



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This is a repository copy of *Oral behaviour of emulsions stabilized by mixed monolayer*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/149870/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Karthik, P, Ettelaie, R orcid.org/0000-0002-6970-4650 and Chen, J (2019) Oral behaviour of emulsions stabilized by mixed monolayer. *Food Research International*, 125. 108603. ISSN 0963-9969

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2019.108603>

© 2019, Elsevier Ltd. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

1 **Oral Behaviour of Emulsions Stabilized by Mixed Monolayer**

2
3
4 **P. Karthik¹, Rammile Ettelaie² and Jianshe Chen^{1*}**

5 ¹Food Oral Processing Laboratory, School of Food Science and Biotechnology,
6 Zhejiang Gongshang University, Hangzhou-310021, China.

7 ²Food Colloids Group, School of Food Science and Nutrition, University of Leeds,
8 Woodhouse Lane, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK.

9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16 -----
17 *Correspondence:

18 Jianshe Chen,

19 Tele: 0086-571-29008904

20 Fax: 0086-571-29008900

21 *Email: jschen@zjgsu.edu.cn

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Controlled flavour release is highly important for formulation design of food emulsions.
26 However, manipulating oral behavior and maintaining the stability of flavoured emulsion
27 is quite challenging. Hence, the objective of the study was to investigate the effect of
28 emulsion stability and oral behaviour using mixed emulsifiers of different nature for their
29 controlled flavour release. Orange oil flavoured (0.1 % orange oil + 10 % sunflower oil)
30 oil-in-water emulsions were prepared by microfluidization through modified starch (MS)
31 and whey protein isolate (WPI) with different mass ratios (0.5:0.5, 0.5:1, 1:0.5, 1:1, 1:0
32 and 0:1) of emulsifiers. The fabricated emulsions were less than 0.134 μm in size (d_{32})
33 with stable oil droplets having strong negative charges. Increase in mean droplet size
34 d_{32} (1.124 and 0.937 μm) was observed for 0.5:0.5 and 0:1 emulsions during storage at
35 10th day in 28 ± 1 °C; but the emulsions stored at 4 ± 0.1 °C were found to be stable. All
36 the emulsions exhibited Newtonian flow; however once mixed with artificial saliva they
37 displayed shear thinning behaviour for 1:0.5 and 1:0. During oral processing, in-vitro
38 and in-vivo showed flocculation and coalescence; subsequently structural deformation
39 was observed with increase in size (d_{32}) and weak negative charge in 1:0.5 and 1:0
40 emulsions. Backscattering profile revealed more destabilization for 1:0 and less for 1:0.5
41 emulsions. Contrarily, other emulsions were did not show any changes. Therefore, oral
42 processing of emulsion results suggested that 1:0 had quick destabilization and 1:0.5
43 changed gradually. Thus, mixed emulsifier monolayer contributed significantly to the
44 behavior of emulsion once mixed with saliva and it can be useful for controlled flavour
45 release.

46 Keywords: Emulsion; Food oral processing; Modified starch; Storage stability; Oral
47 behaviour; Emulsion-saliva interaction.

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Emulsions play an essential role in the food supplementation, pharmaceutical
51 and nutraceutical applications. Previously, many research studies have been reported
52 on the methods of preparation (i.e. high and low energy emulsification), stability (i.e.
53 physicochemical) and properties (i.e. thermal, functional and structural) of emulsions
54 (Karthik & Anandharamakrishnan, 2016a; Qian, Decker, Xiao, & McClements, 2012).
55 Presently, there has been more attention on designing emulsions which can improve
56 the nutritional and functional aspects of foods (Ezhilarasi, Karthik, Chhanwal, &
57 Anandharamakrishnan, 2013; Mao & Miao, 2015; Roohinejad, Greiner, Oey, & Wen,
58 2018). Food emulsions are involved into different stages of oral processes such as oral
59 shearing, salivation, bolus formation and swallowing during consumption (Mao, Roos,
60 Biliaderis & Miao). During oral processing, the emulsion is destabilized which is resulted
61 in very different microstructure that leads to textural and sensorial experiences entirely
62 different from that of a stable emulsion system (Chen, 2015). However, the effect of
63 different combination of emulsifier on the behavior of emulsion during oral processing is
64 little known. To understand the underlying mechanism of emulsion interacting with
65 saliva is more important for manipulating of their stability and oral behaviour. Hence, the
66 emulsion based system can be used for studying the oral behavior of food emulsions
67 using suitable emulsifiers.

68 Emulsions are colloidal systems comprising two immiscible liquids, with one
69 phase being dispersed into another phase in the form of fine droplets that can be either
70 oil or water. Emulsions are extensively used as an important vehicle for delivering the
71 flavour molecules (Anandharamakrishnan, 2014). However, during the delivery of
72 flavour in the oral digestive system, many physiochemical factors are involved into the
73 release of flavour molecules; furthermore it is associated with properties of emulsifier
74 monolayer. Hence, it is essential to know about the flavour release from emulsions
75 prepared by different combination of emulsifiers during oral processing. Food oral
76 processing is a dynamic process in which food will be broken down structurally for easy
77 transportation to the stomach and for the sensory experience (Chen, 2015). Once a
78 food emulsion enters into the mouth, the emulsion is subjected to a wide range of
79 physical and biochemical conditions, i.e. mixing with saliva and air, equilibrium to body
80 temperature and shear between the epithelial surfaces of the tongue and the oral
81 palate. Moreover, it is also exposed to salivary enzymes, various biopolymers such as
82 mucins, changes in the ionic environment due to presence of electrolytes and a change
83 in pH (Bardow, Moe, Nyvad, & Nauntofte, 2000; Chen, 2009; de Wijk, Prinz, Engelen, &
84 Weenen, 2004; Glantz, 1997). Mixing food with saliva facilitates food manipulation and
85 bolus formation in the oral cavity (Prinz & Lucas, 1997), which also influences flavour
86 release (van Ruth & Roozen, 2000) and can be responsible for taste and flavour
87 molecules to become diluted (van Ruth, Roozen, Nahon, Cozijnsen, & Posthumus,
88 1996; Christensen, 1985). These flavour molecules are then either diffused through the
89 salivary media to the taste buds or released to the air. Hence, saliva plays a significant
90 role in the food oral processing and sensory perception (Chen, 2015). During oral

91 processing of oil/fat, saliva can also function as an emulsifier to give a coarse emulsion
92 (Glumac, Qin, Chen, & Ritzoulis, 2018).

93 Conversely, emulsifier is also greatly involved in producing stable emulsion, as it
94 adsorb on the interface between oil and water phase. Thus, reducing interfacial tension
95 prevents the instability mechanism (e.g. flocculation and coalescence) that occurs by
96 generating protective layer between the oil droplets through steric and/or electrostatic
97 stabilizing mechanisms (McClements, 2015, Karthik, Ezhilarasi, &
98 Anandharamakrishnan, 2017). Usually, food proteins are widely used as emulsifiers in
99 food industry due to their advantages in high nutrition, and excellent surface activities
100 (Chen, et al. 2018). However, the proteins like whey protein isolate stabilized emulsions
101 are sensitive to temperature, pH, salt, environmental stresses, etc., which also influence
102 the flocculation, coalescence, creaming and phase separation (Lam & Nickerson, 2013;
103 Dickinson, 2010). On the other hand, modified starch has become commendable for
104 food formulations due to their emulsification properties, accessibility and economical
105 (Lin, Liang, Zhong, Ye, & Singh, 2018). Synthesize of octinyl succinic anhydride (OSA)-
106 modified starch is achieved by an esterification reaction between the hydroxyl groups of
107 native starch and OSA (Sweedman, Tizzotti, Schafer, & Gilbert, 2013). The hydrophobic
108 octenyl side chains in the OSA groups attached to the hydroxyl groups of starch yields
109 the emulsifying property to the starch (Torres, Tena, Murray, & Sarkar, 2017). The
110 modified starch can change the digestion behavior of the emulsions as well as the
111 release of flavours, nutrients and bioactives in the oral cavity. Once the OSA-starch
112 stabilized emulsion interact with saliva, the α -amylase presented in the salivary phase
113 initiates the starch hydrolysis and it turns to reduce the solidity of layer in the emulsion

114 droplets; therefore resulting in destabilization of starch emulsion (Chen, 2007; Chiu et
115 al. 2017; Ettelaie, Holmes, Chen, & Farshchi, 2016). This is the basis for creating mixed
116 monolayer emulsion, which contains starch and protein emulsifier system for
117 manipulating oral behaviour.

118 Hitherto, Vingerhoeds, Blijdenstein, Zoet, & van Aken, (2005) studied
119 physicochemical effects of saliva on protein-stabilized food emulsions and observed the
120 aggregation phenomena. Presumably, Sarkar, Goh, & Singh, (2009) investigated milk-
121 protein stabilized emulsions mixed with artificial saliva to study the colloidal stability. It
122 reported that emulsions stabilized by β -lactoglobulin were stable but showed depletion
123 flocculation at higher mucin levels. Contrarily, emulsion stabilized by lactoferrin
124 exhibited aggregation in the presence of salts but in the absence of mucin. However,
125 droplet aggregation observed at higher mucin. Recently, Chiu et al. (2017) reported on
126 OSA-starch stabilized emulsion for enhancing saltiness perception during oral cavity.
127 Likewise, WPI-pectin stabilized flavoured emulsion showed release of volatility
128 increased with increasing salt and addition of artificial salivas (Mao, Roos, O'Callaghan,
129 & Miao, 2013). However, very limited studies are carried out in the manipulation of oral
130 behavior on food emulsions by comparing in-vitro and in-vivo methods; therefore, it is
131 required to study extensively. Thus, the present work aimed to reveal the impact of
132 mixed monolayer characteristics on the stability and oral processing of emulsion for the
133 flavour release application. In addition, this study postulated that mixed monolayer
134 emulsion may yield a unique route towards food oral processing that can be further
135 helpful in the design of food products for desirable oral experience for controlled flavour
136 release.

137 The objective of this study is to evaluate the role of mixed emulsifier monolayers
138 (modified starch and whey protein isolate) on the stability and oral behaviour of
139 flavoured emulsions produced by microfluidization. The emulsions oral behaviour by in-
140 vitro and in-vivo is examined in terms of size, morphology, droplet charge, rheology and
141 turbiscan (TSI and % BS). Moreover, emulsion stability against storage condition also
142 studied.

143

144 **2. Materials and Methods**

145

146 2.1. Preparation of emulsion

147 Modified starch (Purity gum ultra, modified from waxy maize starch, Ingredion
148 Incorporated, Shanghai, China) was dispersed into aqueous solution and mixed using a
149 high-speed homogenizer (T25 digital Ultra Turrax, IKA, USA) at 3,600 rpm for 1 hr in
150 room temperature (28 ± 1 °C) to form continuous phase. The prepared solution was
151 stored at overnight in refrigerated condition (4 ± 0.1 °C) for complete hydration. On the
152 other hand, whey protein isolate (Glanbia Nutritionals Inc.) was mixed into aqueous
153 phase through high-speed homogenizer at 5000 rpm for 5 min in room temperature to
154 produce protein emulsifier solution. In this study, different concentrations (% w/w) of
155 MS and WPI emulsifier (i.e. 0.5:0.5, 0.5:1, 1:0.5, 1:1) were mixed to produce mixed
156 monolayer emulsion. In addition, individual emulsifier such as 1:0 (MS) and 0:1 (WPI)
157 were also used as control for preparation of emulsion. Table 1 shows the composition of
158 the six emulsions prepared. For the preparation of oil phase, orange oil (0.1 %, w/w;
159 now essential oils, IL, USA) was blended with sunflower oil (10 %, w/w; local

160 supermarket, Hangzhou, China). The orange oil was used to mimic the model flavour
161 oil-in-water emulsion system.

162 The coarse emulsion was prepared by mixing these two phases using high-
163 speed homogenizer at 6000 rpm for 5 min. The obtained coarse emulsion was further
164 homogenized by microfluidizer (Microfluidics M-110P, Westwood, Massachusetts,
165 USA). The operation condition of microfluidizer was chosen at 200 bar of 5 cycles for
166 preparation of MS and MS mixed with WPI emulsions; whereas 250 bar of 5 cycles was
167 used for WPI emulsion. In the preliminary study, emulsification condition was optimized
168 in order to achieve consistent droplet size distribution for different emulsions. After the
169 preparation of flavoured emulsions, the samples were stored at refrigeration (4 ± 0.1 °C)
170 and room (28 ± 1 °C) condition for studying the stability and oral processing.

171

172 2.2. Preparation of artificial saliva

173 The artificial saliva was prepared according to Davis, Hartman, & Fincher, 1971;
174 Sarkar et al., 2009 and their compositions are shown in Table 2. After preparation of
175 artificial saliva, the pH was adjusted to pH 6.8 using 1M HCl solution.

176

177 2.3. Droplet size measurements

178 The droplet size distribution and span value of all the emulsions were measured
179 by laser light diffraction particle size analyzer (Mastersizer 3000, Malvern Instruments,
180 Worcestershire, UK). Refractive indices of 1.46 for oil and 1.33 for dispersant medium
181 were used to determine the particle size. The absorbance value was set at 0.001.
182 Emulsion droplet size study was performed at different time intervals (1, 5, 10 and 15

183 days) and storage conditions i.e. refrigeration (4 ± 0.1 °C) and room (28 ± 1 °C).
184 Measurements were done in triplicates. Similarly, the mean droplet size (d_{32}) of
185 emulsion mixed with artificial saliva was determined by the same instrument.

186

187 2.4. Determination of zeta-potential

188 The electrical charge (ζ -potential) of orange oil flavoured emulsions prepared
189 with different concentration of emulsifiers was determined using Malvern Zetasizer
190 (Nano-ZS90; Malvern Instruments, U.K.). Emulsions ζ -potential was examined under
191 different storage intervals i.e. on the 1, 5, 10 and 15th day and measurements were
192 made in triplicates. Similarly, the ζ -potential of emulsion mixed with artificial saliva was
193 examined using the same procedure.

194

195 2.5. Rheological characteristics

196 Rheological characterization of all the emulsions were performed using a shear
197 rheometer (Discovery HR-2, TA Instruments, New castle, USA) with a double gap cup
198 and bob geometry attachment. The shear rate was gradually increased from 1 to 100 s^{-1}
199 at a controlled temperature of 25 °C. The rheological measurements were conducted in
200 triplicate. The flow behavior of emulsion mixed with artificial saliva was studied at
201 temperature of 37 °C using the same measurement setup.

202

203 2.6. Morphology

204 Morphology of emulsions was observed by optical microscope (Leica DMC2900,
205 Heidelberg, Germany) with a 100X oil immersed objective lens and images were

206 captured using LAS v4.6 software. Similar experimental procedure was applied to find
207 out the microstructure of all the emulsions for in-vitro and in-vivo salivary studies.

208

209 2.7. Creaming stability at different storage condition

210 Orange oil flavoured emulsions (15 mL) were kept into a measuring glass tube
211 with a stopper. Creaming was measured at different time intervals (1, 5, 10, and 15
212 days). Creaming was examined by determining the height of the cream layer on top
213 (HC) and the height of total emulsion (HE) in the emulsion stored tube (Huimin et al.,
214 2014). Measurements were done in duplicates. Emulsion creaming stability in terms of
215 creaming index (CI %) was calculated by Eq. (1)

$$216 \quad \text{Creaming Index (CI \%)} = \left(\frac{H_C}{H_E} \right) \times 100 \quad (1)$$

217 Similarly, phase separation and sedimentation were monitored during the storage for all
218 the emulsions.

219

220 2.8. Oral processing by in-vitro method

221 In-vitro emulsion stability studies were carried out by mixing emulsion with
222 artificial saliva (as explained in the section 2.2). The initial emulsion was mixed with
223 artificial saliva in a ratio of 1:1. In order to avoid the early destabilization of emulsion
224 structure, the mixture of solution was gently stirred using glass rod. The ratio of 1:1 was
225 chosen based on the consideration that flavoured emulsion is a mouth-feel and olfactory
226 sensation perceived while receiving a small amount of liquid. Rituja and Chen, (2019)
227 stated that emulsions like liquid foods have short oral residence times and saliva flow

228 rates of about 1-5 g/s would be required to get a 1:1 mixing ratio. In addition, Brossard,
229 Cai, Osorio, Bordeu, & Chen, (2016); Cai, Li, & Chen (2017) have also reported that 1:1
230 ratio is probably a good approximation and it was found to be acceptable for studies.
231 After mixture of artificial saliva with emulsion the pH was adjusted to pH 6.8 using 1 M
232 HCl and incubated at 37 °C in shaking water bath at a rotation speed of 100 rpm. The
233 emulsion samples were withdrawn at different time intervals such as 10, 300, 600, and
234 1,200s and immediately characterized through different analytical methods. In the
235 preliminary study, in-vitro oral processing was optimized by varying the time interval.
236 However, longer time interval was chosen to mimic agitation in the mouth (Chang and
237 McClements, 2016). Generally, this time is longer than a liquid food would spend in the
238 mouth; but it was used to match up with the in-vivo oral processing. In order to compare
239 the effect of α -amylase interaction with mixed emulsifier, individual emulsifier was also
240 used as reference.

241

242 2.9. Turbidity scan

243 Destabilization mechanism of emulsions mixed with artificial saliva was evaluated
244 using a vertical scan analyzer TurbiscanLab (Formulacion, Toulouse, France) at 37 °C.
245 Emulsions mixed with artificial saliva (about the volume 20 mL, height 42 mm) was
246 placed in a cylindrical glass tube and scanned from the bottom to top with a laser light
247 source ($\lambda = 850$ nm) for 1 hr. The scan was repeated every three minutes, each time
248 giving a single curve and at the end of the experiment all curves were superimposed on
249 the resultant graph to show the overall destabilization of the emulsion system.

250

251 2.10. Oral processing by in-vivo method

252 10 human subjects (6 females, 4 males, aged between 25-33, non-smokers)
253 were recruited for the in-vivo oral behavior study. Emulsions sample name was coded
254 randomly with three digits and kept in a random order. Initially, subjects were requested
255 to ingest 2 mL of emulsions to the mouth without swallowing. Afterwards, the emulsion
256 was gently stirred and mixed up with the subject's saliva for 3, 10, 30 and 60s. Further,
257 the subjects were requested to spat out the samples into a clean container for the
258 analysis. Before and after moving to the every individual test, subjects were asked to
259 use mouth-wash and warm water to clear residual taste and wash their mouth with
260 clean water for three times. Approximately, 3 to 5 min was given to the subject between
261 2 tests. The samples collected from 10 subjects were immediately characterized in
262 terms of size, morphology and zeta-potential. The average values of 10 subjects were
263 considered for this study. Written consent form was taken from the entire participants
264 and a financial compensation was offered for their participation. Ethical approval was
265 obtained from the Zhejiang Gongshang University (2018030106).

266

267 2.11. Statistical analysis

268 Results were expressed statistically as mean value \pm standard deviation of
269 experiments performed in either duplicates or triplicates. Statistical analysis was carried
270 out by analysis of variance (ANOVA) using SPSS statistical software version 16.
271 Comparison of means was performed by Tukey's post hoc test. The level of significance
272 used was $p < 0.05$ for all the statistical tests.

273

274 3. Results and discussion

275

276 3.1. Effect of storage temperature on mean droplet size

277 In the purpose of commercial applications, the flavoured emulsions long-term
278 stability that is emulsion remains stable throughout their shelf-life is the most important
279 factor. Hence, the influence of temperature and storage time on the emulsion stability
280 was investigated. The mean droplet size distribution of MS and WPI mixed emulsifier
281 (i.e. 0.5:0.5, 0.5:1, 1:0.5, 1:1, 1:0 and 0:1) are illustrated in Fig. 1. All the emulsions
282 exhibited monomodal and uniform droplet size distribution. The mean droplet size of
283 emulsions stored at different temperature (4 ± 0.1 °C and 28 ± 1 °C) is shown in the Table
284 3 and Fig. 2A (i and ii). The emulsions prepared with different concentration of MS and
285 WPI i.e. 0.5:1, 1:0.5, 1:1, and 0:1 showed smaller size (0.10, 0.11, 0.10 and 0.10 μm)
286 than those prepared with 0.5:0.5 and 1:0 (0.13 and 0.13 μm) at initial day. On the other
287 hand, span value of 0.5:0.5, 1:0.5 and 1:0 emulsions depicted lower values (2.71, 2.76
288 and 2.47, respectively) as compared to 0.5:1, 1:1, and 0:1 (3.02, 2.98 and 2.88)
289 emulsions (Table 3). This lower span value leads to much narrower droplet size
290 distributions respectively.

291 During 5 days of storage, the emulsions kept at 4 ± 0.1 °C and 28 ± 1 °C did not
292 show any change in their mean droplet size (Fig. 2A). However, a significant ($p<0.05$)
293 increase in mean droplet size d_{32} (1.12 and 0.93 μm) was observed in 0.5:0.5 and 0:1
294 emulsions stored at 28 ± 1 °C from the 10th day onwards (Fig. 2A, ii). The mean droplet
295 size of 0.5:0.5 emulsion increased with increase in storage temperature and this may
296 influence oil droplet flocculation and coalescence. On the contrary, there was no

297 significant ($p < 0.05$) increase in mean droplet size observed for all the emulsions stored
298 at 4 ± 0.1 °C till 15 days. Similar trend of stability was observed in the DHA algae oil
299 emulsion when stored at lower temperature than ambient condition (Karthik &
300 Anandharamakrishnan, 2016b). Also, it was reported that emulsion stability is more
301 related to the type and concentration of emulsifiers. Thus, the obtained result suggested
302 that emulsion stored at low temperature and addition of more starch emulsifier to the
303 emulsion formulation had higher storage stability. Moreover, 0.5:1, 1:0.5, 1:1 and 1:0 of
304 emulsifier stabilized emulsion droplets covered the oil droplets considerably and these
305 emulsion systems can provide better stability in the different environment conditions.

306

307 3.2. Effect of storage temperature on droplet charge

308 Droplet charges of emulsions are shown in Table 3 and Fig. 2B (i and ii). In this
309 study, zeta potential values of all the emulsions were found to be of high negative
310 charge in the range of -41 to -46 mV. The strong negative charge on all the emulsions
311 can mainly be attributed to the presence of modified starch and whey protein molecules
312 at around the oil droplet surfaces. The different magnitude of charges on emulsions is
313 due to the existence of negative charge group in protein molecules. In this study, the
314 zeta-potential value of all the emulsions stored at refrigeration condition showed slight
315 reduction of their negative charge. Moreover, at 15th day of storage all the emulsions
316 found to be not much difference and stability was maintained during the studies. On the
317 other hand, the emulsions stored at 28 ± 1 °C were resulted extreme decrease of zeta
318 potential. Initially, 0.5:0.5, 0.5:1, 1:1 and 0:1 emulsion had showed higher zeta potential
319 value of -42.8 , -45.66 , -41.46 and -41.2 mV; however, at 15th day it was found -20.03 ,

320 -18.7, -18.86 and -28 mV respectively. On contrast, 1:0.5 and 1:0 emulsions exhibited
321 -30.75 and -37.10 mV which confirms the high stability during storage at 28 ± 1 °C (Fig.
322 2C, ii). The instability of emulsion systems at 28 ± 1 °C may be due to the more
323 concentration of WPI in the emulsion formulation and it did not provide enough stability
324 once it's exposing for longer storage period. When emulsion is exposed to the different
325 environmental condition, the functional properties of emulsifiers may change
326 significantly; further this may not cover interface of oil droplets efficiently (Karthik &
327 Anandharamakrishnan, 2016a). Stachurski & Michalek, (1996) indicated that increase in
328 surface charge can significantly improve emulsion stability. This is due to the surface
329 charges that can produce repulsive forces between oil droplets against flocculation and
330 coalescence (Liu, Sun, Li, Liu, & Xu, 2006). Therefore, this present study suggested
331 that emulsion produced by 1:0.5 and 1:0 emulsifier systems showed higher physical
332 stability in terms of storage conditions (4, and 28 °C).

333

334 3.3. Effect of storage temperature on creaming

335 Creaming of emulsion is formed due to the gravitational separation. The
336 creaming stability of emulsions is shown in Fig. 2C (i and ii). Creaming was not
337 observed for the emulsion stored until 3 days kept at 4 ± 0.1 °C and 28 ± 1 °C. Further, the
338 emulsion stored at refrigeration condition exhibited very thin layer formation of creaming
339 and there was no difference observed within the emulsion systems (2C, i). On the other
340 hand, 0.5:0.5 emulsion stored at 28 ± 1 °C showed more increase of creaming index (%).
341 Whereas, 0.5:1, 1:0.5, 1:1, 1:0 and 0:1 emulsions showed very little creaming and
342 maintained throughout the storage (Fig. 2C, ii). The instability of 0.5:0.5 emulsion is

343 because of the MS and WPI mixed monolayer may not covered the oil droplets properly
344 and this may influenced to rupture the interfacial layer when stored at 28 ± 1 °C. In
345 addition, the lower concentration of mixed monolayer may also be the reason for the
346 formation of emulsion instability. Moreover, droplet size is also one of the important
347 aspects for maintaining the stability of emulsions against creaming (Desrumaux &
348 Marcand, 2002). According to Stokes' law, the emulsions creaming rate (terminal
349 velocity) is directly proportional to the square of diameter of the oil droplets (Joshi et al.
350 2012). Furthermore, the obtained result had more correlation with the inferences
351 derived from mean droplet size (Fig. 2A). Besides, the primary instability of oil in water
352 emulsion system is creaming, which impacts the macroscopic phase separation into two
353 separate observable regions of cream and serum (Dickinson, 2003). In this study, there
354 was no indication of phase separation and sedimentation in the emulsions stored at
355 both the temperature conditions throughout the storage.

356

357 3.4. Rheological characteristics

358 Stability of emulsion and rheological characteristics are more subjected to the
359 interactions between oil droplets and the interfacial layer of oil/water in the emulsion
360 system (Dickinson, 1999). The rheological characteristics of emulsions are shown in
361 Table 3 and Fig. S1. All the formulated emulsions exhibited almost similar rheological
362 behavior during increase in the shear rate (s^{-1}). The presence of a linear relationship
363 between shear stress and shear rate in all the emulsified system shows a Newtonian
364 flow behavior. However, the emulsion prepared with 1:0.5 emulsion exhibited more
365 viscous than the other emulsions. Similarly, 1:0.5 emulsion found to be of higher

366 viscosity (2.19 mPa.s), whereas other emulsions showed comparatively less viscosity
367 such as 0.5:0.5 (1.83 mPa.s), 0.5:1 (1.55 mPa.s), 1:1 (1.62 mPa.s), 1:0 (1.66 mPa.s)
368 and 0:1 (1.22 mPa.s) (Table 3). The increase in emulsion viscosity may be due to the
369 increase in concentration of modified starch in the emulsifier formulation. Contrarily, the
370 emulsion viscosity reduces when increasing the concentration of WPI. The emulsion
371 rheological behavior was affected by changing the concentration of MS and WPI
372 emulsifiers in the emulsion system. Thus, the higher concentration of MS emulsifier in
373 the mixed monolayer can yield viscous and stable emulsions. Also, it provides for a
374 longer shelf-life against flocculation, creaming and coalescence due to their rheological
375 behavior and this was confirmed by storage stability studies (Fig. 2A, B and C).

376

377 3.5. Oral stability of flavoured emulsions during in-vitro studies

378

379 3.5.1. Structural characteristics and droplet size distribution

380 The structural characteristics and mean droplet size (d_{32}) of mixed emulsifiers
381 stabilized emulsions treated with artificial saliva during in-vitro oral processing are
382 shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 5a. Initially, all the emulsions droplets were observed spherical
383 in shape with no flocculation and coalescence. However, the morphology of 1:0.5 and
384 1:0 emulsions were changed subsequently once artificial saliva mixed with emulsions.
385 Thus, the emulsion prepared with only MS (1:0) was illustrated flocculation and
386 coalescence at 10s; later structural deformation (300s) was observed and this process
387 continued until the end of 1200s (Fig. 4a). On the other hand, 1:0.5 emulsion exhibited
388 little coalescence at 10s; further it increased gradually. At 1200s, it displayed more

389 coalescence and structural deformation (Fig. 4c). In contrast, the morphology of 0.5:0.5,
390 0.5:1, 1:1 and 0:1 stabilized emulsion was not exhibited any major changes until 1200s.

391 Likewise, the mean droplet size (d_{32}) of 0.5:0.5, 0.5:1, 1:1 and 0:1 mixed
392 monolayer emulsions did not show any changes and it continued throughout the in-vitro
393 oral processing (1200s) (Fig. 3a). However, the 1:0 emulsion exhibits drastic changes of
394 its mean droplet size (d_{32}) at beginning stage onwards. Also, the mean droplet size (d_{32})
395 yielded in $0.526 \pm 0.08 \mu\text{m}$ within 10s; further the emulsion size increased extensively
396 during the process ($1.465 \pm 0.07 \mu\text{m}$). Whereas, 1:0.5 emulsion mean droplet size (d_{32})
397 was started fairly from $0.162 \pm 0.002 \mu\text{m}$ at 10s and it steadily increased throughout the
398 oral process. Further, mean droplet size of 1:0.5 emulsion showed 4 fold increases
399 when compare to 0.5:0.5 emulsion at end of the in-vitro process. This result was well
400 correlated with structural changes of all the emulsions analyzed during in-vitro oral
401 processing (Fig. 3). From this study, it is postulated that substantial change in size and
402 morphology of 1:0 emulsion suggested quick release of flavour molecules during oral
403 processing. Henceforth, enhanced and controlled orange oil flavour release can be
404 achieved through 1:0.5 emulsion due to the gradual change in size and morphology.
405 Therefore, this obtained mixed monolayer emulsifier concept can be used for
406 manipulating oral behavior of flavoured food emulsion.

407

408 3.5.2. Zeta-potential

409 The zeta-potential data of the artificial saliva mixed with emulsions are shown in
410 Fig. 5c. The reason behind measurement of zeta-potential in the emulsion treated with
411 saliva is to know about the information in alteration of interfacial electrical properties

412 during oral processing. Once treated with artificial saliva, all the emulsions zeta-
413 potential value was sharply reduced from a higher negative to a lower value. The
414 decrease in zeta-potential value was changed based on the mixed monolayer
415 concentration. In this study, 1:0 emulsion showed extreme decrease in zeta-potential
416 within 10s (-6.44 ± 0.37 mV) and it continued till 1200s (-6.29 ± 0.22 mV). Conversely,
417 other emulsions also exhibited reduction in negative charge; however they resulted
418 slightly higher zeta-potential as compared to 1:0 emulsion. This decrease in negative
419 charge may be due to electrostatic screening by mineral ions present in the artificial
420 saliva (Israelachvili, 2011), or it may have been due to interactions of the mucin
421 molecules (Zhang et al. 2015), or enzymatic hydrolysis of starch emulsifier by α -
422 amylase with the oil droplet surfaces.

423

424 3.5.3. Flow behavior

425 All the emulsions were showed Newtonian flow behavior in the absence of saliva
426 (as explained earlier). In case of emulsions mixed with artificial saliva, 1:0 emulsions
427 exhibited shear thinning behavior (Fig. S2). In contrast, 1:0.5 emulsion did not show
428 prominent flow difference and this may be due to very slow digestion behaviour of this
429 mixed emulsifier system. The 1:0 emulsion revealed higher apparent viscosity at initial
430 shear rate; later on it decreased with increase in shear rate during oral process. The
431 reason for the increase in viscosity at low shear-rates is due to the presence of
432 emulsion droplet aggregates that resides more volume than the non-aggregated oil
433 droplets. Further, while increasing the shear-rates this aggregate leads to break up into
434 smaller ones, which yield decrease in effective droplet volume and therefore emulsion

435 viscosity (Barnes & Walters, 1989). In addition, α -amylase hydrolyzed the MS emulsifier
436 very quickly and it influenced the aggregation in the emulsion system. This can be seen
437 by the flow behavior of 1:0 emulsion. In this study, very little flow difference was
438 observed for 0.5:0.5; however it was not found much difference when compare to
439 0.5:0.5, 0.5:1, 1:0.5, 1:1 and 0:1 emulsions.

440

441 3.5.4. Turbidity scan

442 Turbidity scanning index (TSI) and backscattering (% , BS) profile of artificial
443 saliva treated emulsions are shown in Fig. 6, 7 and S3. The destabilization mechanism
444 (i.e. flocculation, aggregation, creaming, sedimentation and phase separation) of
445 emulsion mixed with saliva during oral processing is constantly monitored with respect
446 to droplet size alteration. There was a strong increase (4.3) in TSI curve observed in 1:0
447 emulsion which confirmed more instability behavior during oral processing (6a).
448 Conversely, the 1:0.5 emulsion showed gradual increase in TSI curve that reveals the
449 slow destabilization mechanism. This may be due to the α -amylase interacting with
450 emulsions and destabilizing the modified starch and thus influencing the flocculation,
451 aggregation, creaming and releasing of oil droplets. In contrast, other emulsions like
452 0.5:0.5, 0.5:1, 1:1 and 0:1 emulsions did not show any noticeable colloidal
453 destabilization.

454 Likewise, backscattering (%) profile of 1:0.5 emulsion exhibited gradual increase
455 of instability due to the formation of slow enzymatic hydrolysis (Fig. 7a). This result is in
456 line with the expectations as the low degree of flocculation which is greatly
457 demonstrated by the emulsion and the time scale of the experiment. Whereas, 1:0

458 emulsion BS (%) profile resulted in more aggregation and creaming instability (Fig. 7b).
459 Therefore, oil droplets coalesced as it can be observed by the decrease in BS (%)
460 values, subsequently reduction in BS (%) is strongly influenced by emulsion droplet size
461 (Mengual et al. 1999). This change in oil droplet size can impact decrease in the
462 attractive forces acting among the droplets resulting in less emulsion stability. In
463 addition, this was expected because the 1:0.5 and 1:0 emulsions had change in mean
464 droplet size (d_{32}) and unstable oil droplets (Fig. 3 and Fig. 5a). In contrast, other
465 formulated emulsions did not show any differences observed from BS (%) profile during
466 the measurement (Fig. S3).

467

468 3.6. Oral stability of flavoured emulsions during in-vivo studies

469

470 3.6.1. Structural characteristics and droplet size distribution

471 The structural characteristics and mean droplet size (d_{32}) of mixed monolayer
472 emulsion during in-vivo oral processing are illustrated in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5b. In this study,
473 1:0.5 mixed monolayer emulsion showed aggregation at 3s and later formation of
474 coalescence was observed at 10s. Further, the coalescence increased slowly and it
475 became structural deformation at 60s (Fig. 4c). On the other hand, 1:0 emulsion
476 exhibited extreme change in the morphology. At this point, the emulsion droplets were
477 coalesced followed by structural deformation occurred (3s to 60s). In addition, the
478 interfacial layer rupture was clearly observed at 30s (Fig. 4e). Likewise, mean droplet
479 size (d_{32}) of 1:0.5 emulsion was changed from $0.113\pm 0.006 \mu\text{m}$ to $0.127\pm 0.004 \mu\text{m}$ (3s
480 to 60s) which resulted in the sustainable increase in emulsion mean size (Fig. 5b). In

481 comparison with 1:0.5, the 1:0 emulsion revealed extreme change in mean droplet size
482 (d_{32}) i.e. $0.843 \pm 0.52 \mu\text{m}$ to $3.694 \pm 0.78 \mu\text{m}$ (3s to 60s). In contrast, there was no change
483 in morphology and mean droplet size observed in other emulsions. Therefore, the mean
484 droplet size was highly interrelated with the morphology during the oral process (Fig. 4).
485 Overall, the obtained in-vivo oral processing results are more consistent as that
486 observed from in-vitro studies.

487

488 3.6.2. Zeta-potential

489 The zeta-potential values of all the emulsions treated with human salivary phase
490 during in-vivo oral processing are illustrated in Fig. 5d. These attained results are very
491 reliable as that experiential from the in-vitro method. In this study, zeta-potential values
492 further confirmed the gradual reduction for 1:0.5 emulsion and drastic reduction for 1:0
493 emulsion respectively. The reason behind the reduction in negative charge is
494 destabilization of emulsions due to the various salivary proteins, ions and minerals
495 present in human salivary fluid (as explained earlier). Furthermore, the 1:0.5 emulsion
496 showed slightly strong negative charge reduction i.e. -46.46 mV to -12.43 mV than the
497 result observed from in-vitro oral processing studies (Fig.5d). This may be due to the
498 change in human saliva composition as well as biophysical properties in every individual
499 subject.

500

501 4. Conclusions

502

503 The influence of different concentration of mixed monolayer (MS with WPI) on
504 emulsions stability and oral stability behaviour were investigated through in-vitro and in-
505 vivo conditions. Better stability was achieved in the emulsions stored at 4 °C in terms of
506 droplet size, charge and creaming. In contrast, 0.5:0.5 and 0:1 emulsions exhibits
507 unstable while storing at 28±1 °C. The stability of emulsions found to be more
508 dependent on storage temperature and concentration of mixed emulsifiers. In
509 comparison with all the emulsions, 1:0.5 and 1:0 emulsions morphology showed
510 flocculation, aggregation and coalescence; further structural destabilization was
511 observed during oral behavioural studies. Similarly, change in size and weak negative
512 charge was found in 1:0.5 and 1:0 emulsion. Turbidity scanning index demonstrated
513 more destabilization of emulsion for 1:0 and less for 1:0.5, respectively. Likewise,
514 backscattering (%) profile revealed more increase in creaming rate for 1:0 and gradual
515 increase for 1:0.5 with time during oral processing. Hence, the degradation of modified
516 starch by α -amylase interaction could be the most deciding factor for the oral stability of
517 mixed monolayer emulsion. Further, the obtained results were highly correlated
518 between in-vitro and in-vivo oral behavior. Moreover, the oral behaviour study
519 suggested that 1:0.5 emulsion can be used for controlled flavour release; whereas 1:0
520 emulsion can be suitable for quick flavour release. Therefore, different concentration of
521 mixed emulsifier stabilized emulsions may behave differently in oral cavity. Thus, the
522 1:0.5 emulsion system can enhance the controlled flavour release and designing of food
523 and pharmaceutical products with desirable oral experience. Further research is
524 required to design in-vitro and in-vivo experiments with aroma release measurements

525 and sensory perception, in order to understand the mixed monolayer emulsions
526 behaviour more precisely.

527

528 **Acknowledgements**

529

530 Authors wish to thank Zhejiang Gongshang University for the support and help.
531 Authors also acknowledge all the students and Postdoc Research Fellows of Zhejiang
532 Gongshang University who volunteered for the sensory studies. Author (PK) is very
533 grateful to Ms. Hu Xia for helping in sensory studies.

534

535 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

536

537 **References**

538

- 539 Anandharamakrishnan, C. 2014. Techniques for Nanoencapsulation of Food
540 Ingredients. Springer, New York.
- 541 Bardow, A., Moe, D., Nyvad, B., & Nauntofte, B. (2000). The buffer capacity and buffer
542 systems of human whole saliva measured without loss of CO₂. Archives of Oral
543 Biology, 45(1), 1-12.
- 544 Brossard, N., Cai, H., Osorio, F., Bordeu, E., & Chen, J. (2016). "Oral" tribological study
545 on the astringency sensation of red wines. Journal of Texture Studies, 47(5),
546 392-402.
- 547 Barnes, H. A., & Walters, K. (1989). An introduction into rheology. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

- 548 Cai, H., Li, Y., & Chen, J. (2017). Rheology and tribology study of the sensory
549 perception of oral care products. *Biotribology*, 10, 17-25.
- 550 Chang, Y., & McClements, D. J. (2016). Influence of emulsifier type on the in vitro
551 digestion of fish oil-in-water emulsions in the presence of an anionic marine
552 polysaccharide (fucoidan): Caseinate, whey protein, lecithin, or Tween 80. *Food*
553 *Hydrocolloids*, 61, 92-101.
- 554 Chen, E., Cao, L., McClements, D. J., Liu, S., Li, B., & Li, Y. (2018). Enhancement of
555 physicochemical properties of whey protein-stabilized nanoemulsions by
556 interfacial cross-linking using cinnamaldehyde. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 77, 976-985.
- 557 Chen, J. (2009). Food oral processing- a review. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 23, 1-25.
- 558 Chen, J. (2015). Food oral processing: Mechanisms and implications of food oral
559 destruction. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 45(2), 222-228.
- 560 Chiu, N., Tarrega, A., Parmenter, C., Hewson, L., Wolf, B., & Fisk, I. D. (2017).
561 Optimisation of octinyl succinic anhydride starch stabilised w1/o/w2 emulsions for
562 oral destabilisation of encapsulated salt and enhanced saltiness. *Food*
563 *hydrocolloids*, 69, 450-458.
- 564 Christensen, C. M. (1985). Role of saliva in human taste perception. In: Meiselman HL,
565 Rivlin RS, editors. *Clinical measurements of taste and smell*. New York7
566 MacMillan; 1985. p. 414-28.
- 567 Davis, R. E., Hartman, C. W., & Fincher, J. H. (1971). Dialysis of ephedrine and
568 pentobarbital from whole human saliva and simulated saliva. *Journal of*
569 *pharmaceutical sciences*, 60(3), 429-432.

570 de Wijk, R. A., Prinz, J. F., Engelen, L., & Weenen, H. (2004). The role of [alpha]-
571 amylase in the perception of oral texture and flavour in custards. *Physiology &*
572 *Behavior*, 83(1), 81-91.

573 Desrumaux, A., & Marcand, J. (2002). Formation of sunflower oil emulsions stabilized
574 by whey proteins with high-pressure homogenization (up to 350 MPa): effect of
575 pressure on emulsion characteristics. *International Journal of Food Science &*
576 *Technology*. 37(3), 263-269.

577 Dickinson, E. (1999). Adsorbed protein layers at fluid interfaces: interactions, structure
578 and surface rheology. *Colloids and surfaces B: Biointerfaces*, 15(2), 161-176.

579 Dickinson, E. (2010). Food emulsions and foams: stabilization by particles. *Current*
580 *Opinion in Colloid & Interface Science*, 15(1-2), 40-49.

581 Dickinson, E. (2003). Hydrocolloids at interfaces and the influence on the properties of
582 dispersed systems. *Food hydrocolloids*, 17(1), 25-39.

583 Dokic, L., Krstonosic, V., & Nikolic, I. (2012). Physicochemical characteristics and
584 stability of oil-in-water emulsions stabilized by OSA starch. *Food Hydrocolloids*,
585 29(1), 185-192.

586 Ettelaie, R., Holmes, M., Chen, J., & Farshchi, A. (2016). Steric stabilising properties of
587 hydrophobically modified starch: Amylose vs. amylopectin. *Food Hydrocolloids*,
588 58, 364-377.

589 Ezhilarasi, P. N., Karthik, P., Chhanwal, N., & Anandharamakrishnan, C. (2013).
590 Nanoencapsulation techniques for food bioactive components: a review. *Food*
591 *and Bioprocess Technology*, 6(3), 628-647.

592 Glantz, P. O. (1997). Interfacial phenomena in the oral cavity. *Colloids and Surfaces A:*
593 *Physicochemical and Engineering Aspects*, 123, 657-670.

594 Glumac, M., Qin, L., Chen, J., & Ritzoulis, C. (2018). Saliva could act as an emulsifier
595 during oral processing of oil/fat. *Journal of texture studies*.
596 <https://doi.org/10.1111/jtxs.12375>.

597 Huimin, X., Lin, L., Shilin, G., Elfalleh, W., Shenghua, H., Qinghai, S., & Ying, M. (2014).
598 Formation, stability, and properties of an algae oil emulsion for application in
599 UHT milk. *Food and Bioprocess Technology*, 7(2), 567-574.

600 Israelachvili, J. N. (2011). *Intermolecular and surface forces*. (3rd ed.). Academic press
601 (revised).

602 Joshi, M., Adhikari, B., Aldred, P., Panozzo, J. F., Kasapis, S., & Barrow, C. J. (2012).
603 Interfacial and emulsifying properties of lentil protein isolate. *Food Chemistry*,
604 134(3), 1343-1353.

605 Karthik, P., & Anandharamakrishnan, C. (2016a). Fabrication of a nutrient delivery
606 system of docosahexaenoic acid nanoemulsions via high energy techniques.
607 *RSC Advances*, 6(5), 3501-3513.

608 Karthik, P., & Anandharamakrishnan, C. (2016b). Enhancing omega-3 fatty acids
609 nanoemulsion stability and in-vitro digestibility through emulsifiers. *Journal of*
610 *Food Engineering*, 187, 92-105.

611 Karthik, P., Ezhilarasi, P. N., & Anandharamakrishnan, C. (2017). Challenges
612 associated in stability of food grade nanoemulsions. *Critical reviews in food*
613 *science and nutrition*, 57(7), 1435-1450.

614 Lam, R. S., & Nickerson, M. T. (2013). Food proteins: a review on their emulsifying
615 properties using a structure–function approach. *Food chemistry*, 141(2), 975-984.

616 Lin, Q., Liang, R., Zhong, F., Ye, A., & Singh, H. (2018). Effect of degree of octenyl
617 succinic anhydride (OSA) substitution on the digestion of emulsions and the
618 bioaccessibility of β -carotene in OSA-modified-starch-stabilized-emulsions. *Food*
619 *hydrocolloids*, 84, 303-312.

620 Liu, W., Sun, D., Li, C., Liu, Q., & Xu, J. (2006). Formation and stability of paraffin oil-in-
621 water nano-emulsions prepared by the emulsion inversion point method. *Journal*
622 *of colloid and interface science*, 303(2), 557-563.

623 Mao, L., Roos, Y. H., Biliaderis, C. G., & Miao, S. (2017). Food emulsions as delivery
624 systems for flavor compounds: A review. *Critical reviews in food science and*
625 *nutrition*, 57(15), 3173-3187.

626 Mao, L., & Miao, S. (2015). Structuring food emulsions to improve nutrient delivery
627 during digestion. *Food Engineering Reviews*, 7(4), 439-451.

628 Mao, L., Roos, Y. H., O’Callaghan, D. J., & Miao, S. (2013). Volatile release from whey
629 protein isolate–pectin multilayer stabilized emulsions: effect of pH, salt, and
630 artificial salivas. *Journal of agricultural and food chemistry*, 61(26), 6231-6239.

631 McClements, D. J. (2015). *Food emulsions: Principles, practices, and techniques*, CRC
632 Press. Boca Raton, Florida.

633 Mengual, O., Meunier, G., Cayre, I., Puech, K., & Snabre, P. (1999). Characterisation of
634 instability of concentrated dispersions by a new optical analyser: the
635 TURBISCAN MA 1000. *Colloids and Surfaces A: Physicochemical and*
636 *Engineering Aspects*, 152(1-2), 111-123.

637 Prinz, J. F., & Lucas, P. W. (1997). An optimization model for mastication and
638 swallowing in mammals. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B:
639 Biological Sciences*, 264(1389), 1715-1721.

640 Qian, C., Decker, E. A., Xiao, H., & McClements, D. J. (2012). Physical and chemical
641 stability of β -carotene-enriched nanoemulsions: Influence of pH, ionic strength,
642 temperature, and emulsifier type. *Food Chemistry*, 132(3), 1221-1229.

643 Roohinejad, S., Greiner, R., Oey, I., & Wen, J. (Eds.). (2018). *Emulsion-based Systems
644 for Delivery of Food Active Compounds: Formation, Application, Health and
645 Safety*. John Wiley & Sons.

646 van Ruth, S. M., & Roozen, J. P. (2000). Influence of mastication and saliva on aroma
647 release in a model mouth system. *Food Chemistry*, 71(3), 339-345.

648 van Ruth, S. M., Roozen, J. P., Nahon, D. F., Cozijnsen, J. L., & Posthumus, M. A.
649 (1996). Flavour release from rehydrated french beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*)
650 influenced by composition and volume of artificial saliva. *Zeitschrift fuer
651 Lebensmittel-Untersuchung und Forschung*, 203(1), 1-6.

652 Sarkar, A., Goh, K. K., & Singh, H. (2009). Colloidal stability and interactions of milk-
653 protein-stabilized emulsions in an artificial saliva. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 23(5),
654 1270-1278.

655 Stachurski, J., & Michałek, M. (1996). The effect of the ζ potential on the stability of a
656 non-polar oil-in-water emulsion. *Journal of colloid and interface science*, 184(2),
657 433-436.

658 Sweedman, M. C., Tizzotti, M. J., Schafer, C., & Gilbert, R. G. (2013). Structure and
659 physicochemical properties of octenyl succinic anhydride modified starches: A
660 review. *Carbohydrate polymers*, 92(1), 905-920.

661 Torres, O., Tena, N. M., Murray, B., & Sarkar, A. (2017). Novel starch based emulsion
662 gels and emulsion microgel particles: Design, structure and rheology.
663 *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 178, 86-94.

664 Upadhyay, R., & Chen, J. (2019). Smoothness as a tactile percept: Correlating
665 'oral' tribology with sensory measurements. *Food hydrocolloids*, 87, 38-47.

666 Vingerhoeds, M. H., Blijdenstein, T. B., Zoet, F. D., & van Aken, G. A. (2005). Emulsion
667 flocculation induced by saliva and mucin. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 19(5), 915-922.

668 Yusoff, A., & Murray, B. S. (2011). Modified starch granules as particle-stabilizers of oil-
669 in-water emulsions. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 25(1), 42-55.

670 Zhang, R., Zhang, Z., Zhang, H., Decker, E. A., & McClements, D. J. (2015). Influence
671 of lipid type on gastrointestinal fate of oil-in-water emulsions: In vitro digestion
672 study. *Food research international*, 75, 71-78.

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681 **Table 1** Composition of emulsion formulations.

682

Emulsion Formulation (MS:WPI)	Composition (% w/w)			
	Sunflower oil + Orange oil	MS	WPI	Aqueous phase
0.5:0.5	10+0.1	0.5	0.5	88.9
0.5:1	10+0.1	0.5	1	88.4
1:0.5	10+0.1	1	0.5	88.4
1:1	10+0.1	1	1	87.9
1:0	10+0.1	1	0	88.9
0:1	10+0.1	0	1	88.9

683

684

685

686

687

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695 **Table 2** Compositions of artificial saliva.

696

Chemicals	Content (g/L)	Grade	Manufacturers
Sodium Chloride	0.111	AR	Qiangshun Chemical, China.
Potassium Chloride	1.492	AR	KeLong Chemical, China.
Sodium Bicarbonate	3.948	AR	KeLong Chemical, China.
Calcium Chloride	0.278	AR	Merck, China.
Magnesium Chloride Hexahydrate	0.096	AR	KeLong Chemical, China
Mucin from porcine stomach type II	1.5	AR	Sigma-Aldrich, U.S.A.
α -amylase (4000 U/g 1G)	2	AR	MAYA Reagent, China.

697

698

699

700

701

702

703

704

705

706

707 **Table 3** Measurement of mean droplet size, span value and zeta-potential of emulsions.

708

Emulsion Formulation (MS:WPI)	Mean droplet size d_{32} (μm)	Span value	Zeta-potential (mV)	Viscosity (mPa.s)
0.5:0.5	0.13 \pm 0.007	2.71 \pm 0.03	-42.7 \pm 0.43	1.83 \pm 0.015
0.5:1	0.10 \pm 0.001	3.02 \pm 0.21	-41.76 \pm 0.20	1.55 \pm 0.005
1:0.5	0.11 \pm 0.001	2.76 \pm 0.08	-40.66 \pm 0.25	2.19 \pm 0.030
1:1	0.10 \pm 0.001	2.98 \pm 0.04	-42.56 \pm 0.11	1.62 \pm 0.030
1:0	0.13 \pm 0.001	2.47 \pm 0.02	-39.13 \pm 1.11	1.66 \pm 0.056
0:1	0.10 \pm 0.001	2.88 \pm 0.04	-40.56 \pm 0.92	1.22 \pm 0.041

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721 **Figure captions**

722 **Fig. 1.** Droplet size distribution of different concentration of MS and WPI stabilized
723 emulsions on the day of preparation.

724 **Fig. 2.** (A) Mean droplet size, (B) Zeta-potential measurement and (C) Creaming
725 storage stability studies of emulsions: i) stored at refrigeration (4 ± 0.1 °C); ii) stored at
726 room (28 ± 1 °C): Error bar represents standard deviation of the measurements (n=3).
727 Different alphabets letters are significantly different from control ($P < 0.05$) according to
728 Tukey's multiple comparisons test. The lowest value in the same line indicated with a,
729 and the increase in value was indicated with b and c.

730 **Fig. 3.** Morphology of different concentration of MS and WPI emulsions during in-vitro
731 oral processing: (a) 0.5:0.5, (b) 0.5:1, (c) 1:0.5, (d) 1:1, (e) 1:0 and (f) 0:1. Structural
732 changes are mentioned in the micrograph.

733 **Fig. 4.** Morphology of different concentration of MS and WPI emulsions during in-vivo
734 oral processing: (a) 0.5:0.5, (b) 0.5:1, (c) 1:0.5, (d) 1:1, (e) 1:0 and (f) 0:1. Structural
735 changes are mentioned in the micrograph.

736 **Fig. 5.** Different concentration of MS and WPI stabilized emulsions during oral
737 processing: (a) Mean droplet size by in-vitro (n=10), (b) Mean droplet size by in-vivo
738 (n=10), (c) Zeta-potential by in-vitro (n=9) and (d) Zeta-potential by in-vivo (n=9). Error
739 bar represents standard deviation of the measurements.

740 **Fig. 6.** Turbidity scanning index (TSI) of the destabilization of emulsions reacted with
741 artificial saliva.

742 **Fig. 7.** Turbiscan backscattering (BS) profile of artificial saliva treated with emulsions:
743 (a) 1:0.5 (MS:WPI) stabilized emulsion and (b) 1:0 (MS:WPI) stabilized emulsion.