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1 **Bioaccessibility and associated concepts: need for a consensus**

2

3 **Running title: Bioaccessibility definition**

4

5 **Commentary**

6

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16

Abstract

Background: The definition of the term 'bioaccessibility' is not clear. In the fields of Nutrition and Food Sciences, the term bioaccessibility was introduced in the context of micronutrients, which can lead to some confusion when applied to macronutrients, the latter requiring hydrolysis (sometimes included in the definition of bioaccessibility).

Scope: In the context of macronutrient digestion, particularly in plant-based food where cell walls play a significant role, it seems coherent to differentiate between the release of nutrients from the food matrix, hydrolysis and absorption.

Key findings and Conclusions: We concluded that the terms bioaccessibility, digestibility and bioavailability have been misused over time and have lost some of their meaning. Therefore, in this study, we suggest a definition for “bioaccessibility” and related vocabulary, as well as a possible classification of the biochemical events occurring during food or feed digestion. It is critical to use precise, specific vocabulary to describe the mechanisms involved while food transits through the different compartments of the gastro-intestinal tract. This goes hand in hand with a recent realisation of the importance of the food matrix, which has an impact on the breakdown of food in the digestive tract and thus on human and animal health.

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Keywords: Bioaccessibility, digestion, hydrolysis, mechanisms, nutrients.

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The term “bioaccessibility” is more and more prevalent in the scientific literature as
42 demonstrated by its widespread occurrence in articles (over 6400 articles in Scopus or 4400 in
43 PubMed since 1980), with over 5400 articles that use “bioaccessibility” in their title (see Figure
44 1). The most recent articles lie in food science, nutrition, chemistry/biochemistry and
45 environmental sciences (85% of the articles identified belonged to the field of nutrition and
46 food sciences), whereas 15 years ago, environmental science and engineering were more
47 dominant. Despite frequent use of the term, its definition does not seem to be clear. There is
48 also a misuse of the term “bioavailability” and both terms are still often assumed to be
49 synonymous.

50 Furthermore, the terms are used differently between disciplines, for instance human and animal
51 nutrition may utilise terms that have a different and sometimes very specific meaning for each
52 of them. This applies particularly to a notion closely related to bioaccessibility, digestibility.

53 As a food (or a feed) transits through the gastrointestinal (GI) tract, it undergoes a range of
54 transformations that are both biochemical and physical. First, in the mouth, via mastication, the
55 food matrix is fractured and torn and its components mixed together and with the secreted
56 fluids. Certain nutrients are solubilised into the salivary fluid, some hydrolysed (starch
57 primarily) and new interactions are created. In the gastric and intestinal environments, those
58 processes continue where macronutrients (protein, fat and carbohydrates) are further
59 hydrolysed, small compounds are released and may be absorbed and the remaining matrix
60 reaches the colon where it can be degraded by microorganisms notably via fermentation. It is
61 important to realise that bacteria also synthesise certain compounds (e.g., vitamins) within the
62 gut lumen, and that bacterial hydrolytic activity occurs throughout the GI tract, augmenting
63 mammalian enzyme activity (Wu et al., 2020). These complex and multiscale processes are
64 generally and collectively termed as “digestion” (Bornhorst et al., 2016). However, the word

65 covers many steps that require to be more accurately named and defined. A sequence of events
66 ought to be followed to allow a food component to reach the bloodstream or lymphatic system
67 (depending on the nature of the molecules absorbed) and be transported to the site (organ or
68 system) where it is metabolised by cells. Therefore, in a nutshell, digestion of food is an orderly,
69 systematic process that includes release and hydrolysis of nutrients, and transport of compounds
70 to the enterocytes. Small, structurally intact compounds coming in contact with the enterocytes
71 may be absorbed (but not all small compounds are absorbable such as structurally altered lysine
72 molecules) (Moughan et al., 1996).

73 The first step of digestion is the release of nutrients from the food matrix. This process can be
74 key for controlling absorption and the subsequent postprandial responses, particularly for hard
75 or mechanically resistant foods such as those containing intact plant-tissues, such as fruit,
76 vegetables, legumes and nuts. This nutrient release is defined by some as bioaccessibility
77 (Aguilera, 2019; Grundy et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2022; Marze, 2013; Mengucci et al., 2020).
78 However, others refer to bioaccessible nutrients as those able to interact with and be absorbed
79 by the enterocytes, and place less emphasis on food matrix degradation (Carbonell-Capella et
80 al., 2014; Fernandez-Garcia et al., 2009; Hayes, 2018; Thakur et al., 2020). In this regard, the
81 cell wall encapsulating plant cells plays a critical role as it can limit or prevent the release of
82 nutrients from the food matrix. The cell wall also affects other stages of digestion by decreasing
83 the probability of the enzymes binding with their substrate (via for instance an encapsulation
84 mechanism or increase in digestive content viscosity), hindering the release of hydrolysed
85 products from the cell/food matrix and/or interacting with the intestinal mucosa (Grundy et al.,
86 2016). All these processes can have an impact on animal or human physiology, such as transit,
87 post-prandial blood pattern and gut microbiota (Capuano & Pellegrini, 2019; Ratanpaul et al.,
88 2021). Finally, cell wall components (dietary fibre) reaching the distal gut serve as substrates

89 for bacterial fermentation, this process can lead to the liberation of more nutrients and energy,
90 which may be utilised either by the host or the gut bacteria (Widaningrum et al., 2022).

91 On the other hand, hydrolysis corresponds to the cleavage in water, due to the catalytic activity
92 of digestive enzymes, of chemical bonds that link sub-units (i.e., glucose, amino acids, and free
93 fatty acids and glycerol) of macromolecules together (i.e., starch, proteins and triacylglycerols)
94 (Le Feunteun et al., 2021). Hence, amylases hydrolyse glycosidic bonds in starch, proteases and
95 peptidases hydrolyse peptide bonds within proteins and peptides, and lipases hydrolyse the ester
96 bonds of triacylglycerols. A range of enzymes are secreted by the human and the animal, each
97 with their specific activity, in order to degrade polymers into absorbable molecules. The rate
98 and extent (kinetics) at which the hydrolysis takes place rely on the substrate (specific to the
99 enzyme), its availability (easily accessible by the enzyme), the form under which it is present,
100 and the conditions of the food or environment (e.g., pH, enzyme concentration, and presence
101 of compounds that may slow down, such as antinutrients, or enhance the reaction, such as
102 cofactors). With digestion being a dynamic process, the release and hydrolysis of
103 macronutrients can occur in either order, or simultaneously.

104 This commentary aims to highlight some of the inconsistencies in the concept of
105 bioaccessibility and closely associated vocabulary, particularly when considering
106 macronutrients in plant-based foods, where nutrient release and availability can be a significant
107 issue. Furthermore, the article also offers alternative definitions. Therefore, in this article, we
108 have focussed on plant-based foods as an example given the importance of the structure (food
109 matrix effect), especially the cell wall, in modulating the release and overall digestibility of the
110 nutrients contained within these foods.

111

112 **2. Bioaccessibility**

113 Early reports of the term “bioaccessibility” describe the “availability” or solubility of elements,
114 such as toxic metal ions, ingested from soil (Davis et al., 1997). It is also found in
115 pharmaceutical sciences and refers to the compounds, often drugs, released into the GI tract and
116 their absorption into the bloodstream (Kholodov et al., 1980). It has then been used by
117 nutritional scientists investigating micronutrients. It has been discussed in food and nutritional
118 sciences in 2002 (Stahl et al., 2002). In that work and in subsequent reports, there is the
119 suggestion, but no clear mention, of the effects of hydrolysis, which does not feature for
120 micronutrients or other biocomponents (Dima et al., 2020). Some definitions only imply the
121 release or solubilisation of a particular food component: “Here bioaccessibility is defined to
122 represent that fraction of the ingested mercury solubilized in the GI tract, while bioavailability
123 denotes the fraction actually absorbed” (Davis et al., 1997). This definition seems to be the one
124 understood by many scientists (Aguilera, 2019; Carbonell-Capella et al., 2014; Hayes, 2018;
125 Hu et al., 2022; Rasera et al., 2023; Thakur et al., 2020). Other authors agree that the term is
126 not clearly defined (Cardoso et al., 2015; Peijnenburg & Jager, 2003).

127 Recently, Mengucci et al. (2020) stated: “Bioaccessibility kinetics comprise description of both
128 release and transition to absorbable form.” What do the authors mean by transition? It could be
129 understood that the food matrix is (physically) transformed but the food compounds, such as
130 proteins, are not necessarily hydrolysed. However, macronutrients require to be hydrolysed by
131 enzymes to be broken down into absorbable compounds. In that case, can we say that the
132 products of proteolysis (amino acids and peptides) are “bioaccessible” (released from the food
133 matrix) given that the hydrolysis is likely to happen mainly outside the food matrix (in the
134 aqueous environment of the lumen and the brush-border membrane of the enterocytes)? And
135 how can we distinguish between release from the food matrix and hydrolysis. On the other
136 hand, some macronutrients, even though not released, can still be hydrolysed (at least partially)
137 by digestive enzymes if the enzymes are able to penetrate the cell wall and reach the

138 intracellular environment (Colosimo et al., 2020; Grundy et al., 2022). This situation is most
139 commonly observed where the substrate is a macromolecular assembly such as a starch granule,
140 lipid or protein body, and therefore more easily retained in the matrix. Le Feunteun et al. (2021)
141 are more specific in their definition: “Proportion of a nutrient that is chemically and physically
142 available for absorption by the small intestine”. Given the confusion arising from quite different
143 viewpoints, we suggest that the term “bioaccessibility” be used solely to refer to the ability of
144 an enzyme to access its substrate. This definition would cover an enzyme’s ability to diffuse
145 through a porous cell wall and hydrolyse entrapped substrates. So, for this specific example,
146 the nutrients are physically inaccessible (i.e. it is not spontaneously released from the matrix
147 into the gut lumen), but biochemically accessible. It could also cover molecules that are
148 intrinsically resistant to hydrolysis such as resistant starch, that could be bioaccessible but not
149 hydrolysable (in the upper GI tract). This illustrates the complexity of defining
150 “bioaccessibility” particularly regarding the inclusion or not of the hydrolysis step.

151 The current lack of clarity and consensus in this nomenclature can impact research in this field.
152 This is mostly true when employing *in vitro* methods aimed at unveiling the mechanisms
153 underpinning the various stages of digestion. Bioaccessibility defined as the release of food
154 components is a “theoretical” notion that is best investigated *in vitro* due to the high degree of
155 control over the experimental conditions (more than 75% of the studies encountered in the
156 literature that report the bioaccessibility of food compound(s) were performed *in vitro*). For
157 example, incubation of a food/feed in simulated digestive fluids can easily be performed
158 without enzymes present, enabling the differentiation between macronutrient release and their
159 hydrolysis, which is very difficult and expensive to achieve *in vivo*. In nutritional science, more
160 and more attention has been paid to the role and fate of the food matrix during digestion since
161 it has significant consequences on the absorption of digested compounds, and thereby the
162 postprandial response and subsequent health effects. In that perspective, it is critical to evaluate

163 the kinetics of enzymes activity (digestion) that rely on the ability of those enzymes to be in
164 contact with their substrate (macronutrients). As mentioned above, in plant-based foods or
165 ingredients, cell walls play an important role in macronutrient release and hydrolysis (Edwards
166 et al., 2021; Grundy et al., 2016).

167

168

169 The question therefore is at what stage of digestion to consider and assess the bioaccessibility
170 of a macronutrient. Is it simply the release of the compound from the matrix, making it available
171 for hydrolysis and subsequent absorption? Or is it the ability of the digestive enzymes to bind
172 to and hydrolyse the substrate? As stated above, it is possible for macronutrient assemblies such
173 as starch granules to be trapped in a matrix, but the enzymes are small enough to diffuse into
174 the matrix and can access and hydrolyse the substrate. Therefore, we propose that the
175 bioaccessibility of a macronutrient be more clearly defined as the proportion of a macronutrient
176 that is accessible by digestive enzymes and hydrolysed to release the absorbable hydrolysis
177 products, irrespective of whether the macronutrient substrate has been released from the matrix
178 or not. The details for this premise are discussed in more detail below.

179

180 **3. Digestion and digestibility**

181 This brings us to another term closely related to bioaccessibility that has different meanings
182 based on the authors or audience: “digestibility”.

183 Digestion can be defined as the transformation of the food during digestion, such as swelling
184 or size reduction of particles, and the hydrolysis of macronutrients by digestive enzymes
185 secreted by the human or the animal (Bornhorst et al., 2016; Goodman, 2010). On the other

186 hand, digestion, especially within the field of animal science, relates to both the enzymatic
187 hydrolysis and microbial fermentation of ingested nutrients, and the absorption of the products
188 from the GI lumen (Stein et al., 2007). Classically, the term “digestibility” refers to the
189 “disappearance” of a compound during its transit through the GI tract, which is a generic term
190 that can refer to a number of different mechanisms. Digestive physiology varies between
191 species, with ruminants having a highly developed foregut, that utilises microbial fermentation
192 to break down the tough cell wall materials to make the nutrients in the feed more bioaccessible
193 and available prior to digestion in the stomach and small intestine (Fujimori, 2021; Karasov &
194 Douglas, 2013). Digestibility is subdivided as apparent, true, real and standardised digestibility.
195 The term “standardised” digestibility is mainly found in animal nutrition. The distinction
196 between those “different types” of digestibility is mainly empirical and based on the method
197 used to determine gut endogenous nutrient losses (Moughan, 2023). It is also nutrient dependent
198 as it applies primarily to amino acids. One issue with the measurement of digestibility, defined
199 as nutrient disappearance, is that disappearance of a nutrient does not necessarily mean that the
200 nutrient has been absorbed.

201 When trying to differentiate the different set of events that occur during digestion (travel of a
202 complex food within the GI tract up to the absorption of molecules and ions by the enterocytes)
203 the definition of digestibility can lead to imprecision. Indeed, the term covers not only the
204 hydrolysis and transformation of the food but also absorption and fermentation. So, different
205 compartments of the GI tract with distinct roles are designated within a single definition. The
206 same applies to the nature of the processes studied (biochemical, mechanical, physical and
207 physiological) and the scales. Digestibility in that context seems to describe the physiological
208 response of the animal and not so much the degradation of the food/feed matrix.

209 Biochemical reactions, through the hydrolysis by enzymes, cannot occur if the enzyme is not
210 in contact with its substrate. In the strict biochemical sense of the term, digestion signifies

211 hydrolysing polymers (e.g., protein and starch) into their constitutive, absorbable units (amino
212 acid and glucose) (Goodman, 2010). The hydrolyses of those macronutrients will eventually
213 provide energy via different metabolic pathways, based on the nutrients and the physiological
214 state of the human or animal. Once again, there does not seem to be a consensus around the
215 meaning of “macronutrients”. According to Le Feunteun et al. (2021), “the term macronutrient
216 refers to the biopolymers initially present in foods (starch, lipid, protein) that need to be
217 hydrolysed by GI secreted enzymes to be converted into nutrients. Sugars and fibres, which are
218 not hydrolysed by GI secreted enzymes, are therefore not included in this definition.”
219 Furthermore, some macronutrient polymers are naturally resistant to hydrolysis. For example,
220 some proteins with a high degree of secondary structure can resist hydrolysis (Foegeding &
221 Davis, 2011; Salazar-Villanea et al., 2016). Some starches with higher levels of ordering or
222 crystallinity can resist hydrolysis by endogenous digestive enzymes. Thereby, these
223 components may well be rendered bioaccessible to digestive enzymes, but their availability for
224 uptake is hindered by their molecular structure (Butterworth et al., 2022; Dhital et al., 2019).

225 Furthermore, in animal science, the distinction is often made between digestible nutrients and
226 digestible energy (Świąch, 2017). In human nutrition, energy is often given as calories as
227 determined using the Atwater general factor system. The use of the generalised factors assumes
228 that there is no effect of food type on nutrient digestibility, which is not the case. Following
229 this, 1 g of carbohydrate and protein provides 4 kcal, and 1 g of lipid provides 9 kcal.
230 Furthermore, the susceptibility to hydrolysis of many of these compounds or nutrients can be
231 altered through processing or cooking, altering molecular structure (Aguilera et al., 2019;
232 Groopman et al., 2015). Hence consumption of identical raw or cooked foods can have very
233 different postprandial nutrient responses. Determining metabolizable energy of a food, by
234 actually measuring the nutrient response *in vivo*, though also empirical, seems to give a better
235 appraisal of the energy actually utilised from a food (Gebauer et al., 2016).

236

237 4. Precise and accurate definitions to enable the description of mechanisms

238 How can we improve our understanding of the mechanisms behind digestion if we are not able
239 to describe them with appropriate, specific terms? As discussed above, currently, the release,
240 hydrolysis and absorption of nutritional components are incorporated into a single definition.
241 Therefore, the word “bioaccessibility” is neither precise nor accurate.

242 The release, as we refer to as bioaccessibility, of food components results from a highly
243 integrated complex process, governed by various mechanisms, occurring at different scales.
244 Before (native and processed ingredients) and during digestion, molecules from foods or feeds
245 interact together to form structures that have physicochemical properties and behaviours that
246 can be studied at different levels (nano-, micro-, meso- and macroscale). It is necessary to
247 investigate these interactions to understand and eventually predict the physiological impact of
248 the ingestion of a food or a feed. One way of doing this is to analyse its nutrient content while
249 following its evolution and transformation throughout its transit in the GI tract. This can be
250 done for individual nutrients (e.g., proteins and generated amino acids and peptides) while also
251 examining the overall matrix degradation. By doing so, both quantitative and qualitative data
252 can be obtained: i) quantitative measurements of macronutrient hydrolysis (kinetics: rate and
253 extent), and potentially the “energy” that can be obtained by the organism following digestion,
254 and ii) qualitative information that complements the former by giving an appraisal of the overall
255 food matrix (e.g., network generated between molecules, coagulation or precipitation of certain
256 compounds, cell wall integrity).

257 This knowledge is also valuable for studying the microbiota since the delivery form of food
258 components to the terminal small intestine and colon affects bacterial activity. Compounds that
259 are available to microorganisms can be fermented, although the repertoire of enzymes they

260 possess is much more diverse than the endogenous enzymes secreted by mammals and thereby
261 results in a greater degradation of the food/feed matrix (Flint et al., 2012). The nature and
262 organisation of dietary fibres, the main substrates of the microbiota, within the cell wall matrix
263 determine how they are fermented as it relies on the enzymes having access (bioaccessible?) to
264 them (Bulut et al., 2023; Puhlmann & de Vos, 2022). The resulting hydrolytic products can then
265 be metabolised either by the host or the gut bacteria, offering a further complication to the
266 accurate interpretation of these terms.

267 Absorption, digestibility and bioavailability are distinct terms to bioaccessibility, even though
268 they all describe different events underlying to the absorption of nutrients via the enterocytes.
269 **Absorption** corresponds to the uptake of molecules and ions by the enterocytes; **digestibility**
270 the hydrolysis and sets of transformation occurring to the food matrix as discussed above,
271 release of nutrients and uptake by the enterocytes (classically defined as nutrient
272 disappearance), and **bioavailability**, the use of the nutrients and other food compounds by the
273 organism. “Bioavailability” has been usually described as the uptake of nutrients from the GI
274 tract in a structural form that is utilisable for metabolism (Fuller, 2012). Some authors use the
275 terms “digestibility” and “bioavailability” synonymously.

276
277 Following our suggested use of the term “bioaccessible”, possible scenarios, that remain to be
278 elucidated for a wide range of foods and feeds, can be classified (see Figure 2) as follows:

279 **-Bioaccessible and hydrolysable** – nutrients are released from the food matrix and are
280 hydrolysed into smaller molecules

281 **-Not bioaccessible and hydrolysable** – enzymes can diffuse into the food matrix (e.g.
282 through cell walls), hydrolyse the substrate and the products diffuse out of (are released from)
283 the matrix.

284 **-Not bioaccessible and not, or only partially, hydrolysable** – nutrients remain
285 encapsulated within the food matrix and the enzymes cannot access them.

286 **-Bioaccessible and not, or partially, hydrolysable** – nutrients are solubilised (or released
287 from the food matrix) but their molecular structure, or interactions with other food compounds
288 or agents could prevent/restrict hydrolysis and/or absorption (e.g., anti-nutrients binding
289 essential minerals or inhibiting enzymes). In that latter category are included molecules that are
290 resistant to hydrolysis because of their structure, such as certain proteins, resistant starch, and
291 soluble fibres. Some of those fibres and compounds may be fermented by bacteria and
292 contribute, to various degrees, to the availability of nutrients and energy depending on diet and
293 species.

294

295 The gut microbiota

296 Several aspects concerning the profuse and diverse microbiota that is found throughout the
297 human and the animal GI tract can be emphasised here, with particular activity being found in
298 the ileum and colon.

299 The first aspect is that bacteria secrete a range of enzymes that could be active in food/feed
300 digestion (their influence has been largely overlooked), in addition to the mammalian enzymes
301 (Cerqueira et al., 2020; Flint et al., 2012; Kaoutari et al., 2013). Released nutrients can be
302 absorbed by bacteria and fermented, with short chain fatty acids or simple organic acids being
303 produced and absorbed by the host as nutrients (and in some cases as physiological regulators).
304 The microorganisms can also synthesise compounds that are released into the GI tract (e.g.,
305 cobalamin) (Roth et al., 1996).

306 The second aspect relates to bioaccessibility. Nutrients once released from the food matrix, are
307 hydrolysed (macronutrients are thus converted into absorbable molecules) and enter the soluble
308 pool in the gut lumen and then are accessible for cellular absorption. But these newly produced

309 molecules may be absorbed by two types of cell: the enterocyte (in the small intestine) or a
310 bacterium. In the latter case, the molecule will be fermented or metabolised and the resultant
311 product of process will enter the soluble pool and once again become accessible for enterocyte
312 absorption. For example, various enzymes can lead to the release of glucose from starch which
313 will enter the gut soluble pool (Cerqueira et al., 2020). Glucose molecules may be absorbed by
314 the enterocyte or by a bacterium and, in this case, be fermented to generate short-chain fatty
315 acids (Gromova et al., 2021). So, in this context, bioaccessibility is not restricted to accessibility
316 by enterocytes (host).

317 Moreover, bacteria can increase the bioaccessibility of macronutrients by degrading the cell
318 wall of plant-based foods or feeds (Puhlmann & de Vos, 2022; Rastall et al., 2022). Nutrients
319 encapsulated within the food matrix can then become available for hydrolysis and/or
320 absorption. However, this is likely to take place primarily in the lower small intestine and colon
321 where the populations of bacteria are denser, and the amount of nutrients released will depend
322 on the integrity of the cell walls (Widaningrum et al., 2022). Any macronutrients released in
323 the colon are likely to be used mainly for bacteria (potentially beneficial for the host) as
324 endogenous enzymes are less active in that compartment and the absorption of products of
325 digestion is low. On the other hand, certain micronutrients can be used directly by the host (e.g.,
326 vitamin and minerals such as iron) (Mayneris-Perxachs et al., 2022).

327 A further aspect is that bacteria can metabolise some molecules that have been released into the
328 gut lumen altering their molecular structures and thus rendering the molecules more bioactive
329 (e.g., certain phenolic compounds) (Rodríguez-Daza et al., 2021).

330 Therefore, the term “bioaccessibility” can also be used to describe the extent to which the food
331 matrix and the macromolecules imbedded within the food matrix are accessible to both
332 mammalian and bacterial enzymes. Therefore, the term as currently used has two distinct
333 meanings, dependent upon the situation. It is suggested that “bioaccessibility” could be used to

334 refer to the latter phenomenon, with the term “solubilisation” being used to infer a nutrient that
335 has been released from the food matrix, and that has entered the GI tract soluble pool. Just
336 because a molecule has entered the latter pool, it does not mean that it is bioaccessible. For
337 instance, certain peptides are soluble but not absorbed.

338

339 **5. Conclusion**

340 The challenge faced by scientists working in the field of nutrition (and this is also true for other
341 disciplines) is to use terms that can be understood by themselves but also by different
342 communities. Both “bioaccessibility” and “digestibility” are somehow too generic and combine
343 different notions belonging to biochemistry, biophysics, biomechanics, physiology and
344 nutrition. Ideally, it should be possible to describe processes taking place during digestion that
345 can be translated at different scales (e.g., nutrients, food, tissues/cells, and host) without losing
346 their meaning.

347 The terms bioaccessibility, digestibility, bioavailability have often been confused over time and
348 have lost some of their meaning, particularly when comparing different published studies.
349 Therefore, in our view these should be the definitions:

350 **-Bioaccessibility:**

351 For macronutrients: luminal accessibility of a food compound to enzymes (digestive from the
352 host or of bacterial origin) that become potentially available for absorption. This covers both
353 scenarios where the hydrolysis step can occur either before (scenario 2 in Figure 2) or after
354 release of the substrate from the food matrix (scenario 1 in Figure 2). In this instance, the
355 hydrolysis requires to be differentiated from the release as certain food compounds may resist
356 digestion. Therefore, some nutrients may enter the soluble pool in the GI tract lumen but not be
357 hydrolysable or absorbable (e.g., certain peptides, scenario 4 in Figure 2).

358 For micronutrients: release of potentially absorbable food components from the food matrix or
359 macromolecular assembly, into the GI tract lumen, allowing them to reach the site of absorption
360 (enterocytes or microbial).

361 **-Digestibility**: the luminal disappearance of a nutrient (hydrolysis for macronutrients)
362 during its passage through the GI tract.

363 Note: true, apparent, real and standardised digestibility are long-standing terms used in both
364 human and animal nutrition, but have very specific meanings depending upon what and how
365 fractions of gut endogenous nutrient flow are determined.

366 **-Bioavailability**: the amount of an ingested nutrient that is released from the food matrix
367 during digestion, hydrolysed, absorbed via the GI tract, transported and distributed to cells and
368 tissues in a chemical form that is available for utilization in metabolic functions or for storage.
369 The term should therefore cover the uptake of a compound into the circulation or lymphatic
370 system and the reaching of target organs and tissues. In fact, many scientists consider it to refer
371 to the extent and rate at which the active moiety (nutrient, drug or metabolite) enters the
372 systemic circulation, thereby reaching the site of action. This is different from bioefficacy
373 where the moiety is taken up by the target organ where it exerts its biological activity which in
374 turn manifests itself in the phenotypic function of an organ.

375 Note: here we assume that a molecule that is not able to reach its target tissue is not bioavailable.

376 Overall, defining bioaccessibility may well be nutrient dependent. For macronutrients, it refers
377 to when they are accessible to hydrolytic enzymes (host or bacteria). For micronutrients, it could
378 be when they are made accessible for absorption by release from the food matrix. Their
379 “bioavailability” for uptake is then dependent on their susceptibility to hydrolysis
380 (macronutrients) or interactions (sequestration) with other compounds which prevent
381 absorption (micronutrients).

382

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Table

Table 1: Summary of the definitions of “bioaccessibility” found in the literature and their limitations

Definitions	References*	Limitations
Solubility of compounds or nutrients	Davis et al., 1997	Some food compounds may be released from the food matrix but may not be soluble in the aqueous environment of the digestive tract (e.g., hydrophobic compounds including lipids, aggregates or precipitate)
Release of nutrients from the food matrix	Aguilera, 2019 ; Butterworth et al., 2022 ; Grundy et al., 2022 ; Hu et al., 2022 ; Marze, 2013 ; Mengucci et al., 2020.	It does not cover the fact that some macronutrients are accessible to digestive enzymes but still enclosed within the food matrix (e.g., enzymes that can penetrate the cell wall of plant-based foods).
Release of nutrients from the food matrix and the hydrolysis of macronutrients - nutrients thus become potentially available for absorption	Capuano & Pellegrini, 2019 ; Carbonell-Capella et al., 2014 ; Cardoso et al., 2015 ; Colosimo et al., 2020 ; Edwards et al., 2021 ; Grundy et al., 2016 ; Le Feunteun et al., 2021 ; Rasera et al., 2023 ; Stahl et al., 2002 ; Thakur et al., 2020	Both release and hydrolysis are included in this definition which does not permit to discriminate between these two aspects of the digestion process. This general definition could be suitable for micronutrients but not so much for macronutrients.
Compounds released into the gastrointestinal tract and their absorption into the bloodstream	Dima, et al. 2020 ; Kholodov et al., 1980 ; Fernandez-Garcia et al., 2009 ; Hayes, 2018 ; Peijnenburg & Jager, 2003	Degradation of the food matrix, including hydrolysis by digestive enzymes, is not clearly identified in this definition whereas the absorption step is added.

*The list of references is not exhaustive, only a few examples (previously cited in the article) are given

Figures

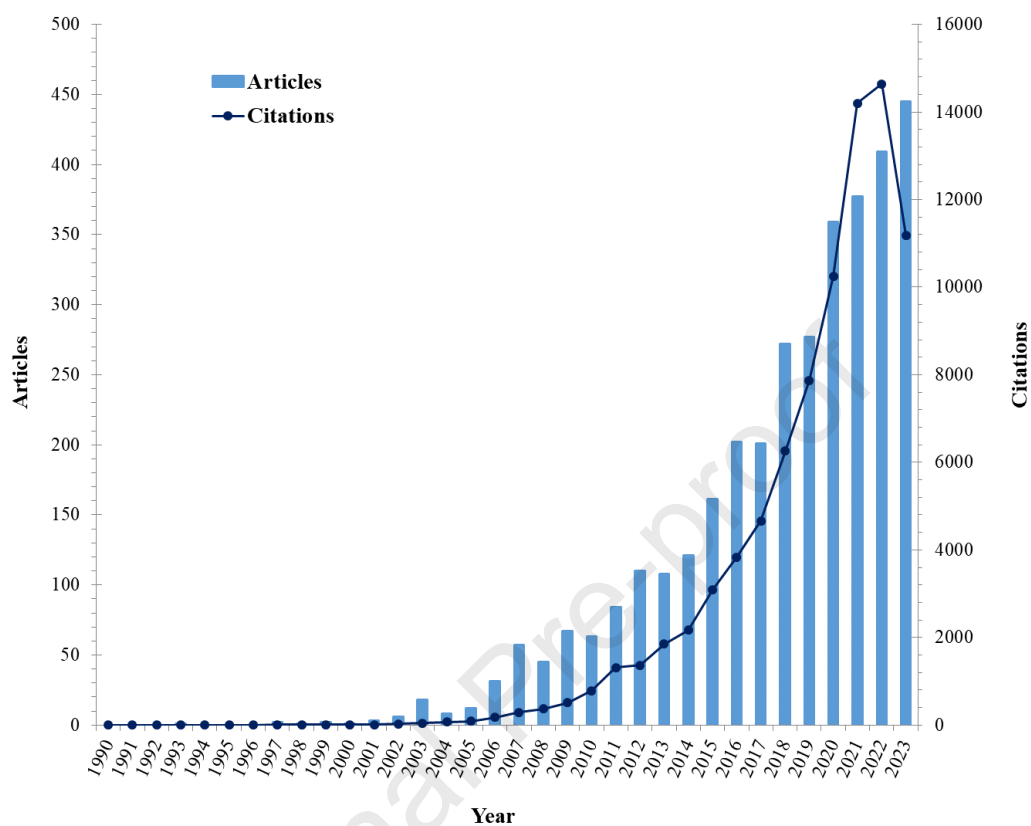


Figure 1: Titles present in the literature containing the word “bioaccessibility” and the citation trend over the past 30 years (sources: Scopus and Pubmed).

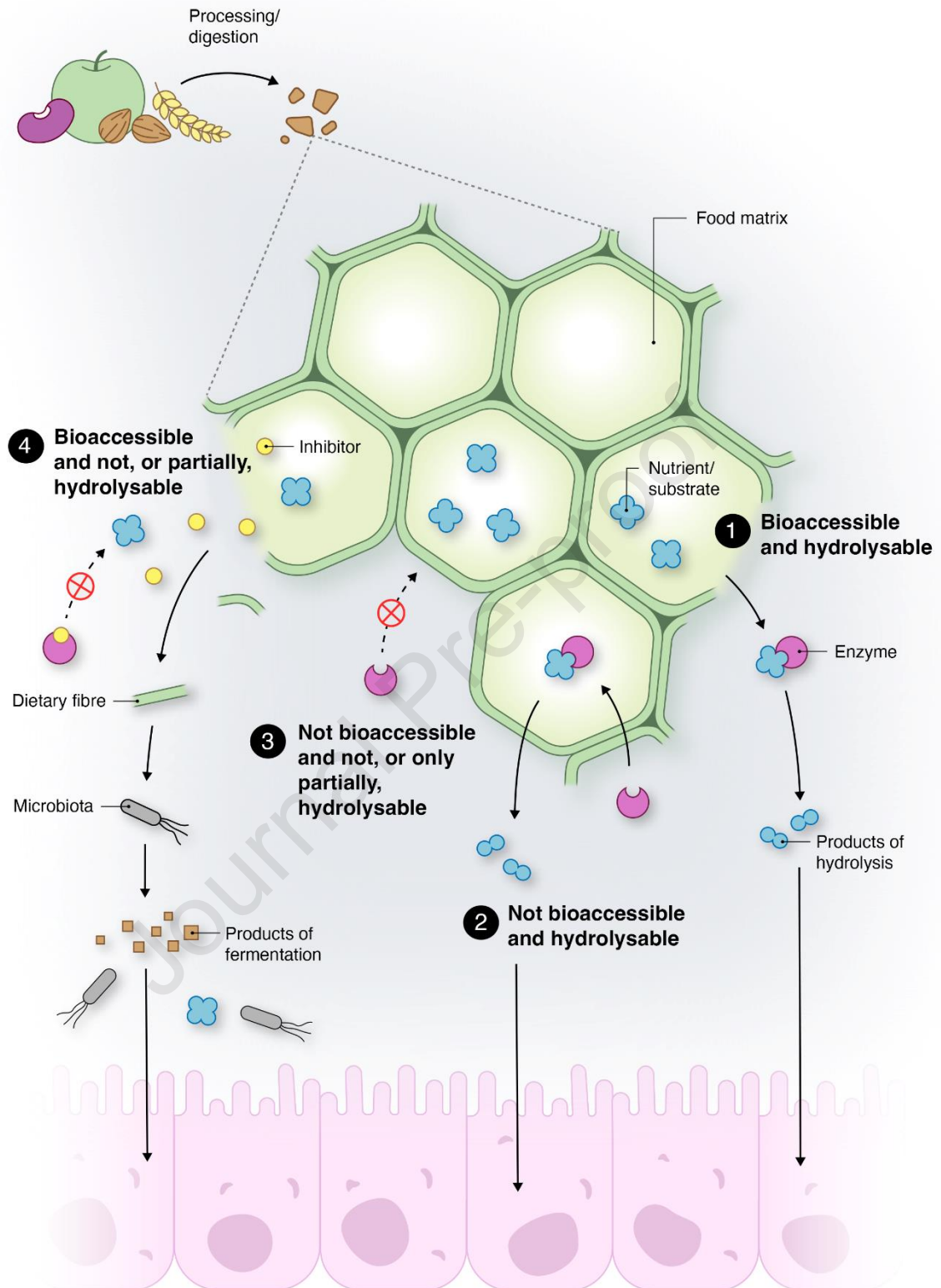


Figure 2: Schematic representation of the 4 scenarios identified for the bioaccessibility and hydrolysis of nutrients (biopolymers) in a plant-based food.

Highlights

- Different definitions of “Bioaccessibility” are found in the literature
- A clear definition is necessary to understand the set of events occurring during digestion
- Four main scenarios related to “Bioaccessibility” can be identified
- Some definitions are suggested

Journal Pre-proof

Author Contributions

Myriam M.L. Grundy: Conceptualization, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing.

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