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Recent update on lactic acid bacteria producing riboflavin and folates: Application for food fortification and treatment of intestinal inflammation

Uses of vitamin-producing LAB

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9 Summary

10 Lactic acid bacteria (LAB), widely used as starter cultures for the fermentation of a large
11 variety of food, can improve the safety, shelf life, nutritional value and overall quality of
12 the fermented products. In this regard, the selection of strains delivering health-promoting
13 compounds is now the main objective of many researchers. Although most LAB are
14 auxotrophic for several vitamins, it is known that certain strains have the capability to
15 synthesize B-group vitamins. This is an important property since humans cannot
16 synthesize most vitamins, and these could be obtained by consuming LAB fermented
17 foods. This review discusses the use of LAB as alternative to fortification by the chemical
18 synthesis to increase riboflavin and folates concentrations in food. Moreover, it provides
19 an overview of the recent applications of vitamin-producing LAB with anti-
20 inflammatory/antioxidant activities against gastrointestinal tract inflammation. This review
21 shows the potential uses of riboflavin and folates producing LAB for the biofortification of
22 food, as therapeutics against intestinal pathologies and to complement anti-
23 inflammatory/anti-neoplastic treatments.

24
25 **Keywords:** lactic acid bacteria, riboflavin, folates, intestinal inflammation

26 Introduction

27 Lactic acid bacteria (LAB) encompass a heterogeneous group of microorganisms having
28 as a common metabolic property, the production of lactic acid as the majority end-product
29 from the fermentation of carbohydrates (Hatti-Kaul *et al.* 2018; Takahashi *et al.* 2019).

30 LAB are found in a large variety of nutrient-rich environments where carbohydrates and
31 proteins are abundant (Vivek *et al.* 2019). LAB are Gram (+), non-sporulating, catalase
32 negative, acid-tolerant, facultative anaerobic organisms. Except for a few species, LAB
33 members are nonpathogenic organisms with a reputed Generally Recognized As Safe
34 (GRAS) status. Many species are used for the manufacture and preservation of
35 fermented feed and foods from raw agricultural materials in which they are either present
36 as contaminants or deliberately added as starter cultures. Enzymatic activities of these
37 microorganisms contribute to the final organoleptic, rheological and nutritional properties
38 of fermented products (dos Santos Cruxen *et al.* 2019).

39 Some LAB strains have been shown to possess health-promoting functions such as
40 immunomodulation, improvement of intestinal integrity, pathogens resistance, prevention
41 of lactose intolerance, anticarcinogenic effects, reversal of depression and anxiety
42 symptoms, anti-obesity and anti-diabetic activities and reduction of serum cholesterol
43 levels (de Melo Pereira *et al.* 2018). Due to their safety and beneficial effects on health, in
44 addition to their biotechnological potential (Capozzi *et al.* 2012), many strains of LAB can
45 be considered probiotics which are defined as "live microorganisms that when
46 administered in adequate amounts, confer a health benefit to the host" (WHO 2002).

47 In addition to their intrinsic properties, certain strains of LAB have the capability of
48 producing /releasing and/or increasing specific beneficial compounds in foods. While LAB
49 are usually auxotrophic for several vitamins, it has been reported that certain strains have
50 the ability to synthesize B group vitamins (riboflavin, folates, thiamine and cobalamin)
51 (LeBlanc *et al.* 2011).

52 Vitamins are organic compounds necessary for many physiological functions essential for
53 life. Unlike other nutrients, vitamins neither fulfill structural functions nor are they an
54 energy source; they act as enzymatic cofactors, participate in oxide-reduction metabolic
55 reactions or act as hormones (Combs Jr, 2012). Certain vitamins, such as folates have
56 even been considered functional food constituents due to their biological functions (Iyer
57 and Tomar 2009). Although vitamins are found in a wide variety of foods, unbalanced

58 diets are an important cause of deficiencies, present in all parts of the world (LeBlanc *et*
59 *al.* 2011). For this reason, vitamin-producing microorganisms could be used to produce
60 foods with high concentrations of natural forms of vitamins and avoid undesirable side
61 effects associated to chemical vitamins normally used for food fortification (FAO/WHO,
62 2005). In addition, bio-fortified foods represent a less expensive alternative than
63 fortification and could help consumers meet their daily recommended intakes (LeBlanc *et*
64 *al.* 2013). In addition, consumers currently tend to choose foods that not only provide
65 nutrients but also have additional properties that benefit their health (Burgess *et al.*
66 2004). In this sense, LAB that produce vitamins have the advantage of increasing the
67 nutritional value of a food (LeBlanc *et al.* 2013). The chemical synthesis of a vitamin,
68 such as riboflavin, can be replaced by fermentation processes, showing economic and
69 environmental advantages, in addition that microbial synthesis uses of renewable
70 sources, is more ecological and achieve high quality end products (Thakur *et al.* 2016b,
71 Zhu *et al.* 2020).

72 This review will discuss the use of LAB as a natural alternative to increase riboflavin and
73 folates concentrations in foods and provide an overview of the recent applications of LAB
74 as a source of vitamins with anti-inflammatory/antioxidant activities against
75 gastrointestinal tract (GIT) inflammation.

76 77 **Methods**

78 The authors have searched relevant literature in the electronic databases of the U.S.
79 National Library of Medicine (Pubmed) and Google Scholar, by the use of the following
80 search terms: lactic acid bacteria, riboflavin, folates, vitamins, probiotic, intestinal
81 inflammation, inflammatory bowel disease and intestinal mucositis. No double-reviewed
82 studies, issued in a language other than English and published before 1990 were
83 excluded. Works published between 1990 and 2020, and one official web-site were
84 extracted as fulfilling the inclusion criteria.

85 86 ***Riboflavin-producing LAB***

87 Riboflavin (vitamin B2) is the precursor of flavin mononucleotide (FMN) and flavin
88 adenine dinucleotide (FAD), two coenzymes that play a central role in metabolism by
89 acting as hydrogen carriers in biological redox reactions (Fraaije and Mattevi 2000).

90 Riboflavin is a key nutrient for all aerobic forms of life, essential for normal cellular
91 functions and growth (Aili *et al.* 2013). Although riboflavin is found in a variety of foods,
92 suboptimal intakes can lead to ariboflavinosis. Riboflavin deficiency is associated with
93 eye-related problems, cardiac risk, preeclampsia, anemia, liver and skin damage and
94 changes in cerebral glucose metabolism (Levit *et al.* 2018a).

95 In addition to the fortification of foods with chemically synthesized vitamin, the use of
96 riboflavin-producing microorganisms, as was explained above, has gained importance in
97 recent years as a biofortification strategy. This is due to its economic advantages
98 compared to the chemical synthesis process added to the "nature-friendly" characteristics
99 of the fermentation process (Thakur *et al.* 2016b; Revuelta *et al.* 2017).

100 Riboflavin is synthesized in seven enzymatic stages from guanosine triphosphate (GTP)
101 and d-ribulose-5-phosphate precursors (Bacher *et al.* 2000) (Figure 1), and the synthesis
102 is strain dependent.

103 Some LAB strains are able to synthesize riboflavin and their use during fermentation
104 improves the nutritional value of foods (Table 1). Furthermore, riboflavin concentrations
105 can sometimes vary in certain products due to processing technologies and the action of
106 the microorganisms utilized during food processing. In this regard, it was shown that the
107 addition of supplements, such as dietary fibers from fruit sources can increase riboflavin
108 production (Albuquerque *et al.* 2020).

109 Riboflavin-producing LAB have been isolated from different ecological niches and
110 showed the ability to increase the concentrations of this vitamin in food matrices such as
111 milk, soymilk, whey and pseudocereals (Ewe *et al.* 2010; Juarez del Valle *et al.* 2014;
112 Thakur *et al.* 2016a, Rollán *et al.* 2019). Recently, it was reported the riboflavin
113 fortification of different kefir-like cereal-based beverages using selected LAB strains
114 (Yépez *et al.* 2019).

115 Furthermore some bacteria are capable of riboflavin overproduction (Burgess *et al.*
116 2009). This trait can be achieved either by metabolic engineering (Jiménez *et al.* 2005) or
117 by exposure to purine analogues and/or the toxic riboflavin analogue roseoflavin (Perkins
118 *et al.* 1991). Particularly, in *Lactococcus (L.) lactis* both of these approaches have been
119 used with success (Burgess *et al.* 2004). Recent studies have reported on the selection
120 of riboflavin-overproducing strains for potential food applications, for example, the
121 manufacture of vitamin B2-enriched dairy products (Burgess *et al.* 2006), which were

122 found to improve the riboflavin status of deficient rats (LeBlanc *et al.* 2006). These strains
123 are acceptable by the consumer because they are not considered genetically modified.
124 Natural strains overproducing riboflavin obtained by exposure to roseoflavin, a riboflavin
125 toxic analog, were used to obtain bioenriched bread, pasta and soymilk (Capozzi *et al.*
126 2011; Juarez del Valle *et al.* 2014; Russo *et al.* 2014). This strategy allows increasing the
127 nutritional value of these foods, for example in the case of soymilk. This matrix is rich in
128 proteins and contains high levels of unsaturated fatty acids; the fermentation with
129 riboflavin-overproducing strains was used to obtain a bio-enriched food with improved
130 nutritional, organoleptic and sensorial properties (Juarez del Valle *et al.* 2014).
131 Furthermore the bioavailability of riboflavin produced by some LAB has been
132 demonstrated in different animal models (LeBlanc *et al.* 2005; Juarez del Valle *et al.*
133 2016; Carrizo *et al.* 2020). On the other hand, metabolic engineering was used to
134 construct recombinant strains and also to improve the riboflavin production (Koizumi *et al.*
135 2000; Burgess *et al.* 2004; Jayashree *et al.* 2011). Genetically modified *L. lactis* has been
136 shown to be efficient in reverting riboflavin deficiencies in rodents (LeBlanc *et al.* 2005a;
137 LeBlanc *et al.* 2005b). In these studies, it was shown that the administration of
138 spontaneous and engineered *L. lactis* that overproduces riboflavin and a milk fermented
139 by these strains was able to eliminate most physiological manifestations of
140 ariboflavinosis, such as stunted growth, elevated erythrocyte glutathione reductase
141 activation coefficient values and hepatomegaly in depleted rats. These findings were
142 similar to those obtained with commercial riboflavin whereas a non riboflavin-producing
143 strain did not show beneficial results (LeBlanc *et al.* 2005). Furthermore, the
144 administration of soymilk bio-enriched with riboflavin produced by *Lactobacillus (Lact.)*
145 *plantarum* CRL 2130 was able to revert riboflavin deficiency in depleted mice as
146 evidenced by normal growth, riboflavin status and morphology of the small intestines.
147 The same tendency it was observed in a prevention model where mice did not show
148 signs of riboflavin deficiency (Juarez del Valle *et al.* 2016). Another study showed that the
149 administration of pasta made with quinoa sourdough and fermented by *Lact. plantarum*
150 strains that produce both vitamins B2 and B9 was able to increase the levels of these
151 vitamins in mice blood compared to depleted animals, similar to the results obtained in
152 animals that received pasta supplemented with commercial vitamins (Carrizo *et al.* 2020).
153 These results showed that vitamins produced by LAB have a bioavailability similar to

154 synthetic vitamins and it could be useful to prevent vitamins deficiency. In another study,
155 as many as 60 lactobacilli were screened for the ability of riboflavin overproduction via
156 screening of the genes responsible for riboflavin synthesis by a PCR-based method
157 (Thakur *et al.* 2016c). Among the lactobacilli screened, the presence of genes
158 responsible for riboflavin synthesis was strain-specific across different species. The
159 isolates possessing incomplete *rib* structural genes could not survive in the riboflavin-
160 deficient medium. On contrary, the isolates KTLF1 (*Lact. fermentum*) KTLP13 (*Lact.*
161 *plantarum*) and KTLF3 (*Lact. fermentum*) were not only able to grow well on riboflavin-
162 deficient medium agar but also supported the growth of the riboflavin auxotroph strain
163 (Liu *et al.* 2020).

164

165 **Folates-producing LAB**

166 The generic term folates or vitamin B9/B11 is used to describe folic acid and related
167 compounds that exhibit the same biological activity. This vitamin is involved in numerous
168 vital biological reactions, including DNA synthesis and methylation, and participates in the
169 synthesis of some amino acids, nucleotides and other vitamins (Nazki *et al.* 2014).

170 Folates possess antioxidant properties that protect the genome by inhibiting free radical
171 attack of DNA, in addition to their role in DNA repair and replication mechanisms (Duthie
172 *et al.* 2002). Folates are key nutrients for human health and for ensuring normal
173 development, growth, and the maintenance of optimal health (Bailey *et al.* 2015). Folates
174 deficiency causes severe abnormalities in one-carbon metabolism, which is considered
175 risk factor for some chronic diseases and developmental disorders, including autism
176 (Lyll *et al.* 2014), Alzheimer's disease (Hinterberger and Fischer 2013), senile dementia
177 (mental deterioration in old age) (Araújo *et al.* 2015), and neural tube defects (NTDs)
178 (Copp *et al.* 2013).

179 Although folates are present in various foods, the intake of this vitamin through the diet
180 may be insufficient to meet daily requirements. To address this problem, foods fortified by
181 addition of folic acid have been developed. Unfortunately, food fortification with synthetic
182 molecules may present some downsides. It has been shown that the absorption of high
183 amounts of folic acid can mask the symptoms of vitamin B12 deficiency, which may result
184 in the progression of neuropathy to an irreversible point (FAO/WHO, 2005). Furthermore,
185 it was reported that synthetic folic acid can cause alterations of the dihydrofolate

186 reductase enzymatic activity in the liver (Bailey and Ayling 2009). Therefore several
187 studies seem to raise doubts about the safe use of the chemically synthesized folic acid in
188 foods (Saubade *et al.* 2017), addressing the fortification through biological approaches
189 (Rad *et al.* 2016). In this sense the use of natural folates could represent an alternative to
190 synthetic folic acid to avoid the adverse effects associated with its consumption
191 (Scaglione and Panzavolta 2014). To this regard, some species of LAB are able to
192 accumulate folates (see biosynthetic pathway in Figure 2) in different substrate after a
193 fermentation process (Table 2). However, the ability of microorganisms to produce folates
194 is strain-specific and influenced by the growth conditions (Laiño *et al.* 2013; Kariluoto *et*
195 *al.* 2014; Laiño *et al.* 2015; Saubade *et al.* 2017). In this sense, a previous review
196 discussed that folates production can also be affected by symbiosis between starter
197 cultures, the presence of prebiotics, the external pH of the growth media (food),
198 incubation temperature and the presence of the chemical precursors guanosine
199 triphosphate (GTP) and 4-aminobenzoate, a product of shikimate biosynthesis pathway
200 (Savoy de Giori and LeBlanc, 2018).

201 It was previously believed that *Streptococcus (Strep.) thermophilus* are folates producers
202 while *Lact. delbrueckii* subsp. *bulgaricus* utilize folates for their growth. However, Laiño *et*
203 *al.* (2012) found that some strains of *Lact. delbrueckii* subsp. *bulgaricus*, isolated from
204 artisanal Argentinean fermented dairy products, were able to grow in a folates-free
205 culture medium and to produce high folates levels. It was demonstrated that *Lact.*
206 *bulgaricus* CRL 871 was able to synthesize both intra- and extra-cellular folates. This
207 strain inoculated with *Strep. thermophilus* (CRL 803 and CRL 415) produced a yogurt
208 naturally bio-enriched in folates with a four-fold increase in vitamin content compared to
209 unfermented milk and a two-fold increase compared to conventional yogurts (Laiño *et al.*
210 2013). It has been also demonstrated that the addition of *Lact. amylovorus* CRL 887 to
211 this yogurt starter culture was efficient in producing a yogurt with even higher folates
212 concentrations (six-fold increase, 260 µg l⁻¹) making this new bio-enriched product a very
213 interesting alternative to fortification with chemical folic acid (Laiño *et al.* 2014). A recent
214 study combined five *Strep. thermophilus* strains with *Lact. plantarum* 16cv, and the
215 combination that produced the highest levels of folates was used for preparation of
216 bioenriched fermented milk under controlled conditions (pH 6.0, 42 °C, 70 rpm, 24 h).
217 The bioavailability and intestinal benefits of this milk fermented by folates-producing LAB

218 were demonstrated in a depletion/repletion mice model (Cucick *et al.* 2020). Some
219 folates-producing strains were also able to increase the concentration of this vitamin in
220 goat's milk (Da Silva *et al.* 2016). Several studies showed that LAB strains, isolated from
221 cereals and seeds, were also able to overproduce folates leading to a bioenriched end
222 product (Salvucci *et al.* 2016; Carrizo *et al.* 2016). Furthermore, *Lact. plantarum* CRL
223 2106 and CRL 2107 synthesized the highest concentration of folates during amaranth
224 sourdough demonstrating the potential of LAB to improve the nutritional and functional
225 values of pseudocereal-derived foods (Carrizo *et al.* 2017). Fermentation process of oats
226 and soybean with LAB to improve folates content was also successful (Kariluoto *et al.*
227 2014; Carrizo *et al.* 2020). *Lact. rhamnosus* LGG and *Strep. thermophilus* TH-4, used as
228 culture starter for fermented soymilk production, were able to produce folates. Also, the
229 addition of passion fruit by-product and fructooligosaccharides stimulated the folates
230 production by these strains during fermentation process (Albuquerque *et al.* 2017).
231 Moreover, LAB strains isolated from a traditional Andean fermented potato product,
232 tocosh, were selected to ferment tubers-oca, papalisa and potato supplemented with
233 amaranth and chia flour and a product with high folates content and nutritional value was
234 obtained (Mosso *et al.* 2018).

235 It was also demonstrated that folates production may be influenced by nutritional and
236 environmental conditions. In this regard, different parameters such as the fermentation
237 period, temperature, concentration of precursors such as para-aminobenzoic acid (*p*ABA)
238 and glutamate, prebiotics and reducing agents influenced the production and
239 bioavailability of this vitamin in skim milk and fruit juices (Gangadharan and Nampoothiri
240 2011). It was also demonstrated that passion fruit by-products and fructooligosaccharides
241 increased the folates production in soymilk by selected bacterial strains (Albuquerque *et*
242 *al.* 2017). Recently, an increase in folates content has been observed by Thompson *et al.*
243 (2020) in a cauliflower-white beans mixture after fermentation with *Lact. plantarum*
244 strains. The genes for folates biosynthesis have been identified in this species
245 (Kleerebezem *et al.* 2003). In the last year, it was reported that all of the genes encoding
246 enzymes involved in the folates biosynthesis pathway in *Lact. plantarum* strain 4_3
247 genome sequences were expressed and detected in transcriptomic data throughout the
248 culture period in folic acid casei medium (FACM) and fermented soybean (Liu *et al.*
249 2019). All of the genes involved in the four *de novo* biosynthesis pathways (DHPPP,

250 chorismate, *p*ABA, and THF–polyglutamate biosynthesis) were expressed at different
251 levels in both media. This strain grew slower in fermented soybean than in FACM, which
252 was confirmed by the final pH values of the media and the transcriptomic patterns.
253 However, the high folates production in fermented soybean could be explained by the
254 high expression of the *de novo* biosynthesis genes in the *para*-aminobenzoate pathway.
255 Moreover, it is known that hyperhomocysteinemia is associated to folates deficiency.
256 Recently a study performed in hyperhomocysteinemic mice, showed that
257 supplementation with folates-enriched fermented milk (folates-producing strains: *Strep.*
258 *thermophilus* 563 and *Lact. delbrueckii* subsp. *lactis* 1021 used as starter) restored
259 homocysteine and S-adenosyl-methionine levels in folates deficient mice (Zinno *et al.*
260 2020).

261 262 **Vitamin production by LAB to counteract intestinal inflammation**

263 This review summarizes the studies concerning the effect of vitamin-producing LAB
264 against intestinal inflammation in pathologies such as inflammatory bowel diseases and
265 intestinal mucositis.

266 Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD) are a group of chronic disorders characterized by
267 inflammation of the GIT. Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC), the two main
268 manifestations of IBD, share common characteristics but exhibit physiopathological
269 differences (Yangyang and Rodriguez 2017). Successful management of IBD includes
270 pharmacological, surgical and nutritional therapies. Some studies have shown that a
271 large percentage of patients with IBD have nutritional deficiencies, mainly of vitamins and
272 minerals (iron, vitamin B12, vitamin D, vitamin K, folates, selenium, zinc, vitamin B6 and
273 vitamin B1) (Montgomery *et al.* 2015; Weisshof and Chermesh 2015). For this reason,
274 patients with IBD under treatment frequently receive nutritional supplementation to
275 correct deficiencies of macro and micronutrients and receive extra calories and proteins
276 to maintain a positive nitrogen balance and thus promote mucosal healing (Martínez
277 Gómez *et al.* 2016).

278 Another intestinal inflammatory condition is mucositis, a severe inflammation of the
279 gastrointestinal mucosa that occurs, among other causes, as a result of cancer
280 treatments. In general terms, antineoplastic therapies damage the mucous membranes
281 leading to structural and functional changes compromising the absorption of fluids and

282 nutrients and the intestinal barrier. This can cause malnutrition and bacterial translocation
283 contributing to systemic inflammation that is associated with the morbidity and/or
284 mortality of cancer patients (Vanhoecke *et al.* 2015). Because of malnutrition, many
285 patients undergoing chemotherapy treatment often take nutritional supplements and
286 receive mega vitamin therapy (Branda *et al.* 2004).

287 LAB have shown that can counteract inflammatory processes in the GIT through different
288 mechanisms, this was demonstrated using animals models of IBD and intestinal
289 mucositis (IM) and in clinical trials, being the intestinal microbiota and host's immune
290 response modulation the most evaluated (dos Santos *et al.* 2016; Ferreira dos Santos *et*
291 *al.* 2016; Tang *et al.* 2017; Yokota *et al.* 2018; Choi *et al.* 2019).

292 LAB can also produce different vitamins, and some vitamins' supplementation have
293 proven to be effective against intestinal inflammation; so vitamin production has also
294 been associated to the anti-inflammatory properties of certain LAB, in addition to the
295 nutrition value of these strains, against intestinal pathologies (Table 3).

296 Recent studies about the effect of vitamin-producing LAB on intestinal inflammation are
297 summarized below. A riboflavin-overproducing strain, *Lact. plantarum* CRL 2130,
298 attenuated the chemical induced intestinal inflammation in mice, in a similar way as the
299 commercial riboflavin, which was used as a control. These benefits were obtained when
300 the LAB was administered in a fermented aqueous soy extract or as a bacterial
301 suspension. The administration of the unfermented aqueous soy extract or fermented
302 with a non riboflavin-producing strain did not show the anti-inflammatory effect,
303 demonstrating that the benefit of LAB against colitis was due to the riboflavin production
304 (Levit *et al.* 2017a; Levit *et al.* 2017b). It should be noted that the non-riboflavin-producing
305 strain used in this study is not an isogenic strain of *Lact. plantarum* CRL 2130, so it is
306 possible that both are genetically and phenotypically different; and these differences
307 could affect the response in the host, regardless of riboflavin production. A strain of *Lact.*
308 *plantarum* CRL 2130 in which riboflavin biosynthesis genes are non-functional should be
309 used in future studies to avoid the possible effect of the genetic background.

310 In addition, *in vitro* assays demonstrated that this strain exerted a protective mechanism
311 against oxidative stress (Levit *et al.* 2018b). The anti-oxidant/anti-inflammatory effects of
312 *Lact. plantarum* CRL 2130 were also evaluated in a mouse model of intestinal mucositis.
313 Oral administration of this riboflavin-producing strain was effective in attenuating

314 damages associated with 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) induced IM (Levit *et al.* 2018b). In this
315 study, authors used *Lact. plantarum* CRL 725 as control. This is the bacterial strain from
316 which *Lact. plantarum* CRL 2130 was derived, after exposing it to roseoflavin, so the only
317 difference between both strains is the amount of riboflavin produced. The lack of effect
318 reported from mice administered *Lact. plantarum* CRL 725 showed that riboflavin was
319 associated to the anti-inflammatory effect attributed to *Lact. plantarum* CRL 2130.
320 Regarding folates, a folates-producing strain, *Strep. thermophilus* CRL 808, was also
321 effective in preventing IM induced by 5-FU in mice. Administration of this folates-
322 producing strain showed an anti-inflammatory effect similar to commercial folic acid that
323 was used as a control. (Levit *et al.* 2018c).

324 In order to improve the individual properties of these two vitamin-producing strains, they
325 were mixed with *Strep. thermophilus* CRL 807, a LAB with immunomodulatory properties
326 (del Carmen *et al.* 2014). This bacterial blend was studied as a complement to the
327 conventional treatment against chronic inflammation. The bacterial mixture was
328 administered to mice with chronic colitis during the remission period together or not with
329 the anti-inflammatory drug mesalazine. The anti-inflammatory effect of the bacterial blend
330 was by attenuating the symptoms after inducing the recurrence of inflammation. It is
331 important to highlight that the selected LAB mixture did not affect the primary treatment in
332 mice that received the anti-inflammatory drug; however, prevented undesirable side
333 effects induced by the chronic treatment with mesalazine (Levit *et al.* 2019).

334 All these reports demonstrate that the use of vitamin-producing LAB could represent a
335 potential tool to reduce inflammation in patients with intestinal pathologies and to provide
336 patients with essential nutrients that are normally deficient in these diseases; however,
337 future studies are need in order to elucidate the exact mechanism by which these
338 vitamin-producing strains exert their benefits.

339

340 **Conclusions**

341 This review summarized the use of LAB that produce riboflavin or folates for food
342 biofortification as a natural and more economical alternative than fortification by chemical
343 synthesis. This would enable the food industry to produce foods with high concentrations
344 of these bioactive compounds by selecting appropriate microorganisms and culture
345 conditions.

346 Taking into account that consumers demand foods that in addition to providing nutrients
347 have some health benefits, this review provided an overview of recent studies where
348 vitamin-producing LAB were shown to counteract inflammatory processes in the GIT and
349 to complement anti-inflammatory/anti-neoplastic treatments (Figure 3). From these
350 studies, vitamin-producing LAB have the potential to improve the effects and/or to reduce
351 the unwanted side effects associated with conventional treatments as well as represent a
352 source of vitamins for these patients that usually have nutritional deficiencies. In this
353 sense, vitamin-producing LAB could be used as adjunct treatments and eliminate the
354 need of using synthetic forms of vitamins (such as folic acid) that have been shown to
355 cause unwanted side effects.

356

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361

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363

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714 **Figure legends**

715 **Figure 1:** Riboflavin biosynthesis pathway in lactic acid bacteria

716

717 **Figure 2:** Folates biosynthesis pathway in lactic acid bacteria

718

719 **Figure 3:** Vitamin-producing lactic acid bacteria can be used in the industry for food
720 biofortification (riboflavin and folates) and as probiotics to counteract inflammatory
721 processes in the gastrointestinal tract (inflammatory bowel diseases and intestinal
722 mucositis)

723

724

Table 1 Examples of LAB strains with ability of increasing the riboflavin concentration in different food matrices

Strains	Matrices	Vitamin concentration	References
<i>Lact. acidophilus</i> ATCC 314	soymilk	6.57±0.36 mg l ⁻¹	Ewe et al. 2010
<i>Lact. acidophilus</i> FTDC 8833	soymilk	2.43±0.05 mg l ⁻¹	Ewe et al. 2010
<i>Lact. acidophilus</i> FTDC 8633	soymilk	1.13±0.02 mg l ⁻¹	Ewe et al. 2010
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 725	soymilk	700.00±20.00 ng ml ⁻¹	Juarez del Valle et al. 2014
<i>Lact. platarum</i> CRL 725 (G)	soymilk	1860.00±20.00 ng ml ⁻¹	Juarez del Valle et al. 2014
<i>Lact. fermentum</i> KTLF1	milk	1.50 mg l ⁻¹	Thakur et al. 2016a
<i>Lact. muocase</i> KTLF5	whey	0.83 mg l ⁻¹	Thakur et al. 2016a
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> M5MA1-B2	maize kefir-like	0.50 mg l ⁻¹	Yepéz et al. 2019
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> M5MA1-B2	oat kefir-like	1.50 mg l ⁻¹	Yepéz et al.2019
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> UNIFGPL104 and UNIFGPL209	bread	6.81 µg g ⁻¹	Capozzi et al. 2011
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> UNIFGPL104 and UNIFGPL209	pasta	4.01 µg g ⁻¹	Capozzi et al. 2011

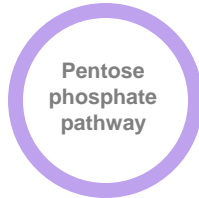
Table 2 Examples of LAB strains with ability of increasing the folates concentration in different food matrices

Strains	Matrices	Vitamin concentration	References
<i>Strep. thermophilus</i> CSCC2000	skim milk	40.00-50.00 ng g ⁻¹	Crittenden et al. 2003
<i>Strep. thermophilus</i> CRL 803	nonfat milk	60.00-80.00 µg l ⁻¹	Laiño et al. 2012
<i>Strep. thermophilus</i> 908	nonfat milk	76.61±3.29 ng ml ⁻¹	Meucci et al. 2018
<i>Strep. thermophilus</i> ABM5097	oat flour	20.00-29.00 ng g ⁻¹	Kariluoto et al. 2014
<i>Strep. gallolyticus</i> subsp. <i>macedonicus</i> CRL 415	nonfat milk	60.00-80.00 µg l ⁻¹	Laiño et al. 2012
<i>Lact. delbrueckii</i> subsp. <i>bulgaricus</i> CRL 863	nonfat milk	60.00-80.00 µg l ⁻¹	Laiño et al. 2012
<i>Strep. thermophilus</i> CRL 803, <i>Lact. delbrueckii</i> subsp. <i>bulgaricus</i> CRL 871, and <i>Strep. gallolyticus</i> subsp. <i>macedonicus</i> CRL 415	yogurt	180.00±10.00 µg l ⁻¹	Laiño et al. 2013
<i>Strep. thermophilus</i> CRL 803, <i>Lact. delbrueckii</i> subsp. <i>bulgaricus</i> CRL 871, <i>Lact. amylovorus</i> CRL 887, and <i>Strep. gallolyticus</i> subsp. <i>macedonicus</i> CRL 415	yogurt	263.00±2.40 µg l ⁻¹	Laiño et al. 2014
<i>Strep. thermophilus</i> TH-4 and <i>Lact. rhamnosus</i> LGG	soy milk with passion fruit and fructooligosaccharides	1927.00±49.00 ng ml ⁻¹	Albuquerque et al. 2017
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> P2R3FA	wheat-based fermented bread	43.10±3.20 µg l ⁻¹	Tamene et al. 2019
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL2106 and <i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 2107	amaranth sourdough	138.00±7.50 ng ml ⁻¹	Carrizo et al. 2017
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 2107 and <i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 1964	quinoa sourdough	1.60±0.20 µg g ⁻¹	Carrizo et al. 2020
<i>Lact. sakei</i> CRL 2210	tuber puree with amaranth and chia flour	1.90 µg g ⁻¹	Mosso et al. 2018
<i>Lact. sakei</i> CRL 2209 and <i>Lact. sakei</i> CRL 2210	andean tuber purees	730.00-1484.00 ng g ⁻¹	Mosso et al. 2018
<i>L. lactis</i> subsp. <i>lactis</i> FP368	goat milk	313.00±81.00 µg l ⁻¹	Da Silva et al. 2016
<i>L. lactis</i> subsp. <i>cremoris</i>	cucumber juice	60.00±1.90 ng ml ⁻¹	Gangadharan et al. 2011
<i>L. lactis</i> subsp. <i>cremoris</i>	watermelon juice	26.00±1.60 ng ml ⁻¹	Gangadharan et al. 2011

Table 3 Examples of beneficial effects of folates and riboflavin-producing LAB strains

Strains / product	Vitamin produced	Beneficial effect	Host /model	References
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 2130	riboflavin	Normalization of the intestinal morphology (villus size)	Riboflavin-depleted mice	Juarez del Valle et al. 2016
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 2130 / fermented soy milk	riboflavin	Reduction of IBD features (weight loss, intestinal inflammation, microbial translocation to liver and cytokines in intestinal fluids)	2,4,6-trinitrobenzene sulphonic acid (TNBS)-induced mice	Levit et al. 2017b
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 2130, <i>Lact. paracasei</i> CRL 76, <i>Lact. bulgaricus</i> CRL 871 or <i>Strep. thermophilus</i> CRL 803	riboflavin	Reduction of IBD features (intestinal inflammation, microbial translocation to liver, inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOSs) enzyme producing cells, pro-inflammatory cytokines in intestinal fluids)	TNBS- induced mice	Levit et al. 2017a
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 2130	riboflavin	Reduction of intestinal mucositis (IM) features (diarrhea, alterations in the architecture of the small intestine, pro-inflammatory cytokines in serum and in intestinal fluids)	5-Fluorouracil (5-FU)-induced mice	Levit et al. 2018b
<i>Lact. reuteri</i> ATCC PTA 6475	folates	Reduction of IBD features (macroscopic intestinal inflammation, weight loss, serum amyloid protein A)	TNBS- induced mice	Thomas et al. 2016
<i>Strep. thermophilus</i> CRL 808	folates	Reduction of IM features (diarrhea, alterations in the architecture of the small intestine, pro-inflammatory cytokines in serum)	5-FU- induced mice	Levit et al. 2018a

<i>Strep. thermophilus</i> 34v and <i>Lact. plantarum</i> 16cv / fermented milk	folates	Improve of hematological parameters and villi height/crypt depth ratio in the small intestine	Folates-depleted mice	Cucick et al. 2020
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 2130, <i>Strep. thermophilus</i> CRL 808 and <i>Strep. thermophilus</i> CRL 807	riboflavin-folates	Reduction of chronic IBD features (intestinal inflammation, and pro- inflammatory cytokines in intestinal fluids) and prevention of side effects of chronic anti- inflammatory therapy	TNBS- induced mice	Levit et al. 2019
<i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 2107 and <i>Lact. plantarum</i> CRL 1964 / fermented pasta	riboflavin-folates	Normalization of the intestinal morphology (number and length of villi)	Folates and riboflavin-depleted mice	Carrizo et al. 2020



Guanosine triphosphate (GTP)



2,5-Diamino-6-ribosilamino-4(3H)-pyrimidone-5'-phosphate



5-Amino-6-ribosilamino-2,4(1H, 3H)pyrimidinedione 5'-phosphate



5-Amino-6-ribitylamino-2,4(1H, 3H)pyrimidinedione 5'-phosphate



5-Amino-6-ribitylamino-2,4(1H, 3H)pyrimidinedione

Ribulose-5-phosphate



3,4-Dihydroxy-2-butanone-4-phosphate



6,7-Dimethyl-8-ribityllumazine



Riboflavin

- 1 cyclohydrolase II
- 2 desaminase
- 3 reductase
- 4 3,4-dihydroxy-2-butanone-4-phosphate synthase
- 5 lumazine synthase
- 6 riboflavin synthase

Purine metabolism

Guanosine triphosphate (GTP)

1 ↓

Formamidopyrimidine nucleoside triphosphate

1 ↓

2,5-Diaminopyrimidine nucleoside triphosphate

1 ↓

2, 5-Diamino-6-(5'-triphosphoryl-3', 4'-trihydroxy-2'-oxopentyl)-amino- 4-oxopyrimidine

1 ↓

2-Amino-4-hydroxy-6-(erythro-1,2,3-trihydroxypropyl)-dihydropyrimidine triphosphate

3 →

Neopterin

Glycoaldehyde

4 →

2-Amino-4-hydroxy-6-hydroxymethyl-7,8-dihydropteridine

5 →

2-Amino-4-hydroxy-6-hydroxymethyl-7,8-Dihydropteridine-P2

2 ↓

Dihydroneopterin phosphate

↑ 2

Dihydroneopterin

Phenylalanine biosynthesis

Corismate

6 ↓

4-Amino-4-deoxychorismate

7 ↓

4-Aminobenzoate

8 ↓

7,8-Dihydropteroate

Glutamate

9 ↓

7,8-Dihydrofolate (DHF)

10 ↗

Folate

10 ↘

5,6,7,8-Tetrahydrofolate (THF)

9 ↓

THF-L-Glutamate

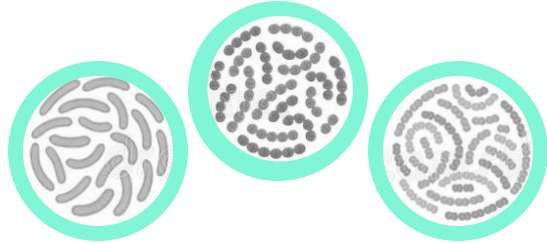
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THF-Polyglutamate

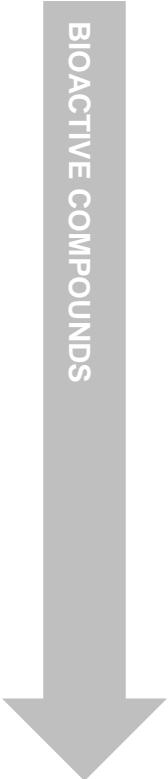
11 ↗

One carbon pool of folates

- 1 GTP cyclohydrolase I (EC 3.5.4.16)
- 2 phosphatase (EC 3.6.1.-)
- 3 alkaline phosphatase (EC 3.1.3.1)
- 4 dihydroneopterin aldolase (EC 4.1.2.25)
- 5 dihydropteridinhydroxymethyl pirophosphokinase (EC 2.7.6.3)
- 6 aminodeoxychorismate synthetase (EC 2.6.1.85)
- 7 aminodeoxychorismate lyase (EC 4.1.3.38)
- 8 dihydropteroate synthetase (EC 2.5.1.15)
- 9 dihydrofolate synthetase (EC 6.3.2.12)
- 10 dihydrofolatreductase (EC 1.5.1.3)
- 11 γ-glutamyl hydrolase (EC 3.4.19.9)



LACTIC ACID BACTERIA



FOOD INDUSTRY

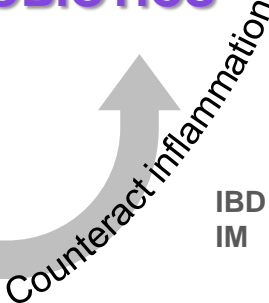
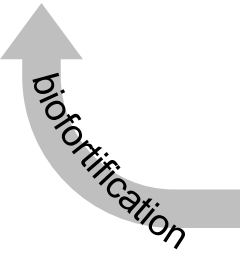


PROBIOTICS



B- GROUP VITAMINS

riboflavin
folates



IBD
IM