

1     **Functional properties of powders produced from either or not fermented**  
2                             **mealworm (*Tenebrio molitor*) paste**

3

4                     Borremans, A.<sup>a\*</sup>, Bußler, S.<sup>b</sup>, Sagu, T. S.<sup>c</sup>, Rawel, H.M.<sup>c</sup>, Schlüter, O.<sup>b</sup>,  
5   Van Campenhout, L.<sup>a</sup>

6

7     <sup>a</sup> *KU Leuven, Faculty of Engineering Technology, Department of Microbial and Molecular*  
8     *Systems (M<sup>2</sup>S), Lab4Food, Campus Geel, B-2440 Geel, Belgium.*

9     <sup>b</sup> *Leibniz Institute for Agricultural Engineering and Bioeconomy (ATB), Quality and Safety of*  
10    *Food and Feed, , Max-Eyth-Allee 100, 14469 Potsdam, Germany.*

11    <sup>c</sup> *University of Potsdam, Institute of Nutritional Science, Arthur-Scheunert-Allee 114-116, D-*  
12    *14558 Nuthetal, Germany.*

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22    \* Corresponding author: An Borremans, Lab4Food, KU Leuven, Campus Geel, Kleinhoefstraat  
23    4, B-2440 Geel. Phone: +32 14 72 13 50.

24    E-mail: an.borremans@kuleuven.be

## 25 **Abstract**

26 The aim of this study was to determine the effect of fermentation of mealworms (*Tenebrio*  
27 *molitor*) with commercial meat starters cultures on the functional properties of powders  
28 produced from the larvae. Full fat and defatted powder samples were prepared from non-  
29 fermented and fermented mealworm pastes. Then the crude protein, crude fat and dry matter  
30 contents, pH, bulk density, colour, water and oil binding capacity, foaming capacity and  
31 stability, emulsion capacity and stability, protein solubility, quantity of free amino groups and  
32 protein composition of the powders were evaluated. Regardless of the starter culture used,  
33 fermentation significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) reduced the crude and soluble protein content of the non-  
34 defatted mealworm powders and in general impaired their water and oil binding, foaming- and  
35 emulsifying properties. Defatting of the powders improved most functional properties studied,  
36 except the protein solubility, water binding capacity, foaming capacity and emulsion stability.  
37 The o-phthaldialdehyd assay revealed that the amount of free amino groups increased during  
38 fermentation, which may be attributed to proteolysis of mealworm proteins by the starters.  
39 Sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis demonstrated that the soluble  
40 proteins of fermented powders were composed of molecules of lower molecular mass compared  
41 to non-fermented powders. As the molecular sizes of the soluble proteins decreased, it is clear  
42 that also the protein structure was modified by the fermentation process, which in turn led to  
43 changes in functional properties. It was concluded that fermentation of mealworms in general  
44 does not contribute to the functional properties studied in this work. Nevertheless, the results  
45 confirmed that the properties of non-fermented powders are comparable to other food protein  
46 sources.

## 47 **Key words**

48 mealworm, fermentation, functional properties, insect proteins, SDS-PAGE

## 49 **1. Introduction**

50 In recent years, there is an increased interest in the use of edible insects for food applications.  
51 In particular, mealworms (*Tenebrio molitor*) are gaining attention as alternative protein source  
52 due their high protein level, good amino acid profiles and high levels of unsaturated fatty acids,  
53 vitamins and minerals (Van Huis, 2016). Various technologies are used for the stabilisation of  
54 mealworms and processing them into foods, most of which are based on heat application (oven  
55 drying and boiling). It can be interesting, both cost-wise and protein property-wise, to apply  
56 processes that do not involve heat. Fermentation is a non-thermal process in which a food matrix  
57 is subjected to the action of microorganisms or enzymes so that desirable biochemical changes  
58 cause modification to the product (Campbell-Platt, 1987). These modifications may result in  
59 modified sensory qualities, improved nutritional value, enhanced preservation and/or increased  
60 economic value. Fermentation of mealworm paste has been reported to be feasible with lactic  
61 acid starter cultures, as indicated by a rapid pH reduction (De Smet et al., 2019; Borremans et  
62 al., 2019). During fermentation, some of the starter cultures tested generated free glutamic and  
63 aspartic acid, two amino acids that are responsible for the well-appreciated umami taste. The  
64 impact of fermentation on other properties of the paste was not investigated so far and is the  
65 subject of this study. Fermentation is expected to alter the characteristics of the insect proteins,  
66 but it is not known how this translates into their nutritional value and technological functionality  
67 and hence in their application potential as food ingredients.

68 In Western countries, insects are believed to be better accepted by consumers when they are  
69 fragmented and included in a food as an ingredient, rather than in their whole form. For  
70 mealworms to be successful in food applications, they should ideally possess several desirable  
71 characteristics, referred to as functional properties. To date, only a few studies have considered  
72 the technical functionality of mealworms or protein preparations thereof, such as solubility,  
73 water and oil binding, gelling, foaming and emulsifying capacity (Bußler et al., 2016; Kim et  
74 al., 2016; Yi et al., 2013; Xue Zhao et al., 2016; Zielińska et al., 2018). In general, mealworms

75 were found to have high water and oil binding, good emulsion properties, but moderate to poor  
76 foam and gelling properties. Their proteins exhibited good solubility in the pH range of 2 to 12,  
77 making them a suitable candidate for many food applications. Despite several studies on the  
78 functional properties of mealworms, the effects of fermentation on these properties are unclear.  
79 Some properties may be affected by fermentation as fermentation tends to alter the structure of  
80 proteins, which are the main functional constituents in emulsions, foams and gels (Broyard &  
81 Gaucheron, 2015).

82 The objective of this study was to investigate the impact of fermentation on the functional  
83 properties of mealworm powders. Mealworm pastes were produced and, apart from the control  
84 samples, either fermented with the commercial meat starter culture Bactoferm® F-LC or with  
85 the pure culture *Lactobacillus farciminis*. Both starters have the generally-recognised-as-safe  
86 (GRAS) status and showed promising results in previous research (i.e. rapid acidification and  
87 inhibition of undesirable microorganisms). Full fat and defatted powders were produced from  
88 all pastes and characterised with respect to moisture content, proximate composition, pH, bulk  
89 density, and colour. To evaluate the fermentation-induced effects on protein functionality, water  
90 and oil binding, foaming and emulsion properties as well as protein solubility (pH 2 to 10) of  
91 protein extracts recovered from defatted and non-defatted powders were analysed. Underlying  
92 mechanisms for the fermentation effects observed were studied by analysing free amino groups  
93 and the molecular weight distribution of (soluble) proteins.

## 94 **2. Materials and methods**

### 95 **2.1 Sample preparation and processing**

96 Mealworms (*Tenebrio molitor* larvae) were purchased from the commercial supplier Nusect  
97 (Sint-Eloois-Winkel, Belgium). The living mealworms were packaged in freezer bags (3 x 1.2  
98 kg mealworms/bag), killed by freezing and stored at -18 °C until further use.

99 Mealworm powders (non-fermented, fermented and defatted samples) were prepared as  
100 shown in **Figure 1A**. Non-fermented samples were prepared by thawing one bag of mealworms  
101 for 4 hours at 4°C and mixing the larvae into a paste using a kitchen mixer as described earlier  
102 (Borremans et al., 2019). The larvae of the other two bags were blanched, mixed into a paste,  
103 triplicate volumes of 50 g were inoculated with either the commercial meat starter culture  
104 Bactoferm® F-LC (Chr. Hansen, Denmark, mixture of *Staphylococcus xylosum*, *Lactobacillus*  
105 *curvatus* and *Pediococcus acidilactici*) or the pure culture *Lactobacillus farciminis* (kindly  
106 provided by Chr. Hansen), and subsequently fermented according to Borremans et al. (2018,  
107 2019). Powders were produced by freeze drying (48 h, Büchi Lyovapor L-200) and grinding  
108 (60s, Clatronic KSW 3307). To prepare defatted powders, solvent extraction using n-hexane  
109 was performed. A proportion of each powder was mixed with hexane (1:10 ratio, v/w) and  
110 stirred on a magnet stirrer for 1 h. After sedimentation of the solids, the hexane-fat-mixture was  
111 decanted and residual hexane was removed by evaporation overnight.

112 **Figure 1B** gives an overview of the performed analyses. The water- and oil binding capacity  
113 of the powders were determined at their native pH, the foaming and emulsifying properties and  
114 the free amino groups at pH 7 (indicative of a neutralisation process) and protein solubility and  
115 protein composition were determined in the pH range of 2 to 12. Egg albumen powder served  
116 as reference material from Pulviver (Bastogne, Belgium).

## 117 **2.2 Characterization of mealworm powders**

### 118 **2.2.1 Crude protein, crude fat, dry matter content**

119 Crude protein and crude fat contents were determined in triplicate as described by Bußler  
120 et al. (2016). Crude protein contents (NKjel, conversion factor 6.25) were determined using the  
121 method by Kjeldahl (Kjeldatherm Turbosog, Titrino plus 848, Gerhardt Analytical Systems,  
122 Königswinter, Germany), according to DIN EN 25663: Digestion and distillation (Kjeldahl  
123 Sampler System K-370/371) were conducted as described by the Association of German

124 Agricultural Investigation and Research Institutions (VDLUFA, 1976). Crude fat content of the  
125 flour fractions was determined according to the filter bag method Am 5-04 (AOCS 2005) as an  
126 indirect method for measuring crude oil (Filterbags XT4, ANKOM Technology, New York,  
127 USA). Dry matter contents were determined by drying the mealworm powders in a forced-air  
128 oven (Memmert, UFB500) at 105°C for 17 h.

## 129 **2.2.2 pH, bulk density and colour measurement**

130 To determine pH, mealworm powders (3 x 1.0 g) were mixed with 10 mL of distilled water  
131 and vortexed for 30 s. The pH of the mixtures was measured using a pHenomenal pH 1100H  
132 meter with a SenTix 82 pH electrode (VWR). Bulk density was estimated by the modified  
133 method of Wang and Kinsella (1976). A 10.0 g sample was gently packed in a 100 ml graduated  
134 cylinder by tapping ten times on a bench top from a height of 5 cm. The final volume of the  
135 sample was recorded and the bulk density was expressed as g/ml of sample. Colour  
136 measurements were performed with a colorimeter using the CIElab scale (CR-5, Konica  
137 Minolta). Five independent measurements of a\* (redness), b\* (yellowness) and L\* (lightness)  
138 parameters were carried out for triplicate samples of each powder type. Browning indices and  
139 colour difference ( $\Delta E$ ) were calculated according to the formula described by Lenaerts, Van  
140 Der Borgh, Callens, & Van Campenhout (2018), using non-fermented powder as reference.

## 141 **2.3 Analysis of the techno-functional properties of the powders**

### 142 **2.3.1 Water and oil binding capacity**

143 Water (WBC) and oil (OBC) binding capacity of the powders were determined in triplicate  
144 according to the method of Bußler et al. (2016) with slight modifications. In brief, 0.5 g of each  
145 powder was weighted into a pre-weighted centrifuge beaker to which 3.0 mL of distilled water  
146 or 3.0 mL of commercial rape seed oil was added. The mixtures were stirred (60 s or two times  
147 60 s for WBC and OBC, respectively) using a propeller stirrer and an overhead agitator  
148 (Yellowline®, IKA® OST basic, USA), and centrifuged at 3900 g for 20 min. The samples

149 were re-weighted after discarding the supernatant and putting the beakers upside-down on  
150 absorbent paper for 60 min. The differences in weight were calculated and the results were  
151 presented as gram of water or oil absorbed per gram of powder.

### 152 **2.3.2 Foaming capacity and stability**

153 For foaming capacity and stability determinations, 0.25% w/v protein suspensions were  
154 prepared at pH 7. Briefly, each sample (quantity depending on solubility of the proteins) was  
155 suspended in 100 mL distilled water and the pH was adjusted to 7 with 1.0 M NaOH or 1.0 M  
156 HCl. The solutions were stirred for 30 min at room temperature and centrifuged for 20 min  
157 (4°C, 10000 g). The supernatants were collected and stored at 4°C until subsequent analyses.  
158 The foaming properties were determined in fivefold by the method described by Zielińska et  
159 al. (2018), with modifications. Twenty milliliter of supernatant was transferred into a 250 ml  
160 beaker and each sample was individually beaten in a high shear homogenizer mixer (16000  
161 rpm, 2 min, Ultra turrax, IKA, Staufen, Germany). The whipped sample was immediately  
162 transferred into a graduated cylinder and the total volume was read at time zero and 30 min  
163 after whipping. Foaming capacity (FC) and foaming stability (FS) were calculated using the  
164 formulas described by Zielińska et al. (2018).

### 165 **2.3.3 Emulsion capacity and stability**

166 Emulsifying properties were determined in fivefold with the method of Zielińska et al.  
167 (2018), with modifications. Protein solutions (0.25% w/v, pH 7) were prepared as described  
168 earlier and 10 ml of each solution was mixed in 50 ml tubes with an equal volume of rapeseed  
169 oil dyed with liquid natural carotene ( $M = 536.89$  g/mol, Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany).  
170 Following homogenization (20000 rpm, 1 min, Ultra turrax, IKA, Staufen, Germany), the  
171 mixtures were centrifuged at 3000 g for 5 min and the volume of the individual layers were  
172 read. Emulsion stability was evaluated by heating the emulsion for 30 min at 80°C. Then, the  
173 samples were centrifuged at 3000 g for 5 min before the volume of the individual layers were

174 read. Emulsion capacity (EC) and emulsion stability (ES) were calculated using the formulas  
175 described by Zielińska et al. (2018).

## 176 **2.4 Analysis of the protein properties of the powders**

### 177 **2.4.1 pH dependent protein solubility**

178 Protein solubility was determined in the pH range of 2 to 12. Briefly, 0.1 g of each powder  
179 was mixed with 10 ml of distilled water and the pH of the mixture was adjusted to a value in  
180 the range of 2 to 12 using 1.0 M HCl or 1.0 M NaOH. The solutions were stirred on a rotary  
181 shaker (350 rpm) for 30 min and centrifuged (8.000xg, 20 min, 4°C). The protein concentration  
182 of the supernatant was assessed by the Bradford method (1976) using bovine serum albumin  
183 (Fluka, Buchs, Switzerland) as a standard. The assay consisted of 800 µl of the protein extracts  
184 and 200 µl of Bradford reagent (Roti®-Quant, Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) reacting for 20  
185 min at ambient temperature. The absorption maximum was analysed at 595 nm against a blank  
186 value (demineralized water) using an UV/Vis spectrophotometer (BioPhotometer plus,  
187 Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). The dissolving procedure and spectrophotometric  
188 measurements were each performed in triplicate and the protein solubility was calculated  
189 according to the formula described by Zielińska et al. (2018). The remainder of the protein  
190 extracts was frozen at -18°C for the quantification of free amino groups and the determination  
191 of the protein composition.

### 192 **2.4.2 Quantification of free amino groups**

193 In order to quantify the amount of free amino groups in the defatted mealworm powders,  
194 the o-phthaldialdehyd (OPA) assay was used. To this end, 100 µl of protein extract (pH 7,  
195 thawed at room temperature) was added to 800 µl OPA solution and to 800 µl of the same  
196 solution but without OPA (blank). The mixtures were allowed to react at ambient temperature  
197 for 30 min before the absorbance was measured at 330 nm. Three replicates of each



198 measurement were included in the experiment and the free amino groups were calculated  
199 against an L-leucine (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany) standard curve.

### 200 **2.4.3 Protein molecular weight distribution**

201 Proteins of the defatted powders were analysed with sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide  
202 gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) to determine their molecular weight distribution. Protein  
203 extracts (pH 2 to 12) were thawed at room temperature, sonicated (S10 Elmasonic, Elma  
204 Schmidbauer GmbH, Singen, Germany) for 5 minutes, and 500  $\mu$ l of each replicate per pH-  
205 value were pooled.

206 Electrophoresis was performed under reducing and denaturing conditions using Invitrogen  
207 NuPAGE 12% Bis-Tris precast protein gels with 12 wells (Thermo Fisher Scientific, CA,  
208 USA). Non-fermented samples were mixed with NuPAGE™ LDS Sample Buffer (containing  
209 glycerol, 2-mercaptoethanol, SDS and Coomassie blue G250 and pH 8.4) at a ratio of 1:5, while  
210 the fermented samples were mixed at a ratio of 1:3 with the same sample buffer. As references,  
211 10 mg of each powder from non-fermented and fermented samples were dissolved in 1500  $\mu$ L  
212 samples buffer and diluted with sample buffer in a ratio of 1:2. After heating the mixtures at  
213 100° C for 5 min, samples were cooled to room temperature and each 15  $\mu$ l of the reference and  
214 non-fermented samples and 10  $\mu$ l of fermented samples were loaded onto the gel. An aliquots  
215 of 5  $\mu$ l of Page Ruler Plus pre-stained broad range standard containing a 9 protein ladder  
216 (protein composition in kDa of 10, 15, 25, 35, 55, 70, 100, 130 and 250; Thermo Fisher  
217 Scientific, CA, USA) was loaded as well. Table S1 (Supporting information) presents the initial  
218 protein concentration and the protein quantities loaded. The separation was carried out under  
219 constant current (30 mA/Gel) for 120 minutes using NuPAGE MES SDS Running Buffer. After  
220 separation, the gels were stained overnight at room temperature with Coomassie blue solution  
221 (in 10% acetic acid) and then destained with 10% acetic acid for 3 hours. The gels were scanned  
222 using Bio-5000 Professional VIS Gel Scanner (Provided by SERVA Electrophoresis GmbH,

223 Heidelberg, Germany) and analyzed with Image Lab Software (Bio-Rad Laboratories Ltd.,  
224 Hemel Hempstead, UK). Electrophoresis experiments were repeated two times.

## 225 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

226 SPSS statistics (IBM SPSS Statistics version 25, New York, USA) was used to statistically  
227 analyse the data generated. The data, reported as averages of at least three replicates, were  
228 subjected to one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) to compare means. Next, Tukey's post-  
229 hoc test was used to determine significant differences among samples. However, when  
230 variances were not equal, the Kruskal-wallis test with the Dunn-Bonferroni post-hoc test was  
231 performed. For all tests a significance level of 0.05 was considered.

## 232 **3. Results and discussion**

### 233 **3.1 Characterization of mealworm powders**

234 The proximate composition of the different mealworm powders relating to dry matter, crude  
235 protein and crude fat was determined and expressed on dry matter basis (**Table 1**). The Control  
236 had a dry matter content of 96.26%, and contained 49.68% of crude protein and 16.61% of  
237 crude fat. The protein and fat content were lower than the values reported for freeze-dried  
238 mealworms by Zhao et al. (2016; 51.5% and 32.9%, respectively), Bußler et al. (2016; 57.8%  
239 and 19.1%, respectively) and Lenaerts et al. (2018; 59.96% and 28.35%, respectively). This  
240 heterogeneity in proximate composition can be ascribed to differences in rearing and processing  
241 conditions as well as to differences in methods of analysis applied (Rumpold & Schlüter, 2013).  
242 Fermentation with the starters Bactoferm® F-LC and *L. farciminis* did not significantly  
243 influence the dry matter content of the full fat powders. The crude protein content, on the other  
244 hand, significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) decreased, while (concomitantly) the crude fat content  
245 significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) increased with fermentation. Literature reports various effects of  
246 fermentation on proteins in other food matrices. Several studies (Çabuk et al., 2018; Ojokoh,  
247 Fayemi, Ocloo, & Nwokolo, 2015) observed an increase in pea and acha rice flour, respectively,

248 while others (Klupsaite et al., 2017; Omowaye-Taiwo et al., 2015) reported a decrease in crude  
249 protein content during fermentation of lupine and a melon type, respectively. An increase in  
250 crude protein content may be attributed to loss of dry matter (mainly carbohydrates). A  
251 decrease, on the other hand, can be caused by degradation of proteins by microorganisms,  
252 thereby releasing peptides and amino acids (Nkhata et al., 2018). As these components are  
253 necessary for microbial growth and organic acids production by Lactic Acid Bacteria (Klupsaite  
254 et al., 2017), it is possible that the starters use the generated peptides and amino acids, thereby  
255 lowering the protein content of the fermented powders. Defatting of the mealworm powders  
256 (resulting in the powders d-Control, d-FLC and d-Far) contributed to a significant ( $p < 0.05$ )  
257 increase in the crude protein content of respectively 18.21%, 19.34% and 17.31%. Subsequent  
258 analysis of the fat content revealed residual fat values of less than 5.34% for all samples.

259 Results of pH, bulk density and colour parameters are summarized in **Table 1** as well. The  
260 pH of the Control powder was 6.28 and was unaffected by the defatting treatment. Fermentation  
261 significantly decreased ( $p < 0.05$ ) the pH by the production of organic acids to values ranging  
262 from 4.56 to 4.68 for the full fat samples and from 4.70 to 4.77 for the defatted samples. Both  
263 hexane defatting as well as fermentation significantly increased ( $p < 0.05$ ) the bulk density of  
264 all powders. The increase in bulk density (BD) by defatting may be caused by particles sticking  
265 to each other due to the presence of residual n-hexane, but the increase in BD by fermentation  
266 cannot be explained so far. According to Ogodo, Ugbogu, Onyeagba, & Okereke (2018), the  
267 BD usually decreases during fermentation due to the breakdown of complex compounds into  
268 simpler molecules by microorganisms. As to the colour characteristics of the full fat powders,  
269 the fermented ones had a higher browning index and thus darker colour than the control powder.  
270 The subsequent defatting process noticeably decreased the browning index from  $\pm 70$  to  $\pm 30$ ,  
271 and eliminated statistical differences in colour between the powders.  $\Delta E$ , the total colour  
272 difference between the fermented samples and the control powders, was recorded in the range

273 of 1.16 to 2.55, which is considered to be noticeable by a human observer (Mokrzycki & Tatol,  
274 2011).

## 275 **3.2 Impact of fermentation on the techno-functional properties of the powders**

### 276 3.2.1 Water and oil binding capacity

277 WBC and OBC of the different mealworm powders are depicted in **Figure 2**. The WBC  
278 and OBC of the non-fermented and full fat samples was  $1.79 \pm 0.05$  and  $1.51 \pm 0.05$  g/g and it  
279 was  $1.62 \pm 0.01$  and  $1.86 \pm 0.05$  g/g in non-fermented, defatted samples. Bußler et al. (2016)  
280 reported substantially lower WBC (0.8 g/g dry mass) and OBC (0.6 g/g dry mass) values for  
281 (non-fermented) non-defatted mealworm flour (*Tenebrio molitor*). Using a similar method of  
282 powder production to that used in this study, Zielińska et al. (2018) reported a WBC of 1.29 g/g  
283 and an OBC of 1.71 g/g for ground mealworms (*Tenebrio molitor*). The different origin (likely  
284 including a different rearing method and/or substrate) of the mealworms as well as the different  
285 methods of analysis used can explain the variations in the results from different studies.  
286 Compared to other protein sources, the mealworm powders tested in this study had higher WBC  
287 and OBC values than those of soy flours (130% and 84%, respectively) and comparable WBC  
288 and OBC to those of egg white flours (168% and 135%, respectively; Gravel & Doyen, 2020).

289 Irrespective of the starter cultures used, fermentation induced a significant decrease in WBC  
290 (from 1.9 to 1.4-1.5 g/g) and OBC (from 1.5 to 1.1-1.2 g/g) in the full fat samples. The lower  
291 protein contents of the fermented samples compared to those of non-fermented samples (**Table**  
292 **1**), as well as changes in the quality of the proteins upon fermentation, can explain this reduction  
293 in WBC and OBC. Reduction in WBC by lactic acid fermentation has been observed earlier for  
294 various flours, such as maize flour and sorghum flour (Ogodo, Ugbogu, Onyeagba, et al., 2018).  
295 Contradictory to the present study, the OBC of these flours was enhanced by fermentation with  
296 1.2 and 0.8 mL/g, respectively. During fermentation, these proteins became partially unravelled  
297 and hence exposed buried hydrophobic groups that can bind more oil. Whereas fermentation

298 decreased both WBC and OBC in powders that were not defatted afterwards, removing oil from  
299 the fermented mealworm powders significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) reduced OBC but increased WBC.  
300 Among all powders tested, the fermented and then defatted powders showed the highest WBC.

### 301 3.2.2 Foaming capacity and stability

302 **Figure 3(A-B)** describes the FC and FS of the protein solutions (0.25% w/v, pH 7) extracted  
303 from the different mealworm powders. As a reference for FC and FS measurements, an egg  
304 albumen solution was used at the same concentration. Egg albumen has excellent foaming  
305 properties as it adsorbs rapidly on the air-liquid interface during whipping and rearranges to  
306 form a cohesive viscoelastic film via intermolecular interactions (Malomo et al., 2014).

307 **Figure 3A** did not reveal any significant differences in FC among the full fat powders. The  
308 FC ranged from 60 to 126%, and were low when compared with the reference ( $575 \pm 77\%$ ).  
309 Defatting markedly improved the FC of the Control powder from 94 to 540%. This observation  
310 is consistent with the findings of Akposan et al. (2015) that the FC of defatted flours were  
311 superior to that of full fat flours. In contrast to the Control, the FC of the fermented powders  
312 diminished upon defatting to 50 and 70%, respectively. These results demonstrate that the  
313 treatments used in this study (i.e. blanching and fermentation) may cause changes in the nature  
314 of proteins, which lead to changes in foaming properties. The FS of the powders ranged from  
315 47 to 92% (**Figure 3B**). Similar to the FC, results of FS showed no pronounced differences  
316 among the full fat mealworm powders. The foams of the defatted powders, and especially those  
317 of the fermented powders, were significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) more stable than the foams of the full  
318 fat powders and the reference ( $\pm 74\%$ ). If present, oil generally collects at the air-liquid interface  
319 and thus interferes with the alignment of the proteins and leads to a decrease in foam stability  
320 (Omowaye-Taiwo et al., 2015).

321 The mealworm powders showed superior foaming properties compared with those found in  
322 literature. For example, mealworm flours were reported to have a FC of 32% with a FS of 28%

323 after 30 min (Zielińska et al., 2018). Kim et al. (2019) reported a FC of 130% and a FS of 78%  
324 (30 min) for water-soluble proteins extracted from defatted mealworm flours. However, as the  
325 results differ in method of determination and calculation, they are difficult to compare.

### 326 3.2.3 Emulsion capacity and stability

327 To evaluate the emulsifying properties of the different mealworm powders, the EC and the  
328 ES were measured. The results, presented in **Figure 3(C-D)**, show that both parameters were  
329 significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) affected by fermentation. Without defatting, the EC decreased from  
330 51% to 5% and 7% upon fermentation with the starters Bactoferm® F-LC and *L. farciminis*,  
331 respectively, while the ES decreased from 74% to 0% and 18%. Reduction in emulsifying  
332 properties by fermentation has been observed earlier by Lampart-Szczapa et al. (2006) for lupin  
333 proteins. In this study, the lactic acid fermented lupin proteins were characterised by a lower  
334 hydrophobicity than non-modified lupin proteins and, as a consequence, by worse emulsifying  
335 properties. The emulsification properties of potato flours (Gong et al., 2019) and sorghum flour  
336 (Ogodo, Ugbogu, & Onyeagba, 2018), on the other hand, were improved by fermentation. Their  
337 soluble protein concentrations were increased during fermentation, which promotes oil droplet  
338 entrapment. Defatting significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) improved the EC of the fermented powders with  
339 31% and 42% for FLC and Far, respectively, whereas the EC of the Control was unaffected.  
340 The ES was either improved (d-Control) or deteriorated (d-FLC and d-Far) by defatting.

341 The EC and ES of non-fermented mealworm powder are in line with those of other studies  
342 on mealworm flours (Lee et al., 2019; Zielińska et al., 2018). In addition, their emulsification  
343 properties were not significantly different from commercial egg albumen powder, indicating its  
344 potential as alternative source of protein emulsifier for food formulations.

### 345 3.2.4 pH dependent protein solubility

346 **Figure 4** shows the protein solubility profiles of the mealworm powders in the pH range of  
347 2 to 12. The protein solubility of the Control decreased in the pH range 2 to 4, showed a

348 minimum solubility of 3% at pH 4, and gradually increased in the pH range 5 to 12. The highest  
349 solubility was found at pH 12 (77%). Using similar assay conditions, Bußler et al. (2016) and  
350 Zielińska et al. (2018) reported a maximum protein solubility of respectively 70% at pH 10 and  
351 97% at pH 11. In contrast, less than 3% of the proteins were soluble near the isoelectric point  
352 (pH 4-5). Defatting of the Control did not lead to an increased yield of soluble proteins. On the  
353 contrary, protein solubility was significantly decreased at low (2-3) and high (8, 10-12) pH  
354 values. Regardless of the starter culture used, the fermentation process led to a drastic decrease  
355 in protein solubility and shifted the isoelectric point from pH 4 to pH 6. Similar results were  
356 obtained during the fermentation of sorghum by Elkhailifa, Schiffler, & Bernhardt (2005). In  
357 this study, lactic acid fermentation shifted the isoelectric point of sorghum proteins by two pH  
358 units and decreased the protein solubility due to the exposure of hydrophobic groups.

359 Loss in solubility indicated denaturation or other structural changes of the mealworm  
360 proteins during processing. Both starter cultures tested in this study produced organic acids  
361 during fermentation as indicated by the pH reduction, which might have induced an irreversible  
362 coagulation of the proteins and thus a reduced solubility (Weng & Chen, 2010). Further, the  
363 fermentation process (including the blanching as pre-treatment) might have promoted  
364 aggregation and cross-linking of partially hydrolysed mealworms proteins, causing them to  
365 become insoluble (Paraman et al., 2007). In this context two molecular aspects need to be  
366 considered: on one side, due to partial hydrolysis occurring during the fermentation, the  
367 hydrophobic core of the proteins becomes exposed giving opportunity for aggregation of  
368 proteins based on non-covalent interactions. On the other side, the processing combined with  
369 fermentation generally leads to disulphide exchange between the exposed cysteine side chains,  
370 thus eventually promoting inter- and intramolecular covalent reactions. These two aspects  
371 promote the insolubility of the degradation products of the proteins.

372 3.2.5 Quantification of free amino groups and protein molecular weight distribution



373 The amount of free amino groups found via the OPA assay in the protein extracts from the  
374 non-fermented powder d-Control ( $13.31 \pm 2.19$  mM/g soluble protein) was significantly ( $p <$   
375  $0.05$ ) lower than those of the fermented powders d-FLC ( $130.13 \pm 2.06$  mM/g soluble protein)  
376 and d-Far ( $144.49 \pm 18.76$  mM/g soluble protein). The high amount of free amino groups in the  
377 fermented samples may be attributed to proteolytic degradation of proteins during fermentation.  
378 Degradation of proteins resulting in an increase in free amino groups has been detected in many  
379 fermented products, such as yoghurt (Tavakoli et al., 2019), Suanyu (fermented fish, Wang et  
380 al., 2017) and mao-tofu (fermented soybean, Zhao & Zheng, 2009). The observed increase in  
381 free amino groups may point towards a corresponding increase in the free carboxyl groups  
382 resulting from the enzymatic degradation of the peptide bonds. Both these observations  
383 implicate the possibility of stronger ionic interactions, supporting the formation of non-covalent  
384 bonds during the aggregation discussed above, and thus making these molecular forms  
385 insoluble over a broader pH range.

386 SDS-PAGE analysis of the mealworm powders (Figure 5A, left figure) showed proteins  
387 with molecule weights between 10 and 250 kDa. For the non-fermented sample, the 55 kDa  
388 band was the most intensive in the lane. For the fermented powders, there was a band at 55  
389 kDa, but between 70 and 100 kDa, there were also two clear bands. As can be seen in Figure  
390 5A (right figure) and contrary to what can be expected, in relative terms fermented mealworm  
391 powders were more abundant in medium (25-70 kDa) and high (70-250 kDa) molecular weight  
392 proteins and less abundant in low-molecular weight proteins (0-25 kDa) than the non-fermented  
393 powders. This relative increase in medium and high molecular weight proteins by fermentation  
394 is probably to be explained by the fact that (1) during fermentation some of the low-molecular  
395 weight proteins are consumed by the starter cultures to ensure their growth (and as a result the  
396 relative abundances of medium/high molecular weight proteins increases) and/or that (2) the  
397 proteins with a molecular weight of 70 kDa or higher originate from the added starter culture



398 cells. A further contribution to this observation may be related to macro protein structures that  
399 in the insects as such were not soluble, but become more accessible after the fermentation due  
400 to partial hydrolysis. Further in depth analysis is needed to characterize/identify the origin of  
401 these proteins and is envisaged in further studies. SDS-PAGE analysis of the soluble protein  
402 content of the non-fermented and fermented mealworm powders revealed that the fermentation  
403 process leads to a shift towards lower molecular weights of the proteins and that, depending on  
404 the pH, different protein fractions are soluble (Figure 5B-D). At pH 7, which was used for the  
405 evaluation of the emulsifying and foaming properties, the protein extract of the non-fermented  
406 mealworm powder was composed of 2.7% high molecular weight fraction, 72.1% medium  
407 molecular weight fraction and 9.8% low molecular weight fraction, whereas the protein fraction  
408 characterized by low molecular weights (0-15 kDa) were found to dominate the protein extracts  
409 of the fermented mealworm powders (57.4% and 80.9% for d-FLC and d-Far, respectively). As  
410 the molecular sizes of the soluble proteins decreased, it is clear that also the protein structure  
411 was modified by the fermentation process, which in turn leads to changes in techno-functional  
412 properties. Rahali et al. (2000) and Razali et al. (2015) reported that the surface hydrophobicity  
413 of the proteins is more important than the peptide length in emulsion and foaming properties.  
414 Most often, high surface hydrophobicity is needed to allow the formation of stable emulsions  
415 and foams. The hydrophilic/hydrophobic character of proteins is connected to their secondary,  
416 tertiary and quaternary structure and is caused by the amphiphilic character of amino acids and  
417 their accessibility in the polypeptide chain (Human et al., 2012). It could be hypothesized that  
418 the low molecular weight peptides produced by fermentation can migrate rapidly to the  
419 interface but that their hydrophilic/hydrophobic balance was insufficient for the stabilization of  
420 emulsions and foams.

#### 421 **4. Conclusions**

422 Previous research has shown that fermentation of mealworm paste with lactic acid starter  
423 cultures results in a rapid pH reduction, as an indication of a successful fermentation process.  
424 In this study, the effect of fermentation on the functional properties was considered. When after  
425 the fermentation the flour is not defatted, WBC and OBC are decreased, the FC and FS are not  
426 affected and the EC and ES are reduced. When after the fermentation the flour is defatted, the  
427 same effects can be seen, with the exception that WBC and FS are (somewhat) improved  
428 compared to the non-fermented control. The differences in protein functionality between the  
429 control and the fermented powders may be ascribed to differences in molecular size of the  
430 proteins as indicated by the analysis of protein distribution and probably due to differences in  
431 hydrophilic/hydrophobic arrangement. It has to be concluded that fermentation with lactic acid  
432 starter cultures should not be pursued as a processing technology to obtain food ingredients  
433 based on mealworms for functional properties considered in this research. Nevertheless, this  
434 study confirmed that non-fermented mealworm powder has functional properties that are  
435 comparable to other protein sources. In addition, fermentation of mealworms and other insects  
436 will further be investigated as a technology for taste and shelf life improvement.

#### 437 **Acknowledgements**

438 This work was supported by internal KU Leuven funds (C32/16/024 e “Fermentation of edible  
439 insects”. The Alexander von Humboldt Foundation funded the author Sagu T.S (Ref 3.4 - CMR  
440 - 1164093 - GF-P).

#### 441 **References**

442 Ojokoh, A. O., Fayemi, O. E., Ocloo, F. C. K., & Nwokolo, F. I. (2015). Effect of  
443 fermentation on proximate composition, physicochemical and microbial characteristics  
444 of pearl millet (*Pennisetum glaucum* (L.) R. Br.) and Acha (*Digitaria exilis* (Kippist)  
445 Stapf) flour blends. *Journal of Agricultural Biotechnology and Sustainable Development*,  
446 7(1), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.5897/jabsd2014.0236>

- 447 Akpossan, R., Digbeu, Y., Koffi, M., Kouadio, J., Dué, E., & Kouamé, P. (2015). Protein  
448 Fractions and Functional Properties of Dried Imbrasia oyemensis Larvae Full-Fat and  
449 Defatted Flours. *International Journal of Biochemistry Research & Review*, 5(2), 116–  
450 126. <https://doi.org/10.9734/ijbcrr/2015/12178>
- 451 Borremans, A., Crauwels, S., Vandeweyer, D., Smets, R., Verreth, C., Van Der Borgh, M.,  
452 Lievens, B., & Van Campenhout, L. (2019). Comparison of six commercial meat starter  
453 cultures for the fermentation of yellow mealworm (*Tenebrio molitor*) paste.  
454 *Microorganisms*, 7(11). <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms7110540>
- 455 Borremans, A., Lenaerts, S., Crauwels, S., Lievens, B., & Van Campenhout, L. (2018).  
456 Marination and fermentation of yellow mealworm larvae (*Tenebrio molitor*). *Food*  
457 *Control*, 92, 47–52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2018.04.036>
- 458 Broyard, C., & Gaucheron, F. (2015). Modifications of structures and functions of caseins: a  
459 scientific and technological challenge. *Dairy Science and Technology*, 95(6), 831–862.  
460 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13594-015-0220-y>
- 461 Bußler, S., Rumpold, B. A., Jander, E., Rawel, H. M., & Schlüter, O. K. (2016). Recovery and  
462 techno-functionality of flours and proteins from two edible insect species: Meal worm  
463 (*Tenebrio molitor*) and black soldier fly (*Hermetia illucens*) larvae. *Heliyon*, 2(12).  
464 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2016.e00218>
- 465 Çabuk, B., Nosworthy, M. G., Stone, A. K., Korber, D. R., Tanaka, T., House, J. D., &  
466 Nickerson, M. T. (2018). Effect of fermentation on the protein digestibility and levels of  
467 non-nutritive compounds of pea protein concentrate. *Food Technology and*  
468 *Biotechnology*, 56(2), 257–264. <https://doi.org/10.17113/ftb.56.02.18.5450>
- 469 De Smet, J., Lenaerts, S., Borremans, A., Scholliers, J., Van Der Borgh, M., & Van  
470 Campenhout, L. (2019). Stability assessment and laboratory scale fermentation of pastes  
471 produced on a pilot scale from mealworms (*Tenebrio molitor*). *Lwt*, 102(November

- 472 2018), 113–121. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2018.12.017>
- 473 Gong, S., Xie, F., Lan, X., Zhang, W., Gu, X., & Wang, Z. (2019). Effects of Fermentation on  
474 Compositions, Color, and Functional Properties of Gelatinized Potato Flours. *Journal of*  
475 *Food Science*, 85, 57–64. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.14837>
- 476 Gravel, A., & Doyen, A. (2020). The use of edible insect proteins in food: Challenges and  
477 issues related to their functional properties. *Innovative Food Science and Emerging*  
478 *Technologies*, 59(October 2019), 102272. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2019.102272>
- 479 Human, C., Aquaporins, P., & Nordén, K. (2012). *From Sequence to Structure*. 1–47.
- 480 Kim, H. W., Setyabrata, D., Lee, Y. J., Jones, O. G., & Kim, Y. H. B. (2016). Pre-treated  
481 mealworm larvae and silkworm pupae as a novel protein ingredient in emulsion  
482 sausages. *Innovative Food Science and Emerging Technologies*, 38, 116–123.  
483 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2016.09.023>
- 484 Klupsaite, D., Juodeikiene, G., Zadeike, D., Bartkiene, E., Maknickiene, Z., & Liutkute, G.  
485 (2017). The influence of lactic acid fermentation on functional properties of narrow-  
486 leaved lupine protein as functional additive for higher value wheat bread. *LWT - Food*  
487 *Science and Technology*, 75, 180–186. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2016.08.058>
- 488 Lampart-Szczapa, E., Konieczny, P., Nogala-Kałużka, M., Walczak, S., Kossowska, I., &  
489 Malinowska, M. (2006). Some functional properties of lupin proteins modified by lactic  
490 fermentation and extrusion. *Food Chemistry*, 96(2), 290–296.  
491 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2005.02.031>
- 492 Lee, H., Kim, J., Ji, D., & Lee, C. (2019). Effects of Heating Time and Temperature on  
493 Functional Properties of Proteins of Yellow Mealworm Larvae (*Tenebrio molitor* L.).  
494 *Food Science of Animal Resources*, 39(2), 296–308.  
495 <https://doi.org/10.5851/kosfa.2019.e24>
- 496 Lenaerts, S., Van Der Borght, M., Callens, A., & Van Campenhout, L. (2018). Suitability of

- 497 microwave drying for mealworms (*Tenebrio molitor*) as alternative to freeze drying:  
498 Impact on nutritional quality and colour. *Food Chemistry*, 254(February), 129–136.  
499 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2018.02.006>
- 500 Malomo, S. A., He, R., & Aluko, R. E. (2014). Structural and functional properties of hemp  
501 seed protein products. *Journal of Food Science*, 79(8). [https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-](https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.12537)  
502 [3841.12537](https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.12537)
- 503 Nkhata, S. G., Ayua, E., Kamau, E. H., & Shingiro, J. B. (2018). Fermentation and  
504 germination improve nutritional value of cereals and legumes through activation of  
505 endogenous enzymes. *Food Science and Nutrition*, 6(8), 2446–2458.  
506 <https://doi.org/10.1002/fsn3.846>
- 507 Ogodo, A. C., Ugbogu, O. C., & Onyeagba, R. A. (2018). Variations in the functional  
508 properties of soybean flour fermented with lactic acid bacteria. *International Journal of*  
509 *Biology and Biomedical Engineering*, 12(January), 1–6. [https://doi.org/10.4172/2471-](https://doi.org/10.4172/2471-9315.1000141)  
510 [9315.1000141](https://doi.org/10.4172/2471-9315.1000141)
- 511 Ogodo, A. C., Ugbogu, O. C., Onyeagba, R. A., & Okereke, H. C. (2018). In-vitro starch and  
512 protein digestibility and proximate composition of soybean flour fermented with lactic  
513 acid bacteria (LAB) consortia. *Agriculture and Natural Resources*, 52(5), 503–509.  
514 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anres.2018.10.001>
- 515 Omowaye-Taiwo, O. A., Fagbemi, T. N., Ogunbusola, E. M., & Badejo, A. A. (2015). Effect  
516 of germination and fermentation on the proximate composition and functional properties  
517 of full-fat and defatted cucumeropsis mannii seed flours. *Journal of Food Science and*  
518 *Technology*, 52(8), 5257–5263. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-014-1569-2>
- 519 Paraman, I., Hettiarachchy, N. S., Schaefer, C., & Beck, M. I. (2007). Hydrophobicity,  
520 solubility, and emulsifying properties of enzyme-modified rice endosperm protein.  
521 *Cereal Chemistry*, 84(4), 343–349. <https://doi.org/10.1094/CCHEM-84-4-0343>

- 522 Rahali, V., Chobert, J. M., Haertlé, T., & Guéguen, J. (2000). Emulsification of chemical and  
523 enzymatic hydrolysates of  $\beta$ -lactoglobulin: Characterization of the peptides adsorbed at  
524 the interface. *Nahrung - Food*, 44(2), 89–95. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(sici\)1521-](https://doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1521-3803(20000301)44:2<89::aid-food89>3.3.co;2-1)  
525 [3803\(20000301\)44:2<89::aid-food89>3.3.co;2-1](https://doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1521-3803(20000301)44:2<89::aid-food89>3.3.co;2-1)
- 526 Razali, A. N., Amin, A. M., & Sarbon, N. M. (2015). Antioxidant activity and functional  
527 properties of fractionated cobia skin gelatin hydrolysate at different molecular weight.  
528 *International Food Research Journal*, 22(2), 651–660.
- 529 Rumpold, B. A., & Schlüter, O. K. (2013). Potential and challenges of insects as an  
530 innovative source for food and feed production. *Innovative Food Science and Emerging*  
531 *Technologies*, 17, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2012.11.005>
- 532 Tavakoli, M., Habibi Najafi, M. B., & Mohebbi, M. (2019). Effect of the milk fat content and  
533 starter culture selection on proteolysis and antioxidant activity of probiotic yogurt.  
534 *Heliyon*, 5(2). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2019.e01204>
- 535 Van Huis, A. (2016). Edible insects are the future? *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*,  
536 75(3), 294–305. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0029665116000069>
- 537 Wang, W., Xia, W., Gao, P., Xu, Y., & Jiang, Q. (2017). Proteolysis during fermentation of  
538 Suanyu as a traditional fermented fish product of China. *International Journal of Food*  
539 *Properties*, 20(1), S166–S176. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10942912.2017.1293089>
- 540 Yi, L., Lakemond, C. M. M., Sagis, L. M. C., Eisner-Schadler, V., Huis, A. Van, & Boekel,  
541 M. A. J. S. V. (2013). Extraction and characterisation of protein fractions from five  
542 insect species. *Food Chemistry*, 141(4), 3341–3348.  
543 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.05.115>
- 544 Zhao, Xinhui, & Zheng, X. (2009). A primary study on texture modification and proteolysis  
545 of mao-tofu during fermentation. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 8(10), 2294–2300.  
546 <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJB2009.000-9293>

547 Zhao, Xue, Vázquez-Gutiérrez, J. L., Johansson, D. P., Landberg, R., & Langton, M. (2016).

548 Yellow mealworm protein for food purposes - Extraction and functional properties. *PLoS*

549 *ONE*, 11(2), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0147791>

550 Zielińska, E., Karaś, M., & Baraniak, B. (2018). Comparison of functional properties of

551 edible insects and protein preparations thereof. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*,

552 91(October 2017), 168–174. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2018.01.058>

553

#### 554 **List of figure legends**

555 **Figure 1.** Figure 1: Schematic representation of sample preparation (A) and overview of the

556 performed analyses (B).

557

558 **Figure 2.** Water (WBC, red) and oil (OBC, green) binding capacity of full fat (Control, FLC

559 and Far) and defatted (d-Control, d-FLC, d-Far) mealworm powders. Data are expressed as

560 mean  $\pm$  standard deviations ( $n = 3$ ). Different letters (a,b,c,d for WBC and A,B,C,D for OBC)

561 indicate significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) differences between means.

562

563 **Figure 3.** Foaming capacity (A), foaming stability (B), emulsion activity (C) and emulsion

564 stability (D) of extracted protein solutions (0.25% w/v) from full fat (Control and the fermented

565 samples FLC and FAR) and defatted (d-Control and the fermented samples d-FLC and d-Far)

566 mealworm powders. Egg albumen solutions (0.25% w/v) were included as reference. Data are

567 expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviations ( $n = 5$ ). Different letters (a,b,c,d) indicate significant

568 ( $p < 0.05$ ) differences between means.

569

570 **Figure 4.** Protein solubility of the full fat (Control and the fermented samples FLC and FAR)

571 and defatted (d-Control and the fermented samples d-FLC and d-Far) mealworm powders as a

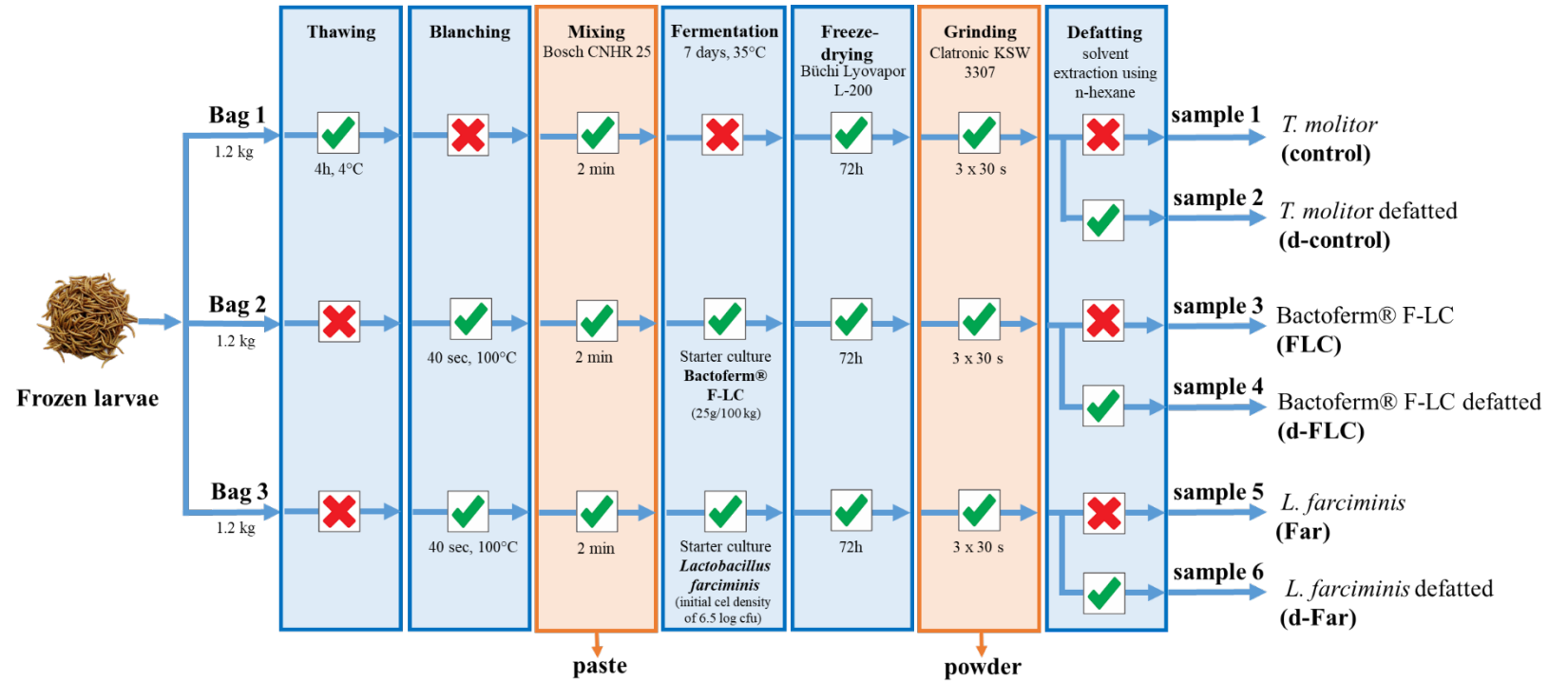
572 function of pH. Protein solubility [%] is presented to the total protein content analysed via  
573 Kjeldahl method.

574

575 **Figure 5.** Gel electrophoresis (left) and relative composition (left) of mealworm powders (A)  
576 and soluble mealworm protein fractions (Control: regular mealworm paste (B), d-FLC:  
577 mealworm paste fermented with the starter Bactoferm® F-LC (C), and d-Far: mealworm paste  
578 fermented with the starter *Lactobacillus farciminis* (D)) at different pH. Proteins are classified  
579 in four groups: Low molecular weight (0-15 kDa), medium molecular weight (15-25 kDa and  
580 25-75 kDa) and high molecular weight (70-250 kDa).

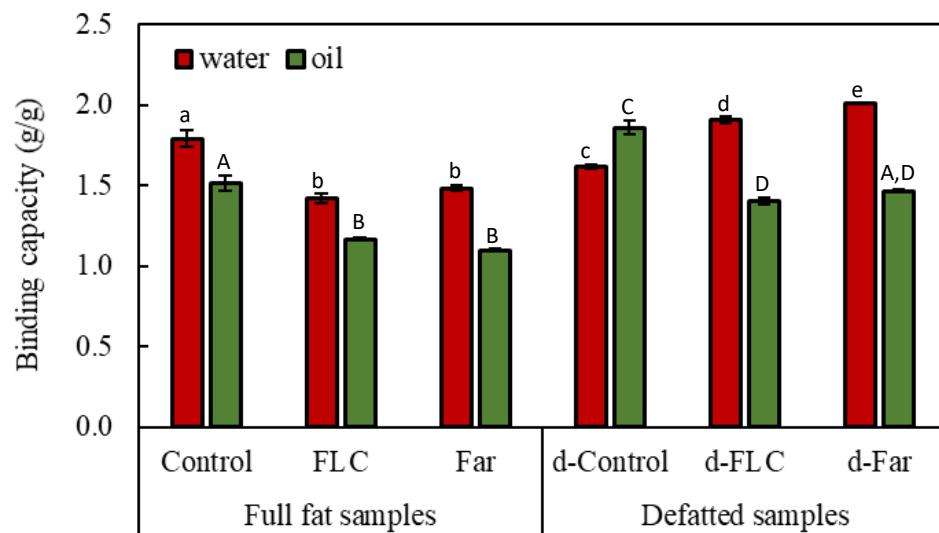


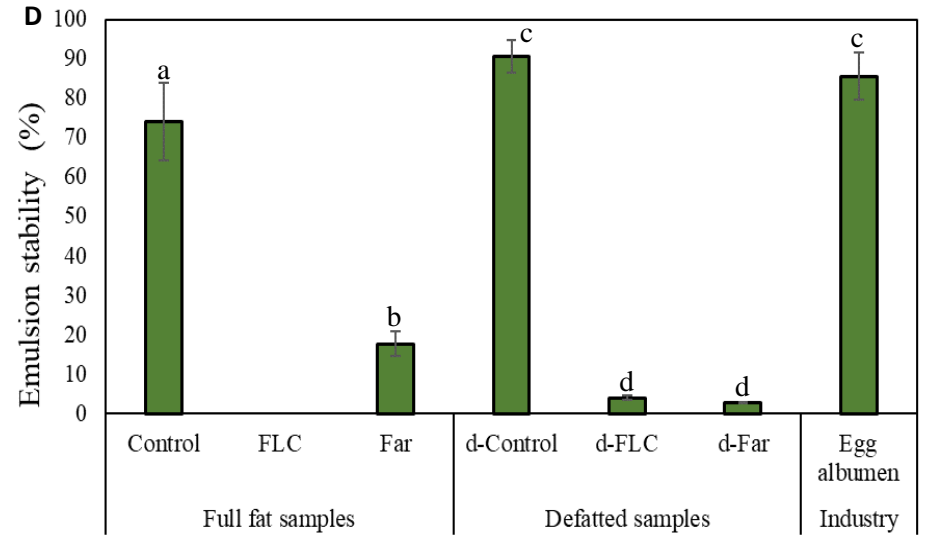
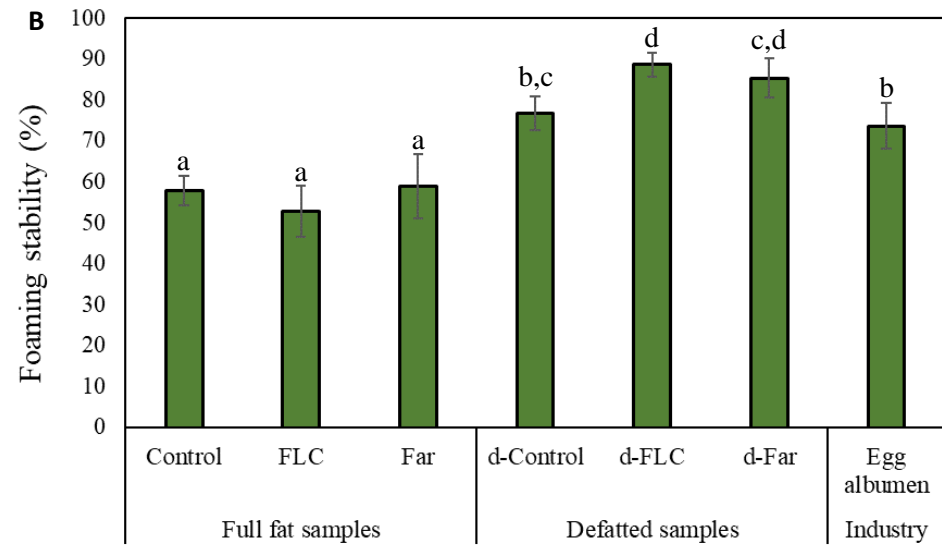
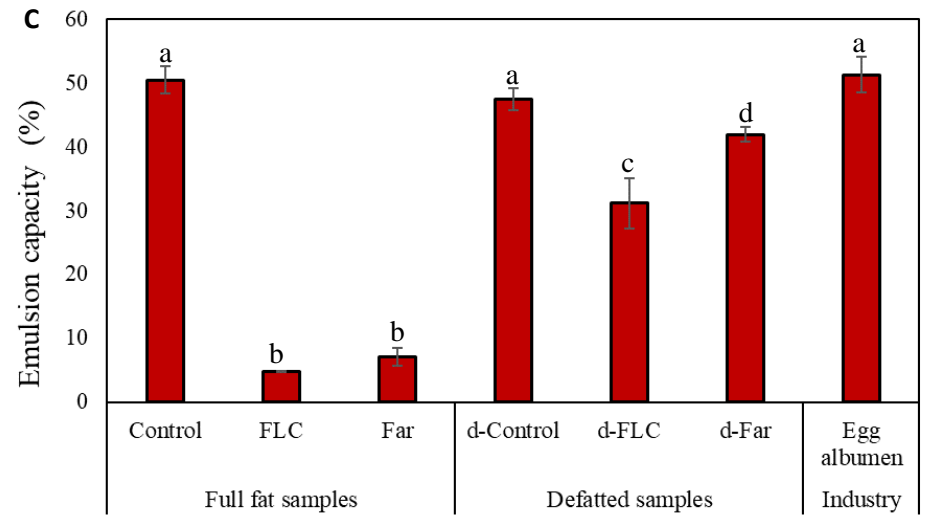
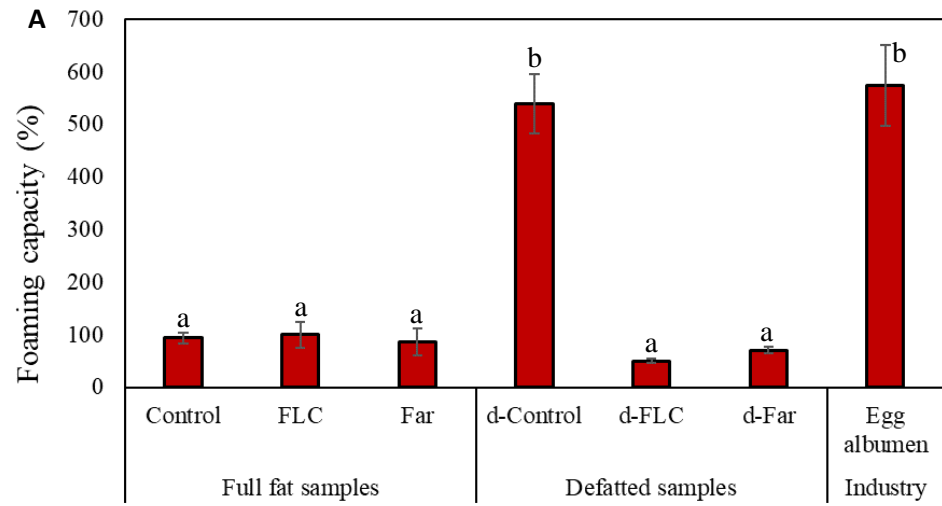
**A**

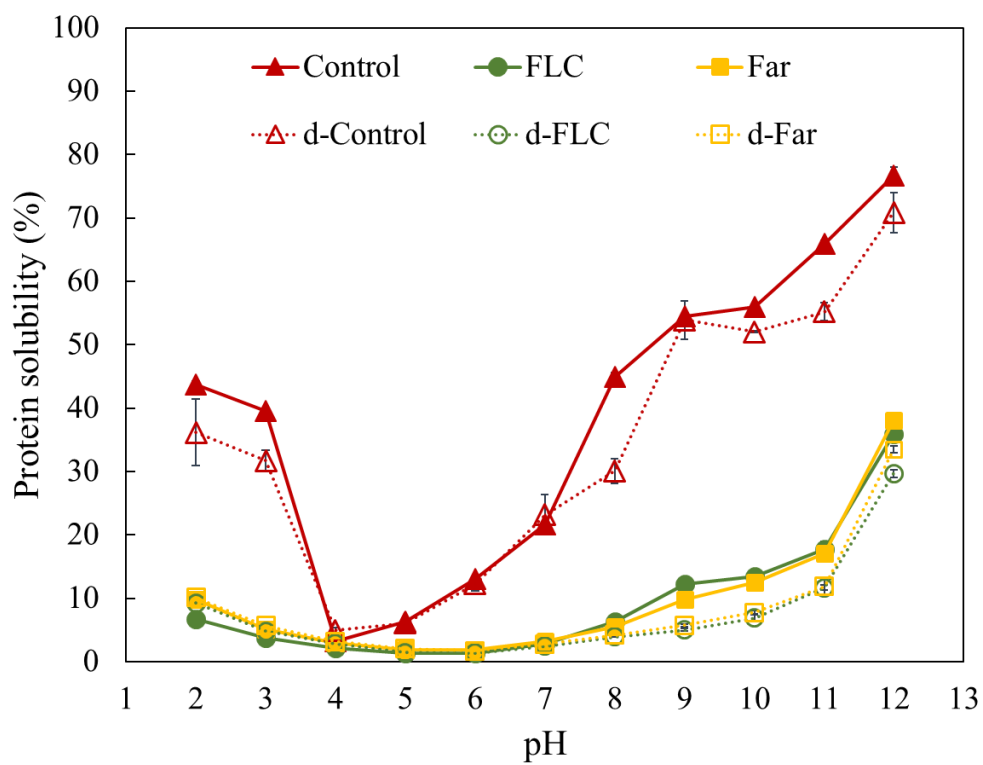


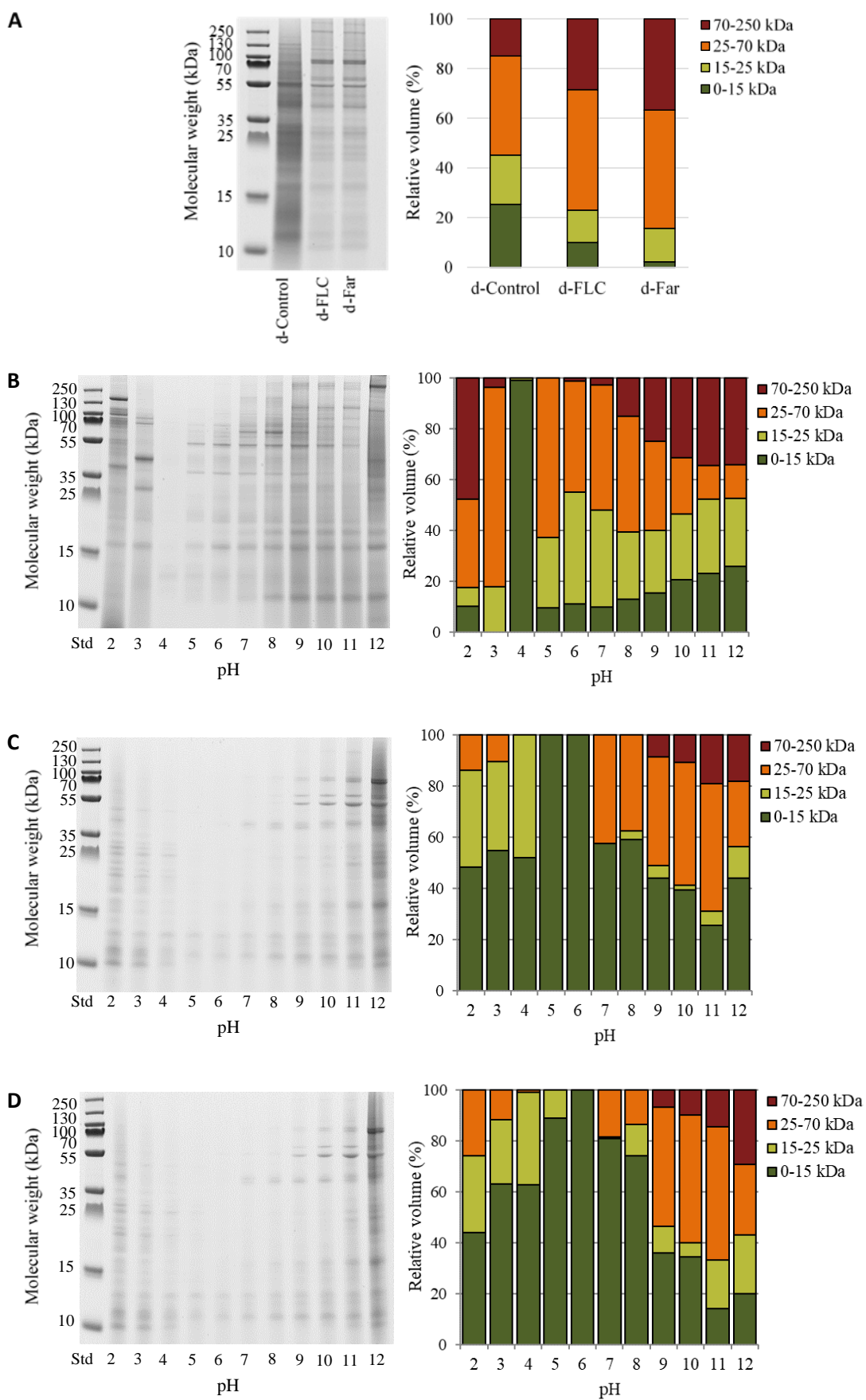
**B**

	Control	d-Control	FLC	d-FLC	Far	d-Far	Egg albumen
<b>Characterization of mealworm powders</b>							
✓ Dry matter content, crude protein & crude fat	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
✓ pH	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
<b>Characterization of techno-functional powder properties</b>							
✓ Water and oil binding capacity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
✓ Foaming capacity and stability	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
✓ Emulsion activity and stability	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Protein property analysis</b>							
✓ pH dependent protein solubility	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
✓ Quantification of free amino groups (OPA)	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗
✓ Protein composition (SDS-PAGE)	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗









**Table 1.** Means  $\pm$  standard deviations (n = 3) of dry matter (DM), crude protein (CP), crude fat content (CF) and pH of full fat (Control and the samples fermented with Bactoferm® F-LC and *Lactobacillus farciminis*, FLC and Far) and defatted powders (d-Control and the fermented samples d-FLC and d-Far) produced from unfermented and fermented mealworm larvae (*Tenebrio molitor*).

Powder	DM [g/100g as is]	CP [g/100 g DM]	CF [g/100 g DM]	pH [-]
Control	96.26 $\pm$ 0.43 <sup>a</sup>	49.68 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>a</sup>	16.61 $\pm$ 0.23 <sup>a</sup>	6.28 $\pm$ 0.05 <sup>a</sup>
FLC	95.76 $\pm$ 0.13 <sup>a</sup>	42.60 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>b</sup>	21.05 $\pm$ 0.43 <sup>b</sup>	4.60 $\pm$ 0.04 <sup>b</sup>
Far	96.08 $\pm$ 0.10 <sup>a</sup>	44.55 $\pm$ 0.04 <sup>c</sup>	20.20 $\pm$ 0.31 <sup>c</sup>	4.64 $\pm$ 0.04 <sup>b,c</sup>
d-Control	94.35 $\pm$ 0.21 <sup>b</sup>	67.89 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>d</sup>	3.37 $\pm$ 0.10 <sup>d</sup>	6.28 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>a</sup>
d-FLC	92.19 $\pm$ 0.07 <sup>c</sup>	61.94 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>e</sup>	5.13 $\pm$ 0.21 <sup>e</sup>	4.72 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>c,d</sup>
d-Far	92.21 $\pm$ 0.07 <sup>c</sup>	61.86 $\pm$ 0.04 <sup>e</sup>	3.17 $\pm$ 0.15 <sup>d</sup>	4.75 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>d</sup>

<sup>a, b, c, d, e</sup> Mean values within a column with the same superscript are not statistically different (P > 0.05).