

1 **Pickering stabilization of thymol through green emulsification using soluble fraction of almond**
2 **gum – whey protein isolate nano-complexes**

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14 **Abstract**

15 In this study, the soluble fraction of almond gum (SFAG) as a sustainable biopolymer source and whey
16 protein isolate (WPI) were used for self-assembly preparation of SFAG-WPI nano-complexes through
17 electrostatic interaction. The SFAG was characterized using ¹H and ¹³C NMR. The influence of total
18 biopolymer concentration (0.2-0.4 %w/v) and ratios (1:3-3:1) as well as of the pH (2-6) on the
19 formation of complexes was established by visual, light scattering, surface charge, and spectrometric
20 observations. The outcomes proved the formation of negatively charged soluble complexes in the
21 range of pH 4-5 and insoluble complexes at pH values 3 to 4. The soluble coacervate particles at pH
22 4.5 and total concentration of 0.4 %w/v were selected to induce Pickering stabilization of thymol.
23 The static light scattering with microscopy studies (CLSM and Cryo-SEM) showed the formation of
24 thymol oil-in-water emulsions by adsorption of nano-complexes on the surface of the droplets.
25 Thymol emulsions stabilized using complexes had no size variation under storage (40 days) with an
26 opaque and homogenous appearance. On the other hand, the emulsions containing solely WPI at pH
27 4.5 showed a substantial droplet size increase with severe creaming. Droplet size analysis together
28 with coalescence and flocculation indices presented that coalescence was mainly responsible for
29 droplet size coarsening of the emulsions stabilized by native WPI at pH 4.5. Overall, our outcomes
30 indicated the improvement of WPI in the stabilization of emulsions through complexation.

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32 *Keywords:*

33 *Self-assembly, coacervate, Pickering stabilization, almond gum, whey protein isolate, thymol.*

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41 **1. Introduction**

42 There is an increasing consumer demand for more natural and environmentally friendly products
43 known as “clean label” products including foods, cosmetics and pharmaceuticals. Proteins and
44 polysaccharides are natural polymers that are widely used as functional ingredients in different
45 products, primarily foods. These biopolymers are capable of stabilizing emulsions and foams,
46 thickening solutions, and forming gels (McClements & Gumus, 2016). As the properties of individual
47 biopolymers can be altered by different conditions, for instance, pH or ionic strength, there is a
48 particular interest in the use of polysaccharide–protein complexes in order to improve their
49 functional properties. Maillard conjugates and electrostatic complexes are major complexation of
50 proteins and polysaccharides (McClements & Gumus, 2016; Semenova, 2017). Recently, these types
51 of particles have been the subject of several studies due to their green and straightforward
52 preparation, as well as biopolymer based materials and economic costs.

53 Low and high molecular weight surfactants have been extensively used to stabilize emulsions but
54 there has been recently a great demand for the Pickering emulsions. These emulsions are
55 conventionally stabilized using solid particles, which have partial wettability to two lipid and aqueous
56 phases (Ettelaie, Zengin, & Lishchuk, 2017; Wang & Heuzey, 2016). Colloidal complexes with partial
57 wettability, which are able to accumulate at the interface to prevent coalescence or Ostwald ripening
58 can be utilized to induce the Pickering stabilization (Ettelaie & Murray, 2015; Lu, Zhang, Li, & Huang,
59 2018). To this end, the soluble fraction of almond gum (SFAG) - whey protein isolate (WPI) colloidal
60 complexes were established.

61 Almond gum is a high molecular weight biopolymer, which exudates from almond gum trees
62 (*Amygdalus communis L.*) (Sedaghat Doost, Muhammad, Stevens, Dewettinck, & Van der Meeren,
63 2018). This gum consists of a water soluble and a water insoluble fraction. The water soluble fraction
64 constitutes about 90% of the almond gum with the highest total sugar content (93%) and the
65 insoluble fraction contains more protein and fat than the soluble fraction (Rezaei, Nasirpour, &
66 Tavanai, 2016). SFAG contains uronic acid and sugar analysis indicated that arabinose and galactose
67 are the main monosaccharides present in almond gum. The great advantage of SFAG over common
68 gums is its simple production. This gum exudates from almond trees as a consequence of mechanical
69 injury. Therefore, the sustained production source attracts attention (Mahfoudhi, Chouaibi, Donsi,
70 Ferrari, & Hamdi, 2012). SFAG has a high potential for application as a preservative or stabilizer in the
71 food industry because of its low cost, high availability, and high water absorption capacity
72 (Mahfoudhi et al., 2012; Rezaei et al., 2016).

73 Whey protein isolate is a value-added ingredient sensitive to pH conditions and low thermal stability
74 due to the denaturation, which can be improved through electrostatic complexation (Wagoner &

75 Foegeding, 2017). Whey protein is originally a cheese processing byproduct containing a mixture of
76 proteins mainly β -lactoglobulin (Wu et al., 2015). A wide range of isoelectric points (IEP) has been
77 reported for WPI (4.2 – 5.2) (Akhtar & Dickinson, 2007; Pelegrine & Gasparetto, 2005; Setiowati,
78 Saeedi, Wijaya, & Van der Meeren, 2017). Typically, the proteins are positively charged below the IEP
79 while they are negatively charged above their IEP. This characteristic can be exploited for the
80 formation of particles through electrostatic interaction when a combination of a protein below its
81 IEP and an anionic polysaccharide are mixed together, leading to the self-assembly of the polymers
82 (de Kruif, Weinbreck, & de Vries, 2004; Ye, 2008).

83 Thymol (2-isopropyl-5-methylphenol) as a major constituent of some essential oils, is a phytophenolic
84 (monoterpene) compound found mainly in *Thymus vulgaris L.* and *Origanum vulgare L.* (Deng,
85 Taxipalati, Que, & Zhang, 2016; Sedaghat Doost, Devlieghere, Dirckx, & Van der Meeren, 2018).
86 Thymol is used widely in different products owing to its antibacterial, antifungal, antioxidant, and
87 anticancer properties (de Castro et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2016; Liolios, Gortzi, Lalas, Tsaknis, & Chinou,
88 2009; Sedaghat Doost, Dewettinck, Devlieghere, & Van der Meeren, 2018; Yanishlieva, Marinova,
89 Gordon, & Raneva, 1999). The hydrophobicity, crystal powder form, and strong flavor of this
90 compound have limited its exploitation. Therefore, it has to be encapsulated within a delivery system.
91 Previous studies prepared carrying systems for thymol by dissolving it in an organic solvent such as
92 ethanol or propylene glycol. However, these formulations have their own detrimental effects such as
93 their synthetic nature (J. Li, Chang, Saenger, & Deering, 2017; Su & Zhong, 2016). As the aim of this
94 study was to design a solely natural system, an attempt was made to formulate colloidal dispersions
95 using food grade and green solvents. To this end, thymol was mixed with tricaprylin oil (TCA) as a
96 medium chain triglyceride, which is used as penetration promoter and emollient.

97 The purpose of this study was to produce WPI-SFAG colloidal coacervate particles through
98 electrostatic interaction. Moreover, the appropriate conditions for nanoparticle preparation were
99 obtained by the formation of SFAG-WPI complexes at different pH conditions, ratios and total
100 biopolymer concentrations. Then, an attempt was made to prepare Pickering stabilized thymol
101 emulsions using the prepared bioparticles.

102 The novelty of this study lies in the use of SFAG as a novel hydrocolloid and the green emulsification
103 technique of thymol using self-assembled nanoparticles. Our work provides practical and theoretical
104 information about the Pickering stabilization of thymol. These findings provide a way to design
105 “surfactant free” products from sustainable natural sources for variable applications such as in food,
106 health care, and cosmetics.

107 **2. Materials and methods**

108 **2.1. Materials**

109 Almond gum was provided by Sepahan Nano-Food Co. (Isfahan, Iran). The provided sample had a
110 white colour and a uniform size and was collected from similar types of trees (*Amygdalus communis*
111 *L.*). WPI was provided by Davisco Foods International Inc. Bipro (Le Suer, MN, USA). The protein
112 content of this product has been previously reported to be 92.6% consisting of 85% β -lactoglobulin
113 (Van der Meeren, El-Bakry, Neiryneck, & Noppe, 2005). Thymol (2-isopropyl-5-methylphenol) was
114 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co (St. Louis, MO, USA). Tricaprylin (TCA) oil is commercially available
115 as Miglyol[®]808 (caprylic acid with a purity of > 95%) and was provided by IOI Oleo GmbH (Witten,
116 Germany).

117 **2.2.Extraction and characterization of the soluble fraction of almond gum**

118 **2.2.1. Extraction**

119 The soluble fraction of almond gum (SFAG) was extracted using the method previously described by
120 (Sedaghat Doost et al., 2018). Briefly, a stock solution of SFAG (4 % w/v) was prepared in distilled
121 water left to be mixed for 3h at ambient temperature (20°C). The mixture was stored at 4°C overnight
122 before centrifugation at 44814g for 30min at 25°C. Sodium azide was added to the solution (0.02 %
123 w/v) in order to prevent microbial growth. The concentration of the extract was determined by
124 means of drying a certain amount at 105°C overnight. This experiment was performed after each
125 extraction.

126 **2.2.2. 1-D nuclear magnetic resonance (¹H, ¹³C NMR)**

127 The ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of SFAG was obtained using a Bruker Avance III Nanobay 400 MHz
128 spectrometer equipped with a 5mm PABBO BB probe at 30°C. The SFAG solution was dried inside a
129 freeze-drier (Alpha 1-2 LD plus, Christ) and it was dissolved in D₂O (0.5%w/v) containing 5mM sodium
130 acetate as an internal standard and the proton spectrum was recorded. The ¹³C spectrum of 2 % w/v
131 SFAG (20mM sodium acetate) was acquired at 100.6MHz for 72h.

132 **2.2.3. Proximate analysis**

133 The moisture, fat, and ash content of SFAG was determined according to the standard AOAC methods
134 (2003). Protein content was determined based on the DUMAS combustion method using an
135 Elemental Analyzer - Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (EA-IRMS) (20–22, SerCon, Cheshire, UK).
136 Samples were placed into tin foil capsules for combustion under a purge of He gas at 1000°C. A
137 calibration curve was made with a known standard concentration (0-15 μ l) of ammonium sulphate.
138 The nitrogen (N) content was calculated by the comparison of the area under the curve obtained
139 from the standard and the sample. A casein solution with a known concentration was utilized as a
140 control. The nitrogen content was converted to the protein content by multiplication by 6.25.

141 The carbohydrate content was obtained by the difference between the sum of the other components
142 and 100%. All the measurements were carried out in triplicate and the average \pm standard deviation

143 (STD) were reported.

144 **2.3.SFAG-WPI complex formation and characterization**

145 **2.3.1. Complex preparation**

146 A WPI stock solution was prepared by dissolving 2g in 100ml of 10mM acetate buffer at pH 6 (2 %
147 w/v). The mixture was left on a stirrer for 3h at room temperature (20°C) and stored in a refrigerator
148 (4°C) for further analyses. WPI and SFAG solutions were mixed together at different ratios (0:3, 1:3,
149 2:3, 3:3, 3:2, 3:1, 3:0) at a total concentration (TC) of 0.4 or 0.2 % w/v. The pH of the solutions was
150 adjusted to 2-6 by adding dropwise of NaOH or HCl (0.1M).

151 **2.3.2. Particle size and surface charge determination**

152 The size distribution of the complexes was measured using Photon Correlation Spectroscopy (Model
153 4700, Malvern Instruments, U.K.) at a scattering angle of 150° at 25°C. The sample was diluted prior
154 to analysis with an appropriate solution (of the same pH) to avoid multiple scattering. The light
155 intensity correlation function was analyzed based on the multimodal method whereas the z-average
156 diameter was obtained by cumulant analysis. Each individual measurement was an average of 10
157 runs. The reported value is the mean of three measurements \pm STD.

158 The zeta potential (ζ) of the complex particles was determined using a Zetasizer 2c (Malvern Ltd, UK)
159 by measuring the electrophoretic mobility using the Smoluchowski approximation. The samples were
160 diluted prior to analysis. The reported values are the mean of three repetitions \pm STD.

161 **2.3.3. Optical turbidity**

162 Turbidity measurements were employed to identify the possible structural transitions associated
163 with the formation of soluble and insoluble complexes using a UV-visible spectrophotometer (VWR,
164 Belgium) at 600nm. 10mM sodium acetate buffer was used as a blank reference. All these
165 measurements were carried out in triplicate using separate stock solutions.

166 **2.3.4. Charge titration**

167 The SFAG solution (0.16%w/v), WPI (0.24%w/v), and the mixed solution of WPI:SFAG (3:2, TC= 0.4 %
168 w/v) was titrated using HCl/NaOH (0.1M) from pH 6 to 2 and the streaming potential was read
169 utilizing a Charge Analyser II (Rank Brothers Ltd, England).

170 **2.3.5. Contact angle**

171 Solutions of WPI as well as SFAG and WPI:SFAG nanoparticles (3:2, TC = 0.4 % w/v) were prepared at
172 pH 4.5 (10mM sodium acetate buffer). The samples were lyophilized using a freeze-drier (Alpha 1-2
173 LD plus, Christ). The powders were pressed at 89.2MPa to form a tablet of 15×50mm using a hydraulic
174 press. The contact angle was measured utilizing a drop shape analyzer (DSA, Krüss, Germany) by

175 dripping a sodium acetate buffer (10mM) droplet (10 μ l) at pH 4.5 on the tablet; the contact angle
176 was automatically calculated using Young-Laplace equation by the software.

177 **2.4. Pickering stabilized emulsion preparation**

178 The oil-in-water emulsions were prepared by weighing 4g of thymol and TCA oil mixture and 96g
179 aqueous phase containing either SFAG (0.16%w/v), WPI (0.24%w/v), or SFAG:WPI complex
180 (0.16:0.24%w/v) dissolved in 10mM acetate buffer (pH 4.5). The lipid phase mixture consisted of
181 thymol and TCA at a ratio of 4:1 (this ratio was selected based on trials) heated to 60°C for complete
182 melting of thymol crystals and left for 1h on the stirrer at room temperature (20°C). The liquid oil
183 mixture and aqueous mixtures were then homogenized using a high speed blender Ultra-Turrax T25
184 (Germany) at 24000rpm for 5min. The emulsions were kept at 4°C for further analyses. The pH of
185 emulsions after preparation was adjusted if it was needed.

186 **2.5. Emulsion characterization**

187 **2.5.1. Droplet size determination**

188 The droplet size distribution of the samples was measured using static light scattering. A Mastersizer
189 3000 (Model 3000 Hydro MV, Malvern Instruments, UK) was used to determine the volume-weighted
190 mean diameter ($d_{[4,3]}$) of the samples at 20°C. The samples were characterized by a refractive index
191 of 1.45 and 1.33 for the oil phase and acetate buffer (10mM), respectively, with an absorption of
192 0.01. A few droplets of the sample was added into the wet dispersion unit containing acetate buffer
193 (10mM) at pH 4.5. The measurement was run at a dispersion speed of 1500rpm for 10s. Each
194 individual measurement was an average of three runs.

195 **2.5.2. Flocculation and coalescence indices**

196 The flocculation and coalescence indices of the emulsions were calculated as follows:

$$197 \text{ Flocculation index (FI)} = \left[\left(\frac{d_{40} [4,3]}{d_{40} [4,3](SDS)} \right) - 1 \right] \times 100$$

198

$$199 \text{ Coalescence index (CI)} = \left[\left(1 - \frac{SSA_{40}(SDS)}{SSA_0(SDS)} \right) \right] \times 100$$

200 where $d_{[4,3]}$ was measured on day 40 (d_{40}) storage diluted in acetate buffer (10mM, pH 4.5) with
201 and without 1% SDS and the specific surface area (SSA in m^2/ml) was calculated from the Sauter mean
202 diameter $d_{[3,2]}$ at day 0 and 40 diluted in acetate buffer (10mM, pH 4.5) with SDS (1%) (Castellani,
203 Belhomme, David-Briand, Guérin-Dubiard, & Anton, 2006).

204 **2.5.3. Microscopy studies of microstructure**

205 The morphology and formation of thymol emulsions was evaluated using a Cryo-SEM (JSM-7100, Jeol
206 Europe, Belgium) equipped with a PP3000T device (Quorum Technologies, East Sussex, UK). A small

207 amount of sample was placed on a copper grid. The sample was frozen in a nitrogen slush (-190°C)
208 followed by fracturing. Then, it was sublimated and sputter coated with platinum prior to photograph
209 recording.

210 Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) (Leica TCS-SP5, Germany) was utilized to visualize thymol
211 Pickering stabilized emulsions. WPI-SFAG nanoparticles (3:2, pH 4.5, TC = 0.4) and oil phase were
212 stained by Rhodamine B and Nile red, respectively. The excitation and emission wavelengths of
213 Rhodamine B were set as 560 and 625nm, respectively. Nile red was excited at 488nm and detected
214 at 680-700nm. The emulsions after staining were diluted by the appropriate acetate buffer in order
215 to have individual emulsion droplet. The images were processed using Image J software.

216 **2.5.4. Interfacial tension measurements**

217 The interfacial activity at the interface of oil (thymol:TCA = 4:1) and WPI (0.24%w/v) and SFAG:WPI
218 complex (0.16:0.24%w/v) solutions was determined using an automated drop shape tensiometer
219 (Tracker, Teclis, I.T.C., France). The calibration of the tensiometer was performed by measuring the
220 surface tension of Milli-Q water (72 ± 0.4 mN/m, 25°C). A pendant needle was used to create a
221 droplet of a solution of either WPI or complexes into a cuvette filled with the oil. The density of the
222 samples was measured using an Anton-Paar DM5000 density meter at different temperatures.

223 As the density has a major impact on these measurements, a water bath was connected to the
224 cuvette holder to keep the temperature constant at 25°C.

225 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

226 The reported values are the mean \pm standard deviation of at least two repetitions. One-way analysis
227 of variance (ANOVA) was used for all statistical analyses to determine significant differences of means
228 ($P < 0.05$).

229 **3. Results and discussion**

230 **3.1. Purification and chemical composition of SFAG**

231 The water soluble fraction of almond gum (SFAG) was purified by centrifugation and it was used for
232 the formation of complex coacervates with whey protein isolate (WPI). Initially, the chemical
233 composition of SFAG was determined by proximate analyses. The ash, fat and moisture content were
234 found to be 1.0 ± 0.2 , 0.5 ± 0.1 , and 3.3 ± 0.7 %, respectively; these values are in good agreement
235 with previously reported results (Mahfoudhi et al., 2012; Rezaei et al., 2016; Sedaghat Doost et al.,
236 2018) . In accordance with the previous results of Mahfoudhi et al. (2012), a trace amount of protein
237 (2.3 %) was detected by the DUMAS method in the SFAG. The results revealed that the major
238 constituent (92.9 %) of the SFAG was carbohydrates.

239 In order to have a better understanding of the chemical composition of the SFAG, the NMR spectra

240 (^1H , ^{13}C), shown in Figure 1 a&b, were also recorded. The peaks in the proton spectrum at 4.7 and 1.9
241 ppm were assigned to deuterated water and sodium acetate, respectively. The small triplet proton
242 signals around 1.2 ppm in the spectrum could be related to the methyl group of rhamnose. The
243 crowded signal region between the chemical shifts of 3.3 and 5.3 ppm is typical for polysaccharides,
244 indicating the presence of similar sugars. It has been shown that SFAG is an arabinogalactan
245 polysaccharide consisting of around 47 % arabinose and 35 % galactose (Rezaei et al., 2016). This
246 region consisted of two non-anomeric (3.3-4.6 ppm) and anomeric (4.8-5.8 ppm) signals, which can
247 not be distinguished well due to the overlapping of the peaks. The signal at around 5.2 ppm could be
248 attributed to the anomeric protons linked to Araf and the peak at 5.05 ppm for the α -Araf non-
249 reducing terminal (Nosalova et al., 2013). Galactopyranose signal peaks were also observed at the
250 chemical shifts around 4.2, 3.7 and 3.4 ppm, respectively (Izumi, 1977).

251 The ^{13}C NMR spectrum has the advantage that the peaks are distributed over a broader range than
252 the ^1H NMR spectrum, meaning that it suffers less from overlapping. Typically, the signals at 60 to 85
253 ppm can be assigned to non-anomeric carbons while anomeric carbons have peaks at around 90 to
254 110 ppm (Cui, 2005). The peaks observed in the range of 101 - 103 ppm can be related to the (1 \rightarrow 6)-
255 linked galactopyranosyl residues, which is in good agreement with the ^1H NMR spectrum (Karácsonyi,
256 Kováčik, Alföldi, & Kubačková, 1984). The ^{13}C NMR spectrum displayed peaks of Araf from 107.6 to
257 109.7 ppm and C-2 of Araf at 83.7 ppm (Willför, Sjöholm, Laine, & Holmbom, 2002). The spectrum
258 also exhibited a pronounced peak at 103.2 ppm related to Galp and a peak around 75.04 ppm
259 attributed to xylose (Simas-Tosin et al., 2009). In accordance to the previous studies showing that
260 SFAG contains uronic acid, the peak around 176 ppm offered the carboxylic group (-COOH) signal
261 peak of uronic acid (Mahfoudhi et al., 2012; Sedaghat Doost et al., 2018).

262 Overall, these results were in good agreement with the results obtained by Rezaei et al. (2016) who
263 studied the fractionation and chemical composition of a similar type of almond gum.

264 **3.2. Biopolymer particle formation**

265 **3.2.1. Optical turbidity**

266 Initially, the formation of particles due to the interaction between SFAG and WPI at different pH
267 conditions as well as protein to polysaccharide ratio and total biopolymer concentration was
268 examined.

269 The optical turbidity profile of the acid titration of a protein and polysaccharide combination could
270 be utilized to establish the possible complex formation due to the structural transition. The visual
271 appearance assessment of a WPI and SFAG mixture at a ratio of 3:2 and TC = 0.2 and 0.4 % w/v at
272 varying pH (2-6) showed that precipitation occurred between pH 2.5 and 4 (the precipitation of the
273 mixture at pH 4 occurred at longer times) (Figure 2a, red arrows). This indicated the associative phase

274 separation due to the electrical neutralization of strong opposite charges of the WPI and SFAG, which
275 led to the self-assembly of large particles and thereby the formation of insoluble complex coacervates
276 (Dickinson, 1998). On the other hand, a very clear solution was visible at $\text{pH} \leq 2$, which can be
277 attributed to the highly protonated functional groups of SFAG and WPI leading to strong electrostatic
278 repulsion between two polymers. Similarly, at $\text{pH} > 5$, the polymer mixtures had a transparent
279 appearance presenting segregative phase separation of two similarly charged polymers. β -
280 lactoglobulin as a major constituent of WPI contains Leu, Val, and Ile amino acid residues within its
281 chemical structure. The α -carboxylic (-COOH) and -amino (-NH₂) acid moieties of these amino acids
282 and carboxylic groups of SFAG would be protonated or deprotonated at extremely low and high pH
283 values, respectively, giving rise to the segregative phase separation (Dickinson, 2005).

284 Opaque and homogenous mixtures were on the other hand observed at $\text{pH} > 4.2$ transferring to fully
285 transparent mixtures at $\text{pH} > 5$. In fact, Pelegrine and Gasparetto (2005) found the IEP of WPI to be
286 4.5. Although based on this IEP (4.5) WPI has overall no net charges, there still exist some amino
287 groups with positive charges which can readily interact with carboxylic groups of SFAG at the IEP.
288 Therefore, an electrostatic interaction at the IEP could be expected as it was observed by the visual
289 turbidity. Nevertheless, as the pH increased both the reactive groups of WPI and SFAG became
290 greatly negative and similarly to pH 2 the electrostatic repulsion between like charges inhibited
291 interaction. A similar trend was obtained at a total concentration of 0.2 % w/v at different pH
292 conditions but with less visual turbidity at pH 4-5, which was due to the fact that at the lower
293 concentration of the biopolymers either the number and/or the size of the created particles was
294 smaller leading to less turbidity of the mixtures (Figure 2a).

295 The results obtained from the turbidity analyses of the samples at 600nm (Figure 2b) were consistent
296 with the visual appearance evaluation. The acid titration of the biopolymer mixture from pH 6 to
297 lower pH conditions exhibited a dramatic increase in the optical turbidity from $\text{pH}_c = 5$ reaching to
298 the maximum value at $\text{pH}_{\text{opt}} = 4$. pH_c is the pH where soluble intrapolymeric complexes are initiated
299 to form (Turgeon, Beaulieu, Schmitt, & Sanchez, 2003), which was observed by the slight increase in
300 the turbidity values at pH 5. The pH_{opt} , for both studied total concentrations, could be attributed to
301 the formation of large insoluble particles and a starting point where insoluble complexes will be
302 dissociated (Figure 2b) (Turgeon et al., 2003). The $\text{pH}\phi_1$, where phase separation due to
303 neutralization would occur, was assigned to pH 4.4 because the biopolymer mixtures at this pH
304 started to precipitate under longer storage (Eghbal & Choudhary, 2018). At further titration to lower
305 pH values, the turbidity decreased greatly and a severe phase separation was visually observed.
306 Despite of the fact that the turbidity of the samples at $\text{pH} < 4$ was measured after shaking the
307 samples, the large aggregates sedimented very quickly which led to a fluctuating absorbance reading.

308 Thus, it seemed challenging to obtain a precise reading of the absorbance because it depends on the
309 strength of shaking and the time of reading in different samples. At pH lower than 2.5, the complexes
310 started to dissociate due to the presence of polymers with similar charges ($\text{pH} \phi_2$). The turbidity
311 profile of the biopolymer mixtures with TC = 0.2 % w/v suggested a fairly similar trend to TC = 0.4 %
312 w/v (Figure 2b); the optical density values were lower (Figure 2b), nonetheless, due to the smaller
313 particle size and/or lower number of formed complexes (Eghbal & Choudhary, 2018). In agreement
314 with the results obtained by Liu, Shim, Wang, and Reaney (2015), the pH where primary soluble
315 complexes started forming was independent of the total biopolymer concentration.

316 Another factor that can significantly influence the formation and the size of the bioparticles is the
317 ratio of biopolymers (Eghbal & Choudhary, 2018). The turbidity of the polyelectrolyte biopolymer
318 mixtures containing different WPI:SFAG ratios varying from 3:0 to 0:3 was measured (Figure 3). At a
319 first glance, the turbidity of WPI-SFAG mixtures was higher than of either individual WPI or SFAG
320 which is an indication that complexes were formed. Unlike the SFAG solution (0:3, 0.24% w/v) that
321 had a very low optical density at varying pH conditions, the WPI (3:0, 0.24% w/v) turbidity increased
322 from pH 4 to 4.5 followed by leveling off up to pH 5. Considering the fact that at the IEP, the
323 aggregation of proteins occurs, relatively high turbidity values were obtained in the range of 4.5 to
324 5. The samples providing more SFAG to the WPI molecules had a lower turbidity, indicating that there
325 were either no sufficient WPI molecules to interact with SFAG and a smaller number of the particles
326 was formed or particles with a smaller size were created. By contrast, the polymer mixtures with
327 more WPI content had higher turbidity values. This was not surprising because there was no sufficient
328 amount of SFAG molecules to prevent the aggregation of WPI molecules bringing the formation of
329 larger molecules about and thereby higher turbidity.

330 **3.2.2. Particle size and surface charge properties**

331 The particle size distribution of the formed coacervates at a WPI to SFAG ratio of 3:2 (TC = 0.4 % w/v)
332 was evaluated as a function of pH (Figure 4a). Two particle size regimes were observed. Coacervate
333 particles were found to have a large z-average diameter at pH 4 explaining the higher turbidity values
334 obtained at this pH. Below the IEP, the $-\text{NH}_2$ groups present within the chemical structure of WPI are
335 protonated. Hence, an interaction is achieved with the negatively charged moieties of AG. A size
336 reduction regime was visible up to pH 4.5 where the second regime was started. By further pH
337 increase to 5, the size of the particles significantly ($P < 0.05$) decreased to a smaller mean particle
338 diameter, indicating that more negative charges at $\text{pH} > \text{IEP}$ provide repulsion between the polymers
339 which led to the dissociation of the formed complexes and thereby the formation of smaller particles.
340 PDI results (Figure 4b) were also in line with the size measurement outcomes. At higher pH values
341 than 4.5, the PDI had a substantial growth, which is an indication that the number of the formed

342 complexes was very small and they started to break down or form irregular shapes. This effect led to
343 the presence of insufficient light scattering and thereby high PDI values. This observation was in
344 agreement with the optical density results, where the complexes had a less opaque appearance. The
345 particle size measurement of native WPI using DLS in this pH range (4-5) was troublesome due to the
346 very low scattered intensity, which was dominated by (a minor fraction of) large aggregates. The
347 aggregation of protein around and at the IEP is a complex phenomenon, which is attributed to
348 hydrophobic, Van der Waals, and electrostatic attractions. This can explain the aggregation and
349 precipitation of WPI in a pH range of 4-5. Overall, it can be concluded that the interaction of SFAG
350 with WPI molecules inhibited the aggregation of WPI by the formation of complex coacervates. This
351 was confirmed by turbidity and light scattering experiments.

352 The electrical surface charge properties of proteins measured at different pH values could be used to
353 determine the IEP as there is no net charge at this point. As it can be seen from Figure 4c, the zeta
354 potential of the WPI was +19mV at pH 4, decreasing to almost 0 at a pH around 5 and started to
355 become negative at pH values higher than 5. For comparison, Pelegri and Gasparetto (2005)
356 figured out that the IEP of WPI was 4.5, while Setiowati et al. (2017) reported 5 is the IEP. In fact, the
357 IEP depends strongly on the WPI composition and on the technique by which the IEP is determined.
358 Surface charge values calculated using electrophoretic mobility measurements revealed that the zero
359 net charge of WPI was obtained at pH 5. On the other hand, at around pH 5.2 the streaming potential
360 approached zero (Figure 4d).

361 A different behavior was observed when WPI and SFAG were mixed at a ratio of 3:2. At a pH range
362 of 4 to 5.5, they were negatively charged with values varying between -30 to -40mV showing the
363 negatively charged nature of the particles. Thus, it is evident that the addition of gum stabilized WPI
364 against aggregation by increasing the surface charge. This was also confirmed by measuring the
365 streaming potential (Figure 4d) of native WPI as well as of SFAG and WPI:SFAG (3:2, TC = 0.4 % w/v)
366 at different pH conditions. SFAG was negatively charged during the whole range of studied pH values
367 down to 2.2, where zeta potential became zero due to the protonation of the functional groups. The
368 negative values of the streaming potential of SFAG over the studied pH range indicated the anionic
369 nature of almond gum that could be attributed to the uronic acid content of this gum. These results
370 together were consistent with optical density outcomes which revealed that insoluble complexes
371 were formed at $\text{pH} \geq 2.5$. It has been indeed previously reported that the $-\text{COOH}$ group has $\text{pK}_a < 2$
372 (Liu et al., 2015). Interestingly, the complexes of WPI and SFAG had no net surface charges around
373 pH 3.8, consistent with turbidity measurements. It was worked out that the precipitation at $\text{pH} < 4$
374 was due to the formation of insoluble complexes, which was in accordance with the streaming
375 potential outcomes where the surface charge is zero. By further pH reduction, WPI was greatly

376 protonated while SFAG had negative surface charges leading to rapid neutralization of reactive
377 groups and thereby precipitation.

378 Overall, it can be concluded that the interaction between WPI and SFAG gave rise to the formation
379 of complex coacervates. We selected a colloidal complex system with WPI to SFAG ratio of 3:2 and
380 TC = 0.4 % w/v at pH 4.5 to prepare thymol emulsions and compare the results with native protein
381 to show the possible improved properties of WPI. This ratio was chosen because consistent with the
382 higher turbidity values compared to the studied ratios, it had a smaller particle size, indicating the
383 formation of a higher number of particles. Ultimately, this pH has been reported as the IEP of WPI
384 where aggregation and precipitation was observed mainly due to the zero net charges, which can be
385 a problem in the stabilization of emulsions.

386 **3.3. Pickering emulsion formulation**

387 The wettability and size of the solid particles are the crucial parameters for the formation and
388 stabilization of Pickering emulsions (Xiao, Li, & Huang, 2016). For instance, solid particles should be
389 wetted partially by both phases and their size should be at least 10 times smaller than the targeted
390 size of the emulsions. In the previous section, we showed that the formed nanoparticles (3:2, pH 4.5,
391 TC = 0.4 % w/v) had a z-average particle diameter of 313nm, which can potentially stabilize Pickering
392 emulsions with relatively small diameter.

393 The contact angle (θ) of native WPI was around 68° at pH 4.5 showing partial wettability, whereas
394 the relatively low contact angle of SFAG (24°) represented its hydrophilic nature. The formation of
395 complexes decreased the water contact angle of native WPI to around 58°, which is not primarily
396 hydrophobic or hydrophilic and thereby appropriate for Pickering stabilization (C. Li, Li, Sun, & Yang,
397 2013; Wu et al., 2015). In fact, the particles which are going to be positioned at the interface should
398 be able to not only penetrate to the oil phase, but also be hydrated by the aqueous phase. It is
399 believed that particles with a contact angle of 90 would be the ideal case for Pickering stabilization.
400 However, it has been shown in several studies that relatively stable Pickering oil-in-water emulsions
401 can be created by particles with θ values around 60° (C. Li et al., 2013; Wijaya, Van der Meeren,
402 Wijaya, & Patel, 2017). Thymol oil-in-water emulsions stabilized by only WPI showed a rapid phase
403 separation after a few hours of storage at pH 4.5, but the emulsions containing nano-complexes were
404 opaque and homogeneously dispersed (data not shown). This was not surprising as one would expect
405 that WPI at a pH around the IEP showed aggregation. Therefore, the stabilized emulsions at similar
406 pH conditions would also exhibit aggregation. This aggregation may be re-dispersible at early stages
407 but can potentially lead to the coalescence of the droplets. It is noteworthy to mention that SFAG
408 was not capable to form stable emulsions: the emulsion exhibited very rapid phase separation and
409 oiling-off.

410 The morphology of the formed emulsions was visualized using Cryo-SEM and confocal microscopy. It
411 was seen from the SEM pictures shown in Figure 5-a that emulsion droplets were successfully formed
412 with a size distribution comparable to the static light scattering measurements. It was also observed
413 through the Cryo-SEM photographs that the globular proteins were captured through the SFAG
414 network responsible for the relatively higher stability of the emulsions.

415 Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) of the emulsions stabilized by stained nanoparticles (NPs)
416 using Rhodamin B was employed to visualize the distribution of the particles at the interface. CLSM
417 photos in Figure 5-b&c revealed that the NPs were closely accumulated at the interface of the oil and
418 aqueous phase preventing the coalescence of the oil droplets by creation of a surrounding layer.

419 The droplet size distribution is an essential microstructure parameter to determine the
420 physicochemical stability of emulsions. Droplet size distribution analyses revealed that the formed
421 emulsions had initially a bimodal distribution when both native WPI and complexes were used. The
422 initial mean droplet diameter ($d_{[4,3]}$) of the emulsions stabilized by WPI was $5.4 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{m}$. On the
423 other hand, larger droplets ($d_{[4,3]} = 6.5 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{m}$) were formed when complexes were used for
424 stabilization. It is believed that the complexation could change the conformational properties of WPI
425 and hence, the adsorption properties at the oil-water interface (Wei, Zhu, & Huang, 2018). Moreover,
426 proteins at their IEP have a higher tendency toward the hydrophobic phase due to the lower solubility
427 in the aqueous phase. Thus, the interfacial tension (IFT) changes between oil and an aqueous phase
428 containing either WPI or complexes as a function of time was monitored (Figure 6). In fact, a gradual
429 decrease was observed at first for the adsorption of complexes to the oil phase in order to rearrange
430 their structure in line with the oil phase followed by leveling off. On the other hand, the IFT decreased
431 very rapidly with smooth changes during the comparable measurement time, indicating that WPI
432 adsorbed very rapidly at the oil-water interface. These results suggested that the complexation most
433 probably led to conformational changes of WPI which influenced its adsorption behavior during
434 emulsification. In fact, during mixing, the surfactant should adsorb fast enough to the surface of the
435 newly created droplets to prevent recoalescence of the oil droplets. At a first glance, it seems that
436 native WPI was more efficient in the formation of smaller droplets than the complexes with the
437 reduced adsorption features because of the complexation. However, the droplet size distribution
438 may be potentially varying at longer storage times. In fact, from an industrial and functionality point
439 of view, a product should have sufficient long-term stability. To this end, the droplet size distribution
440 and visual appearance changes were monitored upon storage at 4°C (Figure 7). As it can be seen from
441 Figure 7-a, the thymol emulsions stabilized by only WPI displayed a thick cream layer (a few oil
442 droplets on top), while the Pickering emulsions using NPs were homogeneously dispersed.

443 After 40 days of storage, a substantial shift toward larger sizes in the volume-weighted size

444 distribution of the emulsions containing native WPI was observed. This was consistent with the thick
445 creaming layer optically visible on top of the sample. Nevertheless, there was no sign of
446 physiochemical instability in thymol emulsions stabilized using WPI:SFAG complexes as the droplet
447 size distribution remained unchanged after 40 days of storage (Figure 7-b). In order to examine that
448 the droplet size coarsening in the WPI stabilized emulsions was primarily due to coalescence and not
449 to reversible aggregation, the FI and CI were determined (Castellani et al., 2006). Unlike the thymol
450 emulsions stabilized by native WPI that had a relatively large FI (14.2) at d40, the FI value of the
451 emulsions containing NPs was 0.5. On the other hand, the larger CI (27.8) of the former case
452 suggested that the droplet size growth was due to the combination of flocculation and coalescence
453 of the droplets. Despite the fact that smaller droplets could be formed by the native protein, the WPI
454 molecules (which showed aggregation at pH 4.5) were not able to prevent coalescence and ultimately
455 the emulsion structure broke down. It should be noted that the CI of the emulsions when NPs was
456 used for stabilization, was close to zero (i.e. -0.7). This was in accordance with the electrophoretic
457 mobility of the emulsions containing native WPI which was almost zero explaining the rapid creaming
458 of thymol emulsions due to the aggregation tendency of WPI. This aggregation can promote the
459 rupture of the interfacial layer leading to coalescence. It seemed that the adsorbed proteins with net
460 neutral electrical surface charge were not capable to create sufficient repulsion forces to prevent
461 aggregation leading to creaming and coalescence. On the other hand, the better stabilization of
462 thymol emulsions with complexes adsorbed on the surface could be attributed to electrosteric forces,
463 a combination of electrostatics due to the repulsion between like charges and steric hindrance due
464 to the entropy confining of the chains towards the continuous phase (Sedaghat Doost, Sinnaeve, De
465 Neve, & Van der Meeren, 2017), induced by SFAG molecules. In fact, the interaction of SFAG with
466 WPI could enhance the stability of the formed emulsions via electrosteric stabilization. Overall, it can
467 be concluded that electrostatic complexation of WPI with SFAG can successfully improve the
468 emulsion stabilization of WPI at pH 4.5.

469 **4. Conclusions**

470 This study investigated the interaction of whey protein isolate with the soluble fraction of almond
471 gum at varying biopolymer ratio, pH, and total polymer concentration, which indicated that the
472 interaction was primarily electrostatic. The selected conditions for the formation of the soluble
473 complexes were a total concentration of 0.4 % w/v, a WPI:SFAG ratio of 3:2, and pH 4.5. These
474 negatively charged soluble complexes (-36.5 mV) with average size of around 313 nm were used to
475 fabricate thymol Pickering stabilized emulsions. Cryo-SEM and CLSM revealed that the adsorption of
476 the nanoparticles on the surface of the oil droplets was responsible for the stabilization of the thymol
477 emulsions. Droplet size analyses suggested that the WPI-SFAG complexes were successfully capable

478 to retard aggregation and/or coalescence of the droplets while native WPI showed severe creaming
479 and coalescence after 40 days of storage. The formulated thymol oil-in-water emulsions have a
480 potential application as an antimicrobial and antioxidant agent in different products.

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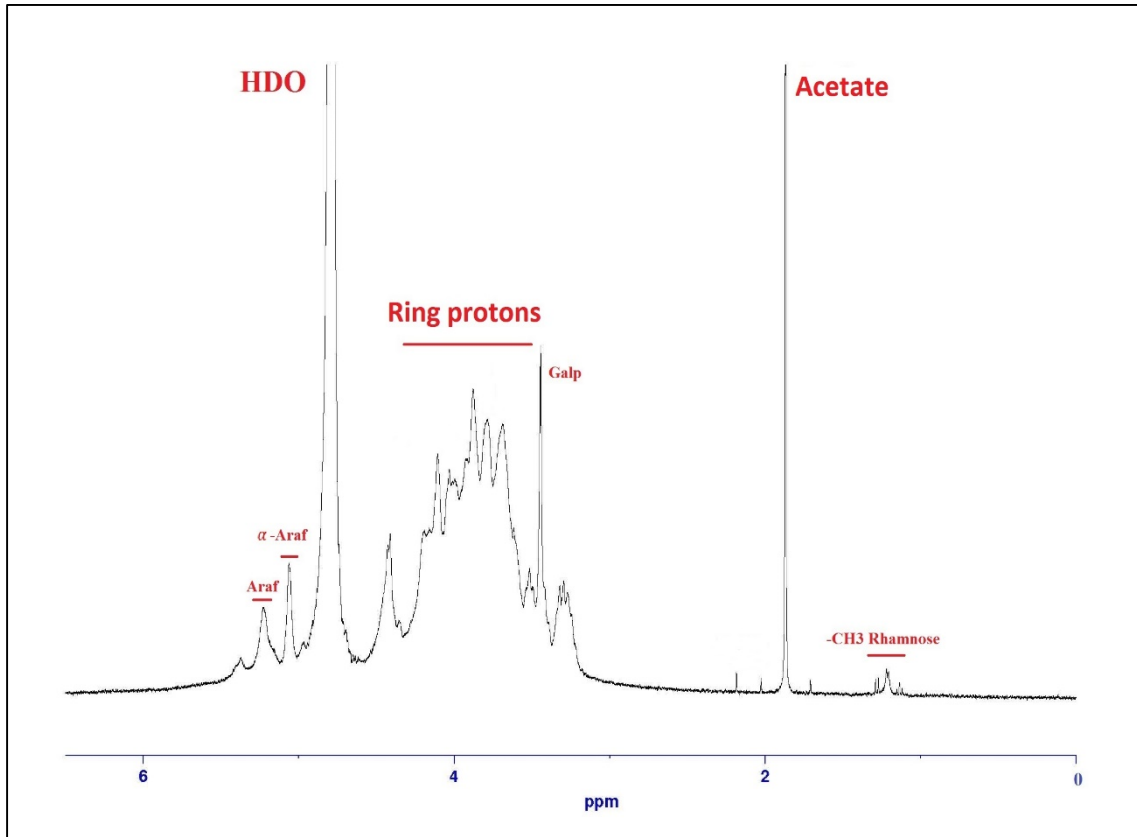
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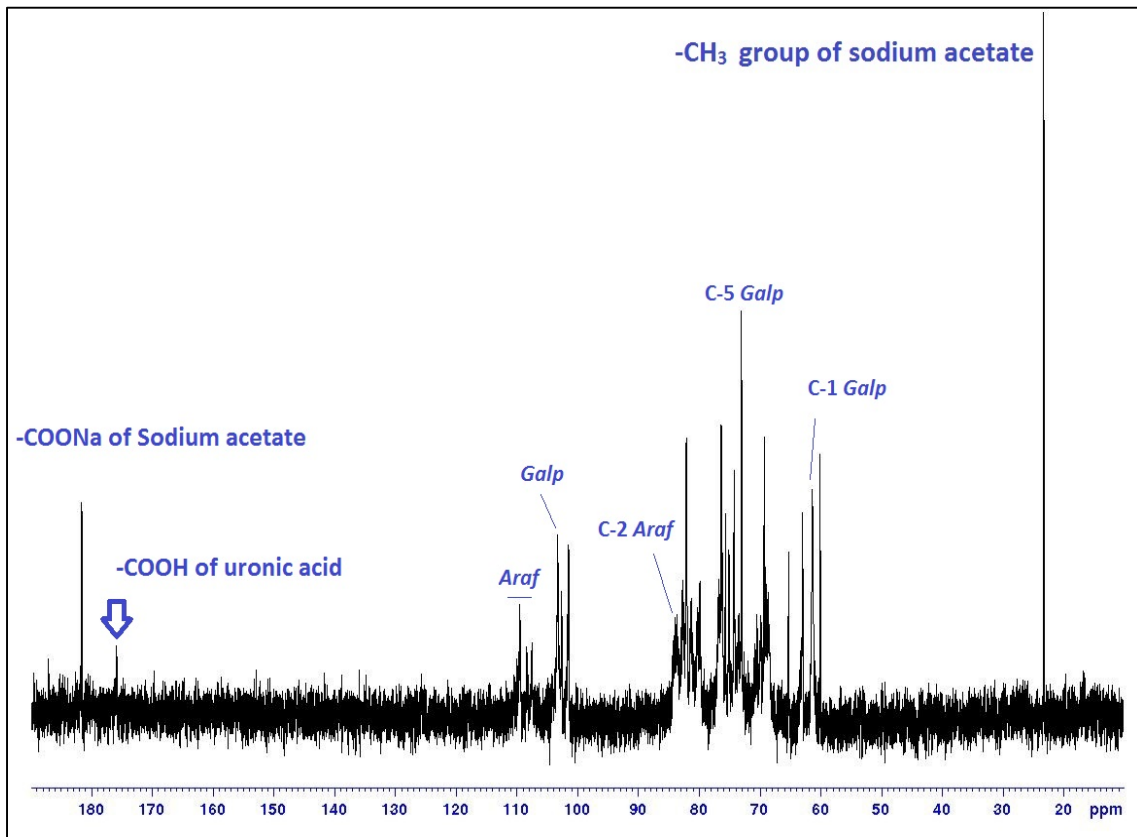
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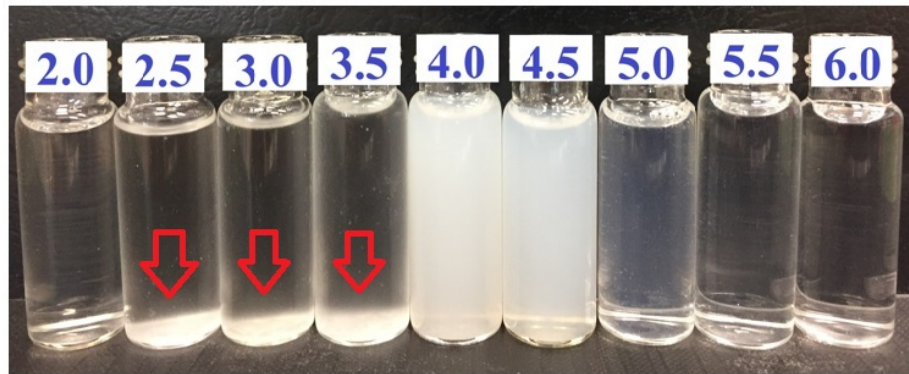
Figure 1. 1-D ¹H- (a) and ¹³C-NMR (b) spectra of the water soluble fraction of almond gum containing sodium acetate as an internal standard recorded at 30°C.

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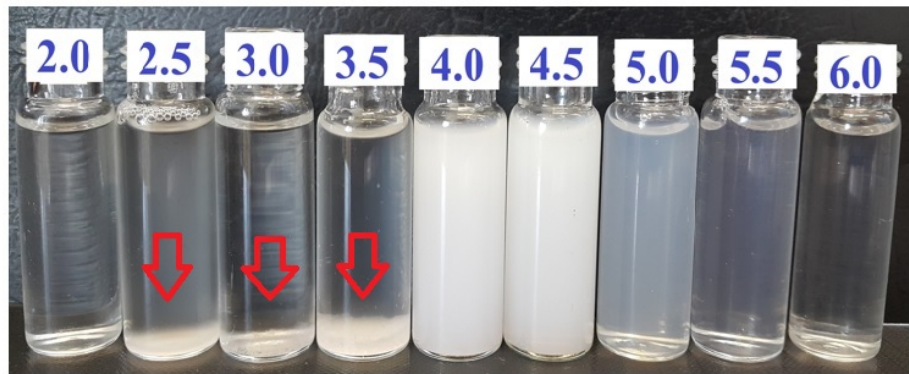
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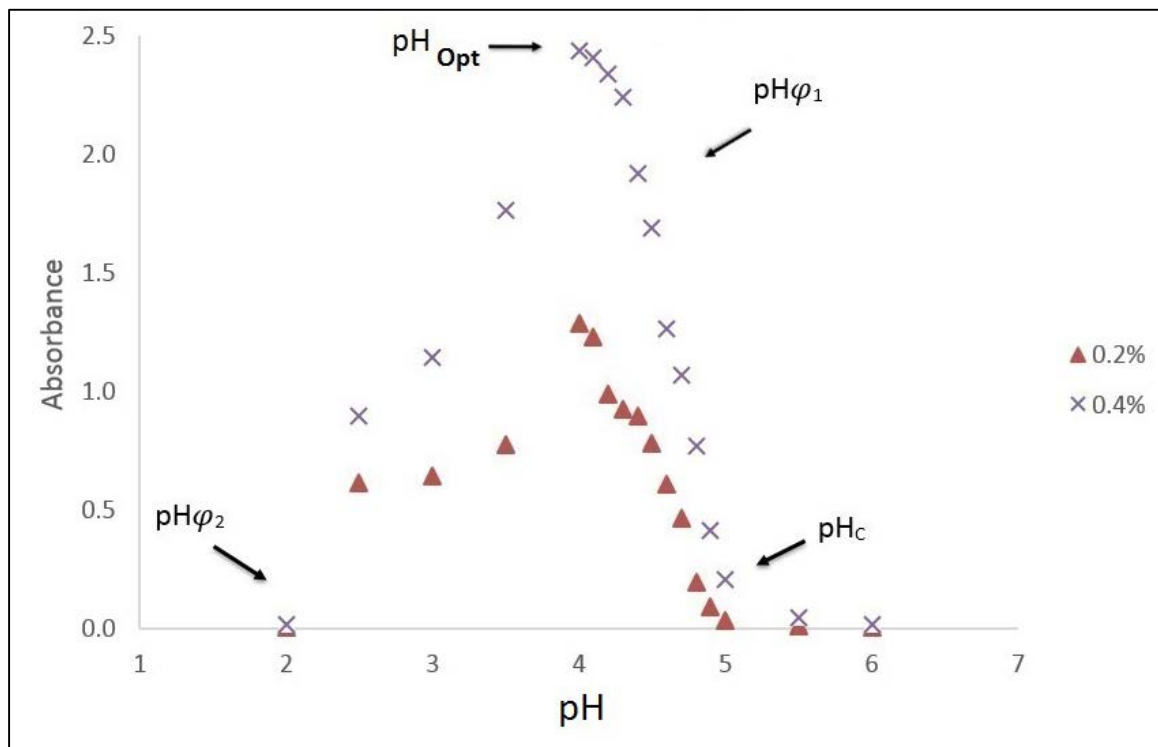
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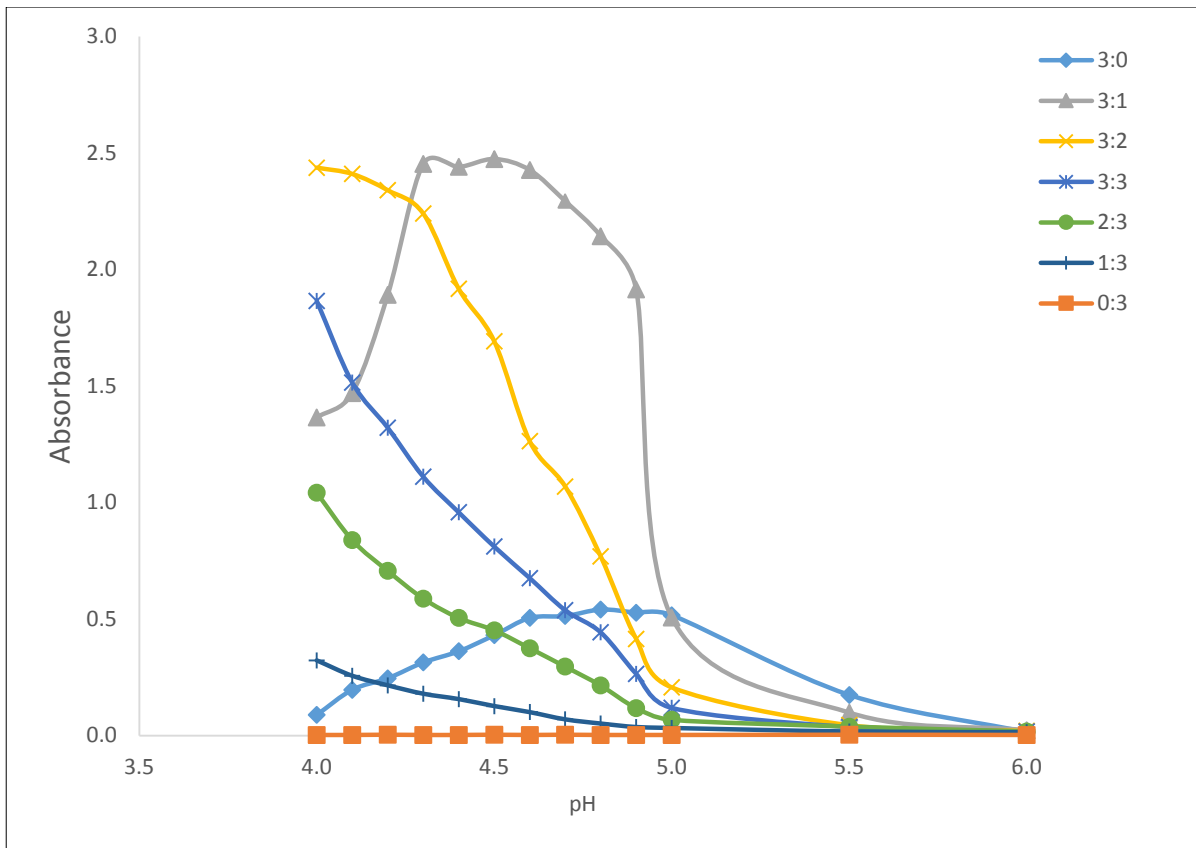


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Figure 2. Optical appearance (a) and optical density (600nm) (b) of whey protein isolate-soluble fraction of almond gum complexes (3:2) at two different total biopolymer concentrations (0.2 and 0.4%w/v) as a function of pH.

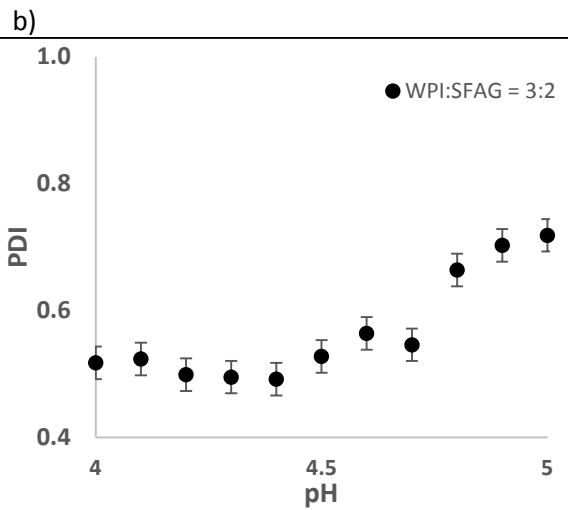
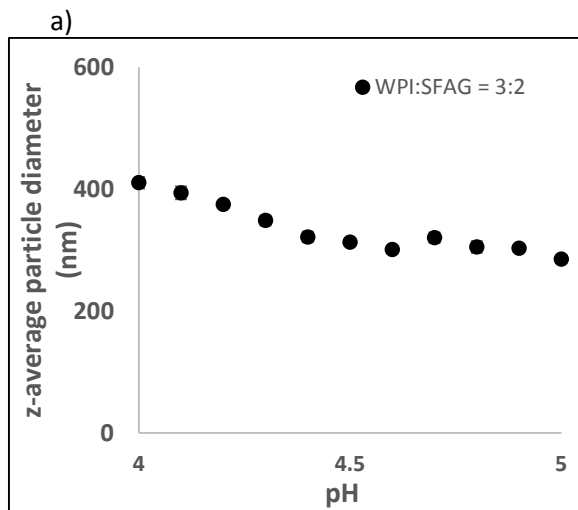


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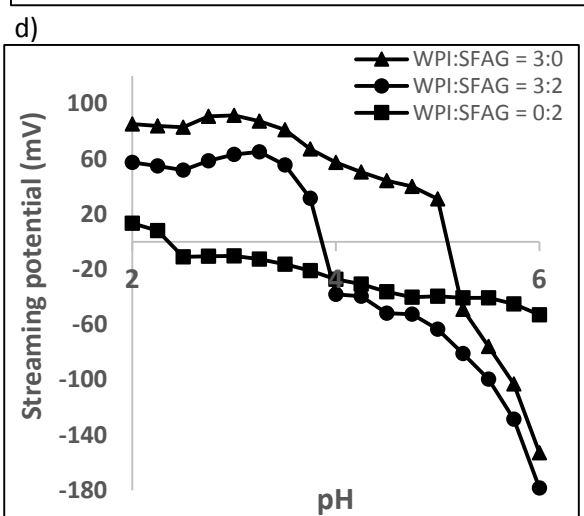
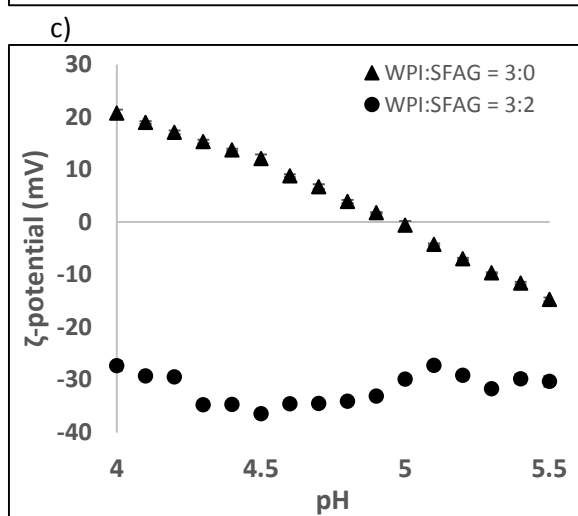
Figure 3. Influence of whey protein isolate and soluble fraction of almond gum ratio at constant total concentration (0.4%w/v) on the optical density (600nm) of the formed complexes at variable pH conditions (4-6).

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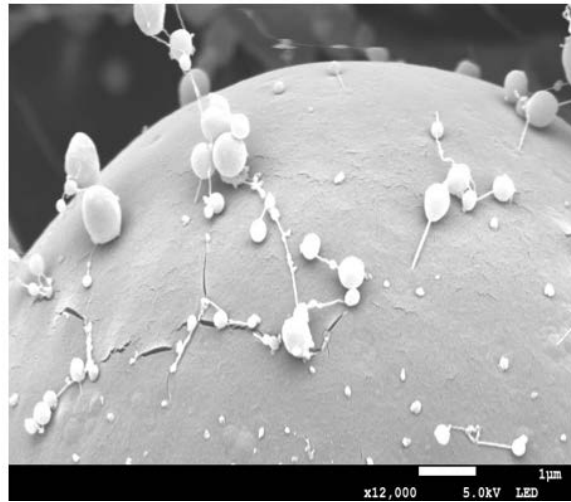
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Figure 4. Evolution of particle size (a), polydispersity index (PDI) (b), zeta-potential (c), and streaming potential (d) of whey protein isolate (WPI) – soluble fraction of almond gum (SFAG) complexes (ratio = 3:2, TC = 0.4%w/v) as a function of pH; for comparison, native WPI (c and d) and SFAG (d) were included.

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654 a)

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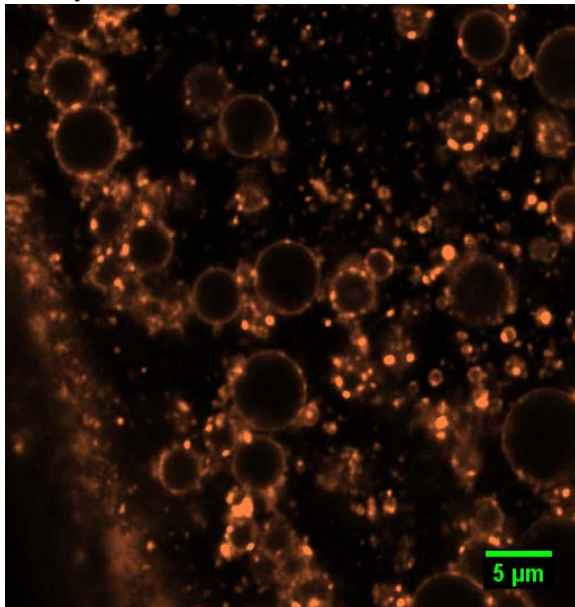


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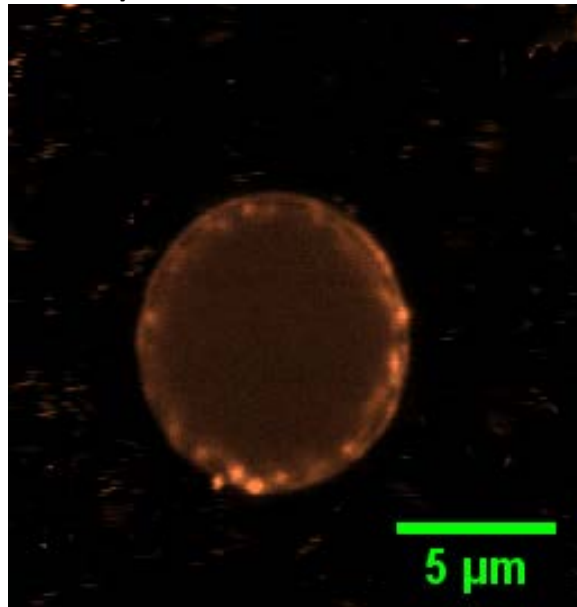
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b)



c)



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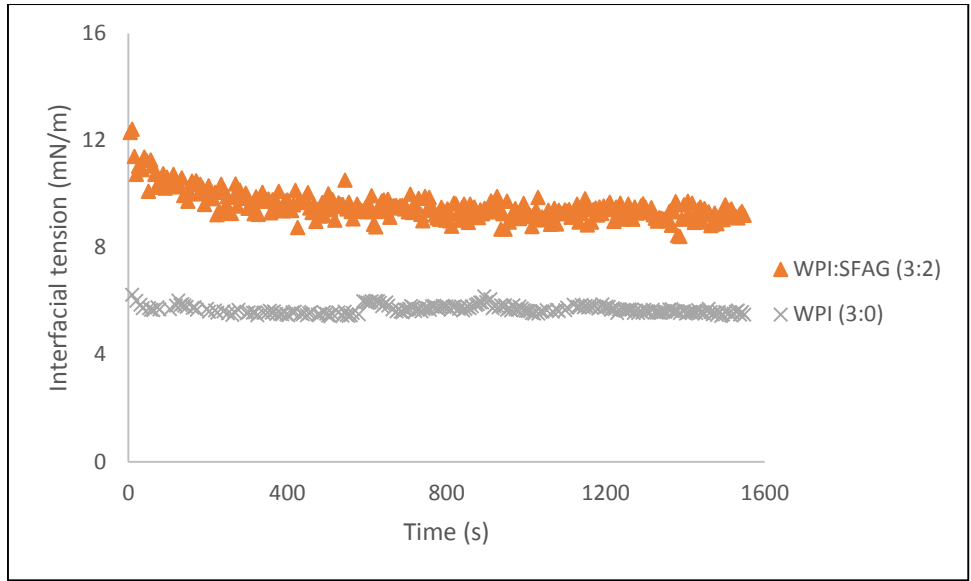
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Figure 5. Cryo-SEM photograph (a) and CLSM in Rhodamine B detection mode of undiluted (b) and diluted (c) of 4% thymol emulsions stabilized by whey protein isolate-soluble fraction of almond gum particles (ratio = 3:2, TC = 0.4%w/v) prepared at 10mM sodium acetate buffer (pH 4.5) (the pictures were taken at day 0).

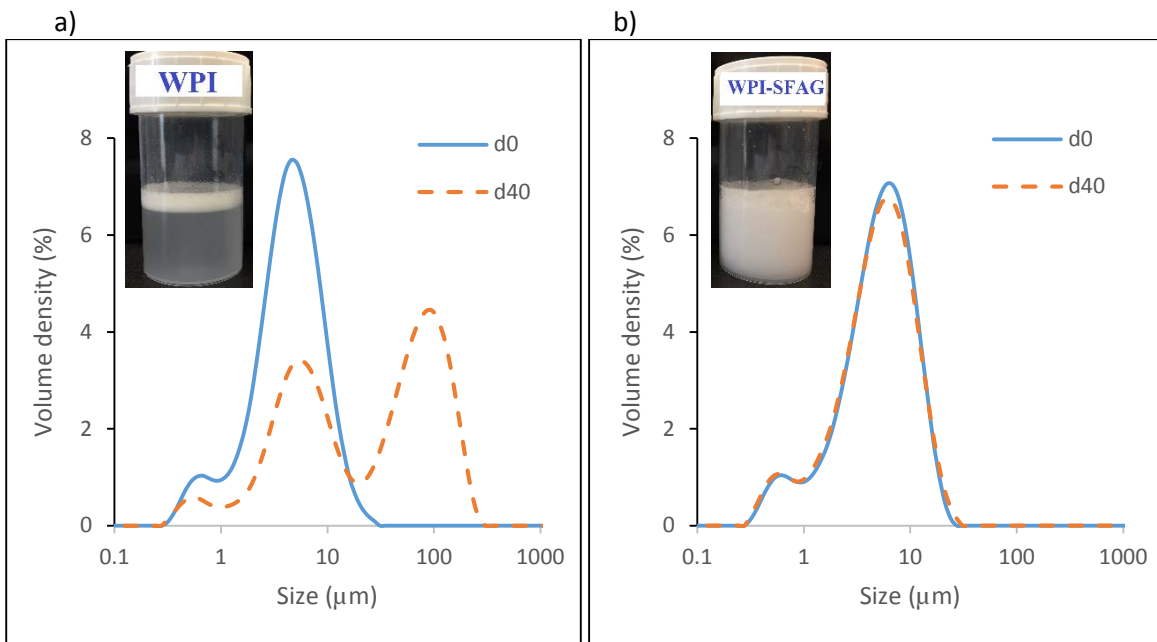
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Figure 6. Interfacial tension variation between an aqueous phase containing either native whey protein isolate (WPI) or WPI-soluble fraction of almond gum (SFAG) particles (TC = 0.4%w/v) and thymol mixed with tricaprilyn oil (4:1) at 25°C.

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Figure 7. Volume-weighted droplet size distribution of thymol emulsions stabilized using either native whey protein isolate (WPI) (a) or WPI-soluble fraction of almond gum (SFAG) complexes (b) at a ratio of 3:2 (total concentration = 0.4%w/v) after 0 and 40 days of storage at 4°C.

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