

FERMENTABLE OLIGOSACCHARIDES, DISACCHARIDES, MONOSACCHARIDES AND POLYOLS AND THEIR ROLE IN FOOD DIGESTION

Dana Urminská^{*1}, Nora Haring¹, Vladimír Fábry¹, Jana Urminská²

Address(es): doc. RNDr. Dana Urminská, CSc.

¹Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra, Faculty of Biotechnology and Food Sciences, Institute of Biotechnology, Trieda Andreja Hlinku 2, 949 01 Nitra, Slovakia.

²Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra, Faculty of Biotechnology and Food Sciences, Institute of Food Processing, Trieda Andreja Hlinku 2, 949 01 Nitra, Slovakia.

*Corresponding author: dana.urminska@uniag.sk

<https://doi.org/10.55251/jmbfs.5521>

ARTICLE INFO

Received 8. 11. 2021
Revised 20. 1. 2022
Accepted 20. 1. 2022
Published 1. 2. 2022

Review



ABSTRACT

Oligosaccharides containing fructose (fructans, inulin), galactose (galactans, stachyose, raffinose), disaccharides enclosing galactose (lactose), monosaccharides and mixtures of monosaccharides encompassing fructose (fruit sugar, honey) and saccharide polyols (mannitol, malbitol, sorbitol), are considered as safe to be consumed and beneficial to health. Gradually, however, their presence in the human diet reaches amounts that are indigestible by the small intestine, causing an osmotic load on the intestinal lumen. Subsequently, they pass into the large intestine, where they are fermented by intestinal bacteria to undesirable products such as gaseous carbon dioxide, hydrogen, methane, sulfane, and short chain fatty acids. Indigestible fermentable oligosaccharides, disaccharides, monosaccharides, and polyols may cause undesirable symptoms such as an increased flatulence, bloating, abdominal pain, alterations to the intestinal physiology, cessation of peristalsis, or diarrhea, which are manifested by a wide array of diseases of the gastrointestinal tract, such as the irritable bowel syndrome or small intestinal bacterial overgrowth. Fruits, vegetables, dairy products, legumes, some cereals, as well as honey or various sweeteners are among the most common food sources of these carbohydrates.

Keywords: FODMAP, irritable bowel syndrome, fructane, galactane

INTRODUCTION

Over the recent decades, human nutrition has been characterized by a shift from conventional foods to new types of foods, functional foods, or foods with a positive effect on the health and vitality. Prebiotics are also among healthy food ingredients. These are defined as substances of a carbohydrate nature that the human body cannot digest or degrades them only partially, while on the other hand, they serve as good substrates for the intestinal microorganisms. This heterogeneous group includes the so-called fermentable oligo-, di-, mono- and saccharide polyols, abbreviated FODMAP. Their high intake may exhibit a negative effect on the human health, since the intestinal microflora produces various organic acids and gaseous substances in the large intestine, which may cause discomfort in the gastrointestinal tract. Historically, lactose, fructose and sorbitol have been the first to be associated with digestive problems. Gradually, and especially in connection with the development of the irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), the oligosaccharides galactans and fructans have also attracted the attention of the scientists and physicians.

The human digestive tract contains beneficial microorganisms that protect the body from pathogenic microorganisms and play an important role in the prevention of inflammatory diseases by stimulating the immune system. Through their metabolism, intestinal microorganisms help to break down and utilize food components that the human body cannot metabolize on its own. They also synthesize a variety of micronutrients, such as vitamins K, B2, B9 and B12, A, D and K (Tojo *et al.*, 2014; Morrison and Preston, 2016). Some intestinal bacteria are producers of short-chain fatty acids, which are a major source of nutrients for the colon cells. They support the formation of a sufficiently resistant intestinal barrier that prevents a possible entry of harmful substances, viruses, or bacteria, reducing the risk of inflammatory or tumorous processes. In an effort to support these defense mechanisms, an excessive consumption of fiber, including fructooligosaccharides (such as inulin) or galactooligosaccharides (such as pectins and various gums, cellulose and hemicelluloses) has been reported. These food components are not hydrolyzed by the digestive enzymes but act as suitable substrates for microbial fermentation in lower parts of the digestive tract. Consequently, an intensive development of microcenosis, called bacterial

overgrowth may occur, leading to the development of IBS, dysbiosis, disruption of intestinal peristalsis, accompanied by water and nutrient malabsorption.

Characteristics and significance of intestinal microcenosis

The intestinal microcenosis is very rich in various types of microorganisms, dominated by bacteria representing the genera *Ruminococci*, *Bifidobacteria*, *Proteobacteria*, *Lactobacilli* and *Streptococci* (O'Hara and Shanahan, 2006). In addition, *Actinobacteria*, *Verrucobacteria* and *Fusobacteria* have been identified, as well as *Archaea* and eukaryotic microbioses (Eckburg *et al.*, 2005; Scanlan and Marchesi, 2008). The human intestinal microcenosis may include approximately 1 150 microbial species, out of which about 160 species are present in every individual (Qin *et al.*, 2010; Orth *et al.*, 2011; Tilg and Kaser, 2011). However, up to 80% of bacterial species of human origin cannot be cultured *in vitro* (Eckburg *et al.*, 2005).

Most of the bacteria present in human intestines are non-sporing anaerobes, out of which *Bacteroides* sp. and *Bifidobacterium* sp., *Eubacterium* sp., *Clostridium* sp., *Lactobacillus* sp., *Fusobacterium* sp. and various gram-positive cocci are the most predominant. A minor portion of bacteria is represented by *Enterococcus* sp., *Enterobacteriaceae* sp. and sulfate-lowering bacteria. Nevertheless, there are approximately 300 to 500 different bacterial species, the presence of which in the gut varies from individual to individual (Guarner and Malagelada, 2003; Iannitti and Palmieri, 2010). Methanogenic *Archaea* are also present in the human gastrointestinal tract, whose interactions with the host may be beneficial as well as harmful (Macario and Macario, 2009). *Archaea* are typical representatives of anaerobic intestinal microbiota (Million *et al.*, 2016) and are already present in a child's digestive system (Wampach *et al.*, 2017). These microorganisms have been of interest for several decades. *Methanobrevibacter smithii*, *Methanosphaera stadtmanae* (Miller and Wolin, 1983), members of the order *Methanomassiliococcales* (Mihajlovski *et al.*, 2008) have been isolated from the intestinal contents of adults. *Methanomassiliococcus luminyensis*, *Methanomethylophilus alvus* and *Methanomassiliococcus intestinalis* have been identified as well (Borrel *et al.*, 2012; Gaci *et al.*, 2014).

An imbalance between beneficial and harmful microorganisms defined as dysbiosis, in which pathogenic bacteria predominate over commensal

microorganisms, leads to a dysfunction of the large intestine. Possible causes of these changes include the use of antibiotics, laxative abuse, excessive consumption of processed foods and diseases such as cancer, acquired immune deficiency syndrome or diverticulitis (Cani and Delzenne, 2007).

The body naturally defends itself against dysbiosis by the fact that the intestinal cells and beneficial microorganisms secrete chemicals that modulate the mucosal immunity and a subsequent inflammatory response as a strategy to combat various pathogens. For example, *Bacteroides fragilis* produces immunomodulatory and pro-inflammatory polysaccharides, such as polysaccharide A. This polysaccharide can induce a cascade of processes that leads to the production of interleukin IL-10 and promotes the colonization of *Bacteriodes fragilis* while at the same time limiting the intestinal colonization by competing microorganisms, including *Helicobacter hepatis* which causes colitis. Based on experiments in animal models, several authors have reported that oral administration of this polysaccharide may reduce the risk of colitis (Mazmanian et al., 2008; Round et al., 2011; Mousa et al., 2017). Another example of a bacterial species that utilizes this strategy is *Lactobacillus plantarum*, which secretes amino acid derivatives that reduce the levels of the pro-inflammatory cytokine interferon INF- γ (Zvanych et al., 2014). *Bifidobacterium longum* and *Bacteroides thetaioamicron* are also present in the gastrointestinal tract, being able to metabolize arachidonic acid and produce prostaglandins and leukotrienes that affect the immune response (Eberhard et al., 2002).

Intestinal microorganisms produce bacteriocins that have a microbistatic or microbicidal effect. For example, the metabolic product of *Lactobacillus gasseri* is gassericin B, which exhibits antibacterial activity against *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Bacillus cereus*. *Lactobacillus reuteri* produces reuterin, which has the ability to protect the host from pathological strains of *Escherichia coli* (Mousa et al., 2017). *Lactobacillus plantarum* secretes lantipeptides called plantaricins that act against gram-positive bacteria such as *Streptococcus thermophilus* and *Enterococcus faecalis* (Turner et al., 2004). *Pediococcus* produces pediocins that are effective against *Listeria* sp. (Papagianni and Anastasiadou, 2009), while thuricin CD from *Bacillus thurigiensis* is effective against *Clostridium difficile* and *Listeria monocytogenes*. In the meantime, *Bacillus subtilis* produces amicoumacin A, which exhibits an antibiotic and anti-inflammatory activity against *Helicobacter pylori* (Pinchuk et al., 2020; Rea et al., 2010).

Food and nutrition have a significant effect on the composition and activity of the human gastrointestinal microecology (Salonen et al., 2014; Sonnenburg and Bäckhed, 2016). Several studies have revealed links between the composition of the intestinal microecology and diseases of the body. The intestinal microecology may also significantly interfere with specific drug therapies, bringing attention of the pharmaceutical industry to these microorganisms (Routy et al., 2018). The diagnostic approach is gradually changing, which also includes the identification of bacteria in the patient's gut (Kährström et al., 2016; Flemer et al., 2018).

Bacterial overgrowth

The upper gastrointestinal tract, comprising the stomach, duodenum, and lumbar region, is sparsely populated by microorganisms due to the microbicidal gastric acid barrier (Mackie et al., 1999). Acid-resistant *Helicobacter pylori* and *Lactobacilli* dominate this region of the gastrointestinal system (Ghoshal et al., 2012). The distal part of the small intestine and the large intestine are inhabited by a larger number of microorganisms, such as coliform, gram-negative non-sporulating bacilli (Mackie et al., 1999).

A proper intestinal microecology defined as eubiosis, is essential for the health of the body. Abnormalities such as dysbiosis, including a quantitative increase in the number of bacteria, such as small intestinal bacterial overgrowth (SIBO) or changes in the location of bacteria during which colon bacteria are found in the small intestine, cause various diseases (Prakash et al., 2011; Ghoshal and Srivastava, 2014; Nagao-Kitamoto et al., 2016). Bacterial overgrowth of the small intestine is defined as an excessive increase in the number of bacteria above 10⁵ colony forming units (CFU) in 1 mL of jejunal aspirate (Ghoshal and Srivastava, 2014; Ghoshal et al., 2012). Several authors consider overgrowth a condition in which SIBO is >10⁵ CFU/mL jejunal aspirate. Determining this number is important in demonstrating the presence of coliform bacteria or in the diagnosis of IBS (Khoshini et al., 2008; Ghoshal et al., 2012). SIBO causes gastrointestinal dysfunction by several mechanisms, including a prolonged inflammation, activation of the immune system, changes in the intestinal peristalsis and permeability, deconjugation of bile acid salts, secondary lactase deficiency, malabsorption of water and nutrients with an increasing osmotic load on the luminal content of the intestine (Pimentel et al., 2004; Ghoshal et al., 2012; Ghoshal and Srivastava, 2014). In contrast to healthy individuals, the small intestine of subjects affected by SIBO contains bacteria of the colon, including gram-negative aerobes and anaerobes (e.g. *Escherichia coli*, *Enterococcus* spp., *Proteus mirabilis*) (Bouhnik et al., 1999; Sachdev and Pimentel, 2013) which ferment carbohydrates with an intensive production of gases causing symptoms such as bloating, abdominal distension, pain, and cramps (Posserud et al., 2007; Sachdev and Pimentel, 2013). The severity of the difficulties depends on the amount of carbohydrates consumed (Shepherd et al., 2008).

Characteristics of FODMAP

Fermentable oligosaccharides, disaccharides, monosaccharides and polyols are short chain carbohydrates prevalent in foods such as fruits, vegetables, dairy products, cereals and legumes. They are also found in processed foods to which these raw materials have been added. From the point of view of human nutrition, the most frequently consumed FODMAP monosaccharides are fructose, glucose, and galactose, while the most eaten FODMAP disaccharides include sucrose, lactose, verbascose, maltose and isomaltose. Plant food is also rich in the trisaccharide raffinose and the tetrasaccharide stachyose. The polysaccharides comprise various long fructans, galactans and galactomannans, agar, carrageenan, laminaran, hemicelluloses and cellulose (Qi and Tester, 2019). Fermentable polyalcohols are represented by sorbitol, mannitol, maltitol, and xylitol (Tuck et al., 2014) (Tab. 1).

Table 1 Examples of fermentable di-, oligo-, polysaccharides and polyols

| FODMAP | Name | Other name | Composition | Chemical formula |
|------------------|-------------|-----------------------------------|--|---|
| monosaccharides | glucose | grape | D-glucopyranose | C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆ |
| | | sugar | D-glucopyranose | C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₇ |
| | | dextrose | D-glucopyranose | C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₈ |
| | fructose | fruit sugar | D-fructofuranose | C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆ |
| | | levulose | D-fructofuranose | C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₇ |
| | | galactose | cerebrose | D-galactopyranose |
| mannose | carubinose | D-mannopyranose / D-mannofuranose | C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆ | |
| ramnose | isodulcit | 6-deoxy-L-mannose | C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₅ | |
| disaccharides | saccharose | sugar | D-glucose(1→2)D-fructose | C ₁₂ H ₂₂ O ₁₁ |
| | lactose | milk sugar | D-galactose(1→4)D-glucose | C ₁₂ H ₂₂ O ₁₁ |
| | | maltose | malt sugar | D-glucose(1→4)D-glucose |
| | isomaltose | palatinose | D-glucose(1→6)D-glucose | C ₁₂ H ₂₂ O ₁₁ |
| | trehalose | | D-glucose(1→1)D-glucose | C ₁₂ H ₂₂ O ₁₁ |
| | cellobiose | | D-glucose(1→4)D-glucose | C ₁₂ H ₂₂ O ₁₁ |
| trisaccharides | raffinose | melitose | D-galactose(1→6)D-glucose(1→2)D-fructose | C ₁₈ H ₃₂ O ₁₆ |
| | kestose | | D-fructose(2→1)D-fructose(2→1)D-glucose | C ₁₈ H ₃₂ O ₁₆ |
| tetrasaccharides | stachyose | | D-galactose(1→6)D-galactose(1→6)D-glucose(1↔2)D-fructose | C ₂₄ H ₄₂ O ₂₁ |
| pentasaccharides | verbascose | | D-galactose(1→6)-[D-galactose] ₂ (1→6)D-glucose(1→2)D-fructose | C ₃₀ H ₅₂ O ₂₆ |
| | agar | | [D-galactose(1→3)D-galactose] _n (1→4) / [3,6-anhydro-L-galactose] _m | |
| polysaccharides | carrageenan | | sulfated or nonsulfated [D-galactose(1→3)D-galactose] _n (1→4)[3,6-anhydro-L-galactose] _m | |
| | laminaran | laminarin | D-glucose linear polysaccharide with (1→3):(1→6) ratio of 3:1 | (C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₅) _x |
| polyols | mannitol | mannite | hexane-1,2,3,4,5,6-hexol | C ₆ H ₁₄ O ₆ |
| | sorbitol | D-glucitol | hexane-1,2,3,4,5,6-hexol / izomer of mannitol | C ₆ H ₁₄ O ₆ |
| | xylitol | xylite | 1,2,3,4,5-pentahydroxypentane | C ₅ H ₁₂ O ₅ |
| | maltitol | | D-glucopyranosyl-D-glucitol | C ₁₂ H ₂₄ O ₁₁ |

Negative effects of FODMAP on the human digestive tract

Currently, the effects of malabsorption and intolerance to carbohydrates are increasingly evident in the human population. Their exact prevalence is unknown. This intolerance often leads to various, as yet unexplained difficulties in the gastrointestinal tract, such as flatulence, gas production, pain, distension, nausea, and diarrhea. Patients with such gastrointestinal symptoms are often subjected to an examination including endoscopy, blood tests and stool collection to determine a specific disease. However, the test results may be negative, in which case the gastrointestinal disorders may include IBS (Fedewa and Rao, 2014). One of the causes of IBS may lie in a high intake of FODMAP. It has been found that in developed countries, the disease affects one in five adults, with a higher prevalence in women.

Lactose has been described as the first carbohydrate associated with indigestion. A strict elimination of lactose from the diet, small bowel biopsy alongside with the determination of lactase activity and hydrogen in the breath have become the basis for the recognition of lactose malabsorption and intolerance (Gibson, 2017). While lactose-free diet has been very successful in some patients, it did not completely eliminate the undesirable and painful symptoms after consuming carbohydrates in most subjects (Vernia et al., 1995). In the 1990s, suggestions began to emerge that not only lactose but also fructose and sorbitol may play an important role in the development of IBS, since their elimination from the diet has led to a stabilization of digestive issues (Rumessen and Gudmand-Høyer, 1988; Nelis et al., 1990; Symons et al., 1992).

Nevertheless, foods do not only contain these carbohydrates in their free form, but also as part of oligosaccharides and polysaccharides. Therefore, fructooligosaccharides (fructans), galactooligosaccharides (galactans) and carbohydrate polyols, which are not completely absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract, have been included among the food components that can cause typical digestive problems.

Irritable bowel syndrome is characterized by abdominal pain, an unpleasant bloating, flatulence, and changes in the intestinal microecology, which may result in diarrhea or constipation. Mucus often occurs in the stool (Spiller and Garsed, 2009). Triggers of this syndrome are foods containing FODMAP. The condition is worsened especially by those containing spices, chocolate, beans, cabbage, fermented vegetables, and fruits. Changes in the intestinal microbiota or dysbiosis after ingestion of antibiotics or following gastrointestinal viral, bacterial, and parasitic infections may also contribute to the pathogenesis of IBS. Genetic predisposition also plays a role in IBS, since a family history is found in approximately 30% of patients (Spiller and Garsed, 2009). Recurrent abdominal pain is associated with advanced IBS and comes along with at least two of the following symptoms: defecation accompanied by pain, changes in the stool frequency, and alterations in the stool pattern. These symptoms reduce the quality of life, which is why it is necessary to pay attention to FODMAP, so that these can be identified in the diet and subsequently excluded in affected patients. In this sense, several authors point to the role of the intestinal microecology and subsequent changes in the gut microbial diversity (Lacy and Patel, 2017; Losurdo et al., 2018).

Fermentable monosaccharides

Monosaccharides are absorbed from food in the human small intestine, which contains specific monosaccharide transporters (Röder et al., 2014). According to Wright et al. (2003) the majority of carbohydrate uptake is mediated by specific carbohydrate-transporting proteins through the basolateral membranes of small intestinal enterocytes. These transporters are in particular glucose transporters (GLUT), which transport monosaccharides as follows: fructose is facilitated by diffusion through GLUT2 and GLUT5, galactose is delivered by co-transport with sodium ions via SGLT1 or by facilitated diffusion via GLUT2, while glucose alone is transported via sodium glucotransport and GLUT2 (Le Gall et al., 2007). In some individuals, the availability of the GLUT5 transporter is limited in the presence of glucose, leading to fructose malabsorption (Riby et al., 1993). This condition is typical for patients with IBS, occurring in up to 45% of all cases.

Fruit sugar - fructose

Fructose is a simple carbohydrate present in fruits and honey; however, it is also a major ingredient in two of the most commonly used food sweeteners, sucrose (fructose and glucose disaccharide) and syrup made from corn starch and considered a condiment with a high fructose content (HFCS, high fructose corn syrup). At present, the intake of fructose as an added sugar is close to 15% of the total energy intake from food in families with higher incomes, especially among younger individuals (Lanaspa et al., 2014; Yracheta et al., 2015) due to a high consumption of soft drinks. While sucrose-containing beverages have the same amount of glucose and fructose, HFCS-containing beverages have a fructose and glucose content oscillating from 55:45 to 65:35 (Ventura et al., 2012). Fructose is absorbed in the small intestine by specific transporters expressed in both the apical and basolateral membranes of enterocytes (Manolescu et al., 2007). After absorption, fructose is primarily metabolized in the liver (Schalkwijk et al., 2004). Excess fructose passes into the large intestine, where it becomes a fermentable substrate for microorganisms. High fructose intake has been reported to alter the

composition of microecology, leading to a reduced bacterial diversity and changes in the expression patterns of genes involved in specific metabolic pathways (Payne et al., 2012).

Fructose is considered to be one of the most important fermentable carbohydrates within the FODMAP group (Chumpitazi and Shulman, 2016; Giorgio et al., 2016). Any fructose not absorbed by the small intestine is fermented by colon bacteria producing short-chain fatty acids and gases, such as hydrogen and carbon dioxide, which may cause bloating, abdominal discomfort, and/or diarrhea in some individuals (Skoog et al., 2004; Shepherd and Gibson, 2006). Hydrogen produced during the fermentation process is partially absorbed into the bloodstream and enters the lungs, allowing it to be detected in the exhaled air. This process is used in the diagnosis of fructose malabsorption, and is called the hydrogen breath test (Gomara et al., 2008). Fructose intolerance, manifested by abdominal pain, flatulence, diarrhea, nausea, and vomiting, has also been diagnosed in some patients with indigestion (Gomara et al., 2008; Medeiros et al., 2012).

Honey - a mixture of monosaccharides containing fructose

Honey is a natural sweet substance produced by *Apis mellifera* from the nectar of plants, secretions from live parts of plants or secretions from insects sucking on live parts of plants, which bees collect, transform, and enrich with their own specific substances, thicken, store and leave in honeycombs to mature. The most commercially important types of honey are nectar and honeydew (Kaškonienė and Venskutonis, 2010). Honey is primarily a sweetener, but it is also consumed as a prebiotic as it contains oligosaccharides that can promote the growth of lactobacilli and bifidobacteria. However, this prebiotic potential is not as significant in comparison with the consumption of pure fructooligosaccharides (Sanz et al., 2005).

Honey is an oversaturated solution of sugars, particularly fructose and glucose, which contains several minor components (Viuda-Martos et al., 2008). Among the disaccharides sucrose and maltose make up 5 to 9%, followed by oligosaccharides, which represent 3 to 10% depending on the type of honey. A more detailed overview of carbohydrates found naturally in honey is provided in Table 2 (Astwood et al., 1998; Viuda-Martos et al., 2008). Honey contains carbohydrates, which are included in FODMAP, particularly fructose and fructooligosaccharides inulin and oligofructose that promote the growth of lactic acid bacteria from the genera *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium*. These bacteria are considered to be probiotic bacteria with an intensive saccharolytic metabolism (Gibson and Roberfroid, 1995; Gibson and Shepherd, 2010). Nevertheless, an increased number of these bacteria in the colon may result in the production of short-chain gases and fatty acids due to their anaerobic fermentation metabolism (Roberfroid et al., 2010; Flint et al., 2012).

Table 2 Average carbohydrate content in honey (Doner, 1977; Bogdanov et al., 2007)

| Carbohydrate | | Nectar honey | Honeydew honey |
|--------------------|---------------------|--------------|----------------|
| monosaccharides, % | fructose | 38.2 | 31.8 |
| | glucose | 31.3 | 26.1 |
| | saccharose | 0.7 - 1.31 | 0.5 - 0.8 |
| disaccharides, % | maltose and others | 5 - 7.31 | 4 - 8.8 |
| | melezitose | <0.1 | 4.0 |
| trisaccharides, % | erlose and others | 1 - 1.5 | 4 - 4.7 |
| | oligosaccharides, % | non specific | 3.1 |

Fermentation of fructose

Fructose currently accounts for 1/6 to 1/3 of the total carbohydrate intake (Bhagan and Ha, 2011). It is the sweetest monosaccharide with a low glycemic index (Hedayat and Lapraz, 2019). Fructose is absorbed by the small intestinal epithelial cells (Douard and Ferraris, 2012) through two mechanisms: if glucose and fructose are absorbed in an equimolar ratio by simultaneous transport with glucose (GLUT-2 transporter), in case of excess fructose the molecule is absorbed into the apical membrane of the enterocyte specific carrier using GLUT-5. The concentration of fructose is higher in the lumen than in the epithelium of the cells, which allows the molecule to use a concentration gradient and thus pass with the help of the transport proteins; however, this mechanism has a low capacity. The first step in the metabolism of fructose lies in the formation of fructose-1-phosphate, which is cleaved to form two tri-carbon molecules, namely glyceraldehyde and dihydroxyacetone phosphate (Fig. 1). These trioses will form pyruvate (further reduced to lactate), glycerol and, glucose in the case of dihydroxyacetone phosphate (Geidl-Flueck et al., 2021).

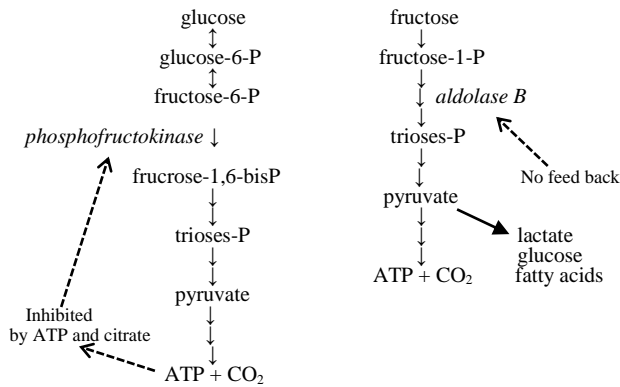


Figure 1 Metabolism of glucose and fructose in small bowel enterocytes, hepatocytes, and proximal tubule cells of the kidneys (Geidl-Flueck et al., 2021)

Approximately 3% of fructose is used for the synthesis of triacylglycerols, ketone compounds and sorbitol (Macdonald, 2003).

Intestinal microorganisms involve fructose in their metabolism through glycolysis. As such, a mixed acid fermentation is typical for the genera *Citrobacter*, *Escherichia*, *Proteus*, *Salmonella*, *Shigella*, *Yersinia* and *Vibrio* and several *Aeromonas* species (Fig. 2). Some of these microorganisms are representative of a normal intestinal microecoenosis in mammals, while others are pathogens (Ciani et al., 2013). They produce lactic acid, formic acid, succinic acid, acetic acid and ethanol. The final amounts of each product vary depending on the microorganism and conditions suitable for their growth and reproduction. Due to the formate-hydrogen lyase complex, the mixed acid fermentation provides equimolar amounts of CO₂ and H₂. Pyruvate-formate lyase and lactate dehydrogenase enzyme complexes are sensitive to the presence of oxygen, which is why this fermentation requires an anaerobic environment. Some microorganisms can metabolize pyruvate via acetoin to butanediol (Ciani et al., 2013).

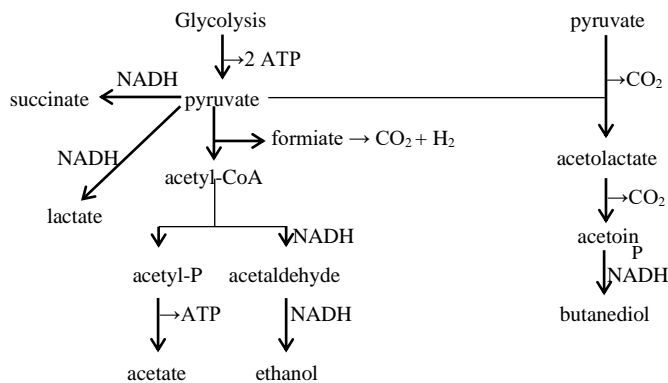


Figure 2 Mixed acid fermentation (Ciani et al., 2013)

It has been mentioned on several occasions that the metabolism of microorganisms present in the intestines takes advantage of FODMAP to produce short-chain fatty acids. By-products of this process include many gases, containing mainly hydrogen, methane, and hydrogen sulfide, which has a number of consequences on the health. Hydrogen is then used by the microorganisms in the gastrointestinal tract as a reducing agent (Nakamura et al., 2010). Hydrogenotrophic microorganisms are primarily methanogenic bacteria, followed by sulfate-reducing bacteria that convert sulfate to sulfide compounds as well as acetogens that produce acetate. Each of these species uses hydrogen to varying degrees and all are present in the human digestive tract (Doré, 1995; Nava et al., 2012; Wolf et al., 2016). Out of the methanogenic species, *Methanobrevibacter smithii*, *Methanobrevibacter oralis*, *Methanosphaera stadtmanae*, *Methanomassiliococcus luminyensis* and *Methanomassiliococcus intestinalis* have been detected in the human gut. Their presence has been linked to colon diseases (Chaudhary et al., 2018). *Methanobrevibacter smithii* is the most common or in some cases the only methanogen found in the human colon (Eckburg et al., 2005). Hydrogen and CO₂ generated by the FODMAP fermentation are converted to methane as follows: CO₂ + 4 H₂ → CH₄ + 2 H₂O (Moss et al., 2000). Sulfur-reducing bacteria, especially the genus *Desulfovibrio*, may be present in very small amounts in the large intestine (Nava et al., 2012). These present with the ability to reduce sulphates to hydrogen sulphide and at the same time convert lactate to acetate (Marquet et al., 2009; Keller and Wall, 2011). Sources of sulphates are foods high in amino acids cysteine, methionine and taurine or inorganic sulphates, particularly plants of the *Brassicaceae* family (Magee et al., 2000). Hydrogen and carbon dioxide produced by FODMAP fermentations may be used by some microorganisms in the large intestine for the so-called reductive acetogenesis: 4 H₂ + 2 CO₂ → CH₃COO⁻ + H⁺ + 2 H₂O (Gibson et al., 1993). Such microorganisms include, for example, *Ruminococcus hydrogenotrophicus* (Bernalier et al., 1996) which uses the

metabolic products of a number of mono- and disaccharides to generate acetate. Acetate has a beneficial impact on the colon health since it lowers the pH, transforming the environment into unsuitable for pathogens while being a source of energy for the microecoenosis (Morrison and Preston, 2016).

Fermentable disaccharides

The most consumed FODMAP disaccharides are sucrose, containing glucose and fructose, the metabolism of which has been described above, followed by lactose (β-D-galactopyranosyl-(1 → 4)-D-glucose), which is normally hydrolyzed by the enzyme β-galactosidase in the small intestine to the monosaccharides glucose and galactose. Reduction or loss of β-galactosidase activity, e.g., with an increasing age or due to active gastrointestinal diseases, drugs or a pathologically rapid intestinal peristalsis leads to lactose malabsorption. Undigested lactose enters the large intestine, where it is fermented by the bacteria present in the large intestine into short-chain fatty acids and gases (hydrogen, methane, and carbon dioxide). Excessive gas production causes abdominal pain, cramps, bloating or vomiting, while a high osmotic loading of the colon causes diarrhea. Nevertheless, lactose intolerance occurs only in a relatively small number of people with lactose malabsorption. In other cases, bacterial fermentation of lactose as a carbohydrate belonging to FODMAP is associated with IBS. In the case of lactose, this condition is accompanied by a chronic diarrhea lasting longer than 4 weeks (Zheng et al., 2015; Lacy and Patel, 2016; Xiong et al., 2017).

Lactose fermentation

Following hydrolysis of lactose to glucose and galactose, glucose is directly metabolized by glycolysis, while the major metabolic pathway for galactose utilization is the Leloir pathway (Fig. 3). Galactose is converted to glucose-1-phosphate (glc-1P), which subsequently enters glycolysis, or to UDP-galactose (UDP-gal). In addition to converting UDP-glucose (UDP-glc) to UDP-galactose (UDP-gal), the enzyme UDP-galactose epimerase catalyzes the conversion of UDP-N-acetylgalactosamine (UDP-galNAc) and UDP-N-acetylglucosamine (UDP-glcNAc) (Leslie, 2003).

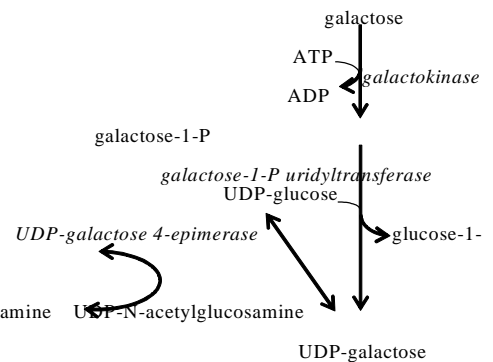


Figure 3 Leloir metabolic pathway (Qi and Tester, 2019)

Pyruvate as the glycolysis product, is fermented to lactate by probiotic bacteria (Pascual, 2008). Furthermore, microorganisms provide products of homofermentative (lactate) or heterofermentative (lactate, ethanol, acetic acid) lactic fermentation (Ciani et al., 2013).

Fermentable oligosaccharides

Oligosaccharides are generally poorly absorbed by the digestive tract, leading to them being fermented as undigested carbohydrates by the intestinal bacteria (Gibson and Shepherd, 2010; Barrett and Gibson, 2012; Barrett, 2013). This results in gas production and subsequent adverse events such as flatulence in both healthy and hypersensitive individuals (Ong et al., 2010). Oligosaccharides are saccharides with a low degree of polymerization (3 - 10 monosaccharides, or in some cases up to 19 monosaccharides) and a low relative molecular weight, composed of monosaccharides. The structural properties of oligosaccharides determine the present monosaccharides and their bonds. For example, in fructooligosaccharides, D-fructose units are bound by β- (2-1) bonds with a terminal D-glucose bound by an α- (1-2) bond. In xylooligosaccharides, β-xylose phosphates are bound by 1-4 bonds and contain arabinose or 4-methylglucuronic acid. Specific types of oligosaccharides, called indigestible oligosaccharides, resist hydrolysis and absorption in the upper gastrointestinal tract, but these can be fermented in the large intestine by intestinal bacteria. Indigestible oligosaccharides have a prebiotic activity that can promote human health by increasing populations of beneficial microorganisms and/or their metabolic activity (Wang et al., 2019). Naturally occurring oligosaccharide species and their sources are listed in Table 3 (Mussatto and Mancilha, 2007).

Table 3 Naturally occurring oligosaccharides (Wang et al., 2019)

| Naturally occurring oligosaccharides | Food source |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| fructooligosaccharides | artichokes, sugar cane, garlic, chicory, onion, Jerusalem artichokes, wheat, honey |
| xylooligosaccharides | bamboo shoots, fruits, vegetables, honey |
| galactooligosaccharides | milk |
| raffinose oligosaccharides | lentils, peas, beans, chickpeas, mallow, mustard |
| cyclodextrins | water-soluble glycans |

Prebiotic oligosaccharides are in particular fructooligosaccharides, galactooligosaccharides, xylooligosaccharides and soy oligosaccharides. Intestinal microorganisms metabolize these producing acetate, propionate, and butyrate by fermentation (Mussatto and Mancilha, 2007; Rivière et al., 2016). Their presence decreases the pH value in the large intestine, which can inhibit the growth of pathogenic bacteria as well as increase the resorption of minerals (Mussatto and Mancilha, 2007). In addition, they have mild anti-inflammatory effects and are involved in the regulation of lipogenesis (Flint et al., 2015) which contributes to their benefits for human health. Butyrate is the primary energy source for colonocytes, stimulates the growth of colonic epithelial cells and increases the absorption of salts and water, thereby alleviating constipation (Mussatto and Mancilha, 2007; Rivière et al., 2016). In addition, butyrate has also been found to be associated with the inhibition of colon and rectal cancer cell proliferation (Lim et al., 2005). Depending on the type of prebiotic oligosaccharides, the composition of these acids varies. For example, bifidobacteria produce acetate, lactate and formate but not butyrate (Sarbin and Rastall, 2011). Butyric acid is thus produced mainly by *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* and *Eubacterium rectale* (Rivière et al., 2016).

Although indigestible oligosaccharides have health benefits, high consumption of these may cause flatulence, excessive gas production or diarrhea (Mussatto and Mancilha, 2007). Therefore, they are classified as FODMAP, which may worsen the symptoms of IBS (Rao et al., 2015).

In vivo studies from the last decade have shown that some indigestible oligosaccharides alter the composition of the intestinal microbiota at the species level (Scott et al., 2013; Flint et al., 2015). This is mainly because intestinal bacteria prefer different sources of carbon and energy in the environment, and present with different processes of oligosaccharide metabolism. The composition, structure of oligosaccharides and types of glycosidic bonds impact the selective use of these substances by intestinal bacteria at the strain level (Sarbin and Rastall, 2011; Hamaker and Tuncil, 2014).

Low molecular weight oligosaccharides are more rapidly fermented by *Bifidobacterium* sp. and *Lactobacillum* sp. This is because these oligosaccharides have more non-reducing ends, which are preferentially attacked, for example, by the bifidobacterial exoglucanase. However, the low molecular weight of oligosaccharides is also the reason for their complete decomposition before reaching the distal regions of the colon, which leads to an undesirable phenomenon typical for FODMAP (Sarbin and Rastall, 2011).

Nevertheless, in some cases, even large oligosaccharide molecules have been found to be fermented. Microorganisms may cooperate in their degradation (Scott et al., 2013; Rivière et al., 2016). For example, during *in vitro* co-culture experiments, *Bifidobacterium longum* (LMG 11047) was able to consume even fructose released from inulin, while *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* (LMG 11262) had a high digestive capacity for oligofructosan from inulin and therefore was identified as the dominant species in the environment (Sarbin and Rastall, 2011). In another case, fructose was released by *Bifidobacterium longum* (BB 536), which was then used by the bacterium *Anaerostipes caccae* (DSM 14662) (Sarbin and Rastall, 2011) in an oligofructosan environment. Such coexistence of bacteria has been defined as “the mechanism of cross-feeding” (Flint et al., 2015).

Fructose-containing oligosaccharides

There are three main types of fructans: inulins, levans (or fleins) and graminans. Linear inulin consists of β -1,2-linked fructose residues attached to the sucrose core. A typical source of such oligosaccharides are plants of the family *Asterales*, such as chicory. Inulins of the family *Liliaceae*, which includes onions, contain two β -1,2-linked fructose chains attached to a sucrose core. Levan-fructans, in turn, are found in grasses and consist of a fructose chain attached by a β -2,6 bond to sucrose. A mixture of fructans formed from β -2,6-linked fructose residues with β -1,2-branches is called a graminan and is also found in grasses.

Fructans are widely used in the food industry. They are defined as soluble fiber and are available as a dietary supplement. Chicory inulin is an additive that emulsifies with water and is used as a fat substitute (Ritsem and Smeekens, 2003).

The most important FODMAP are inulin-type fructans, which have a linear chain with β -2,1 glycoside bonds, and which occur naturally in plant foods such as onions, garlic, leeks, asparagus, chicory root, artichokes and others (Franco-Robles and López, 2015). These fructans modulate the intestinal biocenosis by increasing the number of *Bifidobacteria* sp. and *Lactobacilli* sp. (Ortega-González et al., 2013). Fructans selectively stimulate the activity and growth of beneficial microorganisms and at the same time inhibit the development of

pathogenic microocenosis. The main products of fructan fermentation are short-chain fatty acids (especially acetate, propionate and butyrate) as well as gases including H₂, CO₂ and methane (Wong et al., 2006; Roberfroid, 2007; Roberfroid et al., 2010). These gases cause flatulence and convulsions, typical for the conditions caused by an increased consumption of FODMAP.

Galactose-containing oligosaccharides

Following dietary fiber consumption, galactan is usually fermented in the large intestine, where it is broken down into galactooligosaccharides by the extracellular endo- β -1,4-galactanase encoded by the intestinal bacteria (Lammerts van Bueren et al., 2017). Galactooligosaccharides are prebiotic carbohydrates that are generally considered safe for consumption (Rastall, 2010; Lammerts van Bueren et al., 2017).

Plant galactans usually contain arabinose units (Zykwinska et al., 2008; Mohnen, 2008). According to the type of glycoside bond in the galactan backbone, arabinogalactans (AG) are divided into type AG-I with a 1,4-linked galactan backbone and type AG-II with a 1,3- and 1,6-linked backbone (Yapo, 2011). In plants, galactan is usually also associated with other structural molecules, such as ramnogalacturonan I. Hence, by different side chain substitutions, different chain lengths and overall structure, galactans form substances known as pectin (Mohnen, 2008).

In addition to prebiotic properties, galactans have gastroprotective effects (Cantu-Jungles et al., 2014), arabinogalactans from *Cereus triangularis* possess antioxidant activities (Peters et al., 2015), galactans isolated from *Cereus peruvianus* exhibit protective effects against the formation of gastric ulcers (Tanaka et al., 2010) and green tea arabinogalactans present with an insulinotropic effect (Wang et al., 2015).

Oligosaccharides containing raffinose

Raffinose oligosaccharides are a group of soluble sucrose derivatives found in the seeds, roots, tubers, and bulbs of several plants. They represent a storage form of carbohydrates for plants and are considered as substances with a protective effect against abiotic stress. The main representatives are trisaccharide raffinose (galactosylsucrose) and tetrasaccharide stachyose (β -D-fructofuranosyl-O- α -D-galactopyranosyl- (1 \rightarrow 6) -O- α -D-galactopyranosyl- (1 \rightarrow 6) - α -D-glucopyranoside).

Raffinose oligosaccharides are generally considered to be of low nutritional value due to their indigestibility. However, they have been found to have a beneficial effect on the intestinal microocenosis, and therefore their dietary intake is recommended in particular as a protection against intestinal oncological diseases (Chibbar and Båga, 2003). On the other hand, raffinose is a useful substrate for *Escherichia coli*, *Enterococcus faecium*, *Streptococcus macedonicus*, *Streptococcus pasteurianus* and *Enterococcus avium*, whose fermentation metabolism has been characterized by an intensive gas production (Mao et al., 2018).

Oligosaccharides containing stachyose

Stachyose, which consists of one glucose, one fructose and two galactose units, occurs naturally mainly in numerous vegetables, as well as in rice (Yin et al., 2006). Although stachyose is not digestible for the human body due to α -galactoside bonds (Baucells et al., 2000), its consumption is recommended as a prebiotic for several healthy intestinal bacteria (Li et al., 2013). Legumes are the most important food sources of stachyose. Fermentation of these indigestible oligosaccharides leads to the production of short chain gases and acids, which is why stachyose is classified among FODMAP.

Fermentable polysaccharides

Humans consume a wide range of dietary polysaccharides in the form of plant foods, animal connective tissue, food additives, and higher mushroom products (Martens et al., 2014). However, the human body can only cleave α -1,4-linked polymers of glucose (including starches, maltodextrins, maltotriose and maltose), lactose and sucrose (Kaoutari et al., 2013) which is why the intestinal microocenosis has an irreplaceable role in the polysaccharide metabolism. Microorganisms produce a wide range of glycolytic enzymes (Gill et al., 2006; Turnbaugh et al., 2009; Turnbaugh et al., 2010), capable of cleaving bonds in β -glucans, cellulose, or hemicelluloses. In addition to the positive prebiotic effect, polysaccharides are fermented by microbial metabolism to produce short-chain fatty acids and gases. For example, *Plantago asiatica* polysaccharides are fermented by the microocenosis to acetic, propionic, and butyric acids. These are the products of acetic, propionic and butane fermentation, which, however, also release large amounts of carbon dioxide and hydrogen (Hu et al., 2013). A frequently used food additive is guar gum (from the seeds of *Cyamopsis tetragonoloba*). It is used as a thickener, increases the feeling of satiety, and reduces the absorption of monosaccharides. It is an indigestible fiber and is fermented by intestinal microorganisms accompanied by an intensive production of propionate, butyrate, and gases (Yang et al., 2013).

Carbohydrate polyols

Carbohydrate polyols are alcohols formed by the reduction of carbohydrates. In the food industry, they are used as thickeners and sweeteners, which have a low glycemic index. They are either obtained by an extraction from raw plant materials or by a reduction of monosaccharides, particularly glucose and fructose. These are used as a sugar substitute in low-calorie drinks, confectionery, pastries, yoghurts, or separately as low-calorie sweeteners. The most important representatives are sorbitol and mannitol.

Both sorbitol (D-glucitol) and mannitol (an isomer of sorbitol) occur naturally in fruits such as apples, cherries, and apricots; commercially available polyols for food purposes are prepared by hydrogenation of monosaccharides. Sorbitol has a relative sweetness of about 55% and mannitol about 50% when compared to sucrose (Featherstone, 2015). In soft drinks, a 1-2% sorbitol solution is usually used to ensure a cool and sweet mouthfeel, as well as to enhance the taste. Sorbitol is also used to mask a typical bitter taste of saccharin in beverages containing this sweetener. One of the main differences between sorbitol and mannitol lies in their solubility. Sorbitol is highly soluble in water and is an excellent hygroscopic agent. Mannitol is significantly less soluble and is used as a carrier for flavorings in e.g., powdered beverage bases (Featherstone, 2015).

Fermentation of mannitol and sorbitol

Enterobacter aerogenes ferments mannitol via glucose and pyruvate with a simultaneous intensive H₂ production (Tanisho and Suganuma, 1999). Mannitol-based fermentation is twice as intense as fermentation, in which glucose is the starting substrate when it comes to the production of hydrogen (Tanisho and Ishiwana, 1994; Hongo, 2014) (Fig. 4).

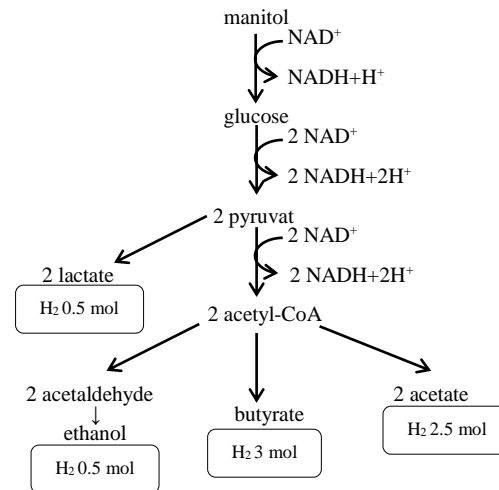


Figure 4 Mannitol fermentation (Hongo, 2014)

Due to a long tradition of using these sweeteners and research on them, it was found as early as 1986 that sorbitol altered the fecal microcosmos in rats by displacing gram-negative bacteria and promoting the growth of gram-positive bacteria (Salminen et al., 1986). For example, sorbitol promotes the growth and reproduction of *Lactobacillus reuteri* in the digestive tract of rats and is metabolized with a marked increase in butyrate concentration in the colon (Sarmiento-Rubiano et al., 2007). However, butane fermentation also produces gases, which is why flatulence and colicky pain are an undesirable side effect of polyol consumption. Therefore, both sorbitol and mannitol have been classified as FODMAP.

FODMAP food sources

To alleviate IBS and the inconveniences associated with bacterial overgrowth in the intestine, in which gaseous substances are produced by fermentation, it is necessary to describe the FODMAP food sources (Tab. 4) as well as foods that can be consumed since they contain little or no FODMAP.

Table 4 Foods high in FODMAP (Gibson and Shepherd, 2005, 2010, 2012)

| FODMAP | Subcategory | Food |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------|---|
| fructooligosaccharides | fructans | Cereals: wheat, rye, barley |
| | | Vegetables: onion, garlic, artichoke, leek, beet and cabbage |
| | | Fruit: melon, peaches, hurmikaki, plums, nectarines and most dried fruit |
| galactooligosaccharides | galactans | Legumes: beans, soybeans, peas, chickpeas |
| disaccharides | lactose | Vegetables: beet |
| | | Dairy products from cow's and goat's milk |
| monosaccharides | fructose in excess of glucose | Fruits: apples, pears, melon, mango, cherries, blackberries, fruit juices, honey |
| | | Sweeteners: high-fructose corn syrup |
| | | Vegetables: asparagus, sugar peas |
| carbohydrate alcohols | polyols | Fruits: apples, pears, avocados, apricots, blueberries, nectarines, peaches, plums, prunes, and melon |
| | | Vegetables: sweet potatoes, mushrooms, cauliflower and sugar peas |

The importance of diet in the treatment of IBS was confirmed by a study in which 76% of patients diagnosed with IBS and fructose malabsorption experienced a significant remission of digestive issues following a well-defined diet without fructose and fructooligosaccharides (Shepherd and Gibson, 2006; Shepherd et al., 2008). A LOW-FODMAP diet significantly improved health in 75% of patients diagnosed with IBS (Marsh et al., 2015), and consequently, 60-70% of patients reported a worsening of symptoms after switching to normal eating habits (Ahmad and Akbar, 2015; El-Salhy and Gundersen, 2015; Lacy and Patel, 2015). However, there are also hypersensitive individuals who have not been diagnosed with any gastrointestinal diseases or syndromes and still have major problems after consuming HIGH-FODMAP foods. In these subjects, the consumption of foods rich in FODMAP followed by physical exertion, the movement of food through the upper gastrointestinal tract was intensified and carbohydrates were then fermented in the large intestine (Peters, 2006; de Oliveira and Burini, 2009; Peters et al., 2014).

The sources of fructose are mainly fruits (apples, cherries, mangoes, pears, watermelon), vegetables (asparagus, artichokes, sugar peas), honey and HFCS syrup with a high fructose content (Tab. 5) (Latulippe and Skoog, 2011; Douard and Ferraris, 2012).

Table 5 Fructose content in fruits and vegetables (Nookaraju et al., 2010)

| Fruits | Fructose, g per 100 g | Vegetables | Fructose, g per 100 g |
|----------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| Apples | 5.9 | Tomatoes | 1.4 |
| Pears | 6.5 | Green peppers | 1.0 |
| Cherries | 5.4 | Red peppers | 2.4 |
| Plums | 2.8 | Cucumbers | 0.7 |
| Apricots | 0.6 | Broccoli | 1.3 |
| Peaches | 1.2 | Onion | 1.8 |
| Strawberries | 2.4 | Cauliflower | 1.3 |
| Raspberries | 1.2 | Carrot | 1.9 |
| Blackberries | 2.5 | Red cabbage | 1.7 |
| Black currants | 5.0 | Cabbage | 2.0 |
| Red currants | 1.8 | Brussels sprouts | 0.8 |
| Grapefruits | 1.0 | Watermelon | 3.5 |
| Grapes | 7.1 | Potatoes | 0.1 |
| Pineapple | 1.4 | Sweet potatoes | 0.8 |
| Bananas | 3.8 | Kidney bean | 0.7 |

Lactose is considered a FODMAP when there is an insufficient amount of β -galactosidase in the digestive tract (estimated to be lacking in about 15% of the population), an enzyme required for its hydrolysis (Carter and Attel, 2013). Milk and milk products, ice cream, puddings and soft, unfermented cheeses are among the most prominent sources of lactose (Tab. 6).

Table 6 Lactose content in dairy products (Agostoni et al., 2010)

| Food | Lactose, g per 100 g |
|--------------------------|----------------------|
| Cow milk | 4.8 |
| Goat milk | 4.4 |
| Sheep's milk | 5.1 |
| Human milk | 7.2 |
| Yoghurt | 4.1 |
| Kefir | 3.8 |
| Cream | 3.1 |
| Ice cream | 6.0 |
| Swiss cheese | 0.0 |
| Cottage cheese | 2.2 |
| Butter | 0.7 |
| Milk powder, full fat | 38.0 |
| Milk powder, without fat | 52.0 |
| Whey dried | 74.0 |

FODMAP oligosaccharides are fructans and galactans whose digestion and absorption are not possible in the human body since the digestive juices do not contain the necessary enzymes (Roberfroid and Delzenne, 1998; Ritsema and Smeekens, 2003; Sangwan et al., 2011). Fructooligosaccharides are found in various fruits, cereals and legumes, nuts, and vegetables. Peaches, hurmikaki, melons, artichokes, beetroot, brussels sprouts, chicory, fennel, garlic, leeks, onions, peas, wheat, rye, barley, oats, pistachios, lentils, chickpeas, and chicory drinks contain high amounts of fructans (Roberfroid and Delzenne, 1998; Ritsema and Smeekens, 2003). Wheat, containing 1-4% of these oligosaccharides, is also an important food source of fructans (Roberfroid and Delzenne, 1998). Therefore, wheat products such as bread, pasta, breakfast cereals, bakery and pastry goods are considered as foods containing FODMAP. Rye also contains fructans, which, however, have a longer chain length than wheat fructans and therefore present with a lower osmotic activity and are more slowly fermented, allowing them to pass through the digestive tract as undigested (Roberfroid and Delzenne, 1998; Ritsema and Smeekens, 2003; Sangwan et al., 2011; Van Loo et al., 1995; Karppinen et al., 2003). Inulin crops are a frequently consumed source of fructans. Inulin, as a long-chain fructan with a degree of polymerization greater than 10, has a prebiotic effect (Roberfroid, 1999; Boeckner et al., 2001; Kaur and Gupta, 2002; Kelly, 2008). Its food sources are chicory root, leeks, onions, garlic, artichokes, fennel, and asparagus (Tab. 7).

Table 7 Inulin content in inulin crops (Fuchs, 2012)

| Source | Storage organ | Inulin content, % of fresh weight |
|---------------------|---------------|-----------------------------------|
| Asparagus | root | 10 - 15 |
| Chicory | root | 15 - 20 |
| Dandelion | root, leaves | 12 - 15 |
| Garlic | bulb | 9 - 16 |
| Jerusalem artichoke | tuber | 14 - 19 |

Table 8 Galactooligosaccharides in food (Steggerda et al., 1966)

| Food | Galactan, g per 100 g whole product |
|----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Jerusalem artichoke | 7.5 |
| Beans, baked | 0.6 |
| Beans, black-eyed | 0.3 |
| Beans, broad | 0.2 |
| Beans, butter | 0.2 |
| Beans, kidney | 0.2 |
| Bean, lima (dried) | 2.9 |
| Beans, red | 0.8 |
| Beetroot | 0.1 |
| Broccoli | 0.1 |
| Chickpeas | 1.2 |
| Fennel, bulb | 0.1 |
| Lentils, dried | 3.8 |
| Lettuce, radicchio | 0.1 |
| Onion, white | 0.2 |
| Peas, green (frozen) | 0.2 |
| Soy beverages | 0.3 - 0.9 |

The primary food sources of galactans encompass legumes and their products, such as beans, chickpeas, lentils and soy products (Table 8), as well as cruciferous vegetables such as cabbage or kale (Steggerda et al., 1966). Vegetarians have the

highest intake of galactans, for whom legumes are a source of protein, alongside nations for which e.g. beans represent a traditional or national dish ("chili con carne" typical for Mexicans) (Roberfroid and Delzenne, 1998).

The polyols sorbitol and mannitol, as well as maltitol, xylitol, erythritol or polydextrose, are storage substances in plants and play an osmoregulatory role. Sorbitol is more common in fruits, while mannitol is more frequent in vegetables. Foods with a higher sorbitol content include apples, apricots, avocados, blackberries, cherries, nectarines, pears, plums, diet drinks, confectionery and chewing gums. Mannitol is found mainly in mushrooms, cauliflower, celery, and peas. Polyols are also used as artificial sweeteners such as E420 (sorbitol), E421 (mannitol), E965 (maltitol), E967 (xylitol) and E953 (isomalt) (Hyams, 1983; Beaugerie et al., 1990; Barrett and Gibson, 2012).

Low FODMAP diet

The primary solution to the problems associated with the consumption of FODMAP lies in a strict elimination diet. A reduction of a high FODMAP food consumption in up to 70% of patients with irritable bowel syndrome has led to a significant health improvement (Gearry et al., 2016; Marsh et al., 2015; Gibson, 2017). Patients on a low FODMAP diet have presented with a significantly reduced abdominal pain and bloating (Altobelli, 2017). With respect to the irritable bowel syndrome, patients on a low FODMAP diet had lower serum levels of the pro-inflammatory interleukins IL-6 and IL-8, decreased concentrations of short-chain fatty acids and a reduced presence of *Actinobacteria*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* in their stool (Staudacher et al., 2012; Staudacher et al., 2014; Staudacher and Whelan, 2016). In addition to a low FODMAP diet, patients with irritable bowel syndrome are also advised to reduce their intake of fiber and foods that may cause bloating, as well as to reduce the consumption of alcohol, caffeine, and fatty foods. (Non)consumption of milk and dairy products is debatable, as not all patients present with a lactose intolerance (Altobelli et al., 2017; Tuck et al., 2014).

However, a low FODMAP diet may also come along with several negative side effects. Fructans and galactans are carbohydrates with a prebiotic effect. They act as substrates for the growth of a healthy microecosis in the intestines and are a part of the so-called soluble fiber. Their presence enforces a proper function of the intestines. As such, elimination of FODMAP from nutrition may result in a disproportionately low fiber intake, a reduction of prebiotic substances, and thus undesirable changes in the composition of the intestinal microbiota towards a reduction of the beneficial bacteria (Hill et al., 2017). Stool analysis has revealed that a very low FODMAP diet lasting for 3-4 weeks led to a reduction in *Bifidobacteria* (Kerckhoffs et al., 2009; Halmos et al., 2014). The number of butyrate-producing bacteria also decreased, while on the other hand the number of mucus degrading bacteria increased. This finding leads to the conclusion that if irritable bowel syndrome is associated with a dysbiosis, then a long-term low FODMAP diet is not an appropriate solution. As such, the diet is recommended for 2 - 6 weeks, or until pathological symptoms disappear. Subsequently, a professional dietary management with at least a partial return of FODMAP to food is required.

CONCLUSION

Fermentable disaccharides, oligosaccharides, polysaccharides and polyols are commonly found in a wide range of foods and play an important role in nutrition. They are a part of fiber, which contributes to a healthy function of the entire gastrointestinal tract. On the other hand, their ingestion may cause a variety of unpleasant difficulties to sensitive individuals. The possible solution lies in a low FODMAP diet, which, however, does not only come with benefits. Adverse side effects may occur after a long-term avoidance of these carbohydrates from food. Further studies are needed to assure a healthy functioning of the digestive tract.

Acknowledgments: This publication was supported by the Operational program Integrated Infrastructure within the project: Demand-driven research for the sustainable and inovative food, Drive4SIFood 313011V336, cofinanced by the European Regional Development Fund.

REFERENCES

Agostoni, C., Bresson, J., Fairweather-Tait, S., Flynn, A., Golly, I., Korhonen, H., Lagiou, P., Lovik, M., Marchelli, R., Martin, A., Moseley, B., Neuhäuser-Berthold, M., Przyrembel, H., Salminen, S., Sanz, Y., Strain, J., Strobel, S., Tetens, I., Tomé, D., Loveren, H., Verhagen, H. (2010). Scientific Opinion on lactose thresholds in lactose intolerance and galactosaemia. *EFSA Panel on Dietetic Products, Nutrition and Allergies (NDA)*, 8(9), 1-29. <https://doi.org/10.2903/j.efsa.2010.1777>

Ahmad, O. F., Akbar, A. (2015). Dietary Treatment of Irritable Bowel Syndrome. *British Medical Bulletin*, 113(1), 83-90. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bmb/1du039>

Altobelli, E., Del Negro, V., Angeletti, P., Latella, G. (2017). Low-FODMAP Diet Improves Irritable Bowel Syndrome Symptoms: A Meta-Analysis. *Nutrients*, 9(9), 940. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu9090940>

Astwood, K., Lee, B., Manley-Harris, M. (1998). Oligosaccharides in New Zealand Honeydew Honey. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 46(12), 4958-4962. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf980720d>

- Barrett, J. S. (2013). Extending Our Knowledge of Fermentable, Short-Chain Carbohydrates for Managing Gastrointestinal Symptoms. *Nutrition in Clinical Practice*, 28(3), 300-306. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0884533613485790>
- Barrett, J. S., Gibson, P. R. (2012). Fermentable oligosaccharides, disaccharides, monosaccharides and polyols (FODMAPs) and nonallergic food intolerance: FODMAPs or food chemicals? *Therapeutic Advances in Gastroenterology*, 5(4), 261-268. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1756283X11436241>
- Baucells, M. D., Crespo, N., Barroeta, A. C., Lopez-Ferrer, S., Grashorn, M. A. (2000). Incorporation of different polyunsaturated fatty acids into eggs. *Poultry Science*, 79(1), 51-59. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ps/79.1.51>
- Beaugerie, L., Flourié, B., Marteau, P., Pellier, P., Franchisseur, C., Rambaud, J.-C. (1990). Digestion and absorption in the human intestine of three sugar alcohols. *Gastroenterology*, 99(3), 717-723. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-5085\(90\)90960-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-5085(90)90960-9)
- Bernalier, A., Willems, A., Leclerc, M. (1996). *Ruminococcus hydrogenotrophicus* sp. nov., a new H₂/CO₂-utilizing acetogenic bacterium isolated from human feces. *Arch Microbiol* 166, 176-183. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s002030050373>
- Bhagavan, N. V., Ha, Ch. (2011). Carbohydrate metabolism II: Gluconeogenesis, Glycogen Synthesis and Breakdown, and Alternative Pathways. *Essentials of Medical Biochemistry with clinical cases*, 151-168. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-095461-2.00014-X>
- Boeckner, L. S., Schnepf, M. I., Tunland, B. C. (2001). Inulin: A review of nutritional and health implications. *Advances in Food and Nutrition Research*, 1-63. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1043-4526\(01\)43002-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1043-4526(01)43002-6)
- Bogdanov, S., Haldimann, M., Luginbühl, W., Gallmann, P. (2007). Minerals in honey: environmental, geographical and botanical aspects. *Journal of Apicultural Research*, 46(4), 269-275. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00218839.2007.11101407>
- Borrel, G., Lehours, A., Crouzet, O., Jezequel, D., Kulozak, A., Duffaud, E., Joblin, K., Fonty, G. (2012). Stratification of *Archaea* in the Deep Sediments of a Freshwater Meromictic Lake: Vertical Shift from Methanogenic to Uncultured Archaeal Lineages. *PLoS ONE*, 7(8), e43346. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0043346>
- Bouhnik, Y., Alain, S., Attar, A., Flourié, B., Raskine, L., LePors, M. J. S., Rambaud, J. (1999). Bacterial populations contaminating the upper gut in patients with small intestinal bacterial overgrowth syndrome. *The American Journal of Gastroenterology*, 94(5), 1327-1331. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-9270\(99\)00071-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-9270(99)00071-4)
- Caní, P., Delzenne, N. M. (2007). Gut microflora as a target for energy and metabolic homeostasis. *Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care*, 10(6), 729-734. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MCO.0b013e3282efdebb>
- Cantu-Jungles, T. M., Maria-Ferreira, D., da Silva, L. M., Baggio, C. H., Werner, M. F. de P., Iacomini, M., Cordeiro, L. M. C. (2014). Polysaccharides from prunes: Gastroprotective activity and structural elucidation of bioactive pectins. *Food Chemistry*, 146, 492-499. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2013.09.09>
- Carter, S. L., Attel, S. (2013). The diagnosis and management of patients with lactose-intolerance. *The Nurse Practitioner*, 38(7), 23-28. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.npr.0000429894.03255.80>
- Ciani, M., Comitini, F., Mannazzu, I. (2013). Fermentation. *Earth systems and Environmental Sciences*, 2, 310-321. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-409548-9.00693-X>
- De Oliveira, E. P., Burini, R. C. (2009). The impact of physical exercise on the gastrointestinal tract. *Current Opinion in Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care*, 12(5), 533-538. <https://doi.org/10.1097/mco.0b013e32832e6776>
- Doner, L. W. (1977). The sugars of honey - A review. *Journal of the science of food and agriculture*, 28(5), 443-456. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.2740280508>
- Doré, A. (1995). Barents Sea Geology, Petroleum Resources and Commercial Potential. *Arctic*, 48(3), 207-221. <https://doi.org/10.14430/arctic1243>
- Douard, V., Ferraris, R. R. (2012). The role of fructose transporters in diseases linked to excessive fructose intake. *The Journal of Physiology*, 591(2), 401-414. <https://doi.org/10.1113/jphysiol.2011.215731>
- Eberhard, J., Jepsen, S., Pohl, L., Albers, H. K., Acil, Y. (2002). Bacterial Challenge Stimulates Formation of Arachidonic Acid Metabolites by Human Keratinocytes and Neutrophils *In Vitro*. *Clinical and Vaccine Immunology*, 9(1), 132-137. <https://doi.org/10.1128/CDLI.9.1.132-137.2002>
- Eckburg, P. B., Bik, E. M., Purdom, E., Dethlefsen, L., Sargent, M., Gill, S. R., Nelson, K. E., Relman, D. A. (2005). Diversity Of The Human Intestinal Microbial Flora. *Science*, 308(5728), 1635-1638. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1110591>
- El-Salhy, M., Gundersen, D. (2015). Diet in irritable bowel syndrome. *Nutrition Journal*, 14(13). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12937-015-0022-3>
- Featherstone, S. (2015). Ingredients used in the preparation of canned foods. *A Complete Course in Canning and Related Processes*, 2, 147-211. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-85709-678-4.00008-7>
- Fedewa, A., Rao, S. C. (2014). Dietary Fructose Intolerance, Fructan Intolerance and FODMAPs. *Current Gastroenterology Reports*, 16(1). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11894-013-0370-0>
- Flemer, B., Warren, R. D., Barret, M., Cisek, K., Das, A., Jeffery, I. B., Hurley, E., Shanahan, F., O'Toole, P. W., O'Riordain, M. (2018). The oral microbiota in colorectal cancer is distinctive and predictive. *Gut*, 67(8), 1454-1463. <https://doi.org/10.1136/gutjnl-2017-314814>
- Flint, H., Duncan, S., Scott, K., Louis, P. (2015). Links between diet, gut microbiota composition and gut metabolism. *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, 74(1), 13-22. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0029665114001463>
- Flint, H., Scott, K., Louis, P., Duncan, S. H. (2012). The role of the gut microbiota in nutrition and health. *Nature Reviews Gastroenterology & Hepatology*, 9(10), 577-589. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrgastro.2012.156>
- Franco-Robles, E., López, M. G. (2015). Implication of Fructans in Health: Immunomodulatory and Antioxidant Mechanisms. *The Scientific World Journal*, 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/289267>
- Fuchs, A. (1993). Inulin and inulin-containing crops. *Studies in Plant Science*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/c2009-0-01053-8>
- Geary, R., Skidmore, P., O'Brien, L., Wilkinson, T., Nanayakkara, W. (2016). Efficacy of the low FODMAP diet for treating irritable bowel syndrome: the evidence to date. *Clinical and Experimental Gastroenterology*, 131. <https://doi.org/10.2147/ceg.s86798>
- Gaci, N., Borrel, G., Tottey, W., O'Toole, P. W., Brugère, J. F. (2014). Archaea and the human gut: new beginning of an old story. *World journal of gastroenterology*, 20(43), 16062-16078. <https://doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v20.i43.16062>
- Geidl-Flueck, B., Hochuli, M., Németh, Á., Eberi, A., Derron, N., Köfeler, H. C., Tappy, L., Berneis, K., Spinass, G. A., Gerber, P. A. (2021). Fructose- and sucrose- but not glucose-sweetened beverages promote hepatic de novo lipogenesis: A randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Hepatology*, 75(1), 46-54. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhep.2021.02.027>
- Ghoshal, U. C., Shukla, R., Ghoshal, U., Gwee, K., Ng, S. C., Quigley, E. M. M. (2012). The Gut Microbiota and Irritable Bowel Syndrome: Friend or Foe. *International Journal of Inflammation*, 2012, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/151085>
- Ghoshal, U. C., Srivastava, D. (2014). Irritable bowel syndrome and small intestinal bacterial overgrowth: meaningful association or unnecessary hype. *World journal of gastroenterology*, 20(10), 2482-2491. <https://doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v20.i10.2482>
- Gibson, G. R., Macfarlane, G. T., Cummings, J. H. (1993). Sulphate reducing bacteria and hydrogen metabolism in the human large intestine. *Gut*, 34(4), 437-439. <https://doi.org/10.1136/gut.34.4.437>
- Gibson, G. R., Roberfruid, M. B. (1995). Dietary Modulation of the Human Colonic Microbiota: Introducing the Concept of Prebiotics. *The Journal of Nutrition*, 125(6), 1401 - 1412. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jn/125.6.1401>
- Gibson, P. R. (2017). The evidence base for efficacy of the low FODMAP diet in irritable bowel syndrome: is it ready for prime time as a first-line therapy? *Journal of Gastroenterology and Hepatology*, 32, 32-35. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jgh.13693>
- Gibson, P. R., Shepherd, S. J. (2005). Personal view: food for thought - western lifestyle and susceptibility to Crohn's disease. The FODMAP hypothesis. *Alimentary Pharmacology and Therapeutics*, 21(12), 1399-1409. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2036.2005.02506.x>
- Gibson, P. R., Shepherd, S. J. (2010). Evidence-based dietary management of functional gastrointestinal symptoms: The FODMAP approach. *Journal of Gastroenterology and Hepatology*, 25(2), 252-258. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1440-1746.2009.06149.x>
- Gibson, P. R., Shepherd, S. J. (2012). Food Choice as a Key Management Strategy for Functional Gastrointestinal Symptoms. *The American Journal of Gastroenterology*, 107(5), 657-666. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ajg.2012.49>
- Gill, S. R., Pop, M., DeBoy, R. T., Eckburg, P. B., Turnbaugh, P. J., Samuel, B. S., Nelson, K. E. (2006). Metagenomic Analysis of the Human Distal Gut Microbiome. *Science*, 312(5778), 1355-1359. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1124234>
- Giorgio, R., Volta, U., Gibson, P. R. (2016). Sensitivity to wheat, gluten and FODMAPs in IBS: facts or fiction? *Gut*, 65(1), 169-178. <https://doi.org/10.1136/gutjnl-2015-309757>
- Gomara, R. E., Halata, M. S., Newman, L. J., Bostwick, H. E., Berezin, S. H., Cukaj, L., See, M. C., Medow, M. S. (2008). Fructose Intolerance in Children Presenting With Abdominal Pain. *Journal of Pediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition*, 47(3), 303-308. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MPG.0b013e318166cbe4>
- Guarner, F., Malagelada, J. (2003). Gut flora in health and disease. *The Lancet*, 361(9356), 512-519. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(03\)12489-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(03)12489-0)
- Halmos, E. P., Christophersen, C. T., Bird, A. R., Shepherd, S. J., Gibson, P. R., Muir, J. G. (2014). Diets that differ in their FODMAP content alter the colonic luminal microenvironment. *Gut*, 64(1), 93-100. <https://doi.org/10.1136/gutjnl-2014-307264>
- Hamaker, B. R., Tuncil, Y. E. (2014). A Perspective on the Complexity of Dietary Fiber Structures and Their Potential Effect on the Gut Microbiota. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 426(23), 3838-3850. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmb.2014.07.028>
- Hedayat, K. M., Lapraz, J. (2019). Disorders of intestinal transit. *The Theory of Endobiogeny*, 3, 215-235. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-816964-3.00010-9>
- Hill, P., Muir, J. G., Gibson, P. R. (2017). Controversies and Recent Developments of the Low-FODMAP Diet. *Gastroenterology & hepatology*, 13(1), 36-45. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5390324/>

- Hongo, A. (2014). Optimization of Hydrogen Production by Mannitol Utilizing a Bacterium Strain TM1. *Journal of Environmental Biotechnology*, 14(1), 65-68. <https://www.jseb.jp/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/14-01-065.pdf>
- Hu, J.-L., Nie, S.-P., Li, C., Xie, M.-Y. (2013). In vitro fermentation of polysaccharide from the seeds of *Plantago asiatica* L. by human fecal microbiota. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 33(2), 384-392. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2013.04.006>
- Hyams, J. S. (1983). Sorbitol Intolerance: An Unappreciated Cause of Functional Gastrointestinal Complaints. *Gastroenterology*, 84(1), 30-33. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0016-5085\(83\)80163-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0016-5085(83)80163-2)
- Chaudhary, P.P., Conway, P.L., Schlundt, J. (2018). Methanogens in humans: potentially beneficial or harmful for health. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 102, 3095-3104. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-018-8871-2>
- Chibbar, R. N., Båga, M. (2003). Genetic Modification of Primary Metabolism | Carbohydrates. *Encyclopedia of Applied Plant Sciences*, 449-459. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-12-227050-9/00171-X>
- Chumpitazi, B. P., Shulman, R. J. (2016). Dietary Carbohydrates and Childhood Functional Abdominal Pain. *Annals of Nutrition and Metabolism*, 68(1), 7-18. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000445390>
- Iannitti, T., Palmieri, B. (2010). Therapeutic use of probiotic formulations in clinical practice. *Clinical Nutrition*, 29(6), 701-725. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnu.2010.05.004>
- Kährström, C., Pariente, N., Weiss, U. (2016). Intestinal microbiota in health and disease. *Nature*, 535(7610), 47-47. <https://doi.org/10.1038/535047a>
- Kaoutari, A. E., Armougom, F., Gordon, J. I., Raoult, D., Henrissat, B. (2013). The abundance and variety of carbohydrate-active enzymes in the human gut microbiota. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 11(7), 497-504. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro3050>
- Karppinen, S., Myllymäki, O., Forsell, P., Poutanen, K. (2003). Fructan Content of Rye and Rye Products. *Cereal Chemistry Journal*, 80(2), 168-171. <https://doi.org/10.1094/CCHEM.2003.80.2.168>
- Kaškoniene, V., Venskutonis, P. R. (2010). Floral markers in honey of various botanical and geographic origins: Comprehensive Reviews. *Food Science and Food Safety*, 9, 620-634. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j>
- Kaur, N., Gupta, A. K. (2002). Applications of inulin and oligofructose in health and nutrition. *Journal of Biosciences*, 27(7), 703-714. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02708379>
- Keller, K. L., Wall, J. D. (2011). Genetics and molecular biology of the electron flow for sulfate respiration in *Desulfovibrio*. *Frontiers in Microbiology*. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2011.00135>
- Kelly, G. (2008). Inulin Type Prebiotics --A Review: Part 1. *Alternative Medicine Review*, 13(4), 315-329. <https://web.p.ebscohost.com/abstract?site=ehost&scope=site&jrnl=10895159&AN=36459239&h=rKfccc%2fZiM3IdC0xPdIzpNb7kcvOVk%2fWYp6cSWXHVQae86k4E22Z%2fuY4BS0Bt0Q7aORLKZQmZ%2fb77Yjvg6qw%3d%3d&crl=c&resultLocal=ErrCrNoResults&resultNs=Ehost&crlhashurl=login.aspx%3fdirect%3dtrue%26profile%3dehost%26scope%3dsite%26authtype%3dcrawler%26jml%3d10895159%26AN%3d36459239>
- Kerckhoffs, A. P., Samsom, M., Rest, M. E. van der, Vogel, J. de, Knol, J., Ben-Amor, K., Akkermans, L. M. (2009). Lower Bifidobacteria counts in both duodenal mucosa-associated and fecal microbiota in irritable bowel syndrome patients. *World Journal of Gastroenterology*, 15(23), 2887. <https://doi.org/10.3748/wjg.15.2887>
- Khoshini, R., Dai, S., Lezcano, S., Pimentel, M. (2008). A Systematic Review Of Diagnostic Test For Small Intestinal Bacterial Overgrowth. *Digestive Disease and Science*, 53, 1443-1454. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10620-007-0065-1>
- Lacy, B. E., Patel, N. K. (2017). Rome Criteria and a Diagnostic Approach to Irritable Bowel Syndrome. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 6(11), 99. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm6110099>
- Lammerts van Bueren, A., Mulder, M., Leeuwen, S. (2017). Prebiotic galactooligosaccharides activate mucin and pectic galactan utilization pathways in the human gut symbiont *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron*. *Scientific Reports*, 7(1). <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep40478>
- Lanaspa, M. A., Ishimoto, T., Cicerchi, Ch., Tamura, Y., Roncal-Jimenez, C. A., Chen, W., Tanabe, K., Andres-Hernando, A., Orlicky, D. J., Finol, E., Inaba, S., Li, N., Rivard, J. C., Kosugi, T., Sanchez-Lozada, L. G., Petrash, J. M., Sautin, Y. Y., Ejaz, A. A., Kitagawa, W., Garcia, G. E., Bonthron, D. T., Asipu, A., Diggle, C. P., Rodriguez-Iturbe, B., Nakagawa, T., Johnson, R. (2014). Endogenous Fructose Production and Fructokinase Activation Mediate Renal Injury in Diabetic Nephropathy. In *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*, 25(11), 2526-2538. <https://doi.org/10.1681/ASN.2013080901>
- Latulippe, M. E., Skoog, S. M. (2011). Fructose Malabsorption and Intolerance: Effects of Fructose with and without Simultaneous Glucose Ingestion. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 51(7), 583-592. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2011.566646>
- Le Gall, M., Tobin, V., Stolarczyk, E., Dalet, V., Leturque, A., Brot-Laroche, E. (2007). Sugar sensing by enterocytes combines polarity, membrane bound detectors and sugar metabolism. In *Journal of Cellular Physiology*, 213(3), 834-843. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jcp.21245>
- Leslie, N. D. (2003). Insights into the Pathogenesis of Galactosemia. *Annual review of Nutrition*, 23, 59-80. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.nutr.23.011702.073135>
- Li, D.-Y., Yang, M., Edwards, S., Ye, S.-Q. (2013). Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease. *Journal of Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition*, 37(6), 787-793. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0148607113481623>
- Lim, I., van Wegen, E., de Goede, C., Deutekom, M., Nieuwboer, A., Willems, A., Kwakkel, G. (2005). Effects of external rhythmical cueing on gait in patients with Parkinson's disease: a systematic review. *Clinical Rehabilitation*, 19(7), 695-713. <https://doi.org/10.1191/0269215505cr9060a>
- Losurdo, G., Principi, M., Iannone, A., Amoruso, A., Ierardi, E., Di Leo, A., Barone, M. (2018). Extra-intestinal manifestations of non-celiac gluten sensitivity: An expanding paradigm. *World journal of gastroenterology*, 24(14), 1521-1530. <https://doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v24.i14.1521>
- Macario, E. C., Macario, A. J. L. (2009). Methanogenic archaea in health and disease: A novel paradigm of microbial pathogenesis. *International Journal of Medical Microbiology*, 299(2), 99-108. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijmm.2008.06.011>
- Macdonald, I. (2003). CARBOHYDRATES – Metabolism of Sugars. *Encyclopedia of Food Sciences and Nutrition* (Second Edition), 889-891. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-12-227055-X/00170-X>
- Mackie, R. I., Sghir, A., Gaskins, H. R. (1999). Developmental microbial ecology of the neonatal gastrointestinal tract. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 69(5), 1035-1045. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/69.5.1035>
- Magee, A. I. (2000). Metabolic Labeling of Prenyl and Carboxyl-Methyl Groups. *Current Protocols in Cell Biology*, 5(1). <https://doi.org/10.1002/0471143030.cb0705s05>
- Manolescu, A. R., Augustin, R., Moley, K., Cheeseman, C. (2007). A highly conserved hydrophobic motif in the exofacial vestibule of fructose transporting SLC2A proteins acts as a critical determinant of their substrate selectivity. *Molecular Membrane Biology*, 24(5-6), 455-463. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09687680701298143>
- Mao, B., Tang, H., Gu, J., Li, D., Cui, S., Zhao, J., Zhang, H., Chen, W. (2018). In vitro fermentation of raffinose by the human gut bacteria. *Food and Function*, 9(11), 5824-5831. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c8fo01687a>
- Marquet, P., Duncan, S. H., Chassard, C., Bernalier-Donadille, A., Flint, H. J. (2009). Lactate has the potential to promote hydrogen sulphide formation in the human colon. *FEMS Microbiology Letters*, 299(2), 128-134. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6968.2009.01750.x>
- Marsh, A., Eslick, E. M., Eslick, G. D. (2015). Does a diet low in FODMAPs reduce symptoms associated with functional gastrointestinal disorders? A comprehensive systematic review and meta-analysis. *European Journal of Nutrition*, 55(3), 897-906. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00394-015-0922-1>
- Martens, E. C., Kelly, A. G., Tausin, A. S., Brumer, H. (2014). The Devil Lies in the Details: How Variations in Polysaccharide Fine-Structure Impact the Physiology and Evolution of Gut Microbes. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 426(23), 3851-3865. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmb.2014.06.022>
- Mazmanian, S., Round, J., Kasper, D. (2008). A microbial symbiosis factor prevents intestinal inflammatory disease. *Nature* 453, 620-625. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature07008>
- Medeiros, F., Casanova, M. A., Fraulob, J. C., Trindade, M. (2012). How Can Diet Influence the Risk of Stroke? *International Journal of Hypertension*, 2012, 7. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/763507>
- Mihajlovski, A., Alric, M., Brugère, J. (2008). A putative new order of methanogenic Archaea inhabiting the human gut, as revealed by molecular analyses of the mcrA gene. *Research in Microbiology*, 159(7-8), 516-521. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resmic.2008.06.007>
- Miller, T., Wolin, M. J. (1983). Interactions of microbial populations in cellulose fermentation. *Europe PMC*, 42(1), 109-113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-341280-5.50013-6>
- Million, M., Tidjani Alou, M., Khelaifia, S. (2016). Increased Gut Redox and Depletion of Anaerobic and Methanogenic Prokaryotes in Severe Acute Malnutrition. *Scientific Reports*, 6(1). <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep26051>
- Mohnen, D. (2008). Pectin structure and biosynthesis. *Current opinion in plant biology*, 11(3), 266-277. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pbi.2008.03.006>
- Morrison, D. J., Preston, T. (2016). Formation of short chain fatty acids by the gut microbiota and their impact on human metabolism. *Gut Microbes*, 7(3), 189-200. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19490976.2015.1134082>
- Mousa, A. A., Rajabi, M. (2017). The Role of Angiogenesis in Cancer Treatment. *Biomedicines*, 5(2), 34. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biomedicines5020034>
- Moss, A. R., Jouany, J., Newbold, J. (2000). Methane production by ruminants: its contribution to global warming. *Animal Research*, 49(3), 231-253. <https://doi.org/10.1051/animres:2000119>
- Mussatto, S. I., Mancilha, I. M. (2007). Non-digestible oligosaccharides: A review. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 68(3), 587-597. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2006.12.011>
- Nagao-Kitamoto, H., Kitamoto, S., Kuffa, P., Kamada, N. (2016). Pathogenic role of the gut microbiota in gastrointestinal diseases. *Intestinal research*, 14(2), 127-138. <https://doi.org/10.5217/ir.2016.14.2.127>
- Nakamura, N., Lin, H. C., McSweeney, C. S., Mackie, R. I., Gaskins, H. R. (2010). Mechanisms of Microbial Hydrogen Disposal in the Human Colon and

- Implications for Health and Disease. *Food Science and Technology*, 1, 363-395. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.food.102308.124101>
- Nava, G., Carbonero, F., Croix, J., Greenberg, E., Gaskins, H. R. (2012). Abundance and diversity of mucosa-associated hydrogenotrophic microbes in the healthy human colon. *ISME Journal*, 6, 57-70. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2011.90>
- Nelis, G. F., Vermeeren, M. A. P., Jansen, W. (1990). Role of fructose-sorbitol malabsorption in the irritable bowel syndrome. *Gastroenterology*, 99(4), 1016-1020. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-5085\(90\)90621-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-5085(90)90621-7)
- Nookaraju, A., Upadhyaya, C. P., Pandey, S. K., Young, K. E., Hong, S. J., Park, S. K., Park, S. W. (2010). Molecular approaches for enhancing sweetness in fruits and vegetables. *Scientia Horticulturae*, 127(1), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2010.09.014>
- O'Hara, A. M., Shanahan, F. (2006). The gut flora as a forgotten organ. *EMBO report*, 7 (7), 688-693. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.embor.7400731>
- Ong, K. D., Mitchell, S. B., Barrett, J. S., Shepherd, S. J., Irving, P. M., Biesierski, J. R., Smith, S., Gibson, P. R., Muir, J. G. (2010). Manipulation of dietary short chain carbohydrates alters the pattern of gas production and genesis of symptoms in irritable bowel syndrome. *Journal of Gastroenterology and Hepatology*, 25(8), 1366-1373. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1440-1746.2010.06370.x>
- Ortega-González, M., Ocón, B., Romero-Calvo, I., Anzola, A., Guadix, E., Zarzuelo, A., Martínez-Augustín, O. (2013). Nondigestible oligosaccharides exert nonprebiotic effects on intestinal epithelial cells enhancing the immune response via activation of TLR4-NFκB. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, 58(2), 384-393. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.201300296>
- Orth, J. D., Conrad, T. M., Na, J., Lerman, J. A., Nam, H., Feist, A. M., Palsson, B. (2011). A comprehensive genome-scale reconstruction of *tilg* metabolism. *EMBO report*, 7, 535. <https://doi.org/10.1038/msb.2011.65>
- Papagianni, M., Anastasiadou, S. (2009). Pediocins: The bacteriocins of *Pediococci*. Sources, production, properties and applications. *Microbial Cell Factories* 8(1), 3. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1475-2859-8-3>
- Pascual, J. M. (2008). Metabolic Diseases of The Nervous System. *Molecular Neurology*, 149-161. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012369509-3.50012-3>
- Payne, A. N., Chassard, C., Lacroix, C. (2012). Gut microbial adaptation to dietary consumption of fructose, artificial sweeteners and sugar alcohols: implications for host-microbe interactions contributing to obesity. *Obesity Reviews*, 13(9), 799-809. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-789X.2012.01009.x>
- Petera, B., Delattre, C., Pierre, G., Wadouchi, A., Elbouchfaihi, R., Engel, E., Fenoradosoa, T. A. (2015). Characterization of arabinogalactan-rich mucilage from *Cereus triangularis cladodes*. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 127, 372-380. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2015.04.001>
- Peters, D. (2006). Carbohydrates for fermentation. *Biotechnology Journal*, 1(7-8), 806-814. <https://doi.org/10.1002/biot.200600041>
- Peters, S. L., Biesiekierski, J. R., Yelland, G. W., Muir, J. G., Gibson, P. R. (2014). Randomised clinical trial: gluten may cause depression in subjects with non-coeliac gluten sensitivity—an exploratory clinical study. *Alimentary pharmacology & therapeutics*, 39(10), 1104-1112. <https://doi.org/10.1111/apt.12730>
- Pimentel, D., Berger, B., Filiberto, D., Newton, M., Wolfe, B., Karabinakis, E., Clark, S., Poon, E., Abbett, E., Nandagopal, S. (2004). Water Resources: Agricultural and Environmental Issues, *BioScience*, 54(10), 909-918. [https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-3568\(2004\)054\[0909:WRAAEI\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-3568(2004)054[0909:WRAAEI]2.0.CO;2)
- Pinchuk, I., Bressollier, V., Fenet, B., Sorokulova, I. B., Megraud, F., Urdaci, M. (2020). In Vitro Anti-*Helicobacter pylori* Activity of the Probiotic Strain *Bacillus subtilis* 3 Is Due to Secretion of Antibiotics. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 45(11), 3156-3161. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.45.11.3156-3161.2001>
- Posserud, I., Stotzer, P., Björnsson, E. S., Abrahamsson, H., Simrén, M. (2007). Small intestinal bacterial overgrowth in patients with irritable bowel syndrome. *Gut Microbiota*, 56, 802-808. <https://gut.bmj.com/content/56/6/802>
- Prakash, D., Upadhyay, G., Pushpangadan, P., Gupta, C. (2011). Antioxidant and Free Radical Scavenging Activities of Some Fruits. *Journal of Complementary and Integrative Medicine*, 8(1), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.2202/1553-3840.1513>
- Qi, X., Tester, R. F. (2019). Fructose, galactose and glucose – In health and disease. *Clinical Nutrition ESPEN*, 33, 18-28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnesp.2019.07.004>
- Qin, J., Li, R., Raes, J., Arumugam, M., Burgdorf, K. S., Manichanh, Ch., Nielsen, T., Pons, N., Levenez, F., Yamada, T., Mende, D. R., Li, J., Xu, J., Li, D., Cao, J., Wang, B., Liang, H., Zheng, H., Xie, Y., Tap, J., Lepage, P., Bertala, M., Batto, J., Hansen, T., Paslier, D., Linneberg, A., Nielsen, H. B., Pelletier, E., Bork, P. (2010). A human gut microbial gene catalogue established by metagenomic sequencing. *Nature*, 464, 59-65. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature08821>
- Rao, S. S. C., Yu, S., Fedewa, A. (2015). Systematic review: dietary fibre and FODMAP-restricted diet in the management of constipation and irritable bowel syndrome. *Alimentary Pharmacology and Therapeutics*, 41(12), 1256-1270. <https://doi.org/10.1111/apt.13167>
- Rastall, R. A. (2010). Functional Oligosaccharides: Application and Manufacture. *Annual Review of Food Science and Technology*, 1(1), 305-339. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.food.080708.1>
- Rea, M., Sit, C. S., Clayton, E., O'Connor, P. M., Whittal, R. M., Zheng, J., Vederas, J. C., Ross, R. P., Hill, C. (2010). Thuricin CD, a posttranslationally modified bacteriocin with a narrow spectrum of activity against *Clostridium difficile*. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences May 2010*, 107(20), 9352-9357. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0913554107>
- Riby, E., Fujisawa, T., Kretschmer, N. (1993). Fructose absorption, *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 58(5), 748-753. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/58.5.748S>
- Ritsema, T., Smeekens, S. (2003). Fructans: beneficial for plants and humans. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology*, 6(3), 223-230. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1369-5266\(03\)00034-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1369-5266(03)00034-7)
- Rivière, A., Selak, M., Lantin, D., Leroy, F., Vuyst, L. (2016). Bifidobacteria and Butyrate-Producing Colon Bacteria: Importance and Strategies for Their Stimulation in the Human Gut. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 7. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.00979>
- Roberfroid, M. (2007). Prebiotics: The Concept Revisited, *The Journal of Nutrition*, 137(3), 830-837. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jn/137.3.830S>
- Roberfroid, M. B. (1999). Concepts in Functional Foods: The Case of Inulin and Oligofructose. *The Journal of Nutrition*, 129(7), 1398S-1401S. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jn/129.7.1398S>
- Roberfroid, M. B., Delzenne, N. M. (1998). DIETARY FRUCTANS. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 18(1), 117-143. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.nutr.18.1.117>
- Roberfroid, M., Gibson, G., Hoyles, L., McCartney, A., Rastall, R., Rowland, I., Meheust, A. (2010). Prebiotic effects: Metabolic and health benefits. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 104(2), 1-63. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114510003363>
- Röder, P. V., Geillinger, K. E., Zietek, T. S., Thorens, B., Koepsell, H., Daniel, H. (2014). The Role of SGLT1 and GLUT2 in Intestinal Glucose Transport and Sensing. *PLoS ONE*, 9(2). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0089977>
- Round, J. L., Lee, S. M., Li, J., Tran, G., Jabri, B., Chatila, T., Mazmanian, S. (2011). The Toll-Like Receptor 2 Pathway Establishes Colonization by a Commensal of the Human Microbiota. *Science*, 322(6032), 974-977. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1206095>
- Routy, B., Chatelier, E., Derosa, L., Duong, C. P. M., Alou, M. T., Daillere, R., Fluckiger, A., Messaoudene, M., Rauber, C., Zitvogel, L. (2018). Gut microbiome influences efficacy of PD-1-based immunotherapy against epithelial tumors. *Science*, 359(6371), 91-97. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aan3706>
- Rumessen, J. J., Gudmand-Hoyer, E. (1988). Functional Bowel Disease: Malabsorption and Abdominal Distress After Ingestion of Fructose, Sorbitol, and Fructose-Sorbitol Mixtures. *Gastroenterology*, 95(3), 694-700. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0016-5085\(88\)80016-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0016-5085(88)80016-7)
- Sachdev, A. H., Pimentel, M. (2013). Gastrointestinal bacterial overgrowth: pathogenesis and clinical significance. *Therapeutic Advances in Chronic Diseases*, 4(5), 233-231. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2040622313496126>
- Salminen, S., Salminen, E., Bridges, J., Marks, V. (1986). The effects of sorbitol on the gastrointestinal microflora in rats. *Zeitschrift Für Ernährungswissenschaft*, 25(2), 91-95. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02020738>
- Salonen, A., Lahti, L., Salojärvi, J., Holtrop, G., Korpela, K., Duncan, S., Date, P., Ferquharson, F., Johnstone, A. M., Lobley, G. E., Louis, P., Flint, H. J., Vos, W. M. (2014). Impact of diet and individual variation on intestinal microbiota composition and fermentation products in obese men. *The ISME Journal* 8, 2218-2230 (2014). <https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2014.63>
- Sangwan, V., Tomar, S. K., Singh, R. R. B., Singh, A. K., Ali, B. (2011). Galactooligosaccharides: Novel Components of Designer Foods. *Journal of Food Science*, 76(4), 103-111. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2011.02131.x>
- Sanz, Y., Nadal, I., Sanchez, E. (2005). Probiotics as Drugs Against Human Gastrointestinal Infections. *Recent Patents on Anti-Infective Drug Discovery*, 2(2), 148-156. <https://doi.org/10.2174/157489107780832596>
- Sarbini, S. R., Rastall, R. A. (2011). Prebiotics: Metabolism, Structure, and Function. *Functional Food Reviews*, 3(3), 93-106. <https://doi.org/10.2310/6180.2011.00004>
- Sarmiento-Rubiano, L. A., Zúñiga, M., Pérez-Martínez, G., Yebra, M. J. (2007). Dietary supplementation with sorbitol results in selective enrichment of lactobacilli in rat intestine. *Research in Microbiology*, 158(8-9), 694-701. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resmic.2007.07.007>
- Scanlan, P., Marchesi, J. (2008). Micro-eukaryotic diversity of the human distal gut microbiota: qualitative assessment using culture-dependent and -independent analysis of faeces. *The ISME Journal*, 2, 1183-1193. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2008.76>
- Scott, K. P., Gratz, S. W., Sheridan, P. O., Flint, H. J., Duncan, S. H. (2013). The influence of diet on the gut microbiota. *Pharmacological Research*, 69(1), 52-60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phrs.2012.10.020>
- Shepherd, S. J., Gibson, P. R. (2006). Fructose Malabsorption and Symptoms of Irritable Bowel Syndrome: Guidelines for Effective Dietary Management. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 106(10), 1631-1639. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2006.07.010>
- Shepherd, S., Parker, F., Muir, J., Gibson, P. (2008). Dietary Triggers of Abdominal Symptoms in Patients With Irritable Bowel Syndrome: Randomized Placebo-Controlled Evidence. *Clinical Gastroenterology and Hepatology*, 6(7), 765-771. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cgh.2008.02.058>
- Schalkwijk, C. G., Stehouwer, C. D. A., Hinsbergh, V. W. M. (2004). Fructose-mediated non-enzymatic glycation: sweet coupling or bad modification. *Diabetes Metabolism Research and Reviews*, 20(5), 369-382. <https://doi.org/10.1002/dmrr.488>

- Skoog, S. M., Bharucha, A. E. (2004). Dietary Fructose and Gastrointestinal Symptoms: A Review. *The American Journal of Gastroenterology*, 99(10), 2046-2050. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1572-0241.2004.40266.x>
- Sonnenburg, J., Bäckhed, F. (2016). Diet–microbiota interactions as moderators of human metabolism. *Nature* 535, 56–64. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature18846>
- Spiller, R., Garsed, K. (2009). Postinfectious Irritable Bowel Syndrome. *Gastroenterology*, 136(6), 1979-1988. <https://doi.org/10.1053/j.gastro.2009.02.074>
- Staudacher, H. M., Lomer, M. C. E., Anderson, J. L., Barrett, J. S., Muir, J. G., Irving, P. M., Whelan, K. (2012). Fermentable Carbohydrate Restriction Reduces Luminal Bifidobacteria and Gastrointestinal Symptoms in Patients with Irritable Bowel Syndrome. *The Journal of Nutrition*, 142(8), 1510–1518. <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.112.159285>
- Staudacher, H. M., Whelan, K. (2016). Altered gastrointestinal microbiota in irritable bowel syndrome and its modification by diet: probiotics, prebiotics and the low FODMAP diet. *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, 75(03), 306–318. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0029665116000021>
- Staudacher, H., Irving, P., Lomer, M. (2014). Mechanisms and efficacy of dietary FODMAP restriction in IBS. *Nature Reviews Gastroenterology Hepatology*, 11, 256–266. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrgastro.2013.259>
- Steggerda, F. R., Richards, E. A., Rackis, J. J. (1966). Effects of Various Soybean Products on Flatulence in the Adult Man. *Experimental Biology and Medicine*, 121(4), 1235-1239. <https://doi.org/10.3181/00379727-121-31014>
- Symons, P., Jones, M. P., Kellow, J. E. (1992). Symptom Provocation in Irritable Bowel Syndrome Effects of Differing Doses of Fructose-Sorbitol. *Scandinavian Journal of Gastroenterology*, 27(11), 940-944. <https://doi.org/10.3109/00365529209000167>
- Tanaka, L. Y. A., de Oliveira, A. J. B., Gonçalves, J. E., Cipriani, T. R., de Souza, L. M., Marques, M. C. A., Iacomini, M. (2010). An arabinogalactan with anti-ulcer protective effects isolated from *Cereus peruvianus*. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 82(3), 714-721. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2010.05.043>
- Tanisho, S., Ishiwata, Y. (1994). Continuous hydrogen production from molasses by the bacterium *Enterobacter aerogenes*. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 19(10), 807–812. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0360-3199\(94\)90197-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0360-3199(94)90197-X)
- Tanisho, S., Suganuma, T. (1999). Feasibility of hydrogen production from seaweeds by fermentation; Kaiso wo kishitsu ni riyoshita hakoho ni yoru suiso seisan no kanosei ni tsuite. *Suiso Enerugi Shisutemu. Journal of the Hydrogen Energy Systems Society of Japan*, 24(1), 19-24. <https://www.osti.gov/etdweb/biblio/20012351>
- Tilg, H., Kaser, A. (2011). Gut microbiome, obesity, and metabolic dysfunction. *The Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 121(6), 2126-2132. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI58109>
- Tojo, R., Suárez, A., Clemente, M. G., de los Reyes-Gavilán, C. G., Margolles, A., Gueimonde, M., Ruas-Madiedo, P. (2014). Intestinal microbiota in health and disease: role of bifidobacteria in gut homeostasis. *World journal of gastroenterology*, 20(41), 15163–15176. <https://doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v20.i41.15163>
- Tuck, C. J., Muir, J. G., Barret, J. S., Gibson, P. R. (2014). Fermentable oligosaccharides, disaccharides, monosaccharides and polyols: role in irritable bowel syndrome. *Gastroenterology and Hepatology*, 8(7), 819-834. <https://doi.org/10.1586/17474124.2014.917956>
- Turnbaugh, P. J., Gordon, J. I. (2009). The core gut microbiome, energy balance and obesity. *The Journal of Physiology*, 587(17), 4153–4158. <https://doi.org/10.1113/jphysiol.2009.174136>
- Turnbaugh, P. J., Quince, C., Faith, J. J., McHardy, A. C., Yatsunenkov, T., Niazi, F., Gordon, J. I. (2010). Organismal, genetic, and transcriptional variation in the deeply sequenced gut microbiomes of identical twins. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 107(16), 7503–7508. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1002355107>
- Turner, S. R., Love, R. M., Lyons, K. M. (2004). An *in-vitro* investigation of the antibacterial effect of nisin in root canals and canal wall radicular dentine. *International Endodontic Journal*, 37(10), 664-671. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2591.2004.00846.x>
- Van Loo, J., Coussemont, P., De Leenheer, L., Hoebregs, H., Smits, G. (1995). On the presence of Inulin and Oligofructose as natural ingredients in the western diet. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 35(6), 525–552. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10408399509527714>
- Ventura, E. E., Davis, J. N., Goran, M. I. (2012). Sugar Content of Popular Sweetened Beverages Based on Objective Laboratory Analysis: Focus on Fructose Content. *The Obesity Society*, 19(4), 868-874. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2010.255>
- Vernia, P., Marcheggiano, A., Caprilli, R., Frieri, G., Corrao, G., Valpiani, D., Di Paolo, M. C., Paoluzi, P., Torsoli, A. (1995). Short-chain fatty acid topical treatment in distal ulcerative colitis. *Alimentary Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 9(3), 309-313. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2036.1995.tb00386.x>
- Viuda-Martos, M., Ruiz-Navajas, Y., Fernández-López, J., Pérez-Álvarez, J. A. (2008). Functional Properties of Honey, Propolis, and Royal Jelly. *Journal of Food Science*, 73(9), 117-124. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2008.00966.x>
- Wampach, L., Heintz-Buschart, A., Hogan, A., Muller, E. E. L., Narayanasamy, S., Laczny, C. C., Hugerth, L. W., Bindl, L., Bottu, J., Andersson, A. F., Beaufort, C., Wilmes, P. (2017). Colonization and Succession within the human gut microbiome by Archea, Bacteria, and microeukaryotes during the first year of life. *Food Microbiology*, 8. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2017.00738>
- Wang, H., Shi, S., Bao, B., Li, X., Wang, S. (2015). Structure characterization of an arabinogalactan from green tea and its anti-diabetic effect. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 124, 98–108. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2015.01.070>
- Wang, Y., Guo, Q., Goff, H. D., LaPointe, G. (2019). Oligosaccharides: Structure, Function and Application. *Encyclopedia of Food Chemistry*, 1, 202-207. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-100596-5.21585-0>
- Wolf, P. G., Biswas, A., Morales, S. E., Greening, C., Gaskins, H. R. (2016). H₂ metabolism is widespread and diverse among human colonic microbes. *Gut microbes*, 7(3), 235-245. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19490976.2016.1182288>
- Wong, J. M. W., de Souza, R., Kendall, C. W. C., Emam, A., Jenkins, D. J. A. (2006). Colonic Health: Fermentation and Short Chain Fatty Acids. *Journal of Clinical Gastroenterology*, 40(3), 235-243. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00004836.200603000-00015>
- Wright, G., Higgin, J. J., Raines, R. T., Steenbergen, Ch., Murphy, E. (2003). Activation of the Prolyl Hydroxylase Oxyge-sensor Results in Induction of GLUT1, Heme Oxygenase-1, and Nitric-oxide Synthase Proteins and Confers Protection from Metabolic Inhibition to Cardiomyocytes. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 278(22), 20235-20239. <http://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M301391200>
- Xiong, L., Wang, Y., Gong, X. (2017). Prevalence of lactose intolerance in patients with diarrhea-predominant irritable bowel syndrome: data from a tertiary center in southern China. *Journal of Health, Population and Nutrition*, 36(1), 38. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41043-017-0113-1>
- Yang, J., Liang, L., Li, J., Zhang, K.-Q. (2013). Nematicidal enzymes from microorganisms and their applications. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 97(16), 7081–7095. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00253-013-5045-0>
- Yapo, B. M. (2011). Rhamnogalacturonan-I: A Structurally Puzzling and Functionally Versatile Polysaccharide from Plant Cell Walls and Mucilages. *Polymer Reviews*, 51(4), 391–413. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15583724.2011.615962>
- Yin, J., Yang, G., Wang, S., Chen, Y. (2006). Purification and determination of stachyose in Chinese artichoke (*Stachys Sieboldii* Miq.) by high-performance liquid chromatography with evaporative light scattering detection. *Talanta*, 70(1), 208–212. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.talanta.2006.03.027>
- Yracheta, J. S., Lanaspá, M. A., Le, M., Abdelmalak, M. F., Alfonso, J., Sánchez-Lozada, L. G., Johnson, R. J. (2015). Diabetes and Kidney Disease in American Indians: Potential Role of Sugar-Sweetened Beverages. *Mayo Clinic Proceedings*, 90(6), 813-823. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mayocp.2015.03.018>
- Zheng, X., Chu, H., Cong, Y., Deng, Y., Long, Y., Zhu, Y., Pohl, D., Fried, M., Dal, N., Fox, M. (2015). Self-reported lactose intolerance in clinic patients with functional gastrointestinal symptoms: prevalence, risk factors, and impact on food choices. *Neurogastroenterology & Motility*, 27(8), 1138-1146. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nmo.12602>
- Zvanych, R., Lukenda, N., Kim, J., Li, X., Petrof, E., Khan, W. (2014). Small molecule immunomodulins from cultures of the human microbiome member *Lactobacillus plantarum*. *The Journal of Antibiotics*, 67, 85–88. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ja.2013.126>
- Zykwinska, A., Boiffard, M. H., Kontkanen, H., Buchert, J., Thibault, J. F., Bonnin, E. (2008). Extraction of Green Labeled Pectins and Pectic Oligosaccharides from Plant Byproducts. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 56(19), 8926–8935. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf801705a>