



Review Article



The Role of Lifestyle in Modulating the Gut Microbiome

Noor Muhammad^{1*}, Areeba Saeed¹, Aqsa Ashfaq², Syed Haider Ali Shah¹, Husna Jurrat¹, Waiza Ansar¹, Zahid Nazir¹, Rabbia Musaddaq¹, Hubza Ruatt Khan³ and Iram Liaqat¹

¹Department of Zoology, Government College University, Lahore, Pakistan

²Atta Ur Rahman School of Applied Biosciences, National University of Sciences and Technology, Islamabad, Pakistan

³Department of Microbiology and Molecular Genetics, The Women University, Multan, Pakistan

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Gut Microbiome, Gut Brain Axis, Life Style, Microbial Diversity, Societal Impact

How to Cite:

Muhammad, N., Saeed, A., Ashfaq, A., Shah, S. H. A., Jurrat, H., Ansar, W., Nazir, Z., Musaddaq, R., Khan, H. R., & Liaqat, I. (2025). The Role of Lifestyle in Modulating the Gut Microbiome: Lifestyle and Gut Microbiome. *Futuristic Biotechnology*, 5(1), 10-19. <https://doi.org/10.54393/fbt.v5i1.155>

***Corresponding Author:**

Noor Muhammad
Department of Zoology, Government College University, Lahore, Pakistan
noormhd@gcu.edu.pk

Received date: 19th January, 2025

Acceptance date: 14th March, 2025

Published date: 31st March, 2025

ABSTRACT

The human gut, a dynamic and diverse ecosystem of trillions of microorganisms, plays an essential role in the host's health and disease. This review explores the influence of lifestyle choices like diet, stress, physical activity, and environmental factors on gut microbiome and their broader societal implications. Studies have reported that plant-based and Mediterranean diets enhance microbial diversity. At the same time, a sedentary lifestyle, chronic stress, processed foods, and alcohol consumption badly impact on the gut microbial composition and lead to many diseases like dysbiosis, obesity, and cardiovascular diseases. Geographic and ethnic factors also influence the gut microbiome. The consumption of fermented food and a diet high in fiber has a positive impact on the gut microbiome. The gut microbiome also has many societal implications, and the targeted intervention can help to reduce economic losses and public health costs and improve the overall health of everyone. This comprehensive review focuses on the links between lifestyle, gut microbiome, and societal well-being and suggests integrative strategies to promote sustainable health practices.

INTRODUCTION

An abundant and diverse microbial community resides in the gastrointestinal tract of humans. Greater than 100 trillion microbes and about 2000 species have been reported within the intestine. Both pathogenic and symbiotic microorganisms are inhabitants of the human intestine, while around 1014 microbes reside in the colon of humans, making it one of the most populated habitats. More than 3 million genes are encoded by these microbes, which are known to produce a large number of bioactive compounds, and these compounds play a vital role in human health (Figure 1). Various beneficial activities have been reported in the gut microbiome for host health, like producing short-chain fatty acids and vitamins, immune homeostasis, digestion, and activity against pathogens.

Alteration of gut microbiome badly affects human health and leads to diseases like type II diabetes, inflammatory bowel syndrome, and cardiovascular diseases. Short-chain fatty acids (SCFA) like propionate, butyrate, and propionate, produced by gut microbiome as a byproduct, are the primary energy source for epithelial cells of the intestine and strengthen the mucous layer. Studies on germ-free mice have shown that gut microbiome enhances the immunity of the intestine by affecting antigen-presenting cells, expression of toll-like receptors, lymphoid cells, and differentiated T cells and by altering systematic antibody expression and immunity via raised splenic CD4+ cells. Because of these facts about the gut microbiome, researchers are getting more interested in



studying gut microorganisms. The gut microbiome changes quickly in response to the diet a person is consuming. For instance, if a person consumes a plant- or animal-based diet, the gut microbiome will change within 24h according to the diet .

The present study aimed to summarize the current knowledge on impact of lifestyle choices on gut microbiome and the implications of changes in gut microbial diversity because of lifestyle.

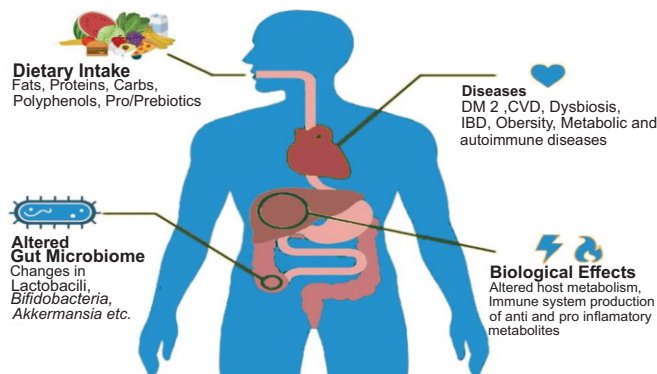


Figure 1: An Overview of Diet's Impact on Human Health, Diseases, and Gut Microbiome

There are many lifestyle choices that directly or indirectly influence the gut microbiome. Few of them are described below:

Geography and Ethnicity

Gut comparison analysis of individuals from European and African children's samples Lee et al., reported that different countries gut microbiomes are not similar and have different compositions. They also compared the USA and Korean twin pairs fecal microbiota and found different gut microbiome compositions between the two countries. This study revealed that environmental factors and diet influence the gut microbiome. They further reported a massive difference in microbiota in families consuming different diets and environments while staying within the same country. A significant difference in the microbial composition of lean and obese patients was observed during their study in the USA and Korea. Fecal samples of 2084 persons from various ethnic groups residing in the same area were collected and analyzed for gut microbiome composition. The differences in the microbial composition indicate that ethnicity is one of the gut microbiota influencers. Although other factors like person-specific genetic profile and some environmental factors might involve this variation, diet is the main contributor of gut microbial variation in these individuals. Rothschild et al., reported a study in which they surveyed 1046 healthy persons sharing the same environment and belonging to different ancestors. Their analysis revealed that the person-specific genetic profile has a limited role in

determining the composition of the gut microbiome. The impact of country of residence on gut microbial composition has been studied in individuals who migrated to the USA from Thailand. The individuals who emigrated from Thailand to the USA faced many challenges like obesity, metabolic diseases, and quick changes in gut microbial composition were observed among them. The gut microbiome changes observed in these individuals include loss of microbial diversity, native gut species loss, and *Bacteroidetes* increased in the place of *Prevotella* species with the passage of time. The reason for these changes can be a sedentary lifestyle, the adaptation of a Western diet, and food insecurity.

Pet-Friendly Living

Pet friendly life can be an environmental factor affecting gut microbial composition. Samples of 332 individuals living without and with pets were analyzed, and results showed no significant difference in microbial diversity. Still, the abundance of specific phyla, such as Firmicutes, was significantly higher. A link between the gut microbiome profile of infants and furry pets has been observed, with the abundance of *Oscillospira* and *Ruminococcus*. Both phyla are responsible for various allergies and obesity . As little literature is available on the relationship of pets and gut microbiome, more research must be conducted in this field.

Physical Activity

Regular physical activity/exercise plays an important role in the regulation of gut microbiome and its functionality. It can protect from the microbes associated with CVD and many other metabolic disorders. Therefore, physical exercise is a polypill for many chronic diseases/infections . Now, researchers are taking more interest in studying the impact of physical activity on the gut microbiome. They are looking for ways to improve physical health by modulating the gut microbiome, which can help fight microbial infections and various chronic diseases and delay aging with the help of gut microbiome. The relationships between microbiome, nutrition, and physical exercise have been focused on in adults and professional and non-professional athletes. Physical exercise can enhance microbial diversity, which is evidence of good health. But the problem is that persons with regular exercise or athletes use different kinds of diets and have entirely different routines for sex sports periodization and might depend on a particular sport. That's why their routine is different from that of the public. Therefore, the link between diet and gut microbial diversity in individuals who practice regular physical activity is strenuous to be established . A possible role of some gut microbial species has been established in physical activity. For instance, an increase in the

abundance of *Prevotella copri* has been observed in the individuals following regular exercises. This bacterium plays a role in gene expression of genes involved in L-lysine metabolism. L-lysine is an amino acid not produced within our body and plays a role in muscular integrity'. Similarly, in a study, Scheiman et al., reported an increase in *Veillonella atypica* in marathon runners. This bacterial species is known to play a role in muscle recovery by degrading lactate produced during physical activity. Likewise, in another study, Morita et al., reported an increase in *Bacteroidetes uniformis* in male long-distance runners, enhancing their performance. These studies open new fields of opportunities to develop prebiotics, probiotics, and various symbiotic combinations to improve physical activities via food supplementation.

Diet

Diet plays a key role in maintaining optimal gut microbiome. The composition and functionality of gut microbes depend on dietary patterns and the availability of micro and macro-nutrients in the intestine. Several studies have been reported clinically and preclinically on the diet and stated that diet significantly influences the gut microbiome. The Western diet normally consists of simple sugars, and saturated fats tend to increase *Bacteroidetes* sp. This diet promotes bile-tolerant microbes like *Bacteroidetes* sp. and *Alistipes* sp. and tends to decrease *Firmicutes* sp. in the gut. Although main bacterial species remain dominant, a change in the diet influences the gut microbiome within 24h. Animal-based diets have less diverse gut microbiomes as compared to plant-based diets. The plant-based diet has high fiber levels, promoting the growth of fiber-fermenting bacteria. These fermenting microbes increase fermented products like short-chain fatty acids (SCFA) and improve blood circulation in the gut. It is now an established fact that dietary interventions affect and change the gut microbiome, so changes in gut microbiome based on diet are not surprising anymore. For instance, the keto diet (KD) is known to influence the gut microbiome. Ma et al., stated that there was an increase in the *Lactobacillus* and *A.*

muciniphila population, and relative abundance was observed for *Turicibacter* and *Desulfovibrio* in individuals given a ketogenic diet. Both *Lactobacillus* and *A. muciniphila* are commensal bacterium known for SCA production. Many other studies have also reported a decrease in gut microbial diversity based on observed taxa and Shannon index among the persons given with KD. However, in a study, Swidsinski et al., reported the change in gut microbiome based on KD if biphasic, indicating that it reduces the gut microbial diversity initially, but when a person receives KD diet for extended periods of time, then the microbial diversity increases automatically. However, gut diversity is not similar to that of individuals who have intermittent fasting compared to individuals with KD. Long-term dependency on the Mediterranean diet (MD) impacts on gut health. An increase in the concentration of *Prevotella*, *Prevotellaceae*, and *Bacteroidetes* and a decrease in *Lachnospiraceae* and *Firmicutes* has been observed in the individuals given Mediterranean diets. Furthermore, in the individuals who used to eat MD for a longer duration, an increase in the butyrate and propionate was observed. These SCFA were associated with higher microbial diversity when a comparison was established with the Western diet. The utilization of omega-3 fatty acids found in fish oil is associated with a higher level of docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) in the blood. This increased DHA level is associated with higher levels of *Ruminococcaceae* and *Lachnospiraceae* bacterial families. These families are involved in the dietary fiber fermentation, resulting in the production of SCFAs in the human gut. Fecal metabolite N-carbamylglutamate can also be influenced by gut bacteria through dietary interventions. The microbial community shaping can be managed by the dietary intake of vitamins, minerals, micronutrients, and polyphenols. As gut microbial composition can be influenced by nutritional interventions, the gut microbiome can be modified easily by diet modification. Thus, a modified gut can achieve many physical and general health benefits (Table 1).

Table 1: Some of the gut microbes with associated diseases

Bacteria	Key Characteristics	Linked Disease Conditions	Related Physiological Changes	References
<i>Akkermansia muciniphila</i>	Gram-negative, oval-shaped, nonmotile obligate anaerobe	Reduced presence in IBD, obesity, and psoriatic arthritis	Exhibits anti-inflammatory effects	[37]
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	Gram-negative, rod-shaped facultative anaerobe	Overabundance linked to IBD, UTIs, gastroenteritis, and meningitis	Activates TLR pathways	[38]
<i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i>	Gram-positive, nonmotile, rod-shaped obligate anaerobe	Lower levels associated with IBD and obesity	SCFA production and anti-inflammatory properties	[39]
<i>Enterococcus</i> sp	Gram-positive, cocci-shaped facultative anaerobe	Includes pathogenic species causing UTIs, endocarditis, or bacteremia	Induction of anti-inflammatory response	[40]
<i>Eubacterium</i> sp	Gram-positive, rod-shaped obligate anaerobe	Reduced presence linked to IBD	Produces SCFAs and beneficial phenolic acids	[41]
<i>Roseburia</i> sp	Gram-variable, curved, motile obligate anaerobe	Decreased levels noted in IBD	SCFA production	[42]



<i>Clostridium</i> sp	Gram-positive, rod-shaped obligate anaerobe; spore-forming	Associated with diseases like tetanus, botulism, gas gangrene, and pseudomembranous colitis	Supports TH17 cell generation	[43]
<i>Bifidobila</i> sp	Gram-negative, obligate anaerobe; urease-positive, bile-resistant, catalase-positive	<i>B. wadsworthia</i> linked to colitis, liver abscesses, gangrenous appendicitis, cholecystitis, FG, empyema, and HS	Stimulates pro-inflammatory TH1 immune response	[44]
<i>Alistipes</i> sp	Gram-negative, rod-shaped obligate anaerobe; bile-resistant, pigment-producing	Found in cases of acute appendicitis, brain abscesses, and perirectal abscesses	contribute to the production of beneficial metabolites	[45]
<i>Bacteroides</i> sp	Gram-negative, rod-shaped obligate anaerobe; variable motility	Higher abundance linked to IBD	Activates CD4+ T cells	[46]
<i>Lactobacillus</i> sp	Gram-positive, rod-shaped facultative anaerobe	Contributes to reducing IBD	SCFA synthesis exhibits anti-inflammatory and anti-cancer properties	[47]
<i>Bifidobacterium</i> sp	Gram-positive, branched, nonmotile obligate anaerobe	Lower levels observed in obesity	Produces SCFAs, enhances gut mucosal barrier, reduces intestinal LPS	[48]

Stress

Gut dysbiosis is often associated with stress, indicating that the gut microbiome also responds to chronic stress. A study on germ-free mice showed the production of adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) and corticosterone compared to the control when mild stress was given to the mice. This indicates that the gut microbiome responds to stress and is critical in hypothalamic pituitary adrenal (HPA) axis development. The gut microbiome is also associated with behavioral and physiological changes in response to exposure to stress, like HPA axis dysregulation, social and behavioral changes, impaired cognition, and intestinal barrier function, causing intestinal permeability, which leads to leaking gut and increased inflammation. Now, it is established that stress badly impacts the gut microbiome, damages the microbial community's ecology, and promotes dysbiosis. Many clinical and animal-based studies have reported that stress negatively impacts gut health. Various kinds of stresses like restraint conditions, maternal separation, crowding, heat stress, and noise were able to negatively change the gut microbiome in different animal model studies. For instance, chronic restraint and maternal separation stress tend to lower the *Lactobacillus* level. A survey of the animal model, which was kept under stress, showed improved cognition, behavioral, and biochemical results after administering *Lactobacillus*. Under chronic stress conditions, a decrease in the Bacteroidetes abundance and an increase in the clostridiales family has been observed. Both of these correlate with changed pro-inflammatory cytokines levels. All these studies indicate that stress directly impacts the gut microbiome, which may be associated with various diseases like dysbiosis. So, stress management techniques must be adopted in our daily life to maintain gut microbiome at optimal conditions.

Prebiotics

Prebiotics, from the family of dietary fibers, play a significant role in the gut microbiome. Prebiotics can be defined as substrates that can be utilized by host

microorganisms that have health benefits for the host system. The most common prebiotics are HMOs, FOS, galacto-oligosaccharides, and inulin. These prebiotics promote the growth of probiotic bacteria like *Lactobacilli* and *Bifidobacteria*. These probiotic microbes produce SCFA and many other bioactive compounds that have health benefits for the host system. Many studies have already reported that prebiotics can influence the ability of gut microbes to produce SCFAs. The SCFAs activate the GPR43/41 receptors of the L cells, thus promoting the secretions of PYY and GLP-1. They also promote the secretions of the BLP-2. This peptide maintains the gut barrier functions by stimulating blood flow, stimulating proliferative epithelial cells of the intestine, and improving the integrity of tight junctions. After all, the prebiotic and gut microbic interactions play a role in the reduction of intestinal permeability, and they also decrease food intake, prevent metabolic endotoxemia and hepatic steatosis, and improve sensitivity and secretions of insulin. All of these are known to reduce inflammation (Figure 2).

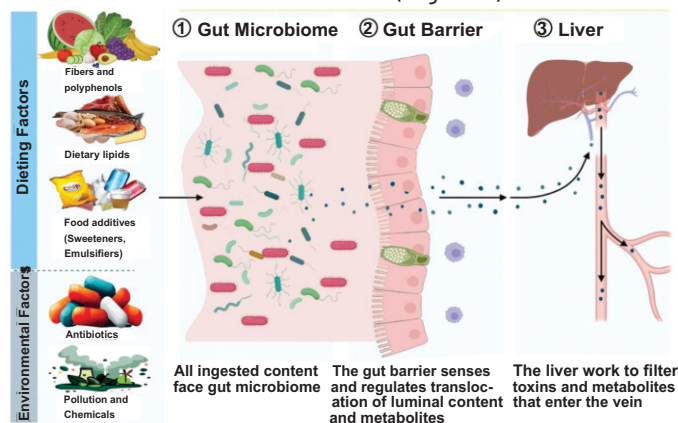


Figure 2: There Are Three Lines of Defense. (1) Gut Microbiome Influenced by Environmental Factors and Diet. (2) Then They Interact with Gut Barrier and The Gut Barrier Regulate the Translocation of Metabolites and Luminal Components. (3) The Liver Work to Filter The Toxins and Metabolites.

Polyphenols

Polyphenols abundantly found in plant-based diets, including tea, fruits, coffee, vegetables, and wine, are the

most complex metabolic compounds. They are divided into two main groups: non-flavonoids and flavonoids. Flavonoids are divided into flavanols, anthocyanins, isoflavones, and flavanones. At the same time, non-flavonoids are divided into lignans, stilbenes, and phenolic acids. Polyphenols are not present in blood circulation because most of them are found in food as polymers, glycosides, and esters that may not be absorbed in their native form, so most of them work locally. Polyphenols have been considered for their ability to prevent different diseases that may be caused by oxidative stress, and they are also known for their potent antioxidant potential. Gut microbes are known for their ability to produce various enzymes that enhance the bioactivity and bioavailability of polyphenols in the intestine. So, the polyphenols affect the gut microbiome composition. The polyphenols strengthen the growth of gut microbes like *Bifidobacterium*, *Lactobacillus*, *A. muciniphila*, *Faecalibacterium*, and *Roseburia* and inhibit the growth of pathogenic microorganisms. The gut microbiota and polyphenols interaction also play a role in the gut barrier function anticarcinogenic and anti-inflammatory effects. Phenyl propionic acid, a phenolic compound produced by the gut microbiome, has anti-inflammatory activity and plays a role in the gut barrier using the dependent mechanism of aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR). The polyphenolic compounds 4-hydroxyphenylacetic acid and Hydroxyphenylacetic acid have been known for their antioxidant and anti-inflammatory potential and protect the body from obesity, cardiovascular disease, and many types of cancers. Many other phenolic acid compounds, like gallic acid, ferulic acid, and caffeic acid, are produced by gut microbes using dietary polyphenols and have many health benefits.

Fatty Acids

The function and composition of the gut microbiome are also greatly influenced by the dietary fat that any individual is consuming. For example, saturated fatty acids, usually present in processed food and animal fat, increase pro-inflammatory microbes and decrease gut microbial diversity. Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), like omega-3, usually present in flaxseed and fish oil, are known to enhance the growth of *A. muciniphila* and *Bifidobacterium*, which play a role in health improvement. Some gut microbes, like *Clostridium*, *Lactobacillus*, *Enterobacter*, and *Bifidobacterium*, can metabolize PUFAs into keto and hydroxy derivatives. The beneficial effect of HYA and CLA has been reported in the mice model of cancer, obesity, and colitis by activating PPAR α , GPR140, PPAR γ , and GPR120 and using peristalsis via EP3 activation. Dietary cholesterol is highly dependent on gut microbiome composition. Some cholesterol is absorbed in the upper portion of the

intestine, and about 2g of cholesterol enters the colon daily. In the colon, cholesterol-degrading bacteria convert the cholesterol to coprostanol and then, to a lesser extent, form the coprostanone. Some cholesterol-degrading microbes, such as *Oscillibacter* and *Dysosmobacter*, have been cultured and isolated, but overall, isolating cholesterol-degrading bacterial species is a complicated and challenging task. These microbes have shown activities to lower the cholesterol level in humans and have demonstrated the potential to convert cholesterol to coprostanone.

Artificial Sweeteners

Many non-calorie artificial sweeteners are used to enhance the quality and taste of packaged foods. Although food regulatory authorities approve of them, many of the artificial sweeteners are known to cause risks for various diseases. In research studies, aspartame, sucralose, and saccharin have been reported to cause greater glucose intolerance than glucose. Saccharin has more potential to cause glucose intolerance than other ones. Most of the non-caloric artificial sweeteners pass the digestive tract while remaining undigested. These undigested artificial sweeteners interact with the gut microbiome, changing their function and composition. Artificial sweeteners may also cause type 2 diabetes by upregulating the pathways involved in LPS biosynthesis, as revealed by metagenomic studies. A positive correlation between metabolic indicators like blood glucose levels and hemoglobin A1c and artificial sweetener consumption in humans has been reported. Regular usage of artificial sweeteners and refined sugar badly impacts the gut microbiome composition. This altered composition may lead to metabolic disorders like diabetes, impaired glucose metabolism, reduced microbial diversity, and gut microbiota deviation.

Emulsifiers

The emulsifiers are typically used to improve the shelf life and texture of food, but they also have a terrible impact on gut barrier function and gut microbiota. Although they are widely used in the food industry, safety concerns about emulsifiers still need to be resolved. The emulsifiers like polysorbate 80 and carboxymethylcellulose have been reported to induce many metabolic diseases. They mutate the intestinal mucus layer and thus lead to leaking gut by increasing gut permeability. Some emulsifiers like carboxymethylcellulose disturb the gut microbial community by overgrowth of some bacterial species while many like polysorbate 80, play a role in microbial translocation. These emulsifiers have also been reported to cause metabolic syndrome and inflammation in mice models. Furthermore, these emulsifiers damage the

mucus layer, making direct contact between intestinal walls and bacterial cells and leading to pathogenic infections.

Alcohol

Alcohol is also known to cause changes in the gut microbiome. In alcohol-addicted individuals, the gut microorganisms play a role in alcoholic liver disease, and dysbiosis is commonly observed in alcoholic individuals. In patients suffering from alcoholic liver diseases, the abundance of *Enterococcus* and *Bacteroidetes* has been observed. A study conducted on mice models has reported overgrowth of some bacterial species, like Enterobacteriaceae class. The study further reported the occurrence of intestinal inflammation upon regular alcohol consumption for seven days. The change in gut microbiome composition upon alcohol consumption does not seem to be influenced by ethanol: acetate production, but by the enzymes that the host produces also play a role. Some studies have suggested that probiotics may help improve liver-associated enzyme levels, which are affected by alcohol consumption.

Cigarettes

Studies on e-cigarettes and cigarettes have reported that smoking contributes to low gut microbial diversity. They also reported that this leads to an imbalance between gut microbial species. The exact mechanisms that lead to low gut microbial diversity are unknown, but most likely many of the toxic chemicals in the cigarette might be responsible. Many of the compounds like aldehydes, benzenes, heavy metals, nitrosamines, and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons may change the pH of the gut, affect the production of organic acid, and might act as antimicrobial agents for the gut microbiome, and can be metabolized by gut microbiome to produce further toxic substances. These compounds might inhibit some microbes' growth and promote others' development, thus leading to a dysbiosis state. Nicotine, a chemical compound found in cigarettes, damages the gut microbial community by reducing the growth of *Firmicutes* and *Actinobacteria* while promoting the growth of *Bacteroidetes* and *Proteobacteria*.

Environmental Pollutants

Environmental pollutants like pesticides, dyes, and heavy metals have been reported to affect the gut microbial composition, leading to harmful health effects and dysbiosis. For instance, exposure of mice to arsenic, cadmium, and lead heavy metals causes damage to the gut microbial structure and relative abundance by altering ratios of *Bacteroidetes* and *Firmicutes*. In response to heavy metals, gut microbes offer physical barriers to the heavy metal absorption and secrete enzymes that detoxify heavy metals and convert them to less toxic substances.

Probiotics like *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus*, usually present in fermented food products, can detoxify heavy metals, limit their absorption, reduce the expression of metal transporters, and maintain gut barrier integrity. Pesticides like fungicides, insecticides, and herbicides also affect the gut microbiome by promoting some microbes' growth while inhibiting others' growth. Still, sometimes they also show contrasting results. More research should be conducted on the impact of pesticides on the gut microbiome to understand the exact role of these compounds on gut health.

Sleep and Circadian Rhythm

The gut-brain axis not only plays a role in mental health disorders but also contributes to the sleep cycle. The immune system, vagus nerve, serotonergic system, and microbial metabolites are all communicating vehicles between the brain and gut, which regulate the sleep cycle. Recently, studies have reported a rhythm in the gut microbiome and its metabolites that might be controlled by feeding patterns and circadian cues, i.e., light/dark cycles. Host circadian rhythm patterns influence the gut microbiome, and gut microbes produce metabolites to modulate host rhythm. An equilibrium disturbance like traveling has been associated with gut microbiome changes. These changes might be caused by sleep loss and lag, which affect the diurnal rhythms and result in the shift in function and composition of gut microbes. The state of dysbiosis has been observed in individuals having disturbed sleeping cycles. Dietary supplements like vitamins, probiotic intake, attention to feeding habits can potentially improve gut microbiome, sleeping cycle, and circadian rhythm. All these indicate that the sleep cycle and circadian rhythm influence the gut microbiome, which results in various health consequences.

CONCLUSIONS

The gut microbiome plays an essential role in disease prevention and promotes the individual's overall health. This review article focused on the multifaceted impact of lifestyle choices like physical activity, stress, diet, and environmental factors on gut microbial diversity and functionality. The gut microbiome helps fight against chronic disease and improves mental health via the gut-brain axis. The targeted interventions for gut microbiome can significantly enhance health outcomes. Beyond individual health benefits, the societal effects of gut microbiome modulation are profound. A healthy gut can help us eliminate the economic burdens of healthcare systems. Using a plant-based and fiber-containing diet can improve gut health, which can solve many health problems worldwide, especially in underdeveloped areas. The fiber-rich diet, physical activities and sustainable practices

benefit physical fitness and boost the gut microbiome. Advanced research and emerging technologies provide an opportunity to address many gut issues and quick tests to diagnose gut problems. These technologies can help to provide personalized gut health interventions and enable precise and practical strategies to improve public health.

Authors Contribution

Conceptualization: NM

Methodology: AS, AA, SHAS, HJ, WA, ZN, RM, HRK

Formal analysis: AS, AA, SHAS, HJ, WA, ZN, RM, HRK

Writing, review and editing: NM, IL

All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Conflicts of Interest

All the authors declare no conflict of interest.

Source of Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

REFERENCES

- [1] Thursby E and Juge N. Introduction to the Human Gut Microbiota. *Biochemical Journal*.2017; 474(11): 1823-36. doi:10.1042/bcj20160510.
- [2] Aoun A, Darwish F, Hamod N. The Influence of the Gut Microbiome on Obesity in Adults and the Role of Probiotics, Prebiotics, and Synbiotics for Weight Loss. *Preventive Nutrition and Food Science*.2020; 25(2): 113-23. doi:10.3746/pnf.2020.25.2.113.
- [3] Sacks D, Baxter B, Campbell B, Carpenter J, Cognard C, Dippel D, et al. Multisociety Consensus Quality Improvement Revised Consensus Statement for Endovascular Therapy of Acute Ischemic Stroke. *Journal of Vascular and Interventional Radiology*. 2018; 29(4): 441-53. doi: 10.1016/j.jvir.2017.11.026.
- [4] Valdes AM, Walter J, Segal E, Spector TD. Role of the Gut Microbiota in Nutrition and Health. *BMJ (British Medical Journal)*. 2018; 361: k2179. doi:10.1136/bmj.k2179.
- [5] Org E, Blum Y, Kasela S, Mehrabian M, Kuusisto J, Kangas AJ, et al. Relationships Between Gut Microbiota, Plasma Metabolites, and Metabolic Syndrome Traits in the METSIM Cohort. *Genome Biology*. 2017; 18: 70. doi:10.1186/s13059-017-1194-2.
- [6] Liaqat I, Muhammad N, Mubin M, Arshad N, Iftikhar T, Sajjad S, et al. Antibacterial and Larvicidal Activity of Ethyl Acetate Extract of Actinomycetes from Soil Samples. *Pakistan Journal of Zoology*. 2023; 55(6): 2065-74. doi: 10.17582/journal.pjz/20200526130518.
- [7] Belkaid Y, Hand TW. Role of the Microbiota in Immunity and Inflammation. *Cell*.2014; 157(1): 121-41. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2014.03.011.
- [8] Noverr MC, Huffnagle GB. Does the Microbiota Regulate Immune Responses Outside the Gut? *Trends in Microbiology*.2004; 12(12): 562-8. doi: 10.1016/j.tim.2004.10.008.
- [9] David LA, Maurice CF, Carmody RN, Gootenberg DB, Button JE, Wolfe BE, et al. Diet Rapidly and Reproducibly Alters the Human Gut Microbiome. *Nature*.2014; 505(7484): 559-63. doi:10.1038/nature12820.
- [10] Lee S, Sung J, Lee J, Ko G. Comparison of the Gut Microbiotas of Healthy Adult Twins Living in South Korea and the United States. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*.2011;77(20):7433-7. doi:10.1128/AEM.05490-11.
- [11] Deschasaux M, Bouter KE, Prodan A, Levin E, Groen AK, Herrema H, et al. Depicting the Composition of Gut Microbiota in a Population with Varied Ethnic Origins but Shared Geography. *Nature Medicine*. 2018; 24(10): 1526-31. doi:10.1038/s41591-018-0160-1.
- [12] Rothschild D, Weissbrod O, Barkan E, Kurilshikov A, Korem T, Zeevi D, et al. Environment Dominates Over Host Genetics in Shaping Human Gut Microbiota. *Nature*.2018;555(7695):210-5. doi:10.1038/nature25973.
- [13] Vangay P, Johnson AJ, Ward TL, Al-Ghalith GA, Shields-Cutler RR, Hillmann BM, et al. US Immigration Westernizes the Human Gut Microbiome. *Cell*.2018; 175(4): 962-72. e10. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2018.10.029.
- [14] Mulasi-Pokhriyal U, Smith C, Franzen-Castle L. Investigating Dietary Acculturation and Intake Among US-Born and Thailand/Laos-Born Hmong American Children Aged 9-18 Years. *Public Health Nutrition*.2012;15(1):176-85. doi:10.1017/S136898001001649.
- [15] Kates AE, Jarrett O, Skarlupka JH, Sethi A, Duster M, Watson L, et al. Household Pet Ownership and the Microbial Diversity of the Human Gut Microbiota. *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology*. 2020; 10: 73. doi:10.3389/fcimb.2020.00073.
- [16] Tun HM, Konya T, Takaro TK, Brook JR, Chari R, Field CJ, et al. Exposure to Household Furry Pets Influences the Gut Microbiota of Infants at 3-4 Months Following Various Birth Scenarios. *Microbiome*.2017; 5(1): 40. doi:10.1186/s40168-017-0254-x.
- [17] Donati Zeppa S, Agostini D, Gervasi M, Annibali G, Amatori S, Ferrini F, et al. Mutual Interactions Among Exercise, Sport Supplements, and Microbiota. *Nutrients*. 2020; 12(1): 17. doi:10.3390/nu12010017.
- [18] Hughes RL and Holscher HD. Fueling Gut Microbes: A Review of the Interaction Between Diet, Exercise, and the Gut Microbiota in Athletes. *Advances in*

- Nutrition.2021;12(6):2190-215.doi:10.1093/advances/nmab077.
- [19] Keohane DM, Woods T, O'Connor P, Underwood S, Cronin O, Whiston R, et al. Four Men in a Boat: Ultra-Endurance Exercise Alters the Gut Microbiome. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*.2019; 22(9): 1059-64. doi: 10.1016/j.jsams.2019.04.004.
- [20] Scheiman J, Luber JM, Chavkin TA, MacDonald T, Tung A, Pham L-D, et al. Meta-Omics Analysis of Elite Athletes Identifies a Performance-Enhancing Microbe That Functions via Lactate Metabolism. *Nature Medicine*.2019; 25(7): 1104-9. doi:10.1038/s41591-019-0485-4.
- [21] Morita H, Kano C, Ishii C, Kagata N, Ishikawa T, Hirayama A, et al. *Bacteroides uniformis* and Its Preferred Substrate, Cyclodextrin, Enhance Endurance Exercise Performance in Mice and Human Males. *Science Advances*.2023;9(4):eadd2120.doi :10.1126/sciadv.add2120.
- [22] Marttinen M, Ala-Jaakkola R, Laitila A, Lehtinen MJ. Gut Microbiota, Probiotics and Physical Performance in Athletes and Physically Active Individuals. *Nutrients*.2020;12(10):2936.doi:10.3390/nu12102936.
- [23] Turnbaugh PJ, Ridaura VK, Faith JJ, Rey FE, Knight R, Gordon JI. The Effect of Diet on the Human Gut Microbiome: A Metagenomic Analysis in Humanized Gnotobiotic Mice. *Science Translational Medicine*. 2009;1(6): 6ra14. doi:10.1126/scitranslmed.3000322.
- [24] Wu GD, Chen J, Hoffmann C, Bittinger K, Chen Y-Y, Keilbaugh SA, et al. Linking Long-Term Dietary Patterns with Gut Microbial Enterotypes. *Science*. 2011; 334(6052): 105-8. doi:10.1126/science.1208344.
- [25] Ma C-L, Ma X-T, Wang J-J, Liu H, Chen Y-F, Yang Y. Physical Exercise Induces Hippocampal Neurogenesis and Prevents Cognitive Decline. *Behavioural Brain Research*.2017;317:332-9.doi:10.1016/j.bbr.2016.09.067.
- [26] Dao MC, Everard A, Aron-Wisniewsky J, Sokolovska N, Prifti E, Verger EO, et al. *Akkermansia muciniphila* and Improved Metabolic Health During a Dietary Intervention in Obesity: Relationship with Gut Microbiome Richness and Ecology. *Gut*.2016; 65(3): 426-36. doi:10.1136/gutjnl-2014-308778.
- [27] Lukovac S, Belzer C, Pellis L, Keijsers BJ, de Vos WM, Montijn RC, et al. Differential Modulation by *Akkermansia muciniphila* and *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* of Host Peripheral Lipid Metabolism and Histone Acetylation in Mouse Gut Organoids. *mBio*. 2014; 5(4): e01438-14. doi:10.1128/mBio.01438-14.
- [28] Ma D, Wang AC, Parikh I, Green SJ, Hoffman JD, Chlipala G, et al. Ketogenic Diet Enhances Neurovascular Function with Altered Gut Microbiome in Young Healthy Mice. *Scientific Reports*.2018; 8(1): 6670. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-25190-5.
- [29] Olson CA, Vuong HE, Yano JM, Liang QY, Nusbaum DJ, Hsiao EY. The Gut Microbiota Mediates the Anti-Seizure Effects of the Ketogenic Diet. *Cell*.2018; 173(7): 1728-41. e13. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2018.04.027.
- [30] Swidsinski A, Dörffel Y, Loening-Baucke V, Gille C, Göktas Ö, Reißhauer A, et al. Reduced Mass and Diversity of the Colonic Microbiome in Patients with Multiple Sclerosis and Their Improvement with Ketogenic Diet. *Frontiers in Microbiology*.2017;8:1141. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2017.01141.
- [31] Shimizu H, Tosaki T, Kanai Y, Hishikawa Y, Ohta K, Seino S. Insulin-Induced Apoptosis and Involvement of the Forkhead Transcription Factor FKHR. *Diabetes*.1999;48(2):407-13.doi:10.2337/diabetes.48.2.407.
- [32] Brunet A, Bonni A, Zigmond MJ, Lin MZ, Juo P, Hu LS, et al. Akt Promotes Cell Survival by Phosphorylating and Inhibiting a Forkhead Transcription Factor. *Cell*. 1999;96(6):857-68.doi:10.1016/s0092-8674(00)80595-4.
- [33] van der Horst A, Burgering BM. Stressing the Role of FoxO Proteins in Lifespan and Disease. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*.2007; 8(6): 440-50. doi:10.1038/nrm2190.
- [34] Gross DN, van den Heuvel AP, Birnbaum MJ. The Role of FoxO in the Regulation of Metabolism. *Oncogene*. 2008; 27(16): 2320-36. doi:10.1038/sj.onc.1210950.
- [35] Eijkelenboom A, Burgering BM. FOXOs: Signalling Integrators for Homeostasis Maintenance. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*.2013; 14(2): 83-97. doi :10.1038/nrm3507.
- [36] Webb AE, Brunet A. FOXO Transcription Factors: Key Regulators of Cellular Quality Control. *Trends in Biochemical Sciences*.2014;39(4):159-69.doi:10.1016/j.tibs.2014.02.003.
- [37] Dansen TB, Smits LM, van Triest MH, de Keizer PL, Vries-Smits AM, Burgers PP, et al. Redox-Sensitive Cysteine Residues in the Forkhead Transcription Factor FoxO4 Regulate PKB-Mediated Phosphorylation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*.2009; 106(27): 9240-5. doi:10.1073/pnas.0900423106.
- [38] Hedrick SM. The Acquired Immune System: A Vantage from Beneath. *Immunity*.2004; 21(6): 607-10. doi:10.1016/j.immuni.2004.10.008.
- [39] Ouyang W, Li MO. Foxo: In Command of T Lymphocyte Homeostasis and Tolerance. *Trends in Immunology*. 2011; 32(1): 26-33. doi:10.1016/j.it.2010.11.002.

- [40] Dejean AS, Beisner DR, Ch'en IL, Kerdiles YM, Babour A, Arden KC, *et al.* Transcription Factor FoxO3 Controls the Generation of Memory CD8+ T Cells by Regulating Proliferation in Response to IL-15. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America.*2009; 106(48): 20121-6. doi:10.1073/pnas.0906357106.
- [41] Kerdiles YM, Beisner DR, Tinoco R, Dejean AS, Castrillon DH, DePinho RA, *et al.* Foxo1 Links Homing and Survival of Naive T Cells by Regulating L-Selectin, CCR7 and Interleukin 7 Receptor. *Nature Immunology.*2009; 10(2): 176-84. doi:10.1038/ni.1689.
- [42] Ouyang W, Liao W, Luo CT, Yin N, Huse M, Kim MV, *et al.* Novel Foxo1-Dependent Transcriptional Programs Control T Regulatory Cell Function. *Nature.*2012; 491(7425): 554-9. doi:10.1038/nature11581.
- [43] Kim MV, Ouyang W, Liao W, Zhang MQ, Li MO. The Transcription Factor Foxo1 Controls Central-Memory CD8+ T Cell Responses to Infection. *Immunity.*2013; 39(2): 286-97. doi:10.1016/j.immuni.2013.07.013.
- [44] Scott-Browne JP, Lopez-Moyado IF, Trifari S, Wong V, Chavez L, Rao A, *et al.* Dynamic Changes in Chromatin Accessibility Occur in CD8+ T Cells Responding to Viral Infection. *Immunity.*2016; 45(6):1327-40. doi:10.1016/j.immuni.2016.10.028.
- [45] Seoane J, Le HV, Shen L, Anderson SA, Massagué J. Integration of Smad and Forkhead Pathways in the Control of Neuroepithelial and Glioblastoma Cell Proliferation. *Cell.* 2004;117(2):211-23. doi:10.1016/s0092-8674(04)00302-3.
- [46] Essaghir A, Dif N, Marbehant CY, Coffey PJ, Demoulin JB. The Transcription of FOXO Genes Is Stimulated by FOXO3 and Repressed by Growth Factors. *The Journal of Biological Chemistry.*2009;284(16):10334-42. doi:10.1074/jbc.M807114200.
- [47] Iyer AK, Azad N, Wang L, Rojanasakul Y. Role of Reactive Oxygen Species and Nitric Oxide in the Mechanism of Apoptosis Induced by Aflatoxin B1 in HepG2 Cells. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine.* 2008; 44(7):1224-31. doi:10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2007.11.018.
- [48] Zhang Y, Gan B, Liu D, Paik JH. FoxO Family Members in Cancer. *Cancer Biology & Therapy.*2011; 12(4): 253-9. doi:10.4161/cbt.12.4.16014.
- [49] Manning BD, Toker A. AKT/PKB Signaling: Navigating the Network. *Cell.*2017;169(3):381-405. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2017.04.001.
- [50] Greer EL, Brunet A. FOXO Transcription Factors at the Interface Between Longevity and Tumor Suppression. *Oncogene.*2005;24(50):7410-25. doi:10.1038/sj.onc.1209086.
- [51] Arden KC. Multiple Roles of FOXO Transcription Factors in Mammalian Cells Point to Multiple Roles in Cancer. *Experimental Gerontology.*2006; 41(8): 709-17. doi:10.1016/j.exger.2006.06.040.
- [52] Martínez-García V, Ayllón V, García-Olmo DC, Torres-Ruiz R, García-Olmo D, Kremer L, *et al.* The Emerging Role of FOXO Transcription Factors in Pancreatic Beta Cells. *Journal of Molecular Endocrinology.* 2016; 56(1): R35-50. doi:10.1530/JME-15-0114.
- [53] Kenyon C. The Plasticity of Aging: Insights from Long-Lived Mutants. *Cell.*2005; 120(4): 449-60. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2005.02.002.
- [54] Lin K, Dorman JB, Rodan A, Kenyon C. daf-16: An HNF-3/Forkhead Family Member That Can Function to Double the Lifespan of *Caenorhabditis Elegans*. *Science.*1997;278(5341):1319-22. doi:10.1126/science.278.5341.1319.
- [55] Hwangbo DS, Gershman B, Tu MP, Palmer M, Tatar M. *Drosophila* dFOXO Controls Lifespan and Regulates Insulin Signalling in Brain and Fat Body. *Nature.*2004;429(6991):562-6. doi:10.1038/nature02549.
- [56] Yamamoto R, Tatar M. Insulin Receptor Substrate Chico Acts with the Transcription Factor FOXO to Extend Lifespan in *Drosophila*. *Mechanisms of Ageing and Development.*2011; 132(10): 468-79. doi:10.1016/j.mad.2011.10.003.
- [57] Alic N, Hoddinott MP, Vinti G, Partridge L. Lifespan Extension by Increased Expression of the *Drosophila* Homolog of the Mammalian Forkhead Transcription Factor FOXO Is Dependent on Insulin Receptor Substrate chico. *Aging Cell.*2011; 10(4): 729-32. doi:10.1111/j.1474-9726.2011.00706.x.
- [58] Martins R, Lithgow GJ, Link W. Long Live FOXO: Unraveling the Role of FOXO Proteins in Aging and Longevity. *Aging Cell.* 2016; 15(2): 196-207. doi:10.1111/ace.12427.
- [59] Weigel D, Jürgens G, Küttner F, Seifert E, Jäckle H. The Homeotic Gene Fork Head Encodes a Nuclear Protein and Is Expressed in the Terminal Regions of the *Drosophila* Embryo. *Cell.*1989; 57(4): 645-58. doi:10.1016/0092-8674(89)90134-2.
- [60] Kaestner KH, Knochel W, Martínez DE. Unified Nomenclature for the Winged Helix/Forkhead Transcription Factors. *Genes & Development.*2000; 14(2): 142-6. doi:10.1101/gad.14.2.142.
- [61] Hannenhalli S, Kaestner KH. The Evolution of Fox Genes and Their Role in Development and Disease. *Nature Reviews Genetics.*2009;10(4): 233-40. doi:10.1038/nrg2523.
- [62] Arden KC. FOXO Animal Models Reveal a Variety of Diverse Roles for FOXO Transcription Factors. *Oncogene.*2007; 27(16): 2345-50. doi:10.1038/sj.onc.1209086.

- onc.1210951.
- [63] Mahmud DL, Plesner A, Nielsen MD, Flyvbjerg A, Kristiansen SB, Andersen CL, *et al.* Forkhead Box O Transcription Factors Are Essential Regulators of Proangiogenic Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor-A Signaling in Endothelial Cells and Neovascularization in Mice. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*.2014; 289(34): 23677-88. doi:10.1074/jbc.M114.570085.
- [64] Gan B, Lim C, Chu G, Hua S, Ding Z, Collins M, *et al.* FoxOs Enforce a Progression Checkpoint to Restrict Differentiation of Tumor Cells. *Cell*.2010; 141(5): 749-60. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2010.03.041.
- [65] Nakae J, Kitamura T, Silver DL, Accili D. The Forkhead Transcription Factor Foxo1 (Fkhr) Confers Insulin Sensitivity to Adipocytes. *Journal of Clinical Investigation*.2001; 108(9): 1359-67. doi:10.1172/JCI12852.
- [66] Kitamura T, Kahn CR, Accili D. Insulin Receptor Knockout Mice. *Annual Review of Physiology* .2003;65:313-32.doi:10.1146/annurev.physiol.65.09.2101.142540.
- [67] Paik JH, Kollipara R, Chu G, Ji H, Xiao Y, Ding Z, *et al.* FoxOs Are Lineage-Restricted Redundant Tumor Suppressors and Regulate Endothelial Cell Homeostasis. *Cell*.2007;128(2):309-23.doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2006.12.029.
- [68] Rached MT, Kode A, Xu L, Yoshikawa Y, Paik JH, DePinho RA, *et al.* FoxO Transcription Factors Maintain Osteoblast Differentiation and Protect Against Glucocorticoid-Induced Oxidative Stress. *Cell Metabolism*.2010;11(2):147-60.doi:10.1016/j.cmet.2010.01.002.
- [69] Salih DA, Brunet A. FOXO Transcription Factors in the Maintenance of Cellular Homeostasis During Aging. *Current Opinion in Cell Biology*.2008;20(2):126-36. doi: 10.1016/j.ceb.2008.02.005.
- [70] Gomis RR, Alarcón C, Nadal C, Van Poznak C, Massagué J. C/EBP β at the Core of the TGF β Cytostatic Response and Its Evasion in Metastatic Breast Cancer Cells. *Cancer Cell*. 2006; 10(3): 203-14. doi: 10.1016/j.ccr.2006.08.001.
- [71] Singh A, Joyner AL. Sonic Hedgehog Signaling Development of the Nervous System. *Development*. 2019; 146(12): dev176736. doi:10.1242/dev.176736.
- [72] Rhinn M, Dollé P. Retinoic Acid Signalling in Development. *Development*.2012;139(5):843-58.doi :10.1242/dev.065938.
- [73] Zhang Y, Gan B, Liu D, Paik JH. FoxO Family Members in Cancer. *Cancer Biology & Therapy*. 2011; 12(4): 253-9. doi:10.4161/cbt.12.4.16014.
- [74] Daitoku H, Sakamaki J, Fukamizu A. Regulation of FoxO Transcription Factors by Acetylation and Protein-Protein Interactions. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*.2011;1813(11):1954-60.doi10.1016/j.bbamcr.2010.09.002.
- [75] Greer EL, Brunet A.FOXO Transcription Factors in Ageing and Cancer. *Acta Physiologica*.2008;192(1): 19-28. doi:10.1111/j.1748-1716.2007.01785.x.
- [76] Huang H, Tindall DJ. Regulation of FoxO Protein Stability via Ubiquitination and Proteasome Degradation. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*.2011; 1813(11): 1961-4. doi:10.1016/j.bbamcr.2010.09.007.
- [77] Furuyama T, Nakazawa T, Nakano I, Mori N. Identification of the Differential Distribution Patterns of mRNAs and Consensus Binding Sequences for Mouse DAF-16 Homologs. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*.2000;272(2):587-92.doi:10.1006/bbrc.2000.2792.
- [78] Accili D, Arden KC. FoxOs at the Crossroads of Cellular Metabolism, Differentiation, and Transformation. *Cell*.2004; 117(4): 421-6. doi:10.1016/s0092-8674(04)00452-0.
- [79] Lee S, Dong HH. FoxO Integration of Insulin Signalling with Glucose and Lipid Metabolism. *Journal of Endocrinology*.2017;233(2):R67-79.doi:10.1530/JOE-16-0495.
- [80] Obsil T, Obsilova V. Structural Basis for DNA Recognition by FOXO Proteins. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*.2011; 1813(11): 1946-53. doi: 10.1016/j.bbamcr.2010.12.029.
- [81] Li H, Jogl G. Structural and Functional Insight into Insulin Regulation of FOXO Transcription Factors. *Current Biology*.2009; 19(24): 2156-62. doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2009.10.080.
- [82] Maiese K, Chong ZZ, Shang YC, Wang S. Targeting Disease Through Novel Pathways of Apoptosis and Autophagy. *Expert Opinion on Therapeutic Targets*. 2012; 16(2): 120-8. doi:10.1517/14728222.2011.643299.
- [83] Huang H, Tindall DJ. Regulation of FOXO Protein Stability via Ubiquitination and Proteasome Degradation. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*.2011; 1813(11): 1961-4. doi: 10.1016/j.bbamcr.2010.09.007.
- [84] Accili D, Arden KC. FoxOs at the Crossroads of Cellular Metabolism. *Cell*. 2004; 117(4): 421-6. doi:10.1016/s0092-8674(04)00452-0.