

Food & Function

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

'Extraneous proteins can protect oleosin from gastric digestion and so affect the 'oil body' size in the small intestine. '

1 **Impact of extraneous proteins on the gastrointestinal fate of sunflower**
2 **seed (*Helianthus annuus*) oil bodies: A simulated gastrointestinal tract**
3 **study**

4
5
6 **Sakunkhun Makkhun^{ab}, Amit Khosla^b, Tim Foster^b,**
7 **David Julian McClements^c Myriam M.L. Grundy^d and David A. Gray^{*b}**

8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15 ^a **University of Phayao, Division of Food Science and Technology,**
16 **School of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Muang, Phayao, Thailand. 56000**

17
18 ^b **University of Nottingham, Division of Food Sciences, School of Biosciences,**
19 **Sutton Bonington Campus, Leicestershire, England. LE12 5RD**

20
21 ^c **Biopolymers and Colloids Research Laboratory, Department of Food Science,**
22 **University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003, USA**

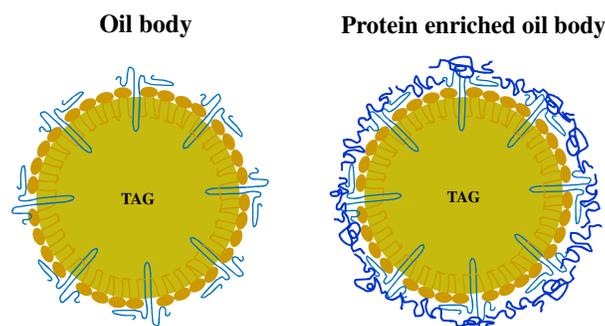
23
24 ^d **King's College London, Department of Biochemistry, Diabetes & Nutritional Sciences Division,**
25 **Franklin-Wilkins Building, London SE1 9NH**

26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37 ***Corresponding author address:**

38 **University of Nottingham, School of Biosciences,**
39 **Division of Food Sciences, Sutton Bonington Campus, Leicestershire LE12 5RD.**
40 **Tel: 00 44 (0)1159 516147. Fax: 00 44 (0)1159 516142. David.Gray@nottingham.ac.uk**

41	Table of contents entries	Page
42	Abstract.....	3
43	1. Introduction.....	4
44	2. Materials and Methods.....	5
45	2.1 Materials.....	5
46	2.2 Recovery and purification of oil bodies.....	5
47	2.3 Proximate composition of purified oil body preparations.....	6
48	2.4 Preparation of emulsions.....	6
49	2.5 <i>In vitro</i> digestion model.....	6
50	2.6 Particle size analysis.....	7
51	2.7 Zeta Potential measurements.....	7
52	2.8 Imaging oil droplets.....	7
53	2.9 Protein analysis.....	8
54	2.10 Displacement of intrinsic oil body proteins with bile salts.....	8
55	2.11 Calculation and Statistical analysis.....	9
56	3. Results and discussion.....	9
57	3.1 Characterisation of oil body-based emulsion droplets during	
58	digestion.....	9
59	3.2 Protein composition of oil bodies after treatment with bile salts.....	13
60	4. Conclusions.....	14
61	References.....	14
62	Legends to Figures.....	18
63	Figure 1.....	20
64	Figure 2.....	21
65	Figure 3.....	22
66	Figure 4.....	22
67	Figure 5.....	23
68	Figure 6.....	23
69	Figure 7.....	24
70	Figure 8.....	25
71	Figure 9.....	26

72
73 The fate of oil body and protein enriched oil body during digestion under simulated gastrointestinal conditions
74 was studied.
75



Food & Function

77

78

79 **Abbreviations:**

80 BCA Bichinconinic acid

81 COB Crude oil bodies

82 dH₂O Deionized water

83 PL Phospholipids

84 SDS Sodium dodecyl sulphate

85 SDS-PAGE Sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

86 TAG Triacylglycerol

87 WOB Washed oil bodies

88 WOB-SC Sodium caseinate enriched oil bodies

89 WOB-WPI Whey protein isolate enriched oil bodies

90 ζ-potential Zeta potential

91

92 **Abstract**

93 In this study, we examined the physicochemical nature of sunflower seed oil bodies (in the absence and
94 presence of added protein) exposed to gastrointestinal conditions *in vitro*: crude oil bodies (COB); washed oil
95 bodies (WOB); whey protein isolate-enriched oil bodies (WOB-WPI); and, sodium caseinate enriched-oil
96 bodies (WOB-SC). All oil body emulsions were passed through an *in vitro* digestion model that mimicked the
97 stomach and duodenal environments, and their physicochemical properties were measured before, during, and
98 after digestion. Oil bodies had a positive charge under gastric conditions because the pH was below the
99 isoelectric point of the adsorbed protein layer, but they had a negative charge under duodenal conditions which
100 was attributed to changes in interfacial composition resulting from adsorption of bile salts. Oil bodies were
101 highly susceptible to flocculation and coalescence in both gastric and duodenal conditions. SDS-PAGE
102 analysis indicated degradation of oleosin proteins (ca. 18-21 kDa) to a greater or lesser extent (dependent on
103 the emulsion) during the gastric phase in all emulsions tested; there is evidence that some oleosin remained
104 intact in the crude oil body preparation during this phase of the digestion process. Measurements of protein
105 displacement from the surface of COBs during direct exposure to bile salts, without inclusion of a gastric
106 phase, indicated the removal of intact oleosin from native oil bodies.

107

108 **Keywords:** oil bodies; oleosomes; emulsions; bile salts; digestion

109 **1. Introduction**

110 The seeds of many plants species store oil as food reserves for germination, and for post germination growth
111 of the seedlings, in organelles called oil bodies or oleosomes. Oil bodies are mainly composed of
112 triacylglycerol (TAG) core surrounded by phospholipids (PL) and alkaline proteins, e.g. oleosins¹. These
113 proteins prevent coalescence of oil bodies in the cytosol of oilseed cells²⁻⁶. Furthermore, at neutral pH they
114 have a net negative charge which prevents coalescence *ex vivo* when oil bodies are dispersed in a suspension.
115 Oil bodies isolated from plant seeds in aqueous media are therefore a natural emulsion that may represent a
116 vehicle to deliver stable, pre-emulsified oil into a range of food systems. In addition to their physical stability,
117 oil bodies, *ex-vivo*, carry essential fatty acids and a number of lipophilic bioactives, such as vitamin E and
118 oryzanols, depending on the parent seed⁷⁻⁹. Sunflower seed oil bodies were selected for this study as they have
119 been well characterised by our group.

120 It is important that any delivery system is capable of delivering the encapsulated bioactive components to
121 the appropriate site of action within the human body. Consequently, it is necessary to understand the potential
122 biological fate of delivery systems within the human gastrointestinal tract. Initial screening experiments of
123 delivery systems are usually carried out using *in vitro* digestion models designed to simulate the human
124 digestive system. These *in vitro* methods have been used to evaluate the digestibility and bioaccessibility of a
125 range of micro-nutrients from different food matrices¹⁰⁻¹². Recently, *in vitro* digestion models have been used
126 to better understand the behaviour of oil bodies under gastrointestinal conditions¹³⁻¹⁵. These studies have
127 shown that there are appreciable changes in the interfacial composition, aggregation, and structural
128 organization of oil bodies as they pass through different regions of simulated gastrointestinal tracts.

129 The composition and structure of oil bodies isolated from plant seeds depends on the nature of the isolation
130 procedure used, *e.g.*, temperature, shear, solvent type, and additive type. Oil bodies consist of a triacylglycerol
131 (TAG) core that is coated by a layer of phospholipids and intrinsic proteins (oleosins). However, they may
132 also contain varying amounts of extraneous proteins *e.g.* seed storage proteins, that are more loosely attached
133 to the oil body surfaces depending on the isolation procedure. Previously, we studied the *in vitro* digestibility
134 and bioaccessibility of fatty acids and α -tocopherol from sunflower urea-washed oil body suspensions¹⁶.
135 Washing a crude preparation of oil bodies with urea or sodium bicarbonate removes the extraneous proteins
136 that normally surround oil bodies, but leaves the intrinsic proteins in place. If oil bodies were used in food
137 formulations they would probably be in a crude state (*i.e.* the preparation would contain both intrinsic and
138 extraneous proteins). In addition, food formulations often contain various other proteins that could interact
139 with the surfaces of oil bodies and alter their surface chemistry. Slowing down the rate of oil droplet digestion
140 can promote satiety, a physiological target for reducing total food intake; the rate of digestion of emulsified
141 lipids is known to depend on the presence of proteins adsorbed to their surfaces, since this influences the
142 accessibility of lipase to the droplet surfaces¹⁷⁻¹⁸. The purpose of this study was therefore to establish if some

Food & Function

143 commonly consumed proteins can protect oil bodies under simulated gastrointestinal conditions. The dairy
144 proteins selected for study are common in the diet and have very distinct interfacial properties that represent
145 the behaviour of a range of protein types in aqueous solution.

146 2. Materials and methods**147 2.1 Materials**

148 Dehulled sunflower seeds (high oleate) were purchased from Cargill Ltd. (West Fargo, USA). Whey protein
149 isolate was purchased from Myprotein.co.uk. (Cheshire, UK). Sodium caseinate was a gift from industry. Both
150 the whey protein and sodium caseinate powders were over 90% protein, and only 0.25% fat, and 0.17%
151 carbohydrate; the rest of the powder was tightly adsorbed water and ash/minerals. Porcine pepsin (#P7125,
152 activity = 650 units/mg of protein calculated using haemoglobin as substrate), porcine pancreatic extract
153 (#L3126, lipase activity = 53 units/mg of powder calculated using tributyrin as substrate, and trypsin activity =
154 2.3 units/mg of powder calculated using TAME (p-toluene-sulfonyl-L-arginine methyl ester as substrate),
155 porcine co-lipase and porcine bile extract (#B8631, contains glycine, taurine, conjugates of hydroxycholic
156 acid) were purchased from Sigma Chemical Company (Dorset, UK.). Gastric lipase analogue of fungal origin
157 (F-AP15, activity >150 units/mg) was obtained from Amano Enzyme Inc. (Nagoya, Japan). All chemicals
158 used for SDS-PAGE analysis were purchased from Bio-Rad (Hercules, USA). Unless otherwise stated, all
159 reagents used were of analytical grade.

160 2.2 Recovery and purification of oil bodies

161 Oil bodies from sunflower seeds were extracted and purified/washed by the method of Beisson et al (2001)¹⁹
162 with slight modifications. Sunflower seeds (20g) were kibbled with liquid nitrogen using coffee grinder
163 (DeLonghi KG40, UK) for 30 seconds. The ground seeds were then added to 200 ml of 0.1M Tris-HCl buffer
164 (pH 8) containing 1mM EDTA, and immediately homogenised by a Silverson (L5M, Chesham, UK) at 6000
165 rpm for 40 seconds. The slurry was filtered through 1 layer of Miracloth and the filtrate centrifuged at 10,400
166 g (Beckman Coulter J2-21M, Buckinghamshire, UK) for 20 mins at 4°C. The oil body pad was removed from
167 the surface and placed into a clean bottle; these oil bodies produced were classed as the crude oil bodies
168 (COB) and stored until use at 4 °C.

169 Washed oil bodies (WOB) were obtained by re-suspending the crude oil body pad in 200 ml of a 0.1M
170 NaHCO₃, 1mM EDTA solution by using a Silverson at 6000 rpm for 10 seconds. The mixture was centrifuged
171 as described above. The upper layer was isolated and washed with 200 ml of a 0.1M NaHCO₃, 1mM EDTA
172 solution as described above. The isolated upper layer was then washed twice with 1mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH
173 8) containing 1mM EDTA. The oil body pad was stored at 4°C until use.

174 2.3 Proximate composition of purified oil body preparations

Food & Function

175 The moisture content of the oil body cream was determined gravimetrically following vacuum drying at 50°C
176 for 24 h. The lipid content of the dried oil body preparation (ca. 0.5-1g) was determined gravimetrically using
177 repeated extraction (3 times in total) with isooctane ⁹. The protein content of the defatted dried oil bodies was
178 determined using the BCA (bichinconic acid) assay ²⁰ following solubilisation of proteins in 2% sodium
179 dodecyl sulfate (SDS) solution at 90°C. Bovine serum albumin was used as a protein standard.

180 2.4 Preparation of emulsions**181 Sunflower seed oil body emulsion**

182 Oil body emulsions were prepared by mixing oil body pad with dH₂O to achieve a 5% emulsion based on the
183 total lipid content. A uniform dispersion of oil bodies was achieved by passing the mixture 10 times through a
184 Potter Elvenheim Homogeniser (Wheaton, USA) at 500 rpm. The emulsion was prepared no longer than 5
185 hours before use.

186 Protein enriched oil body emulsion

187 To formulate oil body emulsions at 5% w/v of oil and 1% w/v of protein, WPI or SC was used as protein
188 source for the emulsions. WPI or SC was added into the prepared oil body emulsions. The mixtures were
189 stirred with magnetic stirrer at 100 rpm for 10 minutes. Emulsions were used within 1 hour of formation.

190 2.5 *In vitro* digestion model

191 The *in vitro* digestion model was modified from Beysseriat et al.²¹ Mun et al.²² Mandalari et al.²³ and White et
192 al.¹⁶.

193 Gastric model

194 The prepared emulsions (20 ml) were placed into 50 ml amber bottles, and the pH was adjusted to 2.5 with a
195 few drops of 1M HCl. NaCl (solid) was added to make a final concentration of 0.15 M; this was followed by
196 adding pepsin and a gastric lipase analogue to the system. Final concentrations of the mixtures were, 146
197 units/ml pepsin and 84 units/ml gastric lipase analogue. The samples were then incubated for 2 hours at 37°C
198 in the incubator and stirred using a magnetic stirrer at 130 rpm.

199 Duodenal model

200 The gastric mixture was carried forwarded to the duodenal model. The pH of the samples was immediately
201 adjusted to 5 by adding a few drops of 0.9 M NaHCO₃. Bile extract was then added to the system. The
202 samples were then adjusted to pH 6.5 with 0.9 M NaHCO₃ (if needed), followed by the addition of pancreatic
203 lipase and co-lipase. Final concentrations of constituents were 4.4 mg/ml bile extract; 54 units/ml pancreatic
204 lipase and 3.2 µg/ml co-lipase. The duodenal digestion then proceeded for 2 hours at 37°C in the incubator and
205 stirred using a magnetic stirrer at 130 rpm.

Food & Function

206 The samples were examined every hour during 4 hours of digestion. The ‘before’ and ‘after’ digestion samples
207 were assessed by size analysis, light microscopy, and ζ -potential.

208

209 2.6 Particle size analysis

210 Emulsion droplet diameter were determined by using a laser light scattering instrument (LS 13 320 Laser
211 Diffraction Particle Size Analyzer, Beckman Coulter, Inc., USA). Samples (1 ml) were introduced into the
212 universal liquid module, and obscuration was maintained at 7% for all samples by dilution with dH₂O. The
213 diffraction data were analysed using the Fraunhofer diffraction method. Particles with diameters between 0.3
214 to 2000 μm were detected. The fundamental size distribution derived from this technique is volume based i.e.
215 reported percentage distribution within a given size category infers the percentage of the total volume of
216 particles in the entire distribution. The particle size measurements are hereby reported as the volume mean
217 diameter: $d_{4,3} = \frac{\sum n_i d_i^4}{\sum n_i d_i^3}$, where n_i is the number of droplets of diameter d_i . Each individual particle size
218 measurement was determined from the average of three readings made per sample.

219

220 2.7 Zeta Potential measurements

221 Oil body emulsions were diluted in dH₂O to 0.25% (lipid weight). Diluted emulsions were then injected into
222 the measurement chamber of a particle electrophoresis instrument (Delsa Nano C Particle Analyzer, Beckman
223 Coulter, Inc., USA). The instrument settings used were: temperature = 25°C; refractive index of dispersant =
224 1.330; viscosity of dispersant = 0.891 mPa s; relative dielectric constant of dispersant = 79.0; electrode
225 spacing = 50.0 mm. The zeta potential (ζ -potential) was then determined by measuring the direction and
226 velocity of the droplets in an applied electric field from which ζ -potential was calculated using Beckman
227 Software. Each ζ -potential measurement was reported as the average of three readings made per sample.

228

229 2.8 Imaging Oil Droplets**230 2.8.1 Confocal microscopy**

231 A Leica SP5 confocal laser scanning microscope (Leica Microsystems, UK) was used to examine the
232 microstructure of lipid droplets. Proteins were stained with Nile blue (Sigma) (2 μl of 0.01% w/v dye in 75%
233 glycerol were added to 100 μl emulsion) and lipids were stained with Nile red (Sigma) (4 μl of a 0.002% w/v
234 dye in 100% polyethylene glycol were added to 100 μl of emulsion). Stained emulsion (8 μl) was transferred
235 on a glass slide and covered with a glass coverslip (size 18 mm \times 18 mm). Nile red was excited using the 514
236 nm line of an Argon laser and Nile blue was excited using the 633 nm line of a Helium-Neon laser.

Food & Function

237 Fluorescence intensity data were collected between 560 to 600 nm for Nile red and 650 to 680 nm for Nile
238 blue. To avoid interference due to cross fluorescence, the two emission spectra were collected using the
239 sequential line scanning mode. Images were processed using the Leica SP5 Image Analysis software and
240 figures were created using Microsoft PowerPoint 2007 (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, USA).

241

2.8.2 Light Microscopy

242 The microstructure of the lipid droplets was determined using optical microscopy (Nikon microscope Eclipse
243 E400, Nikon Corporation, Japan). A drop of the emulsion was placed on a glass slide and cover with a cover
244 slip. The prepared glass slide was observed under the microscope at a magnification of 40x magnification. The
245 images were recorded to observe the change in the microstructure of the samples during digestion.

246

2.9 Protein analysis

247
248
249 Protein concentration was determined using the BCA method and equal concentrations of protein samples
250 (20µl) were mixed with 20 µl of sample buffer (Laemmli buffer (Biorad, UK) + 5% β-mercaptoethanol), and
251 heated at 95°C for 5 min then cooled on ice. Proteins were resolved by SDS-PAGE using 4-20%
252 polyacrylamide gels (Mini-Protean TGX Gels, 15- well, 15 µl, Bio-Rad, Hercules, USA) ; gels were
253 positioned within a SE 600 BioRad separation unit and suspended in tank buffer (25 mM Tris, 250 mM
254 Glycine, 0.1% SDS, pH 8.3). Electrophoresis was run at 100 V for 40 min. After electrophoresis, the gel was
255 washed (15 min) once with distilled water then stained (1 hour) with the Imperial Protein Stain (Pierce,
256 Rockford, IL, USA) and destained (8 hours) four times with distilled water. Gels were imaged using a BIO-
257 RAD GS-800 densitometer and images were processed using PDQuest Quantity-one (Bio-Rad, Hercules,
258 USA). Incubation samples were centrifuged (as described above) to isolate the oil droplets (buoyant fraction)
259 from the micellar phase, prior to protein extraction and analysis.

260

2.10 Displacement of intrinsic oil body proteins with bile salts

261
262 To analyse the displacement of oleosin on the surface of oil bodies with bile salts, a crude oil body emulsion
263 was subjected to *in vitro* duodenal digestion conditions as described above, but no enzymes, only bile extract
264 was added into the system, and a control was included in this experiment, where 20ml of crude oil bodies
265 emulsion was incubated at 37°C for 2 hours. Incubation samples were centrifuged (as described above) to
266 isolate the oil droplets (buoyant fraction) from the micellar phase, prior to protein extraction and analysis.

267

2.11 Calculation and Statistical analysis

Food & Function

269 All experiments were carried out on triplicate emulsion preparations; statistical analysis was performed by
270 one-way ANOVA and Least Significant Different (LSD) using SPSS 15.0. Assessment of significance was
271 based on a 95% confident limit ($P < 0.05$). Values are expressed as means \pm SD.

272 3. Results and discussion**273 3.1 Characterisation of oil body-based emulsion droplets during digestion**

274 Confocal analysis of WOB and protein enriched WOB preparations, was carried out to make sure that the
275 extra dairy proteins were physically associated with the WOB surface. Figure 1 shows the location of lipid
276 (green) and that of the proteins (red). From these images we can see that WOBs are surrounded by a thin
277 layer of protein, this layer appears to increase in thickness on adding WPI or SC, indicating an association
278 between these added proteins and the surface of the washed oil bodies. Addition of SC appears to generate the
279 thickest protein shell.

280 The composition of the crude oil bodies recovered in this study was approximately 76.2 ± 7.6 % lipid and 17.5
281 ± 0.9 % protein (dry weight). The composition of the washed oil bodies was approximately 89.0 ± 9.6 % lipid
282 and 3.9 ± 0.8 % protein (dry weight). The ζ -potential of crude oil bodies (COB), washed oil bodies (WOB),
283 whey protein isolate-enriched oil bodies (WOB-WPI) and sodium caseinate-enriched oil bodies (WOB-SC) at
284 pH 6.5 were -37.4 ± 8.9 , -17.9 ± 4.1 , -37.8 ± 1.2 and -59 ± 1.9 mV, respectively (Figure 2). The negative
285 surface charge on oil bodies can be attributed to the interface consisting of anionic phospholipids²⁴ and protein
286 molecules that were above their isoelectric point at this pH. After adding WPI and SC to WOB, there was a
287 significant increase ($P < 0.05$) in the negative charge of the oil bodies. This can be explained by WPI and SC
288 adsorbing onto the oil body surfaces thereby increasing their negative charge. Interestingly, the SDS-PAGE
289 profiles of proteins from the protein-enriched washed oil bodies (Figure 8) show that WPI and SC become
290 associated with WOBs, which is consistent with our deductions from the surface charge data and from the
291 confocal images..

292 The pattern of ζ -potential changes of oil body and protein-enriched oil bodies was similar during digestion.
293 Under gastric conditions (first 2 h) at pH 2.5, the ζ -potential of COB, WOB, WOB-WPI and WOB-SC
294 emulsion droplets changed from negative to positive ($+7.0 \pm 1.8$, $+24.9 \pm 3.0$, $+41.7 \pm 4.4$ and $+30.0 \pm 0.8$
295 mV, respectively). All emulsion droplets remained positively charged for 2 h during incubation in the gastric
296 model. The charge on the oil droplets after digestion in the small intestine became strongly negative: $-54.5 \pm$
297 8.1 , -70.7 ± 20.9 -86.3 ± 3.0 and -78.7 ± 6.4 mV, respectively. Interestingly, the charge associated with the
298 surface of the COB derived droplets in the duodenal conditions was lower than the charge associated with the
299 surface of the droplets in the other oil body-based emulsion preparations. This suggests that the association of
300 bile salts with the surface of the crude oil bodies (and the commensurate displacement of surface proteins)
301 appears less extensive for this case than for the other oil bodies.

302 The particle size distribution and optical microscopy images of all oil bodies (COB, WOB, WOB-WPI and
303 WOB-SC) pre- and post-incubation in the *in vitro* gastric model can be seen in Figures 3 to 6. Each oil body
304 emulsion contained droplets of a similar size prior to digestion, but thereafter, significant changes occurred.
305 The mean particle diameters ($d_{4,3}$) of the WOB, WOB-WPI and WOB-SC emulsion droplets (3.2 ± 0.6 , $3.9 \pm$
306 1.0 and $2.6 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{m}$, respectively) were significantly smaller ($P < 0.05$) than COB ($5.6 \pm 1.4 \mu\text{m}$) prior to
307 incubation in the gastrointestinal model (Figure 7). During gastric digestion for 2 hours the diameter ($d_{4,3}$) of
308 all emulsion droplets appeared to increase significantly. After 2 hours digestion in the gastric model followed
309 by two hours incubation in the duodenal model the mean diameter of the particles in the COB emulsions (37.2
310 $\pm 26.7 \mu\text{m}$) was slightly decreased from gastric model ($p > 0.05$). However, WOB-SC emulsion droplets ($7.8 \pm$
311 $2.4 \mu\text{m}$) decreased significantly ($P < 0.05$), whereas WOB and WOB-WPI emulsion droplets (104.7 ± 24.3 and
312 $56.9 \pm 16.2 \mu\text{m}$, respectively) increased significantly in size ($P < 0.05$). In addition, when digested in duodenal
313 conditions, a shift from a mono-modal distribution to a bi-modal distribution was observed for COB, but not
314 for the other emulsions. The presence of several peaks in the particle size distribution interferes with the
315 measurement of the mean particle diameter of the lipid droplets during digestion. The relatively large standard
316 deviations observed in the particle size distributions are typical of measurements made in highly aggregated
317 emulsion systems and are usually attributed to changes in sample structure induced by dilution and stirring
318 within the light scattering instrument²².

319 The particle size analyser cannot distinguish between aggregation and coalescence, and so microscopic
320 observation of the oil body suspensions was carried out to provide further evidence of structural changes. The
321 optical microscopy images revealed changes in system microstructure during incubation in the gastric model.
322 The oil bodies in the COB, WOB-WPI and WOB-SC emulsions were seen to flocculate during the first hour
323 of incubation and then coalesce during the second hour, whereas there was already some coalescence evident
324 during the first hour of incubation in the WOB emulsions. Under duodenal conditions, free oil droplets were
325 clearly observed in WOB and WOB-WPI whereas few free oil droplets were observed in COB and WOB-SC.
326 These observations explain the shift in the particle size data for all emulsions. From these results we can see
327 that in our model system COB behaves similarly to WOB-SC, but there is a marked contrast when compared
328 with WOB and WOB-WPI.

329 Wu and co-workers (2012)¹³ demonstrated the partial protective effect of carrageenan at the surface of
330 soybean oil bodies against digestion. Similar to our work, they observed a change in the surface charge of oil
331 bodies during incubation, with a significant negative charge (-70 mV) in the presence of bile salts. This
332 suggests that bile salts associate with the surface of these droplets, either through direct physical association or
333 through displacement of some of the surface material. Their surface area-weighted particle size data ($d_{3,2}$)
334 suggests that their soybean oil body preparations varied in size that did not change radically during the gastric
335 phase, then developed a broader distribution during the duodenal phase. Micrographs of the same material told

Food & Function

336 a slightly different story with a significant increase in particle size during the gastric phase, this increase being
337 inversely proportional to the amount of carrageenan that was present; the droplets then decreased in size
338 during the duodenal phase. The increase in droplet size under gastric conditions coincided with the loss of
339 oleosin, presumably through the action of pepsin, which was inhibited in the presence of carrageenan.

340 In a study of the digestion of almond seed oil bodies, Gallier and Singh¹⁴ observed that the oil bodies
341 aggregated and coalesced under gastric conditions. During the duodenal phase the measured change in particle
342 size depended on the mode of measurement. The surface area-weighted values $d_{3,2}$ revealed a reduction in
343 average diameter from 20 μm (immediately after the gastric phase) to 5 μm after 15 minutes and until the
344 endpoint at 120 minutes. On the other hand, $d_{4,3}$ values revealed an unchanged average diameter for the first
345 60 minutes of duodenal conditions, followed by a gradual increase to almost 45 μm after a total duodenal
346 incubation of 120 minutes. This is consistent with our data where we used the volume-weighted measure of
347 the average particle size of oil droplets. The change that they have reported in the zeta potential of almond
348 seed oil bodies reflects the change we have seen with our sunflower seed oil bodies. The charge of their
349 almond oil bodies was less than +10 mV after 60 and 120 minutes under gastric conditions, followed by a
350 gradual change in charge to almost -50 mV after 45 minutes, presumably due to the uptake of bile salts under
351 duodenal conditions. Similar effects of bile salts on the surface charge of protein-stabilised emulsion droplets
352 have been reported²⁵⁻²⁷. Mun et al²² studied the changes in the droplet size of emulsions formed with whey
353 proteins compared to an emulsion formed with caseinate after *in vitro* hydrolysis by pancreatic lipase at pH 7.
354 They reported that in their conditions whey protein isolate emulsions are the least stable. Based on
355 microscopic observations, the caseinate stabilised emulsions were more prone to flocculation rather than
356 coalescence whereas the whey protein stabilised emulsions were highly prone to coalescence, which is
357 consistent with our observations.

358 WPI and SC are milk proteins commonly used as food ingredients because of their surface active properties.
359 Whey protein and caseinate produce an interfacial film with different properties²⁸, notably with different
360 adsorption and surface rheological behaviours^{29,30}. In brief, the globular β -lactoglobulin forms a highly elastic
361 interfacial film, whereas β -casein forms a weaker interfacial film, but the charged N-terminal region provides
362 excellent steric stabilization. In other words, β -casein is a flexible/'soft' protein, which changes its
363 conformation more easily than β -lactoglobulin which is a 'hard', globular protein³¹. As a consequence, β -
364 casein can be displaced from an interface much more readily than β -lactoglobulin. This rule of thumb is
365 clearly less reliable in a system complicated by enzymic action and pH changes.

366 Oil droplets were recovered from the incubation systems by centrifugation, just after the gastric and
367 duodenal phases. The proteins still associated with their surfaces were studied by SDS-PAGE (Figure 8). Loss
368 of bands indicates removal of proteins from the surface, and/or digestion (full or partial); new bands indicate
369 remnant protein fragments, left behind after partial protein digestion, which remain associated with the droplet

370 surface. For the oil bodies, the loss of the oleosin band (~18-21 kDa) during digestion in the gastric model, and
371 the appearance of protein fragments either between 6.7 and 17.5 kDa, or less than 6.7 kDa, indicates the
372 breakdown of oleosin into small peptides that appear to remain bound to/associated with the oil droplets.
373 Oleosin has three functional motifs: an amphipathic N-terminal region, a central hydrophobic antiparallel β -
374 strand domain and an amphipathic C-terminal domain with variable length². It is likely that the protruding part
375 of the oleosin molecule, which provides a strengthened layer on the surface, is susceptible to enzymatic
376 cleavage and leads to the weakening and consequential coalescence of oil bodies. Pepsin hydrolyses peptide
377 bonds at the N-terminus of aromatic residues³². Given the amino acid sequence of oleosin protein in sunflower
378 seed, there are eleven potential sites of pepsin action, and 4 of these peptide bonds are within the exposed
379 domains of oleosin on the surface of oil bodies³³⁻³⁵.

380 Qualitative examination of protein molecular weights in COB reveals a general degradation of proteins
381 resulting in an increase in the number of bands between 6.7 to 17.5 kDa after incubation in the gastric model
382 (lane B and C). The major band in this region has been highlighted with a green box in Figure 8; this band
383 may represent the hydrophobic domain (and associated residual hydrophilic domain 'stumps') of oleosin, left
384 behind securely anchored in the oil phase after the action of pepsin on the exposed hydrophilic domains.

385 One unique feature of the COB data is that some 'complete' oleosin also appears to remain after the initial
386 gastric phase of digestion. Perhaps the extraneous proteins (that we have already suggested shield the surface
387 of the oil bodies and so affect the apparent surface charge), protect exposed oleosin domains from digestion to
388 some extent. It could be argued that a similar protection of oleosin is afforded by extraneous almond proteins
389 during gastric incubation¹⁴. This shielding from enzyme activity is not apparent for WPI and SC enriched
390 WOB material. Interestingly, protein breakdown was much more efficient in the WOB emulsion as no protein
391 bands were seen on the protein gel after the gastric conditions (2 hours). This suggests that all the proteins
392 were degraded and/or removed from the surface of the droplets (compare lane E with lane F). It is worth
393 noting that the WOB material used for this study contained a protein, not observed in the parent COB material,
394 that coincides with the putative 'oleosin hydrophobic domain' band. This protein fragment may be present on
395 all the parent COB and WOB samples (or is an artefact of sample preparation for SDS-PAGE analysis), but is
396 only observed when its loading concentration effectively increases through removing extraneous proteins
397 during the oil body washing phase, **or** some proteolytic activity was present in the sample (perhaps due to an
398 endogenous enzyme). If the latter explanation is correct, then one may speculate that if the COB material is
399 left for any time (even chilled) before washing, then such a transformation may be possible.

400 For both WOB-WPI and WOB-SC emulsions (lanes H and I and lanes K and L) incubation in the gastric
401 model resulted in a general protein breakdown/loss, but less dramatic compared with WOB, as protein bands
402 are still clearly visible (lanes I and L). This is even more marked in WOB-WPI compared with WOB-SC. As
403 was the case for COB emulsions, there is a suggestion that after the gastric phase, the exposed domains of

Food & Function

404 oleosin in these protein-enriched WOB emulsions have been removed through digestion, leaving a residual
405 protein composed predominantly of the hydrophobic domain. Protein breakdown/loss continued for all the
406 emulsions with a clear reduction in the molecular weight of all the remaining peptides (lane D, G, J and M). In
407 the case of WOB-WPI, it is possible that after 2 hours under gastric conditions some β -lactoglobulin remains
408 intact, but its molecular weight coincides with one of the oleosin isoforms, so it is not possible, with the
409 current data, to stipulate categorically whether at least a proportion of one or the other protein (or both) survive
410 the gastric phase; taken overall, the SDS-PAGE data provides a stronger case for the retention of some of the
411 β -lactoglobulin.

412 Whey protein is a complex mixture of different proteins: ca. 55% β -lactoglobulin (18.4 kDa), 24% α -
413 lactalbumin (14.2 kDa), 5% serum albumin (66.2 kDa) and 15% immunoglobulins (90 kDa). SDS-PAGE (lane
414 I) of WOB-WPI digested in the gastric model, suggest breakdown/loss of α -lactalbumin but possible retention
415 of the β -lactoglobulin protein under these conditions, implying specificity of the action of the pepsin enzyme.
416 This breakdown of protein in WPI is consistent with previous studies^{13, 36-38}. Beta-lactoglobulin in its native
417 form has indeed been recognised to be resistant to hydrolysis in the gastric phase³⁹. However, when a change
418 in conformation occurs, such as during adsorption to the oil-water interface, the protein becomes susceptible to
419 pepsin hydrolysis³⁸. For WOB-SC, sodium caseinate contains the four main caseins; β -casein (23 kDa), α_{s1} -
420 casein (24 kDa), α_{s2} -casein (25 kDa) and κ -casein (19 kDa) in the ratios 3:4:1:1, respectively. However, the
421 commercial SC was mainly composed of polypeptides with their MW within range of 29.4 to 37.6 kDa (lane
422 K). This was slightly higher than the MW of caseins (19-25 kDa) due to the polymerization of proteins during
423 commercial processing. SDS-PAGE (lane L) of WOB-SC digested in the gastric model, suggest complete
424 breakdown of oleosin in WOB and all polypeptides in SC. This breakdown of caseins by protein hydrolysis in
425 gastric conditions is in agreement with the previous studies⁴⁰⁻⁴².

426 Finally, there is a clear reduction in the intensity of protein bands in all emulsions after the duodenal
427 digestion (lane D, G, J and M). This confirms the presence of active proteases in the porcine pancreatic
428 extract. This agrees with Singh et al.⁴³ who reported that commercial pancreatic lipase from Sigma-Aldrich
429 company causes the breakdown of protein in a β -lactoglobulin-stabilised emulsion.

430 3.2 Protein composition of oil bodies after treatment with bile salts

431 As mentioned earlier, the dominant intrinsic protein associated with the surfaces of the oil bodies are the
432 oleosins^{3,44}. Oleosins from diverse species range in molecular weight (MW) from approximately 15 to 26 kDa
433⁴⁴. The exact sizes of the different isoforms vary from one plant to another, for example 16 and 18 kDa in
434 maize, 18 and 24 kDa in soybean and 18 and 21 kDa in sunflower seeds⁴⁵. Work was carried out to establish if
435 bile salts were capable of displacing oleosin from a preparation of crude oil bodies. Bile salts can absorb onto
436 and remove other materials e.g. proteins and emulsifier from the lipid surface¹⁷. Maldonado-Valderrama et al.

437 ¹⁸ reported that the bile salts can almost completely displace the intact protein β -lactoglobulin network under
438 duodenal conditions. It is not yet known if intrinsic oil body proteins are displaced by bile salts or not. Figure
439 9 shows the protein profile of the micellar phase removed after incubation of crude oil bodies (COB) with bile
440 salts (lane E). This profile is similar to the protein profile of the control COB (no bile salts) after 2 h
441 incubation but before phase separation (lane C); whereas there were only a few proteins in the micellar phase
442 of the COB control after incubation (lane D). These results suggests that almost all the surface proteins of oil
443 bodies, including oleosin, were displaced by bile salts. Interestingly, the data also show that the pattern of
444 protein bands in COB control after incubation is similar to the pre-incubation profile (lane C compared to lane
445 B). However, there are small molecular weight protein bands (between 6.7 and 17.5 kDa) accumulating in the
446 COB control after incubation (lane C). This observation suggests that there is some breakdown of proteins in
447 this sample; the crude oil body preparation may contain some carry-over enzymes with proteolytic activity, but
448 this effect seems almost negligible. These results show the potential of bile salts to displace proteins at the
449 surface of oil bodies, even well-anchored proteins such as oleosin. Whether bile salts could effect this
450 displacement if oleosin was reduced to the hydrophobic domain after gastric digestion is not clear from this
451 work; it has been suggested that such a remnant, if it exists, could affect the rate of lipase digestion in the
452 duodenum ¹⁴.

453 4. Conclusions

454 Sunflower seed oil bodies have the capacity to associate with extraneous proteins including whey protein
455 isolates and casein proteins. This extraneous protein environment surrounding oil bodies affects the apparent
456 surface charge and stability of oil bodies, which may have important consequences for the commercial
457 application of oil bodies as delivery systems in foods. The proteins associated with the surface of the
458 sunflower oils bodies studied (crude, or washed, or washed and enriched with WPI or casein) are, to a greater
459 or lesser extent, hydrolysed and/or removed from the surface during simulation of gastro-intestinal conditions,
460 causing significant changes in the morphology of the droplets. Sunflower seed proteins not intrinsic to oil
461 bodies (present in COB), and caseinate (present in WOB-SC) both appear to cause flocculation of droplets in
462 the gastric phase, whereas WOB and WOB-WPI display more coalescence than flocculation at this stage.
463 Although it is clear that bile salts dominate the surface of all the droplets in the duodenal phase of digestion,
464 COB and WOB-SC yield smaller droplets in the duodenal phase of the digestion model employed, compared
465 with WOB or WOB-WPI. This may have an effect on the rate of triacylglycerol digestion. The reason for
466 these differences in droplet size is not entirely clear, but is should be pointed out that the competing dynamics
467 of bile salt insertion into the surface of the droplets emerging from the gastric phase, and their tendency to
468 coalesce will affect the size of the droplets throughout that phase. We have evidence that bile salts are able to
469 displace oleosin. It may therefore be possible that the extraneous seed proteins are protecting the oleosin

Food & Function

470 during the gastric phase, thus restricting the droplet size during bile salt insertion. These results may have
471 important implications for the design of functional food products that control the digestion and release of
472 lipids from oil body-based delivery systems.

473 Acknowledgements

474 The Royal Thai government is acknowledged for the financial support of this research.

475

476 References

- 477 1. J. T. C. Tzen, Y. Z. Cao, P. Laurent, C. Ratnayake and A. H. C. Huang, *Plant Physiol.*, 1993, **101**,
478 267-276.
- 479 2. J. T. C. Tzen, G. C. Lie and A. H. C. Huang, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 1992, **267**, 15626-15634.
- 480 3. J. T. C. Tzen and A. H. C. Huang, *J. Cell Biol.*, 1992, **117**, 327-335.
- 481 4. F. Beisson, N. Ferte and G. Noat, *Biochem. J.*, 1996, **317**, 955-956.
- 482 5. P. J. E. Thoyts, J. A. Napier, M. Millichip, A. K. Stobart, W. T. Griffiths, A. S. Tatham and P. R.
483 Shewry, *Plant Sci.*, 1996, **118**, 119-125.
- 484 6. D. J. Lacey, N. Wellner, F. Beaudoin, J. A. Napier and P. R. Shewry, *Biochem. J.*, 1998, **334**, 469-
485 477.
- 486 7. I. D. Fisk, D. A. White, A. Carvalho and D. A. Gray, *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*, 2006, **83**, 341-344.
- 487 8. N. Nantiyakul, S. Furse, I.D. Fisk, T.J. Foster, G. Tucker and D.A. Gray, *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*, 2012,
488 **89** (10) 1867-1872
- 489 9. D.A. Gray, G. Payne, D.J. McClements, E.A. Decker and M. Lad, *European Journal of Lipid Science*
490 *and Technology*, 2010, **112** (7), 741-749
- 491 10. D. A. Garrett, M. L. Failla and R. J. Sarama, *J. Agri. Food Chem.*, 1999, **47**, 4301-4309.
- 492 11. E. Hedren, V. Diaz and U. Svanberg, *Eur. J. Clin. Nutr.*, 2002, **56**, 425-430.
- 493 12. D. D. Miller, B. R. Schricker, R. R. Rasmussen and D. Vancampen, *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.*, 1981, **34**,
494 2248-2256.
- 495 13. N. Wu, X. Huang, X.-Q. Yang, J. Guo, S.-W. Yin, X.-T. He, L.-J. Wang, J.-H. Zhu, J.-R. Qi and E.-L.
496 Zheng, *J. Agri. Food Chem.*, 2012, **60**, 1567-1575.
- 497 14. S. Gallier and H. Singh, *Food Funct.*, 2012, **3**, 547-555.
- 498 15. S. Gallier, H. Tate and H. Singh, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 2013, **61**, 410-417.
- 499 16. D. A. White, I. D. Fisk, S. Makhun and D. A. Gray, *J. Agri. Food Chem.*, 2009, **57**, 5720-5726.
- 500 17. J. Maldonado-Valderrama, P. Wilde, A. Macierzanka and A. Mackie, *Adv. Colloid Interfac. Sci.*,
501 2011, **165**, 36-46.

Food & Function

- 502 18. J. Maldonado-Valderrama, N. C. Woodward, A. P. Gunning, M. J. Ridout, F. A. Husband, A. R.
503 Mackie, V. J. Morris and P. J. Wilde, *Langmuir*, 2008, **24**, 6759-6767.
- 504 19. F. Beisson, N. Ferte, R. Voultoury and V. Arondel, *Plant Physiol. Biochem.*, 2001, **39**, 623-630.
- 505 20. P. K. Smith, R. I. Krohn, G. T. Hermanson, A. K. Mallia, F. H. Gartner, M. D. Provenzano, E. K.
506 Fujimoto, N. M. Goeke, B. J. Olson and D. C. Klenk, *Anal. Biochem.*, 1985, **150**, 76-85.
- 507 21. M. Beysseriat, E. A. Decker and D. J. McClements, *Food Hydrocolloids*, 2006, **20**, 800-809.
- 508 22. S. Mun, E. A. Decker and D. J. McClements, *Food Res. Int.*, 2007, **40**, 770-781.
- 509 23. G. Mandalari, R. M. Faulks, G. T. Rich, V. Lo Turco, D. R. Picout, R. B. Lo Curto, G. Bisignano, P.
510 Dugo, G. Dugo, K. W. Waldron, P. R. Ellis and M. S. J. Wickham, *J. Agri. Food Chem.*, 2008, **56**,
511 3409-3416.
- 512 24. G. Payne, M. Lad, T. Foster, A. Khosla and D.A. Gray, *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces*, 2014,
513 **116**, 88-92
- 514 25. A. Sarkar, K. K. T. Goth, R. P. Singh and H. Singh, *Food Hydrocolloids*, 2009, **23**, 1563-1569.
- 515 26. M. Golding, T. J. Wooster, L. Day, M. Xu, L. Lundin, J. Keogh and P. Clifton, *Soft Matter*, 2011, **7**,
516 3513-3523.
- 517 27. J. Li, A. Ye, S. J. Lee and H. Singh, *Food Funct.*, 2012, **3**, 320-326.
- 518 28. J. N. de Wit, *J. Dairy Sci.*, 1998, **81**, 597-608.
- 519 29. M. Bos and T. van Vliet, *Adv. Colloid Interface Sci.*, 2001, **91**, 437-471.
- 520 30. J. R. Mitchell, *Dev. Food Prot*, 1986, **4**, 291-338.
- 521 31. T. Arai and W. Norde, *Colloids and Surfaces*, 1990, **51**, 1-15.
- 522 32. J. S. Fruton, S. Fujii and M. H. Knappenberger, *P Natl Acad Sci USA*, 1961, **47**, 759-761.
- 523 33. J. C. F. Chen and J. T. C. Tzen, *Plant Cell Physiol.*, 2001, **42**, 1245-1252.
- 524 34. M. Li, D. J. Murphy, K. H. K. Lee, R. Wilson, L. J. Smith, D. C. Clark and J. Y. Sung, *J. Biol. Chem.*,
525 2002, **277**, 37888-37895.
- 526 35. S. Vandana and S. C. Bhatla, *Plant Physiol. Biochem.*, 2006, **44**, 714-723.
- 527 36. D. G. Schmidt and B. W. Vanmarkwijk, *Neth. Milk Dairy J.*, 1993, **47**, 15-22.
- 528 37. N. Kitabatake and Y. I. Kinekawa, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 1998, **46**, 4917-4923.
- 529 38. A. Malaki Nik, A. J. Wright and M. Corredig, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.*, 2010, **344**, 372-381.
- 530 39. I.M. Reddy, N.K.D. Kella and J.E. Kinsella, *Journal Agric. Food Chem.*, 1988, **36** (4), 737-74138.
531
- 532 40. A. Macierzanka, A. I. Sancho, E. N. C. Mills, N. M. Rigby and A. R. Mackie, *Soft Matter*, 2009, **5**,
533 538-550.
- 534 41. M. R. Guo, P. F. Fox, A. Flynn and P. S. Kindstedt, *J. Dairy Sci.*, 1995, **78**, 2336-2344.
- 535 42. M. Defernez, G. Mandalari and E. N. C. Mills, *Electrophoresis*, 2010, **31**, 2838-2848.

Food & Function

536 43. H. Singh, A. Ye and D. Horne, *Prog. Lipid Res.*, 2009, **48**, 92-100.

537 44. A. H. C. Huang, *Annu.Rev. Plant Phys.*, 1992, **43**, 177-200.

538 45. J. T. C. Tzen, Y. K. Lai, K. L. Chan and A. H. C. Huang, *Plant Physiol*, 1990, **94**, 1282-1289.

539

540

541 Legends to Figures**542 Figure 1.**

543 Confocal Micrographs of WOB (washed oil bodies), WOB-WPI (washed oil bodies + whey protein isolate)
544 and WOB-SC (washed oil bodies + sodium caseinate) prepared as described in the methods section.

545 Figure 2.

546 Zeta potential of COB, WOB, WOB-WPI and WOB-SC emulsion; before and during gastrointestinal digestion
547 for 4 hours (1h and 2h in gastric condition, 3h and 4h in duodenal condition).

548

549 Figure 3.

550 Particle size distributions (%volume) and light microscopy pictures of COB emulsion before and during
551 gastrointestinal digestion for 4 hours (1h and 2h in gastric condition, 3h and 4h in duodenal condition).

552

553 Figure 4.

554 Particle size distributions (%volume) and light microscopy pictures of WOB emulsion before and during
555 gastrointestinal digestion for 4 hours (1h and 2h in gastric condition, 3h and 4h in duodenal condition).

556

557 Figure 5.

558 Particle size distributions (%volume) and light microscopy pictures of WOB-WPI enriched emulsion before
559 and during gastrointestinal digestion for 4 hours (1h and 2h in gastric condition, 3h and 4h in duodenal
560 condition).

561

562 Figure 6.

Food & Function

563 Particle size distributions (%volume) and light microscopy pictures of WOB-SC enriched emulsion before and
564 during gastrointestinal digestion for 4 hours (1h and 2h in gastric condition, 3h and 4h in duodenal condition).

565

566 **Figure 7.**

567 Mean diameter ($d_{4,3}$) of COB, WOB, WOB-WPI and WOB-SC emulsion before and during gastrointestinal
568 digestion for 4 hours (1h and 2h in gastric condition, 3h and 4h in duodenal condition).

569

570

571 **Figure 8.**

572 SDS-PAGE of proteins associated with COB, WOB, WOB-WPI and WOB-SC droplets before and during
573 gastrointestinal digestion for 4 hours (2 hours in gastric condition followed by 2 hours in duodenal condition)

574 Protein standard marker (lane A); initial COB droplets (lane B); digested COB under gastric conditions (lane
575 C); digested COB under duodenal conditions (lane D); initial WOB droplets (lane E); digested WOB under
576 gastric conditions (lane F); digested WOB under duodenal conditions (lane G); initial WOB-WPI droplets
577 (lane H); digested WOB-WPI under gastric conditions (lane I); digested WOB-WPI under duodenal conditions
578 (lane J); initial WOB-SC droplets (lane K); digested WOB-SC under gastric conditions (lane L); and digested
579 WOB-SC under duodenal conditions (lane M)

580 Red arrows indicate bands that correlate with known molecular weights of specific proteins; the green
581 box highlights a band that may be the hydrophobic domain of the oleosin protein.

582

583 **Figure 9.**

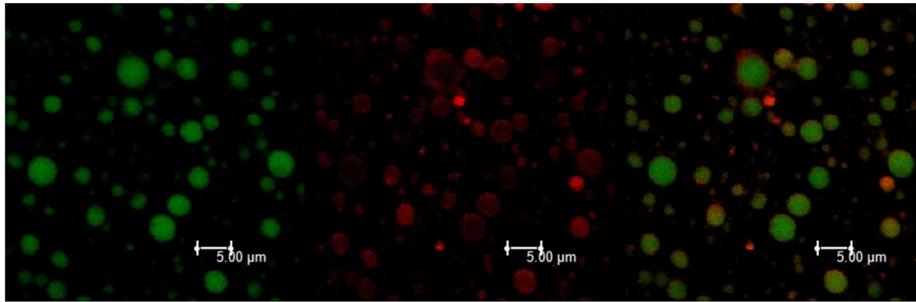
584 SDS-PAGE of proteins in crude oil body (COB) droplets after incubation with bile salts for 2 hours under
585 duodenal conditions (no prior gastric phase)

586 Protein standard marker (lane A); COB pre-incubation (lane B); COB control [no bile salts] (pre-separation
587 into micellar and buoyant (oil droplet) fractions) (lane C); micellar phase of COB control (lane D); and
588 micellar phase of COB after incubation with bile salts (lane E).

589

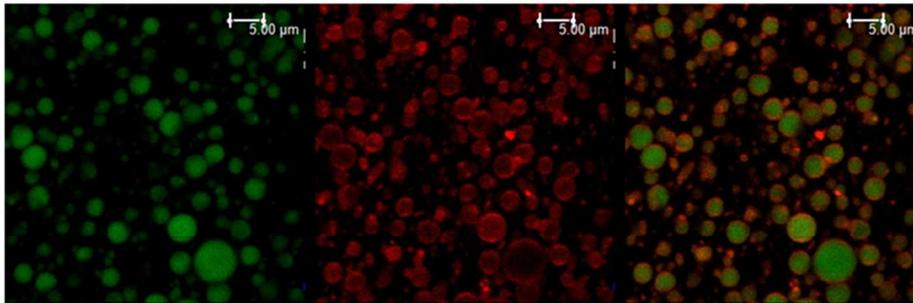
590 **Figure 1.**

591 WOB



597

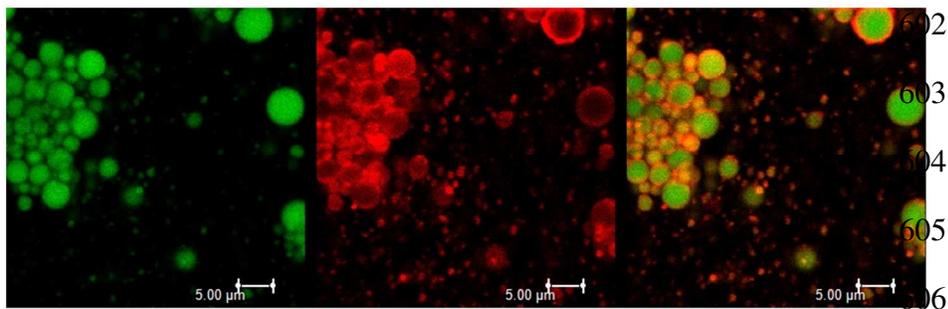
598 WOB-WPI



599

600

601 WOB-SC



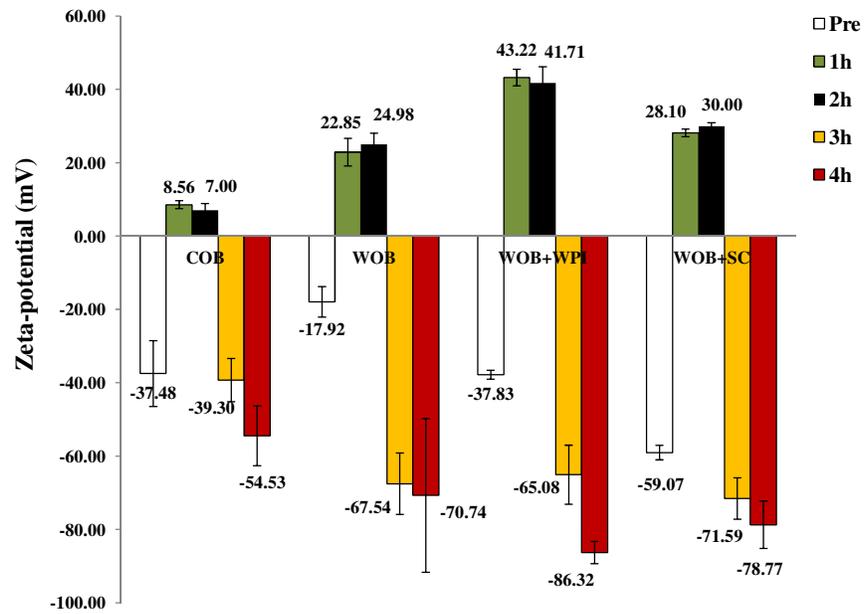
607

608

609 Note: From left to right: lipid stained with Nile red; protein stained with Nile blue; overlay of lipid
610 and protein stained.

611

612 Figure 2.



613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

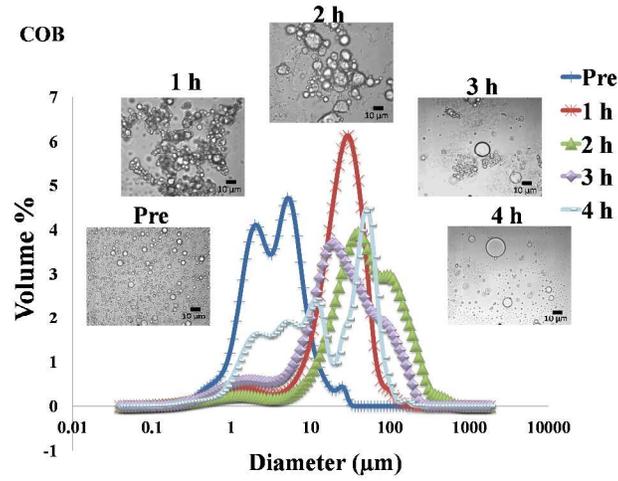
626

627

628

629 **Figure 3.**

630



631

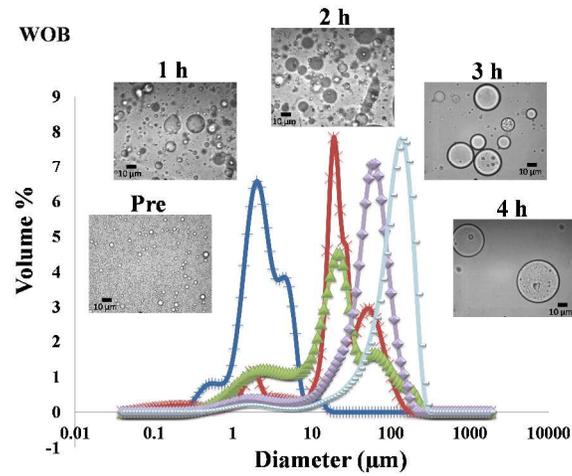
632

633

634

635 **Figure 4.**

636



637

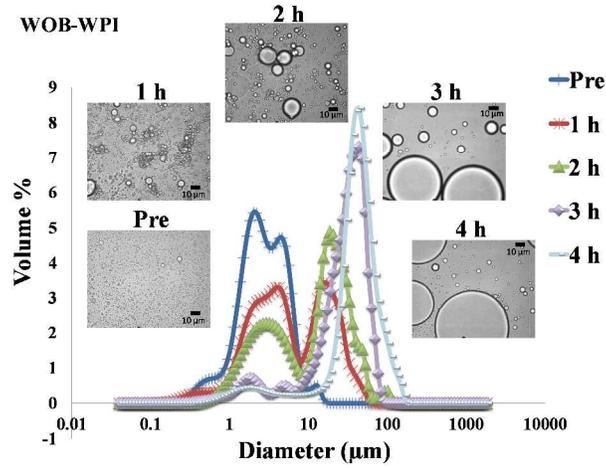
638

639

640

641 **Figure 5.**

642



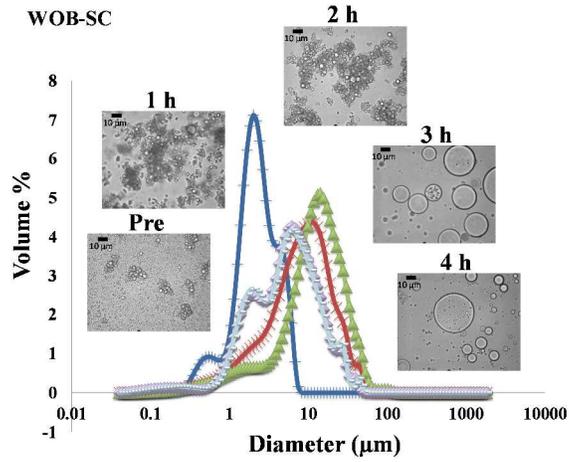
643

644

645

646 **Figure 6.**

647



648

649

650

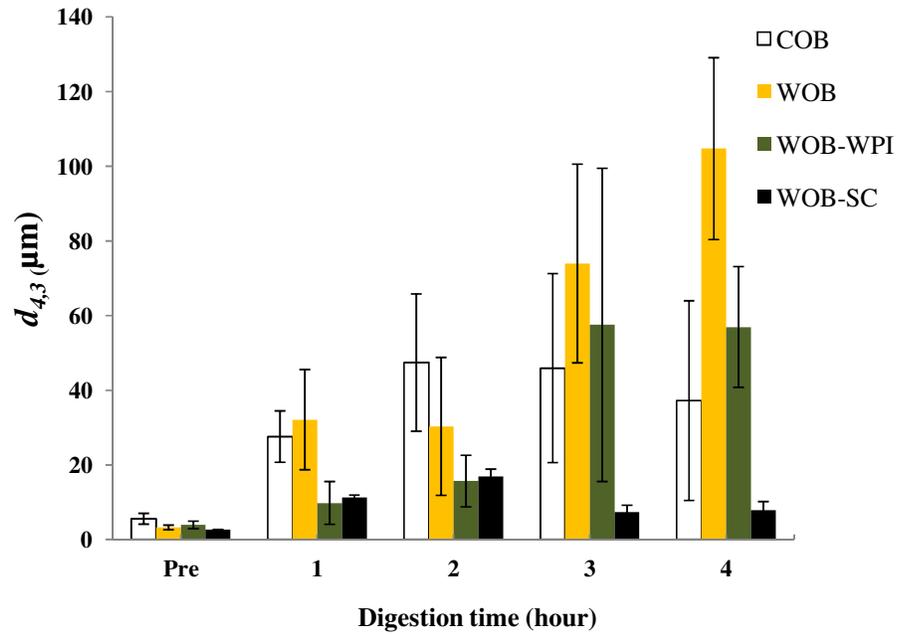
651

652

653

654 **Figure 7.**

655



656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

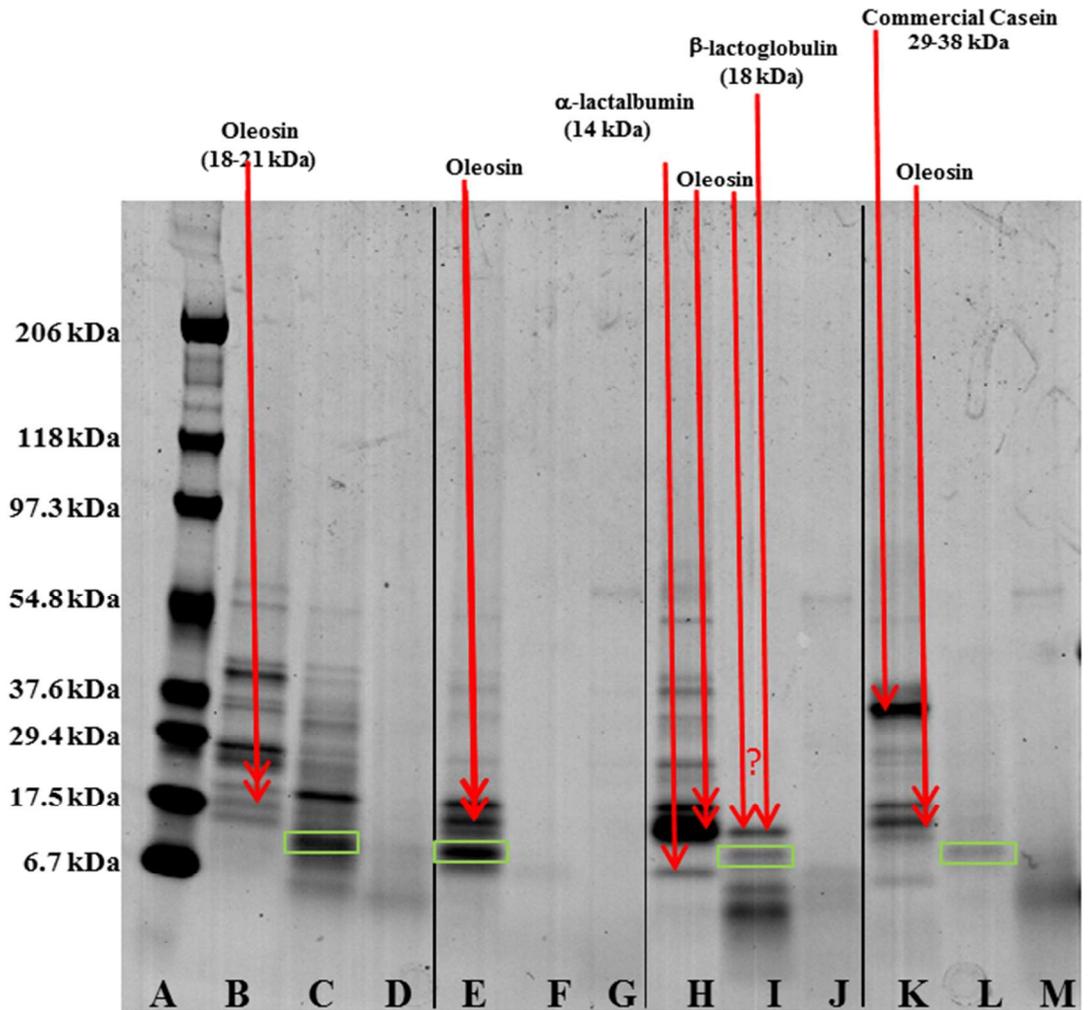
667

668

669

670

671 **Figure 8.**



672

673

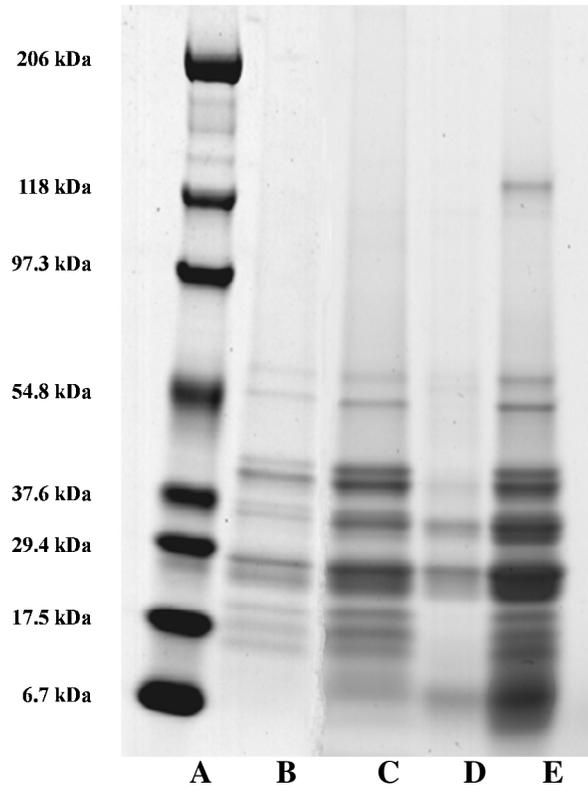
674

675

676

677 **Figure 9.**

678



679

680

681

682

683

684