

1 Engineering strategies to modulate nutrient  
2 digestion kinetics and bioaccessibility of plant-  
3 based foods

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## 20 Abstract

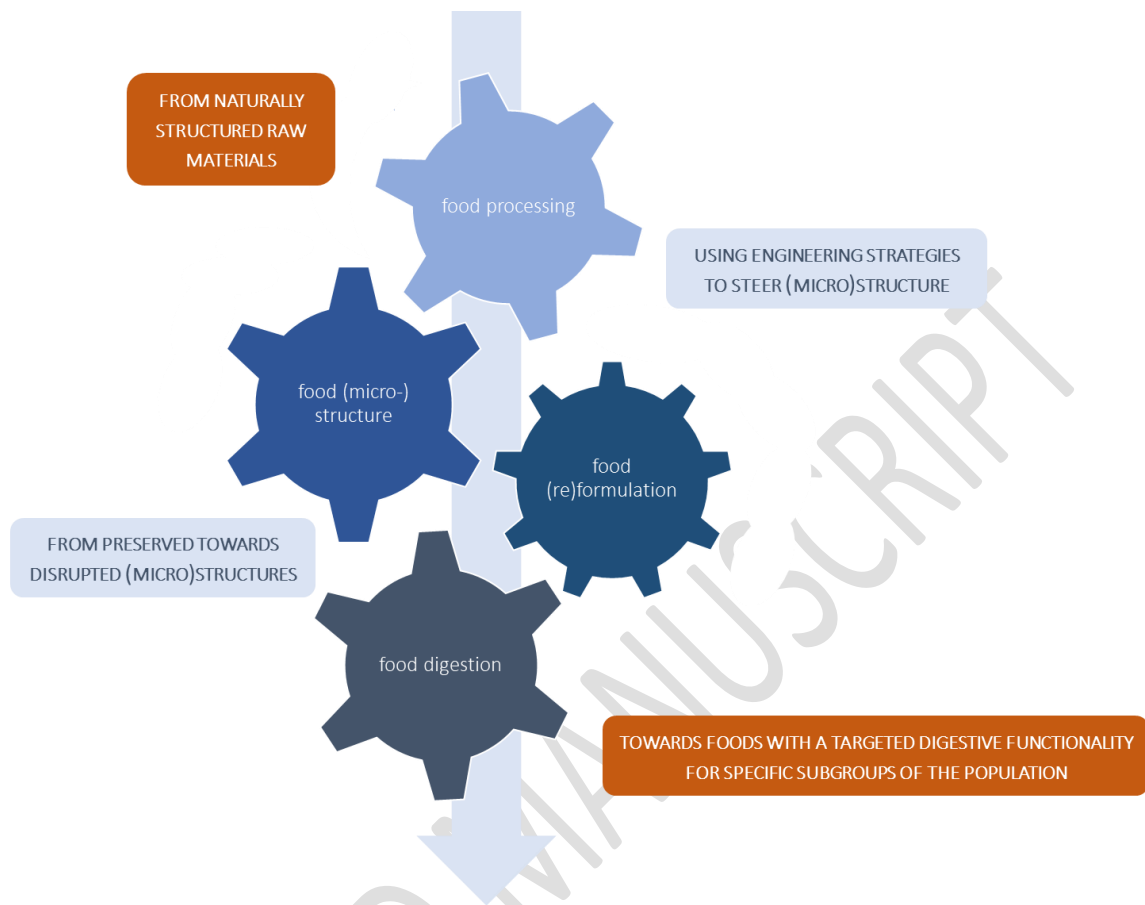
21 Since plant-based raw materials present a relative high level of nutrient encapsulation, processing is  
22 often essential to increase susceptibility of nutrients to digestive compounds or to release nutrients  
23 from their natural entrapment to become available for digestion/absorption. Next to food processing,  
24 food (re)formulation is also an valuable strategy to steer nutrient digestive functionalities. These two  
25 food design strategies create a range of different food (micro)structures which are broken down along  
26 the gastrointestinal tract determining nutrients digestibility/bioaccessibility. Additionally, the role of  
27 digestion conditions on nutrient digestion/bioaccessibility cannot be ignored, paving the way for  
28 engineering strategies to develop food for specific target populations.

29

30 **Keywords: processing; food design; microstructure; food formulation; pulses**

31

## 32 Graphical abstract



33

## 34 1 Introduction

35 Food has a complex organization [1] as it is structured by different digestible and non-digestible  
36 compounds. Food composition determines the maximum amount of metabolites and bioactives that  
37 can become available for absorption and metabolism [2]. However, food is not a sum of nutrients, yet  
38 diverse food structural properties and food formulations result in different digestion/bioaccessibility  
39 kinetics and physiological responses.

40 Food processing includes a variety of unit operations, the so-called food processing chain, to transform  
41 raw or fresh foods into edible food products with increased shelf life and food safety [3,4]. This chain  
42 is including but not limited to washing, reducing particle size (e.g. cutting, mixing), extracting,  
43 dehydrating, heating (e.g. blanching, pasteurizing, cooking), refrigerating, freezing, or a combination

44 of these processes [3]. Although each step of the processing chain has its specific impact on the quality  
45 of a food product, the accumulated impact determines the final food quality.

46 Food quality is a multi-dimensional concept involving objective and subjective dimensions. Nutritional  
47 quality is one aspect which is often judged based on the composition of a food [5]. As a result, foods  
48 have predominantly been categorized based on nutrient composition. However, food classifications  
49 based on nutritional composition solely fail to include nutrient release patterns, which significantly  
50 affect physiological responses. Therefore, such classifications do not give a complete image of the  
51 nutritional quality of the food, hereby insufficiently informing consumers. Therefore, in the last  
52 decades, new types of classifications were on the rise, such as the NOVA classification, based on the  
53 extent and purpose of processing. The NOVA classification groups foods into four categories from  
54 unprocessed over (minimally) processed foods or ingredients to ultra-processed food products [6].  
55 Especially ultra-processed foods gained much attention, also from consumers, as they are often linked  
56 with negative health effects [7]. In practice, ultra-processed foods are identified based on the number  
57 of ingredients they contain and specifically the presence of one or multiple ingredients not used in a  
58 regular kitchen [6]. It should be noted however, that it is not processing itself that causes food  
59 products to be unhealthy, but rather the combination of ingredients, created or isolated through  
60 processing, into a food product. Those ultra-processed foods are frequently made from individual,  
61 disintegrated ingredients so the final product has no or little natural structure, resulting in a (too) fast  
62 digestion. In other words, the (micro)structural organization of nutrients within a food product (and  
63 the lack thereof in ultra-processed foods) is most probably a determining factor in foods' nutritional  
64 functionality and consequently health effects. Hence, researchers shifted from studying food  
65 composition towards studying food structural properties and their influence on nutrient digestion or  
66 bioaccessibility [2,8]. These structural properties are frequently engineered by targeted food design  
67 (e.g. processing and/or formulation) to steer the nutrient functionality.

68 This review will therefore give a brief overview of recent engineering approaches to steer food (micro-  
69 )structure and in turn nutrient digestion kinetics and/or bioaccessibility. Specific attention will be

70 given to the cases of food processing and food (re)formulation as strategies to regulate food  
71 microstructure and in turn nutrient release, digestibility and/or bioaccessibility. The plant-based food  
72 matrices mainly discussed are pulses as those require processing before consumption. In these cases,  
73 appropriate processing (sequences) help to preserve natural microstructural properties attenuating  
74 digestion. Additionally, specific fruits and vegetables are briefly discussed when relevant as well as oil-  
75 in-water emulsions.

## 76 2 Food processing to steer nutrient *in vitro* digestion or bioaccessibility

### 77 2.1 Food processing as a tool to create edible foods

78 In the case of pulses (i.e. annual leguminous crops harvested solely for use as dry grains), processing  
79 is essential to provide a consumable product that has low levels of potentially toxic antinutritional  
80 factors and so is more susceptible to digestion [9,10]. A first processing step applied in this case is  
81 soaking, to hydrate the dry pulse seed. Generally, water is used as the soaking medium, yet cations  
82 can be added to steer subsequent cooking time. Soaking time and temperature can be varied as well  
83 which also impact cooking time [11]. Soaked pulse seeds are mostly thermally treated to create  
84 palatable pulse seeds. The heat applied induces several structural modifications within a pulse seed  
85 like cell wall, starch, and protein changes [9]. The cumulative impact of the intrinsic properties of a  
86 pulse seed and extrinsic processing conditions will determine the final hardness of a pulse seed which  
87 is often linked to digestion properties [9,11]. Only sufficiently softened pulse seeds are consumed.

88 In the case of fruits and vegetables, processing is generally not essential to create consumable  
89 products. However, especially in the case of vegetables, processing is frequently applied to increase  
90 shelf life and/or create a more pleasant and digestible product. The application of processing to fruits  
91 and vegetables can have both negative and positive effects on particular nutrients [12]. In this sense,  
92 it is known that certain phytochemicals such as glucosinolates and S-alk(en)yl-L-cysteine sulfoxides,  
93 are precursors of bioactive compounds, but do not affect health in their original state. Conversion of  
94 these non-bioactive precursors only takes place when endogenous enzymes interact with their

95 substrate which can be initiated through processing (e.g. particle size reduction techniques) [13,14].  
96 In contrast, other health-related compounds such as vitamins and carotenoids are sensitive to light,  
97 oxygen, and/or heat and as a result, processing often negatively impacts their concentration [12,15].  
98 The nutrient concentration present after creating such edible food products is one aspect that  
99 determines the amount of metabolites and bioactives that have potential to be absorbed by the body  
100 (i.e. bioaccessible fraction).

## 101 2.2 Food processing as a tool to alter microstructure of foods

102 The term microstructure is frequently used to refer to elements present and interactions occurring  
103 among them at the microscopic level (below the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  range). Typical examples are plant cells, cell  
104 walls, starch granules, protein assemblies, oil droplets and colloidal structures [16]. It became clear  
105 that food microstructure plays a controlling role in the digestive fate of nutrients since different food  
106 microstructures are broken down to different extents along the gastrointestinal tract [17].

107 Pulses are an excellent case study on this matter. They consist of a seed coat surrounding two  
108 cotyledons. Within a cotyledon, numerous cells are present containing starch granules and protein  
109 bodies, with each cell being surrounded by a cell wall [9]. This complex structural organization of pulse  
110 seeds results in a natural encapsulation of nutrients, which can be strategically modified by processing  
111 [18]. In this sense, different foods and ingredients can be created from pulses with different (digestive)  
112 functionalities.

113 Pulses are mostly consumed as seeds after processing. Generally, longer cooking times are linked to a  
114 higher level of cell separation due to pectin solubilization in the middle lamella and therefore higher  
115 proportions of individual cotyledon cells upon mechanical disintegration [19]. Oppositely, insufficient  
116 cooking, gives rise to cell breakage and the release of free macronutrients. In other pulse types,  
117 shorter cooking times have been related to the separation of cell clusters. These differences in  
118 microscopical organization give rise to different levels of nutrient encapsulation and thus (starch)  
119 digestion kinetics [20][19,21]. Additionally, Edwards et al. [22] investigated the effect of cell wall

120 properties of two seed producing plants, durum wheat (monocot) *versus* chickpea (dicot), and the  
121 consequences on *in vitro* starch digestion kinetics. These authors concluded that intrinsic differences  
122 in cell wall properties of pulses (cotyledon) and wheat (endosperm) determined the rate and extent  
123 of starch digestion, with pulse cell walls being less permeable for  $\alpha$ -amylase [19]. Different types of  
124 processing have been explored for pulses as well [22,23], yet hydrothermal processing remains the  
125 most applied way of pulse seed softening. Overall, the delayed starch digestion kinetics associated  
126 with encapsulated starch granules in pulse seeds gives large potential in the formulation of low  
127 glycemic index foods (cfr. Section 3) in which ingredients derived from pulse seeds play an innovative  
128 role.

129 In recent years, research not only focused on understanding starch digestion as affected by the  
130 primary cell wall barrier of pulses, yet the protein matrix entrapping starch granules and therefore  
131 acting as a secondary barrier got in the spotlight as well. More specifically, gradual proteolysis and  
132 reduction of this secondary barrier, leading to amylolysis facilitation is being investigated, for example  
133 by Do et al. [24] for navy beans. Although there are several indications that this hypothesis holds for  
134 all pulses, it should still be confirmed for understudied pulse types. In this context, new approaches  
135 and quantification methods were developed to gain more in-depth insight into protein digestion of  
136 pulses [25] but also of other plant-based foods [26,27].

137 Generally, it can be stated that hydrothermal processing of pulses is associated with improved protein  
138 nutritional quality. This is explained by thermal degradation of protease inhibitors and causing protein  
139 denaturation reducing protease resistance. Oppositely, the Maillard reaction and/or protein  
140 denaturation increasing protease resistance is linked to thermal processes in absence of moisture or  
141 when overheating protein [10]. Improving the protein nutritional quality of pulse-based products  
142 continues to be a challenge in which targeted processing techniques can play a key role.

143 Fruits and vegetables also possess naturally encapsulated nutrients, which are often localized within  
144 specific plant cell structures surrounded by an undigestible cell wall. Consequently, cell wall intactness

145 is a determining factor in the bioaccessibility of these nutrients. Processing can be employed to  
146 stimulate nutrient release and/or bioaccessibility, by affecting cell wall integrity and/or other  
147 microstructural properties. Different processing techniques can be utilized for this aim: thermal  
148 processing, particle size reduction by high pressure homogenization or mixing, pulsed electric field  
149 treatments, enzymatic processes, etc. [28]. These processes can be applied for water-soluble nutrients  
150 which are naturally entrapped in cell structures to promote their release and/or absorption [14,29].  
151 However, for lipid-soluble nutrients such as carotenoids and vitamin D, the nutrient amount that is  
152 released from the matrix is not necessarily equal to the amount that is absorbed. In these cases, the  
153 (lipid) digestion process during which mixed micelles are formed as well as nutrient interactions play  
154 a key role in the nutrient fraction finally absorbed [18,30].

### 155 **3 Food formulation to control nutrient digestion kinetics**

156 Not only food processing but also food (re)formulation can be applied as a strategy to steer nutrient  
157 digestibility (kinetics) or bioaccessibility, and is very often done by strategically including nutrients  
158 with a specific microstructural organization.

159 In the case of oil-in-water emulsions for example, it became obvious that several factors influence  
160 lipid digestion: (i) oil phase properties, (ii) oil droplet size, (iii) interfacial properties, (iv) properties of  
161 the continuous phase [31]. However, one recent research trend aims to explore and understand the  
162 use of a mix of emulsifiers to modulate emulsion stability and/or lipid digestion [32,33]. For this, both  
163 traditional molecular emulsifiers are studied as well as colloidal (nano)particles such as proteins,  
164 polysaccharides and polyphenols. Pickering and nano-emulsions are of interest in food industry to act  
165 as delivery systems for bioactives (e.g. curcumin, carotenoids), replacers of fats and yolk, or edible  
166 food packaging films [34]. Furthermore, natural oil droplets and emulsions extracted from different  
167 sources like nuts and oil seeds, gained more attention from researchers to replace synthetic oils  
168 (droplets) in a range (food) products [35,36].



169 Another emerging trend is to reformulate current food products, driven by the protein transition or  
170 the need to create lower caloric foods, for instance. In this context, the use of pulse flours is a new  
171 strategy to replace (part of) wheat flour in wheat-based foods such as pasta, bread, and other bakery  
172 products [37–39] aiming to increase protein content for example. Additionally, consumption of foods  
173 made from ingredients of different plant sources results in an enriched nutrient intake [39]. Both  
174 purified (e.g. protein isolates, isolated cell fraction) and whole ingredients (e.g. whole pulse flours) of  
175 pulses are currently under investigation, yet the isolation and/or purification of pulse-based  
176 ingredients is accompanied by the production of several waste streams questioning the sustainability  
177 aspect of these food ingredients [40]. Additionally, pulse flours can be produced from either dry,  
178 uncooked pulses or from cooked pulses [41]. When mechanically disintegrating dry pulse seeds, cell  
179 breakage will be the prevalent mode of action, while sufficiently cooked pulse seeds will present  
180 predominantly cell separation [9]. These two types of pulse-flours have a completely different  
181 microstructure which is directly linked with macronutrient digestion kinetics. While predominantly  
182 raw-milled flours are used by industry at this moment, there is increasing research showing the  
183 advantages of using cellular flours (i.e. flours made of cooked pulse seeds) in food products since the  
184 natural encapsulation of nutrients is preserved in that case [41], creating opportunities to tune  
185 digestion phenomena [42–44] and *in vivo* responses [39,45].

186 In this context, it is very important to realize that nutrients can behave differently in their isolated  
187 form compared to when they are present in a food or meal [1]. Guevara-Zambrano et al. [46] studied  
188 the impact of different protein microstructural organizations in the presence of emulsified oil droplets  
189 on both lipid and protein digestion kinetics. A direct link was observed between the level of  
190 accessibility of protein for digestive enzymes and protein digestion kinetics. In other words, naturally  
191 encapsulated protein can be used as tool to delay its digestibility. Additionally, the presence of the  
192 protein matrix delayed lipid hydrolysis, showing the importance of not only studying nutrients in their  
193 isolated form. A similar observation was made by Calvo-Lerma et al. [47], yet the impact of the protein  
194 content seemed negligible for foods with a high lipid content. More and more research focusses on

195 investigating and understanding these nutrient, food, or even meal interactions [30] which remains a  
196 highly relevant research topic.

#### 197 **4 *In vitro* approaches to investigate digestion**

198 Throughout the years, diverse approaches have been used to simulate digestion *in vitro* [48]. Static *in*  
199 *vitro* models are predominantly employed in that case, since they are based on *in vivo* observations,  
200 nonetheless being more standardized, less expensive, of higher throughput, and having less ethical  
201 constraints than *in vivo* models [48,49]. Static models only apply a single set of initial conditions and  
202 are thus unable to include any time dependency of the dynamic digestion process within a particular  
203 digestive phase [49]. Hence, semi-dynamic *in vitro* models are of interest as these models allow to  
204 make strategic choices on which relevant dynamic factors to include [50,51]. The dynamic nature of  
205 secretions (e.g. digestive enzymes, pH) and gastric emptying are two important aspects that impact  
206 digestion kinetics [50,52,53] as they modify microstructural properties, enzymatic activity, substrate-  
207 enzyme contact time, etc. Additionally, particular digestive compounds may interact with nutrients  
208 impacting their or other nutrients' digestibility/bioaccessibility. Interesting examples are the  
209 interaction of pectin with lipase and/or bile salts reducing the availability of these digestive  
210 compounds for lipid digestion when used as emulsion stabilizer [54]. More recently, it was found that  
211 certain bean compounds also retain bile salts which might be linked to a cholesterol-lowering effect  
212 [55]. Overall, it is important to choose an appropriate *in vitro* digestion protocol for the research  
213 question in mind [56]. Moreover, the impact of food structure on oral processing cannot be forgotten  
214 [57,58]. Additionally, more and more *in vitro* fermentation protocols are available as well which can  
215 deliver additional insight into the nutritional impact of food structure as affected by food processing  
216 or food formulation [59,60].

217 Until now, most digestion studies focused on digestion conditions typical for healthy adults. However,  
218 there is a growing need to unravel the digestive fate of nutrients for specific populations with altered  
219 digestion conditions [61]. Examples are children, elderly, women, people with anorexia, obesity or

220 that underwent bariatric surgery, whom have altered transit times, pH conditions, enzyme  
221 concentrations and/or bile salt concentrations [62–65]. These altered digestive conditions will impact  
222 nutrient digestibility and bioaccessibility and we need to engineer foods for these populations as well.  
223 Providing food according to the health status of particular populations appears an emerging research  
224 field to which food scientists could and should contribute [66,67].

## 225 5 Conclusions and future perspectives

226 Engineering approaches like food processing or food (re)formulation remain interesting tools to  
227 modulate the digestive fate of nutrients. In recent years, food scientists more and more focused on  
228 the link between food processing, food (micro)structural properties and the final nutritional  
229 functionality of a food product or ingredient. Generally, when food (micro)structure gets lost by, for  
230 example, processing or formulating products from individual ingredients, the nutritional quality is  
231 largely altered. However, many effort is being made by food scientists to investigate the potential of  
232 intelligently designed new or reformulated foods to steer their digestive functionality. Since focus  
233 shifted from studying food composition towards studying food (micro)structure and its relation with  
234 nutrient digestibility and/or bioaccessibility, new tools should be developed to better quantify this  
235 relation. Additionally, there is a need to evolve from investigating single nutrients towards co-ingested  
236 nutrients in food and meal approaches spanning diverse subgroups of the whole population.

237

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