

Therapeutic Potential of Gut Microbiota: Insights into Immune Modulation, Metabolite Signaling and Clinical Applications in Inflammatory and Metabolic Diseases

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Abstract

The gut microbiota is a complex network of microorganisms inhabiting the gastrointestinal tract and it has a great influence on intestinal health. Disbalances within metabolic patterns and microbial diversity may cause inflammatory bowel disease and other diseases. Microorganisms in intestinal mucosa produce metabolites that act as signalling molecules and influence the regulation of inflammation and the immune response. SCFAs and secondary bile acids are metabolites that bind to specific receptors and trigger inflammatory signals that affect intestinal immunity and host health. Moreover, metabolites of tryptophan promote the integrity of the epithelial barrier and also interact with intestinal mucosal aromatic hydrocarbon receptors (AHR) to regulate immune homeostasis. By acting as precursors to AHR ligands together with SCFAs and secondary bile acids, dietary-derived indoles relax the intestinal epithelium inflammation and stress. The mechanistic and therapeutic advances in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) aim to alter host metabolism, reduce inflammation, and reconstitute the integrity of the gut barrier through changes in the composition of gut microbiota. Since dysbiosis in liver cirrhosis leads to complications such as bacteremia and hepatic encephalopathy, probiotics and synbiotics are being investigated to treat associated metabolic disorders.

Keywords: AHR - Aromatic Hydrocarbon Receptors, FMT - Fecal Microbiota Transplantation, NAFLD - Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease, SCFAs - Short-Chain Fatty Acids.

Introduction

The human gastrointestinal tract represents one of the largest interfaces (250–400 m²) between the host, environmental factors, and antigens in the human body. On average, the human gastrointestinal tract processes 60 tonnes of food, besides several ecological microorganisms that significantly compromise the integrity of the gut. The gastrointestinal tract harbours one of the largest interfaces (250–400 m²) in the human body between the host, environmental factors, and antigens. In addition to the numerous ecological microorganisms, an individual's gut integrity is

seriously threatened by the 60 tonnes of food that pass through it on average during their lifetime [1]. The term "gut microbiota" is a collective noun for bacteria, archaea, and eukarya that reside in the gastrointestinal tract. For thousands of years, microbes and the host have co-evolved into a complex and mutually beneficial alliance. Estimates place the number of microorganisms in the GI tract at over 10¹⁴, more than 100 times the genomic content (microbiome) found in human genomes and roughly 10 times the number of bacterial cells as human cells [2]. According to a recent revision to the estimate, the proportion of bacteria to human cells might be closer to

1:1. The body harbours many bacteria, and therefore the host and the microorganisms living are called super organisms. While the microbiome includes the organism's genomes, structural components, metabolites, and environmental circumstances, the microbiota also refers to the living microorganisms that inhabit particular human body environments, such as the gut, oral cavity, skin, and lungs [39]. Together, they are necessary for the preservation of human health and the prevention of disease. Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes are two of the six major phyla that constitute the gut microbiota, which is considered the most important one [40]. These microbes support vitamin synthesis, food fermentation, immune system stimulation, and pathogen defence. Other than bacteria, the gut microbiota also consists of viruses, phages, fungi (such as *Candida* and *Saccharomyces*), and archaea (such as *Methanobrevibacter smithii*). On the contrary, the microbiota of the skin and lungs are different and vary with local physical and chemical characteristics, whereas the second largest microbial community is the oral microbiota, which differs in the tongue, gums, and saliva [41]. The more recent studies that connected the microbiota to diseases like cancer, diabetes, and neurological disorders have shown that the microbiota has potential therapeutic applications. For instance, changes in the gut microbiota can influence health outcomes through their interaction with immune and metabolic pathways. The oral microbiota, which often gets altered by bacterial interactions and pH, also plays a role in systemic health. Previously thought to be sterile, the lung microbiota comprises important phyla such as Firmicutes and Actinobacteria, which are maintained by microbial immigration and emigration. Contrarily, the skin microbiota is influenced by hair follicles and glands and varies with location. By focusing on microbial communities and their ecosystems, these findings highlight the role of microbiota in the

maintenance of health and offer new routes for the treatment of disease [42].

Overview of Gut Microbiota and Its Importance

The Forgotten Organ: Importance in Host Physiology

The "new organ" or "forgotten organ," named the gut microbiota, has gained increasing attention because of its importance to human health. A trillion microorganisms make up the gut microbiota with which the host's physiological processes are significantly influenced. Many intestinal conditions have been associated with "dysbiosis," or changes in its composition, such as colorectal cancer (CRC), irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), and inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) [3]. The influence of the gut microbiota extends beyond the intestines, however. Recent studies have shown the importance of gut microbiota as a determinant of both localized and systemic health, demonstrating its role in the aetiology, prevention, and non-intestinal conditions such as obesity, cardiovascular disease, allergies, asthma, and neuropsychiatric disorders [4].

Microbial Metabolites

Defenders of the Host Immunity and the Intestinal Barrier An important factor determining the health of the intestine is the diversity and metabolic pattern of the many commensal microorganisms living inside the gut. Some diseases that may result from microbial imbalance include inflammatory bowel disease [IBD]. Signalling molecules produced by microorganisms activate the immune system of the gut mucosa and control inflammation. Some of the metabolites that bind to particular receptors and stimulate signalling pathways that promote inflammation include short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) and secondary bile acids. The impact of these metabolites on intestinal immunity and host health is indirect through their interaction with intestinal epithelial and

mucosal immune cells. In addition, tryptophan-derived metabolites modulate the immune response and enhance the integrity of the intestinal epithelial barrier by binding to the aromatic hydrocarbon receptors [AHR] of the intestinal mucosa. Indoles are synthetic precursors of AHR ligands from diet, which act in conjunction with SCFA and secondary bile acids to reduce intestinal epithelial stress and regulate inflammation [5]. When the dietary fibres are broken down by intestinal bacteria, short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) are produced. However, acetate, propionate, and butyrate are the major SCFAs. SCFAs contribute to the integrity of the intestinal barrier by encouraging the production of mucin, a protective coating that covers the gut epithelium. Moreover, they influence immune cells and stimulate the synthesis of anti-inflammatory cytokines that control immunological responses.

Role of GI Microbiota in Host Health

The human gastrointestinal (GI) microbiota contributes greatly to host health maintenance through several physiological functions, such as intestinal epithelium development, energy harvesting, pathogen defence [7], and gut integrity preservation. The host's immune system must also be controlled. However, dysbiosis, a disorder in which the balance of microbial composition is upset, may jeopardize these advantageous processes. This imbalance can lead to several extra intestinal and intestinal diseases. The growth and composition of the GI microbiota play a crucial role in the integrity of the gut as well as overall host health [8]. The various physiological functions performed by this microbiota, such as preserving intestinal integrity or growing the intestinal epithelium, absorbing energy, preventing infection, and controlling host immunity, all give the host several advantages. However, sometimes the shift of microorganisms- may act against these processes.

The role of the microbiota in a variety of intestinal and extra-intestinal disorders is increasingly being recognized as more sophisticated methods for profiling and characterizing complex ecosystems have been developed. Due to its varied metabolic capacities and genomic makeup, the gut microbiota offers the host many advantages. Its primary roles include protecting against infections, maintaining the integrity of the mucosal barrier, and delivering vital nutrients like vitamins. The commensal microbiota and the mucosal immune system need to harmonize for the normal functioning of the immune system. During the time colonic bacteria ferment carbohydrates, enzymes of colonic bacteria active on carbohydrates during that time can produce short-chain fatty acids like butyrate, propionate and acetate. The CI tract typically maintains a 1:1:3 ratio among the SCFAs [9, 10]. GI tract epithelial cells absorb SCFAs, which subsequently control several cellular functions, including chemotaxis, gene expression, differentiation, proliferation, and apoptosis.

While most gut anaerobes produce acetate, some subsets of gut bacteria also produce propionate and butyrate through distinct metabolic pathways. Propionate is produced by the succinate or propanediol pathways, depending on the sugar, whereas butyrate is produced by the acetoacetyl-CoA and glycolysis pathways. In the human gut, butyrate is primarily produced by Firmicutes, whereas propionate is primarily produced by Bacteroidetes [11]. Cross-feeding starch directly and metabolically by Firmicutes and Actinobacteria, such as *Eubacterium rectale* and *E. coli*, has a significant impact on the colon's butyrate production. It is also well known that *Akkermansia muciniphila* produces propionate, which can break down mucin [12].

After formation, the liver primarily absorbs propionate, whereas acetate is released into peripheral tissues. In the liver, propionate

stimulates gluconeogenesis while butyrate stimulates lipogenesis. SCFAs are essential for many metabolic functions, such as controlling glucose and maintaining lipid homeostasis [13]. Butyrate is a well-known anti-inflammatory and anti-tumour agent and is essential for colonocyte energy. A butyrate gradient from the lumen to the crypt controls intestinal epithelial turnover and homeostasis, promoting colonocyte proliferation at the crypt base and increasing apoptosis and cell exfoliation closer to the lumen [14]. By decreasing bacterial translocation, butyrate also improves the function of the gut barrier through its effects on mucin synthesis and tight-junction assembly. SCFAs also control inflammation and the immune system, two processes that affect the synthesis of cytokines. Among these cytokines, interleukin-18 (IL-18) is necessary for preserving and restoring epithelial integrity. Through receptor-mediated mechanisms, butyrate and propionate have been demonstrated to influence appetite regulation and energy intake.

Histone deacetylase, which epigenetically controls gene expression, is also inhibited by them. Further demonstrating the vital role of SCFAs in human metabolism are propionate's positive effects on β -cell function and reduction of reward-based eating behaviours via striatal pathways [15]. Additionally, essential vitamins cannot be produced by the host; the GI microbiota is required for their de novo synthesis. The synthesis of vitamin B12, which is not made by fungi, plants, or animals, depends on lactic acid bacteria [16]. Folate, a vitamin necessary for host metabolic processes like DNA synthesis and repair, is primarily found in bifidobacteria. Numerous vitamins, including riboflavin, biotin, nicotinic acid, pantothenic acid, pyridoxine, and thiamine, have been demonstrated to be produced by the human gut microbiota. Colonic bacteria can biotransform non-reabsorbed bile acids into secondary bile acids [17]. Each of these

elements influences the host's health. It has been suggested that metabolic disorders like obesity and type 2 diabetes are caused by the co-metabolism of bile acids, branched fatty acids, choline, vitamins (including niacin), purines, and phenolic compounds [18].

Intestinal Microbiota and Epithelial Balance

Numerous studies have demonstrated the role that gut bacteria play in maintaining epithelial homeostasis. The decreased turnover of epithelial cells in germ-deficient mice can be restored by microbiota colonization. The implication is that microbes encourage cell renewal and wound healing. Notably, *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG activates these mechanisms [19]. Moreover, the integrity of the epithelium has been associated with bacterial species such as *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *Akkermansia muciniphila* [20]. Gut bacteria influence mucus turnover and properties in addition to epithelial characteristics. For example, the colon of the germ-free mice has a significantly thinner layer of mucus than that of the healthy mice. However, by generating compounds such as peptidoglycan or lipopolysaccharide [LPS], bacteria can restore normal levels of colonic mucus thickness.

Gut Bacteria and Mucus Production

Gut bacteria regulate the synthesis and glycosylation of mucus, thus protecting the intestinal barrier and overall gut health. It has been shown that some bacterial species, such as *Ruminococcus gnavus* E1, *Lactobacillus casei* DN-114 001, and *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron*, alter the expression of glycosyltransferase enzymes, which affects the glycosylation of mucin. These enzymes, by adding specific sugar residues to mucin proteins, alter the biochemical and physical properties of the mucus layer. The mucus is a habitat for commensal bacteria as well as a

mechanical barrier that protects intestinal epithelial cells from gut microbes.

For instance, through the degradation of mucin glycans and regulation of mucin synthesis, *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* facilitates colonization and long-term symbiosis. The well-known commensal bacterium *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* reduces inflammation caused by diseases like IBD, increases mucus levels, and preserves gut integrity [21]. Gut health and the balance of the gut microbiota are determined by the regulation of mucus by gut bacteria. The changes in the glycosylation of mucins may enable pathogens or less adapted bacteria to outcompete some beneficial bacteria.

By effectively breaking down mucin glycans, for example, bacteria can proliferate in the mucus layer and enhance their capacity to maintain equilibrium. The body is more vulnerable to pathogen colonization and translocation when dysbiosis, an imbalance in the gut microbiota, alters mucus production and glycosylation and compromises the epithelial barrier. This dysfunctional barrier function plays an important role in the pathophysiology of gastrointestinal diseases, including ulcerative colitis and CRC. Gut microbiota and mucus secretion work in conjunction with each other to maintain health at the gut mucosal level and delay the manifestation of disease [22].

Dysbiosis

Causes of Dysbiosis

The term "dysbiosis" is used commonly to describe an imbalance in the gut microbial community, indicating a pathological state from the host's perspective. This is a dynamic ecological shift caused by various microbial populations adapting to changing micro environmental conditions rather than strictly pathogenic. However, since alterations in the microbial composition are most often the consequence of external environmental stimuli rather than being essentially deleterious, the

above statement could be interpreted as biased. Intrinsic properties of microorganisms, such as metabolic machinery, resistance to oxygen, heat tolerance, and even virulence factors, result in population variation. These ecological changes are therefore brought about by the adaptive capability of the bacteria to other selective pressures within the gut environment, caused by stimuli such as infections, drugs, and diet.

Gut Microbiota and Immune System Modulation

Immune System Development and Regulation

The involvement of the GI microbiota in the establishment of the mucosal and systemic immune systems has been stressed by the immunological deficits. This lacks lymphoid structures and the majority of immune cell populations including non-replicative CD4+ T cells, which is remedied through supplementation with *Bacteroides fragilis* capsule polysaccharide A into germ-free mice. This connection is allowed by recognizing the molecular effectors produced by gut microbes on epithelial cells, such as Toll-like or Nod-like receptors.

These microbial effectors enhance immune responses, eliminate inflammatory gastrointestinal disorders, and differentiate between beneficial and harmful bacteria by increasing the quantity of immune cells, or PRRs [23]. In the mammalian gastrointestinal tract, the immune system is known to actively engage with segmented filamentous bacteria (SFB), a family of anaerobic commensals closely related to *Clostridium* that produce spores. Unlike other commensals, SFB has a strong attachment to the epithelial lining, which triggers the release of serum amyloid A1 by the epithelial cells. Colonization is an example of SFB's strong immunostimulatory potential, as it affects the postnatal maturation of gut mucosal lymphoid tissues, increases innate immune responses, stimulates T-cell

development, and induces a broad IgA response [24].

Protection Against Inflammatory Diseases and Pathogens

The gut microbiota can play two roles in inflammation: either stimulate or suppress inflammatory responses, depending on its composition and balance. Because dysbiosis, or microbial imbalance, activates immune pathways like TLR4/MYD88/NF- κ B, which leads to the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines like TNF- α and IL-6, it is associated with increased inflammation. This may lead to microbial translocation, systemic inflammation, and breach of the epithelial barrier. In the case of diseases like CKD, the gut microbiota produces uremic toxins like p-cresyl sulfate and TMAO that enhance chronic inflammation [25]. The pathophysiology of diseases such as CRC, cardiovascular disorders, and inflammatory bowel diseases is related to these inflammatory responses that preserve tissue damage and systemic immune activation.

Butyrate and other short-chain fatty acids are the principal products of an optimal and healthy gut microbiota with anti-inflammatory benefits. SCFAs can dampen immune responses, as well as preserve barrier integrity by upregulating anti-inflammatory cytokines such as TGF- β and IL-10. Beneficial bacteria have been related to diminished inflammation and good health in the gut, among which *Lactobacilli* and *Akkermansia muciniphila* have been reported to have this function [26]. Although its exact mechanisms of action are not yet known, *A. muciniphila* has been linked to beneficial effects in inflammatory diseases.

Another beneficial bacterium is *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*, which is also indispensable for gut health; in animal models, it inhibits colitis by producing anti-inflammatory proteins that suppress intestinal epithelial cells NF- κ B pathway. Such beneficial bacteria are enhanced through

probiotics, prebiotics, and dietary treatments like a high-fibre diet. This restores microbial balance, reduces systemic inflammation, and slows the course of disease. Detection of bacteria such as *F. prausnitzii* can also be applied to diagnose gastrointestinal disorders [27].

Gut Microbiota in Specific Disease Contexts

Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease (NAFLD)

Gut Microbiota's Role in NAFLD Development and Progression

NAFLD, the liver disease that has afflicted millions of people across the world, is a non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, and it affects 20–33% of the world population. NAFLD covers a wide range of diseases ranging from simple steatosis to serious diseases like fibrosis, compensated cirrhosis, advanced cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma. Despite there not being a known medical cure for NAFLD, the most recommended treatment course of action is exercise. According to a pathway of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease pathophysiology, gut microbiota and associated dysbiosis have been identified as important regulators by the gut microbiota-liver axis referred to as a direct portal venous connection of the intestine and liver. Among the mechanisms involved in the pathogenesis of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease that is gut microbiota-dependent are alterations in insulin sensitivity, bile acid and choline metabolism, and host energy metabolism.

Treatment approaches that target the gut microbiota have been the focus of recent studies. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease has been studied as it relates to bile acid regulation, faecal microbiota transplantation (FMT), absorbents, probiotics, prebiotics, and synbiotics. Although each of these strategies holds promise, more research is needed to

evaluate their safety and effectiveness over the long term [28, 29].

Therapeutic Effects of *Bifidobacterium lactis* SF in NAFLD

A strain of *Bifidobacterium animalis* subsp. *B. lactis* SF, which was isolated from the faeces of healthy newborns, has shown strong antibacterial and antioxidant properties. It proved to be highly resistant to gastrointestinal fluids and was able to effectively colonize the intestine. In a diet-induced mouse model of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, *B. lactis* SF altered intestinal microbiota, improved intestinal barrier function, and blocked lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from entering the portal circulation. This suppressed Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4)/NF- κ B signalling and changed the PI3K-Akt/AMPK pathway, thereby inhibiting the inflammatory response and liver fat accumulation. Thus, *B. lactis* SF, as a probiotic intervention, holds promise for the treatment of NAFLD [30].

Liver Cirrhosis

Host-Microbiome Interactions in Liver Cirrhosis

Hormones, bile acids, vitamins, and neurotransmitters represent some of the many diverse compounds produced by the gut microbiota that are essential to biological function. Dysbiosis in liver cirrhosis can cause increased intestinal permeability, bacterial overgrowth and consequences such as hepatic encephalopathy and bacteremia. Recent studies have established a significant correlation between faecal flora and serum lipid levels, including phospholipids and polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), in liver cirrhosis. These findings establish a relationship between the metabolism of fatty acids and gut microbiota. Probiotics and synbiotics-based interventions have shown promise in treating gut dysbiosis and its metabolic implications on liver disease [31].

Cancer Treatment

Influence of Gut Microbiota on Cancer Therapy Outcomes

Cancer development and response to treatment are both significantly impacted by the gut microbiome. Anticancer drugs, including immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) and chemotherapy, have been found to resist therapy when dysbiosis exists, but particular bacterial species can be used as therapeutic supplements to recover such responses. Through drug modification or metabolism, immunomodulation, and the production of factors that influence proliferation and cell death in cancer cells, the gut microbiota influences cancer treatment. FMT, diet, and probiotics have been promising in improving therapeutic outcomes [32].

Host-Microbiota Interaction in Gender and Disease

Gender Differences in Immune System and Chronic Inflammation

Both patient-based research and mechanistic animal models of autoimmune diseases have revealed changes in populations and associated metabolites of the gut microbiota. This consequence indicates that the gut microbiota takes part in the development or course of AIDS. Gut microbiota and their products influence immune homeostasis and immunological processes, both at a local gut level and systemically through the entire body.

The microbial metabolites include short-chain fatty acids such as butyrate, propionate, and acetate. These compounds possess great immune-modulatory properties. SCFAs bind specific cell signalling receptors, including bile acid receptors like TGR5 and FXR as well as G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). In the interaction with these receptors, SCFAs can modify inflammation and immunological responses. Biotransformed bile acids either

bind to these receptors or through epigenetic pathways modify immune responses. Their ability to regulate inflammation has also tied them to autoimmune processes. Intestinal barrier disruptions, sometimes referred to as "leaky gut," allow for the migration of bacteria and continued exposure to luminal contents. This continued exposure may act as an inflammatory trigger that sets off or exacerbates autoimmune processes if the intestinal barrier is not restored.

The Gut Microbiota and Gender-Dependent Health Outcomes

Recent studies have shown that the gut microbiota modulates and responds to the specific hormonal milieu of each gender,

thereby revealing gender-specific differences in immunity. Communication between the endocrine system and the gut microbiota is bidirectional. The capacity of the microbiota to produce hormones such as somatostatin, dopamine, and serotonin in response to host hormones such as estrogens is supportive of hormone homeostasis [33]. The metabolites of the gut microbiota shape the development and course of autoimmune diseases and are important for regulating immunological responses and inflammation. Understanding these gender-differentiated interactions can help in developing targeted therapeutics to manage autoimmune disorders and enhance immunological homeostasis [34][Figure 1].

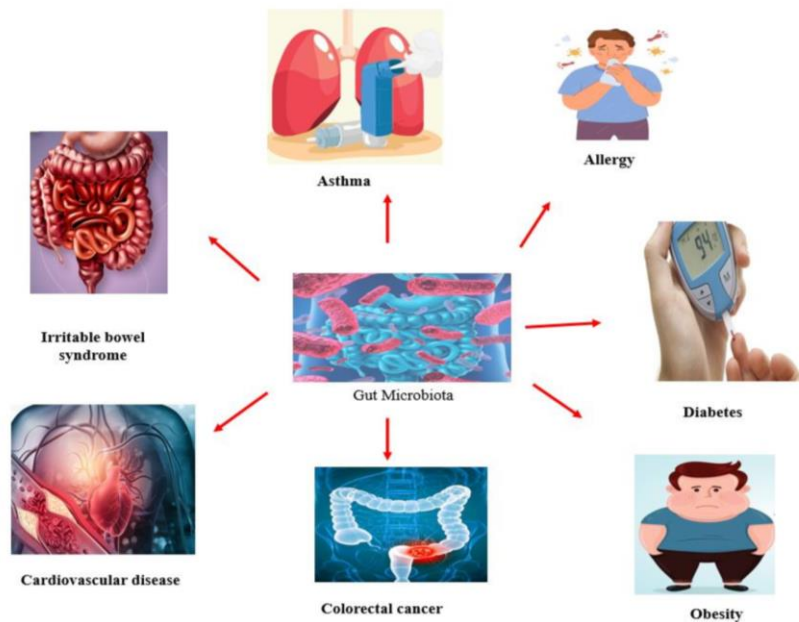


Figure1. Gut Microbiota's Function in Human Health and Illness

Table 1. Microbial Dysbiosis in Immune, Gut, and Metabolic Disorders

Disease/Condition	Microbiota Imbalance	Core Microbiota Changes
Obesity & Metabolic Disorders	Altered energy balance	↑ Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes ratio
Type 2 Diabetes	Insulin resistance	↓ Beneficial bacteria, ↑ endotoxins
Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease [NAFLD]	Increased gut permeability	↑ Gram-negative bacteria
Cardiovascular Disease	Trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO)-related	↑ TMA-producing bacteria
Irritable Bowel Syndrome (IBS)	Reduced diversity, dysbiosis	↓ Bifidobacteria, ↑ Firmicutes

Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD)	Inflammation, harmful bacterial overgrowth	↓ Bacteroidetes, ↑ Proteobacteria
Colorectal Cancer	Carcinogenic microbiota	↑ Fusobacteria, Bacteroides fragilis
Autoimmune Diseases	Immune imbalance	↓ Diversity, altered bacterial profiles
Allergies and Asthma	Immune dysregulation	↓ Diversity, ↓ Clostridia
Mental Health Disorders	Gut-brain axis disruption	Altered Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes ratio

Host-Microbiota Interaction in Gender and Disease

Gender Differences in Immune System and Chronic Inflammation

In patient-based research and mechanistic animal models of autoimmune diseases (AID), changes in the communities of gut microbiota and their metabolites have been seen. Therefore, there is a strong possibility that gut microbiota may play a role in triggering or progression of AID. The gut microbiota along with its metabolites affect immune homeostasis considerably, both locally within the gut and systemically in the entire body; hence, immunological functions. One of the microbial metabolites with important immunomodulatory qualities is short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs). These include, for instance, acetate, propionate, and butyrate. These SCFAs ligand specific bile acid receptors like TGR5 and FXR and cell signaling receptors like G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). SCFAs can interact with these receptors to change inflammation and immunological responses.

The same is true for biotransformed bile acids (BAs), which regulate immune functions through binding to these receptors or epigenetics. By controlling inflammation, they have also been connected to autoimmune processes. Known as "leaky gut," intestinal barrier disruptions allow bacteria to proliferate and continue to be exposed to luminal contents. This continuous exposure may function as an inflammatory trigger that initiates or exacerbates autoimmune disease if the intestinal barrier is not repaired.

The Role of Gut Microbiota in Gender-Specific Health Outcomes

Recent studies have shown that the gut microbiota is affected and in turn changes by the varying hormonal state of each gender, therefore showing that immunity varies according to sex. There's also cross-talk between the endocrine system and gut microbiota. It has been proved that the secretion of hormones, such as somatostatin, dopamine, and serotonin, keeps the hormonal balance, and the reaction of the microbiota to host hormones such as estrogens [33]. The metabolites from the gut microbiota regulate and modulate inflammation as well as immune responses. Hence, they can influence the onset as well as the course of autoimmune diseases. These gender-specific interactions will therefore assist in the formulation of directed treatments that would ensure immune homeostasis and treatment of autoimmune diseases [34]. Treatment Approach Targeting the Gut Microbiota Several illnesses, such as autoimmune diseases, metabolic disorders, and gastrointestinal disorders, have been traced to the gut microbiota, which is integral to human health.

There is increasing interest in targeting the gut microbiota with therapeutic interventions, as that holds the potential for improving outcomes in diseases and restoring the balance of the microbiota. Among them are prebiotics, probiotics, postbiotics, as well as pharmaceutical agents or dietary manipulation. Each might affect gut microbes by affecting composition or activity through some other mechanism. In this context, for example,

prebiotics provide the food for which beneficial bacteria grow, and probiotics deliver them. Targeted microbial therapies have also been promising in parallel with pharmaceutical drugs like antibiotics and selective microbiota modulators. Diets that are high in fibre or foods rich in polyphenols are associated with improved health outcomes, positively impacting microbial diversity. These studies highlight the fact that it is essential to understand fully all aspects of host-microbiota interactions so that the most effective strategies can be developed for treating dysbiosis [Table 1].

Fecal Microbiota Transplantation [FMT] and Implications

Faecal microbiota transplantation is a new approach for the modification of gut microbiota and is essentially a use of the faecal matter from a healthy donor. That helps those with microbial dysbiosis restore a balanced microbiome when given to a patient who receives it from someone healthy. In the treatment of recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infections, FMT has proven itself to be highly effective with cure rates often exceeding 90% [35]. Besides its effectiveness in the treatment of *C. difficile*, FMT can relieve metabolic disorders like diabetes, obesity, inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), and irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), as well as neuropsychiatric disorders like depression and autism spectrum disorders. It brings a functional and diverse microbial population that can compete with pathogenic microorganisms and restore normal immunological and metabolic functions.

Not without challenges does FMT present its results. Such factors as potential undesirable genetic material and the presence of diseases must also be assessed for donor screening and concerns on safety. Current research is directed toward improving the protocols of FMT: synthetic microbiota, for instance, or encapsulated stool formulations, as a means to enhance safety and efficacy. Gut

Microbiota Modification for Disease Control
Many diseases now have the option of treatment when one alters the gut microbiota. Focusing on particular microbial populations is believed by scientists to directly affect the disease pathways. Intestinal microbes break down dietary fibre to SCFAs, which are known to treat rheumatoid arthritis and IBD because of their anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory properties [36].

Improving beneficial bacteria or inhibiting pro-inflammatory microbes are also ways to decrease chronic inflammatory diseases such as obesity and cardiovascular diseases. The gut-brain axis represents two-way communication between the gut microbiota and the central nervous system, offering a window into how to treat mental health and neurodegenerative diseases by modifying microbial profiles. Microbiota-directed medications and precision antibiotics exemplify pharmacological advances wherein drugs target particular strains without affecting the overall microbial ecosystem. These methods emphasize that the importance of personalized medicine in controlling microbiota lies in making therapies more individualized to the unique microbial makeup and genetic background of each patient [37].
New Discoveries in Gut Microbiota Studies It has recently been established that the richness of microbes is highly governed by epithelial-related factors.

The innate immune sensors, antimicrobial peptides, and mucus barriers form the first line of defence, which modulates microbial communities and inhibits the translocation of pathogens. Secretory IgA and tight junctions control the translocation of microbes and the integrity of the gut. Other entities have been linked to controlling the microbial populations and include microRNAs which are small non-coding RNA molecules regulating the expression of genes in the gut epithelium. Further, because disruption of this equilibrium predisposes to dysbiosis, the contribution of

oxygen gradients to setting up anabolic microbial habitats has been centred in focus.

The novel technologies emerging are providing more light on host-microbiota interactions, including single-cell RNA sequencing, metabolomics, and metagenomics. This resource is useful for detecting microbial biomarkers and getting insight into their role during disease pathogenesis. Advances in gut microbiota research now make it possible to tailor applications for personalized medicine and public health treatments according to the individual microbiome profile of each patient. Next-generation sequencing and bioinformatics tools unlock opportunities for tailored nutritional counselling, microbiome-driven pharmaceuticals, and therapy directed toward the microbiota. In addition, research on the microbiome may help bolster public health initiatives. For example, the incidence of diseases that are associated with the microbiota may be decreased with community-based interventions or with public health nutrition policies aimed at enhancing microbial diversity. Screening for microbial biomarkers in at-risk populations can help in early diagnosis and preventive measures [38].

Future Outlooks

It has now dawned on the new age of biomedical research that gut microbiota is involved in health and disease. FMT, Microbiome-targeting medications, and food modification are some of the promising approaches toward chronic diseases, despite having achieved enormous progress in this field. Future research will be focused on developing FMT efficacy and its safety, diagnostics and therapeutics based on microbiota, and understanding mechanisms underneath host-microbiota interactions. Gut microbiota could transform disease management and better general health outcomes if appropriately integrated into public health programs and personalized medicine.

Conclusion

The gut microbiota and metabolites influence many metabolic functions, host immunity, and the integrity of the intestinal barrier. Because of microbial diversity and metabolic pattern imbalance, intestinal diseases like IBD can be caused by understanding the microbial communities and making required modifications. Some of the SCFAs, secondary bile acids, and derivatives of tryptophan metabolites can function as a signalling molecule at the level of the mucosa, holding a modulated inflammatory and immunological state that extensively helps to support intestinal homeostasis. These metabolites activate corresponding receptors on intestinal epithelial cells and mucosal immune cells, so indirectly affecting the state of the host's health as well as the function of its immune system. Since the disturbances caused by gut microbiota dysbiosis in the framework of liver cirrhosis are so severe, there is great interest in looking at probiotics and synbiotics as possible therapeutic approaches. Some of the novel therapeutic approaches that also help preserve the balance of gut microbiota and alter the gut-liver axis include probiotics, prebiotics, synbiotics, and faecal microbiota transplantation.

These therapies promise much in the treatment of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. Implications for gut microbiota on immunological responses and the effectivity of anticancer therapy drugs offer potential benefits from the interference with microbiota intervention on the outcomes of anticancer therapies. These factors have enormous implications in the selection of patients, prevention of disease, and development of treatment considering the advanced understanding of the complex interplay among host physiology, gut microbiota, and microbial metabolites. Future research into this field can achieve new therapeutic methods discovered by exploiting the therapeutic potential of gut

microbiota in improving outcomes for several medical conditions.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that none of their known competing financial interests or personal relationships could influence the findings of this study.

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