

MICROBIAL NORMAL FLORA: ITS EXISTENCE AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO HOMEOSTASIS

by Lusia, Forman

Submission date: 10-Jun-2022 11:16AM (UTC+0700)

Submission ID: 1854049394

File name: POST_TURNITIN1_MICROBIAL_NORMAL_FLORA.doc (453K)

Word count: 7308

Character count: 45476

MICROBIAL NORMAL FLORA: ITS EXISTENCE AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO HOMEOSTASIS

LUSIA SRI SUNARTI, FORMAN ERWIN SIAGIAN

Dept. Of Microbiology, Dept. Of Parasitology,
faculty of Medicine, Universitas Kristen Indonesia, Jakarta Indonesia

Email: lusia.sunarti@uki.ac.id

Abstract

Normal microflora are a group of various microorganisms that reside in the bodies of all humans or animals. These organisms are consistently exist and relatively stable, with specific genera populating various body regions during particular periods in an individual's life, from shortly after birth until death. The indigeneous normal microbiota provides a first line of defense against microbial pathogens, assists in digestion, and contributes to maturation of the immune system and in general able to assists the anatomy, physiology, susceptibility to pathogens, and even morbidity of the host. Several internal factors like age external factors like geographical position, diets habbits, the condition of stress, infection and even antibiotics consumption, orally or intravenously, are some factors that can affect the function of normal microflora.

Keyword: microbiota, indigeneous, interaction, diets, biological age, stress, antibiotics

Introduction

Normal flora are the microorganisms that live on the surface or inside another living organism (human or animal) or inanimate object without causing disease.^{1,2} Sometime it is called commensal because of their permanent presence on body surfaces even if covered by epithelial cells and are even exposed to the external environment (*e.g.*, respiratory and gastrointestinal tract, genital, hair, *etc.*).³ Normal flora plays an important role in immunity and inflammation.^{3,4}

Significance of the Normal Flora for their host is very important. The normal flora directly influences the anatomy, physiology, immunology, even susceptibility to true pathogenic organisms, and even morbidity-mortality of the host; in short terms, it affects the homeostasis of their host.^{3,5,6}

In case of human being, firstly he/she becomes colonized immediately by a bunch of normal microbial flora at the moment of birth and passage through the birth canal; in other words, initial exposure was obtained from the mother.⁷ The infant microbiome contributes to his/her future health and its assembly is determined by maternal– offspring exchanges of microbiota.⁸ Actually *in utero*, the fetus is sterile, but when the mother's water breaks and the birth process begins, so does colonization of the body surfaces took place. Secondly, in the next stage of life's episode, methods of neonatal care, *e.g.*, handling and feeding of the infant right after birth, leads to establishment of a permanent and stable existence normal

flora on the skin, oral cavity and intestinal tract in about the first 2 days post-birth. This process is influenced by several conditions, *e.g.*, Cesarean section, perinatal antibiotics, and also the practice of formula milk feeding, that have been linked to increased risks of metabolic and immune diseases.⁸

Microbial normal flora has spatio-temporal involvement that differs individually, regional body niche, age, geographical location, health condition, diet and also by type of host.⁹⁻¹¹ Effort has been done through high-throughput sequencing analysis and new software equipment are revolutionizing microbial community analyses.⁹ The aim of this short review is to reveal its relative composition, function and contribution to homeostasis and what condition that affect their performance.

Relative Composition

Even without exception to the same individual, relative diversity of the microbial normal flora can possibly differ.¹² The difference is caused by changes due to (1) diet,¹³ (2) stress-depression,¹⁴ (3) sexual habits,¹⁵ (4) pharmacology medication,¹⁶ (5) hormonal changes¹⁷ and (6) other host-related factors.¹⁰ Ordinary predominant strain of microbial flora are actually exist in or within body *milieu* and even can shared functional traits.¹⁸

The exact number of microbial normal flora is difficult to ascertain, but of course the number is exceed the number of cells in human body.³ The prevailing types of species in humans differ according to the body site or location, *e.g.*, skin, hair-scalp, nose, oral cavity, stomach, ileum, colon or genito-urinary tract.¹⁹

Mouth/Oral cavity. Normal microbial flora found in the mouth is differ based on location (saliva, tongue, tooth enamel, gingival surface,) and the condition of gingivo-periodontal well-being.²⁰⁻²² The composition of normal microbial flora in oral cavity carry a broad spectrum of microorganism, which are predominantly anaerobic such as *Lactobacillus*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Actinomyces*, *Bacteroides*, *Arachnia*, *Fusobacterium*, *Leptotrichia*, *Peptococcus*, *Eubacterium*, *Peptostreptococcus*, *Selenomonas*, *Treponema*, *Propionibacterium*, and *Veillonella*.²¹⁻²³ According to Aas *et al.*,²⁰ 700+ bacterial species or phylotypes, of which over 50% have not been cultivated, actually have been detected in the oral cavity. While to some extent, some genus are general in common and able to be found in most sites that belongs to the mouth, but on the other hand some species were actually very site specific. There is a distinctive predominant bacterial flora of the healthy oral cavity that is highly diverse and site and subject specific.²⁴ Normal flora in the area of healthy esophagus during upper endoscopy procedures predominantly was found to be *Streptococcus* spp.²⁵ Species that routinely isolated from tonsils of healthy children are α -hemolytic *Streptococcus* and *Lactobacilli*.²⁶ An interesting phenomenon that occurs where *Lactobacillus* spp. Can attach specifically to mannose-carrying receptors, *e.g.*, *L. plantarum*, have a marked convinience in enduring theirselves in the oral *cavuum* by way of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) assisted adhesion to epithelial cells is considered important for *Lactobacillus* to exert its probiotic effects.²⁷

Effort to compare outcome from profiling predominant flora can be hard to interpret due to the intrinsic variation of (1) subject (*e.g.*, age, gender, ethnicity),²⁸ (2) methods of sampling (by way of flushing of the surface, aspirates or biopsies),²⁹⁻³¹ (3) daily diet,^{13,31} (4) sampled

site-location and microbiological assay techniques.³² All of these four may produce significantly different results.

The Upper Respiratory tract. The human upper respiratory tract is already colonized since very early in life.³³ The composition of microflora is formed by specialized inhabitant organisms (can be bacteria, viral and or fungal assortment, which avert the potency of any pathogens from colonizing, proliferating and even propagating towards the lungs via the blood barrier.³⁴ Normal respiratory microflora include *Neisseria catarrhalis*, *Candida albicans*, *Diphtheroids*, *alpha-hemolytic Streptococci*, and some *staphylococci*.^{35,36}

Anatomically, the evolution and growth of the respiratory system is a complex multistage sequences that happens continuously, the sequence of episodes that took place prenatally and also postnatally.^{36,37} This maturation process rely, in part, on exposure to microbial, fungal and environmental conditions,³⁸ including diets,¹³ and in turn results in a highly specialized organ properties.³⁸ Those properties contains several recognizable milieu, each of which is subjected to specialized microbial, cellular and physiological gradients.³⁹

The respiratory microflora existence is non-static and influenced by several host and environmental elements, including natural or caesarian birth, feeding pattern, antibiotic consumption and crowding conditions, e.g., the day-care attendance and or presence of siblings.^{39,40}

For every physicians, they must keep in mind that the presence of normal upper respiratory tract flora is common and should be expected in sputum culture.^{40,41}

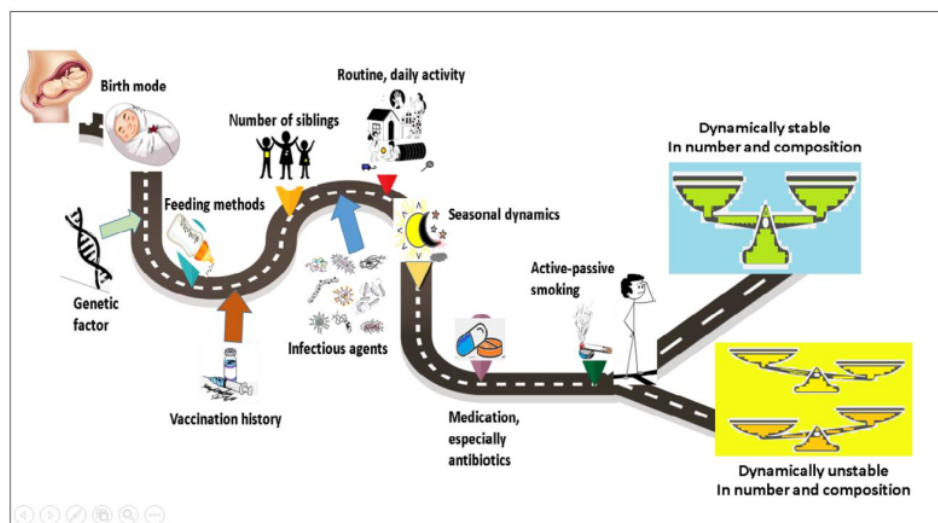


Fig. 1 when a neonates born, its microflora composition formed a highly dynamic communities/network; affected by multiple internal-external factors, including mode of birth, feeding methods, vaccination history, siblings that made crowding situation and medication especially antibiotic treatment. Environmental factors such as seasonal dynamics, pathogenic agents and habits like smoking can shift number and iversity of microflora, can be directed to a more stable population at equilibrium that make their host able to control the pathogen overgrowth, or, conversely, an

unstable population that is predisposed their vulnerability to recurrent infection and inflammation.⁴⁰
with modification

The Stomach and Intestine. Fewer bacteria actually manage to exist in the stomach due to its harsh environment for organism; where only limited organism have the capability to survive there.⁴¹ Five major phyla have been detected in the stomach: *Firmicutes*, *Bacteroidites*, *Actinobacteria*, *Fusobacteria* and *Proteobacteria*. At the genera level, the healthy human stomach is dominated by *Prevotella*, *Streptococcus*, *Veillonella*, *Rothia* and *Haemophilus*.^{10,11,41} The occurrence of *Helicobacter pylori*, the species that has been isolated from specimen that come from peptic ulcers or gastric neoplasia. Actually, *H. pylori* is also able to be found in >60% of healthy individuals. That is why this organism always thought to be responsible for causing gastric abnormalities. Its number increases as it reaches the end of the intestine.^{42,43}

The intestine is different from the stomach, due to the quality and quantity of organisms that they contain. The variety of organisms is also multiplex, mostly there are more anaerobic microorganisms than the aerobes organisms.^{44,45} A study found out that the number of intestinal microbial normal flora as much as 10¹¹ organisms:gram of feces; and those number is formed by a very diverse composition (>500 different species), with each in number is ranging in different concentrations.⁴⁶

The development of current approaches, methods, techniques and genetic probes has granted finer characterization of organisms that made the normal intestinal flora.³² The approach conducted by Franks *et al.*, that developed several 16S rRNA-targeted oligonucleotide probes actually can detect and confirm the availability of >60% anaerobic organisms in human fecal material.⁴⁷ These probes proved to be very important in proving the characterization of the microecologic milieu in the human intestine. Eventhough it is still widely open to conduct more extensive research to provide answers for soem challenging questions about the exact role of normal microflora in digestion or even in intestinal movement.

The Vagina. Previous studies have published the composition of normal microflora in the normal vagina. It is usually a complex combination of aerobic *Lactobacillus* spp., including *L. Acidophilus*, *L. jensenii*, or *L. Rhammosus*. Some species of lactobacilli, namely *L. Acidophilus*, *L. crispatus* and *L. Jensenii*, play a crucial role in protecting vaginal surfaces by secreting H₂O₂.^{48,49} This acidic compound prevent the colonization of pathogenic anaerobes and even mycoplasmas.^{50,51} Beside preventing colonization, it also inhibits their replication. Lactic acid blocks the enzyme histone deacetylases, thereby magnifying the process of gene transcription and also DNA restoration. The existence of these potential pathogens predominantly associated with vaginal infections such as bacterial vaginitis, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* or other type of sexually transmitted diseases.^{51,52}

The number and composition of vaginal microflora is very dynamic.⁵³ It has been shown to fluctuate over (1) age (childhood – adolescent – young adult – elderly), (2) routine menstrual cycle, (3) sexual activity (active-passive, promiscuity), (4) hygiene habits, (5) fashion related habits and (6) the practice of using intravaginal microbicides, *e.g.*, nonoxynol-4.^{17,54}

Related to the previously stated dynamics of the presence of vaginal microflora, studies confirmed that most women in healthy condition have short-term switch in vaginal flora composition, which, although not permanent, can cause changes in the local

microenvironment.^{54,55} Only a small percentage (22–26%) of healthy women contain lactobacilli-predominant flora. Personal behavior, biological functions including hormones and or other external conditions might contribute to the dynamic pattern of vaginal microflora.⁵⁶ Furthermore, the characterization of normal vaginal microflora and its contribution to maintain specific milieu in the vagina is still need to be investigated, especially among specific healthy women population.

The course of the evolution of normal flora is a life long continuous episodes that starts immediately at birth process.⁵⁷ It is belief that the process of colonization starts during parturition, at the time the neonate's intestine is planted with mostly Gram-positive facultative anaerobes from the mother's vaginal microflora at the time of normal delivery.⁵⁸ Close contact is once again responsible for the introduction of normal microflora to the newborn. The vaginal microflora collected from mother's right after delivery was the same in composition as microflora found in the stools of neonates.⁵⁹

The vaginal microflora plays a pivotal role in maternal-neonatal health condition. Dys-balances in this microflora composition and number (dysbiosis) during pregnancy are associated with dismissive reproductive consequences, such as pregnancy loss and preterm birth. Feitas *et al.*,⁶⁰ who conducted a study of normal flora in pregnant women found out that microflora profiles in general could not be esteemed based on pregnancy status. However, the vaginal microflora of healthy pregnant women had degrade richness and diversity, smaller prevalence of *Mycoplasma* spp. And also *Ureaplasma* spp. but higher bacterial load when compared to non-pregnant women. *Lactobacillus* spp. affluence was also higher in the microflora of pregnant women with *Lactobacillus*-dominated in comparison with the non-pregnant group.

1 Neonates born by surgical procedure (caesarian section) usually obtain their first microflora from the milieu of the clinical/hospital nursery.⁶¹ Neonates are rapidly inhabited by facultative anaerobes (*E. Coli* and *Streptococcus*), reaching normal concentrations in the stool within the early 1–2 days after birth.⁶²

Factors That Contribute to The existence of Normal Microflora

Biological age, not Chronological Age. The diversity of skin microflora in different age groups is vary. Whether with the addition of age is also related with the alteration in its number, its diversity and also to some extent deficits in their function is not well understood. How this change occurs, whether slowly (gradual) or suddenly fast (progressive) is also not known with certainty. The ability to define these deficits in populations of different ages may help determine a chronological age threshold at which deficits occur and subsequently identify innovative dietary strategies for active and healthy ageing.⁶³ According to Maffei *et al*, increasing biological age in community-dwelling adults is associated with gastrointestinal dysbiosis.⁶⁴

The skin microbiota is also very diverse and varied in different age groups.⁶³ Diversity in skin microbiota tends to increases with age.⁶⁵ The increase in diversity during the first eight years of life is associated with a reduced dominance of the Order *Lactobacillales* (namely *Streptococcus*) and a relatively even increase in other taxa, whereas the reduction in diversity in puberty is due to *Actinobacteria* (such as *Propionibacterium acnes*) becoming dominant.⁶⁶

In case of early infancy, the gut microecology is constructed during this early phase of life by the composition of the normal intestinal microflora.^{7,12,13} The diet in pre-weaned babies is mostly influenced by the daily type of diet (breast or formula fed).^{1,3,13} Infants usually be inhabited only by three kind of native *Lactobacilli*, and when become older, there is an increased in both quantity of different species and transient nature.⁸ Normal gut microflora in geriatrics may also differ from younger adults.⁶⁷

Regarding to the genito-urinary microflora, it seems that postmenopausal female have been found to have elevated numbers of microorganisms such as fungi, clostridia and lactobacilli compared to the pre-menopausal group.^{49,56,57} Other studies also revealed variation of normal microflora in the older age female, but whether this variation is due to chronological age, medical exposures, or due to illnesses was unclear.

Geography. There are several studies which report differences in normal microflora depending upon geographical setting,³⁹ one of them was conducted by Benno *et al.*,⁶⁸ in elderly Japanese living in urban vs rural region. On the whole, the diversity and counts of stool microflora were similar. Urban people have significantly less *Bifidobacterium adolescentis*, but significantly more total anaerobic bacteria, bacilli and *Clostridium* spp. than those who live in rural areas. These slight differences might be due to different diet (high fiber) in the rural population, even though this hypothesis is not in line with data on dietary patterns. One of the crucial topics in the normal microflora research is to characterize what is considered healthy microflora. Recent studies have clarified critical separation in the microflora composition between healthy persons from different race and ethnicity.³⁹

The geographical difference on the composition and diversity of normal microflora reported in certain populations are actually not genetically origin, as initially thought, but due to the variation in diet composition.⁶⁹ The microflora of the gut varies according to the milieu of the body. Various factors influence the microflora of the oral cavity and the gut. For example, when intestinal microflora is compared for English man living in London and consuming a mixture western diet against Ugandans from the same neighbourhood but consuming only vegetarian diets, and when the stool sample analyzed and the result was as follows: the English people had more *Bifidobacteria* and *Bacteroides* but less *Enterococci*, *Lactobacilli* and even yeasts than the Ugandans, even though all sample collected in almost at the same time.

The consumption of routine and daily vegetarian foods are related with less number of Anaerobes and higher enumeration of facultative and aerobic microbes.⁷⁰ It is believed that, one person has a moderately persistent profile of microorganism (qualitatively and quantitatively) that can be considered as 'normal microflora'.¹⁰ But, antibiotics consumption can affect the normal microflora composition.¹⁶ Sometime, inter-individual distinction of normal microflora may alter to some extent.^{3,10} The comparison of differences in normal microflora composition for various geographic populations is intricated by limitless differences in (1) population characteristics, (2) daily diet, (3) isolation and culturing technique, (4) state of the art technology applied and (5) time when the study conducted.

In connection with those limitations, it is necessary to carry out further research in the context of uniformity of various variables, for example population (same age range, sex, ethnicity, diets), tools applied, materials and methods, time and place of implementation. This approach

may reveal the differences that regularly seen in normal microflora of people from different countries.

Diet. Evidence that consumption pattern influences normal flora in adults is sparse, but many studies have been conducted in specific populations, *e.g.*, young infants and also animal.^{13,71,72} Data from animal study showed us that diet has been shown to change the composition and number of microflora, but unfortunately, data available only limited the mineral calcium, carbohydrates or fiber administration and their direct or indirect effect to microflora. Daily dietary calcium tend to precipitates and induced cytotoxic substances, *e.g.*, bile acids, causing in reduced cytolysis; a condition of changes elicited by inulin and galacto-oligosaccharides consumption.⁷³ as consequences, fewer intra-lumen cytotoxicity may facilitate and fortify endogenous flora armamentarium.⁷⁴ According to the study conducted by Bouvee-Oudenhoven *et al.*,⁷⁴ calcium supplementation diets given to animal model (rats) actually reduced inhabitation of *Salmonella enteritidis* in their gut.

The type of diet predominantly affects the composition of microflora in pre-weaning neonates.⁷⁵ Infants who are breast-fed contain higher amount of *Bifidobacteria*.⁷⁶ Biochemically, breast milk usually contains minimum protein and on contrary high levels of oligosaccharides and glycoproteins, which facilitates the growth of *Bifidobacteria*.⁷⁷ On the other hand, some studies confirmed that Formula-fed babies have a more sophisticated microflora, namely *Bifidobacterium* spp, *Bacteroides* spp, *Clostridium* spp and *Streptococcus* spp; eventhough the difference in breast-fed vs. Formula-fed infants is not really significant.⁷⁸ the higher number of *Bifidobacteria* found in babies fed formula only took place for factory made milk that had only a little buffering magnitude.

Contribution of normal flora to the normal function of the intestine can be summarized as follows: (1) digesting enteric metabolic substrates, (2) resisting colonization by foreign non-self microflora, (3) vitamins assembling, (4) development of attachment sites, (5) facilitates immune system, producing exogenous enzymes, facilitating intraluminal transit, (6) advancement and turn over specific intestinal cells.

Fructo-oligosaccharides (FOS), a specific sugar contained in fruit like bananas, or plants, *e.g.*, fresh onions, artichokes and asparagus, are fermented largely by the bacteria *Bifidobacterium* species, and this turns out to be interrelated and influence each other. in human volunteers, increased consumption of FOS actually expand the levels of *Bifidobacteria* in the intestines for a certain time, but then causing excessive *flatulen* when the amount eaten exceed 20 g daily.⁷⁹ FOS was also responsible for the rise of numbers of total *Anaerobes* and *Bifidobacteria*.⁸⁰ Beside FOS, sucrose was found to facilitate the escalation of *Bacteroides* spp. and also inulin, specifically was found to escalate mainly *Bifidobacteria*.⁸¹

Various kind of fiber have the ability to change the levels of *Bifidobacteria* spp, *Lactobacilli* spp and also fungi in animal models (pigs and also rats).³¹ Several fermentable fibers may facilitate the expand of normal flora, yielding short chain fatty acid and reduced colonic pH, and by doing it indirectly inhibits the growth of certain bacteria, such as *C. difficile*.⁸² Diet containing tea polyphenols given to pigs increased the levels of *Lactobacilli* and reduced levels of *Bacteroides*.⁸³

Several studies conducted in newborn in the past showed us that breast-fed babies actually have been found to bear mainly *Bifidobacteria*. While on contrary, a group of formula-fed

babies are inhabited with a broader spectrum of organisms, namely *Bacteroides* spp, *Enterobacteria* spp, and even *Clostridia* spp.

All of those findings provide insight into the role that diet plays critical role in influencing the composition of normal flora, in the context of the digestive tract. There was also a report about consequence of an adapted formula milk, that contain high maltose, on the gut inhabitation of *Bifidobacteria* spp. compared to the group of breast-fed Babies.⁷⁸ Breast-fed infants have higher amount of *Bifidobacteria* than formula-fed neonates, even in the very early days of life (4 days).⁸ Further study need to be conducted in order to reveal how well-defined diets can modify the amount and also relative composition of normal flora.

Infection. The existence of normal microflora actually also helps their host not to get too easily colonized and infected with enteral parasite.⁸⁴ Parasites usually enter the body through the oral fecal route and directly interact with the commensal bacteria of the intestine and causing diarrhea.^{84,85} Infection may have obvious clinical manifestations, but it is suspected that there are many more asymptomatic intestinal parasitic infections.^{85,86} Normal microflora may increase resistance to parasitic infections at mucosal sites via changes in the composition of intestinal bacteria, and it may also alter systemic immunity to these parasites.^{84,87}

Stress. Human beings and their intestinal 'good' bacteria have emitted numerous steps to coordinate with and regulate one another.¹⁴ The condition of psychological stress and further depression to some extent can initiate consumption of uncontrolled diets, which directly influencing the growth and the development of microflora.⁸⁸ In addition to that condition, stress and depression can reshape the number and composition of normal microflora through three ways: (1) excessive secretion of stress hormones, (2) initiation of inflammation, and (3) uncontrolled autonomic alterations which can further trigger series of events that can make the condition become worse.

As the consequences, the intestinal bacteria liberate more end-product substance, toxins, metabolites, and even neurohormones that can further alter eating behavior and even appetite and also mood in general.^{88,89} Some bacterial species also have the ability to facilitate dysregulated excessive eating, or in other word eating very much.⁹⁰ The gut bacteria may also stimulate stress responsiveness by lowering the threshold and in turn heighten the risk for depression, which adding probiotic supplementation may weakened the condition.⁸⁸⁻⁹⁰

Antibiotics. Antibiotics that are prescribed to treat pathogenic bacteria also have an impact on the normal microbial flora of the human gut.¹⁶ Antibiotics can alter the composition of microbial populations (potentially leading to other illnesses) and allow micro-organisms that are naturally resistant to the antibiotic to flourish.

For example, oral administration of antibiotics for treatment of urinary tract infections (UTIs) can cause ecological disturbances in the normal intestinal microflora. Poorly absorbed drugs can reach the colon in active form, suppress susceptible microorganisms and disturb the ecological balance. Suppression of the normal microflora may lead to reduced colonization resistance with subsequent overgrowth of pre-existing, instinctively unsensitive microorganisms, such as organisms like yeasts and *Clostridium difficile*.⁹¹ New colonization by resistant potential pathogens may also occur and may spread within the body or to other patients and cause severe infections. It is therefore important to learn more about the

microecological effects of antibacterial agents administration, especially if given long-term, on the existence and performance of human microflora.⁸⁸⁻⁹⁰

Actually, some normal microflora have an intrinsic resistance to antibiotics; means that normal microflora harbor specific antibiotic resistance genes to various degrees, and even this condition can take place in any individual with no previous history of exposure to factory made antibiotics.¹⁶ Some conditions seem to contribute to the increment of antibiotic-resistant bacteria in feces. One important factor is the repetitive disclosure of the intestinal normal microflora to antibacterial drugs.

The practice of adding certain antibiotics used as feed additives seem to contribute to the development of antibiotic resistance in normal flora bacteria.⁹² For example, the use of avoparcin as a feed additive has demonstrated that an antibiotic which was initially considered "safe" is actually responsible for reduced levels of antibiotic sensitivity in the normal flora enterococci of certain animals fed with the antibiotics avoparcin. This reduced sensitivity possibly will be passed to humans which consuming products, *e.g.*, meat or egg, from these animals.

In the context of domesticated animal being consumed by human, other external conditions like stress due to ambient temperature, condition of crowding, and perhaps caging management that might contribute to the manifestations of antibiotic resistance in certain normal microflora.⁹³ The normal microflora of animals has been widely studied in order to screen antibiotic resistance over four decades, but unfortunately, only a limited number of studies that focus on intestinal microflora as the main focus. Previous studies contribute to the recent understanding of mobile genetics responsible for bacterial antibiotic resistance. Further study needs to be conducted in order to link the number of previous repetitive exposure to the increase in antibiotic resistance of bacterial pathogens.

Bacteria of the normal flora, often disregarded scientifically, should be studied more extensively with the intention of using them as active protection against infectious agents and thereby contributing to the overall reduction of use of antibiotics in both animals and humans.

Another example is the common practice of antibiotics administered orally or intravenously to sterilize and decontaminate the gut in order of patient preparation for intestinal surgery.⁹⁴ Common post-surgical complication is infections that was usually of intestinal origin. So previous decontaminating of the intestines with antibiotics might lower the risk. But unfortunately, there is weakness of the previous statement due to: (1) protective role of normal intestinal microflora and (2) profound disruptive effect due to broad spectrum antibiotic administration. The action of selective gut decontamination actually facilitates 'rebound colonization' with potentially pathogenic organisms, non normal microflora, after surgery procedure.⁹⁵ Rebound colonization can possibly take place with dangerous nosocomial aerobic pathogen.⁹⁶

Treatment with the antibiotics, broad spectrum or not, did diminish intestinal microflora, quantitatively and qualitatively, but actually had no effect on the incidence of expected complication, *e.g.*, such as post-surgical infections, sepsis, prolonged wound, pneumonia or fatal organ failure.⁹⁴⁻⁹⁶ Unfortunately, long term follow up on the practice of gut decontamination among surgical patients did result in higher rates of oxacillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, which actually used to be part of normal flora but then changed in its

characteristics due to long term antibiotics administration. Even though one study reported, dose of antibiotics is not merely affected the composition of normal flora.

Most studies of antibiotics and their impact on normal microflora have been aimed at (1) its direct killing ability and (2) the development of antibiotic resistance.⁹³⁻⁹⁶ However, there are a few studies on the impact antibiotics have on normal microflora. There is also a difference of route of administration (Oral vs intravenous) in influencing composition normal microflora or direct effect to state of colonization resistance. So far to my knowledge, no direct measures on specific strains of normal microflora were done.

Most of the studies regarding normal microflora-antibiotics relationship have been conducted using healthy subjects. One study conducted among healthy volunteers that receive antibiotics revealed that only those respondents that revealed to antibiotics agents were later then found to be inhabited with Gram-negative bacilli.

All of these studies explained how antibiotics consumption may disrupt normal intestinal microflora and may predispose subjects to suffer from disease caused by opportunistic agents.^{16,93} Recovery of the colonization resistance brought on by antibiotic exposure may take weeks to months after the discontinuation of antibiotics. Further studies still need to be conducted, especially on the effect of antibiotics discontinuation to the diversity and the number of normal microflora.

Conclusion

The 'normal microflora' is the term most commonly used when referring to the microbial collection that consistently inhabits the bodies of healthy human or animal, from shortly after birth until death. The normal flora influences the anatomy, physiology, susceptibility to pathogens, and even morbidity of the host. Diets, stress, infection and antibiotics administration are some factors that can affect the existence and performance of normal microflora.

References

1. Baohong W, Mingfei Y, Longxian Lv, Zongxin L, Lanjuan L. The Human Microbiota in Health and Disease, Engineering. 2017;3(1):71-82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ENG.2017.01.008>.
2. Davis CP. Normal Flora. In: Baron S, editor. Medical Microbiology. 4th ed. Galveston (TX): University of Texas Medical Branch at Galveston; 1996. Chapter 6. PMID: 21413249.
3. Dekaboruah E, Suryavanshi M, Chettri D. Human microbiome: an academic update on human body site specific surveillance and its possible role. Arch Microbiol 2020;202: 2147–67. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00203-020-01931-x>
4. Bhardwaj, S. B. . Gut Flora: In the Treatment of Disease. In: Mozsik, G. , editor. The Gut Microbiome - Implications for Human Disease [Internet]. London: IntechOpen; 2016 [cited 2022 Jun 07]. Available from: <https://www.intechopen.com/chapters/52073> doi: 10.5772/65073

5. Wu HJ, Wu E. The role of gut microbiota in immune homeostasis and autoimmunity. *Gut Microbes*. 2012;3(1):4-14. doi:10.4161/gmic.19320
6. Esser D, Lange J, Marinos G, Sieber M, Best L, Prasse D, Bathia J, Rühlemann MC, Boersch K, Jaspers C, Sommer F. Functions of the Microbiota for the Physiology of Animal Metaorganisms. *J Innate Immun*. 2019;11(5):393-404. doi: 10.1159/000495115
7. Salerian AJ. What is the Origin of Human Bacterial Flora? *J Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2020; 8(1), 1-5. DOI: 10.12691/jaem-8-1-1
8. Mueller NT, Bakacs E, Combellick J, Grigoryan Z, Dominguez-Bello MG. The infant microbiome development: mom matters. *Trends Mol Med*. 2015;21(2):109-17. doi:10.1016/j.molmed.2014.12.002
9. Hamady M, Knight R. Microbial community profiling for human microbiome projects: Tools, techniques, and challenges. *Genome Res*. 2009;19(7):1141-1152. doi:10.1101/gr.085464.108
10. Lianmin C, Daoming W, Sanzhima G, Kurilshikov A, Vila AV, Gacesa R, et al. The long-term genetic stability and individual specificity of the human gut microbiome. *Cell*, 2021;184(9): 2302-15.e12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2021.03.024>.
11. Lloyd-Price, J., Abu-Ali, G. & Huttenhower, C. The healthy human microbiome. *Genome Med* 2016; 8: 51. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13073-016-0307-y>
12. Eckburg PB, Bik EM, Bernstein CN. Diversity of the human intestinal microbial flora. *Science*. 2005;308(5728):1635-1638. doi:10.1126/science.1110591
13. Leeming ER, Johnson AJ, Spector TD, Le Roy CI. Effect of Diet on the Gut Microbiota: Rethinking Intervention Duration. *Nutrients*. 2019;11(12):2862. Published 2019 Nov 22. doi:10.3390/nu11122862
14. Zhu F, Tu H, Chen T. The Microbiota-Gut-Brain Axis in Depression: The Potential Pathophysiological Mechanisms and Microbiota Combined Antidepressant Effect. *Nutrients*. 2022 May 16;14(10):2081. doi: 10.3390/nu14102081. PMID: 35631224; PMCID: PMC9144102.
15. Plummer, E.L., Vodstrcil, L.A., Fairley, C.K. et al. Sexual practices have a significant impact on the vaginal microbiota of women who have sex with women. *Sci Rep* 2019;9, 19749. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-55929-7>
16. Ramirez J, Guarner F, Bustos FL, Maruy A, Sdepanian VL, Cohen H. Antibiotics as Major Disruptors of Gut Microbiota. *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology*. 2020;10. DOI=10.3389/fcimb.2020.572912
17. Song SD, Acharya KD, Zhu JE, Deveney CM, Walther-Antonio MR, Marina RS, et al. Daily Vaginal Microbiota Fluctuations Associated with Natural Hormonal Cycle, Contraceptives, Diet, and Exercise. *mSphere*. 2020;5(4). DOI:10.1128/mSphere.00593-20
18. Berg G, Rybakova D, Fischer D. Microbiome definition re-visited: old concepts and new challenges. *Microbiome* 2020; 8, 103. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40168-020-00875-0>

19. The Human Microbiome Project Consortium. Structure, function and diversity of the healthy human microbiome. *Nature*. 2012; 486, 207–14. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11234>
20. Aas JA, Paster BJ, Stokes LN, Olsen I, Dewhirst FE. Defining the normal bacterial flora of the oral cavity. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2005;43(11):5721-5732. doi:10.1128/JCM.43.11.5721-5732.2005
21. Willis JR, Gabaldón T. The Human Oral Microbiome in Health and Disease: From Sequences to Ecosystems. *Microorganisms*. 2020;8(2):308. doi:10.3390/microorganisms8020308
22. Sharma N, Bhatia S, Sodhi AS, Batra N. Oral microbiome and health. *AIMS Microbiol*. 2018;4(1):42-66. doi:10.3934/microbiol.2018.1.42
23. Deo PN, Deshmukh R. Oral microbiome: Unveiling the fundamentals. *J Oral Maxillofac Pathol*. 2019;23(1):122-128. doi:10.4103/jomfp.JOMFP_304_18
24. Dong L, Yin J, Zhao J. Microbial Similarity and Preference for Specific Sites in Healthy Oral Cavity and Esophagus. *Front Microbiol*. 2018;9:1603. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2018.01603
25. Ajayi TA, Cantrell S, Spann A, Garman KS. Barrett's esophagus and esophageal cancer: Links to microbes and the microbiome. *PLoS Pathog*. 2018;14(12):e1007384. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1007384
26. Choi DH, Park J, Choi JK. Association between the microbiomes of tonsil and saliva samples isolated from pediatric patients subjected to tonsillectomy for the treatment of tonsillar hyperplasia. *Exp Mol Med*. 2020; 52; 1564–73. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s12276-020-00487-6>
27. Wang G, Zhang M, Zhao J, Xia Y, Lai PF, Ai L. A Surface Protein From *Lactobacillus plantarum* Increases the Adhesion of *Lactobacillus* Strains to Human Epithelial Cells. *Front Microbiol*. 2018;9:2858. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2018.02858
28. Krishnan K, Chen T, Paster BJ. A practical guide to the oral microbiome and its relation to health and disease. *Oral Dis*. 2017;23(3):276-286. doi:10.1111/odi.12509
29. Ryutaro J, Nishimoto Y, Umezawa K, Yama K, Aita Y, Ichiba Y, et al. Comparison of oral microbiome profiles in stimulated and unstimulated saliva, tongue, and mouth-rinsed water. *Scientific Reports*. 2019;9: 16124. 10.1038/s41598-019-52445-6.
30. Ingala MR, Simmons NB, Wulsch C, Krampis K, Speer KA, Perkins SL. Comparing Microbiome Sampling Methods in a Wild Mammal: Fecal and Intestinal Samples Record Different Signals of Host Ecology, Evolution. *Front Microbiol*. 2018;9:803. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2018.00803
31. Singh RK, Chang HW, Yan D. Influence of diet on the gut microbiome and implications for human health. *J Transl Med*. 2017;15(1):73. Published 2017 Apr 8. doi:10.1186/s12967-017-1175-y

32. Tang Q, Jin G, Wang G, Liu T, Liu X, Wang B, Cao H. Current Sampling Methods for Gut Microbiota: A Call for More Precise Devices. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol*. 2020 Apr 9;10:151. doi: 10.3389/fcimb.2020.00151.
33. Koppen IJN, Bosch AATM, Sanders EAM. The respiratory microbiota during health and disease: a paediatric perspective. *Pneumonia* 6, 90–100 (2015). <https://doi.org/10.15172/pneu.2015.6/656>
34. Dickson RP, Erb-Downward JR, Martinez FJ, Huffnagle GB. The Microbiome and the Respiratory Tract. *Annu Rev Physiol*. 2016;78:481-504. doi:10.1146/annurev-physiol-021115-105238
35. Welp AL, Bomberger JM. Bacterial Community Interactions During Chronic Respiratory Disease. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol*. 2020 May 14;10:213. doi: 10.3389/fcimb.2020.00213. PMID: 32477966; PMCID: PMC7240048
36. Man WH, de Steenhuijsen Pitsers WA, Bogaert D. The microbiota of the respiratory tract: gatekeeper to respiratory health. *Nat Rev Microbiol*. 2017 May;15(5):259-270. doi: 10.1038/nrmicro.2017.14.
37. Elgamal Z, Singh P, Geraghty P. The Upper Airway Microbiota, Environmental Exposures, Inflammation, and Disease. *Medicina (Kaunas)*. 2021;57(8):823. Published 2021 Aug 14. doi:10.3390/medicina57080823
38. Wahyuningsih R, Adawiyah R, Sjam R, Siagian FE. Serious fungal disease incidence and prevalence in Indonesia. *Mycoses*. 2021; 64: 1203– 1212. <https://doi.org/10.1111/myc.13304>
39. Gupta VK, Paul S, Dutta C. Geography, Ethnicity or Subsistence-Specific Variations in Human Microbiome Composition and Diversity. *Front Microbiol*. 2017;8:1162. Published 2017 Jun 23. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2017.01162
40. Man, W., de Steenhuijsen Pitsers, W. & Bogaert, D. The microbiota of the respiratory tract: gatekeeper to respiratory health. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 15, 259–270 (2017). <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro.2017.14>
41. Nardone G, Compare D. The human gastric microbiota: Is it time to rethink the pathogenesis of stomach diseases?. *United European Gastroenterol J*. 2015;3(3):255-60. doi:10.1177/2050640614566846
42. Alexander SM, Retnakumar RJ, Chouhan D, Devi TNB, Dharmaseelan S, Devadas K, Thapa N, Tamang JP, Lamtha SC, Chattopadhyay S. *Helicobacter pylori* in Human Stomach: The Inconsistencies in Clinical Outcomes and the Probable Causes. *Front Microbiol*. 2021;12:713955. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2021.713955.
43. Salama N, Hartung M, Müller A. Life in the human stomach: persistence strategies of the bacterial pathogen *Helicobacter pylori*. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 11, 385–399 (2013). <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro3016>
44. Shin W, Wu A, Massidda MW, Foster C, Thomas N, Lee DW, et al. A Robust Longitudinal Co-culture of Obligate Anaerobic Gut Microbiome With Human Intestinal

Epithelium in an Anoxic-Oxic Interface-on-a-Chip. *Front Bioeng Biotechnol.* 2019;7:13. doi: 10.3389/fbioe.2019.00013.

45. Friedman ES, Bittinger K, Esipova TV, Hou L, Chau L, Jiang J, et al. Microbes vs. chemistry in the origin of the anaerobic gut lumen. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2018 Apr 17;115(16):4170-4175. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1718635115. Epub 2018 Apr 2. Erratum in: *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2022 Jun 14;119(24):e2207826119. PMID: 29610310; PMCID: PMC5910840.
46. Thursby E, Juge N. Introduction to the human gut microbiota. *Biochem J.* 2017;474(11):1823-36. doi:10.1042/BCJ20160510
47. Franks AH, Harmsen HJ, Raangs GC, Jansen GJ, Schut F, Welling GW. Variations of bacterial populations in human feces measured by fluorescent in situ hybridization with group-specific 16S rRNA-targeted oligonucleotide probes. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 1998;64(9):3336-3345. doi:10.1128/AEM.64.9.3336-3345.1998
48. Chen X, Lu Y, Chen T, Li R. The Female Vaginal Microbiome in Health and Bacterial Vaginosis. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol.* 2021;11:631972. Published 2021 Apr 7. doi:10.3389/fcimb.2021.631972
49. Chee, W.J.Y., Chew, S.Y. & Than, L.T.L. Vaginal microbiota and the potential of *Lactobacillus* derivatives in maintaining vaginal health. *Microb Cell Fact* 2020;19: 203. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12934-020-01464-4>
50. Tachedjian, G., O'Hanlon, D.E. & Ravel, J. The implausible "in vivo" role of hydrogen peroxide as an antimicrobial factor produced by vaginal microbiota. *Microbiome.* 2018; 6: 29. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40168-018-0418-3>
51. Choi S-I, Won G, Kim Y, Kang C-H, Kim G-H. Lactobacilli Strain Mixture Alleviates Bacterial Vaginosis through Antibacterial and Antagonistic Activity in *Gardnerella vaginalis*-Infected C57BL/6 Mice. *Microorganisms.* 2022; 10(2):471. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms10020471>
52. Seib KL, Wu HJ, Kidd SP, et al. Defenses against oxidative stress in *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*: a system tailored for a challenging environment. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews : MMBR.* 2006 Jun;70(2):344-361. DOI: 10.1128/mmbr.00044-05. PMID: 16760307; PMCID: PMC1489540.
53. Alhabardi SM, Edris S, Bahieldin A, Al-Hindi RR. The composition and stability of the vaginal microbiome of healthy women. *J Pak Med Assoc.* 2021 Aug;71(8):2045-2051. doi: 10.47391/JPMA.1465. PMID: 34418027.
54. Auremma RS, Sciarati R, Del Vecchio G, et al. The Vaginal Microbiome: A Long Urogenital Colonization Throughout Woman Life. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol.* 2021;11:686167. Published 2021 Jul 6. doi:10.3389/fcimb.2021.686167
55. Santiago GL, Cools P, Verstraelen H, et al. Longitudinal study of the dynamics of vaginal microflora during two consecutive menstrual cycles. *PLoS One.* 2011;6(11):e28180. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0028180

56. Amabebe E, Anumba DOC. The Vaginal Microenvironment: The Physiologic Role of Lactobacilli. *Front Med (Lausanne)*. 2018;5:181. Published 2018 Jun 13. doi:10.3389/fmed.2018.00181
57. Miller EA, Beasley DE, Dunn RR, Archie EA. Lactobacilli Dominance and Vaginal pH: Why Is the Human Vaginal Microbiome Unique?. *Front Microbiol*. 2016;7:1936. Published 2016 Dec 8. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2016.01936
58. Dominguez-Bello MG, Costello EK, Contreras M, Magris M, Hidalgo G, Fierer N, Knight R. Delivery mode shapes the acquisition and structure of the initial microbiota across multiple body habitats in newborns. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2010 Jun 29;107(26):11971-5. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1002601107.
59. Dong XD, Li XR, Luan JJ, et al. Bacterial communities in neonatal feces are similar to mothers' placentae. *Can J Infect Dis Med Microbiol*. 2015;26(2):90-94. doi:10.1155/2015/737294
60. Freitas AC, Chaban B, Bocking A, et al. The vaginal microbiome of pregnant women is less rich and diverse, with lower prevalence of Mollicutes, compared to non-pregnant women. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7(1):9212. doi:10.1038/s41598-017-07790-9F
61. Shaterian N, Abdi F, Ghavidel N, Alidost F. Role of cesarean section in the development of neonatal gut microbiota: A systematic review. *Open Med (Wars)*. 2021;16(1):624-639. doi:10.1515/med-2021-0270
62. Ferretti P, Pasolli E, Tett A, et al. Mother-to-Infant Microbial Transmission from Different Body Sites Shapes the Developing Infant Gut Microbiome. *Cell Host Microbe*. 2018;24(1):133-145.e5. doi:10.1016/j.chom.2018.06.005
63. Shibagaki N, Suda W, Clavaud C, Bastien P, Takayasu L, Iioka E, Kurokawa R, Yamashita N, Hattori Y, Shindo C, Breton L, Hattori M. Aging-related changes in the diversity of women's skin microbiomes associated with oral bacteria. *Sci Rep*. 2017 Sep 5;7(1):10567. doi: 10.1038/s41598-017-10834-9. PMID: 28874721; PMCID: PMC5585242.
64. Maffei VJ, Kim S, Blanchard IV E, , Luo M, Jazwinski SM, Taylor CM, et al. Biological Aging and the Human Gut Microbiota, *The Journals of Gerontology* 2017;72(1) Series A: 1474–82, <https://doi.org/10.1093/gerona/glx042>
65. Kim M, Park T, Yun JI, Lim HW, Han NR, Lee ST. Investigation of Age-Related Changes in the Skin Microbiota of Korean Women. *Microorganisms*. 2020;8(10):1581. doi:10.3390/microorganisms8101581
66. Lehtimäki J, Karkman A, Laatikainen T, et al. Patterns in the skin microbiota differ in children and teenagers between rural and urban environments. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7:45651. Published 2017 Mar 31. doi:10.1038/srep45651
67. Badal VD, Vaccariello ED, Murray ER. The Gut Microbiome, Aging, and Longevity: A Systematic Review. *Nutrients*. 2020;12(12):3759. doi:10.3390/nu12123759

68. Benno Y, Endo K, Mizutani T, Namba Y, Komori T, Mitsuoka T. Comparison of fecal microflora of elderly persons in rural and urban areas of Japan. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 1989;55(5):1100-1105. doi:10.1128/aem.55.5.1100-1105.1989
69. Lozupone CA, Stombaugh JI, Gordon JI, Jansson JK, Knight R. Diversity, stability and resilience of the human gut microbiota. *Nature.* 2012;489(7415):220-230. doi:10.1038/nature11550
70. Tomova A, Bukovsky I, Rembert E. The Effects of Vegetarian and Vegan Diets on Gut Microbiota. *Front Nutr.* 2019;6:47. Published 2019 Apr 17. doi:10.3389/fnut.2019.00047
71. De Filippo C, Cavalieri D, Di Paola M, Ramazzotti M, Poullet JB, Massart S, 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 USA.*;107(33):14691-6. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1005963107.
72. Gehrig JL, Venkatesh S, Chang HW, Hibberd MC, Kung VL, Cheng J, et al. Effects of microbiota-directed foods in gnotobiotic animals and undernourished children. *Science.* 2019 Jul 12;365(6449):eaau4732. doi: 10.1126/science.aau4732. PMID: 31296738; PMCID: PMC6683325.
73. Führen J, Schwalbe M, Boekhorst J, Rösch C, Schols HA, Kleerebezem M. Dietary calcium phosphate strongly impacts gut microbiome changes elicited by inulin and galacto-oligosaccharides consumption. *Microbiome.* 2021;9(1):218. doi:10.1186/s40168-021-01148-0
74. Bovee-Oudenhoven IM, ten Bruggencate SJ, Lettink-Wissink ML, van der Meer R. Dietary fructo-oligosaccharides and lactulose inhibit intestinal colonisation but stimulate translocation of salmonella in rats. *Gut.* 2003;52(11):1572-1578. doi:10.1136/gut.52.11.1572
75. Vacca M, Raspini B, Calabrese FM. The establishment of the gut microbiota in 1-year-aged infants: from birth to family food. *Eur J Nutr* 2022;. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00394-022-02822-1>
76. Ma J, Li Z, Zhang W, et al. Comparison of gut microbiota in exclusively breast-fed and formula-fed babies: a study of 91 term infants. *Sci Rep.* 2020;10(1):15792. Published 2020 Sep 25. doi:10.1038/s41598-020-72635-x
77. Martin CR, Ling PR, Blackburn GL. Review of Infant Feeding: Key Features of Breast Milk and Infant Formula. *Nutrients.* 2016;8(5):279. doi:10.3390/nu8050279
78. Wang Z, Neupane A, Vo R, White J, Wang X, Marzano SL. Comparing Gut Microbiome in Mothers' Own Breast Milk- and Formula-Fed Moderate-Late Preterm Infants. *Front Microbiol.* 2020;11:891. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2020.00891
79. Rahim MA, Saeed F, Khalid W, Hussain M, Anjum FM. Functional and nutraceutical properties of fructo-oligosaccharides derivatives: a review. *International Journal of Food Properties*, 2021;24: 1588 - 1602.

80. Mao B, Gu J, Li D. Effects of Different Doses of Fructooligosaccharides (FOS) on the Composition of Mice Fecal Microbiota, Especially the Bifidobacterium Composition. *Nutrients*. 2018;10(8):1105. doi:10.3390/nu10081105
81. Pokusaeva K, Fitzgerald GF, van Sinderen D. Carbohydrate metabolism in Bifidobacteria. *Genes Nutr*. 2011;6(3):285-306. doi:10.1007/s12263-010-0206-6
82. May T, Mackie RI, Fahey GC Jr, Cremin JC, Garleb KA. Effect of fiber source on short-chain fatty acid production and on the growth and toxin production by *Clostridium difficile*. *Scand J Gastroenterol*. 1994 Oct;29(10):916-22. doi:10.3109/00365529409094863. PMID: 7839098.
83. Smith AH, Mackie RI. Effect of condensed tannins on bacterial diversity and metabolic activity in the rat gastrointestinal tract. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2004;70(2):1104-1115. doi:10.1128/AEM.70.2.1104-1115.2004
84. Mumcuoglu I. Interactions between Parasites and Human Microbiota. *European Journal of Therapeutics*. 2019;25: 6-11. 10.5152/EurJTher.2019.18080.
85. Maryanti E, Lesmana SD, Mandela H. Deteksi Protozoa Usus Oportunistik pada Penderita Diare Anak di Puskesmas Rawat Inap Pekanbaru- Jurnal Ilmu Kedokteran (Journal of Medical Science), 2017; 9(1):22-6
86. Muadica AS, Balasegaram S, Beebejaun K, Köster PC, Bailo B, Hernández-de-Mingo M, Dashti A, Dacal E, Saugar JM, Fuentes I, Carmena D. Risk associations for intestinal parasites in symptomatic and asymptomatic school children in central Mozambique. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2021;27(4):624-629. doi:10.1016/j.cmi.2020.05.031.
87. Burgess SL, Gilchrist CA, Lynn TC, Petri WA Jr. Parasitic Protozoa and Interactions with the Host Intestinal Microbiota. *Infect Immun*. 2017;85(8):e00101-17. doi:10.1128/IAI.00101-17.
88. Madison A, Kiecolt-Glaser JK. Stress, depression, diet, and the gut microbiota: human-bacteria interactions at the core of psychoneuroimmunology and nutrition. *Curr Opin Behav Sci*. 2019;28:105-110. doi:10.1016/j.cobeha.2019.01.011
89. Galland L. The gut microbiome and the brain. *J Med Food*. 2014;17(12):1261-1272. doi:10.1089/jmf.2014.7000
90. Clapp M, Aurora N, Herrera L, Bhatia M, Wilen E, Wakefield S. Gut microbiota's effect on mental health: The gut-brain axis. *Clin Pract*. 2017;7(4):987. Published 2017 Sep 15. doi:10.4081/cp.2017.987
91. Edlund C, Nord CE. Effect on the human normal microflora of oral antibiotics for treatment of urinary tract infections. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2000;46 (S1):41-8; discussion 63-5. PMID: 11051623.
92. Chattopadhyay MK. Use of antibiotics as feed additives: a burning question. *Front Microbiol*. 2014;5:334. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2014.00334

93. Manyi-Loh C, Mamphweli S, Meyer E, Okoh A. Antibiotic Use in Agriculture and Its Consequential Resistance in Environmental Sources: Potential Public Health Implications. *Molecules*. 2018;23(4):795. Published 2018 Mar 30. doi:10.3390/molecules23040795
94. Schardey J, von Ahnen T, Schardey E, et al. Antibiotic Bowel Decontamination in Gastrointestinal Surgery-A Single-Center 20 Years' Experience. *Front Surg*. 2022;9:874223. doi:10.3389/fsurg.2022.874223
95. Oostdijk EA, de Smet AM, Blok HE, Thieme Groen ES, van Asselt GJ, Benus RF. Ecological effects of selective decontamination on resistant gram-negative bacterial colonization. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2010 Mar 1;181(5):452-7. doi: 10.1164/rccm.200908-1210OC. Epub 2009 Dec 3. PMID: 19965807.
96. Choy A, Freedberg DE. Impact of microbiome-based interventions on gastrointestinal pathogen colonization in the intensive care unit. *Therap Adv Gastroenterol*. 2020;13:1756284820939447. Published 2020 Jul 17. doi:10.1177/1756284820939447

MICROBIAL NORMAL FLORA: ITS EXISTENCE AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO HOMEOSTASIS

ORIGINALITY REPORT

8%

SIMILARITY INDEX

8%

INTERNET SOURCES

12%

PUBLICATIONS

0%

STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1

docplayer.net

Internet Source

8%

Exclude quotes On

Exclude bibliography On

Exclude matches < 3%