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> Second Cycle Degree (MSc) in Biotechnologies for Food Science

Exploring Long-Term Dietary Diversity in Irish Patients with Inflammatory Bowel Disease and Its Relationship with Disease Activity and Treatment Response

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ABSTRACT

Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD) is a chronic inflammatory condition that primarily acts on the digestive system causing phases of discomfort and flare-ups. Its two main forms include Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC). While diet is known to influence disease progression, the impact of specific dietary patterns and components on treatment outcomes is not yet understood.

Therefore, the aim of the study is to investigate the long-term eating habits of Irish patients with IBD and evaluate the possible associations between dietary choices, disease activity, and response to advanced therapy.

Diet was assessed either by analyzing the intake of specific food groups and components or by summarizing dietary patterns into scores, such as the Healthy Food Diversity Index (HFD), Healthy Eating Index (HEI), Empirical Dietary Inflammatory Index (EDII), and a simple dietary diversity score. The intention was the identification of potential associations between dietary patterns, disease activity and therapy response. In order to explore these associations statistical analyses were used.

A total of 92 patients with IBD, 37 UC and 55 CD cases, were assessed at three timepoints: baseline, 2 weeks after the beginning of biologic treatment and 6 weeks after treatment initiation. Disease activity was measured via the Harvey-Bradshaw Index (HBI) for CD and the Simple Clinical Colitis Activity Index (SCCAI) for UC. A decrease in HBI and SCCAI scores of more than 3 points at the third timepoit determined the treatment response. Long-term dietary habits were captured with a food frequency questionnaire (FFQ).

Diet is pivotal in managing IBD, underlining the possibility for dietary choices to enhance medical treatments and improve the outcomes for the patients.

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INTRODUCTION

UNDERSTANDING INFLAMMATORY BOWEL DISEASE: PREVALENCE, IMPACT, AND CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD) includes a variety of chronic, non-infectious inflammatory disorders affecting mainly the intestinal tract, usually characterized by intermittent discomfort and flare-ups. Ulcerative Colitis (UC) and Crohn's Disease (CD) are the two most common types of IBD^{1,2}. UC was first documented in 1859 by Wilks³, and usually, it manifests in the colon. Its typical features, besides from blood in the stool, include, abdominal pain, mucus in stools, and weight loss. Usually, the inflammation is superficial and it can be classified according to its extent: when the inflammation is confined to the rectum it is called "proctitis", inflammation limited to the descending colon is termed "left-sided colitis", while inflammation extending from the rectum to the hepatic flexure is classified as "pancolitis" 4 . CD was described by Dalziel in 1913⁵, but was later named after Dr. Crohn, who initially reported it⁶. This IBD subtype can affect any part of the gastrointestinal tract, but it most commonly occurs in the terminal ileum. It is commonly presented by abdominal pain, diarrhea and weight loss. The inflammation is focal, segmental and transmural, and frequent complications may be fissures, fistulas, abscesses, and intestinal obstruction⁴. It is classified as "ileal CD" or "colonic CD" when it manifests in the ileulm and the colon respectively, while when it is displayed in a combination of those locations it is classified as "ileocolonic CD"⁷. The etiology of IBD is still substantially unknown, however it is likely to be multifactorial, involving complex interaction between the genetic, environmental or microbial factors and the immune responses⁸.

IBD has emerged as a pubblic health challenge, effecting approximately 6.8 milion people worldwide⁹. North America and Europe report the highest incidence and prevalence rates of IBD¹⁰. However it has emerged in newly industrialised countries and it has developed into a global disease with rising prevalence in every continent $11,12$. Although IBD can occur at any age, it most commonly appears in early adulthood and peaking during the second to fourth decades, with some keeping down in older adults 13 .

Studies show that individuals with IBD, both adults and children, experience significantly poorer quality of life compared to healthy individuals. A decrease in life quality may be associated with disruption to usual life activities, given the impact of the disease on education, employability, and social and interpersonal functioning, as well as stigma and disability¹⁴. IBD patients exhibit significantly higher rates of anxiety, depression, and posttraumatic stress disorder compared to the general population. Thus a growing evidence for the correlation between IBD disease activity and these psychiatric comorbidities was shown^{15–17}. Additionally, the economic burden of IBD is high. In Europe there is an annual direct cost that is estimated to be around 3.500€ and 2.000€ for patient suffering from CD and UC, respectively. This is mostly due to medication expenses because of biologic therapies 18 .

In light of the considerable psychosocial and economic burdens of IBD, an increasing interest has been pointed out regarding the understanding of the contribution of biological factors to the onset and the course of the disease, especially those linked to the gut microbiota. An imbalance in microbial homeostasis facilitates the invasion and colonization of opportunistic pathogens in the gut, contributing to IBD development¹⁹. The term "microbiota" refers to living microorganisms that coexist in a shared environment. The human microbiota includes 10-100 trillion microorganisms within and on the body. It includes bacteria, virus, protozoa, and fungi, with bacteria being the most abundant. The majority of the bacteria belong to the phyla *Firmicutes*, *Bacteroides*, *Proteus*, and *Ac0nomycetes*, whereas *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroides* are dominant in the gut flora of a healthy host. Indeed, the most densely populated microbial environment is the colon, thanks to its large surface area and nutrient availability^{20–24}. Microbial communities play a pivotal role in host health and in maintaining various aspect of host homeostasis, including nutrition, immune function, metabolism, and defense against pathogens²⁵. These communities vary within the regions of the gastrointestinal tract, and they can change in response to disease, or environmental modification, leading to interindividual variation^{26,27}. Gut microbiota can ferment carbohydrates and indigestible oligosaccharides into short chain fatty acids (SCFAs), such as butyrate, propionate, and acetate, which provide energy for the intestinal epithelium. Beneficial bacteria can interact with host's immune cells and employ immunosuppressive effects, meanwhile certain harmful bacteria could promote intestinal damage via the

induction of inflammatory cytokines by the interaction between immune cells and their metabolites²⁸.

IBD patients exhibit distinct gut microbiota compared to healthy individuals. This disease is linked to reduced microbial diversity, and an imbalance in its composition²⁹. A decrease in beneficial bacteria like *Clostridium*, *Bacteroides*, *Su6erella*, *Roseburia*, *Bifidobacterium*, and *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* is typically involved, along with an increase in possibly harmful bacteria, including *Proteobacteria*, *Veillonellaceae*, *Pasteurellaceae*, *Fusobacterium*, and *Ruminococcus gnavus 30,31*.

THE ROLE OF DIET IN IBD MANAGEMENT: IMPACT, APPROACHES, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Diet is widely recognized as a pivotal factor in the development and management of $IBD³²$. Western lifestyle is promoting an increase in this chronic disease, and researchers predict its prevalence to rise in the coming years³³. The modern Western diet, marked by increased caloric intake, low dietary fiber, and a shift from nutrient-rich foods to refined and highly processed alternatives, is a major contributor $34-36$. In contrast, Mediterranean societies report lower rates of diet-associated complications. The common diet in these areas is distinguished by high intake of fiber from vegetables, fruits and nuts rather than highly processed meats and industrialised goods $37,38$. Dietary fiber from vegetables, fruits, and cereals is a key nutrient that provides energy to gut cells and supports beneficial microbiota³². Fermentation of fiber by gut microbiota produces SCFAs such as acetate, propionate, and butyrate, which are crucial for metabolic balance, inflammatory responses, and maintaining gut barrier integrity. SCFAs exert their effect in combination with immune cells, they help maintain gut epithelium health, which is vital for an appropriately regulated relationship between the gut and the immune system³⁹. Diets from industrialized countries disrupt this balance by lowering these beneficial microbiota and SCFAs production, possibly leading to gut permeability, inflammation, and autoimmune disorders. Fiber can be classified as soluble or insoluble, both of which benefit gut health: soluble fiber is easily fermented by gut bacteria, enhancing SCFAs production, whereas insoluble fiber improves digestion through the regulation of bowel movements and the alleviation from constipation⁴⁰. The

progression from a pre-industrial dietary pattern to a western dietary pattern is associated with a higher incidence of $IBD⁴¹$. A characteristic of western diet includes low vitamin D intake, which can be obtain from food, supplements, or sun exposure. It was shown that IBD patients with a correction in vitamin D were less likely to require surgery, in comparison to those who remained vitamin D deficient^{42,43}. Other effects of western diet include altered fat composition, with increased saturated fat, decreased monounsaturated fat, and imbalanced polyunsaturated fatty acids. High fat intake can alter gut microbiota composition, potentially leading to intestinal barrier dysfunction⁴⁴. Among long-chain fatty acids, saturated, trans, and omega-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids possess pro-inflammatory properties, whereas oleic acid and omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids exert anti-inflammatory effects⁴⁵. It was also shown that while high sodium intake may promote inflammation, dietary potassium has the opposite effect. Potassium seems to support immune tolerance and it might reduce CD risk⁴⁶. Overall, the multifactorial components of the diet show plausible mechanisms that underscore the contribution of IBD development 41 .

As previously mentioned, the Mediterranean diet may be helpful in the management of IBD because it involves a large intake of anti-inflammatory and nutrient-rich foods. The Mediterranean diet is widely regarded as the "gold standard" for health promotion, emphasizing unprocessed whole-plant foods, olive oil, dairy, moderate consumption of poultry and fish, and minimal red meat $47-49$. A meta-analysis showed that a high consumption of fruits and vegetables could reduce the risk in both CD and UC 50 . A high score on Mediterranean diet was recently found to be inversely associated with the risk and progression of IBD⁵¹. This diet was reported to lower calprotectin levels and modulate instestinal inflammation in IBD patients after pouch surgery⁵², as well as a general reduction of intestinal permeability⁵³. Wine and extra virgin olive oil could be consider as the main antioxidant ingredients in the Mediterranean diet. The consumption of moderate doses of wine could protect against dextran sodium sulphate-induced colitis in animal models, while extra virgin olive oil could reduce the inflammatory cascade because of its potential for antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and immunomodulatory activities $54-56$.

Moreover, the semivegetarian diet, described as largely plant-based with daily consumption of brown rice, miso soup, yogurt, vegetables, fruits, legumes, and potatoes with consumption of fish once a week or meat only once every 2 weeks, has been found to have a

positive influence on the progression of IBD as well. In a trial conducted by Chiba *et al.* the purpose was to encourage the consumption of dietary fiber with an aim to increase the presence of beneficial gut bacteria, concluding that this type of diet was highly effective in preventing relapse in CD^{57} . Undeniably, the semivegetarian diet follow dietary patterns that are usually rich in dietary fiber, but low in protein. It was shown how the intake of vegetables and fruits seemed to reduce the risk of both CD and UC, and that this type of diet could assist as a protective factor against IBD^{50,58}. Even if a vegetarian or semi vegetarian lifestyle may be beneficial, it could also lead to nutritional deficiencies and lower blood pressure if not carefully design in order to provide adequate nutrition^{59,60}.

In addition, strong evidence supports the efficacy of the low FODMAP diet in alleviating functional gastrointestinal symptoms^{61,62}. FODMAP stands for Fermentable Oligosaccharide, Disaccharide, Monosaccharide, and Polyol, which are highly fermentable, but poorly absorbed carbohydrates and polyols. An increase in intestinal permeability, which was linked to the development of IBD, was casued by the rapid fermentation and passing of these subtances⁶³. The low FODMAP diet consistis of eliminating food high in FODMAPs which can be fermated by the gut microbiota, resulting in gas, bloating, abdominal pain and changes in bowel habits. Patients are supervised by a dietitian, and they need to be strict with this elimination process for the first 4 to 6 weeks, after which they can gradually reintroduce foods high in fermentable carbohydrates to determine individual tolerance to specific FODMAP $S^{64,65}$. This dietary approach has been proven to improve symptoms of irritable bowel syndrome in patients with IBD, to relieve gastrointestinal symptons in quiescent IBD patients, and in most IBD patients^{66–69}. The use of the low FODMAP diet needs to be controlled and supervised by experts for different reasons: patients with IBD are often nutritionally compromised, this diet could affect food related quality of life, taking into consideration the high rates of anxiety and depression in IBD patients, and it could potentially reduce beneficial gut bacteria^{66,70–72}. However current studies are focused on symptom relief, indeed more robust reaserch are needed.

Furthermore, exclusive enteral nutrition (EEN) is characterized by the replacement of all food with a nutritional supplement, a formula, usually for 6 to 8 weeks. It has also been shown to have an effect on the progression of IBD, indeed EEN is now consider as a first-line therapy in paediatric patients with CD^{73} . It has been proven to be more effective in

paediatric patients that suffer from CD, with comparable effects on clinical disease activity, and higher effects in achieving mucosal remission and in reducing endoscopic and histologic scores in comparison to corticosteroids^{74,75}. The situation seems to be different in adults because lower rates of efficacy have been observed, the main reason is thought to be a poor level of adherence^{76,77}. Interestingly, the effects of formula composition didn't shown differences in efficacy, although most formulas are polymeric, and lactose and gluten-free, and lack fiber^{78,79}.

Finally, the Crohn's Disease Exclusion Diet (CDED) involves the consumption of a liquid formula as well as whole foods that includes fruits, vegetables, meats, and both simple and complex carbohydrates, but it eliminates some animal fats, certain types of meats, and it reduces exposure to food additives like emulsifiers and maltodextrins, as these dietary components can disrupt the intestinal mucus layer or alter the gut microbiota⁸⁰. It was shown that CDED was effective in the induction of a rapid clinical response and remission in pediatric patients with active CD, as well as remission in adults with mild to moderate biologic naïve $CD^{81,82}$.

The Mediterranean, semivegetarian, low FODMAP, EEN, and CDED diets have shown promising results in either symptom alleviation or induction of remission in IBD, among other dietary approaches. Each one of these diets is characterized by certain considerations such as nutritional adequacy, impacts on quality of life, and their effects on gut microbiota. Dietary interventions should be tailored to the individual, considering nutritional needs and varying responses in IBD patients. Professional guidance is essential to ensure safe and effective implementation. In 2020 the International Organization for the Study of Inflammatory Bowel Diseases published some dietary recommendations which were developed according to the disease. A general advice for both UC and CD would be to incorporate moderate quantities of all macronutrients and to increase nutrients dense food, with high-fiber fruits and vegetables. Patients with IBD are also invited to limit emulsifiers, thickeners, processed foods, trans fats, and unpasteurised dairy. Delving into the details patients with CD are encouraged to restrict the intake of saturated fats, and for those with stricturing disease, to restrict insoluble fiber intake. Meanwhile, patients with UC are advised to restrict the consumption of red meat and myristic acid, like palm and coconut oils, and to increase n-3 fatty acids by consuming fish rather than supplements 83 .

The recommended food pyramid for patients with IBD showed in *Figure 1* encourages a balanced, mindful approach to nutrition by highlighting plant-based consumption, such as fruits, vegetables, and legumes. It promotes a reduction in the intake of red and processed meat, additives, and unhealthy fats, with increased homemade meals to better control ingredients and food quality. Furthermore, it supports the addition of healthy fats and proteins in moderation to support general dietary well-being⁴¹.

Figure 1: Recommended food pyramid for patients with IBD. Optimal intake and amount of dietary food groups for individuals with IBD 41.

METHODS FOR DIETARY ASSESSMENT AND THE USE OF FOOD SCORES IN RESEARCH

Dietary assessment is essential to understand the many complex relationships of diet, health, and disease, including in the context of IBD, in order to enable evidence-based practices that may improve overall well-being. Different method to assess diet exists, and usually in order to select a dietary assessment tool that is appropriate to a research question is a matter of compromise between their advantages and disadvantages. Current methods are available in various formats, such as paper or electronic, indeed they can be distinguished based on technology: conventional methods for dietary data collection, which include food records, food frequency questionnaires, 24-hour dietary recalls, and food records, and dietary assessment tool based on innovative technologies like photo-based dietary assesement tool and mobile apps⁸⁴.

Food Frequency Questionnaires (FFQ) are questionnaires in which the participant is presented with a list of foods and is required to say how often each is eaten in broad terms (i.e. x times per day/per week/per month, etc.). The foods that characterize the FFQ are usually chosen for the specific purposes of a study and may or may not assess total diet. These questionnaires may be either interviewer- or self-administered, where the selfadministered ones require more careful preparation and pre-testing. FFQ can have some limitations, indeed they are not advisable in studies with small numbers of subjects, in studies where absolute intakes are required, and using an FFQ developed for one country in another country is not reccommended unless dietary habits are very similar⁸⁵.

The 24-hour dietary recall (24hDR) is a subjective, retrospective method that preferably requires an interview, but it can also be self-administered using computer programmes. This method consists in precisely recalling, describing, and quantifying the consumption of foods and beverages in the 24 hour before the moment of the assessement. The information need to be as precise as possible, describing the type of food, its characteristics, the quantity consumed, the preparation methods, the condiments, ect. This methods requires various instruments for reference, like household measures, drawings, and photographic models. In order to establish the usual intake a mimimum of 2 to 5 24hDRs are needed, and to capture seasonal variation it would be optimal to administered it in distinct times of the year. The 24-

hour dietary recall methods can have some limitations because it is based on memory, it depends on the interviewer ability to describe ingredients, food preparation, and dishes, and usually it tends to underestimate the dietary intake of the patient⁸⁶.

Another dietary assessment method could be food diaries, where patients are invited to record all food and beverages that they consume over three-day period, usually two working days and one weekend day. This method could be burdensome for both participants and researchers, inteed it is often time consuming, labour intensive, and it relies on participant literacy which may lead to underreporting 87 .

The use of technology may be an interactive way for the patients to provided their dietary intakes, and it could be less time consuming as well. Photo-based dietary assesement tools require patients to take picture of their meal before and after eating in order to estimate portion sizes and food types. Nutrition applications for mobile devices allow real time recording for patients. Both these methods are shown to be valid, user-friendly, and they can assist with self-monitoring, possibly leading to a more realistic assessment^{88,89}.

In summary, each dietary assessment method has its strengths and limitations, hence, the choice of tool represents a trade-off between practicality, accuracy, and relevance for the research objectives. For the analysis conducted in this thesis FFQ were chosen as dietary assessment tool.

In order to evaluate diet quality of patients multiple dietary scores could be take into consideration. Different scores may be able to highlight various aspects, such as the general quality of the diet, nutrient diversity, or the possible inflammatory potential of the diet. They are typically used for the estimation of how well an individual food consumption aligns with recognised healthy dietary patterns, that could be presented on specific dietary guidelines. Some examples of dietary scores, among many others, include the Healthy Food Diversity (HFD) index, the Healthy Eating Index (HEI), and the Empirical Dietary Inflammatory Index (EDII), where they measure the diet adherence to the German dietary guidelines, the diet adherence to the American dietary guidelines, and the inflammatory potential of a diet based on foods that promote or reduce inflammation, respectively^{90–93}. In reaserch, dietary scores might be valuable since they can provide a standardized way to assess diet quality, leading to comparison of diet quality across populations and to understanding possible

connection between diet and health outcomes⁹⁴. A more detailed description of these dietary scores is presented in the methods, since they are used to assess diet quality of the patients that are taken into consideration in this thesis.

AIM OF THE THESIS

The goal of this study is the investigation of dietary habits in Irish patients that have been diagnosed with IBD, as well as the examination of how these habits may impact disease management and treatment outcomes. Identifying common dietary patterns is crucial to understanding the impact of specific foods, nutrients, and overall dietary approaches on disease activity and patient response to treatment. Additionally, the study seeks to determine the most accurate tool for assessing diet quality in IBD patients by comparing various dietary scoring methods.

METHODS

STUDY POPULATION, SAMPLE AND DATA COLLECTION

All patients had well-established diagnoses by conventional and investigative criteria⁹⁵. The analysis presented in this thesis was conducted on the first 100 patients enrolled in an ongoing clinical study, AUGMENT. Of these, eight participants were excluded: four due to lack of consent, three because of substantial missing data in their food frequency questionnaires (FFQ), and one due to an unclassified diagnosis. Consequently, a total of 92 patients, including 55 with Crohn's disease (CD) and 37 with ulcerative colitis (UC), were recruited from Cork University Hospital (CUH) and Mercy University Hospital (MUH) (see *Table 1* for patients' characteristics).

The study was structured around three time points: baseline $(V1)$ and two follow-up visits (V2 and V3). After enrollment and screening at V1, patients began biologic treatment, with a flexible start time averaging approximately 5 weeks post-V1. Biologics included TNF-alpha blockers (i.e., adalimumab and infliximab), integrin blockers (i.e., vedolizumab), IL-12 and IL-23 blockers (i.e., risankizumab and ustekinumab), S1P receptor modulators (i.e., ozanimodand), and JAK inhibitors (i.e., tofacitinib and upadacitinib), in accordance with standard treatment protocols. V2 occurred two weeks after treatment initiation, followed by V3 six weeks later. Biological samples collected at V1 included blood, stool, and biopsy tissue; V2 involved the collection of a stool sample, while V3 included both stool and blood samples (*Figure 2*).

AUGMENT

Figure 2: Study design AUGMENT.

Blood samples were collected to measure C-reactive protein (CRP) and albumin levels, while fecal samples were collected for fecal calprotectin (FCAL) measurement. Biopsies were obtained through colonoscopy to assess tissue from both inflamed and non-inflamed sites in the lower and upper gastrointestinal (GI) tract, including sections from the terminal ileum, caecum, ascending colon, transverse colon, descending colon, sigmoid colon, and rectum.

Assessment of clinical activity occurred at V1 and at V3. Different criteria were applied to determine disease activity, including clinical assessment scores (CAS) and biomarkers such as fecal calprotectin (FCAL), C-reactive protein (CRP), albumin, and endoscopic scores. CAS measures included the Harvey-Bradshaw Index (HBI) for CD and the Simple Clinical Coli7s Activity Index (SCCAI) for UC; disease was considered active with an HBI score of \geq 5 or an SCCAI score of ≥3, and inactive with an HBI <5 or SCCAI ≤2. Disease severity was further categorized as remission (HBI <5 or SCCAI ≤2), mild (HBI >5 <7 or SCCAI >3 <5), moderate (HBI >8 <16 or SCCAI >6 <11), and severe (HBI >16 or SCCAI >12)⁹⁶⁻⁹⁹. Active disease was defined by a fecal calprotectin (FCAL) level of \geq 250 μg/g, in line with established cutoff values^{100,101}. Inactive disease was defined by CRP levels of ≤1 mg/dl, while elevated CRP levels ranged from >1 to \leq 5 mg/dl, and active disease was indicated by CRP levels >5 mg/dl¹⁰². For albumin, levels <35 g/L classified disease activity as active, whereas levels \geq 35 g/L indicated inactive disease¹⁰³. Endoscopic disease activity was assessed during V1 and it was evaluated using the Mayo Endoscopic Score (MES) for UC and the Simple Endoscopic

Score for Crohn's Disease (SES-CD) for CD. MES or SES-CD scores <3 indicated inactive disease, while scores ≥3 indicated active disease. Endoscopic severity was categorized as remission (MES <3 or SES-CD <3), mild (MES >3 <5 or SES-CD >3 <6), moderate (MES >6 <10 or SES-CD >7 <15), and severe (MES >10 or SES-CD >16)^{104,105}.

During V1 long-term dietary habits were captured via a FFQ encompassing 149 food items. The FFQ included frequency options ranging from "never" to "6+ per day" (i.e. never, less than once per month, once per month, once per week, twice per week, 5 per week, once a day, 2 per day, 4 per day, $6+$ per day), and portion sizes (i.e. medium serving, a cupful, size deck of cards, and teaspoon), enabling the identification of dietary patterns¹⁰⁶. These were subsequently summarised into 21 broader food categories as well as into four validated dietary assessment scores: the Healthy Food Diversity (HFD) Index⁹⁰, the Healthy Eating Index (HEI) $91,92$, the Empirical Dietary Inflammatory Index (EDII) 93 , and a Simple Food Diversity Score.

The IBD-disk and the Pictorial Representation of Illness and Self Measure (PRISM) were utilized as part of the data collection for evaluating disease impact on patients. Their assessment occurred both at V1 and at V3. The IBD-disk is a visual tool designed for patients with IBD to evaluate their own health status. It is organized around 10 items that relate to the patient's everyday life. Patients score each item from 0 (absolutely disagree) to 10 (absolutely agree), based on how they feel. The 10 items are: abdominal pain, regulating defecation, interpersonal interactions, education and work, sleep, energy, emotions, body image, sexual function, and joint pain. They are presented as parts of a circle and once all items are scored, a graph is created by connecting the scores, in which closer proximity to the center reflects a better state of health. The PRISM is a two-dimensional pictorial method used to assess a patient's level of suffering. Patients indicate their burden by measuring the distance between a "self" circle and an "illness" circle, with a shorter distance implying a higher burden of suffering $107-109$.

Treatment response was evaluated both through FCAL and clinical response measures across the three time points. Patients were classified as in remission if FCAL was <250 μ g/g at both V1 and V3. Non-responders had FCAL >250 μg/g with less than a 100 μg/g decrease between V1 and V3, while responders had a FCAL decrease >100 μ g/g, but still >250 μ g/g at V3. Super-responders exhibited a FCAL decrease >100 μg/g with FCAL <250 μg/g at V3. Clinical

response was defined as remission if patients were in remission at both V1 and V3. Nonresponders were those not in remission at V1, with a combined difference in clinical assessment scores (CAS) <3. Responders had a CAS difference ≥3 without remission at V3, while super-responders also had a CAS difference ≥3. Remission cases were reclassified based on CAS changes: those with a CAS difference ≥3 were responders, and those with a CAS difference <3 and HBI ≥3 or SCCAI ≥3 at V3 were classified as non-responders.

DATA HANDLING

Stool samples were processed at Mercy Hospital, where FCAL was extracted using Buhlmann Calex Cap kit. An Abbott Alinity C analyser was used for the analyses, applying the Particle Enhanced Turbidimetric Immunoassay (PETIA), with Buhlmann fCal Turbo Reagent kit. This method uses antibodies that bind to calprotectin increasing the turbidity of the sample, which provide a quantitative value for FCAL levels. Blood samples were processed at Cork University Hospital. A Beckman Coulter AU5832 analyser was used to measure CRP levels, via the Quantitative Turbidimetric Immunoassay method. The Beckman Coulter CRP latex reagent was used, containing a glycine buffer with anti-CRP antibody-coated latex particles (<0.5% w/v) and a preservative (<0.1% w/v). This reagent causes the sample's turbidity to increase proportionally to CRP concentration, providing a quantitative measurement of CRP levels. Albumin levels were also measured on the Beckman Coulter AU5832 analyser, using a Quantitative Photometric method. The Beckman Coulter Albumin reagent with bromocresol green dye was employed, which binds to albumin in the sample, producing a color change that allows for quantitative measurement of albumin concentration.

Data processing and statistical analyses were performed using *R* (v. 4.3.2) and *RStudio* (v. 2023.12.1.402), visualizations were obtained using: *ggplot2* (v. 3.5.1)¹¹⁰, *ggpubr* (v. 0.6.0)¹¹¹, *rlang* (v. 1.1.4)¹¹², *patchwork* (v. 1.3.0)¹¹³, and *pheatmap* (v. 1.0.12)¹¹⁴, if not further specified basic R functions were used.

Dietary intake data from FFQ were entered in Castor database, a flexible data management platform that allows researchers to customize their own databases specifically for clinical trials, enabling efficient data collection, management, and analysis. Adjustments were manually made for patients who reported frequencies intake that didn't match the FFQ

options, in order to ensure accuracy in dietary frequency data, and reflect patients' actual dietary consumption. A script was developed to automate the process, including renaming columns taking into consideration specified variations. For example "cow milk" was assigned for any missing data for milk types, unless the patient stated otherwise (e.i. soy, almond, coconut, lactose-free, or goat milk), and in this case, for each milk types additional column were created where the frequencies were updated as per patient's reported intake. The data were converted into machine-readable monthly intake frequencies (e.i., "never=0", "<1/month=0.5", "1/month=1", "1.5/month=1.5", "2/month=2", "1/week=4", "1.5/week=6", "2/week=8", "3/week=12", "3.5/week=14", "5/week=20", "0.5/day=14", "1/day=28", "2/day=56", "3/day=84", "4/day=112", "6+/day=168", "missing=NA"). The *Naniar* (v. 1.1.0)¹¹⁵ and *mice* (v. 3.16.0)¹¹⁶ packages in R were used to manage missing data in the FFQ dataset. Multiple imputation methods were applied to ensure a comprehensive and unbiased reflection of patients' dietary intake, aiming to reduce the potential for bias introduced by missing information. Food frequency data were converted into gram-based intake via Aqua-Calc 117 , an online tool that provided volume to weight conversions based on USDA data, and additional food items from USDA Branded Food Products Database. Using the EuroFIR database 118 , macro- and micronutrient intakes per portion were calculated for each food item. EuroFIR AISBL includes validated bioactive compound information (eBASIS) and global food data (FoodEXplorer) from Europe, the USA, and Canada. Food items relevant to this study were downloaded primarily from the Irish food composition database, however, where data were unavailable, the United Kingdom database was used as a secondary source. For food items not included in the database, nutritional information was retrieved from individual item websites.

These final steps required assumptions at multiple levels. First, food items were considered as reported by participants, assuming accuracy in their responses. Next, broader food categories were created to organize food items. This process, though necessary, introduced some abstraction: for example, grains could be classified together or separated by type (i.e., whole vs. refined grains). Composite foods were deconstructed into component categories throught the USDA food equivalent database 119 , thus some assumptions were necessary. Nutritional information for each item was obtained from the EuroFIR database, based on

standardized portion sizes we assumed participants consumed. It was also assumed that the database values accurately reflected the nutrient content of each food item.

Food intake was summarized into four different dietary scores, Healthy Food Diversity (HFD) index, Healthy Eating Index (HEI), Empirical Dietary Inflammatory Index (EDII), and a simple food diversity score. The HFD index assesses diet diversity, and the adherence to a healthy diet according to the German dietary guidelines (DGE). It was calculated by dividing food items into food groups, each assigned a proportional share based on their FFQ values (s_i) . Each food group was given a health value (hv) reflecting its nutritional quality based on DGE recommendations. The index was then calculated as the product of one minus the sum of the squared proportions of the food groups and the health values (*eq. 1*). These calculations were done as described in earlier research⁹⁰.

$$
HFD\ index = (1 - \sum s_i^2) \cdot hv \qquad (1)
$$

The HEI is a measure to assess dietary quality, precisely the degree to which a set of foods aligns with dietary guidelines for Americans (DGA). It is characterized by 13 components that sum to a total of 100 points, the total score is the sum of the score of adequacy components (i.e. foods to eat more of for good health) and moderation components (i.e. foods to limit for good health). The HEI-2020 is the latest version which allows the assessment of alignment with the 2020-2025 DGA. Since no major changes occurred between the previous guidelines the HEI-2020 components and scoring standards are the same as the HEI-2015^{91,92}. It was calculated following the R script for FFQ provided by the Division of Cancer Control and Population Sciences (DCCPS) of the National Institutes of Health (NIH)¹²⁰.

The EDII denotes the inflammatory potential of the diet based on circulating concentrations of inflammatory biomarkers. It is based on 18 food groups, 9 pro-inflammatory, having a positive association, and 9 anti-inflammatory, having an inverse association with the score. Each food group's daily frequency intake was multiplied by their specific weight. The calculations were done following the same model and using the same weights as previous research⁹³.

A simple food diversity score was calculated, based on the presence $(+1)$ or absence (0) of each food item, to provide a simple measure of overall dietary diversity. Dietary diversity itself has been associated with various beneficial effects 121 .

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND VISUALIZATION

Dietary intake differences were determined via permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA), through the *adonis2* function from the *vegan* package (v. 2.6-8)¹²². Dietary data were examined as food items, food categories, and nutrient intake. To visualise the overall dietary consumption patterns based on food items, categories, and nutrients, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used. Differences in specific dietary measures between diagnoses and inflammation at V1 and V3 were analysed using the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test (or Mann-Whitney U Test) for two-group comparisons. Differences in dietary data across diagnostic extent (colonic, ileal, and ileocolonic for CD; distal UC, pancolitis, and proctitis for UC), inflammation at V1 and V3 (inactive, elevated, and active based on CRP levels) and treatment response categories based on clinical and FCAL response between V1 and V3 (non-responders, responders, super-responders, and remission) were evaluated using the Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test for three-group and four-group comparisons. Boxplots illustrated group-level differences in specific dietary data. Spearman correlations were carried out to examine relationships between dietary intake differences and inflammation (V1, V3) or treatment response. Heatmaps visualized and clustered significant multiple correlations, while scatterplots pictured significant single correlations. A significance threshold of $p < 0.05$ was applied, with p-values adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini and Hochberg method 123 .

RESULTS

STUDY POPULATION

In this analysis we tracked dietary patterns and inflammation markers over multiple time points to determine whether specific dietary habits impact inflammatory responses and treatment outcomes in IBD patients. The clinical study was thoroughly discussed with patients who had previously provided informed consent. It had a longitudinal study design with three time points: baseline (V1) and two follow-up visits (V2 and V3) as described before (*Figure 2*).

We collected data from 92 patients, including 55 with Crohn's disease (CD) and 37 with ulcerative colitis (UC), recruited from Cork University Hospital (CUH) and Mercy University Hospital (MUH) in Cork, Ireland, as part of a cohort study investigating dietary patterns and IBD. Among those with UC, 11 had pancolitis, 17 had distal UC, and 8 had proctitis; among those with CD, 12 had colonic, 17 had ileal, and 26 had ileocolonic CD. Both sexes were similarly represented (50 female and 42 male). Patients with the two diagnoses showed comparable BMI values (26.31 in UC and 25.65 in CD) and average ages (43.46 in UC and 42.2 in CD), with an age range of 20 to 73 years. The group of smokers included 3 patients with UC and 11 with CD, while 3 patients with UC and 16 with CD were vape users. See *Table* 1 for subject characteristics.

This analysis included data from the ongoing AUGMENT clinical study, which investigates how dietary diversity and the microbiome influence immune therapy response in individuals with IBD. Since the study was still in progress and not all results were available at the time of writing, indeed within the timeframe of this thesis only 44 patients concluded the study, most results lost statistical significance after p-values were adjusted for multiple testing, unless stated otherwise.

Table 1:Subjects characteristics. n/a stands for not applicable.

ASSESSING DIETARY DIFFERENCES IN ULCERATIVE COLITIS AND CROHN'S DISEASE

We first wanted to assess if dietary patterns differ between patients with different IBD subtypes and different disease extents. To achieve this, we compared the overall dietary composition, the consumption of individual food items or categories, nutrient intake, and overall diet diversity, quality, and inflammatory potential. The overall dietary composition, including food items, food categories, nutrients and dietary scores, exhibited no significant differences between diagnoses (PERMANOVA p>0.05) (*Supplementary tables S1; S2; S3; S4*).

When comparing the consumption of individual food items between patients diagnosed with UC and CD, 5 items showed significant differences (WILCOXON p<0.05). Patients with UC displayed a generally higher median intake and wider range of consumption for potato salad, vegetarian lasagne (remaining significant after multiple testing adjustment, padj<0.05), quiche, baked beans, and tinned vegetable soups (*Figure 3*).

Impact of Diagnosis (CD/UC) on Food Items Intake

*Figure 3: Comparison of food items consumption between patients with different diagnosis (UC and CD). *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.*

Comparisons of food categories, nutrients, and various dietary scores also exhibited no significant differences (WILCOXON p>0.05) (*Supplementary tables S5; S6; S7*).

ASSESSING DIETARY DIFFERENCES IN CROHN'S DISEASE SUBTYPES

The overall dietary composition showed no significant differences between patients that differ in CD extent (PERMANOVA p>0.05) (*Supplementary tables S1; S2; S3; S4*).

When comparing the consumption of individual food items among patients with varying extents of CD, 4 items showed significant differences (KRUSKAL p<0.05). Median intake of sugar-coated cereals and peanut butter was higher in colonic CD, while light margarine and grapes were more frequently consumed in ileal CD. Grapes consumption was also lower in colonic CD compared to ileocolonic CD (*Figure 4*).

Impact of CD extend on Food Items Intake

*Figure 4: Comparison of food items consumption between patients with different CD extent. ns p>0.05; *p<0.05; **p<0.01.* Comparisons of food categories, nutrients, and various dietary scores also displayed no significant differences (WILCOXON p>0.05) (*Supplementary tables S8; S9; S10*).

ASSESSING DIETARY DIFFERENCES IN ULCERATIVE COLITIS SUBTYPES

When evaluating differences between the dietary composition across 21 food categories in UC patients, the first two axes of the PCA explained 74.5% of the variation, and showed a significant shift in dietary patterns across UC types (PERMANOVA p<0.05). A distinct shift along the second principal component was evident, moving from pancolitis over distal UC to proctitis, while a less pronounced shift was observed along the first principal component from pancolitis to distal UC to proctitis (*Figure 5a*).

In comparison, the dietary composition in terms of macro- and micronutrient intake among UC patients with differing disease extents showed a less distinct shift along the first principal component, ranging from pancolitis to distal UC and proctitis, which reached significance only under a more relaxed p-value cutoff (PERMANOVA p<0.1) (*Figure 5b*).

Figure 5: PCA of monthly food categories consumption in patients with UC grouped by UC type (a), PCA of nutrients intake in patients with UC grouped by UC type (b).

Taking into consideration the overall dietary composition with respect to food items and dietary scores revealed no significant differences between patients that differ in UC extent (PERMANOVA p>0.05) (*Supplementary tables S1; S4*).

When examining variation in the intake of individual food items between patients with differing types of UC, seven items show significant differences (KRUSKAL p<0.05). The median uptake of wholemeal pasta, cottage cheese, green salad, and herbal tea was higher in patients with proctitis. White bread consumption was higher in patients with distal UC than in proctitis patients, while leek intake was especially lower in patients with distal UC

compared to patients with pancolitis and proctitis. Fresh vegetable soup intake was notably lower in patients with pancolitis compared to distal UC and proctitis (*Figure 6a*).

We also found significant differences in diet quality, measured with HFD and HEI among patients with different types of UC (KRUSKAl p<0.05). These differences remained significant even after adjustment (padj<0.05), with higher scores observed in patients with proctitis (*Figure 6b*).

The comparisons of food categories and nutrients found no significant differences between patients with different UC extent (KRUSKAL p>0.05), (*Supplementary Tables S11; S12*).

*Figure 6: Comparison of food items consumption between patients with different UC extent (a), comparison of dietary scores between patients with different UC extent (b). ns p>0.05; *p<0.05; **p<0.01.*

ASSESSING DIETARY DIFFERENCES BY DISEASE ACTIVITY AT BASELINE (V1) IN IBD PATIENTS

Next, we compared the diets of patients with active versus inactive disease at baseline, to explore potential dietary differences among patients with IBD in relation to disease activity. Disease activity status was determined using several criteria measured at V1, including, clinical assessment scores, FCAL levels, CRP levels, albumin levels and endoscopic scores. The first two axes of a PCA of dietary intake across 149 food items accounted 35.6% of the variation. Disease activity, as indicated by serum albumin levels explained 2% of the variation in dietary composition (PERMANOVA p<0.05; *Figure 7a*). When assessing dietary composition with respect to food category consumption, the first two axes of the PCA capture 75.6% of the variation. Disease activity, based on serum levels of CRP, contributed to 4% of the variation, but only with a relaxed p-value cutoff (PERMANOVA p<0.1; *Figure 7b*). In contrast, CAS explained only 2% of the variation, but achieved statistical significance (PERMANOVA p<0.05; *Figure 7c*). Finally, when examining the overall daily nutrient intake of patients, the first two axes of the PCA represented 43.4% of the variation. Here, disease activity measured by endoscopy accounted for 12% of the overall variation (PERMANOVA p<0.05; *Figure 7d*), while inflammation status, determined by CAS, explained 5% of the variance (PERMANOVA p<0.05; *Figure 7e*). These findings indicate an association between inflammation and patients' dietary patterns.

Figure 7: PCA of monthly intake of food items grouped by disease activity based on albumin at baseline (a), PCA of monthly intake of food categories grouped by disease activity based on CRP at baseline (b) and CAS at baseline(c), PCA of nutrients grouped by disease activity based on endoscopic scores at baseline (d) and CAS at baseline (e).

FOOD ITEMS

Subsequently, we investigated the intake of specific food item among patients with varying disease activity in relation to the different inflammation markers and identified several significant differences.

For FCAL, ten items showed significant differences (WILCOXON p<0.05). The median consumption of white rice, white pasta, low-fat cheddar, melon, broccoli, and sweetcorn was higher in active patients, while the intake of white bread, sugar-coated cereals, cream, and vegetable oil spread was elevated for inactive patients (*Figure 8a*).

For CAS, six items exhibited significant differences (WILCOXON p<0.05). Patients with inactive disease more frequently consumed savory pies, dairy desserts, butter, cakes, and chocolates but had a lower milk pudding intake than patients with active disease (*Figure 8b*).

For albumin, eight items showed significant differences (WILCOXON p <0.05). The median intake of cheddar cheese, oranges, coleslaw, plain biscuits, spirits, and probiotic yogurts was higher among active patients, while light butter was more commonly consumed by inactive patients (*Figure 8c*).

For endoscopic scores, eight items revealed significant differences (WILCOXON p<0.05). The median consumption of white rice, low-fat cheddar cheese, broccoli, and herbal tea was higher in active disease. In contrast, crispbread, cream and vegetable oil spread, peanuts and nuts, and low-alcohol beer were more prevalent in the diet of patients with low inflammation (*Figure 8d*).

Eight food items showed significant differences in relation to CRP levels (KRUSKAL p<0.05). Patients with inactive disease had higher median intakes of wholemeal bread, wholemeal pasta, apples, frozen fruit, and ready meals, while light butter was more commonly consumed by active patients. Beetroot intake was elevated in patients with high CRP levels compared to those with active disease, whereas sweets and mints were consumed less frequently by inactive patients (*Figure 8e*).

*Figure 8: Comparison of food items consumption in relation to disease activity based on FCAL (a), CAS (b), serum levels of albumin (c), endoscopic scores (d), and serum levels of CRP (e). ns p>0.05; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.*

Investigating the relationship between food frequencies and inflammation markers as numerical variables may provide a more consistent picture than categorizing patients into active and inactive disease groups. Therefore, we performed correlation analyses between the variables and clustered food items based on their correlation patterns with the inflammation markers. We found several significant associations (SPEARMAN CORRELATION p<0.05).

Higher consumption of items like meat-based lasagne, beer and cider, cheddar, roasted or fried potatoes, and oranges showed a positive association with albumin levels, suggesting that increased intake of these foods may be linked with higher albumin levels. In contrast, foods like blueberries, parsnips and turnips, and light butter were negatively associated with albumin.

White pasta, broccoli, light butter, white rice, low-fat cheddar, and sweetcorn displayed positive correlations with FCAL levels, indicating that their higher consumption aligns with elevated FCAL. On the other hand, cream and vegetable oil spread, leeks, crispbread, and beetroot showed a negative association with FCAL.

Endoscopic scores were positively correlated with the intake of garlic, semi-skimmed milk, melon, and broccoli, while cream and vegetable oil spread exhibited a negative association with endoscopic scores.

Clinical scores were positively correlated with peaches/plums and milk puddings, whereas foods such as butter, lamb, tinned meat cream soups, dairy desserts, apples, beef burgers, and mushrooms showed a negative association, potentially suggesting an association between these items and lower clinical scores.

Lastly, CRP levels were positively associated with the consumption of sugar and fizzy drinks, while cream and vegetable oil spread, pickles and chutney, and frozen fruit were negatively correlated, implying lower CRP levels with increased consumption of these items (*Figure 9*).

Spearman correlations of food items with inflammation markers at V1

Figure 9: Heatmap of spearman correlations of food items with inflammation markers at baseline. Food items with at least one significant results are presented. rho is shown just in case p<0.05.

FOOD CATEGORIES

When comparing food categories consumption in relation to disease activity based on FCAL, albumin, and endoscopic scores, some categories showed significant differences.

For FCAL, three categories differed significantly (WILCOXON p<0.05). The median consumption of dairy and refined grains was higher for inactive patients, whereas low-fat dairy intake was higher in active patients (*Figure 10a*).

For albumin, alcohol and vegetables oils showed significant differences (WILCOXON p<0.05), with both consumed more by inactive patients (*Figure 10b*).

Concerning endoscopic scores the only category that showed a significant difference (WILCOXON p<0.05) was drink, which was higher in active patients (*Figure 10c*).

Comparisons of food categories in relation to disease activity based on CAS and CRP showed no significant differences (WILCOXON and KRUSKAL p>0.05) (*Supplementary tables S13; S14*).

*Figure 10: Comparison of food categories consumption in relation to disease activity based on FCAL (a), serum levels of albumin (b), endoscopic scores (c). *p<0.05; **p<0.01.*

During correlations analyses between food categories and inflammation markers at V1, some associations stood out (SPEARMAN CORRELATION p<0.05).

The consumption of vegetable oils and processed meat was positively associated with albumin levels, indicating that the higher their intake the higher albumin levels will be.

While low-fat dairy showed a positive association with FCAL levels, vegetables oils, refined grains, dairy, and tea and coffee were negatively associated with FCAL.

CRP levels were positively correlated with high sugar foods, and negatively correlated with vegetable oils (*Figure 11*).
Spearman correlations of food categories with inflammation markers at V1

Figure 11: Heatmap of spearman correlations of food categories with inflammation markers at baseline. rho is shown just in *case p<0.05.*

NUTRIENTS

When comparing nutrients consumption in relation to disease activity based on albumin just alcohol showed a significant difference (WILCOXON p<0.05), beign consumed more by inactive patients (*Figure 12*).

While the comparisons of nutrients intake in relation to disease activity based on FCAL, CAS, CRP, and endoscopic scores showed no significant differences (WILCOXON and KRUSKAL p>0.05) (*Supplementary tables S15; S16; S17; S18)*.

Impact of Disease Activity (Albumin) on Food Nutrients Intake

*Figure 12: Comparison of nutrients consumption in relation to disease activity based on serum levels of albumin. *p<0.05.*

During correlations analyses between nutrients and inflammation markers at V1, the only associations that stood out was between sugar and albumin levels (SPEARMAN CORRELATION p<0.05), which were negatively correlated, indicating that the higher its intake the lower albumin levels will be (*Figure 13*).

Spearman correlation of sugar with albumin at V1

Figure 13: Spearman correlations of nutrients with inflammation markers at baseline.

DIETARY SCORES

When comparing dietary scores in relation to disease activity based on FCAL just EDII showed a significant difference (WILCOXON p<0.05), beign higher for inactive patients (*Figure 14*).

While the comparisons of dietary scores in relation to disease activity based on CAS, CRP, albumin, and endoscopic scores showed no significant differences (WILCOXON, KRUSKAL p>0.05) (*Supplementary tables S19; S20; S21; S22)*.

Impact of Disease Activity (FCAL) on Dietary Scores

*Figure 14: Comparison of dietary scores in relation to disease activity based on FCAL. *p<0.05.*

During correlations analyses between dietary scores and inflammation markers at V1, the only associations that stood out was between EDII and FCAL levels (SPEARMAN CORRELATION p<0.05), which were negatively correlated, indicating that the higher the score is the lower FCAL levels will be (*Figure 15*).

Spearman correlation of EDII with fecal calprotectin at V1

ASSESSING DIETARY DIFFERENCES BY DISEASE ACTIVITY AT V3 AND TREATMENT RESPONSE IN IBD PATIENTS

Next, we compared the diets of patients in different response categories (remission, nonresponder, responder, super-responder), to explore potential dietary differences among patients with IBD in relation to treatment response. These comparisons were assessed through changes in FCAL levels and clinical response status throughout the study.

The first two axes of a PCA of dietary intake across 149 food items accounted 35.6% of the variation. Treatment response, as indicated by disease activity based on FCAL changes at V1, V2, and V3 explained 14% of the variation in dietary composition, but only with a relaxed pvalue cutoff (PERMANOVA p<0.1; *Figure 16a*). When assessing dietary composition with respect to food category consumption, the first two axes of the PCA capture 75.6% of the variation. Treatment response, as indicated by disease activity based on FCAL changes at V1,

Figure 15: Spearman correlations of dietary scores with inflammation markers at baseline.

V2, and V3 explained 16% of the variation in dietary composition, considering a more relaxed p-value cutoff (PERMANOVA p<0.1; *Figure 16b*). In contrast, CAS explained only 5% of the variation, always taking into consideration a more relaxed p-value cutoff (PERMANOVA p<0.1; *Figure 16c*). Finally, when examining the overall daily nutrient intake of patients, the first two axes of the PCA represented 43.4% of the variation. Here, treatment response, as indicated by disease activity based on FCAL changes at V1, V2, and V3 explained 9% of the variation in dietary composition, but only with a relaxed p-value cutoff (PERMANOVA p<0.1; *Figure 16d*), while CAS explained 25% of the variation, achieving statistical significance (PERMANOVA p<0.05; *Figure 16e*). These findings indicate an association between treatment response and patients' dietary patterns.

b) Food categories grouped by treatment response (FCAL)

d) Nutrients grouped by treatment response (FCAL)

Food categories grouped by treatment response (CAS)

PERMANOVA
p = 0.073
R² = 0.05

 $\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \textbf{•} & \textbf{non-resp} \end{array}$

remission

responder

super resp

 $e)$ Nutrients grouped by treatment response (CAS)

c)

 $_{0.2}$

 $\overline{0}$

 $_{0.0}$

 $\frac{6}{2}$

 17.1

eco. -0.1 -0.2

Figure 16: PCA of monthly intake of food items grouped by disease activity based on changes in FCAL in V1, V2, and V3 (a), PCA of monthly intake of food categories grouped by disease activity based on changes in FCAL in V1, V2, and V3 (b), and combined differences of HBI and SCCAI between V1 and V3 (c), PCA of nutrients intake grouped by disease activity based on changes in FCAL between V1 and V3 (d), and combined differences of HBI and SCCAI between V1 and V3 (e).

FOOD ITEMS

Afterwards, we evaluated the intake of specific food item among patients belonging into different response categories (remission, non-responder, responder, super-responder), in relation to treatment response based on clinical response and identified nine items showing significant differences (KRUSKAL p<0.05). Super responders had a higher median intake of brown bread and wholemeal pasta, while their consumption of white bread, sponge puddings, sweets and mints, and jam and honey was lower. Non-responders consumed more light salad cream, whereas melon intake was lower among them. Lastly, patients in remission showed a higher median intake of tinned meat cream soups, and a lower jam and honey consumption than responders (*Figure 17*).

In contrast, when examining individual food item consumption in relation to treatment response based on FCAL changes from V1 to V3, no significant differences were observed (*Supplementary table S23*).

*Figure 17: Comparison of food items consumption in relation to treatment response based on clinical response. ns p>0.05; *p<0.05; **p<0.01.*

In correlation analyses between individual food items and inflammation markers at V3 and treatment response, several associations stood out (SPEARMAN CORRELATION p<0.05).

FCAL levels at V3 were negatively associated with the consumption of wheat-free bread, French dressings, and wholemeal bread, while they showed a positive association with dried lentils or beans, fizzy drinks, plain poultry, white rice, white pasta, margarine, and sweetcorn. CAS levels at the third visit were negatively linked with wholemeal pasta and marmite intake, while they showed a positive association with pizza, jam, light salad cream, and herbal tea consumption. CRP levels at V3 showed a negative association with apples, broccoli, and pork intake, while a positive one with beetroot and sugar consumption. Albumin levels at V3 were positively linked with the consumption of sugar-coated cereals, cream, and oranges.

While examining changes in FCAL levels between V1 and V3, wholemeal bread consumption was positively correlated, whereas steak and butter intake were negatively correlated. Differences in FCAL levels between V1 and V2 were positively associated with high-fiber cereals, instant coffee, low-fat cheddar, probiotic yoghurts, wholemeal bread, and light butter, while butter, parsnips, and shellfish showed negative associations. The consumption of canned fruit, white fish, parsnips, breaded fish, sweets and mints, bacon, and white pasta was positively associated with changes in FCAL between V2 and V3.

Changes in albumin levels between V1 and V3 were positively associated with the consumption of canned fruit, sponge puddings, milk puddings, pancakes, pizza, and spirits.

Differences in CAS between V1 and V3 showed a positive association with the intake of melon, brown bread, wholemeal pasta, peaches, and plums, and a negative association with roasted or fried potatoes and light salad cream.

Finally, the consumption of coleslaw, beetroot, spirits, pickles, and chutney was negatively associated with changes in CRP levels between V1 and V3 (*Figure 18*).

Food items with at least one significant results are presented. rho is shown just in case p<0.05.

FOOD CATEGORIES

When comparing food category consumption in relation to treatment response, based on both clinical response and FCAL changes from V1 to V3, no significant differences were observed (*Supplementary tables S24; S25*).

In terms of correlations with inflammation markers at V3 and treatment response, a few associations stood out (SPEARMAN CORRELATION, p<0.05).

The drink category was positively associated with changes in FCAL between V1 and V2, changes in FCAL between V1 and V3, and CAS scores at V3. Dairy consumption, on the other hand, was negatively associated with changes in FCAL between V1 and V3, as well as between V2 and V3.

Differences in CAS between V1 and V3, albumin levels at V3, and differences in FCAL between V2 and V3 showed positive association with whole grains, processed meat, and fish, respectively (*Figure 19*).

Spearman correlations of food categories with inflammation markers as treatment response

Figure 19: Heatmap of spearman correlations of food categories with inflammation markers as treatment response and at *V3. rho is shown just in case p<0.05.*

NUTRIENTS

For nutrient intake, the results were similar: no significant differences were found in relation to treatment response based on clinical response or FCAL changes from V1 to V3 (*Supplementary table S26; S27*).

However, in correlation analyses with inflammation markers at V3, only protein intake showed a notable association: it was negatively correlated with CRP levels at V3 (SPEARMAN $CORRELATION p<0.05$, suggesting that as protein consumption increases, CRP levels tend to decrease (*Figure 20*).

Spearman correlation of proteins with CRP at V3

Figure 20: Spearman correlations of nutrients with inflammation markers as treatment response and at V3.

DIETARY SCORES

When comparing dietary scores in relation to treatment response based on clinical response, HFD and HEI scores showed significant differences (KRUSKAL p<0.05). In both cases, super responders manifested higher scores, suggesting they followed a more diverse and healthier diet (*Figure 21a*).

In contrast, when comparing dietary scores in relation to treatment response based on FCAL changes from V1 to V3, only EDII showed a significant difference (KRUSKAL p<0.05). Patients in remission had higher EDII score, indicating a more pro-inflammatory diet (*Figure 21b*).

Figure 21: Comparison of dietary scores in relation to treatment response based on clinical response (a), comparison of dietary scores in relation to treatment response based on FCAL levels between V1 and V3 (b). ns p>0.05; *p<0.05; **p<0.01. When examining correlations with inflammation markers at V3 and treatment response, some associations stood out (SPEARMAN CORRELATION, p<0.05).

EDII score was negatively correlated with differences in CRP levels between V1 and V3, and differences in FCAL levels between V1 and V2. While HFD was negatively linked with CAS levels at V3, but it showed a positive correlation with the differences in CAS between V1 and V3. These results suggest that higher inflammation score (EDII) lead to lower response, while having a better quality diet (HFD) is related to a bigger reduction within inflammation (*Figure 22*).

Figure 22: Heatmap of spearman correlations of dietary scores with inflammation markers as treatment response and at *V3. rho is shown just in case p<0.05.*

DISCUSSION

Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD) is a chronic condition with a high prevalence worldwide. It affects millions of people causing significant psychosocial and economic burdens $1,2,9,14-18$. The two main subtypes are Ulcerative Colitis (UC) and Crohn's Disease (CD), which differ in manifestation, severity and complications^{1,2}. IBD treatments have unquestionably improved over the years, however the multifactorial etiology of this disease poses challenges in understading its progression and management⁸. Diet, among other factors, has emerged as a pivotal regulator of gut health and inflammation, linking Western dietary patterns with increased IBD risk and progression, and other dietary intervention like mediterranean, semi vegetarian, low FODMAP, exclusive enteral nutrition, and Crohn's disease exclusion diets have shown promising results in mitigating symptoms and promoting remission $32-$ 38,47,57,61,73,80.

Considering the growing evidence on the role of diet in IBD management, this thesis' goal was to explore dietary patterns and how they associate with treatment outcomes and disease activity in Irish patients diagnosed with IBD, further investigating which dietary score best reflects diet quality and its association with IBD activity and treatment response. This analysis included data from the ongoing AUGMENT clinical study. Since the study was still in progress and not all results were available at the time, most results lost statistical significance after p-values were adjusted for multiple testing, indicating potential false positive in the results.

Considering dietary differences in patients with UC and CD, no significant differences were seen in the overall dietary composition. However patients with UC were found to consume more of some specific food items, such as potato salad and vegetarian lasagna, which remained significant even after adjustment for multiple comparisons (*Figure 3*). It is possible that these specific foods reflect cultural or symptomatic dietary choices rather than patterns driven by the disease. Not many studies specifically compare certain food items across these diagnoses, on the other hand it has been shown that food choices may be influenced by symptoms, which can vary between UC and CD. Indeed certain dietary choices in patients with UC may be influenced by the differences in disease location and its symptoms⁴. This

analysis suggests that possible dietary differences among patients with UC and CD could be determined by individual or regional habits, rather than disease pathology.

While no significant dietary differences were observed among patients with CD subtypes, some differences were noted across patients with UC subtypes, specifically when analyzing the overall dietary composition in relation to food categories (*Figure 5*). The captured variation reflects dietary differences among patients with different UC extents. Patients who were diagnosed with proctitis showed a higher consumption of wholemeal pasta, cottage cheese, green salad, herbal tea, leeks, and fresh vegetable soup. In contrast, patients diagnosed with pancolitis consumed fewer, and showed a higher intake of leeks and green salad (*Figure 6a*). Furthermore, dietary scores like HFD and HEI, which indicate greater diversity and healthier diets, were significantly higher in patients with proctitis, even after adjusting for multiple testing (*Figure 6b*). Proctitis is often associated with milder symptoms than pancolitis, possibly allowing more diverse and fiber-rich dietary choices. Indeed patients that have been diagnosed with acute forms of UC, like pancolitis may tend to avoid this type of dietary choice due to symptoms aggravation⁴. These associations among UC extent show how a customize diet could be needed on disease extent.

Remarkable dietary differences were observed between patients with active and inactive disease at baseline, comprising individual food items, food categories, nutrients, and dietary scores. Patients with active disease tended to consume more foods such as white rice, white pasta, low-fat cheddar, broccoli, milk puddings, and herbal tea, potentially exhibiting dietary choices driven by symptoms, also favoring low-fat and easily digestible options. In contrast, patients with inactive disease had higher intakes of foods such as wholemeal bread, wholemeal pasta, nuts, plain biscuits, and certain fruits, implying greater dietary diversity and higher intake of fiber-rich foods intake (*Figure 8*). While food categories and nutrients displayed fewer significant differences. We can still see that patients with active disease tend to choose low-fat dairy, whereas patients with inactive disease showed sligtly higher consumption of refined grains, vegetable oils, and alcohol (*Figure 10, Figure 12*). Some correlations between inflammation markers and dietary components were found, providing additional understanding into probable mechanisms that links diet and disease activity. The consumption of refined grains like white pasta and white rice, regular fizzy drinks, low-fat dairy, and high sugar foods was positively associated with higher levels of FCAL, CRP, and

clinical or endoscopic scores, implying a possible link to inflammation. In contrast, fruits and vegetables like apples, oranges, leeks, frozen fruits, and mushroom, beef burger, lamb, and butter are linked to lower levels of FCAL, CRP, endoscopic and clinical scores, or higher levels of albumin, indicating lower inflammation (*Figure 9*). It is possible to notice some patterns which show that refined grains could be linked to higher inflammation, while high fiber food may be associated with lower inflammation. Interestingly, the EDII, that captures the inflammatory potential of the diet, was found to be higher in patients with inactive disease (*Figure 14*). This result contrasts with expectations, as we would anticipate the EDII to be higher in patients with active disease, given its focus on dietary inflammation. Additionally, the EDII was aligned with lower FCAL levels, contrary to the expectation that a higher EDII would correspond with elevated FCAL levels, indicative of increased inflammation. These unexpected findings suggest that the EDII may reflect broader dietary patterns associated with long-term disease stability rather than acute inflammation control (*Figure 15*). These findings align with prior research indicating that dietary patterns can influence inflammation and disease progression. It has been suggested that high-fiber and low-fat diets are associated with better outcomes, while high sugar and processed food may worsen the progression of the disease $34-38$. On the other hand some correlations show contrary results, reflecting the complexity of dietary impacts on gut inflammation, likely influenced by individual disease states and microbiota composition. Active disease states may force patients to ingest specific foods due to tolerability or symptom alleviation, and simple foods like white rice and broccoli, which are more common in patients with active disease, could be beneficial or just be easier to digest during flare-ups. Overall, these findings underline the importance of diet in the managemenet of IBD, strengthening the necessity of customized dietary interventions considering individual patient tolerances and disease states as well.

Treatment response in patients with IBD showed limited variation considering food categories and nutrient across responses groups, while significant tendencies were seen among individual food items, and dietary scores, specifically for super responders and remission groups. Super responders, who are characterized by significant clinical improvement, showed to have an higher consumption of brown bread, and wholemeal pasta, while consuming less white bread, and processed sweets, sush as jam, honey, and mints (*Figure 17*). This suggests that diets rich in whole grains, and lower in processed sugars

may be beneficial favoring better treatment outcomes. Furthermore, dietary scores contextualized these findings as well, as higher HFD and HEI scores in super responders underline the possible benefits of dietary diversity and overall diet quality (*Figure 21a*). In contrast, patients that showed to be in remission had higher EDII score, which is indicative of pro-inflammatory diet, potentially reflecting broader dietary patterns that allow for disease stability (*Figure 21b*). Correlations with inflammatory markers displayed additional dietary influences. For instance the consumption of non-refined grains like wholemeal bread, brown bread, and whole meal pasta, light butter, white fish, highe-fiber cereals, legumes, fruits and vegetables like melon, oranges, peaches, sweetcorn, and parsnips, and non-alcoholic drinks was positively correlated with reduction in inflammation markers, suggesting a higher treatment response, therefore an anti inflammatory effects. While the intake of dressing like French dressing, and light salad cream, and beef, butter, spirits, chutney, marmite, and dairy products was negatively correlated with a reduction in inflammatory markers over time, indicating lower treatment response (*Figure 18, Figure 19*). It was noticed that CRP levels at V3 were negatively associated with protein-rich foods, suggesting an anti inflammatory effect (*Figure 20*). Reinforcing the potential role of inflammatory foods in poorer outcomes. Finally, dietary scores like EDII showed to be negatively correlated with FCAL changes over time indicating that higher inflammation can lead to lower response, while HFD was positively correlated with the difference in clinical scores, indicating that a better quality diet can be related to higher responses (*Figure 22*). These findings align with prior studies which link quality of diet with inflammation and treatment efficacy in patients with IBD. Previous research has shown how diets rich in whole grains, fiber, and healthy fats, like the Mediterranean diet, can support intestinal health and reduce inflammation. On the other hand, diets rich in refined sugars, processed foods, and saturated fats, like the Western diet, are associated with elevated inflammatory markers and worse clinical outcomes $32,34-38,124$. The fact that a higher HFD aligned with a better response underscore that a diverse diet can support gut microbiota diversity, which is crucial in IBD management. As mentioned, super responder showed a higher consumption of whole grains and a lower intake of processed foods, which may actively contribute to amplify treatment response via the modulation of gut inflammation and the promotion of a healthier microbiota. Conversely, non responders may be inclined toward processed or refined foods due to symptom-driven dietary choices. Patients in remission showed a higher EDII, which could indicate that pro-inflammatory

dietary patterns may be less impactful when the disease is stable. Additionally, the associations between dietary components and certain inflammation marker could also suggest that dietary choices may be linked to specific inflammatory pathways, influencing treatment response in various ways. These findings underline the complicated interaction between diet and treatment response in IBD, reinforcing the importance of dietary interventions that focus on diverse, minimally processed, and wholegrain rich foods to enhance clinical response and reduce inflammation. Dietary scoring systems like HFD and HEI could be helpful for guiding personalized nutrition strategies in IBD care.

The proposed analysis provides important insights concerning the relationship between dietary patterns, disease activity, and treatment response in Irish patients diagnosed with IBD, highlighting the pivotal role of diet in the management of this disease. The findings underscore some dietary differences between active and inactive disease states, UC extent, and treatment response groups, pointing out the possible benefits of diets that are characterized by diversity, whole grain and high fiber foods, and the adverse effects of processed and refined foods. As for dietary scores, HFD and HEI seem to be promising tools to assess diet quality. These results align with prior research, underscoring the need of personalized dietary intervention in order to improve disease management and treatment outcomes.

A consideration need to be made, while looking at the daily calories intake among the different BMI categories they didn't align with the expectations, patient who belonged in overweight or obesity categories were expected to have a higher caloric intake, while in this case they appeared to eat less, therefore they probably report less of what they actually eat (*Supplementary Figure 1*). This could be due to bias, like body image issue and the possibility to feel judged, or to the fact that symptom severity may contribute to a reduced food intake. This highlights a limitation of FFQ in capturing accurate dietary data, particularly in populations prone to reporting bias, leading to possible inaccuracies in the results.

This analysis has several limitations. The preliminary nature of it, meaning that not all the data from the AUGMENT clinical study were available, potentially limited the statistical power of the findings. Indeed many results lost significance after the adjustment for multiple testing, increasing the risk of false positives. Additionally, the FFQ used to assess patients' dietary intake could be exposed to reporting bias, specifically in overweight and obese

patients, leading to possible inaccuracies. Finally, the variability in individual disease states, different symptoms, and microbiota composition can complicate the interpretation of the possible findings.

Future research should validate these results once the AUGMENT clinical study is complete, including the role of gut microbiota in the observed dietary effects. Further improvements of dietary scores like HFD and HEI could be helpful in the development of personalized nutritional interventions for patients diagnosed with IBD.

CONCLUSION

The proposed analysis provides important insights concerning the relationship between dietary patterns, disease activity, and treatment response in Irish patients diagnosed with IBD, highlighting the pivotal role of diet in the management of this disease. Preliminary findings suggest that patients which have different disease extent, activity states, and treatment responses exhibit noticeable dietary choices and nutrient profile, possibly reflecting symptom driven adaptations or potential effects on inflammation and clinical outcomes. Higher dietary scores like HFD and HEI, which indicate greater dietary diversity and adherence to healthier dietary patterns, were linked to better treatment outcomes, underscoring the importance of diet quality in IBD care.

However, since this analysis is based on data from an ongoing clinical study, the results should be carefully interpreted and validated once the study is complete. Future studies should focus on improving dietary scoring systems and investigate the mechanism between dietary patterns, gut health, and therapeutic efficacy to develop personalized nutritional strategies for IBD management.

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SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Supplementary Figure 1: Comparison of daily caloric intake within BMI categories. (a) Comparison of daily caloric intake within BMI categories in all patients. (b) Comparison of daily caloric intake within BMI categories just in females. (c) *Comparison of daily caloric intake within BMI categories just in males. The grey interval represents the recommended daily caloric intake.*

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

PERMANOVA - FOOD ITEMS

S 1: PERMANOVA based on dietary composition data, using food items as input variables.

PERMANOVA - FOOD CATEGORIES

S 2: PERMANOVA based on dietary composition data, using food categories as input variables.

PERMANOVA - NUTRIENTS

S 3: PERMANOVA based on dietary composition data, using nutrients as input variables.

PERMANOVA - DIETARY SCORES

 S 4: PERMANOVA based on dietary composition data, using dietary scores as input variables.

WILCOXON - FOOD CATEGORIES - UC vs CD

S 5: Wilcoxon test comparing food categories intake between patients with UC and CD.

WILCOXON - NUTRIENTS - UC vs CD

S 6: Wilcoxon test comparing nutrients intake between patients with UC and CD.

WILCOXON - DIETARY SCORES - UC vs CD

S 7: Wilcoxon test comparing dietary scores between patients with UC and CD.

KRUSKAL - FOOD CATEGORIES - CD TYPES

S 8: Kruskal test comparing food categories intake between patients with different CD extent.

KRUSKAL - NUTRIENTS - CD TYPES

S 9: Kruskal test comparing nutrients intake between patients with different CD extent.

KRUSKAL - DIETARY SCORES - CD TYPES

S 10: Kruskal test comparing dietary scores between patients with different CD extent.

KRUSKAL - FOOD CATEGORIES - UC TYPES

S 11: Kruskal test comparing food categories intake between patients with different UC extent.

KRUSKAL - NUTRIENTS - UC TYPES

S 12: Kruskal test comparing nutrients intake between patients with different UC extent.

WILCOXON - FOOD CATEGORIES - CAS - INFLAMMATION V1

S 13: Wilcoxon test comparing food categories intake between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by clinical assessment scores at baseline.

KRUSKAL - FOOD CATEGORIES - CRP - INFLAMMATION V1

S 14: Wilcoxon test comparing food categories intake between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by CRP at baseline.

WILCOXON - NUTRIENTS - FCAL - INFLAMMATION V1

S 15: Wilcoxon test comparing nutrients intake between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by FCAL at baseline.

WILCOXON - NUTRIENTS - CAS - INFLAMMATION V1

S 16: Wilcoxon test comparing nutrients intake between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by clinical assessment scores at baseline.

KRUSKAL - NUTRIENTS - CRP - INFLAMMATION V1

S 17: Wilcoxon test comparing nutrients intake between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by CRP at baseline.

WILCOXON - NUTRIENTS - ENDO - INFLAMMATION V1

S 18: Wilcoxon test comparing nutrients intake between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by endoscopic scores at baseline.

WILCOXON - DIETARY SCORES - CAS - INFLAMMATION V1

S 19: Wilcoxon test comparing dietary scores between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by *clinical assessment scores at baseline.*

KRUSKAL - DIETARY SCORES - CRP - INFLAMMATION V1

S 20: Wilcoxon test comparing dietary scores between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by CRP *at baseline.*

WILCOXON - DIETARY SCORES - ALBUMIN - INFLAMMATION V1

S 21: Wilcoxon test comparing dietary scores between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by albumin at baseline.

WILCOXON - DIETARY SCORES - ENDO - INFLAMMATION V1

S 22: Wilcoxon test comparing dietary scores between active and inactive patients, with disease activity determined by endoscopic scores at baseline.

KRUSKAL - FOOD ITEMS - FCAL (V1-V3)

S 23: Kruskal-Wallis test comparing food items intake among patients categorized as in remission, non-responders, responders, and super-responders. Treatment response was determined by differences in FCAL levels between V1 and V3.

S 23 continued 1

S 23 continued 2

S 23 con4nued 3

KRUSKAL - FOOD CATEGORIES - CLINICAL RESPONSE

S 24: Kruskal-Wallis test comparing food categories intake among pa4ents categorized as in remission, non-responders, responders, and super-responders. Treatment response was determined by clinical response.

KRUSKAL - FOOD CATEGORIES - FCAL (V1-V3)

S 25: Kruskal-Wallis test comparing food categories intake among patients categorized as in remission, non-responders, responders, and super-responders. Treatment response was determined by differences in FCAL levels between V1 and V3.

KRUSKAL - NUTRIENTS - CLINICAL RESPONSE

S 26: Kruskal-Wallis test comparing nutrients intake among patients categorized as in remission, non-responders, *responders, and super-responders. Treatment response was determined by clinical response.*

KRUSKAL - NUTRIENTS - FCAL (V1-V3)

S 27: Kruskal-Wallis test comparing nutrients intake among pa4ents categorized as in remission, non-responders, responders, and super-responders. Treatment response was determined by differences in FCAL levels between V1 and V3.

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