectin stabilized emulsions as function of storage time at 4 °C (black lines represent emulsions at pH 3 and grey lines represent emulsions at pH 7). For interpretation of the abbreviations is referred to the abbreviation list.**

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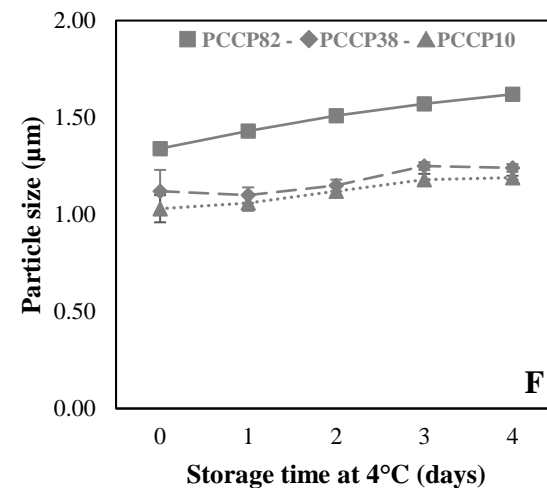
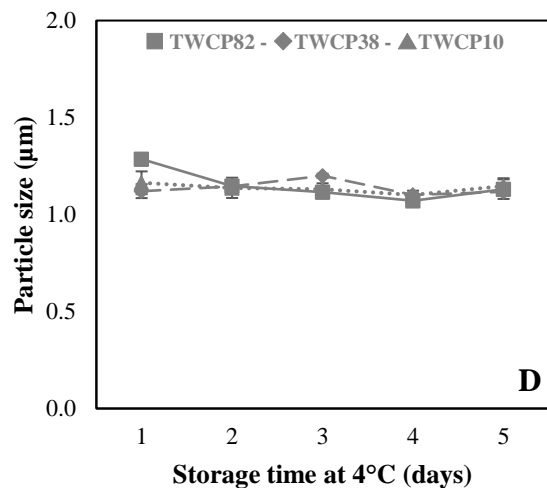
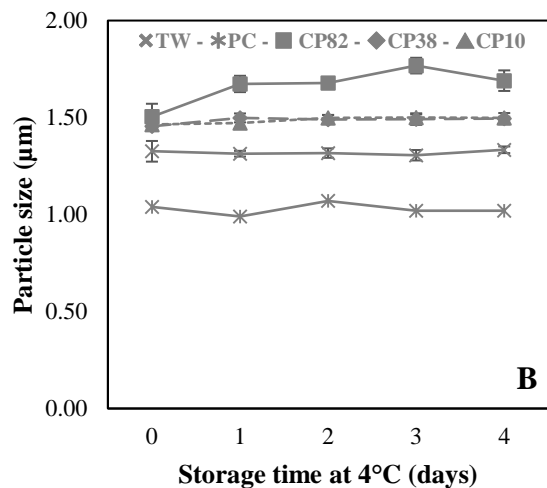
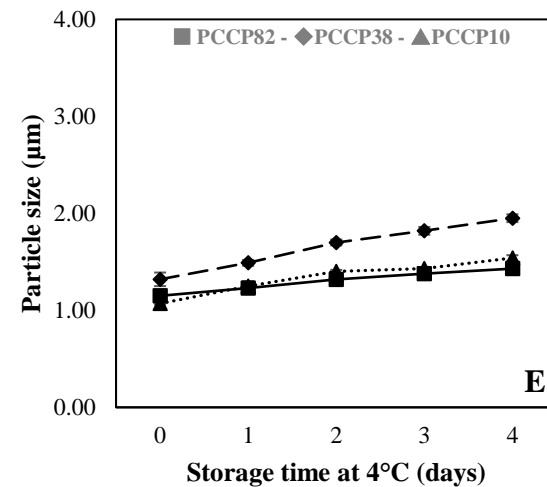
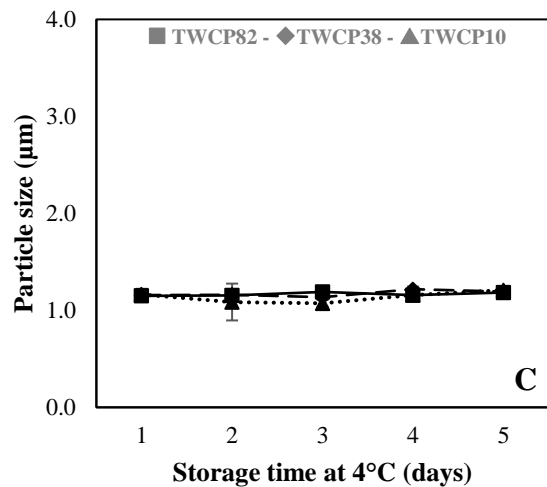
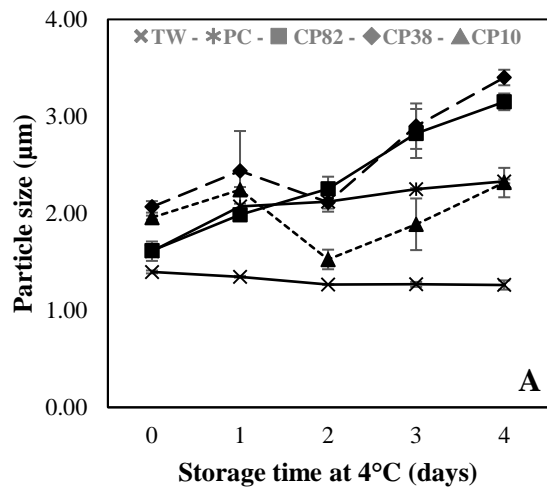


**Figure 6: Creaming index of the (A) single-emulsifier, (B) Tween-pectin and (C) phosphatidylcholine-pectin stabilized emulsions as function of storage time at 4 °C (black lines represent emulsions at pH 3 and grey lines represent emulsions at pH 7). For interpretation of the abbreviations is referred to the abbreviation list.**

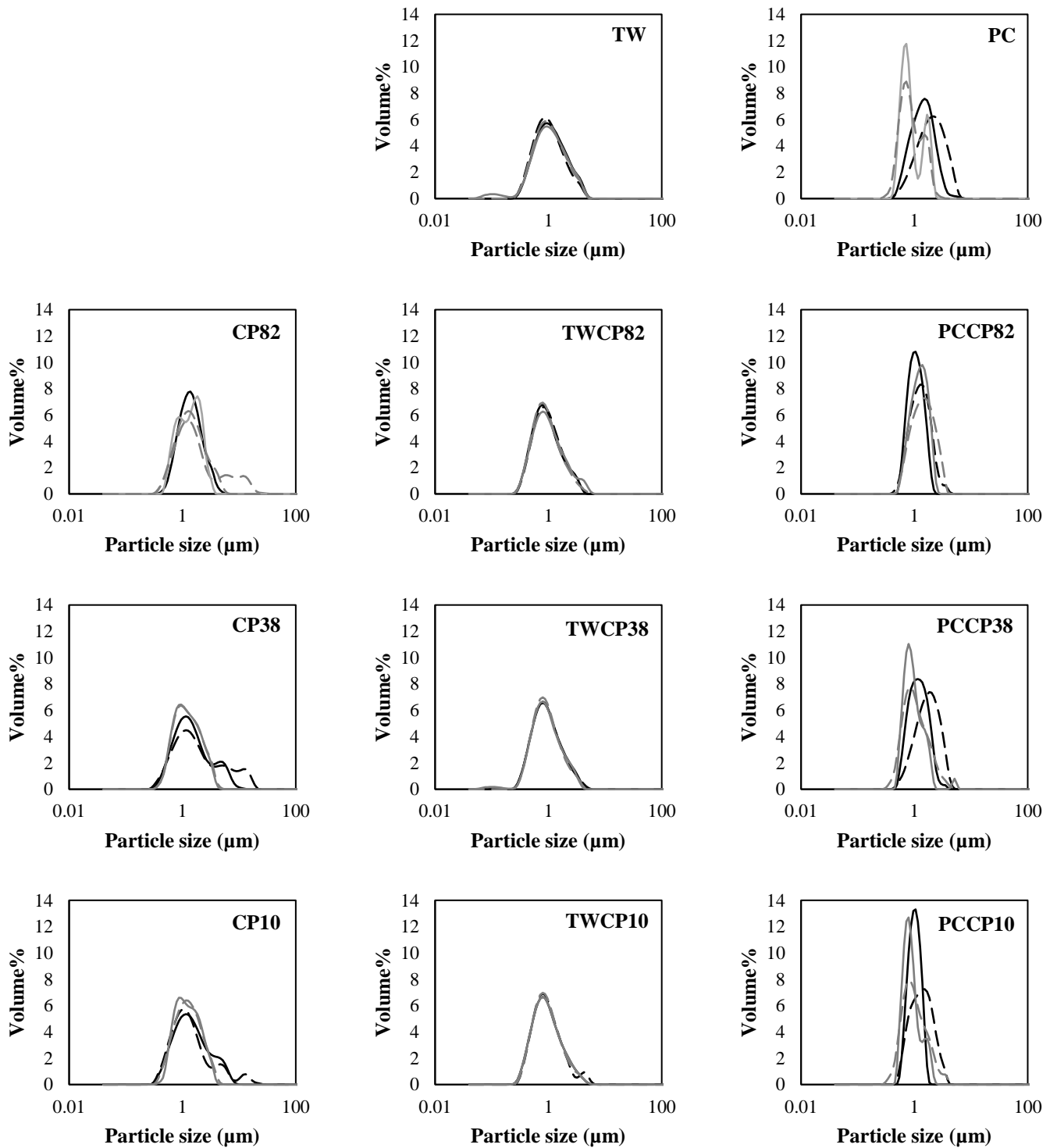
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**Figure 7: Particle size ( $d_{43}$ ) of the (A/B) single-emulsifier, (C/D) Tween-pectin and (E/F) phosphatidylcholine-pectin stabilized emulsions as function of storage time at 4 °C (black lines represent emulsions at pH 3 and grey lines represent emulsions at pH 7). For interpretation of the abbreviations is referred to the abbreviation list.**



**Figure 8: Particle size distribution of each emulsion at the day of preparation (full line) and after 4 days of storage at 4 °C (dashed line) (black lines represent emulsions at pH 3 and grey lines represent emulsions at pH 7). For interpretation of the abbreviations is referred to the abbreviation list.**

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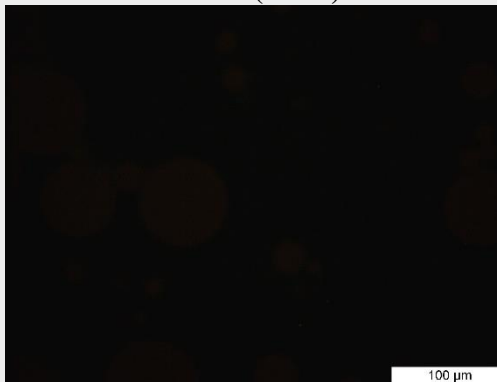
pH 3									
TW		PC		CP82		CP38		CP10	
Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4
				TWCP82		TWCP38		TWCP10	
				Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4
				PCCP82		PCCP38		PCCP10	
				Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4

pH 7									
TW		PC		CP82		CP38		CP10	
Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4
				TWCP82		TWCP38		TWCP10	
				Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 4
				PCCP82		PCCP38		PCCP10	
				Day 0	Day 4	Day 0	Day 0	Day 4	Day 0

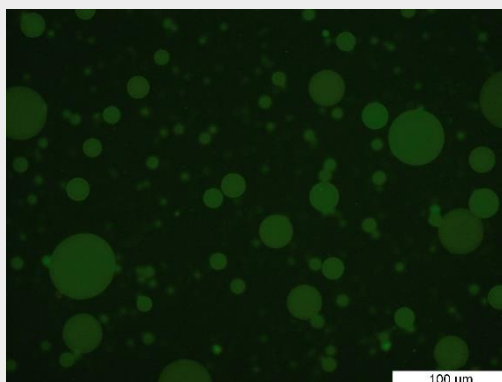
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pH 3

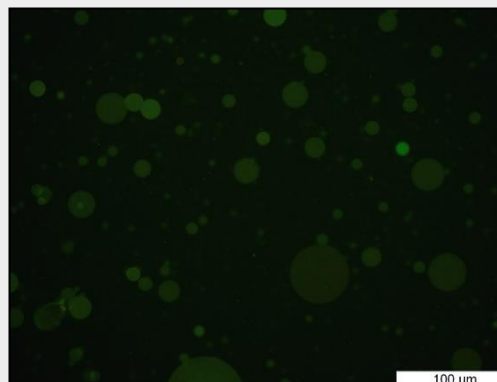
Control (CP82)



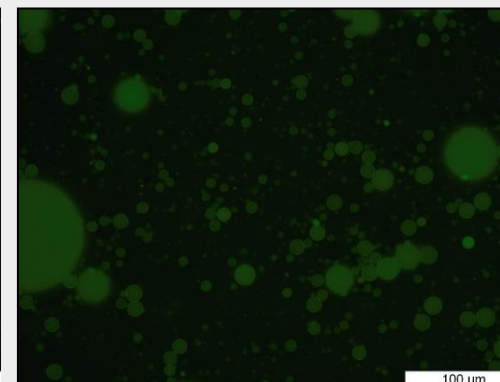
CP82



CP38



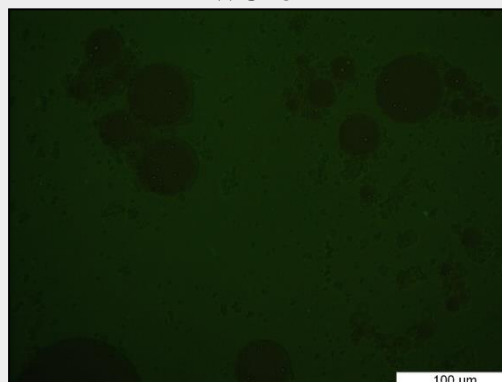
CP10



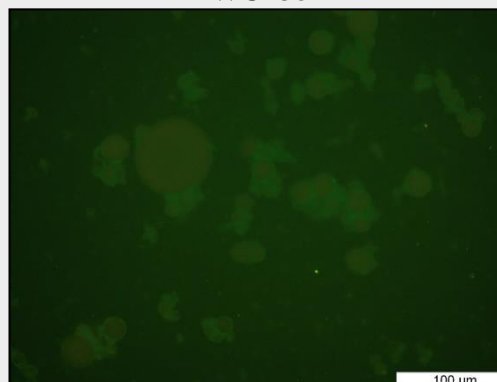
Control (TWCP82)



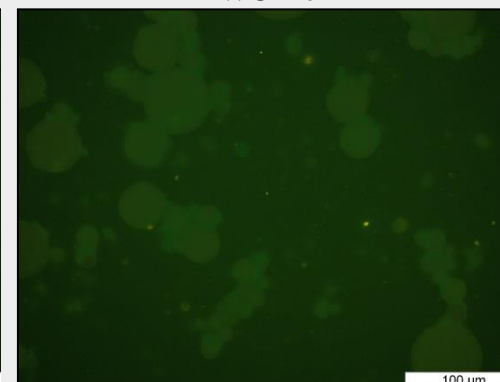
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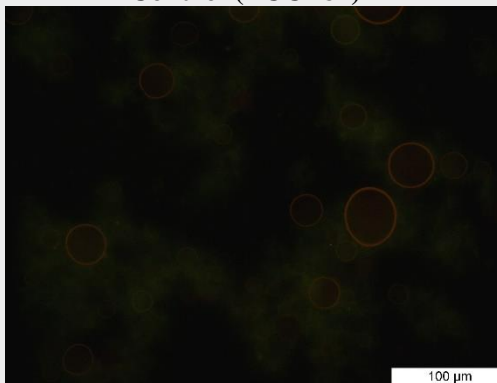
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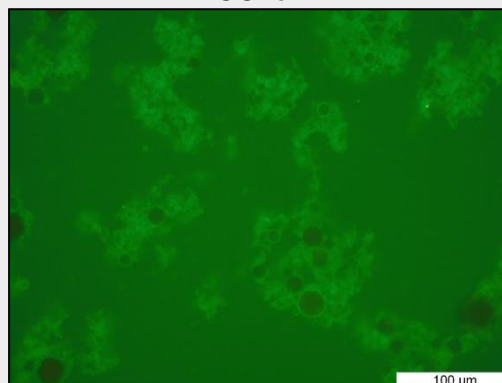
TWCP10



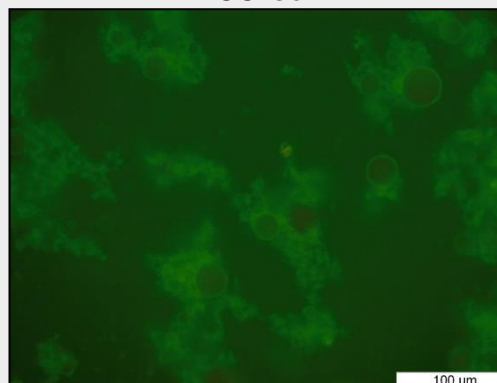
Control (PCCP82)



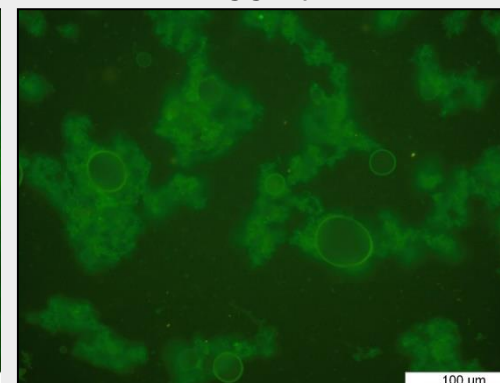
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PCCP38

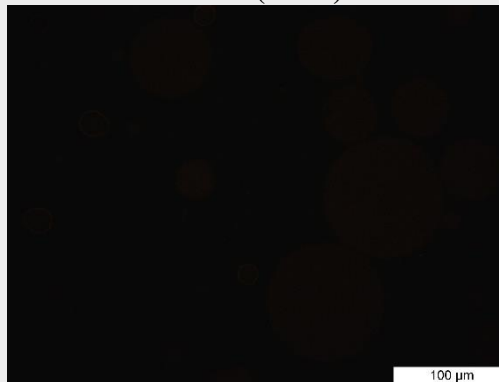


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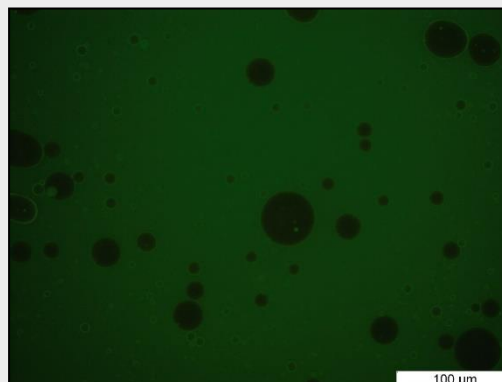


pH 7

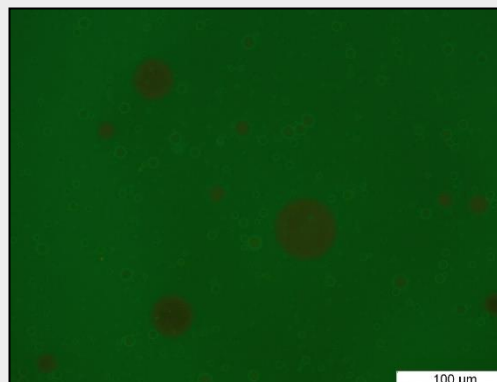
Control (CP82)



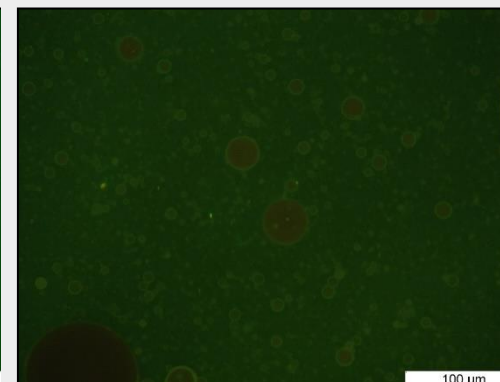
CP82



CP38



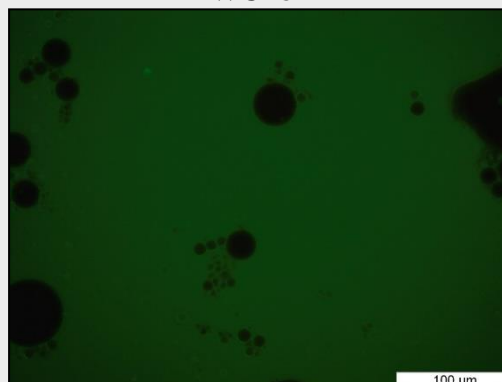
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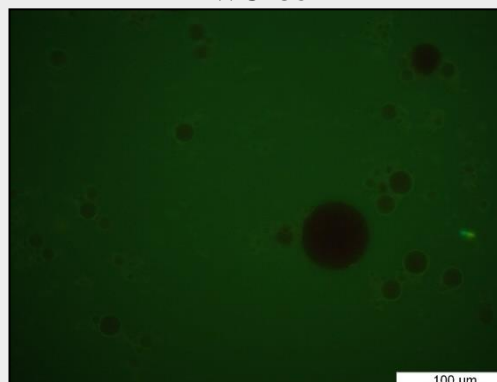
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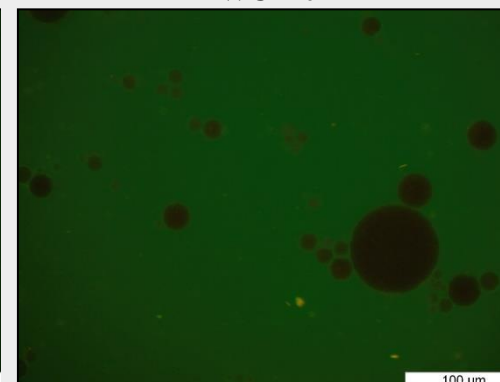
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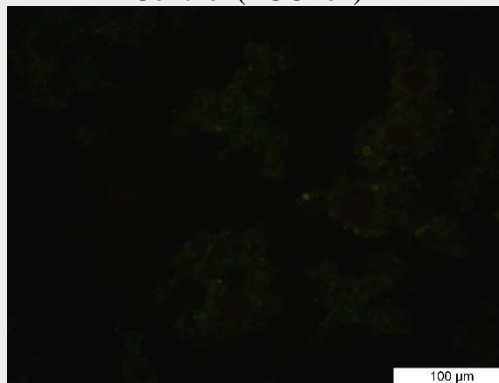
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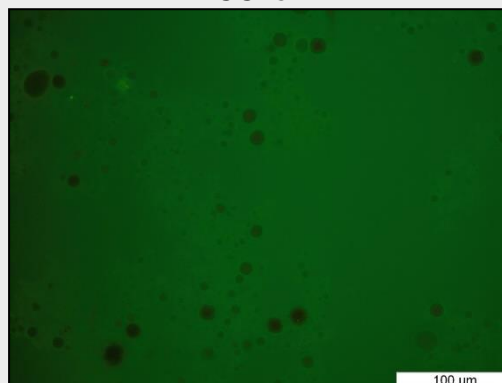
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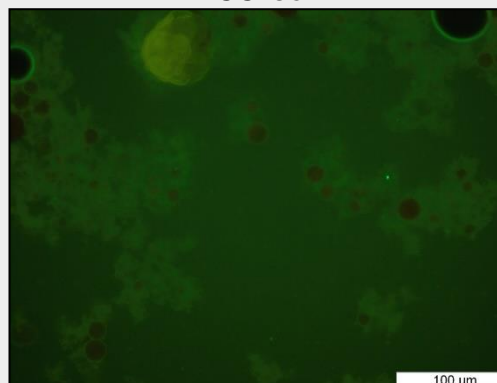
Control (PCCP82)



PCCP82



PCCP38



PCCP10

