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Additional Information

1 Modelling *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion of egg white gel matrix by

2 laser-backscattering imaging

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Abstract

The objective of this work was to test the capability of laser-backscattering imaging technique to model changes produced throughout in vitro gastrointestinal digestion of chicken egg white gel as protein matrix model. Evolution of the matrix sample was monitored by analysing protein digestibility, zeta potential, particle size, and imaging every 20 min during the digestion process. Laser-backscattering was based on capturing the diffraction patterns generated by laser-light after being transmitted through matrix samples. Differences in imaging data were observed for the different zones of the studied diffraction patterns. This complexity was solved by a dimensional reduction using multivariate statistics, obtaining $R^2 > 0.90$ in calibration studies. Results indicated that imaging device captured the variance produced due to changes in concentrations of protein compounds in despite of changes produced by pH and reagents addition. Therefore, laser backscattering imaging was capable of monitoring the digestion of egg white gel during gastric and intestinal phases.

Keywords: protein matrix, in vitro digestion, imaging analysis, laser-backscattering,

- modelling

50 **1. Introduction**

51 Gastrointestinal digestion is a complex process including mechanical, chemical and 52 enzymatic processes which involve food breakdown and release of nutrients for 53 subsequent absorption. Physical mechanisms, pH changes, and enzymes action as well as 54 food material properties and structure influence the rate and extent of digestion. In the 55 case of protein matrices, proteolysis begins in the gastric phase with the combined action 56 of HCl and pepsin enzyme, which breaks down proteins generating a mixture of peptides 57 and free amino acids. At the intestinal phase, the action of different enzymes, mainly 58 trypsin and chymotrypsin, completes protein digestion by further hydrolysing peptide 59 fractions for further intestinal absorption (Gropper and Smith, 2013).

60 In vitro digestion models, including static and dynamic methods, are simple and useful 61 tools to evaluate structural and physicochemical changes occurring during the process as 62 well as digestibility of protein compounds. In that regard, digested samples are analysed 63 in order to measure concentration profiles of the released proteolytic products, generally 64 by using traditional destructive approaches such as spectrophotometric, electrophoretic, chromatographic, or mass spectrometry methods (Gallego et al., 2021, 2020; Sánchez-65 66 Rivera et al., 2014). However, the use of non-destructive approaches to study profiles of 67 food hydrolysis has generated a considerable interest over the last years. Examples 68 include magnetic resonance techniques to evaluate the hydrolysis level in complex lipid 69 mixtures (Nieva-Echevarría et al., 2014) and time-series micro-computed tomography to 70 study structural breakdown during in vitro gastric digestion of apples (Olenskyj et al., 71 2020).

72 In the case of imaging, several techniques have been applied to analyse physicochemical 73 properties and structure changes of foods during *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion. For 74 instance, Somaratne et al. (2019) mapped the distribution of digestive fluids in food

structures using hyperspectral imaging. Focusing on protein matrices, Deng et al. (2020) applied magnetic resonance imaging to explore *in vitro* gastric digestion of whey protein. Somaratne et al. (2020) reported a time-lapse imaging system to evaluate *in-situ* disintegration by pepsin of egg white gels with different microstructures and nutrient release kinetics. Pasquier et al. (2019) evaluated the effects of gastric and intestinal enzymes on disintegration kinetics of microstructured canola seed proteins by using small-angle scattering and imaging techniques.

82 Within imaging techniques, laser-backscattering imaging characterises the extinction of 83 light transmittance across a changing magnitude measured in a given matrix. This 84 principle is the basis of a wide range of analytical methods. However, in this case, 85 imaging analysis and data mining techniques are followed to study the generated 86 diffraction patterns because matrix-light interactions. In food-processing research, laser-87 backscattering imaging has been applied for modelling different food matrix 88 transformations due to enzymatic action. Some examples are the characterisation of the 89 tendering process of pork loin with papain enzyme addition (Grau et al., 2021), and of 90 texture evolution in dairy matrices such as the milk curdling phase of cheese and yogurt 91 fermentation (Verdú et al., 2021, 2019). These studies suggested the hypothesis of using 92 this technique to study the physicochemical evolution of a given food matrix resulting 93 from the action of enzymes throughout gastrointestinal digestion. There is little 94 information about the capacities of imaging techniques combined with analytical methods 95 to study digestion processes. This could improve existing methods and developing new 96 applications in non-destructive analysis terms. The ultimate goal of the application would 97 be the continuous monitoring of changes produced in a food matrix during in vitro 98 digestion without sample modification/destruction. However, it was necessary to test 99 previously the capability of the technique to model sample changes measured by 100 traditional analytical methods.

101 Thus, this work focused on testing the capability of laser-backscattering imaging 102 technique to model protein changes, occurring during gastric and intestinal digestion, of 103 egg white as model of protein gel matrix. For that, digested samples were evaluated in 104 terms of protein digestibility, by both analytical and *in silico* assays, and of zeta potential 105 and particle size distributions in order to improve understanding of information captured 106 in the image data.

107

108 **2. Materials and methods**

109 **2.1 Chemicals and reagents**

Enzymes pepsin from porcine gastric mucosa and pancreatin from porcine pancreas as well as bile extract porcine, trinitrobenzenesulfonic acid (TNBS), Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250, bovine serum albumin (BSA), L-tyrosine, and L-leucine were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). Trichloroacetic acid (TCA), ethanol and phosphoric acid were from Scharlau Chemie, S.A. (Sentmenat, Barcelona, Spain). All other reagents and chemicals were of analytical grade.

116

117 **2.2 Sample preparation**

Pasteurised liquid egg white from chicken eggs was obtained from a local supermarket and subjected to heat-induced gelation. For that, the sample was heated at 100 °C under agitation for 12 min in order to form a homogeneous gel protein matrix. The sample was kept at 4 °C before further analysis. This homogeneous and highly reproducible sample was used with the aim of ensuring the capacity of the technique to capture the variance generated by changes produced by the enzymatic activity, therefore reducing within-sample variability before digestion.

125

126 **2.3** *In vitro* gastrointestinal digestion

127 The simulated gastrointestinal digestion was carried out following the standardised 128 INFOGEST method (Minekus et al., 2014; Brodkorb et al., 2019). In duplicate, 1 g of 129 each sample was diluted with simulated salivary fluid (SSF) in a ratio 1:1 (w/v), and 130 mixed at 40 rpm for 2 min at 37 °C using an Intell-MixerTM RM-2 (ELMI Ltd., Riga, 131 Latvia) within an incubator chamber (JP Selecta, S.A., Barcelona, Spain). In the gastric 132 phase (G), the oral bolus was diluted 1:1 (v/v) with simulated gastric fluid (SGF), CaCl₂ 133 (0.15 mM) and pepsin enzyme (2000 U/mL). The pH was adjusted to 3.0 with HCl (1 M) 134 and the mixture was then incubated under agitation at 37 °C for 2 h as previously 135 described. In the intestinal phase (I), the gastric chyme was diluted (1:1, v/v) with 136 simulated intestinal fluid (SIF), CaCl₂ (0.6 mM), pancreatin (trypsin activity of 100 137 U/mL) and bile salts (10 mM). The pH was adjusted to 7.0 with NaOH (1 M), and the 138 sample was mixed at 37 °C for 2 h. After digestion, samples were immediately placed in 139 ice, centrifuged (8000 g, 4°C, 10 min), and the resultant supernatants were taken for 140 following analyses. Samples were taken every 20 min during the process, using separate 141 tubes for each sampling time point. The number of experimental data points was 142 established based on preliminary assays considering possible data-loss for the imaging 143 technique. Preliminary kinetics obtained for free amino groups showed non-loss of 144 information using that sampling frequency. Control samples containing digestive fluids, 145 enzymes, and bile (without sample) were run in parallel.

146

147 **2.4 Protein digestibility**

The protein digestibility of the control and egg white gel samples during *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion was evaluated, in duplicate, by determining the content of free amino groups, soluble proteins, and TCA-soluble peptides.

151 The content of free amino groups was determined using the TNBS method (Adler-Nissen,

152 1979). For that, 25 μ L of sample was mixed with 200 μ L of sodium phosphate buffer (0.2

153 M, pH 8.2) and 200 μ L of TNBS (0.1 %), and incubated at 50 °C for 1 h. After adding

154 640 μL of HCl (0.1 N), the mixture was incubated for 30 min and then the absorbance

155 was measured at 340 nm using a UV-Visible spectrophotometer (Helios Zeta, Thermo

156 Scientific, UK). Results were expressed as mg of leucine per mL of sample.

157 Total soluble proteins were evaluated according to the Bradford assay (Bradford, 1976).

158 Briefly, 40 µL of sample was mixed with 2 mL of Bradford reagent, which was comprised

159 of Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 (0.01 %), ethanol (4.7 %), and phosphoric acid (8.5 %).

160 The mixture was incubated for 5 min at room temperature and the absorbance measured

161 at 595 nm. Results were expressed as mg of BSA protein per mL of sample.

162 The content of TCA-soluble peptides was determined based on the methodology 163 described by Ketnawa and Ogawa (2019). For that, 50 μ L of sample was mixed with 450 164 μ L of TCA (5 %), vortexed and kept at 4 °C for 1 h. The mixture was centrifuged at 8000

g for 10 min, and the absorbance of the supernatant was measured at 280 nm. Results
were expressed as mg of tyrosine per mL of sample.

167

168 **2.5** *In silico* analysis

169 The UniProt database (https://www.uniprot.org/) was used to obtain the sequence data in 170 FASTA format of ovalbumin (accession number P01012), which is the major protein in 171 egg white. Then, the gastrointestinal digestion was simulated by using the "enzyme(s) 172 action" tool of **BIOPEP-UWM** database 173 (http://www.uwm.edu.pl/biochemia/index.php/en/biopep) (Minkiewicz et al., 2019). 174 Pepsin (EC 3.4.23.14) was used to predict the proteolysis occurring during the gastric 175 phase, whereas trypsin (EC 3.4.21.4) and chymotrypsin (EC 3.4.21.1) were used 176 subsequently to pepsin in order to simulate the protein hydrolysis during the complete 177 digestion process. The ToxinPred software (http://crdd.osdd.net/raghava/toxinpred/) was 178 used to predict the molecular weight (MW) and isoelectric point (pI) of the peptides 179 obtained after in silico digestion.

180

181 **2.6 Particle size and zeta potential**

182 The supernatants extracted from digestion matrix were analysed in particle size (Ps) and 183 zeta potential (ζ -potential) terms. These parameters were measured to achieve a better 184 understanding of imaging information since laser-backscattering imaging is based on 185 capturing the alterations in diffraction patterns produced by light-particle interaction. 186 Measurements were carried out in a Zetasizer Nano ZS (Malvern Instruments Ltd., 187 Worcestershire, UK). The instrument was set up for proteins as material and water as 188 dispersion medium. Ps was expressed as the average particle size (nm). The 189 Smoluchowski mathematical model was used to convert the particle mobility 190 measurements into ζ -potential values (mV) (Fuentes et al., 2020). All the determinations 191 were performed in triplicate at each sampling time.

192

193 **2.7 Imaging device and capture**

A low-cost imaging device was designed based on Verdú et al. (2020) in order to collect information from each sampling time generated by light-matrix interactions. The objective was to use images to collect the variance generated in the matrix during

197 digestion by capturing the diffraction patterns transmitted due to laser-matrix interaction 198 at each sampling time. For that purpose, samples were prepared placing 3 mL supernatant 199 (obtained at each sampling time during in vitro digestion) on a transparent well plate (12well plate, 21.2 mm ø, 6.9 mL, Corning Costar[®]). Figure 1-A shows a scheme of the 200 201 device setup. The elements were a digital capture system (digital camera), a laser light, 202 and a computer. The setup was installed inside a dark chamber away from light. All the 203 camera's light controls were set to the manual mode, avoiding uncontrolled alterations to 204 the work regime (gain, shutter speed, white balance, etc.). A digital Logitech C920 205 camera (maximum resolution: 1080p/30 fps - 720p/30 fps) was the capture system. 206 Images were captured in the RGB (red, green and blue) format and were saved as .JPEG 207 (1980x1080). The camera was vertically placed 15 cm over the sample, which lays in the 208 middle of the vision field. The laser beam was used in line mode (650 nm, 50 mW), and 209 it was perpendicularly placed 20 cm under the zone where the wells plate placed. This 210 configuration allowed projecting laser-line on the diameter of each well bottom surface. 211 The laser properties and placement distances in the device were selected after previous 212 studies in food applications (Verdú et al., 2021, 2020). The main objective of this 213 configuration was to transmit enough light to capture changes in the studied matrix 214 without saturating the camera sensor. Both the camera and the laser line were connected 215 to a computer. The capture procedure was static for all sampling time (well). It means 216 that images were manually captured by placing the well plates into imaging device. 217 Captures were taken every 20 min during the digestive process for both egg white and 218 control samples following the above-mentioned procedure. Five replicates of images per 219 well (at each sampling time) were taken from each of the two digestion replicates.

220

221 **2.8 Image processing and data collection**

222 The first step was to transform images from RGB to 8 bits (grayscale) format with the 223 aim of simplifying intensity information. Next operation was to create an image stack 224 from the images captured at each sampling time of the digestion process (Figure 1-B). 225 The second step was to select five regions of interest (ROIs) and extract five orthogonal 226 slices from each stack corresponding to each of them. Those slices formed images with 227 150 pixels in Y-axis, maintaining the laser-line in the middle of them (Figure 1-B, white 228 dotted lines delimited by a and b). Five replicates from each stack were parallelly 229 extracted, leaving 50 pixels between them across X-axis. That extraction was carried out 230 by slicing the stack across the time axis (Z-axis). Finally, five replicates of images 231 crossing the central zone of the captured diffraction pattern (Figure 1-C, example of 232 orthogonal image) was obtained from each sampling time of the digestion process. In 233 these new images (orthogonal images), the X-axis corresponded to time while Y-axis 234 corresponded to pixel position. Information across pixel position described the diffraction 235 pattern. The intensity data from each pixel across all positions were taken as single 236 variables to collect variance during the digestion process. Thus, any change in light 237 intensity at each sampling point was captured in these orthogonal images to simplify the 238 image-stack from the entire process to a single image. The obtained images contained the 239 intensity profile of the diffraction pattern along the selected pixels in the two studied 240 phases of the digestion. Each image represented a data matrix containing the changes in 241 the intensity profiles with time (Figure 1-E). The extracted matrix from each replicate 242 was organised and labelled in a common data matrix to study the evolution of the 243 information captured during digestion process, as well as the relationship to the 244 physicochemical properties in composition and particle properties terms. Thus, the data 245 matrix provided spectra of the intensities across pixel positions, which were used as a basis for numerical analytics. These procedures were run with the ImageJ software
(http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/) (Schindelin et al., 2012).

248

249 2.9 Statistical analysis

250 The evolution of physicochemical data of the protein gel matrix (obtained by 251 determinations of free amino groups, soluble proteins, TCA-soluble peptides, in silico 252 analysis, Ps and ζ -potential) was analysed by studying time series. Moreover, the imaging 253 data were explored after applying multivariable statistical procedures to reduce data 254 dimensionality. For this purpose, a principal component analysis (PCA, a multivariate 255 unsupervised statistical method) was employed. This method allowed a simplification of 256 the analysis of variance collected by the image data matrix across digestion process. 257 Calibration studies were carried out by applying PLS-R (Partial Least Square Regression). 258 This method allowed to evaluate the dependence between the image information 259 (multivariate data matrix) and analytical data (contents of free amino groups, soluble 260 proteins, and TCA-soluble peptides) generating linear regressions. The calibrations were 261 evaluated based on the R^2 and root mean square error (RMSE). These procedures were 262 run with the PLS Toolbox, 6.3 (Eigenvector Research Inc., Wenatchee, Washington, 263 USA), a toolbox extension in the Matlab 7.6 computational environment (The Mathworks, 264 Natick, Massachusetts, USA).

265

266 **3. Results and discussion**

267 **3.1 Digestibility of the protein gel matrix**

Heating of proteins matrices, such as chicken egg white, leads to conformational changes that affect the folded structure of proteins, producing aggregates that join together to form gels (Ma and Holme, 1982). Physicochemical properties and gel structure influence the

271 extent of digestion, amount and nature of generated peptides (Nyemb et al., 2016). The 272 proteolysis occurring in the egg white gel matrix during *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion 273 was evaluated by determining the content of total free amino groups, which include the 274 available amino groups of proteins, peptides, and amino acids (Adler-Nissen, 1979). The 275 content of soluble proteins and TCA-soluble peptides were also measured to obtain 276 information about the solubility of the digestive products. Results of protein digestibility 277 in the controls (without sample) and samples obtained before digestion (t0) and during 278 the gastric phase (G, 0-120 min) and intestinal phase (I, 120-240 min) were presented in 279 Figure 2. Results were expressed as mg/mL of sample in the digestive medium for a better comparison with the data subsequently obtained by using laser-backscattering imaging to 280 281 model the digestion process. Controls presented values below 0.2 mg/mL in the content 282 of free amino groups, soluble proteins and peptides during G, whereas an increased 283 proteolysis and solubility was observed during I (Figure 2-A). Regarding the samples, a 284 gradual increment in the content of free amino groups was observed as the digestion 285 advanced, with values increasing from 0.27 to 1.63 mg/mL in G and reaching up to 14.52 286 mg/mL at the end of I (Figure 2-B). These results evidence the action of digestive 287 enzymes, mainly those of the intestinal phase, hydrolysing the protein gel matrix. 288 Moreover, the solubility of proteins increased during the *in vitro* digestion, with values 289 ranging from 1.68 to 2.19 mg/mL, whereas the content of TCA-soluble peptides varies 290 throughout the process with values between 7.44 and 13.62 mg/mL (Figure 2-B).

291

292 **3.2** *In silico* analysis

In silico analyses were performed to predict the peptide sequences released during a simplified gastrointestinal digestion of ovalbumin, which is the major protein present in egg white. The theoretical hydrolysis of the protein with enzymes found in the 296 gastrointestinal tract, including pepsin (gastric phase) and trypsin and chymotrypsin 297 (intestinal phase), is shown in Figure 3-A. The MW and pI of the generated sequences 298 was also predicted *in silico* with the aim of knowing the properties of produced peptides 299 and thereby improving the physicochemical characterisation at the end of each digestion 300 phase. Figures 3-B and 3-C show the MW of the generated peptides expressed in 301 percentiles (P). The peptides generated during G showed higher average weight than I. 302 Compounds within P_{65} of G had the highest MW obtained in I (~2 g/mol) while the rest 303 of compounds in G rose to 5 g/mol. During gastrointestinal digestion, protein chains were 304 cleaved by peptidase enzymes during the gastric and intestinal phases, releasing smaller 305 peptides as the digestion advances. Moreover, in the same way of MW, peptides obtained 306 from each phase presented differences in pI. Figures 3-D and 3-E show pI of each block 307 of peptides expressed in percentiles. In the case of G, 20% of peptides had a difference 308 of one pH unit between pI and the pH used in this phase (pH=3), whereas 50% of peptides 309 presented pI more than threefold (pI~6) (Figure 3-D). More differences between pI and 310 pH would mean more stability for the generated dispersion. In I (pH=7), 65% of peptides 311 presented differences of less than one unit between pI and pH, suggesting a low stability 312 of the dispersion. The observed theoretical effect of each digestion phase on both MW 313 and pI of the generated compounds should impact on the properties of the generated 314 particles (such as ζ -potential and particle size). That impact should modify matrix 315 properties not only at the end of the phase, but also at each sampling point. Since these 316 modifications were directly related to the matrix structure, the generated changes in the 317 laser-matrix interaction should correlate with information captured by the imaging 318 technique.

319

320 **3.3 Particle size and zeta potential distributions**

321 After observing the results from computational analysis of egg white digestion, the 322 extracts of the digested matrix were analysed in Ps and ζ-potential terms for evidencing 323 matrix structure modifications at each sampling point. The aim was to get a better 324 understanding of produced changes and thus improve the interpretation of laser-matrix 325 interaction captured in imaging data. Figures 4-A and 4-B show the time series of the 326 measurements, from which kinetics of both parameters during the digestion process were 327 studied. Ps of egg white gel was maintained nearly constant during G, whereas the 328 addition of reagents (digestive fluids, enzymes and bile) and the pH change from 3 to 7 329 in I drastically increased Ps (Figure 4-B). This effect was also observed in the control 330 samples (Figure 4-A), suggesting that it could be mainly due to the formation of large 331 flocs in presence of bile and pancreatin enzyme (Liu and Kong, 2019; Sharkar et al., 2018). 332 Accordingly, in silico results indicated that 50% of the peptides generated at the end of G333 presented pI close to the pH of I (pH=7) (Figure 3-D). Thus, when matrix was modified 334 to that pH, stability of peptides would decrease due to reduction of solubility and 335 aggregation of particles (Nyemb et al., 2016), which would increase Ps.

336 These phenomena matched with ζ -potential evolution. In egg white gel samples, values 337 reduced magnitude of negative charge (from -15 to -10 mV) during the first 40 min of G, 338 from which it was constant up to the end of this phase. At the beginning of I, ζ -potential 339 drastically changed and then decreased up to values between 0 and -5 mV (Figure 4-B). 340 Similar to that suggested from the *in silico* results, ζ-potential values indicated lower 341 stability of the compounds in I than G, which also matched with the observed increase of 342 Ps. So, results evidenced the progressive physical changes in the studied matrix due to 343 the digestion process. Changes in chemical composition of samples produced by enzymes 344 and pH during digestion produced alterations in particles and matrix structure that should 345 affect the interaction with laser and therefore the information captured in diffraction 346 patterns. Thus, after characterising these modifications, the objective was evaluating the 347 capacity of the imaging technique to detect these changes and relate them to the released 348 protein compounds.

349

350 **3.4 Image analysis**

351 3.4.1. Imaging data exploration

352 Image data were explored in raw form in order to observe if there was evolution of 353 intensity data during the digestion process at different pixel positions into the diffraction 354 patterns. In this regard, Figure 5 shows the results obtained for the control sample (Figure 355 5-left) and egg white gel sample (Figure 5-rigth). A real sequence of images 356 corresponding to half capture (from central peak of diffraction pattern, pixel position 75, 357 to an extreme) were included. Three pixels positions from the central peak (A, B and C) 358 were selected to explore whether differences in data were produced depending on the 359 pattern zone. That study was necessary to evaluate if pixel positions collected redundant 360 data or, by contrast, different information was collected from different pixel positions and 361 therefore no positions should be obviated.

362 Figure 5 shows the intensity evolution observed at the selected pixel positions, presenting 363 different kinetics for each one. The digestion phases also presented differences within the 364 same position due to the changes in composition and pH. The same alteration in the time 365 series observed in the physicochemical study due to the changes produced at gastric-366 intestinal intersection (pH and reagents addition) (Figures 2 and 4) was reproduced in the 367 image data. On the other hand, intensity captured within each phase presented a different 368 evolution depending on the position. The digestion of egg white gel was also differenced 369 from the control sample. In addition to the observed differences in kinetics, the digestion of egg white gel generated higher intensity changes compared to control in A and B, whileless at C position (Figure 5).

Thus, the explored raw data evidenced the capacity of the imaging technique to capture the variance generated from different factors such as the enzymatic action on both egg white gel and themselves, and the changes produced because the digestive phases. However, results suggest that different fractions of total variance collected by images were contained in each pixel position. It meant that pixel positions provided different information of the digestion process and therefore all of them (150 variables) had to be considered from data matrix to attempt process modelling.

379 Since entire data matrix from imaging was considered, it was processed by a PCA with 380 the aim of analysing imaging data in a reduced dimensionality. PCA reduced 150 381 variables to one synthetic variable (linear combination from the original ones) called PC1, 382 which collects 72.2% and 75.1% total variance for control and digested sample, 383 respectively. Kinetics of PC1 scores are included in Figure 6. The differences between 384 control and egg white gel samples were better observed after this data transformation. 385 Control showed fluctuant evolution within each digestion phase while egg white gel 386 presented different descendent tendencies for each phase. The range of scores for G was 387 20-15, from t=0 to t=120 min, while I showed 55-21 from t=120 to t=240 min. The 388 observed kinetics for PC1 scores were in accordance with that observed in Ps and ζ -389 potential results. Figure 6-A and 6-B include ζ-potential evolution as example. Those 390 similar evolutions evidenced the sensibility of the imaging technique to capture changes 391 in the matrix due to physicochemical modifications of the protein compounds during 392 digestion. The alterations in Ps and ζ-potential produced changes in the interaction 393 patterns of light-matrix because modifications in particle properties, enabling to be 394 modelled by the imaging technique. In the same way of the rest of analysis, this effect was maximum at the beginning of *I*. Although changes in matrix did not impede the
capture of differences during *I*, the impact of pH changes and adding intestinal enzymes
and bile produced a new matrix that could produce important differences in the diffraction
pattern basis.

399 This effect was confirmed studying the patterns from all samples at t=120 min for both 400 phases. In this point, since enzymes in G were blocked and no time had passed for action 401 of intestinal enzymes in I, the observed differences in the diffraction patterns were 402 exclusively produced due to pH changes and reagents addition. Figure 6-A and 6-B shows 403 the diffraction patterns at t=120 min for both phases. Differences in the control were 404 visually limited because the absence of sample, while the digestion of egg white gel 405 generated strong differences in the intensity distribution. The central peak lost intensity 406 while the extremes increased. This phenomenon could be explained according to the Ps 407 modification; however, results did not match to the principle that is used by particle size 408 analysers. These analytical devices are based on the fact that the angle of light diffraction 409 is inversely proportional to the particle size (Emmerich et al., 2019). It matched with an 410 increase of diffraction angle, contrary to what was expected for larger particles. Therefore, 411 this effect evidenced the result of the combined effect of Ps modifications and addition 412 of new compounds like bile, which increased opacity of matrix and therefore led to a 413 more diffuse intensity pattern.

These interactions difficulted visualising a global evolution of the imaging signal for the entire digestion process. For this reason, PC1 scores were normalised transforming data to score increases (Δ). It was expressed in absolute value and assumed t=120 min as equal for both phases. The transformation made it visualisable the changes captured by the imaging technique, achieving a better comparison with physicochemical results. Figure 6-A and 6-B shows the evolution of transformed scores data (black continuous lines),

which was in accordance with free amino groups results (Figure 2). This relation could be due to free amino groups were the unique analysed compounds accumulated over time, unlike soluble protein and peptides that fluctuated depending on sampling point. In this sense, the normalised scores represented the accumulation of changes during the entire digestion process, whereby this data expression could be largely affected by the evolution of this fraction of compounds.

426 Results reported the capability of the imaging technique to capture changes produced 427 during the digestion process of egg white gel, and its differences with control samples. 428 The information obtained by imaging captured variance along time following the 429 evolution of the physicochemical changes generated because enzyme action and reagents 430 addition. Therefore, after that data exploration in non-supervised way, studies of 431 dependence between concentration of released protein compounds and imaging data were 432 carried out to determine the possibility of calibration between both data blocks.

433

434 **3.4.2. Calibration studies**

435 After evidencing the capacity of the imaging technique to capture the variance generated 436 because digestion of egg white gel, calibration studies were carried out between the 437 concentration of released protein compounds and the data from diffraction patterns. PLS-438 R was the method used to done it. Figure 7 shows the calibration plots reported by PLS-439 R after reducing the dimensionality of imaging data to one latent variable (LVI). This 440 variable also represented a lineal combination from original variables (pixel positions) of diffraction pattern, in this case, optimised to obtain the maximum correlation with each 441 442 measured protein parameter. The R^2 of calibration for all parameters were higher than 443 0.90, and *RMSE* also showed reduced values, which indicated strong relationship between 444 both data sets with independence of digestion phase. Note that soluble protein contents

(Figure 7-C) showed overlapping between phases around 1.75 mg/mL because concentrations around those values were registered at both phases. This overlapping was not observed across calibration model for free amino groups (Figure 7-A) and soluble peptides (Figure 7-B) since their concentration ranges were different at each phase, principally for free amino groups. In such a case, correlation was principally produced with data from *I* because a reduced variation was observed during *G*. This fact decreased the correlation coefficient comparing to the rest of parameters.

452 The weight of each pixel position on the explanation of variance retained in LVI were 453 explored by loadings. Figures 7-D, -E and -F show loading data of LV1 for each regression study overlapped on an example of diffraction pattern. The distribution of weights was 454 455 similar for all analytes. The central zone was maintained around zero (dotted line), which 456 meant reduced weight for those pixel positions in the explanation of digestion evolution. 457 Moreover, external zones presented higher weight towards negative zone of LV1 axis. 458 This distribution of weights indicated that the pixel positions placed in the extremes of 459 the pattern were the main zones collecting information from physicochemical changes 460 occurring during digestion. It followed the observed in the Figure 6-D, where external 461 zones collected the effect of pH changes and reagents addition at the beginning of *I*. The 462 explanation could be attributed to the fact that central zones represented pixels with higher 463 level of light saturation than the external ones. This saturation could reduce the sensitivity 464 of the central zone of sensor, needing intense changes in light-matrix interaction to detect 465 significant changes. However, external zones, which collect the most diffracted light 466 fraction, kept away from saturation, maximising the capacity to detect soft changes due 467 to the moderate amount of arrived light.

468 Calibration results proved the linear relationship between captured imaging data and the469 evolution of released protein compounds throughout gastrointestinal digestion of egg

470 white gel. These results suggested that the used imaging data captured information 471 dependent from protein compounds but independent from digestion phase. This concept 472 was important since clashed with the observed impact of phase change on diffraction 473 pattern showed in Figure 6-D. This meant that the used imaging technique captured 474 digestion process-dependent information in images; however, it was necessary 475 supervising the reduction of dimensionality to calibrate both datasets. Therefore, after a 476 supervised data-transformation, this information correlated linearly with the 477 concentration of analysed protein compounds but was not affected by changes in pH and 478 intestinal enzymes addition, obtaining $R^2 > 0.90$ for all of them. The calibrations were 479 obtained from a specific type of protein sample processed under certain conditions, which 480 was used as protein matrix model. The observed capacity of the technique to register 481 digestion changes should be maintained if different protein matrix were tested. However, 482 modifications in matrix samples resulting from egg specie, age, presence of colouring agents or particles as well as from other type and origin of protein (e.g, casein or whey 483 484 protein) require a new calibration study to explore the effect on the observed models.

485

486 **4. Conclusions**

487 Gastrointestinal digestion of egg white gel showed different profiles of protein products 488 depending on the sampling time and phase (G and I). The evolution of compounds 489 concentration, pH changes, and reagents addition produced physicochemical changes in 490 matrix that induced modifications in Ps and ζ-potential. Those changes led to alterations 491 in the laser-matrix interaction that were registered by the imaging technique in form of 492 diffraction patterns. The captured diffraction patterns showed different evolution 493 depending on the pixel position and the digestion phase. After a dimensionality reduction 494 of image data, capability to capture variance generated because phase change and

enzymatic action was evidenced. Moreover, high calibration level ($R^2 > 0.90$) was 495 496 obtained between imaging data and analytical data (content of free amino groups, soluble 497 protein, and soluble peptides). This indicated that, although pH and added reagents 498 produced non-desirable variance in imaging data with phase changes, the variance 499 produced because changes on concentrations of protein compounds was successfully 500 registered. Therefore, results suggested that laser backscattering imaging was capable of 501 monitoring the gastrointestinal digestion of egg white gel as protein matrix model. This 502 technology could improve existing analytical methods for developing non-destructive 503 approaches within food digestibility research area. The next step should focus on 504 monitoring in situ the food matrix digestion, without sample modification/destruction, 505 with the aim of obtaining continuous image data during the entire process in a non-506 destructive way. Moreover, new factors such as different protein origin, protein mixes 507 and sample pre-treatments need to be included in future studies to test the capability of 508 this technique to model sample variability sources.

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517 Author contributions

518 Conceptualization, S.V., M.G., P.T. and R.G.; Methodology, S.V. and M.G.; Formal

519 Analysis, S.V. and M.G.; Investigation, S.V. and M.G.; Writing - Original Draft

- 520 Preparation, S.V. and M.G; Writing Review & Editing, S.V., M.G., JM.B., P.T. and
- 521 R.G.; Visualization, S.V. and M.G; Project Administration, JM.B., P.T. and R.G.;
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- 523
- 524 **Conflicts of interest**
- 525 None
- 526
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622 FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Capture device and image processing schemes. A: Capture system 623 624 configuration. B: Images from each sampling time from complete digestion process 625 (white dotted lines: the five ROIs for data extracting, a: pixel position 1; b: pixel position 626 150). C: Example of ROI from original stack. D: Visualising intensity (grayscale) 627 differences captured at each pixel position of selected zone. E: Data matrix structure after 628 extraction. G-red series: gastric phase; I-blue series: intestinal phase. Red and blue dashed 629 lines mark specific sampling times as example (t=60 and t=180 min, respectively). 630 **Figure 2.** Evolution of the content of free amino groups (●), soluble proteins (■), and 631 TCA-soluble peptides () during *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion. A: control; B: egg 632 white gel. G-red series: gastric phase; I-blue series: intestinal phase. Green dashed line

633 marks change of phase.

Figure 3. Results of *in silico* studies. A: amino acid sequence of ovoalbumin protein before digestion (up), after the gastric phase (middle), and after the intestinal phase (bottom). B and C: MW of the peptides obtained after each phase expressed in percentile profile. D and E: pI of the peptides obtained after each phase expressed in percentile profile. *G*-red series: gastric phase; *I*-blue series: intestinal phase. Dashed lines indicate pH at *G* (red) and *I* (blue). Watermarks indicate specific percentiles of pI near to pH in

- 640 each phase.
- 641 **Figure 4.** Evolution of particle size (Ps) (■) and zeta potential (●) during digestion. A:
- 642 control; B: egg white gel. *G*-red series: gastric phase; *I*-blue series: intestinal phase.
- 643 Green dashed line marks change of phase.

Figure 5. Evolution of intensity data from captured image sequences at different pixel

645 position. Left: raw image sequences of half pattern. Right: time series of intensity along

646 phases corresponding to A, B and C positions. A, B and C: pixel positions along pattern.

G-red series: gastric phase; *I*-blue series: intestinal phase. Green dashed line marks648 change of phase.

Figure 6. Evolution of processed imaging data with PCA. A: control. B: egg white gel.

C: diffraction patterns of control from both phases at t=120 min. D: diffraction patterns of egg white gel from both phases at t=120 min. Arrows mark t=120 min. G-red series: gastric phase; *I*-blue series: intestinal phase. Grey dotted lines mark ζ -potential evolution. Figure 7. Results of calibration studies between protein compounds and imaging data. Regression studies (up) between LV1 from PLS-R and free amino groups (A), soluble peptides (B) and soluble protein (C). Green series: loadings from LV1 (down) for free amino groups (D), soluble peptides (E) and soluble proteins (F). Dotted black lines mark no charge for variables (pixel position). Black series: example of captured diffraction pattern. RMSEC: root mean square error calibration. R^2 : calibration coefficient. G-red series: gastric phase; I-blue series: intestinal phase. Bars indicate standard deviation.