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Additional Information

1 **Tomato-antioxidants enhance viability of *L. reuteri* under gastrointestinal**
2 **conditions while the probiotic negatively affects bioaccessibility of lycopene and**
3 **phenols**

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15
16 **ABSTRACT**

17 Changes undergone by tomato-antioxidants during gastrointestinal digestion of raw and
18 fried tomato, with or without presence of the probiotic *Lactobacillus reuteri* ATCC 55730,
19 were studied.

20 Frying process enhanced the extractability of antioxidant compounds, being their content
21 higher in fried than in raw tomato. *In vitro* digestion led to a significant loss of antioxidant
22 activity (65 and 75 % losses for raw and fried tomato, respectively), and total lycopene
23 (60 and 50 % losses for raw and fried tomato, respectively); and promoted *trans-cis*
24 lycopene isomerization initiated during frying.

25 Bioaccessibility of the antioxidant compounds was within 10 % and 30 %, being higher
26 for phenolic compounds in raw tomato but lower for total lycopene. Finally, although the
27 presence of *Lactobacillus reuteri* ATCC 55730 reduced the bioaccessibility of antioxidant
28 compounds, the results suggests that the tomato's antioxidant compounds could have a
29 protective effect against the loss of viability of the probiotic.

30

31 **Key words:** tomato-lycopene, *L.reuteri*, bioaccessibility, viability.

32

33 **1. Introduction**

34 In the last decade of the twentieth century, the concept of nutrition has changed due to
35 modifications in consumers' lifestyle. Nowadays, there is an increasing interest of
36 consumers towards food with significant benefits for the physiological functions of the
37 body (Tojo-Sierra, Leis-Trabazo, & Tojo-González, 2003). The conception of the
38 nineteenth century, where food was only a safe and adequate supply of energy with
39 macro- and micronutrients, has been left behind. The concept of "healthy food", i.e food
40 that does not represent a health risk and that retains its nutritional activity and freshness
41 (Aggett et al., 1999), has moved towards "functional food", defined as a food that is
42 consumed as a part of a normal eating pattern, which contains natural components in
43 modified or not modified concentrations and that provides, in addition to its nutritional
44 value, a beneficial effect on the body (Aggett et al., 1999). Thus, the medical sciences
45 also see in functional foods a strategy for preventing chronic non-transmissible diseases,
46 which have become the main causes of death worldwide. Dietary recommendations have
47 an impact on the consumption of fruits and vegetables as an ideal way to prevent these
48 diseases. Besides its content in nutrients and fiber, fruits and vegetables have other

49 bioactive compounds that stand out for their antioxidant, anti-inflammatory or
50 immunoregulatory properties, etc. (Bojórquez, Gallego, & Collado, 2013).

51 Many epidemiological studies have established a correlation between regular
52 consumption of some components present in fruits and vegetables and the low incidence
53 of suffering from certain chronic diseases (Knekt et al., 2002; S. Liu et al., 2000).

54 Amongst the compounds of a marked antioxidant character in fruits and vegetables,
55 ascorbic acid, tocopherols, carotenoids and polyphenols stand out, which exert their
56 antioxidant and anti-carcinogenic effects acting in an additive and / or synergistic way
57 (R. H. Liu, 2003). Among them, lycopene a carotenoid found almost exclusively in the
58 tomato fruit, has up to twice the antioxidant activity of β -carotene, and has consistently
59 been associated with the prevention of cardiovascular disease and different types of
60 cancer (breast, colon and prostate) (Dewanto, Wu, Adom, & Liu, 2002). The amount of
61 lycopene present in tomato depends on the variety of tomato, its degree of maturity and,
62 above all, on the processing for its transformation into juice sauce, soup, etc. (Álvarez-
63 Cruz & Bague-Serrano, 2011; Story, Kopec, Schwartz, & Harris, 2013). Although
64 processing techniques, and especially those where food is exposed to high temperature,
65 can induce losses of total lycopene by oxidation mechanisms, they can also lead, in turn,
66 to an increase of its bioavailability as a result of the isomerization of the *trans* form into
67 the *cis* one (Dewanto et al., 2002; Giovanelli, Zanoni, Lavelli, & Nani, 2002; Heredia,
68 Peinado, Rosa, & Andrés, 2010; Sahlin, Savage, & Lister, 2004). Furthermore, severe
69 heat treatments can even induce the synthesis of not only lycopene or other carotenoids,
70 but also other compounds with antioxidant character (Heredia, Peinado, Barrera, &
71 Andres, 2009; Heredia et al., 2010).

72 Studies carried out by Koh, Kim, Hwang, & Lim (2013) and Grajek, Olejnik, & Sip
73 (2005) proved that the tomato, in addition to its antioxidant properties, possess also

74 prebiotic functions due to other compounds such as fiber, oligosaccharides and
75 polysaccharides, which can act on the intestinal environment. Prebiotics are non-
76 digestible food ingredients, whose bacterial fermentation in the colon promotes the
77 activity and the selective growth of certain bacteria, such as bifidobacteria and
78 lactobacilli, and prevents the growth of pathogens (Roberfroid, 2000). The benefits of a
79 bioactive compound once ended the "industrial process" depend on the transformations
80 experienced during the "digestive process", when food is subjected to further process
81 variables that might trigger important changes and reactions, modifying its final
82 functionality or bioavailability (bioaccessibility, bioabsorption, etc.). The best way to
83 determine the benefits obtained from the intake of a food involves subjecting it to the "*in*
84 *vivo*" digestive process itself, assessing the changes that it undergoes throughout each of
85 the involved steps. Thus, the coefficient of bioavailability is directly analyzed, being
86 defined as the amount of compound that is capable of being released by the food matrix
87 after being transformed into the digestive process in a more soluble form (bioavailability)
88 and crosses the intestinal barrier (biosorption) in order to be then used by the body (Parada
89 & Aguilera, 2007). However, *in vivo* tests are expensive and require long times,
90 particularly in human samples, involving also medical and ethical implications.
91 Therefore, "*in vitro*" models are of great interest, since the results are more reproducible
92 and allow mechanizing studies with various parameters under control. There are scientific
93 evidences that positively support the alternative of using enzymatic methods that
94 reproduce the optimal metabolic conditions of stomach digestion and subsequent
95 absorption in the intestine, compared to *in vivo* assays (During & Harrison, 2005; Ménard
96 et al., 2014).

97 In the specific case of liposoluble compounds, such as lycopene, they need to form
98 micelles to pass through the intestinal barrier. Therefore, bioavailability and later

99 absorption of liposoluble compounds is much lower than for the water-soluble ones. A
100 study conducted by During & Harrison, (2005) on intestinal absorption of carotenoids
101 showed a very low absorption of lycopene (3%) compared to other carotenoids such as
102 β -carotene (11%), as well as an increase on its absorption after the addition of retinol.
103 The aim of this study was to analyze the functional properties of tomato, both raw and
104 fried, after an *in vitro* gastrointestinal simulation. Specifically, the changes suffered by
105 the antioxidant compounds present in tomato (total phenols, lycopene), total antioxidant
106 activity, through the gastric and intestinal stages and the bioavailability of each compound
107 have been evaluated. Additionally, the possible protective character of tomato on the
108 probiotic *Lactobacillus reuteri* ATCC 55730 (*L. reuteri*) as it passes through the stomach
109 and small intestine (duodenum) has been studied.

110

111 **2. Materials and Methods**

112 **2.1 Reagents**

113 Sodium carbonate, ammonium bicarbonate, potassium dihydrogen phosphate, porcine
114 pepsin (3,200-4,500 U / mg), pancreatin from porcine pancreas (8 \times USP) and bovine bile
115 extract, were from Sigma-Aldrich (Deisenhofen, Germany). The Folin-Ciocalteu reagent,
116 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH), Trolox (>95 %), Gallic acid (\geq 95 %), lycopene
117 standard (\geq 99 %) were also from from Sigma-Aldrich (Deisenhofen, Germany). Sodium
118 carbonate hydrogen was purchased from Scharlau (Barcelona, Spain). All solvents used
119 for the determination of lycopene were HPLC grade and all other, analytical grade.
120 Bidistilled water was used for chromatographic analysis (Milli-Q, Millipore Corp.,
121 Bedford, MA). Lycopene solutions (1 mg / mL) were prepared daily from stock solutions
122 (100 mg / mL in hexane). Standard solutions were stored at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

123

124 **2.2. Raw materials**

125 The pear type tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum L.*) was chosen to carry out this study,
126 because it is a variety with a high amount of lycopene, widely used in the food industry
127 to obtain processed tomato, due to its high pulp / weight ratio. Its intense red colour and
128 its shape like a pear, clearly identify this type of tomato. It has a thin skin, a mild flavour
129 and a fleshy texture.

130

131 **2.3. Experimental methodology**

132 2.3.1. Raw and fried tomato preparation

133 Whole tomatoes (without removing the skin) were adequately washed, cut into quarters
134 and homogenized at 16,380 g-force for 40 seconds in a Thermomix mod. TM31. A
135 homogenate with a fine texture and without any lump was obtained, and part of it was
136 separated for the frying process. For this, olive oil was added to the crushed tomatoes (10
137 % w/w), and the mix was fried for 10 minutes in a conventional pan provided with a lid.
138 The temperature at the centre of the pan was monitored along the frying process by a
139 THERMOPAR temperature probe, and it remained at 102 ± 1 ° C. Both raw and fried
140 tomatoes were stored in a hermetic and sterile container, in the absence of light, until
141 gastrointestinal simulation.

142 2.3.2. Selection and culture of probiotic strain

143 The strain *Lactobacillus reuteri* ATCC 55730 was selected as the probiotic
144 microorganism for the study (Reuter, 2001). *L. reuteri*, besides being a
145 heterofermentative probiotic residing in the gastrointestinal system of humans, is
146 considered one of the few true and autochthonous lactobacilli present in man (Casas &
147 Walter, 2000). This collection strain was plated on MRS agar (Scharlau) at 37 °C for 48
148 h under anaerobic conditions (AnaeroGen (Oxoid)).

149 From the pure culture, the microorganism was inoculated into several flasks containing
150 100 mL of MRS BROTH. From each flask, a plate count on MRS agar plate was
151 performed. Decimal serial dilutions of these flasks in sterile water were prepared and
152 counts were done in duplicate in depth. After the initial count, flasks were incubated at
153 37 °C for 48 hours under anaerobic conditions.

154 2.3.3. *In vitro* gastrointestinal digestion

155 An *in vitro* simulation of the gastric and intestinal stages in sterile conditions was
156 performed, according to the protocol published by García-Hernández, Moreno, Chuan, &
157 Hernández (2012) with modifications. Concretely, *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestions of
158 five different food systems were carried out: raw tomato, fried tomato or *L.reuteri* as
159 simple systems and raw or fried tomato with *L.reuteri* as binary systems. *L.reuteri*
160 concentration was about 10⁸ ufc/mL in food systems with presence of the probiotic strain.
161 For the gastric stage simulation, porcine pepsin (Sigma Chemicals) (3.6 g/ L) was re-
162 suspended in sterile saline solution (0.5% w/ v) and the pH was adjusted to 2.0 with HCl
163 0.5 N. Then, a dilution of the food system to pepsin solution (1:1 (v/v)) was performed
164 and the mixture kept in constant agitation at 224 G-force and 37 °C for 120 min. Sampling
165 for the different analysis was performed at different times of gastric digestion (1, 10, 60
166 and 120 min).

167 For intestinal simulation, pancreatin (Sigma Chemicals) (2.5 g/ L) and bile bovine (Sigma
168 Chemicals) were re-suspended in sterile saline (0.5% w/ v) and the pH was adjusted to
169 8.0 with NaOH 0.1 N. An aliquot of the previous gastric digested sample was mixed with
170 pancreatin solution in a ratio of dilution of 1:1 (v/v) and the mixture kept under constant
171 stirring of 112 G-force at 37° C for 240 min. Sampling was performed after 1, 30, 60, 120
172 and 240 min of intestinal stage, being the total time of gastrointestinal process 360 min.

173 Both steps were carried out in a thermostatic chamber with automatic temperature control
174 and orbital agitation (COMECTA WY-100) and in absence of light. The samples
175 collected for the different analyses were stored at -80 °C for subsequent analysis of the
176 compounds with antioxidant character (phenols, lycopene and total antioxidant activity).
177 *L. reuteri* count was performed on the same day of simulation.

178 To assess the bioaccessibility of the different antioxidant compounds, a separation by
179 decantation of the supernatant was carried out after 16 hours of repose of the thawed
180 samples at room temperature (Granado-Lorencio et al., 2007). It was only performed with
181 the samples collected at the end of the intestinal simulation stage. This way, it was
182 possible to evaluate the proportion of compound in the soluble form after overcoming the
183 digestive process and, therefore, susceptible to cross the intestinal barrier. In the case of
184 lycopene, it would only be the proportion transferred to micelles (Hedrén, Mulokozi, &
185 Svanberg, 2002).

186

187 ***2.4. Analytical determinations***

188 All analytical determinations were performed in triplicate at each of the sampling times
189 previously specified.

190 ***2.4.1. Plate count of *L. reuteri****

191 Being facultative anaerobes, the culture was carried out in the selective medium MRS
192 BROTH. 1 mL aliquot of the simulation medium was taken at each of the sampling times,
193 placed at the bottom of the Petri dish and quickly mixed with the agar MRS BROTH in a
194 liquid form, in sterility. After cooling the plates, they were taken to the heater, placing
195 them face down in an anaerobic jar (Oxoid). Counts were performed after incubation at
196 37 ° C for 24 hours.

197 2.4.2. Total phenolic content (TPC)

198 Total phenolic content (TPC) was spectrophotometrically determined by Folin-Ciocalteu
199 method (Chang, Lin, Chang, & Liu, 2006). 1 mL of pure methanol was added to 0.5 g of
200 the sample and the mixture was vortexed for 30 seconds. The mixture was brought to a
201 horizontal stirrer for 1 hour at 336 G-Force to favour of polyphenols extraction followed
202 by centrifugation for 5 minutes at 1500 x G-force to favour their separation. Then,
203 distilled water (0.5 ml) and the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (125 µL) were added to 125 µl of
204 the supernatant. After 6 min, 1.25 ml of sodium carbonate solution (7 % w/v), and 1 mL
205 of distilled water were added. The absorbance was read at 750 nm after 90 min using an
206 UV-Visible emission spectrophotometer (Jasco V-630). Results were compared with a
207 standard curve of Gallic acid and total phenols content expressed as mg equivalents of
208 Gallic acid / g free-fat dry matter.

209 2.4.3. Isomers of lycopene

210 The lycopene in the tomato (raw and fried) as well as in the digesta aliquots samples was
211 extracted following the protocol published by Mayeaux, Xu, King, & Prinyawiwatkul,
212 (2006) with some modifications (Heredia et al., 2010). According to this, sample (0.5 g)
213 was weighed into 15 mL screw-top glass tubes; methanol, acetone, and hexane (6 mL,
214 (1:1:1) (v/v/v)) were added followed by stirring for 30 min. During these 30 min, the
215 tubes were vortexed every 10 min for 1 min in order to encourage even more extraction
216 and obtain a colourless residue. After this, bidistilled water (2 ml) was added to each tube,
217 and these were shaken for 1 min in the vortex in order to separate the hydro soluble and
218 lyposoluble phases adequately. Next, 1 ml of the non-polar phase that contained the
219 lycopene, was transferred to the HPLC vials after being filtered with 0.22 µm nylon
220 filters. Lycopene extractions were carried out in darkness.

221 Lycopene content was determined by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)
222 with a C30 column in an Agilent 1120 Compact system (Agilent Technologies, USA)
223 attached to a UV-spectrophotometric detector equipped with a pump and injector.
224 Solvents methanol, methyl-tert-butyl ether and water were used for the mobile phase in
225 the following proportions, solvent A (v/v/v) (83:15:2) and solvent B (v/v/v) (8:90:2).
226 Gradient elution was carried out as follows: 0–15 min 90 % A, 15.1–25 min from 90 to 5
227 % A, 25.1–28 min from 5 to 90 % A (initial conditions), at a flow rate of 1 mL/min and
228 column temperature $27.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 3$, using a Develosil C₃₀ UG-5 (Phenomenex) 250×4.6
229 mm (Phenomenex [phenomenex.com]), and UV detection at 472 nm. Injection volume
230 was 10 μl .

231 The identification of *trans* lycopene was carried out by comparing its retention time with
232 that of the standard curve and the identification of the *cis* isomers was based on the
233 retention times of these compounds obtained by other authors who worked in similar
234 conditions and according to the Q-ratio appearing for each isomer (Heredia et al., 2010;
235 Lee & Chen, 2001; Qiu, Jiang, Wang, & Gao, 2006). *Trans*-lycopene quantification in
236 samples was achieved by an external calibration curve (from 4.75 to 60 mg/l) obtained
237 with authentic standard of lycopene (all-*trans*, purity > 99%). Calibration curves on spike
238 samples were used for quantification since matrix effect was observed. Results were
239 expressed as mg of lycopene / g free-fat dry matter.

240 2.4.2. Antioxidant activity

241 The antioxidant activity was carried out by the method described by (Peinado, Rosa,
242 Heredia, & Andrés, 2015) with some modifications. According to this method, the violet
243 colour intensity of the 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) free radical dissolution
244 decreases in the presence of antioxidants and this change in absorbance is recorded
245 spectrophotometrically at 515 nm.

246 Sample (3 g) was diluted in methanol (6 mL, 80 %) and the mixture was shaken at 1200
247 x g force for 5 minutes. Subsequently, 0.1 ml of the above methanolic extract was added
248 to a DPPH solution (3.9 ml, 0.024 g / L in methanol) and after 30 minutes in absence of
249 light, the absorbance at 515 nm was measured using an UV-Visible emission
250 spectrophotometer (Jasco V-630). The DPPH reduction (%) was calculated as follows:

$$251 \text{ DPPH reduction (\%)} = \left[\frac{A_{\text{control}} - A_{\text{sample}}}{A_{\text{control}}} \right] \times 100 \quad (\text{eq.1})$$

252 Where, A_{control} = initial absorbance of DPPH (without sample addition) and A_{sample} =
253 absorbance after 30 min of sample addition.

254 The measurement was compared to a standard curve prepared with a solution of the
255 reference antioxidant Trolox (6-Hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid)
256 and the results were expressed as mg equivalents of trolox / g free-fat dry matter.

257

258 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

259 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Friedman test (p -value < 0.05) were carried out
260 using Statgraphics centurion to estimate the differences in antioxidants composition of
261 the digested samples. Principal Component Analysis, PCA, (SPSS) was applied to
262 differentiate the tomato samples based on their antioxidant profile.

263

264 **3. Results and discussion**

265 **3.1. Effect of gastrointestinal conditions and tomato antioxidants on the viability of** 266 ***Lactobacillus reuteri* ATCC 55730**

267 The *in vitro* method that simulates the gastrointestinal tract is of great interest to find out
268 whether microorganisms can survive through it (García-Hernández et al., 2012). Before
269 subjecting the bacteria to the effects of the gastrointestinal juices, plate counts from the
270 initial dilution were performed in triplicate, being the result 2.80×10^9 (5.84×10^8) cfu /

271 ml of *L. reuteri*. **Figure 1** illustrates the count of *L. reuteri* at the beginning (1 min) and
272 at the end of the gastric (120 min) and intestinal digestion (240 min). In general terms,
273 the initial impact of the acidic conditions and the presence of pepsin from the stomach
274 resulted in a decrease of the initial count of the inoculum down to a mean value of $8.06 \times$
275 10^8 cfu / mL. This count slightly decreased along the digestion process, although this loss
276 of viability was little affected by time. Regarding the effect of the conditions of the
277 intestinal stage, the effect on survival of *L. reuteri* remained practically identical.

278 In terms of relative viability compared to the initial inoculum count (**Figure 1**), the
279 survival of the probiotic decreased to 28.8 ± 0.2 % for *L. reuteri* digestion, up to $29.1 \pm$
280 0.4 % in the case of raw tomato + *L. reuteri* and to 29.2 ± 0.6 % for fried tomato + *L.*
281 *reuteri* systems at time 1 min of gastric stage, due to the shock produced by gastric juices.

282 Probiotic bacteria, like other bacteria, present certain difficulties in adapting to extreme
283 acidic media, even though the integrity of its cell wall offers them some resistance.
284 However, a loss of viability occurred as they entered into contact with the gastric pH. It
285 is believed that only those that already had its cell wall damaged by external factors died
286 (Kirjavainen, Salminen, & Isolauri, 2003).

287 After 120 minutes of exposure to pepsin, the final survival was 22 % when *L.reuteri* was
288 digested alone, 23.7 % for raw tomato + *L. reuteri* digestion and 26.3 % for fried tomato
289 + *L. reuteri* digestion, confirming the low impact of the gastric conditions on their
290 viability. In addition, when tomato was added to the system, the survival of the prebiotic
291 to gastric conditions significantly improved ($p < 0.05$). Duodenal conditions (pancreatin
292 and basic pH) had a slight effect on the viability of *L. reuteri* compared to the gastric
293 conditions, this occurring at the beginning of the intestinal stage (**Figure 1**). The mean
294 cumulative viability after the whole gastrointestinal simulation was 16.3 % for *L. reuteri*
295 digestion, 24 % for fried tomato + *L. reuteri* digestion and 26.3 % for fried tomato + *L.*

296 *reuteri* digestion. The possible protective effect of tomato on *L. reuteri* has been
297 previously attributed to the presence of antioxidant compounds and prebiotic fibre in
298 other fruits (Fontana, Antonioli, & Bottini, 2013; Mrabet et al., 2012). Therefore, the
299 consumption of probiotic products combined with tomato (raw or processed), (i.e. yogurt
300 and toasts with tomato), might increase the probiotic effect of yogurt. Noteworthy, that
301 only the compounds that get over the conditions of the stomach and small intestine are
302 able to reach the large intestine and exert its beneficial effect (Aggett et al., 1999).

303

304 **3.2. Evolution of total phenolic content (TPC) of tomato along gastrointestinal** 305 **digestion in presence of *L. reuteri***

306 **Figure 2** shows the TPC (mg eq of Gallic acid/ g fat-free dry matter) of raw and fried
307 tomato in presence and absence of the probiotic *L. reuteri* along gastrointestinal digestion.
308 Raw and fried tomato presented a phenolic content of 35.71 ± 1.3 and 41.4 ± 1.2 mg eq.
309 Gallic acid/ g fat-free dry matter, respectively before digestion. The slight increase in
310 TPC after frying may be related to the inactivation of some enzymes, such as polyphenol
311 oxidase and peroxidase, responsible for the conversion of o-diphenols into o-quinones at
312 process temperature above $88\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Sellés-Marchart, Casado-Vela, & Bru-Martínez, 2006,
313 2007). Certain phenols could be produced due to reactions between ingredients with the
314 consequent increase in TPC (Boileau, Merchen, Wasson, Atkinson, & Erdman, 1999).

315 As it can be observed, TPC of tomato, significantly decreased ($p < 0.05$) under gastric
316 conditions from the early beginning of this stage. Specifically, a significant decrease of
317 $62.88 \pm 0.12\%$, $73.103 \pm 0.103\%$ took place after 1 min of gastric digestion of raw and
318 fried tomato, respectively; and this loss slight increased until $66.70 \pm 0.05\%$ and $77.7 \pm$
319 0.09% in raw and fried tomato when *L. reuteri* was present in the system. According to
320 Kemsawasd et al. (2016), the presence of polyphenols could be able to enhance the

321 probiotic survivability in dark chocolate protecting them from the oxygen toxicity. This
322 fact occurs along with an oxidation of tomato-TPC, and therefore with an additional
323 decrease of them. This fact could also be taken place in this system: tomato + *L.reuteri*.

324

325 Although the initial gastric *shock* on TPC was accused, the residence time of the food in
326 stomach, or time of contact between the food and gastric juices seems to be irrelevant.
327 The impact of the intestinal conditions (basic pH and presence of pancreatin and bile
328 salts) on TPC was, in general, minimum with a slight additional decrease of TPC only
329 registered in digested fried tomato with or without *L. reuteri* after 60 min. According to
330 this results, TPC of fried tomato are less stable compared with the TPC of raw tomato;
331 moreover, *L. reuteri* seems to negatively affect TPC stability along digestion, which is in
332 accordance with previous studies (Boileau et al., 1999).

333 Additionally, it could be interesting to take into account the changes undergone by the TPC
334 from olive oil because of the contribution to the food products with olive oil addition
335 (Tuck & Hayball, 2002).

336 ***3.3. Evolution of lycopene isomers along gastrointestinal digestion in presence of L.*** 337 ***reuteri***

338 Total lycopene content was considerably higher in fried than in raw tomato ($5.1035 \pm$
339 0.0105 and 1.83 ± 0.04 mg/ g of free-fat dry matter, respectively), with above 10 % of
340 *trans-cis* isomerization after frying. This fact, evidences the predominance of the release
341 and solubilisation of lycopene from its crystallized form, versus its oxidation during
342 frying in presence of oil (Mayeaux et al., 2006). The isomeric distribution (% respect the
343 total lycopene content) of *trans*, *5-cis* and *other cis* in raw tomato can be observed in
344 **Figure 3a** being 82.1 ± 0.9 , 8.7 ± 0.2 and 9.21 ± 1.02 % compared to 71.8 ± 0.2 , $16.3 \pm$
345 0.4 and 11.9 ± 0.4 % in fried tomato (**Figure 3b**).

346 *Cis-isomers* of lycopene being slightly shorter and polar than their correspondent *trans*
347 molecules, will be more soluble in bile acidic micelles thus, easily incorporated into
348 intestinal mucosa cells and in the chylomicrons of the lipoproteins (Boileau et al., 1999).
349 **Figure 3** illustrates the changes undergone by lycopene isomers (mg of *trans*, *5-cis* or
350 *other cis*/ g of free-fat dry matter) along the gastrointestinal digestion of raw and fried
351 tomato with or without presence of the probiotic *L.reuteri*. As it can be observed, total
352 lycopene significantly decreased under gastric conditions; acidic pH and pepsin had a
353 stronger effect on lycopene from raw compared to fried tomato (residual lycopene (%)
354 after gastric digestion of raw and fried tomato: 47.6 ± 0.9 and 72.1 ± 1.7). This significant
355 loss of total lycopene occurred in all cases, mainly after 1 min of gastric digestion (Moraru
356 & Lee, 2005) with additional losses taking place along the gastrointestinal digestion of
357 fried tomato; thus resulting in a final residual total lycopene (%) of 46.9 ± 0.3 and $50.4 \pm$
358 2.2 in raw and fried digested tomatoes, respectively. Off notice, the higher total lycopene
359 content after the gastrointestinal digestion in fried tomato. These *in vitro* results are in
360 agreement with those obtained with *in vivo* studies, where the consumption of tomato
361 sauce cooked with oil increased the concentration of lycopene in blood serum two and
362 three times fold compared to the consumption of fresh tomatoes (Borguini & Ferraz Da
363 Silva Torres, 2009). With regard to the influence of *L.reuteri* on lycopene changes along
364 digestion, results evidenced a negatively impact of the probiotic presence on tomato-
365 lycopene. Total residual lycopene (%) after the *in vitro* digestion of raw and fried tomato
366 with *L.reuteri* resulted in approximately 8 % lower content than without the probiotic.
367 Certain studies suggest that strains with probiotic effect may affect the bioavailability,
368 metabolism and final amount of carotenoids (Fabian & Elmadfa, 2007).
369 Gastrointestinal digestion lead to *trans-cis* isomerization of lycopene from both raw and
370 fried tomato, this isomerization being more accused by lycopene from fried tomato

371 **(Figure 3)**. Nevertheless, isomerization phenomenon did not seem to be affected by the
372 probiotic *L.reuteri*. Apparently, in both human and animal tissue, *trans* and *cis* isomers
373 coexist in equilibrium ($\approx 50\%$) (Boileau et al., 1999; Wilberg & Rodriguez-Amaya,
374 1995). Digestion process seems to favour *trans* into *cis* isomers conversion to get closer
375 to the tissue distribution.

376

377 ***3.4. Changes of the antioxidant activity of raw and fried tomato along digestion in*** 378 ***presence of L. reuteri***

379 Raw and fried tomatoes showed an antioxidant activity of 28.2 ± 0.7 and 24.23 ± 1.05 mg
380 eq. of Trolox/ g of free-fat dry matter, respectively. **Figure 4** gathers the antioxidant
381 activity (mg eq. Trolox/ g of free-fat dry matter) of raw tomato and fried tomato along
382 the gastrointestinal digestion in presence or absence of *L.reuteri*. The initial biochemical
383 shock of gastric conditions (after 1 min) greatly reduced the antioxidant activity in all
384 cases as for TPC and lycopene. It is well known that acid pH accelerates the loss of
385 functionality of antioxidant compounds (Amorati, Pedulli, Cabrini, Zambonin, & Landi,
386 2006), and hence, their antioxidant activity. On the other hand, and unlike for TPC and
387 lycopene, the antioxidant activity was strongly affected by the initial contact with the
388 intestinal conditions (presence of pancreatin at basic pH); while in no case there was an
389 effect of the residence time in either of the two stages, gastric and duodenal, on this
390 parameter. Finally, it should be noted that at the end of the gastrointestinal digestion, fried
391 tomato presented a slightly higher antioxidant activity than the raw one. Particularly, the
392 residual antioxidant activity (%) for raw, fried, raw + *L. reuteri* and fried + *L.reuteri* was
393 52.1 ± 0.1 , 57.6 ± 1.3 , 31.2 ± 0.1 and 60.8 ± 2.1 at the end of the gastric stage, and $31.3 \pm$
394 0.1 , 37.7 ± 0.6 , 23.7 ± 0.2 and 35.3 ± 0.5 at the end of intestinal one.

395 A PCA was conducted in order to better understand the influence of the gastro intestinal
396 conditions on the antioxidant compounds of raw and fried tomato. **Figure 5** illustrates the
397 two-dimensional plots of the sample scores (raw and fried tomato samples at each
398 gastrointestinal time), and compound loadings (phenol content, antioxidant activity and
399 lycopene content) obtained by the PCA. The first two dimensions explained 97.2 % of
400 the total variance (PC1, 72.7 % and PC2, 24.5 %). As it can be observed, the raw and
401 fried tomato samples are grouped together in the plot according to the different heat
402 treatments and intestinal conditions. PC1 clearly differentiates samples depending on
403 their lycopene content, with raw tomato samples at the left side of the plot (green markers)
404 and fried tomato samples at the right side of the plot (red markers); these last having a
405 higher content on lycopene. On the other hand, PC2 groups samples according to their
406 antioxidant activity and phenols content. According to this, samples are divided between
407 the different gastro intestinal stages, with raw and fried tomato before digestion located
408 at the top of the plot (filled markers), samples from the gastric stage in the middle (light
409 filled markers) and samples from the intestinal stage at the bottom (unfilled markers).
410 Furthermore, the PCA also illustrates how the addition of *L.reuteri* (squared markers)
411 seemed to have a negative effect on the antioxidant compounds and lycopene of both,
412 fried and raw tomato.

413 ***3.5. Bioaccessibility of total phenols and lycopene and its isomeric distribution in*** 414 ***micelles***

415 Bioaccessibility (%) of total phenols and lycopene in the supernatant after 16 hours of
416 resting and separation by decantation (Parada & Aguilera, 2007), is presented in **Table**
417 **1**. Results showed a significantly higher bioaccessibility of phenolic compounds when
418 tomato was digested raw than fried as well as a significant negative impact of *L. reuteri*
419 on the bioaccessibility of these compounds. As far as lycopene is concerned, the intake

420 of fried tomatoes would be advisable compared to that of raw tomatoes, with a twofold
421 times bioaccessibility for fried tomato. Likewise, it is important to point out that the
422 bioaccessible fraction of either raw or fried tomato was richer in lycopene *cis*-isomers than
423 the 240 min-intestinal digested samples. This fact is in agreement with the higher
424 solubility in micelles of *cis*-forms than *trans*. Finally, *L. reuteri* did not present a
425 significant statistically effect neither on lycopene bioaccessibility nor on its isomeric
426 distribution in the bioaccessible fraction.

427

428 **4. Conclusions**

429 The application of a heat treatment, such as frying, promotes the generation and release
430 of phenolic compounds and total lycopene and its isomerization *trans* to *cis*. Nevertheless,
431 the initial *shock* of gastric conditions (acid pH and presence of pepsin) caused significant
432 losses of phenolic compounds, total lycopene, antioxidant activity, as well as probiotic
433 viability during the digestion of raw and fried tomato. *Trans-cis* isomerization in lycopene
434 progressed with an isomeric distribution closed to 50 % at the end of the gastrointestinal
435 digestion. The results indicated a protective effect of tomato, raw or fried, against the loss
436 of viability *L.reuteri* as it passes through the stomach and small intestine; whilst the
437 presence of the probiotic negatively contributed to the antioxidants gastro-resistance
438 giving as a result higher losses during digestion. Finally, the bioaccessibility of the tomato
439 phenols and lycopene ranged between 10 and 30 %. The phenolic compounds presented
440 higher bioaccessibility when coming from the intake of raw tomatoes; while the fried
441 tomato lycopene turned out to be more bioaccessible.

442

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447 funcionalidad” (ref. number: 2814).

448

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592

593

594

595 **Figure Captions:**

596 **Figure 1.** Effect of the gastrointestinal *in vitro* simulation variables on the viability of
597 *Lactobacillus reuteri* ATCC 55730 in the different food systems. Raw tomato and Fried
598 tomato.

599 Letters (a,b) differentiate between homogeneous groups within each digestion time given by the
600 ANOVA (p-value > 0.05)

601

602 **Figure 2.** Total phenolic content (TPC) evolution expressed as mg eq. Gallic acid/ g of
603 fat-free dry matter along the *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion within the different food
604 systems, raw tomato, raw tomato + *L.reuteri*, fried tomato and fried tomato + *L.reuteri*.

605 Letters (a,b,c) differentiate between homogeneous groups within each digestion time given by the
606 ANOVA (p-value > 0.05)

607

608 **Figure 3.** Lycopene content evolution expressed as mg / g of fat-free dry matter (total,
609 all- trans, 5-cis and other cis) along the *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion within the
610 different food systems, raw tomato (a) and fried tomato (b). White bars represent the food
611 without the addition of *L.reuteri* and spotted bars with the addition of *L.reuteri*.

612 Letters (a,b,c) differentiate between homogeneous groups within each digestion time and the four
613 studied systems (raw tomato, raw tomato + *L.reuteri*, fried tomato and fried tomato + *L.reuteri*)
614 given by the ANOVA (p-value > 0.05)

615

616 **Figure 4.** Antioxidant activity (AA) evolution expressed as mg eq. Trolox/ g of fat-free
617 dry matter along the *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion within the different food systems,
618 raw tomato, raw tomato + *L.reuteri*, fried tomato and fried tomato + *L.reuteri*.

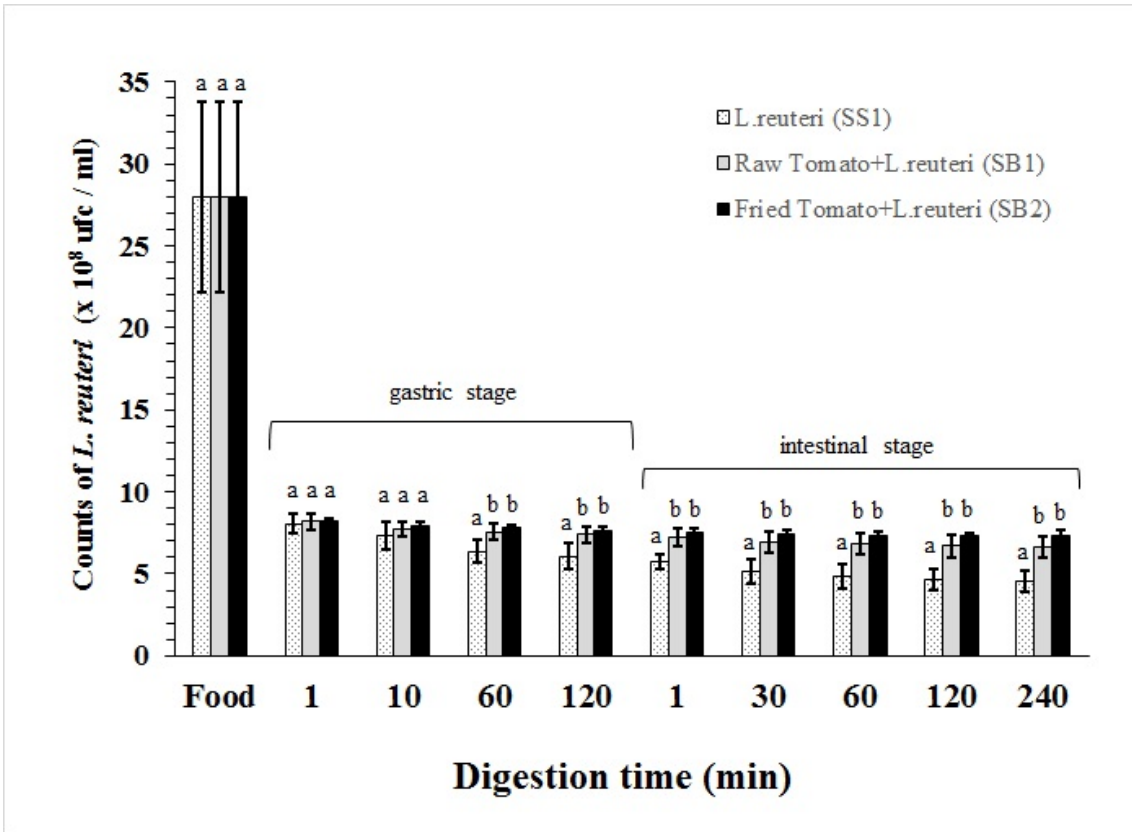
619 Letters (a,b) differentiate between homogeneous groups within each digestion time given by the ANOVA
620 (p-value > 0.05)

621

622 **Figure 5.** Biplots for the different scores, samples of raw tomato (green markers) and
623 fried tomato (red markers), at the different times of the *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion
624 (dark-filled markers correspond with the food systems before digestion, raw and fried
625 tomato; light-filled markers correspond with samples during the gastric stage and unfilled
626 markers correspond with samples during intestinal stage. Round markers correspond to
627 systems without the addition of *L.reuteri*, and squared markers correspond to samples
628 with the addition of *L.reuteri*). Compound loadings: Antioxidant activity (AA), total
629 phenolic content (TPC) and lycopene content (total, all-*trans*, 5-*cis* and other *cis*)
630 obtained by means of the PCA. (PC1, 72.7 % and PC2, 24.5 %).

631

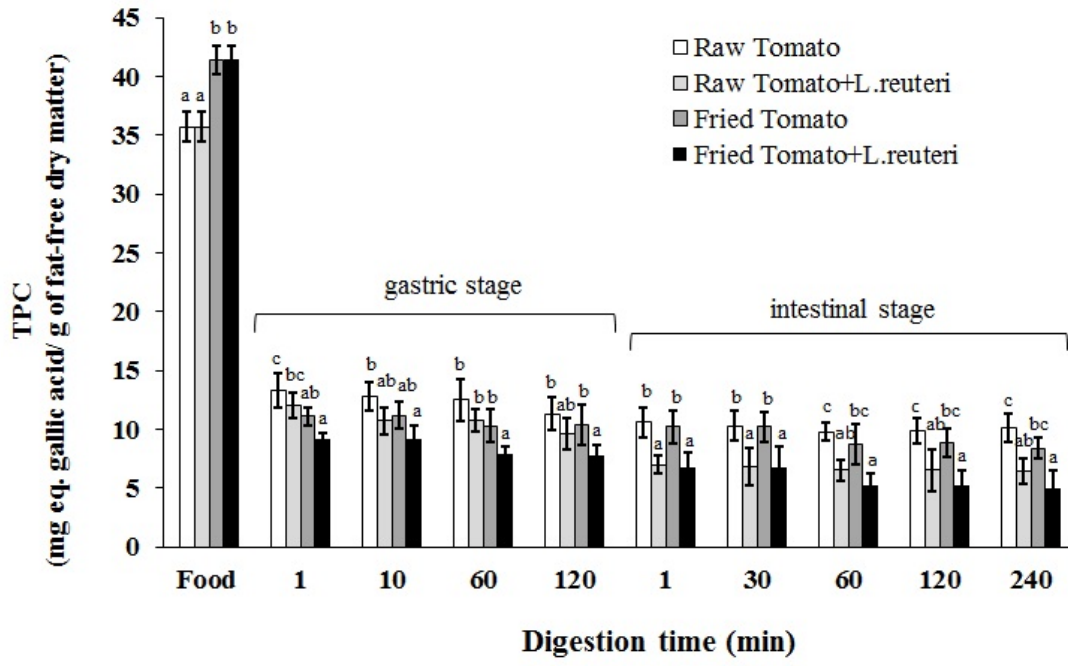
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634 **Figure 1.**

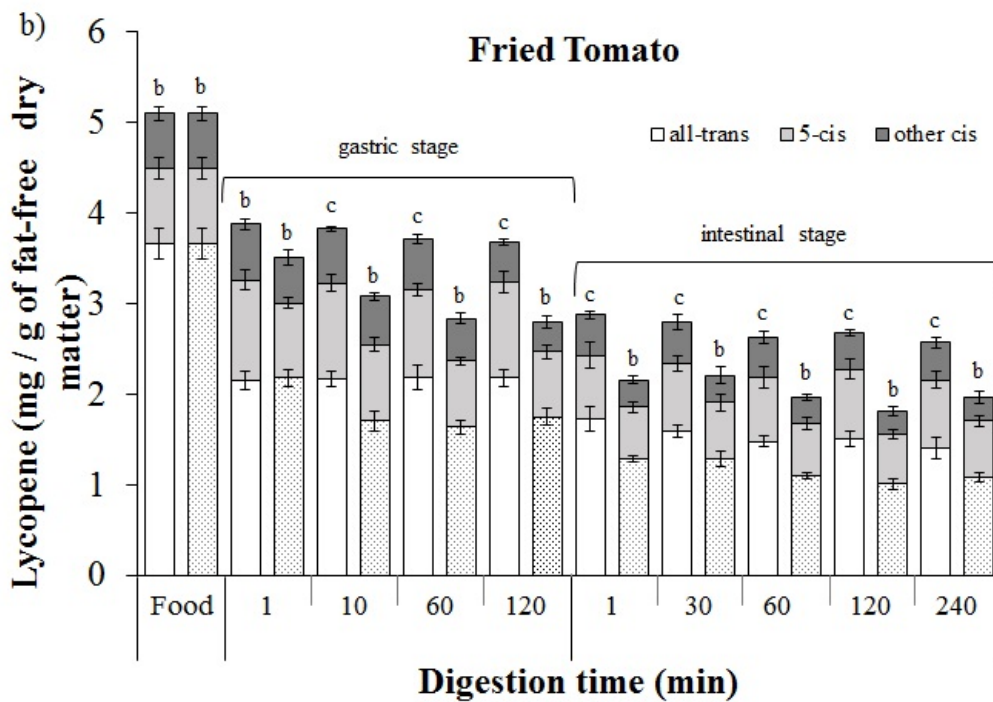
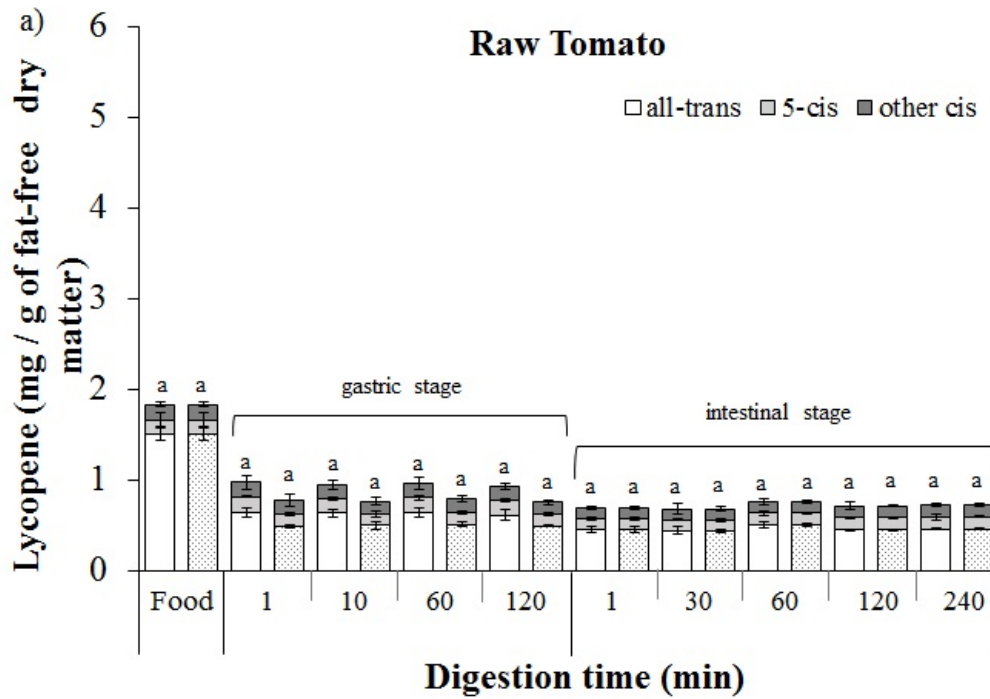
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637 **Figure 2.**

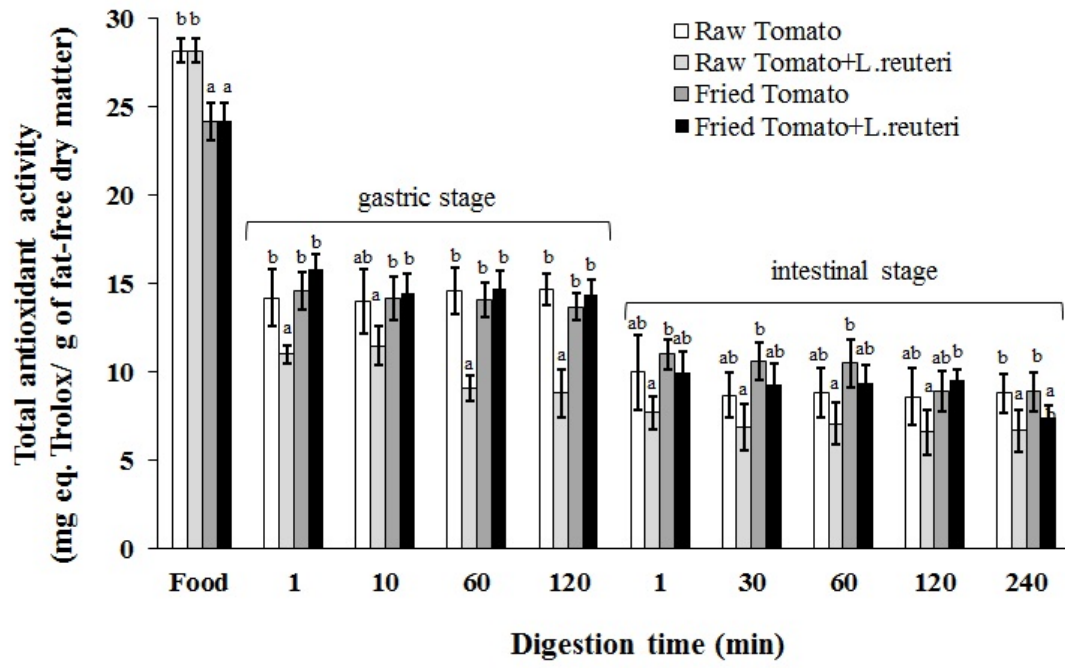
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640 **Figure 3.**

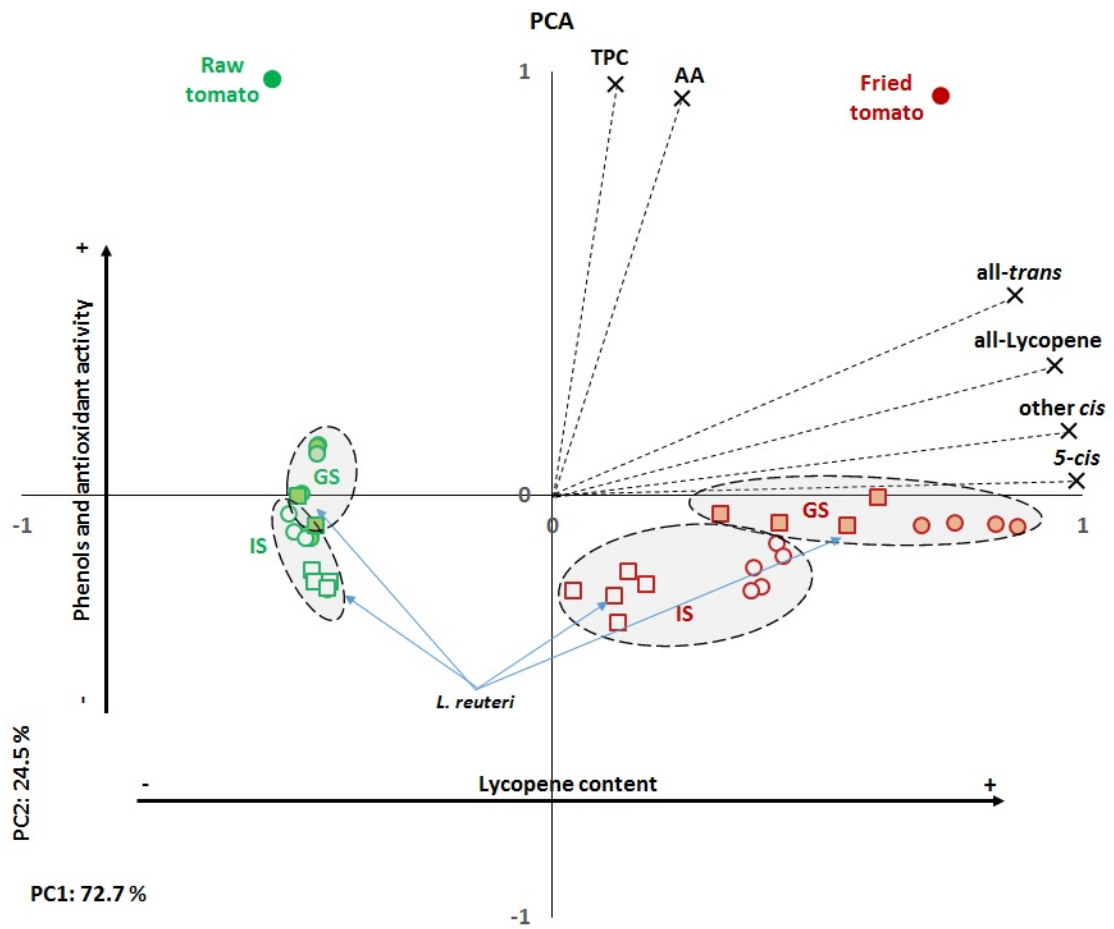
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642

643 **Figure 4.**

644



645

646 **Figure 5.**