

1 **Investigating the role of the different molar mass fractions**  
2 **of a pectin rich extract from onion towards its emulsifying**  
3 **and emulsion stabilizing potential**

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## 29 **Abstract**

30 A pectin rich nitric acid extract produced from onion flesh (NA) showed promising emulsion  
31 stabilizing potential. At both pH 2.5 and pH 6.0, emulsions produced with the NA sample as  
32 sole emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing compound displayed stable oil droplet size  
33 distributions. Moreover, the emulsions showed good stability against creaming. Interestingly,  
34 the pectin rich acid extract was characterized by a bimodal molar mass distribution which led  
35 to the research objective to investigate the possible role of both polymer fractions in the  
36 promising emulsion stabilizing potential. To investigate this, both fractions were separated  
37 using centrifugal ultrafiltration.

38 Structural characterization revealed the presence of mainly short chain galactans in the low  
39 molar mass fraction (NA-LMM) while the high molar mass fraction (NA-HMM) consisted  
40 mainly of pectin. Rheological analysis clearly demonstrated the viscosity increasing effect of  
41 NA-HMM in solution while the viscosity of a NA-LMM solution at equal concentration was  
42 comparable to pure water. Emulsions produced with NA-LMM destabilized quickly during  
43 refrigerated storage by extensive coalescence and creaming at pH 2.5. Despite presenting a  
44 somewhat better stability at pH 6, also in this case fast destabilization was observed. Contrarily,  
45 NA-HMM showed promising emulsion stabilizing potential. Oil droplet size distributions  
46 remained stable during storage at both pH 2.5 and pH 6.0. Creaming was observed for NA-  
47 HMM at pH 6.0 although to a lesser extent as for NA-LMM stabilized emulsions. Based on  
48 these results, it can be concluded that NA-LMM does not contribute to the emulsion stabilizing  
49 functionality of NA. Promising functionality is mainly attributed to the high molar mass  
50 polymers.

51 **Keywords: Onion pectin; Molar mass; Fractionation; Emulsion stability; Viscosity**

## 52 **1 Introduction**

53 Today, an extensive range of emulsion-based food products are available on the market. The  
54 majority of these products are industrially manufactured and consist of an aqueous and an oil  
55 phase in which several food ingredients and components can be dissolved. Due to the large  
56 contact area between oil and water, these systems are thermodynamically unfavorable. In order  
57 to produce stable food emulsions with a desired and extended shelf life, emulsifiers and  
58 emulsion stabilizing compounds are commonly added (McClements & Gumus, 2016; Walstra,  
59 1993). Many of the compounds used for this purpose by industrial producers today are  
60 synthetically manufactured low molecular weight surfactants such as Tweens and Spans.  
61 Contrastingly, there has been a rising consumer demand for more natural, sustainable and  
62 environmentally friendly food products over the last decades (McClements & Gumus, 2016).  
63 Consequently, food producers are faced with the challenge of finding ways to shift from the  
64 use of synthetic emulsifiers towards the use of natural alternatives.

65 Over recent years, interest has grown in the potential use of pectin to stabilize oil-in-water  
66 emulsions (o/w emulsions). Originally, the emulsion stabilizing potential of pectin, together  
67 with other thickeners, was attributed to its viscosity increasing effect in the aqueous phase.  
68 Certainly this may have a positive effect on emulsion stability, but there is more to the  
69 promising potential of pectin besides this factor (Ngouémazong et al., 2015). Recent research  
70 showed pectin is able to adsorb at the oil-water interface and can be considered a surface active  
71 polymer (Funami et al., 2011; Schmidt, Schmidt, et al., 2015; Verkempinck et al., 2018).  
72 Additionally, adsorbed pectin can stabilize oil droplets against coalescence in two distinct  
73 ways. Parts of the pectin chains and/or branches of the pectin structure which protrude away  
74 from the interface into the continuous aqueous phase increase emulsion stability by steric  
75 hindrance. Secondly, non-methoxylated galacturonic acid residues of pectin chains can be  
76 negatively charged at higher pH values. Electrostatic repulsion between pectin chains adsorbed

77 on different oil droplets can contribute to long-term stability as well (Funami et al., 2007, 2011;  
78 Ngouémazong et al., 2015). These findings suggest pectin could play multiple roles in  
79 stabilizing o/w emulsions and therefore it is interesting to study the use of this natural polymer  
80 for this food technological purpose.

81 Pectin chains are complex macromolecules whose structure can be chemically and/or  
82 enzymatically modified (Voragen et al., 2009). Structural changes already take place during  
83 plant growth and development (e.g. fruit ripening) but targeted structural modifications of  
84 pectin can also be executed after pectin extraction from plant tissues (Ngouémazong et al.,  
85 2015). Although the structural complexity of pectic polymers is actually responsible for its  
86 multifunctional nature, it makes pectin research extra challenging. This is evident when looking  
87 at previous studies on the emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing capacity of pectin. Many  
88 different pectin properties have been suggested to attribute to its aforementioned functionality.  
89 Research papers mention pectin related proteinaceous moieties (Akhtar et al., 2002; Funami et  
90 al., 2007, 2011; Leroux et al., 2003; Williams et al., 2005), the degree of methyl esterification  
91 (DM) and acetylation (Leroux et al., 2003; Schmidt, Koch, et al., 2015; Verkempinck et al.,  
92 2018) and the presence of covalently bound ferulic acid in the pectin structure of sugar beet  
93 pectin (Chen et al., 2016). These structural characteristics all determine the amphiphilic  
94 character of the polymer chains. Furthermore, another structural feature of pectin polymers,  
95 not directly linked to its amphiphilicity, seems extremely important in this research: the molar  
96 mass of the pectic polymers. In fact, molar mass is actually often mentioned in literature to  
97 influence the functionality of pectin as well. However, the difference with other structural  
98 properties is that it influences multiple properties. The molar mass of pectin polymers  
99 determines its adsorption kinetics, influences the polymer conformation and consequently the  
100 accessibility of surface active groups, and is the main factor that determines the viscosity of a

101 pectin solution (Akhtar et al., 2002; Alba & Kontogiorgos, 2017; Leroux et al., 2003;  
102 Ngouémazong et al., 2015; Schmidt, Koch, et al., 2015).

103 Previous research showed good potential of a pectin rich onion extract to serve as an  
104 emulsifying and/or emulsion stabilizing agent (Neckebroeck et al., 2021). In the current study,  
105 the goal is to further investigate this pectin rich sample and to better understand the origin of  
106 the promising functionality. The first part of the results and discussion section will introduce  
107 the promising potential of the pectin rich nitric acid extract to the reader (section 3.1). As the  
108 pectin rich acid extract displayed a bimodal molar mass distribution, it was opted to particularly  
109 focus on the different molar mass fractions to gain in-depth insight into the emulsifying and  
110 emulsion stabilizing potential. It was hypothesized that both the low as well as the high molar  
111 mass polymer fraction present in the sample could contribute to emulsion stability. To  
112 investigate this hypothesis, it was aimed to separate both fractions and consequently study their  
113 individual potential to stabilize o/w emulsions (section 3.2). Samples were compared based on  
114 molecular structure, physicochemical properties and their ability to form and stabilize o/w  
115 emulsions during refrigerated storage. Understanding the structural and functional properties  
116 of the separated fractions may lead to further and better insight into the functionality of the  
117 original pectin rich acid extract.

## 118 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 119 **2.1 Materials**

120 Chopped onions (*Allium cepa* L.) and commercial sunflower oil were purchased from a local  
121 supermarket. Ultrapure water (organic free, 18.2M $\Omega$  cm resistance) was supplied by a  
122 Simplicity™ 150 water purification system (Millipore, Billerica, USA). Unless mentioned  
123 otherwise, all chemicals used were of analytical grade.

### 124 **2.2 Pectin extraction and fractionation**

#### 125 **2.2.1 Production of Alcohol Insoluble Residue**

126 The procedure of McFeeters & Armstrong (1984) was used to isolate cell wall material from  
127 chopped onion pieces as an alcohol insoluble residue (AIR). 60 g of wet tissue was suspended  
128 in 192 ml 95% ethanol using a high speed mixer (3 times for 6 s) (Buchi mixer B-400, Flawil,  
129 Switzerland). After filtration (filter paper Machery-Nagel MN 615 Ø 90 mm), the residue was  
130 resuspended in 96 ml 95% ethanol, mixed and filtered again. Subsequently, the resulting  
131 residue after this step was resuspended once more in 96 ml technical acetone and finally filtered  
132 to obtain the AIR. The AIR was dried overnight at 40 °C, grounded with mortar and pestle and  
133 stored in a desiccator until use.

#### 134 **2.2.2 Nitric acid extraction**

135 An acid extraction was executed on the AIR following the procedure described by Willemsen  
136 et al. (2017). Briefly, 60 g AIR was suspended in 4 L of demineralized water and incubated at  
137 80 °C for 30 minutes while stirring to enhance suspension formation. Subsequently, the pH of  
138 the suspension was adjusted to 1.6 using 7 M HNO<sub>3</sub> and extraction proceeded for 60 minutes  
139 at 80 °C under mild stirring. After fast cooling in an ice bath, the suspension was centrifuged  
140 at room temperature for 10 min at 4000 g. The supernatant was separated from the pellet and  
141 the pH of the former was adjusted to 6.1. The resulting pectin rich solution was extensively

142 dialyzed against demineralized water for 48h (Spectra/Por<sup>®</sup> Dialysis Membrane, 3.5 kDa  
143 MWCO), lyophilized (Alpha 2-4 LSC, Martin Christ Gefriertrocknungsanlagen GmbH,  
144 Osterode, Germany) and stored in a desiccator until use. This sample is further referred to as  
145 the nitric acid extract (NA). Due to some practical issues, the nitric acid extraction was  
146 performed in duplicate resulting in two batches of NA sample referred to as NA b1 and NA b2.

### 147 **2.2.3 Acid extract fractionation**

148 To fractionate the nitric acid extract of onion into fractions with different molar mass  
149 distributions, ultrafiltration was applied using centrifugal concentrators (Vivaspin<sup>®</sup> 20  
150 ultrafiltration unit, Sartorius AG, Göttingen, Germany). The ultrafiltration units are equipped  
151 with vertical twin PES-membranes (1,000 kDa MWCO) through which smaller polymers can  
152 migrate while large polymers are retained on the membranes. Briefly, a 0.2% (w/v) solution of  
153 the acid extract was brought in the units on the membranes. After centrifugation for 60 minutes  
154 at 5500 g and 20 °C, the filtrate was collected as the fraction containing the nitric acid extracted  
155 polymers of low molar mass (NA-LMM). The concentrate retained on the membranes was  
156 redissolved overnight in ultrapure water and consequently centrifugation was repeated under  
157 identical conditions as described above. After dissolving, the retained concentrate of this  
158 second centrifugal ultrafiltration step was collected as the fraction containing the nitric acid  
159 extracted polymers of high molar mass (NA-HMM). Both collected fractions were dialyzed  
160 against demineralized water for 48h (Spectra/Por<sup>®</sup> Dialysis Membrane, 3.5 kDa MWCO),  
161 lyophilized (Alpha 2-4 LSC, Martin Christ Gefriertrocknungsanlagen GmbH, Osterode,  
162 Germany) and stored in a desiccator until use. Some practical issues forced the repetition of  
163 the NA sample production. As a consequence, the NA-LMM sample was produced from NA b1  
164 and NA-HMM was produced from NA b2 according to the procedure described in this section.

## 165 **2.3 Structural characterization of the pectin samples**

### 166 **2.3.1 Degree of methyl esterification**

167 The DM was measured using Fourier transform infra-red spectroscopy (FT-IR; IRAffinity-1,  
168 Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) following the procedure and calibration curve described by  
169 (Kyomugasho et al., 2015). FT-IR analysis was performed in quadruplicate.

### 170 **2.3.2 Galacturonic acid content**

171 The galacturonic acid (GalA) content of the samples was determined spectrophotometrically.  
172 Before analysis, samples were hydrolyzed with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> following the method described by  
173 Ahmed & Labavitch (1978). The hydrolysis was performed in duplicate and each hydrolysate  
174 was analyzed in triplicate (25 °C, wavelength 520 nm, GENESYS™ 30 Visible  
175 Spectrophotometer, Thermo Scientific, Massachusetts, USA). The spectrophotometric method  
176 of analysis can be consulted in Blumenkrantz & Asboe-Hansen (1973).

### 177 **2.3.3 Monosaccharide composition**

178 The GalA content is related to the pectin content but it is equally important to determine the  
179 content of other monosaccharides as well. Monosaccharides in the samples can originate from  
180 pectin sidechains and from co-extracted non-pectin polysaccharides. The content of fucose,  
181 rhamnose, arabinose, galactose, xylose and mannose in the samples was determined using high  
182 performance anion exchange chromatography coupled to a pulsed amperometric detector  
183 (HPAEC-PAD). Before analysis, the samples were hydrolyzed in 4 M trifluoroacetic acid  
184 (TFA) at 110 °C for 1.5 h followed by immediate cooling in an ice bath. Neutralization of the  
185 remaining TFA was performed by first drying the samples under N<sub>2</sub> at 45 °C, washing with 1  
186 M ammonium hydroxide and finally drying the samples a second time under N<sub>2</sub> at 45 °C (De  
187 Roeck et al., 2008; Stolle-Smits et al., 1997). The fully dried hydrolyzed samples were  
188 redissolved in ultrapure water and filtered (Chromafil® A-45/25, 0.45 µm pore size, Macherey-

189 Nagel, Düren, Germany) before being injected into the HPAEC-PAD system. The hydrolysis  
190 was performed in duplicate.

191 Identification and quantification were performed by use of calibration curves using a mixture  
192 of commercially available standards of all seven monosaccharides to be quantified. Further  
193 details on the preparation of these standards and on the Dionex ICS-6000 system (Dionex,  
194 Sunnyvale, CA, USA) used for the HPAEC-PAD analysis can be found in Neckebroek et al.  
195 (2020). The analysis in the current study was performed exactly as described in the work  
196 mentioned.

#### 197 **2.3.4 Protein content**

198 The calculation of the protein content of the samples was based on the total nitrogen content  
199 which was determined in triplicate for each sample using an elemental analyzer (EA 1108  
200 CHNS–O elemental analyzer, CE- Instruments/Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) using  
201 the Dumas method (Santiago et al., 2018). A conversion factor of 6.25 was applied to the total  
202 nitrogen content to calculate the protein content of each pectin sample.

#### 203 **2.3.5 Molar mass distribution**

204 Lyophilized samples were dissolved overnight in ultrapure water at a concentration of 0.2%  
205 (w/v). After dissolving, samples were filtered before injection (Chromafil A-45/25, 0.45 mm  
206 pore size, Macherey-Nagel GmbH, Düren, Germany). Consequently, 100 µl of each sample  
207 was injected and analyzed by means of high performance size exclusion chromatography  
208 coupled to a multiangle laser light scattering detector (HPSEC-MALLS). Elution was  
209 performed using a 0.1 M acetic acid buffer (pH 4.4) containing 0.1 M NaNO<sub>3</sub> at a flow rate of  
210 0.5 ml/min over a series of size exclusion columns kept at 35 °C (Ultrahydrogel 250, 1000 and  
211 2000 with exclusion limits of  $8 \times 10^4$ ,  $4 \times 10^6$  and  $1 \times 10^7$  g/mol, respectively, Waters, Milford,  
212 MA, USA). The concentration of the eluted polymers was calculated based on the refractive

213 index (RI) signal and a dn/dc value of 0.146 ml/g (Shodex RI-101, Showa Denko K.K.,  
214 Kawazaki, Japan). The molar mass was calculated from the MALLS signal (PN3621 detector,  
215 Postnova analytics, Germany) applying the Debye fitting method (up to second order) by the  
216 NovaMals software (version 1.2.0.0, Postnova analytics, Germany). Each sample was analyzed  
217 in triplicate. The analysis performed was previously described by Shpigelman, Kyomugasho,  
218 Christiaens, Van Loey, & Hendrickx (2014). The average molar mass of the two individual  
219 peaks was calculated as follows: for peak 1, the part of the molar mass distribution between  
220 minute 35 and minute 51 of elution was taken into account, while for peak 2, the part from  
221 minute 51 of elution until the end of elution set at 60.5 minutes was taken into account.

## 222 **2.4 Physicochemical characterization of the pectin rich samples**

### 223 **2.4.1 $\zeta$ -potential**

224 The  $\zeta$ -potential of all samples was measured as a function of pH by capillary electrophoresis  
225 (Zetasizer NanoZS, Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, United Kingdom). 1% (w/v) solutions  
226 were prepared overnight and subsequently diluted 1:100 (v/v) in ultrapure water set at specific pH  
227 values (pH 1.5 to 7). Analysis was performed applying an electrical voltage over two electrodes of  
228 capillary cells containing the samples. The resulting velocity of charged polymers was measured  
229 by a laser beam and used to obtain the electrophoretic mobility. The  $\zeta$ -potential was calculated in  
230 the instrument's software from the electrophoretic mobility using the equation of Henry. Each  
231 sample at one particular pH value was inserted twice into the equipment and additionally analyzed  
232 in duplicate with a minimum of 12 runs per measurement. Reported values are averages of these  
233 four analytical values.

### 234 **2.4.2 Dynamic interfacial tension**

235 An important characteristic of emulsifiers is their capacity to lower the interfacial tension by  
236 adsorbing at the interface. This adsorption enhances droplet disruption and stabilizes  
237 emulsified droplets. Therefore, the dynamic interfacial tension of an oil droplet in aqueous

238 solutions of the produced samples was measured using a pendant drop tensiometer (CAM 200,  
239 KSV Instruments, Finland). First of all, commercial sunflower oil was purified exactly as  
240 described in Neckebroeck et al. (2020) using the inorganic adsorbent Florisil®. The purified  
241 sunflower oil was used to create an oil droplet in an 0.2% (w/v) solution of the produced  
242 samples set at pH 2.5 or 6.0. After droplet formation, optical droplet profile determination was  
243 started immediately and performed for 1 hour and in duplicate for every sample and pH  
244 condition.

### 245 **2.4.3 Flow behavior**

246 The flow behavior of the three samples was studied using a stress-controlled rheometer (MCR  
247 302, Anton Paar, Graz, Austria) at 25 °C based on a method described by Bernaerts et al. (2018)  
248 with slight modifications. A double wall Couette geometry (DG26.7, internal radius 12.3 mm,  
249 external radius 13.3 mm and measuring height 40 mm) was used. All samples were dissolved  
250 overnight, brought to pH 2.5 or 6.0 and adjusted to a final concentration of 1% (w/v). First, the  
251 samples were presheared for 30 s at a shear rate of 10 s<sup>-1</sup> followed by 300 s of rest before each  
252 measurement. Next, steady-shear measurements were performed by increasing the shear rate  
253 logarithmically from 1 to 100 s<sup>-1</sup> and applying each shear rate until steady state was reached,  
254 with a maximal measuring time of 40 s per shear rate. Finally, a minimum torque of 0.1 μN m  
255 was set to ensure reliability of the data.

### 256 **2.5 Emulsion preparation**

257 Coarse 5% (w/v) oil-in-water (o/w) emulsions were prepared by mixing purified sunflower oil  
258 and a 1% (w/v) solution of the lyophilized samples using a high speed mixer at 9500 rpm for  
259 10 min (Ultra-Turrax T25, IKA, Staufen, Germany). Emulsions of all samples were prepared  
260 at both pH 2.5 and pH 6.0 since at these conditions distinctly different charge densities exist  
261 on the polymer chains in the samples (see **Figure 2**). After mixing, coarse emulsions were

262 immediately further homogenized using high pressure homogenization at 100 MPa  
263 (STANSTED SPCH-10, Homogenising Systems, UK) for one cycle.

## 264 **2.6 Evaluation of physical stability of emulsions**

265 To investigate the physical stability of the final emulsions, they were stored at 4 °C for 14 days.  
266 On day 0 (i.e. day of emulsion production), 1, 4, 8 and 14 of storage, the particle size  
267 distribution and the microstructure of the emulsions were analyzed and macroscopic pictures  
268 were taken to visually evaluate noticeable creaming. Furthermore, the creaming rate was  
269 analyzed in an accelerated way as well by means of a direct stability analysis on the day of  
270 emulsion production using an analytical centrifuge at 20 °C.

### 271 **2.6.1 Volume-weighted particle size distribution**

272 Laser diffraction (Beckman Coulter Inc, LS 13 320, Miami, Florida, USA) was used to  
273 determine the particle size distributions and  $d_{43}$  of all emulsions on each analysis day.  
274 Emulsions were first shaken to resuspend possible creamed oil droplet fractions before  
275 inserting it into the stirring tank of the equipment. Scattered laser light was detected at multiple  
276 angles and transformed into a particle size distribution using the Mie theory (refractive index  
277 of purified sunflower oil was experimentally determined to be 1.467). Each emulsion was  
278 analyzed in duplicate and the equipment was set to perform two runs per repetition. Presented  
279 results are average values of those four measurements. Reporting the  $d_{43}$  as average particle  
280 size was preferred as this parameter is sensitive to the presence of large oil droplets, which  
281 makes it a good parameter to consider when evaluating emulsion stability.

### 282 **2.6.2 Microstructure**

283 The microstructure of the emulsions was visualized using light microscopy. Imaging was  
284 performed with an Olympus BX-51 light microscope (Olympus, Optical Co. Ltd., Tokyo,  
285 Japan) equipped with an Olympus XC-50 digital camera (Olympus, Optical Co. Ltd., Tokyo,

286 Japan) and coupled to an image-analysis software (cell<sup>F</sup>, Soft Imaging Systems, Münster,  
287 Germany). Micrographs were taken using a 40x magnification and an exposure time set at 10  
288 ms of two test tubes of each emulsion on each analysis day.

### 289 **2.6.3 Accelerated physical stability test**

290 Emulsions were centrifuged (1308 g at 20 °C) in an analytical centrifuge (LUMiFuge, LUM  
291 GmbH, Berlin, Germany) while simultaneously recording laser extinction profiles over the full  
292 length of the emulsion. An instability index was calculated based on the Space- and Time-  
293 resolved Extinction Profiles (STEP®) Technology® as described in detail in Detloff, Sobisch,  
294 & Lerche (2014). The instability index can range from 0 (theoretical perfect stability) to 1  
295 (theoretical full destabilization of the emulsion). A total of 1000 extinction profiles were  
296 recorded for each emulsion during centrifugation at a rate of one profile each minute. Similar  
297 to the other stability evaluation techniques described above, this stability analysis was  
298 performed in duplicate and only on the day of emulsion production to avoid interference of  
299 possible destabilization phenomena occurring after (short) storage.

### 300 **3 Results and discussion**

#### 301 **3.1 Emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing potential of the pectin rich onion extract**

302 From a functionality point of view, previous research showed that the pectin rich onion extract  
303 (NA) displayed a very good emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing potential both at pH 2.5 and  
304 pH 6.0 (Neckebroek et al., 2021). Indeed, evaluating the oil droplet size distributions of o/w  
305 emulsions stabilized by 1% NA in **Figure 5A** and the corresponding  $d_{43}$  in **Figure 6A**, very  
306 little changes in oil droplet size were noticed during refrigerated storage at both pH values.  
307 Micrographs of NA stabilized emulsions at pH 2.5 and pH 6.0 displayed homogeneous  
308 emulsions with predominantly small oil droplets. Visually, the micrographs showed no  
309 differences in oil droplet size due to coalescence or flocculation during a 14 days storage period  
310 at 4 °C (**Figure 7**). Furthermore, after 14 days of storage, no creaming was observed in NA  
311 stabilized emulsions as can be seen in **Figure 8**. Complementary, an accelerated creaming  
312 stability test by centrifugation was performed (**Figure 9**). The curves of the NA stabilized o/w  
313 emulsions (dashed lines) demonstrate that after 16 hours of centrifugation still no plateau value  
314 for the instability index was reached. This indicates that even at accelerated conditions  
315 creaming was a relatively slow process which corresponds with the absence of a visual creamed  
316 layer in the emulsions stored at gravitational conditions.

317 Looking at the structural characteristics of the NA sample (**Table 1** and **Figure 1**), its distinct  
318 bimodal molar mass distribution was remarkable. As two polymer fractions with different  
319 average molar mass could be distinguished, it is to be unraveled whether both fractions  
320 contribute to the emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing potential of the NA pectin rich onion  
321 extract. To verify this hypothesis, it was aimed to separate both fractions and study their  
322 individual functionality (section 3.2). Additionally, structural and physicochemical properties  
323 of both fractions were characterized. In this way, it can be investigated whether both fractions

324 consist of different kinds of polymers which may vastly influence their functionality and  
325 furthermore impact their role in the observed emulsion stabilizing potential of the NA extract.

## 326 **3.2 Structural and physicochemical characterization of NA-HMM and NA-LMM** 327 **in light of their potential to stabilize emulsions**

### 328 **3.2.1 Structural characterization**

329 All results of the determined structural properties are presented in **Table 1**. Besides, molar  
330 mass distributions of all samples are depicted in **Figure 1**. For practical reasons, two separate  
331 batches of the onion acid extract were prepared. The first batch (NA b1) was used as a starting  
332 point to prepare the NA-LMM sample while the second batch (NA b2) was used to prepare  
333 NA-HMM. Some minor differences between both batches need to be mentioned. NA b2  
334 contained less GalA and slightly more galactose than NA b1 although the galactose content  
335 was considered high for both batches. The difference in glucose content was remarkable and  
336 consequently it seemed there were more glucose containing polymers co-extracted in NA b2  
337 compared to NA b1. It is unclear what the origin of these glucose molecules exactly is as it is  
338 unlikely that residual cellulose is present in the sample since this polymer will not be  
339 solubilized during extraction and monomeric glucose or sucrose is expected to be removed  
340 during dialysis. High glucose levels are however in line with the results reported by Ng et al.  
341 (2000) for the fleshy parts of onions. Despite these minor differences and most importantly,  
342 both batches clearly displayed a bimodal molar mass distribution (**Figure 1**). As in this  
343 research, we aim and focus on the separation of the two molar mass fractions of the original  
344 onion NA sample, it was concluded that both batches were suitable to be further used for  
345 fractionation purposes. Results for the NA sample mentioned in sections 3.2.2 and 3.2.3  
346 represent the NA b1 sample.

347 Considering the structural properties of NA-LMM, the results clearly showed a low GalA  
348 content indicating the presence of only a small amount of pectin. Given the very high galactose  
349 levels, it can be concluded that this sample mostly consists of short chain galactans. The  
350 presence of these short chain galactans most probably explains the high galactose content in  
351 the original NA sample as well. Golovchenko, Khramova, Ovodova, Shashkov, & Ovodov  
352 (2012) already suggested the presence of short chain galactans in isolated polysaccharide  
353 material of onion. The concentration profile of the molar mass distribution of NA-LMM in  
354 **Figure 1** indicated substantial enrichment of the desired fraction of low molar mass with only  
355 a minor presence of polymers with medium molar mass which eluted between minute 45 and  
356 minute 50 of the HPSEC-MALLS analysis. Additionally, the molar mass of NA-LMM had a  
357 lower average value compared to the polymers present in this fraction of the original NA  
358 sample.

359 The NA-HMM sample clearly showed an enrichment of the higher molar mass fraction in the  
360 molar mass distribution (**Figure 1**). The sample has a higher GalA and a lower galactose  
361 content compared to the original NA b2 sample used as starting material. This can be explained  
362 by the removal of some low molar mass polymers which were found to be mainly short chain  
363 galactans. The DM of the pectin present is highly comparable to the DM of the original NA  
364 sample.

365 Based on the molar mass distributions depicted in Figure 1, NA-LMM and NA-HMM are  
366 individually enriched with polymers of low and high molar mass respectively. The following  
367 sections will discuss the results obtained regarding the physicochemical and functional  
368 properties of the fractionated samples.

### 369 3.2.2 Physicochemical characterization

370 In **Figure 2**, the  $\zeta$ -potential of the three samples is represented as function of pH of the aqueous  
371 solution. NA and NA-HMM showed nearly identical profiles which can be explained by the  
372 GalA content of these samples and the similar DM. It was contemplated that almost all GalA  
373 present in the NA sample ends up in the NA-HMM fraction after fractionation. Moreover, a  
374 similar DM was measured for NA and NA-HMM and consequently, similar charge densities  
375 could be expected for both samples. Oppositely, the charge density of NA-LMM was  
376 anticipated to be very low due to the low GalA content. The  $\zeta$ -potential analysis showed that  
377 increasing the pH induced a clear negative charge for NA-LMM. The low amount of GalA and  
378 possibly the protein moieties present might be responsible for this. Analyzing charge density  
379 is relevant for compounds aimed to be used for emulsion stabilization as an increased charge  
380 density of molecules adsorbed at the oil-water interface normally results in electrostatic  
381 repulsive forces and consequently an increased emulsion stability.

382 Adsorption of amphiphilic compounds at the oil-water interface, decreases the interfacial  
383 tension. This ability is important for emulsifiers as it facilitates droplet break up during  
384 emulsification and increases the stability forming an interfacial layer surrounding the oil  
385 droplets. In **Figure 3**, the interfacial tension as a function of time is displayed for all samples.  
386 Immediately after starting the analysis, the polymers present in the surrounding, aqueous phase  
387 spontaneously adsorbed at the interface decreasing the interfacial tension over time. At both  
388 pH 2.5 and pH 6.0, a fast decrease of the interfacial tension was observed during the first  
389 minutes of analysis for the NA sample. A clear decrease was also observed for NA-LMM at  
390 pH 2.5 while this was not the case at pH 6.0. Furthermore, no clear decrease of the interfacial  
391 tension is observed for the NA-HMM sample at both pH values. Based on these results, it can  
392 be concluded that neither NA-LMM nor NA-HMM spontaneously adsorbed at the interface as  
393 fast as the original NA sample at both pH conditions.

394 When considering samples with different molar masses, it can be expected that these samples  
395 exhibit different viscosity increasing capacities. According to the Mark-Houwink relation, the  
396 intrinsic viscosity of polymers in solution mainly depends on the molar mass of the polymers  
397 (Picout & Ross-Murphy, 2007). The viscosity of 1% (w/v) solutions of all samples was  
398 measured using shear rate sweep rheological measurements. The experimental values at a shear  
399 rate of  $10 \text{ s}^{-1}$  are represented in **Figure 4**. Identical trends were observed at other shear rates  
400 (Supplementary Material S1). The molar mass of NA-LMM seems to be too low to have a  
401 significant effect on the solution viscosity. The viscosity of NA-LMM solutions at both pH  
402 values was only slightly higher than 1 mPa.s at higher shear rates and consequently they merely  
403 had a viscosity comparable to pure water. Comparing the results for NA and NA-HMM, two  
404 interesting observations can be made. Firstly, at both pH values NA-HMM created a higher  
405 solution viscosity compared to NA which can be attributed to the selective enrichment of high  
406 molar mass polymers in the NA-HMM samples. Secondly, at pH 6.0 both NA and NA-HMM  
407 displayed higher viscosities than at pH 2.5. As at pH 6.0, NA and NA-HMM bear more negative  
408 charges compared to pH 2.5 (**Figure 2**), more electrostatic interactions can take place between  
409 positively charged divalent ions in the samples and the negatively charged polymers (mainly  
410 pectin).

### 411 **3.2.3 Emulsifying and emulsion stabilizing potential**

412 Several physical phenomena can cause o/w emulsion instability. Flocculation and coalescence  
413 influence the oil droplet distribution and oil droplet size. Flocculation can be considered, to  
414 some extent, a reversible mechanism, while coalescence is an irreversible process and  
415 ultimately leads to emulsion breakage. Next to these two phenomena, creaming is another very  
416 important and common destabilization phenomenon. While creaming as such can be reversed  
417 by simple agitation of the emulsion, oil droplets in close vicinity to each other might upon  
418 extended storage cause further irreversible destabilization by coalescence. It is clear that

419 studying emulsion stability is very complex and maintaining emulsion stability during storage  
420 can be challenging.

421 After emulsion preparation using one of the three samples of interest at a time, emulsion  
422 stability was evaluated through various analysis techniques. Laser diffraction was used to  
423 evaluate the evolution of the oil droplet size over storage. The oil droplet size distributions for  
424 all emulsions formulated are presented in **Figure 5** for the day of emulsion production (day 0),  
425 day 8 and day 14 of refrigerated storage. **Figure 6** displays the according average oil droplet  
426 sizes (presented as  $d_{43}$  values) of all emulsions determined on each analysis day. Examining  
427 the emulsified oil droplets by means of microscopy is a very useful additional technique that  
428 can differentiate between flocculation and coalescence phenomena, since this is not always  
429 possible only by laser diffraction analysis. The microstructure of all emulsion under  
430 consideration is visualized in the images presented in **Figure 7**. The presented pictures are  
431 taken on the day of emulsion production (i.e. day 0) and after 14 days of refrigerated storage.  
432 Next to studying particle size to evaluate the possible influence of flocculation and coalescence,  
433 the extent of creaming in the samples was studied as well. Macroscopic pictures of the  
434 emulsions stored on the shelf were taken each day of analysis to visually observe the presence  
435 of a creamed layer in the emulsions under gravitational conditions (**Figure 8**). Furthermore, an  
436 accelerated stability test was performed using an analytical centrifuge. The change of the  
437 instability index during centrifugation is displayed in **Figure 9**.

438 In case of the oil droplet size distributions for the NA-LMM stabilized emulsion at pH 2.5, the  
439 distribution ranges from small oil droplets of around 1  $\mu\text{m}$  until oil droplets of almost 100  $\mu\text{m}$   
440 already on the day of emulsion production. At the beginning of storage, the oil droplet  
441 population is dominated by small oil droplets, while after 8 and 14 days of storage the amount  
442 of small oil droplets in the population decreased and the particle size distribution shifts more  
443 towards larger droplets. This observation is supported by the micrographs: on day 0, some

444 larger oil droplets were visible in the emulsion as well as a lot of smaller ones while at day 14  
445 some very large and medium sized oil droplets were found together with some remaining small  
446 ones. Clearly, coalescence occurred in this emulsion and possibly the extent of coalescence is  
447 increased due to rapid creaming (see also below). At pH 6.0, smaller oil droplets were created  
448 than at pH 2.5 in presence of NA-LMM. Even though some larger particles were observed  
449 under the microscope and by laser diffraction, the destabilization due to coalescence occurred  
450 to a lower extent compared to pH 2.5. The similar oil droplet size distribution at day 14  
451 compared to day 0 is probably caused by inaccurate sampling as the micrograph of this final  
452 day clearly shows the presence of larger oil droplets and some flocculation. Therefore it is  
453 expected that the oil droplet size distribution of day 14 would be similar to that of day 8  
454 showing the presence of larger oil droplets. Both emulsions stabilized by NA-LMM displayed  
455 visible creaming from day 1 of storage onwards (**Figure 8**). At pH 2.5 almost complete  
456 clarification of the bottom layer is observed after 14 days of storage. This is confirmed by the  
457 rapid increase of the instability index during the accelerated stability analysis (**Figure 9**).  
458 Clearly, the NA-LMM stabilized emulsions at pH 2.5 have poor stability, suffering from both  
459 strong coalescence and fast creaming. Both phenomena probably facilitating and accelerating  
460 each other. Although dynamic interfacial tension measurements reveal spontaneous adsorption  
461 of NA-LMM at pH 2.5 as observed in **Figure 3**, this spontaneous adsorption is clearly not  
462 enough for this sample to be a good emulsion stabilizing compound under these conditions.  
463 NA-LMM therefore shows limited capabilities in emulsion stabilization, due to poor interfacial  
464 stabilization and poor viscosifying properties.

465 For NA-HMM, the oil droplet size distributions showed little changes over a 14 day storage  
466 period. Consequently, the corresponding  $d_{43}$  values for the NA-HMM stabilized emulsions did  
467 not increase considerably over time. The values for NA-HMM at pH 2.5 remained constant  
468 and this emulsion was arguably even more stable than the NA stabilized emulsion at pH 2.5.

469 At pH 6.0 in case of NA-HMM, it seemed that during homogenization the oil is not as evenly  
470 fine dispersed compared to the NA stabilized emulsion (**Figure 5 and 6**). As explained before,  
471 NA-HMM seemed unable to decrease the interfacial tension at both pH values by spontaneous  
472 adsorption. Even though oil droplets and polymers experience high forces and shears during  
473 homogenization, it can be expected that also under these conditions adsorption at the interface  
474 will be less efficient for the NA-HMM sample compared to NA. This eventually affected the  
475 oil droplet size when the surrounding pH induced a high charge density on the polymers in the  
476 sample. The micrographs of both emulsions stabilized by NA-HMM showed many small oil  
477 droplets homogeneously distributed in the images. No visual signs of coalescence or  
478 flocculation are noticeable. However, the NA-HMM stabilized emulsion at pH 6.0 showed  
479 some visual creaming from day 4 of storage (**Figure 8**). The accelerated analysis confirmed  
480 that this emulsion creamed faster compared to the NA-HMM emulsion at pH 2.5 (**Figure 9**).  
481 Although a higher viscosity was observed at pH 6.0 for this sample, the larger oil droplet sizes  
482 seemed to have a dominating effect on the creaming rate of the emulsion.

483 The increase of the instability index during centrifugation is complementary to the observations  
484 under gravitational conditions. Both NA-LMM stabilized emulsions and the NA-HMM  
485 stabilized emulsion at pH 6.0 display fast creaming behavior compared to the other emulsion  
486 where no creamed layer was observed macroscopically. Overall it can be concluded that after  
487 the selective elimination of most polymers with low molar masses, NA-HMM still shows  
488 promising emulsion stabilizing potential. This is mainly attributed to the potential to increase  
489 solution viscosity and to the presence of chargeable GalA units, factors which are in turn linked  
490 to the high molar mass of this NA-HMM fraction.

#### 491 **4 Conclusion**

492 A pectin rich extract from onion flesh, produced by nitric acid (NA) extraction, was found to  
493 adequately stabilize o/w emulsions. Interestingly, the polymers present in this sample displayed  
494 a bimodal molar mass distribution. Ultracentrifugation resulted in two distinct fractions,  
495 NA-LMM and NA-HMM, enriched in polymers of low and high molar mass respectively.  
496 Structural characterization of these separated fractions demonstrated that NA-LMM mainly  
497 exists of short chain galactans and contained only very little pectin. The presence of these  
498 galactan polymers explained the high galactose content of the original NA extract. The NA-  
499 HMM sample contained most of the pectin polymers after fractionation and presented a similar  
500 DM as the original NA sample. Overall, comparing the molar mass distributions of all three  
501 samples, the ultrafiltration technique applied allowed an adequate separation of both polymer  
502 fractions. In line with the expectations, the experimental work showed that NA-LMM had no  
503 viscosity increasing effect when solubilized in a 1% (w/v) concentration. Contrastingly, the  
504 NA and NA-HMM samples increased viscosity at pH 2.5 to about 9 mPa.s and 17 mPa.s and  
505 at pH 6.0 to about 15 mPa.s and 25 mPa.s respectively. An increased viscosity of the continuous  
506 phase could decrease oil droplet mobility in emulsions. Moreover, it was demonstrated that NA  
507 and NA-HMM displayed a higher viscosity at pH 6.0 compared to pH 2.5.

508 The NA-LMM emulsion at pH 2.5 displayed extensive coalescence and creaming and was  
509 consequently considered unstable already in an early stage of storage. At pH 6.0, NA-LMM  
510 performed slightly better in stabilizing an emulsion yet several destabilization phenomena  
511 affected the stability of this emulsion as well. Generally, NA-HMM presented good emulsion  
512 stabilizing potential. Only minor creaming from day 4 of storage onwards was visible for the  
513 NA-HMM stabilized emulsion at pH 6.0 but no significant oil droplet size increase was  
514 observed. Overall, it can be stated that the low molar mass polymer fraction present in the NA  
515 sample did not substantially contribute to the functionality of this sample to stabilize o/w

516 emulsions. The polymers with higher molar mass, consisting to a large extent of pectin chains,  
517 provided the functional potential since NA-HMM stabilized emulsions well when solely  
518 applied.

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## 527 **Declaration of interests**

528 Declarations of interest: none

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- 636

637 **Tables**638 **Table 1. Structural properties of both batches acid onion extract and both fractionated samples. All values are expressed as average**  
639 **values  $\pm$  standard deviation. (GalA: galacturonic acid; DM: degree of methyl esterification; MM: molar mass)**

	NA b1	NA-LMM	NA b2	NA-HMM
GalA content (mg/g)	359.26 $\pm$ 21.96	25.24 $\pm$ 13.31	284.45 $\pm$ 6.16	440.36 $\pm$ 14.93
Neutral sugars (mg/g)				
Rhamnose	12.23 $\pm$ 0.54	ND	12.65 $\pm$ 0.20	15.43 $\pm$ 0.78
Arabinose	12.79 $\pm$ 0.66	15.24 $\pm$ 0.42	10.98 $\pm$ 0.24	5.05 $\pm$ 0.80
Galactose	291.11 $\pm$ 8.57	627.32 $\pm$ 6.86	329.87 $\pm$ 37.63	259.65 $\pm$ 21.69
Fucose	ND	ND	ND	ND
Glucose	52.23 $\pm$ 1.71	75.80 $\pm$ 3.77	178.60 $\pm$ 12.78	146.66 $\pm$ 8.45
Xylose	6.37 $\pm$ 0.96	ND	ND	1.26 $\pm$ 0.41
Mannose	ND	ND	ND	1.70 $\pm$ 0.43
DM (%)	56.41 $\pm$ 0.21	ND	52.76 $\pm$ 1.33	55.66 $\pm$ 0.42
Protein content (% w/w)	6.28 $\pm$ 0.08	5.13 $\pm$ 0.04	5.34 $\pm$ 0.11	5.26 $\pm$ 0.04
MM peak 1 (kDa)	1150.00 $\pm$ 30.00	N/A	2220.00 $\pm$ 105.36	2213.33 $\pm$ 205.51
MM peak 2 (kDa)	59.90 $\pm$ 8.67	25.37 $\pm$ 1.15	130.33 $\pm$ 19.14	N/A

640 ND: not detected

641 N/A: not applicable

642 **Figure captions**

643 **Figure 1.** Molar mass distributions displaying the molar mass (thick lines on top of the  
644 graph) and concentration (thin lines at the bottom of the graph) profiles for NA b1 (full  
645 black), NA-LMM (light grey), NA b2 (dashed black) and NA-HMM (dark grey).

646 **Figure 2.**  $\zeta$ -potential as function of pH for 1% w/v solutions of ( $\blacktriangle$ ) NA, ( $\blacksquare$ ) NA-LMM,  
647 ( $\circ$ ) NA-HMM.

648 **Figure 3.** Dynamic interfacial tension of a droplet of purified sunflower oil in 0.2%  
649 solutions of NA (dashed lines), NA-LMM (full lines) and NA-HMM (dotted lines). Dash-  
650 dotted lines represent measurements in ultrapure water. Black lines represent  
651 measurements at pH 2.5, while grey lines represent measurements at pH 6.0.

652 **Figure 4.** Viscosity at a shear rate of  $10 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for 1% solutions of NA, NA-LMM and NA-  
653 HMM. Full black bars represent measurements at pH 2.5 while the shaded bars represent  
654 measurements at pH 6.0.

655 **Figure 5.** Oil droplet size distribution of 5% o/w emulsions stabilized by 1% (w/v) (A)  
656 NA, (B) NA-LMM and (C) NA-HMM for the day of emulsion production (full lines), after  
657 8 days of storage (dotted lines) and after 14 days of storage (dashed lines). Black lines  
658 represent emulsions at pH 2.5, while grey lines represent emulsions at pH 6.0

659 **Figure 6.** Evolution of the average oil droplets size (expressed as  $d_{43}$ ) during refrigerated  
660 storage of 5% o/w emulsions stabilized by 1% (w/v) (A) NA, (B) NA-LMM and (C) NA-  
661 HMM. Black symbols and lines represent emulsions at pH 2.5, while grey lines represent  
662 emulsions at pH 6.0.

663 **Figure 7.** Micrographs, obtained with light microscopy, of 5% o/w emulsions stabilized  
664 by 1% (w/v) NA, NA-LMM and NA-HMM at pH 2.5 and pH 6.0. Images displayed for  
665 the day of emulsion production (day 0) and day 14 of refrigerated storage. Scale bars  
666 represent a length of 100  $\mu\text{m}$ .

667 **Figure 8.** Macroscopic pictures of 5% o/w emulsions stored at 4 °C stabilized by 1% (w/v)  
668 NA, NA-LMM and NA-HMM. For each set of pictures from left to right: day of emulsion  
669 production (day 0), day 1, day 4, day 8 and day 14 of refrigerated storage at 4°C. Black  
670 arrows indicate visual cream layers.

671 **Figure 9.** Instability index of 5% o/w emulsions stabilized by 1% NA (dashed lines), NA-  
672 LMM (full lines) and NA-HMM (dotted lines). Black lines represent measurements at pH  
673 2.5 while grey lines represent measurements at pH 6.0.