

Food & Function

Linking the chemistry and physics of food with health and nutrition

Accepted Manuscript

This article can be cited before page numbers have been issued, to do this please use: T. B. Ribeiro, A. Oliveira, D. Campos, J. Nunes, A. A. Vicente and M. Pintado, *Food Funct.*, 2020, DOI: 10.1039/C9FO03000J.



This is an Accepted Manuscript, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about Accepted Manuscripts in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this Accepted Manuscript or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

1 Simulated digestion of olive pomace water-soluble ingredient: Relationship between 2 the compounds bioaccessibility and their potential health benefits

3 Tânia B. Ribeiro ^{a,b}, Ana Oliveira ^a, Débora Campos ^a, João Nunes ^b, António A. Vicente ^c, Manuela
4 Pintado ^{a*}

5 ^a Universidade Católica Portuguesa, Escola Superior de Biotecnologia, CBQF - Centro de
6 Biotecnologia e Química Fina – Laboratório Associada, Rua de Diogo Botelho, 1327, 4169-005 Porto,
7 Portugal. ^b Association BLC3 – Technology and Innovation Campus, Centre Bio R&D Unit, Senhora
8 da Conceição, 2, Lagares, 3045-155 Oliveira do Hospital, Portugal. ^c CEB - Centre of Biological
9 Engineering, Universidade do Minho, Campus de Gualtar, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal.

10 *Corresponding author: mpintado@porto.ucp.pt

11 Abstract

12 Olive pomace is a semisolid by-product with a great potential as a source of bioactive compounds.
13 Using its soluble fraction, a liquid-enriched powder (LOPP) was obtained, exhibiting a rich
14 composition in sugars, polyphenols and minerals, with potential antioxidant, antihypertensive and
15 antidiabetic health benefits. To validate LOPP potential as a functional ingredient the effect of the
16 gastrointestinal tract on its bioactive composition and bioactivities was examined. Polyphenols and
17 minerals were the most affected compounds, however, a significant bioaccessibility of potassium and
18 hydroxytyrosol was verified ($\geq 57\%$). As a consequence, the LOPP bioactivities were only moderately
19 affected (losses around 50%). For example, $57.82 \pm 1.27\%$ of the recovered antioxidant activity by
20 ORAC was serum - available. From an initial α -glucosidase inhibition activity of $87.11 \pm 1.04\%$, at
21 least 50% of the initial potential was kept ($43.82 \pm 1.14\%$). Regarding initial ACE inhibitory activity
22 ($91.98 \pm 3.24\%$), after gastrointestinal tract losses, significant antihypertensive activity was retained
23 in the serum-available fraction ($43.4 \pm 3.65\%$). The colon-available fraction also exhibited an
24 abundant composition in phenolics and minerals. LOPP showed to be a potential functional ingredient
25 not only with potential benefits in preventing cardiovascular diseases but also in gut health.

26

27 **Keywords:** Bioeconomy, *In vitro* digestion, Minerals, Polyphenols, Antioxidant, Antihypertensive,
28 Antidiabetic, Bioaccessibility index.

29

30 1. Introduction

31 Currently, sustainable treatment of olive pomace (OP) is one of the biggest challenges of the olive oil
32 industry, despite its high nutritional value ¹. As a solution, the development of OP-based ingredients
33 has been studied to add-value and reduce its environmental impact. Powdered ingredients have been

34 proposed as a more feasible, stable and sustainable solution. A liquid-enriched olive pomace powder
35 (LOPP) has been obtained (data not shown). Our previous study has demonstrated the great potential
36 and safety of LOPP as a potential food ingredient to be applied in functional food formulation due to
37 (1) its rich composition in sugars (mainly mannitol), minerals (mainly potassium) and polyphenols
38 (mainly hydroxytyrosol and its derivatives); and (2) its antioxidant and antimicrobial properties (data
39 not shown). Considering its polyphenol composition and antioxidant properties, LOPP could be a
40 functional ingredient with health benefits in cardiovascular prevention, as an antihypertensive and
41 antioxidant ingredient ^{2,3}, and also as an antidiabetic agent ⁴⁻⁷. These health benefits have been
42 mostly associated with the phenolic compounds with high antioxidant capacity, however, sugars,
43 more specifically mannitol ⁸⁻¹⁰, and minerals ^{11,12}, could also have an important role.

44 Hydroxytyrosol and its derivatives (tyrosol, oleuropein, hydroxytyrosol glucoside, etc.) were the
45 principal phenolics identified in LOPP. These phenolics have been associated with potent antioxidant,
46 anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial activities ¹. Moreover, hydroxytyrosol and its derivatives have
47 been approved with the claim “Olive oil polyphenols contribute to the protection of blood lipids from
48 oxidative stress” by the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) for olive oil that contains at least 5
49 mg of hydroxytyrosol and its derivatives per 20 g of olive oil. Besides, bioaccessibility studies have
50 shown that hydroxytyrosol from olive can be absorbed efficiently in humans ¹³.

51 Cardiovascular disease and diabetes mellitus are the most prevalent diseases of the 21st century,
52 being hypertension a primary risk factor of cardiovascular disease ¹⁴, and hyperglycaemia one of the
53 characteristics of diabetes mellitus with main impact in the disease ⁵. Hypertension and
54 hyperglycaemia are commonly treated with drugs to inhibit the enzymatic activity of angiotensin-
55 converting (ACE) and α -glucosidase, respectively. The inhibition of the angiotensin-converting
56 enzyme (ACE) may help reduce the formation of angiotensin II, a vasoconstrictor and a ROS initiator
57 ¹⁵. On the other hand, the inhibition of hydrolytic enzyme α -glucosidase may help minimise
58 postprandial hyperglycaemia and hence delay the absorption of glucose ⁵.

59 Several studies have explored natural products in the search of ACE and α -glucosidase inhibitors.
60 Peptides and triterpenes have been described as strong potential inhibitors of ACE. Recent studies
61 have revealed that various phenolic compounds from different plants possess ACE ¹⁶ and α -
62 glucosidase inhibitory activity ¹⁷, which varies significantly according to their chemical structures. As
63 some studies showed, olive oil polyphenols were responsible for the anti-hypertensive effect in
64 hypertensive rats ², but, there are no previous reports showing ACE inhibitory activity of olive oil
65 polyphenols¹⁴. Olive oil polyphenols have also been related to the anti-diabetic effect by inhibition of
66 α -glucosidase ¹⁷. Figueiredo-González *et al.* (2019), Figueiredo-González *et al.* (2018) and Nadour
67 *et al.* (2015) demonstrated a close relationship between the higher amount of olive phenolic content
68 with most effective α -glucosidase inhibition activity. Indeed, hydroxytyrosol has been suggested as
69 an effective α -glucosidase inhibitor ⁵. Other compounds from LOPP that could also act as ACE and
70 α -glucosidase inhibitors are soluble sugars as mannitol ^{8,9}. Minerals, like calcium, naturally present in
71 LOPP, have also been reported as potential inhibitors of α -glucosidase ¹¹.

72 LOPP composition and demonstration of its bioactive properties support the potential application of
73 this ingredient as a functional ingredient with antioxidant capacity and health benefits such as
74 antihypertensive and antidiabetic activities. Nevertheless, to guarantee LOPP health benefits, the
75 digestion impact on polyphenols, minerals and sugars needs to be evaluated to guarantee bioactives
76 bioaccessibility and related health benefits. Several studies have developed new functional
77 ingredients from OP¹⁸, namely bioactive extracts used as a source of health-protecting effects¹⁹ or
78 food preservatives²⁰ and powders, used on the formulation of bakery products²¹, snacks²² or pasta
79²³. Besides, these OP functional ingredients were obtained applying more elaborate processes or
80 using water/organic solvents, while LOPP was obtained using a simple fractionation process followed
81 by a drying step. However, only a few of these studies considered the impact of the gastrointestinal
82 tract on potential bioactivities of OP functional ingredients^{24–26}.

83 The *in vitro* simulation of gastrointestinal digestion (SGD) has been a valuable tool to analyse
84 changes, bioaccessibility and digestibility of bioactive compounds from functional foods. Several
85 differences are observed between *in vitro* models and *in vivo* studies. Nevertheless, SGD models
86 remain a useful and less expensive alternative to animal and human models for a rapid screening of
87 food ingredients; furthermore, *in vitro* techniques are ethically superior than *in vivo* techniques aligned
88 with EU directives^{27,28}.

89 The present study attempted to investigate (1) the bioaccessibility of sugars, minerals, polyphenols
90 and dietary fibre throughout SGD and (2) to demonstrate the potential antioxidant, antihypertensive
91 and antidiabetic activities after SGD. This is the first study that demonstrates the stability and
92 bioaccessibility of olive pomace liquid fraction (LOPP bioactive compounds) that constitute a critical
93 information because only bioavailable compounds can exert their biological function.

94

95 **2. Materials and methods**

96 **2.1 Chemicals and reagents**

97 The ABTS diammonium salt (2, 2-azinobis-3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid), 2,2-diphenyl-1-
98 picrylhydrazyl (DPPH), pancreatin, pepsin, formic acid, potassium sorbate, sodium carbonate,
99 trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), peptidyl-dipeptidase, α -glucosidase and all reagents of ACE and α -
100 glucosidase inhibitory activity assay were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Sintra, Portugal).
101 Acetonitrile and methanol were purchased from Fischer Scientific (Oeiras, Portugal). Folin-Ciocalteu's
102 reagent and potassium persulfate were purchased from Merck (Algés, Portugal). Bile salts are from
103 Oxoid™ (Hampshire, UK). Standards of Trolox, gallic acid, *p*-coumaric acid, vanillin, protocatechuic
104 acid, caffeic acid and quercetin were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Sintra, Portugal), whereas
105 hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol, luteolin were purchased from Extrasynthese (Lyon, France).

106 **2.2 Preparation of olive pomace water-soluble ingredient**

107 The OP was collected from an olive mill in Oliveira do Hospital, Portugal, being composed mainly by
108 the olive cultivar *Galega Vulgar* (80% of the olive heritage). Various samples were taken, transported
109 to the laboratory where they were mixed. The homogenous sample was packed in polyethene flasks
110 and kept in a freezer at - 80 °C until use.

111 OP was fractionated by centrifugation (10,000 ×g for 10 min). The liquid fraction was freeze-dried
112 (Telstar Lyo Quest HT 40) with 2% of mannitol (as a cryoprotectant and to prevent aggregation) and
113 the powder obtained was denominated liquid-enriched olive pomace powder (LOPP).

114 **2.3 *In vitro* digestion**

115 LOPP *in vitro* simulation of gastrointestinal digestion (SGD) (**Figure 1**) was performed according to
116 the method described by Madureira *et al.* (2011) and Costa *et al.*, (2019) with dialyses process to
117 simulate the intestinal and serum absorption^{31,32}. Mouth digestion was conducted with 0.6 mL of α-
118 amylase solution (100 U/mL) and incubation took place for 1 min, at 37 °C and 200 rpm. For gastric
119 digestion, the pH was adjusted to 2.0 with concentrated HCl (1 mol/L), and the mixture was incubated
120 with pepsin (25 mg/mL) (from porcine stomach mucosa, pepsin A), at a rate of 0.05 mL/mL of sample,
121 in a shaking bath, for 60 min at 37 °C. Small intestinal digestion was performed by adjusting pH to
122 6.0 with NaHCO₃ (1 mol/L), before the addition of pancreatin (from porcine pancreas, 2 g/L) and bile
123 salts (12 g/L), at a ratio of 0.25 mL/mL of sample, and further incubation of the mixture for an additional
124 120 min at 37 °C.

125 To screen the release of individual polyphenols from LOPP (1 g) at different stages of digestion,
126 samples were collected from the simulated mouth (ca. 4 mL), gastric digest (ca. 4 mL), and intestinal
127 digest (ca. 4mL) and used to make extracts to further perform polyphenols analysis.

128 In the last phase of intestinal digestion, a segment (10 cm) of dialysis tubing (3.5 kDa molecular
129 weight cut-off^{30,31}) filled with NaHCO₃ (1 M) was placed inside of screw-topped bottles filled with
130 digested samples and incubated for 2 h in a shaking water bath, at 37 °C and 50 rpm. The dialysis
131 process applied had as a goal, to be closer to the biologic process²⁷ and simulate, at least, the
132 passage by duodenum and jejunum³³.

133 At the end of the incubation process, the solution left outside the dialysis tubing (OUT) represented
134 the non-absorbable sample (colon-available), and the solution that managed to diffuse into the
135 dialysis tubing (IN) represents the sample that is available for absorption (serum-available).

136 All enzymes solutions were prepared fresh and filter-sterilised using a 0.22 µm-membrane filter. All
137 solutions were maintained in an ice bath during the entire period of gastrointestinal digestion
138 processes before gradual addition (when appropriate). Three replicas of the SGD were made. Two
139 replicas of blanks were prepared without sample and underwent using the same conditions. All stages
140 of digestion were lyophilised and stored for analysis of the compound's composition and potential
141 bioactivities. Blanks are used to correct the concentration of the compounds of the digested samples
142 analysed.

143 Several protocols of static *in vitro* simulation of digestion can be found in the literature³⁴. All these
144 protocols exhibit different conditions (e.g., pH, duration of each step, ratio of enzymes to substrate),
145 making the comparison between studies very difficult. Recently, it was implemented a standardized
146 static digestion model suitable for foods under the INFOGEST Cost Action^{28,34}. This INFOGEST
147 protocol, as the method adopted in this work, is also divided in oral phase, gastric phase and intestinal
148 phase. The main differences between the two methods are in the: execution of the enzyme activity
149 assays, composition of the simulated fluids for each digestion phase (use of a electrolyte stock
150 solutions), a longer time of gastric digestion (1h more), different pH on intestinal phase (pH 6 instead
151 pH 7), higher ratio of sample to digestive fluids (1:10 instead 1:1) and ratio of enzymes to sample.
152 The different digestion conditions the adopted protocol in this work compared to the INFOGEST
153 protocol could lead to different results. In the future works, the INFOGEST protocol should be applied
154 to harmonize the experimental conditions of the static *in vitro* simulation of gastrointestinal food
155 digestion.

156 **2.4 Stability and bioaccessibility of compounds through in vitro gastrointestinal** 157 **digestion**

158 **2.4.1. Recovery and bioaccessibility Index**

159 The results of each extract determination (on the sample, after mouth, gastric and intestinal digestion)
160 were reported to the 100 g of dry weight (DW) of LOPP.

161 Recovery index (RI %) and bioaccessibility index (BI %) were studied to evaluate the effect of the
162 matrix composition on the digestion of the main nutritional/bioactive components of LOPP compounds
163 and not only of phenolic groups. The values for LOPP before digestion were assumed as 100% of all
164 bioactive compounds and bioactivities of sample^{31,32}. At this point, it is essential to define the terms
165 “bioavailability” and “bioaccessibility carefully”. Bioavailability expresses the fraction of ingested
166 bioactive compound or nutrient that reaches the systemic circulation and finally utilised. Before
167 becoming bioavailable, bioactives must be released from the food matrix and modified in the
168 gastrointestinal tract. Thus, bioavailability includes the term bioaccessibility. Bioaccessibility is
169 described as the amount of a compound that is released from its matrix in the digestive tract,
170 becoming available for bloodstream absorption³⁵.

171 The percentage of recovery allows the determination of the amount of each main compound, on the
172 tested food, after oral, gastric and intestinal digestion, according to:

$$173 \text{ Recovery index (\%)} = (BC_{DF}/BC_{TF}) \times 100$$

174 Where: BC_{DF} is the bioactive content (mg) in the digested and BC_{TF} is the bioactive content (mg)
175 quantified in the test matrix.

176 The bioaccessibility is defined as the percentage of the bioactive compound that is solubilised after
177 intestinal dialysis step. Thus, this index defines the proportion of the bioactive compound that could
178 become available for absorption into the blood system:

179
$$\text{Bioaccessibility index (\%)} = (BC_S/BC_{DFE}) \times 100$$

180 where: BC_S is the bioactive content (mg) in the digested sample after the duodenal dialysis step (IN)
181 and BC_{DF} is the bioactive content (mg) in the digested sample after the duodenal step (IN + OUT) –
182 end of digestion.

183 **2.4.2. Sugars and organic acids**

184 Free sugar and organic acid profiles were determined using the lyophilised samples dissolved in
185 water at a concentration comprised between 50 and 70 mg/mL. The analyses were performed using
186 a Beckman Coulter System Gold HPLC (Knauer, Berlin, Germany) coupled to IR and UV detector
187 using Aminex 37-H column (Bio-rad, Berkeley, USA) at 55 °C and 35 mM H₂SO₄ as mobile phase
188 (flow rate: 0.5 mL/min). Both identification and quantification were achieved by comparison of the
189 relative retention times of sample peaks with standards, using a calibration curve in the range of
190 concentrations of 0.2-2.0 mg/mL.

191 **2.4.3. Minerals**

192 Mineral concentration was carried out following the methodology of Amorim *et al.* (2016), using an
193 optical emission spectrometer Model Optima 7000 DV™ ICP-OES (Dual View, PerkinElmer Life and
194 Analytical Sciences, Shelton, CT, USA) with a radial configuration and an amount of lyophilised
195 digested samples of 250 mg.

196 **2.4.4. Polyphenolic compounds**

197 Lyophilised samples were dissolved in methanol (between 20 and 200 mg/mL) to perform phenolics
198 analysis. Total phenolic content (TPC) of FPC and BPC extracts was determined according to the
199 Folin-Ciocalteu method³⁶. Results were expressed as mg gallic acid equivalents (GAE)/100 g DW.

200 The chromatographic analysis was performed using a Waters e2695 separation module system
201 interfaced with a Photodiode array UV/Vis detector (PDA 190-600 nm). The separation was
202 conducted in a reverse-phase column (COSMOSIL 5C1 8-AR-II Packed Column – 4.6 mm I.D. × 250
203 mm; Dartford, UK). The flow rate, gradient program and mobile phases used following the Oliveira *et al.*
204 (2015). Compound detection was performed at specific wavelengths: 280, 320 and 360 nm, while
205 data acquisition and analysis were accomplished using Software Empower 3. Identification of main
206 phenolic compounds in methanol was performed by comparison of retention times, spectra and peak
207 areas at maximum absorption wavelength.

208 The complete profile of phenolic compounds and its derivatives through SGD was also analysed in an
209 LC-ESI-UHR-QqTOF-MS following the methodology of Monforte *et al.* (2018) with some modifications
210 in the gradient elution program to obtain a good separation of phenolic compounds. Mobile phases
211 were 0.1% aqueous formic acid (A) and acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid (B). The gradient elution
212 program used was the following: 0–5 min (5 % B); 5–25 min (15 % B); 25–35 min (30 %); 35–40 min
213 (95 % B), 40–41 (5 % B) and 41–42 min (0 % B). Identification of main phenolic compounds was
214 based on the retention time, UV-Vis and mass spectra with those obtained from the standard

215 solutions, when available. The other peaks were tentatively identified comparing the information with
216 available data reported in the literature. The elemental composition for these compounds was
217 confirmed according to accurate mass (5 mDa), and isotope rate calculations designated mSigma
218 (<20) (Bruker Daltonics).

219 The UV-visible absorption spectra acquired with DAD detector was used to identify and classify the
220 phenolic compounds. DAD is currently the most widely available and commonly used technique for
221 routine qualitative and quantitative analyses of these metabolites. The combination of these data with
222 mass spectra (MS) data and information from the respective literature or comparison with standard
223 compounds can be used for tentative identification of each peak in a chromatogram.

224 The main phenolic compounds identified (3-hydroxytyrosol, protocatechuic acid, tyrosol, vanillin,
225 caffeic and *p*-coumaric acid) were quantified by HPLC using external calibration curves created based
226 on their maximum UV signal. The results were expressed as mg/100 g DW. Some compounds were
227 expressed as equivalents of its the basic constituent: hydroxytyrosol glucoside was expressed as
228 hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol glucoside was expressed as tyrosol, verbascoside and caffeoyl-6'-
229 secologanoside were expressed as caffeic acid equivalents ³⁹.

230 **2.4.5. Fibre composition**

231 The digested sample was filtered using a sintered glass crucible (no. 2). The insoluble dietary fibre
232 (IDF) was retained in the crucible, and the supernatant was saved for soluble dietary fibre (SDF)
233 analysis. IDF was washed twice with 10 mL of distilled water, and the supernatants were combined
234 for determining SDF. IDF residue was washed once with 20 mL of 96 % ethanol, followed by 20 mL
235 of acetone twice, and then dried overnight at 100 °C (ash and protein were corrected during this step).
236 The filtrate was purified by dialysis (dialysis tube with a molecular weight cut-off of 3.5 kDa) to obtain
237 the SDF. The dialysis was applied to avoid the error caused by the precipitation of dietary fibre with
238 ethanol ^{40,41}. Afterwards, SDF was recovered by dialysate freeze-drying. The results were expressed
239 as total dietary fibre (TDF), IDF and SDF g/100 g DW.

240 Sugar composition of SDF was achieved by acid hydrolysis (6 % sulfuric acid) at 121 °C for 1 h (29).
241 The hydrolysate is used for quantifying uronic acids (UA) and neutral sugars (NS). NS were
242 determined by HPLC (micro guard column: Aminex Carbo-P, Bio-Rad; carbohydrate analysis column:
243 Aminex HPX-87P heavy metal, 300–7.8 mm, Bio-Rad; flow rate: 0.6 mL/min; detector: refractive
244 index), and UA was determined colourimetrically by adapting the 3-hydroxydiphenyl method of
245 Blumenkrantz & Asboe-Hansen (1973) with *d*-galacturonic acid as standard. The sum of NS and UA
246 was taken as the amount of SDF in LOPP after the SGD.

247 Polyphenol compounds were released from SDF using a hydrolysis process with 4 mol/L NaOH at
248 room temperature, according to Xie *et al.* (2015). The extract obtained was dissolved in methanol and
249 named "SDF bound polyphenol compounds" (SDF-BPC). Aliquots of the hydrolysates were used for
250 spectrophotometric measurement using Folin-Ciocalteu, antioxidant activity and to identify the
251 phenolic compounds by HPLC and LC-ESI-UHR-QqTOF-MS.

252 **2.5 Effect of *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion on bioactivities**

253 **2.5.1. Antioxidant activity: ABTS, DPPH e ORAC**

254 The antioxidant activity of LOPP during the SGD was achieved according to the methods of DPPH[•]
255 ⁴⁴, ABTS^{•+} ⁴⁵ and ORAC ⁴⁶ using a multi-detection plate reader (Synergy H1, Vermont, USA). The
256 radical stock solutions were freshly prepared. Lyophilised samples were dissolved in methanol to
257 obtain a concentration comprised between 20 and 200 mg/mL. All analyses were performed in
258 triplicate and expressed in mM of Trolox-equivalents (TE)/ g DW.

259

260 **2.5.2. Antihypertensive activity (ACE-inhibitory activity)**

261 The *in vitro* ACE-inhibitory activity was measured using the fluorimetric assay of Sentandreu and
262 Toldrá (2006) ⁴⁷ with some modifications. A total of 40 µL of ultrapure water or ACE working solution
263 was added to each microplate well, then adjusted to 80 µL by adding ultrapure water to a blank (BLK),
264 control (CTL) or samples (SPL). The enzyme reaction was started with the addition of 160 µL of the
265 substrate solution, and the mixture was incubated at 37 °C. The fluorescence generated was
266 measured during 30 min using a multi-detection plate reader (Synergy H1, Vermont, USA). The assay
267 was performed in a black 96-well microplate (Nunc, Denmark). Excitation and emission wavelengths
268 used were 350 and 420 nm, respectively.

269 The inhibitory activity was expressed as inhibited % of the maximum ACE activity. The equation
270 applied to calculate de percentage of ACE-inhibitory was the following:

$$271 \quad iACE \text{ inhibition (\%)} = [(F_{CTL} - F_{BLK}) - (F_{SPL} - F_{SPLB})] \times [100 / (F_{CTL} - F_{BLK})]$$

272 **2.5.3. Antidiabetic activity (α-glucosidase inhibitory activity)**

273 The α-glucosidase inhibitory activity was determined in 96 well plates according to the method
274 described by Kwon *et al.* (2006). The sample (50 µL), was mixed with 100 µL of 0.1 M phosphate
275 buffer (pH 6.9) containing α-Glucosidase solution (1.0 U/mL) and pre-incubated at 25 °C for 10 min.
276 Then, 50 µL of 5 mM p-nitrophenyl-α-D-glucopyranoside solution in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.9)
277 was added to each line and absorbance was read. Afterwards, substrate was added, and the
278 absorbance was reread. The reaction mixtures were incubated at 25 °C for 5 min, and the absorbance
279 readings were recorded at 405 nm by a multi-detection plate reader (Synergy H1, Vermont, USA). As
280 a negative control, 50 µL of buffer solution was used to replace the sample. Acarbose was used as a
281 positive control at the concentration of 10 mg/mL. A blank without the enzyme (used 100 µL of 0.1
282 mol/L phosphate buffer instead) was performed for each sample.

283 The α-Glucosidase inhibitory activity was expressed as inhibition (%) and was calculated as follows:

$$284 \quad \alpha\text{-Glucosidase inhibition (\%)} = [(\Delta Abs \text{ control} - \Delta Abs \text{ sample}) / \Delta Abs \text{ control}] \times 100$$

285 Where ΔAbs control is the variation of absorbance of the control and ΔAbs sample is the variation of
286 absorbance of the samples.

287 2.6 Statistical analysis

288 R software was used to carry out statistical analyses. All experiments were carried out in triplicates
289 and data was reported as mean \pm standard deviation. Shapiro - Wilk test tested the normality of data
290 distribution. The differences of mean values among a concentration of bioactive compounds or
291 bioactivities obtained in the different steps of the *in vitro* SGD were analysed by one-way analysis of
292 variance (ANOVA). The Tukey's *post hoc* test was applied for comparisons of means, and differences
293 were considered significant at $p < 0.05$. Correlation analysis was performed between bioactive
294 compounds contents and bioactivities of LOPP using Pearson correlation analysis.

295

296 3. Results and Discussion

297 3.1 Stability and bioaccessibility of compounds throughout *in vitro* 298 gastrointestinal digestion

299 3.1.1. Soluble sugars and organic acids

300 Soluble sugars and organic acids concentration through SGD are described in **Figure 2**. Observing
301 this figure is it possible to see that one of the main components detected in LOPP were soluble
302 sugars. Sugars identified in LOPP were mannitol > glucose > fructose. Lactic and acetic acid were
303 detected in LOPP, but the most significant organic acid identified was formic acid.

304 The predominant sugar present in LOPP, mannitol, is a polyol widely used as a reduced-calorie
305 sweetener (Acceptable Dietary Intake of 0–50 mg/kg), but can also exert other technological functions
306 in food, such as: a preservative preventing oxidative damage of food components, and increasing the
307 food shelf life by reducing sugar crystallisation⁴⁹. Regarding health benefits, mannitol requires no
308 insulin for its metabolism, which makes of it a potential glycaemic control agent, especially for diabetic
309 individuals. Recently, mannitol was suggested as a dietary supplement in controlling postprandial
310 blood glucose by inhibition of α -glucosidase activity, α -amylase activity, glucose absorption, etc.⁹.

311 Formic acid as an organic acid reduces pH value in the stomach, enhancing pepsin activity and
312 consequently, increasing digestibility of nitrogen, phosphorus and minerals⁵⁰. Besides that, formic
313 acid has a key role in the production of colonic acetate by acetogenic bacteria through the Wood–
314 Ljungdahl pathway⁵¹. Therefore, assessing sugar and formic acid bioaccessibility during
315 physiological stages allows the identification of valuable indicators for the evaluation of their potential
316 health properties.

317 The recovery index (RI) of soluble sugars and organic acids through SGD is described in **Table 1**.
318 The recovery of soluble sugars and formic acid from LOPP showed similar behaviour throughout the
319 SGD. In the mouth, RI was between 59 % and 62 %, then in stomach ranged between 36-47 % and
320 in the intestine the values remained similar (RI = 39-47 %). As an effect of SGD, the concentration of
321 sugars and organic acids was reduced to half in the mouth and decreased even more in the stomach.
322 On the mouth, the surface area increases and multiple interactions can occur between sugars,

323 minerals and polyphenol due to LOPP composition^{32,52}. The highest reduction of sugars and organic
324 acids had place in the stomach as a result of acidic conditions (pH=2) and improvement of pepsin
325 activity by formic acid⁵⁰.

326 A significant increase in RI values was observed after the simulation of intestinal absorption phase.
327 This sugar increase might be related to the breakdown of α -(1→4)-glycosidic bonds and other
328 linkages by action of amylase present in pancreatin enzyme and the consequent liberation of
329 monosaccharides⁵³. The isomerisation of some of the glucose into fructose could justify the higher
330 RI of fructose. On the other hand, the occurrence of oxidation processes might explain the increase
331 of formic acid during this SGD phase. Formic acid is commonly produced by oxidation processes in
332 olive oil⁵⁴.

333 Regarding the accessibility of the serum available fraction (IN), the uptake was between 14-18 % for
334 sugars and organic acids, and bioaccessibility indexes (BI) exhibited slightly higher values (Table 1).
335 Formic acid revealed the highest BI (23.88 ± 2.51 %) and fructose the lowest BI (15.92 ± 3.93 %).
336 After SGD, formic acid was the most bioaccessible compound. On the other hand, mannitol was less
337 affected by SGD digestion until intestine (RI = 46.40 ± 0.99 %) and was the most bioaccessible sugar
338 (BI = 19.86 ± 2.37 %). At the end of digestion, 52.42 ± 1.63 mg/g LOPP DW of mannitol (**Figure 2**)
339 were available to exert its functional benefits.

340 Higher recovery index values of soluble sugars and organic acids were attained in colon available
341 fraction (OUT). Fructose (89.32 ± 11.42 %) and mannitol (71.43 ± 8.72 %) exhibited higher RI values,
342 followed by glucose (61.52 ± 7.56 %) and formic acid (43.11 ± 2.32 %). Despite the higher RI of
343 fructose, mannitol (214.08 ± 26.13 mg/g LOPP DW) and glucose (75.55 ± 9.28 mg/g LOPP DW) were
344 the predominant sugars on the colon (**Figure 2**). Mannitol has been used in medicine to promote
345 digestive and urinary excretion of toxins (orally in combination with activated charcoal by
346 gastroclysis), as an enema to prepare the bowel for gastrointestinal procedures and also to reduce
347 hepatic encephalopathy. Intestinal mannitol could increase the molarity of intestinal lumen, decrease
348 hyperammonemia (hepatic inability to remove nitrogenous products generated by protein metabolism
349 of intestinal microbiota) and reduce oxidative stress (excessive production of reactive oxygen
350 species)⁵⁵. These potential effects could also be expected with the ingestion of LOPP, due to the
351 higher amount of mannitol available in colon.

352 Regarding the high amount of formic acid retained in the colon, formic acid could be used by gut
353 microbiota to produce colonic acetate through the Wood–Ljungdahl pathway⁵¹, which could have
354 potential health benefits in several organs⁵⁶.

355

356 3.1.2. Minerals

357 The concentration of minerals (phosphorus, magnesium, calcium and potassium) throughout the
358 SGD is presented in **Figure 2**. Minerals have several potential health benefits. Potassium was the

359 predominant mineral in LOPP (5.431 ± 0.11 g/100 g DW). Other minerals, like phosphorus,
360 magnesium, calcium and sodium, were also detected. Potassium is well-known to have a positive
361 effect on the maintenance of normal blood pressure, and consequently, associated with the
362 prevention of cardiovascular disease⁵⁷. The EFSA considers that a potassium intake of 3.5 g/day
363 has beneficial effects on blood pressure in adults⁵⁷. Therefore, the high amount of potassium makes
364 of LOPP a potential agent for cardiovascular diseases. Besides that, minerals have been correlated
365 positively with antioxidant proprieties¹². Still, to ensure the potential health benefits of minerals from
366 LOPP, it is essential to assess its bioaccessibility after SGD.

367 Minerals were considerably affected by the SGD in all phases and, as a result, the intestinal RI ranged
368 between 13-17 % (calcium < magnesium < phosphorus < potassium) (**Table 1**). The amount of
369 minerals that reached the gut was significantly lower than the amount present in the initial LOPP (p
370 < 0.05), as observed in **Figure 2**. A similar negative effect of *in vitro* digestion on minerals was
371 reported by Costa *et al.*, (2019) in grape pomace extract.

372 The bioaccessibility of all minerals was also negatively affected by SGD. Calcium was not
373 bioaccessible, phosphorus and magnesium exhibited similar low BI values (≈ 35 -36 %). Only
374 potassium was detected in higher amounts in the serum available fraction (IN) than in the colon
375 available fraction (OUT), presenting a BI of 57.42 ± 3.18 %. The bioaccessibility of minerals is
376 influenced by many factors, which may enhance or inhibit their absorption, of the human diet.
377 Generally, polyphenols and dietary fibres are the main inhibitors of the absorption, while organic acids
378 act as enhancers. Therefore, the low recovery and bioaccessibility of minerals in LOPP could be
379 linked to its high amount of polyphenols. Generally, polyphenols reduce the absorption of minerals
380 by chelation mechanisms leading to the sequestration of minerals. For example, calcium and
381 magnesium bioaccessibility has been negatively correlated with polyphenol content in whole grain
382 tea-biscuits⁵⁸.

383 Potassium has been significantly affected by SGD. Only 6.91 ± 0.09 mg of potassium was delivered
384 by 1 g of LOPP. This amount of potassium represents only ≈ 0.2 % of the dietary reference value
385 established (3.5 g of potassium/day) by the EFSA to have beneficial effects on blood pressure^{57,59}.
386 However, when integrated into an equilibrated diet, LOPP could help reach the potassium intake of 3.5
387 g (90 mmol)/day which has beneficial effects on blood pressure and reduces the risk of stroke in
388 adults, without adverse effects on heart function or undesirable gastrointestinal symptoms^{57,59}.
389 However, future *in vivo* studies need to be done to validate the uptake of potassium that is regulated
390 by several mechanisms⁶⁰.

391

392 3.1.3. Polyphenolic compounds

393 Total phenolic compound (TPC) content of LOPP was determined using spectrophotometric Folin-
394 Ciocalteu method (**Figure 3**). Individual phenolic compounds of LOPP before and after *in vitro*

395 digestion were identified by using HPLC-DAD and LC-ESI-UHR-QqTOF-MS detection (Table 2). The
396 main individual phenolics were quantified by HPLC-DAD (**Figure 3**).

397 TPC amount of LOPP decreased significantly after the SGD. An evident decrease of TPC occurred
398 in the mouth phase (RI 6 %) followed by a slight increase in the stomach (RI 13 %) and a decrease
399 in the intestine (RI 4 %). This pronounced negative effect of SGD on olive polyphenols has also been
400 reported to olive tables ⁶¹.

401 The TPC increment on stomach could be explained by the increase of hydroxytyrosol, *p*-coumaric
402 and caffeic acid. In this phase of the digestion there was also the detection of other derivative
403 compounds by LC-ESI-UHR-QqTOF-MS. One example of this was the ion at TR = 7.5 with m/z
404 315.1085 which may have the formula C₁₄H₂₀O₈ (error = -0.2 mDa, mSigma = 7.3), corresponding to
405 an isomer of hydroxytyrosol glucoside. Furthermore, during SGD, pH has a vital role as a protector
406 of polyphenols against degradation in the stomach (acidic conditions) and as a promotor of
407 degradation in the small intestine (mild alkaline conditions) ⁶².

408 During the intestinal absorption phase, an increase of TPC was observed principally in the serum
409 available fraction (IN), which could be explained by the additional contact time of the material with the
410 intestinal fluids and intestinal digestive enzymes (plus 2 h after the small intestine phase). This
411 additional contact time facilitates the release of polyphenols linked to the matrix by the action of
412 enzymes present in pancreatin (extract from porcine pancreas composed by proteolytic, lipolytic,
413 amylolytic, and nucleic acid splitting enzymes). A similar effect was also observed for apple
414 polyphenols ⁶³.

415 Regarding LOPP individual polyphenols, the results obtained by HPLC were in line with TPC results.
416 High correlation coefficients ($r^2 \geq 0.9$) between TPC and individual phenolics throughout SGD were
417 obtained. Hydroxytyrosol and caffeic acids exhibited better correlation with TPC ($r^2 = 0.99$), followed
418 by hydroxytyrosol glucoside and caffeoyl-6'-secologanoside ($r^2 = 0.98$). Tyrosol ($r^2 = 0.90$) and tyrosol
419 glucoside ($r^2 = 0.93$) revealed a lower correlation with TPC.

420 The high correlation of some individual phenolics with TPC was evident when the recovery indexes
421 of individual phenolics was analysed (**Table 1**). For example, hydroxytyrosol content decreased in
422 the mouth (RI = 7.52 %) followed by an increase in the stomach (RI = 10.27 %), and a considerable
423 decrease in the small intestine phase (RI = 0.73 %) and a slight increase after the intestinal absorption
424 phase in the serum bioaccessible fraction (IN) (RI = 1.47 %). As shown above, TPC and
425 hydroxytyrosol had a similar behaviour throughout SGD simulation. On the other hand, tyrosol
426 glucoside, tyrosol and *p*-coumaric acid were not so highly correlated with TPC, mainly due to its high
427 amount in the serum-bioaccessible fraction (IN) which led to higher RI values (36-48%).

428 An essential class of phenolic compounds belonging to elenolic-acid derivatives was also identified
429 by LC-ESI-UHR-QqTOF-MS. Elenolic acid is formed, together with the hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol, and
430 glucose, by hydrolysis of oleuropein ⁶⁴. Among these, hydrated and hydroxylated products of
431 dialdehydic form of decarboxymethyl-elenolic acid and aldehydic form of decarboxymethyl-elenolic

432 acid were found in all LOPP digestion phases. All elenolic-acid derivatives have been previously
433 reported in olive-oil wastes⁶⁵. Elenolic acid derivatives are the most potent antimicrobial compounds
434 in olive and may exert potential health benefits in the gut⁶⁴. Another compound with potential
435 antioxidant and antimicrobial action identified by LC-ESI-UHR-QqTOF-MS was quinic acid. Quinic
436 acid has demonstrated to be an antioxidant agent and, together with other acids, to act as an inhibitor
437 of virulence traits of oral pathogens⁶⁶.

438 Besides the negative effect of SGD on hydroxytyrosol and derivatives, the phenolic compounds
439 mentioned above exhibited the highest bioaccessibility indexes (**Table 1**), being hydroxytyrosol the
440 most bioaccessible compound (BI 82.10 ± 2.59 %) followed by tyrosol (77.79 ± 2.03 %). Some studies
441 have studied the effect of the gastrointestinal tract on olive polyphenols, but most of these studies
442 have been carried out with olive oil⁶⁷ or with table olives⁶¹. Seiquer *et al.*, (2015) reported that, in
443 olive oil, the most bioaccessible and stable compounds after *in vitro* digestion were also tyrosol and
444 hydroxytyrosol. Other studies explored the bioaccessibility, and potential bioavailability of
445 polyphenols from olive leaf extracts⁶⁸, but OP extracts bioaccessibility has been less examined.
446 Rubió *et al.*, (2014) assessed the bioaccessibility of phenolic compounds using the gastrointestinal
447 *in vitro* model and cell models from an OP extract, a thyme extract and a conjugation of both. In this
448 study, the bioaccessibility of hydroxytyrosol and secoiridoids from OP extract and the conjugation of
449 both extracts was 13.3% and 23.0%, respectively. Results also indicated that the bioaccessibility of
450 hydroxytyrosol was enhanced by thyme and no significant differences were observed in
451 hydroxytyrosol transport after Caco-2 cells exposure.

452 Taking into account the positive health claim approved by EFSA, the recommended consumption for
453 hydroxytyrosol and derivatives is 5 mg/day⁵⁷. Based on the results of the present study, the levels of
454 LOPP ingested directly as nutraceutical allowed to estimate that a daily dose of 5.2 g was enough to
455 deliver 5 mg to human blood. However, as a food ingredient, the food matrix may play a crucial role
456 in LOPP phenolics' bioaccessibility, affecting its absorption positively or negatively. Consequently, it
457 is needed to study the effect of SGD using cellular or *in vivo* models and after LOPP incorporation in
458 different food matrixes to clarify LOPP phenolics' bioaccessibility.

459

460 **3.1.4. Dietary fibre**

461 The amount of dietary fibre (DF) present in LOPP and its composition (neutral sugars, uronic acids
462 and phenolics) throughout SGD are showed in **Table 3**. In the LOPP fraction, soluble dietary fibre
463 (SDF) represents 9% of its composition. SDF has an essential role in health. As a relevant component
464 of LOPP, SDF could confer intestinal health benefits like, the capacity to slow intestinal transit, to
465 delay gastric emptying and to slow glucose/sterol absorption⁶⁹. Nonetheless, the beneficial effects of
466 DF depend not only of its solubility in water but also on (i) fibre composition, (ii) the bioactive
467 compounds associated with it, mainly polyphenolic compounds which are directly related to the
468 antioxidant properties⁷⁰ and (iii) the changes produced during gastrointestinal digestion.

469 The effect of the SGD on dietary fibre had a meaningful impact on SDF and all its fibre components.
470 The simulated mastication and stomach digestion lead, probably, to a higher vegetable cell rupture,
471 and compounds release ⁷¹ which reflected in lower SDF amount after the SGD. Uronic acids and
472 neutral sugars decreased significantly after the SGD, except for glucose that increased significantly.
473 In the SGD, glucose was the predominant neutral sugar (37.73 ± 3.44 mg/g fibre DW) followed by
474 galactose and arabinose. The action of the tract enzymes of SGD probably led to the release of
475 polysaccharides rich in glucose by the cleavage of glycosidic bonds ⁵¹.

476 The amount of bound phenolic compounds was also affected by the SGD, being the decrease in TPC
477 amount linked to fibre (**Table 3**), in comparison to the AOAC method. Nonetheless, the amount of
478 total phenolic compounds related to fibre was considerable when expressed per 100 g of LOPP
479 (33.60 ± 3.15 mg GAE / 100 g DW). The identification, by LC-ESI-UHR-QqTOF-MS (**Table 2**) and
480 quantification by HPLC (**Figure 4**), of bound phenolics in SDF obtained by AOAC and after SGD
481 allowed to explain the differences in TPC. Regarding hydroxytyrosol and its derivatives, only tyrosol
482 glucoside was identified in SDF after SGD. On the other hand, 4-hydroxybenzoic acid was only
483 detected in SDF after SGD. The higher release of compounds after SGD hypothesised could explain
484 the no detection of hydroxytyrosol and its higher liberation from fibre and consecutive decarboxylation
485 (α -oxidation dihydroxylation) into protocatechuic acid followed by dihydroxylation into 4-
486 hydroxybenzoic acid ⁷². A higher concentration of *p*-coumaric was also exhibited by SDF after SGD,
487 which might be related to SDF higher glucose composition. The linkage between *p*-coumaric and
488 glucose-rich polysaccharides has been verified in several *p*-coumaric extraction studies⁷³.

489 Concerning the antioxidant activity of bound phenolics in SDF (**Figure 4**), as for the TPC, the values
490 were higher when using the AOAC method than after the SGD. Only the antioxidant potential by
491 DPPH was not negatively affected by the gastrointestinal tract.

492 The significant amount of phenolics and antioxidant potential of SDF, although not bioaccessible,
493 could exert antioxidant and antimicrobial activity to improve the gut health ^{74,75}.

494 **3.2 Effect of *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion on bioactivities**

495 **3.2.1. Antioxidant activity: ABTS, DPPH e ORAC**

496 The results obtained in the *in vitro* ABTS, DPPH and ORAC assays showed evidence that LOPP
497 antioxidant activity was negatively affected by SGD (**Figure 5**). In all tests, non-digested LOPP
498 presented higher antioxidant capacity than the digested LOPP available, to be assimilated, in the
499 small intestine, ($p < 0.05$).

500 Correlation of antioxidant results from ABTS and DPPH ($r^2 = 0.97$) and from ABTS and ORAC (r^2
501 $= 0.97$) were higher than with DPPH and ORAC ($r^2 = 0.96$]. On the other hand, ABTS values were
502 slightly higher than DPPH, and ORAC values were much higher than the values obtained by DPPH
503 and ABTS. Similar differences were also observed in previous works reporting antioxidant assays for
504 olives ⁷⁶ and OP ⁷⁷. These differences probably arise from different mechanisms to measure the

505 antioxidant capacity of each methodology. According to the chemical reaction used, methods can be
506 mainly grouped into 2 classes: electron transfer (ET) and hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) based
507 methods. ET methods measure the ability of a potent antioxidant to transfer 1 electron to reduce
508 radicals and HAT methods measure the ability of an antioxidant to quench free radicals by hydrogen
509 donation. DPPH/ABTS assays are examples of the ET methods and ORAC is a HAT method. DPPH
510 and ABTS capture are based on oxide-reduction reactions, so it is normal the similarity of its results.
511 However, ABTS allows the measure of antioxidant activity of hydrophilic and lipophilic compounds,
512 but DPPH can only be dissolved in organic media (especially in alcoholic media), not in aqueous
513 media, which is an important limitation when interpreting the role of hydrophilic antioxidants ⁷⁸. The
514 limitation of the antioxidant evaluation of the hydrophilic compounds using DPPH could explain its
515 lower results. On the other hand, ORAC assay is based on the reaction of water and lipid-soluble
516 substances with peroxy free radical from ROS generator AAPH ((2,2'-azobis(2-
517 methylpropionamide) dihydrochloride)) ⁷⁹, which can explain the higher correlation of ORAC/ABTS.
518 To interpret the antioxidant activity results, it is imperative to understand the mechanism of action and
519 limitations of each antioxidant activity.

520 A higher loss of antioxidant capacity occurred in the small intestinal phase, which was more evident
521 in ABTS (RI 7%), followed by DPPH (RI 13%) and lastly on ORAC (26 %). However, after the
522 simulated intestinal absorption, ORAC values (57.82 ± 1.27 %) remained at higher proportion in the
523 serum-available fraction (IN) than in the colon-available fraction (OUT). However, in ABTS ($37.02 \pm$
524 1.56 %) and DPPH (18.23 ± 2.12 %) only a small proportion of the total antioxidant activity at the end
525 of the digestion (IN + OUT) was detected in the serum-available fraction. The compounds evaluated
526 by ABTS or ORAC were more bioaccessible, which could be linked to the higher hydrophilic nature
527 of the antioxidants present in LOPP serum available fraction ⁸⁰. Despite the loss of a significant
528 amount of antioxidant potential after SGD, the bioaccessible LOPP fraction represents a good source
529 of antioxidant compounds (ABTS: 12.25 ± 0.76 mM TE/g DW; DPPH: 2.75 ± 0.15 mM TE/g DW;
530 ORAC: 147.60 ± 10.99 mM TE/g DW).

531 Several works reported that phenolic compounds largely contribute to the antioxidant properties
532 presenting the occurrence of good correlations between these compounds and antioxidant activity ³¹.
533 ORAC exhibited a better correlation with TPC ($r^2 = 0.98$) followed by ABTS ($r^2 = 0.97$) and DPPH (r^2
534 $= 0.97$). The good correlations of antioxidant activity methodologies with TPC demonstrate that
535 phenolic compounds are the main contributors of the antioxidant properties of LOPP. In addition, it
536 was demonstrated that hydroxytyrosol ($r^2 \geq 0.97$), caffeic acid ($r^2 \geq 0.96$), caffeoyl-6'-secologanoside
537 ($r^2 \geq 0.96$), hydroxytyrosol glucoside ($r^2 \geq 0.93$) and *p*-coumaric acid ($r^2 \geq 0.91$) were highly correlated
538 with antioxidant capacity. However, tyrosol glucoside ($r^2 \geq 0.82$) and tyrosol ($r^2 \geq 0.73$) exhibited good
539 correlations with antioxidant methodologies, but not as strong.

540 The different correlations coefficients between individual polyphenols and the antioxidant assays
541 used were related to polyphenol chemical structure. For example, the antioxidant action of tyrosol is
542 only as hydroxyl radical scavenger or at most α -tocopherol regenerator ⁸¹. None of the mechanism of

543 the action of tyrosol was individually evaluated by antioxidant assays used. So, the lower correlation
544 of tyrosol and tyrosol glucoside with TPC ($r^2 \geq 0.90$) compared to the other LOPP phenolics ($r^2 \geq 0.97$)
545 might be related to the limited antioxidant effect of these compounds (only carry one hydroxyl group
546 in *para*-position)⁸¹. Folin–Ciocalteu procedure could also be interpreted as an alternative way to
547 measure the total reducing capacity of the sample as the reagent reacts with any reducing substance
548⁸².

549 Not only polyphenol compounds influence the antioxidant activity through gastrointestinal tract, but
550 also, minerals could have an important role in antioxidant activity of digested LOPP¹². Minerals were
551 strongly correlated with ABTS⁺, DPPH and ORAC ($r^2 \geq 0.97$). This correlation between antioxidant
552 activity and metals is related to the ability of metals to react with phenolic compounds to form complex
553 compounds that can increase or decrease antioxidant properties⁸³.

554 Despite the negative effect of the SGD in LOPP antioxidant activity (until the small intestine phase)
555 and in the bioaccessibility, an increase of the antioxidant activity was revealed during the intestinal
556 absorption phase by ABTS and ORAC methods, mainly on the non-bioaccessible fraction (OUT). As
557 emphasised before, the 2 h extra of contact of LOPP with intestinal fluids and intestinal digestive
558 enzymes during the dialysis process, may have facilitated the release of antioxidant components in
559 the colon fraction. Besides that, the possibility of interaction between phenolics and minerals could
560 explain the high antioxidant activity by ABTS and DPPH on the OUT fraction. This higher antioxidant
561 activity of LOPP in the colon after the whole digestion may play a significant role in the decrease of
562 local oxidative stress and improving microbiota composition, consequently improving gut permeability
563 and boosting anti-inflammatory/immunity mechanisms⁷⁴.

564 The variation in LOPP antioxidant activity (by different assays) throughout the SGD allowed an
565 understanding that phenolic compounds bioaccessibility has an essential role in antioxidant activity.
566 However, the possible formation of metal-polyphenol complexes causes changes in the molecular
567 size and in the electronic charge distribution in the ligand molecule and consequently alters its
568 bioaccessibility and antioxidant functions⁸⁴. Thus, these chelating roles observed in LOPP besides
569 having a negative effect on the bioaccessibility might be of potential interest as dietary antioxidants
570⁸⁴. Future studies to establish a better correlation between minerals and polyphenols regarding its
571 antioxidant activity and bioaccessibility will be needed to design a more effective functional ingredient
572 from LOPP.

573

574 3.2.2. Antihypertensive and antidiabetic activity

575 LOPP exhibited a higher ACE inhibitory activity (91.98 ± 3.24 %) and a higher α -glucosidase inhibitory
576 activity (87.77 ± 1.04 %), using a tested dose (50 mg/mL) (**Figure 5**). As an effect of the SGD, ACE
577 (RI 31 %) and α -glucosidase (RI 50 %) inhibitory activity decreased significantly in small intestine
578 phase ($p < 0.05$). In the case of ACE inhibitory activity, a considerable increase occurred during the
579 dialysis process. The highest release of bioactive compounds during the dialysis process allowed the

580 recovery of 57% of LOPP initial ACE inhibitory activity in the serum available fraction and the retention
581 of 71% of that initial potential in the OUT fraction. Even though, after SGD, more or less of 50% ACE
582 inhibitory activity was measured in the serum-available fraction (IN). Regarding α -glucosidase
583 inhibitory activity, at least 50 % of the initial potential of LOPP was verified in the small intestine,
584 where α -glucosidase hydrolyses the disaccharides into simple sugars, facilitating sugar intestinal
585 absorption⁸⁵. Using the tested dose (50 mg/mL) of LOPP, at least 43 % of the activity of α -glucosidase
586 could be inhibited. As a conclusion, at least 50 % of both inhibitory activities of LOPP were maintained
587 after SGD.

588 As reported by several studies, plants polyphenols have potential ACE¹⁶, and α -glucosidase inhibition
589 capacity⁸⁴. TPC was significantly correlated with α -glucosidase ($r^2 = 0.69$). Indeed, the high
590 degradation of LOPP phenolic compounds verified after gastrointestinal tract seems to influence the
591 α -glucosidase inhibitory activity negatively. Between the LOPP phenolics, *p*-coumaric acid was highly
592 correlated with α -glucosidase inhibitory activity ($r^2 = 0.70$), but substantial correlation was also found
593 between hydroxytyrosol ($r^2 = 0.62$), caffeic acid ($r^2 = 0.64$) and caffeoyl-6'-secologanoside ($r^2 = 0.74$)
594 with the α -glucosidase inhibitory activity. However, tyrosol and its glucoside were weakly correlated
595 with α -glucosidase inhibitory activity ($r^2 < 0.30$). Similar interactions have been reported for olive oils
596^{4,5,7,86}.

597 ACE inhibitory activity was also relatively influenced by the loss and low bioaccessibility of phenolic
598 compounds (TPC) throughout the SGD ($r^2 = 0.65$). In previous studies, ACE inhibitory activity of
599 different polyphenols was variable and dependent of its chemical structure¹⁶. For example, phenolic
600 acids as hydroxytyrosol ($r^2 = 0.62$), tyrosol ($r^2 = 0.61$) and its derivatives, hydroxytyrosol glucoside (r^2
601 = 0.62) and tyrosol glucoside ($r^2 = 0.68$), were probably key compounds to explain ACE inhibitory
602 activity of the bioaccessible fraction (IN). Similar results were observed in previous works in olive oil
603¹⁴. On the other hand, the presence of caffeic acid¹⁶ in the non-bioaccessible fraction (OUT) explains,
604 in part, its high ACE inhibitory activity ($r^2 = 0.73$).

605 Nevertheless, not only phenolic compounds inhibit α -glucosidase and ACE activity, mannitol^{9,10} and
606 glucose⁸ from LOPP could also have a substantial role as reported in previous works. A high
607 correlation between α -glucosidase inhibitory activity and mannitol or glucose was attained ($r^2 \geq 0.86$).
608 But, regarding ACE inhibitory activity, a lower correlation with mannitol and glucose was observed (r^2
609 ≥ 0.58). Therefore, other compounds besides polyphenols and sugars could be present in LOPP and
610 influence ACE inhibitory activity. Among ACE inhibitor compounds not evaluated in the present study
611 were triterpenoids and small peptides with attested activity in olive oil¹⁴.

612 Minerals have been reported to possess a significant α -glucosidase inhibitory activity¹¹. In LOPP, the
613 α -glucosidase inhibitory activity was strongly correlated with minerals content ($r^2 \geq 0.70$). The
614 considerable loss of polyphenols, but also minerals, explained the loss of 50% of the initial α -
615 glucosidase inhibitory activity until small intestine.

616 In the future, the addition of ascorbic acid to LOPP as a protective agent of polyphenols⁸⁷ and
617 enhancer of minerals absorption⁸⁸ throughout gastrointestinal tract might be explored to improve, not
618 only LOPP antioxidant activity, but also, its α -glucosidase and ACE inhibitory activity. Other solutions
619 as the conjugation with other phenolic extracts²⁶ or the development of micro and nano delivery
620 systems⁸⁹ could be considered in the future for the improvement of the bioaccessibility of LOPP
621 bioactive compounds.

622

623 4. Conclusion

624 The bioaccessibility/stability of all liquid-enriched olive pomace powder (LOPP) bioactive compounds
625 (soluble sugars, organic acids, minerals and polyphenolic compounds) and not only polyphenols have
626 been analysed throughout the different phases of gastrointestinal digestion. This study demonstrates
627 that the gastrointestinal tract has a substantial effect in all LOPP bioactive compounds and that all
628 these changes affected LOPP potential health benefits. Polyphenols and minerals were the most
629 affected LOPP compounds by the gastrointestinal tract. Its low stability was reflected in the
630 significantly lower values of LOPP antioxidant activity throughout the gastrointestinal tract. Even
631 though, notable bioaccessibility indexes (> 50 %) were obtained in potassium and hydroxytyrosol
632 derivatives, which could exert its potential cardiovascular health benefits. Furthermore, substantial
633 antihypertensive activity and α -glucosidase inhibitory activity were maintained (50% of the initial
634 inhibitory activities).

635 Additionally, a significant amount of soluble sugars and formic acid, and a considerable content of
636 polyphenols were retained in the non-bioaccessible fraction (OUT), which could be interesting to
637 study in the future to understand its possible benefits in the gut health.

638 In the future, new strategies to improve the bioaccessibility of LOPP bioactive compounds and to
639 assess the bioaccessibility and potential health benefits from LOPP may be studied. *In vitro*
640 experiments represent a consistent approach to evaluate the health effect of new functional
641 ingredients, but future studies in cell lines and *in vivo* studies are needed before drawing final
642 conclusions. Besides that, more research into *in vitro*–*in vivo* correlations are required to achieve
643 more realistic *in vitro* models and therefore to screen the bioaccessibility and digestibility of foods.

644 Finally, the valorisation of biocompounds in olive pomace bioresidue to increase the sustainability
645 and circular bioeconomy is a key option for the olive oil industry, taking into account the high nutritional
646 value identified in this study.

647 Abbreviations

648 **OP** - olive pomace; **LOPP** - liquid-enriched olive pomace powder; **DW** – dry weight; **DF**- dietary fibre;
649 **ADF** - antioxidant dietary fibre; **TPC** - Total phenolic compounds; **FPC** - free phenolics compounds;

650 **BPC** - bound phenolics compounds; **DF** – dietary fibre; **TDF** - total dietary fibre; **IDF**- insoluble dietary
651 fibre; **SDF** - soluble dietary fibre; **TE** - Trolox-equivalents; **UA** - uronic acids.

652

653 **Conflict of Interest**

654 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

655

656 **Acknowledgements**

657 Tânia I. B. Ribeiro thanks the Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia (FCT), Portugal and *Association*
658 *BLC3 – Technology and Innovation Campus*, Centre Bio R&D Unit for the PhD Grant
659 SFRH/BDE/108271/2015. This work was supported by the project “Biological tools for adding and
660 defending value in key agro-food chains (bio – n2 – value)”, nº NORTE-01-0145-FEDER-000030,
661 funded by Fundo Europeu de Desenvolvimento Regional (FEDER), under Programa Operacional
662 Regional do Norte - Norte2020. We would also like to thank the scientific collaboration of the project
663 UID/Multi/50016/2019.

664

665 **References**

- 666 1 M. A. Nunes, S. Pawlowski, A. S. G. Costa, R. C. Alves, M. B. P. P. Oliveira and S. Velizarov,
667 *Sci. Total Environ.*, 2019, **652**, 40–47.
- 668 2 M. Romero, M. Toral, M. Gómez-Guzmán, R. Jiménez, P. Galindo, M. Sánchez, M. Olivares,
669 J. Gálvez and J. Duarte, *Food Funct.*, 2016, **7**, 584–593.
- 670 3 R.-M. Valls, M. Farràs, M. Suárez, S. Fernández-Castillejo, M. Fitó, V. Konstantinidou, F.
671 Fuentes, J. López-Miranda, M. Giralt, M.-I. Covas, M.-J. Motilva and R. Solà, *Food Chem.*,
672 2015, **167**, 30–35.
- 673 4 M. Figueiredo-González, P. Reboredo-Rodríguez, C. González-Barreiro, A. Carrasco-
674 Pancorbo, B. Cancho-Grande and J. Simal-Gándara, *Food Res. Int.*, 2019, **116**, 447–454.
- 675 5 F. Hadrich, Z. Bouallagui, H. Junkyu, H. Isoda and S. Sayadi, *J. Oleo Sci.*, 2015, **64**, 835–843.
- 676 6 N. Dekdouk, N. Malafronte, D. Russo, I. Faraone, N. De Tommasi, S. Ameddah, L. Severino
677 and L. Milella, , DOI:10.1155/2015/684925.
- 678 7 M. Figueiredo-González, P. Reboredo-Rodríguez, C. González-Barreiro, J. Simal-Gándara,
679 P. Valentão, A. Carrasco-Pancorbo, P. B. Andrade and B. Cancho-Grande, *Food Res. Int.*,
680 2018, **106**, 558–567.

- 681 8 D. Endringer, O. Oliveira and F. Braga, *Chem. Pap.*, 2014, **68**, 37–45.
- 682 9 C. I. Chukwuma, M. G. Matsabisa, O. L. Erukainure, C. U. Ibeji and M. S. Islam, *Food Biosci.*,
683 2019, **29**, 30–36.
- 684 10 S. Hagiwara, M. Takahashi, Y. Shen, S. Kaihou, T. Tomiyama, M. Yazawa, Y. Tamai, Y. Sin,
685 A. Kazusaka and M. Terazawa, *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.*, 2005, **69**, 1603–1605.
- 686 11 D. Avci, S. Altürk, F. Sönmez, Ö. Tamer, A. Başoğlu, Y. Atalay, B. Z. Kurt and N. Dege, *J.*
687 *Mol. Struct.*, 2019, **1197**, 645–655.
- 688 12 J. A. Olson and S. Kobayashi, *Exp. Biol. Med.*, 1992, **200**, 245–247.
- 689 13 M. de Bock, E. B. Thorstensen, J. G. B. Derraik, H. V. Henderson, P. L. Hofman and W. S.
690 Cutfield, *Mol. Nutr. Food Res.*, 2013, **57**, 2079–2085.
- 691 14 J. M. Alcaide-Hidalgo, M. Margalef, F. I. Bravo, B. Muguerza and E. López-Huertas, *Clin.*
692 *Nutr.*, , DOI:10.1016/j.clnu.2019.05.016.
- 693 15 M.-I. Covas, M. Fitó and R. de la Torre, in *Olive and Olive Oil Bioactive Constituents*, Elsevier,
694 2015, pp. 31–52.
- 695 16 N. Al Shukor, J. Van Camp, G. B. Gonzales, D. Staljanssens, K. Struijs, M. J. Zotti, K. Raes
696 and G. Smaghe, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 2013, **61**, 11832–11839.
- 697 17 K. Bhaskarachary and A. K. R. Joshi, *Stud. Nat. Prod. Chem.*, 2018, **57**, 353–388.
- 698 18 M. A. Nunes, F. B. Pimentel, A. S. G. Costa, R. C. Alves and M. B. P. P. Oliveira, *Innov. Food*
699 *Sci. Emerg. Technol.*, 2016, **35**, 139–148.
- 700 19 M. Di Nunzio, G. Picone, F. Pasini, M. F. Caboni, A. Gianotti, A. Bordoni and F. Capozzi, *Food*
701 *Res. Int.*, 2018, **113**, 392–400.
- 702 20 T. I. Lafka, A. E. Lazou, V. J. Sinanoglou and E. S. Lazos, *Food Chem.*, 2011, **125**, 92–98.
- 703 21 A. Cedola, A. Cardinali, I. D'Antuono, A. Conte and M. A. Del Nobile, *Food Biosci.*, 2020, **33**,
704 100490.
- 705 22 D. Y. Ying, M. M. Hlaing, J. Lerisson, K. Pitts, L. Cheng, L. Sanguansri and M. A. Augustin,
706 *Food Res. Int.*, 2017, **100**, 665–673.
- 707 23 B. Simonato, S. Trevisan, R. Tolve, F. Favati and G. Pasini, *LWT*, 2019, **114**, 108368.
- 708 24 M. Di Nunzio, G. Picone, F. Pasini, E. Chiarello, M. F. Caboni, F. Capozzi, A. Gianotti and A.
709 Bordoni, *Food Res. Int.*, 2020, **131**, 108940.
- 710 25 L. Conterno, F. Martinelli, M. Tamburini, F. Fava, A. Mancini, M. Sordo, M. Pindo, S. Martens,
711 D. Masuero, U. Vrhovsek, C. Dal Lago, G. Ferrario, M. Morandini and K. Tuohy, *Eur. J. Nutr.*,
712 2019, **58**, 63–81.
- 713 26 L. Rubió, A. Macià, A. Castell-Auví, M. Pinent, M. T. Blay, A. Ardévol, M.-P. Romero and M.-

- 714 J. Motilva, *Food Chem.*, 2014, **149**, 277–284.
- 715 27 S. J. Hur, B. O. Lim, E. A. Decker and D. J. McClements, *Food Chem.*, 2011, **125**, 1–12.
- 716 28 M. Minekus, M. Alminger, P. Alvito, S. Ballance, T. Bohn, C. Bourlieu, F. Carrière, R. Boutrou,
717 M. Corredig, D. Dupont, C. Dufour, L. Egger, M. Golding, S. Karakaya, B. Kirkhus, S. Le
718 Feunteun, U. Lesmes, A. Macierzanka, A. Mackie, S. Marze, D. J. McClements, O. Ménard,
719 I. Recio, C. N. Santos, R. P. Singh, G. E. Vegarud, M. S. J. Wickham, W. Weitschies and A.
720 Brodkorb, *Food Funct.*, 2014, **5**, 1113–1124.
- 721 29 A. R. Madureira, M. Amorim, A. M. Gomes, M. E. Pintado and F. X. Malcata, *FRIN*, 2011, **44**,
722 465–470.
- 723 30 J. R. Costa, M. Amorim, A. Vilas-Boas, R. V. Tonon, L. M. C. Cabral, L. Pastrana and M.
724 Pintado, *Food Funct.*, 2019, **10**, 1856–1869.
- 725 31 B. Gullon, M. E. Pintado, J. Fernández-López, J. A. Pérez-Álvarez and M. Viuda-Martos, *J.*
726 *Funct. Foods*, 2015, **19**, 617–628.
- 727 32 R. Lucas-Gonzalez, S. Navarro-Coves, J. A. Pérez-Álvarez, J. Fernández-López, L. A.
728 Muñozmuñuñoz and M. Viuda-Martos, *Ind. Crops Prod.*, 2016, **94**, 774–782.
- 729 33 T. Cieplak, M. Wiese, S. Nielsen, T. Van de Wiele, F. van den Berg and D. S. Nielsen, *FEMS*
730 *Microbiol. Lett.*, 2018, **365**, 1–8.
- 731 34 A. Brodkorb, L. Egger, M. Alminger, P. Alvito, R. Assunção, S. Ballance, T. Bohn, C. Bourlieu-
732 Lacanal, R. Boutrou, F. Carrière, A. Clemente, M. Corredig, D. Dupont, C. Dufour, C. Edwards,
733 M. Golding, S. Karakaya, B. Kirkhus, S. Le Feunteun, U. Lesmes, A. Macierzanka, A. R.
734 Mackie, C. Martins, S. Marze, D. J. McClements, O. Ménard, M. Minekus, R. Portmann, C. N.
735 Santos, I. Souchon, R. P. Singh, G. E. Vegarud, M. S. J. Wickham, W. Weitschies and I.
736 Recio, *Nat. Protoc.*, 2019, **14**, 991–1014.
- 737 35 C. Galanakis, What is the Difference Between Bioavailability Bioaccessibility and Bioactivity
738 of Food Components? | SciTech Connect, [http://scitechconnect.elsevier.com/bioavailability-
739 bioaccessibility-bioactivity-food-components/](http://scitechconnect.elsevier.com/bioavailability-bioaccessibility-bioactivity-food-components/), (accessed 13 January 2020).
- 740 36 A. Oliveira, E. M. C. Alexandre, M. Coelho, R. M. Barros, D. P. F. Almeida and M. Pintado,
741 *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.*, 2016, **66**, 361–368.
- 742 37 C. M. Oliveira, A. S. Barros, A. C. Silva Ferreira and A. M. S. Silva, *Food Res. Int.*, 2015, **75**,
743 337–347.
- 744 38 A. R. Monforte, S. I. F. S. Martins and A. C. Silva Ferreira, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 2018, **66**,
745 2459–2466.
- 746 39 T. Jerman Klen and B. Mozetič Vodopivec, *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.*, 2012, **49**, 267–274.
- 747 40 E. Mañas, L. Bravo and F. Saura-Calixto, *Food Chem.*, 1994, **50**, 331–342.

- 748 41 Q. Deng, M. H. Penner and Y. Zhao, *Food Res. Int.*, 2011, **44**, 2712–2720.
- 749 42 N. Blumenkrantz and G. Asboe-Hansen, *Anal. Biochem.*, 1973, **54**, 484–489.
- 750 43 P.-J. Xie, L.-X. Huang, C. Zhang and Y.-L. Zhang, *J. Funct. Foods*, 2015, **16**, 460–471.
- 751 44 E. M. C. Alexandre, S. Silva, S. A. O. Santos, A. J. D. Silvestre, M. F. Duarte, J. A. Saraiva
752 and M. Pintado, *Food Res. Int.*, 2019, **115**, 167–176.
- 753 45 A. Cano, M. Acosta and M. B. Arnao, *Redox Rep.*, 2000, **5**, 365–370.
- 754 46 A. Oliveira and M. Pintado, *Food Funct.*, 2015, **6**, 1611–1619.
- 755 47 M. A. Sentandreu and F. Toldra, *Food Chem.*, 2006, **97**, 546–554.
- 756 48 Y.-I. I. Kwon, D. A. Vatter and K. Shetty, *Asia Pac. J. Clin. Nutr.*, 2006, **15**, 107–18.
- 757 49 R. C. Deis and M. W. Kearsley, in *Sweeteners and Sugar Alternatives in Food Technology*,
758 Wiley-Blackwell, Oxford, UK, 2012, vol. 221, pp. 331–346.
- 759 50 N. M. Ragaa and R. M. S. Korany, *Anim. Nutr.*, 2016, **2**, 296–302.
- 760 51 D. Ríos-Covián, P. Ruas-Madiedo, A. Margolles, M. Gueimonde, C. G. de los Reyes-Gavilán
761 and N. Salazar, *Front. Microbiol.*, 2016, **7**, 1–9.
- 762 52 G. R. Velderrain-Rodríguez, H. Palafox-Carlos, A. Wall-Medrano, J. F. Ayala-Zavala, C.-Y. O.
763 Chen, M. Robles-Sánchez, H. Astiazaran-García, E. Alvarez-Parrilla and G. A. González-
764 Aguilar, *Food Funct.*, 2014, **5**, 189–197.
- 765 53 L. Yun, D. Li, L. Yang and M. Zhang, *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.*, 2019, **123**, 174–181.
- 766 54 M. A. Travassos Lemos, R. J. Cassella and D. P. de Jesus, *Food Control*, 2015, **57**, 327–332.
- 767 55 D. H. Montes-Cortés, J. L. Novelo-Del Valle, I. M. Olivares-Corichi, J. V. Rosas-Barrientos, L.
768 J. Jara and M. P. Cruz-Domínguez, *Am. J. Emerg. Med.*, 2018, **36**, 1570–1576.
- 769 56 A. Koh, F. De Vadder, P. Kovatcheva-Datchary and F. Bäckhed, *Cell*, 2016, **165**, 1332–1345.
- 770 57 EFSA, *EFSA J.*, 2016, **14**, e04592.
- 771 58 D. Vitali, I. Vedrina Dragojević and B. Šebečić, *Food Chem.*, 2008, **110**, 62–68.
- 772 59 EFSA, *EFSA J.*, 2010, **8**, 1–17.
- 773 60 J. H. Youn, *Semin. Nephrol.*, 2013, **33**, 248–256.
- 774 61 M. P. Fernández-Poyatos, A. Ruiz-Medina and E. J. Llorent-Martínez, *Food Chem.*, 2019,
775 **297**, 124933.
- 776 62 L. Gayoso, A.-S. Claerbout, M. I. Calvo, R. Y. Caverro, I. Astiasarán and D. Ansorena, *J. Funct.*
777 *Foods*, 2016, **26**, 428–438.
- 778 63 J. Bouayed, L. Hoffmann and T. Bohn, *Food Chem.*, 2011, **128**, 14–21.

- 779 64 J. Thielmann, S. Kohnen and C. Hauser, *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2017, **251**, 48–66.
- 780 65 J. Lozano-Sánchez, A. Bendini, R. Quirantes-Piné, L. Cerretani, A. Segura-Carretero and A.
781 Fernández-Gutiérrez, *Food Control*, 2013, **30**, 606–615.
- 782 66 G. Marrubini, P. Appelblad, G. Gazzani and A. Papetti, *J. Food Compos. Anal.*, 2015, **44**, 80–
783 85.
- 784 67 I. Seiquer, A. Rueda, M. Olalla and C. Cabrera-Vique, *Food Chem.*, 2015, **188**, 496–503.
- 785 68 E. González, A. M. Gómez-Caravaca, B. Giménez, R. Cebrián, M. Maqueda, A. Martínez-
786 Férez, A. Segura-Carretero and P. Robert, *Food Chem.*, 2019, **279**, 40–48.
- 787 69 M. Bertolino, S. Belviso, B. Dal Bello, D. Ghirardello, M. Giordano, L. Rolle, V. Gerbi and G.
788 Zeppa, *LWT - Food Sci. Technol.*, 2015, **63**, 1145–1154.
- 789 70 F. Saura-Calixto, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 2011, **59**, 43–49.
- 790 71 M. M. L. Grundy, C. H. Edwards, A. R. Mackie, M. J. Gidley, P. J. Butterworth and P. R. Ellis,
791 *Br. J. Nutr.*, 2016, **116**, 816–833.
- 792 72 M.-C. López de las Hazas, C. Piñol, A. Macià, M.-P. Romero, A. Pedret, R. Solà, L. Rubió and
793 M.-J. Motilva, *J. Funct. Foods*, 2016, **22**, 52–63.
- 794 73 K. Jiang, L. Li, L. Long and S. Ding, *Bioresour. Technol.*, 2016, **207**, 1–10.
- 795 74 V. A. Papillo, P. Vitaglione, G. Graziani, V. Gokmen and V. Fogliano, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*,
796 2014, **62**, 4119–4126.
- 797 75 S. Arranz, J. M. Silván and F. Saura-Calixto, *Mol. Nutr. Food Res.*, 2010, **54**, 1646–1658.
- 798 76 I. Gouvinhas, R. Domínguez-Perles, A. Gironés-Vilaplana, T. Carvalho, N. Machado and A.
799 Barros, *J. Chem.*, 2017, **2017**, 1–11.
- 800 77 E. Uribe, R. Lemus-Mondaca, A. Vega-Gálvez, M. Zamorano, I. Quispe-Fuentes, A. Pasten
801 and K. Di Scala, *Food Chem.*, 2014, **147**, 170–176.
- 802 78 M. B. Arnao, *Trends Food Sci. Technol.*, 2000, **11**, 419–421.
- 803 79 J. Tabart, C. Kevers, J. Pincemail, J.-O. Defraigne and J. Dommès, *Food Chem.*, 2010, **120**,
804 607–614.
- 805 80 R. Martínez, P. Torres, M. A. Meneses, J. G. Figueroa, J. A. Pérez-Álvarez and M. Viuda-
806 Martos, *Food Chem.*, 2012, **135**, 1520–1526.
- 807 81 C. Bonechi, A. Donati, G. Tamasi, A. Pardini, H. Rostom, G. Leone, S. Lamponi, M. Consumi,
808 A. Magnani and C. Rossi, *Biophys. Chem.*, 2019, **246**, 25–34.
- 809 82 L. Milella, A. Bader, N. De Tommasi, D. Russo and A. Braca, *Food Chem.*, 2014, **160**, 298–
810 304.

- 811 83 M. Samsonowicz, E. Regulska, D. Karpowicz and B. Leśniewska, *Food Chem.*, 2019, **278**,
812 101–109.
- 813 84 H. Rasouli, S. M.-B. Hosseini-Ghazvini, H. Adibi and R. Khodarahmi, *Food Funct.*, 2017, **8**,
814 1942–1954.
- 815 85 J. Collado-González, C. Grosso, P. Valentão, P. B. Andrade, F. Ferreres, T. Durand, A. Guy,
816 J.-M. Galano, A. Torrecillas and Á. Gil-Izquierdo, *Food Chem.*, 2017, **235**, 298–307.
- 817 86 M. Nadour, C. Laroche, G. Pierre, C. Delattre, F. Moulti-Mati and P. Michaud, *Appl. Biochem.*
818 *Biotechnol.*, 2015, **177**, 431–445.
- 819 87 C. M. Peters, R. J. Green, E. M. Janle and M. G. Ferruzzi, *Food Res. Int.*, 2010, **43**, 95–102.
- 820 88 P. Singh and S. Prasad, *Microchem. J.*, 2018, **139**, 119–124.
- 821 89 B. Aliakbarian, F. C. Sampaio, J. T. de Faria, C. G. Pitangui, F. Lovaglio, A. A. Casazza, A.
822 Converti and P. Perego, *LWT*, 2018, **93**, 220–228.
- 823 90 M. H. Alu'datt, T. Rababah, K. Ereifej and I. Alli, *Food Chem.*, 2013, **139**, 93–99.
- 824
- 825

826 **Table 1. Recovery index (RI %) and Bioaccessibility index (%) of bioactive compounds simulated gastrointestinal**
827 **digestion (SGD) from LOPP.**

	Recovery Index (%)					Bioaccessibility Index (%)
	Oral	Gastric	Intestinal	IN (Serum available)	OUT (Colon available)	
Sugars & Organic acids						
Glucose	51.28 ± 0.88 ^b	41.92 ± 0.60 ^c	41.37 ± 0.80 ^c	15.19 ± 0.53 ^d	61.52 ± 7.56 ^a	19.95 ± 1.66 ^g
Fructose	60.54 ± 1.53 ^b	47.04 ± 3.65 ^b	47.43 ± 2.81 ^b	16.58 ± 1.63 ^c	89.32 ± 11.42 ^a	15.92 ± 3.93 ^g
Mannitol	59.07 ± 1.39 ^b	43.21 ± 1.41 ^c	46.40 ± 0.99 ^c	17.49 ± 0.55 ^d	71.43 ± 8.72 ^a	19.86 ± 2.37 ^g
Formic acid	59.69 ± 2.66 ^a	35.84 ± 1.31 ^b	38.74 ± 6.57 ^b	13.51 ± 1.37 ^c	43.11 ± 2.32 ^b	23.88 ± 2.51 ^{fg}
Minerals						
Phosphorus	19.43 ± 2.53 ^a	17.24 ± 0.61 ^{ab}	16.15 ± 0.51 ^{ab}	5.23 ± 0.05 ^c	11.79 ± 1.68 ^b	36.22 ± 3.25 ^e
Magnesium	18.94 ± 1.13 ^a	18.39 ± 0.57 ^a	15.59 ± 0.81 ^a	5.10 ± 0.16 ^c	11.90 ± 1.19 ^b	35.36 ± 2.40 ^{ef}
Calcium	13.29 ± 1.00 ^a	12.89 ± 0.87 ^a	13.00 ± 1.52 ^a	nd	8.83 ± 1.88 ^a	nq
Potassium	19.57 ± 1.04 ^a	19.59 ± 0.88 ^a	16.95 ± 1.52 ^a	12.71 ± 0.19 ^b	12.00 ± 1.24 ^b	57.42 ± 3.18 ^d
Phenolic compounds						
TPC	6.03 ± 1.14 ^b	13.35 ± 2.76 ^a	3.92 ± 0.44 ^{bc}	5.63 ± 0.76 ^{bc}	2.77 ± 0.67 ^c	65.52 ± 6.82 ^{cd}
Hydroxytyrosol glucoside	8.46 ± 5.61 ^b	5.57 ± 3.05 ^c	6.07 ± 2.65 ^{bc}	11.61 ± 0.17 ^a	3.76 ± 2.53 ^c	75.47 ± 2.84 ^{ab}
Hydroxytyrosol	7.52 ± 1.48 ^b	10.27 ± 2.21 ^a	0.73 ± 0.12 ^c	1.47 ± 0.11 ^c	0.32 ± 0.05 ^c	82.10 ± 2.59 ^a
Tyrosol glucoside	14.65 ± 3.21 ^b	12.37 ± 2.76 ^b	5.45 ± 0.89 ^c	35.87 ± 4.26 ^a	13.88 ± 1.16 ^b	71.93 ± 3.58 ^{bc}
Tyrosol	17.62 ± 4.72 ^b	14.32 ± 3.63 ^b	5.42 ± 0.90 ^c	48.00 ± 1.60 ^a	13.78 ± 2.02 ^b	77.79 ± 2.03 ^{ab}
Caffeic acid	5.32 ± 0.72 ^b	13.52 ± 2.11 ^a	0.84 ± 0.22 ^c	nd	0.89 ± 0.11 ^c	0.00 ± 0.00 ^h
Verbascoside	17.14 ± 2.75 ^a	12.82 ± 2.36 ^a	nd	nd	nd	nq
<i>p</i> -coumaric acid	24.21 ± 4.48 ^b	34.62 ± 7.44 ^a	9.03 ± 1.69 ^{cd}	4.84 ± 1.08 ^d	15.40 ± 0.79 ^{bc}	24.51 ± 3.81 ^{fg}
Caffeoyl-6'-secologanoside	13.76 ± 2.89 ^b	22.22 ± 2.82 ^a	2.83 ± 0.07 ^{cd}	nd	4.45 ± 0.69 ^c	nq

828 *nd* – not detected; *nq* – not quantified. Results are the means of three determinations ± standard deviation. Values with different
829 letters in the same line to RI (%) and the same column to BI (%) are significantly different, as determined by one-way ANOVA
830 test ($p < 0.05$), respectively.

831

Table 2. Retention time, maximum wavelength absorbance and MSn fragmentations profiles of phenolic compounds identified in LOPP obtained before (initial) and after each step of in vitro gastrointestinal digestion (oral, gastric, intestinal, after dialysis IN and OUT) and the bound phenolics of dietary fibre achieved by AOAC and after the tract.

Compound	Molecular formula	RT (min)	λ_{max}	m/z calcd	m/z exptl	Err [mDa]	mSigma	Major fragments ESI negative MS/MS ions	In vitro gastrointestinal digestion step
Quinic acid ^{*2}	C ₇ H ₁₂ O ₆	1.6	269	191.0561	191.0565	-0.4	12.2	191.0563; 127.0398; 93.0398; 87.0089; 85.097	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT
Protocatechuic acid ³	C ₇ H ₆ O ₄	6.8	203	153.0197	153.0193	-0.4	7	153.0197; 109.0298	SDF Tract
Hydroxytyrosol glucoside ²	C ₁₄ H ₂₀ O ₈	7.1	279	315.1088	315.1085	-0.2	4	315.1092; 153.0556; 123.0451	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF AOAC
Hydrated product of the dialdehydic form of decarboxymethyl-elenolic acid ²	C ₉ H ₁₄ O ₅	7.3	197/281	201.077	201.0768	-0.2	4	201.0405; 153.0553; 123.0449; 95.0502	Initial, Oral, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF AOAC
Hydroxytyrosol ^{*1}	C ₈ H ₁₀ O ₃	7.4	280	153.0556	153.0557	0.1	5.7	153.0452; 123.0457	Initial, Oral, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF AOAC, SDF Tract
Hydroxytyrosol glucoside isomer ²	C ₁₄ H ₂₀ O ₈	7.5	279	315.1087	315.1085	-0.2	7.3	315.1089; 151.0398; 123.0449	Gastric
Loganin ²	C ₁₇ H ₂₆ O ₁₀	7.6	281	389.1455	389.1453	-0.2	8.9	151.0763; 113.0244; 101.0244	Initial, Oral
Oleoside derivative isomer ²	C ₁₇ H ₂₈ O ₁₁	7.7	228	407.1557	407.1559	-0.5	11.7	151.0760; 119.0346	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF AOAC
Decarboxylated form of hydroxy-elenolic acid ²	C ₁₀ H ₁₄ O ₅	7.9	197/280	213.0765	213.0768	0.1	5.6	213.0920; 137.0601; 121.0665; 111.0085	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, OUT
Tyrosol glucoside ³	C ₁₄ H ₂₀ O ₇	8.1	227/276	299.1139	299.1136	-0.3	3.2	119.0505; 137.0244; 135.0299	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF AOAC, SDF Tract
4-Hydroxybenzoic acid ⁴	C ₇ H ₆ O ₃	8.2	204	137.0241	137.0244	0.4	4	137.0241; 138.0280	SDF Tract
Oleoside ²	C ₁₆ H ₂₂ O ₁₁	8.4	277	389.1093	389.1089	-0.4	4.3	389.1088; 183.0664; 165.0557	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF AOAC, SDF Tract
p-Coumaroyl-D-glucose ³	C ₁₅ H ₁₈ O ₈	8.7	195/280	325.0925	325.0929	0.4	0.9	326.0976; 163.0402; 119.0501	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT
Caffeic acid ^{*1}	C ₉ H ₆ O ₄	9.3	323	179.0350	179.0350	-0.1	7.9	179.0350; 135.0448	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, OUT, SDF Tract
10-Hydroxyloganin ^{*2}	C ₁₇ H ₂₆ O ₁₁	9.5	197 /278	405.1402	405.1406	-0.4	5.7	405.1402; 165.0557; 139.0035; 123.045	Initial, Oral, Gastric
Tyrosol ^{*1}	C ₈ H ₁₀ O ₂	9.8	277	137.0608	137.0608	0.5	4.5	111.0084; 95.0510	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF AOAC
p - Coumaric acid ^{*1}	C ₉ H ₈ O ₃	10.6	309	163.0403	163.0401	-0.2	10.5	163.0397; 119.0499	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF Tract
Verbascoside ^{*3}	C ₂₉ H ₃₆ O ₁₅	10.7	245/330	623.1988	623.1981	-0.7	2.4	623.1983; 161.0244; 461.1665	Initial, Oral, Gastric
Caffeoyl-6-secologanoside ³	C ₂₅ H ₂₈ O ₁₄	10.8	221/326	551.1407	551.1406	0	18.1	551.1416; 161.0245; 507.1504	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, OUT
Hydroxylated form of elenolic acid ²	C ₁₁ H ₁₄ O ₇	10.9	280/320	257.0666	257.0667	0.1	2.7	257.1271; 181.0505; 137.0603; 109.0655; 95.0498	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF AOAC; SDF Tract
Elenolic acid ^{*2}	C ₁₁ H ₁₄ O ₆	12.5	197/288	241.0720	241.0718	-0.2	0.5	241.0737; 139.0035; 127.0398; 111.0086; 95.0551	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, IN, OUT, SDF AOAC
Comsegoloside ³	C ₂₅ H ₂₈ O ₁₃	12.6	223/311	535.1462	535.1457	-0.5	6.4	535.1465; 145.0296; 491.1558	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, OUT
Luteolin ^{*1}	C ₁₅ H ₁₀ O ₆	15.9	268/349	285.0406	285.0405	-0.1	0.8	285.0414; 151.0037	Initial, Oral, Gastric, Intestinal, OUT, SDF AOAC, SDF Tract
Quercetin ^{*1}	C ₁₅ H ₁₀ O ₇	15.0		301.0357	301.0354	-0.3	3.4	301.0359; 151.0035; 178.9988	Initial
Apigenin ^{*1}	C ₁₅ H ₁₀ O ₅	18.0	268/338	269.0460	269.0455	-0.5	4.8	269.0461; 151.0035	Initial

^{*1}Hydroxytyrosol, tyrosol, oleuropein, rutin, luteolin-7-O-glucoside, luteolin, quercetin, apigenin, vanillin, caffeic acid, p-coumaric acid and ferulic acid were identified by comparison with the standards. The other compounds were tentatively identified by LC-ESI-UHR-QqTOF-MS based on accurate mass, isotope rate calculations designated mSigma and literature. ^{*2}Lozano-Sánchez et al., (2013), ^{*3}Jerma Klen & Mozetič Vodopivec(2012), ^{*4}90.

Table 3. Dietary composition (g/100 g DW) and profile (mg/g fibre DW) of LOPP by using modified AOAC dietary fibre analysis method and simulated gastrointestinal system.

	SDF g/100 g DW	Monosaccharide composition (mg/g fibre DW)				UA ²	BPC ³
		Glucose	Galactose	Arabinose	NS		
AOAC method ¹	9.20 ± 1.18	25.04 ± 1.77	36.00 ± 6.00	28.75 ± 3.97	89.79	16.47 ± 2.46	14.56 ± 1.74
SGD	4.01 ± 0.53	37.73 ± 3.44	22.59 ± 1.65	12.20 ± 0.79	72.52	12.93 ± 1.49	8.38 ± 0.79

NS – Neutral sugars; UA – Uronic acids; RP – Resistant protein; KL – Klason lignin; BPC: Bound phenolic compounds; TDF – Total dietary fibre; IDF – insoluble dietary fibre; SDF – Soluble dietary fibre. ¹ – Data from previous paper Tânia Ribeiro *et al.* (2019); ² – mg GUAE / g fibre dry weight; ³ – mg GAE/ g fibre DW. Results are the means of three determinations ± standard deviation. Different letters in the same column are significantly different, as determined by ANOVA ($p < 0.05$).

Figure 1. Graphic representation of the static *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion procedure carried out with LOPP.

Figure 2. The concentration of LOPP soluble sugars/organic acids (A) and minerals (B) (g/100 g DW) obtained after each phase (oral, gastric, intestinal, after dialysis IN and OUT) of simulated gastrointestinal digestion (SGD). Results are the means of three determinations \pm standard deviation. Values with different letters are significantly different, as determined by one-way ANOVA test ($p < 0.05$).

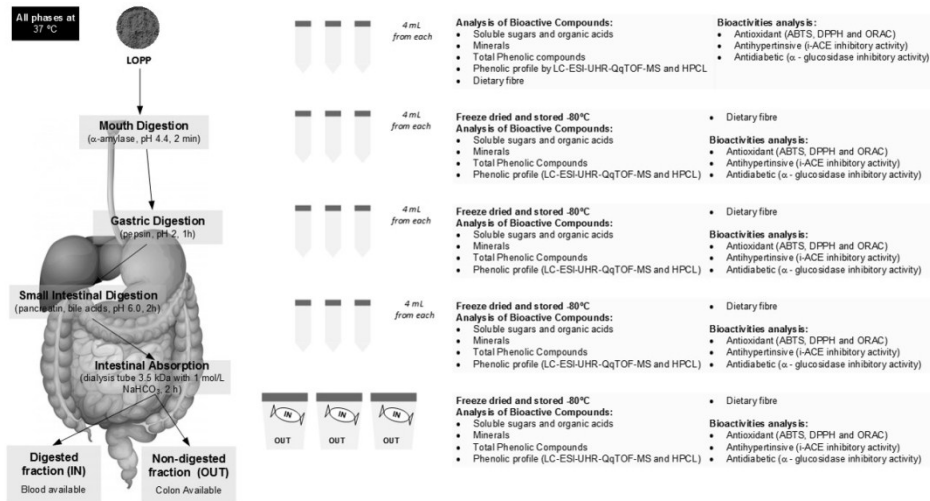
Note: The initial amount before digestion (BC_{TF}) and the amounts detected in the digested sample for each digestion step (BC_{DF}) expressed in this figure were used to calculate the Recovery Index (RI %) for each sugar, organic acid and mineral enunciated in Table 1. On the other hand, to calculate the Bioaccessibility Index (BI %) of each sugar, organic acid and mineral, the BC_S amount detected in the digested sample after the duodenal dialysis step (IN) and BC_{DFE} content which is the sum of the amounts after the duodenal step (IN + OUT) detected in this figure were used.

Figure 3. Stability and bioaccessibility of phenolic compounds throughout *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion. (A) Total phenolic compounds (mg GAE/g DW) and (B) (C) (D) the concentration of the main individual phenolic compounds (mg/100 g DW) obtained after each step of simulated gastrointestinal digestion (oral, gastric, intestinal, after dialysis IN and OUT) of LOPP. Results are the means of three determinations \pm standard deviation. Values with different letters above are significantly different, as determined by one-way ANOVA test ($p < 0.05$).

Note: The initial amount before digestion (BC_{TF}) and the amounts detected in the digested sample for each digestion step (BC_{DF}) expressed in this figure were used to calculate the Recovery Index (RI %) of total polyphenol compounds and each polyphenol enunciated in Table 1. On the other hand, to calculate the Bioaccessibility Index (BI %) of total polyphenol compounds and each individual polyphenol compound, the BC_S amount detected in the digested sample after the duodenal dialysis step (IN) and BC_{DFE} content which is the sum of the amounts after the duodenal step (IN + OUT) detected in this figure were used.

Figure 4. The concentration of main polyphenolics (mg/100 g sample dry weight) present in fibre fraction of LOPP and respective antioxidant activity using ABTS, DPPH and ORAC methods of soluble fibre from by AOAC method and SGD system. Results are the means of three determinations \pm standard deviation. Different letters in the same column are significantly different, as determined by the *t*-Student test ($p < 0.05$).

Figure 5. Effect of *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion on LOPP bioactivities. (A) Antioxidant properties of LOPP measured by ABTS, DPPH and ORAC assays after each step of *in vitro* gastrointestinal digestion (oral, gastric, intestinal, after dialysis IN and OUT) of LOPP. (B) ACE and α - glucosidase inhibitory activity of LOPP before and after simulated gastrointestinal digestion (intestinal, after dialysis IN and OUT) of LOPP. Results are the means of three determinations \pm standard deviation. Values with different letters above are significantly different, as determined by one-way ANOVA test ($p < 0.05$).



Graphic representation of the static in vitro gastrointestinal digestion procedure carried out with LOPP.

279x154mm (127 x 127 DPI)

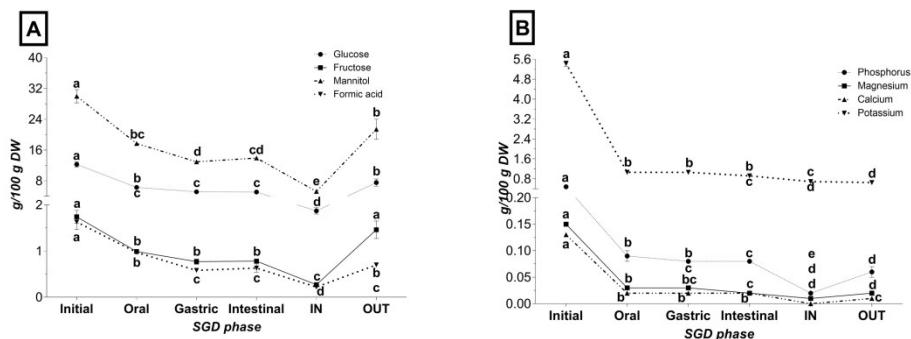


Figure 2. The concentration of LOPP soluble sugars/organic acids (A) and minerals (B) (g/100 g DW) obtained after each phase (oral, gastric, intestinal, after dialysis IN and OUT) of simulated gastrointestinal digestion (SGD).

Results are the means of three determinations \pm standard deviation. Values with different letters are significantly different, as determined by one-way ANOVA test ($p < 0.05$).

Note: The initial amount before digestion (BCTF) and the amounts detected in the digested sample for each digestion step (BCDF) expressed in this figure were used to calculate the Recovery Index (RI %) for each sugar, organic acid and mineral enunciated in Table 1. On the other hand, to calculate the Bioaccessibility Index (BI %) of each sugar, organic acid and mineral, the BCS amount detected in the digested sample after the duodenal dialysis step (IN) and BCDFE content which is the sum of the amounts after the duodenal step (IN + OUT) detected in this figure were used.

265x96mm (300 x 300 DPI)

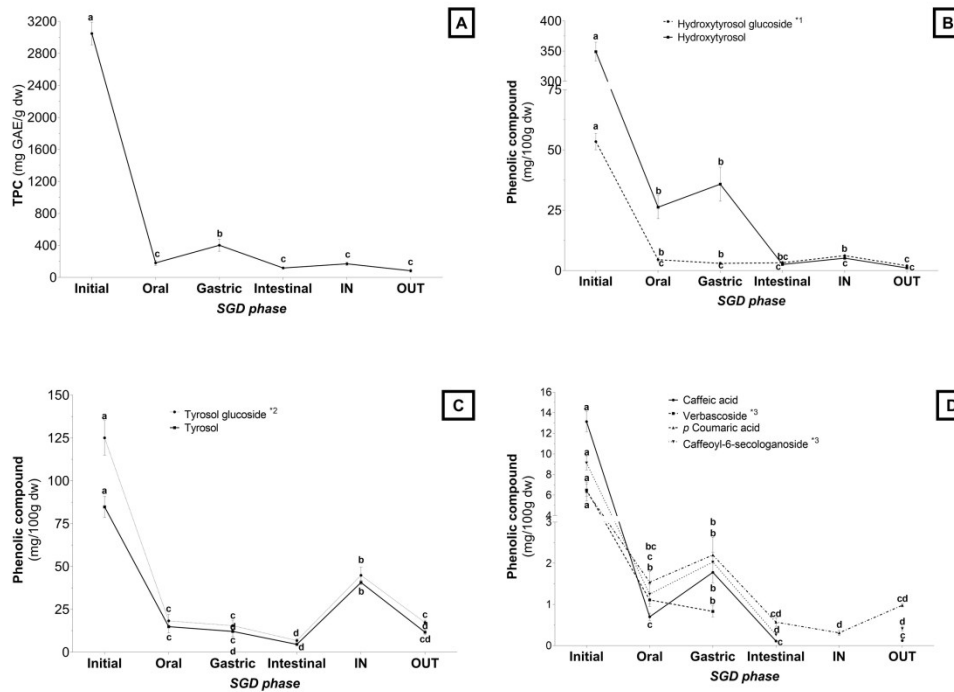
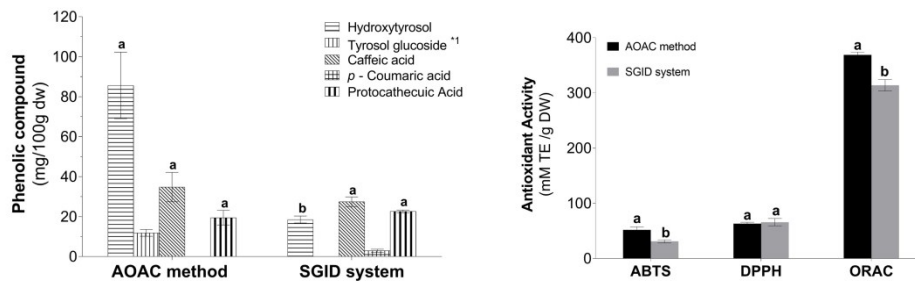


Figure 3. Stability and bioaccessibility of phenolic compounds throughout in vitro gastrointestinal digestion. (A) Total phenolic compounds (mg GAE/g DW) and (B) (C) (D) the concentration of the main individual phenolic compounds (mg/100 g DW) obtained after each step of simulated gastrointestinal digestion (oral, gastric, intestinal, after dialysis IN and OUT) of LOPP. Results are the means of three determinations \pm standard deviation. Values with different letters above are significantly different, as determined by one-way ANOVA test ($p < 0.05$).

Note: The initial amount before digestion (BCTF) and the amounts detected in the digested sample for each digestion step (BCDF) expressed in this figure were used to calculate the Recovery Index (RI %) of total polyphenol compounds and each polyphenol enunciated in Table 1. On the other hand, to calculate the Bioaccessibility Index (BI %) of total polyphenol compounds and each individual polyphenol compound, the BCS amount detected in the digested sample after the duodenal dialysis step (IN) and BCDFE content which is the sum of the amounts after the duodenal step (IN + OUT) detected in this figure were used.

258x186mm (300 x 300 DPI)



The concentration of main polyphenolics (mg/100 g sample dry weight) present in fibre fraction of LOPP and respective antioxidant activity using ABTS, DPPH and ORAC methods of soluble fibre from by AOAC method and SGID system. Results are the means of three determinations \pm standard deviation. Different letters in the same column are significantly different, as determined by the t-Student test ($p < 0.05$).

258x83mm (300 x 300 DPI)

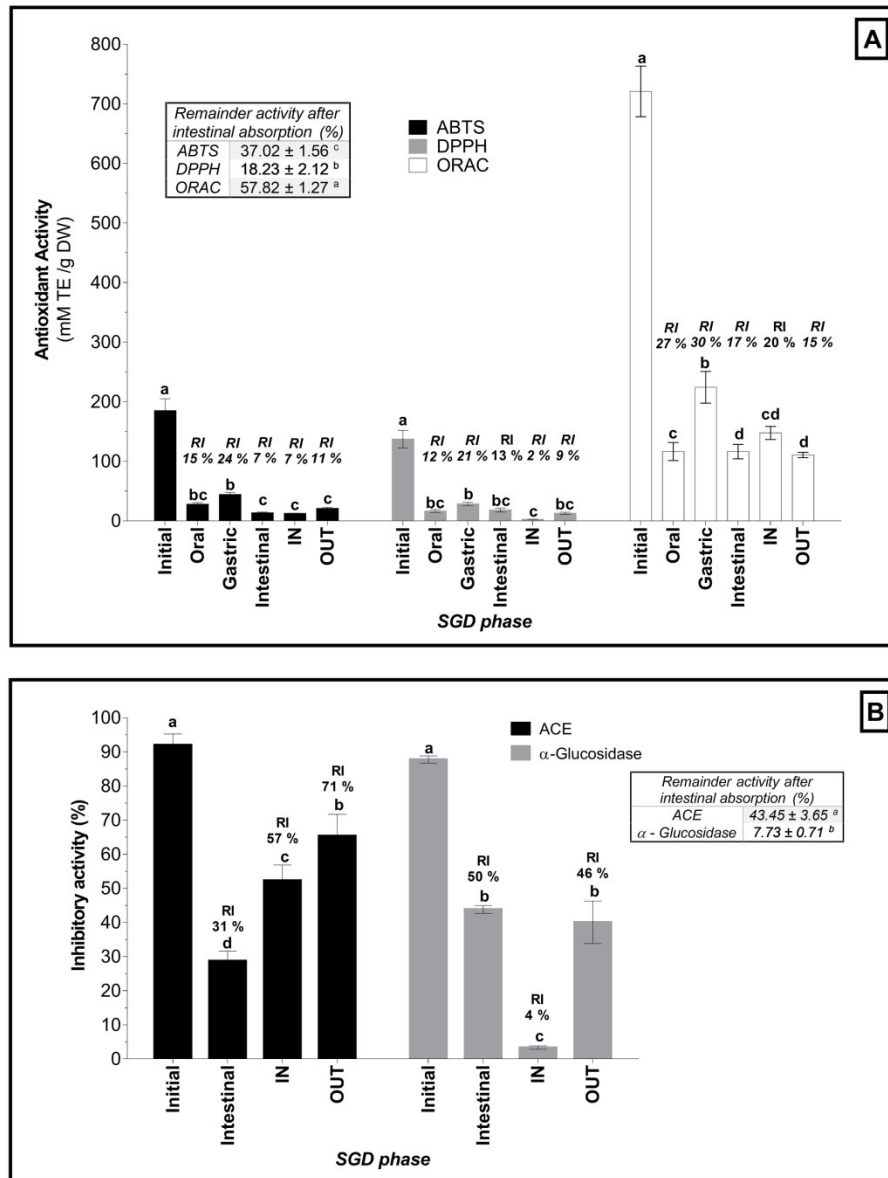


Figure 5. Effect of in vitro gastrointestinal digestion on LOPP bioactivities. (A) Antioxidant properties of LOPP measured by ABTS, DPPH and ORAC assays after each step of in vitro gastrointestinal digestion (oral, gastric, intestinal, after dialysis IN and OUT) of LOPP. (B) ACE and α -glucosidase inhibitory activity of LOPP before and after simulated gastrointestinal digestion (intestinal, after dialysis IN and OUT) of LOPP. Results are the means of three determinations \pm standard deviation. Values with different letters above are significantly different, as determined by one-way ANOVA test ($p < 0.05$).

202x266mm (300 x 300 DPI)

