

POSITION STATEMENT

It is the position of the Indian Dietetic Association that people should consume at least 30g of dietary fibre from a variety of plant sources in order to attain various physiological benefits. The CODEX Alimentarius Commission has described dietary fibre as 'carbohydrate polymers derived from a plant origin which are not hydrolyzed by the endogenous enzymes in the small intestine of humans'. Dietary fibre is beneficial to health and, if consumed in adequate amounts, reduces the risk of several chronic diseases, such as cardiovascular disorders, type II diabetes, obesity, certain types of cancer, while supporting digestive health. Sources of dietary fibre have the added benefit of naturally occurring micronutrients and phytochemicals that may improve human health. In addition, a higher fibre intake provided by foods is likely to be less calorically dense and lower in fat and added sugar. Dietary fibre intake in India varies among different socioeconomic groups from 15 to 41 g/day, depending upon the type of food consumed. Dietary fibre intakes in wheat- or millet-based diets are generally higher than in a rice-based diet. Healthy adults and children can achieve adequate dietary fibre intakes by increasing their consumption of dietary fibre from variety of fruits, vegetables, legumes, and whole-grain products. Health benefits from consuming dietary fibre through these foods must be actively communicated to the public.

Over the years, the definition of dietary fibre (DF) has been a subject of discussion globally. Recently, The CODEX Alimentarius Commission has described dietary fibre as 'carbohydrate polymers derived from a plant origin which may include fractions of lignin and/or other compounds associated with polysaccharides in the plant cell walls with ten or more monomeric units, which are not hydrolyzed by the endogenous enzymes in the small intestine (SI) of humans and belong to the following categories:

- Edible carbohydrate polymers naturally occurring in the food as consumed
- Carbohydrate polymers, which have been obtained from food raw material by physical, enzymatic or chemical means and which have been shown to have a physiological effect of benefit to health as demonstrated by generally accepted scientific evidence to competent authorities
- Synthetic carbohydrate polymers which have been shown to have a physiological effect of benefit to health as demonstrated by generally accepted scientific evidence to competent authorities.

However, such compounds are not included in the definition of dietary fibre if extracted and re-introduced into a food'. The definition has left the decision on whether to include carbohydrates of 3 to 9 monomeric units up to the national authorities (1).

Benefits of adequate fibre intake

There is considerable epidemiological evidence that higher dietary fibre intakes provide various physiological benefits. Data from the National Institute of Health AARP Diet and Health Study, a large prospective cohort, showed that dietary fibre intake, specifically from grains are inversely associated with total mortality rates, particularly cardiovascular, infectious, and respiratory deaths in both men and women, and in men it was also found to be associated with reduced cancer deaths (2). According to Anderson et al, (2009) individuals with high

intakes of dietary fibre are significantly at lower risk for developing cardiovascular diseases (CVD), stroke, hypertension, diabetes, obesity, and some specific gastrointestinal diseases (3).

Digestive Health

Improved Bowel Function

It is well believed that one of the main benefits of dietary fibre relates to its improved bowel function. Various studies have associated the intake of Soluble Dietary Fibre (SDF) with improved bowel movement and chronic idiopathic constipation. In a systematic review by Soares and Ford (2011), it was found that, soluble fibre led to improvements in 'straining, pain on defecation and stool consistency, an increase in the mean number of stools per week and a reduction in the number of days between stools' (4). This effect can be attributed to the ability of the soluble fibre to ferment. It has been suggested that fermentable fibre can increase fecal output by stimulating microbial growth, with the production of short-chain fatty acids (SCFA) and other products (5). In a review by Slavin et al, it was observed that consumption of the soluble fibres inulin or oligo fructose result in an increase in faecal weight, while inulin helped relieve constipation and poly-dextrose increased faecal mass and at times stool frequency (6). Apart from soluble fibre, insoluble fibre is also believed to play a major role in improving the bowel function. Insoluble fibres are better known for their beneficial impacts on the health of the digestive system by providing bulk to the diet, accelerating colonic transit via mechanical stimulation of the colonic mucosa (7,8,9). Studies of digestion have shown that resistant starch exerts mild laxative properties, predominantly through stimulation of biomass excretion, but also through some decrease in non-starch protein breakdown (10). The benefits of wheat bran for faecal bulking and transit time are definitive, and have been confirmed by EFSA health claim opinions as well (11,12).

Diarrhea is another extreme of abnormal bowel function. Soluble fibre may absorb water in the gut, reducing the gut transit time. By forming a gel-like consistency and delaying emptying of the intestine, DF can help reduce diarrhoea (13).

Gastrointestinal Disorders

Burkitt pointed out a protective effect of dietary fibre on intestinal disorders when he observed a low incidence of colon cancer and other non-infectious intestinal diseases among people consuming a fibre-rich diet in African countries (14). A low fibre diet has been commonly observed in patients with IBD, irrespective of disease activity (15,16). Several studies have been performed to evaluate the association between dietary fibre intake and Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD), but the results have been inconsistent. The chronic idiopathic Inflammatory Bowel Diseases have been seen to be stemmed from release of several pro-inflammatory mediators. Many studies have associated the IBD with the impairment in production of short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) (17).

Among the multiple groups of metabolites which are resulted on the fermentation of dietary fibre, short-chain fatty acid is a major group (18,19) which may be beneficial in IBD. However, decreased risk of Crohn's disease but not Ulcerative Colitis was associated with high intake of dietary fibre and fruits (20). Another large prospective cohort study found no association between dietary fibre and etiology of Ulcerative Colitis. A negative association has been found in various studies in the incidence of diverticular disease and fibre intake as well. Diverticulosis is characterized by the formation of sac-like structures, also known as diverticula, which are formed within the colon. Diverticulosis occurs as a consequence of pressure induced damage to the colon. Low fibre diets reduce the stool volume, causing

constipation which increases intracolonic pressure (21). On the basis of epidemiological data, Burkitt et al. (1973), suggested a high incidence of colon cancer, diverticulosis, irritable bowel syndrome and hemorrhoids to persistent fibre deprivation. It was found that with increasing intake of dietary fibre, risk of diverticular disease reduced significantly. However, considerable reduction in risk was only found with intakes of fruit and cereal fibre (14).

Cardiovascular Disorders

Higher intake of dietary fibre may improve serum lipid levels, lower blood pressure, and reduce inflammatory marker levels, explaining fibre's protective properties in improving cardiovascular health (22). A systematic review of cohort studies done on dietary fibre confirmed that total dietary fibre intake was inversely associated with the risk of developing CVD and CHD. Insoluble fibre and fibre from cereal and vegetable and fruit sources were inversely associated with risk of coronary heart disease and CVD. A risk reduction of 9% was found for each 7g/day increase in the dietary fibre intake (23).

Hypertension

A systematic review and meta-analysis demonstrated a small but significant improvement in both Systolic Blood Pressure (SBP) and Diastolic Blood Pressure (DBP) when a median dose of 8.7g fibre/day was given for over 7 weeks to 1430 participants. Additionally, it was observed in the study that hypertensive patients were more responsive than normotensive individuals (24). Soluble fibre intake causes significant decrease in SBP and DBP (25). However, in another systematic review, fibres from β -glucans caused significant reductions in blood pressure but no such effects were observed from other soluble fibres (26).

Lipid Profile

High-fibre diets are also associated with improved lipid profiles (27). Total dietary fibre intake has been inversely associated with blood lipid fractions like total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, and triglycerides, and is positively associated with high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (28). After performing clinical trials in Asian populations, it was suggested by Zhou et al. that dietary fibre intake may help people maintain or increase the plasma HDL-C levels (29). The findings of a cross-sectional study also suggested that increased DF intake was significantly associated with an increased plasma HDL-C levels (30). Dietary fibre has been seen to be associated with increased HDL-C through a mechanism that increases excretion of bile and cholesterol, which then stimulates the hepatic uptake to lower plasma LDL-C concentration (32,33). Viswanathan and Mohan showed significant reduction in serum cholesterol among diabetic patients with a high fibre diet and it was seen that these effects were sustained for a long-time period (31). Water-soluble fibres (specifically, beta-glucan, psyllium, pectin, and guar gum) were found to be most effective in reducing serum LDL-C concentrations, without really affecting high density lipoprotein (HDL) concentrations (34).

C-Reactive Protein

Dietary fibre intake has also been associated with protective effects against C-reactive protein (CRP), a sensitive marker of acute inflammation documented as an independent predictor of risk of developing cardiovascular disease. Several epidemiological studies have also demonstrated an inverse relationship between DF intake and CRP (35,36,37). With regard to

the source of fibre, positive associations were found in epidemiological studies between increased cereal consumption, a source of both insoluble and soluble fibres, and reduced risk of metabolic syndrome, cardiovascular diseases, and markers of systemic inflammation (38,39,40).

Weight control

Several studies have shown that there is a positive association between low dietary fibre intake and a high BMI and increasing the intake of dietary fibre significantly reduces the risk of gaining weight and fat in women (41,42,43,44,45). This effect may be attributed to the ability of providing satiation. Viscous soluble fibres prolong the intestinal phase of digestion and absorption, and increase the time-course of post-absorptive signals (46). The viscous nature and water holding capacity of the fibre slow down the rate of digestion and absorption of macronutrients (47). This can intensify hormone release during the alimentary period, impacting metabolic pathways of food intake regulation. Average bite size, eating rate and overall ad-libitum energy consumed have been shown to get influenced when the viscosity is increased (48). The mechanism by which insoluble fibres that survive transit through gut, which may alter satiety and hunger cues, can be different from soluble fibres. Rather than modifying the rate of gastric emptying, insoluble fibres may affect satiety through changes in gut hormones or intestinal transit rate (46).

Diabetes

A diet rich in dietary fibre has been suggested to be beneficial in people with type II diabetes by American Diabetes Association (49). Dietary Fibre delays digestion and absorption of carbohydrates, ameliorating postprandial hyperglycaemia (87). Yao and colleagues conducted a meta-analysis and found that in 19,033 cases out of 488,293 participants, the risk of type 2 diabetes decreased with total dietary fibre, cereal fibre, fruit fibre and insoluble fibre intake (50). Fujii et al (2013), assessed 4,399 patients and found that increased dietary fibre intake was associated with better glycemic control (51). In another study, Threapleton et al reported that with each 7 g/d dietary fibre consumed, the diabetes risk was reduced by 6% (52). Dietary fibre may enhance peripheral insulin sensitivity in insulin-resistant subjects via the production of short-chain fatty acids due to the intestinal fermentation of fibre (53,54). Soluble dietary fibre has also been associated with lower postprandial glucose levels and increased insulin sensitivity in diabetic and healthy subjects. The effects were attributed to the viscous properties of soluble fibre (55,56). SDF exerts physiological effects on the stomach and small intestine which modulate postprandial glycaemic responses, including delayed gastric emptying (57). A beneficial effect of insoluble dietary fibre has also been discussed in large prospective cohort studies, where a consistent association has been found between consumption of insoluble dietary fibre derived from cereals and whole grains and reduced risk of type II diabetes (58,59).

Cancer

Colorectal cancer

An inverse association has been found in various studies between dietary fibre intake and risk of colon cancer. Epidemiological studies that have compared colorectal cancer incidence among countries with estimates of dietary fibre consumption suggests a protective role of

dietary fibre on the incidence of colon cancer (60). In a recent meta-analysis, it was found that for every 10g total dietary fibre consumed daily, the risk of cancer was reduced by 9% (61). With relation to the specific type of fibre, Dagfinn et al. conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis of 25 prospective observational studies, and it was concluded that a high intake of dietary fibre, in particular cereal fibre and whole grains, was associated with a reduced risk of colorectal cancer (62). On relation of the source of fibre to risk of colorectal cancer, it was suggested in the WCRF report that for whole grains, there was a 21% decreased risk per three servings per day for colorectal cancer and 16% decreased risk for colon cancer (63). It was observed that dietary fibre from cereals was particularly significant in reducing the risk of colorectal cancer by increasing stool bulk, diluting faecal carcinogens, and slowing down transit time, thus helping reduce the contact of carcinogens with the colorectal lining (62).

Gastric cancer

Dietary fibre intake has also been suggested to be associated with reduced gastric cancer risk. In a meta-analysis conducted by Zhang et al (2013) which included 580,064 subjects, a dose-response analysis associated a 10g/day increment in fibre intake with a significant (44%) reduction in gastric cancer risk (64). Bravi et al (2009) also found an inverse relationship between stomach cancer risk and various types of fibre however, an inverse association was found for fibre from vegetables, and to a lesser extent from fruit but not from grains (65).

Breast cancer

Dietary fibre has also been hypothesized to reduce breast cancer risk based on observations that dietary fibre may inhibit intestinal reabsorption of estrogens and may increase fecal excretion of estrogens (66). In a systematic review and meta-analysis of epidemiological studies which included a total of 3,662,421 participants, it was suggested that dietary fibre consumption is significantly associated with a reduced risk of breast cancer, particularly in post-menopausal women. It showed a 12% decrease in breast cancer risk with dietary fibre intake. Dose-response analysis showed that for every 10-g/day increment in dietary fibre consumption, the risk of breast cancer reduced around 4% (67). With relation to the type of fibre, a meta-analysis suggested that soluble fibre had a strong inverse association with breast cancer risk (9% risk reduction), however, no such association was found with regard to insoluble fibre intake (68). High intake of fibre during adolescence was also associated with 16% lower risk of overall breast cancer and 24% reduced risk of breast cancer before menopause. However, many prospective studies have reported no statistically significant association between fibre intake and breast cancer risk (69,70,71,72). The role of dietary fibre in preventing other types of cancers is still unclear.

Potential Negative Effects of consuming dietary fibre

It is implausible that healthy adults consuming dietary fibre within the recommended ranges will be affected by any potential negative effect. However, excessive consumption may cause decreased mineral bioavailability and gastro-intestinal discomfort. Dietary fibre intake influences the mechanisms by which nutrients are absorbed in the diet. It may influence the bioavailability of nutrients, microbial composition and gastrointestinal functions (73). Diets rich in fibre, specifically those food items rich in anti-nutrients e.g. phytate, seem to decrease the absorption of several minerals in the small intestine especially iron, calcium, magnesium and zinc (74). In the large intestine, fermentation of dietary fibre and other nondigested

carbohydrates by anaerobic bacteria's produce gas, including hydrogen, methane, and carbon dioxide, which may cause flatulence. Flatulence and abdominal fullness has been observed when consumption reaches high levels (75-80g/day), which is fairly unlikely to be consumed in most people's diets (74). Thus, dietary fibre can cause GI discomfort, but mainly when consumed at high levels (75). Another concern can be that diets that contain large amounts of dietary fibre tend to be bulky and have low energy density. Therefore, in individuals with a low appetite, high fibre diet may satisfy appetite too promptly, making it difficult to meet energy and nutrient requirements (74). Thus, it is suggested that consumption of naturally fibre rich food including whole grains, fruits and vegetables should be encouraged instead of relying upon functional fibre supplements. This increases the nutritional value of the diet by providing other micronutrients as well and also reduces the likelihoods of experiencing any potential negative effect.

Recommendations

The RDA is the average daily dietary intake level that is estimated to meet the nutrient requirement of nearly all healthy individuals (97.5%) in a particular group but, since, there is no biochemical assay to reflect the dietary fibre nutritional status, there remains insufficient information to determine the Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) for fibre (60). Also, dietary fibre is not considered as a nutrient as there is no deficiency state, which is why in most countries an AI has been developed which has been observed to provide various physiological benefits. World Health Organization (WHO) suggests an intake of >25g of fibre per day (76). Various food and health related organizations encourage meeting the recommendations through a diet rich in vegetables, fruit and whole-grain cereals. Majority of countries recommend an intake of 25-35 g/day of dietary fibre for adults and the recommendation range from 18-38g/day (77). It is always suggested to meet the recommendations by consuming foods that are rich in natural dietary fibre as these foods are also a good source of other nutrients including various vitamins, minerals, phytochemicals and antioxidants.

There is a lack of data on the effects of dietary fibre in children and it is generally recommended that children under two years of age do not consume fibre-rich foods at the expense of energy dense foods (74).

The Indian Council of Medical Research recommends that the daily diet of an adult should contain at least 40g of dietary fibre (based on 2000 Kcal diet) (79). It is recommended to consume a variety of grain products, including whole grains and to choose at least four to five servings per day of fruits and vegetables. Along with dietary fibre recommendations, the significance of adequate water intake should be emphasized.

Habitual Indian diets which are predominantly based on unrefined cereals and plant foods, the suggested dietary fibre intake levels are easy to achieve (80). Dietary fibre intake in India varies among different socioeconomic groups from 15 to 41 g/day (81). The fibre intake was observed to be lower in women (15-30 g/day) and much lesser in tribal population (15-19 g/day). DF intake through wheat- or millet-based diets is generally higher than in a rice-based diet. Among the lower-socio-economic group particularly, nearly 80% of the fibre intake is attributed to the consumption of cereal based diets. A high soluble NSP content was observed in the diets of high-income groups than lower income groups as in the former case, diets

include more fruits, vegetables and legumes, although the total NSP content of the diets in both the groups might be the same (82).

Effect of cooking

It is well recognized that mostly in India, the food goes through a lot of processing and is consumed in a well-cooked form, especially vegetables. Thus, it makes it imperative to know the effect of cooking on the dietary fibre content of various food items. One such study was done by Azizah and Zanon (1997), who studied the effect of processing on the Total Dietary Fibre (TDF), Soluble Dietary Fibre (SDF) and Insoluble Dietary Fibre (IDF) on various samples of cereals and legumes. It was found that soaking had no significant effect on TDF, IDF and SDF content of various legumes and cereals samples, however, IDF in wheat and moong beans were significantly ($p < 0.05$) reduced. On boiling at 100°C for ten minutes, it was seen that TDF content of barley decreased while of rice it was seen to be increased significantly. The IDF content of wheat, barley and nuts were found to reduce significantly ($p < 0.05$) while that of soy beans were increased significantly. No change was noticed in SDF content. Roasting at 80°C for 5 minutes significantly ($p < 0.05$) increased TDF of wheat, rice, moong bean and soy bean but decreased significantly ($p < 0.05$) of ground nuts. IDF content of wheat, barley and moong beans decreased while SDF content increased in soy beans. It was then concluded that both IDF and SDF increased with thermal treatments in the samples that had higher protein content e.g. soy beans (83). In another study by Vasishtha and Srivastava (2013), effect of cooking on components of dietary fibres were studied, in which it was found that cellulose, lignin and pectin increased during soaking and cooking, whereas hemicellulose increased during soaking but decreased during cooking (84). Pressure cooking showed a more pronounced effect on the reduction of these dietary fibre components than ordinary and microwave cooking (85). Lignin contents remained nearly unaffected on cooking. On cooking of vegetables, amount of hemicellulose was significantly reduced as compared to cellulose (86).

Conclusion

From a public point of view, increased consumption of dietary fibre from variety of fruits, vegetables, legumes, and whole-grain products will provide various physiological benefits. Dietary fibre is beneficial to health and, if consumed in adequate amounts, reduces the risk of several chronic diseases, such as CVD, type II diabetes, obesity, certain types of cancer, while supporting digestive health.

Sources of dietary fibre, as opposed to functional fibre, have the added benefit of naturally occurring micronutrients and phytochemicals that may improve human health. In addition, a higher fibre intake provided by foods is likely to be less calorically dense and lower in fat and added sugar. Health benefits from consuming dietary fibre must be actively communicated to the public.

Table 1: Dietary fibre content of some selected fibre-rich foods (78)

Food	Dietary Fibre (g/100g)	E n e r g y (KJ/100g)
Cereals		
Barley	15.64 ± 0.64	1321 ± 19
Quinoa	14.66	1374
Bajra	11.49 ± 0.62	1456 ± 18
Wheat Flour	11.36 ± 0.29	1340 ± 7
Ragi	11.18 ± 1.14	1342 ± 10
Pulses		
Bengal gram (Whole)	25.22 ± 0.39	1201 ± 9
Black gram (Whole)	20.41 ± 0.06	1219 ± 5
Field Bean (Black)	23.40	1155
Red Gram Whole	22.84 ± 0.43	1146 ± 10
Soya Bean (Brown)	21.55 ± 0.66	1596 ± 11
Vegetables		
Agathi Leaves	8.60	295
Broad Beans	8.63 ± 0.15	123 ± 4
Drumstick Leaves	8.21 ± 0.19	282 ± 27
Fresh Peas	6.32 ± 0.26	340 ± 19
Ladies Finger	4.08 ± 0.20	115 ± 5
Carrot (Red)	4.49 ± 0.19	160 ± 19
Fruits		
Sapota	9.60 ± 0.57	307 ± 18
Guava (White Flesh)	8.59 ± 0.05	135 ± 5
Gooseberry	7.75 ± 0.64	99 ± 19
Avocado	6.69	604
Pear	4.48 ± 0.08	157 ± 3
Nuts and Seeds		
Gingelly Seeds (Black)	17.16 ± 0.19	2124 ± 8
Almond	13.06 ± 0.31	2549 ± 4
Pistachio Nuts	10.64 ± 0.16	2257 ± 10

Indian Dietetic Association Working Committee on Position Paper on Dietary Fibre

Authors:

Seema Puri, MSc, PhD, Associate Professor, Institute of Home Economics, University of Delhi, New Delhi, India

Sheela Krishnaswamy, PGD, RD, Diet, Nutrition & Wellness Consultant, Bengaluru, India

Shilpa Joshi, MSc, RD, Consultant Dietitian & Diabetes educator, Mumbai, India

Asna Urooj, MSc, PhD, Professor & Chairperson, Dept of Studies in Food Science & Nutrition, University of Mysore, India

Nishi Sharma, MSc, Research Associate, Institute of Home Economics, University of Delhi, New Delhi, India

Reviewers:

Mitali Palodhi, MSc, Former Grade I, Demonstration Officer, Food & Nutrition Board, Ministry of Women & Child Development, Government of India

Neelanjana Singh, MSc, RD, Nutrition Consultant, PSRI Hospital, New Delhi

Preeti Shukla, MSc, PhD, RD, Consultant Dietitian, Indore, India

Rita Bhargava MSc, PhD, Head, Dietetics Department, Care Hospital, Nagpur, India

Kanika Verma, MSc, PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Home Science, University of Rajasthan, Jaipur, India

Janaki Srinath Puskuri, MSc, PhD, Assistant Professor, Department of Food and Nutrition, College of Home Science, PJTSAU, Hyderabad, India

Selected References

1. Joint FAO/WHO Food Standards Programme, Secretariat of the CODEX Alimentarius Commission. CODEX Alimentarius (CODEX) Guidelines on Nutrition Labelling CAC/GL 2-1985 as Last Amended 2010. Rome: FAO; 2010.
2. Park Y, Subar AF, Hollenbeck A, Schatzkin A. Dietary Fibre intake and mortality in the NIH-AARP diet and health study. Arch Intern Med. 2011;171(12): 1061-1068.
3. Anderson, J. W., Baird, P., Davis Jr, R. H., Ferreri, S., Knudtson, M., Koraym, A., Waters, V. and Williams, C. L. Health benefits of dietary fiber. Nutrition Reviews. 2009; 67: 188-205. DOI:10.1111/j.1753-4887.2009.00189.x
4. Soares NC, Ford AC. Systematic review: the effects of fibre in the management of chronic idiopathic constipation. Aliment Pharmacol Ther. 2011 Apr;33(8):895-901. DOI: 10.1111/j.1365-2036.2011.04602.x.
5. Stephen AM, Cummings JH. Water-holding by dietary fibre in vitro and its relationship to faecal output in man. Gut. 1979 Aug;20(8):722-729.
6. Slavin, J.L. & Savarino, Vincenzo & Paredes-Diaz, Alberto & Fotopoulos, G. A Review of the Role of Soluble Fibre in Health with Specific Reference to Wheat Dextrin. The Journal of international medical research. 2009; 37. 1-17. 10.1177/147323000903700101.

7. Burton-Freeman B, Liyanage D, Rahman S, Edirisinghe I. Ratios of soluble and insoluble dietary fibers on satiety and energy intake in overweight pre- and postmenopausal women. *Nutr Healthy Aging*. 2017;4(2):157-168. Published 2017 Mar 31. DOI:10.3233/NHA-160018
8. Perry JR, Ying W. A Review of Physiological Effects of Soluble and Insoluble Dietary Fibers. *J Nutr Food Sci*. 2016; 6:476. doi: 10.4172/2155-9600.1000476
9. El-Salhy M, Ystad SO, Mazzawi T, Gundersen D. Dietary Fibre in irritable bowel syndrome (Review). *International Journal of Molecular Medicine*. 2017;40(3):607-613. doi:10.3892/ijmm.2017.3072.
10. Cummings, JH, Beatty, ER, Kingman, SM et al. Digestion and physiological properties of resistant starch in the human large bowel. *Br J Nutr*. 1996; 75: 733-747
11. (2004). Dietary fiber and constipation. *Jornal de Pediatria*, 80(6), 527-529. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0021-75572004000800017>
12. European Food Safety Authority. Scientific Opinion on the substantiation of health claims related to wheat bran Fibre and increase in faecal bulk (ID 3066), reduction in intestinal transit time (ID 828, 839, 3067, 4699) and contribution to the maintenance or achievement of a normal body weight (ID 829) pursuant to Article 13(1) of Regulation (EC) No 1924/2006. *EFSA J*. 2010; 8:1817. DOI: 10.2903/j.efsa.2010.1817.
13. Crohn's and Colitis Foundation of America. Report on Diet, nutrition and Inflammatory bowel disease, 2013.
14. Burkitt DP. Epidemiology of large bowel disease: the role of Fibre. *Proc Nutr Soc*. 1973;32:145-9.
15. Zallot C, Quilliot D, Chevaux JB, et al. Dietary beliefs and behavior among inflammatory bowel disease patients. *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2013;19:66-72.
16. Heaton KW, Thornton JR, Emmett PM. Treatment of Crohn's disease with an unrefined-carbohydrate, Fibre-rich diet. *Br Med J*. 1979;2:764-6.
17. Julio Galvez, M. Elena Rodríguez-Cabezas, Antonio Zarzuelo. Effects of dietary Fibre on inflammatory bowel disease. *Molecular Nutrition Food Research* 2005; 49:6,601-608. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.200500013>
18. Nicholson J. K., Holmes E., Kinross J., Burcelin R., Gibson G., Jia W., Pettersson S. Host-gut microbiota metabolic interactions. *Science*. 2012; 336: 1262-1267.
19. Roy C. C., Kien C. L., Bouthillier L., Levy E. Short-chain fatty acids: ready for prime time? *Nutr. Clin. Pract*. 2006; 21: 351-366.
20. Jason K. Hou, Bincy Abraham, Hashem El-Serag. Dietary Intake and Risk of Developing Inflammatory Bowel Disease: A systematic Review of Literature. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2011;106:563-573; doi:10.1038/ajg.2011.44
21. Mahan, L. Kathleen., Escott-Stump, Sylvia., Raymond, Janice L. Krause, Marie V. (Eds.) (©2012) *Krause's food & the nutrition care process* /St. Louis, Mo. : Elsevier/Saunders.
22. Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics. Fibre evidence analysis project: Evidence analysis library website. <http://www.andeal.org/topic.cfm?menu=1586>. Updated 2008. Accessed November 12, 2018.
23. Threapleton, Diane & Greenwood, Darren & Evans, Charlotte & Cleghorn, Christine & Nykjaer, Camilla & Woodhead, Charlotte & Cade, Janet & Gale, Chris & Burley, Victoria. Dietary fibre intake and risk of cardiovascular disease: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ (Clinical research ed.)*. 2013; 347. f6879. 10.1136/bmj.f6879.
24. Khan, K. et al. The effect of viscous soluble Fibre on blood pressure: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials, *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*. 2018, 28 (1): 3-13
25. He J, Streiffer RH, Whelton PK. Effect of dietary Fibre supplementation on blood pressure: A randomised, double-blind Placebo-controlled trial. *J Hypertens*. 2004; 22, 73-80.
26. Evans, C.E.L., Greenwood, D.C., Threapleton, D.E., Cleghorn, C.L., Nykjaer, C., Woodhead, C.E. et al. Effects of dietary Fibre type on blood pressure. *J Hypertens*. 2015; 33: 897-911
27. Mumford SL, Schisterman EF, Siega-Riz AM, Gaskins AJ, Wactawski-Wende J, VanderWeele TJ. Effect of Dietary Fibre Intake on Lipoprotein Cholesterol Levels Independent of Estradiol in Healthy

- Premenopausal Women. *American Journal of Epidemiology*. 2011;173(2):145-156. DOI:10.1093/aje/kwq388.
28. Wu, K., Bowman, R., Welch, A.A. et al. Apolipoprotein E polymorphisms, dietary fat and Fibre, and serum lipids: The EPIC Norfolk study. *Eur Heart J*. 2007; 28: 2930-2936
 29. Zhang J., Li L., Song P., Wang C., Man Q., Meng L., Kurilich A. Randomized controlled trial of oatmeal consumption versus noodle consumption on blood lipids of urban Chinese adults with hypercholesterolemia. *Nutr. J*. 2012;11. DOI: 10.1186/1475-2891-11-54.
 30. Zhou Q, Wu J, Tang J, Wang J-J, Lu C-H, Wang P-X. Beneficial Effect of Higher Dietary Fibre Intake on Plasma HDL-C and TC/HDL-C Ratio among Chinese Rural-to-Urban Migrant Workers. *Tchounwou PB, ed. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*. 2015;12(5):4726-4738. DOI:10.3390/ijerph120504726.
 31. Viswanathan M & Mohan V (1991) Dietary management of Indian vegetarian diabetics. *Bull Nutr Found India* 12, 1 -3.
 32. Trautwein, E.A.; Kunath-Rau, A.; Erbersdobler, H.F. Increased fecal bile acid excretion and changes in the circulating bile acid pool are involved in the hypocholesterolemic and gallstone-preventive actions of psyllium in hamsters. *J. Nutr*. 1999; 129: 896-902.
 33. Estruch, R.; Martínez-González, M.A.; Corella, D.; Basora-Gallissá, J.; Ruiz-Gutierrez, V.; Covas, M.I.; Fiol, M.; Gómez-Gracia, E.; Lopez-Sabater, M.C.; Escoda, R.; et al. Effects of dietary Fibre intake on risk factors for cardiovascular disease in subjects at high risk. *J. Epidemiol. Community Health*. 2009; 63: 582-588.
 34. Slavin J. Fibre and Prebiotics: Mechanisms and Health Benefits. *Nutrients*. 2013;5(4):1417-1435. DOI:10.3390/nu5041417
 35. Ma Y, Griffith JA, Chasan-Taber L, Olendzki BC, Jackson E, Stanek EJ 3rd, Li W, Pagoto SL, Hafner AR, Ockene IS. Association between dietary Fibre and serum C-reactive protein. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2006; 83:760-766.
 36. King DE, Egan BM, Geesey ME. Relation of dietary fat and Fibre to elevation of C-reactive protein. *Am J Cardiol*. 2003; 92:1335-1339.
 37. Krishnamurthy VM, Wei G, Baird BC, Murtaugh M, Chonchol MB, Raphael KL, Greene T, Beddhu S. High dietary Fibre intake is associated with decreased inflammation and all-cause mortality in patients with chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int*. 2012 Feb; 81(3):300-6. DOI: 10.1038/ki.2011.355.
 38. S. Liu, H. D. Sesso, J. E. Manson, W. C. Willett, and J. E. Buring. "Is intake of breakfast cereals related to total and cause-specific mortality in men?". *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2003; 77 (3): 594-599.
 39. M. K. Jensen, P. Koh-Banerjee, F. B. Hu et al. "Intakes of whole grains, bran, and germ and the risk of coronary heart disease in men,". *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2004; 80(6): 1492-1499.
 40. L. Qi, R. M. Van Dam, S. Liu, M. Franz, C. Mantzoros, and F. B. Hu. "Whole-grain, bran, and cereal Fibre intakes and markers of systemic inflammation in diabetic women,". *Diabetes Care*. 2006; 29 (2): 207-211.
 41. Hadrévi J, Sogaard K, Christensen JR. Dietary Fibre Intake among Normal-Weight and Overweight Female Health Care Workers: An Exploratory Nested Case-Control Study within FINALE-Health. *Journal of Nutrition and Metabolism*. 2017; 2017:1096015. DOI:10.1155/2017/1096015.
 42. Larry A. Tucker, Kathryn S. Thomas. Increasing Total Fibre Intake Reduces Risk of Weight and Fat Gains in Women. *The Journal of Nutrition*. 2009; 139 (3): 576-581. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3945/jn.108.096685>
 43. Slavin JL. Dietary Fibre and body weight. *Nutrition*. 2005;21:411-8.
 44. Howarth, N. C., Saltzman, E. and Roberts, S. B. Dietary Fibre and Weight Regulation. *Nutrition Reviews*. 2001; 59: 129-139. DOI:10.1111/j.1753-4887.2001.tb07001.x
 45. Hamilton CC, Anderson JW. Fibre and weight management. *J Fla Med Association*. 1992 ;79 (6): 379-81.
 46. JL, Slavin & Green, H. Dietary Fibre and satiety. *Nutrition Bulletin*. 2007; 32: 32 - 42. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-3010.2007.00603.x.
 47. Lia A, Anderson H, Mekki N, Juhel C, Senft M, Lairon D. Postprandial lipemia in relation to sterol and fat excretion in ileostomy subjects given oat-bran and wheat test meals. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 1997; 66:357-65.

48. Zijlstra, N & Mars, Monica & De Wijk, Rene & Westerterp-Plantenga, M.S. & Graaf, Cees. The effect of viscosity on ad libitum food intake. *International journal of obesity*. 2008; 32: 676-83. DOI: 10.1038/sj.ijo.0803776.
49. American Diabetes Association, Bantle JP, Wylie-Rosett J, Albright AL, et al. Nutrition recommendations and interventions for diabetes: a position statement of the American Diabetes Association. *Diabetes Care* 2008;31(Suppl 1): S61-78.
50. Yao B, Fang H, Xu W, et al. Dietary Fibre intake and risk of type 2 diabetes: A dose response analysis of prospective studies. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2014;29(2):79-88.
51. Fujii H, Iwase M, Ohkuma T, et al. Impact of dietary Fibre intake on glycemic control, cardiovascular risk factors and chronic kidney disease in Japanese patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: the Fukuoka Diabetes Registry. *Nutrition Journal*. 2013; 12:159. doi:10.1186/1475-2891-12-159.
52. Threapleton DE, Greenwood DC, Evans C, et al. Dietary Fibre intake and diabetes risk: a systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Proc Nutr Soc*. 2013; 72, E 253.
53. Johnston KL, Thomas EL, Bell JD, Frost GS, Robertson MD. Resistant starch improves insulin sensitivity in metabolic syndrome. *Diabet Med*. 2010; 27: 391-397.
54. Robertson MD, Wright JW, Loizon E, Debard C, Vidal H, Shojaee-Moradie F, Russell-Jones D, Umpleby AM. Insulin-sensitizing effects on muscle and adipose tissue after dietary Fibre intake in men and women with metabolic syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2012; 97: 3326-3332. DOI: 10.1210/jc.2012-1513.
55. Sierra M, García JJ, Fernández N, Diez MJ, Calle AP. Therapeutic effects of psyllium in type 2 diabetic patients. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2002; 56:830-842. DOI: 10.1038/sj.ejcn.1601398.
56. Breneman CB, Tucker L. Dietary Fibre consumption and insulin resistance-the role of body fat and physical activity. *Br J Nutr*. 2013; 110:375-383. DOI: 10.1017/S0007114512004953.
57. Jenkins DJ, Wolever TM, Leeds AR, Gassull MA, Haisman P, Dilawari J, Goff DV, Metz GL, Alberti KG. Dietary Fibres, Fibre analogues, and glucose tolerance: Importance of viscosity. *Br Med J*. 1978; 1:1392-1394. DOI: 10.1136/bmj.1.6124.1392.
58. Schulze MB, Schulz M, Heidemann C, Schienkiewitz A, Hoffmann K, Boeing H. Fibre and Magnesium Intake and Incidence of Type 2 Diabetes: A Prospective Study and Meta-analysis. *Arch Intern Med*. 2007; 167:956-65.
59. de Munter JS, Hu FB, Spiegelman D, Franz M, van Dam RM. Whole grain, bran, and germ intake and risk of type 2 diabetes: a prospective cohort study and systematic review. *PLoS Med*. 2007;4:e261.
60. Slavin JL. Position of the American Dietetic Association: health implications of dietary Fibre. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 2008 Oct;108(10) 1716-1731. DOI:10.1016/j.jada.2008.08.007. PMID: 18953766.
61. Ben Q, Sun Y, Chai R, Qian A, Xu B, Yuan Y. Dietary Fibre intake reduces risk for colorectal adenoma: A meta-analysis. *Gastroenterology*. 2014;146(3):689-699.e6.
62. Aune Dagfinn, Chan Doris S M, Lau Rosa, Vieira Rui, Greenwood Darren C, Kampman Ellen et al. Dietary Fibre, whole grains, and risk of colorectal cancer: Systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis of prospective studies. *BMJ*. 2011; 343: d6617
63. World Cancer Research Fund/American Institute for Cancer Research (2011) Continuous Update Project Report. Food, Nutrition, Physical Activity, and the Prevention of Colorectal Cancer. http://www.dietandcancerreport.org/cancer_resource_center/downloads/cu/Colorectal-Cancer-2011-Report.pdf
64. Zhizhong Zhang, Gelin Xu, Minmin Ma, Jie Yang, Xinfeng Liu. Dietary Fibre Intake Reduces Risk for Gastric Cancer: A Meta-analysis. *Gastroenterology*. 2013; 145 (1): 113 - 120.e3
65. Bravi, F., Scotti, L., Bosetti, C. et al. *Cancer Causes Control*. 2009; 20: 847. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-009-9309-z>
66. Rose DP, Goldman M, Connolly JM, Strong LE. High-Fibre diet reduces serum estrogen concentrations in premenopausal women. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1991; 54: 520-525.
67. Chen S, Chen Y, Ma S, et al. Dietary Fibre intake and risk of breast cancer: A systematic review and meta-analysis of epidemiological studies. *Oncotarget*. 2016;7(49):80980-80989. DOI:10.18632/oncotarget.13140.
68. Aune D, Chan DS, Greenwood DC, et al. Dietary Fibre and breast cancer risk: A systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Ann Oncol*. 2012;23(6):1394-1402.

69. Kushi LH, Sellers TA, Potter JD, et al. Dietary fat and postmenopausal breast cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 1992; 84: 1092-1099
70. Terry P, Jain M, Miller AB, et al. No association among total dietary Fibre, Fibre fractions, and risk of breast cancer, *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2002; 11: 1507-1508.
71. Cho E, Spiegelman D, Hunter DJ, et al. Premenopausal dietary carbohydrate, glycemic index, glycemic load, and Fibre in relation to risk of breast cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2003; 12: 1153-1158.
72. Holmes MD, Liu S, Hankinson SE, et al. Dietary carbohydrates, Fibre, and breast cancer risk. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2004; 159: 732-739.
73. Adams, S.; Sello, C.T.; Qin, G.-X.; Che, D.; Han, R. Does Dietary Fiber Affect the Levels of Nutritional Components after Feed Formulation? *Fibers.* 2018; 6(2): 29. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3390/fib6020029>.
74. ILSI Europe concise monograph series on Dietary fibre.2006. ILSI Europe. Available from: <http://ilsii.org/mexico/wp-content/uploads/sites/29/2016/09/Dietary-Fibre.pdf>, 11. Aug. 2018
75. Position of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics: Health Implications of Dietary Fibre. Dahl, Wendy J. et al. *Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics*, Volume 115, Issue 11 , 1861 - 187
76. World Health Organization (2003) *Diet, Nutrition and the Prevention of Chronic Diseases*. Geneva: WHO
77. Stephen MA, Champ MJM, Cloran SJ, Fleith M, Lieshout LV, Mejbourn H, Burley VJ. Dietary Fibre in Europe: Current state of knowledge on definitions, sources, recommendations, intake and relationships to health. *Nut Research Reviews.* 2017; 30: 149-190
78. Longvah T., Ananthan R., Bhaskarachary K., Venkaiah K. *Indian Food Composition Tables*. National Institute of Nutrition. Indian Council of Medical Research,2017.
79. ICMR. *Nutrient requirements and recommended dietary allowances for Indians*. A report of the expert group of the Indian Council of Medical Research, New Delhi, 2010.
80. Joshi S, Mane ST, Agte VV. Analysis of insoluble fibre components in Indian foods and habitual diets. *Indian J ClinBiochem.* 1991; 6:97-103
81. Krishnaswamy K, Sesikeran B. *Dietary Guidelines for Indians – A Manual*. Hyderabad: National Institute of Nutrition, ICMR; 2011.
82. Singh A, Singh SN. Dietary fibre content of Indian Diets. *Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research.* 2015; 8(3).
83. Azizah AH, Zainon H. Effect of processing on dietary Fibre contents of selected legumes and cereals. *Mal J Nutr.* 1997; 3:131-136.
84. Vasishtha H, Srivastava RP. Effect of soaking and cooking on dietary Fibre components of different type of chickpea genotypes. *J Food Sci Technol.* 2011;50(3):579-84.
85. Turgay, Ozlem. Effect of Cooking Methods on Dietary Fibre Components of Fresh Vegetables, Legume and Cereal Samples. *KSU J. Nat. Sci.* 2009; 12(2): 17-20.
86. Rehman, Zia & Islam, Mehwish & Shah, W.H. Effect of microwave and conventional cooking on insoluble dietary Fibre components of vegetables. *Food Chemistry.* 2003; 80. 237-240. DOI: 10.1016/S0308-8146(02)00259-5
87. Post RE, Mainous AG III, King DE, Simpson KN. Dietary fiber for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus: a meta-analysis. *J Am Board Fam Med.* 2012; 12:16-23. DOI: 10.3122/jabfm.2012.01.110148.

