

Origins of polysaccharide conformation and viscoelasticity in miscible heterogeneous solvent

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1 Origins of polysaccharide conformation and viscoelasticity in
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21 Polysaccharide polymers constitute the fundamental building blocks of life and display a
22 diverse set of conformational states which results in complex viscoelastic behaviour of their
23 solutions; the origins of which needs further understanding. Utilising a model high molecular
24 weight, high Trouton ratio ‘pectin’ polysaccharide extracted from okra (*Abelmoschus*
25 *esculentus*) mucilage, we combine computer simulations and experimental data to unveil the
26 underlying microscopic hydrodynamic origins of polysaccharide conformation. In miscible
27 heterogenous solvents of water and glycerol, the polysaccharide chain undergoes a
28 conformational transition from swelled-to-collapsed configurations, resulting in marked
29 viscoelastic response. The conformational transition is entropy driven. Molecularly adsorbed
30 water molecules have increased presence within ca. 0.40 nm of the chain surface with increase
31 of glycerol in the solvent composition, thus indicating *the emergence of preferential solvation*.
32 This preferential solvation elicits an entropically unfavourable dynamic solvent heterogeneity,
33 which is lessened by swelling and collapse of polysaccharide chains. Altering the preferential
34 solvation layer by adjusting solvent composition allows for precise control of chain
35 conformation and viscoelastic parameters. Our results provide an essential missing piece of the
36 puzzle that is inaccessible through mean-field assumptions and offer new fundamental insights
37 applicable in biological, biomedical, and engineering applications, including microrheological
38 flows, microfluidics, bio-inkjet printing, as well as in pharmacological and food formulations.

39

40 Polysaccharides are the most abundant class of natural polymers. Alongside proteins, lipids,
41 and nucleic acids, polysaccharides constitute the fundamental building blocks of life.¹
42 Polysaccharides are long-chain polymeric carbohydrates composed of monosaccharide units
43 linked together by glycosidic bonds, and exhibit a wide range of structural variations, ranging
44 from linear to highly branched structures. Depending on their specific structure,
45 polysaccharides serve various functions in living organisms, from providing structural integrity
46 to exchanging and processing information. For instance, cellulose and pectin provide structural
47 support in plant cell walls, and chitin forms the exoskeleton of arthropods, whilst highly
48 viscoelastic acidic polysaccharide mucilage facilitates the capture of prey in carnivorous
49 plants.²⁻⁵ Furthermore, polysaccharide chains (polymeric glycans) of the glycocalyx, a
50 carbohydrate-rich layer surrounding cells across all life forms, including bacteria and humans,
51 play a vital role in immunomodulation.^{6,7} However, the full significance of polysaccharide
52 conformations in the above and other key biological structures such as enzymes, antibodies,
53 biofilms, and biosurfactants is not yet fully understood.⁸⁻¹¹ This is partly due to the complex
54 three-dimensional conformation of polysaccharides, which determines their interactions and
55 biophysical behaviour.^{12,13} Over the past two decades, extensive research has been undertaken
56 to shed light on the conformation of polysaccharides and how this links to their functionality
57 due to their crucial relevance in a wide range of biological functions as mentioned above, and
58 also applications in food science, synthetic plant cells, bioelectronics, biomedical applications,
59 and pharmaceuticals.¹⁴⁻¹⁹

60 The complex three-dimensional conformation of polysaccharides in solution, typically
61 water as the solvent, impacts on the manifest hierarchical architectures and viscoelastic
62 properties of their solutions in natural and applied environments. Past theoretical and
63 experimental studies have delved deeper into the influence of parameters such as
64 polysaccharide charge, salt environments, solution pH, and small molecules on polysaccharide

65 conformation and solution rheology.²⁰⁻²⁶ However, the role of solvent composition and entropic
66 interactions associated with the solvent has been largely unexplored, despite the crucial role of
67 polysaccharide structure and conformation in biological processes.¹⁸ While it is known that
68 water has a considerable influence on polysaccharide or polymer conformation, beyond
69 carefully controlled laboratory experiments, water is seldom pure. Other components, *i.e.*, the
70 cosolvent (referred to as an osmolyte rather commonly in *e.g.*, protein biophysics), can
71 drastically alter behaviour. This is especially true under extreme conditions, including those of
72 low water activity, high salinity or interactions with ice. Indeed, cosolvents, for *e.g.*, glycerol
73 in water is known to modify water activity²⁷ and water's propensity for self-interaction,²⁸ and
74 is crucial to life-sustaining phenomena such as the osmoprotection and freeze resistance in fish,
75 plants, and insects.²⁹⁻³¹

76 Although few studies in miscible solvents (water and polyols/sugars) have shown
77 alterations in conformation and relaxation time in a wide variety of polysaccharides, including
78 pectins^{21,32}, chitosan,³³ and xanthan,³⁴ the molecular mechanisms behind these transitions have
79 remained partly elusive. One of the key challenges is the way a miscible solvent is described.
80 The topic of conformational change in 'polymer science' is typically considered based on
81 scaling law predictions that describe how the system free energy, $F(R)$ depends on polymer
82 conformation or size, R as, $F(R) = R^2/Nb^2 + B_2N^2/R^3 + B_3N^3/R^6$. This simple one-
83 component mean-field treatment pioneered by Flory and de Gennes^{35,36} successfully describes
84 polymer chains swelling in good solvents versus collapse in poor solvents. The problem of this
85 perspective is that any information on the heterogeneity of solvent or co-solvents is lost. A
86 more general approach would be to consider the solvent at a length-scale where heterogeneity
87 is not ignored, *i.e.*, along or around a polymer chain where a miscible solvent can undergo
88 partitioning, a phenomenon often called '*preferential solvation*'. Preferential solvation refers
89 to the distribution of solvent molecules around a solute molecule, which can deviate

90 significantly from the statistical distribution observed in the bulk solution. A rigorous
91 perspective has been provided recently by Mukherji et al.^{37,38} using a discrete particle-based
92 approach. The authors describe polymer swelling and collapse in miscible good solvents as
93 well as miscible bad solvents by considering the effect of preferential solvation, a point of view
94 which is contrary to mean-field behaviour.

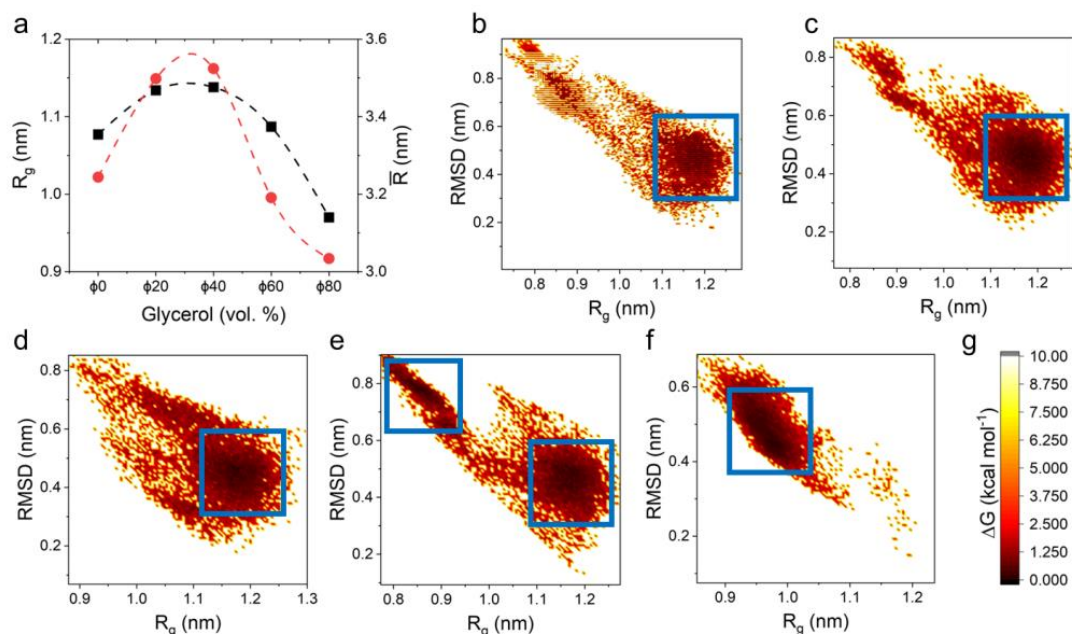
95 So, why is a new perspective required now? While previous viewpoints provide some
96 important insights, they may fall short in describing polymer behaviour in miscible
97 heterogeneous solvent environments. A description of polymer conformational transitions in
98 miscible heterogeneous solvents, especially polymers with complex conformations such as
99 polysaccharides, also remains unclear despite their pivotal significance in biological processes
100 as discussed above. To elucidate the role of composition of a miscible heterogeneous solvent
101 on polysaccharide conformation and viscoelasticity, we utilise a heteropolysaccharide from
102 okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus*) mucilage, called pectin. Pectin is a model natural
103 polysaccharide widely used in foods, pharmaceuticals and environmental engineering (*e.g.*, as
104 a bioflocculant) due to its unique and complex viscoelastic spectrum, and high Trouton
105 ratio.^{14,39,40} The polysaccharide also allows measurements of both shear and extensional
106 rheological properties for a wide range of chain conformations, making it ideal for the present
107 study. Briefly, the polysaccharide predominantly comprises, (a) rhamnogalacturonan-I, a
108 bottlebrush-like polymer made up of repeating units of the disaccharide 1,2- α -*l*-rhamnose-1,4-
109 α -*d*-galacturonic acid, with a large number of rhamnose residues linked to linear and branched
110 β -*d*-galactopyranosyl and/or α -*l*-arabinofuranosyl residues, and (b) homogalacturonan, a linear
111 homopolymer of α -1,4-linked-*d*-galacturonic acid.⁴⁰ Earlier studies have pointed that water is
112 a good solvent for pectin, where the polysaccharide adopts a so-called flexible conformation.⁴¹⁻
113 ⁴³ In our study, we utilise binary water-glycerol mixtures as a miscible heterogeneous solvent
114 model, where glycerol acts as an ‘inert’ cosolvent and could be generally regarded as a ‘poor’

115 solvent for polysaccharides.^{44,45} For example, dextran in glycerol demonstrates a free energy
116 of interfacial interaction, $\Delta G_{121} = -2.11$; the negative value indicates that glycerol is a poor
117 solvent.⁴⁵ Our initial observations also suggested that pectin was insoluble in glycerol (\geq
118 99.0%), confirming that glycerol is a poor solvent for pectin. Therefore, in miscible
119 heterogenous solvents of water and glycerol, we hypothesise that an adequate balance of
120 entropically driven interactions based on global solvent composition can be achieved. This sets
121 the scene for understanding the role of solvation in governing polysaccharide conformation
122 and solution viscoelasticity.

123 Results

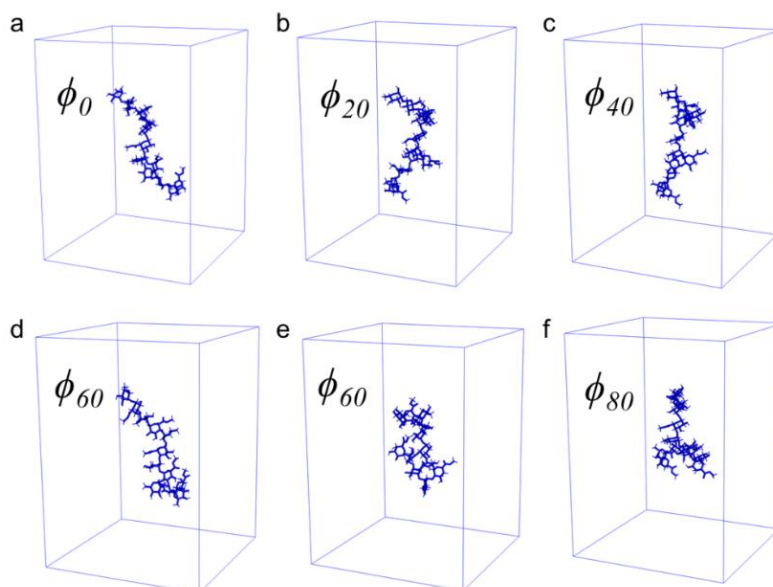
124 **Conformation and solvation of polysaccharide chains in solution.** We first demonstrate a
125 simple all-atom picture of polysaccharide chain conformation and polysaccharide-solvent
126 interactions by simulating a dodecamer of the pectin polysaccharide chain in binary water-
127 glycerol mixtures. Note, the pectin solutions (pectin in water + glycerol) are denoted as ϕ_0 , ϕ_{20} ,
128 ϕ_{40} , ϕ_{60} and ϕ_{80} or $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ corresponding to $0 \rightarrow 80$ vol.% of aqueous glycerol and are described
129 as such throughout the article. We examined the chain's average radius of gyration, R_g , and
130 average end-to-end distance, \bar{R} (after 100 ns of simulation, far in excess of the equilibration
131 time), as these are clear indicators of conformational change in the chains. In ϕ_0 , we observed
132 a chain configuration with R_g and \bar{R} , as 1.07 nm and 3.24 nm, respectively (Figure 1a). We
133 postulate that ϕ_0 is the flexible conformation of the polysaccharide in concurrence with earlier
134 studies which suggest that water is a good solvent for pectin, and the polysaccharide adopts a
135 flexible conformation.⁴¹⁻⁴³ Upon increasing glycerol in our systems, a swelling of chains is
136 evident for $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 40}$, corroborated by increase in R_g and \bar{R} (Figure 1a). Here, \bar{R} approaches the
137 chain's contour length, $L = Nd \sin \theta / 2 = 4.40$ nm, where N is number of units, d is unit length
138 (Rha-GalA disaccharide monomer, ca. 0.90 nm)⁴⁶, and θ for C-O-C is 109.5° . However, in
139 $\phi_{60 \rightarrow 80}$, it appears that the pectin chains undergo shrinkage due to chain folding on itself. We
140 will use the term 'chain collapse' when referring to such configuration to reflect the
141 compounding effect of volumetric changes and the structural folding. The chain collapse is
142 marked by a pronounced decrease in R_g and \bar{R} (Figure 1a). Since ca. 10000 chain
143 conformations were sampled in the 100 ns simulation to derive the average R_g and \bar{R} , we
144 extracted the low energy chain conformations in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ from free energy surface analysis by
145 describing the polysaccharide free energy as, $\Delta G(r_{op}) = -k_B T [\ln P(r_{op}) - \ln P_{max}]$, where P
146 is the probability distribution along coordinate r , and P_{max} describes its maxima, which is

147 subtracted to ensure that $\delta G \rightarrow 0$ for the lowest free energy minimum. The order parameter,
148 r_{op} , gives rise to a reweighted free energy surface. Numerically, we evaluated $r_{op} =$
149 $f(RMSD, R_g)$.⁴⁷ The respective free energy surfaces and corresponding simulation snapshots
150 of low energy pectin chain conformations are shown in Figure 1b-f and Figure 2a-f,
151 respectively. From the free energy surface analysis, it is clear that in the range of $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 40}$, the
152 chain appears to exhibit flexible and swelled conformations. This is followed by chain collapse
153 in $\phi_{60 \rightarrow 80}$. It is of note that in ϕ_{60} , two low energy areas are observed in Figure 1e. The
154 representative low energy conformations occurring within these minima, are shown in Figure
155 2d, e. It appears that in ϕ_{60} , the two conformations coexist, and the increase in glycerol
156 concentration falls short to cause uniform chain collapse in the conformation ensemble.
157 However, as glycerol increases further in ϕ_{80} , chain collapse is observed in the ensemble, as
158 seen from the occurrence of a single low energy area in Figure 1e. This transition coincides
159 with significant changes in chain conformation shown in Figure 2f, where marked ‘kinks’ and
160 ‘loop’ starts to form as initial steps towards chain collapse. Physically, the results could be
161 interpreted as a rough representation of chains with constant contour lengths and varying end-
162 to-end distance depending on whether they are swollen or collapsed.



163

164 **Figure 1.** Average radius of gyration, R_g (■) and average end-to-end distance, \bar{R} (●) of
 165 polysaccharide chain in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$. Black and red dashed lines represent a spline model (a). Free
 166 energy surfaces (RMSD as a function of R_g) for polysaccharide chains under infinite dilution
 167 are shown as ϕ_0 (b), ϕ_{20} (c), ϕ_{40} (d), ϕ_{60} (e), and ϕ_{80} (f). Blue squares on the free energy
 168 surfaces are a visual guide to denote the lowest energy frames. The scalebar shows ΔG of free
 169 energy surfaces in kcal mol^{-1} and represented by the colour spectrum, from white to black (g).
 170 Simulation time, 100 ns at $T = 298$ K. Equilibration for all structures was achieved at around
 171 40 - 50 ns of the simulation. RMSD and R_g as a function of simulation time for $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ are
 172 shown in Figure S1a, b.



173

174 **Figure 2.** Simulation snapshots showing polysaccharide chain swelling and collapse in ϕ_0 (a),
 175 ϕ_{20} (b), ϕ_{40} (c), ϕ_{60} (d), ϕ_{60} (e), and ϕ_{80} (f). (c) and (d) correspond to two different low
 176 energy basins observed in ϕ_{60} in Figure 1d. Conformations are drawn from the lowest energy

177 frames marked by blue squares in free energy surface shown in Figure 1b-f. Water and glycerol
178 are removed from the periodic box for visual clarity of the chain.

179

180 In good solvents, polymer chains are known to expand, while polymer chains collapse
181 in poor solvents. While the effective monomer-monomer contact in a polymer is repulsive in
182 good solvent and tends to expand the polymer, the interaction is attractive in a bad solvent,
183 leading to chain collapse until restricted by steric packing effects. To probe the solvent
184 contributions which may have led to the observed chain conformations in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$, the O-O radial
185 probability distribution, $g(r)$ of water and glycerol were probed by considering a pair
186 correlation function $g_{ab}(r)$ between units of a (polysaccharide chain) and b (water, or glycerol)

187 defined as, $g_{ab}(r) = \frac{\langle \rho_b(r) \rangle}{\langle \rho_b \rangle_{local}} = \frac{1}{\langle \rho_b \rangle_{local}} \cdot \frac{1}{N_a} \sum_{i \in a} \sum_{j \in b} \frac{\delta(r_{ij}-r)}{4\pi r^2}$, where $\langle \rho_b(r) \rangle$ represents water

188 or glycerol occurrence at distance r from the polysaccharide chain.⁴⁸ Figure 3a, b shows the

189 probability distribution, $g_{ab}(r)$, as a function of radial distance around the chain axis,

190 r . Examination of the solvation shell structure revealed a distinct localisation of water

191 molecules in the proximity of the polysaccharide chain. This implies that the likelihood of

192 water molecules being present in the layer directly adjacent to the polysaccharide chain is much

193 greater, despite the overall increase of glycerol in the system. Notably, as global water fraction

194 decreased in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$, firstly, a decrease in $g(r)$ is observed for ϕ_{20} , followed by an increase in

195 $g(r)$ of water for $\phi_{40 \rightarrow 80}$ at spatial range r , ca. 0.40 nm (r , distance to first minimum, marked

196 by dashed line in Figure 3a). Here, r , ca. 0.40 nm is thought to correspond to the extent of the

197 first solvation shell, with a $g(r)$ maxima at 0.28 nm which is exactly the nearest-neighbour O-

198 O distance in water.⁴⁹ We note, the r -position of the $g(r)$ maxima stays constant throughout

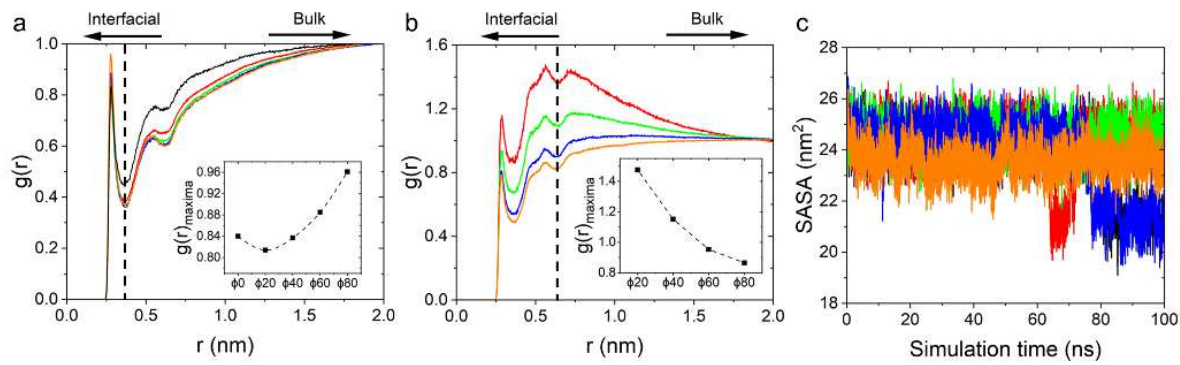
199 $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ despite the increase in $g(r)$, suggesting water coordination with the monomers of the

200 polysaccharide chain. This coordination could be interpreted as a molecularly adsorbed water

201 layer at the polysaccharide-solvent interface (note, these water molecules are still dynamic,

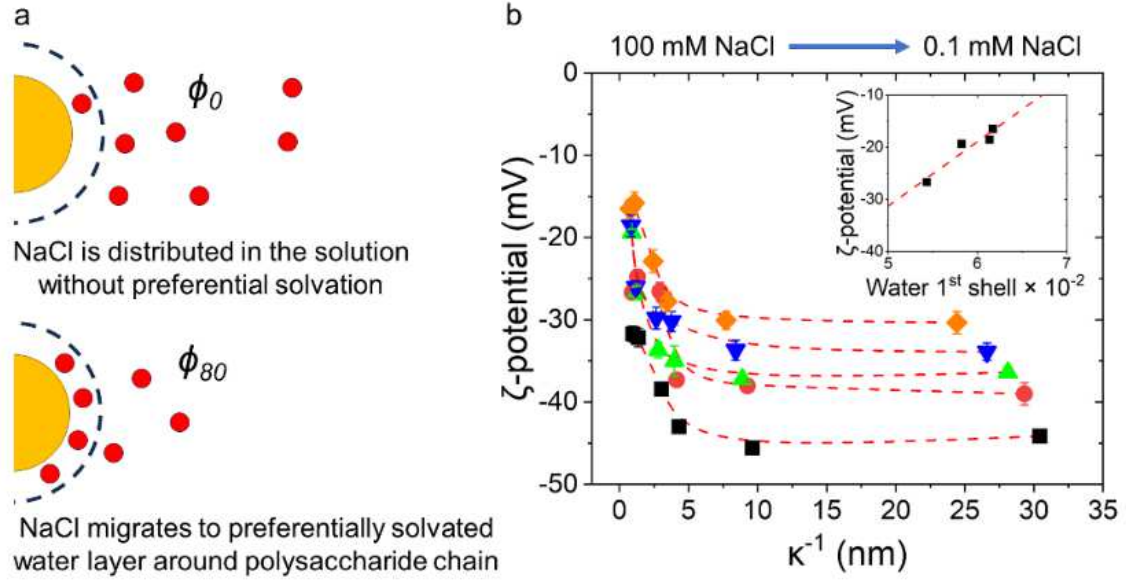
202 albeit with a reduced correlation time, and in exchange with molecules in the unperturbed

203 bulk). In addition, examining the glycerol solvation shell, we find its first maxima at r , ca. 0.60
 204 nm from the polysaccharide-solvent interface (r , distance to minima, marked by dashed line in
 205 Figure 3b). The observed distance, r , for glycerol agrees well with reported data for the nearest-
 206 neighbour distance of 0.60 nm for pure glycerol.⁵⁰ As the glycerol volume fraction increases,
 207 a decrease in $g(r)$ for glycerol at r , 0.60 nm is observed, which coincides with the gradual
 208 increase in the probability of water being located in the first solvation shell. This is in
 209 agreement with the preferential solvation model proposed by Mukherji et al.³⁷ and reveals a
 210 preferentially solvated layer of water-rich solvent at the polysaccharide-solvent interface. It is
 211 worth noting that the solvent accessible surface area (SASA) showed only ca. 2% average
 212 relative standard deviation amidst all the conditions probed (Figure 3c). This means that the
 213 total chain surface area with water contact was somewhat conserved throughout $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$, and is
 214 ameliorated *via* the swelling-collapse transitions of the chains.



215

216 **Figure 3.** O-O radial distribution function, $g(r)$ as a function of r distance for water (a) and
 217 glycerol (b) around polysaccharide chain axis. Black dashed lines are a visual guide to denote
 218 the first maximum solvation shell of water and glycerol around the polysaccharide chains.
 219 Insets show the $g(r)$ maxima for water and glycerol as a function of solvent composition in
 220 $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$. Solvent accessible surface area (SASA) of polysaccharide chains as a function of time
 221 (c). Polysaccharide solutions are indicated as, ϕ_0 , black; ϕ_{20} , red; ϕ_{40} , green; ϕ_{60} , blue; and ϕ_{80} ,
 222 orange.



223

224 **Figure 4.** Illustration depicting uniform distribution of the electrolyte probe, NaCl (red
 225 spheres) in ϕ_0 without preferential solvation effects at the polysaccharide (coloured in yellow)-
 226 solvent interface, versus the higher localisation of the electrolyte in the ‘water-rich’ solvation
 227 shell at the polysaccharide-solvent interface, rather than in the ‘water-deficient’ bulk solvent
 228 in ϕ_{80} . Dashed lines around polysaccharide indicates the distance of r , 0.40 nm (a). ζ -potential
 229 of $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ as a function of Debye length, κ^{-1} (c , 0.01 wt.%). Here, NaCl ranges from 100 to 0.1
 230 mM (left to right). Legends indicate ϕ_0 , \blacksquare ; ϕ_{20} , \bullet ; ϕ_{40} , \blacktriangle ; ϕ_{60} , \blacktriangledown ; and ϕ_{80} , \blacklozenge . Red dashed lines
 231 are spline models. Inset shows the linear relationship of ζ -potential in $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 80}$ (0.1 mM NaCl)
 232 as a function of normalised water in 1st solvation shell (b).

233

234 We now provide experimental evidence to the computed $g(r)$ by probing the ζ -potential
 235 and electrolyte migration effects as a function of Debye length, κ^{-1} in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$. NaCl was used
 236 as a simple electrolyte probe, as NaCl solubility in water $>$ glycerol, *i.e.*, 0.36 g g⁻¹ in pure water
 237 $>$ 0.08 g g⁻¹ in glycerol at 25 °C. The postulate was that the electrolyte probe would uniformly
 238 distribute in the solution without preferential solvation, whereas, in the case of preferential
 239 solvation, the electrolyte would localise in the ‘water-rich’ solvation shell at the
 240 polysaccharide-solvent interface, rather than in the ‘water-deficient’ bulk solvent (illustrated
 241 in Figure 4a). The ζ -potential values were estimated from the measured electrophoretic
 242 mobility using the Henry's approximation as, $\mu = \frac{2\epsilon_r\epsilon_0}{3\eta} \zeta f(k_\alpha)$, where ζ is ζ -potential, κ is
 243 inverse Debye screening length, α is particle radius, and η is solvent viscosity. Debye screening

244 lengths were calculated as, $\kappa^{-1} = \sqrt{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 k_B T / 2e^2 I}$, where I is electrolyte ionic strength, ϵ_0 is
245 free space permittivity, k_B is the Boltzmann constant, ϵ_r is dielectric permittivity, T is absolute
246 temperature, and e is elementary charge. In Figure 4b, we can observe a monotonic decreased
247 in the ζ -potential in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ (the values become less negative). Note, the ζ -potential derived from
248 electrophoretic mobility is independent of solvent viscosity as described in the Henry's
249 approximation. Therefore, this result is consistent with the higher degree of ionic localisation
250 at the polysaccharide-solvent interface, and not an artefact arising from solvent viscosity
251 effects. Here, the preferential solvation of water at the polysaccharide-solvent interface
252 facilitates an increase in ionic localisation leading to electrostatic shielding of the
253 polysaccharide chain and shifts the slipping plane closer to the polysaccharide surface. This in
254 turn reduced the electrophoretic mobility of the chains and shows that the magnitude of the ζ -
255 potential has progressively decreased in the $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$. Note, the decrease in ζ -potential for $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 20}$
256 is an effect of NaCl addition and not a direct result of preferential solvation and should be
257 considered with precaution.

258 To probe the preferential solvation effect further, we additionally calculated the number
259 of water molecules at a distance of r , 0.40 nm of the polysaccharide chain from the simulations
260 and normalised it based on the respective number of water molecules in the $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ systems (the
261 number of water molecule in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ simulations is shown in Table S2). Upon observing the
262 relationship between ζ -potential as a function of water in the first solvation shell, we uncovered
263 a linear scaling (Figure 4b, inset). The good agreement with experimental results suggests that
264 indeed the all-atom simulations captured the water localisation around the polysaccharide
265 chains and that this preferential solvation is responsible for the observed changes in ζ -potential.

266 **Viscoelasticity of polysaccharide solutions.** The key consequence of the preferential
267 solvation effect is its impact on the conformation of the polysaccharide chains: either swelling

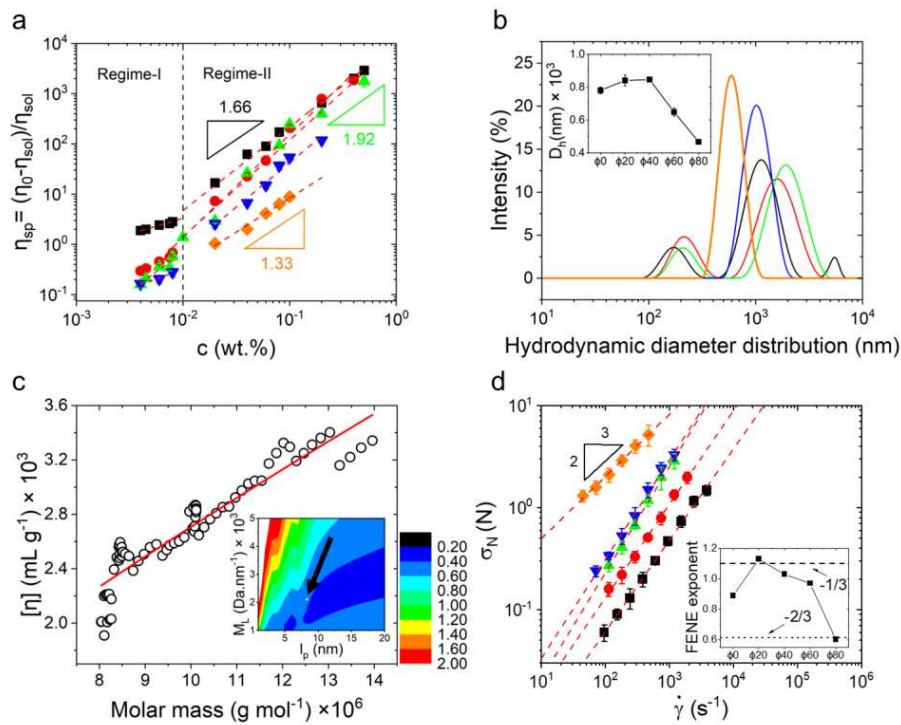
268 or collapse of the chains. Such chain conformations directly influence the properties of
 269 polysaccharides in solutions, especially their viscoelastic behaviour. Here we examine how
 270 preferential solvation influences polysaccharide viscoelastic properties under conditions of
 271 shear and extensional flows. To contextualise observations of viscoelastic behaviour within the
 272 framework of polymer solution models, we determined the polymer overlap concentration, c^* ,
 273 and the entanglement concentration, c_e . The specific viscosity, $\eta_{sp} = (\eta_0 - \eta_s)/\eta_s$ was
 274 measured to establish the limits of dilute-to-entangled regimes in the polysaccharide solutions
 275 (η_0 is the zero-shear viscosity and η_s is the solvent viscosity). This enables separating the
 276 viscoelastic response of hydrodynamically-independent chains, without the contribution
 277 associated with chain interactions and geometric entanglements. The data suggested two
 278 regimes as a function of polysaccharide concentration, c in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$, where c^* is approximated
 279 to be ca. ≥ 0.01 wt.%, and $c_e > c^*$, as shown in Figure 5a (Regime-I $< c^* <$ Regime-II). Here,
 280 the scaling in Regime-I implies $\eta_{sp} \propto c^{1/2}$, $c^{3/2}$, $c^{3/2}$, and $c^{1/2}$, corresponding to $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 60}$,
 281 respectively (note, scaling for ϕ_{80} was not detected in Regime-I). The scaling in Regime-II
 282 broadly implies $\eta_{sp} \propto c^{3/2}$, corresponding to $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$. In Regime-I and -II, Fuoss law describes
 283 the $c^{1/2}$ scaling and is characteristic behaviour for semi-dilute, unentangled solutions of
 284 polysaccharides and for semi-dilute unentangled combs, whereas, $c^{3/2}$ scaling matches the
 285 scaling theory prediction for entangled solutions of polysaccharide combs with entangled
 286 backbones and unentangled side chains.²²

287 In the dilute regime, *i.e.*, $c < c^*$, we probed the hydrodynamic size of scatterers in the
 288 $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ systems. The hydrodynamic diameter distribution and the mean hydrodynamic
 289 diameter, D_h of the samples are shown in Figure 5b. We observed that the D_h for ϕ_0 ,
 290 780.45 ± 20.65 nm increases in ϕ_{20} to 840.95 ± 34.11 nm and ϕ_{40} to 846.25 ± 3.35 nm with an
 291 increase in glycerol in the systems. This was followed by a decline in ϕ_{60} to 648.50 ± 24.20 nm

292 and ϕ_{80} to 467.13 ± 6.81 nm. It is clear that the changing solvent environment resulted firstly
 293 in the swelling of the polysaccharide chains thereby increasing the D_h , followed by chain
 294 collapse and a dramatic decrease in the D_h , just as observed in the all-atom simulations. In this
 295 context, our investigations of infinitely diluted polysaccharide in ϕ_0 using size-exclusion
 296 chromatography coupled multi-angle light scattering, SEC-MALS, revealed a molar mass of
 297 1.15×10^7 g mol⁻¹ for ca. 70% of the polysaccharide chains in the solution (Table S3 and Figure
 298 S5a, b). Based on this, we also uncovered a persistence length, l_p of 8.3 nm, and a Mark-
 299 Houwink-Sakurada coefficient, $[\eta] = KM_w^a$, where a is ca. 0.80; the latter indicates that water
 300 is a good solvent for our polysaccharides (Figure 5c, 5c inset). This is consistent with earlier
 301 studies that have pointed out that water is a good solvent for pectin.⁴¹⁻⁴³ Note, SEC-MALS and
 302 related data analyses are described in Section S1. Using an average molecular mass of a Rha-
 303 GalA disaccharide, 322 g mol⁻¹ and a unit length of a Rha-GalA disaccharide monomer, $d =$
 304 ca. 0.90 nm,⁴⁶ it is now possible to estimate the contour length, L of our polysaccharide chains
 305 to 3.21×10^4 nm. Based on this, describing our polysaccharide as a Kratky–Porod chain, a
 306 solution to wormlike chain model,⁵¹ $\langle R_g^2 \rangle = \langle R^2 \rangle / 6 = \frac{L}{l_p} - \frac{1}{2(l_p)^2} (1 - e^{-2l_p L})$ and considering
 307 the results from the renormalization group theory for self-avoiding chains,⁵² $R_g/r_h \approx \sqrt{5/2}$
 308 finally gives a prediction for the hydrodynamic size, $2r_h \approx D_h$ of ca. 810 nm, which is in
 309 excellent agreement with our D_h estimation of ca. 780 nm for ϕ_0 . The agreement between SEC-
 310 MALS and D_h provides strong evidence that the scatterers in the dynamic light scattering
 311 measurements represent hydrodynamically independent chains, and hence any effect of
 312 molecular aggregation can be largely excluded from consideration, as we have tacitly assumed.
 313 Therefore, the solvent-induced conformation change occurs within single polymer chains.

314 These findings are further validated by performing intrinsic viscosity, $[\eta]$
 315 measurements using capillary viscometry, where $c^*[\eta]$ for ϕ_0 was observed to be ca. 18 dL g⁻¹

316 ¹. $c^*[\eta]$ increased in $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 40}$ to ca. 114 and 140 dL g⁻¹, respectively, and was followed by a
 317 decline to ca. 14 and 13 dL g⁻¹ in $\phi_{60 \rightarrow 80}$, respectively (Figure S4b, c). Since, intrinsic viscosity
 318 depends on the conformation, flexibility and volume of the polymer, one can connect this
 319 observation to a larger pervaded volume of swelled polysaccharide chains which increase the
 320 intrinsic viscosity by roughly an order of magnitude in $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 40}$, as compared to ϕ_0 . Conversely,
 321 in $\phi_{60 \rightarrow 80}$, the intrinsic viscosity decreases dramatically, implying a smaller pervaded volume
 322 by collapsed chains and compares well with earlier observations in collapsed cellulose gum
 323 chains.²²



324

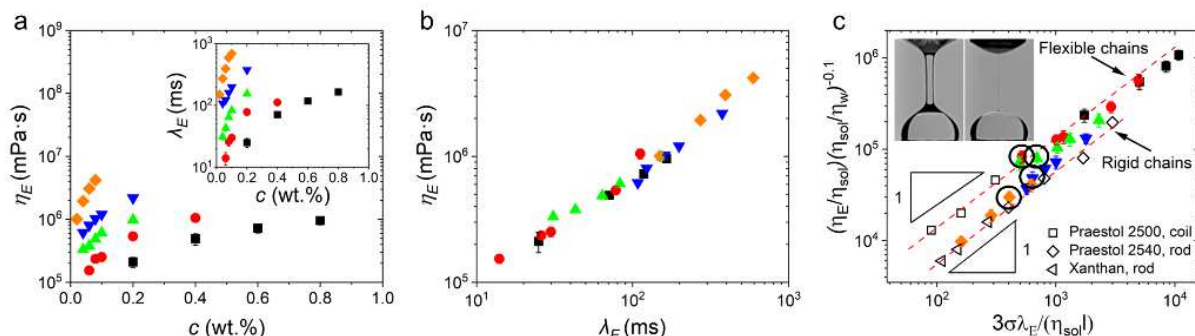
325 Figure 5. Specific viscosity, η_{sp} of $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ as a function of the polysaccharide concentration, c
 326 at 25 °C. Red dashed lines show Power law model fits. Black dashed line is a visual guide to
 327 demarcate the boundaries of Regime-I and -II. Shear viscosity (η) as a function of shear rate
 328 ($\dot{\gamma}$) and shear stress (τ) as a function of shear rate ($\dot{\gamma}$) for $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ are shown in Figure S2, S3 (a).
 329 Intensity as a function of hydrodynamic diameter distribution for ϕ_0 , black; ϕ_{20} , red; ϕ_{40} , green;
 330 ϕ_{60} , blue; and ϕ_{80} , orange at 25 °C (c , 0.001 wt.%). Inset shows the mean hydrodynamic
 331 diameter, D_h (■) as a function of $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ (b). Intrinsic viscosity, $[\eta]$ as a function of molar mass,
 332 shows Mark-Houwink-Sakurada fitting on the M_w , 1.1×10^7 g mol⁻¹ polysaccharide fraction
 333 (ca. 70% abundance). Red line indicates Power law model fit. Inset shows contour plot for the
 334 solutions to Bushin–Bohdanecky and Yamakawa–Fujii equations using equivalent radii
 335 approach showing mass per unit length, M_L as a function of persistence length, l_p . The target

336 function, Δ calculated over a range of M_L and l_p , are represented by the full colour spectrum,
 337 from black to red. The calculated minimum is indicated as \circ and pointed to with a black arrow
 338 (c). FENE description of normal stress (σ_N) as a function of shear rate ($\dot{\gamma}$) in c , 0.5 wt.% okra
 339 pectin solutions. Red dashed lines show Power law model fits. Inset show FENE coefficient as
 340 a function of $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ (d). Legends indicate ϕ_0 , \blacksquare ; ϕ_{20} , \bullet ; ϕ_{40} , \blacktriangle ; ϕ_{60} , \blacktriangledown ; and ϕ_{80} , \blacklozenge .

341

342 In the entangled regimes, *i.e.*, $c_e = c > c^*$, normal stress, σ_N at high shear rate, $\dot{\gamma}$ arising
 343 from the Weissenberg effect, $W_i = \dot{\gamma} \cdot \lambda$, gave us a measure of polysaccharide resistance to
 344 stretching. A finite extensibility results from the saturation of the stress caused by excessively
 345 stretched and orientated polymers, and to understand this, we utilised the FENE-Fraenkel
 346 spring-rod approximation⁵³ which shows a $-2/3$ scaling in viscosity with shear rate for
 347 springs, while an adequately rigid and rod-like chain shows a $-1/3$ scaling. A natural way to
 348 compare these approximations of ‘spring’ and ‘rod’ with a swelled and collapsed chain
 349 conformations, is to consider the scaling range where α is the relaxed spring length and δQ is
 350 the change in spring length. Assuming this condition, chain configures from a flexible
 351 conformation in ϕ_0 (α in thermodynamically good solvent) to a swelled configuration in $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 40}$
 352 ($\alpha + \delta Q$, represents maximum fractional extension closer to contour length), and reverts to a
 353 collapsed conformation in $\phi_{60 \rightarrow 80}$ ($\alpha - \delta Q$, represents maximum fractional collapse). Note,
 354 chain cannot collapse to $\delta Q < 0$, and the collapse is limited by steric packing effects. In the
 355 normal stress profile, this translates to, t_{zz} (normal stress) = $-1/2 \Psi \cdot x^2$, where Ψ is the
 356 normal stress coefficient and x is the velocity gradient in fluid.⁵⁴ Therefore, in the normal stress
 357 profile $-1/3$ dependence with shear rate should correspond to swelled polymers, conversely
 358 $-2/3$ corresponds to collapsed polymers. Our results correspond closely to a transition from
 359 $-1/3$ and $-2/3$ Power law scaling with FENE exponent of 0.89, 1.13, 1.03, 0.97 and 0.55 in
 360 $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$, respectively, clearly indicating the swelled-to-collapsed transitions in the

361 polysaccharide chains (Figure 5d). Corresponding Power law scaling in the shear viscosity (η)
 362 as a function of shear rate ($\dot{\gamma}$) are shown in Figure S4a.



363 **Figure 6.** Steady-state extensional viscosity, η_E as a function of the polysaccharide
 364 concentration, c in okra pectin solutions, $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$. Inset shows extensional relaxation time, λ_E as
 365 a function of the polysaccharide concentration, c in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$. The abscissa represents the
 366 corresponding values of η_E derived from the linear fit to the filament thinning data, and λ_E are
 367 derived from the exponential fit to the filament thinning data. The cut-off for filament thinning
 368 was $10 \mu\text{m}$ in all cases, however filaments endure for longer periods of time than are
 369 represented by the filament thinning data utilised for fitting. The machine data for thinning of
 370 normalised filament diameter, surface tensions and density required in relation to the
 371 calculations are shown in Figure S6, S7. (a). η_E as a function of λ_E (b). Dimensionless η_E as
 372 a function of dimensionless λ_E alongside concentration-dependent variation in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ during
 373 filament thinning. Here, η_{sol} , η_w , σ , and l are shear viscosity of solvent, shear viscosity of
 374 water, surface tension of solution, and filament length, respectively. The dashed red lines
 375 correspond to flexible and rigid polysaccharides as described by Stelter and coworkers.⁵⁵ Data
 376 for praestol (2500 and 2540) and xanthan solutions are renditions of the original figure from
 377 Stelter and coworkers.⁵⁵ Inset images illustrate the initial exponential conical thinning followed
 378 by a linear cylindrical thinning in the late stage for ϕ_{40} during capillary breakup extensional
 379 rheology. Black circles indicate the data points for c , 0.06 wt.% polysaccharide solutions (c).
 380 Legends in (a), (b), and (c) indicate ϕ_0 , \blacksquare ; ϕ_{20} , \bullet ; ϕ_{40} , \blacktriangle ; ϕ_{60} , \blacktriangledown ; and ϕ_{80} , \blacklozenge . Okra pectin
 381 concentration ranges were ϕ_0 , 0.2 – 0.8 wt.%; ϕ_{20} , 0.06 – 0.4 wt.%; ϕ_{40} , 0.04 – 0.2 wt.%; ϕ_{60} ,
 382 0.04 – 0.2 wt.%; and ϕ_{80} , 0.02 – 0.08 wt.%.

384
 385 We also probed the concentration-dependent extensional viscosity, η_E , and the
 386 extensional relaxation time, λ_E in $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$ solution, undergoing capillary thinning and breakup
 387 during uniaxial extensional flow, using capillary breakup extensional rheology. Note, capillary
 388 thinning was derived from the normalised capillary diameter (d/d_0) undergoing relaxation.
 389 The extensional relaxation time, λ_E and the extensional viscosity, η_E were determined from the
 390 exponential (at the initial stages of capillary thinning) and linear (at the later stages of capillary

391 thinning) regions as, $D(t) = D_0 \exp(-t/3\lambda)$ and $\eta_E = -\frac{\sigma_s}{dD(t)/dt}$, where, D is the diameter of
392 the thinning capillary, D_0 is the diameter of the thinning capillary at time, $t = 0$, and σ_s is the
393 surface tension of the polysaccharide solutions.⁵⁵ Figure 6a shows the η_E and λ_E as a function
394 of polysaccharide concentration. Since η_E is governed by λ_E , we probed the η_E/λ_E dependency
395 (Figure 6b). Here, one would quickly recognise that this dependency is accompanied by solvent
396 contributions to viscosity. To remove solvent contributions, η_E and λ_E were rendered
397 dimensionless as described earlier.⁵⁵ This led to two η_E/λ_E dependencies, both with $\eta_E \propto \lambda_E$
398 scaling ≈ 1 (Figure 6c). Here, $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 40}$ follow a primary dependency, whilst $\phi_{60 \rightarrow 80}$ follows a
399 secondary dependency. Stelter and coworkers,⁵⁵ describes the primary dependencies towards
400 flexible polymer behaviour, whilst the secondary dependency is considered to arise from rigid
401 polymers. Additionally, the comparison of the dependencies observed in our systems with
402 those found in praestol 2500 flexible chains, and praestol 2540 and xanthan with rigid chains
403 from earlier studies,⁵⁵ confirm our results. Translating our findings from conformation to
404 viscoelastic responses, the η_E can therefore be described as a manifestation of the contribution
405 of swelled or collapsed polysaccharides to bulk stress. A chain of length $2L$ will contribute
406 equally to bulk stress as that by a rigid sphere of radius L in pure strain state,⁵⁶ therefore, as L
407 gets smaller, the contribution to bulk stress goes down. Note, our capillary breakup extensional
408 rheology is essentially a measure of relaxation. Here, we would like to draw attention to the
409 dimensionless λ_E for c , 0.06 wt.% polysaccharide solutions, $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 80}$ (Figure 6c, the data points
410 are encircled by black circles for visual clarity). In swelled polysaccharides, $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 40}$ chains
411 exhibits ‘slow’ chain relaxation contributing to a longer lifetime of the chain existing in the
412 state of the larger pervaded volume. By contrast, the $\phi_{60 \rightarrow 80}$ systems exhibit ‘fast’ chain
413 relaxation, contributing to minimising the time the chain occupies a larger pervaded volume.

414 Discussion

415 We now discuss the mechanisms behind the transitions between flexible and collapsed
416 polysaccharide conformations in the miscible heterogenous solvents of water and glycerol;
417 transitions which are key in dictating the biophysical properties of polysaccharide solutions,
418 such as viscoelasticity, in natural and applied environments. First, we consider the case of
419 preferential solvation, a well-known phenomenon, clearly displayed in our all-atom
420 simulations and backed up by our ζ -potential measurements. Consider a polysaccharide chain
421 is introduced at infinite dilution into our two-component solvent mixture of water and glycerol.
422 Here, according to Gibbs's phase rule the number of phases, p relates to the degree of freedom
423 as, $f = 4 - p$.⁵⁷ In this case, if composition is dependent and two thermodynamic parameters are
424 independently changeable, $f = 2$ (temperature and pressure), then by phase rule, $p = 2$. The
425 solvent mixture thus separates into two phases, *i.e.*, *preferential solvation*. Next, we
426 hypothesise that swelling-collapse conformational transition of polysaccharide chains are in
427 fact induced by the preferential solvation. A putative mechanism for the swelling-collapse
428 transitions can now be proposed which is rooted in totally non-specific interactions between
429 the polysaccharide chain and solvent. In the first instance, *i.e.*, $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 20}$, the radial probability
430 distribution of water decreases in the vicinity of the polysaccharide-solvent interface. Notably,
431 the self-preference of water increases 'exponentially' with addition of glycerol until reaching
432 a maxima near $water_{0.75}/glycerol_{0.25}$ mole fractions (roughly corresponding to ϕ_{40}), which
433 is then followed by an exponential decay of water's self-preference.²⁸ This water-water self-
434 preference partly explains the decrease in $g(r)$ of water at $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 40}$, in turn reducing the relative
435 cost of inserting glycerol molecules into the first solvation shell. This sets the scene where
436 glycerol has the steric space to fill the first local solvation shell, thereby preserving the density
437 of the total solvent to the first order (please compare $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 40}$ in Figure 3a and b). As a result,
438 in $\phi_{20 \rightarrow 40}$, the polysaccharide is now 'somewhat' depleted of water interactions. Under these
439 conditions, the polysaccharide swells and can be interpreted as the system gaining entropy by

440 increasing the area of polysaccharide-water contact through chain swelling. Contrarily, with
441 further increase of glycerol in $\phi_{60 \rightarrow 80}$, water solvation at the interface increases and now
442 glycerol is sterically excluded from the chain locality. Now the system loses entropy by
443 decreasing the area of polysaccharide-water contact through enhancement of chain self-
444 association, leading to the observed collapsed configurations in $\phi_{60 \rightarrow 80}$. Here, the
445 polysaccharide sub-system loses entropy, but water sub-systems gain entropy. The total
446 entropy of the system does increase, leading to the thermodynamic favourability for greater
447 chain collapse. Further experiments are undoubtedly required to clarify this further and
448 consideration of theories *e.g.*, Kirkwood-Buff theory that links macroscopic properties to
449 microscopic details, as well as caveats around specific chain chemistry including side chains
450 and linkage are ongoing and will be part of a future study.

451 We summarise that solvent-solvent and solute-solvent entropic components delicately
452 balance out the total system potential and drives the phenomenon. It is notable that even though
453 our simulations are independent of experimental polysaccharide chain length as well as side-
454 chain characteristics, our simulations demonstrate consensus with our experimental
455 observations. Our data is also in excellent agreement with recently published results on
456 polysaccharide conformation, where addition of glycerol at lower vol. % to aqueous alginate⁵⁸
457 solutions resulted in increased chain flexibility, and, addition of glycerol at higher vol. % to
458 aqueous methylcellulose gum,⁵⁹ dextran⁶⁰ and hydroxyethyl cellulose⁶¹ solutions resulted in
459 polysaccharide chain collapse. It thus implies that the emergence of our polysaccharide
460 conformations in miscible heterogenous solvent is a generic behaviour whose universal nature
461 ought to be recognised. Our findings provide crucial insight into the role of polysaccharide-
462 water preferential interactions being dominant in miscible heterogenous solvents and points
463 out the resulting implications for governing the conformation and viscoelasticity of
464 polysaccharide solutions. This crucial finding, concealed from prior perspectives, illuminates

465 the role of solvent composition in structural significance of polysaccharides, while
466 simultaneously charting new frontiers in the precise manipulation of polysaccharide
467 conformation and solution viscoelasticity. This applies within both fundamental and practical
468 settings, such as capillary-driven extension and longer-lived viscoelastic filaments, stickiness
469 of carnivorous plant fluids and mammalian saliva, swallowing, extrusion, fibre spinnability,
470 ink jetting, spraying, and emulsion-to-droplet formation. This novel paradigm emerges through
471 the simple yet rational modification of the preferential solvation layer *via* careful tuning of
472 solvent composition and can have exciting implications for the future.

473 **Methods**

474 **Materials.** Okra fruit was procured from suppliers in Honduras and the polysaccharide, pectin
475 was extracted by hot water extraction as described earlier by Yuan and coworkers³⁹ with few
476 modifications. Briefly, the fruits (moisture content, 88.42 ± 0.34 %) were cut into ca. 5 mm-
477 thick slices and stirred in water at 55 °C for 90 min (1:10 volume ratio by dry weight basis,
478 solution pH 6.4). The extract was then centrifuged at 8000 g for 30 mins to remove any
479 insoluble cellulosic oligomers and dialyzed (MWCO 10 kDa or 10^4 g mol⁻¹) against 10 volumes
480 of water for 24 h at 4 °C, with three water changes. The material was 10x condensed on a rotary
481 evaporator at 55 °C under vacuum. The resulting viscous liquid was snap frozen in an ethanol-
482 dry ice bath and then lyophilized for further use. The estimations of weight average molar
483 masses (M_w) and monosaccharide composition of the polysaccharide were carried out using
484 Size Exclusion Chromatography coupled to Multiangle Laser Light Scattering (SEC-MALS)
485 and High-Performance Anion Exchange Chromatography with Pulsed Amperometric
486 Detection (HPAEC-PAD), respectively, and are discussed in Section S1, S2, and Figure S5a,
487 b. Degree of methylation was uncovered to be ca. 85%, and was estimated from infrared spectra
488 ($4500\text{-}700$ cm⁻¹) of the polysaccharide obtained on a ATR-FTIR spectrometer (Bruker Optics
489 GmbH, Germany) as described earlier,⁶² and results agrees with previous reports.⁶³

490 Glycerol ($\geq 99.0\%$), ethanol, sodium azide, sodium chloride, sodium hydroxide, sodium
491 acetate, *d*-galacturonic acid, *d*-fructose, *d*-mannose, *l*-rhamnose, *l*-arabinose, *d*-galactose, *d*-
492 glucose, *d*-xylose, sulphuric acid, and trifluoroacetic acid were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich,
493 UK. Milli-Q water (Millipore Corp., USA) was used throughout the experiments (18.2 MΩ.cm
494 ionic purity at 25 °C). All experiments were carried out at 25 °C.

495 **Pectin solution preparation.** In order to ensure homogenous mixing and prevent
496 polysaccharide chain scission from excessive shear deformation which are known to occur in

497 polymers with high extensibility,⁶⁴ the freeze-dried polysaccharide was introduced in water and
 498 then placed on a roller for 12 hours. Following this, glycerol at 0, 20, 40, 60 and 80 vol.% was
 499 added to the solution and then placed on a roller for another 12 h. Note, 0, 20, 40, 60 and 80
 500 vol.% of glycerol equates to ca. 0, 0.06, 0.14, 0.27, 0.50 in mole fractions. Sodium azide was
 501 added as an antimicrobial, 0.01% (w/v).

502 **Steady shear rheology and normal stress analysis.** The shear rheology response of
 503 polysaccharide solutions were characterised on a MCR 301 rotational rheometer with a Peltier
 504 temperature control system (Anton Paar, Austria), using (a) a sandblasted parallel-plate
 505 geometry (plate diameter, 40 mm; gap, 100 μm , employed with gap error corrections during
 506 data analysis as described previously⁶⁵) or, (b) a concentric cylinder Couette cell geometry for
 507 low-viscosity solutions ($\eta_0 \leq 10 \text{ mPa}\cdot\text{s}$). Measurements ($n = 3$) were carried out on shear rate
 508 ($\dot{\gamma}$) controlled mode of 10^{-1} to 10^3 s^{-1} to measure shear stress, τ , and steady shear viscosity,
 509 $\eta(\dot{\gamma}) = \tau / \dot{\gamma}$. The zero-shear viscosity, η_0 were extracted using the Carreau-Yasuda fitting as,

510 $\eta = \eta_\infty + (\eta_0 - \eta_\infty) \left[1 + (t\dot{\gamma})^a \right]^{\frac{m-1}{a}}$, where η_0 is the zero-shear viscosity (mPa·s). Normal
 511 stress measurements were additionally carried out in the shear rate range of 10^{-2} to 10^4 s^{-1} ,
 512 utilising the narrow gap parallel plate method.⁶⁶ Note, once the final gap set position was
 513 reached, the sample was held until the normal force reached equilibrium (ca. 10 min).

514 **Capillary viscometry.** Polysaccharide solutions were measured for intrinsic viscosity $[\eta]$
 515 using an Ostwald viscometer ($n = 10$). An Atago DD-7 differential refractometer (Jencons

516 Scientific, UK) was used to estimate polysaccharide concentrations as, $Brix \times 10 \times \frac{\frac{dn_{pectin}}{dc}}{\frac{dn_{sucrose}}{dc}}$,

517 where $\frac{dn}{dc}$ pectin and $\frac{dn}{dc}$ sucrose is 0.146 and 0.149, respectively.

518 **Capillary breakup extensional rheology.** Extensional rheology was carried out on a CaBER-
519 1 extensional rheometer (ThermoFisher Haake, Germany) equipped with an enclosed
520 measuring unit to minimise evaporation, as described in our earlier study.⁶⁷ For all
521 measurements, 76 μL of sample was utilised in the parallel geometry (*diameter*, 6 mm; initial
522 gap and final gap of 3.01 and 9.92 mm, respectively) ($n = 5$). The strike time was 180 ms with
523 a linear stretch profile to avoid filament vibrations during capillary neck thinning. The initial
524 aspect ratio was 1 and at the final aspect ratio was 3.31, correlating to a Hencky strain of 1.19.
525 Surface tensions and density required in relation to the calculations were measured using a
526 PAT1 Profile Analysis Tensiometer (Sinterface Technologies, Germany) and DMA5000
527 densitometer (Anton Paar, Austria), respectively. Particularly, surface tension was measured
528 using the shape profile of a pendant drop formed at the tip of a capillary in air using the Gauss-
529 Laplace equation.⁶⁸ The equation represents a relationship between the curvature of a liquid
530 meniscus and the surface tension (σ_s) as a fitting parameter in, $\sigma_s \left(\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2} \right) = \Delta p_o + \Delta \rho g z$,
531 where r_1 and r_2 are the radii of curvature, Δp_o is the pressure gradient in a reference plane, $\Delta \rho$
532 is the density difference, g is the gravity term, and h is the vertical height of the drop measured
533 from the reference plane.

534 **Dynamic light scattering and ζ -potential.** The mean hydrodynamic diameter (D_h) and ζ -
535 potential of the polysaccharide solutions were measured on a Nano ZS series Zetasizer
536 (Malvern Instruments, UK) equipped with a 4-mW helium/neon laser at a wavelength output
537 of 633 nm ($n = 6$). ζ -potential were measured using a ZEN1002 Dip cell to achieve a higher
538 field strength and a time delay of 120 s was implemented between measurements to avoid Joule
539 heating.

540 **All-atom Molecular dynamics simulations.** A dodecamer chain of repeating segments of *l*-
541 rhamnose and *d*-galacturonic acid was built in *xleap* and *tleap*, as described in a recent NMR

542 study of okra pectin by Liu et. al.⁶⁹ Methyl esterification at the C₆ position of galacturonic acid
543 was implemented along the dodecamer. Partial charges of atoms were obtained using
544 semiempirical density functional tight binding (DFTB) (Table S4). Molecular dynamics
545 simulations were performed utilising the Glycam 06j-1 force field for dynamics of
546 carbohydrates and carbohydrate-like molecules in Gromacs 2019.3 compiled with CUDA. The
547 system was solvated in explicit TIP3P water and CHARMM22 glycerol using a triclinic
548 periodic box with a periodic boundary, 1.0 nm. The CHARMM22 forcefield for glycerol is
549 reported to provide experimentally close dynamic diffusion coefficients, however densities are
550 known to deviate by $\leq 9\%$.⁷⁰ We observed ca. 1 - 8% deviation in density compared to
551 experimental measurements for $\phi_{0\rightarrow 80}$ (Table S2). We also utilised the AMBER forcefield for
552 glycerol, where densities are known to deviate by $\leq 4.5\%$.⁷⁰ \bar{R} for $\phi_{0\rightarrow 80}$ using AMBER
553 glycerol were in close agreement with the CHARMM22 glycerol results (Figure S8). All
554 simulations started from randomly generated configuration, and a system energy minimisation
555 was carried out for all configurations using the steepest descent algorithm. The Parrinello-
556 Rahman algorithm, the Particle Mesh Ewald method, and the Berendsen thermostat were used
557 for temperature, pressure coupling, and system electrostatics, respectively. Van der Waal's
558 cutoff and Coulomb interactions were both set to 1.2 nm, and simulations were run at 298 K,
559 1 bar of pressure, 4.5×10^{-5} bar of compressibility for 100 ns. Hydrogen bond lengths were
560 constrained using the SHAKE algorithm.

561 **Data availability**

562 All data are included in the article and supplementary information. Any additional data are
563 available upon reasonable request.

564 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

565 The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests or personal relationships
566 that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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574 of University of Nottingham and Waikato Hospital's on-premises HPC service - Augusta and
575 Ahi-Rua, respectively.

576

577 **Abbreviations**

578 ϕ_0 , okra pectin + water; ϕ_{20} , okra pectin + 20 vol.% glycerol in water; ϕ_{40} , okra pectin + 40
579 vol.% glycerol in water; ϕ_{60} , okra pectin + 60 vol.% glycerol in water; and ϕ_{80} , okra pectin + 80
580 vol.% glycerol in water; $\phi_{0 \rightarrow 80}$, okra pectin + 0 \rightarrow 80 vol.% glycerol in water; τ , shear stress;
581 $\dot{\gamma}$, shear rate; η , shear viscosity; η_E , extensional viscosity; η_{sp} , specific viscosity; η_0 , zero-shear
582 viscosity, η_s , solvent viscosity; η_{sol} , solution viscosity; η_w , water viscosity; $[\eta]$, intrinsic
583 viscosity; η_{red} , reduced specific viscosity; η_{inh} , inherent viscosity; c , concentration; c^* ,
584 overlap concentration; c_e , entanglement concentration; λ_E , extensional relaxation time; σ ,
585 surface tensions; ρ , density; k_B , Boltzmann constant; MWCO, molecular weight cut-off; M_w ,
586 weight-averaged molecular weight; dL , decilitre; R_g , radius of gyration; RMSD, root-mean
587 squared deviations; SEC-MALS, size exclusion chromatography-multi angles light scattering;
588 ATR-FTIR, attenuated total reflectance-Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy; NMR,
589 nuclear magnetic resonance; d , filament diameter; d_0 , initial filament diameter; d/d_0 ,
590 normalised filament diameter; M_c , moisture content; Ψ , normal stress coefficient; x , velocity
591 gradient in fluid; ω , aspect ratio; b , breath of chain; L , length of chain; l_p , persistence length;
592 M_L , mass per unit length; $g(r)$, radial probability distribution; a_w , water activity; σ_N , normal
593 stress; D_h , mean hydrodynamic diameter; r_h , mean hydrodynamic radius; κ^{-1} , Debye length.

594

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