1 "Declaration of interest: none"

2 Spinach leaf and chloroplast lipid: A natural rheology modifier

3 for chocolate?

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4 Nizaha Juhaida Mohamad^{a,b,*}, David Gray^b, Bettina Wolf^{b,1}

5 *aUniversiti Malaysia Terengganu, Faculty of Fisheries and Food Science, 21030 Kuala Nerus, Terengganu,*

6 Malaysia

7 ^bDivision of Food, Nutrition and Dietetics, University of Nottingham, Sutton Bonington Campus, Loughborough

8 LE12 5RD, United Kingdom

9 **Corresponding author.*

10 E-mail address: niezaju@umt.edu.my

11 ¹Present address: School of Chemical Engineering, University of Birmingham, Birmingham B15 2TT, United

12 Kingdom

13

14 Abstract

15 In this study the possibility of replacing current surfactants in chocolate formulations with natural lipids extracted from spinach leaf (SPLIP) or spinach chloroplast (CH.SPLIP) was 16 evaluated. SPLIP and CH.SPLIP were extracted with chloroform/methanol following enzyme 17 deactivation with hot isopropanol. Results showed a higher extraction yield for SPLIP while 18 19 glycolipids were more concentrated in CH.SPLIP. Sugar/oil suspensions with dispersed 20 volume fractions of 0.28, 0.33 and 0.37 containing 0.1 % to 0.7 % (w/w) surfactant (SPLIP, 21 CH.SPLIP, lecithin and PGPR as commercial references) based on oil phase were prepared and analyzed in shear rheology. Apparent viscosity at 40 s⁻¹ was significantly lower for the 22 23 natural surfactants compared to lecithin at 0.5 to 0.7 % (w/w) addition. With regard to yield stress, taken as the shear stress at 5 s⁻¹, both natural surfactants showed comparable 24 performance to PGPR at 0.3 % to 0.7 % addition. As SPLIP and CH.SPLIP behaved similar 25

26 (p > 0.05), SPLIP, due to higher extraction yield, would be the preferred choice for 27 application in chocolate matrices.

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Keywords: Chocolate, suspension rheology, lecithin, polyglycerol polyricinoleate (PGPR),
 interfacial tension, natural surfactant

31

32 1. Introduction

33 Chocolate represents a high internal phase volume suspension with sugar and cocoa 34 particles suspended in cocoa butter (CB). The rheological properties of chocolate are not only important in manufacturing steps (Servais, Ranc, & Roberts, 2003) but also to give good 35 quality eating properties (Beckett, 2008). Chocolate is characterized by a shear thinning 36 viscosity behavior with yield stress. The yield stress denotes the transition between pseudo-37 solid and pseudo-liquid behavior, and it can also be understood as the minimum shear stress 38 at the first evidence (onset) of flow (Doraiswamy et al., 1991). The shear thinning properties 39 are important for pumping and sensory characteristics (Beckett, 2008; Goncalves & Lannes, 40 2010). The International Office of Cocoa (IOC) recommends the characterization of the 41 rheological properties of chocolate between 2 and 50 s⁻¹ by ramping shear rate up and down 42 in 3 min respectively, with one minute holding at 50 s⁻¹. The whole procedure should be 43 preceded by a pre-shear step at 5 s⁻¹ for 5 min (Afoakwa, Paterson, Fowler, & Vieira, 2009; 44 Servais et al., 2003). 45

The rheological properties of chocolate are influenced by the interactions between the dispersed solid sugar and cocoa particles in the CB continuous phase. Sugar particles have a hydrophilic surface and, therefore, are prone to aggregate if no surfactants added to the lipophilic continuous phase. Aggregation leads to entrapment of CB thereby apparently increasing the particle volume fraction, increasing yield stress and apparent viscosity. Hence, a surfactant is added to coat the surface of the sugar particles so they disperse well in the
continuous CB phase.

Depending on the type of chocolate, commercial chocolate contains around 29 - 40 % 53 (w/w) fat (Beckett, 2009) and 0.3 - 0.5 % (w/w) surfactant (Beckett, 2008). The most 54 55 commonly used surfactants are lecithin and polyglycerol polyricinoleate (PGPR). Lecithin 56 promotes apparent viscosity reduction while PGPR decreases the yield stress without significantly affecting the apparent viscosity. Therefore, these two surfactants are often 57 combined to obtain the desired product rheology (Schantz & Rohm, 2005). Contrary to 58 lecithin, naturally produced from the by-product of oil refining (van Nieuwenhuyzen, 2010), 59 60 PGPR is chemically synthesized through polyesterification of glycerol and ricinoleic acid from castor oil (Christiansen, 2014). Both surfactants are assigned an E-number and are thus 61 not considered clean-label. Consumers are often familiar with lecithin and likely to accept its 62 63 presence in processed foods. PGPR on the other hand creates negative associations due to its 64 complicated name and the fact that it is a synthetic material appears to be widely known among health-conscious consumers (Osborn, 2015). 65

Efforts to replace PGPR with a natural alternative date back some 30 years when a 66 67 patent on the polar lipid fraction of oats, specifically the glycolipid fraction, as a low shear viscosity reducing agent in chocolate was published (Evans, Jee, Sander, Smith, & Gibson, 68 1991). Depending on oat species and variety, 10 - 34 % (w/w) of the total oil was reported to 69 constitute polar lipids, mainly glycolipids (5 - 15% (w/w)) and phospholipids (5 - 26% (w/w))70 71 (w/w)) (Doehlert, Moreau, Welti, Roth, & McMullen, 2010; Sahasrabudhe, 1979; Youngs, 72 Puskulcu, & Smith, 1977). The main components of the glycolipid fraction were identified as galactolipids including digalactosyl diacylglycerol (DGDG), 41.5 % (w/w), and 73 74 monogalactosyl diacylglycerol (MGDG), 18.5 % (w/w). Other glycolipids were present at a 75 level of less than 10 % (w/w) (Sahasrabudhe, 1979). The phospholipid fraction was identified

as containing phosphatidyl choline (PC), phosphatidyl ethanolamine (PE) and a minor
fraction of phosphatidyl inositol (PI) (Doehlert et al., 2010; Kaimainen et al., 2012). To the
best of the authors' knowledge, this research on oat oil has not been validated with alternative
natural lipid extracts rich in the main oat lipid components, which motivated the present
study.

81 MGDG and DGDG are also abundantly available in photosynthetic plants, in 82 particular spinach (Spinach oleracea L.) which is therefore often selected as an exemplary 83 photosynthetic plant in studies related to plant based polar lipids (Allen, Good, Davis, Chisum, & Fowler, 1966; Douce, 1974; Douce, Holtz, & Benson, 1973; Jaime et al., 2015). 84 85 Other lipids found in spinach include the sulfolipid sulfoquinovosyl diacylglycerol (SQDG) (Christie, 2012), and the phospholipids phosphatidylglycerol (PG) and phosphatidylcholine 86 (PC) (Mazliak, 1977). Galactolipids are neutral lipids while SODG and PG each carry one 87 88 negative charge in their head group (Dörmann & Benning, 2002).

89 This study presents data on the composition and efficacy as fat based suspension rheology modifier of lipid extracted from both spinach leaf and spinach chloroplast. The 90 91 polar lipid fraction of either has been reported to show little compositional difference (Dörmann, 2013; Wintermans, 1960), but extraction yield will be higher from isolated 92 93 chloroplast due to their enrichment in lipids. Chloroplast isolation comprises an additional processing step, hence, in potential future commercial application, leaf lipid may be of higher 94 95 value despite the lower extraction yield. Here, the performance of both lipids was compared 96 to lecithin and PGPR as commercially applied surfactants, using sugar/oil suspensions, a 97 common fat based food suspension model of chocolate.

98

99 2. Materials and methods

100 2.1. Materials

101	Fresh spinach leaves, icing sugar and sunflower oil were bought from a local
102	supermarket. The moisture content of the fresh spinach leaves was, on average, 94.0 ± 0.2
103	g/100 g (wet basis), determined by oven drying to constant weight at 105 °C. Icing sugar was
104	used to prepare the sugar/oil suspensions and its properties relevant to this study are reported
105	in section 2.8. Sunflower oil, as the suspension medium, was purified to remove any surface
106	active molecules by adsorption to magnesium silicate (Florisil®, Sigma-Aldrich, Dorset,
107	UK), as described in section 2.6. PGPR 90 was provided by Danisco (Kettering, UK), lecithin
108	was from ADM (Hull, UK) and CB was from Barry Callebaut (Banbury, UK). Extraction
109	solvents were chloroform (Sigma-Aldrich, UK), methanol (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough,
110	UK) and isopropanol (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK). Other materials included
111	sodium chloride (Sigma-Aldrich, USA), sucrose (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) and deionized water.
112	Further materials used by an external laboratory for lipid analysis are mentioned with the
113	method.
114	
115	2.2. Lipid extraction from spinach leaf
116	A heat pre-treatment with hot isopropanol was carried out prior to leaf lipid
117	extraction, to prevent the activity of hydrolytic enzymes, which are easily activated when
118	plant cells are ruptured (Benson, 1964; Fishwick & Wright, 1977; Kates & Eberhardt, 1957).
119	The pre-treatment followed the method of Yao, Gerde, and Wang (2012) where 100 g of
120	fresh leaves was finely homogenized in 300 ml of pre-heated isopropanol (80 °C), using a
121	glass household blender (kMix BLX50BK, Kenwood, UK) for 1 min. The mixture was then
122	poured into a beaker and heated at 80 °C for 20 min while stirring at 400 mm on a magnetic

122 poured into a beaker and heated at 80 °C for 20 min while stirring at 400 rpm on a magnetic

hot plate stirrer. Treated leaf and solvent containing isopropanol soluble lipids were separated 123

by filtering through three layers of cheesecloth on a Buchner funnel aided by vacuum suction. 124

125 The filtrate was retained for lipid recovery and combined with the filtrate from the following126 lipid extraction step.

127 Lipid extraction was following the established method of Folch, Lees, and Sloane-Stanley (1957). The treated leaf collected from the heat pre-treatment procedure was mixed 128 with 240 ml of chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v) and stirred on a magnetic plate stirrer at 400 129 rpm for 20 min (Folch et al., 1957). Following the filtration procedure as previously 130 131 described, the extract was filtered and the filtrate was combined with that extracted from the heat pre-treatment. Solvents in the combined extracts were evaporated at 40 °C until almost 132 133 dry. The extract was then reconstituted with 24 ml of chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v), transferred into a separatory funnel and 6 ml of NaCl (0.9 %; w/v) solution was added for the 134 final mixture to be close to 8:4:3 (v/v) of chloroform/methanol/NaCl (Folch et al., 1957). The 135 extract was left to stand for at least 1 h until complete separation of the two liquids was 136 visible. The upper phase contained all of the non-lipid substances and negligible amounts of 137 lipids while the lower phase contained essentially all of the tissue lipids (Folch et al., 1957). 138 The lipid phase was then transferred into a clean, pre-weighed flask. The solvent was 139 evaporated at 40 °C and the extracted lipids were weighed gravimetrically. The collected 140 lipids were re-dissolved in an amount of chloroform (10 times the weight of extracted lipids) 141 and then stored at -80 °C until further use. 142

143

144 2.3. Lipid extraction from spinach chloroplast

145 Chloroplasts were isolated from spinach leaf following a procedure introduced by 146 Gedi et al. (2017) with slight modification. Seventy grams of fresh leaf was homogenized in a 147 household blender with 210 ml of 0.3 M aqueous sucrose solution for 1 min at room 148 temperature. The slurry was filtered through three layers of cheesecloth and the chloroplasts 149 in the filtrate were isolated by centrifugation (1500 g, 20 min) at 4 °C. The chloroplast pellet

was then ready for lipid extraction, following the same protocol as for the leaf, including the 150 pre-treatment with hot isopropanol (see section 2.2). The yield of the chloroplasts was 151 determined gravimetrically by freeze-drying until constant weight. Approximately, the 152 amount of chloroplast obtained was 1 g (freeze-dried) per 100 g of fresh leaf. 153 154 2.4. Lipid analysis by Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC) 155 156 All experiments for the determination of lipid composition using TLC and gas chromatography (GC) were carried out by an external laboratory (Mylnefield Lipid Analysis 157 158 at James Hutton Limited, Dundee, UK). Due to the cost involved, samples were analyzed only once. 159 For TLC, the major class of lipids (polar lipids and neutral lipids) were separated 160 using 1-dimensional (1-D) glass HPTLC (high performance TLC) (Silica gel 60 F₂₅₄ plates 161 (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany)), while the polar lipids were separated using 2-dimensional (2-162 D) glass HPTLC, as follows. A known amount of phosphatidylcholine containing 163 heptadecanoic acid (C17:0PC) as the internal standard was added into the lipid extract to aid 164 analysis with the 1-D TLC plate. The mixture of the lipid sample and the internal standard 165 was spotted (200 µl) onto the 1-D TLC plate and then separated in one direction using 166

167 70:30:2 (v/v/v) of isohexane/diethyl ether/formic acid solvent mix. The plate was sprayed

with primuline and viewed under UV light. The lipid components were then extracted fromthe silica plate prior to analysis by GC.

Polar lipid separation used phosphatidyl ethanolamine containing heptadecanoic acid (C17:0PE) as the internal standard. A small amount of lipid sample was spotted near the corner and separated in two directions. A solvent mixture of 65:25:2.8 (v/v/v)

173 chloroform/methanol/water and 80:12:15:4 (v/v/v) chloroform/methanol/acetic acid/water

174 was used as the solvent mixture for the first and second direction, respectively. An identical

plate of standards was run at the same time to aid the identification of the spots on the sample
plate. The polar lipid fractions, MGDG, DGDG, SQDG and trigalactosyl diacylglycerol
(TGDG) were removed from the TLC plate and re-extracted from the silica. A second
internal standard (henicosanoic acid, C21:0) was added to all fractions before esterification
for GC analysis.

The band of TLC adsorbent containing lipids was scraped and put into a glass test 180 181 tube. About 1 ml of toluene and 2 ml of methanolic sulfuric acid (1 %; v/v) were added into the glass test tube. The mixture was then heated to, and held at, 50 °C for 14 - 16 h. After 182 183 cooling, it was shaken with 2 ml of isohexane and 5 ml of NaCl solution (5 %; w/v). The solvent was then transferred into a new glass test tube. The previous test tube was shaken 184 with another 2 ml of hexane and the two solvents were combined in the new glass test tube. 185 The combined solvents were shaken with 3 ml of KHCO₃ solution (2%; w/v). The solvent 186 mixture was then transferred into a new tube and 1 ml of toluene was added before blowing 187 off the solvents into dryness with N₂ gas. After that, isohexane and BHT (butylated 188 hydroxytoluene, antioxidant) were added to give a lipid concentration of 5 mg/ml. The fatty 189 acids methyl esters (FAMEs) were then ready to be injected into the gas chromatograph for 190 further analysis. 191

192

193 2.5. Lipid analysis by Gas chromatography (GC)

The profile of the fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) was determined using GC (Agilent 6890, Agilent, USA). The fatty acids were separated using a capillary column (Cpwax 52CB, 30 mm x 0.25 mm internal diameter x 0.15 μ m, Agilent, UK). Hydrogen was used as the carrier gas at the flow rate of 40 ml/min. The column temperature was initially held at 170 °C for 3 min. The temperature was then increased to 220 °C at 4 °C/min and maintained for 10 min. An amount of 1 μ l of sample was injected into a 230 °C inlet with a

50:1 split ratio. A flame ionization detector at a temperature of 300 °C was used. The data 200 were processed by integrating the area under the curve and the results are reported as 201 normalized area (%) and mg fraction/g oil. 202

203

2.6. Preparation of oil phases for oil-based suspension system 204

Surfactants (spinach lipids (either leaf or chloroplast), lecithin or PGPR) in 205 206 sunflower oil solutions were prepared at concentrations of 0.1 %, 0.3 %, 0.5 % and 0.7 % (w/w). The sunflower oil was first purified with 4 % (w/w) magnesium silicate and stirred for 207 208 30 min at 600 rpm followed by centrifugation at 1700 g for 25 min to remove the silicate. To prevent re-introduction of surface active material due to rancidification, the purified oil was 209 stored in the dark at 4 °C for a maximum of one week. The absence of surface activity within 210 211 the one week was validated by measuring interfacial tension against water to ensure that it 212 was constant at 30 ± 1 mN/m.

The addition of spinach lipid to the purified oil followed a procedure of mixing in 213 chloroform dissolved extract (roughly 1 g extract depending on extract yield in the 10 214 volumes of chloroform, as stated in section 2.2) with purified oil (50 g) in a round bottom 215 flask and mixed by swirling for at least 1 min. This was followed by allowing the chloroform 216 to evaporate at 40 °C. Complete evaporation of the chloroform was checked by mass balance. 217 By diluting with purified oil, the desired spinach lipid concentrations of 0.1 %, 0.3 %, 0.5 % 218 and 0.7 % (w/w) were obtained. 219

220

Purified oil containing lecithin and PGPR at the same concentrations were prepared by mixing the required amount of either lecithin or PGPR with purified oil (up to 100 g) in a 221 222 glass beaker by stirring for 24 h on a magnetic stirrer at 600 rpm and room temperature.

223

2.7. Dynamic interfacial tension 224

225	The interfacial tension at the water/oil interface was measured as a function of time
226	with a Drop Shape Tensiometer (PAT-1, Sinterface, Berlin, Germany) for surfactant
227	concentrations of 0 %, 0.001 % and 0.005 % (w/w) in the oil. The highest concentration was
228	limited to 0.005 % (w/w) due to the deep green color of the spinach lipid extract which
229	interfered with the measurement principle (reliance on translucency of non-drop forming
230	fluid). The (lightly green colored) oil phase was added to a cubic glass cuvette and a drop of
231	water, with a cross sectional projection area of 30 mm ² , was suspended into the oil sample
232	from the tip of a straight capillary of 2 mm outer diameter. The drop was formed in less than
233	one second and its shape was monitored for 900 s by a video camera coupled to a computer.
234	The measurement temperature was 20 °C. The values reported in the results section represent
235	an average of three independent measurements.
236	
237	2.8. Particle size distribution of icing sugar
238	The icing sugar used in this study was pre-dried at 60 °C for 24 h under a pressure
239	of 800 mbar using a vacuum oven (Gallenkamp, Fistreem International, Loughborough, UK).
240	The particle size of the icing sugar was analyzed using laser diffraction equipment (Beckman
241	Coulter LS13320, Meritics, Wycombe, UK), fitted with a dry powder module (Beckman
242	Tornado Dry Powder System, Meritics, UK). The distribution was tri-modal and therefore
243	separated into three populations, using the equipment's software. The size boundaries with

244 the respective volume based fraction of the total distribution, as well as the characteristic

245 particle sizes are reported in Table 1.

246 **Table 1**

Characteristic size distribution values for the three particle populations of the icing sugar
sample used in the sugar/oil suspension systems. The percentage volume differential shows
the total amount (in percent) of particles in the particular group of size particle. Reported are

250	the volume based diameter	r d _{4.3} describing the common	mean diameter over the volume

251 distribution for a monodispersed sample and the volume based characteristic particle sizes for

Size boundary	$0.38 - 1.83 \ \mu m$	$1.83 - 76.43 \ \mu m$	76.43 – 194.20 μm
Volume (%)	6.43 ± 0.22	80.47 ± 0.06	13.10 ± 0.30
d _{4,3} (μm)	0.97 ± 0.01	26.05 ± 0.16	107.33 ± 3.12
d _{10,3} (μm)	0.53 ± 0.01	5.59 ± 0.07	81.70 ± 0.40
d50,3 (µm)	0.91 ± 0.01	21.83 ± 0.25	104.43 ± 2.87
d _{90,3} (µm)	1.55 ± 0.01	54.20 ± 0.18	137.07 ± 5.34

252	which 10 %, 50 % and 90 % of the particles were smaller than the size boundary.
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254 2.9. Density of icing sugar

The density of the icing sugar needed to be known to adjust the phase volume of the 255 suspensions. It was determined at room temperature using the volume displacement method 256 257 based on sunflower oil with the density of 0.92 ± 0.02 g/cm³, previously determined with a density meter (Anton Paar, Germany), as follows. An equal weight of sugar and oil were 258 mixed together using an impeller stirrer (1000 rpm, 60 min) until well dispersed. Based on 259 260 the weight of a known volume of the dispersion the density of the icing sugar was computed as 1.55 ± 0.04 g/cm³. This was comparable with a published value of 1.58 g/cm³ (Arnold et 261 al., 2013). 262

263

264 2.10. Preparation of sugar/oil suspension

The effect of the lipid extracts as a rheology modifier in comparison to the commercial reference surfactants was tested on sugar/oil suspensions with sugar volume fractions of 0.28, 0.33 and 0.37. The suspensions were prepared by dispersing the appropriate

268	amount of sugar into pre-prepared oil phase, containing surfactant at the desired
269	concentration, with an impeller stirrer (IKA Werke, Staufen, D) operated at 1000 rpm for 60
270	min. To prevent sedimentation of the sugar, the suspensions were then continuously mixed at
271	gentle mixing condition for 24 h using an end-over-end mixer (Reax 2, Heidolph,
272	Schwabach, D) until rheological measurement was performed.
273	The selection of the sugar volume fractions and the design of the suspension
274	preparation protocol was based on published literature (Arnold et al., 2013) that also guided
275	the selection of the rheology protocol applied here (see section 2.11). These authors
276	formulated their sugar in soybean oil suspension at the sugar mass fraction of 0.45, which
277	equates to the sugar volume fraction of 0.33 in our system. Here, 0.4 (0.28) and 0.5 (0.37) as
278	a slightly lower and higher mass (volume) fraction of sugar respectively was included in the
279	experimental design. Therefore, in terms of fat content, the suspensions assessed in this study
280	ranged from 50 to 60 $\%$ (w/w). This is higher than in commercial chocolate formulations, 29
281	to 40 % (w/w) as aforenoted, rendering the system less viscous. With a D_{90} of 137 $\mu m,$ see
282	Table 1, the sugar particles were significantly larger than the D_{90} of around $30 - 40 \ \mu m$ of
283	commercial formulations (Afoakwa, Paterson & Fowler, 2008) and, together with the larger
284	fat content, the lower energy input provided by the overhead mixing set-up compared to
285	industrial chocolate manufacture sufficed to ensure breaking up of sugar aggregates and
286	homogeneous coating of the sugar particles. It is also worth noting that here, in difference to
287	commercial processing, all of the surfactant was present at the beginning of the mixing
288	process.
289	

290 2.11. Suspension rheology

The rheological properties of the sugar/oil suspensions were evaluated by acquiring
shear viscosity curves on a rotational shear rheometer (MCR 301, Anton Paar, Graz, A) fitted

with a concentric cylinder geometry (bob diameter of 27 mm, cup diameter of 29 mm, bob 293 length of 40 mm; CC27, Anton Paar, Graz, A). Published protocol (Arnold et al., 2013) was 294 followed and slightly modified by starting the measurement with a pre-shear at 10 s⁻¹ for 50 s 295 to improve the reproducibility of the data. Real measurement started by increasing shear rate 296 from 0.01 s⁻¹ to 1000 s⁻¹ in a logarithmic ramp within 990 s. After stopping the shear for 120 297 s, the shear rate was decreased from 1000 s⁻¹ to 0.01 s⁻¹ (logarithmic ramp, 990 s). Fifty-one 298 data points were taken on each logarithmic ramp with the measurement time logarithmically 299 decreasing from 100 s at 0.01 s⁻¹ to 0.5 s at 1000 s⁻¹, and then increasing again to 100 s at 300 0.01 s⁻¹ for the decreasing shear rate ramp. The measurement temperature was 22 °C as in the 301 published method (Arnold et al., 2013) and results are presented as relative viscosity (the 302 ratio of the measured viscosity to the viscosity of the continuous phase). The addition of any 303 304 of the surfactants did not affect the apparent viscosity of the sunflower oil and it remained 305 Newtonian. The average apparent viscosity of the oil phases used in this study was $0.060 \pm$ 0.002 Pa.s. Referring to the viscosity curves obtained, the apparent viscosity and yield stress 306 are reported as the apparent viscosity at 40 s⁻¹ and the shear stress at 5 s⁻¹ of the increasing 307 shear ramp, respectively. 308

309

310 2.12. Statistical analysis

Spinach lipid extraction was carried out in duplicate (two different batches) and each batch was utilized to prepare one set of oil-based suspension phases (SPLIP and CH.SPLIP) at the required concentration. Lecithin and PGPR based oil phases were also prepared independently in duplicate at the required concentrations. Each suspensions prepared from each oil phase was then analyzed in duplicate. A third batch was prepared if unreliable data were obtained. All data are presented as mean values \pm standard deviations of n = 4. Mean comparison was carried out using one-way ANOVA. Significant differences between

samples were analysed using Tukey HSD (Honestly Significant Different) multiple
comparisons test at 95 % confidence level. The software used was IBM SPSS Statistics 22.

320

321 **3. Results and discussion**

322 3.1. Yield of lipid extracts

The yield of lipid obtained from the leaf (SPLIP) and chloroplast (CH.SPLIP) was 323 14.9 (\pm 4.5) g/100 g dried spinach leaf and 24.0 (\pm 4.6) g/100 g dried chloroplast, 324 respectively. The higher yield from the chloroplast was expected as the lipids in green plant 325 326 leaf tissue are mostly concentrated in the chloroplast (Nishimura, Graham, & Akazawa, 1976). The yield from the leaf was comparable to values reported by Fricker, Duben, Heintze, 327 Panlas, and Zohm (1975) and Yunoki et al. (2009). However, a result reported by Menke 328 (1938) was about 10 % higher than the data reported in this study. As the amount of isolated 329 330 chloroplasts obtained was about 1 g (dry weight) per 100 g of fresh spinach leaves, 100 g 331 fresh spinach leaves would yield 0.24 (\pm 0.05) g lipids from the isolated chloroplasts. On the other hand, directly extracted lipid obtained from the whole fresh leaves, thereby omitting the 332 chloroplast isolation step, was 0.89 (\pm 0.27) g per 100 g of fresh spinach leaves rendering the 333 334 direct use of leaf commercially more interesting.

335

336 3.2. Lipid classes

The lipid classes in the two spinach extracts were initially identified by separation using the method of 1D TLC, see Fig. 1 for the chromatogram. Lipids detected for both extracts were sterol ester (SE), triacylglycerols (TAG), free fatty acids (FFA), free sterol (FS), diacylglycerols (DAG), monoacylglycerols (MAG) and polar lipids (PL). The polar lipid spot remained at the origin of the plate showing that it was strongly absorbed to the stationary phase. Non-polar lipids eluted and appeared at the end of the chromatogram. Polar

- 343 lipids were reported to be in abundance in spinach (Dörmann, 2013), explaining their more
- intense spots compared to the spots of the other lipid classes.

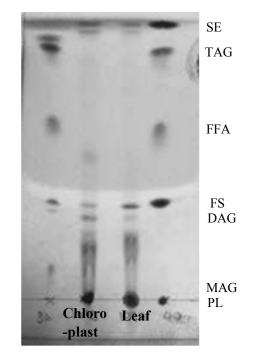
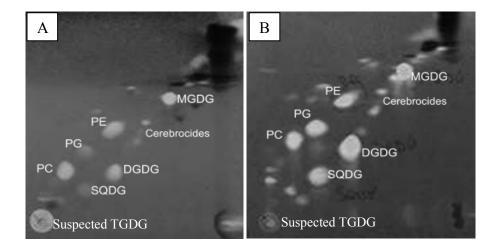


Fig. 1. Separation of lipid from spinach leaf and spinach chloroplast. Abbreviation denote:
SE = sterol ester, TAG = triacylglycerols, FFA = free fatty acids, FS = free sterol, DAG =
diacylglycerols, MAG = monoacylglycerols, PL = polar lipids.

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Due to the complexity of the polar lipid fractions, these were further separated by 2D TLC, see Fig. 2. Both lipid extracts contained similar classes of polar lipid but the intensity of the spots was higher for the chloroplast lipids. The polar lipids included the two major galactosyl diacylglycerides (MGDG and DGDG) and sulfolipid (SQDG). The spot near the origin was suspected to be TGDG but no standard was available to confirm. The major phospholipids in spinach were also spotted, such as PC and PG.



356

Fig. 2. Polar lipids separated on 2D TLC plate. (A): from spinach leaf; (B) from spinach
chloroplast. Abbreviation denote: MGDG = monogalactosyl diacylglycerol, DGDG =
digalactosyl diacylglycerol, SQDG = sulfoquinovosyl diacylglycerol, TGDG = trigalactosyl
diacylglycerol, PC = phosphatidyl choline, PE = phosphatidyl ethanolamine, PG =
phosphatidylglycerol.

The concentration of each polar lipid class was determined by GC and the results 363 are shown in Table 2. The chloroplast-rich fraction was highly concentrated in glycolipids 364 with its amount double compared to that of phospholipids, while the lipid extracted directly 365 from the leaf tissue possessed an equal amount of phospholipids and glycolipids. The results 366 also confirmed the abundance of MGDG and DGDG in the spinach leaf and chloroplast. The 367 ratio of phospholipids to glycolipids was comparable to that reported by Dörmann and 368 Benning (2002), where approximately 70 % glycolipids content was detected. The 369 phospholipids ratio was slightly higher in leaf than in the chloroplast and this was similar to 370 371 the results reported by Wintermans (1960). Besides, not taking TGDG into account, the results obtained for spinach leaf lipid in this study was also comparable to those reported by 372 Yunoki et al. (2009). 373

Table 2 374

375 Polar lipids compositions of spinach leaf and chloroplasts (mg/ g lipids)

	Total	'otal Total		Individu	Ratio			
	phospho- lipids (PhL)	glycolipids (GL)	PhL:GL	MGDG (M)	DGDG (D)	TGDG (T)	SQDG (S)	M:D:T:S
Chloroplast	181.8	418.9	30:70	202.4	124.2	53.2	39.1	48:30:13:9
Leaf	201.6	240.7	46:54	113.7	79.6	24.8	22.6	47:33:10:9

377 3.3. Fatty acids composition

The fatty acids composition of the polar lipids from spinach chloroplast (CH) and 378 leaf (L) are tabulated in Table 3. Generally, the polar lipids were highly concentrated in the 379 two trienoic acids: hexadecatrienoic and α -linolenic acid. The amount of α -linolenic acid was 380 381 particularly high, accounting for 71 % and 58 % of the total lipids in chloroplast and leaf, respectively. MGDG and DGDG were made up of more than 75 % α- linolenic acid, similar 382 to what has previously been reported (Gounaris, Mannock, et al., 1983; Melo, Tavares, 383 384 Morais, Barroso, & Pais, 1995). The high content of polyunsaturated fatty acids in chloroplast lipid is very important as to maintain their biological function at low temperatures 385 386 (Andersson & Dörmann, 2009). The amount of hexadecatrienoic acid in MGDG was higher 387 than in other polar lipids, comparable to what has previously been reported for solanaceous leaf (Whitaker, 1986). The presence of hexadecatrienoic (16:3) classifies spinach as a 16:3 388 389 plant, as this fatty acid is only present in certain plants (Andersson & Dörmann, 2009). 390 SQDG had an equal amount of 16:0 and 18:3 fatty acids as previously reported (Siebertz, 391 Heinz, Linscheid, Joyard, & Douce, 1979).

- **392 Table 3**
- 393 Fatty acid composition of polar lipids from spinach leaf and chloroplasts (% total lipids)

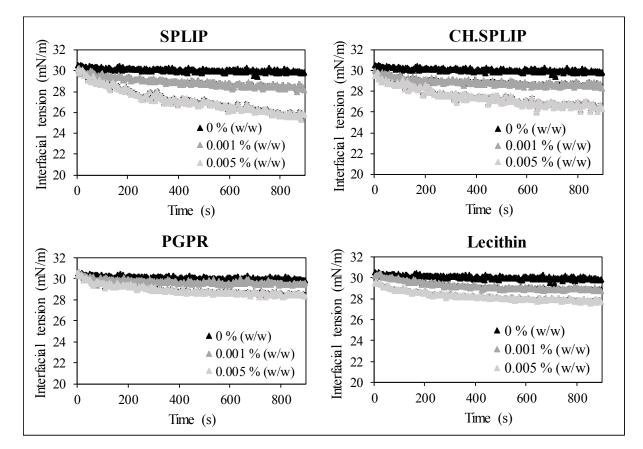
	Total	Polar	MGE) G	DGD	G	TGD	G	SQD	G
Fatty acids	Lipid	s								
	СН	L	СН	L	СН	L	СН	L	СН	L
14:0 (myristic)	0.1	0.1	-	0.1	0.1	0.2	4.2	2.0	0.5	0.7
15:0 (pentadecylic)	-	0.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.4

16:0 (palmitic)	6.8	12.5	0.7	0.6	4.3	5.8	24.1	15.0	41.6	45.6
16:1 (palmitoleic)	3.8	3.0	0.3	0.1	1.1	0.2	25.2	8.3	3.4	0.6
16:2 (polyenoic)	0.1	0.1	-	0.1	0.2	0.2	6.7	2.0	0.7	0.7
17:0 (margaric)	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	-	-	-	-
16:3 (n-3)	11.1	0.8	18.6	20.6	3.3	3.3	-	-	0.6	1.0
(hexadecatrienoic)										
18:0 (stearic)	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.8	1.1	13.9	16.3	2.5	2.3
18:1 (n-9) (elaidic)	1.0	2.7	-	0.1	0.4	0.9	2.9	4.4	2.9	0.6
18:1 (n-7) (vaccenic)	0.7	1.0	0.4	0.4	1.6	1.4	-	-	0.5	0.6
18:2 (n-6) (linoleic)	4.6	11.3	0.9	0.9	1.1	2.0	3.3	2.1	5.3	3.2
18:3 (n-3) (α-	70.7	58.2	78.7	76.3	86.1	83.2	-	3.1	40.3	42.4
linolenic)										
20:0 (arachidic)	0.1	0.4	-	0.1	0.2	0.2	4.4	21.3	0.5	0.5
20:1 (gondoic)	0.1	0.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20:3 (n-3) (mead)	0.2	0.1	-	0.1	0.3	0.4	-	-	-	-
22:0 (behenic)	0.1	0.4	-	0.1	0.2	0.2	4.3	20.9	0.5	0.5
22:1 (erucic)	-	-	-	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
24:0 (lignoceric)	0.2	0.9	-	0.2	0.3	0.8	11.1	4.6	0.6	1.1

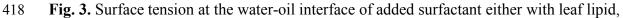
395 3.4. Interfacial tension at oil/water interface

396 The surface activity of the lipid extracts was assessed by measuring interfacial tension at the oil/water interface at 20 °C and the results are reported in Fig. 3 alongside 397 reference data for 0 % added surfactant in the oil phase. As expected, the reference data 398 showed no time dependency, while the interfacial tension at the surfactant-laden interfaces 399 decreased initially followed by asymptotically approaching a constant value at times longer 400 401 than 600 s after generation of the interface. The only exception is the interfacial pair of 0.005 % SPLIP in oil/water for which equilibrium was approached later, around 900 s after 402 generation of the interface. Attainment of equilibrium was taken as a change of less than 1 403 mN/m in interfacial tension over at least 100 s measurement time. As expected, the data 404 405 tended to lower values at higher surfactant concentration. Equilibrium interfacial tension values are reported in Table 4; the value for the pure oil/water interface was calculated by 406 averaging the data of the full 900 s of measurement and the other data were obtained by 407 averaging the value at 900 s for three replicate measurements. The interfacial tension at the 408 409 pure oil/water interface was 30.1 ± 0.2 mN/m and comparable to previously reported values

410 (Gaonkar & Borwankar, 1991; Gülseren & Corredig, 2012). This value was statistically 411 significantly lower in the presence of 0.005 % (w/w) of either spinach lipid (p < 0.05). No 412 further significant differences were observed as the concentration of surfactant was kept very 413 low to allow sufficient optical contrast between the water droplet and the deep green oil 414 phase containing spinach lipid. Nonetheless, the interfacial tension data gave evidence for the 415 surface activity of the spinach lipid extracts and thus one would expect these to be 416 functionally active as rheology modifiers in sugar/oil suspensions.



417



419 chloroplast lipid, lecithin or PGPR. Data plotted as means ± 1 for standard deviation for n=3.

420

421 **Table 4**

422 Interfacial tension at the oil/water interface (20°C) in presence of spinach lipid extract from

- 423 leaf or chloroplast, PGPR or lecithin (mean value recorded at 900 s). Different subscript
- 424 letters indicate statistically significant difference in the data (p < 0.05).

Oil sample	Interfacial tension
	$(\mathbf{mN}.\mathbf{m}^{-1})$
Control	30.0 ± 0.1^{a}
SPLIP 0.001 %	28.4 ± 0.4^{abc}
SPLIP 0.005 %	$25.8 \pm 1.0^{\circ}$
CH.SPLIP 0.001 %	28.6 ± 0.9^{abc}
CH.SPLIP 0.005 %	26.6 ± 1.2^{bc}
PGPR 0.001 %	29.5 ± 1.5^{ab}
PGPR 0.005 %	28.7 ± 1.1^{abc}
LEC 0.001 %	28.9 ± 1.1^{ab}
LEC 0.00 5%	27.8 ± 1.5^{abc}

426 3.5. The effect of spinach lipids, PGPR and lecithin on the viscosity profile of sugar/oil427 suspensions

The rheology modifying properties of the two natural spinach lipid extracts were 428 429 evaluated by comparing the shear rheological behavior of sugar/oil suspensions to those 430 prepared with PGPR and lecithin. The results are reported on the basis of the viscosity profiles as well as the IOC chocolate rheology parameters recommended for use in industry 431 432 (International Office of Cocoa, 2000), and then discussed by suggesting a mechanistic model for the rheology modifying properties of the spinach lipids. The apparent viscosity data 433 acquired by analyzing the sugar/oil suspensions with a sugar volume fraction of 0.28, 0.33 or 434 435 0.37 are presented in Fig. 4 - 6 as relative viscosity. At different sugar volume fraction, the surfactant systems were applied between 0 - 0.7 % (w/w). Data are shown as a function of 436 shear stress to evaluate whether the natural lipid extracts would assume the functionality of 437 438 PGPR in oil-based suspensions, applied to modify rheology at low shear region.

As a first observation, irrespective of surfactant system and concentration, the sugar/oil suspensions showed a shear thinning behavior and a transition to a Newtonian plateau at high shear stress. Referring to the increasing shear ramp data, and in accordance with literature (Taylor, Van Damme, Johns, Routh, & Wilson, 2009), the minimum stress required for the onset of flow is termed critical stress in the following discussion – to

distinguish from the yield stress definition as put forward by the IOC. However, the 444 increasing shear ramp data of a number of samples revealed initial elastic behavior prior to 445 transitioning to liquid-like behavior signified by the onset of the smooth sharply decreasing 446 apparent viscosity data trace. Where solid-like flow regions were observed, they are 447 highlighted in Fig. 4(B), 5(B) and 6(B). The final stress value of this region, corresponding to 448 the first stress value signifying liquid-like flow behavior, was taken as the critical stress. 449 450 Otherwise, the first stress value recorded was taken as the critical stress. However, some initial data was clearly influenced by the fact that a pre-shear was applied (10 s⁻¹ for 50 s), as 451 452 the data recorded at the initial shear stress values were lower than the data at higher shear. In this instance, the first data point showing a decrease in apparent viscosity after this pre-shear 453 affected area was taken as the critical stress value, such as for the highest volume fraction 454 suspension containing 0.7 % (w/w) PGPR (Fig. 6). 455

At a sugar volume fraction of 0.28, the critical stress values ranged from 0.04 to 0.1 456 Pa at 0.1 % addition, in the order of lecithin (0.04 Pa), SPLIP (0.04 Pa), CH.SPLIP (0.05 Pa) 457 and PGPR (0.1 Pa). The data were comparable to each other at concentration more than 0.3 458 %, except that lecithin had an increased critical stress value, approaching 0.1 Pa. There was 459 also an increasing trend of apparent viscosity when the lecithin concentration was increased 460 from 0.1 % to 0.7 %. At a surfactant addition of 0.5 % and 0.7 %, PGPR imparted a 461 significant reduction in the critical stress and apparent viscosity, with values close to 0.05 Pa 462 in the shear thinning region and approaching a Newtonian plateau. The value recorded for 463 SPLIP and CH.SPLIP remained below 0.1 Pa while the value recorded for lecithin continued 464 to increase passing 0.1 Pa. 465



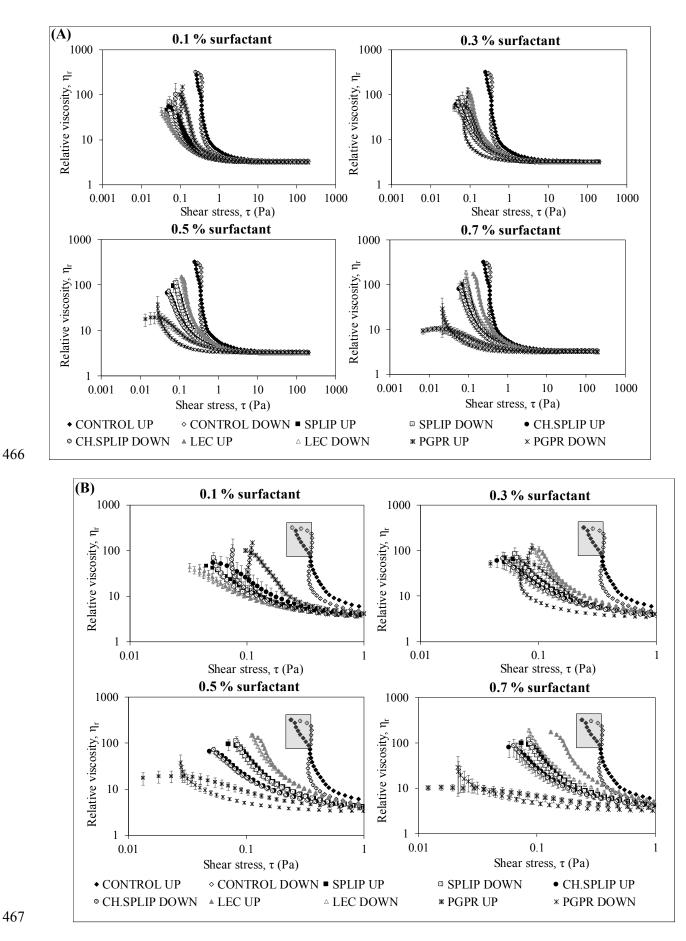
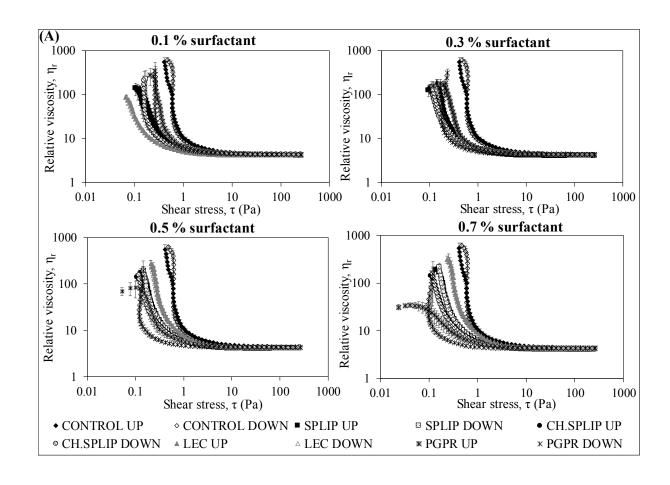
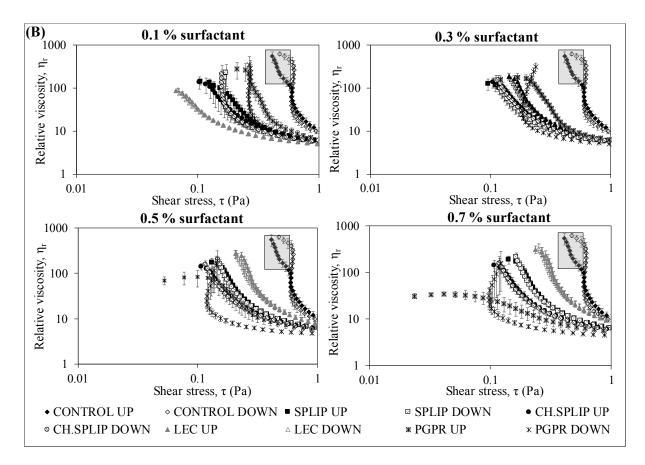


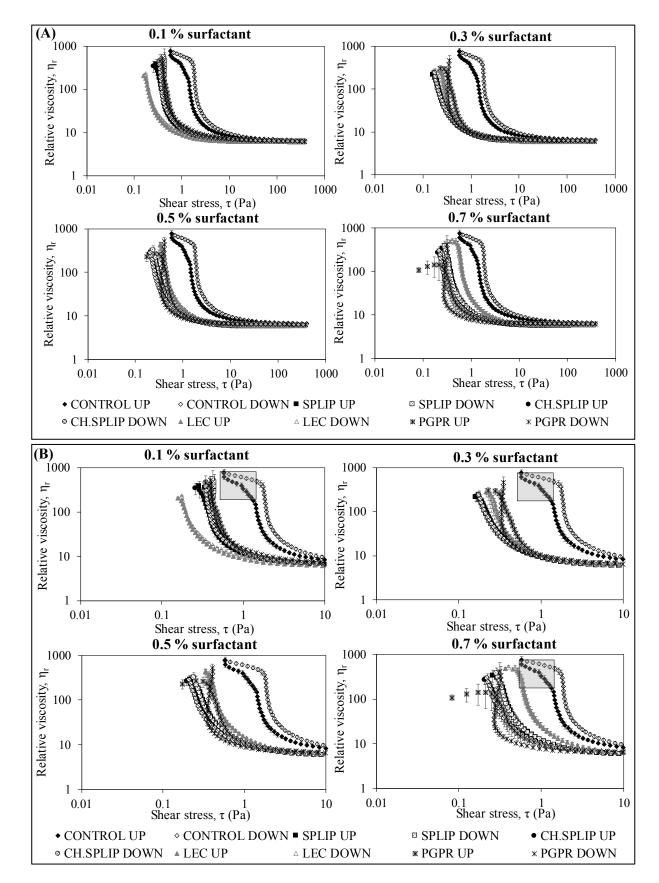
Fig. 4. (A) Relative viscosity curves of sugar/oil suspensions at sugar volume fraction of 0.28 as affected by the concentration of surfactant (mean \pm 1.0, n=4). (B) Low shear region data to aid yield stress discussion. Data acquired during shear rate increase and decrease respectively are labeled "UP" and "DOWN". The greyed highlighted areas signify the transition from solid-like to liquid-like behavior.





475

Fig. 5. (A) Relative viscosity curves of sugar/oil suspensions at sugar volume fraction of 0.33 as affected by the concentration of surfactant (mean \pm 1.0, n=4). (B) Low shear region data to aid yield stress discussion. Data acquired during shear rate increase and decrease respectively are labeled "UP" and "DOWN". The greyed highlighted areas signify the transition from solid-like to liquid-like behavior.



482

Fig. 6. (A) Relative viscosity curves of sugar/oil suspensions at sugar volume fraction of 0.37 as affected by the concentration of surfactant (mean \pm 1.0, n=4). (B) Low shear region data to

aid yield stress discussion. Data acquired during shear rate increase and decrease respectively
are labeled "UP" and "DOWN". The greyed highlighted areas signify the transition from
solid-like to liquid-like behavior.

488

Comparing the data traces acquired upon increasing shear ("UP") versus decreasing 489 shear ("DOWN"), it is evident that the control suspension and the suspensions containing 490 491 more than 0.1 % of PGPR were thixotropic. The decreasing shear ramp data at low shear stress (0.05 Pa - 0.5 Pa) was below the values of the increasing shear ramp. The other 492 493 surfactant containing systems were not thixotropic. At even lower shear stresses (0.01 - 1 Pa, depending on the sugar volume fraction), there was a point where the stress value of the 494 decreasing ramp remained constant, while the apparent viscosity value increased. By that 495 point, the sugar particles would strongly interact reducing the ability of the suspension to 496 flow, thus increasing its apparent viscosity. 497

In samples with a sugar volume fraction of 0.33, the critical stress value of the 498 suspensions had increased. At a surfactant addition of 0.1 %, the critical stress was between 499 0.07 Pa and 0.25 Pa, starting with lecithin as the lowest followed by the spinach lipids and 500 PGPR. As the case of 0.28 sugar volume fraction, lecithin also showed the lowest critical 501 stress value while PGPR showed the highest. At a surfactant addition of 0.3 %, similar trends 502 were seen with the critical stress value being around 0.10 - 0.20 Pa. At a surfactant addition 503 504 of 0.5 % and 0.7 %, the critical stress shown by PGPR was reduced to about 0.13 Pa and 0.05 Pa, respectively, with the apparent viscosity data in the shear thinning region approaching a 505 plateau. The values for the SPLIP and CH.SPLIP systems remained constant at about 0.11 to 506 507 0.14 Pa for both of these higher concentrations.

508 Similar observations were seen for the suspensions with the highest sugar volume 509 fraction (0.37). Lecithin showed the lowest critical stress value (around 0.2 Pa) at 0.1 % 510 addition while the other surfactants imparted a critical stress of around 0.30 - 0.35 Pa. At 0.3 % addition, all suspensions containing surfactant appeared to have a similar value of critical 511 stress, which was around 0.18 - 0.20 Pa. At the two higher surfactant concentrations (0.5 % 512 and 0.7 %), the critical stress of the suspension containing lecithin increased to 0.34 Pa and 513 0.52 Pa, respectively. As was mentioned before, the initial data for PGPR at 0.5 % and 0.7 %514 had been influenced by the pre-shear sequence (10 s⁻¹ for 50 s) during which a higher shear 515 than recorded as the first data point (0.01 s^{-1}) was applied. As a result, the first data point at 516 0.01 s⁻¹ showed a lower apparent viscosity value than the subsequent data acquired at higher 517 518 shear. Therefore, the critical stress value for PGPR was taken where the data started to decrease in apparent viscosity after that pre-shear affected area. This was at 0.30 Pa and 0.21 519 Pa for 0.5 % and 0.7 % addition, respectively. Systems containing SPLIP and CH.SPLIP 520 maintained a critical stress value of 0.20 - 0.25 Pa at the two higher concentrations of 521 surfactant. 522

Generally, all surfactants significantly affected the viscosity profile of the sugar/oil 523 suspensions, with lecithin showing the highest reduction in apparent viscosity at the lowest 524 concentration applied (0.1 %). The other surfactants only showed a comparable effect with 525 lecithin at 0.3 %. Increasing concentration to more than 0.3 % showed no further effect for 526 spinach lipids but it was different for lecithin and PGPR. In the case of lecithin, the critical 527 stress of the suspensions increased while in the case of PGPR, it was significantly lower at 528 529 addition of 0.5 % and 0.7 %. To compare the effect of the type and concentration of surfactant at different sugar volume fractions in terms of significant difference in the mean 530 value of apparent viscosity and yield stress of suspensions, an evaluation following the 531 532 recommendation by the International Office of Cocoa (IOC) (2000) was carried out. 533

534 3.6. IOC parameters

As recommended by the IOC (2000), the apparent viscosity at shear rate 40 s⁻¹ (η 40) and the yield stress (τ) at shear rate 5 s⁻¹ were extracted from the shear rheological data. The results are shown in Fig. 7. It can be seen that the addition of any surfactant into the sugar/oil systems caused a significant reduction (p < 0.05) in the apparent viscosity and the yield stress of the suspensions irrespective of the sugar volume fraction.

PGPR had the weakest apparent viscosity-reducing effect of all surfactants included in this study, at all concentrations and for all three sugar phase volumes. The same behavior in comparison to lecithin has previously been reported (Rector, 2000; Schantz & Rohm, 2005). In terms of apparent viscosity reduction, the two spinach lipid extracts performed in a similar way to lecithin, or slightly better. There were no statistically significant differences (p > 0.05) between the η_{40} values of the two spinach lipid extracts at the same surfactant concentration and sugar phase volume.

547 The poor performance of PGPR as apparent viscosity reducing agent was not surprising, as PGPR is applied to chocolate to affect yield stress. However, the results in 548 terms of yield stress reduction did not necessarily suggest that PGPR outperformed the other 549 550 surfactant systems as may have been expected. In fact, the only statistically significant 551 differences (p < 0.05) in yield stress between the systems containing surfactant at the same added concentration was lecithin lowering the yield stress further than PGPR at 0.1 % for all 552 three sugar phase volumes. Comparing the performance of surfactant at the lowest sugar 553 volume fraction in terms of yield stress, CH.SPLIP lowered the yield stress further than 554 lecithin and PGPR at addition of 0.3 % and lecithin was not as effective as the other three 555 surfactant systems at 0.5 % as well as 0.7 %. PGPR was more effective than SPLIP and 556 lecithin at 0.7 % for all sugar volume fractions. At higher sugar volume fraction (0.33 and 557 0.37), CH.SPLIP performed comparably with PGPR in terms of yield stress at concentrations 558 of 0.3 % and above, while the effectiveness in lowering the apparent viscosity was more than 559

lecithin at 0.5 % and 0.7 %. Lecithin showed a reverse effect at high concentration, 560 increasing the yield stress and apparent viscosity value, as described before by Schantz and 561 562 Rohm (2005) and Beckett (2008). The reason for PGPR not standing out as much as expected, at least in comparison to lecithin, may be due to the relatively low particle phase 563 volume included in this study, compared to real chocolate. As aforementioned, chocolate is 564 formulated at particle phase volumes of up to 0.75. The lower values were selected here to 565 566 circumvent difficulties in reproducible preparation of the suspensions and occurrence of 567 measurement artifacts in the rheometer, in particular slip, may have compromised the value 568 of the data in view to reformulating chocolate.

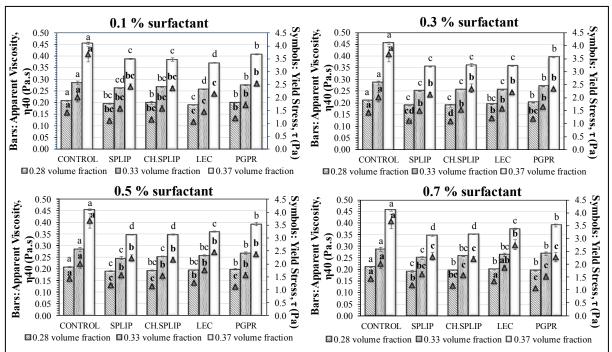


Fig. 7. Effect of spinach leaf lipid and chloroplast lipid in comparison to lecithin and PGPR on the viscosity (40 s⁻¹) and yield stress (5 s⁻¹) of sugar/oil suspensions. Letters indicate statistically significant difference (p < 0.05) between samples of same volume fraction. Bold letters refer to yield stress.

575 3.7. Behavior of surfactants at the interface of sugar and oil

The behavior of lecithin at the interface of sugar and oil medium phase in modifying 576 the flow properties of oil based suspensions was described as a head-tail emulsifier (Beckett, 577 2008; Middendorf, Juadjur, Bindrich, & Mischnick, 2015). PGPR on the other hand was 578 reported to not follow the principle of a head-tail emulsifier like lecithin (Ziegler, Garbolino, 579 & Coupland, 2003). In the study by Middendorf et al. (2015), PGPR was seen to interact with 580 CB immobilized on the surface of sucrose forming pillow-like deposits between the 581 582 individual sucrose particles, thereby separating these by stearic hindrance. The interaction of the immobilized CB and PGPR caused a space (depletion area) which needed to be filled by 583 584 the CB from the bulk, thus enhancing the amount of immobilized fat instead of reducing (Middendorf et al., 2015). As a result, PGPR does not affect apparent viscosity significantly. 585 The chemical structure of lecithin and PGPR are shown in Fig. 8. 586

Spinach lipids are a complex mixture of MGDG, DGDG, SQDG, PG and some PC 587 as the polar lipids (Mazliak, 1977). Due to the different molecular structure among these 588 lipids, it is difficult to understand the behavior of spinach lipids at the interface of sugar and 589 590 oil. MGDG has one galactose in its structure where it appears to have smaller head group than DGDG which has two molecules of galactose (Fig. 8). With the bulk lipophilic tails, 591 MGDG molecules aggregate in the form of inverted rod like structure; not forming bilavers 592 but adopting the hexagonal-II (HII) phase with the polar head group facing toward the center 593 594 of the rod in water (Dörmann, 2013). On the other hand, DGDG with the larger size of polar 595 head group adopts a cylindrical shape which in turn forms bilayers in pure water (Dörmann, 596 2013). SODG and PG also adopt a cylindrical shape and form bilayers when dispersed in pure water (Kobayashi, 2016). 597

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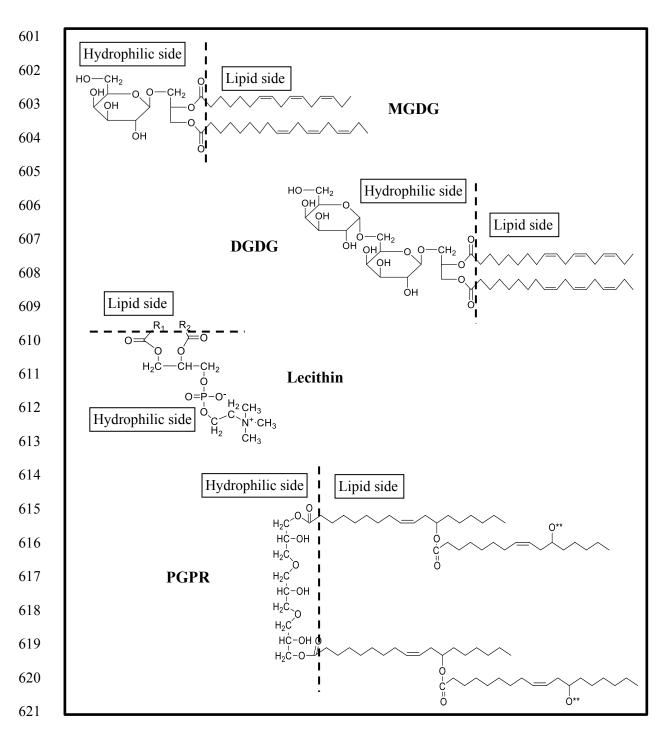


Fig. 8. Chemical structure of MGDG, DGDG, lecithin and PGPR. R₁ and R₂ are the fatty
acids residues. The ** on the PGPR structure denotes polyricinoleic acid chains.

The anionic SQDG and PG have been demonstrated to play an important role in maintaining the bilayer structure of neutral lipids in studies where screening out these lipids have resulted in the fusion of the single-shell vesicles and remaining lipids formed larger

aggregates (Gounaris, Sen, Brain, Quinn, & Williams, 1983). The non-bilayer phase of 628 MGDG however, is understood to be a thermotropic mesophase where, at relatively low 629 temperatures, MGDG forms a bilayer structure and on heating it can transform into a non-630 bilayer structure in excess water (Quinn, 2012). In this study, the process of extracting 631 spinach lipids involved heating at 80 °C but it is hard to predict the possible behavior of the 632 polar lipids when they are in a mixture, instead of their behavior individually. However, in 633 634 other studies, when lipids were extracted from heated spinach extract MGDG was reported to have increased and the DGDG levels decreased compared to the unheated extract leading to a 635 636 suggestion that further reactions involving DGDG lead to the formation of MGDG (Cho, Lee, Park, & Lee, 2001; Fricker et al., 1975). This non-bilayer structure should be beneficial to 637 give emulsifying effects on the sugar/oil suspension as the polar head of MGDG can adsorb 638 639 to the hydrophilic surface of sugar while the tails are facing the oil. DGDG and some PC in the extract would also be expected to have a behavior like lecithin. Therefore, the apparent 640 viscosity lowering effect by spinach lipids are suggested to be due to the combined action of 641 MGDG, DGDG and PC. The negatively charged lipids of SODG and PG (Fig. 9) are 642 important to avoiding particle aggregation thus helping to maintain the low yield stress of the 643 suspension and not showing the negative effect that lecithin gives when increasing the 644 concentration. 645 646 647 648 649 650 651 652 653

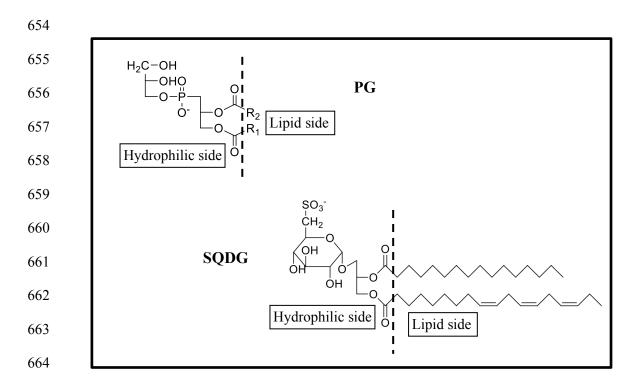


Fig. 9. Chemical structure of PG and SQDG with the negative charge on the hydrophilic side.
R₁ and R₂ denote hydrocarbon chains of fatty acids.

668 **4. Conclusions**

The results presented in this study evidence the promising potential of lipids from 669 spinach leaf and chloroplast for use as a rheology modifier in chocolate. The yield of lipid 670 extracted from leaf was higher compared to chloroplast, albeit with a slightly different lipid 671 672 composition. The glycolipids were the largest lipid group in the chloroplast fraction while the leaf showed an equal amount of phospholipids and glycolipids. Both lipid types were surface 673 674 active at very low concentrations. The rheological study revealed a comparable effect of both 675 spinach lipid types as a rheological modifier of a sugar/oil suspension. Therefore, even 676 though glycolipids were more concentrated in chloroplasts, due to a comparable efficiency in modifying the rheological properties, the higher yield of lipids from leaf mean that it would 677 678 be more beneficial to use the leaf extract so that the chloroplast isolation step can be omitted. The spinach lipids showed a better apparent viscosity reducing effect than lecithin, but at the 679

680	same time showed a comparable effect with PGPR in reducing the yield stress of the
681	suspensions. In conclusion, it appears worthwhile continuing to assess spinach lipid extract as
682	a clean label rheology modifier in chocolate, complementing the present data acquired on a
683	sugar/oil chocolate model.
684	
685	Acknowledgements
686	This work was part of a PhD project with financial supported by The Ministry of Higher
687	Education, Malaysia and the Universiti Malaysia Terengganu. Special thanks are extended to
688	Division of Food, Nutrition and Dietetics staff, University of Nottingham (UK), who assisted
689	with laboratory work and Ruth Price for proof reading the manuscript.
690	
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