

Document downloaded from:

<http://hdl.handle.net/10251/163821>

This paper must be cited as:

Asensio-Grau, A.; Calvo-Lerma, J.; Heredia Gutiérrez, AB.; Andrés Grau, AM. (2021). In vitro digestion of salmon: Influence of processing and intestinal conditions on macronutrients digestibility. *Food Chemistry*. 342:1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2020.128387>



The final publication is available at

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2020.128387>

Copyright Elsevier

Additional Information

1 **In vitro digestion of salmon: influence of processing and intestinal**
2 **conditions on macronutrients digestibility**

3 Andrea Asensio-Grau, Joaquim Calvo-Lerma, Ana Heredia and Ana Andrés

4
5 Instituto de Ingeniería de Alimentos para el Desarrollo. Universitat Politècnica de València.

6 Camino de Vera s/n, 46022 València (Spain)

7
8 **Abstract**

9 Salmon is the main dietary source of omega-3 lipids and contains high-biological value
10 protein. However, processing techniques could affect macronutrient digestibility. Also,
11 altered intestinal conditions, particularly given in pancreatic insufficiency, could threaten
12 digestibility. This study tested both hypotheses by subjecting raw, marinated and
13 microwave-cooked salmon to static in vitro digestion under healthy (pH 7, bile
14 concentration 10 mM) and altered (pH 6, bile 1 or 10 mM) intestinal conditions with
15 different pancreatin concentrations. In the standard conditions, proteolysis was not
16 affected by processing, but lipolysis decreased in marinated (46%) and raw salmon (57%)
17 compared to the cooked matrix (67%). In altered conditions, proteolysis and lipolysis
18 decreased to different extents depending on the treatment. Overall, processing affected
19 proteolysis the most (f-ratio=5.86), while intestinal conditions were the major
20 determinants of lipolysis (f-ratio=58.01). This study could set the ground to establish
21 dietary recommendations of salmon for specific population groups.

22
23 **Keywords:** pancreatic insufficiency; lipolysis; proteolysis; salmon, processing

24 1. INTRODUCTION

25 In the last decade, oily fish consumption has increased due to the awareness raised
26 on their beneficial effects in health. Oily fish contains high biological value protein and
27 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), which contribute to reduced risk of obesity,
28 inflammatory and cardiovascular diseases and hypertension (Cohen et al., 2005; Hosomi,
29 Yoshida & Fukunaga, 2012). PUFAs are the most important fatty acids (FA) since their
30 dietary sources are limited to not so frequently consumed foods, and they exert relevant
31 for physiological functions. For these reasons, the World Health Organisation
32 recommends that PUFA intake should be 10% of the daily energy intake. Additionally, a
33 balanced omega-6:omega-3 ratio (close to 1:1) is advised in order to prevent from
34 inflammatory status and development of diseases such as obesity and cancer. However,
35 current dietary patterns situate the ratio in 20:1 due to the rare intake of fish among other
36 sources of omega-3 (Simopoulos, 2016). In this sense, salmon is of special interest as
37 compared to other fishery products, contains higher contents of omega-3 fatty acids,
38 particularly eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA). When
39 absorbed, these fatty acids are transformed in bioactive compounds with cytoprotective
40 and anti-inflammatory activities, either via generation of anti-inflammatory products (e.g.
41 resolvins) or by blocking inflammatory agents. Thus, EPA and DHA contribute to the
42 prevention and treatment of numerous diseases, especially those in which inflammation
43 plays a relevant role (Calder, 2006). Altogether, regular consumption of salmon
44 contributes to reach the recommended PUFA intake and to balance the desirable ratio.

45 Although salmon can be consumed raw in some culinary preparations, it is usually
46 subjected to processing, such as—thermal treatments (baking, boiling, frying, etc.),
47 smoking, marinating or salting. Foods subjected to certain heat treatments (boiling,
48 baking, etc.) result in different sensorial and structural properties and a loss of water,

49 which finally concentrates other components such as fat, proteins or minerals. In addition,
50 the reduction or degradation of thermolabile compounds is accounted, including vitamins
51 and carotenoids (Gladyshev, Sushchik, Gubanenko, Demirchieva & Kalachova, 2006).
52 Marinating and salting, on the other hand, imply salt and sugar penetration into the raw
53 muscle, causing salt-driven protein denaturalisation together with considerable loss of
54 muscle water, resulting in decreased fillet ~~to~~ weight (Laub-Ekgreen, Martinez-Lopez,
55 Frosch & Jessen, 2018). Marinating is usually an artisanal process, and the conditions of
56 the technique vary regionally. For example, Larrazábal-Fuentes, Escriche-Roberto &
57 Camacho-Vidal (2009) described marinating as the application of a mix of salt and sugar
58 for 5-72 hours at 5 °C. In turn, gastronomy globalisation has triggered the consumption
59 of raw fish beyond Japan or Peru, the countries where raw fish, such as sushi or ceviche,
60 have been traditionally consumed for centuries. Therefore, assessing nutrient digestibility
61 in different salmon preparations raises as a relevant research question, as background
62 knowledge suggests that protein and lipid digestibility could be affected by processing
63 (Asensio-Grau, Peinado, Heredia & Andrés, 2018; Asensio-Grau, Calvo-Lerma, Heredia
64 & Andrés, 2019 (a); Asensio-Grau, Peinado, Heredia & Andrés (b)).

65 On the other hand, apart from the possible impact of food processing on nutrient
66 digestibility, the luminal gastrointestinal alterations (such as digestive fluids composition,
67 intestinal pH, etc.) could play an additional relevant role on digestibility (Calvo-Lerma,
68 Fornés-Ferrer, Heredia & Andrés, 2019). In this sense, lipid digestion is the most
69 compromised hydrolytic phenomenon when pancreatic function alterations are present
70 (such as in exocrine pancreatic insufficiency (EPI)), as the main lipase activity comes
71 from pancreatin secreted by this organ. Altered pancreatic function causes decreased
72 pancreatin and bicarbonate secretions, which results in reduced pH in the intestinal
73 medium. This fact, together with a reduced bile secretion, which is also possible in some

74 individuals suffering EPI, results in suboptimal intestinal conditions (Sarkar, Ye & Singh,
75 2016; Maldonado-Valderrama, Wilde, Macierzanka & Mackie, 2011). In this scenario,
76 compositional and/or structural changes in food resulting from processing can be
77 determinants of the lipolysis extent during digestion, some structures having proved to be
78 more accessible to lipase than others (Calvo-Lerma, Fornés-Ferrer, Heredia & Andrés,
79 2018). Individuals suffering EPI need pancreatin oral supplements to enable lipolysis
80 (namely pancreatic enzyme replacement therapy). Up to now, there is low evidence to
81 establish a dosing criterion of the supplements (Calvo-Lerma, Martínez-Barona, Masip,
82 Fornés, & Ribes-Koninckx, 2017), but recent studies suggest that food processing can be
83 used for modulating intestinal lipolysis (Guo, Ye, Bellissimo, Singh & Rousseau, 2017).

84 In this context, the aim of the present study was to assess, by means of a static in
85 vitro digestion model, the impact of salmon processing (raw, marinating and microwave-
86 cooking) against different settings of intestinal conditions and pancreatin concentration,
87 on lipid and protein digestibility.

88

89 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

90 **2.1. Sample preparation**

91 Three salmon specimens were purchased at a local supermarket from the same batch.
92 On the same day of the acquisition, head, spines and tail were removed, leaving aside the
93 completely clean fillets. Then, from each salmon specimen, fillets were separated in three
94 sets and frozen (-20 °C) in order to preserve the same starting batch of salmon for all the
95 subsequent determinations. One set was cooked using a microwave oven (Samsung
96 GW72N) at 2.25 W/g for 4 minutes. The second set was marinated according to
97 Larrazábal-Fuentes et al., (2009). For this purpose, a mixture of 50 g of salt and 50 g of
98 sugar was added to 100 g of salmon in 1:1 (w/w) ratio. The fillets were covered with the

99 mixture and wrapped with parafilm during 9 hours in refrigeration (5 °C). Then, salmon
100 was rinsed with water and dried with a paper towel to remove the excess water. The third
101 set was not processed to assess digestibility in thawed raw salmon.

102

103 **2.2. Materials**

104 For the preparation of the simulated digestive fluids the following reagents were
105 used: KCl, KH₂PO₄, NaCl, NaHCO₃, MgCl₂ (H₂O)₆, (NH₄)₂CO₃, CaCl₂, pepsin from
106 porcine gastric mucosa (≥ 2500 U/mg protein) and bovine bile extract all of them from
107 Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Company (St Louis, MO, USA).

108 A commercial pancreatic enzyme supplement (Kreon 10000 LU, Mylan) was used
109 to study the impact of the pancreatin concentration. Each capsule contains 150 mg of
110 gastro-resistant microspheres that include porcine pancreatic enzyme equivalent to
111 10,000 lipase units, 8,000 amylase units, and 600 protease units.

112 For the analytical determinations, the following products were required: Triton-X
113 100 %, trichloroacetic acid (TCA), dichloromethane and deuterated chloroform. All were
114 acquired from Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Company (St Louis, MO, USA), while ethanol
115 (96 % v/v for analysis), NaOH and HCl, were from AppliChemPanreac.

116

117 **2.3. Experimental design**

118 The experimental design consisted in two sets of experiments. In the first one, the
119 influence of different combinations of intestinal pH and bile salts concentration (pH 6 –
120 1 mM, pH 6 – 10 mM and pH 7 – 10 mM) were simulated to evaluate lipolysis and
121 proteolysis under a fixed pancreatin concentration (2000 LU/ g lipid). The intestinal
122 conditions of pH 7 and bile salts concentration 10 mM was selected as control, or standard
123 conditions, as they have been agreed as the standard intestinal conditions of a healthy

124 adult (Humbert et al., 2018), whereas the conditions of pH 6 and bile salts concentration
125 1 or 10 mM would represent two possible altered or suboptimal situations typically
126 present in EPI (Humbert et al., 2018; Gelfond 2013). In the second set of experiments,
127 different concentration of pancreatin (2000, 4000 and 6000 LU/ g lipid) were used to
128 assess the influence of this concentration in the intestinal stage of digestion on lipolysis
129 and proteolysis under two suboptimal intestinal scenarios (pH 6 – 1 mM and pH 6 – 10
130 mM). The selection of the studied range of pancreatin concentration was based on the
131 current clinical recommendations of pancreatic enzyme supplementation in pancreatic
132 insufficiency (Turck et al., 2016) which recommend a dose range between 2000 and 4000
133 LU/g fat. In addition, we assessed the 6000 LU/g fat as complete lipid hydrolysis was not
134 reached with the referred pancreatin concentrations. In both experimental sets, the three
135 preparations of salmon were tested. All experiments were performed at least in triplicate.

136

137 **2.4. In vitro digestion**

138 To assess the impact of altered intestinal conditions, *in vitro* digestion was carried out
139 according to Asensio-Grau, Peinado, Heredia, & Andrés, 2018. Simulated digestion
140 fluids (SSF, salivary; SGF, gastric; and SIF, intestinal) were prepared from the
141 corresponding stock solutions according to Brodkorb et al., 2019. The lipase (29.2 ± 3.9
142 U/mg) and protease (trypsin (0.96 ± 0.08 U/mg) and chymotrypsin (0.24 ± 0.05 U/mg))
143 activities in pancreatin were tested prior to digestion in each experiment according to the
144 protocol published by Brodkorb et al., 2019. The *in vitro* digestion process was simulated
145 in three stages: For the oral stage, SSF (pH 7) was added in a 1:1 proportion (w/v) and
146 properly homogenized using a kitchen blender for 30 seconds (Vario Mixer, Ufesa 600
147 W) until obtaining an equivalent consistency to tomato paste (Minekus et al., 2014). The
148 gastric stage continued by the incorporation of the SGF (pH 3), containing gastric pepsin

149 (2000 U/mL), to the oral bolus in 1:1 proportion (v/v), and tubes were head-over-heels
150 rotated at 55 rpm for 2 hours at 37 °C in an incubator chamber (JP Selecta SA, Barcelona).
151 Afterwards, the pancreatic enzyme supplement in the concentration of 0, 2000, 4000 or
152 6000 LU/g lipid, was added to mimic the *in vivo* intake. The corresponding protease
153 concentrations were 0, 44, 88 and 132 PU/ g protein in raw salmon, 0, 70, 140 and 210
154 PU/ g protein in marinated salmon and 0, 43, 87 and 130 PU/ g protein in cooked salmon
155 The supplement is directly swallowed without mastication and its gastroresistant coating
156 is thereafter degraded at the intestinal stage due to the pH increase. Finally, the intestinal
157 stage was simulated by adding the SIF (pH 6 or 7) and bile salts solution (bovine bile, 1
158 or 10 mM) to the gastric chyme in a 1:1 proportion (v/v), and tubes remained in agitation
159 during 2 h at 37 °C as in the gastric stage. During all the *in vitro* digestion process, pH
160 was controlled to keep the experimental conditions of each set.

161

162 **2.5. Analytical determinations**

163 *2.4.1 Sample characterization*

164 Fat, water and protein content were determined in raw, marinated and cooked
165 salmon by following the official methods (AOAC, 2000). Water activity (a_w) was
166 measured for raw, marinated and cooked salmon by CX-2 AQUALab (Decagon Devices,
167 Inc., Pullman, WA). All determinations were performed in triplicate.

168 *2.4.2 Matrix Degradation Index (MDI (%))*

169 Matrix degradation Index (%) was estimated by considering the proportion of
170 dispersed solids in the digested fluid at the end of the intestinal stage Lamothe, Azimy
171 & Bazinet, 2014). The total content of the digestion tubes was centrifuged (4000 x g-force
172 20 minutes, 4 °C) and then filtered on a metallic sieve (1.6 mm x 1.6 mm mesh) to separate
173 the solid fraction. The liquid fraction was used for lipolysis and proteolysis extent

174 determinations. To determine the mass of the solid large particles, the solid fraction of
175 digesta was placed in a force-air oven at 60 °C for 48 hours until reaching constant weight.
176 MDI (%) was expressed as grams of solid large particles in 100 grams of total solid
177 fraction in salmon.

178 *2.4.3 Proteolysis extent*

179 The extent of proteolysis was determined by measuring the soluble protein
180 fraction in TCA (Lamothe et al., 2014). TCA was added to the liquid fraction from
181 digested samples to a final concentration of 12% (w/w). The mixture was vortexed,
182 incubated for 15 min and filtered using a Whatman n°. 40 filter paper. The soluble fraction
183 in 12% TCA is composed of small peptides and amino acid residues. The filtrate was
184 diluted in buffer (50 mM EDTA, 8 M urea, pH 10) and protein was determined by
185 measuring absorbance at 280 nm against a prepared blank with appropriate digestion
186 fluids. Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) was used for the quantification and proteolysis
187 extent (%), expressed as grams of soluble TCA protein in 100 grams of initial protein in
188 raw, marinated or cooked salmon.

189 *2.4.4 Lipolysis extent*

190 *Enzymatic kit assay*

191 Lipolysis was determined as free fatty acids at the end of intestinal stage in all the
192 simulated sets of intestinal conditions. Aliquots from the liquid fraction of digested
193 samples were 100-fold diluted with a solution made with 5.6% Triton X-100 and 6%
194 ethanol in water. This solution was used to both solubilize the free fatty acids and to stop
195 lipolysis reaction. The amount of free fatty acids at the end of digestion was quantified
196 using a free fatty acid colorimetric assay kit (Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN, USA)
197 and the absorbance was measured with a spectrophotometer (UV/vis, Beckman Coulter)
198 at wavelength of 546 nm (Lamothe et al., 2014). Docosahexaenoic acid standard was used

199 for quantitative determination of free fatty acids (FFA) in salmon. Lipolysis extent (%)
200 was expressed as grams of hydrolysed TG in 100 grams of initial TG in raw, marinated
201 or cooked salmon. For calculations, it was considered that one molecule of triacylglycerol
202 results into the release of two fatty acids molecules and one monoacylglycerol (Hunter,
203 2001).

204 *Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR)*

205 Lipidic fraction of undigested (raw, marinated and cooked salmon) and digested
206 salmon in the different intestinal scenarios were analysed by H^1 NMR. Lipid extraction,
207 spectra acquisition and quantification of lipolytic products were conducted according to
208 Nieva-Echevarría, Goicoechea, Manzanos & Guillén (2015). The number of moles of
209 each molecule was calculated considering acyl groups by the previously validated
210 equations by Nieva-Echevarría, Goicoechea, Manzanos & Guillén (2014). The NMR
211 technique allows for quantifying triglycerides, partial triglycerides (monoglycerides and
212 diglycerides) and free fatty acids. From a the physiological point of view, the lipid
213 bioaccessible fraction can be estimated considering fatty acids and monoglycerides.

214

215 **2.6. Statistical analyses**

216 In order to study the significance of the differences of the factors (processing,
217 intestinal conditions and pancreatin concentration) on each study variable (MDI,
218 proteolysis and lipolysis), an unifactorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed
219 using Statgraphics Centurion XVII software with a confidence level of 95 % (p-value
220 ≤ 0.05). Moreover, a multifactor analysis of variance (multivariate ANOVA) was also
221 performed with a confident interval of 99 % (p<0.001) and 95% (p<0.05) to know which
222 factor (intestinal conditions or processing) affected the response variables (MDI,
223 proteolysis and lipolysis) the most (F-ratio). The ~~higher~~ F-ratio value is directly

224 proportional to the statistical effect of each factor on the response variables. The
225 multifactor ANOVA was only applied to the results obtained at a fixed dose of pancreatin
226 concentration (2000 LU/ g lipid).

227

228 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

229 **3.1. Impact of food processing on salmon composition**

230 Marinated and cooked salmon exhibited different nutrient composition compared to
231 raw salmon as a result of processing (**Table 1**). Marinating was the method affecting
232 water and protein contents the most, with a reduction of 28 and 13%, respectively. Salt
233 addition is known to cause muscle dehydration, along with washing away of hydrosoluble
234 protein, resulting in a significant protein loss (Hao, Dong, Li & Lin, 2016). In contrast,
235 cooking imparted in salmon a higher change in lipid content, which decreased in 5%.
236 High temperatures reached in microwaving caused lipid melting and its subsequent
237 exudation, along with a partial loss of 6.5% of the soluble protein fraction (Farmer,
238 McConnell & Kilpatrick, 2000). Water activity was also affected by processing, which
239 particularly decreased in the marinated salmon, by the incorporation of sucrose and salt.

240 Complementarily to the quantification of total lipid content, the different lipid species
241 of salmon were determined by NMR. Concretely, NMR allows to specifically quantify
242 triglycerides, partial triglycerides (monoglycerides and diglycerides) and free fatty acids.
243 Looking into lipids more thoroughly, the NMR analysis (**Figure 1**) depicted that the
244 majority of lipid species in all three undigested salmon samples were triglycerides, while
245 free fatty acids and monoglycerides represented a small percentage (less than 5%), and
246 1,2 and 1,3 diglycerides were in marginal proportions (≈ 0). This result was expected, as
247 the majority of dietary lipids are known to be triglyceride structures, which are thereafter
248 the main substrate for lipases during intestinal digestion, as shown in the coming sections

249 (Hunter, 2001). However, small differences in monoglycerides and fatty acids were
250 detected between the three preparations, raw salmon resulting with the highest amount of
251 fatty acids. As above-commented, part of the water content was lost during cooking and
252 marinating. Both processes led to a decrease in fatty acids, since this chemical structure
253 is simpler and present lower molecular weight and higher solubility in the aqueous
254 fraction than other lipidic species. On the other hand, marinated salmon showed higher
255 monoglyceride content than the raw and cooked samples. During the post-mortem
256 storage, some endogenous enzymes are activated and account for different biochemical
257 changes, their activity being determined by the amount of water in the muscle.
258 Particularly and according to Motilva & Toldrá, (1993), acid lipase and acid esterase
259 enzymes, which participate in muscle lipolysis, are activated when the water activity is
260 decreased. Thus, the explanation behind this finding could rely on the loss of water
261 occurring in marinated salmon, and also on the presence of salt and sugar, which leads to
262 decreased water activity (Hao et al.,2016). Furthermore, lower water activity increases
263 the hydrolytic activity of lipases as well, since these enzymes exert their action on the
264 hydrophobic surface of lipids (Toldrá, 2003).

265

266 **3.2. Influence of food processing on salmon macronutrient digestibility**

267 Results of matrix degradation index (MDI), lipolysis and proteolysis of raw,
268 marinated and cooked salmon when digested in simulated standard in vitro digestion
269 conditions (intestinal pH of 7, bile salts concentration of 10 mM and pancreatic
270 concentration of 2000 LU/ g lipid) are shown in **Figure 2A**.

271 During digestion, several key factors contribute to the progressive disruption of the
272 food matrix, including the enzymes taking part throughout the gastrointestinal tract, the
273 acidic conditions in each stage, and the peristaltic movements. Previous food processing
274 also affects the mechanical changes experimented by the food matrix during digestion.

275 Thus, cooked salmon presented the least MDI after gastrointestinal digestion, while
276 marinated process did not show differences compared to raw salmon (**Figure 2A**). This
277 result could be probably related to protein denaturation induced by the high temperatures
278 reached during microwave-cooking (Asensio-Grau et al., 2018). Overall, MDI provides
279 a relevant insight to figure out complex solid matrices' disruption during digestion. In
280 most of the cases, the release and digestibility of nutrients are influenced by the
281 complexity of the food matrix (Guo et al., 2017). In general, the MDI (%) is directly
282 proportional to macronutrient digestibility (Asensio-Grau et al., 2018; Asensio-Grau et
283 al., 2019 (a)). However, the lower degradation achieved by cooked salmon was not
284 directly related to the nutrient digestibility thereafter, as later on discussed.

285 Concerning protein digestibility (**Figure 2A**), marinated and cooked salmon showed
286 a slight (but not statistically significant) decrease in proteolysis compared to the raw
287 counterpart. Cooking temperatures and times seem to be the main factors affecting protein
288 structure during cooking process, due to underlying mechanisms such as aggregation and
289 oxidation (Asensio-Grau et al, 2018; Bax et al., 2012; Promeyrat, Gatellier, Lebret,
290 Kajak-Siemaszko, Aubry & Sante-Lhoutellier, 2010). Similarly, marinating promotes
291 protein oxidation, affecting functionality due to cleavage of protein bounds or
292 modifications in aminoacids side chains (Zhang, Xiao, & Ahn, 2013; Estévez, Ventanas,
293 & Cava, 2005). However, the relevance of the changes imparted by processing on
294 proteolysis depends on luminal gastrointestinal conditions as well, as explained in the
295 next section.

296 Concerning lipolysis, the structural changes imparted by the different processing
297 techniques showed an impact, but the accounted effects in the three salmon types were
298 different than that in proteolysis (**Figure 2A**). Focusing on total lipolysis extent at the end
299 of the intestinal stage, 57% was registered in raw salmon. Compared to this one, cooked

300 salmon showed improved lipolysis (68%), while marinating led to a decrease to 45%.
301 Increased lipolysis in the cooked sample can be explained by higher lipid release during
302 cooking (exudation), thus allowing for higher extractability during digestion (Larsen,
303 Quek & Eyres, 2010) and eventual lipolysis. In contrast, lipids in raw salmon seem to be
304 more strongly bound to the matrix tissue, becoming difficult to release during digestion.
305 Indeed, despite the literature reports that 95% of dietary lipids digestion is generally
306 achieved, recent studies in specific foods reveal that some food characteristics, such as
307 the matrix structure or the nature of lipids can prevent from complete hydrolysis (Guo et
308 al., 2017; Calvo-Lerma et al., 2018). In this sense, the relatively low lipolysis extents
309 obtained in this study, could be explained by the complex food matrix of salmon in which
310 lipid fraction is entrapped in a protein fibres structure. Similarly, Grundy et al. (2016)
311 found that in almonds, the lignin structure of the plant cell walls in which lipids are
312 contained, prevented from being release to the digestion medium, resulting in lipolysis
313 extents lower than 60%.

314 Conversely, the explanation for lower lipolysis as a consequence of marinating could
315 be supported by the presence of NaCl in the digestive medium. During marinating, salt
316 and sugar were solubilised into sample muscle water by osmosis (Rastogi, 2020), and
317 thereafter released to the digestion medium. According to Chaparro, Gil & Aristizábal
318 (2011), a concentration of salt above 0.4 M increases the ionic strength in the liquid
319 medium and reduces the interfacial activity of emulsifiers. Of note, effective lipid
320 digestion depends on the presence of emulsifiers, such as bile salts, at the surface of fat
321 droplets. Considering that in marinated salmon 25% of total weight was salt (1.07 M in
322 the intestinal medium), the formation of lipid micelles could have been affected by the
323 high ionic strength.

324 In addition to the quantification of total lipolysis extent, the different lipid species
325 (triglycerides, diglycerides, monoglycerides and fatty acids) coming from the hydrolytic
326 process on lipids were determined by NMR. The quantification of these lipolytic products
327 allows for estimation of lipolysis extent, and the bioaccessible fraction by considering
328 monoglycerides and free fatty acids. In **Figure 2B**, results obtained from the NMR spectra
329 are presented for the three salmon products. They are coherent with previous literature
330 (Hunter, 2001) because, as expected, total triglycerides decreased while free fatty acids
331 increased during digestion. The higher amount of 1,2-DG released during digestion could
332 be explained by the pancreatic lipase stereopreference for the sn-3 position in the
333 triglyceride (Carrière et al., 1997). Moreover, pancreatic lipase has less affinity for
334 hydrolysing the ester bond in the sn-2 position in the triglyceride. Therefore, the low
335 amount of 1,3-DG presented in the digested sample could be mainly due to the 1,2-DG
336 isomerization reaction, which is catalysed by the free fatty acid released during digestion
337 (Nieva-Echevarría et al., 2015; Spyros, Philippidis, & Dais, 2004). On the other hand, as
338 the figure shows, processing also had a determinant role in the resulting lipolysis species.
339 Concretely, cooking led to a higher amount of 1,2-DG, 1,3- DG and FA release after
340 digestion, while marinated process favoured the most a decrease of diglycerides and fatty
341 acids species.

342 Therefore, comparing **Figure 2A** and **2B**, the differences in lipolysis among the three
343 samples depicted the same pattern as in the results obtained by means of the free fatty
344 acid kit: cooked salmon resulted in the highest molar percentage of free fatty acids,
345 followed by raw and marinated salmon. When assessing the correlation between both
346 methods (NMR and free fatty acid kit), a correlation coefficient of 0.97 was obtained
347 ($p < 0.001$). Thus, in this study a comprehensive assessment of lipolysis was conducted,
348 which was also validated against two methods.

349 Overall, the present results evidence that different processing techniques applied to
350 salmon have an impact on nutrient digestibility. However, as before commented,
351 intestinal conditions can further modulate the fate of protein and lipid digestibility. These
352 are addressed and discussed in the coming section.

353

354 **3.3. Impact of intestinal pH and bile salts concentration on macronutrients** 355 **digestibility in salmon products**

356 Digestive fluids are mainly composed by salts, enzymes and amphiphilic molecules
357 that facilitate macronutrient breakdown and absorption. Digestive fluids secretion and
358 composition are commonly altered in some pathologies, especially in EPI and diseases
359 affecting the biliary tract. In order to understand digestibility mechanisms in altered
360 intestinal conditions, the study of these variables should be addressed, besides the sole
361 objective of assessing the food matrix effect. Previous studies have focused on
362 characterising the role of gastrointestinal conditions on macronutrient digestibility, in the
363 context of EPI, pointing out that amongst them, intestinal pH and bile salts concentration
364 are the major determinants (Calvo-Lerma et al., 2019). However, both factors entail
365 variable effects on digestibility depending on the type of food (Asensio-Grau et al., 2019
366 (b); Calvo-Lerma et al., 2018). The intestinal environment is therefore a cornerstone and
367 should be considered in lipid digestibility studies.

368 Consequently, in the present study, two different sets of altered intestinal conditions
369 were simulated: reduced pH with normal bile salts concentration (pH 6, bile salts 10 mM)
370 which represent a standard EPI situation due to reduced sodium bicarbonate pancreatic
371 secretion (Humbert et al 2018); and the worst-case scenario with reduced pH and bile
372 concentration (pH 6, bile salts 1 mM) which is likely to occur when EPI is combined with
373 reduced biliary secretion (Humbert et al 2018; Carrier et al., 2005). Results of MDI,

374 proteolysis and lipolysis under the mentioned simulated altered conditions and fixed
375 pancreatic concentration of 2000 LU/g lipid are presented in **Figure 3 (A and B)**.

376 Matrix degradation was conditioned by the intestinal scenario, either by reduced pH
377 or by both low pH with low bile salts concentration. As the main constituents of salmon
378 are protein and lipid, the MDI mainly depends on the protein and lipid structural changes
379 occurring during digestion. In the framework of altered intestinal conditions, these
380 showed to compromise protein hydrolysis, which could be mainly attributed to the low
381 concentration of bile salts. According to Gasset, Vora, Hofmann, Gray & Khosla (2007),
382 bile salts presence is proportionally related to the pancreatic proteases-effected (trypsin
383 and chymotrypsin) protein digestion. Besides, surfactants as bile salts, are known to affect
384 the protein structure making it more accessible to the proteolytic enzymes (Mackie &
385 Macierzanka, 2010). Low intestinal pH also led to decreasing proteolysis, since pH 8.1 is
386 the optimal for trypsin activity, and pH 7.8 is for chymotrypsin (Minekus et al., 2014).
387 Thus, the main changes in MDI during digestion in altered conditions could be explained
388 by the proteolysis extent in salmon. Apart from differences in proteolysis compared to
389 the standard intestinal conditions, salmon processing techniques led to different patterns,
390 as above anticipated. In normal intestinal conditions protein changes resulting from
391 processing did not exhibit a significant effect on proteolysis. However, conformational
392 alterations of proteins affecting molecule solubility seems to have a noticeable effect on
393 proteolysis under suboptimal intestinal conditions. Both marinating and cooking
394 processes seemed to lead to protein hydrophobicity, aggregation, interfering in protein
395 hydrolysis during digestion, as previously described by Sun, Zhou, Zhao, Yang & Cui
396 (2011).

397 As expected, compared to the standard healthy conditions (**Figure 2**), total lipolysis
398 extent significantly decreased in all fish preparations. The optimal pH for the pancreatin

399 activity ranges between 7 and 9 (Li & Somerset, 2014). On the other hand, the bile salts
400 help in the emulsification of fat droplets, contributing to decrease particle size, thus
401 enhancing lipase access lipolysis (Maldonado-Valderrama et al., 2011). With regard to
402 the resulting lipidic species (NMR) (**Figure 3 C and D**), the amounts of generated
403 monoglycerides (1-MG or 2-MG) were insignificant in all cases. The concentration of
404 diglycerides (1,2-DG or 1,3-DG) were, however, dependent on the intestinal conditions,
405 particularly in raw and marinated salmon. Standard pH (7) and bile salts concentration
406 (10 mM) led to slightly higher release of 1,2-DG. Despite pancreatic lipases rarely deliver
407 1,3-DG, their presence in low proportions indicate the possible 1,2-DG isomerization
408 reactions during digestion (Nieva-Echevarría et al., 2015). Conversely, the presence of
409 1,2-DG on favourable intestinal conditions suggests the adequacy of the intestinal
410 environment to promote lipid digestibility, specifically regarding the role of bile salts. For
411 their part, low pH and also low bile salts concentration contribute to decreased 1,2-DG
412 and FA release (**Figure 3 C and D**).

413 Altogether, results confirm that processing and intestinal environment conditions
414 are determinants in the process of digestion. Taking the advantage this multi-variable
415 study offered, the relative effect that each variable on proteolysis and lipolysis was
416 assessed by means of estimating the variance. **Table 2** shows a multivariate ANOVA to
417 evaluate the factor (intestinal conditions or processing) that affected (F-ratio) the response
418 variables (MDI, proteolysis extent, lipolysis extent and molar percentage of FA) the most.
419 The standard intestinal conditions and the both altered intestinal conditions were taken
420 into account for the multifactor analysis of variance. As presented in **Table 2**, food
421 processing and also intestinal conditions affected matrix degradation during digestion and
422 had a similar and significant effect on lipid and protein digestibility. The intestinal
423 conditions were the factors affecting lipolysis the most, both in terms of lipolysis extent

424 and molar percentage of fatty acids, while the processing method presented a higher
425 impact on proteolysis in both unfavourable EPI intestinal scenarios.

426

427 **3.4. Influence of pancreatin concentration on lipid and protein digestibility in** 428 **salmon products**

429 As shown in the previous section, the intestinal conditions are crucial for the optimal
430 digestibility of salmon macronutrients, particularly lipids. Shedding light on this situation
431 is of special relevance in EPI, in which energy and lipid dietary intake requirements are
432 increased (40% from total daily energy intake). In addition, the lipid supply should be
433 represented by healthy sources, i.e. with polyunsaturated fatty acid profile (Turck et al.,
434 2016). Hence, salmon presents as an ideal food to support the nutritional treatment of EPI,
435 as it contains considerable amount of fat, which is mainly omega-3. As a consequence of
436 EPI, patients have to take oral supplements of pancreatic enzymes to enable digestion.
437 So, optimising the dose of this supplements to maximise lipolysis and eventual energy
438 uptake, would be a worthwhile purpose.

439 In this sense, the present study addressed lipolysis and proteolysis extents obtained
440 with different pancreatin concentration (0, 2000, 4000 and 6000 LU/g lipid) under both
441 possible intestinal scenarios in EPI subjects (pH 6 - bile salts concentration 1 mM and pH
442 6 – bile salts concentration 10 mM). **Figure 4** shows MDI, proteolysis and lipolysis
443 extents obtained in all salmon samples at the different enzyme concentrations. The effect
444 of increasing pancreatin concentration on MDI was noticed in the worst-case set of
445 conditions, while it showed no effect in the case of normal bile salt concentration (10
446 mM). Regarding proteolysis, the pancreatin concentration seemed to have only minor
447 effects, except in the case of cooked salmon, in which protein were denatured as a
448 consequence of the high temperatures. The subsequent conformational changes imparted

449 by this processing seem to have negatively affected the role of proteases contained in the
450 enzymatic supplement in breaking down the protein molecules. Moreover, denatured
451 proteins suggest to have influenced the interaction between fish protein and bile salts, as
452 discussed in the previous section.

453 Concerning lipid hydrolysis (the main nutrient of interest in this framework) cooked
454 salmon exhibited the highest extent, compared to raw and marinated samples, regardless
455 the pancreatic concentration; while similar results were achieved in marinated and raw
456 salmon, in both sets of simulated conditions. Focusing on cooked salmon, lipid
457 digestibility showed an increasing tendency with the pancreatin concentration in the
458 frame of worst-case conditions (pH 6 – bile salts concentration 1 mM), while no
459 improvement was shown when the conditions included normal bile salts concentration
460 (pH 6 – bile salts concentration 10 mM). In contrast, raw salmon resulted in slight
461 increases of lipolysis as the pancreatic concentration increased in both situations. Finally,
462 marinated salmon, in the two scenarios, allowed for increased lipolysis when moving
463 from 2000 to 4000 LU/g lipid, but remaining stable if the pancreatin concentration
464 increased to 6000 LU/g lipid. None of the experiments led to lipolysis extents values
465 above 60%. So, despite the registered increasing tendency with the pancreatin
466 concentration in some cases could suggest further increments in total lipolysis, this result
467 would prevent from expecting complete fat hydrolysis.

468 Considering the maximum pancreatin concentration, either with normal or reduced
469 bile salts concentration, salmon fat would not be optimally digested. At most, around 60
470 % of lipolysis extent could be expected in the case of cooked salmon at the maximum
471 pancreatin concentration. In practical terms, and considering the increase from 4000 to
472 6000 LU/g fat only accounts for minor increase of lipolysis, 4000 LU/g lipid would be
473 the optimal pancreatin concentration for salmon intake in the context of EPI intestinal

474 conditions. So, a recommendation for pancreatic enzyme replacement therapy in EPI
475 should be supplying 4000 LU/g of lipid when salmon is consumed.

476 Despite satisfactory levels of salmon fat digestion should not be expected in patients
477 coursing with EPI, the simulation of the healthy conditions, according to the present
478 study, would not either fulfil complete lipolysis, and around 80% would be the expected
479 extent. Incomplete lipid digestion may have several implications. Recent studies suggest
480 that undigested fat reach the colon carrying away bile salts (Louis et al., 2014). The
481 microbiota in the colon is able to metabolise the bile salts in secondary bile acids, which
482 can accumulate to high levels in the enterohepatic circulation of some individuals and
483 may contribute to the pathogenesis of colon cancer, gallstones, and other gastrointestinal
484 (GI) diseases (Ridlon et al., 2006). More generally, incomplete lipid digestion is directly
485 associated with lipid malabsorption and excretion in faeces, which is a regular condition
486 in cystic fibrosis and pancreatic insufficiency. Thus, the energy value of a food with
487 incomplete lipid digestion should be considered to be lowered, rather than assuming the
488 value of a complete nutrient digestion. The elimination of fat with faeces also implies that
489 liposoluble vitamins are carried away too (Domínguez-Muñoz, 2011).

490

491 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

492 The results of the present study provide a thorough characterisation of digestibility of
493 salmon macronutrients (lipids and protein) as conditioned by processing and intestinal
494 conditions. In the situation of standard healthy intestinal conditions, proteolysis was not
495 largely affected by processing. Lipid digestibility, however, improved when salmon was
496 cooked, marinated process resulting in the lowest lipolysis extent. Nonetheless, the
497 intestinal conditions negatively affected both salmon proteolysis and lipolysis,
498 specifically the combination of low pH (6) and low bile salts concentration (1 mM)

499 corresponding to the most adverse intestinal scenario of EPI. The reduced pH and bile
500 salts concentration also promoted decreased 1,2-DG and FA release, thus representing a
501 drawback for lipolysis.

502 The results also confirmed that the concentration of pancreatin did not have an effect
503 on proteolysis, being 2000 LU/g lipid the optimal dose to reach the highest proteolysis
504 under both EPI intestinal conditions. Only marinated salmon increased lipolysis when
505 moving from 2000 to 4000 LU/g fat, but not changing if the dose increased to 6000 LU/g
506 fat. Despite of increasing pancreatin concentration under both EPI intestinal scenarios,
507 lipolysis extent did not reach values above of 60% regardless the processing technique.

508 Overall, salmon preparations affect macronutrients digestibility, lipolysis being
509 compromised in any intestinal scenario. The consumption of cooked salmon instead of
510 other preparations would be recommendable in order to enhance lipolysis, especially in
511 EPI patients. The results of this study can provide evidence to establish dietary
512 recommendations regarding salmon consumption and support to explain results in further
513 in vivo studies.

514

515 **5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

516 The authors would like to thank the Conselleria de Educació i Investigació de la
517 Generalitat Valenciana and also the European Union (“*El Fondo Social Europeo (FSE)*
518 *invierte en tu futuro*”) for the PhD scholarship given to Andrea Asensio Grau
519 (ACIF/2017/008). This study was developed thanks to the equipment funded with the
520 support from the Generalitat Valenciana IDIFEDER/2018/041 (PO FEDER Comunitat
521 Valenciana 2014-2020)

522

523 **6. REFERENCES**

524 AOAC (2000). Official methods of analysis of AOAC International. (17th ed.).

525 Gaithersberg, Maryland: *Association of Official Chemists*.

526 Asensio-Grau, A., Peinado, I., Heredia, A. & Andrés, A. (2018). Effect of cooking
527 methods and intestinal conditions on lipolysis, proteolysis and xanthophylls
528 bioaccessibility of eggs. *Journal of functional foods*, 46, 579-586.

529 Asensio-Grau, A., Calvo-Lerma, J., Heredia, A., & Andrés, A. (2019) (a). Fat
530 digestibility in meat products: influence of food structure and gastrointestinal
531 conditions. *International Journal of Food Sciences and Nutrition*, 70(5), 530-539.

532 Asensio-Grau, A., Peinado, I., Heredia, A., & Andrés, A. (2019) (b). In vitro study of
533 cheese digestion: Effect of type of cheese and intestinal conditions on macronutrients
534 digestibility. *LWT*, 113, 108278.

535 Bax, M. L., Aubry, L., Ferreira, C., Daudin, J. D., Gatellier, P., Rémond, D., & Santé-
536 Lhoutellier, V. (2012). Cooking temperature is a key determinant of in vitro meat protein
537 digestion rate: Investigation of underlying mechanisms. *Journal of Agricultural and Food*
538 *Chemistry*, 60, 2569–2576.

539 Brodkorb, A., Egger, L., Alminger, M., Alvito, P., Assunção, R., Ballance, S., ... &
540 Clemente, A. (2019). INFOGEST static in vitro simulation of gastrointestinal food
541 digestion. *Nature protocols*, 14(4), 991-1014.

542 Calder, P.C. (2006). n-3 Polyunsaturated fatty acid, inflammation, and inflammatory
543 disease. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 83, 1505S-19S.

544 Calvo-Lerma, J., Martínez-Barona, S., Masip, E., Fornés, V., & Ribes-Koninckx, C.
545 (2017). Pancreatic enzyme replacement therapy in cystic fibrosis: dose, variability and
546 coefficient of fat absorption. *Revista Española de Enfermedades Digestivas*, 109 (10),
547 684-689.

548 Calvo-Lerma, J., Fornés-Ferrer, V., Heredia, A., Andrés, A. (2018). In Vitro
549 Digestion of Lipids in Real Foods: Influence of Lipid Organization Within the Food
550 Matrix and Interactions with Nonlipid Components. *Journal of Food Science*, 83(10),
551 2629-2637.

552 Calvo-Lerma, J., Fornés-Ferrer, V., Heredia, A., Andrés, A. (2019). In vitro digestion
553 models to assess lipolysis: The impact of the simulated conditions for gastrointestinal pH,
554 bile salts and digestion fluids. *Food Research International*, 125, 108511.

555 Chaparro, S. P., Gil, J. H., & Aristizábal, I. D. (2011). Effect of hydration and baking
556 on the physical and functional properties of vitabosa flour (deeringiana). *Vitae*, 18(2),
557 133-143.

558 Carrière, F., Rogalska, E., Cudrey, C., Ferrato, F., Laugier, R., & Verger, R. (1997).
559 In vivo and in vitro studies on the stereoselective hydrolysis of tri-and diglycerides by
560 gastric and pancreatic lipases. *Bioorganic & medicinal chemistry*, 5, 429-435.

561 Carrière, F., P. Grandval, C. Renou, A. Palomba, F. Prieri, J. Giallo, F. Henniges, S.
562 Sander-Struckmeier, & R. Laugier. 2005. Quantitative study of digestive enzyme
563 secretion and gastrointestinal lipolysis in chronic pancreatitis. *Clinical Gastroenterology*
564 *and Hepatology*, 3, 28-38.

565 Cohen, J., Bellinger, D., Connor, W., Krisetherton, P., Lawrence, R., Savitz, D.,
566 Shaywitz, B., Teutsch, S., & Gray, G. (2005). A quantitative risk–benefit analysis of
567 changes in population fish consumption. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*,
568 29(4), 325-334.

569 Domínguez–Muñoz, J. E. (2011). Chronic pancreatitis and persistent steatorrhea:
570 what is the correct dose of enzymes? *Clinical Gastroenterology and Hepatology*, 9, 541-
571 546.

572 Estévez, M., Ventanas, S., & Cava, R. (2005). Protein oxidation in frankfurters with
573 increasing levels of added rosemary essential oil: Effect on color and texture
574 deterioration. *Journal of Food Science*, 70 (7), c427-c432.

575 Farmer, L. J., McConnell, J. M., & Kilpatrick, D. J. (2000). Sensory characteristics of
576 farmed and wild Atlantic salmon. *Aquaculture*, 187(1-2), 105-125.

577 Gasset, J., Vora, H., Hofmann, A. F., Gray G. M., & Khosla C. (2007). Enhancement
578 of dietary protein digestion by conjugated bile acids. *Gastroenterology*, 133, 16–23.

579 Gelfond, D., Ma, C., Semler, J., & Borowitz, D. (2013). Intestinal pH and
580 gastrointestinal transit profiles in cystic fibrosis patients measured by wireless motility
581 capsule. *Digestive Diseases and Sciences*, 58(8), 2275–2281.

582 Gladyshev, M. I., Sushchik, N. N., Gubanenko, G. A., Demirchieva, S. M., &
583 Kalachova, G. S. (2006). Effect of way of cooking on content of essential polyunsaturated
584 fatty acids in muscle tissue of humpback salmon (*Oncorhynchusgorbuscha*). *Food*
585 *Chemistry*, 96(3), 446-451.

586 Grundy, M. M., Carrière, F., Mackie, A. R., Gray, D. A., Butterworth, P. J., & Ellis,
587 P. R. (2016). The role of plant cell wall encapsulation and porosity in regulating lipolysis
588 during the digestion of almond seeds. *Food & Function*, 7(1), 69-78.

589 Guo, Q., Ye, A., Bellissimo, N., Singh, H., & Rousseau, D. (2017). Modulating fat
590 digestion through food structure design. *Progress in Lipid Research*, 68, 109-118.

591 Hao, Z., Dong, H., Li, Z., & Lin, H. (2016). Analysis of physicochemical properties
592 during the processing of Yiluxian, a traditional chinese low-salt fish
593 product. *International Journal of Food Science & Technology*, 51(10), 2185-2192.

594 Hosomi, R., Yoshida, M., & Fukunaga, K. (2012). Seafood consumption and
595 components for health. *Global Journal of Health Science*, 4(3), 72.

596 Humbert, L., Rainteau, D., Tuvignon, N., Wolf, C., Seksik, P., Laugier, R., &
597 Carrière, F. (2018). Postprandial bile acid levels in intestine and plasma reveal altered
598 biliary circulation in chronic pancreatitis patients. *Journal of Lipid Research*, 59(11),
599 2202-2213.

600 Hunter, J. E. (2001). Studies on Effects of Dietary Fatty Acids as Related to Their
601 Position on Triglycerides. *Lipids*, 36(7), 655-668

602 Larrazábal-Fuentes, M.J., Escriche-Roberto, I., & Camacho-Vidal, M.D.M. (2009).
603 Use of immersion and vacuum impregnation in marinated salmon (*Salmosalar*)
604 production. *Journal of Food Processing and Preservation*, 33(5):635-650.

605 Larsen, D., Quek, S. Y., & Eyres, L. (2010). Effect of cooking method on the fatty
606 acid profile of New Zealand King Salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*). *Food*
607 *Chemistry*, 119(2), 785-790.

608 Lamothe, S., Azimy, N., & Bazinet, L. (2014). Function Interaction of green tea
609 polyphenols with dairy matrices in a simulated gastrointestinal environment. *Food &*
610 *Function*, 5, 2621–2631

611 Laub-Ekgreen, M. H., Martinez-Lopez, B., Frosch, S., & Jessen, F. (2018). The
612 influence of processing conditions on the weight change of single herring
613 (*Clupea herengus*) fillets during marinating. *Food Research International*, 108, 331-338.

614 Li, L., & Somerset, S. (2014). Digestive system dysfunction in cystic fibrosis:
615 challenges for nutrition therapy. *Digestive and liver disease*, 46(10), 865-874.

616 Louis, P., Hold, G. L. & Flint, H. J. (2014). The gut microbiota, bacterial metabolites,
617 and colorectal cancer. *Nature reviews microbiology*, 12(10), 661-672.

618 Mackie, A., & Macierzanka, A. (2010). Colloidal aspects of protein digestion. *Current*
619 *Opinion in Colloid & Interface Science*, 15, 102-108.

620 Maldonado-Valderrama, J., Wilde, P., Macierzanka, A., & Mackie, A. (2011). The
621 role of bile salts in digestion. *Advances in colloid and interface science*, 165(1), 36-46.

622 Minekus, M., Alminger, M., Alvito, P., Ballance, S., Bohn, T. O. R. S. T. E. N.,
623 Bourlieu, C., & Dufour, C. (2014). A standardised static in vitro digestion method suitable
624 for food—an international consensus. *Food & function*, 5(6), 1113-1124.

625 Motilva, M. J., & Toldrá, F. (1993). Effect of curing agents and water activity on pork
626 muscle and adipose subcutaneous tissue lipolytic activity. *Zeitschrift für Lebensmittel-*
627 *Untersuchung und Forschung*, 196(3), 228-232.

628 Nieva-Echevarría, B., Goicoechea, E., Manzanos, M. J., & Guillén, M. D. (2015).
629 Usefulness of ¹H NMR in assessing the extent of lipid digestion. *Food Chemistry*, 179,
630 182-190.

631 Nieva-Echevarría, B., Goicoechea, E., Manzanos, M. J., & Guillén, M. D. (2014). A
632 method based on ¹H NMR spectral data useful to evaluate the hydrolysis level in complex
633 lipid mixtures. *Food Research International*, 66, 379–387.

634 Promeyrat, A., Gatellier, P., Lebret, B., Kajak-Siemaszko, K., Aubry, L., & Sante-
635 Lhoutellier, V. (2010). Evaluation of protein aggregation in cooked meat. *Food*
636 *Chemistry*, 121, 412–417.

637 Sarkar, A., Ye, A., & Singh, H. (2016). On the role of bile salts in the digestion of
638 emulsified lipids. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 60, 77–84.

639 Simopoulos, A. P. (2016). An increase in the omega-6/omega-3 fatty acid ratio
640 increases the risk for obesity. *Nutrients*, 8, 128

641 Spyros, A., Philippidis, A., & Dais, P. (2004). Kinetics of diglyceride formation and
642 isomerization in virgin olive oils by employing ³¹P NMR spectroscopy. Formulation of
643 a quantitative measure to assess olive oil storage history. *Journal of Agricultural and Food*
644 *Chemistry*, 52, 157-164

645 Sun, W. Z., Zhou, F. B., Zhao, M. M., Yang, B., & Cui, C. (2011). Physicochemical
646 changes of myofibrillar proteins during processing of Cantonese sausage in relation to
647 their aggregation behavior and in vitro digestibility. *Food Chemistry*, 129, 472–478.

648 Rastogi, N. K. (2020). Applications of forward osmosis process in food processing
649 and future implications. In *Current Trends and Future Developments on (Bio-)*
650 *Membranes* (pp. 113-138). Elsevier.

651 Ridlon, J. M., Kang, D. J., & Hylemon, P. B. (2006). Bile salt biotransformations by
652 human intestinal bacteria. *Journal of Lipid Research*, 47(2), 241-259.

653 Toldrá, F. (2003). Muscle foods: water, structure and functionality. *Food Science and*
654 *Technology International*, 9(3), 173-177.

655 Turck, D., Braegger, C. P., Colombo, C., Declercq, D., Morton, A., Pancheva, R., ...
656 & Schneider, S. M. (2016). ESPEN-ESPGHAN-ECFS guidelines on nutrition care for
657 infants, children, and adults with cystic fibrosis. *Clinical Nutrition*, 35(3), 557-577.

658 Zhang, W., Xiao, S., & Ahn, D. U. (2013). Protein oxidation: basic principles and
659 implications for meat quality. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 53(11),
660 1191-1201.

661

662 **Figure caption**

663 **Figure 1.** Distribution of lipid species present in raw, marinated and cooked salmon,
664 assessed by nuclear magnetic resonance. The small graphic shows a zoom of the 2-MG, 1-
665 MG and FA. *Different letters mean statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) differences between
666 salmon preparations.

667 **Figure 2.** Matrix degradation index (%), proteolysis (%) and lipolysis extent (%)
668 achieved in raw, marinated and cooked salmon under standard intestinal conditions (pH
669 7, bile salts concentration 10 mM) and pancreatin concentration 2000 LU/ g lipid **(A)**.
670 Distribution of lipid species (molar percentage) in terms of triglycerides (TG), 1,3-
671 diglycerides (1,3-DG), 1,2-diglycerides (1,2-DG), 2-monoglycerides (2-MG), 1-
672 monoglycerides (1-MG) and fatty acids (FA) under standard intestinal conditions and
673 pancreatin concentration 2000 LU/ g lipid **(B)**. The small graphic shows a zoom of the
674 1,3-DG, 1,2-DG, 2-MG and 1-MG. *Different letters mean statistically significant
675 ($p < 0.05$) differences between salmon preparations. Results correspond to 120 min of
676 intestinal digestion.

677 **Figure 3.** Matrix degradation index (%), proteolysis (%) and lipolysis extent (%) in the
678 salmon samples after in vitro digestion under both altered intestinal scenarios and
679 pancreatin concentration of 2000 LU/ g lipid: reduced pH and bile salts concentration (pH
680 6, bile salts concentration 1 mM) **(A)** and reduced pH and normal bile salts concentration
681 (pH 6, bile salts concentration 10 mM) **(B)**. Distribution of lipid species (molar
682 percentage) under both intestinal scenarios and pancreatin concentration 2000 LU/ g
683 lipid: reduced pH and bile salts concentration **(C)** and reduced pH and normal bile salts
684 concentration **(D)**. The small graphic shows a zoom of the 1,3-DG, 1,2-DG, 2-MG and 1-
685 MG. *Different letters mean statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) differences between salmon
686 preparations. Results correspond to 120 min of intestinal digestion.

687

688 **Figure 4.** Matrix degradation index (%), proteolysis (%) and lipolysis extent (%)
689 achieved in raw, marinated and cooked salmon at different pancreatin concentration (0,
690 2000, 4000 and 6000 LU/g lipid. The corresponding protease activities were 0, 44, 88 and
691 132 PU/ g protein in raw salmon, 0, 70, 140 and 210 PU/ g protein in marinated salmon
692 and 0, 43, 87 and 130 PU/ g protein in cooked salmon. *Different letters mean statistically
693 significant ($p < 0.05$) differences between the pancreatin concentration. Results
694 correspond to 120 min of intestinal digestion.

695