Stress-Induced Mucosal Layer Disruption Drives Gut Dysbiosis and Depressive-like Behaviors

Courtney Rivet-Noor[1,2,3], Andrea R Merchak[1,2,3], Caroline Render[4], Rebecca M. Beiter[1,2,3], Ryan Brown[1,2,3], Erica Slogar[3], Austin Keeler[5], G. Brett Moreau[6], Sihan Li[2,7], Deniz E. Olgun[8,9], Tobey Mihn Huu Phan[9], Jung-Bum Shin[2,7], Chris Deppmann[5], and Alban Gaultier[1,2].

[1]Center for Brain Immunology and Glia, University of Virginia School of Medicine, Charlottesville, VA 22908, USA. [2]Department of Neuroscience, University of Virginia School of Medicine, Charlottesville, VA 22908, USA. [3]Graduate Program in Neuroscience, University of Virginia School of Medicine, Charlottesville, VA 22908, USA. [4]Undergraduate Department of Global Studies, University of Virginia College of Arts and Sciences, Charlottesville, VA, 22904, USA. [5]Department of Biology, University of Virginia College of Arts and Sciences, Charlottesville, VA, 22904, USA. [6]Division of Infectious Diseases and International Health, Department of Medicine, University of Virginia School of Medicine, Charlottesville, Virginia, USA. [7]Graduate Program in Biochemistry and Molecular Genetics, University of Virginia School of Medicine, Charlottesville, VA 22908, USA. [8]Undergraduate Department of Computer Science, University of Virginia School of Engineering and Applied Science, Charlottesville, VA 22904, USA. [9]Undergraduate Department of Neuroscience, Studies, University of Virginia College of Arts and Sciences, Charlottesville, VA, 22904, USA.

Abstract:

Depression is a common mental health condition with a large social and economic impact.

While depression etiology is multifactorial, chronic stress is a well-accepted contributor to

disease onset. In addition, depression is associated with altered gut microbial signatures that can

be replicated in animal models. While targeted restoration of the microbiome has been shown

to reduce depressive-like behaviors in mice, the complexity and diversity of the human

microbiome has complicated therapeutic intervention in patients. To circumvent these

limitations, there is a critical need for identifying pathways responsible for microbiome dysbiosis.

Here, for the first time, we identify the changes in host physiology that induce microbiome

dysbiosis. Specifically, we show that a component of mucosal layer, the transmembrane protein

mucin 13, can regulate microbiome composition. Using a model of chronic stress to induce

behavioral and microbial changes in mice, we show a significant reduction in mucin 13 expression

across the intestines that occurs independently of the microbiome. Furthermore, deleting *Muc13*

leads to gut dysbiosis, and baseline behavioral changes normally observed after stress exposure.

Together, these results validate the hypothesis that mucosal layer disruption is an initiating event

in stress-induced dysbiosis and offer mucin 13 as a potential new therapeutic target for

microbiome dysbiosis in stress-induced depression. For the first time, our data provide an

upstream and conserved target for treating microbiome dysbiosis, a result with sweeping

implications for diseases presenting with microbial alterations.

Main:

Depression and anxiety impact millions of people worldwide.[1] Although many treatments

exist for these disorders, high rates of treatment-resistant cases remain.[2] 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] Gut

microbiome dysbiosis is present in depressed patients and conserved in animal models of

depression, and has been targeted as a potential treatment for mental health disorders.[7-9]

Importantly, modification of the microbiome has been shown to reduce depression symptoms in

humans and depressive-like behaviors in mice.[8,10] While promising, efforts to therapeutically

manipulate the host microbiome remain inconsistent due to its complexity, unknown microbe-

microbe interactions, failure of therapeutic microbes to colonize, microbe resource availability,

and host heterogeneity.[7,11,12] To circumvent current microbiome therapeutic limitations, there is

a critical need to identify conserved, targetable regulators of the microbiome.

Unpredictable Chronic Mild Restraint Stress Drives Anxiety- and Depressive-like Behaviors and

Modifies the Gut Microbiome Composition:

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

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

anxiety- and depressive-like behaviors and alter gut flora (Fig. 1a).[8] After three weeks, mice

exposed to UCMRS, but not naïve controls, 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). Depressive-like behaviors were also detected in

the tail suspension, forced swim, and sucrose preference tests (Fig. 1b). In addition to behavioral

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

spectrometry (Fig. 1c and Ext. Data 1a-g). An increase in murine cortisol levels and a decrease in

both serotonin and glutamate were observed, confirming a robust anxiety- and depressive-like

phenotype (Fig. 1c and Ext. Data 1a-g).[13,14]

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

sequencing on fecal DNA from stressed and naïve animals. While we observed no differences in

measures of alpha diversity (richness (Fig. 1d) or evenness (Ext. Data 1h)), there were significant

differences in beta diversity between naïve and stressed animals. These differences were driven

by changes in community composition of several bacterial orders in the stressed group.

Specifically, stress drove relative reductions in *Clostridiales*, *Lactobacillales*, and expansion of

Bacteroidales (Fig. 1f and Ext. Data 1i). Lastly, a random forest model accurately predicted the

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

between stress and microbiome dysbiosis (Fig. 1g). Taken together, these results demonstrate

that unpredictable chronic mild restraint stress (UCMRS) induces anxiety- and depressive-like

behaviors in mice, alters murine stress hormone levels, and changes microbial composition at

the bacterial order level.

Unpredictable Chronic Mild Restraint Stress Reduces Mucin 13 Expression *In Vivo*:

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

1), the mechanisms behind this change are unknown.[7,15-18] Because the mucosal layer, mostly

composed of mucins, provides both an anchor point and nutrient reservoir for bacteria, we

hypothesized that a change in mucus composition could induce microbiome dysbiosis.[19-21] To test

this, we examined mucin RNA expression from individual sections of the intestines in mice

exposed to UCMRS and naïve controls (Fig. 2a-c). Of all the mucins tested (*Muc1, 2, 3, 4*, and *13*),

we found that mucin 13 was uniquely reduced across intestinal segments (Fig. 2b-c and Ext. Data

2a-c). Additionally, we found a similar reduction in mucin 13 in BALB/cJ mice exposed to stress

(Ext. Data 2d-e). Taken together, these results suggest that stress induces changes in the mucosal

layer in a protein specific manner, and that these changes are conserved across different genetic

backgrounds.

Mucin 13 Reductions Occur Independently of Stress Hormones and the Microbiome

To understand how stress induces reductions in mucin 13, we began by exploring

pathways impacted or driven by stress. First, we tested the direct impact of a stress hormone,

hydrocortisone on gut organoids prepared from human and mouse intestinal tissues (Fig. 2d).[22,23]

No reductions in mucin 13 expression were observed in either human (Fig. 2e) or mouse (Fig. 2g)

organoids. Additionally, we found that none of the mucins tested (*Muc1*, *Muc2*, *Muc3*, *MUC2*,

MUC4, and *MUC17*) had reductions in expression after treatment (Fig. 2f and h and Ext. Data 2f-

i). In addition, mouse organoids also did not downregulate mucin 13 expression after exposure

to corticosterone (Ext. Data 2j-m). These results suggest that neither hydrocortisone nor cortisol

directly impact the intestinal expression of mucin 13 by gut organoids.

In addition, while our central question aimed to understand how stress changes the

microbiome, it is possible that changes in the microbiome, a known influencer of the mucus layer,

could modulate the expression of mucin 13.[21,24] If true, this would suggest that mucin 13 changes

would occur after microbiome dysbiosis in our model. To test this hypothesis, we transferred

fecal microbiomes from naïve or stressed mice into mice treated with antibiotics for 2 weeks (Fig.

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

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

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

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

microbiomes (Ext. Data 2n-o). We next examined RNA expression of mucins from the intestines

of these groups. Importantly, no change in mucin 13 expression was detected between groups

(Fig. 2j). These data suggest that mucin 13 changes occur independently of and precede

microbiome dysbiosis.

Mucin 13 Deletion Induces Baseline Behavioral and Microbiome Changes and Lends Mice More

Susceptible to UCMRS:

Given our data demonstrating that mucin 13 is specifically downregulated in stressed

animals, we sought to examine if deleting mucin 13 impacted the microbiome and depressive-

and anxiety-like behaviors in mice. Using the *i*-GONAD system, we created a mucin 13 knockout

(*Muc13*$^{-/-}$) line by deleting a 475bp region of the gene containing the start codon (Fig. 3a).[25,26]

Validation of the knockout line was performed using both qPCR (Fig. 3b-c) and

immunofluorescence (Fig. 3d-e). Importantly, no changes were observed in Muc2 at the

transcript or protein levels, suggesting that other mucins were not compensating for the loss of

Muc13 (Fig. 3c and f). Together, these data demonstrate successful deletion of mucin 13 in our

knockout line.

We next sought to understand the impacts of mucin 13 deletion on microbiome

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

wildtype and *Muc13*^{-/-} animals, separated by genotype at weaning, at baseline and after UCMRS

exposure (Fig. 4a). Interestingly, we found that *Muc13*^{-/-} animals clustered distinctly from

wildtype controls, suggesting that mucin 13 deletion significantly impacts the composition of the

microbiome at baseline (Fig. 4b). In addition, while wildtype controls saw a significant shift in

their microbial composition after 1 week of UCMRS, *Muc13*^{-/-} samples remained clustered

together (Fig. 4b). This suggests that baseline *Muc13*^{-/-} microbial signatures are not as impacted

by stress as baseline signatures in wildtype mice. Importantly, samples from wildtype animals

exposed to 1 week of UCMRS shifted towards both groups of the *Muc13*^{-/-} animals, further

supporting the idea the *Muc13*^{-/-} animals have microbial signatures that mimics stress-induced

microbiome dysbiosis (Fig. 4b). To further understand the similarities between the *Muc13*^{-/-}

microbiome and UCMRS exposed microbiome, we compared the significantly changed bacterial

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

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

that had significant changes in either group, 69% of those changes overlapped (Fig. 4c). These

data further suggest that mucin 13 deletion induces a change in the microbiome that closely

mimics the microbiome changes observed after UCMRS exposure.

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

sought to examine if mucin 13 deletion impacted anxiety- and depressive-like behaviors in mice.[8]

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

suspension and forced swim tests (Fig. 4a, 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. 4d-e, left columns). However, strong depressive-like behaviors were observed in the tail

suspension and forced swim tests (Fig. 4f-g, left columns), suggesting *Muc13^{-/-}* mice display innate

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

mucin 13 deletion on susceptibility to stress-induced anxiety- and depressive-like behaviors, we

subjected wildtype and knockout mice to 1 week of UCMRS. Critically, 1 week of UCMRS

exposure is generally considered to be a subclinical model of stress that does not induce

behavioral changes in wildtype animals. Thus, we hypothesized that if *Muc13^{-/-}* deletion

rendered animals more susceptible to stress, they would exhibit anxiety- and depressive- like

behaviors before wildtype animals.[27] Supporting this hypothesis, *Muc13^{-/-}* animals had

significant reductions in the amount of time spent in center in the open field test and significant

increases in the amount of nestlet removed in the nestlet shred test compared to baseline after

1 week of UCMRS exposure. These results indicate that 1 week of UCMRS is sufficient to induce

anxiety-like phenotypes in *Muc13^{-/-}* animals, but not their wildtype counterparts (Fig. 4d-e,

green columns). Logically, in the tail suspension and forced swim tests, we saw no increase in

time spent inactive as the *Muc13^{-/-}* already presented with such behaviors at baseline and hit a

ceiling effect (Fig. 4f-g, green columns). To complement these classical behavioral assays, we

used unbiased artificial intelligence (DeepLabcut) to detect animal poses (Fig. 4h-j and Ext. Data

3).[28,29] In this approach, 10-minute videos of mice exploring an open field box were broken down

into 25 individual motifs (Fig. 4h). Each motif was characterized and grouped into a behavioral

classification (rearing/grooming, turning, etc.) and changes in the percentage of time spent in

each behavioral group were quantified between $Muc13^{-/-}$ and wildtype animals (Fig. 4h-j).

Baseline analysis revealed that of the 25 distinct motifs, 16% were significantly changed between

groups (Ext. Data 3a-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). These

results support our behavioral findings and demonstrate that mucin 13 deletion is sufficient to

induce behavioral changes, including depressive-like behaviors, at baseline and render animals

more susceptible to behavioral changes after stress exposure. Taken together, our results show

that mucin 13 deletion can drive both microbiome dysbiosis that mirrors stressed microbiomes

and depressive-like behaviors at baseline. In addition, deletion of mucin13 allows animals to be

more susceptible to stress-induced microbiome changes. These data highlight the critical nature

of mucin 13 in maintaining microbiome and behavioral homeostasis.

Discussion:

Our work demonstrates that stress induces microbiome changes and anxiety- and

depressive-like behaviors in mice. In addition, stress also reduces expression of a key component

of the mucosal layer, mucin 13. While the mechanisms behind stress-induced mucin 13

reductions are still being investigated, this change in expression likely does not result from direct

stress hormone signaling on intestinal cells or changes in the microbiome. Furthermore, we

demonstrate that deletion of mucin 13 is sufficient to induce microbiome dysbiosis 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

sub-clinical exposure to unpredictable chronic mild restraint stress.

Our results are supported by previously published literature. For example, it is well known

that there is a reciprocal relationship between the mucus layer and microbes.[21] In fact, disruption

of this critical layer results in sweeping microbiome changes, heightened inflammation, and

disease onset, supporting that concept that changes in mucus can impact other systems in the

body.[21,30-37] Additionally, stress is known to alter the glycosylation patterns of mucins.[38] As

changes in glycosylation are also known to alter the microbiome, the connection between stress

and mucin induced microbiome changes is well supported.[39,40] Furthermore, the connection

between mucins and depression has also been suggested in the literature. Specifically, single

nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in mucin 13 have been identified in GWAS studies of depressed

populations.[41-43] In addition, SNPs in O-glycosylation have also been identified in populations with

treatment resistant depression.[43,44] Together, these data support our results suggesting that

mucin 13 is an important driver of microbiome dysbiosis and depressive-like behaviors in mice.

Mechanistically, more work is needed to determine how stress induces reductions in

mucin 13 expression. Our results suggest that stress hormones do not act directly on the

intestinal epithelium to drive reductions in mucin 13 expression nor does microbiome dysbiosis

alter mucin 13 in the intestines. There are many systems in the body impacted by stress that

could mediate changes in mucin 13. For example, the immune system has been known to be

influenced by stress and can alter the composition of the microbiome and mucosal layer[45,46]. It is

possible that stress can influence the immune system in a way that could alter cytokine

expression to act on intestinal cells and reduce mucin 13 expression. In addition, vagal tone is

strongly impacted by stress and is known to be altered in depression[47]. Hypothetically, alterations

of the vagal nerve could reduce mucin 13 expression because of stress exposure. Finally, it is

possible that stress alters circadian rhythms to feedback on the intestines and induce mucin 13

expression changes. Data suggests that stress and sleep are connected, as stress-induces

significant changes in circadian rhythms.[48-50] In addition, changes in circadian rhythms also have

known impacts on the intestine by regulating the microbiome, intestinal regeneration, and the

intestinal immune system.[51-53] These works suggest that it is possible for stress to disrupt

circadian cycles in a way that disrupts other aspects of health.

Here, for the first time, we have defined a previously unknown role for an understudied

transmembrane mucus protein. Our work provides a foundation for future research studying the

role of mucin 13, and other transmembrane mucins, in microbiome and intestinal homeostasis.

Furthermore, our results have brought to light a key aspect in stress-induced depression by

defining a mechanism by which stress alters the microbiome. We have demonstrated that a

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

interfering with its homeostatic expression patterns induces microbiome dysbiosis and

depressive-like behaviors in mice. We believe that this change is a critical step in initiating

microbiome dysbiosis in stress-induced depression and that mucin 13 may be a targetable

upstream mediator of dysbiosis. As mucin 13 is conserved between humans and mice, this

protein could be a broadly applicable target to patients with stress-induced depression that

present with microbiome dysbiosis. In addition, while directly related to stress-induced

depression, our results provide the basis for further research targeting transmembrane mucins

as a broadly applicable intervention point for any disease that presents with or is driven by

pathogenic microbiome dysbiosis, such as colitis or Parkinson's Disease.[54]

Acknowledgements: Human organoids were generously gifted from the Moore lab at the

University of Virginia. The mass spectrometry experiments were performed in the UVA

Biomolecular Research Facility Core. The W.M. Keck Biomedical Mass Spectrometry Laboratory

is funded by a grant from the University of Virginia's School of Medicine.

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

C.D. and A.G. performed experiments; G.B.M., S.L., D.E.O, T.M.H.P. and J.B.S. performed

sequencing and DeepLab cut analysis; C.R.N and A.G. analyzed and wrote the manuscript; A.G.

oversaw the project.

Competing Interests: Authors declare no competing interests.

Funding: The authors are supported by grants from the NIMH R33 MH108156, the UVA Trans

University Microbiome Initiative pilot grant, and the Owens Family Foundation. C.R.N is

supported by the UVA Presidential Fellowship in Neuroscience. A.R.M. is supported by the NINDS

T32 NS115657

Methods

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

Mice were bred in-house and kept on a 12-h light/dark schedule. All mice were housed in groups

up to unless in a stressed group or separated for fighting. 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 experiments. All procedures were approved by the University of Virginia

ACUC (protocol #3918). All experiments were conducted and reported according to ARRIVE

guidelines. Sex and number of animals is reported in each figure. All animals in the manuscript

are between 8-16 weeks of age.

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.[28]

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 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 % 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. One 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 clear bottom. Animals were allowed to explore freely for 10 minutes. Hero session 8s were

placed ~12in 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.

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 4.

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.

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

the phenol/chloroform method as described.[8] 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

UCMRS experiments: The V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified from each sample using

a dual indexing sequencing strategy.[55] 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).

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

in R (version 4.1.2).[56] Raw sequencing reads were processed for downstream analysis using

DADA2 (version 1.22.0).[57] 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).[58]

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).[59-61] The packages

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

visualization.[62,63] 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.[64-66]

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.

Microbiome Transfer and Mucin 13 Stress 16S*:* Fecal pellet DNA extraction and 16S sequencing

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

DeepLabCut: Deeplabcut analysis was performed as previously described.[28] Full protocol is

outlined below:

All machine learning programs and statistical analyses were performed on a computer

with an Intel i9-10900KF CPU, a single NVIDIA RTX3080 GPU, and 64GB RAM. 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 [29]. 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 <u>https://github.com/LINCellularNeuroscience/VAME</u> [67]. 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 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.

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 ($\Delta\Delta$Cq) method.

Probes used are listed in Extended Data 5.

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 3x in 1x PBS for 5 min each 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 are 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 3x in TBST for 5 min 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.

Organoid Culture: Mouse duodenal organoids prepared as previously described.[68] Mice were

euthanized with CO_2 according to regulations. Cervical dislocation was performed and small

intestine removed. After fat was scraped from the intestine, it was flushed with 1x DPBS-/- (Gibco

#14190-144) + 1:100 Pen/Strep (Gibco #15140122). Intestines were flayed open and cut into

~1cm pieces and put into 40mL of 1x DPBS-/- + 1:100 Pen/Strep. Tubes were shaken manually for

30 seconds to remove debris. Supernatant was removed and 15mL of fresh DPBS-/- was added

to each tube. A 10mL pipette was used to pipette up and down 10 times to remove mucus and

additional debris. Supernatant was removed and 20mL of DPBS-/- + 1:100 Pen/Strep +2mM EDTA

(Invitrogen 15575-038) was added to each tube. Samples were allowed to incubate at room temp

for 30 min on vigorous shaker. Supernatant from samples was removed. 20mL of fresh DPBS-/- +

1:100 Pen/Strep was added to each tube. A 10mL pipette was used to pipette up and down 10

times and supernatant was filtered into a fresh 50mL tube over a 70μM filter (Celltreat #229483)

for fraction 1. Repeat for 4 total fractions. Visualize crypts under a microscope to find the fraction

with the purest and most abundant crypt population. Count crypts from chosen fraction. Take

enough crypts for 100 crypts/well and spin for 3 min at 300g. Aspirate supernatant and add 50uL

matrigel + murine Wnt3a (Peprotech #315-20, 10ug/mL used at 1000x), R-spondin (Peprotech

#315-32, 50ug/mL used at 1000x), Noggin (Peprotech #250-38, 50ug/mL used at 1000x), and EGF

(Peprotech #315-09, 50ug/mL used at 1000x) per well to crypts. Crypts were plated in 50μL

matrigel (Corning # 356237) and grown in intesticult media (Stemcell Technologies # 06005 for

mouse and #356237 for human**).** Mouse organoids were treated with either 5ng/mL of

hydrocortisone (Sigma # H4001) or 150μg/mL of corticosterone (Cayman Chemical # 16063) for

24 hours. Human organoids were treated with 200μM of hydrocortisone (Sigma # H4001) for 12

hours.

Mucin-13 Knockout Generation: Mucin-13 knockout lines were generated using the iGONAD

technique as described using a BTX ECM 830 Electroporation System (Harvard Apparatus).[25,26]).

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) [69]. Exons 1 and 2

including the intervening intron where analyzed with CRISPOR (http://crispor.tefor.net/;

Concordet and Haeussler 2018)[70]. 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 thus surgeries were done

at 4pm). Anesthesia was confirmed by toe pinch and then 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 inject

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

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

using a 3-mm platinum tweezertrode 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 is returned to the abdominal cavity and the procedure is repeated on the opposite side

oviduct. Once both oviducts have been 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.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis: All statistical analyses-except those associated with DeepLabCut and 16S

were performed in GraphPad Prism 9. Analyses involving 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.

References:

1   Santomauro, D. F. *et al.* Global prevalence and burden of depressive and anxiety disorders

in 204 countries and territories in 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet* **398**,

1700-1712, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(21)02143-7 (2021).

2   Fava, M. Diagnosis and definition of treatment-resistant depression. *Biological Psychiatry*

53, 649-659, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-3223(03)00231-2 (2003).

3   Heim, C. & Binder, E. B. Current research trends in early life stress and depression: Review

of human studies on sensitive periods, gene–environment interactions, and epigenetics.

Experimental   Neurology   233,   102-111,

doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.expneurol.2011.10.032 (2012).

4   McGonagle, K. A. & Kessler, R. C. Chronic stress, acute stress, and depressive symptoms.

American   Journal   of   Community   Psychology   **18**,   681-706,

doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00931237 (1990).

5   Lach, G., Schellekens, H., Dinan, T. G. & Cryan, J. F. Anxiety, Depression, and the

Microbiome: A Role for Gut Peptides. *Neurotherapeutics : the journal of the American*

Society for Experimental NeuroTherapeutics **15**, 36-59, doi:10.1007/s13311-017-0585-0

(2018).

6   Foster, J. A. & McVey Neufeld, K. A. Gut-brain axis: how the microbiome influences anxiety

and depression. *Trends in neurosciences* **36**, 305-312, doi:10.1016/j.tins.2013.01.005

(2013).

7   Berding, K. & Cryan, J. F. Microbiota-targeted interventions for mental health. *Curr Opin*

Psychiatry **35**, 3-9, doi:10.1097/yco.0000000000000758 (2022).

8   Marin, I. A. *et al.* Microbiota alteration is associated with the development of stress-

induced despair behavior. *Scientific reports* **7**, 43859-43859, doi:10.1038/srep43859

(2017).

9   Valles-Colomer, M. *et al.* The neuroactive potential of the human gut microbiota in quality

of life and depression. *Nature Microbiology* **4**, 623-632, doi:10.1038/s41564-018-0337-x

(2019).

10   Tian, P. *et al.* Bifidobacterium breve CCFM1025 attenuates major depression disorder via

regulating gut microbiome and tryptophan metabolism: A randomized clinical trial. *Brain,*

behavior, and immunity **100**, 233-241, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2021.11.023

(2022).

11   Park, S.-Y. *et al.* Strain-level fitness in the gut microbiome is an emergent property of

glycans and a single metabolite. *Cell* **185**, 513-529.e521, doi:10.1016/j.cell.2022.01.002

(2022).

12   Zmora, N. *et al.* Personalized Gut Mucosal Colonization Resistance to Empiric Probiotics

Is Associated with Unique Host and Microbiome Features. *Cell* **174**, 1388-1405.e1321,

doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2018.08.041 (2018).

13   Saldanha, D., Kumar, N., Ryali, V., Srivastava, K. & Pawar, A. A. Serum Serotonin

Abnormality in Depression. *Medical Journal Armed Forces India* **65**, 108-112,

doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0377-1237(09)80120-2 (2009).

14   Pfleiderer, B. *et al.* Effective electroconvulsive therapy reverses glutamate/glutamine

deficit in the left anterior cingulum of unipolar depressed patients. *Psychiatry Research:*

Neuroimaging **122**, 185-192, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0925-4927(03)00003-9

(2003).

15   Bailey, M. T. *et al.* Exposure to a social stressor alters the structure of the intestinal

microbiota: implications for stressor-induced immunomodulation. *Brain, behavior, and*

immunity **25**, 397-407, doi:10.1016/j.bbi.2010.10.023 (2011).

16   Bastiaanssen, T. F. S. *et al.* Gutted! Unraveling the Role of the Microbiome in Major

Depressive Disorder. *Harv Rev Psychiatry* **28**, 26-39,

doi:10.1097/HRP.0000000000000243 (2020).

17   Li, N. *et al.* Fecal microbiota transplantation from chronic unpredictable mild stress mice

donors affects anxiety-like and depression-like behavior in recipient mice via the gut

microbiota-inflammation-brain axis. *Stress* **22**, 592-602,

doi:10.1080/10253890.2019.1617267 (2019).

18   Karl, J. P. *et al.* Changes in intestinal microbiota composition and metabolism coincide

with increased intestinal permeability in young adults under prolonged physiological

stress. *American journal of physiology. Gastrointestinal and liver physiology* **312**, G559-

g571, doi:10.1152/ajpgi.00066.2017 (2017).

19   Pelaseyed, T. & Hansson, G. C. Membrane mucins of the intestine at a glance. *Journal of*

Cell Science **133**, jcs240929, doi:10.1242/jcs.240929 (2020).

20   Johansson, M. E. V. a. H., G. C. *The Mucins* Vol. 2 381-388

(2016).

21   Hansson, G. C. Mucins and the Microbiome. *Annu Rev Biochem*, doi:10.1146/annurev-

biochem-011520-105053 (2020).

22   Williams, S. J. *et al.* MUC13, a Novel Human Cell Surface Mucin Expressed by Epithelial

and Hemopoietic Cells. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* **276**, 18327-18336,

doi:10.1074/jbc.M008850200 (2001).

23   Gupta, B. K. *et al.* Functions and regulation of MUC13 mucin in colon cancer cells. *J

Gastroenterol* **49**, 1378-1391, doi:10.1007/s00535-013-0885-z (2014).

24   Sicard, J. F., Le Bihan, G., Vogeleer, P., Jacques, M. & Harel, J. Interactions of Intestinal

Bacteria with Components of the Intestinal Mucus. *Frontiers in cellular and infection

microbiology* **7**, 387, doi:10.3389/fcimb.2017.00387 (2017).

25   Gurumurthy, C. B. *et al.* Creation of CRISPR-based germline-genome-engineered mice

without ex vivo handling of zygotes by i-GONAD. *Nature Protocols* **14**, 2452-2482,

doi:10.1038/s41596-019-0187-x (2019).

26   Ohtsuka, M. *et al.* i-GONAD: a robust method for in situ germline genome engineering

using CRISPR nucleases. *Genome Biology* **19**, 25, doi:10.1186/s13059-018-1400-x (2018).

27   Nollet, M., Guisquet, A.-M. L. & Belzung, C. Models of Depression: Unpredictable Chronic

Mild Stress in Mice. *Current protocols in pharmacology* **61**, 5.65.61-65.65.17,

doi:https://doi.org/10.1002/0471141755.ph0565s61 (2013).

28   Rivet-Noor, C. R. *et al.* Stress-induced despair behavior develops independently of the

Ahr-RORγt axis in CD4 + cells. *Scientific reports* **12**, 8594, doi:10.1038/s41598-022-12464-

2 (2022).

29   Mathis, A. *et al.* DeepLabCut: markerless pose estimation of user-defined body parts with

deep learning. *Nature Neuroscience* **21**, 1281-1289, doi:10.1038/s41593-018-0209-y

(2018).

30   Bergstrom, K. *et al.* Proximal colon–derived O-glycosylated mucus encapsulates and

modulates   the   microbiota.   *Science   (New   York,   N.Y.)*   **370**,   467-472,

doi:10.1126/science.aay7367 (2020).

31   Borisova, M. A. *et al.* Mucin-2 knockout is a model of intercellular junction defects,

mitochondrial damage and ATP depletion in the intestinal epithelium. *Scientific reports*

10, 21135, doi:10.1038/s41598-020-78141-4 (2020).

32   Wu, M. *et al.* The Dynamic Changes of Gut Microbiota in Muc2 Deficient Mice.

International journal of molecular sciences **19**, doi:10.3390/ijms19092809 (2018).

33   Bergstrom, K. S. *et al.* Muc2 protects against lethal infectious colitis by disassociating

pathogenic and commensal bacteria from the colonic mucosa. *PLoS pathogens* **6**,

e1000902, doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1000902 (2010).

34   Johansson, M. E., Thomsson, K. A. & Hansson, G. C. Proteomic analyses of the two mucus

layers of the colon barrier reveal that their main component, the Muc2 mucin, is strongly

bound to the Fcgbp protein. *J Proteome Res* **8**, 3549-3557, doi:10.1021/pr9002504 (2009).

35   Johansson, M. E. V. *et al.* The inner of the two Muc2 mucin-dependent mucus layers in

colon is devoid of bacteria. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **105**, 15064-

15069, doi:10.1073/pnas.0803124105 (2008).

36   Van der Sluis, M. *et al.* Muc2-Deficient Mice Spontaneously Develop Colitis, Indicating

That MUC2 Is Critical for Colonic Protection. *Gastroenterology* **131**, 117-129,

doi:https://doi.org/10.1053/j.gastro.2006.04.020 (2006).

37   Velcich, A. *et al.* Colorectal cancer in mice genetically deficient in the mucin Muc2. *Science*

(New York, N.Y.) **295**, 1726-1729, doi:10.1126/science.1069094 (2002).

38   Silva, S. D. *et al.* Stress disrupts intestinal mucus barrier in rats via mucin O-glycosylation

shift: prevention by a probiotic treatment. *American Journal of Physiology-*

Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology **307**, G420-G429, doi:10.1152/ajpgi.00290.2013

(2014).

39   Marczynski, M. *et al.* Structural Alterations of Mucins Are Associated with Losses in

Functionality. *Biomacromolecules*, doi:10.1021/acs.biomac.1c00073 (2021).

40   Werlang, C., Cárcarmo-Oyarce, G. & Ribbeck, K. Engineering mucus to study and influence

the microbiome. *Nature Reviews Materials* **4**, 134-145, doi:10.1038/s41578-018-0079-7

(2019).

41   Ware, E. B. *et al.* Comparative genome-wide association studies of a depressive symptom

phenotype in a repeated measures setting by race/ethnicity in the multi-ethnic study of

atherosclerosis. *BMC Genetics* **16**, 118, doi:10.1186/s12863-015-0274-0 (2015).

42   Dunn, E. C. *et al.* Genome-wide association study of depressive symptoms in the Hispanic

Community Health Study/Study of Latinos. *Journal of psychiatric research* **99**, 167-176,

doi:10.1016/j.jpsychires.2017.12.010 (2018).

43   Rivet-Noor, C. & Gaultier, A. The Role of Gut Mucins in the Etiology of Depression. *Front*

Behav Neurosci **14**, 592388, doi:10.3389/fnbeh.2020.592388 (2020).

44   McClain, L. L. *et al.* Rare variants and biological pathways identified in treatment-

refractory depression. *J Neurosci Res* **98**, 1322-1334, doi:10.1002/jnr.24609 (2020).

45   Padgett, D. A. & Glaser, R. How stress influences the immune response. *Trends in*

Immunology **24**, 444-448, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S1471-4906(03)00173-X (2003).

46   Zhao, Q. & Maynard, C. L. Mucus, commensals, and the immune system. *Gut Microbes*

14, 2041342, doi:10.1080/19490976.2022.2041342 (2022).

47   Breit, S., Kupferberg, A., Rogler, G. & Hasler, G. Vagus Nerve as Modulator of the Brain-

Gut Axis in Psychiatric and Inflammatory Disorders. *Frontiers in psychiatry* **9**, 44,

doi:10.3389/fpsyt.2018.00044 (2018).

48   Ihara, T. *et al.* Intermittent restraint stress induces circadian misalignment in the mouse

bladder, leading to nocturia. *Scientific reports* **9**, 10069, doi:10.1038/s41598-019-46517-

w (2019).

49   Wells, A. M. *et al.* Effects of Chronic Social Defeat Stress on Sleep and Circadian Rhythms

Are Mitigated by Kappa-Opioid Receptor Antagonism. *The Journal of Neuroscience* **37**,

7656-7668, doi:10.1523/jneurosci.0885-17.2017 (2017).

50   Tahara, Y. *et al.* Entrainment of the mouse circadian clock by sub-acute physical and

psychological stress. *Scientific reports* **5**, 11417, doi:10.1038/srep11417 (2015).

51   Brooks, J. F. *et al.* The microbiota coordinates diurnal rhythms in innate immunity with

the circadian clock. *Cell* **184**, 4154-4167.e4112,

doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2021.07.001 (2021).

52   Stokes, K. *et al.* The Circadian Clock Gene BMAL1 Coordinates Intestinal Regeneration.

Cellular and molecular gastroenterology and hepatology **4**, 95-114,

doi:10.1016/j.jcmgh.2017.03.011 (2017).

53   Balakrishnan, A., Tavakkolizadeh, A. & Rhoads, D. B. Circadian clock genes and

implications for intestinal nutrient uptake. *The Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry* **23**,

417-422, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnutbio.2012.01.002 (2012).

54   Herath, M., Hosie, S., Bornstein, J. C., Franks, A. E. & Hill-Yardin, E. L. The Role of the

Gastrointestinal Mucus System in Intestinal Homeostasis: Implications for Neurological

Disorders. *Frontiers in cellular and infection microbiology* **10**,

doi:10.3389/fcimb.2020.00248 (2020).

55   Kozich, J. J., Westcott, S. L., Baxter, N. T., Highlander, S. K. & Schloss, P. D. Development

of a dual-index sequencing strategy and curation pipeline for analyzing amplicon

sequence data on the MiSeq Illumina sequencing platform. *Applied and environmental*

microbiology **79**, 5112-5120, doi:10.1128/aem.01043-13 (2013).

56   Team, R. C. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for

Statistical Computing. doi:https://www.R-project.org/. (2021).

57   Callahan, B. J. *et al.* DADA2: High-resolution sample inference from Illumina amplicon

data. *Nat Methods* **13**, 581-583, doi:10.1038/nmeth.3869 (2016).

58   Quast, C. *et al.* The SILVA ribosomal RNA gene database project: improved data processing

and web-based tools. *Nucleic Acids Res* **41**, D590-596, doi:10.1093/nar/gks1219 (2013).

59   Jari Oksanen, F. G. B., Michael Friendly, Roeland Kindt, Pierre Legendre, Dan McGlinn,

Peter R. & Minchin, R. B. O. H., Gavin L. Simpson, Peter Solymos, M. Henry H. Stevens,

Eduard Szoecs and Helene Wagner. vegan: Community Ecology Package. R package

version 2.5-7. doi:https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan

(2020).

60   McMurdie, P. J. & Holmes, S. phyloseq: An R Package for Reproducible Interactive Analysis

and Graphics of Microbiome Census Data. *PloS one* **8**, e61217,

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061217 (2013).

61   Leo Lahti, F. G. M. E., Sudarshan Shetty, Tuomas Borman, Domenick J. Braccia, Ruizhu

Huang, Hector Corrada Bravo. Microbiome R package. doi:http://microbiome.github.io.

62   Hadley Wickham, M. A., Jennifer Bryan, Winston Cheng, Lucy D'Agostino, Romain

François, Garrett Grolemund, Alex Hayes, Lionel Henry, Max Kuhn, Thomas Lin Pedersen.

Welcome to the Tidyverse. *Journal of Open Source Software* **4**, 1686,

doi:https://doi.org/10.21105/joss.01686 (2019).

63   Wickham, H. *ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis.* . (Springer-Verlag 2016).

64   Robin, X. *et al.* pROC: an open-source package for R and S+ to analyze and compare ROC

curves. *BMC Bioinformatics* **12**, 77, doi:10.1186/1471-2105-12-77 (2011).

65   Classification and regression by randomForest (R news 2, 2002).

66   Kuhn, M. caret: Classification and Regression Training. *R package version 6.0-90* (2021).

67   Luxem, K., Fuhrmann, F., Kürsch, J., Remy, S. & Bauer, P. Identifying Behavioral Structure

from Deep Variational Embeddings of Animal Motion. *bioRxiv*, 2020.2005.2014.095430,

doi:10.1101/2020.05.14.095430 (2020).

68   Sato, T. *et al.* Single Lgr5 stem cells build crypt-villus structures in vitro without a

mesenchymal niche. *Nature* **459**, 262-265, doi:10.1038/nature07935 (2009).

69   Kent, W. J. *et al.* The human genome browser at UCSC. *Genome Res* **12**, 996-1006,

doi:10.1101/gr.229102 (2002).

70   Concordet, J.-P. & Haeussler, M. CRISPOR: intuitive guide selection for CRISPR/Cas9

genome editing experiments and screens. *Nucleic Acids Research* **46**, W242-W245,

doi:10.1093/nar/gky354 (2018).

MAIN FIGURES:

Figure 1: Unpredictable Chronic Mild Restraint Stress Induces Anxiety and Depressive-like Behaviors and Microbiome Dysbiosis: (a) Experimental Design. (b) Nestlet shred (1WANOVA), elevated plus maze (t-test), tail suspension (1WANOVA), forced swim (1WANOVA), and sucrose preference (1WANOVA) tests between baseline, naïve controls, and stress animals. Male mice, n=11/12 per group, N=2. (c) Mass spectrometry of serum of naïve or stress animals (t-tests). (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, larger values are more important to model. Male mice,

n=24/group, N=1.

Figure 2: Reductions in Mucin 13 After Stress Exposure: (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. 2WANOVA with Multiple Comparisons. Male mice, n=11/12 per group, N=2. (d)

Experimental design. Relative quantity of (e) *MUC13* and (f) *MUC2* in human duodenal organoids

treated with 200μM hydrocortisone for 12 hours. N=1, n=12 per group. T-tests. Relative quantity

of (g) *Muc13* and (h) *Muc2* in mouse jejunal organoids treated for 24 hours with 5ng of

hydrocortisone. N=1, n= 6 per group. T-tests. (i) Microbiome transfer experimental design.

Relative quantities of (j) *Muc13* and (k) *Muc2* transcripts in the intestines of animals receiving a

712   naïve or stress fecal microbiome. Male mice, n=12 per group. *Muc2* only detected in the

713   duodenum. 2WANOVA with multiple comparisons (j) or t-test (k).

Figure 3: Mucin 13 Deletion Validation: (a) Strategy to inactivate mucin 13. Relative quantities

of (b) *Muc13* and (c) *Muc2* in wildtype or *Muc13⁻/⁻* mice. Male mice, n=2-3 per group, N=1.

2WANOVA. (d) Representative images of immunofluorescence (IF) staining of Muc13, Muc2 and

Hoechst in the colon of wildtype or *Muc13⁻/⁻* animals. Quantification of IF of (e) Muc13 and (f)

Muc2 in the duodenum and colon of wildtype or *Muc13⁻/⁻* mice. Male mice. T-tests, n=4-6 per

group, N=2.

Figure 4: 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, 2WANOVA, n=13 per group,

N=1. (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. 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 or stressed mice. (a) corticosterone, (b) tryptophan,

(c) kynurenine, (d) kynurenic acid, (e) dopamine, (f) thyroxine, (g) aldosterone. Male mice,

n=11/12 per group, N=1. (h) Pielou's evenness index for baseline or stress mice. (i) Individual

order relative abundances for baseline or stress mice. Male mice, n=24/group, N=1.

Extended Data 2: Mucin Expression Changes and Mechanisms: (a) Relative quantity of *Muc1*

expression in colon of naïve or stress mice by qPCR. *Muc*1 was not detected in other sections (t-

test). Relative quantities of (b) *Muc4* and (c) *Muc3/17* expression in the intestines of naïve or

stress mice by qPCR. (d) Relative quantity of *Muc13* and (e) *Muc2* expression in sections of the

intestines from naïve or stress BALB/cJ mice by qPCR. Multiple t-tests. Male mice. Experiments

a-c, n=11/12 per group. Experiments d-e, n=5 per group. N=1. Relative quantities of (f) *MUC4*

and (g) *MUC17* in human duodenal organoids treated with 200μM hydrocortisone for 12 hours.

N=1, n=12 per group. T-tests. Relative quantities of (h) *Muc1* (i) *Muc17* of mouse jejunal

organoids treated for 24 hours with 5ng of hydrocortisone. N=1, n= 6 wells per group. T-tests.

Relative quantities of (j) *Muc13*, (k) *Muc2*, (l) *Muc1*, and (m) *Muc17* in mouse jejunal organoids

treated for 24 hours with 150 μg of corticosterone. N=1, n= 6 wells per group. T-tests. (n) 16S

PCoA plot between naïve and stress slurries and naïve and stress microbiome recipients. (o)

Individual bacterial family compositions. Male mice, n=5/group, slurry samples from gavaged

microbiome mixture, N=1.

Extended Data 3: DeepLabCut Analysis of Baseline Behaviors: (a) Pie chart representing

quantified behavioral motifs changed between wildtype and $Muc13^{-/-}$ animals. (b) Individual

motif analysis comparing baseline behaviors in wildtype and $Muc13^{-/-}$ animals. T tests, male and

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

Analyte	Precursor m/z	Product m/z	RT
01_Dopamine	154.086	137.059	2.88
02_Norepinephrine	170.081	152.070	1.60
03_Serotonin	177.102	160.073	4.09
04_Kynurenic acid	190.050	162.055	8.05
05_Tryptophan	205.097	188.070	6.52
06_Kynurenin	209.092	94.065	4.73
07_Corticosterone	347.222	329.210	11.06
08_Aldosterone	361.201	343.189	10.80
09_Cortisol	363.217	327.194	10.93
10_Thyroxine	777.694	731.684	10.91
11_Glutamine	147.076	84.044	1.46

771 **Extended Data 4: Mass Spectrometry Transitions:** Table of mass over charge number (m/z) for

772 analytes examined between naïve and stressed animals.

Target	Probe Product/Sequence Information
GAPDH	Taqman- Mm99999915_g1
Actin	Taqman- Mm02619580_g1
Muc1	Taqman- Mm00449604_m1
Muc2	Taqman- Mm01276696_m1
Muc3	Taqman- Mm01207064_m1
Muc4	Taqman- Mm00466866_m1
Muc13	Taqman- Mm00495397_m1
IL-4	Taqman- Mm00445259
IL-1B	Taqman- Mm00434228_m1
IL-33	Taqman- Mm00505403_m1
IFN-y	F: 5' TCTGAGACAATGACCGCTAC 3'
	R: 5' AGGCTTTCAATGACTGTGC 3'
Bmal	F: 5' ACC AAC CCA TAC ACA GAA GC 3'
	R: 5' GAC AGA CTC GGA GAC AAA GAG 3'
Rev-ERB alpha	F: 5' GCC TCA TTT CTC CAT CAC CTA C 3'
	R: 5' CGC AGT GAA GCA GGG TAA T 3'
Rev-ERB beta	F: 5' CAC AGT GAG GGT TCT GAG AAT AG 3'
	R: 5' CCG TTG GCA TCA CAG TTA GA 3'
Per1	F: 5' AGCTTTAGCCACGTGACAGTGA 3'
	R: 5' GGCAAGTGAAGAGGCCAACA 3'
Per2	F: 5' AGAAAAGCCCTGCTGTTCCA 3'
	R: 5' CCAAATGCGGTGGTGTAGTTT 3'
Per 3	F: 5' GTGACAGCAGAGTCCCATGA 3'
	R: 5' CACTGCCATCTCGAGTTCAA 3'
MUC2	F: 5' CTGCTATGTCGAGGACACCC 3'
	R: 5' GAGTTGGTACACACGCAGGA 3'
MUC4	F: 5' CTTTTGTCCTCTTCCCAGGTTCC 3'
	R: 5' CAGTGTGAGGAGCAGACGTGA 3'
MUC13	F: 5' GGGAACTGCCAAAAGTGTGC 3'
	R: 5' CTGAGAATGACAATGCCAGCG 3'
MUC17	F: 5' GTTTCAACACCACTGGCACC 3'
	R: 5' CTGGTCCCGGTACTCCACTA 3'

Extended Data 5: qPCR Probes Used: A table of the qPCR probes used in the manuscript.

777