

Diet, microbiota, and inflammatory bowel disease: lessons from Japanese foods

Takanori Kanai, Katsuyoshi Matsuoka, Makoto Naganuma, Atsushi Hayashi, and Tadakazu Hisamatsu

Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Department of Internal Medicine, Keio University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan

Received: June 3, 2014
Accepted: June 22, 2014

Correspondence to
Takanori Kanai, M.D.

Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Department of Internal Medicine, Keio University School of Medicine, Tokyo 180-8582, Japan
Tel: +81-3-5843-7090
Fax: +81-3-5843-7091
E-mail: takagast@sc.itc.keio.ac.jp

The incidence and prevalence of inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs) including ulcerative colitis and Crohn disease are rapidly increasing in Western countries and in developed Asian countries. Although biologic agents targeting the immune system have been effective in patients with IBD, cessation of treatment leads to relapse in the majority of patients, suggesting that intrinsic immune dysregulation is an effect, not a cause, of IBD. Dramatic changes in the environment, resulting in the dysregulated composition of intestinal microbiota or dysbiosis, may be associated with the fundamental causes of IBD. Japan now has upgraded water supply and sewerage systems, as well as dietary habits and antibiotic overuse that are similar to such features found in developed Western countries. The purpose of this review article was to describe the association of diet, particularly Japanese food and microbiota, with IBD.

Keywords: Diet; Microbiota; Inflammatory bowel diseases; Probiotics; Japanese food

INTRODUCTION

In Japan, approximately 140,000 patients with ulcerative colitis (UC) and 40,000 with Crohn disease (CD) are currently registered by the Japanese Health, Labor and Welfare Ministry [1]. Because health-care costs for inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs), including UC and CD, of registered patients are generally covered by the government, most patients voluntarily join the registry. Registration, however, is not mandatory, and some patients with mild to moderate IBD may refuse to register because of privacy concerns. Therefore, the actual numbers of IBD patients in Japan may be 20% to 40% higher than the numbers in the registry. The incidence of IBD in Japan ranks it as a low- to moderate-frequency country [2-4], although the incidence and prevalence is rapidly increasing [1].

Advances in next-generation gene sequencing technology have resulted in the identification of over 160 IBD-associated susceptibility genes within the past 10

years [5]. However, these susceptibility genes are unlikely to be the primary cause of IBD in Asia, because in the past 30 years the numbers of IBD patients in Japan have increased 100-fold. It is more likely that dramatic changes in the Japanese social environment, especially dietary habits that lead to an unhealthy composition of microbiota, known as dysbiosis, are fundamental causes of IBD [6-15]. Japan now has an upgraded water supply and sewerage systems along with dietary habits and overuse of antibiotics [16] that are similar to those found in developed Western countries (Fig. 1). Indeed, residents of Tokyo can live in an environment with exactly the same food and hygienic conditions as in New York.

RAPID DIETARY HABIT CHANGES IN JAPAN

Until about 150 years ago, Japan was officially sealed off from the outside world. Most Japanese individuals

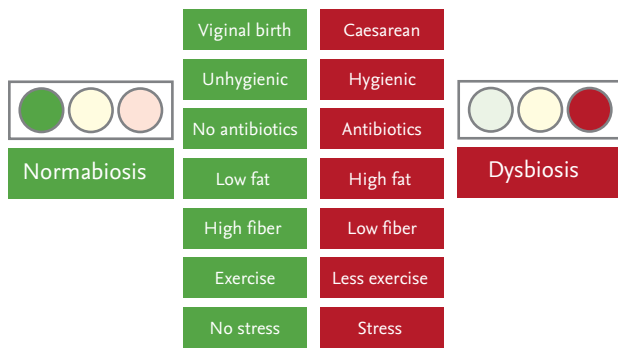


Figure 1. Dramatic lifestyle changes in Japan. Modern lifestyles, including delivery mode, hygiene environment, antibiotic use, food, exercise, and stress, could induce dysbiosis, which seems to be prediseased composition of microbiota.

had no contact with Western people or Western dietary habits, and ate traditional Japanese foods. After the end of the Edo era in 1868, the new Japanese government opened the country to Westerners and began diplomatic and cultural contact with many Western countries. Concurrently, the Japanese government promoted a Western lifestyle, including Western diets, housing, clothes, and culture. However, only a small proportion of Japanese people, known as the favored classes, could afford Western foods, while the vast majority continued to eat frugal Japanese foods for an additional 100 years. A typical Japanese diet at that time was a simple vegetarian meal composed of unthreshed rice mixed with barley, miso soup with root vegetables and/or tofu, small grilled fermented fish, and fermented pickled vegetables. Fermentation was essential to preserve foods in the absence of cooling systems. After the end of World War II in 1945, democracy emerged in Japan, with many people choosing Westernization. Annual reports by the Japanese Health, Labor and Welfare Ministry have shown rapid increased intake of sugar-rich carbonated beverages, fat- and carbohydrate-rich Western snacks (e.g., potato chips), and animal protein and fat, and a concurrent rapid decrease in the intake of dietary fiber.

CORRELATION BETWEEN DIET AND MICROBIOTA

The microbiota/microbiome field has been described in many recent review articles [17-23]. The availability

of next-generation sequencing has had the greatest impact on this field, as it can be used to sequence numerous bacterial DNA sequences simultaneously using a shot-gun method [24-29]. Each human being contains 100 trillion bacteria, composed of over 200 species with 50-fold more genes than in the human genome [28,29]. Dysbiosis and loss of microbiome diversity is thought to result in many kinds of diseases and predisease conditions. These include not only intestinal immune diseases (e.g., IBD) [9,10,30] and functional diseases (e.g., irritable bowel syndrome) [31,32] but also extraintestinal diseases such as obesity, arteriosclerosis, allergy, and autism disorders [33-37]. The incidence of all these diseases is increasing in developed Western and Asian countries, irrespective of whether they are T helper (Th) 1- or Th2-mediated diseases.

The organisms constituting a healthy composition of microbiota, or normabiosis, remain unclear for humans or animals. Moreover, it is unclear whether normabiosis is similar in healthy individuals and between Western and Asian people. However, striking differences in the composition of microbiota have been observed, not only between diseased (e.g., IBD) and healthy individuals but also between different diseased individuals. For example, the composition of microbiota in healthy African children from Burkina Faso, a country with a low incidence of IBD, included greater amounts of *Prevotella*, greater microbial diversity, and higher levels of short chain fatty acids (SCFA) than the microbiota of healthy European children from Italy, a country with a high incidence rate of IBD [38]. Similar results were observed when the microbiota of healthy individuals from South America and South Asia were compared with the microbiota of healthy individuals from an industrialized country such as the United States [39].

POOR EVIDENCE OF SPECIFIC DIETARY COMPONENTS IN THE ETIOLOGY OF IBD

Dramatic changes in dietary components, including increased sugar/refined carbohydrates and animal fat/protein and reductions in dietary fibers (prebiotics, fermentable oligosaccharides), fruits/vegetables, and fermented products containing probiotics, have been

proposed as major etiologic factors in the development of both UC and CD [40,41]. Additionally, the hygienic environment in industrial countries may be closely associated with a lower likelihood of coming in contact with fermented bacteria, which may be identical to probiotics [42]. Surprisingly, however, there is little evidence showing that specific dietary components are risk factors for the development of UC and CD [43-45]. However, it may be difficult or impossible to determine the real causes of IBD, because some individuals may consume both Western snacks and Japanese foods. Nevertheless, many researchers and clinicians strongly believe that current dietary habits, of high fat/low fiber and less fiber/probiotics, may be improved by returning to diets consumed during the era before modernization.

SOLID EVIDENCE OF SPECIFIC DIETARY COMPONENTS IN THE ETIOLOGY OF IBD IN ANIMAL MODELS

Results from animal disease models provide clearer evidence of the involvement of specific dietary components in the etiology of IBD [46,47]. However, a direct translation of animal results to human diseases is problematic. For example, mice without colitis cohoused with colitic mice developed similar colitis with a shift to dysbiosis [48], while germ-free mice transplanted with feces of obese mice became obese and those transplanted with feces of lean mice became lean [49].

Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain the critical roles of probiotic microbiota in the prevention of IBD in mouse models. This may be shown using a gnotobiotic system, in which germ-free mice are inoculated with one or several specific strains of bacteria, allowing the specific roles of these bacteria to be evaluated *in vivo* (Fig. 2). Germ-free mice inoculated with a mixture of 46 mouse-derived *Clostridium coccooides* and *Clostridium leptum* strains had a normal proportion of mucosal interleukin (IL)-10-producing regulatory T-cells, equivalent to those in specific pathogen-free normal mice [50]. These T-cells stimulated the production of transforming growth factor- β from colonic epithelial cells, resulting in resistance to experimen-

tal colitis [50]. Furthermore, *C. coccooides* and *C. leptum* from healthy human volunteers were similarly able to induce regulatory T-cells in mice [51]. Additionally, fermented Clostridia probiotics locally produced SCFAs, including butyrate, through the fermentation process, and these SCFA directly induced IL-10-producing regulatory T-cells [52-54]. These results indicate that probiotic-induced SCFAs are beneficial in maintaining colonic epithelial cells and in providing energy for hepatocytes. In contrast to the induction of regulatory T-cells by probiotics, we recently proposed a distinctive mechanism of probiotic actions, based on findings that a probiotic strain, *Clostridium butyricum*, which preferentially produces butyrate, suppressed the development of acute experimental colitis in mice by inducing IL-10-producing mucosal macrophages in a toll-like receptor-2/MyD88-dependent manner [55].

The mechanism by which a high-fat diet is associated with IBD onset remains unknown. The incidence of colitis was markedly increased in milk fat-fed IL-10-deficient mice, but not in normal mice or polyunsaturated fat-fed IL-10-deficient mice, with *Bilophila wadsworthi* observed in the feces of milk fat-fed mice, indicating dysbiosis [56]. This finding was clearly linked with tau-

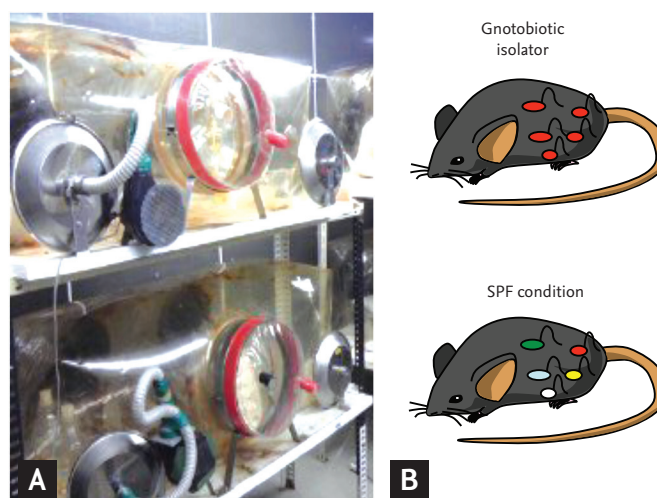


Figure 2. A gnotobiotic system. (A) Gnotobiotic isolator. One germ free isolator can be installed in four to six small cages, each containing four to five mice. Each unit may contain eight to 12 isolators, occupying a space of approximately 30 m², requiring one specific technician. (B) Because over 200 microbiota reside in the colon of each healthy mouse, the exact role of specific bacteria can be assessed using a gnotobiotic system. SPF, specific pathogen-free.

rine conjugation of hepatic bile acids by *B. wadsworthi*, with direct evidence showing that IL-10-deficient mice fed a low-fat diet containing taurocholic acid, but not glycocholic acid, developed colitis. This paper was the first demonstration that a specific Western-style diet containing high amounts of certain saturated fats enhanced the development of colitis in mice via a specific molecule, taurocholic acid.

JAPANESE AND KOREAN FOODS ARE RECOMMENDED FOR IBD PATIENTS

Prebiotic evidence

Despite findings in many animal models of colitis, decreased dietary fiber intake is not definitely associated with IBD development. However, in daily clinical practice, some dietitians may instruct IBD patients to avoid dietary fiber, at least during the inflammatory stages, because fiber may stimulate the intestinal mucosa. Patients with CD and severe stenosis of the intestine may also be advised to avoid dietary fiber because of the possible intestinal obstruction. However, in our clinical practice at Keio University Hospital, which treats > 2,000 IBD patients, we have explained recently published findings on the roles of dietary fiber in the suppression of inflammation to patients, and have recommended that these patients consume more dietary fiber, including fruits, vegetables, seaweeds, dried mushrooms and dried Japanese radishes. Modern Japanese individuals prefer hulled white rice to unthreshed brownish rice, which contains rice bran with a glucan fiber-rich component. Additionally, wheat bran is discarded when making soft white bread. Because the modern Japanese lifestyle may not allow individuals to eat proper meals, we recommend that IBD patients consume boiled rice together with an individually acceptable proportion of barley, which was a historical part of the normal Japanese lifestyle. The goal is to gradually increase the intake of properly balanced soluble and insoluble dietary fiber every month or year, because both the proportion and absolute numbers of fermented probiotics strains are reduced in the intestines of IBD patients [57]. A gradual increase in fermenters may allow patients to handle increased amounts of dietary fiber. The quantity of fermenters present

in the intestines of these patients at the beginning of probiotic treatment may be insufficient to handle an overabundance of dietary fiber, resulting in deleterious outcomes, such as intestinal obstruction.

Probiotic evidence

The intake of foods containing fermented probiotics has decreased in Japan. Traditionally, Japanese have eaten fermented foods, such as fermented pickled vegetables, fermented bean paste, fermented stockfishes, fermented fish sushi, and natto. Fermentation was originally used to preserve foods and protect against putrefactive bacteria, such as pathobionts, prior to the widespread availability of electric refrigerators around 1963. Modern Japanese may avoid eating fermented foods owing to their strong smell. Indeed, modern Japanese, especially younger individuals, prefer light Kimchi, which can be made overnight, rather than sour Kimchi, which requires several months to ferment and produce abundant probiotics (*Lactobacillus*) and SCFAs. Additionally, young Japanese individuals do not like to eat Kusaya, a type of deeply fermented fish similar to Hongoehoe in Korea, both of which have powerful smells.

CONCLUSIONS

Randomized controlled trials have shown evidence for the effectiveness of fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) in patients with recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection (CDI) [58], and several case studies have shown the benefit of FMT for patients with IBD [58-60]. FMT may normalize dysbiosis in patients with IBD, but the strategy used in patients with recurrent CDI may have to be modified for patients with IBD. Although the incidence of IBD in developed Asian countries is rapidly increasing, so is the incidence in developed Western countries. Asian societies are at a crossroads between a Western-style and a traditional high-fiber, low-fat, and fermenter-rich diet. Clinicians should encourage these traditional foods to promote public welfare.

Conflict of interest

No potential conflict of interest relevant to this article was reported.

Acknowledgments

We thank A. Hayashi at Keio University School of Medicine for critical comments.

REFERENCES

1. Japan Intractable Diseases Information Center. Annual report 2012 from Japan Intractable Diseases Information Center [Internet]. [place unknown]: Japan Intractable Diseases Information Center, 2014 [cited 2014 May 1]. Available from: <http://www.nanbyou.or.jp/entry/1356>.
2. Asakura H, Suzuki K, Kitahora T, Morizane T. Is there a link between food and intestinal microbes and the occurrence of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis? *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2008;23:1794-1801.
3. Danese S, Fiocchi C. Ulcerative colitis. *N Engl J Med* 2011;365:1713-1725.
4. Molodecky NA, Soon IS, Rabi DM, et al. Increasing incidence and prevalence of the inflammatory bowel diseases with time, based on systematic review. *Gastroenterology* 2012;142:46-54.
5. Jostins L, Ripke S, Weersma RK, et al. Host-microbe interactions have shaped the genetic architecture of inflammatory bowel disease. *Nature* 2012;491:119-124.
6. Aujnarain A, Mack DR, Benchimol EI. The role of the environment in the development of pediatric inflammatory bowel disease. *Curr Gastroenterol Rep* 2013;15:326.
7. Leone V, Chang EB, Devkota S. Diet, microbes, and host genetics: the perfect storm in inflammatory bowel diseases. *J Gastroenterol* 2013;48:315-321.
8. Goldsmith JR, Sartor RB. The role of diet on intestinal microbiota metabolism: downstream impacts on host immune function and health, and therapeutic implications. *J Gastroenterol* 2014;49:785-798.
9. Kostic AD, Xavier RJ, Gevers D. The microbiome in inflammatory bowel disease: current status and the future ahead. *Gastroenterology* 2014;146:1489-1499.
10. Manichanh C, Borrueal N, Casellas F, Guarner F. The gut microbiota in IBD. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2012;9:599-608.
11. Kaur N, Chen CC, Luther J, Kao JY. Intestinal dysbiosis in inflammatory bowel disease. *Gut Microbes* 2011;2:211-216.
12. Knights D, Lassen KG, Xavier RJ. Advances in inflammatory bowel disease pathogenesis: linking host genetics and the microbiome. *Gut* 2013;62:1505-1510.
13. Neuman MG, Nanau RM. Inflammatory bowel disease: role of diet, microbiota, life style. *Transl Res* 2012;160:29-44.
14. Wu GD, Chen J, Hoffmann C, et al. Linking long-term dietary patterns with gut microbial enterotypes. *Science* 2011;334:105-108.
15. Sommer F, Backhed F. The gut microbiota: masters of host development and physiology. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2013;11:227-238.
16. Cho I, Yamanishi S, Cox L, et al. Antibiotics in early life alter the murine colonic microbiome and adiposity. *Nature* 2012;488:621-626.
17. Ivanov, II, Honda K. Intestinal commensal microbes as immune modulators. *Cell Host Microbe* 2012;12:496-508.
18. Human Microbiome Project Consortium. A framework for human microbiome research. *Nature* 2012;486:215-221.
19. Blaser M, Bork P, Fraser C, Knight R, Wang J. The microbiome explored: recent insights and future challenges. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2013;11:213-217.
20. Blumberg R, Powrie F. Microbiota, disease, and back to health: a metastable journey. *Sci Transl Med* 2012;4:137rv137.
21. Spor A, Koren O, Ley R. Unravelling the effects of the environment and host genotype on the gut microbiome. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2011;9:279-290.
22. Clemente JC, Ursell LK, Parfrey LW, Knight R. The impact of the gut microbiota on human health: an integrative view. *Cell* 2012;148:1258-1270.
23. Kamada N, Seo SU, Chen GY, Nunez G. Role of the gut microbiota in immunity and inflammatory disease. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2013;13:321-335.
24. Tyler AD, Smith MI, Silverberg MS. Analyzing the human microbiome: a "how to" guide for physicians. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2014 Apr 22 [Epub]. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ajg.2014.73>.
25. Cox MJ, Cookson WO, Moffatt MF. Sequencing the human microbiome in health and disease. *Hum Mol Genet* 2013;22(R1):R88-R94.
26. McCarthy JJ, McLeod HL, Ginsburg GS. Genomic medicine: a decade of successes, challenges, and opportunities. *Sci Transl Med* 2013;5:189sr184.
27. Weinstock GM. Genomic approaches to studying the

- human microbiota. *Nature* 2012;489:250-256.
28. Sweeney TE, Morton JM. The human gut microbiome: a review of the effect of obesity and surgically induced weight loss. *JAMA Surg* 2013;148:563-569.
 29. Cho I, Blaser MJ. The human microbiome: at the interface of health and disease. *Nat Rev Genet* 2012;13:260-270.
 30. Round JL, Mazmanian SK. The gut microbiota shapes intestinal immune responses during health and disease. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2009;9:313-323.
 31. Collins SM, Surette M, Bercik P. The interplay between the intestinal microbiota and the brain. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2012;10:735-742.
 32. Simren M, Barbara G, Flint HJ, et al. Intestinal microbiota in functional bowel disorders: a Rome foundation report. *Gut* 2013;62:159-176.
 33. Power SE, O'Toole PW, Stanton C, Ross RP, Fitzgerald GF. Intestinal microbiota, diet and health. *Br J Nutr* 2014;111:387-402.
 34. Walsh CJ, Guinane CM, O'Toole PW, Cotter PD. Beneficial modulation of the gut microbiota. *FEBS Lett* 2014 Mar 26 [Epub]. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.febslet.2014.03.035>.
 35. Le Chatelier E, Nielsen T, Qin J, et al. Richness of human gut microbiome correlates with metabolic markers. *Nature* 2013;500:541-546.
 36. Holmes E, Li JV, Marchesi JR, Nicholson JK. Gut microbiota composition and activity in relation to host metabolic phenotype and disease risk. *Cell Metab* 2012;16:559-564.
 37. Nicholson JK, Holmes E, Kinross J, et al. Host-gut microbiota metabolic interactions. *Science* 2012;336:1262-1267.
 38. De Filippo C, Cavalieri D, Di Paola M, et al. Impact of diet in shaping gut microbiota revealed by a comparative study in children from Europe and rural Africa. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2010;107:14691-14696.
 39. Yatsunenko T, Rey FE, Manary MJ, et al. Human gut microbiome viewed across age and geography. *Nature* 2012;486:222-227.
 40. D'Haens GR, Sartor RB, Silverberg MS, Petersson J, Rutgeerts P. Future directions in inflammatory bowel disease management. *J Crohns Colitis* 2014 Apr 14 [Epub]. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.crohns.2014.02.025>.
 41. Richman E, Rhodes JM. Review article: evidence-based dietary advice for patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2013;38:1156-1171.
 42. Guarner F. Hygiene, microbial diversity and immune regulation. *Curr Opin Gastroenterol* 2007;23:667-672.
 43. Spooren CE, Pierik MJ, Zeegers MP, Feskens EJ, Masclee AA, Jonkers DM. Review article: the association of diet with onset and relapse in patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 2013;38:1172-1187.
 44. Hou JK, Lee D, Lewis J. Diet and inflammatory bowel disease: review of patient-targeted recommendations. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2013 Oct 6 [Epub]. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cgh.2013.09.063>.
 45. Ananthakrishnan AN, Khalili H, Konijeti GG, et al. A prospective study of long-term intake of dietary fiber and risk of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis. *Gastroenterology* 2013;145:970-977.
 46. Devkota S, Chang EB. Nutrition, microbiomes, and intestinal inflammation. *Curr Opin Gastroenterol* 2013;29:603-607.
 47. Veldhoen M, Brucklacher-Waldert V. Dietary influences on intestinal immunity. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2012;12:696-708.
 48. Garrett WS, Lord GM, Punit S, et al. Communicable ulcerative colitis induced by T-bet deficiency in the innate immune system. *Cell* 2007;131:33-45.
 49. Turnbaugh PJ, Ley RE, Mahowald MA, Magrini V, Mardis ER, Gordon JI. An obesity-associated gut microbiome with increased capacity for energy harvest. *Nature* 2006;444:1027-1031.
 50. Atarashi K, Tanoue T, Shima T, et al. Induction of colonic regulatory T cells by indigenous *Clostridium* species. *Science* 2011;331:337-341.
 51. Atarashi K, Tanoue T, Oshima K, et al. Treg induction by a rationally selected mixture of *Clostridia* strains from the human microbiota. *Nature* 2013;500:232-236.
 52. Furusawa Y, Obata Y, Fukuda S, et al. Commensal microbe-derived butyrate induces the differentiation of colonic regulatory T cells. *Nature* 2013;504:446-450.
 53. Arpaia N, Campbell C, Fan X, et al. Metabolites produced by commensal bacteria promote peripheral regulatory T-cell generation. *Nature* 2013;504:451-455.
 54. Smith PM, Howitt MR, Panikov N, et al. The microbial metabolites, short-chain fatty acids, regulate colonic Treg cell homeostasis. *Science* 2013;341:569-573.
 55. Hayashi A, Sato T, Kamada N, et al. A single strain of *Clostridium butyricum* induces intestinal IL-10-pro-

- ducing macrophages to suppress acute experimental colitis in mice. *Cell Host Microbe* 2013;13:711-722.
56. Devkota S, Wang Y, Musch MW, et al. Dietary-fat-induced taurocholic acid promotes pathobiont expansion and colitis in *Il10*^{-/-} mice. *Nature* 2012;487:104-108.
 57. Takaishi H, Matsuki T, Nakazawa A, et al. Imbalance in intestinal microflora constitution could be involved in the pathogenesis of inflammatory bowel disease. *Int J Med Microbiol* 2008;298:463-472.
 58. van Nood E, Vrieze A, Nieuwdorp M, et al. Duodenal infusion of donor feces for recurrent *Clostridium difficile*. *N Engl J Med* 2013;368:407-415.
 59. Kahn SA, Vachon A, Rodriguez D, et al. Patient perceptions of fecal microbiota transplantation for ulcerative colitis. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2013;19:1506-1513.
 60. Smits LP, Bouter KE, de Vos WM, Borody TJ, Nieuwdorp M. Therapeutic potential of fecal microbiota transplantation. *Gastroenterology* 2013;145:946-953.