

1 **Microbiota and Probiotics: Chances and Challenges. A symposium report**

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19 **Abstract**

20 The 10<sup>th</sup> International Yakult Symposium was held in Milan, Italy, on 13-14 October  
21 2022. Two keynote lectures covered the crewed journey to space and its implications  
22 for the human microbiome, and how current regulatory systems can be adapted and  
23 updated to ensure the safety of microorganisms used as probiotics or food  
24 processing ingredients. The remaining lectures were split into sections entitled  
25 'Chances' and 'Challenges'. The 'Chances' section related to opportunities for the  
26 science of probiotics and fermented foods to contribute to diverse areas of health  
27 such as irritable bowel syndrome, major depression, Parkinson's Disease, immune  
28 dysfunction, infant colic, intensive care, respiratory infections, and promoting healthy  
29 longevity. The 'Challenges' section included selecting appropriate clinical trial  
30 participants and methodologies to minimise heterogeneity in responses, how to view  
31 probiotics in the context of One Health, and understanding how substances of  
32 bacterial origin can cross the blood-brain barrier. The symposium provided evidence  
33 from cutting-edge research that gut eubiosis is vital for human health and, like space,  
34 the microbiota deserves further exploration of its vast potential.

35

36 **Abbreviations:** GM, gut microbiota; ISS, international space station; AMR, antimicrobial resistance;  
37 PD, Parkinson's Disease, SCFA, short-chain fatty acid; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; TLR, toll-like  
38 receptor; FMT, fecal microbiota transplant; MDD, major depressive disorder; HPA, hypothalamus-  
39 pituitary-adrenal; BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor; LcS, *Lactocaseibacillus paracasei* strain  
40 Shirota; BBB, blood-brain barrier; CSF, cerebral spinal fluid; OMV, outer membrane vesicles; IBS,  
41 irritable bowel syndrome; T1D, type 1 diabetes; FF, fermented foods; LAB, lactic acid bacteria; RTI,  
42 respiratory tract infection; SRMA, systematic review and meta-analysis; RCT, randomised controlled  
43 trial; RA, risk assessment; QPS, the qualified presumption of safety; GRAS, generally recognized as  
44 safe; EFSA, European Food Safety Authority; Med, Mediterranean; NK, natural killer; TREC, T-cell  
45 receptor excision circles.

46 **Introduction**

47 Decades of research have revealed the remarkable extent to which the gut  
48 microbiota (GM) influences and interacts with many areas of the body beyond the  
49 large intestine. Slowly, a picture has emerged of the potential role of the GM in  
50 helping to modulate gut health, immune function, mineral absorption, metabolic  
51 balance, appetite, brain health, and aging.

52

53 This creates opportunities for the use of dietary or medical interventions which may  
54 impact the GM by promoting particular microbiological species, excluding others, or  
55 broadening microbiological diversity. It also poses challenges to understanding  
56 mechanisms, ideal intakes, appropriate health markers, and characteristics of  
57 responders, as well as how best to regulate products.

58

59 These were the topics considered by the 10<sup>th</sup> International Yakult Symposium held in  
60 Milan, Italy, on 13-14 October 2022. This report summarises the presentations given  
61 by a panel of international experts and invites reflection on the chances and  
62 challenges presented by the study of the GM and probiotics.

63

64 **The crewed journey to space and its implications for the human microbiome**

65 Space travel is a unique environment in which to study the human microbiome. Prof.  
66 Christine Moissl-Eichinger from the Medical University of Graz, Austria, outlined why  
67 a good understanding of the GM is essential for ensuring the success of crewed  
68 space missions, mainly as 8% of astronauts report gastrointestinal issues and  
69 access to medical interventions in space is limited.

70

71 Simulation experiments

72 Space training in closed systems provides opportunities to study changes in the GM  
73 and those microorganisms present in the environment (Kuehnast et al., 2022). One  
74 example is the Mars 500 experiment which saw six crew members spend 520 days  
75 in a terrestrial-based simulator to mimic a journey to Mars (Schwendner et al., 2017).  
76 During this time, samples at different time points were taken from the surfaces and  
77 air of the module, revealing that microbial communities followed the functions of  
78 humans and could also be altered by human activity (e.g., changing to a different  
79 cleaning product). This experiment also tracked the GM of the six crew members.  
80 Remarkably, given the constrained environment and similar diet, each person had  
81 their own signature GM which fluctuated over time but remained distinct from the GM  
82 of other crew members. Individual phyla, such as Pseudomonadota (formerly the  
83 Proteobacteria), Bacteroidota (formerly the Bacteroidetes), or Verrucomicrobiota  
84 (formerly Verrucomicrobia; Oren & Garrity, 2021) found in one person's GM could be  
85 completely missing in the GM of others. In three subjects, major fluctuations in  
86 microbial configurations occurred after 340 days (range 330-360 days) in the  
87 module, which could be related to stress, or the tasks being performed. These  
88 fluctuations were characterized by the depletion of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*,  
89 *Ruminococcus bromii*, *Blautia luti*, *Anaerostipes hadrus*, and *Roseburia faecis*.

90

91 Another Mars simulation model is the Hawai'i Space Exploration Analog and  
92 Simulation (HI-SEAS) mission (Mahnert et al., 2021). This involved a team of  
93 astronauts spending 4-12 months in a 111 m<sup>2</sup> module, during which time samples  
94 were taken from different areas of the module and the crew's skin and feces. Some  
95 interesting patterns emerged. Firstly, the microbial diversity reflected the function of

96 the living area, e.g., the toilet and kitchen. There was a crossover in the human  
97 microbiota when interactions occurred, such as a higher number of pathogens on the  
98 skin of the crew on toilet cleaning duty. Secondly, while each person had their  
99 microbiota signature, there were evident crossovers of species between those  
100 astronauts who had the most interactions with other crew members. Thirdly, while  
101 the microbiome of the built environment remained relatively stable over time, the skin  
102 microbiome of the crew increased in diversity as it incorporated species from the  
103 environment. This was particularly the case during an episode where a technical  
104 failure of the toilet facilities forced individual crew members to carry out additional  
105 cleaning duties, providing more chance for them to come into contact with fecal  
106 bacteria, which was then reflected in their skin microbiome.

107

### 108 Experiments in space

109 Few studies have been conducted in space. In one of these, Mora et al. (2019)  
110 tested whether the unique conditions inside the International Space Station (ISS)  
111 altered the microorganisms found there. This is warranted since there is evidence  
112 that microgravity can influence the virulence of certain species (Rosenzweig et al,  
113 2010), while technophilic microorganisms have been known to cause equipment to  
114 malfunction in space. The EXTREMOPHILES study involved sampling in several  
115 areas of the ISS over three months. The key learnings were:

- 116 • The diversity and composition of the ISS microbiome fluctuates in response to  
117 human activity reflecting the purpose of the different living areas but retaining  
118 a core group of stable species.
- 119 • The ISS microbiome is similar to indoor environments on Earth but has a  
120 greater prevalence of species that can make biofilms (for details, see Mora et

121 al., 2019). This is probably due to adaptation to thrive on the metal surfaces  
122 inside the ISS.

- 123 • While the ISS microbiome was mostly human-associated, it was reassuring  
124 that no evidence was found of selection for enhanced pathogenicity or  
125 antimicrobial resistance (AMR) (Mora et al., 2019).

126

127 Further studies have found that space travel disrupts the normal GM, probably due  
128 to the influence of stress. During one space mission, astronauts' skin, nose, and gut  
129 microbiomes changed markedly. The GM became more similar across crew  
130 members, primarily due to a drop in the abundance of several bacterial taxa mainly  
131 *Akkermansia*, *Ruminococcus*, *Pseudobutyrvibrio* and *Fusicatenibacter* (Voorhies et  
132 al., 2019). However, one longer-term study in twins (Garrett-Bakelman et al., 2019)  
133 found that the GM shifts back to the pre-flight pattern within 6 months of the  
134 astronaut returning to Earth.

135

136 To summarise, the microbiome of the built environment in space fluctuates around a  
137 set of core species but does not appear to present a particular risk to crew health in  
138 terms of pathogenicity, virulence, or antibiotic resistance. This is relevant as there  
139 are limited opportunities to treat microbial infections in space. While space travel  
140 disrupts humans' normal skin and gut microbiome, this effect is reversible. Future  
141 space experiments will help find the answers to essential questions such as how to  
142 control microbial outbreaks in space, how to treat microbial disease in space,  
143 whether there is a need for novel probiotics/prebiotics, and how the microbiome of  
144 space environments and crew can be monitored long term at vast distances from  
145 Earth.

146

147 **Parkinson's Disease: evidence for the role of the gut**

148 Initially viewed as a brain condition, there is growing evidence that the gut has a role  
149 in initiating Parkinson's Disease (PD), as discussed by Prof. Aletta Kraneveld from  
150 Utrecht University, The Netherlands.

151

152 PD affects 1% of older adults and is an incurable condition characterized by  
153 progressive tremors, muscle rigidity, postural instability, and intestinal dysfunction.

154 This conflation of gut and brain symptoms implies two origins for the accumulation of  
155  $\alpha$ -synuclein (Lewy bodies) in the brain leading to neuro-inflammation and  
156 neurodegeneration (Horsager et al., 2020): either a direct central nervous system  
157 phenotype, or an indirect intestinal phenotype where leaky gut and endotoxemia lead  
158 to mucosal inflammation, microbiome changes and, eventually,  $\alpha$ -synuclein  
159 accumulation (Scheperjans et al., 2018; Rietdijk et al., 2017).

160

161 Intestinal phenotype hypothesis

162 This is supported by more than 15 cohort studies which found correlations between  
163 neurological deterioration and gut dysbiosis characterized by reduced *Prevotella*,  
164 lower levels of fecal short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), increased lipopolysaccharide-  
165 (LPS) producing bacteria, and increased pro-inflammatory Lactobacillaceae (Li et al.,  
166 2023). Murine models have built on this concept. Mice which genetically overexpress  
167  $\alpha$ -synuclein develop PD-related pathophysiology and motor dysfunction, but such  
168 changes do not occur if  $\alpha$ -synuclein overexpression mice are bred germ-free.  
169 However, inoculating these germ-free mice with GM from PD patients induces the  
170 pathology to a greater extent than non-exposed  $\alpha$ -synuclein overexpression mice,

171 proving that gut bacteria are essential to initiating the disease (Sampson et al.,  
172 2016).

173

174 Other studies corroborate gut-related mechanisms. Colonizing  $\alpha$ -synuclein  
175 overexpression mice with *E. coli*, which produce curli fibers (pro-inflammatory  
176 proteins which mediate host cell adhesion and invasion), led to the further  
177 aggregation of  $\alpha$ -synuclein in the gut and brain, and enhanced brain inflammation,  
178 gut problems, and motor dysfunction (Chapman et al., 2002). Another study  
179 (Matheoud et al., 2019) considered the role of the PINK1 gene, which is responsible  
180 for clearing mitochondria damaged during the progression of PD. Knocking out  
181 PINK1 would be expected to induce or exacerbate PD-like changes in animal  
182 models. However, this does not happen unless there is also an intestinal infection  
183 with LPS-producing bacteria.

184

185 A study of gut biopsies from PD patients revealed evidence of tight junction decline,  
186 leaky gut, and endotoxemia, and enhanced toll-like receptor (TLR) 4 expression,  
187 suggesting that PD is a TLR disease (Perez-Pardo et al., 2019). This hypothesis was  
188 tested using the pesticide, rotenone (an isoflavone molecule), which can initiate PD-  
189 like pathophysiology in animal models. Compared with wild-type mice which  
190 developed the expected pathogenic changes, oral exposure to rotenone for several  
191 weeks did not lead to gut dysbiosis or  $\alpha$ -synuclein accumulation in TLR4 knock-out  
192 mice. In addition, the loss of dopamine-producing cells in the substantia nigra was  
193 less pronounced and there were fewer motor & cognitive problems. A similar  
194 disruption of the expected PD pathophysiology was seen following the use of TLR4  
195 antagonists and TLR4 blocking antibodies, and when the vagus nerve was cut



196 suggesting that this is the likely route by which  $\alpha$ -synuclein spreads, prion-like, to the  
197 brain (Kim et al., 2019).

198

#### 199 Can GM modulation slow the progression of PD?

200 Fecal microbiota transplants (FMT) in murine models of PD reduce gut dysbiosis and  
201 neuroinflammation and result in fewer motor problems. Human trials are limited but  
202 demonstrate encouraging results for motor and non-motor symptoms in PD patients  
203 (Segal et al., 2021). Research on probiotics and synbiotics is more advanced and  
204 suggests that these are safe and effective, although further evidence is needed. *In*  
205 *vivo* studies report improved glucose metabolism, reduced inflammation, and  
206 neurodegeneration (Leta et al., 2021). In a review of eight clinical trials in PD  
207 patients given lactobacilli or bifidobacteria probiotics (Hong et al., 2022), constipation  
208 was significantly reduced, and modest anti-inflammatory effects were observed. A  
209 downside of using probiotics in PD is the potential for probiotic-drug interactions  
210 since bacterial decarboxylases may affect the bioavailability of L-dopamine, a  
211 Carbidopa component commonly used to manage PD neurological symptoms (van  
212 Kessel et al., 2019).

213

214 Murine PD models have been used to test the efficacy of diets containing precursors  
215 for neuronal membrane synthesis, such as long-chain omega-3 fatty acids, choline,  
216 uridine, vitamins, and minerals (Perez-Pardo et al., 2018a). Overall, the nutritional  
217 intervention was effective at partially alleviating the rotenone-induced neurological  
218 changes in mice. A further study tested an enhanced experimental diet containing  
219 the same nutrients as before plus prebiotic fibers but introduced it 28 days after  
220 rotenone exposure when adverse neurological changes had already occurred

221 (Perez-Pardo et al., 2017). Compared with the control diet, the enhanced prebiotic-  
222 rich diet was more effective at normalizing the mice's rotenone-induced motor and  
223 non-motor abnormalities. These findings suggest that dietary treatments can help  
224 reverse neurological changes in mice and that diets that modulate the GM appear to  
225 deliver more benefits than those providing nutritional support (Perez-Pardo et al.,  
226 2018b).

227

228 In summary, there is growing evidence for a gut-first model of PD. However, further  
229 robust human studies in target populations are needed to understand the gut-brain  
230 mechanisms involved and identify opportunities for early intervention.

231

### 232 **Underlying mechanisms of depression and the modulating role of probiotics**

233 Another condition potentially influenced by the gut–brain axis is major depressive  
234 disorder (MDD), which affects around 280 million people worldwide and is  
235 characterized by symptoms including depressed mood, anxiety, and insomnia. Dr.  
236 Kazunori Matsuda, from the Yakult Central Institute, Japan, proposed underlying  
237 mechanisms related to the GM and the therapeutic potential of probiotics.

238

#### 239 Gut-brain axis

240 Bidirectional communication exists between the GM and the brain. The brain  
241 influences the gut via the autonomic nervous system, while the gut, including  
242 microbe-derived molecules, influences the brain via humoral and neuronal pathways  
243 (summarized in Suda & Matsuda 2022). The idea that the GM could be linked to  
244 depression arose from studies where mice receiving an FMT from MDD patients  
245 displayed depression-like behavior compared to control mice given an FMT from

246 healthy people (Zheng et al., 2016), which indicates the role of dysbiosis in MDD  
247 development.

248

249 Further evidence came from a systematic review of 17 studies characterizing the GM  
250 of MDD patients (Knudsen et al., 2021), which found reduced numbers of  
251 *Faecalibacterium*, a producer of butyrate, a SCFA linked to the maintenance of  
252 neurogenesis and anti-inflammatory effects. Other work reported that MDD patients  
253 have a lower abundance of bifidobacteria and lactobacilli than healthy controls  
254 (Aizawa et al., 2016). However, this is not a consistent pattern across studies,  
255 perhaps due to differences in subjects' backgrounds between the studies.

256

### 257 Mechanisms

258 What are the likely mechanisms if gut dysbiosis were influential in the pathology of  
259 MDD? MDD is recognized as a multifactorial condition linked to abnormal stress  
260 response, reduced neurogenesis, and neuroinflammation, pathways where the GM  
261 may impact. Chronic stress is a risk factor for MDD onset, resulting in the  
262 hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis-mediated dysregulation of the stress  
263 response. The HPA axis is understood to be a key pathway of stress response  
264 through cortisol secretion. Normally, cortisol regulates its secretion via negative  
265 feedback through the HPA. However, in MDD patients, the feedback system is  
266 impaired, resulting in elevated blood cortisol, while brain exposure to high levels of  
267 cortisol induces chronic inflammation and reduced brain-derived neurotrophic factor  
268 (BDNF) protein – an important regulator of neuronal growth, survival, and plasticity.

269

270 Animal studies have found that the stress response is pronounced with a lack of GM  
271 when germ-free mice are exposed to physical restraint stress. However, when germ-  
272 free mice were inoculated with *Bifidobacterium infantis*, the exaggerated HPA stress  
273 response was reversed (Sudo et al., 2004). One signaling route from the gut to the  
274 brain is the vagus nerve, and some probiotic strains such as *Lactocaseibacillus*  
275 *paracasei* strain Shirota (LcS) have been shown to stimulate the activity of the  
276 gastric branch of the vagal afferent to suppress the stress-induced increase in blood  
277 corticosterone (Takada et al., 2016).

278

279 Reduced neurogenesis, another part of the pathophysiology of MDD, is believed to  
280 be caused by neuroinflammation and excessive stress, demonstrated by a smaller  
281 volume of certain brain regions in MDD patients (Treadway et al., 2015) and lower  
282 BDNF in cerebrospinal fluid (Mizui et al., 2019). This may have a GM link since  
283 germ-free mice have lower hippocampal levels of BDNF relative to specific  
284 pathogen-free mice (Sudo et al., 2004), and SCFAs can upregulate BDNF.

285 Neuroinflammation, too, has a gut connection since the GM directly affects pro- and  
286 anti-inflammatory responses in the gut, and a leaky gut has been implicated in the  
287 pathogenesis of MDD. Increased gut permeability causes an influx of gut microbial  
288 components such as LPS, resulting in systemic inflammation and consequent  
289 neuroinflammation.

290

### 291 Could microbiome-based therapies help?

292 Studies suggest they can. FMT given to patients to treat symptoms of IBS has been  
293 found to have beneficial secondary effects on symptoms of depression (Huang et al.,  
294 2019), while a meta-analysis that pooled the results from 34 clinical trials concluded

295 that probiotics have modest beneficial effects on depression and anxiety (Liu et al.,  
296 2019). Two randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trials in this meta-analysis  
297 are explored in more detail. In the first study, 40 MDD patients were treated with a  
298 probiotic capsule (*Lactobacillus acidophilus* + *Lacticaseibacillus casei* +  
299 *Bifidobacterium bifidum*) or a placebo for 8 weeks. Significant improvements were  
300 seen in depressive symptoms, insulin resistance marker, and C-reactive protein in  
301 the probiotic group relative to controls (Akkasheh et al., 2016). In the second study,  
302 81 MDD patients were given probiotics (*Lactobacillus helveticus* R0052 +  
303 *Bifidobacterium longum* R0175), prebiotics (galacto-oligosaccharide) or a placebo for  
304 8 weeks, with symptoms of depression significantly improving only in the probiotic  
305 group relative to controls (Kazemi et al., 2019).

306

307 The latest research on LcS supported these observations; a 12-week open-label  
308 study of an LcS-fermented milk drink on patients with depression found improved  
309 depressive symptoms and sleep quality (Otaka et al., 2021). Another study revealed  
310 that 8-week of treatment with an LcS-fermented milk drink significantly attenuated  
311 the stress-induced rise in salivary cortisol in medical students under academic stress  
312 (Takada et al., 2016). These results suggest that some probiotic strains can  
313 modulate stress-induced activation of the HPA axis and the subsequent onset of  
314 depression.

315

316 In summary, the GM is likely involved in the pathophysiology of MDD via several  
317 pathways, and GM modulators, including probiotics and FMT, could be helpful  
318 adjunct therapies.

319

320 **Overcoming the brain barrier: a challenge for bacteria?**

321 Implicating the GM in the pathophysiology of brain diseases and conditions requires  
322 that bacterial substances can access brain tissues. How this might occur was the  
323 topic reviewed by Prof. Roosmarijn Vandenbroucke from the Flanders Institute for  
324 Biotechnology (VIB) and Ghent University, Belgium.

325

326 The brain is protected from the peripheral circulation by central nervous system  
327 barriers, which include the blood-brain barrier (BBB) and the lesser-known blood-  
328 cerebral spinal fluid (CSF) barrier, which sits within the brain ventricles. Both barriers  
329 are characterized by being selectively permeable and having several parts to their  
330 structure, including a layer of epithelial cells in the case of the blood-CSF barrier and  
331 endothelial cells in the case of the BBB; both possessing tight junctions which  
332 regulate access. The choroid plexus epithelial cells at the blood-CSF barrier share  
333 similarities with those in the gut and have microvilli at their apical side, enhancing the  
334 surface area.

335

336 Barrier functions

337 There is a difference in permeability between the two barriers since the capillaries  
338 which sit underneath the choroid plexus epithelial cells that form the blood-CSF  
339 barrier are fenestrated (i.e., leaky). This means no tight junction proteins connect the  
340 choroid plexus endothelial cells to one another (Vandenbroucke et al., 2016). The  
341 purpose of the choroid plexus is to remove waste products from the brain, act as its  
342 gatekeeper, and make CSF, a soup of different molecules, including nutrients,  
343 neurotrophins, and growth factors. The choroid plexus epithelial cells are in very  
344 close contact with the endothelial cells of the capillaries inside the choroid plexus.

345 This enables them to respond to triggers from the peripheral circulation, such as  
346 cytokines, and consequently relay these peripheral signals to the brain, but how  
347 does this process occur?

348

349 One answer is via extracellular vesicles, cell-derived nanoparticles that transfer  
350 biological cargoes between cells and can cross the brain barriers bi-directionally,  
351 giving them a powerful influence across the body. Extracellular vesicles may  
352 originate from the body's cells or from bacteria, which potentially explains how the  
353 GM could have an impact on the brain. This was demonstrated in an animal  
354 experiment (Balusu et al., 2016a) where LPS was peripherally delivered, resulting in  
355 systemic inflammation and inflammation in brain cells. An extracellular vesicle  
356 inhibitor was then administered in the brain, which blocked the inflammatory signal to  
357 the brain, suggesting that extracellular vesicles act like a relay between the  
358 peripheral circulation and the brain. Animal studies suggest that a healthy gut  
359 microbiota is essential for the optimal development of the BBB since germ-free mice  
360 display increased BBB permeability compared with pathogen-free controls with  
361 normal gut microbiota (Braniste et al. 2014). There is also evidence that choroid  
362 plexus dysfunction via altered secretory, transport, immune. Barrier function plays a  
363 central role in aging and the risk of developing conditions such as Alzheimer's  
364 disease (Balusu et al., 2016b). Hence, targeting the GM composition, or  
365 administrating SCFAs might have therapeutic potential.

366

### 367 Bacterial extracellular vesicles and brain diseases

368 The discovery of extracellular vesicles, especially those derived from bacteria, has  
369 advanced understanding of how gut dysbiosis may influence the initiation and

370 progression of chronic progressive brain conditions. One example is the association  
371 between *Helicobacter pylori*, a gastrointestinal pathogen found in around half of  
372 adults, and an enhanced risk of Alzheimer's Disease. It has been hypothesized that  
373 bacterial-derived EVs, called outer membrane vesicles (OMV), if derived from Gram-  
374 negative bacteria, can cross the brain barriers, and initiate pathogenic changes, such  
375 as neuroinflammation or beta-amyloid plaque deposits (Xie et al., 2022). This was  
376 studied by loading *H. pylori* OMV with cre enzyme and feeding these to tdTomato  
377 reporter mice, genetically engineered mice whose cells turn red when cre is taken  
378 up. This study showed an apparent increase in red astrocytes, confirming that *H.*  
379 *pylori* OMV had traveled from the gut to the brain, crossing the brain barriers (Xie et  
380 al., 2022).

381

382 The impact of this was investigated by feeding wild type mice with *H. pylori*-derived  
383 OMV and studying the activity of cells in the brain (Xie et al.,2023). OMVs were  
384 found to overstimulate the microglia, leading to excessive synaptic pruning,  
385 evidenced by reduced dendrite length. Electrophysiological measurements then  
386 confirmed that *H. pylori*-derived OMV had detrimental effects on synaptic activity. To  
387 examine the clinical impact of OMV, a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease was  
388 treated with OMV for three weeks. The findings confirmed a significant effect on  
389 plaque deposition with more plaques and a larger plaque area than control mice.  
390 Hence, *H. pylori* OMV can access the brain and potentially accelerate pathogenic  
391 changes associated with Alzheimer's disease. At this stage, it is unclear how the  
392 OMV are crossing the blood-CSF barrier.

393



394 In summary, a functioning blood-CSF barrier requires the presence of a GM and is  
395 strengthened by SCFA-producing taxa. Recent research shows that *H. pylori* OMV  
396 can enter the brain and accelerate changes associated with Alzheimer's disease,  
397 such as glial activation and plaque deposition.

398

### 399 **IBS: is it all between the ears?**

400 This was the intriguing question asked by Prof. Francisco Guarner from the Teknon  
401 Medical Centre, Spain. Irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) is characterized by chronic,  
402 relapsing diarrhea or constipation with no detectable cause. Bloating and pain are  
403 common symptoms (Lacy et al., 2017), often blamed on intestinal gas, but the  
404 symptoms could be due to heightened sensitivity to abdominal distention. This was  
405 demonstrated in an experiment (Barba et al., 2019) where patients who had reported  
406 reactions after eating lettuce were given an abdominal computer tomography scan  
407 before and after eating this trigger food. Average post-prandial girth increased by 35  
408 mm, representing an 835 ml expansion of intra-abdominal volume, but only 40 ml of  
409 this was due to extra gas, which was within the normal range. It was concluded that  
410 patients felt bloated because consuming lettuce led to a conditioned response of  
411 diaphragm displacement, with computer tomography scans showing an average  
412 diaphragm descent of  $7 \pm 3$  mm. Following behavioral training, patients reduced their  
413 anxiety-related response to trigger foods by learning to control their diaphragm  
414 movement.

415

### 416 Is dietary restriction necessary for IBS?

417 The low FODMAP diet, which restricts poorly absorbed short-chain carbohydrates  
418 including fructose, lactose, polyols, fructans, and galacto-oligosaccharides, is a

419 favored treatment for IBS and resolves symptoms in 50%-80% of patients  
420 (Staudacher et al., 2017). However, it entails short-to-medium term avoidance of  
421 certain foods, particularly plant-based foods, which may be neither convenient nor  
422 healthy for the patients. Hence, it may be better to employ cognitive behavioural  
423 therapy to condition a more positive response to trigger foods (Black et al., 2020).  
424 This has led to proposals that diet-induced symptoms in IBS are driven by  
425 dysregulation of the gut-brain axis since blinded interventions reveal similar  
426 increases in small bowel motility and colonic gas volume when IBS patients and  
427 healthy controls consume fructans (Wu et al., 2022).

428

429 Gut bacteria create intestinal gas by fermenting carbohydrates which begs the  
430 question: do IBS patients have a particular GM profile? In one study (Manichanh et  
431 al., 2014), patients complaining of flatus were compared with healthy controls before  
432 and after a 3-day challenge diet that was rich in plant foods. Even on the baseline  
433 'usual' diet, patients reported more abdominal symptoms and gas than controls,  
434 which worsened in both groups following the challenge diet. Changes in the GM of  
435 patients mirrored the increased symptoms, with *Bilophila wadsworthia* correlating  
436 with the increased volume of gas expelled. However, the GM of patients reduced in  
437 diversity and changed more radically in response to the challenge diet compared  
438 with the controls, which remained relatively stable. Hence, the GM of IBS patients,  
439 whether due to their habitual diets or other lifestyle factors, appears to be less  
440 adapted to digesting a plant-based diet and more adapted to digesting protein. This  
441 may lead to a predominance of gas-producing taxa.

442

443 Implications for wider health

444 While it is difficult to differentiate people with and without gut dysbiosis simply by  
445 looking at their GM, there are associations between digestive symptoms and  
446 particular taxa. Pozuelo et al. (2015) found that patients with IBS had significantly  
447 lower microbial diversity and fewer microorganisms that produce butyrate and  
448 methane. Since these are responsible for disposing of hydrogen in the gut, their  
449 lower abundance in people with IBS could explain the excess of abdominal gas.  
450 *Prevotella* was more associated with healthier controls; interestingly, these taxa can  
451 digest vegetable matter. IBS is not the only condition characterized by microbial  
452 indicators since a study in 8,208 Dutch adults found that the GM of people with  
453 cancer, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and neurological conditions share  
454 microbiome commonalities and could be differentiated from the GM of healthy  
455 people (Gacesa et al., 2022).

456

457 If the healthy GM profile favors those species adapted to ferment fiber-rich plant  
458 substrates, could a low FODMAP diet, which typically restricts these foods, drive  
459 unhelpful changes in the GM? This could be true, according to research that finds  
460 that a low FODMAP diet leads to atrophy of taxa adapted to digest vegetables  
461 (Halmos et al., 2015). Hence, alternative therapies are warranted to enable people  
462 with IBS to follow the recommended plant-rich diet for general health and disease  
463 prevention. Huaman et al. (2018) combined a Mediterranean (Med) diet with a  
464 prebiotic (galacto-oligosaccharide), which was tested against a low FODMAP diet in  
465 a randomized controlled trial. Similar reductions in gut symptoms were seen after 4  
466 weeks on both diets, except flatus which was reduced only after the low FODMAP  
467 diet. However, some of these benefits were not sustained, as symptoms reappeared  
468 immediately after patients discontinued the low FODMAP diet. In contrast, the

469 benefits of the prebiotic-Med diet combination persisted during the 2-week follow-up  
470 when patients returned to their habitual diets. In addition, the diets had opposite  
471 effects on *Bifidobacterium* sp., with a decline seen after the low FODMAP diet versus  
472 an increase after the prebiotic-Med diet.

473

474 In summary, as plant-based diets are now widely recommended for health and  
475 disease prevention, it is important that people with IBS are supported to eat these by  
476 employing behavioral strategies, which condition a positive response to trigger foods  
477 rather than managing their symptoms with trigger food avoidance.

478

#### 479 **Gut microbial diversity: one health and probiotics**

480 Taking his cue from One Health – the European program which recognizes the  
481 interconnectivity between the environment and human/animal health – Dr. Olaf  
482 Larsen from Vrije Universiteit, The Netherlands, discussed the role of microbial  
483 diversity, particularly of key taxa and guilds in promoting health.

484

485 The worldwide incidence of infectious diseases, including tuberculosis and measles,  
486 declined dramatically during 1950-2000 against a backdrop of rising autoimmune  
487 disorders, such as type 1 diabetes (T1D), Crohn's disease, and asthma (Bach 2002).

488 This trend continues in a more recent analysis (Larsen et al., 2022). In particular,  
489 T1D incidence has risen steadily in Europe and the US over the past 40 years.

490 However, as demonstrated by the SARS epidemics and the SARS-Covid-19  
491 pandemic, infectious diseases are far from being eradicated.

492

#### 493 Old friends

494 While the fall in infections is understandable, given vaccines and improved hygiene  
495 standards, the reason for the rise in autoimmune problems is less clear and may be  
496 related to the health of our microbiota. One theory is that humans, especially in early  
497 childhood, have limited exposure to beneficial microbes from food and the  
498 environment – referred to as 'old friends' – which leads to an overreactive immune  
499 system with the propensity to attack the body's own tissues as well as overacting to  
500 harmless microorganisms or antigens. Indeed, studies show that diminished  
501 exposure to microorganisms in early life correlates with an increased risk of atopic  
502 diseases (Von Mutius et al., 2000).

503

504 A deterioration in GM balance in Western countries has been cited as a reason for  
505 their greater burden of Covid-related mortality and higher rates of autoimmune and  
506 chronic non-communicable conditions. GM diversity correlates with risk (Dhar and  
507 Mohanty, 2020) and severity of Covid-19 (Yeoh et al., 2021). It may also influence  
508 the development of metabolic syndrome (Fan and Pedersen, 2021) which increased  
509 in prevalence from approximately 30% to 40% of the US adult population during  
510 2000-2018, emphasizing the immense scale of this issue (Larsen et al., 2022).

511 Completing the circle of disease risk, SARS-Covid-19 infection has been found to  
512 exacerbate metabolic disease (le Roux, 2021).

513

514 All of this indicates a need for Western populations to improve their exposure to 'old  
515 friends' and regain microbiota eubiosis – considered to be a state of balance in the  
516 GM between beneficial and harmful bacteria, which is normally associated with a  
517 disease-free host. The human gut loses a proportion of the conserved microbiome  
518 with each successive generation, possibly related to incomplete maternal-child

519 transmission (due to Caesarean births and lower than ideal breast-feeding rates) and  
520 excessive antibiotic use, which has remained relatively stable despite concerns  
521 about antibiotic resistance (Blaser and Falkow, 2009). New exposures do not  
522 compensate for this decline in beneficial bacteria since society has adopted  
523 unhelpful practices of indoor living and diets lacking in fermented foods. If these  
524 ecosystem losses continue, a catastrophic collapse in the GM is hypothesised  
525 leading to abrupt and possibly irreversible shifts between alternative ecosystem  
526 states (Larsen and van de Burgwal, 2021). Increasing GM diversity increases  
527 functionality, e.g., SCFA production, but only if the right species are introduced. If the  
528 wrong diet and lifestyle are adopted, less favorable species could thrive, reducing  
529 ecosystem resilience and creating functional redundancy.

530

### 531 Keystone taxa and guilds

532 A balanced GM includes keystone (core) taxa and guilds. Keystone taxa are: "highly  
533 connected taxa that individually or in a guild exert a considerable influence on  
534 microbiome structure and functioning, irrespective of their abundance, [hence] their  
535 removal can cause a dramatic shift in microbiome structure and functioning."  
536 (Banerjee et al., 2018). Guilds are small ecosystems where 2-10 taxa work together  
537 as coherent functional units or exploit the same type of resources (Maurice and  
538 Turnbaugh, 2018).

539

540 The absence of specific guilds has been linked with a greater risk of autoimmune  
541 conditions and certain metabolic diseases, but these guilds can be restored with the  
542 right interventions, which may include FMT, probiotics, or dietary fibers. In one  
543 randomized controlled trial in people with type 2 diabetes, diets high in fiber

544 promoted SCFA-producing strains at the expense of strains that produced potentially  
545 detrimental compounds such as indole and hydrogen sulfide (Zhao et al., 2018).  
546 These GM changes in the high fiber group were associated with improved  
547 hemoglobin A1c levels. At present, the evidence is insufficient to determine whether  
548 single strain or multistrain probiotics are more effective at restoring eubiosis  
549 (McFarland, 2021) although the theoretical research suggests a higher diversity in  
550 microbial guilds leads to a more efficient system. Hence, the choice of an  
551 appropriate probiotic should be based not on the number of strains in the product but  
552 on evidence-based efficacy trials. There is also an issue with non-responders which  
553 implies that a personalized approach is needed to determine the correct keystone  
554 taxa and guilds.

555

556 In summary, to avoid the risk of catastrophic collapse in the GM, we need to take a  
557 One Health approach to promote microbiota eubiosis. This includes greater  
558 biodiversity and exposure to 'old friends', appropriate substrates from high-fiber and  
559 plant-rich diets, as well as limiting antibiotic use and excessive hygiene.

560

### 561 **Opportunities relating to fermented foods**

562 One source of 'old friends' is traditional fermented foods (FF), according to Prof. Paul  
563 Cotter, from the Teagasc Food Research Centre and APC Microbiome Ireland,  
564 Ireland, who reviewed some recent research on this topic.

565

566 FF are "foods made through desired microbial growth and enzymatic conversions of  
567 food components" (Marco et al., 2021). Examples include kefir, sourdough bread,  
568 yogurt, kimchi, and kombucha. The different microbes used to make FF determine

569 the fermentation process, flavor, nutrients/bioactive compounds, and potential health  
570 benefits, including nutritive alteration of the ingredients, presence of bioactive  
571 compounds that affect intestinal and systemic function or modulation of the immune  
572 system. However, not all FF work as probiotics and referring to FF microorganisms  
573 as probiotics is misleading unless backed by evidence from human studies.

574

575 Used as a means to preserve foods, FF have a long history of use in nations around  
576 the world (Gänzle, 2022; Jimenez et al., 2022). The expansion of modern research  
577 techniques has helped investigate the microbiota of FF, highlighting differences  
578 across foods and, indeed, different versions of the same food type. This inherent  
579 variability has complicated standardization, an issue further complicated by different  
580 standards and regulations between countries (Mukherjee et al., 2022). As an  
581 example, the term 'kefir' is reserved for dairy in some jurisdictions, e.g., Germany,  
582 and cannot be applied to water kefir.

583

#### 584 Fermented food research

585 A global initiative was set up to apply shotgun metagenomic sequencing to a diverse  
586 range of FF, eventually sourcing 58 international artisan products (Leech et al.,  
587 2020). Food type, e.g., dairy, brine- or sugar-based, was the primary driver of  
588 microbial composition, and foods within these clusters had more similar microbiomes  
589 than those from other clusters. Several FF did not fit with any cluster, including  
590 coconut kefir and soya-based foods for which there are relatively little data. Multiple  
591 potentially novel microbial species were identified, which could represent untapped  
592 functionality resources.

593



594 Further work (Pasolli et al., 2020) has mapped lactic acid bacteria (LAB) species  
595 found in FF with those present in the human GM, finding that, for some species,  
596 closely related LAB strains occur in both food and gut environments. This provides  
597 new evidence that FF can be a source of LAB for the gut microbiome. The next  
598 phase will look at African FF as these have been under-researched. Africa contains  
599 a wealth of FF examples that contain microbes that differ significantly from those  
600 found in FF from other continents.

601

602 Microbiome Applications for Sustainable food systems through Technologies and  
603 Enterprise (MASTER) is a new initiative that applies analytical techniques to FF  
604 typically used to study the human GM. One MASTER study (Cotter, personal  
605 communication) found specific clusters of microbial genes associated with  
606 colonization, gut survival, modulation pathways, and human health within FF  
607 microbes. Indeed, FF contained significantly more health-associated gene clusters  
608 than non-fermented substrates, indicating the transformative influence of adding  
609 microbes to foods. The work could be used to identify which FF are worth testing  
610 further in human clinical trials.

611

#### 612 The example of water and milk kefir

613 Kefir grains contain a consortium of bacteria and yeasts, although the specific  
614 microorganisms in water and milk kefir grains are very different. Water kefir is a  
615 fermented beverage made by inoculating water kefir grains into a sugar (sucrose)-  
616 rich solution supplemented with fruits. Often made in a household setting, the  
617 mixture is left to stand at room temperature for 1 to 3 days, after which the grains are  
618 filtered out to obtain the final drink. A recent study (Mortensen, personal

619 communication) sourced water kefir grains from around the globe and fermented  
620 them with the same substrate. Heat maps based on microbial taxonomy revealed  
621 differences in  $\alpha$ -diversity across countries and at least 10 clusters of microbial  
622 communities which could be important for flavor, shelf life, or health. This work could  
623 help define international standards for water kefir, which tend to differ from country  
624 to country regarding their microbiome.

625

626 Milk kefir is made by fermenting milk with milk kefir grains. Research has identified  
627 specific microbes linked to volatile compounds which could help develop optimal  
628 flavor profiles for new products, for example adding *Lactobacillus kefirifaciens*  
629 NCFB 2797 to increase fruitiness (Walsh et al., 2016). This work is being expanded  
630 to 64 international milk kefir samples to determine theoretically which microbes could  
631 indicate potential health attributes. This is important as while milk kefir has been  
632 linked with several health benefits, including cholesterol reduction and antimicrobial  
633 activity, the quality of evidence is often poor (Bourrie et al., 2016). Notably, some  
634 animal studies evaluating the impact of kefir on obesity, dyslipidemia, and metabolic  
635 diseases suggest that the health-promoting attributes of kefir depend on specific  
636 microbes, which could explain why some kefir do not produce any health effects  
637 (Bourrie et al., 2020). Indeed, a study to deconstruct the microbes in artisan kefir  
638 found that *Lactobacillus* and yeast were essential components for lowering plasma  
639 cholesterol in mice (Bourrie et al., 2021).

640

641 Ultimately, understanding which microbes in FF are important for health could help  
642 inform standards for commercial products and may eventually lead to population  
643 recommendations for specific microorganisms to be consumed through the diet.

644

645 **Living foods: safe salvation for health**

646 Continuing the theme of fermented foods, Prof. Lorenzo Morelli, from the Catholic  
647 University of the Sacred Heart, Italy, described how modern research techniques can  
648 improve the understanding of traditional production methods.

649

650 Since around 7000 BC, humans have preserved protein-rich foods using different  
651 tools, including salt, smoke, and fermentation. The term fermentation comes from the  
652 Latin verb 'fervere', which means 'to boil', possibly referring to the bubbles seen  
653 when liquids are fermented. An example of a traditional FF is Parmesan cheese  
654 which is still made only with raw milk in copper pots and using the previous day's  
655 culture – called 'back slopping'. Commercially available bacteria cultures are not  
656 permitted, and the cheese must be ripened for more than a year for safety. There is  
657 good genetic evidence that these traditional methods have selected a sub-population  
658 of LAB whose chromosomes are adapted to making Parmesan cheese since they  
659 can grow at 51 °C, which usually is high for such bacteria.

660

661 New methods to solve old problems

662 However, a weak point of traditional back slopping is the undefined age and viability  
663 of the bacterial cells, given that cheese-making requires the correct balance of lactic  
664 acid and viable cells. Older bacteria produce too much lactic acid which eventually  
665 kills the culture. Uncertainty can also be introduced by raw milk, whose composition  
666 and bacterial profile are influenced by different seasons and pastures. Newer  
667 research technologies can be used to address these traditional problems. In one  
668 study (Bellassi et al., 2021), researchers used metabolomics and genomics to

669 discriminate between milk produced by cows fed hay and milk from cows fed hay  
670 and fresh vegetables.

671

672 The bacteria used to make FF are multifunctional, transforming raw ingredients'  
673 aroma, flavor, taste, and durability. It has been found that sourdough cultures are  
674 essential for flavor and leavening and act as natural preservatives (Bourdichon et al.,  
675 2021). Biopreservation refers to enhanced food safety and extended shelf life of  
676 foods by indigenous and/or intentionally added microbiota, inhibiting the growth of  
677 pathogenic and spoilage organisms due to microbiological competition and  
678 production of antimicrobial metabolites (Shi and Maktabdar, 2022). This is an  
679 important attribute as consumers want foods to have a longer shelf life yet remain  
680 concerned about chemical preservatives and plastic packaging. There is a potential  
681 role for LAB against fungal spoilage of foods (Siedler et al., 2019), as demonstrated  
682 by an experiment that found that breads inoculated with mold were better preserved  
683 after 7 days when made with LAB compared with regular yeast. Modern techniques  
684 could be used to leverage these hitherto unknown benefits of cultures. The  
685 antimicrobial characteristics of several microorganisms are already recognized by  
686 GRAS [generally recognized as safe].

687

#### 688 Human impact

689 LAB also interact with our bodies, as first recognized by Russian zoologist and Nobel  
690 laureate Élie Metchnikoff (Mackowiak, 2013), who hypothesized in the early 20<sup>th</sup>  
691 century that 'intestinal putrefaction' shortens life but that lactic acid could be an  
692 antidote. This led him to be the earliest advocate of LAB as therapeutic agents and  
693 he is often considered the 'father' of probiotics. While Metchnikoff's original

694 experiments could be described as hazardous – for example, injecting himself with  
695 pathogens or feeding lactic acid to volunteers – he went on to advocate the use of  
696 LAB in fermented foods, stating in 1907: '*Dependence of the intestinal microbes on  
697 the food makes it possible to adopt measures to modify the flora in our bodies and to  
698 replace the harmful microbes by useful microbes*'.

699

700 Metchnikoff incorrectly assumed that colonic bacteria could be modulated using  
701 supplemental lactic acid. Still, it is reasonable to assume that the GM could be  
702 influenced by a range of LAB by-products found in FF, including bioactive peptides  
703 (Ali et al., 2022). These have been associated with anti-hypertensive, angiotensin-  
704 converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitory, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and  
705 immunomodulatory effects, which could deliver health benefits (Raveschot et al.,  
706 2018; Beltrán-Barrientos et al., 2016). Bioactive peptides may also improve mineral  
707 bioavailability (Tenenbaum et al., 2022), which could support healthy aging and the  
708 prevention of osteoporosis. Since the neurotransmitter  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid (GABA)  
709 is one of the by-products of LAB metabolism, it has been hypothesised that  
710 fermented foods could influence the brain. The potential anti-hypertensive effects of  
711 reduced sodium sourdough, made with *Levilactobacillus brevis* CECT 8183, were  
712 investigated in a laboratory study (Peñas et al., 2015). The results showed  
713 significantly increased total antioxidant activity, GABA levels, and ACE inhibitory  
714 effects compared with the control bread, suggesting that innovative breads could be  
715 developed to reduce blood pressure.

716

717 Hence in summary, while there is a long history of humans using bacteria to  
718 preserve nutrients through fermentation, their interactions in our bodies and potential  
719 impact on health are only beginning to be understood.

720

### 721 **Living drugs: a solution with many benefits**

722 This narrative was continued by Prof. Stephan C. Bischoff, from the University of  
723 Hohenheim in Stuttgart, Germany, who described how FF evolved first into functional  
724 foods and supplement products, then medical applications. These require different  
725 approaches to safety assessment, regulation and methodologies to establish  
726 evidence of efficacy. This is because the purpose of probiotics has evolved from  
727 health maintenance to the prevention, management, or treatment of diseases and  
728 abnormal conditions.

729

730 Oral microbiota therapy can include probiotics, prebiotics, and postbiotics; the latter  
731 being inanimate microorganisms and/or their components that confer a health benefit  
732 on the host (Salminen et al., 2021). For probiotic medical trials, it is crucial to  
733 consider strain, dosage, target population, disease type, and progression.

734 Understanding mechanisms is also vital to support medical claims and ensure that  
735 the right probiotics are targeted at the right population of patients (Daliri et al., 2021).

736 Given recent advances in knowledge, relevant pathways of action include the gut-  
737 brain axis and the gut-liver axis, with the potential for probiotics to modulate a range  
738 of metabolic, inflammatory, and neurological conditions. So, where is the evidence  
739 currently?

740

### 741 Respiratory tract infections (RTI)

742 Cochrane reviews are a gold standard of independent systematic review and meta-  
743 analysis (SRMA). In one of these, probiotics were found to lower the incidence but  
744 not the duration of RTI (OR 0.58; 95% CI 0.36 - 0.92) and reduced antibiotic  
745 prescriptions (0.67; 95% CI 0.45 - 0.98) (Hao et al., 2011). These conclusions were  
746 confirmed in updated reviews of studies on adults and children (Hao et al., 2015;  
747 Quick, 2015). Other SRMAs have concluded that probiotics and prebiotics effectively  
748 improved response to the influenza vaccine (Lei et al., 2017), while fermented dairy  
749 products protected against RTI (Rashidi et al., 2021).

750

751 However, one issue with SRMAs is the heterogeneous approach to probiotic strains,  
752 i.e., dosage and duration of the administration, which can create inconsistencies that  
753 make null conclusions more likely, as already mentioned by Dr Larsen. Another  
754 issue is that SRMAs can be based on several small pilot trials subject to publication  
755 bias. Hence, there is a need to consider well-conducted large randomized controlled  
756 trials (RCTs), of which several now exist:

- 757 • A 6-week trial of three probiotics on common cold symptoms in 581 college  
758 students found that *B. bifidum* increased illness-free days (Langkamp-Henken  
759 et al., 2015).
- 760 • A 6-month trial in 171 children found that a probiotic plus vitamin C reduced  
761 coughing, absenteeism, and antibiotic usage (Garaiova et al., 2021).
- 762 • Two 12-week trials of fermented milk with *Lactocaseibacillus paracasei* strain  
763 Shirota found prevention of the common cold and influenza in 96 office  
764 workers (Shida et al., 2017), and reduced risk of acute upper RTI in 1003  
765 children (Mai et al., 2021).

766

767 Moving to the hospital environment, the severe condition of ventilator-associated  
768 pneumonia is a common issue for intensive care patients. Here, too, SRMAs have  
769 confirmed that probiotics have a therapeutic role in this condition, as there is robust  
770 evidence for a 30% reduction (Bo et al., 2014; Ji et al., 2021; Sharif et al., 2022). A  
771 large RCT backs this using a 4-strain preparation (*L. acidophilus*, *Lactiplantibacillus*  
772 *plantarum*, *Bifidobacterium animalis* subsp. *lactis*, and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*  
773 *var boulardii*) in 112 trauma patients (Tsilika et al., 2022). However, another large  
774 RCT (n=2653) found no significant benefit of *Lacticaseibacillus rhamnosus* GG for  
775 ventilator-associated pneumonia (Johnstone et al., 2021).

776

#### 777 Gastro-intestinal disorders

778 A major indication for probiotics is antibiotic-associated diarrhea. The evidence for *S.*  
779 *cerevisiae var boulardii* and *Lactoballicus* sp. is so well established, with a risk  
780 reduction of more than 50% (Szajewska and Kołodziej 2015a; Szajewska and  
781 Kołodziej 2015b) that further data are unnecessary.

782

783 Probiotics are also recommended in the German IBS guidelines since few effective  
784 drug treatments exist for this condition (Layer et al., 2021). However, the opposite is  
785 true for inflammatory bowel diseases, such as ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease,  
786 where probiotics offer weak beneficial effects that are inferior to drugs (Kaur et al.,  
787 2020). Small intestine bacterial overload results from gut dysbiosis and is  
788 characterized by bloating, pain, and post-prandial diarrhea. A SRMA by Zhong et al.  
789 (2017) found that probiotics could not prevent small intestine bacterial overload but  
790 lowered gut hydrogen levels and improved treatment efficacy, including for



791 abdominal pain. German guidelines indicate that it is best practice to use probiotics  
792 alongside antibiotics and a low FODMAP diet (Layer et al., 2021).

793

794 In medicine, probiotics are most effective for RTI and gastrointestinal conditions. In  
795 the future, probiotics could treat other types of conditions such as metabolic  
796 syndrome, obesity, and neurological diseases but, to do this, new probiotics need to  
797 be discovered and tested in clinical trials. In a recent trial (Gutiérrez-Castrellón et al.,  
798 2022) a new patented 4-strain probiotic improved remission rates and viral load in  
799 patients with SARS-Covid-19. Further research and product development are  
800 required to deliver the advantages of living drugs to all parts of the body.

801

#### 802 **Safety of microorganisms used as probiotics**

803 Before being included in the food system, microorganisms must be risk assessed to  
804 ensure consumer safety. Is the current system fit for this purpose? This was  
805 discussed by Prof. Pier-Sandro Cocconcelli from the Università Cattolica del Sacro  
806 Cuore, Italy, who identified four trends in risk assessment (RA).

807

808 Microorganisms are deliberately introduced into the food chain to assist food  
809 production (e.g., to create FF) and to benefit animal and human health. RA involves  
810 hazard identification and characterization, exposure assessment, and risk  
811 characterization, but this system was designed with pathogens, not probiotics, in  
812 mind. Hence, adjustment is needed to enable the system to provide adequate  
813 assessment, for example, using dosage data from intervention studies rather than  
814 population exposure.

815

816 Trend #1: the process of RA is rapidly evolving

817 Guidance on regulating microorganisms in food and feed has been rapidly evolving  
818 in Europe since 2005 due to the evolution of methodologies which have become  
819 increasingly complex since the advent of genomics.

820

821 Trend #2: increased complexity of microbial RA

822 The RA system for microorganisms combines taxonomy, genomics, a qualified  
823 presumption of safety (QPS), AMR, virulence, and end-use. QPS is a fast-track  
824 approach that reduces unnecessary extensive safety testing by utilizing the body of  
825 knowledge on the species plus a safety decision tree. It differs from the US system  
826 of GRAS, which is generally limited to a specific application made following a safety  
827 assessment (Franz et al., 2011).

828

829 More than 100 microorganisms have been granted QPS status in Europe, but their  
830 evidence is still updated bi-annually to ensure safety. For new microorganisms, the  
831 decision tree is followed and if QPS is not given, a full safety assessment is required.  
832 Even for QPS microbes, evidence of acquired AMR means that no approval will be  
833 given since the food system should not add to the burden of AMR and enable these  
834 genes to be mobilized in the human or animal gut. In contrast, intrinsic AMR is not  
835 considered a safety concern if this is inherent to wild-type bacterial species.

836

837 Trend #3: genomics is fundamentally changing RA approaches

838 Some microorganisms have multiple characteristics ranging from pathogen to food  
839 culture, which taxonomy alone does not recognize; hence, genomic methods are  
840 needed. One example is *Enterococcus faecium* which can be a pathogenic,

841 commensal, food culture, or probiotic organism, depending on the clade. While  
842 EFSA has produced guidance on genomics (European Food Safety Authority [EFSA]  
843 2021), it refers to methods rather than purpose. In contrast, microbial RA is  
844 concerned with identification, genetic modification, and finding AMR genes, which  
845 suggests that the guidance on genomics needs updating.

846

847 Genomic techniques provide precise information on microbial phylogenesis but add  
848 complexity, making combining old and new data harder. In the case of *E. faecium*,  
849 gene sequencing can enable specific AMR genes to be identified. However, it can  
850 also overturn previous taxonomy, as a study (Belloso Daza et al., 2021) concluded  
851 that clade B of *E. faecium* should be reassigned as *Enterococcus lactis*. Yet, while  
852 genomics may be suitable for identification, it still cannot tell us if microorganisms  
853 are safe. To do this, RA requires phenotypic testing based on determining a  
854 minimum inhibitory concentration of the potentially resistant gene and whole-genome  
855 sequencing to search for known AMR genes. In the example of *E. faecium*, whole-  
856 gene sequencing found mobilizable AMR genes in a sample taken from ready-to-eat  
857 sausages (Belloso Daza et al., 2022), highlighting the need for constant vigilance.

858

859 Yet, there remain shortcomings in using genomics to determine pathogenicity since  
860 genes for successful gut colonization could act to promote virulence in a pathogen or  
861 survivability in a probiotic. Also, the definition and application of “intrinsic resistance”  
862 are not absolute, and there is a non-alignment between international regulatory  
863 bodies. Hence, an evolving approach to RA is needed.

864

865 Trend #4: new products and applications

866 This impacts RA because it extends the continuum from natural to synthetic  
867 microorganisms. Synthetic biology is the application of science, technology, and  
868 engineering to facilitate and accelerate the design, manufacture, and/or modification  
869 of genetic materials in living organisms (Scientific Committee on Emerging and  
870 Newly Identified Health Risks et al., 2014). As new microorganisms could be  
871 potentially indistinguishable from non-genetically modified versions, RA should be  
872 based on the nature of the final strain and not on the methodology used to get there.  
873 The EU is already considering how to regulate this area since genetically modified  
874 microorganisms are already present in non-EU markets. Another consideration is the  
875 risk assessment of non-viable cells used in the food supply, such as postbiotics,  
876 which could be treated like biomasses or novel foods.

877

878 In summary, the regulatory system is still evolving to ensure proper RA of potentially  
879 useful microorganisms, aided by advancements in methodologies.

880

### 881 **The importance of the responder/non-responder issue for clinical trials**

882 RA and authorization of health claims depend on high-quality evidence. Yet, the gold  
883 standard RCT may not be the most appropriate for nutrition research, including trials  
884 of probiotics, argues Prof. Robert Jan Brummer from Örebro University, Sweden.

885

886 In the hierarchy of medical evidence, the RCT is near the top, only surpassed by  
887 systematic reviews and meta-analyses of RCTs. While these types of studies  
888 undoubtedly work for medicine where drug compounds are standardized, relatively  
889 constant, and produce a large signal-to-noise ratio (i.e., the effect of the intervention  
890 compared with the effect of interpersonal variations), they may not be appropriate for

891 other health interventions which are not standardized, e.g., because they are natural  
892 foods or ingredients, or where subtle changes in health are seen in the long term.  
893 Hence, the RCT model only works effectively to provide evidence of efficacy where  
894 certain assumptions can be made. These are:

- 895 • External validity – being able to generalize the findings of RCTs to a defined  
896 population;
- 897 • Independence of effects – where the observed effect is most likely due to the  
898 intervention and not a confounding variable;
- 899 • Adequate characterization of the intervention and placebo (Zeilstra et al.,  
900 2018).

901

902 These assumptions may not always be valid for nutritional interventions, such as  
903 dietary interventions or probiotics, which can often yield inconsistent results in RCTs,  
904 which are then amplified in meta-analyses.

905

#### 906 External validity

907 To be clinically useful, nutritional interventions must work in a definable group of  
908 people (age, sex, health status, nutritional status) in a particular public health or  
909 hospital setting. Lack of external validity is one explanation for the widespread  
910 underuse in the routine practice of many treatments that were shown beneficial in  
911 trials and are recommended in guidelines (Rothwell 2006). Inter-individual variation  
912 in participant response is a barrier to external validity because, unlike  
913 pharmaceuticals, nutritional interventions often have subtle effects which can be  
914 overwhelmed by the background ‘noise’ created by many individual variations in  
915 clinical response. A larger sample size does not help since this often increases the

916 heterogeneity of the study population and inter-individual variation. One example is a  
917 hypertensive drug which would be expected to deliver a fall in systolic blood  
918 pressure of 10-15 mmHg (Paz et al., 2016), considerably greater in magnitude than  
919 the anticipated 4 mmHg fall from a 4g reduction in salt intake (He et al., 2013) which  
920 would be a significant dietary shift for the target population. Hence, in the presence  
921 of non-compliance and intra-individual variation, the dietary intervention must work  
922 harder than a pharmaceutical treatment to achieve a statistically significant result.

923

#### 924 Independence of effects

925 It would be illogical to combine all brands of hypertensive drugs into one RCT. Yet,  
926 trials of probiotics often mix species and strains into one intervention, reducing the  
927 chances of a clear, unambiguous result. This is then compounded by systematic  
928 reviews and meta-analyses that pool studies using various strains. Different strains  
929 of probiotics have different clinical effects, making it necessary to understand the  
930 mode of action to select the correct outcome variable and patient group. It is also  
931 essential to control the potential for bias, particularly from the rest of the diet.

932

#### 933 Adequate characterization

934 It is a fundamental error to assume that they are standardized because probiotics  
935 can be put into capsules like drugs. Probiotics are living organisms that evolve once  
936 they reach the recipient's colon, depending on the available substrates provided by  
937 the diet, e.g., the amount and types of fermentable carbohydrates and proteins. This  
938 means that the same product does not imply the same treatment in every individual  
939 recipient; thus, in the case of probiotics, the idea that the treatment is well-defined  
940 may be questionable (Zeilstra et al., 2018).

941

942 Way forward

943 Three concepts may be considered to address the issues of inter- and intra-  
944 individual variation. Firstly, by considering responsive nutrition, which aims to target  
945 interventions by identifying likely responders through machine learning analysis of  
946 health, genetic, drug, and dietary data. This could create a phenotype for optimal  
947 responsiveness, which could help target probiotic interventions to those most likely  
948 to respond. Responsive nutrition differs from personal nutrition. The latter focuses on  
949 providing the best dietary intervention on an individual basis. Secondly, by trying to  
950 limit intra-individual variation as far as possible. This could be done by conducting  
951 many trials, on fewer people with a stable background pattern of the primary  
952 outcome measure, rather than one trial on many people with unspecified intra-  
953 individual variation (Larsen et al., 2020). Thirdly, surrogate biomarkers can show  
954 short-term changes predictive of a health effect instead of medium-term disease  
955 markers, which other lifestyle factors may influence. One example is functional brain  
956 imaging which, in a 4-week RCT of probiotics (Rode et al., 2022), demonstrated  
957 significant changes in brain morphology and resting-state brain function linked to  
958 stress management of the brain.

959

960 In summary, non-response and intra-individual variation hamper a clear  
961 understanding of the efficacy of probiotics, and we need to look beyond the classic  
962 RCT design to overcome this challenge.

963

964 **Development of the infant microbiota**

965 Turning from foods back to the human body, Prof. Christoph Lacroix, from ETH  
966 Zurich, Switzerland, described the acquisition of the microbiome in infancy and  
967 discussed how different lifestyle and environmental factors can influence which taxa  
968 thrive, hence, which functions are expressed.

969

970 From the sterile environment of the womb, the infant's gut is rapidly colonized by  
971 pioneer microorganisms (Khan et al., 2015), evolving in terms of taxa and diversity  
972 over the first few years. This remains relatively stable until old age, when diversity  
973 declines. Modern techniques like metagenomics enable us to look at microbial  
974 function over the life course, which is more important than taxonomy.

975

#### 976 GM acquisition

977 Initially dominated by LAB, the infant gut microbiome changes most rapidly between  
978 the ages of one and six months with the cessation of breast-feeding, rather than the  
979 introduction of solid food, correlating with maturation into an adult-type microbiota  
980 (Bäckhed et al., 2015). Building on this research, Roswall et al. (2021) conducted a  
981 longitudinal cohort of 471 healthy Swedish children to track the development of the  
982 GM from birth to five years, noting four discrete trajectories for different microbes.  
983 The greatest changes occurred in the first year of life, and by the age of 3-5 years,  
984 the child GM was closest to that of adults, although still evolving.

985

986 Roswall et al. (2021) identified four major trajectories for individual genera in the  
987 developing gut microbiota of infants and young children, with some genera peaking  
988 at 4-12 months, others increasing rapidly between 4-12 months before stabilizing by  
989 3 years, and a final group increasing in relative abundance after 12 months and



990 continuing to increase until five years. These shifts were linked to the cessation of  
991 breast feeding, the introduction of solids, increased socialization outside the family  
992 and increased diet diversity.

993

994 Both vertical (from the mother) and horizontal (from the birth environment)  
995 transmission determine which pioneer species colonize the post-natal gut. Factors  
996 include maternal diet and health, vaginal vs. Caesarean birth, skin-to-skin contact,  
997 breast or bottle feeding, and antibiotic use (Marques et al., 2010). Molecular  
998 methods have revealed the presence of more microorganisms in human milk than  
999 previously believed, such as skin bacteria, Bacteroidota phylum, and clostridia  
1000 (Selma-Royo et al., 2022). Indeed, the bacterial diversity of human milk may even  
1001 exceed that of neonatal feces (Jost et al., 2013). However, this could be explained  
1002 by different population densities and structures and the limited resolution of the  
1003 sequencing methods. There is also evidence of bacterial translocation through the  
1004 entero-mammary pathway since similar strict anaerobe species and strains have  
1005 been found in maternal feces, breast milk, and infant feces (Perez et al., 2007).

1006

#### 1007 Beneficial role of microbes

1008 A comprehensive study tracked the impact of breastfeeding on GM changes in  
1009 seven healthy neonates aged 4 to 30 days (Jost et al., 2012). Neonate feces were  
1010 dominated either by *Bifidobacterium* or *Bacteroides* sp. Strict anaerobes  
1011 outnumbered facultative anaerobes within the first days, which was earlier than  
1012 assumed, but major adult-type butyrate producers, such as *Roseburia* and  
1013 *Faecalibacterium*, were not detected. While most infant gut bacteria are lactate  
1014 producers from the main dietary carbohydrate lactose, some species must

1015 metabolize lactate, potentially toxic if allowed to accumulate, mainly into propionate  
1016 (Chassard et al., 2014). Sulfate-reducing bacteria can remove hydrogen, a  
1017 secondary metabolite produced by different taxa of the infant gut such as clostridia  
1018 and *Veillonella* that may be linked to bloating and colic.

1019

1020 Such findings have led to the hypothesis that infants with colic may have more  
1021 bacteria producing hydrogen and/or fewer bacteria that can metabolize lactate and  
1022 hydrogen. This was demonstrated in a 2-year prospective cohort study of 40 infants,  
1023 including 8 with colic, which also found that peak lactate production occurred when  
1024 infants were 2-3 months (Pham et al., 2017). Further research revealed a switch  
1025 between the lactate-utilizer, hydrogen-producer *Veillonella* in the first year of life to  
1026 the lactate-utilizer butyrate-producer, *Anaerobutyricum hallii*, in the second year of  
1027 life, which was associated with weaning (Pham et al., 2022).

1028

1029 This was tested further in a gnotobiotic model (Rocha et al., 2022) where rats were  
1030 inoculated with feces from healthy infants or those with colic. After milk formula  
1031 feeding, rats with colic-associated microbiota produced significantly more hydrogen  
1032 in feces and had a higher abundance of *Veillonella* than healthy controls.

1033 Supplementation of the lactate-utilizer and propionate-producer *Cutibacterium*  
1034 *avidum* P279 to rats with the colic-associated microbiota reduced gut hydrogen  
1035 levels compared with animals receiving a placebo. The results confirm the benefit of  
1036 cross-feeding between bacteria in the infant's gut and suggest that targeted  
1037 probiotics could help manage colic in human infants.

1038

1039 In summary, these studies suggest a broad window of opportunity for dietary  
1040 interventions tailored to support the evolving infant GM. A good example is the  
1041 promotion of taxa involved in lactate and hydrogen cross-feeding to help address  
1042 infant colic. However, more research is needed to understand better the  
1043 mechanisms and functions of the infant GM, particularly from low- and middle-  
1044 income countries.

1045

#### 1046 **Microbiota composition from 1 till 100**

1047 Beyond infancy, the GM continues to change, with implications for long-term  
1048 health, as discussed by Prof. Gaspar Pérez Martínez from the Institute of  
1049 Agrochemistry and Food Technology (CSIC), Spain.

1050

#### 1051 The microbiome clock

1052 While the GM of infants and adults differ in species, diversity, and functionality, a  
1053 quantitative theory of intestinal aging remains elusive because there are no  
1054 recognised step changes in GM during adulthood. Some older adults have a GM  
1055 similar to younger people, and there is an overlap between clusters of signature  
1056 species linked to decades of life.

1057

1058 In a study of 367 healthy Japanese volunteers (Odamaki et al., 2016) from  
1059 infancy to very old age, bifidobacteria dominated in early life, but the relative  
1060 abundance of Actinomycetota (formerly the Actinobacteria) substantially declined  
1061 after weaning and was progressively replaced by Bacillota (formerly the Firmicutes).  
1062 A further change occurred around 70 years when increases were seen in the relative  
1063 abundance of Bacteroidota and Pseudomonadota while Bacillota declined. Using

1064 samples from 1165 adults, a machine learning model could predict a healthy  
1065 person's age from their GM to an accuracy of fewer than 6 years. However, this did  
1066 not work for patients with T1D who exhibited microbiome age acceleration (Galkin et  
1067 al., 2020). In a different study (Bian et al., 2017) with 1000 healthy Chinese  
1068 volunteers, GM patterns showed remarkable similarities between healthy aged and  
1069 younger adults for overall GM composition, a fact observed in previous studies  
1070 (Odamaki et al., 2016). In this case, health was a better predictor of GM aging than  
1071 years of life. Interestingly, this study also revealed a stable diversity across all age  
1072 categories, with a shift in GM profiles around 19-24 years of age which could reflect  
1073 changes in hormones or lifestyles, e.g., going to university or the army.

1074

#### 1075 Factors affecting GM composition across life

1076 Five factors were outlined: environment, diet, genetics, antibiotics, and health.

1077

1078 *Environment:* Children exposed to less urbanized environments have a lower risk of  
1079 autoimmune conditions. Studies in Finnish and German children (Kirjavainen et al.,  
1080 2019) found a reduced incidence of asthma in farm-raised children, with the indoor  
1081 dust of farmhouses having a lower abundance of Streptococcaceae. Asthma risk in  
1082 children who did not live on farms decreased as their home microbiota composition  
1083 became more like farm homes. Studies on tribal people have found a distinct and far  
1084 richer GM diversity compared to industrialized populations (Clemente et al., 2015;  
1085 Conteville et al., 2019), which could reflect the absence of antibiotics and differences  
1086 in physical activity, diet, and exposure to outdoor microorganisms. People who  
1087 exercise have a greater alpha diversity than sedentary people but few differences in  
1088 taxa. The largest difference is in the metabolomics profile since regular exercisers

1089 have higher fecal SCFAs and harbor a greater proportion of phyla that break down  
1090 carbohydrates, probably reflecting their habitual diets.

1091

1092 *Diet*: the GM responds to diet as it determines available substrates. A multi-center  
1093 metagenomics study (Arumugam et al., 2011) found three distinct clusters of GM  
1094 composition associated with substrates rather than nationality. Subsequent studies  
1095 collapsed these into two distinctive groups correlated with animal fat consumption:  
1096 protein and simple sugars (*Bacteroides* group) or vegetables, complex  
1097 carbohydrates, and fiber (*Prevotella* group). This was seen in practice when the GM  
1098 was studied in people with different diets (De Filippis et al., 2016). Prevotellaceae  
1099 were more abundant with plant-based diets, while Bacteroidota were more abundant  
1100 in vegans and vegetarians than in omnivores. However, higher fecal SCFAs were  
1101 seen with high dietary compliance, even in omnivores, when split by adherence to  
1102 the Med diet. Changing the diet from meat-based to vegetarian, or vice-versa, can  
1103 alter the GM, but only while the diet is maintained. Habitual vegetarians return more  
1104 quickly to their baseline GM after resuming their usual diets (David et al., 2014).  
1105 Consuming a functional drink based on *Cyperus esculentus* L. (tiger nuts) also  
1106 shifted the GM pattern towards SCFA producers, but this depended on the baseline  
1107 microbiome of each individual (Selma-Royo et al., 2022).

1108

1109 *Genetics*: A study of UK twins (Goodrich et al., 2016) uncovered familial hereditary  
1110 lineages with greater similarities within the Ruminococcaceae and Lachnospiraceae  
1111 families for monozygotic compared to dizygotic twins. An analysis of fecal samples  
1112 from 71 individuals found that the diversity and composition of bifidobacteria were  
1113 strongly associated with the histo-blood group ABH secretor/non-secretor status,

1114 which appears to be one of the host genetic determinants for GM composition  
1115 (Wacklin et al., 2011).

1116

1117 *Antibiotics:* While having an overall positive influence on human health, antibiotics  
1118 nevertheless inflict ecological disaster on the GM, wiping out helpful species  
1119 alongside pathogens. The GM does regrow but typically does not achieve the same  
1120 balance of species, particularly in people taking repeated antibiotic courses. Some  
1121 individuals never recover their baseline GM (Chng et al., 2020). A SRMA (Duong et  
1122 al., 2022) of observational studies found an increased long-term risk of auto-immune  
1123 conditions and obesity in children given multiple antibiotic courses.

1124

1125 *Health:* Certain conditions have an impact on the GM. Coeliac disease changes the  
1126 balance of GM species and increases diversity, while the time window between  
1127 seroconversion and T1D in genetically susceptible children is characterized by  
1128 reduced alpha diversity and a higher prevalence of species linked to inflammation  
1129 (Kostic et al., 2015). These observations fit with the broader theory of gut dysbiosis  
1130 affecting the etiology of several chronic diseases, which could also be bi-directional,  
1131 as demonstrated by the finding that sepsis induces low-grade inflammation and  
1132 oxidative stress in the gut via such as TNF- $\alpha$  and interleukin-1 $\beta$ . This adversely  
1133 changes GM balance since Reactive Oxygen Species have selective antibacterial  
1134 effects (Cernada et al., 2016). At the other end of the age spectrum, there are  
1135 associations between GM changes and the initiation of immunosenescence  
1136 (Candore et al., 2008).

1137

1138 **Gut microbiota changes in the young and old**

1139 Continuing the theme of looking at society's oldest people, Prof. Patrizia Brigidi, from  
1140 the University of Bologna, Italy, discussed the GM of centenarians using data on  
1141 individuals from four distinct age groups (young, elderly, centenarians, and semi-  
1142 supercentenarians) living in the same geographical area of Italy (Biagi et al., 2016).

1143

1144 Age is a key variable that impacts GM composition and function and represents an  
1145 adaptive trajectory across the human lifecycle (Rampelli et al., 2020). GM changes  
1146 provide the host with ecological services calibrated to each stage of life. For  
1147 example, the relative importance of vitamin biosynthesis, fermentation, RNA  
1148 degradation, and bile salt metabolism varies with age (Lynch & Pedersen 2016). In  
1149 particular, age-related changes in lifestyle and nutritional behavior, prescribed drug  
1150 use, changes in gut physiology and functionality, i.e., reduced intestinal motility and  
1151 increased intestinal permeability, impact on the GM composition and its crosstalk  
1152 with the host, nurturing inflammaging, a chronic low-grade inflammatory status  
1153 characteristic of the old age, immunosenescence and metabolic disorders.

1154

1155 Healthy semi-super centenarians, aged 105-109 years, represent a good model for  
1156 studying healthy aging as they have survived for 20 years longer than their  
1157 demographic cohort and have somehow escaped the major chronic age-related  
1158 disorders and causes of mortality. The GM of this age group was compared with  
1159 three other sub-groups with mean ages of 100, 72.5, and 30.5 years based on 16S  
1160 rRNA amplicon sequencing analyses (Biagi et al., 2016). The GM composition in the  
1161 youngest and oldest groups could be clearly differentiated, with the middle age  
1162 groups having some overlap and biodiversity declining with age. A core of highly  
1163 prevalent bacteria, mostly belonging to Ruminococcaceae, Lachnospiraceae, and

1164 Bacteroidaceae families were detected whose abundance decreased during aging,  
1165 leaving space for the growth of subdominant species.

1166

1167 Further research has observed that the GM of long-lived individuals is characterized  
1168 by a rearrangement in the Bacillota population, with a decline in *Faecalibacterium*  
1169 *prausnitzii* and enrichment in facultative anaerobes, notably pathobionts, which  
1170 correlates with an increase of the inflammatory status (Lynch & Pedersen 2016).  
1171 Similar findings have been reported from other longevity areas of the world (Ren et  
1172 al., 2021; Kim et al., 2019). However, the GM of the semi-supercentenarians had  
1173 greater enrichment of health-associated groups (e.g., *Akkermansia*, *Bifidobacterium*,  
1174 and Christensenellaceae); a key difference from the GM of centenarians.

1175

1176 Metagenomics has been used to examine the functions of bacteria in the GM of  
1177 older people (Lynch & Pedersen 2016). This has revealed a rearrangement in  
1178 metabolic pathways related to carbohydrate and amino acid metabolism in  
1179 agreement with the loss of *Eubacterium* and *Faecalibacterium* and the increase of  
1180 *Pseudomonadota* sp. This shift from a saccharolytic to a proteolytic profile induces a  
1181 marked decrease in SCFA production and availability of tryptophan and an increase  
1182 in indolic metabolites, which correlate with cognitive impairment, inflammation, and  
1183 cancer. The aged GM was also enriched in microorganisms capable of generating  
1184 unique secondary bile acids, which could be involved in reducing the risk of infection  
1185 with pathobionts (Yuko Sato et al., 2021). Interestingly, compared with younger  
1186 individuals, the GM of the Italian elderly over 100 years had more genes for  
1187 xenobiotic metabolism, particularly for chemicals deriving from the industrial  
1188 manufacturing of many indoor products, such as synthetic fibers, resins, and



1189 synthetic leather (Lynch & Pedersen 2016). This could reflect an adaptive response  
1190 to increased exposure to these anthropic pollutants over a lifetime.

1191

1192 Looking specifically at GM characteristics that could be a marker of longevity,  
1193 Christensenellaceae is worthy of further study as it is more abundant in long-lived  
1194 people independent of their culture, diet, and lifestyle (Kong et al., 2016; Tuikhar et  
1195 al., 2019). Research in different age groups has revealed that a greater abundance  
1196 of Christensenellaceae is associated with lower body mass index, visceral adipose  
1197 tissue and inflammation, more favorable lipid traits (lower total cholesterol, Apo B  
1198 levels, triglycerides), and higher levels of fecal SCFAs (Waters et al., 2019). Hence  
1199 Christensenellaceae could be a future candidate as probiotic.

1200

1201 Dietary modification could also encourage the acquisition of beneficial species for  
1202 healthier aging. In the NU-AGE study, Ghosh et al. (2020) recruited 1250 healthy,  
1203 pre-frail adults aged 65-79 from five European countries and randomized them to a  
1204 12-month nutritional intervention consisting of a Med diet with vitamin D  
1205 supplementation versus a control diet. The GM was analyzed in 612 participants  
1206 before and after the intervention. Adherence to the intervention diet enriched specific  
1207 GM taxa that were positively associated with cognitive function markers and  
1208 negatively associated with frailty and inflammatory markers, including C-reactive  
1209 protein and interleukin-17. The diet-modulated GM changes were also associated  
1210 with increased SCFAs and lower production of secondary bile acids.

1211

1212 In summary, age group separation of the GM composition is evident, and longevity  
1213 adaptation seems linked to the enrichment of health-associated GM species,

1214 including *Akkermansia*, Christensenellaceae, *Bifidobacterium*, and  
1215 Odoribacteraceae, involved in the establishment of new homeostasis. These  
1216 bacterial taxa could be promoted using dietary interventions to improve the 'health  
1217 span' of the elderly.

1218

### 1219 **Probiotics and the aging immune system**

1220 The final presentation of the Yakult International Symposium was given by Dr.  
1221 Caroline Childs at the University of Southampton, UK, who examined the role of the  
1222 GM in immunosenescence.

1223

#### 1224 How does the immune system age?

1225 The thymus is responsible for manufacturing immune cells, such as T-cells, but this  
1226 ability declines sharply with age after the peak thymus activity in childhood. By age  
1227 50, active thymus tissue is significantly replaced with adipose cells, resulting in lower  
1228 production of naïve immune cells and a higher proportion of memory T-cells with a  
1229 low functional capacity. The function of immune cells *in vitro* correlates with clinical  
1230 outcomes, so it is no surprise that the coronavirus pandemic – representing a novel  
1231 immune challenge – disproportionately affected older populations. Aging is  
1232 characterized by chronic, low-level inflammation (inflammageing) and a greater risk  
1233 of morbidity and mortality. Older people are more likely to get infections, and their  
1234 immune system responds less effectively to these and vaccinations, e.g., only 30-  
1235 50% of elderly adults gain protection from influenza vaccinations (Demicheli et al.,  
1236 2018).

1237

1238 T-cells fall into two categories; cytotoxic T-cells, which fight infections, and helper T-  
1239 cells which act like project managers. However, T-cell aging is not automatically  
1240 linked to chronological age. Some 70-year-olds may have the T-cell functionality of  
1241 30-year-olds, and vice versa (Kaczorowski et al., 2017), which correlates with the  
1242 findings noted by previous speakers describing the overlap in GM composition for  
1243 different age groups. Building on this point, a study of 178 older adults (Claesson et  
1244 al., 2012) found that the fecal microbiota composition clustered by diet and with  
1245 participants residing in care homes or the community. The care home GM was less  
1246 diverse and correlated significantly with measures of frailty, co-morbidity, and  
1247 inflammatory markers of inflammation. Interestingly, moving from the community to a  
1248 care setting changed the diet immediately, but it took around a year for the GM to  
1249 respond (O'Toole & Jeffery 2015).

1250

1251 One key change in the aging GM is the shift away from Bifidobacterium (Arboleya et  
1252 al., 2016), a genus associated with immuno-modulatory properties. An *in vitro* study  
1253 (You & Yaqoob, 2012) found that exposure of human mononuclear cells to probiotics  
1254 from bifidobacteria and lactobacilli strains produced immunomodulatory effects, but  
1255 the response was also significantly influenced by the age of the volunteer.

1256

1257 How can immune ageing be measured?

1258 Flow cytometry can measure and differentiate immune cells from human samples  
1259 and determine immune age by looking at the relative proportions of naïve cells and  
1260 different types of memory cells, i.e., central, effector or terminally differentiated  
1261 effector. Accumulation of T EMRA cells is characteristic of aging. Other biomarkers  
1262 of cell ageing include the CD28 marker on T-cells, which helps to stabilise their

1263 interaction with B cells, which produce antibodies. CD28 is progressively lost with  
1264 aging while, in contrast, the CF57 marker, which is linked to the immune response to  
1265 viruses and cancer cells, appears on the T-cells and natural killer (NK) cells of older  
1266 adults. This is thought to indicate cell exhaustion. A study (Tae et al., 2015) in  
1267 patients the morning after having a myocardial infarction revealed that the frequency  
1268 of CD57 in their CD8 T-cell population positively correlated with cardiovascular  
1269 mortality 6 months later. In other research, CD57 was a marker of a poor NK cell  
1270 response to influenza vaccination in older subjects which could not be offset by  
1271 supplementation with a synbiotic containing *B. longum* (Przemska-Kosicka et al.,  
1272 2018).

1273

1274 Another marker of immune aging is T-cell receptor excision circles (TRECs). These  
1275 circles of DNA form when T-cells are created in the thymus and are exported to the  
1276 cell cytosol. TRECs decline in concentration with each round of cell division as T-  
1277 cells replicate and mature (Lang et al., 2011). Hence, one may see more TRECs in  
1278 the T cells of younger people and those with younger immune systems than in older  
1279 or immunosenescent people (Mitchell et al., 2010). Seropositivity to viruses which  
1280 disrupt immune function, such as cytomegalovirus or even SARS-Covid-19, is also a  
1281 helpful marker.

1282

1283 Probiotics are beneficial for immune function as they lower the burden of certain  
1284 infections and reduce antibiotic use (Hao 2015), potentially saving health systems  
1285 millions of Euros (Lenoir-Wijnkoop et al., 2015). However, the data have a high level  
1286 of heterogeneity, lowering the overall evidence quality. A review of the impact of  
1287 probiotics, prebiotics, and synbiotics on immune response in older adults found

1288 evidence of improved vaccine responsiveness, NK cell activity and phagocytosis,  
1289 and a reduced incidence of infections (Childs & Calder, 2017). However, only two  
1290 studies used specific markers of immunosenescence, reporting increases in naïve T  
1291 cells and TRECs after probiotics, and a third of the studies were not randomized  
1292 controlled trials.

1293

1294 A SRMA of six eligible trials (Gui et al., 2020) found that probiotic use ranging from 3  
1295 to 12 weeks significantly increased NK cell activity in healthy older adults but  
1296 concluded that the overall results were insufficiently convincing given the small  
1297 sample sizes and very large heterogeneity. A systematic review (Chenhuichen et al.,  
1298 2022) of nine RCTs and one secondary analysis assessed a broader range of  
1299 parameters relating to immunity, metabolic health, GM, and cognitive function,  
1300 finding overall benefits for probiotics and prebiotics, although the risk of bias in  
1301 studies was considered high. Further studies should take account of immunological  
1302 age at baseline to reduce heterogeneity and utilize markers of immune cell aging  
1303 and function.

1304

### 1305 **Conclusions**

1306 The evidence for the role of the GM in acute and chronic human health is now  
1307 substantial, with indications that the influence of our microorganisms goes well  
1308 beyond the gut to include the immune system, metabolism, and brain. While aging  
1309 and genetics impact on the composition and diversity of the GM, it is nevertheless  
1310 clear that modifiable factors, such as diet, antibiotic use, exercise, and exposure to  
1311 outdoor-type microbes, may be more important for achieving microbiota eubiosis.  
1312 This provides people with the chance to adopt more gut-friendly lifestyles. Still, it also

1313 raises several challenges including gathering the proper evidence to ascertain which  
1314 microbiota interventions are right for which population groups, understanding the  
1315 mechanisms involved, developing effective probiotic and prebiotic products, and  
1316 ensuring that these are appropriately regulated. As outlined in this fascinating  
1317 symposium and summarised in Figure 1, there is now a tantalising opportunity to find  
1318 ways to live in harmony with our GM, which could offer widespread human health  
1319 benefits.

1320

1321 INSERT FIGURE 1

1322

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1326

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1333

### 1334 **Conflicts of interest**

1335 BP and CK are employees of Yakult Europe BV; PR is an employee of Yakult Italy  
1336 Srl; OL is an employee of Yakult Nederland; KM is an employee of the Yakult  
1337 Central Institute, Yakult Honsha Co., Ltd., Japan.

1338

1339 **Publishing ethics statement**

1340 This manuscript is our own original work and does not duplicate any previously  
1341 published work. This manuscript has been submitted only to this journal – it is not  
1342 under consideration, accepted for publication or in press elsewhere. All listed authors  
1343 know of and agree to the manuscript being submitted to the journal. This manuscript  
1344 contains nothing that is abusive, defamatory, fraudulent, illegal, libellous, or obscene.

1345

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<p><b>Chances</b></p> 	<p><b>Challenges</b></p> 
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How space travel influences the gut and environmental microbiota;</li> <li>• The role of the gut, and gut modulators, in the aetiology and management of Parkinson’s Disease and major depressive disorder;</li> <li>• Mechanisms to explain how substances of microbial origin cross brain barriers;</li> <li>• The interaction of behavioural and dietary strategies to manage Irritable Bowel Syndrome;</li> <li>• The potential of fermented foods to contribute positively to the gut microbiota and health;</li> <li>• The use of probiotics as a medical intervention.</li> </ul> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Environmental, medical and dietary threats to eubiosis of the gut microbiota;</li> <li>• Regulation of beneficial microorganisms in a system designed for pathogens;</li> <li>• Determining mode of action for probiotics</li> <li>• Appropriate diagnostics and biomarkers;</li> <li>• Designing appropriate clinical trials and standardising for dose, duration and probiotic species;</li> <li>• Controlling for intra-and inter-individual differences to minimise background noise in clinical trials;</li> <li>• Understanding who are the responders.</li> </ul> 

**Figure 1:** Summary of the overarching themes of the Symposium

1987