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4 Lactic-acid bacteria fermentation-induced effects on microstructure and interfacial
5 properties of oil-in-water emulsions stabilised by goat-milk proteins

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26 **ABSTRACT**

27 An oil-in-water emulsion stabilized with goat milk proteins was subjected to processing
28 from lactic acid bacteria fermentation and the effects on emulsion microstructure and
29 droplet characteristics were investigated. Optical microscopy and Turbiscan analyses
30 were used to monitor the microstructure and droplet size during the fermentation. pH-
31 driven effects led to milk protein conformational changes as indicated by the
32 determination of total thiol groups and affected the protein interfacial composition. This
33 phenomenon coincided (pH<5.5, T>37.9 °C) with the increase in average droplet size,
34 which was attributed to flocculation phenomena due to reduced electrostatic repulsion.
35 Casein solubility was enhanced during the initial stages of fermentation (1 hr - 3 hr) and
36 was precipitated at pH<4.8. LC-MS/MS analysis confirmed that caseins (α_{s1} -, α_{s2} -, β - and
37 κ -casein) were the dominant protein species at oil-water interface at the end of the
38 fermentation process and contributed to the stability of the emulsion by reducing the
39 droplet diameter (1.24 μ m).

40

41 **Keywords:** Emulsion; Fermentation; Lactic-acid bacteria; Whey; Caseins

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Fermentation is an ancient method of food production and preservation in which

45 controlled microbial growth is used to convert major and minor food components (Marco
46 et al., 2017). The process of fermentation is known to exert several beneficial effects on
47 foods which among others include the increase in shelf-life and enhancement of
48 organoleptic properties, and therefore is a desirable method of food production from a
49 food manufacturer perspective (Şanlıer, Gökçen & Sezgin, 2017).

50 Recently, fermented foods have attracted additional attention due to their
51 documented potential to reduce cholesterol levels, regulate blood glucose and alleviate
52 the symptoms of lactose intolerance (Tamang & Kailasapathy, 2010). In addition,
53 fermentation can result in the reduction of potentially harmful compounds in foods such
54 as mycotoxins (Shetty & Jespersen, 2006). The health-promoting potential of fermented
55 foods are attributed to various mechanisms linked to the delivery of commensal microbes
56 to the gastrointestinal (GI) tract and the subsequent release of bioactive compounds such
57 as vitamins, lactic acid and peptides (Derrien & van Hylckama Vlieg, 2015; Plé, Breton,
58 Daniel & Foligné, 2015). Thus, fermented foods may provide health benefits to
59 consumers which go well beyond those of basic nutrition.

60 Colloidal systems including food emulsions are currently exploited for their
61 potential to serve as “vehicles” for the encapsulation, protection and delivery of
62 bioactive compounds such as oil-soluble vitamins, nutraceuticals and lipids at different
63 locations within the GI tract (McClements, 2018). The formulation of the distinct phases
64 including the interfacial composition and the effects of processing are key factors which
65 need to be carefully controlled when designing complex food matrices for the delivery
66 of bioactive compounds (Raikos & Ranawana, 2017). Recently, the incorporation of

67 emulsions in fermented dairy foods has been investigated as a method of delivery of
68 encapsulated lipophilic bioactives or bacteria and their metabolic by-products (Lalou,
69 Kadri, & Gkatzionis, 2017; Lobato-Calleros et al. 2008; Tidona et al., 2015). The effects
70 of bacterial metabolic activity, surface charge and hydrophobicity on emulsion stability
71 have been previously documented and indicate that oil droplet aggregation and
72 flocculation phenomena are predominantly driven by charge effects which can be
73 modulated by carefully choosing the bacterial strain (Ly et al., 2006).

74 In this study, oil-in-water emulsions were formed and stabilized by goat milk
75 proteins. The emulsions were inoculated with lactic acid bacteria and the fermentation
76 process was carefully monitored. The purpose of this study was to investigate the
77 combined effect of pH and temperature on the physicochemical properties of the
78 emulsion. Emphasis is given on the changes on protein structure and composition at the
79 interface and continuous phase because of the fermentation process. To the best of our
80 knowledge, this is the first study to monitor and elucidate the processing effects on the
81 microstructure and droplet characteristics of a fermented dairy-based emulsion.

82

83 **2. Materials and methods**

84 *2.1. Materials*

85 Spray dried goats milk (skimmed) and yogurt culture (Yo-Mix ABY 2-C) were
86 purchased from Goat Nutrition Ltd (Ashford, England). Corn oil was purchased from
87 the local supermarket (Tesco, UK). *N*-(1-Pyrenyl)maleimide, *N*-acetyl-L-cysteine, MRS
88 agar and α -Lactalbumin, β -Lactoglobulin, **alpha-S Casein** and β -Casein standards (from

89 bovine milk) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Precast gels
90 and all reagents used for protein electrophoresis were purchased from Bio-Rad
91 Laboratories Ltd. (Hertfordshire, UK). All reagents used were of analytical grade.

92

93 *2.2. Preparation of fermented beverage emulsion*

94 Emulsion beverages were prepared using the following weight recipe (78.75% water,
95 16% goat milk powder, 5% corn oil, 0.25% freeze dried culture). A coarse emulsion (500
96 gr) was formed by adding corn oil at a steady rate and mixing the remaining of the
97 ingredients by using an Ultra-Compact digital mixer system (Cole-Palmer,
98 Cambridgeshire, UK) for 5 min at 1000 rpm. Emulsions were further homogenized by
99 passing the samples through a high-pressure homogenizer (APV-1000, SPX Flow
100 Technology, West Sussex, UK) at 100 MPa for 5 times. 1.25 gr (~ 9 Direct Culture Unit)
101 of the freeze dried mixed culture were added to the beverage and mixed thoroughly.
102 Samples were then poured in a sterile glass container and were placed in a yogurt
103 fermenter (Lakeland, Aberdeen, UK) set at 50 °C for 6 hr. The samples were then stored
104 at -20 °C before further analysis unless otherwise specified. Four batches of fermented
105 beverages were prepared and used for subsequent analysis.

106

107 *2.3. Monitoring of coagulum formation and particle size determination*

108 The fermentation process of freshly prepared beverages was monitored using a
109 Turbiscan MA2000 (Formulacion, Fullbrook Systems Ltd, Herts, UK). Samples were
110 poured into a cylindrical borosilicate glass tube (25 mm inner diameter and 60 mm high)

111 and were scanned from top to bottom with a near-infrared light source (880 nm) at 5 min
 112 intervals for 10 hr to generate transmission and backscattering data every 40 μm. The
 113 temperature of the apparatus was set at 42 °C to simulate the fermentation process. The
 114 coagulation process was evaluated using the Turbiscan stability index (TSI) parameter
 115 calculated according to backscattering changes that indicate the particles aggregation
 116 and dynamic migration by Turbisoft Lab 2.2 software (Fullbrook Systems Ltd). TSI is a
 117 statistical factor and its value is calculated as the sum of all the destabilization processes
 118 in the sample by using the following formulae:

$$119 \quad BS = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda^*}} \quad (1)$$

$$120 \quad \lambda^*(\varphi, d) = \frac{2d}{3\varphi(1-g)Q_s} \quad (2)$$

$$121 \quad TSI = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\chi_i - \chi_{BS})^2}{n-1}} \quad (3)$$

122 where λ^* is the photon transport mean free path in the analyzed dispersion, φ is the
 123 volume fraction of particles, d is the mean diameter of particles, g and Q_s are the optical
 124 parameters given by the Mie theory. χ_i is the average backscattering for each minute of
 125 measurement, χ_{BS} is the average χ_i , and n is the number of scans. A series of scans (7)
 126 was repeated for the beverages at 5 min intervals from top to bottom and the intensity of
 127 light backscattered during a 30 min period at 25 °C was recorded. Backscattering profiles
 128 (%ΔBS) from the middle of the tube (10 mm - 30 mm) were used to monitor size
 129 variation (coalescence/flocculation) phenomena for particle size determination. The
 130 refractive indices of the dispersed and continuous phase which were used to compute the
 131 mean spherical equivalent diameter were 1.47 and 1.33 respectively.

132

133 *2.4. pH, temperature and microbiological analysis of fermented emulsion*

134 The pH and temperature of the samples was monitored every hr using a portable
135 food and dairy pH meter (Hanna Instruments Ltd, Leighton Buzzard, UK) and sampling
136 for lactic acid bacteria was performed during the fermentation process at 0, 1, 2, 4 and 6
137 hr. Total lactic acid bacteria (LAB) were incubated aerobically on MRS agar (OXOID)
138 and enumeration was performed after incubation at 37 °C for 3 days. The total viable
139 microbial populations capable of growing on agar plates were analyzed in duplicate and
140 the average values of colony forming units (CFUs) are depicted here.

141

142 *2.5. Determination of free sulfhydryl content*

143 The fermented emulsions were ultra-centrifuged at 25000 g for 1 hr using a Sorvall
144 Lynx 4000 apparatus (Thermo Scientific Ltd., Loughborough, UK) and the aqueous
145 phases were diluted 5 times with PBS (pH 7.4). Free sulfhydryl (SH) content was
146 measured by a fluorescent assay as described by Lacy, Baker and Brigham-Burke (2008)
147 with slight modifications. N-acetyl-L-cysteine was used as standard for free SH
148 determination. 50 µL of the appropriate solution was mixed with 250 µL of PBS,
149 followed by incubation for 30 min at 25 °C prior to addition of N-(1-pyrenyl)maleimide
150 (NPM). 3 µL of 10 mmol/L NPM were added into this mixture, and the samples were
151 incubated for 2 hr at 25 °C. 200 µL of samples were pipetted onto a black 96-well
152 microplate, and the fluorescence emission spectrum of the samples was then obtained
153 using the fluorescence ($\lambda_{ex}=330$ nm/ $\lambda_{em}=380$ nm) on a plate fluorimeter (SpectraMax,

154 GEMINI XS, Molecular Devices Ltd., Wokingham, UK).

155

156 *2.6. Recovery of adsorbed and non-adsorbed proteins*

157 Aliquots of 2 mL of the emulsions were diluted with 2 mL of 50% (w/v) sucrose
158 solution. After vortexing, 2 mL of the mixture were pipetted and carefully deposited at
159 the bottom of a tube containing 7 mL of 5% (w/v) sucrose solution. The samples were
160 centrifuged at 3500 g for 1 hr. Following centrifugation, three phases were formed: the
161 creamed oil droplets at the top, an intermediate separating phase corresponding to 5%
162 sucrose solution at the middle, and the aqueous phase of the emulsion at the bottom of
163 the tube. **The cream phase was washed twice to remove non-adsorbed proteins, filtered
164 to remove lipid droplets and suspended in 10 mM phosphate buffer.** The samples were
165 frozen at -20 °C for 24 hr and **the creamed (adsorbed) and the aqueous (non-adsorbed)
166 phases were analysed by SDS-PAGE.**

167

168 *2.7. Sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE)*

169 SDS-PAGE was performed according to a method described previously (Laemmli,
170 1970) using a Mini-Protean® 3 electrophoresis cell unit (Bio-Rad Laboratories Ltd.).
171 Proteins were reduced with 2-mercaptoethanol, heat-denatured at 100 °C for 2 min and
172 were analyzed on a 4-20% Mini-Protean® TGX™ precast gel. Electrophoretic migration
173 was performed at 150 V (constant) for 40 min. The gel was stained with Coomassie
174 Brilliant Blue R-250 staining solution for 1 hr with gentle agitation and destained for 2
175 hr in 30% methanol, 10% acetic acid solution. The gel was scanned with a GS-

176 800™calibrated densitometer (Bio-Rad Laboratories Ltd). Precision Plus Protein™
177 unstained standards were used from protein band identification as molecular weight
178 markers (MWM).

179

180 *2.8. Determination of whey proteins and caseins using RP-HPLC*

181 The quantitative determination of whey protein and caseins was performed by HPLC
182 (Waters 2695 Separations module equipped with a diode array detector) according to the
183 method described by Kiokias, Dimakou and Oreopoulou (2007). Samples were
184 centrifuged at 25,000 g for 1 hr at 4 °C and filtered through a 5 mm filter. 20 ml of
185 sample were injected into a polymeric reversed phase column (PRP-1, 250 mm x 4.1
186 mm; particle size 10 mm, Hamilton Bonaduz A.G., Switzerland) and eluted at constant
187 flow rate (1 ml/min) using a gradient system (solvent A: 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid in
188 water and solvent B: 95% acetonitrile - 5% water acidified with 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid)
189 as previously described (Ferreira, Mendes, & Ferreira, 2001). Whey proteins and caseins
190 were quantified by comparison with calibrated standards.

191

192 *2.9. Proteomics*

193 The protein samples were digested in-gel (SDS-PAGE) with trypsin according to
194 the method of Shevchenko et al. (2007), adapted for use with a JANUS automated liquid
195 handling workstation (Perkin Elmer, Beaconsfield, UK). The extracted peptide digestion
196 products were dried in a vacuum centrifuge (SpeedVac) and dissolved in 10 µL LC-MS
197 loading solvent. One-fifth (2 µL) was sampled for LC-MS analysis as described

198 previously by Ni et al. (2018) using a Q Exactive Plus LC-MS system (Thermo Scientific,
199 Hemel Hempstead, UK) and a ‘Top 10’ data-dependent MS2 method. All parameters
200 were as previously described by Ni et al. (2018). Database searches were carried out
201 against the *Capra hircus* (Goat) protein sequences, downloaded from
202 www.uniprot.org/uniprot in fasta format. A Mascot significance value of 0.05 was used
203 to filter unreliable peptide matches.

204

205 *2.10. Optical microscopy*

206 Light micrographs of the emulsion samples were obtained using a Leica DM IL LED
207 inverted laboratory microscope equipped with a Leica DFC295 digital color camera
208 (Leica microsystems Ltd, Milton Keynes, UK). The samples were observed through a
209 40× dry objective lens. Pictures were taken using the in-built 3 MP digital camera and
210 picture analysis was performed using Leica application suite software (V.3.6.0).

211

212 *2.11. Statistical analysis*

213 Results are expressed as mean±(SD) of at least three replicates (each replicate
214 corresponds to a different batch). Statistical analysis of the data was performed using the
215 statistical software SPSS Statistics 22 (IBM Corp, Armonk, NY, USA). Data were
216 analyzed by analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Scheffè’s post hoc test (P <
217 0.05).

218

219 **3. Results and discussion**

220 *3.1. Fermentation effects on emulsion microstructural evolution and droplet size*

221 During fermentation of dairy products, lactic acid is typically produced thanks to
222 the metabolic activity of bacterial cultures and pH is gradually decreased to
223 approximately 4.5. This acidification step is essential for the conversion of the liquid
224 dispersion into a soft gel network (Horne, 1999). Thus, fermentation of dairy products
225 may be considered as a food manufacturing process which can be monitored by the
226 evolution of pH and viscosity with time (Sfakianakis & Tzia, 2014). The primary
227 particles involved in gel formation are casein micelles, which aggregate through
228 isoelectric precipitation (Karam, Gaiani, Hosri, Burgain, & Scher, 2013; Oliveira et al.,
229 2015). In this study, an oil-in-water emulsion was subjected to fermentation which is
230 likely to contribute to the formation of a network with modified structure. The duration
231 of the fermentation process was 6 hr and the pH dropped gradually from 6.1 to 4.1 (Table
232 1). During the processing steps, there was an incremental change in temperature from
233 25.4 °C to 46.0 °C. Non-surprisingly, viable counts of total lactic acid bacteria also
234 increased from 7.4 Log CFU/MI (0 hr) to 8.1 Log CFU/mL (6 hr), and a coagulum was
235 formed by the end of the fermentation process, as indicated by the flattening of the TSI
236 curve after 5 hr (Figure 1). The evolution of the emulsion microstructure was monitored
237 during the fermentation using optical microscopy (Figure 2). Following high pressure
238 homogenization, fine droplets were formed which were dispersed to the aqueous
239 medium. Changes in droplet size because of the fermentation were not detectable by
240 means of microscopy and intact droplets were still observed after processing for 6 hr.
241 The coagulum formation was visually detected after 4 hr of fermentation (Figure 1E)

242 and this effect was even more clearly observed at the end of the process (Figure 1F).

243 The droplet size of the dispersed phase constantly evolved during the 6 hr period of
244 the fermentation process (Figure 3). The average droplet diameter showed a non-
245 significant ($p>0.05$) decrease from 1.41 μm to 1.35 μm after the first 2 hr of the
246 fermentation. During homogenisation, milk proteins adsorb at the interface to lower the
247 interface tension and form a layer of interacting polymer molecules which confers
248 protection against coalescence and provides physical stability for a defined period
249 (Dickinson, 1997). The interfacial composition is determined by numerous factors
250 including surface hydrophobicity, molecular flexibility and the quantities present in the
251 aqueous phase (Dickinson, 1991; Hunt & Dalgleish, 1995). Protein unfolding and
252 effective rearrangement at the interface is likely to occur following absorption at the
253 interface (Dickinson 1992; Dalgleish 1996). This structural rearrangement also indicated
254 by the increase in total -SH groups suggests protein denaturation and rearrangement at
255 the interface which may explain the initial but non-significant decrease in droplet size at
256 this stage (Dickinson, Rolfe & Dalgleish, 1988). The decrease in droplet size was
257 followed by a non-significant ($p>0.05$) increase to 1.39 μm . This effect was consistent
258 and was observed in all replicate measurements from different batches. During this stage
259 of the fermentation process, the pH drops from 5.5 to 4.8 (Table 1), which is near the
260 isoelectric point of the main goat milk proteins including α_{s2} -casein (4.7), β -casein (~5.2),
261 κ -casein (~5.4), β -lactoglobulin (~5.6) and α -lactalbumin (~5.0) (da Costa et al., 2014).
262 As a result, the net negative charge is reduced, and inter-droplet electrostatic repulsion
263 is no longer sufficiently strong to overcome attractive forces leading to loss of

264 **electrostatic stabilisation** and droplet flocculation (Dickinson 2001; McClements 2004).
265 Following this step, the droplet size continues to decrease until the end of the
266 fermentation period to reach an average droplet diameter of 1.24 μm . This result agrees
267 with the microstructural analysis of the fermented emulsion and suggests that the
268 structural integrity of the droplets remains intact after the formation of the coagulum
269 resulting to a gelled emulsion type of product. **The effect of the fermentation process on**
270 **the particle size of the emulsion is largely driven by the pH transition and the resulting**
271 **changes in protein charge, solubility and interfacial composition.**

272

273 *3.2. Fermentation effects on protein structure and interfacial composition*

274 Milk proteins are considered effective emulsifiers which are capable to adsorb at the
275 oil-water interface and effectively lower the interfacial tension (Raikos, 2010). During
276 the process of homogenization, individual milk proteins compete for adsorption and an
277 interfacial layer is dynamically formed (Millqvist-Fureby, Elofsson, & Bergenstål, 2001).
278 Caseins tend to predominate at the interface thanks to the higher proportion of
279 hydrophobic residues and the more flexible structure compared to whey proteins which
280 contain more rigid α -helix and β -pleated structures (Dalgleish, Goff, Brun & Luan, 2002;
281 Singh & Sarkar, 2011). **The preferential absorption of caseins over whey proteins at the**
282 **interface is also concentration dependent and occurs at high protein concentrations (Ye,**
283 **2008).** The protein composition of the interfacial film was determined by means of
284 electrophoretic analysis and is presented in Figure 4. The protein profile obtained agrees
285 with previously published data and confirms the abundant presence of α -lactalbumin, β -

286 lactoglobulin, κ -casein, β -casein, α_2 -casein and bovine serum albumin in increasing
287 molecular weight order (da Costa et al., 2014; Yi et al., 2019). The main proteins
288 identified at the interface (Figure 4, lanes 3, 5, and 7) are identical with the ones detected
289 in the aqueous phase and an additional band of approximately 20 kDa, is detectable
290 which could correspond to γ -casein (da Costa et al., 2004). This confirms the presence
291 of both whey proteins and caseins at the interface. Non-surprisingly, the protein profile
292 in the aqueous phase changes dramatically at the end of the fermentation process (Figure
293 4, lanes 8 and 9) and indicates that a **gel** network is formed by casein clusters, chains
294 and strands. **At this point, the casein micelles of the continuous phase entangle and form**
295 **insoluble aggregates due to attractive forces, which is supported by the disappearance of**
296 **the bands in the range between 25 kDa and 37 kDa (Figure 4, lane 8).** On the other hand,
297 the solubility of whey proteins remains unaffected by the fermentation process.
298 Interestingly, **the interfacial composition is affected by the pH transition and indicates**
299 **that by the end of the fermentation process** caseins predominate the coating layer in
300 comparison to whey proteins. **Although whey proteins can still be detected at the**
301 **interface after the fermentation process, it is likely that desorption occurs as indicated**
302 **by the disappearance of the bands corresponding to α -lactalbumin and β -lactoglobulin**
303 **monomers (Figure 4, lane 9).** LC-MS/MS analysis of the main bands confirmed the
304 presence of α_2 - (top band), β -, α_1 - (middle band) and κ -casein (lower band) at the
305 interface at the end of the fermentation process (Figure 4, lane 9). The molecular weight
306 distribution of the identified bands agrees with previously published research (Greppi,
307 Roncada & Fortin, 2008). The analysis also indicates the presence of β -lactoglobulin in

308 the middle band, which suggests that dimers are formed and contribute to the interfacial
309 composition at the end of the process. This finding may account for the continuous
310 reduction of the droplet size during the last stages of the fermentation process (Fig. 3).
311 Caseins due to their disordered structure are known to form aggregates and thus provide
312 a high surface coverage around the droplet area, which can have a positive impact on
313 emulsion stability (Euston & Hirst, 2000).

314 Solubility is an important determinant of protein functionality including the ability
315 to form and stabilize emulsions (Pelegri & Gasparetto, 2005). Protein charge and as a
316 result solubility can be dramatically affected by modifying the pH environment as it
317 occurs during fermentation. RP-HPLC has been successfully employed in the past to
318 monitor whey protein solubility, since the method is based on hydrophobic interactions
319 and therefore any denaturing effects induced by the method of analysis should be
320 negligible (Anandharamakrishnan, Rielly & Stapley, 2008). The effects of fermentation
321 on the solubility of the main casein and whey proteins is presented in Figure 5. The
322 solubility of whey proteins (α -lactalbumin, β -lactoglobulin) remains unaffected by the
323 decrease in pH. This result is consistent with the protein profile obtained from SDS-
324 PAGE analysis (Figure 4). Conversely, caseins (α and β) show a significant increase in
325 solubility between the 1st and 3rd of fermentation, followed by a sharp decrease which is
326 consistent until the end of processing period. The initial increase in casein solubility (pH
327 range: 5.9-4.8) may be attributed to the solubilization of colloidal calcium phosphate
328 which is known to increase with decreasing pH (from neutral) and reaches maximum
329 values at approximately pH 5 (Raynal & Remeuf, 2000; Post, Arnold, Weiss & Hinrichs,

330 2012). Further reduction of pH below 4.8, reduced the net negative charge of caseins and
331 decreased the solubility by inducing isoelectric precipitation. The effect of fermentation
332 on milk protein structure was investigated by determining the total SH-groups for the
333 non-adsorbed proteins (Figure 4). The determination of total SH-groups is a reliable
334 indicator of protein unfolding under conditions which can effectively modify the
335 structure (Siddique, Maresca, Pataro & Ferrari, 2016). Different methods have been
336 applied for analyzing sulfhydryl groups in milk related to processing effects and are
337 mainly associated with β -lactoglobulin (Owusu-Apenten, 2005). Thiol groups are
338 typically located in the hydrophobic core of the native protein structure, which during
339 processing can become exposed and reactive. The number of total SH-groups showed an
340 insignificant increase ($p>0.05$) during the first 2 hr of the fermentation, which may be
341 attributed to mild protein conformational changes induced by pH and temperature and/or
342 to the increasing solubility of casein proteins at this stage. A significant reduction in total
343 thiol groups followed from this point onwards until the end of processing (3-6 hr). This
344 phenomenon was effective prior to casein isoelectric precipitation (hr 4) and indicates
345 the formation of complex protein networks through intra- or intermolecular
346 thiol/disulfide interchange or thiol/thiol oxidation reactions. Denatured whey proteins
347 (and particularly β -lactoglobulin) can be involved in thiol-disulfide reactions with κ -
348 caseins at the micelle interface depending on the pH and temperature conditions (Anema
349 & Li, 2003; Mahomud, Katsuno & Nioshizu, 2017). Our results indicate that these type
350 of intermolecular covalent interactions between whey proteins and caseins occur below
351 pH 5.5 and above 37.9 °C and can take place before the formation of the gel network

352 induced by casein-casein interactions. Potential interactions between adsorbed proteins
353 (whey-whey, casein-casein or whey-casein) may also be associated with the observed
354 increase in droplet size which occurs simultaneously (Figure 3).

355

356 **4. Conclusions**

357 Light scattering analysis of the fermented emulsion revealed that the decrease of pH
358 led to an increase of the droplet size near the isoelectric point of the milk proteins. At
359 this stage of the fermentation process, reduced electrostatic repulsion may induce droplet
360 flocculation and protein crosslinking via thiol/disulfide exchange reactions. The
361 structural integrity of the oil droplets was retained until completion of the fermentation
362 process. Caseins were the primary protein components involved in the formation of the
363 gel network and their soluble fraction was greatly affected by the pH during the
364 fermentation stages. The interfacial composition of the oil droplets was also pH-
365 dependent. Whey and caseins were identified at the interface during the initial stages of
366 the fermentation. Interestingly, caseins remained adsorbed and dominant at the interface
367 following the formation of the gelled network and until the end of the fermentation and
368 contributed to the stability of the oil droplets. Further studies are required to better
369 understand the evolution of the colloidal structure and the mechanisms involved during
370 the stages of lactic acid fermentation.

371

372 **Conflicts of interest**

373 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

374

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379

380 **Figure captions**

381 **Figure 1.** Evolution of the gelation process during the fermentation process. Viable
382 counts of total lactic acid bacteria are recorded at certain time intervals (0, 1, 2, 4 and 6
383 hr).

384 **Figure 2.** Optical microscopy images of oil-in-water emulsions at 0 hr (A), 2 hr (B), 3
385 hr (C), 4 hr (D), 5 hr (E) and 6 hr (F) of the fermentation process. Scale bar represents
386 50 μm .

387 **Figure 3.** Free -SH group content (■) and oil droplet size (▬) at different point
388 intervals of the fermentation process. Different low case letters indicate significant
389 differences between mean values \pm SD for each treatment ($p < 0.05$).

390 **Figure 4.** Electrophoretic analyses of unadsorbed (Lanes: 1, 4, 6 and 8), adsorbed (Lanes:
391 3, 5, 7 and 9) at different time points of the fermentation process using SDS-PAGE under
392 reducing conditions. Interfacial proteins at 6 hr of fermentation (Lane 9) were identified
393 by LC-MS. Molecular weight markers are presented in Lanes 1 and 10.

394 **Figure 5.** RP-HPLC analyses of the main whey (● α -lactalbumin, ● β -lactoglobulin)
395 and casein (● β -casein, ● α -casein) protein fractions in goat milk stabilized emulsions

396 during the fermentation process. Each point is the mean of two replicate measurements
397 from different batches.

398

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