

Effects of caffeic acid and bovine serum albumin in reducing the rate of development of rancidity in oil-in-water and water-in-oil emulsions

Article

Accepted Version

Conde, E., Gordon, M. H., Moure, A. and Dominguez, H. (2011) Effects of caffeic acid and bovine serum albumin in reducing the rate of development of rancidity in oil-in-water and water-in-oil emulsions. Food Chemistry, 129 (4). pp. 1652-1659. ISSN 0308-8146 doi:

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2011.06.027 Available at https://centaur.reading.ac.uk/22824/

It is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from the work. See <u>Guidance on citing</u>.

To link to this article DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2011.06.027

Publisher: Elsevier

All outputs in CentAUR are protected by Intellectual Property Rights law, including copyright law. Copyright and IPR is retained by the creators or other copyright holders. Terms and conditions for use of this material are defined in the <u>End User Agreement</u>.



www.reading.ac.uk/centaur

CentAUR

Central Archive at the University of Reading

Reading's research outputs online

| 1 | Effects of Caffeic Acid and Bovine Serum Albumin in Reducing the Rate of |
|----------|---|
| 2 | Development of Rancidity in Oil-in-water and Water-in-oil Emulsions |
| 3 | ENMA CONDE ¹ , MICHAEL H.GORDON ² , ANDRÉS MOURE ¹ and HERMINIA DOMINGUEZ ¹ |
| 4 | |
| 5 | ¹ Departamento de Enxeñería Química, Universidade de Vigo (Campus Ourense), Edificio Politécnico |
| 6 | As Lagoas s/n, 32004, Ourense, Spain |
| 7 | ² Hugh Sinclair Unit of Human Nutrition, Department of Food and Nutritional Sciences, The |
| 8 | University of Reading, Whiteknights P.O. Box 226, Reading RG6 6AP, United Kingdom |
| 9 | |
| 10 | |
| 11 12 | AUTHOR EMAIL ADDRESS m.h.gordon@reading.ac.uk |
| 12 | RECEIVED DATE |
| 14 | TITLE RUNNING HEAD Effects of caffeic acid and bovine serum albumin on rancidity |
| 15 | development in emulsions |
| 16 | CORRESPONDING AUTHOR FOOTNOTE Phone +44 118 3786723 Fax: +44 118 9310 080 |
| 17 | |
| 18 | |
| 19 | |
| 20 | |
| 21 | |
| 22 | |

25 ABSTRACT

The antioxidant properties of caffeic acid and bovine serum albumin in oil-in-water and water-in-oil emulsions were studied. Caffeic acid (5 mmol/kg emulsion) showed good antioxidant properties in both 30% sunflower oil-in-water (OW) and 20% water-in-sunflower oil emulsions (WO), pH 5.4, during storage at 50 °C. Although bovine serum albumin (BSA) (0.2%) had a slight antioxidant effect, the combination of caffeic acid and BSA showed a synergistic reduction in the rate of development of rancidity, with significant reductions in concentration of total volatiles, peroxide value (PV) and p-anisidine value (PA) for both emulsion types. The synergistic increase in stability of the OW and WO emulsions containing BSA and caffeic acid was 102.9 and 50.4 % respectively based on TOTOX values, which are calculated as 2PV + PA, with greater synergy calculated if based on formation of headspace volatiles, The OW emulsion was more susceptible to the development of headspace volatiles by oxidation than the WO emulsion, even though the degree of oxidation assessed by the TOTOX value was similar.

- 39 Keywords: Antioxidant activity; Bovine serum albumin; Caffeic acid; Emulsions; Oxidative stability

48

49 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Lipid oxidation is of great concern to the consumer because it causes not only changes in the quality attributes of foods, including taste, texture, shelf life, appearance and flavor, but also due to the strong decrease in the nutritional value and safety caused by the loss of antioxidants and the formation of harmful components including free radicals and reactive aldehydes (Halliwell, Murcia, Chirico & Aruoma, 1995).

Oxidation in food emulsions is of particular interest since oil is widely consumed in foods which are either water-in-oil, for example, butter and margarine, or oil-in-water emulsions, for example, mayonnaise, milk and cream. Lipid oxidation in emulsions is generally recognized as being more complex than lipid oxidation in bulk oil systems, as the emulsification process will lead to the formation of a large interfacial area, and lipid oxidation is initiated at the interface between oil and water, where different non-polar and polar compounds in the system can interact (Frankel, 1998; McClements & Decker, 2000).

62 One of the most effective methods of retarding lipid oxidation in fatty foods is to incorporate 63 antioxidants. The behavior of antioxidants is also more complex in emulsions than in bulk oil since 64 more variables are involved, including the emulsifier and pH (Mancuso, McClements & Decker, 1999; 65 SØrensen et al., 2008). Antioxidant efficacy in food systems depends on various factors including the 66 structure (i.e., number and position of hydroxyl groups bound to the aromatic ring and presence of 67 other substituents), chemical reactivity of the phenolics, interactions with food components, and 68 environmental conditions. The partitioning of the antioxidant into the different phases is an important 69 factor for emulsions (Decker, Warner, Richards & Shahidi, 2005). The efficacy of antioxidants in bulk 70 oil and in dispersed systems is affected by their polarity as described by the "polar paradox" (Frankel, 71 Huang, Kanner & German, 1994). According to the polar paradox, polar antioxidants like ascorbic acid and Trolox are more active in non-polar media like bulk oils than less polar components including ascorbyl palmitate and tocopherol. These apparent paradoxical effects of the antioxidants have been reported as being due to the polar antioxidants being located at the air-oil interface in bulk oils, i.e. situated where oxidation is suggested to take place or at least to be initiated. In addition, they may act in non-polar media by chelation of metal ions. On the other hand, lipophilic antioxidants are more active in polar systems, because they are located at the oil-water interface where oxidation is propagated (Frankel et al, 1994; Huang, Hopia, Schwarz, Frankel & German, 1996; Porter, 1993).

Phenolic compounds, such as caffeic acid, have received increasing interest due to their antioxidant activity, which improves the stability of lipid-containing foods and their possible beneficial effects on human health. Caffeic acid may exert its antioxidant effect by donating a hydrogen atom to free radicals, thereby acting as chain-breaking antioxidants, or may act as a metal chelator, which reduces the activity of prooxidants (Gülçin, 2006; Leonardis & Macciola, 2003).

Although antioxidants have been frequently studied in oils, emulsions, and other foods, there have been few reports of how proteins, which are commonly present in foods, may affect the activity of antioxidants. Most antioxidants of interest for foods have one or more phenolic hydroxyl groups, and several studies have demonstrated that molecules with this structure may bind to proteins. Polyphenols may associate with proteins through hydrophobic interactions and hydrogen bonding (Oda, Kinoshita, Nakayama & Kakehi, 1998), and a range of phenolic antioxidants has also been shown to bind to bovine skin proteins (Wang & Goodman, 1999).

91 Proteins have been shown to have weak antioxidant activity including both metal chelating and radical 92 scavenging activity (Arcan & Yemenicioğlu. 2007). Bovine serum albumin (BSA), a minor whey 93 protein with M.W. 66 kDa has surface-active properties and has been used to stabilize model food 94 emulsions (Rampon, Lethuaut, Mouhous-Riou & Genot, 2001).

95 The aim of this study was to determine the influence of BSA on the total antioxidant activity of caffeic 96 acid in model food emulsions. The pH of the emulsions was 5.4, which is a typical pH for margarine 97 samples.

98

99 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

100 2.1. Chemicals

All solvents used were analytical or HPLC grade (Merck & Co. Inc., Darmstadt, Germany). Isooctane, glacial acetic acid, ferrous sulfate, barium chloride, ammonium thiocyanate, polyoxyethylene sorbitan monolaurate (Tween-20), p-anisidine, cumene hydroperoxide, bovine serum albumin (BSA), hexanal, and bromobenzene were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Gillingham, Dorset, UK). Refined sunflower oil was purchased from a local retail outlet. Fatty acids were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (Saint Louis, MO, USA).

107 The fatty acid composition of the sunflower oil is shown in **Table 1**.

108 2.2. Removal of tocopherols from sunflower oil

109 Tocopherols were removed from sunflower oil by column chromatography using activated alumina as110 described by Yoshida, 1993.

111 **2.3.** Emulsion preparation

Oil-in-water emulsions (30% oil) were prepared by dissolving Tween-20 (1%) in acetate buffer (0.1 M, pH 5.4), either with or without BSA (0.2%) and caffeic acid (5 mmol/kg emulsion). Water-in-oil emulsions (20% water) were prepared by dissolving Dimodan® (1%) in acetate buffer (0.1 M, pH 5.4), either with or without BSA (0.2%) and caffeic acid (5 mmol/kg emulsion). Emulsions were prepared by the dropwise addition of oil to the water phase, with sonication by a Vibracell sonicator (Sonic & Materials, Newton, CT, USA) whilst cooling in an ice bath for 5 min.

118 2.4. Emulsion oxidation

All emulsions were stored in triplicate in 25 mL glass bottles in the dark (inside an oven) at 50 °C, and
each replicate was analysed once.

Aliquots of each emulsion were removed periodically for peroxide value (PV), *p*-anisidine value (PA)
determinations and for analysis of volatile oxidation products by gas chromatography (GC).

123 **2.5.** Determination of fatty acid composition

124 The fatty acid composition of sunflower oil was determined by GC on an HP Agilent 6890N 125 chromatograph equipped with a HP 7683 injector and a flame ionization detector (FID). Fatty acid 126 methyl esters (FAMEs) were prepared by transesterification according to Shehata, de Man & 127 Alexander, 1970. Chromatographic separation was carried out using a SP-2560 column (100 m length, 128 0.25 mm ID and 0.20 µm film thickness; Supelco). The oven temperature was 120 °C for 5 min, followed by temperature programming to 170 °C at 2 °C min⁻¹, 200 °C at 5 °C min⁻¹, and then 129 increased to 235 °C at 2 °C min⁻¹. Helium was used as carrier gas, the FID temperature was 280 °C and 130 131 the injection port was held at 260 °C.

132 2.6. Spectrophotometric determination of peroxide value (PV)

Emulsion (0.3 mL) was added to isooctane/2-propanol (3:2 v/v, 1.5 mL) and the mixture was mixed on a vortex mixer three times for 10 s each time. After centrifugation for 2 min at 1000 x g, the clear upper layer (0.2 mL) was collected and peroxides were quantified using a method based on that of Díaz, Dunn, McClements & Decker, 2003. Lipid peroxide concentration was determined using a cumene hydroperoxide standard curve ($r^2=0.9977$).

138 2.7. Spectrophotometric determination of p-anisidine Value (PA)

139 The PA value was determined by AOCS Official Method no. cd 18-90, 1989.

140 2.8. Solid phase microextraction (SPME) sampling conditions

An aliquot of emulsion (0.2 g) was weighed in a 2mL vial. A magnetic follower was added and the vial was capped with a Teflon-faced rubber septum and plastic cap. The vial was placed in a water bath on a magnetic stirrer and the sample was equilibrated for 2 min at 60°C. The septum was manually pierced with the SPME needle and the fiber was exposed to the emulsion headspace for 60
min and transferred to the gas chromatograph where the volatiles were desorbed in the injection port.
The desorption time in the injection port was 15 min.

147 2.9. SPME/GC analysis

148 Volatile oxidation compounds were monitored by headspace analysis with solid phase microextraction 149 (HS-SPME). A manual SPME fiber holder unit and 30 µm DVB-CAR-PDMS fiber (Sigma-Aldrich 150 Company Ltd., Dorset, UK) were used to adsorb volatiles from the emulsion in a closed vial at 60°C 151 with a sampling time of 60 min. GC analyses were performed with a HP 5890 series II gas 152 chromatograph (Agilent UK, South Queensferry, UK) equipped with FID detector and split/splitless 153 injector. Chromatographic separation was carried out using a HP-5-column (15 m length, 0.25 mm ID 154 and 0.25 µm film thickness; Agilent UK). The oven temperature was 40 °C for 10 min, followed by temperature programming to 140 °C at 2.5 °C min⁻¹, and then increased to 300 °C at 20 °C min⁻¹. 155 156 Helium was used as carrier gas in the splitless mode. The FID temperature was 280 °C and the 157 injection port was held at 260 °C.

The identification of all compounds was based on the mass spectra determined by GC-MS using a HP 5890 series II gas chromatograph with MS detector and by comparison of their retention time with those of authentic standards. Retention times for a series of n-alkanes (C_5-C_{25}) were determined and used to calculate the Linear Retention Indices (LRI values) of detected compounds.

Bromobenzene (1 μ L/g emulsion) was added as an internal standard prior to analysis. The relative concentrations of the investigated compounds were calculated by relating the area of the internal standard to the area of the compound of interest, defined as:

165 Relative conc. =
$$\frac{\text{Peak area of particular compound}}{\text{Peak area of IS}} \bar{x}$$
 IS conc.

166 2.10. Confocal microscopy

167 Confocal microscopy was performed with a Leica TCS SP2 AOBS confocal laser scanning 168 microscope mounted on a Leica inverted DM IRE2 microscope for the oil-in-water emulsions and 169 with a Leica TCS SP5 confocal laser microscope for the water-in-oil emulsions.. A Nile Red/Nile Blue 170 mixture (0.01%) was added to an emulsion sample and examined using x10, x20 and x 40 objectives. 171 The image was obtained by exciting the sample with a 633nm Helium-Neon laser with an emission 172 band of 630-750nm.

173

174 2.11. Calculation of synergy

Synergy was calculated by comparing the times to a given level of deterioration, defined as inductionperiod for the calculation, as described in Almajano & Gordon, 2004.

177 %synergism =
$$100 \frac{P(a+p) - IP(c)}{IPa - IPc) + (IPp - IPc)}$$

178 where IP= induction period, a= antioxidant, p = protein and c = control.

179 2.12. Statistical analysis

180 The triplicate determinations were used to calculate the mean (m), standard deviation (sd), and 181 standard error of the mean (SEM).

Times to selected levels of deterioration were compared, and significant differences at the 5% level were assessed by one-way ANOVA using commercial software (Statistica 6.0). To verify the association among experimental data, Pearson correlation analysis was performed using the same statistical package; p-values < 0.05 were considered significant.

186

187

188 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The sunflower oil used contained linoleic acid (64.17%), and oleic acid (25.01%) as the main
unsaturated fatty acids, with linolenic acid being present at 0.16% (**Table 1**).

191 The emulsions were stored at 50 °C to accelerate oxidative changes that would occur more slowly, at 192 lower temperatures. Reproducibility of the data was good with the SEM being <25% for 80% of the 193 samples analysed by PV, and the SEM being <25% for 90% of the samples analysed by PA.

The initial PV of the emulsion samples was similar with values of 0.05 mM cumene hydroperoxide for OW emulsions and 0.07-0.17 mM for WO emulsions. After 14 days of oxidation the OW emulsions reached significantly different PV values in the order: OW > OW-BSA > OW-CAF > OW-CAF-BSA. The PV values reached in WO emulsions were in the same order up to 35 days but the PV of WO-CAF was higher than WO-BSA at 42 days, since the PV of the control and BSA samples declined sharply after 35 days with corresponding sharp increases in PA values indicating degradation of the hydroperoxides.

As shown in **Figure 1**, the maximum PV reached was 10.43 mM hydroperoxide at 42 days for the OW sample, followed by 7.72 mM hydroperoxide for OW-BSA. In WO emulsions the maximum value was reached at 35 days for the WO sample followed by the WO-BSA sample (6.28 and 5.44 mM hydroperoxide, respectively); then there was a decrease in PV for all WO emulsions as the rate of hydroperoxide formation became less than hydroperoxide decomposition.

At 35 days of storage, the extent of formation of hydroperoxides in the OW-CAF and WO-CAF samples was lower than in the appropriate control sample with inhibition of 66.7 and 34.7 %, respectively, indicating the antioxidant effect of caffeic acid. The greater effect in the OW emulsion may be due to type of emulsion, the higher caffeic acid:oil ratio (16.7 mmol/kg oil) in the OW emulsion, which was 2.7 times higher than in the WO emulsion (6.25 mmol/kg oil) and the difference between oil concentration in the emulsions. BSA increased the activity of caffeic acid in both emulsions.

The PA value determination, a measure of secondary oxidation products (List, Evans, Kwolek, Warner, Boundy & Cowan, 1974), confirmed the findings of the PV analysis. The PA test was used to determine the level of aldehydes, principally 2-alkenals and 2,4-alkadienals, present in the emulsions. The PA values were relatively stable for the samples with caffeic acid, and with both caffeic acid and BSA throughout the study.

219 As shown in **Table 2**, in the presence of BSA, the stability of the OW emulsions containing caffeic 220 acid increased by more than 200%, when assessed by the time to PA = 0.15, but BSA did not 221 contribute any significant increase in stability to WO emulsions containing caffeic acid when assessed 222 by the PA values. The TOTOX value is a measure of both primary and secondary oxidation products, 223 where TOTOX = 2PV + PA. Synergy between the caffeic acid and bovine serum albumin, in retarding 224 oxidation of emulsions, was investigated by consideration of the TOTOX values. As shown in Table 225 2, the OW sample took 8.19 days to reach a TOTOX value of 3.7, followed by OW-BSA with 10.72 226 days, then OW-CAF with 23.7 days and finally OW-CAF-BSA, the most stable, with 42 days. The 227 WO emulsions showed similar times to reach a TOTOX value of 8.9.

228

229 Headspace solid phase microextraction (HS-SPME) was used to isolate the headspace volatile 230 products formed during secondary oxidation of OW and WO emulsions. Volatile aldehydes have great 231 importance as oxidation products because of their contribution to the aroma of oxidised oils and 232 emulsions. Hydrophobic flavor components can be perceived at lower concentrations in water than in 233 oil, since many of the lipid oxidation products have higher solubility in the oil phase. This means that, 234 for a fixed concentration of volatile components, their concentration in the headspace of an emulsion 235 decreases as the oil concentration increases. As a consequence, a low fat emulsion may be perceived 236 as more oxidized than a high fat emulsion, even though both emulsions have the same concentration of 237 volatile components.

238 Figure 2 shows the change in concentration of hexanal and total volatile products with time expressed 239 as relative peak area. Hexanal has been widely used as a marker of volatile oxidation products of n-6 240 fatty acids in previous studies (Rouseff & Cadwallader, 2001). In both systems, hexanal was the main 241 volatile formed during storage. The OW emulsion was more susceptible to headspace volatile 242 formation than the WO emulsion, as shown by the considerably higher concentrations of total volatiles 243 that were formed, even though the degree of oxidation assessed by the TOTOX value was not 244 significantly different in the two emulsion types (Table 3). At day 42, the TOTOX value for the OW emulsion containing caffeic acid and BSA was even lower than that of the analogous WO emulsion. 245 246 The difference in headspace volatile concentration is partly due to the reduction of vapour pressure of 247 each volatile component in the greater mass of oil present in the WO emulsions, since, according to 248 Raoult's law, the vapour pressure of a solute is proportional to its molar concentration. However, 249 differences in the relative importance of hydroperoxide decomposition pathways into volatile and non-250 volatile products may also occur in the different emulsion types, since the headspace volatile: PA ratio 251 after 42 days storage was 6.7-7.9 times higher in the OW emulsion than in the corresponding WO 252 emulsion, for samples containing no additive, BSA or caffeic acid and 49.3 times higher for the 253 samples containing caffeic acid and BSA (Table 3). The higher oxidative susceptibility of OW 254 emulsions has been reported extensively, and it is attributed to the greater extent of interfacial 255 interactions that are possible between the lipid substrate and prooxidants including metal ions in the 256 aqueous phase as a consequence of the greater surface area presented by the emulsion droplets 257 (McClements & Decker, 2000; Jacobsen, Let, Nielsen & Meyer, 2008). It has been suggested that lipid 258 oxidation in WO emulsions will occur at a rate similar to that in bulk oils because the surface of the 259 lipid phase is exposed directly to air (McClements & Decker, 2000), but effects of antioxidants, metal 260 ions and chelating agents will differ in these media. In WO emulsions, caffeic acid inhibited the 261 formation of hexanal and total volatile compounds at the end of the storage period by 75.48 and 53.51 262 %, respectively. Caffeic acid showed good antioxidant properties in OW emulsions inhibiting the 263 formation of hexanal and total volatile compounds by 95.08 and 87.27 %, respectively. BSA increased the antioxidant activity of caffeic acid in inhibiting the formation of hexanal and volatile compounds in the later stages of storage in WO emulsions (by 18.49 and 26.49 %, respectively), but was less effective in OW emulsions (2.51 and 3.32 %, respectively).

The synergistic increase in stability of the OW and WO emulsions prepared with BSA containing caffeic acid was 277.34 and 468.53 %, respectively, based on the time for the total volatile concentration to reach 585.37 and 364.56 µg bromobenzene/ g oil, respectively (**Table 2**).

Positive correlations between PV and total volatiles (r=0.892) and also between PA and both hexanal and total volatiles (r=0.992, r=0.981, respectively) in OW emulsions were found. Weaker correlations among parameters analyzed were found in WO emulsions (**Table 4**). Faster hydoperoxide decomposition compared to hydroperoxide formation in the WO emulsions, which leads to a reduction in PV but an increase in total volatiles, contributes to the weaker correlation between PV and total volatiles in this emulsion system.

276 In the secondary oxidation stage, volatile compounds (e.g. alcohols and aldehydes) are formed by the 277 decomposition of lipid hydroperoxides. In particular, volatile aldehydes have a great importance as an 278 indicator of oxidation due to their considerable contribution to the aroma and flavor deterioration of 279 the final products. The concentration of volatile compounds identified in OW and WO emulsions at 21 280 and 42 days of oxidation is summarized in Table 5. The profile of volatiles was dominated by 281 oxidation products derived from linoleic acid. As confirmed by GC-MS analysis, hexanal, (E)-2-282 heptenal, (E)-2-octenal and (E,E)-2,4-decadienal were the major volatile products in the autoxidation, 283 while pentanal, 1-octen-3-ol, nonanal and (E)-dec-2-enal were also present in significant amounts. 284 Hexanal, (E)-2-octenal, 2-heptenal, pentanal, and (E,E)-2,4-decadienal are major oxidation products of 285 linoleic acid (Selke, Rohwedder & Dutton, 1980; Frankel, 1998; Aidos, Jacobsen, Jensen, Luten, Van 286 der Padt & Boom, 2002; Jiménez-Álvarez, Giuffrida, Golav, Cotting, Destaillats, Dionisi et al, 2008), 287 whereas nonanal, octanal, 1-heptanol, 1-octanol, and (E)-dec-2-enal are formed from triacylglycerols 288 containing oleic acid (Selke et al, 1980).

289 The combination of caffeic acid and BSA was most effective at reducing the formation of both 290 hexanal and total volatiles in both emulsion systems. Caffeic acid was very effective at reducing 291 hexanal and total volatile formation in the OW emulsion, but its effect was weaker in the WO 292 emulsion where it was no better than BSA in reducing total volatile formation up to 35 days. This is 293 consistent with the increased hydroperoxide decomposition observed in the WO emulsion containing 294 caffeic acid (Figure 1b). The relative concentrations of the volatiles changed to some extent during the 295 oxidation with E-2-octenal becoming a major volatile product at later stages of oxidation in the OW 296 emulsion.

The antioxidant power and other important biological properties of caffeic acid are well substantiated (Gülçin, 2006; Yanishlieva & Marinova, 1995; Chen & Ho, 1997). Caffeic acid retarded the formation of hydroperoxides in menhaden oil-in-water emulsions (Maqsood & Benjakul, 2010), and De Leonardis & Macciola (De Leonardis & Macciola, 2003) reported that the antioxidant effectiveness of caffeic acid was better than that of BHA in hydrophobic phases such as cod liver oil.

302 The interactions between polyphenols and albumin have attracted much attention due to their 303 importance in food (He, Liang, Wang & Luo, , 2010; Prigent, Voragen, Visser, Van Koningsveld & 304 Gruppen, 2007). Caffeic acid is known to bind to BSA during storage in air with antioxidant activity 305 being incorporated in the protein fraction (Bartolomé, Estrella & Hernández, 2000; Almajano & 306 Gordon, 2004; Almajano, Carbo, Delgado & Gordon, 2007) but this does not occur in samples stored 307 under nitrogen (unpublished data). Confocal microscopy showed that BSA was present at the interface 308 between the oil and water phases in both an oil-in-water emulsion (Figure 3a, b), and a water-in-oil 309 emulsion (c, d). BSA can be seen clearly since it enhances the nile blue fluorescence at 670 nm (Lee, 310 Suh & Li, 2003). Hence, it can be deduced that caffeic acid is oxidized to a quinone, and binds to BSA 311 by reaction with amine groups in the side chains of amino acids such as lysine, as described by Rawel, 312 Rohn, Kruse & Kroll (2002). This transfers the caffeic acid from homogeneous solution in the aqueous 313 phase to the interface where it is more effective as an antioxidant. The caffeic acid retains a free 314 phenolic group, which is activated by a positively charged nitrogen atom as shown in scheme 1.

316 CONCLUSIONS

Development of headspace volatiles by lipid oxidation was significantly affected by emulsion type. The oil-in-water emulsions had a higher headspace volatile concentration, despite the degree of total oxidation assessed by the TOTOX value being similar to that of the water-in-oil emulsions. Although BSA had a slight antioxidant effect, it was found that BSA exerted a synergistic effect with caffeic acid in both emulsion types, and this is consistent with previous reports of synergy accompanied by formation of a protein-antioxidant adduct during storage (Almajano & Gordon, 2004). BSA caused a greater synergistic increase in the antioxidant activity of caffeic acid in a water-in-oil emulsion than in

- an oil-in-water emulsion.
- 325

326 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

- 327 EC thanks the Spanish Ministry of Education (AP2007-02164) for funding. We thank Andrew Dodson
- 328 and Stephen Pountney for technical assistance.

329 **REFERENCES**

- Aidos, I.; Jacobsen, C., Jensen, B., Luten, J. B., Van der Padt, A., & Boom, R. M. (2002). Volatile
 oxidation products formed in crude herring oil under accelerated oxidative conditions. *Eur. Food Res. Technol.*, 104, 808–818.
- Almajano, M. P., Carbo, R., Delgado, M. E., & Gordon, M. H. (2007). Effect of pH on the antimicrobial activity and oxidative stability of oil-in-water emulsions containing caffeic acid. *J. Food Sci.*, 72, 258-263.
- Almajano, M. P., & Gordon, M. H. (2004). Synergistic effect of BSA on antioxidant activities in model
 food emulsions. *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*, *81*, 275-280.
- AOCS Official Method cd 18-90. (1989). In *Official methods and recommended practices of the American Oil Chemists' Society*, 4th Ed., Firestone, D. Ed., American Oil Chemists' Society:
 Champaign, IL.
- Arcan, I. & Yemenicioğlu, A. (2007). Antioxidant activity of protein extracts from heat-treated or thermally processed chickpeas and white beans. *Food Chem.*, *103*, 301–312.
- Bartolomé, B., Estrella, I., & Hernández, M. T. (2000). Interaction of low molecular weight phenolics
 with proteins (BSA). *J. Food Sci.*, 65, 617-621.

- Chen, J. H., & Ho, C. T. (1997). Antioxidant activities of caffeic acid and its related hydroxycinnamic acid compounds. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, *45*, 2374–2378.
- Decker, E. A., Warner, K., Richards, M. P., & Shahidi, F. (2005). Measuring antioxidant effectiveness
 in food. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 53, 4303–4310.
- De Leonardis A., & Macciola V. (2003). Effectiveness of caffeic acid as an anti-oxidant for cod liver
 oil. *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.*, *38*, 475–480.
- Díaz, M., Dunn, C., McClements, D. J., & Decker, E. A. (2003). Use of caseinophosphopeptides as natural antioxidants in oil-in-water emulsions. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, *51*, 2365-2370.
- 353 Frankel, E. N. (1998). Lipid Oxidation. The Oily Press Ltd.: West Ferry, Dundee, Scotland.
- Frankel, E. N., Huang, S.-W., Kanner, J., & German, J. B. (1994). Interfacial phenomena in the evaluation of antioxidants: bulk oils vs emulsions. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 42, 1054-1059.
- Gülçin, I. (2006). Antioxidant activity of caffeic acid (3,4-dihydroxycinnamic acid). *Toxicol.*, 217, 213–220.
- Halliwell, B., Murcia, M. A., Chirico, S., & Aruoma, O. I. (1995). Free radicals and antioxidants in food and in vivo: what they do and how they work. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* 35, 7-20.
- He, T., Liang, Q., Wang, Y., & Luo, G. (2010). Characterization of the interactions between natural
 flavonoid compounds and bovine serum albumin by capillary electrophoresis and fluorescence
 method. J. Liq. Chromatogr. Rel. Technol., 33, 548-562.
- Huang, S.-W., Hopia A., Schwarz K., Frankel E. N., & German J. B. (1996). Antioxidant activity of a
 tocopherol and trolox in different lipid substrates: bulk oils vs oil-in-water emulsions. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 44, 444-452.
- Jacobsen, C., Let, M. B., Nielsen, N. S., & Meyer, A. S. (2008). Antioxidant strategies for preventing
 oxidative flavour deterioration of foods enriched with n-3 polyunsaturated lipids: a comparative
 evaluation. *Trends in Food Sci. & Technol.*, *19*, 76-93
- Jiménez-Álvarez, D., Giuffrida, F., Golay, P. A., Cotting, C., Destaillats, F., Dionisi, F., et al.; (2008).
 Profiles of volatile compounds in milk containing fish oil analyzed by HS-SPMEGC/ MS. *Eur. J. Lipid Sci. Technol.*, 110, 277–283.
- Lee, S.H., Suh, J.K., & Li, M. (2003). Determination of bovine serum albumin by its enhancement effect of nile blue fluorescence. *B. Kor. Chem.Soc.*, 24 (1), 45-48.
- Leonardis, A. D., & Macciola, V. (2003). Effectiveness of caffeic acid as an antioxidant for cod liver
 oil. *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.*, *38*, 475–480.
- List, G. R., Evans, C. D., Kwolek, W. F., Warner, K., Boundy, B. K., & Cowan, J. C. (1974).
 Oxidation and quality of soybean oil: A preliminary study of the anisidine test. *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*,
 51, 17–21.
- Mancuso, J. R., McClements, D. J., & Decker, E. A. (1999). The effects of surfactant type, pH, and chelators on the oxidation of salmon oil-in- water emulsions. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 47, 4112–4116.
- Maqsood, S., & Benjakul, S. (2010). Comparative studies of four different phenolic compounds on in vitro antioxidative activity and the preventive effect on lipid oxidation of fish oil emulsion and fish mince. *Food Chem.*, *119*, 123-132.
- McClements, D. J., & Decker, E. A. (2000). Lipid oxidation in oil-in-water emulsions: impact of molecular environment on chemical reactions in heterogeneous food systems. *J. Food Sci.* 65, 1270-1282.
- Oda Y. M., Kinoshita, K., Nakayama, K., & Kakehi, K. (1998). Evaluation of fluorescence polarization method for binding study in carbohydrate–lectin interaction. *Bio. Pharm. Bulletin.*, *21*, 1215–1217.

- Porter, W. L. (1993). Paradoxical behavior of antioxidants in food and biological systems. *Toxicol. Ind. Health.*, 9, 93-122.
- Prigent, S. V. E., Voragen, A. G. J., Visser, A. J. W. G., Van Koningsveld, G. A., & Gruppen, H.
 (2007). Covalent interactions between proteins and oxidation products of caffeoylquinic acid
 (chlorogenic acid). J. Sci. Food Agric., 87, 2502-2510.
- Rampon, V., Lethuaut, L., Mouhous-Riou, N., & Genot, C. (2001). Interface characterization and aging of bovine serum albumin stabilized oil-in-water emulsions as revealed by front-surface fluorescence, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 49, 4046–4051.
- Rawel, H.M., Rohn, S., Kruse, H.P., & Kroll, J. (2002). Structural changes induced in bovine serum
 albumin by covalent attachment of chlorogenic acid. Food Chem., 78 (4), 443-445.
- Rouseff, R. L., & Cadwallader, K. R. (2001). Headspace volatile aldehydes as indicators of lipid
 oxidation in food. In *Headspace techniques in foods and flavours*; Kluwer Academic/Plenum
 Publishers: New York.
- 402 Selke, E., Rohwedder, W. K., & Dutton, H. J. (1980). Volatile components from trilinolein heated in 403 air, *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*, *57*, 25-30.
- Shehata, A. J., de Man. J. M., & Alexander, J. C. (1970). A simple and rapid method for the
 preparation of methyl esters of fats in milligram amounts for gas chromatography. *Can. Inst. Food Sci. Technol. J.*, *3*, 85-89.
- 407 SØrensen, A. M., Haahr, A., Becker, E. M., Skibsted, L. H., Bergenståhl, B., Nilsson, L.et al. (2008).
 408 Interactions between iron, phenolic compounds, emulsifiers, and pH in omega-3-enriched oil-in-water
 409 emulsions. J. Agric. Food Chem. 56, 1740-1750.
- Wang, W.Q., & Goodman, M. T. (1999). Antioxidant property of dietary phenolic agents in a human
 LDL oxidation ex vivo model: Interaction of protein binding activity, *Nutr. Res.*, 19, 191–202.
- 412 Yanishlieva, N., & Marinova, E. M. (1995). Effects of antioxidants on the stability of triacylglycerols
 413 and methyl esters of fatty acids of sunflower oil. *Food Chem.*, 54, 377–382.
- 414 Yoshida, H. (1993). Influence of fatty acids of different unsaturation in the oxidation of purified
- 415 vegetable-oils during microwave irradiation. J. Sci. Food Agric., 62, 41–47.

| 416 | Table 1. Fatty acid composition of sunflower oil |
|-----|--|
| | |

| Fatty acid name | | Amount (%) | |
|-------------------|------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| Saturated (S) | | 10.42 | |
| Myristic acid | C14:0 | 0.11 ± 0.02 | |
| Palmitic acid | C16:0 | 5.72 ± 0.04 | |
| Margaric acid | C17:0 | 0.05 ± 0.00 | |
| Stearic acid | C18:0 | $\textbf{3.49} \pm \textbf{0.05}$ | |
| Arachidic acid | C20:0 | 0.24 ± 0.00 | |
| Behenic acid | C22:0 | 0.57 ± 0.01 | |
| Tricosanoic acid | C23:0 | 0.05 ± 0.00 | |
| Lignoceric acid | C24:0 | 0.19 ± 0.01 | |
| Unsaturated (U) | | 89.58 | |
| Monounsaturated | | 25.25 | |
| Palmitoleic acid | C16:1 | 0.10 ± 0.00 | |
| Oleic acid | C18:1(n-9) | 25.01 ± 0.63 | |
| Eicosenoic acid | C20:1(n-9) | 0.14 ± 0.00 | |
| Polyunsaturated | | 64.33 | |
| Linoleic acid | C18:2(n-6) | 64.17 ± 0.73 | |
| Linolenic acid | C18:3(n-3) | $\textbf{0.16} \pm \textbf{0.00}$ | |
| S: U | | 0.12 | |
| Omega 6 | | 64.17 | |
| Omega 3 | | 0.16 | |
| Omega 6 : Omega 3 | | 401.06 | |

Table 2. Times in days for oil-in-water and water-in-oil emulsions to reach indicated values at 50 °C

| Oil-in-water emulsion (value at assessment | PV (1.79 mM hydroperoxide) | PA (0.15) | TOTOX (3.7) | Hexanal (14.63 µg bromobenzene / g | Total volatiles (585.37 μg bromobenzene / g |
|---|----------------------------------|--------------|----------------|--|---|
| time) | | | | oil) | oil) |
| OW | 9.95 | 2.65 | 8.19 | 2.36 | 7.54 |
| OW-BSA | 11.22 | 8.84 | 10.72 | 6.12 | 10.99 |
| OW-CAF | 24.91 | 9.41 | 23.7 | 22.49 | 13.22 |
| OW-CAF-BSA | 42.00 | 42.00 | 42.00 | 42.00 | 42.00 |
| % Synergy | 97.47 | 202.60 | 102.9 | 65.95 | 277.34 |
| Water-in-oil emulsion (value at assessment time) | PV (2.15 mM hydroperoxide) | PA (4.59) | TOTOX (9.5) | Hexanal (18.71 µg bromobenzene / g oil) | Total volatiles (364.56 μg bromobenzene / g oil) |
| WO | 12.87 | 17.34 | 16.2 | 3.95 | 13.42 |
| WO-BSA | 15.82 | 17.26 | 17.7 | 13.77 | 15.84 |
| WO-CAF | 24.47 | 39.47 | 27.2 | 17.70 | 16.02 |
| WO-CAF-BSA | 42.00 | 42.0 | 35 | 42.00 | 42.00 |
| % Synergy | 100.20 | 12.10 | 50.4 | 61.49 | 468.53 |

| | | PV (mM hydroperoxide) | РА | ΤΟΤΟΧ | Total volatiles (μg bromobenzene / g oil) | Total volatiles: PA ratio |
|-----|------------|-----------------------------|------------|-------|---|------------------------------|
| | OW | 10.43±1.97 | 17.29±1.68 | 38.15 | 6219.58±999.53 | 359.72 |
| | OW-BSA | 7.72±1.76 | 11.77±1.94 | 27.21 | 5477.40±675.16 | 465.37 |
| | OW-CAF | 4.82±0.03 | 0.71±0.12 | 10.35 | 791.53±48.42 | 1114.83 |
| | OW-CAF-BSA | 1.79±0.32 | 0.15±0.04 | 3.73 | 585.40±48.15 | 3902.67 |
| | | | | | | |
| | WO | 3.97±0.33 | 34.03±0.65 | 41.97 | 1822.68±279.83 | 53.56 |
| | WO-BSA | 2.87±0.60 | 23.49±2.11 | 29.23 | 1379.19±8.32 | 58.71 |
| | WO-CAF | 3.42±0.34 | 5.11±0.08 | 11.95 | 847.29±95.04 | 165.81 |
| | WO-CAF-BSA | 2.15±0.24 | 4.59±0.91 | 8.89 | 364.56±14.21 | 79.42 |
| 442 | | | | | | |
| 443 | | | | | | |
| 444 | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| 445 | | | | | | |
| 446 | | | | | | |
| 447 | | | | | | |
| 448 | | | | | | |
| 449 | | | | | | |
| 450 | | | | | | |
| 451 | | | | | | |
| 452 | | | | | | |
| 453 | | | | | | |
| 454 | | | | | | |
| 455 | | | | | | |

Table 3. PV, PA, TOTOX and relative concentration of total volatiles for emulsions at 42 days

Table 4. Significant Pearson's correlations among parameters analyzed (PV, PA, hexanal and total
458 volatiles)

| | | | Oil-in-w | ater emulsio | n | | Water-in-6 | oil emulsion | |
|-----|------------------------|-------|----------|--------------|--------------------|-------|------------|--------------|--------------------|
| | Pearson's correlation: | PV | PA | Hexanal | Total volatiles | PV | РА | Hexanal | Total volatiles |
| | PV | - | 0.856 | 0.860 | 0.892 | - | 0.504 | 0.712 | 0.796 |
| | PA | 0.856 | - | 0.992 | 0.981 | 0.504 | - | 0.904 | 0.885 |
| | Hexanal | 0.860 | 0.992 | - | 0.987 | 0.712 | 0.904 | - | 0.922 |
| | Total volatiles | 0.892 | 0.981 | 0.987 | - | 0.796 | 0.885 | 0.922 | - |
| 459 | | | | | | | | | |
| 460 | | | | | | | | | |
| 461 | | | | | | | | | |
| 462 | | | | | | | | | |
| 463 | | | | | | | | | |
| 464 | | | | | | | | | |
| 465 | | | | | | | | | |
| 466 | | | | | | | | | |
| 467 | | | | | | | | | |
| 468 | | | | | | | | | |
| 469 | | | | | | | | | |
| 470 | | | | | | | | | |
| 471 | | | | | | | | | |
| 472 | | | | | | | | | |
| 473 | | | | | | | | | |
| 474 | | | | | | | | | |

Table 5. Concentration (expressed as equivalent to bromobenzene) of volatile compounds identified in

477 oil-in-water and water-in-oil emulsions during storage at 50 °C

| Compound | | Concentration (µ | g bromobenzene / g oil |) |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|------------------|------------------------|--------------|
| | OW (21 days) | OW (42 days) | WO (21 days) | WO (42 days) |
| Butanal | 20.97 | 46.74 | 6.36 | 24.05 |
| Pentanal | 15.19 | 71.97 | 14.69 | 45.71 |
| (E)-2-Pentenal | 18.39 | 141.37 | nd | nd |
| 1-Pentanol | 5.91 | 88.85 | 3.37 | 28.61 |
| Hexanal | 70.66 | 606.9 | 61.7 | 310.26 |
| 2-Hexenal | nd | 20.44 | 0.83 | 5.43 |
| 2-Heptanone | nd | 10.95 | 1.25 | 7.38 |
| Heptanal | nd | 60.42 | 1.75 | 14.36 |
| (E)-2-Heptenal | 17.54 | 259.35 | 12.96 | 53.07 |
| 1-Heptanol | 2.12 | 11.12 | 1.72 | 3.61 |
| 1-Octen-3-ol | 5.93 | 117.9 | 3.64 | 15.92 |
| 2-Pentyl-furan | nd | nd | 9.13 | 34.28 |
| Octanal | 8.36 | 65.37 | 2.18 | 16.81 |
| 3-Octen-2-one | 2.35 | 28.01 | 1.53 | 14.08 |
| 5-Ethyldihydro-2(3H)- furanone | nd | nd | 13.39 | 116.33 |
| (E)-2-Octenal | 15.08 | 550.12 | 2.89 | 28.28 |
| 1-Octanol | 1.54 | 14.92 | 1.37 | 4.04 |
| Heptanoic acid | 2.99 | 10.37 | 0.87 | 7.23 |
| 2-Nonanone | 5.18 | 43.57 | 4.07 | 20.49 |
| Nonanal | 10.84 | 26.5 | 3.93 | 13.61 |
| (E,E)-2,4-Octadienal | 0.07 | 5.81 | nd | nd |
| 3-Nonen-2-one | 0.55 | 15.27 | 0.47 | 2.27 |
| (E)-2-Nonenal | 1.69 | 18.45 | 2.48 | 13.36 |
| 2-Decanone | 0.91 | 13.77 | 1.07 | 2.67 |
| (E,E)-2,4-Nonadienal | 3.02 | 67.91 | 3.1 | 15.89 |
| 3-Methylbut-2-enal | 11.63 | 85.71 | 3.02 | 9.98 |
| Methyl-cyclodecane | 1.28 | 7.55 | 0.55 | 2.07 |
| (E)-2- Decenal | 7.11 | 70.53 | 3.71 | 14.04 |
| Nonanoic acid | 1.35 | 32.75 | 1.11 | 7.45 |
| (E,E)-2,4-Decadienal | 70.46 | 443.56 | 19.32 | 60.09 |
| 5-pentyl-5(H)-furan-2-one | 6.25 | 229.94 | 3.79 | 40.06 |
| (E)-2-Tridecenal | 7.18 | 75.28 | 3.48 | 11.95 |
| 6-Dodecanone | 1.16 | 34.52 | 1.06 | 3.1 |
| 2-Butyloct-2-enal | 8.14 | 100.88 | 2.51 | 7.71 |
| Total volatiles | 323.85 | 3376.8 | 193.3 | 954.19 |

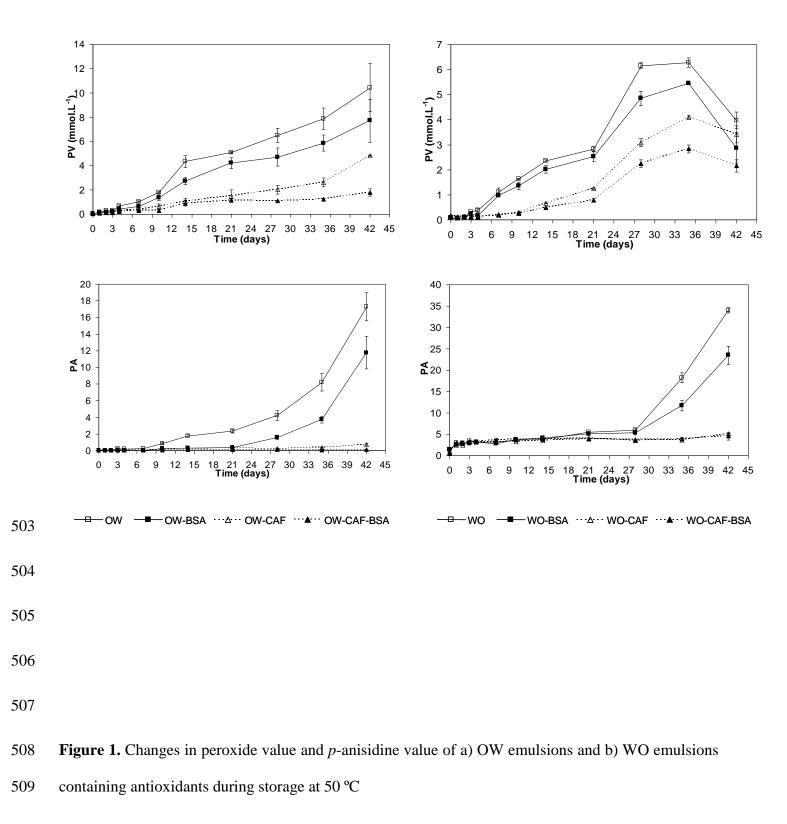
| 481 | |
|-----|--|
| | |

FIGURE LEGENDS

| 484 | Figure 1. Changes in peroxide value and <i>p</i> -anisidine value of a) OW emulsions and b) WO emulsions |
|-----|--|
| 485 | containing antioxidants during storage at 50 °C. |

486 Figure 2. Changes in hexanal and total volatiles concentration of a) OW emulsions and b) WO 487 emulsions containing antioxidants during storage at 50 °C, with concentration expressed as area 488 equivalent to bromobenzene.

Figure 3. Oil-in-water emulsions stained with oil red- nile blue mixture (a) with BSA; (b) no protein



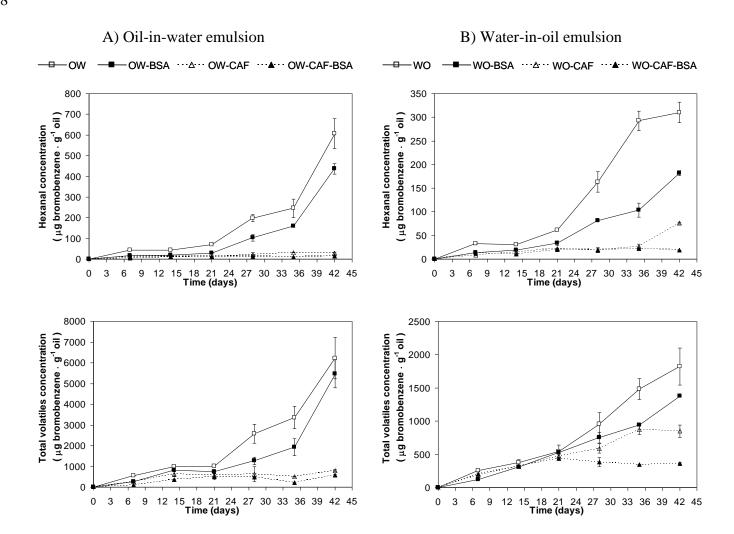
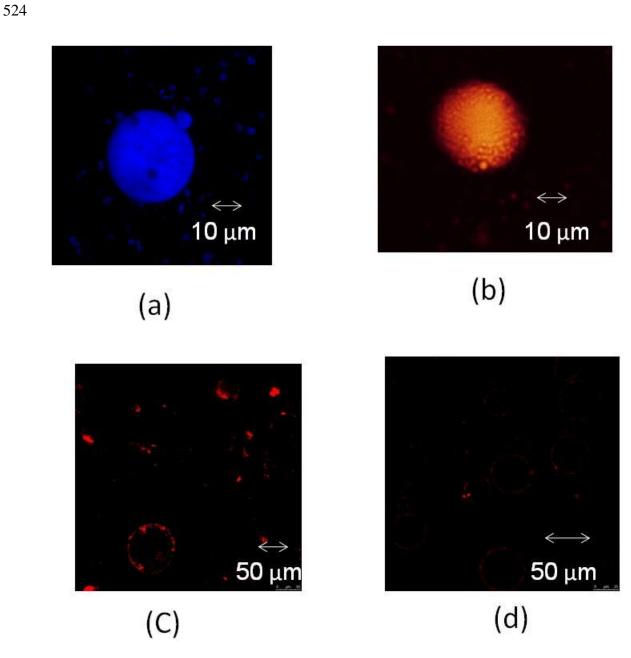
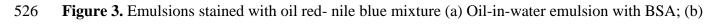


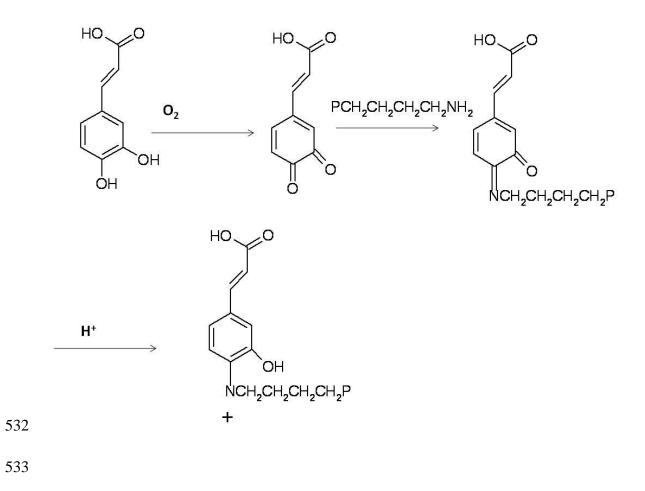
Figure 2. Changes in hexanal and total volatiles concentration of a) OW emulsions and b) WO emulsions containing antioxidants during storage at 50 °C, with concentration expressed as area equivalent to bromobenzene.







- 527 Oil-in-water emulsion with no protein; (c) water-in-oil emulsion with BSA; (d) water-in-oil emulsion
 528 with no protein



Scheme 1. Reaction of caffeic acid with lysine residue of BSA (P = protein backbone)