

UNDERSTANDING & TREATING CHRONIC DIGESTIVE ILLNESSES

A Guide to Digestive Well-Being



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Note to the Reader:

This abridged version of the Digestive Health Guidebook has been created to improve readability by removing footnotes, references, and images found in the full edition. To assist with scientific terms used throughout the text, a comprehensive glossary is provided in the Appendix. For those who would like to explore detailed citations, references, and graphics, the expanded version of the guidebook is available at www.kramermedicalclinic.com

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Prologue

Good health—true wellness—is not simply the absence of disease, but the dynamic outcome of a well-orchestrated alliance between three essential forces: the human body, the microbial world within us, and the environment around us. This triad, or *trifecta*, forms a complex network of interactions that shape every aspect of our physiology, immunity, and resilience. These interactions do not occur in isolation but within specialized microenvironments in our body, *ecosystems*, which are found in virtually every organ in the body.

Each of these ecosystems serves as a stage where our resident microbes—trillions of bacteria, viruses, fungi, protozoa and archaea—interface with environmental factors such as diet, medications, pollutants, and lifestyle. These microbial encounters with the outside world give rise to chemical byproducts called *metabolites*. While many of these metabolites support the survival of the microbes themselves, an extraordinary number of them also benefit us, their hosts. Some nourish the cells lining our intestines, others regulate our immune system, protect us against inflammation, make essential vitamins, control intestinal motility, help protect against cancer and even influence our mood and brain function.

We are not powerless participants in this process. As humans, we have the ability to make choices that influence these interactions. We determine, to a significant extent, what enters our bodies: the food we eat, the air we breathe, the water we drink, the unregulated supplements we allow into our bodies, and the environments in which we live. These choices directly impact the composition and behavior of our internal microbial communities. By nourishing beneficial microbes with appropriate nutrients, such as dietary fiber and polyphenols, and by avoiding harmful exposures like ultra-processed foods, and environmental toxins, we can shape healthier internal ecosystems.

The guidebook that follows is designed to illuminate this intricate relationship between body, microbe, and environment. It aims to offer readers both a conceptual framework and practical strategies to promote a mutually beneficial coexistence—one that enhances health, prevents disease, and strengthens the body's natural resilience. In doing so, it encourages readers to become good stewards of their inner ecosystems.

CAROLINE'S CASE HISTORY



INTRODUCTION

The human digestive tract is not just a collection of organs and cells; it is interconnected constellation of ecosystems, where trillions of microorganisms interact within the body to shape health and disease. Caroline's case, which became the inspiration for this guidebook, illustrates the importance of recognizing and working within this ecological framework.

At 45, Caroline — a legal secretary — had suffered for years with chronic digestive symptoms: recurring nausea, abdominal bloating, uncomfortable fullness after meals, excess belching, and irregular bowel habits. Caroline had seen multiple doctors — primary care physicians, gastroenterologists, integrative specialists, psychiatrists

— and undergone an exhaustive series of tests: bloodwork, imaging, endoscopies. Every result was considered “normal.”

She had cycled through an array of diets — lactose-free, gluten-free, low FODMAP, keto, Paleo, and intermittent fasting — none bringing lasting relief. Anti-anxiety and anti-depressant medications were added by mental health consultants which she quickly abandoned due to worsening symptoms.

At the time of her first visit, Caroline was taking four prescription medications and a collection of multiple supplements. Throughout her visit, she expressed her deep sense of frustration and despair.

What had been missed in all prior assessments was the role of Caroline’s gut’s microbial ecology: the dynamic interplay between microorganisms, gut cells, and environmental exposures, including diet. By shifting the clinical focus from isolated organ dysfunction to the broader context of gut-microbe interactions, Caroline’s treatment took a more promising turn — and her long-standing symptoms began to improve.

This guidebook explores the scientific principles behind such microbial-ecosystem approaches and offered a path of understanding — and hope — for Caroline and the many others who share her struggles.

The next section introduces The Seven Pillars of Digestive Health — a comprehensive framework designed to help patients, practitioners, and caregivers understand the key elements

necessary for restoring and maintaining digestive well-being. These pillars draw upon the latest insights from microbiome science, nutritional therapy, and integrative medicine, offering a roadmap that emphasizes balance, nourishment, and repair.

By approaching digestive health through these seven interconnected foundations, the aim is to provide strategies that can be tailored to individual needs, just as they were in rethinking Caroline's care plan.

Understanding the Seven Pillars of Human Wellness



Health is not a singular or isolated phenomenon; it is the result of a dynamic interplay among biological, environmental, and genetic factors. The remarkable complexity and resilience of the human body in maintaining homeostasis depend on seven fundamental pillars: genetics, metabolism, microorganisms, immunity,

nutrients, communication systems (vascular, neural, hormonal), and environmental influences.

These interconnected systems form the foundation of wellness. Disruption in any one pillar can reverberate through the others, increasing the risk of disease. A comprehensive understanding of these systems provides a framework for preventive care and personalized health management.

1. Genetics: The Blueprint of Life

Our genetic inheritance profoundly influences health outcomes. Mitochondrial DNA, passed exclusively through the maternal line, determines the efficiency of cellular energy production and plays a pivotal role in metabolism and aging. Genetic predispositions can also shape an individual's risk for metabolic disorders, autoimmune conditions, and neurodegenerative diseases.

However, genes are not destiny. Epigenetic factors—such as diet, stress, and environmental exposures—can modify gene expression, altering the trajectory of health. Understanding genetic influences paves the way for personalized medicine and preventive strategies tailored to individual risk profiles.

2. Metabolic Health: The Energy Economy of the Body

Metabolism encompasses the biochemical processes that govern energy production and utilization. A healthy metabolism ensures efficient processing of carbohydrates, fats, and proteins to

maintain energy balance. Key factors include insulin sensitivity, mitochondrial function, and hormonal regulation.

In modern society, sedentary lifestyles and diets rich in ultra-processed foods have led to a surge in metabolic disorders such as diabetes, obesity, and metabolic-associated steatotic liver disease (MASLD). Promoting metabolic health through physical activity, nutrient-dense diets, and stress management is essential to preventing chronic illness.

3. Microorganisms: The Invisible Ecosystems Within

The human body is host to trillions of microorganisms—collectively known as the microbiome—which influence digestion, immune response, and even brain function. The gut microbiota, in particular, plays critical roles in breaking down complex carbohydrates, synthesizing vitamins, and regulating inflammation.

Imbalances in microbial populations, a condition known as dysbiosis, have been associated with irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), depression, autoimmune disease, and more. Supporting a diverse and balanced microbiome through prebiotic fibers, fermented foods, and cautious antibiotic use is key to maintaining health.

4. Immunity: The Guardian of Health

The immune system acts as the body's defense network, distinguishing between harmful invaders and friendly inhabitants.

A well-functioning immune response protects against infection, cancer, and autoimmune reactions.

Chronic inflammation—driven by poor nutrition, stress, pollutants, or microbial imbalance—can impair immune function and increase the risk of conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis, asthma, and Alzheimer’s disease. Strengthening immunity involves regular sleep, physical activity, stress management, and sufficient intake of nutrients like vitamin D, zinc, and omega-3 fatty acids. **(See the section: *The Biotic Family*)**

5. Nutrients: The Building Blocks of Life

Nutrition provides the essential components for cellular function, energy production, and repair. Macronutrients (carbohydrates, proteins, and fats) supply fuel, while micronutrients (vitamins and minerals) enable thousands of metabolic reactions.

Deficiencies—whether from poor diet, malabsorption, or increased physiological demand—can lead to immune dysfunction, cognitive decline, and systemic disease. Nutrient bioavailability depends on gut health, genetic factors, and dietary composition. A varied, predominantly plant-based diet that meets individual needs supports optimal functioning.

6. Communication Systems: Vascular, Neural, and Hormonal Networks

Health depends on efficient communication between organs and tissues through three primary systems:

- The vascular system, delivering oxygen and nutrients to cells
- The nervous system, coordinating responses via neurotransmitters and neural pathways
- The endocrine system, regulating metabolism, stress, growth, and reproduction through hormones

Disruption in any of these networks—such as poor circulation, neuroinflammation, or hormonal imbalances—can contribute to conditions like hypertension, mood disorders, and metabolic syndrome.

For example, a major communication network is between the gut and the brain known as the gut-brain axis. The gut-brain axis involves bidirectional communications between the gut microbiome and the central nervous system.

Gut bacteria produce substances that affect neurotransmitter production that reaches the brain and can impact mood, cognition, and mental health conditions like anxiety and depression.

Regular exercise, cognitive engagement, and dietary choices can help preserve these communication pathways.

7. Environmental Influences (Exposome): The External Forces Shaping Health

Every day, humans interact with a complex array of environmental inputs—air, water, toxins, and psychosocial factors—that shape long-term health. The exposome includes both physical elements

(pollutants, endocrine disruptors, allergens) and social determinants (stress, relationships, socioeconomic status).

Chronic exposure to environmental insults has been linked to systemic inflammation, metabolic dysfunction, and cognitive impairment. Creating health-supportive environments—clean air and water, access to nature, supportive social networks—can buffer against disease and promote well-being.

A Systems Approach to Health

The seven pillars of health do not operate in isolation. Rather, they form a tightly interwoven web, where imbalance in one area can lead to dysfunction in others. This interconnectivity underscores the importance of a system-based, integrative approach to wellness.

By addressing these foundational elements through preventive care, lifestyle modification, and personalized interventions, individuals can reduce disease risk and optimize their health trajectory. Recognizing the dynamic interplay between genetics, metabolism, microbes, immunity, nutrition, signaling systems, and environment allows for a more precise and sustainable model of health.

A Journey Toward Longevity and Wellness

In the sections that follow, each of the seven pillars will be explored in greater depth. The goal is to empower readers with

knowledge and practical strategies for aligning internal biology with external conditions.

By integrating principles from genetics, immunology, environmental science, microbiology, and physiology, individuals can chart a path toward lasting health, resilience, and longevity.

THE CHIMERIC NATURE OF HUMANS

The Mythological Chimera

The human body can be likened to the mythological Chimera, a creature composed of a lion, a goat, and a serpent—each with distinct identities but functioning as one being. Likewise, the human body is a composite organism, cohabited by six different kingdoms of life: human cells and five distinct microbial domains—bacteria, viruses, fungi, protozoa, and archaea.

This new paradigm compels clinicians and individuals alike to consider the entire ecosystem within the body when diagnosing and treating chronic disease. Much like the mythical Chimera, the human organism is a chimeric entity, reliant on multiple kingdoms of life, each contributing distinct capabilities.

Microbes vastly outnumber human cells and are essential for survival. They assist in digesting nutrients, regulating immune function, and even modulating mood and cognition. Without them, life would not be possible.

This synbiotic relationship urges a redefinition of what it means to be human—and what it means to be healthy. Wellness must now be understood as a cooperative equilibrium among all six domains of life that coexist within the human form.

SECTION ONE

Treating Caroline Required A Different Paradigm

Caroline's previous healthcare providers performed a comprehensive diagnostic workup using standard medical tools: endoscopy, imaging studies, stool analyses, and blood tests. These conventional approaches, while valuable for evaluating organ anatomy and human cellular function, failed to uncover the root cause of her persistent symptoms—and ultimately did not improve her well-being.

A different approach was needed—one that considered not only human cells and organs but also the vast microbial world that coexists within the body. Her symptoms were reinterpreted as signs of dysfunctional digestive ecosystems, also known as intestinal microecological imbalances. This paradigm shift recognizes that health and disease arise not solely from human physiology, but from the complex relationships between host cells, microbial residents, and their shared environment.

Ecosystems Defined

Ecosystems are communities of living organisms interacting with each other and with non-living environmental components, functioning together as an integrated system. The human digestive tract can be viewed as a vast and dynamic ecosystem—one in which body cells and microorganisms interact continuously within defined microenvironments.

In this *Guide*, the digestive tract is considered a collection of interconnected yet distinct ecosystems, each with its own unique structure and microbial inhabitants. These include the oral cavity, esophagus, stomach, small and large intestines, and accessory organs such as the nasal cavity, salivary glands, lungs, pancreas, gallbladder, liver, and appendix.

Each site functions as a specialized microenvironment, influenced not only by its anatomy but also by its microbiology and surrounding conditions. Disruption in one of these interdependent ecosystems can trigger dysfunction across the system, leading to chronic digestive disorders. Understanding digestive health, therefore, requires an appreciation for how each part contributes to the whole.

Modern medical care can no longer separate anatomy and cell biology from microbiology and evolutionary biology. The body is best understood as an integrated eco-biological system.

To unravel the complexities of digestive illness, we must examine how human cells (with their genetic and metabolic functions), microbial organisms, the immune system, nutrient availability, environmental exposures, and two-way signaling networks interact. These interconnected factors help explain how disturbed ecosystems give rise to chronic symptoms—and how restoring balance can become a target for effective therapy.

SECTION TWO

STAGGERING NUMBERS



**Adult Humans Have Thirty Trillion Body Cells with 22,000
Genes**

The Human Microbiome Project (HMP)—a groundbreaking initiative led by the National Institutes of Health (NIH)—brought together over 200 researchers from 80 institutions with the goal of mapping the microbial populations found in healthy adults. Their efforts identified more than 10,000 distinct microbial species inhabiting different regions of the human body.

One of the most striking findings of this project is that microbial cells vastly outnumber human cells. While the human body contains approximately 30 trillion human cells, it harbors an estimated 39 trillion microbial cells. These microbes are not passive passengers—they are actively involved in essential physiological processes, including nutrient metabolism, immune system modulation, and protection against pathogens.

Though precise figures continue to evolve, it is clear that the number of microbial genes far exceeds that of the human genome. Human cells carry roughly 22,000 protein-coding genes, while microbial communities collectively contribute millions of genes. These microbial genes encode enzymes and proteins critical to breaking down complex carbohydrates, synthesizing essential vitamins, and modulating immune responses.

Humans and their microbiota have co-evolved as a synbiotic system, in which the health of one is deeply dependent on the health of the other. The body provides a stable, nutrient-rich environment for microbial survival, while microbes perform functions the human genome alone cannot accomplish. When this

delicate balance is disrupted, a wide range of health complications can result—highlighting the importance of maintaining a diverse, resilient microbiome.

Cohabiting Microbes Contain Over 200 Million Genes

Each microorganism carries genes that encode proteins essential for its survival and its interactions within the host environment. Similarly, human genes regulate bodily processes and help mediate interactions with the external world.

A large-scale study by Dr. Brandon Tierney and colleagues at Harvard Medical School examined the microbiomes of 3,600 adults. Their findings revealed that the human digestive tract alone contains approximately 200 million non-redundant microbial genes.

When bacteriophages—viruses that infect bacteria—are included, the total gene count increases dramatically. These viruses contribute additional layers of genetic material, potentially adding hundreds of millions of genes to the ecosystem.

Our knowledge, however, about phages is limited since the vast majority of them remain unmapped. It's accurate to say that the expanded gene pool contributed by phages further amplifies the complexity and adaptability of the gut microbiome.

Tierney's team also discovered that the digestive tract contains up to 150,000 unique microbial strains, many with minor genetic

variations even within the same species. These differences influence individual responses to diet, susceptibility to illness, immune signaling, and metabolic capacity—offering a clearer picture of why health outcomes vary so widely from person to person.

Together, these findings reinforce a central idea: the human gut is not just a site of digestion—it is a genetically rich constellation of ecosystems whose diversity and integrity are fundamental to health.

The next section explores thirty-six (36) distinct functions that microbes perform for their human host. Many more have yet to be discovered.

SECTION THREE

THE BENEFICIAL ROLE OF MICROBES IN THE LARGE AND SMALL INTESTINES THAT SUPPORT WELL-BEING

Below is a listing of some of the many benefits that the host derives from interaction with select microbes.

1. Fuel For Colonocytes: Butyrate is the primary energy source for colonocytes accounting for up to 70% of their energy needs, enhancing mucosal integrity and promoting cell survival.

2. Tight Junction Reinforcement: Short-chain fatty acids, particularly butyrate activates pathways that strengthen tight junctions, helping to seal the epithelial barrier.

3. Mucus Layer Support: Short-chain fatty acids stimulate the secretion of mucin by goblet cells, maintaining the intestinal mucus barrier and protecting epithelial cells from microbial invasion.

4. Ph Modulation: Short-chain fatty acids through the process of fermentation lower the luminal pH and suppress pathogenic bacterial growth, creating an environment favorable for beneficial microbes.

5. Epithelial Oxygen Regulation: Short-chain fatty acids regulate the consumption of oxygen by lining cells of the digestive tract which helps maintain a low oxygen environment that favors the growth of anaerobic microbes.

6. T Reg Cell Development: Butyrate and propionate promote the differentiation of regulatory T cells that are critical for suppressing inflammation and autoimmunity.

7. Cytokine Balance: SCFAs decrease pro-inflammatory cytokines like TNF alpha and IL-6, and increase anti-inflammatory markers like IL-10.

8. HDAC Inhibition: Histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibition by butyrate alters gene expression in immune cells thereby reducing inflammation.

9. Protection Against Intestinal Infections: The short-chain fatty acid, acetate, enhances epithelial defense and immune responses to reduce pathogen burden.

10. Allergy and Autoimmunity Regulation: Short-chain fatty acids induce Treg cells and suppress hypersensitivity reactions, reduce allergic inflammation and the development of autoimmunity.

11. Colorectal Cancer Protection: Butyrate induces apoptosis and cell cycle arrest in cancerous colonocytes potentially preventing the development of colon cancer.

12. Epigenetic Control: Short-chain fatty acids alter chromatin structure by inhibiting HDACs and altering gene transcription.

13. Appetite Regulation: The short-chain fatty acid propionate stimulates the secretion of satiety hormones such as PYY and GLP-1 from enteroendocrine cells thereby promoting satiety and reducing calorie intake.

14. Glucose Metabolism and Insulin Sensitivity: Butyrate improves glucose tolerance and insulin sensitivity via its effects on skeletal muscle and adipocytes (fat cells).

15. Lipid Metabolism and Storage of Fat: Butyrate and propionate suppress lipogenesis and promote fatty acid oxidation in liver and fat cells.

16. Blood Pressure Regulation: Propionate interacts with receptors in the kidney to modulate renin and vasodilation which control blood pressure.

17. Nitrogen and Ammonia Detoxification: Butyrate reduces colonic pH which limits the absorption and toxicity of ammonia.

18. Hepatic Function: Short-chain fatty acids regulate fat metabolism in the liver, reducing hepatic steatosis (fatty liver) and inflammation.

19. Precursor For Longer-Chain Metabolites: Acetate and other short-chain fatty acids are substrates for the production of cholesterol and fatty acids.

20. Enhanced Mineral Absorption: Short-chain fatty acids induce acidification of the colon and enhance the solubility and uptake of minerals like calcium and magnesium.

21. More Microbial Stability and Diversity: Short-chain fatty acids support cross-feeding among microbe species, thus promoting a resilient and diverse microbe population.

22. Gut-Brain Axis Support: Butyrate crosses the blood-brain barrier and influences neurogenesis, neurotransmitter synthesis, and neuroinflammation.

23. Satiety and Food Intake Regulation: Increased short-chain fatty acid levels lead to reduced caloric intake and modulation of brain's appetite centers.

24. Regulation of Bile Acid Synthesis and Composition: Short-chain fatty acids influence gut microbe composition that in turn modifies bile acid profiles.

25. Modulation of Colon Transit: Butyrate stimulates serotonin release from enterochromaffin cells enhancing colon peristalsis and influencing bowel regularity.

26. Association With Preeclampsia: Women with preeclampsia show altered SCFA profiles, suggesting roles in placental immune regulation.

27. Influence on Fertility and Pregnancy Outcomes: Higher short-chain fatty acid levels correlate with healthier reproductive and environments, embryo implantation and pregnancy success.

28. Potential Impact On Retinal Health: Butyrate reduces retinal inflammation and protects against oxidative stress in ocular tissues.

29. Enhancement of Bone Metabolism Through Butyrate-Mediated Parathyroid Hormone Activation: Butyrate activates parathyroid hormone signaling, stimulating osteoblast activity and promoting bone formation.

30. Strengthening of Skin Barrier and Reduction of Inflammation Through SCFA-Mediated Keratinocyte Modulation: Short-chain fatty acids improve mitochondrial function and barrier integrity in keratinocytes, reducing skin inflammation.

31. Renal Health Support Via SCFA-Mediated Modulation of Energy and Immune Homeostasis: Short-chain fatty acids regulate immune responses in the kidney and protect against inflammation-induced renal injury.

32. Pancreatic Regulation Through SCFA Effects on Lipid and Glucose Metabolism: Short-chain fatty acids modulate enteroendocrine signaling thus impacting insulin production and pancreatic beta-cell function.

33. Anti-Inflammatory Effects of SCFAs In the Pulmonary System: Butyrate and propionate reduce lung inflammation and promote immune tolerance in models of asthma and acute lung injury.

34. Potential Role In Neurodegenerative Disease Modulation by the Gut-Brain Axis: Short-chain fatty acids modulate microglial activity, reduce neuroinflammation, and may protect against cognitive decline in models of Alzheimer's dementia and Parkinson's disease.

35. Attenuation of Atherosclerosis or Reduction In Lipids, Oxidative Stress, and Foam Cell Formation: Propionate reduces arterial plaque burden, foam cell formation, and systemic inflammation, improving cardiovascular outcomes.

36. Suppression of Oral Inflammation and Periodontal Disease Progression: Butyrate and acetate reduce gingival inflammation and inhibit pathogenic oral bacteria.

POLYPHENOLS

Polyphenols represent another foundational category of plant-derived compounds that influence gastrointestinal and systemic health. They interact intimately with the gut microbiota. While fermentable fibers serve as direct substrates for microbial fermentation and SCFA production, polyphenols often act as modulators—reshaping the microbiota’s composition and function.¹

Both polyphenols and dietary fiber modulate the gut microbiota, but in distinct ways. Polyphenols tend to exert selective pressure, inhibiting pathogenic bacteria while promoting beneficial species such as *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus*. In doing so, they indirectly influence SCFA production by favoring microbial communities that ferment fiber more efficiently.

There is increasing evidence of synergy between polyphenols and fiber. Many polyphenol-rich foods—such as berries, apples, legumes, and whole grains—also contain fiber. Fiber may slow intestinal transit, promoting polyphenol retention in the colon and enhancing microbial transformation.

In conclusion, while dietary fiber remains the primary driver of SCFA production, polyphenols shape the microbial ecosystem that governs fermentation dynamics. Fiber provides the metabolic fuel; polyphenols refine and direct its combustion. The interplay of these compounds within the gut underscores the importance of

whole-plant foods in health promotion, suggesting that a food-first strategy may yield greater microbial and metabolic benefits than isolated supplementation alone.

In subsequent sections, strategies to restore and rejuvenate dysbiotic microbial ecosystems will be explored. These include the use of prebiotics, probiotics, postbiotics, synbiotics and dietary therapies that enhance SCFA production and the production of polyphenols which will support a balanced microbial community.

SECTION FOUR

ENEMIES AT THE GATES:

THE MULTILAYERED DEFENSES OF THE GUT AGAINST PATHOGENS AND FOREIGN ANTIGENS

The human gut represents a sophisticated barrier and surveillance system designed to protect the host from pathogens and harmful antigens while maintaining a delicate balance with trillions of resident microorganisms. This complex, multilayered defense system incorporates physical barriers, immune responses, and synbiotic relationships with commensal bacteria, each playing a critical role in safeguarding the intestinal ecosystem. However, targeted disruptions to these defenses by toxins, microbes, or

foreign antigens can breach the barriers, triggering inflammation and chronic illnesses.

Commensal Bacteria: Protecting their Niche and the Host

Commensal bacteria, the gut's resident microbiota, play a dual role in maintaining health. By occupying niches along the intestinal lining, they outcompete pathogenic microbes, producing antimicrobial compounds like bacteriocins and short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) such as butyrate, which reinforce the gut barrier. Moreover, these microbes modulate the host immune system, promoting regulatory pathways that prevent overactive immune responses. Importantly, they also help regulate the gut's oxygen gradient, ensuring an environment conducive to microbial diversity and barrier health. These microbial survival strategies protect the host, highlighting a mutualistic relationship.

The Mucus Layer: A Physical and Chemical Shield

The intestinal mucus layer, composed primarily of mucins secreted by goblet cells, serves as a physical barrier that prevents direct contact between luminal microbes and epithelial cells.

In the colon, this layer is stratified, with an inner sterile zone and an outer layer rich in commensal bacteria. In the small intestine, however, the mucus layer is a single, non-stratified layer which is much thinner and less densely organized than the colon mucus. The small intestine mucus layer is more permeable and allows

nutrients to pass through while still providing some degree of protection against microbial invasion.

The mucus in the small intestine is constantly being replenished by goblet cells which help minimize bacterial adherence and support the immune response.

Mucins bind to and trap pathogens, facilitating their clearance. Disruption of the mucus barrier—caused by inflammation, infections, or external insults—is associated with increased vulnerability to microbial invasion and gut permeability.

CONDITIONS ASSOCIATED WITH **ABNORMAL INTESTINAL BARRIER** **FUNCTION**

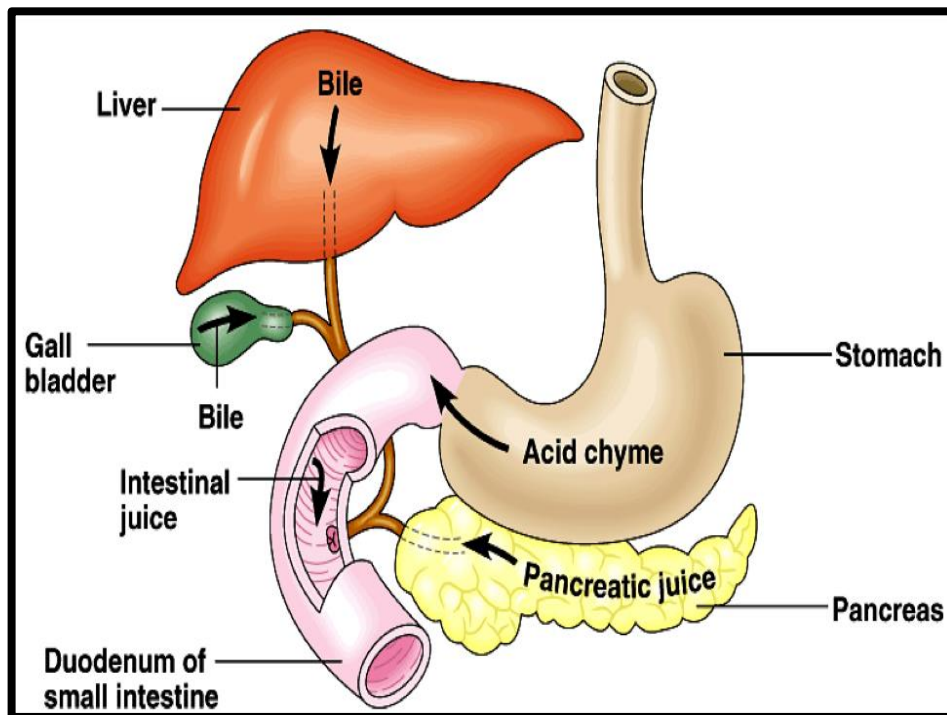
Intestinal barrier dysfunction has been associated with numerous conditions:

- Bacterial and viral infections
- Obesity
- Fatty liver disease
- Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD)
- Alcohol-induced liver disease
- Cirrhosis
- Pancreatitis
- Diabetes

- Depression
- Neurodegenerative disorders
- Cardiovascular disease

SECTION FIVE:

BILE—A MAJOR SECRETION INFLUENCING THE DIGESTIVE TRACT ECOSYSTEMS



MICROBIAL TRANSFORMATION OF BILE ACIDS AND THEIR POTENTIAL EFFECTS ON THE HOST

Bile acids play a key role in digesting fats, absorbing fat-soluble vitamins, and regulating cholesterol levels. They also play a multifaceted role in human health beyond their traditional function of fat digestion.

Bile—More Than A Detergent

Traditionally viewed as a digestive agent for fat absorption, bile plays numerous vital roles in human health, highlighting its multifunctionality and importance. Some of the many functions of bile include the following:

- **The Role of Bile In Fat Digestion**

Bile emulsifies fats in the small intestine, increasing their surface area for easier enzyme access and enhancing absorption by intestinal cells.

- **Bile As a Signaling Molecule**

Beyond digestion, bile acids act as signaling molecules, influencing lipid, glucose, and energy metabolism by binding to receptors in various tissues, thus highlighting their therapeutic potential for metabolic disorders.

- **Bile As a Waste Clearance Agent**

Bile is essential for excreting waste products like bilirubin and excess cholesterol. In the liver, approximately 500 mg of

cholesterol is converted daily into bile acids, underlining bile's role in cholesterol management and cardiovascular health.

- **Bile As an Antimicrobial Agent**

Bile acids help regulate microbial populations by inhibiting the overgrowth of acid-resistant bacteria that reach the small intestine, highlighting their importance in preventing Small Intestinal Bacterial Overgrowth (SIBO).

- **Bile As an Anti-Cancer Secretion**

Bile acids influence digestive tract microorganisms and cellular signaling pathways, with emerging evidence supporting a protective role against colon and rectal cancer.

- **Microbial Alterations of Bile**

Certain microbes can alter bile acids, reducing their efficacy. These transformations include deconjugation, dehydroxylation, dehydrogenation, and epimerization, along with newly discovered amino acid conjugation.

THE EFFECTS OF REMOVING THE GALLBLADDER ON BILE ACID PHYSIOLOGY

Removal of the gallbladder (cholecystectomy) significantly alters bile acid physiology by changing how bile is stored, released, and recycled—leading to various downstream effects on digestion, microbial ecology, and intestinal health.

1. Loss of Bile Storage and Pulsatile Release

The gallbladder serves as a reservoir that concentrates and stores bile between meals. After cholecystectomy, bile produced by the liver flows continuously into the small intestine, even in the absence of food. This results in loss of controlled, meal-stimulated bile delivery, impairing optimal fat digestion and micelle formation.

2. Disruption of Enterohepatic Circulation

Under normal physiology, 95% of bile acids are reabsorbed in the distal ileum (last portions of the small intestine) and returned to the liver via enterohepatic circulation. Without the gallbladder, bile acids circulate more frequently but in smaller, less concentrated amounts, reducing efficiency and altering bile acid pool composition.

3. Increased Risk of Bile Acid Malabsorption (BAM)

Continuous bile flow into the colon—especially when bile acids are not efficiently reabsorbed—can overwhelm the colon's absorptive capacity. This leads to diarrhea, gas, and bloating, characteristic of bile acid diarrhea (a type of BAM).

4. Alteration of Bile Acid Composition

Bile acids become more deconjugated and transformed into secondary bile acids due to prolonged exposure to gut microbes. This can lead to accumulation of cytotoxic and potentially

carcinogenic bile acids like lithocholic acid (LCA), especially in the colon.

5. Impact on the Gut Microbiome

The antimicrobial action of bile acids affects microbial communities. Changes in bile flow and composition after gallbladder removal may promote dysbiosis, increasing susceptibility to small intestinal bacterial overgrowth (SIBO), colonic inflammation, or *C. difficile* infection.

6. Metabolic Effects

Altered bile acid signaling through FXR and TGR5 receptors can affect glucose and lipid metabolism, possibly increasing risk for insulin resistance or non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD).

SECTION SIX

SIBO--A MISNOMER REFLECTING POLYMICROBIAL DYSBIOSIS

Small Intestinal Bacterial Overgrowth (SIBO) has long been used to describe a condition characterized by excessive bacterial growth in the small intestine, leading to symptoms such as bloating, diarrhea, and abdominal discomfort. Emerging research, however, suggests that this term may be a misnomer, as the condition often involves not just bacteria but a complex interplay of

microorganisms, including viruses, protozoa, fungi, and archaea. A more accurate term would reflect this condition, such as *polymicrobial dysbiosis*, (P.D.). The term polymicrobial dysbiosis acknowledges the diverse ecosystem disruptions caused by microorganism which contribute to disease.

The Concept of Polymicrobial Dysbiosis

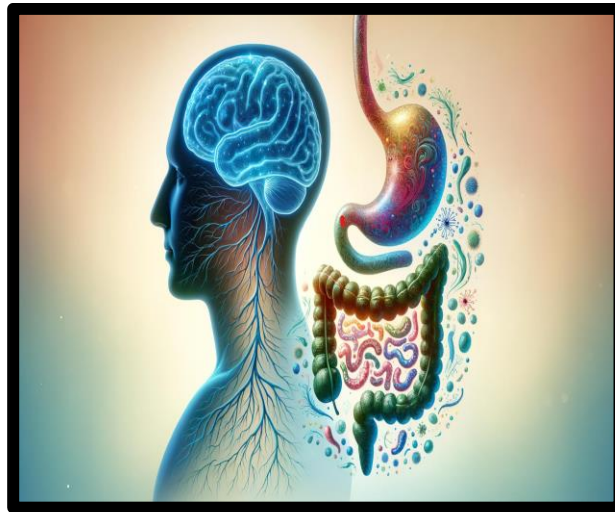
Polymicrobial dysbiosis (P.D.) refers to an imbalance in the microbial populations of the digestive tract that extends beyond bacteria—i.e., the wrong number, in the wrong place at the wrong time. The dysbiosis involves:

- **Bacteria:** Overgrowth of aerobic or anaerobic bacteria that disrupts the delicate balance of microbial populations.
- **Archaea:** Methanogenic archaea, such as *Methanobrevibacter smithii*, which is often implicated in methane-dominant breath test results and associated with conditions like chronic constipation.
- **Fungi:** Overgrowth of fungal species like *Candida* that can exacerbate inflammation and gastrointestinal symptoms.
- **Viruses:** Certain gut-associated viruses that can alter microbial interactions and immune responses.
- **Protozoa:** Parasites such as *Giardia* that can coexist with bacterial overgrowth, compounding dysbiosis-related symptoms.

This broader understanding shifts the focus from a single bacterial overgrowth to a more complex microbial imbalance.

SECTION SEVEN:

THE IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION **BETWEEN THE DIGESTIVE TRACT AND** **THE BRAIN**



THE BRAIN-GUT CONNECTION

MECHANISMS LINKING GUT DYSBIOSIS TO NEUROINFLAMMATION

The intricate relationship between the gut and the brain, often referred to as the gut-brain axis, has garnered significant attention in recent years. Emerging evidence suggests that gut dysbiosis—an imbalance in the gut microbiota—is intricately linked to the

pathogenesis of various neuropsychiatric and neurological disorders. Evidence suggests that there exists processes and pathways through which gut dysbiosis contributes to persistent immune activation and increased blood-brain barrier (BBB) permeability, leading to neuroinflammation and the disruption of brain homeostasis.

Gut Dysbiosis and Immune Activation

The human gastrointestinal (GI) tract harbors a complex microbial ecosystem that communicates with the brain through neuroendocrine, immune, and autonomic pathways. Dysbiosis, characterized by an imbalance in this microbial community, can lead to the release of microbial metabolites and cellular components that act as signaling molecules within the gut-brain axis. These molecules can activate local gastrointestinal pathways and, upon entering systemic circulation, influence distant organs, including the brain. Notably, gut dysbiosis has been linked to neurological disorders through mechanisms involving activation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, systemic inflammation, and increased permeability of both the intestinal and blood-brain barriers.

Increased Blood-Brain Barrier Permeability

The integrity of the BBB is critical for maintaining the brain's microenvironment. Emerging evidence suggests that gut dysbiosis can lead to increased intestinal permeability, allowing microbial

products like lipopolysaccharides (LPS) to enter the bloodstream. These endotoxins can disrupt BBB integrity, facilitating the entry of pro-inflammatory cytokines and immune cells into the central nervous system (CNS), thereby promoting neuroinflammation.

Neuroinflammatory Cascade and Brain Homeostasis

Once the BBB is compromised, microbial metabolites and immune cells can access the CNS, triggering a neuroinflammatory cascade. This inflammation disrupts brain homeostasis and has been linked to the development and progression of various neurodegenerative diseases⁷. For instance, microbial dysbiosis leads to a proinflammatory milieu and systemic endotoxemia, contributing to the development of neurodegenerative diseases.

Association with Neurological and Psychiatric Disorders

The gut-brain axis plays a pivotal role in regulating neural, endocrine, immune, and humoral pathways. An imbalance in gut microbiota composition has been identified as a critical factor in several disorders, including Alzheimer's disease, schizophrenia, anxiety, depression, epilepsy, migraines, autism, and Parkinson's disease. For example, alterations in gut microbiota have been linked to neuroinflammation and synaptic dysfunction, which are key features in the pathophysiology of these conditions.

SECTION EIGHT

MICROBE FUNCTIONALITY: **A PARADIGM SHIFT**

The Limits of Microbial Census: Why Density and Diversity Alone Cannot Define Health or Disease

Over the past two decades, scientific and clinical interest in the human microbiome has grown exponentially. Researchers have mapped the bacterial communities of the skin, mouth, gut, and genitourinary tract, revealing complex ecosystems whose collective gene pool—often called the microbiome—dwarfs the human genome by orders of magnitude. As already pointed out, these discoveries have helped shift medicine’s view of the human body from an autonomous entity to a synbiotic “superorganism” cohabiting with trillions of microbes.

In clinical microbiome research and diagnostics, two metrics have received disproportionate attention: density (how many microbes are present) and diversity (how many different types). While these are foundational to understanding community structure, they are inadequate as standalone measures of health or disease. A microbiome can appear dense and diverse on DNA sequencing, and yet be functionally inert, pathogenically active, or systemically destabilizing.

Measures of microbial load and alpha diversity (i.e., the number of species present and their relative balance) have been linked to health outcomes across numerous studies. A low-diversity gut microbiome has been associated with obesity, inflammatory bowel disease, and immune dysregulation.

However, this correlation does not imply causation—and the picture is far more nuanced. For example, patients with Crohn's disease can exhibit elevated microbial density due to blooms of inflammatory microbe species like *Escherichia coli* yet have impaired barrier function and immune tolerance.

Similarly, a person exposed to antibiotics might show reduced diversity, but if the remaining organisms are synbiotic and metabolically active, the microbiome may still fulfill essential health-promoting roles.

In other words, microbial presence does not guarantee microbial performance. To equate the census of organisms with their physiological impact is to mistake structure for function.

Microbes are not passive residents—they are biochemical powerhouses capable of synthesizing neurotransmitters, detoxifying carcinogens, regulating inflammation, and modulating gene expression in host tissues.

Overreliance on DNA-based census methods (e.g., 16S rRNA or shotgun metagenomics) can lead to misleading conclusions. A diverse microbiome that is metabolically dormant or producing

harmful metabolites can appear “healthy” on paper. Conversely, a seemingly sparse microbiome may be performing critical anti-inflammatory or metabolic roles.

Understanding the functional output of microbial communities is essential for identifying therapeutic targets, designing effective probiotics or dietary interventions, monitoring disease progression or response to therapy, and developing personalized microbiome diagnostics.¹

The human microbiome is not a static list of species but a dynamic, context-sensitive metabolic organ. While measures of density and diversity provide a structural overview, they cannot capture the behavioral state of this organ.

Only then can scientists understand whether microbial inhabitants are serving us, ignoring us, or slowly contributing to our decline.

Inflammation is increasingly viewed not only as a localized immune response but as a systemic signaling state shaped by the microbiome.

It is now evident that microbial shifts are deeply implicated in a range of disorders including cardiovascular, neurodegenerative and metabolic disorders.

ENDANGERED MICROBES

The modern food supply is laden with chemical additives—herbicides, pesticides, colorants, preservatives, and emulsifiers—that can negatively affect microbial health. Studies suggest that these additives may compromise gut integrity, disrupt microbial composition, and create an environment where pathogenic microbes can thrive unchecked.

Lifestyle Choices And Microbial Health

Lifestyle choices play a significant role in shaping the gut microbiome. Alcohol, tobacco, and recreational drug use have been shown to damage beneficial microbes while promoting an inflammatory gut environment. Furthermore, inadequate oral hygiene can contribute to microbial imbalances in the digestive tract.

The oral cavity serves as the "headwaters" of the gastrointestinal system, and pathogenic overgrowth here can have downstream consequences, including increased risks of periodontitis, dysbiosis, and systemic inflammation.

The rapid rise in autoimmune illnesses has been impacted by gut microorganisms, genetics, the environment and gut permeability. The evidence has been illustrated best with lupus, type 1 diabetes and multiple sclerosis.

SECTION NINE:

STRESS AND THE MICROBIOME

Biological, Environmental, and Psychological Stressors:

In healthy adults, various forms of stress—biological, environmental, and psychological—interact with the gut microbiome. Studies utilizing stool samples and assessments of stress across three domains—perceived stress, stressful life events, and biological stress (measured via heart rate variability, specifically reduced respiratory sinus arrhythmia, or RSA)—have revealed significant connections influencing health outcomes and stress resilience.

Gut Microbiome Diversity and Stress:

Research indicates that gut microbial diversity (alpha and beta diversity) varies with individuals' stress levels. Lower perceived stress is associated with greater microbial diversity, often linked to better health outcomes. Conversely, higher stress levels, whether due to psychological perception or biological responses, correlate with distinct changes in microbial composition.

Specific Microbes and Stress Levels:

Certain microbial populations are associated with stress responses. For instance, higher levels of *Escherichia/Shigella* have been linked to increased perceived stress, while lower levels of *Clostridium*

correlate with reduced biological stress (RSA). These associations suggest that specific microbial profiles may reflect how the body processes stress.

Microbial Functions and Stress Modulation:

The gut microbiome's ability to produce beneficial compounds like butyrate—a short-chain fatty acid known to reduce inflammation, support brain health, and improve stress resilience—has been noted. Conversely, microbes producing harmful substances like formaldehyde may contribute to cognitive decline. This dual role underscores the microbiome's potential influence on both mental and physical health.

Implications for Stress Management:

These findings suggest that promoting a healthy gut microbiome through diet, probiotics, or other interventions could improve stress resilience. Identifying specific microbes or microbial functions associated with reduced stress may lead to targeted therapies in the future.

While prior research has focused on clinical populations with stress-related disorders, recent studies uniquely explore stress-microbiome links in healthy individuals, opening the door to preventive strategies aimed at enhancing resilience before stress-related conditions develop. Understanding how gut microbes interact with diverse types of stress may help design interventions tailored to individual needs, potentially improving overall well-being.

SECTION TEN:

THE SILENT CRISIS OF FIBER DEFICIENCY IN THE U.S. ADULT POPULATION

LESS THAN 10% OF U.S. ADULTS EAT RECOMMENDED LEVELS OF DIETARY FIBER:

Despite its benefits, dietary fiber intake remains below recommended levels for a large segment of the U.S. population. Specifically, only about 7.4% of adults meet the recommended daily intake of dietary fiber.

According to U.S. federal guidelines, the recommended fiber intake is 14 grams of fiber for every 1,000 calories consumed each day. This translates to approximately 25 grams per day for adult women and 38 grams per day for adult men. However, current data indicates that the average fiber consumption falls well short of these recommendations, with women consuming about 9.9 grams of fiber per 1,000 calories and men about 8.7 grams per 1,000 calories.

Understanding or adhering to these guidelines poses several challenges. One notable issue is the lack of specificity regarding the type of fiber individuals should consume. Fiber is categorized into several types: soluble, insoluble, fermentable, and non-

fermentable, each with distinct functions and health benefits. For example, fermentable fibers contribute to gut health by serving as fuel for beneficial gut bacteria and producing short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) such as butyrate, while non-fermentable fibers provide bulk and aid in bowel movement without undergoing significant fermentation.

Given this complexity, it is difficult to provide a one-size-fits-all approach to fiber intake. Individual factors such as genetics, gut microbiota composition, metabolic rate, and health status all influence how fiber is processed and utilized in the body. This variability makes it challenging to predict the exact benefit of a specific type or amount of fiber for each person.

The emphasis, therefore, should not be on trying to achieve an exact quantity of fiber or worrying excessively about the proportions of soluble versus insoluble or fermentable versus non-fermentable fiber. Instead, it is more practical and beneficial to focus on consuming a diverse array of natural fiber sources. This means prioritizing whole foods that are close to their natural state, such as fresh fruits, vegetables, beans, legumes, whole grains, nuts, seeds, polyols, and resistant starches.

Additionally, preparation methods can impact the fiber content and its benefits, underscoring the importance of choosing minimally processed foods.

Natural sources of fiber not only provide a balanced mix of soluble and insoluble types but also come with a variety of vitamins, minerals, and antioxidants that support overall health. This approach helps ensure a more holistic intake of dietary fiber that aligns with the body's varied needs. The use of synthetic fibers or highly processed foods fortified with fiber may not deliver the same comprehensive benefits as naturally fiber-rich foods.

To summarize, while federal guidelines on fiber intake provide a helpful baseline, individuals should strive for a flexible and varied approach to meeting their fiber needs. Incorporating a wide range of natural fiber sources into daily meals and snacks, with a focus on whole, unprocessed foods, can help support digestive health, metabolic function, and overall well-being without the need for precise calculations.

SECTION ELEVEN:

UNIQUE FIBER-LIKE PRODUCTS

COMING-OF-AGE

Traditionally, dietary fibers have come from fruits, vegetables, nuts, seeds, whole grains, beans, and legumes. However, there are unique fibers such as resistant starch, potato starch, agricultural and food industry byproducts, seaweed, mushrooms, human milk oligosaccharides, lignin, chitin, and chitosan.

RESISTANT STARCH

Starch is a carbohydrate composed of multiple chains of glucose molecules. Plants synthesize starch during photosynthesis and store it as an energy reserve. When humans consume starchy foods, the body typically breaks down these chains into smaller glucose units to provide energy. However, some starches resist enzymatic digestion in the small intestine and reach the large intestine unchanged or only slightly altered. These are known as "resistant starches" and are classified as a form of dietary fiber.

Once in the large intestine, microorganisms ferment resistant starches, producing active metabolites like short-chain fatty acids. Because resistant starches bypass the small intestine, they do not contribute to blood glucose levels.

Studies suggest that early human diets, rich in wild plants, fruits, nuts, seeds, roots, and tubers, provided a high fiber intake, with a sizable portion coming from resistant starches. Estimates indicate that these diets may have provided 75-150 g of total fiber per day.

Potential Side Effects Of Ingesting Resistant Starches

As with other fermentable carbohydrates, consuming resistant starches may increase the production of gases such as carbon dioxide, hydrogen sulfide, and methane. This can lead to side effects including abdominal bloating, distention, and flatulence. To minimize these effects, it is advisable to introduce resistant starches gradually into the diet.

POTATO STARCH

Potato starch has gained increasing attention as a dietary supplement. Potato starch is extracted from crushed potatoes and then dried into a powder form. It should not be confused with potato flour.

Potato starch is a type of resistant starch that is not digested in the stomach or the small intestine and reaches the colon intact. Once in the colon, potato starch is fermented by microorganisms, leading to the production of short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), particularly butyrate.

Butyrate has been found to have beneficial effects on the digestive tract and overall health. By increasing the levels of butyrate, potato starch has the following impacts:

Improvement of Barrier Function: Butyrate serves as a primary energy source for the cells lining the colon, helping to maintain its integrity and function. A strong barrier function is crucial for preventing pathogens and toxins from entering the tissue and bloodstream. Studies suggest that butyrate can enhance the production of tight junction proteins, which are key components in maintaining the integrity of the digestive tract barrier.

Exertion of Anti-Inflammatory Effects: Butyrate has been shown to possess anti-inflammatory properties. It can decrease the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines. This modulation of the

immune response helps prevent and reduce inflammatory diseases in the digestive tract, such as inflammatory bowel disease (IBD).

Potential Protection Against Cancer: The role of butyrate in cancer protection is linked to its ability to induce programmed cell death within cancer cells (apoptosis), inhibit cell proliferation, and promote differentiation in the colon. By these mechanisms, butyrate can help prevent the development and progression of colorectal cancer. Additionally, its anti-inflammatory effects contribute to a lower risk of cancer development, as chronic inflammation is a known risk factor for cancer.

AGRICULTURAL AND FOOD INDUSTRY BYPRODUCTS **AS FIBER**

Byproducts include skins, seeds and stems of fruits and vegetables which are typically discarded during processing. These byproducts are rich in dietary fiber and other nutrients and can be repurposed into food ingredients. An example might include apple pomace (*figure above*), the leftover material from apple juice production which is high in fiber with pectin being a significant component. Pectin makes up 15% of apple pomace's dry weight. Commercial development of apple pomace for human consumption still requires further research focusing on standard methods of nutrient reporting and human clinical trials.

SEAWEED AS FIBER

Seaweed is a marine alga found in oceans around the world. It is a crucial component of the marine ecosystem but also a valuable nutritional resource for humans. Recent research has demonstrated its potential as a dietary fiber.

Unlike the fibers found in terrestrial plants, the fiber in seaweed has unique properties that contribute to its effectiveness in promoting health. For instance, alginate, a typical soluble fiber found in seaweed such as kelp, in addition to its qualities as a source of fiber, can significantly reduce fat digestion and absorption in the human body. This property alone makes seaweed an excellent food for managing weight and combating obesity.

Other benefits of seaweed include the following:

1. **Nutrition-Rich:**

Seaweed is renowned for its high content of vitamins and minerals and is an excellent source of iodine which is essential for thyroid function. It also contains vitamins A, C, E and K as well as B vitamins. It is rich in antioxidants that help protect cells from damage.

2. Source Of Unique Bioactive Compounds

Seaweed contains various bioactive compounds such as fucoxanthin and fucoidans, which have been studied for their anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and anti-cancer properties.

3. High In Dietary Fiber

Seaweed has a high dietary fiber content with positive effects on bowel function and its ability to lower blood sugar and cholesterol levels.

4. Heart Health

Regular consumption of seaweed has been found to contribute to cardiovascular health due to its content of omega-3 fatty acids in dietary fiber.

FUNGUS AS FIBER—MUSHROOMS

Mushrooms have been found to have a low-calorie content and are rich in nutrients, including proteins, vitamins, minerals, and dietary fiber. The fiber in mushrooms is primarily found in their cell walls.

Components of mushrooms can benefit intestinal microorganisms, i.e., acting as prebiotics. (**See the section, *Prebiotics***). Mushrooms contain non-digestible components that can be fermented by beneficial microbes promoting their growth and activity. Some of those components include the following:

HUMAN MILK OLIGOSACCHARIDES

Human Milk Oligosaccharides (HMOs): A Key Component of Human Breast Milk

Introduction

Human milk provides newborns with essential nutrients tailored to support nerve growth, immunity, and overall development. It contains more than 200 structurally diverse bioactive components and constitutes the third most abundant solid component in human milk after lactose and lipids.

Human cells lining the gastrointestinal tract do not possess the enzymatic machinery that is required for metabolizing human milk oligosaccharides and thus they can reach the colon intact. Instead, they serve as prebiotics, selectively nourishing beneficial gut bacteria like *Bifidobacterium infantis*. Through fermentation, *B. infantis* metabolizes HMOs to produce short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), including acetate, propionate, and butyrate, which are critical for:

- Providing energy to intestinal cells
- Enhancing intestinal barrier function
- Supporting immune system development

This fermentation cascade not only provides energy but also plays a role in protecting against pathogens and contributing to the infant's immune and central nervous system development.

Summary of Health Benefits of HMOs

1. **Immune Function:** HMOs strengthen the immune system, helping reduce inflammation and enhancing pathogen defense.
2. **Anti-Inflammatory Properties:** They mitigate chronic inflammation, potentially reducing the risk of conditions like heart disease and diabetes.
3. **Pathogen Defense:** HMOs block pathogen adhesion to the intestinal lining, preventing infections and promoting gut health.
4. **Metabolic Health:** HMOs improve cholesterol regulation and glucose metabolism, with implications for managing metabolic syndrome and type II diabetes.

HMOs Use In Adults

Recent research has explored HMOs' applications beyond infancy. Studies suggest HMOs may benefit adults by modulating the gut microbiota, reducing inflammation, and enhancing metabolic health.

As humans age, the number of *Bifidobacteria* drops steadily particularly in the later years of life. The decline may be associated with an increase risk of inflammation, chronic illnesses and immune dysfunction.

Studies show that 2'FL, the most abundant HMO in human breast milk, boosts *Bifidobacteria* in every age group from infants to older

adults. Different age groups had their own dominant *Bifidobacteria* species that responded to 2'FL. 2'FL also boosted growth of other gut microbes like butyrate producers that support intestinal health and control inflammation.

HMOs are now available in supplement form, with early trials demonstrating safety and potential benefits in conditions such as gastrointestinal disorders.

The following is a summary of HMO effects and applications in human adults based on recent research.

Prebiotic Effects on Gut Health

HMOs act as prebiotics, supporting the growth of beneficial gut bacteria such as *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* in adults. This modulation of the microbiota improves gut health and may reduce the incidence of intestinal infections.

Management of Gastrointestinal Disorders

Supplementation with HMOs such as 2' fucosyllactose (2'-FL) has been shown to improve gut microbe composition without aggravating symptoms in patients with irritable bowel syndrome.

Prevention of Intestinal Inflammation

HMOs like 2'-FL may prevent intestinal inflammation by enhancing gut barrier function and modulating gut microbial metabolism. These properties suggest potential therapeutic uses for conditions like colitis.

Immune Protection

HMOs impede pathogen attachment epithelial cells, potentially reducing infections from bacteria such as *E. coli* and *Salmonella*. This suggests their role as protective agents against enteric infections in adults.

Enhance Barrier Function

HMOs improve gut barrier integrity by increasing beneficial metabolites such as short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) and regulating inflammatory markers displaying their potential to strengthen the gastrointestinal barrier.

CHITIN AND CHITOSAN AS FIBER

Introduction

Chitin and chitosan are distinct fiber-like compounds gaining recognition for their health-promoting properties when used as dietary fiber. Despite not being as commonly discussed as traditional dietary fibers, these compounds offer unique advantages due to their chemical structures and physiological effects.

Chitin, a long-chain polymer, serves as a primary structural component in the exoskeletons of crustaceans (e.g., crabs, shrimp, and lobsters), the cell walls of fungi (e.g., mushrooms), and the exoskeletons of insects.^{1,2} Chitosan, derived from chitin, exhibits enhanced water solubility and distinct biochemical properties. This

solubility makes chitosan a more versatile ingredient in dietary supplements and food products than chitin.

Health Benefits of Chitin and Chitosan

1. Fat and Cholesterol Binding

A significant benefit of chitin and chitosan lies in their ability to bind fats and cholesterol in the digestive tract. This interaction may help reduce cholesterol levels and support weight management. Research has highlighted their potential in promoting fat excretion and improving lipid profiles, particularly in populations with high cholesterol or obesity concerns.

2. Blood Sugar Regulation

Chitin and chitosan may slow sugar absorption in the digestive tract, leading to a gradual postprandial rise in blood glucose levels. This modulation could benefit individuals with diabetes or prediabetes, helping to maintain blood sugar control and reduce glycemic variability.

3. Gastrointestinal Health

Like other dietary fibers, chitin and chitosan promote gastrointestinal health by supporting the growth of beneficial gut microbes and improving bowel regularity. Furthermore, the fermentation of chitosan by gut microbiota generates short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), including butyrate, acetate, and propionate. These SCFAs act as energy sources for colonic cells and possess anti-inflammatory properties, supporting gut barrier integrity and reducing inflammation.

Chitosan Supplements

Chitosan is widely available as an over-the-counter supplement in capsule or tablet form. The powder can be mixed into water, smoothies, or other beverages for easier consumption.

Some functional foods are fortified with chitosan such as health bars or snacks designed for weight management.

Chitosan powder can sometimes be used as a natural thickening agent in soups, sauces, and baked goods. Lesser amounts of chitosan powder may be sprinkled on cooked or prepared dishes as an additive.

While chitosan itself is not presently in food, its precursor, chitin, is found in shellfish shells and in some mushrooms.

Considerations and Precautions

Despite their potential benefits, the use of chitosan requires caution. Individuals with seafood allergies may need to avoid chitosan derived from crustaceans, as allergenic proteins could remain in these products. Additionally, the quality and source of chitosan supplements vary, potentially influencing their efficacy and safety.

LIGNIN

MICROBIAL UTILIZATION OF LIGNIN **IN THE HUMAN GUT**

Bioconversion By Gut Microbes:

Lignin is a complex organic polymer found in the cell walls of plants and plays a critical role in providing structural support and water transport within various plant tissues.

Humans are unable to digest lignin due to lack of specific enzymes. Although unable to digest lignin, humans have certain bacteria in their digestive tract that can break down lignin or its derivatives into smaller, metabolizable compounds that have health benefits including antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and estrogenic activities. These breakdown products produced by bacteria are known as *lignans*.

Health Implications:

The lignans produced by gut bacteria can influence human health in several ways. For instance, they have been associated with reduced risks of cardiovascular disease, certain types of cancer, and other chronic conditions. The beneficial effects are attributed to their antioxidant properties and their ability to modulate hormone levels and immune responses.

This microbial activity in the human gut shows how dietary components that are indigestible by humans can still have

profound effects on health through microbial processing. This interplay between diet, gut microbiota, and health underscores the complexity of the digestive ecosystems and the indirect benefits humans derive from various dietary components.

SECTION TWELVE:

WHY THE LONG-TERM USE OF THE LOW FODMAP DIET MAY NOT PROMOTE DIGESTIVE HEALTH

While the low FODMAP diet has gained popularity for its effectiveness in alleviating symptoms such as bloating, distention, flatulence, and abdominal pain in conditions like irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), there are potential risks associated with its long-term use. The diet, which restricts fermentable carbohydrates (FODMAPs) such as fructans, galacto-oligosaccharides, and polyols, works by reducing fermentation in the gut, thereby decreasing the production of gases that can contribute to discomfort. However, this symptom relief can come at a cost to long-term gut health.

The Role of Fermentable Carbohydrates: As noted previously, fermentable carbohydrates (like prebiotic fibers) are essential for the production of short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), particularly

butyrate, which is produced when beneficial gut bacteria ferment dietary fibers. SCFAs are crucial for:

- **Maintaining the integrity of the gut lining,**
- **Reducing inflammation,**
- **Supporting immune function,**
- **Regulating metabolism**

By restricting fermentable carbs on a prolonged low FODMAP diet, SCFA production decreases, weakening these protective functions and leaving the gut more vulnerable to inflammation, infections, and even long-term metabolic and immune dysfunction.

Shift from Fermentation to Harmful Byproducts:

When the gut microbiota is deprived of fermentable carbohydrates, it shifts to other nutrient sources, particularly proteins.

Gut inflammation: The fermentation of proteins in the gut produces byproducts that can irritate the gut lining and contribute to inflammation. Studies have shown that metabolites such as ammonia and hydrogen sulfide are associated with inflammation due to their cytotoxic effects.

Disruption of the gut barrier: A reduction in short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), particularly butyrate, compromises the gut's barrier function, contributing to a "leaky gut" and increased systemic inflammation. Butyrate is essential for maintaining the integrity of the epithelial barrier and modulating immune responses.

Increased risk of colon cancer: Ammonia and hydrogen sulfide produced during protein fermentation have been linked to an increased risk of colorectal cancer. These compounds can damage colonocytes and promote carcinogenic pathways.

Worsened microbiome diversity: Diets low in fermentable carbohydrates, such as the low FODMAP diet, can lead to a decrease in beneficial bacterial species and reduced microbial diversity, which is critical for gut health and resilience against disease.

Short-Term Gain, Long-Term Pain:

In the short term, a low FODMAP diet can offer relief by reducing bloating, distention, flatulence, and pain. However, the long-term restriction of fermentable carbohydrates can shift the gut ecosystem from producing health-promoting SCFAs to generating potentially harmful branched chain fatty acids and toxic byproducts. This can lead to chronic gut inflammation, reduced gut barrier integrity, and increased susceptibility to disease a short-term gain in symptom relief but long-term pain in the form of gut dysfunction and systemic health problems.

Balancing the Low FODMAP Diet:

Given these risks, it is crucial that the low FODMAP diet be used only as a temporary measure. Patients should work with healthcare professionals to reintroduce fermentable fibers gradually once symptoms are under control. This phased approach

helps restore SCFA production and gut health, allowing for symptom management without sacrificing long-term well-being.

Reintroducing Fermentable Carbohydrates:

The low FODMAP diet is designed to be a short-term intervention, typically lasting 4-6 weeks, to reduce gut symptoms like bloating, distention, pain, and flatulence. However, after this period of symptom relief, it is crucial to gradually reintroduce fermentable carbohydrates to restore gut health and avoid the potential long-term harms discussed earlier.

WHAT HAPPENS WHEN MICROBES ARE STARVED OF NUTRIENT SUBSTANCES?

During periods of nutrient deficiency, microbes in the lower intestines adapt by sourcing alternative sources to support their survival and function:

- **Fermentation of other sources:** As part of natural cellular turnover, dead cells from the intestinal lining are sloughed off and replaced with new ones. These sloughed cells, along with remnants of dead microbes destroyed in the upper digestive tract by gastric acid, pepsin, bile, and pancreatic enzymes, provide nutrients for surviving microbes in the lower gut.
- **Protein fermentation:** In the absence of fermentable carbohydrates, some bacteria turn to protein fermentation for

energy, a process that can produce beneficial compounds but also harmful byproducts that may compromise gut health.

- **Mucin degradation:** Certain bacteria, known as mucolytic bacteria, can break down mucins—glycoproteins that form the mucus lining of the gut—when dietary fiber is lacking. *Akkermansia muciniphila*, a prominent mucolytic bacterium that makes up about 3% of the gut microbiome, thrives in the mucus layer, aiding mucosal health.

In the absence of dietary fiber as a source of energy, *Akkermansia*, and other colonic mucus degrading bacteria, can degrade the mucin lining resulting in the release of substrates that support the activity of other bacteria, like *Alistipes* species which is butyrogenic. These interactions ultimately stimulate pathways to produce butyrate to keep the host lining cells alive.

Without butyrate producing bacteria, this secondary butyrate production pathway can help maintain gut homeostasis, supporting mucosal integrity and modulating inflammation. This compensatory response underscores the resilience of the gut ecosystem, where different microbes can adapt their roles to maintain critical functions, even in the absence of specific microbial populations.

Plan B, however, may result in excessive mucin degradation weakening the gut barrier, increasing permeability, and allowing toxins, pathogens, and food antigens to penetrate, which may trigger immune responses and inflammation.

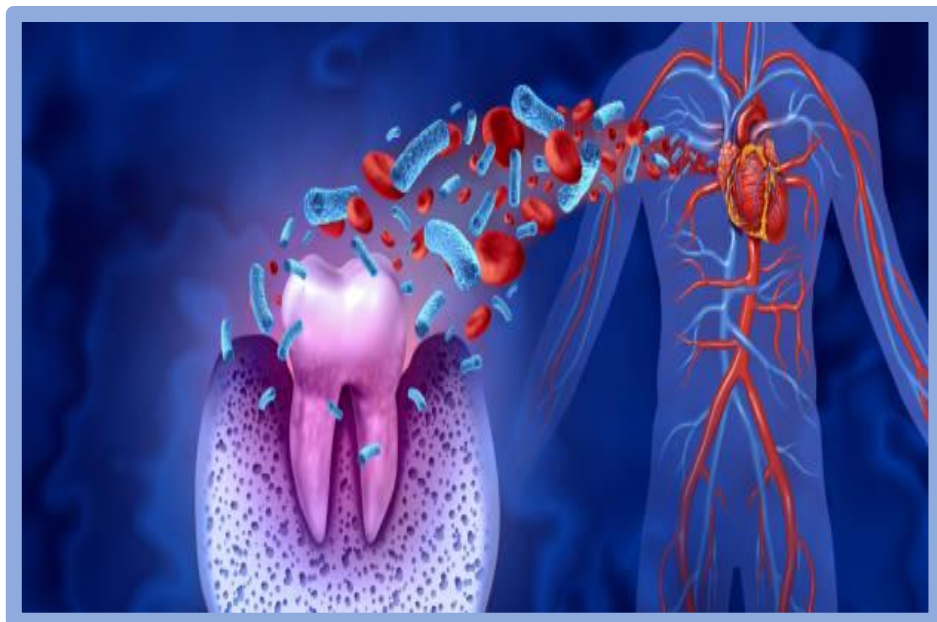
Change In Microbe Population Due To Fiber Deficiency and Antibiotic Exposure:

When a diet chronically lacks fiber or when antibiotics are frequently used, significant changes occur in the microbiota. Fiber-degrading bacteria decline, and antibiotic-resistant strains may proliferate, disrupting the ecosystem's health and balance.

SECTION THIRTEEN:

THE ORAL CAVITY GATEWAY TO THE DIGESTIVE TRACT

THE DANGERS OF MICROBE TRANSMIGRATION FROM MOUTH TO BODY



In addition to localized gum and teeth damage, transmigration of microbes from periodontal pockets can take place. This movement of pathogenic organisms from the mouth to adjacent tissues can cause inflammation and infection.

Adjacent tissues that may be affected by extensive exposure to pathogenic microorganism include Eustachian tubes that drain the middle ear, nasal cavity which drains facial sinuses, lacrimal ducts that drain tears from the eyes, salivary glands, and tonsillar tissue.

Signs And Symptoms of Adjacent Spread: Signs and symptoms of microbe transmigration to adjacent tissues may include recurrent sinus inflammation, nasal pathology, salivary gland dysfunction, headaches, earaches, facial pain, loss of hearing, chronic sore throat, and burning mouth and tongue.

Spread Through Blood And Lymph Tissue: In addition to nearby movement of microorganisms, oral cavity microorganisms can pass into the bloodstream and lymph tissues allowing the microbes to travel throughout the body and infect pacemakers, heart valves, joint implants, catheters, implanted drug delivery devices, and more.

Spread By Swallowing Microbes: Billions of microorganisms that are produced every 24 hours in periodontal pockets are also swallowed, potentially causing symptoms like chronic sore throat, chest pain, heartburn, difficulty swallowing, nausea, vomiting, stomach pains, overgrowth of microbes in the small intestine,

malabsorption, vitamin deficiencies, diarrhea and/or constipation, abdominal bloating, abdominal distention, eructation, flatulence, and weight loss.

SECTION FOURTEEN:

HYDRATION



Every organ in the body requires water to function properly. It makes up 50 to 70% of the body weight of an adult human and is needed to survive. Water is required to get rid of waste products that accumulate in the body. It helps maintain normal body temperature. It lubricates joints and protects sensitive tissues.

The United States National Academy of Sciences, Engineering and Medicine recommends a daily intake of 3 to 4 liters of fluids for men (90-120 ounces) and 2 to 3 liters for women (60-90 ounces). These recommendations include, not just water, but other foods and beverages that contain water.

The amount of water to drink, however, may vary based on several factors including the following:

- **Age and gender**
- **Exercise:** Activities that cause substantial amounts of sweating require increased water intake to cover the losses.
- **Environment:** Hot and humid environmental conditions increase fluid requirements as does altitude.
- **State of health:** Losses from fever, vomiting, diarrhea, require fluid replacement. Increased fluid intake is therapeutic for those with urinary tract infections and kidney stones.
- **Breast feeding:** Breast feeding requires increased fluid intake to remain hydrated.

There are multiple ways to maintain hydration. Non-alcoholic beverages like tea, coffee, sports drinks, soft drinks, and lemonade have a water content of 95-100%. Soups like mushroom soup, cream soups, and chicken noodle soup have a water content between 80% and 95%. Dairy products have varying degrees of water content, for example, whole milk (90%), yogurt (85%), ice cream (65%), and cheese (60%). (**See: List 4**)

Hydration is fundamental to maintaining cellular function, metabolic processes, and toxin elimination. While water contributes to hydration, the quality of water—including its chemical composition, microbial content, and filtration methods—

can impact overall health, microbiome balance, and detoxification pathways.

Distilled water, particularly when microfiltered, ozonated, and free from contaminants, offers a unique set of benefits, especially for individuals seeking to minimize exposure to unwanted chemicals, bacteria, and heavy metals.

Benefits of Hydration with Distilled Water

1. Purity: Free from Contaminants and Microbial Load

Distilled water, such as *Parents Choice® Distilled Water* (Walmart®), undergoes steam distillation, which removes:

- Heavy metals (e.g., lead, arsenic, mercury).
- Inorganic minerals that may contribute to kidney stones or arterial calcification.
- Chlorine, fluoride, and other disinfection byproducts.
- Pathogenic bacteria, viruses, and parasites that may be present in tap water.

Ozonation and activated charcoal filtration further enhance microbial safety by oxidizing bacteria and removing volatile organic compounds (VOCs).

2. Reduction of Chemical Load in the Body

Tap water often contains trace amounts of pharmaceutical residues, pesticides, industrial solvents, and endocrine-disrupting chemicals. Distilled and ozonated water minimizes exposure to

these contaminants, reducing oxidative stress, inflammation, and potential endocrine disruptions.

3. Improved Detoxification and Kidney Function

Distilled water has zero total dissolved solids, meaning it does not introduce extra solutes that the kidneys must filter. This reduces the burden on the kidneys and may help prevent kidney stone formation, especially for individuals prone to calcium oxalate stones. Adequate hydration with low-residue water helps flush out toxins, metabolic waste, and inflammatory byproducts from the liver, kidneys, and lymphatic system.

4. Protection Against Microbiome Disruption

Tap water may contain chlorine, chloramine, and fluoride, which have antimicrobial properties and can disrupt the gut and urinary microbiome. Microfiltered and distilled water lacks these chemicals, making it gentler on gut flora and bladder microbiota.

5. Reduction in Acid Load and Metabolic Waste

Distilled water is neutral to slightly acidic (pH ~6.5) but does not contribute to metabolic acidity the way mineral-heavy or high-sulfate waters might. This can be beneficial for individuals managing acidic conditions, such as uric acid kidney stones, gout, or metabolic acidosis.

SECTION FIFTEEN:

DRINKING CLEAN WATER



Municipally supplied tap water, even in highly regulated regions, contains numerous contaminants—some known, others unidentified or emerging. While public water systems undergo routine treatment to meet health and safety standards, they are not designed to remove every trace contaminant. Studies have shown that tap water can carry residual pharmaceutical compounds, agricultural runoff chemicals, industrial byproducts, and microbial agents, including bacteria and viruses, some of which are unmonitored or poorly understood.

The most cautious and comprehensive approach to water purification combines distillation followed by carbon filtration. This

multi-step process provides exceptionally clean water by targeting both inorganic and organic contaminants.

Understanding Distillation and Condensation

Distillation works by boiling water into vapor, thereby separating it from many contaminants that cannot vaporize, such as heavy metals, salts, and most microbes. This vapor is then cooled and condensed back into liquid form, leaving behind the non-volatile impurities. This process, however, does not effectively remove all organic compounds, particularly volatile organic compounds (VOCs) that can evaporate alongside water molecules. Therefore, while distilled water (sometimes simply called “condensed water”) is free from many harmful substances, it can still carry traces of certain chemical pollutants.

Why Add Carbon Filtration?

To address the limitations of distillation, carbon filtration is often used as a second step. Activated carbon is highly porous and has an exceptional capacity to adsorb VOCs, pesticides, chlorine byproducts, and other small organic molecules that might pass through distillation. This dual process—distillation followed by carbon filtration—produces water that is nearly free of both inorganic and organic contaminants, making it one of the cleanest and safest forms of drinking water available.

Does Ozonation Play a Role?

Ozonation is a separate water treatment process that uses ozone gas (O_3), a potent oxidizer, to disinfect water by killing bacteria, viruses, and protozoa. While highly effective for disinfection, ozonation does not remove inorganic contaminants such as salts or metals, nor does it physically remove organic material—it only chemically alters or destroys certain biological and chemical compounds. Importantly, ozonation is not part of the distillation-condensation process, though it may be used in municipal water treatment plants or advanced bottled water production systems.

Summary

Although municipal water supplies are generally safe for most populations, they inherently contain trace contaminants from a wide range of sources, including pharmaceuticals, industrial waste, and microbial agents. For those seeking the cleanest possible drinking water, distilled water passed through carbon filtration offers a robust solution, effectively eliminating most inorganic, microbial, and organic pollutants. Notably, Walmart's Parent's Choice® bottled water is an example of distilled, carbon-filtered, and ozonated water, providing a commercially available option for highly purified drinking water. Understanding each purification method's strengths and limitations—particularly how distillation, carbon filtration, and ozonation differ—helps make informed decisions about water choices.

SECTION SIXTEEN: **DIETARY MEASURES**

THE COMPLEXITIES OF FEEDING **OURSELVES AND OUR MICROBIAL** **GUESTS**

When we eat, we eat for two. We are not just nourishing ourselves, but we are also feeding trillions of beneficial microorganisms that live in the digestive tract.

CHOOSING DIETARY FIBER WISELY: A CORNERSTONE OF DIGESTIVE AND SYSTEMIC HEALTH

Food choices are among the most powerful determinants of human health. While modern diets high in refined sugars and fats are metabolized rapidly in the upper digestive tract—mainly in the small intestine—their excess often overwhelms metabolic needs and is stored in adipose tissue, leading to systemic disorders such as obesity, type 2 diabetes, atherosclerosis, and fatty liver disease.

In contrast, a diet rich in plant-based dietary fiber takes a slower journey through the gastrointestinal tract, conferring benefits not

only to the human host but to the trillions of microbes residing in the colon. This relationship is central to maintaining intestinal integrity, regulating metabolism, and preventing chronic disease.

Unlike sugars and fats that are readily broken down and absorbed in the small intestine, dietary fiber resists enzymatic digestion and proceeds into the large intestine as unprocessed residue. It is here, in the colon, that a unique partnership unfolds. Colonic microbes ferment the fiber, producing short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) such as butyrate, acetate, and propionate. **(See the section: *How Human Rely on Beneficial Microbes in Their Intestines*).** These SCFAs are not waste products but essential metabolites that feed colonocytes, maintain mucosal barrier integrity, reduce inflammation, modulate the immune response, and even influence systemic processes including mood, satiety, and glucose regulation.

Not all fiber is created equal. Fermentable fibers, including inulin, fructooligosaccharides (FOS), and galactooligosaccharides (GOS), serve as prebiotics—selectively feeding beneficial microbes such as *Bifidobacterium* and *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* **(See List I)**. Non-fermentable fibers, such as cellulose and lignin, add bulk to stool and help promote regular bowel movements. Ideally, a diet includes both types to optimize digestive health, maintain microbial diversity, and support the structure and function of the gastrointestinal tract.

A chronic deficiency in dietary fiber alters the composition and function of the gut microbiota, leading to *dysbiosis*. This imbalance

disrupts the production of SCFAs, compromises the epithelial barrier, and promotes systemic inflammation. Over time, this can contribute to the development of not only metabolic diseases but also immune-mediated disorders, colorectal cancer, and neurodegenerative conditions.

Modern diets, often stripped of fiber due to processing, fail to provide the substrates necessary for microbial fermentation and resilience.

Choosing dietary fiber is not merely a matter of digestive comfort—it is a foundational strategy for sustaining long-term health. A fiber-rich, plant-focused diet provides the metabolic groundwork for microbial-host cooperation, systemic homeostasis, and chronic disease prevention. By nourishing both ourselves and our synbiotic microbiota, we foster a resilient internal ecosystem that supports nearly every aspect of health.

A Work In Progress

The composition of the intestinal microbiome changes over time. As species of microbes wax and wane in response to the host's aging, diet, lifestyle, physical activity, drugs, antibiotic use, toxins, pollutants, and contaminants in the environment, the care and feeding of the microbe population changes.

Feeding the body and its microbiome always remains a work in progress, requiring continuous attention and adjustment.

SECTION SEVENTEEN:

The Chronic Erosion of Biological Barriers and Borders: A Pathway to Chronic Illness

Human health is sustained by a series of intricate protective systems that defend the body against toxins, foreign antigens, and microbial invaders. These systems include physical barriers such as the skin, epithelial linings, and endothelial junctions, as well as cellular and molecular defenses that coordinate immune responses. Among the most critical of these interfaces are the gut lining and the blood-brain barrier (BBB), which act as selective gates between internal physiology and the external environment.

Over time, however, the structural integrity and regulatory precision of these systems gradually erode—a process accelerated by aging, genetic susceptibility, environmental insults, microbial imbalance, and nutritional deficiencies.

The decline in barrier function is part of a broader physiological phenomenon known as *“immunosenescence”*, characterized by the gradual deterioration of the immune system. This includes not only a reduction in immune surveillance and repair capacity but also a diminished ability to regulate inflammation and distinguish self from non-self.

As individuals age, immune cells experience functional exhaustion, T-cell diversity declines, and chronic low-grade inflammation—termed "*inflammaging*"—becomes a prominent internal feature.

The gut is among the earliest and most vulnerable interfaces to exhibit signs of compromise. Under normal conditions, the intestinal barrier is composed of tightly connected epithelial cells, mucus layers, antimicrobial peptides, and immunoglobulin A (IgA). Collectively, these components form a semi-permeable boundary that permits nutrient absorption while excluding pathogens and harmful antigens. However, factors such as microbial dysbiosis, nutrient deficiency, chronic stress, certain medications (e.g., NSAIDs and proton pump inhibitors), and environmental toxins can impair this barrier. The resulting increase in intestinal permeability—often referred to as "leaky gut"—permits microbial components (e.g., lipopolysaccharides), food antigens, and other immunostimulatory molecules to enter the circulation, where they activate the immune system and perpetuate systemic inflammation, often in the absence of overt infection.

Systemic extraintestinal symptoms may be experienced with bone and joint pain, skin rashes, and dysfunctions in organs such as the liver, heart, brain, and kidneys—many of which are classified as autoimmune illnesses.

Parallel to gut barrier dysfunction is the breakdown of the blood-brain barrier. The BBB is a specialized structure composed of endothelial cells, astrocytic foot processes, and pericytes that

regulates the passage of substances from the blood into the central nervous system (CNS). When intact, the BBB protects neural tissue from toxins, pathogens, and peripheral inflammatory signals. With age, however, this barrier becomes more porous, permitting neurotoxic substances and immune cells to infiltrate the brain. The resulting neuroinflammation is increasingly implicated in the development of neurodegenerative conditions such as Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease.

SECTION EIGHTEEN:

RESTORING AND REJUVENATING

STRATEGIES FOR DYFUNCTIONAL

INTESTINAL ECOSYSTEMS

IDENTIFY THOSE WHO ARE AT

INCREASED RISK:

Genetics: The first step requires identification of those individuals who are at highest risk. This begins with a detailed family history searching for significant genetic factors that may play a role in intestinal microecological imbalance such as obesity.

Age: The gut microbiota varies with age. Microbial diversity increases from infancy to adulthood and then decreases after age 70. Changes in diet and the immune system occur as well with

advancing age. Older adults typically have a decrease in beneficial bacteria after age 70 such as *Bifidobacteria* and an increase in potentially harmful microorganisms. Ages, therefore, of 0 to 3 years and over the age of 70 are considered substantial risk factors.

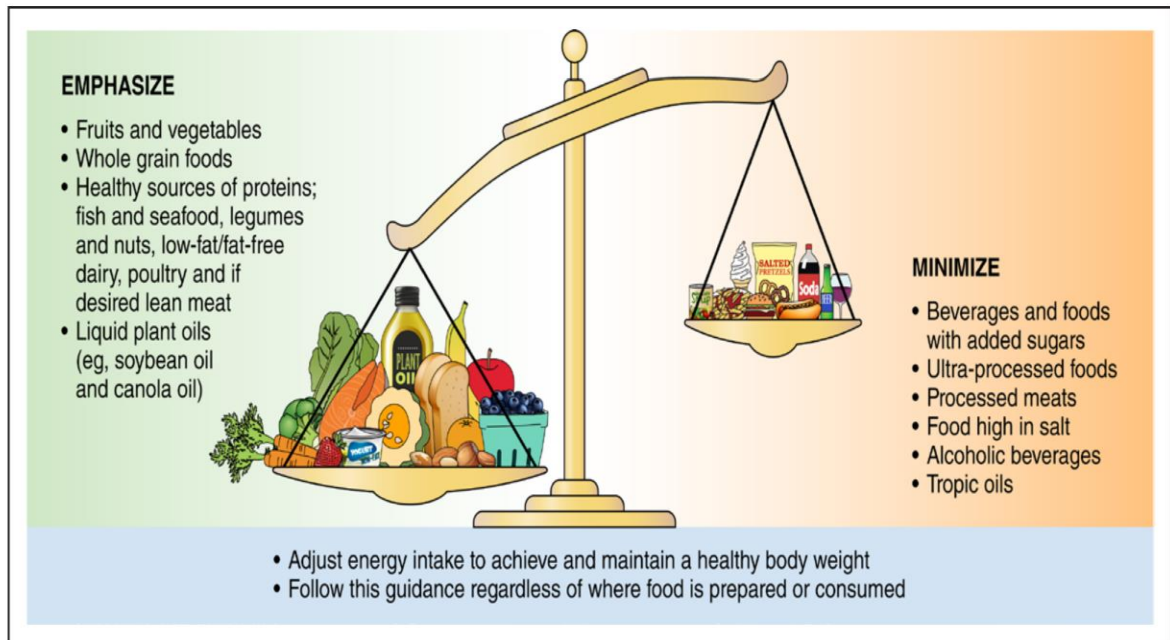
Diet: For decades, dietary recommendations have focused on calories, macronutrient ratios, and food pyramids underappreciating the fact that over 50% of the body cells were made up of microbes rather than human cells with microbes playing a critical role in digestion, immune function, and metabolic health. These traditional dietary models, however, based on calorie counting and macronutrient ratios are no longer adequate.

Intestinal well-being requires a focus on microbiome support, immune resilience, and environmental influences. Achieving digestive well-being is now felt best accomplished by implementing nutrient rich diets of fermentable fiber, reducing harmful additives, promoting short chain fatty acid production, recognizing potential harm to the microbiota from drugs and toxins, and supporting immune defenses.

This understanding is crucial for developing personalized strategies that optimize gut function and overall health, ultimately shifting from a reactive medical approach to a preventative and restorative paradigm.

EAT A PLANT--PREDOMINANT DIET

LET YOUR DIET BE YOUR PHARMACY



The Mediterranean Diet as a Comprehensive Source of Cellular and Microbial Substrates

The Mediterranean Diet has long been associated with improved cardiovascular health, reduced cancer risk, and enhanced longevity. More recently, research has highlighted its role in supporting not only human cellular function but also gut microbial diversity and metabolic output. Rich in polyphenols, unsaturated fats, dietary fibers, and fermented foods, this dietary pattern

provides a wide range of substrates for both host cells and commensal microbes.

Polyphenols, found abundantly in olives, grapes, and various herbs, are metabolized by colonic microbiota into bioactive phenolic compounds. These metabolites contribute to the maintenance of gut barrier integrity, modulation of inflammation, and protection against oxidative stress.

In addition, the fiber content of legumes, fruits, and whole grains found in the Mediterranean diet fuels the fermentation processes of saccharolytic bacteria, leading to the generation of short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) such as butyrate, acetate, and propionate. These SCFAs support colonocyte health, regulate immune function, and serve as systemic metabolic signals.

Moreover, the inclusion of naturally fermented foods—such as yogurt, kefir, kimchi, Kombucha tea, tempeh and more—introduces live microbial strains that may transiently colonize the gut and exert probiotic effects. This combination of prebiotic and probiotic components makes the Mediterranean diet an inherently synbiotic dietary model.

Finally, the balance of omega-3 and omega-6 fatty acids derived from fish, nuts, and olive oil contributes to anti-inflammatory lipid signaling and membrane fluidity, further enhancing both immune modulation and cellular resilience.

The Mediterranean diet, therefore, does more than nourish the host—it also nurtures the gut microbiota. This emphasis on fiber, fermented foods, and plant polyphenols enhances microbial diversity and resilience. Our microbial partners are necessary for full access to many of the diet's health promoting effects, especially the transformation of polyphenols and fiber into bioactive metabolites. In this way, the Mediterranean diet stands as both a nutritional and symbiotic template for long-term health.

GREEN MEDITERRANEAN DIET

A more recent modification of the Mediterranean diet has been the introduction of the *green Mediterranean diet*. The green Mediterranean diet causes more substantial compositional changes in the microbiome compared to the Mediterranean diet.

The green Mediterranean diet incorporates a higher intake of plant-based foods and reduction in red meat as well as the introduction of daily polyphenol-rich green tea.

Microbe composition and diversity improved on the green Mediterranean diet and were linked with positive alterations in both body weight and cardiometabolic indicators.

EAT A WIDE VARIETY OF PLANT BASED FOODS

1. **Diversity of Fiber Sources:** Consuming a variety of fiber types, such as inulin, pectin, cellulose, and hemicellulose, nourishes different microbial communities. (**See Section: Commercially Available Products that Act as Prebiotics**)

Each type of fiber is fermented by specific microbes, leading to the production of different beneficial metabolites most particularly short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs).

2. **Fermentable Carbohydrates:** The diet should include a range of fermentable carbohydrates (prebiotics) like fructans (inulin), oligosaccharides (found in legumes and certain vegetables), and resistant starches (present in foods like “greenish” bananas and cooked-and-cooled potatoes) to support the growth of various beneficial microbes such as *Bifidobacteria* and *Lactobacilli*. (**See the Section: Commercially Available Products that Act as Prebiotics**)

3. **Personalized Nutrition:** The gut microbiome varies significantly among individuals, so a personalized approach to fiber intake is required. This involves adjusting fiber types and amounts based on individual digestive responses and gut microbiota composition.

4. Functional Benefits: Different fibers provide different health benefits. For example, inulin and fructo-oligosaccharides (FOS) are known for their ability to promote the growth of *Bifidobacteria*, which can enhance gut immune function¹. On the other hand, fibers like pectin and guar gum help in stimulating hormone-producing cells that control hunger, satiety, and insulin secretions.

“Eat the Rainbow”: Fiber and Phytochemical Diversity for Microbial Resilience

“Eat the rainbow” is more than just a colorful dietary slogan—it’s a scientifically grounded strategy to nourish the gut microbiota through a broad spectrum of fibers, polyphenols, and phytonutrients found in multicolored plant foods. Each pigment signals the presence of unique bioactive compounds that interact with the gut microbiome in distinct ways.

Broad-Spectrum Dietary Fiber Strategy

A diverse array of fibers—soluble, insoluble, fermentable, resistant starches, and more—each serve as selective fuel for different bacterial species. For example, pectin from apples, inulin from onions, arabinoxylans from whole grains, and resistant starches from cooked-and-cooled potatoes all support different metabolic pathways and bacterial niches. Limiting fiber intake to only a few types—such as from oat bran or wheat cereal—may restrict microbial diversity and impair the resilience of the gut ecosystem. In contrast, a broad-spectrum fiber intake promotes microbial

cross-feeding, increases the production of beneficial short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), and fosters ecosystem stability.

Color as a Proxy for Phytochemical Variety

Each color in fruits and vegetables represents a different class of phytochemicals:

- **Purple and blue** (e.g., eggplant, blueberries) are rich in anthocyanins, which exhibit antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties and promote growth of *Akkermansia* and *Bifidobacterium*.
- **Red** (e.g., red peppers, tomatoes) contains lycopene and ellagic acid, associated with protection against oxidative stress and enhanced SCFA production.
- **Green** (e.g., spinach, broccoli) offers chlorophyll, sulforaphane, and folate, supporting detoxification pathways and microbial diversity.
- **Orange and yellow** (e.g., carrots, squash) provide carotenoids like beta-carotene, which modulate gut immunity and barrier integrity.

These bioactive compounds often act as microbial modulators, enhancing beneficial taxa and suppressing pathogens. Their synergy with dietary fibers helps improve intestinal health beyond basic nutrition.

Refined Microbial Nutrition Advice

Refining the traditional advice to “eat more fiber” into guidance that encourages fiber diversity and phytochemical richness reflects emerging research. Studies now show that not only the amount but the variety of plant foods consumed strongly correlates with gut microbial diversity and health outcomes.

Consuming 30 or more different plant-based foods per week is now considered a clinical target for microbiome diversity, as emphasized in initiatives like the American Gut Project.

In essence, eating the rainbow translates to feeding the widest possible range of beneficial microbes. This promotes a robust and adaptable microbiota—one better equipped to support immunity, digestion, and inflammation control across a range of physiological challenges.

POLYOLS

BIOCHEMICAL FORMATION, FERMENTATION, AND DIETARY SOURCES

Introduction

Polyols, also known as sugar alcohols are a class of organic compounds derived from carbohydrates. Polyols are widely used in the food industry as low-calorie sweeteners. They are also naturally synthesized in the body through metabolic pathways.

Fermentation of Polyols by Gut Microbiota

Polyols that escape digestion and absorption in the small intestine enter the colon, where they undergo fermentation by the gut microbiota. The fermentation process primarily involves bacteria, that metabolize polyols into short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), gases (hydrogen, carbon dioxide, and methane), and organic acids. The extent and efficiency of fermentation depend on the specific polyol and the composition of the gut microbiome.

The two polyols, sorbitol and mannitol, are poorly absorbed in the small intestine, leading to osmotic effects that may cause gastrointestinal discomfort when consumed in excessive amounts. These polyols are fermented by colonic bacteria, producing SCFAs such as acetate, propionate, and butyrate, which contribute to gut health by serving as energy sources for colonocytes and modulating inflammatory responses.

Xylitol, another commonly used polyol, is less fermentable than sorbitol or mannitol, but it can still be metabolized by certain bacterial species to short chain fatty acids.

FERMENTATION PRODUCES SHORT CHAIN FATTY ACIDS—THE MOLECULAR CURRENCY OF DIGESTIVE WELL BEING

Short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs)—acetate, propionate, butyrate, isobutyrate, valerate, and caproate—are one of the key metabolic byproducts of microbial fermentation in the digestive tract. These molecules serve as a primary energy source for intestinal cells, regulate immune responses, and support metabolic homeostasis.

SCFAs are primarily produced from dietary fiber and select amino acids with their synthesis depending on cooperative microbial interactions, including quorum sensing and cross-feeding mechanisms.

Modern environmental and lifestyle factors can disrupt SCFA production, contributing to dysbiosis and gastrointestinal disorders. Recent research has also identified SCFAs—especially butyrate—as critical regulators in the prevention and control of digestive tract cancers, including colorectal cancer.

AVOID ULTRA-PROCESSED FOODS

Ultra-processed foods are industrially formulated food products made entirely or mostly from substances extracted from foods, derived from food constituents, or synthesized in laboratories from food substrates or other organic sources such as flavor enhancers, colorants, and additives used to impart sensory properties. These foods typically contain little or no whole foods and are characterized by elevated levels of sugar, fat, salt, and chemical additives. Examples include sugary drinks, packaged snacks, reconstituted meat products, and pre-prepared frozen meals.

Ultra-processed foods are designed to be convenient, highly palatable, and shelf-stable, often at the expense of nutritional quality. Studies suggest that this group of food increases the risk of intestinal inflammation and activation of the immune system.

AVOID TOXINS AND CONTAMINANTS

IN WATER--

DRINK DISTILLED WATER

Municipally supplied tap water, even in highly regulated regions, contains numerous contaminants—some known, others unidentified or emerging. While public water systems undergo routine treatment to meet health and safety standards, they are not designed to remove every trace contaminant. Studies have shown that tap water can carry residual pharmaceutical compounds, agricultural runoff chemicals, industrial byproducts, and microbial agents, including bacteria and viruses, some of which are unmonitored or poorly understood.

The most cautious and comprehensive approach to water purification combines distillation followed by carbon filtration. This multi-step process provides exceptionally clean water by targeting both inorganic and organic contaminants.

Understanding Distillation and Condensation

Distillation works by boiling water into vapor, thereby separating it from many contaminants that cannot vaporize, such as heavy metals, salts, and most microbes. The vapor is then cooled and condensed back into liquid form, leaving behind the non-volatile impurities. This process, however, does not effectively remove all organic compounds, particularly volatile organic compounds (VOCs) that can evaporate alongside water molecules. Therefore, while distilled water (sometimes simply called “condensed water”) is free from many harmful substances, it can still carry traces of certain chemical pollutants.

Why Add Carbon Filtration?

To address the limitations of distillation, carbon filtration is often used as a second step. Activated carbon is highly porous and has an exceptional capacity to adsorb VOCs, pesticides, chlorine byproducts, and other small organic molecules that might pass through distillation. This dual process—distillation followed by carbon filtration—produces water that is nearly free of both inorganic and organic contaminants, *making it one of the cleanest and safest forms of drinking water available.*

Does Ozonation Play a Role?

Ozonation is a separate water treatment process that uses ozone gas (O₃), a potent oxidizer, to disinfect water by killing bacteria, viruses, and protozoa. While highly effective for disinfection,

ozonation does not remove inorganic contaminants such as salts or metals, nor does it physically remove organic material—it only chemically alters or destroys certain biological and chemical compounds. Importantly, ozonation is not part of the distillation-condensation process, though it may be used in municipal water treatment plants or advanced bottled water production systems.

Summary

Although municipal water supplies are generally safe for most populations, they inherently contain trace contaminants from a wide range of sources, including pharmaceuticals, industrial waste, and microbial agents. For those seeking the cleanest possible drinking water, distilled water passed through carbon filtration offers a robust solution, effectively eliminating most inorganic, microbial, and organic pollutants. Notably, Walmart's Parent's Choice® bottled water is an example of distilled, carbon-filtered, and ozonated water, providing a commercially available option for highly purified drinking water.

Understanding each purification method's strengths and limitations—particularly how distillation, carbon filtration, and ozonation differ—helps consumers make informed decisions about their water consumption.

AVOID ALCOHOL

Alcohol use is a leading cause of disease and death worldwide. The perspective that alcohol-related diseases are solely caused by tissue damage done by alcohol metabolites has evolved to include the multiple adverse effects of alcohol on digestive tract microbe populations.

Alcohol Causes Increased Gut Permeability:

Scientists have demonstrated that alcohol can cause an increase in pathogenic bacteria and an increase in intestinal permeability commonly referred to as “leaky digestive tract.” As shown before, increased permeability of the digestive tract lining facilitates translocation of microorganisms, toxins, and food antigens into the body. The flow of these substances from the digestive tract through a permeable digestive tract lining into the vascular system and to the liver has been proposed as a major factor in the cause of liver diseases.

Alcohol Causes Damage To The Liver

Damage to the liver may include fat accumulation in the liver (alcohol induced fatty liver disease), liver cell inflammation (alcohol-related hepatitis), tissue scarring (fibrosis), advanced scarring (cirrhosis) and liver cancer (hepatocellular carcinoma).

Alcohol Damages Organs Beyond The Liver

Alcohol has also been proven to have a significant adverse effect on multiple organ systems including the liver, and brain, in addition to the intestinal microbiome. Now evidence shows that alcohol not only lacks beneficial effects on heart health but can be harmful.

There Is No Safe Amount of Alcohol To Drink

For many years, stakeholders have heavily promoted the use of alcohol as beneficial for heart disease. All recent evidence points to the conclusion that alcohol ingestion should be totally avoided when possible. There are ***no defined safe limits for alcohol***.

In 2022, the World Heart Federation published a policy brief debunking the notion that alcohol was beneficial for heart health stating, “Contrary to popular opinion, alcohol is not good for the heart”. The report points out that some studies that previously showed cardiovascular benefits from drinking alcohol were flawed.

Recent research points out that many chronic conditions are linked to alcohol usage. Studies have now found that alcohol consumption may accelerate genetic aging, shrink brain tissue, and increase the risk of cardiovascular disease.

AVOID ALL FORMS OF TOBACCO **INCLUDING** **E-CIGARETTES (VAPING)**

THE HARMFUL EFFECTS OF TOBACCO USE ON THE DIGESTIVE TRACT

Tobacco use remains a significant public health issue and is well-recognized for its detrimental impact on the respiratory and cardiovascular systems. However, tobacco use has a pervasive effect on the digestive tract as well.

1. Oral Cavity

The mouth serves as the initial point of contact for tobacco toxins, which include nicotine, tar, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), and reactive oxygen species (ROS). Tobacco use is strongly associated with oral diseases such as periodontitis, oral leukoplakia, and oral cancers. Smoking and smokeless tobacco products contribute to microbial dysbiosis in the oral cavity, shifting the balance towards pathogenic bacterial species like *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and *Fusobacterium nucleatum*.

Nicotine and other toxins reduce salivary flow, leading to dry mouth (xerostomia) and impaired clearance of food debris and bacteria, which exacerbate periodontal disease.

2. Esophagus

Tobacco use is a major risk factor for esophageal cancer. It also exacerbates gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD), which, if chronic, can lead to a precancerous condition known as Barrett's esophagus and to an increased risk of cancer.

Recent studies suggest that the carcinogenic components of tobacco, including nitrosamines, may directly damage the esophageal mucosa and contribute to the malignant transformation of epithelial cells. The association between smoking and achalasia, a motility disorder of the esophagus, has also been documented.

3. Stomach

The gastric lining is sensitive to the detrimental effects of tobacco, as evidenced by its role in promoting peptic ulcer disease. Nicotine stimulates gastric acid secretion and impairs the production of protective mucus, predisposing the stomach to ulceration.

Additionally, smoking has been shown to delay gastric emptying, contributing to dyspeptic symptoms. Tobacco also has been found to have a synergistic effect with *Helicobacter pylori* infection, exacerbating the inflammatory response and increasing the risk of gastric cancer.

4. Small Intestine

Tobacco use affects the small intestine by altering its motility and permeability. Nicotine has been found to disrupt the tight

junctions between enterocytes, contributing to increased intestinal permeability. This disruption can lead to malabsorption and nutrient deficiencies.

Smoking also is associated with an increased risk of Crohn's disease, an inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) that predominantly affects the small intestine.

Nicotine alters the immune response and microbial composition, promoting a pro-inflammatory environment.

5. Large Intestine

The large intestine is also adversely affected by tobacco use. Smoking has been linked to an increased risk of colorectal polyps and colorectal cancer. The carcinogenic effects are mediated through the induction of oxidative stress, DNA damage, and changes in gut microbiota composition.

Studies have shown that smokers harbor a gut microbiome profile distinct from non-smokers, with a reduction in beneficial bacteria like *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* and an increase in pro-inflammatory species. These alterations may contribute to the development of colorectal cancer and inflammatory conditions like ulcerative colitis.

6. Pancreas and Liver

Tobacco use significantly increases the risk of pancreatic cancer. The pathophysiologic mechanisms involved include the activation

of pro-carcinogenic pathways, such as the K-ras oncogene, and the promotion of chronic pancreatitis, a known precursor to cancer.

In the liver, smoking has been associated with metabolic associated fatty liver disease (MAFLD), formerly referred to as nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and its progression to steatohepatitis. Nicotine can promote hepatic lipid accumulation and inflammation through its effects on adipokines and insulin resistance.

AVOID RECREATIONAL AND ILLICIT DRUGS

Recreational drugs are substances taken for pleasure rather than for medical reasons. They are used primarily to alter one's mood, perception, or consciousness. Recreational drugs have been found to alter the intestinal microbiome.

Illicit drugs are those with no currently accepted medical use and a high potential for abuse. They include heroin, LSD, ecstasy, methaqualone, and peyote.

MINIMIZE INHALATION OF AIR POLLUTANTS

Air Pollution and Digestive Health: A Growing Concern

Air pollution is a well-documented public health hazard, impacting respiratory and cardiovascular systems, but emerging evidence underscores its effects on digestive health. Pollutants such as particulate matter (PM), ozone (O₃), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) can enter the digestive tract via ingestion, inhalation, or bloodstream absorption.

1. The Digestive System as a Target of Pollutants

Airborne pollutants are not confined to the lungs; they can settle on food and water sources or be swallowed with mucus cleared from the respiratory tract. Once in the digestive system, these pollutants encounter a sensitive epithelial lining and a diverse gut microbiota. Both are susceptible to the toxic effects of pollutants. Research shows that particulate matter smaller than 2.5 micrometers (PM) can translocate across the intestinal barrier, triggering systemic inflammation and oxidative stress.

2. Impact on Gut Microbiota

The gut microbiota plays a crucial role in digestion, immune modulation, and nutrient metabolism. Air pollution, particularly PM and heavy metals, can disrupt microbial diversity and abundance, leading to dysbiosis. Dysbiosis has been implicated in conditions such as irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), and obesity. A study in mice exposed to diesel exhaust particles revealed a significant reduction in beneficial

bacteria, alongside increased populations of pro-inflammatory microbes.

3. Gut Inflammation and Intestinal Permeability

Air pollutants can exacerbate gut inflammation through direct and indirect mechanisms. Direct exposure to pollutants such as ozone and PAHs can damage epithelial cells, while systemic inflammation from inhaled pollutants can disrupt gut homeostasis. Chronic exposure to these irritants has been linked to increased intestinal permeability, often referred to as "leaky gut," which allows harmful substances to enter the bloodstream and trigger widespread inflammation. This condition is a known risk factor for autoimmune disorders and metabolic syndrome.

4. Contribution to Gastrointestinal Disorders

Air pollution has been associated with a range of gastrointestinal conditions, including:

- **Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD)**: Studies suggest that individuals living in areas with high air pollution levels are more likely to develop Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis. Pollutants are thought to trigger immune dysregulation and chronic inflammation, hallmark features of IBD.
- **Irritable Bowel Syndrome (IBS)**: While IBS is multifactorial, air pollution may exacerbate symptoms by

inducing oxidative stress and altering gut-brain communication pathways.

- **Gastroesophageal Reflux Disease (GERD)**: Exposure to airborne irritants can worsen GERD symptoms, due to increased inflammation and heightened sensitivity of the esophageal lining.

5. Increased Risk of Gastrointestinal Cancers

Long-term exposure to air pollution has been linked to an elevated risk of gastrointestinal cancers, particularly colorectal and gastric cancer. Pollutants such as PAHs and heavy metals can damage DNA, promote the formation of carcinogens, and impair immune surveillance, thereby facilitating tumor growth. A study involving over 500,000 participants found a significant association between PM exposure and colorectal cancer incidence.

6. Mitigation Strategies

Given the pervasive nature of air pollution, mitigating its impact on digestive health requires both individual and systemic approaches:

- **Air Purification**: Two ways to reduce exposure to air pollution is to install a portable air filtration unit that contains a HEPA filter and an activated carbon filter in sleeping and recreational areas within the household using indoor air purifiers and incorporating air-filtering plants.

AVOID

SLEEP DEPRIVATION

Restorative Sleep and the Microbiome: A Cornerstone of Digestive Well-Being

Sleep is a vital physiological process that occupies roughly one-third of human life. It serves as a critical restorative period for nearly every organ system, particularly the brain, immune system, and gastrointestinal tract. Over recent decades, disruptions in sleep patterns have become increasingly prevalent due to lifestyle, environmental stressors, and technological exposure. Mounting evidence now links sleep disorders—such as insomnia, sleep fragmentation, and obstructive sleep apnea—not only to cardiometabolic conditions like obesity, diabetes, and hypertension, but also to significant alterations in gut microbial composition and function.

Sleep is not a homogenous state but rather a cycle of dynamic and predictable stages that alternate throughout the night. These include non-rapid eye movement (NREM) stages (1 through 3, with stage 3 being slow-wave or deep sleep) and rapid eye movement (REM) sleep. NREM stage 3 is crucial for physical repair, immune modulation, and microbial regulation, while REM sleep supports neural plasticity, memory consolidation, and emotional regulation. Disruption of this cycle, especially fragmentation of slow-wave and

REM sleep, has been shown to induce systemic inflammation and negatively impact the gut microbiota.

Emerging studies using both animal models and human cohorts have demonstrated that inadequate or fragmented sleep can reduce microbial diversity and skew the microbial profile toward pro-inflammatory organisms. Sleep deprivation appears to promote the overgrowth of taxa associated with dysbiosis, including pathobionts from the phyla Proteobacteria and Firmicutes, while reducing populations of beneficial organisms like *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*, known for its butyrate production. This disruption in microbial equilibrium not only contributes to gut inflammation and increased intestinal permeability (commonly known as “leaky gut”) but also affects the bidirectional gut-brain axis, exacerbating mood disorders, cognitive decline, and poor sleep quality—a self-reinforcing feedback loop.

Conversely, consistent and restorative sleep supports the flourishing of beneficial microbes, enhances the production of short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) like butyrate, and promotes mucosal immunity.⁴ SCFAs have been shown to interact with G-protein coupled receptors and influence enteroendocrine cell function, modulate circadian rhythms in gut epithelial cells, and even affect sleep-promoting pathways through the vagus nerve. This suggests that one cannot restore digestive well-being or rebalance the microbiome without addressing sleep hygiene as a core therapeutic intervention.

The gut microbiome itself appears to have a circadian rhythm, with fluctuations in microbial abundance and metabolite production tied to the host's light-dark and feeding cycles. Sleep disturbances may therefore desynchronize this natural rhythm, impairing digestion, nutrient absorption, and immune surveillance. Restoring this harmony may require multifaceted approaches, including dietary interventions rich in fermentable fiber, timed feeding schedules, stress reduction, and prioritizing sleep quality.

In summary, restorative sleep is not a passive state but an active process that governs the integrity of the digestive ecosystem. Through its regulation of microbial diversity, metabolic activity, mucosal barrier integrity, and neuroimmune communication, sleep should be regarded as an essential component of any comprehensive strategy to restore and maintain gut health. In the pursuit of digestive well-being, sleep must no longer be considered secondary—it is foundational.

AVOID MEDICATING WITH **MULTIPLE UNREGULATED DRUGS** **HYPER-POLYPHARMACY**

DEFINITION:

The word “hyper-polypharmacy” is a portmanteau combining “hyper” meaning excessive and “polypharmacy” which refers to

the use of multiple medications, usually ten or more. The term emphasizes that extreme numbers of medications present risks including adverse drug reactions, alteration of the gut microbe populations, medication errors and greater health costs.

Most Supplements Are Unregulated:

Many medications taken are sold as unregulated dietary supplements. The supplement industry operates under different regulatory conditions compared to prescription medications. This leads to significant challenges in ensuring the safety and efficacy of these products.

Unlike pharmaceuticals, which must undergo rigorous testing and approval processes by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) before they can be marketed, over-the-counter supplements do not require pre-market approval from the FDA. This means that the responsibility for the safety and efficacy of dietary supplements lies primarily with the manufacturers and not with the regulatory agency.

Many dietary supplements are manufactured overseas, where regulations and manufacturing standards can vary widely. In some countries, the lack of stringent regulatory oversight and quality assurance measures can result in products that are of questionable quality and may even contain harmful contaminants or not contain the advertised ingredients at all.

FDA Oversight Is Limited:

This situation is compounded by the fact that the FDA's authority over dietary supplements is limited to post-market regulation, which means the agency can only act against a supplement if it is proven to be unsafe after it has already been sold to consumers.

The minimal oversight by the FDA in this area leads to a market flooded with products with claims related to health that are not always substantiated by scientific evidence. Rarely are these claims supported by robust scientific studies, and the results of those studies that are conducted are often not widely published or peer reviewed as those concerning prescription drugs.

This lack of transparency and accountability can put consumers at risk, who may believe they are consuming safe and effective products when this may not be the case.

Given these concerns, it is critical for consumers to remain skeptical of bold claims related to health made by dietary supplement manufacturers.

Adverse Drug Reactions (ADRs): One of the most significant risks associated with hyperpolypharmacy is the heightened potential for adverse drug reactions (ADRs). The interaction between multiple medications (drug-drug interactions) can lead to unpredictable side effects where one drug may inhibit or enhance the metabolism of another, reducing efficacy or increasing toxicity.

A healthcare professional should be consulted before using any new dietary supplement.

OTHER RISKS OF HYPER-POLYPHARMACY

Polypharmacy Cascade: The use of multiple medications (prescription and non-prescription) can trigger a polypharmacy cascade, wherein the side effects of one drug are mistakenly interpreted as symptoms of another condition, leading to further medication prescriptions. This vicious cycle can exacerbate health issues and complicate treatment regimens.

Cognitive Impairment: The cognitive burden imposed by managing numerous medications can lead to medication errors, non-adherence, and cognitive impairment. This, in turn, increases the risk of adverse outcomes such as falls, hospitalizations, and diminished quality of life.

Effect On The Microbiome: Many medications, including antibiotics, antacids, and psychotropic medications, can disrupt the gut microbe population, reducing beneficial bacteria and allowing pathogenic bacteria to thrive.

Alteration Of Microbe Metabolism: Changes in gut microbes can affect the metabolism of medications, leading to unpredictable drug levels and potential toxicity or therapeutic failures.

GET 20-30 MINUTES OF MODERATE PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AT LEAST FIVE DAYS PER WEEK

The Multifaceted Health Benefits of Physical Activity and Risks of Sedentary Behavior

Introduction: The health benefits of physical activity are well-documented in the scientific literature. Regular engagement in physical exercise is associated with reduced risks of chronic conditions, including cardiovascular disease, type II diabetes, and psychiatric disorders such as depression. Conversely, sedentary behavior—characterized by sitting or lying down with minimal energy expenditure—poses significant health risks, notably increasing the risk of type II diabetes and cardiovascular mortality.

Health Benefits of Physical Activity: Multiple studies underscore the positive impact of physical activity on health outcomes. Regular exercise has been shown to lower the incidence of cardiovascular disease through mechanisms such as improved vascular health, enhanced metabolic profiles, and regulation of blood pressure and lipid levels¹. Additionally, research has consistently found that exercise reduces the risk of developing type II diabetes by improving insulin sensitivity and glycemic control. Physical activity has also been identified as a protective

factor against depression, potentially due to its ability to enhance endorphin release and modulate neurotransmitter activity.

Risks of Sedentary Behavior: In contrast, sedentary behavior is associated with adverse health effects. Defined as sitting or reclining activities that expend low amounts of energy, prolonged sedentary behavior correlates with an increased risk of metabolic syndrome, type II diabetes, and cardiovascular-related mortality. Studies indicate that even individuals who meet recommended physical activity levels are at risk if their overall sedentary time is excessive⁵. This suggests that reducing sitting time is as important as engaging in regular physical exercise.

Physical Activity and the Gut Microbiome: Emerging research highlights the influence of physical activity on the gut microbiome, an integral part of human health. Regular exercise modulates the intestinal immune system, potentially reducing inflammation and enhancing gut barrier function. Physical activity can also accelerate intestinal transit time, which may prevent harmful microbial overgrowth. Furthermore, increased blood flow induced by exercise supports mucosal health and nutrient absorption. Physical activity has also been associated with changes in bile metabolism, which plays a role in microbial composition and digestive health.

INCORPORATING “HEALTHY FATS” **INTO A DIVERSE, MICROBIOME-** **SUPPORTING DIET**

A diet that supports both the host and the host’s microbiome goes beyond simply ingesting a wide array of plant-based fibers, polyols, polyphenols, resistant starches, legumes, whole grains, nuts, and seeds. While these components are essential for feeding the gut microbiome and generating beneficial microbial metabolites like short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), equally important is the thoughtful inclusion of “healthy fats” — lipids that support cellular, metabolic, and cardiovascular health.

“Healthy fats”, including monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFAs) and polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), play critical roles in maintaining membrane fluidity, supporting brain function, and modulating inflammation. Sources like extra virgin olive oil, avocados, nuts (especially walnuts and almonds), fatty fish (such as salmon, sardines, and mackerel), and seeds (like flaxseeds and chia seeds) provide a rich array of these beneficial lipids. Omega-3 PUFAs, in particular, are well-known for their anti-inflammatory and cardioprotective effects, influencing triglyceride levels, blood pressure, and endothelial function.

Importantly, the integration of “healthy fats” works synergistically with the microbiome-supporting components of the diet. For example, certain PUFAs can directly shape microbial composition, while the fat-soluble vitamins (A, D, E, and K) they carry are essential for immune regulation and mucosal integrity. Moreover, combining fats with fiber-rich or polyphenol-rich foods can enhance the bioavailability of critical phytonutrients and optimize nutrient absorption.

Conversely, overconsumption of saturated fats (common in processed meats and industrial snacks) or trans fats has been linked to dysbiosis, increased intestinal permeability, and pro-inflammatory metabolic profiles. Thus, a healthy diet prioritizes minimally processed, unsaturated fat sources that align with microbiome and systemic health goals.

In summary, dietary health recognizes the importance of both microbial-accessible carbohydrates and high-quality lipids. Together, these elements foster a metabolic environment conducive to long-term health, supporting not only the host but also the symbiotic microbial communities within.

SECTION NINETEEN:

INTRODUCTION TO THE

BIOTIC FAMILY

UNDERSTANDING PREBIOTICS, PROBIOTICS, POSTBIOTICS, AND SYNBIOTICS

While public interest in prebiotics, probiotics, postbiotics, and synbiotics has surged—spurred by claims of improved digestion, immunity, and even mental health—many of these terms are now used freely in consumer marketing, applied to everything from beverages to beauty products and even pet food. This popular enthusiasm has often outpaced the scientific evidence. In response, organizations such as the International Scientific Association for Probiotics and Prebiotics (ISAPP) and the American Gastroenterological Association (AGA) have issued evidence-based guidelines to clarify definitions, set minimum standards of efficacy, and promote responsible use of these bioactives in both clinical practice and consumer products.

PREBIOTICS

Prebiotics are selectively fermented, non-digestible food components that confer a health benefit by modulating the composition or activity of the gut microbiota. However, not all

fibers are prebiotics—they must meet specific criteria for selective utilization by beneficial microbes.

While most recognized prebiotics are carbohydrates—such as inulin, fructooligosaccharides, and galactooligosaccharides—the field is expanding. Emerging research shows that certain non-carbohydrate compounds can also act as prebiotics, provided they are selectively metabolized by gut microbes and support host health. Examples include plant-derived polyphenols, specific amino acids, and even some peptides, all of which may influence microbial composition and metabolite output.

Prebiotics are often discussed in the broader context of MACs, or microbiota-accessible carbohydrates. MACs refer to any dietary carbohydrates that can be metabolized by gut microbes. However, not all MACs qualify as prebiotics. For a compound to be considered a true prebiotic, it must not only be fermentable by microbes, but also demonstrate selective utilization by beneficial organisms and confer a measurable health benefit to the host.

PROBIOTICS

Probiotics are live microorganisms which, when administered in adequate amounts, confer a health benefit on the host. The majority of probiotic microbes can carry out the chemical process of fermentation, particularly within the anaerobic (oxygen-free) environment of the colon. This fermentation of carbohydrates yields acids and metabolites that help acidify the gut, suppress

pathogens, and promote mucosal health. However, a probiotic's ability to ferment is not a required characteristic. According to accepted definitions, a probiotic must simply demonstrate that its presence confers a measurable benefit to the host—regardless of its metabolic mechanism or oxygen tolerance. For example, *Saccharomyces boulardii*, a yeast-based probiotic, is capable of surviving in oxygen-rich environments and contributes to gut health through both fermentation and immune modulation, despite not being an obligate anaerobe.

Natural Sources of Probiotics

Kefir (Pasteurized)

A tangy, fermented milk drink made by inoculating milk with kefir grains—a symbiotic culture of bacteria and yeasts (SCOBY). Despite pasteurization post-fermentation reducing live content, some commercial kefirs may retain viable strains such as *Lactobacillus kefir* and *Saccharomyces unisporus*, contributing to improved digestion and immune modulation.

Kombucha

A fizzy, tangy tea fermented by a SCOBY of acetic acid bacteria and yeast. Kombucha contains organic acids, antioxidants, and live microbes like *Gluconacetobacter xylinus* and *Zygosaccharomyces*, which may support gut barrier integrity and liver detoxification.

Brined Pickles (Unpasteurized)

Cucumbers fermented in saltwater brine (not vinegar) can harbor *Lactobacillus plantarum* and other lactic acid bacteria. These strains aid in digestion and exhibit antimicrobial properties against foodborne pathogens.

Miso

A fermented soybean paste used in Japanese cuisine. Fermentation with *Aspergillus oryzae*, along with lactic acid bacteria, creates a savory, umami-rich product with peptides that may lower blood pressure and support gut microbiota diversity.

Tempeh

A firm, cake-like product made by fermenting cooked soybeans with the mold *Rhizopus oligosporus*. Though pasteurized for safety, tempeh retains prebiotic fibers and may contain residual live spores that support gut health and protein absorption.

Natto

Fermented soybeans known for their strong flavor and sticky texture. Rich in *Bacillus subtilis*, natto produces nattokinase, an enzyme associated with cardiovascular benefits and clot prevention.

Kimchi

A spicy Korean side dish of fermented cabbage and vegetables. Typically includes *Lactobacillus brevis* and *Lactobacillus plantarum*, along with beneficial metabolites like short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) and vitamins.

Yogurt (Pasteurized)

A dairy product fermented with *Lactobacillus bulgaricus* and *Streptococcus thermophilus*. Although pasteurization may reduce live content, many yogurts are supplemented with viable strains such as *Lactobacillus acidophilus*, offering benefits in lactose digestion and immune support.

Apple Cider Vinegar with the “Mother”

Raw, unfiltered vinegar containing strands of proteins, enzymes, and beneficial bacteria like *Acetobacter*. The “mother” may aid digestion and regulate blood sugar levels.

Kvass

A traditional Eastern European fermented beverage made from rye bread or beets. Contains lactic acid bacteria and yeast, offering mild probiotic effects and antioxidants.

Coconut Kefir (Pasteurized)

A non-dairy version of kefir made from coconut water fermented with kefir grains. Often pasteurized post-fermentation, it may

retain probiotic residues and offers electrolytes, organic acids, and a mild antimicrobial effect.

Yakult

A commercially available probiotic drink containing *Lactobacillus casei* Shirota. Extensively studied for its ability to reduce constipation, improve gut motility, and modulate immune function.

POSTBIOTICS

Postbiotics are the bioactive metabolites produced when probiotics ferment prebiotic substrates. These include short-chain fatty acids like butyrate, acetate, and propionate, as well as bacteriocins, enzymes, and peptidoglycans. They modulate inflammation, support gut barrier function, and influence systemic processes through gut-brain and gut-liver signaling pathways.

SYNBIOTICS

Synbiotics are formulations that combine prebiotics and probiotics to enhance the viability and effectiveness of beneficial microbes. They may be complementary (independent effects) or synergistic (designed to support each other directly). Synbiotics are used in clinical and dietary applications to restore balance in the gut microbiome.⁶

WHAT HAPPENED TO CAROLINE?



Caroline's case was evaluated through the lens of a dysfunctional intestinal ecosystem. Her early life experiences were critical to understanding her health challenges. Born prematurely via Cesarean section and bottle-fed, she was at substantial risk for a compromised immune system.

During her first three years, Caroline had experienced multiple infections, requiring repeated courses of antibiotics that severely diminished the density and diversity of her intestinal microbiota, impairing her immune development. Throughout childhood, recurrent infections necessitated additional antibiotic treatments, further disrupting her microbial ecosystems.

In adolescence, she developed acne, leading to prolonged antibiotic use, which again reduced microbial diversity and may have eradicated species that could never be fully restored.

As a young adult, Caroline followed a diet deficient in dietary fiber, essential for sustaining a healthy microbiome. With an already compromised microbial population from early life, her lack of microbial nourishment weakened her immune defenses. This contributed to reduced protective mucus production and increased intestinal permeability, allowing toxins, microbes, and antigens to enter her system.

This persistent breach of her gut barrier triggered chronic inflammation, fueling both local intestinal symptoms and systemic health issues. Additionally, her poor oral hygiene led to periodontitis, creating another ongoing source of infection and inflammation. This oral microbial imbalance not only seeded her digestive tract with harmful bacteria but also contributed to systemic inflammatory burden.

Restoring Caroline's Microbiome

Addressing Caroline's dysbiosis was paramount. Although challenging, her recovery required a multifaceted approach, including:

- **Meticulous oral hygiene and regular periodontal care**
- **Judicious antibiotic use to prevent further microbial disruption**
- **A diverse diet rich in fruits, vegetables, nuts, seeds, legumes, beans, whole grains, human milk oligosaccharides, resistant starches, polyols, and polyphenols**

- The ingestion of “healthy fats”
- Lifestyle modifications: prioritizing sleep, exercise, and hydration, particularly with drinking distilled water
- Avoidance of alcohol, tobacco, and recreational drugs
- Incorporation of natural probiotics and prebiotics, prioritizing food sources rather than supplements
- Attention to air quality for reducing environmental microbial stressors
- Up-to-date immunizations to bolster immune resilience
- Reduction of unnecessary supplements to avoid potential microbiome disturbances

Implementing these strategies offered Caroline *and her microbiome* a path to improved digestive health.

Progress and Outcome

After months of commitment to these interventions, Caroline has experienced significant improvements. While not perfect, she felt markedly better. Her symptoms diminished, her energy levels increased, and her sleep became more restful. She regained mental clarity, and her body aches and pains subsided. Gastrointestinal symptoms—including burping, bloating, flatulence, and distention—decreased. Foods she had long avoided were gradually reintroduced without triggering discomfort.

Though she still experiences occasional bowel irregularity, with brief episodes of diarrhea or constipation, these occurrences are

infrequent and typically linked to insufficient intake of dietary fiber or antibiotic use.

Caroline now takes greater care in her dietary choices and dental hygiene. With renewed confidence in her health, she envisions a more hopeful and sustainable future.

LIST 1

FOODS CONTAINING FERMENTABLE FIBER THAT

FUNCTION AS

NATURALLY OCCURRING PREBIOTICS

FRUITS

- Apples
- Apricots
- Bananas
- Blackberries
- Blueberries
- Cherries
- Coconut
- Dates
- Figs
- Kiwifruit
- Nectarines
- Oranges



- Peaches
- Pears
- Plums
- Pomegranates
- Prunes
- Raisins
- Raspberries
- Strawberries

VEGETABLES

- Acorn squash
- Artichokes
- Arugula
- Asparagus
- Avocados
- Beets
- Broccoli
- Brussels sprouts
- Cabbage
- Carrots
- Celery
- Collard greens
- Corn (sweet, boiled)
- Cauliflower



- **Eggplant**
- **Green beans**
- **Green peas**
- **Edamame**
- **Kale**
- **Okra**
- **Olives**
- **Onions**
- **Parsnips**
- **Peppers**
- **Potato (baked, with skin)**
- **Pumpkin**
- **Radishes**
- **Rutabaga**
- **Shallots**
- **Snap peas**
- **Snow peas**
- **Spinach**
- **Squash**
- **Sweet potatoes**
- **Tomatoes**
- **Turnips**
- **White mushrooms**
- **Zucchini**

NUTS

- Almonds
- Brazil nuts
- Cashews
- Chestnuts
- Granola
- Hazelnuts
- Macadamia nuts
- Pine nuts
- Peanuts
- Pecans
- Sunflower kernels
- Walnuts



SEEDS AND GRAINS

- Chia
- Flax
- Hemp
- Pistachios
- Pumpkin
- Quinoa
- Sesame
- Sunflower



BEANS AND LENTILS

- **Wheat bran**
- **Baked beans**
- **Black beans**
- **Black-eyed peas**
- **Garbanzo beans**
- **Kidney beans**
- **Lentils**
- **Lima beans**
- **Mung beans**
- **Northern beans**
- **Navy beans**
- **Pinto beans**
- **Split peas**
- **Soybeans**
- **Soy yogurt**
- **Tempe**
- **Tofu**



LIST 2

FOOD ITEMS THAT CONTAIN RESISTANT STARCHES

Cooked and cooled potatoes

- Cooked and then cooled white potatoes
- Cooked and then cooled sweet potatoes

Green bananas

- Underripe or green bananas

Plantains

- Green or underripe plantains

Cooked and cooled rice

- Cooked and then cooled white rice
- Cooked and then cooled brown rice

Cooked and cooled legumes

- Lentils
- Chickpeas
- Black beans
- Kidney beans

Cooked and cooled pasta

- Cooked and then cooled pasta

Oats

- Rolled oats
- Steel-cut oats

Barley

- Pearl barley
- Hulled barley

Cornmeal

- Cornmeal

Cooked and cooled millet

- Cooked and then cooled millet

Cooked and cooled quinoa

- Cooked and then cooled quinoa

LIST 3

FACTORS MAKING UP THE EXPOSOME

PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

Air Quality

- Outdoor pollutants (e.g., particulate matter, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide)
- Indoor pollutants (e.g., tobacco smoke, radon, volatile organic compounds from furniture and cleaning products)
- Natural allergens (e.g., pollen, mold spores)

Water Quality

- Drinking water contaminants (e.g., lead, arsenic, chromium, volatile organic compounds, microplastics)
- Recreational water exposure (e.g., chlorine, pathogens in pools or lakes)

Soil and Land Use

- Pesticides and herbicides in agricultural areas
- Heavy metals in soil (e.g., mercury, cadmium)

Climate and Weather

- UV radiation (sun exposure)
- Extreme weather events (e.g., heatwaves, floods, wildfires)
- Seasonal temperature variations

Noise Pollution

- Urban noise (e.g., traffic, industrial noise)
- Low-frequency vibrations

Electromagnetic Radiation

- Natural sources (e.g., solar radiation)
- Artificial sources (e.g., wireless devices, power lines)

CHEMICAL EXPOSURES

Dietary Chemicals

- Pesticide residues in food
- Preservatives (e.g., flavorings, colorants, shelf life extenders, texture enhancers, artificial sweeteners)
- Contaminants (e.g., BPA, microplastics, heavy metals)
- Cooking byproducts (e.g., acrylamide, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons)

Industrial and Household Chemicals

- Cleaning agents and disinfectants
- Personal care products (e.g., parabens, phthalates in cosmetics)
- Flame retardants in furniture and electronics

Tobacco and Nicotine Products

- Active smoking or vaping
- Secondhand and thirdhand smoke exposure
- Alcohol and Other Substances
- Ethanol (drinking alcohol)
- Recreational drugs (e.g., cannabis, opioids)
- Illicit drugs

Pharmaceuticals and Supplements

- Antibiotics and their role in microbiome disturbance
- Over-the-counter medications
- Nutraceuticals, vitamins, and herbal supplements

BIOLOGICAL EXPOSURES

Microbial Ecosystems

- Pathogens (e.g., bacteria, viruses, fungi, parasites)
- Dysbiosis in the gut microbiome
- Exposure to beneficial microbes (e.g., probiotics, fermented foods)

Infectious Diseases

- Viral infections (e.g., influenza, SARS-CoV-2, HIV, Respiratory Syncytial virus)
- Parasitic infections (e.g., Giardia, malaria)
- Fungal infections (e.g., Candida)

Allergens and Biotoxins

- Animal dander and dust mites
- Mycotoxins from mold
- Plant-based allergens (e.g., poison ivy, ragweed)

SOCIAL AND BEHAVIORAL EXPOSURES

Dietary Patterns

- High-fat, high-sugar diets
- Fiber-deficient versus plant-based diets

Physical Activity

- Sedentary lifestyles versus active routines
- Occupational or recreational exposure to physical exertion

Substance Use and Abuse

- Tobacco, alcohol, and recreational drug use

Social Stressors

- Socioeconomic status and inequality
 - Workplace stress, unemployment, and job insecurity
 - Social isolation versus community support

Psychological Stressors

- Adverse childhood experiences (ACEs)
- Chronic stress, anxiety, and depression

LIFESTYLE EXPOSURES

Sleep Patterns

- Chronic sleep deprivation
- Night-shift work and circadian rhythm disruptions

Hygiene and Sanitation

- Excessive hygiene practices ("hygiene hypothesis")
- Poor sanitation or access to clean water

Travel and Migration

- Exposure to new pathogens and microbiomes
- Changes in diet and environment due to relocation

OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURES

Chemical Hazards

- Solvents, asbestos, and heavy metals
- Pesticides and industrial chemicals

Physical Hazards

- Radiation exposure (e.g., diagnostic and therapeutic X-ray, gamma radiation)
- Repetitive strain or ergonomic challenges

Biological Hazards

- Zoonotic diseases from animal handling
- Hospital-acquired infections

DEVELOPMENTAL AND EARLY-LIFE EXPOSURES

Prenatal Exposures

- Maternal diet and toxin exposure
- Hormonal disruptions and medications during pregnancy

Birth and Early-Life Events

- Mode of delivery (C-section versus vaginal birth)
- Breastfeeding versus formula feeding
- Early exposure to antibiotics

Childhood Environment

- Passive smoking exposure
- Microbiome imprinting by home environment and diet

GENETIC AND EPIGENETIC INTERACTIONS

Inherited Susceptibilities

- Genetic predispositions to diseases

EXPOSURE TIMING AND LIFESPAN FACTORS

Cumulative Exposures

- Lifetime accumulation of toxins
- Long-term impacts of early-life insults

Critical Windows of Susceptibility

- *In utero* development
- Puberty and hormonal changes
- Aging and immunosenescence

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GLOSSARY

Activated Charcoal Filtration: A filtration method that uses a porous form of carbon to trap impurities, toxins, and chemicals from air or water. In medical contexts, activated charcoal is used for detoxification by adsorbing substances onto its surface rather than absorbing them internally.

Anthocyanins: Natural pigments found in red, purple, and blue fruits and vegetables. These compounds have strong antioxidant properties and may help reduce inflammation, support cardiovascular health, and protect against oxidative damage.

Blood-Brain Barrier: A tightly regulated barrier composed of endothelial cells that separates circulating blood from the brain's extracellular fluid. It protects the brain by blocking the entry of harmful substances while allowing essential nutrients and gases to pass through.

Carotenoids: Plant pigments responsible for yellow, orange, and red colors in foods such as carrots and tomatoes. They serve as antioxidants and include beta-carotene, which the body converts into vitamin A. Carotenoids play a role in vision, immune function, and skin health.

Cytokines: Small protein messengers secreted by immune cells that regulate inflammation, immunity, and cellular communication. Pro-inflammatory cytokines (like TNF-alpha and

IL-6) can trigger fever and immune activation, while anti-inflammatory cytokines (like IL-10) help resolve immune responses.

Eco-biologic Systems: A conceptual framework that views human health as deeply interwoven with the environment, including microbes, food webs, and ecological exposures. This systems-based approach considers how disruptions to microbial ecosystems, biodiversity, or natural cycles can influence disease and resilience.

Epigenetics: The study of how gene expression is regulated without altering the DNA sequence itself. Environmental factors, diet, stress, and microbial metabolites can all modify epigenetic markers, which in turn affect how genes are turned on or off across the lifespan.

Fatty Acid Oxidation: A metabolic process that breaks down fatty acids in the mitochondria to generate energy. This process is essential for maintaining energy homeostasis, especially during fasting or prolonged exercise.

FxR Receptor: Short for Farnesoid X Receptor, a nuclear receptor activated by bile acids. It plays a critical role in regulating bile acid synthesis, lipid metabolism, and inflammation, especially within the gut-liver axis.

Genome: The complete set of genetic material in an organism, including all of its genes and non-coding sequences. In humans, the genome provides the blueprint for development, function, and inheritance.

Immunity: The body's defense system that identifies and eliminates pathogens such as bacteria, viruses, and toxins. Immunity can be innate (present at birth) or adaptive (developed through exposure), and is influenced by microbial health, diet, age, and environment.

IL-1: Short for Interleukin-1, a pro-inflammatory cytokine that is released early during immune responses. It plays a key role in fever induction, inflammation, and the activation of immune cells.

IL-6: Interleukin-6 is a multifunctional cytokine involved in inflammation, immune regulation, and metabolic control. It is elevated in many chronic diseases and can serve both protective and harmful roles depending on context.

IL-10: A cytokine with anti-inflammatory properties that helps limit immune responses and prevent damage to host tissues. It plays a crucial role in maintaining immune tolerance and homeostasis.

Immunosenescence: The gradual deterioration of the immune system associated with aging. It includes reduced responsiveness to infections and vaccines, and a higher risk of inflammatory diseases.

Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD)

A group of chronic conditions, including Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis, characterized by persistent inflammation of the

gastrointestinal tract. IBD is linked to immune dysregulation, microbiome alterations, and genetic susceptibility.

Irritable Bowel Syndrome (IBS)

A functional gastrointestinal disorder marked by abdominal pain, bloating, and altered bowel habits. IBS is often linked to gut-brain axis dysfunction, microbial imbalances, and visceral hypersensitivity.

Leaky Gut

A non-medical term referring to increased intestinal permeability, where the tight junctions between gut lining cells become compromised. This can allow toxins, microbes, and undigested food particles to enter the bloodstream, potentially triggering immune and inflammatory responses.

MACs (Microbiota-Accessible Carbohydrates)

Dietary fibers and resistant starches that are not digested by human enzymes but are fermented by gut microbes. These carbohydrates support the growth of beneficial bacteria and are essential for short-chain fatty acid production.

Microglia: Specialized immune cells located in the central nervous system that act as the brain's first line of defense. Microglia respond to injury, remove debris, and regulate neuroinflammation. They are increasingly implicated in neurodegenerative diseases.

Mitochondrial DNA: Genetic material located in the mitochondria, distinct from nuclear DNA. It is inherited maternally and codes for proteins essential to energy metabolism. Damage to mitochondrial DNA is associated with aging and chronic disease.

MUFA (Monounsaturated Fatty Acids): A type of healthy fat found in olive oil, avocados, and certain nuts. MUFAs can improve cholesterol levels, reduce inflammation, and support metabolic health.

Oxidative Stress: A state where the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) exceeds the body's ability to neutralize them. This imbalance can damage DNA, proteins, and lipids, contributing to aging and chronic disease.

pH: A scale that measures the acidity or alkalinity of a substance, ranging from 0 (very acidic) to 14 (very alkaline), with 7 being neutral. pH regulation is vital for enzymatic activity, microbial balance, and physiological stability.

Polyol: A sugar alcohol used as a low-calorie sweetener. Polyols are poorly absorbed in the gut and can cause bloating or gas in sensitive individuals. Some, like xylitol, have beneficial effects on dental health.

Polyphenols: A diverse group of plant compounds with antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties. Found in tea, berries, and spices, polyphenols can influence the gut microbiota and support immune and metabolic health.

Postbiotics: The beneficial byproducts produced when probiotics ferment prebiotics in the gut. These include short-chain fatty acids and other metabolites that support gut barrier function, reduce inflammation, and modulate immunity.

Prebiotics: Non-digestible food components, typically fibers or plant-based compounds, that selectively nourish beneficial gut microbes. Prebiotics support the growth of probiotic bacteria and contribute to short-chain fatty acid production.

Probiotics: Live microorganisms that, when consumed in adequate amounts, confer health benefits to the host. Common probiotic strains include species of *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium*, often found in fermented foods or supplements.

Preeclampsia: A pregnancy-related condition characterized by high blood pressure, protein in the urine, and potential damage to organs such as the liver or kidneys. It involves inflammation, oxidative stress, and endothelial dysfunction.

REM Sleep: Short for Rapid Eye Movement sleep, a unique phase of sleep characterized by vivid dreaming, muscle atonia, and increased brain activity. REM sleep supports cognitive function, emotional processing, and memory consolidation.

Resistant Starches: Types of starch that resist digestion in the small intestine and reach the colon intact, where they are fermented by gut microbes. This fermentation produces short-chain fatty acids and supports metabolic and digestive health.

Shotgun Metagenomics: An advanced sequencing technique that analyzes all genetic material present in a sample, allowing researchers to identify and quantify entire microbial communities and their functional genes without needing to isolate individual organisms.

Saturated Fats: Fats in which all carbon atoms are bonded with hydrogen atoms, making them solid at room temperature. Found in butter, cheese, and red meat, excessive intake of saturated fats has been associated with cardiovascular risk.

Symbiotics: Combinations of probiotics and prebiotics that work synergistically to promote a healthy gut microbiome. Symbiotics enhance microbial colonization, diversity, and metabolic activity in the gastrointestinal tract.

TgR5 Receptor: Also known as TGR5 or GPBAR1, this is a bile acid receptor located on various cell types including intestinal and immune cells. Activation of TgR5 can reduce inflammation and regulate energy expenditure.

TNF-alpha: Tumor Necrosis Factor-alpha is a potent pro-inflammatory cytokine involved in immune regulation and inflammation. Elevated TNF-alpha is linked to autoimmune disorders, sepsis, and chronic inflammatory conditions.

Treg Cell: Short for regulatory T cell, a type of immune cell that helps maintain tolerance to self-antigens and prevents autoimmune disease. Treg cells suppress excessive immune responses and promote immune balance.

Unsaturated Fats: Fats that have one or more double bonds in their carbon chains, making them liquid at room temperature. They are typically found in plant oils, nuts, seeds, and fish, and are considered heart-healthy.

Volatile Organic Compounds: Carbon-based compounds that easily evaporate into the air. In the context of health, VOCs can be emitted by building materials, cleaning agents, or even gut microbes, and may contribute to indoor air pollution or microbial communication.

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