Document downloaded from:

http://hdl.handle.net/10251/147624

This paper must be cited as:

Ribes-Llop, S.; Fuentes López, A.; Barat Baviera, JM. (2019). Effect of oregano (Origanum vulgare L. ssp. hirtum) and clove (Eugenia spp.) nanoemulsions on Zygosaccharomyces bailii survival in salad dressings. Food Chemistry.

295:630-636. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.05.173



The final publication is available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.05.173

Copyright Elsevier

Additional Information

1	Effect of oregano (Origanum vulgare L. ssp. hirtum) and clove (Eugenia spp.)
2	nanoemulsions on Zygosaccharomyces bailii survival in salad dressings
3	
4	Susana Ribes, Ana Fuentes*, Jose Manuel Barat
5 6	Departamento Tecnología de Alimentos, Universitat Politècnica de València, Camino de Vera s/n, 46022 Valencia, Spain
7	
8	
9	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	*Corresponding author:
16	Ana Fuentes: Telephone. +34 96 387 90 00; ext. 73664; fax: +34963787369;
17	Susana RIBES: surillop@gmail.com
18	Ana FUENTES*: <u>anfuelo@upvnet.upv.es</u>
19	José Manuel BARAT: jmbarat@tal.upv.es

21 Abstract

This work aimed to evaluate the *in vitro* effect of encapsulated oregano and clove essential oils on oil-in-water nanoemulsions against Zygosaccharomyces bailii. The antifungal efficacy of these nanoemulsions and their sensory acceptance were tested in salad dressings. Both essential oils were effective inhibitors against the target yeast, with minimal inhibitory and fungicidal concentrations of 1.75 mg/mL. In the in vitro assay done with the nanoemulsions, no yeast growth was observed for any tested essential oil concentration. In the salad dressings, all the formulations were able to reduce Z. bailii growth compared to the control, and only those samples with 1.95 mg/g of essential oil were capable of inhibiting yeast development after 4 inoculation days. The sensory acceptance of the dressing containing the nanoemulsions was similar to the control dressing in appearance, consistency and colour terms. These results evidence the antifungal activity of oregano and clove nanoemulsions against Z. bailii.

Keywords: essential oil; oregano; clove; oil-in-water nanoemulsions; sauces

40 **1. Introduction**

As healthier eating trends grow, salads, raw veggies and snacks are preferred by consumers, 41 who usually choose dressings and dips to flavour these food products. Commercial salad 42 dressings are based on a mixture of weak organic acids, salts, sugar, chelators, thickening 43 agents, surfactant and preservatives (Castro, Rojas, Campos, & Gerschenson, 2009). Potassium 44 sorbate and sodium benzoate are employed to prevent salad dressing deterioration, which is 45 usually caused by Lactobacillus, Saccharomyces and Zygosaccharomyces. Of these 46 microorganisms, the most notorious is Zygosaccharomyces bailii given its outstanding degree 47 of preservative resistance (Stratford et al., 2013), and its remarkable tolerance to stressful 48 conditions, such as low pH, low water activity (a_w), presence of acetic and lactic acid and 49 fermentable sugars, which are challenges for manufacturers of acidified food and beverages 50 (Erickson & McKenna, 1999). Nevertheless, quantitative data about economic loss caused by 51 this spoilage yeast are hard to achieve, probably due to the food industry's confidential reasons 52 and the limited availability of incidences and economical costs related to spoilage outbreaks 53 (Vermeulen et al., 2008). 54

55 Essential oils (EOs) are complex mixtures of often hundreds of individual volatile aroma 56 compounds that are derived from plants with antifungal properties (Monu, Techathuvanan, Wallis, Critzer, & Davidson, 2016). The most widely used EOs as natural food preservatives 57 are cinnamon, clove, lemon grass, oregano, thyme, nutmeg and basil (Ribes, Fuentes, Talens, 58 & Barat, 2017c). Using EOs has several drawbacks, such as their poor solubility in water, and 59 their highly volatility and intensive aroma, which can have unpleasant organoleptic properties 60 after being applied to food commodities. Encapsulation of EOs in delivery systems, such as oil-61 in-water (O/W) nanoemulsions, overcomes these problems (Merino et al., 2019). Encapsulation 62 improves the antifungal effectiveness of EOs thanks to increased surface areas that come into 63

contact with microorganisms and diminish their volatility by cushioning unpleasant impacts on
organoleptic food properties (Donsì & Ferrari, 2016; Pavela et al., 2019).

For this reason, this research aimed to evaluate the *in vitro* effect of encapsulated oregano and clove EOs on O/W nanoemulsions against *Zygosaccharomyces bailii*. The antifungal efficacy of these nanoemulsions and their sensory acceptance were tested in salad dressings.

69

70 2 Materials and Methods

71 2.1 Strains, media and reagents

Z. bailii was selected as the target yeast because it has been isolated from spoiled salad
dressing and can grow in products with a pH of 3.6 and water activity of 0.89 (Monu et al.,
2106; Stratford et al., 2013). The *Z. bailii* strain (CECT 12001) was supplied by the Spanish
Type Culture Collection (CECT, Burjassot, Spain).

Yeast peptone dextrose broth (YPDB), nutrient agar, tryptone phosphate water and acetic
acid were supplied by Scharlab (Barcelona, Spain). The oregano EO was obtained from Ernesto
Ventós S.A. (Barcelona, Spain). The clove EO and Tween 80 were acquired from SigmaAldrich (St. Louis, USA). Xanthan gum (XG, SatiaxaneTMCX 911) was purchased from Cargill
(Barcelona, Spain). EOs were used as natural antifungal agents and Tween 80 was incorporated
as a non-ionic surfactant into nanoemulsions. XG was employed as a stabiliser to extend the
stability of nanoemulsions by viscosity modification over time.

- 84 2.2 Oregano and clove EOs
- 85 2.2.1 In vitro antifungal activity of oregano and clove EOs

The in vitro antifungal activity of oregano and clove EOs was tested against Z. bailii based 86 87 on the methodology described by Ribes et al. (2017b), with minor changes. Before being used, the target yeast was grown in YPDB at 25°C for 48 h with continuous orbital agitation at 180 88 rpm. The inoculum was diluted in 10 mL of distilled water containing Tween 80 (0.1% w/v) to 89 a population of 10⁷ Colony Forming Units (CFU)/mL. The minimal inhibitory concentration 90 (MIC) values were obtained by a macrodilution test (CLSI, 2007). Erlenmeyer flasks with 15 91 92 mL of YPDB and 1% (w/v) of Tween 80 (to guarantee that each EO was completely dispersed) were used. The tested concentrations of oregano and clove EOs were 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1.00, 93 1.25, 1.50 and 1.75 mg/mL. The control samples (without EOs) were prepared following the 94 95 same procedure. Each Erlenmeyer flask containing the EO was inoculated with 100 µL of the yeast suspension (10⁷ CFU/mL) and incubated at 25 °C for 48 h with orbital agitation at 180 96 rpm (Ribes et al., 2017b). The results were expressed as log CFU/mL. 97

The MIC was established as the smallest amount of oregano and clove EOs that inhibited visible *Z. bailii* growth after 48 h of incubation at 25 °C. The minimal fungicidal concentration (MFC) was determined by spreading 100 μ L of the visible non-growth suspension onto Petri plates prepared with 15 g of YPDB with nutritive agar (15 g/L, YPDA). The MFC was denoted as the lowest concentration at which no colonies had grown after 48 h of incubation at 25 °C, based on the procedure described by Ribes et al. (2017b). All the tests were run in triplicate.

104

105 2.2.2 Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis of oregano and clove EOs

The compositions of oregano and clove EOs were analysed by GC/MS. The analysis was performed in a 6890/5975 inert GC–MS (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), equipped with a HP-5 fused silica capillary column (30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 μ m). The oven temperature was held at 60 °C for 3 min before being raised to 100 °C at 10 °C/min, to 140 °C at 5 °C/min, and finally to 240 °C at 20 °C/min. Helium gas was used as the carrier gas at a constant flow rate of 1 mL/min. The injector and MS transfer line temperatures were set at 250 °C and 230 °C, respectively. The MS analysis parameters were the EI Ion source, electron energy 70 eV, solvent delay of 3 min and m/z 40–550 amu. The EO components were identified according to their retention index and by matching mass spectra with the standard mass spectra from the NIST MS Search 2.0 library. The relative amounts of the individual components of each EO were expressed as percentages of the peak area of total ion chromatograms.

117

118 2.3 Oregano and clove nanoemulsions

119 2.3.1 Preparation

120 Oregano and clove EOs were encapsulated in O/W nanoemulsions and produced by high-121 pressure homogenisation (HPH) (Ribes, Fuentes, Talens, & Barat, 2018). The EOs, Tween 80 and XG were mixed for 15 min by magnetic stirring, followed by one single pass at 50 MPa in 122 an HPH system (Panda Plus 2000, Gea Niro Soavi S.p.A., Parma, Italy). The O/W 123 nanoemulsions contained 0, 1.75, 1.85, and 1.95 mg/g of either the oregano or clove EO, 10 124 mg/g of Tween 80 and 5 mg/g of XG. Both concentrations were defined after considering 125 126 previous studies (Ribes, Fuentes, Talens, & Barat, 2016; Salvia-Trujillo, Rojas-Graü, Solvia-Fortuny, & Martín-Belloso, 2013). Moreover, the EOs concentrations were established after 127 128 considering the results obtained from the *in vitro* antifungal activity of EOs.

129 2.3.2 Physico-chemical characterisation

A Crison Basic 20+ pH meter (Crison S.A. Barcelona, Spain) was used to measure the pH
of the oregano and clove nanoemulsions. Particle size analysis was carried out in a laser
diffractometer (Mastersizer 2000, Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, UK) according to

Ribes et al. (2016), by using the Mie theory (refractive index of 1.50 and absorption index of 133 134 0.01). The ζ-potential was measured, as described by Ribes et al. (2016), by a Zetasizer nano-Z (Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, UK). The electrophoretic mobility measurements 135 were converted into ζ -potential values by employing the Smoluchowsky mathematical model. 136 137 Each measurement was taken in triplicate. 138 2.3.3 Nanoemulsions stability 139 Five millilitres of the clove and oregano nanoemulsions, which were adjusted to pH 3.3 (by 140 simulating the pH of the salad dressings) and pH 6.5 (which comes closes to the pH value of 141 each nanoemulsion) with acetic acid (10%, v/v), were transferred to a test tube and maintained 142 at 8 °C or 25 °C for 0, 1, 4, 7 and 11 days. During the storage period, the creaming index (%) 143 was calculated by employing Equation 1 (Hong, Kim, & Lee, 2018): 144 Creaming index (%): $[H_S/H_T] \times 100$ (1)145

146 where H_S is the height of a serum layer and H_T is the total sample height.

In order to determine the kinetic stability of these samples, the particle size and the ζ-potential
analyses were carried out as described in Section 2.3.2. The assays were conducted in triplicate.

150 2.3.4 In vitro antifungal activity of the oregano and clove nanoemulsions

The antifungal activity of the oregano and clove nanoemulsions against *Z. bailii* was evaluated following the methodology described in Section 2.2, with some modifications. Each nanoemulsion (0.50 g) was added to the media (14.50 mL of YPDB) inoculated with 100 μ L of the yeast inoculum (10⁷ CFU/mL) and incubated at 25 °C for 48 h with orbital stirring at 180 rpm. The final concentrations of each encapsulated EO in broth were 1.75, 1.85 and 1.95 mg EO/mL. The MIC and MFC were assessed as previously indicated for the antifungal activity of the *in vitro* evaluation of EOs. The results were expressed as log CFU/mL and the test was conducted in triplicate.

159

- 160 2.4 Salad dressings
- 161 *2.4.1 Preparation*

Salad dressings were prepared by mixing (speed 6, 2 min) in a kitchen robot (Thermomix TM 31, Vorwerk & Co., GmbH, Wuppertal, Germany) the following ingredients: deionised water (50 wt. %), sunflower oil (30 wt. %), acetic acid (10 wt. %), egg yolk (3 wt. %), starch (5 wt. %), sugar (1 wt. %), NaCl (0.50 wt. %) and citric acid (0.50 wt. %). The oregano or clove nanoemulsion (0.50 g) was added to the salad dressing (14.50 g) before being homogenised. As mentioned earlier, the final concentrations of each encapsulated EO in the dressing were 1.75, 1.85 and 1.95 mg EO/g. Samples were stored at 8 °C for 1 h before running the analysis.

169

170 2.4.2 Antimicrobial activity of the oregano and clove nanoemulsions against Z. bailii

Fifteen grams of each salad dressing (control and samples containing the nanoemulsions 171 with 1.75, 1.85 and 1.95 mg EO/g) were inoculated with 100 μ L of the yeast inoculum (10⁷) 172 173 CFU/mL). Samples were stored at 8 °C and analysed for 0, 1, 4, 7 and 11 days after their inoculation. Ten grams of samples were placed in sterile plastic bags containing 90 mL of 174 tryptone phosphate water, and were homogenised for 1 min in a Stomacher blender (Masticator 175 IUL, S.A. Instruments, Germany). Serial dilutions were prepared and 0.1 mL of each dilution 176 was spread on the surface of YPDA plates. Finally, they were incubated at 25 °C for 72 h, and 177 yeast cell populations were determined by counting the plates containing between 15 and 150 178

colonies. Counts were expressed as log CFU/g (Pascual & Calderón, 2000). All the assays were
run in triplicate.

181

182 2.4.3 Sensory evaluation

The sensory evaluation of salad dressings was made by a semi-trained panel formed by 30 183 assessors (14 men and 16 women). They were recruited following general guidelines UNE-ISO 184 185 8586:2012. To introduce the panellists to the sensory analysis, and to identify and score the quality attributes that define each sample, different preparatory sessions were carried out. Tests 186 187 were run on a structured 9-point hedonic scale (1: very unpleasant and 9: very pleasant) (UNE-188 ISO 4121:2003) to evaluate the appearance, consistency, colour, flavour, taste, mouth texture and general acceptance attributes. The assessors tested three different samples: i) the control 189 samples (no nanoemulsion included); ii) the samples containing the nanoemulsion prepared 190 191 with the oregano EO (1.95 mg EO/g); iii) the samples composed of the nanoemulsion prepared with the clove EO (1.95 mg EO/g). The amount of EOs was selected according to the results 192 obtained in the previous test. The sensory analysis was carried out 1 h after preparing the salad 193 dressings. During this time, samples were stored at 8 °C in sealed glass jars. Each sample was 194 presented to the panellists in a transparent plastic glass coded with three arbitrary digits. The 195 196 panellists were asked to eat an unsalted cracker and drink water between samples to avoid 197 aftertaste (adapted from Ribes et al., 2017a). Sensory evaluations were made by considering the IFST Guidelines for Ethical and Professional Practices for the Sensory Analysis of Foods 198 199 (Institute of Food Science and Technology, 2015).

200

201 2.5 Statistical analysis

202 The data obtained in the physico-chemical characterisation, the stability of the O/W 203 nanoemulsions and the in vitro antifungal activity of the EOs and O/W nanoemulsions were analysed by a multifactor analysis of variance (multifactor ANOVA) to evaluate the differences 204 205 among EOs concentrations and between EO types. The results of the impact of the O/W nanoemulsions on the salad dressings' sensory characteristics were studied by a one-way 206 ANOVA. The least significance procedure (LSD) was employed to test for any differences 207 208 between averages at the 5% level of significance. The results were statistically processed by the Statgraphics Centurion XVI software. 209

210

211 **3. Results and Discussion**

212 3.1 In vitro antifungal activity and characterisation of the oregano and clove EOs

The antifungal activity of the oregano and clove EOs against Z. bailii during storage at 25 213 °C for 48 h is shown in Figure 1. Yeast counts significantly lowered when increasing 214 concentrations of each EO were used. The treatments with 0.50 mg/mL of the oregano and 215 clove EOs led to an almost 1 log reduction of Z. bailii after the 48-hour incubation at 25 °C. 216 Moreover, the Z. bailii counts lowered by at least 3 log in those samples with up to 1.00 mg/mL 217 of the oregano and clove EOs. Both EOs exhibited effective inhibition against the target yeast 218 219 with the MIC and MFC values of 1.75 mg EOs/mL. Monu et al. (2016) studied the efficacy of 220 different EOs and their compounds against several spoilage yeasts with a modified agar dilution assay. For the clove EO, the results obtained by Monu et al. (2016) showed more marked 221 activity against Z. bailii (MIC of 200 mg/L) than that found in our study. The difference 222 223 between the above-cited authors' findings and our own could be attributed to the assay type used to determine the antimicrobial activity of EOs. 224

225 It is important to highlight that despite the composition of the clove and oregano EOs being 226 quite different, their antifungal activity was similar. The main oregano EO compound was carvacrol (63.3%) (Table 1, Supplementary Figure S1A), while the clove EO was characterised 227 228 by a high eugenol concentration (85.5%) (Table 2, Figure S1B). Other oregano EO components included p-cymene (13.0%), γ -terpinene (5.9%) and caryophyllene (5.7%). These data agree 229 with the results obtained in other studies (; Silva, Duarte-Almeida, Pérez, & Franco, 2010; 230 231 Morshedloo, Salami, Nazeri, Maggi, & Craker, 2018). Morshedloo et al. (2018) observed considerable qualitative and quantitative variability among oregano EOs depending on the 232 harvest year, genetic factors and geographical origin. In line with this, Silva et al. (2010) 233 234 analysed a commercial oregano EO and found that the carvacrol concentration varied from 61.66% to 93.42%, and from 1.88% to 23.85% for thymol. As indicated by Hernández-235 236 González et al. (2017), thymol and carvacrol are responsible for the antimicrobial activity of 237 oregano EO and, hence, variations in EO composition could lead to a different antimicrobial effect. The clove EO contained carvacrol (85.53%), β -carvophyllene (7.4%), eugenol acetate 238 239 (2.7%) and α -humulene (1.5%). These data coincide with the results reported in other studies, which still demonstrated the variability of natural oil (Chaieb et al., 2007; Prashar & Thaker., 240 241 2006). The clove EO, with its main compound eugenol, have been reported as one of the most 242 effective natural antimicrobial agents (Singh, Maurya, de Lampasona & Catalan, et al., 2007; Amiri, Dugas, Pichot, & Bompeix, 2008; Ribes et al., 2016). 243

The mode of action of the main compounds of the oregano and clove EOs is related to their hydrophobicity. Due to this phenomenon, the carvacrol and eugenol partition in the lipids of the cell membrane modify membrane permeability and lead to the leakage of cell contents when they exert their antibacterial action (Burt, 2004).

249 3.2 Oregano and clove nanoemulsions

250 *3.2.1 Physico-chemical characterisation*

The nanoemulsions formulated with the different contents of the oregano and clove EOs 251 were characterised in terms of pH, particle size $(d_{3,2})$ and $d_{4,3}$ and ζ -potential (Table 1). 252 Concentrations were selected according to the data obtained in the *in vitro* antifungal activity 253 254 assays of EOs (Section 3.1) and after considering that higher EO concentrations are needed to achieve the same effectiveness in both the in vitro and in vivo tests (Burt, 2004). The pH 255 256 measurements for the nanoemulsions containing the oregano EO were between 6.78 ± 0.05 and 7.05 ± 0.03 , while the pH values obtained from the nanoemulsions prepared with the clove EO 257 varied between 6.24±0.06 and 6.98±0.08. Thus the higher the EOs contents in nanoemulsions, 258 259 the lower the pH value. Sánchez-González, Vargas, Gonzalez-Martínez, Chiralt and Cháfer (2009) also reported that incorporating higher concentrations of EOs significantly lowered the 260 pH of samples owing to the acid nature and dissociation in the aqueous solution of some of their 261 262 compounds.

Regarding particle size, the EO concentrations had a strong impact on $d_{3,2}$ and $d_{4,3}$. As observed, the mean size values ($d_{3,2}$) significantly (p < 0.05) rose as the amount of EO increased in the nanoemulsion, and this effect was stronger for the oregano EO. The same trend was also noted for the $d_{4,3}$ values. This fact can be explained by an incremented concentration in the disperse phase, which promotes the droplet flocculation ratio and, consequently, lowers the rate in the interfacial stabilising material and the dispersed phase (McClement, 2005).

All the ζ -potential values of the nanoemulsions were lower than -30 mV despite the employed concentration of EOs (Table 1). The ζ -potential values of >30 mV or <-30 mV indicated that the repulsive electrostatic forces among droplets likely contributed to prevent their aggregation (Harwansh et al., 2015). It is worth mentioning that the negative charge of the

- different nanoemulsions was influenced mainly by XG owing to its anionic nature, regardless
 of using a non-ionic surfactant like Tween 80 (Salvia-Trujillo et al., 2013).
- 275

276 *3.2.2 Nanoemulsions stability*

The creaming index exhibits indirect data about the extent of droplet aggregation, 277 278 coalescence and flocculation in O/W emulsions (Ye & Singh, 2006). Supplementary Figure S2 shows the creaming index results (%) of the oregano and clove nanoemulsions on storage days 279 7 and 11. The oregano nanoemulsions adjusted to pH 3.3 showed more instability at 8 °C than 280 at 25 °C, with a creaming index of $2.0\pm0.0\%$ when 1.95 mg/g of oregano EO was used. This 281 instability significantly (p < 0.05) increased over storage time (11 days) to values of 5.0±0.0%, 282 283 11.2±4.1% and 15.1±1.1% for the nanoemulsions prepared with 1.75, 1.85 and 1.95 mg/g of the oregano EO and after remaining at 8 °C (Figure S2A). Similar behaviour was observed for 284 the nanoemulsions with pH values of 6.5. As previously mention, higher concentrations in the 285 286 disperse phase can explain this phenomenon (McClement, 2005). Lastly, in the clove nanoemulsions at pH 6.5 after 7 storage days at 8 °C, the migration of droplets was observed; 287 however, at 25 °C this effect was not observed, indicating that the temperature favoured the 288 instability of these nanoemulsions (Figure S2C). For the clove nanoemulsions, at pH 3.3 the 289 290 stability of the samples containing 1.95 mg/mL was lower after 7 storage days, which was clearly noted after 11 storage days, regardless of the storage temperature. Furthermore, the 291 292 samples containing the clove EO, and adjusted to pH 6.5, gave higher creaming index values at 8 °C than at 25 °C (Figure S2C-D). 293

It is worth mentioning that the effect of pH on the creaming index was evidenced only for the clove nanoemulsions. Acid pH values provoke the destabilisation of the samples prepared with 1.95 mg/g of the clove EO after 7 storage days (creaming index: 2.0±0.0%), which was

297 greater after 11 days of storage (the creaming index values of the clove nanoemulsions with 298 1.75, 1.85 and 1.95 mg/g of the EO were 10.0±2.0%, 15.4±1.0% and 20.3±3.2%, respectively). 299 Guerra-Rosas et al., (2016) pointed out that the total rates, degree of creaming and serum 300 separation depend on the overall oil volume fraction of the nanoemulsion, its droplet-size distribution, and the nature of the inter droplet interplays, including any effects of non-absorbed 301 302 polymers and surfactants. Wang, Feng, Jia, Xu & Zhou (2018) observed that more stable O/W 303 emulsions were formed at higher pH values, which lessened their susceptibility to gravitational 304 separation.

Regarding the kinetic stability of the oregano and clove nanoemulsions, Figures S3 and S4 305 306 (Supplementary Material) provide the mean size values ($d_{3,2}$ and $d_{4,3}$, respectively) of the samples adjusted to pH 3.3 and 6.5, kept at 8 °C and 25 °C for 11 days. The oregano 307 nanoemulsions presented higher values of $d_{3,2}$ (nm) than the clove nanoemulsions, 308 309 irrespectively of pH and temperature. By the end of storage, droplet size significantly up to 1338±161 nm, 1654±62 nm and 1698±39 nm when 1.75, 1.85 and 1.95 mg/g of the oregano 310 311 EO were respectively used. While these samples were kept at 25 °C for 11 days, their mean droplet size values varied from 1100±23 nm to 1722±177 nm, and the instability effect was 312 313 enhanced when larger amounts of EO were used. A similar behaviour was observed in the 314 oregano nanoemulsions adjusted to pH 6.5 and kept at 8 °C or 25 °C for 11 days. The significant droplet size seen during storage was probably due to the capacity of oil droplets to migrate from 315 smaller to larger droplets in the aqueous phase. Similarly, Guerra-Rosas et al., (2016) noticed 316 317 that the EOs containing carvacrol were particularly inclined to Ostwald ripening because of its 318 relatively good solubility in water. Conversely, the droplet size of the clove nanoemulsion 319 formulated with the smaller amount of EO remained practically uniform throughout the study, and was considered physically stable, excluding those samples with pH values of 3.3 and kept 320 321 at 25 °C for 11 days (see Figure S3B for details). This tendency was generally similar for the $d_{4,3}$ values, and the instability of samples was greater for those nanoemulsions prepared with the oregano EO than with the clove EO, regardless of pH and storage temperature (Figure S4). These results agree with those reported for the creaming index, where the greater stability of clove nanoemulsions rather than oregano nanoemulsions, with pH values of 3.3 and 6.5, and kept at 8 °C for 11 days, was probably observed due to their small droplet size.

327 In relation to the ζ -potential, in this study the initial interfacial electrical charge data for the 328 oregano nanoemulsions were between -50 mV and -60 mV in all cases, but came close to -30 mV for the clove nanoemulsions (Supplementary Figure S5). The ζ-potential of the samples 329 containing the clove EO remained stable during the storage time, and the non-dependence of 330 331 the pH and storage temperature was noted. However, the interfacial electrical charge of those 332 samples formulated with the oregano EO decreased over time. This effect could be related to the creaming observed in the samples adjusted to pH 6.5 and stored at 8 °C and 25 °C for 11 333 334 days. Despite the constant ζ -potential values of the clove nanoemulsions over time, their 335 instability was observed by the end of the storage period.

336

337 *3.2.3 In vitro antifungal activity of the oregano and clove nanoemulsions*

338 The *in vitro* effectiveness of the antifungal activity of the encapsulated oregano and clove EOs within nanoemulsions in inhibiting Z. bailii growth was evaluated (data not shown). No 339 340 yeast growth was observed for any tested EO concentration, which indicates that the 341 nanoemulsions studied at the lowest oregano and clove concentrations were capable of 342 inhibiting Z. bailii growth in culture media. Even though HPH processing led to losses of volatile compounds of around 50% (Ribes, Fuentes, Talens, & Barat, 2017a), the same MIC 343 344 and MFC values were obtained after evaluating the in vitro antifungal activity of both the nonencapsulated and encapsulated EOs in the nanoemulsions against Z. bailii. Other authors have 345

evidenced that the encapsulation of EOs enhances their antimicrobial activity (Donsì & Ferrari,
2016). Previous works have reported a faster penetration in microbial cells when reducing the
droplet size of antifungal agents (formation of nanoemulsions), which would explain the
behaviour observed herein (Weiss, Takhistov, & McClements, 2006).

350 3.3 Salad dressings

351 *3.3.1 In situ antifungal activity of the oregano and clove nanoemulsions*

Figure 3 shows the *in vivo* growth of *Z. bailii* inoculated in different salad dressings and incubated at 8 °C for 11 days by simulating refrigerated storage after conventional pasteurisation. The reference samples exhibited constant microbial counts (5 log CFU/g). Incorporation of the oregano and clove EO nanoemulsions into salad dressings lowered the fungal count compared to the reference sample, of 1 and 2 log CFU/g, respectively.

In the control dressing, the *Z. bailii* counts remained constant for the first 7 storage days, and increased target yeast growth was noted after 11 inoculation days (6 log CFU/g). This trend can be explained by intrinsic factors and refrigeration temperatures. Karaman, Sagdic and Yilmaz (2016) suggested that *Z. bailii* counts were strongly influenced by storage temperature as these authors found higher yeast counts at increasing temperatures. Other factors related to salad dressing composition, such as water activity and pH, among others, could also affect yeast growth (Monu et al., 2016).

The limit of microbial growth used to examine the shelf-life of the salad dressings was a yeast count of 10^2 CFU/g after considering one of the most restrictive levels encountered in food commodities (Pascual & Calderón, 2000). According to this limit, the salad dressings prepared with 1.85 mg/g of the encapsulated clove and oregano EOs were able to maintain the hygienic quality of samples up to 4 and 7 days after their inoculation under the assayed conditions, respectively. The samples formulated with the nanoemulsions containing 1.95 mg/g of the oregano or clove EO displayed fungicidal activity. In both cases, total growth inhibition
took place after 4 days of *Z. bailii* inoculation. The fungicidal effect of EO has been associated
with ATPase activity on the cytoplasmic membrane being inhibited by disturbing the transport
of nutrients (Cerutti & Alzomora, 1996). In spite of the creaming index observed at the end of
the storage period, the fungicidal effect of the O/W nanoemulsions was observed.

Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that the *in vivo* antifungal activity of the EOs 375 376 significantly differed from the findings noted in the *in vitro* tests, which was most likely due to the complex environment of foods (Gutierrez, Barry-Ryan & Bourke, 2008; Monu et al., 2016; 377 Omidbeygi, Barzegar, Hamidi, & Naghdibadi, 2007). It has been demonstrated that some food 378 379 matrix components interfere with antimicrobials by diminishing their activity. Indeed lipids can 380 interact with EOs or solubilise them, which hinders their ability to react with microorganisms and, therefore, decreases their antimicrobial efficacy. The inverse relation between the amount 381 382 of fat in the food matrix and the antimicrobial of the EOs has been demonstrated in some studies (Gutierrez et al., 2008; Cava, Nowak, Taboada & Marin-Iniesta, 2007). 383

384

385 *3.3.2 Sensory analysis*

386 A sensory analysis was performed to assess the acceptance of the salad dressings formulated 387 with the oregano and clove EO nanonoemulsions. Addition of nanoemulsions to dressings did not modify the acceptance of samples in terms of their appearance, consistency and colour 388 389 attributes, compared to the reference dressing (Figure 3). However, mouth texture was affected when the nanoemulsion was incorporated, regardless of the employed EO. The salad dressing 390 391 that contained the oregano EO received a similar evaluation score for the taste attribute. However, its general acceptance scored lower than the control sample, probably due to the 392 effect of nanoemulsion on mouth texture, as mentioned above. The samples formulated with 393

the clove EO nanoemulsion received the lowest flavour, taste and mouth texture scores, which affected the final acceptance of these dressings. All these data indicate that the sensory acceptance of incorporating EOs is strongly affected by the type and amount of the EO, and also by the food product. These findings indicate the importance of choosing EO type according to the sensory features that consumers expect.

Although the antimicrobial activity of these EOs has been widely studied against different microorganisms, very few studies have evaluated the sensory impact when they are added to food products. According to the available literature, a wide range of tolerance limits can be established depending on the EO type and food matrix (Donsì, & Ferrari, 2016; Espina et al., 2014; Burt, 2004). It is important to point out that the encapsulation of EOs into nanoemulsions modifies the release profile of EOs (Donsì & Ferrari, 2016), which can be employed as a strategy to reduce undesirable modifications in the food product's sensory profile.

406

407 **4.** Conclusions

Non-encapsulated oregano and clove EOs displayed good antifungal properties against a
well-known food spoilage yeast, *Zygosaccharomyces bailii*. Higher essential oil concentrations
led to rising inhibition rates. After encapsulating the EOs in O/W nanoemulsions, the results of
the stability assays revealed their creaming over storage.

The experimental data of the *in vitro* antifungal assays suggested that the oregano and clove nanoemulsions were able to inhibit yeast development during the storage period, which evidences better antifungal activity compared to the non-encapsulated EOs.

The use of these nanoemulsions in salad dressings can control *Zygosaccharomyces bailii* growth. Even the salad dressings containing 1.95 mg/g of each encapsulated EO displayed fungicidal action after 4 days of *Zygosaccharomyces bailii* inoculation.

418	The use of the oregano EO in food products was better accepted than the clove EO, which
419	indicates that oregano flavour is suitable for formulating salad dressings.
420	Hence the present work provides the food industry with stable natural systems that ensure
421	the safety of minimally processed foods free of chemical additives. Nevertheless, more detailed
422	studies in other food commodities should be conducted to guarantee the antifungal effect of the
423	O/W nanoemulsions. Special attention should be paid to find appropriate EOs that inhibit the
424	growth of the target microorganism to make it compatible with the food product's sensory
425	profile at the same time.
426	
427	Conflict of interest
428	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
429	
430	References
431	Amiri, A., Dugas, R., Pichot, A. L., & Bompeix, G. (2008). In vitro and in vitro activity of
432	eugenol oil (Eugenia caryophylata) against four important postharvest apple pathogens.
433	International Journal of Food Microbiology, 126, 13-19.
434	Babushok V. I., Linstrom P. J., & Zenkevich I. G. (2011). Retention Indices for Frequently
435	Reported Compounds of Plant Essential Oils. Journal of Physical and Chemical Reference
436	<i>Data, 40</i> (4), 043101-47.
436 437	<i>Data, 40</i> (4), 043101-47. Burt, S. (2004). Essential oils: Their antibacterial properties and potential applications in foods-

- a review. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 94 (3), 223-253. 438
- Castro, M. P., Rojas, A. M., Campos, C. A., & Gerschenson, L. N. (2009). Effect of 439 preservatives, tween 20, oil content and emulsion structure on the survival of Lactobacillus
- fructivorans in model salad dressings. LWT Food Science and Technology, 42, 1428-441
- 1434. 442

- Cava, R., Nowak, E., Taboada, A., & Marin-Iniesta, F. (2007). Antimicrobial activity of clove
 and cinnamon essential oils against *Listeria monocytogenes* in pasteurized milk. *Journal of Food Protection*, *70*(12), 2757-2763.
- 446 Cerutti, P., & Alzomora, S. M. (1996). Inhibitory effects of vanillin on some food spoilage
 447 yeasts in laboratory media and fruit purées. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*,
 448 29, 379-386.
- Chaieb, K., Hajlaoui1, H., Zmantar, T., Kahla-Nakbi, A. B., Rouabhia, M., Mahdouani, K., &
 Bakhrouf, A. (2007). The Chemical Composition and Biological Activity of Clove
 Essential Oil, *Eugenia caryophyllata (Syzigium aromaticum* L. Myrtaceae): A Short
 Review. *Phytotherapy Research*, 21, 501-506.
- 453 CLSI. (2007). Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing; seventeenth
 454 informational supplement. *Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute*, 27(1). M100-S17.
- 455 Donsì, F., & Ferrari, G. (2016). Essential oil nanoemulsions as antimicrobial agents in food.
 456 *Journal of Biotechnology*, 233, 106-120.
- 457 Erickson, J. P., & McKenna, D. N. Zygosaccharomyces. R. K. Robinson, C. A. Batt, P. D. Patel
- 458 (Ed.). Encyclopedia of Food Microbiology 3, Academic Press, London (1999), pp. 2359459 2365.
- Guerra-Rosas, M. I., Morales-Castro, J., Ochoa-Martínez, L. A., Salvia-Trujillo, L., & MartínBelloso, O. (2016). Long-term stability of food-grade nanoemulsions from high methoxyl
 pectin containing essential oils. *Food Hydrocolloids*, *52*, 438-446.
- Gutierrez, J., Barry-Ryan, C., & Bourke, R. (2008). The antimicrobial efficacy of plant essential
 oil combinations and interactions with food ingredients. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, *124* (1), 91-97.
- 466 Hernández-González, M., Pérez, C.M., Sánchez, H., Ruíz, C.V., Hernández, J. F., Olivas467 Armendáriz, I., Martel-Estrada, S. A., & Rodríguez-González, C. A. (2017).

- 468 Polysuccinimide functionalized with oregano's essential oil extracts, an antimicrobial
 469 extended release bio-material. *Materials Letters*, 191, 73-76.
- Hon, I. K., Kim, S. I., & Lee, S. B. (2018). Effects of HLB value on oil-in-water emulsions:
 Droplet size, rheological behavior, zeta-potential, and creaming index. *Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry*, 67, 123–131.
- 473 Institute of Food Science and Technology (2015). Guidelines for ethical and professional
 474 practices for the sensory analysis of foods. London: IFST. Retrieved from
 475 https://www.ifst.org/our-resources/ifst-guidelines-ethical-and-professional-practicessensory-
- analysis-foods.
- 477 Karaman, K., Sagdic, O., & Yilmaz, M. T. (2016). Multiple response surface optimization for
- 478 effects of processing parameters on physicochemical and bioactive properties of apple juice
- 479 inoculated with *Zygosaccharomyces rouxii* and *Zygosaccharomyces bailii*. *LWT Food*
- 480 *Science and Technology*, *69*, 258-272.
- McClements, D. J. Food emulsions: Principles, practice, and techniques. Taylor & Francis
 group (Ed.), Emulsion stability, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL (2005), pp. 289-373.
- 483 Merino, N., Berdejo, D., Bento, R., Salman, H., Lanz, M., Maggi, F., Sánchez-Gómez, S.,
- 484 García-Gonzalo, D., & Pagán, R. (2019). Antimicrobial efficacy of *Thymbra capitata* (L.)
- 485 Cav. essential oil loaded in self-assembled zein nanoparticles in combination with heat.
 486 *Industrial Crops & Products, 133*, 98-104.
- Monu, E. A., Techathuvanan, C., Wallis, A., Critzer, F. J., & Davidson, P. M. (2016). Plant
 essential oils and components on growth of spoilage yeasts in microbiological media and
 a model salad dressing. *Food Control*, 65, 73-77.
- Morshedloo, M. R., Salami, S. A., Nazeri, V., Maggi, F., & Craker, L. (2018). Essential oil
 profile of oregano (*Origanum vulgare* L.) populations grown under similar soil and climate
- 492 conditions. *Industrial Crops and Products*, *119*, 183-190.

- Omidbeygi, M., Barzegar, M., Hamidi, Z., & Naghdibadi, H. (2007). Antifungal activity of
 thyme, summer savory and clove essential oils against *Aspergillus flavus* in liquid medium
 and tomato paste. *Food Control*, 18 (12), 1518-1523.
- 496 Pascual, M., & Calderón, V. Microbiología Alimentaria. Metodología Analítica para Alimentos
 497 y Bebidas. (2nd ed.), Díaz de Santos S.A. Madrid, España (2000).
- 498 Pavela, R., Pavoni, L., Bonacucina, G., Cespi, M., Kavallieratos, N. G., Cappellacci, L., Petrelli,
- R., Maggi, F., & Benelli, G. (2019). Rationale for developing novel mosquito larvicides
 based on isofuranodiene microemulsions. *Journal of Pest Science*, *92*, 909–921.
- Pawar, V. C, & Thaker, V. S. (2006). *In vitro* efficacy of 75 essential oils against *Aspergillus niger. Mycoses*, 49, 316 323.
- Ribes, S., Fuentes, A., Talens, P., & Barat, J. M. (2016). Use of oil-in-water emulsions to
 control fungal deterioration of strawberry jams. *Food Chemistry*, 211, 92-99.
- Ribes, S., Fuentes, A., Talens, P., & Barat, J. M. (2017a). Application of cinnamon bark
 emulsions to protect strawberry jam from fungi. *LWT- Food Science and Technology*, 78,
 265-272.
- 508 Ribes, S., Ruiz-Rico, M., Pérez-Esteve, E., Fuentes, A., Talens, P., Martínez- Máñez, R., &
- Barat, J. M. (2017b). Eugenol and thymol immobilised on mesoporous silica-based
 material as an innovative antifungal system: application in strawberry jam. *Food Control*, *81*, 181-188.
- Ribes, S., Fuentes, A., Talens, P., & Barat, J. M. (2017c). Prevention of fungal spoilage in food
 products using natural compounds: A review. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 58 (12), 2002-2016.
- Ribes, S., Fuentes, A., Talens, P., & Barat, J. M. (2018). Combination of different antifungal
 agents in oil-in-water emulsions to control strawberry jam spoilage. *Food Chemistry*, 239,
 704-711.

518	Salvia-Trujillo, L., Rojas-Graü, M. A., Soliva-Fortuny, R., & Martín-Belloso, O. (2013). Effect
519	of processing parameters on physicochemical characteristics of microfluidized lemongrass
520	essential oil-alginate nanoemulsions. Food Hydrocolloids, 30, 401-407.

Sánchez-González, L., Vargas, M., González-Martínez, C., Chiralt, A., & Cháfer, M. (2009). 521

Characterization of edible films base don hydroxypropylmethylcellulose and tea tree 522 essential oil. Food Hydrocolloids, 23, 2102-2109. 523

- Silva, J. P. L., Duarte-Almeida, J. M., Perez, D. V., & Franco, B. D. G. M. (2010). Óleo 524 essencial de orégano: interferência da composição química na atividade frente a 525 526 Salmonella enteritidis. Ciencia y Tecnología Alimentaria, 30, 136-141.
- Singh, G., Maurya, S., de Lampasona, M. P., & Catalan, C. A. N. (2007). A comparison of 527 chemical, antioxidant and antimicrobial studies of cinnamon leaf and bark volatile oils, 528 oleoresins and their constituents. Food and Chemical Toxicology, 45 (9), 1650-1661. 529
- Stratford, M., Steels, H., Nebe-von-Caron, G., Novodvorska, M., Hayer, K., & Archer, D. B. 530
- 531 (2013). Extreme resistance to weak-acid preservatives in the spoilage yeast Zygosaccharomyces bailii. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 166, 126-134. 532
- UNE-ISO 4121. (2003). Sensory analysis. Guidelines for the use of quantitative response scale. 533 AENOR. 534
- UNE-ISO 8586. (2012). Sensory analysis. General guidelines for the selection, training and 535 monitoring of selected assessors and expert sensory assessors. AENOR. 536
- Vermeulen, A., Dang, T. D. T., Geeraerd, A. H., Bernaerts, K., Debevere, J., van Impe, J., 537 Devlieghere, F. (2008). Modelling the unexpected effect of acetic and lactic acid in 538 539 combination with pH and a_w on the growth/no growth interface of Zygosaccharomyces 540
 - bailii. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 124, 79-90.

- Wang, M., Feng, M. Q., Jia, K., Sun, J., Xu, X. L., & Zhou, G. H. (2017). Effects of flaxseed
 gum concentrations and pH values on the stability of oil-in-water emulsions. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 67, 54-62.
- 544 Weiss, J., Takhistov, P., & McClements, D. J. (2006). Functional materials in food
 545 nanotechnology. *Journal of Food Science*, *71*, 107-116.
- 546 Ye, A., & Singh, H. (2006). Heat stability of oil-in-water emulsions formed with intact or
- 547 hydrolysed whey proteins: influence of polysaccharides. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 20, 269-276.

Figure captions

548	Figure 1. Microbial counts of Zygosaccharomyces bailii against the non-encapsulated oregano
549	and clove EOs at 25 °C for 48 h. Mean value (n=3) \pm SD. Different lowercase superscripts (a,
550	b, c, d, e, f) indicate significant differences among EO concentrations ($p < 0.05$) and different
551	uppercase superscript (A, B) indicate significant differences between EO types ($p < 0.05$).
552	Figure 2. Effect of incorporating the oregano and clove nanoemulsions into salad dressings on
553	Zygosaccharomyces bailii growth, expressed as log CFU/g. Mean value (n=3) \pm SD. (NE:
554	nanoemulsion).
555	Figure 3. Average score of the attributes tested in the control salad dressing and the salad

- dressings formulated with the O/W nanoemulsions. 0: very unpleasant and 9: very pleasant.
- *Indicates significant differences among samples (p < 0.05) (n=30). (NE: nanoemulsion).