

1 **Conversion of ginsenosides by *Lactobacillus plantarum* studied by**
2 **liquid chromatography coupled to quadrupole trap mass**
3 **spectrometry**

4
5 Yunpeng Bai¹, and Michael G. Gänzle^{1,2*}

6
7 ¹Department of Agricultural, Food and Nutritional Science, University of Alberta,

8 410 Ag/For Centre, Edmonton, Canada

9 ² Hubei University of Technology, School of Food and Pharmaceutical Engineering,

10 Wuhan, China

11
12
13 *corresponding author footnote:

14 Michael Gänzle

15 University of Alberta, Dept. of Agricultural, Food and Nutritional Science, 4-10

16 Ag/For Centre, Edmonton, AB, Canada, T6G 2P5

17 tel: + 1 780 492 0774; fax: + 1 780 492 4265; e-mail: mgaenzle@ualberta.ca

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Ginsenosides are the active components responsible for the pharmacological
21 properties of ginseng, a commonly used medicinal plant and food ingredient. This
22 study aimed to determine the changes of ginsenosides during fermentation of ginseng
23 extract or reference ginsenosides with *Lactobacillus plantarum*. Chemically acidified
24 ginseng extracts served as controls. High performance liquid chromatography coupled
25 with quadrupole-trap (Q-TRAP) mass spectrometry method was employed for
26 analysis and quantification of ginsenosides, and for identification of metabolites. A
27 total of 14 metabolites were identified; the quantification of metabolites was achieved
28 by tandem mass spectrometry in MRM mode. Metabolism of *L. plantarum* removed
29 glucosyl moieties from ginsenosides Rb1, Rd, and Re at the C-20 position to produce
30 a racemic mixture of products. Remarkably, removal of glycosyl residues occurred not
31 only by hydrolysis but also by dehydration to produce racemic mixtures of $\Delta 20(21)$
32 or $\Delta 20(22)$ products. Biotransformation occurred more rapidly with the
33 di-substituted ginsenoside Rb1 when compared to the mono-substituted ginsenoside
34 Rd. This study thus extends the knowledge of biotransformation of ginsenosides to
35 produce bioactive derivatives.

36 **Keywords:** ginsenoside, *Lactobacillus plantarum*, fermentation, biotransformation,
37 Q-TRAP MS

38

39 **Introduction**

40 Ginseng is classified in the genus *Panax* of the *Araliaceae* family and has a long
41 history of use in Chinese traditional medicine (Shibata, Fujita, Itokawa, Tanaka, &
42 Ishii, 1963; Xiang, Shang, Gao, & Zhang, 2008). Pharmacological activities of
43 ginseng are mainly attributed to ginsenosides (Niu et al., 2012), which are categorized
44 according to the aglycone as protopanaxadiol (PPD), protopanaxatriol (PPT) and
45 oleanolic acid. About 50 of ginsenoside variants have been identified (Angelova et al.,
46 2008; Zhu, Li, Hau, Jiang, Yu, &Fong, 2011.) (Figure1). Ginsenosides Rg3 and Rg2
47 consist of *S* and *R* optical isomers depending on the orientation of the hydroxyl group
48 on the chiral carbon C-20 (Cheng, Na, Bang, Kim, &Yang, 2008). Optical isomers
49 exhibit different biological activities; the 20(*S*) isomer is more water-soluble (Kim et
50 al., 2006). A racemic mixture of 20(*S*)- and 20(*R*)-Rg3 was readily produced from
51 ginsenosides Rb1 or Rd through either acid treatment or heating (Han et al., 1982).

52 Recent studies on the bioavailability of ginsenosides suggest that bacterial metabolites
53 formed during digestion contribute to pharmacological effects. Ginsenoside
54 conversion by human intestinal microbiota proceeds mainly through deglycosylation
55 (Hasegawa, Sung, Matsumiya, &Uchiyama, 1996; Wang, Hua, Liu, Liu, &Yu, 2014).
56 Metabolites formed by the stepwise deglycosylation are more readily absorbed (Ruan,
57 Leong, Yan, &Wang, 2010).

58 Ginsenosides are also transformed by microbial or enzymatic conversion during
59 preparation of functional food ingredients (Chi &Ji, 2005). Studies on the microbial
60 conversion of ginsenosides focused on food-grade bacteria, particularly lactobacilli

61 (Chi & Ji, 2005; Kim, Min, Quan, Lee, Yang, & Yang, 2012). Lactobacilli have a safe
62 history of use in food fermentations and are suitable for fermentation of ginseng to
63 achieve conversion of ginsenosides during food preparation (Chi & Ji, 2005; Kim et al.,
64 2012). For example, lactobacilli converted ginsenoside Re by partial hydrolysis of
65 glycosyl moieties to yield Rg2 and Rh1 as major products; conversion of Rb1 yielded
66 Rd, F2, Rg3, Rh2, gypenoside XVII, or compound K (Chi & Ji, 2005; Kim, Choi, Kim,
67 Suh, & Park, 2010; Kim et al., 2012; Figure 1).

68 Owing to the diversity of ginsenosides and because of the physiological and
69 taxonomic diversity of food fermenting lactobacilli, the characterization of microbial
70 pathways of conversion of ginsenosides during food fermentations remains
71 insufficient. In particular, observations obtained in fermentation of plant material were
72 not sufficiently verified by observation of extracts or reference compounds under
73 sterile conditions. Moreover, kinetic analyses are unavailable. This study aimed to
74 characterize the biotransformation of ginsenosides by *Lactobacillus plantarum*
75 FUA3171. *L. plantarum* FUA 3171 was selected because of its ability to convert
76 phenolic compounds in sorghum by glycosyl hydrolases, esterases, and other
77 enzymatic activities (Sekwati Monang & Gänzle, 2011; Svensson, Sekwati Monang,
78 Lutz, Schieber, & Gänzle, 2010). Liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass
79 spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) was employed as a powerful tool to achieve identification
80 and quantification with high sensitivity and selectivity (Cui, M., Song, F. R., Zhou, Y.,
81 Liu, Z. Q., & Liu, S. Y., 2000; Angelova et al., 2008; Wu, Qin, Guo, Sun, & Liu,
82 2012; Li, Yang, Zhang, & Li, 2014; Wu, Sun, Zhang, Guo, & Liu, 2015). A highly

83 sensitive and selective liquid chromatography/quadrupole trap mass spectrometry
84 (LC-Q-TRAP-MS) method (Svensson et al., 2010; Hu, Stromeck, Loponen, Lutz,
85 Schieber, & Gänzle, 2011) was adapted to characterize and quantify metabolites of
86 ginsenosides.

87 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

88 **Chemicals and Reagents.** The following ginsenosides were used as reference:
89 20(S)-Re, 20(S)-Rg2, 20(S)-Rb1, 20(S)-Rd, 20(S)-Rg3, 20(S)-Rh2 (Sigma, Oakville,
90 Canada). Acetonitrile, water and formic acid (95%) were HPLC-grade (Fisher
91 Scientific, Ottawa, Canada).

92 **Bacterial Growth and Media.** *L. plantarum* FUA 3171 was grown on modified MRS
93 (mMRS) agar for 24 h at 30 °C in modified atmosphere (1% O₂, 5% CO₂, 10% H₂,
94 and balance N₂) and subcultured in modified MRS broth for 24 h at 30 °C. Modified
95 MRS had the following composition per liter: 5.0 g of fructose, 5.0 g of glucose, 10.0
96 g of maltose, 10.0 g of tryptone, 5.0 g of beef extract, 5.0 g of yeast extract, 2.6 g of
97 H₂KPO₄, 4.0 g of HK₂PO₄, 3.0 g of NH₄Cl, 0.5 g of L-cysteine HCl, 0.2 g of MgSO₄,
98 0.05 g of MnSO₄, 1.0 g of Tween 80, and 1.0 mL of vitamin mix (50 mg L⁻¹ each of
99 B12, B1, B2, B6, folic acid, and pantothenic acid). Solid media additionally contained
100 15 g L⁻¹ agar.

101 **Bacterial conversion of ginseng extract.** Ground North American ginseng was
102 obtained from a local supermarket. Extracts were prepared by immersing 10 g ground
103 ginseng in 50 mL 70% methanol for 1 h, followed by processing with high intensity

104 ultrasound for 20 min. The supernatant were filtered and the residue was extracted
105 again. Supernatants were pooled and methanol was evaporated under vacuum at 40 °C.
106 The aqueous concentrate was extracted twice with 40 mL *n*-butanol, *n*-butanol was
107 evaporated under vacuum at 50 °C, and solids were redissolved in 12 mL 80%
108 methanol (Kim et al., 2010). Two mL of ginseng extract were evaporated to dryness,
109 re-dissolved in 950 µL mMRS, inoculated with 50 µL of an overnight culture of *L.*
110 *plantarum* FUA3171, and incubated for 48 h at 30 °C. The concentration of
111 ginsenosides in MRS was thus approximately equivalent to the concentration in
112 ginseng. To account for changes of ginsenosides in the absence of microbial activity,
113 ginseng extracts were incubated for 48 h at 30 °C in sterile mMRS acidified to a pH
114 of 4.0 with lactic acid and acetic acids in a ratio of 4:1 (v/v). Fermented ginseng
115 extracts were characterized before and after fermentation by measuring the pH and
116 determining the viable cell counts. Fermentations were carried out in two independent
117 experiments. After fermentation, cells were removed by centrifugation and the
118 supernatant was collected for LC-MS analysis.

119 **Metabolism of reference ginsenosides by *Lactobacillus plantarum* FUA 3171 in**
120 **mMRS.** Reference ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rb1, 20(*S*)-Rd, 20(*S*)-Rg3, 20(*S*)-Re and
121 20(*S*)-Rg2 were dissolved to a concentration of 5 g L⁻¹ in methanol; 50 µL of these
122 stock solutions were added to 400 µL mMRS media and inoculated with 50 µL of an
123 overnight culture of *L. plantarum*. After 48 h of fermentation at 30 °C, cells were
124 removed by centrifugation and supernatants were collected for LC-MS analyses to
125 identification of ginsenosides.

126 **Identification of ginsenosides by tandem MS.** Ginsenosides were identified after
127 adaptation of liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry methods that was
128 previously established for identification of phytochemicals from sorghum (Svensson
129 et al., 2010; Bai, Findlay, Sanchez-Maldonado, Schieber, Vederas, & Gänzle, 2015). A
130 Shimadzu UFLC system comprising a degasser, binary pump, autosampler,
131 thermostated column compartment, and a SPD-M20A Prominence diode array (PDA)
132 detector was connected to a 4000 Q TRAP LC-MS/MS System (MDS SCIEX,
133 Applied Biosystems, Streetville, ON, Canada). Ginsenosides were separated on a
134 Luna C18 RP-HPLC column (5 μm , 250 \times 4.6mm, Phenomenex, Torrance, CA). The
135 UV detection wavelength was set at 203nm, and diode array scanning was from 190
136 to 400 nm. Mobile phase A consisted of 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in water, and mobile
137 phase B consisted of 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in acetonitrile. Samples were eluted with
138 the following gradient: 0-10 min, 20% B; 10-15 min, 20-30% B; 15-20 min, 30% B;
139 20-23 min, 30-40% B; 23-27 min, 40% B; 27-45 min, 40-65% B; 45-50min, 65% B;
140 50-60 min, 65-85% B; 60-65 min, 85% B; 65-70 min, 85-20% B; 70-75 min, 20% B.
141 The injection volume was 10 μL , and the flow rate was 0.8 mL min⁻¹ at 35 °C.

142 Mass spectra were recorded in the negative-ion mode and the positive-ion mode;
143 the values of operating parameters were as follows: spray voltage, -4500 V in negative
144 mode and 5500 V in positive mode; source temperature, 600 °C; nebulizing gas (GS1),
145 65 psi; heating gas (GS2), 35 psi; and curtain gas, 12 psi. An information-dependent
146 acquisition (IDA) method, EMS \rightarrow 3EPI, was used to identify ginsenosides. Both Q1
147 and Q3 were operated at unit mass resolution. The spectra were obtained over a range

148 from m/z 100 to 1800 in 0.8 s. LIT fill time was set at 20 ms. The IDA threshold was
149 set at 500 cps, above which enhanced product ion (EPI) spectra were collected from
150 the three most intense peaks. The EPI scan rate was 4000 amu s⁻¹. Collision-induced
151 dissociation (CID) spectra were acquired using nitrogen as the collision gas under
152 Rolling Collision Energy (CE, CE = 0.050 * (m/z) + 5.000 for negative-ion mode, and
153 CE = 0.058 * (m/z) + 9.000 for positive-ion mode). The data analysis was performed
154 by Analyst 1.5 (Applied Biosystems).

155 **Quantification of 20(S)-Rg3 by MRM mode.** Quantification of 20(S)-Rg3 was
156 performed by multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) in positive-ion mode using
157 external standards method (Hu et al., 2011) under LC conditions described above. The
158 selection of the product and precursor ions was based on the IDA method outlined
159 above; for quantification of 20(S)-Rg3 in MRM mode, the sodium adduct ion (m/z
160 807.7) was used as precursor ion, and the dominant fragment ion (m/z 365.5) was used
161 as product ion. The parameters of MRM mode for quantification were as follows:
162 declustering potential (DP), 197 V; entrance potential (EP), 10 V; collision energy
163 (CE), 75 V; collision cell exit potential (CXP), 11 V. The values for optimum ion
164 source parameters were as described above. External calibration standards were
165 prepared in 50% (v/v) methanol, and the calibration curve of 20(S)-Rg3 was
166 established with five concentrations ranging from 0.5 to 25 mg L⁻¹. The calibration
167 curve was linear over the entire concentration range and the correlation coefficient r^2
168 was ≥ 0.99 . The concentrations of the calibration curve encompassed all
169 concentrations of 20(S)-Rg3 in fermented samples. Analysis of unfermented

170 microbiological media and media without addition of ginsenosides verified the
171 absence of matrix effects interfering with the quantification.

172 To elucidate the kinetics of formation of 20(*S*)-Rg3 during microbial conversion
173 of 20(*S*)-Rb1 and 20(*S*)-Rd, eight parallel samples consisting of 50 μ L stock solution
174 with 0.5 g L⁻¹ ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rb1 or 20(*S*)-Rd, 450 μ L mMRS medium and 50 μ L
175 overnight culture of *L. plantarum* FUA3171 were fermented at 30 °C. The
176 fermentations were stopped after 18, 24, 48, 60, 72, 96, 120 or 144 h, respectively, by
177 freezing the samples at -80 °C fridge. The samples were filtered through 0.22 μ m
178 Nylon membrane before quantification of 20(*S*)-Rg3 by LC-MRM. Duplicate parallel
179 experiments were carried out for quantification of 20(*S*)-Rg3.

180 **Results**

181 **Structural characterization of ginsenoside Re.** The nomenclature for fragmentation
182 of ginsenosides is based on Domon & Costello, 1988, Perreault & Costello, 1994, and
183 Liu, Cui, Liu, & Song, 2004. Ions retaining the charge at the reducing terminus are
184 termed Y and Z (glycoside cleavages) and X (cross-ring cleavages), and ions retaining
185 the charge at the non-reducing terminus are termed B and C (glycoside cleavages) and
186 A (cross-ring cleavages). As an example, the fragmentation patterns of ginsenoside
187 20(*S*)-Re in the negative-ion mode and positive-ion mode by Q-TRAP MS/MS are
188 shown in Figure 2. Figure 2a shows the MS/MS spectrum of the m/z 945.5 ion
189 ($[M-H]^-$) of Re in negative-ion mode. Under low collision energy conditions, the
190 fragments can be assigned to Y and Z ions due to successive or simultaneous losses of

191 sugar moieties. There are six main fragment ions at m/z 799.4, 783.8, 765.8, 637.6,
192 619.6 and 475.6. The mass differences between the precursor ion (m/z 945.5) and the
193 fragment ions m/z 799.4 ($Y_{1\beta}$) and m/z 783.8 ($Y_{0\alpha}$) are 146 and 162 Da, indicating the
194 losses of a deoxyhexose sugar and a hexose sugar, respectively (Cui et al., 2000). The
195 fragment ion at m/z 637.6 ($Y_{0\beta}/Y_{1\beta'}$) matches the simultaneous loss of a deoxyhexose
196 and a hexose. The smallest fragment ion at m/z 475.6 ($Y_{0\beta'}$) corresponds to the
197 molecular weight of deprotonated panaxatriol, the type aglycone of Re (Figure 2c).
198 Figure 2b shows the MS/MS spectrum of the m/z 969.6 ion ($[M+Na]^+$) of ginsenoside
199 20(*S*)-Re in the positive-ion mode. The fragment ions at m/z 789.1 ($Z_{0\alpha}$) and m/z
200 643.7 ($Z_{0\beta}$) correspond to the neutral losses of a hexose sugar moiety and a
201 disaccharide comprising a deoxyhexose and a hexose sugar. The ion at m/z 349.4 ($C_{2\beta}$)
202 matches the disaccharide adduct of the sodium ion. The characteristic fragment ions at
203 m/z 441, 423 and 405 correspond to the PPT-type aglycone in positive ion mode (Qi,
204 Wang, Zhang, Wang, Li, & Yuan, 2012).

205 **Identification of ginsenosides in nonfermented and fermented ginseng extract.**

206 Separation and structural characterization of ginsenosides were achieved by
207 LC-PDA-MS (Online Supplemental files S1). Both positive-ion and negative-ion
208 modes were employed to obtain comprehensive data for identification and metabolite
209 assignment. An information dependent acquisition (IDA) method was developed to
210 identify ginsenosides in the extractions of nonfermented, fermented and chemically
211 acidified ginseng extracts. External standards were analyzed for identification by
212 comparison of retention time and mass spectrum under the same conditions. Literature

213 data of mass spectra and MS/MS fragmentation patterns were used for compounds for
214 which external standards were not available. Due to the presence of formic acid in the
215 mobile phase, the typical solvent adducts $[M+HCOO]^-$ and deprotonated molecular
216 ions $[M-H]^-$ were usually detected in the negative-ion mode. Retention times, mass
217 spectra, MS/MS fragmentation patterns in both negative-ion mode and positive-ion
218 mode of the identified ginsenosides are listed in Table 1.

219 For the unfermented ginseng extract, a total of 15 major ginsenosides were
220 identified based on comparison with external standards or tentatively identified based
221 on comparison with literature data. For example, peak 16, a major ginsenoside in
222 ginseng extracts, had the same elemental composition and produced similar MS/MS
223 spectra as peak 13 (ginsenoside Rd), and was thus identified as gypenoside XVII, an
224 isomer of ginsenoside Rd that eluted later on C18 columns (Wan, Liu, Wang, Qi,
225 Wang, Li, & Yuan, 2013; Gafner, Bergeron, McCollom, Cooper, McPhail, Gerwick,
226 & Angerhofer, 2004).

227 To exclude confounding effects of endogenous enzyme activities or background
228 microbiota, fermentation experiments were carried out with ginseng extract in mMRS
229 rather than ground ginseng. Prior to strain selection, growth and metabolic activity of
230 *L. plantarum* in ginseng was verified. In ground ginseng mixed with water at a ratio of
231 1:1, *L. plantarum* FUA3171 grow to $9.66 \pm 0.17 \log(\text{cfu mL}^{-1})$ after 24 h and acidified
232 the fermentation substrate to $\text{pH } 4.03 \pm 0.01$ by production of $212 \pm 13 \text{ mmol kg}^{-1}$
233 lactic acid. During fermentation of mMRS broth supplemented with ginseng extract
234 with *L. plantarum*, the pH decreased 1 to 3.7 and the cell counts increased to $2.5 \times$

235 10^8 cfu·mL⁻¹ after 48 h of fermentation. A total of 14 metabolites were identified,
236 which were not detected, or detected only in trace amounts in ginseng extract.
237 Generally, metabolites shifted to longer retention times, reflecting the loss of
238 hydrophilic glycosyl residues (Figure S1). Metabolites 9, 21 and 29 were identified as
239 ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rg2, ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rg3 and ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rh2 with
240 reference compounds. Metabolites 11, 12, 18, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27 and 28 were
241 assigned as ginsenoside 20(*R*)-Rg2, ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rh1, ginsenoside Rg6,
242 ginsenoside F4, ginsenoside 20(*R*)-Rg3, ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rs3, ginsenoside
243 20(*R*)-Rs3, ginsenoside Rk1, Rs3- Δ 20(21)H₂O, ginsenoside Rg5 and
244 Rs3- Δ 20(22)H₂O, respectively, based on molecular weight and fragmentation patterns.
245 Chemical acidification of mMRS broth supplemented with ginseng extract did not
246 alter the chromatographic profile of ginsenosides, demonstrating that the types of
247 ginsenosides were changed by microbial activity.

248 **Metabolism of ginsenosides reference compounds.** To determine the metabolic
249 activity of ginsenosides, culture media containing the pure ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rb1,
250 20(*S*)-Rd, 20(*S*)-Rg3, 20(*S*)-Re and 20(*S*)-Rg2 as substrates were fermented for 48h
251 with *L. plantarum* FUA 3171. An overview on the metabolites formed by the strain is
252 provided in Figures 3 and 4. The conversion of 20(*S*)-Rb1 generated the metabolites
253 20(*S*)-Rg3 and 20(*R*)-Rg3, which are produced by hydrolysis of the C-20 sugar chain
254 (Kwon, Han, Park, Kim, Park, & Park, 2001). The geometric isomers Rk1 and Rg5
255 were also identified; there are formed via dehydration and elimination of the C-20
256 sugar chain. The 20/21 double bond Rk1 elutes earlier than the 20/22-isomer Rg5

257 (Figure 3a and Figure 4a) (Qi,Wang,& Yuan, 2010). Ginsenosides F2 and Rd were
258 not detected, indicating that substitutions at the C-3 were not hydrolysed, and that the
259 two glucosyl residues at the C-20 position were eliminated simultaneously rather than
260 by successive hydrolysis (Chen et al., 2008).

261 The conversion of ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rd by *L. plantarum* is shown in Figure 3b and
262 Figure 4b. The metabolites of 20(*S*)-Rd were 20(*S*)-Rg3, 20(*R*)-Rg3, Rk1 and Rg5,
263 indicating an identical spectrum of metabolites independent on the number of glucosyl
264 substitutions at the carbon 20. To determine whether dehydration and elimination of
265 the glucosyl residue at the C-20 are simultaneous or sequential processes, 20(*S*)-Rg3
266 was offered as substrate for *L. plantarum*; however, this ginsenoside was not further
267 modified (Figure 3c).

268 The conversion of 20(*S*)-Re is shown in Figures 3d and 4c, respectively. In analogy to
269 20(*S*)-Rd, 20(*S*)-Re is modified by hydrolysis of the glycosyl residue at C-20 to form
270 ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rg2 and 20(*R*)-Rg2, or *via* a dehydration and elimination process
271 to form ginsenosides Rg6 and F4. To confirm that dehydration and elimination as
272 simultaneous reactions, fermentations with the ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rg2 as substrate
273 were carried out. Metabolites of 20(*S*)-Rg2 were not detected (Figure 3e), confirming
274 that *L. plantarum* catalyses simultaneous dehydration and elimination.

275 **Kinetics of formation of ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rg3 during fermentation of 20(*S*)-Rb1**
276 **and 20(*S*)-Rd.** Ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rg3 was formed by hydrolysis of a glucose residue
277 from 20(*S*)-Rd, or by hydrolysis of a disaccharide from 20(*S*)-Rb1 (Compare Fig. 4a
278 and 4b). To determine whether the length of the saccharide chain influences the

279 kinetics of formation of 20(*S*)-Rg3, ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rb1 (containing two glucoses
280 at the C-20 position) and 20(*S*)-Rd (containing one glucose at the C-20 position) were
281 fermented with *L. plantarum* and samples were taken during 6 days of fermentation
282 (Figure 5). Both substrates supported the formation of ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rg3,
283 however, the reaction proceeded more rapidly with 20(*S*)-Rb1 as substrate.

284 **Discussion**

285 The biological activity of ginseng is partially derived from bacterial metabolites of
286 ginsenosides, which are formed by intestinal microbiota during digestion (Hasegawa
287 et al., 1996; Ruan et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2014). The metabolism of ginsenosides by
288 intestinal microbiota proceeds mainly by hydrolysis of glycosyl moieties at the C-3
289 and C-20 (Qian, Jiang, & Cai 2006; Yang, Deng, Xu, & Zeng, 2007); dehydrated
290 metabolites including ginsenosides Rk1 and Rg5 and lactate esters of ginsenosides
291 were also observed (Wang et al., 2014). The current study employed a highly sensitive
292 and selective LC-Q-TRAP-MS method for analysis of ginsenosides and metabolites
293 of ginsenoside standards to provide direct evidence for the microbial dehydration of
294 ginsenosides, and to analyse the kinetics of conversion by *L. plantarum*.

295 Fermentation of ginseng or ginseng extract allows controlled bioconversion of
296 ginsenosides to more bioavailable and bioactive metabolites, and may provide
297 opportunities for development of functional fermented foods and pharmacologically
298 active preparations (nutraceuticals). Several studies provide proof of concept that
299 fermented ginseng has improved biological activity. Fermented ginseng rich in
300 ginsenosides Rg3, Rh1, and protopanaxatriol reduced the volume and weight of

301 hepatic tumors in rats (Lin, Mou, Su, & Chiang, 2010). Extract from ginseng
302 fermented with *L. plantarum* was suggested to have superior immune-modulatory
303 effects in human volunteers when compared to extract from non-fermented ginseng
304 (Kim et al., 2011).

305 The conversion of ginsenosides during fermentation with lactic acid bacteria is
306 attributable mainly to hydrolysis of glucosyl-residues at the C-3 and C-20 positions
307 (Chi & Ji, 2005). This pathway or parts of this pathway has been described in several
308 *Lactobacillus* species including *L. delbrueckii*, *L. pentosus*, *L. paralimentarius*, *L.*
309 *ginsenosidimutans*, and *L. yonginensis*, and was attributed to β -glucosidase activity
310 (Chi & Ji, 2005; Kim et al., 2012; Quan, Kim, Li, Choi, & Yang, 2013; Jung, Liu,
311 Kim, Lee, Kim, & Im, 2013; Yi et al., 2013). Ginsenoside Rb1 was more readily
312 transformed when compared to ginsenoside Re (Chi & Ji, 2005). A strain of *L. brevis*
313 was recently reported to catalyse the exceptional ketonization of ginsenosides F1 and
314 compound K (Jin et al., 2014).

315 The dehydrated ginsenosides Rk1 and Rg5 were moderately increased after
316 fermentation of red ginseng with *L. plantarum* (Kim et al., 2010); however, because
317 these metabolites were also produced during the heat sterilization of the fermentation
318 substrate (Qi, Wang, & Yuan, 2010; Kim et al., 2010), evidence for their formation by
319 microbial conversion is inconclusive. The current study used a ginseng extract and
320 reference compounds as substrates for bacterial metabolism and thus excluded effects
321 of heat treatment or endogenous (plant) enzymatic activities. This approach provided
322 direct evidence for the formation of the dehydrated ginsenosides Rg5 and Rk1 by *L.*

323 *plantarum*. The production of dehydrated ginsenosides cannot be attributed to
324 glucosyl hydrolases; this conversion is thus attributable to yet uncharacterized
325 enzymatic activities of *L. plantarum*.

326 The pattern of metabolites formed during bioconversion of ginseng extract or pure
327 ginsenosides demonstrates that *L. plantarum* FUA3171 removes glucosyl-residues
328 mainly or exclusively at the C-20 position (Figure 4). Ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rg3,
329 20(*R*)-Rg3, Rk1 and Rg5 may be produced by elimination of glucose chains at C-20
330 position of Rb1 and Rd (Figure 1 and Figure 4). 20(*S*)-Rg2, 20(*R*)-Rg2, Rg6 and F4
331 may be produced by the analogous conversion of ginsenoside Re (Figure 1).
332 Ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rs3, 20(*R*)-Rs3, Rs3- Δ 20(21)H₂O and Rs3- Δ 20(22)H₂O may be
333 produced from quinquenoside R1 or pseudoginsenoside Rc1. Minor ginsenosides Rh2
334 may be produced from gypenoside XVII and F2. Because of the low concentration of
335 some ginsenosides, the *S* and *R* isomers of the minor ginsenosides Rh2 and Rh1 were
336 not differentiated.

337 This study is the first to provide a kinetic analysis of the conversion of ginsenosides
338 standards, which revealed two remarkable features. First, the ginsenoside Rb1 with
339 two glucosyl-residues at position C-20 was converted faster than ginsenoside Rd,
340 which carries only one glucosyl residue at C-20, and accumulation of ginsenoside Rd
341 was not observed during conversion of ginsenoside Rb1. In contrast to the sequential
342 hydrolysis of glycosyl-residues at position C-20 that was described for other
343 lactobacilli, this suggests the presence of a β -glucosidase which preferentially releases
344 the disaccharide. Second, the dehydrated ginsenosides Rk1, Rg5, Rg6, and F4 were

345 formed only from precursors that were glucosylated at the C-20 position (Figure 4).
346 This conversion confirms that *L. plantarum* forms dehydrated ginsenosides, and may
347 indicate the exceptional presence of a carbohydrate lyase in *L. plantarum*. To our
348 knowledge, carbohydrate-lyases have not been described in *Lactobacillus* spp., and
349 genes corresponding to carbohydrate lyases are not annotated in the genomes that are
350 currently available at Genebank. Strains of *L. plantarum*, however, have an
351 exceptional ability for conversion of plant secondary metabolites (Rodríguez et al.,
352 2009). Moreover, when compared to other lactobacilli, *L. plantarum* is characterized
353 by a large genome size and genome flexibility, including the ability to acquire
354 “lifestyle cassettes” to occupy specific ecological niches (Siezen & van
355 HylckamaVlieg, 2011). It is noteworthy that *L. plantarum* FUA3171 was isolated
356 from sorghum fermentations, a substrate which is rich in phenolic compounds and
357 glycosides of phenolic compounds (Sekwati-Monang & Gänzle, 2011).

358 In conclusion, this study assessed biotransformation of ginsenosides extracts by
359 *Lactobacillus plantarum*. A total of 14 metabolites were characterized by LC-Q-
360 TRAP-MS. Interestingly, deglycosylation and dehydration occurs predominantly at
361 the C-20 position, and the elimination efficiency increases with the length of C-20
362 glucosyl-moieties. This study provided evidence for the exceptional existence of a
363 glycosyl lyase in *L. plantarum* and will be useful for development of fermented
364 ginseng products as functional foods or nutraceuticals.

365 **Acknowledgements.**

366 We are grateful to Pasquale Filannino and Alma Fernanda Sanchez Maldonado for

367 support with the microbiological analysis of ginseng fermentations. NSERC is
368 acknowledged for financial support.

369 **References**

370 Angelova, N., Kong, H., Heijden, R. V. D., Yang, S., Choi, Y. H., Kim, H. K., et al.,
371 (2008). Recent methodology in the phytochemical analysis of ginseng. *Phytochem.*
372 *Anal.19*, 2–16.

373 Bai, Y., Findlay, B., Sanchez Maldonado, A.F., Schieber, A., Vederas, J.C., & Gänzle,
374 M.G. (2014). Novel pyrano- and vinylphenol-adducts of deoxyanthocyanidins in
375 sorghum sourdough. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* *62*, 11536–11546.

376 Cheng, L. Q., Na, J. R., Bang, M. H., Kim, M. K., Yang, D. C. (2008). Conversion of
377 major ginsenoside Rb1 to 20(S)-ginsenoside Rg3 by *Microbacterium* sp. GS514.
378 *Phytochem.69*, 218-224.

379 Chi, H., & Ji, G.E. (2005). Transformation of ginsenosides Rb1 and Re from *Panax*
380 *ginseng* by food microorganisms. *Biotechnol. Lett.* *27*, 765-771.

381 Cui, M., Song, F. R., Zhou, Y., Liu, Z. Q., & Liu, S. Y. (2000). Rapid identification of
382 saponins in plant extracts by electrospray ionization multi-stage tandem mass
383 spectrometry and liquid chromatography/tandem mass spectrometry. *Rapid Commun.*
384 *Mass Spectrom.14*, 1280-1286.

385 Domon, B., & Costello, C.E. (1988). A systematic nomenclature for carbohydrate
386 fragmentations in FAB–MS/MS spectra of glycoconjugates. *Glycoconjugate J.* *5*,
387 397–409.

388 Gafner, S., Bergeron, C., McCollom, M. M., Cooper, L. M., McPhail, K. L., & Gerwick,
389 W. H., Angerhofer, C. K. (2004) Evaluation of the efficiency of three different solvent
390 systems to extract triterpene saponins from roots of *Panax quinquefolius* using
391 high-performance liquid chromatography. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 52, 1546-1550.

392 Han, B. H., Park, M. H., Han, Y. N., Woo, W. S., Sankawa, U., Yahara, S., et al.
393 (1982). Degradation of ginseng under mild acidic condition. *Plant Med.* 44, 146-149.

394 Hasegawa, H., Sung, J. H., Matsumiya, S., & Uchiyama, M. (1996). Main ginseng
395 metabolites formed by intestinal bacteria. *Planta Med.* 62, 453-455.

396 Hu, Y., Stromeck, A., Loponen, J., Lutz, D. L., Schieber, A., & Gänzle, M. G. (2011).
397 LC-MS/MS quantification of bioactive angiotensin I-converting enzyme inhibitory
398 peptides in rye malt sourdoughs. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 59, 11983-11989.

399 Jin, Y., Jung, S.Y., Kim, Y.-J., Lee, D.-Y., Min, J.-W., Wang, C., et al. (2014).
400 Microbial ketonization of ginsenosides F1 and C-K by *Lactobacillus brevis*. *Antonie*
401 *van Leeuwenhoek* 106, 1215–1221.

402 Jung, H.-M., Liu, Q.-M, Kim, J.-K, Lee, S.-T, Kim, S.-C., & Im, W.-T. (2013).
403 *Lactobacillus ginsenosidimutans* sp. nov., isolated from kimchi with the ability to
404 transform ginsenosides. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 103, 867–876.

405 Kim, B.G., Choi, S.-Y., Kim, M.-R., Suh, H.J., & Park, H.J. (2010). Changes of
406 ginsenosides in Korean red ginseng (*Panax ginseng*) fermented by *Lactobacillus*
407 *plantarum* M1. *Process Biochem.* 45, 1319–1324.

408 Kim, B.G., Shin, K.S., Yoon, T.J., Yu, K.W., Ra, K.S., Kim, J.M., et al. (2011).

409 Fermentation of Korean red ginseng by *Lactobacillus plantarum* M-2 and its
410 immunological activities. *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.* 165, 1107-1119.

411 Kim, J. H., Lee, J. H., Jeong, S. M., Lee, B. H., Yoon, I. S., Lee, J. H., et al. (2006).
412 Stereospecific effects of ginsenoside Rg3 epimers on swine coronary artery
413 contractions. *Biol. Pharm. Bull.* 29, 365-370.

414 Kim, S.H., Min, J.W., Quan, L.-H., Lee, S., Yang, D.U., & Yang, D.-C. (2012).
415 Enzymatic transformation of ginsenoside Rb1 by *Lactobacillus pentosus* strain 6105
416 from kimchi. *J. Ginseng Res.* 36, 291-297.

417 Kwon, S. W., Han, S. B., Park, I. H., Kim, J. M., Park, M. K., & Park, J. H. (2001).
418 Liquid chromatographic determination of less polar ginsenosides in processed ginseng.
419 *J. Chromatogr. A* 921, 335–339.

420 Li, X. Q., Yang, Z., Zhang, Q. H., & Li, H. M. (2014). Evaluation of matrix effect in
421 isotope dilution mass spectrometry based on quantitative analysis of chloramphenicol
422 residues in milk powder. *Anal. Chimica. Acta* 807, 75-83.

423 Lin, Y. W., Mou Y. C., Su, C. C., & Chiang, B. H. (2010). Antihepatocarcinoma
424 activity of lactic acid bacteria fermented *Panax notoginseng*. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 58,
425 8528-8534.

426 Liu, S. Y., Cui, M., Liu, Z. Q., & Song, F. R. (2004). Structural analysis of saponins
427 from medicinal herbs using electrospray ionization tandem mass spectrometry. *J. Am.*
428 *Soc. Mass Spectrom.* 15, 133–141.

429 Niu, J., Pi, Z. F., Yue, H., Yang, H. M., Wang, Y., Yu Q., et al., (2012). Effect of
430 20(S)-ginsenoside Rg3 on streptozotocin-induced experimental type 2 diabetic rats: a
431 urinary metabonomics study by rapid-resolution liquid chromatography/mass
432 spectrometry. *Rapid Commun. Mass Spectrom.* 26, 2683-2689.

433 Perreault, H., & Costello, C. E. (1994). Liquid secondary ionization tandem and
434 matrix- assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometric
435 characterization of glycosphingolipid derivatives. *Org. Mass Spectrom.* 29, 720–735.

436 Qi, L. W., Wang, C. Z., & Yuan, C. S. (2010). American ginseng: Potential
437 structure-function relationship in cancer chemoprevention. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 80,
438 947-954.

439 Qi, L.W., Wang, H. Y., Zhang, H., Wang, C. Z., Li, P., & Yuan, C. S. (2012).
440 Diagnostic ion filtering to characterize ginseng saponins by rapid liquid
441 chromatography with time-of-flight mass spectrometry. *J. Chromatogr. A* 1230,
442 93-99.

443 Qian, T. X., Jiang, Z. H., & Cai Z. W. (2006). High-performance liquid
444 chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry applied for metabolic study
445 of ginsenoside Rb1 on rat. *Anal. Biochem.* 352, 87-96.

446 Quan, L.-H., Kim, Y.-J, Li, G.H., Choi, K.-T, & Yang, D.C. (2013). Microbial
447 transformation of ginsenoside Rb1 to compound K by *Lactobacillus paralimentarius*.
448 *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 29, 1001–1007.

449 Rodríguez, H., Curiel, J.A., Landete, J.M., de las Rivas, B., López de Felipe, F.,

450 Gómez-Cordovés, C., et al. (2009). Food phenolics and lactic acid bacteria. *Int. J.*
451 *Food Microbiol.* 132, 79-90.

452 Ruan, J.Q., Leong, W.I., Yan, R., & Wang, Y.T. (2010). Characterization of
453 metabolism and in vitro permeability study of notoginsenoside R1 from *Radix*
454 *notoginseng*. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 58, 5770-5776.

455 Sekwati-Monang, B., & Gänzle, M.G. (2011). Microbiological and chemical
456 characterisation of ting, a sorghum-based sourdough product from Botswana. *Int. J.*
457 *Food Microbiol.* 150, 115-121.

458 Shibata, S., Fujita, M., Itokawa, H., Tanaka, O., & Ishii, T. (1963). Studies on the
459 constituents of Japanese and Chinese crude drugs. XI. Panaxadiol, a saponin of
460 ginseng roots. *Chem Pharm Bull*, 11, 759-761.

461 Siezen, R.J., & van HylckamaVlieg, J.E. (2011). Genomic diversity and versatility of
462 *Lactobacillus plantarum*, a natural metabolic engineer. *Microb. Cell Fact.* 10 Suppl 1,
463 S3.

464 Svensson, L., Sekwati-Monang, B., Lopez-Lutz, D., Schieber, A., & Gänzle, M.G.
465 (2010). Phenolic acids and flavonoids in nonfermented and fermented red sorghum
466 (*Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench). *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 58, 9214-9220.

467 Wan, J. Y., Liu, P., Wang, H. Y., Qi, L. W., Wang, C. Z., Li, P., & Yuan, C. S. (2013).
468 Biotransformation and metabolic profile of American ginseng saponins with human
469 intestinal microflora by liquid chromatography quadrupole time-of-flight mass
470 spectrometry. *J. Chromatogr. A* 1286, 83-92.

471 Wang, H.Y., Hua, H.Y., Liu, X.Y., Liu, J.H., & Yu, B.Y. (2014). In vitro
472 biotransformation of red ginseng extract by human intestinal microflora: metabolites
473 identification and metabolic profile elucidation using LC-Q-TOF/MS. *J Pharm.*
474 *Biomed. Anal.*98, 296-306.

475 Wu, W., Qin, Q. J., Guo, Y. Y., Sun, J. H., & Liu, S. Y. (2012). Studies on the chemical
476 transformation of 20(S)-protopanaxatriol (PPT)-type ginsenosides Re, Rg2, and Rf
477 using rapid resolution liquid chromatography coupled with quadruple-time-of-flight
478 mass spectrometry (RRLC-Q-TOF-MS). *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 60, 10007-10014.

479 Wu, W., Sun, L., Zhang, Z., Guo, Y., & Liu, S. (2015). Profiling and multivariate
480 statistical analysis of *Panax ginseng* based on ultra-high-performance liquid
481 chromatography coupled with quadrupole-time-of-flight mass spectrometry. *J. Pharm.*
482 *Biomed. Anal.* 107, 141-150.

483 Xiang, Y., Shang, H., Gao, X., & Zhang, B. (2008). A comparison of the ancient use
484 of ginseng in traditional Chinese medicine with modern pharmacological experiments
485 and clinical trials. *Phytother. Res.* 22, 851-858.

486 Yang, L., Deng, Y. H., Xu, S. J., & Zeng, X. (2007). In vivo pharmacokinetic and
487 metabolism studies of ginsenoside Rd. *J. Chromatogr. B* 854, 77-84.

488 Yi, E.-J., Yang, J.-E., Lee,, J.M., Park, Y.J., Park, W.J., Shin, H.-S., et al. (2013).
489 *Lactobacillus yonginensis* sp. nov., a lactic acid bacterium with ginsenoside
490 converting activity isolated from kimchi. *Int. J. System. Evol. Microbiol.* 63,
491 3274–3279.

492 Zhu, G., Li, Y., Hau, D. K., Jiang, Z., Yu, Z., & Fong, W. (2011). Protopanaxatriol-type

493 ginsenosides from the root of *Panax ginseng*. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 59, 200–205.

494

495 **Figure legends**

496 **Figure 1.**Chemical structures of ginsenosides and their metabolites.

497 **Figure2.** ESI-Q-TRAP-MS/MS spectra of ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Re. Panel (a):
498 negative-ion mode. Panel (b): positive-ion mode. Panel (c): Fragmentation pathways
499 of the [M-H]⁻ ion of ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Re.

500 **Figure 3.**Extracted ion chromatograms (EICs) of metabolites formed by *L. plantarum*
501 FUA3171 with standard ginsenosides as substrates. The following reference
502 compounds were used as substrate: Panel (a) 20(*S*)-Rb1, Panel (b) 20(*S*)-Rd, Panel (c)
503 20(*S*)-Rg3, Panel (d) 20(*S*)-Re, Panel (e) 20(*S*)-Rg2.

504 **Figure 4.**Metabolic pathways of the conversion of ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rb1 (Panel a)
505 20(*S*)-Rd (Panel b), and 20(*S*)-Re (Panel c).by *L. plantarum* FUA3171.

506 **Figure 5.**Kinetics of the formation of ginsenoside 20(*S*)-Rg3 during fermentation with
507 *L. plantarum* FUA3171 and ginsenosides 20(*S*)-Rb1 or 20(*S*)-Rd as substrate. Data
508 are shown as means ± standard deviation of two independent experiments. .

509

Table 1. Identification of Ginsenosides in Negative-ion and Positive-ion Mode by LC-PDA-MS/MS.

No.	Identification	t _R (min)	[M-H] ⁻	[M+ HCOO] ⁻	[M+Na] ⁺	Fragment ions in the negative mode	Fragment ions of [M+Na] ⁺ in the positive mode
1	ginsenoside Re	22.26		991.7	969.7	799.7 (Y _{1β}), 783.6 (Y _{0α}), 765.8 (Z _{0α}), 637.8 (Y _{1β} /Y _{0β}), 619.8 (Z _{1β}), 475.4 (Y _{0β})	789.1, 643.7, 441.4, 423.5, 405.4, 349.4
2	ginsenoside Rg1	22.87*		845.7	823.7	637.7 (Y _{0α} /Y _{0β}), 619.8 (Z _{0α} /Z _{0β}), 475.6 (Y _{0α} /Y _{0β}), 391.7 (Y _{0α} -C ₆ H ₁₂ /Y _{0β} -C ₆ H ₁₂)	789.6, 643.6, 441.5, 423.5, 405.4
3	ginsenoside Rb1	29.95	1107.7	1153.8	1131.8	945.8 (Y _{1α} /Y _{1β}), 783.7 (Y _{0α} /Y _{0β}), 765.2 (Z _{0α} /Z _{0β}), 621.9 (Y _{1α} /Y _{1β}), 459.7 (Y _{0α} /Y _{0β})	789.5, 425.3, 407.4, 365.2
4	malonyl-Rb1	30.51	1193.9	1239.9	1217.9	1149.6 ([M-H-COO] ⁻), 1107.7 ([M-H-malonyl] ⁻), 1089.7 ([M-H-malonyl-H ₂ O] ⁻), 945.7 (Y _{1α}), 927.8 (Z _{1α}), 783.8 (Y _{0α}), 765.7 (Z _{0α}), 621.8 (Y _{1β}), 459.5 (Y _{0β})	1173.7, 1101.7, 875.5, 831.1, 789.7, 451.3, 425.4, 407.4, 365.4, 335.3, 305.3
5	ginsenoside Rc	30.81	1077.8	1123.8	1101.8	945.7 (Y _{1α}), 915.6 (Y _{1β}), 783.6 (Y _{0α}), 765.5 (Z _{0α}), 621.6 (Y _{1β}), 603.8 (Z _{1β}), 459.6 (Y _{0β})	875.5, 831.5, 789.6, 451.4, 425.4, 407.4, 335.3
6	ginsenoside Rb2	31.53	1077.7	1123.9	1101.6	945.8 (Y _{1α}), 783.7 (Y _{0α}), 765.7 (Z _{0α}), 621.8 (Y _{1β}), 603.6 (Z _{1β}), 459.6 (Y _{0β})	875.6, 789.6, 451.6, 407.5, 335.4
7	ginsenoside Rb3	31.94	1077.8	1123.8	1101.8	945.7 (Y _{1α}), 783.6 (Y _{0α}), 765.8 (Z _{0α}), 621.8 (Y _{1β}), 459.7 (Y _{0β})	875.5, 831.6, 789.7, 627.6, 451.3, 425.5, 407.4, 365.3, 335.3
8	ginsenoside Ro	32.88	955.9		979.9	793.8 ([M-H-glc] ⁻), 631.8 ([M-H-glc-glc] ⁻), 569.5 ([M-H-glc-glc-C ₂ H ₆ O ₂] ⁻), 475.8 ([M-H-glc-glc-glc-acid] ⁻)	845.6, 817.6, 641.4, 624.1, 439.4, 406.1, 393.4, 203.3
9	ginsenoside 20(S)-Rg2#	33.16	783.5	829.5	807.5	637.6 (Y _{1β}), 619.7 (Z _{1β}), 475.8 (Y _{0β}), 391.4 (Y _{0β} -C ₆ H ₁₂)	661.7, 441.6, 423.5, 405.6
10	quinquenoside R1	33.43	1149.8	1195.8	1173.8	1107.6 ([M-H-acetyl] ⁻), 945.8 (Y _{1α}), 927.6 (Z _{1α}), 783.4 (Y _{0α}), 765.5 (Z _{0α}), 621.9 (Y _{1β}), 459.7 (Y _{0β})	831.5, 425.4, 407.4, 365.3

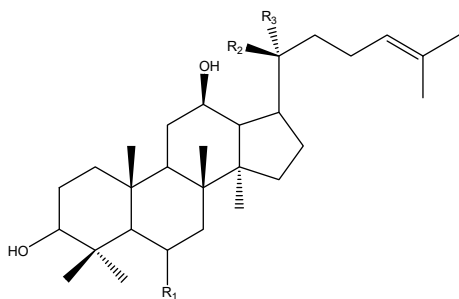
11	ginsenoside 20(R)-Rg2#	33.65*	783.6	829.6	807.6	637.7 (Y _{1β}), 475.8 (Y _{0β}), 391.4 (Y _{0β} -C ₆ H ₁₂)	661.6, 423.5, 405.4
12	ginsenoside Rh1#	34.84*		683.8	661.8	475.7 (Y _{0β}), 459.7 (Z _{0β}), 375.7 (Z _{0β} -C ₆ H ₁₂)	441.7, 423.5, 405.7
13	ginsenoside Rd	35.03	945.7	991.7	969.7	783.8 (Y _{0α} /Y _{1β}), 765.7 (Z _{0α} /Z _{1β}), 621.7 (Y _{1β} /Y _{0β}), 603.5 (Z _{0β}), 459.7 (Y _{0β})	893.4, 875.5, 831.6, 789.6, 451.3, 425.4, 407.4
14	malonyl-Rd	35.74		1077.8	1055.8	987.6 ([M-H-COO] ⁻), 945.7 ([M-H-malonyl] ⁻), 783.7 (Y _{0α}), 765.8 (Z _{0α}), 621.6 (Y _{1β}), 459.7 (Y _{0β})	1011.6, 893.5, 875.5, 831.6, 789.7, 451.3, 407.4
15	pseudoginsenoside Rc1	36.19*	987.5	1033.5	1011.6	945.7 ([M-H-acetyl] ⁻), 783.7 (Y _{1β}), 765.8 (Z _{1β}), 621.6 (Y _{0β}), 459.4 (Y _{0β})	969.4, 789.6, 627.8, 365.4
16	gypenoside- X VII	36.46	945.7	991.7	969.7	783.7 (Y _{1α} /Y _{0β}), 765.6 (Z _{1α} /Z _{0β}), 621.7 (Y _{1α} /Y _{0α}), 459.7 (Y _{0β})	627.6, 407.4, 365.2, 305.3,
17	malony-Rd isomer	37.21		1077.9	1055.8	987.5 ([M-H-COO] ⁻), 945.6 ([M-H-malonyl] ⁻), 783.8(Y _{0β}), 765.5(Z _{0β}), 621.7(Y _{1α}), 459.7(Y _{0α})	1011.6, 831.6, 789.6, 713.5, 665.6, 627.6, 552.6, 451.3, 407.4, 365.1, 335.2
18	ginsenoside Rg6#	41.70*	765.8	811.8	789.8	619.7 (Y _{1β}), 601.7 (Z _{1β}), 459.7 (Y _{0β}), 375.7 (Y _{0β} -C ₆ H ₁₂)	679.8, 661.3, 643.8, 553.4, 453.4, 435.6
19	ginsenoside F2	42.01	783.8	829.8	807.8	619.7 (Y _{0α} /Y _{0β}), 459.5 (Y _{0β}), 375.7 (Y _{0β} -C ₆ H ₁₂)	723.6, 664.6, 627.1, 519.6, 407.4, 365.4, 351.4, 337.4
20	ginsenoside F4#	42.48*	765.8	811.8	789.8	621.7 (Y _{1β}), 601.6 (Z _{1β}), 459.5 (Y _{0β})	679.8, 661.9, 643.8, 553.4, 453.3, 435.7
21	ginsenoside 20(S)-Rg3#	45.28	783.8	829.8	807.8	621.7 (Y _{1β}), 459.5 (Y _{0β}), 375.8 (Y _{0β} -C ₆ H ₁₂)	645.8, 475.3, 457.8, 407.5, 365.7
22	ginsenoside 20(R)-Rg3#	45.94	783.8	829.8	807.8	621.6 (Y _{1β}), 459.6 (Y _{0β})	645.8, 457.8, 407.5,
23	ginsenoside 20(S)-Rs3#	46.37*	825.8	871.7	849.7	783.4 ([M-H-acetyl] ⁻), 621.7 (Y _{1β}), 459.7 (Y _{0β}), 375.7 (Y _{0β} -C ₆ H ₁₂)	831.6, 813.6, 807.7, 789.7, 771.7, 645.6, 627.6, 451.5, 433.7, 407.6,

24	ginsenoside 20(R)-Rs3#	46.78*	825.8	871.7	849.7	783.7 ([M-H-acetyl] ⁻), 621.5 (Y _{1β}), 459.6 (Y _{0β})	389.6 813.7, 807.8, 789.7, 771.7, 645.6, 451.5, 433.7, 407.6
25	ginsenoside Rk1#	52.95	765.7	811.7	789.7	603.8 (Y _{1β}), 441.7 (Y _{0β}), 357.5 (Y _{0β} -C ₆ H ₁₂)	627.8, 365.7
26	Rs3-Δ20(21)H ₂ O#	53.93	807.8	853.7		765.7 ([M-H-acetyl] ⁻), 747.8 ([M-H-acetyl-H ₂ O] ⁻), 603.6 (Y _{1β})	
27	ginsenoside Rg5#	54.53*	765.7	811.7	789.7	603.7 (Y _{1β}), 441.6 (Y _{0β})	627.8, 475.6, 453.7, 435.6, 417.6, 365.7, 337.1,
28	Rs3-Δ20(22)H ₂ O#	54.87	807.7	853.8		765.7 ([M-H-acetyl] ⁻), 747.8 ([M-H-acetyl-H ₂ O] ⁻), 603.6 (Y _{1β})	
29	ginsenoside Rh2#	57.81*	621.7	667.7	645.7	459.4 (Y _{0β})	451.6, 407.6

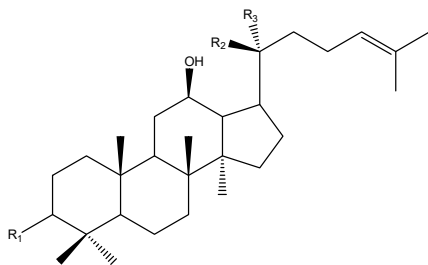
#, new ginsenosides from fermentation,

*retention time from extracted ion chromatograms (EICs)

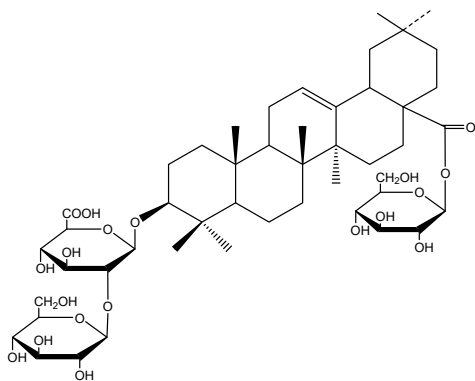
Figure 1



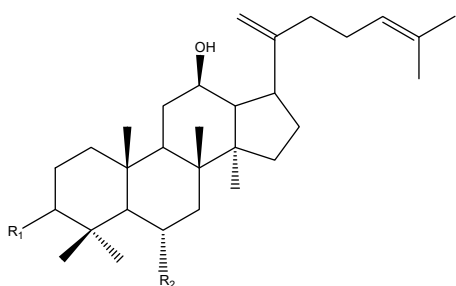
No.	Identification	Formula	R1	R2	R3
1	gisenoside Re	C ₄₈ H ₈₂ O ₁₈	-Oglc(2-1)rha	-Oglc	-CH3
2	gisenoside Rg1	C ₄₂ H ₇₂ O ₁₄	-Oglc	-Oglc	-CH3
9	20(<i>S</i>)-gisenoside Rg2	C ₄₂ H ₇₂ O ₁₃	-Oglc(2-1)rha	-OH	-CH3
11	20(<i>R</i>)-gisenoside Rg2	C ₄₂ H ₇₂ O ₁₃	-Oglc(2-1)rha	-CH3	-OH
12	20(<i>S</i>)-gisenoside Rh1	C ₃₆ H ₆₂ O ₉	-Oglc	-OH	-CH3



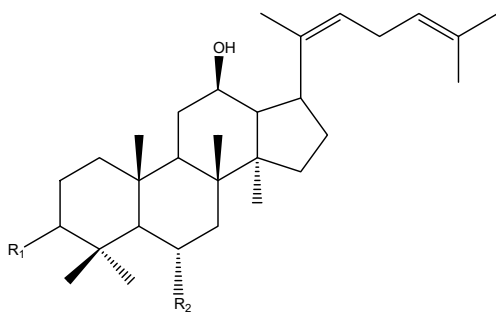
No.	Identification	Formula	R1	R2	R3
3	ginsenoside Rb1	C ₅₄ H ₉₂ O ₂₃	-Oglc(2-1)glc	-Oglc(6-1)glc	-CH3
4	malonyl-Rb1	C ₅₇ H ₉₄ O ₂₆	-Oglc(2-1)glc-malonyl	-Oglc(6-1)glc	-CH3
5	ginsenoside Rc	C ₅₃ H ₉₀ O ₂₂	-Oglc(2-1)glc	-Oglc(6-1)araf	-CH3
6	ginsenoside Rb2	C ₅₃ H ₉₀ O ₂₂	-Oglc(2-1)glc	-Oglc(6-1)arap	-CH3
7	ginsenoside Rb3	C ₅₃ H ₉₀ O ₂₂	-Oglc(2-1)glc	-Oglc(6-1)xylp	-CH3
10	quinquenoside R1	C ₅₆ H ₉₄ O ₂₄	-Oglc(2-1)glc-acetyl	-Oglc(6-1)glc	-CH3
13	ginsenoside Rd	C ₄₈ H ₈₂ O ₁₈	-Oglc(2-1)glc	-Oglc	-CH3
14/17	malonyl-Rd/isomer	C ₅₁ H ₈₄ O ₂₁	-Oglc(2-1)glc-malonyl	-Oglc	-CH3
15	pseudoginsenoside Rc1	C ₅₀ H ₈₄ O ₁₉	-Oglc(2-1)glc-acetyl	-Oglc	-CH3
16	gypenoside X VII	C ₄₈ H ₈₂ O ₁₈	-Oglc	-Oglc(6-1)glc	-CH3
19	ginsenoside F2	C ₄₂ H ₇₂ O ₁₃	-Oglc	-Oglc	-CH3
21	ginsenoside 20(<i>S</i>)-Rg3	C ₄₂ H ₇₂ O ₁₃	-Oglc(2-1)glc	-OH	-CH3
22	ginsenoside 20(<i>R</i>)-Rg3	C ₄₂ H ₇₂ O ₁₃	-Oglc(2-1)glc	-CH3	-OH
23	ginsenoside 20(<i>S</i>)-Rs3	C ₄₄ H ₇₄ O ₁₄	-Oglc(2-1)glc-acetyl	-OH	-CH3
24	ginsenoside 20(<i>R</i>)-Rs3	C ₄₄ H ₇₄ O ₁₄	-Oglc(2-1)glc-acetyl	-CH3	-OH
29	ginsenoside 20(<i>S</i>)-Rh2	C ₃₆ H ₆₂ O ₈	-Oglc	-OH	-CH3



No.	Identification	Formula
8	Ro	C ₄₈ H ₇₆ O ₁₉



No.	Identification	Formula	R1	R2
18	ginsenoside Rg6	C ₄₂ H ₇₀ O ₁₂	-OH	-Oglc(2-1)rha
25	ginsenoside Rk1	C ₄₂ H ₇₀ O ₁₂	-Oglc(2-1)glc	-H
26	Rs3-Δ20(21)H2O	C ₄₂ H ₆₈ O ₁₁	-Oglc(2-1)glc-acetyl	-H



No.	Identification	Formula	R1	R2
20	ginsenoside F4	C ₄₂ H ₇₀ O ₁₂	-OH	-Oglc(2-1)rha
27	ginsenoside Rg5	C ₄₂ H ₇₀ O ₁₂	-Oglc(2-1)glc	-H
28	Rs3-Δ20(22)H2O	C ₄₂ H ₆₈ O ₁₁	-Oglc(2-1)glc-acetyl	-H

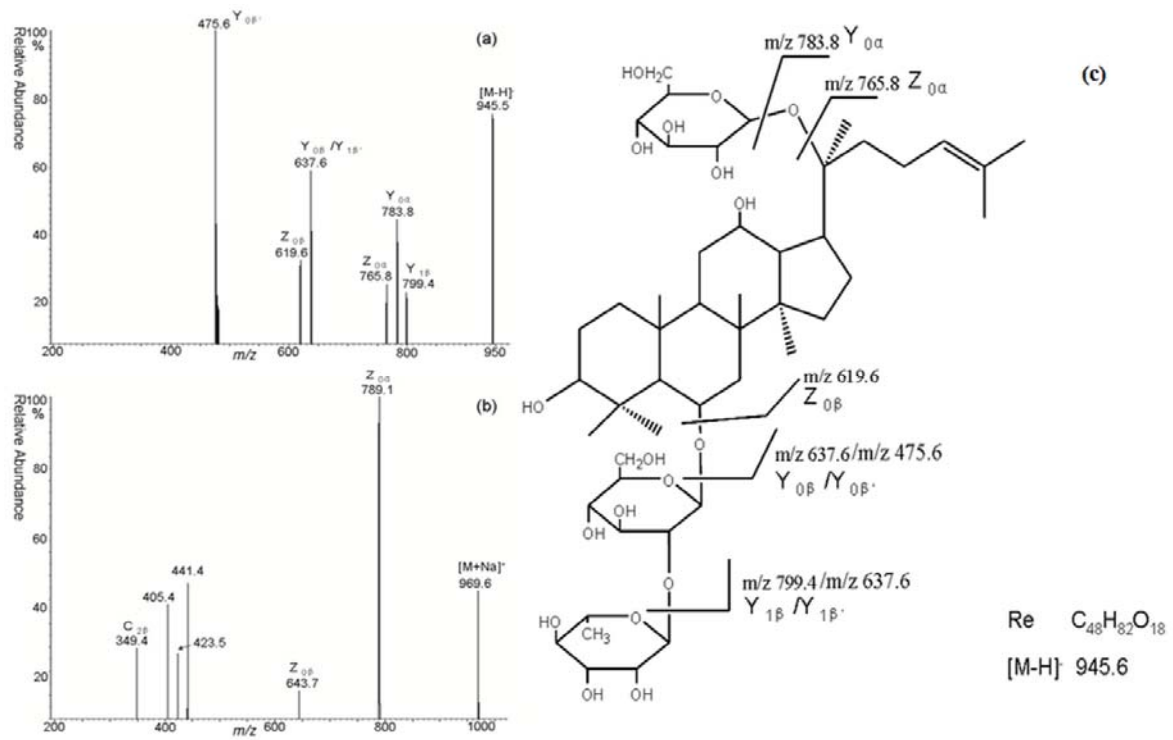


Figure 2.

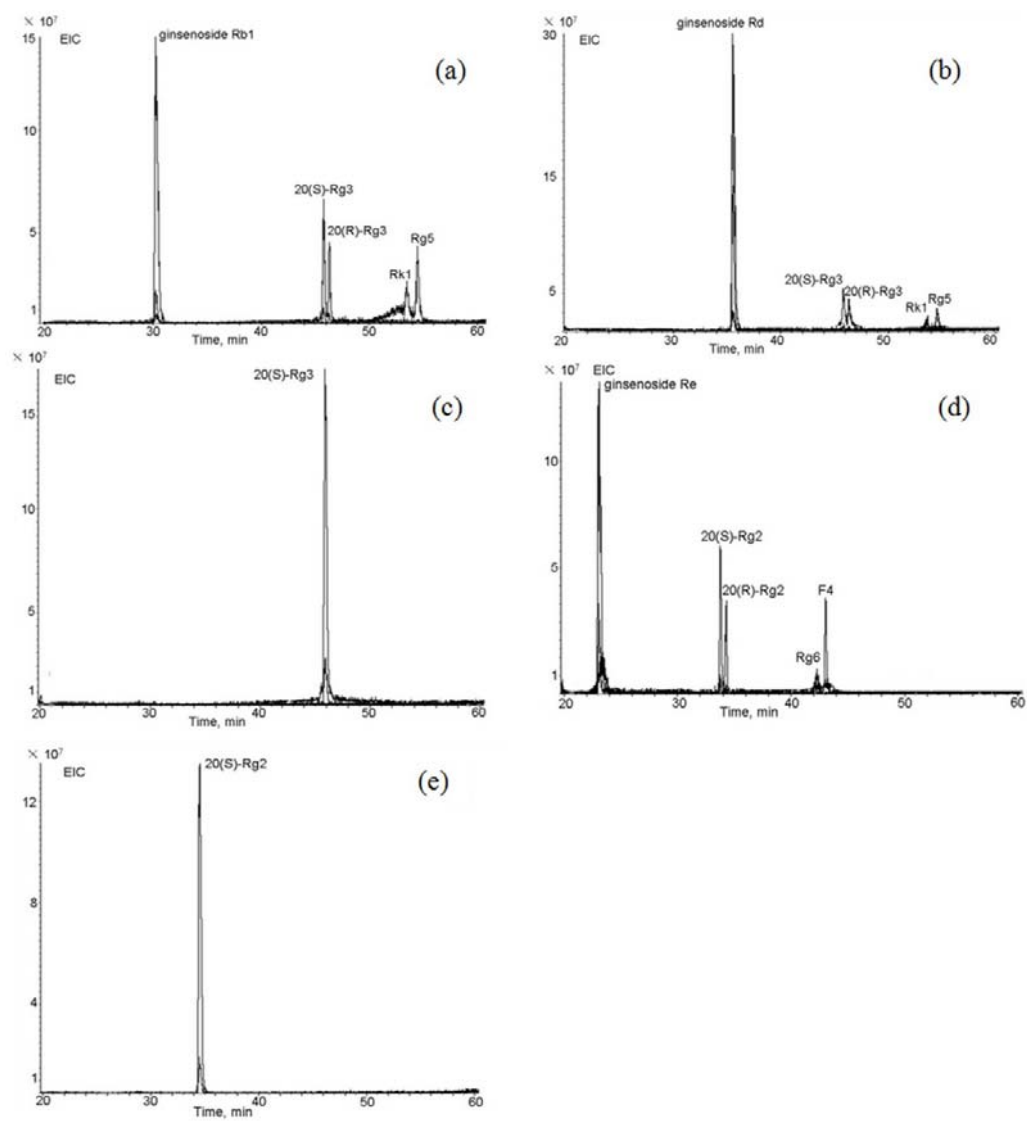


Figure 3

Figure 4

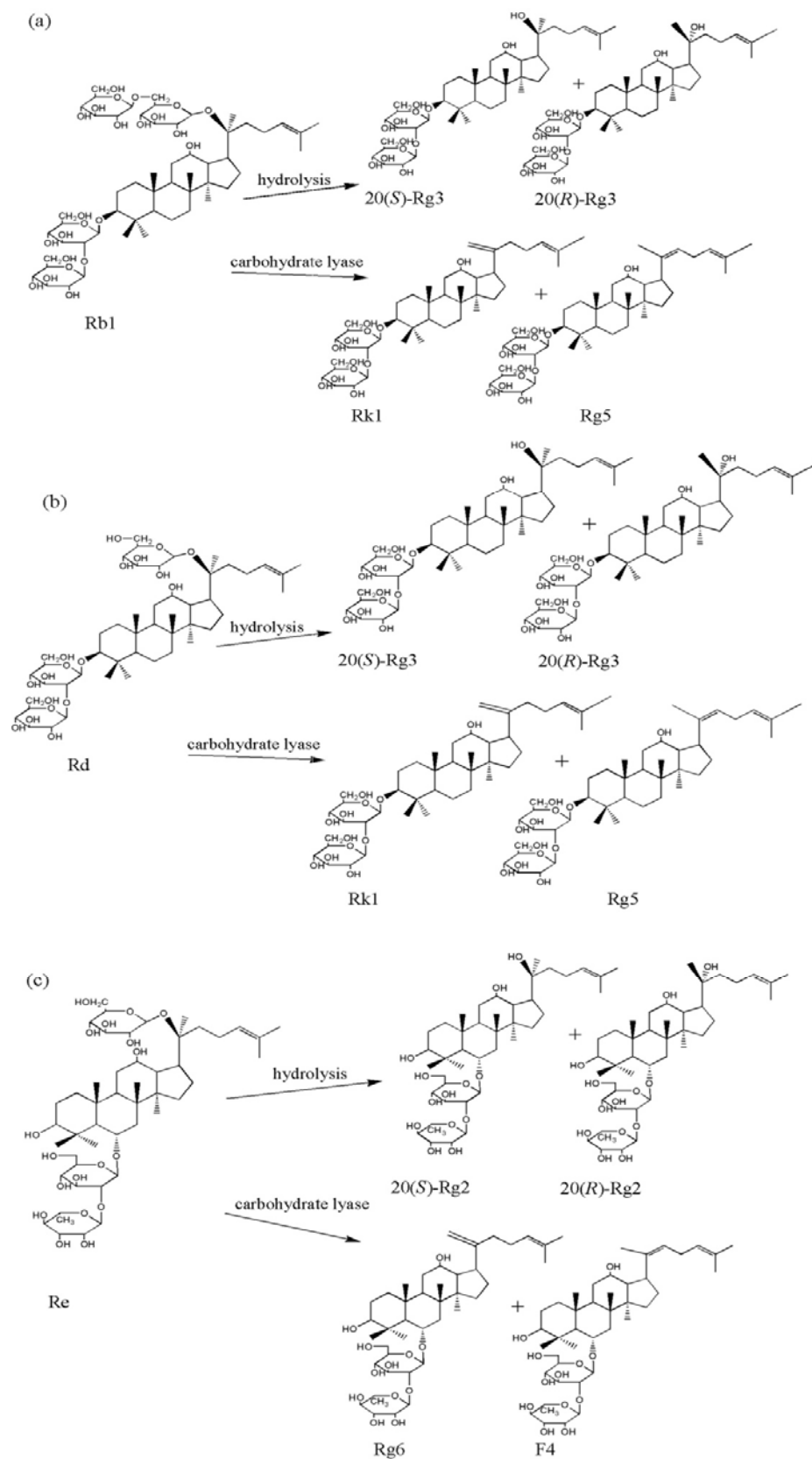


Figure 5

