

**Universidad Miguel Hernández**  
**Escuela Politécnica Superior de Orihuela**  
Departamento de Tecnología Agroalimentaria



**Caracterización de fibras dietéticas  
procedentes de coproductos  
agroindustriales para su aplicación,  
como producto alimentario  
intermedio, en alimentos  
enriquecidos en fibra: Propiedades  
Tecnofuncionales y Fisiofuncionales**

Memoria realizada para optar al título de Doctor, presentada por

Maria Cruz López Marcos

Orihuela 2017



**Universidad Miguel Hernández**  
**Escuela Politécnica Superior de Orihuela**  
Departamento de Tecnología Agroalimentaria



**Caracterización de fibras dietéticas  
procedentes de coproductos  
agroindustriales para su aplicación,  
como producto alimentario  
intermedio, en alimentos  
enriquecidos en fibra: Propiedades  
Tecnofuncionales y Fisiofuncionales**

**TESIS DOCTORAL**

*Presentada por:*

***Maria Cruz López Marcos***

*Directores:*

***Manuel Viuda Martos***

***José Angel Pérez Alvarez***





**Dr. José Ramón Díaz Sánchez**, Dr. Ingeniero Agrónomo, Catedrático de Universidad y Director del Departamento de Tecnología Agroalimentaria de la Universidad Miguel Hernández,

**INFORMA:**

Que atendiendo al informe presentado por los Dres. Manuel Viuda Martos profesor Ayudante Doctor y José Angel Pérez Álvarez Catedrático de Universidad del Departamento de Tecnología Agroalimentaria de la Universidad Miguel Hernández, la Tesis Doctoral titulada “**Caracterización de fibras dietéticas procedentes de coproductos agroindustriales para su aplicación, como producto alimentario intermedio, en alimentos enriquecidos en fibra: Propiedades Tecnofuncionales y Fisiofuncionales**” de la que es autora la Licenciada en Ciencia y Tecnología de Alimentos Dª María Cruz López Marcos ha sido realizada bajo la dirección de los Dres. citados, puede ser presentada para su correspondiente exposición pública.

Y para que conste a los efectos oportunos firmo el presente informe en Orihuela a \_\_\_\_\_ de \_\_\_\_\_ de 2017.

**Fdo.: Dr. José Ramón Díaz Sánchez**



**Universidad Miguel Hernández**  
**Escuela Politécnica Superior de Orihuela**  
Departamento de Tecnología Agroalimentaria



**Caracterización de fibras dietéticas  
procedentes de coproductos  
agroindustriales para su aplicación,  
como producto alimentario  
intermedio, en alimentos  
enriquecidos en fibra: Propiedades  
Tecnofuncionales y Fisiofuncionales**

**Dr. Manuel Viuda Martos**

**Dr. José Angel Pérez Alvarez**

**Maria Cruz Lopez Marcos**





**D. Manuel Viuda Martos**, Dr. por la Universidad Miguel Hernández y Profesor Ayudante Doctor del Departamento de Tecnología Agroalimentaria de la Universidad Miguel Hernández.

**D. José Angel Perez Alvarez**, Dr. Ingeniero Agrónomo y Catedrático de Universidad, del Departamento de Tecnología Agroalimentaria de la Universidad Miguel Hernández.

**CERTIFICAN:**

Que la Tesis Doctoral Titulada “**Caracterización de fibras dietéticas procedentes de coproductos agroindustriales para su aplicación, como producto alimentario intermedio, en alimentos enriquecidos en fibra: Propiedades Tecnofuncionales y Fisiofuncionales**” llevada a cabo por la Licenciada en Ciencia y Tecnología de los Alimentos **Maria Cruz López Marcos** ha sido realizada bajo nuestra dirección y autorizamos a que sea presentada para optar a la obtención del grado de Doctor por la Universidad Miguel Hernández.

Y para que conste a los efectos oportunos se firma el presente certificado en Orihuela a veintiocho de junio de dos mil diecisiete.

Fdo.: Dr. Manuel Viuda Martos

Fdo.: Dr. Jose Angel Perez Alvarez





*La lectura es como el alimento; el provecho no está en proporción de lo que se come, sino de lo que se digiere.*

*Jaume Llucia Antoni Balmes*



## AGRADECIMIENTOS

---

Lo primero de todo, me gustaría agradecer a mis directores Manuel Viuda Martos y José Ángel Pérez Álvarez por haberme permitido formar parte de este proyecto. Ellos me han demostrado que al final todo esfuerzo tiene su recompensa, por difícil que haya sido el camino. Nunca olvidaré aquella llamada de teléfono que me hizo retomar las riendas de la tesis, a pesar de los inconvenientes que acarrearían en mi rutina diaria. Sinceramente, gracias por poder quitarme esa pequeña espina clavada.

Me gustaría también mostrar mi gratitud al resto de los miembros del grupo IPOA por su ayuda prestada siempre que lo he necesitado, por sus ánimos y por hacerme sentir una más del grupo. También quiero mostrar mi agradecimiento, especialmente a Juana Fernández López por su dedicación desinteresada y por haber creído en mí desde el principio.

Agradezco especialmente la ayuda de todos los que en algún momento han formado parte de la gran familia del laboratorio durante todos estos años, así como al resto de grupos del Departamento de Tecnología Agroalimentaria. En primer lugar a una persona que conocí nada más comenzar mi etapa universitaria y que hoy día sigue siendo mi amiga y compañera, Lorena gracias por todo tu apoyo y por estar siempre a mi lado cuando te he necesitado. A Ana por todos los buenos momentos y ayuda prestada a lo largo de estos años.

Finamente, me gustaría agradecer personalmente a mi familia. A mi madre y mi suegra por su ayuda prestada en todo momento. A mi hermana por animarme a llevar a cabo dicho proyecto. A mi marido por creer en mí, por estar a mi lado en los momentos difíciles y por ofrecerme cariño a pesar de mis altibajos. A Lola y Martín, esas dos cositas pequeñas que quiero con locura y que hacen que los momentos difíciles se desvanezcan con una simple sonrisa suya.





*A mi familia*



## **ÍNDICE**

ÍNDICE GENERAL.....	I
ÍNDICE DE TABLAS.....	IV
ÍNDICE DE FIGURAS.....	V
ESTRUCTURA DE LA TESIS.....	VI

## **ÍNDICE GENERAL**

---

<b>CAPÍTULO 1.- INTRODUCCIÓN</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1. VISIÓN DE LA ALIMENTACIÓN: ALIMENTOS FUNCIONALES.....</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>1.2. LOS COPRODUCTOS DE LA INDUSTRIA AGROALIMENTARIA.....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1.2.1. Coproductos procedentes de la industrialización de frutos cítricos.....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>1.2.2. Coproductos procedentes de la industrialización de la granada (<i>Punica granatum L.</i>).....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>1.2.3. Coproductos procedentes de la industrialización de la chufa (<i>Cyperus esculentus, L.</i>).....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.3. LA FIBRA DIETÉTICA.....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.3.1. Concepto de fibra dietética.....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>1.3.2. Clasificación y composición.....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.3.3. Fibra dietética y enfermedades cardiovasculares.....</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>1.3.4. Efectos beneficiosos de la fibra dietética.....</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>1.3.5. Fibra dietética y control de colesterol.....</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>1.3.5.1. Efecto y mecanismo de acción de la fibra dietética como agente reductor de hiperlipidemias e hipercolesterolemia.....</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>1.3.6. Fibra dietética y ácidos biliares.....</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>1.3.7. Características de las fibras para la disminución de colesterol.....</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>1.3.8. Modelos de digestión “<i>in vitro</i>” de la fibra dietética.....</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>CAPÍTULO 2.- OBJETIVO</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>2.1. HIPÓTESIS DE TRABAJO.....</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>2.2. OBJETIVO PRINCIPAL.....</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>2.3. OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS.....</b>	<b>30</b>

<b>CAPÍTULO 3.- MATERIALES Y MÉTODOS</b>	<b>31</b>
<hr/>	
<b>3.1. INTRODUCCIÓN AL DISEÑO EXPERIMENTAL.....</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>3.2. MATERIAL VEGETAL.....</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>3.3. CARACTERIZACIÓN DE LAS MATERIAS PRIMAS.....</b>	<b>34</b>
<b>3.3.1. Composición proximal.....</b>	<b>34</b>
3.3.1.1. Humedad.....	34
3.3.1.2. Cenizas.....	34
3.3.1.3. Proteínas.....	34
3.3.1.4. Grasas.....	34
3.3.1.5. Hidratos de carbono.....	34
3.3.1.6. Contenido en fibra dietética.....	34
<b>3.3.2. Análisis físico-químico.....</b>	<b>35</b>
3.3.2.1. pH.....	35
3.3.2.2. Color.....	35
<b>3.3.3. Propiedades tecnofuncionales.....</b>	<b>35</b>
3.3.3.1. Capacidad de retención de agua (CRA).....	35
3.3.3.2. Capacidad de retención de aceite (CRO).....	36
3.3.3.3. Capacidad de hinchamiento (CH).....	36
3.3.3.4. Actividad emulsificante (AE).....	36
3.3.3.5. Estabilidad de la emulsión (EE).....	37
<b>3.3.4. Propiedades fisiofuncionales.....</b>	<b>37</b>
3.3.4.1. Capacidad de retención de bilis (CRB).....	37
3.3.4.2. Fat/Oil Binding (FOB).....	38
3.3.4.3. Capacidad de adsorción de colesterol (ChAc).....	38
<b>3.4. SISTEMA MODELO CÁRNICO (MUESTRA CÁRNICA) CON FIBRA DIETÉTICA.....</b>	<b>39</b>
<b>3.4.1. Proceso de elaboración.....</b>	<b>39</b>
<b>3.4.2. Modelo de digestión “<i>in vitro</i>”.....</b>	<b>39</b>
3.4.2.1. Distribución de fases de los productos de la digestión “ <i>in vitro</i> ”.....	42
<b>3.5. ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO.....</b>	<b>43</b>
<hr/>	
<b>CAPÍTULO 4.- RESULTADOS Y DISCUSIÓN</b>	<b>44</b>
<hr/>	
<b>4.1. INTRODUCCIÓN A LA DISCUSIÓN.....</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>4.2. CARACTERIZACIÓN DEL MATERIAL VEGETAL.....</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>4.2.1. Composición proximal de los distintos coproductos.....</b>	<b>46</b>

<b>4.3. PROPIEDADES FISICO-QUIMICAS.....</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>4.3.1. pH .....</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>4.3.2. Color.....</b>	<b>51</b>
<b>4.4. PROPIEDADES TECNOFUNCIONALES.....</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>4.4.1. Capacidad de retención de agua (CRA).....</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>4.4.2. Capacidad de retención de aceite (CRO).....</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>4.4.3. Capacidad de hinchamiento (CH).....</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>4.2.4. Actividad emulsificante (AE) y estabilidad de la emulsión (EE).....</b>	<b>58</b>
<b>4.5. PROPIEDADES FISIOFUNCIONALES.....</b>	<b>60</b>
<b>4.5.1. Capacidad de retención de bilis (CRB).....</b>	<b>60</b>
<b>4.5.2. Fat/oil binding (FOB).....</b>	<b>61</b>
<b>4.5.3. Capacidad de adsorción de colesterol (ChAC).....</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>4.6. DIGESTIÓN “IN VITRO”.....</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>4.6.1. Distribución de fases en la digestión “<i>in vitro</i>”.....</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>4.6.2. Distribución de colesterol en las distintas fases de la digestión “<i>in vitro</i>”.....</b>	<b>66</b>
<hr/> <b>CAPÍTULO 5.- CONCLUSIONES</b>	<b>69</b>
<hr/> <b>CAPÍTULO 6.- BIBLIOGRAFÍA</b>	<b>73</b>
<hr/> <b>CAPÍTULO 7.- PUBLICACIONES</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>7.1. ROLE OF FIBER IN CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASES: A REVIEW.....</b>	<b>93</b>
<b>7.2. PROPERTIES OF DIETARY FIBERS FROM AGROINDUSTRIAL COPRODUCTS AS SOURCE FOR FIBER-ENRICHED FOODS.....</b>	<b>113</b>
<b>7.3. EFFECTS OF VARIOUS FIBRE-RICH EXTRACTS ON CHOLESTEROL BINDING CAPACITY DURING IN VITRO DIGESTION OF PORK PATTIES.....</b>	<b>123</b>

## ÍNDICE DE TABLAS

---

<b>Tabla 1:</b> Efectos beneficiosos de la fibra dietética soluble e insoluble.....	17
<b>Tabla 2:</b> Composición de las soluciones de electrolitos para la fase salivar, gástrica e intestinal del proceso de digestión “ <i>in vitro</i> ” .....	40
<b>Tabla 3.-</b> Composición química (humedad, fibra dietética total, azúcares, proteína, grasa y ceniza) de los distintos coproductos ricos en fibra obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.....	47
<b>Tabla 4.-</b> Valores de las coordenadas de color CIELAB: L*(Luminosidad), a* (rojo-verde) y b* (amarillo-azul) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.....	52
<b>Tabla 5.-</b> Valores de la Capacidad de Retención de Agua (CRA) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.....	54
<b>Tabla 6.-</b> Valores de la Capacidad de Retención de Aceite (CRO) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.....	56
<b>Tabla 7.-</b> Valores de la Capacidad de Hinchamiento (CH) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.....	58
<b>Tabla 8.-</b> Valores Actividad emulsificante (AE) y estabilidad de la emulsión (EE) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria....	59
<b>Tabla 9.-</b> Valores de la Capacidad de Retención de Bilis (CRB) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.....	60
<b>Tabla 10.-</b> Valores de Fat/oil binding (FOB) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.....	62
<b>Tabla 11.-</b> Colesterol retenido (%) en cada una de las fases obtenidas después de la digestión “ <i>in vitro</i> ” de las muestras cárnicas con extractos ricos en fibra dietética...	67

## ÍNDICE DE FIGURAS

---

<b>Figura 1.-</b> Clasificación de fibras dietéticas.....	13
<b>Figura 2.-</b> Efectos fisiológicos del consumo de fibras dietéticas.....	15
<b>Figura 3.</b> Mecanismos implicados en la acción hipocolesterolémante de la fibra dietética.....	21
<b>Figura 4.-</b> Mecanismos de acción propuestos de la fibra para disminuir el colesterol (re) absorción de colesterol y ácidos biliares. a) bolo; b) colesterol o capacidad de retención de bilis; c) capa espesa.....	24
<b>Figura 5.-</b> Características de las fibras para la disminución de colesterol.....	26
<b>Figura 6.-</b> Fibras dietéticas obtenidas a partir de coproductos de diferentes industrias agroalimentarias.....	33
<b>Figura 7.-</b> Modelo de digestión “ <i>in vitro</i> ”.....	41
<b>Figura 8.-</b> Distribución de los distintos componentes presentes en cada una de las fases de la digestión “ <i>in vitro</i> ”.....	42
<b>Figura 9.-</b> Contenido en fibra dietética soluble (FDS) e insoluble (FDI) de los diferentes extractos obtenidos de coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria (LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa)...	49
<b>Figura 10.-</b> Valores de pH de los diferentes extractos obtenidos de coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria (LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa).....	51
<b>Figura 11.-</b> Valores de Capacidad de adsorción de colesterol (ChAC) de los diferentes extractos obtenidos de co-productos de la industria agroalimentaria (LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa)...	63
<b>Figura 12.-</b> Distribución de fases (fase crema, fase interfase y fase precipitado) identificadas después de la digestión “ <i>in vitro</i> ” de la muestra cárnea con diferentes extractos obtenidos de coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria (LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa)...	65

## ESTRUCTURA DE LA TESIS DOCTORAL

---

La presente Tesis Doctoral está basada en la publicación de un compendio de artículos científicos, tanto de investigación como bibliográfico. Su estructura, por tanto, se adapta a la normativa interna de la Universidad Miguel Hernández para la “Presentación de Tesis Doctoral con un Conjunto de Publicaciones”. Los diferentes capítulos en los que se ha organizado son detallados a continuación:

- **Introducción:** consta de una breve introducción en la que se incluye una revisión bibliográfica sobre los diferentes coproductos obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria como futuros ingredientes funcionales. También se incluye una revisión de la fibra dietética sobre composición, clasificación, efectos beneficiosos para la salud y comportamiento frente al metabolismo lipídico.
- **Objetivos:** se detalla la hipótesis de trabajo así como el principal objetivo de la Tesis, junto con los objetivos secundarios.
- **Materiales y Métodos:** se presenta un resumen de los materiales y métodos empleados en la caracterización de los distintos coproductos, así como las determinaciones analíticas practicadas.
- **Resultados y Discusión:** en este capítulo se muestra un resumen global de los resultados más relevantes obtenidos en los diferentes trabajos realizados, así como una discusión de los aspectos de más interés.
- **Conclusiones:** este capítulo recoge las conclusiones de todos los trabajos realizados.
- **Bibliografía:** recopila toda la bibliografía consultada en la introducción, materiales y métodos y en la discusión general.
- **Publicaciones:** este capítulo consta de todos los trabajos publicados (3), en su idioma original. El primer trabajo, publicado en la revista *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*, se centra en una amplia revisión bibliográfica que abarca desde las enfermedades cardiovasculares hasta su paso por las fibras dietéticas y sus efectos beneficiosos para la salud. El segundo trabajo, en la revista *Food Bioprocess Technology* se centra en la caracterización de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de las distintas industrias agroalimentarias, determinando sus propiedades físico-químicas, tecnofuncionales y fisiofuncionales como posible incorporación a un alimento como ingrediente funcional. El tercer y último trabajo publicado en *Food &*

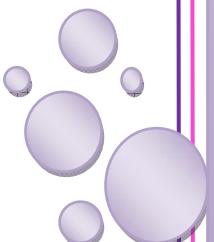
*Function* se centra en la incorporación de los distintos extractos a una matriz cárnica, donde es sometida a un proceso de digestión “*in vitro*”, para así poder evaluar la capacidad de adsorción de colesterol.







## *Capítulo 1: Introducción*





## **1.1. VISIÓN DE LA ALIMENTACIÓN: ALIMENTOS FUNCIONALES**

A lo largo de los años la forma de concebir los alimentos por parte de los consumidores ha evolucionado, fundamentalmente a los cambios en los hábitos alimentarios y a una fuerte relación entre dieta y salud. Hasta las últimas tres décadas, la función principal de la dieta era proporcionar nutrientes para satisfacer las necesidades metabólicas, pero cada día, se afianza más el uso de alimentos que pueden contribuir a mejorar la salud y el bienestar del consumidor (Figueroa-González et al., 2011). El interés del consumidor por mejorar su salud a través de los alimentos, ha llevado a las industrias alimentarias a buscar nuevos ingredientes y tecnologías, que permitan la elaboración de alimentos “saludables” (Peréz-Álvarez, 2008). Además, es de suma importancia que los productos “saludables” deban mantener las características sensoriales de los productos iniciales (Ospina-E et al., 2010). Es en este momento, cuando entra en juego un nuevo concepto en la alimentación, los llamados “alimentos funcionales”. Sin embargo, en la actualidad no hay una definición universal aceptada para los alimentos funcionales, que son, tal vez, vistos más precisamente como un concepto que como un grupo bien definido de productos alimenticios (Ozen et al., 2012).

La Acción Concertada de la Comisión Europea sobre Ciencias de los Alimentos Funcionales en Europa (Functional Food Science in Europe, FuFoSE) describió los alimentos funcionales como “un alimento puede ser considerado como “funcional” si se demuestra satisfactoriamente que ejerce un efecto beneficioso sobre una o más funciones selectivas del organismo, además de sus efectos nutritivos intrínsecos, de una manera relevante para mejorar el estado de salud y bienestar, reducir el riesgo de enfermedad, o ambas cosas. Los alimentos funcionales deben seguir siendo alimentos y deben demostrar sus efectos en las cantidades en que normalmente se consumen en la dieta: no se trata de comprimidos o cápsulas, sino de alimentos que forman parte de un régimen normal”(DiplocK et al., 1999).

Los alimentos funcionales comprenden alimentos convencionales que contienen compuestos bioactivos de forma natural (ej., fibra dietética) o alimentos enriquecidos con compuestos bioactivos (ej., probióticos, antioxidantes) o ingredientes alimentarios que se incorporan a alimentos tradicionales (ej., prebióticos). Entre los componentes funcionales más comunes se encuentran: probióticos, prebióticos, fibra soluble, ácidos

grasos poliinsaturados omega-3, ácido linoleico conjugado, antioxidantes de plantas, vitaminas y minerales, ciertas proteínas, péptidos y aminoácidos, así como fosfolípidos (Bhat & Bhat, 2011).

Entre los alimentos en los que se utiliza ingredientes funcionales, se encuentran: elaboración de leches fermentadas, yogures, bebidas para deportistas, alimentos para bebés y alimentos sin azúcar.

## **1.2. LOS COPRODUCTOS DE LA INDUSTRIA AGROALIMENTARIA**

En Junio de 2008, el Comité de Medioambiente del Parlamento Europeo comprometió a todos los Estados miembros a tomar las medidas apropiadas para promover la reutilización de coproductos, dentro del plan de prevención de desechos. El aprovechamiento de estos coproductos además de evitar trastornos medioambientales, aporta una mayor rentabilidad económica al proceso industrial de partida. Además, una rentabilización de la gestión de los residuos generaría nuevas industrias, con las consiguientes ventajas sociales que ello conllevaría.

Los subproductos vegetales (frutas, hortalizas y tubérculos) presentan un potencial muy importante en el sector agroalimentario, como ingredientes alimentarios naturales, ya que son fuente importante de fibra, compuestos bioactivos con propiedades antioxidantes (compuestos fenólicos y carotenoides), antimicrobianas, antiparardeamiento enzimático etc. (Fernández-Ginés et al., 2004; Lario et al., 2004; Del Valle et al., 2005; Halvorsen et al., 2006; Roldan et al., 2008; Ferreres et al., 2008; Stangeland et al., 2009; Fernández-López et al., 2009). La obtención, aprovechamiento y valorización de coproductos vegetales constituyen un reto para la industria alimentaria que supondría, además, una solución a la problemática medioambiental.

Los productos alimentarios intermedios (PAI), se definen como “aquellos que proceden de la transformación de materias primas básicas a fin de adaptarlas mejor a la aplicación industrial, facilitando la elaboración de los alimentos” (Anónimo, 2008). Asimismo, se podrían definir, como “aquellos productos, comestibles, no necesariamente nutritivos (concentrados de proteínas, fibras, etc.), que no son alimentos básicos (carne, leche, fruta, etc.) y que no se ingieren directamente, ya que deben ser incorporados en un alimento (alimentos adicionados de fibra dietética, ácidos grasos omega 3, etc.) o en un

preparado farmacéutico (cápsulas, píldoras, etc.)”. Los PAI, generalmente se obtienen de la revalorización de los coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria, cumpliendo además, con estrictas medidas de trazabilidad, seguridad, higiene y sostenibilidad.

Uno de los coproductos que mayor atención está teniendo son los obtenidos a partir de la industrialización de frutas, fundamentalmente de las industrias de obtención de zumos de frutas. A partir de dichos coproductos se están desarrollando, con gran éxito, procesos de obtención de PAI. Estos PAI, juegan un papel muy importante en la innovación tecnológica, ya que aportan otras funciones o características al producto final, al que se incorporan, e incrementan la valoración del mismo por parte del consumidor. Se están utilizando coproductos de frutas para la obtención de PAI con un amplio potencial en alimentación, especialmente para la reformulación de los alimentos y en innovación funcional.

Para el presente trabajo se han seleccionado los coproductos procedentes de la industrialización de frutas de gran importancia en esta zona mediterránea, como son los frutos cítricos y la granada.

#### **1.2.1. Coproductos procedentes de la industrialización de frutos cítricos**

La producción y el consumo mundial de cítricos han registrado un fuerte crecimiento desde mediados de los años 1980. La producción de naranjas, mandarinas, pomelos, limones y limas ha aumentado rápidamente, y aún más los productos cítricos elaborados, gracias a las mejoras introducidas en el transporte y en el empaquetado, que han reducido los costos y mejorado la calidad.

En España, el mayor productor de mandarina y naranja, que representan el 50% y el 45% de la producción total, respectivamente es la Comunidad Valenciana. En la actualidad, 35 variedades de mandarina con cierta importancia comercial están siendo cultivadas, de las cuales el grupo principal es mayoritariamente el de las clementinas (*Citrus clementina Hort. ex Tan.*). Las naranjas y mandarinas son ampliamente utilizadas en el mundo para la producción de zumo.

La producción de limón y de lima en el año 2010 en los países de la FAO fue de 10.340 millones de toneladas. Los limones y las limas se producen principalmente para el mercado de productos frescos, y el zumo de limones y limas se utiliza primordialmente para dar sabor a las bebidas. El limón y las limas son frutos cítricos ácidos que se

diferencian de otras variedades de cítricos por el hecho de que se consumen normalmente con otros alimentos. Los limones se producen generalmente en climas templados, como en el Oeste de los Estados Unidos, España, Italia y Argentina, pero también se adaptan a climas más secos, como los de Egipto e Irán. Las variedades de limón Verna y Fino, son las variedades más importantes cultivadas en España.

La producción mundial de pomelos en 2010 fue de 6.230 millones de toneladas. El pomelo constituye un cultivo de importancia relativa en España, siendo la variedad Marsh, la más ampliamente cultivada en nuestro país (75%). Los frutos de calidad se obtienen en áreas de climas calurosos. Es un fruto grande o muy grande (100 mm o más) globoso, esferoidal o piriforme sin o con semillas gruesas, grandes o arrugadas. Su sabor es ligeramente amargo, conferido por el glucósido naringina, y refrescante, goza de una importante aceptación, sobre todo en los países anglosajones.

La cantidad de coproductos obtenidos de las industrias de zumos de cítricos representa el 50% de la cantidad original de la fruta entera (Cohn & Cohn, 1997). El coproducto está constituido principalmente por cáscaras (albedo y flavedo) que son casi una cuarta parte de las frutas enteras en masa, las semillas y la pulpa de la fruta que queda después de la extracción del zumo y del aceite esencial (Braddock, 1999). Estos coproductos se utilizan principalmente para alimentación animal, sin embargo, debido a su alto contenido de fibra se pueden utilizar como una buena fuente de fibra dietética. Esta fibra dietética sería el PAI obtenido a partir del procesamiento de los coproductos de las industrias de obtención de zumos cítricos. Dicho PAI puede ser utilizado para el enriquecimiento de los alimentos de consumo habitual o para la producción de comprimidos de fibra dietética (Larrauri, 1994; Fernández-López et al., 2009).

Otra ventaja de la fibra de cítricos es que suele venir acompañada de diversos compuestos bioactivos (Fernández-López et al., 2009) los cuales están atrayendo cada vez más la atención debido a sus propiedades como antioxidantes y por sus propiedades antimicrobianas, frente a hongos y microorganismos implicados en la alteración de alimentos (Viuda-Martos et al., 2009).

### **1.2.2. Coproductos procedentes de la industrialización de la granada (*Punica granatum L.*)**

La familia de la granada tiene un único género *Punica* con dos especies *P. granatum* y *P. protopunica*. La granada es nativa de los Himalayas en el noreste de India, pero se ha cultivado y naturalizado a través de Oriente Medio, de toda la región Mediterránea, de las partes más secas del sureste de Asia, noreste de África y África tropical y hasta ciertos puntos de Estados Unidos, concretamente California y Arizona (Viuda-Martos et al., 2010). En términos de producción España es la líder (18.5 t/ha) seguida por Estados Unidos (18.3 t/ha). A pesar de que España cuenta con un área de cultivo muy pequeña (2000 ha) su cuota de exportación es del 37,8% de la producción total (37.000 t) seguida por Israel (23,5%) y Estados Unidos (15,5%), mientras que India tiene la menor cuota (Teixeira da Silva et al., 2013). La Comunidad Valenciana es la principal productora con 26.737 t (92,8%), centrándose la mayor producción en Alicante con un 98,1% de la producción valenciana (Andreu et al., 2008). Se trata de un frutal alternativo para muchas zonas, especialmente en las zonas con malas condiciones de suelo o con escasa calidad de agua de riego (Infoagro, 2009).

Desde el punto de vista nutritivo, los componentes mayoritarios de la parte comestible de la granadas son el agua (aproximadamente un 80% de su peso) y los azúcares (17%), con un contenido variable en fibra dietética (FAO, 2008), y destaca por su aporte en potasio. Hay abundante bibliografía que muestra la importancia de sus compuestos bioactivos, los antocianos, fenoles y taninos (Kulkarni & Aradhya, 2005; Ozgen et al., 2008), su actividad antioxidante (Stangeland et al., 2009) y, su actividad antimicrobiana (Rajan et al., 2008).

La corteza y las láminas o tabiques poseen alcaloides con propiedades vermífugas (Rajan et al., 2008).

Los arilos se componen de un 85% agua, 10% de azúcares totales (mayoritariamente glucosa y fructosa), 1,5% pectinas y ácidos orgánicos como ascórbico, cítrico y málico, además de compuestos fenólicos y fibra (Tezcan et al., 2009; Viuda-Martos et al., 2010), éstos también se utilizan para la elaboración de productos tales como las bebidas enlatadas, mermeladas, gelatinas, pasta (Mousavinejad et al., 2009) y, especialmente, el zumo fresco que se puede obtener a partir de los arilos o la fruta entera.

La dificultad de pelar las granadas y de separar sus granos desanima a muchos consumidores a comer el fruto del granado, que junto a los frutos que no se comercializan por presentar un aspecto agrietado o decolorado, ha desanimado a los agricultores, pero la comercialización de la granada como producto de IV gama, y su uso en la fabricación de jaleas, confituras y zumos (Andreu et al., 2008), junto con la aparición de una máquina que separa automáticamente los granos de la corteza y las pieles de la granada (Blasco et al., 2009), ha animado a los agricultores, adquiriendo cada día más interés.

Una vez que el zumo ha sido extraído, los coproductos que quedan se componen principalmente de pulpa y bagazo. El bagazo de granada obtenido contiene gran cantidad de compuestos potencialmente beneficiosos, tales como fibra dietética o compuestos bioactivos, principalmente ácidos fenólicos y flavonoides que se podrían utilizar como ingredientes en el procesamiento de alimentos (Viuda-Martos et al., 2011).

Los efectos saludables del fruto de la granada, así como el zumo y sus extractos han sido ampliamente estudiados en estudios modelo en ratas y humanos en relación a una gran cuantía de enfermedades crónicas. Entre las propiedades funcionales atribuidas a la granada se encuentran: protección vascular (actividad antioxidante, anti-hipertensiva, regulación lipídica), protección digestiva (gastroprotección, hepatoprotección, anti-diarrea), actividad antipatogénica (antibacteriana y antiviral), actividad anticarcinogénica (antiinflamatoria, antiangiogénica, inducción de la apoptosis, inhibición de la proliferación y de la invasión), actividad antidiabética, inmunomodulación y antiofesidad, entre otros (Aviram & Dornfeld, 2001; Fuhrman & Aviram, 2007; Basu & Penugonda, 2009; Stowe, 2011; Viuda-Martos et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2010; Betanzos-Cabrera et al., 2011; Viladomiu et al., 2013).

### **1.2.3. Coproductos procedentes de la industrialización de la chufa (*Cyperus esculentus, L.*).**

Tiger nuts o "chufa" (*Cyperus esculentus* L. var. *sativus* Boeck.) es un cultivo perenne crecido ampliamente en las regiones tropicales y del Mediterráneo. Estos tubérculos se consumen bajo diferentes formas en África occidental y central, como son: sin preparación, empapado en agua o secos, etc (Temple et al., 1990). En España, los tubérculos se utilizan principalmente para preparar una bebida lechosa llamada

"Horchata de Chufa " (Beneyto et al., 2000; García-Jiménez et al., 2004; Pascual et al., 2003). La chufa es un producto autóctono valenciano, es el tubérculo a partir del cual se elabora la horchata, bebida típica Valenciana por excelencia. La chufa de Valencia se cultiva en dieciséis pueblos de la comarca valenciana de L'Horta Nord, que reúnen unas exigencias climáticas y edafológicas, lo que la convierten en la única zona de España donde se cultiva este tubérculo. En 1995, se concedió la Denominación de Origen "*D. O. Chufa de Valencia*" (Pascual et al., 1997).

A nivel nutritivo, la chufa contiene entre 17-25% de aceite, en base seca (Kim et al., 2007), por lo que es considerada como una potencial fuente de aceite, cuyas características son muy similares al aceite de oliva, ya que su composición en ácidos grasos es: oleico (65,6%), linoleico (16,2%) y palmítico (15,4%) (Farré, 2003). Además, destaca su alto contenido en hidratos de carbono, fundamentalmente almidón y fibra dietética (19,0% en base seca) (Abdel-Akher&Michalinos, 1963; Temple et al., 1989).

En el proceso de elaboración de la horchata se generan una serie de coproductos (entre los que se encuentra el agua y el residuo sólido) que pueden llegar a suponer hasta un 60% del material del tubérculo cosechado. La gestión de dichos coproductos representa un problema adicional para la industria. Hasta ahora, la aplicación más común de los coproductos de la elaboración de la horchata (sólidos y líquidos) ha sido su uso como masa orgánica para la combustión, compostaje y la alimentación animal (Sánchez-Zapata et al., 2009).

Aunque los componentes principales de la chufa (carbohidratos y grasas) se extraen durante la elaboración de la horchata, todavía están presentes en cantidades importantes en los coproductos que se generan. El coproducto líquido está compuesto fundamentalmente por el agua de lavado de las chufas.

La reutilización de esta agua de lavado tiene una doble finalidad, por una parte el aprovechamiento de los compuestos bioactivos disueltos en ella (Sánchez-Zapata et al., 2013a), y por otra parte poder utilizar agua depurada, sería un reto importante para la industria. A partir de los co-productos sólidos podrían obtenerse ingredientes ricos en fibra. El coproducto sólido se ha utilizado como una fuente importante de fibra dietética (Sánchez-Zapata et al., 2009) y se ha aplicado con éxito en diferentes procesos de elaboración de alimentos (Sánchez-Zapata et al., 2012, 2013b).

A partir de estos coproductos de cultivos mediterráneos (cítricos, granada y chufa), se han desarrollado tecnologías factibles y económicamente rentables, adecuadas para cada uno de los cultivos según sus características específicas, para la obtención de productos alimentarios intermedios, para ser utilizados en la industria alimentaria y en especial en la funcional. De todos los coproductos mencionados hasta ahora se puede observar que el PAI obtenido a partir de ellos está constituido fundamentalmente por fibra dietética.

### **1.3. LA FIBRA DIETÉTICA**

Desde hace mucho tiempo, la fibra dietética (FD) ha sido conocida e investigada. Su utilización ha sido tema de mucha discusión y controversia (Asp, 2004), ya que a veces ha sido considerada como un "residuo" y otras ha sido descrita como un "remedio universal" que mejora cualquier problema fisiológico en el organismo humano. Ni el primero ni el segundo punto de vista son del todo cierto, sin embargo es bien sabido que la FD juega un papel importante en muchos procesos fisiológicos y en la prevención de enfermedades de diferente etimología. Por otra parte, durante los últimos años la FD ha adquirido una importancia adicional relacionada con su uso como ingrediente funcional.

Esta controversia se relaciona con el hecho de que la fibra no es un compuesto químico simple y bien definido, sino una combinación de sustancias químicas de composición y estructura distinta (Thebaudin et al., 1997; Heredia et al., 2002).

La mayoría de los científicos han llegado a un acuerdo sobre la inclusión de fibra entre los ingredientes importantes de la dieta, así como la conveniencia de establecer una ingesta adecuada de fibra (Schaafsma, 2004).

El interés del consumidor por obtener dietas óptimas para mantener una buena salud, por alargar los años de vida, su desconfianza hacia alimentos procesados y el aumento en el mercado de alimentos naturales, ha creado un estado de revolución científica-técnica de la cual, día a día, la industria nos ofrece productos ricos en fibra (Brighentiet al., 1995). Siendo por todo ello, reconocida la fibra como un ingrediente funcional.

### **1.3.1. Concepto de fibra dietética**

El concepto de fibra dietética se ha vinculado a diferentes definiciones que han sido motivo de debate científico a lo largo de los años. Se trata de un concepto flexible y de constante evolución en las últimas décadas debido a los avances en el conocimiento analítico, nutricional y fisiológico.

Se considera que E.H Hipsley fue el primero en acuñar el término “fibra dietética” en 1953 para incluir componentes de origen animal, tales como celulosa, hemicelulosa y lignina (Hipsley, 1953). La posterior aparición entre 1972 y 1976 de nuevas hipótesis que relacionaban la fibra dietética con aspectos relativos a la nutrición y la salud dio lugar a una de las definiciones más consistentes hasta el momento: "La fibra dietética consta de restos de las células de las plantas resistentes a la hidrólisis (digestión) por las enzimas alimentarias del hombre, cuyos componentes son hemicelulosa, lignina, celulosa, oligosacáridos, pectinas, gomas y ceras" (Trowell, 1976).

En dicha definición, se engloban de manera implícita componentes comestibles y se incluye, por primera vez, un factor fisiológico importante: la indigestibilidad de la fibra en el intestino delgado.

A partir de este momento, el creciente interés sobre la implicación a nivel fisiológico que pueden tener las fibras alimentarias da lugar a numerosos estudios nutricionales y al desarrollo de nueva técnica analíticas de determinación que se ajusten al concepto de fibra alimentaria (De Vries et al., 1999). En 2001 la American Association of Cereal Chemist (AACC) propone la definición más aceptada hasta la fecha: "*Fibra dietética es la parte comestible de los alimentos de procedencia vegetal o los análogos de hidratos de carbono que son resistentes a la digestión y/o absorción en el intestino delgado, con fermentación parcial o completa en el intestino grueso; químicamente, fibra dietética incluye polisacáridos, oligosacáridos, inulina, lignina y sustancias vegetales asociadas; fisiológicamente, la fibra dietética promueve efectos beneficiosos como el efecto laxante y/o la atenuación de los niveles de colesterol y de glucosa en sangre*" (USA, American of Cereal Chemists., 2001).

No obstante, la definición de fibra dietética supone hoy en día un debate abierto. En base a métodos puramente analíticos, diferentes compuestos no digeribles podrían ser erróneamente incluidos en el concepto de fibra dietética sin tener efectos beneficiosos

para la salud. Por otro lado, el potencial de las fibras alimentarias como compuestos con efectos beneficiosos para la salud ha dado lugar a la aparición de nuevos compuestos que actúan como fibras alimentarias pero no quedan incluidos en las definiciones establecidas.

En resumen, la definición del término “fibra dietética” ha evolucionado significativamente en las últimas décadas debido a un constante debate internacional que ha sido la base para establecer nuevas metodologías analíticas y profundizar en el conocimiento de sus efectos nutricionales y fisiológicos.

### **1.3.2. Clasificación y composición**

Las propiedades fisiológicas de la fibra alimentaria dependen en gran medida de sus características físicas, principalmente de su estructura molecular y solubilidad.

Desde un punto de vista estructural, la fibra dietética está constituida por la repetición de bloques estructurales básicos. Se dividen en aquellas cuya estructura principal es o no de naturaleza polisacárida.

En función del grado de solubilidad en agua, la fibra dietética se divide en dos grandes grupos: fibra dietética soluble y fibra dietética insoluble.

La fibra dietética soluble incluye polisacáridos como pectinas, gomas, mucílagos, fructo-oligosacáridos y ciertas hemicelulosas presentes en fruta, así como avena, cebada y legumbres. Se caracterizan por sufrir un proceso de fermentación por las bacterias del colon, produciendo principalmente ácidos grasos de cadena corta, entre otros compuestos. En general, las fibras solubles forman geles y soluciones viscosas.

En el caso de la fibra dietética insoluble se encuentra principalmente representada por componentes de la pared de células vegetales como la celulosa, la lignina y algunas hemicelulosas, así como otros polímeros como el almidón resistente, la quitina y sus derivados. No presentan capacidad de formar soluciones viscosas y apenas sufren procesos fermentativos por las bacterias en el colon. Entre los alimentos ricos que contienen fibra insoluble, se encuentran los vegetales y cereales de grano (Ha et al., 2000).

En la Figura 1, se detalla la clasificación de los componentes de la fibra dietética (soluble e insoluble).

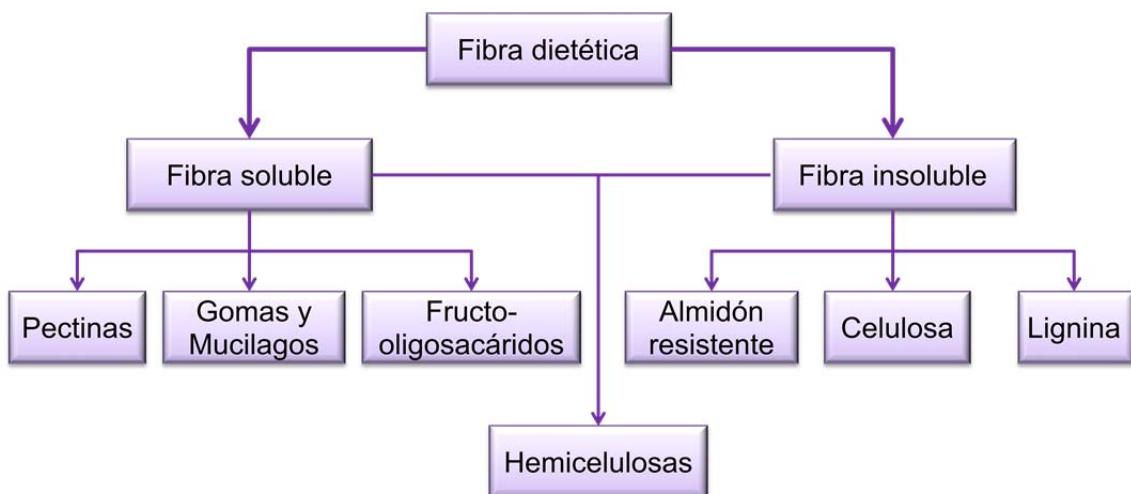
Las pectinas son unidades polisacáridas formadas por uniones de ácido galacturónico con otros monosacáridos, principalmente con raminosa, furano, xilosa y galactosa. Son capaces de transformar soluciones viscosas en geles en presencia de azúcares, calor y ácidos débiles. Se encuentran presentes en frutas (Garcia et al., 1995).

La goma guar es un polisacárido de reserva llamado galactomanano, formado por 10.000 moléculas comprimidas. Se usa principalmente en la industria alimentaria como agente espesante y estabilizador. Es económico, fácilmente de hidratar en agua fría y formar soluciones altamente viscosas (Theuwissen & Mensink, 2008).

La celulosa es el principal componente estructural que proporciona resistencia y estabilidad a las paredes celulares de las plantas. La cantidad de celulosa presente en la fibra influye en sus propiedades y su utilidad.

La hemicelulosa forma parte de las paredes de las células vegetales y está compuesta por un conjunto múltiple de polímeros polisacáridos con un grado de polimerización y orientación inferior a la celulosa (Cosgrove, 2005). La hemicelulosa generalmente actúa como un agente de relleno entre la celulosa y la lignina y azúcares como la glucosa, xilosa, galactosa, arabinosa y manosa (Reddy & Yang, 2005).

La lignina es polímero natural más complejo en relación a su estructura y heterogenidad, altamente reticulado y con una estructura amorfa que actúa como “pegamento” entre las células individuales y entre las fibrillas que forman la pared celular (Mohanty et al., 2000). Se trata del polímero orgánico más abundante del mundo vegetal después de los polisacáridos.



**Figura 1.-** Clasificación de fibras dietéticas.

### 1.3.3. Fibra dietética y enfermedades cardiovasculares

Desde su aparición, el término de “fibra dietética” se ha relacionado con hipótesis que asociaban un consumo elevado de fibra con efectos beneficiosos para la salud. En 1961 Keys et al. publicó una de las primeras demostraciones de que el consumo de fibra dietética disminuía los niveles de lípidos en sangre.

Son muchos los estudios que demuestran que un consumo elevado de alimentos ricos en fibra está asociado con una disminución de la prevalencia de ECV (Buil-Cosiales et al., 2009; Kokubo et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2009). Entre los efectos beneficiosos se encuentra la hipertensión, la diabetes (Brennan, 2005; Mann, 2001; Sánchez-Muniz, 2012), la obesidad (Howarth et al., 2001; Ludwig et al., 1999<sup>a</sup>; Slavin, 2008) y el síndrome metabólico (Aleixandre & Miguel, 2008). Es por ello, que el estudio de las fibras alimentarias y su repercusión sobre las ECV, así como diferentes factores de riesgo continúa siendo de gran interés en la actualidad.

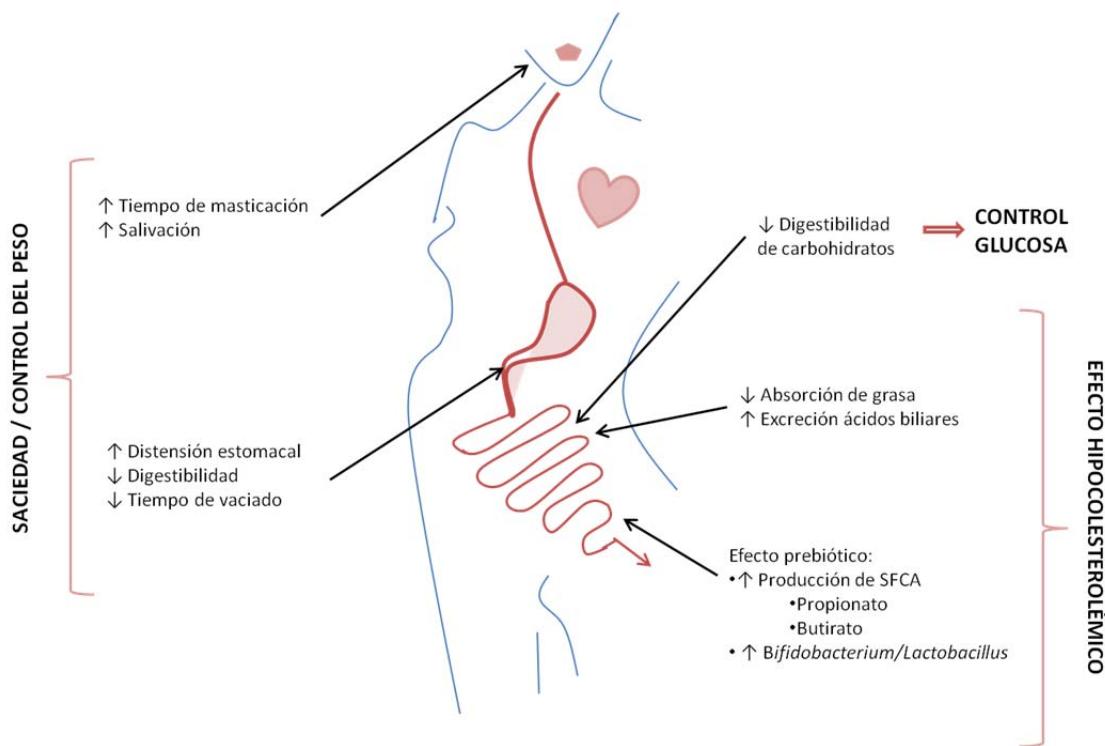
### 1.3.4. Efectos beneficiosos de la fibra dietética

Los extractos ricos en fibra alimentaria obtenidos de las plantas pueden ser utilizados como ingredientes funcionales, ya que las fibras pueden interactuar fisiológicamente y proporcionar numerosos efectos beneficiosos para la salud (Anderson et al., 2009; Fernández-López et al., 2007; Sendra et al., 2008; Pérez-Álvarez, 2008). Estos beneficios no solo se refieren a la salud digestiva, sino al control de peso y glucemia,

salud cardiovascular y bienestar general. Tales efectos varían considerablemente en función de las características físicas y químicas de la fibra. En términos generales, las fibras se dividen dependiendo de su solubilidad en agua. Los efectos beneficiosos de las fibras solubles también pueden depender de si se trata de fibras viscosas o no viscosas, fibras fermentables o no fermentables (Chutkan et al., 2012). Tradicionalmente, los efectos de las fibras alimentarias se han agrupado en base a estas características. Es necesario destacar que se trata de una clasificación simplista, debido a que las propiedades beneficiosas que pueden aportar las fibras no son exclusivamente del tipo de fibra, ya que depende de otras características, además de que muchas de las fibras se encuentran de forma natural en los alimentos como una mezcla de ambos tipos.

Las principales fuentes de fibra en la dieta son las frutas y los cereales. La fibra procedente de frutas tiene mejores propiedades funcionales y nutritivas que la de cereales, una composición más equilibrada (mayor contenido de fibra total y fibra soluble (sobre un 33% en frutas y sólo un 7% en salvado de trigo) y además, contiene compuestos asociados con propiedades bioactivas (flavonoides, vitamina C, carotenoides, etc.) que pueden ejercer mayor promoción de la salud que la fibra dietética en sí (Benavente-García et al., 1997; Marín et al., 2002). También presentan un menor contenido calórico y en ácido fítico y mayor capacidad de retención de agua y aceite así como, mayor permeabilidad (Saura & Larrauri, 1996).

Algunos de estos efectos beneficiosos del consumo de fibras dietéticas se resumen en la figura 2 y son descritos a continuación.



**Figura 2.-** Efectos fisiológicos del consumo de fibras dietéticas.

**Salud gastrointestinal:** Es uno de los beneficios más conocidos de la fibra dietética, mejorar la salud del tracto intestinal. Las fibras solubles son capaces de retener agua, favoreciendo la formación de un bolo fecal más blando que paradójicamente disminuye la consistencia en personas con estreñimiento y normaliza la consistencia en personas con diarrea (Chawla & Patil, 2010; Chutkan et al., 2012). En el caso de las fibras insolubles, pese a no tener capacidad de retener agua, incrementan el peso del bolo fecal y aumenta el tránsito intestinal (Cummings, 2011; Chen et al., 1998). A estas propiedades promotoras de la salud, se le puede sumar la actividad prebiótica de las fibras (Gibson & Roberfroid, 1995). Su efecto prebiótico mejora la ecología de la microbiota del intestino, aumentando la cantidad y diversidad de bacterias acido-lácticas no patógenas como *Bifidobacterium*sp. y *Lactobacillus*sp. (Fastinger et al., 2008; Velázquez et al., 2000). Además un aumento de la actividad fermentativa puede disminuir el pH del intestino e inhibir el crecimiento de otros microorganismos patógenos (Lim et al., 2005; Wong et al., 2009).

En los últimos años, uno de los efectos beneficiosos del consumo de fibra que mayor interés ha despertado está relacionado con su posible papel en la prevención del cáncer de colon (Rose et al., 2007).

**Control de la glucosa:** La fibra dietética puede retrasar la degradación de los carbohidratos complejos y reducir la absorción de glucosa. Esta propiedad se atribuye a la capacidad de algunas fibras solubles de aumentar la viscosidad en el intestino, disminuyendo así, la difusión de los nutrientes hacia su absorción al no entrar en contacto con las enzimas digestivas (Brennan, 2005). Numerosos estudios demuestran que alimentos ricos en fibras, especialmente fibras solubles viscosas, atenúa los niveles de glucosa postprandial y la respuesta de insulina en pacientes sanos (Alminger & Eklund-Jonsson, 2008).

**Control de peso:** Diferentes estudios sugieren que un elevado consumo de fibra, bien sea en forma de alimentos ricos en fibra o en forma de complementos alimenticios, puede relacionarse con un menor consumo de energía, dando lugar a una mayor pérdida de peso o una menor ganancia de peso (Howart et al., 2001; Keithley & Swanson, 2005). De hecho, el consumo de fibra dietética está inversamente asociado con el peso y la grasa corporal (Slavin, 2005).

Entre las razones por las que las dietas ricas en fibras están asociadas con una menor ingesta de alimentos se encuentran: dilución de la energía presente en los alimentos al llevar fibra incorporada en ellos, sensación de saciedad al requerir un mayor esfuerzo o tiempo de masticación, disminución de la digestibilidad de los nutrientes al formar una matriz viscosa donde los nutrientes quedan atrapados disminuyendo su absorción (Pérez-Escamilla et al., 2012; Adlercreutz, 2007; Slavin, 2005; Jenkins, 2004).

**Control de colesterol:** Véase apartado 1.3.5. Fibra dietética y control de colesterol.

En la tabla 1 se puede apreciar un resumen de los efectos beneficiosos en el organismo del consumo de fibra dietética soluble e insoluble.

**Tabla 1:** Efectos beneficiosos de la fibra dietética soluble e insoluble

FIBRA	CAUSA	EFECTOS
<b>FIBRA SOLUBLE</b>	- Retención del colesterol, ácidos biliares y demás sustancias tóxicas favoreciendo su excreción  -Retención de ciertas cantidades de hierro, calcio, magnesio y zinc que son eliminados por las heces	Mayor capacidad de absorción de sustancias
	- Aumento del contenido gastrointestinal, evitando la absorción de lípidos, esteroles y ácidos biliares  - Inhibición de la síntesis de colesterol hepático	Disminución del colesterol en sangre
	-Reducción de la velocidad de llegada de la glucosa a la sangre	Atenuación de la Glucemia
	- Reducción de la secreción de insulina	
<b>FIBRA INSOLUBLE</b>	-Sensación de saciedad, lo que provoca una menor ingesta de alimentos  - Regulación intestinal  - Disminución del tiempo de tránsito intestinal de los alimentos  - Control del estreñimiento y aumento de la excreción  - Retraso de la absorción de glucosa y, por tanto, menor índice glucémico  - Disminución del colesterol  - Menor contenido calórico en la dieta  - Mantenimiento y desarrollo de la microbiota intestinal  - Mayor excreción de grasa	Aumento de la Velocidad del Tránsito Intestinal

	y proteína - Factor preventivo de cáncer intestinal	
	Aumento del contenido intestinal - Mejora de la función excretora	Aumento del Volumen de Heces
	Reducción del riesgo de cáncer colon-rectal debido a la mayor eliminación de ácidos biliares  -Dilución de agentes cancerígenos debido al aumento de la capacidad de retención de agua  -Reducción del tiempo de contacto de sustancias cancerígenas con las paredes del intestino	Disminución del riesgo de padecer Cáncer

Fuente: Molina & Martín, 2007

### **1.3.5. Fibra dietética y control de colesterol**

Numerosos estudios demuestran que el incremento en el consumo de fibras dietéticas (insolubles y solubles) disminuye el riesgo de desarrollar una enfermedad cardiovascular (ECV) (Chau et al., 2004; Kendall et al., 2009). Así, los estudios epidemiológicos y clínicos han demostrado que la ingesta (dosis moderadas o altas) de fibras dietéticas ejerce principalmente su acción sobre el colesterol total y LDL, sin que se produzcan cambios significativos en los niveles de lipoproteínas HDL. De manera, que se ha demostrado que una reducción del 1% de los niveles de colesterol LDL se correlaciona con una reducción del 1-2% del riesgo de padecer ECV, haciendo de ello que el colesterol LDL sea un excelente biomarcador para la evaluación de esta patología (Kendall et al., 2009). El mecanismo exacto por el cual las fibras dietéticas disminuyen los niveles de colesterol LDL es aún desconocido. La capacidad de reducir los niveles de colesterol en sangre se atribuye principalmente a fibras solubles, entre las que se incluyen fibras como galactomananos (goma guar), glucomananos,  $\beta$ -glucanos, pectinas, psyllium y gomas xantanas. Por el contrario, se ha demostrado que fibras insolubles como la celulosa no tiene efecto sobre los niveles de colesterol (Jalili et al.,

2000), a diferencia del quitosano que si ha demostrado ser efectiva. No obstante, cabe destacar que no todas las fibras solubles e insolubles tienen el mismo efecto sobre los niveles de colesterol ni presentan los mismos mecanismos.

#### **1.3.5.1. Efecto y mecanismo de acción de la fibra dietética como agente reductor de hiperlipidemias e hipercolesterolemia.**

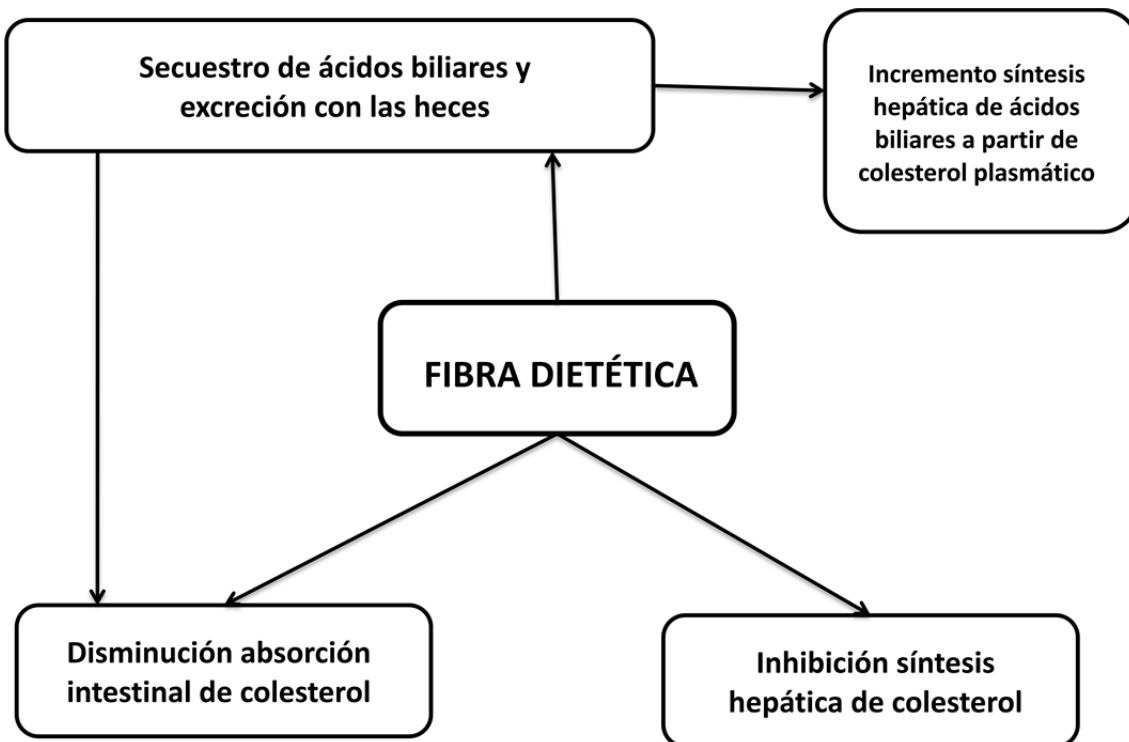
Existen diferentes mecanismos por los cuales las fibras alimentarias pueden reducir los niveles de colesterol. Principalmente, estos mecanismos están asociados con una disminución de la absorción de colesterol, un aumento de la excreción de ácidos biliares y una reducción de la síntesis endógena de colesterol (Figura 3).

**Absorción de colesterol:** Uno de los principales mecanismos asociados a la capacidad de las fibras de reducir los niveles de colesterol en plasma está relacionado con su capacidad de reducir la absorción de colesterol. Este mecanismo se ha atribuido sobre todo a fibras solubles con capacidad de formar geles viscosos en el estómago y en el duodeno y aumentando la viscosidad intestinal, dificultando de esta forma, su solubilización micelar por los ácidos biliares; este hecho junto con la menor cantidad de ácidos biliares libres, hace que disminuya el transporte de colesterol hacia la membrana absorbiva (Jones, 2008; Theuwissen et al., 2008), lo que confirma las conclusiones llevadas a cabo por Mun et al. (2005). Las pectinas, gomas, fructanos y  $\beta$ -glucanos, pueden producir una matriz viscosa, dificultando el movimiento del colesterol y ácidos biliares en las micelas, así como su utilización por parte de los enterocitos (Jones, 2008).

**Excreción de ácidos biliares:** El principal efecto hipocolesterolémico de las fibras dietéticas se atribuye a su capacidad de aumentar la excreción de ácidos biliares (Gunness & Gidley, 2010; Liu et al., 2008). Algunas fibras pueden unirse o atrapar ácidos biliares en el interior de su matriz, formando interacciones micelares, impidiendo su absorción intestinal, favoreciendo así su excreción con las heces y disminuyendo de esta forma la cantidad que llega al hígado por la vía entero-hepática (Jones, 2008). Generalmente, los ácidos biliares son secretados al lumen intestinal y reabsorbidos en el intestino delgado para poder ser utilizados nuevamente para emulsionar la grasa y facilitar su absorción. La interrupción de la circulación enterohepática de los ácidos biliares conlleva que una mayor parte de colesterol hepático deba destinarse a la producción de ácidos biliares para su reemplazo en lugar de ser incorporados al torrente

sanguíneo en forma de VLDL (Chiang, 2009). Aunque la actividad enzimática de la HMG-CoA-red puede aumentar para suplir las necesidades del colesterol, la síntesis de *novo* de colesterol puede no ser suficiente para suplir las necesidades de reemplazo de ácidos biliares. En consecuencia, el aumento de la demanda de colesterol en el hígado conlleva un aumento de la síntesis y la actividad de receptores LDL, lo que aumenta la captación de lipoproteínas VLDL y LDL, disminuyendo así su concentración en sangre (Chiang, 2009; Gunness & Gidley, 2010).

**Inhibición de la síntesis de colesterol:** Las fibras no digeridas y absorbidas en el intestino delgado pueden ser usadas como sustrato para la fermentativa de bacterianas anaerobias en el ciego y el colón. Como resultado se origina un aumento en la producción de ácidos grasos de cadena corta (AGCC) tales como el acetato, el propionato y el butirato (Kishimoto et al., 1995; Pylkas et al., 2005; Wong et al., 2009). Diversos estudios experimentales han puesto de manifiesto que el propionato, una vez que accede al hígado, puede actuar inhibiendo la  $\beta$ -hidroxi- $\beta$ metilglutarilcoenzima A reductasa (HMG-CoA reductasa), siendo ésta la principal enzima que regula la síntesis de colesterol hepático y cuya actividad aumenta cuando existe una baja concentración de colesterol en los hepatocitos (Jones, 2008; Theuwissen et al., 2008).



**Figura 3.-** Mecanismos implicados en la acción hipocolesterolemiante de la fibra dietética.

### 1.3.6. Fibra dietética y ácidos biliares

La fibra dietética puede influir en el metabolismo de los ácidos biliares. Los ácidos biliares son “emulgentes” sumamente eficaces que promueven la solubilización, digestión, y absorción de lípidos dietéticos y vitaminas liposolubles en todas las partes del intestino delgado. En el duodeno, yeyuno e ileon se mantienen elevadas concentraciones de sales biliares, donde la digestión y absorción de grasas tiene lugar (Ridlon et al., 2006). Normalmente, son casi completamente absorbidos de nuevo en el ileon (Hofmann, 2004). Diversas fibras dietéticas son capaces de actuar con los ácidos biliares en el intestino delgado, causando una reabsorción menor, un aumento del transporte hacia el intestino grueso, y finalmente, una excreción más alta de ácidos biliares (Dongowski et al., 2003).

Algunos autores sugieren que las fibras dietéticas son capaces de incrementar el tamaño de las partículas en circulación, de las lipoproteínas de muy baja densidad (VLDL) y de los quilomicrones, con el consecuente incremento de la lipólisis de estas lipoproteínas (Vahouny & Kritchevsky, 1986). El glucomanano es una fibra hidrosoluble con las mismas propiedades que la fibra insoluble. Es capaz de aumentar su volumen hasta 100

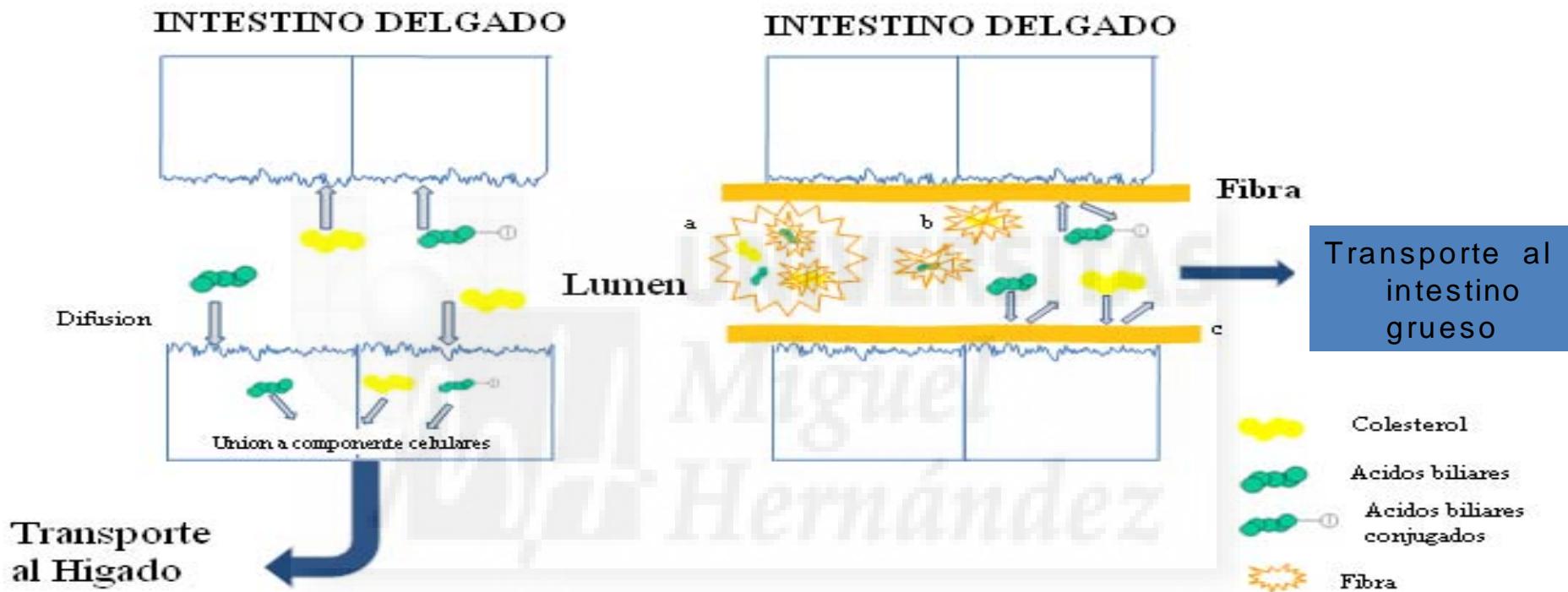
veces después de ponerse en contacto con el agua, causando un aumento del volumen, la viscosidad del contenido gastrointestinal y mejora el tránsito intestinal. Una consecuencia de esto es la interferencia con la absorción de alimentos (Trinidad et al., 2006) (Figura 4a). La alta densidad y la estructura física y química del glucomanano son las causantes de su actividad hipocolesterolémica.

Otro mecanismo sugerido es que algunas fibras hidrosolubles pueden formar una capa viscosa en el lumen intestinal, esta capa puede actuar como una barrera física, provocando una disminución de la (re)absorción de grasas incluyendo el colesterol y los ácidos biliares (Figura 4c), esto conduciría a un aumento fecal de estos dos compuestos. Como la reserva de ácidos biliares, es limitada, una mayor excreción de éstos requiere una mayor síntesis hepática, que a su vez las células hepáticas incrementan la formación de más ácidos biliares a partir del colesterol, produciéndose un descenso de los niveles de colesterol libre y aumentando los niveles de colesterol endógeno para poder alcanzar un nuevo equilibrio en la síntesis de colesterol. Este es, probablemente, el mecanismo o la vía principal hipocolesterolémante que sucede en animales y en humanos hipercolesterolémicos (García-Diez et al., 1996; Theuwissen & Mensink, 2008).

Y por último, existe la posible reducción de la absorción de lípidos, colesterol, y ácidos biliares, que podrían alterar la formación de micelas y disminuir la capacidad del colesterol para incorporarse a ellas (Carr & Jesh, 2006). La fibra dietética tiene capacidad para retener ácidos biliares y metabolitos del colesterol que juegan un papel importante en la digestión y la absorción de lípidos en el intestino delgado (Figura 4b). Una alta capacidad para retener ácidos biliares podría conducir a una disminución de las concentraciones de colesterol por interrupción de la circulación entero-hepática (Eastwood, 1992). Eastwood & Morris (1992) expusieron que el atributo primario de las fibras solubles que inhiben la absorción de colesterol es su capacidad para formar una matriz viscosa cuando son hidratadas. Muchas fibras solubles en agua se hacen viscosas en el intestino delgado. Se cree que un aumento de la viscosidad impide el movimiento del colesterol, ácidos biliares, y otros lípidos, dificultando la formación de micelas y reduciendo así la absorción de colesterol y promoviendo su excreción (Carr & Jesh, 2006). La pectina, los  $\beta$ -glucanos, los fructanos, y las gomas han sido identificadas como agentes que pueden producir una matriz viscosa, dificultando el movimiento del colesterol y ácidos biliares en las micelas, así como la utilización de productos micelares en los enterocitos (Jones, 2008). Si la viscosidad en el lumen es importante

para la eficacia fisiológica, es importante entender cuáles son los factores en un alimento que podrían reducir o mejorar la capacidad de la pectina o  $\beta$ -glucano para generar la viscosidad.





**Figura 4-.** Mecanismos de acción propuestos de la fibra para disminuir el colesterol (re) absorción de colesterol y ácidos biliares. a) bolo; b) colesterol o capacidad de retención de bilis; c) capa espesa.

### **1.3.7. Características de las fibras para la disminución de colesterol**

En general, el mecanismo por el que la fibra soluble modificará las propiedades de una solución depende de la cantidad, solubilidad en condiciones fisiológicas, peso molecular y la estructura de la fibra. Los cambios de estas propiedades en pectinas o  $\beta$ -glucanos en un producto alimentario pueden influir en la respuesta fisiológica (Wood, 2007).

Para valorar la capacidad de disminución de colesterol se deben considerar las siguientes características de la fibra:

- ✓ Composición química.
- ✓ Capacidad de absorción y retención de agua: propiedad condicionada por el grado de solubilidad de la propia fibra, tamaño de las partículas y pH. La absorción de agua se produce por fijación a la superficie o por el atrapamiento en el interior de la macromolécula.
- ✓ Capacidad de gelificación.
- ✓ Capacidad de fermentación.
- ✓ Incremento de la viscosidad en el medio: en función de la solubilidad y del peso molecular de la fibra.
- ✓ Porcentaje de fibra soluble e insoluble.
- ✓ Peso molecular.
- ✓ Retraso de la absorción intestinal de las grasas: con la acción de la fibra, el colesterol, verá retrasada su absorción y aumentada ligeramente su excreción con las heces. Las fibras con mayor capacidad para atrapar en su interior a estas sustancias son las fibras viscosas, es decir, las solubles.
- ✓ Solubilidad: las fibras solubles en contacto con el agua, forman un retículo donde queda atrapada el agua, gelificándose la mezcla a diferencia de la fibra insoluble que capta poco agua y forma mezclas de baja viscosidad.
- ✓ Secuestro y eliminación de las sales biliares.

En la Figura 5, se pueden observar los distintos factores que afectan a la reducción de colesterol a nivel plasmático.



**Figura 5.-** Características de las fibras para la disminución de colesterol.

### 1.3.8. Modelos de digestión “*in vitro*” de la fibra dietética

La cinética de la digestión depende de las características físicas y químicas de los alimentos y de su interrelación de los procesos fisiológicos que se suceden dentro del tracto gastrointestinal (Hoebler et al., 2002). La digestión de los alimentos y la absorción de los nutrientes son procesos dinámicos que involucran sistemas complejos enzimáticos y reacciones de transporte (Fäsler et al., 2006).

El proceso de digestión se compone de varias fases: bucal, gástrica, de absorción y la colónica o de fermentación. Con el diseño de un modelo de digestión “*in vitro*” se

simulan las características de los diferentes procesos de digestión que tienen lugar a lo largo del tracto digestivo. Por lo tanto, debe existir una digestión salivar, gástrica y una digestión duodenal.

El factor más importante en un sistema de digestión “*in vitro*”, es la digestión enzimática y en ello influye fundamentalmente las características de las enzimas utilizadas. Varios factores, tales como la concentración, temperatura, pH, estabilidad, activadores, inhibidores, y tiempo de incubación, afectan a las actividades de enzimas. La elección de las enzimas y las condiciones de incubación y la necesidad de equipo también dependen de los objetivos del estudio. Métodos de una sola enzima pueden ser útiles para predecir la digestibilidad de los nutrientes individuales, por ejemplo, la proteína por el uso de pepsina, almidón mediante el uso de amilasa, o los lípidos por el uso de lipasas. Sin embargo, la digestión de un nutriente está a menudo influenciada por la digestión de otros nutrientes, y por lo que, es más realista utilizar una mezcla compleja de enzimas en lugar de una sola enzima purificada (Boisen & Eggum, 1991).

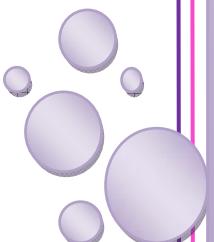
El tiempo de digestión para cada paso (por ejemplo, la boca, el estómago y el intestino delgado) es un factor importante a la hora de diseñar un adecuado modelo de digestión “*in vitro*”. Un corto tiempo de tránsito de un alimento en el intestino delgado puede limitar la absorción de compuestos lipófilos bioactivos, reduciendo así su biodisponibilidad (Dahan & Hoffman, 2008).

El tiempo de tránsito o tiempo de digestión se debe considerar de acuerdo con las características de los alimentos.

Lin et al. (1999), informaron que los lípidos en el tracto gastrointestinal retrasan el vaciado gástrico, es decir, se aumenta el tiempo de tránsito gástrico. En general, los lípidos no pueden ser fermentados; por lo tanto, los lípidos están menos influenciados durante el paso a través del intestino grueso. Por lo tanto, el tiempo debería ser más corto en muestras de alimentos a base de lípidos que en muestras de alimentos de origen vegetal.



## *Capítulo 2: Objetivos*





## **2.1. HIPOTESIS DE TRABAJO**

La hipótesis de partida que dan pertinencia a esta investigación son las siguientes:

1. Las industrias de alimentos generan una gran cantidad de material de desecho (cáscaras, semillas, etc.) en la elaboración de los alimentos, pudiendo superar el 30%. El gran crecimiento de la productividad en las empresas ha provocado que la eliminación de dicho material represente un grave problema, siendo una de las opciones más acertadas su uso como coproducto.
2. Los extractos vegetales procedentes de coproductos suponen una fuente importante de nutrientes y compuestos bioactivos que podrían aprovechar las industrias agroalimentarias para obtener alimentos funcionales.
3. La composición de los extractos vegetales, especialmente en fibra dietética, puede generar numerosos efectos beneficiosos para la salud.
4. Las ECV (hipertensión arterial, cardiopatía coronaria, enfermedad cerebrovascular, insuficiencia cardíaca, etc) y la obesidad suponen un problema de dimensiones globales que requieren de importantes medidas para su prevención. Actualmente, los esfuerzos se centran en cambiar los hábitos alimentarios, evitando el exceso de calorías en forma de grasa e hidratos de carbono y aumentando el consumo de nutrientes beneficiosos para la salud, como es el caso de la fibra dietética.
5. La incorporación de extractos vegetales procedentes de coproductos, puede influir sobre el metabolismo lipídico y, más concretamente, sobre los niveles de colesterol. No obstante, no todos los compuestos que se engloban dentro de la definición de “fibra dietética” presentan los mismos efectos fisiológicos, ni sus beneficios son atribuibles a los mismos mecanismos.

## **2.2. OBJETIVO PRINCIPAL**

El objetivo principal de la presente Tesis Doctoral fue comparar la capacidad de reducir de manera selectiva la adsorción de colesterol y la repercusión sobre el metabolismo lipídico de extractos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos a partir de coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria cuando son sometidos a un proceso de digestión “*in vitro*”.

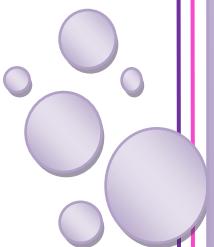
## **2.3. OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS**

Con la finalidad de alcanzar el objetivo principal se plantearon los siguientes objetivos más concretos:

- Caracterizar desde un punto de vista químico, físico y tecnofuncional los diferentes extractos de fibras.
- Evaluar los distintos coproductos desde un punto de vista fisiofuncional, con el fin de conocer los posibles efectos beneficiosos para la salud sobre el metabolismo lipídico.
- Determinar la capacidad de adsorción de colesterol de los diferentes coproductos mediante la utilización de diferentes técnicas analíticas.
- Aplicar los coproductos procedentes de las industrias agroalimentarias como ingrediente en un sistema modelo cárnico, determinando su comportamiento y evaluando su efecto sobre el metabolismo lipídico (adsorción de colesterol) cuando son sometidos a un proceso de digestión “*in vitro*”.



## *Capítulo 3: Materiales y Métodos*





### **3.1. INTRODUCCIÓN AL DISEÑO EXPERIMENTAL**

En base a los objetivos se estableció un diseño experimental el cual se dividió en dos fases:

- En una **primera fase experimental** se compararon cinco fibras dietéticas procedentes de coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria. En primer lugar, se caracterizaron los diferentes extractos en cuanto a su composición proximal, propiedades fisicoquímicas, tecnofuncionales y fisiofuncionales, con el fin de evaluar su posible incorporación como ingrediente funcional. Además, se estudiaron fibras dietéticas procedentes de una misma industria agroalimentaria, pero de distintas partes de la materia prima original (fibra de limón y albedo de limón), para observar si presentaban distinto comportamiento sobre las propiedades hipolipidémicas. También fue objeto de estudio un extracto compuesto principalmente por fibra insoluble (fibra de chufa), para determinar si la capacidad de adsorción de colesterol es debido principalmente al contenido en fibra soluble como es atribuido en numerosos estudios.
- En la **segunda fase experimental** se estudió el comportamiento de las distintas fibras dietéticas de la fase primera, cuando son incorporadas en un sistema más complejo, como es la matriz cárnea y sometida a un proceso de digestión *in vitro*. Con la finalidad de poder comprobar de una manera más compleja y precisa si el poder de retención de colesterol sigue estando presente en aquellas fibras que mostraron su efecto en la fase inicial del estudio.

### **3.2. MATERIAL VEGETAL**

Los extractos de fibra utilizados en este trabajo fueron obtenidos a partir de coproductos de diferentes industrias agroalimentarias, siguiendo procedimientos puestos a punto por el grupo de investigación de Industrialización de Productos de Origen Animal (IPOA) de la Universidad Miguel Hernández.

Los extractos utilizados fueron (Figura 6):

- Fibra de pomelo: obtenida a partir de coproductos de industrias de elaboración de zumo de pomelo.
- Fibra de limón: obtenida a partir de coproductos de industrias de elaboración de zumo de limón.
- Fibra de albedo de limón: obtenida a partir de coproductos de industrias de elaboración de limón helado.
- Fibra de granada: obtenida a partir de coproductos de industrias de elaboración de zumo de granada.
- Fibra de chufa: obtenida a partir de coproductos de industrias de elaboración de horchata.



**Figura 6.-** Fibras dietéticas obtenidas a partir de coproductos de diferentes industrias agroalimentarias.

### **3.3. CARACTERIZACIÓN DE LAS MATERIAS PRIMAS**

#### **3.3.1. Composición proximal**

El contenido en humedad, cenizas, proteínas y grasas se determinaron siguiendo Métodos Oficiales (AOAC, 1997).

##### **3.3.1.1. Humedad**

Las determinaciones de humedad se efectuaron siguiendo las directrices de la AOAC (1997). El valor de humedad se expresó como g de agua/100 g de producto. Cada ensayo se realizó por triplicado.

##### **3.3.1.2. Cenizas**

Las cenizas se determinaron siguiendo las directrices de la AOAC (1997) utilizando una mufla Hobersal modelo 12-PR/300 “PAD” (Hobersal S.A. Barcelona, España). Los resultados se expresaron como g de cenizas/kg muestra. Cada ensayo se realizó por triplicado.

##### **3.3.1.3. Proteínas**

Las proteínas fueron analizadas según el método Kjeldahl, usando un factor de 6,25 para convertir el nitrógeno en proteína (AOAC, 1997). El contenido en proteína se expresó como g de proteína/kg muestra. Cada ensayo se realizó por triplicado.

##### **3.3.1.4. Grasas**

La grasa fue calculada mediante la pérdida de peso tras la extracción durante 8h con éter de petróleo en un Soxhlet (AOAC, 1997). Los resultados se expresaron como g de grasa/kg muestra. Cada ensayo se realizó por triplicado.

##### **3.3.1.5. Hidratos de carbono**

Los hidratos de carbono fueron obtenidos mediante la diferencia hasta 100 una vez restado el resto de los componentes de la composición proximal. Todos los análisis fueron realizados por triplicado.

##### **3.3.1.6. Contenido en fibra dietética**

La determinación del contenido en fibra dietética total y fibra dietética insoluble de las muestras se realizó siguiendo el método gravimétrico-enzimático AOAC 985.29

(AOAC, 1997). La fibra dietética soluble se determinó por diferencia entre la FDT y FDI. Las muestras, previamente desecadas y libres de grasas, son sometidas de forma secuencial a digestión enzimática utilizando  $\alpha$ -amilasa termoestable, proteasa y amiloglucosidasa.

Su determinación se realizó utilizando el Digestor enzimático GDE y el Sistema de filtración CSF-6 de VELP-Scientifica (VELP-Scientifica, Milán, Italia), así como el Kit enzimático para la determinación de fibra dietética de Sigma-Aldrich.

Los resultados se expresaron como g de FDT, FDS o FDI/100 g de muestra. Cada ensayo se realizó por triplicado.

### **3.3.2. Análisis físico-químico**

#### **3.3.2.1. pH**

El pH se determinó en una suspensión resultante de la mezcla de 0,5 g de muestra con 50 mL de agua destilada durante 2 minutos, la medida se efectuó con un pHmetro (Eutech Instruments PteLtd, Singapur) acoplado con un electrodo de vidrio (Ion 510, Eutech Instruments Pte Ltd., Singapur). Cada ensayo se realizó por triplicado.

#### **3.3.2.2. Color**

Se estudió el espacio de color CIEL\*a\*b\* mediante un colorímetro Minolta CM-2600d (Minolta Camera Co. Osaka, Japón) y un cristal de baja reflectancia (minolta CR-A51/1829-752) entre la muestra y el equipo, usando el iluminante D<sub>65</sub> y el observador 10°. Las coordenadas CIELAB estudiadas fueron: luminosidad (L\*), coordenada rojo/verde (a\*) y coordenada amarillo/azul (b\*). Se realizaron nueve mediciones de cada muestra.

### **3.3.3. Propiedades tecnofuncionales**

#### **3.3.3.1. Capacidad de retención de agua (CRA)**

Se define como la aptitud que tiene la fibra para retener el agua durante la aplicación de fuerzas externas. La CRA se llevó a cabo según el método descrito por Robertson et al. (2000).

Se tomaron tres muestras de 300 mg cada una, a cada una de estas muestras se le añadieron 10 mL de agua ultrapura y se dejó reposar a 25°C durante 18 horas. Después

se centrifugaron las muestras (3000 rpm, 20 minutos) en una centrífuga (NahitaModel 2690, Alicante, España) y se eliminó el sobrenadante. Posteriormente, se pesó el conjunto del tubo y precipitado. La CRA se expuso como los g de agua retenidos/g de muestra.

### **3.3.3.2. Capacidad de retención de aceite (CRO)**

Se define como la aptitud que tiene la fibra para retener aceite durante la aplicación de fuerzas externas. La CRO se llevó a cabo según el método descrito por Robertson et al. (2000).

Se tomaron tres muestras de fibra de 160 mg cada una. A cada una de estas muestras se le añadieron 5 g de aceite de girasol y se dejó reposar a 25°C durante 18 horas. Despues se centrifugaron las muestras (3000 rpm, 20 minutos) en una centrífuga (NahitaModel 2690, Alicante, España) y se eliminó el sobrenadante. Posteriormente, se pesó el conjunto de tubo y precipitado. La CRO se expresó como los g de aceite retenidos/g muestra.

### **3.3.3.3. Capacidad de hinchamiento (CH)**

La capacidad de hinchamiento (CH) es la capacidad de la fibra para aumentar su volumen en presencia de agua, estando influenciado por su composición, porosidad y tamaño de partícula (Femenia et al., 1997). La determinación se realizó siguiendo el método descrito por Gómez-Ordoñez et al. (2010).

Se pesaron 500 mg de cada muestra en un tubo graduado y se midió el volumen ocupado por las fibras; se adicionaron 5 mL de agua ultrapura y se agitaron manualmente durante 5 minutos. Posteriormente se dejaron en reposo durante 24 horas a temperatura ambiente. Tras dicho tiempo, se midió el volumen final de las muestras. La capacidad de hinchamiento se expresó como mL/g muestra.

### **3.3.3.4. Actividad emulsificante (AE)**

La actividad emulsificante (AE) es la habilidad de una molécula para actuar como un agente que facilita la solubilización o dispersión de dos líquidos inmiscibles (Chau et al., 1997). La determinación ha sido llevada a cabo siguiendo el método descrito por Chau & Huang (2003).

Para determinar la AE se pesó 1 g de muestra en un tubo de 150 mL. Seguidamente, 50 mL de agua ultrapura fue adicionada y mezclada con un homogenizador Ultraturrax (IKA-Ultra-Turrax T25, Alemania) a 8000 rpm durante 2 minutos. A la suspensión de fibra se le añadieron 50 mL de aceite de girasol y se volvieron a homogenizar con el Ultraturrax a 8000 rpm durante 1 minuto. A continuación, una alícuota (25 mL) se trasfirió a un tubo de centrífuga graduado y se centrifugó a 1500 rpm durante 5 minutos. Después de centrifugar se midió el volumen de emulsión formada.

La AE se expresa como mL de volumen de la capa emulsificada, respecto al volumen total que hay en el tubo de centrífuga, en forma de porcentaje.

### **3.3.3.5. Estabilidad de la emulsión (EE)**

La estabilidad de la emulsión (EE) es la habilidad de mantener una emulsión y su resistencia a la ruptura bajo la acción del calor (Chau et al., 1997).

Se determinó calentando los tubos con las emulsiones formadas durante la determinación de la AE en un baño de agua a 80°C durante 30 minutos. Posteriormente se enfriaron a temperatura ambiente y se centrifugaron a 1500 rpm durante 5 minutos.

La EE se expresa como mililitros de capa emulsificada que permanece respecto al volumen de la emulsión que previamente se había formado, en forma de porcentaje.

### **3.3.4. Propiedades fisiofuncionales**

#### **3.3.4.1. Capacidad de retención de bilis (CRB)**

Se define como la aptitud que tiene la fibra para retener la bilis, durante la aplicación de fuerzas externas. La CRB se llevó a cabo según el método descrito por Eastwood et al. (1992).

Se tomaron tres muestras de fibra de 160 mg de fibra cada una. A cada una de estas muestras se le añadieron 5 g de bilis porcina (recogida directamente en un matadero porcino autorizado), en un tubo de centrífuga y se dejó reposar a 25°C durante 18 horas. Después se centrifugaron las muestras (3000 rpm, 20 minutos) en una centrífuga (Nahita Model 2690, Alicante, España) y se eliminó el sobrenadante. Posteriormente, se pesó el conjunto de tubo y precipitado. La CRO se expresó como los g de aceite retenidos/g muestra.

### **3.3.4.2. Fat/Oil Binding (FOB)**

Se define como la capacidad que tiene la fibra de absorber o retener grasas dentro de su matriz, simulando un proceso digestivo. La determinación se llevo a cabo según el método descrito por Bailina (2014).

Se pesaron 0,2 g de fibra en un matraz y se le adicionaron 20 mL de ácido clorhídrico 0,16 N. Las muestras se mantuvieron en agitación durante 1 hora y a continuación se le añadieron 20 g de aceite de girasol. La mezcla se agitó durante 1 minuto y se neutralizó con NaOH 0,1N para simular el cambio de pH del estómago al intestino delgado. Se dejó reposar la emulsión durante 24 horas y se pesó el aceite libre. La FOB se expresa como g de aceite retenido/g muestra.

### **3.3.4.3. Capacidad de adsorción de colesterol (ChAc)**

La capacidad de adsorción de colesterol intenta evaluar la capacidad de la fibra para adsorber el colesterol dentro de su matriz, cuando se encuentra en contacto con un sistema simple, como es el caso de una mezcla de agua y aceite. El proceso a seguir fue el siguiente: en un vaso de precipitado se incorporaron 20 g de agua ultrapura y 20 g de aceite de girasol (adicionado con 100 mg/Kg de colesterol). Se agitó la mezcla en un agitador Ultraturrax (IKA-Ultra-Turrax T25, Alemania) a 8000 rpm durante 30 segundos, añadiendo inmediatamente 1,33 g de fibra, continuando la agitación hasta completar 2 minutos.

A continuación, la mezcla fue trasferida a un tubo y llevada a un baño de agua a 37°C durante 1 hora. Una vez enfriado el tubo a 25°C se centrifugó (3000 rpm, 20 minutos) en una centrífuga Sigma 3-16PK (Sigma, Maryland, EE.UU). Posteriormente se descarto el sobrenadante y la fase del precipitado se determinó la concentración de colesterol que presentaba. La ChAc se calcula de la siguiente manera:

$$\text{ChAc (\%)} = \frac{\text{mg colesterol adsorbido por la muestra}}{\text{mg colesterol muestra control}} \times 100$$

### **3.4. SISTEMA MODELO CÁRNICO (MUESTRA CÁRNICA) CON FIBRA DIETÉTICA**

#### **3.4.1. Proceso de elaboración**

La preparación de las distintas muestras cárnicas se llevó a cabo por el grupo de investigación IPOA en la planta piloto de la Escuela Politécnica Superior de Orihuela de la Universidad Miguel Hernández. Se utilizó una fórmula sencilla para obtener una misma masa base para todas las muestras, que consistía en: 49% magro de cerdo, 49% grasa de cerdo y 2% cloruro sódico. La mezcla se dividió en seis partes iguales y se añadió un 10% de los distintos coproductos a estudiar (fibra de pomelo, fibra de limón, albedo de limón, fibra de granada y fibra de chufa), siendo la sexta muestra el control, al cual no se le añadió fibra. Para obtener dicha masa base los trozos de carne de cerdo se picaron a través de una placa con agujeros de 3 mm de diámetro (Olotinox, Olox, España), adicionando el cloruro sódico y mezclando en una amasadora (CATO 114, Sabadell, España) a 80 rpm durante 5 min. A cada uno de las masas bases a estudio se le adicionaron los distintos coproductos ricos en fibra, volviendo a mezclar la masa durante 5 min. Las distintas masas se colocaron en bolsas individuales (Cofresco SAU, Madrid, España) y se cocinaron en un baño de agua hasta que la temperatura interior alcanzo los 75° C. Una vez terminado el proceso, las muestras cárnicas por triplicado fueron almacenados a -10°C hasta la realización del experimento.

#### **3.4.2. Modelo de digestión “*in vitro*”**

El factor más importante en un sistema de digestión “*in vitro*”, es la digestión enzimática y en ello influye fundamentalmente las características de las enzimas utilizadas. Varios factores, tales como la concentración, temperatura, pH, estabilidad, activadores, inhibidores, y tiempo de incubación, afectan a las actividades de enzimas.

La elección de las enzimas y las condiciones de incubación y la necesidad de equipo también dependen de los objetivos del estudio. Métodos de una sola enzima puede ser útiles para predecir la digestibilidad de los nutrientes individuales, por ejemplo, la proteína por el uso de pepsina, almidón mediante el uso de amilasa, o los lípidos por el uso de lipasas. Sin embargo, la digestión de un nutriente está a menudo influenciada por la digestión de otros nutrientes, y por lo que, es más realista utilizar una mezcla compleja de enzimas en lugar de una sola enzima purificada (Boisen & Eggum, 1991).

Las enzimas utilizadas en el modelo de digestión, “*in vitro*” seleccionado son:  $\alpha$ -amilasa (origen saliva humana, tipo IX-A, 1000-3000 U/mg proteína), pepsina (origen mucosa gástrica porcina 3200-4500U/mg proteína), extracto de bilis porcina (B-8631), pancreatina (origen páncreas porcino 76190), lipasa (L3126) todas ellas proceden de la compañía Sigma-Aldrich (Sigma-Co-St.Louis,USA).

El modelo de digestión “*in vitro*” (condiciones aerobias) seleccionado que mejor se ajustaba a nuestro estudio (simular la digestión de un alimento), es el descrito por Minekus et al. (2014). Las soluciones salivar, gástrica e intestinal de electrolitos a utilizar se prepararon a partir de las correspondientes soluciones stock de electrolitos como se indica en la Tabla 2, siguiendo las recomendaciones de Minekus et al. (2014).

**Tabla 2:** Composición de las soluciones de electrolitos para la fase salivar, gástrica e intestinal del proceso de digestión *in vitro*.

		Solución salivar (pH 7)	Solución gástrica (pH 3)	Solución intestinal (pH 7)
Compuesto	Concentración Solución stock (g/L)	Volumen solución stock (mL)	Volumen solución stock (mL)	Volumen solución stock (mL)
KCl	37,3	15,1	6,9	6,8
KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	68	3,7	0,9	0,8
NaHCO <sub>3</sub>	84	6,8	12,5	42,5
NaCl	117	-	11,8	9,6
MgCl <sub>2</sub> (H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>6</sub>	30,5	0,5	0,4	1,1
(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	48	0,06	0,5	-

\*El pH final se ajustó usando HCl (6 M) o NaOH (1M).

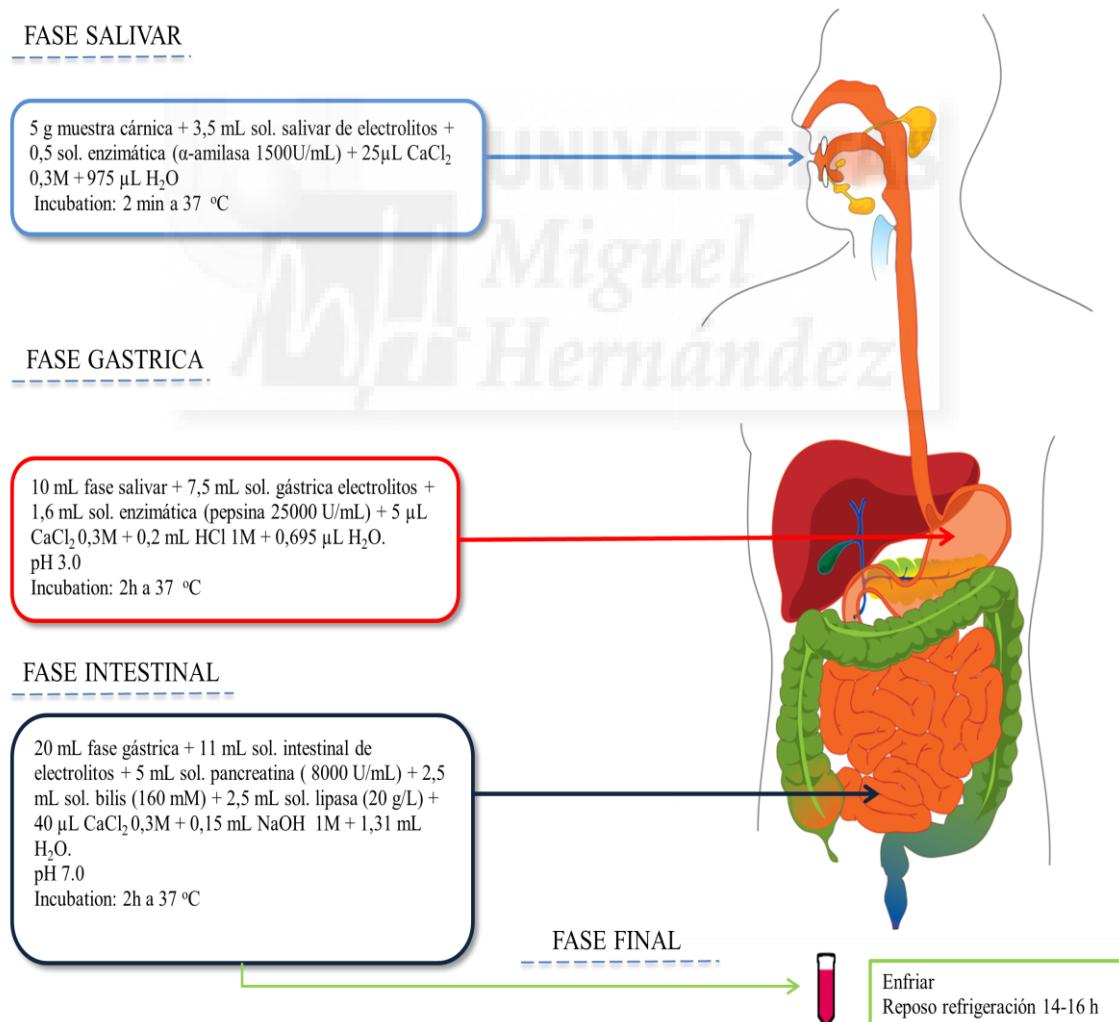
El proceso de digestión “*in vitro*” utilizado fue el siguiente (Figura 7):

1. Fase salivar: Se mezclaron 5g de muestra cárnica (emulsión: magro-tocino-sal, 49:49:2) con 3,5 mL de solución salivar de electrolitos, mezclándose en una picadora eléctrica Moinex A320R1 (SEB SA, Bourgogne, Francia). A continuación, se adicionó 0,5 mL de la solución de  $\alpha$ -amilasa salivar (1500U/mL) seguido de 25  $\mu$ L CaCl<sub>2</sub> 0,3M y 975  $\mu$ L de agua. Se agitó e incubó durante 2 minutos en un baño de agua a 37°C con agitación automática.
2. Fase gástrica: Se mezclaron 10 mL de muestra procedente de la fase salivar con 7,5 mL de la solución gástrica de electrolitos y 1,6mL de la solución pepsina (25000U/mL). A continuación, se adicionó 5 $\mu$ L CaCl<sub>2</sub>0,3M, 0,2 mL HCl 1M y

0,695  $\mu\text{L}$  de agua para alcanzar un pH 3. Las muestras se incubaron durante 2 horas a 37°C en baño de agua con agitación automática.

3. **Fase intestinal:** 20 mL de la muestra procedente de la fase gástrica se mezclaron con 11 mL de la solución intestinal de electrolitos, 5 mL de la solución de pancreatina (800 U/mL), 2,5 mL de la solución de bilis (160 mM) y 2,5 mL de la solución de lipasa (20 g/L). Seguidamente, se adicionó 40  $\mu\text{L}$  de CaCl<sub>2</sub> 0,3M, 0,15 mL de NaOH 1M y 1,31 mL de agua para alcanzar un pH 7. Las muestras se incubaron 2 horas a 37°C en baño de agua con agitación automática.

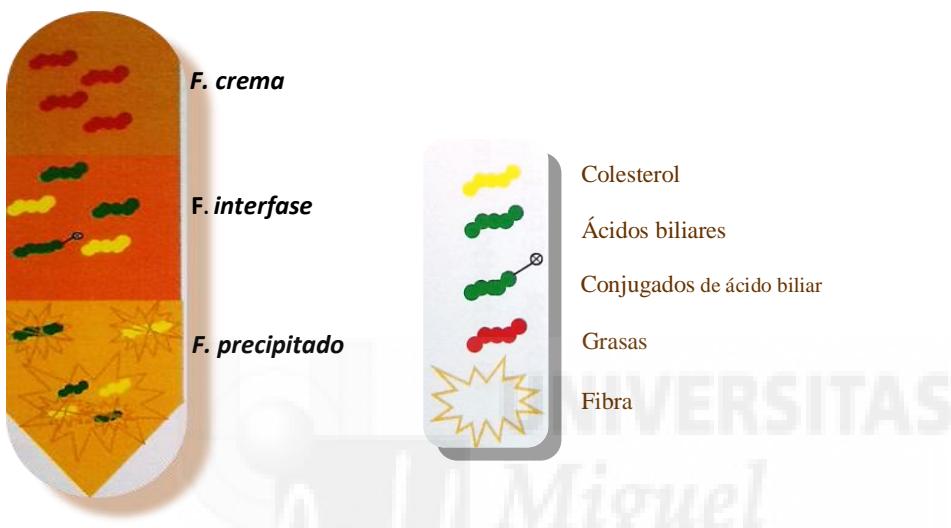
Al final del proceso, las muestras se enfriaron a 4°C y se mantuvieron en refrigeración y reposo durante 14-16 horas.



**Figura 7.-** Modelo de digestión “*in vitro*”.

### 3.4.2.1. Distribución de fases de los productos de la digestión “*in vitro*”

Las muestras procedentes de la digestión “*in vitro*” se centrifugaron a 4000 rpm durante 20 minutos a 4°C. Posteriormente, se identificaron tres fases en los tubos centrifugados (Figura 8): fase crema (capa superior), fase interfase (capa media), fase precipitado (capa inferior). Se midió la proporción de cada fase (% v/v) y se determinó el contenido en colesterol en cada una de ellas mediante HPLC.



**Figura 8.-**Distribución de los distintos componentes presentes en cada una de las fases de la digestión “*in vitro*” (López-Marcos, 2010).

### 3.4.2.2. Determinación de colesterol por HPLC

Para la determinación de colesterol, se pesaron muestras de 1 g y se mezclaron con 250 mg de ácido ascórbico y 10 mL de una solución de KOH 10% en etanol en un tubo de ensayo. A continuación, se agitó y se introdujo en un baño de agua a 80°C durante 30 minutos. Una vez fríos los tubos, se adicionó el hexano, se agitó y se esperó a que se separaran las fases, tomando una alícuota de la fase superior (hexano) y poniéndola en otro tubo (dicha operación se repitió dos veces). Una vez juntas las dos fracciones de hexano anteriores, se evaporó el hexano con corriente de nitrógeno y se redissolvió en etanol absoluto. Seguidamente, la muestra se filtró con filtros de nylon de 0,45 µm (Millipore Corporation, Bedford, USA) y se insertó en un vial de HPLC. La determinación del contenido en colesterol de las distintas muestras se realizó mediante cromatografía líquida de alta resolución (HPLC) siguiendo las recomendaciones de Mazalli et al. (2003). Para ello 20 µL de muestra fueron inyectados en un cromatógrafo

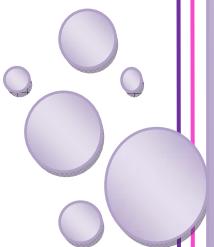
Hewlett Packard Serie 1200 (Woldbronn, Alemania). Como fase móvil se empleó una mezcla Acetonitrilo: Metanol: Agua (50: 48,5: 1,5) circulando isocráticamente con un flujo de 1 mL/minuto. La separación del colesterol se realizó utilizando una columna Hypersil DBS-C18 (Thermoscientific, 25 cm; 4,6 mm. Fisher Scientific, Madrid, España) y detectado mediante absorbancia a 210 nm. El pico de colesterol se identificó utilizando un patrón puro de colesterol (Acofarma, Terrassa, España) por comparación del tiempo de retención y el análisis del espectro correspondiente a dicho pico. La cuantificación del contenido en colesterol se realizó mediante una curva de calibración ( $R^2= 0.9984$ ) realizada con distintas concentraciones del patrón puro (patrón de colesterol, acofarma, Terrasa, España). Todos los análisis se realizaron por triplicado.

### **3.5. ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO**

El análisis estadístico de los resultados se realizó aplicando un Análisis de Varianza (ANOVA) y un Test de Tukey para comparación de medias, en ambos casos se seleccionó un nivel de significación del 95%. Para la realización de dichos análisis se utilizó el Programa estadístico IBM® SPSS versión 22 para Windows (IBM, New York, USA)



## *Capítulo 4: Resultados y Discusión*





#### **4.1. INTRODUCCIÓN A LA DISCUSIÓN**

La importancia de las fibras dietéticas ha dado lugar al desarrollo de un gran y potencial mercado en los alimentos enriquecidos con fibra, existiendo hoy en día, un gran interés por el descubrimiento de nuevas fuentes de fibra dietética, como son los coproductos agroindustriales hasta ahora subvalorados.

En base a esto, en el presente estudio se evaluó el potencial de cinco coproductos procedentes de industrias agroalimentarias, como fuente de fibra dietética para desarrollar alimentos ricos en fibra. Se determinaron y compararon su composición proximal, propiedades físico-químicas, tecnológicas y fisiológicas (incluyendo la capacidad de adsorción de colesterol) de estas fuentes de fibra dietética.

Este capítulo recoge los principales resultados y una discusión de los diferentes trabajos realizados. Las versiones completas de los mismos se encuentran en los correspondientes artículos publicados en revistas internacionales incluidas en el *Journal Citacions Reports* y se ajuntan al final de esta memoria (Capítulo 7).

#### **4.2. CARACTERIZACIÓN DEL MATERIAL VEGETAL**

Las fuentes de fibra dietéticas sujetas al presente estudio se caracterizan por ser coproductos obtenidos del aprovechamiento de los residuos generados por las industrias agroalimentarias. La obtención, aprovechamiento y valorización de coproductos constituyen un reto para la industria alimentaria que supondría, además, una solución a la problemática medioambiental.

Los coproductos de la industria de cítricos (limón, naranja, pomelo, etc) representan el 50% de la cantidad original de la fruta entera. Principalmente su uso va destinado a la alimentación animal, sin embargo su alto contenido en fibra hace que pueda ser utilizado como una buena fuente de fibra dietética. Todo ello unido a la zona en la que vivimos hace imprescindible su estudio como futuro ingrediente funcional.

El estudio de coproductos de la granada como fuente de fibra dietética tiene su explicación al ser un producto de nuestra zona y por el interés que ha suscitado dicha fruta en los últimos años por sus diversos efectos beneficiosos para la salud (actividad antioxidante, regulación lipídica, actividad antimicrobiana, etc).

En cuanto a la chufa, es un producto autóctono valenciano que genera dos tipos de coproductos, una parte líquida (principalmente agua de lavado de las chufas) y otra sólida (residuo sólido obtenido durante la elaboración de la horchata). En nuestro caso nos hemos centrado en la parte sólida al ser una excelente fuente de fibra dietética.

A partir de estos coproductos de cultivos mediterráneos (cítricos, granada y chufa), se han desarrollado tecnologías factibles y económicamente rentables, para la obtención de productos alimentarios intermedios (PAI), para ser utilizados en la industria alimentaria y en especial en la funcional. De todos los coproductos mencionados hasta ahora se puede observar que el PAI obtenido a partir de ellos está constituido fundamentalmente por fibra dietética.

El objetivo de este trabajo, publicado en la revista “Food & Bioprocess Technology” (2015, 8: 2400-2408) fue evaluar el potencial de cinco fuentes de fibra dietéticas, como posible ingrediente para obtener alimentos ricos en fibra.

#### **4.2.1. Composición proximal de los distintos coproductos**

En la tabla 3 se presenta la composición proximal de las distintas fuentes de fibra obtenidas como coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria. Una vez observados los distintos parámetros analizados, se podría decir que la composición química de la materia prima (granada, cítricos y chufa) depende de la fuente industrial (extracción de zumo, elaboración de helado o elaboración de horchata) para obtener los distintos extractos ricos en fibra dietética. Durante el procesamiento de los coproductos, la materia prima sufre dos pasos críticos: una fase de escaldado (que incluye lavado) y otra fase de secado, los cuales, entre otros, pueden ser los responsables de la composición final de los extractos obtenidos. En términos generales, el contenido de ceniza, azúcar y proteína disminuyó, mientras que el contenido de grasa aumentó después de este tratamiento (Marín et al., 2002; Viuda-Martos et al., 2012).

**Tabla 3.-** Composición química (humedad, fibra dietética total, azúcares, proteína, grasa y ceniza) de los distintos coproductos ricos en fibra obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.

Composición (g/kg)	LDF	GDF	PDF	LADF	TNDF
<b>Humedad</b>	78,8±5,2b	69,5±4,2b	79,4±9,0b	90,8±8,2a	77,1±6,1b
<b>TDF</b>	667,1±4,2a	691,5±5,2a	518,0±4,1c	448,0±3,5d	597,1±5,5b
<b>Azúcares</b>	74,1±5,8b	48,7±3,6c	52,2±2,5c	173,2±6,9a	65,6±4,6b
<b>Proteína</b>	80,7±8,6b	117,2±8,2a	102,1±1,0a	52,5±5,8c	47,5±3,6c
<b>Grasa</b>	27,7±1,1d	4,8±0,5c	209,6±8,2a	72,2±5,4c	98,5±5,2b
<b>Ceniza</b>	43,3±1,5c	56,9±4,1b	25,0±4,1d	112,0±2,2a	29,9±1,5d

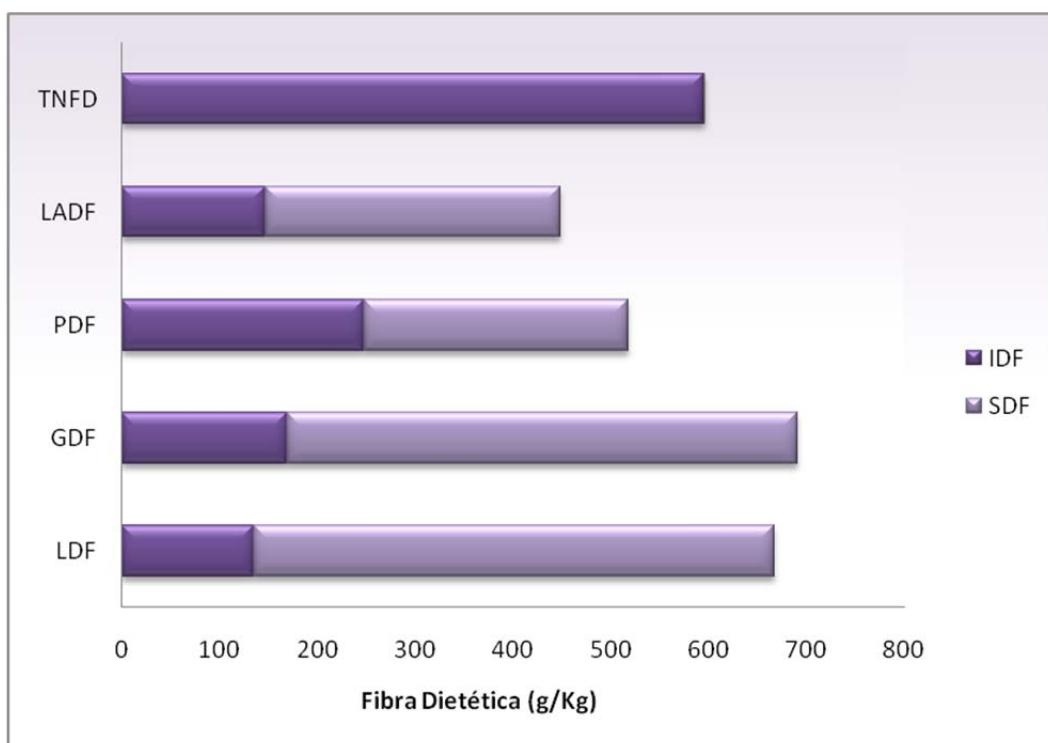
*Abreviaciones:* LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa.

Los valores se expresan como media ± error estándar). Valores en la misma fila con distinta letra (a-d) difieren significativamente ( $p<0.05$ ).

El contenido en humedad varía según el proceso de obtención del coproducto, tipo y composición del mismo, estado de maduración, tipo de fibra, etc. Los valores obtenidos entre los distintos extractos oscilan entre 69,5 y 90,8 g/kg, mostrando que el LADF presentó los valores más altos de humedad ( $P<0.05$ ). En cualquier caso, el contenido de humedad fue inferior a 100 g/kg en todos los extractos analizados, siendo similar a los resultados publicados en otros estudios (Hemati-Matin et al., 2013).

El contenido en proteína de los diferentes extractos analizados, varió entre 47,5 y 117,2 g/kg, el de azúcar entre 48,7 y 173,2 g/kg y el de cenizas entre 25,0 y 112,0 g/kg. El componente que mostró la mayor variación entre las fuentes de fibra dietética evaluadas fue el contenido en grasa, con valores entre 4,8 y 20,9 g/kg. El alto contenido en grasa en PDF ( $p<0,05$ ) puede deberse al contenido de grasa presente en la semilla de la granada, ya que son ricas en lípidos totales (Ozgul-Yucel, 2005). El aceite de semilla de la granada comprende del 12 al 20% del peso total de la semilla. Dicho aceite se caracteriza por un alto contenido en ácidos grasos poliinsaturados (n-3) tales como linoleico, linolénico y otros lípidos como ácido oléico, ácido esteárico y ácido palmítico (Fadavi et al., 2006).

El contenido en TDF de las distintas fuentes de fibra dietética analizadas varió entre 448,0 y 691,5 g/kg. El valor más alto se encontró en las fibras dietéticas obtenidas durante el procesado de los zumos (limón (LDF) y pomelo (GDF)). Similares resultados en TDF se han obtenido en coproductos de naranja (Fernández-López et al., 2009) y coproductos de lima (Jongaroontaprangsee et al., 2007). Estas diferencias en TDF entre las muestras de cítricos, parecen estar más relacionadas con la industria de procedencia (extracción de zumo vs elaboración de helado) que con la especie cítrica utilizada (limón o pomelo). Como se puede observar en la figura 8, los tres extractos de fibra dietética de origen cítrico, presentaron un contenido en SDF ( $p<0,05$ ) mayor que en IDF, representando, la fibra dietética soluble, aproximadamente un 75% del total de fibra dietética. Es decir, una proporción 3:1 en la relación SDF/IDF. Los valores de TDF en el extracto de granada fueron aproximadamente de 500 g/kg y con una relación de SDF/IDF de 1. Al comparar estos datos con los obtenidos por Viuda et al. (2012) para fibra de granada, éste reportó un mayor contenido de fibra soluble, siendo la proporción SDF/IDF 1,5:1. Estas diferencias, tal y como estos autores explican, pueden ser debidas a la materia prima utilizada para obtener la fibra de granada; algunos casos se obtiene a partir de la corteza de granada, en otros se puede obtener directamente a partir de los coproductos obtenidos tras la obtención del zumo de granada, etc. En ciertas aplicaciones se recomienda que los concentrados de fibra dietética tengan un contenido equilibrado de fibra soluble e insoluble. El extracto de granada utilizado presenta ambos tipos de fibra a niveles prácticamente iguales. En el caso del extracto de chufa, la TDF fue de 597,1 g/kg (Tabla 3), principalmente compuesta por IDF con un valor del 99,8% respecto a la FDT y de un 0,2% para la SDF (Figura 9), siendo este dato similar a los publicados por Sánchez-Zapata et al. (2009) para fibra de chufa, con valores medios de fibra insoluble del 100%. El alto contenido en IDF del extracto de chufa es una prometedora aplicación en productos alimenticios, ya que su consumo incrementaría la sensación de saciedad, al absorber agua y aumentar el tamaño del bolo. También aumentaría el volumen y el peso del bolo fecal, promoviendo un mejor funcionamiento del sistema digestivo y previniendo trastornos como el estreñimiento y el cáncer de colon (Ho et al., 2012).



**Figura 9.-** Contenido en fibra dietética soluble (FDS) e insoluble (FDI) de los diferentes extractos obtenidos de coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria (LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa).

#### **4.3. PROPIEDADES FISICO-QUIMICAS**

##### **4.3.1. pH**

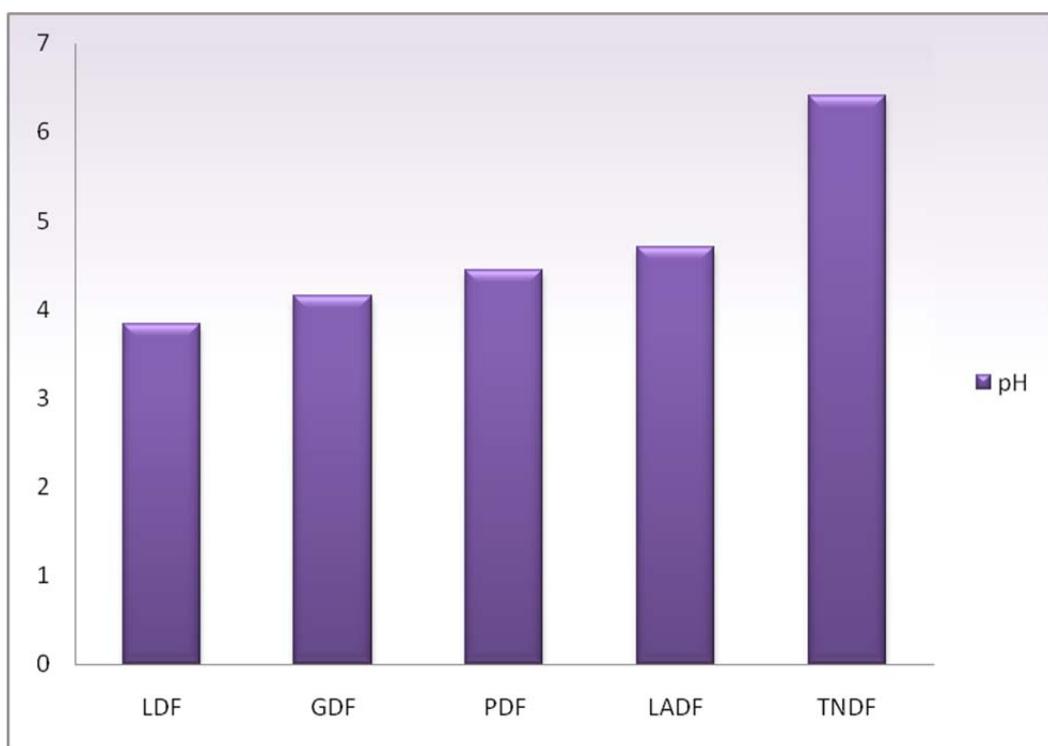
El pH juega un papel importante en las propiedades tecnológicas de los extractos, así como en su incorporación en las matrices alimentarias. Desde un punto de vista sensorial, el producto final puede sufrir variaciones negativas para el consumidor. En función de la composición de los extractos, el pH influye en determinadas propiedades tecnológicas, como CRA, CRO, solubilidad, etc. Desde el punto de vista tecnológico, a la hora de elaborar un alimento adicionado con cualquier extracto potencialmente interesante (compuestos bioactivos, ingredientes funcionales, etc.), se debe seleccionar al extracto con un pH cercano al pH del producto a incorporar. Así por ejemplo, el pH de los extractos para un producto cárnico crudo-curado debería de estar comprendidos entre 5-6. De esta forma no se modifican notablemente el pH del producto, ni las características sensoriales ni las tecnológicas. Mientras que en un

producto cárnico cocido, el pH del extracto debería ser superior a 6. Además es un parámetro directamente relacionado con el riesgo de deterioro de los alimentos ya sea por el desarrollo de microorganismos, enzimas o reacciones no enzimáticas (Hemati-Matin et al., 2013).

En la Figura 10, se muestran los valores de pH de las diferentes fibras analizadas. El pH de todas las fuentes de fibra dietéticas, excepto la muestra de chufa, fue ácido, con valores desde 3,84 a 4,70. Las fibras con pH ácido (LADF, LDF, GDF y PDF) podrían ser adecuadas para su adición a una matriz alimentaria ácida (por ejemplo el yogur), mientras que la fibra de chufa con un pH de 6,41 (cercano a la neutralidad) sería más adecuada para la adición a una matriz alimentaria neutra, como es el caso de los productos cárnicos.

Las fibras de limón (LDF), pomelo (GDF) y granada (PDF) presentaron los valores de pH más ácidos ( $3,84 \pm 0,03$  -  $4,15 \pm 0,02$  –  $4,44 \pm 0,01$ ), esto se debe, fundamentalmente, a la elevada concentración de ácidos orgánicos presentes (ácido cítrico, ácido málico, ácido ascórbico, etc.) (Pande & Akoh, 2010; Tezcan et al., 2009; Ersus & Cam, 2007) en este tipo de productos. Los datos obtenidos concuerdan con los reportados por Lario et al. (2004) y Garau et al. (2007) para la fibra de limón. También con los obtenidos por Viuda et al. (2012) para la fibra de granada. Sin embargo, los valores de pH del albedo de limón son un poco superiores a los publicados por Alesón-Carbonell et al. (2005) para albedo de limón deshidratado (3,73). El extracto de chufa (TNDF) fue el que mayor valor de pH presentó, lo cual habrá que tener en cuenta, sobre todo desde un punto de vista microbiológico, puesto que quizás requiera previamente o durante la elaboración de un alimento de un tratamiento térmico para mejorar su estabilidad microbiológica y por ende su vida útil.

Las diferencias de pH entre las distintas muestras, puede también influir en la solubilidad de las fibras, afectando estas diferencias a sus propiedades químicas o físico-químicas, por ejemplo, la viscosidad y la habilidad de reaccionar con otros nutrientes en el tracto gastrointestinal (Luccia & Kundel, 2002; Hemati-Matin et al., 2013).



**Figura 10.-** Valores de pH de los diferentes extractos obtenidos de coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria (LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa).

#### **4.3.2. Color**

El color es uno de los parámetros más importantes que se tiene en cuenta en la calidad de un alimento. Es la primera característica sensorial percibida por los consumidores y tiende a modificar otras percepciones tales como flavor y aroma (García-Pérez et al., 2005). El color de las diferentes fuentes de fibra dietética está influenciado por diferentes factores como materia prima (variedad de la fruta), fuente industrial y procesado de los extractos ricos en fibra dietética procedentes de coproductos. Durante su procesado, los coproductos, sufren altas temperaturas que estimulan las reacciones de pardoamiento enzimático y no enzimático (reacciones de Maillard) que oscurecen el producto (Monsalve-González et al., 1993). Los posibles cambios de color causados por las fibras dietéticas limitarían su potencial aplicación en los alimentos. En la tabla 4 se muestra los valores obtenidos para las coordenadas de color ( $L^*$  (luminosidad),  $a^*$  (rojo-verde) y  $b^*$  (amarillo-azul) de las distintos extractos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidas como coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria.

Todas las fuentes de fibra dietética analizadas mostraron altos valores de luminosidad, entre 62,8-78,53. La mayor luminosidad se encontró para LADF ( $p<0,05$ ). La luminosidad en los alimentos está relacionada con diversos factores, entre ellos, la concentración y tipo de pigmentos presentes, el contenido en agua y la disponibilidad del agua superficial. En este caso, el comportamiento presente en la  $L^*$  en las distintas fuentes de fibra dietética está altamente relacionado con su contenido en humedad (Tabla 3). La coordenada rojo-verde ( $a^*$ ) y amarillo-azul ( $b^*$ ) se ven afectadas por la integridad estructural de la fibra y el contenido y disposición de los pigmentos (hidrosolubles o liposolubles) (Fernández-López et al., 2005). Las fuentes de fibra dietética procedentes de los cítricos (LDF, GDF y LADF) mostraron los valores más bajos de  $a^*$  y los más altos de  $b^*$  ( $p<0,05$ ). Esto es debido a que los cítricos presentan un alto contenido en carotenos amarillos (xantofilas), que contribuye a la componente amarilla del color ( $b^*$ ). El caso contrario, se aprecia en la fuente de fibra de granada (PDF), con los valores más altos de la coordenada  $a^*$  y los más bajos para la coordenada  $b^*$  ( $p<0,05$ ), debido a la presencia de carotenos rojos que contribuyen a la componente roja del color ( $a^*$ ).

**Tabla 4.-** Valores de las coordenadas de color CIELAB:  $L^*$ (Luminosidad),  $a^*$  (rojo-verde) y  $b^*$  (amarillo-azul) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.

	$L^*$	$a^*$	$b^*$
<b>LDF</b>	64,91±1,44b	-2,47±0,17c	25,89±0,52b
<b>GDF</b>	65,22±1,22b	-3,12±0,20c	28,22±1,11a
<b>PDF</b>	62,81±1,83b	7,38±0,64a	15,62±0,71d
<b>LADF</b>	78,53±3,25a	-6,06±1,52d	21,28±1,05c
<b>TNDF</b>	68,29±2,36b	2,17±0,15b	17,11±0,52d

*Abreviaciones:* LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa.

Los valores se expresan como media ± error estándar). Valores en la misma fila con distinta letra (a-d) difieren significativamente ( $p<0,05$ ).

## **4.4. PROPIEDADES TECNOFUNCIONALES**

### **4.4.1. Capacidad de retención de agua (CRA)**

La capacidad de retención de agua es una propiedad tecnológica de gran interés en los ingredientes funcionales. Expresa la cantidad de agua retenida por la fibra después de someterse a una tensión tal como la centrifugación (Nelson, 2001). La CRA determinada por el método de centrifugación hace referencia a los tres tipos de agua (agua unida a los polisacáridos hidrofilicos, agua retenida en la matriz de la fibra y agua atrapada dentro de los espacios de la pared celular) asociados con las fibras (Fleury & Lahaye, 1991). Es una de las propiedades importantes a la hora de caracterizar a una fibra y debe medirse antes de su incorporación a un alimento.

Son muchos los factores que intervienen en la CRA de las fibras. Aunque la fuente de la que procede la fibra es un factor determinante por su composición química y su estructura, también influyen la microestructura final de la fibra (tamaño de partícula, porosidad) y las condiciones de procesado (Nelson, 2001). Sangnark & Noomhorm (2003) mencionan que una reducción en el tamaño de partículas de la fibra se asocia con una reducción en la capacidad de retener agua. Durante el procesado de fuentes de fibra dietética, la aplicación un tratamiento de lavado aumenta la CRA, probablemente a causa de la eliminación de azúcares (Larrauri, 1999).

Las fibras solubles van a presentar una alta capacidad de retención de agua, originando soluciones de gran viscosidad, a diferencia de las fibras insolubles que tiene escasa CRA, generando soluciones de poca viscosidad (Dikeman et al., 2006; Rosell et al., 2009). En las fibras solubles la capacidad de retención de agua está directamente relacionada con la reducción del colesterol a nivel fisiológico (Lazaridou et al., 2007). Asimismo tiene una gran importancia desde un punto de vista tecnológico, ya que presenta una relación directa en la formulación y en el procesamiento de alimentos ricos en fibra, ya que la capacidad de retención de agua está relacionada con la viscosidad de los alimentos y la facilidad con que pueden ser elaborados. Esta propiedad confiere un efecto de frescura y suavidad en productos horneados (Cruz, 2002). La alta capacidad de retención de agua de una determinada fibra, sugiere que ésta puede ser utilizada como un ingrediente funcional para reducir la sinéresis, modificar la textura y viscosidad así como reducir las calorías de los alimentos (Lario et al., 2004).

Al analizar los resultados (Tabla 5), las fibras que presentaron mayor CRA, son la fibra de limón y de pomelo, mientras que los valores más bajos se encontraron en la fibra de granada y chufa. En general, los valores de la capacidad de retención de agua obtenidos, son inferiores a los publicados por otros autores. Sánchez-Zapata et al. (2009) obtuvieron para la fibra de chufa valores de 8,01 g/g; Lario et al. (2004), reportó para la fibra de limón valores de 11 g/g; Larrauri et al. (1999) obtuvo para la fibra de pomelo valores de 8,5 g/g. Esta variabilidad en los resultados de nuevo, podría estar relacionada con los diferentes procesos de extracción de la fibra aplicados, que podrían provocar modificaciones estructurales que supongan un diferente grado de interacción y unión de los sólidos presentes con el agua.

**Tabla 5.-** Valores de la Capacidad de Retención de Agua (CRA) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.

Tipo de fibra	CRA (g/g)
LDF	7,96±0,11a
GDF	6,38±0,40b
PDF	4,43±0,20d
LADF	5,56±0,56c
TNDF	3,76±0,42d

Abreviaciones: LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa.

Los valores se expresan como media ± error estándar). Valores en la misma fila con distinta letra (a-d) difieren significativamente ( $p<0.05$ ).

La cantidad de fibra soluble e insoluble (SDF e IDF) parece jugar un papel crítico en la CRA de las distintas fuentes de fibras analizadas. Se demostró que las fuentes de fibra dietética con una alta proporción de fibra insoluble (IDF) presentan una menor CRA (Jimenez-Moreno et al., 2009; Gómez-Ordoñez et al., 2010), o por el contrario fuentes de fibra dietética con alta proporción de fibra soluble presentan una alta CRA (Marín et al., 2002). De manera, que en las muestras analizadas sí se puede observar dicha relación entre la CRA y el contenido de fibra soluble e insoluble. Las fibras con un mayor contenido en fibra soluble, como son la fibra de limón (LDF) y la fibra de pomelo (GDF), son las que tienen mayor CRA, siendo la fibra de chufa (TNDF) la que

presentó los valores más bajos, correspondiéndose con una alta proporción de fibra insoluble.

Hay varios estudios que publican diferentes teorías y resultados acerca de cómo varía la capacidad de retener agua y la capacidad de hidratación de las fibras en función de su tamaño. Una teoría es que la molienda afecta negativamente a la capacidad de retención de agua, ya que produce una pérdida de agua en la estructura de la matriz de la fibra (Kirwan et al., 1974). Los resultados que muestran una disminución de la capacidad de retención de agua con partículas de menor tamaño han sido publicados en numerosos estudios (Mongeau & Brassard, 1982; Cadden, 1987; Auffret et al., 1994; Sangnark & Noomhorm, 2003).

Sin embargo, Chau et al. (2007), proponen una teoría contraria en el caso de cítricos, ya que indican que para los casos de molienda con partícula de tamaño más pequeño resulta en una mayor superficie y con mayor cantidad de posibles sitios de unión para las partículas de agua, por tanto, se traduce en un aumento en la capacidad de retención de agua.

#### **4.4.2. Capacidad de retención de aceite (CRO)**

La capacidad de retención de aceite expresa la cantidad de aceite retenido por la fibra después de someterse a una tensión tal como la centrifugación (Nelson, 2001). Además, se trata en cierta manera de una medida indirecta de la capacidad que tiene una fibra en el organismo para interferir en la adsorción de lípidos en el tracto gastrointestinal (Carvalho et al., 2009).

La CRO de las fibras ensayadas se muestra en la tabla 6. TNDF mostró los valores de CRO más altos, obteniéndose para el resto de fibras ensayadas valores inferiores y sin diferencias significativas entre ellas ( $p<0,05$ ). Estos valores fueron comparables a los obtenidos en la fibra trigo (2,3 g/g) (Thebaudin et al., 1997). Lario et al. (2004) reportó para la fibra de limón valores de CRO muy superiores (6,6 g/g) a los de este trabajo. Sin embargo, los datos de CRO del resto de fibras analizadas son superiores a los publicados por Figuerola et al. (2005), y Griguelmo-Miguel et al. (1997) para otros coproductos agroalimentarios como los procedentes de uva, naranja, manzana y melocotón, donde los resultados de la capacidad de retención de aceite fueron de 1,20

g/g 1,81 g/g, 1,81 g/g y 1,09 g/g respectivamente; tal vez por la cantidad de fibra insoluble presente en dichas fibras.

En el caso de la CRO, la fibra que presentó mayor porcentaje de fibra insoluble (chufa) es la que presentó mayor capacidad de retención de aceite. Aunque, con el resto de fibras analizadas no se puede establecer una relación clara entre porcentaje de fibra insoluble y la capacidad de retención de aceite.

**Tabla 6.-** Valores de la Capacidad de Retención de Aceite (CRO) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.

<b>Tipo</b>	<b>CRO</b>
<b>de fibra</b>	<b>(g/g)</b>
<b>LDF</b>	1,69±0,13b
<b>GDF</b>	2,30±0,09b
<b>PDF</b>	1,73±0,03b
<b>LADF</b>	2,23±0,77b
<b>TNDF</b>	3,60±0,22a

Abreviaciones: LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa.

Los valores se expresan como media ± error estándar). Valores en la misma fila con distinta letra (a-d) difieren significativamente ( $p<0.05$ ).

La CRO de las fibras es más una función de la porosidad de la estructura de la fibra, que de la afinidad de la molécula de fibra por el aceite (Nelson, 2001). Además, el pre-procesado de la fibra con agua (durante los lavados) y la reducción del tamaño de partícula (durante su molido), provocarían una reducción de los valores de CRO (Thebaudin et al., 1997; Nelson, 2001) por la reducción del número de poros de la fibra o porque los poros están pre-ocupados por el agua. Otros autores, mencionan que podrían estar involucrados otros mecanismos más complejos que determina la variaciones de la CRO en las fibras, tales como el número de sitios lipofílicos, la hidrofobicidad general y la atracción capilar (Kinsella, 1976).

Las fibras con una alta CRO permiten la estabilización de la emulsión, reteniendo la grasa en los alimentos formulados. La CRO es una medida importante en la retención del sabor y rendimiento del producto, especialmente en los productos cárnicos cocidos,

donde normalmente pierden grasas durante la cocción (Thebaudin et al., 1997; Sánchez-Zapata et al., 2009).

#### **4.4.3. Capacidad de hinchamiento (CH)**

La CH se define como la relación del volumen ocupado por la muestra frente a la inmersión en un exceso de agua a temperatura ambiente hasta alcanzar el equilibrio. Por lo tanto, este parámetro indica cuánto se hincha la matriz de fibra cuando absorbe el agua (Raghavendra et al., 2004).

La capacidad de hinchamiento de las fibras depende de la composición (a mayor cantidad de fibra soluble mayor capacidad de hinchamiento), de la porosidad y del tamaño de la partícula (Femenia et al., 1997).

La proporción de FDS y FDI de los diferentes extractos de fibra tiene un papel importante en muchas de sus propiedades tecnológicas. Se ha visto que las fuentes de fibra con una alta proporción de fibra insoluble presentan bajos valores de CRA y CH (Gómez-Ordoñez et al., 2010; Hemati-Matin et al., 2013).

Normalmente, las fibras presentan una buena capacidad de hinchamiento y se utilizan en alimentos con el fin de solucionar problemas de pérdida de volumen y humedad, permitiendo así mantener la apariencia de frescura durante más tiempo. A nivel metabólico una alta CH puede provocar una mayor saciedad y un aumento del bolo fecal (Villarroel et al., 2003; Raghavendra et al., 2006). Los datos de la capacidad de hinchamiento se muestran en la Tabla 7.

**Tabla 7.-** Valores de la Capacidad de Hinchamiento (CH) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.

<b>Tipo de fibra</b>	<b>CH (mL/g)</b>
<b>LDF</b>	<b>5,69±0,10b</b>
<b>GDF</b>	<b>6,50±0,09a</b>
<b>PDF</b>	<b>1,92±0,11c</b>
<b>LADF</b>	<b>5,70±0,36b</b>
<b>TNDF</b>	<b>1,93±0,42c</b>

*Abreviaciones:* LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa.

Los valores se expresan como media ± error estándar). Valores en la misma fila con distinta letra (a-d) difieren significativamente ( $p<0.05$ ).

Al analizar los resultados a través del test de Tukey, se observa que las fibras de cítricos (albedo de limón, limón y pomelo), presentaron los valores más altos ( $p<0,05$ ), seguidos por las fibras de chufa y granada, sin diferencias significativas entre ellas.

Al igual que ocurrió con la CRA, en este caso también se observa una relación entre fibra dietética soluble y capacidad de hinchamiento. Las fibras de cítricos que mayor porcentaje de FDS (Figura 9) presentaron son las de mayor capacidad de hinchamiento. Los valores más bajos de CH fueron para la fibra de chufa que era una de las fibras con mayor contenido en FDI.

#### **4.2.4. Actividad emulsificante (AE) y estabilidad de la emulsión (EE)**

La actividad emulsificante, es la capacidad de una molécula para actuar como un agente que facilita la solubilización o dispersión de dos líquidos inmiscibles, y la estabilidad de la emulsión es la capacidad de mantener la integridad de una emulsión (Sánchez Zapata et al., 2009).

La actividad emulsificante indica la cantidad de aceite emulsificado por la fibra antes de que se produzca el colapso de la emulsión, mientras que la estabilidad nos indica el aceite que ha quedado retenido por la fibra después de que se produzca dicho colapso. Por lo tanto, es importante que las fibras incorporadas a los alimentos, además de tener una elevada capacidad emulsificante, sean capaces de formar emulsiones estables con el

fin de proteger durante el mayor tiempo posible la estructura de los productos, así como, su calidad visual (Sánchez & Matos, 2011).

El valor medio de la actividad emulsificante de un residuo fibroso es también un buen indicador de la capacidad para adsorber ácidos biliares, lo cual tiene efectos beneficiosos para la salud ya que el componente fibroso adsorbe ácidos biliares y aumenta la excreción por las heces; asimismo, limita la absorción de estos ácidos en el intestino delgado y reduce los niveles de colesterol en la sangre (Sánchez Zapata et al., 2009).

Las fibras dietéticas LADF y TNDF (Tabla 8) no mostraron diferencias significativas entre ellas ( $p<0,05$ ) para la actividad emulsificante y estabilidad de la emulsión., obteniendo los valores más altos de las fibras ensayadas. Si comparamos las fibras procedentes de cítricos, podemos observar como la fibra de albedo de limón (LADF) presentó valores muy superiores con respecto a la fibra de limón, pomelo y granada, las cuales no mostraron diferencias significativas entre ellas, siendo esto debido a su alta riqueza en pectina. Los valores medios de AE para la fibra de chufa son similares a los publicados por Sánchez Zapata et al. (2009) con valores de 70,33%. Yasutmasu et al. (1972) indicaron que AE inferiores al 50% no son deseables.

**Tabla 8.-** Valores Actividad emulsificante (AE) y estabilidad de la emulsión (EE) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.

Tipo de fibra	AE (%)	EE (%)
<b>LDF</b>	53,67±3,79b	93,18±0,91ab
<b>GDF</b>	54,67±1,16b	89,88±2,78b
<b>PDF</b>	53,00±1,73b	90,52±2,19b
<b>LADF</b>	80,00±1,00a	95,80±0,77a
<b>TNDF</b>	78,00±2,00a	96,15±0,10a

Abreviaciones: LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa. Los valores se expresan como media ± error estándar). Valores en la misma fila con distinta letra (a-d) difieren significativamente ( $p<0,05$ ).

Todas las fibras estudiadas, presentaron valores de estabilidad de la emulsión superiores al 90%, siendo las fibras de albedo de limón y chufa, las que obtuvieron los valores más altos ( $p<0,05$ ).

En resumen, aquellas fibras con valores altos de AE y EE, son apropiadas para su incorporación a alimentos que requieran la formación de emulsiones y una larga vida útil.

## **4.5. PROPIEDADES FISIOFUNCIONALES**

### **4.5.1. Capacidad de retención de bilis (CRB)**

La tabla 9 muestra la propiedad fisiológica CRB de los distintos extractos ricos en fibra dietética ensayados. El método que se aplica para determinar la CRB, está basado en las mismas técnicas aplicadas anteriormente para determinar la CRA y CRO, utilizando para ello un líquido fisiológico (bilis) que contiene tanto colesterol como sales biliares formadas a partir de este compuesto. Es un método que permite medir, de forma más realista, la retención de este fluido fisiológico por parte de la fibra y con ello, indirectamente, la retención de colesterol.

La bilis es esencial para la digestión de la grasa en el tracto intestinal. En ausencia de bilis, la grasa pasa a través del tracto intestinal sin ser digerida. El ácido biliar, uno de los principales componentes de la bilis, es derivado hacia colesterol, una lipoproteína. Normalmente, la bilis es secretada directamente en la primera parte del intestino delgado a través de la vesícula biliar.

**Tabla 9.-** Valores de la Capacidad de Retención de Bilis (CRB) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.

<b>Tipo</b> <b>de fibra</b>	<b>CRB</b> <b>(g/g)</b>
<b>LDF</b>	8,07±0,08a
<b>GDF</b>	9,20±0,65a
<b>PDF</b>	4,60±0,39c
<b>LADF</b>	6,29±0,33b
<b>TNDF</b>	3,66±0,30c

*Abreviaciones:* LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa.

Los valores se expresan como media ± error estándar). Valores en la misma fila con distinta letra (a-d) difieren significativamente ( $p<0.05$ ).

Todos los extractos ensayados mostraron valores de CRB más altos ( $p<0,05$ ) que sus respectivos valores de CRA y CRO (Tablas 5 y 6, respectivamente). LDF y GDF presentaron los valores más altos de CRB, sin diferencias significativas entre sí. Los valores más bajos de CRB fueron obtenidos en la fibra de chufa (TNDF). En este caso, parece existir una clara relación entre la CRB y el contenido en FDS. Aquellas muestran que presentaron un mayor contenido en FDS, han sido aquellas que han obtenido una mayor CRB. Teniendo en cuenta que la bilis es un líquido con un alto contenido en agua (~97%), tiene sentido la relación encontrada entre CRB y CRA.

Al ingerir fibra soluble, a su paso por la boca y el estómago es mezclada con líquidos que hacen que se expanda y forme un sustrato similar a un gel. La fibra soluble tiene la capacidad de unirse a los ácidos biliares, el componente principal de la bilis. Al formarse un entramado entre fibra y ácido biliar, evita que dicho ácido pueda ser adsorbido en el intestino, favoreciendo así su excreción con las heces y disminuyendo de esta forma la cantidad que llega al hígado por la vía entero-hepática (Jones, 2008).

#### **4.5.2. Fat/oil binding (FOB)**

Fat/oil binding (FOB), es una propiedad que nos permite determinar, “*in vitro*”, la capacidad de las distintas fibras analizadas para retener o absorber las grasas en su matriz a lo largo del tracto digestivo, al simular los procesos de digestión.

Al analizar los resultados (Tabla 10) a través del test de Tukey éstas muestran diferencias significativas ( $p<0,05$ ) entre ellas; sin embargo las fibras de albedo de limón y limón no presentaron diferencias significativas entre sí, siendo las de mayor valor obtenido de las fibras ensayadas. Asimismo, las fibras de pomelo y granada, si presentaron diferencias significativas entre sí, obteniendo valores muy inferiores a las fibras de limón. En cuanto a la fibra de chufa, ésta no presentó FOB.

**Tabla 10.-** Valores de Fat/oil binding (FOB) de coproductos ricos en fibra dietética obtenidos de la industria agroalimentaria.

<b>Tipo de fibra</b>	<b>FOB (g/g)</b>
<b>LDF</b>	67,43±26,37a
<b>GDF</b>	35,43±0,27b
<b>PDF</b>	14,00±6,98c
<b>LADF</b>	69,05±8,68a
<b>TNDF</b>	nd

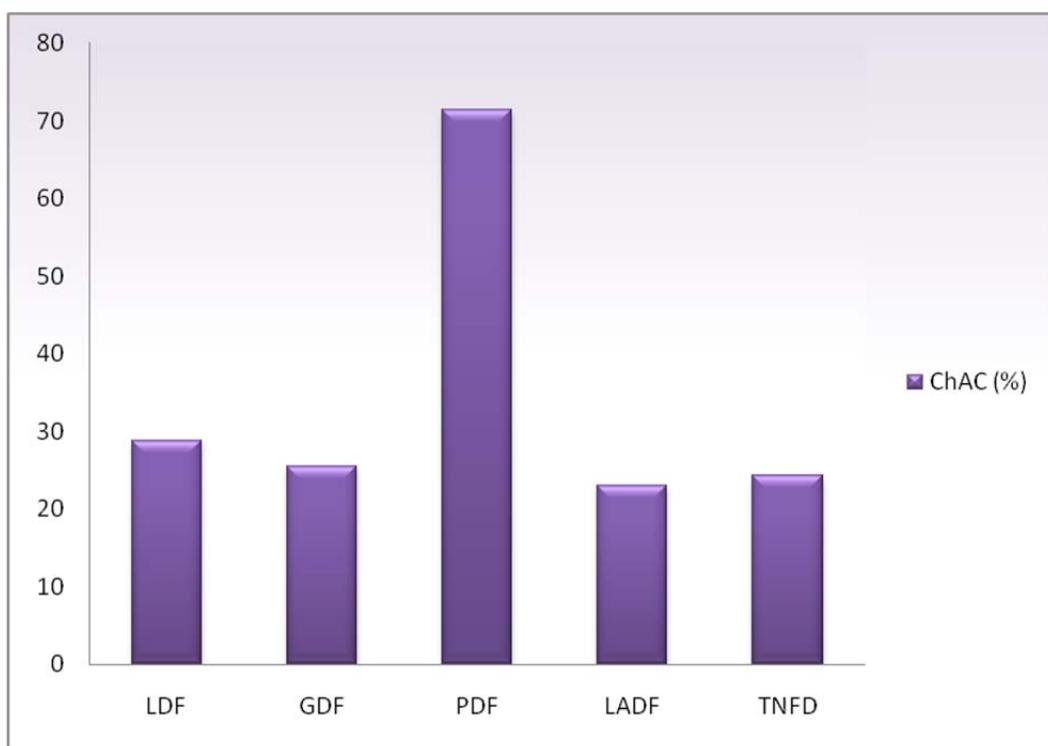
*Abreviaciones:* LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa. nd: no detectado

Los valores se expresan como media ± error estándar). Valores en la misma fila con distinta letra (a-d) difieren significativamente ( $p<0.05$ ).

Algunos autores han mencionado que dicha propiedad podría estar relacionada con el contenido en fibra dietética soluble (Bailina, 2014). En este caso, parece estar relacionado no exactamente con el contenido en fibra SDF, sino con la relación de SDF/IDF. De manera, que cuanto mayor es la relación SDF/IDF, mayor es la capacidad FOB.

#### **4.5.3. Capacidad de adsorción de colesterol (ChAC)**

La capacidad de adsorción de colesterol para las fuentes de fibra dietética ensayadas se muestra en la figura 11. La fibra de granada (PDF) mostró la capacidad de adsorción de colesterol más alta (>70 %;  $p<0,05$ ), muy superior al resto de fibras ensayadas (23-29%). En cualquier caso, todas las muestras ensayadas presentaron valores de ChAC superiores al 20%, lo cual es muy interesante y prometedor.



**Figura 11.-** Valores de Capacidad de adsorción de colesterol (ChAC) de los diferentes extractos obtenidos de co-productos de la industria agroalimentaria (LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa).

En el caso de la fibra PDF, cualquiera de los resultados obtenidos a lo largo del estudio (composición química, propiedades físico-químicas, propiedades tecnofuncionales o propiedades fisiofuncionales) podrían explicar los altos valores obtenidos para la ChAC. Por lo tanto, debe ser otra razón la que explicaría dicha propiedad, como es el contenido en polifenoles presente en la fibra de granada. Algunos autores han mencionado la presencia de un alto contenido en polifenoles tanto en el fruto, así como en coproductos obtenidos de la extracción del zumo de granada (Viuda-Martos et al., 2012; Sengul et al., 2014).

Recientemente, varios autores han demostrado que algunos compuestos polifenólicos tienen actividad reductora del colesterol mediante la inhibición de la colesterol-esterasa (Ngamukote et al., 2011). A pesar de que esta propiedad se ha determinado directamente sobre el extracto rico en fibra dietética, sin simular ningún proceso de digestión, los resultados obtenidos son muy prometedores. La aplicación de estos extractos ricos en fibra en el proceso de elaboración de un alimento, podría ser muy

interesante debido a sus propiedades saludables, principalmente si se pudiera resaltar su capacidad de adsorción de colesterol.

Teniendo en cuenta, que hoy en día los principales organismos internacionales de salud recomiendan reducir el consumo de algunos productos cárnicos y lácteos, por su alto contenido en colesterol, podría ser muy interesante el desarrollo de dichos productos con estos extractos ricos en fibra (por ejemplo, PDF), destacando que dicho ingrediente reduce la adsorción de colesterol.

## **4.6. DIGESTIÓN “IN VITRO”**

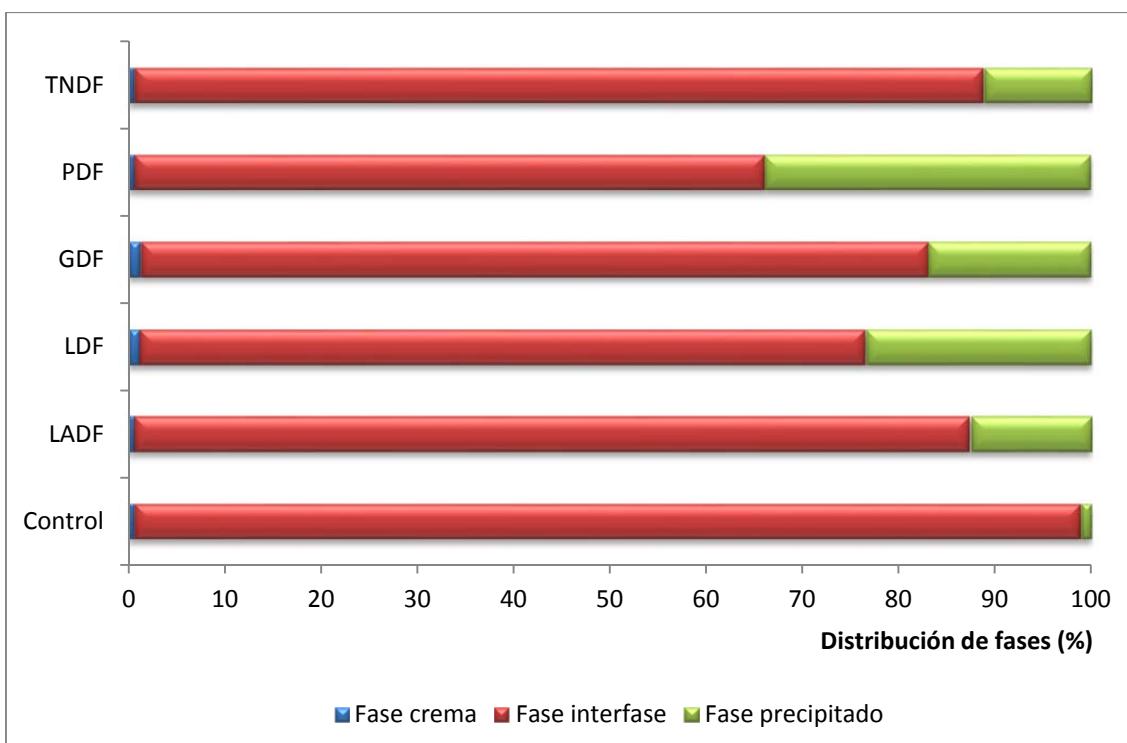
### **4.6.1. Distribución de fases en la digestión “*in vitro*”**

Los modelos de digestión “*in vitro*”, proporcionan una alternativa útil a modelos animales y humanos, para la rápida detección de ingredientes alimentarios, siendo éticamente superiores, más rápidos y más económicos que las técnicas “*in vivo*” (Coles et al., 2005).

Los efectos de las fibras analizadas se aprecian en distintas fases del sistema de digestión “*in vitro*” (fase crema, fase interfase y fase precipitado) (Véase figura 8 apartado 3.4.2.1. Distribución de fases de los productos de la digestión “*in vitro*”)

La *fase crema* es lo que inicialmente no es retenido por la fibra, compuesta principalmente por la grasa. La *fase interfase*, simula el contenido intestinal y es donde debería apreciarse la viscosidad, ésta juega un papel muy importante en la digestión de lípidos, ciertas fibras solubles tales como, gomas,  $\beta$ -glucanos, etc., son capaces de formar soluciones viscosas inhibiendo o ralentizando la absorción de nutrientes en el organismo (Alexaindre & Miguel, 2008). La *fase precipitado*, se corresponde con el colesterol que es retenido por la fibra mediante el mecanismo de arrastre, siendo éste eliminado por las heces.

Después de la digestión “*in vitro*” de las muestras cárnicas con extractos ricos en fibra dietética, los productos obtenidos se centrifugaron para observar la distribución de las distintas fases y posteriormente, determinar la concentración de colesterol en cada una de ellas. En la figura 12 se muestran las proporciones de cada fase identificada después de la digestión “*in vitro*”



**Figura 12.-** Distribución de fases (fase crema, fase interfase y fase precipitado) identificadas después de la digestión “*in vitro*” de la muestra cárnea con diferentes extractos obtenidos de coproductos de la industria agroalimentaria (LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa).

Todas las muestras presentaron una mayor proporción de fase interfase, seguido por la fase de precipitado y como minoritaria la fase crema ( $p<0,05$ ). La fase crema, presentó valores muy pequeños, comprendidos entre 0,57% y 1,24%; sin diferencias significativas entre ellos. Esta fase se corresponde con el contenido graso, es decir, el colesterol que adsorbe directamente el organismo. En el caso de la fase precipitado, presentó valores que oscilan entre 11,25% y 33,91%.

La fibra de chufa es la que presentó un mayor porcentaje de fase interfase ( $88,11\pm2,04$ ), y menor porcentaje de fase de precipitado ( $11,25\pm1,59$ ). La fibra de granada se comportó de manera contraria, ya que presentó los valores más elevados de fase precipitado ( $33,91\pm3,46$ ) y los valores más bajos para la interfase ( $65,48\pm3,30$ ).

Todas las fibras analizadas presentaron porcentajes de fase precipitado muy superiores a los de la muestra control ( $1,12\pm0,57$ ), siendo ésta la que presentó los valores más altos

para el porcentaje de fase crema e interfase con valores de ( $0,64\pm0,61$ ) y ( $98,31\pm1,06$ ) respectivamente. Por ello parecería claro indicar que el principal efecto de la fibra durante la digestión *in vitro* se manifestó en la fase de precipitado, que es la que simularía el efecto de arrastre a través del intestino.

Sek et al. (2002) describió las distintas fases y productos lipolíticos encontradas en ellas, una vez terminada la digestión “*in vitro*”. Entre ellas se encuentra una fase aceitosa compuesta principalmente por colesterol y triglicéridos y diglicéridos no digeridos; una fase acuosa compuesta por ácidos biliares, ácidos grasos y monoglicéridos y una fase precipitado compuesta por ácidos grasos.

Varios estudios “*in vitro*” han demostrado que las fibras dietéticas pueden alterar la digestión de los lípidos mediante varios mecanismos. Boisen & Eggun (1991) sugieren que el mecanismo de inhibición de la mayoría de las fibras podría deberse a la capacidad de absorción de enzimas dentro de su matriz o a la unión inespecífica con la fibra. Lairon et al. (2007) indicó que el principal mecanismo de adsorción de colesterol en las fibras con alto contenido en FDS, se debe a la formación de soluciones viscosas que dificultarían la solubilización micelar de las grasas por los ácidos biliares, reduciendo así el transporte de colesterol hacia la membrana adsorbtiva. Otro mecanismo mencionado por varios autores, es la capacidad que tienen algunas fibras dietéticas de unirse a ácidos biliares, ácidos grasos y colesterol libre, dificultando de esta forma, su solubilización micelar y, finalmente, la disminución del trasporte de colesterol para su absorción (Hur et al., 2009; Lairon et al., 2007; Kamp et al., 2004). Como se puede observar son numerosos los estudios y mecanismos propuestos para la reducción de colesterol a través de las fibras, siendo hoy en día una incertidumbre el mecanismo correcto llevado a cabo por las fibras.

#### **4.6.2. Distribución de colesterol en las distintas fases de la digestión “*in vitro*”**

Una vez obtenidas las distintas fases en la digestión “*in vitro*”, se procedió a determinar la cantidad de colesterol presente en cada una de ellas. La tabla 11 muestra la cantidad de colesterol retenido (%) en cada una de las fases obtenidas después del proceso de digestión “*in vitro*” de las muestras cárnicas ensayadas ricas en fibra dietética.

**Tabla 11.-** Colesterol retenido (%) en cada una de las fases obtenidas después de la digestión “*in vitro*” de las muestras cárnicas con extractos ricos en fibra dietética.

	Colesterol retenido (%)		
	Fase Crema	Fase Interfase	Fase Precipitado
<b>Control</b>	98,89±1,56a	nd	nd
<b>LDF</b>	75,30±5,42c	nd	18,07±1,76b
<b>GDF</b>	89,32±6,89b	nd	5,68±0,65e
<b>PDF</b>	68,14±4,19d	nd	31,86±2,19a
<b>LADF</b>	88,95±5,35b	nd	7,71±0,66d
<b>TNDF</b>	85,39±2,20b	nd	14,61±1,20c

*Abreviaciones:* LDF, fibra dietética de limón; GDF, fibra dietética pomelo; PDF, fibra dietética granada; LADF: fibra dietética albedo de limón; TNDF: fibra dietética de chufa; nd: no detectado.

Los valores se expresan como media ± error estándar). Valores en la misma fila con distinta letra (a-d) difieren significativamente ( $p<0.05$ ).

Como se puede ver en los resultados obtenidos, la muestra control (sin fibra), contiene prácticamente todo el colesterol en la fase crema. Al añadir los distintos extractos ricos en fibra dietética a la muestra carnica, se detectó colesterol en la fase precipitado. La fase interfase no se detectó colesterol tanto en la muestra control (sin fibra) como en las muestras a ensayar (con fibra). De manera, que el efecto de los extractos ricos en fibra dietética parece estar relacionado con el colesterol retenido en la fase precipitado. La mayor proporción de colesterol retenido en esta fase, se encontró en PDF, seguida por LDF, TNDF, LADF y GDF y con diferencias significativas ( $p<0,05$ ) entre todos ellos. En este caso cabría pensar que el principal mecanismo estaría basado en la unión directa del colesterol que impediría su readsorción por el organismo y posteriormente excretados en las heces. Aunque este mecanismo directo de unión entre fibra y colesterol ha sido atribuido principalmente a la FDI, también existen estudios que indican que también dicha asociación puede estar relacionada a la FDS (Zacherl et al., 2011). Además dichos autores mencionaron que estas fuerzas de unión podrían ser debidas a interacciones hidrofóbicas. Sin embargo, esto es todavía discutido, ya que los mecanismos exactos implicados en la reducción de colesterol por la ingesta de fibra siguen siendo confusos.

Observando el contenido en FDS e FDI (Figura 9) de cada uno de los extractos, se puede apreciar que no existe una relación directa entre el contenido en fibra dietética y el aumento en la retención de colesterol (Tabla 11) en la fase precipitado. Sin embargo, el extracto que presentó la misma proporción de SDF e IDF (PDF), también mostró la

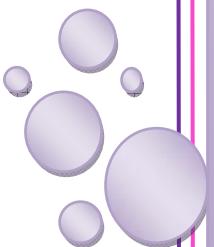
proporción más alta de colesterol retenido en la fase precipitado. Otro punto a tener en cuenta es que el extracto de granada (PDF) mostró la mayor capacidad de adsorción de colesterol ( $p<0,05$ ) antes (Figura 11) y después de la digestión “*in vitro*” (Tabla 11). De manera, que se ha visto que existe una correlación lineal logarítmica ( $R^2 = 0,8437$ ) entre la capacidad de adsorción de colesterol antes de la digestión “*in vitro*” y después de ella en la fase precipitado.

Como se ha mencionado anteriormente en el apartado de capacidad de adsorción de colesterol para el extracto de granada, el alto contenido en compuestos polifenólicos presente en dicho extracto, también podría contribuir a los altos niveles de retención de colesterol en la fase precipitado.





## *Capítulo 5: Conclusiones*





## **5.- CONCLUSIONES**

En base los resultados de la presente Tesis Doctoral se obtienen las siguientes conclusiones:

- Los distintos extractos estudiados pueden usarse como ingredientes en la formulación de alimentos funcionales por su contenido en fibra dietética total. El valor más alto en fibra dietética total se encontró en los extractos de origen cítrico, siendo su contenido en fibra soluble superior al de soluble. El caso contrario, se encuentra en el extracto de chufa compuesto principalmente por fibra insoluble, siendo una prometedora aplicación en productos alimenticios, ya que su consumo incrementaría la sensación de saciedad y un mejor funcionamiento del sistema digestivo.
- Independientemente del tipo de fibra dietética, los extractos con pH ácido, como son los cítricos y la granada, podrían ser adecuados para su adición a una matriz de carácter ácido, como el yogur, mientras que, el extracto de chufa con un pH cercano a la neutralidad es más adecuada su incorporación a una matriz alimentaria neutra, como es el caso de los productos cárnicos.
- Los extractos de origen cítrico, presentan una alta capacidad de retención de agua y capacidad de hinchamiento, observándose una relación directa entre fibra soluble y capacidad de hinchamiento (a mayor contenido en fibra soluble mayor capacidad de hinchamiento). Ambas propiedades tecnofuncionales son apropiadas en alimentos para reducir la sinéresis, modificar la textura y viscosidad, aumento de efecto frescura y reducir las calorías de los alimentos. A nivel metabólico pueden provocar un aumento de la saciedad y un aumento del bolo fecal.
- Las fibras con alta actividad emulsificante y estabilidad de la emulsión (albedo de limón y chufa) son un buen indicador de la capacidad de adsorber ácidos biliares, ya que el componente fibroso adsorbe ácidos biliares y aumenta la excreción por las heces; asimismo, limita la absorción de estos ácidos en el intestino delgado y reduce los niveles de colesterol en sangre. Además, su incorporación a alimentos es apropiada en aquellos que se requiere la formación de emulsiones y una vida útil larga.
- La fibra de granada mostró la capacidad de adsorción de colesterol más alta, siendo muy superior al resto de fibras ensayadas. Dicha capacidad es atribuida al contenido

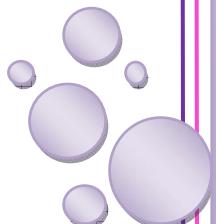
en polifenoles, haciendo de ella un futuro prometedor en la reducción del colesterol a nivel metabólico.

- Al someter los distintos extractos a un proceso de digestión “*in vitro*”, se vuelve a observar como la fibra de granada presenta los valores más altos de colesterol retenido, existiendo una correlación lineal logarítmica entre la capacidad de adsorción de colesterol antes de la digestión “*in vitro*” y después de ella en la fase precipitado.
- Por su comportamiento en la adsorción de colesterol (tanto antes como después de la digestión “*in vitro*”) la fibra de granada sería la más idónea para confirmar los estudios en vistas de su posible incorporación a alimentos diseñados para reducir el colesterol.





## *Capítulo 6: Bibliografía*





## **6. BIBLIOGRAFÍA**

**-A-**

Adlercreutz, H. (2007). Lignans and human health. *Critical Reviews in Clinical Laboratory Sciences*, 44: 483.

Aleixandre, A & Miguel, M. (2008). Dietary fiber in the prevention and treatment of metabolic syndrome: A review. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 48 (10): 905-912.

Alesón-Carbonell, L., Fernández-López, J., Pérez-Álvarez, J.A., Kuri, V. (2005). Characteristics of beef burger as influenced by various types of lemon albedo. *Innovative Food Science and Emerging Technologies*, 6: 247– 255.

Alminger, M & Eklund-Jonsson, C. (2008). Whole-grain cereal products based on a high-fibre barley or oat genotype lower post-prandial glucose and insulin responses in healthy humans. *European Journal of Nutrition*, 47 (6): 294-300.

Anderson, J. W., Baird, P., Davis, R. H. Jr., Ferreri, S., Knudtson, M., Koraym, A., Waters, V., Williams, C.L. (2009). Health benefits of dietary fiber. *Nutrition Reviews*, 67 (4): 188-205.

Andreu, A. J., Signes, A. J., Carbonell, A. A. (2008). La granada y su zumo. *Alimentación, Equipos y Tecnología*, 234: 36-39.

AOAC Official Method (991.43). (1997). Total, soluble, and insoluble dietary fibre in foods.

AOAC Official Methods of Analysis of AOAC International, 16th ed.1997. Association of Official Analytical Chemists, Washington, DC.

Asp, N. G. (2004). Definition and analysis of dietary fibre in the context of food carbohydrates. In J. M. van der Kamp, N. G. Asp, J. Miller y G. Schaafsma (Eds.), *Dietary fibre: Bioactive carbohydrates for food and feed*, 21–26.

Auffret, A., Ralet, M. C., Guillou, F., Barry, J. L., Thaibault, J. F. (1994). Effect of grinding and experimental conditions on the measurement of hydration properties of dietary fibres. *Lebensm. Wiss. Technology*, 27: 166–172.

Aviram, M & Dornfeld, L. (2001). Pomegranate juice consumption inhibits serum angiotensin converting enzyme activity and reduces systolic blood pressure. *Atherosclerosis*, 158 (1): 195-198.

**-B-**

Bailina, C. M. (2014). Mc. Tesis de Master, Universidad Miguel Hernández, España

Basu, A & Penugonda, K. (2009). Pomegranate juice: a heart-healthy fruit juice. *Nutrition Reviews*, 67 (1): 49-56.

Benavente-García, O., Castillo, J., Marín, F.R., Ortúñoz, A., Del Rio, J.A. (1997). Uses and properties of citrus flavonoids. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 45 (12): 6505–6515.

Beneyto, H., Varo, P., Guillen, C., Murillo, A. D. (2000). Chemical characterization of the natural drink “horchata de chufa” in the Alcolá and Comtast regions (Alicante). *Alimentación, Equipos y Tecnología*, 19: 99-103.

Betanzos-Cabrera, G., Guerrero-Solano, J. A., Martínez-Pérez, M., Calderón-Ramos, Z. G., Belefant, H., Cancino-Díaz, J. C. (2011). Pomegranate juice increases levels of paraoxonase1 (PON1) expression and enzymatic activity in streptozotocin-induced diabetic mice fed with a high-fat diet. *Food Research International*, 44: 1381-1385.

Bhat., Z. F & Bhat., H. (2011). Milk and dairy products as functional foods: a review. *International Journal of Dairy Sciences*, 6 (1): 1-12.

Blasco, J., Cubero, S., Gómez-Sanchis, J., Mira, P., Moltó, E. (2009). Development of a machine for the automatic sorting of pomegranate (*Punica granatum*) arils based on computer vision. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 90: 27–34.

Boisen, S & Eggum, B. O. (1991). Critical evaluation of in vitro methods for estimating digestibility in simple stomach animals. *Nutrition. Research Reviews*, 4: 141-162.

Braddock, R. J. (1999). Handbook of citrus by-products and processing technology: 117 –133.

Brennan, C. S. (2005). Dietary fibre, glycaemic response, and diabetes (vol 49, pg 560, 2005). *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, 49 (7): 716-716.

Brighenti, F., Pellegrini, N., Casira, G. H. I., Testolin, G. (1995). In vitro studies to predict physiological effects of dietary fibre. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 49 (3): 81-88.

Buil-Cosiales, P., Irimia, P., Ros, E., Riverol, M., Gilabert, R., Martínez-Vila, E., Nuñez, I., Diez-Espino, J., Martínez-González, M. A., Serrano-Martínez, M. (2009). Dietary fibre intake is inversely associated with carotid intima-media thickness: A cross-sectional assessment in the predimed study. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 63 (10): 1213-1219.

**-C-**

Cadden, A. M. (1987). Comparative effects of particle size reduction on physical structure and water binding properties of several plant fibers. *Journal of Food Science*, 52 (6): 1595–1599.

Carr, T. P & Jesch, E. D. (2006). Food components that reduce cholesterol absorption. *Advances in Food Nutrition Research*, 51: 165–204.

Carvalho, A. L., Helmolz, K., Nodet, C., Molzer, C., Leonard, C., McKeivith, B. (2010). Determination of the in vivo prebiotic potential of a maize-based whole grain breakfast cereal: a human feeding study. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 104: 1353-1356.

Chau, C. F., Wang, Y. T., Wen, Y. L., (2007). Different micronization methods significantly improve the functionality of carrot insoluble fibre. *Food Chemistry*, 100 (4): 1402–1408.

Chau, C. F., Huang, Y. L., Lin, C. Y. (2004). Investigation of the cholesterol-lowering action of insoluble fibre derived from the peel of Citrus sinensis L. cv. Liucheng. *Food Chemistry*, 87 (3): 361–366.

Chau, C. F & Huang, Y. L. (2003). Comparison of the chemical composition and physicochemical properties of different fibers prepared from the peel of Citrus

- sinensis L. Cv. Liucheng. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 51 (9): 2615-2618.
- Chau, C. F., Cheung, P. C. K., Wong, Y. S., (1997). Functional properties of protein concentrate from three Chinese indigenous legume seeds. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 45: 2500–2503.
- Chawla, R & Patil, G. R. (2010). Soluble dietary fiber. Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety, 9 (2): 178-196.
- Chen, H., Haack, V. S., Janecky, C. W., Vollendorf, N. W., Marlett, J. A. (1998). Mechanisms by which wheat bran and oat bran increase stool weight in humans. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 68 (3): 711-719.
- Chiang, J. Y. L. (2009). Bile acids: Regulation of synthesis. Journal of Lipid Research, 50 (10): 1955-1966.
- Chutkan, R., Fahey, G., Wright, W. L., Mcrorie, J. (2012). Viscous versus nonviscous soluble fiber supplements: Mechanisms and evidence for fiber-specific health benefits. Journal of the American Academy of Nurse Practitioners, 24 (8): 476-487.
- Cohn, R. & Cohn, A. L. (1997). Subproductos del procesado de las frutas. In D. Arthey, P.R Ashurst, Procesado de frutas (pp. 213 –228). Zaragoza: Acribia.
- Coles, L. T., Moughan, P. J., Darragh, A. J. (2005). In vitro digestion and fermentation methods, including gas production techniques, as applied to nutritive evaluation of foods in the hindgut of humans and other simple stomached animals. Animal Food Science and Technology, 123: 421-444.
- Cosgrove, D. J. (2005). Growth of the plant cell wall. Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology, 6: 850–861.
- Cruz, M. (2002). Caracterización fisicoquímica, fisiológica y funcional de residuos fibrosos de cáscara de maracuyá (*Pasiflora edulis*). México. Facultad de Ingeniería Química. Universidad Autónoma de Yucatán. pp.156.

Cummings, J. (2001). The effects of dietary fiber on fecal weight and composition. In G. A. Spiller, CRC Handbook of Dietary Fiber in Human Nutrition, Third Edition (pp. 183-252). CRC Press.

**-D-**

Dahan-Arik & Hoffman-Amnon. (2008). Rationalizing the selection of oral lipid based drug delivery systems by an in vitro dynamic lipolysis model for improved oral bioavailability of poorly water soluble drugs. *Journal of Controlled Release*, 129 (1): 1-10.

Del Valle, M., Cámara, M., Torija, M. E. (2005). Aprovechamiento de residuos de tomates vegetales: Subproductos del tomate. *Alimentación, Equipos y Tecnología*, 201: 189-194

DeVries, J. W., Prosky, L., Li, B., Cho, S. (1999). A historical perspective on defining dietary fiber. *Cereal Foods World*, 44: 367–369.

Dikeman, C. L & Fahey, G. C. (2006). Viscosity as related to dietary fiber: A review. *Food Science and Nutrition*, 46: 649-663.

Diplock, A. T., Aggett, P. J., Ashwell, M., Bornet, F., Fern, E. B., Roberfroid, M. B. (1999). Concepts of Functional Foods in Europe: Consensus Document. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 81 (1): 1-27.

Dongowski, G., Huth, M., Gebhardt, E. (2003). Steroids the intestinal tract of rats are affected by dietary fibre-rich barley-based diets. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 90: 895-906.

**-E-**

Eastwood, M.A. (1992). The physiological effect of dietary fiber: an update. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 12:19–35.

Eastwood, M. A & Morris, E. R. (1992). Physical properties of dietary fiber that influence physiological function: a model for polymers along the gastrointestinal tract. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 55 (2): 436-442.

Ersus, S & Cam, M. (2007). Determination of organic acids, total phenolic content, and antioxidant capacity of sour Citrus aurantium fruits. *Chemistry of Natural Compounds*, 43: 607-609.

**-F-**

FAO. (2008). [www.fao.org](http://www.fao.org)

Fadavi, A., Barzegar, M., Azizi, M. H. (2006). Determination of fatty acids and total lipid content in oilseed of 25 pomegranates varieties grown in Iran. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis*, 19: 676–680.

Farré, R. (2003). Horchata y salud: Nutricional y Dietética. Comunicación a la Jornada Chufa y Horchata: Tradición y salud, 13 de Mayo de 2003, Fundación Valenciana de Estudios Avanzados.

Fässler, C. Arrigoni, E., Venema, K., Hafenr, V., Brouns, F., Amado R. (2006). Digestibility of resistant starch containing preparations using two in vitro models. *European Journal of Nutrition*, 45: 445-453.

Fastinger, N. D., Karr-Lilenthal, L. K., Spears, J. K., Swanson, K. S., Zinn, K. E., Nava, G. M., Ohkuma, K., Kanahori, S., Gordon, D. T., Fahey Jr., G. C. (2008). A novel resistant maltodextrin alters gastrointestinal tolerance factors, fecal characteristics and fecal microbiota in healthy adult humans. *Journal of the American College of Nutrition*, 27 (2): 356-366.

Femenia, A., Lefebvre, A., Thebaudin, J., Robertson, J., Bourgeois, C. (1997). Physical and sensory properties of model foods supplemented with cauliflower fiber. *Journal of Food Science*, 62 (4): 635-639.

Fernández-Ginés, JM., Fernández-López, J., Sayas-Barbera, E., Sendra, E., Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2004). Lemon albedo as a new source of dietary fiber: Application to bologna sausages. *Meat Science*, 67: 7-13.

Fernández-López, J., Sendra, E., Navarro, C., Sayas-Barberá, M. E., Viuda-Martos, M., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A. (2009). Storage stability of a high dietary fibre powder from orange by-products. *International Journal of Food Science and Technology*, 44: 748-756.

- Fernández-López, J., Viuda-Martos, M., Sendra, E., Sayas-Barbera, E., Navarro, C., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A. (2007). Orange fibre as potential functional ingredient for dry-cured sausages. European Food Research and Technology, 226 (1–2): 1–6.
- Fernández-López, J., Zhi, N., Aleson-Carbonell, L., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A., Kuri, V. (2005). Antioxidant and antibacterial activities of natural extracts: application in beef meatballs. Meat Science, 69: 371-380.
- Ferrer, F., Gomes, D., Valentão, P., Gonçalves, R.; Pio, R., Chagas, E. A., Reabra, R. M., Andrade, P. B. (2008). Improved loquat (*Eriobotrya japonica* Lindl.) cultivars: Variation of phenolics and antioxidative potential. Food Chemistry, doi.10.101016/j.foodchem.2998.10.065
- Figuerola, F., Hurtado, M. L., Estévez A. M., Chiffelle, I., Asenjo, F. (2005). Fibre concentrates from apple pomace and citrus peel as potential fibre sources for food enrichment. Food Chemistry, 91: 395-401.
- Figuerola-González, I., Quijano, G., Ramírez, G., Cruz-Guerrero, A. (2011). Probiotics and prebiotics-perspectives and challenges. Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture, 91: 1341-1348.
- Fleury, N & Lahaye, M. (1991). Chemical and physico-chemical characterization of fibers from *Laminaria digitata*: A physiological approach. Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture, 35: 389-400
- Fuhrman, B & Aviram, M. (2007). Pomegranate and cardiovascular diseases: pomegranate juice polyphenolic antioxidants protect against oxidative stress and atherosclerosis development. Acta Horticulturae, 744: 205-216.

**-G-**

- Garau, M. C., Simal, S., Rosselló, C., Femenia, A. (2007). Effect of air-drying temperature on physico-chemical properties of dietary fibre and antioxidant capacity of orange (*Citrus aurantium* v. *Canonica*) by-products. Food Chemistry, 104: 1014–1024.

- García-Diez, F., García-Mediavilla, V., Bayon, J. E., González-Gallego, J. (1996). Pectin feeding influences fecal bile acid excretion, hepatic bile acid synthesis and serum cholesterol in rats. *Journal of Nutrition*, 126: 1766-1771.
- García-Jiménez, J., Bustos, J., Vicent, A., Armengol, J. (2004). Control of Dematophoranecatrix on *Cyperusesculentus* tubers by hot-water treatment. *Crop Protection*, 23: 619-23.
- García-Peréz, F. J., Lario, Y., Fernández-López, J., Sayas, E., Peréz-Álvarez, J. A., Sendra, E. (2005). Effect of orange fiber addition on yogurt color during fermentation and cold storage. *Color Research and Application*, 30 (6): 457-463.
- Gibson, G. R & Roberfroid, M. B. (1995). Dietary modulation of the human colonic microbiota: Introducing the concept of prebiotics. *The Journal of Nutrition*, 125, 1401-1412.
- Gómez-Ordoñez, E., Jiménez-Escríg, A., Rupérez, P. (2010). Dietary fibre and physicochemical properties of several edible seaweeds from the northwestern Spanish coast. *Food Research International*, 43: 2289-2294.
- Grigelmo-Miguel, N., Gorinstein, S., Martín-Belloso, O. (1999). Characterization of peach dietary fiber concentrates as food ingredient. *Food Chemistry*, 65: 175-181.
- Gunness, P & Gidley, M. J. (2010). Mechanisms underlying the cholesterol-lowering properties of soluble dietary fibre polysaccharides. *Food and Function*, 1 (2): 149-155.
- H-**
- Ha, M. A., Jarvis, M. C., Mann, J. L. (2000). A definition for dietary fiber. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 54: 861-864.
- Halvorsen, B. L., Carlsen, M. H., Phillips, K. M., Holte, K., Jacobs, D. R., Jr., Blomhoff, R. (2006). Content of redox-active compounds (antioxidants) in foods consumed in the United States. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 84: 95-135.

- Hemati-Matin, H. R., Shariatmadari, F., Karimi-Torshizi, M. A. (2013). Various physico-chemical properties of dietary fiber sources of poultry diets. International Journal of Agriculture and Crop Sciences, 18: 1239-1245.
- Heredia, A., Jiménez, A., Fernández-Bolaños, J., Guillen, R., Rodríguez, R. (2002). Fibra Alimentaria, 1–117.
- Ho, K. S., Tan, C. Y. M., Daud, M. A. M., Seow-Choen, F. (2012). Stopping or reducing dietary fiber intake reduces constipation and its associated symptoms. World Journal of Gastroenterology, 18 (33): 4593-4596.
- Hoebler, B., Lecannu, G., Belleville, C., Devaux, M. F., Popineau, Y., Barry, J. L. (2002) Development of an in vitro system simulating bucco-gastric digestion to assess the physical and chemical changes of food. International Journal of Food Sciences and Nutrition, 53: 389-402.
- Hofmann, A. F. (2004). Detoxification of lithocholic acid, a toxic bile acid: relevance to drug hepatotoxicity. Drug and Metabolic Reviews, 36: 703–722.
- Howarth, N. C., Saltzman, E., Roberts, S. B. (2001). Dietary fiber and weight regulation. Nutrition Reviews, 59 (5): 129-139.
- Hur, S. J., Lim, B. O., Park, G. B., Joo, S. T. (2009). Effects of various fiber additions on lipid digestions during in vitro digestion of beet parries. Food Chemistry, 74 (9): 653-657.
- I-**
- Infoagro. (2009). [www.infoagro.com/frutas](http://www.infoagro.com/frutas).
- J-**
- Jalili, T., Wildman, R., Medeiros, D. (2000). Dietary fiber and coronary heart disease. In R.E.C. Wildman, Handbook of Nutraceuticals and Functional Foods. CRC Press.
- Jenkins, D. J. A., Marchie, A., Augustin, L. S. A., Ros, E., Kendall, C. W. C. (2004). Viscous dietary fibre and metabolic effects. Clinical Nutrition, 1 (2): 39-49.

- Jiménez-Moreno, E., González-Alvarado, J., M., De Coca-Sinova, A., Lázaro, R., Mateos, G.G. (2009). Effects of source of fibre on the development and pH of the gastrointestinal tract of broilers. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*, 154: 93-101.
- Jones, P. J. H. (2008). Dietary agents that target gastrointestinal and hepatic handling of bile acids and cholesterol. *Journal of Clinical Lipidology*, 2 (2): 4–10.

Jongaroontaprangsee, S., Tritrong, W., Chokanaporn, W., Methacanon, P., Devahastin, S., Chiewchan, N. (2007). Effects of drying temperature and particle size on hydratation properties of dietary fiber powder from lime and cabbage by-products. *International Journal of Food Properties*, 10: 887-897.

**-K-**

Kamp, J. W., Asp, J., Miller, J., Schaafsma, G. (2004). Dietary fiber. Wageningen, The Netherlands: Wageningen Academic Publisherspp. 1–357.

Keithley, J & Swanson, B. (2005). Glucomannan and obesity: a critical review. *Alternative Therapies in Health and Medicine*, 11 (6): 30.

Kendall, C. W., Esfahani, A., Jenkins, D. J. A. (2009). The link between dietary fibre and human health. *Food Hydrocolloid*, 24 (1): 42–48.

Keys, A., Grande, F., Anderson, J. T. (1961). Fiber and pectin in the diet and serum cholesterol concentration in man. Proceeding of the Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine. Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine (New York, N.Y.), 106 (3): 555-558.

Kim, M., No, S., Yoon, S. H. (2007). Stereospecific Analysis of Fatty Acid Composition of Chufa (*Cyperus esculentus L.*) Tuber Oil. *Journal of American Oil Chemists' Society*, 84: 1079–1080.

Kinsella, L. E. (1976). Functional properties of protein in foods: A survey. *Journal of Food Science and Nutrition*, 7: 219-280.

Kirwan, W. O., Smith, A. N., McConnel, A. A., Mitchell, W. D., Eastwood, M. A., (1974). Action of different bran preparations on colonic function. *British Medical Journal*, 4: 187–189.

- Kishimoto , Y., Wakabayashi, S., Takeda, H. (1995). Hypocholesterolemic effect of dietary fiber: relation to intestinal fermentation and bile acid excretion. *Journal of Nutritional Science and Vitaminology*, 41 (1): 151-161.
- Kokubo, Y., Iso, H., Saito, I., Yamagishi, K., Ishihara, J., Inoue, M., Tsugane, S. (2011). Dietary fiber intake and risk of cardiovascular disease in the Japanese population: the Japan Public Health Center-based study cohort. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 65: 1233-1241.
- Kulkarni, A.P & Aradhya, S.M. (2005). Chemical changes and antioxidant activity in pomegranate arils during fruits development. *Food Chemistry*, 93: 319-324.

**-L-**

- Lario, Y, Sendra, E, García-Pérez, J, Fuentes, C, Sayas-Barberá, E, Fernández-López, J, Pérez-Álvarez, J. A. (2004). Preparation of high dietary fiber powder from lemon juice by-products. *Innovative Food Science Emerging Technologies*, 5: 113-7.
- Lairon, D, Play, B, Joudheuil-Rahmani, D. (2007). Digestible and indigestible carbohydrates: interactions with postprandial lipid metabolism. *Journal of Nutrition Biochemistry*, 18 (4): 217–227.
- Larrauri, J. A. (1999). New approaches in the preparation of high dietary fibre powder from fruit by-products. *Trends in Food Science Technology*, 10: 3–8.
- Lazarridou, A & Biliaderis, C.G. (2007). Molecular aspects of cereal  $\beta$ -glucan functionality: physical properties, technological applications and physiological effects. *Journal of Cereal Science*, 46: 101-118.
- Lim, C. C., Ferguson, L. R., Tannock, G. W. (2005). Dietary fibres as “prebiotics”: Implications for colorectal cancer. *Molecular Nutrition and Food Research*, 49 (6): 609-619.
- Lin, T. Y., Wang, Y. J., Lai, P. Y., Lee, F. J., Cheng J. T. S. (1999). Cholesterol content of fried-shredded pork extracted by supercritical carbon dioxide. *Food Chemistry*, 67 (1): 89-92

Liu, J., Zhang, J., Xia, W. (2008). Hypocholesterolaemic effects of different chitosan samples in vitro and in vivo. *Food Chemistry*, 107 (1): 419.

López-Marcos, M. C. (2010). Informe técnico proyecto CENIT-PRONAOS UMH-ElPozo. Universidad Miguel Hernández.

Luccia, B. H. D & Kunkel, M. E. (2002). In vitro availability of calcium from sources of cellulose, methylcellulose, and psyllium. *Food Chemistry*, 77: 138-146.

Ludwing, D. S., Majzoub, J. A., Al-Zahrani, A., Dallal, G. E., Blanco, I., Roberts, S. B. (1999). High glycemic index foods, overeating and obesity. *Pediatrics*, 103 (3).

**-M-**

Mann, J. (2001). Dietary fibre and diabetes revisited. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 55 (11): 919.

Marín, F. R., Martínez, M. T., UribeSalgo, T., Castillo, S., Frutos, M. J. (2002). Changes in nutraceutical composition of lemon juices according to different industrial extraction systems. *Food Chemistry*, 78: 319–324.

Minekus, M., Alminger, M., Alvito, P., Ballance, S., Bohn, T., Bourlieu, C., Carrière, F., Boutrou, R., Corredig, M., Dupont, D., Dufour, C., Egger, L., Golding, M., Karakaya, S., Kirkhus, B., Le Feunteun, S., Lesmes, U., Macierzanka, A., Mackie, A., Marze, S., McClements, D.J., Ménard ,O., Recio, I., Santos, C. N., Singh, R. P., Vigarud, G. E., Wickham, M. S., Weitschies, W., Brodkorb, A. (2014). A standardised static in vitro digestion method suitable for food - an international consensus. *Food and Function*, (6): 1113-1124.

Mohanty, A. K., Misra, M., Hinrichsen, G. (2000). Biofibres, biodegradable polymers and biocomposites: and overviews. *Macromolecular Materials and Engineering*, 276: 1-24.

Molina & Martin. (2007). La fibra dietética procesada como alimento funcional. *Offfarm*, 26: 70-77.

Mongeau, R & Brassard, M. (1982). Insoluble dietary fiber from breakfast cereals and bran bile salt and water holding capacity in relation to particle size. *Cereal Chemistry*, 59: 413–417.

Monsalve-Gonzalez, A., Barbosa-Canovas, G. V., Cavalieri, R. P., MxEvily, A. J., Iyengar, R. (1993). Control of browning during storage of apple slices preserved by combined methods. *Journal of Food Science*, 58: 797-800.

Mousavinejad, G., Emam-Djomeh, Z., Rezaei, K., Khodaparast, M. H. H. (2009). Identification and quantification of phenolic compounds and their effects on antioxidant activity in pomegranate juices of eight Iranian cultivars. *Food Chemistry*, 115: 1274–1278.

Mun, S., Decker, E. A., McClements, D. J. (2005). Influence of droplet characteristics on the formation of oil-in-water emulsions stabilized by surfactant-chitosan layers. *Langmuir*, 21 (14): 6228–6234.

**-N-**

Nelson, A. (2001). Defining high-fiber ingredient terminology. *High Fiber Ingredients*: 1-83.

Ngamukote, S., Mäkynen, K., Thilawech, T., Adisakwattana, S. (2011). Cholesterol-lowering activity of the major polyphenols in grape seed. *Molecules*, 16 (6): 5054-5061.

**-O-**

Ospina-E, J. C., Cruz-S, A., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A., Fernández-López, J. (2010). Development of combinations of chemically modified vegetable oils as pork backfat substitutes in sausages formulation. *Meat Science*, 84 (3): 491-497.

Ozen, A. E., Pons, A., Tur, J. A. (2012). Worldwide consumption of functional foods: a systematic review. *Nutrition Reviews*, 70 (8): 472-481.

Ozgen, M., Durgac, C., Serce, S., Kaya, C. (2008). Chemical and antioxidant properties of pomegranate cultivars grown in the Mediterranean region Turkey. *Food Chemistry*, 111: 703-706.

Ozgul-Yucel, S. (2005). Determination of conjugated linolenic acid content of selected oil seeds grown in Turkey. *Journal of the American Oil Chemists' Society*, 82 (12): 893-897.

**-P-**

Pande, G & Akoh, C. C. (2010). Organic acids, antioxidant capacity, phenolic content and lipid characterization of Georgia-grown underutilized fruit crops. *Food Chemistry*, 120: 1067-1075.

Pascual, B., Maroto, J. V., López-Galarza, S., Castell, V. (1997). El cultivo de la chufa. (*Cyperus esculentus L. var. sativus Boeck.*) Estudios realizados. Generalitat Valenciana. Cons. De Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación. Serie Div. Técnica. Valencia.

Pérez-Álvarez, J. A. (2008). Overview of meat products as functional foods. In: Fernández-López, J, Pérez-Álvarez, J. A., editors. *Technological strategies for functional meat products development*. Kerala, India: Transworld Research Network. p. 1-17.

Pérez-Escamilla, R., Obbagy, J. E., Altman, J. M., Essery, E. V., McGrane, M. M., Wong, Y. P., Spahn, J. M., Williams, C. L. (2012). Dietary energy density and body weight in adults and childrens: a systematic review. *Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics*, 112 (5): 671-684.

Pylkas A. M., Juneja, L. R., Slavin, J. L. (2005). Comparison of different fibers for In Vitro production of short chain fatty acids by intestinal microflora. *Journal of Medicinal Food*, 8 (1): 113-116.

**-R-**

Raghavendra, S. N., Rastogi, N. K., Raghavarao, K. S. M. S., Tharanathan, R. N. (2004). Dietary fiber from coconut residue: Effects of different treatments and particle size on the hydration properties. *European Food Research Technology*, 218: 563-567.

Rajan, S., Balakumar, S., Thirunarasundari, T. (2008). Antibacterial activity of *Punica granatum* Linn. fruit rind extracts/fractions on enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli*. *Asian Journal of Microbiology, Biotechnology and Environmental Science*, 10 (3): 501-503.

- Reddy, N & Yang, Y. (2005). Structure and properties of high quality natural cellulose fibers from cornstalks. *Polymer*, 46 (15): 5494-5500.
- Ridlon, J. M., Kang, D. J., Hylemon, P. B. (2006). Bile salt biotransformations by human intestinal bacteria. *Journal of Lipid Research*, 47 (2): 241-259.
- Robertson, J. A., Monredon, F. D., Dysseler, P., Guillon, F., Amadó, R., Thibault, J. F. (2000). Hydratation properties of dietary fibre and resistant starch: a European collaborative study. *Lebensmittel-Wissenschaft und-Technologie*, 33: 72–79.
- Roldán, E.; Sánchez-Moreno, C.; de Ancos, B.; Cano, M. P. (2008). Characterisation of onion (*Allium cepa L.*) by-products as food ingredients with antioxidant and antibrowning properties. *Food Chemistry*, 108 (3): 907-916.
- Rose, D. J., DeMeo, M. T., Keshavarzian, A., Hamaker, B. R. (2007). Influence of dietary fiber on inflammatory bowel disease and colon cancer: Importance of fermentation pattern. *Nutrition Reviews*, 65 (2): 51-62.
- Rosell, C. M., Santos, E., Collar, C. (2009). Physico-chemical properties of commercial fibres from different sources: a comparative approach. *Food Research International*, 42 (1): 176–84.
- S-
- Sánchez K., Matos, A. (2011). Fibra dietética y sus propiedades funcionales e importancia en la industria alimentaria. I Congreso de Investigación IASD.
- Sánchez-Muniz, F. J. (2012). Dietary fibre and cardiovascular health. *Nutrición hospitalaria: organo oficial de la Sociedad Española de Nutrición Parenteral y Enteral*, 27 (1): 31-45.
- Sánchez-Zapata, E., Fernández-López, J., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A., Soares, J., Sousab, S. P., Gomes, A. M., Pintado, M. (2013). In vitro evaluation of “horchata” co-products as carbon source for probiotic bacteria growth. *Food and Bioproducts Processing*, 91: 279–286.
- Sánchez-Zapata, E., Fuentes-Zaragoza, E., Viuda-Martos, M., Fernández-López, J., Sendra, E., Sayas, E., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A., (2012). Reclaim of the by-products

- from “Horchata” elaboration process. Food Bioprocess Technology, 5 (3): 954–963.
- Sánchez-Zapata, E., Fuentes-Zaragoza, E., Fernández-López, J., Sendra, E., Sayas, E., Navarro, C., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A., (2009). Preparation of dietary fiber powder from tiger nuts (*Cyperus esculentus*) milk (“horchata”) by-products and its physicochemical properties. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 57: 7719–7725.
- Sangnark, A & Noomhorm, A. (2003). Effect of particle sizes on functional properties of dietary fibre prepared from sugarcane bagasse. Food Chemistry, 80: 221–229.
- Saura Calixto, F & Larrauri. A. (1996). Nuevos tipos de fibra dietética de alta calidad. . Alimentación, Equipos y Tecnología. Enero-Febrero/1996: 71-74.
- Schaafsma, G. (2004). Health claims, options for dietary fibre. In J. M. van der Kamp, N. Asp, G., Miller, J., Schaafsma, G (Eds.) Dietary fibre. 27–38.
- Sek, L., Porter, C. J., Kaukonen, A. M., Charman, W. N. (2002). Evaluation of the in-vitro digestion profiles of long and medium chain glycerides and the phase behavior of their lipolytic products. Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology, 54: 29–41.
- Sendra, E., Fayos, P., Lario, Y., Fernández-López, J., Sayas-Barberá, E., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A. (2008). Incorporation of citrus fibers in fermented milk containing probiotic bacteria. Food Microbiology, 25 (1): 13–21.
- Sengul, H., Surek, E., Nilufer-Erdil, D. (2014). Investigating the effects of food matrix and food components on bioaccessibility of pomegranate (*Punicagranatum*) phenolics and anthocyanins using an in-vitro gastrointestinal digestion model. Food Research International, 62: 1069-1079.
- Slavin, J. L. (2008). How fiber affects weight regulation. Food Technology, 62 (2): 34.
- Slavin, J. L. (2005). Dietary fiber and body weight. Nutrition, 21 (3): 411-418.
- Stangeland, T., Remberg, S. V., Lye, K. A. (2009). Total antioxidant activity in 35 Ugandan fruits and vegetables. Food Chemistry, 113: 85-91.

Stowe, C. B. (2011). The effects of pomegranate juice consumption on blood pressure and cardiovascular health. Complementary Therapies in Clinical Practise, 17 (2): 113-115.

**-T-**

Temple, V. J., Ojebe, T. O., Kapu, M. M., (1989). Chemical analysis of tiger nuts (*Cyperus esculentus*). Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture, 49: 261–262.

Tezcan, F., Gültekin-Özgürven, M., Diken, T., Özçelik, B., Erim, F.B. (2009). Antioxidant activity and total phenolic, organic acid and sugar content in commercial pomegranate juices. Food Chemistry, 115 (3): 873-877.

Thebaudin, J. Y., Lefebvre, A. C., Harrington, M., Bourgeois, C. M. (1997). Dietary fibers: Nutritional and technological interest. Trends in Food Science and Technology, 8: 41-48.

Theuwissen, E & Mensink, R.P. (2008). Water-soluble dietary fibers and cardiovascular disease. Physiology & Behavior, 94: 285–292.

Trinidad, T. P., Mallillin, A. C., Valdez, D., Loyola, A. S., Askali-Mercado., Castillo, J. C., Encabo, R. R., Masa, D. B. Maglaya, A. S., Chua, M. T. (2006). Dietary fiber from coconut flour: a functional food. Innovative Food Science and Emerging Technologies, 7 (4): 302–317.

Trowell, H. (1976). Definition of dietary fiber and hypotheses that it is a protective factor in certain diseases. American Journal of Clinic Nutrition, 29 (4): 417-427.

**-U-**

USA, American Association of Cereal Chemists. (2001). The definition of dietary fiber. Cereal Foods World, 46 (3): 112-129.

**-V-**

Vahouny, G. V & Kritchevsky, D. (1986). Dietary fiber-basic and clinical aspects. New York: Plenum Press.

- Velázquez, M., Davies, C., Marett, R., Slavin, J. L., Feirtag, J. M. (2000). Effect of oligosaccharides and fibre substitutes on short-chain fatty acid production by human faecal microflora. *Anaerobe*, 6 (2): 87-92.
- Viladomiu, M., Hontecillas, R., Lu, P., Bassaganya-Riera, J. (2013). Preventive and prophylactic mechanisms of action of pomegranate bioactive constituents. *Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, 2013, art.no.789764.
- Villarroel, M., Acevedo, C., Yáñez, E., Biolley, E. (2003). Propiedades funcionales de la fibra del musgo *Sphagnum magellanicum* y su utilización en la formulación de productos de panadería. *Archivos Latino americanos de Nutrición* 2003 Diciembre; 53 (4):1-15
- Viuda-Martos, M., Ruiz-Navajas, Y., Martín-Sánchez, A., Sánchez-Zapata, E. Fernández-López, J., Sendra, E., Sayas-Barberá, E., Navarro C., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A. (2012). Chemical, physico-chemical and functional properties of pomegranate (*Punica granatum L.*) bagasses powder co-product. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 110: 220–224.
- Viuda-Martos, M., Ruíz-Navajas, Y., Fernández-López, J., Sendra, E., Sayas E., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A. (2011). Antioxidant properties of pomegranate (*Púnica granatum L*) bagasses obtained as co-product in the juice extraction. *Food Research International*, 44: 1217-1223
- Viuda-Martos, M., Fernández-López, J., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A., (2010). Pomegranate and its many functional components as related to human health: A review. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*, 9: 635–654.
- Viuda-Martos, M., Ruíz-Navajas, Y., Fernández-López, J., Pérez-Álvarez J. A. (2009). Chemical composition of mandarin (*citrus reticulata*), grapefruit (*Citrus Paradise*) lemon (*Citrus lemon*) and orange (*Citrus sinensis*) essential oils. *Journal of Essential Oils Bearing plants*, 12: 236-243
- W-
- Wang Yang, L., L-Y, L., Levi, C., Heller, R. F., Fisher, J. (2010). Influence of hyperglycemia on stroke mortality. *Journal of Stroke and Cerebrovascular Diseases*, 10 (1): 11-18.

Wong, J., Kendall, C., Jenkins, D. (2009). Fermentation of prebiotics and short-chain fatty acid production. In E. Finocchiaro & S. Sungsoo, Handbook of Prebiotics and Probiotics Ingredients: CRC Press.

Wood, P. J. (2007). Cereal β-glucans in diet and health. *Journal of cereal Science*, 46, 3: 230-238.

Wu, T., Fu, J., Yang, Y., Zhang, L., Han, J. (2009). The effects of phytosterol/stanols on blood lipid profiles. A systematic review with meta-analysis. *Asia Pacific Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 18 (2): 179-186.

**-Y-**

Yasutmasu, K., Sawada, K., Moritaka, S., Nfisaki, M., Toda, J., Wada, T., Ishi, K. (1972). Whipping and emulsifying properties of soybean products. *Agricultural and Biological Chemistry*, 36: 719-737.

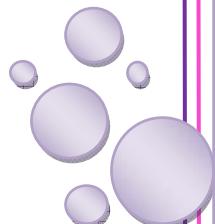
**-Z-**

Zacherl, C., Eisner, P., Engel, K. H. (2011): In vitro model to correlate viscosity and bile acid-binding capacity of digested water-soluble and insoluble dietary fibres. *Food Chemistry*, 126: 423–428.





## *Capítulo 7: Publicaciones*





**Título:** Role of Fiber in Cardiovascular Diseases: A Review

**Autores:** Manuel Viuda-Martos, María Cruz López-Marcos, Juana Fernández-López, Esther Sendra, Jairo H. López-Vargas, José A. Pérez-Alvarez

**Revista:** Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety, 9, 240-258.

**Año:** 2010



# Role of Fiber in Cardiovascular Diseases: A Review

M. Viuda-Martos, M.C. López-Marcos, J. Fernández-López,  
E. Sendra, J.H. López-Vargas, and J.A. Pérez-Álvarez

**ABSTRACT:** Worldwide, cardiovascular disease is estimated to be the leading cause of death and loss of disability-adjusted life-years. Effective prevention needs a global strategy based on knowledge of the importance of risk factors, including diet. Recent years have seen increased interest on the part of consumers, researchers, and the food industry into how food products can help maintain the health of an individual. Extracts rich in dietary fiber obtained from plants could be used as functional ingredients because they provide numerous health benefits that go far beyond supporting bowel regularity. These benefits may include not only digestive health, but weight management, cardiovascular health, and general wellness. The objective of this review is to present an overview of the potential of different types of fiber as a technological tool for its application to functional foods to reduce the incidence of cardiovascular disease through diet.

## Introduction

Recent knowledge supports the hypotheses that, besides fulfilling nutrition needs, diet modulates various functions in the body and may exhibit detrimental or beneficial roles in some diseases (Sarkar 2007). The increase in consumer demand for high-quality food products has led to growth in the use of new technologies and ingredients. Several factors that influence changes in consumer demand, including: health concerns such as cholesterol, cancer, obesity; changes in demographic characteristics such as ethnicity, population aging; changes in distribution systems and price; and the need for convenience (Pérez-Alvarez 2008a). In recent years, a considerable growing interest towards natural and wholesome foods has been developed among consumers throughout the world, leading to nutrition science research relating to the association between diet and dietary constituents and health benefits, favorable regulatory environment, consumer self-care phenomena, and rapid growth in the market for health and wellness products (Hasler 2002). Actually, considerable importance is given to functional foods, which, in principle, apart from their basic nutritional functions, provide physiological benefits, play an important role in disease prevention, or slow the progress of chronic diseases. Functional foods either contain (or add) a component with a positive health effect or eliminate a component with a negative one. The relationship between diet and health has focused on the role of food choices and diseases

like cancer, cardiovascular disease, and allergies (Lambert 2001). The market for functional foods is increasing at an annual rate of 15% to 20% (Hilliam 2000). To develop these types of products, one must evaluate consumer perceptions, the most important quality aspects being that they taste good, appear wholesome, and have nutritional value (García-Segovia and others 2007). Also, Pérez-Alvarez (2008a) describes that any functional food must be safe, healthy, and tasty. Many components may be added to foods to make them "functional" including  $\omega$ -3 fatty acids (Hjaltason and Haraldsson 2006), vitamins (Baro and others 2003), probiotics (Salem and others 2006), prebiotics (Brink and others 2005), symbiotics (D'Antoni and others 2004), phytochemicals (Wolfs and others 2006), bioactive peptides (Thoma-Worringer and others 2006), fiber (Fernández-Ginés and others 2004; Fernández-López and others 2007, 2008, 2009), and so on.

Dietary fiber intake in Western countries is currently estimated to be 25 g per person per day. However, nutritionists recommend an intake of 35 g per person per day (Lairon 1990). The development of fiber-enriched foods would help consumers to meet such recommendations. Since the roles of dietary fibers in preventing and treating some diseases have been well documented, the addition of purified dietary fibers to foods has become popular. Different types of dietary fibers, such as pea, apple, sugar beet, soy, and citrus fibers, as well as inulin and gums, are now incorporated into foods for their nutritional properties or for their functional and technological properties (Thebaudin and others 1997). From a functionality point of view, fiber can play a number of roles: (i) it may be used as a tool for improving texture, (ii) as a bulking agent in reduced-sugar applications, (iii) to manage moisture in the replacement of fat, (iv) to add color, and (v) as natural antioxidant.

Although fiber itself may be invisible in food products, it is fast becoming one of the most appreciated ingredients in today's

MS 20091034 Submitted 10/17/2009, Accepted 11/5/2009. Authors Viuda-Martos, López-Marcos, Fernández-López, Sendra, and Pérez-Álvarez are with IPOA Research Group (UMH-1 and REVIV-Generalitat Valenciana), AgroFood Technology Dept., Escuela Politécnica Superior de Orihuela, Univ. Miguel Hernández, Ctra. Beniel km. 3,2, E-03312 Orihuela Alicante, Spain. Author López-Vargas is with Inst. de Ciencia y Tecnología de Alimentos ICTA, Univ. Nacional de Colombia Sede Bogotá 3465000 ext. 19225, Bogota, Colombia. Direct inquiries to author Pérez-Alvarez (E-mail: [ja.perez@umh.es](mailto:ja.perez@umh.es)).

marketplace. In 2007, consumers ranked fiber number 5 among the top 10 functional food concepts (Sloan 2008).

The objective of this review is to present an overview of the potential of different types of fiber as a technological tool to use in functional foods to reduce the incidence of cardiovascular disease through diet.

### Incidence of Cardiovascular Diseases in Western Countries

Cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) are among the most common causes of death and disability worldwide (Goyal and Yusuf 2006). CVDs include coronary heart disease (heart attacks), cerebrovascular disease (strokes), high blood pressure (hypertension), peripheral artery disease, heart rhythm problems (arrhythmias), rheumatic heart disease, congenital heart disease, and heart failure (WHO 2009a). According to the World Health Org., the standardized CVD mortality rates vary considerably from country to country in the developed world, with Mediterranean countries and Japan having the lowest rates (WHO 1990). Globally, cardiovascular diseases are the number one cause of death and are projected to remain so. An estimated 17.5 million people died from cardiovascular diseases in 2005, representing 30% of all global deaths. Of these deaths, 7.6 million were due to heart attacks and 5.7 million to stroke. About 80% of these deaths occurred in low- and middle-income countries. If current trends are allowed to continue, by 2015 an estimated 20 million people will die annually from cardiovascular disease (mainly from heart attacks and strokes) (WHO 2009b). In the beginning of the 20th century, results of observational studies suggested that cardiovascular disease was originally more common in the upper socio-economic stratum (Bucher and Ragland 1995). However, after the middle of the 20th century this gradually changed, especially in westernized countries, so that, currently, CVD is more common in the lower socio-economic status groups (Manios and others 2005). Groups with lower socio-economic status tend to adopt unhealthier behavior, such as smoking and careless dietary habits, and seem to have a worsened psychological profile and an increased prevalence of the common CVD risk factors (Panagiotakos and others 2008).

### Risk Factors

Risk assessment for the primary prevention of CVD and stroke should include regularly updated family history, smoking status, food intake and nutrition patterns, alcohol intake, physical activity, blood pressure, body mass index (BMI), waist circumference, pulse rate, fasting serum lipoprotein profile (or total and HDL cholesterol if fasting is unavailable), and fasting blood glucose level (Pearson and others 2002).

Studies that have considered multiple risk factors include the Framingham study, where the risk for cardiovascular diseases was summarized into a single measure that integrated smoking and a set of clinical measures (Kannel and Gordon 1974). More recently, the Chronic Disease Risk Index (CDRI), a semiquantitative composite measure, combined rankings for smoking, alcohol use, body mass index, fat intake, and fruit and vegetable consumption (Meng and others 1994). There are numerous risk factors in CVDs such as age, body weight, physical inactivity, blood pressure, cigarette smoking, alcohol intake, and dyslipidemia (Do and others 2000).

### Obesity

Obesity is an independent risk factor for CVD. According to the World Health Org., there are currently more than 1 billion overweight adults, 300 million of whom are obese (Mackay and

Mensah 2004). The INTERHEART study, which enrolled almost 30000 men and women in 52 countries, reported that a waist-to-hip ratio greater than the cut-off of 0.83 for women and 0.9 for men resulted in a 3-fold increase in population attributable risk for myocardial infarction (Yusuf and others 2004).

### Physical inactivity

The literature consistently indicates that a sedentary lifestyle increases the risk of developing several chronic diseases and conditions, while regular physical activity enhances overall health (Belahsen and Rguibi 2006). Physical activity includes any bodily movements produced by skeletal muscles that result in energy expenditure, covering daily walking activities at work and structured exercise training (Pettman and others 2008). To reduce the risk of CVD, people need at least 150 min of moderate-intensity aerobic physical activity per week or at least 90 min of vigorous aerobic exercise per week (Franzini-Pereira and Franz 2008).

### Blood pressure

High blood pressure (BP) is one of the most prevalent cardiovascular risk factors and the single greatest contributor to cardiovascular disease worldwide (López and others 2006). High BP commonly clusters with other cardiovascular risk factors, such as metabolic syndrome (Malik and others 2004). Lifestyle factors that may lower blood pressure are sodium restriction, weight reduction or physical activity programs, and a reduction of excessive alcohol intake (Watkins 2003).

### Smoking

Cigarette smoking is an avoidable risk factor for CVD. An estimated 34.7% of all deaths resulting from cigarette smoking are related to CVD. Strong evidence links consumption of tobacco with increases in low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) oxidation, platelet aggregation, and endothelial impairment (Bloomer 2007). Smoking increases the risk for developing atherosclerosis, hypertension, and stroke, and it is the most important preventable cause of premature death (AHA 2008).

### Alcohol intake

Moderate alcohol consumption, typically defined as up to 2 drinks per day for men and 1 drink per day for women, has been consistently associated with lower risk of coronary heart disease in observational studies. At least 2 meta-analyses have come to consistent conclusions about the magnitude of this association (Corrao and others 2000) and it is further supported by the established beneficial effects of moderate drinking on high-density lipoprotein cholesterol and other cardiovascular risk factors (Watzl and others 2002). However, excess in alcohol consumption has detrimental health effects on blood pressure and triglyceride levels (Wakabayashi 2009).

### Dyslipidemia

One of the major risk factors for the development of coronary heart disease is dyslipidemia, mainly characterized by elevated levels of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) and/or reduced high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) (Esmailzadeh and Azadbakht 2008). Epidemiological studies have shown that high concentrations of serum total cholesterol and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) are independent risk factors for CVD (Russo and others 2008). Plasma concentrations of LDL and cholesterol are influenced by both genetic and environmental factors (Mirmiran and others 2009).

### Diet and Cardiovascular Diseases

It is well established that nutrition can have a direct impact on normal physiological functioning, as well as on pathological

conditions such as obesity, hypertension, diabetes, and cardiovascular disease (Maurer and others 2009). The prevalence of CVD ranges between 2% and 10% in southern European countries, in contrast to the 10% to 18% in Northern European countries (Keys and others 1986). Several scientists during recent years have attributed, at least in part, the differences in mortality rates between various countries of the world to the quite different nutritional habits of populations (WHO 1990). The intake of energy and nutrients in Southern European countries is similar to that in diets of North European countries and an excess of total energy provided to a large extent by fat and protein at the expense of carbohydrates (Saura-Calixto and Goñi 2009). However, there are differences between Southern and Northern European countries in relation to fat consumption. Southern European countries consume much more olive oil and unprocessed red meats, while Central and Northern Europeans preferably consume processed meat products (Naska and others 2006). The overconsumption of a maladaptive, westernized diet consisting of foods that are calorie-dense, nutritionally-poor, phytochemical-depleted, highly processed, and rapidly absorbable has been shown to increase systemic inflammation and reduce insulin sensitivity (Fito and others 2007).

With chronic ingestion, this dietary pattern often results in metabolic syndrome (MetS), a physiological state encompassing a cluster of metabolic abnormalities, including dyslipidemia, central obesity, hypertension, and glucose intolerance. These are all independent risk factors for the development of type 2 diabetes and/or cardiovascular disease (Moller and Kaufman 2005).

Conversely, the various lifestyle and dietary interventions that affect plasma cholesterol and triglyceride levels are usually considered effective in cardiovascular risk reduction such as (Poli and others 2008):

- (i) Modify the pattern of consumption of dietary fatty acids;
- (ii) Reduce the dietary intake of cholesterol;
- (iii) Modify the pattern of consumption of carbohydrates and fiber;
- (iv) Change the proportional intake of other micronutrients and macronutrients;
- (v) Manage weight;
- (vi) Supplement the diet with phytosterol-enriched foods or soy protein;
- (vii) Take regular exercise.

Adherence to the traditional Mediterranean diet, characteristically rich in fruits, vegetables, bread, cereals, potatoes, beans, nuts, seeds, olive oil (as an important fat source), dairy products, and fish, along with low to moderate amounts of poultry, little red meat, and modest consumption of red wine with meals (Kris-Etherton and others 2002; Perez-Alvarez and Aleson-Carbonell 2003), has been associated with a reduction in CVD (Trichopoulou and others 2003). This protective effect has been attributed, at least in part, to the Mediterranean-style diet, low in processed foods and refined carbohydrates and high in monounsaturated fatty acids and plant foods that provide a large amount of natural antioxidants (Trichopoulou and others 2003; Ebbeling and others 2005). Brightenti and others (2005) reported that total antioxidant capacity is inversely and independently correlated with plasma concentrations of highly sensitive C-reactive protein, and this could be one of the mechanisms whereby antioxidant-rich foods, present in the Mediterranean diet pattern, protect against cardiovascular disease. Fito and others (2007) reported that the Mediterranean diet pattern promoted benefits in classic and novel risk factors for CVD because a decrease in the oxidative damage to LDL to be one of the protective mechanisms by which

the Mediterranean diet could exert protective effects on CVD development. Robust clinical evidence exists indicating that the Mediterranean diet may be cardioprotective, positively impacting the clinical progression of CVD, reducing the risk of CVD (by 8% to 45%), and attenuating the cardiovascular complications after a myocardial infarction (De Lorgeril and Salen 2006). The Mediterranean diet need to be better defined if guidelines, useful to modern societies, are to be formulated. Researchers and policy makers should decide whether the Mediterranean diet should be promoted as a "nutrient profile" or as a "food selection pattern" (Anonymous 2009).

## Functional Food in Cardiovascular Diseases

Recent years have seen increased interest on the part of consumers, researchers, and the food industry into how food products can help maintain the health of the organism, while the role that diet plays in the prevention and treatment of many illnesses has become widely accepted (Viuda-Martos and others 2009). The classical concept of "adequate nutrition," that is, the provision of nutrients (carbohydrates, proteins, fats, vitamins, and minerals) is slowly being replaced by the concept of "optimal nutrition," which, besides the components mentioned previously, includes the potentiality of foods to promote health, improve well-being, and reduce the risk of developing disease (Pérez-Alvarez 2008a); hence, the appearance of terms like functional foods, designed or therapeutic foods, superfoods, pharmafoods, or medicinal foods (Nagai and Inoue 2004). There is no one definition for the term functional food. Indeed, the concept of functional food is complex and may refer to many possible aspects, including food obtained by any process, whose particular characteristic is that one or more of its components, whether or not that component is itself a nutrient, affects the target function of the organism in a specific and positive way, or promotes a physiological or psychological effect beyond the merely nutritional (Viuda-Martos and others 2009). The food industry and scientific community use the term functional foods to refer to products with health benefit claims beyond their inherent nutritional value (Nestle 2002). In general, 2 types of health claims can be distinguished; first, claims referring to enhance body function, and second, those that refer to a reduced risk of disease measured by an intermediate biomarker such as cholesterol level, blood pressure, or satiety (Wieringa and others 2008).

The ILSI Europe (1999) has established that "a food product can be considered as functional if it has satisfactorily been proved that it produces a beneficial effect on one or more physiological functions, besides its conventional nutritional effects, this being relevant for improving human health and/or reducing the risk of suffering certain diseases." Doyon and Labrecque (2008), together with a group of experts from North America and Europe, redefined the definition of functional foods using the Delphi technique. Functional food is now defined as food that is or appears similar to a conventional food. It must be a part of the standard diet, which is consumed on a regular basis and in normal quantities. Other than that, it should also have been proven to reduce the risk of specific chronic diseases or beneficially affect target functions beyond basic nutritional functions.

There are a large number of foods that can be considered functional foods, such as fruits and vegetables, olive oil, cereals, red wine, fish, and so on, since among their components there are many that can prevent or delay several diseases including CVD.

## Fruits and vegetables

Fruits and vegetables contain constituents, notably vitamins, minerals, and dietary fiber, which are essential to a healthy,

well-balanced diet. Furthermore, it has been shown that some of the secondary metabolites of fruits and vegetables, such as flavonoids and carotenoids, have a beneficial effect on health by directly combating the onset of cancer and CVD (Fernández-Ginés 2003). Indeed, Mirmiran and others (2009) reported that the consumption of fruits and vegetables is associated with lower concentrations of LDL and the risk of CVD in a dose-response manner, while Suido and others (2002) indicated that fruit and vegetable consumption decreased LDL concentrations in hypercholesterolemic subjects.

### Olive oil

Olive oil may produce its dietary health benefits by lowering blood pressure (Psaltopoulou and others 2004) and by contributing to a proper lipid intake in 2 ways: directly by increasing monounsaturated lipids, and indirectly by decreasing saturated lipid intake. It has also been widely suggested that the beneficial effects of olive oil derive not only from its high oleic content but also from the presence of polyphenolic antioxidants (Sánchez-Zapata and Pérez-Alvarez 2008); however, other researchers consider that intake of olive oil phenols is probably too low to produce a measurable effect on oxidation markers in humans (Vissers and others 2004).

### Cereals

There is convincing evidence that the consumption of whole grain foods is associated with reduced incidences of chronic diseases, including diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and certain cancers (Katcher and others 2008). In addition to dietary fiber, various phytochemicals, vitamins, and minerals have been suggested to contribute to the health effects of whole grain foods (Slavin 2003).

### Red wine

Resveratrol, a polyphenolic constituent of grapes and red wine, has been reported to have atheroprotective and hypolipidemic properties (Norata and others 2007). It has been suggested that the antioxidant properties of resveratrol protect against lipoprotein oxidation and foam cell formation while promoting cholesterol efflux from macrophages, are responsible for the protective effect against CVD of consuming moderate amounts of red wine (Berrougui and others 2009).

### Fish

There is evidence that the consumption of approximately 2 servings of fish per week (approximately 224 g total) reduces the risk of mortality from coronary heart disease and that consuming eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) may reduce the risk of mortality from cardiovascular disease in people who have already experienced a cardiac event (Inst. of Medicine 2005).

## Functional Ingredients in Cardiovascular Diseases

### Omega-3 Fatty Acids

Omega-3 fatty acids are polyunsaturated fatty acids of which 3 main types are found in the human diet: alpha-linolenic acid (ALA), docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) (Bent and others 2009). DHA and EPA are found in seafood, while ALA is found in nut and plant oils. Interestingly, fish do not produce EPA and DHA, but the oils are synthesized by single-cell marine organisms that are eaten by fish (Harris 2004). These 3 substances, DHA, EPA, and ALA, are typically considered essential human nutrients and are often called "essential fatty acids" (Freeman and others 2006). Omega-3 fatty acids are

suggested to exert various beneficial effects including antiinflammatory properties and reduction in blood triacylglycerol levels, prevention of cardiac arrhythmias, stabilization of atherosclerotic plaques, reduction in platelet aggregation, reduction in blood pressure, and improved arterial compliance (Holub 2002; Kris-Etherton and others 2002). To produce these beneficial effects the blood must have a high omega-3 index. The omega-3 index is a relatively new concept, defined as the sum of EPA and DHA expressed as a percentage of the total fatty acid content of red blood cell membranes (Harris and Von 2004).

Omega-3 fatty acids, either as a supplement or when consumed as oily fish, have many beneficial effects (McCombie and others 2009). A great variety of foods including chicken meat (López-Ferrér and others 2001), pork (Howe and others 2002), eggs (Lewis and others 2000), bread (Yep and others 2002), spreads (Kolanowski and others 2001), and other processed products (Metcalf and others 2003) have been enriched with omega-3 fatty acids.

## Bioactive Compounds

Nowadays, it is widely accepted that the beneficial health effects of fruits and vegetables in the prevention of heart disease and certain types of cancer are due to their bioactive components (Galaverna and others 2008). The presence of significant amounts of bioactive compounds, such as phenolic acids, flavonoids, and carotenoids, in DF from fruits assures them considerable nutritional value (Saura-Calixto and Goñi 2005). The antioxidant properties of flavonoids and carotenoids come from their ability to link free radicals that easily attack saturated fatty acids present in cell membranes, causing peroxidation, decreased permeation, and damage of membrane proteins, leading to cellular inactivation. DNA is also subject to free radical-effects producing mutations which may lead to cancer (Ubando and others 2005).

### Phenolic acids and flavonoids

One of the main compounds responsible for most of the functional properties of many foods, among them fruits and vegetables, are phenolic compounds in any of their forms, whether simple phenols, flavones, flavanones, flavanols, flavonols, anthocyanins, and so on (Viuda-Martos and others 2009). Phenolic compounds are found in most plants and in many cases they contribute to their color and taste (Belitz and Grosch 1997). Chemically, phenolic acids can be defined as substances that possess an aromatic ring bound to one or more hydrogenated substituents, including their functional derivatives (Marín and others 2001).

Flavonoids are low-molecular-weight compounds consisting of 15 carbon atoms, arranged in a C<sub>6</sub>-C<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>6</sub> configuration. Essentially, the structure consists of 2 aromatic rings joined by a 3-carbon bridge, usually in the form of a heterocyclic ring (Balasundram and others 2006).

Phenolic acids and flavonoids have been associated with the health benefits derived from consuming high levels of fruits and vegetables (Parr and Bolwell 2000). The beneficial effects derived from phenolic acid and flavonoids, with respect to CVD prevention have been attributed to (i) their antioxidant activity (Heim and others 2002), (ii) the prevention of atherosclerosis (Tripoli and others 2007), and (iii) the effect on platelet aggregation (Lamuela-Raventos and others 2005).

The antioxidant activity of phenolic acids and flavonoids arises from the scavenging of free radicals, hydrogen donation, metallic ion chelation, or even acting as substrate for radicals like superoxide or hydroxyl (Al-Mamary and others 2002; Amarowicz and others 2004). These bioactive compounds with antioxidant properties also interfere with propagation reactions (Russo and others

2000) and inhibit the enzymatic systems involved in initiation reactions (You and others 1999).

*In vitro*, flavonoids inhibit the oxidation of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) and reduce thrombotic tendencies (Benavente-García and others 1997). Using animal models of atherosclerosis Grassi and others (2008) has indicated that dietary flavonoid consumption delays atherosclerotic plaque development and may reduce endothelial dysfunction, which is the key step in the development of atherosclerosis. Hodgson (2008) reported that flavonoids inhibit the development of atherosclerosis in animal models. Choi and others (2008) suggested that (-)epigallocatechin gallate and hesperetin, both flavonoids, may act as antiatherogenic agents by blocking oxidized LDL-induced endothelial apoptosis via differential cellular apoptotic mechanisms.

The 3rd way which helps prevent CVD is through the effect of phenolic acids and flavonoids on platelet aggregation. Furusawa and others (2003) reported that the interaction of flavonoids with membrane lipids, thus modifying membrane fluidity, appeared to be partly responsible for the antiaggregatory and disaggregatory effects on human platelets. Navarro-Núñez and others (2009) showed that flavonoids inhibit platelet function through several mechanisms, including the antagonism of specific membrane receptors in these cells.

## Carotenoids

Carotenoids are a class of natural pigments, well known for the orange-red to yellow colors they impart to many fruits, vegetables, and flowers as well as for their provitamin A activity that some of them possess (Ribayamercado and others 2000). These compounds are polyenoic terpenoids having conjugated trans double bonds. They include carotenes ( $\beta$ -carotene and lycopene), which are polyene hydrocarbons, and xanthophylls (lutein, zeaxanthin, capsanthin, canthaxanthin, astaxanthin, and violaxanthin) that have oxygen in the form of hydroxy, oxo, or epoxy groups (Choe and Min 2009).

The majority of the 600 carotenoids found in nature are 40 carbons in length and may be pure hydrocarbons, called carotenes, or possess oxygenated functional groups, in which case they are called xanthophylls (Krinsky 1998).

The long-chain conjugated polyene structure accounts for the ability of these compounds to absorb visible light, but that also makes them quite susceptible to oxidation. This latter property is closely related to their ability to act as antioxidants (Reboul and others 2007). The properties, and therefore functions, of a carotenoid molecule are primarily dependent upon its structure and hence its chemistry (Young and Lowe 2001). In particular, the conjugated C = C double bond system is considered to be the single most important factor in energy transfer reactions, such as those found in photosynthesis (Christensen 1999). In human plasma and tissues, a wide range of carotenoids have been identified including cyclic (such as beta-carotene and alpha-carotene) and acyclic carotenes (such as lycopene and phytoene), together with a number of xanthophylls (such as zeaxanthin, lutein, and beta-cryptoxanthin), all of which can be directly derived from dietary sources (Khachik and others 1997).

Smoking and obesity, both established CVD risk factors, are associated with lower serum carotenoid concentrations, (Kritchevsky 1999). High plasma or adipose carotenoid concentrations have been potentially associated with a reduced risk of CVD (Street and others 1994) since the carotenoids, as potent antioxidants, retard the proliferation of free radicals and protect against free radical-mediated tissue damage (Svilaas and others 2004).

## Dietary Fiber

### Definition

At present, many aspects of properties and functions of dietary fiber (DF) remain unclear. Botanists define fiber as a part of plant organs, chemical analysts as a group of chemical compounds, and consumers as a substance with beneficial effects on human health, while for the dietetic and chemical industries DF is a subject of marketing (Rodríguez and others 2006). The concept of dietary fiber may have several definitions, depending on the specific study, but most researchers define it in terms of its effects on the human gastrointestinal tract and not something purely chemical or physical, or based on analytical methodologies for its determination (García-Ochoa and others 2008).

Traditionally, DF was defined as plant polysaccharides and lignin which are resistant to hydrolysis by the human digestive enzymes (Trowell and others 1976). However, this definition has changed with time. Thus, Stear (1990) defines dietary fiber as the food fraction that is not enzymatically degraded within the human gastro-alimentary tract and it is composed mainly of cellulose and lignin, but also of hemicelluloses, pectins, gums, and other carbohydrates. For Selvendran and Robertson (1994) fiber is "the group of nonstarch polysaccharides and lignin, which includes several indigestible polysaccharides in addition to the main components of the cell wall." Prosky (2001) defines fiber as "that fraction of the edible part of plants or their extracts, or synthetic analogs that are resistant to digestion and absorption in the small intestine, usually with complete or partial fermentation in the large intestine." The AACC (2001) defined DF as "the edible part of plants or analogous carbohydrates that are resistant to digestion and absorption in the human small intestine with complete or partial fermentation in the large intestine. That includes polysaccharides, oligosaccharides, lignin, and associated plant substances."

The Inst. of Medicine (2002) has defined dietary fiber as "nondigestible carbohydrates and lignin that are intrinsic and intact in plants." Added fiber consists of isolated, nondigestible carbohydrates that have beneficial physiological effects in humans. Total fiber is the sum of dietary fiber and added fiber. The United Kingdom IFST (2007) defines fiber as "food material, particularly plant material, that is not hydrolyzed by enzymes secreted by the human digestive tract but that may be digested by microflora in the gut. Plant components that fall within this definition include non-starch polysaccharides (NSP) such as celluloses, some hemicelluloses, gums, and pectins, as well as lignin, resistant dextrans, and resistant starches." For the European Commission (2008) "fiber" means carbohydrate polymers with 3 or more monomeric units, which are neither digested nor absorbed in the human small intestine and belong to the following categories:

- (i) Edible carbohydrate polymers naturally occurring in the food consumed;
- (ii) Edible carbohydrate polymers that have been obtained from food raw materials by physical, enzymatic, or chemical means and that have a beneficial physiological effect as demonstrated by generally accepted scientific evidence;
- (iii) Edible synthetic carbohydrate polymers which have a beneficial physiological effect as demonstrated by generally accepted scientific evidence.

Given the confusion which is generated by conflicting definitions, and the potentially important role of fiber in protecting against and managing a wide range of diseases, an important consensus was reached at a meeting in South Africa of the Codex Alimentarius Committee on Nutrition and Foods for Special

Dietary Uses (CCNFSU) in November 2008. In this meeting, the World Health Org. and Food and Agriculture Org. defined fiber as carbohydrate polymers with 10 or more monomeric units, which are not hydrolyzed by the endogenous enzymes in the small intestine of humans and belong to the following categories:

- (i) Edible carbohydrate polymers naturally occurring in the food as consumed;
- (ii) Carbohydrate polymers, which have been obtained from food raw materials by physical, enzymatic, or chemical means and which have been shown to have a physiological effect of benefit to health as demonstrated by generally accepted scientific evidence to competent authorities;
- (iii) Synthetic carbohydrate polymers which have been shown to have a physiological effect of benefit to health as demonstrated by generally accepted scientific evidence to competent authorities.

### Classification

Dietary fiber is composed of total dietary fiber (TDF), which includes both soluble (SDF) and insoluble dietary fiber (IDF) (Wang and others 2002). Because solubility refers simply to fibers that are dispersible in water, the term is somewhat inaccurate (Figueroa and others 2005). Originally it was thought that this categorization might provide a simple way to predict physiological function, but this has not always been the case (Gallaher and Schneeman 2001). Figure 1 shows a classification of DF.

The structural or nonviscous fibers (lignin, cellulose, and some hemicelluloses) are water-insoluble. Vegetables and cereal grains are especially rich in water-insoluble fiber, with the highest amounts in wheat and corn. Water-insoluble fiber is responsible for increased stool bulk and helps to regulate bowel movements. The natural gel-forming or viscous fibers (pectins, gums, mucilages, algal polysaccharides, some storage polysaccharides, and some hemicelluloses) are water-soluble. Foods rich in water-soluble fiber are dried beans, oats, barley, and some fruits and vegetables (Grigelmo-Miguel and others 1999). Table 1 shows the origin, chemical component, description, and principal types of fiber.

Pectins are amorphous polysaccharides formed by the joining of galacturonic acid with different monosaccharides, mainly rhamnose, furans, xylose, and galactose. They have a great power to transform a hydrophilic viscous gel capable of forming gels in the presence of sugar, heat, and weak acid. These substances are present in the soft tissues of fruits (García and others 1995).

Guar gum is a galactomannan storage polysaccharide made up of polymers comprised of about 10000 molecules. The fiber consists of a (1→4)-linked- $\beta$ -D-mannopyranose backbone with (1→6)-linked- $\alpha$ -D-galactose side chains. The overall ratio of mannose to galactose is around 2:1. Guar gum is an economical thickener and stabilizer. It hydrates easily in cold water giving a highly viscous solution (Theuwissen and Mensink 2008).

Cellulose is the main structural component that provides strength and stability to plant cell walls and fiber (Paster and others 2003). The amount of cellulose in a fiber influences the properties, economics of fiber production, and the utility of the fiber for various applications.

Hemicellulose in plants is slightly cross-linked and is composed of multiple polysaccharide polymers with a degree of polymerization and orientation less than that of cellulose (Rowell and others 1997). Hemicellulose usually acts as a filler between cellulose and lignin and consists of sugars including glucose, xylose, galactose, arabinose, and mannose (Reddy and Yang 2005).

Lignin is a highly cross-linked molecular complex with an amorphous structure and acts as "glue" between individual cells

and between the fibrils forming the cell wall (Mohanty and others 2000). Lignin is first formed between neighboring cells in a "middle lamella," bonding them tightly into a tissue, and then spreads into the cell wall penetrating the hemicelluloses and bonding the cellulose fibrils (Majumdar and Chanda 2001).

Chitosan is a heteropolysaccharide composed of  $\beta$ -1,4-linked 2-amino-2-deoxy- $\beta$ -D-glucose obtained commercially by deacetylation of chitin, which is an abundant constituent of crustacean shells and fungi (Sebti and others 2005). Chitosan is considered a biocompatible, nonantigenic, nontoxic, and biofunctional fiber (No and others 2007). In addition, shrimp-derived chitosan was admitted as generally recognized as safe (GRAS) in 2005 by the USFDA (2007), based on scientific procedures for use in foods. Chitosan is not hydrolyzed specifically by digestive enzymes; however, there can be some digestion by bacterial flora and by nonspecific activity of some digestive enzymes such as amylases and lipases. Chitosan derivatives in the form of acetate, ascorbate, lactate, malate, and others are water-soluble (Borderías and others 2005).

Table 2 shows the content on total dietary fiber (TDF), soluble dietary fiber (SDF), and insoluble dietary fiber (IDF) of some cereals, vegetables, and fruits.

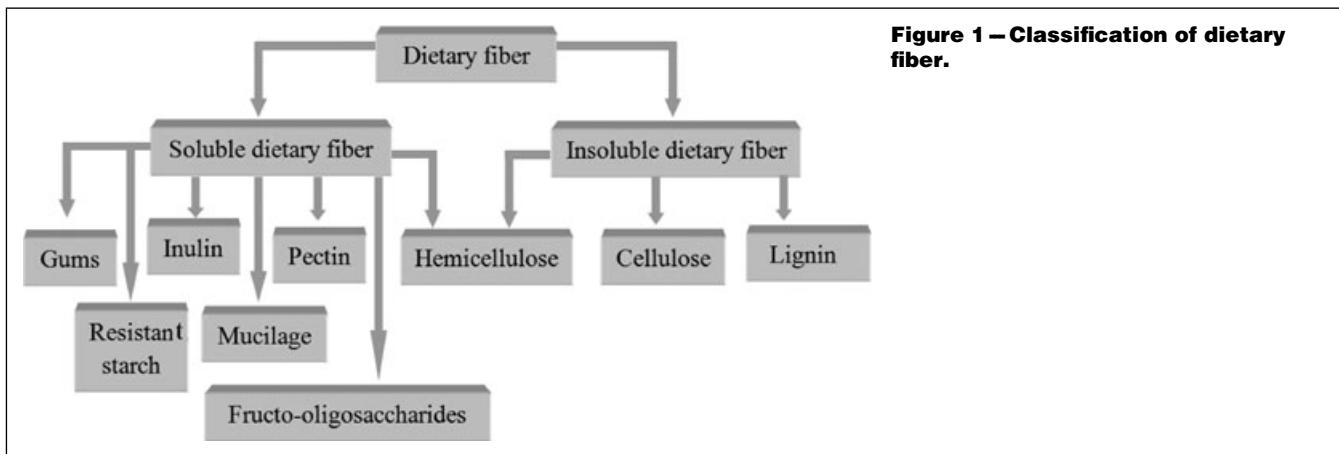
### Physiological Functionality of Fiber

#### Fiber as a reducing agent of hyperlipidemia and hypercholesterolemia

The beneficial effects of high-fiber diets in protecting against CVD are not limited to their effects on the risk of developing type 2 diabetes, or their contribution to weight loss. Evidence suggests that the increased consumption of insoluble as well as soluble dietary fibers can directly impact the risk of developing CVD by targeting risk factors such as elevated serum LDL-cholesterol levels (Chau and others 2004; Kendall and others 2009). The results from numerous epidemiological and clinical studies have been so convincing that moderate or higher intakes of dietary fibers can effectively lower CVD risk through its action on LDL-cholesterol (see Table 3). Generally, it has been demonstrated that a 1% reduction in serum levels of LDL-cholesterol corresponds to a 1% to 2% reduction in the occurrence of CVD events, making LDL-cholesterol an excellent intermediary biomarker for assessment of CVD risk (Kendall and others 2009).

The exact mechanism by which dietary fibers lower serum LDL-cholesterol levels is not known. Evidence suggests that they may interfere with the lipid and/or bile acid metabolism. The hypocholesterolemic property of some dietary fiber, such as coconut is associated with the water-soluble fractions of fiber such as uronic acid, glucomannans, and galactomannans (Trinidad and others 2006). Uronic acid and galactomannans are not digested in the small intestine but are metabolized by the microflora in the large intestine and produce short-chain fatty acids such as acetate, propionate, and butyrate that contribute to lowering serum cholesterol levels: butyrate is primarily metabolized by colonic mucosal cells, while acetate and propionate are rapidly absorbed. It has been hypothesized that the production of short-chain fatty acids, and in particular changes in the propionate/acetate ratio, may influence lipid metabolism (Trinidad and others 2006; Theuwissen and Mensink 2008). Bean starches lower the levels of serum total cholesterol, VLDL-cholesterol, and LDL-cholesterol, increase the fecal concentration of short-chain fatty acids (in particular the butyric acid concentration), and increase fecal neutral sterol excretion (Martinez-Flores and others 2004).

Other suggested mechanisms include the inhibition of hepatic lipoprotein production and/or cholesterol synthesis by fermentation products and the delayed absorption of macronutrients

**Figure 1 – Classification of dietary fiber.**

leading to increased insulin sensitivity (Lunn and Buttriss 2007; Theuwissen and Mensink 2008). Mun and others (2005) reported that the reduction in the levels of cholesterol and other lipids by dietary fibers may be a consequence of an increase in aqueous phase viscosity, an alteration in droplet disruption or coalescence kinetics, and the reduced absorption of lipid, cholesterol, and bile acid.

For Lairon and others (2007) dietary fibers can affect lipid digestion or absorption in the small intestine through a variety of physicochemical mechanisms: (i) direct interaction with lipase: dietary fibers may interact directly with the lipase and/or co-lipase, thereby reducing their enzyme activity (Klinkesorn and McClements 2009); (ii) the formation of a protective membrane around lipid droplets: dietary fibers may adsorb around lipid droplets and form a protective coating that prevents the lipase/co-lipase from coming into close contact with the lipid substrate inside the droplets (Mun and others 2006); (iii) binding bile salts: some dietary fibers bind bile salts, which may prevent them from emulsifying the lipids in the small intestine or from transporting lipid digestion products from the droplets to the intestinal mucosa (Thongngam and McClements 2005); and (iv) viscosity enhancement: many dietary fibers increase the viscosity of the aqueous solution surrounding the lipid droplets, which may alter the efficiency of droplet disruption and coalescence in the stomach and small intestine (Gallaher and Schneeman 2003).

Some researchers suggest that fiber may increase the size of the circulating very-low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (VLDL) and chylomicrons with consequent increased exposure to lipoprotein lipolysis (Vahouny and Kritchevsky 1986). Glucomannan is a special hydrosoluble fiber with the same properties as insoluble fiber. It increases its original volume by about 100 times, after contact with water, which causes an increase in the volume and viscosity of gastrointestinal content and enhances intestinal transit. One consequence of this is the interference with food absorption (Trinidad and others 2006) (Figure 2a). The physical and chemical high-density structure of glucomannan may clarify its hypocholesterolemic activity. Chitosan is being used as a new source of dietary fiber because of its biocompatibility, low toxicity in animal organs, and its chemical structure which is similar to that of cellulose and is not cleaved by digestive enzymes in humans (Dutta and others 2009). It contains 1 amino group per residue, which produces high-positive-charge densities in acidic solutions, unlike other dietary fibers. Chitosan is considered a potential ingredient of functional foods because of its beneficial activity in lipid disorders (Koide 1998). Several studies have re-

ported that chitosan has a hypocholesterolemic action in animal models and healthy humans (Liao and others 2007; Liu and others 2008; Zhang and others 2008). Chitosan acts as a weak anion exchange resin and exhibits substantial viscosity *in vitro*, either of which properties could mediate its hypocholesterolemic effect. Ausar and others (2003) propose that chitosan inhibits cholesterol absorption and increase bile acid excretion. Unlike fibers of vegetable origin, the amine groups of chitosan take one hydrogen ion from the acid fluids of the stomach, which causes the formation of a positively charged tertiary amine group. In this way, negatively charged molecules such as fats, fatty acids, other lipids, and biliary acids, interact with the chitosan (Borderías and others 2005). Chitosan also interferes by trapping neutral lipids such as cholesterol and other sterols by means of hydrophobic interactions. These electrostatic and hydrophobic bonds cause the formation of long polymeric compounds, which are weakly attacked by digestive processes in the organism. This mixture passes into the intestine, where the fat/chitosan emulsion immediately changes to an insoluble gel owing to the pH of the medium, and thus fat droplets cannot be attacked by pancreatic or intestinal enzymes (Ylitalo and others 2002).

Dietary fiber may influence bile acid metabolism. Bile acids are highly effective detergents that promote solubilization, digestion, and absorption of dietary lipids and lipid-soluble vitamins throughout the small intestine. High concentrations of bile salts are maintained in the duodenum, jejunum, and proximal ileum, where fat digestion and absorption take place (Ridlon and others 2006). Normally, they are almost completely reabsorbed in the ileum (Hofmann 1994). Several dietary fibers are able to interact with bile acids in the small intestine, resulting in a lower reabsorption, an increased transport toward the large intestine, and, finally, a higher excretion of bile acids (Dongowski and others 2003). Evidence suggests that some water-soluble fibers may form a thick unstirred water layer in the intestinal lumen. This layer may act as a physical barrier, thereby decreasing the (re)absorption of fats, including cholesterol and bile acids (Figure 2c). This would lead to an increased fecal output of these 2 components. Because the bile acid pool is limited, the higher excretion of bile acids requires an increased hepatic synthesis of bile acids. As a result, the hepatic conversion of cholesterol into bile acids increases, hepatic pools of free cholesterol decrease and, to reach a new steady-state, endogenous cholesterol synthesis increases. This is probably the major hypocholesterolemic pathway that occurs in hypercholesterolemic individuals or animals (García-Diez and others 1996; Theuwissen and Mensink 2008).

**Table 1 – Types of dietary fiber, its description, and principal sources.**

Origin	Chemical component	Description	Sources
Plant	Cellulose	Polysaccharides comprising up to 10000 closely packed glucose units, arranged linearly, making cellulose very insoluble and resistant to digestion by human enzymes.	Principal component of the cell walls of most plants. Forms about 25% of the fiber in grains and fruit and about a third in vegetables and nuts. Much of the fiber in cereal bran is cellulose.
	Hemicellulose	Polysaccharides containing sugars other than glucose. Associated with cellulose in cell walls and present in both soluble and insoluble forms.	Forms about a third of the fiber in vegetables, fruits, legumes, and nuts. The main dietary sources are cereal grains.
	Lignin	Three-dimensional network of coupled monomers of a varied 4-hydroxyphenylpropanoid type.	Foods with a woody component; for example, celery, and the outer layers of cereal grains.
	Resistant starch	Polysaccharides composed of linear $\alpha$ -1,4-D-glucan, essentially derived from retrograded amylase fraction.	Whole grains, legumes, cooked and chilled pasta, potatoes, rice, and unripe bananas.
	Glucomannan	A highly branched polysaccharide, soluble, fermentable, and viscous dietary fiber.	Derived from the root of the elephant yam or konjac plant.
	$\beta$ -Glucans	Unbranched polysaccharides composed of (1-4) and (1-3) linked $\beta$ -D-glucopyranosyl units in varying proportions.	Major component of cell wall material in oats and barley, only present in small amounts in wheat.
	Pectin	Polysaccharides comprising galacturonic acid and a variety of sugars; soluble in hot water and forms gels on cooling.	Found in cell walls and intracellular tissue of fruits and vegetables. Fruits contain the most, but pectins also represent 15% to 20% of the fiber in vegetables, legumes, and nuts.
	Gums	Hydrocolloids derived from plant exudates.	Plant exudates (gum arabic and tragacanth), seeds (guar and locust beans), and seaweed extracts (agar, carrageenans, alginates).
	Uronic acid	Polysaccharides comprising $\beta$ -D-glucuronic acid, $\beta$ -D-galacturonic acid, $\beta$ -D-4-O-methylglucuronic acid.	Found in cell wall of higher plants.
	Mucilages	Present in the cells of the outer layers of seeds of the plantain family.	Psyllium ( <i>Plantago ovata</i> )
Animal	Oligosaccharides	Polysaccharides consisting of 3 to 15 monosaccharide units.	Pulses, onions, Jerusalem artichokes, garlic, and more.
	Chitosan	Linear polysaccharide consisting of (1,4)-linked 2-amino-deoxy- $\beta$ -D-glucan, deacetylated derivative of chitin.	Mainly obtained from crustacean shells, also certain fungi, is the 2nd-most abundant natural polymer in nature after cellulose.
Synthetic	Resistant maltodextrins	Typically produced by purposeful rearrangement of starch or hydrolyzed starch to convert a portion of the normal alpha-1,4-glucose linkages to random 1,2-, 1,3-, and 1,4-alpha or beta linkages.	

Sources: Dutta and others (2009); Mermelstein (2009); Sharma and others (2008); Lunn and Buttriss (2007); Charalampopoulos and others (2002); Tharanathan (2002); Willför and others (2009); Trinidad and others (2006).

Another possible mechanism is a reduction in the absorption of lipid, cholesterol, and bile acids, which could alter micelle formation and decrease the ability of cholesterol to incorporate into micelles (Carr and Jesch 2006). Dietary fiber has the capacity to bind bile acids, metabolites of cholesterol which play an important role in the digestion and absorption of lipids in the small intestine (Figure 2b). A high bile acid binding ability of fiber could lead to lower serum cholesterol concentrations by interrupting enterohepatic circulation (Eastwood 1992). Eastwood and Morris (1992) reported that the primary attribute of soluble fibers that inhibit cholesterol absorption is their ability to form a viscous matrix when hydrated. Many water-soluble fibers become viscous in the small intestine. It is believed that increased viscosity impedes the movement of cholesterol, bile acids, and other lipids and hinders micelle formation, thus reducing cholesterol

absorption and promoting cholesterol excretion from the body (Carr and Jesch 2006). Pectin,  $\beta$ -glucans, fructans, and gums have been identified as agents that can work through the production of a viscous matrix that hinders movement of cholesterol and bile acids into micelles as well as the subsequent uptake of micelles into the enterocyte (Jones 2008). If viscosity in the lumen of the gut is important for physiological efficacy, it is important to understand which factors in a food might reduce or enhance the ability of pectin or  $\beta$ -glucans to generate viscosity. In the most general sense, the manner in which a soluble fiber will modify solution properties depends on the amount, solubility, or extractability under physiological conditions and the molecular weight and structure of the fiber. Changes in these properties of pectin or  $\beta$ -glucans in a food product may profoundly influence the physiological response (Wood 2007). Some fibers, such as,

**Table 2 – Total dietary fiber, soluble dietary fiber, and insoluble dietary fiber of some cereals, fruits, and vegetables.**

Food group	Product	Total dietary fiber (%)	Total soluble dietary fiber (%)	Total insoluble dietary fiber (%)	Reference
Cereals	Whole rye bread	17.70	12.70	5.00	Hiller and others (2009)
	Whole wheat	17.00	2.30	14.70	Ragaee and others (2001)
	Oat fiber	97.00	4.00	93.00	Sabanis and others (2009)
	Whole maize	19.60	3.60	16.0	Piccoli da Silva and Santorio-Ciocca (2005)
Fruits and vegetables	Citrus fiber	71.62	9.25	62.37	Fernández-López and others (2009)
	Carob fiber	85.00	11.00	74.00	Wang and others (2002)
	Tiger nuts fiber	59.71	0.105	59.61	Sánchez-Zapata and others (2009)
	Guava fiber	74.80	24.70	50.10	Jiménez-Escríg and others (2001)
	Cabbage fiber	80.50	17.60	62.90	Dongowski (2007)
	Cocoa fiber	60.54	10.09	50.45	Lecumberri and others (2007)
	Mango fiber	28.05	14.25	13.80	Vergara-Valencia and others (2007)
	Apple fiber	60.00	15.00	45.00	Rosell and others (2009)
	Sugar beet fiber	76.90	52.10	24.80	Dongowski (2007)
	Carrot fiber	80.70	32.70	48.00	Kotcharian and others (2004)
	Pea fiber	86.70	6.90	79.80	Wang and others (2002)

oligofructose and inulin are not viscous fibers but rather serve as excellent fuel sources for beneficial intestinal bacteria, particularly *Lacobacillus* spp. and *Bifidobacterium* spp. (Boeckner and others 2001). In this way, changes in intestinal microflora induced by oligofructose and inulin have been shown to alter the bile acid profile and promote fecal bile acid excretion (Trautwein and others 1998).

Cholesterol 7- $\alpha$ -hydroxylase is the key regulatory enzyme in the synthesis of bile acids. The primary bile acids (Figure 3), cholic acid ( $3\alpha,7\alpha,12\alpha$ -trihydroxy- $5\beta$ -cholan-24-oic acid) and chenodeoxycholic acid ( $3\alpha,7\alpha$ -dihydroxy- $5\beta$ -cholan-24-oic acid), are dehydrolyzed and converted to secondary bile acids, called deoxycholic acid ( $3\alpha,12\alpha$ -dihydroxy- $5\beta$ -cholan-24-oic acid) and lithocholic acid ( $3\alpha$ -hydroxy- $5\beta$ -cholan-24-oic acid), respectively (Rodríguez and others 2006). The activity of this important rate-determining enzyme, cholesterol 7- $\alpha$ -hydroxylase, has been observed to increase in a dose-dependent manner in fiber-supplemented diets (Buchman and others 2000). Intestinal bacteria are able to convert the primary bile acids into various types of secondary bile acids too (Ridlon and others 2006). Colonic bacteria also contribute to the recovery of bile salts that escape active transport in the distal ileum. The major bile salt modifications in the human large intestine include deconjugation, oxidation of hydroxy groups at C-3, C-7, and C-12, and  $7\alpha/\beta$ -dehydroxylation. The deconjugation and  $7\alpha/\beta$ -dehydroxylation of bile salts increases their hydrophobicity and their  $P_{K_a}$ , thereby permitting their recovery via passive absorption across the colonic epithelium (Ridlon and others 2006).

Naumann and others (2006) reported that a  $\beta$ -glucan-enriched meal is thought to increase bile acid binding which, in turn, may (i) decrease reabsorption of bile acids and drive bile acid synthesis from hepatic cholesterol, hence depleting the body's cholesterol pool and/or (ii) decrease absorption of intestinal cholesterol. The degree of absorption of common bile acids, lithocholic, deoxycholic, chenodeoxycholic, and cholic acids and cholesterol by fiber from plant food depends on the kind of raw material, conditions of processing, and type of bile acid (Górecka and others 2002). Schwiggert and others (2009) reported that the bile acid binding capacity seems to depend on various properties of the plant cell wall material such as particle size, surface characteristics (hydrophobicity), and molecular structure. There are also effects of bile acid structure on the extent of the interactions with dietary fiber. Dihydroxy-bile acids, such as glycochenodeoxy-

cholic acid and glycodeoxycholic acid were more strongly bound to dietary fiber preparations than were trihydroxy-bile acids (Drzikova and others 2005). Górecka and others (2005) reported that dihydroxy-bile acids such as deoxycholic acid are bound more strongly by cereal products than monohydroxy-bile acids, such as lithocholic acid or trihydroxy-bile acid (cholic acid). Fechner and others (2009) reported that Boregine fiber (*Lupinus angustifolius boregine*) significantly increased the daily excretion of cholic acid from 9 to 15 mg/d and chenodeoxycholic acid from 9 to 13 mg/d in the stool. Boregine, Typ Top (*Lupinus albus*), and soy (*Glycine max hefeng*) reduced the concentration of the total bile acids and secondary bile acids. Soy was the only fiber which also decreased the concentration of primary bile acids. In addition to plasma cholesterol, plasma triacylglycerol concentrations, and fatty acid synthesis, may be altered by ingestion of viscous fiber. Topping and others (1988) fed adult rats diets containing methylcellulose (80 g/kg) as the fiber source. The methylcellulose was obtained in 3 different viscosities: low (25 cP), medium (400 cP), and high (1500 cP). After 10 d, a 2.2-fold reduction in hepatic fatty acid synthesis was observed in the rats consuming the high-viscosity methylcellulose. In addition, plasma triacylglycerol concentrations were lower ( $P < 0.05$ ) in rats consuming high-viscosity methylcellulose compared with low-viscosity methylcellulose (1.2 and 1.6  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mL}$ , respectively). Dongowski (2007) studied different types of commercial and laboratory-made dietary fibers. Digested cereal products (barley, oat, rye, and wheat flour; oat bran), alcohol-insoluble substances from apples, strawberries, rowan berries, carrots, white cabbage, red beets, and sugar beet pulp, as well as arabinoxylan, bind 1.21 to 1.77  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg, while Novelose<sup>TM</sup> (a commercial fiber) binds approximately 0.65  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg. Carob fiber had the highest binding capacity (1.83 to 1.96  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg) whereas cellulose had no effect. For Kahlon and Smith (2007) the variability in bile acid binding between the fruits tested may be related to their phytonutrients, antioxidants, polyphenols, flavonoids (anthocyanins, flavonols, and proanthocyanidins), structure, hydrophobicity of undigested fractions, and anionic or cationic nature of the metabolites produced during digestion or their interaction with active binding sites. These researchers reported that bile acid binding, on a dry matter basis, of bananas (0.90  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg) was significantly higher than that of nectarines (0.21  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg) and significantly lower than those for peaches (0.60  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg),

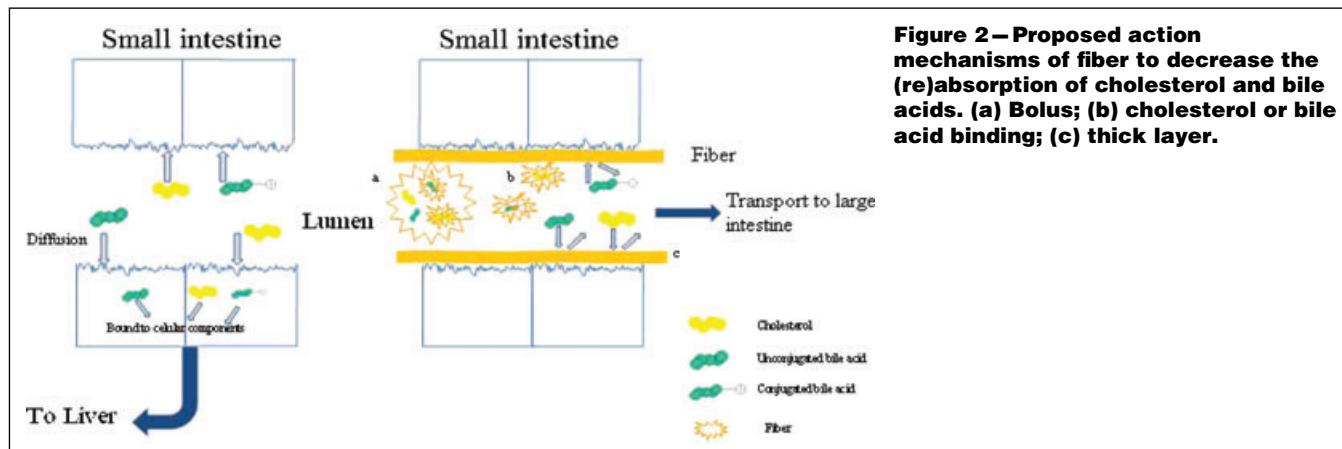
## Fiber and cardiovascular disease . . .

pineapple (0.59  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg), grapes (0.50  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg), pears (0.47  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg), and apricots (0.31  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg). Schwiggert and others (2009) investigated the bile acid binding capacity of the lupine fiber products with an *in vitro* assay. The lupine dietary fiber product showed a bile acid binding capacity of about 19% of that of

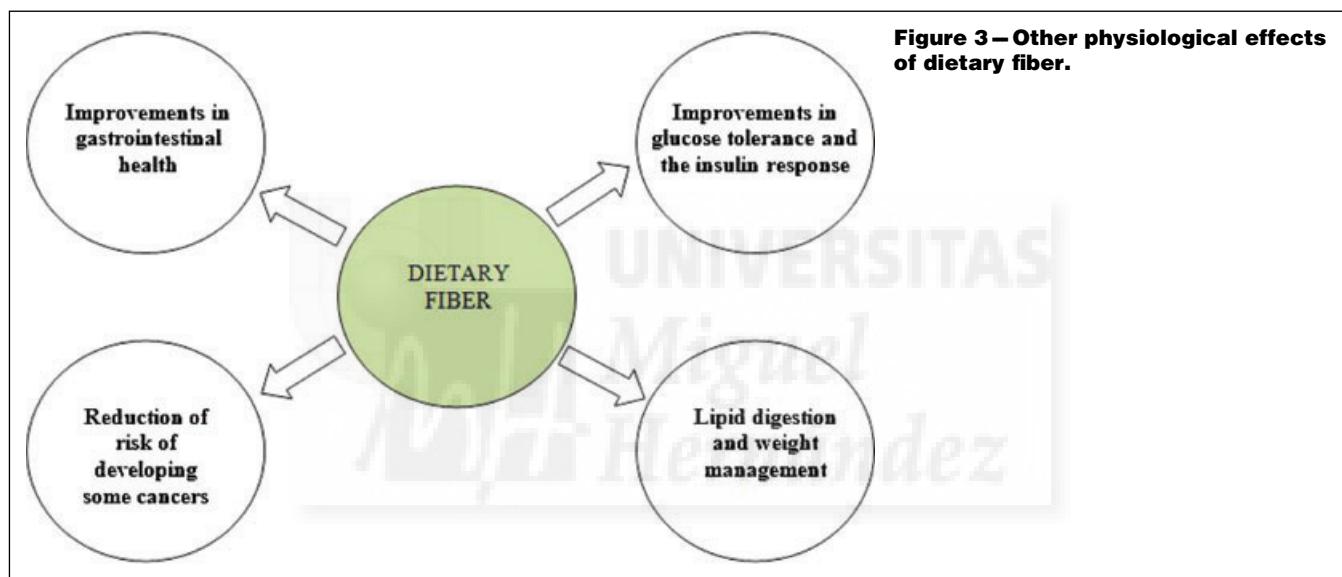
the pharmaceutical cholestyramine (a cholesterol-lowering, bile acid-binding drug). Kahlon and Chow (2000) found that different cereal brans,  $\beta$ -glucan-enriched barley and ready-to-eat breakfast cereals bound 0.3 to 1.8  $\mu\text{mol}$  bile acids/100 mg. Cholestyramine was the positive control treatment, and cellulose was the negative control. Kahlon and others (2007) reported that the *in vitro* bile

**Table 3 – Overview of human clinical trials.**

Clinical status	Ingredient	Dose (g/d)	Time (d)	Decrease	Reduction (%)	Reference
Normal healthy	High-fiber vegetable	140	14	LDL-cholesterol	33	Jenkins and others (2001)
Normal healthy	Inulin	10	21	Triglycerides	16.3	Letexier and others (2003)
Normal healthy	Inulin	9	28	Total cholesterol, triglycerides	7.9	Brightenti and others (1999)
Normal healthy	FOS	9.4	21	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, LDL/HDL	21.2 4.4 5.4 5.3	Schaafsma and others (1998)
Normal healthy	Pectins, gums, mucilages, hemicellulose, cellulose and lignins	30	90	LDL-cholesterol	12.8	Aller and others (2004)
Normal healthy	$\beta$ -Glucan	3	77	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, Triglycerides	4.5 5.3	Karmally and others (2005)
Normal healthy	Inulin	10	56	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	18.9	Jackson and others (1999)
Normal healthy	Bamboo fiber	28	6	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	9.6 15.3 12.7	Park and Jhon (2009)
Mildly hypercholesterolemic	$\beta$ -Glucan	5.9	49	LDL-cholesterol, LDL/HDL	6.7 5.4	Kerckhoffs and others (2003)
Mildly hypercholesterolemic	$\beta$ -Glucan	6	35	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	20.0 24.0 16.0	Behall and others (2004)
Mildly hypercholesterolemic	$\beta$ -Glucan	3	35	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	17.0 17.0 10.0	Behall and others (2004)
Mildly hypercholesterolemic	Guar gum, pectin, soy fiber and pea fiber	20	63	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, LDL/HDL	8.5 12.1 9.4	Knopp and others (1999)
Mildly hypercholesterolemic	Coconut fiber	25	14	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	10.8 9.2 21.8	Trinidad and others (2006)
Mildly hypercholesterolemic	Coconut fiber	15	14	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	6.9 11.0 19.3	Trinidad and others (2006)
Hypercholesterolemic	Carob fiber	15	42	LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	10.5 11.3	Zunft and others (2003)
Hypercholesterolemic	Psyllium	5.1	182	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	4.7 6.7	Anderson and others (2000b)
Hypercholesterolemic	Glucomannan	6	56	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	18 24 10	Martino and others (2005)
Hypercholesterolemic	Psyllium	10.2	56	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	4 7	Anderson and others (2000a)
Hypercholesterolemic	Polidextrose	15	26	Total cholesterol, triglycerides	1.2 17.4	Pronczuk and Hayes (2006)
Hyperlipidemic	Inulin	18	42	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	1.3 2.1	Davidson and others (1998)
Hyperlipidemic	Inulin	7	28	Total cholesterol, triglycerides	21.5 27.3	Balcazar-Muñoz and others (2003)
Hyperlipidemic	Inulin	20	21	Triglycerides	14.0	Causey and others (2000)
Hyperlipidemic	$\beta$ -Glucan	7	21	LDL-cholesterol	9.0	Pomeroy and others (2001)
Diabetics	Artichoke fiber	6	90	Total cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, triglycerides	4.54 11.37 10.37	Nazni and others (2006)



**Figure 2 – Proposed action mechanisms of fiber to decrease the (re)absorption of cholesterol and bile acids. (a) Bolus; (b) cholesterol or bile acid binding; (c) thick layer.**



**Figure 3 – Other physiological effects of dietary fiber.**

acid binding, on a dry matter basis, of some vegetables (relative to cholestyramine) was: beets, 18%; okra, 16%; eggplant, 14%; asparagus, 10%; carrots, 8%; green beans, 7%; cauliflower, 6%; and turnips, 1%.

There is strong clinical evidence suggesting that the use of viscous fibers reduces serum cholesterol and the subsequent risk of CVD. This relationship is amplified when other cholesterol lowering foods are used alongside viscous fibers. Evidence on the possible role of whole grain fibers and CVD are less conclusive. While cohort studies suggest a protective role, clinical trials show a lack of metabolic benefit. Randomized trials need to be undertaken to strengthen the evidence on the possible relationship or the lack thereof (Kendall and others 2009).

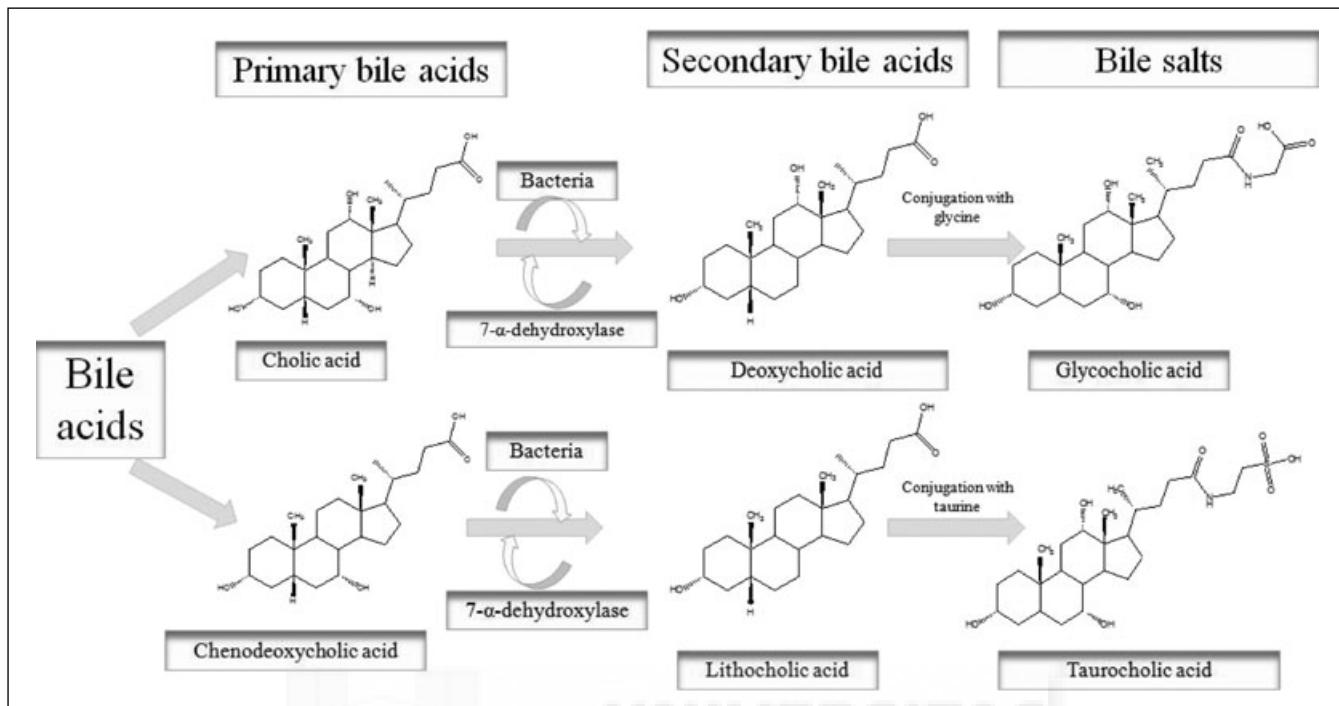
### Other Physiological Effects

Extracts rich in dietary fiber obtained from plants can be used as functional ingredients (Fernández-López and others 2007; Pérez-Alvarez 2008b; Sendra and others 2008) since the fibers may interact physiologically to provide numerous health benefits that go far beyond supporting bowel regularity. These benefits may include not only digestive health, but weight management, cardiovascular health, and also general wellness.

Indeed hyperlipidemia, and hypercholesterolemia effects, diets naturally high in dietary fiber, can be considered to bring about 4 main physiological consequences (Figure 4): (i) improvements in gastrointestinal health; (ii) improvements in glucose tolerance and the insulin response; (iii) reduction in the risk of developing some cancers; and (iv) lipid digestion and hence some degree of weight management (Lunn and Buttriss 2007).

#### Improvements in gastrointestinal health

The fact that fiber can bind a large amount of water makes it highly useful from a physiological point of view, since it enlarges the volume of the aqueous phase of the food pellet and slows down the absorption of nutrients in the intestine (Gallaher and Schneeman 1986). It is now recognized that the traditional chemoprotective role of dietary fiber, which formerly consisted of fecal bulking, rapid transit, and augmenting the fecal volume and the frequency of evacuation, may have added benefits (Cummings 2001; Spiller and Spiller 2001). These purported health-promoting properties could include the so-called prebiotic activity (Gibson and Roberfroid 1995), putatively encompassing cell protective effects of particular antioxidants that can be liberated in the colon after fermentation by the gut flora (Ferguson and others 2005).

**Figure 4 – Bile acids, classification, and chemical structure.**

The type, source, and amount of the fiber influence the intestinal function in different ways; in general, fibers that are resistant to colonic fermentation, such as wheat bran, mostly increase the content of the intestine. However, highly fermentable fibers generate a large mass of microorganisms and thus, likewise, increase the intestinal content (Borderías and others 2005).

#### **Improvements in glucose tolerance and the insulin response**

The beneficial effect of dietary fiber on postprandial metabolic parameters and glucose control has been the object of many studies over recent decades (Kabir and others 2002; Behall and others 2006). Several studies have shown that the risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus is inversely correlated with the intake of diets with a low glycemic index or with high fiber content (Schulze and others 2004). Reductions in plasma glucose concentrations, as a result of the consumption of viscous fiber sources may be due to several events. First, ingested viscous fibers cause slow gastric emptying by forming a gel matrix as a result of their water-holding capacity (Wursch and Pi-Sunyer 1997). As these hydrated fibers enter the small intestine, the gel matrix may thicken the small intestinal contents, modulating digestive processes by decreasing the diffusion of nutrients for absorption, and contact between food and digestive enzymes. In addition, viscous fibers could alter the resistance of contractile movements within the gastrointestinal tract and thereby decrease the transport of glucose to absorptive surfaces. Furthermore, at the absorptive surfaces, the ingestion of viscous fibers may thicken the unstirred water layer through which glucose and cholesterol diffuse very slowly (Edwards and others 1988; Mälkki 2001).

#### **Reduction in the risk of developing some cancers**

Fiber and starch are thought to be important protective factors, with a strong inverse relationship between starch consumption and colorectal cancer incidence (Topping and others 2008). Sev-

eral mechanisms that might explain the protective effect of fiber have been proposed.

Soluble fiber has a positive impact on colonic health by increasing the crypt cell production rate, or decreasing colonic epithelial atrophy in comparison with nonfiber diets (Slavin and others 2009). Dietary fiber might reduce the risk of colorectal cancer by increasing the speed of transit of food material through the large intestine, by fermentation in the large bowel, and by producing high levels of short-chain fatty acids (Sharma and others 2008). The butyric acid or its salts may promote cell differentiation, induce apoptosis, and/or inhibit the production of secondary bile acids by reducing luminal pH (Nagengast and others 1995; Potter 1999). There is evidence that butyrate may reduce the risk of malignant changes in cells. Population studies in the cecum of rats fed with dietary fiber preparations have shown that increase in fecal bulking and lower fecal pH, as well as greater production of SCFA, is associated with the decreased incidence of colon cancer, which have been suggested to resemble the effects of soluble dietary fiber (Tharanathan and Mahadevamma 2003).

#### **Lipid digestion and some degree of weight management**

Dietary fiber intake seems to best predict total energy intake, with several reports of lower total energy intake with high-fiber diets as compared to low-fiber diets (Pereira and Ludwig 2001). Keenan and others (2006) reported that the use of resistant starch in the diet as a bioactive functional food component is a natural, endogenous way to increase gut hormones that are effective in reducing energy intake, so may be an effective natural approach to the treatment of obesity. A number of researchers have examined the potential of dietary fiber to modify fat oxidation and various studies have examined its potential as a satiety agent and also a contributor to weight management (Sharma and others 2008; Mikušová and others 2009), although the results are

still not conclusive. It is proposed that eating a diet rich in fiber may increase the mobilization and use of fat stores as a direct result of a reduction in insulin secretion (Tapsell 2004). There are probably several reasons why high-fiber diets are associated with lower food intake. First, high-fiber diets may trigger maximal sensory stimulation in the mouth due to the increased need for chewing. High-fiber diets also lead to slower gastric emptying and a slower rate of nutrient absorption. Finally, a high-fiber diet reduces the energy density of the overall diet. Regardless of the reason, increasing dietary fiber is generally thought to aid in weight management (Hill and Peters 2002).

## Technological Functionality

The functional properties of plant fiber depend on the IDF/SDF ratio, particle size, extraction condition, and vegetable source (Jaime and others 2002). From a technological point of view, dynamic viscosity, gelling ability, hydration properties, and viscous and elastic characteristics of soluble and insoluble dietary fiber have proven to account for major properties with variable influence on the functionality of fiber-supplemented foods (Collar and Angioloni 2009).

The physiological functions of the DF are often attributed to its physicochemical properties, water-holding capacity, swelling, rheological, and fat binding properties, and susceptibility to bacterial degradation or fermentation (Dikeman and Fahey 2006).

The dietary fibers from cereals are more frequently used than those from fruits; however, fruit fibers have, in general, better nutritional quality than those found in cereals, because of their significant contents of associated bioactive compounds (flavonoids, carotenoids, and others) and more balanced composition (higher overall fiber content, greater SDF>IDF ratio, water- and fat-holding capacities, lower metabolic energy value, colonic fermentability, as well as lower phytic acid content (Chau and Huang 2003; Figuerola and others 2005).

## Water holding capacity (WHC)

The most important property from a technological standpoint is the ability to bind water. WHC depends on several factors such as:

- (i) Particle size: Sangnark and Noomhorm (2003) reported that a decrease in fiber particle size was associated with a reduction in water holding capacity.
- (ii) Processing: washing increases WHC probably because of removal of sugars (Larrauri 1999).
- (iii) Type of fiber: Soluble fibers possess a higher WHC than insoluble fibers (Rosell and others 2009).

## Oil holding capacity (OHC)

OHC, also, is an important property. It represents the capacity of a fiber to bind fat, and depends on:

Porosity: The porosity of the fiber is more important than molecular affinity to bind the fat (Nelson 2001).

Particle size: the lower the particle size, the higher the oil holding capacity.

Washing does not affect the OHC (Lario and others 2004).

## Chelating capacity

The chelating properties of DF depend on the chemical structure and mass fraction of the components. Thus, hemicellulose and pectins are among those with a remarkable ability to bind heavy metals (Nawirska and Kwasniewska 2005). The chelating capacity of the preparations has been found to be influenced

by DF origin (fractional composition), experimental conditions (pH, temperature), and the type of the metal being investigated (Nawirska and Oszmianski 2001).

## Gel-forming capacity

Gel is the name given to an association of polymeric units to form a network in which water and/or other solutes are included. Many soluble fibers form gels, for instance, carrageenans, pectins, konjac, and so on. The capacity to form a gel and the characteristics of that gel will depend on a number of factors including concentration, temperature, presence of certain ions, and pH (Borderías and others 2005).

## Fermentative capacity

Fibers are able to ferment to various extents depending on the type of fiber. Thus, whereas cellulose ferments to a very small extent, pectins are entirely fermentable (Gallaher and Schneeman 2003).

The ideal dietary fiber should meet the following requirements (Saura-Calixto and Larrauri 1996):

- (i) Have no nutritionally objectionable components.
- (ii) Be as concentrated as possible so that minimum amounts can have a maximum physiological effect.
- (iii) Be bland in taste, color, texture and odor.
- (iv) Have a balanced composition (insoluble and soluble fractions) and adequate amounts of associated bioactive compounds.
- (v) Have a good shelf life that does not adversely affect that of the food to be formulated.
- (vi) Be compatible with food processing.
- (vii) Have the right, positive image in the eyes of the consumer with regard to source, wholesomeness, and so on.
- (viii) Have the expected physiological effects.
- (ix) Be reasonable in price.

## Foods Enriched with Dietary Fiber

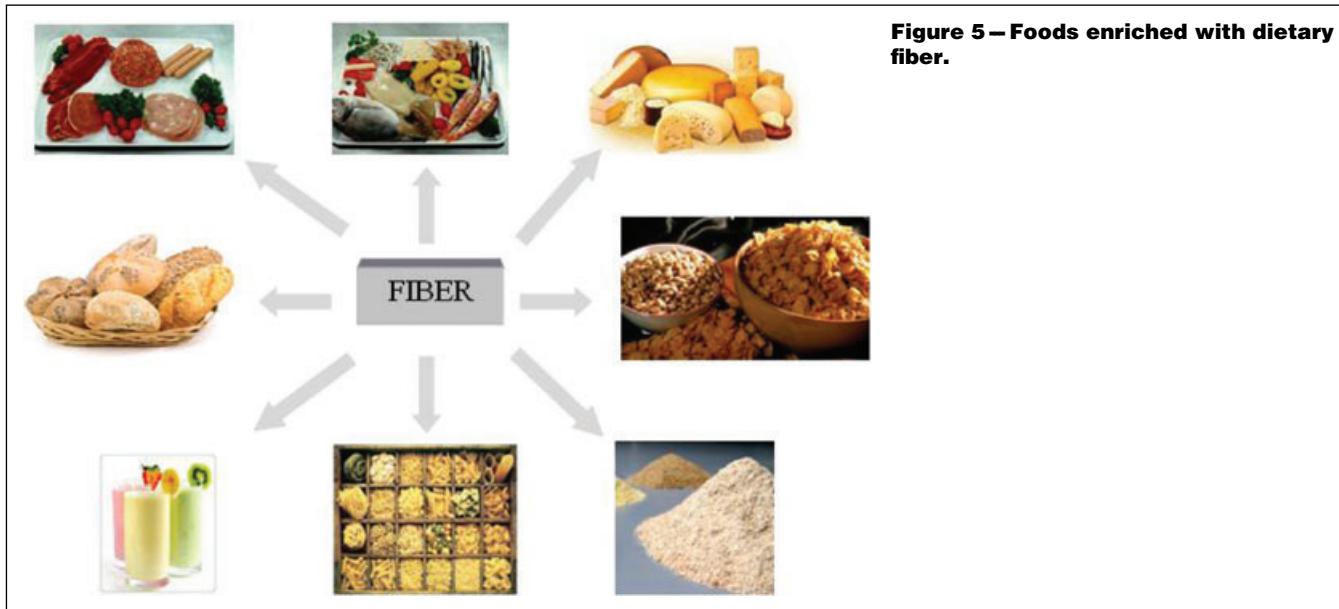
The importance of food fibers has led to the development of a large potential market for fiber-rich products and ingredients and, in recent years, there has been a trend to find new sources of dietary fiber that can be used as ingredients in the food industry (Chau and Huang 2003). At present, a great variety of foods, including meat products (Alesón-Carbonell and others 2005; Fernández-López and others 2007; Fernández-López and others 2008), fish (Sánchez-Zapata and others 2008), breakfast cereals and bakery products (Vergara-Valencia and others 2007), and dairy products (García-Pérez and others 2006; Sendra and others 2008) have been enriched with fiber (Figure 5). Table 4 lists how certain types of fiber have been used, for different purposes, in foods.

The enrichment of bakery products has traditionally consisted of the addition of unrefined cereals; however, there is a trend towards using other DF sources, mainly fruits, which present better nutritional quality, higher amounts of total and soluble fiber, a lower caloric content, stronger antioxidant capacity, and greater degrees of fermentability and water retention (Wang and others 2002; Nazni and others 2006; Uysal and others 2007; Vergara-Valencia and others 2007; Ozturk and others 2008).

In the case of meat or fish products, the addition of dietary fiber affects the physicochemical properties of the product including a reduction in the residual nitrite levels (Fernández-Ginés and others 2004; Fernández-López and others 2008) or increased antioxidant activity (Alesón-Carbonell and others 2005; Sánchez-Alonso and others 2008; Sánchez-Zapata and Pérez-Alvarez 2008; Viuda-Martos and others 2008) due to their

**Table 4 – Food products enriched with different types of fiber.**

Food group	Food	Type of fiber	Technological effect	Reference
Bakery products	Bread and cookies	Mango dietary fiber	Anti-radical efficiency	Vergara-Valencia and others (2007)
	Cookies	Apple and lemon fiber	Lower phytic acid contents	Bilgiçli and others (2007)
	Bread	Carob and pea fiber	Softer crumbs	Wang and others (2002)
	Cookies	Sugarbeet fiber	Increased the total dietary fiber	Ozturk and others (2008)
	Wire-cut cookies	Lemon fiber	Harder samples	Uysal and others (2007)
	Flakes	Coconut fiber	Increased the total dietary fiber content	Trinidad and others (2006)
	Biscuits	Mango fiber	Improved antioxidant properties	Ajila and others (2008)
	Cake	Nopal fiber	Increased overall acceptability	Ayadi and others (2009)
	Bread	Lupin kernel fiber	Beneficial effects on blood glucose and insulin measures	Johnson and others (2003)
	Bread	Wheat fiber	Lower postprandial glucose concentrations	Feldheim and Wisker (2002)
Meat products	Meat batters	Rice bran fiber	Regular fat control	Choi and others (2009)
	Beef frankfurters	Sugarbeet fiber	Increased total dietary fiber content and water-holding capacity	Vural and others (2004)
	Meatballs	Oat bran	High acceptability	Yılmaz and Daglioglu (2003)
	Cooked-meat sausage	Orange fiber	Hypocaloric product	García and others (2007)
	Dry-cured sausage	Orange fiber	Reduction in residual nitrite levels	Fernández-López and others (2008)
	Bologna sausage	Orange fiber	Increased antioxidant activity	Viuda-Martos and others (2008)
	Dry-cured sausage	Orange fiber	Better organoleptic characteristics	García and others (2002)
	Bologna sausage	Lemon albedo	Reduction in residual nitrite levels	Fernández-Ginés and others (2004)
	Breakfast sausage	Citrus fiber	Increased antioxidant activity	Alesón-Carbonell and others (2005)
	Fermented milk	Citrus fiber	Increased textural properties	Sendra and others (2008)
Dairy products	Yogurt	Wheat and apple fiber	Decreased availabilities of both calcium and glucose	Rodríguez and others (2008)
	Petit-suisse cheese	Inulin	Improve sensory quality	Cardarelli and others (2008)
	White-brined cheese	Oat fiber	Increased textural properties	Volikakis and others (2004)
	Yogurt	Asparagus fiber	Increased sensory acceptance.	Sanz and others (2008)
	Fermented milk	Chicory inulin	Increased viability of bifidobacteria	Varga and others (2006)
	Yogurt cheese	Inulin	Increased survival of probiotic bacteria	Salem and others (2007)
	Yogurt	Wheat and apple fiber	Increased sensory acceptance	Staffolo and others (2004)
	Restructured hake products	Chicory fiber	Increased hardness	Cardoso and others (2007)
	Restructured fish products	White grape fiber	Increased antioxidant activity	Sánchez-Alonso and others (2008)
	Surimi	Chitosan	Increased the breaking force and deformation of gels	Benjakul and others (2001)
Fish products	Tuna "pate"	Citrus fiber	Increased antioxidant activity	Sánchez-Zapata and Pérez-Alvarez (2008), Sánchez-Zapata and others (2008b)
	Cod sausage	Chitosan	Increased elasticity	López-Caballero and others (2005)
	Fish sausage	Pea fiber	Lower fat content	Cardoso and others (2008)
	Restructured fish products	Wheat fiber	Increased the water holding capacity	Sánchez-Alonso and others (2007)



**Figure 5 – Foods enriched with dietary fiber.**

significant content of associated bioactive compounds, such as phenolic acids, flavonoids, carotenoids, and so on (Fernández-López and others 2009). Dietary fiber can be used, too, for improving the organoleptic characteristics of meat products such as dry-cured sausages or meatballs (García and others 2002; Yilmaz and Daglioglu 2003). They have the ability to increase the water retention capacity, while their inclusion in the meat matrix contributes to maintaining its juiciness, which means that the volatile compounds responsible for the flavor of the product are released more slowly (Chevance and others 2000).

Some types of fiber, as those from cereals or fruits, are used as functional ingredients in dairy products to improve the textural properties, the flavor properties, and the viability of probiotic bacteria (Staffolo and others 2004; Volikakis and others 2004; Varga and others 2006; Salem and others 2007; Cardarelli and others 2008; Sanz and others 2008; Sendra and others 2008).

In the case of beverages and drinks, the addition of DF increases their viscosity and stability, soluble fiber being the most used because it is more dispersible in water than insoluble fiber. Some examples of these soluble fibers are pectins (Mirhosseini and others 2008; Sampedro and others 2008), β-glucans (Naumann and others 2006; Juvonen and others 2009), and gums (Bénech 2008; Yadav and others 2009).

## Conclusions

Fiber consumption has been reduced significantly in western society and is far below the recommended level. The main reason has been the change in life style, which has promoted a significant reduction in fruit, vegetables, and legume consumption. With the aim of increasing fiber intake in the diet, many fiber-enriched foods have been developed. The addition of fibers to food products is of great interest not only as a means of improving the functionality of food products, but also as a means to create functional foods with health benefits. Given the remarkable range of benefits ascribed to dietary fiber there is clearly a need for an agreed-upon definition, which can be used for food labeling, setting nutrient reference values, and determining appropriate analytical methods and decisions relating to health claims.

To improve our knowledge of dietary fiber composition and structure, together with our understanding of its physiological effects on the human body, collaborative studies are needed involving the participation of researchers from different scientific areas: chemistry, biochemistry, biotechnology, biology, physiology, nutrition, and medicine.

## References

- [AACC] American Assoc. of Cereal Chemists. 2001. The definition of dietary fiber. *Cereal Food World* 46:112–26.
- [AHA] American Heart Assoc. 2008. Stress and heart disease. Available from: <http://www.americanheart.org/presenter.jhtml?identifier=4750>. Accessed Apr 5, 2008.
- Ajila CM, Leelavathi K, Prasada-Rao UJS 2008. Improvement of dietary fiber content and antioxidant properties in soft dough biscuits with the incorporation of mango peel powder. *J Cereal Sci* 48(2):319–26.
- Alesón-Carbonell L, Fernández-López J, Pérez-Alvarez JA, Kuri V. 2005. Functional and sensory effects of fibre-rich ingredients on breakfast fresh sausages manufacture. *Food Sci Technol Int* 11(2):89–97.
- Aller R, de Luis DA, Izaola O, La Calle F, del Olmo L, Fernández L, Arranz T, González-Hernández JM. 2004. Effect of soluble fiber intake on lipid and glucose levels in healthy subjects: a randomized clinical trial. *Diab Res Clin Pract* 65(1):7–11.
- Al-Mamary M, Al-Meeri A, Al-Habori M. 2002. Antioxidant activities and total phenolics of different types of honey. *Nutr Res* 22:1041–7.
- Amarowicz R, Pegg RB, Rahimi-Moghaddam P, Barl B, Weil JA. 2004. Free-radical scavenging capacity and antioxidant activity of selected plant species from the Canadian prairies. *Food Chem* 84:551–62.
- Anderson JW, Allgood LD, Lawrence A, Altringer LA, Jerdack GR, Hengehold DA, Morel JG. 2000a. Cholesterol-lowering effects of psyllium intake adjunctive to diet therapy in men and women with hypercholesterolemia: meta-analysis of 8 controlled trials. *Am J Clin Nutr* 71(2):472–9.
- Anderson JW, Davidson MH, Blonde L, Brown WV, Howard WJ, Ginsberg H, Allgood LD, Weingand KW. 2000b. Long-term cholesterol-lowering effects of psyllium as an adjunct to diet therapy in the treatment of hypercholesterolemia. *Am J Clin Nutr* 71(6):1433–8.
- Anonymous. 2009. Back to the ancient diet: a matter of urgency for Southern Mediterranean Countries. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis* 19:153–5.
- Ausar SF, Morcillo M, Leon AE, Ribotta PD, Masih R, Vilaro Mainero M, Amigone JL, Rubin G, Lescano C, Castagna LF, Beltramo DM, Diaz G, Bianco ID. 2003. Improvement of HDL- and LDL-cholesterol levels in diabetic subjects by feeding bread containing chitosan. *J Med Food* 6:397–9.
- Ayadi MA, Abdelmaksoud W, Ennouri M, Attia H. 2009. Cladodes from *Opuntia ficus indica* as a source of dietary fiber: effect on dough characteristics and cake making. *Ind Crops Prod* 30(1):40–7.
- Balasundram N, Sundram K, Samman S. 2006. Phenolic compounds in plants and agri-industrial by-products: antioxidant activity, occurrence, and potential uses. *Food Chem* 99:191–203.
- Balcazar-Muñoz BR, Martínez-ABundis E, Gonzalez-Ortiz M. 2003. Efecto de la administración oral de inulina sobre el perfil de lípidos y la sensibilidad a la insulina en individuos con obesidad y dislipidemia. *Rev Med Chile* 131(6):597–604.
- Baro L, Fonolla J, Peña JL, Martínez A, Lucena A, Jimenez J, Boza JJ, Lopez-Huertas E. 2003. n-3 Fatty acids plus oleic acid and vitamin-supplemented milk consumption reduces total

- and LDL cholesterol, homocysteine and levels of endothelial adhesion molecules in healthy humans. *Clin Nutr* 22(2):175–82.
- Behall KM, Scholfield DJ, Hallfrisch J. 2004. Lipids significantly reduced by diets containing barley in moderately hypercholesterolemic men. *J Am Coll Nutr* 23(1):55–62.
- Behall KM, Scholfield DJ, Hallfrisch JG, Liljeberg-Holmstahl HG. 2006. Consumption of both resistant starch and beta-glucan improves postprandial plasma glucose and insulin in women. *Diab Care* 29:976–81.
- Belahsen R, Rguibi M. 2006. Population health and Mediterranean diet in southern Mediterranean countries. *Public Health Nutr* 9(8A):1130–5.
- Belitz HD, Grosch W. 1997. Química de los alimentos. Zaragoza: Acribia. p 211–41.
- Benavente-García O, Castillo J, Martín FR, Ortúñoz A, Del Rio JA. 1997. Uses and properties of citrus flavonoids. *J Agric Food Chem* 45(12):6505–15.
- Bénech A. 2008. Gum Arabic: a functional hydrocolloid for beverages. *Agro Food Ind Hi Tech* 19(3):58–9.
- Benjakul S, Visessanguan W, Tanaka M, Ishizaki S, Suthidham R, Sungpech O. 2001. Effect of chitin and chitosan on gelling properties of surimi from barred garfish (*Hemiramphus faro*). *J Sci Food Agric* 81(1):102–8.
- Bent S, Bertoglio K, Hendren RL. 2009. Omega-3 fatty acids for autistic spectrum disorder: a systematic review. *J Autism Dev Disord* 39:1145–54.
- Berrouigui H, Grenier G, Loued S, Drouini G, Khalil A. 2009. A new insight into resveratrol as an atheroprotective compound: Inhibition of lipid peroxidation and enhancement of cholesterol efflux. *Atherosclerosis* 207(2):420–7.
- Bilgiçli N, İbanoglu S, Herken EN. 2007. Effect of dietary fibre addition on the selected nutritional properties of cookies. *J Food Eng* 78:86–9.
- Bloomer RJ. 2007. Decreased blood antioxidant capacity and increased lipid peroxidation in young cigarette smokers compared to nonsmokers: impact of dietary intake. *Nutr J* 6:39. Available from: <http://www.nutritionj.com/content/6/1/39>.
- Boeckner LS, Schnepp MJ, Tungland BC. 2001. Inulin: a review of nutritional and health implications. *Adv Food Nutr Res* 43:1–63.
- Borderías AJ, Sánchez-Alonso I, Pérez-Mateos M. 2005. New applications of fibres in foods: addition to fishery products. *Trends Food Sci Technol* 16:458–65.
- Brightenti F, Casiraghi MC, Canzi E, Ferrari A. 1999. Effect of consumption of a ready-to-eat breakfast cereal containing inulin on the intestinal milieu and blood lipids in healthy male volunteers. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 53(9):726–33.
- Brightenti F, Valtueña S, Pellegrini N, Ardido D, Del Rio D, Salvatore S, Piatti P, Serafini M, Zavaroni I. 2005. Total antioxidant capacity of the diet is inversely and independently related to plasma concentration of high-sensitivity C-reactive protein in adult Italian subjects. *Br J Nutr* 93:619–25.
- Brink M, Senekal M, Dicks LMT. 2005. Market and product assessment of probiotic/prebiotic containing functional foods and supplements manufactured in South Africa. *South African Med J* 95(2):114–9.
- Bucher HC, Ragland DR. 1995. Socioeconomic indicators and mortality from coronary heart disease and cancer: a 22-year follow-up of middle-aged men. *Am J Public Health* 85:1231–6.
- Buchman KK, Furumoto EJ, Donkin SS, Story JA. 2000. Dietary psyllium increased expression of ileal apical sodium-dependent bile acid transporter mRNA coordinately with dose-responsive changes in bile acid metabolism in rats. *J Nutr* 130:2137–42.
- Cardarelli HR, Buriti FCA, Castro IA, Saad SM. 2008. Inulin and oligofructose improve sensory quality and increase the probiotic viable count in potentially symbiotic petit-suisse cheese. *LWT Food Sci Technol* 41(6):1037–46.
- Cardoso C, Mendes R, Nunes ML. 2007. Effect of transglutaminase and carrageenan on restructured fish products containing dietary fibres. *Int J Food Sci Technol* 42(11):1257–64.
- Cardoso C, Mendes R, Nunes ML. 2008. Development of a healthy low-fat fish sausage containing dietary fibre. *Int J Food Sci Technol* 43(2):276–83.
- Carr TP, Jesch ED. 2006. Food components that reduce cholesterol absorption. *Adv Food Nutr Res* 51:165–204.
- Causey JL, Feirtag JM, Gallaher DD, Tungland BC, Slavin JA. 2000. Effects of dietary inulin on serum lipids, blood glucose and the gastrointestinal environment in hypercholesterolemic men. *Nutr Res* 10(2):191–201.
- Charalampopoulos D, Wang R, Pandiella SS, Webb C. 2002. Application of cereals and cereal components in functional foods: a review. *Int J Food Microbiol* 79:131–41.
- Chau CF, Huang YL. 2003. Comparison of the chemical composition and physicochemical properties of different fibres prepared from peel of *Citrus sinensis* L. cv. Liucheng. *J Agric Food Chem* 51:2615–8.
- Chau CF, Huang YL, Lin CY. 2004. Investigation of the cholesterol-lowering action of insoluble fibre derived from the peel of *Citrus sinensis* L. cv. Liucheng. *Food Chem* 87(3):361–6.
- Chevance FF, Farmer LJ, Desmond EM, Novelli E, Troy DJ, Chizzolini R. 2000. Effect of some fat replacers on the release of volatile aroma compounds from low-fat meat products. *J Agric Food Chem* 48:3476–84.
- Choe E, Min DB. 2009. Mechanisms of antioxidants in the oxidation of foods. *Comp Rev Food Sci Food Safe* 8:345–58.
- Choi JS, Choi YJ, Shin SY, Li J, Kang SW, Bae JY, Kim DS, Ji GE, Kang JS, Kang YH. 2008. Dietary flavonoids differentially reduce oxidized LDL-induced apoptosis in human endothelial cells: role of MAPK and JAK/STAT signalling. *J Nutr* 138(6):983–90.
- Choi YS, Choi JH, Han DJ, Kim HY, Lee MA, Kim HW, Jeong JY, Kim CJ. 2009. Characteristics of low-fat meat emulsion systems with pork fat replaced by vegetable oils and rice bran fiber. *Meat Sci* 82(2):266–71.
- Christensen RL. 1999. The photochemistry of carotenoids. In: Frank HA, Young AJ, Britton G, Cogdell RJ, editors. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic. p 137–57.
- Collar C, Angioloni A. 2009. An approach to structure-function relationships of polymeric dietary fibres in foods: significance in breadmaking applications. In: Proceedings of 4th Intl. Dietary Fibre Conference. Vienna, Austria: Int'l. Assoc. for Cereal Science and Technology. 108 p.
- Corrao G, Rubbiati L, Bagnardi V, Zambon A, Poikolainen K. 2000. Alcohol and coronary heart disease: a meta-analysis. *Addiction* 95(10):1505–23.
- Cummings JH. 2001. The effect of dietary fiber on fecal weight and composition. In: Spiller GA, editor. CRC handbook of dietary fiber in human nutrition. Boca Raton, Fla.: CRC Press. p 183–252.
- Davidson MH, Maki KC, Synecki C, Torri SA, Drennan KB. 1998. Effects of dietary inulin on serum lipids in men and women with hypercholesterolemia. *Nutr Res* 18(3):503–17.
- D'Antoni I, Piccolo A, Sidoti E, Puleo M, Tringali G. 2004. Food as therapy drug: probiotics, prebiotics, symbiotics. *Acta Medica Mediterranea* 20(3):127–30.
- De Lorgeril M, Salen P. 2006. The Mediterranean-style diet for the prevention of cardiovascular diseases. *Public Health Nutr* 9(1A):118–23.
- Dikeman CL, Fahey GC. 2006. Viscosity as related to dietary fibre: a review. *Critical Rev Food Sci Nutr* 46:649–63.
- Do KA, Gree A, Guthrie JR, Dudley EC, Burger HG, Dennerstein L. 2000. Longitudinal study of risk factors for coronary heart disease across the menopausal transition. *Am J Epidemiol* 151:584–93.
- Dongowski G. 2007. Interactions between dietary fibre-rich preparations and glycoconjugated bile acids *in vitro*. *Food Chem* 104:390–7.
- Dongowski G, Huth M, Gebhardt E. 2003. Steroids in the intestinal tract of rats are affected by dietary fibre-rich barley-based diets. *Br J Nutr* 90:895–906.
- Doyon M, Labrecque JA. 2008. Functional foods: a conceptual definition. *Br Food J* 110(11):1133–49.
- Drzikova B, Dongowski G, Gebhardt E, Habel A. 2005. The composition of dietary fibre-rich extrudates from oat affects bile acid binding and fermentation *in vitro*. *Food Chem* 90:181–92.
- Dutta PK, Tripathi S, Mehrotra GK, Dutta J. 2009. Perspectives for chitosan-based antimicrobial films in food applications. *Food Chem* 114:1173–82.
- Eastwood MA. 1992. The physiological effect of dietary fiber: an update. *Annu Rev Nutr* 12:19–35.
- Eastwood MA, Morris ER. 1992. Physical properties of dietary fiber that influence physiological function: a model for polymers along the gastrointestinal tract. *Am J Clin Nutr* 55:436–42.
- Ebbeling CB, Leidig MM, Sinclair KB, Seger-Shippee LG, Feldman HA, Ludwig DS. 2005. Effects of an ad libitum low-glycemic load diet on cardiovascular disease risk factors in obese young adults. *Am J Clin Nutr* 81:976–82.
- [EC] European Commission Directive. 2008/100/EC of 28 October 2008 amending Council Directive 90/496/EEC on nutrition labelling for foodstuffs as regards recommended daily allowances, energy conversion factors and definitions. OJ L 285/9 29.10.2008. Available from: [lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:2008:285:0009:0012:EN:PDF](http://lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:2008:285:0009:0012:EN:PDF). Accessed Jun 2009.
- Edwards CA, Johnson IT, Read NW. 1988. Do viscous polysaccharides slow absorption by inhibiting diffusion or convection? *Eur J Nutr* 42:307–12.
- Esmailzadeh A, Azadbakht L. 2008. Food intake patterns may explain the high prevalence of cardiovascular risk factors among Iranian women. *J Nutr* 138(8):1469–75.
- Fechner A, Schwiggert U, Hansenkopf K, Jahreis G. 2009. Influence of legume kernel fibres on risk for colon cancer and coronary heart disease. In: Proceedings of 4th Intl. Dietary Fibre Conference. Vienna, Austria: Int'l. Assoc. for Cereal Science and Technology. 108 p.
- Feldheim W, Wisker E. 2002. Effect of fibre-enriched bread on the glycemic control in diabetes mellitus type 2. *Ernährung* 26(5):197–200.
- Ferguson LR, Zhu ST, Harris PJ. 2005. Antioxidant and antigenotoxic effects of plant cell wall hydroxycinnamic acids in cultured HT-29 cells. *Mol Nutr Food Res* 49:585–93.
- Fernández-Gutiérrez JM. 2003. Carotenoides: aspectos funcionales y nutritivos. In: Pérez-Alvarez JA, Fernández-López J, Sayas-Barberá E, editors. Alimentos funcionales y dieta Mediterránea. Orihuela, Spain: Univ. Miguel Hernández. p 113–30.
- Fernández-Gutiérrez JM, Fernández-López J, Sayas-Barberá E, Sendra E, Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2004. Lemon albedo as a new source of dietary fiber: application to bologna sausages. *Meat Sci* 67:7–13.
- Fernández-López J, Viuda-Martos M, Sendra E, Sayas-Barberá E, Navarro C, Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2007. Orange fibre as potential functional ingredient for dry-cured sausages. *Eur Food Res Technol* 226(1–2):1–6.
- Fernández-López J, Sendra E, Sayas-Barberá ME, Navarro C, Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2008. Physico-chemical and microbiological profiles of "Salchichón" (Spanish dry-fermented sausage) enriched with orange fiber. *Meat Sci* 80:410–7.
- Fernández-López J, Sendra E, Navarro C, Sayas-Barberá ME, Viuda-Martos M, Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2009. Storage stability of a high dietary fibre powder from orange by-products. *Int J Food Sci Technol* 44:748–56.
- Figueroa F, Hurtado ML, Estévez AM, Chiffelle I, Asenjo F. 2005. Fibre concentrates from apple pomace and citrus peel as potential fibre sources for food enrichment. *Food Chem* 91:395–401.
- Fito M, Guxens M, Corella D, Saez G, Estruch R, de la Torre R, Frances F, Cabezas C, Lopez-Sabater Mdel C, Marrugat J, Garcia-Arellano A, Aros F, Ruiz-Gutierrez V, Ros E, Salas-Salvado J, Fiol M, Sola R, Covas MI. 2007. Effect of a traditional Mediterranean diet on lipoprotein oxidation: a randomized controlled trial. *Arch Intern Med* 167(11):1195–203.
- Franzini-Pereira R, Franz MJ. 2008. Prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease in people with diabetes through lifestyle modification: current evidence-based recommendations. *Diab Spec* 21(3):189–93.
- Freeman MP, Hibbeln JR, Wisner KL, Davis JM, Mischoulon D, Peet M, Keck PE Jr, Marangell LB, Richardson AJ, Lake J, Stoll AL. 2006. Omega-3 fatty acids: evidence basis for treatment and future research in psychiatry. *J Clin Psychiatry* 67:1954–67.
- Furusawa M, Tsuchiya H, Nagayama M, Tanaka T, Nakaya K, Iinuma M. 2003. Anti-platelet and membrane-rigidifying flavonoids in brownish scale of onion. *J Health Sci* 49(6):475–80.
- Galaverga G, Di Silvestro G, Cassano A, Sforza S, Docena A, Drioli E, Marchelli R. 2008. A new integrated membrane process for the production of concentrated blood orange juice: effect on bioactive compounds and antioxidant activity. *Food Chem* 106:1021–30.
- Gallaher D, Schneeman BO. 1986. Intestinal interaction of bile acids, phospholipids, dietary fibers and cholestyramine. *Am J Physiol* 250:420–6.
- Gallaher D, Schneeman BO. 2001. Dietary fiber. In: Bowman B, Russel R, editors. Present knowledge in nutrition. 8th ed. Washington, D.C.: ILSI. p 83–91.
- Gallaher D, Schneeman BO. 2003. Fibra alimentaria. In: Bowman B, Russel R, editors. Conocimientos actuales sobre nutrición. Organización Panamericana de la Salud. Publicación Técnica n° 59.
- García M, Serra N, Pujolá M, García J. 1995. Análisis de la fibra alimentaria y sus fracciones por el método de Englert. *Alimentaria* 95:45–50.

# CRFSFS: Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety

- García ML, Domínguez R, Galvez MD, Casas C, Selgas MD. 2002. Utilization of cereal and fruit fibres in low-fat dry fermented sausages. *Meat Sci* 60(3):227–36.
- García ML, Cáceres E, Selgas MD. 2007. Utilization of fruit fibers in conventional and reduced-fat cooked-meat sausages. *J Sci Food Agric* 87:624–31.
- García-Diez F, García-Medialdea V, Bayon JE, González-Gallego J. 1996. Pectin feeding influences fecal bile acid excretion, hepatic bile acid synthesis and serum cholesterol in rats. *J Nutr* 126:1766–71.
- García-Ochoa OE, Infante RB, Rivera CJ. 2008. Hacia una definición de fibra alimentaria. *Anales Venezolanos de Nutrición* 21(1):25–30.
- García-Pérez FJ, Sendra E, Lario Y, Fernández-López J, Sayas-Barberá E, Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2006. Rheology of orange fiber-enriched yogurt. *Milchwissenschaft* 61(1):55–9.
- García-Segovia P, Andres-Bello A, Martínez-Monzo J. 2007. Effect of cooking method on mechanical properties, color and structure of beef muscle (*M. pectoralis*). *J Food Eng* 80:813–21.
- Gibson GR, Roberfroid MB. 1995. Dietary modulation of the human colonic microbiota: introducing the concept of prebiotics. *J Nutr* 125:1401–12.
- Górecka D, Korczak J, Balcerowski E, Decyk K. 2002. Sorption of bile acids and cholesterol by dietary fiber of carrots, cabbage and apples. *Electronic J Polish Agric Univer* 5:2. Available from: <http://www.ejpjpa.media.pl/volume5/issue2/food/art-02.html>.
- Górecka D, Korczak J, Konieczny P, Hes M, Flaczek E. 2005. Adsorption of bile acids by cereal products. *Cereal Foods World* 50:176–8.
- Goyal A, Yusuf S. 2006. The burden of cardiovascular disease in the Indian subcontinent. *Indian J Med Res* 124:235–44.
- Grassi D, Aggio A, Onori L, Croce G, Tiberti S, Ferri C, Ferri L, Desideri G. 2008. Tea flavonoids, and nitric oxide-mediated vascular reactivity. *J Nutr* 138:1554–60.
- Grigelmo-Miguel N, Gorinstein S, Martín-Belloso O. 1999. Characterisation of peach dietary fibre concentrate as a food ingredient. *Food Chem* 65:175–81.
- Harris WS. 2004. Fish oil supplementation: Evidence for health benefits. *Cleveland Clinic J Med* 71:208–21.
- Harris WS, Von SC. 2004. The omega-3 index: a new risk factor for death from coronary heart disease? *Prev Med* 39:212–20.
- Hasler CM. 2002. Functional foods: benefits, concerns and challenges: a position paper from the American Council on Science and Health. *J Nutr* 132:3772–81.
- Heim KE, Tagliaferro AR, Bobilya DJ. 2002. Flavonoid antioxidants: chemistry, metabolism and structure-activity relationships. *J Nutr Biochem* 13:572–84.
- Hill JO, Peters JC. 2002. Biomarkers and functional foods for obesity and diabetes. *Br J Nutr* 88(2):213–8.
- Hiller B, Hollmann J, Lindhauer MG. 2009. Cereal fibre compounds in wheat and rye bread as affected by *in vitro* simulated digestion. In: *Proceedings of 4th Int'l. Dietary Fibre Conference*. Vienna, Austria: Int'l. Assoc. for Cereal Science and Technology. 219 p.
- Hillman M. 2000. Functional food: how big is the market? *World Food Ingrid* 12:50–3.
- Hjaltason B, Haraldsson GG. 2006. Use of fish oils and marine PUFA concentrates. Modifying lipids for use in food. 122:587–602.
- Hodgson JM. 2008. Tea flavonoids and cardiovascular disease. *Asia Pacific J Clin Nutr* 17(1):288–90.
- Hofmann A. 1994. Intestinal absorption of bile acids and biliary constituents. The intestinal component of the enterohepatic circulation and the integrated system. In: Johnson LR, editor. *Physiology of the gastrointestinal tract*. 3rd ed. New York: Raven Press. p 1845–65.
- Holub BJ. 2002. Omega-3 fatty acids in cardiovascular care. *Canadian Med Assoc J* 166:608–15.
- Howe PR, Downing JA, Grenyer BF, Grigonis-Deane EM, Bryden WL. 2002. Tuna fishmeal as a source of DHA for n-3 PUFA enrichment of pork, chicken, and eggs. *Lipids* 37:1067–76.
- Inst. of Medicine. 2002. Dietary reference intakes for energy, carbohydrate, fiber, fat, fatty acids, cholesterol, protein, and amino acids (macronutrients). Washington, D.C.: Natl. Academy of Sciences.
- Inst. of Medicine. 2005. Dietary reference intakes for energy, carbohydrate, fiber, fat, fatty acids, cholesterol, protein, and amino acids (Macronutrients). Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- [IFST] Institute of Food Science and Technology. 2007. Dietary fiber. Public affairs and technical and legislative committees. London, U.K.: IFST. p 1–10.
- [ILSI Europe] Int'l. Life Sciences Inst. 1999. Scientific concepts of functional foods in Europe. Consensus document. *Br J Nutr* 81:S1–S27.
- Jackson KG, Gary RJ, Taylor GRJ, Clohessy AM, Christine M, Williams CM. 1999. The effect of the daily intake of inulin on fasting lipid, insulin and glucose concentrations in middle-aged men and women. *Brit J Nutr* 82(1):23–30.
- Jaime L, Molla E, Fernández A, Martín-Cabréjas M, López-Andreu F, Esteban R. 2002. Structural carbohydrates differences and potential source of dietary fiber of onion (*Allium cepa* L.) tissues. *J Agric Food Chem* 50:122–8.
- Jenkins DJA, Kendall CWC, Popovich DG, Vidgen E, Mehling CC, Vuksan V, Ransom TPP, Venket Rao A, Rosenberg-Zand R, Nauman Tariq N, Corey P, Jones PHJ, Raeini M, Story JA, Furumoto EJ, Illingworth DR, Pappu AS, Connelly PW. 2001. Effect of a very-high-fiber vegetable, fruit, and nut diet on serum lipids and colonic function. *Metabolism* 50(4):494–503.
- Jiménez-Escrig A, Rincón M, Pulido R, Saura-Calixto F. 2001. Guava fruit (*Psidium guajava* L.) as a new source of antioxidant dietary fiber. *J Agric Food Chem* 49: 5489–93.
- Johnson SK, McQuillan PL, Sin JH, Ball MJ. 2003. Sensory acceptability of white bread with added Australian sweet lupin (*Lupinus angustifolius*) kernel fibre and its glycaemic and insulinaemic responses when eaten as a breakfast. *J Sci Food Agric* 83(13):1366–72.
- Jones PJH. 2008. Dietary agents that target gastrointestinal and hepatic handling of bile acids and cholesterol. *J Clin Lipid* 2(2):4–10.
- Juvonen KR, Purhonen AK, Salmenkallio-Marttila M, Lähteenmäki L, Laaksonen DE, Herzig KH, Uusitupa MJ, Poutanen KS, Karhunen LJ. 2009. Viscosity of oat bran-enriched beverages influences gastrointestinal hormonal responses in healthy humans. *J Nutr* 139(3):461–6.
- Kabir M, Oppert JM, Vidal H, Buzzo F, Fiquet C, Wursch P, Slama G, Rizkalla SW. 2002. Four-week low-glycemic index breakfast with a modest amount of soluble fibers in type 2 diabetic men. *Metabolism* 51:819–26.
- Kahlon TS, Chow FL. 2000. *In vitro* binding of bile acids by rice bran, wheat bran, and corn bran. *Cereal Chem* 77:518–21.
- Kahlon TS, Smith GE. 2007. *In vitro* binding of bile acids by bananas, peaches, pineapple, grapes, pears, apricots and nectarines. *Food Chem* 101(3):1046–51.
- Kahlon TS, Chiu MCM, Chapman MH. 2007. Steam cooking significantly improves *in vitro* bile acid binding of beets, eggplant, asparagus, carrots, green beans, and cauliflower. *Nutr Res* 27(12):750–5.
- Kannel WB, Gordon T. 1974. The Framingham study: an epidemiologic investigation of disease. Bethesda, Md.: Natl. Inst. of Health. Section 28, DHEW. p 74–618.
- Karmally W, Montez MG, Palmas W, Martinez W, Bransteitter A, Ramakrishnan R, Holleran SF, Haffner SM, Ginsberg HN. 2005. Cholesterol-lowering benefits of oat-containing cereal in Hispanic Americans. *J Am Diet Assoc* 105(6):967–70.
- Katcher HI, Legro RS, Kunselman AR, Gillies PJ, Demers LM, Bagshaw DM, Kris-Etherton PM. 2008. The effects of a whole grain-enriched hypocaloric diet on cardiovascular disease risk factors in men and women with metabolic syndrome. *Am J Clin Nutr* 87:79–90.
- Keenan MJ, Zhou J, McCutcheon KL, Raggio AM, Bateman HG, Todd E, Jones CK, Tulley RT, Melton S, Martin RJ, Hegsted M. 2006. Effects of resistant starch, a non-digestible fermentable fiber, on reducing body fat. *Obesity* 14:1523–34.
- Kendall CW, Esfahani A, Jenkins DJA. 2009. The link between dietary fibre and human health. *Food Hydrocol* 24(1):42–8.
- Kerckhoff DAJM, Hornstra G, Mensink RP. 2003. Cholesterol-lowering effect of beta-glucan from oat bran in mildly hypercholesterolemic subjects may decrease when beta-glucan is incorporated into bread and cookies. *Am J Clin Nutr* 78(2):221–7.
- Keys A, Menotti A, Karvonen MJ, Aravanis C, Blackburn H, Buzina R, Djordjevic BS, Dontas AS, Fidanza J, Keys MH. 1986. The diet and 15-year death rate in the seven countries study. *Am J Epidemiol* 124(6):90–15.
- Khachik F, Spangler CJ, Smith, JC, Canfield LM, Steck A, Pfander H. 1997. Identification, quantification, and relative concentrations of carotenoids, and their metabolites in human milk and serum. *Anal Chem* 69:1873–81.
- Klinkesorn U, McClements DJ. 2009. Influence of chitosan on stability and lipase digestibility of lecithin-stabilized tuna oil-in-water emulsions. *Food Chem* 114(4):1308–15.
- Knopp RH, Superko HR, Davidson M, Insull W, Dujovne CA, Kwiterovich PO, Zavoral JH, Graham K, O'Connor RR, Edelman DA. 1999. Long-term blood cholesterol-lowering effects of a dietary fiber supplement. *Am J Prevent Med* 17(1):18–23.
- Koide SS. 1998. Chitin-chitosan: properties, benefits and risks. *Nutr Res* 118:1091–101.
- Kolanowski W, Swiderski F, Lis E, Berger S. 2001. Enrichment of spreadable fats with polyunsaturated fatty acids omega-3 using fish oil. *Int J Food Sci Nutr* 52:469–76.
- Kotcharian A, Kunzek H, Dongowski G. 2004. The influence of variety on the enzymatic degradation of carrots and on functional and physiological properties of the cell wall materials. *Food Chem* 87:231–45.
- Krinsky NI. 1998. The antioxidant and biological properties of carotenoids. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 854:443–7.
- Kris-Etherton PM, Harris WS, Appel LJ. 2002. Fish consumption, fish oil, omega-3 fatty acids, and cardiovascular disease. *Circulation* 106:2747–57.
- Kritchevsky SB. 1999. Beta-carotene, carotenoids and the prevention of coronary heart disease. *J Nutr* 129:5–8.
- Lairon D. 1990. Les fibres alimentaires. *La Recherche* 21:284–92.
- Lairon D, Play B, Jourdeuil-Rahmani D. 2007. Digestible and indigestible carbohydrates: interactions with postprandial lipid metabolism. *J Nutr Biochem* 18(4):217–27.
- Lambert N. 2001. Diet, phytochemicals and cancer. In: Freyer LJ, Schifferstein R, Risvik E, editors. *Food choice in Europe*. Munich, Germany: Springer Verlag. p 131–51.
- Lamuela-Raventos RM, Romero-Perez AI, Andres-Lacueva C, Tornero A. 2005. Review: health effects of cocoa flavonoids. *Food Sci Technol Int* 11(3):159–76.
- Lario Y, Sendra E, García-Pérez J, Fuentes C, Sayas-Barberá E, Fernández-López J, Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2004. Preparation of high dietary fiber powder from lemon juice by-products. *Inn Food Sci Emerg Technol* 5:113–7.
- Larrauri JA. 1999. New approaches in the preparation of high dietary fibre powders from fruit by-products. *Trends Food Sci Technol* 10:3–8.
- Lecumberri E, Mateos R, Izquierdo M, Rupérez P, Goya L, Bravo L. 2007. Dietary fibre composition, antioxidant capacity and physico-chemical properties of a fibre-rich product from cocoa (*Theobroma cacao* L.). *Food Chem* 104(3):948–54.
- Letexier D, Diraison F, Beylot M. 2003. Addition of inulin to a moderately high-carbohydrate diet reduces hepatic lipogenesis and plasma triacylglycerol concentrations in humans. *Am J Clin Nutr* 77:559–64.
- Lewis NM, Seburg S, Flanagan NL. 2000. Enriched eggs as a source of n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids for humans. *Poult Sci* 79:971–4.
- Liao FH, Shieh MJ, Chang NC, Chien YW. 2007. Chitosan supplementation lowers serum lipids and maintains normal calcium, magnesium, and iron status in hyperlipidemic patients. *Nutr Res* 27:146–51.
- Liu J, Zhang J, Xia W. 2008. Hypocholesterolaemic effects of different chitosan samples *in vitro* and *in vivo*. *Food Chem* 107:419–25.
- López AD, Mathers CD, Ezzati M, Jamison DT, Murray CJ. 2006. Global and regional burden of disease and risk factors, 2001: systematic analysis of population health data. *Lancet* 367:1747–57.
- López-Caballero ME, Gómez-Guillén MC, Pérez-Mateos M, Montero P. 2005. A functional chitosan-enriched fish sausage treated by high pressure. *J Food Sci* 70(3):166–71.
- López-Ferrer S, Baucells MD, Barroeta AC, Grashorn MA. 2001. n-3 enrichment of chicken meat. 1. Use of very long-chain fatty acids in chicken diets and their influence on meat quality: fish oil. *Poult Sci* 80:741–52.
- Lunn J, Buttriss JL. 2007. Carbohydrates and dietary fibre. *British Nutrition Foundation. Nutr Bull* 32:21–64.
- Mackay J, Mensah G. 2004. The atlas of heart disease and stroke. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.
- Majumdar P, Chanda S. 2001. Chemical profile of some lignocellulosic crop residues. *Indian J Agric Biochem* 14(1/2):29–33.
- Malik S, Wong ND, Franklin SS, Kamath TV, L'italien GJ, Pio JR. 2004. Impact of the metabolic syndrome on mortality from coronary heart disease, cardiovascular disease and all causes in United States adults. *Circulation* 110:1245–50.
- Mälki A. 2001. Physical properties of dietary fiber as keys to physiological functions. *Cereal Foods World* 46:196–9.

- Manios Y, Panagiotakos DB, Pitsavos C, Polychronopoulos E, Stefanadis C. 2005. Implication of socio-economic status on the prevalence of overweight and obesity in Greek adults: the ATTICA study. *Health Policy* 74:224–32.
- Marín FR, Martínez M, Uribe Salgo T, Castillo S, Frutos MJ. 2001. Changes in nutraceutical composition of lemon juices according to different industrial extraction systems. *Food Chem* 78:319–24.
- Martinez-Flores HE, Chang YK, Martinez-Bustos F, Sgarbierid V. 2004. Effect of high fiber products on blood lipids and lipoproteins in hamsters. *Nutr Res* 24(1):85–93.
- Martino F, Martíne E, Morrone F, Carnevali E, Forcone R, Niglio T. 2005. Effect of dietary supplementation with glucomannan on plasma total cholesterol and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in hypercholesterolemic children. *Nutr Met Card Dis* 15(3):174–80.
- Maurer AD, Chen Q, McPherson C, Reimer RA. 2009. Changes in satiety hormones and expression of genes involved in glucose and lipid metabolism in rats weaned onto diets high in fibre or protein reflect susceptibility to increased fat mass in adulthood. *J Physiol* 587(3):679–91.
- McCombie G, Browning LM, Titman CM, Song M, Shockcor J, Jebb SA, Griffin JL. 2009.  $\omega$ -3 oil intake during weight loss in obese women results in remodelling of plasma triglyceride and fatty acids. *Metabolomics*. In press. doi:10.1007/s11306-009-0161-7.
- Meng L, Maskarinec G, Lee J, Kolonel LN. 1994. Lifestyle factors and chronic diseases: application of a composite risk index. *Prev Med* 29(4):296–304.
- Mermelstein NH. 2009. Analyzing for resistant starch. *Food Technol* 63(4):80–4.
- Metcalf RG, James MJ, Mantzioris E, Cleland LG. 2003. A practical approach to increasing intakes of n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids: use of novel foods enriched with n-3 fats. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 57:1605–12.
- Mikušová L, Šturdík E, Mošovská S, Brindzová L, Mikulajová A. 2009. Development of new bakery products with high dietary fibre content and antioxidant activity for obesity prevention. In: Proceedings of 4th International Dietary Fibre Conference. Vienna, Austria: Int'l. Assoc. for Cereal Science and Technology, 185 p.
- Mirhosseini H, Tan CP, Aghlara A, Hamid NSA, Yusof S, Chern BH. 2008. Influence of pectin and CMC on physical stability, turbidity loss rate, cloudiness, flavor release of orange beverage emulsion during storage. *Carbohydr Polym* 73(1):83–91.
- Mirmiran P, Noori N, Zavareh MB, Azizi F. 2009. Fruit and vegetable consumption and risk factors for cardiovascular disease. *Metabolism* 58:460–8.
- Mohanty AK, Misra M, Hinrichsen G. 2000. Biofibres, biodegradable polymers and biocomposites: an overview. *Macromol Mater Eng* 276/277:1–24.
- Moller DE, Kaufman KD. 2005. Metabolic syndrome: a clinical and molecular perspective. *Annu Rev Med* 56:45–62.
- Mun S, Decker EA, McClements DJ. 2005. Influence of droplet characteristics on the formation of oil-in-water emulsions stabilized by surfactant-chitosan layers. *Langmuir* 21(14):6228–34.
- Mun S, Decker EA, Park Y, Weiss J, McClements DJ. 2006. Influence of interfacial composition on *in vitro* digestibility of emulsified lipids: potential mechanism for chitosan's ability to inhibit fat digestion. *Food Biophys* 1(1):21–9.
- Nagai T, Inoue R. 2004. Preparation and functional properties of water extract and alkaline extract of royal jelly. *Food Chem* 84:181–6.
- Nagengast FM, Grubben MJ, van Munster IP. 1995. Role of bile acids in colorectal carcinogenesis. *Eur J Cancer* 31(a):1067–70.
- Naska A, Fouskakis D, Oikonomou E, Almeida MDV, Berg MA, Gedrich K, Moreiras O, Nelson M, Trygg K, Turrini A, Remaut AM, Volatier JL, Trichopoulou A, DAFNE participants. 2006. Dietary patterns and their socio-demographic determinants in 10 European countries: data from the DAFNE databank. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 60(2):181–90.
- Naumann E, Van Rees AB, Önning G, Öste R, Wydra M, Mensink RP. 2006.  $\beta$ -Glucan incorporated into a fruit drink effectively lowers serum LDL-cholesterol concentrations. *Am J Clin Nutr* 83(3):601–5.
- Navarro-Núñez L, Castillo J, Lozano ML, Martinez C, Benavente-Garcia O, Vicente V, Rivera J. 2009. Thromboxane A<sub>2</sub> receptor antagonism by flavonoids: structure–activity relationships. *J Agric Food Chem* 57(4):1589–94.
- Nawirska A, Oszmianski J. 2001. Binding of metal ions by selected fractions of fruit pomace. *Zywosc Nauka Technologia Jakosc* 4(29):66–77.
- Nawirska A, Kwasniewska M. 2005. Dietary fibre fractions from fruit and vegetable processing waste. *Food Chem* 91:221–5.
- Nazni P, Vijayakumar TP, Alagianambi P, Amirthaveni M. 2006. Hypoglycemic and hypolipidemic effect of *Cynara scolymus* among selected type 2 diabetic individuals. *Pakistan J Nutr* 5(2):147–51.
- Nelson AL. 2001. High-fiber properties and analyses. High-fiber ingredients. St. Paul, Minn.: American Assoc. of Cereal Chemists, p 29–44.
- Nestle M. 2002. Inventing technofoods. In: Nestle M, editor. How the food Industry influences nutrition and health. Berkeley, Calif.: Univ. of California Press. p 295–357.
- No HK, Meyers SP, Prinyawiwatkul W, Xu Z. 2007. Applications of chitosan for improvement of quality and shelf life of foods: a review. *J Food Sci* 72:87–100.
- Norata GD, Marchesi P, Passamonti S, Pirillo A, Violà F, Catapano AL. 2007. Anti-inflammatory and anti-atherogenic effects of cathechin, caffeic acid and trans-resveratrol in apolipoprotein E-deficient mice. *Atherosclerosis* 191:265–71.
- Ozturk S, Ozboy-Ozbaz O, Javidpour I, Koksell H. 2008. Utilization of sugarbeet fiber and zero-trans-esterified and non-esterified shortenings in cookie production. *Sugar Ind* 133(11):704–9.
- Panagiotakos D, Lionis C, Anastasiou F, Zeimbekis A, Lioliou E, Tsiligianni I, Papoutsou S, Vlysmas K, Metallinos G, Polychronopoulos E. 2008. Prevalence of risk factors for cardiovascular disease by socio-economic status among the elderly from Mediterranean islands: the MEDIS study. *CVD Preven Control* 3:153–62.
- Park EJ, Jhon DY. 2009. Effects of bamboo shoot consumption on lipid profiles and bowel function in healthy young women. *Nutr* 25:723–8.
- Parr AJ, Bolwell GP. 2000. Phenols in the plant and in man. The potential for possible nutritional enhancement of the diet by modifying the phenols content or profile. *J Sci Food Agric* 80:985–1012.
- Paster M, Pellegrino JL, Carole TM. 2003. Industrial bioproducts: today and tomorrow. Report prepared for the US Dept. of Energy, Washington, D.C.
- Pearson TA, Blair SN, Daniels SR, Eckel RH, Fair JM, Fortmann SP, Franklin BA, Goldstein LB, Greenland P, Grundy SM, Hong Y, Miller NH, Lauer RM, Ockene IS, Sacco RL, Sallis JF Jr, Smith SC, Stone NJ, Taubert KA. 2002. AHA guidelines for primary prevention of cardiovascular disease and stroke: 2002 update: consensus panel guide to comprehensive risk reduction for adult patients without coronary or atherosclerotic vascular diseases. *Circulation* 106:388–91.
- Pereira MA, Ludwig DS. 2001. Dietary fiber and body weight regulation: observations and mechanisms. *Pediatr Clin Nor Am* 48:969–80.
- Perez-Alvarez JA, Aleson-Carbonell L. 2003. Origen y aspectos genéticos de la dieta mediterránea. In: Perez-Alvarez JA, Fernández-López J, Sayas-Barberá E, editors. *Alimentos funcionales y dieta Mediterránea*. Orihuela, Spain: Univ. Miguel Hernández, p 1–25.
- Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2008a. Los alimentos del bienestar: alimentación del siglo XXI. *IAimentos* 3:54.
- Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2008b. Overview of meat products as functional foods. In: Fernández-López J, Pérez-Alvarez JA, editors. *Technological strategies for functional meat products development*. Kerala, India: Transworld Research Network, p 1–17.
- Pettman TL, Misra GMH, Owen K, Warren K, Coates AM, Buckley JD, Howe PR. 2008. Self-management for obesity and cardio-metabolic fitness: description and evaluation of the lifestyle modification program of a randomised controlled trial. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 5:53. Available from: <http://www.ijbnpa.org/content/5/1/53>.
- Piccoli da Silva L, Santorio-Cioccia M. 2005. Total, insoluble and soluble dietary fibre values measured by enzymatic-gravimetric method in cereal grains. *J Food Comp Anal* 18:113–20.
- Poli A, Marangoni F, Paoletti R, Mannarino E, Lupattelli G, Notarbartolo A, Aureli P, Bernini F, Cicero A, Gaddi A, Catapano A, Crivelli C, Gattone M, Marrocco W, Porri M, Stella R, Vanotti A, Volpe M, Volpi R, Cannella C, Pinto A, Del Toma E, La Vecchia C, Tavani A, Manzato E, Riccardi G, Sirtori C, Zambon A. 2008. Non-pharmacological control of plasma cholesterol levels. *Nutr Met Card Dis* 18:1–16.
- Pomeroy S, Tupper R, Cehun-Aders M, Nestel P. 2001. Oat beta-glucan lowers total and LDL-cholesterol. *Aust J Nutr Diet* 58:51–5.
- Potter JD. 1999. Colorectal cancer: molecules and populations. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 91:916–32.
- Pronczuk A, Hayes KC. 2006. Hypocholesterolemic effect of dietary polydextrose in gerbils and humans. *Nutr Res* 26:27–31.
- Prosksy L. 2001. What is dietary fiber? A new look at the definition. In: McCleary BV, Prosksy L, editors. *Advanced dietary fiber technology*. Oxford: Blackwell Science Ltd, p 63–76.
- Psaltopoulou T, Naska A, Orfanos P, Trichopoulou D, Mountokalakis T, Trichopoulou A. 2004. Olive oil, the Mediterranean diet, and arterial blood pressure: the Greek European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 80(4):1012–8.
- Ragaee SM, Campbell GL, Scoles GJ, McLeod JG, Tyler RT. 2001. Studies on rye (*Secale cereale* L.) lines exhibiting a range of extract viscosities. 1. Composition, molecular weight distribution of water extracts, and biochemical characteristics of purified water-extractable arabinoxylan. *J Agric Food Chem* 49:2437–45.
- Reboul E, Thap S, Tournaire F, Andre M, Juvel C, Morange S, Amiot MJ, Lairon D, Borel P. 2007. Differential effect of dietary antioxidant classes (carotenoids, polyphenols, vitamins C and E) on lutein absorption. *Br J Nutr* 97(3):440–6.
- Reddy N, Yang Y. 2005. Biofibers from agricultural byproducts for industrial applications. *Trends Biotechnol* 23(1):22–7.
- Ribayamercado JD, Solon SF, Tang G, Cabal-Borza M, Perfecto SC, Russel RM. 2000. Bion-conversion of plant carotenoids to vit-A in Filipino school-aged children varies inversely with vit-A status. *Am J Clin Nutr* 72:455–65.
- Ridlon JM, Kang DJ, Hylenom PB. 2006. Bile salt biotransformations by human intestinal bacteria. *J Lipid Res* 47:241–59.
- Rodríguez R, Jiménez A, Fernández-Bolaños J, Guillen R, Heredia A. 2006. Dietary fibre from vegetable products as source of functional ingredients. *Trends Food Sci Technol* 17:3–15.
- Rodríguez MS, Montero M, Staffolo MD, Martino M, Bevilacqua A, Albertengo L. 2008. Chitosan influence on glucose and calcium availability from yogurt: *in vitro* comparative study with plants fibre. *Carbohydr Polym* 74(4):797–801.
- Rosell CM, Santos E, Collar C. 2009. Physico-chemical properties of commercial fibres from different sources: a comparative approach. *Food Res Int* 42(1):176–84.
- Rowell RM, Young RA, Rowell J. 1997. In paper and composites from agro-based resources. Boca Raton, Fla.: CRC Press, p 7–427.
- Russo A, Acquaviva R, Campisi A, Sorrenti V, Di-Giacomo C, Virgata G, Barcellona ML, Vanilla A. 2000. Bioflavonoids as antiradicals, antioxidants and DNA cleavage protectors. *Cell Biol Toxicol* 16(2):91–8.
- Russo F, Chimienti G, Riezzo G, Pepe G, Petrosillo G, Chiloiro M, Marconi E. 2008. Inulin-enriched pasta affects lipid profile and Lp(a) concentrations in Italian young healthy male volunteers. *European J Nutr* 47(8):453–9.
- Sabanis D, Lebesi D, Tzia C. 2009. Effect of dietary fibre enrichment on selected properties of gluten-free bread. *Food Sci Technol* 42(8):1380–9.
- Salem AS, Gafour WA, Eassawy EAY. 2006. Probiotic milk beverage fortified with antioxidants as functional ingredients. *Egyptian J Dairy Sci* 34(1):23–32.
- Salem MME, Abd-El-Gawad MAM, Hassan FAM, Effat BA. 2007. Use of symbiotics for production of functional low-fat labneh. *Polish J Food Nutr Sci* 57(2):151–9.
- Sampedro F, Rodrigo D, Hendrickx M. 2008. Inactivation kinetics of pectin methyl esterase under combined thermal-high pressure treatment in an orange juice-milk beverage. *J Food Eng* 86(1):133–9.
- Sánchez-Alonso I, Hajji-Maleki R, Borderias AJ. 2007. Wheat fiber as a functional ingredient in restructured fish products. *Food Chem* 100(3):1037–43.
- Sánchez-Alonso I, Jiménez-Escríg A, Saura-Calixto F, Borderias AJ. 2008. Antioxidant protection of white grape pomace on restructured fish products during frozen storage. *LWT Food Sci Technol* 41(1):42–50.
- Sánchez-Zapata E, Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2008. El aceite de oliva un alimento funcional. *Alimentación Equipos y Tecnología* 23:32–5.
- Sánchez-Zapata E, Fernández-López J, Sendra E, Sayas-Barberá ME, Navarro C, Viuda-Martos M, Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2008. Effect of orange fibre on the colour and heme iron content of “pate” elaborated with dark muscle (“Sangacho”) of bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*). In: *Proceedings of Intl. Functional Foods Conference*. Porto, Portugal: EULAFF/CYTED, 80 p.
- Sánchez-Zapata E, Fuentes-Zaragoza E, Fernández-López J, Sendra-Nadal E, Sayas-Barberá E, Navarro-Rodríguez de Vera C, Pérez-Alvarez JA. 2009. Tiger nuts (*Cyperus esculentus*) milk (“Horchata”) by-products as a potential fibre source. In: *Proceedings of 4th Intl. Dietary Fibre Conference*. Vienna, Austria: Int'l. Assoc. for Cereal Science and Technology, 219 p.

- Sangnark A, Noomhorm A. 2003. Effect of particle sizes on functional properties of dietary fibre prepared from sugarcane bagasse. *Food Chem* 80:221–9.
- Sanz T, Salvador A, Jimenez A, Fiszman SM. 2008. Yogurt enrichment with functional asparagus fibre. Effect of fibre extraction method on rheological properties, colour, and sensory acceptance. *Eur Food Res Technol* 227(5):1515–21.
- Sarkar S. 2007. Functional foods as self-care and complementary medicine. *Nutr Food Sci* 37(3):160–7.
- Saura-Calixto F, Larrauri JA. 1996. Nuevos Tipos de Fibra Dietética de Alta Calidad. Alimentación Equipo y Tecnología 1:71–4.
- Saura-Calixto F, Goñi I. 2005. Alimentos funcionales: fibra dietética y antioxidantes de la dieta española. *Alimentación Nutrición y Salud* 12(4):132–49.
- Saura-Calixto F, Goñi I. 2009. Definition of the Mediterranean diet based on bioactive compounds. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 49:145–52.
- Schaafsma G, Meulding WJA, van Dokkum W, Bouley C. 1998. Effects of a milk product, fermented by *Lactobacillus acidophilus* and with fructo-oligosaccharides added, on blood lipids in male volunteers. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 52(6):436–40.
- Schulze MB, Liu S, Rimm EB, Manson JE, Willett WC, Hu FB. 2004. Glycemic index, glycemic load, and dietary fiber intake and incidence of type 2 diabetes in younger and middle-aged women. *Am J Clin Nutr* 80:348–56.
- Schwiggert U, Cornfine P, Eisner P, Hasenkopf K. 2009. Investigation on the bile acid binding mechanisms of lupine dietary fibres. In: Proceedings of 4th Intl. Dietary Fibre Conference. Vienna, Austria: Intl. Assoc. for Cereal Science and Technology. 55 p.
- Sebti I, Martial-Gros A, Carnet-Pantiez A, Grelier S, Coma V. 2005. Chitosan polymer as bioactive coating and film against *Aspergillus niger* contamination. *J Food Sci* 72:100–4.
- Selvendran RR, Robertson JA. 1994. Dietary fibre in foods: amount and type. In: Amado R, Barry JL, editors. COST-92 Metabolic and physiological aspects of dietary fibre in food. Luxembourg: Commission of the European Communities. p 11–20.
- Sendra E, Fayos P, Lario Y, Fernandez-Lopez J, Sayas-Barbera E, Perez-Alvarez JA. 2008. Incorporation of citrus fibers in fermented milk containing probiotic bacteria. *Food Microbiol* 25(1):13–21.
- Sharma A, Yadav BS, Ritika B. 2008. Resistant starch: physiological roles and food applications. *Food Rev Int* 24:193–234.
- Slavin J. 2003. Why whole grains are protective: biological mechanisms. *Proc Nutr Soc* 62:129–34.
- Slavin J, Stewart M, Timm D, Hospattankar A. 2009. Fermentation patterns and short-chain fatty acid (scfa) profiles of wheat dextrin and other functional fibers. In: Proceedings of 4th Intl. Dietary Fibre Conference. Vienna, Austria: Intl. Assoc. for Cereal Science and Technology. 355 p.
- Sloan AE. 2008. The top ten functional food trends. Available from: [www.ift.org](http://www.ift.org). Accessed Apr 2008. p 24–44.
- Spiller GA, Spiller M. 2001. Correlations of transit time to a critical fecal weight (CFW) and to substances associated with dietary fiber. In: Spiller GA, editor. CRC handbook of dietary fiber in human nutrition. Boca Raton, Fla.: CRC Press. p 253–6.
- Staffolo DM, Bertola N, Martino M, Bevilacqua A. 2004. Influence of dietary fiber addition on sensory and rheological properties of yogurt. *Int Dairy J* 14(3):263–8.
- Stear CA. 1990. Formulation and processing techniques for specialty-bread. In: Stear CA, editor. Handbook of breadmaking technology. London: Elsevier Science.
- Street DA, Comstoch GW, Salkeld RM, Schuep W, Klug MJ. 1994. Serum antioxidants and myocardial infarction. Are low levels of carotenoids and alpha-tocopherol risk factors for myocardial infarction? *Circulation* 90:1154–61.
- Sudo H, Tanaka T, Tabei T, Takeuchi A, Okita M, Kishimoto T, Kasayama S, Higashino K. 2002. A mixed green vegetable and fruit beverage decreased the serum level of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in hypercholesterolemic patients. *J Agric Food Chem* 50(11):3346–50.
- Svilaa S, Sakhi AK, Andersen LF, Svilaa S, Strom EC, Jacobs DR, Ose L, Blomhoff R. 2004. Intakes of antioxidants in coffee, wine, and vegetables are correlated with plasma carotenoids in humans. *J Nutr* 134(3):562–7.
- Tapsell LC. 2004. Diet and metabolic syndrome: where does resistant starch fit in? *J Assoc Anal Chem Int* 87(3):756–60.
- Tharanathan RN. 2002. Food-derived carbohydrates: structural complexity and functional diversity. *Critical Rev Biotechnol* 22(1):65–84.
- Tharanathan RN, Mahadevamma S. 2003. Grain legumes: a boon to human nutrition. *Trends Food Sci Technol* 14:507–18.
- Thebaudin JY, Lefebvre AC, Harrington M, Bourgeois CM. 1997. Dietary fibres: nutritional and technological interest. *Trends Food Sci Technol* 8:41–8.
- Theuwissen E, Mensink RP. 2008. Water-soluble dietary fibers and cardiovascular disease. *Phys Behav* 94:285–92.
- Thoma-Worringer C, Sorensen J, Lopez-Fandino R. 2006. Health effects and technological features of caseinomacopeptide. *Int Dairy J* 16(11):1324–33.
- Thongngam M, McClements JD. 2005. Isothermal titration calorimetry study of the interactions between chitosan and a bile salt (soybean taurocholate). *Food Hydrocolloid* 19(5):813–9.
- Topping DL, Oakenfull D, Trimble RP, Illman RJ. 1988. A viscous fibre (methylcellulose) lowers blood glucose and plasma triacylglycerols and increases liver glycogen independently of volatile fatty acid production in the rat. *Brit J Nutr* 59:21–30.
- Topping DL, Bajka BH, Bird AR, Clarke JM, Cobiac L, Conlon MA, Morell MK, Todden S. 2008. Resistant starches as a vehicle for delivering health benefits to the human large bowel. *Micronutr Ecol Health Dis* 20(2):103–8.
- Trautwein EA, Rieckhoff D, Erbersdobler HF. 1998. Dietary inulin lowers plasma cholesterol and triacylglycerol and alters biliary bile acid profile in hamsters. *J Nutr* 128:1937–43.
- Trichopoulou A, Costacou T, Bamia C, Trichopoulos D. 2003. Adherence to a Mediterranean diet and survival in a Greek population. *Engl J Med* 348:2599–608.
- Trinidad TP, Mallillin AC, Valdez DH, Loyola AS, Askali-Mercado FC, Castillo JC, Encabo RR, Masa DB, Maglaya AS, Chua MT. 2006. Dietary fiber from coconut flour: a functional food. *Inn Food Sci Emerg Technol* 7(4):302–17.
- Tripoli E, La Guardia M, Giannanco S, Di Majo D, Giannanco M. 2007. Citrus flavonoids: molecular structure, biological activity and nutritional properties: a review. *Food Chem* 104:466–79.
- Trowell H, Southgate DAT, Wolever TMS, Leeds AR, Gassull MA, Jenkins DJA. 1976. Dietary fiber redefined. *Lancet* 1:967.
- Ubando J, Navarro A, Valdivia MA. 2005. Mexican lime peel: comparative study on contents of dietary fibre and associated antioxidant activity. *Food Chem* 89:57–61.
- [USFDA] U.S Food and Drug Administration. 2007. Summary of all GRAS notices. Available from: <http://www.cfsan.fda.gov/fdb/opa-gras.html>. Accessed Jul 8, 2009.
- Uysal H, Bilgili N, Elgun A, Ibanoglu S, Herken EN, Demir MK. 2007. Effect of dietary fibre and xylanase enzyme addition on the selected properties of wire-cut cookies. *J Food Eng* 78(3):1074–8.
- Varga J, Szegedi T, Gyenis B. 2006. Influence of chicory inulin on the survival of microbiota of a probiotic fermented milk during refrigerated storage. *Ann Microbiol* 56(2):139–41.
- Vahouny GV, Kritchevsky D. 1986. Dietary fiber-basic and clinical aspects. New York: Plenum Press.
- Vergara-Valencia N, Granados-Pérez E, Agama-Acevedo E, Tovar J, Ruales J, Bello-Pérez LA. 2007. Fibre concentrate from mango fruit: characterization, associated antioxidant capacity and application as a bakery product ingredient. *LWT Food Sci Technol* 40(4):722–9.
- Vissers MN, Zock PL, Katan MB. 2004. Bioavailability and antioxidant effects of olive oil phenols in humans: a review. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 58:955–65.
- Viuda-Martos M, Baeza-Rodríguez MC, Sayas-Barbera E, Sendra E, Fernández-López J, Pérez-Álvarez JA. 2008. Efecto de la adición de fibra de naranja y aceites esencial de orégano sobre las características físicas, químicas, fisicoquímicas y sensoriales de un embutido modelo de pasta fina. *Europcarne* 166:79–90.
- Viuda-Martos M, Ruiz-Navajas Y, Fernández-López J, Pérez-Álvarez JA. 2009. Spices as functional foods: a review. *Critical Rev Food Sci Nutr*. In press.
- Volikakis P, Biliaderis CG, Vamvakas C, Zerfiridis GK. 2004. Effects of a commercial oat beta-glucan concentrate on the chemical, physico-chemical and sensory attributes of a low-fat, white-brined cheese product. *Food Res Int* 37(1):83–94.
- Vural H, Issa I, Ozbas OO. 2004. Effects of interesterified vegetable oils and sugar beet fiber on the quality of frankfurters. *Meat Sci* 67(1):65–72.
- Wakabayashi I. 2009. Impact of body weight on the relationship between alcohol intake and blood pressure. *Alcohol Alcohol* 44(2):204–10.
- Wang J, Rosell CC, Benedito de Barber C. 2002. Effect of the addition of different fibres on wheat dough performance and bread quality. *Food Chem* 79:221–6.
- Watkins PJ. 2003. ABC of diabetes: cardiovascular disease, hypertension and lipids. *Brit Med J* 326:874–6.
- Watzl B, Bub A, Briviba K, Reckemmer G. 2002. Acute intake of moderate amounts of red wine or alcohol has no effect on the immune system of healthy men. *Eur J Nutr* 41(6):264–70.
- Wieringa NF, Van Der Windt HJ, Zuiker RRM, Dijkhuizen L, Verkerk MA, Vonk RJ, Swart JAA. 2008. Positioning functional foods in an ecological approach to the prevention of overweight and obesity. *Obesity Rev* 9:464–73.
- WHO Study Group. 1990. Diet, nutrition and the prevention of chronic diseases. In: Technical report series, Vol. 797. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.
- [CNFSDU] WHO/FAO. Codex Alimentarius Commission. 2008. 30th Session. Available from: <http://www.codexalimentarius.net/web/archives.jsp?year=2009>. ALINORM 09/32/26. Para 27–54 and page 46. Accessed Jun 2009.
- WHO. 2009a. Cardiovascular disease. Available from: [http://www.who.int/cardiovascular\\_diseases/en/](http://www.who.int/cardiovascular_diseases/en/). Accessed Sept 2009.
- WHO. 2009b. Cardiovascular disease: prevention and control. Available from: <http://www.who.int/dietphysicalactivity/publications/facts/cvd/en/>. Accessed Sept 2009.
- Willför S, Pranovich A, Tamminen T, Puls J, Laine C, Suurnäkki A, Saake B, Utilla K, Simolin H, Hemming J, Holmbo KB. 2009. Carbohydrate analysis of plant materials with uronic acid-containing polysaccharides: a comparison between different hydrolysis and subsequent chromatographic analytical techniques. *Ind Crops Prod* 29:571–80.
- Wolfs M, Jong N, Ocke MC, Verhagen H, Verschuren WMM. 2006. Effectiveness of customary use of phytosterol-stanol enriched margarines on blood cholesterol lowering. *Food Chem Toxicol* 44(10):1682–8.
- Wood PJ. 2007. Cereal b-gulcans in diet and health. *J Cereal Sci* 46:230–8.
- Wursch P, Pi-Sunyer X. 1997. The role of viscous soluble fiber in the metabolic control of diabetes. *Diabet Care* 20:1774–80.
- Yadav MP, Johnston DB, Hicks KB. 2009. Corn fiber gum: new structure/function relationships for this potential beverage flavor stabilizer. *Food Hydrocolloid* 23(6):1488–93.
- Yep YL, Li D, Mann NJ, Bode O, Sinclair AJ. 2002. Bread enriched with microencapsulated tuna oil increases plasma docosahexaenoic acid and total omega-3 fatty acids in humans. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr* 11:285–91.
- Yilmaz I, Daghoglu O. 2003. The effect of replacing fat with oat bran on fatty acid composition and physicochemical properties of meatballs. *Meat Sci* 65(2):819–23.
- Ylitalo R, Lehtinen S, Wuolijoki E, Yliato P, Lehtimaki T. 2002. Cholesterol-lowering properties and safety of chitosan. *Arzneimitt Forsch Drug Res* 52(1):1–7.
- You KM, Jong HG, Kim HP. 1999. Inhibition of cyclooxygenase lipoxygenase from human platelets by polyhydroxylated/methoxylated flavonoids isolated from medicinal plants. *Arch Pharm Res* 22(1):18–24.
- Young AJ, Lowe GM. 2001. Antioxidant and prooxidant properties of carotenoids. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 385(1):20–7.
- Yusuf S, Haweles S, Ounpuu S, Dans T, Avezum A, Lanas F, McQueen M, Budaj A, Pais P, Varigos J, Lisheng L. 2004. Effect of potentially modifiable risk factors associated with myocardial infarction in 52 countries (the INTERHEART study): case-control study. *Lancet* 364:937–52.
- Zhang J, Liu J, Li L, Xia W. 2008. Dietary chitosan improves hypercholesterolemia in rats fed high-fat diets. *Nutr Res* 28:383–90.
- Zunft H-J, Luder W, Harde A, Haber B, Graubaum HJ, Koebnick C, Grunwald J. 2003. Carob pulp preparation rich in insoluble fibre lowers total and LDL cholesterol in hypercholesterolemic patients. *Eur J Nutr* 42(5):235–42.



**Título** Properties of dietary fibers from agroindustrial coproducts as source for fiber-enriched foods.

**Autores:** María Cruz López-Marcos, Claudia Bailina-Perez, Manuel Viuda-Martos, José A. Pérez-Álvarez, Juana Fernández-López

**Revista:** Food and Bioprocess Technology, 8, 2400-2408

**Año:** 2015



# Properties of Dietary Fibers from Agroindustrial Coproducts as Source for Fiber-Enriched Foods

Mari Cruz López-Marcos<sup>1</sup> · Claudia Bailina<sup>1</sup> · Manuel Viuda-Martos<sup>1</sup> ·  
José Angel Pérez-Alvarez<sup>1</sup> · Juana Fernández-López<sup>1</sup>

Received: 29 April 2015 / Accepted: 1 September 2015 / Published online: 9 September 2015  
© Springer Science+Business Media New York 2015

**Abstract** The importance of food fibers has led to the development of a large and potential market for fiber-enriched foods, and nowadays, there is an ongoing interest to find new sources of dietary fiber (DF), such as agroindustrial coproducts which have traditionally been undervalued. The aim of the article was to evaluate the suitability of five sources of DF to develop fiber-enriched foods. Proximate analysis and physicochemical, technological, and physiological properties (including cholesterol absorption capacity) of these DF sources were determined and compared. Not only proximate composition but also physicochemical and techno-functional properties of DF samples depend on the composition of the raw material (pomegranate, citrus, tiger nuts...), the industrial source, and the coproducts processing into DF extracts. Total dietary fiber content and the ratio insoluble/soluble dietary fiber determine the values obtained for these properties. However, cholesterol adsorption capacity seems to be influenced for other components linked to dietary fiber. Extracts rich in DF obtained from agroindustrial coproducts can be used as functional ingredients. The characterization of these extracts is very important to decide in which type of foods these fibers could be added without causing adverse changes in the food matrix. Pomegranate dietary fiber shows promising results principally about their cholesterol adsorption capacity which must be investigated in *in vitro* digestion process.

**Keywords** Dietary fiber · Agroindustrial coproducts · Functional properties · Pomegranate · Citrus · Tiger nuts

## Introduction

Recent years have seen increased interest on the part of consumers, researchers, and the food industry into how food products can help maintain the health of the organism, while the role that diet plays in the prevention and treatment of many illnesses has become widely accepted (Niba 2012; Viuda-Martos et al. 2012). Consumers by and large understand that fiber is a critical dietary component. In the 2012 International Food Information Council survey (IFIC 2012), fiber ranked third, just behind caloric content and whole grains, among key components to take into consideration in making purchase decisions about buying packaged foods or beverages. Fiber, in fact, ranked higher than other nutrients associated with health, like protein and calcium. Consumers rank fiber among the top 10 functional foods, as they increasingly associate fiber with various health benefits (Niba 2012).

Dietary fiber (DF) is an important component of human diet. It is now accepted that DF may interact physiologically to provide numerous health benefits that go far beyond supporting bowel regularity. These benefits may include not only digestive health but also weight management, cardiovascular health, and also general wellness. Indeed hyperlipidemia, and hypercholesterolemia effects, diets naturally high in dietary fiber, can be considered to bring about four main physiological consequences: (i) improvements in gastrointestinal health, (ii) improvements in glucose tolerance and the insulin response, (iii) reduction in the risk of developing some cancers, and (iv) lipid digestion and hence some degree of weight management (Lunn and Buttriss 2007; Viuda-Martos et al. 2012). The insoluble fraction of the fiber (IDF) seems to

✉ Juana Fernández-López  
j.fernandez@umh.es

<sup>1</sup> IPOA Research Group (UMH-1 and REVIV-Generalitat Valenciana), AgroFood Technology Department, Escuela Politécnica Superior de Orihuela, Miguel Hernández University, Ctra. Beniel Km 3,2. E-03312, Orihuela, Alicante, Spain

be related to the intestinal regulation, whereas the soluble fiber (SDF) is associated to the decrease of cholesterol levels and the adsorption of intestinal glucose (Kendall et al. 2009).

The importance of food fibers on health has led to the development of a large and potential market for fiber-rich foods and ingredients. Over the past few years, innovations in fiber ingredients and product development have vastly broadened the scope of fiber products, from traditional low-moisture product categories like breads and cereals, to include previously uncharted categories in the world of fiber such as dairy or meat products and beverages (Lebesi and Tzia 2011; IFIC 2012).

So, there is a trend to find new sources of dietary fiber that can be used as ingredients in the food industry (Chau and Huang 2003). One of these sources is the agronomic and agroindustrial coproducts, which have traditionally been undervalued. The residual substances that remain after isolating the main component of the total product are abundant and represent an inexpensive material that has been undervalued until now, being only used as a combustible or fertilizer (Fernández-López et al. 2004; Rodríguez et al. 2006; Sánchez-Zapata et al. 2009; Galanakis 2012; Sun-Waterhouse et al. 2013). There is an increasing interest in recovering that material, which may be used among other uses, as sources of DF destined to supplement low-in-fiber food products (Alesón-Carbonell et al. 2003, 2005; Fernández-Ginés et al. 2003; Sendra et al. 2008; Sánchez-Zapata et al. 2013). Coproducts obtained from fruit juice extraction (citrus fruits, pomegranate, etc) or from tiger nuts “horchata” (beverage) can be used for recovering different high-added value compounds like antioxidants and dietary fibers (Galanakis 2012). Only after getting a better knowledge about the subject will it be possible to produce new food systems that consider the precise functionality of DF from both technological and physiological points of view (Guillon and Champ 2000). Therefore, in the present study, coproducts from lemon, grapefruit, and pomegranate juice extraction; from lemon ice cream production; and from tiger nuts “horchata” elaboration process were selected as DF sources and their characteristics (proximate analysis and physicochemical, technological, and physiological properties) were evaluated and compared.

## Materials and Methods

### Dietary Fiber Samples

DF from different agroindustrial coproducts was obtained. Lemon dietary fiber (LDF), grapefruit dietary fiber (GDF), and pomegranate dietary fiber (PDF) was obtained from lemon (*Citrus lemon*), grapefruit (*Citrus paradisi*), and pomegranate (*Punica granatum*) juice industry coproducts, respectively. Lemon albedo dietary fiber (LADF) was obtained from

lemon ice cream industry coproducts. Tiger nut dietary fiber (TNDF) was obtained from tiger nut (*Cyperus esculentus*) milk elaboration process coproducts. The preparation of DF from these agroindustrial coproducts has already been reported by IPOA Research Group (Alesón-Carbonell et al. 2003; Fernández-Ginés et al. 2003; Sánchez-Zapata et al. 2009; Viuda-Martos et al. 2012). The milled DF source powders were transferred to airtight plastic bags and stored in a desiccator at room temperature prior to parameter determination. Figure 1 shows all DF tested samples.

### Proximate Analysis

Moisture, ash, protein, and fat content were determined by AOAC methods (AOAC 1997). Moisture (g water kg<sup>-1</sup> sample) was determined by drying a 3-g sample at 105 °C to constant weight. Ashing was performed on a 2–3-g sample after combustion in a muffle furnace at 550 °C for 8 h (g ash kg<sup>-1</sup> sample). Protein (g protein kg<sup>-1</sup> sample) was analyzed according to the Kjeldahl method, using a factor of 6.25 for the conversion of nitrogen to crude protein. Fat (g fat kg<sup>-1</sup> sample) was calculated by weight loss by extraction for 8 h with petroleum ether in a Soxhlet apparatus. Total (TDF) and insoluble (IDF) dietary fibers were determined following the enzymatic-gravimetric method 985.29 (AOAC 1997). Soluble dietary fiber (SDF) was calculated by subtracting the IDF proportion from TDF. Sugar content was calculated by subtracting the total percent values of other measurements from 100. All analyses were carried out in triplicate.

### Physicochemical Properties

The pH value was determined in a suspension resulting from blending a 0.5-g sample with 50 mL deionized water for 2 min using a calibrated pH meter (Mod. pH/Ion 510, Eutech Instruments Pte Ltd., Singapore).

The color parameters of DF samples were determined using a spectrophotometer Minolta (CM-2600d, Minolta Camera Co. Osaka, Japan). The CIELAB color space was selected with D65 as illuminant and an observer angle of 10°. Low reflectance glass (Minolta CR-A51/1829-752) was placed between the samples and the equipment. The CIELAB coordinates studied were as follows: lightness (L\*), coordinate red/green (a\*), and coordinate yellow/blue (b\*).

### Techno-functional Properties

The water-holding capacity (WHC) of DF samples was measured by the modified centrifugation methods described by Robertson et al. (2000). In brief, 10 mL of ultrapure water was added into a centrifuge tube containing 300 mg of DF samples. Subsequently, the centrifuge tubes were stored at 25 °C for 18 h. After centrifuged (3000 rpm, 20 min at

**Fig. 1** Dietary fibers obtained from agroindustrial coproducts



25 °C) (Nahita Model 2690, Alicante, España), the supernatant was discarded and the pellet was weighed. The WHC of each sample was expressed as the weight of water held by 1 g of corresponding DF samples.

The swelling capacity (SC) of DF samples was measured based on the method of Gómez-Ordoñez et al. (2010). Briefly, DF samples (500 mg) were weighed in a 10-mL measuring tube (0.1 mL graduations; the volume occupied by DF sample was measured) and 5 mL ultrapure water was added. Then, it was stirred gently to eliminate trapped air bubbles and left on a level surface at room temperature for 24 h to allow sample to settle. The volume (mL) occupied by the hydrated DF samples was measured, and SC was expressed as milliliters per gram of corresponding DF samples.

The oil-holding capacity (OHC) of DF samples was measured by the modified centrifugation methods described by Robertson et al. (2000). In brief, 5 g of sunflower oil was added into a centrifuge tube containing 160 mg of DF samples. Subsequently, the centrifuge tubes were stored at 25 °C for 18 h. After centrifuged (3000 rpm, 20 min at 25 °C) (Nahita Model 2690, Alicante, España), the supernatant was discarded and the pellet was weighed. The OHC of each sample was expressed as the weight of oil held by 1 g of corresponding DF samples.

The emulsifying activity (EA) and emulsion stability (ES) of the DF samples were determined according to Chau and Huang (2003) method. Briefly, 1 g of each DF samples was weighed into a 150-mL flask. Then, 50 mL of ultrapure water was added and mixture was homogenized at 8000 rpm for 2 min (IKA-Ultra-Turrax T25, Germany) to obtain an aqueous fiber suspension. Fifty milliliters of sunflower oil was then added into the slurry and further homogenized at 8000 rpm

for 1 min. An aliquot (25 mL) of the emulsion formed was transferred into graduated centrifuged tubes (1500 rpm, 25 °C, 5 min). The EA was calculated from the ratio of the depth of the emulsified layer to the depth of the total volume of content inside the centrifuge tube (as a percentage). For determining ES, the emulsion formed was further heated in a 80 °C water bath for 30 min and then cooled down to room temperature (25 °C) followed by centrifugation under the above same conditions. The ES was calculated in the same way as EA and also expressed as percentage of the unheated control.

### Physio-functional Properties

The bile-holding capacity (BHC) of DF samples was measured by the modified centrifugation methods described by Eastwood et al. (1973). In brief, 5 g of porcine bile (obtained from an official local porcine slaughterhouse (Orihuela, Alicante, Spain)) was added into a centrifuge tube containing 160 mg of DF samples. Subsequently, the centrifuge tubes were stored at 25 °C for 18 h. After centrifuged (3000 rpm, 20 min at 25 °C) (Nahita Model 2690, Alicante, España), the supernatant was discarded and the pellet was weighed. The BHC of each sample was expressed as the weight of bile held by 1 g of corresponding DF samples.

The fat/oil binding (FOB) of all DF samples was determined by the method of Bailina (2014). This method is a simple approach to evaluate the fiber capacity to adsorption or retention fats into its matrix, simulating the conditions of food digestion. In brief, DF samples (0.2 g) were weighed in a flask and 20 mL HCl 0.16 N was added. Then, it was continuously stirred for 1 h, and after, 20 g sunflower oil was added. This mixture was stirred for 1 min before their neutralization

with NaOH 0.1 N, simulating the pH change from stomach to intestine. Subsequently, the flasks were stored at 25 °C for 24 h, and the free oil was weighed. The FOB of each sample was expressed as the weight of oil held by 1 g of corresponding DF samples.

The cholesterol adsorption capacity (ChAC) tries to evaluate the fiber capacity to adsorb cholesterol into its matrix, when the fiber is in contact with a simple system as water and oils mix. The ChAC of all DF samples was determined as follows. Briefly, 20 g ultrapure and 20 g sunflower oil (added with 100 mg/kg cholesterol) were homogenized at 8000 rpm for 30 s (IKA-Ultra-Turrax T25, Germany). Immediately, 1.33 g of each DF was added and the homogenization process continued until reaching 2 min. The mixture was transferred into a centrifuge tube and heated in a 37 °C water bath for 1 h. After cooled down to room temperature (25 °C), the tubes were centrifuged (Sigma 3-16PK, Sigma, Maryland, EE.UU) (3000 rpm, 20 min). The supernatant was discarded, and the pellet phase was used for cholesterol determination by HPLC.

The ChAC (%) was calculated as follows:

$$\text{ChAc (\%)} = \frac{\text{mg cholesterol adsorbed by DF sample}}{\text{mg cholesterol control}} \times 100$$

### HPLC Cholesterol Determination

Samples (1 g) were mixed with ascorbic acid (250 mg) and a solution of 10 % KOH in ethanol (10 mL). After mixing, the samples were heated in a water bath at 80 °C for 3 min. After cooled, hexane was added and then the tubes were capped and shaken to separate the phases. The upper phase was removed to a clean tube (this procedure was repeated twice). Solvent (hexane) was removed from the tube by drying under a stream of nitrogen. The residue was resolved in pure ethanol, filtered through a 0.45-μm Millipore filter (Millipore Corporation, Bedford, USA), and then, 20 μL was injected into a Hewlett-Packard series 1200 HPLC (Woldebronn, Alemania) according to the method described by Mazalli et al. (2006). The cholesterol was eluted through a Hypersil DBS-C18, 250 mm × 4.6 mm (Thermoscientific, Fisher Scientific, Madrid, Spain) column and detected by absorbance at 210 nm. A mobile phase of acetonitrile/methanol/water (50:48.5:1.5) with an isocratic flow rate of 1 mL/min and a 20-min analysis time was used to separate cholesterol. Identification of the cholesterol peak was done by comparison of the retention times of the sample peaks with those of the standard (cholesterol standard, Acofarma, Terrasa, Spain) and by the peak spectrum analysis. Quantification was done by external standardization, the standard curves being constructed with 6 points using solutions of the standard ( $R^2 = 0.9984$ ).

### Analysis of Data

Data were analyzed for significant differences using two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey post hoc test with significance set at  $P < 0.05$  by statistical software IBM® SPSS ver. 22 for Windows (IBM, New York, USA). Data were presented as mean ± SD.

## Results and Discussions

### Analysis of Chemical Composition

The chemical composition of the different tested DF sources (Table 1), according to the analyzed parameters, seems to depend on the composition of the raw material (pomegranate, citrus, tiger nuts...), the industrial source (juice extraction, ice cream, “horchata”) and the coproducts processing into DF extracts. During the processing of coproducts into fiber, the raw material undergoes two critical steps: scalding (which includes washing) and drying. In general terms, content of ash, sugar, and protein decreased, while the content of fat increased after this treatment (Marin et al. 2007; Viuda-Martos et al. 2012).

Moisture content ranges from 69.5 to 90.8 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, showing LADF the highest ( $P < 0.05$ ) moisture content. In any case, the moisture content was <100 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, which is in agreement with the results of other studies for various DF sources (Hemati-Matin et al. 2013). The protein content of tested DF sources ranged from 47.5 to 117.2 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, sugar content from 48.7 to 173.2 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, and the ash content from 25.0 to 112.0 g kg<sup>-1</sup>. The component that showed the highest variation between tested DF sources was fat content (from 4.8 to 209.6 g kg<sup>-1</sup>). The high content of the fats present in PDF ( $P < 0.05$ ) may be due to fat content of the pomegranate seed. Ozgul-Yucel (2005) reported that the pomegranate seeds are a rich source of total lipids; pomegranate seed oil comprises 12 to 20 % of total seed weight. The oil is characterized by a high content of polyunsaturated (n-3) fatty acids such as linolenic, linoleic, and other lipids such as punicic acid, oleic acid, stearic acid, and palmitic acid (Fadavi et al. 2006).

TDF content of tested DF sources ranged from 448.0 to 691.5 g kg<sup>-1</sup>. The highest TDF content ( $P < 0.05$ ) was found in DF from citrus juice processing (LDF and GDF). Similar results for TDF content have been reported in orange coproducts (Fernández-López et al. 2009) and lime coproducts (Jongroontaprangsee et al. 2007). The lowest TDF content ( $P < 0.05$ ) was found in LADF, the other DF extract obtained from a citrus fruit. These differences in TDF between citrus fruits seem to be more dependent on the industrial source (juice extraction vs ice cream production) than on the citrus species used (lemon or grapefruit). As can be seen in Fig. 2, the three DF extracts from citrus had higher ( $P < 0.05$ ) SDF

**Table 1** Chemical composition of different rich-fiber extracts from agroindustrial coproducts

Composition ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	LDF	GDF	PDF	LADF	TNDF
Moisture	78.8 ± 5.2b	69.5 ± 4.2b	79.4 ± 9.0b	90.8 ± 8.2a	77.1 ± 6.1b
TDF	667.1 ± 4.2a	691.5 ± 5.2a	518.0 ± 4.1c	448.0 ± 3.5d	597.1 ± 5.5b
Sugars	74.1 ± 5.8b	48.7 ± 3.6c	52.2 ± 2.5c	173.2 ± 6.9a	65.6 ± 4.6b
Protein	80.7 ± 8.6b	117.2 ± 8.2a	102.1 ± 1.0a	52.5 ± 5.8c	47.5 ± 3.6c
Fat	27.7 ± 1.1d	4.8 ± 0.5c	209.6 ± 8.2a	72.2 ± 5.4c	98.5 ± 5.2b
Ash	43.3 ± 1.5c	56.9 ± 4.1b	25.0 ± 4.1d	112.0 ± 2.2a	29.9 ± 1.5d

The results are expressed as means ± standard deviations; values followed by different letters (a–d) in the same row are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test

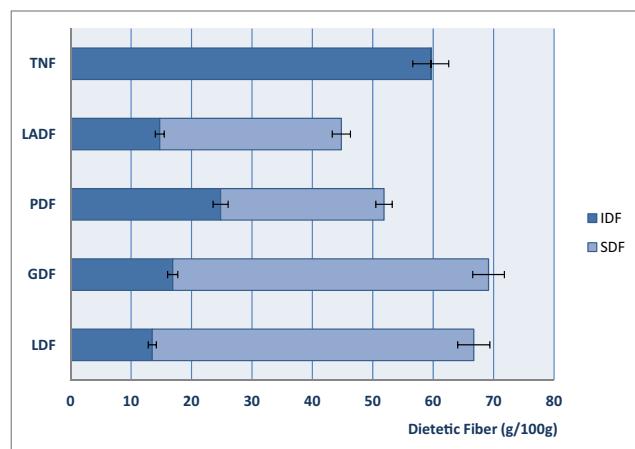
LDF lemon dietary fiber, GDF grapefruit dietary fiber, PDF pomegranate dietary fiber, LADF lemon albedo dietary fiber, TNDF tiger nut fiber

content than IDF. TDF content in PDF was around 500 g  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  and with a ratio SDF/IDF of 1. For certain food applications, DF concentrates should have a balanced content of soluble and insoluble fractions; in the case of PDF, the two fiber types are present at almost equal levels. Thus, it exhibits a good balance that might be also important from the nutritional point of view. The TDF content of the TNDF was 597.1 g  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  (Table 1), mainly IDF (99.8 % from TDF) and little SDF (0.2 % from TDF) (Fig. 1). The TNDF had a higher IDF/SDF ratio (496.6) than that obtained for the other DF tested sources and also higher than that reported for fibrous residues from other dietary fiber coproducts (Sánchez-Zapata et al. 2009). The high IDF content of TNDF points to a promising application in food products. IDF ingestion causes sensation of satiety, since it absorbs water and increases bolus size. It also increases the volume and weight of the fecal bolus, promoting improved functioning of the digestive system and preventing disorders such as constipation and colon cancer (Ku and Mun 2008).

## Physicochemical Properties

Table 2 shows the physicochemical properties (pH and CIELAB color coordinates) of the tested DF sources. The pH of all DF sources, except TNDF samples, was acidic (ranged from 3.84 from 4.70). Fiber pH is important information because it can determine in which type of food matrix they could be added, without affecting their technological behavior. LADF, LDF, GDF, and PDF could be suitable for their addition to an acid food matrix (for example yogurt) while TNDF fiber (pH near neutrality) will be more suitable for addition to a neutral food matrix (for example meat products). The difference in DF sources pH can also influence fiber solubility. This difference in fiber solubility could affect other chemical or physicochemical properties of the DF sources, for example, viscosity and also influence their ability to react with other nutrients in the gastrointestinal tract (Luccia and Kunkel 2002; Hemati-Matin et al. 2013).

Color is one of the most important quality parameters in food products. The color of the different DF sources is influenced by different factors as raw material (fruit variety), industrial source, and processing of coproducts into DF extracts. During the processing of coproducts into fiber, it undergoes high temperatures which cause enzymatic and non-enzymatic browning (Maillard reactions) which darkens the product (Monsalve-González et al. 1994). Possible color changes caused by dietary fibers would limit their potential application in food. All DF tested sources showed high  $L^*$  values (ranged from 62.80 to 78.53); the highest lightness was found for LADF ( $P < 0.05$ ). Lightness ( $L^*$ ) in food is related with many factors, including the concentration and type of pigments present, the water content, and surface water availability. In this case, the behavior of  $L^*$  values in DF sources is highly related with their moisture content (Table 1). Red-green ( $a^*$ ) and yellow-blue ( $b^*$ ) coordinates are affected by the structural integrity of the fiber and the pigment content and disposition (water or lipid soluble) (Fernández-López et al. 2005). DF sources from citrus fruits (LDF, GDF, and LADF) showed the lowest  $a^*$  values and the highest  $b^*$  values ( $P < 0.05$ ).



**Fig. 2** Soluble and insoluble dietary fiber (SDF, IDF) content in different dietary fiber sources from agroindustrial coproducts (TNDF tiger nut dietary fiber, LADF lemon albedo dietary fiber, PDF pomegranate dietary fiber, GDF grapefruit dietary fiber, LDF lemon dietary fiber)

**Table 2** Physicochemical properties (pH and CIELAB color coordinates: L\* (lightness), a\* (redness), and b\* (yellowness)) of different fiber-rich extracts from agroindustrial coproducts

	pH	L*	a*	b*
LDF	3.84 ± 0.03e	64.91 ± 1.44b	-2.47 ± 0.17c	25.89 ± 0.52b
GDF	4.15 ± 0.02d	65.22 ± 1.22b	-3.12 ± 0.20c	28.22 ± 1.11a
PDF	4.44 ± 0.01c	62.81 ± 1.83b	7.38 ± 0.64a	15.62 ± 0.71d
LADF	4.70 ± 0.02b	78.53 ± 3.25a	-6.06 ± 1.52d	21.28 ± 1.05c
TNDF	6.41 ± 0.02a	68.29 ± 2.36b	2.17 ± 0.15b	17.11 ± 0.52d

The results are expressed as means ± standard deviations. Values followed by different letters (a–d) in the same column are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test

*LDF* lemon dietary fiber, *GDF* grapefruit dietary fiber, *PDF* pomegranate dietary fiber, *LADF* lemon albedo dietary fiber, *TNDF* tiger nut fiber

Citrus fruits have a high content in yellow carotens (xanthophiles) which contribute to yellow color component (b\*). PDF showed the highest a\* values and the lowest b\* values ( $P < 0.05$ ). In this case, the high content in red carotens (carotenoids) in pomegranate contributes to the red color component (a\*).

## Techno-functional Properties

Table 3 shows the techno-functional properties of tested DF sources. The WHC of a DF source measures the amount of water retained by the fiber after subject to a stress such as centrifugation (Nelson 2001). The WHC determined by centrifugation method in the present study represented all three types of waters (water bound to the hydrophilic polysaccharides, held within the fiber matrix, trapped within the cell-wall lumen) associated with the fibers (Fleury and Lahaye 1991). It is an important hydration property of a DF source that needs to be measured before their incorporation on a food. The order of WHC ( $P < 0.05$ ) of DF sources was LDF > GDF > LADF > PDF-TNDF. No significant differences were observed between the WHC of PDF and TNDF, but both of them were lower than others. Water soluble and insoluble portions (SDF and IDF) of DF sources have critical roles in WHC of DF sources. It showed that DF sources with high insoluble portion (IDF) induce lower WHC (Jiménez-Moreno et al. 2009; Gómez-Ordoñez et al. 2010) or on the contrary DF sources with high soluble portion (SDF) induce higher WHC (Marin et al. 2007). This relation seems to be correct also in our case. Samples with the highest SDF content (LDF and GDF) showed the highest WHC values, and samples with the lowest SDF content (TNDF) showed the lowest WHC values. SC of DF sources follow the same trend as higher SDF content led to higher SC values. Associated water is important in DF properties. Such water would affect DF source metabolic activity across gastrointestinal tract.

The OHC for the tested DF sources is shown in Table 3. The OHC is another property of a high-fiber ingredient that can be applied in the food development. TNDF showed the highest ( $P < 0.05$ ) OHC values. The other DF sources tested showed lower ( $P < 0.05$ ) OHC values than TNDF and without differences between them. These values were comparable to that of wheat DF (2.3 g/g) (Thebaudin et al. 1997). The ability of a fiber to bind oil is more of a function of that porosity of fiber structure than the affinity of the fiber molecule for oil (Nelson 2001). Therefore, the process to extract the fiber, from agroindustrial coproducts, with water and reduction of particle size would result in lower OHC values (Thebaudin et al. 1997; Nelson 2001; Lario et al. 2004), since the number of pores in fiber is reduced or the pores are preoccupied by water. Other authors reported that a more complex mechanism determining the variation of OHC of DF sources might be involved such as the number of lipophilic sites, overall hydrophobicity, and capillary attraction (Kinsella 1976). Fibers with a high OHC allows the stabilization of high-fat content and emulsion by retaining the fat in formulated food. OHC is important to flavor retention and product yield especially for cooked meat products, which normally lose fat during cooking (Thebaudin et al. 1997; Sánchez-Zapata et al. 2009). On the other hand, the high OHC might interfere with lipid absorption in gastrointestinal tract (Carvalho et al. 2009).

Emulsifying capacity (EC) is a molecule's ability to act as an agent that facilitates solubilization or dispersion of two immiscible liquids, and emulsion stability (EE) is the ability to maintain the integrity of an emulsion. LADF and TNDF (without differences between them) showed the highest ( $P < 0.05$ ) EA and EE. The other DF sources showed also high values for EA and ES but lower than LADF and TNDF. EA values higher than 50 % can be considered as desirables and suggest a good potential to act as an emulsifier in food processing (Yasutmasu et al. 1972; Wang and Kinsella 1976). All DF sources tested showed EA values >50 %. Furthermore, the values obtained for EE (higher than 90 %) suggest that the emulsion formed by all DF samples were very stable. It can therefore be appropriated for foods requiring emulsifiers and those with long shelf life, which require long stability.

## Physio-functional Properties

Table 4 shows the physio-functional properties of tested DF sources. The method used to evaluate the bile-holding capacity (BHC) is based on the same technics applied before for determining the WHC and OHC, using in this case a physiological liquid (bile). Bile is essential to the digestion of fat in the intestinal tract. In the absence of bile, fat passes through the intestinal tract undigested. Bile acid, one of bile's main components, is derived from cholesterol, a lipoprotein. Bile is normally secreted directly into the first part of the small intestine from the gallbladder. All tested DF sources showed

**Table 3** Techno-functional properties (water-holding capacity (WHC), oil-holding capacity (OHC), swelling capacity (SC), emulsion ability (EA), and emulsifying stability (ES)) of different fiber-rich extracts from agroindustrial coproducts

	WHC (g/g)	SC (mL/g)	OHC (g/g)	EA (%)	ES (%)
LDF	7.96 ± 0.11a	5.69 ± 0.10b	1.69 ± 0.13b	53.67 ± 3.79b	93.18 ± 0.91ab
GDF	6.38 ± 0.40b	6.50 ± 0.09a	2.30 ± 0.09b	54.67 ± 1.16b	89.88 ± 2.78b
PDF	4.43 ± 0.20d	1.92 ± 0.11c	1.73 ± 0.03b	53.00 ± 1.73b	90.52 ± 2.19b
LADF	5.56 ± 0.56c	5.70 ± 0.36b	2.23 ± 0.77b	80.00 ± 1.00a	95.80 ± 0.77a
TNDF	3.76 ± 0.42d	1.93 ± 0.42c	3.60 ± 0.22a	78.00 ± 2.00a	96.15 ± 0.10a

The results are expressed as means ± standard deviations. Values followed by different letters (a–d) in the same column are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test

LDF lemon dietary fiber, GDF grapefruit dietary fiber, PDF pomegranate dietary fiber, LADF lemon albedo dietary fiber, TNDF tiger nut fiber

BHC values higher ( $P < 0.05$ ) than their respective values for WHC or OHC (Table 3). LDF and GDF showed the highest ( $P < 0.05$ ) BHC values (without differences between them). TNDF showed the lowest ( $P < 0.05$ ) BHC values. In this case, the relation between BHC and SDF content seems clear. The higher the SDF content, the higher the BHC. When soluble fiber mixes with liquids in the mouth and stomach, it expands and forms a gel-like substrate. Soluble fiber has the ability to bind to bile acid, the main component of bile. Like fiber, fiber-bound bile cannot convert into components the bloodstream can absorb. It passes through the intestinal tract and is excreted in the stool without being digested.

Fat/oil binding (FOB) is a property that allows to evaluate the fiber capacity to adsorption or retention fats into its matrix, simulating the conditions of food digestion. The highest ( $P < 0.05$ ) FOB values were obtained for LDF and LADF, without differences between them. TNDF did not show any FOB capacity. Some authors have reported that this property could be related with the SDF content (Bailina 2014). In this case, it seems to be related not exactly with the SDF content but with the ratio SDF/IDF; the higher the ratio SDF/IDF, the higher the FOB capacity.

The cholesterol adsorption capacity (ChAC) for the tested DF sources is showed in Table 4. PDF showed the highest

ChAC (>70 %;  $P < 0.05$ ), very higher than the rest of the DF (ranged from 23 to 29 %). In any case, all DF tested samples showed ChAC values higher than 20 % which is very interesting and promising. Any of the results obtained for PDF related to their chemical composition, physicochemical, techno-functional, or physio-functional properties evaluated in this work could explain the high values for ChAC obtained. So, it must be another reason to explain it and it must be related with the polyphenol content in PDF. Some authors have reported the high content of polyphenols in pomegranate fruit and also in coproducts from pomegranate juice extraction process (Viuda-Martos et al. 2012; Sengul et al. 2014). Recently, some authors have demonstrated that some polyphenolic compounds have cholesterol-lowering activity by inhibiting pancreatic cholesterol esterase, binding of bile acids, and reducing solubility of cholesterol in micelles which may result in delayed cholesterol absorption (Ngamukote et al. 2011).

Although this property has been measured directly upon the rich-fiber extract, without simulating any digestion process, the results obtained are much promised. The application of these fiber-rich extracts in food elaboration process due to their healthy properties could be very interesting if one of the most important properties that can be highlighted is their ability to decrease cholesterol adsorption. Taken into account that actually the main health international organisms recommended to reduce the consumption of some meat and dairy products because their high cholesterol content, it could be very interesting to develop new meat and dairy products with these fiber-rich extracts (for example, PDF), highlighting that this ingredient reduces cholesterol adsorption.

## Conclusions

Extracts rich in dietary fiber obtained from agroindustrial coproducts can be used as functional ingredients not only for their content in soluble and/or insoluble dietary fiber but also for their functional properties (technological and physiological). All these properties are interesting for the selection of an

**Table 4** Physio-functional properties (bile-holding capacity (BHC), fat/oil binding (FOB), and cholesterol adsorption capacity (ChAC)) of different fiber-rich extracts from agroindustrial coproducts

	BHC (g/g)	FOB (g/g)	ChAC (%)
LDF	8.07 ± 0.08a	67.43 ± 26.37a	28.79 ± 2.22b
GDF	9.20 ± 0.65a	35.43 ± 0.27b	25.43 ± 1.89c
PDF	4.60 ± 0.39c	14.00 ± 6.98c	71.41 ± 2.00a
LADF	6.29 ± 0.33b	69.05 ± 8.68a	22.99 ± 1.22c
TNDF	3.66 ± 0.30c	ND	24.37 ± 2.11c

The results are expressed as means ± standard deviations. Values followed by different letters (a–c) in the same column are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test

LDF lemon dietary fiber, GDF grapefruit dietary fiber, PDF pomegranate dietary fiber, LADF lemon albedo dietary fiber, TNDF tiger nut fiber

extract rich in dietary fiber as ingredient in a new food development. Depending on these properties, they can be used as fat replacer, fat-reducing agent during frying, volume enhancer, binder, bulking agent and stabilizer, emulsify agent, etc. Pomegranate dietary fiber shows promising results principally about their cholesterol adsorption capacity which must be investigated in in vitro digestion process.

**Acknowledgments** This research was supported by the grant of Miguel Hernández University for Research and Innovation 2013.

## References

- Alesón-Carbonell, L., Fernández-López, J., Sayas-Barberá, M. E., Sendra, E., & Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2003). Utilization of lemon albedo in dry-cured sausages. *Journal of Food Science*, 68, 1826–1830.
- Alesón-Carbonell, L., Fernández-López, J., Pérez-Alvarez, J. A., & Kuri, V. (2005). Characteristics of beef burger as influenced by various types of lemon albedo. *Innovative Food Science and Emerging Technology*, 6, 247–255.
- AOAC (1997). *Official methods of analysis of AOAC International* (16th ed.). Washington, DC: Association of Official Analytical Chemists.
- Bailina, C.M. (2014). Caracterización y comportamiento de extractos procedentes de co-productos de la industria alimentaria en un sistema modelo de digestión “in vitro”. MSc thesis. Orihuela (Alicante): Escuela Politécnica Superior de Orihuela. Universidad Miguel Hernández.
- Carvalho, A. F. U., Portela, M. C. C., Sousa, M. B., Martins, F. S., Rocha, F. C., Farias, D. F., & Feitosa, J. P. A. (2009). Physiological and physico-chemical characterization of dietary fibre from the green seaweed *Ulva fasciata* Delile. *Brazilian Journal of Biology*, 69, 969–977.
- Chau, C. F., & Huang, Y. L. (2003). Comparison of the chemical composition and physicochemical properties of different fibres prepared from peel of *Citrus sinensis* L. cv. Liucheng. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 51, 2615–2618.
- Eastwood, M. A., Kirkpatrick, J. R., Mitchell, W. D., Bone, A., & Hamilton, T. (1973). Effects of dietary supplements of wheat bran and cellulose on faeces and bowel function. *British Medical Journal*, 4, 392–394.
- Fadavi, A., Barzegar, M., & Azizi, H. M. (2006). Determination of fatty acids and total lipid content in oilseed of 25 pomegranates varieties grown in Iran. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis*, 19, 676–680.
- Fernández-Ginés, J. M., Fernández-López, J., Sayas, E., Sendra, E., & Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2003). Effects of storage conditions on quality characteristics of bologna sausages made with citrus fiber. *Journal of Food Science*, 68, 710–715.
- Fernández-López, J., Fernández-Ginés, J. M., Alesón-Carbonell, L., Sendra, E., Sayas-Barberá, E., & Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2004). Application of functional citrus byproducts to meat products. *Trends in Food Science and Technology*, 15, 176–185.
- Fernández-López, J., Sayas-Barberá, M. E., Navarro, C., Sendra, E., & Pérez-Álvarez, J. A. (2005). Antioxidant and antibacterial activities of natural extracts: application on cooked meat balls. *Meat Science*, 69, 371–380.
- Fernández-López, J., Sendra, E., Navarro, C., Sayas, E., Viuda-Martos, M., & Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2009). Storage stability of a high dietary fiber powder from orange by-products. *International Journal of Food Science & Technology*, 44, 748–756.
- Fleury, N., & Lahaye, M. (1991). Chemical and physico-chemical characterization of fibers from *Laminaria digitata* (Kombu Breton): a physiological approach. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 35, 635–639.
- Galanakis, C. M. (2012). Recovery of high added-value components from food wastes: conventional, emerging technologies and commercialized applications. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 26, 68–87.
- Gómez-Ordoñez, E., Jiménez-Escríg, A., & Ruperez, P. (2010). Dietary fibre and physicochemical properties of several edible seaweeds from the northwestern Spanish coast. *Food Research International*, 43, 2289–2294.
- Guillon, F., & Champ, M. (2000). Structural and physical properties of dietary fibres, and consequences of processing on human physiology. *Food Research International*, 32, 233–245.
- Hemati-Matin, H.-R., Sharifi-Madarai, F., & Karimi-Torshizi, M. A. (2013). Various physico-chemical properties of dietary fiber sources of poultry diets. *International Journal of Agriculture and Crop Sciences*, 6, 1239–1245.
- IFIC (2012). *Food and health survey*. International Food Information Council.
- Jiménez-Moreno, E., González-Alvarado, J. M., Lazaro, R., & Mateos, G. G. (2009). Effect of type of cereal, heat processing of the cereal and fiber inclusion in the diet of gizzard pH and nutrient utilization in broilers at different ages. *Poultry Science*, 88, 1925–1933.
- Jongroontaprangsee, S., Trintrong, W., Chokanaporn, W., Methacanon, P., Devahastin, S., & Chiewchan, N. (2007). Effects of drying temperature and particle size on hydration properties of dietary fiber powder from lime and cabbage by-products. *International Journal of Food Properties*, 10, 887–897.
- Kendall, C. W., Esfahani, A., & Jenkins, D. J. A. (2009). The link between dietary fibre and human health. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 24, 42–48.
- Kinsella, L. E. (1976). Functional properties of protein in foods: a survey. *Journal of Food Science Nutrition*, 7, 219–280.
- Ku, C. S., & Mun, S. P. (2008). Optimization of the extraction of anthocyanin from Bokbunja (*Rubus coreanus* Miq.) marc produced during traditional wine processing and characterization of the extracts. *Bioresource Technology*, 99, 8325–8330.
- Lario, Y., Sendra, E., García-Pérez, J., Fuentes, C., Sayas-Barberá, E., Fernández-López, J., & Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2004). Preparation of high dietary fibre powder from lemon juice by-products. *Innovative Food Science and Emerging Technology*, 5, 113–117.
- Lebesi, D. M., & Tzia, C. (2011). Effect of the addition of different dietary fiber and edible cereal bran sources on the baking sensory characteristics of cupcakes. *Food & Bioprocess Technology*, 4, 710–722.
- Luccia, B. H. D., & Kunkel, M. E. (2002). In vitro availability of calcium from sources of cellulose, methylcellulose and psyllium. *Food Chemistry*, 77, 138–146.
- Lunn, J., & Buttriss, J. L. (2007). Carbohydrates and dietary fibre. British Nutrition Foundation. *Nutrition Bulletin*, 32, 21–64.
- Marín, F. R., Soler-Rivas, C., Benavente-García, O., Castillo, J., & Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2007). By-products from different citrus processes as a source of customized functional fibres. *Food Chemistry*, 100, 736–741.
- Mazalli, M. R., Sawaya, A. C. H. F., Eberlin, M. N., & Bragagnolo, N. (2006). HPLC method for quantification and characterization of cholesterol and its oxidation products in eggs. *Lipids*, 41, 615–622.
- Monsalve-González, A., Barbosa-Cánoyas, G. V., McEvily, A. J., & Iyengar, R. (1994). Inhibition of enzymatic browning in apple products by 4-hexylresorcinol. *Food Technology*, 4, 110–118.
- Nelson, A. (2001). Defining high-fiber ingredient terminology. *High-Fiber Ingredients*, 1–83.
- Ngamukote, S., Mäkynen, K., Thilawech, T., & Adisakwattana, S. (2011). Cholesterol-lowering activity of the major polyphenols in grape seed. *Molecules*, 16, 5054–5061.

- Niba, L. (2012). Progress in fiber-enriched foods. *Food Technology*, 66, 36–43.
- Ozgul-Yucel, S. (2005). Determination of conjugated linolenic acid content of selected oil seeds grown in Turkey. *Journal of the American Oil Chemists Society*, 82, 893–897.
- Robertson, J. A., de Monredon, F. D., Dysseler, P., Guillon, F., Amadó, R., & Thibault, J. F. (2000). Hydratation properties of dietary fibre and resistant starch: a European collaborative study. *Lebensmittel-Wissenschaft und-Technologie*, 33, 72–79.
- Rodríguez, R., Jiménez, A., Fernández-Bolaños, J., Guillén, R., & Heredia, A. (2006). Dietary fibre from vegetable products as source of functional ingredients. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 17, 3–15.
- Sánchez-Zapata, E., Fuentes-Zaragoza, E., Fernández-López, J., Sendra, E., Sayas, E., Navarro, C., & Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2009). Preparation of dietary fibre powder from tiger nut (*Cyperus esculentus*) milk ("horchata") byproducts and its physicochemical properties. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 57, 7719–7725.
- Sánchez-Zapata, E., Díaz-Vela, J., Pérez-Chabela, M. L., Pérez-Alvarez, J. A., & Fernández-López, J. (2013). Evaluation of the effect of tiger nut fibre as a carrier of unsaturated fatty acids rich oil on the quality of dry-cured sausages. *Food & Bioprocess Technology*, 6, 1181–1190.
- Sendra, E., Fayos, P., Lario, Y., Fernández-López, J., Sayas-Barberá, E., & Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2008). Incorporation of citrus fibres in fermented milk containing probiotic bacteria. *Food Microbiology*, 25, 13–21.
- Sengul, H., Surek, E., & Nilufer-Erdil, D. (2014). Investigating the effects of food matrix and food components on bioaccessibility of pomegranate (*Punica granatum*) phenolics and anthocyanins using an in-vitro gastrointestinal digestion model. *Food Research International*, 62, 1069–1079.
- Sun-Waterhouse, D., Wang, W., Waterhouse, G. I. N., & Wadhwa, S. S. (2013). Utilisation potential of feijoa fruit wastes as ingredients for functional foods. *Food & Bioprocess Technology*, 6, 3441–3455.
- Thebaudin, J. Y., Lefebvre, A. C., Harrington, M., & Bourgeois, C. M. (1997). Dietary fibers: nutritional and technological interest. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 8, 41–48.
- Viuda-Martos, M., Sánchez-Zapata, E., Martín-Sánchez, A., Fernández-López, J., Sendra, E., Sayas, E., Navarro, C., & Pérez-Alvarez, J. A. (2012). Dietary fiber and Health. In S. S. Cho, & N. Almeida (Eds.), *Technological properties of pomegranate (*Punica granatum L.*) peel extract obtained as coproduct in the juice processing*, Chap. 31 (pp. 433–442). Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Wang, J. C., & Kinsella, J. E. (1976). Functional properties of novel protein: alfalfa leaf protein. *Journal of Food Science*, 41, 286–290.
- Yasutmasu, K., Sawada, K., Moritaka, S., Nifasaki, M., Toda, J., Wada, T., & Ishi, K. (1972). Whipping and emulsifying properties of soybean products. *Agricultural and Biology Chemical*, 36, 719–737.



**Título:** Effects of various fibre-rich extracts on cholesterol binding capacity during in vitro digestion of pork patties

**Autores:** María Cruz López-Marcos, Claudia Bailina-Pérez, Manuel Viuda-Martos, José A. Pérez-Álvarez, Juana Fernández-López

**Revista:** Food and Function, 6, 3473-3478.

**Año:** 2015



Cite this: *Food Funct.*, 2015, **6**, 3473

## Effects of various fibre-rich extracts on cholesterol binding capacity during *in vitro* digestion of pork patties

Mari Cruz López-Marcos, Claudia Bailina, Manuel Viuda-Martos, José Angel Pérez-Alvarez and Juana Fernández-López\*

Intake of foods containing high levels of cholesterol harms human health, and an increase in the intake of dietary fibre (DF) may mitigate these negative effects. The co-products obtained from fruit juice extraction (lemon, grapefruit and pomegranate), lemon ice-cream production and tiger nut "horchata" (beverage) have been used for the production of fibre-rich extracts used as dietary fibre sources. The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of these fibre source additions on cholesterol retention during the *in vitro* digestion of pork patties. The control patties were prepared without fibre addition and for the rest of patties a 10% of each DF was added. The pork patties were then passed through an *in vitro* digestion model that simulated the composition of the mouth, stomach and small intestine juices. After digestion and centrifugation the product separated into 3 phases (oily, aqueous and pellet phase). The effect of each DF on the phase distribution and the amount of cholesterol retained in each phase were evaluated. All DFs studied showed an increase in the cholesterol retained in the pellet phase. The pomegranate DF showed a better result (32% cholesterol retained in the pellet phase). The application of these fibre-rich extracts in food elaboration processes due to their healthy properties could be very interesting if one of the most important properties that can be highlighted is their ability to adsorb cholesterol.

Received 12th June 2015,  
Accepted 29th July 2015

DOI: 10.1039/c5fo00709g  
[www.rsc.org/foodfunction](http://www.rsc.org/foodfunction)

### Introduction

The association between an elevated plasma LDL-cholesterol concentration and increased risk for heart disease has made the scientific community aware of dietary sources that might effectively reduce plasma cholesterol levels. Several studies have documented that dietary fibre (DF) lowers the risk for coronary heart disease<sup>1</sup> by reducing the risk of type-2 diabetes, body weight, and serum low-density lipoprotein-cholesterol levels<sup>2</sup> and absorbing bile acids. Several DFs have been reported to interact with bile acids in the small intestine, resulting in a lower level of reabsorption and a higher level of excretion of bile acids, thus increasing the hepatic synthesis of bile acids from blood cholesterol.<sup>3,4</sup> However, there are no reports on the direct adsorption of cholesterol (at the jejunum) from the diet, possibly because of the difficulty in designing a model system. Incorporating fibre sources into our diet may provide a useful adjunct to a low-saturated fat diet, and may have a further beneficial effect for individuals who have mild-to-moderate hypercholesterolemia.<sup>5,6</sup>

IPOA Research Group (UMH-1 and REVIV-Generalitat Valenciana), AgroFood Technology Department, Escuela Politécnica Superior de Orihuela, Miguel Hernández University, Alicante, Spain. E-mail: j.fernandez@umh.es; Fax: +34966749677; Tel: +34966749784

Consumers by and large understand that fibre is a critical dietary component. In the 2012 International Food Information Council survey,<sup>7</sup> fibre ranked third, just behind caloric content and whole grains, among key components taken into consideration in making purchase decisions about buying packaged foods or beverages.<sup>8</sup> So, there is a trend to find new sources of DF that can be used as ingredients in the food industry.<sup>9</sup> One of these sources is the agronomic and agro-industrial co-products, which have traditionally been under-valued. There is an increasing interest in recovering this material, which may be used among other uses, as sources of DF destined to supplement low-in-fibre food products.<sup>10–14</sup>

To understand the DF bioactivity in foods, *in vitro* digestion systems appear to provide a useful alternative to animal and human models for rapidly screening food ingredients and are also ethically superior, faster and less expensive than *in vivo* techniques.<sup>15,16</sup> As the results of *in vitro* digestion depend upon many factors associated with food composition, structure and amount, a meat product (as a source of lipid compounds) has been selected to understand the DF interactions with lipid digestion products.

Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the effect of various fibre-rich extracts (from agroindustrial coproducts) added to pork patties on cholesterol levels, during their *in vitro* digestion.

## Materials and methods

### Dietary fibre samples

DFs from different agroindustrial coproducts were obtained. Lemon dietary fibre (LDF), grapefruit dietary fibre (GDF) and pomegranate dietary fibre (PDF) were obtained from the lemon (*Citrus lemon*), grapefruit (*Citrus paradisi*) and pomegranate (*Punica granatum*) juice industry coproducts, respectively. Lemon albedo dietary fibre (LADF) was obtained from the lemon ice cream industry coproducts. Tiger nut dietary fibre (FIBRE) was obtained from the tiger nut (*Cyperus esculentus*) milk elaboration process coproducts. The preparation of DF from these agroindustrial coproducts has already been reported by the IPOA Research Group.<sup>10,12,17,18</sup> The milled DF source powders were transferred to airtight plastic bags and stored in a desiccator at room temperature prior to the determination of parameters. Fig. 1 shows all DF tested samples. Physicochemical and technological characterization of these DFs have been reported by Bailina (2014).<sup>19</sup>

### Determination of total, soluble and insoluble dietary fibre content

The total (TDF) and insoluble (IDF) dietary fibre were determined following the enzymatic–gravimetric method 985.29.<sup>20</sup> The soluble dietary fibre (SDF) was calculated by subtracting the IDF proportion from TDF. All analyses were carried out in triplicates.

### Cholesterol adsorption capacity of dietary fibres

The cholesterol adsorption capacity (ChAC) is a measure to evaluate the fibre capacity to adsorb cholesterol into its matrix, when the fibre is in contact with a simple system as water and oil mixture. The ChAC of all DF samples was determined as follows. Briefly, 20 g ultrapure water and 20 g sunflower oil (added with 100 mg per kg cholesterol; control) were homogenized at 8000 rpm for 30 s (IKA-Ultra-Turrax T25, Germany). Immediately, 4 g of each DF were added and the homogenization process continued until it reached 2 min. The mixture was transferred into a centrifuge tube and heated in a 37 °C water bath for 1 h. After being cooled down to room temperature (25 °C) the tubes were centrifuged (Sigma 3-16PK, Sigma, Maryland, EE.UU) (3000 rpm, 20 min). The supernatant was discarded and the pellet phase was used for cholesterol determination by HPLC.

The ChAC (%) was calculated as follows:

$$\text{ChAC (\%)} = \frac{\text{mg cholesterol adsorbed by DF sample}}{\text{mg cholesterol control}} \times 100$$

### Meat patties preparation

Three independent replicates of each batch were prepared at the IPOA Research Group Pilot Plant at the Miguel Hernández University. A simple formula was used to obtain a base batter as follows: 49% lean pork meat, 49% pork backfat, and 2% sodium chloride. This mixture was divided into 6 batches. A 10% of each fibre-rich extract (LDF, GDF, PDF, LADF and



**Fig. 1** Dietary fibres obtained from agroindustrial coproducts. (TNDF: tiger nut fibre; LADF: lemon albedo dietary fibre; PDF: pomegranate dietary fibre; GDF: grapefruit dietary fibre; LDF: lemon dietary fibre).

TNDF) was added to 5 batches. The 6<sup>th</sup> batch was the control, without fibre addition.

To obtain the base mixture, pork trimmings were ground through a 3 mm plate (Olotinox, Olox, Spain) in a mincer attached to a mixer (CATO 114, Sabadell, Spain) and then the salt was added into the bowl and mixed with the spiral dough hook at medium speed (80 rpm) for 5 min. For each treatment, the corresponding amounts of fibre-rich extract were added and then mixed again for 5 min. The pork patties were placed in individual Albal zip-lock bags (Cofresco SAU, Madrid, Spain) and then cooked in a water bath until the core temperature reached 75 °C. The pork patties were stored at -10 °C for experiments.

### In vitro digestion model

The standardized static *in vitro* digestion method (aerobic conditions) suitable for food, reported by Minekus *et al.* (2014), was used in this study. The simulated digestion fluids (Simulated Salivary Fluid (SSF), Simulated Gastric Fluid (SGF) and Simulated Intestinal Fluid (SIF)) were prepared following the recommendations of Minekus *et al.* (2014).<sup>16</sup>

1. *Oral phase:* About 5 g of pork patty samples (20 °C) were mixed with 3.5 ml of SSF stock solution and minced together in a Moulinex A320R1 electric mincer (SEB SA, Bourgogne, France). 0.5 ml salivary α-amylase solution of 1500 U ml<sup>-1</sup> in SSF stock solution (α-amylase from human saliva Type IX-A, 1000–3000 U per mg protein, Sigma) was added followed by 25 µl of 0.3 M CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 975 µl of water and thoroughly mixed for 2 min at 37 °C on a shaking water bath.

2. *Gastric phase:* 10 ml of oral bolus was mixed with 7.5 ml of SGF stock solution, 1.6 ml porcine pepsin stock solution of 25 000 U ml<sup>-1</sup> made up in SGF stock solution (pepsin form porcine gastric mucosa 3200–4500 U per mg protein, Sigma), 5 µl of 0.3 M CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 ml of 1 M HCl to reach pH 3.0 and 0.695 µl water. The mixture was incubated for 2 h at 37 °C on a shaking water bath.

3. *Intestinal phase:* 20 ml of gastric chime was mixed with 11 ml of SIF stock solution, 5.0 ml of a pancreatin solution 800 U ml<sup>-1</sup> made up in SIF stock solution based on trypsin activity (pancreatin from porcine pancreas, Sigma), 2.5 ml fresh bile, 40 µl of 0.3 M CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.15 ml of 1 M NaOH to reach pH 7.0 and 1.31 ml water. The mixture was incubated for 2 h at 37 °C on a shaking water bath.

At the end of the process the samples were immediately cooled to 4 °C and kept standing for 14–16 h.

### Phase distribution of the *in vitro* digestion products

The *in vitro* digested samples were centrifuged (4 °C) at 4000 rpm for 20 min. After that, 3 phases were identified in the centrifuged tubes:<sup>21</sup> oily (top layer), aqueous (middle layer) and pellet phase (lower layer). The proportion of each phase (% v/v) was measured and the amount of cholesterol in each phase was determined by HPLC.

### HPLC cholesterol determination

Samples (1 g) were mixed with ascorbic acid (250 mg) and a solution of 10% KOH in ethanol (10 ml). After mixing, the samples were heated in a water bath at 80 °C for 3 min. After cooling, hexane was added and then the tubes were capped and shaken to separate the phases. The upper phase was removed into a clean tube (this procedure was repeated twice). Solvent (hexane) was removed from the tube by drying under a stream of nitrogen. The residue was resolved in pure ethanol, filtered through a 0.45 µm Millipore filter (Millipore Corporation, Bedford, USA) and then 20 µl was injected into a Hewlett-Packard series 1200 HPLC (Waldbronn, Alemania) according to the method described by Mazalli *et al.* (2006).<sup>22</sup> The cholesterol was eluted through a Hypersil BDS-C18, 250 mm × 4.6 mm (Thermoscientific, Fisher Scientific, Madrid, Spain) column and detected by absorbance at 210 nm. A mobile phase of acetonitrile : methanol : water (50 : 48.5 : 1.5) with an isocratic flow rate of 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup> and a 20 min analysis time was used to separate cholesterol. Identification of the cholesterol peak was done by comparison of the retention times of the sample peaks with those of the standard (cholesterol standard, Acofarma, Terrassa, Spain) and by the peak spectrum analysis. Quantification was performed by external standardization, the standard curves being constructed with 6 points using solutions of the standard.

### Analysis of data

Data were analyzed for significant differences using two way ANOVA followed by Tukey *post-hoc* test with significance set at *P* < 0.05 by statistical software IBM® SPSS ver. 22 for Windows (IBM, New York, USA). Data were presented as mean ± SD.

## Results and discussion

### Dietary fibre content and cholesterol adsorption capacity of fibre-rich extracts

Table 1 shows TDF, IDF and SDF content of tested DF sources. The highest TDF content (P < 0.05) was found in DF from citrus juice processing (LDF and GDF). Similar results for the TDF content have been reported in orange coproducts<sup>23</sup> and lime coproducts.<sup>24</sup> The lowest TDF content (P < 0.05) was found in LADF, the other DF extract obtained from a citrus fruit. These differences in TDF between citrus fruits seem to be more dependent on the industrial source (juice extraction vs. ice-cream production) than on the citrus species used (lemon or grapefruit). The three DF extracts from citrus had higher (P < 0.05) SDF content than IDF. The TDF content in PDF was around 50 g per 100 g and with a ratio SDF/IDF of 1 approx. The TDF content of TNDF was around 60 g per 100 g, mainly IDF (99.8% from TDF) and little SDF (0.2% from TDF). The TNDF had the highest (P < 0.05) IDF/SDF ratio (496.6). This ratio was also higher than that reported for fibrous residues from other dietary fibre coproducts.<sup>17</sup>

**Table 1** Total, Soluble and Insoluble Dietary Fibre content (TDF, SDF and IDF) of various fibre-rich extracts obtained from agroindustrial coproducts

	LDF	GDF	PDF	LADF	TNDF
TDF (g per 100 g)	66.71 ± 4.2a	69.15 ± 5.2a	51.86 ± 4.1c	44.80 ± 3.5d	59.71 ± 5.5b
IDF (g per 100 g)	13.51 ± 0.9c	16.89 ± 1.0c	24.82 ± 1.1b	14.75 ± 1.0c	59.59 ± 1.4a
SDF (g per 100 g)	53.2 ± 2.2a	52.26 ± 1.9a	27.04 ± 1.1b	30.05 ± 1.5b	0.12 ± 0.0c

LDF: lemon dietary fibre; GDF: grapefruit dietary fibre; PDF: pomegranate dietary fibre; LADF: lemon albedo dietary fibre; TNDF: tiger nut dietary fibre. The results are expressed as means ± standard deviations; <sup>a–c</sup>Values followed by different letters in the same row are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test.

For certain food applications, DF concentrates should have a balanced content of soluble and insoluble fractions; in the case of PDF the two fibre types are present at almost equal levels. Thus, it exhibits a good balance that might be important not only from the technological point of view but also from the nutritional and functional points of view. IDF is responsible for the increased bulk of the stools and helps to regulate bowel movements. SDF plays a significant role in the reduction of cholesterol level and blood pressure, prevention of gastrointestinal problems, and protection against the onset of several cancers, which include colorectal, prostate, and breast cancer.<sup>18,25</sup>

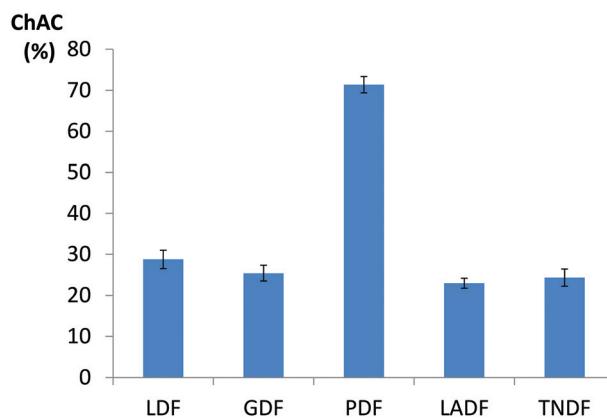
The *in vitro* cholesterol adsorption capacity (ChAC) of the tested DF sources is shown in Fig. 2. It is important to highlight that this property has been measured directly upon the fibre-rich extract, without simulating any digestion process. PDF showed the highest ChAC (>70%;  $P < 0.05$ ), much higher than that of the other DFs (ranging from 23 to 29%;  $P > 0.05$ ). In any case, all DF tested samples showed ChAC values higher than 20% which is very interesting and promising. The results obtained for PDF related to their TDF, IDF or SDF content (Table 1) couldn't explain their high ChAC value obtained. So, there must be another reason to explain it and it could be related with the polyphenol content in PDF. Some authors have reported high content of polyphenols in pomegranate

fruit and also in coproducts from the pomegranate juice extraction process.<sup>18,26</sup> These authors<sup>18</sup> reported a Total Polyphenol Content of 19.30 mg gallic acid equivalent per g sample dry weight, in PDF obtained from coproducts of juice extraction. These polyphenols may play a vital role in the suppression of cholesterol absorption by reducing solubility of cholesterol micellization or inhibiting low-density lipoprotein oxidation.<sup>27–29</sup> All these actions have been attributed to the highly reported interactions of polyphenols with compounds present in foods, like lipids, proteins or carbohydrates.<sup>30</sup>

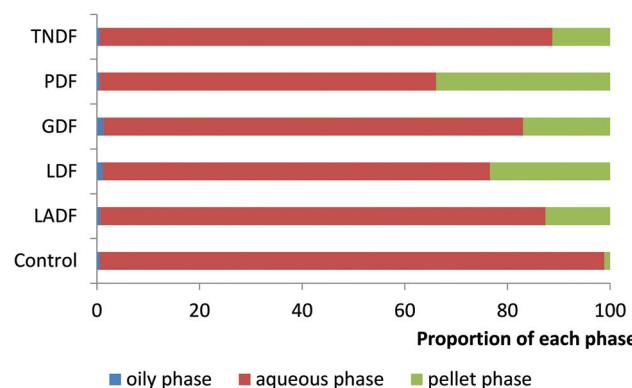
#### Cholesterol distribution profiles after the *in vitro* digestion of meat patties with various fibre-rich extracts

After *in vitro* digestion of all pork patty samples, the products obtained were centrifuged for assessment of the distribution profiles of cholesterol. Fig. 3 shows the proportions of each phase (oily, aqueous and pellet phase) identified after the *in vitro* digestion of all pork patties added with some fibre-rich extracts. In all samples, the highest proportion was for the aqueous phase and the lowest for the oily phase ( $P < 0.05$ ). The oily phase ranged from 0.57 to 1.24% without differences ( $P > 0.05$ ) between them.

Sek *et al.* (2002)<sup>21</sup> reported that after lipid *in vitro* digestion, the phase behaviour of their lipolytic products was: an oily phase containing cholesterol and undigested triglycerides and



**Fig. 2** Cholesterol Adsorption Capacity (ChAC %) of different dietary fibres obtained from agroindustrial coproducts. (TNDF: tiger nut fibre; LADF: lemon albedo dietary fibre; PDF: pomegranate dietary fibre; GDF: grapefruit dietary fibre; LDF: lemon dietary fibre).



**Fig. 3** Proportions of each phase (oily, aqueous and pellet phase) identified after the *in vitro* digestion of pork patties added with some fibre-rich extracts. (Control: without fibre added; TNDF: tiger nut fibre; LADF: lemon albedo dietary fibre; PDF: pomegranate dietary fibre; GDF: grapefruit dietary fibre; LDF: lemon dietary fibre).

diglycerides; an aqueous phase containing bile salts, fatty acids and monoglycerides; and a pellet phase containing approximately 5 mM of fatty acid, presumably as an insoluble soap. A number of *in vitro* studies have shown that DF can alter lipid digestion. Boisen and Eggum (1991)<sup>31</sup> suggested that the inhibition mechanism of most fibres might be due to the absorption of enzymes into the fibre matrix, or unspecific binding to the fibres. Lairon *et al.* (2007)<sup>32</sup> reported that the main mechanisms are that some SDF forming viscous solutions drastically reduce the rate of lipid emulsification, with a resultant noticeable lowering of the extent of fat lipolysis. Various DF sources can also bind bile acids, as well as mixed micelle components such as monoacylglycerols and free fatty acids or free cholesterol, thus explaining the partial disruption of the micellization process leading to reduced micellar solubilisation of lipid moieties and, finally, to blunted and/or delayed intestinal uptake of lipid moieties and cholesterol.<sup>15,32–34</sup>

Table 2 shows the cholesterol retained (%) in each phase after the *in vitro* digestion process of meat patties with various fibre-rich extracts. As can be seen in the results for control sample (meat patty without dietary fibre), the oily phase contains all the cholesterol. When some fibre-rich extracts were added to the meat patty, some amount of cholesterol was also detected in the pellet phase. In any sample (control or with fibre-rich extracts) cholesterol was detected in the aqueous phase. So, the effect of the fibre-rich extracts on cholesterol retention is likely to be related with the cholesterol retained in the pellet phase. The highest ( $P < 0.05$ ) proportion of cholesterol retained in this phase was found for PDF, followed by LDF, TNDF, LADF and GDF in this order and with differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) between all of them. The effect of dietary fibre is likely to be mainly based on direct binding of cholesterol which cannot be reabsorbed by the body and thus is excreted. Although this mechanism of direct binding forces between the fibre and cholesterol has been usually attributed to IDF, some studies indicate that it can also be associated with SDF, in analogy to the cholesterol-lowering effect of IDF.<sup>35</sup> These authors reported that these direct binding forces could be

hydrophobic interactions. However, this is still being controversially discussed and the detailed mechanisms remain unclear.

Looking at the content in SDF and IDF of each extract (Table 1) there is no direct relation between their content and the amount of cholesterol retained by the fibre-rich extract (Table 2). However, the extract that showed the same proportion of SDF and IDF (PDF) also showed the highest ( $P < 0.05$ ) proportion of cholesterol retained in the pellet phase.

It must be noted that the PDF extract that showed the highest ( $P < 0.05$ ) cholesterol absorption capacity before *in vitro* digestion (Fig. 2) also showed the highest ( $P < 0.05$ ) proportion of cholesterol retained in the pellet phase after *in vitro* digestion of meat patties with PDF added. There is a linear-logarithmic correlation ( $R^2 = 0.8437$ ) between the cholesterol adsorption capacity before *in vitro* digestion and cholesterol retention in the pellet phase after *in vitro* digestion.

As can be seen and previously discussed for ChAC of PDF extracts, the high content in polyphenolic compounds reported for these extracts could also have contributed to the high levels for cholesterol retention in the pellet phase.

## Conclusions

The fibre-rich extracts, obtained from agroindustrial coproducts, used in this study are a good source of DF and all of them exhibit cholesterol adsorption capacity. Pomegranate dietary fibre shows the same proportion of soluble and insoluble dietary fibre and also the highest percentage of cholesterol adsorption capacity.

The addition of these fibre-rich extracts to pork patties, increases cholesterol retention in the pellet phase after *in vitro* digestion. Pomegranate dietary fibre shows the highest effect. Only the content of dietary fibre or the proportion of insoluble/soluble dietary fibre in the fibre-rich extracts doesn't explain their behaviour on cholesterol retention. Other aspects related to the type and amount of bioactive compounds (polyphenols principally) in the fibre-rich extracts (which depend on the original source) could be affecting this property.

Nevertheless, the method for determining the cholesterol adsorption capacity (simple and easy method) of dietary fibres allows an estimation of their capacity to retain cholesterol after the *in vitro* digestion process (long and complicated method).

The application of these fibre-rich extracts in food elaboration processes due to their healthy properties could be very interesting if one of the most important properties that can be highlighted is their ability to decrease cholesterol.

**Table 2** Cholesterol retained (%) in each phase after the *In vitro* digestion process of meat patties with various fibre-rich extracts

	Cholesterol retained in each phase (%)		
	Oily phase	Aqueous phase	Pellet phase
Control	98.89 ± 1.56a	nd	nd
LDF	75.30 ± 5.42c	nd	18.07 ± 1.76b
GDF	89.32 ± 6.89b	nd	5.68 ± 0.65e
PDF	68.14 ± 4.19d	nd	31.86 ± 2.19a
LADF	88.95 ± 5.35b	nd	7.71 ± 0.66d
TNDF	85.39 ± 2.20b	nd	14.61 ± 1.20c

LDF: lemon dietary fibre; GDF: grapefruit dietary fibre; PDF: pomegranate dietary fibre; LADF: lemon albedo dietary fibre; TNDF: tiger nut dietary fibre. nd: not detected. The results are expressed as means ± standard deviations. <sup>a–e</sup>Values followed by different letters in the same column are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test.

## Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the grant of Miguel Hernández University for Research and Innovation 2013.

## References

- 1 M. Viuda-Martos, M. C. López-Marcos, J. Fernández-López, E. Sendra, J. H. López-Vargas and J. A. Pérez-Alvarez, *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.*, 2010, **9**, 240–258.
- 2 C. W. Kendall, A. Esfahani and D. J. A. Jenkins, *Food Hydrocolloids*, 2009, **24**, 42–48.
- 3 G. Dongowski, *Food Chem.*, 2007, **104**, 390–397.
- 4 T. S. Kahlon, M. M. Chiu and M. H. Chapman, *Cereal Chem.*, 2009, **86**, 329–332.
- 5 M. L. Fernández, *Curr. Opin. Lipidol.*, 2001, **12**, 35–40.
- 6 N. Zhang, C. Huang and S. Ou, *J. Hazard. Mater.*, 2011, **186**, 236–239.
- 7 IFIC, *Food and health survey*, International Food Information Council Foundation, Washington, DC, 2012.
- 8 L. Niba, *Food Technol.*, 2012, **66**, 36–43.
- 9 C. F. Chau and Y. L. Huang, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 2003, **51**, 2615–2618.
- 10 L. Alesón-Carbonell, J. Fernández-López, M. E. Sayas-Barberá, E. Sendra and J. A. Pérez-Alvarez, *J. Food Sci.*, 2003, **68**, 1826–1830.
- 11 L. Alesón-Carbonell, J. Fernández-López, J. A. Pérez-Alvarez and V. Kuri, *Innovative Food Sci. Emerging Technol.*, 2005, **6**, 247–255.
- 12 J. M. Fernández-Ginés, J. Fernández-López, E. Sayas, E. Sendra and J. A. Pérez-Alvarez, *J. Food Sci.*, 2003, **68**, 710–715.
- 13 E. Sendra, P. Fayos, Y. Lario, J. Fernández-López, E. Sayas-Barberá and J. A. Pérez-Alvarez, *Food Microbiol.*, 2008, **25**, 13–21.
- 14 E. Sánchez-Zapata, E. Sayas, J. A. Pérez-Alvarez and J. Fernández-López, *Fleischwirtsch. Int.*, 2012, **27**, 63–65.
- 15 S. J. Hur, B. O. Lim, G. B. Park and S. T. Joo, *J. Food Sci.*, 2009, **74**, C653–C657.
- 16 M. Minekus, M. Alminger, P. Alvito, S. Balance, T. Bohn, C. Bourlieu, F. Carrière, R. Boutrou, M. Corredig, D. Dupont, C. Dufour, L. Egger, M. Golding, S. Karakaya, B. Kirkhus, S. Le Feunteun, U. Lesmes, A. Macierzanka, A. Mackie, S. Marze, D. J. McClements, O. Ménard, I. Recio, C. N. Santos, R. P. Singh, G. E. Vegarud, S. J. Wickham, W. Weitschies and A. Brodkorb, *Food Funct.*, 2014, **5**, 113–1124.
- 17 E. Sánchez-Zapata, E. Fuentes-Zaragoza, J. Fernández-López, E. Sendra, E. Sayas, C. Navarro and J. A. Pérez-Alvarez, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 2009, **57**, 7719–7725.
- 18 B. Gullón, M. E. Pintado, J. A. Pérez-Alvarez and M. Viuda-Martos, *Food Control*, 2016, **59**, 94–98.
- 19 C. M. Bailina, MSc. Thesis, Universidad Miguel Hernández, Spain, 2014.
- 20 AOAC, in *Official Methods of Analysis of AOAC International*, Association of Official Analytical Chemists, Washington, DC, 16th edn, 1997.
- 21 L. Sek, C. J. H. Porter, A. M. Kaukonen and W. N. Charman, *J. Pharm. Pharmacol.*, 2002, **54**, 29–41.
- 22 M. R. Mazalli, A. C. H. F. Sawaya, M. N. Eberlin and N. Bragagnolo, *Lipids*, 2006, **41**, 615–622.
- 23 J. Fernández-López, E. Sendra, C. Navarro, E. Sayas, M. Viuda-Martos and J. A. Pérez-Alvarez, *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.*, 2009, **44**, 748–756.
- 24 S. Jongaroontaprangsee, W. Trinrong, W. Chokanaporn, P. Methacanon, S. Devahastin and N. Chiewchan, *Int. J. Food Prop.*, 2007, **10**, 887–897.
- 25 R. Chawla and G. R. Patil, *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.*, 2010, **9**, 178–196.
- 26 H. Sengul, E. Surek and D. Nilufer-Erdil, *Food Res. Int.*, 2014, **62**, 1069–1079.
- 27 M. Avivam, L. Dornfeld, M. Kaplan, R. Coleman, D. Gaitini, S. Nitecki, A. Hofman, M. Rosenblat, N. Volkova, D. Presser, J. Attias, T. Hayek and B. Fuhrman, *Drugs Exp. Clin. Res.*, 2002, **28**, 49–62.
- 28 N. Sathaporn, M. Kittana, T. Thavaree and A. Sirichai, *Molecules*, 2011, **16**, 5054–5061.
- 29 S. Meguro, T. Hasumura and T. Hase, *Nutr. Metab.*, 2013, **10**, 61–69.
- 30 L. Jakobek, *Food Chem.*, 2015, **175**, 556–567.
- 31 S. Boisen and B. O. Eggum, *Nutr. Res. Rev.*, 1991, **4**, 141–162.
- 32 D. Lairon, B. Play and D. Jourdheuil-Rahmani, *J. Nutr. Biochem.*, 2007, **18**, 217–227.
- 33 J. M. Gee, N. A. Blackburn and I. T. Johanson, *Br. J. Nutr.*, 1983, **50**, 215–224.
- 34 F. Kamp, D. Zakim, F. Zhang, N. Noy and J. A. Hamilton, *Biochemistry*, 1995, **34**, 11928–11937.
- 35 C. Zacherl, P. Eisner and E. Karl-Heinz, *Food Chem.*, 2011, **126**, 423–428.