

Defining microbiota for developing new probiotics

Maria Carmen Collado*, Christine B auerl and Gaspar P erez-Mart inez

Institute of Agrochemistry and Food Science, Spanish National Research Council (IATA-CSIC), Department of Biotechnology, Unit of Lactic Acid Bacteria and Probiotics, Paterna, Valencia, Spain

The human body harbors complex communities of microbes that play a prominent role in human health. Detailed characterization of the microbiota in the target population forms the basis of probiotic use. Probiotics are defined as live bacterial preparations with clinically documented health effects in humans, and independent of their genus and species, probiotic strains are unique and their beneficial properties on human health have to be assessed in a case-by-case manner. Understanding the mechanisms by which probiotics influence microbiota would facilitate the use of probiotics for both dietary management and reduction in risk of specific diseases. The development of high throughput sequencing methods has allowed metagenomic approaches to study the human microbiome. These efforts are starting to generate an inventory of bacterial taxons and functional features bound to particular health or disease status that allow inferring aspects of the microbiome's function. In the future, this information will allow the rational design of dietary interventions aimed to improve consumer's health via modulation of the microbiota.

Keywords: *microbiota; probiotic; diet; health*

The human microbiota (HM) is a complex system of many microbial communities inhabiting a diversity of environmental niches throughout the human body. HM exhibits large variation among individuals in relation to internal and external factors, such as genetic factors, age, diet, and health, and remains in a complex equilibrium. Although the exact composition of the microbiota is not known, advances in genomic technologies have recently begun to unravel our microbial partners. It is known that about 75% of the gut microbiota is covered by already known and dominant phyla (Actinobacteria, Firmicutes, and Bacteroidetes), while a fraction of about 25% is still unknown. It is estimated that each individual houses a consortium of 1,000–1,150 prevalent bacterial species (1) whose collective genome (microbiome) contains at least 100 times as many genes as the human genome.

The development of the human gut microbiota is a complex process that has been traditionally assumed to start at birth, although recent reports indicate that microbial colonization may begin earlier as bacteria have been detected in meconium, umbilical cord, and amniotic fluid (2–5). In infants, microbiota development is a fast process that depends on the first inoculi received from the environment, and also the maternal microbiota,

mode of delivery, type of feeding, including weaning food practices and the use of antimicrobials (6). The early GIT microbiota is often dominated by one or a few genera and among breast-fed infants, *Bifidobacterium*-dominated microbiotae are more frequent than among infants fed with formula, but other compositions are also common. A large shift in microbiota composition accompanies the introduction of solid foods into the diet (7–10). It is likely that the beneficial impact achieved for the infant with breastfeeding is a combination of a balanced supply of nutrients, bioactive proteins, and indigestible oligosaccharides, as well as bifidogenic bacteria in breast milk (11). Compilations of long-term studies have shown that breast-fed infants have lower risk of diabetes (12), hypercholesterolemia (13), cardiovascular disease (14), and obesity (15) in adulthood than formula-fed infants, although the causality is difficult to ascertain.

Human microbiota composition and health

In recent years, the increase in microbiota-related research has provided important advances toward establishing the identity of specific microbes and microbial groups or microbial molecules contributing to various aspects of host physiology and health. Studies on human microbiota should include microbial ecology and analysis

of the complex metabolism of the microbial community, as well as various host–microbial interactions occurring at the interface between microbes and host intestinal epithelia. Such studies should lead to an understanding of the impact of the microbiota on human health and disease. Concurrently, host factors involved in various aspects of development and maturation targeted by the microbiota have been identified.

A balance among microbial groups present in the human gut is crucial for maintaining health. When this balance is disturbed, the host–microbe relationship can progress toward a disease state. Altered intestinal colonization by commensal microorganisms as well as high interindividual variability and reduced microbial diversity have been reported in preterm infants (16, 17), increasing the risk to develop later disease. Several gastrointestinal pathologies such as irritable bowel diseases (IBD) or syndromes (IBS), necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC), obesity, various forms of colitis, and even autism have been linked to disturbances in microbiota or alterations of the intimate cross-talk between these microbes and human cells (18). Numerous studies have also linked early gut microbiota to the development of atopic diseases, but no specific microbes have yet been identified with consistently harmful or protective roles regarding atopy (19–21). However, some reports have suggested that the gut microbiota could regulate host energy homeostasis and adiposity, as differences in microbial composition can explain an increased capacity of the obesity-associated microbiome to harvest energy from the diet (22, 23). Other studies have examined gut microbiota composition in human obesity and type-2 diabetes and the impact of weight reduction on microbiota (24–26). All these works suggest that there could be a link between gut microbiota composition and host's health. Further studies will confirm if the rationale for modulating the gut microbiota by means of probiotics could also derive in health improvement.

Challenges for probiotic development based on microbiota research

There is a growing interest in studying beneficial microbes from the human microbiota with specific functions, which could eventually be used as probiotics in foods or supplements to improve human health and prevent or treat diseases. According to the FAO–WHO definition of probiotics – ‘live microorganism which when administered in adequate amounts confers a health benefit on the host’ (27) and food regulations that are currently in force, those beneficial effects must be scientifically demonstrated. It is important to underline that probiotic strains are unique, limiting the extrapolation of results from one strain to another. It is well-known that different bacterial strains of the same genus and species may exert completely different

effects on the host. Therefore, the specific properties and characteristics of individual strains should be well defined and the effect on health of each strain should be demonstrated in a case by case manner. Then, the selection of potential probiotic strains from appropriate sources depending on the target population constitutes a promising approach. Some clear challenges have been identified through this study.

Novel uses and applications of probiotics

In general, any disorder in which an aberrant microbiota or an inappropriate immune response may play a role are potential targets for probiotic intervention, even though they may not take place at gut level. Studies have shown that administration of probiotics to pregnant women, nursing mothers, or newborns can influence the establishment and composition of infant gut microbiota (28–30), impacting early and later in life. Probiotic bacteria have been usually used to treat and prevent some gastrointestinal disturbances such as IBD, IBS, or diarrhea, and new evidences support the use of probiotics in the prevention and treatment of a number of diseases including atopic diseases, immune disorders, obesity, and diabetes, although new extraintestinal applications are the getting interest of industry and consumers. Disturbances IN microbiota have been identified in other intestinal disorders, including diverticulitis and extraintestinal conditions, such as elderly people suffering severe frailty. Further, patients with severe systemic inflammatory response syndrome showed lower levels of bifidobacteria and lactobacilli and higher levels of pathogenic microorganisms than healthy subjects. Reduced levels of bifidobacteria have also been shown in multiple sclerosis patients. In addition, the current evidence for a role of bacteria (commensals, probiotics, and pathogens) as key modulators of gut–brain communication (31) suggests the potential role of probiotics on the gut–brain axis. Although, so far, probiotics have not been tested in these settings, these studies indicate potential targets for the future development of probiotic products.

Study of other gut microbiota components as probiotic

The complexity of the gut microbiota provides a very promising source of new probiotic organisms, and in many research works, gut immunologists prefer to use the terms ‘commensal bacteria’, instead. Enterocytes and dendritic cells in the gut mucosa can discriminate pathogenic from commensal bacteria, through specialized receptors and signal transduction pathways crucial for maintaining intestinal immune homeostasis and mechanisms of innate defense (32, 33). These cascades of molecular signals are nowadays only partially defined and constitute the basis of the demonstrated

immunomodulatory effect of these bacteria. In this regard, other bacteria than those commercially used as probiotics have been scarcely studied. Different microorganisms are used as human probiotics, the most commonly used probiotics are intestinal strains of *Lactobacillus*, *Bifidobacterium*, and *Enterococcus* species, for which technology has been developed for their industrial production. However, other intestinal microbes may also have a beneficial role in human health. *Escherichia coli* is among the first colonizers of the infant gut, and although this species harbor pathogenic strains, the *E. coli* probiotic strain Nissle 1917 has been found to reduce the number and incidence of infections, to stimulate specific humoral and cellular responses, and to induce the non-specific natural immunity in infants (34, 35). In addition to commercially used *Saccharomyces boulardii*, which has been reviewed extensively, a number of spore-forming bacilli have been claimed to show probiotic effects (36, 37). In fact, *Bacillus subtilis* strains have also been used commercially as their spores offer great manipulation and packaging advantages over other bacterial species (38). Other *Bacillus* strains have been studied such as *Bacillus cereus* var. *toyoi* (39) and *Bacillus clausii* (40). Furthermore, other gram positive bacteria have also been solidly claimed to have great probiotic potential. Different studies attribute immunomodulatory properties to strains of *Propionibacterium freudenreichii* used individually (41) or in combination with lactic acid bacteria and bifidobacteria in intervention trials (42). Further, humans lack the enzymes needed to metabolize oxalate, a toxic compound causing hyperoxaluria and calcium oxalate urolithiasis. This compound in humans can be eliminated through excretion in urine, forming insoluble calcium oxalate and elimination in feces, or oxalate degradation by microbiota. *Oxalobacter formigenes* and *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* species are the best studied in this regard, with oxalate degradation in the lactic acid bacteria being both species- and strain-specific (43). Recently, a *Bacteroides* strain, closely related to *Bacteroides dorei*, able to reduce cholesterol was isolated from the gut microbiota of a subject with a high ability to reduce cholesterol to coprostanol (44).

Potential of probiotics to modulate microbiota

One of the major challenges found, from early research on microbiota composition, is to define the composition and complete functionality of the *normal microbiota* in healthy individuals. Recent studies have shown differences in the microbiota composition of healthy subjects from different locations (45–47). Could probiotic intervention strategies be developed targeted to restore this normal population profiles in cases of aberrant microbiota associated to diseases? Different research

publications until present indicate that administration of *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* probiotics did not affect the overall populations proportions in the gut microbiota; however, a significant health effect was observed, and in all cases, strains administered dominated the respective groups in the gut (48–51). A deeper understanding on the microbiome-modulating abilities of specific probiotic strains is needed and, so far, the metagenomic data available from human intervention studies with probiotics and their impact on the microbiome are limited.

Conclusions

Knowledge of intestinal microbiota development, nutrition, immunity, and specific diseases should be carefully combined with information of the genome of potential probiotic strains to find new probiotics with disease risk-modifying properties.

Acknowledgements

All authors participated in the preparation of the manuscript. This work was supported by the grants 069/2010 and 071/2011 from Conselleria de Sanidad, GVA, Spain, and Fun-C-Food CSD2007-00063 from the Consolider-Ingenio program from the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation.

Conflict of interest and funding

None of the authors have conflict of interests.

References

1. Qin J, Li R, Raes J, Arumugam M, Burgdorf KS, Manichanh C, et al. A human gut microbial gene catalogue established by metagenomic sequencing. *Nature* 2010; 464: 59–65.
2. Vallès Y, Gosalbes MJ, de Vries LE, Abellan JJ, Francino MP. Metagenomics and development of the gut microbiota in infants. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2011; in press.
3. Jimenez E, Marin ML, Martin R, Odriozola JM, Olivares M, Xaus J, et al. Is meconium from healthy newborns actually sterile? *Res Microbiol* 2008; 159: 187–93.
4. Satokari R, Grönroos T, Laitinen K, Salminen S, Isolauri E. *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* DNA in the human placenta. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 2009; 48: 8–12.
5. Onderdonk AB, Delaney ML, DuBois AM, Allred EN, Leviton A. Extremely Low Gestational Age Newborns (ELGAN) study investigators. Detection of bacteria in placental tissues obtained from extremely low gestational age neonates. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2008; 198: 110.e1–7.
6. Adlerberth I, Wold AE. Establishment of the gut microbiota in Western infants. *Acta Paediatr* 2009; 98: 229–38 [Review].
7. Palmer C, Bik EM, DiGiulio DB, Relman DA, Brown PO. Development of the human infant intestinal microbiota. *PLoS Biol* 2007; 5: e177.
8. Penders J, Thijs C, Stelma FF, Snijders B, Kummeling I, et al. Factors influencing the composition of the intestinal microbiota in early infancy. *Pediatrics* 2006; 118: 511–21.
9. Vaishampayan PA, Kuehl JV, Froula JL, Morgan JL, Ochman H, Francino MP. Comparative metagenomics and population

- dynamics of the gut microbiota in mother and infant. *Genome Biol Evol* 2010; 2: 53–66.
10. Koenig JE, Spor A, Scalfone N, Fricker AD, Stombaugh J, Knight R, et al. Microbes and Health Sackler Colloquium: succession of microbial consortia in the developing infant gut microbiome. *PNAS* 2011; 108: 4578–85.
 11. Walker A. Breast milk as the gold standard for protective nutrients. *J Pediatr* 2010; 156: S3–7.
 12. Owen CG, Martin RM, Whincup PH, Davey-Smith G, Gillman MW, Cook DG. The effect of breastfeeding on mean body mass index throughout life: a quantitative review of published and unpublished observational evidence. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2005; 82: 1298–307.
 13. Owen CG, Martin RM, Whincup PH, Smith GD, Cook DG. Does breastfeeding influence risk of type 2 diabetes in later life? A quantitative analysis of published evidence. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2006; 84: 1043–54 [Review].
 14. Owen CG, Whincup PH, Kaye SJ, Martin RM, Davey Smith G, Cook DG, et al. Does initial breastfeeding lead to lower blood cholesterol in adult life? A quantitative review of the evidence. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2008; 88: 305–14.
 15. Owen CG, Whincup PH, Cook DG. Breast-feeding and cardiovascular risk factors and outcomes in later life: evidence from epidemiological studies. *Proc Nutr Soc* 2011; 70: 478–84.
 16. Jacquot A, Neveu D, Aujoulat F, Mercier G, Marchandin H, Jumas-Bilak E, et al. Dynamics and clinical evolution of bacterial gut microflora in extremely premature babies. *J Pediatr* 2011; 158: 390–6.
 17. Rouge C, Goldenberg O, Ferraris L, Berger B, Rochat F, Legrand A, et al. Investigation of the intestinal microbiota in preterm infants using different methods. *Anaerobe* 2010; 16: 362–70.
 18. Penders J, Stobberingh EE, van den Brandt PA, Thijs C. The role of the intestinal microbiota in the development of atopic disorders. *Allergy* 2007; 62: 1223–6.
 19. Sjogren YM, Jenmalm MC, Bottcher MF, Bjorksten B, Sverremark-Ekstrom E. Altered early infant gut microbiota in children developing allergy up to 5 years of age. *Clin Exp Allergy* 2009; 39: 518–26.
 20. Kalliomäki M, Kirjavainen P, Eerola E, Kero P, Salminen S, Isolauri E. Distinct patterns of neonatal gut microflora in infants in whom atopy was and was not developing. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 2001; 107: 129–34.
 21. Bäckhed F, Ding H, Wang T, Hooper LV, Koh GY, Nagy A, et al. The gut microbiota as an environmental factor that regulates fat storage. *PNAS* 2004; 101: 15718–23.
 22. Ley RE, Backhed F, Turnbaugh P, Lozupone CA, Knight RD, Gordon JI. Obesity alters gut microbial ecology. *PNAS* 2005; 102: 11070–5.
 23. Turnbaugh PJ, Gordon JI. The core gut microbiome, energy balance and obesity. *J Physiol* 2009; 587: 4153–8.
 24. Schwartz A, Taras D, Schäfer K, Beijer S, Bos NA, Donus C, et al. Microbiota and SCFA in lean and overweight healthy subjects. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 2010; 18: 190–5.
 25. Larsen N, Vogensen FK, van den Berg FW, Nielsen DS, Andreasen AS, Pedersen BK, et al. Gut microbiota in human adults with type 2 diabetes differs from non-diabetic adults. *PLoS One* 2010; 5: e9085.
 26. Duncan SH, Lobley GE, Holtrop G, Ince J, Johnstone AM, Louis P, et al. Human colonic microbiota associated with diet, obesity and weight loss. *Int J Obesity* 2008; 32: 1720–4.
 27. FAO/WHO. Guidelines for the evaluation of probiotics in food. Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations and World Health Organization. Working Group Report. Geneva: WHO; 2002.
 28. Boyle RJ, Bath-Hextall FJ, Leonardi-Bee J, Murrell DF, Tang ML. Probiotics for the treatment of eczema: a systematic review. *Clin Exp Allergy* 2009; 39: 1117–27.
 29. Boyle RJ, Ismail IH, Kivivuori S, Licciardi PV, Robins-Browne RM, Mah LJ, et al. *Lactobacillus* GG treatment during pregnancy for the prevention of eczema: a randomized controlled trial. *Allergy* 2011; 66: 509–16.
 30. Grönlund MM, Grześkowiak Ł, Isolauri E, Salminen S. Influence of mother's intestinal microbiota on gut colonization in the infant. *Gut Microbes* 2011; 2: 227–33.
 31. Bercik P, Collins SM, Verdu EF. Microbes and the gut–brain axis. *Neurogastroenterol Motil* 2012; 24: 405–13.
 32. Artis D. Epithelial-cell recognition of commensal bacteria and maintenance of immune homeostasis in the gut. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2008; 8: 411–20.
 33. Turner JR. Intestinal mucosal barrier function in health and disease. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2009; 9: 799–809.
 34. Jacobi CA, Malferteiner P. *Escherichia coli* Nissle 1917 (Mutaflor): new insights into an old probiotic bacterium. *Dig Dis* 2011; 29: 600–7.
 35. Trebichavsky I, Splichal I, Rada V, Splichalova A. Modulation of natural immunity in the gut by *Escherichia coli* strain Nissle 1917. *Nutr Rev* 2010; 68: 459–64.
 36. Bader J, Albin A, Stahl U. Spore-forming bacteria and their utilisation as probiotics. *Benef Microbes* 2012; 3: 67–75.
 37. Cutting SM. *Bacillus* probiotics. *Food Microbiol* 2011; 28: 214–20.
 38. Permpoonpattana P, Hong HA, Khaneja R, Cutting SM. Evaluation of *Bacillus subtilis* strains as probiotics and their potential as a food ingredient. *Benef Microbes* 2012; 20: 1–9.
 39. Williams LD, Burdock GA, Jimenez G, Castillo M. Literature review on the safety of Toyocerin, a non-toxicogenic and non-pathogenic *Bacillus cereus* var. *toyoi* preparation. *Regul Toxicol Pharmacol* 2009; 55: 236–46.
 40. Urdaci MC, Bressollier P, Pinchuk I. *Bacillus clausii* probiotic strains: antimicrobial and immunomodulatory activities. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 2004; 38: S86–90.
 41. Foligne B, Deutsch SM, Breton J, Cousin FJ, Dewulf J, Samson M, et al. Promising immunomodulatory effects of selected strains of dairy propionibacteria as evidenced in vitro and in vivo. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2010; 76: 8259–64.
 42. Hatakka K, Holma R, El-Nezami H, Suomalainen T, Kuisma M, Saxelin M, et al. The influence of *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* LC705 together with *Propionibacterium freudenreichii* ssp. *shermanii* JS on potentially carcinogenic bacterial activity in human colon. *Int J Food Microbiol* 2008; 128: 406–10.
 43. Abratt VR, Reid SJ. Oxalate-degrading bacteria of the human gut as probiotics in the management of kidney stone disease. *Adv Appl Microbiol* 2010; 72: 63–87.
 44. Gérard P, Lepercq P, Leclerc M, Gavini F, Raibaud P, Juste C. *Bacteroides* sp. strain D8, the first cholesterol-reducing bacterium isolated from human feces. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2007; 73: 5742–9.
 45. Mueller S, Saunier K, Hanisch C. Differences in fecal microbiota in different European study populations in relation to age, gender, and country: a cross-sectional study. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2006; 72: 1027–33.
 46. Fallani M, Young D, Scott J, Norin E, Amarri S, Adam R, et al. Other members of the INFABIO team. Intestinal microbiota of 6-week-old infants across Europe: geographic influence beyond delivery mode, breast-feeding, and antibiotics. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2010; 51: 77–84.
 47. Arumugam M, Raes J, Pelletier E, Le Paslier D, Yamada T, Mende DR, et al. Enterotypes of the human gut microbiome. *Nature* 2011; 473: 174–80.

48. Fuentes S, Egert M, Jimenez-Valera M, Ramos-Cormenzana A, Ruiz-Bravo A, Smidt H, et al. Administration of *Lactobacillus casei* and *Lactobacillus plantarum* affects the diversity of murine intestinal lactobacilli, but not the overall bacterial community structure. *Res Microbiol* 2008; 159: 237–43.
49. He T, Priebe MG, Zhong Y, Huang C, Harmsen HJ, Raangs GC, et al. Effects of yogurt and bifidobacteria supplementation on the colonic microbiota in lactose-intolerant subjects. *J Appl Microbiol* 2008; 104: 595–604.
50. Koning CJ, Jonkers D, Smidt H, Rombouts F, Pennings HJ, Wouters E, et al. The effect of a multispecies probiotic on the composition of the faecal microbiota and bowel habits in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease patients treated with antibiotics. *Br J Nutr* 2010; 103: 1452–60.
51. Larsen N, Vogensen FK, Gobel R, Michaelsen KF, bu Al-Soud W, Sorensen SJ, et al. Predominant genera of fecal microbiota

in children with atopic dermatitis are not altered by intake of probiotic bacteria *Lactobacillus acidophilus* NCFM and *Bifidobacterium animalis* subsp. *lactis* Bi-07. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol* 2011; 75: 482–96.

***Maria Carmen Collado**

Institute of Agrochemistry and Food Science
Spanish National Research Council (IATA-CSIC)
Department of Biotechnology
Unit of Lactic Acid Bacteria and Probiotics
A. Agustin Escardino 7
46980 Paterna, Valencia
Spain
Email: mcolam@iata.csic.es