

1 **Assessment of *in vitro* Bioaccessibility of Carotenoids and Phenolic Compounds in**  
2 **a Model Milk-mandarine Beverage**

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4 Running title: Bioaccessibility of bioactives compounds in a model milk-fruit beverage

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22 **ABSTRACT**

23 Mandarin juice is one of the richest sources of  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin and flavonoids, which have  
24 been positively associated with bone mineral density. Carotenoids are lipophilic isoprenoid  
25 compounds with a complex absorption process that can be affected by different factors. In this  
26 study we have evaluated the effect of the food matrix on the *in vitro* bioaccessibility of  
27 carotenoids and phenolic compounds in a model milk-mandarine beverage (MMB).

28 MMBs were formulated with mandarine juice and different dairy products to achieve three fat  
29 levels (0.2%, 1.7% and 3.2%) and three calcium levels (120, 310 and 500 mg  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$  / 100 mL).

30 The bioaccessibility was evaluated using a harmonised *in vitro* digestion method. The results  
31 showed that the content of milk fat increased the bioaccessibility *in vitro* of phenolic  
32 compounds ( $p < 0.05$ ), while a moderate fat level (1.7%) resulted in the highest bioaccessibility  
33 for bioactive carotenoids. On the other hand, calcium fortification at the highest level (500 mg  
34  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$ /100 mL) decreased the bioaccessibility of bioactive carotenoids from 76% to 43% (66%  
35 for the major  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin) compared to the lower calcium fortification level (120 mg  
36  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$ /100mL). The bioaccessibility of hesperidin, the main flavanone in mandarine juices, was  
37 significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) reduced in the MMB with the highest calcium level.

38 The bioaccessibility of carotenoids and phenolic compounds is affected by fat and calcium  
39 level. When formulating functional beverages, the impact of the formulation should be carefully  
40 considered to optimize the bioaccessibility of the bioactive compounds.

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42 **Keywords:** Beverage formulation; Bioaccessibility; Carotenoids; Calcium fortification;  
43 Phenolic compounds

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45 **Abbreviations:** flavones (FLV), flavanones (FLN), hydroxycinnamic acids (HCA), milk  
46 mandarin beverages (MMBs), Rapid Resolution Liquid Chromatography (RRLC), retinol  
47 activity equivalent (RAE).

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## 50 **1. Introduction**

51 Consumer awareness of the benefits of a healthy diet is leading the food industry to design new  
52 functional foods that satisfy both sensory and health demands. In this sense, the functional  
53 beverage market is one of the most active categories in the functional food market and is  
54 expected to increase due to healthy lifestyle, disease prevention objectives, and the design of  
55 products tailored for the specific needs of the elderly<sup>1,2</sup>. Functional beverages can be formulated  
56 by the addition of bioactive ingredients or the removal or reduction of undesirable ingredients,  
57 i.e. sugar, fats, to improve stability, bioactivity, and bioavailability<sup>3</sup>.

58 Fruit juices are a good source of bioactive compounds and, among them, orange juice stands out  
59 due to its excellent flavour and appealing color<sup>4</sup>. From a nutritional point of view, orange juice  
60 is a good source of provitamin A carotenoids and vitamin C, in addition to folate and other  
61 bioactive compounds such as flavonoids<sup>5</sup>. A wide variety of carotenoids (more than 100) have  
62 been reported in citrus fruits, but violaxanthin and  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin ( $\beta$ -CRX) both in peel and  
63 pulp are the main discriminating factors between the different citrus genotypes<sup>6,7</sup>. In this sense,  
64 mandarins are one of the richest sources of  $\beta$ -CRX, one of the six carotenoids found in human  
65 blood and tissues<sup>8</sup>.  $\beta$ -CRX is a provitamin A carotenoid, with other relevant health beneficial  
66 effects such as antiobesity, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and anticancer activities<sup>9</sup>. The role  
67 of  $\beta$ -CRX on bone calcification and osteogenesis has been explored *in vitro* and *in vivo* and  
68 there is evidence that  $\beta$ -CRX is a suppressor of bone resorption, and has also been associated  
69 with increased bone mass, thus decreasing the risk of osteoporosis<sup>10</sup>. Furthermore, daily intake  
70 of  $\beta$ -CRX was associated with a lower risk of osteopenia in postmenopausal women<sup>11</sup>.  
71 Similarly, the intake of flavonoids has been positively associated with bone mineral density, *in*  
72 *animal* and *cellular-base* studies<sup>12</sup> and also in human studies<sup>13</sup>. Although both milk and  
73 mandarine juice are usually consumed in the western diet, some groups of people, such as  
74 menopausal women, may benefit from functional beverages which contain a mixed of  
75 compounds which are beneficial for bone health. Milk contains more bone-beneficial nutrients,  
76 than any food in the adult diet such as protein, Ca, Mg, K, Zn and P per unit energy<sup>14</sup>.  
77 However, a high consumption of milk has been associated with augmented concentrations of

78 oxidative stress, which is one of the risk factors for osteoporosis <sup>15</sup> and of inflammation  
79 markers, especially in women, however this effect is attenuated by fruit and vegetable intake <sup>16</sup>.  
80 In this sense a good approach to designing a functional drink to improve bone health could be a  
81 beverage containing milk or a dairy product and a mandarine juice to provide proteins and  
82 minerals and  $\beta$ -CRX and flavonoids, respectively, and the other antioxidant compounds  
83 provided by the fruit juice that may counteract the oxidative effect of milk.

84 An important aspect to consider when designing functional foods is the bioavailability of the  
85 bioactive compounds in the matrix of the formulated beverage. For this purpose, *in vitro*  
86 gastrointestinal digestion is considered a valuable tool to estimate stability and bioaccessibility  
87 of nutrients/phytonutrients from different food matrices, in order to optimize the bioavailability  
88 and therefore the nutritional efficacy of any bioactive compound <sup>17,18</sup>.

89 Carotenoids are lipophilic isoprenoid compounds with a complex absorption process that can be  
90 affected by different factors, from those related to the food matrix (processing, interaction with  
91 other meal components) to factors related to the host (the activity of digestive enzymes,  
92 transport efficiency across the enterocyte) <sup>19</sup>. One of the most extensively studied dietary factors  
93 is the addition of lipids to the food matrix. The addition of fat / oil increases the bioaccessibility  
94 and bioavailability of carotenoids by facilitating the solubilization of carotenoids released from  
95 the food matrix during digestion <sup>20,21</sup>. The fat content in dairy products is a potential vehicle to  
96 increase carotenoid delivery <sup>22</sup>.

97 There is evidence to suggest that the lipid portion of dairy is a key factor contributing to  
98 improved carotenoid bioaccessibility in milk-fruit beverages compared to raw fruit in  
99 commercial and model beverages <sup>23,24</sup>. However, the presence of divalent minerals (calcium,  
100 present in dairy products) during digestion can drastically reduce their bioaccessibility <sup>25-27</sup>. Few  
101 studies have investigated how changes in the food matrix may affect the bioaccessibility of  
102 phenolic compounds <sup>28,29</sup>, but recent studies also suggest that the bioaccessibility of fruit  
103 phenolics are optimize in the presence of a skim-milk matrix <sup>30</sup>

104 For this reason, this study aims at formulating a model functional beverage for bone health  
105 containing mandarine and milk products (milk mandarine beverage, MMB). Different milk-fat

106 contents and calcium fortifications were used in the model MMB formulations and “*in vitro*”  
107 bioaccessibility of carotenoids and phenolic compounds was evaluated to elucidate the influence  
108 of these factors (fat content and calcium fortification) on the bioaccessibility of the bioactive  
109 compounds.

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## 111 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 112 *2.1. Chemicals*

113 The extraction solvents (methanol, dichloromethane, and acetone) were obtained from Carlo-  
114 Erba (Milan, Italy). HPLC grade solvents were acquired from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany).  
115 NANO pure Diamond system (Barnsted Inc.) provided the Ultrapure water. Pepsin (porcine  
116 gastric mucosa, cat N° P7012, 2000 U/ mL), pancreatin (porcine pancreas, cat. no. P7545, 100  
117 U/mL), bile salt (cat N° P8756, 2.1 g/mL) and other reagents (mineral salts (KCl, NaCl),  
118 sodium bicarbonate, monopotassium-phosphate, magnesium chloride hexahydrate) used in the  
119 in preparation of stock solutions of simulated digestion fluids (see table 2 of Minekus et al. <sup>31</sup>)  
120 were from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany), as well as some of the carotenoids standards  
121 ( $\beta$ -carotene,  $\beta$ -CRX, lutein, and zeaxanthin). Other carotenoid standards were isolated from  
122 appropriate sources by standard procedures as explained elsewhere <sup>32</sup>. Phenolic compounds  
123 were acquired from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany), except didymin from Extrasynthese  
124 (Lyon-Nord, France).

125 Calcium (Mastical, Takeda Farmacéutica, Spain) was obtained from a pharmacy as calcium  
126 carbonate.

### 127 *2.2. Milk Mandarinine Beverages (MMBs)*

128 A commercial fresh squeezed pasteurized mandarine juice not from concentrate and ultra-high  
129 temperature milk products (including cream milk, whole milk, semi-skimmed milk, and  
130 skimmed milk for the same brand) were acquired from a local supermarket (Spain). The model  
131 MMBs were prepared in the laboratory by mixing mandarine juice and dairy products as  
132 described below using a domestic blender (MOULINEX, 400 W) for 2 min at high speed.

133 i) Milk Mandarin Beverages. Initially three model MMBs were prepared by mixing 50%  
134 v/v of mandarine juices and % 50 v/v of different milk products (added as whole, semi-  
135 skimmed or skimmed milk or cream) to obtain three different fat levels as shown in **Table 1**.  
136 The bioaccessibility of carotenoids was assessed in MMB1/MMB2/MMB3 (as described below)  
137 and the MMB with the highest bioaccessibility value for  $\beta$ -CRX (MMB2) was selected for the  
138 calcium fortification assay.

139 ii) Fortified Milk Mandarin Beverages. For the calcium fortification assay, three new  
140 MMBs were prepared by fortification of MMB2 with calcium at three levels: 120, 310 and 500  
141 mg  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$ /100 ml. These levels were selected based on the range of calcium found in  
142 commercial milk or yoghurt (approx. 120-125 mg/100 mL), and the calcium levels of  
143 commercial beverages fortified with this mineral (between 300 and 500 mg  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$  / 100 mL).

#### 144 2.3. Physicochemical parameters

145 The six MMB models were characterized for fat content using the Gerber method <sup>33</sup>. Proteins  
146 were analyzed by the Kjeldahl's method <sup>34</sup>. Calcium was quantified by ICP-OES (Spectro  
147 Spectroblue, Metrohm AG, Herisau, Switzerland). The samples were digested by microwave  
148 oven (Milestone UltraWAVE, Metrohm AG, Herisau, Switzerland). The calibration curve was  
149 prepared in the range of 0.5 ppm to 10 ppm, and the sample was diluted 10 times.

150 The formulation and final composition of the MMBs are shown in **Table 1**. The pH values were  
151  $4.58 \pm 0.01$  for MMBs. All MMBs were prepared as previously described and just before  
152 analysis. No further treatments were performed since MMBs were not intended for human  
153 consumption studies. All analyzes were performed in triplicate.

#### 154 2.4. *In vitro* digestion method

155 An international consensus methodology explained elsewhere <sup>31</sup> was used for *in vitro* simulated  
156 gastrointestinal digestion. Briefly, 5 ml of each beverage sample was submitted to the *in vitro*  
157 digestion process using the enzyme concentration, time, pH, incubation temperature, and  
158 simulation of gastric and duodenal fluids detailed in Minekus et al. <sup>31</sup> adapted by Stinco et al. <sup>24</sup>  
159 Once the digestion process was completed, the samples were centrifuged at  $3900 \times g$  for 20  
160 minutes at 4 °C <sup>35</sup> using an Allegra X-12R centrifuge (Beckman Coulter, USA). The supernatant

161 was filtered through a 0.22- $\mu\text{m}$  nylon membrane (Millipore Iberica S.A., Madrid, Spain). The  
162 bioaccessible fraction was flushed with nitrogen and stored at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  in an atmosphere of  
163 nitrogen until analysis.

## 164 2.5. *Bioactive Compound Analysis*

### 165 2.5.1. Phenolic compounds

166 The undigested beverage and digesta were centrifuged at 18000 g for 15 min at  $4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  
167 subsequently filtered through a 0.22- $\mu\text{m}$  pore size membrane filter. The samples were analyzed  
168 by Rapid Resolution Liquid Chromatography (RRLC) by direct injection on an Agilent 1260  
169 System equipped with a diode array detector and a quaternary pump. UV spectra were recorded  
170 from 200 to 770 nm and the chromatograms were monitored at 280 and 320 nm. Separation  
171 was carried out on a C18 analytical column (Kinetex Biphenyl 2.6  $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $50 \times 4.6\text{ mm}$ ,  
172 Phenomenex; Torrance, CA, USA) coupled with a Security Guard (ULTRA UHPLC Biphenyl  
173 filter, Phenomenex; Torrance, CA, USA). The mobile phase was: solvent A, 0.1% formic acid  
174 in water and solvent B, acetonitrile and the gradient elution (min/% of A): 0 /100,5/95, 20/50;  
175 22/100, 25/100. The flow rate was set at 1.5 ml / min, the column temperature was kept at  $25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  
176 and the injection volume was 0.5  $\mu\text{L}$ . All samples were analyzed in triplicate.

177 The identification of the individual phenolic compounds was carried out by comparing their  
178 retention times and spectroscopic characteristic, within the range 200–770 nm, with those of  
179 appropriate standards. Other phenolics, for which there are no commercially available standards,  
180 were identified based on their retention times and spectral features, as compared with those  
181 reported in the literature. These compounds have been assayed by assuming that their molar  
182 absorptivity is the same as that of the corresponding free standard molecule. For quantification,  
183 linear calibration curves of external standards were used (320 nm for hydroxycinnamic acids  
184 (HCA) and flavones (FLV) and 280 nm for flavanones (FLN)). The results were expressed in  
185 mg/L of MMB, as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. The total phenolic compounds were calculated as  
186 the sum of individual compounds.

187 The method was validated: linearity, limits of quantification and detection (LOQ and LOD), and  
188 precision (repeatability and reproducibility) were calculated. The validating parameters of each

189 calibration curve are described in **Supplementary Table 1**. Excellent linearity was observed for  
190 all phenolic compounds ( $R^2 \geq 0.999$ ) tested range, except Apigenin ( $R^2 \geq 0.994$ ). The LOD and  
191 LOQ for all compounds were in the range of 0.01 to 0.02 mg / L and 0.01 to 0.06 mg/L,  
192 respectively. Repeatability and reproducibility were evaluated by the relative standard deviation  
193 (RSD) and a good precision for the RRLC was obtained.

## 194 2.5.2. Carotenoids

### 195 2.5.2.1. Extraction

196 The extraction and saponification of the undigested samples and micellar fractions were carried  
197 out according to the method described by Stinco et al. <sup>36</sup>. The dry extracts were redissolved in 1  
198 mL of dichloromethane and saponification was performed with 1 mL of methanolic KOH (30%  
199 w/v) under dim light at room temperature. After 1 h, the samples were washed with 5% NaCl  
200 and water. The obtained coloured extract was concentrated to dryness in a rotary evaporator at a  
201 temperature below 30 ° C and dissolved in 50 µL of ethyl acetate before injection into the  
202 RRLC system. The samples were analyzed in triplicate.

### 203 2.5.2.2. RRLC analysis

204 RRLC analyzes were carried out according to the validated method described by Stinco et al. <sup>37</sup>.  
205 The identification of carotenoids was made by comparison of their chromatographic and UV/vis  
206 spectroscopic characteristics with those of the standards. This includes the maximum absorption  
207 wavelength ( $\lambda_{max}$ ) and the shape of the spectrum (fine structure considering %III/II and Q  
208 ratio) as well as retention time and chromatographic conditions. The carotenoid content of the  
209 beverages was achieved by external calibration with the corresponding standards. Total  
210 carotenoid content was assessed as the sum of the content of individual pigments. The analyzes  
211 were performed in triplicate.

212 The vitamin A activity of the beverages was expressed in terms of retinol activity equivalents  
213 (RAE) <sup>38</sup> using the following formula:

$$214 \quad RAE = \frac{\mu\text{g } \beta \text{ carotene}}{12} + \frac{\mu\text{g } \beta \text{ cryptoxanthin} + \mu\text{g } \alpha \text{ carotene}}{24} \quad (1)$$

## 215 2.6. Bioaccessibility of Bioactive Compounds



216 The bioaccessibility in percentage for each bioactive compound (carotenoid and phenolic  
217 compound) was calculated as follows:

$$218 \quad \% \text{ Bioaccessibility}_{\text{biactive compound}} = \frac{[BC]_{\text{digesta}}}{[BC]_{\text{beverage}}} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

219 Where:  $BC_{\text{digesta}}$  corresponds to carotenoid concentration in micellar fraction (mg/L) or phenolic  
220 compound concentration (mg/L) in digesta after *in vitro* digestion, while  $BC_{\text{beverage}}$  corresponds  
221 to each bioactive compound in the model MMB before digestion.

### 222 2.7. Statistical analysis.

223 Results are presented as mean and standard deviation of independent determinations. Statistical  
224 analyzes were performed with Statistica v.8.0 software. Means were compared using variance  
225 analyzes (ANOVA) and Tukey's test ( $p < 0.05$ ). The results of the experiments were compared  
226 according to one factor (fat level or calcium content) and the discussion below was performed  
227 according to each of them separated.

228

## 229 3. Results and Discussion

### 230 3.1. Effect of fat content on the bioaccessibility of phenolic compounds and carotenoids

#### 231 3.1.1. Phenolic Compounds

232 The 13 identified phenolic compounds are shown in **Table 2**. They can be classified into three  
233 major categories: 7 hydroxycinnamic acids (HCA): ferulic acid (2 derivatives), caffeic acid (2  
234 derivatives), p-coumaric acid (2 derivatives) and sinapic acid derivative; 2 flavones (FLV):  
235 vicenin-2 and a derivative of luteolin; and 4 flavanones (FLN): (naringin derivative, narirutin,  
236 hesperidin, and dydimin. Vicenin-2 (apigenin 6,8-C-diglucoside) was identified as the  
237 predominant flavone, while hesperidin (hesperetin-7-O-rutinoside) and narirutin (naringenin-7-  
238 O-rutinoside) were the main flavanone in the commercial mandarine juice.

239 **Table 2** illustrates the total and individual phenolic content in the model MMBs and in the  
240 bioaccessible phenolic content. There were no significant differences in the individual and total  
241 phenolic composition of the different MMBs as they were all formulated with the same  
242 commercial mandarine juice.

243 However, the phenolic content in digesta, was significantly affected ( $p < 0.05$ ) by the fat  
244 content. Specifically, beverages with the lowest fat level (MMB1 and MMB2) showed  
245 significantly lower ( $p < 0.05$ ) contents of HCA (*p*-coumaric, caffeic, ferulic, and sinapic acids),  
246 while MMB3 showed the highest. Similarly, flavones, as well as flavanones and total phenols,  
247 were affected by fat level, except for the naringin derivative. These results suggest that the fat  
248 content above 1.7% positively ( $p < 0.05$ ) affects the amount of phenolic compounds in digesta  
249 ( $p < 0.05$ ).

250 The bioaccessibility (as % BIO) of the individual phenolic compounds was calculated as the  
251 relationship between the mean level of each compound in the MMBs and the digesta (**Table 2**).  
252 The results are shown in **Figure 1**. The bioaccessibility of HCA varied from 12.8 to 19%; of the  
253 four types of HCA, ferulic acid had the highest percentage (20-30%), followed by sinapic acid  
254 (18.5-26%), caffeic acid (9-13.4%) and finally *p*-coumaric acid (8.6-14%), respectively. A  
255 similar trend was reported by Rodríguez-Roque et al.<sup>39</sup>, who found that the bioaccessibility of  
256 HCAs during the *in vitro* digestion of a milk-fruit beverage varied from 12% for caffeic and  
257 11% for *p*-coumaric acid to 14% for ferulic acid. Similarly, the percentage of flavones  
258 transferred to the digesta ranged from 12 to 18.5%. The bioaccessibility of FLN bioaccessibility  
259 was higher than that of HCA, between 42 and 65 %, being the highest bioaccessibility for  
260 hesperidin (54.8-88%) followed by didymin (27-68%), narirutin (23-31%) and the derivative of  
261 naringin (18.6-22%). These results are similar to those reported in the literature<sup>28,39,40</sup>. In  
262 addition, in orange juices, Aschoff et al.<sup>40</sup> reported 91-94% of bioaccessibility for hesperidin  
263 and narirutin after *in vitro* digestion and Rodríguez-Roque et al.<sup>28</sup> reported 87 and 97 % for  
264 hesperidin and naringenin respectively. The lower bioaccessibility values obtained in this study  
265 could be related to the composition of the beverage, which was 75% fruit juice and 17.5% milk  
266 since phenolic compounds can bind to milk protein and carbohydrates which affects their  
267 determination in heterogeneous matrices<sup>28</sup>.

268 An ANOVA analysis was carried out to evaluate the effect of fat content on bioaccessibility of  
269 phenolics. As shown in **Figure 1**, the beverage with the highest fat content (MMB3) showed the  
270 highest bioaccessibility for flavanones, flavones, HCA and total phenols ( $p < 0.05$ ). Ortega et al.

271 <sup>41</sup> also reported an improvement in the digestibility of some phenolic compounds in cocoa  
272 samples related to fat content. The protective effect of lipids on bioaccessible phenolic  
273 compounds has already been described by different authors. Jakobek <sup>42</sup> reported that lipids can  
274 interact and 'capture' polyphenols protecting them during digestion, due to better micellization  
275 that allows better stability of polyphenols during their passage through the gastrointestinal tract.  
276 During intestinal digestion bile salts and biliary phosphatidylcholine (PC) emulsify lipids and  
277 break them into micelles under the actions of lipase before they are absorbed. Phenol-lipid  
278 interactions due hydrophobic interactions results in incorporation of phenolic compounds into  
279 the lipid phase of the micelles which prevents the degradation <sup>43</sup>. Taking into account the overall  
280 results, which are consistent with previous studies discussed above, it could be inferred that the  
281 milk fat content above 1.8% positively affects the bioaccessibility of all the phenolic compounds  
282 analyzed <sup>44</sup>.

### 283 3.1.2. Carotenoids

284 Eleven carotenoids were identified (**Table 2**), which can be classified into two major categories:  
285 xanthophylls (antheraxanthin isomers, mutatoxanthin epimer A and B; lutein, zeaxanthin,  
286 zeinoxanthin and  $\beta$ -CRX) and carotenes ( $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ - carotene; phytoene and phytofluene).  $\beta$ -CRX  
287 was the most abundant carotenoid in mandarine juice and therefore in formulated MMBs,  
288 accounting for 45-55% of the total carotenoids content. **Table 2** shows the carotenoid content  
289 and vitamin A activity expressed as equivalents of retinol activity (RAE) in the model MMBs  
290 and the bioaccessible carotenoid content in the micellar fractions. No statistically significant  
291 differences were found in individual and total carotenoids among the three formulated MMBs  
292 (MMB1, MMB2 and MMB3) were found.

293 After in vitro digestion, total carotenoids decreased significantly decreased ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the  
294 micellar fraction from 74% to 88 % as shown in **Table 2**. Similarly, retinol activity equivalents  
295 (RAE) decreased by 4 to 10 times in the micellar fractions. The epoxy-carotenoids carotenoids  
296 (violaxanthin, antheraxanthin, luteoxanthin) that are also incorporated into micelles are also  
297 shown in **Table 2**, however, they are not found in human plasma and their functions remain  
298 unknown as well as their relevance in nutrition <sup>45</sup>.

299 The content of bioactive carotenoids in the micellar fraction of the MMBs was affected by the  
300 fat content ( $p < 0.05$ ). Only lutein and zeaxanthin (referred as macular carotenoids) remained  
301 unchanged regardless of the fat level in the MMBs. Provitamin A and colorless carotenoids  
302 were significantly higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the micellar fraction of the MMB2, with moderate fat  
303 level, compared to the micellar fractions of the other two MMBs, as reflected by the total  
304 carotenoid content and RAE. The amount of fat in the diet needed for the optimal incorporation  
305 of carotenoids released into mixed micelles in the intestine is a controversial fact <sup>46</sup>. Several  
306 studies suggest that a minimum amount of fat is required for carotenoid absorption <sup>47</sup>, which  
307 depends on the structure of the individual carotenoid and the matrix <sup>48</sup>. Hedren et al. <sup>49</sup> reported  
308 that the addition of 20% oil per gram to freeze-dried carrot matter resulted in a significant  
309 increase in the bioaccessibility of  $\beta$ -carotene, however increasing the amount of added oil over  
310 60% did not.

311 Figure 1 shows the bioaccessibility of individual bioactive carotenoids in model MMBs. Among  
312 the provitamin A carotenoids,  $\beta$ -carotene showed the highest bioaccessibility (16-47.5%),  
313 followed by  $\alpha$ -carotene (22-35%), and finally  $\beta$ -CRX (9-23%), respectively. Estévez- Santiago  
314 et al. <sup>50</sup>, also reported the lowest bioaccessibility for  $\beta$ -CRX in mandarine and loquat. For  
315 macular carotenoids, bioaccessibilities ranged from 9 to 17% and for colorless carotenoids,  
316 ranged from 19 to 37% for phytoene and from 22 to 40% for phytofluene.

317 According to the fat content, the MMB with moderate fat level (1.7%) showed the highest  
318 bioaccessibility for bioactive carotenoids. These results are consistent with others previously  
319 published results, Da costa et al. <sup>51</sup> reported of an increase in carotenoid bioaccessibility linked  
320 to increased fat in milk-fruit beverages formulations (from 1.5-1.8 % fat). Similarly, Rodriguez-  
321 Roque et al. <sup>21</sup> reported that the bioaccessibility of total carotenoids decreased from 0.63%,  
322 0.28% to 0%, respectively, with the decrease in fat content in beverages formulated with 75% of  
323 a blended fruit juice and 17.5% of milk, soy milk or distilled water and 7.5% of sugar,  
324 respectively.

325 Surprisingly, in this study, we have included a highest fat content (3.2%) that did not show  
326 higher levels of bioaccessibility. This striking result could be explained considering that the

327 micellization process is affected by other factors, such as the complexity of the food matrix (fat  
328 and protein content), and the fat solubility of individual carotenoids. Furthermore, in milk-fruit  
329 beverages, there is a debate whether the enhancement of carotenoids bioaccessibility is more  
330 related to the role of milk proteins in the micellization process than to the role of milk fat<sup>51</sup>. The  
331 interaction of carotenoids with milk proteins increases the solubility of carotenoids in aqueous  
332 medium. Factors that may modulate the binding between milk protein and carotenoids are  
333 related to both the protein nature and the carotenoid structure and also environmental  
334 conditions, such as pH and temperature<sup>52,53</sup>. In this case, the protein content in the formulated  
335 beverages was not statistically different (**Table 1**) however the profile of casein/whey proteins  
336 may vary between the formulations due to the different milk derivatives used (whole milk, skim  
337 milk, cream). The main binding mechanism between carotenoids and proteins is hydrophobic  
338 interactions and casein has a higher hydrophobicity than whey proteins ( $\beta$ -Lactoglobulin and  $\alpha$ -  
339 Lactalbumin)<sup>54</sup>.

340

341 3.2. Effect of calcium fortification on the bioaccessibility of phenolic compounds and  
342 carotenoids

343 3.2.1. Phenolic Compounds

344 **Table 3** shows the individual phenolic compounds identified and quantified in the different  
345 MMBs formulated before and after in vitro digestion. MMBs did not differ in the content of  
346 individual phenolic compounds, total phenolics, HCA; FLV and FLN. Similarly, no significant  
347 differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) in phenolic compounds in the digesta were found for the different calcium  
348 levels tested.

349 Figures 2A and B summarize the bioaccessibility of individual HCA, and total HCA, FLV,  
350 FLN, and phenolic compounds in the model MMBs. The bioaccessibility of phenolic  
351 compounds was affected by the calcium content, except for the total FLN that was significantly  
352 ( $p < 0.05$ ) lower in the drink with the highest calcium level (MMB6). The effect of phenolics  
353 intake on mineral bioavailability has been a subject of interest and several studies have reported  
354 that some polyphenols (phenolic acids and flavonoids) decrease the assimilation of several

355 minerals and trace elements, including iron, zinc, and copper, most likely due to chelation <sup>55</sup>.  
356 However, to the best of the authors' knowledge, no study has previously evaluated the effect of  
357 calcium content on the bioavailability of phenolic compounds. The negative effect of minerals  
358 on polyphenol absorption could be inferred from the study by Matsumoto et al. <sup>56</sup>. These  
359 researchers reported an improvement in anthocyanin levels (up to approx. 15-fold) in plasma  
360 and urine after supplementing the diet of animals and subjects with blackcurrant anthocyanin in  
361 the presence of phytic acid (1% solutions) compared to the same supplement without phytic  
362 acid. Divalent minerals are strongly chelated by phytic acid, and this may prevent the formation  
363 of mineral-polyphenol complexes. However, the duration of the gastrointestinal passage  
364 increased with phytic acid, which could have altered the absorption kinetics.

365

### 366 3.2.2. Carotenoids

367 **Table 3** summarizes the carotenoid content and RAE in the different beverages formulated with  
368 three levels of calcium content before and after the digestion process. The MMB4, MMB5, and  
369 MMB6 were all equal in terms of individual and total carotenoid content. On the contrary, in the  
370 micellar fraction, the bioactive carotenoid content was inversely related to calcium fortification.  
371 In other words, the macular, provitamin A and colorless carotenoids and therefore the total  
372 carotenoid content and RAE were higher in the micellar fraction of the beverage with the lowest  
373 calcium level (MMB4).

374 **Figures 2C and D** show the bioaccessibility (as a percentage) of the bioactive carotenoids in the  
375 MMBs with different calcium levels. As it can be observed, bioaccessibility decreased  
376 significantly with increasing calcium content. Thus,  $\beta$ -CRX bioaccessibility was reduced by  
377 66% in MMB6 compared to MMB4 (the one with the lowest total calcium content), (see **Table**  
378 **1**), while other bioactive carotenoids decreased its bioaccessibility from 76% (in ZEA) to 43%  
379 (in BCAR). These results are consistent with previous studies reporting the effect of calcium  
380 concentration in digesta on micellarization and bioaccessibility of carotenoids <sup>25,26,57</sup>.

381 Biehler et al. <sup>57</sup> reported an inhibition of micelle formation (>40% on average) with a calcium  
382 content greater than 13.8 mM presumably due to the generation of insoluble soaps with fatty

383 acids and bile salts, which is in accordance with the decrease in bioaccessibility observed in  
384 MMB5 to MMB6 (21.9 to 33.1 mM). Likewise, Corte Real et al.<sup>25-27</sup> reported a negative effect  
385 of calcium in vitro on the bioaccessibility of different carotenoids in different matrices and this  
386 effect depended on calcium concentration. Although they observed an increase in  
387 bioaccessibility for samples with calcium concentrations up to 250 mg/l of digest,  
388 bioaccessibility was negatively affected over this value. Similarly, we observed a significant ( $p$   
389  $<0.05$ ) change in the bioaccessibility related to calcium concentrations in the digesta, so it was  
390 26% for MMB2 (142 mg/L in digesta) (**Figure 1D**) and 40% for MMB4 (426 mg Ca<sup>+2</sup> /L in  
391 digesta) (Figure 2). However, for calcium concentrations in digesta above this value (426 mg  
392 Ca<sup>+2</sup> /L), bioaccessibility was reduced ( $p <0.05$ ) to 30% and 12% in MMB5 and MMB6 (875.4  
393 and 1325 mg Ca<sup>+2</sup> /L respectively). This fact points out that there is a critical calcium  
394 concentration for optimal bioaccessibility of carotenoids (426 mg/L of calcium in the digesta, in  
395 this case) while levels over or under this value may negatively affect it.

396 However, when it comes to in vivo studies, contradictory results have been published. Borel et  
397 al.<sup>58</sup> in a randomized crossover study with 10 subjects who consumed 19 mg of lycopene  
398 (tomato paste), reported that 500 mg of dissolved calcium was able to reduce the bioavailability  
399 of lycopene by 83%. In contrast, Corte-Real et al.<sup>59</sup> reported that high calcium supplementation  
400 at physiological concentrations (500-1000 mg) in a spinach-based meal did not significantly  
401 affect the concentration of any carotenoid in plasma triacylglycerol-lipoprotein fraction (TRL),  
402 thus the bioavailability. These contradictory results could be related to the variability of factors  
403 such as type of carotenoid, matrix, calcium kinetic, and the endpoints selected.

404

#### 405 **4. Conclusions**

406 The results obtained in this study suggest that when functional beverages containing carotenoids  
407 or flavonoids are formulated, the impact of the formulation should be carefully considered to  
408 optimize the bioaccessibility of the bioactive compounds. The proposed functional beverage for  
409 bone health should be formulated with mandarine juice to have the highest content of  $\beta$ -CRX  
410 and also whole milk which provides vitamin D and enough fat to optimize the bioaccessibility

411 of carotenoids and flavonoids and fortified with < 120 mg of Ca<sup>2+</sup>/ 100 ml of beverages.

412 However more human studies are needed to understand the critical factors affecting the

413 bioaccessibility of carotenoids and flavonoids.

414



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541

542 **Figure Captions**

543 **Figure 1.** Bioaccessibility in percentage (BIO %) of phenolic compounds (A: Individual HCA,  
544 B: Total HCA, Flavones, Flavanones and Phenols) and bioactive carotenoids (C: Individual  
545 bioactive carotenoids, D: total carotenoids and retinol activity equivalent RAE) in the model  
546 milk mandarine beverages (MMBs) formulated with different fat contents (**Table 1**).

547

548 **Figure 2.** Bioaccessibility in percentage (BIO %) of phenolic compounds (A: Individual HCA,  
549 B: Total HCA, Flavones, Flavanones and Phenols) and bioactive carotenoids (C: Individual  
550 bioactive carotenoids, D: total carotenoids and retinol activity equivalent RAE) in the the model  
551 milk mandarine beverages (MMBs) formulated with different calcium fortification (**Table1**).

**Highlights**

- Milk-madarine beverages contain bioaccessible bioactive compounds
- Fat and calcium level differently affect bioaccessibility of bioactive compounds
- Milk-fat content is a limiting factor in the bioaccessibility of carotenoids
- Bioaccessibility of phenolics is positively affected the by fat- content
- Calcium fortification negatively affect bioaccessibility of bioactives

1 **Table 1.** Model milk mandarin beverages (MMBs) formulation and composition

	MMBs					
	MMB1	MMB2	MMB3	MMB4	MMB5	MMB6
<b>Ingredients %</b>						
Mandarin juice	50	50	50	50	50	50
Whole milk	0	50	40	50	50	50
Semi-skimmed milk	15	0	4	0	0	0
Skimmed milk	35	0	0	0	0	0
Cream milk	0	0	6	0	0	0
Calcium added (mg/100mL)	0	0	0	120.0	310.0	500.0
<b>Composition</b>						
Fat (g/100g)	0.2 ±0.1	1.7±0.1	3.2±0.1	1.7±0.1		
Protein (g/100g)	1.6±0.1	1.6±0.1	1.5±0.16	1.7±0.1		
Calcium (mg/100mL) in MMB	56.8±0.3			170.4±0.5	350.2±0.8	530.0 ± 1.2
Calcium (mg/L) calculated in the digested	142.0			425.9	875.4	1325.0

2



3 **Table 2.** Summary of the mean phenolic compounds and carotenoids (mg/L and Retinol Activity Equivalents (RAE  $\mu\text{g}/100\text{mL}$ )) in the model milk mandarin beverages (MMBs) and in the  
4 digesta (phenolic compounds)/micellar fraction (carotenoids).

Bioactive compounds		Non-digested			Digesta /Micellar fraction		
		MMB1	MMB2	MMB3	MMB1	MMB2	MMB3
<b>Phenolic Compounds</b>	caffeic acid-d <sub>1</sub>	1.50±0.07a	1.44±0.04a	1.50±0.06a	0.15±0.01A	0.19±0.01B	0.27±0.02C
	caffeic acid-d <sub>2</sub>	1.54±0.13a	1.52±0.05a	1.59±0.06a	0.12±0.02A	0.09±0.01B	0.14±0.01A
	ferulic acid-d <sub>1</sub>	1.20±0.03a	1.26±0.04a	1.28±0.01a	0.24±0.02A	0.24±0.01A	0.36±0.02B
	sinapic acid-d	0.91±0.01a	0.92±0.01a	0.93±0.01a	0.19±0.03A	0.1700.01A	0.24±0.02B
	ferulic acid-d <sub>2</sub>	1.22±0.02a	1.21±0.02a	1.23±0.01a	0.25±0.05A	0.27±0.04A	0.40±0.03B
	<i>p</i> -coumaric acid-d <sub>1</sub>	2.77±0.04a	2.70±0.11a	2.80±0.03a	0.22±0.05A	0.24±0.03A	0.36±0.03B
	<i>p</i> -coumaric acid dimer	0.25±0.03a	0.26±0.02a	0.24±0.01a	0.04±0.04A	0.04±0.01A	0.06±0.01B
	<b>ΣHCA</b>	9.40±0.24a	9.30±0.19a	9.58±0.17a	1.21±0.18A	1.23±0.09A	1.83±0.13B
	vicenin-2	4.73±0.06a	4.74±0.11a	4.79±0.04a	0.46±0.05A	0.47±0.02A	0.69±0.05B
	luteolin -d	2.02±0.15a	1.99±0.09a	1.71±0.15a	0.37±0.05A	0.37±0.04A	0.51±0.03B
	<b>ΣFLV</b>	6.75±0.13a	6.73±0.14a	6.50±0.19a	0.84±0.10A	0.84±0.06A	1.20±0.08B
	naringin-d	3.24±0.07a	3.05±0.04a	3.16±0.05a	0.71±0.09A	0.56±0.09A	0.62±0.10A
	narirutin	3.59±0.27a	3.40±0.05a	3.38±0.11a	0.82±0.10A	0.85±0.07A	1.06±0.04B
	hesperidin	11.31±0.16a	10.90±0.27a	10.83±0.46a	6.20±0.53A	7.21±0.70A	9.55±0.46B
	didymin	0.62±0.08a	0.64±0.12a	0.52±0.05a	0.17±0.02A	0.17±0.01A	0.35±0.02B
	<b>ΣFLN</b>	18.76±0.29a	17.99±0.30a	17.890±0.56a	7.91±0.39A	8.79±0.71A	11.58±0.42B
	<b>ΣTotal Phenols</b>	34.92±0.3a	34.02±0.49a	33.966±0.86a	9.95±0.26A	10.86±0.62A	14.61±0.56B
<b>Carotenoid Compounds</b>	MUT epimer A	0.20±0.01a	0.19±0.02a	0.17±0.01a	0.02±0.01A	0.03±0.01A	0.03±0.01A
	LUT	0.21±0.01a	0.20±0.02a	0.18±0.01a	0.02±0.01A	0.03±0.01A	0.03±0.01A
	MUT epimer B	0.37±0.04a	0.35±0.06a	0.31±0.01a	0.04±0.01A	0.07±0.02	0.04±0.01A
	ZEA	0.16±0.02a	0.12±0.03ab	0.09±0.01b	0.02±0.01A	0.02±0.01A	0.01±0.01A
	(9Z)- or (9' Z)-ANT	0.43±0.05a	0.41±0.07a	0.41±0.05a	0.03±0.01A	0.12±0.01B	0.06±0.01C
	ZEINO	0.08±0.01a	0.08±0.01a	0.09±0.01a	0.01±0.01A	0.01±0.01B	0.02±0.01C
	BCR	3.01±0.04a	2.71±0.30a	2.94±0.08a	0.29±0.01A	0.62±0.11B	0.34±0.04A
	ACAR	0.04±0.01a	0.04±0.01a	0.04±0.01a	0.01±0.01A	0.01±0.01B	0.01±0.01B
	BCAR	0.18±0.01a	0.17±0.01a	0.21±0.01b	0.03±0.01A	0.08±0.01B	0.05±0.01C
	PT	0.39±0.01a	0.40±0.01a	0.39±0.02a	0.11±0.02A	0.16±0.01B	0.09±0.01A
	PF	0.17±0.01a	0.18±0.01a	0.17±0.01a	0.03±0.01A	0.07±0.01B	0.04±0.01A
	<b>Total Carotenoids</b>	5.35±0.18a	4.93±0.51a	5.05±0.09a	0.64±0.07A	1.27±0.18B	0.72±0.06A
	<b>RAE*</b>	14.16±0.16a	12.91±1.23a	14.16±0.36a	1.48±0.17A	3.33±0.53B	1.89±0.19A

5 \*: Retinol activity equivalent: calculated as RAE ( $\mu\text{g}/100\text{ mL}$ ) = ( $\mu\text{g}$  of  $\beta$ -carotene)/12 + ( $\mu\text{g}$   $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin +  $\mu\text{g}$   $\alpha$ -carotene)/24. Different lower case letters in the same row show  
6 significant differences ( $p<0.05$ ) among MMBs. Different capital letters in the same row indicate significant differences ( $p<0.05$ ) among digesta/micellar fraction of each sample. FLV =  
7 (flavones), FLN = (flavanones), HCA = (hydroxycinnamic acids), ANT = (antheraxanthin), MUT= mutatoxanthin, LUT= (lutein), ZEA = (zeaxanthin), ZEI = (zeinoxanthin), BCR = ( $\beta$ -  
8 cryptoxanthin), ACAR= ( $\alpha$ -carotene), BCAR= ( $\beta$ -carotene), PT= (phytoene), PF= (phytofluene).

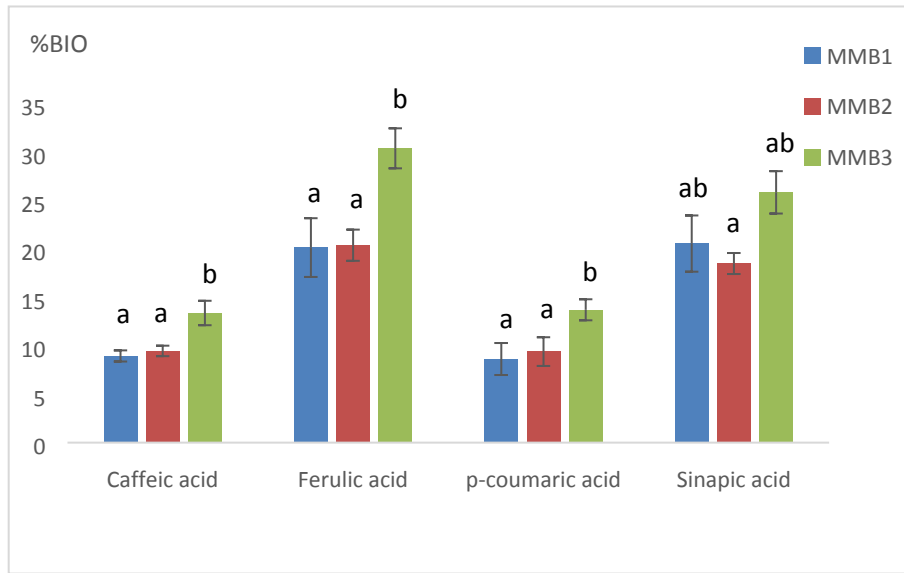
9  
10**Table 3.** Summary of the mean phenolic compounds and carotenoids (mg/L and Retinol Activity Equivalents (RAE  $\mu\text{g}/100\text{mL}$ )) in the model milk mandarin beverages (MMBs) and in the digesta (phenolic compounds)/micellar fraction (carotenoids).

Bioactive compounds	Non-digested			Digesta /Micellar fraction			
	MMB4	MMB5	MMB6	MMB4	MMB5	MM	
<b>Phenolic Compounds</b>	caffeic acid-d <sub>1</sub>	1.81±0.16a	1.80±0.07a	1.85±0.13a	0.20±0.01A	0.22±0.01A	0.24±0.03A
	caffeic acid-d <sub>2</sub>	2.02±0.13a	1.99±0.04a	1.95±0.08a	0.10±0.01A	0.12±0.02A	0.14±0.02A
	ferulic acid-d <sub>1</sub>	1.48±0.08a	1.45±0.03a	1.46±0.02a	0.25±0.02A	0.27±0.04A	0.26±0.03A
	sinapic acid-d	1.13±0.07a	1.15±0.01a	1.16±0.01a	0.19±0.02A	0.21±0.04A	0.23±0.02A
	ferulic acid-d <sub>2</sub>	1.29±0.06a	1.24±0.02a	1.24±0.01a	0.28±0.02A	0.36±0.06A	0.35±0.05A
	<i>p</i> -coumaric acid-d <sub>1</sub>	3.10±0.13a	3.04±0.02a	3.01±0.05a	0.25±0.02A	0.32±0.05A	0.31±0.04A
	<i>p</i> -coumaric acid dimer	0.32±0.02a	0.33±0.01a	0.34±0.02a	0.04±0.01A	0.04±0.01A	0.05±0.01A
	<b>ΣHCA</b>	11.15±0.05a	11.00±0.16a	11.00±0.18a	1.32±0.10A	1.53±0.23A	1.57±0.19A
	vicenin-2	4.09±0.21a	3.94±0.08a	3.98±0.21a	0.49±0.05A	0.57±0.10A	0.55±0.07A
	luteolin -d	2.67±0.19a	2.60±0.07a	2.64±0.10a	0.38±0.04A	0.46±0.06A	0.44±0.06A
	<b>ΣFLV</b>	6.77±0.36a	6.54±0.14a	6.62±0.29a	0.86±0.08A	1.03±0.15A	0.99±0.12A
	naringin-d	3.65±0.20a	3.53±0.07a	3.23±0.54a	0.55±0.04A	0.44±0.03A	0.43±0.10A
	narirutin	3.46±0.21a	3.24±0.10a	3.21±0.06a	0.88±0.04A	1.00±0.09A	0.96±0.23A
	hesperidin	12.58±0.71a	12.83±0.64a	13.41±0.39a	7.87±0.47A	7.70±0.65A	7.04±0.42A
	didymin	0.61±0.01a	0.57±0.11a	0.60±0.05a	0.22±0.01A	0.33±0.05B	0.19±0.02A
	<b>ΣFLN</b>	20.29±1.10a	20.17±0.91a	20.45±0.46a	9.53±0.51A	9.47±0.78A	8.61±0.32A
	<b>ΣTotal Phenols</b>	38.21±2.09a	37.71±1.15a	38.07±0.67a	11.71±0.68A	12.03±1.15A	11.17±0.42A
<b>Carotenoid Compounds</b>	MUT epimer A	0.37±0.02a	0.34±0.04a	0.35±0.01a	0.10±0.01A	0.07±0.01AB	0.04±0.01B
	LUT	0.08±0.01a	0.08±0.01a	0.08±0.01a	0.02±0.01A	0.01±0.01A	0.01±0.01C
	MUT epimer B	0.18±0.02a	0.20±0.03a	0.17±0.01a	0.06±0.01A	0.04±0.01B	0.02±0.01B
	ZEA	0.12±0.01a	0.12±0.01a	0.13±0.01a	0.03±0.01A	0.02±0.01AB	0.02±0.01B
	(9Z)- or (9' Z)-ANT	0.18±0.03a	0.18±0.01a	0.18±0.02a	0.11±0.01A	0.06±0.02B	0.03±0.01B
	ZEINO	0.06±0.01d	0.07±0.01a	0.07±0.01a	0.02±0.01A	0.01±0.01B	0.01±0.01C
	BCR	1.35±0.10a	1.36±0.13a	1.37±0.08a	0.54±0.02A	0.41±0.03B	0.18±0.01C
	ACAR	0.07±0.01a	0.07±0.01a	0.07±0.01a	0.02±0.01A	0.02±0.01B	0.01±0.01C
	BCAR	0.20±0.01a	0.20±0.01a	0.21±0.02a	0.09±0.01A	0.06±0.01B	0.02±0.01C
	PT	0.20±0.01a	0.20±0.01a	0.20±0.01a	0.13±0.01A	0.12±0.01A	0.06±0.01B
	PF	0.09±0.01a	0.09±0.01a	0.10±0.01a	0.08±0.01A	0.07±0.01A	0.03±0.01B
	<b>Total Carotenoids</b>	2.99±0.08a	2.99±0.26a	3.00±0.06a	1.22±0.03A	0.92±0.08B	0.44±0.03C
	<b>RAE*</b>	7.56±0.39a	7.62±0.58a	7.74±0.16a	3.06±0.11A	2.27±0.07B	0.98±0.10C

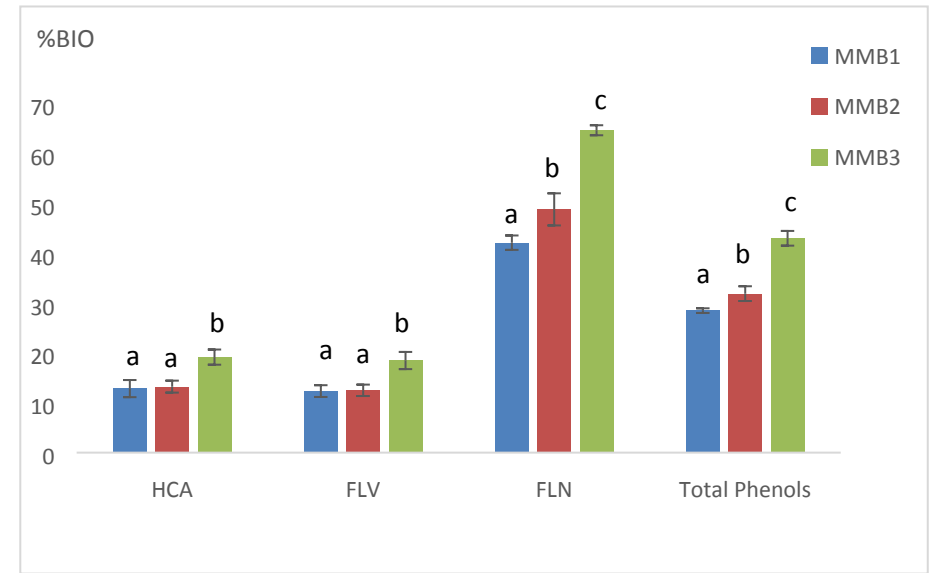
11 \*: Retinol activity equivalent: calculated as RAE ( $\mu\text{g}/100\text{ mL}$ ) = ( $\mu\text{g}$  of  $\beta$ -carotene)/12 + ( $\mu\text{g}$   $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin +  $\mu\text{g}$   $\alpha$ -carotene)/24. Different lower case letters in the same row show  
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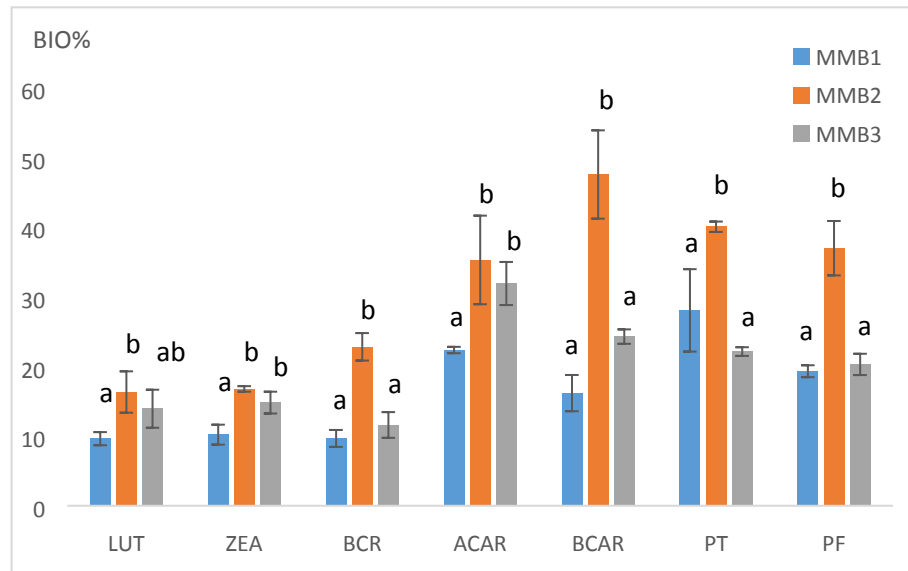
Figure 1.



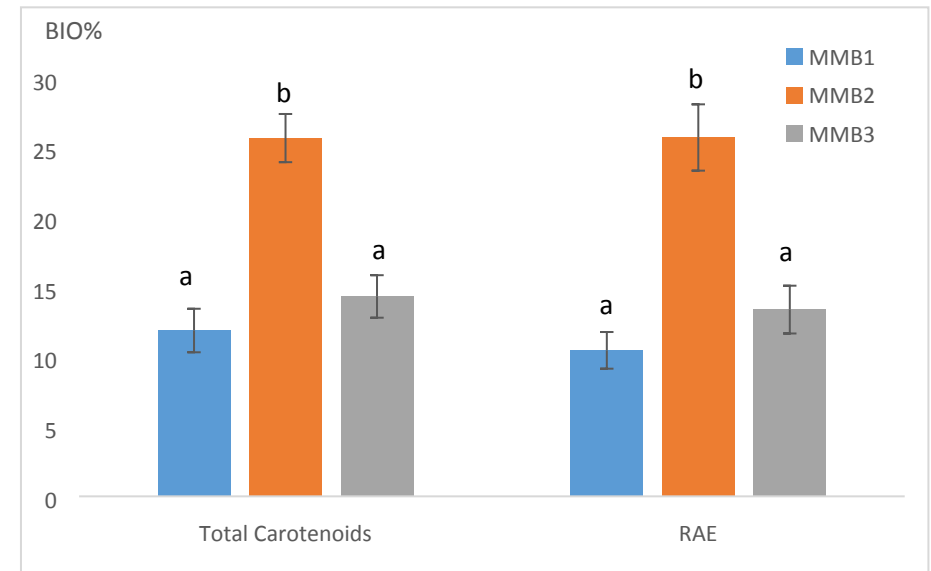
A



B



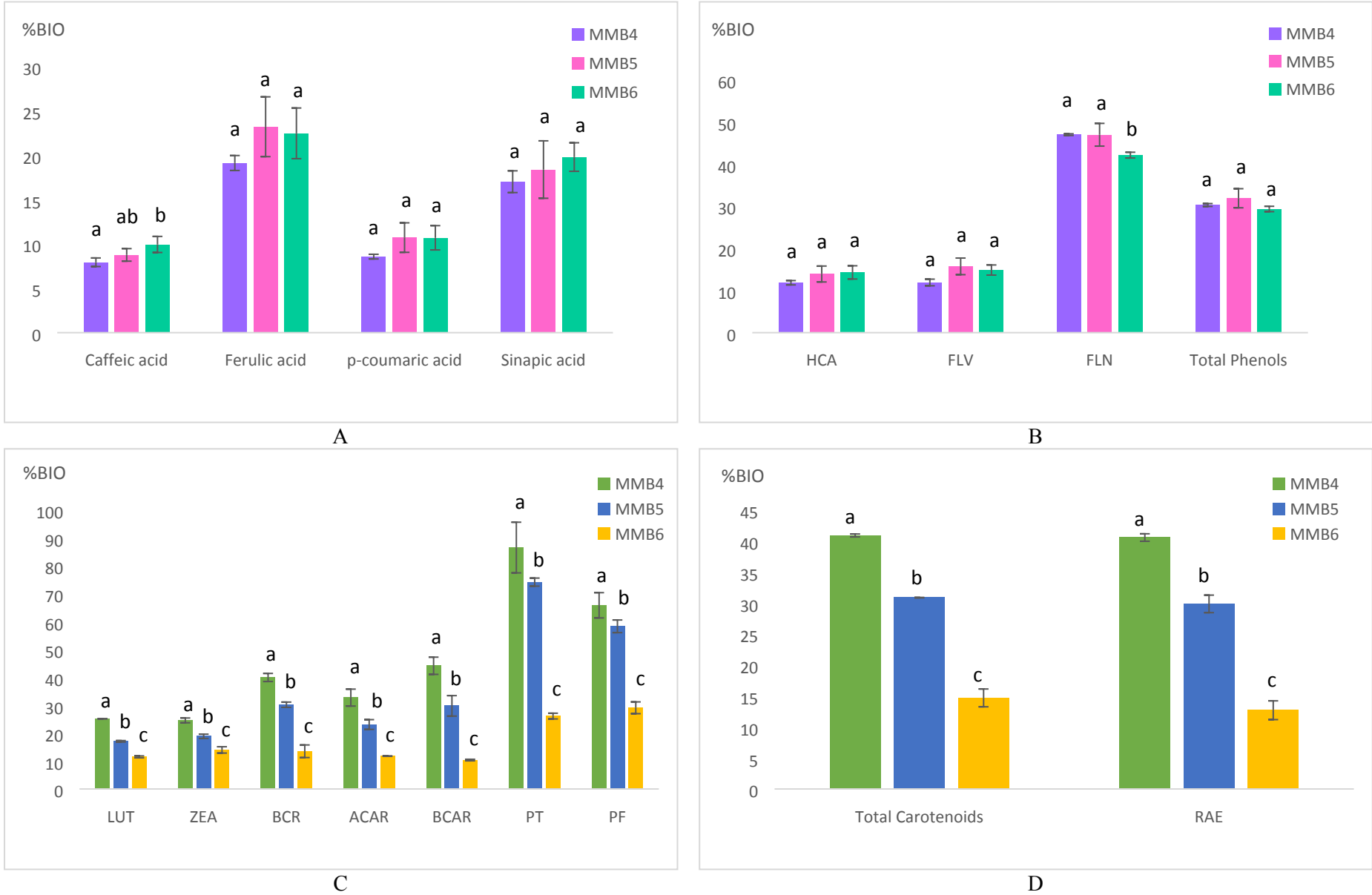
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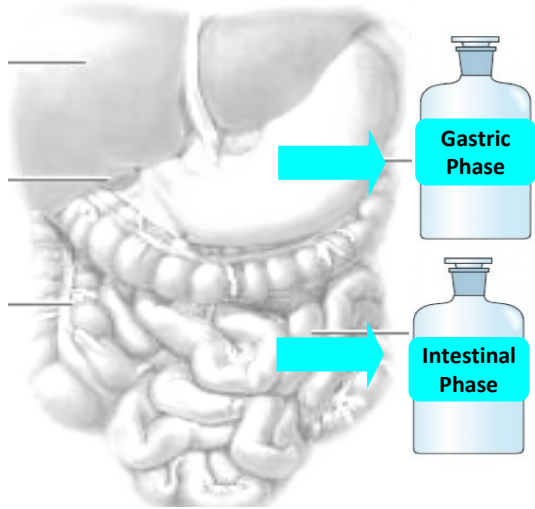
D

a,b,c Different letter indicate statistically significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) among bioaccessibility (BIO %) of each compound among formulations. FLV = flavones, FLN = flavanones, HCA = hydroxycinnamic acids, LUT= (lutein), ZEA = (zeaxanthin), BCR = ( $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin), ACAR= ( $\alpha$ -carotene), BCAR= ( $\beta$ -carotene), PT= (phytoene), PF= (phytofluene).

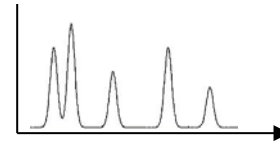
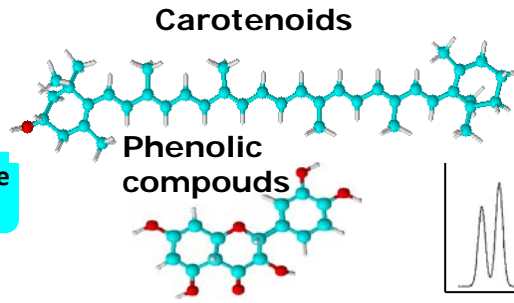
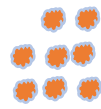
Figure 2.



a,b,c Different letter indicate statistically significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) among bioaccessibility (BIO %) of each compound among formulations. FLV = (flavones), FLN = (flavanones), HCA = (hydroxycinnamic acids), LUT= (lutein), ZEA = (zeaxanthin), BCR = ( $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin), ACAR= ( $\alpha$ -carotene), BCAR= ( $\beta$ -carotene), PT= (phytoene), PF= (phytofluene).



Bioaccessible content



Supplementary Materials: Table S1: Linearity, limits of quantification and detection (LOQ and LOD), and precision (repeatability and reproducibility) for the polyphenols analytical method.

	Retention Time (min)	Compound	Wavelength (nm)	Regression equation	$R^2$ (a)	LOD (b) ( $\mu\text{g}$ )	LOQ (c) ( $\mu\text{g}$ )	Intra-day (n=3)	Inter-day (n=18)
<b>Phenolic Compounds</b>									
<b>HCA</b>	7.821	<i>Caffeic acid</i>	320	$y = 3141.53x + 2.11$	0.9987	0.001	0.001	1.77	3.16
	9.179	<i>p-coumaric acid</i>	320	$y = 4062.04x + 3.66$	0.9999	0.001	0.001	1.31	1.80
	9.882	<i>Ferulic acid</i>	320	$y = 3687.28x + 2.04$	0.9999	0.001	0.001	1.34	1.49
	10.048	<i>Sinapic acid</i>	320	$y = 3160.65x + 8.156$	0.9999	0.001	0.001	1.37	1.58
<b>FLV</b>	14.417	<i>Apigenin</i>	320	$y = 1772.74x + 2.50$	0.9939	0.002	0.006	2.22	3.54
<b>FLN</b>	11.411	<i>Naringenin</i>	280	$y = 2154.57x + 1.28$	0.9995	0.001	0.001	1.28	2.54
	11.617	<i>Hesperidin</i>	280	$y = 860.73x + 0.80$	0.9992	0.002	0.006	0.52	2.47
	11.892	<i>Naringin</i>	280	$y = 807.71x + 0.29$	0.9995	0.001	0.002	0.43	1.08
	13.430	<i>Dydimin</i>	280	$y = 1100.79x + 0.463$	0.9997	0.001	0.001	0.98	1.25

Values are expressed as means  $\pm$  standard deviation;  $R^2$  (a): coefficient of determination, LOD (b): limit of detection; LOQ (c): limit of quantification. FLV = flavones, FLN = flavanones, HCA = hydroxycinnamic acids