

Xanthan Gum

Handling/Processing

Identification of Petitioned Substance

| | |
|----|--|
| 16 | |
| 17 | GRINDSTED® Xanthan |
| 18 | NovaXan™ |
| 19 | Ticaxan® |
| 20 | Ziboxan® |
| 21 | |
| 22 | CAS Number: 11138-66-2 |
| 23 | Other Codes: EINECS No. 234-394-2 E415 INS 415 |

Summary of Petitioned Use

Xanthan gum is currently included on the National List of Allowed and Prohibited Substances (hereafter referred to as the National List) as a nonagricultural (nonorganic), synthetic substance allowed as an ingredient in or on processed products labeled “organic” or “made with organic (specified ingredients or food group(s))” (7 CFR 205.605[b]). Xanthan gum is used in a variety of food items as a stabilizer, thickener, and emulsifier with texturizing attributes, typically at concentrations of 0.05% to 0.5% by weight of the processed food (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Sworn, 2009; Jungbunzlauer, 2015; TIC Gums, Inc., 2015a).

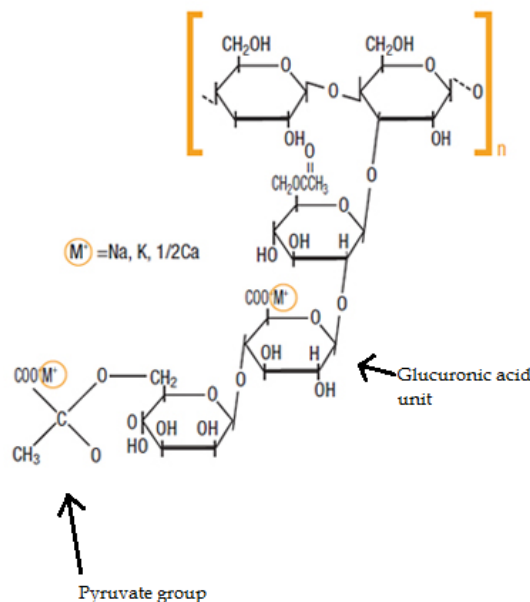
Characterization of Petitioned Substance

Composition of the Substance:

Xanthan gum is a high-molecular-weight polysaccharide produced by pure-culture fermentation of a carbohydrate (e.g., glucose, sucrose) with the bacterium *Xanthomonas campestris* (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). The polysaccharide secreted by the bacterium is harvested by precipitation with an alcohol. It is usually manufactured as a sodium, potassium, or calcium salt that is readily soluble in water (EFSA, 2011; García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Xanthan gum is a hydrocolloid, a substance that disperses in water, providing a thickening or gelling effect by increasing the viscosity of a solution.

The general structure of xanthan gum (see Figure 1) consists of a cellulose backbone with trisaccharide side chains (Belitz et al., 2009). Repeated pentasaccharide units are formed by two molecules of glucose, two molecules of mannose (a carbohydrate), and one molecule of glucuronic acid (an oxidized glucose molecule). The glucose backbone is protected from chemical attack (e.g., from acids, alkalis, or food enzymes) by the large overlapping side chains each consisting of a glucuronic acid unit between two mannose units. When xanthan gum is dissolved in solution, the side chains wrap around the backbone, and it is thought that this contributes to the stability of xanthan gum under adverse conditions such as acidic and high salt environments (Sworn, 2009). The side chains carry a negative charge due to the presence of glucuronic acid and pyruvate groups that are neutralized by manufacturers using positively charged sodium, potassium, or calcium ions (see Figure 1)(Cargill, 2016b). A pyruvate group is a three-carbon biological molecule that plays an important role in biochemical pathways. The amount of pyruvate groups in commercial xanthan gum will vary depending on the fermentation conditions. This affects the viscosity of xanthan gum solutions because the presence of fewer pyruvate groups corresponds to a more viscous solution when stationary that is more free flowing when poured (Burdock, 2006).

57 Various bacteria in the *Xanthomonas* genus can be used to create xanthan gum although the resulting
58 polysaccharide composition may vary slightly (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Xanthan gum is a stiff, high-molecular-
59 weight molecule that can aggregate, which makes exact molecular weight values difficult to obtain (Born, 2005).
60 The xanthan gum molecule has been observed to have two conformations (i.e., molecular shapes): helix and
61 random coil. When xanthan gum is in solid form, its molecular structure is a rigid helix. In solution, xanthan gum
62 can undergo a conformational change during heating to a more flexible, disordered state at high temperatures
63 (Sworn, 2011).
64
65



66
67 **Figure 1: Molecular Structure of Xanthan Gum (Cargill, 2016b)**
68
69

70 **Source or Origin of the Substance:**

71 Xanthan gum was discovered in the 1950s at the Northern Regional Research Laboratories of the United
72 States Department of Agriculture (USDA), and its commercial production began in 1964 by Kelco
73 Company (later to become CP Kelco). In the literature, xanthan gum is typically described as a natural,
74 extracellular polysaccharide produced by most bacteria of the *Xanthomonas* genus as part of the capsule or
75 outer covering of the cells (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). This extracellular polysaccharide is a secondary
76 metabolite¹ of the bacteria, and it helps to prolong survival and increase resistance of the bacteria to
77 temperature and ultraviolet (UV) light. Xanthan gum is the major component of the bacterial slime
78 produced by *Xanthomonas* species (Born et al., 2005). The species used to commercially produce food-grade
79 xanthan gum is *X. campestris*. It is an obligate aerobe, meaning that it requires oxygen for metabolism. It is a
80 gram-negative, short, rod-shaped bacterium. Its colonies are usually yellow, smooth, and viscid (i.e.,
81 gummy) (García-Ochoa et al., 2000).
82

83 All members of the *Xanthomonas* genus are plant pathogens that infect a wide variety of plants (García-Ochoa
84 et al., 2000). Different *X. campestris* strains are the causative agents of many plant diseases, including black
85 rot in members of the *Brassicaceae* family – such as cauliflower, broccoli and cabbage – and common
86 bacterial blight of bean. *Xanthomonas* species (with the exception of *X. maltophilia*) are plant-associated
87 bacteria that are not typically encountered in other environments (Hayward, 1993). *X. campestris* is not
88 known to be pathogenic or toxic to humans (21 CFR 172.695).
89

¹ A secondary metabolite is a molecule produced by a microorganism that is not essential to its growth but serves survival functions. Other examples of secondary metabolites of microorganisms include antibiotics and cholesterol-lowering drugs (Demain and Fang, 2000; Ruiz et al., 2010).

90 Xanthan gum is commercially produced by pure-culture fermentation of a carbohydrate with *X. campestris*.
91 The gum is recovered from the fermentation broth using alcohol precipitation. It is then dewatered, dried,
92 and milled into a fine powder (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). A complex growth medium is needed for the
93 biofermentation of xanthan gum, including a carbohydrate source, nitrogen source, and several
94 micronutrients (e.g., potassium, iron, and calcium salts) (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Glucose and sucrose
95 are the most commonly used carbohydrates in the production of food-grade xanthan gum (Palaniraj and
96 Jayaraman, 2011; García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Glucose syrup used in the fermentation process is usually
97 derived from maize (i.e., corn) or wheat (Biopolymer International, 2015).

98
99 The fermentation process most commonly used to produce xanthan gum takes about 100 hours in a stirred
100 tank fermenter while oxygen is bubbled through the liquid (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011). The pH must
101 be maintained near 7.0 through the addition of a buffer or base such as potassium hydroxide (KOH)
102 (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Kuppaswami, 2014).

103
104 Before xanthan gum can be separated from the fermentation broth, the bacterial cells are deactivated, lysed
105 (i.e., broken open), and/or removed. Usually, the broth is pasteurized to kill the bacterial cells, and the cells
106 are removed from the diluted broth using centrifugation or filtration (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Palaniraj
107 and Jayaraman, 2011). Xanthan gum is separated from the remaining mixture by precipitation with
108 isopropyl alcohol in accordance with U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations (21 CFR
109 172.695). The gum is mechanically dewatered by means of pressing or centrifugation (Kuppaswami, 2014).
110 After that, it may be washed with a salt solution (e.g., potassium chloride) to achieve the desired purity
111 and dewatered again (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011). Finally, the precipitate is dried and milled to a fine
112 powder (García-Ochoa et al., 2000).

113 114 **Properties of the Substance:**

115 Commercial formulations of xanthan gum are dry, odorless, off-white to pale yellow, free-flowing powders
116 or granules that are water soluble (Kuppaswami, 2014; García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Bergfeld et al., 2012).
117 According to the manufacturer Cargill, xanthan gum is highly soluble in both hot and cold water, as its
118 negatively charged side chains enhance its ability to dissolve (Cargill, 2016b). Xanthan gum is available in
119 different mesh sizes and grades, such as rapidly hydrating, brine-tolerant, and/or clarified grade (i.e.,
120 larger particle size containing little to no dust to yield clear solutions) (Seisun, 2010). Xanthan gum's pH is
121 near neutral by itself (Bergfeld et al., 2012), and xanthan gum is stable at a wide range of pH. The viscosity
122 of xanthan gum solutions is stable at a wide range of temperatures and can withstand freeze-thaw cycles
123 (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011). According to the manufacturer Cargill, the viscosity of xanthan gum
124 solutions is also unaffected by the addition of even large amounts of salt (Cargill, 2016b).

125
126 Xanthan gum solutions are highly pseudoplastic, meaning that they exhibit low viscosity when shear
127 forces are applied, but they immediately regain their initial viscosity when shear forces are removed. This
128 occurs because applied shear force disrupts the network of entangled, stiff xanthan molecules (Sworn,
129 2009). The pseudoplasticity of xanthan gum solutions is important during the processing of food products
130 (e.g., for ease of filling, pouring, pumping, and spraying). It is also important for the desired cling and
131 mouthfeel of food products (Sworn, 2011). Xanthan gum solutions are more pseudoplastic than most other
132 food thickeners and they develop a higher viscosity at much lower concentrations (Sworn, 2011).

133 134 **Specific Uses of the Substance:**

135 Xanthan gum is used as a food additive in a wide variety of processed foods, including baked goods,
136 beverages, dairy products, dressings, dietetic foods and beverages, dry mixes, frozen foods, gravies, meat
137 products, pet foods, sauces, fruit preparations, soups, syrups, and toppings (Kuppaswami, 2014; Palaniraj
138 and Jayaraman, 2011; Van Dyne, 2015). Xanthan gum can function as a thickener, stabilizer, emulsifier,
139 suspending agent, bodying agent, and foam enhancer in foods (21 CFR 172.695). It is primarily added to
140 improve flavor release, appearance, water-control properties, and viscosity of food. Some of the functions
141 of xanthan gum in specific food products are provided in Table 1; however, this list is not complete due to
142 the wide variety of applications of xanthan gum in many different processed foods.

143

144 Typical usage levels for xanthan gum in food range from 0.05% to 0.5% by weight (García-Ochoa et al.,
 145 2000; Sworn, 2009; Jungbunzlauer, 2015; TIC Gums, Inc., 2015a). According to one manufacturer (CP
 146 Kelco), xanthan gum is usually present at less than 0.05% in foods due to its self-limiting nature (Van Dyne,
 147 2015). It is often added with other gums, such as guar gum or locust bean gum, to augment stabilization
 148 and binding (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011). Xanthan gum is commercially available to consumers for use
 149 in gluten-free baking and other recipes (Rimmer, 2015).

150
 151
 152 **Table 1: Uses of Xanthan Gum in Food Products**

| Food Application/Product | Function of Xanthan Gum | Sources |
|----------------------------|--|---|
| Salad dressings | Provides easy pourability, good cling; stabilizes emulsions; provides desirable body and improves flavor release; acts as partial replacement for starch or fat in reduced calorie dressings | Sharma et al., 2006; García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011; U.S. FDA, 2010 |
| Bakery products | Binds water during baking and storage; extends shelf life; improves texture; acts as an egg replacer in soft baked goods; provides expected texture in reduced-fat foods | Sharma et al., 2006; U.S. FDA, 2010 |
| Beverages | Enhances mouthfeel; suspends fruit pulp; stabilizes the suspension of insoluble ingredients | Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011; García-Ochoa et al., 2000 |
| Dry mixes | Provides enhanced body and rapid viscosity development to reconstituted drinks; eases dispersion in hot or cold water | Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011; García-Ochoa et al., 2000 |
| Frozen foods | Improves freeze/thaw stability; retards formation of ice or sugar crystals | García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Kuppaswami, 2014 |
| Relishes | Maintains uniform distribution and eliminates loss of liquor during handling | Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011; Rosalam and England, 2006 |
| Syrups and toppings | Increases viscosity and thickness/firmness; improves freeze-thaw stability | Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011; García-Ochoa et al., 2000 |
| Pet foods | Stabilizes, binds ingredients in canned gravy based food; produces gelled product along with locust bean gum or guar gum | Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011 |
| Prepared foods | Stabilizes emulsions and suspensions; avoids syneresis (i.e., separation of a liquid from a gel) | Sharma et al., 2006 |
| Soups, sauces, and gravies | Provides temperature stability; prevents separation | Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011 |
| Dairy products | Inhibits syneresis; stabilizes emulsions; improves consistency, body, and viscosity control; provides expected texture and creamy mouthfeel in reduced-fat foods | Sharma et al., 2006; García-Ochoa et al., 2000; U.S. FDA, 2010 |
| Gluten-free breads | Mimics viscoelastic properties of gluten; provides desired crumb structure | Hager and Arendt, 2013 |
| Meat products | Binds water; inhibits syneresis; provides viscosity for marinades | Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011; Lamkey, 2009 |

154
 155
 156 In addition to its uses in the food industry, xanthan gum is used in cosmetics (Bergfeld et al., 2012),
 157 personal care products (e.g., toothpaste, shampoo, lotions), pharmaceuticals, household cleaners, polishes,
 158 water-based paints, adhesives, and agricultural chemicals. It is also used in the textile, paper, oil drilling,
 159 and enhanced oil recovery industries (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011).

160
 161 **Approved Legal Uses of the Substance:**

162 Xanthan gum has been approved by FDA for use as a food additive without any specific quantity
 163 limitations. FDA requires that food-grade xanthan gum be derived from *X. campestris* by a pure-culture
 164 fermentation process and purified by recovery with isopropyl alcohol (residual isopropyl alcohol not to
 165 exceed 750 parts per million (ppm)). Also, food-grade xanthan gum must be manufactured as the sodium,

166 potassium, or calcium salt (21 CFR 172.695). As stated in the Summary of Petitioned Use, xanthan gum is
167 currently included on the National List as a nonagricultural (nonorganic), synthetic substance allowed as
168 an ingredient in or on processed products labeled “organic” or “made with organic (specified ingredients
169 or food group(s))” (7 CFR 205.605[b]).
170

171 Xanthan gum has also been approved by FDA for use in the preparation of cheeses and related cheese
172 products under specific limitations. In cold-pack cheese food, xanthan gum levels may not exceed 0.3% of
173 the weight of the finished food (21 CFR 133.124). In the particular case of Neufchatel cheese spread and
174 pasteurized cheese spread, xanthan gum may be used alone or in combination with one or more substances
175 on a particular list of ingredients, with the total quantity of such substances not to exceed 0.8% of the
176 weight of the finished food (21 CFR 133.178, 133.179).
177

178 In addition, FDA has approved xanthan gum as an indirect food additive in paper, cardboard, and
179 ethylene-vinyl acetate copolymers that may come into contact with food products. In paper and cardboard
180 products, xanthan gum must adhere to the same standards as put forth in 21 CFR 172.695 (see above), but
181 may only be used at a maximum level of 0.125% by weight of the finished paper. Furthermore, isopropyl
182 alcohol residuals may not exceed 6,000 ppm in these products containing xanthan gum (21 CFR 176.170).
183 Xanthan gum may also be used as a thickening agent at levels of less than 1% by weight of coating solids in
184 aqueous dispersions of ethylene-vinyl acetate copolymers when these copolymers are used as coatings or
185 as a part of coatings (21 CFR 177.1350).
186

187 FDA has also approved xanthan gum for use as a food additive permitted in feed and drinking water of
188 animals (21 CFR 573.1010).
189

190 Xanthan gum is approved by U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) as a minimal risk inert
191 ingredient in pesticide formulations and is exempt from the requirement of a tolerance on food items (40
192 CFR 180.950(e)).
193

194 **Action of the Substance:**

195 Xanthan gum is a hydrocolloid that adds many desired qualities to food items, typically in amounts
196 ranging from 0.05% to 0.5% by weight (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Sworn, 2009; Jungbunzlauer, 2015; TIC
197 Gums, Inc., 2015a). Hydrocolloids are substances that disperse in water, providing a thickening or gelling
198 effect. In the presence of salts or other hydrocolloids, these can produce gels or increase the viscosity of an
199 item (Born et al., 2005). For example, when combined with locust bean gum, xanthan gum can form a gel;
200 when combined with guar gum, xanthan gum solutions help increase viscosity. As a solid, xanthan gum
201 molecules have a rigid helical structure. When melted in the presence of small quantities of salt, this rigid
202 structure becomes disorganized but stable, which causes a thickening effect. High viscosities are achieved
203 even when xanthan gum is present in small concentrations (Saha and Bhattacharya, 2010; Cargill, 2016b).
204

205 Xanthan gum and other hydrocolloids thicken solutions through the nonspecific entanglement of their long
206 molecular chains (i.e., interactions not at specific binding sites). When hydrocolloids are present in a
207 suspension in very dilute concentrations, their individual molecules can move freely and do not cause a
208 thickening effect. As their concentration increases, movement of the molecules is restricted as they begin to
209 come in contact with one another. The disordered molecular chains become entangled in a nonspecific
210 way, and this transition to an entangled network is the process of thickening (Saha and Bhattacharya,
211 2010).
212

213 Xanthan gum is an effective suspending and dispersing agent, thickener, and stabilizer of emulsions,
214 suspensions, and foams. It provides viscosity control, prevents separation of ingredients, increases water
215 binding, and inhibits syneresis (the separation of liquid from a gel) (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Palaniraj and
216 Jayaraman, 2011). Xanthan gum can stabilize food items at a wide range of pH and at high temperatures. It
217 can also assist with flavor release and texturization (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011).
218

Combinations of the Substance:

Xanthan gum may be used alone or in combination with other thickeners, stabilizers, emulsifiers, and gelling agents that are included on the National List and allowed for use in organic handling and processing. These include: carrageenan, guar gum, and locust bean gum (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011); konjac flour (Cargill, 2016b); gum arabic (acacia gum) (Ingredients Network, 2016); alginates and pectin (Ward, 2007); and gellan gum and starches (Saha and Bhattacharya, 2010). Nonorganically produced guar gum, locust bean gum, and gum arabic may be used in processed products labeled as “organic” only when organic forms are not commercially available. A limited number of sources indicate that organic versions of these gums may be available (Danisco, undated; TIC Gums, Inc., 2015b).

Xanthan synergistically interacts with galactomannans², such a locust bean gum, guar gum, cassia gum, and tara gum, and with konjac glucomannan (Sworn, 2009). These interactions cause a synergistic increase in viscosity or gelation. While gelling is not one of xanthan gum’s major functions in food, it will help form a gel when combined with locust bean gum, konjac, or tara gum (Cargill, 2016b; Ingredient Solutions, Inc., 2016). Saha and Bhattacharya (2010) report that xanthan gum and guar gum (nongelling agents) are often combined with carrageenan and locust bean gum (gelling agents) to enhance viscosity of mixtures and elasticity of gels. They also report that xanthan gum can be combined with gellan gum to produce ready-to-eat dessert gels.

In baked goods, a combination of sodium alginates and xanthan gum may help increase batter viscosity and cake volume (Ward, 2007). In protein beverages, combining pectin with guar gum or xanthan gum can help stabilize the suspension (Ward, 2007).

Xanthan gum is often used in combination with starches to provide thickening and stability. While starches are the most commonly used hydrocolloid thickeners, other gums are often added to starches to improve the texture and mouthfeel of foods (Saha and Bhattacharya, 2010). In baked goods, xanthan gum helps to inhibit starch retrogradation (e.g., the staling of bread), thereby extending the shelf life of a product (Ward, 2007). In addition, xanthan gum may be added to starch gels to improve their freeze-thaw stability (Belitz et al., 2009).

Blends of xanthan gum, carrageenan, guar gum, and locust bean gum are used as stabilizers for frozen and chilled dairy products such as ice cream, sherbet, sour cream, whipping cream, and recombined milk (Sworn, 2009). These blends help to provide optimal viscosity, long-term stability, improved heat transfer during processing, protection from heat shock, and ice crystal control (Sworn, 2009). Xanthan gum is often added to carrageenan blends for use in meat brines and other meat applications (Lamkey, 2009). Commercially available blends also include xanthan gum and guar gum (Vedeqsa, 2010a), xanthan gum with both guar gum and locust bean gum (Vedeqsa, 2010b), and xanthan gum with gum arabic (acacia gum) (Ingredients Network, 2016).

Aside from the hydrocolloids mentioned above, additional ingredients or ancillary substances are not commonly added to commercially available forms of xanthan gum for use in foods (Wyard, 2015). Only a couple of exceptions to this were found through a search of publically available specification sheets. One commercially available xanthan and guar gum blend is standardized through the addition of glucose (Vedeqsa, 2010a). The product GRINDSTED® Xanthan Ultra is pre-dispersed by adding 1% polysorbate 60 (Danisco, 2006). Polysorbate 60 is a synthetic food additive not included on the National List.

Status**Historic Use:**

Researchers at the Northern Regional Research Laboratory of the USDA discovered xanthan gum while identifying microorganisms that produced water-soluble gums of commercial interest. Industrial production of xanthan gum started in 1960, and substantial commercial production began in 1964 (Born et

² Galactomannans are polysaccharides that are mostly extracted or isolated from plant seeds and consist mainly of the monosaccharides mannose and galactose (Wielinga, 2009).

271 al., 2005). By 1969, FDA gave approval for food use without any specific quantity limitations after
272 toxicological and safety studies showed no significant health effects in short- and long-term feeding studies
273 in rats or dogs and a reproduction study in rats (Kang and Pettitt, 1993). Approval in Canada occurred in
274 1971 (Pettitt, 1979); the FAO/WHO (Food and Agricultural Organization/World Health Organization)
275 specifications were passed in 1974; and approval in Europe occurred in 1982 (Born et al., 2005). Many other
276 countries have also approved xanthan gum for use in foods.

277
278 Worldwide annual production of xanthan gum is approximately 100,000 metric tons (Kreyenschulte et al.,
279 2014), with about 65% being used by the food industry (Lopes et al., 2015). Global demand for xanthan
280 gum is increasing as its range of applications is broadening (Lopes et al., 2015; Kuppuswami, 2014). Its
281 versatility and unique properties have made it a hydrocolloid of choice in many industries (Kuppuswami,
282 2014).

283
284 **Organic Foods Production Act, USDA Final Rule:**
285 Xanthan gum is listed under 7 CFR 205.605(b) of the National List of Allowed and Prohibited Substances as
286 a nonagricultural (nonorganic) substances allowed as ingredients in or on processed products labeled as
287 “organic” or “made with organic (specified ingredients or food group(s)).” Xanthan gum is classified as a
288 synthetic product, allowed with no further annotations.

289
290 **International:**
291 **Canadian General Standards Board (CGSB)**
292 Xanthan gum is permitted as a food additive for use in organic handling and processing in Canada
293 according to the most recent November 2015 amendment of the Canadian Organic Production Systems
294 Permitted Substances Lists. It may be derived using isopropyl alcohol or any other substances listed as
295 extraction solvents, carriers, and precipitation aids in Table 6.3 of the standard (CGSB, 2015).

296
297 **CODEX Alimentarius Commission**
298 The Codex Alimentarius Commission of the Joint FAO/WHO Food Standards Programme lists xanthan
299 gum as a food additive permitted for use in organic food production to perform all functions in foods of
300 plant origin. It is not permitted in foods of animal origin. Its use is restricted to fats and oils, fat emulsions,
301 fruits and vegetables (including mushrooms and fungi, roots and tubers, pulses and legumes, and aloe
302 vera), seaweeds, nuts and seeds, bakery wares, and salads (e.g., macaroni salad, potato salad). Xanthan
303 gum is considered an ingredient of nonagricultural origin that may be used in products labelled as organic
304 (Codex Alimentarius Commission, 2013).

305
306 **European Economic Community (EEC) Council Regulation, EC No. 834/2007 and 889/2008**
307 The European Union allows the use of xanthan gum in the production of processed organic foods as a food
308 additive in the preparation of foodstuffs of plant or animal origin with no specific limitations. It is
309 classified as an ingredient of nonagricultural origin (Commission of the European Communities, 2008).

310
311 **Japan Agricultural Standard (JAS) for Organic Production**
312 Xanthan gum is allowed as a food additive under Article 4 of the Japanese Agriculture Standard for
313 Organic Processed Foods. Article 4 addresses criteria of production methods for organic processed foods
314 and allows xanthan gum as a food additive ingredient in processed foods of plants and animal origin. In
315 the case of foods of animal origin, its use is limited to dairy or confectionary products (Japanese MAFF,
316 2012).

317
318 **International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movement (IFOAM)**
319 The International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movement (IFOAM) permits the use of xanthan gum
320 as an additive in organic processed products with no further limitations or notes (IFOAM, 2014).

321
322 **Other International Organic Standards**
323 Xanthan gum is allowed for use in organic food processing as an additive only for fat, fruit and vegetable
324 products, and cakes and biscuits by the Pacific Organic Standard (Secretariat of the Pacific Community,
325 2008) and by the East African Organic Product standard (East African Community, 2007).

Evaluation Questions for Substances to be used in Organic Handling

Evaluation Question #1: Describe the most prevalent processes used to manufacture or formulate the petitioned substance. Further, describe any chemical change that may occur during manufacture or formulation of the petitioned substance when this substance is extracted from naturally occurring plant, animal, or mineral sources (7 U.S.C. § 6502 (21)).

Xanthan gum is commercially produced by aerobic fermentation using the bacterium *Xanthomonas campestris* in a broth containing a carbohydrate (usually glucose), a nitrogen source, and mineral salts. The gum is recovered from the fermentation broth using alcohol precipitation (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011). The following factors can affect the yield and structure of the xanthan gum produced: type of fermentation vessel used, mode of operation (batch or continuous), medium composition, and culture conditions including temperature, pH, and dissolved oxygen concentration (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011).

Commercial production of xanthan gum involves several steps. The first step is selecting the appropriate strain of *X. campestris* to produce the desired properties and preserving it for long-term storage. Next, a small amount of the preserved culture is expanded using a multistage buildup from agar plates to shake flasks to small seed fermentation vessels to the final large fermentation vessel (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011; Biopolymer International, 2015). The type of bioreactor used by most xanthan gum producers is the sparged stirred tank fermenter (sparging refers to bubbling oxygen through the liquid) (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011).

A complex growth medium is utilized for the fermentation broth. *X. campestris* needs several micronutrients (e.g., potassium, iron, and calcium salts) and macronutrients (including carbohydrate and nitrogen sources) in order to produce xanthan gum (García-Ochoa et al., 2000).

Glucose and sucrose are the most commonly used carbohydrates in the production of food-grade xanthan gum (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011; García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Biopolymer International, a world-wide association of xanthan gum manufacturers, reports that glucose syrup derived from maize (i.e., corn) or wheat is the main carbon source employed by its members (Biopolymer International, 2015). Other carbon substrates such as maltose, soluble starch, and agro-industrial waste products (e.g., sugar cane broth, sugar-beet molasses, and cheese whey) have been shown to be potential substrates for xanthan gum production (Kreyenschulte et al., 2014). Studies have indicated that the highest xanthan gum yield is achieved with 2-5% glucose as the carbon source (Kreyenschulte et al., 2014).

The source of nitrogen in the growth medium might be an organic compound, such as glutamate, and/or inorganic molecules, such as ammonium or nitrate salts (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011; Biopolymer International, 2015). The use of complex nitrogen sources such as yeast extract, soy-meal peptone, and soybean whey have also been reported (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011).

Micronutrients added to the fermentation broth may include sources of potassium, phosphorus, sodium, magnesium, boron, zinc, iron, sulfur, calcium, and hydrogen (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Small levels of organic acids such as succinic acid and citric acid may also be added to the growth medium to serve as pH buffering agents and nutrients for *X. campestris* (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Carignatto et al., 2011).

During batch production of xanthan gum, the fermentation process is carried out for about 100 hours at a temperature of 25-34 degrees Celsius (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011). The pH of the fermentation broth decreases due to the formation of acid groups present in xanthan gum. In order to maintain the pH of the broth at 7.0 (neutral), the pH is adjusted using a buffer or by adding of bases (e.g., KOH, NaOH, NH₄OH) (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Potassium hydroxide (KOH) solution is the most common tool used to control the fermentation broth pH during production of xanthan gum (Kuppuswami, 2014).

380 Recovery of xanthan gum from the fermentation broth is difficult and costly due to the high viscosity of the
381 broth. The main steps of recovery are deactivation and/or removal of the bacterial cells, precipitation of
382 xanthan gum, dewatering, drying, and milling of the final product (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011).

383
384 Many different methods are employed to deactivate, lyse, and remove the bacterial cells from the
385 fermentation broth. The broth may be treated with chemicals (e.g., alkali, hypochlorite, enzymes), but care
386 must be taken not to degrade the biopolymer (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). The types of enzymes employed
387 for this are proteolytic and lytic enzymes that can break down the bacterial cells into low-molecular-weight
388 molecules (Kuppuswami, 2014). Instead of using chemical treatment, the broth is usually pasteurized at
389 80–130 degrees Celsius to kill the bacterial cells (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Following pasteurization, the
390 broth may be diluted with water, alcohol, or mixtures of alcohol and salts in low quantities. This is done to
391 reduce the viscosity. Then, the bacterial cell biomass is removed from the broth using centrifugation or
392 filtration (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011).

393
394 Once the bacterial cells are removed from the broth, xanthan gum is separated from the remaining mixture
395 using precipitation or concentration by evaporation (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). The most common
396 technique applied is precipitation using water miscible nonsolvents for xanthan gum, such as isopropyl
397 alcohol or ethanol (Kuppuswami, 2014). Current FDA food additive regulations require that food grade
398 xanthan gum be purified by recovery with isopropyl alcohol (21 CFR 172.695). García-Ochoa et al. (2000)
399 and Palaniraj and Jayaraman (2011) report that three volumes of isopropyl alcohol are needed per volume
400 of broth to achieve total precipitation of the gum. The alcohol also functions to wash out impurities such as
401 colored components, salts, and cells (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Increasing the salt content of the
402 fermentation broth prior to precipitation (usually done with potassium chloride) lowers the amount of
403 isopropyl alcohol needed by about 30% (Kuppuswami, 2014). Likewise, when ultrafiltration is used to
404 concentrate the fermentation broth prior to alcohol precipitation, the energy and alcohol requirements are
405 greatly reduced (Lo et al. 1996; Lo et al., 1997).

406
407 Once xanthan gum is separated from the fermentation broth as a wet precipitate, it is mechanically
408 dewatered by means of pressing or centrifugation (Kuppuswami, 2014). After that, it may be washed with
409 a salt solution (e.g., potassium chloride) to achieve the desired purity and dewatered again (Palaniraj and
410 Jayaraman, 2011). Finally, the precipitate is dried using forced-air driers (with an inert gas), vacuum driers,
411 drum driers, or spray driers. The dried precipitate is milled to a powder with a predetermined mesh size
412 and packed into containers with a low permeability to water (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Palaniraj and
413 Jayaraman, 2011; Kuppuswami, 2014).

414 *Additional Information on Precursors and Feedstocks of Xanthan Gum*

416 Regarding the use of genetically modified organisms (GMOs) during the production of xanthan gum, the
417 manufacturer's association Biopolymer International released a position statement on its website which
418 states that the microorganism used by its members to produce xanthan gum is not a genetically modified
419 organism as defined in the EC (European Commission) Directives (Biopolymer International, 2005). No
420 other sources were found to indicate the extent to which genetically modified strains of *X. campestris* are
421 being used commercially. Biopolymer International also reports that some of the organic nutrients used by
422 its members during fermentation may be derived from crops "for which genetically modified variants may
423 be available besides the conventional ones." However, the nutrients are reportedly metabolized during
424 fermentation, and their residues are removed during the extraction and purification steps (Biopolymer
425 International, 2005). At least two commercial non-GMO xanthan products are available (TIC Gums, Inc.,
426 2015a; Danisco, 2016). The manufacturers of these products report that the substrates and raw materials
427 used during fermentation are not produced from GMOs.

428
429 **Evaluation Question #2: Discuss whether the petitioned substance is formulated or manufactured by a**
430 **chemical process, or created by naturally occurring biological processes (7 U.S.C. § 6502 (21)). Discuss**
431 **whether the petitioned substance is derived from an agricultural source.**

432
433 The available sources indicate that xanthan gum for use as a food additive is created by a naturally
434 occurring biological process, namely pure culture fermentation of a carbohydrate with the microorganism

435 *X. campestris* (see response to Evaluation Question #1). However, the commercially available sources of
436 xanthan gum involve production steps that do not occur in nature. Xanthan gum is separated from the
437 fermentation medium using precipitation with a synthetic, nonmiscible solvent (isopropyl alcohol).
438 Physical and mechanical methods that are also used during the purification and processing of the final
439 product may include: thermal pasteurization, filtration, ultrafiltration, centrifugation, washing with salt
440 solutions (e.g., potassium chloride), and pressing. The following chemical methods may also be used by
441 some manufacturers: deactivation of the bacterial cells in the broth using chemicals such as alkali,
442 hypochlorite, or proteolytic and lytic enzymes that may unintentionally alter the xanthan gum (i.e., by
443 removing pyruvate groups from the side chains) (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). However, these chemical
444 methods are not necessary if pasteurization is used.

445
446 As described above, pure culture fermentation is the primary method of fermentation used to
447 commercially produce xanthan gum. In this type of fermentation, a single species of microorganism is
448 grown. Another type of fermentation process used in the food industry is mixed-culture fermentation, a
449 process that involves multiple species of microorganisms. Mixed-culture fermentation is the norm in
450 nature because many types of microorganisms exist together and compete for resources (Hesseltine, 1992).

451
452 The complex liquid growth medium that is utilized for the fermentation of xanthan gum is not an
453 agricultural source; however, some of the possible substrates and nutrients used during fermentation are
454 agricultural sources or derived from agricultural sources. These include glucose, sucrose and maltose
455 syrups, soybean whey, soy-meal peptone, sugar cane broth, sugar-beet molasses and cheese whey.

456
457 During the fermentation of xanthan gum, conditions must be carefully controlled for optimal yield,
458 structure, viscosity, and flow behavior (García-Ochoa et al., 2000; Lopes et al., 2015). These conditions
459 include temperature, pH, agitation speed, aeration, and fermentation time (Lopes et al., 2015). The
460 manufacturer CP Kelco reports that, “The composition and structure of xanthan gum produced by
461 commercial fermentation is identical to the naturally occurring polysaccharide formed by *Xanthomonas*
462 *campestris* on plants belonging to the cabbage family” (CP Kelco, 2016). No sources were found that directly
463 contradict this assertion; however, the molecular weight of xanthan gum and the extent of pyruvic acid and
464 acetyl substitutions on the side chains of the xanthan gum compound are known to depend upon variables
465 such as the specific *Xanthomonas* strain used for fermentation, the composition of the fermentation medium,
466 and the operational conditions used (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). Natural variations in the structure of
467 xanthan gum are known to occur, and an increased understanding and control of its structural changes in
468 the future could lead to new and improved uses of xanthan gum (Sworn, 2009).

469
470 As mentioned in response to Evaluation Question #1, chemicals (e.g., alkali, hypochlorite, enzymes) may
471 be used to deactivate or kill the bacterial cells once fermentation of xanthan gum is complete (García-Ochoa
472 et al., 2000). These chemicals may unintentionally alter the xanthan gum molecule causing removal of some
473 of the pyruvate groups from the side chains. However, most of the available sources do not mention the
474 use of chemical methods to deactivate or kill the bacterial cells. Instead, the fermentation broth is usually
475 pasteurized to kill the bacterial cells (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). The manufacturer’s association Biopolymer
476 International (whose members include six major xanthan gum producers) reports that the fermentation
477 broth is pasteurized to kill all the bacterial cells (Biopolymer International, 2015).

478
479 As stated in FDA regulations, food-grade xanthan gum is manufactured as a sodium, potassium, or
480 calcium salt (21 CFR 172.695). The presence of glucuronic acid and pyruvate groups on the side branches,
481 as shown in Figure 1, give xanthan gum a highly negative charge. Manufacturers neutralize these acid
482 groups by adding positively-charged sodium, potassium, or calcium ions (Cargill, 2016b).

483
484 Current FDA food additive regulations require that food-grade xanthan gum be purified by recovery with
485 isopropyl alcohol specifically (21 CFR 172.695). Written public comments from the manufacturer CP Kelco
486 and the Organic Materials Review Institute (OMRI) report that during the alcohol precipitation step,
487 xanthan gum is recovered from the fermentation broth without chemically altering the xanthan gum (Van
488 Dyne, 2015; Miars and Fernandez-Salvador, 2015). Isopropyl alcohol is added to the fermentation broth to
489 cause the xanthan gum compound to precipitate out of solution. Xanthan gum is highly soluble in hot and

490 cold water. To separate it from the aqueous fermentation broth, the solvent isopropyl alcohol is added
491 because xanthan gum is not miscible in this solvent. Adding this solvent reduces the solubility of xanthan
492 gum until phase separation occurs and xanthan gum forms a solid precipitate (García-Ochoa et al., 2000).
493 In addition, impurities in the fermentation broth, such as colored components, salts, and cells are “washed
494 out” with the isopropyl alcohol (García-Ochoa et al., 2000). OMRI reports that residual isopropyl alcohol is
495 removed from the xanthan gum using flash evaporation (Miars and Fernandez-Salvador, 2015), but no
496 mention of this was found in the other available sources. FDA regulations require that the final food
497 additive contains no more than 750 ppm residual isopropyl alcohol (21 CFR 172.695). No other information
498 was found to suggest any other synthetic materials used in the production and extraction of xanthan gum
499 may remain in the final product. The Food Chemicals Codex (FCC) monograph for xanthan gum lists
500 impurity acceptance criteria only for lead, isopropyl alcohol, and ethanol (which may be used for
501 precipitation of xanthan gum products not sold in the U.S.) (U.S. Pharmacopeia, 2012).

502

503 **Evaluation Question #3: If the substance is a synthetic substance, provide a list of nonsynthetic or**
504 **natural source(s) of the petitioned substance (7 CFR § 205.600 (b) (1)).**

505

506 Although xanthan gum is produced in nature by *Xanthomonas campestris* and related bacterial species, there
507 is no evidence that other commercially available natural sources of xanthan gum exist. All commercial-
508 scale xanthan gum manufacturing for use as a food additive begins with a naturally occurring biological
509 process (i.e., pure-culture fermentation) that takes place in an artificially controlled production system (e.g.,
510 temperature and pH are regulated for optimal yield). Synthetic nutrients are used in the fermentation
511 process, and the xanthan gum is recovered from the fermentation broth by precipitation with a synthetic
512 solvent (isopropyl alcohol).

513

514 Based on the most commonly used manufacturing techniques reported in the available sources (both from
515 manufacturers and scientific literature), no chemical modifications occur to the xanthan gum molecule after
516 it is produced during fermentation. The only exception to this may be if chemicals such as alkali,
517 hypochlorite, or proteolytic and lytic enzymes are used during the recovery and purification process that
518 intentionally or unintentionally alter the xanthan gum molecule (e.g., depyruvylation of the side chains)
519 (García-Ochoa et al., 2000); however, most of the available sources do not mention the use of these
520 chemical methods.

521

522 **Evaluation Question #4: Specify whether the petitioned substance is categorized as generally**
523 **recognized as safe (GRAS) when used according to FDA’s good manufacturing practices (7 CFR §**
524 **205.600 (b)(5)). If not categorized as GRAS, describe the regulatory status.**

525

526 Xanthan gum it is not affirmed as GRAS by FDA (U.S. FDA, 2015a); however, three different xanthan gum
527 preparations have been the subject of GRAS notices (U.S. FDA, 2015b). In a response letter to GRAS Notice
528 No. 000121, FDA had no questions regarding Ingredients Solutions’ conclusion that xanthan gum purified
529 by recovery with ethyl alcohol (ethanol) is GRAS (Tarantino, 2003). Similarly, in a response letter to GRAS
530 Notice No. 000211, the agency had no questions regarding Kelco’s conclusion that xanthan gum (reduced
531 pyruvate) is GRAS (Tarantino, 2007). Finally, in a response letter to GRAS Notice No. 000407, FDA had no
532 questions regarding Inovo Biologic’s conclusion that a polysaccharide complex of konjac glucomannan,
533 sodium alginate, and xanthan gum is GRAS (Keefe, 2012).

534

535 Although FDA had no questions as to the GRAS status of xanthan gum purified by recovery with ethanol
536 and reduced pyruvate xanthan gum under the intended conditions of use in foods, the agency did note
537 that those particular xanthan gum preparations do not comply with current FDA food additive regulations
538 for xanthan gum (21 CFR 172.695), which require the use of isopropyl alcohol for the recovery step and
539 pyruvic acid content greater than 1.5% by weight. Therefore, the xanthan gum food additive regulation
540 would have to be amended before those preparations could be legally used in foods.

541

542 **Evaluation Question #5: Describe whether the primary technical function or purpose of the petitioned**
543 **substance is a preservative. If so, provide a detailed description of its mechanism as a preservative (7**
544 **CFR § 205.600 (b)(4)).**

545
546 The primary technical functions of xanthan gum in foods include stabilizer, emulsifier, thickener,
547 suspending agent, bodying agent, and foam enhancer (21 CFR 172.695). As a result of those functions,
548 xanthan gum may also help to extend the shelf life of some products. Therefore, preservative could be
549 considered one of xanthan gum's secondary technical functions in foods.

550
551 As shown in Table 1, xanthan gum is used in many different food categories to stabilize emulsions, prevent
552 formation of ice crystals in frozen foods, inhibit syneresis (the separation of a liquid from a gel), or bind
553 water during the storage of a food item. These all help to preserve desirable characteristics in processed
554 food items. The trade association International Food Additives Council (IFAC) reports that xanthan gum is
555 used in bakery fillings to prevent water migration from the filling to the pastry, and that xanthan gum can
556 often be used to extend the shelf life of a product (IFAC, 2015). In addition, xanthan gum helps to inhibit
557 starch retrogradation (e.g., the staling of bread), thereby extending the shelf life of baked goods (Ward,
558 2007).

559
560 **Evaluation Question #6: Describe whether the petitioned substance will be used primarily to recreate**
561 **or improve flavors, colors, textures, or nutritive values lost in processing (except when required by law)**
562 **and how the substance recreates or improves any of these food/feed characteristics (7 CFR § 205.600**
563 **(b)(4)).**

564
565 Although xanthan gum functions to enhance the flavor and texture of many foods, there is no indication
566 that it is used to restore those characteristics after being lost due to processing. No information was found
567 to suggest that xanthan gum is used to recreate or improve flavors, colors, textures, or nutritive values lost
568 during processing.

569
570 Many of today's processed foods are manufactured to exhibit specific texture, viscosity, and flavor release
571 specifications that xanthan gum provides (Lopes et al., 2015; Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011). Xanthan gum
572 is used to produce the desired texture in ice cream and other frozen foods (Cargill, 2016c), enhance the
573 body and texture of beverages, and improve the texture of baked goods (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011). It
574 is also used to improve flavor release in salad dressings, sauces, gravies, dairy products, and bakery fillings
575 (Palaniraj and Jayaraman, 2011).

576
577 **Evaluation Question #7: Describe any effect or potential effect on the nutritional quality of the food or**
578 **feed when the petitioned substance is used (7 CFR § 205.600 (b)(3)).**

579
580 No information was found to indicate that xanthan gum has a negative or positive effect on the nutritional
581 quality of the food to which it is added; however, xanthan gum is a soluble dietary fiber, and has the
582 potential, along with other dietary fibers, to decrease mineral availability in the intestines (Baye et al.,
583 2015). This potential is based on laboratory studies that have shown how various fibers have mineral-
584 binding properties *in vitro* (e.g., cellulose, caboxymethylcellulose, lignin, pectin, psyllium, alginic acid, guar
585 gum, locust bean gum, xanthan gum, agar, carrageenan, gum arabic, gum karaya, gum tragacanth). By
586 contrast, animal and human *in vivo* studies of various soluble dietary fibers have failed to demonstrate
587 negative effects on mineral absorption, and some *in vivo* studies with fibers (e.g., pectin,
588 fructooligosaccharides) have shown positive effects on mineral absorption (Baye et al., 2015). One possible
589 reason for the difference observed between laboratory and *in vivo* studies is that fermentation of the fibers
590 in the colon may free bound minerals and offset the negative mineral-binding effects of the fibers (Baye et
591 al., 2015). The effect of dietary fibers on mineral absorption in humans is still unclear (Baye et al., 2015).

592
593 In one laboratory study, the addition of xanthan gum to standard infant formula showed no effect on the
594 availabilities of calcium, iron, or zinc; however, the availabilities of other nutrients were not studied
595 (Bosscher et al., 2003). In another laboratory study, xanthan gum was shown to bind zinc, calcium, and iron
596 in solutions (Debon and Tester, 2001). No other laboratory or human studies were found that assessed the
597 effects of xanthan gum on the absorption of minerals and trace elements.

598

599 **Evaluation Question #8: List any reported residues of heavy metals or other contaminants in excess of**
600 **FDA tolerances that are present or have been reported in the petitioned substance (7 CFR § 205.600**
601 **(b)(5)).**
602

603 No reports of residues of heavy metals or other contaminants in excess of FDA tolerances have been
604 identified for xanthan gum. The requirements for xanthan gum in the 8th edition of the “Food Chemicals
605 Codex” specify that it contain no more than 2 mg/kg lead (U.S. Pharmacopeia, 2012). No substances listed
606 on FDA’s Action Levels for Poisonous or Deleterious Substances in Human Food have been reported as
607 contaminants of concern in xanthan gum.
608

609 **Evaluation Question #9: Discuss and summarize findings on whether the manufacture and use of the**
610 **petitioned substance may be harmful to the environment or biodiversity (7 U.S.C. § 6517 (c) (1) (A) (i)**
611 **and 7 U.S.C. § 6517 (c) (2) (A) (i)).**
612

613 No sources were identified that discussed environmental contamination resulting from the commercial
614 manufacturing of xanthan gum. The organic solvent used to separate xanthan gum from the fermentation
615 broth (isopropyl alcohol) is recovered by distillation and reused (Kuppuswami, 2014; Lopes et al., 2015).
616

617 Xanthan gum is a naturally occurring, biodegradable polysaccharide (Muchová et al., 2009) that is
618 considered by EPA to be a minimal risk inert ingredient in pesticide formulations (40 CFR 180.950(e)). No
619 sources were identified that discussed whether the use of xanthan gum as a food additive may be harmful
620 to the environment or biodiversity.
621

622 Xanthan gum is degraded only by certain microorganisms with xanthanase enzyme activity, and the
623 degradation products of xanthan gum are naturally occurring monosaccharides (i.e., single sugars) that
624 make up its structure (Ruijsenaars et al., 1999). In a laboratory study, xanthan gum was readily degraded
625 by microorganisms from human feces or soil (Ruijsenaars et al., 2000).
626

627 Because bacteria in the human gut have limited capacity to degrade xanthan gum during its transit time
628 through the intestines, it has the potential to enter wastewater (Muchová et al., 2009). One study tested the
629 biodegradability of xanthan gum in activated sludge obtained from a wastewater treatment plant. This
630 study found that xanthan-degrading bacteria were present in the activated sludge, and xanthan gum was
631 readily degraded with complete biodegradation occurring in about 10 days (Muchová et al., 2009).
632

633 **Evaluation Question #10: Describe and summarize any reported effects upon human health from use of**
634 **the petitioned substance (7 U.S.C. § 6517 (c) (1) (A) (i), 7 U.S.C. § 6517 (c) (2) (A) (i) and 7 U.S.C. § 6518**
635 **(m) (4)).**
636

637 Xanthan gum is an FDA-approved direct food additive that that has been used since 1969 with no specific
638 quantity limitations. In 1986, the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA)
639 established an Acceptable Daily Intake (ADI) for xanthan gum as “not specified,” meaning that the total
640 dietary intake of xanthan gum when used as a food additive does not represent appreciable risk to human
641 health (JECFA, 1986). Xanthan gum is a soluble dietary fiber (Chawla and Patil, 2010); following ingestion,
642 xanthan gum passes through the intestinal tract largely unabsorbed (JECFA, 1986).
643

644 Toxicological studies conducted at its discovery in the early 1960s showed no long- or short-term effects in
645 dogs or rats, and no reproductive effects in rats (Woodward et al., 1973). Subsequent short-term animal
646 studies were conducted on guinea pigs and rabbits in the following two decades. No consistent toxicity or
647 carcinogenicity was observed (JECFA, 1986). Toxicity investigations in overweight humans began as early
648 as 1974 and continued through the mid-1980s. In these studies, no adverse effects were documented at
649 daily levels of up to 10–13 g xanthan gum for 23 days (JECFA, 1986; Eastwood et al., 1987).
650

651 While xanthan gum is recognized as safe by FDA when used in accordance with 21 CFR 172.695, it is not
652 affirmed as GRAS by FDA (U.S. FDA, 2015a). As detailed in response to Evaluation Question #4, FDA had
653 no questions as to the GRAS status of xanthan gum in three separate GRAS notices for various xanthan

654 gum preparations intended for use in foods (U.S. FDA, 2015b). These include xanthan gum purified by
655 recovery with ethanol (Tarantino, 2003), a reduced pyruvate form of xanthan gum (Tarantino, 2007), and
656 xanthan gum used in combination with konjac glucomannan and sodium alginate (Keefe, 2012). While
657 FDA had no questions as to the GRAS status of these forms of xanthan gum, the first two preparations do
658 not comply with current FDA food additive regulations for that require xanthan gum to be purified by
659 recovery with isopropyl alcohol and to contain greater than 1.5% pyruvic acid by weight (21 CFR 172.695).

660
661 Dietary supplementation with xanthan gum has been studied for its potential health benefits in humans. A
662 1985 study in healthy and diabetic subjects showed that feeding xanthan gum (12 g/day) for six weeks in
663 muffins significantly lowered blood sugar levels as well as plasma cholesterol levels in diabetic subjects
664 only (Osilesi et al., 1985). Daly et al. (1993) studied xanthan gum's effectiveness as a bulk laxative in healthy
665 adult males. This study demonstrated that ingestion of 15 g/day of xanthan gum for ten days increased
666 stool bulk, frequency of stools, and flatulence. This study also showed that fecal bacteria from the subjects
667 at the end of the exposure period showed an increase in the production of short chain fatty acids (SCFA),
668 which are believed to be beneficial to colon health (Ríos-Covían et al., 2016).

669
670 In 2011, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) reviewed the available scientific studies related to the
671 claim that xanthan gum, when used as a dietary supplement, causes desired changes in bowel function
672 such as reduced transit time, more frequent bowel movements, increased fecal bulk, and softer stools. The
673 EFSA concluded that there was no established cause and effect between xanthan gum consumption and
674 changes in bowel function due to lack of scientific evidence from properly controlled studies (EFSA, 2011).
675 Despite its long history of safe use in foods, some adverse effects relating to xanthan gum have been
676 reported in the sources described below.

677
678 In 2011, FDA announced a press release and consumer advisory warning parents, caregivers, and health
679 care providers not to feed SimplyThick® to premature infants because of a possible link between the
680 product and the disease necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC) (U.S. FDA, 2011a). NEC is a gastrointestinal
681 disease process that occurs mostly in premature neonates characterized by inflammation and bacterial
682 invasion of the bowel wall (Thompson and Bizzarro, 2008). It is the most common life-threatening
683 gastrointestinal emergency experienced by premature infants in neonatal intensive care units (Gregory et
684 al., 2011), occurring in about 5-10% of very low birthweight infants (<1500 g) (Thompson and Bizzarro,
685 2008). The cause of NEC has not definitively been identified although it is believed to be caused by
686 multiple factors. Three factors that are areas of research include intestinal injury (e.g., ischemia/oxygen
687 deprivation to the tissue) and inflammation, issues relating to enteric (i.e., tube) feeding, and alterations in
688 the normal bacterial colonization of the GI tract (Gregory et al., 2011). SimplyThick® is a xanthan-gum
689 based food and beverage thickener that is designed to help people who have swallowing difficulties. Prior
690 to the FDA press release warning that it may be linked to NEC, it was being recommended by health care
691 providers to thicken breast milk and infant formula for premature infants with swallowing difficulties or
692 gastroesophageal reflux both in the hospital and once discharged home (Beal et al., 2012). Less than a
693 month after FDA's press release, SimplyThick® voluntarily recalled its thickening gel product
694 manufactured at its Stone Mountain, Georgia, plant. SimplyThick®'s recall was reported to be associated
695 with the occurrence of harmful bacteria of possible public health significance not being properly destroyed
696 during manufacturing (U.S. FDA, 2011b). Manufacturing of the product continued at other locations.

697
698 In September 2012, FDA released a consumer update on the SimplyThick® investigation (U.S. FDA, 2012).
699 Since the time of the May 2011 FDA press release, twenty-two infants were identified as developing NEC
700 after being fed SimplyThick®, fourteen needed surgery, and seven died. The xanthan gum mixture was fed
701 to infants for varying amounts of time. FDA warned caregivers that infants of any age should not be fed
702 SimplyThick®. During FDA's investigation, it was discovered that one of the 22 babies affected was not a
703 premature baby (U.S. FDA, 2012). In addition, many cases of premature infants being fed SimplyThick®
704 were found to exhibit late-onset NEC, rather than typical NEC (Woods et al, 2012; Beal et al, 2012). A
705 potential mechanism by which SimplyThick® may have predisposed the infants to NEC is through the
706 accumulation of SCFAs produced by bacteria in the intestines breaking down the xanthan gum component
707 of the mixture (Beal et al., 2012). In the 2012 consumer update, FDA reported that further study is needed
708 to determine if there is an actual link between SimplyThick® and the development of NEC; however, FDA

709 warned everyone involved in the care of infants of any age to be aware of the potential risks SimplyThick®.
710 No further public communications have come from FDA on this issue and no studies were identified that
711 establish a causal relationship between xanthan gum and NEC.

712
713 A 1990 occupational exposure study examined the relationship between workers exhibiting flu-like
714 symptoms and their handling of xanthan gum powder in a plant that used a fermentation process to
715 manufacture xanthan gum. Nose and throat irritation were more commonly reported by workers who
716 experienced the greatest exposure to xanthan gum powder; however, no significant changes were found
717 when workers were examined for acute changes in pulmonary function. No evidence of chronic
718 pulmonary function problems were observed in any employees, regardless of exposure quantity or
719 duration (Sargent et al., 1990).

720
721 A recent laboratory study demonstrated that xanthan gum has the potential to elicit an immune response
722 in certain individuals (Vojdani and Vojdani, 2015). In this study, blood sera from healthy adults of the
723 general population were screened for immunoglobulin G (IgG) and immunoglobulin E (IgE) antibodies
724 against several different food additive gums including xanthan gum using ELISA testing (enzyme-linked
725 immunosorbent assay). Results showed that 10% of the samples showed elevated IgG antibodies against
726 xanthan gum and 16% showed elevated IgE antibodies against xanthan gum. Results for xanthan gum
727 were comparable to the other gums tested which included mastic gum, carrageenan, guar gum, gum
728 tragacanth, locust bean gum, and β -glucan. The authors concluded that some people may be suffering from
729 hidden allergies to food gums (Vojdani and Vojdani, 2015). No other peer-reviewed sources were found
730 that document allergic responses or specific symptoms in consumers with xanthan gum when used as a
731 food additive.

732
733 As mentioned in response to Evaluation Question #1, some of the ingredients used as nutrients in the
734 fermentation of xanthan gum are derived from food allergens (e.g., wheat, soy, dairy). According to the
735 manufacturer DuPont/Danisco, those substrates are consumed during fermentation, and their own ELISA
736 testing has confirmed no allergenic protein is detectable in GRINDSTED® Xanthan products to a
737 quantification limit of 10 parts per million (ppm) for soy and 5 ppm for wheat (Danisco, 2009). According
738 to another manufacturer, Archer Daniels Midland Company, their xanthan gum products (NovaXan™) do
739 not contain detectable levels of major allergens, including wheat, gluten, dairy, or soy [ADM, undated(a)].
740 No other xanthan gum manufacturers provide food allergen information for their products in publically
741 available sources. There is no documentation in the scientific literature that consumers with food allergies
742 to wheat, soy, or dairy may have reactions to xanthan gum.

743
744 **Evaluation Question #11: Describe any alternative practices that would make the use of the petitioned**
745 **substance unnecessary (7 U.S.C. § 6518 (m) (6)).**

746
747 No studies were identified that compared the specific use of xanthan gum as a food additive with
748 alternative practices. Food processors have the option of replacing xanthan gum with an agricultural
749 ingredient that can function as a thickener, stabilizer, or emulsifier (see responses to Evaluation Questions
750 #12 and 13) or creating products without the use of hydrocolloids; however, this may substantially alter the
751 viscosity, processing capabilities, shelf life, sensory properties, and consumer acceptance of the food
752 products.

753
754 **Evaluation Question #12: Describe all natural (non-synthetic) substances or products which may be**
755 **used in place of a petitioned substance (7 U.S.C. § 6517 (c) (1) (A) (ii)). Provide a list of allowed**
756 **substances that may be used in place of the petitioned substance (7 U.S.C. § 6518 (m) (6)).**

757
758 There are many natural hydrocolloids (i.e., substances that disperse in water, giving a thickening or gelling
759 effect) that are possible alternatives for xanthan gum in food applications. These include both agricultural
760 and nonagricultural substances. Traditionally, the agricultural substances starch and gelatin were
761 ingredients used to provide the desired textural properties in foods; however, the modern large-scale
762 processing industry places many demands on the thickeners and gelling agents that are utilized (Imeson,
763 1997). Natural additives that have been used successfully as thickeners, stabilizers, and/or emulsifiers in

764 various processed food products include unmodified (native) starches; galactomannans such as guar gum,
765 locust bean gum, and tara gum (only allowed if organic); gum arabic (acacia gum); gum karaya (only
766 allowed if organic); gum tragacanth; pectin; and konjac flour (Saha and Bhattacharya, 2010; Seisun, 2010).
767 According to the manufacturer Archer Daniels Midland Company (ADM), the natural substance lecithin
768 (not a hydrocolloid) is widely used as an emulsifier, aerating agent, viscosity modifier, and dispersant in
769 baked goods, confectionaries, dairy products (including ice cream as a stabilizer), instant beverage
770 mixtures, sauces, and gravies [ADM, undated(b)]. Natural gelling agents that have been used in processed
771 food products include the agricultural substances gelatin and pectin, and the nonagricultural substances
772 agar-agar, carrageenan, and gellan gum (Saha and Bhattacharya, 2010). In addition, a wide variety of new
773 plant-based gums are being investigated for use as thickeners, stabilizers, emulsifiers, texture modifiers,
774 syneresis inhibitors, and gelling agents to meet the high demand in the food industry (Timilsena et al.,
775 2016).

776
777 While there are many natural hydrocolloids available, they may not be suitable for replacement of xanthan
778 gum in a specific food application. Each one has specific strengths, weaknesses, and compatibilities that
779 manufacturers consider when formulating ingredient recipes (Ward, 2007). Xanthan gum has been
780 reported to exhibit unique rheological characteristics and better stability than most other hydrocolloids
781 against high temperatures, high levels of salts, and extreme pH values (Kreyenschulte et al., 2014). For
782 example, galactomannans such as guar gum and locust bean gum can degrade and lose viscosity at
783 extreme pH and high temperatures (Williams and Phillips, 2009). Solutions of xanthan gum are more
784 pseudoplastic than most other thickeners and develop higher viscosity at much lower concentrations (see
785 Properties of Substance section) (Sworn, 2011). In addition, xanthan gum has the unique ability to interact
786 synergistically or form gels with galactomannans such as guar gum, cassia gum, tara gum, and locust bean
787 gum (Sworn, 2011). Written public comments from the Organic Trade Association reported that many
788 organic handlers indicated in anonymous electronic surveys that there are no suitable natural or organic
789 alternatives to xanthan gum for many specific food applications (Wyard, 2015).

790
791 Several hydrocolloids have been used in gluten-free bread formulations to improve structure, texture,
792 consumer acceptance, and shelf life. Xanthan gum and the synthetic substance hydroxypropyl methyl
793 cellulose are the most commonly used hydrocolloids in gluten-free breads; however, other natural
794 hydrocolloids that have been used include pectin, gum arabic, locust bean gum, guar gum, psyllium, agar-
795 agar, and carrageenan (Capriles and Arêas, 2014; Zannini et al., 2012).

796
797 The National List includes the following ingredients that may provide similar functionality to xanthan gum
798 alone or when used in combinations:

799
800 §205.605(a) (Nonagricultural, nonsynthetics allowed)

- 801 • Agar-agar
- 802 • Carrageenan
- 803 • Gellan gum

804
805 §205.606 (Nonorganically-produced agricultural products allowed only when organic forms are not
806 commercially available)

- 807 • Gelatin
- 808 • Gums – water extracted only (arabic; guar; locust bean; and carob bean)
- 809 • Konjac flour
- 810 • Lecithin (de-oiled)
- 811 • Pectin (nonamidated forms only)
- 812 • Native corn starch
- 813 • Tragacanth gum

814
815 **Evaluation Information #13: Provide a list of organic agricultural products that could be alternatives for**
816 **the petitioned substance (7 CFR § 205.600 (b) (1)).**

817

818 Some of the natural hydrocolloids mentioned in response to Evaluation Question #12 are available in
819 organic forms and may be used as alternatives to xanthan gum in certain food applications. If alternatives
820 to xanthan gum are used in food products, substantial changes may occur in viscosity, processing
821 capabilities, shelf life, sensory properties, and consumer acceptance of the food products.

822
823 Organic starches (e.g., corn, tapioca, potato, wheat, arrowroot, and rice) are possible alternatives for
824 xanthan gum in some food applications. Starch is the most commonly used hydrocolloid thickener, and it
825 does not impart a foreign taste like some gums (Saha and Bhattacharya, 2010). Organic starches are
826 commercially available from many suppliers. Organic psyllium seed husk powder is commercially
827 available (BI Nutraceuticals, 2016). Organic locust bean gum, organic gum arabic, organic guar gum, and
828 organic tara gum are also commercially available (Danisco, undated; TIC Gums, Inc., 2015b; Silvateam,
829 2016).

831 **References**

- 832
833 ADM (Archer Daniels Midland Company). Undated(a). "Allergy Data - NovaXan™ Product Line."
834 Copyright 2016 Archer Daniels Midland Company. Web. Accessed 10 Apr 2016. Available for
835 download at http://www.adm.com/_layouts/ProductDetails.aspx?productid=131
836
- 837 ADM (Archer Daniels Midland Company). Undated(b). "Lecithin Emulsifying." Copyright 2016 Archer
838 Daniels Midland Company. Web. Accessed 1 Apr 2016. Available for download at
839 <http://www.adm.com/en-US/products/food/lecithin/Pages/default.aspx>
840
- 841 Baye K, Guyot JP, Mouquet-River C. 2015. The unresolved role of dietary fibers on mineral absorption.
842 *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, May 2015. doi: 10.1080/10408398.2014.953030
843
- 844 Beal J, Silverman B, Bellant J, Young TE, Klontz K. 2012. Late onset necrotizing enterocolitis in infants
845 following use of a xanthan gum-containing thickening agent. *Journal of Pediatrics*. 161 (2): 354-356.
846 doi: 10.1016/j.jpeds.2012.03.054
847
- 848 Belitz H-D, Grosch W, Schieberle P. 2009. Ch. 4 Carbohydrates. In: *Food Chemistry* (4th Revised and
849 Extended Edition). Springer-Verlag, Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany, pp. 248-339. ISBN: 978-3-540-
850 69933-0. doi: 10.1007/978-3-540-69934-7
851
- 852 Bergfeld WF, Belsito DV, Hill RA, Klaassen CD, Liebler DC, Marks JG, Shank RC, Salga TJ, Snyder PW.
853 2012. Safety Assessment of Microbial Polysaccharide Gums as Used in Cosmetics. Available from
854 the Cosmetic Ingredient Review. [http://www.cir-safety.org/supplementaldoc/safety-assessment-
855 microbial-polysaccharide-gums-used-cosmetics](http://www.cir-safety.org/supplementaldoc/safety-assessment-microbial-polysaccharide-gums-used-cosmetics)
856
- 857 BI Nutraceuticals. 2016. "Organic Ingredients." Web. Accessed 1 Apr 2016. Available online at
858 <http://www.botanicals.com/organics.php>
859
- 860 Biopolymer International. 2005. "Biopolymer International Position Regarding the Implementation of
861 Regulations No1829/2003 and No1830/2003 on Genetically Modified Food and Feed for Xanthan
862 Gum." February 2005. Web. Accessed 16 March 2016. Available online at [http://www.biopolymer-
863 international.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/XG_GM_implementation.pdf](http://www.biopolymer-international.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/XG_GM_implementation.pdf)
864
- 865 Biopolymer International. 2015. "Manufacturing Process." Copyright 2000-2015 Biopolymer International.
866 Web. Accessed 16 March 2016. Available online at [http://www.biopolymer-
867 international.com/manufacturing-process/](http://www.biopolymer-international.com/manufacturing-process/)
868
- 869 Born K, Langendorff V, Boulenguer P. 2005. Ch. 11 Xanthan. In: *Biopolymers Volume 5: Polysaccharides I:
870 Polysaccharides from Prokaryotes* (Eds. E.J. Vandamme, S. De Baets, A. Steinbüchel). Wiley-VCH,
871 Weinheim, Germany, pp. 259-291. Available online at [http://www.wiley-
872 vch.de/books/biopoly/con_v05.html](http://www.wiley-vch.de/books/biopoly/con_v05.html)

- 873
874 Bosscher D, Van Caillie-Bertrand M, Van Cauwenbergh R, Deelstra H. 2003. Availabilities of calcium, iron,
875 and zinc from dairy infant formulas is affected by soluble dietary fibers and modified starch
876 fractions. *Nutrition*, 19: 641-645.
877
- 878 GA Burdock. 2006. Reduced-Pyruvate Xanthan Gum (RPXG) GRAS Notification. Dated 21 Aug 2006.
879 GRAS Notice No. 211. Notifier: CP Kelco. Web. Accessed 9 Apr 2016. Available online at
880 <http://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/fdcc/?set=GRASNotices>
881
- 882 CGSB (Canadian General Standards Board). 2015. Organic Production Systems Permitted Substances List.
883 CAN/CGSB-32.311-2015. Published November 2015. Available online at: [http://www.tpsgc-](http://www.tpsgc-pwgscc.gc.ca/ongc-cgsb/programme-program/normes-standards/internet/bio-org/documents/lsp-psl-eng.pdf)
884 [pwgscc.gc.ca/ongc-cgsb/programme-program/normes-standards/internet/bio-](http://www.tpsgc-pwgscc.gc.ca/ongc-cgsb/programme-program/normes-standards/internet/bio-org/documents/lsp-psl-eng.pdf)
885 [org/documents/lsp-psl-eng.pdf](http://www.tpsgc-pwgscc.gc.ca/ongc-cgsb/programme-program/normes-standards/internet/bio-org/documents/lsp-psl-eng.pdf)
886
- 887 Capriles VD, Arêas JAG. 2014. Novel approaches in gluten-free breadmaking: Interface between food
888 science, nutrition, and health. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*, 13(5): 871-890.
889 doi: 10.1111/1541-4337.12091
890
- 891 Cargill. 2016a. "Xanthan gum manufacturing process." Copyright 2016 Cargill. Web. Accessed 16 Mar
892 2016. Available online at [http://www.cargillfoods.com/na/en/products/hydrocolloids/xanthan-](http://www.cargillfoods.com/na/en/products/hydrocolloids/xanthan-gum/manufacturing-process/index.jsp)
893 [gum/manufacturing-process/index.jsp](http://www.cargillfoods.com/na/en/products/hydrocolloids/xanthan-gum/manufacturing-process/index.jsp)
894
- 895 Cargill. 2016b. "Functionality: Xanthan gum." Copyright 2016 Cargill. Web. Accessed 16 March 2016.
896 Available online at [http://www.cargillfoods.com/na/en/products/hydrocolloids/xanthan-](http://www.cargillfoods.com/na/en/products/hydrocolloids/xanthan-gum/functionality/index.jsp)
897 [gum/functionality/index.jsp](http://www.cargillfoods.com/na/en/products/hydrocolloids/xanthan-gum/functionality/index.jsp)
898
- 899 Cargill. 2016c. "Xanthan gum." Copyright 2016 Cargill. Web. Accessed 10 Apr 2016. Available online at
900 <http://www.cargillfoods.com/na/en/products/hydrocolloids/xanthan-gum/>
901
- 902 Carignatto CRR, Oliveira KSM, de Lima VMG, de Oliva Neto P. 2011. New culture medium to xanthan
903 production by *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris*. *Indian Journal of Microbiology*, 51(3): 283-288.
904 doi: 10.1007/s12088-011-0171-9.
905
- 906 Chawla R and Patil GR. 2010. Soluble dietary fiber. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*,
907 9(2): 178-196. doi: 10.1111/j.1541-4337.2009.00099.x
908
- 909 Codex Alimentarius Commission. 2013. Guidelines for the production, processing, labeling and marketing
910 of organically produced foods (GL 32 - 1999, Revisions 2001, 2003, 2004 and 2007, Amendments
911 2008, 2009, 2012 and 2013). Joint FAO/WHO Food Standards Programme. Available online at
912 <http://www.fao.org/fao-who-codexalimentarius/standards/list-of-standards/en/>
913
- 914 W Cohan. 2008. "Could Xanthan Gum Sensitivity be Complicating your Celiac Disease Recovery?"
915 Available online: [http://www.celiac.com/articles/21710/1/Could-Xanthan-Gum-Sensitivity-be-](http://www.celiac.com/articles/21710/1/Could-Xanthan-Gum-Sensitivity-be-Complicating-your-Celiac-Disease-Recovery/Page1.html)
916 [Complicating-your-Celiac-Disease-Recovery/Page1.html](http://www.celiac.com/articles/21710/1/Could-Xanthan-Gum-Sensitivity-be-Complicating-your-Celiac-Disease-Recovery/Page1.html)
917
- 918 Commission of the European Communities. 2008. Commission Regulation (EC) No 889/2008. *Official*
919 *Journal of the European Union*. 1-250. Available online: [http://eur-](http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2008:250:0001:0084:EN:PDF)
920 [lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2008:250:0001:0084:EN:PDF](http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2008:250:0001:0084:EN:PDF).
921
- 922 Cornucopia Institute. 2015. The Cornucopia Institute's Comments to the National Organic Standards
923 Board: Fall 2015 Meeting. Dated 8 Oct 2015. Document ID AMS-NOP-15-0037-0677. Available in
924 docket AMS-NOP-15-0037 at www.regulations.gov
925
- 926 CP Kelco. 2016. "CP Kelco Xanthan Gum." Copyright 2016 CP Kelco. Web. Accessed 16 Mar 2016.
927 Available online at <http://www.cpkelco.com/products/xanthan-gum/>

- 928
929 Daly J, Tomlin J, Read NW. 1993. The effect of feeding xanthan gum on colonic function in man: correlation
930 with in vitro determinants of bacterial breakdown. *The British Journal of Nutrition*. 69 (3): 897-902.
931
- 932 Danisco. Undated. "GRINDSTED® LBG. Copyright DuPont Nutritional and Health. Web. Accessed 1 Apr
933 2016. Available online at [http://www.danisco.com/product-range/locust-bean-gum/grindstedr-](http://www.danisco.com/product-range/locust-bean-gum/grindstedr-lbg/)
934 [lbg/](http://www.danisco.com/product-range/locust-bean-gum/grindstedr-lbg/)
935
- 936 Danisco. 2006. "Product Description – PD 208502-8.25EN, GRINDSTED® Xanthan Ultra." 6 June 2006.
937 Web. Accessed 23 March 2016. Available online by searching for "GRINDSTED® Xanthan Ultra" at
938 <http://www.ulprospector.com/en/na/Food>
939
- 940 Danisco. 2009. "Product Description – PD 208488-8.8EN, GRINDSTED® Xanthan 80." 12 Nov 2009. Web.
941 Accessed 16 March 2016. Available online by searching for "GRINDSTED® Xanthan 80" at
942 <http://www.ulprospector.com/en/na/Food>
943
- 944 Danisco. 2016. "GRINDSTED® Xanthan." Copyright DuPont Nutrition and Health. Web. Accessed 20 Mar
945 2016. Available online at <http://www.danisco.com/product-range/xanthan/grindstedr-xanthan/>
946
- 947 Debon SJJ, Tester RF. 2001. In vitro binding of calcium, iron and zinc by non-starch polysaccharides. *Food*
948 *Chemistry*, 73(4): 401-410. doi:10.1016/S0308-8146(00)00312-5
949
- 950 Demain AL, Fang A. 2000. The Natural Functions of Secondary Metabolites. In: *History of Modern*
951 *Biotechnology I*, Volume 69 (Ed. A Fiechter). Springer-Verlag, Berlin/Heidelberg, Germany, pp. 1-
952 39. ISBN: 978-3-540-67793-2
953
- 954 East African Community. 2007. East African organic products standards. EAS 456:2007. Available online at
955 <https://www.organic-standards.info/en/documents/East-African-Organic-Product-standard,25>.
956
- 957 Eastwood MA, Brydon WG, Anderson DMW. 1987. The dietary effects of xanthan gum in man. *Food*
958 *Additives & Contaminants*. 4 (1): 17-26.
959
- 960 EFSA Panel on Dietetic Products, Nutrition and Allergies (NDA). 2011. Scientific Opinion on the
961 substantiation of health claims related to xanthan gum and changes in bowel function (ID 837)
962 pursuant to Article 13(1) of Regulation (EC) No 1924/2006. *The EFSA Journal* 9(6):2272. [11 pp.].
963 doi:10.2903/j.efsa.2011.2272. Available online: www.efsa.europa.eu/efsajournal
964
- 965 García-Ochoa F, Santos VE, Casas JA, Gómez E. 2000. Xanthan gum: production, recovery, and properties.
966 *Biotechnology Advances*, 18(7): 549-579. doi: 10.1016/S0734-9750(00)00050-1
967
- 968 Gregory KE, DeForge CE, Natale KM, Phillip M, Van Marter LJ. 2011. Necrotizing enterocolitis in the
969 premature infant: Neonatal nursing assessment, disease pathogenesis, and clinical presentation.
970 *Advances in Neonatal Care*, 11(3): 155-166. doi: 10.1097/ANC.0b013e31821baaf4. Available online at
971 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3759524/>
972
- 973 Hagar A-S, Arendt EK. 2013. Influence of hydroxypropylmethylcellulose (HPMC), xanthan gum and their
974 combination on loaf specific volume, crumb hardness and crumb grain characteristics of gluten-
975 free breads based on rice, maize, teff and buckwheat. *Food Hydrocolloids* 32: 195-203.
976 doi:10.1016/j.foodhyd.2012.12.021
977
- 978 AC Hayward. 1993. Ch. 1 The hosts of *Xanthomonas*. In: *Xanthomonas* (Eds. J.G. Swings and E.L. Civerolo).
979 Springer Science+Business Media, Dordrecht, Netherlands, pp. 1-119. doi:10.1007/978-94-011-1526-
980 1_1
981

- 982 CW Hesseltine. 1992. Ch. 6 Mixed-Culture Fermentations. In: *Applications of Biotechnology to Fermented*
983 *Foods: Report of an Ad Hoc Panel of the Board on Science and Technology for International Development*
984 (National Research Council Panel on the Applications of Biotechnology to Traditional Fermented
985 Foods). National Academies Press, Washington, DC. Available online at
986 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK234678/>
987
- 988 IFAC (International Food Additives Council). 2015. "Food Gums." Web. Accessed 28 Mar 2016. Available
989 online at http://www.foodadditives.org/food_gums/common.html
990
- 991 IFOAM (International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements). 2014. The IFOAM Norms for
992 Organic Production and Processing. Version 2014. Available online at
993 http://www.ifoam.bio/sites/default/files/ifoam_norms_version_july_2014.pdf.
994
- 995 AP Imeson. 1997. Preface. In: *Thickening and Gelling Agents for Food*, Second edition (Ed. Alan P. Imeson).
996 Springer-Science+Business Media, Dordrecht, Germany, pp. i-xv. ISBN 978-1-4613-5921-0
997
- 998 Ingredients Network. 2016. "Thixogum™." Web. Accessed 23 Mar 2016. Available online at
999 <http://ingredientsnetwork.com/thixogum-prod121961.html>
1000
- 1001 Ingredient Solutions, Inc. 2016. "Xanthan Gum." Web. Accessed 20 Mar 2016. Available online at
1002 <http://www.isi.us.com/xanthan-gum/>
1003
- 1004 Ishizaka S, Sugawara I, Hasuma T, Morisawa S, Moller G. 1983. Immune responses to xanthan gum. I. The
1005 characteristics of lymphocyte activation by xanthan gum. *European Journal of Immunology*. 13 (3):
1006 225-231. doi: 10.1002/eji.1830130309
1007
- 1008 Japanese MAFF (Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries). 2012. Japanese Agriculture Standard for
1009 Organic Processed Foods Notification No. 1464 of 2006). Established: Notification No. 60 of January
1010 20, 2000. Partial revision: Notification No. 1885 of November 18, 2003. Full revision: Notification
1011 No. 1606 of October 27, 2005. Partial revision: Notification No. 210 of February 28, 2006. Partial
1012 revision: Notification No. 1464 of October 27, 2006. Partial revision: Notification No. 834 of March
1013 28, 2012. Available online at http://www.maff.go.jp/e/jas/specific/pdf/834_2012-3.pdf.
1014
- 1015 JECFA (Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). 1986. Xanthan gum monograph. WHO
1016 Food Additive Series 21. Available online at
1017 <http://www.inchem.org/documents/jecfa/jecmono/v21je13.htm>
1018
- 1019 Jungbunzlauer. 2015. "Xanthan Gum" product folder. Web. Accessed 10 Apr 2016. Available for download
1020 at <http://www.jungbunzlauer.com/en/services/downloads.html>
1021
- 1022 Kang KS, Pettitt DJ. 1993. Ch. 13 Xanthan, Gellan, Welan, and Rhamsan. In: *Industrial Gums: Polysaccharides*
1023 *and Their Derivatives*, 3rd edition (Eds. Roy L. Whistler and James N. BeMiller). Academic Press,
1024 Inc., San Diego, CA, pp. 341-399. ISBN: 0-12-746253-8
1025
- 1026 Keefe DM. 2012. Agency Response Letter GRAS Notice No. GRN 000407. Dated 10 Apr 2012. Web.
1027 Accessed 26 Mar 2016. Available online at
1028 [http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/NoticeInventory/ucm303526.](http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/NoticeInventory/ucm303526.htm)
1029 [htm](http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/NoticeInventory/ucm303526.htm)
1030
- 1031 Kreyenschulte D, Krull R, Margaritis A. 2014. Recent advances in microbial biopolymer production and
1032 purification. *Critical Reviews in Biotechnology*, 34(1): 1-15. doi: 10.3109/07388551.2012.743501
1033
- 1034 GM Kuppaswami. 2014. Production of Xanthan Gum. In: *Encyclopedia of Food Microbiology*, Second Ed., Vol.
1035 1 (Eds. Carl A. Batt and Mary Lou Tortorello). Academic Press, Elsevier, Oxford, UK, pp. 816-821.
1036 ISBN: 978-0-12-384730-0.

- 1037
1038 JW Lamkey. 2009. Ch. 3 Nonstarch Hydrocolloids. In: *Ingredients in Meat Products: Properties, Functionality*
1039 *and Applications* (Ed. Rodrigo Tarté). Springer Science + Business Media, New York, NY, pp. 57-82.
1040 ISBN: 978-0-387-71326-7. doi: 10.1007/978-0-387-71327-4
1041
- 1042 Lo Y-M, Yang S-T, Min DB. 1996. Kinetic and feasibility studies of ultrafiltration of viscous xanthan gum
1043 fermentation broth. *Journal of Membrane Science*, 117(1-2): 237-249. doi: 10.1016/0376-7388(96)00067-
1044 1
1045
- 1046 Lo, Y-M, Yang S-T, Min DB. 1997. Ultrafiltration of xanthan gum fermentation broth: Process and economic
1047 analysis. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 31(2): 219-236. doi: 10.1016/S0260-8774(96)00068-4
1048
- 1049 Lopes BM, Lessa VL, Silva BM, Carvalho Filho MAS, Schnitzler E, Lacerda LG. 2015. Xanthan gum:
1050 properties, production conditions, quality, and economic perspective. *Journal of Food Nutrition*
1051 *Research*. 54(3): 185-194.
1052
- 1053 Miars P, Fernandez-Salvador L. 2015. Comments of the Organic Materials Review Institute Spring 2015
1054 National Organic Standards Board Meeting La Jolla, California April 27-30, 2015. Dated 6 April
1055 2015. Document ID AMS-NOP-15-0002-1121. Available in docket AMS-NOP-15-002 at
1056 www.regulations.gov
1057
- 1058 Muchová M, Růžička J, Julinová M, Doležalová M, Houser J, Koutný M, Buňková L. 2009. Xanthan and
1059 gellan degradation by bacteria of activated sludge. *Water Science & Technology*, 60(4): 965-973. doi:
1060 10.2166/wst.2009.443
1061
- 1062 Osilesi O, Trout DL, Glover EE, Harper SM, Koh ET, Behall KM, O'Dorisio TM, Tarrt J. 1985. Use of
1063 xanthan gum in dietary management of diabetes mellitus. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*.
1064 42(4): 597-603.
1065
- 1066 Palaniraj A, Jayaraman V. 2011. Production, recovery and applications of xanthan gum by *Xanthomonas*
1067 *campestris*. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 106(1): 1-12. doi: 10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2011.03.035
1068
- 1069 DJ Pettitt. 1979. Ch. 17 Xanthan Gum. In: *Polysaccharides in Food* (Eds. J.M.V. Blanshard and J.R. Mitchell).
1070 Butterworth (Publishers) Inc., Woburn, MA, pp. 263-282. ISBN: 0-408-10618-2
1071
- 1072 A Rimmer. 2015. Xanthan gum: The gluten-free baker's secret weapon. Flourish blog, copyright 2016 King
1073 Arthur Flour Company. Available online at
1074 <http://www.kingarthurfLOUR.com/blog/2015/08/05/xanthan-gum/>
1075
- 1076 Ríos-Covián D, Ruas-Madiedo P, Margolles A, Gueimonde M, de los Reyes-Gavilán CG, Salazar N. 2016.
1077 Intestinal short chain fatty acids and their link with diet and human health. *Frontiers in*
1078 *Microbiology*, 7: 185. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2016.00185. Available online at
1079 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4756104/>
1080
- 1081 Rosalam S, England R. 2006. Review of xanthan gum production from unmodified starches by *Xanthomonas*
1082 *campestris* sp. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*. 39(2): 197-207. doi:10.1016/j.enzmictec.2005.10.019
1083
- 1084 Ruijsenaars HJ, de Bont JAM, Hartmans S. 1999. A pyruvated mannose-specific xanthan lyase involved in
1085 xanthan degradation by *Paenibacillus alginolyticus*XL-1. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*,
1086 65(6): 2446-2452. Available online at <http://aem.asm.org/content/65/6/2446.full>
1087
- 1088 Ruijsenaars HJ, Stingele F, Hartmans S. 2000. Biodegradability of food-associated extracellular
1089 polysaccharides. *Current Microbiology*, 40(3): 194-199. doi: 10.1007/s002849910039
1090

- 1091 Ruiz B, Chávez A, Forero A, García-Huante Y, Romero A, Sánchez M, Rocha D, Sánchez B, Rodríguez-
1092 Sanoja R, Sánchez S, Langley E. 2010. Production of microbial secondary metabolites: regulation by
1093 the carbon source. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology*, 36(2): 146-167. doi: 10.3109/10408410903489576
1094
- 1095 Saha D, Bhattacharya S. 2010. Hydrocolloids as thickening and gelling agents in food: a critical review.
1096 *Journal of Food Sciences Technology*. 47 (6): 587-597. doi: [10.1007/s13197-010-0162-6](https://doi.org/10.1007/s13197-010-0162-6). Available online
1097 at <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3551143/>
1098
- 1099 Sargent EV, Adolph J, Clemmons MK, Kirk GD, Pena BM, Fedoruk MJ. 1990. Evaluation of flu-like
1100 symptoms in workers handling xanthan gum powder. *Journal of Occupational Medicine*. 32 (7): 625-
1101 630.
1102
- 1103 Secretariat of the Pacific Community. 2008. Pacific Organic Standard. Available online at
1104 http://www.ifoam.bio/sites/default/files/page/files/pacific_organic_standard.pdf.
1105
- 1106 D Seisun. 2010. Ch. 1 Introduction. In: *Food Stabilisers, Thickeners and Gelling Agents* (Ed. Alan Imeson).
1107 Wiley-Blackhead Publishing, West Sussex, UK, pp. 1-10. ISBN 978-1-4051-3267-1
1108
- 1109 Sharma BR, Naresh L, Dhuldhoya NC, Merchant SU, Merchant UC. 2006. Xanthan gum – a boon to food
1110 industry. *Food Promotion Chronicle*. 1(5): 27-30. Available online at
1111 <http://www.lucidcolloids.com/pdf/xanthan.pdf>
1112
- 1113 T Shistar. 2015. Beyond Pesticides comments to NOSB Handling Subcommittee: Sunset Materials on
1114 §205.605. Dated 2 Oct 2015. Document ID AMS-NOP-15-0037-0367. Available in docket AMS-NOP-
1115 15-0037 at www.regulations.gov
1116
- 1117 Silvateam. 2016. “Organic Tara Gum.” Copyright 2016 Silvateam S.p.A. Web. Accessed 1 Apr 2016.
1118 Available online at [http://en.silvateam.com/Products-Services/Food-Ingredients/Tara-
1119 gum/Aglumix%C2%AE01/Organic-Tara-gum](http://en.silvateam.com/Products-Services/Food-Ingredients/Tara-gum/Aglumix%C2%AE01/Organic-Tara-gum)
1120
- 1121 Staffolo MD, Bevilacqua AE, Rodriguez MS, Albertengo L. 2012. Ch. 17 Dietary Fiber and Availability of
1122 Nutrients: A Case Study on Yoghurt as a Food Model. In: *The Complex World of Polysaccharides* (Ed.
1123 Desiree Nedra Karunaratne). InTech. DOI: 10.5772/2947. Available online at
1124 <http://www.intechopen.com/books/the-complex-world-of-polysaccharides>
1125
- 1126 G Sworn. 2009. Ch. 8 Xanthan. In: *Handbook of Hydrocolloids*, Second Ed. (Eds. G.O. Phillips and P.A.
1127 Williams). Woodhead Publishing Ltd, CRC Press LLC, Boca Raton, FL, pp. 186-203. ISBN 978-1-
1128 4398-0820-7
1129
- 1130 G Sworn. 2011. Ch. 5 Xanthan Gum – Functionality and Application. In: *Practical Food Rheology: An*
1131 *Interpretive Approach* (Eds. IT Norton, F Spyropoulos, and P Cox). Wiley-Blackwell Publishing Ltd.,
1132 West Sussex, UK, pp. 85-112. ISBN 978-1-4051-9978-0
1133
- 1134 Tarantino LM. 2003. Agency Response Letter GRAS Notice No. GRN 000121. Dated 18 July 2003. Web.
1135 Accessed 26 Mar 2016. Available online at
1136 [http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/NoticeInventory/ucm153937.
1137 htm](http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/NoticeInventory/ucm153937.htm)
1138
- 1139 Tarantino LM. 2007. Agency Response Letter GRAS Notice No. GRN 000211. Dated 11 Apr 2007. Web.
1140 Accessed 26 Mar 2016. Available online at
1141 [http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/NoticeInventory/ucm153854.
1142 htm](http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/NoticeInventory/ucm153854.htm)
1143
- 1144 Thompson AM, Bizzarro MJ. 2008. Necrotizing enterocolitis in newborns: pathogenesis, prevention, and
1145 management. *Drugs*. 68 (9): 1227-1238. doi: 10.1097/ANC.0b013e31821baaf4.

- 1146
1147 TIC Gums, Inc. 2015a. "Ticaxan® Xanthan NGMO." Copyright 2015 TIC Gums, Inc. Web. Accessed 21 Mar
1148 2016. Available online at [http://www.ticgums.com/products/ticaxan-xanthan/product/ticaxan-](http://www.ticgums.com/products/ticaxan-xanthan/product/ticaxan-xanthan-ngmo.html)
1149 [xanthan-ngmo.html](http://www.ticgums.com/products/ticaxan-xanthan/product/ticaxan-xanthan-ngmo.html)
1150
- 1151 TIC Gums, Inc. 2015b. "TICOrganic® Certified Organic Gums." Copyright 2015 TIC Gums, Inc. Web.
1152 Accessed 1 Apr 2016. Available online at [http://www.ticgums.com/featured-](http://www.ticgums.com/featured-products/organic.html)
1153 [products/organic.html](http://www.ticgums.com/featured-products/organic.html)
1154
- 1155 Timelsena YP, Adhikari R, Kasapis S, Adhikari B. 2016. Molecular and functional characteristics of purified
1156 gum from Australian chia seeds. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 136: 128-136.
1157 doi:[10.1016/j.carbpol.2015.09.035](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2015.09.035)
1158
- 1159 U.S. FDA (Food and Drug Administration). 2010. "Overview of Food Ingredients, Additives & Colors."
1160 Last updated April 2010. Page last updated 2 Dec 2014. Web. Accessed 29 Mar 2016. Available
1161 online at
1162 [http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/FoodAdditivesIngredients/ucm09421](http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/FoodAdditivesIngredients/ucm094211.htm)
1163 [1.htm](http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/FoodAdditivesIngredients/ucm094211.htm)
1164
- 1165 U.S. FDA (Food and Drug Administration). 2011a. "FDA Press Release: Do not feed SimplyThick to
1166 premature infants." Last updated 5 June 2011. Page last updated 10 April 2014. Accessed 20 March
1167 2016. Available online at
1168 <http://www.fda.gov/NewsEvents/Newsroom/PressAnnouncements/ucm256253.htm>
1169
- 1170 U.S. FDA (Food and Drug Administration). 2011b. "SimplyThick, LLC announces the voluntary recall of
1171 products manufactured by ThermoPac, LLC at their Stone Mountain, GA food processing plant."
1172 Last updated 4 June 2011. Page last updated 18 February 2014. Accessed 20 March 2016.
1173 <http://www.fda.gov/Safety/Recalls/ucm257841.htm>
1174
- 1175 U.S. FDA (Food and Drug Administration). 2012. "FDA expands cautions about SimplyThick." Last
1176 updated 18 September 2012. Page last updated 25 July 2015. Accessed 20 March 2016.
1177 <http://www.fda.gov/ForConsumers/ConsumerUpdates/ucm256250.htm>
1178
- 1179 U.S. FDA (Food and Drug Administration). 2015a. Microorganisms & Microbial-Derived Ingredients Used
1180 in Food (Partial List). Last updated 7 Aug 2015. Web. Accessed 26 Mar 2016. Available online at
1181 [http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/MicroorganismsMicrobialDeri-](http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/MicroorganismsMicrobialDerivedIngredients/default.htm)
1182 [vedIngredients/default.htm](http://www.fda.gov/Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/MicroorganismsMicrobialDerivedIngredients/default.htm)
1183
- 1184 U.S. FDA (Food and Drug Administration). 2015b. GRAS Notices: Xanthan Gum. Last updated
1185 12/31/2015. Accessed 03/16/2016. Available at:
1186 [http://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/fdcc/?set=GRASNotices&sort=GRN_No&order=DESC&](http://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/fdcc/?set=GRASNotices&sort=GRN_No&order=DESC&startrow=1&type=basic&search=xanthan%20gum)
1187 [startrow=1&type=basic&search=xanthan%20gum.](http://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/fdcc/?set=GRASNotices&sort=GRN_No&order=DESC&startrow=1&type=basic&search=xanthan%20gum)
1188
- 1189 U.S. Pharmacopeia. 2012. *USP/FCC Food Chemicals Codex*, Eighth Edition. The United States Pharmacopeial
1190 Convention, Rockville, MD. ISBN: 978-1-936424-05-4
1191
- 1192 CA Van Dyne. 2015. CP Kelco comments to NOSB in support of re-listing 2017 sunset materials pectin,
1193 locust bean gum, and xanthan gum. Dated 7 April 2015. Document ID AMS-NOP-15-0002-0886.
1194 Available in docket AMS-NOP-15-0002 at www.regulations.gov
1195
- 1196 Vedeqsa. 2010a. "Alkemir® -93 Datasheet." 13 May 2010. Web. Accessed 22 Mar 2016. Available online by
1197 searching for "Alkemir® -93" at <http://www.ulprospector.com/en/na/Food>
1198
- 1199 Vedeqsa. 2010b. "Alkemir® -56/R Datasheet." 14 Sept 2010. Web. Accessed 22 Mar 2016. Available online
1200 by searching for "Alkemir® -56/R" at <http://www.ulprospector.com/en/na/Food>

- 1201
1202 Vojdani A, Vojdani C. 2015. Immune reactivities against gums. *Alternative Therapies in Health and Medicine*.
1203 21 (Supplement 1): 64-72.
1204
- 1205 FM Ward. 2007. Stabilizers, Naturally. *Natural Products Insider*, 1 Oct 2007. Copyright 2016, Informa
1206 Exhibitions, LLC. Web. Accessed 23 Mar 2016. Available online at
1207 <http://www.naturalproductsinsider.com/articles/2007/10/stabilizers-naturally.aspx>
1208
- 1209 WC Wielinga. 2009. Ch. 10 Galactomannans. In: *Handbook of Hydrocolloids*, Second Ed. (Eds. GO Phillips and
1210 PA Williams). Woodhead Publishing Ltd, CRC Press LLC, Boca Raton, FL, pp. 228-251. ISBN 978-1-
1211 4398-0820-7
1212
- 1213 Williams PA, Phillips GO. 2009. Ch 1 Introduction. In: *Handbook of Hydrocolloids*, Second Ed. (Eds. GO
1214 Phillips and PA Williams). Woodhead Publishing Ltd, CRC Press LLC, Boca Raton, FL, pp. 1-22.
1215 ISBN 978-1-4398-0820-7
1216
- 1217 Woods CW, Oliver T, Lewis K, Yang Q. 2012. Development of necrotizing enterocolitis in premature
1218 infants receiving thickened feeds using SimplyThick®. *Journal of Perinatology*. 32 (2): 150-152.
1219
- 1220 Woodward G, Woodward MW, McNeely WH, Kovacs P., Cronin MTI. 1973. Xanthan gum: Safety
1221 evaluation by two-year feeding studies in rats and dogs and a three-generation reproduction study
1222 in rats. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*. 24(1): 30-36.
1223
- 1224 G Wyard. 2015. Organic Trade Association comments to NOSB Handling Subcommittee – 2017 Sunset
1225 Summaries for 206.605 (Non-agricultural). Dated 7 Oct 2015. Document ID AMS-NOP-15-0037-
1226 0660. Available in docket AMS-NOP-15-0037 at www.regulations.gov
1227
- 1228 Zannini E, Jones JM, Renzetti S, Arendt EK. 2012. Functional replacements for gluten. *Annual Review of Food*
1229 *Science and Technology*, 3: 227-245. doi: 10.1146/annurev-food-022811-101203