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Unveiling the flavone-solubilizing effects of α-glucosyl rutin and hesperidin: Probing structural differences through NMR and SAXS analyses†

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Flavonoids often exhibit broad bioactivity but low solubility and bioavailability, limiting their practical applications. The transglycosylated materials α-glucosyl rutin (Rutin-G) and α-glucosyl hesperidin (Hsp-G) are known to enhance the dissolution of hydrophobic compounds, such as flavonoids and other polyphenols. In this study, the effects of these materials on flavone solubilization were investigated by probing their interactions with flavone in aqueous solutions. Rutin-G and Hsp-G prepared via solvent evaporation and spray-drying methods were evaluated for their ability to dissolve flavones. Rutin-G had a stronger flavone-solubilizing effect than Hsp-G in both types of composite particles. The origin of this difference in behavior was elucidated by small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) and nuclear magnetic resonance analyses. The different selfassociation structures of Rutin-G and Hsp-G were supported by SAXS analysis, which proved that Rutin-G formed polydisperse aggregates, whereas Hsp-G formed core–shell micelles. The observation of nuclear Overhauser effects (NOEs) between flavone and α-glucosyl materials suggested the existence of intermolecular hydrophobic interactions. However, flavone interacted with different regions of Rutin-G and Hsp-G. In particular, NOE correlations were observed between the protons of flavone and the α-glucosyl protons of Rutin-G. The different molecular association states of Rutin-G or Hsp-G could be responsible for their different effects on the solubility of flavone. A better understanding of the mechanism of flavone solubility enhancement via association with α -glucosyl materials would permit the application of α -glucosyl materials to the solubilization of other hydrophobic compounds including polyphenols such as flavonoids.

1. Introduction

Flavonoids are well-known biologically active, low-molecularweight secondary metabolites produced by various plants.^{1,2} More than 9,000 structural variants of flavonoids have been identified,3,4 and a number of different flavonoids may be found in an individual species. The term flavonoid, which is derived from the Latin word *flavus* meaning yellow, originally referred to plant pigments or co-pigments.⁵ All flavonoids contain a basic skeleton of 15 carbon atoms consisting of a benzene ring fused to a six-membered ring carrying a phenyl ring at the second or third position. 6 Differences in the C_3 structure present in the center of $C_6-C_3-C_6$ of flavan, which is the basic skeleton of aglycone, produce the various flavonoids.⁷ Flavonoids are classified into six structural groups according to their hydroxylation pattern and the unsaturation degree of their skeleton.⁸ In a broad sense, anthocyanin and flavanol with an anthocyanidine skeleton, are considered flavonoids. However,

in a narrow sense, flavone, flavanone, and their derivatives flavanol, flavonol, and isoflavone are defined as flavonoids.

Flavonoids, which comprise the largest family of natural bioactive extracts, are formed by plants to protect against microbial invasion. For decades, flavonoids have been known as potent antioxidants based on their ability to reduce the levels of active and harmful substances, namely free radicals, via radical scavenging.⁹ Flavonoids also exhibit a wide range of other functions in physiology, biochemistry, and ecology. $10,11$ The physiological activity of flavonoids is believed to be based on their physical characteristics, i.e., planar structure and hydrophobicity, and their chemical characteristics, i.e., electron-donating ability of phenolic hydroxyl groups. In particular, the flavonoid structure is important because the number and position of hydroxyl groups are correlated with the activity of compounds.^{12,13} Additionally, there have been many attempts to utilize flavonoids in healthy foods owing to their potential ability to protect against lung fibrosis, hepatotoxicity, and oxidative renal dysfunction.¹⁴ However, because of their hydrophobicity, many flavonoids exhibit low solubility and bioavailability.15,16

To enhance the dissolution characteristics of flavonoids, various solubilization techniques have been investigated.¹⁷ Typical methods used in the food industry to improve the solubilization of hydrophobic flavonoids include the formation of inclusion compounds with cyclodextrins¹⁸ and micelle

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formation with surfactants.¹⁹ In addition, the solubility of hydrophobic flavonoids has been successfully enhanced using solubilizing technologies based on various emulsion systems.^{20–} 22 Recently, there has been increased interest in applying pharmaceutical technologies, such as solid dispersion and selfmicroemulsifying drug delivery systems, to enhance the solubility and bioavailability of hydrophobic flavonoids.^{23,24} For food application, the nanocarrier formulation based on foodgrade ingredients have been attracted. Nanocarrier formulations using zein, casein, glucan, and α -lactalbumin have been applied to improve the solubility of hydrophobic compounds including polyphenols.25–29 These food-grade ingredients have mainly been used for the preparation of emulsion nanoparticles. By contrast, we developed a new solid dispersion technology using the unique properties of transglycosylated materials, including α-glucosyl hesperidin (Hsp-G) and α-glucosyl rutin (Rutin-G), to prepare formulations of hydrophobic flavonoids and transglycosylated materials with enhanced nutraceutical functions,³⁰⁻³³ in addition to complexes of flavonoids with milk protein such as β-lactoglobulin, which can contribute to improvements in their functional properties.34,35 Furthermore, the application of food-grade excipients to improve the solubility of hydrophobic compounds in nutraceuticals and supplements has been anticipated to expand the functional food market.^{36,37} Hsp-G and Rutin-G are synthesized from the precursor compounds hesperidin and rutin, respectively, via transglycosylation reactions.38–40 Several efforts have been made to clarify the underlying mechanisms by which transglycosylated materials enhance the solubility of hydrophobic compounds using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and fluorescence studies.41–43 Previous NMR studies only reported the interactions of each transglycosylated material with the targeted hydrophobic compounds in solution. However, the differences in solubilizing mechanisms for specific compounds have not been clarified. Recently, the solubilization mechanism of hydrophobic compounds via either micelles of surfactants or supramolecular self-assembly was revealed by small-angle scattering techniques.44–47

This study investigated the difference in the solubilizing effects of two α-glucosyl materials, namely, Rutin-G and Hsp-G, on flavone, a representative flavonoid skeleton, 41 based on the interactions of flavone with each α-glucosyl material, as determined using NMR spectroscopy. If the mechanism of solubility enhancement in flavonoids could be determined at the molecular level using NMR techniques,⁴⁸ functional food materials containing hydrophobic flavonoids could be more easily developed. We used a small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) technique to provide structural insights into the individual aggregation structures of Rutin-G and Hsp-G. An improved understanding of the dissolution properties of the composite particles of flavone and Rutin-G or Hsp-G is expected to broaden the applicability of α-glucosyl materials for enhancing the solubility of hydrophobic flavonoids.

2.1 Materials

Flavone was purchased from Nacalai Tesque Inc. (Kyoto, Japan), Rutin-G and Hsp-G were acquired from Toyo Sugar Refining Co. (Tokyo, Japan), and commercial deuterium oxide (D_2O , 99.9%) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). All other chemicals and solvents were of reagent grade and used without further purification. The chemical structures and atom numbering of flavone, Hsp-G, and Rutin-G are depicted in Fig. 1.

Fig. 1 Chemical structures and atom numbering of (A) α-glucosyl hesperidin (Hsp-G), (B) α-glucosyl rutin (Rutin-G), and (C) flavone.

2.2 Preparation of spray-dried particles (SDPs) and evaporated powders

SDPs and evaporated powders were prepared in references to the previous study.30,49,50 Herein, the preparation procedures and conditions are described briefly. To prepare SDPs of flavone with Rutin-G or Hsp-G, flavone (200 mg) was dissolved in 60 mL of ethanol, and each α-glucosyl material (2000 mg) in 140 mL of distilled water. Flavone was combined with Rutin-G or Hsp-Gat at a weight ratio of 1:10 with a magnetic stirrer for 5 min at ambient temperature. The solvent of the combined mixture of flavone and α-glucosyl materials was removed using a rotary evaporator (R-3, Büchi, Flawil, Switzerland) under pressure of approximately 4 kPa in a water bath maintained at 50 °C. The obtained mixture was fed into a spray dryer (B-290, Büchi) at a rate of 8.0 mL/min. The inlet temperature of the drying chamber was set at 130 °C, resulting in the outlet temperature ranged 56-60 °C. The air flow rate for drying was approximately 35 m³/h. Compressed air was provided distinctly to the spray nozzle at 473 L/h and 41 kPa. Physical mixtures were micronized as reference samples by grinding flavone and Rutin-G or Hsp-G together in a mortar with a pestle for 3 min. The total samples were dried in a drying cabinet under reduced pressure for one day prior to testing their physicochemical properties.

2.3 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

Representative SEM images of the samples were obtained using a Miniscope TM3030 instrument (Hitachi High-Technologies Co., Tokyo, Japan) at an acceleration voltage of 15 kV. Before imaging, the samples were fixed on an aluminum sample holder using double-sided carbon tape and coated with a thin layer of gold under vacuum (E-1045, Hitachi, Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan).

2.4 Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD)

2. Experimental

2.5 Solubility Study

The apparent solubilities of the flavone samples were measured *via* incubation for 24 h at 37 °C under shaking at 100 rpm (ML-10, Taitec, Co. Ltd., Saitama, Japan). Each flavone-containing sample (50 mg) was dispersed in 25 mL of distilled water. The amount of dissolved flavone was deduced using a highperformance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system (SPD-10A, Shimadzu Co., Ltd., Kyoto, Japan) equipped with a pump (LC-10AD), detector (SPD-10A), and column (COSMOSIL 5C18–MS-II, 4.6 mm φ × 150 mm; Nacalai Tesque, Inc.). The conditions were as follows: column temperature, 40 °C; wavelength, 280 nm; injection volume, 20 μL; and flow rate, 1.0 mL/min. The mobile phase was 0.1% phosphoric acid/acetonitrile (30:70, v/v).

2.6 Dissolution study

Dissolution tests were performed for the flavone samples using untreated flavone, the physical mixtures, spray-dried samples, and evaporated samples of flavone with α-glucosyl materials. The dissolution tests were completed at a paddle rotation speed of 50 rpm in a 900-mL vessel using an NTR-8000AC instrument (Toyama Sangyo, Nagoya, Japan). Each flavone-containing sample (100.0 mg) was mixed with 900 mL of distilled water at 37.0 \pm 0.5 °C. The concentration of flavone in the sample was measured at 5, 10, 15, 30, 45, 60, 120, and 180 min by removing 2 mL of the solution, filtering the solution through a 0.22 µm PTFE filter, and analyzing the sample (10 µL) by HPLC, as previously described.⁴⁹

2.7 Surface tension measurements

Surface tension was measured using the maximum bubble pressure technique with an online tensiometer (SITA Science Line t60, SITA Messtechnik GmbH, Dresden, Germany). This technique measures the dynamic surface tension at the newly formed surface of a bubble in a solution. A long bubble lifetime (1000 ms) was selected to detect low concentrations of additives under a semi-static condition. Each sample was measured under controlled conditions in triplicate at 25.0 ± 1.0 °C.

2.8 SAXS Measurements

SAXS measurements were performed using synchrotron radiation at the BL-10C of the Photon Factory (PF) in High Energy Accelerator Research Organization (KEK).⁵¹ The measurement conditions were as follows: X-ray wavelength, 1.00 Å; temperature, 25 °C; exposure time, 240 s; beam size, 0.5 × 0.5 mm² ; camera length, 2000 mm; and detector, PILATUS2M. The samples were placed a 2-mm capillary. Other experimental procedures were similar to those applied in our previous reported papers.42,52 The SAXS profiles were logarithmically averaged to 300 data points using Igor Pro 9.0.2.4 (WaveMetrics, Inc., Lake Oswego, OR, USA) to facilitate model

fitting.⁵³ The analysis was performed in an arbitrary intensity scale using SASfit 0.94.11 (Paul Scherrer Institute, Villigen, Switzerland) and SasView 5.0.5 (www.sasview.org). The molecular volumes of Rutin-G and Hsp-G were estimated using CRYSOL.⁵⁴ The model details and best-fit model parameters are presented in the Supporting Information.

2.9 NMR Measurements

Using an adjustable temperature-control unit, ¹H NMR spectra were recorded on an Agilent DD2 600 MHz spectrometer. The ¹H chemical shifts were referenced to the methyl group of 3-(trimethylsilyl)propionic acid at 0 ppm at 25 °C. Sample solutions were prepared by dissolving the spray-dried samples comprising flavone and α -glucosyl materials in D₂O. Proton peak assignments were performed by combining various 2D NMR spectral techniques, including gradient correlation spectroscopy, total correlation spectroscopy, nuclear Overhauser effect spectroscopy (NOESY), gradient heteronuclear single quantum coherence, and gradient heteronuclear multiple bond correlation. NOESY spectra were measured at mixing times of 500 ms.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Solubility and dissolution properties of flavone with α-glucosyl materials

Using HPLC analysis, we estimated the solubility of flavone in distilled water after incubation at 37 \pm 1.0 °C for 24 h to be approximately 45 μg/mL without any α-glucosyl materials. Figure 2 presents the effects of the addition of α -glucosyl materials on the amount of dissolved flavone. These experiments used physical mixtures of flavone with Rutin-G or Hsp-G prepared by dispersion in distilled water at 100 rpm. The solubility of flavone increased with increasing concentrations of the α-glucosyl materials, and its solubility was slightly higher in the presence of Rutin-G than in the presence of Hsp-G.

The powderization of hydrophobic compounds such as flavone is an in-demand process in pharmaceutical and food industries.⁵⁵ Furthermore, the microencapsulation of

Fig. 2 Amount of dissolved flavone as a function of the loading concentration of αglucosyl materials.

hydrophobic compounds with wall materials *via* solvent evaporation or spray drying is critical in formulating flavors in the food industry.⁵⁶ We prepared powders of flavone with $α$ glucosyl materials using evaporation and spray-drying methods. Previously, we improved the dissolution properties of hydrophobic compounds such as quercetin and ipriflavone with α -glucosyl materials using these methods. $31,57$ The

methods was verified by SEM (Fig. S1). Figure 3 presents the different dissolution patterns of untreated flavone with the spray-dried formulations, the evaporated formulations, and the physical mixtures of flavone with α-glucosyl materials. In the spray-dried, evaporated, and physical mixture formulations of flavone, both α-glucosyl materials improved the dissolution rate compared to the findings for untreated flavone. Moreover, the apparent flavone solubilities of the SDPs and evaporated powders with both αglucosyl materials were higher than those of untreated flavone crystals. Several diffraction peaks observed in the PXRD pattern
A Ountreated flavone

powderization of flavone with α-glucosyl materials using both

Fig. 3 Dissolution profiles of flavone (a) with Hsp-G and (b) Rutin-G in 900 mL of distilled water at 37 °C. Error bars represent the mean ± SE of three experiments.

of partially treated flavone were absent in the evaporated and spray-dried formulations (Fig. S2), suggesting that flavone existed as amorphous particles or in a molecularly dispersed state in these formulations. In particular, the spray-dried formulations of flavone with the α-glucosyl materials could be considered uniformly dispersed molecular states.Although this statement were not ensured by other methods such as solidstate NMR spectroscopy in the present study, our group has previously investigated the characterization of other compounds in the Hsp-G or Rutin-G by using solid-state NMR or DSC.^{50,58} Then, the compounds prepared by spray drying with α glucosyl substances were dispersed in the molecular state. Therefore, the dissolution and release rates were highest for the spray-dried formulations containing flavone and either αglucosyl agent, and the values peaked after 180 min. This drastic increase in the solubility of flavone could be exploited for various applications such as further processing of functional foods. Previously, we reported that the composite particles of a hydrophobic compound with α-glucosyl materials prepared by spray-drying were identified as solid dispersions,⁵⁹ indicating the promise of α-glucosyl materials as solid dispersion carriers. Similarly, the solubility of flavone differed in the presence of Hsp-G and Rutin-G. The details of this difference in flavone solubility will be discussed in the section of NMR and SAXS.

3.2 Surface tension of α-glucosyl material solutions

We measured the surface tensions of Rutin-G or Hsp-G solutions using a maximum bubble pressure method. This measurement depends on the presence of surface-active species that can migrate and adsorb onto newly formed bubbles.⁶⁰ Figure 4 presents the relationship of the surface tensions of Rutin-G and Hsp-G solutions with the concentration of α-glucosyl materials. As previously reported, no surface activity was observed with Rutin-G even at higher concentrations,⁴² whereas Hsp-G exhibited slight surface activity. The surface tension of Hsp-G solution gradually decreased asthe Hsp-G concentration increased. Moreover, the surface tension changed abruptly at a specific concentration

Fig. 4 Surface tension of α-glucosyl materials as a function of concentration at 25 °C.

when the interface was saturated by the adsorbed Hsp-G. The critical micelle concentration (CMC) determined from this breakpoint was approximately 5 mg/mL.⁴³ Normally, a small amount of surfactant with strong surface activity can enhance the solubility of compounds in water. 61 This solubilizing effect has been attributed to the micelle structures formed by the surfactants. Considering these factors, Hsp-G could more strongly enhance the solubility of flavone than Rutin-G. However, our findings revealed a discrepancy between the flavone-solubilizing effects and surface activities of the αglucosyl materials. This behavior might be attributable to the molecular interactions of flavone with Rutin-G or Hsp-G. A similar trend was previously revealed for the solubility enhancement of ipriflavone with α -glucosyl materials,³¹ with solubility being higher in the presence of Rutin-G than in the presence of Hsp-G. Furthermore, the similarities in the chemical structures of flavone and the α -glucosyl materials might have contributed to the observed improvement in flavone solubility.30,31,41

3.3 Rutin-G and Hsp-G association structures as determined by SAXS

SAXS is sensitive to electron density differences in the sample, which is widely used to investigate the time-averaged nano- and microstructure of many materials.⁶² In SAXS, the scattering intensity, *I*(*q*), is measured as a function of momentum transfer *q*, which is inversely related to the probed length scale. Quantitative properties of the samples are then acquired by fitting theoretical structural models to the experimental intensity profiles. We used SAXS to give insights into possible differences in the association structures of Rutin-G and Hsp-G as a function of concentration.

Up to concentrations of 15 mg/mL, the polydisperse sphere model resulted in a good fit quality for Rutin-G scattering profiles (Fig. 5A and B). At higher concentrations, the fit quality decreased drastically and further interpretation of the scattering profiles was not successful (Fig. S3 in the Supporting Information). Possible explanations for the SAXS profile shape change include increases in ellipticity and polydispersity, or

Fig 5 (A) Rutin-G and (C) Hsp-G SAXS profiles and their best-fit models (Rutin-G: polydisperse sphere model; Hsp-G: sphere model at ≤3 mg/mL, core-shell sphere model at ≥4 mg/mL) in solid lines as the concentration is varied (the data have been offset vertically for clarity), and their respective fit residuals in (B) and (D) in increasing concentration from bottom-up. In (C), the cross-section of the micelle structure corresponding to 4 mg/mL is presented in scale with Hsp-G. (E) Rutin-G aggregate volume distributions determined from SAXS analysis in the range of 1–15 mg/mL and the corresponding radius of gyration, volume-average radius (*R*_V), and number average radius (*R*_N) are shown in the inset. The number size distributions are presented in Figure S4 in the Supporting Information. (F) Volume- and number-based Rutin-G aggregation numbers. The upper and lower error bounds correspond to *N_w* = 0 and *N_w* = 2, respectively, and the Hsp-G aggregation numbers for sphere and core-shell sphere models. (G) Hsp-G premicellar aggregate radius (R_{sgg}), total micelle radius ($R_{\text{tot}} = R_{\text{core}} + t$), core radius (R_{core}), and shell thickness (*t*) as the Hsp-G concentration varied.

structure factor effects. For Hsp-G, the monodisperse sphere model produced good fits at concentrations lower than 5 mg/mL (Figs. S4 and S5 in the Supporting Information), i.e., only slightly above the CMC of Hsp-G. Therefore, we used the CMC as a cutoff between the sphere (\leq 3 mg/mL) and core-shell sphere (≥4 mg/mL) models to interpret the scattering profiles. This yielded great improvement in the fit quality at concentrations up to approximately 15 mg/mL (Fig. 5C and D). Similar to the findings for Rutin-G, modeling of the scattering profiles at higher concentrations was unsuccessful.

The radius of gyration and volume average radius were more sensitive to the polydispersity of Rutin-G aggregates, which slightly increased with the concentration (Fig. 5E). Considering the number of hydroxyl groups in each Rutin-G molecule (N_{OH} = 13) and the number of water molecules associated with the hydroxyl groups of solubilized mono/disaccharides ($N_w \approx 1.5$ – 2),⁶³ we estimated the Rutin-G aggregation numbers from N_{agg} = *V*/(*v*Rutin-G + *N*OH*N*w*v*w), where *V* [=(4/3)π*R* 3] is the aggregate volume and v_{Rutin-G} (940.6 Å³) and v_w (30 Å³) are the volumes of Rutin-G and water molecules, respectively. Between 10 and 15 mg/mL, we acquired a number distribution-based mean *N*agg of approximately 2–4 and a volume distribution-based mean *N*agg of approximately 7–13, where the estimated lower and (strict) upper bounds were given by the assumptions $N_w = 2$ and $N_w =$ 0, respectively (Fig. 5F). Our number-based *N*agg was in good agreement with our previous results of *N*agg of approximately 2 below and 4 above the critical aggregation concentration (CAC) measured using ¹H NMR.⁴² Furthermore, the number average size of Rutin-G aggregates plateaued around the previously determined CAC of 5 mg/mL.

The use of the CMC cutoff for Hsp-G gave good agreement between the models on the aggregate radius (R_{age}) and the total size of the micelle (R_{tot}) as well as the aggregation numbers (N_{age}) ≈ 6) immediately below and above the CMC (Fig. 5F and G). The results further indicate that the growth of the micelle above the CMC is attributable to an increase in the micellar hydrophilic shell thickness (*t*) instead of an increase in the number of Hsp-G molecules, which would increase the radius of the hydrophobic core (R_{core}; Fig. 5G). This suggests that the conformation of the sugar moieties of Hsp-G extend slightly further out of the core, thereby enlarging the hydrocarbon corona of the micelle, as the Hsp-G concentration increased. The core-shell sphere model fit protocol used in this study was higher than the CMC that constricts the shell SLD (ρ_{shell}) based on $N_{\text{agg}} = V_{\text{core}}/v_{\text{tail}}$ and V_{shell} values (see Supporting Information), whereas the core SLD was fixed to $\rho_{\text{core}} = \rho_{\text{tail}}$. Given that no core water is present, SAXS analysis could not reject the possibility of bound water inside the micellar core because this would necessitate the fitting of ρ_{core} in addition to the arbitrary intensity scaling factor.

A spheroidal shape of the Hsp-G micelles was also supported by the packing parameter $P = v_{tail}/(A_{head}L_{tail})$, where v_{tail} (375.6 Å³) is the tail group volume, A_{head} (given by A_{core}/N_{agg} = 140 Å²) is the head group area on the micellar core; A_{core} is the core area, and L_{tail} (approximately 11 Å) is the length of the tail group, which yields *P* ≈ 0.24 within the ellipsoid range ⅓ < *P* < ½.⁶⁴ For Rutin-G, v_{tail} = 347.8 Å³ and L_{tail} ≈ 5 Å given that its identical head

group occupies the same area as an Hsp-G micelle and the packing parameter is much larger ($P \approx 0.50$) owing to the head group conjugation site being near the center of the tail group's long axis, suggesting that Rutin-G does not readily pack into spherical structures but it tends to associate into cylindrical structures. The larger number of hydroxyl groups in the hydrophobic flavonol skeleton of Rutin-G likely acts against the micellar association, leading to spherical aggregate morphologies.

3.4 Interactions of Flavone with Rutin-G and Hsp-G by NMR

Because ¹H chemical shifts are sensitive to changes in the local environment of a molecule, they are often used to investigate the association state of molecules and the intermolecular interactions.⁶⁵ Furthermore, concentration-dependent ¹H NMR chemical shift changes and signal broadening can be used to investigate the CMC or CAC of surfactants or aggregates and the molecular mobility.⁶⁶ For example, the solution structures of the inclusion complexes of cyclodextrin with the flavonoid catechin in D_2O were revealed using NMR spectroscopy.⁶⁷ To estimate the molecular association of Hsp-G and Rutin-G at 25 °C, ¹H NMR spectra were measured at various concentrations (1.0–40.0 mg/mL), as presented in Fig. S6. As the observed concentration-dependent chemical shift changes of the flavanone skeleton protons of Hsp-G and the flavonoid skeleton protons of Rutin-G at 25 °C were similar to those observed in our previous studies at 37 °C, 33,49 Hsp-G and Rutin-G concentrations form micelles and aggregates, respectively, at concentrations exceeding 5 mg/mL. Hsp-G could form micellelike structures at concentrations exceeding 5 mg/mL, as the CMC of Hsp-G determined from these chemical shift changes corresponds to that observed in the surface tension measurements. Conversely, the chemical shifts of Rutin-G changed as its concentration increased without a corresponding decrease in the surface tension, indicating that Rutin-G aggregates in solution. The CAC determined from the chemical shift dependence was 5 mg/mL, and the aggregation numbers

Fig. 6¹H NMR spectra of flavone (A), 20 mg/mL Hsp-G (B), 20 mg/mL flavoneloaded Hsp-G (C), 20 mg/mL Rutin-G (D), and 20 mg/mL flavone-loaded Rutin-G (E) in D_2O at 25 °C.

To determine the effects of the molecular association states of the α-glucosyl materials on the solubility improvement of flavone, the ¹H NMR spectra of flavone were collected in the presence and absence of 20 mg/mL Hsp-G or Rutin-G at 25 °C (Fig. 6). A comparison of the ¹H NMR spectra of flavone in D_2O with those of flavone in Hsp-G or Rutin-G solutions revealed that all ¹H signals of flavone were shifted upfield in the Hsp-G and Rutin-G solutions. These shifts were more pronounced in the Rutin-G solution, suggesting that the environment around the flavone changes greatly in the Rutin-G solution. Considering the enhancement of flavone solubility by Rutin-G compared to that by Hsp-G, Rutin-G exhibits a higher partitioning ratio of flavone into micelles compared to Hsp-G. Furthermore, each flavone ¹H signal was broadened in the presence of both α glucosyl materials, suggesting that the mobility of flavone was suppressed to some extent. Furthermore, in Hsp-G and Rutin-G, the ¹H signals of the flavanone and flavonol skeletons exhibited upfield shifts relative to each α-glucosyl material alone without significant changes in the $1H$ signals of the sugar moieties. These results suggested that flavone forms intermolecular

Fig. 7 Expanded regions of the NOESY spectra of 20 mg/mL Hsp-G (A), flavone-loaded 20 mg/mL Hsp-G (B, C), and flavone-loaded 5 mg/mL Hsp-G (D) in D₂O at 25 °C.

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hydrophobic interactions with the flavanone skeleton of Hsp-G and the flavonol skeleton of Rutin-G.

In NOESY spectra, cross-peaks [nuclear Overhauser effects (NOEs)] are observed when the spatial distance between neighboring protons is approximately 5 Å or lower.^{68,69} Therefore, this technique is useful for analyzing intermolecular interactions and three-dimensional structures. NOESY was used to investigate the location of flavone in the α-glucosyl materials. Figure 7 presents expanded regions of the NOESY spectra of Hsp-G and flavone-loaded Hsp-G in D_2O at 25 °C. The key NOE cross-peaks that can be used to deduce the possible interaction sites between flavone and Hsp-G are highlighted. As presented in Fig. 7B, NOE correlations were observed between the

aromatic protons of flavone (H-2′, H-3′, H-5′, H-6′) and those of the flavanone skeleton (B ring) of Hsp-G (H-2′, H-5′, H-6′). Additionally, these flavone protons exhibited NOE cross-peaks with the 4'-OCH₃ protons of Hsp-G (Fig. 7C). These cross-peaks were not observed in the NOESY spectra of Hsp-G without flavone (Fig. 7A). These results indicate that flavone and Hsp-G form a hydrophobic intermolecular interaction between the B ring of flavone and the flavanone skeleton (B ring) of Hsp-G. Notably, these NOEs were not observed in solutions with Hsp-G concentrations of ≤5 mg/mL (Fig. 7D).

In the NOESY spectra of flavone-loaded Rutin-G, NOE correlations were observed between the hydrophobic regions of flavone and Rutin-G, as observed for flavone-loaded Hsp-G;

Fig. 8 Expanded regions of the NOESY spectra of 20 mg/mL Rutin-G (A), 20 mg/mL flavone-loaded Rutin-G (B, C), and 5 mg/mL flavone-loaded Rutin-G (D) in D₂O at 25 °C.

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however, these NOEs were observed between the protons of flavone (H-3, H-2′, H-3′, H-5′, H-6′) and those of the flavonoid skeleton (A ring) of Rutin-G (H-6, H-8; Fig. 8B). Interestingly, these flavone protons also exhibited correlations with the αglucosyl protons of Rutin-G (Fig. 8C). Furthermore, these NOEs were observed in the flavone-loaded 5 mg/mL Rutin-G solution (Fig. 8D). These results suggest that the interaction between flavone and Rutin-G differs from that between flavone and Hsp-G.

Finally, we can postulate the schematic illustrations of association structures of Hsp-G and Rutin-G from the results of the SAXS study. Figure 9C also presents a schematic illustration of the solubilization behavior of flavone in solutions of transglycosylated materials, as postulated from the results of the NMR study. However, we failed to obtain direct experimental support for Rutin-G and Hsp-G association structures on cryo-electron microscopy. As previously described, concentration-dependent variations in the ¹H chemical shifts of the flavanone skeleton protons of Hsp-G were observed. Furthermore, NOE correlations between flavone and Hsp-G were only observed in the hydrophobic regions. NMR measurements indicated that Hsp-G forms specific micelle-like aggregated structures, although these structures differ from the rigid micelle structures of conventional surfactants.⁷⁰ Thus, Hsp-G could exert a solubilizing effect on poorly water-soluble drugs via incorporation into the hydrophobic part of Hsp-G *via* hydrophobic interactions, as presented in Fig. 9A. This

Fig. 9 Representation of (A) Hsp-G and (B) Rutin-G association structures at concentrations up to approximately 15 mg/mL and schematics depicting their timeaveraged cross-sections probed with SAXS. (C) Schematic solubilization models of flavone revealed by NMR analysis in Hsp-G and Rutin-G solution.

hypothesized solubilization mechanism for Hsp-G is supported by the absence of NOE correlations between flavone and Hsp-G at Hsp-G concentrations of <5 mg/mL (Fig. 7D). By contrast, the small aggregates observed in Rutin-G solutions at concentrations of >5 mg/mL were not micelle-like in nature, as they did not exhibit any surface activity. Specifically, the aggregated structure of Rutin-G in solution consisted of the hydrophobic part forming a core structure with the hydrophilic part partially protruding into water. Therefore, the enhancement of flavone solubilization by Rutin-G was attributed to the incorporation of flavone into the aggregates of Rutin-G, as presented in Fig. 9B. This hypothesized solubilization mechanism was supported by the results of the NMR study, as NOE correlations between flavone and Rutin-G were observed in both 5 and 20 mg/mL Rutin-G solutions in the hydrophobic region and the α-glucosyl sugar part of Rutin-G (Fig. 8D). The difference in the interaction regions between flavone and Rutin-G or Hsp-G could be responsible for the observation of different effects on solubility. This improved the understanding of the mechanism of flavone solubility enhancement by αglucosyl materials could permit the application of α-glucosyl materials in the solubilization of other flavonoids.

4. Conclusions

The differences in the effects of Rutin-G and Hsp-G on flavone solubilization were investigated. Rutin-G had stronger flavonesolubilizing effects than Hsp-G when both evaporated samples and SDPs were used. This difference in the behavior of Rutin-G and Hsp-G was attributed to the molecular association states of these materials and the interactions between the transglycosylated materials and flavone in solution. From NMR and surface tension measurements, the solubilizing effect of Hsp-G on flavone was attributed to Hsp-G forming a micelle-like structure, whereas that of Rutin-G was attributed to the formation small aggregation structures in solution. The results of SAXS analysis supported the higher hydrophobic association tendency of Hsp-G, which was describable by a core-shell micelle model, whereas Rutin-G created polydisperse aggregates. The NOE correlations between Hsp-G or Rutin-G and flavone revealed interactions between the hydrophobic regions of flavone and Hsp-G or Rutin-G. Furthermore, NOE correlations were also observed between the protons of flavone and those of the α -glucosyl protons of Rutin-G. These results revealed that the mechanisms of flavone solubility enhancement by Hsp-G or Rutin-G are different. The application of α-glucosyl materials to hydrophobic flavonoids is a promising method for enhancing their dissolution properties.

Data Availability

The data that support the findings of this research are available from the corresponding author by contacting via email.

Author Contributions

Kazunori Kadota: Conceptualization, Data curation, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Writing – original draft. Tero Kämäräinen: Formal Analysis, Validation, Visualization, Writing – review & editing. Fumie Sakuma: Data curation, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. Keisuke Ueda: Data curation, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. Kenjirou Higashi: Data curation, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. Kunikazu Moribe: Writing – review & editing. Hiromasa Uchiyama: Writing – review & editing. Katsuhiko Minoura: Data curation, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. Yuichi Tozuka: Funding acquisition, Resources, Supervision.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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