



HAL
open science

Fecal Microbiota Transplantation: a Future Therapeutic Option for Obesity/Diabetes?

Judith Aron-Wisnewsky, Karine Clement, Max Nieuwdorp

► **To cite this version:**

Judith Aron-Wisnewsky, Karine Clement, Max Nieuwdorp. Fecal Microbiota Transplantation: a Future Therapeutic Option for Obesity/Diabetes?. *Current Diabetes Reports*, 2019, 19 (8), pp.51. 10.1007/s11892-019-1180-z . hal-02291255

HAL Id: hal-02291255

<https://hal.sorbonne-universite.fr/hal-02291255>

Submitted on 18 Sep 2019

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Title: Fecal microbiota transplantation: a future therapeutic option for obesity/diabetes?

Judith Aron-Wisnewsky MD-PhD^{1,2,3*} Karine Clément MD-PhD^{1,2}; Max Nieuwdorp MD-PhD³,

¹Sorbonne Université, INSERM, Nutrition and obesities : systemic approaches (NutriOMics) research Unit, Paris, France

²Assistante Publique Hôpitaux de Paris, Nutrition department, Pitié-Salpêtrière hospital, 75013 Paris, France

³Amsterdam UMC, location AMC and VUMC, department of Internal and Vascular Medicine, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

Abstract word count: 212 words.

Manuscript word count: 3671 words

1 Figure

***Full contact details for the corresponding author**

Judith Aron-Wisnewsky MD PhD, judith.aron-wisnewsky@psl.aphp.fr

Other authors information's

Karine Clément: karine.clement@aphp.fr

Max Nieuwdorp: m.nieuwdorp@amsterdamumc.nl

Key words: Microbiota, obesity, Type 2 diabetes, fecal microbiota transfer, encapsulated feces

Abstract:

Purpose of review: The aim of this review is to summarize the current data available on the metabolic effects of fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) including obesity and glucose metabolism in humans.

Recent findings: Gut microbiota dysbiosis is a frequent characteristics observed in obesity and related-metabolic diseases. Pieces of evidences mostly generated in mouse models suggest that rescuing this dysbiosis associates with improved metabolism. In humans, dietary or bariatric surgery interventions are often accompanied by complete or partial restoration of this dysbiosis together with weight reduction and metabolic amelioration. Fecal microbiota transfer (FMT) is an interesting option to modify gut microbiota and has been associated with improved clinical outcomes, albeit only used in routine care for *clostridium difficile* infection. However, there are only limited data on using FMT in the metabolic context.

Summary: FMT from lean donors significantly improves insulin sensitivity in obese subjects with metabolic syndrome. However, there is a wide range of clinical responses. Interestingly in subjects with high microbial gene richness at baseline and when FMT donors that are metabolically compromised are used, no metabolic improvement is seen. Moreover, more studies evaluating the effect of FMT in overt type 2 diabetes patients are warranted. Furthermore, interventions (in the receiver prior to FMT) aiming to enhance FMT response also need evaluation.

Introduction

The intestinal microbiota is increasingly recognized to play major roles in human physiology and health. Indeed, amongst its numerous functions, it modulates and shapes host immunity, is able to digest some otherwise indigestible dietary derived nutrients (1) leading to the production of important metabolites for the host (2), including short chain fatty acids (SCFA) and is involved in biliary acid dehydroxylation and synthesis of several vitamins (1). Flourishing literature shows that many chronic diseases are associated with gut microbiota dysbiosis which include drastic change in microbiota composition, function and bacterial derived metabolite production. This is particularly described for obesity and Type 2 diabetes (T2D) (3–6).

Among reported features, in both mice (7) and humans (8), obesity is characterized by a decrease in bacterial diversity and low microbial gene richness (MGR: gene count number) in some (5,6). In overweight to severe obesity low MGR is associated with increased body mass index (BMI) as well as metabolic derangements including low grade inflammation and insulin resistance (5,6). The proportion of low MGR concerns 23 to 40% of individuals with overweight or moderate obesity (5,6) and increases up to 75% in severe obesity (9). Furthermore, low MGR-associated gut microbiota profile shows a switch towards increased bacterial strains with pro-inflammatory properties as well as a decrease in those with anti-inflammatory roles (5,6). Likewise, both mice and human studies demonstrated that T2D was also characterized by a modification of gut microbiota composition and function, when compared to healthy controls (10) or to individuals with impaired glucose tolerance (3,11). Nevertheless, causality or consequence of altered gut microbiota in metabolic diseases remains a source of discussion (12)

Several types of interventions are able to induce both beneficial metabolic outcomes and partial or complete correction of gut microbiota dysbiosis. For example, a moderately restrictive, fiber-enriched diet proposed to overweight or moderately obese individuals induced a significant increase of MGR especially in patients with baseline low MGR and, associations were found between changes in some bacterial groups and weight loss-improved metabolism (6). Likewise, bariatric surgery reserved for the most severe forms of obesity enables to significantly increase MGR and modify some bacterial species concomitantly with improvement in metabolic alteration and major weight loss (9). Although being based on associations, these studies suggest that the modulation of gut microbiota *per se* could at least be partly involved in those metabolic improvements. The role of gut microbiota modulation after bariatric surgery in the improvement of T2D has recently been reviewed in (13). Ingestion of dietary prebiotics have also demonstrated potential to induce weight loss and improvement of insulin resistance and overall metabolic health in rodent models (14). Nevertheless, when translating these interventions in humans, while prebiotics were indeed able to modify gut microbiota composition, their effects on metabolic health and weight was either very moderate with merely a slight decrease in post-prandial glycemia and no effect on weight loss (15) or completely absent (16). Similar observations can be made regarding the use of probiotics (17). Overall these studies suggest that interventions modifying gut microbiota could be considered for therapeutic innovation in the field of T2D and obesity, especially when taking baseline microbiota composition and diversity into account. This concept is further reinforced by fecal transfer experiments in rodents, highlighting the contribution of gut microbiota in weight reduction at least in mice.

For example, transferring feces from mice (18) or humans (19) who have undergone a bariatric procedure, into germ-free recipients, induces *per se* a weight reduction in the receivers. While the importance of weight loss is much lower than that induced by bariatric surgery, these studies highlight the important role of gut microbiota in weight reduction at least in mice, through fecal microbiota transfer (FMT). However whereas fecal microbiota transfer (FMT) is now a recommended procedure in the treatment of *Clostridium difficile* infection, as described below, it remains to be demonstrated whether FMT could also be considered in the standard care of common disorders including metabolic diseases or obesity.

In this review, we will first review how FMT is being more broadly used due to its clinical successes and its technological innovation. We will then focus on whether using gut microbiota modulation via FMT has demonstrated any beneficial therapeutic effects on obesity and/or T2D. Finally, we will discuss potential factors impacting and modulating FMT success.

Fecal microbiota transfer in humans

A success story in *Clostridium difficile* infection

The main routine care indication for FMT lays in the treatment of *Clostridium difficile* (CD) infection, reserved for cases resistant to antibiotherapy (20–23). This disease originates from the major gut microbiota dysbiosis induced by the use of several lines of antibiotic regimens. FMT enables to improve gut microbiota diversity resulting in an improved clinical response or even the cure of this disease in 80 to 90% of the cases (24) with 60% of complete remission one month after FMT (25). One of the first randomized clinical trial performed by our group was stopped prematurely since it showed, before the end of the trial, that FMT was efficient and

safe compared to antibiotics (26), and these results have now been confirmed in several other randomized control trials (22,27–29) as well as in a recent meta-analysis (30). Also, FMT has now been included in guidelines that recommend FMT in the context of recurrent CD infection to be used in standard of care (31–33). Most importantly, a consensus expert panel defined key recommendations for FMT use in CD infections (34) as well as the guidelines of technicality, regulatory, administrative and laboratory requirements for optimal FMT usage (35). FMT is now being tested in clinical trials in other diseases such as IBD (36,37) and Crohn's disease (38), which are also associated with a marked dysbiosis.

Novelty in administration route of FMT

FMT was, and is still in most research studies, performed either using nasojejunal tube, colonoscopy or enema, sometimes requiring several administrations to be efficient in some diseases (37). Most studies have observed good treatment tolerance both at the short and longer-term and very rarely adverse events are seen, which mostly seem to be originating from the initial disease severity rather than FMT itself (39,40). Importantly, careful selection of the FMT donors (34) ensures part of this treatment safety (37,39,41). Nevertheless, the risks originate mainly from the administration route. If no adverse event was deployed using enema, studies using nasogastric tube administration have reported few cases of intestinal bleeding and peritonitis (41). In a large meta-analysis including over 1000 patients, colonoscopy administration was also associated with adverse events leading to hospitalization in 0.97% of patients receiving FMT. One death directly due to FMT was reported and the patient died from aspiration during sedation, while undergoing FMT through colonoscopy administration for a chronic CD infection (39). Another death was reported due to pneumonia potentially caused by regurgitation during FMT

using a nasoduodenal tube (42). Although the most frequent adverse events are not serious and gathers intestinal symptoms such as bloating, flatulence, belching and abdominal cramps, abdominal discomfort, irregularity of bowel movements and vomiting (43,44), FMT procedure appears overall safe and a national FMT registry has been initiated to study potential long term side effects (45).

Based on the efficacy and (short term) safety of FMT in *CD* infection, technologic development have been made to enhance and facilitate FMT in routine clinical care and decrease adverse events linked to administration route by developing oral capsulized frozen FMT (46) and using frozen FMT stooling treated with glycerol as a cryoprotective procedure (47). Concerning the efficacy of encapsulated FMT, a recent randomized control trial demonstrated that oral administration was as efficient as classic administration routes to obtain beneficial health outcomes mainly in *CD* infection (48). Most importantly, no adverse event was observed post-FMT using this oral capsulized technique. Similar results have recently been reproduced in a study with 15 patients that were treated by 30 frozen capsules taken within two days (around 20g of feces) enabled 86.6% remission rate after one FMT and 100% remission rate after the second administration with excellent tolerance to this new administration route (49). The only adverse events observed were linked to the severity of the initial disease (49). Overall encapsulated FMT or “poop pills” as they are termed, seem to be a relevant and safe alternative to more invasive FMT administration route and will probably increase the feasibility and acceptability of this treatment.

Fecal microbiota transfer in metabolic diseases and obesity

Improved metabolic health in humans?

FMT used as a treatment option in obesity and other metabolic diseases has recently emerged. The reasons why gut microbiota modulation could beneficially affect glucose control has been extensively discussed herein (50) and include its actions on short chain fatty acid (SCFA) production, altered bile acids composition and adipose tissue inflammation (51). Our first pilot FMT study in metabolic syndrome included nine overweight/moderately obese individuals submitted to donor FMT originating from lean healthy controls that displayed a significant improvement in peripheral insulin sensitivity assessed by the gold standard, which is a stable isotope based euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp (52). This beneficial effect was confirmed in a three times larger follow-up study which also observed a minor yet significant reduction in Hba1c at 6 weeks. Importantly, this study also showed that a reduced baseline microbial gene richness before lean donor FMT was associated with a better outcome (53). Despite the use of gastroduodenoscopy and nasoduodenal tube for donor FMT administration, no adverse events were reported. Importantly however, response to donor FMT showed a major inter-individual variability among receivers in both studies, with some patients displaying major improvements while others remained stable (52,53). Lean donor FMT induced differential microbiota modifications in good and poor responders (53). For example, after FMT, good responders displayed an increase in *Akkermansia muciniphila* which has been previously associated with metabolic health improvement in mice (54,55) but also in humans (56). Another critical question is the long term effect in FMT. The metabolic syndrome intervention showed that at 18 weeks, there was no remaining effect on insulin sensitivity and gut microbiota composition switched back to baseline

composition (53). This underscores the temporary nature of this FMT intervention. Nevertheless, these pioneering studies in treatment naive pre-diabetes (metabolic syndrome) male subjects demonstrate that FMT could be of therapeutic use to improve insulin resistance and decrease Hba1c (**Figure 1**), yet with a transient effect suggesting that multiple cures of FMT would probably be necessary.

Moreover as T2D is a chronic disease where patients need to take multiple glucose-lowering drugs several times every day it remains to be studied if FMT has any effect patient with severe insulin resistance and eventually decreased insulin secretion. Nevertheless, as our study data have shown, metabolic syndrome subjects with the most severe insulin resistance do not show any beneficial effect from lean donor FMT on insulin sensitivity. In line with our previously mentioned studies in obesity (52,53), it might thus be that gut microbiota play a role in the early stage of insulin resistance and T2D whereas its role could be less critical in glycemic control of patient with advanced stages of T2D. Nevertheless since FMT administrated by oral capsule appears safe, it provides an actionable tool to explore the relevance and differential effect of FMT in patients at different stages of glucose homeostasis alteration, paving the way to personalized approaches.

FMT and weight modulation

The rationale to use FMT to induce weight loss originates from two reasons. Firstly, gut microbiota from obese individuals was found to be able to increase energy harvest as compared to lean individuals upon the same caloric intake (57), even if these results have been questioned since. Secondly, since FMT from obese mice or human into germ-free recipients is able to partly transfer weight gain (58–60), it is tempting to speculate that by contrast, using FMT from lean donors into overweight obese individuals could impact the receivers' corpulence, thus providing potential

innovative approach in the control of weight. This unproven concept is currently debated. Indeed, a recent study observed that FMT from mice upon chow diet into mice submitted to a high-fat diet (HFD) induced significantly greater weight gain than that obtained by HFD only (61). Turning to humans, some pieces of evidence accumulates suggesting that FMT could induce weight gain in specific cases. Indeed, FMT from a normal weight individual (BMI=25) to a patient suffering from anorexia nervosa led the receiver to increase (thus normalize) and stabilize her weight for 36 weeks post-FMT (62). Furthermore, a brief report observed that a patient suffering from *Clostridium difficile* infection gained weight and further became obese after receiving FMT from her overweight daughter (63), although she followed strict diet and physical activity. Noteworthy, weight gain in these cited examples could merely reflect that FMT in malnourished patients enables to restore a healthy situation with an eubiotic gut microbiota and induce energy storage in patients with previously chronic condition of under-nutrition, which thus might be more efficacious than in overweight subjects.

Nevertheless, the effects of FMT from lean donors have also been tested in overweight/obese patients in terms of weight modulation and no effect on weight was seen upon lean donor FMT (52,53). Thus, there is to date no significant proof that FMT, even those originating from lean donors is sufficient to induce weight loss. Most importantly, these first sets of data obtained in humans merely stimulates the need to carefully choose the donors both to avoid the transmission of communicable diseases but also to prevent weight gain. In this regard and in line with a study that showed that FMT from both mice (18) or humans (19) that underwent a bariatric procedure into germ-free recipients resulted in weight loss, De groot et al recently studied the effects of post-bariatric donor FMT compared to allogenic metabolic

syndrome donor FMT in obese insulin resistant males (De groot et al: gutjnl-2019-318320.R2 epub ahead of print). Despite the fact that post-bariatric donor FMT affects intestinal transit time in obese humans, in line with previous animal study (13), we did not observe any effect of post-bariatric surgery donor FMT on either insulin sensitivity or weight modification. Yet and surprisingly, allogenic metabolic syndrome donor FMT worsened insulin sensitivity in all FMT-treated subjects (De groot et al: gutjnl-2019-318320.R2 epub ahead of print). More insight is now needed to link the correct FMT donor to the recipient in order to gain maximum therapeutic efficacy.

Factors potentially modulating FMT response

Microbiota engraftment upon donor FMT

First, studies have demonstrated that donor FMT induced gut microbiota composition modification in the receiver as short as 1 week after intervention, switching the receiver's microbiota composition towards that of the healthy donor (64). Second, MGR increases post-FMT (52) and can even be restored (65) suggesting that FMT may act via normalizing microbiota dysbiosis, although this observation has not always been reproduced (53). Third, with time gut microbiota composition continues to change after FMT. Using SNV analyses it was observed that whereas it still resembles that of the donor one month post-FMT, the dominant bacterial strains in the receiver were not always similar to those of the donor (65). This result was further confirmed three months post-FMT (66). Importantly, FMT studies have sometimes used antibiotic prior to FMT, potentially inducing confounding effects on the engraftment of the donor's microbiota into the receiver. Interestingly, a recent study longitudinally analyzed the microbiota engraftment in different receivers without prior antibiotic use and showed a major inter-individual variability in FMT engraftment (67). FMT as compared to placebo induced a

significant modification of the receiver's microbiota that lasted at least 3 months, however, with time, the receiver's composition lost similarity with their donors. Furthermore, donor's specific species only moderately increased post-FMT in all receivers yet were specific to donor-receivers pairs and higher than those observed after placebo FMT (67). Finally, FMT induced a durable coexistence of bacterial strains present in the receivers and those transferred from the donor as well as a major strain replacement in the receiver yet variable from one receiver to the other (67) which could partially explain FMT variable responses (52,53). Overall, these results suggest that FMT induces the colonization of a new microbiota that can interact with that of the receiver and differs from that of the donor despite an observed beneficial clinical effect of FMT. Furthermore, it suggests that in the future, interventions aiming at improving FMT engraftment according to the receiver or the donor's microbiota should be undertaken in order to improve and maximize the clinical effect by increased donor bacterial engraftment (i.e. via dietary or antibiotic treatment before donor FMT).

Donor's microbiota composition and donor FMT success

Studies evaluating the donor's characteristic able to induce an optimal response are currently undergone. The notion of super-donor has emerged in inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD) field. Indeed, seven out nine patients who entered remission of their ulcerative colitis received their FMT from one single donor (68). Likewise, an FMT study in IBD patients using pooled feces from multiple donors finally evidenced that patients who entered remission had benefited from FMT containing the feces of one single donor thus suggested to be a super-donor (69). Importantly, all subjects who received the FMT were on TNF α blockers, which might have also affected FMT outcome. Whether the notion of a super donor is also valid in

the metabolic field still warrants further investigations. The donor's microbiota high diversity has been associated with good response in IBD remission (70). Nevertheless, whether a donor is considered a good donor for every disease type remains an open question. It might well be that to induce a good response in a specific disease, the donor's microbiota needs to be enriched in specific strains that are lowered or even absent in that specific disease. Further investigations are thus warranted.

Effects of concomitant drug use and donor FMT effect

Concomitant presence of drug and more specifically glucose-lowering drugs taken by the receiver is critical to be examined when using FMT to treat T2D. Metformin, the first line of anti-diabetic treatment, induces a change in the composition of gut microbiota with an increase in both beneficial bacterial strains (*Akkermansia muciniphila*) and known pro-inflammatory strains like *E. coli* (71,72). Forslund et al. observed a shift in microbiota composition in T2D patients with or without metformin with an increase in *E. coli* and a decrease in butyrate producing bacteria, while not impacting MGR (73). Importantly, Bäckhed's group identified a strong metformin related microbiota signature that in itself reproduced some of the beneficial effects of the molecule after FMT experiments in germ-free mice (74). These data suggest that evaluating the effect of FMT from healthy donors into T2D patients might be tricky since T2D patients receive one or associations of glucose-lowering drugs which impact differently the gut microbiota composition as this might interfere with the colonization or engraftment of the donor's gut microbiota after donor FMT.

Effects of concomitant dietary intervention and donor FMT effect

Gut microbiota profile is severely impacted by both short (75) and longer-term food intake habits specifically for the later, at the level of both enterotypes (76), microbial composition and gene richness (77). Nevertheless, acute modification of dietary intake also induces at least partial changes in gut microbiota composition (75,78). Dietary intake from receivers might most probably impact the clinical effects of FMT as discussed in (79) and demonstrated in rodent FMT experiments. Indeed, FMT from obese or lean twins into germ-free mice induced differential metabolic and corpulence improvement according to the diet administered to mouse receivers (59). However, to date there is no standard recommendation regarding the optimal diet that would maximize the FMT beneficial therapeutic effect and bacterial strain engraftment. Moreover the donor's diet might also impact FMT clinical success. A recent study used FMT from vegan lean donors enabling a switch in gut microbiota composition in the receiver towards the vegan profile of the donor (80), but with some individual variability in receivers. Importantly, this switch was not accompanied by functional modification as seen with the measured production of trimethylamine. Potentially, the absence of functional effects might originate from inter-individual variability in microbiota composition within the receivers but also by the diet consumed by the receiver, which remained similar before and after FMT (80). It is tempting to investigate in the future whether modifying the diet after FMT could enhance FMT response yet.

Conclusion & Perspectives

The current literature suggests that FMT could improve metabolic state in particular insulin sensitivity yet the impact of FMT on weight loss in obese subjects needs further demonstration. Moreover, to make relevant progress in metabolic

disorders, several steps must be completed such as i) investigating FMT impact in patients with various degree of insulin-resistance toward overt T2D since evidences to date have been gathered in male subjects with metabolic syndrome, ii) evaluating gender effect, iii) deciphering the optimal mode of donor selection based on clinical information, administration procedure, cost issues and identify those able to induce a good response, and then iv) deciphering which patient profile might benefit the most from FMT. Nevertheless, while donor FMT has undergone technological innovation to simplify and improve its feasibility, it remains a complex and costly procedure, due to the donor's selection which includes a broad infectious analysis as well as complex preparation and administration technics. Furthermore, while FMT has demonstrated its cost-effectiveness in different severe diseases including *clostridium difficile* infection (81) and IBD (82), it remains to be proven whether this approach can be extended to T2D and particularly the most severe patients for whom glucose control remains above the target despite intensive medical therapy. A survey on a small study group of obese individuals recently demonstrated that a large number of them would be willing to undergo FMT if the donor was carefully selected (83), thus suggesting that this treatment could be proposed in standard of care for other indications than *clostridium* infection. If FMT successfully improve or treat T2D, this could lead to better physiopathology understanding and also pave the way towards other microbiota-related therapy developments. Indeed, the development of third generation probiotics based on newly identified beneficial bacterial strains associated with improved metabolism in humans is also an emerging field that calls for future intensive research.

Figure legend

Figure 1: Effects of FMT in obese patients with metabolic alterations.

Obesity which represents a low-grade inflammatory disease with increased intestinal inflammation, and Type 2 Diabetes (T2D) are associated with gut microbiota dysbiosis. Literature has shown that fecal microbiota transfer from lean donors enables the engraftment of bacterial strains from the donor and thus induces improvement in insulin resistance, for a short period of time. In the future, oral capsulized FMT will have to be tested in T2D patients to evaluate whether it also improve intestinal inflammation, gut microbota dysbiosis and glycemic control.

Acknowledgments

Grant supports in this field were obtained by Ministry of health and solidarity (Assistance Publique-Hôpitaux de Paris: to JAW/ PHRC-N Drifter, to KC/PHRC Micronaria), by European Union (Metacardis to KC HEALTH-F4-2012-305312, JPI MICRODIET Grant (5290510105) to KC and MN, EU Horizon 2020 grant (LITMUS 777377) to KC and MN) and by LeDucq Foundation consortium grant (17CVD01) to KC and MN. MN is also supported by a ZONMW-VIDI grant 2013 [016.146.327]. JAW and KC are part of ICAN (institute of cardiometabolism and nutrition institute).

Conflicts of interest

M.N. is on the Scientific Advisory Board of Caelus Pharmaceuticals, the Netherlands.

K.C. is on the Scientific Advisory Board of LNC-Therapeutics

References

1. Fouhy F, Ross RP, Fitzgerald GF, Stanton C, Cotter PD. Composition of the early intestinal microbiota: knowledge, knowledge gaps and the use of high-throughput sequencing to address these gaps. *Gut Microbes*. 2012 Jun;3(3):203–20.
2. Rastelli M, Knauf C, Cani PD. *Gut Microbes and Health: A Focus on the Mechanisms Linking Microbes, Obesity, and Related Disorders*. Obes Silver Spring Md. 2018;26(5):792–800.
3. Karlsson FH, Tremaroli V, Nookaew I, Bergström G, Behre CJ, Fagerberg B, et al. Gut metagenome in European women with normal, impaired and diabetic glucose control. *Nature*. 2013 Jun 6;498(7452):99–103.
4. Pedersen HK, Gudmundsdottir V, Nielsen HB, Hyotylainen T, Nielsen T, Jensen BAH, et al. Human gut microbes impact host serum metabolome and insulin sensitivity. *Nature*. 2016 Jul 21;535(7612):376–81.
5. Le Chatelier E, Nielsen T, Qin J, Prifti E, Hildebrand F, Falony G, et al. Richness of human gut microbiome correlates with metabolic markers. *Nature*. 2013 Aug 29;500(7464):541–6.
6. Cotillard A, Kennedy SP, Kong LC, Prifti E, Pons N, Le Chatelier E, et al. Dietary intervention impact on gut microbial gene richness. *Nature*. 2013 Aug 29;500(7464):585–8.
7. Turnbaugh PJ, Bäckhed F, Fulton L, Gordon JI. Diet-induced obesity is linked to marked but reversible alterations in the mouse distal gut microbiome. *Cell Host Microbe*. 2008 Apr 17;3(4):213–23.
8. Yatsunenko T, Rey FE, Manary MJ, Trehan I, Dominguez-Bello MG, Contreras M, et al. Human gut microbiome viewed across age and geography. *Nature*. 2012 Jun 14;486(7402):222–7.
9. Aron-Wisnewsky J, Prifti E, Belda E, Ichou F, Kayser BD, Dao MC, et al. Major microbiota dysbiosis in severe obesity: fate after bariatric surgery. *Gut*. 2018 Jun 13; **

This study demonstrate that severe obesity is associated with a dramatic increased prevalence of low MGR. Bariatric surgery is able to partially restore gut microbiota dysbiosis

10. Qin J, Li Y, Cai Z, Li S, Zhu J, Zhang F, et al. A metagenome-wide association study of gut microbiota in type 2 diabetes. *Nature*. 2012 Oct 4;490(7418):55–60.
11. Allin KH, Tremaroli V, Caesar R, Jensen BAH, Damgaard MTF, Bahl MI, et al. Aberrant intestinal microbiota in individuals with prediabetes. *Diabetologia*. 2018;61(4):810–20.
12. Aydin Ö, Nieuwdorp M, Gerdes V. The Gut Microbiome as a Target for the Treatment of Type 2 Diabetes. *Curr Diab Rep*. 2018 Jun 21;18(8):55.
13. Debédat J, Amouyal C, Aron-Wisnewsky J, Clément K. Impact of bariatric surgery on type 2 diabetes: contribution of inflammation and gut microbiome? *Semin Immunopathol*. 2019 Apr 25;
14. Cani PD, Possemiers S, Van de Wiele T, Guiot Y, Everard A, Rottier O, et al. Changes in gut microbiota control inflammation in obese mice through a mechanism involving GLP-2-driven improvement of gut permeability. *Gut*. 2009 Aug;58(8):1091–103.

15. Dewulf EM, Cani PD, Claus SP, Fuentes S, Puylaert PGB, Neyrinck AM, et al. Insight into the prebiotic concept: lessons from an exploratory, double blind intervention study with inulin-type fructans in obese women. *Gut*. 2013 Aug;62(8):1112–21.
16. Canfora EE, van der Beek CM, Hermes GDA, Goossens GH, Jocken JWE, Holst JJ, et al. Supplementation of Diet With Galacto-oligosaccharides Increases Bifidobacteria, but Not Insulin Sensitivity, in Obese Prediabetic Individuals. *Gastroenterology*. 2017;153(1):87-97.e3.
17. Koutnikova H, Genser B, Monteiro-Sepulveda M, Faurie J-M, Rizkalla S, Schrezenmeir J, et al. Impact of bacterial probiotics on obesity, diabetes and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease related variables: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *BMJ Open*. 2019 Mar 30;9(3):e017995.
18. Liou AP, Paziuk M, Luevano J-M, Machineni S, Turnbaugh PJ, Kaplan LM. Conserved shifts in the gut microbiota due to gastric bypass reduce host weight and adiposity. *Sci Transl Med*. 2013 Mar 27;5(178):178ra41.
19. Tremaroli V, Karlsson F, Werling M, Ståhlman M, Kovatcheva-Datchary P, Olbers T, et al. Roux-en-Y Gastric Bypass and Vertical Banded Gastroplasty Induce Long-Term Changes on the Human Gut Microbiome Contributing to Fat Mass Regulation. *Cell Metab*. 2015 Aug 4;22(2):228–38.
20. Brandt LJ, Aroniadis OC, Mellow M, Kanatzar A, Kelly C, Park T, et al. Long-term follow-up of colonoscopic fecal microbiota transplant for recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2012 Jul;107(7):1079–87.
21. Hamilton MJ, Weingarden AR, Sadowsky MJ, Khoruts A. Standardized frozen preparation for transplantation of fecal microbiota for recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2012 May;107(5):761–7.
22. Kelly CR, de Leon L, Jasutkar N. Fecal microbiota transplantation for relapsing *Clostridium difficile* infection in 26 patients: methodology and results. *J Clin Gastroenterol*. 2012 Feb;46(2):145–9.
23. Mattila E, Uusitalo-Seppälä R, Wuorela M, Lehtola L, Nurmi H, Ristikankare M, et al. Fecal transplantation, through colonoscopy, is effective therapy for recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Gastroenterology*. 2012 Mar;142(3):490–6.
24. Gough E, Shaikh H, Manges AR. Systematic review of intestinal microbiota transplantation (fecal bacteriotherapy) for recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Clin Infect Dis Off Publ Infect Dis Soc Am*. 2011 Nov;53(10):994–1002.
25. Cui B, Feng Q, Wang H, Wang M, Peng Z, Li P, et al. Fecal microbiota transplantation through mid-gut for refractory Crohn’s disease: safety, feasibility, and efficacy trial results. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2015 Jan;30(1):51–8.
26. van Nood E, Vrieze A, Nieuwdorp M, Fuentes S, Zoetendal EG, de Vos WM, et al. Duodenal infusion of donor feces for recurrent *Clostridium difficile*. *N Engl J Med*. 2013 Jan 31;368(5):407–15. **

This RCT is the first to demonstrate the efficacy of FMT to cure clostridium difficile infection

27. Youngster I, Sauk J, Pindar C, Wilson RG, Kaplan JL, Smith MB, et al. Fecal microbiota transplant for relapsing *Clostridium difficile* infection using a frozen inoculum from unrelated donors: a

randomized, open-label, controlled pilot study. *Clin Infect Dis Off Publ Infect Dis Soc Am.* 2014 Jun;58(11):1515–22. **

This study demonstrate for the first time the efficacy of capsulized oral fecal microbiota transfer

28. Cammarota G, Masucci L, Ianiro G, Bibbò S, Dinoi G, Costamagna G, et al. Randomised clinical trial: faecal microbiota transplantation by colonoscopy vs. vancomycin for the treatment of recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther.* 2015 May;41(9):835–43.
29. Lee CH, Steiner T, Petrof EO, Smieja M, Roscoe D, Nematallah A, et al. Frozen vs Fresh Fecal Microbiota Transplantation and Clinical Resolution of Diarrhea in Patients With Recurrent *Clostridium difficile* Infection: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA.* 2016 Jan 12;315(2):142–9.
30. Quraishi MN, Widlak M, Bhala N, Moore D, Price M, Sharma N, et al. Systematic review with meta-analysis: the efficacy of faecal microbiota transplantation for the treatment of recurrent and refractory *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther.* 2017;46(5):479–93.
31. Surawicz CM, Brandt LJ, Binion DG, Ananthakrishnan AN, Curry SR, Gilligan PH, et al. Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of *Clostridium difficile* infections. *Am J Gastroenterol.* 2013 Apr;108(4):478–98; quiz 499.
32. Debast SB, Bauer MP, Kuijper EJ, European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases: update of the treatment guidance document for *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Clin Microbiol Infect Off Publ Eur Soc Clin Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2014 Mar;20 Suppl 2:1–26.
33. McDonald LC, Gerding DN, Johnson S, Bakken JS, Carroll KC, Coffin SE, et al. Clinical Practice Guidelines for *Clostridium difficile* Infection in Adults and Children: 2017 Update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) and Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America (SHEA). *Clin Infect Dis Off Publ Infect Dis Soc Am.* 2018 Mar 19;66(7):987–94.
34. König J, Siebenhaar A, Högenauer C, Arkkila P, Nieuwdorp M, Norén T, et al. Consensus report: faecal microbiota transfer - clinical applications and procedures. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther.* 2017;45(2):222–39.
35. Cammarota G, Ianiro G, Tilg H, Rajilić-Stojanović M, Kump P, Satokari R, et al. European consensus conference on faecal microbiota transplantation in clinical practice. *Gut.* 2017;66(4):569–80.
36. Borody TJ, Paramsothy S, Agrawal G. Fecal microbiota transplantation: indications, methods, evidence, and future directions. *Curr Gastroenterol Rep.* 2013 Aug;15(8):337.
37. Anderson JL, Edney RJ, Whelan K. Systematic review: faecal microbiota transplantation in the management of inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther.* 2012 Sep;36(6):503–16.
38. Zhang F-M, Wang H-G, Wang M, Cui B-T, Fan Z-N, Ji G-Z. Fecal microbiota transplantation for severe enterocolonic fistulizing Crohn's disease. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2013 Nov 7;19(41):7213–6.
39. Rossen NG, MacDonald JK, de Vries EM, D'Haens GR, de Vos WM, Zoetendal EG, et al. Fecal microbiota transplantation as novel therapy in gastroenterology: A systematic review. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2015 May 7;21(17):5359–71.

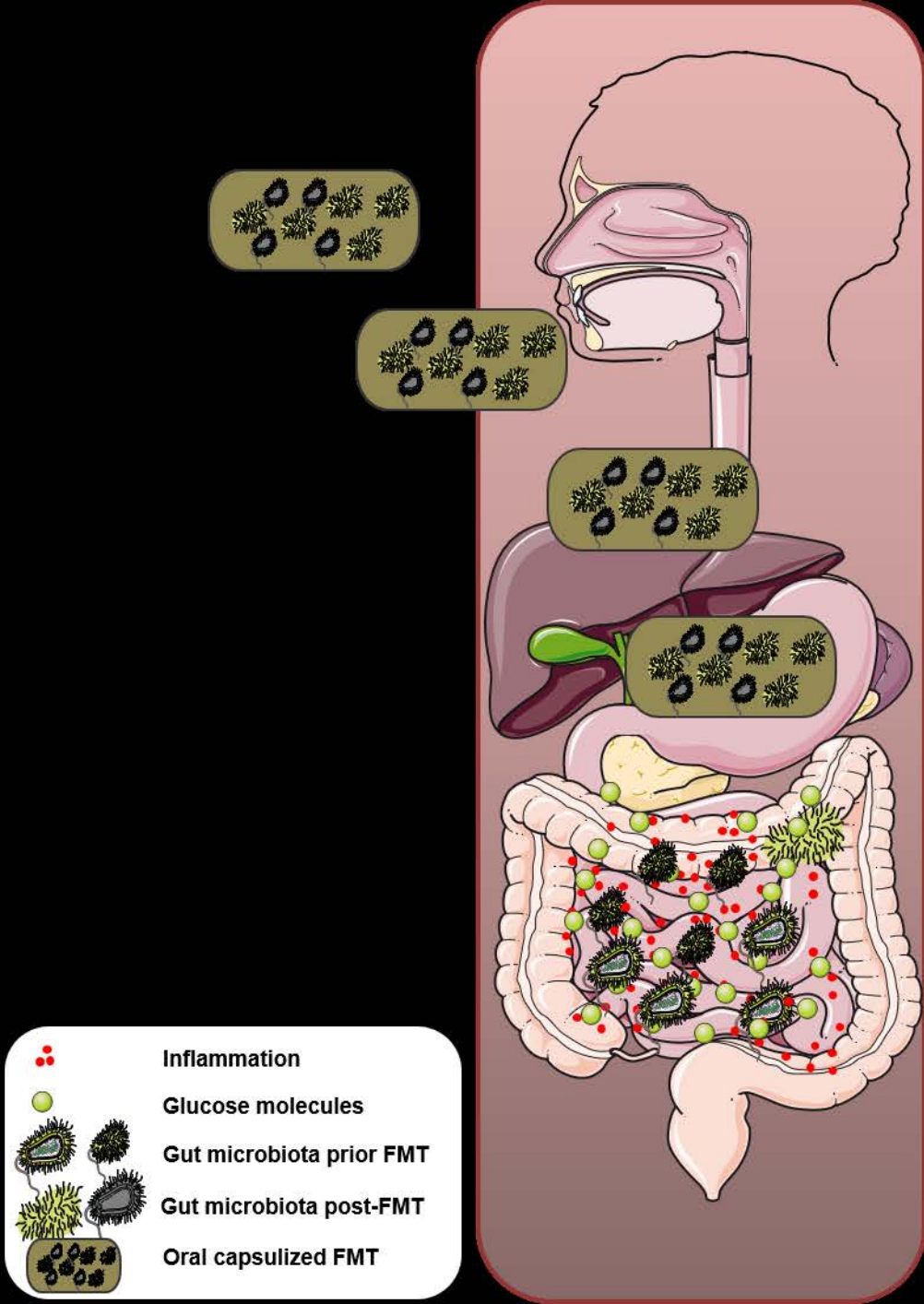
40. Lin SC, Alonso CD, Moss AC. Fecal microbiota transplantation for recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection in patients with solid organ transplants: an institutional experience and review of the literature. *Transpl Infect Dis Off J Transplant Soc.* 2018 Jul 16;e12967.
41. Kassam Z, Lee CH, Yuan Y, Hunt RH. Fecal microbiota transplantation for *Clostridium difficile* infection: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Gastroenterol.* 2013 Apr;108(4):500–8.
42. van Beurden YH, de Groot PF, van Nood E, Nieuwdorp M, Keller JJ, Goorhuis A. Complications, effectiveness, and long term follow-up of fecal microbiota transfer by nasoduodenal tube for treatment of recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *United Eur Gastroenterol J.* 2017 Oct;5(6):868–79.
43. Smits LP, Bouter KEC, de Vos WM, Borody TJ, Nieuwdorp M. Therapeutic potential of fecal microbiota transplantation. *Gastroenterology.* 2013 Nov;145(5):946–53.
44. Drekonja D, Reich J, Gezahegn S, Greer N, Shaukat A, MacDonald R, et al. Fecal Microbiota Transplantation for *Clostridium difficile* Infection: A Systematic Review. *Ann Intern Med.* 2015 May 5;162(9):630–8.
45. Kelly CR, Kahn S, Kashyap P, Laine L, Rubin D, Atreja A, et al. Update on Fecal Microbiota Transplantation 2015: Indications, Methodologies, Mechanisms, and Outlook. *Gastroenterology.* 2015 Jul;149(1):223–37.
46. Youngster I, Russell GH, Pindar C, Ziv-Baran T, Sauk J, Hohmann EL. Oral, capsulized, frozen fecal microbiota transplantation for relapsing *Clostridium difficile* infection. *JAMA.* 2014 Nov 5;312(17):1772–8.
47. Bircher L, Schwab C, Geirnaert A, Lacroix C. Cryopreservation of artificial gut microbiota produced with in vitro fermentation technology. *Microb Biotechnol.* 2018;11(1):163–75.
48. Kao D, Roach B, Silva M, Beck P, Rioux K, Kaplan GG, et al. Effect of Oral Capsule- vs Colonoscopy-Delivered Fecal Microbiota Transplantation on Recurrent *Clostridium difficile* Infection: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA.* 2017 28;318(20):1985–93.
49. Cheminet G, Kapel N, Bleibtreu A, Sadou-Yaye H, Bellanger A, Duval X, et al. Faecal microbiota transplantation with frozen capsules for relapsing *Clostridium difficile* infections: the first experience from 15 consecutive patients in France. *J Hosp Infect.* 2018 Jul 12;
50. Gérard C, Vidal H. Impact of Gut Microbiota on Host Glycemic Control. *Front Endocrinol.* 2019;10:29.
51. de Groot PF, Frissen MN, de Clercq NC, Nieuwdorp M. Fecal microbiota transplantation in metabolic syndrome: History, present and future. *Gut Microbes.* 2017 04;8(3):253–67.
52. Vrieze A, Van Nood E, Holleman F, Salojärvi J, Kootte RS, Bartelsman JFWM, et al. Transfer of intestinal microbiota from lean donors increases insulin sensitivity in individuals with metabolic syndrome. *Gastroenterology.* 2012 Oct;143(4):913-916.e7.
53. Kootte RS, Levin E, Salojärvi J, Smits LP, Hartstra AV, Udayappan SD, et al. Improvement of Insulin Sensitivity after Lean Donor Feces in Metabolic Syndrome Is Driven by Baseline Intestinal Microbiota Composition. *Cell Metab.* 2017 Oct 3;26(4):611-619.e6. **

This study confirmed the efficacy of FMT to improve insulin sensitivity in a larger group of patients and demonstrated the major variability of response. The authors identified that low MGR before FMT was predictive of a good response to FMT

54. Everard A, Belzer C, Geurts L, Ouwerkerk JP, Druart C, Bindels LB, et al. Cross-talk between *Akkermansia muciniphila* and intestinal epithelium controls diet-induced obesity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2013 May 28;110(22):9066–71.
55. Plovier H, Everard A, Druart C, Depommier C, Van Hul M, Geurts L, et al. A purified membrane protein from *Akkermansia muciniphila* or the pasteurized bacterium improves metabolism in obese and diabetic mice. *Nat Med*. 2017 Jan;23(1):107–13.
56. Dao MC, Everard A, Aron-Wisnewsky J, Sokolovska N, Prifti E, Verger EO, et al. *Akkermansia muciniphila* and improved metabolic health during a dietary intervention in obesity: relationship with gut microbiome richness and ecology. *Gut*. 2015 Jun 22;
57. Jumpertz R, Le DS, Turnbaugh PJ, Trinidad C, Bogardus C, Gordon JI, et al. Energy-balance studies reveal associations between gut microbes, caloric load, and nutrient absorption in humans. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2011 Jul;94(1):58–65.
58. 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. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2004 Nov 2;101(44):15718–23.
59. Ridaura VK, Faith JJ, Rey FE, Cheng J, Duncan AE, Kau AL, et al. Gut microbiota from twins discordant for obesity modulate metabolism in mice. *Science*. 2013 Sep 6;341(6150):1241214.
60. Aron-Wisnewsky J, Clément K. The gut microbiome, diet, and links to cardiometabolic and chronic disorders. *Nat Rev Nephrol*. 2015 Nov 30;
61. Kulecka M, Paziewska A, Zeber-Lubecka N, Ambrozkiwicz F, Kopczynski M, Kuklinska U, et al. Prolonged transfer of feces from the lean mice modulates gut microbiota in obese mice. *Nutr Metab*. 2016;13(1):57.
62. de Clercq NC, Frissen MN, Davids M, Groen AK, Nieuwdorp M. Weight Gain after Fecal Microbiota Transplantation in a Patient with Recurrent Underweight following Clinical Recovery from Anorexia Nervosa. *Psychother Psychosom*. 2019;88(1):58–60.
63. Alang N, Kelly CR. Weight gain after fecal microbiota transplantation. *Open Forum Infect Dis*. 2015 Jan;2(1):ofv004.
64. Angelberger S, Reinisch W, Makristathis A, Lichtenberger C, Dejaco C, Papay P, et al. Temporal bacterial community dynamics vary among ulcerative colitis patients after fecal microbiota transplantation. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2013 Oct;108(10):1620–30.
65. Seekatz AM, Aas J, Gessert CE, Rubin TA, Saman DM, Bakken JS, et al. Recovery of the gut microbiome following fecal microbiota transplantation. *mBio*. 2014 Jun 17;5(3):e00893-00814.
66. Hamilton MJ, Weingarden AR, Unno T, Khoruts A, Sadowsky MJ. High-throughput DNA sequence analysis reveals stable engraftment of gut microbiota following transplantation of previously frozen fecal bacteria. *Gut Microbes*. 2013 Apr;4(2):125–35.

67. Li SS, Zhu A, Benes V, Costea PI, Hercog R, Hildebrand F, et al. Durable coexistence of donor and recipient strains after fecal microbiota transplantation. *Science*. 2016 Apr 29;352(6285):586–9.
68. Moayyedi P, Surette MG, Kim PT, Libertucci J, Wolfe M, Onischi C, et al. Fecal Microbiota Transplantation Induces Remission in Patients With Active Ulcerative Colitis in a Randomized Controlled Trial. *Gastroenterology*. 2015 Jul;149(1):102-109.e6.
69. Paramsothy S, Paramsothy R, Rubin DT, Kamm MA, Kaakoush NO, Mitchell HM, et al. Faecal Microbiota Transplantation for Inflammatory Bowel Disease: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *J Crohns Colitis*. 2017 Oct 1;11(10):1180–99.
70. Vermeire S, Joossens M, Verbeke K, Wang J, Machiels K, Sabino J, et al. Donor Species Richness Determines Faecal Microbiota Transplantation Success in Inflammatory Bowel Disease. *J Crohns Colitis*. 2016 Apr;10(4):387–94.
71. Shin N-R, Lee J-C, Lee H-Y, Kim M-S, Whon TW, Lee M-S, et al. An increase in the *Akkermansia* spp. population induced by metformin treatment improves glucose homeostasis in diet-induced obese mice. *Gut*. 2014 May;63(5):727–35.
72. Lee H, Lee Y, Kim J, An J, Lee S, Kong H, et al. Modulation of the gut microbiota by metformin improves metabolic profiles in aged obese mice. *Gut Microbes*. 2017 Nov 20;1–11.
73. Forslund K, Hildebrand F, Nielsen T, Falony G, Le Chatelier E, Sunagawa S, et al. Disentangling type 2 diabetes and metformin treatment signatures in the human gut microbiota. *Nature*. 2015 Dec 10;528(7581):262–6.
74. Wu H, Esteve E, Tremaroli V, Khan MT, Caesar R, Mannerås-Holm L, et al. Metformin alters the gut microbiome of individuals with treatment-naïve type 2 diabetes, contributing to the therapeutic effects of the drug. *Nat Med*. 2017 Jul;23(7):850–8.
75. David LA, Maurice CF, Carmody RN, Gootenberg DB, Button JE, Wolfe BE, et al. Diet rapidly and reproducibly alters the human gut microbiome. *Nature*. 2014 Jan 23;505(7484):559–63.
76. Wu GD, Chen J, Hoffmann C, Bittinger K, Chen Y-Y, Keilbaugh SA, et al. Linking long-term dietary patterns with gut microbial enterotypes. *Science*. 2011 Oct 7;334(6052):105–8.
77. Kong LC, Holmes BA, Cotillard A, Habi-Rachedi F, Brazeilles R, Gougis S, et al. Dietary patterns differently associate with inflammation and gut microbiota in overweight and obese subjects. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(10):e109434.
78. Ley RE, Turnbaugh PJ, Klein S, Gordon JI. Microbial ecology: human gut microbes associated with obesity. *Nature*. 2006 Dec 21;444(7122):1022–3.
79. Groen AK, Nieuwdorp M. An evaluation of the therapeutic potential of fecal microbiota transplantation to treat infectious and metabolic diseases. *EMBO Mol Med*. 2017;9(1):1–3.
80. al SL et. Effect of Vegan Fecal Microbiota Transplantation on Carnitine- and Choline-Derived Trimethylamine-N-Oxide Production and Vascular Inflammation in P... - PubMed - NCBI [Internet]. [cited 2019 Apr 25]. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29581220>

81. Arbel LT, Hsu E, McNally K. Cost-Effectiveness of Fecal Microbiota Transplantation in the Treatment of Recurrent Clostridium Difficile Infection: A Literature Review. *Cureus*. 2017 Aug 23;9(8):e1599.
82. Zhang T, Xiang J, Cui B, He Z, Li P, Chen H, et al. Cost-effectiveness analysis of fecal microbiota transplantation for inflammatory bowel disease. *Oncotarget*. 2017 Oct 24;8(51):88894–903.
83. Gundling F, Roggenbrod S, Schleifer S, Sohn M, Schepp W. Patient perception and approval of faecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) as an alternative treatment option for obesity. *Obes Sci Pract*. 2019 Feb;5(1):68–74.



Post-FMT

