RESEARCH PAPER

Antioxidant and Probiotic Properties of Lactobacilli and Bifidobacteria of Human Origins

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Abstract Oxidative stress can cause various diseases including inflammation, neurological disorders, cancer, diabetes, and cardiovascular diseases. Due to the current search for natural antioxidants, probiotics have received increasing scientific interest and are facing a growing industrial demand. Although various strains of lactobacilli and bifidobacteria are currently used in numerous health food supplements, their antioxidative activities have been relatively poorly identified. Therefore, in this work, we evaluated the in vitro effect of antioxidative activities (through assays of 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) and 2,2′-azinobis-(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonate) (ABTS) radical scavenging) and probiotic functional properties (cell viability in a simulated gastrointestinal tract, enzyme production, carbohydrate availability, and safety assessments) of Lactobacillus spp. and Bifidobacterium spp. isolated from human origins. From the nitric oxide (NO) assay screening, four strains (Bifidobacterium animalis subsp. lactis MG741, B. breve MG729, L. reuteri MG505, and L. rhamnosus MG316) were selected based on the yield amount of ferment productivity ($> \times 10^{10}$ CFU/g) and showed high antioxidant activities ranging from 22.2% to 38.2% in DPPH free radical scavenging, and 50.0% to 93.6% in ABTS radical scavenging. Regarding their functional properties as probiotics, these four strains were resistant to simulated gastric (pH 3 and 4) and intestinal fluids (pH 7 and 8), and showed potential for the promotion of health based on hemolysis, auto-aggregation, antibiotic susceptibility, enzyme production, and biochemical profiles. Altogether, our results showed that the selected probiotic strains may

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be good candidates as food ingredients to mitigate oxidative stress-related symptoms.

Keywords: nitric oxide, antioxidant, probiotics, Lactobacillus, Bifidobacterium

1. Introduction

Oxidative stress is caused by excessive reactive oxygen species (ROS) and can cause damage to lipids and proteins, as well as DNA [1]. Although most living organisms can deal with oxidative stress through intrinsic antioxidant defense mechanisms such as enzymatic and non-enzymatic processes or repair systems, the imbalance between ROS and these antioxidant systems could lead to cell and tissue damage [2,3]. An increase in oxidative stress is closely related to various diseases including hypertension [4,5], atherosclerosis [6], hyperlipidemia [7], diabetes [8], cancer [9], rheumatoid arthritis [10], Parkinson's disease [11], and aging [12].

Antioxidants are widely used as health food supplements for promoting good health and preventing diseases. Recently, an interest in natural sources or alternative medicines from bio-resources has grown considering the lack of safety of artificial compounds [13,14]. Along with the increasing scientific interest in natural antioxidants, numerous studies have reported antioxidative activities of various natural sources such as food, plants, mushrooms, and microbes [15-19]. In this context, probiotics have received increasing interest by scientists in the search for naturally sourced antioxidants [20-29]. Probiotics may modulate the host's defenses against oxidative stress through antioxidant activities, the regulation of signaling pathways, metal ion chelation, and modulation of intestinal microflora [21]. According to

the *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies, probiotic bacteria show strainspecific differences in antioxidative properties [30,31]. Probiotic strains were shown to limit excessive amounts of reactive radicals in vivo by promoting intestinal saccharolytic metabolism and to reduce doxorubicin-induced oxidative stress [30]. Although various strains of lactobacilli and bifidobacteria have been used in health foods, their antioxidative activities and associated mechanisms have been relatively understudied [2].

Microorganisms show strong relationships with their typical habitat and origin. Strains isolated from the human body have a beneficial effect of species-specific interactions and could be considered for use in humans if they have a beneficial effect on their host [32]. Probiotics of human origin colonize the human gut and adhere to intestinal cells, where they confer resistance to acid and bile, produce antimicrobial substances, and protect against cariogenic and pathogenic bacteria. In addition, probiotic microorganisms isolated from humans are safe for human consumption and have clinically validated health effects [33].

This preliminary study aimed to investigate the *in vitro* antioxidant and probiotic properties of lactobacilli and bifidobacteria isolated from human origins to determine whether these microorganisms could be applied as a functional food.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Probiotic strains and culture conditions

A total of 112 probiotic strains were supplied by MEDIOGEN Co., Ltd. (Jecheon, Korea) [34]. The strains were isolated from various origins such as human feces, breast milk, and fermented food. The strains were identified as 16 species belonging to the Lactobacillus, Lactococcus, Bifidobacterium, and Streptococcus genera (Table 1). Cultures were used from frozen stocks stored at −80°C in MRS broth (de Man, Rogosa and Sharpe, Difco, USA) containing 15–25% glycerol. All strains (inoculum 2%, v/v) were cultured and maintained in MRS broth at 37°C, except for Streptococcus thermophilus, which was able to grow at 42°C.

2.2. NO production screening

RAW 264.7 macrophage cells were purchased from the Korean Cell Line Bank (KCLB). These cells were grown at 37° C and 5% CO₂ in fully humidified air and sub-cultured every 3 days to a confluence of 95%. For routine subcultures, Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Gibco, USA) was supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco), penicillin (100 units/mL), and streptomycin (100 μg/mL).

NO formation was detected by the accumulation of

Table 1. Inhibitory activity of isolated lactic acid bacteria on nitric oxide (NO) production by lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced RAW 264.7 macrophages

Table 1. Continued

means \pm SD (n = 3).

B., Bifidobacterium; E., Enterococcus; L., Lactobacillus; Lac., Lactococcus; S., Streptococcus

nitrite, an indicator of NO synthesis, in culture medium via the Griess reaction [35]. RAW 264.7 cells were plated at 2×10^5 cells/well in a 96-well plate and stimulated with 1 μg/mL lipopolysaccharide (LPS), followed by the addition of the isolated bacterial strains $(10^7 \text{ cells/well})$. After 24 h of incubation, NO concentration was determined by measuring the amount of nitrite in the cell culture supernatant using the Griess reagent. An absorbance measurement at 550 nm was obtained using the Epoch 2 microplate reader (BioTek, USA). Fresh culture medium was used as the blank control for all experiments.

According to the results of the NO assay, the probiotic strains showed a wide range of NO production inhibition rates (Table 1). This result indicated that bacterial strains would have different functional characteristics, even if they belong to the same species. Among the 112 probiotic strains, there were no significant correlations between the efficacy of NO production inhibition and the fermentation production yield ($P > 0.05$; data not shown). Thus, we simply selected four strains from human origins according to the best yield amount of fermentation product ($> \times 10^{10}$) CFU/g) for application in the food industry: Lactobacillus reuteri MG505, L. rhamnosus MG316, Bifidobacterium animalis subsp. lactis MG741, and Bifidobacterium breve MG729. The other candidates, which showed a high NO production inhibition rate but low production yield, require culture optimization to improve their value as a biological resource.

2.3. Antioxidant activity of lactic acid bacteria

2.3.1. 2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) free radical scavenging activity

The DPPH radical scavenging assay was performed according to Blois [36] with slight modifications. Briefly, the selected strains adjusted to an OD_{600} of approximately 1.0 with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4) were added to 0.05 mM DPPH solution $(1:2 \text{ v/v})$ and mixed well. Then, the mixtures were left to stand at room temperature for 30 min in the dark. The control reaction was prepared using ethanol added to the DPPH solution. The absorbance of each mixture was quantified at 517 nm. Each sample assay was performed in triplicate. The results were compared with those of ascorbic acid (10 and 100 μ g/mL), and the antioxidant activity was calculated using the following formula:

Scavensing effect
$$
(\%) = (A_c-A_s)/A_c \times 100
$$
 (1)

where A_s is the absorbance of the test sample, and A_c is the absorbance of the control at 517 nm.

2.3.2. 2,2′-Azinobis-(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonate) (ABTS) radical scavenging activity

Scavenging of the ABTS radical was measured according to Re et al. [37]. Briefly, the radical cation was prepared by mixing 7 mM of ABTS with 2.45 mM potassium persulfate (1:1 v/v) and leaving the mixture at room temperature in the dark for 24 h. After incubation, the ABTS solution was further diluted with distilled water (DW) until the initial absorbance value of 0.7 ± 0.005 at 734 nm was reached. Then, 50 μL of the selected strain samples and 100 μL of ABTS solution were mixed and incubated for 10 min at room temperature. The absorbance of the mixture was measured at 734 nm. Each sample assay was performed in triplicate, and the scavenging rate was calculated as follows:

Scavenging rate
$$
(\%) = (A_c - A_s)/A_c \times 100
$$
 (2)

where A_s is the absorbance of the test sample, and A_c is the absorbance of the control at 734 nm.

2.4. Probiotic properties of strains

2.4.1. Strain survival under conditions simulating the human gastrointestinal tract

To simulate human gastric juice, low pH conditions were induced according to the methods described by Maragkoudakis et al. [38]. Briefly, the cells were harvested using centrifugation (3,470 \times g for 5 min at 4 $\rm{°C}$) after culture for 18 h and were washed twice with PBS (pH 7.0). The washed cells (10^8 CFU/mL) were resuspended in the simulated gastrointestinal solutions.

To test for resistance to pepsin and pancreatin, bacterial cells were suspended in simulated gastric fluid (SGF) and simulated intestinal fluid (SIF), respectively. SGF was prepared using MRS broth (pH 3 and 4; adjusted with 1 N HCl) with 3 g/L of pepsin (Sigma-Aldrich, USA). SIF was prepared by supplementing sterilized PBS (pH 7 and 8; adjusted with 1 N NaOH) with pancreatin (Sigma-Aldrich) to a final concentration of 1 g/L. Cells were resuspended in SGF and SIF, and incubated at 37°C for 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4 h. The resistance of the selected strains in every condition was evaluated by cell viability using cell counts on MRS agar plates to obtain numbers of colony-forming units per mL (CFU/mL).

2.4.2. Assessment of enzyme production and biochemical profile characterization

To measure enzyme activities and carbohydrate availability, the four selected strains were grown on an MRS agar plate for 18 h at 37 or 42°C. Each of the strains was assayed using API ZYM and API 50 CHL kits with cell colonies according to the manufacturer's instructions (bioMérieux, France). Enzyme activity and degrees of substrate hydrolysis were determined according to the intensity of coloration.

2.4.3. Auto-aggregation

Auto-aggregation assays were performed according to Kos et al. [39] with slight modifications. Bacterial cells were grown in MRS medium for 18 h at 37°C. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 3,470×g for 5 min, washed twice with PBS (pH 7.0), and resuspended in PBS to an optical density at 600 nm OD_{600} of 1.0. Cell suspensions (4 mL) were mixed by vortexing for 10 s and incubated at room temperature for 5 h. The OD_{600} of 0.1 mL of the upper suspension was measured with a microplate reader. Auto-aggregation (%) was calculated using the following formula:

$$
Auto-aggregation (%) = [1-(A5/A0)] \times 100
$$
 (3)

where A_5 is the absorbance after 5 h of incubation and A_0 is the absorbance at time zero.

2.4.4. Antibiotic susceptibility

Antibiotic susceptibilities were determined according to the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) guidelines [40]. The selected four strains were assayed for antibiotic susceptibility by the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) test strip method. A total of nine antimicrobial agents were tested against bacterial strains. The tested agents were ampicillin, chloramphenicol, clindamycin, erythromycin, gentamicin, kanamycin, streptomycin, tetracycline, and vancomycin. Bacteria were grown for 18 h at 37°C in MRS medium. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at $3,470 \times g$ for 5 min, washed twice with PBS (pH 7.0), and resuspended in PBS to a McFarland turbidity of 0.5. The cell suspensions were inoculated on Brain Heart Infusion agar (BHI, Difco) using swabs. Plates were allowed to dry for 10 to 15 min, and MIC Test Strips (Liofilchem, Italy) were placed on the agar surface according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Plates were incubated at 37°C, and results were read 20 h after inoculation.

2.4.5. Hemolytic activity

For evaluating hemolytic activity, the selected strains were grown in MRS for 18 h at 37°C, streaked onto Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA, Difco) medium with 5% sheep blood, and incubated at 37°C for 48 h. Thereafter, the plates were observed for the formation of a clean zone (β-hemolysis), a greenish zone (α-hemolysis), or no such zone (γ-hemolysis) around the colonies.

2.5. Statistical analysis

All experiments were performed in triplicate, and the results are represented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Statistical analysis was performed to evaluate statistical differences using R (version 3.6.2; The R Foundation for Statistical Computing). Significant differences between the results were evaluated using Tukey's honestly significant difference test.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Inhibition of LPS-induced NO production by the potential probiotic strains

NO assay is a competitive assay in which the radical scavenger competes with molecular oxygen to react with the NO radical. In this study, NO assay was used to test selected candidate probiotic strains for anti-inflammatory activity in macrophages (RAW 264.7). As shown in Fig. 1, LPS markedly induced NO production $(46.3 \pm 1.0 \mu M)$ compared to the control (4.1 \pm 0.2 μM). After treatment (\times 10⁷ cells/well), all strains significantly reduced the levels of NO production ($P < 0.001$). Among the tested strains, B.

LPS $(1 \mu g/mL)$

Fig. 1. Inhibition of nitric oxide production in lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced RAW 264.7 cells treated with selected strains $(10⁷$ cells/well). Significant correlations between LPS and cell treatment are shown by asterisks ($p < 0.001$).

animalis subsp. lactis MG741 showed the highest NO inhibition (7.1 μ M) in LPS-induced cells, followed by B. breve MG729 (12.4 μM), L. reuteri MG505 (13.6 μM), and L. rhamnosus MG316 (42.8 μM): these strains showed inhibition rates of 92.8%, 80.4%, 77.5%, and 74.8%, respectively (Fig. 1; Table 2).

NO is a reactive nitrogen species that promotes biosynthesis of inflammatory mediators to deepen inflammation. According to Squadrito and Pryor, an important mechanism by which superoxide dismutase mimetics attenuate inflammation is reducing peroxynitrite formation by simply removing superoxide anion before reaction with NO [41]. That is, NO itself does not have cytotoxicity but produces ONOO- , which has strong cytotoxicity, when it reacts with superoxide. Thus, our selected strains may produce potent antioxidants that inhibit NO production. Although the molecular mechanisms of the strains were not elucidated in this study, a strong reduction of NO production indicated that our probiotic strains may affect ROS scavenging in an oxidative stress condition. However, the metabolites related to the inhibition of NO production should be further investigated in an in vivo study.

Table 2. Results of the antioxidant and nitric oxide (NO) assays using the selected probiotic strains in this study

Antioxidant assays	DPPH radical scavenging $(\%)$	ABTS radical scavenging $(\%)$	Inhibition of NO production $(\%)$
Ascorbic acid $(100 \mu g/mL)$	38.2 ± 1.4	93.3 ± 0.1	۰
Ascorbic acid $(10 \mu g/mL)$	27.9 ± 2.3	76.7 ± 0.02	$\overline{}$
B. breve MG729	35.4 ± 0.8	93.6 ± 0.2	80.4 ± 2.4
B. animalis subsp. lactis MG741	38.2 ± 1.6	86.4 ± 0.2	92.8 ± 2.4
L. reuteri MG505	33.5 ± 0.8	55.9 ± 0.1	77.5 ± 1.4
L. rhamnosus MG316	22.2 ± 2.4	50.0 ± 0.6	74.8 ± 7.3

NO production (µM)

Results are presented as the means ± standard deviation (SD) from three independent experiments. B., Bifidobacterium; L., Lactobacillus.

3.2. In vitro antioxidant properties of the selected strains The antioxidant activities of the four selected strains, which showed high inhibition of NO production, were evaluated by DPPH and ABTS radical scavenging activities. The DPPH free radical scavenging activities of the probiotic strains ranged from 22.2% to 38.2% (Table 2). B. animalis subsp. *lactis* MG741 showed the highest radical scavenging activity (38.2%) and similar antioxidant activity when compared with an ascorbic acid (100 μ g/mL) control (38.2%). followed by B. breve MG729 (35.4%), L. reuteri MG505 (33.5%), and L. rhamnosus MG316 (22.2%). Regarding ABTS radical scavenging activities, results of the strains ranged from 50.0% to 93.6% (Table 2). B. breve MG729 showed the highest radical scavenging activity (93.6%), followed by *B. animalis* subsp. breve MG741 (86.4%), *L.* reuteri MG505 (55.9%), and L. rhamnosus MG316 (50.0%).

All four strains showed high antioxidant activities, indicating that the selected probiotic strains possess the ability to reduce ROS. The trends of antioxidant activity and NO production inhibition rate coincided. Our results corresponded with other studies regarding antioxidant activities of lactobacilli and bifidobacteria [30,42-45]. Li et al. [42] reported the antioxidant activities of Lactobacillus plantarum strains derived from food, and Afify et al. [43] reported the ABTS radical scavenging effects of L. reuteri and L. breve. Lin and Yen [44] evaluated the inhibitory effect of Bifidobacterium longum, and Kim et al. [45] isolated antioxidative Bifidobacterium species from infant fecal samples. It is known that probiotics produce bioactive compounds with beneficial properties, including antioxidant activity, and may act through specific molecular mechanisms responsible for defense against oxidative stress according to strain specificity [30,46].

3.3. Probiotic properties of selected strains

A main property of probiotics as functional supplements is their tolerance to digestive stress [47,48]. The probiotic bacteria must survive and settle at the epithelium of the intestinal tract. Thus, potential probiotic strains must be

screened for functionality and technical specifications in addition to going through a safety assessment.

3.3.1. Survival of the strains under simulated gastrointestinal conditions

The probiotic strains were exposed to simulated gastric fluid conditions (pH 3 and 4) and intestinal conditions (pH 7 and 8). Both simulated gastrointestinal conditions resulted in similar cell viabilities, ranging from 7.8 to 8.0 log CFU/mL for L. rhamnosus MG316 and L. reuteri MG505 (Table 3). Bifidobacterium strains, on the other hand, relatively proliferated in intestinal conditions (7.2–8.3 log CFU/mL) in comparison to gastric conditions (5.6–6.4 log CFU/mL).

All four strains generally endured and survived the gastrointestinal conditions (pH 3, 4, 7, and 8). These results indicated that the selected strains are likely to survive in both the stomach and intestinal juices. *Lactobacillus* spp. were relatively more resistant to gastric conditions than Bifidobacterium spp. The acid resistance of lactic acid bacteria has been reported to be related to changes in its glycolytic flux, its ability to control intracellular pH, and a cell membrane ATPase. This suggests that the high resistances of L. reuteri MG505 and L. rhamnosus MG316 to gastric acid were due to intracellular pH regulation and the action of an ATPase [49]. For *Bifidobacterium* spp., a microencapsulation technology would be a good solution to enhance its survivability in gastric conditions [50].

3.3.2. Auto-aggregation

Auto-aggregation is an important probiotic property in the prevention of surface colonization by pathogens [51], and lactic acid bacteria generally have a variable range of autoaggregation capacities [52]. The adherence abilities of the four probiotic strains were measured by their autoaggregation in 5 h. All strains showed percentages of autoaggregation above 30%, and *L. reuteri* MG505 presented the highest auto-aggregation (64.4%) compared to the other strains $(> 30\%,$ Fig. 2). In the present study, our strains showed relatively high auto-aggregation values [53-55].

Table 3. Survival ability of the selected bacterial strains under simulated gastrointestinal conditions

Strains		Simulated gastric fluid	Simulated intestinal fluid ²		
	pH_3	pH 4	pH ₇	pH_8	
B. breve MG729	5.6 ± 0.15	6.1 ± 0.02	8.3 ± 0.05	8.3 ± 0.09	
B. animalis subsp. lactis MG741	6.1 ± 0.06	6.4 ± 0.15	7.2 ± 0.10	7.4 ± 0.03	
L. rhamnosus MG316	7.9 ± 0.01	8.0 ± 0.05	8.0 ± 0.03	8.0 ± 0.02	
L. reuteri MG505	7.8 ± 0.02	7.8 ± 0.06	7.8 ± 0.02	7.8 ± 0.01	

The results are expressed as means ± standard deviation (SD); each data point represents the average of three repeated measurements from three independently replicated experiments. Simulated gastric tolerance results are shown as viable counts (log CFU/mL) for each strain at pH 3 and pH 4 after 3 h. ²Simulated intestinal tolerance results are shown as viable counts (log CFU/mL) for each strain at 37° C after 4 h. B., Bifidobacterium; L., Lactobacillus.

Fig. 2. Evaluation of the auto-aggregation of probiotic strains resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.0) after 5 h.

3.3.3. Antibiotic susceptibility

The antibiotic resistance of the four probiotic strains was assessed through an MIC test. Results from all four strains were within the epidemiological cut-off values suggested by EFSA [40]. *L. rhamnosus* MG316 was resistant to kanamycin and chloramphenicol, B. breve MG729 was resistant to tetracycline, and B. animalis subsp. lactis MG741 was resistant to gentamicin and streptomycin. All strains were sensitive to ampicillin, erythromycin, and clindamycin (Table 4).

The use of probiotics with antibiotic resistance has caused concern because these strains could carry antibiotic resistance genes and transmit the same to pathogens through horizontal gene transfer. However, when a probiotic strain is killed by antibiotics ingested for therapeutic purposes, its functionality is decreased. The antibiotic resistance of probiotic microorganisms is thought to be advantageous for survival in the gastrointestinal tract during medical treatment with an antibiotic. In this respect, resistance to antibiotics is also recognized as a very important factor [56]. Therefore, probiotics have a double-edged sword effect; they can be useful for individuals with unbalanced intestinal microflora due to the administration of various antibiotics, but they may also transfer resistance genes to other bacteria [57]. In terms of the potential risk of probiotics, the US FDA evaluated the "safety of probiotic use" with "reasonable certainty" [57].

3.3.4. Hemolytic activity

The four probiotic strains exhibited the γ -hemolysis effect after 48 h of incubation on blood agar plates (data not shown). Hemolysis remains the main virulence factor of pathogenic bacteria, and probiotic strains must be safe, especially within the host body.

3.3.5. Assessment of enzyme production and biochemical profile characterization

The enzymatic activity patterns of the probiotic strains were assessed using an API ZYM system (Table 5). Probiotics must be evaluated for the production of appropriate enzymes in order to avoid the production of potentially toxic substances. The selected strains did not produce lipase, βglucuronidase, N-acetyl-β-glucosaminidase, or α-mannosidase. Among them, β-glucuronidase is a bacterial carcinogenic enzyme that exerts negative effects on the liver [58].

The utilization of carbohydrates, measured with the API 50 CHL system, is summarized in Table 6. None of the selected strains fermented glycerol, erythritol, D-arabinose, D-adonitol, methyl-β D-xylopyranoside, dulcitol, inositol, inulin, xylitol, D-tagatose, D-fucose, L-fucose, D-arabitol, or L-arabitol (Table 6). Probiotics, especially lactic acid bacteria, are able to produce lactic acid using carbohydrates. In this study, the selected strains were able to use the following carbohydrates in common: D-glucose, D-fructose, D-maltose,

Antibiotic susceptibilities determined according to the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) guidelines [40]. The inhibitory zone around the antibiotic strips was measured and determined according to the standard index. S: Susceptibility, a probiotic strain was defined as susceptible when inhibited at a specific antimicrobial concentration equal or inferior to the established cut-off value; R: Resistant, a probiotic strain was defined as resistant when not inhibited by a concentration higher than the established cut-off value. n.r., not required. B., Bifidobacterium; L., Lactobacillus.

Enzyme assayed	B. breve MG729	B. animalis subsp. lactis MG741	L. rhamnosus MG316	L. reuteri MG505
Alkaline phosphatase				
Esterase $(C4)$				
Esterase lipase (C8)				
Leucine arylamidase				
Valine arylamidase				
Crystine arylamidase				
Trypsin				
α -Chymotrypsin				
Acid phosphatase				
Naphtol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase				
α-Galactosidase				
β -Galactosidase				
α -Glucosidase				
β -Glucosidase				
α -Fucosidase				

Table 5. Enzyme activities of selected strains assayed by the API ZYM system

Enzyme activities were classified from 0 (no activity) to $5 \ge 40$ nM of product released) with 10 nM intervals in the API ZYM color reaction chart. All strains showed a negative response to lipase (C14), β-glucuronidase, N-acetyl-β-glucosaminidase, and α-mannosidase. B., Bifidobacterium; L., Lactobacillus.

Table 6. Summary of carbohydrate fermentation profiles of the selected bacterial strains obtained using the API 50 CHL system

Substrate	MG316	MG505	MG729	MG741	Substrate	MG316	MG505	MG729	MG741
L-arabinose	$^{+}$			$\overline{}$	Arbutin	$^{+}$			$^{+}$
D-ribose	$^{+}$	$+$		$^{+}$	Esculin	$^{+}$		$^{+}$	$^{+}$
D-xylose		$+$	$^{+}$	$+$	Salicin	$^{+}$		$^{+}$	$^{+}$
L-xylose				$+$	D-cellobiose	$^{+}$			
D-galactose	$^{+}$			-	D-melibiose	$^{+}$		$^{+}$	
D-mannose	$^{+}$		$^{+}$		D-trehalose	$^{+}$			
L-sorbose			$^{+}$	$^{+}$	D-melezitose	$^{+}$			
L-rhamnose				$^{+}$	D-raffinose		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	
D-mannitol	$^{+}$			$\overline{}$	Starch				
D-sorbitol	$^{+}$			-	Glycogen			$^{+}$	
Methyl- α D-mannoside	$^{+}$			$\overline{}$	Gentiobiose	$+$		$^{+}$	$^{+}$
Methyl- α D-glucoside			$^{+}$	$\overline{}$	D-turanose	$+$		$^{+}$	
N-acetyl-glucosamine	$^{+}$		$^{+}$	$^{+}$	D-lyxose				
Amygdalin	$^{+}$		$^{+}$						

+ indicates the ability of the strains to ferment the substrate, and – indicates the inability of the strains to ferment the substrate.

All strains fermented D-glucose, D-fructose, D-maltose, D-lactose, and D-sucrose, and not glycerol, erythritol, D-arabinose, D-adonitol, methyl-β D-xylopyranoside, dulcitol, inositol, inulin, xylitol, D-tagatose, D-fucose, L-fucose, D-arabitol, and L-arabitol.

MG316, Lactobacillus rhamnosus MG316; MG505, Lactobacillus reuteri MG505; MG729, Bifidobacterium breve MG729; MG741, Bifidobacterium animalis subsp. lactis.

D-lactose, and D-sucrose.

This study was conducted with the aim to select superior probiotic strains with a desired antioxidant activity among 112 strains of probiotic candidates obtained from human origins by evaluating their inhibitory activity on NO production. We selected four probiotic strains (B. animalis subsp. lactis MG741, B. breve MG729, L. reuteri MG505, and L. rhamnosus MG316) that showed high antioxidant activities and demonstrated probiotic functions with high stability and safety in simulated gastrointestinal conditions.

Taken together, our data indicated that these probiotic strains could serve as good resources in the field of probiotic development. Further in vivo study would be required to evaluate the effect and safety.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no potential conflict of interest.

Ethical Statement

Neither ethical approval nor informed consent was required for this study.

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