

## Journal Pre-proofs

Rice proteins – Gum arabic coacervates: Effect of pH and polysaccharide concentration in oil-in-water emulsion stability

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PII: S0963-9969(24)00469-1

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2024.114399>

Reference: FRIN 114399

To appear in: *Food Research International*

Received Date: 21 January 2024

Revised Date: 17 April 2024

Accepted Date: 20 April 2024

Please cite this article as: Igartúa, D.E., Celeste Dichano, M., Morales Huanca, M.N., Palazolo, G.G., Cabezas, D.M., Rice proteins – Gum arabic coacervates: Effect of pH and polysaccharide concentration in oil-in-water emulsion stability, *Food Research International* (2024), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2024.114399>

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1 **Rice proteins – gum arabic coacervates: Effect of pH and polysaccharide concentration in oil-in-**  
2 **water emulsion stability**

3

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14 **Declarations of interest:** none

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**16 Abstract**

17 In the context of replacing animal proteins in food matrices, rice proteins (RP) become promised because they  
18 come from an abundant plant source, are hypoallergenic, and have high digestibility and nutritional value.  
19 However, commercial protein isolates obtained by spray drying have low solubility and poor functionality,  
20 especially in their isoelectric point. One way to modify these properties is through interaction with  
21 polysaccharides, such as gum arabic (GA). Therefore, this work aims to evaluate the effects of pH and GA  
22 concentration on the interaction and emulsifying activity of RP:GA coacervates. First, the effects of pH (2.5 to 7.0)  
23 and GA concentrations (0.2 to 1.0 wt.%, giving rise to RP:GA mass ratios of 1:0.2 to 1:1.0) in RP:GA blends were  
24 evaluated. The results demonstrated that biopolymers present opposite net charges at pH between 2.5 and 4.0.  
25 At pH 3.0, insoluble coacervates with complete charge neutralization were formed by electrostatic interactions,  
26 while at pH 5.0 it was observed that the presence of GA prevented the RP massive aggregation. Second,  
27 selected blends with 0.4 or 1.0 wt.% of GA (RP:GA mass ratios of 1:0.4 or 1:1.0) at pH 3.0 or 5.0 were tested for  
28 their ability to stabilize oil-in-water emulsions. The emulsions were characterized for 21 days. It was observed that  
29 the GA increased the stability of RP emulsions, regardless of the pH and polysaccharide concentration. Taken  
30 together, our results show that it is possible to combine RP and GA to improve the emulsifying properties of these  
31 plant proteins at pH conditions close to their isoelectric point, expanding the possibility of implementation in food  
32 systems.

33  
34 **Keywords:** Coacervates; plant proteins; natural gum; functional properties; emulsification; acid emulsions.

**36 1. INTRODUCTION**

37 In recent years, attention has been directed to vegetable proteins due to the advantages they bring from the point  
38 of view of human and environmental health, production costs, and functionality. In addition, vegetable proteins are  
39 considered a renewable and sustainable alternative to animal proteins (Nikbakht Nasrabadi et al., 2021). Thus  
40 their incorporation into food responds to a demand for completely vegetable foods by a part of society in constant  
41 growth (Hassoun et al., 2022). In particular, rice proteins (RP) have aroused increasing interest in the food  
42 industry since they are hypoallergenic, and several studies have suggested that RP (in many cases, RP  
43 hydrolysates and specific peptide fractions therefrom) have antioxidant, hypocholesterolemic, and anticancer

44 activities (Amagliani et al., 2017; G. H. Li et al., 2007; Pantoa et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2021). As well, it has been  
45 reported that RP present an essential amino acid composition close to the ideal model recommended by  
46 FAO/WHO (Zheng et al., 2023) and have higher digestibility and biological value than other cereals such as  
47 wheat, corn, and barley (Ghanghas et al., 2022; Han et al., 2015). Therefore, the development of RP isolates and  
48 their use as food ingredients have become a major trend in recent years.

49 RP isolates are composed of albumin (~1%-5%), prolamin (~2%-8%), globulin (~4%-15%), and glutelin (~75%-  
50 80%) fractions (Hoogenkamp et al., 2017). Glutelin is presented as extensively aggregated, disulfide-bonded,  
51 highly hydrophobic, and glycosylated proteins (Takaiwa et al., 1999). Since the global behavior of protein isolates  
52 is largely determined by the behavior of its major protein fraction, RP isolates are highly insoluble and show poor  
53 surface activity properties (Amagliani et al., 2017; Dai et al., 2022). In addition, the spray drying process, which is  
54 used to obtain commercial protein powders, tends to increase aggregation and decrease solubility (Li et al.,  
55 2022). To the best of our knowledge, only a few published works used commercial RP isolates as emulsifying  
56 agents due to these limitations. In particular, the commercial RP isolate utilized in the current work presented  
57 large aggregates (mean diameter:  $19.8 \pm 0.6 \mu\text{m}$ ) with very low solubility ( $2.7 \pm 1.0 \%$ ) at pH 7.0 (Igartúa et al.,  
58 2024). Therefore, improving the solubility of RP is a crucial challenge to fully take advantage of these high-quality  
59 plant proteins. In a previous paper, the potential of pH-shifting, ultrasound, and/or heat treatments performed  
60 alone or in combination to increase RP solubility was studied (Igartúa et al., 2024). The obtained results showed  
61 that the combination of pH-shifting, heat, and ultrasound treatments performed in that order increased the  
62 solubility ( $91.8 \pm 6.4 \%$ ) and induced the formation of less compact and more dispersed protein aggregates. The  
63 modified RP were able to form oil-in-water (O/W) emulsions with smaller particle size and enhanced stability at pH  
64 7.0 than the untreated RP (Igartúa et al., 2024). However, the ability of these modified RP derivatives to stabilize  
65 O/W emulsions under acidic pH conditions has not been studied yet. It is expected that proteins exhibit poor  
66 emulsifying properties at acid pH due to the proximity of their isoelectric point. One strategy to overcome these  
67 limitations is combine the proteins with polysaccharides to increase the electrostatic and steric repulsions  
68 between the droplet surfaces (Zang et al., 2019). The hypothesis of the present work is that the combination of  
69 modified rice protein with gum arabic can increase the O/W emulsifying activity of rice proteins in acid pH-  
70 conditions.

71 Gum arabic (GA) is an exudate of *Acacia Senegal* and *Acacia Seyal* trees that is composed of a mixture of highly-  
72 branched arabinogalactan-type polysaccharides, with an average molecular weight range of 260–1160 kDa, and  
73 less than 2 wt.% of proteins (Dror et al., 2006). The serine and threonine residues of these proteins are covalently  
74 bound to carbohydrates. GA is negatively charged at pH values above 2.2, due to the carboxylic groups on its  
75 glucuronic acid residues (Zang et al., 2019), and is highly soluble in water but does not significantly increase the  
76 viscosity up to 50 wt.% concentration (X. Liu et al., 2023).

77 Particularly, this work aims to evaluate the effects of pH and polysaccharide concentration on the RP:GA blend  
78 behavior and emulsifying ability. In this sense, derivatives of commercial rice protein isolates -obtained by a  
79 combination of pH-shifting, heating, and ultrasound treatments- are combined with GA to obtain coacervates and  
80 said coacervates are employed as emulsifying agents at acidic pH conditions.

81

## 82 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 83 **2.1. Materials**

84 The rice protein (RP) isolate was donated by Grupo Saporiti S.A. (Buenos Aires, Argentina). According to the  
85 supplier, the isolate was obtained from *Oryza sativa*, and solid powder was obtained by spray drying. Also, the  
86 powder was composed of 83.6 wt.% of protein (N×6.25), 6.3 wt.% of carbohydrate, 6.1 wt.% of fat, 1.5 wt.% of  
87 ash, and 2.3 wt.% of moisture. The crude protein concentration was confirmed by the Kjeldahl method, using the  
88 same nitrogen-to-protein conversion factor. The gum arabic (GA, CAS 9000-01-5) was purchased to Biopack  
89 (Buenos Aires, Argentina). According to the supplier's datasheet, the GA powder presented 83.7% purity, with 4.2  
90 wt.% of ash, and 12.1 wt.% of moisture. Both RP and GA powders were used without further purification. The  
91 bovine serum albumin (BSA, CAS 9048-46-8, purity > 99.0%, fatty-acid free), bichoninic acid (BCA, 2,2'-  
92 Biquinolone-4,4'-dicarboxylic acid disodium salt, CAS 979-88-4), and sodium azide (CAS 26628-22-8) were  
93 obtained from Sigma Aldrich (Missouri, USA). The PRODAN fluorescent probe (*N,N*-Dimethyl-6-propionyl-2-  
94 naphthylamine, CAS 70504-01-7) was provided by Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Texas, USA). Refined sunflower oil  
95 was purchased from a local supermarket (Molino Cañuelas, Buenos Aires, Argentina). All the other chemicals  
96 were of analytical grade and purchased from local distributors (Buenos Aires, Argentina). All pH determinations  
97 were done using a C861 Consort pH/mV meter with a PY-P10-25 Sartorius electrode (resolution ±0.01),  
98 calibrated daily before use. Weight determinations were performed using a calibrated Ohaus® Pioneer® PA214

99 analytical balance (resolution  $\pm 0.0001$  g). Finally, dilutions were performed using calibrated Gilson® automatic  
100 pipettes.

## 101 **2.2 RP modification and dispersion**

102 Commercial protein isolates obtained by spray drying tend to be difficult to disperse since large protein  
103 aggregates are formed during drying. Hence, to obtain a dispersion of rice proteins (RP), a combination of pH-  
104 shifting, heat, and ultrasound treatments was performed according to Igartúa et al. (2024). Briefly, 2.50 g of the  
105 RP isolate was weighted, and deionized water was added to obtain 95.00 g of dispersion. The pH was adjusted to  
106 12.0 by adding NaOH 1 M, and the dispersion was mixed for 1 h at room temperature ( $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ ). Then, the  
107 dispersions (95.00 g in a glass beaker with 6.5 cm of diameter) were placed in a hot-water bath until it reached  
108  $90^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min, followed by placing the samples in an ice-water bath to cold them. After that, the dispersions  
109 (95.00 g in a glass beaker with 6.5 cm of diameter) were sonicated for 5 min with a 30/30 sec on/off cycle and  
110 100% amplitude using a Sonics Vibra Cell VCX750 ultrasound homogenizer (Sonics & Materials, Inc.; USA) with  
111 the 28 mm diameter tip immersed 1/3 in a beaker. The temperature increase during sonication was avoided by  
112 putting the beaker in an ice-water bath. Next, the pH of the dispersions was adjusted to 7.0 by adding HCl 1 M.  
113 Finally, the necessary quantity of deionized water was added to obtain 100.00 g of dispersions (2.50 wt.%  
114 modified RP dispersion), followed by overnight standing for full hydration. For storage, sodium azide at 0.02 wt.%  
115 was added to prevent microbial growth. The RP dispersion was stored at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  protected from light until use.

## 116 **2.3 GA dispersion**

117 To prepare GA dispersion, 4.00 g of GA solid powder was weighted, and deionized water was added to obtain  
118 100.00 g of dispersion. The dispersion was mixed at room temperature ( $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ ) until complete dissolution. For  
119 storage, sodium azide at 0.02 wt.% was added. The GA dispersion was stored at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  until use.

## 120 **2.4 Preparation and characterization of RP:GA blends**

### 121 **2.4.1 Preparation of RP:GA blends**

122 RP:GA blends were obtained by weighing appropriate proportions of RP and GA dispersions, adjusting the pH  
123 from 7.0 to 2.5 -every 0.5 pH-units- using 1 M HCl solution, and mixing for 1 h at room temperature. The  
124 evaluated RP:GA mass ratios were 1:0.2, 1:0.4, 1:0.6, 1:0.8, and 1:1.0. In all the blends, the RP final  
125 concentration was maintained at 1.0 wt.%, and the GA concentration was varied from 0.2 to 1.0 wt.%, for every

126 0.2 concentration-units. Therefore, the total biopolymer concentration in RP:GA blends varied from 1.2 to 2.0  
127 wt.%. Individual RP and GA dispersions at 1.0 wt.% were used as control samples.

#### 128 **2.4.2 $\zeta$ -potential**

129 The  $\zeta$ -potential determinations were performed at room temperature ( $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ ) using a Zetasizer Nano ZSP ZEN  
130 5600 analyzer (Malvern Instruments, UK). The  $\zeta$ -potential was measured in RP and GA control dispersions at pH  
131 values from 7.0 to 2.5, every 0.5 pH-units, and in RP:GA blends at pH 7.0, 5.0, and 3.0. To avoid multiple light  
132 scattering effects, samples were diluted tenfold (1/10 v/v) with deionized water previously adjusted at each pH.  
133 The refractive index values were 1.33 for the dispersant and 1.54 for RP, GA, and RP:GA blends. For elucidation  
134 of the type and the magnitude of the interactions as a function of pH, the strength of electrostatic interaction (SEI)  
135 between RP and GA was calculated as the multiplication of  $\zeta$ -potential values of individual biopolymer at each  
136 specific pH, according to Equation (1):

$$137 \text{SEI (mV}^2\text{)} = \zeta \text{ potential}_{\text{RP}} \text{ (mV)} \times \zeta \text{ potential}_{\text{GA}} \text{ (mV)} \quad (1)$$

138 Negative SEI values indicate attractive forces between biopolymer molecules, while positive SEI values indicate  
139 repulsive forces between them (J. Liu et al., 2021).

#### 140 **2.4.3 Protein solubility**

141 The protein solubility was measured in RP control and RP:GA blends at pH values from 7.0 to 2.5, every 0.5 pH  
142 unit. For determination, samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 7200g and  $20^\circ\text{C}$  using a Hermle Z 200 A  
143 centrifuge (LaborTechnik, Germany), and the supernatants were collected. The protein concentrations in  
144 supernatants were determined using the bicinchoninic acid (BCA) method first described by Smith et al. (1985)  
145 with minor modifications (Igartúa et al., 2024). On the day of the experiment, 50 parts of reagent A (BCA 11.0  
146 wv%,  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  2.0 wv%, NaOH 0.4 wv%, sodium tartrate 0.16 wv %, and  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  0.95 wv %, pH 11.25) were  
147 mixed with 1 part of reagent B ( $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  4.0 wv%) to obtain reagent C. Then, 25  $\mu\text{L}$  of each supernatant was  
148 mixed with 200  $\mu\text{L}$  of reagent C in each well of a 96-well plate. These mixtures were incubated at room  
149 temperature for 20 min and then the absorbance at 562 nm was determined using the Cytation 5 microplate  
150 reader (BioTek Instruments Inc., USA). The protein concentration was determined by comparison with a standard  
151 calibration curve performed with bovine serum albumin (BSA) in deionized water, which exhibited linearity from  
152 0.025 to 2.0 mg/mL ( $R^2=0.999$ ). The protein solubility was calculated as the ratio between the protein

153 concentration in the supernatant after centrifugation with respect to the initial protein concentration in samples  
154 before centrifugation.

#### 155 **2.4.4 Visual appearance and construction of Phase Diagram**

156 The appearance of RP and GA controls and RP:GA blends at pH-values from 7.0 to 2.5 was recorded after 24 h  
157 of standing at room temperature. All images were taken using the same digital camera under the same  
158 background. Then, the samples were classified into four groups based on the turbidity of the suspension and the  
159 presence of precipitate as translucent suspension, precipitate with translucent suspension, precipitate with cloudy  
160 suspension, or precipitate with very cloudy suspension.

#### 161 **2.4.5 Protein surface hydrophobicity**

162 The protein surface hydrophobicity was determined in freshly prepared RP and RP:GA blends at pH 7.0, 5.0, and  
163 3.0 using the PRODAN probe according to a previously reported method (Alizadeh-Pasdar & Li-Chan, 2000) with  
164 minor modifications (Igartúa et al., 2022). A 1.4 mM PRODAN stock solution in methanol was prepared and  
165 stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  in brown screw-capped vials. On each experimental day, PRODAN was diluted to 0.07 mM in  
166 methanol (1/20 v/v) and held on ice until use. For RP and RP:GA blends, adequate agitation was carried out  
167 before taking the samples. These samples were serially diluted in deionized water to obtain protein  
168 concentrations ranging from 0.2 to 0.00625 wt.%. Later, each dilution was placed at 200  $\mu\text{L}$ /well in a black 96-well  
169 plate (Greiner Bio-one, USA). The fluorescence emission in each well was determined using a multi-mode plate  
170 reader Cytation 5 (BioTek Instruments, USA). The excitation wavelength was  $365 \pm 9$  nm, while the emission  
171 wavelength was  $465 \pm 20$  nm. Then, the diluted PRODAN was placed at 20  $\mu\text{l}$ /well, and the plate was agitated for  
172 10 min in darkness. The fluorescence emission after PRODAN incorporation was determined as previously  
173 described. The difference between the fluorescence emission intensity after and before PRODAN incorporation  
174 was plotted against the protein concentration. The slope was determined by linear regression analysis and used  
175 as an index for protein surface hydrophobicity.

#### 176 **2.4.6 Particle size distribution**

177 The particle size distributions of freshly prepared RP and RP:GA blends at pH 7.0, 5.0, and 3.0 were determined  
178 by static light scattering using a Mastersizer 2000E analyzer associated with a Hydro 2000MU wet dispersion unit  
179 (Malvern Instruments Ltd., UK). The pump speed in the dispersion unit was set at 2000 rpm. The refractive index  
180 values were set at 1.33 and 1.54 for the dispersant and biopolymers (RP or RP:GA blends), respectively. In



181 addition to particle size distributions, the volume- and surface-weighted average diameters ( $d_{43}$  and  $d_{32}$ ,  
182 respectively) were analyzed since the first is more sensitive to the presence of large particles while the second is  
183 more sensitive to the presence of small particles (McClements, 2004).

#### 184 **2.4.7 Fluorescence microscopy**

185 The RP and RP:GA blends at pH 7.0, 5.0, and 3.0 were observed using the fluorescence microscope Cytation 5  
186 (BioTek Instruments Inc., USA) after staining with rhodamine B. The samples for visualization were taken after  
187 proper shaking of freshly prepared dispersions. For staining, 10  $\mu$ L of ethanolic rhodamine B solution (0.05 wt.%)  
188 was added to 1 mL of each sample. Then, the stained dispersions were put in a glass slide and covered with a  
189 coverslip for observation at 200 X magnification (20 X ocular magnification plus 10 X digital detector  
190 magnification).

### 191 **2.5 Preparation and characterization of RP:GA coacervates stabilized emulsions**

#### 192 **2.5.1 Preparation of O/W emulsions**

193 Based on the results obtained with the previously described methods (Section 2.4), the RP:GA coacervates with  
194 1:0.4 and 1:1.0 mass ratios at pH 5.0 and 3.0 were selected to evaluate their emulsification properties. A two-step  
195 homogenization process was used to prepare the O/W emulsions following the methodology described by  
196 Cabezas et al. (2019). In short, pre-emulsions were obtained by mixing 90.00 g of each sample with 10.00 g of  
197 refined sunflower oil at 20000 rpm for 2 min in a plastic beaker with a 4.0 cm diameter using an Ultraturrax T25  
198 homogenizer with an S25N-8G dispersion tool (IKA Labortechnik, Germany). Then, the pre-emulsions were  
199 sonicated for 2 min (20/20 sec on/off cycle, 70% amplitude) using a Sonics Vibra Cell VCX750 ultrasound  
200 homogenizer (Sonics & Materials, Inc.; USA), with the 28 mm diameter tip immersed 1/3 in the plastic beaker.  
201 The temperature increase during sonication was avoided by putting the beaker in an ice-water bath.

#### 202 **2.5.2 Particle size distribution**

203 The particle size distributions of emulsions were determined using a Mastersizer 2000E analyzer associated with  
204 a Hydro 2000MU wet dispersion unit (Malvern Instruments Ltd., UK). For measurements, emulsions were  
205 previously diluted (1:4 v/v) with deionized water or SDS 1.0 wt.% solution. SDS is used as a deflocculating agent  
206 (Zhi et al., 2022). The pump speed in the dispersion unit was set at 2000 rpm. The refractive index values for the  
207 oil droplets and dispersant were set at 1.47 and 1.33, respectively;  $d_{43}$  was used to express the particle size. For

208 storage stability, the emulsions were placed in sealed plastic tubes and statically stored at 4°C for 21 days. The  
209 particle sizes without and with SDS were determined on days 1 and 21 post-production.

### 210 **2.5.3 Conventional microscopy**

211 The emulsions were observed by conventional optical microscopy using a microscope Cytation 5 (BioTek  
212 Instruments, Inc., USA). For this, emulsions on days 1 and 21 were diluted (1:4 v/v) with deionized water or SDS  
213 1.0 wt% solution, and 10 µL of each dilution was put in a glass slide and covered with a coverslip for observation  
214 at 200 X magnification (20 X ocular magnification plus 10 X digital detector magnification).

### 215 **2.5.4 Visual appearance**

216 The appearance of emulsions without dilution placed in cylindrical glass tubes was recorded by taking images  
217 during quiescent storage. The images were taken using the same digital camera under the same background.

### 218 **2.5.5 Physical stability**

219 The physical stability of emulsions was monitored using a Turbiscan Lab® analyzer (Formulacion, France),  
220 according to the multiple light scattering theory. For this, emulsions without dilution were placed in cylindrical  
221 glass tubes, and transmission (%T) and backscattering (%BS) profiles were determined throughout the samples  
222 up to day 21 of quiescent storage at 4°C (Shang et al., 2021).

## 223 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

224 All the preparations and characterization assays were conducted at least in triplicate. The acquired data were  
225 grafted and statistically analyzed using the Graph Pad Prism v8.0 software. The results were expressed as  
226 average ± standard deviation. In graphs, different letters were used to represent significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ )  
227 according to One-way or Two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons post-test.

228

## 229 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### 230 **3.1 Characterization of RP:GA blends**

#### 231 **3.1.1 Effect of pH**

232 In protein-polysaccharide blends, different phase behaviors can be observed depending on biopolymers'  
233 characteristics, environmental conditions, protein:polysaccharide mixing ratio, and total biopolymer concentration  
234 (Carpentier et al., 2021). Complex coacervation can occur when biopolymers present opposite net charges and  
235 undergo the physicochemical mechanism of associative separation (Lan et al., 2020b). First, to understand the

236 driving force for complex coacervation, the  $\zeta$ -potentials of RP and GA control dispersions at pH values between  
237 7.0 and 2.5 were determined and the strength of electrostatic interaction (SEI) was calculated (Fig. 1A). Then,  
238 RP, GA, and RP:GA blends in a wide range of pH conditions (7.0 to 2.5) and RP:GA mixing ratios (1:0.2 to 1:1.0)  
239 were analyzed by protein solubility (Fig. 1B), phase diagram (Fig. 1C), and visual appearance (Fig. 1D).

240

### Figure 1

241 The RP control presented  $\zeta$ -potential varying between  $+27.3 \pm 1.3$  mV at pH 2.5 and  $-29.5 \pm 0.8$  mV at pH 7.0,  
242 with the isoelectric point close to 4.0 (Fig. 1A). In addition to changes in  $\zeta$ -potential values, a reduction in protein  
243 solubility (Fig. 1B) and phase separation by precipitation (Figs. 1C and 1D) were observed at pH ranging from 5.5  
244 to 3.5. These results are justified by the lack of electrostatic repulsion between protein particles at pH close to  
245 isoelectric point which leads to extensive protein aggregation.

246 The GA control presented negative  $\zeta$ -potentials in the entire pH range, varying between  $-11.0 \pm 0.4$  mV at pH 2.5  
247 and  $-28.3 \pm 1.3$  mV at pH 7.0 (Fig. 1A). This result agrees with those previously reported by Luo et al. (2021) and  
248 Chen et al. (2023). Also, the presence of glucuronic acid as a main sugar of this polysaccharide justified the  
249 obtained results. The GA formed stable and translucent dispersions throughout the studied pH range (Figs. 1C  
250 and 1D).

251 From the RP and GA  $\zeta$ -potentials, the SEI values were calculated (Fig. 1A). According to these results, RP and  
252 GA presented attractive interactions at pH < 4.0. However, the best neutralization condition was observed at pH  
253 3.0, where RP and GA presented  $+18.8 \pm 0.8$  mV and  $-13.2 \pm 0.5$  mV, respectively. Similar results were  
254 previously reported for the interaction of purified rice glutelin with GA (Luo et al., 2021).

255 The RP:GA blends presented different protein solubility and phase behavior depending on the pH and RP:GA  
256 mixing ratio (Figs. 1B, 1C, and 1D). At pH 7.0 and 6.5, RP:GA blends formed turbid dispersions with similar  
257 protein solubility to RP. At pH 6.0, RP:GA blends showed precipitation with turbid suspensions, but the turbidity of  
258 these suspensions was reduced as the GA concentration increased from 0.2 to 1.0 wt.% (Fig. 1C). Also, the  
259 protein solubility was significantly reduced as the GA concentration increased. Although both RP and GA  
260 displayed a net negative charge at pH 6.0 (Fig. 1A), proteins and protein aggregates may begin to display  
261 positively charged patches on their surface as pH approaches the isoelectric point, allowing interaction with  
262 negatively charged polysaccharides. The incipient interaction of RP and GA may explain the precipitation of the  
263 proteins and their low solubility at this pH condition. In this sense, the existence of positively charged patches on

264 the protein surface is more important than the total net charge for complex coacervation (Salminen et al., 2022).  
265 At pH from 5.5 to 3.5, RP:GA blends showed precipitation with translucent suspensions, as RP control. On the  
266 one hand, the lowest GA concentrations (0.2 and 0.4 wt.%) significantly increased the protein solubility with  
267 respect to RP. These results reveal the interaction of RP and GA at pH conditions even higher than pI. This  
268 interaction managed to increase the protein solubility possibly due to the formation of soluble complexes. On the  
269 other hand, the highest GA concentrations (0.6, 0.8, and 1.0 wt.%) did not modify the protein solubility with  
270 respect to RP. However, as the concentration of GA in the supernatant was not determined, it is not possible to  
271 confirm at this point whether the precipitate is formed by proteins alone or by RP:GA insoluble complexes  
272 (coacervates). Similar results were reported by Hasanvand and Rafe (2018) for rice bran protein–flaxseed gum  
273 blends with different gum concentrations. Finally, at pH 3.0 and 2.5, RP:GA blends showed precipitation with  
274 translucent suspensions instead of turbid suspensions as was observed for RP (Fig. 1C). Also, as GA  
275 concentration increased from 0.2 to 1.0 wt.%, the protein solubility was significantly reduced with respect to RP  
276 (Fig. 1B). This result confirms the formation of RP:GA complex coacervates at pH conditions below the protein  
277 isoelectric point. In addition, these results agree with the fact that, at pH 3.0, charge neutralization occurs  
278 between the biopolymers (Fig. 1A). In agreement, a molecular docking study performed by Luo et al. (2021)  
279 revealed that hydrogen bonding, hydrophobic interaction, and electrostatic interactions were the main force  
280 driving the non-modified rice glutelin and GA complex coacervation at this pH-condition. Finally, the greater  
281 turbidity for the mixtures at pH 2.5 compared to pH 3.0 can be explained by the protonation of the carboxyl groups  
282 in the polysaccharide at pH values close to pKa, which results in the reduction of negative charges. The latter also  
283 leads to a decrease in the coacervation capacity due to the loss of attractive electrostatic forces between the  
284 biopolymers (Salminen et al., 2022).

285 Based on the results obtained so far, it was decided to continue working with RP, GA, and RP:GA blends at  
286 certain pH values. Firstly, pH 7.0 was selected as a pH value where RP and GA presented great electrostatic  
287 repulsion (highest SEI, Fig. 1A) and the protein solubility and phase behavior of RP were not affected by the  
288 presence of GA (Figs. 1B, 1C, and 1D). Second, pH 5.0 was selected as a pH value close to protein isoelectric  
289 point where GA might interact with positively charged patches of the RP aggregates surface although they both  
290 presented negative net charge (Fig. 1A). Third, pH 3.0 was selected since it corresponds to the pH value where

291 biopolymers present opposite net charges and occur the charge neutralization (Fig. 1A). In addition, at pH 3.0,  
292 differences in protein solubility were observed as a function of the RP:GA mass ratio (Fig. 1B).

293

### 294 **3.1.2 Effect of RP:GA mass ratio**

295 The RP, GA, and RP:GA blends at pH 7.0, 5.0, and 3.0 were further characterized by studying their  $\zeta$ -potentials  
296 (Fig. 2A), protein surface hydrophobicity (Fig. 2B), volume-based and surface-based particle size distributions  
297 (Figs. 2C and 2D, respectively), and volume- and surface-weighted average diameters ( $d_{43}$  and  $d_{32}$ , Figs. 2E  
298 and 2F, respectively). Also, the aggregation state was observed by fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 3).

299

#### **Figure 2**

300

#### **Figure 3**

301 According to  $\zeta$ -potentials (Fig. 2A), RP control was negatively charged at pH 7.0 and 5.0, and positively charged  
302 at pH 3.0. Otherwise, GA control was negatively charged at all pH conditions, but the  $\zeta$ -potential modules  
303 significantly decreased as the pH reduced. At pH 7.0 and 5.0, all RP:GA blends presented negative  $\zeta$ -potential  
304 values as RP and GA controls. At pH 3.0, RP and GA opposite charges allow the biopolymer electrostatic  
305 attraction and complex coacervation, forming RP:GA coacervates with intermediate  $\zeta$ -potential. The  $\zeta$ -potential  
306 values of RP:GA blends became more positive as the GA concentration reduced (from 1.0 to 0.2 wt.%) since a  
307 lesser amount of negatively charged polysaccharide chains were available to neutralize positively charged  
308 proteins. The RP:GA blends with 0.4 and 0.6 wt.% of GA presented the  $\zeta$ -potential values closest to zero, i.e.,  
309 achieve the best neutralization mass-ratio conditions. Similar trends were reported by Lan et al. (2020a) for pea  
310 proteins-sugar beet pectin interaction in different mixing ratios.

311 Concerning the protein surface hydrophobicity (Fig. 2B), an increase from pH 7.0 to 5.0 and a reduction from pH  
312 5.0 to 3.0 were observed for RP control. These results could be explained by the changes in the  $\zeta$ -potential values  
313 as the pH moved close (to pH 5.0) and then away (to pH 3.0) from the protein isoelectric point. At pH 5.0, the  $\zeta$ -  
314 potential module of RP was lower than in the other conditions. In this situation, the proteins present minor  
315 repulsion, which allows the formation of large protein aggregates (as will be discussed in the particle size results).  
316 These protein aggregates can present surfaces with greater hydrophobicity than proteins under pH conditions far  
317 from the isoelectric point. On their part, the RP:GA blends presented surface hydrophobicity values similar to RP  
318 in all the pH conditions. At pH 3.0, where electrostatic binding between RP and GA is confirmed, the reported

319 values for blends were statistically identical to those obtained for RP, indicating that electrostatic interactions do  
320 not affect the surface hydrophobicity of proteins. Only the samples with a RP:GA 1:0.4 ratio presented a  
321 significant increase or a significant decrease in surface hydrophobicity values respect to RP at pH 5.0 or pH 7.0,  
322 respectively. However, this sample did not present significant differences concerning the other RP:GA blends,  
323 demonstrating that the RP:GA ratio does not modify the surface hydrophobicity of proteins.

324 Regarding the particle size characterization, both RP and RP:GA blends had lower  $d_{43}$  and  $d_{32}$  diameters at pH  
325 7.0 than at pH 5.0 and 3.0 (Figs. 2E and 2F). In agreement, the micrographs (Fig. 3) showed that proteins and  
326 protein aggregates are smaller at this pH condition. At pH 7.0, the volume-based particle size distributions  
327 showed the presence of two populations with similar volume-fraction (Fig. 2C), while the surface-based particle  
328 size distributions showed that the main population is the smaller one (Fig. 2D). These results were consistent with  
329 the micrographs (Fig. 3) and the protein solubility (Fig. 1B) results. At pH 5.0, RP formed large protein aggregates  
330 that can be visualized in micrographs (Fig. 3). The latter results can be explained by the proximity between pH  
331 and protein isoelectric point, which induced less superficial charge and more hydrophobicity in RP (Figs. 2A and  
332 2B) leading to extensive protein aggregation and reduction of protein solubility (Fig. 1B). At pH 5.0, the  $d_{43}$  and  
333  $d_{32}$  of RP:GA blends was reduced as the GA concentration increased from 0.2 to 1.0 wt.% (Figs. 2E and 2F),  
334 showing that the presence of GA decreased the RP aggregation process. So, even at a pH higher than the  
335 protein isoelectric point, the proteins-polysaccharides interactions gave rise to the formation of smaller and more  
336 dispersed coacervates than protein aggregates alone. Similarly, Salminen et al. (2022) reported that apple pectin  
337 interacted with pea proteins and formed particles with  $d_{43}$  between 25 and 81  $\mu\text{m}$  depending on protein:pectin  
338 ratio; the increase in pectin concentration allowed the formation of complexes with reduced size. Finally, at pH  
339 3.0, RP presented smaller aggregates compared to pH 5.0, but larger than at pH 7.0 (Fig. 3). In addition, the  
340 presence of GA in the RP:GA blends gave rise to lower values of  $d_{43}$  and  $d_{32}$  than those obtained for RP (Figs.  
341 2E and 2F). Also, the RP:GA particles showed narrowed surface-based particle size distributions than the RP  
342 control (Fig. 2D). These results agree with the observation of more compact and uniform protein aggregates and  
343 protein-gum coacervates (Fig. 3).

344 Based on the obtained results, it was decided to continue working with blends with 1:0.4 and 1:1.0 RP:GA mixing  
345 ratios. The sample with 0.4 wt.% GA was selected since presented neutralization of charge at pH 3.0 (Fig. 2A)  
346 and higher surface hydrophobicity at pH 5.0 (Fig. 2B). The sample with 1.0 wt.% GA was selected because

347 presented a significant reduction of protein solubility at pH 3.0 (Fig. 1B) and the lowest particle sizes at pH 5.0  
348 (Fig. 2C).

349

### 350 **3.2 Characterization of RP and RP:GA stabilized emulsions**

351 Proteins are commonly used as food emulsifiers due to their ability to adsorb at the oil-water interface and form  
352 interfacial films (McClements, 2004). However, protein emulsifying properties could be affected by the protein  
353 aggregation state, which also depends on the pH condition (Xu et al., 2016). Particularly, protein aggregates  
354 (protein particles) can produce Pickering emulsions driven by the adsorption and high deformation resistance of  
355 colloidal particles at the oil-water interface (Niroula et al., 2021; Tavasoli et al., 2022). Hence, the RP and RP:GA  
356 coacervates emulsifying ability at pH 5.0 and 3.0 was studied. The O/W emulsions were macroscopically (Fig. 4)  
357 and microscopically (Fig. 5) observed up to day 21 post-preparation. Moreover, the d43 was characterized without  
358 and with the addition of SDS (Fig. 6), which acts as a deflocculating agent displacing the proteins from the droplet  
359 surface (Guldiken et al., 2023). Finally, the physical stability of emulsions without dilution was studied by their  
360 backscattering (%BS) profiles (Fig. 7) for 21 days.

361

**Figure 4**

362

**Figure 5**

363

**Figure 6**

364

**Figure 7**

365 The GA emulsions, regardless of the pH condition, presented rapid separation into oil and aqueous phases (oiling  
366 off), as can be observed macroscopically from day 1 post-preparation (Fig. 4) and in micrographs (Fig. 5).

367 Therefore, the results of particle size and physical stability for GA emulsions are not presented.

368 The RP emulsions at both pH conditions did not undergo oiling-off for at least 21 days of storage. In addition, the  
369 RP emulsions did not show a tendency to coalesce, as can be deduced from comparing their d43 at days 1 and  
370 21 of storage (Fig. 6). As explained in section 3.1.2, RP dispersions presented soluble proteins and protein  
371 aggregates of various sizes. While soluble proteins could stabilize the oil-water interface by adsorption and  
372 unfolding, forming a film stable to coalescence, protein particles could stabilize the interface by Pickering-type  
373 phenomena, which also provide resistance to coalescence. Altogether, the results demonstrate that the proteins  
374 and protein aggregates present in the RP dispersions allowed the formation and stabilization of oil droplets for at



375 least 21 days of storage. Still, the RP emulsions presented flocculation, which can be deduced by comparing d43  
376 without and with SDS (Fig. 6) and examining the micrographs (Fig. 5). Also, the RP emulsions suffered creaming,  
377 as can be seen in their visual appearance (Fig. 4) and the %BS profiles (Fig. 7). The RP emulsions at pH 5.0  
378 showed a quick separation of a cream layer, presenting an increment of %BS at the middle and upper zones of  
379 the tube and a reduction of %BS at the bottom zone. The rapid separation of a cream phase is justified since the  
380 highest d43 of flocs (without SDS, Fig.6A) and individual droplets (with SDS, Fig. 6B) were obtained at this pH  
381 condition. At pH 5.0, the electrostatic repulsion between the droplets may not be sufficiently large to overcome  
382 attractive interactions, such as van der Waals and hydrophobic attraction (Zang et al., 2019). The RP emulsions  
383 at pH 3.0 also presented creaming, but the serum layer remained turbid, presenting droplets and flocs. This result  
384 could be explained by the lower sizes of both flocs and individual droplets with respect to the observed at pH 5  
385 (Figs. 5 and 6). Similar results were obtained by Xu et al. (2017) for emulsions stabilized with hydrolyzed rice  
386 glutelin, which presented flocculation and creaming due to the aggregation of droplets near their isoelectric point.  
387 Altogether, these results demonstrate the difficulty of including rice proteins in acid emulsions.

388 The RP:GA emulsions did not suffer oiling off or coalescence for at least 21 days of storage, as can be observed  
389 macroscopically (Fig. 4) and by comparing their d43 through storage time (Fig. 6). Again, the RP:GA dispersions  
390 presented soluble proteins, protein aggregates, and principally protein-polysaccharide coacervates (RP:GA  
391 particles) of various sizes. So, in RP:GA emulsions, the oil-water interface could be stabilized by both soluble  
392 proteins and aggregates, producing droplets that do not undergo coalescence for at least 21 days of storage.  
393 However, these emulsions presented flocculation, which can be deduced by comparing the d43 with and without  
394 SDS (Fig. 6) and observing in the micrograph (Fig. 5). Notably, RP:GA emulsions had higher creaming stability  
395 than RP emulsions at both pH condition. These results were highlighted through the visual appearance (Fig. 4)  
396 and the %BS profiles (Fig. 7). In RP:GA emulsions the separation of a cream phase was significantly slower (Fig.  
397 7), and the volume of serum obtained was lower than in RP emulsions at both pH conditions (Figs. 4 and 7). On  
398 the one hand, at pH 5.0, the increased stability obtained by using RP:GA coacervates could be explained since  
399 the individual droplets and flocs had significantly smaller sizes than those of RP emulsions (Figs. 5 and 6). Thus,  
400 the improved emulsifying properties of RP:GA coacervates could be related to the smaller particle size of protein  
401 aggregates in these samples (Fig. 3), which might accelerate the protein and RP:GA particles absorption to the  
402 oil-water interface and play a key role in the resistance to rupture of the interfacial film. In Pickering emulsions, it



403 has been previously described that smaller particles are more effective in preventing droplet coalescence and  
404 stabilizing emulsions as compared to the larger particle sizes, because of low diffusivity resulting in slow  
405 adsorption kinetics of the larger particles and less efficient packing at the interface (Niroula et al., 2021; Tu et al.,  
406 2023). On the other hand, at pH 3.0, the increased stability of RP:GA emulsions could be related to the  
407 flocculation. Although the individual droplets presented the same or smaller sizes than in RP emulsions (with  
408 SDS, Fig. 6B), the flocs presented higher sizes (without SDS, Fig. 6A). Since GA presents a low radius of  
409 hydration due to their high degree of branching, they cannot cause depletion flocculation (Zang et al., 2019), but  
410 they can induce bridging flocculation. The flocs might stabilize the emulsion by increasing the viscosity of the  
411 system, thus reducing the creaming rate. In accordance with those results, the emulsifying properties of oak and  
412 hemp proteins were improved after their complex coacervation with GA (X. Liu et al., 2023; Naderi et al., 2020).

413

#### 414 **4. CONCLUSION**

415 The present study showed that coacervates composed of modified rice proteins and gum arabic can be formed by  
416 associative complexation under acidic conditions. These coacervates extended the range of pH values where  
417 modified rice protein could be successfully used as emulsifiers. Moreover, emulsions prepared with RP:GA  
418 coacervates showed smaller droplet sizes and greater stability than those prepared with RP alone at pH 5.0 and  
419 3.0. This work indicates that RP:GA coacervates may be employed as a natural emulsifier in the development of  
420 acid-emulsion-based food products. Still, further studies are needed to evaluate the emulsion stability against  
421 thermal treatments and other environmental stresses.

422

#### 423 **Acknowledgments**

424 The authors want to thank Sofia Guerrissi from Grupo Saporiti S.A (Buenos Aires, Argentina) for the provision of  
425 rice protein isolate. María Celeste Dichano is grateful for the student fellowship granted by the Consejo  
426 Interuniversitario Nacional (CIN). Maxwell N. Morales Huanca is grateful for the exchange scholarship fellow  
427 granted by Programa Académico de Movilidad Educativa (PAME-UDUAL). Gonzalo G. Palazolo, Dario M.  
428 Cabezas, and Daniela E. Igartúa are members of the Scientific Research Program from Consejo Nacional de  
429 Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas (CONICET). The financial support is also gratefully acknowledged.

430

431 **Author contributions**

432 Daniela E. Igartúa: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Supervision, Investigation, Funding  
433 acquisition, Project administration, Methodology, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. María Celeste  
434 Dichano: Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing - original draft. Maxwell N. Morales  
435 Huanca: Investigation, Methodology. Gonzalo G. Palazolo: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Project  
436 administration, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. Dario M. Cabezas: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition,  
437 Project administration, Supervision, Writing - review & editing.

438

439 **Funding**

440 Our work was supported by Universidad Nacional de Quilmes (2289/22 (I+D grant), Fondo para la Investigación  
441 Científica y Tecnológica (FONCYT) of Agencia Nacional de Promoción de la Investigación, el Desarrollo  
442 Tecnológico y la Innovación (PICT-2020-SERIEA, 00166 grant), and Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones  
443 Científicas y Técnicas (PIP 2021-2023, 11220200100354CO grant).

444

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- 538

539 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

540 **Fig. 1 – Characterization of RP, GA, and RP:GA blends as a function of pH. (A)**  $\zeta$ -potentials (mV) of RP and  
 541 GA dispersions and strength of electrostatic interaction (SEI). **(B)** Protein solubility (%) in RP and RP:GA blends.  
 542 **(C)** Phase diagram after 24 h of preparation, classified according to translucent suspension ( $\blacklozenge$ ), precipitate with  
 543 translucent suspension ( $\bullet$ ), precipitate with cloudy suspension ( $\circ$ ), or precipitate with very cloudy suspension ( $\blacksquare$ ).  
 544 **(D)** Visual appearance of RP, GA, and RP:GA blends after 24 h of preparation.

545

546 **Fig. 2 – Characterization of RP, GA, and RP:GA blends as function of mixing ratios. (A)**  $\zeta$ -potentials (mV).  
 547 **(B)** Protein surface hydrophobicity. **(C)** Volume-based (%) particle size distributions. **(D)** Surface-based (%)  
 548 particle size distributions. **(E)** Volume-weighted average particle diameters,  $d_{43}$  ( $\mu\text{m}$ ). **(F)** Surface-weighted  
 549 average particle diameters,  $d_{32}$  ( $\mu\text{m}$ ). Different lowercase letters represent significant differences between  
 550 samples according to One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons post-test.

551

552 **Fig. 3 – Aggregation state of RP and RP:GA blends at pH 7.0, 5.0, and 3.0.** Fluorescence microscopy of RP  
 553 and RP:GA blends at pH 7.0, 5.0, or 3.0 after staining with rhodamine B (scale bar: 100  $\mu\text{m}$ ).

554

555 **Fig. 4 – Visual appearance of RP, GA, and RP:GA emulsions** Representative images of RP, GA, and RP:GA  
 556 stabilized emulsion on days 0, 1, and 21 post-preparation.

557

558 **Fig. 5 – Microscopical observation of RP, GA, and RP:GA emulsions.** Representative micrograph of RP, GA,  
 559 and RP:GA stabilized emulsion on days 1 and 21 post-preparation without and with the addition of SDS (scale  
 560 bar: 100  $\mu\text{m}$ ).

561

562 **Fig. 6 – Particle size characterization of RP, GA, and RP:GA emulsions. (A)** Volume-weighted average  
 563 particle diameters ( $d_{43}$ ) of RP and RP:GA stabilized emulsions without the addition of SDS on day 1 and 21 post-  
 564 preparation at each pH condition. **(B)**  $d_{43}$  of RP and RP:GA stabilized emulsions in presence of SDS on days 1  
 565 and 21 post-preparation at each pH condition. Different lowercase letters represent significant differences  
 566 between samples on the same day of storage (RP, 1:0.4, or 1:1.0), while different uppercase letters represent

567 significant differences between the same sample on different days of storage (1 or 21) according to Two-way  
568 ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons post-test.

569

570 **Fig. 7 – Physical stability RP, GA, and RP:GA of emulsions. (A)** Backscattering (%BS) profiles of RP  
571 emulsions during quiescent storage for 21 days (504 h). **(B)** %BS profiles of emulsions prepared with RP:GA  
572 1:0.4 during quiescent storage for 21 days (504 h). **(C)** %BS profiles of emulsions prepared with RP:GA 1:1.0  
573 during quiescent storage for 21 days (504 h).

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