

9. Zhang G, Sofyan M, Hamaker BR. Slowly digestible state of starch: mechanism of slow digestion property of gelatinized maize starch. *J Agric Food Chem* 2008;56:4695–702.
10. Wrangham R. *Catching Fire: How Cooking Made Us Human*. New York: Basic Books; 2009.
11. Quezada-Calvillo R, Robayo-Torres CC, Ao Z, et al. Luminal substrate “brake” on mucosal maltase-glucoamylase activity regulates total rate of starch digestion to glucose. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2007; 45:32–43.
12. Jones BJ, Brown BE, Loran JS, et al. Glucose absorption from starch hydrolysates in the human jejunum. *Gut* 1983;24:1152–60.
13. Gray GM. Starch digestion and absorption in nonruminants. *J Nutr* 1992;122:172–7.
14. Ernst HA, Lo Leggio L, Willemoës M, et al. Structure of the *Sulfolobus solfataricus* α -glucosidase: implications for domain conservation and substrate recognition in GH31. *J Mol Biol* 2006;358: 1106–24.
15. Heymann H, Breitmeier D, Günther S. Human small intestinal sucrase-isomaltase: different binding patterns for malto- and isomaltooligosaccharides. *Biochem Hoppe-Seyler* 1995;376:249–53.
16. Robayo-Torres CC, Quezada-Calvillo R, Nichols BL. Disaccharide digestion: clinical and molecular aspects. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2006;4:276–87.
17. Zabel BU, Naylor SL, Sakaguchi AY, et al. High-resolution chromosomal localization of human genes for amylase, proopiomelanocortin, somatostatin, and a DNA fragment (D3S1) by in situ hybridization. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 1983;80:6932–6.
18. Iafrate AJ, Feuk L, Rivera MN, et al. Detection of large-scale variation in the human genome. *Nat Genet* 2004;36:949–51.
19. Nichols BL, Eldering J, Avery S, et al. Human small intestinal maltase-glucoamylase cDNA cloning. Homology to sucrase-isomaltase. *J Biol Chem* 1998;273:3076–81.
20. Nichols BL, Avery S, Sen P, et al. The maltase-glucoamylase gene: common ancestry to sucrase-isomaltase with complementary starch digestion activities. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2003;100: 1432–7.
21. Kelly JJ, Alpers DH. Properties of human intestinal glucoamylase. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1973;315:113–22.
22. Dahlqvist A. The separation of intestinal invertase and three different intestinal maltases on TEAE-cellulose by gradient elution, frontal analysis and mutual displacement chromatography. *Acta Chem Scand* 1958;13:1817–27.
23. Quezada-Calvillo R, Sim L, Ao Z, et al. Luminal starch substrate “brake” on maltase-glucoamylase activity is located within the glucoamylase subunit. *J Nutr* 2008;138:685–92.
24. Jones K, Sim L, Mohan S, et al. Mapping the intestinal alpha-glucogenic enzyme specificities of starch digesting maltase-glucoamylase and sucrase-isomaltase. *Bioorg Med Chem* 2011;19:3929–34.
25. Alpers DH, Helms D, Seetharam S, et al. In vitro translation of intestinal sucrase-isomaltase and glucoamylase. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 1986;134:37–43.
26. Chandrasena G, Osterholm DE, Sunitha I, et al. Cloning and sequencing of a full-length rat sucrase-isomaltase-encoding. *Gene* 1994;150:355–60.
27. Brunner J, Wacker H, Semenza G. Sucrase-isomaltase of the small-intestinal brush border membrane: assembly and biosynthesis. *Methods Enzymol* 1983;96:386–406.
28. Naim HY, Sterchi EE, Lentz MJ. Biosynthesis of the human sucrase-isomaltase complex. Differential O-glycosylation of the sucrase subunit correlates with its position within the enzyme complex. *J Biol Chem* 1988;263:7242–53.
29. Semenza G, Auricchio S, Rubino A. Multiplicity of human intestinal disaccharidases I. Chromatographic separation of maltases and of two lactases. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1965;96:487–97.
30. Semenza G, Auricchio S, Mantei N. Small intestinal disaccharidases. In: Scriver CR, et al., eds. *Metabolic Basis of Inherited Disease*. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2001: 1623–50.
31. Englyst HN, Kingman SM, Hudson GJ, et al. Measurement of resistant starch in vitro and in vivo. *Br J Nutr* 1996;75:749–55.
32. Englyst HN, Kingman SM, Cummings JH. Classification and measurement of nutritionally important starch fractions. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 1992;46:S33–50.
33. Ludwig DS. The glycemic index. *JAMA* 2002;287:2414–23.
34. Jenkins DJA, Kendall CWC, Augustin LS, et al. Glycemic index: overview of implications in health and disease. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2002;76:266S–73S.
35. Jenkins DJA, Kendall CWC, McKeown-Eyssen G, et al. Effect of a low-glycemic index or a high-cereal fiber diet on type 2 diabetes. *JAMA* 2008;300:2742–53.
36. Muir J, O’Dea K. Validation of an in vitro assay for predicting the amount of starch that escapes digestion in the small intestine of humans. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1993;57:540–6.
37. Opperman AM, Venter CS, Oosthuizen W, et al. Meta-analysis of the health effects of using the glycaemic index in meal-planning. *Br J Nutr* 2004;92:367–81.
38. Wolever TMS. Carbohydrate and the regulation of blood glucose and metabolism. *Nutr Rev* 2003;61:S40–8.
39. Karnsakul W, Luginbuehl U, Hahn D, et al. Disaccharidase activities in dyspeptic children: biochemical and molecular investigations of maltase-glucoamylase activity. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2002;35: 551–6.
40. Treem WR. Congenital sucrase-isomaltase deficiency. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 1995;21:1–14.
41. Lin AH-M, Nichols BL, Quezada-Calvillo R, et al. Unexpected high digestion rate of cooked starch by the ct-maltase-glucoamylase small intestine mucosal α -glucosidase subunit. *PLoS One* 2012;7: e35473.
42. Zhang G, Hamaker BR. Slowly digestible starch: concept, mechanism, and proposed extended glycemic index. *Crit Rev Food Sci* 2009; 49:852–67.
43. Treem WR, Ahsan N, Sullivan B, et al. Evaluation of liquid yeast-derived sucrase enzyme replacement in patients with sucrase-isomaltase deficiency. *Gastroenterology* 1993;105:1061–8.
44. Treem WR, McAdams L, Stanford L, et al. Sacrosidase therapy for congenital sucrase-isomaltase deficiency. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 1999;28:137–42.

Frequency of Sucrase Deficiency in Mucosal Biopsies

*Buford L. Nichols Jr, †Bridget Adams,
‡Christine M. Roach, †Chang-Xing Ma, and
†Susan S. Baker

Carbohydrates, sugars, and starches are an important source of energy, especially for the brain, which is completely dependent on glucose for energy (1). The US Department of Agriculture recommends that carbohydrates provide 45% to 65% of daily energy units (2) and the dietary reference intakes set the adequate

From the *Children’s Nutrition Research Center, Department of Pediatrics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas, the †Departments of Pediatrics, and the ‡Biostatistics, State University of New York at Buffalo, Buffalo, New York.

Address correspondence and reprint requests to Susan S. Baker, MD, PhD, Digestive Diseases and Nutrition Center, Women and Children’s Hospital, 219 Bryant St, Buffalo, NY 14222 (e-mail: sbaker@upa.chob.edu). Study supported by an unrestricted grant from QOL Medical, Vero Beach, FL.

The authors report no conflicts of interest.

Copyright © 2012 by European Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition and North American Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition

DOI: 10.1097/01.mpg.0000421405.42386.64

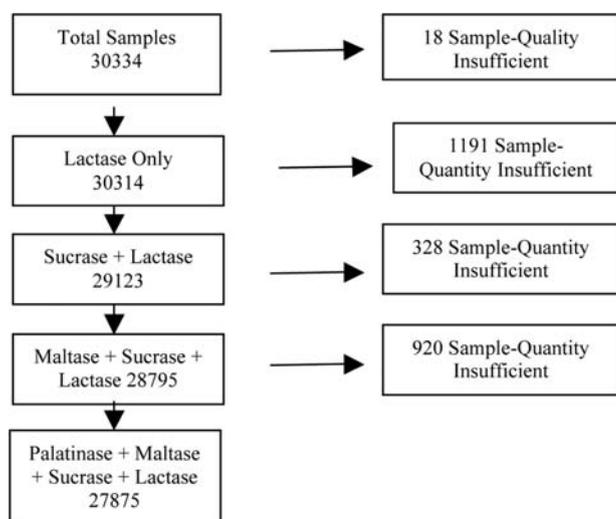


FIGURE 1. The samples varied widely in size of tissue and condition on arrival. Eighteen of the samples were insufficient or were received in a compromised state, so the assay could not be performed. For 1191 of the 30,314 samples, either a lactase-only level was ordered or the quantity was not sufficient to perform the other disaccharidase assays. Of the remaining samples, there was adequate tissue to perform the sucrase, maltase, and palatinase assays and protein level in 27,875.

intake at 60 to 130 g/day, depending on age (1). Cells can avail themselves of this energy source only when it is in the form of a simple sugar. Carbohydrates present to the gastrointestinal tract for digestion and absorption as monosaccharides, disaccharides, oligosaccharides, and polysaccharides. Initial digestion occurs via enzymes secreted into the lumen, but for absorption, carbohydrates must be in the form of a single sugar. The final digestion of disaccharidases occurs by enzymes located on the brush border of the enterocyte. The brush border contains the disaccharidases lactase, sucrase, isomaltase, and trehalase that hydrolyze lactose to glucose and galactose, sucrose to glucose and fructose, maltose to 2 glucose molecules, and trehalose to 2 glucose molecules. Deficiency in any of these enzymes results in malabsorption of the disaccharidase and can be associated with various symptoms. Deficiency can occur because of a congenital lack of the enzyme, injury to the enterocyte, or, in the case of lactase, as a normal process of aging. Congenital sucrose-isomaltase deficiency is an autosomal recessive disorder that is considered to be rare, occurring in 5% of the native populations of Greenland, Alaska, and Canada, but in only 0.02% in North Americans of European descent. Because symptoms vary from severe to mild, however, the incidence may be much higher. To assess how frequently sucrose-isomaltase deficiency is found in endoscopic biopsies, we reviewed

the results of biopsies assayed for disaccharidases in a reference laboratory.

METHODS

Disaccharidase analyses were performed on small bowel biopsies according to the method of Dalqvist (3). Briefly, the tissue was homogenized and then the respective substrate, lactose, sucrose, maltose, or palatinose, was added. The amount of glucose produced was quantified with a Beckman DU 800 spectrophotometer (Beckman Coulter, Jersey City, NJ). Protein was quantified according to the method of Lowry et al (4).

The log books of all of the disaccharidase analyses performed between January 1, 2006 and July 29, 2011, were reviewed. Information on the following categories was included in the data collection and entered into a Microsoft Excel database: date of birth, date of analysis, age at time of analysis, and results of assays for lactase, sucrose, maltase, and palatinase. Data were imported from the Microsoft Excel database into the SAS software package (SAS Institute, Cary, NC). Descriptive statistics were generated using frequency tables.

RESULTS

From January 1, 2006 through July 29, 2011, the laboratory received 30,334 samples. The samples varied widely in size of tissue and condition on arrival. Of those samples, 18 were insufficient or were received in a compromised state, so the assay could not be performed. For 1191 of the 30,314 samples, either a lactase-only level was ordered or the quantity was not sufficient to perform the other disaccharidase assays. Of the remaining samples, there was adequate tissue to perform the sucrase, maltase, and palatinase assays and protein level in 27,875 (Fig. 1). The age or date of birth was not provided for 41 samples.

Table 1 shows the number of analyses performed for each of the disaccharidases, and Table 2 shows the total number of samples that were deficient in each enzyme. Disaccharidase deficiencies were found in fewer than half of the samples; most were sufficient in all of the enzymes tested. The most common deficiency was lactase, followed by pandisaccharidase deficiency. Of note, 9.3% of the patients were deficient in sucrase and maltase, but within this group, 86% had pandisaccharidase deficiency. Consistent with the literature, the classical signature activities of congenital sucrose-isomaltase deficiency, extremely low sucrose with normal lactase, were rare, occurring in 0.1% of the samples.

DISCUSSION

Disaccharidase deficiencies are clinically associated with diarrhea, bloating, flatulence, and abdominal pain. Relief of symptoms is achieved by avoidance of the disaccharide or, in the case of lactase or sucrase deficiency, concurrent ingestion of supplemental lactase or sucrase with the sugar. These supplemental enzymes are beneficial for individuals with congenital enzyme deficiencies, but

TABLE 1. Number of analyses with mean and standard deviation

Variable	No. analyses	Mean	Median	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Age, y	30,281	11.00	11.17	7.21	0	93.5
Lactase, $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein	30,314	21.80	17.50	19.11	0	173
Sucrase, $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein	29,123	56.49	53.40	27.77	0	241
Maltase, $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein	28,795	167.59	161.80	67.63	0	767
Palatinase, $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein	27,875	11.31	9.90	6.74	0	156.4

TABLE 2. Frequency of enzyme deficiencies

Lactase	Sucrase	Maltase	Palatinase	N	%	Mean age, y	Median age, y	Standard deviation
Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal	15,265	54	10.2	10.3	7.0
Deficient	Deficient	Deficient	Deficient	2347	8	11.1	11.4	6.5
Normal	Deficient	Normal	Normal	11	0.04	11.7	12.0	6.3
Normal	Deficient	Deficient	Normal	30	0.1	10.2	11.2	5.2
Normal	Deficient	Deficient	Deficient	149	0.5	8.9	8.9	7.0
Normal	Normal	Deficient	Normal	264	1.0	9.7	10.5	6.5
Normal	Normal	Normal	Deficient	3	0.001	5.0	2.0	5.3
Deficient	Normal	Normal	Normal	8963	32	12.6	12.6	7.5
Deficient	Normal	Deficient	Normal	662	2.3	11.9	12.1	6.5
Deficient	Deficient	Normal	Normal	17	0.06	11.3	11.7	4.6
Total sucrase deficiency				2603	9.3			

Normal = Lactase $>10 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein, sucrase $>25 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein, maltase $>160.8 \pm 62.8 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein, palatinase $>11.1 \pm 6.5 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein. Deficient = lactase $\leq 10 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein, sucrase $\leq 25 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein, maltase $\leq 100 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein, palatinase $\leq 5 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ protein.

they may also offer relief for transient deficiencies such as may occur with small bowel injury.

The strengths of these data lie in the large sample size that is nationally representative and the consistent and experienced personnel who performed the analyses; the enzyme assay has been in use and has not changed in decades. The weaknesses of these data lie in the lack of clinical correlation, the selection by the endoscopists of a young age group from which samples were obtained, the inability to control for sample integrity throughout the entire process of obtaining the samples, and handling and shipping. The analyses were performed manually, and human error is always a possibility. We conclude that the most common disaccharidase deficiency is lactase followed by pandisaccharidase. Sucrase deficiency was rare in these samples.

REFERENCES

1. Panel on Macronutrients, Subcommittees on Upper Reference Levels of Nutrients and Interpretation and Uses of Dietary Reference Intakes, Standing Committee on the Scientific Evaluation of Dietary Reference Intakes. *Dietary Reference Intakes for Energy, Carbohydrate, Fiber, Fat, Fatty Acids, Cholesterol, Protein and Amino Acids*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press; 2005.
2. US Department of Agriculture and US Department of Health and Human Services. *Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 7th Edition*. Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office; 2010.
3. Dahlqvist A. Intestinal disaccharidases and disaccharide intolerance. *Bull Soc Chim Biol (Paris)* 1967;49:1635–46.
4. Lowry OH, Rosebrough NJ, Farr AL, et al. Protein measurement with the Folin phenol reagent. *J Biol Chem* 1951;193:265–75.

Phenotypic Observations by the CSID Dietary and Medical Support Group

Mary H. Slawson

For 16 years, the congenital sucrase-isomaltase deficiency (CSID) parent support group has followed 7433 individuals diagnosed by small bowel biopsy with CSID: children (848 ages 0 to 2 years, 1722 ages 3 to 4 years, 1241 ages 5 to 8 years, and 2422 ages 9 to 17 years), adults (1200), and >44,000 blood-related

relatives. Based on small bowel biopsy results and detailed clinical dietary history, 5 different clinical phenotypes have been proposed for which specific diet regimens have been developed. Patients following these diets report significant improvement in their symptoms. This article provides a brief overview of the proposed phenotypes and diet recommendations identified by the parent support group. Available enzyme therapies are discussed.

PROPOSED PHENOTYPES BASED ON INTESTINAL DISACCHARIDASE ACTIVITY AND DIETARY TOLERANCES

Table 1 identifies the proposed clinical phenotypes based on the reduction in small intestinal disaccharidase activities and dietary tolerance among those patients with CSID followed by the support group. The range of mucosal biopsy activities is taken from Table 2, which summarizes 3 patterns of CSID disaccharidase mucosal enzyme deficiencies described in the literature (1–7) and in this workshop (8–11) and makes a tentative correlation with the dietary tolerances in Table 1. One goal of future research is to confirm whether these 5 dietary phenotypes correlate with 3 mutant genotypes of SI. The enzymatic recognition of SCID is presently limited to biopsies with lactase activities >10 enzyme units (1–10), but there may be others within the large group of sucrase deficiencies with lactase activities falling below this level that await identification by new methods of genetic analysis (12).

DIETARY INTOLERANCES

None of the patients in any of the phenotypes can tolerate the following sweeteners: hydrogenated glucose syrup, galactose/maltose/malt sugar, acesulfame K, maltitol/maltitol syrup, brown rice syrup, NutraSweet/neotame, or Stevia/diterpene glycosides. Sucrose can be tolerated in only extremely small amounts without enzyme supplementation, whereas crystalline glucose, dextrose,

From the CSID Parent Support Group, Provo, Utah.

Address correspondence and reprint requests to Mary H. Slawson, CSID Parent Support Group, 942 South 1230 East, Provo, UT 84606 (e-mail: HumanFamilyProject@gmail.com).

The author reports no conflicts of interest.

Copyright © 2012 by European Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition and North American Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition

DOI: 10.1097/01.mpg.0000421406.80504.1d