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1 **Microstructural and textural characteristics of soy protein isolate and tara gum**
2 **cold-set gels**

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17 **Abstract**

18 Soy protein isolates (SPI) are capable of forming cold-set gels. This techno-
19 functional property can be affected by the presence of tara gum (TG). Under certain
20 conditions, these SPI/TG systems may also form water-in-water (W/W) emulsions. The
21 aim of this study was to evaluate acid gels formed from soy protein isolates (SPI) and
22 tara gum (TG) aqueous mixtures, and to find the conditions in which the W/W
23 emulsions of SPI droplets dispersed in a TG continuous phase can be stabilized by SPI
24 gelation as a strategy to prevent emulsion destabilization. Cold-set gels of SPI 0.3g/L at
25 different TG concentrations (0-0.05g/L) showed different microstructures, a
26 consequence of a different balance between gelation and segregative phase separation
27 processes. SPI gels showed a homogenous and compact microstructure. When TG was
28 present at 0.01g/L and 0.02g/L, the protein network was less interconnected, showing
29 coarse-stranded and bicontinuous gels, respectively. At $TG > 0.03\text{g/L}$, stable W/W
30 emulsions were formed, revealing an abrupt decrease in gel firmness, a significant loss
31 of fracture capacity, and a decrease in the water holding capacity. These findings may
32 be used as a starting point for the application of these gelled systems as thickeners,
33 texture modifiers, and coating materials for delivery of bioactive compounds.

34

35 **KEYWORDS:** thermodynamic compatibility; cold-set gelation; confocal microscopy;
36 water holding capacity; water-in-water emulsions

37

38 1. Introduction

39 Protein gelation is an important functional property as it has a key role during the
40 preparation of a wide range of products. In recent years, the gelation of globular
41 proteins at room temperature, known as "cold gelation", has gained interest. This
42 process consists of two consecutive stages. In the first one, protein aggregates are
43 formed by heating the protein solution at a pH far from the isoelectric point and, after
44 cooling, these aggregates remain soluble. In the second stage, gelation is induced by the
45 addition of salts or by a decrease in pH (Alting, de Jongh, Visschers, & Simons, 2002).
46 The pH reduction of protein solutions may be performed by adding glucono- δ -lactone
47 (GDL), which is hydrolyzed in aqueous solution, releasing gluconic acid. The rate of pH
48 reduction depends on the concentration of GDL and the temperature (de Kruif, 1997).

49 Soy protein isolates (SPI) has been reported to be capable of forming acid gels after
50 thermal denaturation and acidification up to a pH close to the isoelectric point of its
51 main proteins. This behavior has been studied as a starting point for the preparation of
52 tofu-like products (Campbell, Gu, Dewar, & Euston, 2009; Gu, Campbell, & Euston,
53 2009).

54 On the other hand, the protein gelation process can be affected by the presence of
55 polysaccharides due to the possible existence of thermodynamic incompatibility
56 between both biopolymers (Grinberg & Tolstoguzov, 1997; Tolstoguzov, 2003).
57 Thermodynamic incompatibility may involve a charged protein and a similarly charged
58 or neutral polysaccharide (Doublier, Garnier, Renard, & Sanchez, 2000). This
59 phenomenon may be accompanied by the gelation of one of the biopolymers. Thus,
60 depending on the balance between the rate of gelation and phase separation processes,
61 the final gel microstructure obtained will vary (Corredig, Sharafbafi, & Kristo, 2011;
62 Kasapis, 2008; Tavares, Monteiro, Moreno, & Lopes da Silva, 2005).

63 In the absence of gelation, thermodynamic incompatibility leads to a segregative
64 phase separation in which each phase is enriched in one of the two biopolymers
65 (Corredig et al., 2011; Stieger & van de Velde, 2013). In these aqueous two-phase
66 systems, water-in-water (W/W) emulsions may be formed by dispersing an aqueous
67 solution into another aqueous phase, i.e. as droplets of one biopolymer distributed in a
68 continuous phase of the other biopolymer (Esquena, 2016; Norton & Frith, 2001). The
69 main problem with W/W emulsions is their usual lack of kinetic stability, since they
70 tend to coalesce or flocculate quickly. Lundin et al. (1999) have reported that if one or
71 both of the biopolymers gelify, stable W/W emulsions can be obtained by controlling
72 the thermal gelation rate due to the formation of gelled states. Khan, Nickerson,
73 Paulson, Rousseau & Dérick (2011) have also reported that it can be possible to
74 generate hydrogel microstructures via phase separation of thermodynamically
75 incompatible binary biopolymer mixtures. In a more recent study, Esquena (2016)
76 postulated that it would be possible to obtain stable W/W emulsions by the formation of
77 gelled states that prevented coalescence and that these W/W emulsions could be used as
78 templates for the formation of microgels.

79 Tara gum (TG) is a galactomannan obtained from the seeds of *Caesalpinia spinosa*.
80 It consists of a skeleton of (1→4)-linked β -D-mannopyranosyl sugar units, one-third of
81 which are (1→6)-linked with α -D-galactopyranosyl as side groups (Anderson, 1949;
82 Buffington, Stevens, Morris, & Rees, 1980). In recent years, reports on the use of TG as
83 a food additive have been increasing due to its ability to act as a stabilizing agent,
84 emulsifier and thickener, and to avoid undesirable effects in gelled products like
85 syneresis (Daas, Grolle, van Vliet, Schols, & de Jongh, 2002; Józwiak, Dziubiński, &
86 Orczykowska, 2018; Singh, Singh, & Arya, 2018; Wu, Ding, & He, 2018). TG is also
87 used in the preparation of sustained and immediate release formulations because it is a

88 swelling agent, a binder and a mucoadhesive with sustained effect (Ananthakumar,
89 Chitra, & Satheshkumar, 2018; Goswami & Naik, 2014).

90 On the other hand, consumption of soy protein-based food products is increasing not
91 only because of its reported beneficial effects on nutrition and health but also due to
92 increased concerns about the safety of animal-derived products and to the relatively
93 high abundance of the raw material, which is a byproduct of the industrial soy oil
94 processing (Friedman & Brandon, 2001; Moure, Sineiro, Domínguez, & Parajó, 2006;
95 Xiao, 2011).

96 Despite the potential applications of SPI and TG in food systems as described above,
97 as far as we know, there has been reported only one study of SPI/TG gelled systems.
98 Monteiro, Rebelo, da Cruz e Silva & Lopes-da-Silva (2013) studied SPI/TG heat-
99 induced gels with microstructures that strongly depended on both biopolymer
100 concentrations. However, under the conditions evaluated, these authors did not obtain
101 colloidal dispersions of protein microgel particles (droplets-like) in a polysaccharide-
102 rich phase.

103 The aim of the present study was to evaluate acid gels formed from SPI/TG aqueous
104 mixtures and to find the conditions in which the W/W emulsions are stabilized by cold-
105 set gelation as a strategy to prevent emulsion destabilization. The results obtained may
106 be useful for further applications of these gelled systems as thickeners, texture
107 modifiers, and coating materials for delivery of bioactive compounds.

108

109 **2. Materials and methods**

110 ***2.1. Materials and sample preparation***

111 The soy protein isolate (SPI) was prepared following the procedures detailed by
112 Sorgentini & Wagner (1999) with some modifications. First, active defatted soy flour

113 without thermal inactivation of anti-nutritional factors (Molinos Río de la Plata,
114 Argentina) was milled and sequentially passed through 590- μ m and 297- μ m sieves.
115 Later, 50 g of this soy flour was added and stirred in 500 mL of distilled water for 2 h,
116 keeping the pH at 8.0 with a 2 mol/L NaOH (Cicarelli, Argentina). The dispersion was
117 centrifuged at 10,400 g for 20 min at 20 °C and the precipitate was discarded. The
118 supernatant was acidified to pH 4.5 with 1 mol/L HCl (Cicarelli, Argentina) causing the
119 precipitation of soy storage proteins. The precipitate was left overnight in contact with
120 the supernatant and then washed with a dilute solution of HCl (pH 4.5) to remove salts.
121 Centrifugation was repeated at 10,400 g for 20 min at 20 °C. The precipitate was
122 solubilized by taking the pH to 8 with 2 N NaOH and freeze-dried. The protein content
123 of SPI was determined according to the Micro Kjeldahl method ($N \times 6.25$) (Nkonge &
124 Ballance, 1982) and resulted to be $(92 \pm 2)\%$.

125 Tara gum (TG) was provided by G&G Suministros (Rosario, Argentina). Rhodamine
126 B and glucono- δ -lactone (GDL) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. (Steinheim,
127 Germany).

128 TG and SPI stock solutions (0.1 g/L and 0.9 g/L, respectively) were prepared by
129 dissolving the corresponding powders in distilled water or buffer phosphate 10 mmol/l
130 pH 7 under magnetic stirring at room temperature. Binary solutions of SPI/TG were
131 prepared by mixing weighted amounts of TG and SPI stock solutions and distilled water
132 or buffer phosphate 10 mmol/L pH 7.0 at 25 °C.

133

134 **2.2. Phase diagram**

135 In order to evaluate the existence of thermodynamic incompatibility between the
136 biopolymers, phase diagrams of mixtures in different proportions of TG and SPI were
137 made, and the visual inspection was carried out after an incubation period (Spyropoulos,

138 Portsch, & Norton, 2010). If one or both biopolymers are highly viscous or form gels,
139 the rate and extent of phase separation can be significantly delayed. Therefore, to avoid
140 misleading interpretations these biopolymer mixtures must be incubated for a relatively
141 longer period than the experimental one to ensure whether phase separation occurs
142 (Stieger & van de Velde, 2013).

143 Binary systems were prepared by mixing stock solutions of SPI, TG, and buffer
144 phosphate 10 mmol/L pH 7 in order to achieve a final concentration of SPI and TG
145 ranging from 0.05 to 0.5 g/L and 0.005 to 0.04 g/L, respectively. The systems were then
146 incubated for 48 h at 25 °C.

147

148 **2.3. SPI acid gelation**

149 As a first step for cold-set gelation, protein denaturation was promoted by heating 0.6
150 g/L SPI stock solution prepared in distilled water at 100°C for 5 min. Immediately after
151 this heat treatment, the dispersion was cooled in an ice-water bath to avoid further
152 protein aggregation and precipitation. Then, SPI and SPI/TG systems were prepared by
153 mixing this heat-treated SPI stock solution, TG stock solution (0.1 g/L), and distilled
154 water in order to achieve a final SPI concentration of 0.3 g/L and a final TG
155 concentration ranging from 0 to 0.05 g/L. As a second and final step, protein acid
156 gelation was induced by the addition of solid GDL. GDL hydrolysis promotes a pH
157 decrease at a rate that depends on the GDL concentration and the temperature (de Kruif,
158 1997). Protein acid gelation at 25 °C was initiated by the addition of solid GDL to SPI
159 solutions in the presence and absence of TG (0-0.05 g/L). The amount of GDL added
160 was enough to achieve a final concentration of 0.15 g/L.

161 In order to study the effect of the presence of TG on the surface charge of heat-
162 treated SPI proteins (100°C, 5 min), the electrokinetic potential (ζ) of SPI and SPI/TG

163 dispersions (0.3 g/L SPI and 0, 0.01, 0.03, 0.05 g/L TG) were determined in a Nano
164 Particle Analyzer Horiba SZ-100 (Kyoto, Japan). Aqueous solutions were filtered
165 through a Minisart® Syringe filter (Sartorius Stedim Biotech GmbH, Goellingen,
166 Germany) with a cut-off of 0.2 μm (Anema & Klostermeyer, 1996).

167

168 **2.4. Gel microstructure analysis**

169 SPI/TG gel microstructure was studied by confocal laser scanning microscopy
170 (CLSM). SPI solutions (0.3 g/L) and SPI/TG solutions (0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, and 0.05
171 g/L/0.3 g/L, respectively) were stained with a small aliquot of Rhodamine B solution
172 (0.05 g/L) in a proportion of 66 μg Rhodamine per g protein. An adequate amount of
173 GDL (0.15 g/L) was added in order to initiate the acid gelation process at 25 °C. 480 μL
174 of Rhodamine B-stained solutions were immediately placed in compartments of LAB-
175 TEK II cells (Thermo Scientific, USA) and incubated at 25 °C until image obtention.
176 Gels were observed with a 20.0 \times objective with a confocal scanning microscope
177 NIKON Eclipse TE-2000-E (Nikon Instruments Inc., Japan). The acquired images
178 (1024 \times 1024 pixel resolution) were stored in tiff format for further analysis.

179 In order to perform a quantitative analysis, pore size histograms were obtained for
180 each system after thresholding operation with Image J software and Bone J plugin
181 (Abràmoff, Magalhães, & Ram, 2004; Doube et al., 2010).

182 In order to obtain the texture parameters of the micrographs, a plugin of the Image J
183 software called "Gray Level Co-occurrence Matrix Texture" (version 0.4) was used.
184 Two texture parameters were analyzed: entropy (E) and homogeneity (H). The E
185 parameter is a measure of the gray histogram variability, whereas the H parameter
186 indicates the distribution of the gray levels within the plane of the image, i.e. H is higher
187 when the image contains fewer transitions of gray tonalities (Haralick, 1982).

188

189 **2.5. Texture profile analysis (TPA)**

190 TPA was performed at room temperature in a universal testing machine Multitest
191 2.5-d (Mecmesin, West Sussex, United Kingdom) coupled to a digital dynamometer (25
192 N load cell) using a cylindrical stainless steel probe (20 mm diameter). Before tests, gels
193 were prepared in cylindrical containers (45 mm diameter and 30 mm height) at 25 °C.
194 Each sample (by fivefold) was penetrated axially in a single cycle of 50% of
195 compression at a constant rate of 1.0 mm/s. From each resulting force-distance curve,
196 two texture parameters were obtained: firmness (FN, N/mm), as the initial slope of the
197 penetration curve, and fracture force (FF, N), as the force at which the material
198 fractures.

199

200 **2.6. Water holding capacity (WHC)**

201 Gel samples of approximately 5 g were centrifuged at 2,265 g for 5 min. Gel samples
202 and the water released were weighted in order to calculate the WHC of the gels as a
203 percentage using the following equation: $WHC (\%) = 100 [(gel\ weight - serum$
204 $weight)/gel\ weight]$.

205

206 **2.7. Statistical analysis**

207 All determinations were performed at least in triplicate and results were expressed as
208 mean \pm standard deviation. The statistical analysis was performed by analysis of
209 variance (ANOVA) and Tukey test with Sigma Plot software (11.0 trial version).
210 Differences were considered statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

211

212 3. Results and discussion

213 3.1. SPI/TG phase diagram

214 Fig. 1 shows the phase diagram corresponding to the mixtures of aqueous solutions
215 of SPI and TG in different proportions. The SPI and polysaccharide concentrations of
216 each binary solution correspond to a single point in the phase diagram. One-phase
217 (miscible) samples were represented by an empty symbol, and a full symbol was
218 assigned to the samples that showed turbidity (gray) or visible phase separation (black).
219 These latter samples showed a segregative phase separation due to thermodynamic
220 incompatibility between SPI proteins and TG, where the lower phase is rich in protein
221 while the upper phase is rich in TG.

222 Fig. 1

223 The compatibility curve was obtained by a mathematical adjustment using an
224 exponential decay function of two parameters, as reported by Spyropoulos et al. (2010):

$$225 \quad C_{\text{SPI}} \text{ (g/L)} = 0.849 \times e^{-65.8 \times C_{\text{TG}} \text{ (g/L)}} \quad (1)$$

226

227 3.2. Protein acid gelation

228 3.2.1. Initial surface charge of SPI proteins

229 Surface potential is an important factor for determining the magnitude of charged-
230 based colloidal interactions of a particle, most crucially electrostatic repulsion of other
231 like charged particles (Malhotra & Coupland, 2004). Thus, the ζ potential of SPI in
232 SPI/TG mixtures may be used as an indicator of the electrostatic stability of SPI
233 proteins and are shown in Table 1.

234 Table 1

235 As expected for proteins with a pI below the isoionic pH, heat-treated SPI solutions
236 prepared in distilled water showed a highly negative potential (Table 1). This negative

237 ζ potential decreased not only in the presence of TG, but also when TG concentration
238 increased from 0.01 to 0.05 g/L. This decrease in the surface charge of SPI particles
239 could weaken the inter-particle electrostatic repulsion, promoting protein aggregation
240 and further aggregate formation (Song, Zhou, Fu, Chen, & Wu, 2013). This
241 phenomenon should be taken into account in order to evaluate the gelling behavior of
242 SPI in SPI/TG mixtures, as discussed below.

243

244 3.2.2. Gel microstructure analysis

245 Fig. 2 shows the digital images obtained by CLSM for SPI acid gels in the presence
246 and absence of TG. Upon Rhodamine B-staining, protein structures appear in red color
247 while the black areas correspond to gel pores and/or the continuous phase of TG.

248

Fig. 2

249 It is important to highlight that the micrographs show remarkable changes in the
250 microstructure, which depend on the TG concentration in the mixture. In the absence of
251 TG (Fig. 2A), SPI gels have a homogenous and compact microstructure with small
252 water-filled pores whose average diameter is $(0.872 \pm 0.005) \mu\text{m}$.

253 On the other hand, several authors have reported protein/polysaccharide mixed gels
254 with stable phase separated microstructures, e.g., coarse stranded, protein continuous,
255 polysaccharide continuous and bicontinuous ones (Beldengrün et al., 2018; Corredig et
256 al., 2011; Hidalgo et al., 2015; Stieger & van de Velde, 2013; van den Berg, van Vliet,
257 van der Linden, van Boekel, & van de Velde, 2007). These gels consist of mixtures of
258 thermodynamically incompatible biopolymers in aqueous solutions, but there are no
259 previous reports of cold-set gels of SPI/TG mixtures.

260 For SPI/TG gels, the microstructures observed depended on the concentration of TG
261 added. In the presence of the lowest TG concentration (Fig. 2 B), the protein network

262 was less interconnected and presented pores with a mean diameter of $(2.9 \pm 0.2) \mu\text{m}$.
263 This value was significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) than the mean diameter obtained for SPI
264 gel systems, i.e., in the absence of TG, as reported above. This microstructure is known
265 as "coarse stranded" since the protein forms a coarse and an isotropic network,
266 uniformly distributed throughout the non-protein phase. When TG was present in 0.02
267 g/L, the protein network showed no connectivity (Fig. 3C). In this type of
268 microstructure, called "bicontinuous gel", the non-protein phase forms continuous
269 channels through the protein phase (van den Berg et al., 2007).

270 SPI/TG acidified systems with TG concentrations of 0.03 g/L or more (Fig. 2D, E,
271 and F) showed droplet-shaped structures of protein phase within the continuous TG
272 phase. Interestingly, these droplet-shaped structures increased their average size with
273 TG concentration: $(15.6 \pm 0.8) \mu\text{m}$, $(16.4 \pm 0.9) \mu\text{m}$, and $(21.959 \pm 0.001) \mu\text{m}$ for TG
274 concentrations of 0.03, 0.04, and 0.05 g/L, respectively. These microstructures would
275 result from the combination of gelation and segregative phase separation processes. The
276 gradual decrease in the colloidal stability of SPI particles due to the decrease in the
277 negative ζ potential when TG concentration increases (Table 1) may also contribute to
278 this behavior.

279 The segregative phase separation process might result from depletion interaction
280 linked to repulsion between soy proteins and TG particles. If we consider each protein
281 colloidal particle as a sphere surrounded by a layer of a certain thickness, inaccessible to
282 the galactomannan's center of mass (depletion layer), when other protein particles
283 approach and overlap their depletion layers, the volume of the solution available for the
284 polysaccharide increases (de Bont, van Kempen, & Vreeker, 2002). This phenomenon
285 causes an increase in the entropy and a consequent decrease in the free energy, which in
286 turn causes an attractive interaction between the protein particles, making droplet-

287 shaped protein inclusions disperse in a continuous phase of TG. Esquena (2016) also
288 considered that this microstructure corresponds to a water-in-water emulsion stabilized
289 due to the formation of gelled states that prevented coalescence. During the gelation
290 process, especially in the presence of high concentrations of a thickening agent like TG,
291 the increase in viscosity causes a decrease in the protein particle movement, and
292 therefore, the phase separation is delayed. In this context, the protein droplets are
293 capable of forming stable colloidal dispersions of microgel particles.

294 In a similar way, Monteiro et al. (2013) also reported the dependence of the heat-
295 induced gels microstructure on TG concentration. These authors observed gels with a
296 dispersed galactomannan phase in a continuous protein phase in SPI/TG mixed systems
297 at similar concentrations of TG but higher SPI concentrations.

298 The texture parameters S and H were also calculated from the digital images, whose
299 values as a function of TG concentration are shown in Fig. 3.

300 Fig. 3

301 SPI/TG gels with a "bicontinuous" microstructure (0.02 g/L TG) and "polysaccharide
302 continuous" microstructure (≥ 0.03 g/L TG) showed maximum values of H and
303 minimum values of E. As explained before, H is inversely related to the number of
304 transitions of gray tonalities and E is maximal for an image containing the full range of
305 grays with equal probability. Therefore, these results agree with the named
306 microstructures, in which the particles are distributed in such a way that there are few
307 gray transitions (high H values) and small gray histogram variability (low E values).
308 Thus, this H-increase and E-decrease indicate that protein particles are located in well-
309 defined sectors. Particularly for the bicontinuous microstructure to the W/W emulsion
310 transition at TG concentrations of 0.02 and 0.03 g/L, respectively, H decreased
311 significantly ($p < 0.05$). This can be related to the evident increase in the number of

312 gray tonalities transitions within the plane of the image obtained from the bicontinuous
313 gel SPI/TG system (Fig. 2C) in comparison with the number of gray tonalities
314 transitions within the plane of the image obtained from the droplet-shaped
315 microstructures of protein phase in the W/W emulsion (Fig. 2D). This transition was
316 accompanied with a significant E-increment ($p < 0.05$), due to an increment in the gray
317 histogram variability. Interestingly, for W/W emulsions, this H-decrease and E-increase
318 changed to an inverted tendency when TG increases from 0.03 to 0.05 g/L (Fig. 2E, 2C,
319 and 2F, respectively). In this case, the H-increment with TG concentration can be
320 related to the increment in the size of the droplet-shaped microstructures of protein
321 phase, and to the lower number of these microstructures in the entire CLSM image.
322 Despite the fact that these changes in these W/W emulsions were less evident for E
323 parameter, E decreased significantly with TG concentration, due to the decrease in the
324 gray histogram variability of the corresponded images.

325

326 3.2.3. *Texture profile analysis*

327 Table 2 summarizes the results obtained from the FN and FF of SPI acid gels in the
328 presence and absence of TG (0, 0.01, 0.03, and 0.05 g/L).

329

Table 2

330 In the absence of TG and in the presence of the lowest galactomannan concentration,
331 there were no significant differences in FF values ($p > 0.05$). However, at higher
332 galactomannan concentrations, the FF could not be obtained from the force-distance
333 curves. On the other hand, the FN of gels decreased significantly when TG
334 concentration increased in SPI/TG gels. These findings indicate that the protein gelation
335 process would be affected by the presence of TG, obtaining weaker gels as TG
336 concentration increases. This behavior can be related to the competition between SPI

337 acid gelation and phase separation processes due to the thermodynamic incompatibility
338 between SPI and TG. In the presence of lowest TG concentration, the relative rate
339 between both processes allows the gel mesh formation but reduces the rearrangement of
340 the protein-protein interactions, leading to a gel with lower firmness than SPI ones. As
341 the concentration of TG increases, the formation of W/W emulsions of soy proteins in
342 the galactomannan continuous phase results in the formation of colloidal dispersions of
343 microgel particles instead of an interconnected protein network, leading to an abrupt
344 decrease in gel firmness and to a significant loss of fracture capacity.

345

346 **3.2.4. Water holding capacity (WHC)**

347 Fig. 4 shows the results of the WHC of SPI gels (0.3 g/L) in the absence and the
348 presence of TG. It is observed that the WHC decreases significantly with the addition of
349 increasing concentrations of TG.

350

Fig. 4

351 As mentioned above, an increment in TG concentration in SPI/TG gels promoted
352 significant changes in the microstructure of the protein gel (Fig. 2). As expected, since
353 the presence of increased quantities of TG promoted a gradual disruption of the protein
354 gel network, the gel matrix showed a gradual loss of its capacity to retain the absorbed
355 water, shown as a gradual loss of WHC (Fig. 4).

356

357 **4. Conclusions**

358 The phase diagram of SPI/TG systems showed a segregative phase separation due to
359 thermodynamic incompatibility between SPI proteins and TG. ζ potential of heat-treated
360 SPI proteins in SPI/TG mixtures revealed an electrostatic stability loss in the presence
361 of TG, which may promote a higher propensity for protein aggregation during the cold-

362 set gelation upon GDL addition. Also, the microstructural analysis showed remarkable
363 changes in the SPI/TG gelled systems, which depended on the TG concentration present
364 in the mixture. These different microstructures may be attributed to a different balance
365 between gelation and segregative phase separation processes. SPI gels showed a
366 homogenous and compact microstructure. When TG was present, the protein network
367 became less and less interconnected when TG concentration increased (coarse-stranded
368 and bicontinuous gels, respectively). For higher TG concentrations, stable W/W
369 emulsions were formed. Interestingly, the protein droplet-shaped structures in these
370 latest colloidal systems increased in their average sizes when TG concentration
371 increased. A quantitative analysis of the micrographs revealed an H-increase and an E-
372 decrease when TG concentration increased. Finally, TPA showed that all these
373 microstructural changes were related to an abrupt decrease in gel firmness, a significant
374 loss of fracture capacity, and also, to a significant decrease in the water holding
375 capacity.

376 The findings of this work may be of interest to the food industry since acid gels of
377 soy proteins with different microstructures can be obtained by varying the concentration
378 of TG. Therefore, novel gelled foods with different textures and sensory characteristics
379 can be developed. On the other hand, this study has revealed a simple method for
380 obtaining stable W/W emulsions based in cold-set gelation of aqueous mixtures of heat-
381 treated SPI dispersions and TG. Thus, these colloidal suspensions of microgel particles
382 obtained may also be used to encapsulate bioactive hydrophilic compounds and/or to
383 stabilize natural dyes, broadening the application of these SPI/TG mixed systems.

384

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392

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507 **Figure captions**

508 **Fig. 1.** Phase diagram of SPI/GT mixtures in buffer phosphate 10 mM pH 7, after 48 h
509 at 25 °C: (●) two-phase samples; (○) one-phase clear solution; (●) one-phase turbid
510 solution.

511 **Fig. 2.** Digital images obtained by CLSM of SPI acid gels without (A) and with
512 different TG concentrations: (B) 0.01 g/L, (C) 0.02 g/L, (D) 0.03 g/L, (E) 0.04 g/L and
513 (F) 0.05 g/L; SPI 0.3 g/L; GDL 0.15 g/L; temperature = 25 °C; objective zoom = 40x.
514 White bars correspond to 100 μm.

515 **Fig. 3.** Textural parameters obtained from the digital images of SPI acid gels in the
516 presence and the absence of TG: Entropy E (A) and Homogeneity H (B). SPI 0.3 g/L;
517 GT 0 - 0.05 g/L, GDL 0.15 g/L; temperature = 25 °C.

518 **Fig. 4.** Water holding capacity (WHC) as a function of TG concentration. SPI 0.3 g/L,
519 GDL 0.15 g/L; temperature = 25 °C.

Table 1. Electrokinetic potential of heat-treated SPI (0.3 g/L) at different TG concentrations.

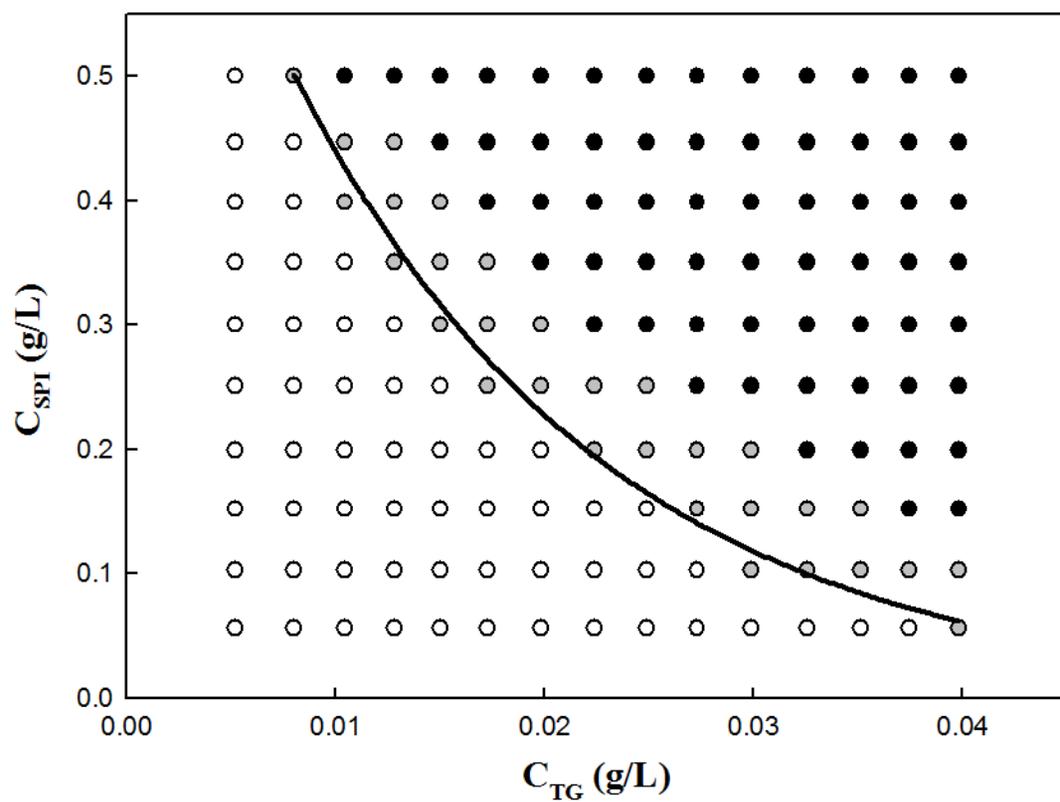
C_{TG} (g/L)	ζ potential (mV)
-	-29.54 ± 2.10 ^a
0.01	-23.98 ± 1.25 ^b
0.02	-20.90 ± 3.49 ^{b,c}
0.03	-17.34 ± 2.36 ^{c,d}
0.04	-14.32 ± 1.69 ^d
0.05	-13.40 ± 0.67 ^d

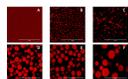
*Mean value ± standard deviation (n=5). Means within the same column following by different letters are significantly different (p < 0.05).

Table 2. Firmness (FN) and Fracture Force (FF) obtained from force (N) vs. distance (mm) curves of 0.3 g/L SPI acid gels and SPI/TG acid gels at different TG concentrations (0.15 g/L GDL).

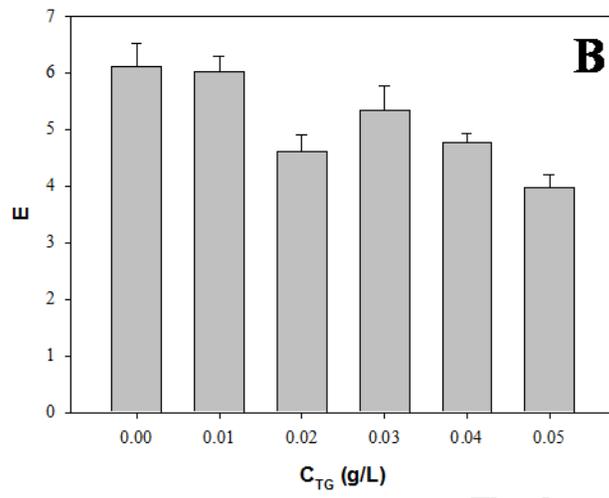
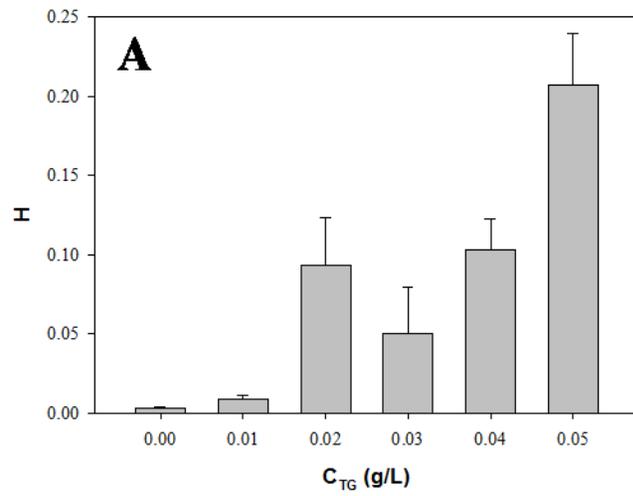
C_{TG} (g/L)	FN (N/mm)	FF (N)
0	$0.8 \pm 0.2^{a,*}$	0.33 ± 0.02^a
0.01	0.09 ± 0.02^b	0.35 ± 0.03^a
0.03	0.04 ± 0.01^c	N/A [†]
0.05	0.0068 ± 0.0001^d	N/A

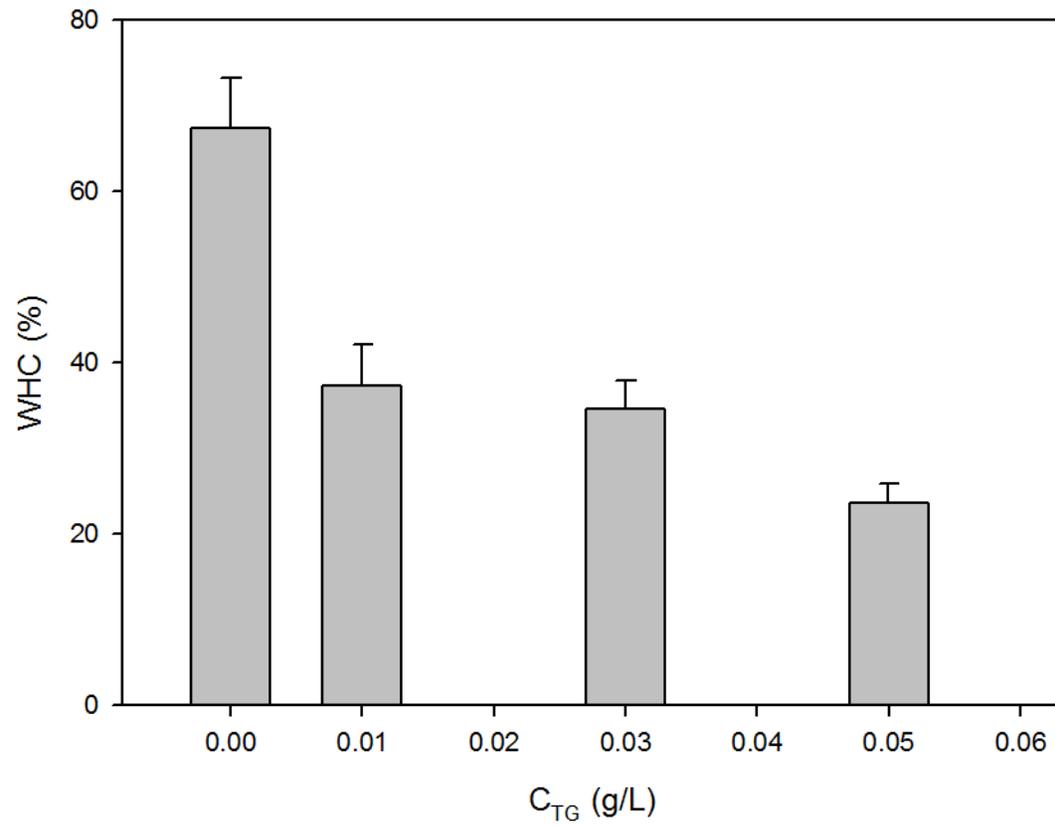
*Mean value \pm standard deviation (n=5). Means within the same column following by different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$). [†]N/A = not applicable.





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- Soy protein isolate/tara gum gels showed substantially different microstructures.
- Different cold-set gel microstructures were related to different texture behavior.
- The gel firmness decrease occurred along with its water holding capacity.
- This study has revealed a simple method for obtaining stable W/W emulsions.

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