

Meat Intake and the Dose of Vitamin B₃ – Nicotinamide: Cause of the Causes of Disease Transitions, Health Divides, and Health Futures?

International Journal of Tryptophan Research
Volume 10: 1–22
© The Author(s) 2017
Reprints and permissions:
sagepub.co.uk/journalsPermissions.nav
DOI: 10.1177/1178646917704662



Lisa J Hill¹ and Adrian C Williams²

¹Neuroscience and Ophthalmology Research Group, Institute of Inflammation and Ageing, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK. ²Department of Neurology, University Hospitals Birmingham NHS Foundation Trust, Birmingham, UK.

ABSTRACT: Meat and vitamin B₃ – nicotinamide – intake was high during hunter-gatherer times. Intake then fell and variances increased during and after the Neolithic agricultural revolution. Health, height, and IQ deteriorated. Low dietary doses are buffered by 'welcoming' gut symbionts and tuberculosis that can supply nicotinamide, but this co-evolved homeostatic metagenomic strategy risks dysbioses and impaired resistance to pathogens. Vitamin B₃ deficiency may now be common among the poor billions on a low-meat diet. Disease transitions to non-communicable inflammatory disorders (but longer lives) may be driven by positive 'meat transitions'. High doses of nicotinamide lead to reduced regulatory T cells and immune intolerance. Loss of no longer needed symbiotic 'old friends' compounds immunological over-reactivity to cause allergic and auto-immune diseases. Inhibition of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide consumers and loss of methyl groups or production of toxins may cause cancers, metabolic toxicity, or neurodegeneration. An optimal dosage of vitamin B₃ could lead to better health, but such a preventive approach needs more equitable meat distribution. Some people may require personalised doses depending on genetic make-up or, temporarily, when under stress.

KEYWORDS: Diet, hyper- vitaminosis B₃, nicotinamide, tryptophan, disease transitions, health inequality, hygiene hypothesis, environmental enteropathy, Parkinson, metabolic syndrome, cancer, allergies, pellagra

RECEIVED: December 19, 2016. **ACCEPTED:** March 15, 2017.

PEER REVIEW: Five peer reviewers contributed to the peer review report. Reviewers' reports totalled 288 words, excluding any confidential comments to the academic editor.

TYPE: Review

FUNDING: The author(s) disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: This study is funded by QEHB Charities.

DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS: The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Adrian C Williams, Department of Neurology, University Hospitals Birmingham NHS Foundation Trust, Birmingham B15 2TH, UK. Email: Adrian.Williams@uhb.nhs.uk

No civilisation can be sound or stable which has at its base
this mass of stunted life.

Poverty, Seebohm Rowntree, 1900.

It must first, however, be generally believed with Sydenham,
that our chronic maladies are of our own making.

Thomas Beddoes, 1800.

Introduction

Meat transitions have been a feature of human history. Ever since the evolution of agriculture, there have been marked variances of meat intake between rich and poor nations and individuals within social classes, and therefore, oscillations of key components such as nicotinamide that when severely deficient causes pellagra.^{1–5} Nicotinamide and its derivatives nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) and reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD(H)) are intrinsic to mitochondrial function, and levels can be high, optimal, or low: these can involve manageable change through homeostasis or use of symbionts (or when short-lived, can be a beneficial hormetic shock). However, if nicotinamide supplies are very low, this can lead to energy decline with loss of high-energy molecules and disease often through protein modifications – as is seen with pellagra and similar to those seen with some mitochondrial and other mutations.^{6,7} Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide is an important 'food signal' to all organisms and, often mediated by

serotonin, has defining effects on development, circadian rhythms, gene regulation through chromatin remodelling, and reproductive and other behaviour.^{8,9} NADH as a cofactor performs more than 500 key dehydrogenase and other reactions, excluding NAD reactions that are important to metabolism, (stem-cell) development, repair, and longevity, but then is consumed – so it requires constant replenishment ultimately from dietary precursors.¹⁰

Much has been written about modern maladaptations relative to our long hunter-gatherer days. These mismatches usually concentrate on loss of fibre or excessive sugar or fructose or gluten in recent affluent diets.^{5,11–23} We argue that a high risk of too little nicotinamide may be the most important difference between diets in the past 10000 years and those in the Palaeolithic. During that long time, as we (co)evolved much of our nutrigenome, microbiome, and 'meat cultures', variances were usually 'feasts or famines' (or fatal as meat then provided most of the calories) rather than chronic shortages over lifetimes. The first Neolithic agricultural revolution and the second 'Green revolution' 50 years ago may have, as an unintended consequence, reduced meat and micronutrients for those in poverty. Both revolutions increased cereal availability reducing hunger but not the 'hidden hunger' of micronutrient deficiency in something of a 'Faustian' bargain.²⁴

Nicotinamide's approximate concentrations in foods are shown in Table 1.^{25,26} Milk contains average amounts of



Table 1. Main sources of nicotinamide are animal products.

Red meat	100	
Chicken	70	
Fish	50	
Peanuts	100	
Coffee	50	
Beans	10	
Barley	20	Processed/polished cereals = much less. Less may also be available in cereals as it is biologically bound and so dependent on cooking methods
Wheat	15	
Rice	10	
Potato	10	
Sorghum	10	
Soybean	10	
Maize	8	
Vegetables	2–6	
Fruits	4–8	
Brewer's yeast	120	

Approximate nicotinamide in foods (mg/100g). Supplementation is statutory in many developed countries. Manufacturers add considerably more to cereals and other foodstuffs such as 'high-energy' drinks. Note that all cereals have low content, maize being the worst: processing and cooking can decrease content markedly with the exception of alkali preparation that increases availability. Daily recommended allowance is 15 mg/day – that can be corrected depending on estimated tryptophan intake.

nicotinamide but high amounts of the potent nicotinamide riboside. Culturally acquired cooking methods 'nixtamalisation' can improve availability of nicotinamide from the bound form niacytin: the microbiome can contribute as many bacterial symbionts can synthesise nicotinamide, though, whether they share all this with other bacteria that cannot, or, with the host is unclear in man, though, must happen in ruminants. The synthetic pathway from tryptophan is inefficient but can supply 1 mg of niacin for 60 mg of tryptophan depending on other factors including pyridoxine and iron or zinc availability and high-fat or leucine diets. Tryptophan is sourced largely from animal products boosting the importance of meat, eggs, and milk. Cereals particularly maize barely increase post-prandial levels of tryptophan, and transport across the blood-brain barrier can be reduced by other amino acids complicating effects on mood and cognition.^{27–32}

'Meatification' of the diet doubled meat intake in the United Kingdom between 1850 and 1960 and has overall increased by 2-fold average intake from 20 to 40 kg per annum per person in 1960 to double that in 2010 (as has nicotinamide intake) and is predicted to rise to 50 kg per annum.^{33,34} The extremes are striking at 120 kg per annum per person as an average in many

rich countries (who also obtain nicotinamide as mandated supplements and manufacturer's additives) but 20 kg per annum per person in many poor countries with many individuals eating negligible amounts that have to affect a society's health and industriousness.^{35,36}

Such individuals must be at risk of the classic meat deficiency disorder particularly when on a poor monophagic cereal diet (usually maize), known as pellagra. Pellagrins can have a diagnostic rash 'Casal necklace' triggered by sunlight. The rash, however, is not always present or characteristic (often diagnosed as eczema) – 'pellagra sine pellagra'.³⁷ Other cardinal features of pellagra such as gut infections and neurodevelopmental and neuropsychiatric syndromes and an inability to deal with stress or an absence of allergies are non-specific, so the diagnosis is bound to be missed (Figure 1). There is no easy biochemical test.

Hypotheses

We will argue that nobody ever systematically checked that pellagra was eliminated globally (dietary supplementation mainly happened in rich countries). Pellagra may be common and misdiagnosed masquerading as 'environmental enteropathy', poor cognition, eczema, or general ill health and a lack of well-being or poor homeostasis when under environmental stress with shortened lives.^{38,39}

We also argue that environmental insults from trauma, hypoxia, toxins, stress, or mutations (such as in mitochondrial or DNA-repair genes) may require either lifetime or temporary higher doses than normally recommended (15 mg/d).

Controversially, we suggest that many people in rich countries may be on too high a dose. A hyper-vitaminosis B₃ state may be common and, like pellagra, have a wide phenotype that includes the metabolic syndrome, several cancers, and some degenerative or neuro-behavioural disorders.⁴⁰

Furthermore, we propose that the transition from diseases of poverty to diseases of affluence is due to switching the dose of meat/nicotinamide too fast and too far.^{41,42} The most recent version of the 'hygiene hypothesis' concentrates on reductions in symbiotic/commensal biome diversity acquired early in development, not cleanliness during childhood and common pathogens.^{43–46} We will discuss how a biochemical switch away from the need to produce nicotinamide 'in house' from tryptophan, and the related reduced metabolic need for gut symbionts or tuberculosis (TB) on a better diet so that they are no longer 'welcomed' by the immune system is a more plausible explanation for the loss of microbial 'old friends'. This switch of microbiomes reduces tolerogenic instruction to the immune system further encouraging it to over-react to otherwise irrelevant foreign proteins or self-proteins.⁴⁷

Biochemical Background

We summarise NAD metabolism in a diagrammatic form (Figures 2 to 4). Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide has 3 related precursor vitamins – nicotinamide, nicotinic acid, and

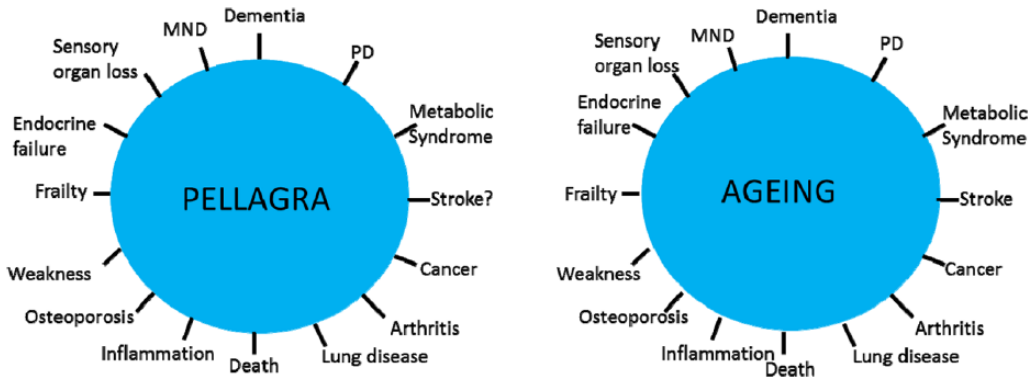


Figure 1. Pellagra has a very wide phenotype. The parallel with diseases of ageing are striking. NAD/NADH/nicotinamide imbalances may be the treatable underlying common factor to many common diseases whether from dietary deficiency or excess or varying needs from genetic mutation, toxic, anoxic, or other external stresses. NAD indicates nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide.

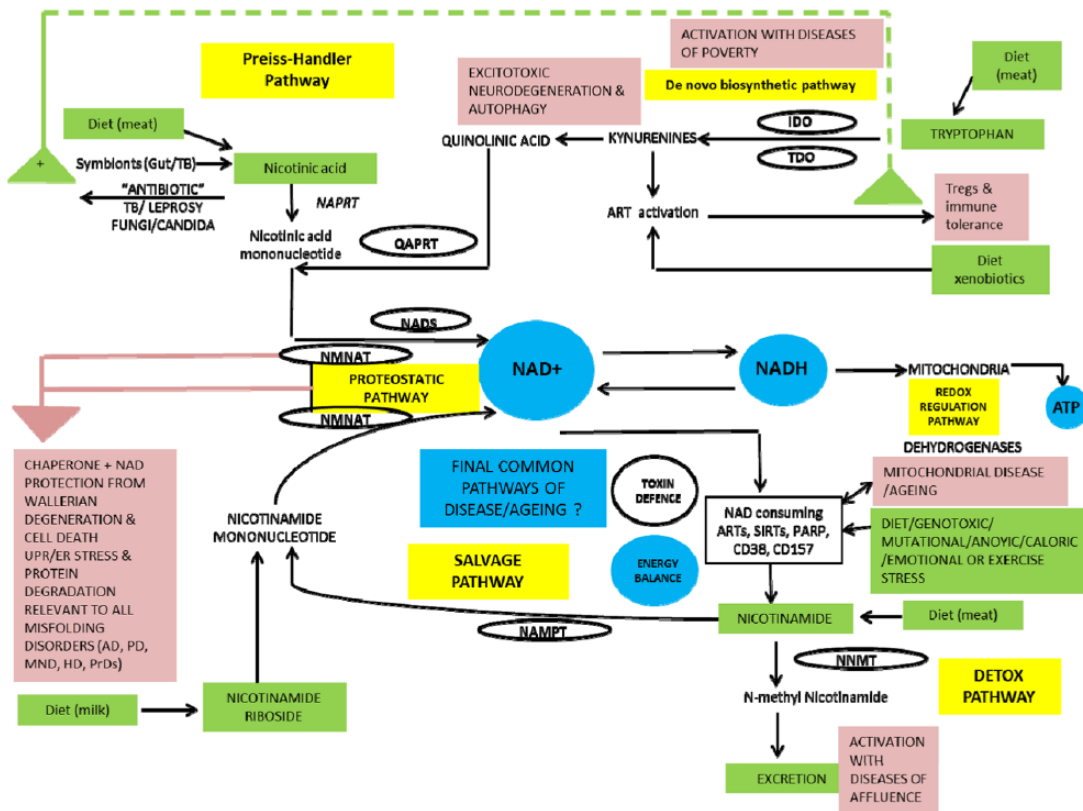


Figure 2. Diet supplies nicotinamide, nicotinic acid, and nicotinamide riboside as well as the essential amino acid tryptophan. Tryptophan can be degraded to synthesise nicotinamide when there is dietary stress by the kynurenine ‘de novo’ ‘immune tolerance’ pathway. Symbionts, whether in gut or TB, are a backup source as is ‘autocarnivory’. Salvage pathways are extensive and efficient to conserve NAD/nicotinamide as NAD consumers mean that there is a continuous need for replenishment. Many are involved in repair and disease processes and ageing. Excess nicotinamide can be excreted after a methylation reaction by NNMT. NNMT, indicates nicotinamide *N*-methyltransferase; TB, tuberculosis.

nicotinamide riboside – that have highly efficient synthetic and recycling ‘salvage’ pathways and one ‘detoxification’ pathway using nicotinamide *N*-methyltransferase (NNMT).^{48–54} There is an important backup nicotinamide/NAD ‘de novo’ synthetic pathway from the essential amino acid tryptophan.⁵⁵ This pathway is crucial to our story as it is closely linked with immunologic tolerance and intolerance.

Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide, the central redox co-enzyme in cellular metabolism, functions as a hydride group

acceptor forming NADH with concomitant oxidation of metabolites derived from carbohydrates, amino acids, and fats. Gluconeogenesis, oxidative phosphorylation, ketogenesis, detoxification, and lipogenesis require reduced cofactors NADH and reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH). Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide is the consumed substrate of poly(ADP-ribose) polymerases (PARPs), sirtuins (SIRT6), and cyclic adenosine diphosphate (ADP) synthetases. Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide and

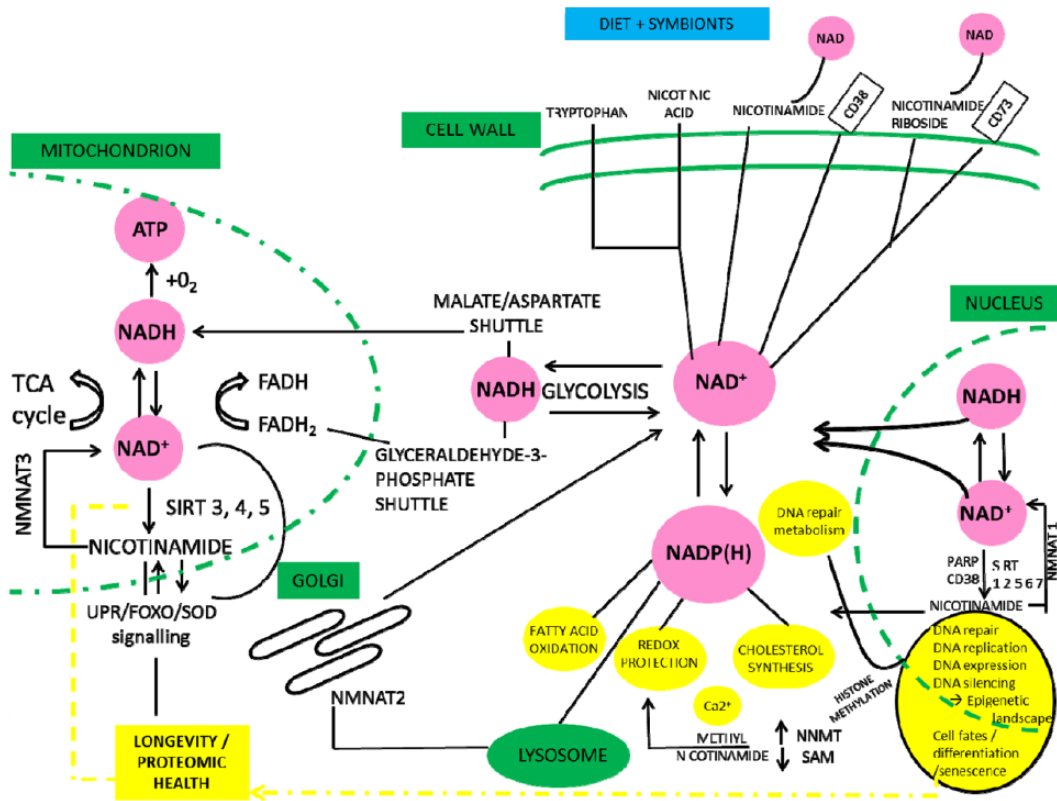


Figure 3. NAD is central to metabolism and the energy supply. NAD determines cell fates during development. NAD links to the epigenome and genomic expression means close interactions with our environment that in turn supplies NAD.

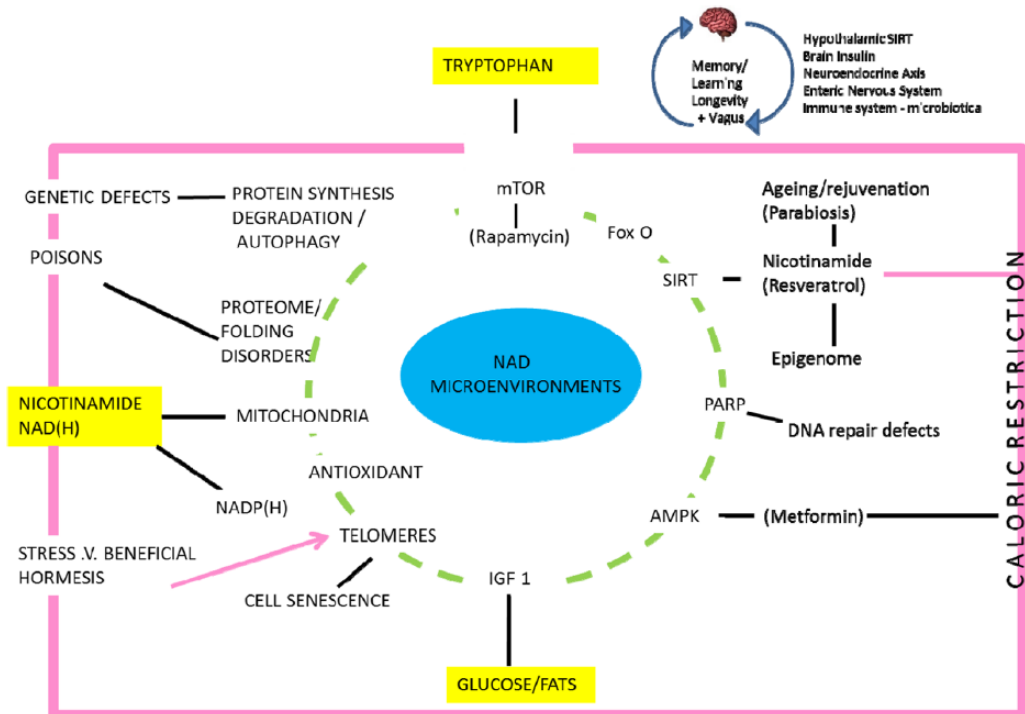


Figure 4. Nicotinamide/NAD and tryptophan metabolism are linked by the 'de novo' pathway. All these pathways have been implicated in diseases of ageing and mechanisms such as proteotoxicity, and, interventions such as caloric restriction, resveratrol, parabiosis and metformin.

NAD/NADH ratios have been described as a master controller of many physiological and repair activities and are

themselves under circadian control with much cross-talk with multiple nutrient pathways, whether carbon, nitrogen, or

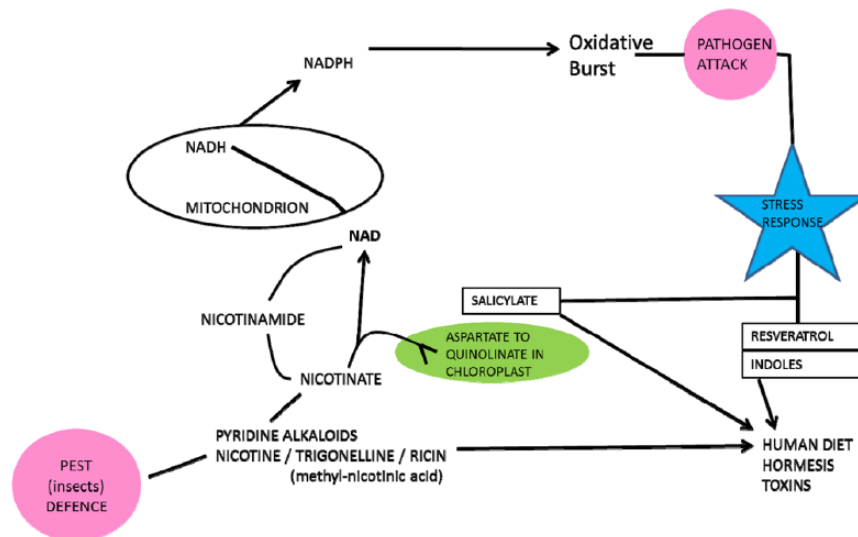


Figure 5. Plant and human metabolisms have active and overlapping reactions involving nicotine and nicotinamide. Stress molecules such as nicotine, salicylate, and resveratrol have medicinal and hormetic actions in man.

phosphate sensing. Despite extensive recycling, cell stresses that include ageing, toxins, and over-nutrition activate NAD consumption and alongside growth requirements mean that there is a continuous need for a dietary or microbiomic source of NAD precursors.^{56–58}

The close relationship between man and meat/milk-providing animals is not surprising. Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide metabolism is also integral to plant primary energy acquisition from the sun on which all animals depend. Plants also use NAD-dependent oxidative bursts to ward off microbial attack.⁵⁹ Other deterrants from herbivore attack involve nicotinamide-nicotine metabolism; this is interesting as both nicotine and other stress compounds, such as salicylate and resveratrol, affect our NAD metabolism in both a medicinal and hormetic sense (Figure 5).

Some hindgut symbionts produce nicotinic acid (that they share) as does TB^{60–62} (Figure 6).^{63–65} We have argued that when meat sources are good and shortages short-lived, TB acts as a symbiont farmed for its nicotinamide. The relationship with classic pathogens is different. Many have evolved to be consumers of host NAD, and many of their toxins directly affect NAD consumer pathways^{66–74} (Figure 7). If the host is moderately deficient in nicotinamide/NAD in the first place, they will be less resilient – if severe, the pathogen may not have enough to survive perhaps explaining the paradoxical relationship between nutrition and infection when very poor nutrition can be protective.⁷⁵

Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide pathways have been heavily implicated in ageing and many diseases from the neurological to retinal disease to cancer and can restore stem cells.^{73,76–103} Recent evidence fits with the very wide phenotype of disease seen with pellagra. The cellular response to NAD deficiency (and excesses) across cell lines is heterogeneous and may explain these broad phenotypes suggesting that NAD/NADH upsets might be a common underlying cause of many diseases.¹⁰⁴

TB is a NAD auxotroph uses a “de novo” pathway

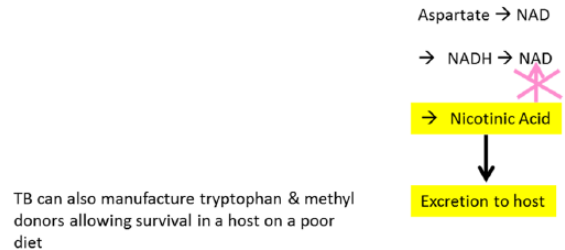


Figure 6. A designer symbiont. TB produces nicotinic acid but cannot recycle it to NAD so excretes it to a ‘welcoming’ host that ‘farms’ the organism at some risk of dysbiosis if the dietary dose of nicotinamide is too low. Nicotinamide is a natural and its analogues are some of the artificial anti-tuberculous agents. NAD indicates nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide; TB, tuberculosis.

Pathways – Over- and Under-Nutrition

Over- and under-nutrition are bad for health as demonstrated by ‘Waalder’ curves for height, weight, and mortality.¹⁰⁵ We propose that they share pathways that intersect with symbionts buffering poor diet and both relate to nicotinamide metabolism (Figure 8). Butyrate (and nicotinic acid) are generated by gut symbionts that include *Lactobacillus* or *Bifidobacteria* or *Clostridia* sp that ferment fibre and other otherwise indigestible complex carbohydrates and are in high concentration in the colon.^{90,106–110} Butyrate is an endogenous ligand active on the G protein-coupled GPR109A nicotinic acid receptor (expressed on macrophages, dendritic and epithelial cells, and adipocytes); this sends non-redundant signals via interleukins that affect T-cell differentiation favouring Tregs over helper T cells when the diet is poor as does nicotinamide from the diet when it is rich.^{90,111–118} This signal from the ‘niacin receptor’ reduces inflammation and carcinogenesis and has independently been proposed as a factor in mediating and perhaps moderating diet and disease transitions^{91,119}

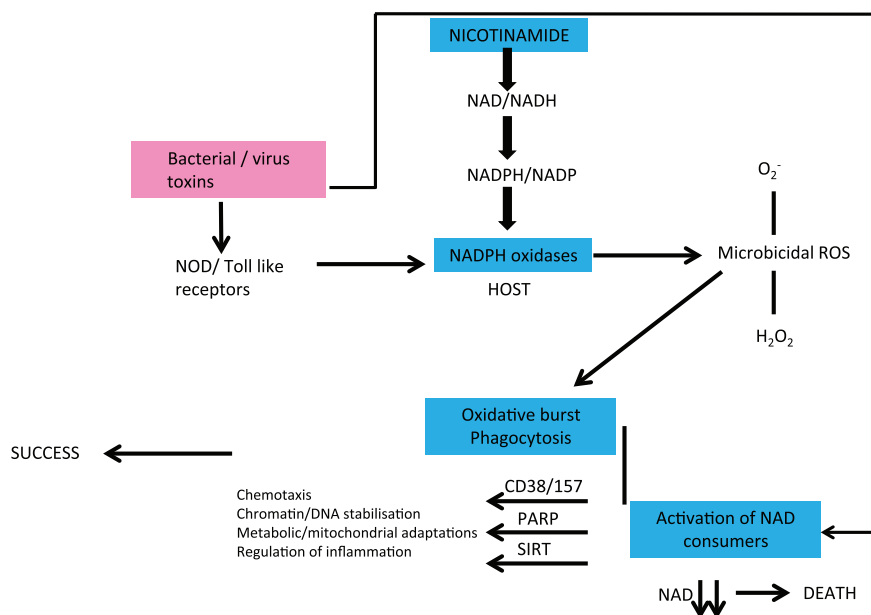


Figure 7. Infections and host NAD metabolism are intertwined. Many pathogens evolved to consume host NAD or their toxins lead to host NAD depletion. If the host is NAD deficient, this will exacerbate virulence and death rates. If severely deficient, there may not be enough NAD to allow the pathogen to replicate. Symbionts, by contrast, can improve host NAD levels.

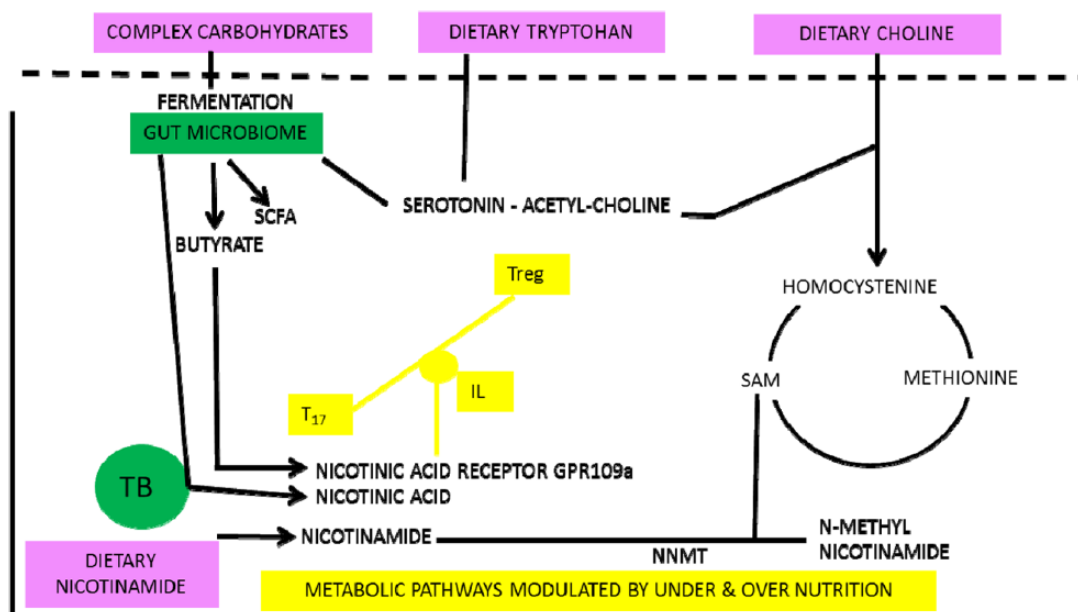


Figure 8. Low-meat/high-fibre diets lead to symbionts that increase nicotinamide levels or produce butyrate. Butyrate is an agonist at the nicotinic acid receptor as well as having epigenetic effects. Both butyrate and nicotinic acid will affect the T-cell balances and immunologic tolerance.

There is much supportive evidence of differences between the microbiome on rich, poor, and traditional hunter-gatherer diets and that the tryptophan pathway is involved in states of malnutrition (or rare but illustrative genetic defects that affect nutrition).^{120–122} Reliance on the microbiome could mean that those on a poor diet are at risk of broad-spectrum antibiotics temporarily eliminating symbionts and triggering clinical nicotinamide deficiency – pellagra (as can happen with anti-tuberculous therapy).^{123,124}

Although many factors have been shown to alter traffic in the ‘de novo’ pathway, particularly infectious diseases, it is

important to remember that its primary purpose is the production of nicotinamide/NAD from tryptophan when the diet is inadequate (Figure 9). The consequences are immune tolerance to some useful symbionts. Immune tolerance is mediated by an effect on the balance between Tregs and T17 helper cells – also the target for steroids and many modern immune therapies or artificial infection with helminths. Kynurenine-derived toxins drive auto-cannivory that also releases NAD and tryptophan at the longer term cost of organ damage. The host will be more prone to pathogens, so there will be other severe downsides for the individual.^{78,125–130} On a high-nicotinamide diet,

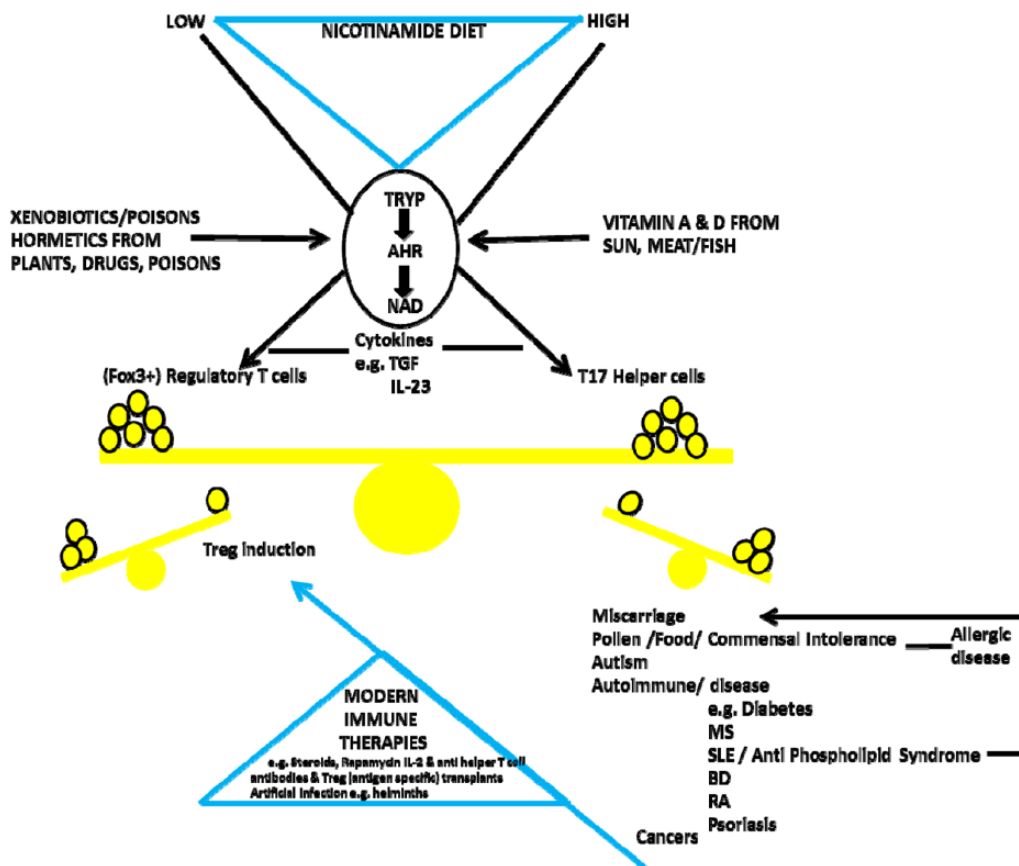


Figure 9. The key switch is the kynurenine ‘de novo’ pathway. When dietary supplies of nicotinamide/NAD are not sufficient, there is Treg-induced tolerance for metabolically useful symbionts but dangers to individual health from dysbioses or pathogens. However, when dietary nicotinamide is high, there is immune intolerance with too few Tregs and an excess of pro-inflammatory T17 cells and many diseases of modernity. Many immunologic therapies from steroids to recent T-cell–targeted approaches or artificial infection try to correct this imbalance. Prevention might be more effective and safer.

the opposite may be occurring with immune intolerance to normally harmless antigens.^{131–135} Although induction of indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase (IDO) has been described paradoxically (on our theory) in some of these inflammatory or cancerous conditions, there is a difference between a predisposing endo-phenotype and one that is being influenced as the disease develops: we would argue that IDO induction can be compensatory (Figure 10).^{136–151}

We will now look at some data from the United Kingdom, 1850 to 1950, and across the contemporary world comparing states of under- and over-nutrition and diseases and health markers that are likely to be related to nicotinamide dose, as many are components of pellagra.

Methods

All meat data were collected from ‘Eating meat: evolution, patterns, and consequences’ by Smil¹⁵² and *The Atlas of Food Who Eats What, Where, and Why* by Millstone and Lang.¹⁵³ IQ and literacy data were from ‘Some British pioneers of social medicine’ by Greenwood¹⁵⁴ and ‘National IQs predict differences in scholastic achievement in 67 countries’ Lynn et al.¹⁵⁵ Tuberculosis data were collected from McKeown¹⁵⁶ and the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation’s Global Burden of Disease

(GBD) (2013).¹⁵⁷ The Parkinson disease (PD) data were taken from Duvoisin and Schweitzer¹⁵⁸ and the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation GBD (2013) (<http://www.healthdata.org/gbd>). All disease data had been corrected for age structure of populations. Cancer data were derived from ‘Mortality in England and Wales from 1848 to 1947’ by Logan¹⁵⁹ and the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation’s GBD (2013). Diabetes data were taken from *The Health of Adult Britain 1841–1994* by Charlton and Murphey¹⁶⁰ and from the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation’s GBD (2013). Life expectancy data were from ‘Ecological public health: the 21st century’s big idea?’ by Rayner and Lang¹⁶¹ and *The Atlas of Health: Mapping the Challenges and Causes of Disease* by O’Donovan.¹⁶² Height data sets were from Galton’s midparent height revisited by Cole.¹⁶³

Statistics

Exploratory analysis was conducted on these data to identify relationships between meat consumption and other variables by conducting scatterplots. The correlation between meat consumption and other variables was analysed using the Pearson correlation coefficient. All statistics were conducted using SPSS (version 21).

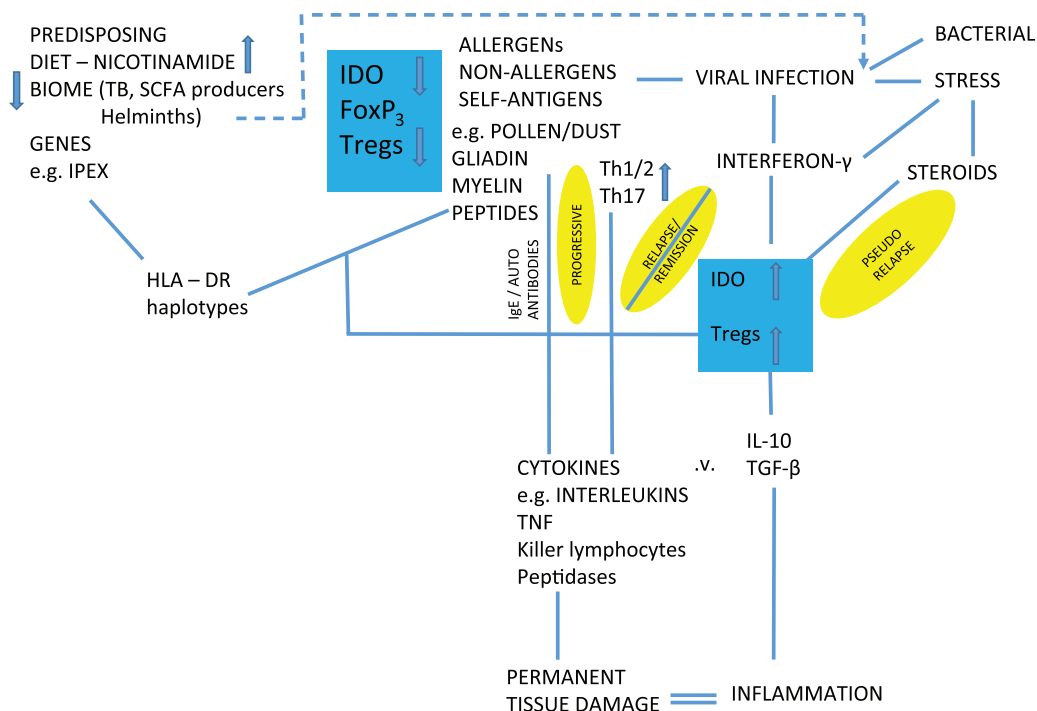


Figure 10. Predisposing phenotype for inflammatory disease driven by high nicotinamide in diet leads to reduced IDO activity. The more immediate triggers to these diseases and the disease process itself may sometimes lead to the apparent paradox of induced IDO as a compensation that may exacerbate or mitigate the disease. Lack of early infections or allergens may be ultimate causes but can act later as proximate triggers. IDO indicates indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase.

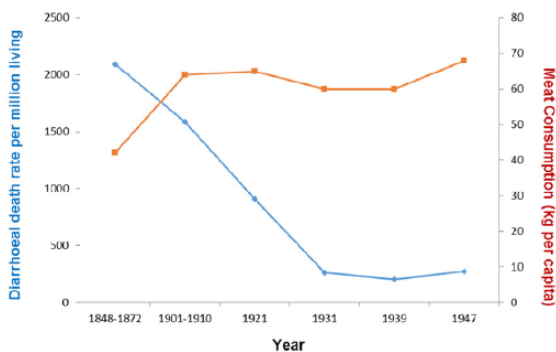


Figure 11. Diarrhoea plotted against meat intake in the United Kingdom, 1850-1950 ($r = -0.642$; $P = .085$).

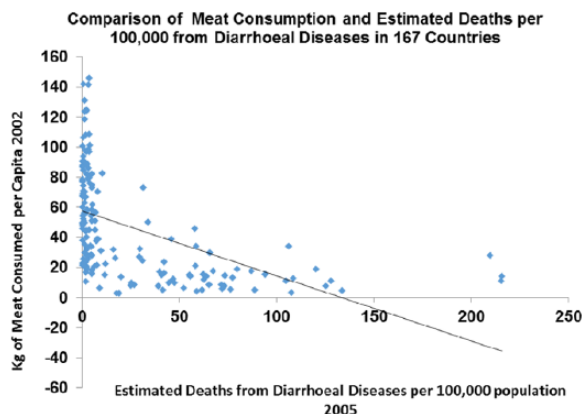


Figure 12. Diarrhoea plotted against meat intake in the contemporary world across nations ($r = -0.508$; $P < .0001$).

Results

In summary, and in round terms in the United Kingdom between 1850 and 1900, death rates per million with both sexes combined are as follows: for TB (before any treatment) halved from 7000 to 3500, for dysentery fell by 9/10ths from 150 to 15, whereas cancer (before much effect from smoking, at least in women) increased by 2.5-fold from 700 to 1700, and diabetes increased 4-fold from 50 to 200. The incidence of Parkinson’s disease rose markedly having only been described in 1817. During this period, meat intake almost doubled. Measures of cognitive and physical health such as literacy rates increased as did height. Contemporary data comparing these conditions with average meat intake across countries support these correlations.

More specifically, the reduction in deaths from diarrhoea between 1850 and 1950 in the United Kingdom trended with the rise in meat intake ($P = .085$) (Figure 11).

Across the world today, deaths from diarrhoeal diseases correlate strongly with meat consumption $P > .0001$ (Figure 12).

Literacy rates in the United Kingdom between 1850 and 1900 correlated with the rise in meat consumption $P > .001$ (Figure 13).

In the contemporary world across nations, literacy rates correlate strongly with meat consumption $P > .001$ (Figure 14).

Measured IQ correlates with meat consumption currently across countries $P > .001$ (Figure 15).

Between 1870 and 1970, boys height increased and correlates with meat intake ($P > .001$) as does height across nations currently ($P > .001$) (Figures 16 and 17).

Between 1850 and 1970, also between 1850 and 1950 (before any drug treatment), TB rates fell dramatically and this correlates

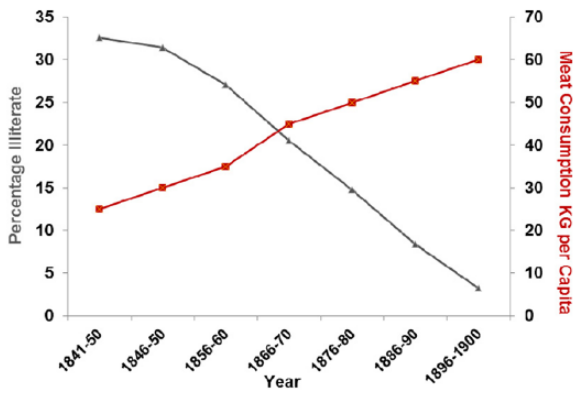


Figure 13. Literacy rates plotted against meat consumption in the United Kingdom, 1850-1900 ($r=-0.988$; $P<.001$).

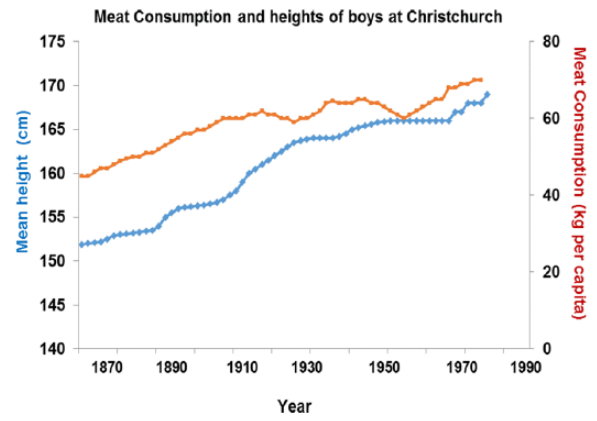


Figure 16. Increased height correlates strongly with higher meat intake ($r=0.934$; $P<.001$).

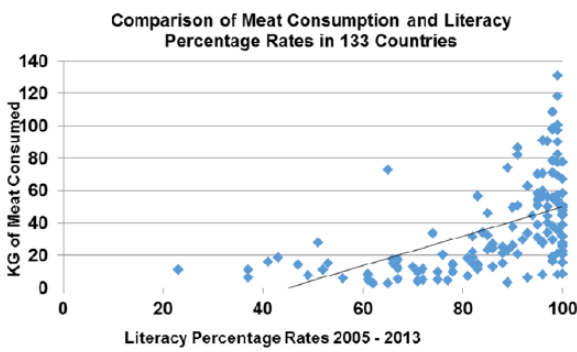


Figure 14. Literacy rates plotted against meat consumption in the contemporary world across nations ($r=0.531$; $P<.001$).

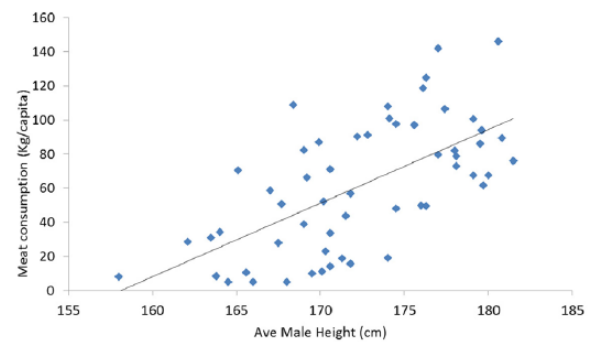


Figure 17. Increased height correlates strongly with higher meat intake ($r=0.635$; $P<.001$).

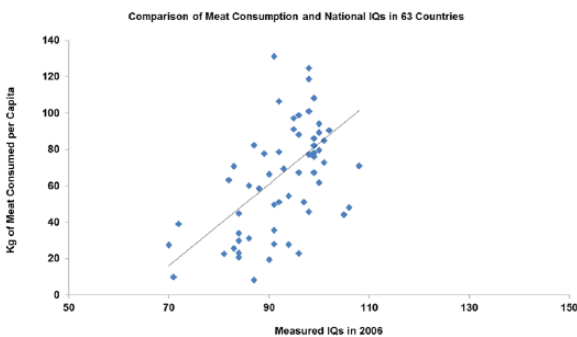


Figure 15. IQ plotted against meat consumption in the contemporary world across nations ($r=0.538$; $P<.001$).

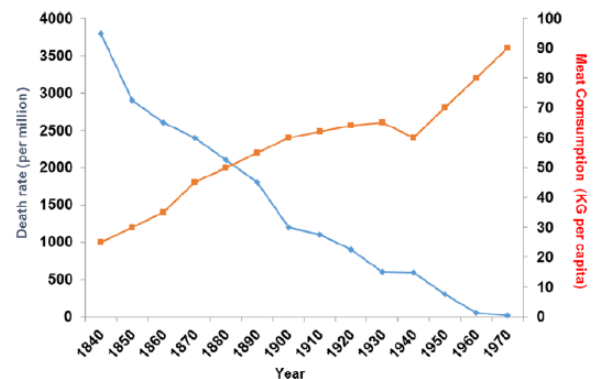


Figure 18. Tuberculosis plotted against meat consumption in the United Kingdom, 1850-1920, before there was any drug therapy ($r=-0.958$; $P<.001$).

with increased meat intake ($P>.001$). The decline in TB did not happen at the same time even within Europe and was also delayed in other industrial nations such as Japan where improvements in diet particularly of meat were also delayed.¹⁶⁴ Reverses are well described under famine conditions^{165,166} (Figure 18).

This correlation is true across countries today where meat consumption correlates strongly with deaths from TB ($P>.0001$) (Figure 19).

Diabetes deaths rose between 1850 and 1950 and correlate with meat intake ($P>.05$) as they do across the world today ($P>.001$) (Figures 20 and 21).

Cancer rates were increasing in both sexes in the United Kingdom from 1850 to 1900 before there was much effect

from smoking (and none in women) and correlate with meat intake ($P>.0001$) as they do across the contemporary world ($P>.0001$) (Figures 22 and 23).

Rates for the Parkinson disease were increasing between 1850 and 1960 ($P>.001$) and correlate with meat intake as they do across the world today ($P>.0001$) (Figures 24 and 25).

The Allergy Epidemic, 1870-Till Now

The recent rise and exact timing of the rise in hay fever and allergic/auto-immune disease are less well-documented

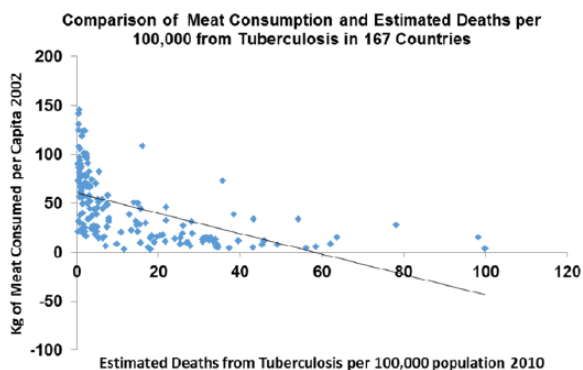


Figure 19. Tuberculosis plotted against meat consumption in the contemporary world across nations ($r=-0.545$; $P<.0001$).

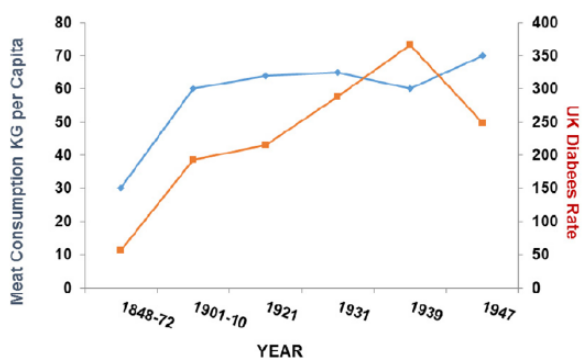


Figure 20. Diabetes plotted against meat consumption in the United Kingdom, 1850-1950 ($r=0.756$; $P<.05$).

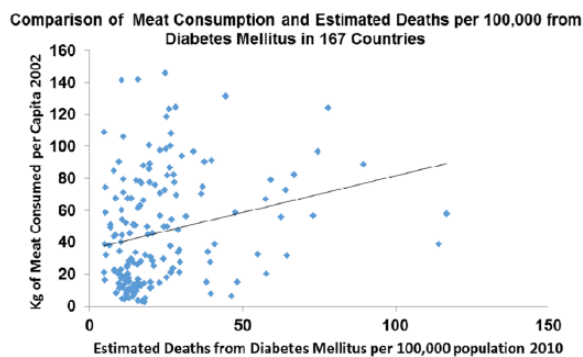


Figure 21. Diabetes plotted against meat consumption in the contemporary world across nations ($r=0.247$; $P<.001$).

numerically – although the facts are not in dispute and average meat intake has also doubled again between 1960 and now, so if they were strong correlations would be obtained.³⁴ Apart from a very few references in ancient literature, allergy first in the form of hay fever was first described in the mid-19th century exactly at the time the TB epidemic was abating in both the United Kingdom and in the United States.¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁷⁰ Observers at the time described these conditions and noted that they were on the increase, to begin with among the fashionable wealthy. Allergic disease had been unknown in previous generations (much as they are still unknown in poor African villages today). Increases are being recorded in countries that are getting richer or have had the economic benefits

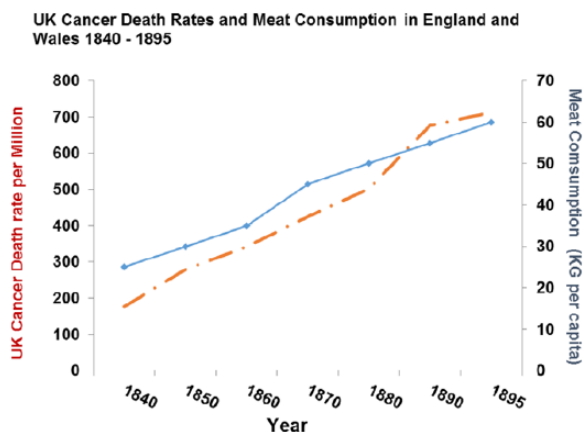


Figure 22. Cancer death rates plotted against meat consumption 1850-1950 ($r=0.981409$; $P<.0001$).

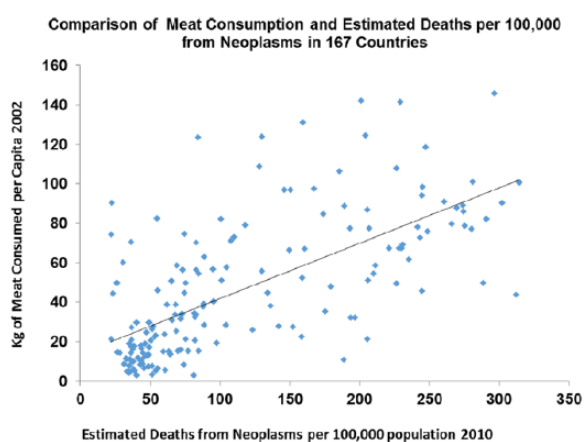


Figure 23. Cancer death rates plotted against meat consumption in the contemporary world across nations ($r=0.667$; $P<.0001$).

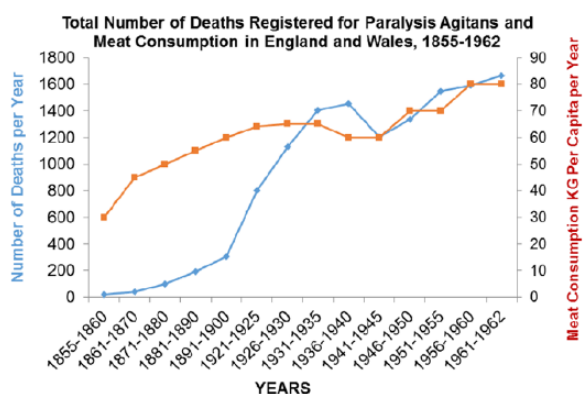


Figure 24. Parkinson disease plotted against meat consumption 1850-1900 ($r=0.842$; $P<.001$).

of European re-unification.¹⁷¹⁻¹⁸⁰ Proximate triggers such as grass and ragweed pollen were noted early on, but they do not contain new antigens even if some became more prevalent. Rather paradoxically avoiding the allergen can make matters worse, as recently demonstrated for peanut allergy, so treating the proximate allergen as the actual or preventable cause is problematic.¹⁸¹

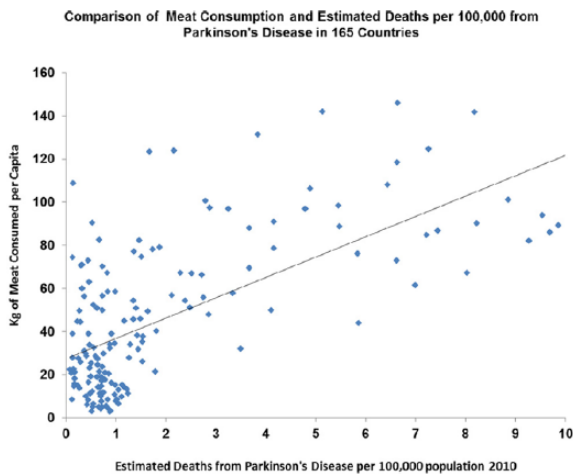


Figure 25. Parkinson disease plotted against meat consumption in the contemporary world across nations ($r=0.842$; $P<.0001$).

The ultimate cause of the epidemic has been linked by others to the decline of TB using evidence from BCG vaccination and inverse associations with tuberculin responses or other infections.^{182–185} Current maps of the incidence of infections such as helminths and TB are diametrically opposed to incidences of allergic and auto-immune diseases¹⁸⁶ (Figure 26). Reduction in helminth infection, as with TB, is also associated with relief from poverty and poor diet with limited overall impact of antibiotics at least at a population level: as animal parasites, their interaction with host nicotinamide status and biochemistry could be either positive or negative but has not been studied.^{187–191}

A reasonable proposition as to timing of the allergy epidemic in the northwest is shown¹⁹² (Figure 27). Not only numbers but also diversity of auto-immune disease continues to radiate.¹⁹³ Links with NAD metabolism through CD38 and allergen/pollen NADPH oxidases have been made; the latter links in to oxidative stress and T-cell imbalances that could cause allergic disease but only if Tregs were unbalanced in the first place, prior to exposure to the immediate extrinsic signal.^{194–200} High tryptophan levels and low IDO activity have also been recorded in allergic disease whether asthma or food allergies.^{201–203} In addition, the modern outbreak of depression appears, despite cross-cultural issues to be a feature of diseases of affluence, and may influence many of the others and can clearly be related to disturbed tryptophan and serotonin pathways.^{204,205} The commonest cause of infertility – polycystic ovary syndrome – is also far commoner in developed economies and has been related to the metabolic syndrome and auto-immune disease; this is relevant to the argument we make in our companion article about increasing infertility in high-meat economies.²⁰⁶

Questions

We now ask a series of questions to further explore and try and convince readers that the dose of vitamin B₃ is a significant health issue and that deficiencies and perhaps excesses are commoner than is usually supposed.

Question 1a: was pellagra conquered or is it still endemic in some poor meat areas?

The short answer is that nobody has checked systematically at a clinical or biochemical level. The few studies done in high-risk populations such as refugees in war-torn Africa suggest that it may be common but rarely diagnosed.^{207–211} Pellagra may be treated inadvertently in alcoholics while restoring thiamine levels with multivitamins for Wernicke encephalopathy.^{212–215} Indeed, it may genuinely be difficult to separate nicotinamide deficiency from deficits of other micronutrients as seen with tropical neuropathies; even when there are putative (cyanogenic or amino acid) toxins involved, nicotinamide deficiency could play a part in degenerative diseases when on poor monophagic plant diets such as those described on Guam as well as Lathyrism and Konzo.^{216–219} Some of these conditions including pellagra, like scurvy in the past, can get considered to be ‘badges of dishonour’ (even though captains Columbus and Cook were probably affected) or wilful self-neglect rather than due to chronic food shortages obfuscating calls to action.²²⁰

Pellagra happens to those on a very low-meat/milk and maize diet, so many in Africa and Asia must be at risk. The rash is photosensitive, so may not be present as often in those with pigmented skin – earlier epidemics were mainly in poor whites. Diarrhoea and poor mental development are endemic. Kwashiorkor, when first described, was felt by some to be a form of pellagra, but the argument was initially lost to the proponents of calorie or protein deficiency.^{221–224} The renamed ‘environmental enteropathy’ with gut dysbioses, cognitive impairment, and later ‘epigenetic’ metabolic syndromes may have a closer relationship with a ‘new version’ of pellagra than is generally appreciated.^{225,226} Pellagra may be masquerading as general ill health and shortened lives with lower than expected IQ and exacerbate both TB and human immunodeficiency virus.^{227–229}

Question 1b: was pellagra sine pellagra conquered or is it still a common cause of poor intellectual development or premature ageing including dementia?

Before the biochemistry and treatment of pellagra were sorted out in the 1940s, it was pointed out that lack of meat in diet had profound effects on health and height, and the clinical manifestations went outside the classic pellagra phenotype.^{230,231} This view was criticised by vegetarian groups (including Gandhi). We now realise that there is a world of difference between an economically driven poor monophagic vegetarian diet and a voluntary vegetarian diet of good quality that often includes some animal products and supplements – so the latter has few dangers and some advantages.²³²

During the American and earlier European epidemics of pellagra, often in families with other members diagnosed, there were many with poor physical and mental development. Indeed, a high proportion of both blacks and ‘white trash’ in

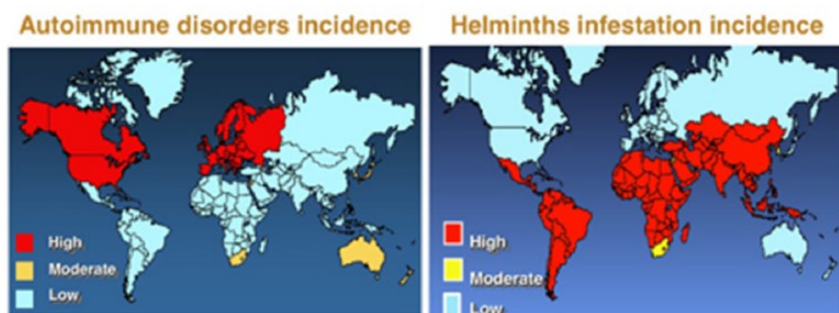


Figure 26. Incidence of helminth infestation and tuberculosis is diametrically opposed with incidence of autoimmune disorders now. In 1850, this map would have looked more homogeneous.

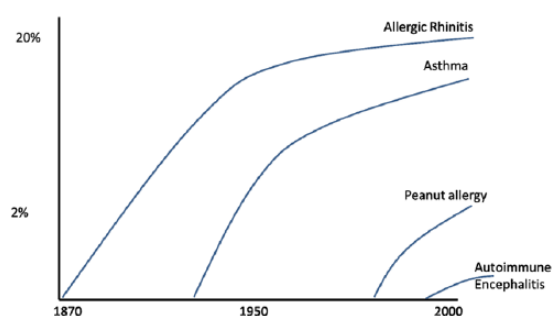


Figure 27. The rapid and sequential rise of allergic and auto-immune disease in the United Kingdom is shown. During this period, meat intake on average doubled again, so if accurate figures were available for the new diseases, strong correlations would be apparent. Incidence and severity may be stabilising for some such as asthma (as is meat intake).

the Southern states may have been affected. The average IQ of Confederate recruits was in the 'moron' category and that was not true for the richer Union recruits. The correlations we now see between IQ/literacy and meat intake may represent nicotinamide deficiency. The dramatic changes in IQ known as the 'Flynn effect' as countries become more prosperous may reflect increased nicotinamide intake and a better brain in the first place more capable of learning from a better educational system and less prone to dementia.^{233–235} Indeed, there is already considerable evidence that nicotinamide could prevent or benefit Alzheimer's disease and has a role in serious neuropsychiatric disease such as schizophrenia and post-traumatic dementia.^{236–248} Increased longevity could also represent improving nicotinamide dosage. This is supported by pellagra causing premature ageing and dementia and evidence that NAD levels fall with age given that NAD consumers, whether SIRT6 or PARPs, are largely responsible for ageing and repair mechanisms²⁴⁹ (Figure 28).

Question 2: is there a strict recommended dose of nicotinamide or do some people with some genetic mutations require a personalised dosage and do some others temporarily need a boost in their dosage when under stress?

The recommended daily dose of nicotinamide of around 15 mg/day was a reasonable informed 'guesstimate' designed to

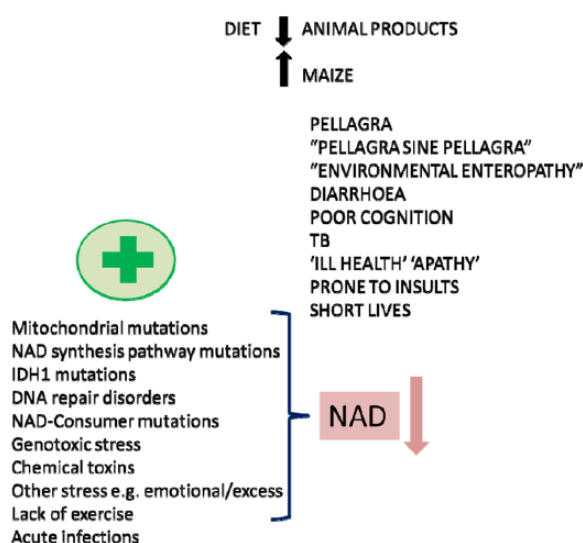


Figure 28. A summary of how poor diet can interact with the microbiome and with internal stresses such as mutations and with external stresses. These can all contribute to a single NAD endo-phenotype with multiple clinical phenotypes. NAD indicates nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide.

avoid or treat pellagra. However, there are examples of increased needs under some mutational circumstances, such as those causing muscular dystrophy or optic atrophy.^{250–252} The same may be true of DNA-repair or metabolic defects such as those causing ataxia-telangiectasia, Friedreich ataxia, defects in glutamine synthetase, and some cancers.^{253–256} Other diseases such as Huntington's are known to have a disturbed 'de novo' pathway and an intervention with nicotinamide could work.^{257,258}

It has been known for a long time that the dose needs to be increased in patients with the carcinoid or Hartnup syndrome who shunt tryptophan to increased serotonin synthesis or have a tryptophan transport defect.^{259,260} If there is genotoxic stress such as that from chemicals or drugs, sunlight, or even emotional stress, it would be expected that the extra NAD consumption would be easier to support if the dietary dosage was high. There is emerging evidence that nicotinamide dosage can be (neuro)protective under a wide range of environmental insults whether traumatic, anoxic, or toxic suggesting that prophylactic boosting of the dosage or treating soon after the insult may reduce cell damage in a number of organs,

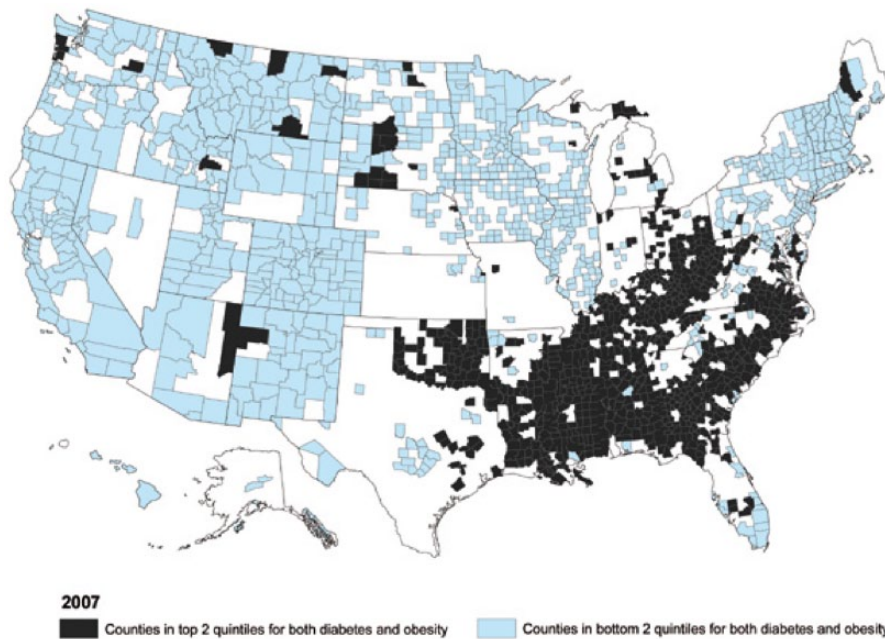


Figure 29. US map illustrates the obesity epidemic and a diabetic belt. The distribution is almost exactly the same as maps of pellagra a century ago. Has the change from very low levels of nicotinamide to high levels been the crucial inter- and intra-generational change rather than calories or allergens?

including the brain.^{96,104,236,261–290} Many diseases where the environmental trigger is not known may have an NAD-deficient endo-phenotype. This is suggested by the extraordinarily varied phenotype of pellagra where a wide range of dementias and neuropsychiatric conditions was described including mimics of Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease, PD, motor neuron disease, multiple sclerosis (MS), and cerebellar syndromes alongside migraine and epilepsy. Evidence for such a deficit is already strong for some, such as prion diseases, where there is phenotypic overlap with pellagra.^{291,292}

Question 3: was the change in dosage of nicotinamide the transition factor converting diseases of poverty to diseases of affluence? Did this lead to the loss of 'old friends' such as TB allowing a poorly educated immune system to become overactive?

Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide status is probably crucial to the poor resistance to pathogens seen in poor countries. Many pathogens or their toxins target the host's NAD system by disrupting NAD consumer pathways, or by secreting NAD glycohydrolase, break down the host's NAD levels.²⁹³ We have also argued that TB and some gut symbionts originally co-evolved to supply nicotinic acid. Such symbionts become dysbiotic and behave as pathogens when the diet is low in meat for protracted periods of time, or if driven to mutate using antibiotics. Nicotinamide was the first anti-tuberculous antibiotic discovered. The largely spontaneous disappearance of TB as countries and diets become richer becomes less of a mystery and is less likely to be related to better hygiene. There are, indeed, good examples of

improving sanitation improving water-borne infection such as cholera but having little impact on other infections, until diet and particularly meat intake is addressed.²⁹⁴ In one famous example, improved sanitation caused an increase in mortality as the increased rents led to a decline in food quality.²⁹⁵ A famous other example was rebuilding barracks to no effect on TB rates until the meat intake was increased, and of course, TB becomes rampant during many famines.²⁹⁶

It is notable that TB sanatoria were not closed but were transformed into sanatoria for allergies that first became a problem for the rich on rich diets.^{15,297–303} A 'nicotinamide switch' towards the evolutionary norm of a high-meat diet could be responsible for the switch from TB and other chronic infections, now co-evolved to affect the development of the immune system, to a poorly educated overactive immune system responding to normally innocuous antigens.^{81,304–310} The biochemical nature of this switch was outlined earlier (Figure 9). The speed at which the switch is turned could be important, with the highest risk within a lifetime or a generation or two for disease of affluence – thereafter, immune adaptations and a different starting point of the microbiome may occur compatible with little evidence that hunter-gatherers had autoimmune/allergic disease (trauma leading to shorter lifespans may have spared them later onset diseases).

The spread and origin of the obesity epidemic is interesting regarding this as modern maps of the epidemic and obesity, diabetes, and stroke 'belts' are strikingly similar to maps of pellagra a century ago suggesting that the switch can manifest over several generation raising future discussion over 'thrifty' (and in other contexts 'non-thrifty') nicotinamide-related genotypes and phenotypes and developmental plasticity having effects on later disease compatible with the known involvement

Nicotinamide Toxicity – Potential Mechanisms

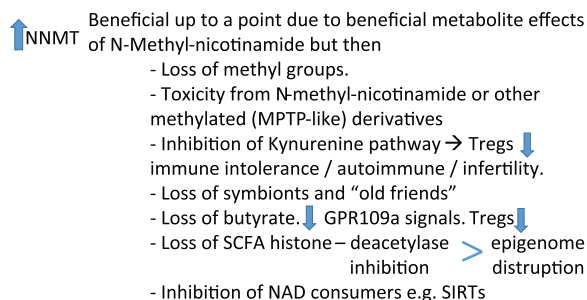


Figure 30. The presence of a detoxification pathway suggests that nicotinamide can be toxic. A balance may have been required as NAD consumers evolved to be an important control mechanism that both needs a supply of NAD from nicotinamide and whose enzyme activity is affected by nicotinamide.

of nicotinamide, butyrate, and methyl groups in epigenetic modifications^{311–316} (Figure 29).

Question 4: over and above a rash of immune diseases has the dose of nicotinamide become so high that there is an unrecognised hyper-vitaminosis B₃ syndrome?

Nicotinamide is widely viewed as having little serious toxicity at least in the short term.^{317,318} We suggested nicotinamide toxicity as a causative factor for the Parkinson’s disease, the metabolic syndrome, and some cancers based on direct or indirect measure of high levels of NNMT.^{53,83,319–333} Too low a dose and nicotinamide can be protective for cancers and Parkinson’s, so we are proposing a double-edged dosage effect.³³³ As an inducible enzyme, a logical culprit for NNMT overexpression is the dose of nicotinamide – even if other factors such as caloric restriction, stress, and exercise play their part.^{334,335} Background genetic variation in levels may reflect exposure in earlier generations – certainly, this is true of species as the enzyme is not expressed in herbivores.³³⁶ Our original hypothesis for PD was that *N*-methylnicotinamide resembled the dopaminergic toxin MPTP (1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine) and so may be toxic at high levels even though beneficial at lower levels. Part of the jigsaw may be that the nicotinamide dose upsets the microbiome that in turn contributes to the proteotoxicity and affects the nicotinic acid receptor.³³⁷ Other metabolites may be nephrotoxic.³³⁸

Several other plausible mechanisms for nicotinamide toxicity exist whether from excessive inhibition of NAD consumers such as SIRT6 or PARPs or consumption of valuable methyl groups depleting the methylome and the epigenome (Figure 30). Recent evidence shows that nicotinamide promotes adipogenesis probably via SIRT6 inhibition and adipogenic proteins (eg, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma and FABP4 [fatty acid-binding protein 4]) and is associated with neonatal adiposity – with surprisingly little need for excessive calories or fats.^{339–342}

Question 5: how hard would it be to moderate the dose of nicotinamide worldwide or personalise dosages?

As dietary manipulations go reducing, the dosage would be easy as supplements could be reduced in rich countries with no behavioural change necessary. Reducing meat intake may also be fairly painless, even if nicotinamide like nicotine has some addictive qualities, as it is now practised by the ‘healthy wealthy’.

Increasing the dose to those really at risk would also be relatively easy and not very expensive if talking about supplements or biofortification of crops. More meat, however, is not as easy as it is expensive but may be necessary if nicotinamide is not the only factor necessary or is actually dangerous on its own as it is a drain on methyl groups. Redistributing meat from those eating too much to those eating too little would improve the health of both the groups.

Conclusions

Hypo- (subclinical/misdiagnosed pellagra) and hyper-vitaminosis B₃ (nicotinamide overload) may both be far commoner than has been supposed and have equally wide phenotypes transcending many conventional clinically convenient disease categories. The transition from populations of low to high intake may explain the extraordinary shifts within single generations from Rowntree’s ‘stunted life’ with chronic diarrhoeal infections and TB and disproportionately high death rates from pathogens – to non-communicable diseases. Non-communicable diseases include multiple and expanding allergic, inflammatory, and auto-immune diseases along with the metabolic syndrome, many cancers and neuropsychiatric disease, but in the context of longer lives. Geography per se has little to do with these phenomena as they track much more closely with poverty and affluence and therefore meat intake.^{343–345} Even the term ‘tropical diseases’ is a misnomer as many of these infections were common in Victorian England and the pellagra-prone southeastern American states a century ago.

Much current effort in rich countries is for personalised precision and genetic medicine usually for people who already have contracted often rare diseases. Understanding these disease transitions may be less eye-catching but offers more potential for low-tech population-based preventive approaches. Personalised NAD-related medicine can be nutritional, rather than glitzy genetic manipulation, as several genetic diseases may be due to genes that originally evolved at times of nicotinamide luxury or thrift.

Predicted tidal waves of dementia may be preventable (too little nicotinamide) as may some neuropsychiatric disease, diabetes and the metabolic syndrome, some cancers, and Parkinson’s disease (too much).³⁴⁶ Nicotinamide overload may not work alone but with other hyper-vitaminosis or deficiency states. One example might be high nicotinamide but low vitamin D in MS

compatible with the known epidemiology and genetics implicating little sun but a lot of meat and known involvement of the 'de novo' pathway.³⁴⁷⁻³⁴⁹ It will have been partly iatrogenic if increasing the dose of nicotinamide with supplements also affects caloric hunger and obesity levels and other diseases where NNMT induction has been demonstrated.^{350,351}

Phenotypic diversity may be explained by individual variation whether genetic or from previous environmental exposure and in differential sensitivity of cell types to NAD upsets. Homeostatic responses that fail or have a longer term price whether auto-carnivory, use of symbionts, or inflammatory or cancerous tissue that over-express NNMT or NAD consumer enzymes or induction of IDO, may also be responsible for clinical heterogeneity. New phenotypes may be occurring. Predicted Armageddon as antibiotics rapidly become ineffective from multi-drug resistance may be due to not dealing with the fundamental nutritional cause. Antibiotics are a strategy that

encourages mutations and emergent pathogens. Better NAD status will reduce the need for broad-spectrum antibiotics by reducing virulence. Reliance on symbionts (including TB) also means that antibiotic use could trigger pellagra that will probably not be recognised or treated.³⁵²⁻³⁵⁶ When symbionts are relied on too heavily, 'blooming' in the gut can lead to dysbiosis and pathogen evolution relevant to 'environmental enteropathy' that may be 'new version' pellagra^{88,347,357} (Figure 31).

All our questions could be answered definitively. The variances in environmental exposure could be analysed in more detail epidemiologically and not just using meat intake as a surrogate. Clinical assessments sensitive to the possibility of pellagra in at-risk groups could be made. Joint clinical and biochemical assessments are the likely way forward closely followed by interventional studies.^{358,359} Biochemical measures have been available for a long time measuring tryptophan levels, or urinary *N*-methylnicotinamide excretion or NNMT levels are enough to confirm pellagra (or nicotinamide overload) but have rarely been used in the field. Metabolomics could make this more practical. Direct measurement of NAD/NADH or NAD/NADP (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate) (known as the 'niacin number') ratios could be further developed. Laboratory studies could explore nicotinamide overload further as it has been assumed that NNMT or high *N*-methylnicotinamide levels are a marker or reaction rather than directly involved in causation.³⁶⁰ The long lifetime nature of this toxicity with doses only 2 to 4 times the upper recommended range would need to be recognised in the experimental design (Figure 32).

Moderating the dose of nicotinamide to begin with would be easier than most dietary manipulations as supplementation is happening where it is least needed in rich countries.³⁶¹ Supplementation should be targeted at some 2 billion who are already known to be micronutrient deficient (iron, zinc, iodine, vitamin A, and folate) including the one-fifth of children who are physically or cognitively stunted. The cost has been shown to be low relative to the benefits (16-fold) either at an individual level where many are robbed of future earnings or by population – malnutrition loses 10% of gross domestic product

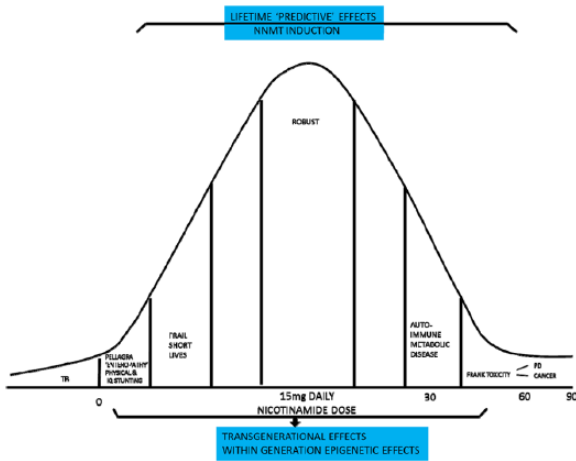


Figure 31. An optimal dose of nicotinamide is suggested with trouble at the extremes. Transgenerational effects may be marked. Dysbioses that begin under these circumstances could put the affluent at risk. Within generation effects may be mismatches between early and late life exposure with poor nicotinamide in early life predisposing to the metabolic syndrome later if the dose increases. TB indicates tuberculosis; PD, Parkinson disease.

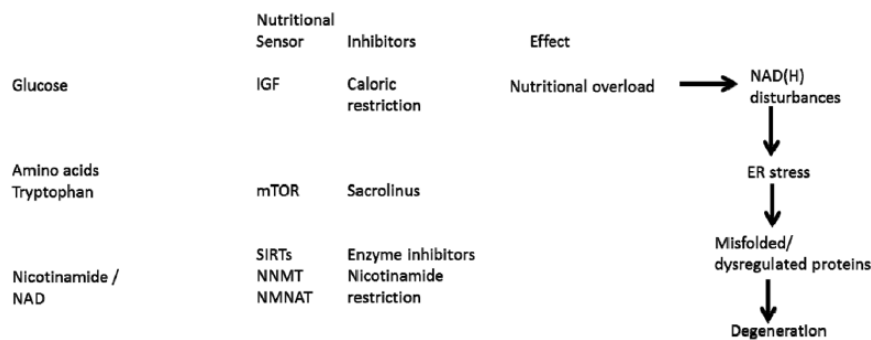


Figure 32. Nicotinamide overdosage is unlikely to be working alone. It may act in concert with other excess dietary factors known to be involved with ageing and pathological pathways and may take many years to express toxicity.

DIET	ANIMAL PRODUCTS	GRAIN TUBERS	FOOD ENERGY	FOOD DIVERSITY	VEGETABLES FRUIT	PROCESSED FOODS	POPULATION TREND	ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY
WESTERN TYPE	+++	+	+++	++	+	+++	↓	---
POOR IN POOR COUNTRIES	-	+++	-	-	-	+	↑↑↑	---
HEALTHY WEALTHY	++	+	++	+++	++	+	→	+/-

Figure 33. The 'healthy-wealthy' have instinctively worked this out. Can lessons learnt influence policy in developing nations?



Figure 34. Finally ancient meat gluts lead to an adaptive strategy saving lives from periods of safety not hunting and later stabilising weight. This is now maladaptive unless there are alternative strategies to increase exercise levels. Guarding against thrift may not have been as important as starvation may not have been as common as previously suspected.

in many parts of Africa and Asia.^{362–367} Meat subsidies or vouchers or conditional cash transfer systems as part of a meat 'entitlement' reducing meat insecurity would make sense as nicotinamide is unlikely to be the only fortification factor involved. Adding nicotinamide to diet without methyl groups could be problematic as they would be lost as excesses of nicotinamide are excreted.

Systems need to be developed that nourish rather than feed, and sometimes this means more meat not less and should be driven by evidence not ideology.³⁶¹ At first glance, there is a big environmental price to pay for more equitable meat intake. Access is as much of an issue as lack of available meat, so redistribution would mitigate many ecological effects. When combined with the demographic argument we made in the accompanying article, this may all have to be addressed objectively – unnecessary transgenerational disease or high population density is the greater ecological danger to future generations. The diet instinctively followed by the 'healthy-wealthy' may be a win-win diet improving health and human capital and be environmentally sustainable (Figure 33).³⁶⁸ In addition, the wealthy who make more effort to exercise in safe environments and virtual hunting as sport, and consequently control weight, may be overcoming not so much evolutionary tendencies to gain weight preparing for famines (thrifty genotypes and phenotypes) but to overcome a fear of exercise as it was previously linked to danger from predators (Figure 34).^{369–371}

Learning from history could help developing countries avoid the trap of the Western diet with lack of exercise and meat intake 'overshoots'. There is little sign of such wisdom currently as 'the double burden' in developing countries reflects a break down in the Engel law whereby poor-to-moderate wealth transitions classically increased the absolute (but not

the proportional) amount of income spent on food increasing meat intake.³⁷² This economic transition is now more likely to lead to increased 'empty calories' from ultra-processed foods such as sugar-sweetened nicotinamide-enhanced drinks driving the apparent paradox of diseases of poverty and the metabolic syndrome co-existing in developing countries and sometimes in the same individual.

Acknowledgements

A.C.W. would like to thank Mike Hammond and the Richardson family for their support.

Author Contributions

ACW and LJH analysed the data, agree with manuscript results and conclusions, made critical revisions and approved final version. ACW wrote the first draft of the manuscript. LJH contributed to the writing of the manuscript. All authors reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

REFERENCES

1. Popkin BM, Adair LS, Ng SW. Global nutrition transition and the pandemic of obesity in developing countries. *Nutr Rev*. 2012;70:3–21.
2. Popkin BM, Gordon-Larsen P. The nutrition transition: worldwide obesity dynamics and their determinants. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*. 2004;28:S2–S9.
3. Popkin BM, Slining M. New dynamics in global obesity facing low- and middle-income countries. *Obes Rev*. 2013;14:11–20.
4. Omran AR. The epidemiologic transition theory. A preliminary update. *J Trop Pediatr*. 1983;29:305–316.
5. Lindeberg S. *Food and Western Disease: Health and Nutrition from an Evolutionary Perspective*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley; 2009.
6. Williams A, Ramsden D. Hydrogen symbioses in evolution and disease. *QJM*. 2007;100:451–459.
7. Wallace DC. Mitochondrial DNA variation in human radiation and disease. *Cell*. 2015;163:33–38.
8. Berger SL, Sassone-Corsi P. Metabolic signaling to chromatin. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol*. 2016;8:a019463.
9. Mylenko M, Boland S, Penkov S, et al. NAD⁺ is a food component that promotes exit from dauer diapause in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *PLoS ONE*. 2016;11:e0167208.
10. Bogan KL, Brenner C. Nicotinic acid, nicotinamide, and nicotinamide riboside: a molecular evaluation of NAD⁺ precursor vitamins in human nutrition. *Annu Rev Nutr*. 2008;28:115–130.
11. Perlmutter D, Loberg K. *Grain Brain: The Surprising Truth about Wheat, Carbs, and Sugar – Your Brain's Silent Killers*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown and Company; 2013.
12. Ungar PS, Teaford MF. *Human Diet: Its Origin and Evolution*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group; 2002.
13. Larsen CS. Animal source foods and human health during evolution. *J Nutr*. 2003;133:3893S–3897S.
14. Eaton SB, Konner M, Shostak M. Stone agers in the fast lane: chronic degenerative diseases in evolutionary perspective. *Am J Med*. 1988;84:739–749.
15. Trowell HC, Burkitt DP. *Western Diseases, Their Emergence and Prevention*. London, England: Edward Arnold; 1981.

16. Pollard TM. *Western Diseases: An Evolutionary Perspective*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 2008.
17. Cordain L, Eaton SB, Sebastian A, et al. Origins and evolution of the Western diet: health implications for the 21st century. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2005;81:341–354.
18. Trevathan W, Smith EO, McKenna JJ. *Evolutionary Medicine*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press; 1999.
19. Stearns SC. *Evolution in Health and Disease*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press; 1999.
20. Nesse RM. *Evolution and Healing: The New Science of Darwinian Medicine*. Darlington, UK: J. M. Dent; 1996.
21. De Vany A. *The New Evolution Diet: What Our Paleolithic Ancestors Can Teach Us about Weight Loss, Fitness, and Aging*. Emmaus, PA: Rodale Books; 2011.
22. Clark JL, Speth JD. *Zooarchaeology and Modern Human Origins: Human Hunting Behavior During the Later Pleistocene*. Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer; 2013.
23. Mercer A. *Infections, Chronic Disease, and the Epidemiological Transition: A New Perspective*. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press; 2014.
24. Evenson RE, Gollin D. Assessing the impact of the green revolution, 1960 to 2000. *Science*. 2003;300:758–762.
25. McDowell LR. *Vitamins in Animal and Human Nutrition*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley; 2008.
26. Combs GF, McClung JP. *The Vitamins: Fundamental Aspects in Nutrition and Health*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier Science; 2016.
27. Strasser B, Gostner JM, Fuchs D. Mood, food, and cognition: role of tryptophan and serotonin. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care*. 2016;19:55–61.
28. Poesen R, Mutsaers HA, Windey K, et al. The influence of dietary protein intake on mammalian tryptophan and phenolic metabolites. *PLoS ONE*. 2015;10:e0140820.
29. Ruan Z, Yang Y, Wen Y, et al. Metabolomic analysis of amino acid and fat metabolism in rats with L-tryptophan supplementation. *Amino Acids*. 2014;46:2681–2691.
30. Kumar JS, Subramanian VS, Kapadia R, Kashyap ML, Said HM. Mammalian colonocytes possess a carrier-mediated mechanism for uptake of vitamin B3 (niacin): studies utilizing human and mouse colonic preparations. *Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol*. 2013;305:G207–G213.
31. Magnúsdóttir S, Ravcheev D, de Crécy-Lagard V, Thiele I. Systematic genome assessment of B-vitamin biosynthesis suggests co-operation among gut microbes. *Front Genet*. 2015;6:148.
32. McNamara JM, Houston AI, Higginson AD. Costs of foraging predispose animals to obesity-related mortality when food is constantly abundant. *PLoS ONE*. 2015;10:e0141811.
33. Hiza H, Bente L. *Nutrient Content of the US Food Supply, 1909–2004. A Summary Report*. Washington, DC: United States Department of Agriculture, 2007.
34. Pritchard B, Ortiz R, Shekar M. *Routledge Handbook of Food and Nutrition Security*. Abingdon, UK: Taylor & Francis; 2016.
35. Pimentel D, Marcia H, Pimentel MS. *Food, Energy, and Society*. 3rd ed. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 2007.
36. Muldrew C. *Food, Energy and the Creation of Industriousness: Work and Material Culture in Agrarian England, 1550–1780*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 2011.
37. Harris HF. *Pellagra*. Los Angeles, USA: Hardpress, BiblioBazaar; 2016.
38. van den Broek TJ, Kremer BH, Rezende MM, et al. The impact of micronutrient status on health: correlation network analysis to understand the role of micronutrients in metabolic-inflammatory processes regulating homeostasis and phenotypic flexibility. *Genes Nutr*. 2017;12:5.
39. Hotamisligil GS. Inflammation, metaflammation and immunometabolic disorders. *Nature*. 2017;542:177–185.
40. Williams AC, Ramsden DB. Pellagra: a clue as to why energy failure causes diseases? *Med Hypotheses*. 2007;69:618–628.
41. Williams AC, Dunbar RI. Big brains, meat, tuberculosis, and the nicotinamide switches: co-evolutionary relationships with modern repercussions? *Int J Tryptophan Res*. 2013;6:73.
42. Williams AC, Dunbar RIM. Big brains, meat, tuberculosis and the nicotinamide switches: co-evolutionary relationships with modern repercussions on longevity and disease? *Med Hypotheses*. 2014;83:79–87.
43. Bach JF, Chatenoud L. The hygiene hypothesis: an explanation for the increased frequency of insulin-dependent diabetes. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med*. 2012;2:a007799.
44. Rook G. *The Hygiene Hypothesis and Darwinian Medicine*. Basel, Switzerland: Birkhäuser; 2009.
45. Webley WC, Aldridge KL. Infectious asthma triggers: time to revise the hygiene hypothesis? *Trends Microbiol*. 2015;23:389–391.
46. Feehley T, Stefka AT, Cao S, Nagler CR. Microbial regulation of allergic responses to food. *Semin Immunopathol*. 2012;34:671–688.
47. Andoh A. Physiological role of gut microbiota for maintaining human health. *Digestion*. 2016;93:176–181.
48. Montserrat-de la Paz S, Naranjo MC, Lopez S, Abia R, Muriana FJ, Bermudez B. Niacin and its metabolites as master regulators of macrophage activation. *J Nutr Biochem*. 2016;39:40–47.
49. Yang Y, Sauve AA. NAD+ metabolism: bioenergetics, signaling and manipulation for therapy. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2016;1864:1787–1800.
50. Petriacq P, Ton J, Patrit O, Tcherkez G, Gakiere B. NAD acts as an integral regulator of multiple defense layers. *Plant Physiol*. 2016;172:1465–1479.
51. Guarente L. CELL METABOLISM. The resurgence of NAD(+). *Science*. 2016;352:1396–1397.
52. Preyat N, Leo O. Reassessing the role of NAD as a pro-survival factor. *Mol Cell Oncol*. 2016;3:e1062591.
53. Trammell SA, Schmidt MS, Weidemann BJ, et al. Nicotinamide riboside is uniquely and orally bioavailable in mice and humans. *Nat Commun*. 2016;7:12948.
54. Kennedy BE, Sharif T, Martell E, et al. NAD+ salvage pathway in cancer metabolism and therapy. *Pharmacol Res*. 2016.
55. Majewski M, Kozłowska A, Thoene M, Lepiarczyk E, Grzegorzewski W. Overview of the role of vitamins and minerals on the kynurenine pathway in health and disease. *J Physiol Pharmacol*. 2016;67:3–19.
56. Min SW, Sohn PD, Cho SH, Swanson RA, Gan L. Sirtuins in neurodegenerative diseases: an update on potential mechanisms. *Front Aging Neurosci*. 2013;5:53.
57. Fu L, Doreswamy V, Prakash R. The biochemical pathways of central nervous system neural degeneration in niacin deficiency. *Neural Regen Res*. 2014;9:1509.
58. Wyness L. The role of red meat in the diet: nutrition and health benefits. *Proc Nutr Soc*. 2016;75:227–232.
59. Petriacq P, de Bont L, Tcherkez G, Gakiere B. NAD: not just a pawn on the board of plant-pathogen interactions. *Plant Signal Behav*. 2013;8:e22477.
60. Bäckhed F, Ley RE, Sonnenburg JL, Peterson DA, Gordon JL. Host-bacterial mutualism in the human intestine. *Science*. 2005;307:1915–1920.
61. Honda K, Littman DR. The microbiome in infectious disease and inflammation. *Annu Rev Immunol*. 2012;30:759.
62. Nicholson JK, Holmes E, Kinross J, et al. Host-gut microbiota metabolic interactions. *Science*. 2012;336:1262–1267.
63. Stehr M, Elamin AA, Singh M. Pyrazinamide: the importance of uncovering the mechanisms of action in mycobacteria. *Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther*. 2015;13:593–603.
64. Seiner DR, Hegde SS, Blanchard JS. Kinetics and inhibition of nicotinamidase from *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Biochemistry*. 2010;49:9613–9619.
65. Aguilar-Ayala DA, Palomino JC, Vandamme P, Martin A, Gonzalez YMJA. Genetic regulation of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in a lipid-rich environment [published online ahead of print October 19, 2016]. *Infect Genet Evol*. doi:10.1016/j.meegid.2016.10.015.
66. Prunier A-L, Schuch R, Fernández RE, Maurelli AT. Genetic structure of the nadA and nadB antivirulence loci in *Shigella* spp. *J Bacteriol*. 2007;189:6482–6486.
67. Cotter PA, DiRita VJ. Bacterial virulence gene regulation: an evolutionary perspective. *Annu Rev Microbiol*. 2000;54:519–565.
68. Merdanovic M, Sauer E, Reidl J. Coupling of NAD+ biosynthesis and nicotinamide ribosyl transport: characterization of NadR ribonucleotide kinase mutants of *Haemophilus influenzae*. *J Bacteriol*. 2005;187:4410–4420.
69. Leonardo MR, Dailly Y, Clark DP. Role of NAD in regulating the adhE gene of *Escherichia coli*. *J Bacteriol*. 1996;178:6013–6018.
70. Edwards RL, Bryan A, Jules M, Harada K, Buchrieser C, Swanson MS. Nicotinic acid modulates *Legionella pneumophila* gene expression and induces virulence traits. *Infect Immun*. 2013;81:945–955.
71. Nauseef WM. How human neutrophils kill and degrade microbes: an integrated view. *Immunol Rev*. 2007;219:88–102.
72. Mahmood ME, Fereig R, Nishikawa Y. Involvement of host defense mechanisms against *Toxoplasma gondii* infection in anhedonic and despair-like behaviors in mice [published online ahead of print January 30, 2017]. *Infect Immun*. doi:10.1128/IAI.00007-17.
73. Mesquita I, Varela P, Belinha A, et al. Exploring NAD+ metabolism in host-pathogen interactions. *Cell Mol Life Sci*. 2016;73:1225–1236.
74. O'Hara JK, Kerwin LJ, Cobbold SA, et al. Targeting NAD+ metabolism in the human malaria parasite *Plasmodium falciparum*. *PLoS ONE*. 2014;9:e94061.
75. Scrimshaw NS, Taylor CE, Gordon JE. Interactions of nutrition and infection. *Monogr Ser World Health Organ*. 1968;57:3–329.
76. Oka S, Hsu C, Sadoshima J. Regulation of cell survival and death by pyridine nucleotides. *Circ Res*. 2012;111:611–627.
77. Corradi J, Bouzat C. Understanding the bases of function and modulation of $\alpha 7$ nicotinic receptors: implications for drug discovery. *Mol Pharmacol*. 2016;90:288–99.
78. Hubert S, Rissiek B, Klages K, et al. Extracellular NAD+ shapes the Foxp3+ regulatory T cell compartment through the ART2-P2X7 pathway. *J Exp Med*. 2010;207:2561–2568.

79. Hunt NH, Too LK, Khaw LT, et al. The kynurenine pathway and parasitic infections that affect CNS function. *Neuropharmacology*. 2016;112:389–398.
80. Braidy N, Poljak A, Grant R, et al. Mapping NAD⁺ metabolism in the brain of ageing Wistar rats: potential targets for influencing brain senescence. *Biogerontology*. 2014;15:177–198.
81. Breda C, Sathyaikumar KV, Sograte Idrissi S, et al. Tryptophan-2,3-dioxygenase (TDO) inhibition ameliorates neurodegeneration by modulation of kynurenine pathway metabolites. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2016;113:5435–5440.
82. Garten A, Schuster S, Penke M, Gorski T, de Giorgis T, Kiess W. Physiological and pathophysiological roles of NAMPT and NAD metabolism. *Nat Rev Endocrinol*. 2015;11:535–546.
83. Liu M, Li L, Chu J, et al. Serum N(1)-methylnicotinamide is associated with obesity and diabetes in Chinese. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2015;100:3112–3117.
84. Massudi H, Grant R, Braidy N, Guest J, Farnsworth B, Guillemin GJ. Age-associated changes in oxidative stress and NAD⁺ metabolism in human tissue. *PLoS ONE*. 2012;7:e42357.
85. Lavado-Roldán A, Fernández-Chacón R. Two for the price of one: a neuroprotective chaperone kit within NAD synthase protein NMNAT2. *PLoS Biol*. 2016;14:e1002522.
86. Mouchiroud L, Houtkooper RH, Moullan N, et al. The NAD⁺/sirtuin pathway modulates longevity through activation of mitochondrial UPR and FOXO signaling. *Cell*. 2013;154:430–441.
87. Rissiek B, Haag F, Boyer O, Koch-Nolte F, Adriouch S. ADP-ribosylation of P2X7: a matter of life and death for regulatory T cells and natural killer T cells. *Curr Top Microbiol Immunol*. 2015;384:107–126.
88. Wang P, Li W-L, Liu J-M, Miao C-Y. NAMPT and NAMPT-controlled NAD metabolism in vascular repair. *J Cardiovasc Pharmacol*. 2016;67:474–481.
89. Wang SN, Xu TY, Li WL, Miao CY. Targeting nicotinamide phosphoribosyltransferase as a potential therapeutic strategy to restore adult neurogenesis. *CNS Neurosci Ther*. 2016;22:431–439.
90. Thorburn AN, Macia L, Mackay CR. Diet, metabolites, and ‘western-lifestyle’ inflammatory diseases. *Immunity*. 2014;40:833–842.
91. Jobin C. GPR109a: the missing link between microbiome and good health? *Immunity*. 2014;40:8–10.
92. Son MJ, Kwon Y, Son T, Cho YS. Restoration of mitochondrial NAD⁺ levels delays stem cell senescence and facilitates reprogramming of aged somatic cells. *Stem Cells*. 2016;34:2840–2851.
93. Wu LE, Sinclair DA. Restoring stem cells – all you need is NAD⁺. *Cell Res*. 2016;26:971–972.
94. Yin TC, Voorhees JR, Genova RM, et al. Acute axonal degeneration drives development of cognitive, motor, and visual deficits after blast-mediated traumatic brain injury in mice. *eNeuro*. 2016;3:ENEURO.0220-16.2016.
95. Bonkowski MS, Sinclair DA. Slowing ageing by design: the rise of NAD⁺ and sirtuin-activating compounds. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol*. 2016;17:679–690.
96. Chen A, Martin A, Dalziel R, et al. A phase II randomized controlled trial of nicotinamide for skin cancer chemoprevention in renal transplant recipients. *Br J Dermatol*. 2016;175:1073–1075.
97. Ratajczak J, Joffraud M, Trammell SA, et al. NRK1 controls nicotinamide mononucleotide and nicotinamide riboside metabolism in mammalian cells. *Nat Commun*. 2016;7:13103.
98. Ming G-F, Wu K, Hu K, Chen Y, Xiao J. NAMPT regulates senescence, proliferation, and migration of endothelial progenitor cells through the SIRT1 AS lncRNA/miR-22/SIRT1 pathway. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 2016;478:1382–1388.
99. Musiek ES, Xiong DD, Patel T, et al. Nmnat1 protects neuronal function without altering phospho-tau pathology in a mouse model of tauopathy. *Ann Clin Transl Neurol*. 2016;3:434–442.
100. Srivastava S. Emerging therapeutic roles for NAD(+) metabolism in mitochondrial and age-related disorders. *Clin Transl Med*. 2016;5:25.
101. Lin JB, Kubota S, Ban N, et al. NAMPT-mediated NAD⁺ biosynthesis is essential for vision in mice. *Cell Rep*. 2016;17:69–85.
102. Pétriacq P, Ton J, Patrit O, Gakiere B. NAD acts as an integral regulator of multiple defense layers. *Plant Physiol*. 2016;172:1465–1479.
103. Schultz MB, Sinclair DA. Why NAD(+) declines during aging: it’s destroyed. *Cell Metab*. 2016;23:965–966.
104. Xiao Y, Kwong M, Daemen A, et al. Metabolic response to NAD depletion across cell lines is highly variable. *PLoS ONE*. 2016;11:e0164166.
105. Waaler HT. Height, weight and mortality. The Norwegian experience. *Acta Med Scand Suppl*. 1984;679:1–56.
106. Bourassa MW, Alim I, Bultman SJ, Ratan RR. Butyrate, neuroepigenetics and the gut microbiome: can a high fiber diet improve brain health? *Neurosci Lett*. 2016;625:56–63.
107. Jeraldo P, Hernandez A, Nielsen HB, et al. Capturing one of the human gut microbiome’s most wanted: reconstructing the genome of a novel butyrate-producing, clostridial scavenger from metagenomic sequence data. *Front Microbiol*. 2016;7:783.
108. Jung TH, Jeon WM, Han KS. In vitro effects of dietary inulin on human fecal microbiota and butyrate production. *J Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2015;25:1555–1558.
109. Ringel-Kulka T, Choi CH, Tamas D, et al. Altered colonic bacterial fermentation as a potential pathophysiological factor in irritable bowel syndrome. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2015;110:1339–1346.
110. Maslowski KM, Vieira AT, Ng A, et al. Regulation of inflammatory responses by gut microbiota and chemoattractant receptor GPR43. *Nature*. 2009;461:1282–1286.
111. Alvarez-Curto E, Milligan G. Metabolism meets immunity: the role of free fatty acid receptors in the immune system. *Biochem Pharmacol*. 2016;114:3–13.
112. Atarashi K, Tanoue T, Shima T, et al. Induction of colonic regulatory T cells by indigenous clostridium species. *Science*. 2011;331:337–341.
113. Coombs JL, Siddiqui KR, Arancibia-Carcamo CV, et al. A functionally specialized population of mucosal CD103⁺ DCs induces Foxp3⁺ regulatory T cells via a TGF-beta and retinoic acid-dependent mechanism. *J Exp Med*. 2007;204:1757–1764.
114. Corrêa-Oliveira E, Fachi JL, Vieira A, Sato FT, Vinolo MAR. Regulation of immune cell function by short-chain fatty acids. *Clin Transl Immunology*. 2016;5:e73.
115. Macia L, Tan J, Vieira AT, et al. Metabolite-sensing receptors GPR43 and GPR109A facilitate dietary fibre-induced gut homeostasis through regulation of the inflammasome. *Nat Commun*. 2015;6:6734.
116. Maizels RM, McSorley HJ. Regulation of the host immune system by helminth parasites. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2016;138:666–675.
117. Stilling RM, van de Wouw M, Clarke G, Stanton C, Dinan TG, Cryan JF. The neuropharmacology of butyrate: the bread and butter of the microbiota-gut-brain axis? *Neurochem Int*. 2016;99:110–132.
118. Tao J-H, Cheng M, Tang J-P, Liu Q, Pan F, Li X-P. Foxp3, regulatory T cell, and autoimmune diseases. *Inflammation*. 2016;40:328–339.
119. Singh N, Gurav A, Sivaprakasam S, et al. Activation of Gpr109a, receptor for niacin and the commensal metabolite butyrate, suppresses colonic inflammation and carcinogenesis. *Immunity*. 2014;40:128–139.
120. Segata N. Gut microbiome: westernization and the disappearance of intestinal diversity. *Curr Biol*. 2015;25:R611–R613.
121. Hashimoto T, Perlot T, Rehman A, et al. ACE2 links amino acid malnutrition to microbial ecology and intestinal inflammation. *Nature*. 2012;487:477–481.
122. Schnorr SL. The diverse microbiome of the hunter-gatherer. *Nature*. 2015;518:S14–S15.
123. Ishii N, Nishihara Y. Pellagra encephalopathy among tuberculous patients: its relation to isoniazid therapy. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 1985;48:628–634.
124. Gupta Y, Shah I. Ethionamide-induced Pellagra. *J Trop Pediatr*. 2015;61:301–303.
125. Zelante T, Iannitti RG, Cunha C, et al. Tryptophan catabolites from microbiota engage aryl hydrocarbon receptor and balance mucosal reactivity via interleukin-22. *Immunity*. 2013;39:372–385.
126. Zelante T, Iannitti RG, Fallarino F, et al. Tryptophan feeding of the IDO1-AHR axis in host-microbial symbiosis. *Front Immunol*. 2014;5:640.
127. Metz R, Rust S, Duhadaway JB, et al. IDO inhibits a tryptophan sufficiency signal that stimulates mTOR: a novel IDO effector pathway targeted by D-1-methyl-tryptophan. *Oncimmunology*. 2012;1:1460–1468.
128. McGaha TL, Huang L, Lemos H, et al. Amino acid catabolism: a pivotal regulator of innate and adaptive immunity. *Immunol Rev*. 2012;249:135–157.
129. Elkhall A, Rodriguez Cetina Bieffer H, Heinbokel T, et al. NAD(+) regulates Treg cell fate and promotes allograft survival via a systemic IL-10 production that is CD4(+) CD25(+) Foxp3(+) T cells independent. *Sci Rep*. 2016;6:22325.
130. Bedoya SK, Lam B, Lau K, Larkin J 3rd. Th17 cells in immunity and autoimmunity. *Clin Dev Immunol*. 2013;2013:986789.
131. Lippens C, Duraes FV, Dubrot J, et al. IDO-orchestrated crosstalk between pDCs and Tregs inhibits autoimmunity. *J Autoimmun*. 2016;75:39–49.
132. Takenaka MC, Quintana FJ. Tolerogenic dendritic cells. *Seminars in Immunopathology*. 2017;39(2):113–120.
133. Li R, Li H, Sun Q, Liu L, Zhang C, Ren X. Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase regulates T cell activity through Vav1/Rac pathway. *Mol Immunol*. 2017;81:102–107.
134. de Araújo EF, Medeiros DH, de Lima Galdino NA, Condino-Neto A, Calich VLG, Loures FV. Tolerogenic plasmacytoid dendritic cells control *Paracoccidioides brasiliensis* infection by inducing regulatory T cells in an IDO-dependent manner. *PLoS Pathogen*. 2016;12:e0106115.
135. Nguyen NT, Kimura A, Nakahama T, et al. Aryl hydrocarbon receptor negatively regulates dendritic cell immunogenicity via a kynurenine-dependent mechanism. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2010;107:19961–19966.
136. Lovelace MD, Varney B, Sundaram G, et al. Current evidence for a role of the kynurenine pathway of tryptophan metabolism in multiple sclerosis. *Front Immunol*. 2016;7:246.

137. Byakwaga H, Boum Y, Huang Y, et al. The kynurenine pathway of tryptophan catabolism, CD4+ T-cell recovery, and mortality among HIV-infected Ugandans initiating antiretroviral therapy. *J Infect Dis.* 2014;210:383–391.
138. Park G, Choi Y-J, Lee S-E, et al. A paradoxical pattern of indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase expression in the colon tissues of patients with acute graft-versus-host disease. *Exp Hematol.* 2014;42:734–740.
139. Smith C, Chang MY, Parker KH, et al. IDO is a nodal pathogenic driver of lung cancer and metastasis development. *Cancer Discov.* 2012;2:722–735.
140. Alroqi FJ, Chatila TA. T regulatory cell biology in health and disease. *Curr Allergy Asthma Rep.* 2016;16:1–8.
141. Verbsky JW, Chatila TA. Immune dysregulation, polyendocrinopathy, enteropathy, X-linked (IPEX) and IPEX-related disorders: an evolving web of heritable autoimmune diseases. *Curr Opin Pediatr.* 2013;25:708.
142. Prendergast GC, Chang MY, Mandik-Nayak L, Metz R, Muller AK. Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase as a modifier of pathogenic inflammation in cancer and other inflammation-associated diseases. *Curr Med Chem.* 2011;18:2257–2262.
143. Ciorba MA, Bettonville EE, McDonald KG, et al. Induction of IDO-1 by immunostimulatory DNA limits severity of experimental colitis. *J Immunol.* 2010;184:3907–3916.
144. Xu H, Oriss TB, Fei M, et al. Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase in lung dendritic cells promotes Th2 responses and allergic inflammation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2008;105:6690–6695.
145. Mazarrella G. Effector and suppressor T cells in celiac disease. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2015;21:7349.
146. Hardy MY, Tye-Din JA. Coeliac disease: a unique model for investigating broken tolerance in autoimmunity. *Clin Transl Immunology.* 2016;5:e112.
147. Christophersen A, Risnes LF, Bergseng E, Lundin KE, Sollid LM, Qiao S-W. Healthy HLA-DQ2. 5+ subjects lack regulatory and memory T cells specific for immunodominant gluten epitopes of celiac disease. *J Immunol.* 2016;196:2819–2826.
148. Hmida NB, Ahmed MB, Moussa A, et al. Impaired control of effector T cells by regulatory T cells: a clue to loss of oral tolerance and autoimmunity in celiac disease? *Am J Gastroenterol.* 2012;107:604–611.
149. Marshall EA, Ng KW, Kung SH, et al. Emerging roles of T helper 17 and regulatory T cells in lung cancer progression and metastasis. *Mol Cancer.* 2016;15:67.
150. Salazar F, Awuah D, Negm OH, Shakib F, Ghaemmaghami AM. The role of indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase-aryl hydrocarbon receptor pathway in the TLR4-induced tolerogenic phenotype in human DCs. *Sci Rep.* 2017;7:43337.
151. Braidy N, Grant R. Kynurenine pathway metabolism and neuroinflammatory disease. *Neural Regen Res.* 2017;12:39.
152. Smil V. Eating meat: evolution, patterns, and consequences. *Popul Dev Rev.* 2002;28:599–639.
153. Millstone E, Lang T. *The Atlas of Food Who Eats What, Where, and Why.* London, England: Earthscan; 2008.
154. Greenwood M. Some British pioneers of social medicine. *Br J Soc Med.* 1948;2:74.
155. Lynn R, Meisenberg G, MikkJ, Williams A. National IQS predict differences in scholastic achievement in 67 countries. *J Biosoc Sci.* 2007;39:861–874.
156. McKeown T. *The Origins of Human Disease.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley; 1991.
157. Murray CJ, Ezzati M, Flaxman AD, et al. GBD 2010: design, definitions, and metrics. *Lancet.* 2012;380:2063–2066.
158. Duvoisin RC, Schweitzer MD. Paralysis agitans mortality in England and Wales, 1855–1962. *Br J Prev Soc Med.* 1966;20:27–33.
159. Logan WPD. Mortality in England and Wales from 1848 to 1947: a survey of the changing causes of death during the past hundred years. *Popul Stud.* 1950;4:132–178.
160. Charlton J, Murphy M. *The Health of Adult Britain 1841–1994.* London, England: Stationery Office; 1997.
161. Lang T, Rayner G. Ecological public health: the 21st century's big idea? *BMJ.* 2012;345:17–20.
162. O'Donovan D. *The Atlas of Health: Mapping the Challenges and Causes of Disease.* London, England: Earthscan; 2008.
163. Cole TJ. Galton's midparent height revisited. *Ann Hum Biol.* 2000;27:401–405.
164. Johnston W. *The Modern Epidemic: A History of Tuberculosis in Japan.* Council on East Asian Studies. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press; 1995.
165. Lumey LH, Van Poppel FW. The Dutch famine of 1944–45: mortality and morbidity in past and present generations. *Soc Hist Med.* 1994;7:229–246.
166. Keys A, Brožek J, Henschel A, Mickelsen O, Taylor HL. *The Biology of Human Starvation.* 2 Vols. USA: University of Minnesota Press; 1950.
167. Bostock J. Case of a periodical affection of the eyes and chest. *Med Chir Trans.* 1819;10:161–165.
168. Blackley CH. *Experimental Researches on the Causes and Nature of Catarrhus Aestivus (Hay-Fever or Hay-Asthma).* London, England: Baillière, Tindall & Cox; 1873.
169. Beard GM. *Hay-Fever: Or, Summer Catarrh: Its Nature and Treatment.* New York, NY: Harper; 1876.
170. Parnes O. 'Trouble from within': allergy, autoimmunity, and pathology in the first half of the twentieth century. *Stud Hist Philos Sci.* 2003;34:425–454.
171. Jogi R, Janson C, Björnsson E, Boman G, Björkstén B. Atopy and allergic disorders among adults in Tartu, Estonia compared with Uppsala, Sweden. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 1998;28:1072–1080.
172. Bergmann KC, Heinrich J, Niemann H. Current status of allergy prevalence in Germany: position paper of the Environmental Medicine Commission of the Robert Koch Institute. *Allergo J Int.* 2016;25:6–10.
173. Krämer U, Schmitz R, Ring J, Behrendt H. What can reunification of East and West Germany tell us about the cause of the allergy epidemic? *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2015;45:94–107.
174. Perzanowski MS, Ng'ang'a LW, Carter MC, et al. Atopy, asthma, and antibodies to *Ascaris* among rural and urban children in Kenya. *J Pediatr.* 2002;140:582–588.
175. Scrivener S, Yemaneberhan H, Zebeñigus M, et al. Independent effects of intestinal parasite infection and domestic allergen exposure on risk of wheeze in Ethiopia: a nested case-control study. *Lancet.* 2001;358:1493–1499.
176. Stevens W, Addo-Yobo E, Roper J, et al. Differences in both prevalence and titre of specific immunoglobulin E among children with asthma in affluent and poor communities within a large town in Ghana. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2011;41:1587–1594.
177. Endara P, Vaca M, Platts-Mills T, et al. Effect of urban vs. rural residence on the association between atopy and wheeze in Latin America: findings from a case-control analysis. *Clin Exp Allergy.* 2015;45:438–447.
178. Adami AJ, Bracken SJ. Focus: microbiome: breathing better through bugs: asthma and the microbiome. *Yale J Biol Med.* 2016;89:309.
179. Sampson HA. Food allergy: past, present and future. *Allergol Int.* 2016;65:363–369.
180. Apostolovic D, Tran TAT, Starkhammar M, Sánchez-Vidaurre S, Hamsten C, Van Hage M. The red meat allergy syndrome in Sweden. *Allergo J Int.* 2016;25:49–54.
181. Du Toit G, Katz Y, Sasieni P, et al. Early consumption of peanuts in infancy is associated with a low prevalence of peanut allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2008;122:984–991.
182. Shirakawa T, Enomoto T, Shimazu S, Hopkin JM. The inverse association between tuberculin responses and atopic disorder. *Science.* 1997;275:77–79.
183. Linehan MF, Nurmatov U, Frank TL, Niven RM, Baxter DN, Sheikh A. Does BCG vaccination protect against childhood asthma? Final results from the Manchester Community Asthma Study retrospective cohort study and updated systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2014;133:688.e14–695.e14.
184. Briggs M, Weatherhead J, Sastry KJ, Hotez PJ. The hygiene hypothesis and its inconvenient truths about helminth infections. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis.* 2016;10:e0004944.
185. Parker W, Ollerton J. Evolutionary biology and anthropology suggest biome reconstitution as a necessary approach toward dealing with immune disorders. *Evol Med Public Health.* 2013;2013:89–103.
186. Santiago HC, Nutman TB. Human helminths and allergic disease: the hygiene hypothesis and beyond. *Am J Trop Med Hyg.* 2016;95:746–753.
187. Humphreys M. How four once common diseases were eliminated from the American South. *Health Aff.* 2009;28:1734–1744.
188. Humphries D, Simms BT, Davey D, et al. Hookworm infection among school age children in Kintampo North Municipality, Ghana: nutritional risk factors and response to albendazole treatment. *Am J Trop Med Hyg.* 2013;89:540–548.
189. Campbell SJ, Nery SV, Doi SA, et al. Complexities and perplexities: a critical appraisal of the evidence for soil-transmitted helminth infection-related morbidity. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis.* 2016;10:e0004566.
190. Yu W, Ross AG, Olveda RM, et al. Risk of human helminthiasis: geospatial distribution and targeted control. *Int J Infect Dis.* 2016;55:131–138.
191. Papier K, Williams GM, Luceres-Catubig R, et al. Childhood malnutrition and parasitic helminth interactions. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2014;59:234–243.
192. Platts-Mills TA. The allergy epidemics: 1870–2010. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2015;136:3–13.
193. Koplin JJ, Mills EC, Allen KJ. Epidemiology of food allergy and food-induced anaphylaxis: is there really a Western world epidemic? *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2015;15:409–416.
194. Deshpande DA, Guedes AG, Lund FE, Subramanian S, Walseth TF, Kannan MS. CD38 in the pathogenesis of allergic airway disease: potential therapeutic targets. *Pharmacol Ther.* 2017;172:116–126.
195. Hosoki K, Boldogh I, Sur S. Innate responses to pollen allergens. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2015;15:79–88.
196. Casaca V, Illi S, Klucker E, et al. STAT6 polymorphisms are associated with neonatal regulatory T cells and cytokines and atopic diseases at 3 years. *Allergy.* 2013;68:1249–1258.

197. Schröder PC, Casaca VI, Illi S, et al. IL-33 polymorphisms are associated with increased risk of hay fever and reduced regulatory T cells in a birth cohort. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol*. 2016;27:687–695.
198. Blankenhaus B, Klemm U, Eschbach M-L, et al. *Strongyloides ratti* infection induces expansion of Foxp3+ regulatory T cells that interfere with immune response and parasite clearance in BALB/c mice. *J Immunol*. 2011;186:4295–4305.
199. Schiering C, Wincent E, Metidji A, et al. Feedback control of AHR signalling regulates intestinal immunity. *Nature*. 2017;542:242–245.
200. Hirsch CS, Rojas R, Wu M, Toossi Z. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* induces expansion of Foxp3 positive CD4 T-cells with a regulatory profile in tuberculin non-sensitized healthy subjects: implications for effective immunization against TB. *J Clin Cell Immunol*. 2016;7:428.
201. Robberecht H, De Bruyne T, Hermans N. Effect of various diets on biomarkers of the metabolic syndrome [published online ahead of print December 28, 2016]. *Int J Food Sci Nutr*. doi:10.1080/09637486.2016.1269726.
202. Gostner JM, Becker K, Kofler H, Strasser B, Fuchs D. Tryptophan metabolism in allergic disorders. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol*. 2016;169:203–215.
203. Buyuktiryaki B, Sahiner U, Girgin G, et al. Low indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase activity in persistent food allergy in children. *Allergy*. 2016;71:258–266.
204. Klerman GL, Weissman MM. Increasing rates of depression. *JAMA*. 1989;261:2229–2235.
205. Depression S. The new cross-cultural psychiatry. *Soc Sci Med*. 1977;11:3–9.
206. Balen A. Pathogenesis of polycystic ovary syndrome – the enigma unravels? *Lancet*. 1999;354:966–967.
207. Frank GP, Voorend DM, Chamdula A, van Oosterhout JJ, Koop K. Pellagra: a non-communicable disease of poverty. *Trop Doct*. 2012;42:182–184.
208. Seal AJ, Creeke PI, Dibari F, et al. Low and deficient niacin status and pellagra are endemic in postwar Angola. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2007;85:218–224.
209. van den Briel T, Cheung E, Zewari J, Khan R. Fortifying food in the field to boost nutrition: case studies from Afghanistan, Angola and Zambia. *Food Nutr Bull*. 2007;28:353–364.
210. Baquet S, Guillaume F, Van Egmond K, Ibanez F. Pellagra outbreak in Kuito, Angola. *Lancet*. 2000;355:1829–1830.
211. Malfait P, Moren A, Dillon JC, et al. An outbreak of pellagra related to changes in dietary niacin among Mozambican refugees in Malawi. *Int J Epidemiol*. 1993;22:504–511.
212. Terada N, Kinoshita K, Taguchi S, Tokuda Y. Wernicke encephalopathy and pellagra in an alcoholic and malnourished patient. *BMJ Case Rep*. 2015;2015:bcr2015209412.
213. Savvidou S. Pellagra: a non-eradicated old disease. *Clin Pract*. 2014;4:637.
214. Delgado-Sanchez L, Godkar D, Niranjana S. Pellagra: rekindling of an old flame. *Am J Ther*. 2008;15:173–175.
215. Teare JP, Hyams G, Pollock S. Acute encephalopathy due to coexistent nicotinic acid and thiamine deficiency. *Br J Clin Pract*. 1993;47:343–344.
216. Lee SE. Guam dementia syndrome revisited in 2011. *Curr Opin Neurol*. 2011;24:517–524.
217. Spencer PS, Palmer VS, Kisby GE. Seeking environmental causes of neurodegenerative disease and envisioning primary prevention. *Neurotoxicology*. 2016;56:269–283.
218. de Andraica I, Castillo M, Walter T. Psychomotor development and behavior in iron-deficient anemic infants. *Nutr Rev*. 1997;55:125–132.
219. Ordunez-Garcia PO, Nieto FJ, Espinosa-Brito AD, Caballero B. Cuban epidemic neuropathy, 1991 to 1994: history repeats itself a century after the 'amblyopia of the blockade'. *Am J Public Health*. 1996;86:738–743.
220. Lamb J. *Scurvy: The Disease of Discovery*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press; 2016.
221. Trowell H, Muwazi E. Severe and prolonged underfeeding in African children: (The Kwashiorkor Syndrome of Malignant Malnutrition). *Arch Dis Child*. 1945;20:110.
222. Ezzati M, Lopez AD, Rodgers A, Vander Hoorn S, Murray CJ; Comparative Risk Assessment Collaborating Group. Selected major risk factors and global and regional burden of disease. *Lancet*. 2002;360:1347–1360.
223. Grantham-McGregor S, Ani C. Cognition and undernutrition: evidence for vulnerable period. *Forum Nutr*. 2003;56:272–275.
224. Grantham-McGregor S, Baker-Henningham H. Review of the evidence linking protein and energy to mental development. *Public Health Nutr*. 2005;8:1191–1201.
225. Donowitz JR, Haque R, Kirkpatrick BD, et al. Small intestine bacterial overgrowth and environmental enteropathy in Bangladeshi children. *mBio*. 2016;7:e02102–e02115.
226. Perlot T, Penninger JM. ACE2-from the renin-angiotensin system to gut microbiota and malnutrition. *Microbes Infect*. 2013;15:866–873.
227. Favre D, Mold J, Hunt PW, et al. Tryptophan catabolism by indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase 1 alters the balance of TH17 to regulatory T cells in HIV disease. *Sci Transl Med*. 2010;2:1–23.
228. Fu X, Lawson MA, Kelley KW, Dantzer R. HIV-1 Tat activates indoleamine 2,3 dioxygenase in murine organotypic hippocampal slice cultures in a p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase-dependent manner. *J Neuroinflammation*. 2011;8:88.
229. Bipath P, Levay PF, Viljoen M. The kynurenine pathway activities in a sub-Saharan HIV/AIDS population. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2015;15:346.
230. Burdge GC, Lillycrop KA. Environment-physiology, diet quality and energy balance: the influence of early life nutrition on future energy balance. *Physiol Behav*. 2014;134:119–122.
231. McCarrison R. *Nutrition and Health, Together with Two Earlier Essays*. London, England: Faber & Faber; 1936.
232. Melina V, Craig W, Levin S. Position of the academy of nutrition and dietetics: vegetarian diets. *J Acad Nutr Diet*. 2016;116:1970–1980.
233. Ceci SJ. How much does schooling influence general intelligence and its cognitive components? A reassessment of the evidence. *Dev Psychol*. 1991;27:703–722.
234. Flynn JR. *Does Your Family Make You Smarter?: Nature, Nurture, and Human Autonomy*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 2016.
235. Lynn R, Vanhanen T. *IQ and Global Inequality*. Athens, Greece: Washington Summit Books; 2006.
236. Wang X, Hu X, Yang Y, Takata T, Sakurai T. Nicotinamide mononucleotide protects against β -amyloid oligomer-induced cognitive impairment and neuronal death. *Brain Res*. 2016;1643:1–9.
237. Young GS, Kirkland JB. The role of dietary niacin intake and the adenosine-5'-diphosphate-ribose cyclase enzyme CD38 in spatial learning ability: is cyclic adenosine diphosphate ribose the link between diet and behaviour? *Nutr Res Rev*. 2008;21:42–55.
238. Wang Y, Zuo M. Nicotinamide improves sevoflurane-induced cognitive impairment through suppression of inflammation and anti-apoptosis in rat. *Int J Clin Exp Med*. 2015;8:20079.
239. Morris MC, Schneider JA, Tangney CC. Thoughts on B-vitamins and dementia. *J Alzheimers Dis*. 2006;9:429–433.
240. Hoane MR, Akstulewicz SL, Toppen J. Treatment with vitamin B3 improves functional recovery and reduces GFAP expression following traumatic brain injury in rats. *J Neurotrauma*. 2003;20:1189–1199.
241. Morris MC. Nutrition and risk of dementia: overview and methodological issues. *Ann NY Acad Sci*. 2016;1367:31–37.
242. Barnes JL, Tian M, Edens NK, Morris MC. Consideration of nutrient levels in studies of cognitive decline. *Nutr Rev*. 2014;72:707–719.
243. Morris MC, Tangney CC. Diet and prevention of Alzheimer disease diet and prevention of Alzheimer disease. *JAMA*. 2010;303:2519–2520.
244. Morris MC, Evans DA, Bienias JL, et al. Dietary niacin and the risk of incident Alzheimer's disease and of cognitive decline. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2004;75:1093–1099.
245. Yao JK, Dougherty GG, Gautier CH, et al. Prevalence and specificity of the abnormal niacin response: a potential endophenotype marker in schizophrenia. *Schizophr Bull*. 2016;42:369–376.
246. Berger GE, Smesny S, Schäfer MR, et al. Niacin skin sensitivity is increased in adolescents at ultra-high risk for psychosis. *PLoS ONE*. 2016;11:e0148429.
247. Xu X, Jiang G. Niacin-responsive subset of schizophrenia – a therapeutic review. *Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci*. 2015;19:988–997.
248. Messamore E. Niacin subsensitivity is associated with functional impairment in schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res*. 2012;137:180–184.
249. Camacho-Pereira J, Tarragó MG, Chini CC, et al. CD38 dictates age-related NAD decline and mitochondrial dysfunction through an SIRT3-dependent mechanism. *Cell Metab*. 2016;23:1127–1139.
250. Bleeker JC, Houtkooper RH. Sirtuin activation as a therapeutic approach against inborn errors of metabolism. *J Inher Metab Dis*. 2016;39:565–572.
251. Greenwald SH, Charette JR, Staniszevska M, et al. Mouse models of NMNAT1-leber congenital amaurosis (LCA9) recapitulate key features of the human disease. *Am J Pathol*. 2016;186:1925–1938.
252. Ryu D, Zhang H, Ropelle ER, et al. NAD+ repletion improves muscle function in muscular dystrophy and counters global PARylation. *Sci Transl Med*. 2016;8:361ra139.
253. Tateishi K, Wakimoto H, Iafate AJ, et al. Extreme vulnerability of IDH1 mutant cancers to NAD+ depletion. *Cancer Cell*. 2015;28:773–784.
254. Lynch DR, Fischbeck KH. Nicotinamide in Friedreich's ataxia: useful or not? *Lancet*. 2014;384:474–475.
255. Fang EF, Kassahun H, Croteau DL, et al. NAD+ replenishment improves lifespan and healthspan in ataxia telangiectasia models via mitophagy and DNA repair. *Cell Metab*. 2016;24:566–581.
256. Hu L, Ibrahim K, Stucki M, et al. Secondary NAD+ deficiency in the inherited defect of glutamine synthetase. *J Inher Metab Dis*. 2015;38:1075–1083.
257. Rosas HD, Doros G, Bhasin S, et al. A systems-level 'misunderstanding': the plasma metabolome in Huntington's disease. *Ann Clin Transl Neurol*. 2015;2:756–768.

258. Naia L, Rosenstock TR, Oliveira AM, et al. Comparative mitochondrial-based protective effects of resveratrol and nicotinamide in Huntington's disease models [published online ahead of print September 2, 2016]. *Mol Neurobiol*. doi:10.1007/s12035-016-0048-3.
259. Shah GM, Shah RG, Veillette H, Kirkland JB, Pasiaka JL, Warner RR. Biochemical assessment of niacin deficiency among carcinoid cancer patients. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2005;100:2307–2314.
260. Broer S. The role of the neutral amino acid transporter B0AT1 (SLC6A19) in Hartnup disorder and protein nutrition. *IUBMB Life*. 2009;61:591–599.
261. Peng QY, Ai ML, Zhang LN, Zou Y, Ma XH, Ai YH. Blocking NAD(+)/CD38/cADPR/Ca(2+) pathway in sepsis prevents organ damage. *J Surg Res*. 2016;201:480–489.
262. Park JH, Long A, Owens K, Kristian T. Nicotinamide mononucleotide inhibits post-ischemic NAD+ degradation and dramatically ameliorates brain damage following global cerebral ischemia. *Neurobiol Dis*. 2016;95:102–110.
263. Long A, Park JH, Klimova N, Fowler C, Loane DJ, Kristian T. CD38 knockout mice show significant protection against ischemic brain damage despite high level poly-ADP-ribosylation. *Neurochem Res*. 2017;42:283–293.
264. Mahmoud YI, Mahmoud AA. Role of nicotinamide (vitamin B3) in acetaminophen-induced changes in rat liver: nicotinamide effect in acetaminophen-damaged liver. *Exp Toxicol Pathol*. 2016;68:345–354.
265. Ogawa K, Fukumoto T, Yoshida M, Matsumoto Y, Shobatake C, Asada H. Eosinophilic annular erythema in a patient with autoimmune pancreatitis: nicotinamide therapy may be beneficial for achieving remission. *J Dermatol*. 2016;43:1380–1381.
266. Parsons RB, Aravindan S, Kadampeswaran A, et al. The expression of nicotinamide N-methyltransferase increases ATP synthesis and protects SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells against the toxicity of Complex I inhibitors. *Biochem J*. 2011;436:145–155.
267. Yeung AW, Terentis AC, King NJ, Thomas SR. Role of indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase in health and disease. *Clin Sci (Lond)*. 2015;129:601–672.
268. Xie X, Liu H, Wang Y, et al. Nicotinamide N-methyltransferase enhances resistance to 5-fluorouracil in colorectal cancer cells through inhibition of the ASK1-p38 MAPK pathway. *Oncotarget*. 2016;7:45837–45848.
269. Yue Z, Ma Y, You J, et al. NMNAT3 is involved in the protective effect of SIRT3 in Ang II-induced cardiac hypertrophy. *Exp Cell Res*. 2016;347:261–273.
270. Zhou B, Yu P, Lin MY, Sun T, Chen Y, Sheng ZH. Facilitation of axon regeneration by enhancing mitochondrial transport and rescuing energy deficits. *J Cell Biol*. 2016;214:103–119.
271. Zou XD, Guo SQ, Hu ZW, Li WL. NAMPT protects against 6-hydroxydopamine-induced neurotoxicity in PC12 cells through modulating SIRT1 activity. *Mol Med Rep*. 2016;13:4058–4064.
272. Liu D, Gharavi R, Pitta M, Gleichmann M, Mattson MP. Nicotinamide prevents NAD+ depletion and protects neurons against excitotoxicity and cerebral ischemia: NAD+ consumption by SIRT1 may endanger energetically compromised neurons. *Neuromolecular Med*. 2009;11:28–42.
273. Mills KF, Yoshida S, Stein LR, et al. Long-term administration of nicotinamide mononucleotide mitigates age-associated physiological decline in mice. *Cell Metab*. 2016;24:795–806.
274. Tung C-S, Chang S-T, Huang C-L, Huang N-K. The neurotoxic mechanisms of amphetamine: step by step for striatal dopamine depletion. *Neurosci Lett*. 2017;639:185–191.
275. Bostom AG, Merhi B, Walker J, Robinson-Bostom L. More than skin deep? Potential nicotinamide treatment applications in chronic kidney transplant recipients. *World J Transplant*. 2016;6:658.
276. Forbat E, Al-Niaimi F, Ali F. Use of nicotinamide in dermatology. *Clin Exp Dermatol*. 2017;42:137–144.
277. Williams PA, Harder JM, Foxworth NE, et al. Vitamin B3 modulates mitochondrial vulnerability and prevents glaucoma in aged mice. *Science*. 2017;355:756–760.
278. Zhu X-J, Lin Y-J, Chen W, et al. Physiological study on association between nicotinamide N-methyltransferase gene polymorphisms and hyperlipidemia. *BioMed Res Int*. 2016;2016:Article 7521942.
279. Saini JS, Corneo B, Miller JD, et al. Nicotinamide ameliorates disease phenotypes in a human iPSC model of age-related macular degeneration [published online ahead of print January 21, 2017]. *Cell Stem Cell*. doi:10.1016/j.stem.2016.12.015.
280. Monfrecola G, Di Caprio R, Balato N, et al. Nicotinamide reduces COX-2 expression in HaCaT keratinocytes after ultraviolet-B irradiation [published online ahead of print January 24, 2017]. *Br J Dermatol*. doi:10.1111/bjd.15338.
281. Maltos AL, Portari GV, Moraes GV, Monteiro MCR, Vannucchi H, da Cunha DF. Niacin metabolism and indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase activation in malnourished patients with flaky paint dermatosis. *Nutrition*. 2015;31:890–892.
282. Thompson BC, Halliday GM, Damian DL. Nicotinamide enhances repair of arsenic and ultraviolet radiation-induced DNA damage in HaCaT keratinocytes and ex vivo human skin. *PLoS ONE*. 2015;10:e0117491.
283. Kim B, Halliday G, Damian D. *Oral Nicotinamide and Actinic Keratosis: A Supplement Success Story*. Actinic Keratosis. Vol 46. Berlin, Germany: Karger Publishers; 2014:143–149.
284. Kim D, Lee G, Huh Y, et al. NAMPT is an essential regulator of RA-mediated periodontal inflammation [published online ahead of print February 1, 2017]. *J Dent Res*. doi:10.1177/0022034517690389.
285. Liu M, Chu J, Gu Y, et al. Serum N1-methylnicotinamide is associated with coronary artery disease in Chinese patients. *J Am Heart Assoc*. 2017;6:e004328.
286. Fahrman JF, Grapov DD, Wanichthanarak K, et al. Integrated metabolomics and proteomics highlight altered nicotinamide- and polyamine pathways in lung adenocarcinoma [published online ahead of print January 3, 2017]. *Carcinogenesis*. doi:10.1093/carcin/bgw205.
287. Shi W, Hegeman MA, Dartel DA, et al. Effects of a wide range of dietary nicotinamide riboside (NR) concentrations on metabolic flexibility and white adipose tissue (WAT) of mice fed a mildly obesogenic diet [published online ahead of print February 16, 2017]. *Mol Nutr Food Res*. 2017. doi:10.1002/mnfr.201600878.
288. Lavigne PM, Karas RH. The current state of niacin in cardiovascular disease prevention: a systematic review and meta-regression. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2013;61:440–446.
289. Guan Y, Wang S-R, Huang X-Z, et al. Nicotinamide mononucleotide, an NAD+ precursor, rescues age-associated susceptibility to AKI in a sirTuin 1-dependent manner [published online ahead of print February 28, 2017]. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. doi:10.1681/ASN.2016040385.
290. Hershberger KA, Martin AS, Hirschey MD. Role of NAD+ and mitochondrial sirTuins in cardiac and renal diseases. *Nat Rev Nephrol*. 2017;13:213–225.
291. Zhou M, Ottenberg G, Sferazza GF, et al. Neuronal death induced by misfolded prion protein is due to NAD+ depletion and can be relieved in vitro and in vivo by NAD+ replenishment. *Brain*. 2015;138:992–1008.
292. Kapas I, Majtenyi K, Toro K, Keller E, Voigtlander T, Kovacs GG. Pellagra encephalopathy as a differential diagnosis for Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease. *Metab Brain Dis*. 2012;27:231–235.
293. Sharma O, O'Seaghdha M, Velarde JJ, Wessels MR. NAD⁺-glycohydrolase promotes intracellular survival of group A streptococcus. *PLoS Pathog*. 2016;12:e1005468.
294. Ashenburg K. *The Dirt on Clean: An Unsanitized History*. New York, NY: Farrar, Straus and Giroux; 2014.
295. M'Gonigle GCM, Kirby J. *Poverty and Public Health*. London, England: Victor Gollancz; 1936.
296. Helweg-Larsen P, Hoffmeyer H, Kieler J, et al. Famine disease in German concentration camps; complications and sequels, with special reference to tuberculosis, mental disorders and social consequences. *Acta Psychiatr Neurol Scand Suppl*. 1952;83:1–460.
297. Dubos RJ, Dubos J. *The White Plague: Tuberculosis, Man, and Society*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press; 1952.
298. Anderson W, Mackay IR. *Intolerant Bodies: A Short History of Autoimmunity*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press; 2014.
299. Bynum H. *Spitting Blood: The History of Tuberculosis*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press; 2012.
300. Daniel TM. *Captain of Death: The Story of Tuberculosis*. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press; 1997.
301. Haahtela T, Holgate S, Pawankar R, et al. The biodiversity hypothesis and allergic disease: world allergy organization position statement. *World Allergy Organ J*. 2013;6:1.
302. Prescott S. *The Allergy Epidemic: A Mystery of Modern Life*. Crawley, WA, Australia: UWA Publishing; 2011.
303. Jackson M. *Allergy: The History of a Modern Malady*. Islington, UK: Reaktion Books; 2007.
304. Boaz NT. *Evolving Health: The Origins of Illness and How the Modern World Is Making Us Sick*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley; 2002.
305. Inglis B. *The Diseases of Civilisation*. London, England: Hodder & Stoughton; 1981.
306. Kozyrskij AL, Bahreinian S, Azad MB. Early life exposures: impact on asthma and allergic disease. *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2011;11:400–406.
307. Liu AH. Revisiting the hygiene hypothesis for allergy and asthma. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2015;136:860–865.
308. Maizels RM. Parasitic helminth infections and the control of human allergic and autoimmune disorders. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2016;22:481–486.
309. Malik VS, Willett WC, Hu FB. Global obesity: trends, risk factors and policy implications. *Nat Rev Endocrinol*. 2013;9:13–27.
310. Rosenberg E, Zilber-Rosenberg I. *The Hologenome Concept: Human, Animal and Plant Microbiota*. Berlin, Germany: Springer; 2014.
311. Rodrigo CP. Current mapping of obesity. *Nutr Hosp*. 2013;28:21–31.
312. Slack T, Myers CA, Martin CK, Heymsfield SB. The geographic concentration of US adult obesity prevalence and associated social, economic, and environmental factors. *Obesity*. 2014;22:868–874.

313. Barker LE, Kirtland KA, Gregg EW, Geiss LS, Thompson TJ. Geographic distribution of diagnosed diabetes in the US: a diabetes belt. *Am J Prev Med.* 2011;40:434–439.
314. Neel JV. Diabetes mellitus: a 'thrifty' genotype rendered detrimental by 'progress'. *Am J Hum Genet.* 1962;14:353.
315. Hales CN, Barker DJ. The thrifty phenotype hypothesis. *Br Med Bull.* 2001;60:5–20.
316. Gluckman PD, Hanson MA. *The Fetal Matrix: Evolution, Development and Disease.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 2004.
317. Al-Mohaisen M, Pun S, Frohlich J. Niacin: from mechanisms of action to therapeutic uses. *Mini Rev Med Chem.* 2010;10:204–217.
318. Alsheikh-Ali AA, Karas RH. The safety of niacin in the US Food and Drug Administration adverse event reporting database. *Am J Cardiol.* 2008;101:S9–S13.
319. Parsons RB, Smith M-L, Williams AC, Waring RH, Ramsden DB. Expression of nicotinamide N-methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.1) in the Parkinsonian brain. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol.* 2002;61:111–124.
320. Parsons RB, Smith SW, Waring RH, Williams AC, Ramsden DB. High expression of nicotinamide N-methyltransferase in patients with idiopathic Parkinson's disease. *Neurosci Lett.* 2003;342:13–16.
321. Bromberg A, Lerer E, Udawela M, et al. Nicotinamide-N-methyltransferase (NNMT) in schizophrenia: genetic association and decreased frontal cortex mRNA levels. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol.* 2012;15:727–737.
322. Chen C, Wang X, Huang X, et al. Nicotinamide N-methyltransferase: a potential biomarker for worse prognosis in gastric carcinoma. *Am J Cancer Res.* 2016;6:649.
323. Goldberg RB, Jacobson TA. Effects of niacin on glucose control in patients with dyslipidemia. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2008 Apr;83(4):470–478. doi: 10.4065/83.4.470
324. Goldie C, Taylor AJ, Nguyen P, McCoy C, Zhao X-Q, Preiss D. Niacin therapy and the risk of new-onset diabetes: a meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Heart.* 2015;102:198–203.
325. Katz JB, Muller AJ, Prendergast GC. Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase in T-cell tolerance and tumoral immune escape. *Immunol Rev.* 2008;222:206–221.
326. Matte JJ, Corrent E, Simongiovanni A, Le Floc'h N. Tryptophan metabolism, growth responses, and postprandial insulin metabolism in weaned piglets according to the dietary provision of niacin (vitamin B) and tryptophan. *J Animal Sci.* 2016;94:1961–1971.
327. Trammell SA, Brenner C. NNMT: a bad actor in fat makes good in liver. *Cell Metab.* 2015;22:200–201.
328. Qi Z, Xia J, Xue X, He Q, Ji L, Ding S. Long-term treatment with nicotinamide induces glucose intolerance and skeletal muscle lipotoxicity in normal chow-fed mice: compared to diet-induced obesity. *J Nutr Biochem.* 2016;36:31–41.
329. Kourtzidis IA, Stoupas AT, Gioris IS, et al. The NAD⁺ precursor nicotinamide riboside decreases exercise performance in rats. *J Int Soc Sports Nutr.* 2016;13:32.
330. Kim S-W, Lee J-H, Moon J-H, et al. Niacin alleviates TRAIL-mediated colon cancer cell death via autophagy flux activation. *Oncotarget.* 2016;7:4356.
331. Kirkland JB. Niacin requirements for genomic stability. *Mutat Res.* 2012;733:14–20.
332. Liu L, Peritore C, Ginsberg J, Shih J, Arun S, Donmez G. Protective role of SIRT5 against motor deficit and dopaminergic degeneration in MPTP-induced mice model of Parkinson's disease. *Behav Brain Res.* 2015; 281:215–221.
333. Williams A, Ramsden D. Nicotinamide: a double edged sword. *Parkinsonism Relat Disord.* 2005;11:413–420.
334. Chlopicki S, Kurdziel M, Sternak M, et al. Single bout of endurance exercise increases NNMT activity in the liver and MNA concentration in plasma; the role of IL-6. *Pharmacol Rep.* 2012;64:369–376.
335. Cohen HY, Miller C, Bitterman KJ, et al. Calorie restriction promotes mammalian cell survival by inducing the SIRT1 deacetylase. *Science.* 2004; 305:390–392.
336. Williams AC, Ramsden DB. Nicotinamide homeostasis: a xenobiotic pathway that is key to development and degenerative diseases. *Med Hypotheses.* 2005;65:353–362.
337. Sampson Timothy R, Debelius Justine W, Thron T, et al. Gut microbiota regulate motor deficits and neuroinflammation in a model of Parkinson's disease. *Cell.* 167:1469.e12–1480.e12.
338. Lenglet A, Liabeuf S, Bodeau S, et al. N-methyl-2-pyridone-5-carboxamide (2PY) – major metabolite of nicotinamide: an update on an old uremic toxin. *Toxins.* 2016;8:339.
339. Jukarainen S, Heinonen S, Rämö JT, et al. Obesity is associated with low NAD⁺/SIRT pathway expression in adipose tissue of BMI-discordant monozygotic twins. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2015;101:275–283.
340. Kann A, Pfenninger A, Teichert L, et al. Association of nicotinamide-N-methyltransferase mRNA expression in human adipose tissue and the plasma concentration of its product, 1-methylnicotinamide, with insulin resistance. *Diabetologia.* 2015;58:799–808.
341. Kraus D, Yang Q, Kong D, et al. Nicotinamide N-methyltransferase knock-down protects against diet-induced obesity. *Nature.* 2014;508:258–262.
342. Rappou E, Jukarainen S, Rinnankoski-Tuikka R, et al. Weight loss is associated with increased NAD⁺/SIRT1 expression but reduced PARP activity in white adipose tissue. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2016;101:1263–1273.
343. Gatrell AC, Elliott SJ. *Geographies of Health: An Introduction.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley; 2014.
344. Giampietro M, Mayumi K, Sorman AH. *The Metabolic Pattern of Societies: Where Economists Fall Short.* Abingdon, UK: Taylor & Francis; 2011.
345. Glanz K, Sallis JF, Saelens BE, Frank LD. Healthy nutrition environments: concepts and measures. *Am J Health Promot.* 2005;19:330–333.
346. Mathers CD, Loncar D. Projections of global mortality and burden of disease from 2002 to 2030. *PLoS Med.* 2006;3:e442.
347. Rajda C, Majlath Z, Pukoli D, Vecsei L. Kynurenines and multiple sclerosis: the dialogue between the immune system and the central nervous system. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2015;16:18270–18282.
348. Nimmagadda VK, Makar TK, Chandrasekaran K, et al. SIRT1 and NAD⁺ precursors: therapeutic targets in multiple sclerosis a review. *J Neuroimmunol.* 2016;304:29–34.
349. Swank RL, Dugan BB. Effect of low saturated fat diet in early and late cases of multiple sclerosis. *Lancet.* 1990;336:37–39.
350. Zhou S-S, Li D, Na-Na C, Zhou Y. Vitamin paradox in obesity: deficiency or excess? *World J Diabet.* 2015;6:1158.
351. Power ML, Schulkun J. *The Evolution of Obesity.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press; 2013.
352. Ewald PW. *Evolution of Infectious Disease.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press; 1994.
353. Gandhi NR, Nunn P, Dheda K, et al. Multidrug-resistant and extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis: a threat to global control of tuberculosis. *Lancet.* 2010;375:1830–1843.
354. Goldberg DE, Siliciano RF, Jacobs WR Jr. Outwitting evolution: fighting drug-resistant TB, malaria, and HIV. *Cell.* 2012;148:1271–1283.
355. Amey SGB. *Magic Bullets, Lost Horizons: The Rise and Fall of Antibiotics.* Abingdon, UK: Taylor & Francis; 2001.
356. Boni MF, Feldman MW. Evolution of antibiotic resistance by human and bacterial niche construction. *Evolution.* 2005;59:477–491.
357. Stecher B, Maier L, Hardt W-D. 'Blooming' in the gut: how dysbiosis might contribute to pathogen evolution. *Nat Rev Microbiology.* 2013;11:277–284.
358. Akalu G, Taffesse S, Gunaratna NS, De Groot H. The effectiveness of quality protein maize in improving the nutritional status of young children in the Ethiopian highlands. *Food Nutr Bull.* 2010;31:418–430.
359. Bilan DS, Belousov VV. New tools for redox biology: from imaging to manipulation. *Free Radic Biol Med.* <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2016.12.004>. In press.
360. Abdellatif M. Sirtuins and pyridine nucleotides. *Circ Res.* 2012;111:642–656.
361. Friel S, Labonte R, Sanders D. Measuring progress on diet-related NCDs: the need to address the causes of the causes. *Lancet.* 2013;381:903–904.
362. Neidecker-Gonzales O, Nestel P, Bouis H. Estimating the global costs of vitamin A capsule supplementation: a review of the literature. *Food Nutr Bull.* 2007;28:307–316.
363. Gross R, Gross U, Lechtig A, Lopez de Romana D. We know much about what to do but little about how to do it: experiences with a weekly micronutrient supplementation campaign. *Food Nutr Bull.* 2006;27:S111–S114.
364. Fiedler JL, Sanghi TG, Saunders MK. A review of the micronutrient intervention cost literature: program design and policy lessons. *Int J Health Plann Manage.* 2008;23:373–397.
365. Darnton-Hill I. Global burden and significance of multiple micronutrient deficiencies in pregnancy. Nestle Nutr Inst Workshop Ser. 2012;70:49–60.
366. Bouis HE, Hotz C, McClafferty B, Meenakshi JV, Pfeiffer WH. Biofortification: a new tool to reduce micronutrient malnutrition. *Food Nutr Bull.* 2011;32:S31–S40.
367. Bhutta ZA, Salam RA, Das JK. Meeting the challenges of micronutrient malnutrition in the developing world. *Br Med Bull.* 2013;106:7–17.
368. Grinspoon D. *Earth in Human Hands: Shaping Our Planet's Future.* New York, USA: Grand Central Publishing; 2016.
369. Cordain L, Gotshall RW, Eaton SB. *Evolutionary Aspects of Exercise. Nutrition and Fitness: Evolutionary Aspects, Children's Health, Programs and Policies.* Vol 81. Berlin, Germany: Karger Publishers; 1997:49–60.
370. Heymsfield S, Bourgeois B, Thomas D. Assessment of human energy exchange: historical overview. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2016;71:294–300.
371. Li J-H, Chen W, Zhu X-J, et al. Associations of nicotinamide N-methyltransferase gene single nucleotide polymorphisms with sport performance and relative maximal oxygen uptake [published online ahead of print November 30, 2017]. *J Sport Sci.* doi:10.1080/02640414.2016.1261176
372. Engel E. *Zeitschrift des Statistischen Bureau des Königl. Sächs. Ministeriums des Innern.* Leipzig, Germany: Hübner; 1855.