

1 **Structural and emulsion stabilizing properties of pectin**
2 **rich extracts obtained from different botanical sources**

3 **Neckebroeck, B.^{a*}, Verkempinck, S.H.E.^a, Van Audenhove, J.^a, Bernaerts, T.^a, de Wilde**
4 **d'Estmael, H.^a, Hendrickx, M.E.^a, Van Loey, A.M.^{a**}**

5

6 ^a Laboratory of Food Technology and Leuven Food Science and Nutrition Research Centre
7 (LFoRCe), Department of Microbial and Molecular Systems (M2S), KU Leuven, Kasteelpark
8 Arenberg 22, PB 2457, 3001, Leuven, Belgium

9 * author to whom correspondence should be addressed during submission process:

10 bram.neckebroeck@kuleuven.be

11 +32 16 32 96 52

12 ** author to whom correspondence should be addressed post-publication:

13 ann.vanloey@kuleuven.be

14 +32 16 32 15 67

15 Declarations of interest: none

16 Journal: Food Research International

17 Submitted: 16/07/2020

18 Resubmitted in revised form: 09/12/2020

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39 **Abbreviations**

40 AIR: Alcohol Insoluble Residue

41 AP: Apple pectin

42 CP: Carrot pectin

43 E_{FES}: Emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing

44 OP: Onion pectin

45 pSO: Purified sunflower oil

46 SPOS: Single Particle Optical Sizing

47 TP: Tomato pectin

48 **Abstract**

49 The presented research studied the emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing capacity of pectin
50 samples isolated from different plant origin: apple, carrot, onion and tomato. The acid
51 extracted pectin samples showed distinct structural properties. Specifically, apple pectin
52 showed a high degree of methylesterification ($78.41 \pm 0.83\%$), carrot pectin had the lowest
53 concentration of other co-eluted cell wall polymers, onion pectin displayed a bimodal molar
54 mass distribution suggesting two polymer fractions with different molar mass and tomato
55 pectin was characterized by a high protein content ($16.48 \pm 0.05\%$). The evaluation of the
56 emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing potential of the pectin samples included investigating
57 their ability to lower the interfacial tension next to a storage stability study of pectin
58 stabilized o/w emulsions. Creaming behavior as well as the evolution of the oil droplet size
59 were thoroughly examined during storage using multiple analytical techniques. Overall,
60 smaller oil droplet sizes were obtained at pH 2.5 compared to pH 6.0 indicating better
61 emulsifying capacity at lower pH. The lowest emulsion stability was observed in emulsions
62 formulated with tomato pectin in which weak flocculation and relatively fast creaming
63 affected emulsion stability. Onion pectin clearly showed the most promising emulsifying and
64 emulsion stabilizing potential. At both pH conditions, emulsions stabilized by the onion
65 pectin sample displayed highly stable oil droplet sizes during the whole storage period. The
66 presence of the two polymer fractions in this sample can play an important role in the
67 observed stability. In future work, it could be evaluated if both fractions contribute to
68 emulsion stability in a synergistic way. In conclusion, this work showed that pectin samples
69 extracted from different plant origin display diverse structural properties resulting in varying
70 emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing potential. Polymer molar mass potentially plays a major
71 role in the structure-function relation.

72 **Keywords:** Pectin, Acid extraction, Molecular structure, Emulsifier, Emulsion
73 **stabilizer, Storage stability**

Accepted manuscript

74 **1 Introduction**

75 Fresh fruits and vegetables as well as side streams of the fruit and vegetable processing
76 industry rich in cell wall material contain pectin. Pectin is defined as a group of
77 polysaccharides rich in galacturonic acid (GalA) that are present in the cell wall of higher
78 plants and most abundantly in the middle lamella. The function of pectin in the plant cell wall
79 is primarily linked to cell wall integrity and cell adhesion but it can play a role in signal
80 transduction as well (Caffall & Mohnen, 2009; Voragen, Coenen, Verhoef, & Schols, 2009).
81 Besides its biological importance and structure engineering potential in plant tissues,
82 extracted pectin is of great interest to food researchers and manufacturers. Today, pectin is
83 used both in home kitchens and on an industrial scale to manufacture jams and jellies and
84 furthermore to industrially produce confectionary products and bakery fillings because of
85 pectin's gelling and texture modifying properties (Voragen et al., 2009; Willats, Knox, &
86 Mikkelsen, 2006).

87 Pectin is considered one of the most complex natural macromolecules as it consists out of
88 multiple structurally different pectin domains that contain all together up to 17 different
89 monosaccharides (Voragen et al., 2009). Moreover, different structural properties can be
90 obtained using different extraction methods and furthermore, pectin extracts originating from
91 different botanical sources can vary in structure as well. Additionally, it was found that pectin
92 structure even changes during plant development processes such as fruit ripening (Alba &
93 Kontogiorgos, 2017; Caffall & Mohnen, 2009; Chen et al., 2015; Müller-Maatsch et al.,
94 2016; Willats et al., 2006). As pectin functionality largely depends on the structural
95 composition and organization of the polymer chains, it is clear that the structural complexity
96 of pectin creates challenges to obtain the desired functionality (Alba & Kontogiorgos, 2017;
97 Voragen et al., 2009; Willats et al., 2006). Further understanding of this structure-function
98 relationship, is what triggers researchers studying pectin and pectin functionality.

99 Besides the use of pectin as gelling or structure modifying agent, the potential of pectin as
100 emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing (E_FE_S) agent was explored in the last three decades, as
101 recently reviewed by Alba and Kontogiorgos (2017) and Ngouémazong, Christiaens,
102 Shpigelman, Van Loey and Hendrickx (2015). Most research on this E_FE_S functionality
103 however, focusses on the familiar and widely used citrus pectin and on sugar beet pectin
104 which shows good E_FE_S potential (Alba & Kontogiorgos, 2017; Funami et al., 2007; Leroux,
105 Langendorff, Schick, Vaishnav, & Mazoyer, 2003; Verkempinck et al., 2018).

106 The viscosity increasing capacity of pectin is often suggested as an important stability
107 mechanism of o/w emulsions formulated with pectin samples (Akhtar, Dickinson, Mazoyer,
108 & Langendorff, 2002; Ngouémazong et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2005). However, it has
109 been evidenced before that pectin can adsorb at the oil-water interface as well. Subsequently,
110 both steric and electrostatic interactions can reduce oil droplet coalescence contributing to
111 long term emulsion stability. Many structural characteristics of pectin polymers were
112 suggested to influence its E_FE_S capacity. Some structural characteristics increase the
113 amphiphilic character of the pectin chains such as a higher degree of methylesterification
114 (DM) and/or a higher degree of acetylation (Leroux et al., 2003; Schmidt et al., 2015;
115 Schmidt, Schütz, & Schuchmann, 2017; Verkempinck et al., 2018), and the presence of
116 ferulic acid in sugar beet pectin (Chen et al., 2016). Also pectin related proteinaceous
117 moieties are often suggested to improve the E_FE_S capacity as proteins can improve the
118 adsorption of the overall pectin structure at the oil-water interface (Akhtar et al., 2002; Chen
119 et al., 2016; Funami et al., 2007, 2011; Leroux et al., 2003; Williams et al., 2005). Lastly,
120 many studies mentioned the influence of the pectin molar mass (MM) but the results so far
121 were rather inconsistent. The pectin MM may influence adsorption kinetics (Leroux et al.,
122 2003; Schmidt et al., 2015), accessibility of surface active groups (Akhtar et al., 2002;
123 Schmidt et al., 2015) and viscosity changes in the aqueous continuous phase (Alba &

124 Kontogiorgos, 2017). Moreover, Zhao et al. (2020) indicated that lower molar mass pectin
125 polymers obtained after hydrolysis can display superior interfacial activity compared to the
126 original non-hydrolyzed sample while stabilizing 5% o/w emulsions to a lower extent.

127 Scientific studies investigating structural and/or functional properties of extracted pectin
128 often use various botanical sources. Regarding the E_{FES} potential of pectin, the majority of
129 studies focused on citrus pectin and sugar beet pectin. Although often structurally
130 characterized, pectin extracted from other plant materials is only to a limited extent
131 meticulously studied for its E_{FES} potential. Therefore, the presented research aimed to
132 investigate the E_{FES} potential of four pectin rich samples extracted from four different raw
133 plant materials: apple, carrot, onion and tomato. Literature on pectin research indicates
134 differences in several structural properties between pectin samples obtained from these
135 different sources. Sato et al. (2011) described apple pectin exhibiting high DM values higher
136 than 70%. Tomato pectin has been previously characterized as a highly linear pectin with
137 high molar mass values compared to carrot pectin which displayed more extensive branching
138 and lower molar masses (Houben, Jolie, Fraeye, Van Loey, & Hendrickx, 2011). The degree
139 of branching for apple pectin samples was slightly lower compared to carrot pectin (Houben
140 et al., 2011; Sato et al., 2011). An acid extracted polysaccharide fraction from onion was
141 characterized by a high protein content and a high galactose content (Golovchenko,
142 Khramova, Ovodova, Shashkov, & Ovodov, 2012). Structural differences among the four
143 pectin rich extracts were hypothesized to affect the emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing
144 potential. Therefore, the storage stability of o/w emulsions formulated by the extracted pectin
145 samples was studied at two pH values using a multimethod approach. Evaluating both
146 creaming behavior and oil droplet size evolution during storage provides in-depth insight into
147 the physical stability of these pectin based o/w emulsions. The results of this multimethod

148 research strategy will allow to relate the structure of pectin samples of different plant origin
149 to their E_FE_S capacity.

150 **2 Materials and Methods**

151 **2.1 Materials**

152 Batches of apples (*Malus domestica* var. Jonagold), tomatoes (*Solanum lycopersicum* var.
153 San Marzano) and chopped onions (*Allium cepa* L.) were purchased from a local
154 supermarket. Blanched and frozen carrot (*Daucus carota* L. subsp. *sativus*) dices were kindly
155 donated by D'Arta Nv (Ardooie, Belgium) and stored at -40 °C until use. Commercial
156 sunflower oil was purchased at a local supermarket. Ultrapure water (organic free, 18.2 MΩ
157 cm resistance) was supplied by a Simplicity™ 150 water purification system (Millipore,
158 Billerica, USA). Unless mentioned differently, all chemicals used were of analytical grade.

159 **2.2 Pectin extraction**

160 **2.2.1 Isolation of Alcohol Insoluble Residue**

161 Prior to the actual AIR production, some starting materials required an extra preparatory step.
162 In case of fresh apples, the core and peel were removed and the apple flesh was chopped. The
163 fresh tomatoes were sliced and instantly blanched (95 °C, 8 min) after purchase (Rodrigo et
164 al., 2006). Hereafter, the blanched tomato slices were mixed in a kitchen blender (2 times for
165 3 s) and subsequently sieved (mesh size 1 mm) to remove seeds and peel fragments. This
166 sieved tomato tissue was used as starting material for AIR production. The chopped onion
167 and carrot dices were used without further preparation.

168 The AIR was produced for all matrices based on the procedure of McFeeters and Armstrong
169 (1984). When starting from chopped apple flesh, onion pieces and sieved tomato tissue, 60 g
170 of wet tissue was suspended in 192 ml 95% ethanol using a high speed mixer (3 times for 6 s)
171 (Buchi mixer B-400, Flawil, Switzerland). After filtration over a filter paper (Machery-Nagel

172 MN 615 Ø 90 mm) the residue was resuspended in 96 ml 95% ethanol, mixed and filtered
173 again. Finally, the residue after this step was resuspended in 96 ml technical acetone and
174 filtered to obtain the AIR.

175 Due to the high carotenoid content of carrots, two extra isolation steps were executed in the
176 AIR isolation procedure starting from carrot. Firstly, the carrot dices were grounded using a
177 knife mill (Grindomix GM 200, Retch, Germany), refrozen using liquid nitrogen and
178 lyophilized (Alpha 2–4 LSC, Martin Christ Gefriertrocknungsanlagen GmbH, Osterode,
179 Germany). Subsequently, 15 g of this lyophilized carrot material was wetted with 22.5 ml
180 demineralized water, suspended in 192 ml 95% ethanol using a high speed mixer and filtered.
181 Consequently, the residue was resuspended in 96 ml 95% ethanol, mixed and filtered. This
182 step was repeated and the obtained residue was resuspended in 96 ml technical acetone and
183 filtered. This step was repeated a second time as well to obtain the AIR (Neckebroeck et al.,
184 2020).

185 The obtained AIR fractions of all four matrices were dried overnight at 40 °C, grounded and
186 stored in a desiccator until use.

187 **2.2.2 Nitric acid pectin extraction**

188 After AIR production, an acid extraction was performed to obtain extracts rich in pectin.
189 Starting from the AIR obtained from apple, onion and tomato, acid extractions were
190 performed using nitric acid following the procedure of Willemsen et al. (2017). Briefly, 60 g
191 of AIR was pre-homogenized in 4 L of demineralized water at 80 °C for 30 min after which
192 the pH was adjusted to 1.6 using 7 M HNO₃. Pectin extraction proceeded for 60 min at these
193 conditions under mild stirring. After extraction, the suspension was immediately cooled in an
194 ice bath and centrifuged for 10 min at 4000 g and room temperature. The pectin rich
195 supernatant was separated from the pellet and the pH was instantly brought to pH 6.1.

196 In case of carrot AIR, a slightly different procedure was followed (Neckebroek et al., 2020).
197 Briefly, 2.5 g of AIR was homogenized in 200 ml of demineralized water at 80 °C for 30 min
198 after which the pH was adjusted to 1.6 using 7 M HNO₃. Only 30 minutes of pectin
199 extraction was performed after which the pectin rich extract was separated from the residual
200 suspended solids by vacuum filtration after cooling. Finally, the extract rich in pectin was
201 brought to pH 6.1.

202 All pectin rich extracts were extensively dialyzed against demineralized water for 48 h
203 (Spectra/Por® Dialysis Membrane, 3.5 kDa MWCO), lyophilized (Alpha 2–4 LSC, Martin
204 Christ Gefriertrocknungsanlagen GmbH, Osterode, Germany) and stored in a desiccator until
205 use. Due to high polyphenol content and dark reddish color of the apple pectin extract, this
206 extract was vacuum filtered before dialysis. The lyophilized pectin samples extracted from
207 apple, carrot, onion and tomato tissue will be further referred to as AP, CP, OP and TP
208 respectively.

209 **2.3 Pectin structure and structure related properties**

210 **2.3.1 Galacturonic acid content**

211 Samples were hydrolyzed using sulfuric acid according to the method described by Ahmed
212 and Labavitch (1978) before measuring the GalA content by the spectrophotometric analysis
213 of Blumenkrantz and Asboe-Hansen (1973). The acid hydrolysis was performed in duplicate
214 for each pectin sample, followed by a triplicate analysis of the GalA content of each
215 hydrolysate (25 °C, wavelength 520 nm, GENESYS™ 30 Visible Spectrophotometer,
216 Thermo Scientific, Massachusetts, USA).

217 **2.3.2 Monosaccharide content**

218 High performance anion exchange chromatography (HPAEC) coupled to pulsed
219 amperometric detection (PAD) was applied to quantify the content of the neutral sugars

220 fucose, rhamnose, arabinose, galactose, glucose, xylose and mannose in the pectin samples.
221 First, the pectin samples were hydrolyzed in 4 M trifluoroacetic acid at 110 °C for 1.5 h and
222 immediately hereafter cooled in an ice bath. Subsequently, the remaining TFA was
223 neutralized by consecutively drying the samples under N₂ at 45 °C, washing the samples with
224 1 M ammonium hydroxide and finally drying the samples again under N₂ at 45 °C (De
225 Roeck, Sila, Duvetter, Van Loey, & Hendrickx, 2008; Stolle-Smits, Beekhuizen, Recourt,
226 Voragen, & Van Dijk, 1997). Hydrolyzed samples were redissolved in ultrapure water and
227 filtered (Chromafil® A-45/25, 0.45 µm pore size, Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) before
228 analysis. The hydrolysis was carried out in duplicate.

229 The HPAEC-PAD analysis was performed exactly as described in Neckebroek et al. (2020)
230 using a Dionex ICS-6000 system equipped with a Dionex ICS-6000 Single Pump, a
231 CarboPac™ PA20 column (150 x 3 mm) protected by a CarboPac™ PA20 guard column (30
232 x 3 mm) and an ED50 electrochemical detector (Dionex, Sunnyvale, CA, USA).

233 **2.3.3 Degree of methylesterification**

234 Fourier transform infra-red spectroscopy (FT-IR; IRAffinity-1, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) was
235 used to determine the DM of the pectin samples following the procedure described by
236 Kyomugasho, Christiaens, Shpigelman, Van Loey and Hendrickx (2015). The calibration
237 curve constructed by Kyomugasho et al. (2015) was used to calculate the DM after analysis.
238 The FT-IR analysis was performed in quadruplicate.

239 **2.3.4 Protein content**

240 The total nitrogen content of each pectin sample was determined in duplicate by use of an
241 elemental analyzer (EA 1108 CHNS–O elemental analyzer, CE- Instruments/Thermo
242 Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and the Dumas method (Santiago et al., 2018a).

243 Subsequently, a conversion factor of 6.25 was applied to calculate the protein content of each
244 pectin sample (Mariotti, Tomé, & Mirand, 2008).

245 **2.3.5 Molar mass distribution**

246 By means of high performance size exclusion chromatography coupled to a multiangle laser
247 light scattering detector (HPSEC-MALLS) the molar mass distribution of each pectin sample
248 was determined in duplicate as described by Shpigelman, Kyomugasho, Christiaens, Van
249 Loey and Hendrickx (2014). Overnight, lyophilized pectin samples were dissolved in
250 ultrapure water at a concentration of 2 mg/ml. The dissolved samples were filtered
251 (Chromafil A-45/25, 0.45 mm pore size, Macherey-Nagel GmbH, Duren, Germany) before
252 injection. During HPSEC, 100 µl of each sample was eluted over a series of three columns
253 kept at 35 °C: Ultrahydrogel 250, 1000 and 2000 with exclusion limits of 8×10^4 , 4×10^6 and
254 1×10^7 g/mol, respectively (Waters, Milford, MA). Pectin polymers were eluted using a 0.1
255 M acetic acid buffer (pH 4.4) containing 0.1 M NaNO₃ at a flow rate of 0.5 ml/min. After
256 elution, the polymers passed through three detectors: a MALLS detector (PN3621, Postnova
257 analytics, Germany), a refractive index (RI) detector (Shodex RI-101, Showa Denko K.K.,
258 Kawazaki, Japan) and a diode array detector (DAD) (G1316A, Agilent technologies, Diegem,
259 Belgium). The concentration of the eluted polymers was calculated based on the RI signal
260 and a dn/dc value of 0.146 ml/g. The molar mass (MM) was calculated from the MALLS
261 signal applying the Debye fitting method (up to second order) by the NovaMals software
262 (version 1.2.0.0, Postnova analytics, Germany).

263 **2.3.6 ζ-potential**

264 Capillary electrophoresis (Zetasizer NanoZS, Malvern Instruments, Worcester, UK) was
265 used to determine the ζ-potential of the pectin samples as described in Neckebroeck et al.
266 (2020). Overnight solubilized pectin solutions were measured at a concentration of 0.1 mg/ml
267 and at nine different pH values ranging between 1.5 and 7.0. Analyses were executed in

268 capillary cells and all samples were inserted twice into the equipment with each capillary cell
269 being measured in duplicate with a minimum of 12 runs per measurement. Reported values
270 are averages of these four analytical values.

271 **2.4 Emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing potential**

272 The E_{FES} potential of the acid extracted pectin samples was thoroughly evaluated by a
273 multimethod approach. The interfacial tension as function of contact time between the oil
274 phase and a pectin solution was determined by pendant drop tensiometry. Next to this, a
275 storage stability study was performed with emulsions containing the pectin samples as sole
276 E_{FES} agent. At predetermined time moments during refrigerated storage, emulsion stability
277 was evaluated. Firstly, an accelerated and direct stability analysis was performed on the day
278 of emulsion preparation (day 0). Further, multiple parameters linked to emulsion stability
279 were analyzed on day 0; 1; 4; 8 and 14 of storage. More specifically, the particle size
280 distribution and the volume-weighted mean particle size (d_{43}) of each emulsion were
281 determined by laser diffraction. Furthermore, the individual oil droplet size was studied by
282 Single Particle Optical Sizing (SPOS) and the microstructure of each emulsion was visualized
283 by light microscopy. Finally, macroscopic pictures were taken each analysis day to evaluate
284 the visibility of a cream layer in the emulsions stored at refrigerated temperature.

285 **2.4.1 Dynamic interfacial tension**

286 Firstly, commercial sunflower oil was purified with the inorganic adsorbent Florisil® exactly
287 as described by Neckebroek et al. (2020) to prevent surface active compounds inherently
288 present in the oil (e.g. polyphenols) influencing emulsion stability. Hereafter, a pendant drop
289 tensiometer (CAM 200, KSV Instruments, Finland) was employed to determine the change in
290 interfacial tension of a droplet of purified sunflower oil (pSO) formed in a 0.2% w/v (i.e.
291 2 mg/ml) pectin solution at the end of a J-shaped needle. Analysis was performed at room

292 temperature and in duplicate for pH 2.5 and 6.0 exactly as described before by Neckebroeck
293 et al. (2020).

294 **2.4.2 Flow behavior**

295 A stress-controlled rheometer (MCR 302, Anton Paar, Graz, Austria) was used to study the
296 flow behavior of 1% w/v pectin solutions based on a method described by Bernaerts et al.
297 (2018) with slight modifications. Samples were prepared by solubilization overnight followed
298 by pH adjustment to pH 2.5 or pH 6.0 and finally the volume was adjusted to obtain a final
299 concentration of 1% w/v. The rheometer was equipped with a double wall Couette geometry
300 (DG26.7, internal radius 12.3 mm, external radius 13.3 mm and measuring height 40 mm).
301 First, the samples were presheared for 30 s at a shear rate of 10 s⁻¹ followed by 300 s of rest.
302 Next, steady-shear measurements were performed by increasing the shear rate logarithmically
303 from 1 to 100 s⁻¹. Each shear rate was applied until steady state was reached, with a maximal
304 measuring time of 40 s per shear rate. A minimum torque of 0.1 μN m was set to ensure
305 reliability of the data and each sample was measured in duplicate.

306 **2.4.3 Emulsion preparation**

307 All 5% w/v oil-in-water (o/w) emulsions were prepared using pSO as the dispersed phase and
308 a 1% w/v pectin solution at pH 2.5 or pH 6.0 as the continuous phase. Both liquids were
309 mixed (10 min; 9500 rpm) to form a coarse emulsion using a high speed mixer (Ultra-Turrax
310 T25, IKA, Staufen, Germany). Coarse emulsions were further subjected to high pressure
311 homogenization at 100 MPa (STANSTED SPCH-10, Homogenising Systems, UK) for one
312 cycle. The resulting emulsions were transferred in test tubes (resulting in two test tubes for
313 each analysis day) which were stored at 4 °C for 14 days. Four pectin samples (i.e. AP, CP,
314 OP and TP) evaluated at two pH conditions resulted in a total of eight distinct emulsions
315 studied which are denominated based on the pectin sample used to stabilize the emulsion and
316 the pH of this emulsion, e.g. AP pH 2.5.

317 **2.4.4 Physical storage stability of emulsions**

318 **2.4.4.1 Accelerated physical stability**

319 An accelerated and direct stability analysis was performed with an analytical centrifuge
320 (LUMiFuge, LUM GmbH, Berlin, Germany) as described previously in Neckebroeck et al.
321 (2020). The Space- and Time-resolved Extinction Profiles (STEP®) Technology® supports
322 the calculation of an instability index as described by Detloff, Sobisch and Lerche (2014) in
323 full detail. Briefly, the instability index at time t is calculated based on the difference between
324 the transmission profile at time t and the transmission profile at the start of analysis. In other
325 words, the more this difference in laser transmission increases over time due to oil droplet
326 migration, the higher the instability index will become. During centrifugation (1308 g at
327 20 °C) a total of 800 transmission profiles of the total height of each emulsion were recorded,
328 one profile every minute. The stability analysis was performed in duplicate.

329 **2.4.4.2 Volume-weighted particle size**

330 The particle size distribution and d_{43} of each emulsion were determined on each analysis day
331 by means of laser diffraction (Beckman Coulter Inc, LS 13 320, Miami, Florida, USA). A
332 detailed and complete description of the analysis can be found in Neckebroeck et al. (2020)
333 The presented results are averages of four measurements as two different test tubes of each
334 emulsion were analyzed in duplicate. It was preferred to report d_{43} values as the average
335 particle size as it is sensitive to the presence of larger oil droplets, making it a good parameter
336 to evaluate emulsions stability.

337 **2.4.4.3 Individual oil droplet size**

338 Combining light extinction and light scattering, the SPOS technique (AccuSizer 780 APS,
339 Particle Sizing Systems, Santa Barbara, California, USA) allows the measurement of
340 individual oil droplet size while laser diffraction estimates a distribution based on the
341 scattering of multiple oil droplets at the same time. Analysis was performed exactly as

342 described in Neckebroek et al. (2020), the results of this analysis are displayed as a volume
343 percentage of oil droplets larger than 1 μm present in the emulsion. Each analysis day, two
344 separately stored test tubes for every emulsion were analyzed.

345 **2.4.4.4 Microstructure**

346 Light microscopy was used to visualize the microstructure of all o/w emulsions produced. An
347 Olympus BX-51 light microscope (Olympus, Optical Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) equipped with
348 an Olympus XC-50 digital camera (Olympus, Optical Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and coupled to
349 an image-analysis software (cellSens Standard, Olympus, Optical Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan)
350 was utilized. Micrographs were taken using a 40x magnification and an exposure time set at
351 10 ms.

352 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

353 Significant differences in structural characteristics of all samples were evaluated by one way
354 ANOVA and Tukey's Studentized Range Post-hoc test with a 95% level of significance
355 ($p < 0.05$).

356 **3 Results and discussion**

357 To evaluate the E_{FES} potential of the generated pectin samples of different origin, both the
358 structure of the pectin polymers as well as their capability of stabilizing emulsions were
359 investigated. In section 3.1, the structural characteristics and the ζ -potential are discussed and
360 compared among the four pectin samples. Subsequently, in section 3.2, the potential of the
361 pectin samples to lower the interfacial tension was investigated in addition to the storage
362 stability of o/w emulsions formulated with each pectin sample acting as sole E_{FES} agent at
363 two different pH values.

364 **3.1 Pectin structure and structure related properties**

365 The structural properties of the different pectin samples are represented in **Table 1**. When
366 comparing the results of the GalA and neutral monosaccharide content among the different
367 samples, it is apparent that all samples contain considerable high amounts of GalA and pectin
368 related monosaccharides such as rhamnose, arabinose and galactose. However, the relatively
369 low GalA content for OP is noteworthy, especially since both the galactose and glucose
370 content of this sample are significantly higher compared to the other pectin samples. Most
371 probably, the OP extract consists of other polymers next to pectin. The presence of galactans
372 in onion tissue has been suggested before by Golovchenko et al. (2012) who studied the
373 effect of onion pectin polysaccharides on intestinal protein adsorption. Considering the
374 glucose content of all samples, it can be stated that CP contains the lowest amount of residual
375 glucose-containing polymers, possibly starch and hemicellulose. The presence of starch
376 granules in apple and tomato tissue was demonstrated before (Berüter, 2004; Luengwilai &
377 Beckles, 2009; Obiadalla-Ali, Fernie, Kossmann, & Lloyd, 2004), consequently it is very
378 likely that a residual starch fraction is still present in the AP and TP extracts. Ng et al. (2000)
379 reported high glucose levels in isolated cell wall material of onion tissue which were not
380 attributed to the presence of starch however the exact origin was not further investigated.

381 Regarding the DM, all pectin samples displayed a DM higher than 50% and are therefore
382 considered high DM pectin samples. This indicates that the blanching step during tomato
383 handling and the industrial blanching of carrot cubes were effective in at least partly
384 inactivating endogenous pectin methylesterase, which could induce deesterification of
385 metlyesterified GalA units. Furthermore, a significantly higher DM for AP ($78.41 \pm 0.83\%$)
386 was observed in comparison to OP ($56.41 \pm 0.21\%$), TP ($54.29 \pm 0.32\%$), and CP ($63.02 \pm$
387 2.26%). A high DM is an interesting characteristic for the E_FE_S capacity of pectin polymers
388 as good emulsifying properties were reported for citrus pectin samples with DM values

389 between 55% and 84% by Schmidt et al. (2017). Additionally, Verkempinck et al. (2018)
390 reported better emulsifying potential for high DM citrus pectin in comparison to medium and
391 low DM citrus pectin.

392 Concerning the protein content of the samples, a high protein content was observed for TP
393 ($16.48 \pm 0.05\%$), while CP contained the lowest amount of protein ($5.28 \pm 0.37\%$). It has
394 been described previously in open literature that the protein content of pectin plays a major
395 role in its E_{FEs} capacity by increasing the surface activity of the overall structure (Akhtar et
396 al., 2002; Funami et al., 2007; Leroux et al., 2003). Based on these results it can be expected
397 that the presence of significantly more protein in the structure of TP may lead to an improved
398 E_{FEs} potential for this sample.

399 Lastly, the structural characterization analyses provided data on the MM distributions, which
400 are depicted in **Figure 1**, while the average MM of the pectin samples are represented in
401 **Table 1**. Overall, the MM distributions of AP, CP and TP are monomodal and display similar
402 average MM values of about 500 kDa. By contrast, the MM profile of OP displays a
403 remarkable bimodal concentration curve, suggesting the presence of two polymer fractions
404 with different MM and possibly different structural properties. Compared to the average MM
405 of the other pectin samples, OP consists of a polymer fraction with significant higher MM
406 and a fraction with significant lower MM. Alba and Kontogiorgos (2017) stated that a MM
407 region of 100 to 200 kDa for pectic polymers is beneficial for its emulsifying properties.
408 They elucidated that if the MM is too low, the adsorbed layer might be too thin to ensure
409 sufficient stability. In case of pectin polymers with a relatively high MM, the hydrophobic
410 groups might be inaccessible due to the chain conformation and subsequently lower the
411 emulsifying capacity of such polymers. Considering this, it is possible that most polymers
412 present in AP, CP and TP have a too high MM to exhibit good emulsifying capacity. The OP
413 sample however, consists of both a high MM polymer fraction (1150.00 ± 42.43 kDa) and a

414 low MM polymer fraction (64.40 ± 5.37 kDa) that can possibly each contribute to emulsion
415 stability by different mechanisms.

416 Beside the structural properties, external factors, such as the pH of the medium, can influence
417 the E_{FES} potential of pectin polymers as well. The pH of the medium determines the charge
418 density and subsequently the conformation of pectin polymers. The ζ -potential of all samples
419 was determined based on the electrophoretic mobility as a function of pH (**Figure 2**). The
420 effect of pH on the charge density of the polymers is clearly visible in the sigmoidal shape of
421 the curves displaying a more negative ζ -potential with increasing pH. Higher charge density
422 with increasing pH values leads to more electrostatic repulsion and can consequently enhance
423 emulsion stability when the pectin polymers adsorb at the oil-water interface. Overall, no
424 distinct differences were detected among the pectin samples. Based on the ζ -potential
425 measurements, pH 2.5 and pH 6.0 were selected to further investigate the E_{FES} functionality
426 of the pectin samples as these two pH conditions result in distinctly different charge densities
427 on the pectin polymers.

428 **3.2 Emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing potential**

429 **3.2.1 Dynamic interfacial tension**

430 The ability to lower the interfacial tension is an important property for emulsifying
431 compounds as a lower interfacial tension facilitates droplet disruption during
432 homogenization. Moreover, compounds adsorbed at the oil-water interface protect oil
433 droplets against coalescence and in that way increase emulsion stability (McClements, 2015).

434 The ability of pectin samples to lower the interfacial tension depends on both the pH
435 conditions and pectin structure, which was evidenced in recent open literature (Chen et al.,
436 2016; Funami et al., 2011; Neckebroek et al., 2020; Verkempinck et al., 2018). The dynamic
437 interfacial tension of a pSO droplet in all aqueous pectin solutions is represented in **Figure 3**.
438 Firstly, when the interfacial tension was measured in ultrapure water, so in absence of any

439 E_FE_S compounds, the interfacial tension did not drop and remained constant at both pH
440 values. This indicates that nearly all emulsifying compounds inherently present in the
441 sunflower oil were removed during purification. Consequently, this result indicates that the
442 interfacial tension changes observed when evaluating pectin solutions can be attributed to the
443 adsorption of these pectin samples only. Of all pectin samples tested, AP showed the lowest
444 potential to decrease the interfacial tension at both pH values. In case of CP and OP, the
445 interfacial tension drop was similar at both pH values. Oppositely, TP presented a lower
446 interfacial tension at pH 6.0 compared to pH 2.5. Specifically for TP this might be explained
447 by a better availability of the abundantly present protein moieties at pH 6.0 compared to pH
448 2.5, as at pH 6.0 the pectin structure is opened up due to intramolecular electrostatic
449 repulsion. This increased availability can facilitate their adsorption at the interface (Akhtar et
450 al., 2002; Williams et al., 2005). Comparison of the obtained final values of CP at both pH
451 values with literature values indicate that the results obtained are comparable to citrus pectin
452 samples of varying DM (Verkempinck et al., 2018) and to whey protein isolate (Bai, Huan,
453 Gu, & McClements, 2016) while gum arabic lowered the interfacial tension to a lower extent
454 compared to CP (Bai et al., 2016). The described final values of gum arabic appear to be
455 similar to the values obtained for AP (Bai et al., 2016).

456 **3.2.2 Viscosity increasing capacity**

457 An increased viscosity of the continuous phase of an o/w emulsion can contribute to emulsion
458 stability as oil droplet movement is slowed down and consequently oil droplet collisions are
459 decreased. Ultimately, this results in slower creaming rates and possibly even decreased
460 coalescence and flocculation (Ngouémazong et al., 2015).

461 The viscosity of 1% w/v pectin solutions at pH 2.5 and pH 6.0 at a shear rate of 10 s⁻¹ is
462 presented in **Figure 4** (same trends were observed at other shear rates). A clear effect of
463 solution pH was observed for pectin from all botanical sources. At pH 6.0, higher charge

464 densities on the polymers (see also **Figure 2**) could initiate electrostatic interactions and
465 subsequent complex formation of pectin chains with trace amounts of divalent cations such as
466 Ca^{2+} resulting in higher viscosities. In other words, residual cation concentrations could play
467 an important role in the observed differences between pH conditions. The influence of pH on
468 the viscosity was most outspoken for CP, and to a lesser extent for OP and TP, which could
469 (partly) be related to different residual cation concentrations in these pectin samples. In
470 contrast, the branched structure of AP combined with a high DM (see **Table 1**) reduces the
471 possibility for this pectin structure to form strong and extensive electrostatic complexes while
472 increasing chain entanglement. This can explain the high viscosity of AP observed at pH 2.5
473 compared to the other samples and the small difference between the values at both pH
474 conditions for AP.

475 **3.2.3 Creaming behavior**

476 The stability of 5% w/v o/w emulsions was evaluated during 14 days of refrigerated storage
477 by combining several analytical techniques. The results of the different analyses complement
478 each other allowing to obtain in-depth insight into both creaming stability of the emulsions as
479 well as stability against coalescence and flocculation (explained below). The former
480 phenomenon being more a macroscopic process while the latter phenomena encompass
481 microscopic changes in oil droplet size and organization. The macroscopic creaming behavior
482 of the emulsions was evaluated by performing a direct and accelerated physical stability test
483 using an analytical centrifuge and by taking macroscopic pictures of the emulsions stored on
484 the shelf at 4 °C. For all emulsions, the instability index as function of analysis time is
485 presented in **Figure 5**. A slow increase of the instability index when experiencing large
486 centrifugal forces indicates a good stability of the emulsion against creaming. Of all
487 emulsions analyzed, AP pH 6.0 and CP pH 2.5 displayed the slowest increase as function of
488 analysis time, thus presenting best stability against creaming. Oppositely, TP pH 2.5 and TP

489 pH 6.0 creamed faster, indicating a lower stability against creaming. The creaming behavior
490 of TP pH 6.0, and to a lower extent TP pH 2.5, was different in comparison to all other
491 samples as the instability index increased fast in the beginning and also reached the plateau
492 value rapidly. An explanation that can be put forward is the occurrence of pectin-protein
493 interactions during storage due to the high protein content of TP. Most probably, a network
494 will be formed at pH 2.5 by electrostatic interactions between the negatively charge pectin
495 polymers and the positively charged proteins (Oduse, Campbell, Lonchamp, & Euston,
496 2017). This hypothesis seems plausible when observing the macroscopic picture of the TP pH
497 2.5 emulsion after 14 days of storage in **Figure 6**, since this emulsion is the only one with
498 visible phase separation. In all other cases, no creaming layer could be visually detected
499 during two weeks of refrigerated storage (**Figure 6**). At high pH however, a different
500 mechanism is proposed as both pectin and protein are negatively charged at this pH value. It
501 is hypothesized that depletion flocculation might cause the instability index to increase fast
502 while the emulsion undergoes external centrifugal forces. The microstructure of this
503 particular emulsion displayed in **Figure 10** substantiates this hypothesis (see also section
504 3.3.4). A similar observation was made by Santiago et al. (2018b). Overall, a clear pH effect
505 regarding creaming could not be established based on these evaluations.

506 **3.3.4 Oil droplet size**

507 Characterizing and monitoring of the oil droplet size during storage is important to study
508 emulsion stability. Coalescence and flocculation are two important destabilization
509 mechanisms influencing droplet size but can be difficult to distinguish based on results of
510 only one experimental analysis. Therefore, the oil droplet size of the emulsions was studied,
511 integrating results from three analytical techniques. **Figure 7** displays the distributions of the
512 oil droplet size for all emulsions at the beginning and the end of refrigerated storage as
513 measured by laser diffraction. Additionally, the evolution of the volume-weighted average

514 particle size (d_{43}) during storage is depicted in **Figure 8**. An interesting complementary
515 analysis technique to laser diffraction is Single Particle Optical Sizing (SPOS) which is based
516 on the integration of both light extinction and light scattering during analysis. The main
517 advantage of this technique is that it is able to count and size every individual oil droplet as
518 they pass the detector zone one by one. The volume percentage of oil droplets larger than 1
519 μm can be calculated and is displayed in **Figure 9** for all emulsions on each analysis day.
520 Lastly, micrographs of all emulsions are presented in **Figure 10**, visualizing the oil droplet
521 size and organization.

522 Comparing for each pectin sample the results at both pH conditions, smaller droplet sizes
523 were formed at pH 2.5 compared to pH 6.0. This implies a better emulsifying capacity of all
524 studied pectin polymers at lower pH. Increased charge density might lead to insufficient or
525 incomplete oil droplet coverage due to intermolecular repulsion resulting in larger oil droplet
526 sizes after emulsification at pH 6.0. Polymers that still adsorb to the interface at these
527 conditions can contribute to emulsion stability by both steric interactions and electrostatic
528 repulsion. Another overall observation is that all oil droplet size distributions do not present
529 drastic changes during storage with the OP stabilized emulsions displaying the smallest oil
530 droplet size and best stability during storage. Possibly, emulsion stability is the result of the
531 interplay of different phenomena regarding the pectin samples. Interfacial activity and
532 increasing continuous phase viscosity are both beneficial properties for emulsion formation
533 and stability. Pectin polymers displaying both functionalities could create fine and stable
534 emulsions. Integrating all data per pectin sample, provides some specific insight and
535 interesting conclusions.

536 For AP it can be stated that after emulsion production, the emulsions were well stabilized at
537 both pH 2.5 and pH 6.0. The monosaccharide composition of AP indicated that these pectin
538 polymers contained a substantial fraction of the branched RG-I domain (**Table 1**). After

539 adsorption at the oil-water interface, this may have induced steric hindrance further
540 stabilizing the AP emulsions during storage. Besides, the viscosity increasing capacity of
541 non-adsorbed AP polymers can increase emulsion stability during storage as well (see also
542 **Figure 4**). The oil droplet size distributions of AP pH 6.0 (**Figure 7 A**) however, suggest the
543 presence of larger oil droplets or flocs. The microscopic images of AP pH 6.0 reveal the
544 presence of small flocs of associated oil droplets, indicating that the oil droplet distributions
545 of this sample comprised both individual as well as flocculated oil droplets. As during SPOS
546 analysis flocs can be disrupted due to physical agitation and dilution, the results of the AP
547 stabilized emulsions presented in **Figure 9** predominantly represent the individual oil droplet
548 size which remained constant during storage. Thus, it can be concluded that AP pH 2.5 was
549 stable during 14 days of storage, while (bridging) flocculation is the main mechanism causing
550 destabilization in AP pH 6.0.

551 The results for CP clearly showed a better emulsifying capacity at pH 2.5 than at pH 6.0.
552 SPOS analysis revealed some coalescence for both CP-based emulsions, while flocculation
553 was not observed. Overall, CP has definitely potential as an E_{FEs} agent. This sample was
554 characterized as a high DM pectin sample with some side chains present.

555 OP presents the best E_{FEs} potential of all pectin samples at both pH values. All analyses
556 performed clearly indicate very stable oil droplet sizes during storage. No coalescence or
557 flocculation could be observed for these emulsions. It can be hypothesized that the presence
558 of two polymer fractions with different MM (*cf.* **Table 1**), a particular property of the OP
559 pectin sample, might positively influence its E_{FEs} potential. Both fractions may actually
560 contribute to emulsion stability in a synergistic way with the lower MM fraction adsorbing at
561 the interface and the higher MM fraction increasing the viscosity of the continuous aqueous
562 phase. Future research must be conducted to provide better insight in this hypothesis.

563 Finally, micrographs of TP pH 2.5 suggest the presence of (weakly) associated flocs of oil
564 droplets after 14 days of storage. For TP pH 6.0, flocculation was already visible on the day
565 of emulsion production but intensified during storage. Interestingly, the TP stabilized
566 emulsions at both pH conditions showed the largest d_{43} increase between day 8 and day 14 of
567 storage. Longer storage might have led to further fast destabilization. At pH 2.5, this was also
568 observed for the individual oil droplet size (**Figure 9**) while good oil droplet size stability
569 was observed at pH 6.0. The latter indicates that flocs are broken up during analysis.
570 Nevertheless, weakly associated flocs can certainly influence creaming behavior which was
571 found to be occurring rather fast for TP stabilized emulsions in comparison to all other
572 emulsions (**Figure 5**). This indicates that (weak) flocculation and creaming were the
573 destabilization phenomena with the largest impact on the emulsions stabilized by TP. As was
574 also suggested above, the high protein content of TP might cause network formation through
575 pectin-protein interactions explaining the flocculation and creaming behavior observed.

576 **4 Conclusion**

577 Structural differences in terms of DM, monosaccharide composition, protein content and/or
578 MM were observed for pectin rich extracts from apple, carrot, onion and tomato. All pectin
579 samples were able to lower the interfacial tension of an oil droplet. During storage, the pectin
580 samples generally displayed a better emulsifying capacity at pH 2.5 than at pH 6.0. A higher
581 charge density induces interpolymer repulsion possibly leading to incomplete droplet
582 coverage. For AP, possibly bridging flocculation occurred due to the presence of long side
583 chains in the AP structure, while for TP pectin-protein interactions might explain the
584 observed flocculation and creaming behavior. In case of CP no flocculation was observed,
585 but coalescence occurred to a low extent. OP displayed the most promising E_{FEs} potential of
586 all pectin samples tested. The oil droplet size remained constant for 14 days in all analyses
587 performed, implying neither coalescence nor flocculation did occur in these emulsions. The

588 proposed hypothesis suggests that the two polymer fractions with different MM present in the
589 OP sample may contribute to emulsion stability in a synergistic way. Yet, this hypothesis
590 needs to be verified by a dedicated experimental set-up in follow-up studies.

591 **Acknowledgement**

592 B. Neckebroek is a PhD fellow funded by the Research Foundation Flanders (FWO - Grant
593 no. 1S14717N). S.H.E. Verkempinck is a Postdoctoral Researcher funded by the Research
594 Foundation Flanders (FWO - Grant no. 1222420N). J. Van Audenhove is a PhD fellow
595 funded by the Research Foundation Flanders (FWO – Grant no. 1134619N). T. Bernaerts is a
596 postdoctoral researcher funded by Research Fund KU Leuven (PDM/19/128). The authors
597 would like to thank the Division of Soft Matter, Rheology and Technology (KU Leuven,
598 Leuven, Belgium) for the use of the pendant drop tensiometer, the Laboratory of Food
599 Chemistry and Biochemistry (KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium) for the use of the Zetasizer
600 NanoZS and d'Arta NV (Ardoois, Belgium) for the kind donation of blanched and deep-
601 frozen carrot cubes.

602 **Declaration of interests**

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

604 **References**

- 605 Ahmed, A. E. R., & Labavitch, J. M. (1978). A simplified method for accurate determination
606 of cell wall uronide content. *Journal of Food Biochemistry*, 1(4), 361–365.
607 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-4514.1978.tb00193.x>
- 608 Akhtar, M., Dickinson, E., Mazoyer, J., & Langendorff, V. (2002). Emulsion stabilizing
609 properties of depolymerized pectin. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 16(4), 249–256.
610 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0268-005X\(03\)00027-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0268-005X(03)00027-4)

- 611 Alba, K., & Kontogiorgos, V. (2017). Pectin at the oil-water interface: Relationship of
612 molecular composition and structure to functionality. *Food Hydrocolloids*, *68*, 211–218.
613 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2016.07.026>
- 614 Bai, L., Huan, S., Gu, J., & McClements, D. J. (2016). Fabrication of oil-in-water
615 nanoemulsions by dual-channel microfluidization using natural emulsifiers: Saponins,
616 phospholipids, proteins, and polysaccharides. *Food Hydrocolloids*, *61*, 703–711.
617 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2016.06.035>
- 618 Bernaerts, T. M. M., Kyomugasho, C., Van Looveren, N., Gheysen, L., Foubert, I.,
619 Hendrickx, M. E., & Van Loey, A. M. (2018). Molecular and rheological
620 characterization of different cell wall fractions of *Porphyridium cruentum*. *Carbohydrate*
621 *Polymers*, *195*(February), 542–550. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2018.05.001>
- 622 Berüter, J. (2004). Carbohydrate metabolism in two apple genotypes that differ in malate
623 accumulation. *Journal of Plant Physiology*, *161*, 1011–1029.
624 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jplph.2003.12.008>
- 625 Blumenkrantz, N., & Asboe-Hansen, G. (1973). New Method for Quantitative Determination
626 of Uronic Acids. *Analytical Biochemistry*, *54*, 484–489.
627 [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697\(73\)90377-1](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697(73)90377-1)
- 628 Caffall, H. K., & Mohnen, D. (2009). The structure, function, and biosynthesis of plant cell
629 wall pectic polysaccharides. *Carbohydrate Research*, *344*, 1879–1900.
630 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carres.2009.05.021>
- 631 Chen, H., Fu, X., & Luo, Z. (2016). Effect of molecular structure on emulsifying properties
632 of sugar beet pulp pectin. *Food Hydrocolloids*, *54*, 99–106.
633 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2015.09.021>

- 634 Chen, J., Liu, W., Liu, C.-M., Li, T., Liang, R.-H., & Luo, S.-J. (2015). Pectin Modifications:
635 A Review. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 55(12), 1684–1698.
636 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2012.718722>
- 637 De Roeck, A., Sila, D. N., Duvetter, T., Van Loey, A., & Hendrickx, M. (2008). Effect of
638 high pressure/high temperature processing on cell wall pectic substances in relation to
639 firmness of carrot tissue. *Food Chemistry*, 107, 1225–1235.
640 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2007.09.076>
- 641 Detloff, T., Sobisch, T., & Lerche, D. (2014). Instability Index. *Dispersion Letters Technical*,
642 T4, 1–4.
- 643 Funami, T., Nakauma, M., Ishihara, S., Tanaka, R., Inoue, T., & Phillips, G. O. (2011).
644 Structural modifications of sugar beet pectin and the relationship of structure to
645 functionality. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 25(2), 221–229.
646 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2009.11.017>
- 647 Funami, T., Zhang, G., Hiroe, M., Noda, S., Nakauma, M., Asai, I., ... Phillips, G. O. (2007).
648 Effects of the proteinaceous moiety on the emulsifying properties of sugar beet pectin.
649 *Food Hydrocolloids*, 21(8), 1319–1329. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2006.10.009>
- 650 Golovchenko, V. V., Khramova, D. S., Ovodova, R. G., Shashkov, A. S., & Ovodov, Y. S.
651 (2012). Structure of pectic polysaccharides isolated from onion *Allium cepa* L. using a
652 simulated gastric medium and their effect on intestinal absorption. *Food Chemistry*, 134,
653 1813–1822. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2012.03.087>
- 654 Houben, K., Jolie, R. P., Fraeye, I., Van Loey, A. M., & Hendrickx, M. E. (2011).
655 Comparative study of the cell wall composition of broccoli, carrot, and tomato:
656 Structural characterization of the extractable pectins and hemicelluloses. *Carbohydrate*
657 *Research*, 346(9), 1105–1111. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carres.2011.04.014>

658 Kyomugasho, C., Christiaens, S., Shpigelman, A., Van Loey, A. M., & Hendrickx, M. E.
659 (2015). FT-IR spectroscopy, a reliable method for routine analysis of the degree of
660 methylesterification of pectin in different fruit- and vegetable-based matrices. *Food*
661 *Chemistry*, 176, 82–90. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2014.12.033>

662 Leroux, J., Langendorff, V., Schick, G., Vaishnav, V., & Mazoyer, J. (2003). Emulsion
663 stabilizing properties of pectin. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 17(4), 455–462.
664 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0268-005X\(03\)00027-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0268-005X(03)00027-4)

665 Luengwilai, K., & Beckles, D. M. (2009). Structural Investigations and Morphology of
666 Tomato Fruit Starch. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 57(1), 282–291.
667 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf802064w>

668 Mariotti, F., Tomé, D., & Mirand, P. P. (2008). Converting nitrogen into protein - Beyond
669 6.25 and Jones' factors. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 48(2), 177–
670 184. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10408390701279749>

671 McClements, D. J. (2015). *Food Emulsions: Principles, Practices and Techniques* (3rd
672 Editio). Boca Raton, FL, USA: CRC Press Taylor & Francis Group.

673 McFeeters, R. F., & Armstrong, S. A. (1984). Measurement of Pectin Methylation in Plant
674 Cell Walls. *Analytical Biochemistry*, 139, 212–217.

675 Müller-Maatsch, J., Bencivenni, M., Caligiani, A., Tedeschi, T., Bruggeman, G., Bosch, M.,
676 ... Sforza, S. (2016). Pectin content and composition from different food waste streams.
677 *Food Chemistry*, 201, 37–45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.01.012>

678 Neckebroek, B., Verkempinck, S. H. E., Vaes, G., Wouters, K., Magnée, J., Hendrickx, M.
679 E., & Van Loey, A. M. (2020). Advanced insight into the emulsifying and emulsion
680 stabilizing capacity of carrot pectin subdomains. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 102(May 2020),

681 105594. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2019.105594>

682 Ng, A., Parker, M. L., Parr, A. J., Saunders, P. K., Smith, A. C., & Waldron, K. W. (2000).
683 Physicochemical Characteristics of Onion (*Allium cepa* L .) Tissues. *Journal of*
684 *Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 48(11), 5612–5617.
685 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf991206q>

686 Ngouémazong, E. D., Christiaens, S., Shpigelman, A., Van Loey, A., & Hendrickx, M.
687 (2015). The Emulsifying and Emulsion-Stabilizing Properties of Pectin: A Review.
688 *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*, 14, 705–718.
689 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-4337.12160>

690 Obiadalla-Ali, H., Fernie, A. R., Kossmann, J., & Lloyd, J. R. (2004). Developmental
691 analysis of carbohydrate metabolism in tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* cv. Micro-
692 Tom) fruits. *Physiologia Plantarum*, 120, 196–204.

693 Oduse, K., Campbell, L., Lonchamp, J., & Euston, S. R. (2017). Electrostatic complexes of
694 whey protein and pectin as foaming and emulsifying agents. *International Journal of*
695 *Food Properties*, 20(3), 3027–3041. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10942912.2017.1396478>

696 Rodrigo, D., Cortés, C., Clynen, E., Schoofs, L., Van Loey, A., & Hendrickx, M. (2006).
697 Thermal and high-pressure stability of purified polygalacturonase and
698 pectinmethylesterase from four different tomato processing varieties. *Food Research*
699 *International*, 39, 440–448. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2005.09.007>

700 Santiago, J. S. J., Kyomugasho, C., Maheshwari, S., Jamsazzadeh Kermani, Z., Van de
701 Walle, D., Van Loey, A. M., ... Hendrickx, M. E. (2018). Unravelling the structure of
702 serum pectin originating from thermally and mechanically processed carrot-based
703 suspensions. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 77, 482–493.
704 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2017.10.026>

- 705 Santiago, J. S. J., Salvia-trujillo, L., Palomo, A., Niroula, A., Xu, F., Van Loey, A. M., &
706 Hendrickx, M. E. (2018). Process-induced water-soluble biopolymers from broccoli and
707 tomato purées: Their molecular structure in relation to their emulsion stabilizing
708 capacity. *Food Hydrocolloids*, *81*, 312–327.
709 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2018.03.005>
- 710 Sato, M. de F., Rigoni, D. C., Canteri, M. H. G., Petkowicz, C. L. de O., Nogueira, A., &
711 Wosiacki, G. (2011). Chemical and instrumental characterization of pectin from dried
712 pomace of eleven apple cultivars. *Acta Scientiarum - Agronomy*, *33*(3), 383–389.
713 <https://doi.org/10.4025/actasciagron.v33i3.7125>
- 714 Schmidt, U. S., Koch, L., Rentschler, C., Kurz, T., Endreß, H. U., & Schuchmann, H. P.
715 (2015). Effect of Molecular Weight Reduction, Acetylation and Esterification on the
716 Emulsification Properties of Citrus Pectin. *Food Biophysics*, *10*, 217–227.
717 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11483-014-9380-1>
- 718 Schmidt, U. S., Schütz, L., & Schuchmann, H. P. (2017). Interfacial and emulsifying
719 properties of citrus pectin: Interaction of pH, ionic strength and degree of esterification.
720 *Food Hydrocolloids*, *62*, 288–298. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2016.08.016>
- 721 Shpigelman, A., Kyomugasho, C., Christiaens, S., Van Loey, A. M., & Hendrickx, M. E.
722 (2014). Thermal and high pressure high temperature processes result in distinctly
723 different pectin non-enzymatic conversions. *Food Hydrocolloids*, *39*, 251–263.
724 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2014.01.018>
- 725 Stolle-Smits, T., Beekhuizen, J. G., Recourt, K., Voragen, A. G. J., & Van Dijk, C. (1997).
726 Changes in Pectic and Hemicellulosic Polymers of Green Beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.)
727 during Industrial Processing. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *45*(12),
728 4790–4799. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf9703720>

729 Verkempinck, S. H. E., Kyomugasho, C., Salvia-trujillo, L., Denis, S., Bourgeois, M., Van
730 Loey, A. M., ... Grauwet, T. (2018). Emulsion stabilizing properties of citrus pectin and
731 its interactions with conventional emulsifiers in oil-in-water emulsions. *Food*
732 *Hydrocolloids*, 85, 144–157. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2018.07.014>

733 Voragen, A. G. J., Coenen, G.-J., Verhoef, R. P., & Schols, H. A. (2009). Pectin, a versatile
734 polysaccharide present in plant cell walls. *Structural Chemistry*, 20, 263–275.
735 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11224-009-9442-z>

736 Willats, W. G. T., Knox, J. P., & Mikkelsen, J. D. (2006). Pectin : new insights into an old
737 polymer are starting to gel. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 17, 97–104.
738 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2005.10.008>

739 Willemsen, K. L. D. D., Panozzo, A., Moelants, K., Debon, S. J. J., Desmet, C., Cardinaels,
740 R., ... Hendrickx, M. E. G. (2017). Physico-chemical and viscoelastic properties of high
741 pressure homogenized lemon peel fiber fraction suspensions obtained after sequential
742 pectin extraction. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 72, 358–371.
743 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2017.06.020>

744 Williams, P. A., Sayers, C., Viebke, C., Senan, C., Mazoyer, J., & Boulenguer, P. (2005).
745 Elucidation of the emulsification properties of sugar beet pectin. *Journal of Agricultural*
746 *and Food Chemistry*, 53(9), 3592–3597. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf0404142>

747 Zhao, S., Ren, W., Gao, W., Tian, G., Zhao, C., Bao, Y., ... Zheng, J. (2020). Effect of
748 mesoscopic structure of citrus pectin on its emulsifying properties: Compactness is more
749 important than size. *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 570, 80–88.
750 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcis.2020.02.113>

751 **Tables**752 **Table 1. Structural properties of all pectin samples generated, expressed as average values \pm standard deviation. (GalA: galacturonic**
753 **acid; DM: degree of methylesterification; MM: molar mass)**

	AP	CP	OP	TP
GalA content (mg/g)	601.88 \pm 14.76 ^a	572.86 \pm 20.85 ^b	359.26 \pm 21.96 ^d	523.83 \pm 8.65 ^c
Neutral monosaccharides (mg/g)				
Rhamnose	43.17 \pm 2.29 ^a	32.39 \pm 1.63 ^b	12.23 \pm 0.54 ^c	13.00 \pm 1.54 ^c
Arabinose	158.03 \pm 2.79 ^a	53.45 \pm 4.05 ^b	12.79 \pm 0.66 ^c	13.40 \pm 1.01 ^c
Galactose	57.71 \pm 3.69 ^b	66.95 \pm 5.94 ^b	291.11 \pm 8.57 ^a	47.97 \pm 5.03 ^c
Fucose	0.17 \pm 0.06 ^b	2.28 \pm 1.19 ^a	ND	ND
Glucose	17.27 \pm 0.62 ^b	8.86 \pm 1.59 ^c	52.23 \pm 1.71 ^a	15.77 \pm 1.44 ^b
Xylose	21.22 \pm 0.95 ^a	2.34 \pm 0.07 ^c	6.37 \pm 0.96 ^b	5.92 \pm 0.86 ^b
Mannose	1.33 \pm 0.03 ^c	4.36 \pm 0.84 ^b	ND	5.40 \pm 0.27 ^a
DM (%)	78.41 \pm 0.83 ^a	63.02 \pm 2.26 ^b	56.41 \pm 0.21 ^c	54.29 \pm 0.32 ^c
Protein content (% w/w)	6.53 \pm 0.02 ^b	5.28 \pm 0.37 ^c	6.28 \pm 0.08 ^b	16.48 \pm 0.05 ^a
MM peak 1 (kDa)	482.50 \pm 6.36 ^{bc}	429.50 \pm 2.12 ^c	1150.00 \pm 42.43 ^a	523.50 \pm 14.85 ^b
MM peak 2 (kDa)	N/A	N/A	64.40 \pm 5.37 ^d	N/A

754 ND: not detected

755 N/A: not applicable

756 Different superscript letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between pectin samples for one specific structural property.

757 Figure Captions

758 **Figure 1. Molar mass distributions displaying the molar mass (dashed lines) and**
759 **concentration (full lines) profiles for AP (green), CP (orange), OP (blue) and TP (red).**
760 **For better interpretation of this graph, the reader is referred to the colored version**
761 **(available online).**

762 **Figure 2. ζ -potential as function of pH for 1% w/v solutions of (○) AP, (■) CP, (□) OP**
763 **and (●) TP.**

764 **Figure 3. Dynamic interfacial tension of a droplet of purified sunflower oil in 0.2% w/v**
765 **solutions of AP (green), CP (orange), OP (blue) and TP (red). Grey lines represent the**
766 **dynamic interfacial tension of a droplet of purified sunflower oil in ultrapure water.**
767 **Full lines represent measurements at pH 2.5, while dashed lines represent**
768 **measurements at pH 6.0. For better interpretation of this graph, the reader is referred**
769 **to the colored version (available online).**

770 **Figure 4. Viscosity of 1% w/v solutions of AP, CP, OP and TP at a shear rate of 10 s^{-1} .**
771 **Full bars represent measurements at pH 2.5 while shaded bars represent measurements**
772 **at pH 6.0.**

773 **Figure 5. Instability index of 5% o/w emulsions stabilized by 1% w/v AP (green), CP**
774 **(orange), OP (blue) and TP (red). Full lines represent measurements at pH 2.5, while**
775 **dashed lines represent measurements at pH 6.0. For better interpretation of this graph,**
776 **the reader is referred to the colored version (available online).**

777 **Figure 6. Macroscopic pictures of 5% o/w emulsions stored at 4°C stabilized by 1% w/v**
778 **of different pectin samples. For each set of pictures from left to right: day of emulsion**
779 **production (day 0), day 1, day 4, day 8 and day 14 of refrigerated storage at 4°C .**

780 **Figure 7. Oil droplet size distributions for 5% o/w emulsions stabilized by 1% w/v (A)**
781 **AP, (B) CP, (C) OP and (D) TP for the day of emulsion preparation (full lines) and day**
782 **14 of refrigerated storage (dashed lines). Black lines represent emulsions at pH 2.5,**
783 **while grey lines represent emulsions at pH 6.0.**

784 **Figure 8. Evolution of the average oil droplet size expressed as d_{43} during refrigerated**
785 **storage of 5% o/w emulsions stabilized by 1% w/v (A) AP, (B) CP, (C) OP and (D) TP.**
786 **Black lines represent emulsions at pH 2.5, while grey lines represent emulsions at pH**
787 **6.0.**

788 **Figure 9. Volume fraction of oil droplets larger than $1 \mu\text{m}$ present in 5% o/w emulsions**
789 **stabilized by 1% w/v AP, CP, OP and TP at (A) pH 2.5 and (B) pH 6.0 measured by the**
790 **SPOS technique. Increasing color intensity of bars indicates longer storage time: ■ day**
791 **of emulsion production (day 0), ■ day 1, ■ day 4, ■ day 8 and ■ day 14.**

792 **Figure 10. Light microscopic images of 5% o/w emulsions stabilized by 1% w/v AP, CP,**
793 **OP and TP at pH 2.5 and 6.0. Scale bars represent a length of $100 \mu\text{m}$.**