

## **CHAPTER 24. NEXT-GENERATION PROBIOTICS**

Joana Cristina Barbosa <sup>a\*</sup>, Daniela Machado <sup>a</sup>, Diana Almeida <sup>a</sup>, José Carlos Andrade <sup>b</sup>, Ana Maria Gomes <sup>a</sup>, Ana Cristina Freitas <sup>a†</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Universidade Católica Portuguesa, CBQF - Centro de Biotecnologia e Química Fina – Laboratório Associado, Escola Superior de Biotecnologia, Rua Diogo Botelho 1327, 4169-005 Porto, Portugal

<sup>b</sup> CESPU, Instituto de Investigação e Formação Avançada em Ciências e Tecnologias da Saúde, Rua Central de Gandra, 1317, 4585-116 Gandra PRD, Portugal

\* Corresponding author: [jcbarbosa@ucp.pt](mailto:jcbarbosa@ucp.pt)

### **ABSTRACT**

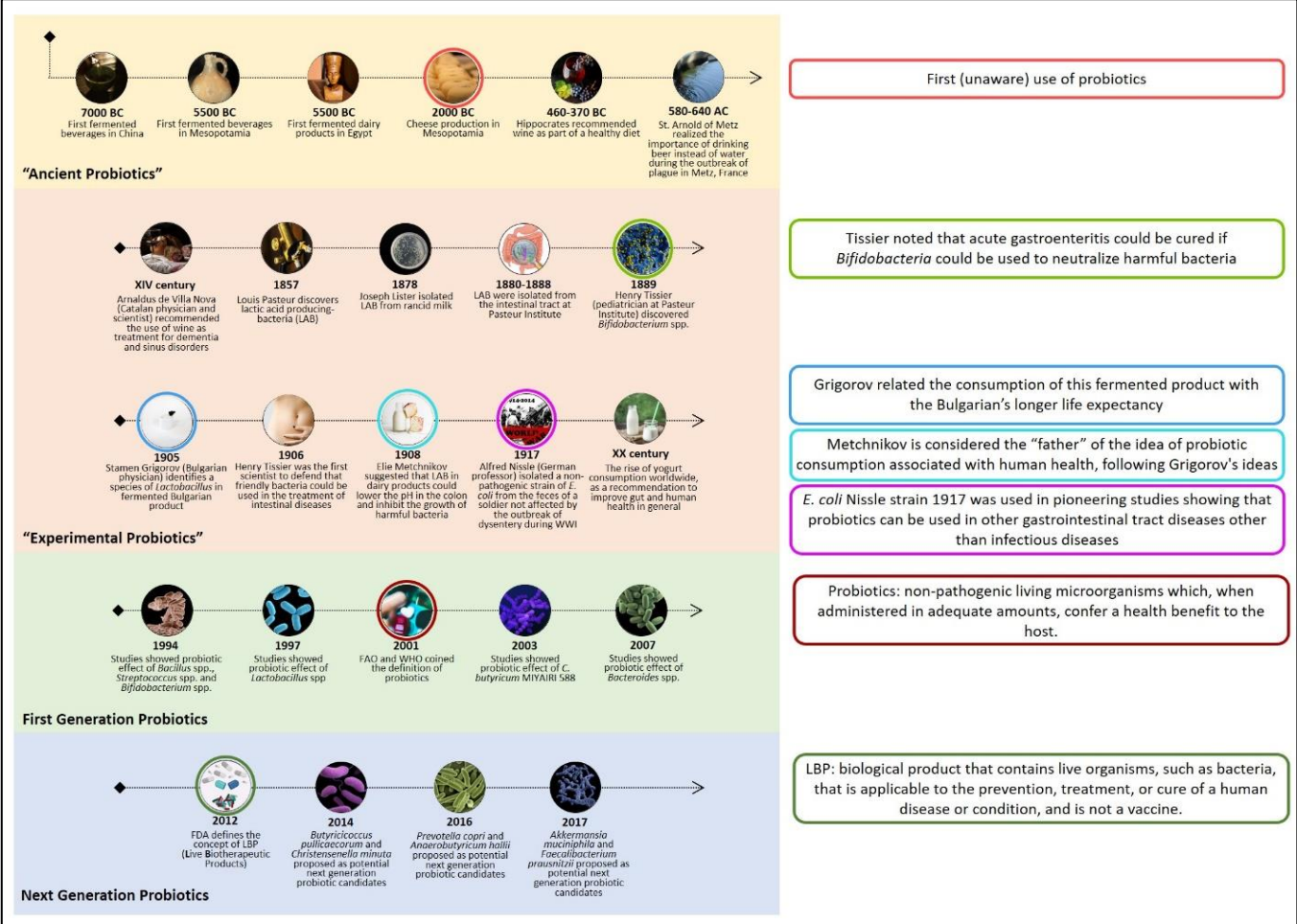
In the last years, the scientific community has recognized that specific microbial strains resident in the intestinal ecosystem play a key role in human health, participating in several functions beneficial to the host. Such microorganisms have been termed as next-generation probiotics and they are presently considered as food/nutraceutical supplements and biotherapeutic products. However, most of the next-generation probiotic candidates are nutritionally demanding and highly sensitive to aerobic conditions, which translates into several technological challenges concerning large-scale production and appeals to the development of suitable delivery systems able to promote viability and functionality of such probiotic strains. In this chapter, we will present an overall perspective of next-generation probiotics candidates in terms of their health beneficial effects, the delivery systems developed and employed to protect them, and related regulation framework and risk assessment targeting relevant criteria for commercialization in food and pharmaceutical markets.

### **KEYWORDS**

Biotherapeutics; Delivery systems; Dysbiosis; Gut microbiota; Novel foods; Probiotics

### **INTRODUCTION**

The consumption of probiotics, although unintentional, has a story as old as human history, dating from the first-ever produced fermented foods and beverages, upon the implementation of agriculture and farming techniques by our ancestors (Gasbarrini et al., 2016; Khan and Malik, 2019; Ozen and Dinleyici, 2015). A timeline of landmarks in probiotics evolution is presented in Figure 1. What started as a food preservation method, to ensure longer storage periods, was later associated with beneficial effects to consumers, both in terms of nutrition and disease prevention and/or treatment (Ozen and Dinleyici, 2015). The modern history of probiotics starts with the works of Pasteur and Metchnikoff: the first identified the microorganisms responsible for fermentation, while the second proposed the pioneering idea of the relationship between diet, gut microbiota, and the general individual health and aging [Figure 1; (Gasbarrini et al., 2016; Ozen and Dinleyici, 2015)].



**Figure 1. Probiotics timeline.** This timeline provides a compilation of milestones that punctuate the history and the story of probiotics; it starts with the first, unaware, consumption of “ancient” probiotics, and continues highlighting the main contributors for the understanding of the probiotics concept and evidence collected for the bacterial strains designated as classical probiotics. More recently, several bacterial strains are being proposed as next-generation probiotics, the focus of this chapter.

Since then, the definition of probiotics was established – “live microorganisms that, when administered in adequate amounts, confer a health benefit on the host” (Hill et al., 2014) – and several bacterial strains have been widely applied in human consumption due to their well-established beneficial effects. These known “classical” probiotics include several strains from the genera *Bacillus*, *Lactobacillus*, and *Bifidobacterium* and are usually associated with fermented foods, mainly dairy products (Dahiya et al., 2019; Gomes et al., 2017; Sornplang and Piyadeatsoontorn, 2016).

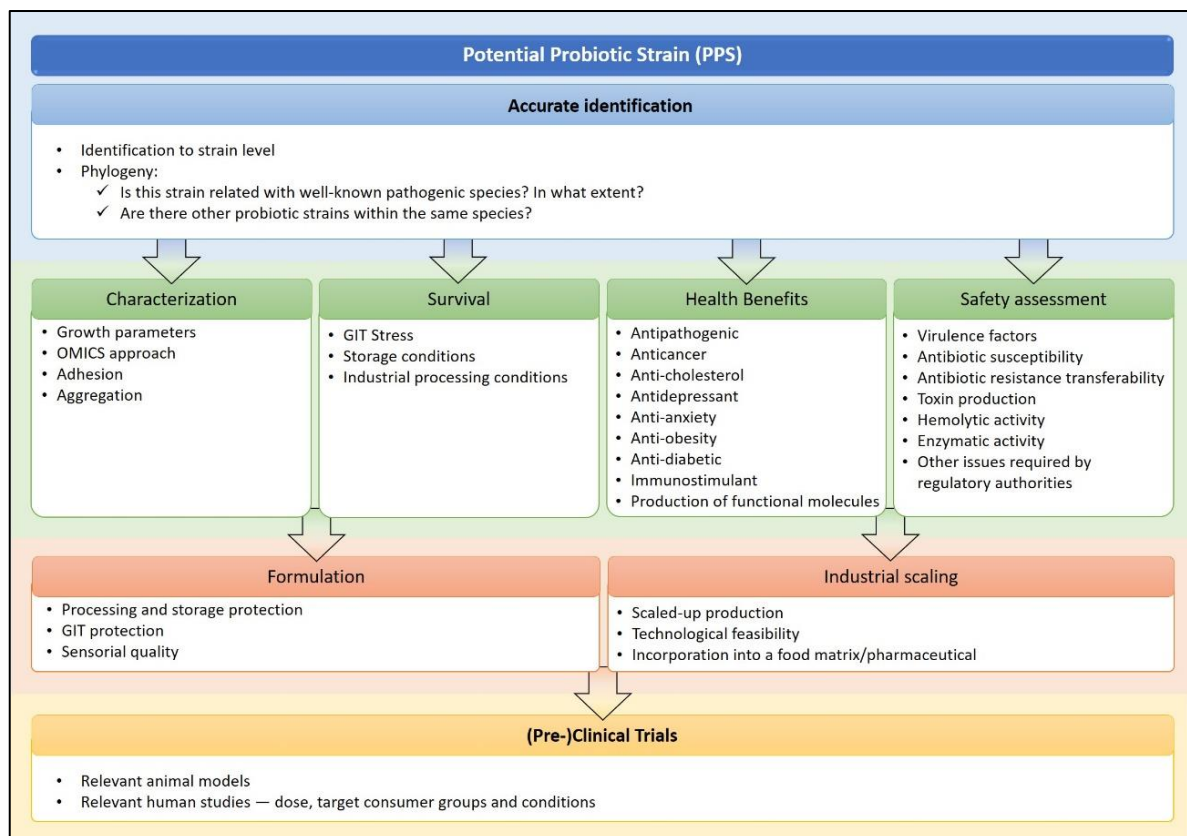
According to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations and the World Health Organization (FAO/WHO), the human gastrointestinal tract (GIT) is presented as the recommended source of probiotics for human consumption (FAO/WHO, 2002; Zielińska et al., 2018). Studies demonstrated that strains isolated from human GIT and isolates originated from food show distinct characteristics, for instance, in terms of adhesion capacity and resistance to GIT passage, as well as in the effectiveness in modulating the hosts’ microbiota (Monteagudo-Mera et al., 2012). Additionally, commensal strains isolated from human GIT are considered safe for human consumption as probiotics (de Melo Pereira et al., 2018; Zielińska et al., 2018). Gut microbiota play a key role in the regulation of the metabolic and inflammatory profiles of the host, contributing to cellular homeostasis and global health. An imbalance in the composition and proportion of gut microbiota strains – dysbiosis – is often associated with several illnesses, such as diabetes, obesity, and immune system disorders (Almeida et al., 2020; Khan and Malik, 2019).

In this context, various commensal microbial genera and species identified among the gut microbiota, that have never been applied before in the food industry, are being proposed as Next-Generation Probiotics (NGP), and are currently under intensive investigation (Andrade et al., 2020; Saarela, 2019). Among the most promising candidates are strains of the species *Akkermansia muciniphila*, *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* (former *Fusobacterium prausnitzii*), *Anaerobutyricum hallii* (formerly *Eubacterium hallii*), as well as *Bacteroides* spp., *Roseburia* spp. and *Clostridium butyricum* (Almeida et al., 2020; Dahiya et al., 2019; Khan and Malik, 2019; Saarela, 2019). These commensal bacteria are associated with a healthy status of the gut microbiota when present in adequate amounts, and have demonstrated promising results in terms of promoting health in model studies. Interestingly, this list of new potential probiotic candidates includes not only Gram-positive bacteria – which are the most commonly used by tradition –, but also Gram-negative bacteria, as is the case of *A. muciniphila*, *E. coli*, and *Bacteroides* spp. (Khan and Malik, 2019). Gram-negative bacteria are usually regarded as potentially harmful, due to the presence of lipopolysaccharides (LPS) anchored on their outer membrane (Sperandeo et al., 2017). Bacterial LPS is a pyrogenic substance that has been

85 associated with several diseases, which include chronic gut inflammation, diabetes, neurological  
86 degeneration, and liver damage (Wassenaar and Zimmermann, 2018). However, human  
87 microbiota, in particular, gut commensals, include several Gram-negative bacteria (Hugon et al.,  
88 2015); in fact, there is increasing evidence that Gram-negative bacteria play an important role  
89 in immune response modulation and seem to have a positive impact when applied in both  
90 animal and preclinical human models (Cani and de Vos, 2017; Dao et al., 2016; Kandasamy et  
91 al., 2017; Ottman et al., 2017).

92 Thus, there is a considerable number of new probiotic candidates among the human  
93 commensals, which are being isolated from the human gut and characterized, envisaging a  
94 possible application in human consumption (Figure 2). Several variables have to be considered  
95 when investigating a strain as a potential probiotic: starting with the accurate taxonomic  
96 identification to the strain level, moving to the characterization of the potential health benefits  
97 to the consumer, and ensuring that the strain does not carry harmful traits; at the end, the  
98 candidate strain must also fulfill all the requirements of the regulatory authorities as well as be  
99 suitable for industrial manipulation (Khan and Malik, 2019; de Melo Pereira et al., 2018). It is  
100 worth mentioning that gut commensal bacteria often have specific requirements in terms of  
101 nutrients, oxygen, and pH, which makes them sometimes hard to handle under laboratorial  
102 conditions, presenting a fastidious behavior or demanding extensive growth optimization (Clark,  
103 2019). Upon the selection steps, an appropriate method for delivering the probiotic has to be  
104 developed, to ensure the administration of adequate amounts of the live bacteria to the  
105 consumer's gut, preferably incorporated into a food or beverage matrix (Šipailienė and  
106 Petraitytė, 2018).

107 Table 1 provides information on bacterial strains that are currently being regarded as  
108 promising candidates for the NGP category. Particularly, next-generation probiotic candidates  
109 *A. muciniphila*, *F. prausnitzii*, and *A. hallii* will be described in further detail, as they are under  
110 great scrutiny for future applications. Their potential uses and the most promising developments  
111 in this field will be described. Finally, delivery strategies currently under development and the  
112 recent advances in this area will be addressed, as well as safety and regulatory issues that NGP  
113 candidates need to fulfill to reach the market and, ultimately, human consumption.



**Figure 2. Probiotics selection pipeline.** Several steps must be followed to ensure the effectiveness, safety, and technological feasibility of a bacterial strain, to meet the requirements of a probiotic. Although in the earlier described probiotics the benefit was proved even before knowing the agent causing such effect, as the interest in discovering and producing probiotics grows, so the need for adequate regulation is a demand, with clearly defined steps that should be fulfilled by all the next-generation probiotic candidates.

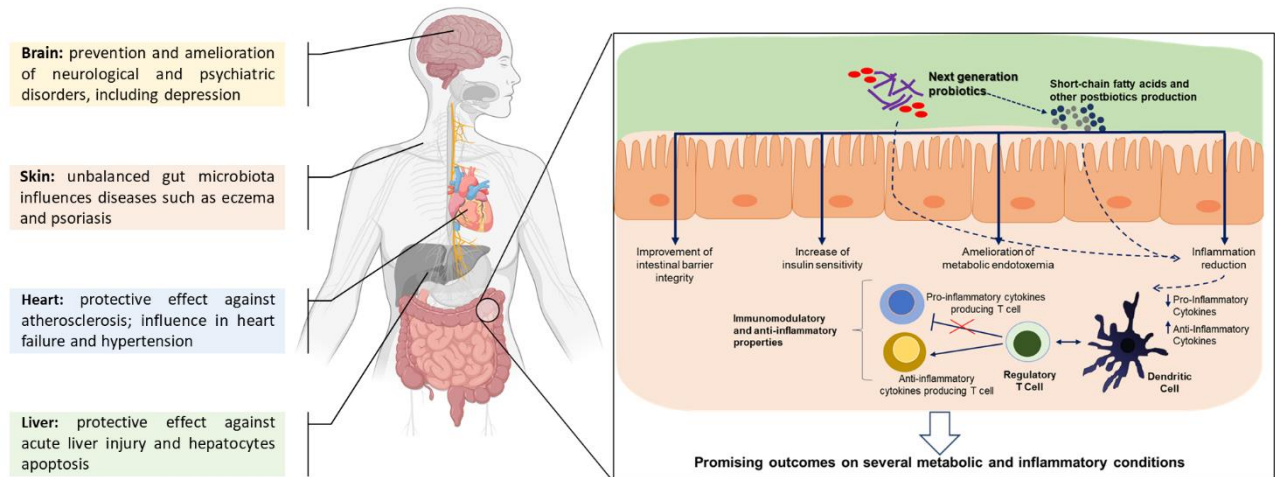
## NEXT-GENERATION PROBIOTICS MECHANISMS AND POTENTIAL HEALTH APPLICATIONS

Scientific evidence supporting the importance of gut beneficial microorganisms in many facets of human physiology has been long established through randomized controlled trials and observational studies. The recent opportunity for the cultivation of hitherto unknown human commensals – a major advantage of the “-omics” revolution – has provided new insights into the relationship between disease onset and dysbiotic gut microbiota. However, the effect of gut community members on human health is not solely determined by their presence/abundance in the gut ecosystem, but also by the products resulting from their collective genetic (microbiome) and metabolic activity (microbiota-derived metabolites), and NGP are no exception. These metabolites can derive directly from bacteria or the transformation of dietary or host-derived substrates. The effects of many bacterial metabolites, including short chain fatty acids (SCFA; acetate, propionate and butyrate), folate, indoles, secondary bile acids, trimethylamine-N-oxide (TMAO), serotonin, gamma amino butyric acid (GABA), have been characterized. Under different concentrations, these bacterial metabolites play important roles in modulating host physiology (Agus et al., 2021).

Hereafter, the mechanistic fashion by which some of the emerging NGP positively impact human disease and health will be discussed – from their influence on the immune system to less expected areas such as neurobiology – and how they can putatively modify disease trajectory. It is important to note that, although each NGP possesses its own microbial identity and potential, some of the mechanisms underlying their beneficial effects may have overlapping elements with other NGP, a trend common to classical probiotic strains.

### IMPACT OF NGP-DERIVED METABOLITES ON HOST PHYSIOLOGY

Many of the acknowledged effects attributed to the gut microbiome in human health are the result of microbiota-derived metabolites, including, short-chain fatty acids, antimicrobial compounds, extracellular proteins, among others (Figure 3). Interestingly, the microbial gut environment represents a highly dynamic and intricate bionetwork that does not reflect the impact of an individual species via a specific mechanism, but it is rather a cascade of trophic complexity that leads to community stability.



**Figure 3. Probiotics mechanisms of action.** The right panel contains a graphical summary of probiotic physiological interactions in gut epithelium responsible for maintaining host health. The metabolism of prebiotic compounds by probiotic bacteria leads to the production of postbiotic molecules, such as SCFA. Short-chain fatty acids are linked to distinct beneficial effects on the host improving the intestinal barrier integrity which prevents metabolic endotoxemia, a key characteristic of metabolic disorders such as T2D and insulin resistance; it also exerts immunoregulatory properties promoting an anti-inflammatory phenotype. On the left, the main organs that are affected by the activity of NGP, in an extent of their application beyond the gut health. Partially designed with BioRender.

### Short-Chain Fatty Acids

There is no bacterial feature that illustrates better this sophisticated cooperation other than the interaction of gut microorganisms through the production and utilization of SCFA, a

phenomenon termed 'cross-feeding' (Sung et al., 2017). Through the production of these organic acids, most gut commensals exert their beneficial effects on the host while modulating other gut community members (Figure 3). Thus, SCFA can be pointed as a more robust health indicator than bacterial strain abundance (de la Cuesta-Zuluaga et al., 2019). These metabolites result from the saccharolytic fermentation of dietary carbohydrates by anaerobic intestinal microorganisms and display an associated biochemical impact on the host (Sivieri et al., 2014; Van-Den-Abbeele et al., 2013). It is important to highlight that SCFA influence a variety of aspects of host health by mainly promoting metabolic and immunologic homeostasis, and gut barrier integrity (Deleu et al., 2021). In pure culture, the SCFA most commonly produced by the different anaerobic gut bacteria are acetate, butyrate, and propionate, and they all perform crucial yet distinct roles in human health.

#### - **Acetate**

Acetate stands as the most predominant SCFA found in feces, and its production is determined by a balance between proteolytic and saccharolytic fermentation (Hernández et al., 2019). Evidence shows that acetate acts on G-protein coupled receptors which secrete gut hormones (e.g., glucagon-like peptide-1 and peptide YY), positively affecting host energy and substrate metabolism. Acetate may also be responsible for increased fatty acid synthesis, energy production via the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, and metabolic capacity improvement via 5'AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) (Hernández et al., 2019). In addition, studies on the biological influence of acetate in colorectal cells have demonstrated that acetate leads to the inhibition of proliferation, induction of apoptosis, promotion of lysosomal membrane permeabilization with release of cathepsin D and alteration of the energetic metabolism through the modulation of monocarboxylate transporters expression (Gomes et al., 2020). These mechanistic effects on human health emphasize the importance of maintaining the abundance of acetate-producing microorganisms in the gut community. *Akkermansia muciniphila* is an NGP that possesses such ability through its mucolytic nature, as it degrades mucin – the main component of the intestinal mucus layer – (Derrien et al., 2017), which also contributes to the protective role of the intestinal mucosal layer (more on that later). *Bacteroides xylanisolvens* is another potential NGP that, through the fermentation of xylan and other sugars, can produce acetate among other SCFA (Chassard et al., 2008). As any acetate-producer, these NGP not only directly impact host health, but also participate in a cross-feeding chain that is essential to maintain the gut milieu (Belzer et al., 2017), as they provide acetate for the production of perhaps the most important SCFA of them all: butyrate.



- **Butyrate**

In the gastrointestinal environment, butyrate is predominantly produced by *Firmicutes*, a phylum which comprises *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* (Duncan et al., 2002), *Anaerobutyricum hallii* (Duncan et al., 2004b), and *Butyricicoccus pullicaecorum* (Eeckhaut et al., 2008) species. Butyrate is considered of paramount importance, since i) it represents the main energy source for colonocytes; ii) it demonstrates anticarcinogenic potential via the induction of colonic regulatory T cells; iii) it is associated with the improvement of metabolic syndrome by the activation of intestinal gluconeogenesis through a cAMP-dependent mechanism; and iv) it is linked to the inhibition of inflammatory responses (Brodmann et al., 2017). Evidence shows that, in a dysbiotic gut microbiota community, the abundance of butyrate producers is often reduced when compared to healthy controls (Rivera-Chávez et al., 2016). Thus, due to several beneficial features that aid gastrointestinal health, the consumption of butyrate-producing bacteria is viewed as a strategy to increase butyrate production in the gut, and the NGP mentioned earlier are pointed as strong candidates (Andrade et al., 2020). As mentioned, many acetate-consuming butyrogenic bacteria require the presence of acetate in pure culture for optimal growth, and that is the case of *F. prausnitzii* (Duncan et al., 2004a) and *B. pullicaecorum* (Eeckhaut et al., 2008). *Anaerobutyricum hallii*, on the other hand, depends on lactate formation by primary degraders such as *Bifidobacterium* spp. to produce butyrate in the absence of a glucose source, as it is not able to metabolize complex oligo- and polysaccharides (Schwab et al., 2017; Scott et al., 2014). Since lactate accumulation is associated with several intestinal disorders (Duncan et al., 2004b), this ability also presents *A. hallii* as a relevant member for the balance of the intestinal metabolism. Conversely, *A. hallii* also contributes to the production of another health-promoting SCFA: propionate.

- **Propionate**

This SCFA plays a role as an energy source for colonic epithelial cells and acts as a hepatic gluconeogenic precursor, reducing adiposity by decreasing the production of hepatic glucose (Martín and Langella, 2019). Additionally, it is thought to interact with G-protein coupled receptors and fatty acid receptors, playing a role in glucose homeostasis and satiety signaling (Reichardt et al., 2014). As previously stated, *A. hallii* contributes to the formation of intestinal propionate through the use of 1,2-propanediol (1,2-PD), another important intermediary metabolite in the cross-feeding network (Engels et al., 2016). In fact, propionate can also be generated via the succinate pathway, and *Prevotella copri* – another emerging NGP – has been shown to contribute to the succinate pool, as it is its main fermentation product (De Vadder et al., 2016).



## Other NGP-related Metabolites

Next-generation probiotics do not only contribute to the homeostasis of SCFA levels in the gut environment; they can also mechanistically influence host health through the production of other important bioactive compounds that exert specific effects on the host. Next-generation probiotics are also associated with the suppression of inflammation through several distinct mechanisms. *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* was shown to secrete a small peptide, named microbial anti-inflammatory molecule (MAM), that has demonstrated an inhibitory effect towards the nuclear factor- $\kappa$ B (NF- $\kappa$ B) pathway, which was translated into the improvement of the inflammatory condition in murine models (Qu  vrain et al., 2016). This molecule was also reported to reduce Th1 and Th17 – proinflammatory cytokines – in colonic tissues of inflammation murine models (Breyner et al., 2017). A biofilm-forming *F. prausnitzii* strain was also reported to produce an anti-inflammatory extracellular polymeric matrix (EPM) which stimulates the increase of anti-inflammatory cytokines production such as interleukin-10 (IL-10) and IL-2 (Rossi et al., 2015). Indeed, *F. prausnitzii* is mainly characterized by its anti-inflammatory activity within the gut and a decreased relative abundance of this strain is negatively correlated with inflammatory conditions such as Crohn’s disease (CD) (Sokol et al., 2008). In the same way, *A. muciniphila* was shown to increase the production of 2-oleoylglycerol (2-OG), a bioactive lipid that belongs to the endocannabinoid system which stimulates the secretion of glucagon-like peptides and contributes to the control of intestinal inflammation (Dao et al., 2016). Interestingly, a pili-like surface protein named Amuc\_1100 seems to be one of the prominent reasons by which *A. muciniphila* is linked to amelioration of metabolic conditions such as type 2 diabetes (T2D) and obesity. Amuc\_1100 showed stability at temperatures used in pasteurization and it was reported to interact with toll-like receptors (TLR), which are a class of innate immune system proteins that trigger an immune regulatory signaling cascade by recognizing conserved molecular patterns (Ottman et al., 2017; Plovier et al., 2016). Likewise, *Bacteroides fragilis* exerts immunomodulatory effects by producing polysaccharide A and outer membrane vesicles, which activate TLR and regulatory T cells (Sun et al., 2019).

Another mechanism of action associated with probiotic benefits displayed by some NGP candidates is the antimicrobial activity against pathogenic bacteria. This can include the production of antimicrobial substances, like hydrogen peroxide, bacteriocins, or organic acids (e.g., SCFA). Thus, potential NGP do not only antagonize pathogens via the production of SCFA but also with the secretion of other bioactive compounds. *Anaerobutyricum hallii* was reported to metabolize glycerol, producing 3-hydroxypropionaldehyde (3-HPA) or reuterin (Fekry et al., 2016), a compound with demonstrated antimicrobial activity against various microorganism

groups (Schaefer et al., 2010). It was also found that *A. muciniphila* can induce Paneth cells - highly specialized secretory epithelial cells located in the crypts of the small intestine – in producing antimicrobial peptides such as the regenerating islet-derived protein 3 gamma (RegIII- $\gamma$ ), which is part of one class of antimicrobials expressed within the intestine (Everard et al., 2013).

The potential role of *Akkermansia* in contributing to the synthesis and/or degradation of tryptophan metabolites has been investigated as well. Tryptophan metabolites like anthranilate, tryptamine, and 4,6-dihydroxyquinoline are well established as ligands for the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) and modulate inflammation in multiple cell types. Tryptophan metabolism also plays an important role in impeding colorectal cancer development through inhibiting inflammation, repairing the gut barrier structure, and interacting with beneficial microorganisms in the gut. Yang and collaborators studied the effect of diet and loss of AhR in intestinal epithelial cells on the correlation between the fecal microbiome and metabolome using wild type (WT) and intestinal epithelial cell-specific AhR knockout mice maintained on high-fat or low-fat diet (Yang et al., 2020). Changes in the fecal microbial community and the fecal metabolome were determined using 16S rRNA sequencing and untargeted metabolomics, respectively. The study showed that diet has a more pronounced impact on mice fecal microbiota composition than the effect of the loss of AhR. In contrast, metabolomic analysis revealed that the loss of AhR in intestinal epithelial cells had a more pronounced effect on metabolite profile compared to diet. Integration analysis of microbiome and metabolome identified *Akkermansia*, unclassified Clostridiales, and unclassified *Desulfovibrionaceae* as key contributors to the synthesis and/or utilization of tryptophan metabolites. The unclassified Clostridiales was a main contributor to the synthesis of anthranilate, while *A. muciniphila* was predicted to participate in the degradation of tryptamine and the synthesis of 4,6-dihydroxyquinoline. Thus, the contribution of *Akkermansia* to the synthesis and/or degradation of tryptophan metabolites is likely to be associated with the modulation of inflammatory process with beneficial effects on the host. The study also highlights the use of multi-omic analysis to investigate the relationship between the microbiome and metabolome and identifies possible taxa that can be targeted to manipulate the microbiome for colorectal cancer treatment (Yang et al., 2020).

### **The Integrity of the Mucosal Layer**

Accumulating evidence from animal studies supports the hypothesis that many diseases stem from the abrogation of intestinal integrity (Chelakkot et al., 2018). Indeed, the condition commonly described as “leaky gut” essentially means the existence of a compromised gut

barrier, which allows the diffusion of possible immunogenic substances, such as toxins and bacterial products, to the bloodstream. This causes the activation of the immune system, mainly creating a systemic low-grade type of inflammatory state (Michielan and D'Incà, 2015). Indeed, some of the metabolites mentioned earlier, namely SCFA, have an instrumental part in maintaining and strengthening the integrity of this layer. When SCFA producers decrease, secretion of these metabolites suffers a toll, and that might translate to possible disease onset. In this context, one of the most prominent NGP seems to be *A. muciniphila*, which was found to protect from low-grade systemic inflammation due to its ability to instigate mucin production – mainly by colonic mucus turnover – which increases enterocyte monolayer integrity, thereby reducing gut permeability (Reunanen et al., 2015). Colonization of the mucus layer by *A. muciniphila* induces the proliferation of other mucus-colonizing bacteria due to the production of oligosaccharides and acetate upon degradation of mucus; this will impair the proliferation of pathogenic bacteria leading to their competitive exclusion within the mucosa (Belzer and De Vos, 2012).

Furthermore, *A. muciniphila* and *F. prausnitzii* were shown to produce extracellular vesicles (EVs), which were reportedly to modulate the intestinal barrier permeability. EVs are released by all domains of life and represent a general, evolutionary conserved mechanism of intercellular communication. EVs contain a variety of bioactive molecules, such as proteins, lipids, nucleic acids, and small-molecule metabolites that play a key role in the biology of bacteria, and the growing appreciation of the functional significance of the human microbiota in health and disease has triggered a marked interest in the functional role of bacterial EVs and communication with the host (Jahromi and Fuhrmann, 2021). Recently, *A. muciniphila* has been reported as a beneficial bacterium that reduces gut barrier disruption and insulin resistance in T2D murine models, and the role of *A. muciniphila*-derived EVs in the regulation of gut permeability was evaluated (Chelakkot et al., 2018). Fecal samples of healthy controls showed more EVs in comparison with those from T2D mice. Moreover, EV administration enhanced tight junction function, reduced body weight gain and improved glucose tolerance in high-fat diet-induced diabetic mice. The direct effect of EVs on human epithelial cells was evaluated and the permeability of lipopolysaccharide-treated Caco-2 cell line was reduced upon treatment with *A. muciniphila*-derived EVs. Interestingly, the expression of occludin was increased by EV treatment (Chelakkot et al., 2018). Similarly, *F. prausnitzii* was also found to stimulate the production of mucin and tight-junction proteins (Carlsson et al., 2013; Rossi et al., 2015). The effect of *F. prausnitzii* and its EVs on mRNA expression levels of tight junction protein genes (*ZO1* and *OCN*) was evaluated in Caco-2 cells by quantitative real-time PCR (Moosavi et al., 2020). A significant increase in the expression of *ZO1* (zonula occludens-1) and *OCN* (occluding) genes

was induced by EVs treatment, but not by *F. prausnitzii*. Overall, these studies suggest that EVs derived from NGP may act as a functional moiety for modulation of gut permeability and the resulting regulation of intestinal barrier integrity can improve metabolic functions in mammalian cells.

## **GUT-MICROBIOTA AXES**

At this point, it is clear the potential effects that the various NGP can exert on human health, and more specifically, the possible implications in a broad spectrum of conditions that go beyond the GIT. Indeed, recent findings reiterate the interconnectivity of the gut microbiota and specific organs/systems (Figure 3). This communication is accomplished mainly via the circulating bioactive microbiota-derived metabolites, forming a multidirectional communication network, in a concept coined as “gut axes”. As follows, we will briefly describe some of the known effects of emerging NGP on diseases of the various organ systems.

### **- Gut-Cardiovascular Axis**

Undoubtedly, cardiovascular diseases are among the conditions where NGP have been demonstrated to have profound effects. In fact, a key link between gut microbiota, gut permeability, and the vascular system has been reported (Li et al., 2016). Specifically, daily oral gavage with *A. muciniphila* attenuated atherosclerotic lesions in Apoe<sup>-/-</sup> mice model by ameliorating metabolic endotoxemia-induced inflammation through the restoration of the gut barrier. These findings highlight the protective role of *A. muciniphila* against the development and progression of atherosclerosis, the main contributor to cardiovascular mortality (Hansson et al., 2006; Li et al., 2016). Furthermore, alterations in the relative abundance of intestinal commensal bacterial species commonly classified as NGP were reported in certain cardiovascular disorders. For instance, *F. prausnitzii* abundance was inversely correlated with chronic heart failure, which is known as an end-stage syndrome of many cardiovascular diseases (Cui et al., 2018). The relative abundance of other bacterial species (including, besides the abovementioned, *Anaerobutyricum*, *Prevotella*, *Bacteroides*, or *Parabacteroides*) was analyzed in several independent studies, revealing a highly diverse correlation with diseases such as atherosclerosis, atrial fibrillation, hypertension, or heart failure (for a review, see Jin et al., 2020). Most studies intend to directly relate the abundance with the observed health condition; however, beneficial or detrimental effects might result from the interactions between the whole microbial environment and with the host, making it difficult to correctly assign the role of each individual, without a deeper mechanistic understanding of the microbiome and their

metabolites. Thus, additional information is still required to accurately relate the effectiveness of NGP in preventing or treating cardiovascular diseases. Noteworthy, some specific metabolites produced by NGP strains, including SCFA, were shown to have a modulatory effect on blood pressure (Wang and Zhao, 2018). This is a good indicator that the presence of adequate amounts of SCFA-producing bacteria – or involved in the cross-feeding SCFA metabolism – within the human gut microbiome (*A. muciniphila*, *A. hallii*, *F. prausnitzii*, among others), might, indeed, represent a benefit in patients with this condition.

#### - Gut-Brain Axis

Besides the existence of an enteric nervous system – known as the body's 'second brain' –, evidence demonstrates that the gut microbial community is reported to influence the central nervous system through a bidirectional communication system, known as the 'brain-gut-microbiome axis'. Indeed, the association between gut microbiome alterations and changes in neural development and some mental illnesses has been established (Rogers et al., 2016). Currently, therapeutic manipulation of the microbiome with the ingestion of probiotic bacteria – psychobiotic – has been pointed as a possible strategy to mitigate some of the effects of such conditions, in which *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* are predominantly the most investigated genera (Sarkar et al., 2016). Notwithstanding, recent studies have linked reduced levels of anti-inflammatory, butyrate-producing bacteria, to neurological conditions such as depression. In a preclinical study, Hao et al. (2019) found that when exposed to stress, murine models treated with *F. prausnitzii* (ATCC 27766) displayed higher levels of SCFA in the cecum, higher levels of plasma cytokines IL-10, reduced corticosterone and IL-6 levels, and suppressed the upregulation of inflammatory cytokines. This positive correlation with brain health and neurological disease protective effects has prompted the possibility of using this strain as a complementary prophylactic and therapeutic strategy on depression and anxiety symptoms. In another study, it was observed that, when compared with healthy individuals, patients with major depressive disorder (MDD) had lower levels of *Faecalibacterium* and other related members (at the genus level), which are known butyrate-producers (Liu et al., 2020). As mentioned before, butyrate has the ability to strengthen the integrity of the epithelial gut barrier and displays anti-inflammatory effects. The decrease of butyrate-producing microorganisms can lead to the loss of that protective mechanism and thus, the translocation of compounds that activate low-grade systemic inflammation increases, a characteristic trait of a substantial number of depressed individuals (Marrone and Coccurello, 2020). Other potential NGP psychobiotic has been evaluated for the effects on the treatment of MDD. Major depressive disorder patients treated with a *Clostridium butyricum* MIYAIRI 588-based synbiotic, along with antidepressants,

demonstrated a favorable response with a significant improvement in anxiety and depressive scale scores (Miyaoaka et al., 2018). Thus, evidence confirms the alterations in the abundance of various NGP within the microbiome profile of patients with psychiatric disorders. Despite the promising scenario, there is no distinguishable microbiome motif that could guide researchers towards a specific set of strains as a method of preventing mental disease or alleviating symptoms. Whether it is by probiotic supplementation or promotion of the growth of these beneficial bacteria via a more customized prebiotic ingestion, this creates the possibility of a holistic psychotherapeutic approach for future interventions, since a “healthy” gastrointestinal environment seems key in symptom improvement.

#### - Other relevant “axes”

As mentioned before, studies are still required to assess the full extent of NGP effects upon consumption. However, correlational studies have shown a broad range of influence that goes far beyond the gut itself. Besides the heart and the brain, the liver seems to be another organ that is positively affected by the presence of *A. muciniphila* within the gut microbiota. Wu and co-workers have shown a protective effect mediated by this species in mice with acute liver injury, through the decrease of pro-inflammatory cytokines and reduced apoptosis of hepatocytes (Wu et al., 2017). The therapeutic potential of *A. muciniphila* in treating metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver disease (MAFLD) has been described. Although the mechanism involved is not fully understood, *A. muciniphila* efficiently reversed hepatic steatosis, inflammatory dysfunction, and liver injury in diet-induced obese mice models (Rao et al., 2021). The treatment with *A. muciniphila* resulted in effective increase of mitochondrial oxidation and bile acid metabolism in the gut-liver axis, improvement of oxidative stress-induced cell apoptosis in the gut, leading to the restructuring of the gut microbiota composition. These metabolic enhancements occurred with increased L-aspartate levels in the liver that derived from the gut. Similar beneficial metabolic effects were obtained with the administration of L-aspartate, suggesting that the anti-MAFLD activity of *A. muciniphila* is associated with lipid oxidation and improved gut-liver interactions through modulation of L-aspartate metabolism (Rao et al., 2021). Furthermore, a novel mechanism linking intestinal *A. muciniphila* and the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) to saccharin/sucralose-induced nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) in mice has been proposed (Shi et al., 2021). Saccharin/sucralose consumption altered the gut microbial community structure, with significant depletion of *A. muciniphila* abundance in the cecal contents of mice, resulting in disruption of intestinal permeability and a high level of serum lipopolysaccharide, which likely contributed to systemic inflammation and caused NAFLD in mice. Saccharin/sucralose also markedly decreased microbiota-derived AhR ligands

and colonic AhR expression, which are closely associated with many metabolic syndromes. Metformin or fructo-oligosaccharide supplementation significantly restored *A. muciniphila* and AhR ligands in sucralose-consuming mice, consequently ameliorating NAFLD (Shi et al., 2021). Consequently, these findings suggest that *A. muciniphila* could be a promising NGP with therapeutic application on liver disorders.

Case-control studies involving patients with skin diseases have shown variable results. For instance, Tan and colleagues demonstrated that *A. muciniphila* was reduced in subjects with psoriasis (Tan et al., 2018). Similarly, *A. muciniphila* and *F. prausnitzii* abundance were reported to be depleted in infants with atopic disease (Candela et al., 2012). In contrast, both species were enriched in children with eczema which can be also a symptom of atopic disease (Zheng et al., 2016). Although these studies focus mainly on the species level, it is important to highlight that certain subspecies can have a distinct behavior in terms of abundance, as shown by Song and co-workers. These researchers reported an enrichment in a clade of *F. prausnitzii* subspecies in patients with atopic dermatitis (Song et al., 2016). This disparity between results highlights the need for further studies to understand the role of NGP in the prevention and treatment of skin diseases through the manipulation of gut microbiota.

#### **PRODUCTION CONSTRAINTS AND CRAFTY DELIVERY SYSTEMS**

Large scale use of NGP poses several and unique challenges. One of the challenges is related to oxygen, since many of the NGP are obligate anaerobes and thus, must be handled in oxygen-free atmospheres throughout the manufacturing process and storage. Practical and scalable downstream processing solutions are needed to enable cost-effective and efficient manufacture and storage of commercial products.

*Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* was shown to be extremely sensitive to oxygen, as exposure to ambient air for more than 2 min inhibited all subsequent bacterial growth (Duncan et al., 2002). Still, it has been found that it can tolerate low levels of oxygen by adherence to the gut mucosa where oxygen diffuses from epithelial cells, through an extracellular electron shuttle of flavins and thiols to transfer electrons to oxygen (Khan et al., 2012). Based on these findings, the same research group, developed a formulation containing the antioxidants cysteine and riboflavin plus the cryoprotectant inulin, which enabled the maintenance of *F. prausnitzii* DSM 17677 viability in aerobic environment for 24 h (Khan et al., 2014). Improved formulations were obtained by addition of the bulking agents corn starch and wheat bran, facilitating the handling. On the other hand, *A. muciniphila* once thought to be a strict anaerobe was shown recently to be aerotolerant (Machado et al., 2020). When exposed to an aerobic environment in temperatures ranging from 4 to 37°C, *A. muciniphila* DSM 22959 exhibited a high oxygen



tolerance up to 72 h, though a higher oxygen tolerance was exhibited at 4°C. This intrinsic oxygen tolerance of *A. muciniphila* may allow the future implementation of a wider range of handling procedures, which facilitates its large-scale use.

Another challenge is related to the composition of the growth media, which must be suitable for human use and generate high biomass yields. Ideally, particularly for therapeutic purposes, the medium components should be defined and preferably of non-animal origin. As mentioned before, *A. muciniphila* is a mucin-degrading bacterium, since it uses mucin as carbon and nitrogen sources. In order to ensure good growth yields, mucin (present in the mucus layer lining of the intestinal tract of animals) is usually added to some base medium, such as brain heart infusion (BHI) broth (Li et al., 2021). van der Ark and colleagues have devised a defined minimal medium containing L-threonine and N-acetylglucosamine or N-acetylgalactosamine, which were shown to be essential for *A. muciniphila* growth (van der Ark et al., 2017). Nevertheless, a potentially scalable preservation and preparation protocol for the use of viable *A. muciniphila* in therapeutic interventions has already been reported by Ouwerkerk et al. (2017) using a mucin-based medium. Cell growth and all subsequent procedures were performed under strict anaerobic conditions, with several quality assessment and control procedures, to ensure cell viability. *Akkermansia muciniphila* preserved at -80 °C in glycerol-amended medium showed high long-term viability for over 1 year (97.9±4.5%) and could be shipped to other locations on dry-ice without detectable loss of viable cells. De Vos and Seegers (2017) have developed a medium for culturing *A. hallii* to high biomass yields, composed only by food grade components and free of any animal sources. This medium includes sugars (such as a glucose or sucrose), yeast extract, a plant protein hydrolysate (such as soy peptone) and acetate (de Vos and Seegers, 2017).

Besides the challenges faced during the manufacturing process and storage, NGP must be formulated to ensure the release of high numbers of viable cells [ $10^7$ - $10^9$  CFU per product dose are usually recommended for conventional probiotics (Hill et al., 2014; Hungin et al., 2018)] in the right place, so they can effectively recolonize the gut. After ingestion, bacteria will face a harsh physicochemical and biological environment composed of low pH levels, digestive enzymes, and bile salts which could affect their cell structure (Barer, 2014). Thus, delivery systems that assure that these sensitive anaerobic commensal strains exert efficaciously their beneficial effects must be envisaged. Table 2 summarizes NGP delivery systems that are reported in the scientific literature. A relatively simple approach consists in freeze-drying the bacteria, to promote stabilization, prior to their encapsulation in enteric-coated gelatin capsules. In one study, *B. pullicaecorum* was first anaerobically freeze-dried in horse serum supplemented with trehalose and cysteine and then encapsulated in hydroxypropyl

515 methylcellulose (HPMC) capsules. The system showed good storage stability, as only 1 log  
516 reduction was observed after 7 months at 4°C (Eeckhaut et al., 2014). Later, Boesmans et al.  
517 (2018), using a similar encapsulation technique, showed that HPMC capsules containing a  
518 freeze-dried culture of *B. pullicaecorum* 25-3<sup>T</sup> preserved its viability over an 8-month storage  
519 period at 4°C (in heat-sealed aluminum sachets). The capsules were sealed and coated with a  
520 pH-resistant coating consisting of the enteric polymer cellulose acetate phthalate and the  
521 plasticizer diethyl phthalate and were used in a human intervention trial. These capsules were  
522 shown to be safe and well-tolerated by the participant volunteers, without causing disruptive  
523 alterations in the composition or metabolic activity of health-associated microbiota (Boesmans  
524 et al., 2018).

525 Allouche et al. (2018) developed probiotic tablets by direct compression of a mixture of three  
526 excipients (microcrystalline cellulose, hydroxypropyl methylcellulose phthalate or HPMC) with  
527 *F. prausnitzii* (I4573) previously freeze-dried with sucrose. Using this approach, *F. prausnitzii*  
528 displayed high stability during 28 days of anaerobic storage (anaerobic atmosphere at 25 °C and  
529 11% of relative humidity and in absence of light). However, these researchers highlighted the  
530 need to find alternatives to anaerobic storage as well as the urgency to develop an optimal  
531 coating to protect bacteria against gastric acidity. Taking this in consideration, Raise et al. (2020)  
532 designed and compared two encapsulation processes that could deliver bacteria in a viable and  
533 functional form to the intestine. One process consisted of mixing previously freeze-dried  
534 *F. prausnitzii* with a melted hydrophobic matrix (Gelucire® 43/01) to encapsulate them into a  
535 solid lipid base after cooling. The resulting lipid mixture was then used to fill gelatin capsules.  
536 The other process was the classical encapsulation by the extrusion method, using amidated low-  
537 methoxyl pectin and a calcium salt (ionotropic gelation). The resulting beads were subsequently  
538 freeze-dried. All the encapsulation processes were performed inside an anaerobic chamber.  
539 Both formulations improved the survival of bacteria in the stomach and distal jejunum buffers  
540 during a digestive exposure test. However, only lipid inclusion provided sufficient protection  
541 suitable for therapeutic application. Nevertheless, Gelucire® poorly stabilized bacteria during  
542 storage, unlike the freeze-dried beads. Earlier, van der Ark et al. (2018) succeeded in  
543 encapsulating *A. muciniphila* CIP 107961<sup>T</sup> in a double water-oil-water emulsion and in protecting  
544 these bacteria effectively during their passage in the digestive tract. However, this encapsulation  
545 process did not allow stabilization for more than 72 h of anaerobic storage at 4°C. Marcial-Coba  
546 et al. (2018) also used the extrusion method to encapsulate *A. muciniphila* DSM22959. They  
547 used a xanthan/gellan gum matrix for cell immobilization with a subsequent freeze-drying step,  
548 in which various combinations of cryoprotective agents were employed. The use of higher sugar  
549 cryoprotectants [sweetener agave syrup 10 % (w/v)] combined with xanthan/gellan gum matrix,

in the form of freeze-dried microcapsules, provided the higher encapsulation efficiency (76.2%). Furthermore, this formulation was able to enhance *A. muciniphila* survival during in vitro GIT conditions. Later, the same research group investigated the efficacy of dark chocolate as a carrier for xanthan/gellan encapsulated *A. muciniphila* (Marcial-Coba et al., 2019). Embedding in dark chocolate conferred an efficient protection to encapsulated *A. muciniphila* reflected, not only, in a viability loss  $< 1 \log \text{CFU.g}^{-1}$  and a final concentration  $\geq 7 \log \text{CFU.g}^{-1}$  after 60 days of storage, but also, in a high survival rate after *in vitro* gastric transit at pH 3, when compared to free cells. Moreover, in a hedonic sensory test, dark chocolate containing microcapsules were not significantly different from two commercially available chocolates. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first and only report regarding the addition of a NGP in a food product.

More recently, Chang and colleagues demonstrated the possibility of using spray-drying for encapsulation of *A. muciniphila* (Chang et al., 2020). This technique is particularly interesting to be used in large-scale processing, namely in the food industry; the main challenge being that high temperatures are employed, which can be deleterious for the microbial cells. The authors used succinate-grafted alginate doped with epigallocatechin-3-gallate (EGCG) which resulted in improved storage in aqueous environments and increased survival under simulated GIT conditions (Chang et al., 2020). Recently, laboratory-scale electrospinning has been demonstrated to be a suitable solid formulation technology for NGP. Vass et al. (2020) used this technique to incorporate *C. butyricum* (mixture of cells and spores) into polymer-free fibers of a water-soluble cyclodextrin matrix (Hydroxypropyl-  $\beta$  cyclodextrin). The viability of the electrospun sporulated anaerobic bacteria was preserved after 1 year of aerobic storage at ambient temperature. Moreover, the bacteria-containing fibers were grindable by an oscillating mill, and the milled fibrous powder could be tableted by direct compression after mixing with tableting excipients. None of the processing steps (drying, milling, and tableting) caused significant reduction in bacterial viability. It should be noted that spores are usually highly resistant to stress compared to vegetative cells and, therefore, easier to keep viable for long storage periods. Spores of *C. butyricum* were also encapsulated by Zheng and colleagues using a different approach. These authors used host-guest chemistry to encapsulate bacteria with chemically modified prebiotic dextran (Zheng et al., 2020). The prebiotics-encapsulated probiotic spores were found to specifically enrich in colon cancers after oral administration. In the lesion, dextran was fermented by *C. butyricum*, and thereby produced anti-cancer short-chain fatty acids.

Until now the up-scale of NGPs has been hindered mainly by extreme oxygen sensitivity exhibited by several NGP, which poses several challenges at different levels (production, stability, storage, and target delivery). Despite these difficulties, it is worth mentioning that a

commercial product containing NGP is already available to help manage type 2 diabetes (Pendulum Glucose Control – <https://pendulumlife.com> ). The product designed as a “probiotic medical food” (contains inulin, *A. muciniphila*, *Clostridium beijerinckii*, *C. butyricum*, *Bifidobacterium infantis* and *A. hallii*) was tested in a clinical trial and was shown to be safe and well tolerated and to improve postprandial glucose control (Perraudau et al., 2020). No details on the manufacture or stabilization procedures of the product were given.

#### **NEXT-GENERATION PROBIOTICS: REGULATION FRAMEWORK AND RISK ASSESSMENT**

Advanced knowledge regarding the pivotal role of gut microbiota in human health has increased the interest in using intestinal commensal microorganisms as probiotics. Such probiotics may be delivered to the consumer as a food product, a dietary supplement or a drug (Andrade et al., 2020). However, to introduce these NGP in the market, product developers should address a key question: what is the intended use? In fact, the regulatory difference between dietary supplements and drugs is very clear: food supplements are intended to maintain or improve a healthy state in a healthy or at-risk population, while drugs are intended to have therapeutic or prophylactic effect in human diseases (Cordaillat-Simmons et al., 2020). In the European Union, the responsible regulatory agency for novel foods is the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), while drugs are regulated by the European Medicines Agency. On the other hand, in the United States of America, both categories are regulated by the Food and Drug Administration [FDA; (Cordaillat-Simmons et al., 2020; O’Toole et al., 2017)].

To avoid the misleading characterization of the product nature and its regulatory status, FDA created, in 2012, a novel category designated live biotherapeutic product (LBP) to define “a biological product that: 1) contains live organisms, such as bacteria; 2) is applicable to the prevention, treatment, or cure of a disease or condition of human beings; and 3) is not a vaccine” (FDA, 2016). As of 2019, when European Pharmacopoeia Commission published a general monograph laying down harmonized requirements for LBP for human use, LBP are officially accepted as a novel category of drug products in European markets (European Pharmacopoeia Commission, 2019). Regarding the quality, safety, and effectiveness parameters for commercialization approval, the International Council for Harmonization of Technical Requirements for Pharmaceuticals for Human Use provides guidelines that include important recommendations that aid developers in fulfilling all requirements that LBP products, among other medicinal products, must meet and are expected by the regulatory authorities (Cordaillat-Simmons et al., 2020).

The authorisation to place a novel food on the European market, including those that contain probiotic microorganisms, is oriented by Regulation 2015/2283 (European Commission, 2015).

Following this regulation, EFSA developed scientific and technical guidance for the preparation and presentation of applications for the authorization of novel foods. This guidance states that the applications should provide a description of the novel food, production process, compositional data, specification, proposed uses and use levels, anticipated intake of the novel food, as well as, history of use of the novel food and/or its source, absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, nutritional, toxicological and allergenicity data (EFSA Panel on Dietetic Products Nutrition and Allergies et al., 2016). Considering all the data provided in the application, EFSA will evaluate the safety of novel foods under the proposed conditions of use (EFSA Panel on Dietetic Products Nutrition and Allergies et al., 2016).

Within the scope of safety assessment of novel foods, EFSA developed a qualified presumption of safety (QPS) approach, which aims to provide a harmonized generic pre-evaluation procedure for safety risk assessment of microorganisms intentionally added to food/feed (EFSA, 2007; EFSA Panel on Biological Hazards et al., 2021). The QPS list was first published in 2007 and has been regularly revised and updated. The establishment of QPS status is made based on four requirements: 1) “taxonomic identification” must be well defined; 2) the available “body of knowledge” must be sufficient to conclude on human/animal exposure by food/ feed; 3) the lack of pathogenic and virulence properties, including absence of acquired genes encoding resistance to antimicrobials relevant for humans and animals, must be established and substantiated (“safety”); 4) “intended use” must be clearly described (EFSA, 2007; EFSA Panel on Biological Hazards et al., 2021). Most bacteria recommended for the QPS list belong to the *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* genera, where their long history of safe use contributed to the acquisition and maintenance of this status (Brodmann et al., 2017; EFSA Panel on Biological Hazards et al., 2020). However, some of the NGP discussed throughout this chapter were only recently characterized and thus present a challenge to both the scientific community and regulatory agencies (Brodmann et al., 2017). In this scope, EFSA recently assessed the possibility of integration of two NGP species in the QPS status list, namely *A. muciniphila* and *C. butyricum*. However, the committee decided not to recommend both strains for the QPS status; regarding *A. muciniphila*, due to safety concerns, and in the case of *C. butyricum*, the fact that some strains contain pathogenicity factors excluded its consideration for further QPS evaluation (EFSA Panel on Biological Hazards et al., 2020).

Another system, similar to the QPS approach, and called Generally Recognized As Safe (GRAS) system, was established by FDA in the USA (Food and Drug Administration, 2019). However, there are dissimilarities between the two approaches; for instance, the GRAS guidelines apply to food additives in general, whereas QPS is focused on microorganisms only; GRAS addresses a specific substance or organism (working at the strain level), in opposition to the QPS system,

that evaluates taxonomic units (frequently species level for bacteria and yeasts, or families for viruses); finally, the GRAS status is determined by the FDA and/or external experts, while QPS status is determined by EFSA only (EFSA Panel on Biological Hazards et al., 2017).

Despite advances and updates in the regulatory framework of probiotics, the commercialization of NGP in several modalities (as novel food products, dietary supplement, or LBP) is a multi-actor endeavour broadly dependent from the close interaction between research institutions, pharmaceutical industries, and regulatory agencies (Almeida et al., 2020).

**CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES**

Despite the increasing number of studies regarding probiotics, more investigation is still required to go beyond the identified association between healthy and disease state gut microbiota and the impact that probiotic ingestion might elicit. This is particularly relevant when considering NGP, whose characterization is still in progress and can benefit from the emergence of new and more efficient scientific tools. Next-generation probiotics derived from the human gut commensals are promising candidates to be used as indicators of human health as well as to mitigate some clinical situations, with particular impact on the fight against metabolic and inflammatory dysbiosis-derived diseases. These rapidly growing conditions are reaching epidemic proportions, presenting new challenges to both clinicians and researchers. Due to the continuous investigation regarding the role of the human microbiome in the host's health, novel microorganisms are expected to emerge in the next years as new potential probiotics, increasing the number of putative NGP available. Most of the potential gut-derived NGP have specific nutritional requirements and present a strict anaerobic character, which poses real challenges in what concerns their cultivation, their achieving biomass containing high viable cell numbers and even their viability maintenance for long periods. Thus, tailored strategies must be developed and optimized to produce and stabilize the different strains, without impairing their biological functionality, while providing a delivery form that is safe and efficient for human consumption. In this context, the development and implementation of novel probiotics in the market requires a close interaction between research institutions, pharmaceutical industries, and regulatory agencies.

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Table 1. List of proposed NGP and their characteristics.

Species (strain)	Gram	Metabolism	Classification <sup>(1)</sup>	Prevalence in human gut	Firstly Identified (Source – Location [Year])	Relevant references
<i>Akkermansia muciniphila</i>	Negative	Anaerobic	P: Verrucomicrobia C: Verrucomicrobiae O: Verrucomicrobiales F: Akkermansiaceae P: Firmicutes	3% to 5%	Human feces – The Netherlands [2004]	(Derrien et al., 2008, 2004; Zhang et al., 2019)
<i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i>	Positive	Strict anaerobic	C: Clostridia O: Eubacteriales F: Oscillospiraceae P: Firmicutes	3% to 5%	Human pus – Germany [1922]	(Duncan et al., 2002; Martín et al., 2017; Sokol et al., 2008)
<i>Anaerobutyricum hallii</i>	Positive	Strict anaerobic	C: Clostridia O: Eubacteriales F: Lachnospiraceae P: Bacteroidetes	2% to 3%	Human feces – Virginia [1974]	(Bunesova et al., 2018; Holdeman and Moore, 1974; Shetty et al., 2018)
<i>Prevotella copri</i>	Negative	Strict anaerobic	C: Bacteroidia O: Bacteroidales F: Prevotellaceae P: Firmicutes	Up to 80%	Human feces – Japan [2007]	(Hayashi et al., 2007; Ley, 2016)
<i>Butyricicoccus pullicaecorum</i>	Positive	Anaerobic	C: Clostridia O: Eubacteriales F: Clostridiaceae P: Bacteroidetes	n.a.	Chicken caecal content – Belgium [2008]	(Boesmans et al., 2018; Eeckhaut et al., 2008; Geirnaert et al., 2014)
<i>Bacteroides</i> spp.	Negative	Strict anaerobic	C: Bacteroidia O: Bacteroidales F: Bacteroidaceae P: Firmicutes	25%	Human gut – France [1898] (First: <i>B. fragilis</i> )	(Dahiya et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2019)
<i>Roseburia</i> spp.	Positive	Strict anaerobic	C: Clostridia O: Eubacteriales F: Lachnospiraceae P: Firmicutes	3 to 15%	Mouse cecal mucosae – Illinois [1983] (First: <i>R. cecicola</i> )	(Hillman et al., 2020; Tamanai-Shacoori et al., 2017)
<i>Clostridium butyricum</i> (MIYAIRI 588)	Positive	Strict anaerobic	C: Clostridia O: Eubacteriales	n.a.	Soil – Japan [1960s]	(Guo et al., 2020; Isa et al., 2016)

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Species (strain)	Gram	Metabolism	Classification <sup>(1)</sup>	Prevalence in human gut	Firstly Identified (Source – Location [Year])	Relevant references
F: Clostridiaceae						

<sup>(1)</sup> Taxonomic classification: P = phylum; C = class; O = order; F = family; n.a. = not available

Table 2. Next-generation probiotics delivery systems

Microorganism	Technique/method	Matrix	Main achievements	References
<i>Akkermansia muciniphila</i> MucT (CIP 107961T)	Water-in-oil-in-water (W/O/W) double emulsion	Sunflower oil, sodium Caseinate and polyglycerol polyricinoleate (PGPR) as emulsifier	6.6% survival of encapsulated bacteria compared to 0.4% of controlled group after 2 h exposure to simulated gastric juice.	van der Ark et al. 2017
<i>Akkermansia muciniphila</i> DSM22959	Extrusion	Xanthan and gellan gum	0.57 log CFU.g <sup>-1</sup> reduction over 1 month storage at storage at 4 °C under anaerobic conditions. Improved survival when subjected to simulated gastric conditions.	Marcial-Coba et al. 2018
<i>Akkermansia muciniphila</i> 139	Spray drying	Succinate-grafted alginate Epigallocatechin-3-gallate	Improved viability up to 12 days at 4°C in anaerobic PBS buffer. Improved survival when subjected to simulated gastric conditions.	Chang et al. 2020
<i>Butyricicoccus pullicaecorum</i> 25-3T	Lyophilized culture used to fill hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) capsules. HPMC capsules sealed and coated with a pH-resistant coating of enteric polymer cellulose acetate phthalate (CAP) and plasticizer diethyl phthalate	Lyophilized formulation contained horse serum supplemented with trehalose and cysteine-HCl. HPMC, CAP, diethyl phthalate	67 % average survival (6.7x10 <sup>7</sup> CFU) after 8 months storage at 4°C.	Boesmans et al. 2018
<i>Clostridium butyricum</i>	Electrospinning of a bacterial cell/spores suspension under anaerobic conditions	Hydroxypropyl-beta-cyclodextrin (HP-β-CD)	Viability of sporulated bacteria in the fibers maintained during 1 year at room temperature and aerobic conditions. No significant decrease in bacterial viability after milling and tableting the fibers.	Vass et al. 2020



Microorganism	Technique/method	Matrix	Main achievements	References
<i>Clostridium butyricum</i> ATCC 19398	Self-assembly of adamantane-modified spores and $\beta$ -cyclodextrin-grafted dextran	$\beta$ -cyclodextrin, adamantine (AD) and dextran	Dextran encapsulated probiotic spores specifically enrich in colon cancers after oral administration. Additionally, encapsulated spores regulate gut microbiota, augment the abundance of SCFA-producing bacteria.	Zheng et al 2020
<i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i> CNCM I-4573	Tableting by direct compression of previously lyophilized cells	Microcrystalline cellulose (MCC), HPMC, hydroxypropyl methylcellulose phthalate (HPMCP)	Survival above $10^8$ CFU/tablet after 28 days at 25 °C, anaerobic condition, 11% relative humidity.	Allouche et al. 2018
<i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i> CNCM I-4573	1. Extrusion-ionic gelation of fresh cells under anaerobic conditions and subsequent lyophilization  2. Lipid based-suspension introduced in gelatin capsules and let to solidify under anaerobic conditions	Amidated low-methoxyl pectin  Gelucire®, gelatin capsules	Around 2 log units decrease after 14 days at 25 °C, anaerobic condition, 11% relative humidity. 3-5 log units decrease when exposed to stomach proximal and jejunum buffers for 30 min. Around 4 log decrease after 14 days at 25 °C, in anaerobic condition and with 11% relative humidity. 2 log units decrease when exposed to stomach proximal and jejunum buffers for 30 min.	Raise et al.2020