

The Gut Microbiome and Human Health: From Biological Association to Public Health Translation

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Abstract: The gut microbiome is a dynamic ecological community of bacteria, archaea, viruses, fungi and their collective genes inhabiting the gastrointestinal tract. It contributes to nutrient metabolism, intestinal barrier integrity, immune development, colonization resistance and production of bioactive metabolites. Disturbances in microbial composition or function have been associated with obesity, type 2 diabetes, inflammatory bowel disease, colorectal cancer, undernutrition, infections and neuropsychiatric conditions. However, association should not be mistaken for causation. Much of the evidence is derived from cross-sectional studies affected by diet, medication use, geography, socioeconomic conditions, stool characteristics and analytical methods. The concept of a single “healthy microbiome” is therefore scientifically inadequate. Recent advances—including shotgun metagenomics, metabolomics, strain-level analysis, longitudinal cohorts and microbiome-based therapeutics—are shifting the field from taxonomic description towards functional and causal understanding. Faecal microbiota transplantation and regulated microbiota-based products have demonstrated efficacy for recurrent *Clostridioides difficile* infection, but evidence supporting routine microbiome manipulation for obesity, diabetes, depression or general wellness remains insufficient. From a public health perspective, the most defensible microbiome-supporting actions are established measures: diverse fibre-rich diets, prudent antibiotic use, breastfeeding support, infection prevention and equitable access to nutritious foods. India requires population-specific evidence because its dietary patterns, environmental exposures, disease burden and microbial profiles differ substantially across regions and from predominantly Western reference datasets. Future research should prioritize standardized methods, representative longitudinal cohorts, mechanistic validation, safety surveillance and affordable interventions rather than premature commercial testing and poorly regulated probiotic claims.

Keywords: gut microbiome; microbiota; dysbiosis; diet; probiotics; public health.

INTRODUCTION

The human gastrointestinal tract contains a complex microbial ecosystem that interacts continuously with diet, host immunity, metabolism and the intestinal environment. The term **gut microbiota** refers to the microorganisms present in the gastrointestinal tract, whereas **gut microbiome** includes their genomes, functional potential and ecological context. These communities are concentrated primarily in the colon and include bacteria alongside archaea, bacteriophages, eukaryotic viruses and fungi.

The microbiome is neither a separate organ nor a fixed collection of “good” and “bad” organisms. It is an adaptive ecosystem whose composition changes with age, geography, habitual diet, medication use, infection, pregnancy, living environment and socioeconomic conditions. Inter-individual variation is substantial, and two healthy people may have markedly different taxonomic profiles while retaining overlapping metabolic functions.

Interest in the gut microbiome has grown because microbial communities can transform otherwise indigestible dietary substrates, synthesize or modify metabolites, influence immune development and prevent colonization by pathogens. At the same time, altered microbial patterns have been reported across a wide range of diseases. This has encouraged the use of the term **dysbiosis**, generally meaning an unfavourable disturbance in microbial composition or function. Dysbiosis, however, lacks a universally accepted quantitative definition and may represent a cause, consequence or accompanying feature of disease.

The central scientific challenge is therefore to distinguish biologically meaningful and potentially causal microbiome alterations from changes produced by illness, treatment or confounding factors.

Development and Determinants of the Gut Microbiome

Microbial colonization begins around birth and develops rapidly during infancy. Mode of delivery, gestational age, feeding practices, antibiotic exposure, household environment and infection influence early microbial succession. Breast milk supplies nutrients, microbes and human milk oligosaccharides that favour selected organisms, particularly bifidobacteria. Introduction of complementary feeding expands microbial diversity and metabolic capacity.

By adulthood, the microbiome is relatively stable but remains responsive to environmental exposures. Diet is among its strongest modifiable determinants. Plant-derived fibres and resistant starches reach the colon, where microorganisms ferment them into short-chain fatty acids, including acetate, propionate and butyrate. These metabolites contribute to epithelial energy supply, barrier integrity and immune signalling. Diet also influences microbial transformation of bile acids, amino acids and polyphenols. Recent reviews emphasize that dietary effects are highly context-dependent: the same food may produce different microbial and metabolic responses depending on the host's existing microbiome, habitual diet and geography.[1]

Antibiotics can reduce microbial diversity, eliminate susceptible organisms and permit expansion of resistant or opportunistic species. Recovery varies by drug, duration, age and baseline microbiome; return to the exact pre-treatment state is not guaranteed. Proton-pump inhibitors, metformin, laxatives, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and other commonly used medicines can also alter microbial composition. Medication histories are therefore essential in microbiome research.

Physical activity, sleep, stress, sanitation, animal contact, urbanization and environmental microbial exposure may contribute, but their independent effects are difficult to isolate. Socioeconomic position influences many of these determinants simultaneously through food access, housing, occupation, healthcare and medication use.

Biological Functions Relevant to Health

Metabolism and energy regulation

The gut microbiome expands the metabolic capabilities of the human host. Microorganisms ferment complex carbohydrates, participate in vitamin synthesis and modify bile acids and other signalling molecules. Microbial metabolites can influence hepatic metabolism, glucose regulation, appetite and adipose tissue. These mechanisms make the microbiome biologically plausible in obesity and metabolic disease.

Nevertheless, no single microbial signature reliably diagnoses obesity or diabetes across populations. Reported associations often differ between studies because of variation in diet, drugs—especially metformin—ethnicity and laboratory methods. Reviews of metabolic disease suggest that functional pathways and metabolite profiles may be more reproducible than broad taxonomic measures such as the ratio of Firmicutes to Bacteroidetes.[2]

Intestinal barrier and colonization resistance

Commensal microorganisms compete with pathogens for nutrients and attachment sites, produce inhibitory compounds and stimulate mucosal defence. Antibiotic-induced disruption can weaken this colonization resistance, contributing to *C. difficile* infection and expansion of antimicrobial-resistant organisms.

The microbiome also interacts with the mucus layer and epithelial tight junctions. However, claims that diverse symptoms are caused by a universally defined “leaky gut” frequently exceed established clinical evidence. Intestinal permeability can be altered in several diseases, but commercially marketed tests and supplements are not equivalent to validated diagnostic or therapeutic approaches.

Immune development and inflammation

Microbial exposure contributes to maturation of innate and adaptive immunity. Microbial metabolites can promote regulatory immune responses, while disrupted host-microbe interactions may contribute to inflammatory bowel disease, allergy and autoimmune conditions. Yet immune-mediated diseases themselves alter diet, intestinal transit and medication exposure, all of which can change the microbiome.

The gut-brain axis

The gut and central nervous system communicate through neural, immune, endocrine and metabolic pathways. Microorganisms may influence neurotransmitter precursors, inflammatory mediators and vagal signalling. Associations have been reported between microbial patterns and depression, anxiety, autism spectrum disorder, Parkinson disease and cognitive decline.

Human intervention evidence remains preliminary. In a small randomized dietary study, a fibre-rich “psychobiotic” diet reduced perceived stress and altered microbial features, but the findings require replication in larger and more diverse populations.[3] The microbiome should not yet be presented as an established primary treatment target for common mental disorders.

Evidence Across Major Health Conditions

Metabolic and cardiovascular disease

People with obesity, type 2 diabetes and fatty liver disease frequently demonstrate altered microbial composition and metabolite profiles. Mechanistic studies implicate short-chain fatty acids, bile acids, branched-chain amino acids, endotoxin-related pathways and microbial products such as trimethylamine. The evidence is biologically compelling but clinically incomplete. Diet and medication can generate microbial patterns similar to those attributed to disease. A major multicohort analysis showed that host characteristics and lifestyle factors can confound microbiome-disease associations and that adjustment may substantially reduce apparently disease-specific signals.[4] Microbiome markers are therefore not ready to replace established clinical risk factors.

Inflammatory bowel disease

Crohn disease and ulcerative colitis are associated with reduced microbial diversity, loss of selected anaerobic organisms, altered metabolite production and expansion of facultative organisms. These changes are more reproducible than those for many other chronic conditions, but inflammatory bowel disease itself profoundly alters the intestinal environment.

Microbiome-based biomarkers may eventually assist diagnosis or prognosis, although current tests lack sufficient standardization and external validation. Dietary, probiotic and faecal-transplant interventions remain under investigation and should not displace established anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory treatments.

Clostridioides difficile infection

Recurrent *C. difficile* infection provides the clearest demonstration that restoring microbial ecology can improve a human disease. In a landmark randomized trial, infusion of donor microbiota after abbreviated vancomycin therapy was substantially more effective than standard vancomycin regimens for recurrent infection.[5]

More recently, defined microbiota-based therapeutic products have been developed to reduce the variability and infectious risks associated with conventional donor-stool transplantation. In a phase 3 trial, the oral microbiome therapeutic SER-109 significantly reduced recurrence compared with placebo among patients who had responded to antibiotics.[6] These successes should not be generalized automatically to unrelated conditions: recurrent *C. difficile* infection is characterized by a direct ecological disruption in which microbiome restoration has unusually strong mechanistic justification.

Cancer and treatment response

Microbial communities may influence colorectal carcinogenesis through inflammation, genotoxic metabolites and interactions with diet. Specific organisms, including *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, have been repeatedly associated with colorectal cancer. The gut microbiome may also modify responses and adverse effects associated with cancer immunotherapy.

Table 1. Gut-microbiome applications: evidence, limitations and current implications

Domain	Proposed microbiome mechanism	Current evidence	Major limitation	Present public health or clinical implication
Diverse plant-rich diet	Increased substrate diversity and production of short-chain fatty acids	Consistent evidence that diet shapes composition and function; individual responses vary	Difficult to separate microbiome-mediated benefit from direct nutritional effects	Promote dietary diversity, whole grains, pulses, fruit, vegetables, nuts and seeds
Antibiotic exposure	Loss of susceptible organisms, reduced colonization resistance and enrichment of resistance genes	Strong biological and observational evidence; recovery is variable	Antibiotics are sometimes essential and microbiome effects differ by agent	Strengthen antimicrobial stewardship; avoid unnecessary exposure
Metabolic disease	Altered bile acids, inflammatory signalling and microbial metabolites	Repeated associations and plausible mechanisms	Confounding by diet, adiposity and medication; limited diagnostic reproducibility	No routine microbiome test; focus on established lifestyle and clinical management
Inflammatory bowel disease	Disrupted host-microbe interaction and loss of beneficial metabolic functions	Strong association and increasing mechanistic evidence	Direction of causality and treatment response remain uncertain	Microbiome therapy remains adjunctive or investigational outside defined indications
Recurrent <i>C. difficile</i> infection	Restoration of colonization resistance after antibiotic-related disruption	High-quality trial evidence for faecal or regulated microbiota-based therapy	Potential pathogen transmission and need for rigorous donor/product screening	Established specialist indication under regulated protocols
Mental health and gut-brain axis	Neural, immune, endocrine and metabolic signalling	Promising preclinical evidence and small human trials	Small samples, heterogeneous interventions and uncertain clinical effect	Do not replace evidence-based mental healthcare with commercial “psychobiotics”
Probiotics	Delivery of selected live microorganisms	Benefits are strain- and indication-specific	Products differ in strain, dose, viability and regulatory quality	Avoid class-wide claims; use only evidence-supported products for specific indications
Precision nutrition	Prediction of individual metabolic responses using microbiome and host data	Growing proof-of-concept evidence	Cost, algorithmic opacity, population bias and limited external validation	Research tool; not yet a routine population nutrition strategy
Population microbiome surveillance	Identification of environmental, dietary and antimicrobial-resistance patterns	Methodologically feasible and potentially informative	No universal healthy reference; ethical and representativeness concerns	Develop representative cohorts with strong governance and public benefit

These findings are promising but not yet sufficient for routine population screening. Disease-associated microbial signatures vary by geography and study method, and stool-based microbiome testing has not replaced validated colorectal cancer screening modalities.

Undernutrition and child health

The microbiome has particular relevance to global and Indian public health because it develops during the first years of life and interacts with nutrition, enteric infection and environmental exposure. Children with severe undernutrition may have developmentally immature microbial communities, while repeated enteric infections and environmental enteric dysfunction can impair growth and nutrient utilization. Microbiota-directed complementary foods have shown promise in controlled research, but scaling requires caution. Benefits must be compared with established interventions addressing food insecurity, breastfeeding, complementary feeding, sanitation, vaccination and management of infection. Microbiome science should strengthen rather than divert attention from these determinants.

Probiotics, Prebiotics and Commercial Claims

A **probiotic** is a live microorganism that, when administered in adequate amounts, confers a health benefit on the host. A **prebiotic** is a substrate selectively utilized by host microorganisms that provides a health benefit. Fermented foods may contain living organisms, but not every fermented food is a probiotic, and not every commercial probiotic has demonstrated clinical efficacy.

Probiotic effects are strain-, dose-, formulation- and indication-specific. Evidence supporting one strain for a defined outcome cannot be generalized to another strain or to vague claims of “restoring gut health.” Some products may reduce the risk or duration of selected antibiotic-associated or infectious diarrhoeal conditions, while evidence is inconsistent for many chronic disorders.

Safety is generally acceptable in healthy populations but cannot be assumed in critically ill, severely immunocompromised or medically fragile patients. Product contamination, bloodstream infection and transfer of antimicrobial-resistance genes are uncommon but important concerns. Regulation should require accurate strain identification, viability through the stated shelf life, manufacturing quality and indication-specific evidence.

Commercial direct-to-consumer microbiome tests are another rapidly growing area. These tests commonly compare a stool sample with proprietary databases and provide dietary or supplement recommendations. Their clinical validity is uncertain because stool captures only part of the intestinal ecosystem, microbial composition varies over time and no universally accepted healthy range exists. Different companies may generate different interpretations from the same biological sample.

Public Health Significance

The microbiome provides a biological pathway linking food systems, antimicrobial exposure, infection, early-life development, urbanization and chronic disease. Its public health importance therefore lies less in individualized commercial testing than in reinforcing population-level determinants of health.

Dietary policies that improve access to affordable, minimally processed, fibre-rich foods are likely to benefit both conventional nutritional outcomes and microbial ecology. Antimicrobial stewardship protects individual patients while reducing disruption of microbiota and selection of resistance. Breastfeeding support and appropriate complementary feeding influence early microbial development while providing well-established nutritional and immunological benefits.

The microbiome also raises questions of equity. Populations with diverse traditional diets and environmental exposures remain underrepresented in global datasets, while commercial testing and personalized interventions are concentrated among affluent consumers. A microbiome-based precision-health agenda built primarily on Western populations could produce inaccurate algorithms and widen health disparities.

Indian Perspective

Indian microbiomes cannot be assumed to resemble those represented in North American or European reference datasets. India includes substantial variation in ethnicity, geography, dietary practices, vegetarianism, fermented-food intake, sanitation, medication use, urbanization and exposure to humans, animals and environmental microorganisms.

A multi-omics analysis of 110 healthy Indian participants from north-central and southern locations identified distinctive microbial and functional characteristics and major geographical variation. Prevotella-dominated profiles were common, but the study also demonstrated that the “Indian

microbiome” is not a single uniform entity.[7] Research comparing urban and rural Indian populations has similarly found that geography and environment strongly influence community composition.

A 2024 Indian cohort analysis reported that environmental, socioeconomic and health-related factors accounted for substantial microbiome variation, reinforcing the need to interpret microbial differences within their social context rather than attributing them solely to biological ancestry.[8] Recent work among Indian agrarian communities also suggests that habitual consumption of fermented foods may influence seasonal stability of gut bacterial communities, although such findings cannot yet support disease-prevention claims.[9]

India needs large, representative longitudinal cohorts covering different regions, ages, dietary patterns and socioeconomic groups. These studies should integrate dietary measurement, medication exposure, sanitation, anthropometry, clinical phenotypes, metagenomics and metabolomics. Particular priorities include maternal and child nutrition, tuberculosis and antibiotic exposure, metabolic disease, inflammatory bowel disease and antimicrobial resistance.

Recent Advances

Microbiome science is moving beyond 16S ribosomal RNA sequencing, which provides limited taxonomic resolution. Shotgun metagenomics enables species- and strain-level analysis and assessment of microbial genes. Metatranscriptomics, metaproteomics and metabolomics provide information on what organisms are doing rather than merely which organisms are present.

Strain-level research is important because organisms classified as the same species may differ markedly in metabolic activity, virulence and response to treatment. Longitudinal sampling is also replacing one-time snapshots, allowing researchers to examine resilience, transitions and temporal relationships.

Another methodological advance is direct measurement of microbial load. Most sequencing data are compositional: an apparent increase in one organism may reflect a decline in others rather than an increase in absolute abundance. A large 2025 study demonstrated that faecal microbial load is a major determinant of microbiome variation and can confound disease associations.[10] This finding strengthens the case for combining relative sequencing data with quantitative measurements.

Therapeutic development is shifting from traditional faecal transplantation towards standardized spore preparations, defined microbial consortia, bacteriophages, engineered organisms and postbiotics. Precision nutrition platforms are also combining microbiome data with glucose responses, clinical characteristics and dietary information. These approaches are scientifically promising, but cost, regulation, external validity and long-term safety remain unresolved.

Challenges and Limitations

The first limitation is causality. Most human studies compare people with and without disease at a single point. Reverse causation is likely because disease changes diet, bowel transit, inflammation and medication exposure.

Second, laboratory and analytical methods are insufficiently standardized. Sample collection, transport temperature, DNA extraction, sequencing platform, bioinformatic pipeline and taxonomic database can materially alter results. Batch effects may be mistaken for biological differences.

Third, microbiome data are high-dimensional and compositional. Testing thousands of organisms and pathways increases the likelihood of false-positive associations. Small studies are particularly vulnerable to overfitting.

Fourth, stool samples are convenient but do not fully represent mucosa-associated organisms or conditions in different intestinal regions. A stool profile should not be equated with the complete gut ecosystem.

Finally, public communication often exaggerates findings. Terms such as “dysbiosis,” “detoxification,” “microbiome reset” and “gut healing” are used commercially without agreed clinical definitions. Overpromising may lead patients to purchase unnecessary tests or supplements and delay evidence-based care.

Future Directions and Policy Priorities

Microbiome research should adopt standardized collection, sequencing and reporting protocols, preregistered hypotheses and external validation. Longitudinal cohorts and interventional studies are

required to determine whether microbial changes precede disease and whether modifying them improves meaningful outcomes.

Trials should evaluate clinical endpoints rather than only changes in microbial diversity. Greater diversity is not universally beneficial, and microbiome composition should not be treated as a surrogate outcome unless validated for the disease and intervention concerned.

India should establish a coordinated national microbiome research platform with representative sampling, interoperable data standards, biobanking and ethical governance. Community participation is essential because stool samples and genomic data can be culturally sensitive and may permit group-level inference.

Regulation of probiotics, microbiome tests and microbiota-based therapeutics should be proportional to claimed use and risk. Products claiming to diagnose, prevent or treat disease require stronger evidence than general foods. Advertising should not imply that a commercial test can define an individual's health or prescribe a personalized treatment without validated clinical utility.

Public health policy should retain focus on interventions already justified independently of microbiome science: dietary diversity, reduction of ultra-processed foods, breastfeeding support, safe water and sanitation, physical activity, antimicrobial stewardship and equitable primary healthcare.

CONCLUSION

The gut microbiome is a biologically important mediator between human beings and their dietary, pharmaceutical and environmental exposures. Its functions in metabolism, colonization resistance, barrier integrity and immune regulation are well established. Associations with metabolic, inflammatory, infectious and neuropsychiatric diseases are extensive, but many are not yet causal, reproducible or clinically actionable.

The successful use of microbiota restoration for recurrent *C. difficile* infection demonstrates that microbiome-based treatment can be transformative when supported by a clear mechanism and rigorous trials. It does not validate indiscriminate probiotics, commercial microbiome testing or attempts to treat unrelated chronic diseases through poorly defined "microbiome balancing."

For public health, the microbiome strengthens the biological rationale for diverse fibre-rich diets, appropriate infant feeding, infection prevention and prudent antibiotic use. India requires locally representative evidence rather than direct application of Western microbial reference profiles. The next phase of research should prioritize function over descriptive taxonomy, absolute microbial measurements, longitudinal designs, causal inference, standardized methods and interventions that are safe, affordable and clinically meaningful.

The field's future will depend on resisting premature certainty. The most responsible translation of microbiome science is not to promise a universal microbial prescription, but to identify where microbial mechanisms add genuine value to established public health and clinical practice.

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