

# Molecular interactions governing the incorporation of cholecalciferol and retinyl-palmitate in mixed taurocholate-lipid micelles

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1           **Molecular interactions governing the incorporation of cholecalciferol and retinyl-**  
2                                   **palmitate in mixed taurocholate-lipid micelles**

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18  
19  
20 **Abbreviations:** NaTC (sodium taurocholate), RP (retinyl palmitate), D<sub>3</sub> (cholecalciferol), cmc  
21 (critical micelle concentration), cac (critical aggregation concentration), LDP (lipid digestion  
22 products), PC (phosphatidylcholine), Lyso-PC (L- $\alpha$ -lysophosphatidylcholine palmitoyl), POPC  
23 (2-oleoyl-1-palmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine).

26

27 **Abstract**

28 Cholecalciferol (D<sub>3</sub>) and retinyl palmitate (RP) are the two main fat-soluble vitamins found in  
29 foods from animal origin. It is assumed that they are solubilized in mixed micelles prior to their  
30 uptake by intestinal cells, but only scarce data are available on the relative efficiency of this  
31 process and the molecular interactions that govern it. The extent of solubilization of D<sub>3</sub> and RP  
32 in micelles composed of lipids and sodium taurocholate (NaTC) was determined. Then, the  
33 molecular interactions between components were analyzed by surface tension and surface  
34 pressure measurements. The mixture of lipids and NaTC allowed formation of micelles with  
35 higher molecular order, and at lower concentrations than pure NaTC molecules. D<sub>3</sub>  
36 solubilization in the aqueous phase rich in mixed micelles was several times higher than that of  
37 RP. This was explained by interactions between NaTC or lipids and D<sub>3</sub> thermodynamically  
38 more favorable than with RP, and by D<sub>3</sub> self-association.

39

40 **Keywords:** bioaccessibility; surface pressure; bile salt; compression isotherm; lipid monolayer;  
41 vitamin A; vitamin D; phospholipid.

42

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45

46 Retinyl esters and cholecalciferol (D<sub>3</sub>) (Figure 1) are the two main fat-soluble vitamins  
47 found in foods of animal origin. There is a renewed interest in deciphering their absorption  
48 mechanisms because vitamin A and D deficiency is a public health concern in numerous  
49 countries, and it is thus of relevance to identify factors limiting their absorption to tackle this  
50 global issue. The fate of these vitamins in the human upper gastrointestinal tract during

51 digestion is assumed to follow that of dietary lipids (Borel *et al.* 2015). This includes  
52 emulsification, solubilization in mixed micelles, diffusion across the unstirred water layer and  
53 uptake by the enterocyte via passive diffusion or apical membrane proteins (Reboul *et al.* 2011).  
54 Briefly, following consumption of vitamin-rich food sources, the food matrix starts to undergo  
55 degradation in the acidic environment of the stomach, which contains several enzymes, leading  
56 to a partial release of these lipophilic molecules and to their transfer to the lipid phase of the  
57 meal. Upon reaching the duodenum, the food matrix is further degraded by pancreatic  
58 secretions, promoting additional release from the food matrix, and both vitamins then transfer  
59 from oil-in-water emulsions to mixed micelles (and possibly other structures, such as vesicles,  
60 although not demonstrated yet). As it is assumed that only free retinol can be taken up by  
61 enterocytes, retinyl esters are hydrolyzed by pancreatic enzymes, namely pancreatic lipase,  
62 pancreatic lipase-related protein 2 and cholesterol ester hydrolase (Desmarchelier *et al.* 2013).  
63 Bioaccessible vitamins are then taken up by enterocytes via simple passive diffusion or  
64 facilitated diffusion mediated by apical membrane proteins (Desmarchelier *et al.* 2017). The  
65 apical membrane protein(s) involved in retinol uptake by enterocytes is(are) yet to be identified  
66 but in the case of D<sub>3</sub>, three proteins have been shown to facilitate its uptake: NPC1L1 (NPC1  
67 like intracellular cholesterol transporter 1), SR-BI (scavenger receptor class B member 1) and  
68 CD36 (Cluster of differentiation 36) (Reboul & Borel 2011). Both vitamins then transfer across  
69 the enterocyte towards the basolateral side. The transfer of vitamin A is mediated, at least partly,  
70 by the cellular retinol-binding protein, type II (CRBP<sub>II</sub>), while that of vitamin D is carried out  
71 by unknown mechanisms. Additionally, a fraction of retinol is re-esterified by several enzymes  
72 (Borel & Desmarchelier 2017). Vitamin A and D are then incorporated in chylomicrons in the  
73 Golgi apparatus before secretion in the lymph.

74           The solubilization of vitamins A and D in mixed micelles, also called micellarization or  
75 micellization, is considered as a key step for their bioavailability because it is assumed that the

76 non-negligible fraction of fat-soluble vitamin that is not micellarized is not absorbed  
77 (Desmarchelier *et al.* 2013). Mixed micelles are mainly made of a mixture of bile salts,  
78 phospholipids and lysophospholipids, cholesterol, fatty acids and monoglycerides (Hernell *et*  
79 *al.* 1990). These compounds may form various self-assembled structures, e.g., spherical,  
80 cylindrical or disk-shaped micelles (Walter *et al.* 1991, Leng *et al.* 2003) or vesicles, depending  
81 on their concentration, the bile salt/phospholipid ratio (Walter *et al.* 1991), the phospholipid  
82 concentration, but also the ionic strength, pH and temperature of the aqueous medium  
83 (Madency & Egelhaaf 2010; Salentinig *et al.* 2010; Cheng *et al.* 2014). Fat-soluble  
84 micronutrients display large variations with regards to their solubility in mixed micelles (Sy *et*  
85 *al.* 2012; Gleize *et al.* 2016) and several factors are assumed to account for these differences  
86 (Desmarchelier & Borel 2017, for review).

87         The mixed micelle lipid composition has been shown to significantly affect vitamin  
88 absorption. For example, the substitution of lysophospholipids by phospholipids diminished the  
89 lymphatic absorption of vitamin E in rats (Koo *et al.* 2001). In rat perfused intestine, the addition  
90 of fatty acids of varying chain length and saturation degree, i.e. butyric, octanoic, oleic and  
91 linoleic acid, resulted in a decrease in the rate of D<sub>3</sub> absorption (Hollander *et al.* 1978). The  
92 effect was more pronounced in the ileal part of the small intestine following the addition of  
93 oleic and linoleic acid. It was suggested that unlike short- and medium-chain fatty acids, which  
94 are not incorporated into micelles, long-chain fatty acids hinder vitamin D absorption by  
95 causing enlargement of micelle size, thereby slowing their diffusion towards the enterocyte.  
96 Moreover, the possibility that D<sub>3</sub> could form self-aggregates in water (Meredith *et al.* 1984),  
97 although not clearly demonstrated, has led to question the need of mixed micelles for its  
98 solubilization in the aqueous environment of the intestinal tract lumen (Rautureau and Rambaud  
99 1981; Maislos and Shany 1987).

100 This study was designed to compare the relative solubility of D<sub>3</sub> and RP in the aqueous  
101 phase rich in mixed micelles that exists in the upper intestinal lumen during digestion, and to  
102 dissect, by surface tension and surface pressure measurements, the molecular interactions  
103 existing between these vitamins and the mixed micelle components that explain the different  
104 solubility of D<sub>3</sub> and RP in mixed micelles.

105

## 106 **2. Materials and methods**

### 107 *2.1. Chemicals*

108 2-oleoyl-1-palmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (POPC) (phosphatidylcholine,  
109  $\geq 99\%$ ; Mw 760.08 g/mol), 1-palmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (Lyso-PC)  
110 (lysophosphatidylcholine,  $\geq 99\%$ ; Mw 495.63 g/mol), free cholesterol ( $\geq 99\%$ ; Mw 386.65  
111 g/mol), oleic acid (reagent grade,  $\geq 99\%$ ; Mw 282.46 g/mol), 1-monooleoyl-*rac*-glycerol  
112 (monoolein, C18:1,-*cis*-9, Mw 356.54 g/mol), taurocholic acid sodium salt hydrate (NaTC)  
113 ( $\geq 95\%$ ; Mw 537.68 g/mol), cholecalciferol ( $> 98\%$ ; Mw 384.64 g/mol; melting point 84.5°C;  
114 solubility in water:  $10^{-4}$ - $10^{-5}$  mg/mL; logP 7.5) and retinyl palmitate ( $> 93.5\%$ ; Mw 524.86  
115 g/mol; melting point 28.5°C; logP 13.6) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint-Quentin-  
116 Fallavier, France). Chloroform and methanol (99% pure) were analytical grade reagents from  
117 Merck (Germany). Ethanol (99.9%), n-hexane, chloroform, acetonitrile, dichloromethane and  
118 methanol were HPLC grade reagents from Carlo Erba Reagent (Peypin, France). Ultrapure  
119 water was produced by a Milli-Q<sup>®</sup> Direct 8 Water Purification System (Millipore, Molsheim,  
120 France). Prior to all surface tension, and surface pressure experiments, all glassware was soaked  
121 for an hour in a freshly prepared hot TFD4 (Franklab, Guyancourt, France) detergent solution  
122 (15% v/v), and then thoroughly rinsed with ultrapure water. Physico-chemical properties of D<sub>3</sub>  
123 and RP were retrieved from PubChem (<https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>).

124

125        2.2. *Micelle formation*

126            The micellar mixture contained 0.3 mM monoolein, 0.5 mM oleic acid, 0.04 mM POPC,  
127 0.1 mM cholesterol, 0.16 mM Lyso-PC, and 5 mM NaTC (Reboul *et al.* 2005). Total component  
128 concentration was thus 6.1 mM, with NaTC amounting to 82 mol%. Two vitamins were studied:  
129 crystalline D<sub>3</sub> and RP.

130 Mixed micelles were formed according to the protocol described by Desmarchelier *et al.*  
131 (2013). Lipid digestion products (LDP) (monoolein, oleic acid, POPC, cholesterol and Lyso-  
132 PC, total concentration 1.1 mM) dissolved in chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v), and D<sub>3</sub> or RP  
133 dissolved in ethanol were transferred to a glass tube and the solvent mixture was carefully  
134 evaporated under nitrogen. The dried residue was dispersed in Tris buffer (Tris-HCl 1mM,  
135 CaCl<sub>2</sub> 5mM, NaCl 100 mM, pH 6.0) containing 5 mM taurocholate, and incubated at 37 °C for  
136 30 min. The solution was then vigorously mixed by sonication at 25 W (Branson 250W sonifier;  
137 Danbury, CT, U.S.A.) for 2 min, and incubated at 37 °C for 1 hour. To determine the amount  
138 of vitamin solubilized in structures allowing their subsequent absorption by enterocytes  
139 (bioaccessible fraction), *i.e.* micelles and possibly small lipid vesicles, whose size is smaller  
140 than that of mucus pores (Cone 2009), the solutions were filtered through cellulose ester  
141 membranes (0.22 µm) (Millipore), according to Tyssandier *et al.* 2003. The resulting optically  
142 clear solution was stored at -20 °C until vitamin extraction and HPLC analysis. D<sub>3</sub> and RP  
143 concentrations were measured by HPLC before and after filtration. For surface tension  
144 measurements and cryoTEM experiments, the mixed micelle systems were not filtered.

145

146        2.3. *Self-micellarization of D<sub>3</sub>*

147            Molecular assemblies of D<sub>3</sub> were prepared in Tris buffer using the same protocol as for  
148 mixed micelles. D<sub>3</sub> was dissolved into the solvent mixture and after evaporation, the dry film  
149 was hydrated for 30 min at 37°C with taurocholate-free buffer. The suspension was then

150 sonicated. All D<sub>3</sub> concentrations reported in the surface tension measurements were obtained  
151 from independent micellarization experiments - not from the dilution of one concentrated D<sub>3</sub>  
152 solution.

153

#### 154 *2.4. Surface tension measurements*

155 Mixed micelle solutions were prepared as described above, at concentrations ranging  
156 from 5.5 nM to 55 mM, with the same proportion of components as previously mentioned. The  
157 surface tension of LDP mixtures hydrated with a taurocholate-free buffer, and that of pure  
158 taurocholate solutions were also measured at various concentrations. The solutions were poured  
159 into glass cuvettes. The aqueous surface was cleaned by suction, and the solutions were left at  
160 rest under saturated vapor pressure for 24 hours before measurements. For penetration studies,  
161 glass cuvettes with a side arm were used, allowing injection of NaTC beneath a spread LDP or  
162 vitamin monolayer. Surface tension measurements were performed by the Wilhelmy plate  
163 method, using a thermostated automatic digital tensiometer (K10 Krüss, Germany). The surface  
164 tension  $\gamma$  was recorded continuously as a function of time until equilibrium was reached. All  
165 experiments were performed at  $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  under saturated vapor pressure to maintain a constant  
166 level of liquid. The reported values are mean of three measurements. The experimental  
167 uncertainty was estimated to be 0.2 mN/m. Surface pressure ( $\pi$ ) values were deduced from the  
168 relationship  $\pi = \gamma_0 - \gamma$ , with  $\gamma_0$  the surface tension of the subphase and  $\gamma$  the surface tension in  
169 the presence of a film.

170

#### 171 *2.5. Surface pressure measurements*

172 Surface pressure-area  $\pi$ -A isotherms of the LDP and LDP-vitamin mixtures were  
173 obtained using a thermostated Langmuir film trough (775.75 cm<sup>2</sup>, Biolin Scientific, Finland)  
174 enclosed into a Plexiglas box (Essaid *et al.* 2016). Solutions of lipids in a chloroform/methanol



175 (9:1, v/v) mixture were spread onto a clean buffer subphase. Monolayers were left at rest for 20  
176 minutes to allow complete evaporation of the solvents. They were then compressed at low speed  
177 ( $6.5 \text{ \AA}^2 \cdot \text{molecule}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ ) to minimize the occurrence of metastable phases. The experimental  
178 uncertainty was estimated to be 0.1 mN/m. All experiments were run at  $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Mean  
179 isotherms were deduced from at least three compression isotherms. The surface compressional  
180 moduli  $K$  of monolayers were calculated using Eq. 1:

$$181 \quad K = -A \left( \frac{d\pi}{dA} \right)_T \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

182 Excess free energies of mixing were calculated according to Eq. 2:

$$183 \quad \Delta G^{EXC} = \int_0^\pi (X_L A_L + X_{VIT} A_{VIT}) d\pi \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

184 with  $X_L$  and  $A_L$  the molar fraction and molecular area of lipid molecules, and  $X_{VIT}$  and  $A_{VIT}$  the  
185 molar fraction and molecular area of vitamin molecules, respectively (Ambike *et al.* 2011).

186

## 187 2.6. Cryo-TEM analysis

188 A drop (5  $\mu\text{L}$ ) of LDP-NaTC micellar solution (15 mM), LDP-NaTC- $\text{D}_3$  (3:1 molar ratio) or  
189 pure  $\text{D}_3$  “micellar suspension” (5 mM, theoretical concentration) was deposited onto a  
190 perforated carbon-coated, copper grid (TedPella, Inc); the excess of liquid was blotted with a  
191 filter paper. The grid was immediately plunged into a liquid ethane bath cooled with liquid  
192 nitrogen ( $180^\circ\text{C}$ ) and then mounted on a cryo holder (Da Cunha *et al.* 2016). Transmission  
193 electron measurements (TEM) measurements were performed just after grid preparation using  
194 a JEOL 2200FS (JEOL USA, Inc., Peabody, MA, U.S.A.) working under an acceleration  
195 voltage of 200 kV (Institut Curie). Electron micrographs were recorded by a CCD camera  
196 (Gatan, Evry, France).

197

## 198 2.7. Vitamin analysis

### 199 2.7.1. Vitamin extraction.

200 D<sub>3</sub> and RP were extracted from 500 µL aqueous samples using the following method  
201 (Desmarchelier *et al.* 2013): retinyl acetate was used as an internal standard and was added to  
202 the samples in 500 µL ethanol. The mixture was extracted twice with two volumes of hexane.  
203 The hexane phases obtained after centrifugation (1200 × g, 10 min, 10°C) were evaporated to  
204 dryness under nitrogen, and the dried extract was dissolved in 200 µL of  
205 acetonitrile/dichloromethane/methanol (70:20:10, v/v/v). A volume of 150 µL was used for  
206 HPLC analysis. Extraction efficiency was between 75 and 100%. Sample whose extraction  
207 efficiency was below 75% were re-extracted or taken out from the analysis.

208

### 209 2.7.2. Vitamin HPLC analysis.

210 D<sub>3</sub>, and RP and retinyl acetate were separated using a 250 x 4.6-nm RP C18, 5-µm Zorbax  
211 Eclipse XDB column (Agilent Technologies, Les Ulis, France) and a guard column. The mobile  
212 phase was a mixture of acetonitrile/dichloromethane/methanol (70:20:10, v/v/v). Flow rate was  
213 1.8 mL/min and the column was kept at a constant temperature (35 °C). The HPLC system  
214 comprised a Dionex separation module (P680 HPLC pump and ASI-100 automated sample  
215 injector, Dionex, Aix-en-Provence, France). D<sub>3</sub> was detected at 265 nm while retinyl esters  
216 were detected at 325 nm and were identified by retention time compared with pure (>95%)  
217 standards. Quantification was performed using Chromeleon software (version 6.50, SP4 Build  
218 1000) comparing the peak area with standard reference curves. All solvents used were HPLC  
219 grade.

220

## 221 2.8. Statistical analysis

222 Results are expressed as means  $\pm$  standard deviation. Statistical analyses were  
223 performed using Statview software version 5.0 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, U.S.A.). Means were  
224 compared by the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test, followed by Mann-Whitney U test as a  
225 post hoc test for pairwise comparisons, when the mean difference using the Kruskal-Wallis test  
226 was found to be significant ( $P < 0.05$ ). For all tests, the bilateral alpha risk was  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

227

### 228 3. Results

229

#### 230 3.1. Solubilization of $D_3$ and RP in aqueous solutions rich in mixed micelles

231  $D_3$  and RP at various concentrations were mixed with micelle components (LDP-NaTC).  
232  $D_3$  and RP concentrations were measured by HPLC before and after filtration of aggregates  
233 with a diameter smaller than  $0.22 \mu\text{m}$  (Figure 2).  $D_3$  and RP solubilization in the solution that  
234 contained mixed micelle solution followed different curves:  $D_3$  solubilization was linear  
235 ( $R^2 = 0.98$ , regression slope = 0.71) and significantly higher than that of RP, which reached a  
236 plateau with a maximum concentration around  $125 \mu\text{M}$ .

237 The morphology of the LDP-NaTC and LDP-NaTC- $D_3$  samples before filtration was  
238 analyzed by cryoTEM. In Figure 3, micelles are too small to be distinguished from ice. At high  
239 LDP-NaTC concentration (15 mM) small and large unilamellar vesicles (*a*), nano-fibers (*b*) and  
240 aggregates (*c*) are observed (Figure 3A). Both nano-fibers and aggregates seem to emerge from  
241 the vesicles. In the presence of  $D_3$  at low micelle and  $D_3$  concentration (5 mM LDP-NaTC +  
242 1.7 mM  $D_3$ ) (Figures 3B and 3C), the morphology of the nano-assemblies is greatly modified.  
243 Vesicles are smaller and deformed, with irregular and more angular shapes (*a'*). There are also  
244 more abundant. A difference in contrast in the bilayers is observed, which would account for  
245 leaflets with asymmetric composition. Some of them coalesce into larger structures, extending  
246 along the walls of the grid (*d*). Fragments and sheets are also observed (figure 3B). They exhibit

247 irregular contour and unidentified membrane organization. The bilayer structure is not clearly  
248 observable. New organized assemblies appear, such as disk-like nano-assemblies (e) and  
249 emulsion-like droplets (f). At higher concentration (15 mM LDP-NaTC + 5 mM D<sub>3</sub> in figure  
250 3D), the emulsion-like droplets and vesicles with unidentified membrane structure (g) are  
251 enlarged. They coexist with small deformed vesicles.

252

### 253 *3.2. Compression properties of LDP components, the LDP mixture and the vitamins*

254 To better understand the mechanism of D<sub>3</sub> and RP interaction with LDP-NaTC micelles,  
255 we focused on the interfacial behavior of the various components of the system. We first  
256 determined the interfacial behavior of the LDP components and their mixture in proportions  
257 similar to those in the micellar solution, by surface pressure measurements. The  $\pi$ -A isotherms  
258 are plotted in Figure 4A. Based on the calculated compressibility modulus values, the lipid  
259 monolayers can be classified into poorly organized ( $K < 100$  mN/m, for lyso-PC, monoolein,  
260 and oleic acid), liquid condensed ( $100 < K < 250$  mN/m, for POPC and the LDP mixture) and  
261 highly rigid monolayers ( $K > 250$  mN/m, for cholesterol) (Davies & Rideal 1963).

262 The interfacial behavior of the two studied vitamins is illustrated in Figure 4B. D<sub>3</sub> shows  
263 a similar compression profile to that of the LDP mixture, with comparable surface area and  
264 surface pressure at collapse ( $A_c = 35 \text{ \AA}^2$ ,  $\pi_c = 38$  mN/m) but a much higher rigidity, as inferred  
265 from the comparison of their maximal K values (187.4 mN/m and 115.4 mN/m for D<sub>3</sub> and LDP,  
266 respectively). RP exhibits much larger surface areas and lower surface pressures than D<sub>3</sub>. The  
267 collapse of its monolayer is not clearly identified from the isotherms, and is estimated to occur  
268 at  $\pi_c = 16.2$  mN/m ( $A_c = 56.0 \text{ \AA}^2$ ), as deduced from the slope change in the  $\pi$ -A plot.

269

### 270 *3.3. Self-assembling properties of D<sub>3</sub> in an aqueous solution*

271 Since D<sub>3</sub> showed an interfacial behavior similar to that of the lipid mixture, and since it  
272 could be solubilized at very high concentrations in an aqueous phase rich in mixed micelles (as  
273 shown in Figure 2), its self-assembling properties were more specifically investigated. Dried  
274 D<sub>3</sub> films were hydrated with the sodium taurocholate free-buffer. Surface tension measurements  
275 at various D<sub>3</sub> concentrations revealed that the vitamin could adsorb at the air/solution interface,  
276 and significantly lower the surface tension of the buffer to  $\gamma_{\text{cmc}} = 30.6$  mN/m. A critical micellar  
277 concentration ( $\text{cmc} = 0.45$   $\mu\text{M}$ ) could be deduced from the  $\gamma$ -log C relationships and HPLC  
278 assays. Concentrated samples D<sub>3</sub> samples were analyzed by cryo-TEM (Figure 3E and 3F).  
279 Different D<sub>3</sub> self-assemblies were observed, including circular nano-assemblies (*h*) coexisting  
280 with nano-fibers (*i*), and large aggregates (*j*) with unidentified structure. The analysis in depth  
281 of the circular nano-assemblies allowed to conclude that they were disk-like nano-assemblies,  
282 rather than nanoparticles.

283

#### 284 3.4. Interaction of LDP with NaTC

285 To better understand how the two studied vitamins interacted with the mixed micelles,  
286 we compared the interfacial behaviors of the pure NaTC solutions, LDP mixtures hydrated by  
287 NaTC-free buffer, and LDP mixtures hydrated by the NaTC buffered solutions (full mixed  
288 micelle composition). The LDP mixture composition was maintained constant, while its  
289 concentration in the aqueous medium was increased. The concentration of NaTC in the aqueous  
290 phase was also calculated so that the relative proportion of the various components (LDP and  
291 NaTC) remained unchanged in all experiments. From the results plotted in Figure 5A, the  
292 critical micellar concentration ( $\text{cmc}$ ) of the LDP-NaTC mixture was 0.122 mM ( $\gamma_{\text{cmc}} = 29.0$   
293 mN/m), a concentration 50.8 times lower than the concentration used for vitamin solubilization.  
294 The  $\text{cmc}$  values for the LDP mixture and the pure NaTC solutions were 0.025 mM ( $\gamma_{\text{cmc}} = 24.0$   
295 mN/m), and 1.5 mM ( $\gamma_{\text{cmc}} = 45.3$  mN/m), respectively.

296 Experiments modeling the insertion of NaTC into the LDP film during rehydration by  
297 the buffer suggested that only few NaTC molecules could penetrate in the condensed LDP film  
298 (initial surface pressure:  $\pi_i = 28$  mN/m) and that the LDP-NaTC mixed film was not stable, as  
299 shown by the decrease in surface pressure over time (Figure 5B).

300

### 301 *3.5. Interaction of D<sub>3</sub> and RP with NaTC*

302 The surface tension of the mixed NaTC-LDP micelle solutions was only barely affected  
303 by the addition of 0.1 or 1 mM D<sub>3</sub> or RP: the surface tension values increased by no more than  
304 2.8 mN/m. Conversely, both vitamins strongly affected the interfacial behavior of the NaTC  
305 micellar solution, as inferred from the significant surface tension lowering observed (- 7.0 and  
306 - 8.1 mN/m for RP and D<sub>3</sub>, respectively).

307

### 308 *3.6. Interaction of D<sub>3</sub> and RP with lipid digestion products*

309 The interaction between the vitamins and LDP molecules following their insertion into  
310 LDP micelles was modeled by compression of LDP/D<sub>3</sub> and LDP/RP mixtures at a 7:3 molar  
311 ratio. This ratio was chosen arbitrarily, to model a system in which LDP was in excess. The  $\pi$ -  
312 A isotherms are presented in Figures 6A and 6B. They show that both vitamins modified the  
313 isotherm profile of the lipid mixture, however, not in the same way. In the LDP/D<sub>3</sub> mixture, the  
314 surface pressure and molecular area at collapse were controlled by LDP. For LDP/RP, despite  
315 the high content in LDP, the interfacial behavior was clearly controlled by RP. From the  
316 isotherms in Figures 6A and 6B, compressibility moduli and excess free energies of mixing  
317 were calculated and compared (Figures 6C, and 6D). D<sub>3</sub> increased the rigidity of LDP  
318 monolayers, whereas RP disorganized them. The negative  $\Delta G^{EXC}$  values calculated for the LDP-  
319 D<sub>3</sub> monolayers at all surface pressures account for the good mixing properties of D<sub>3</sub> and the

320 lipids in all molecular packing conditions. Conversely for RP, the positive and increasing  $\Delta G^{EXC}$   
321 values with the surface pressure demonstrate that its interaction with the lipids was unfavorable.

322

#### 323 **4. Discussion**

324         The objective of this study was to compare the solubility of RP and D<sub>3</sub> in aqueous  
325 solutions containing mixed micelles, and to decipher the molecular interactions that explain  
326 their different extent of solubilization. Our first experiment revealed that the two vitamins  
327 exhibit very different solubilities in an aqueous medium rich in mixed micelles. Furthermore,  
328 the solubility of D<sub>3</sub> was so high that we did not observe any limit, even when D<sub>3</sub> was introduced  
329 at a concentration > 1mM in the aqueous medium. To our knowledge, this is the first time that  
330 such a difference is reported. Cryo-TEM pictures showed that D<sub>3</sub> dramatically altered the  
331 organization of the various components of the mixed micelles. The spherical vesicles were  
332 deformed with angular shapes. The nano-fibers initiating from the vesicles were no longer  
333 observed. Large irregular in shape vesicle and sheets, disk-like nano-assemblies and emulsion-  
334 like droplets appeared in LDP-NaTC-D<sub>3</sub> mixtures, only. The existence of so many different  
335 assemblies would account for a different interaction of D<sub>3</sub> with the various components of  
336 mixed micelles, and for a reorganization of the components. D<sub>3</sub> could insert in the bilayer of  
337 vesicles and deform them, but also form emulsion-like droplets with fatty acids and  
338 monoglyceride. It is noteworthy that these emulsion-like droplets were not observed in pure D<sub>3</sub>  
339 samples, nor mixed micelles. Since previous studies have shown that both bile salts and some  
340 mixed micelle lipids, e.g. fatty acids and phospholipids, can modulate the solubility of fat-  
341 soluble vitamins in these vehicles (Yang & McClements 2013), we decided to study the

342 interactions of these two vitamins with either bile salts or micelle lipids to assess the specific  
343 role of each component on vitamin solubility in mixed micelles.

344 The characteristics of pure POPC, Lyso-PC, monoolein, and cholesterol isotherms were  
345 in agreement with values published in the literature (Pezron *et al.* 1991; Flasinsky *et al.* 2014;  
346 Huynh *et al.* 2014). For oleic acid, the surface pressure at collapse was higher ( $\pi_c = 37$  mN/m)  
347 and the corresponding molecular area ( $A_c = 26 \text{ \AA}^2$ ) smaller than those previously published  
348 (Tomoaia-Cotisel *et al.* 1987), likely due to the pH of the buffer solution (pH 6) and the presence  
349 of calcium.

350 The interfacial properties of D<sub>3</sub> were close to those deduced from the isotherm published  
351 by Meredith *et al.* (1984) for a D<sub>3</sub> monolayer spread from a benzene solution onto a pure water  
352 subphase. The molecular areas at collapse are almost identical in the two studies (about  $36 \text{ \AA}^2$ ),  
353 but the surface pressures differ (30 mN/m in Meredith and coworkers' study, and 38 mN/m in  
354 ours). Compressibility modulus values show that D<sub>3</sub> molecules form monolayers with higher  
355 molecular order than the LDP mixture, which suggests that they might easily insert into LDP  
356 domains.

357 As could be expected from its chemical structure, RP exhibited a completely different  
358 interfacial behavior compared to D<sub>3</sub> and the LDP, even to lyso-PC which formed the most  
359 expanded monolayers of the series, and displayed the lowest collapse surface pressure. The  
360 anomalous isotherm profile of lyso-PC has been attributed to monolayer instability and  
361 progressive solubilization of molecules into the aqueous phase (Heffner *et al.* 2013). The  
362 molecular areas and surface pressures for RP have been compared to those measured by Asai  
363 and Watanabe (2000) for RP monolayers spread from benzene solutions at 25°C onto a water  
364 subphase. Their values are much lower than ours, accounting for even more poorly organized  
365 monolayers. The low collapse surface pressure could correspond to molecules partially lying  
366 onto the aqueous surface, possibly forming multilayers above 16 mN/m as inferred from the



367 continuous increase in surface pressure above the change in slope of the isotherm. The maximal  
368 compressibility modulus confirms the poor monolayer order. The significant differences in RP  
369 surface pressure and surface area compared to the LDP mixture might compromise its insertion  
370 and stability into LDP domains.

371 The dogma in nutrition is that fat-soluble vitamins need to be solubilized in bile salt  
372 micelles to be transported to the enterocyte and then absorbed. It is also well known that  
373 although NaTC primary micelles can be formed at 2-3 mM with a small aggregation number,  
374 concentrations as high as 10-12 mM are usually necessary for efficient lipid solubilization in  
375 the intestine (Baskin & Frost 2008). Due to their chemical structure bile salts have a facial  
376 arrangement of polar and non-polar domains (Madenci & Egelhaaf 2010). Their self-  
377 assembling (dimers, multimers, micelles) is a complex process involving hydrophobic  
378 interaction and cooperative hydrogen bonding, highly dependent on the medium conditions,  
379 and that is not completely elucidated. The cmc value for sodium taurocholate in the studied  
380 buffer was particularly low compared to some of those reported in the literature for NaTC in  
381 water or sodium chloride solutions (3-12 mM) (Kratohvil *et al.* 1983; Meyerhoffer & McGown  
382 1990; Madenci & Egelhaaf 2010). At concentrations as high as 10-12 mM, NaTC molecules  
383 form elongated cylindrical “secondary” micelles (Madenci & Egelhaaf 2010; Bottari *et al.*  
384 1999). The cryoTEM analysis did not allow to distinguish micelles from the ice. In our  
385 solubilization experiment, the concentration of NaTC did not exceed 5 mM. Nevertheless, the  
386 micelles proved to be very efficient with regards to vitamin solubilization.

387 When bile salts and lipids are simultaneously present in the same environment, they  
388 form mixed micelles (Hernell *et al.* 1990). Bile salts solubilize phospholipid vesicles and  
389 transform into cylindrical micelles (Cheng *et al.* 2014). Walter *et al.* (1991) suggested that  
390 sodium cholate cylindrical micelles evolved from the edge of lecithin bilayer sheets. Most  
391 published studies were performed at high phospholipid/bile salt ratio. In our system, the

392 concentration of the phospholipids was very low compared to that of NaTC. We observed  
393 however the presence of vesicles, and nano-fiber structures emerging from them. In their  
394 cryoTEM analysis, Fatouros *et al.* (2009) compared bile salt/phospholipid mixtures to bile  
395 salt/phospholipid/fatty acid/monoglyceride ones at concentrations closer to ours. They  
396 observed only micelles in bile salt/phospholipid mixtures. However, in the presence of oleic  
397 acid and monoolein, vesicles and bilayer sheets were formed. This would account for a  
398 reorganization of the lipids and bile salts in the presence of the fatty acid and the monoglyceride.  
399 We therefore decided to study the interactions between bile salts and LDP. The results obtained  
400 show that the surface tension, the effective surface tension lowering concentration, and cmc  
401 values were very much influenced by LDP. The almost parallel slopes of Gibbs adsorption  
402 isotherms for pure NaTC and mixed NaTC-LDP suggest that LDP molecules inserted into  
403 NaTC domains, rather than the opposite. This was confirmed by penetration studies, which  
404 showed that NaTC (0.1 mM) could hardly penetrate in a compact LDP film. So, during lipid  
405 hydration, LDP molecules could insert into NaTC domains. The presence of LDP molecules  
406 improved NaTC micellarization.

407         After having determined the interfacial properties of each micelle component and  
408 measured the interactions between NaTC and LDP, we assessed the ability of D<sub>3</sub> and RP to  
409 solubilize in either NaTC or NaTC-LDP micelles. Surface tension values clearly show that both  
410 vitamins could insert in between NaTC molecules adsorbed at the interface, and affected the  
411 surface tension in the same way. The interfacial behavior of the molecules being representative  
412 of their behavior in the bulk, it is reasonable to think that both D<sub>3</sub> and RP can be solubilized  
413 into pure NaTC micelles. For the mixed NaTC-LDP micelles, the change in surface tension was  
414 too limited to allow conclusions, but the solubilization experiments clearly indicated that  
415 neither vitamin was solubilized to the same extent.

416 Solubilization experiments and the analysis of vitamin-NaTC interaction cannot explain  
417 why the LDP-NaTC mixed micelles solubilize D<sub>3</sub> better than RP. Therefore, we studied the  
418 interfacial behavior of the LDP mixture in the presence of each vitamin, to determine the extent  
419 of their interaction with the lipids. The results obtained showed that D<sub>3</sub> penetrated in LDP  
420 domains and remained in the lipid monolayer throughout compression. At large molecular  
421 areas, the  $\pi$ -A isotherm profile of the mixture followed that of the LDP isotherm with a slight  
422 condensation due to the presence of D<sub>3</sub> molecules. Above 10 mN/m, an enlargement of the  
423 molecular area at collapse and a change in the slope of the mixed monolayer was observed.  
424 However, the surface pressure at collapse was not modified, and the shape of the isotherm  
425 accounted for the insertion of D<sub>3</sub> molecules into LDP domains. This was confirmed by the  
426 surface compressional moduli. D<sub>3</sub> interacted with lipid molecules in such manner that it  
427 increased monolayer rigidity ( $K_{\max} = 134.8$  mN/m), without changing the general organization  
428 of the LDP monolayer. The LDP-D<sub>3</sub> mixed monolayer thus appeared more structured than the  
429 LDP one. D<sub>3</sub> behavior resembles that of cholesterol in phospholipid monolayers, however  
430 without the condensing effect of the sterol (Ambike *et al.* 2011). The higher rigidity of LDP  
431 monolayer in the presence of D<sub>3</sub> could be related to the cryo-TEM pictures showing the  
432 deformed, more angular vesicles formed with LDP-NaTC-D<sub>3</sub>. The angular shape would account  
433 for vesicles with rigid bilayers (Kuntsche *et al.* 2011).

434 For RP, the shape of the isotherms show evidence that lipid molecules penetrated in RP  
435 domains, rather than the opposite. Indeed, the  $\pi$ -A isotherm profile of the LDP-RP monolayer  
436 is similar to that of RP alone. The insertion of lipid molecules into RP domains is also attested  
437 by the increase in the collapse surface pressure from 16 to 22 mN/m. Partial collapse is  
438 confirmed by the decrease in the compressibility modulus above 22 mN/m. Thus, RP led to a  
439 destructuration of the LDP mixed monolayer and when the surface density of the monolayer  
440 increased, the vitamin was partially squeezed out from the interface. The calculated  $\Delta G^{EXC}$

441 values for both systems suggest that insertion of D<sub>3</sub> into LDP domains was controlled by  
442 favorable (attractive) interactions, whereas mixing of RP with LDP was limited due to  
443 unfavorable (repulsive) interactions, even at low surface pressures. According to Asai and  
444 Watanabe (2000), RP can be partially solubilized in the bilayer of phospholipids (up to 3  
445 mol%), and the excess is separated from the phospholipids, and dispersed as emulsion droplets  
446 stabilized by a phospholipid monolayer.

447         On the whole, the information obtained regarding the interactions of the two vitamins  
448 with NaTC and LDP explain why D<sub>3</sub> is more soluble than RP in an aqueous medium rich in  
449 mixed micelles. Both vitamins can insert into pure NaTC domains, but only D<sub>3</sub> can also insert  
450 into the LDP domains in LDP-enriched NaTC micelles.

451         Furthermore, the results obtained suggest that this is not the only explanation. Indeed,  
452 since it has been suggested that D<sub>3</sub> could form cylindrical micelle-like aggregates (Meredith *et*  
453 *al.* 1984), we hypothesize that the very high solubility of D<sub>3</sub> in the aqueous medium rich in  
454 mixed micelles was partly due to the solubilization of a fraction of D<sub>3</sub> as self-aggregates. Indeed,  
455 we observed that D<sub>3</sub> at concentrations higher than 0.45 μM, could self-assemble into various  
456 structures including nano-fibers. To our knowledge, no such structures, especially nanofibers,  
457 have been reported for D<sub>3</sub> so far. Rod diameter was smaller than 10 nm, much smaller than for  
458 the rods formed by lithocholic acid, for example (Terech *et al.* 2002). They were similar to  
459 those observed in highly concentrated LDP-NaTC mixtures, which seemed formed *via*  
460 desorganization of lipid vesicles. Disk-like and aggregates with unidentified structure, also  
461 observed in concentrated D<sub>3</sub> samples, could be related to these nano-fibers.

462         In our solubilization experiments, which were performed at much higher D<sub>3</sub>  
463 concentrations, both insertion of D<sub>3</sub> molecules into NaTC and LDP domains, and D<sub>3</sub> self-

464 assembling could occur, depending on the kinetics of insertion of D<sub>3</sub> into the NaTC-DLP mixed  
465 micelles.

466

## 467 **5. Conclusion**

468         The solubilization of a hydrophobic compound in bile salt-lipid micelles is dependent  
469 upon its chemical structure and its ability to interact with the mixed micelles components. Most  
470 hydrophobic compounds are expected to insert into the bile salt-lipid micelles. The extent of  
471 the solubilizing effect is, however, much more difficult to predict. As shown by others before  
472 us, mixed micelles components form a heterogeneous system with various molecular  
473 assemblies differing in shape and composition. The conditions of the medium (pH, ionic  
474 strength and temperature) affect the formation of these molecular assemblies, although we did  
475 not study this effect on our system. Our results showed that D<sub>3</sub> displayed a higher solubility in  
476 mixed micelle solutions than RP. This difference was attributed to the different abilities of the  
477 two vitamins to insert in between micelle components, but it was also explained by the  
478 propensity of D<sub>3</sub>, contrarily to RP, to self-associate into structures that are readily soluble in the  
479 aqueous phase. It is difficult to predict the propensity of a compound to self-association. We  
480 propose here a methodology that was efficient to distinguish between two solubilizing  
481 behaviors, and could be easily used to predict the solubilization efficiency of other hydrophobic  
482 compounds. Whether the D<sub>3</sub> self-assemblies are available for absorption by the intestinal cells  
483 needs further studies.

484

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487

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489

490 **Conflicts of interest:** DP, ED and VLD are employed by Adisseo. Adisseo markets formulated  
491 vitamins for animal nutrition.

492

493

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642

643

644 **Figure Captions**

645 **Figure 1:** Chemical structures for D<sub>3</sub> and RP.

646

647 **Figure 2:** Solubilization of D<sub>3</sub> and RP in aqueous solutions rich in mixed micelles: (●),  
648 cholecalciferol; (□), retinyl palmitate. For D<sub>3</sub> R<sup>2</sup> = 0.98, and regression slope = 0.71.

649

650 **Figure 3:** Cryo-TEM morphology of (A) 15 mM mixed LDP-NaTC micelles, (B) and (C) 5  
651 mM mixed LDP-NaTC micelles +1.7 mM D<sub>3</sub>, (D) 15 mM mixed LDP-NaTC micelles + 5 mM  
652 D<sub>3</sub>, (E) and (F) pure D<sub>3</sub> assemblies: (a) spherical vesicles, (a') small deformed vesicles, (b)  
653 nano-fibers, (c) aggregates, (d) large deformed vesicle fragments (sheets), (e) disk-like nano-  
654 assembly, (f) emulsion-like droplet, (g) large deformed vesicle, (h) disk-like nano-assemblies,  
655 (i) nano-fibers, (h) aggregates. All samples were prepared by the dry film hydration method,  
656 without filtration. Scale bars: 100 nm.

657

658 **Figure 4:** Mean compression isotherms for (A) the pure micelles components and the LDP  
659 mixture, and (B) D<sub>3</sub> (solid line) and RP (dashed line) spread at the air/buffer interface from a  
660 chloroform-methanol (9:1) solution (25°C). POPC (●), LysoPC (○), monoolein (△),  
661 cholesterol (▲), oleic acid (□), LDP (dashed line).

662

663 **Figure 5:** (A) Adsorption isotherms for LDP hydrated in NaTC-free buffer (○), LDP hydrated  
664 in NaTC-containing buffer solution (■), and pure NaTC (◆) solutions at 25°C. (B) Surface  
665 pressure increment upon injection of NaTC beneath a condensed LDP monolayer ( $\pi_i = 28$   
666 mN/m). The final NaTC concentration in the subphase was 0.1 mM. The initial increase in  
667 surface pressure following NaTC addition to the subphase was an injection effect.

668

669 **Figure 6:**  $\pi$ -A isotherms (A,B), compressibility moduli (C) and excess free energies (D) for  
 670 LDP-vitamin monolayers (25°C). A: LDP mixture (dashed line), pure D<sub>3</sub> (dashed-dot line) and  
 671 LDP-D<sub>3</sub> (7:3) mixture (solid line); B: LDP mixture (dashed line), RP (dashed-dot line) and  
 672 LDP-RP (7:3) mixture (solid line). C: LDP mixture (dashed line), LDP-D<sub>3</sub> (7:3) mixture (solid  
 673 line), and LDP-RP (7:3) mixture (dashed-dot-dot line). D: LDP-D<sub>3</sub> (7:3) (square) and LDP-RP  
 674 (7:3) (triangle) mixtures.

Figure 1

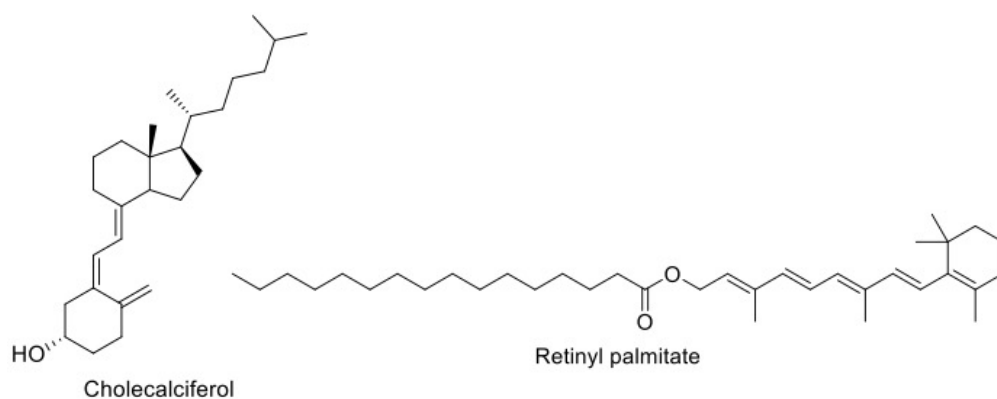


Figure 2

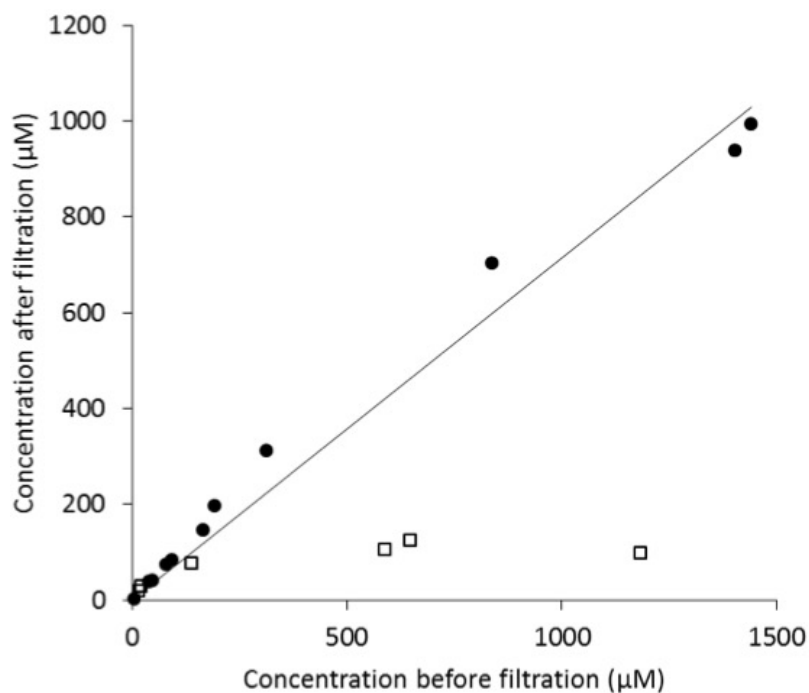


Figure 3

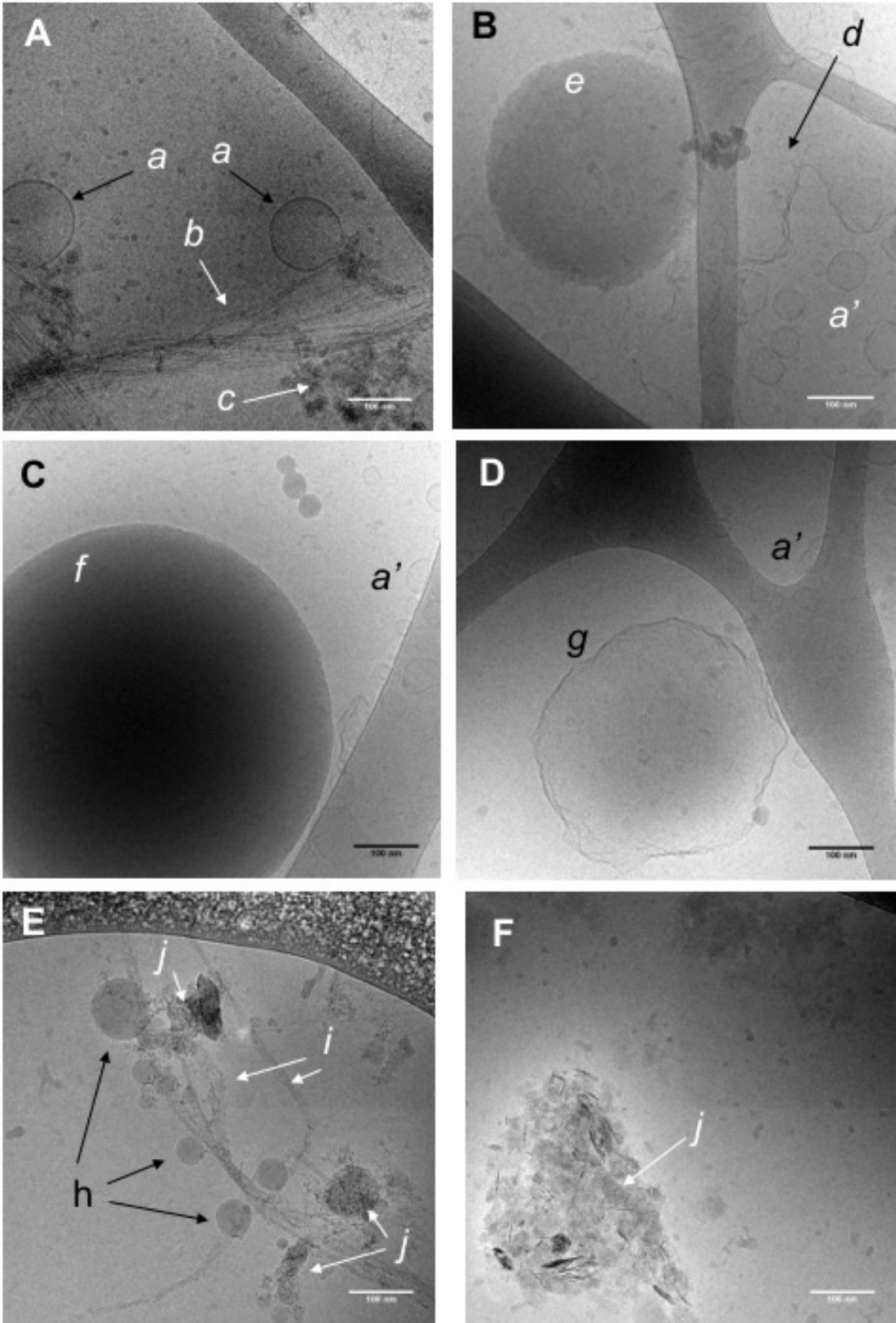


Figure 4

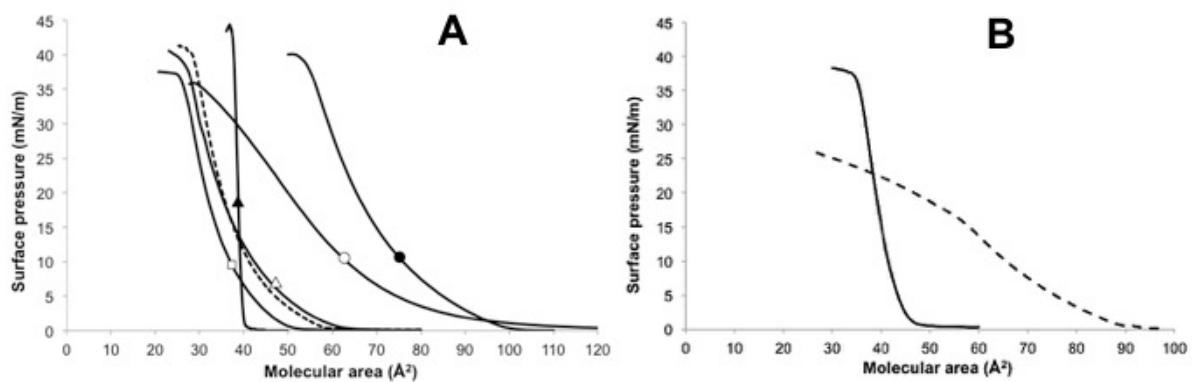


Figure 5

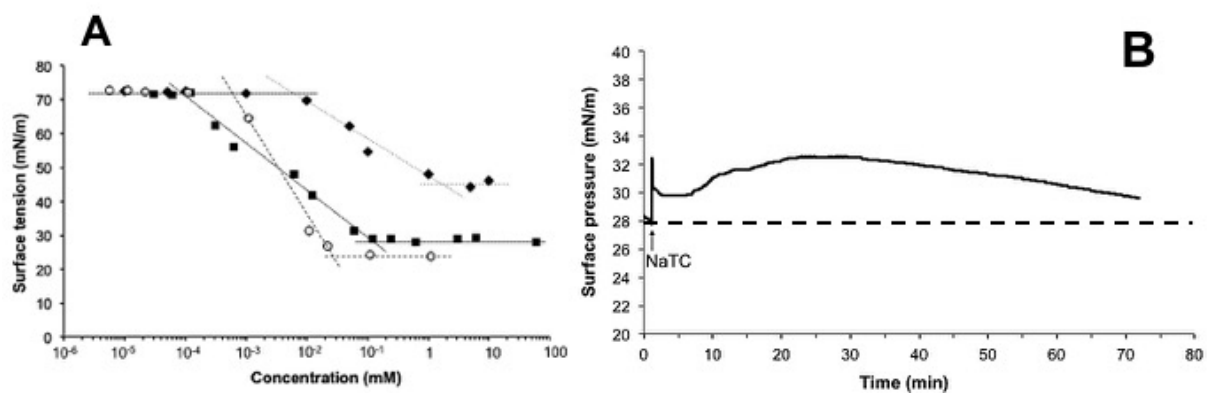
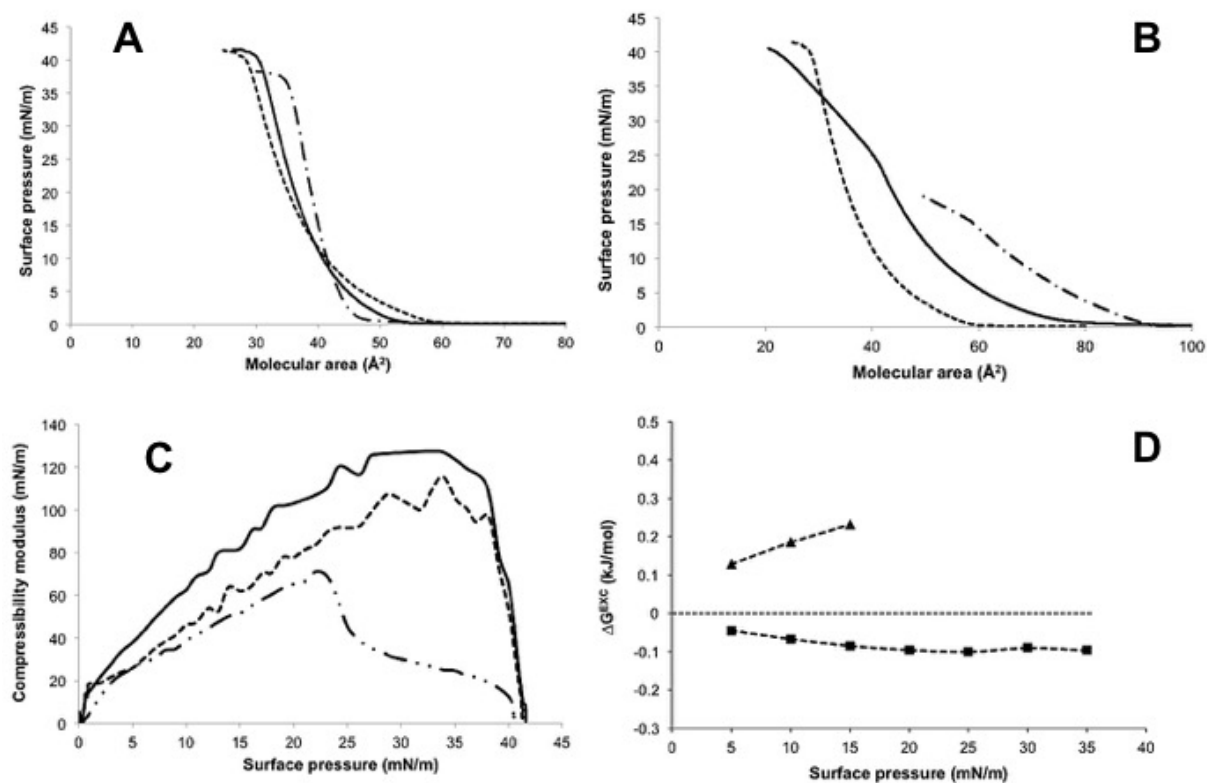


Figure 6



Highlights :

- Cholecalciferol D<sub>3</sub> exhibits dramatic solubilization in simulated intestinal medium
- Both lipids and bile salt in mixed micelles contribute to D<sub>3</sub> solubilization
- D<sub>3</sub> self-association is an additional factor impacting the solubilization process
- Retinyl palmitate (RP) is poorly solubilized in the mixed micelle solutions
- High excess free energy of mixing of RP with the lipids explains its poor inclusion