Stress-Induced Mucin 13 Reductions Drive Intestinal Microbiome Shifts and Despair Behaviors

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Summary:

In this paper, authors identified a pathway by which stress induces microbiome shifts.

They found that psychological stress selectively alters a key mucosal protein, mucin 13, which in

turn modifies the microbial niche to induce changes in bacterial composition.

Abstract:

Depression is a prevalent psychological condition with limited treatment options. While

its etiology is multifactorial, both chronic stress and changes in the microbiome are associated

with disease pathology. In depression, stress is known to induce microbiome dysbiosis, defined

here as a change in microbial composition associated with a pathological condition. This state of

dysbiosis is then known to feedback on depressive symptoms. While studies have demonstrated

that targeted restoration of the microbiome can alleviate depressive-like symptoms in mice,

translating these findings to human patients has proven challenging due to the complexity of the

human microbiome. As such, there is an urgent need to identify factors upstream of microbial

dysbiosis. Here we investigate the role of mucin 13 as an upstream mediator of microbiome

composition changes. Using a model of chronic stress, we show that the mucosal protein, mucin

13, is selectively reduced after psychological stress exposure. We further demonstrate that the

reduction of *Muc13* is mediated by the *Hnf4* transcription factor family. Finally, we determine

that deleting *Muc13* is sufficient to drive microbiome shifts and despair behaviors. These findings

shed light on the mechanisms behind stress-induced microbial changes and reveal a regulator of

mucin 13 expression.

Introduction:

Depression and anxiety impact millions of people worldwide.[1] Although many treatments exist for these disorders, high rates of treatment-resistant cases remain, with up to 60% of patients unable to find satisfactory results.[2] This large population of patients living without relief for their mental health conditions highlights the need for further investigation into novel therapeutic treatments. While the etiology of depression remains complex, stress is known to be one of the largest contributing factors.[3,4] In addition, stress and depression are both associated with changes in the gut microbiome.[5,6] Alterations in the gut microbiome composition are present in depressed patients and conserved in animal models of depression, allowing researchers to investigate the bacterial strains that are most associated with disease onset. The microbiome has been extensively targeted as a potential treatment for mental health disorders: modification of the microbiome has been shown to reduce depression symptoms in humans and depressive-like behaviors in mice.[7-10] While promising, efforts to broadly manipulate the human microbiome remain inconsistent due to the microbiome's complexity, unknown microbe-microbe interactions, therapeutic microbes failing to colonize, microbe resource availability, and host heterogeneity.[9,11,12] To circumvent current microbiome therapeutic limitations and increase chances of successful microbial alterations in patients, there is a critical need to identify key conserved, targetable regulators of the microbiome.

The mucosal layer is critical to maintaining both intestinal homeostasis and overall health. In the absence of mucosal proteins, known as mucins, sweeping microbiome changes and spontaneous disease occur.[13-17] Mucins are highly glycosylated proteins that fall into two categories: soluble mucins and transmembrane mucins. [14,18] While soluble mucins make up the

gel-like layer that is commonly associated with mucus, transmembrane mucins remain tethered

to the cell membrane.[14,19] In the intestines, mucin 2 is the dominant soluble mucin, while mucin

13 and mucin 17 make up the majority of the intestinal transmembrane mucins (collectively

known as the glycocalyx).[14,19] Both soluble and transmembrane mucins have important roles in

regulating the intestine -- and importantly, the microbiome.[14] The mucosal layer provides both a

food source and anchor point for intestinal bacteria.[14] In addition, recent works have

demonstrated that the mucosal layer drives the stability and composition of the microbiome by

providing a permissive state for bacterial growth, and selecting for specific bacterial types along

the intestines by varying availability of glycan chains.[20-23] Supporting this idea, deletion of core 1

O-glycans in mice results in dramatic alterations to the microbiome composition and

spontaneous colitis.[24,25]

In addition, it has been demonstrated that stress hormones can alter the glycosylation

patterns of mucins, supporting the hypothesis that stress induces alterations in the mucosal layer

in a way that changes the microbial niche.[24,26,27] Together, these studies provide a foundation for

the hypothesis that stress can alter the mucus layer, and that this alteration can induce changes

in microbial composition.

Given the strong evidence supporting the role of the mucosal layer in microbiome

homeostasis and regulation, as well as the known ways in which stress can alter the mucosal

layer, we hypothesized that exposure to chronic stress alters the mucosal layer to change the

microbial niche and initiate microbiome changes. Here, we demonstrate that a model of chronic

stress selectively alters the expression of a transmembrane mucin, mucin 13. This change is not

seen after transfer of a microbiome from "stressed" mice into antibiotic treated or germ-free

mice, suggesting that changes in the microbiome composition itself does not reduce mucin 13.

In addition, we demonstrate the transcription factor hepatocyte nuclear factor 4 (HNF4)

regulates *Muc13* expression by binding the *Muc13* promoter. Finally, we demonstrate that

deletion of *Muc13* induces baseline despair behaviors, renders animals more susceptible to

anxiety-like behaviors, and alters microbial signatures in a way that mimics the composition of

microbes after stress exposure. Together, these findings suggest that Mucin 13 and HNF4 are

mechanistic regulators of stress-induced microbiome shifts.

Results:

Unpredictable Chronic Mild Restraint Stress Drives Despair and Anxiety-Like Behaviors and

Modifies the Gut Microbiome Composition:

To investigate the mechanisms of stress-induced microbiome alterations, we used

unpredictable chronic mild restraint stress (UCMRS), a version of a model of chronic stress known

to induce anxiety- and depressive-like behaviors and alter gut flora (Fig. 1A).[7] After three weeks,

mice exposed to UCMRS showed a significant increase in anxiety- like behaviors characterized by

an increase in nestlet shredding and decrease in time spent in the open arms of the elevated plus

maze (Fig. 1B). Despair behaviors were also detected through an increase in time inactive in both

the tail suspension and forced swim tests. In addition, a reduction in sucrose preference, a

measure for anhedonia, was observed in UCMRS exposed mice (Fig. 1B). In addition to behavioral

readouts, levels of murine stress-associated markers were measured from serum by mass

spectrometry (Fig. 1C and Ext. Data 1A-G). An increase in murine cortisol, but not corticosterone,

was detected in stressed mice, confirming a robust chronic stress response (Fig. 1C Ext. Data 1A).

While murine stress responses are often associated with changes in corticosterone, mice also

express cortisol to a lesser extent.[28-30] In addition, while changes in corticosterone are abundant

in acute models of stress, others have suggested that cortisol levels remain elevated in chronic

stress while corticosterone levels return to baseline.[28] Additionally, decreases in both serotonin

and glutamate were observed, consistent with findings in human depression.[31,32] No other

molecules tested were changed (Ext. Data 1A-G). This data highlights the validity of our model by

demonstrating that changes in molecules associated with human anxiety and depression, also

occur in mice exposed to UCMRS.

We next evaluated stress-induced microbiome composition changes by performing 16S

sequencing on fecal DNA from stressed and naïve animals. Using ASV-level data, we observed no

differences in measures of alpha diversity (richness (Fig. 1D) or evenness (Ext. Data 1H)).

However, there were significant differences in ASV-level derived beta diversity between naïve

and stressed animals (Fig. 1E). These differences were driven by changes in community

composition at the ASV level; for clarity, bacterial orders are depicted. Specifically, stress drove

relative reductions in *Clostridiales*, *Lactobacillales*, and an expansion of *Bacteroidales* (Fig. 1F and

Ext. Data 1I). Specific genus level changes between groups and the associated statistics can be

found in Ext. Data 1J and Ext. Data 5, Tab 2. Lastly, an ASV based random forest model accurately

predicted the bacterial orders associated with either baseline or stressed groups, strengthening

the link between stress and specific microbial shifts (Fig. 1G). Taken together, these results

demonstrate that unpredictable chronic mild restraint stress (UCMRS) induces despair and

anxiety-like behaviors in mice, alters murine stress hormone levels, and induces composition

shifts in the murine microbiome.

Unpredictable Chronic Mild Restraint Stress Reduces *Muc13* Expression *In Vivo*:

While it is well accepted that stress can change the microbiome in humans and mice (Fig.

1), the mechanisms behind these microbial shifts remain unknown.[9,33-36] Because the mucosal

layer, primarily composed of heavily glycosylated mucins, provides both an anchor point and

nutrient reservoir for bacteria, we hypothesized that a change in mucin composition could induce

microbiome shifts.[18,19,37] To test this, we first evaluated if mucin expression changed in stressed

conditions. Using RNA extracted from individual sections of the intestines of mice exposed to

UCMRS and naïve controls (Fig. 2A), we examined mucin expression by qPCR. Of all the mucins

examined (all detectable mucins: *Muc1*, *2*, *4*, *13*, and *17*), we found that *Muc13* was uniquely

reduced across intestinal segments (Fig. 2B-C and Ext. Data 2A-C). Additionally, to examine mucin

changes across genetic background, we examined *Muc13* and *Muc2* expression in BALB/cJ mice

exposed to stress. We found a similar reduction in *Muc13*, while no changes in *Muc2* expression

were observed (Ext. Data 2D-E). Taken together, these results suggest that stress induces changes

in *Muc13* expression, and that these changes are conserved across different genetic

backgrounds.

Stress-Induced *Muc13* Reductions are Driven Independently of Transferrable Microbial Products:

155   The microbiome is a known influencer of the mucus layer. While we hypothesized that

156   stress-induced changes in the mucosal layer lead to changes in microbiome composition, we also

157   considered that stress-induced shifts in the microbiome could instead be modulating *Muc13*

158 expression.[37,38] If this was the case, it would suggest that mucin 13 changes would occur after

159 microbial shifts in our model. To test this hypothesis, we utilized two different models to examine

160 the impacts of the microbiome on mucin 13. First, after treating mice with antibiotics for two

161 weeks, we transferred the fecal microbiomes from naïve or stressed mice via oral gavage (Fig.

162 2D). Two weeks post reconstitution, intestinal samples were collected to examine microbiome

163 composition and mucin expression. 16S sequencing revealed that donor samples clustered

164 distinctly from each other (Ext. Data 2F, light blue and dark pink). In addition, recipient mice

165 clustered nearer to their donor sample but separately from each other, demonstrating distinct

166 microbiomes and successful transfer of the expected signatures (Ext. Data 2F-G). We next

167 examined RNA expression of intestinal mucins between groups. Importantly, no change in mucin

168 13 expression was detected between animals that received a stressed or naïve microbiome (Fig.

169 2E). In addition, we saw no change in any other mucins expressed between groups (Fig. 2F and

170 Ext. Data 2H-J). These data demonstrate that microbial signatures from the transferred stressed

171 microbiomes are not sufficient to reduce mucin 13 expression.

172  To complement this approach, we also examined the impact of stressed microbial

173 signatures in germ free mice. Our lab has successfully demonstrated that microbial signatures

174 from stressed mice can alter despair and anxiety-like behaviors in germ free mice.[39] Therefore,

175 using intestinal samples collected from germ free mice which were given fecal pellets from naïve

176 or stress-exposed animals, we again examined changes in mucin expression by qPCR. Our results

177 indicated that, similar to the antibiotic treated mice, no reduction in *Muc13* was observed (Fig.

178 2G). While we saw no changes in *Muc1*, *Muc4*, or *Muc17*, we did see an expected increase in

179 *Muc*2 expression with microbiome reconstitution in germ free mice (Fig. 2H and Ext. Data 2K-

M).[40] These results demonstrate that microbial signatures from stressed animals, while enough

to induce behavioral changes, are not sufficient to reduce *Muc13* expression in the intestines.

This again suggests that the mucin 13 changes observed in stress are not driven by -- and indeed

likely precede -- microbial changes in the intestines. Taken together, these results support the

hypothesis that stress-induced reductions in mucin 13 are driven independently of transferrable

microbial signatures.

***Muc13* Reductions are Driven by Reductions in Intestinal HNF4:**

188   To understand how stress induces reductions in *Muc13* expression, we explored

transcription factors which are known to bind to *Muc13* by examining published small intestine

and colon ChIP-seq data sets through the UCSC genome browser.[41] Results revealed that

hepatocyte nuclear factor 4 (HNF4) is able to bind to the promoter region of *Muc13* in both the

small and large intestines.[42,43] HNF4, a transcription factor which is a member of the nuclear

receptor superfamily, plays a critical role in regulating metabolism, epithelial tight junctions, and

the differentiation and proliferation of enterocytes in the intestines.[44] In addition to these

functions, *Hnf*4 expression has been shown to regulate the brush border, the collection of

microvilli along the intestinal tract.[45] As the brush border is thought to be modulated by the

density of the glycocalyx, and therefore transmembrane mucins, HNF4 is a logical candidate to

mediate changes in *Muc13* expression.[46] Importantly, stress hormones have also been shown to

inhibit *Hnf*4 expression in a model of high fat diet.[47] Together, these works provide a foundation

for the hypothesis that stress may be able to regulate *Hnf4* expression in a way that reduces

Muc13 expression.

In order to investigate the ability of HNF4 to regulate *Muc13* expression, we first analyzed

previously performed HNF4 and H3K27ac ChIP-seq on wildtype duodenal villus cells to examine

binding at the *Muc13* locus.[48] Results indicated that in wildtype mice, both HNF4 and H3K27ac, a

marker of transcription, are enriched in the promoter region of *Muc13* (Fig. 3A). This suggests

that HNF4 binds the *Muc13* promoter in a site that is marked for active transcription, supporting

the idea that HNF4 can regulate *Muc13* expression. We next wanted to examine the impacts of

HNF4 deletion on *Muc13* expression in the intestine. To do this, we utilized the previously

described *Villin-Cre^ERT2*; *Hnf4a^F/F*; *Hnf4g* ^Crispr/Crispr^ double knockout mouse line (*Hnf4* DKO) which

lacks both HNF4 paralogs.[48] Analyzing previously performed RNA Polymerase II (RNAP2) ChIP-seq

on duodenal villus epithelial cells in wildtype controls and *Hnf4* DKO animals, we found that the

RNAP2 signal at the *Muc13* promoter is markedly reduced in the *Hnf4* DKO animals compared to

controls (Fig. 3B). To complement this approach, we further examined previously performed

H3K4me3 chromosome conformation capture with chromatin immunoprecipitation (HiChIP) and

RNA-seq on control and *Hnf4* DKO duodenal villus epithelial cells.[49] Analysis revealed fewer

H3K4me3 chromatin loops in the *Muc13* promoter region in *Hnf4* DKO animals than in control

duodenal villus epithelial cells, suggesting fewer sites of active transcription (Fig. 3C). In addition,

RNA sequencing results showed a significant reduction in *Muc13* expression in duodenal villus

epithelial cells after the loss of *Hnf4* (Fig. 3D). We next performed qPCR for mucin expression on

all sections of the intestines from control and *Hnf4* DKO animals. We found that in addition to

the successful deletion of the *Hnf4* paralogs (Fig. 3E-F), there was also a significant reduction in

Muc13 expression across the intestines (Fig. 3G), that was not seen in any other tested mucins

(Fig 3H and Ext. Data 3A). Lastly, we analyzed intestinal expression of *Hnf4* from mice exposed to

3 weeks of UCMRS (Fig. 1A). Our results indicated that *Hnf4* expression is significantly reduced

in the intestines after stress exposure (Fig. 3I-J). In addition, leucine rich repeat containing G

protein coupled receptor 5 (Lgr5), which is known to be suppressed in *Hnf4* knockout animals,

was also significantly reduced (Fig. 3K).[50] Furthermore, germ-free mice that had been given fecal

pellets from stressed or naïve mice showed no differences in *Hnf4* expression, suggesting that

Hnf4 expression is not driven by transferrable microbial products (Ext. Data 3B-C).

In order to examine the impacts of HNF4 on *Muc13* expression more directly, we utilized

HT-29 cells. HT-29 cells are a human colon cancer cell line that is known to express both mucins

and *Hnf4*.[51,52] Cells were treated with an HNF4 antagonist (BI6015) or a DMSO control for 24

hours.[53,54] We then extracted the RNA from the collected cells and examined mucin expression

as before. We found that treatment with the antagonist BI6015 showed a significant

downregulation of *MUC13* expression (Fig. 3L). In addition, *LGR5* showed decreased expression

with BI6015, demonstrating successful antagonist activity on HNF4 (Fig. 3M).[50] Finally, BI6015

was also found to significantly decrease expression of *MUC1* and significantly increase expression

of *MUC17* (Fig. 3N-O). However, as the expression of these other transmembrane mucins was

not impacted by HNF4 reductions *in vivo* (Ext. Data 2B-C, Ext. Data3A), there are likely other

factors that more strongly contribute to changes in their expression. These results further

support the hypothesis that *MUC13* is regulated by HNF4.

Together, these data suggest that in the absence of HNF4, there is less active

transcription at, and fewer transcripts of, the *Muc13* gene; this supports the hypothesis that

Muc13 is regulated by HNF4. Our results also demonstrate that after UCMRS exposure, there is

a significant reduction in *Hnf4* that occurs independently of transferrable microbial products,

suggesting that stress is capable of reducing *Hnf4 in vivo*. Finally, we show that direct modulation

of HNF4 results in *Muc13* expression changes *in vitro,* validating our *in vivo* findings. Taken

together, these results demonstrate that *Muc13* expression is modulated by HNF4 both *in vitro*

and *in vivo,* and after stress exposure.

***Muc13* Deletion Induces Baseline Behavioral and Microbiome Changes and Renders Mice More**

Susceptible to UCMRS:

Given our data demonstrating that *Muc13* is specifically downregulated in stressed

animals (Fig. 2B), we sought to examine if deleting *Muc13* impacted the microbiome and

behavioral outputs in mice. Using the *i*-GONAD system, we created a *Muc13* knockout (*Muc13*^{-/-}

) mouse line by deleting a 475bp region of the *Muc13* gene containing the start codon (Fig.

4A).[55,56] Validation of the knockout line was performed using both qPCR (Fig. 4B-C) and

immunofluorescence (Fig. 4D-E). Importantly, no changes were observed in *Muc2* at the

transcript or protein levels, suggesting that *Muc2* expression was not changed with the loss of

Muc13 (Fig. 4C and F). To complement this approach, we also examined detectable mucins at the

protein level by mass spectrometry in *Muc13*^{-/-} and control animals. To do this, we employed a

mucin enrichment strategy that takes advantage of an inactive protease selective for mucin

domains; mucins from *Muc13*^{-/-} and control animal intestines were enriched and subjected to MS

analysis.[57,58] We were able to see a significant reduction in the MUC13 protein in all sections of

the intestine (Fig. 4G). No other detectable mucin was statistically significantly changed (Fold

Change >5), suggesting that none of the other membrane mucins nor soluble mucins,

compensate for the loss of MUC13. Together, these data demonstrate a successful deletion of

MUC13 in our knockout line.

We next sought to understand the impacts of *Muc13* deletion on microbiome

composition. We compared 16S sequencing results from fecal samples collected from adult

wildtype and *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ animals that were separated by genotype at weaning. Interestingly, we

found that *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ animals (light green) clustered distinctly from wildtype controls (light

orange), suggesting that *Muc13* deletion significantly impacts the composition of the microbiome

at baseline (Fig. 5B). In addition, to understand if *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ animals have stress induced

microbiome shifts, we used an abbreviated 1-week UCMRS protocol (Fig. 5A). In our hands, this

abbreviated protocol allows for substantial microbial shifts, but does not yet yield all stress-

induced anxiety-like and despair behaviors in wildtype animals (Fig. 5D-G, light orange to dark

pink bars). This allows us to examine if *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ animals are susceptible to different UCMRS

induced microbial shifts than wildtype controls, and if *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ mice are more susceptible to

UCMRS-induced behavioral changes. Our results show that while wildtype samples show a

significant shift in microbial composition after 1 week of UCMRS (light orange to dark pink dots),

Muc13$^{-/-}$ (light green to dark green dots) samples remained clustered together (Fig. 5B). This

suggests that the microbiome of *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ animals is different from WT animals at baseline and

is less modified by 1-week of UCMRS exposure. In addition, samples from wildtype animals

exposed to 1 week of UCMRS shifted towards both groups (baseline and 1 week UCMRS, light

and dark green dots) of the *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ animals, supporting the idea the *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ animals have

microbial signatures which mimic stress-induced microbiome signatures (Fig. 5B). To further

understand the similarities between the *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ microbiome and the UCMRS-exposed

microbiome, we compared the significantly changed bacterial families between baseline

wildtype and baseline *Muc13*^{-/-} animals to the significantly changed bacterial families between

baseline wildtype animals and wildtype animals exposed to 1 week of UCMRS. Of the bacterial

families that had significant changes in either group, 69% of those changes overlapped (Fig. 5C).

While we also examined overlapping changes at the genus and ASV levels, algorithm matching

limitations hindered our ability to draw conclusions. While 58% of genera and 62% of ASV

changes overlapped between groups, only ~45% of total reads could be matched to a known

genus or ASV -- making clear comparisons at these levels difficult (Ext. Data 5, Tab 3).

Nonetheless, data at the family level suggests significant overlap in changes between baseline

control and baseline *Muc13*^{-/-} animals when compared to baseline control and UCMRS exposed

controls. Together, these data further suggest that *Muc13* deletion induces a change in the

microbiome that closely mimics the microbial shifts observed after UCMRS exposure.

Given the established connection between microbiome changes and mental health, we

sought to examine if *Muc13* deletion impacted anxiety-like and despair behaviors in mice.[7] Both

Muc13^{-/-} animals and wildtype controls were subjected to the open field, nestlet shred, tail

suspension, and forced swim tests (Fig. 5A, D-G). Behavior was collected at baseline and after 1

week of UCMRS for all animals. Interestingly, at baseline, we observed no differences in anxiety-

like behaviors in the open field or nestlet shredding tests between *Muc13*^{-/-} and wildtype controls

(Fig. 5D-E, left columns). However, strong despair behaviors were observed in both the tail

suspension and forced swim tests (Fig. 5F-G, left columns), suggesting *Muc13*^{-/-} mice display

innate despair, but not anxiety-like, behaviors. In addition, to gain a full picture of the impact of

Muc13 deletion on susceptibility to stress-induced despair and anxiety-like behaviors, we

subjected wildtype and *Muc13*^{-/-} mice to 1 week of UCMRS. Critically, as supported by other

studies, 1 week of UCMRS exposure represents a subclinical model of stress that does not induce

all expected behavioral changes in wildtype animals[59,60]. Thus, we hypothesized that if *Muc13*^{-/-}

deletion rendered animals more susceptible to stress, they would exhibit despair and anxiety-

like behaviors earlier than wildtype animals.[61] Supporting this hypothesis, following 1 week of

UMCRS, *Muc13*^{-/-} animals had significant reductions in the amount of time spent in the center of

the open field test, as well as significant increases in the amount of nestlet removed in the nestlet

shred test. These results indicate that 1 week of UCMRS is sufficient to induce anxiety-like

phenotypes in *Muc13*^{-/-} animals, but not their wildtype counterparts (Fig. 5D-E, green columns).

Furthermore, in the tail suspension and forced swim tests, we saw no increase in time spent

inactive as the *Muc13*^{-/-} animals presented with despair behaviors at baseline and likely hit a

ceiling effect (Fig. 5F-G, green columns). To complement these classical behavioral assays, we

used unbiased artificial intelligence (DeepLabCut) to detect animal poses (Fig. 5H-J and Ext. Data

4).[62,63] In this approach, 10-minute videos of mice exploring an open field box were broken down

into 25 individual motifs (Fig. 5H). Each motif was characterized and grouped into a general

behavioral classification (rearing/grooming, turning, etc.). Individual motifs represent a

behavioral pattern based on mouse limb and tail position detected by DeepLabCut. For example,

the general behavior classification "turning" included motifs such "head turning left", "mid-point

of right turn", etc. As these motifs all make up a complete behavior, there were grouped in

general classifications. Once grouped, changes in the percentage of time spent in each behavioral

motif were quantified between *Muc13*^{-/-} and wildtype animals (Fig. 5H-J). Baseline analysis

revealed that of the 25 distinct motifs, 16% were significantly changed between groups (Ext. Data

4A-B), suggesting that, like in classical behavioral assays, distinctions between *Muc13*^{-/-} and

wildtype animals are present at baseline. Similarly, the DeepLabCut software was able to detect

significant differences between groups after 1 week of UCMRS exposure, with 40% of behavioral

motifs being changed between *Muc13*^{-/-} and wildtype controls (Fig. 4I-J).

Our results show that *Muc13* deletion can drive both microbiome shifts that mirror

microbial changes induced by stress, and despair behaviors at baseline -- highlighting the critical

role of mucin 13 in maintaining microbial and behavioral homeostasis. In addition, deletion of

Muc13 renders animals more susceptible to stress-induced anxiety-like behaviors. Together,

these results support the hypothesis that stress induced *Muc13* reductions can drive microbial

shifts that lead to behavioral changes in mice.

Discussion:

Our work demonstrates that stress induces microbiome changes and behavioral changes

in mice. In addition, stress also reduces expression of a key component of the mucosal layer,

mucin 13. Our data also supports the hypothesis that stress mediates this reduction in *Muc13*

expression by reducing the intestinal transcription factor HNF4. Furthermore, we demonstrate

that deletion of mucin 13 is sufficient to induce microbiome shifts and behavioral changes that

mimic stress-induced phenotypes at baseline. In addition to these baseline changes, mice lacking

mucin 13 also are more susceptible to behavioral changes after exposure to a model of sub-

clinical unpredictable chronic mild restraint stress. Together, these data define how stress is able

to induce shifts in microbial composition in the intestines, providing a foundation for future

studies.

Our results are supported by concepts in previously published literature. For example, it

is well known that there is a reciprocal relationship between the mucus layer and microbes.[37] In

fact, disruption of the intestinal mucus layer results in sweeping microbiome changes,

heightened inflammation, and disease onset-- supporting the idea that changes in mucus can

impact other systems in the body.[13,16,17,37,64-68] Additionally, stress has been shown to alter the

glycosylation patterns of mucins.[27] As changes in glycosylation are also known to alter the

microbiome, the connection between stress and mucin induced microbiome changes is well

supported.[23,69] Finally, the connection between mucins and depression has also been suggested

in the literature. Specifically, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in *MUC13* have been

identified in GWAS studies of depressed populations.[70-72] In addition, SNPs in O-glycosylation

have also been identified in populations with treatment resistant depression.[72,73] In aggregate,

these data support our results, suggesting that mucin 13 is an important driver of microbiome

shifts and despair behaviors in mice.

Mechanistically, our results show that HNF4 can bind to the *Muc13* promoter, while the

loss of *Hnf4* results in reduced transcription of *Muc13* in the intestines of mice. In addition, we

have shown that chronic stress induces reductions in both *Muc13* and *Hnf4* expression. While

more work is needed to understand how stress regulates *Hnf4* in our chronic stress model,

literature suggests that this regulation could occur through the phosphorylation of extracellular

signal-regulated kinase (ERK) 1/2. While there is no glucocorticoid response element (GRE) in the

Hnf4 gene, ERK 1/2 is known to be a potent inhibitor of *Hnf4* expression.[74] In addition, stress

hormones have repeatedly been demonstrated to enhance ERK 1/2 phosphorylation.[75-77] These

works provide a mechanistic foundation for how stress could be reducing *Hnf4* expression in the

intestines. While the basis for our hypothesis is well supported, no works have demonstrated

how stress specifically regulates *Hnf4*, leaving a gap in knowledge to be filled by future studies.

By defining a novel mechanism through which stress alters the microbiome, our results

have brought to light a key aspect in stress-induced behavioral changes. We have demonstrated

that a transmembrane mucin is specifically and indirectly regulated by stress in a way that

interferes with its homeostatic expression patterns, inducing microbiome composition changes

and despair behaviors in mice. Mucin 13 is conserved between humans and mice, meaning that

it could be a broadly applicable therapeutic target for patients with stress-induced depression,

who present with microbiome changes. Although our results are directly related to stress-

induced depression, they provide a basis for further research to target transmembrane mucins

as intervention points for diseases that present with or are driven by pathogenic microbiome

alterations, such as colitis or Parkinson's Disease.[78]

Methods

Mice: C57BL/6j and BALB/cJ mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories (strain #000664 and

#000651, respectively). Mice were bred in-house and kept on a 12-h light/dark schedule. All mice

were group housed up to 5 mice per cage unless separated for fighting or designated to a stressed

group, where they were singly housed. All behavioral interventions were performed between 8

am and 3 pm and animals were sacrificed between 7 am and 1 pm. Experimental and control

animals were sacrificed in alternating patterns to ensure proper controls for circadian

consideration. *Villin-Cre*^{ERT2}; *Hnf4a*$^{F/F}$; *Hnf4g*$^{Crispr/Crispr}$ animals were generated at Rutgers

University under the care of the Verzi lab. Inducible knockouts for sequencing were given 1

injection of tamoxifen (50mg/kg) for 2-3 days (2-3 total doses) to catch early changes in the

intestines. HNF4 DKO mice used for qPCR were given 1 injection of tamoxifen (50mg/kg) for 4

days (4 total doses). Animals were harvested on the 5th day. All control animals were given saline.

Mucin-13 knockout lines were generated using the iGONAD technique as described, using

a BTX ECM 830 Electroporation System (Harvard Apparatus).[55,56] Briefly, the *Muc13* sequence

was taken from the UCSC genome browser, mouse assembly Dec. 2011 (GRCm38/mm10),

Genomic Sequence (chr16:33,794,037-33,819,927)[41]. Exons 1 and 2 including the intervening

intron where analyzed with CRISPOR (http://crispor.tefor.net/; Concordet and Haeussler 2018)[93].

Exon 2, containing the protein start sequence, was targeted for excision at these two target

sequences + PAM sites: Exon2_protein_start_sequence GCAAGAGCAGCTACCATGAA (AGG) and

Exon2_end_of_exon AGTCTCCTTTTGGTGACCGT (GGG). Alt-R S.p. HiFi Cas9 Nuclease, tracrRNA,

and crRNA XT for the two target sequences were purchased (IDT). Prior to surgery, the Alt-R

CRISPR/Cas9 reagents were prepared according to IDT guidelines: crRNA-XT and tracrRNA were

annealed to form the gRNA, then complexed to the S.p HiFi Cas9 nuclease, and then diluted with

sterile Opti-MEM with Fast Green FCF to aid visualization.

Plugged females were anesthetized and maintained with isoflurane ~16 hours after

copulation was assumed to have occurred (estimate copulation around midnight, surgeries were

done at 4pm). Anesthesia was confirmed by toe pinch and eyes were lubricated with Puralube

ointment. The lower dorsal skin of the mouse was soaked in betadine followed by two washes

with isopropanol. A dorsal incision was made to expose the ovaries, oviduct, and uterine horn.

Using a pulled micropipette, ~1.5ul of the CRISPR/Cas9 solution was drawn up and then injected

between the infundibulum and ampulla, intraoviductally dispensing the solution slowly to avoid

backflow. The oviduct was covered in a wetted, sterile kimwipe and immediately electroporated

using 3-mm platinum tweezer rode electrodes (BTX) delivering 50V for 5ms with 1s interval for 8

square-wave pulses using a BTX ECM 830 Electroporation System (Harvard Apparatus). The

oviduct was returned to the abdominal cavity and the procedure was repeated on the opposite

side oviduct. Once both oviducts were injected and electroporated the incision was sutured, and

the stitches secured with liquid bandage before receiving a postop subcutaneous injection of

ketoprofen (5mg/kg of mouse body weight) with subsequent injections for up to five days as

needed. All procedures were approved by the University of Virginia ACUC (protocol #3918). All

experiments were conducted and reported according to ARRIVE guidelines.

METHOD DETAILS

Stress Experiments and Behavioral Tests: Unpredictable Chronic Mild Restraint Stress (UCMRS)

experiments and behavioral experiments (the forced swim, tail suspension, sucrose preference,

open field, elevated plus maze, and nestlet shred tests) were performed as previously

described.[62]

Stress protocol: For UCMRS, all animals were single housed. Mice were exposed to 2

hours of restraint stress and one overnight stressor per day. Restraint stress was performed by

putting mice into ventilated 50mL conical tubes for 2 hours. Overnight stressors included one of

the following: 45-degree cage tilt, wet bedding, or 2x cage change. Wet bedding was performed

by wetting standard cage bedding with ~200mL of murine drinking water. 2x cage change

included replacing cage bases 2x within 24 hours. 45-degree cage tilt included propping cages up

to ~45-degrees overnight.

Behavioral Tests: All testing (with exception to the nestlet shred and sucrose preference

tests) was recorded on a Hero Session 5 GoPro and analyzed with Noldus behavioral analysis

software.

Nestlet Shred: Mice were moved into fresh individual cages and allowed to habituate for

1 hour. After 1 hour, a weighed nestlet was placed in the center of the cage. Mice were allowed

to interact with the nestlet for 30 min. After 30 min, nestlets were removed and weighed. Before

weighing, excess nestlet was stripped from the main piece of nestlet by lightly dragging fingers

across each area of the nestlet starting from the center (center up, center left, center right, center

down). Once completed, nestlet was flipped and the process was repeated for the corners (center

to upper right, center to upper left, center to lower right, center to lower left). Equal pressure

was applied to each nestlet. Change in amount shredded and percent shredded were calculated

from the weighed nestlet values.

Sucrose Preference test: Mice were housed individually and given 2 water bottles/cage.

One water bottle contained normal drinking water, the other contained 1% sucrose water. Mice

had access to the bottles for 3 days. On Day 0, bottles were primed and weighed and put in cages.

Day 1: 24 hours later, water bottles were removed from cages and weighed. Once weighed,

bottles were replaced, but with swapped positions (i.e.- if sucrose was on the left on Day 0, it was

on the right on Day 1). The first night of sucrose preference is considered habituation and the

values are not included in analysis. Day 2: 24 hours after replacing water bottles, bottles were

weighed and replaced as on day 1. Day 3: 24 hours after replacing water bottles, bottles were

removed and weighed for a final time. Sucrose preference was calculated by determining the

percentage of each bottle drunk on day 2 and 3 and averaging those values.

Elevated Plus Maze: Mice were placed on an elevated plus maze apparatus and allowed

to explore for 5 minutes. The elevated plus maze was cleaned with 70% ethanol between each

run and recorded on a GoPro Hero Session 5 or 8. Files were analyzed with Noldus behavior

software.

Open field/DeepLabCut: Animals were placed into a 14in x 14in box with opaque walls

and a raised clear bottom (18in). Animals were allowed to explore freely for 10 minutes. Hero

session 8s were placed ~18in below the box to record animal movements from below. Noldus

behavioral software was used to determine if animals were in the perimeter or center of the box.

Videos were also used for DeepLabCut analysis. Analysis is described below.

Metabolite Mass Spectrometry: 25 µL of plasma was extracted using 500 µL of cold

acetonitrile followed by vortexing and 10 minutes of centrifugation at 14K rpm. 450 µL of the

resulting supernatant was transferred to a clean Eppendorf and dried completely by Speedvac.

Each sample was reconstituted with 25 µL of 50% methanol in 0.1% formic acid/water, vortexed

and transferred to autosampler vials for analysis by mass spectrometry. Eleven metabolites were

quantitated by PRM (parallel reaction monitoring) using a Thermo Orbitrap ID-X mass

spectrometer coupled to a Waters BEH C18 column (15 cm x 2.1 mm). Metabolites were eluted

with a Vanquish UHPLC system over a 15 min gradient (10 µL injection, 200 µL/min, buffer A –

0.1% formic acid in water, buffer B - 0.1% formic acid in methanol). The mass resolution was set

to 120K for detection using the transitions outlines in Extended Data 5, Tab 1.

Raw data files for samples, blanks and calibration curves were imported into Skyline

(https://skyline.ms/project/home/begin.view). Calibration curves were generated with a linear

regression. Peak areas for analytes in samples were used for quantification based in the

generated   calibration   curves.   Raw   files   can   be   downloaded   for   analysis   at

https://www.metabolomicsworkbench.org under study ID: ST002345

Mass Spectrometry: Frozen intestinal tissue sections were homogenized use the Cryo-

Cup Grinder (BioSpec Products, Cat. No. 206) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Pulverized tissue was transferred into ice-cold 150 uL dialyzable lysis buffer, consisting of 1% N-

octylglucoside (Research Products International, N02007), 1% CHAPS (Research Products

International, C41010), 50 mM Tris (American Bio, AB14044), 100 mM NaCl (Research Products

International, S23025), 2 mM $MgCl_2$ (American Bio, AB09006), benzonase (Sigma Aldrich, E1014),

and protease inhibitor (Roche, 11836170001). Samples were rotated at 4 °C for 2 hours, followed

by centrifugation for 30 minutes at 15,000 rcf and passed through a 0.7 μm filter. $StcE^{E447D}$ was

expressed   and   purified   as   previously   described.[57,58] 500 ug of NHS-Activated Agarose Slurry

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, 26200) was activated with 1 mM HCl and PBS. $StcE^{E447D}$ (1 mL of 1.45

mg/mL) was added to the slurry and rotated at 4 °C for 3 hours. Beads were rinsed with 100 mM

Tris and the reaction quenched with 100 mM acetate buffer. Beads were washed with 20 mM

Tris. Beads were then washed and stored in 20 mM Tris 150 mM NaCl. Filtered supernatants were

rotated overnight at 4 °C with 100 uL $StcE^{E447D}$-NHS bead slurry and 0.01 M EDTA. All reactions

were brought up to 1 mL with 20 mM Tris 150 mM NaCl. Beads were then rinsed with 10 mM Tris

1 M NaCl, 10 mM Tris 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM NaCl and MS grade water (Thermo Scientific, 51140).

Protein was eluted with 1% sodium deoxycholate (Research Products International, D91500-

25.0) in 50 mM Ammonium bicarbonate (AmBic) (Honeywell Fluka, 40867), at 95 °C for 5 minutes.

Dithiothreitol (DTT) (Sigma Aldrich, D0632) was added to 20% of the eluent to a final

concentration of 2mM and allowed to react at 65 °C for 25 minutes. Alkylation in 5 mM

iodoacetamide (IAA) (Sigma Aldrich, I1149) was performed for 15 minutes in the dark at room

temperature. 0.05µg of sequencing-grade trypsin (Promega, V5111) was added to each 20%

aliquot and allowed to react for 3 hours at 37 °C. Reactions were quenched by adding 1 µL formic

acid. All reactions were diluted to a volume of 100 µL prior to desalting. Desalting was performed

using 10mg Strata-X 33µm polymeric reversed phase SPE columns (Phenomenex, 8B-S100-AAK).

Each column was activated using 1 mL acetonitrile (ACN) (Honeywell, LC015) followed by of 1 mL

0.1% formic acid, 1 mL 0.1% formic acid in 50% ACN, and equilibration with addition of 1 mL 0.1%

formic acid. After equilibration, the samples were added to the column and rinsed with 200 µL

0.1% formic acid. The columns were transferred to a 1.5 mL tube for elution by two additions of

150 µL 0.1% formic acid in 50% ACN. The eluent was then dried using a vacuum concentrator

(LabConco) prior to reconstitution in 10 µL of 0.1% formic acid.

Samples were analyzed by online nanoflow liquid chromatography-tandem mass

spectrometry using an Orbitrap Eclipse Tribrid mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

coupled to a Dionex UltiMate 3000 HPLC (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For each analysis, 5µL was

injected onto an Acclaim PepMap 100 column packed with 2 cm of 5µm C18 material (Thermo

Fisher, 164564) using 0.1% formic acid in water (solvent A). Peptides were then separated on a

15cm PepMap RSLC EASY-Spray C18 Column packed with 2μm C18 material (Thermo Fisher,

ES904) using a gradient from 0-35% solvent B. (0.1% formic acid with 80% CAN) in 60 minutes.

Full scan MS1 spectra were collected at a resolution of 60,000, an automatic gain control of 1E5,

and a mass range from 400-1500 m/z. Dynamic exclusion was enabled with a repeat count of 2

and repeat and duration of 8 seconds. Only charge states 2 to 6 were selected for fragmentation.

MS2s were generated at top speed for 3 seconds. Higher-energy collisional dissociation (HCD)

was performed on all selected precursor masses with the following parameters: isolation window

of 2m/z, stepped collision energies of 25%, 30%, 40%, orbitrap detection (resolution of 7500),

maximum inject time of 75ms, and a standard AGC target.

Label-free quantification was performed using the minimal workflow for MaxQuant

according to the established protocol for standard data sets.[79] Files were searched with fully

specific cleavage C-terminal to an Arg or Lys residue, with 2 allowed missed cleavages.

Carbamidomethyl Cys was set as a fixed modification. Raw data generated from each intestinal

section was included and analyzed using Perseus, according to the recommended protocol for

label-free interaction data (Fold change >5 as the cutoff).

Fecal DNA Extraction and 16S rRNA Gene Sequencing: DNA was isolated from fecal

pellets using the phenol/chloroform method as described.[7] Samples were then processed with

QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen #28106). Full protocol is outlined below:

250μL of 0.1 mm zirconia/silica beads (BioSpec #11079101z) were added to a sterile 2 mL

screwtop tube (Celltreat #230830). One 4 mm steel ball was added to each tube (BioSpec

#11079132ss). 500μL of Buffer A (200 mM TrisHCl, pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl, 20 mM EDTA) and 210μL

of 20% SDS were added to each fecal pellet in a separate 1.7mL tube. Pellets were vortexed and

supernatant transferred to the 2mL screwtop tube containing beads. 500µL of

Phenol/chloroform/IAA were added to each screwtop tube. Tubes were allowed to beadbeat on

high for 4 min at room temperature. Samples were then centrifuge at 12000 rpm for 5 min at

4°C. 420µL of the aqueous layer were transferred to a new 1.7mL tube. 100uL of samples were

then processed using the Qiagen PCR Purification Kit

3 week UCMRS experiments: The V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified from

each sample using a dual indexing sequencing strategy.[80] Samples were sequenced on the MiSeq

platform (Illumina) using the MiSeq Reagent Kit v2 (500 cycles, Illumina #MS102-2003) according

to the manufacturer's protocol with modifications found in the Schloss Wet Lab SOP

(https://github.com/SchlossLab/MiSeq_WetLab_SOP).

Fig 1 16S Sequence Analysis: All processing and analysis of 16S rRNA sequencing data was

performed in R (version 4.1.2).[81] Raw sequencing reads were processed for downstream analysis

using DADA2 (version 1.22.0).[82] Processing included inspection of raw reads for quality, filtering

of low-quality reads, merging of paired reads, and removal of chimeric sequences. Length

distribution of non-chimeric sequences was plotted to ensure lengths matched the expected V4

amplicon size. Taxonomy was assigned to amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) by aligning reads

with the Silva reference database (version 138.1).[83]

Microbiota diversity and community composition were analyzed using the packages

phyloseq (version 1.38.0), microbiome (version 1.16.0), and vegan (version 2.5.7).[84-86] The

packages tidyverse (version 1.3.0), and ggplot2 (version 3.3.5) were used for data organization

and visualization.[87,88] Random forest analysis was performed using the and randomForest

(version 4.6.14), vegan (version 6.0.90), and pROC (version 1.18.0) packages.[89-91]

Samples were first divided into training (70% of samples, divided equally between

Baseline and Stressed samples) and test (30% of samples) sets. The training set was used to tune

the "mtry" parameter of the model, while the test set was used to validate model performance.

Feature importance was determined using the Gini index, which measures the total decrease in

node impurity averaged across all trees.

Custom code and detailed instructions can be found at:

https://github.com/gbmoreau/Gautier-manuscript. Raw sequencing reads can be found in the

NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database under PRJNA867333.

Microbiome Transfer Experiments: Antibiotic microbiome transfer experiments were

performed by treating mice with a cocktail of the following antibiotics: Ampicillin (Sigma-Aldrich,

A8351), Neomycin (Sigma-Aldrich, N6386), Metronidazole (Sigma-Aldrich, M1547), and

Vancomycin (Sigma-Aldrich, V1130). Ampicillin, Neomycin, and Metronidazole were added to

water containing 8g/L of a zero-calorie sweetener at 1g/L. Vancomycin was added at 500mg/L.

Mice were allowed to drink ad labium for two weeks and fresh antibiotic solutions were made

once per week. After 2 weeks of antibiotic treatment, mice were given an oral gavage of 100uL

of either naïve or stressed fecal slurry (equal weights of collected fecal pellets homogenized in

4mL PBS) every 2 days for a total of 4 gavage treatments. Animals were allowed to habituate to

the introduced microbiome for 14 days from the first gavage. Germ free experiments were

performed as described.[39]

Microbiome Transfer and 1 week UCMRS 16S*:* Fecal pellet DNA extraction and 16S

sequencing of the V4 region was performed by Zymo according to their protocols. Raw

sequencing reads can be found in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database under

PRJNA878703 and PRJNA866924, respectively.

Cell Culture: HT-29 cells were purchased from ATCC and were grown in McCoy's 5A media

(ATCC 30-2007) as per the ATCC website. Cells were plated at a density of 150,000/well and

allowed to adhere to 12 well plates overnight in complete media. Cells were treated with 10μM

of either NTC (Sigma-Aldrich, SMB00208) or BI6015 (Sigma-Aldrich, 375240) for 24hrs. After 24

hours, media was aspirated, and cells were frozen at -80 until RNA extraction was performed.

RNA and ChIP Seq Experiments: All ChIP Seq experiments were performed previously on

duodenal villus tissue as described.[48,49] Raw data can be found under GEO accession numbers

GSE112946 (RNA-seq and ChIP-seq) and GSE148691 (HiChIP-seq).

DeepLabCut: Deeplabcut analysis was performed as previously described.[62] Full protocol

is outlined below:

Animal pose estimation was performed by using a deep-learning package called

DeepLabCut. The detailed mathematical model and network architecture for DeepLabCut was

previously published by the Mathis lab [63]. We generated a DeepLabCut convolutional neural

network to analyze our open field test videos, which is trained in a supervised manner: 16

manually labeled points were selected as references of transfer learning, including nose, left and

right eyes, left and right ears, neck, left and right arm, left and right leg, 3 points on body and 3

points on tail. In total, 15 randomly selected videos were used for building a training dataset.

Finally, the performance of the neural network is evaluated by human researchers.

Estimated mouse poses from DeepLabCut were further analyzed by using a package called

Variational Animal Motion Embedding (VAME), which classifies animal behavior in an

unsupervised manner. VAME was developed by the Pavol Bauer group and the package can be

downloaded at https://github.com/LINCellularNeuroscience/VAME[92]. We trained a unique

VAME recursive neural network for each experiment, which classifies each frame of the open

field test video into 1 of the 25 behavioral motifs. Then, all behavior motifs were annotated and

evaluated by blinded human researchers. With annotated frames, we were able to calculate the

percentage of time usage of each motif, which is then used for principal component analysis and

Kullback-Leibler divergence analysis. Custom code is available upon request.

RNA Extraction and Quantitative PCR: For RNA extraction, cultured cells were pelleted,

frozen, and lysed. RNA was extracted using the Bioline Isolate II RNA mini kit as per manufacture's

protocol (BIO- 52073). RNA was quantified with a Biotek Epoch Microplate Spectrophotometer.

Normalized RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA with either the Bioline SensiFast cDNA

Synthesis Kit (BIO-65054) or Applied Sciences High- Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcriptase Kit (43-

688-13). cDNA was amplified using the Bioline SensiFast NO- ROX kit (BIO-86020), according to

manufacturer's instructions. Results were analyzed with the relative quantity (ΔΔCq) method.

Probes used are listed in Extended Data 5, Tab 4.

Immunofluorescence Staining and Imaging: 1cm sections of intestinal samples were

harvested and snap frozen in an OCT block (Fisher Scientific #14-373-65). Samples were cut on a

cryostat in 15μM sections and placed on microscope slides. Tissue was fixed directly on the slides

in carnoy's solution (60% Ethanol, 30% Chloroform, and 10% Glacial Acetic Acid) for 10 min at

room temperature. Tissue was washed in 1x PBS for 5 min 3x at room temperature. Antigen

retrieval was performed with Tris-EDTA by bringing solution to a boil (~30sec) in a microwave.

Slides were washed in 1x PBS 3x for 5 min at room temperature. After final wash, sections were

outlined with a hydrophobic pen (Vector Laboratories #H-4000). Samples were blocked for 1 hour

at room temperature with 1:200 FC block in TBST (1x TBS + 0.3% Triton X-100) plus 2% Normal

Donkey Serum (Jackson ImmunoResearch #017-000-121). Supernatant was removed and

samples were blocked with Mouse on Mouse IgG for 1 hour at room temperature (Vector

Laboratories #MKB-2213-1) plus 2% Normal Donkey Serum. Supernatant was removed and

primary antibodies were added. Samples were stained with 1:1000 Mucin 13 (G-10) (Santa Cruz

Biotechnology #sc-390115) and 1:1000 Mucin 2 (GeneTex #GTX100664) overnight at 4 degrees

Celsius in blocking solution (1x PBS, 0.5g bovine serum albumin, 0.5% Triton X-100) + 2% normal

donkey serum. Control samples were stained in blocking solution + 2% normal donkey serum

with mouse IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch #015-000-003) or rabbit IgG (Jackson

ImmunoResearch #011-000-003) diluted to match the primary antibodies. The next day samples

were washed in TBST for 5 min 3x at room temperature. Samples were then incubated in

secondary antibodies for 3 hours at room temperature in blocking solution + 2% normal donkey

serum. Secondary antibodies used were Donkey Anti-Mouse 488 (Jackson ImmunoResearch

#715-545-150) and Donkey Anti-Rabbit 647 (Jackson ImmunoResearch #711-605-152).

Secondaries were added at 2mg/mL. Samples were then stained with Hoechst (1:700) (Thermo

Fisher Scientific #H3570) for 15 min in blocking solution + 2% normal donkey serum. Samples

were washed 2x with TBST for 5 min at room temperature. Samples were washed a final time in

TBS for 5 min at room temperature. Finally, slides imaged on a Leica Stellaris 5 confocal

microscope.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis: All statistical analyses-except those associated with DeepLabCut,

Mass Spectrometry, and 16S were performed in GraphPad Prism 9. Analyses comparing two

groups were performed using a two-tailed T test. If the variances between groups were

significantly different, a Welch's correction was applied. Outliers were excluded if they fell more

than two standard deviations from the mean. For all analyses, the threshold for significance was

at $p < 0.05$. Repeats for each experiment are specified in the figure legend corresponding to the

respective panel. Additional statistical detail, including all p-values, can be found in Ext. Data 5,

Tab 5.

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Contributions: C.R.N. and A.G. designed the study; C.R.N., A.R.M., C.R., N.M.G., R.M.B., R.B., A.K.,

R.O., A.D.S., K.E.M., S.A.M., M.V, and C.D. performed and conceptualized experiments; G.B.M.,

S.L., D.E.O, T.M.H.P., K.V., L.C., and J.B.S. performed sequencing and DeepLabCut analysis; C.R.N

and A.G. analyzed and wrote the manuscript; A.G. oversaw the project.

Competing Interests: S.A.M. is an inventor on a Stanford patent related to the use of mucinases

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MAIN FIGURES:

Figure 1: Unpredictable Chronic Mild Restraint Stress Induces Despair and Anxiety-Like Behaviors and Microbiome Dysbiosis: (A) Experimental Design. (B) Nestlet shred (One-way ANOVA), elevated plus maze (t-test), tail suspension (One-way ANOVA), forced swim (One-way ANOVA), and sucrose preference (One-way ANOVA) tests between baseline, naïve controls, and stress animals. Male mice, n=11/12 per group, representative of N=2. (C) Targeted mass

spectrometry from serum of naïve or stress animals (t-tests, n=11/12 per group). (D) Alpha

diversity plot showing microbial richness (observed ASVs) between baseline and stress mice

(Wilcoxon Rank Sum test). (E) NMDS plot of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between baseline and stress

fecal microbiome samples (PERMANOVA). (F) Relative abundances of bacterial orders >1%

(Wilcoxon Rank Sum test with Bonferroni correction). (G) Importance plot from a random forest

model predicting bacterial orders that discriminate between baseline and stress groups.

Importance is based on the Gini index where larger values are more important to model. Male

mice, n=24/group, N=1.

Figure 2: Stress Drives *Muc13* Reductions Independently of Transferrable Microbial Products:

(A) Experimental design. Relative quantity of (B) *Muc13* and (C) *Muc2* transcripts by qPCR in

individual sections of the intestine. *Muc2* expression in the colon was higher than housekeeping

genes preventing quantification by qPCR. Unpaired two-tailed, t-tests. Male mice, n=11/12 per

group, N=2. (D) Experimental design. Relative quantity of (E) *Muc13* and (F) *Muc2* transcripts in

the intestines of animals receiving a naïve or stress fecal microbiome after antibiotic treatment

via gavage. Male mice, n=12 per group. T-tests, two-tailed. Relative quantity of (G) *Muc13* and

(H) *Muc2* in the intestines of germ-free mice given naïve or stress feces. Male mice, n=7 per

group. T-tests, two-tailed.

Figure 3: HNF4 Regulates Expression of *Muc13* both *In Vivo* and *In Vitro*: (A) HNF4 and H3K27ac

ChIP-Seq of wildtype duodenal tissue at the *Muc13* promoter. (B) RNA Polymerase II ChIP-Seq in

duodenal villus tissue in control and *Hnf4* DKO animals at the *Muc13* promoter. (C) H3K4me3

HiChIP-Seq examining chromatin loops in control and *Hnf4* DKO duodenal villus tissue at the

Muc13 promoter. (D) *Muc13* RNA-Seq fragments per kilobase per million in control and *Hnf4* DKO

duodenal tissue (stats performed with embedded cuffdiff package). All sequencing experiments

performed on 3 mice/group. Relative quantity of (E) *Hnf4α*, (F) *Hnf4γ*, (G) *Muc13*, and (H) *Muc2*

across the intestines in control and *Hnf4* DKO animals. Female mice, 5 mice/group. Two-way

ANOVA. Relative quantities of (I) *Hnf4α*, (J) *Hnf4γ*, and (K) *Lgr5* across the intestines in naïve and

stress animals. Male mice, 11-12 mice per group; Two-way ANOVA. Relative quantities of (L)

MUC13, (M) *LGR5*, (N) *MUC1*, and (O) *MUC17* in human HT-29 cells treated for 24 hours with

10μM of HNF4 antagonist BI6015 or DMSO control. N=3, n=11. Two-tailed unpaired t-tests.

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Figure 4: *Muc13* Deletion Validation: (A) *Muc13* deletion schematic. Relative quantities of (B)

Muc13 and (C) *Muc2* in wildtype and *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ mice. Male mice, n=2-3 per group, N=1. T-tests,

two-tailed. (D) Representative images of immunofluorescence (IF) staining of MUC13, MUC2 and

Hoechst in the colon of wildtype and *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ animals. Quantification of IF of (E) MUC13 and (F)

MUC2 in the duodenum and colon of wildtype and *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ mice. Male mice. T-tests, n=4-6 per

group, N=2. (G) Fold change of mucins in the intestines of *Muc13*$^{-/-}$ compared to wildtype controls

by mass spectrometry. All sections of the intestines are pooled for a total of 12 samples from 3

mice per group. Male mice.

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Figure 5: Microbiome and Behavioral Changes in _Muc13_^{-/-} Mice at Baseline and after Stress Exposure: (A) Experimental design. (B) PCoA plot of 16S fecal microbial sequencing in wildtype and _Muc13_^{-/-} animals at baseline and after 1 week of stress exposure. Male mice, n=8 per group, N=1. (C) Venn diagram comparing significantly changed families from 16S fecal microbiome sequencing between wildtype and _Muc13_^{-/-} animals to families changes between wildtype baseline and stress exposed animals. (D) Open field and (E) nestlet shredding tests comparing anxiety-like behaviors between wildtype and _Muc13_^{-/-} animals at baseline and after 1 week of stress exposure. (F) Tail suspension and (G) forced swim tests between wildtype and _Muc13_^{-/-} animals at baseline and after 1 week of stress exposure. Male mice, Two-way ANOVA, n=13 per group, N=2. (H) DeepLabCut experimental design. (I) Pie chart of quantified behavioral motifs changed between wildtype and _Muc13_^{-/-} animals. (J) Individual motif analysis after 1 week of stress exposure between wildtype and _Muc13_^{-/-} animals. Two-tailed T tests, male and female mice, n=13-24 per group, N=3.

Extended Data 1: Serum Metabolites and 16S Sequencing after Stress Exposure: Mass

spectrometry analysis of serum from naïve and stressed mice. (A) corticosterone, (B) tryptophan,

(C) kynurenine, (D) kynurenic acid, (E) dopamine, (F) thyroxine, and (G) aldosterone. Male mice,

n=11/12 per group, N=1, Unpaired two-tailed T-tests. MS Transitions can be found in Ext. Data5,

Tab 1. (H) Pielou's evenness index for baseline and stress mice. (I) Individual order relative

abundances for baseline and stress mice. (J) Relative Abundances of the genus level between

naïve and stress mice. Male mice, n=24/group, N=1. P-values for (J) can be found in Ext. Data 5,

Tab 2.

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Extended Data 2: Mucin Expression after Stress and Microbiome Transfers: (A) Relative quantity

of *Muc1* expression in colon of naïve and stress mice by qPCR. *Muc*1 was not detected in other

sections (two tailed t-test). Relative quantities of (B) *Muc4* and (C) *Muc17* expression in the

intestines of naïve and stress mice by qPCR. Two-way ANOVA (D) Relative quantity of *Muc13* and

(E) *Muc2* expression in sections of the intestines from naïve and stressed male BALB/cJ mice by

qPCR. Two-way ANOVA. Male mice. Experiments A-C, n=11/12 per group. Experiments D-E, n=5

per group. N=1. (F) 16S PCoA plot between naïve and stress slurries and naïve and stress

microbiome recipients. (G) Individual bacterial family compositions. Male mice, n=5/group, slurry

samples from gavage microbiome mixture, N=1. Relative quantities of (H) *Muc1*, (I) *Muc4*, and (J)

1055   *Muc17* from the intestines of mice treated with antibiotics then given naïve or stress fecal slurry.

1056   Male mice, 12/group, N=1, Two-way ANOVA. Relative quantities of (K) *Muc1*, (L) *Muc4*, and (M)

1057   *Muc17* in germ free mice given naïve or stress feces. Male mice, 7/group, N=1, Two-way ANOVA.

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1060   **Extended Data 3: HNF4 Regulates Mucins Independently of Transferrable Microbial Products**.

1061   Relative quantities of (A) *Muc1* in the intestines of *Hnf4* DKO mice. Female mice, 5/group. Two-

1062   way ANOVA. Relative quantities of (B) *Hnf4α* and (C) *Hnf4γ* in the intestines of germ-free mice

1063   given stress or naïve feces. Male mice, 7/group. Two-way ANOVA.

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1067 **Extended Data 4: DeepLabCut Analysis of Baseline Behaviors:** (A) Pie chart representing

1068 quantified behavioral motifs changed between wildtype and *Muc13*^{-/-} animals. (B) Individual

1069 motif analysis comparing baseline behaviors in wildtype and *Muc13*^{-/-} animals. Two tailed t-tests,

1070 male and female mice, n=13-24 per group, representative of 3 experiments.

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Extended Data 5: Data Tables: (1-MS Transitions): Table of mass over charge number (m/z) for

analytes examined between naïve and stressed animals. (2-NaivevStress_Genus_WilcoxRank):

Table of naïve vs stress genus level Wilcox Rank Sum statistics (for Ext. Data 1J). (3-

ASV+Genus_ControltoMuc13KO): Table of statistics for ASV and Genus level changes between

baseline control, baseline $Muc13^{-/-}$, 1wk UCMRS control, 1wk UCMRS $Muc13^{-/-}$ animals. (4-qPCR

Probes): Table of qPCR probes used in manuscript. (5-Statistics Table): Table of statistics for all

data in manuscript.