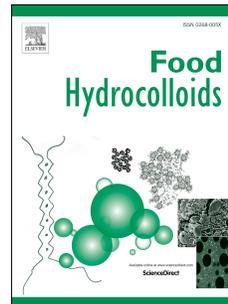


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Interactions between lecithin and yolk granule and their influence on the emulsifying properties

Yimei Shen, Cuihua Chang, Mingcheng Shi, Yujie Su, Luping Gu, Junhua Li, Yanjun Yang



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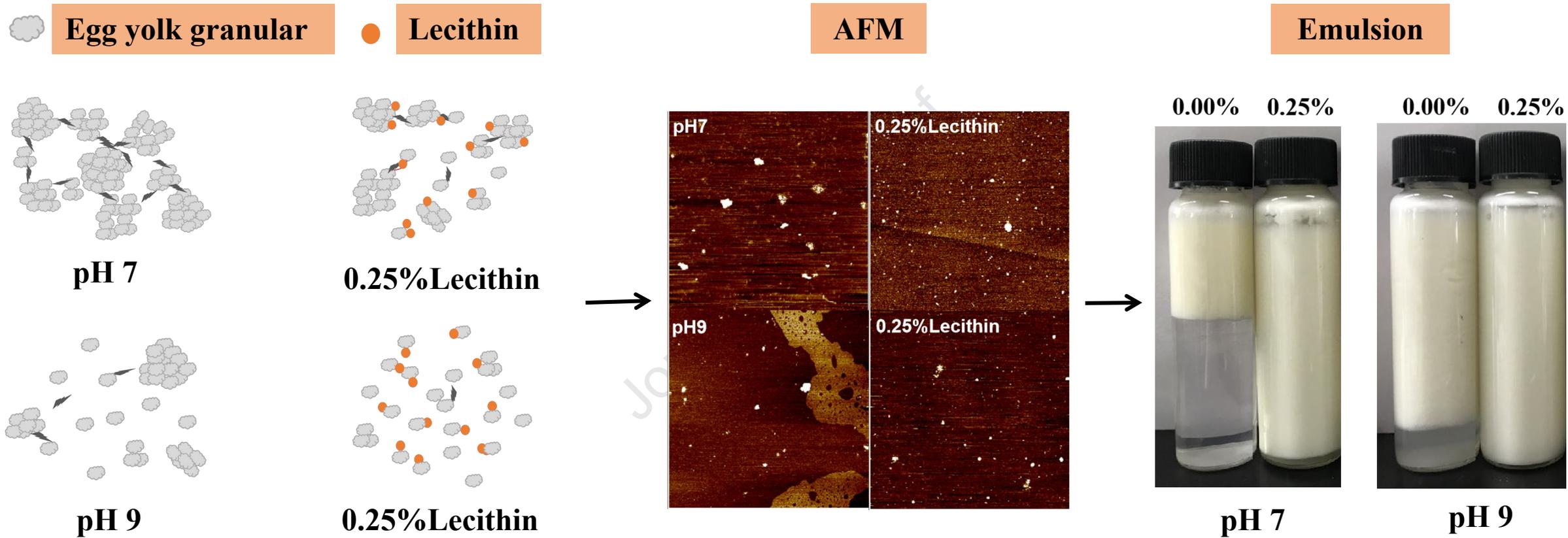
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1 **Interactions between lecithin and yolk granule and**

2 **their influence on the emulsifying properties**

3 Yimei Shen^{a, b}; Cuihua Chang^{a, b}; Mingcheng Shi^c; Yujie Su^{a, b}; Luping Gu^{a, b};

4 Junhua Li^{a, b, *}; Yanjun Yang^{a, b, *}

5 ^a *State Key Laboratory of Food Science and Technology, Jiangnan University, Wuxi,*

6 *Jiangsu, 214122, PR China*

7 ^b *School of Food Science and Technology, Jiangnan University, Wuxi, Jiangsu,*

8 *214122, PR China*

9 ^c *Reading Academy, NUIST-UoR International Research Institute, Nanjing, 210044,*

10 *PR China*

11 **Corresponding author: 812024915@qq.com (Junhua Li);*

12 *yangyj@jiangnan.edu.cn (Yanjun Yang)*

13 *Tel.: +86 0510 85329080; Fax: +86 0510 85329080*

14 **Abstract**

15 In this study, the interactions between egg yolk granule and soybean lecithin and
16 their emulsion properties were investigated. For egg yolk granule, the increase of
17 solubility and negative zeta-potential and decrease of hydrophobicity could be
18 observed with the increase of lecithin concentrations, indicating the interactions
19 between granule protein and lecithin. Results from the z-average particle size and the
20 AFM image showed that the increase of solution pH and addition of lecithin could

21 destroy the aggregated structure of the egg yolk granule. The disrupted granule
22 exhibited better emulsion stability than that of native granule due to the higher surface
23 charge and lower particle size. Notably, appropriate addition of lecithin (less than
24 0.25%) would be conducive to the formation of high stable emulsions by modestly
25 reducing the contact angle, while extra lecithin (more than 0.50%) would induce
26 excessive substitution of granule protein by competitive adsorption, leading to
27 destabilization of the O/W emulsions via surfactant-induced depletion flocculation.

28 Keywords: egg yolk granule; soybean lecithin; aggregated state; competitive
29 adsorption; emulsion stability

30 **1. Introduction**

31 Emulsion system has received much attention in recent years as an important
32 vehicle for delivering bioactive substances. It is a dispersion system formed by
33 stabilizing two incompatible solutions with emulsifiers or particles, which can
34 improve the stability and bioavailability of fat-soluble nutrients, and has a good
35 application prospect in the health food industry (McClements, et al., 2016). Emulsion,
36 a thermodynamic unstable system, will undergo stratification, flocculation,
37 aggregation and Oswald maturation over time (Saber, et al., 2014). The practical
38 application of a single macromolecule or small molecule emulsifier is not ideal.
39 Interfacial film formed by the small molecule emulsifier is weak and the process is
40 reversible, and the spatial repulsion effect is weak, so that the interface film cannot
41 effectively resist the coalescence between the emulsion droplets. Moreover,

42 adsorption of macromolecular emulsifier does not completely inhibit the Ostwald
43 ripening process (Tcholakova, et al., 2008). How to prepare a highly stable emulsion
44 embedding system is a challenging technical problem.

45 Hen's egg yolk is known as excellent food-derived emulsifier and plays an
46 important role in many food products such as mayonnaise, salad dressings, baked
47 food and ice cream (R. E. Aluko & Mine, 1997). In natural state, egg yolk is a
48 supramolecular assembly composed of the basic units of yolk spheres and the vitelline
49 membrane with multiple emulsifier complex characteristics, providing high stability
50 for nutrient inside (Hsu, et al., 2009). The yolk sphere is an oil storage organelle in the
51 egg yolk, and the vitelline membrane is a composite interface composed of lecithin
52 (small molecule emulsifier), low density lipoprotein (biopolymer emulsifier) and egg
53 yolk granules (interface adsorbing protein particles), which can effectively inhibit
54 lipid oxidation. However, the process of processing and shearing will cause the
55 natural yolk spheres to disintegrate into three phases, including yolk granule phase,
56 plasma phase and gas-water interface adsorption layer, resulting in oxidative
57 degradation of some fat-soluble nutrients (Marc Anton, 2013).

58 Hen egg yolk can be easily fractionated by simple dilution and centrifugation
59 into two major parts, the supernatant and the granule, without any denaturation of the
60 protein (Laca, et al., 2010). The supernatants account for about 93% of yolk lipids and
61 50% of yolk proteins, while the granules account for 7% of the remaining yolk lipids
62 and 50% of yolk proteins of the remaining egg yolk (Marc Anton, 2013). Granules
63 contain less lipids and cholesterol and more proteins than yolk and plasma. Granules

64 are consisted of circular complexes with diameter ranging from 0.3 to 2 μm . At low
65 ionic strength (0.17 M NaCl), native granules take the form of non-soluble
66 HDL-phosvitin aggregates through phosphocalcic bridges between seryl residues of
67 HDL and phosvitin (Naderi, et al., 2017). It has been reported that HDL has good
68 emulsifying property, and can be effectively used for constructing the delivery carrier
69 of nutrients (Zhou, et al., 2018). Furthermore, phosvitin has a strong capacity of iron
70 chelation that could be used for antioxidant purposes. At about 80% solubility, yolk,
71 granules and plasma have similar emulsifying activities and granules have the best
72 emulsion stabilization (M Anton & Gandemer, 1997). Egg yolk granules are also
73 considered for the so-called 'Pickering' stabilization effect of emulsion droplets,
74 because of their particle-like structure (Rayner, et al., 2014). It is known that particles
75 at interfaces stabilize emulsions better than small molecules due to the high
76 desorption energy upon adhesion to oil-water-interfaces. So it is meaningful for food
77 industry to use egg yolk granules as a replacer of whole egg yolk due to its multiple
78 positive features including low cholesterol, emulsifying ability and oxidation
79 resistance. However, their emulsifying ability cannot be fully exerted in nature state
80 due to its poor emulsion stability caused by large particles and poor solubility, which
81 greatly limits the application of the egg yolk granules as emulsifier.

82 Lecithin is an important nutrient surfactant with excellent hypolipidemic effect
83 (Christopher, 2015) and emulsifying, diffusing and infiltrating properties (Asomaning
84 & Curtis, 2017). A phospholipid-protein binary complex (formed by hydrophobic
85 interaction between a phosphatidylcholine molecule and a hydrophobic region of

86 protein) displayed excellent dispersing and emulsifying properties (Gao, et al., 2017).
87 Previous study also found that the interaction between protein and lecithin affected
88 the structure and interfacial adsorption properties of the protein, thereby enhancing its
89 emulsifying ability and affecting the microencapsulation properties of the proteins (S.
90 Wang, et al., 2017). Likewise, lecithin in the vitelline membrane also plays an
91 important role in the emulsification performance of egg yolk. In the process of
92 formulating the composite interface, lecithin can effectively reduce the oil-water
93 interfacial tension and promote the formation of emulsion. However, the interaction
94 mechanism between lecithin and egg yolk granules and the effects on the properties of
95 the emulsion are still unclear.

96 The aim of this study was to investigate the interactions between egg yolk
97 granule proteins of different aggregation states and lecithin. Also, the competitive
98 adsorption and synergistic stabilization effects of granule proteins and lecithin on
99 oil/water interface were studied. In addition, the relationship between physiochemical
100 properties of protein-lecithin complex and the stability of emulsions were discussed.
101 Microstructure, surface tension and interface adsorption properties of granule-lecithin
102 complex as well as the emulsion stability index are the main parameters that were
103 investigated.

104 **2. Materials and methods**

105 *2.1. Materials*

106 Fresh hen eggs were provided by the Kangde Biological Products Co., Ltd.

107 (Nantong, Jiangsu, China). Soy lecithin was purchased from flyed biotech Co., Ltd.
108 (Suzhou, Jiangsu, China). For the preparation of the emulsion, Arowana sunflower oil
109 was bought from a local supermarket and used without further purification. The
110 sodium 8-anilino- 1-naphthalenesulfonate (ANS) and bovine serum albumin (BSA)
111 were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). All other chemicals used
112 were of analytical grade (Sinopharm Chemical Reagents Co., Shanghai, China).

113 *2.2. Preparation of egg yolk granules*

114 Egg yolk granules were prepared according to the previous method (Laca, et al.,
115 2010) with slight modification. Egg shell was broken manually and egg yolk was
116 separated from the albumin by carefully rolling on filter paper to ensure that no egg
117 white proteins were mixed up. The egg yolk content was collected in a beaker after
118 vitelline membrane was ruptured with a tweezer. Thereafter, the egg yolk material was
119 mixed with deionized water (1:1.5 v/v). Then the pH of the diluted egg yolk was
120 adjusted to 7.0 with NaOH (1 M) and it was kept overnight at 4 °C, followed by
121 centrifuging for 45 min at 4 °C and 8,000 g to separate into plasma (supernatant) and
122 granule (precipitate).

123 *2.3. Preparation of egg yolk granules emulsions*

124 Egg yolk granules were diluted to protein concentration of 1% (w/v) with
125 distilled water and soy lecithin was added into the granules dispersion to final
126 concentration of 0.00%, 0.10%, 0.25%, 0.50% and 1.00%, followed by stirring at
127 ambient temperature for 2 h using magnetic stirring. Then the pH of the aqueous

128 mixtures was adjusted to 7.0 and 9.0. The aqueous dispersions were prepared via two
129 homogenization steps by pre-homogenizing firstly for 2 min at 11,000 rpm using an
130 Ultra-Turrax blender (IKA T25 Basic, Staufen, Germany) equipped with a 12 mm
131 diameter head and then homogenizing at 50 bar for 3 times using APV1000
132 homogenizer (APV Co., Crawley, U.K.). Consistent with the preparation of aqueous
133 dispersions, the oil/water emulsions with 10% of Arowana sunflower oil and 90% (wt.)
134 of aqueous dispersions were prepared by the same homogenization process.
135 Furthermore, 0.02% (w/v) of sodium azide as an antimicrobial agent was added to the
136 resulting emulsions and stored at 4 °C until analysis.

137 *2.4. Protein solubility*

138 Protein solubility was measured by the method previously described with a slight
139 modification (Abugoch, et al., 2008). Each protein sample was diluted and then
140 centrifuged at 10,000 g for 20 min at 4 °C. The supernatants were collected and the
141 protein content was assayed by the biuret method. Solubility was expressed as the
142 ratio of protein content in supernatant to the total protein content in sample.

143 *2.5. Particle diameter and zeta-potential*

144 The droplet size distribution and the electrical charge (zeta-potential) of egg yolk
145 granule dispersions and emulsions were determined using a Zetasizer Nano Brook
146 Omni instrument (Beckhman Instruments, USA) at 25 °C. The dispersions and
147 emulsions were diluted with deionized water and equilibrated for 60 s before
148 measurement. Particle sizes were reported as the Z-average particle diameter

149 calculated from the particle size distribution. The Smoluchowsky mathematical model
150 was used to convert the electrophoretic mobility measurements into the zeta-potential
151 values.

152 *2.6. Atomic force microscopy (AFM)*

153 The microstructure of the egg yolk granule or granule-lecithin complex was
154 observed using an atomic force microscope (Dimension Icon model, Bruker). The
155 samples were diluted to 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ concentration of protein with deionized water and 10
156 μL of the diluted sample was immediately spread onto freshly cleaved mica sheets to
157 dry naturally. The tapping mode was chosen and at least 3 areas of each prepared
158 sample were scanned, then a representative image was selected from at least 10
159 images.

160 *2.7. Fluorescence spectra*

161 Fluorescence spectra of samples was measured according to the procedure of
162 Wang et al. with a slight modification, which used 8-anilo-1-naphthalenesulfonic
163 (ANS) as a probe to interact with hydrophobic moieties on the surface of protein to
164 give a fluorescent signal (B. Wang, et al., 1997). The sample solutions of egg yolk
165 granule with/without soy lecithin were diluted (1:400) to avoid interference of
166 turbidity to the test. 20 μL of ANS solution (8 mM) dissolved in phosphate buffer (50
167 mM, pH 7.0) was added to 4 mL of each protein dispersion. Then the mixture was
168 vortexed for 20 s and kept in the dark for 20 min. Fluorescence scan curves were
169 recorded at emissions from 400 to 600 nm excited at a wavelength of 390 nm using

170 F-7000 spectrofluorimeter (Hitachi, Japan). The emission and excitation slits were set
171 to 5 nm, and the measurements were performed at 25 °C.

172 2.8. Contact angle

173 Contact angles of samples were measured at 25 °C by a drop shape analyzer
174 (DSA25, Kruss, Germany). 5 µL of the sample was taken and dropped on a glass slide.
175 To eliminate interference, the sample was equilibrated for 5 min and then measured.
176 At least six parallel measurements were taken for each sample.

177 2.9. Creaming index

178 10 mL of each emulsion was transferred into a glass vial immediately after
179 preparation to measure the change of the creaming index of different emulsions over
180 time. The emulsion samples were tightly sealed and then stored for 7 days at room
181 temperature. Emulsions separated into a creamed layer at the top and a transparent
182 serum layer at the bottom during storage. The extent of creaming was characterized
183 by creaming index (CI, %), which was calculated by

$$184 \quad CI\% = \frac{H_s}{H_E} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

185 Where, H_E was the total height of the emulsions and H_s was the height of the
186 serum.

187 2.10. Protein adsorption fraction (AP)

188 Percentage of adsorbed proteins was determined according to the method

189 described by Chang et al. with some modifications (Chang, et al., 2016). Emulsions
190 (2mL) were centrifuged at 10,000 g for 30 min at 4 °C. After the centrifugation, three
191 phases were observed: a cream layer at the top of the tube, an aqueous phase of the
192 emulsion, and sediment at the bottom. The cream phase was moved to collect the
193 aqueous phase and sediment. The subphase was centrifuged again to remove the
194 adsorbed proteins completely. This process was repeated 3 times and the final aqueous
195 phase and sediment were collected to measure total protein content (M_f). The weight
196 of protein added into the emulsions was recorded as MI (mg). The AP% was
197 calculated as follows:

$$198 \quad AP\% = \frac{MI - M_f}{MI} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

199 2.11. Microstructure of emulsion droplet

200 The microstructure of emulsions was visualized using of an Axiolab A reflected
201 light-microscope (Zeiss, Berlin, Germany) with a 40 × objective lens. The emulsions
202 were diluted with deionized water at a ratio of 1:10 (v/v) before observation. About 10
203 μL of the diluted emulsion was loaded on the microscope slide and carefully covered
204 with a coverslip. The photomicrographs were captured after being equilibrated for 2
205 min. Representative images of microscopic imaging were chosen from at least four
206 similar images.

207 2.12. Statistical analysis

208 All the measurements were performed at least in triplicates, and the data were

209 expressed as mean \pm SD. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out using the
210 software SPSS version 17.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago). The Duncan's
211 multiple-range test was used to evaluate significance of difference ($p < 0.05$).

212 **3. Results and discussion**

213 3.1. Properties of egg yolk granule-lecithin composite dispersion

214 *3.1.1. Protein solubility, zeta-potential and particle size*

215 Protein solubility is an important functional property that affects the potential
216 application of protein in food processing. As shown in Table 1, at pH 7.0, the
217 solubility of native egg yolk granule was only 1.56%. The compact granule structure
218 of yolk granule linked by phosphocalcic bridges made it hard to be hydrated (Naderi,
219 et al., 2017). When the pH was elevated to 9.0, the solubility of granule protein
220 increased to 80.18%. The increase in the number of negative charges (COO⁻) at
221 alkaline condition could promote electrostatic repulsion and dissociation of granules
222 (Causeret, et al., 2006). Regardless of the aggregated state of granule, the solubility of
223 granule dispersion further increased as the lecithin concentration of the aqueous phase
224 increased. The solubility of the native (pH 7.0) and disrupted (pH 9.0) granule protein
225 increased to 72.53% and 97.45% respectively with increasing lecithin concentration
226 up to 1.00%.

227 The zeta-potential of the protein can reflect the surface charge of the protein. For
228 proteins existing in the form of colloidal particles in aqueous solution, the surface
229 charge played an important role in the dispersion character of these particles (Chen &

230 Soucie, 1985). Table 1 showed that the negative value of zeta-potential in protein
231 solution at pH 9.0 was significantly higher than that of pH 7.0. This phenomenon
232 could be attributed to the increase in the number of negative charges (COO⁻). Besides,
233 the incorporation of lecithin could enhance protein surface electronegativity,
234 regardless of solution pH. This result may be related to the liberation of phosvitin
235 from granules due to continual increase of solubility (Castellani, et al., 2006;
236 Damodaran & Xu, 1996).

237 Particle size is another important index of particle stability and can usually affect
238 emulsifying properties. The native granule at pH 7.0 was the largest with z-average
239 particle size of 1905.67 nm and polydispersity index of 0.47, showing that the native
240 granule possessed a wide distribution of particle size. At pH 9.0, the granule was
241 disrupted, which could be observed from the decrease of z-average particle size to
242 126.10 nm. In addition, a significant ($p < 0.05$) decline of z-average particle size was
243 found with the lecithin concentration increased from 0.00% to 1.00%. Our previous
244 study proved that the changes in the particle size of granule protein dispersion were
245 directly related with the protein aggregation state (Li, et al., 2018). It can be
246 concluded from the above results that both increase in pH and addition of lecithin
247 could effectively decrease the particle size of egg yolk granule by increasing
248 solubility and surface charge.

249 3.1.2. Atomic force microscopy

250 In order to characterize the morphology of yolk granule, the microstructure of

251 the samples was observed by atomic force microscopy. Fig. 1 showed the 2-D AFM
252 images of the granules (pH 7.0 and pH 9.0) with different concentrations of lecithin
253 (0.00%, 0.25% and 1.00%). Dramatic changes in particle morphology were observed
254 in various samples, wherein it was observed that particles at pH 7.0 without lecithin
255 presented irregular aggregated state with greater contour sizes. At pH 7.0, the addition
256 of lecithin gradually reduced the size of the particles, but large particles still existed
257 and the dispersion coefficient increased. Likewise, at pH 9.0, the particle dissociated
258 and the particle size became smaller and almost no large particle was observed. These
259 observations were roughly in line with the changes of particle diameter of egg yolk
260 granule (Table 1). Therefore, the disintegration of egg yolk granule aggregate at high
261 pH and in the presence of lecithin was intuitively confirmed by the AFM pictures.

262 3.1.3. Fluorescence spectra

263 Protein hydrophobicity depends on its exposure of hydrophobic domain, which
264 has an important influence on the emulsifying and interfacial properties of proteins.
265 Fig. 2 showed the changes in fluorescence intensity of egg yolk granule (pH 7.0 and
266 pH 9.0) at different concentrations of lecithin with the wavelength (λ). Compared with
267 disrupted granule (pH 9.0), the native granule (pH 7.0) exhibited higher fluorescence
268 intensity. Low hydrophobicity of granule protein at high pH may be ascribed to its
269 high surface charge and solubility as shown in Table 1. The increase of solution pH
270 contributed to the increase of surface charge, making the surface of the protein
271 charged and became more hydrophilic, which increased solubility and decreased
272 hydrophobicity. Our previous study has shown that salt could increase the surface

273 hydrophobicity of yolk proteins while improving solubility. This result seems to be
274 related to the charge shielding effect of salt ions (Li, et al., 2018). So the surface
275 hydrophobicity of the protein was closely related to the surface charging property of
276 the protein. The dispersion of granule showed an obvious decrease in fluorescence
277 intensity with lecithin concentration increased. The interactions between
278 phosphatidylcholine and hydrophobic region of globulin easily occurred (Ohtsuru &
279 Kito, 2014). Adding lecithin into egg yolk granular dispersion might cover and bury
280 the surface hydrophobic amino acids of granule protein, which led to the decrease of
281 fluorescence intensity. This might also be a reason for the increase of egg yolk granule
282 solubility in presence of lecithin. It has been proposed that there were relatively few
283 hydrophobic residues on the surfaces of highly soluble proteins (Venyaminov, et al.,
284 2010). The solubility of protein depended, to a large extent, on the
285 hydrophilicity/hydrophobicity balance of protein molecules, and was related to the
286 amino acids composition on the surface of protein (Bigelow, 1967).

287 *3.1.4. Contact angle*

288 Contact angle measurement is a straightforward way to evaluate the surface
289 tension of the particle that is related to the formation ability of interface membrane.
290 The lower the static contact angle is, the lower the interface tension is. As shown in
291 Fig. 3, the yolk granule in its natural state (pH 7.0) exhibited the largest contact angle
292 among samples, and granule in the disrupted state (pH 9.0) behaved lower contact
293 angle. This result could be ascribed to the rapid decrease in surface hydrophobicity
294 and increase in negative charge of granule proteins at high pH. Furthermore, the

295 increase of the lecithin concentration led to a greater reduction of the contact angle of
296 granule/lecithin dispersions. Interestingly, when the lecithin concentration increased
297 to more than 0.50%, the contact angle of dispersions at pH7.0/9.0 started to decline
298 from 29.10°/25.20° to 26.80°/23.10°. This phenomenon was similar to the results of a
299 previous study, which has reported that milk proteins preferentially adsorbed to
300 oil-water interfaces at low surfactant levels due to their much higher adsorption
301 energy per molecule, but at higher levels surfactants preferentially adsorbed because
302 they pack more efficiently than proteins (Dickinson & Tanai, 1992).

303 3.2. Properties of egg yolk granule-lecithin composite emulsions

304 3.2.1. Creaming stability

305 The creaming index and digital images of emulsions prepared by 1% of yolk
306 granule under different lecithin concentrations were shown in Fig. 4. In the absence of
307 lecithin, emulsion stabilized by native granule (pH 7.0) start creaming after 1 day of
308 storage, while emulsion prepared with the disrupted granule (pH 9.0) began to stratify
309 on the third day. This phenomenon indicated that the dissociation of yolk granules
310 caused by pH increase was beneficial to emulsifying stability. At the same lecithin
311 concentration, emulsions formulated with disrupted granules had a significantly ($P <$
312 0.05) smaller creaming index than those prepared with native granules. Whatever the
313 state of granules (native or disrupted), the emulsifying stability of egg yolk granules
314 increased first and then decreased with the increasing lecithin proportion. Emulsions
315 containing 0.25% lecithin concentration showed the best emulsifying stability.

316 Notably, no droplet-free phase (serum layer) at the bottom was observed in the
317 emulsion prepared by disrupted granules with 0.25% lecithin after 7 days of storage
318 (as shown in Fig. 4d). This can be presumed that granule dissociation caused by
319 appropriate lecithin could improve emulsifying stability but excessive incorporation
320 of lecithin would result in a decrease in emulsifying activity, which may be resulted
321 from the competitive adsorption of egg yolk granule and lecithin at interface. It could
322 be directly seen that, the emulsion prepared by 1.00% lecithin did not exhibit high
323 creaming stability as expected, indicating that sole lecithin was not enough to stable
324 oil droplets.

325 *3.2.2. Particle size and zeta-potential of fresh emulsions*

326 The particle size and charge of the emulsion are important indicators influencing
327 the stability of the emulsion. The mean particle diameter and zeta-potential of
328 emulsions prepared by egg yolk granules at pH 7.0/9.0 with various concentrations of
329 lecithin added were displayed in Fig. 5. The emulsions prepared with disrupted
330 granules (pH 9.0) had smaller average diameter and higher negative zeta-potential
331 value than those prepared with native granules (pH 7.0). Consequently, the emulsions
332 prepared by disrupted granules possessed a better emulsifying ability than native
333 granules. For both states of granules, significant ($p < 0.05$) decline of the mean
334 particle diameter and increase of negative zeta-potential value were found as the
335 lecithin concentration was raised from 0.00% to 0.25%. This might be due to the
336 further dissociation of egg yolk granule aggregation state caused by addition of
337 lecithin. The results indicated the coadsorption of yolk granule protein and lecithin on

338 the interface. Generally, high amount of surfactants were needed to form small
339 droplets due to its large specific surface area (Xue & Zhong, 2014). Previous studies
340 have reported that the interactions between protein and lecithin might lead to the
341 reduction of interfacial free energy as a result of the protein-lecithin complex formed
342 at interfacial films, facilitating the decrease of fat droplet size (Patino, et al., 2001).
343 However, the mean diameter showed no significant changes when the lecithin
344 concentration was further increased from 0.50% to 1.00%. Meanwhile the negative
345 zeta-potential value started to decline. The decreased negative zeta-potential value
346 could be assumed that yolk granule protein was gradually displaced by lecithin
347 because of competitive adsorption in the oil/water interfacial layer and more lecithin
348 were aggregated at the interface, leading to the shielding of some negative charged
349 groups of granule proteins (Matsumiya, et al., 2014).

350 *3.2.3. Protein adsorption fraction of fresh emulsions*

351 The protein adsorption fraction of emulsions prepared by egg yolk granules at
352 pH 7.0/9.0 with various concentrations of lecithin added was displayed on Fig. 6. The
353 results showed that, at pH 7.0, the adsorbed protein content was 75.58%, possessing
354 larger adsorption amount than that at pH 9.0 (26.74%). It indicated that granule
355 protein was more favorable for interface adsorption when negative zeta-potential
356 value was low, while the high electrostatic repulsion of protein molecules at higher
357 pH was not conducive to stable adsorption of granule proteins on the interface film
358 (Rotimi E. Aluko & Mine, 1998). For native granule, the protein adsorption fraction
359 decreased from 75.58% to 16.27% as the lecithin concentration increased from 0.00%

360 to 0.50%, implying the occurrence of competitive displacement at oil-water interface.

361 When the lecithin concentration was higher than 0.50%, the interfacial adsorption

362 protein concentration no longer decreased, indicating that the adsorption of lecithin at

363 the interface was saturated in the form of incomplete displacement (Yi, et al., 2019).

364 At relatively low surfactant concentrations, surfactant molecules adsorbed to the

365 interface and formed small islands of surfactant located within the protein network.

366 As the surfactant concentration increased, the size of the surfactant-rich regions

367 expanded, restricting the protein network to a smaller surface area. At relatively high

368 surfactant concentrations, the protein region increased appreciably in thickness and

369 eventually the protein molecules were completely displaced from the interface

370 (McClements, 2004). Therefore, granules organized as individual aggregate separated

371 by lecithin and these granules spread at the interface leading to the formation of a

372 continuous protein-lecithin membrane (Destribats, et al., 2014). For disrupted granule,

373 there was less significant ($p > 0.05$) decrease in the interfacial protein content of the

374 emulsion as lecithin concentration ranged from 0.00% to 0.25%. With a further

375 increase of lecithin concentrations, protein adsorption fraction declined significantly

376 ($p < 0.05$). The result indicated that small amount of lecithin adsorbed onto the

377 surface of emulsified oil will be conducive to the physical stability of emulsions

378 without excessive displacement of interface proteins and confirmed the synergistic

379 effect of granules and lecithin on the stability of emulsions. At higher lecithin

380 concentrations, large amount of proteins were displaced from the droplet surfaces by

381 competitive adsorption, resulting in instability of the O/W emulsions by

382 surfactant-induced depletion flocculation (shown in Fig. 4).

383 *3.2.4. Microstructure of emulsion droplet*

384 Observing the microstructure of the emulsion at different concentrations of
385 lecithin can better understand the stabilizing effect of the protein-lecithin composite
386 emulsion. The microstructure pictures of emulsions prepared by granules at pH
387 7.0/9.0 with different concentrations of lecithin added were presented in Fig. 7. In the
388 absence of lecithin, emulsion prepared from native granule showed coarse and large
389 oil droplets, and the emulsion droplets gather together to form larger aggregates
390 (about 1700 nm). This might be due to the lack of sufficient electrostatic repulsion
391 between the droplets to prevent the emulsion from flocculation. However, emulsion
392 prepared from disrupted granules does not exhibit flocculation and the size of
393 emulsion droplets was about 550 nm, which may be attributed to its higher surface
394 charge. At very low concentration of lecithin (0.25%), the particle size of the fat
395 globule decreased to 400 nm and the emulsion droplets gradually showed a uniform
396 distribution. With further increase of lecithin concentration, some large fat globules
397 were observed in the emulsion. The possible reason for the above phenomenon was
398 that when the concentration of lecithin was low (0.25%), the addition of lecithin
399 dissociated the aggregate structure of egg yolk granule and lecithin and granule
400 protein were adsorbed to the interface and jointly reduced the interfacial tension
401 (contact angle), thereby improving the stability of the interface membrane and
402 reducing the size of the oil droplets (Leong, et al., 2011). However, with further
403 increase of lecithin concentration, most of the proteins on the interface membrane

404 were replaced by lecithin when the concentration of lecithin was above 0.50%. At this
405 point, continuous increase in the amount of lecithin does not change the interfacial
406 protein content (Fig. 6). A large amount of unadsorbable lecithin may cause repulsive
407 flocculation between oil droplets, leading to the aggregation of small oil droplets to
408 form large oil droplets (Matsumiya, et al., 2014). As a control, emulsion prepared by
409 1.00% lecithin showed larger fat globules (about 1100 nm), indicating the high
410 emulsifying efficiency of granule proteins-lecithin complex. The addition of a small
411 amount of lecithin showed a positive effect on the formation of emulsions, but
412 excessive lecithin triggered repulsive flocculation, thus leading to the instability of the
413 emulsions. In a word, the microstructure of the emulsion could well reflect the
414 creaming phenomenon of the emulsion, and the aggregation of the emulsion droplets
415 easily led to the stratification.

416 4. Conclusions

417 This study investigated the interactions between granule proteins in different
418 aggregation states and lecithin concentrations, and the corresponding emulsifying
419 properties. The results demonstrated that the disrupted granule (pH 9.0) exhibited
420 higher solubility and negative value of zeta-potential, accompanied by lower surface
421 hydrophobicity and particle size than the native granule (pH 7.0), which contributed
422 to the smaller surface contacting angle and emulsion stability. As the lecithin
423 concentration increased, the protein solubility and the negative value of zeta-potential
424 of both egg granules were further increased, in contrast to that, surface hydrophobicity,
425 particle size and contact angle decreased. The AFM image showed that the increase of

426 solution pH and addition of lecithin could destroy the aggregated structure of the egg
427 yolk granule and dissociation of aggregate structure was beneficial to the
428 improvement of emulsifying ability. The emulsion stability of egg yolk granules
429 showed a trend of increase first and then decrease with the increase of lecithin
430 concentration. Appropriate addition of lecithin (less than 0.25%) could be helpful in
431 the formation of high stable emulsions with low particle size by further dissociating
432 the aggregate structure and slightly reducing the contact angle and increasing surface
433 net charge. However, extra lecithin (more than 0.50%) would induce excessive
434 substitution of granule proteins by competitive adsorption, leading to instability of the
435 O/W emulsions by surfactant-induced depletion flocculation.

436 **Acknowledgments**

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439 Science Foundation for the Youth of China (No. 31801483).

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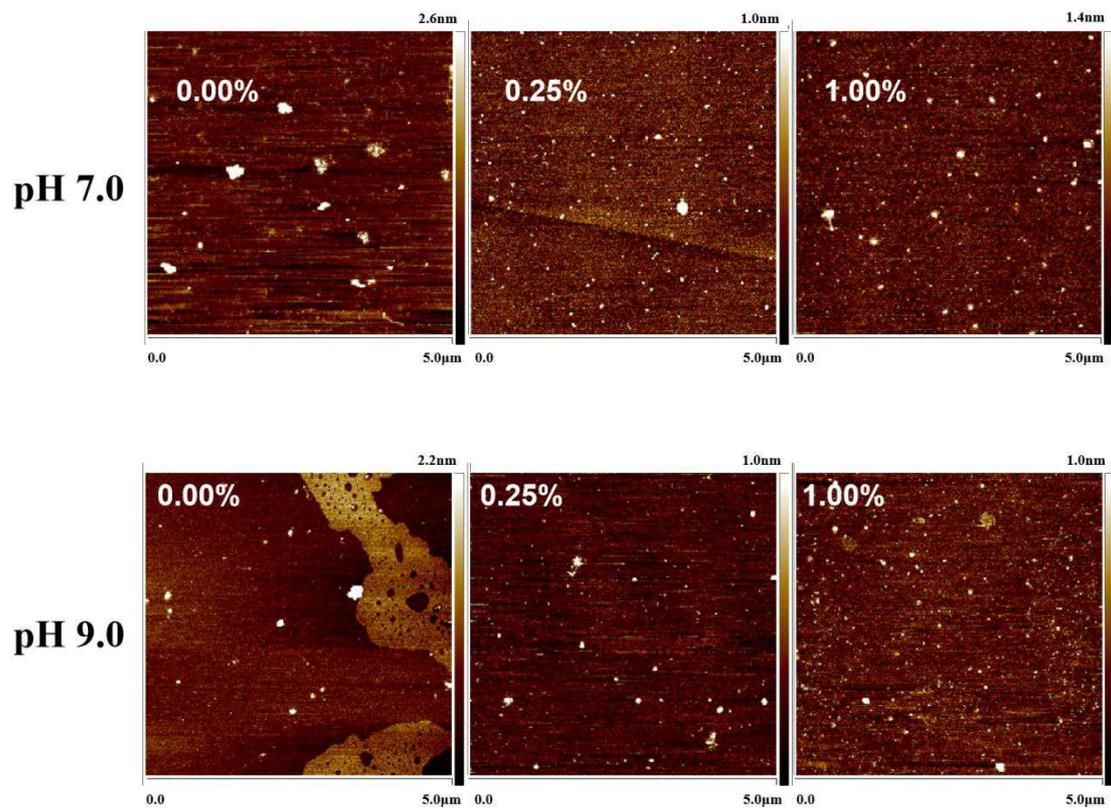
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Figures



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554 Fig. 1. 2-D AFM observations about the granules (pH 7.0 and pH 9.0) with different

555 concentrations of lecithin (0.00%, 0.25%, 1.00%)

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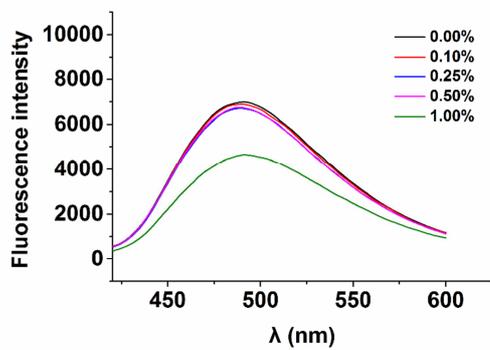
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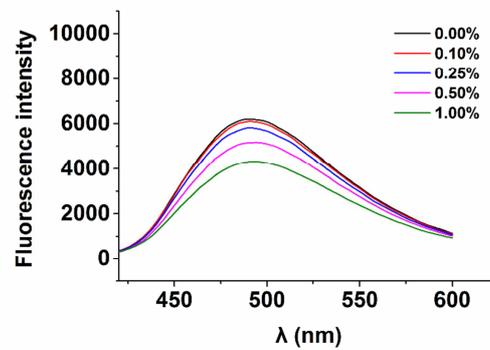
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564 Fig. 2. Fluorescence spectra about the granules (pH 7.0 (a) and pH 9.0 (b)) with

565 different concentrations of lecithin

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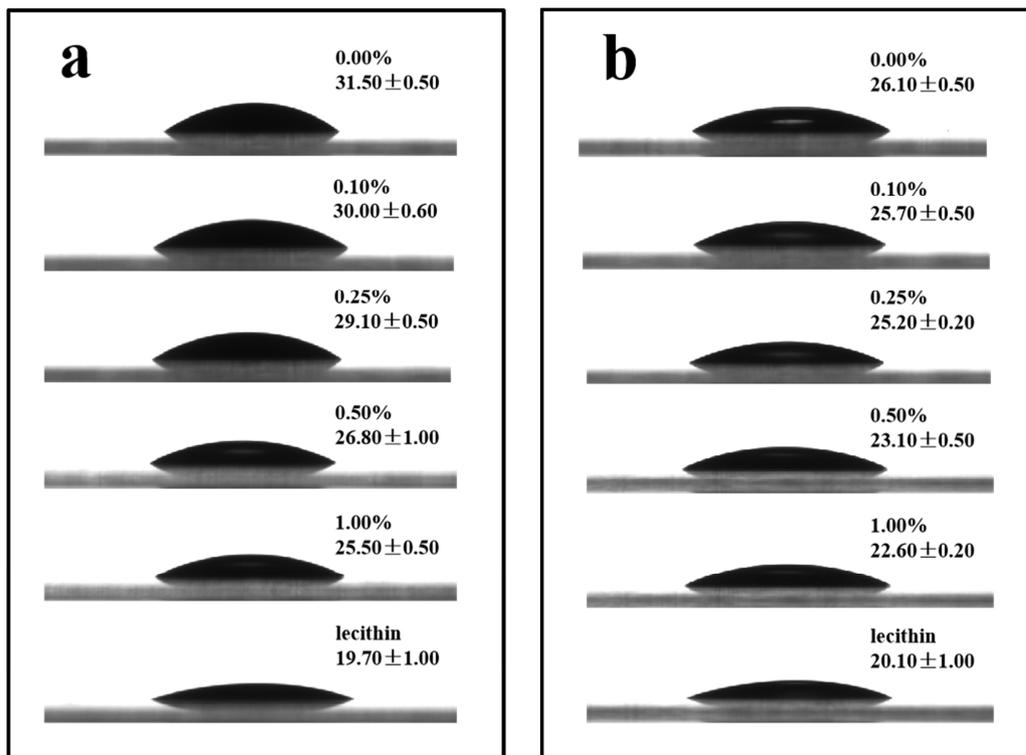
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573 Fig. 3. Contact angle about the granules (pH 7.0 (a) and pH 9.0 (b)) with different

574 concentrations of lecithin and 1.00% lecithin only

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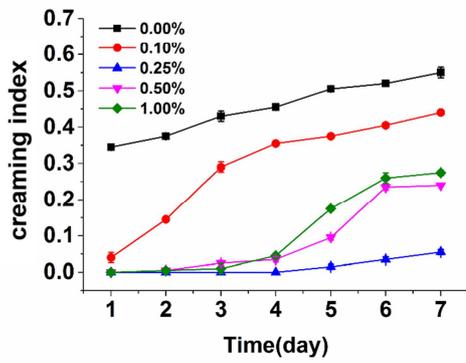
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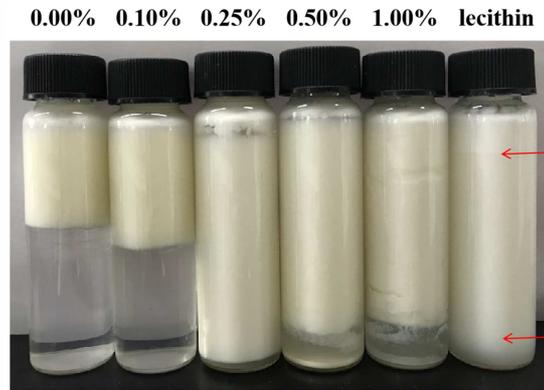
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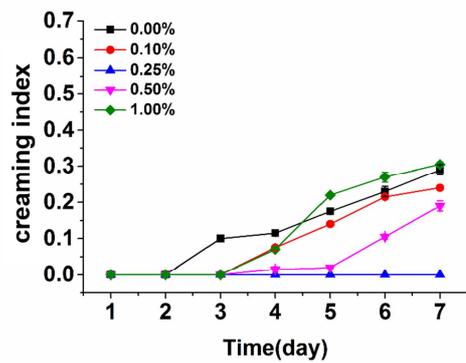


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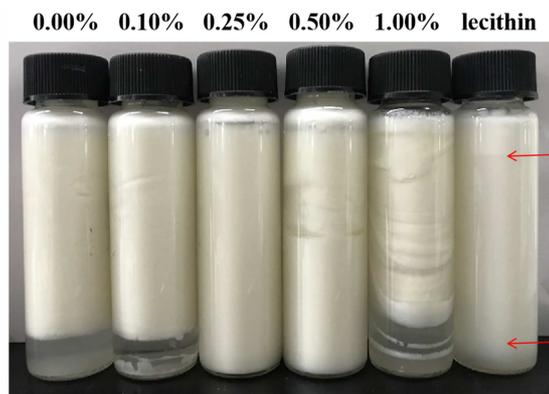


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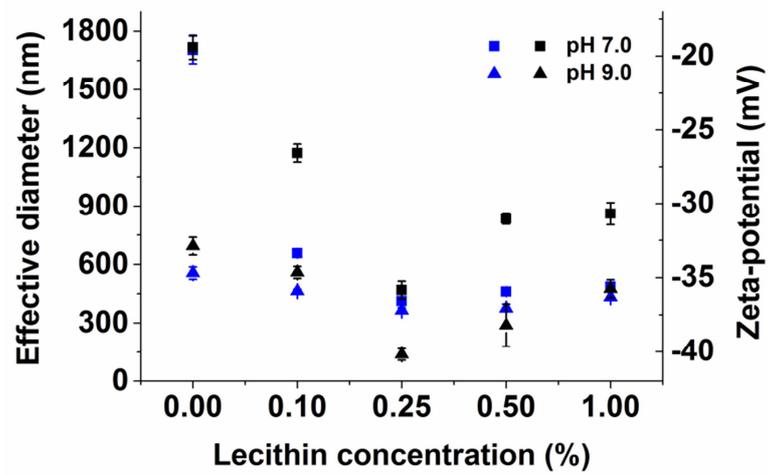
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582 Fig. 4. The creaming index (a, c) and visual appearance (one week) (b, d) of the
 583 emulsions prepared by egg yolk granules (pH 7.0 (a, b) and pH 9.0 (c, d)) with
 584 different concentrations of lecithin and the emulsion prepared by 1.00% lecithin only

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588 Fig. 5. The z-average particle size (nm) (blue) and zeta-potential (mV) (black) of the
589 emulsions prepared by egg yolk granules (pH 7.0 and pH 9.0) with various
590 concentrations of lecithin

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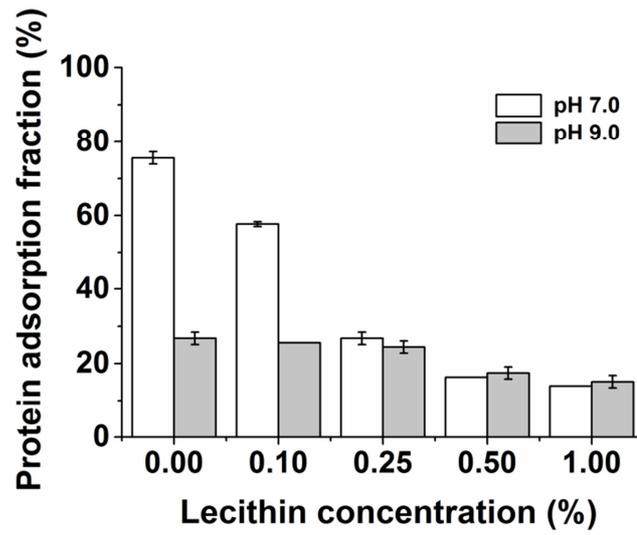
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600 Fig. 6. Protein adsorption fraction of emulsions prepared by egg yolk granules at pH

601 7.0/9.0 with various concentrations of lecithin added

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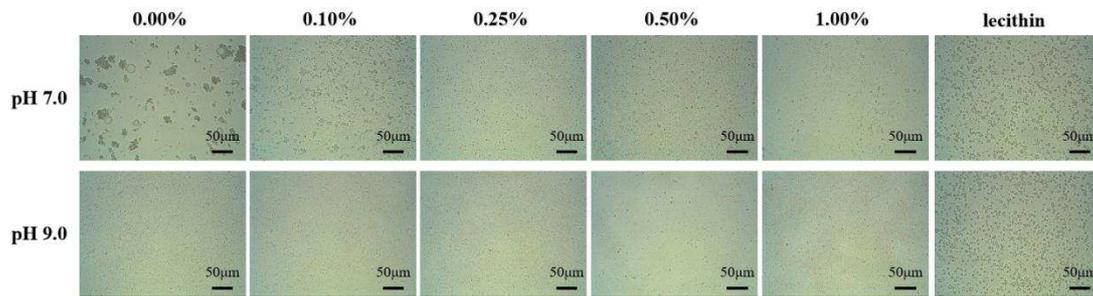
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614 Fig. 7. The microstructure pictures of emulsions prepared by granules at pH 7.0/9.0

615 with different concentrations of lecithin added and the emulsion prepared by 1.00%

616 lecithin only

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632 **Table 1**

633 Protein solubility (%), zeta-potential (mV), z-average particle size (nm) and
 634 polydispersity of egg yolk granules at pH 7.0/pH 9.0 as affected by lecithin
 635 concentrations (0.00-1.00% w/v).

Lecithin concentration (%)	Protein solubility (%)	Zeta-potential (mV)	Z-average particle size (nm)	Polydispersity
0.00	1.56±0.00e/	-20.46±0.50d/	1905.67±14.29a/	0.47±0.02d/
	80.18±0.35e	-32.00±0.78c	126.10±3.39a	0.81±0.01a
0.10	7.70±0.70d/	-29.15±0.25c/	372.73±6.81b/	0.55±0.01c/
	85.86±0.93d	-35.39±0.04b	110.93±2.65b	0.50±0.01b
0.25	11.56±0.81c/	-32.41±0.21b/	349.20±3.38c/	0.64±0.01b/
	89.80±0.47c	-35.96±0.07b	94.57±0.24c	0.44±0.01d
0.50	20.08±0.35b/	-33.04±0.11b/	321.70±3.80d/	0.66±0.02b/
	95.23±0.23b	-37.90±0.99ab	83.80±3.28d	0.47±0.00c
1.00	72.53±3.49a/	-35.29±1.12a/	133.90±1.95e/	0.79±0.02a/
	97.45±0.81a	-39.21±0.88a	75.11±0.48e	0.43±0.00d

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637 Different letters indicate significant difference ($p < 0.05$) (mean \pm SD, $n = 3$).

Table 1

Protein solubility (%), zeta-potential (mV), z-average particle size (nm) and polydispersity of egg yolk granules at pH 7.0/pH 9.0 as affected by lecithin concentrations (0.00-1.00% w/v).

Lecithin concentration (%)	Protein solubility (%)	Zeta-potential (mV)	Z-average particle size (nm)	Polydispersity
0.00	1.56±0.00e/	-20.46±0.50d/	1905.67±14.29a/	0.47±0.02d/
	80.18±0.35e	-32.00±0.78c	126.10±3.39a	0.81±0.01a
0.10	7.70±0.70d/	-29.15±0.25c/	372.73±6.81b/	0.55±0.01c/
	85.86±0.93d	-35.39±0.04b	110.93±2.65b	0.50±0.01b
0.25	11.56±0.81c/	-32.41±0.21b/	349.20±3.38c/	0.64±0.01b/
	89.80±0.47c	-35.96±0.07b	94.57±0.24c	0.44±0.01d
0.50	20.08±0.35b/	-33.04±0.11b/	321.70±3.80d/	0.66±0.02b/
	95.23±0.23b	-37.90±0.99ab	83.80±3.28d	0.47±0.00c
1.00	72.53±3.49a/	-35.29±1.12a/	133.90±1.95e/	0.79±0.02a/
	97.45±0.81a	-39.21±0.88a	75.11±0.48e	0.43±0.00d

Different letters indicate significant difference ($p < 0.05$) (mean \pm SD, $n = 3$).

Highlights

- ☑ The increase of solution pH and addition of lecithin could dissociate the egg yolk granule.
- ☑ Dissociation of egg yolk granule was beneficial to emulsion stability.
- ☑ Excessive displacement of interface granule proteins by lecithin resulted in stratification.

Journal Pre-proof

Conflict of interest statement

We declare that we do not have any commercial or associative interest that represents a conflict of interest in connection with the work submitted.

Journal Pre-proof