

1 **Physiologically-based modelling of food digestion and intestinal microbiota: State of**  
2 **the art and future challenges. An INFOGEST review.**

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51        **Abstract**

52    This review focuses on modelling methodologies of the gastrointestinal tract during digestion  
53    that have adopted a system view approach, and more particularly on physiologically-based  
54    compartmental models of food digestion and of the host-diet-microbiota interactions. This type  
55    of modelling appears very promising to integrate the complex stream of mechanisms that have  
56    to be considered, and to retrieve a full picture of the digestion process from mouth to colon. We  
57    may expect these approaches to become more and more accurate in the future, and serve as a  
58    useful means to gather the available knowledge, interpret postprandial *in vivo* data, and make  
59    relevant predictions. This paper intends to provide a scientific and historical background in this  
60    field of research, before discussing the future challenges and potential benefits of the  
61    establishment of such a model to study and predict food digestion and absorption in humans.

62    **Keywords:** modelling, gastrointestinal tract, digestion, transit, absorption, microbiota

## 63 1. Introduction

64 Investigating the effect of food composition and structure on its behavior in the human  
65 gastrointestinal (GI) tract is relevant for food developers and nutritionists in order to measure  
66 and optimize nutrient availability. Although final assessments needed to make health, nutritional  
67 and functional claims must always involve human studies, these are very expensive, time  
68 consuming and constrained by medical and ethical assessment of their acceptance. As  
69 alternatives to human and animal studies, *in vitro* experiments, which include both static and  
70 dynamic digestion models, have become very popular in recent years. The international  
71 INFOGEST network has been particularly active in this field, notably regarding the harmonization  
72 and the validation of *in vitro* digestion protocols (Brodkorb et al. 2019; Minekus et al. 2014; Mulet-  
73 Cabero et al. 2020) and on the correlation of associated results with *in vivo* data (Bohn et al. 2018;  
74 Dupont et al. 2019; Egger et al. 2016). Although *in vitro* studies have demonstrated success in  
75 evaluating the effects of food properties on digestion, they miss certain properties related to the  
76 way the body dynamically controls the digestion process. To expand our understanding of the  
77 relations between foods, or diets, with the overall function of the human GI tract and post  
78 absorptive processes, computer modelling of the digestion process appears a very promising  
79 means.

80 The present review focuses on mathematical models of the GI tract that have adopted a system-  
81 based approach, and more particularly on physiologically-based compartmental modelling. These  
82 methods have been applied in the veterinarian area related to animal feed sciences (Bannink et  
83 al. 2006; Bastianelli et al. 1996; Rivest et al. 2000; Strathe et al. 2008; Usry et al. 1991), and are  
84 widely used in pharmaceuticals nowadays for the development of orally administered  
85 pharmaceuticals (Chetty et al. 2018; Yu 1999; Zhuang & Lu 2016). Following these works,  
86 compartmental models related to food digestion and/or postprandial metabolism have also been  
87 proposed. This review aims at providing a state of the art on these researches, before discussing  
88 future challenges associated with the modelling of food digestion and its metabolic repercussions  
89 in humans.

90 In section 2, this review highlights the compartmental organization of current pharmacokinetic  
91 models and their contribution to pharmaceutical development. Section 3 describes features that  
92 have been added to this compartmental approach for the modelling of food digestion and

93 absorption. Compared to the existing pharmacokinetic models, much more attention is needed  
94 to introduce the complexity of food materials consisting of a multiscale structure containing many  
95 components. Section 4 discusses the overall progress made in food digestion compartmental  
96 modelling, and gives an opinion on what future developments are needed.

## 97 2. Modelling the digestive tract

98 Computer simulation and mathematical modelling are common techniques that have proven  
99 their worth in many disciplines. Generally speaking, a mathematical model aims to describe  
100 aspects of a real-life phenomenon by using fundamental assumptions to purposefully remove  
101 unnecessary details. Consequently, a mathematical model is merely an analogy or caricature of  
102 the phenomenon and as such wrong. However, models might still accurately depict the system  
103 behaviors, and hence be very useful.

104 In the current discussion, we focus on dynamic (as opposed to static) models in which time-  
105 dependent changes are accounted for and which are typically characterized by systems of  
106 differential equations. Another key categorization of mathematical models is on a scale from  
107 empirical to mechanistic. Purely empirical models make no assumptions about the mechanisms  
108 controlling the system behavior, but focus solely on replicating the data. As such, they commonly  
109 fail when used for predictions outside of the range of data. Examples in pharmacokinetics include  
110 models with sum-of-inverse-Gaussian functions to describe drug absorption profiles (Csajka et al.  
111 2005) or Bayesian p-splines to estimate pharmacokinetic parameters (Jullion et al. 2009). By  
112 contrast, a purely mechanistic model incorporates physiologically-based assumptions about the  
113 mechanisms controlling the system. For example, each compartment would have some specific  
114 physiological identification, as would the parameters associated with each compartment.  
115 Mechanistic models are predominantly applied to data to investigate whether the model mirrors  
116 the trends observed experimentally. Model parameters are estimated with caution to preserve  
117 the scientific soundness of the model. One advantage of a mechanistic over an empirical model  
118 is its ability to extrapolate beyond the data with which it was built. In pharmacokinetics, many  
119 models are semi-mechanistic, often having physiologically relevant compartments but with at  
120 least some of the parameters determined empirically.

121 The research on compartmental modelling has led to a number of commercial packages for  
122 pharmacological modelling of the delivery of orally administrated drugs as reviewed by others  
123 (Chetty et al. 2018; Li et al. 2018; Pentafragka et al. 2019). The difficulty in these PBPK models is  
124 that evaluation of model parameters is usually empirical rather than based on the underlying  
125 mechanisms (Aarons 2005). Nonetheless, such mathematical methodologies have been  
126 successfully developed in the pharmaceutical industry to the point where they are now often  
127 used in advance of clinical trials to help optimize the trial design for a given objective (Danhof et  
128 al. 2008; van der Graaf & Benson 2011).

129 Similar developments have been proposed to model food digestion and absorption in the  
130 alimentary tract with two main approaches: continuum and compartmental models. Continuum  
131 models take the tubular organization of the gastrointestinal tract as a starting point and  
132 mathematically describe the functional variation, transit, digestion and absorption by propulsive  
133 contractions as a function of the location (Labarthe et al. 2019; Moxon et al. 2016, 2017;  
134 Taghipoor et al. 2012, 2014). These models can consider simultaneously different aspects of  
135 digestion, such as the transit of the food along the intestine, enzymatic degradation of foods, and  
136 nutrients absorption. However, these models involve systems of partial differential equations  
137 structured in space, which increase in complexity for each digestive feature added, requiring  
138 efficient numeric solvers. The remainder of this review is restricted to compartmental modelling,  
139 as most generally used in pharmacokinetic modelling (Li et al. 2018; Pentafragka et al. 2019). In  
140 these models, the GI tract is represented by a series of compartments with different  
141 functionalities and digestive conditions (pH, enzyme concentrations, etc.), with typically: the  
142 mouth, stomach, small intestine, and large intestine. They sometimes include more gradual  
143 variations, as for instance the duodenum, jejunum, and ileum for the small intestine.

144

### 145 3. Food digestion models

#### 146 3.1. [What phenomena should be modelled?](#)

147 Although compartmental models have found wide applications in pharmacokinetics, they are not  
148 directly suited for application in food digestion research. They usually assume specific generalized  
149 conditions, in either the fasted or fed states, but lack a suitable description of the meal properties.

150 Therefore, a step to advance towards application for food digestion studies is to include the  
151 effects of food composition (size, caloric density, buffering effects ...) and structure (liquid or solid,  
152 inner substructures...) on the modelled mechanisms. These mechanisms are outlined in Table 1,  
153 and have recently led to a public shared reference library focusing on related *in silico* models (In  
154 silico working-group of INFOGEST 2019). Examples of how these phenomena are becoming  
155 integrated into mathematical food digestion models will be given in the next sections. Beyond  
156 these general considerations, an appropriate level of detail is needed to simulate the fate of  
157 nutrients from the foods to peripheral blood. As schematically represented in Figure 1 for starch  
158 digestion (omitting proteins and lipids to keep the figure simple), we believe that at least the  
159 lumen and the gut wall should be distinguished, and that the original substrates and end products  
160 of the enzymatic reactions should be considered. A further possible step, not considered in Table  
161 1 and Figure 1, would consist of integrating the physiology that controls the gastrointestinal  
162 conditions of digestion (e.g. feedback mechanisms). This currently relatively unexplored aspect  
163 will be discussed in section 4.2.

164

### 165 3.2. Integration of the food composition in nutrients

166 A number of compartmental models have been developed in relation to food digestion in  
167 humans, or feed digestion in animals. Examples range from models addressing the flow and mass  
168 transfer of digesta along the gastrointestinal tract (Moxon et al. 2016; Rivest et al. 2000;  
169 Taghipoor et al. 2012; Usry et al. 1991) up to the metabolic fate of absorbed nutrients in the host  
170 (Fouillet et al. 2009; Mc Auley & Mooney 2015). However, these models do not distinguish the  
171 different food components, since they usually focus on one kind of nutrient only. In order to  
172 simulate the digestion of complex foods or meals, the first necessary step is thus to integrate their  
173 nutritional composition.

174 The first attempts to integrate all the main constituents of food products in a compartmental  
175 model of digestion arose from animal feed science. A very good example thereof is the modelling  
176 of digestion and absorption in pigs by Bastianelli et al. (1996), which was extended and refined by  
177 Strathe et al. (2008). In the version proposed by Strathe et al. (2008), a total of 38 coupled  
178 compartments are considered, consisting of a line-up of 4 main GI segments (stomach, proximal  
179 and distal small intestine, as well as the large intestine) subdivided into the major biochemical

180 compounds (including endogenous and dietary proteins, amino acids, starch and sugars, dietary  
181 lipids and fatty acids, degradable and undegradable dietary fiber). In this model, gastric emptying  
182 and intestinal transit are represented by mass action, and the rates of enzymatic degradation and  
183 absorption of nutrients are described by saturation kinetics. Model parameterization was  
184 performed based on a literature collection on the digestive physiology of pigs. Its stability was  
185 evaluated by sensitivity analysis (see section 3.5), and the quality of its predictions was assessed  
186 by comparisons with published results. Overall, the model appeared quite robust to variations of  
187 the studied parameters, and fairly predicted the digestibility of the main food components, lipid  
188 excepted, as well as the absorption profile of the studied nutrients (glucose, amino acids, and  
189 volatile fatty acids).

190 To the best of our knowledge, no similar model (i.e. with all nutrients) has been published yet for  
191 food or meal digestion and absorption in humans, though we are aware of at least one ongoing  
192 development (van Aken 2020) that will be exemplified in section 4.4. Human physiologically-  
193 based compartment models that include GI tract compartments have been, nonetheless,  
194 proposed to predict the metabolic fate of each of the main nutrients independently: proteins,  
195 lipids, and carbohydrates, for instance in Fouillet et al. (2009), Jelic et al. (2009), and Rozendaal  
196 et al. (2018). Although these models do not primarily focus on the mechanisms that transform  
197 food into absorbable nutrients, they are important extensions of the previously described  
198 approaches. A better representation of the functioning of the GI tract during digestion, using  
199 compartmentalization suitable to all kinds of nutrients, would thus directly serve postprandial  
200 metabolic models, by integration with other physiological compartments, such as splanchnic and  
201 peripheral organs. As an example, a total of 13 anatomical compartments, 9 of which representing  
202 non-GI tract compartments, were used by Fouillet et al. (2009) to simulate the dynamics of meal  
203 nitrogen absorption, splanchnic uptake, and metabolism, with subsequent peripheral transfer  
204 and deposition. Because the number of compartments and associated parameters increases  
205 remarkably in such models, error compensations are likely to occur and remain undetected.  
206 Beyond computational issues, this is another important reason why building and validating, a  
207 whole-body and all-nutrients physiologically-based model remains a difficult challenge.

208



### 209 3.3. Integration of food structure effects

210 The amount and the dynamics of nutrient uptake after a meal are also largely governed by food  
211 structure effects (Bornhorst et al. 2016; Dupont et al. 2018). Meals differing only by their  
212 processing conditions can even affect intestinal mucosa parameters and the microbiota  
213 composition in the colon (Beaumont et al. 2017; Oberli et al. 2018). These findings result from  
214 the influence of food structure on key mechanisms taking place in the upper parts of the GI tract:  
215 food comminution, food mixing with digestive fluids, gastric emptying kinetics, etc. For instance,  
216 it is well known that the gastric emptying kinetics of liquid meals follow an exponential behavior,  
217 whereas a lag phase is classically observed with solid meals. To properly simulate the breakdown  
218 of solid foods and their mixing with digestive fluids, computational solid mechanics and  
219 hydrodynamics modelling of oral and gastric processing may appear the best option (Ferrua &  
220 Singh 2010, 2015; Harrison et al. 2014, 2018). However, current oral and gastric computational  
221 models do not account yet for secretions and enzymatic reaction(s) and have only focused on the  
222 gastric behavior of liquids, with no or few discrete solid particles. These are moreover  
223 computationally expensive and are not easily compatible with system modelling approaches. This  
224 is why other means are classically used to try reproducing food structural effects in  
225 compartmental models.

226 The most commonly employed strategy is to simulate the gastric emptying kinetics with empirical  
227 equations. The oldest one, which is still among the most commonly employed, is the Elashoff  
228 equation (Elashoff et al. 1982), which assumes that the fraction of meal in the stomach follows a  
229 power exponential decay. As recently reviewed by Muttakin et al. (2019), other equations have  
230 been proposed for the evolution of gastric volume (Siegel et al. 1988), or by introducing  
231 exponential pre-factors to enable representing a delayed sigmoidal behavior (Kong & Singh 2009),  
232 as generally observed with solid foods.

233 Another strategy consists in assuming several gastric sub-compartments (Dalla Man et al. 2006;  
234 Le Feunteun et al. 2014; Sicard et al. 2018; van Bentum & Nelson 2011) to incorporate non-ideal  
235 mixing. For instance, two gastric sub-compartments were used by Le Feunteun et al. (2014) to  
236 simulate protein digestion of differently structured dairy protein matrices in mini-pigs: one to  
237 represent the matter that is retained within the stomach (large particles, matter too far from the  
238 pylorus, etc.), and another to represent the matter that is well mixed with the secretions and is

239 ready to be emptied. Such a strategy enables representing heterogeneous gastric content with a  
240 delayed emptying for solid foods, meanwhile avoiding simulating unreasonable gastric volume or  
241 secretions.

242 However, none of these above options is perfect. New developments thus remain to be proposed  
243 to relate more directly food structural properties with their behavior in the upper parts of the GI  
244 tract, and in particular with their kinetics of gastric emptying and of enzymatic degradation.  
245 Nonetheless, the growing interest of food scientists for the fate of food during digestion is  
246 currently leading to an increasing body of physical models on the behavior of foods in the dynamic  
247 conditions of the GI tract. Examples include models of the buffering capacity of foods in the  
248 stomach (Luo et al. 2018; Mennah-Govela; Mennah-Govela et al. 2019), the swelling of protein  
249 gels (van der Sman et al. 2020), the softening of carbohydrate foods (Drechsler & Bornhorst 2018),  
250 the mechanical breakdown of solid foods (Drechsler & Ferrua 2016), or the mass transfer and  
251 absorption in the intestine (Moxon et al. 2016; Taghipoor et al. 2012, 2014). A reaction-diffusion  
252 model of the gastric digestion of meat proteins, which takes into account enzyme and proton  
253 diffusion into bolus particles with consideration of buffering effects, has even been proposed  
254 recently by Sicard et al. (2018). Given that mechanistic digestion models which aim at integrating  
255 the physical properties of foods remain in their early stages, and that this research area has  
256 become very active, it is expected that important progress will soon be made on the modelling of  
257 food structure effects on digestion.

258

### 259 3.4. Integration of the microbiota

260 The lower part of the digestive system hosts the intestinal microbiota. This complex microbial  
261 community not only processes non-digestible dietary residues by anaerobic digestion reactions  
262 in the colon (Korpela 2018), but also maintains a complex dialogue with the host and plays a very  
263 important protective role against pathogenic microorganisms (Guarner & Malagelada 2003).

264 Some large-scale (whole digestive system or body) digestion models integrating the ecological  
265 and metabolic dynamics of microbes have been developed, in order to provide a detailed  
266 representation of host-diet-microbe interplays. These models are mainly based on two reductive  
267 representations of the intestinal microbiota. The first one focuses on functional traits of

268 microorganisms and models the microbiota by a small number of functional populations,  
269 assuming high functional redundancy in the ecosystem. The second focuses on a few dominant  
270 species, whose metabolism is modelled in detail.

271 A prototypal example of the first category is the model of fiber digestion in the large intestine  
272 developed by Muñoz-Tamayo et al. (2010). The colon is divided into compartments corresponding  
273 to physiological regions, in which a simplified biochemical reactions network models fiber  
274 degradation and short chain fatty acid (SCFA) production. The local microbiota is structured into  
275 functional populations that catalyze these reactions. The model includes transport, diffusion, and  
276 absorption between compartments or between the colon and the host. Its parameters were  
277 drawn from the literature and from *in vitro* culture experiments. This work aimed to synthesize  
278 available knowledge in a single model and to qualitatively reproduce simple nutritional scenarios  
279 such as variation of the dietary fiber level and its influence on SCFA production and colon transit.  
280 Based on the same concept of functional microbial populations, several other models were  
281 proposed, for the proximal colon in humans (Motelica-Wagenaar et al. 2014), for an *in vitro* model  
282 rumen focused on pH, hydrogen metabolism, and hexose and amino acids utilization (Muñoz-  
283 Tamayo et al. 2016), as well as continuous, spatially explicit models coupling microbial  
284 metabolism, fiber digestion and fluid dynamics in the colon (Cremer et al. 2017; Labarthe et al.  
285 2019). Another example is demonstrated by Kettle and co-workers (Kettle et al. 2015, 2018). They  
286 developed an integrated model for the 10 major bacterial functional groups in the human colon.  
287 The growth kinetics and major metabolism of these groups were modelled taking into account  
288 their individual traits in term of substrate specificity, metabolic pathways, and pH effects. The  
289 model accounts for individual differences in terms of microbiota composition and consists of a  
290 large system of differential equations on microbial growth, substrates and metabolites  
291 concentrations. Recently, a multicompartment modelling tool was developed in R, called  
292 “microPop” (Kettle et al. 2018), to simulate microbiota kinetics in different compartments of the  
293 human colon.

294 Models in the second category result from the rapid and successful development of constraint-  
295 based genome-scale metabolic models (GEMs) of microorganisms (Kim et al. 2017; Thiele &  
296 Palsson 2010). In these models, the internal metabolic flux partition of each cell is assumed to be  
297 at quasi-steady-state and must be computed as soon as the external conditions and uptake rates

298 change. There are several methods to do this, one of the most popular being flux balance analysis  
299 (Orth et al. 2010) for which highly efficient tools such as the MATLAB Toolbox COBRA (Heirendt  
300 et al. 2019) can be used. GEMs based microbiota models are recent, an example being the model  
301 proposed by Heinken et al. (2013), including 15 prevalent genomes and the host epithelial cells.  
302 The model computes the metabolic partition between the different cells given input fluxes of  
303 nutrients and can be coupled with compartment models.

304 Advances in culture-free sequencing techniques in the past 20 years, such as 16SrDNA amplicon  
305 sequencing or Whole Genome Shotgun (WGS) allows accessing the taxonomic and functional  
306 profiling of large intestine microbiota for human (Li et al. 2014), pig (Xiao et al. 2016) or mouse  
307 (Xiao et al. 2015). For both types of models mentioned above, recent efforts have been proposed  
308 to integrate the enormous taxonomic and functional diversity in the digestive microbiota,  
309 together with the wide variety of indigested dietary fibers (Korpela 2018). A first attempt to link  
310 functional population with WGS metagenomics can be found in Raguideau et al. (2016), and a  
311 complete MATLAB toolbox to build and simulate GEM models of host and microbiota based on  
312 16S data has recently been released by Baldini et al. (2019).

313

### 314 3.5. [Mathematical tools for predictive modelling](#)

315 Predictive compartmental models are characterized by their ability to cope with uncertainties  
316 related to environmental variability (e.g. structure and preparation of drugs or food), inter-  
317 individual variability (e.g. age, weight, sex or physical condition of the subject) and finally with the  
318 more or less accurate knowledge and representation of the phenomena involved in the digestion  
319 and absorption of nutrients. Indeed, the ultimate goal of predictive modelling is to provide  
320 prediction intervals in which quantities of interest are located when simulating an uptake  
321 scenario, with an associated probability and a modulation by the characteristics of foods and  
322 individuals. Models for food digestion and absorption are often large-sized, complex models with  
323 limited observations, especially *in vivo*. Moreover, the available information is heterogeneous, in  
324 that they may be obtained by very different measurement techniques and come from different  
325 experiments or subjects. This is why building predictive models is a major issue in the field and  
326 calls for the use of sophisticated mathematical tools. For instance, parameter estimation, in which  
327 descriptors of the statistical distribution of the model parameter are estimated, such as the mean,

328 variance, and covariance, is a crucial step. Many generic or specialized software or programs are  
329 available, implementing methods ranging from nonlinear least-squares regression to Bayesian  
330 estimation (Balsa-Canto et al. 2016; Haario et al. 2006; Raue et al. 2015). Other aspects, such as  
331 interindividual variability, also have to be accounted for when dealing with population studies.  
332 This can be done through mixed effect models (Lavielle 2014), which can incorporate covariates.

333 In establishing a comprehensive food digestion model, we may also insist on the usefulness of  
334 conducting Sensitivity Analysis (SA), which is a highly relevant tool for models where several  
335 phenomena may interact in a complex way to produce an overall behavior. SA enables  
336 highlighting parameters whose variation has a significant influence on the model responses.  
337 Hence, parameters distinguished as significant can be estimated experimentally and/or clinically,  
338 while the rest can be taken from the literature or approximated. SA may also lead to the total  
339 elimination of some model parameters considered insignificant (Manca 2018).

340 Methods employed for SA can be either local or global. Local methods estimate the effect of small  
341 parameter variations on a model response and are primarily used in steady-state models. Global  
342 sensitivity analysis (GSA) (Saltelli et al. 2008; Sudret 2008), by contrast, is able to examine the  
343 entire parameter space, manage nonlinearities well and provide a complete ranking of  
344 parameters by “significance”. GSA is a numerical exploration approach based on statistical  
345 theory, that aims to understand the influence of parameters on selected model outputs, for which  
346 several software tools are available; see for instance Iooss et al. (2019) and Saturnino et al. (2019).  
347 For example, an application of SA can be found in Labarthe et al. (2019), where GSA was  
348 performed with a model of the spatial repartition of the bacterial population in the human colon,  
349 and helped in understanding the influence and relative strength of different factors including  
350 peristalsis, fiber intake and mucus viscosity on the total bacterial abundance along the colon.

351 In GSA, the parameter space is sampled in an appropriate way and the corresponding model  
352 outputs are subsequently analyzed with various methods, the most popular of which are the  
353 calculation of Sobol indices and Partial Rank Correlation Coefficients (PRCC) (see Iooss & Lemaître  
354 (2015) for a complete review). For complex models, low-cost computational screening methods  
355 can be used to eliminate insignificant variables prior to employing GSA for the remaining  
356 parameters, such as the screening method of Morris (1991).

357

358 4. Future challenges

359 4.1. Towards a more complete model of food transit and absorption

360 As depicted in section 3, mathematical models related to various aspects of the GI tract have been  
361 proposed from different scientific fields (pharmaceutics, nutrition, animal sciences, food sciences,  
362 microbiology). A number of pieces are thus available to start building a system model of the  
363 functioning of the human GI tract during digestion. Its skeleton could be inspired from the works  
364 already undertaken in pharmaceutics and animal sciences, before integrating the most relevant  
365 and promising modelling efforts.

366 For instance, the model proposed by Strathe et al. (2008) for pigs already accounts for all the main  
367 nutrients of a meal, with consideration of their transit, their hydrolysis, their absorption kinetics,  
368 as well as for nutrient degradation and some aspects of the microbial metabolism in the large  
369 intestine. We may, therefore, assume that a comparable model organization, with some  
370 adaptations related to human physiology, could constitute a fair starting point before refining and  
371 completing the model structure and its underlying hypotheses. It has also been shown that gastric  
372 emptying kinetics can be fairly predicted by assuming a nutrient feedback mechanism in the  
373 proximal small intestine (Hunt & Stubbs 1975; Moxon et al. 2017), leading to a mean rate of caloric  
374 emptying of about 2.5 kcal/min in humans (Hunt et al. 1985). This strategy, therefore, seems  
375 much more elegant than empirical equations or mass action laws to predict gastric emptying, as  
376 recently proposed in a standardized semi-dynamic protocol for *in vitro* digestion (Mulet-Cabero  
377 et al. 2020). However, to the best of the authors' knowledge, this modelling strategy has not been  
378 applied yet in published compartmental models of food digestion and absorption. Recent  
379 developments in the modelling of enzymatic hydrolysis are also providing new means to take into  
380 account some key properties of the main nutrients, with non-empirical relations between the  
381 model parameters and the food properties. These mostly rely on the consideration that different  
382 rates of hydrolysis can be assumed for different subclasses of the considered nutrient (*i.e.* more  
383 or less resistant and/or accessible fractions). Examples have been proposed for lipids (Giang et al.  
384 2016), proteins (Barros & Xavier Malcata 2004; Kondjoyan et al. 2015) and starch (Edwards et al.  
385 2014; Li et al. 2019; Meraz et al. 2019), with promising results. These approaches therefore seem  
386 very interesting to integrate the food scientist knowledge, which rapidly increases with the spread  
387 of *in vitro* digestion studies in this community. A relevant model of food digestion in the upper

388 parts of the GI tract would also enable better predictions of the unabsorbed meal fraction, and  
389 hence be valuable for the modelling of the colon microbiota functioning.

390 The present review also highlights lacks of knowledge and modelling tools. In particular, new  
391 developments would be very welcome to relate more directly the oral and gastric behavior of  
392 solid food with their known or measured properties. We may nonetheless be confident that the  
393 growing interest of food scientists and modelers for this research area will rapidly bear fruit,  
394 without forgetting that empirical relations can be of use while awaiting more mechanistic  
395 representations. A great number of pieces are thus already available to start building a framework  
396 to test and improve our understanding of food digestion in humans.

397 In fact, we may even highlight here the ongoing development of a multicompartment model of  
398 digestion in humans by one of the authors (van Aken 2020), which considers all nutrients, most  
399 of the phenomena listed in Table 1, and even some physiological feedbacks (see section 4.2). As  
400 an illustrative example of the capabilities of such a model, Figure 2 compares its predictions with  
401 the human data obtained by Eelderink et al. (2012) on blood glucose and insulin excursions after  
402 a bread meal and a pasta meal. As observed experimentally, the model could reproduce a slightly  
403 lower glycaemic peak and a much reduced insulinemic peak for the pasta meal compared to the  
404 bread meal. In the model, the differences between the two meals were predominantly caused by  
405 the difference in food structures. Compared to pasta (closed gel-like structure), the model  
406 assumes that bread (open sponge-like structure with more accessible starch) requires a longer  
407 time of oral processing and more saliva to obtain a swallowable bolus, and is associated to faster  
408 starch hydrolysis and slower gastric emptying kinetics. It is not the purpose of the present review  
409 to describe the model structure nor to discuss the suitability of these modelling assumptions.  
410 Figure 2 is rather intended to provide an illustration of what can be achieved with a  
411 physiologically-based compartmental model of food digestion: put hypotheses to the test,  
412 simulate different scenarios, etc. It also provides a concrete illustration that the establishment of  
413 a comprehensive model of the functioning of the GI tract during human digestion can become a  
414 reality in the near future.

415

#### 416 4.2. [Towards the integration of feedback mechanisms](#)

417 The conditions effective in the alimentary system are highly influenced by the presence of food  
418 in order to acutely adjust the physiological “settings” for optimal performance (van Aken 2010).  
419 Although physiological studies have delivered the detailed biological pathways for many of these  
420 regulatory mechanisms, mathematical modelling of these processes in relation to food digestion  
421 has remained rare. In the fed state, a large range of stimuli, including stomach and intestinal  
422 distension, luminal pressure, the presence of particles, acidity, osmotic value, and nutrient  
423 degradation products are detected by receptor cells all along the alimentary tract. These activate  
424 physiological responses through neural signals, sometimes directly, and sometimes indirectly  
425 through the nervus vagus, activated by secreting specific gut hormones, such as cholecystokinin  
426 (CCK), gastric inhibitory polypeptide (GIP), glucagon like peptide-1 (GLP-1), peptide tyrosine  
427 tyrosine (PYY), gastrin, motilin and secretin (van Aken 2010).

428 Saliva secretion is stimulated by chewing, the parasympathic pathway, and various food stimuli  
429 (Ekström et al. 2012; Froehlich et al. 1987; Gavião & Bilt 2004; Pandey et al. 2019). The secretion  
430 of gastric acid is stimulated by stomach distension, the presence of peptides in the stomach, the  
431 buffering capacity of the food (Konturek et al. 1974), but is inhibited by a too low pH in the antrum  
432 (Wheeler 1974) and in the duodenum (Konturek & Johnson 1971) via the release of secretin and  
433 neural signals. Gastric acid secretion is also partly controlled by Ghrelin, the “hunger hormone”,  
434 of which the blood levels increase due to the cephalic expectation of food (Arosio et al. 2004).  
435 Food material entering the small intestine is then detected by specific receptors that stimulate  
436 the secretion of pancreatic fluid and bile (Chandra & Liddle 2015; Chey & Chang 2001). These  
437 secretions are also mediated to large extent by CCK (Chey & Chang 2001; Liddle et al. 1985;  
438 Thimister et al. 1996), which is released by endocrine I-cells in the gut wall, neurons of the enteric  
439 nervous system and of the brain (Johnson 2014) in response to digestible proteins, peptides and  
440 certain amino-acids (Buffa et al. 1976; Johnson 2014), as well as fatty acids (Sidhu et al. 2000).  
441 Many other adjustments are related to the transition between fasted and fed states. The  
442 alimentary system even adjusts to returning dietary patterns by slowly modulating parameters  
443 such as receptor sensitivity and transporter presence in the gut (Baggio et al. 2004; Tong &  
444 D’Alessio 2014).



445 Attempts to model some of these control mechanisms have been proposed in the literature, for  
446 instance by Joseph et al. (2003) for the regulation of gastric acid secretion, by Shiang & Kandeel  
447 (2010) and Jelic et al. (2009) for the insulin regulatory system for blood plasma glucose and non-  
448 esterified fatty acids, respectively. As previously evocated, models of the physiological regulation  
449 of gastric emptying have also been proposed by Hunt & Stubbs (1975) and Moxon et al. (2017). It  
450 is noteworthy that these models can remain rather simple mathematically despite the high  
451 complexity of the biological mechanisms involved. For instance, the *in vivo* regulation of gastric  
452 emptying is mediated by many receptors (Minami & McCallum 1984), neural signals, and the  
453 release of intestinal hormones such as CCK, GLP-1, and Ghrelin (Marathe et al. 2013; Minami &  
454 McCallum 1984). Notwithstanding, Moxon et al. (2017) showed that the gastric emptying  
455 patterns observed between low and high nutrient liquid meals could be accurately predicted by  
456 assuming an initial emptying rate followed by a maximal caloric flux into the duodenum. However,  
457 models of regulatory mechanisms remain scarce and can also be quite complex mathematically,  
458 as in Joseph et al. (2003). Much more work is therefore needed to hierarchize the importance of  
459 control mechanisms, to determine those which should be considered to reproduce the trends  
460 observed *in vivo*, and if and how they may be reproduced with simple modelling assumptions.

461

#### 462 4.3. Mathematical and computational challenges

463 Preceding sections highlight promising first steps in establishing a mathematical modelling  
464 framework for food digestion and absorption, built on compartmental approaches that have been  
465 so successful in pharmacokinetics. These initial models typically focus on single nutrients, food  
466 structure, or microbiota, with a few more comprehensive models in animal feed science.  
467 However, to the authors' knowledge, no sustained attempt has been made to link these models  
468 together into a whole-body all-nutrients model for human digestion and absorption incorporating  
469 food structure information and microbiota; this is some indication of the mathematical challenges  
470 this task poses.

471 Table 1 gives insight into those challenges, with a list of 6 physiological compartments and 31  
472 phenomena which the authors think should be modelled. Each of these phenomena adds its own  
473 set of equations and parameters to the modelling framework, leading to a multi-parameter  
474 complex model. As noted at the end of section 3.2, incorporating the modelling of postprandial

475 metabolic responses to the absorption of just one nutrient can already lead to the explosion of  
476 physiological compartments and model parameters. For each nutrient and at various sections of  
477 the alimentary canal, there would be a diverse range of phenomena to model, and one, therefore,  
478 sees that any model of digestion and absorption in humans would be complex.

479 This complexity generates several mathematical challenges, beginning with ensuring that  
480 appropriate equations are used to model the different phenomena. The task of translating  
481 information about digestion processes into appropriate equations where such equations do not  
482 yet exist, requires excellent communication and collaboration between a variety of expert groups.  
483 Another mathematical challenge is the appropriate and physiologically sound determination of  
484 parameter values. Where experimental or otherwise reliable values are not readily available,  
485 more empirical techniques may have to be employed to set parameters, possibly leading to model  
486 inaccuracies. For example, in coupled differential equations with many parameter values to  
487 determine simultaneously, a common danger would be finding a solution that is not the  
488 physiologically relevant optimum. Thus the key challenge regarding parameters is how to  
489 determine physiologically correct values for those which cannot be determined easily and reliably  
490 experimentally or otherwise.

491 Moreover, a computational challenge related to the complexity of human food digestion and  
492 absorption model would be its likely computational expensiveness and inefficiency. If existing  
493 software tools are linked to enact such a model, they would independently perform sometimes  
494 similar tasks without sharing efficiencies with other linked tools, and ultimately the efficiency of  
495 the whole process would be determined by the least efficient tool. It would moreover be difficult  
496 to manage different software tools working together in a properly inter-connected manner. It is  
497 therefore likely that such a model should be developed from scratch to alleviate some of the  
498 computational complexity and efficiency issues. However, the time required to build and test such  
499 a model into a reasonable state for an application would likely be significant.

500 In this review, we have assumed that compartment models would be the framework for future  
501 human digestion and absorption model. Although the authors strongly believe this, there is the  
502 possibility that this may prove a major mathematical and computational challenge, and that one  
503 may need to rely partially on other mathematical modelling paradigms, such as fluid dynamic  
504 models which are not as easily linked to compartment models.

505

506       4.4. [Prospects on the benefits of a more complete physiologically-based food](#)  
507       [digestion model](#)

508 The building of a physiologically based model of the GI tract during digestion would first require  
509 to gather and carefully organize the available knowledge. This crucial step represents at the same  
510 time a challenge (though surmountable) and a real opportunity for researchers from various  
511 scientific origins (mathematics, nutrition, microbiology, human medical science, food and feed  
512 sciences, pharmacology) to share their knowledge and collaborate. For a widespread knowledge  
513 collection and use, this task would preferably be associated with the establishment of a dedicated  
514 multidisciplinary network, and lead to a shared modelling platform that could serve as a basis for  
515 incremental improvement of the model structure and underlying hypotheses. This would  
516 undoubtedly enable identifying lacks, or grey boxes, of knowledge, hence possibly guiding the  
517 experimental research. This could even offer a common ground to bridge the gaps between food  
518 science and medical, pharmaceutical, human microbiota sciences. Insight from food digestion  
519 studies can give a better and quantitative insight in the unabsorbed meal fraction reaching the  
520 colon (Beaumont et al. 2017), in how food properties might modulate risk factors of metabolic  
521 diseases (e.g. diabetes type 2) and metabolic syndrome, or in the way pharmaceuticals can be  
522 optimally delivered orally in conjunction with food intake (Koziolek et al. 2019). In return, the vast  
523 knowledge base of the medical field will deliver valuable insight into the development of healthier  
524 foods.

525 A more common hope with the establishment of a physiologically-based model of digestion is  
526 that it could allow accurate *in silico* predictions on various aspects (Le Feunteun et al. 2020),  
527 probably starting with the effects of food/meal composition and structure on: transit and  
528 disintegration kinetics, postprandial plasmatic concentrations in nutrients, the arrival of  
529 unabsorbed nutrients and fibers available for the intestinal microbiota. Such a model could also  
530 be used to predict the effect of variations such as inter-individual variability, time-of-day, and pre-  
531 meal effects, and to support the development of personalized nutrition, targeting different  
532 groups of the population. It could even become a central element in all models where the  
533 processes taking place in the GI tract play a key role, as for instance for nutritional (e.g. satiety),  
534 metabolic (e.g. the fate of nutrients in the host), or colon microbiota (e.g. biodiversity) related

535 considerations. In the long term, *in silico* predictions could even justify the need for *in vivo*  
536 investigations by fast evaluation of expected outcomes, or alternatively offer a substitute to some  
537 animal and human studies (van Milgen & Lescoat 2008).

538 The authors are convinced of the great possibility and benefits of developing a mathematical  
539 framework for performing *in silico* human food digestion and absorption experiments.  
540 Notwithstanding all the facing challenges, the number of building blocks already existing, the  
541 youth of this research field, and the successes observed in the pharmaceutical area clearly  
542 support the idea that attempts will be proposed in the future. It is difficult to know how accurate  
543 *in silico* predictions can become in the food digestion area, but our general impression is that this  
544 research field is mature enough to start building a human physiologically-based food digestion  
545 model, should it be only to provide a practical means to bring research communities interested  
546 in the functioning of the GI closer.

547

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552

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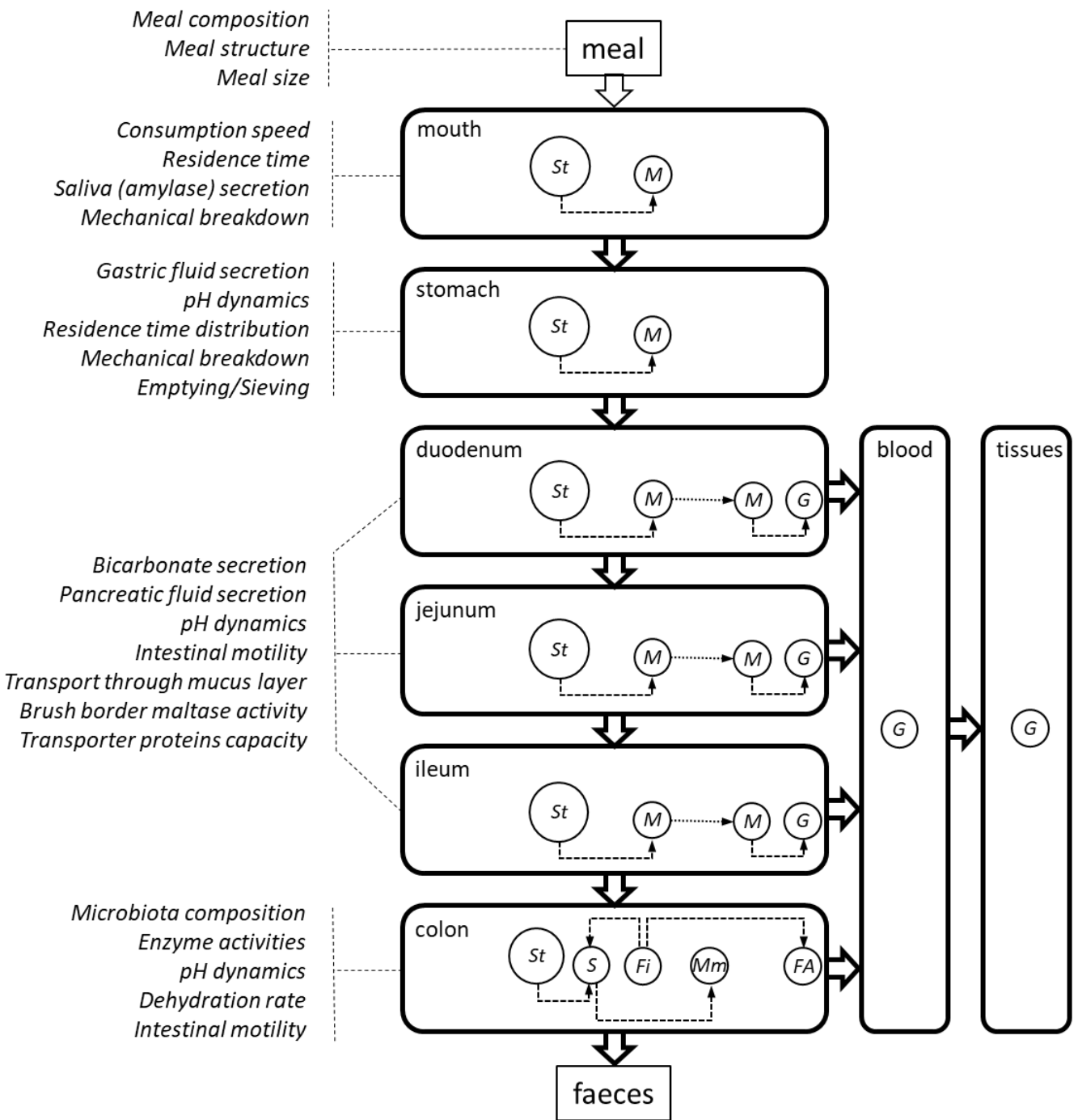
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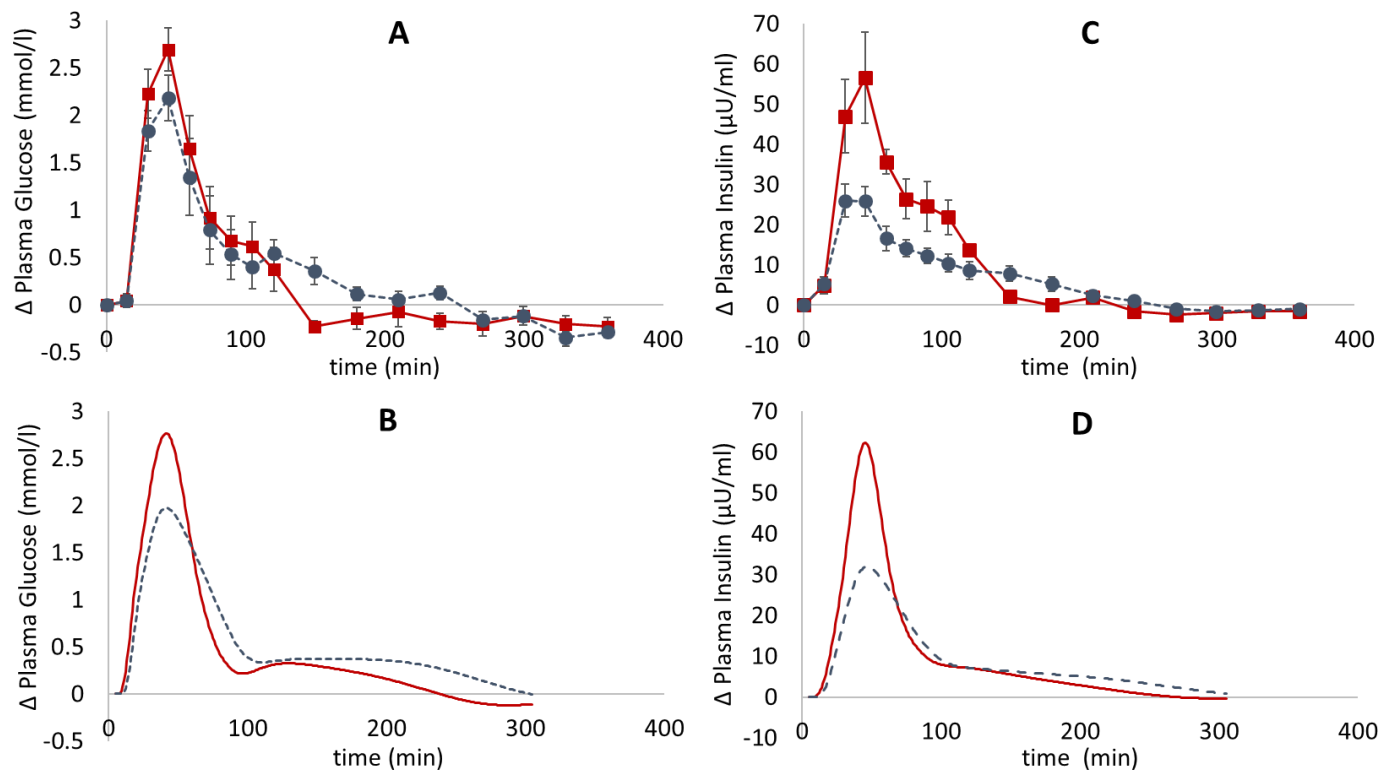
788 **Table 1.** Overview of the phenomena and the important food properties that should be  
 789 considered when developing a multicompartiment model of food digestion and absorption.

<b>Physiological Compartment</b>	<b>Main phenomena to be modelled</b>	<b>Important food properties</b>
Oral	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mechanical breakdown</li> <li>• Saliva incorporation (amylase, water, mucus)</li> <li>• Enz. hydrolysis of starch</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mechanical and rheological properties</li> <li>• Structure (mostly macro)</li> <li>• Composition (dry content, pH, nutrients)</li> </ul>
Gastric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gastric secretion (enzymes, HCl, mucus)</li> <li>• pH drop</li> <li>• Enz. hydrolysis of starch, protein and lipid</li> <li>• Mechanical breakdown</li> <li>• Mixing and sieving</li> <li>• Phase separation (sedimentation, creaming)</li> <li>• Controlled flow into duodenum</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mechanical and rheological properties</li> <li>• Structure (all scales: particle size and density, emulsion stability, microstructures, state of nutrients...)</li> <li>• Composition</li> <li>• Buffering capacity</li> <li>• Intermolecular interactions</li> </ul>
Duodenum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Multiple secretions (pancreatic enzymes, bile, bicarbonate, water, mucus)</li> <li>• pH increase</li> <li>• Enz. hydrolysis of starch, protein and lipid</li> <li>• Absorption of water and nutrients</li> <li>• Mixing</li> <li>• Residence time</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Structure (all scales)</li> <li>• Composition</li> <li>• Buffering capacity</li> <li>• Intermolecular interactions</li> </ul>
Jejunum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intestinal secretion (water, bicarbonate, mucus)</li> <li>• Enz. hydrolysis of starch, protein and lipid</li> <li>• Absorption of water and nutrients</li> <li>• Mixing</li> <li>• Residence time</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Structure (all scales)</li> <li>• Composition</li> <li>• Intermolecular interactions</li> </ul>
Ileum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intestinal secretion (water, bicarbonate, mucus)</li> <li>• Enz. hydrolysis of starch, protein and lipid</li> <li>• Absorption of water, nutrients and bile salts</li> <li>• Mixing</li> <li>• Residence time</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Structure (all scales)</li> <li>• Composition</li> <li>• Intermolecular interactions</li> </ul>
Ascending, Transverse and Descending Colon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intestinal secretion (water, bicarbonate, mucus)</li> <li>• Microbial growth and metabolism and the way it is affected by material entering the colon</li> <li>• Absorption of water and microbial metabolites such as short chain fatty acids</li> <li>• Mixing</li> <li>• Residence time</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Composition (fibre, polyphenols, polyols...)</li> <li>• Interaction of components with the microbiota</li> </ul>



790  
 791 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of starch digestion and important processes to be included in  
 792 a multicompartiment model (omitting proteins and lipids to keep the figure simple). Dashed  
 793 arrows: transformations, dotted arrows: transport from lumen to brush border through mucus  
 794 layer; St: starch; Fi: fibre; FA short chain fatty acids; G: glucose; M: end products of amyolytic  
 795 reactions (maltose, maltotriose and  $\alpha$ -limit dextrins); Mm: microbial mass; S: various sugars.





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797 **Figure 2.** Example of digestion modelling by a program in development by one of the author (van  
 798 Aken 2020): Experimental (A, C) and simulated (B, D) blood glucose and insulin excursions  
 799 following a bread meal (plain line) and a pasta meal (dotted line). Experimental results have been  
 800 extracted from study performed by Eelderink et al. (2012), who investigated a bread meal and a  
 801 pasta meal both consisting of 50 g available carbohydrates, 9 g fat, 6 g protein and 250 mL tap  
 802 water.

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