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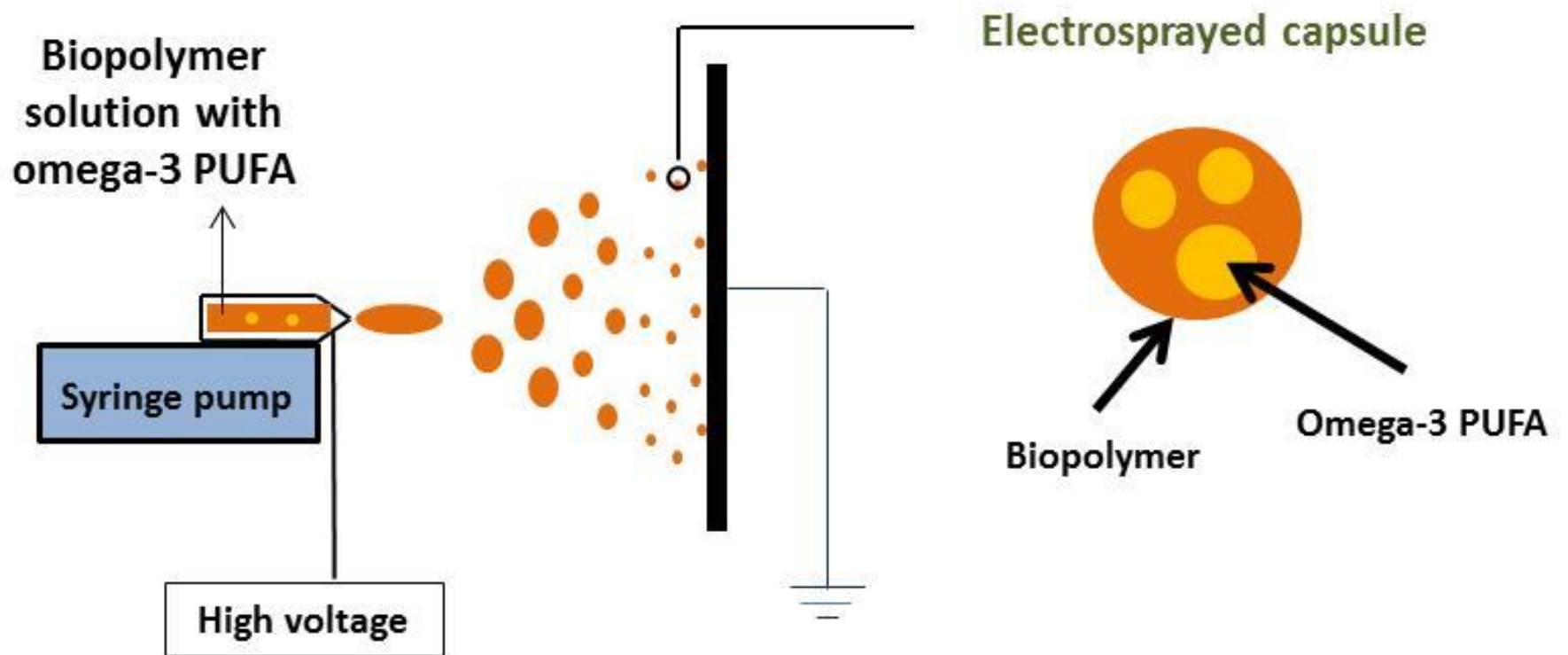
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1 Physicochemical characterization and oxidative stability of fish oil-loaded 2 electrospayed capsules: combined use of whey protein and 3 carbohydrates as wall materials

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9 ABSTRACT

10 The encapsulation of fish oil in electrospayed capsules using whey protein and carbohydrates
11 (pullulan and dextran or glucose syrup) mixtures as glassy wall materials was studied. Capsules with
12 fish oil emulsified by using only a rotor-stator emulsification exhibited higher oxidative stability than
13 capsules where the oil was emulsified by high-pressure homogenization. Moreover, glucose syrup
14 capsules (with a peroxide value, PV, of 19.7 ± 4.4 meq/kg oil and a content of 1-penten-3-ol of
15 751.0 ± 69.8 ng/g oil) were less oxidized than dextran capsules after 21 days of storage at 20 °C (PV of
16 24.9 ± 0.4 meq/kg oil and 1-penten-3-ol of 1161.0 ± 222.0 ng/g oil). This finding may be attributed to
17 differences in oxygen permeability between both types of capsules. These results indicated the
18 potential of both combinations of whey protein, pullulan, and dextran or glucose syrup as shell
19 materials for the encapsulation of omega-3 PUFA in nano-microcapsules obtained by electrospaying.

20 **Keywords:** Omega-3; Lipid oxidation; Electrospaying; Nano-microencapsulation; Dextran; Glucose
21 syrup

22 1. INTRODUCTION

23 Long chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) such as eicosapentaenoic (C20:5n-3) and
24 docosahexaenoic (C22:6n-3) acids, which are mainly extracted from fish, krill or microalgae biomass,

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25 have numerous beneficial health effects on humans (Calder, 2017). Hence, and due to the low
26 consumption of fish, krill or algae-based products by Western populations, the development of food
27 fortified with omega-3 PUFA is still having an increasing interest for the food industry (GOED, 2015).
28 Nevertheless, these nutritionally beneficial lipids are highly prone to oxidation (i.e. due to their high
29 content of bis-allylic hydrogens), which limit their successful incorporation into complex food systems
30 (e.g. containing prooxidants such as metal ions) (Jacobsen, 2015).

31 In this regard, encapsulation of omega-3 PUFA is an approach generally used to avoid their oxidative
32 deterioration (i.e. formation of secondary volatile oxidation products which are responsible for
33 undesirable off-flavours) (García-Moreno et al., 2016). An emerging encapsulation technique for
34 producing omega-3 nano-microencapsulates is electrospraying (Torres-Giner et al. 2010). Contrary to
35 spray-drying (the most employed encapsulation technique), electrospraying can be carried out at room
36 temperature, which should result in a better stability of thermo-sensitive bioactives (Lim, 2015). The
37 process uses a high-voltage electrostatic field to charge the surface of a biopolymer solution droplet at
38 the end of a capillary tube. When the surface tension of the droplet is overcome by the electric field, a
39 charged jet is ejected from the tip of the Taylor cone (formed at the end of the capillary tube) to a
40 grounded collector. Due to the low viscoelasticity of the biopolymer solution, the jet destabilize due to
41 varicose instability forming fine highly charged droplets. On the way to the collector, the droplets are
42 further disrupted due to electrostatic repulsion, which favors solvent evaporation resulting in solids
43 particles (Ghorani & Tucker, 2015). Electrosprayed encapsulates, which present high encapsulation
44 efficiency and large surface-to-volume ratio, are of special interest for the food industry for the
45 encapsulation of unstable bioactive compounds such as vitamins, probiotics, antioxidants and omega-3
46 fatty acids. Furthermore, due to their reduced size, these novel encapsulates exhibit a higher
47 bioaccessibility than traditional capsules (Jacobsen et al., 2018).

48 To the best of the authors' knowledge, omega-3 fatty acids have only been encapsulated by
49 electrospraying when using proteins such as zein, whey protein concentrate, soy protein isolate, and
50 gelatin as shell material (Gómez-Mascaraque & López-Rubio, 2016; Moomand & Lim, 2015; Torres-
51 Giner et al., 2010). In the authors' previous work, the potential of dextran as a biopolymer shell to

52 produce fish oil-loaded electrospayed capsules was reported. However, further optimization of
53 dextran solutions was required to improve the physical stability of the emulsion as well as the oil
54 entrapment within the capsules (García-Moreno et al., 2017a). To this end, an interesting approach to
55 be evaluated is the combination of both carbohydrates, which usually act as filler or matrix-forming
56 material, and proteins, which exhibit emulsifying properties and are effective film-formers (Augustin
57 & Oliver, 2014). Dairy proteins (e.g. whey protein or casein), which also exhibit antioxidant properties
58 (Adjonu et al. 2014), are usually combined with carbohydrates (i.e. glucose syrup, lactose,
59 maltodextrin, starch) in order to obtain fish oil-loaded microencapsulates by spray-drying with
60 enhanced properties (Encina et al. 2016). For instance, Aghbashlo et al. (2012) reported the production
61 of microcapsules by spray-drying with significantly higher encapsulation efficiencies using mixtures
62 of skim milk powder and lactose or sucrose (70% and 30%, respectively) when compared to the use of
63 only skim milk powder. Likewise, Ramakrishnan et al. (2013) found that the replacement of part of
64 whey protein by maltodextrin as wall materials increased the oxidative stability of fish oil-loaded
65 microcapsules. This was attributed to lower oxygen permeability of the shell material composed of
66 maltodextrin. Furthermore, the incorporation of high-molecular weight carbohydrates (e.g. starch,
67 maltodextrin, dextran) also increases the glass transition temperature of the wall material, which
68 implies that the shell material will be in glassy state in a broader range of temperature (Schutyser et al.
69 2012). Glassy state of the protein-carbohydrate matrix is preferred to rubbery state due to its lower
70 free volume, which restricts diffusion of oxygen and other prooxidants (i.e. trace of metals) enhancing
71 the oxidative stability of the encapsulates (Hu, 2016). In addition, the use of carbohydrates as
72 encapsulating material, which are not digested in the stomach, will allow a more targeted delivery of
73 omega-3 PUFA (e.g. in the small intestine where most absorption occurs) (Fathi et al. 2014).

74 In the light of the above, this work aimed at investigating the encapsulation of fish oil by
75 electrospaying using combinations of whey protein and carbohydrates as biopolymers. Dextran and
76 glucose syrup were selected as carbohydrates due to their appropriate properties to form
77 electrospayed capsules (García-Moreno et al., 2017a) and to their successful use in spray-dried
78 capsules loaded with oils rich in omega-3 PUFA (Tamm et al. 2016), respectively. First, the influence

79 of total concentration of biopolymers and carbohydrate to protein ratio on oil droplet size,
80 electro spraying flow rate, and morphology of the capsules was assessed in lab scale. Secondly, the
81 approach used to emulsify the oil (i.e. high pressure homogenization or rotor-stator emulsification) in
82 the optimized biopolymers solution was studied. Particularly, the ability to entrap the oil and the oil
83 distribution of capsules produced by a high-throughput electro spraying process in pilot-plant scale was
84 investigated. Finally, the protective effect against oxidative degradation of the different encapsulating
85 matrices used was investigated during storage of the fish oil-loaded nano-microcapsules.

86 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

87 **2.1 Materials**

88 Dextran (molecular weight = 70,000 Da, dextran70) was generously provided by Pharmacosmos A/S
89 (Holbaek, Denmark). Glucose syrup (DE38, C*Dry 1934) was kindly provided by Cargill Germany
90 GmbH (Krefeld, Germany). Pullulan (molecular weight = 200,000 Da) was donated by Hayashibara
91 Co., Ltd. (Okayama, Japan). Whey protein concentrate (WPC), under the commercial name of
92 Lacprodan® DI-8090, was provided by ARLA Food Ingredients (Viby, Denmark). Citrem (citric acid
93 ester without antioxidants) was provided from Danisco (Copenhagen, Denmark). The peroxide value
94 (PV) of the citrem used was 2.3 ± 0.1 meq/kg oil. Commercial cod liver oil was donated by Maritex
95 A/S, subsidiary of TINE, BA (Sortland, Norway) and stored at -40 °C until use. The fatty acid
96 composition of the fish oil was determined by fatty acid methylation (AOCS, 1998a) followed by
97 separation through GC (AOCS, 1998b). It was (major fatty acids only) as follows: C16:0, 9.5%;
98 C16:1, 8.7%; C18:1, 16.3%; C20:1, 12.6%; C20:5, 9.2%; and C22:6, 11.4%. The tocopherol content
99 of the fish oil was: α -tocopherol, 200 ± 3 $\mu\text{g/g}$ oil; β -tocopherol, 5 ± 1 $\mu\text{g/g}$ oil; γ -tocopherol, 96 ± 3 $\mu\text{g/g}$
100 oil; and δ -tocopherol, 47 ± 1 $\mu\text{g/g}$ oil (AOCS, 1998c). PV of the fish oil used was 0.4 ± 0.1 meq/kg oil.
101 All other chemicals and solvents used were of analytical grade.

102 **2.2 Preparation of biopolymer solutions containing fish oil**

103 **2.1 For optimization of capsules morphology in lab scale**

104 Electro spraying solutions containing fish oil (20 wt.% with respect to biopolymer), WPC (1 wt.%),
105 and carbohydrates (pullulan and dextran or glucose syrup) at different concentrations (1-5 wt.%
106 pullulan and 15 or 20 wt.% dextran or 15 wt.% glucose syrup) were tested in lab scale in order to
107 optimize capsule morphology. First, WPC, pullulan, and dextran or glucose syrup were dissolved in
108 distilled water by stirring overnight at 500 rpm. Secondly, fish oil was added slowly to the
109 biopolymers solution during mixing at 16,000 rpm using an Ystral mixer (Ystral GmbH, Ballrechten-
110 Dottingen, Germany). The fish oil was added during the first minute of mixing, and the total mixing
111 time was 3 min. Further homogenization was done on a microfluidizer (M110L Microfluidics,
112 Newton, MA, USA) equipped with a ceramic interaction chamber (CIXC, F20Y, internal dimension
113 75 μm). Emulsions were homogenized at a pressure of 9000 psi, running 3 passes. Samples were used
114 immediately after production for electro spraying processing in lab scale and for droplet size analysis.

115 **2.2 For production in pilot plant**

116 Biopolymer solutions containing fish oil for processing in pilot plant were prepared following two
117 different approaches to emulsify the oil. In the first approach, fish oil was emulsified by using high
118 pressure homogenization. Briefly, pullulan and dextran or glucose syrup were dissolved in distilled
119 water under constant stirring (500 rpm) at room temperature. Fish oil was added as 10 wt.% fish oil-
120 in-water emulsion stabilized with 1 wt.% WPC and 1 wt.% citrem at pH 7. The homogenization
121 process was carried out by using an Ystral mixer followed by microfluidizer (M110L Microfluidics,
122 Newton, MA, USA) as described above. The biopolymer solutions and the fish oil-in-water emulsion
123 were mixed under nitrogen atmosphere by using magnetic stirring (500 rpm) for 30 min at 5 °C in the
124 dark. Finally, the resulting emulsion was passed 3 times through microfluidizer (M110L
125 Microfluidics, Newton, MA, USA) at a pressure of 9,000 psi. The resulting electro spraying solutions
126 contained 20 wt.% fish oil (with respect to biopolymer). The samples were subsequently characterized
127 for droplet size analysis and dried by electro spraying assisted by pressurized air using the
128 FluidnatekTM LE500 Capsultek pilot tool by Bioinicia S.L. (Valencia, Spain). Dextran solution was

129 electrospayed two days after production, whereas glucose syrup was processed after three days. Both
130 samples were kept at 4 °C until electrospaying was carried out.

131 In the second approach, fish oil was emulsified by only using a rotor-stator emulsification. In brief,
132 carbohydrates (pullulan and dextran or glucose syrup) together with WPC were dissolved in distilled
133 water and stirred overnight using magnetic stirrer at 500 rpm. Then, the biopolymer solution was
134 passed through microfluidizer (M110L Microfluidics, Newton, MA, USA) 3 times at 9,000 psi.
135 Citrem and fish oil were added slowly, under nitrogen atmosphere, into the resulting biopolymer
136 solution during mixing at 17,500 rpm using an Ultraturrax T-25 homogenizer (IKA, Staufen,
137 Germany). The fish oil was added during the first 5 min of mixing, and the total mixing time was 8
138 min. The resulting electrospaying solutions also contained 20 wt.% fish oil (with respect to
139 biopolymer). Samples were used immediately after production for processing in pilot plant equipment
140 LE500 Capsultek (Bioinicia and Fluidnatek®, Valencia, Spain).

141 **2.3 Droplet size distribution of solutions**

142 Droplet sizes were measured by laser diffraction in a Mastersizer 2000 (Malvern Instruments, Ltd.,
143 Worcestershire, UK). Solutions were diluted in recirculating water (3000 rpm), until it reached an
144 obscuration of 12%. The refractive indices of sunflower oil (1.469) and water (1.330) were used as
145 particle and dispersant, respectively. Results were given in surface area mean diameter ($D_{3,2}$) and 90%
146 percentile ($d_{0,9}$). Measurements were made in triplicate.

147 **2.4 Electrospaying process**

148 In lab scale, the electrospaying process was carried out at room temperature by adding the biopolymer
149 solutions containing the fish oil to a syringe, which was placed in a syringe pump (New Era Pump
150 Systems, Inc., USA). A 16 G needle (Proto Advantage, Canada) was used. A high-voltage electrostatic
151 field was applied between the spinneret of the syringe and a 15 × 15 cm collector plate made of
152 stainless by using a high voltage power supply (Gamma High Voltage Research, USA). An horizontal
153 conformation was selected and the distance between the syringe tip and the collector plate was 15 cm.

154 The flowrate, ranging from 0.003 to 0.012 mL/min, and applied voltage, varying from 17 to 20 kV,
155 were optimized in order to stabilize the Taylor cone and avoid dripping or droplets in the collector.
156 In pilot plant scale, biopolymers solutions containing fish oil were subjected to electro spraying
157 assisted by pressurized air using the patent pending Fluidnatek™ LE500 Capsultek pilot tool
158 (Bioinicia S.L., Valencia, Spain). Solutions were processed using flowrates between 1.5 and 1.8
159 mL/min and voltages between 10 and 15 kV. The collection of the encapsulated powder was carried
160 out in a grounded cyclonic collector as a free flowing powder. Temperature was maintained at 24 °C
161 and relative humidity at 40 %. The production batches had a duration of 40 min. The powder collected
162 in the different batches (for the same type of capsule) were blended together in order to have a
163 homogeneous final sample. Dextran and glucose syrup capsules were coded as D-HPH or G-HPH and
164 D-RSE or G-RSE when the oil was emulsified by using high-pressure homogenization of rotor-stator
165 emulsification, respectively.

166 **2.5 Characterization of electro sprayed capsules**

167 **2.5.1 Morphology**

168 The morphology of the different types of electro sprayed capsules produced was investigated using
169 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Phenom Pro, Phenom-World B.V., Eindhoven, The Netherlands).
170 Approximately 0.5×0.5 cm of the capsules aluminium sheet was placed on carbon tape and sputter
171 coated with gold, 8 s, 40 mA utilizing a Q150T Quorum Coater (Quorum Technologies Ltd, East Sussex,
172 UK). The capsule diameter distribution was determined from the micrographs by using the open
173 source image processing program ImageJ (National Institutes of Health). One hundred random
174 capsules were measured.

175 **2.5.2 Encapsulation efficiency (EE)**

176 The efficiency of the encapsulation was determined by measuring the non-encapsulated oil, which was
177 extracted according to Westergaard (2004) with some modifications. Briefly, 1 g of electro sprayed
178 capsules was immersed in 5 mL heptane and shaken at 100 rpm for 2 min. Then, the suspension was
179 filtered and the retained solid washed three times with 2 mL heptane. From the recovered liquid, the
180 heptane was evaporated and the amount of extracted oil was weighted. Analyses were carried out in

181 triplicate. Results are expressed in wt.% of the oil encapsulated mass against the total oil content of the
182 capsules.

183 **2.5.3 Oil distribution**

184 The droplet size distribution of the fish oil-loaded electrospayed capsules after re-dispersion in
185 distilled water was measured as previously described in section 2.3. For that purpose, 1 g of capsules
186 was dissolved in 15 mL of distilled water at room temperature under magnetic stirring (100 rpm) for
187 30 min. The resulting dispersion was filtered in order to remove the possible rest of capsules.

188 Moreover, oil distribution in the capsules was also analyzed by fluorescence microscopy.
189 Electrospaying solutions were stained with Nile red and fluorescein isothiocyanate to visualize fish
190 oil and WPC, respectively. The nano-microcapsules were directly electrospayed in a coverslip and
191 then covered with a glass slide. Then, the distribution of fish oil and WPC within the nano-
192 microcapsules was analyzed with a fluorescence microscope Olympus BX53 fitted with a Retiga-6000
193 monochrome camera (Olympus Danmark A/S, Ballerup, Denmark). Fluorescence was measured after
194 irradiation at 580 nm or 488 nm. Images were captured using the Olympus cellSens Dimension V1
195 software and further processed in Adobe Photoshop CS6.

196 **2.5.4 Glass transition temperature**

197 Glass transition temperature (T_g) of the capsules was determined using a Discovery DSC (TA
198 Instruments, New Castle, USA). For each scan, 2-5 mg of capsules were hermetically sealed in an
199 aluminium pan and tested against an identical empty pan. Samples were cooled and held isothermally
200 at -80 °C for 10 min, then heated to 200 °C with a ramp rate of 10 °C/min under nitrogen atmosphere
201 (50 mL/min). TRIOS software (TA Instruments, New Castle, USA) was used to determine T_g from
202 the midpoint of the heat flow derivative.

203 **2.5.5 Oxidative stability**

204 For lipid oxidation measurements, immediately after receiving the samples from Bioinicia and
205 Fluidnatek® (Valencia, Spain), the capsules were stored in 10 mL vial at 20 °C in the dark for 21
206 days. Each vial contained approximately 2.2 g of capsules in order to maintain a similar headspace.
207 Samples were taken at day 0, 3, 8, 14 and 21 for analysis.

2.5.5.1 Attenuated total reflection – Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR)

ATR-FTIR spectra of the capsules were obtained by using Spectrum 100 FT-IR Spectrometer (PerkinElmer, Waltham, USA). Approximately 10 mg of capsules were placed on top of the ZnSe/diamond crystal and good contact was assured by using the Universal ATR Sampling Accessory (PerkinElmer, Waltham, USA). All spectra were recorded within the wavenumber range of 4000-600 cm^{-1} by averaging 20 scans at 4 cm^{-1} resolution. Measurements were performed in triplicate. Results were normalized to the initial intensity for a better comparison among the different capsules.

2.5.5.2 Determination of oil content and peroxide value

Oil was extracted from approximately 0.5 g of capsules according to Bligh and Dyer method using a reduced amount of the chloroform/methanol (1:1, wt.%) solvent (Bligh & Dyer, 1959). Two extractions were made from each sample. Peroxide value was determined on lipid extracts using the colorimetric ferric-thiocyanate method at 500 nm as described by Shantha and Decker (1994). Results were expressed as milliequivalents of peroxides per kg of oil.

2.5.5.3 Volatiles secondary oxidation products – Dynamic headspace GC-MS

Approximately 0.4 g of capsules and 10 mg internal standard (4-methyl-1-pentanol, 30 $\mu\text{g/g}$ water) were weighted out in a 100 mL purge bottle, to which 5 mL of distilled water and 1 mL antifoam (Synperonic 800 $\mu\text{L/L}$ water) were added. The bottle was heated to 45°C in a water bath while purging with nitrogen (flow 250 mL/min, 30 min). Volatile secondary oxidation products were trapped on Tenax GR tubes. The volatiles were desorbed again by heating (200°C) in an Automatic Thermal Desorber (ATD-400, Perkin Elmer, Norwalk, CN), cryofocused on a cold trap (-30°C), released again (220°C), and led to a gas chromatograph (HP 5890IIA, Hewlett Packard, Palo Alto, CA, USA; Column: DB-1701, 30 m x 0.25 mm x 1.0 μm ; J&W Scientific, CA, USA). The oven program had an initial temperature of 45°C for 5 min, increasing with 1.5°C/min until 55°C, with 2.5°C/min until 90°C, and with 12.0°C/min until 220°C, where the temperature was kept for 4 min. The individual compounds were analyzed by mass-spectrometry (HP 5972 mass-selective detector, Agilent Technologies, USA; electron ionization mode, 70 eV; mass to charge ratio scan between 30 and 250). The individual compounds were identified by both MS-library searches (Wiley 138 K, John Wiley and

235 Sons, Hewlett-Packard) and by authentic external standard and quantified through calibration curves.
236 The external standards employed were 2-ethyl-furan, 1-penten-3-one, pentanal, 1-penten-3-ol, (*E*)-2-
237 pentenal, hexanal, 2-hexenal, heptanal, 2-pentyl-furan, (*E,E*)-2,4-heptadienal, and nonanal (Sigma-
238 Aldrich, Brøndby, Denmark). Samples were analyzed in triplicate.

239 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

240 Statgraphics Centurion XV (Statistical Graphics Corp., Rockville, MD, USA) was used for data
241 analysis. Data were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation. Firstly, multiple sample comparison
242 analysis was performed to identify significant differences between samples. Secondly, mean values
243 were compared by using the Tukey's test. Differences between means were considered significant at p
244 < 0.05 .

245 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

246 **3.1 Optimization of biopolymer solutions**

247 The properties of the biopolymer solutions (e.g. viscosity, conductivity, and surface tension) together
248 with the processing variables (i.e. voltage and flowrate) have a high influence on the electrospraying
249 process (e.g. stability of Taylor cone and morphology of capsules). The solution properties are mainly
250 determined by the type of biopolymers used (i.e. molecular weight and concentration) as well as by
251 the type of solvent (Drosou et al. 2017). Taking this into account, the composition of dextran and
252 glucose syrup solutions containing fish oil were first optimized in the lab before scaling-up. Pullulan
253 was added to both type of solutions as thickening agent since it allowed to increase the stability of the
254 Taylor cone, avoiding dripping and droplets in the collector while also working at higher flow rate.
255 Both high solid content in solutions (wt.% of biopolymers and oil) as well as high flow rate are desired
256 in order to increase the throughput of electrospraying process. With a similar objective, Pérez-Masiá et
257 al. (2014) employed gums (e.g. guar and xanthan gum) in order to increase the viscosity of
258 carbohydrate (i.e. resistant starch or maltodextrin) solutions, which allowed the formation of capsules
259 by electrospraying. However, these authors also observed the formation of a continuous film together
260 with the capsules, which was attributed to the ability of gums to retain water leading to an incomplete

261 drying of the droplets. This phenomenon was not observed in this study when using pullulan (Fig. 1),
262 which may be attributed to a lower retention of water by pullulan when compared to gum facilitating
263 the drying process.

264 Fig. 1 shows the morphology of the nano-microstructures obtained when varying the concentration of
265 pullulan (1-2 wt.%) and dextran (15-20 wt.%) in an aqueous solution also containing 1 wt.% WPC and
266 20 wt.% of emulsified fish oil (with respect to biopolymers). It was observed that when using 2 wt.%
267 pullulan and 20 wt.% dextran, some capsules were obtained, but they were interconnected with
268 abundant fibers (Fig. 1a). Nevertheless, reducing the concentration of biopolymers, especially pullulan
269 which has been reported to have an extraordinary spinnability leading to fiber formation (García-
270 Moreno et al. 2017), considerably decreased the polymer chain entanglements avoiding the formation
271 of fibril defects. For instance, decreasing the concentration of dextran to 15 wt.% (2 wt.% pullulan)
272 significantly reduced the formation of fibers (Fig. 1b). Likewise, fibers were almost not observed
273 when reducing the content of pullulan to 1 wt.% (20 wt.% dextran) (Fig. 1c), and no fibril defects
274 were found in the capsules obtained when using a solution of 1wt.% pullulan and 15 wt.% dextran
275 (Fig. 1d). Capsules are preferred to fibers as delivery systems due to their ability to easily disperse in
276 the food matrix (Pérez-Masiá et al. 2015). The dispersion of fibers is more challenging due to their
277 continuous and interconnected morphology. As expected, decreasing pullulan concentration from 2 to
278 1 wt.% slightly reduced the electrospraying flow rate (from 0.012 to 0.010 mL/min) (Table 1).
279 Moreover, decreasing dextran concentration in the solution led to a significantly ($p < 0.05$) more
280 effective droplet disruption in the high pressure homogenizer (Table 1), mainly due to a lower
281 viscosity of the solution. Smaller droplet sizes are desired in order to enhance the entrapment of the oil
282 within the wall material matrix (Ramakrishnan et al. 2013).

283 For the glucose syrup solution, only the pullulan content was varied from 2 to 5 wt.%, while the
284 content of the glucose syrup was kept constant at 15 wt.% in order to have the same concentration as
285 for dextran in the previous solution. Fig. 2 shows that only capsules were obtained when using either 2
286 or 4 wt.% pullulan (Fig. 2a,b), whereas fibril defects appeared between the capsules due to more
287 polymer chain entanglements when increasing pullulan concentration to 5 wt.% (Fig. 2c). In order to

288 select between 2 and 4 wt.% pullulan, flow rate and oil droplet size values were considered. Although
289 increasing pullulan content from 2 to 4 wt.% led to a significantly ($p<0.05$) larger droplet size, it also
290 allowed a considerable improvement of the electro spraying flow rate (from 0.003 to 0.007 mL/min)
291 (Table 1). It is worth noting the lower electro spraying flow rate for the glucose syrup solution when
292 compared to the dextran solution, despite the higher content of pullulan employed (4 vs. 1 wt.%,
293 respectively). This might be attributed to the lower number of polymer chain entanglements in the
294 glucose solution compared to dextran, as a consequence of the different molecular weights of the
295 carbohydrates used (70 kDa for dextran and 12.5 kDa for glucose syrup, as reported by Pharmacosmos
296 A/S and Cargill Germany GmbH respectively) (Pérez-Masiá et al., 2014).
297 Finally, the replacement of half of the WPC used as emulsifier by an efficient surfactant such as citrem
298 led to significant ($p<0.05$) smaller oil droplet size when compared to electro spraying solutions
299 containing only WPC, both in dextran and glucose syrup solutions (Table 1). This should favor both
300 the physical stability of the solution until drying as well as the efficiency of the encapsulation process.
301 Therefore, taken together, optimum solutions for further production in pilot-plant scale were selected
302 as: i) 0.5 wt.% WPC, 0.5 wt.% citrem, 1 wt.% pullulan, and 15 wt.% dextran, and ii) 0.5 wt.% WPC,
303 0.5 wt.% citrem, 4 wt.% pullulan, and 15 wt.% glucose syrup.

304 **3.2 Physicochemical properties of the capsules**

305 **3.2.1. Morphology**

306 Fig. 3 shows that the capsules obtained in pilot-plant for the two types of carbohydrates (dextran or
307 glucose syrup) and for the two approaches used to emulsify the oil (high pressure homogenization or
308 rotor-stator emulsification) had a spherical shape with no fibril defects. In general, dextran capsules
309 showed no clear cracks or fissures, although small holes could be observed at their surface, especially
310 for capsules where the oil was incorporated by using high pressure homogenization (Fig. 3a,b).
311 Glucose syrup capsules presented a less smooth surface when compared to dextran capsules, as
312 indicated by the presence of some fissures and larger holes on the surface. This phenomenon was also
313 observed to a higher extent for capsules with oil emulsified by high pressure homogenization (Fig.

314 3c,d). These holes may be explained by the presence of surface oil, which is discussed below in
315 section 3.2.2.

316 The four type of capsules produced presented a broad size range, varying from submicron particles to
317 microcapsules up to 10 μm (Fig. 3). Nonetheless, most of the capsules (approximately 70 %) had a
318 size lower than 3 μm . Although no significant differences were observed between G-HPH and G-RSE
319 capsules, D-HPH capsules showed a larger diameter when compared D-RSE capsules (Fig. 3a,b).
320 This may be attributed to the higher flow rate and voltage used to produce D-RSE capsules compared
321 to D-HPH (1.8 vs. 1.5 mL/min and 15 vs. 10 kV), which favoured the formation of satellite droplets
322 (Hartman et al. 2000).

323 Overall, the capsules produced in pilot-plant presented a larger diameter when compared to capsules
324 produced in lab scale, where approximately 60-70% of the capsules were below 1 μm (see Fig. S1 of
325 the Supplementary material). In order to increase throughput, in pilot-plant electro spraying the
326 solution is impelled into the electric field by pressurized air, hence the solution droplet size cannot be
327 reduced to the level obtained by conventional electro spraying process in lab scale. In any case, the
328 electro sprayed capsules obtained in this study showed a reduced size compared to microcapsules
329 loaded with fish oil and obtained by spray-drying, which have been reported to have diameters
330 between 14.2-18.1 μm (Drusch, 2007) or 17.9-23.0 μm (Carneiro et al. 2013). Capsules with a reduced
331 size are preferred for incorporation into a food matrix since they might be easier to disperse and could
332 have a lower effect on product quality (e.g. texture). Moreover, particles with a lower diameter present
333 a larger specific surface area, which might enhance the release profile of the bioactive compound. On
334 the other hand, a larger surface-to-volume ratio also implies an increase of the contact surface between
335 lipids and prooxidants, which negatively affects oxidative stability of the capsules (Jacobsen et al.
336 2018).

337 **3.2.2 Oil encapsulation and distribution**

338 Oil encapsulation and distribution within the shell material determines the accessibility of prooxidants
339 to the oil as well as the available contact surface, which might have a great importance on the
340 oxidative stability of the capsules (Drusch & Berg, 2008). The longer time spent before the drying of

341 the parent emulsions produced by high-pressure homogenization compared to emulsions produced by
342 rotor-stator emulsification (which were produced in situ in the electro-spraying pilot-plant) explain the
343 significantly ($p < 0.05$) higher $D_{3,2}$ values of the reconstituted capsules obtained from the former
344 emulsions (Table 2). However, the correlation between droplet size and EE is not clear since EE
345 values were higher for the capsules containing oil emulsified by rotor-stator emulsification, besides
346 the significantly higher $D_{0,9}$ value of these capsules (Table 2).

347 Dextran capsules showed significantly higher EE values than glucose syrup capsules for both type of
348 emulsification approaches, which correlated well with the lower $D_{3,2}$ and $D_{0,9}$ values of the dextran
349 capsules when compared to glucose syrup capsules (Table 2). Glucose syrup nano-microcapsules
350 presented large holes on the surface (Fig. 3a,b), which in fish oil-loaded microcapsules produced by
351 spray-drying has been related to the presence of non-encapsulated oil droplets (Drusch & Berg, 2008).
352 Fig. 4 shows how fish oil is distributed in electro-sprayed nano-microcapsules containing oil emulsified
353 by high-pressure homogenization and produced in lab scale. Fig.4a1,b1 show the location of fish oil
354 (in red) and Fig.4a2,b2 show the location of WPC (in green). It was observed that oil droplets were
355 entrapped within the shell material but both dextran and glucose syrup capsules also presented non-
356 encapsulated oil, since oil droplets were located at the capsule surface or very close to the surface
357 (marked as white arrows in Fig. 4-a3,b3). In any case, it is worth noting that the EE values obtained
358 for fish oil-loaded dextran and glucose syrup nano-microcapsules (20 wt.% oil load) were higher than
359 EE values reported for gelatin, whey protein concentrate and soy protein isolate nano-microcapsules
360 loaded with 10 wt.% of α -linoleic acid (ALA) and produced by electro-spraying (23-67 % EE based on
361 intact ALA) (Gómez-Mascaraque & López-Rubio, 2016). Nevertheless, they were in the same range
362 as fish oil-loaded capsules (40 wt.% oil load) produced by spray-drying using caseinate and glucose
363 syrup (13 wt.% extractable oil) or sugar beet pectin and glucose syrup (25.9 wt.% of extractable oil) as
364 wall materials (Drusch et al., 2007).

365 **3.2.3 Glass transition temperature**

366 A glassy shell is desired in order to prevent oxygen diffusion through the capsule and to avoid caking
367 (Huang et al., 2014). Fig. 5 shows the DSC heating curves of the nano-microcapsules containing oil

368 emulsified by high-pressure homogenization and produced in pilot-plant scale. For both types of
369 capsules, three endothermic peaks were found in the range from -75 °C to 10 °C, which indicated the
370 range of melting temperature for the different triglycerides in the fish oil. In the case of dextran
371 capsules no T_g could be detected in the range of temperature assessed (Fig. 5a), which implies that the
372 shell material will be in glassy state minimum up to 200 °C. Nevertheless, glucose capsules showed a
373 T_g at 94.2 °C (Fig. 5b). This difference between both types of capsules could be explained by the
374 different T_g of the carbohydrates used as wall materials. The dextran employed had a T_g at 143.3 °C,
375 whereas the T_g of the glucose syrup used was at 59.3 °C (see Fig. S2ab of the Supplementary
376 material). These values differed from those previously reported for glucose syrup (DE36) and dextran
377 (74.3 kDa) in the literature, T_g at 31 °C and 223 °C respectively (Drusch et al., 2007; Scandola et al.
378 1991). This might be due to the different type of biopolymer used (Mw and DE) and to possible
379 differences in their residual water levels. In regard to pullulan, no T_g was found in the range of
380 temperature studied (see Fig. S2c of the Supplementary material). This is in line with the findings of
381 Scandola et al. (1991), who did not observe any melting or T_g for pullulan below its thermal
382 decomposition temperature (300 °C). It is worth mentioning that fish oil-loaded dextran and glucose
383 capsules had a higher T_g than skim milk powder and lactose (T_g at 67 °C) or sucrose (T_g at 50 °C)
384 capsules containing fish oil and obtained by spray-drying (Aghbashlo et al., 2012).

385 **3.3 Oxidative stability of capsules**

386 **3.3.1 ATR-FTIR**

387 Firstly, and in accordance with previous studies (Gómez-Mascaraque & López-Rubio, 2016; Torres-
388 Giner et al., 2010), the oxidative stability of the capsules was evaluated by ATR-FTIR. Many of the
389 characteristic bands of fish oil overlapped with the infrared bands of the biopolymers used as wall
390 materials (WPC, dextran, pullulan and glucose syrup). Nevertheless, the characteristic absorption band
391 of omega-3 PUFA at 3012 cm^{-1} , which corresponds to the stretching of *cis*-alkene (-HC=CH-) groups
392 (Guillén & Cabo, 1999), did not overlap with the vibrational modes of the protein and carbohydrates
393 employed (see Fig. S3 of the Supplementary material). As a result, the intensity of this band, which
394 indicated the disappearance or not of *cis* double bonds due to oxidation, was monitored during the

395 storage of the capsules. Fig. 6a shows that the normalized absorbance obtained for the different
396 capsules did not significantly decrease during storage, apart from D-HPH capsules which slightly
397 decreased at day 21. This may imply that the capsules were not oxidized during storage due to the fact
398 that the *cis*-alkene groups were not degraded. Nonetheless, it should be noted that, although the
399 generation of hydroperoxides changes the conformation of some double bonds due to the formation of
400 conjugated *cis*-/*trans*- or *trans*-/*cis*- dienes, a reduction in the frequency of the band at 3006-3012 cm⁻¹
401 is generally associated with advanced stages of lipid oxidation (Guillén & Cabo, 2000). However, and
402 opposite to what we observed, other studies have reported a decrease in the intensity of this band
403 during storage. For instance, Moomand and Lim (2014) observed a reduction of the absorption at 3012
404 cm⁻¹ for ultrathin zein fibers containing fish oil during storage at different temperatures (4, 25, and 60
405 °C) for 14 days. Likewise, Gomez-Mascaraque and López-Rubio (2016) found a reduction in the
406 intensity of the same band for gelatin, whey protein, and soy protein electrosprayed capsules loaded
407 with ALA during storage at 80 °C for 5 days.

408 3.3.2 PV and volatiles

409 The oxidative stability of the capsules was further evaluated by measuring the formation of primary
410 and secondary volatile oxidation compounds. Fig. 6b shows the PV of the different capsules during
411 storage. It was observed that the PV of the fish oil-loaded capsules after production, which ranged
412 from 7.4±0.6 to 10.3±0.1 meq/kg oil, was significantly higher than the PV of the initial fish oil
413 (0.4±0.1 meq/kg oil). This might be attributed to lipid oxidation during: i) emulsion preparation due to
414 oxygen inclusion and increase in specific surface area (as reported by Serfert et al., 2009), and ii)
415 encapsulation process as a result of the exposure of the surface oil to atmospheric air during
416 production (as reported by Drusch et al., 2006).

417 Although the PV of the capsules at day 0 was not significantly affected by the carbohydrate or oil
418 emulsification approach used, different trends in hydroperoxides content were observed during storage
419 for the capsules studied (Fig. 6b). Independently of the carbohydrate used, a longer lag phase was
420 found for the capsules with oil emulsified by rotor-stator equipment when compared to those
421 containing oil emulsified by high-pressure homogenization (8 days vs. 3 days). Furthermore, the PV of

422 the capsules with oil emulsified by high-pressure homogenization was significantly higher during
423 storage than the PV of the capsules with oil incorporated by rotor-stator emulsification (apart from
424 glucose syrup capsules at day 21). PV of the electrosprayed capsules with oil (20 wt.%) emulsified
425 only by rotor-stator equipment was similar to those reported by Morales-Medina et al. (2016) for
426 microcapsules containing 14 wt.% fish oil and produced by spray-drying using fish protein
427 hydrolysates and glucose syrup as wall materials (PV of ca. 20 meq/kg oil after 20 days storage at 20
428 °C); and lower than those found by Drusch & Berg (2008) for spray-dried microcapsules loaded with
429 30 wt.% fish oil and containing n-OSA starch and glucose syrup as shell materials (PV of ca. 30
430 meq/kg oil after 21 days storage at 20 °C). Nevertheless, lower hydroperoxide concentrations (PV<10
431 meq/kg oil after 50 days storage at 20 °C) were obtained for Serfert et al. (2009) for microcapsules
432 with a shell matrix composed of n-OSA starch and glucose syrup (fish oil load of 40 wt.%), which
433 were stabilized with specific combinations of natural antioxidants (α - and δ -tocopherols, ascorbyl
434 palmitate, citric acid, lecithin or citrem and rosemary extract). In line with PV results, the
435 concentration of secondary volatile oxidation products was also higher for capsules with oil emulsified
436 by high-pressure homogenization compared to capsules where the oil was emulsified using only a
437 rotor-stator equipment (Fig. 7). For instance, significantly lower concentration of 1-penten-3-ol during
438 storage was observed for G-RSE capsules compared to G-HPH capsules (Fig. 7a). Similarly, D-RSE
439 and G-RSE showed a lower content of (*E*)-2-pentenal up to 14 days of storage than D-HPH and G-
440 HPH capsules, respectively (Fig. 7b). Both 1-penten-3-ol and (*E*)-2-pentenal are volatiles derived from
441 the oxidation of omega-3 PUFA and they have low odour threshold values (0.001-3 ppm and 0.04-25
442 ppm, respectively) and undesired sensory attributes (milky, butter and sweet or oily, soapy, pungent,
443 glue, green and grassy, respectively) (Hartvigsen et al. 2001; Venkateshwarlu et al. 2004). Likewise,
444 lower content of volatiles products derived from oxidation of omega-9 fatty acids (i.e. heptanal and
445 nonanal) were also found for D-RSE and G-RSE capsules compared to D-HPH and G-HPH capsules
446 (Fig. 7c,d). Both heptanal and nonanal have also low odour threshold values (0.014-1 ppm) and
447 unacceptable sensory characteristics for the consumer such as chemical and burnt or green plant-like,
448 compost-like and rancid, respectively (Hartvigsen et al., 2000; Shahidi, 2001; Venkateshwarlu et al.,

2004). The higher oxidative stability of D-RSE and G-RSE capsules could be explained due to their higher EE values when compared to D-HPH and G-HPH capsules, respectively (Table 2). Oil on the surface of the capsules oxidized rapidly due to the lack of protection by any interfacial layer of biopolymers, which implies that a larger amount of surface oil might have reduced the oxidative stability of D-HPH and G-HPH capsules (Drusch et al., 2007). Furthermore, the parent emulsions of D-RSE and G-RSE capsules were produced in situ in the pilot plant just right before electrospaying, which reduced the time elapsed from emulsification to drying and minimized physical destabilization of the emulsions. On the contrary, a more pronounced physical destabilization was observed in the parent emulsions of D-HPH and G-HPH capsules (Table 2), which may have led to unprotected oil droplets by modification of the interfacial layer.

Although no significant effect of the shell matrices evaluated (dextran vs. glucose syrup) was observed in PV (Fig. 6b), significant differences were found in terms of secondary volatile oxidation products (Fig. 7). In general, glucose capsules showed a significantly ($p < 0.05$) lower concentration of volatiles compared to dextran capsules. This trend was clearly observed for: i) 1-penten-3-ol when comparing D-RSE and G-RSE capsules (Fig. 7a), ii) (*E*)-2-pentenal when comparing both D-HPH and G-HPH or D-RSE and G-RSE capsules up to day 14 of storage (Fig. 7b), and iii) heptanal when comparing D-HPH and G-HPH capsules at day 21 of storage, or D-RSE and G-RSE capsules up to 14 days of storage. An opposite trend was found for nonanal, with glucose syrup capsules presenting a higher concentration of this volatile during storage (Fig. 7d). However, this is attributed to the higher content of pullulan in glucose syrup capsules (4 wt.%) compared to dextran capsules (1wt.%), since pure pullulan electrospun fibers have been reported to present high concentration of nonanal (García-Moreno et al., 2017a). These results indicated that the highest oxidative stability of G-RSE capsules cannot be solely explained by their extractable oil content, since D-RSE capsules presented significantly ($p < 0.05$) higher EE values than G-RSE capsules (Table 2). This is in agreement with previous studies in the literature which indicated that: i) extractable oil also contains oil droplets surrounded by interfacial layer, which could offer some protection against oxidation (Drusch et al., 2007), and ii) surface oil could protect other fractions of the extractable oil from oxidation (e.g. oil

476 droplets close to the surface) (Drusch & Berg, 2008). Besides, a previous study on encapsulation of
477 fish oil in microcapsules by spray-drying stated the importance of oxygen diffusivity on autooxidation
478 of omega-3 PUFA (Drusch et al., 2009). Therefore, a plausible explanation for the higher oxidative
479 stability of G-RSE compared to D-RSE might be the result of a reduced free volume for the glucose
480 syrup matrix compared to the dextran shell. Glucose syrup had a lower molecular weight than dextran
481 (12.5 vs. 70 kDa), which may allow a more dense packaging within the glassy wall, limiting oxygen
482 permeability; and thus, reducing oil oxidation. Similarly, Drusch et al. (2009) demonstrated the
483 presence of larger free volume elements for glassy carbohydrates matrices with higher molecular
484 weight, which correlated well with the lower oxidative stability of fish oil encapsulated in these
485 matrices (i.e. maltodextrin with DE 18 and maltose with estimated DE 50). Therefore, the authors
486 suggested that the reduced oxygen diffusivity in fish oil-loaded microcapsules containing low
487 molecular weight carbohydrates (e.g. maltose with estimated DE 50) explained the enhanced oxidative
488 stability of these capsules.

489 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

490 Biopolymer solutions containing fish oil (20 wt.% with respect to biopolymers), WPC (0.5 wt.%),
491 citrem (0.5 wt.%), and pullulan (1wt.%) plus dextran (15wt.%) or pullulan (4wt.%) plus glucose syrup
492 (15 wt.%) led to electrosprayed capsules without any fibril defects, both when producing in lab and
493 pilot-plant scale. To the best of the authors' knowledge, this is the first study reporting the production
494 of electrosprayed capsules by using combinations of whey protein and carbohydrates. Moreover,
495 electrosprayed capsules were developed for the first time by using glucose syrup as the main wall
496 material. This is of special importance due to the low cost of this biopolymer.

497 The ATR-FTIR method was not sensitive enough to study oxidative stability of the fish oil-loaded
498 capsules, since no changes in the normalized absorbance of the band at 3012 cm^{-1} (indicating the
499 stretching of cis-alkene $-\text{HC}=\text{CH}-$ groups) was observed during storage. Nevertheless, the
500 hydroperoxide and volatiles content of the capsules increased during storage. Capsules with oil
501 emulsified by using only a rotor-stator equipment showed higher oxidative stability than capsules

502 where the oil was incorporated by high-pressure homogenization, as evaluated by hydroperoxide and
503 volatiles (1-penten-3-ol, (*E*)-2-pentenal, heptanal, and nonanal) content. This was explained by a
504 higher encapsulation efficiency and a shorter time span between emulsification and drying which
505 reduced physical destabilization of emulsions. Glucose syrup capsules presented higher oxidative
506 stability than dextran capsules. This finding was attributed to the lower molecular weight of glucose
507 syrup, which led to lower free volume in the glassy matrix reducing oxygen diffusivity. Finally, it has
508 to be mentioned that the oxidative stability of the electrosprayed capsules needs to be further improved
509 (i.e. by reducing surface oil).

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Table 1. Oil droplet size and electro spraying flow rate for the different biopolymers solutions

Solutions	Oil droplet size, μm		Electrospraying flow rate, mL/min	
	$D_{3,2}$	$D_{0,9}$		
Dextran	1% WPC + 2% pullulan + 20% dextran	0.684 ^a	1.894 ^a	0.012
	1% WPC + 2% pullulan + 15% dextran	0.327 ^b	1.009 ^b	0.012
	1% WPC + 1% pullulan + 20% dextran	0.600 ^{a,*}	1.647 ^{a,*}	0.010
	1% WPC + 1% pullulan + 15% dextran	0.280 ^{b,*}	0.909 ^{b,*}	0.010
	0.5% WPC + 0.5% citrem + 1% pullulan + 15% dextran	0.129 [†]	0.334 [†]	0.010
Glucose syrup	1% WPC+2% pullulan + 15% glucose syrup	0.163 ^a	0.485 ^a	0.003
	1% WPC+4% pullulan + 15% glucose syrup	0.189 ^b	0.581 ^b	0.007
	1% WPC+5% pullulan + 15% glucose	0.212 ^c	0.614 ^c	0.010
	0.5% WPC + 0.5% citrem + 4% pullulan + 15% glucose syrup	0.112 [†]	0.259 [†]	0.007

Standard deviations for oil droplet size measurements were $< 0.008 \mu\text{m}$. No deviations were observed for flow rate.

For dextran samples, different letters (a-b) indicate statistical significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between samples containing different concentration of dextran but same concentration of pullulan. * indicates statistical significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between samples with same dextran concentration but different concentration of pullulan. For glucose syrup samples, different letters (a-b) indicate statistical significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between samples containing different concentration of pullulan.

† indicates statistical significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between samples with and without citrem.

Table 2. Oil droplet size of redispersed nano-microcapsules and encapsulation efficiency

Electrosprayed capsules		Oil droplet size, μm		Encapsulation efficiency (EE), %
		D _{3,2}	D _{0,9}	
Dextran	HPH	0.414±0.013 ^a	1.762±0.102 ^a	86.9±1.5 ^a
	RSE	0.388±0.006 ^b	2.548±0.176 ^b	91.7±0.9 ^b
Glucose syrup	HPH	0.605±0.009 ^{x,*}	3.008±0.079 ^{x,*}	78.1±3.2 ^{x,*}
	RSE	0.461±0.061 ^{y,ns}	3.960±0.355 ^{y,†}	85.7±0.3 ^{y,†}

HPH: high-pressure homogenization; RSE: rotor-stator emulsification

Letters (a-b) indicate statistical significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between dextran samples.

Letters (x-y) indicate statistical significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between glucose syrup samples.

* indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between dextran and glucose samples with oil emulsified by high-pressure homogenization.

ns indicates no significant differences ($p > 0.05$) between dextran and glucose samples with oil emulsified by rotor-stator emulsification.

† indicates significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between dextran and glucose samples with oil emulsified by rotor-stator emulsification.

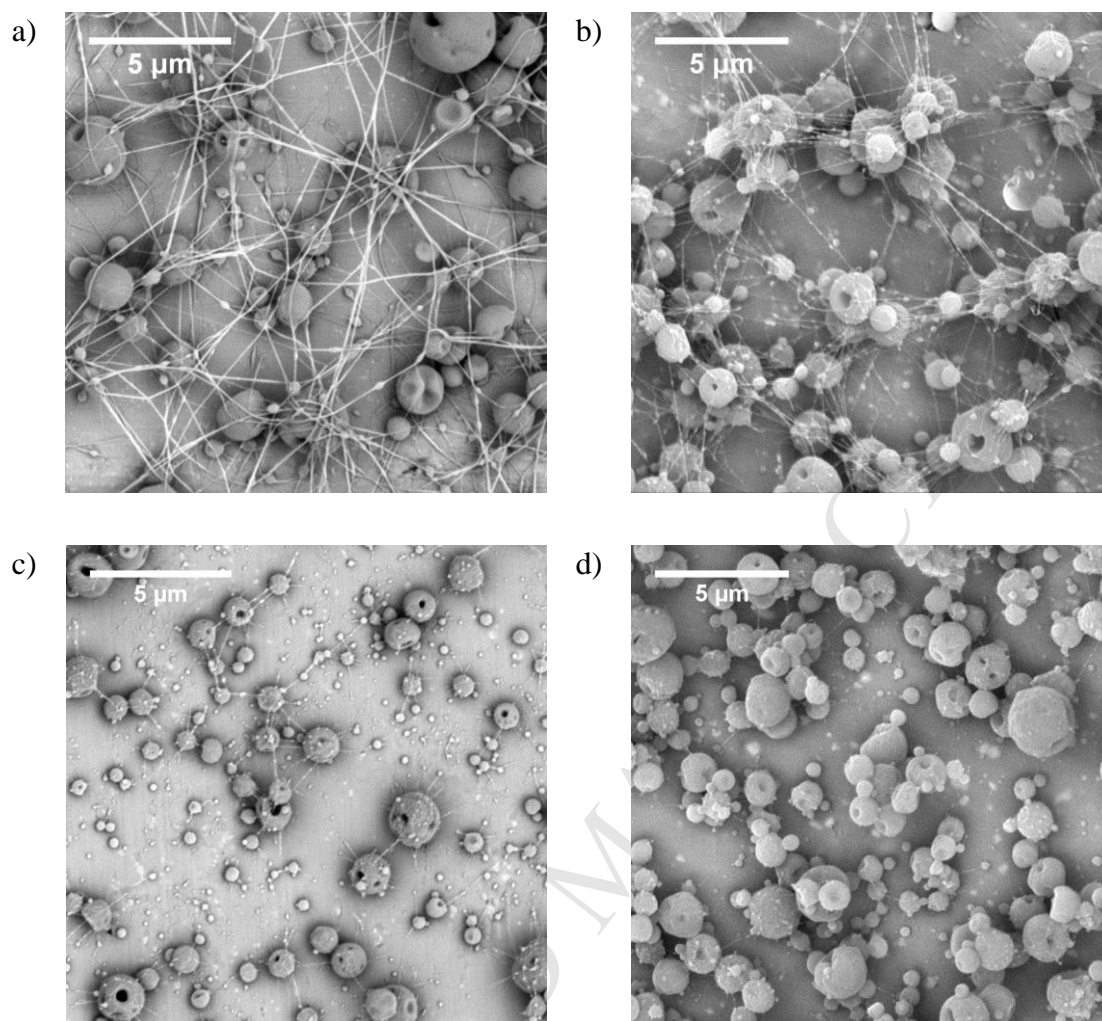


Figure 1. SEM images of nano-microstructures obtained by electrospinning of WPC (1 wt.%), pullulan and dextran solutions containing emulsified fish oil (20 wt.% oil with respect to biopolymers): (a) 2 wt.% pullulan + 20 wt.% dextran, (b) 2 wt.% pullulan + 15 wt.% dextran, (c) 1 wt.% pullulan + 20 wt.% dextran, and (d) 1 wt.% pullulan + 15 wt.% dextran.

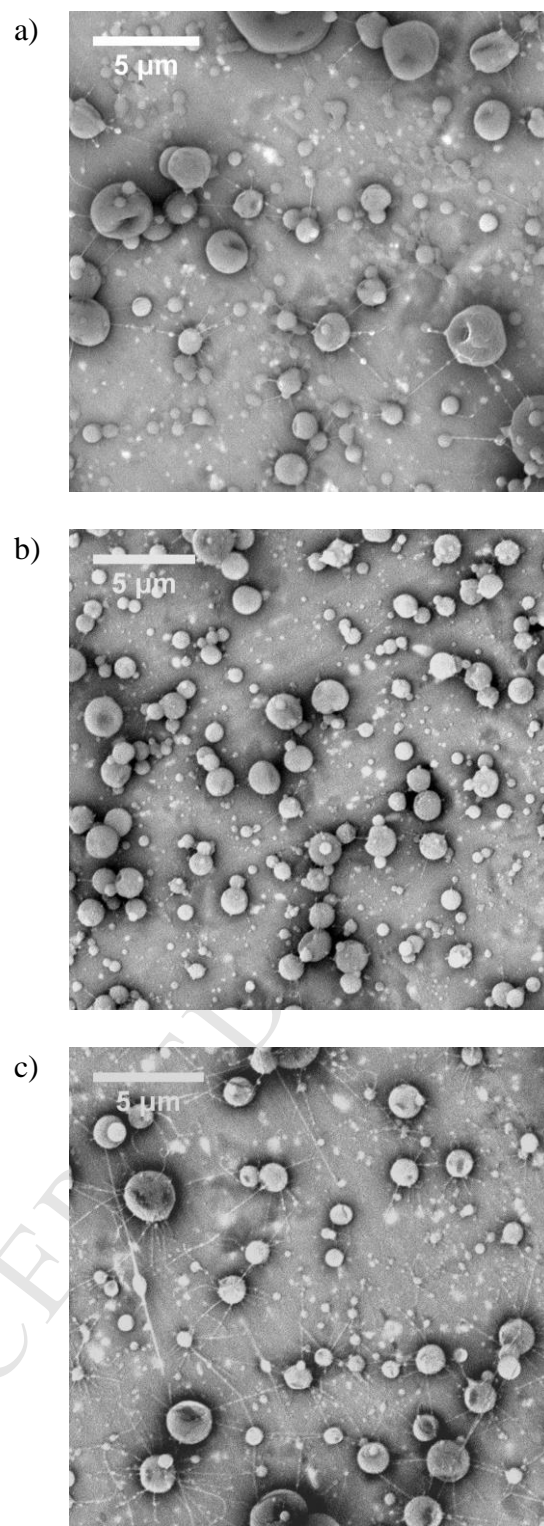


Figure 2. SEM images of nano-microstructures obtained by electrospaying of WPC (1 wt.%), pullulan and glucose syrup (15 wt.%) solutions containing emulsified fish oil (20 wt.% oil with respect to biopolymers): (a) 2 wt.% pullulan, (b) 4 wt.% pullulan, and (c) 5 wt.% pullulan.

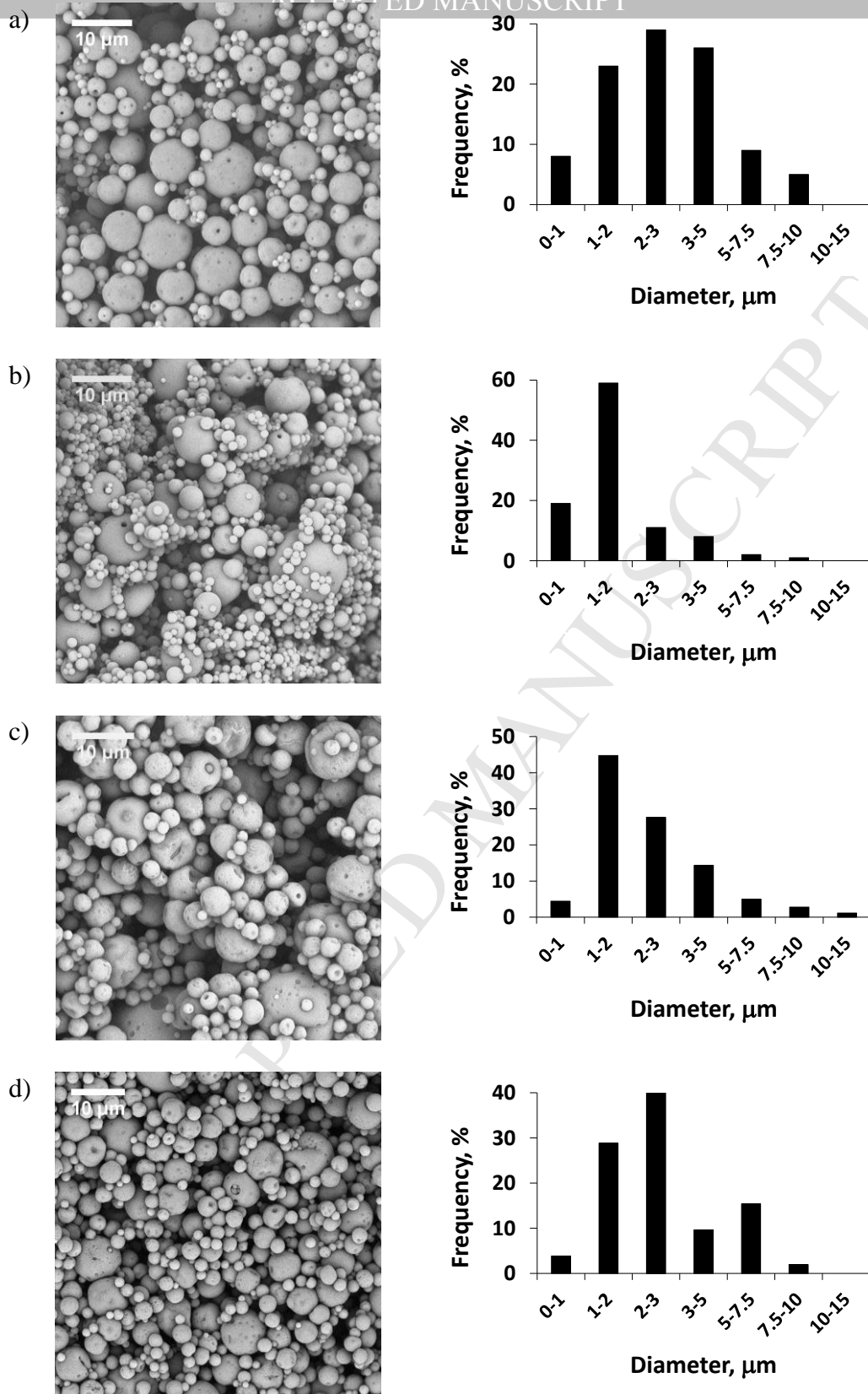


Figure 3. SEM images and diameter distribution of electrosprayed capsules: (a) D-HPH, (b) D-RSE, (c) G-HPH, and (d) G-RSE.

D: dextran; G: glucose syrup; HPH: high-pressure homogenization; RSE: rotor-stator emulsification.

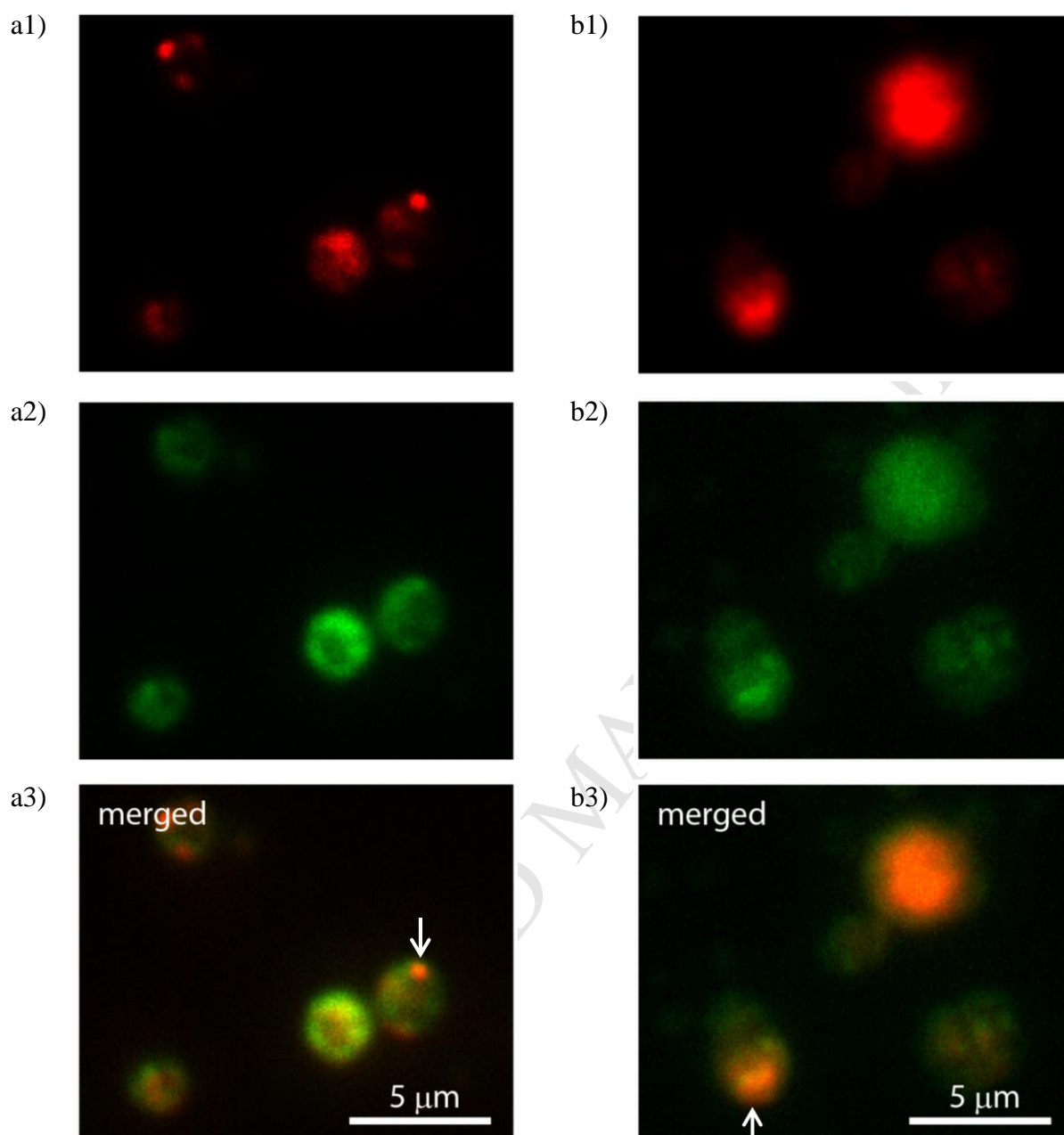


Figure 4. Fluorescence microscopy images of electrospayed capsules produced in lab scale using high-pressure homogenization for incorporating the oil: a) dextran-based capsules, and b) glucose syrup-based capsules. a1) and b1) show the location of fish oil (in red); a2) and b2) show the location of WPC (in green); and a3) and b3) show the simultaneous location of fish oil and WPC.

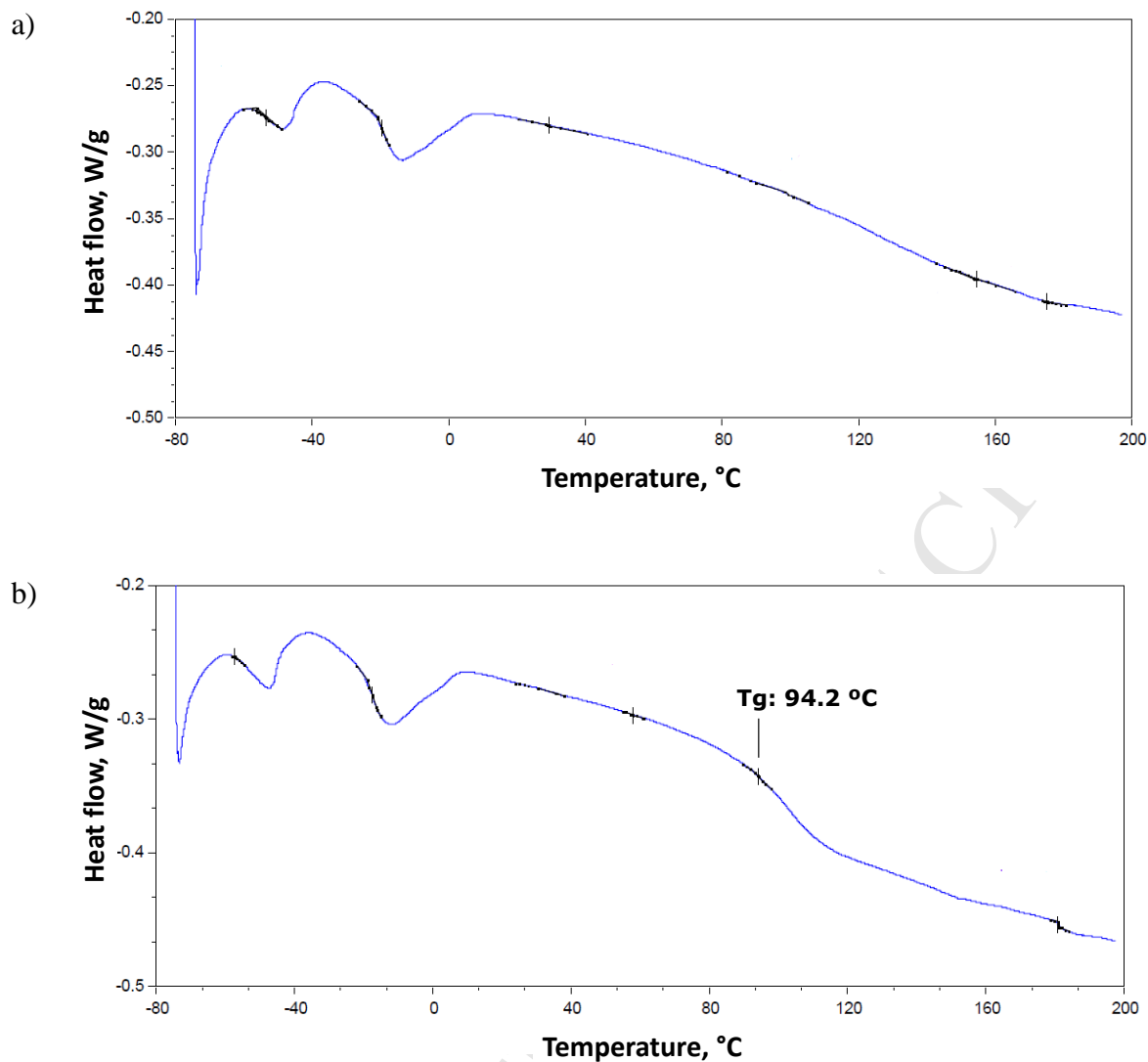


Figure 5. DSC heating curves of electrospayed capsules produced in pilot-plant scale using high-pressure homogenization for incorporating the oil: a) dextran-based capsules, and b) glucose syrup-based capsules.

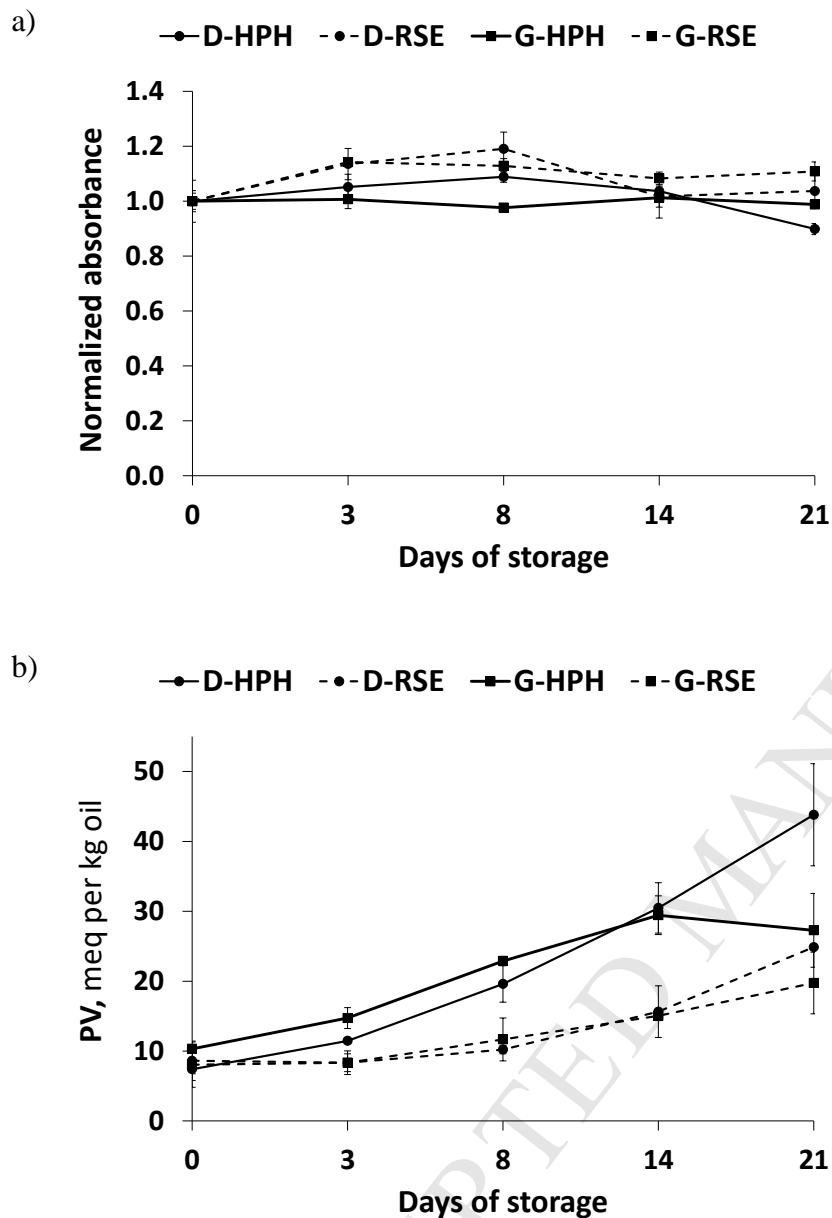


Figure 6. Oxidative stability of electrosprayed capsules loaded with fish oil during storage at 20 °C: a) ATR-FTIR, and b) Peroxide value (PV).

D: dextran; G: glucose syrup; HPH: high-pressure homogenization; RSE: rotor-stator emulsification

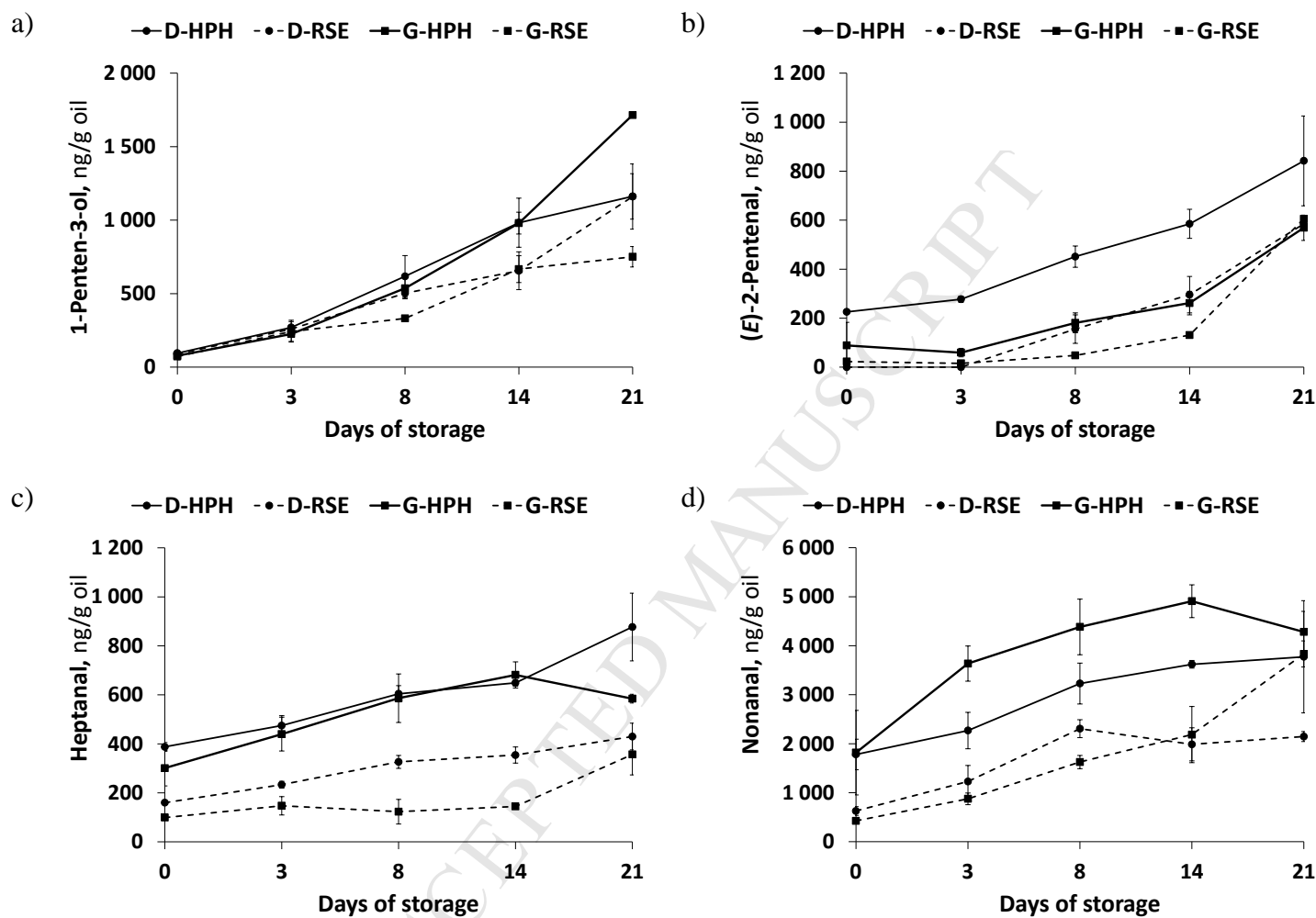


Figure 7. Secondary volatiles oxidation products of electro sprayed capsules loaded with fish oil during storage at 20 °C: a) 1-penten-3-ol, b) D: dextran; G: glucose syrup; HPH: high-pressure homogenization; RSE: rotor-stator emulsification.

Highlights

- Fish oil-loaded nano-microcapsules were produced by electrospraying
- Whey protein, pullulan and dextran or glucose syrup were used as wall materials
- Rotor-stator emulsification led to capsules with higher oxidative stability
- The glucose syrup matrix prevented more efficiently oxidation of encapsulated oil
- Electrosprayed capsules are promising omega-3 nano-delivery systems