

1 **Dynamic Human Gut Microbiome and Immune Shifts During an Immersive Psychosocial**
2 **Therapeutic Program**

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41 **ABSTRACT**

42

43 **Background:**

44 Depression is a leading cause of disability worldwide yet its underlying factors, particularly microbial
45 associations, are poorly understood.

46 **Methods:**

47 We examined the longitudinal interplay between the microbiome and immune system in the context of
48 depression during an immersive psychosocial intervention. 142 multi-omics samples were collected from
49 52 well-characterized participants before, during, and three months after a nine-day inquiry-based stress
50 reduction program.

51 **Results:**

52 We found that depression was associated with both an increased presence of putatively pathogenic
53 bacteria and reduced microbial beta-diversity. Following the intervention, we observed reductions in
54 neuroinflammatory cytokines and improvements in several mental health indicators. Interestingly,
55 participants with a *Prevotella*-dominant microbiome showed milder symptoms when depressed, along
56 with a more resilient microbiome and more favorable inflammatory cytokine profile, including reduced
57 levels of CXCL-1.

58 **Conclusions:**

59 Our findings reveal a protective link between the *Prevotella*-dominant microbiome and depression,
60 associated with a less inflammatory environment and moderated symptoms. These insights, coupled with
61 observed improvements in neuroinflammatory markers and mental health from the intervention, highlight
62 potential avenues for microbiome-targeted therapies in depression management.

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64 **Key words:** gut microbiome, psychosocial intervention, neuro-inflammation, CXCL-1

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73 INTRODUCTION

74

75 Depression is a highly prevalent and economically burdensome psychiatric condition that is associated
76 with a variety of physical health conditions¹, and this situation has been exacerbated by the recent
77 COVID-19 pandemic²⁻⁶. This condition affects a wide range of individuals across ages, genders, and
78 geographical locations⁷⁻⁹. Despite its substantial societal impact, much remains unknown about the
79 underlying biology of depression. This gap stems in part from the inherent molecular complexity of the
80 human brain and behavior¹⁰⁻¹², coupled with the challenges of replicating psychiatric disorders in animal
81 models¹³⁻¹⁵, and the reliance on self-reported diagnostic tools like the Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-
82 II)¹⁶ and the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9)¹⁷, which may introduces biases. Furthermore, our
83 insights into depression have been constrained by the limited application of longitudinal multi-omics
84 profiling studies, which are crucial for unraveling the complex molecular and cellular mechanisms
85 underlying mental health disorders^{18,19}. These collective challenges have hindered our understanding of
86 the underlying molecular and cellular mechanisms of depression and have consequently impeded the
87 advancement of novel pharmacological and psychotherapeutic interventions for major depressive
88 disorder²⁰.

89

90 Recent studies have highlighted a significant bi-directional association between depression and
91 inflammation, shedding light on the frequent co-occurrence of depression with various inflammatory
92 disorders^{21,22}. This association is often viewed through frameworks such as the Social Signal Transduction
93 Theory of Depression, which suggests that psychosocial stressors can trigger an inflammatory response,
94 elevating depression risk in susceptible individuals¹. The interaction between depression and
95 inflammation is complex and reciprocal: inflammation can precipitate depressive symptoms^{23,24}, and, in
96 addition, depression can intensify inflammation through behavioral and physiological pathways^{25,26}. This
97 reciprocal relationship highlights the intricate connection between mental and physical health.
98 Importantly, psychosocial interventions have emerged as effective in bolstering immune function,
99 presenting a viable alternative to traditional antidepressants in managing depression-associated
100 inflammation²⁷⁻²⁹.

101

102 Recognizing the dynamic between depression, inflammation, and immunity necessitates examining the
103 gut microbiome's impact on mental health. The gut microbiome, a key regulator of the immune system,
104 significantly affects human behavior via the gut-brain axis³⁰⁻³³. Research indicates that psychiatric and
105 behavioral disorders, including addiction³⁴⁻³⁶, depression³⁷⁻⁴⁰, aggression⁴¹, and impaired social
106 cognition^{42,43} correlate with notable microbiome alterations. These changes are deeply intertwined with
107 brain function and behavior by regulation of key metabolites such as serotonin (5-HT)^{44,45},
108 tryptophan^{35,46-48}, and γ -Aminobutyric acid (GABA)⁴⁹, pivotal for neurotransmission, mood, cognition,
109 and stress response. Serotonin, targeted by many antidepressants^{50,51}, influences a wide range of
110 psychological and physiological functions. Tryptophan is a precursor for serotonin synthesis, thus
111 influencing serotonin levels and, consequently, mood and emotional states^{52,53}. GABA, as the primary
112 inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain^{54,55}, plays a key role in reducing neuronal excitability throughout
113 the nervous system⁵⁶⁻⁵⁹, impacting processes like anxiety regulation and stress response. The microbiome
114 extends its influence to the immune system, notably in cytokine regulation^{48,60-62}, crucial for
115 neuroinflammation and neural-immune interactions^{63,64}. Furthermore, certain cytokines and chemokines,
116 influenced by the microbiome, play a pivotal role in signal transduction processes^{56,65-67}. These

117 observations underscore the multifaceted impact of the gut microbiome on brain function and behavior,
118 highlighting its role in both metabolic regulation and direct immune modulation.

119
120 Recent research has established the gut microbiome's causal relationship with depression, as evidenced by
121 experiments transferring microbiomes from depressed patients to mice, leading to depressive-like
122 behaviors and altered metabolism⁶⁸⁻⁷⁰. Specifically, bacteria such as *Escherichia* have been linked to
123 promoting depressive symptoms^{69,71}. These effects may be mediated through the modulation of the
124 hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and cytokine production⁷¹, and significantly influence
125 cytokine production, including Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor (BDNF)⁷² and Interleukin-6 (IL-6)⁷¹.
126 Furthermore, the microbiome's influence on the metabolism and efficacy of antidepressants has emerged
127 as a significant area of interest, highlighting its potential to shape psychotherapeutic treatment
128 outcomes^{47,73-75}.

129
130 The longitudinal interplay between the microbiome and immune system in the context of depression, and
131 in response to an immersive psychosocial intervention, remains unexplored, largely due to differences in
132 human and animal immune and mental health systems⁷⁶, and the impracticality of applying
133 psychotherapeutic strategies such as self-inquiry and meditation in animal models. Research indicates that
134 microbiome compositions, summarized by enterotypes like *Bacteroidetes*, *Firmicutes*, or *Prevotella*, are
135 crucial for nutrient processing, inflammatory responses, and drug metabolism⁷⁷⁻⁸¹. Specifically,
136 *Firmicutes*⁸² and *Prevotella*⁸³ enterotypes have been linked to mental health, with the latter associated
137 with increased positive emotions, though further research is required. To explore the interactions among
138 the human microbiome, immune system, and depressive symptoms, we conducted a longitudinal study of
139 participants going through a highly immersive, inquiry-based stress reduction program. This approach,
140 integrating gut microbiome and plasma cytokine analyses with mental health assessments before and after
141 the program, provides novel insights into microbiome-host dynamics during an intervention that has
142 known therapeutic benefits.

143 144 **RESULTS**

145
146 Fifty-nine individuals were recruited under Stanford IRB 48982, excluding those with cancer or steroid
147 use. They attended a 9-day intensive inquiry-based stress reduction program at Ojai Valley Inn, California.
148 Samples were collected upon arrival (T1), after the stay (T2), and one (T3) and three months (T4) post-
149 retreat, totaling 142 stool and 123 plasma samples. (**Fig. 1A**) In addition to collecting biological samples,
150 we conducted an in-depth assessment of participants' mental health. This included depression, anxiety,
151 perceived stress, and psychosocial indicators of well-being. The initial depression status of the
152 participants was classified into two categories: "depressed" and "non-depressed." This categorization was
153 based on their total BDI-II (Beck Depression Inventory-II) score, using a score of 14 and above as the
154 threshold for being depressed, as per standard convention¹⁶.

155
156 Initially, 21 participants were identified as depressed based on BDI-II scores. Of these 21 participants, a
157 full 20 of them (95.24%) exhibited a significant decrease in BDI-II scores post-program, with the
158 reduction sustained over subsequent assessments. For the study's duration, those classified as depressed at
159 T1 remained in the "Depressed" group for analysis purposes, regardless of any changes in depression
160 status at later time points (T2, T3, or T4). (**Fig. 1B**)

161
162 A Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) revealed that the initial depression
163 status accounted for a small yet statistically significant proportion of the variation in gut microbiome
164 composition ($R^2 = 1.4\%$, $Pr (>F) = 0.004$). Yet, this did not significantly overshadow intrapersonal
165 variations (2.3% variance, $p = 0.21$), which were not consistent across participants (**Fig. 1C, S1A**). For
166 the non-depressed group, participation in the program (i.e., meditation) was associated with a substantial
167 increase in microbial richness. This effect was measured using the Chao1 index, which showed a rise
168 from the start to the end of the program (T1-T3: $\beta=35.06$, $p = 0.099$), as well as one month later (T1-
169 T4: $\beta = 84.84$, $p = 0.0016$). Additionally, we observed a trend toward increased intraindividual beta-
170 diversity ($p=0.078$) (**Fig. 1D**), which is consistent with findings from the largest meta-analysis on the
171 subject³⁸. This finding suggests that the immersive intervention program contributed to a mild, and
172 potentially beneficial, increase in microbial diversity⁴⁰, a change not observed for those in the depressed
173 subgroup. (**Fig. S1B**)

174
175 To specifically address the longitudinal design and zero-inflated nature of our microbiome data, a
176 separate analytical strategy was employed using a two-part Zero-Inflated Beta Regression model with
177 Random effects (ZIBR)⁸⁴. This approach identified three genera—*Solobacterium*, *Anaerofilum*, and
178 *Escherichia/Shigella*—that exhibited differential distribution based on depression status across time
179 (**Table S1**). Notably, while *Solobacterium* has previously been reported to increase among academic-
180 related chronic stress among young students⁸⁵, our data reveal a significant increase in the gut
181 microbiome of depressed individuals. Such findings suggest translocation of pathogens from one body
182 site to another during disease stage. *Escherichia/Shigella*^{37,86-88} and *Anaerofilum*^{86,89} have also been
183 previously associated with depression and stress, thus providing an external validation for the model. This
184 finding is consistent with our broader understanding that the gut microbiome's association with mental
185 depression appears to be characterized by the small to modest increase in pathogens, which, although
186 impactful, represent only a minor fraction of the total microbiome, rather than systematic shifts in the core
187 community.

188
189 Although our differential abundance analysis did not reveal significant pathogen overgrowth in
190 individuals with depressive symptoms, we investigated whether enterotypes—distinct microbial
191 configurations defined by specific bacterial genera dominance⁹⁰—were related to changes in depression
192 status over time. Enterotypes are known to significantly influence nutrient metabolism⁹¹⁻⁹³, the immune
193 environment^{81,94-96}, and disease onset and treatment⁹⁷⁻¹⁰⁰, suggesting their potential role in depression
194 dynamics. Combined with prior knowledge^{90,101}, we grouped our cohort into high *Bacteroides*, high
195 *Prevotella* and a *Firmicutes* enriched cluster that are low for the formal mentioned two genera but high
196 for *Ruminococcus*. (**Fig. 2A, S2A**), leading to the classification into *Bacteroides* (Ba), *Ruminococcus* (Ru),
197 and *Prevotella* (Pr) enterotypes. Our results show that these enterotypes remained stable throughout the
198 study, indicating that short-term interventions like meditation may not significantly alter these established
199 microbial communities. (**Fig. S2B**)

200
201 Our psychometric data analysis revealed marked differences between depressed and non-depressed
202 participants within the *Bacteroides* and *Ruminococcus* enterotypes, as shown by distinct clustering in
203 Principal Component Analysis (PCA); such differentiation was absent in the *Prevotella* group. (**Fig. 2B**).
204 The similar variance explained by the first two principal components suggests that individuals within the

205 *Prevotella* enterotype, regardless of depression status, exhibit comparable psychometric profiles. Further
206 analysis revealed a unique trend within the *Prevotella* group: individuals scored higher on feeling "alive,"
207 a pattern maintained across depression statuses. (**Fig. 2C**). Additionally, depressed individuals within the
208 *Prevotella* enterotype reported a greater sense of safety, enticement, and positive emotions. They also
209 noted higher levels of engagement and relationship satisfaction, coupled with lower tendencies towards
210 dependency, loneliness, and perfectionism. Their scores on the Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale (DAS17)
211 were also consistently lower. (**Fig. 2C**). The observations specific to the depressed individuals within the
212 *Prevotella* group are not due to an overrepresentation of *Prevotella* in either the depressed or non-
213 depressed groups (**Fig. S2B**), nor did we find a statistically different average BDI-II score at the
214 beginning of the program or throughout its entirety for the *Prevotella* group. In addition, we did not
215 identify any significant association of enterotype with participants' Adverse Childhood Experiences
216 (ACEs) score (**Fig. S2C**); in fact, none of the above-mentioned psychometric parameters were
217 hierarchically clustered with ACEs. (**Fig. S2D**)

218
219 Acknowledging the positive psychometric outcomes linked to the *Prevotella* enterotype, we sought to
220 investigate the potential associations involving enterotypes, baseline immune responses, and their
221 influence on depressive symptoms. To understand the immune profile associated with depression further,
222 we examined cytokines, chemokines, and growth factors in date-matched plasma samples using an 80-
223 plex Luminex assay. Using a PERMANOVA test that analyzed variance in cytokine data by timepoints,
224 enterotype, and depression status across 9,999 permutations, we identified a significant association
225 between systemic inflammation, as reflected in cytokine levels, and depression status ($R^2 = 1.91\%$, $Pr > F$
226 $= 0.005$). Intriguingly, enterotype also contributed to a minor, yet statistically significant, variation in
227 cytokine levels ($R^2 = 3.84\%$, $Pr > F = 0.001$).

228
229 Given the observed variance in cytokine levels influenced by both enterotype and depression status, we
230 undertook hierarchical clustering of the cytokine data, focusing on the average values across different
231 enterotypes and depression states. This was specifically to assess whether the *Prevotella* enterotype in
232 depressed individuals exhibits a cytokine profile similar to that of non-depressed groups when
233 considering all cytokines systematically. Indeed, our analysis revealed that depressed individuals with the
234 *Prevotella* enterotype indeed clustered with three enterotypes from the non-depressed group, indicating a
235 similar overall inflammatory profile (**Fig.3A**).

236
237 Cytokines and chemokines, which typically spike during inflammatory states, are crucial in regulating the
238 gut microbiome's stability⁹⁸, the overall different cluster on cytokine profile may signal differing
239 microbiome ecologies between populations. Therefore, the observed differences in cytokine profiles
240 between the two populations may reflect variations in their microbiome ecology such as stability
241 measured by co-occurrence^{102,103}. To delve deeper into this association, we constructed a family level¹⁰⁴
242 co-regulatory network of the gut microbiome for both depressed and non-depressed groups. Mirroring our
243 earlier result, the family of two driver genus of two major enterotype, *Bacteroidetes* (family
244 *Bacteroidaceae*) and *Ruminococcus* (family *Ruminococcaceae*), formed a major module network, whereas
245 *Prevotella* (family *Prevotellaceae*), typically characterized by a binary distribution among populations,
246 formed a distinct module (**Fig. 2A, Fig. S2A, Fig. 3B**). The network analysis revealed eleven bacterial
247 families uniquely associated with the *Bacteroidaceae-Ruminococcaceae* module in non-depressed
248 individuals, and three distinct to depressed participants within the same cluster; however, the

249 *Prevotellaceae* cluster showed similar patterns in both groups. The observed shifts in inter-dependency
250 patterns within the gut microbiome between depressed and non-depressed individuals indicate variations
251 in microbiome stability, particularly under the dominance of *Bacteroidaceae* or *Ruminococcaceae*
252 compared to *Prevotellaceae*. Notably, such altered co-occurrence patterns of gut microbiome have been
253 linked to individual's diminished responses to antidepressants⁷³, and our findings suggest they may also
254 predict lower well-being scores among individuals with depression.

255
256 The interdependency of the gut microbiome between individuals initially classified as depressed and
257 those who are not reveals interesting biological implications. In our study, core microbiome clusters in
258 non-depressed individuals predominantly included families like *Peptostreptococcus* and *Clostridiaceae*
259 which are known for their short-chain fatty acid (SCFA) production^{105,106}, beneficial for gut health and
260 anti-inflammatory responses. Conversely, the microbiome in depressed individuals exhibited a significant
261 presence of opportunistic pathogens, notably *Desulfovibrionaceae*. (**Fig. 3B**). The genus *Desulfovibrio*
262 within this family, implicated in diseases such as inflammatory bowel disease (IBD)¹⁰⁷, depression^{88,108},
263 and obesity¹⁰⁹, may contribute to these conditions through its production of hydrogen sulfide^{110,111} and
264 immunogenic lipopolysaccharides (LPS)^{112,113}. These substances are known to inflict inflammation-
265 induced damage to the blood-brain barrier^{114,115} and enhance intestinal permeability¹¹⁶⁻¹¹⁸, illustrating a
266 possible pathway by which alterations in the gut microbiome can influence systemic inflammation and,
267 consequently, mental health.

268
269 Despite our PERMANOVA not showing a significant variance in cytokine levels over time overall, we
270 pursued the identification of specific cytokines with significant temporal shifts. Using a two-sided
271 Student's T-test, we identified five cytokines that showed significant alterations at T2 and/or T3,
272 indicative of short and/or long-term effects associated with the program. Notably, CXCL-1 (GROA),
273 demonstrated a consistent decrease at T2 across both groups (**Fig.3C**). CXCL-1 is noted for its
274 mechanistic involvement of brain disorders such as Alzheimer's disease^{119,120} and multiple sclerosis¹²¹⁻¹²³;
275 more importantly, it has been directly associated with the development of depression, as evidenced in
276 both animal models¹²⁴⁻¹²⁶ and human clinical studies¹²⁷⁻¹²⁹. Following the nine-day immersive
277 psychosocial intervention program, the cytokines CXCL-5, IL-21, IL-7, and CCL-8 exhibited immediate
278 perturbations. In contrast, PDGF-AA, SCD-40L, IL-5, CCL-1, and FAS exhibited changes two weeks
279 post-program, indicating a delayed response. (**Fig.3D**).

280
281 The cytokines identified in our analysis, many of which are linked to the pathogenesis of depression¹³⁰⁻¹³²,
282 highlight the complex interplay between inflammation and mood disorders. The role of tumor necrosis
283 factor- α (TNF- α) and its receptor superfamily, including FAS and CD40L, is well-established in the
284 literature on depression^{25,131,133,134}, reinforcing the theory that their involvement may pertain more to
285 impaired tissue regeneration and neurogenesis rather than solely promoting inflammatory responses. The
286 longitudinal observation of lower FAS levels among depressed individuals (two-way ANOVA $F = 8.396$,
287 p -value = 0.0045) supports this notion¹³⁵, suggesting a nuanced contribution of the TNF/TNF-receptor-
288 superfamily to depression, possibly through impacts on neurogenesis. Intriguingly, the *Prevotella*
289 enterotype group exhibited significantly lower levels of seven out of ten mentioned cytokines compared
290 to the *Bacteroidetes* or *Ruminococcus* enterotypes, a pattern predominantly observed within the depressed
291 cohort, except for CXCL1 (**Fig. S3A**). This finding points to a potential microbial influence on the

292 cytokine environment, further complicating the association between gut microbiota, immune response,
293 and mental health.

294

295 Our analysis, incorporating a mediation model to examine the interplay between gut microbiome
296 composition (X), mental health outcomes (Y), and plasma cytokine levels (M), uncovered 179 significant
297 mediating effects (**Table S2**), suggesting intricate relations under assumed^{117,136,137} causal frameworks. In
298 this model, we pinpointed several bacterial genera potentially linked to depression-like symptoms,
299 highlighting the top five genera with the strongest signals (**Fig. 4A**). Specifically, we identified
300 *Sellimonas* and *Bifidobacterium* as key bacterial genera associated with depression symptoms,
301 corroborating their roles as biomarkers identified in comparative studies^{40,138} of microbiomes in healthy
302 individuals and those with Major Depressive Disorder (MDD). Our findings also highlight
303 *Erysipelatoclostridium's* potential mediating role in exacerbating negative emotions via its effects on IL-
304 33 (P = 0.016), Leptin (P = 0.028), and PAI-1 (P = 0.008) levels (**Fig.4A, Table S2**). This finding is
305 consistent with prior studies proposing *Erysipelatoclostridium* as a depression marker^{139,140} and its
306 positive association with anorexia nervosa¹⁴¹ and radiation-induced intestinal injury¹⁴².

307

308 These data shed light on the potentially beneficial effects of the *Prevotella* genus, notably in modulating
309 CXCL-1 expression and its significant role in enhancing perceptions of the world as enticing (**Fig. 4B**).
310 CXCL-13's mediation of feelings associated with enticement (P = 0.016) and safety (P = 0.012), and its
311 negative correlation with the *Escherichia/Shigella* genus cluster—which is more prevalent in depressed
312 individuals⁸⁸—underscores complex microbiome-influenced emotional responses. (**Fig. 4B**) Further, our
313 prior study¹⁴³ revealed that fiber such as Arabinoxylan and LCNulin intake significantly boosts *Prevotella*
314 levels, suggesting a dietary pathway to augment psychosocial intervention outcomes^{144,145} (**Fig. S4A**).
315 Although these observations do not conclusively define *Prevotella* as a psych-biome marker, they open
316 avenues for dietary interventions to potentially modulate neuro-inflammatory cytokines and manage
317 mental stress, highlighting the intricate interplay between diet, gut microbiota, and mental health¹⁴⁶.

318

319 **DISCUSSION**

320

321 The pervasive link between gut microbiome dysbiosis and various mental health disorders, notably
322 depression, has predominantly been explored through cross sectional comparisons^{37,47,147}. Our
323 investigation diverges from these traditional methodologies and represents a longitudinal examination of
324 the microbiome's role in mental wellness. By moving beyond simple longitudinal or cross-sectional
325 analyses that compare depressed individuals with healthy controls, our intervention study introduces an
326 interesting hypothesis: the existence of a *Prevotella*-dominant enterotype may contribute to a more benign
327 inflammatory environment, specifically in relation to depression-related symptoms. This proposition is
328 supported by our detailed examination of cytokine and chemokine profiles, including CXCL-1, which
329 suggests a potential for mitigating inflammatory responses. Additionally, our co-occurrence analysis
330 challenges the prevailing notion that an individual's depression status directly influences their gut
331 microbiome composition. Instead, we observe that the stability of the microbiome, particularly among
332 those with *Prevotella* dominance, appears less perturbed by depressive states compared to the
333 microbiomes of individuals with *Bacteroidetes* or *Ruminococcus* enterotypes. This distinction points to a
334 potentially critical role of microbiome composition in moderating baseline inflammation and maintaining

335 gut epithelial integrity under the strain of depressive conditions—a concept that underscores the
336 importance of microbial diversity in mental health and opens new avenues for therapeutic interventions¹⁴⁸.

337
338 Although the primary effect of the depression-reduction program may not be attributed to alterations in
339 the microbiome, our findings suggest an interesting dynamic. Participants who recovered from depression
340 did not show extensive microbiome remodeling post-intervention. In contrast, non-depressed participants
341 exhibited more pronounced microbiome remodeling during the 9-day immersive intervention program.
342 This finding suggests that individuals with depression at baseline may possess more static or
343 unresponsive gut microbiomes. Such "unresponsive gut microbiomes," often characterized by low
344 diversity, have been linked to various inflammatory conditions, including insulin resistance^{98,99}, viral
345 infections¹⁴⁹⁻¹⁵¹, and cognitive decline associated with liver transplantation^{152,153}. We believe that this
346 "unresponsive gut microbiome" is a phenotype of depression-related dysbiosis, a consequence rather than
347 a cause of depression-like symptoms.

348
349 Psychological research has long grappled with the question of whether ill-being and well-being are
350 opposites or distinct entities. Our findings provide biological support that ill-being and well-being
351 represent separate dimensions, each potentially influenced differently by the gut microbiome's
352 composition. This is particularly evident in the context of enterotypes, where *Prevotella*-dominant
353 profiles are associated with positive emotional states⁸³. *Prevotella*, known for its metabolic activity¹⁵⁴,
354 plays a role in producing neuroactive signaling molecules^{115,155}, vitamins¹⁵⁶, and other mood-influencing
355 compounds^{157,158}. This leads to an intriguing question: does *Prevotella* contribute to well-being through
356 elevated production of these active signaling molecules? Our prior research¹⁴³ demonstrated that
357 *Prevotella* levels increase with mixed fiber intake. This finding is consistent with findings that link
358 dietary fiber intake to a reduced risk of depression¹⁵⁹⁻¹⁶¹, likely mediated by short-chain fatty acids
359 (SCFAs) produced by fiber-digesting microbiota. SCFAs are known to regulate serotonin production¹⁶²
360 and potentially other neuroregulatory molecules. This association underscores the growing interest in
361 'psychobiotics' – probiotics that improve mental health through SCFA production and other
362 mechanisms^{163,164}.

363
364 Taxonomic comparisons of microbiomes between depressed and non-depressed individuals often reveal
365 inconsistent signals⁸⁸, attributed to the highly personalized nature of both the microbiome and mental
366 health. Nonetheless, certain trends and mechanisms have emerged as relatively consistent across research.
367 For example, *Coprococcus*, known for its butyrate-producing capability, consistently shows depletion in
368 depression across numerous studies^{47,147,165}, a trend confirmed by our mediation analysis. Similarly,
369 *Sellimonas*, proposed as a depression biomarker¹⁴⁷ and noted for its antibiotic resistance¹⁶⁶, was
370 highlighted in our mediation analysis. Our findings on *Bifidobacterium* also demand attention; while
371 much psychobiome research has focused on *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium*^{159,167-169}, our analysis and
372 previous studies suggest *Bifidobacterium*'s role in psychiatric disorders may be more complex than
373 previously thought^{138,170,171}. This highlights the need for mechanistic studies to elucidate the roles of
374 potential probiotic strains in mental health. Our mediation analysis underscores bacteria previously
375 associated with depression, suggesting a possible link between depressive symptoms and dysbiotic gut
376 microbiome changes.

377

378 Our findings indicate that the microbiome may influence depression through mechanisms involving
379 immune system modulation, particularly inflammation, which has been strongly linked to
380 depression^{1,172,173}. Despite observing significant psychometric improvements in depressed individuals,
381 their microbiome and cytokine profiles showed remarkable stability post-intervention. This persistence,
382 even amid depression recovery, implies that these biological markers might not directly drive depressive
383 states. Although a comprehensive analysis of inflammation's role and its cellular underpinnings remains
384 to be fully explored, the current data highlight subtle yet noteworthy shifts in inflammatory cytokines and
385 chemokines following a depression reduction program, observable both immediately and over time. These
386 alterations, though modest and not as pronounced as those seen in studies of respiratory viral infections¹⁷⁴,
387 suggest the presence of a low-grade inflammatory state rather than an acute immune reaction¹⁷⁵.

388
389 Our study highlights several cytokines of particular interest in mental health research¹³². Notably, the
390 immersive psychosocial intervention that we tested significantly reduced CXCL1 levels, a
391 neuroinflammatory cytokine, across all participants, including those not diagnosed with depression.
392 CXCL1, implicated in various neuropsychiatric disorders and typically elevated in depression^{129,176}, has
393 been identified as a potential therapeutic target via the CXCL1-GSK3 β pathway in animal studies^{124,126}.
394 Other cytokines such as CCL17 and CXCL5 also showed reductions and are associated with depressive
395 states in the literature^{130,177}. Our mediation analysis sheds light on the role of cytokines like soluble
396 VCAM-1 and ICAM-1 in bridging the microbiome-brain axis, crucial for maintaining the integrity of
397 blood-brain and gut epithelial barriers^{117,178}. Furthermore, cytokines including CXCL13 and IL4, known
398 for their neuroprotective functions¹⁷⁹ and ability to counter IL-1 β -induced depressive-like behavior¹⁸⁰,
399 displayed significant mediative effects in our analysis. These findings highlight a nuanced role of
400 inflammation in mental health, suggesting its potential to modulate neuroinflammatory conditions rather
401 than exacerbating them¹¹⁶. Notably, depressed individuals with a *Prevotella*-dominant enterotype
402 exhibited lower baseline levels of these cytokines, indicating a microbiome-immune system interaction
403 that might favor psychosocial treatment effectiveness. This effect points to a significant interplay between
404 specific gut microbiome compositions, immune responses, and mental health outcomes, suggesting the
405 integration of microbiome considerations into psychosocial intervention strategies.

406

407 **LIMITATIONS**

408

409 These findings should be interpreted considering several limitations. Firstly, depression was measured
410 using self-report instruments, which, despite their common use and validity, should ideally be
411 supplemented with clinician-rated assessments in future studies to enhance diagnostic accuracy. Secondly,
412 the study's scope lacks the statistical power necessary for the definitive identification of microbiome or
413 cytokine biomarkers for mental depression. This issue is compounded by a limited sample size, which
414 constrains the reliability of our findings, especially concerning changes—or the lack thereof—among
415 prevalent bacterial genera. Thirdly, our mediation analysis, while offering valuable insights, rests on
416 assumed causal links that have not been statistically verified beyond existing theoretical frameworks¹³⁶.
417 The potential for stress-induced microbiome alterations via cytokine pathways or the influence of other,
418 unidentified confounding factors cannot be overlooked. Moreover, our analysis focuses on identifying
419 potential agents of causation within the microbiome community concerning cytokine levels but stops
420 short of categorically determining the microbiome's impact as either beneficial or detrimental. This
421 ambiguity stems from the personalized nature of microbiome and cytokine interactions and the absence of

422 conclusive evidence to underpin such claims based on correlation alone. For example, the association
423 with the Prevotella enterotype may be more indicative of dietary preferences, such as high fiber
424 consumption, rather than a direct mood-enhancing property of Prevotella. Consequently, the associations
425 identified herein should primarily be considered indicative of concurrent occurrences rather than direct
426 biological mechanisms. To establish definitive mechanisms, further research employing more rigorously
427 designed experimental studies is necessary, which falls outside the ambit of this current analysis.

428
429 Despite these limitations, our findings catalyze an intriguing hypothesis: individuals with depression
430 might benefit from fostering a microbiome composition that is 'healthier' in the context of depression-
431 related inflammation, as explored in our research. This specific microbial configuration could predispose
432 individuals to a more favorable inflammatory baseline, which, in turn, might enhance or correlate with the
433 effectiveness of psychosocial therapeutic interventions tailored to depression. This hypothesis, novel in its
434 suggestion that the gut microbiome may play a significant role in either augmenting or correlating with
435 the outcomes of such interventions in humans, invites further exploration into the nuanced interplay
436 between gut microbiome dynamics and inflammation in depression. This study also marks a pioneering
437 step in elucidating the potential of microbiome-focused strategies to complement traditional mental health
438 treatments, emphasizing the need for more targeted research into how microbial compositions influence
439 depression-specific inflammatory processes and psychosocial wellbeing.

440

441 **METHODS**

442

443 **Psychological Profiling**

444 All participants were profiled at baseline, daily throughout the retreat, one-month later, and three months
445 later (note: the six-month follow-up is ongoing). Participants completed psychometric surveys through
446 REDCap evaluating mental health and well-being. For the characterization of social threat-related beliefs,
447 the Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale (DAS-17), short-form, was used to assess social-threat-related beliefs.
448 A subset of the Primal World Beliefs Index (PI-18), which measures underlying beliefs about the world
449 (e.g. “The world is safe,” vs. “the world is dangerous”), was used to assess a broader subset of underlying
450 beliefs and subsequent belief change. Additionally, the Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II) was used
451 to assess depression¹, the GAD-7 was used to assess anxiety, and the Perceived Stress Scale was used to
452 assess stress levels (PSS-10). Additional surveys included: PERMA profiler, Big Five Personality Index
453 (BFI-10), Satisfaction with Life Survey (SLWS), Close Relationships Questionnaire (CRQ-36), Adult
454 Hope Scale (AHS), Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) Questionnaire, the Acceptance and Action
455 Questionnaire (AAQ), and the Gratitude Survey (GS). The total BDI-II scores were interpreted following
456 established guidelines¹⁸¹: scores ranging from 0 to 13 indicated no-to-minimal depression, 14 to 19
457 indicated mild depression, 20 to 28 indicated moderate depression, and 29 to 63 indicated severe
458 depression.

459

460 **Blood Collection**

461 Blood samples were obtained at four distinct time intervals to facilitate comprehensive biological
462 profiling. Initial collections were performed on-site at the beginning (Day 1, T1) and conclusion (Day 9,
463 T2) of the retreat. Subsequent collections at one-month (T3) and three-month (T4) intervals were
464 facilitated through a collaboration with Phlebotek, utilizing their in-home mobile phlebotomy services to

465 accommodate participants nationwide. Each session involved the collection of one 10-ml red top tube and
466 one 10-ml lavender top tube for the separation and preservation of plasma, cells, and serum. These
467 samples were immediately shipped overnight on dry ice to our Stanford laboratory, where they were
468 preserved at -80°C pending further experimental analysis.

469

470 **Cytokines Luminex Assay**

471 The cytokine assay employed a 76-plex kit (EMD Millipore H76), executed by the Human Immune
472 Monitoring Center at Stanford University. The assay kits, sourced from EMD Millipore Corporation,
473 Burlington, MA, were used in accordance with the manufacturer's guidelines, with specific modifications
474 as delineated below. The H76 kits comprise three distinct panels: Panel 1. consists of Milliplex
475 HCYTMAG60PMX41BK, supplemented with IL-18 and IL-22 to create a 43-plex. Panel 2. incorporates
476 Milliplex HCP2MAG62KPX23BK, with the addition of MIG/CXCL9, forming a 24-plex. Panel 3.
477 features Milliplex HSP1MAG-63K, which is augmented with Resistin, Leptin, and HGF to yield a 9-plex.
478 Samples were combined with antibody-coupled magnetic beads in a 96-well plate and incubated
479 overnight at 4°C with shaking. Both cold and room-temperature incubation steps were conducted on an
480 orbital shaker at speeds ranging from 500 to 600 rpm. The plates were then washed twice using a wash
481 buffer in a Biotek ELx405 washer. Subsequently, a biotinylated detection antibody was added and
482 incubated at room temperature for an hour, followed by a 30-minute incubation with streptavidin-PE,
483 while shaking. After a final washing step, PBS was introduced into the wells, and readings were obtained
484 using the Luminex FlexMap3D Instrument, with a lower limit of 50 beads per sample per cytokine.
485 Custom Assay CHEX control beads (Radix Biosolutions Inc. Georgetown, Texas) were incorporated into
486 all wells.

487

488 **Microbiome Data Analysis**

489 Microbiome samples were collected using UBiome kits (UBiome, San Francisco, California), and
490 sequencing was conducted by UBiome, employing 150bp paired-end sequencing. Data analysis was
491 performed using DADA2 (version 1.20.0) in R (version 4.1.1), which offers advantages over UPARSE 8
492 in sequence analysis. Due to insufficient overlap between paired-end sequences, only forward reads were
493 utilized for further processing. The forward primer selected for this analysis was
494 GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA. Quality filtering parameters were set as follows: maximum allowable
495 'Ns' set to zero, maximum expected errors set to two, truncation length at 150, and truncation quality at
496 two. Taxonomic units were assigned using the DADA2 functions *assignTaxonomy* and *addSpecies* based
497 on the 16S sequences that met the quality criteria. Relative abundances of these taxonomic units were
498 determined by normalizing their respective read counts to the total reads at each time point. A rarefaction
499 step was conducted, where reads were randomly sampled to a uniform depth of 10,000 reads per sample.
500 As a result, three samples—X224325473, X467325054, X559299082—and 803 ASVs were excluded
501 from subsequent richness and diversity analyses.

502

503 **Enterotype Analysis**

504 The enterotypes of the microbiome samples were determined following previously established methods.
505 Initially, sample counts were normalized to their relative abundance, and noise was filtered by retaining
506 only features with a relative abundance exceeding 1%. Statistical dissimilarity between microbial
507 communities was quantified using Jensen-Shannon divergence (JSD) and Kullback-Leibler divergence

508 (KLD). A distance matrix was subsequently generated from these metrics. Partitioning Around Medoids
509 (PAM) clustering was employed on the distance matrix to categorize the samples into distinct clusters.
510 The optimal number of clusters (k) was determined by evaluating the Calinski-Harabasz index (CH index)
511 for k values ranging from 1 to 20. A k value of 3 was selected based on the CH index and prior literature.
512 Each cluster exhibited distinct microbial signatures: Cluster 1 was predominantly characterized by the
513 genus *Bacteroidetes*; Cluster 2 mainly featured the family *Ruminococcaceae*; and Cluster 3 was primarily
514 composed of the genus *Prevotella*. To validate the robustness of this clustering, silhouette width was
515 calculated, offering a measure of the similarity between each sample and others within its respective
516 cluster relative to other clusters. Additionally, Between-Class Analysis (BCA), informed by Principal
517 Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) scores, was performed to visualize the separation between the established
518 enterotypes. Finally, the samples were annotated with their respective enterotype classifications for
519 subsequent analyses.

520

521 **Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA)**

522 Two types of PERMANOVA analyses were conducted to explore the influence of various factors on the
523 gut microbiome and cytokine profiles. The analyses were performed using the `adonis2` function from the
524 R package `vegan`.

525

526 Gut Microbiome PERMANOVA: The distance matrix for the gut microbiome was computed using the
527 Bray-Curtis distance measure on the phyloseq object `physeq_PERMANOVA`. The PERMANOVA model
528 was constructed to evaluate the effects of time points (Time) and depression status (depressed) on the
529 microbial community bray curtis distance matrix. A total of 9,999 permutations were executed for this
530 analysis.

531

$$532 \text{Microbiome Distance} \sim \text{Timepoint} + \text{depressed}$$

533

534 Cytokine Profile PERMANOVA: For the cytokine profiles, a distance matrix was calculated using the
535 Euclidean distance measurements on a selected set of cytokines. The PERMANOVA model in this case
536 was formulated to include time (Time), enterotype cluster (Enterotype), and depression status (depressed)
537 as explanatory variables. The analysis was run with 9,999 permutations.

538

$$539 \text{Cytokine Distance} \sim \text{Timepoint} + \text{Enterotype} + \text{depressed}$$

540

541 **Network Analysis of Microbiome Family Co-occurrence**

542 To investigate the co-occurrence patterns of gut microbiome families in relation to depression, we
543 constructed two separate networks based on individuals' stages of depression. These analyses were
544 performed using the R package “`phylosmith`” (Version 1.0.7; DOI: 10.21105/joss.01442). Initially, gut
545 microbiome data were normalized and aggregated at the family level. This step aimed to simplify the
546 complexity of the network by reducing the number of nodes, thereby facilitating visualization.
547 Subsequently, pairwise Spearman correlation coefficients (ρ) were computed to assess the strength and
548 direction of associations between different microbial families. To determine an effective cutoff for ρ
549 that signifies meaningful associations in our data, we generated a null distribution of ρ values through
550 10,000 permutations, following the guidelines provided by the authors of `phylosmith`. Based on this
551 analysis, we identified cutoff values at the extreme tails (0.0001 significance level), which corresponded

552 to rho values of 0.49 (positive association) and -0.42 (negative association). Further examination revealed
553 that the maximum Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) adjusted p-value corresponding to these rho cutoffs was
554 0.00113. Given this finding, we opted for this more stringent criterion ($P \leq 0.00113$) to define significant
555 associations in our subsequent network analysis. The co-occurrence networks were constructed and
556 visualized using the default settings in “phylosmith”. These networks illustrate the patterns of microbial
557 family co-occurrence, providing insights into the microbial interactions that may be associated with
558 different stages of depression.

559

560 **Two-part Zero-inflated Beta Regression Model with Random Effects**

561 To investigate taxonomic differences between individuals classified as depressed and non-depressed in
562 our longitudinal study, a two-part Zero-Inflated Beta Regression model with random effects (ZIBR) was
563 utilized. Initially, data were categorized into three temporal groups: pre-treatment (T1), immediate post-
564 treatment (T2), and extended post-treatment (T3 and T4). Data cleaning procedures involved the
565 elimination of columns devoid of microbial counts. Additionally, taxa with fewer than four zero counts,
566 thereby lacking a zero-inflated nature, were excluded from subsequent analyses. Following these filtering
567 measures, the dataset was narrowed down to 20 individuals for whom data across all three temporal
568 categories were available. This subset consisted of 11 individuals classified as depressed and 9 as non-
569 depressed, yielding a total of 60 samples for analysis. The zibr function from the ZIBR package was
570 employed to perform analysis on 289 distinct microbial taxa. Both the logistic and beta regression
571 components of the ZIBR model were adjusted for depression status through the inclusion of a covariate.
572 Hypothesis testing was conducted to assess the statistical significance of the relationship between
573 individual microbial taxa and depression status, taking into account the zero-inflated nature of the dataset.
574 Joint p-values were computed and subsequently adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) method to
575 control for the False Discovery Rate (FDR). To further mitigate the risk of false positives, taxa appearing
576 only once in each group (singletons) were excluded from the results.

577

578 **Mediation Analysis**

579 Data processing was performed before running the mediation analysis to explore associations between gut
580 microbiome (X), plasma cytokine levels (M), and psychometric parameters (Y). Specifically, only
581 variables with a mean of non-zero values greater than 10% were retained. The gut microbiome data were
582 then transformed using the centered log-ratio (CLR) transformation, and a prevalence filter was applied to
583 include variables with more than 20% prevalence. Preliminary linear regression analyses were conducted
584 to evaluate the associations between the gut microbiome and both plasma cytokine levels and
585 psychometric parameters. Only associations meeting a P-value threshold of 0.2 were retained for
586 subsequent analyses. Mediation analyses were then carried out using the "mediation" package in R,
587 deploying Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) with a Gaussian distribution. A bootstrap method with 500
588 simulations was employed based on our previous work¹³⁶ to estimate the Average Causal Mediation
589 Effects (ACME) and Average Direct Effects (ADE). To assess the validity of the meditative pathways,
590 pairs demonstrating significant ACME (P-values < 0.05) were considered to represent the indirect effects
591 of the gut microbiome on psychometric parameters, mediated through plasma cytokine levels. Statistical
592 comparisons between different biological conditions were also conducted to evaluate the influence of the
593 meditative effect on each mediated pathway. Besides the traditional cutoff recommended for reporting
594 mediation effects as the ACME P-value < 0.05, significant mediation effects were reported only when
595 passing an additional threshold. A mediation effect was considered significant only if both the P-value for

596 the total effect in the mediation model and the p-value from the linear model evaluating the direct effect
597 of the gut microbiome (X) on psychometric parameters (Y) were less than 0.1. This dual-threshold
598 method aims to add a layer of stringency to the analysis, reducing the likelihood of Type I errors.
599 Although each test could traditionally be evaluated at $P < 0.05$, this conservative approach requires both
600 to be below $P < 0.1$ to strike a balance between stringency and sensitivity in the analysis.

601

602 **FIGURE LEGEND**

603 **Figure 1. Study Design, Depression Trajectories, and Microbiome Composition Analysis.**
604 (A) Cartoon representation of the study's methodology (Image adapted from *Pixabay*). (B) Beck
605 Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II) scores of participants across four time points, with each dashed line
606 corresponding to one individual. The color coding indicates whether the individual was depressed (red) or
607 non-depressed (blue) at baseline. (C) Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) of microbiome composition
608 at the four time points. The first two axes are plotted, with the variance captured annotated along each
609 axis. Red and blue colors denote the initial depression status of the participants, with red indicating
610 depressed and blue indicating non-depressed individuals. (D) Intra-individual dissimilarity between T1
611 and the rest of the program.

612

613 **Figure 2. Enterotype Analysis Reveals Potential Beneficial Role of *Prevotella* in Depression.**

614 (A) Enterotype Classification of Microbiome Samples. Samples were clustered into three enterotypes.
615 Each cluster is represented by a predominant genus, detailed in Supplementary Figure S2a. Colors
616 represent different enterotypes: *Ruminococcus* (R, blue), *Bacteroidetes* (B, green), and *Prevotella* (P,
617 purple). (B) PCA of Psychometric Parameters Based on Depression Status. Samples are colored based on
618 each individual's initial depression status (red for depressed, blue for non-depressed). The first two
619 principal components (PCs) are plotted, with the variance explained by each PC annotated. (C) Pairwise
620 Comparison of Psychometric Data by Enterotype and Depression Status. Comparison across
621 *Ruminococcus* (Ru, blue), *Bacteroidetes* (Ba, green), and *Prevotella* (Pe, purple) enterotypes. A two-sided
622 Student's T-test was used for each comparison. Significance levels are indicated as follows: $p < 0.1$ (.), p
623 < 0.05 (*), $p < 0.01$ (**), $p < 0.005$ (***)).

624

625 **Figure 3. Association of *Prevotella* Enterotype with Reduced Inflammation and Increased Gut 626 Microbiome Stability.**

627 (A) Hierarchical Clustering of Cytokine Values. Clustering based on enterotype
628 and depression status, illustrating the cytokine profiles across different groups. (B) Co-occurrence
629 Network of Microbial Families. Network representations comparing depressed and non-depressed
630 individuals. The left network represents the non-depressed group, and the right network represents the
631 depressed group. Unique microbial families to each network are color-coded (blue for non-depressed, red
632 for depressed). (C) Immediate Changes in Cytokines Post-Intervention. Significant Cytokine Changes
633 Between T1 and T2. Identification of cytokines that showed significant differences between T1 and T2 in
634 at least one group (depressed or non-depressed). (D) Delayed Changes in Cytokines Post-Intervention
635 Significant Cytokine Changes Between T2 and T3: Identification of cytokines that showed significant
636 differences between T2 and T3 in at least one group (depressed or non-depressed). A pairwise two-sided
637 Student's T-test was used for comparing cytokine levels between different time points. Significance levels
638 are indicated as follows: BH-adjusted $p < 0.1$ (.), BH-adjusted $p < 0.05$ (*), BH-adjusted $p < 0.01$ (**),
639 BH-adjusted $p < 0.005$ (***)).

639

640 **Figure 4. Mediation Linkage between Microbiome, Cytokine and Mental Health.**

641 (A) The top five bacterial genera identified through mediation analysis for their influence on mental
642 health outcomes, mediated by cytokine levels. (B) The mediation association involving the psychometric
643 parameter 'Enticing,' the genus *Prevotella*, and the cytokine CXCL1. (C) The mediation association
644 involving the psychometric parameter 'Safe,' the genus *Escherichia/Shigella*, and the cytokine CXCL13.

645

646 **Figure S1. Variance of microbiome across participants.**

647 (A) PcoA of individual microbiome by Subject. (B) The Chao1 Index of depressed and non-depressed
648 individual over time.

649

650 **Figure S2. Enterotypes and its association with the program and Adverse Childhood Experiences**

651 (A) The representative genera of each cluster by relative abundance. (B) Enterotype representation and
652 switch dynamics through the depression group and time. (C) Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE)
653 score by enterotype and Depression status. (D) ACE score and other mental health measurement
654 comparison by hierarchical clustering

655

656 **Figure S3. Cytokine Level Comparison Between Different Enterotype and Depression Group**

657 The ten cytokines from Fig 3 compared across different enterotypes and between groups with and without
658 depression.

659

660 **Figure S4. Prevotella Increase After Fiber Intake**

661 relative abundance of the bacteria genus *Prevotella* in the microbiome changes after the intake of different
662 types of dietary fiber.

663

664 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION**

665 M.P.S., G.M.S., X.Z. and A.B.G conceived the study. A.B.G, S.L. B.R coordinated the study sample
666 collection and sequencing. X.Z. designed the overall analysis plan. X.Z., A.R., T.Y.C., H.O., performed
667 the causal inference. J.S.J., R.H. D.J.S., performed analysis on cytokine microbiome interaction. X.L.,
668 Y.L. performed the longitudinal analysis on microbiome between groups. X.Z., G.M.S., A.B.G. and
669 M.P.S. wrote the manuscript with the help of all authors.

670

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679

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687

688 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

689 M.P.S. is a co-founder and the scientific advisory board member of Personalis, Qbio, January, SensOmics,
690 Filtricine, Akna, Protos, Mirvie, NiMo, Onza, Oralome, Marble Therapeutics, and Iollo. He is also on the
691 scientific advisory board of Danaher, Genapsys, and Jupiter. A. B. G. is a founding partner at Arben
692 Ventures and Xthena Partners. The fund she manages through Arben Ventures is an advisor to Elemind
693 Technologies, Northstar Care, and Bloch Quantum Imaging. These organizations had no role in planning,
694 writing, editing, or reviewing this article, or in deciding to submit this article for publication. All other
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696

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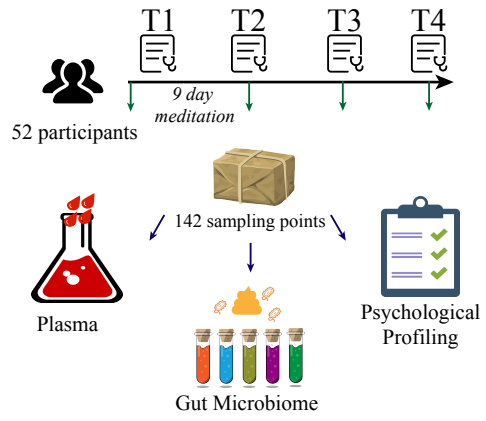
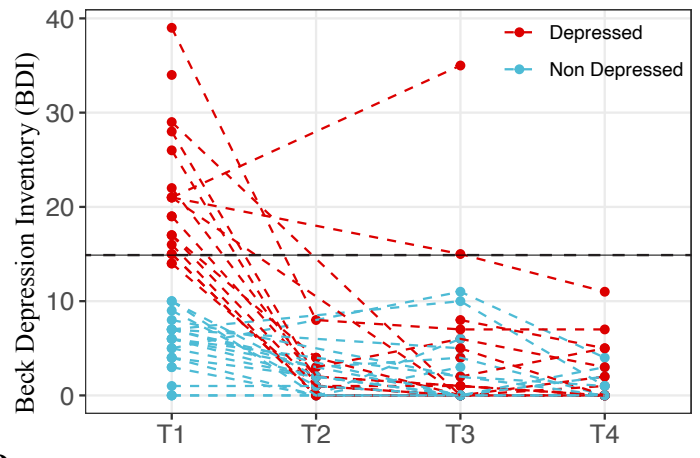
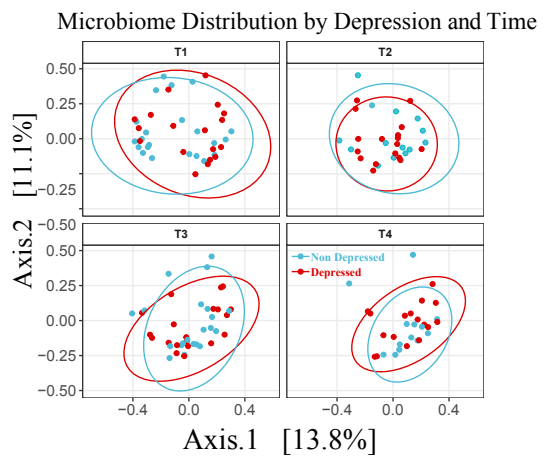
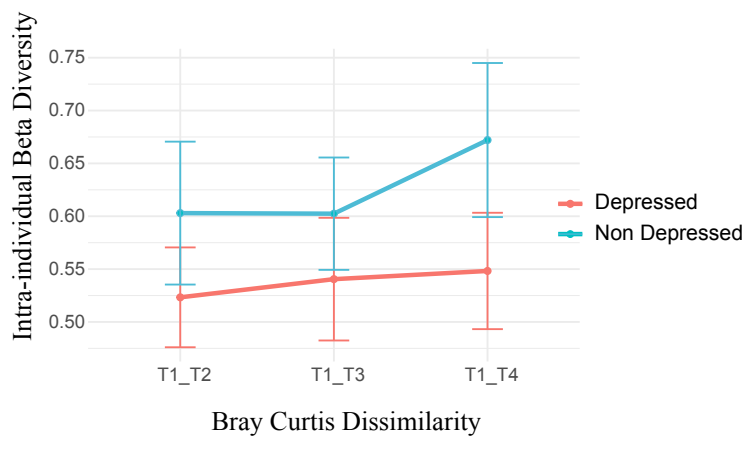
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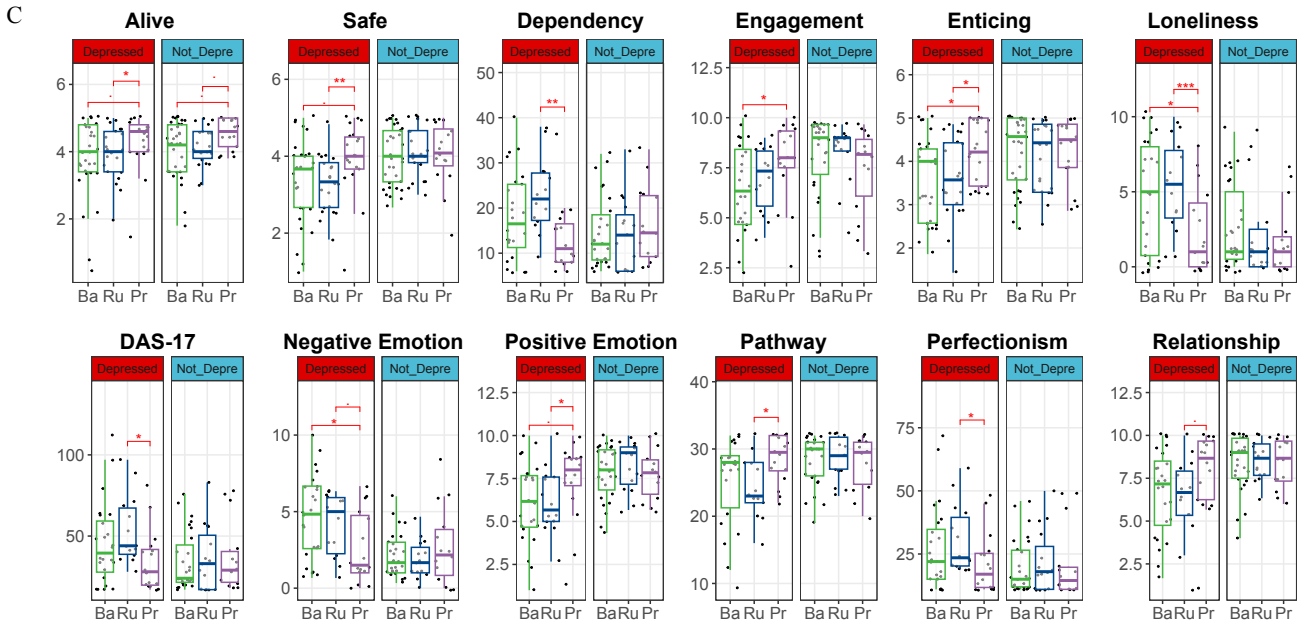
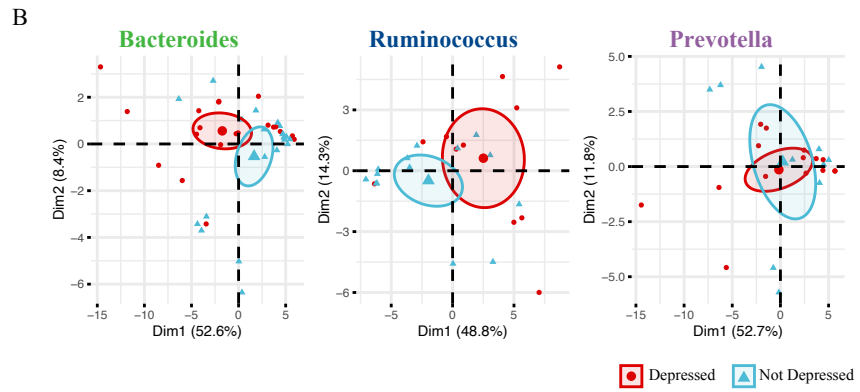
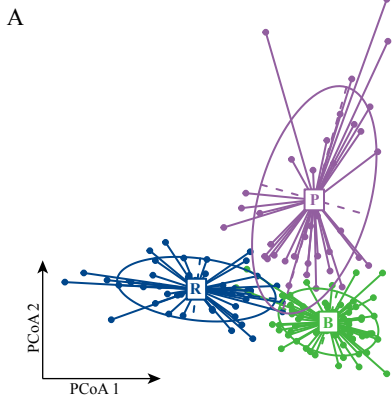
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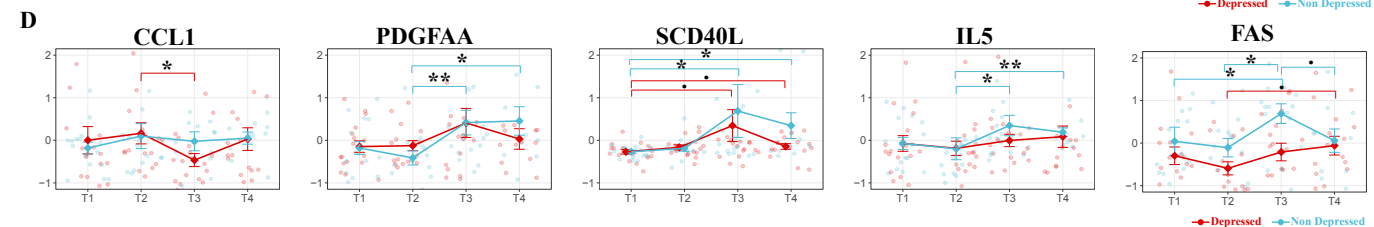
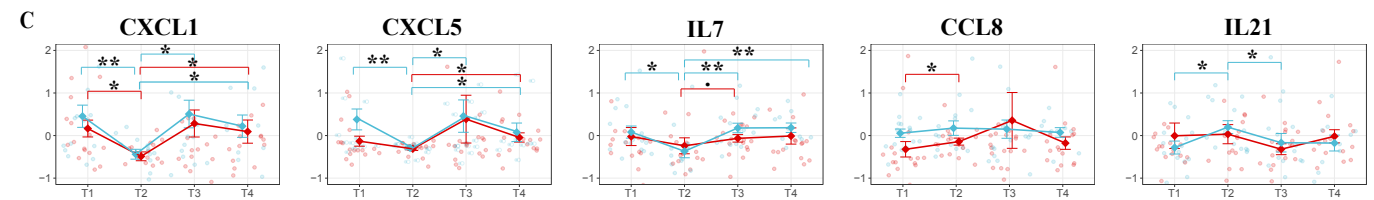
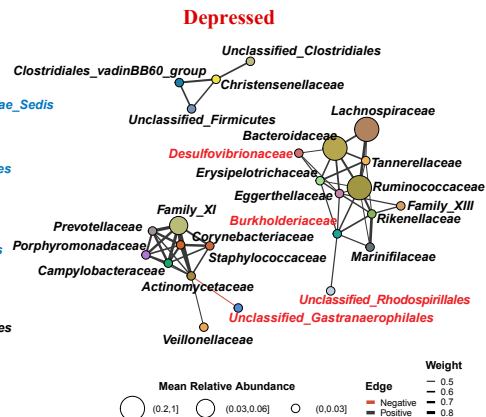
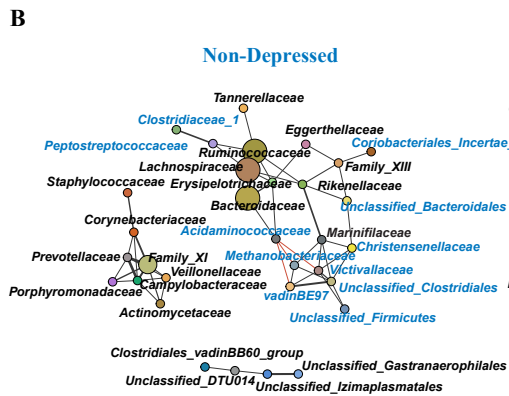
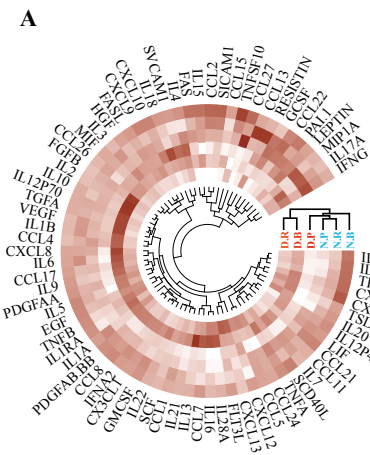
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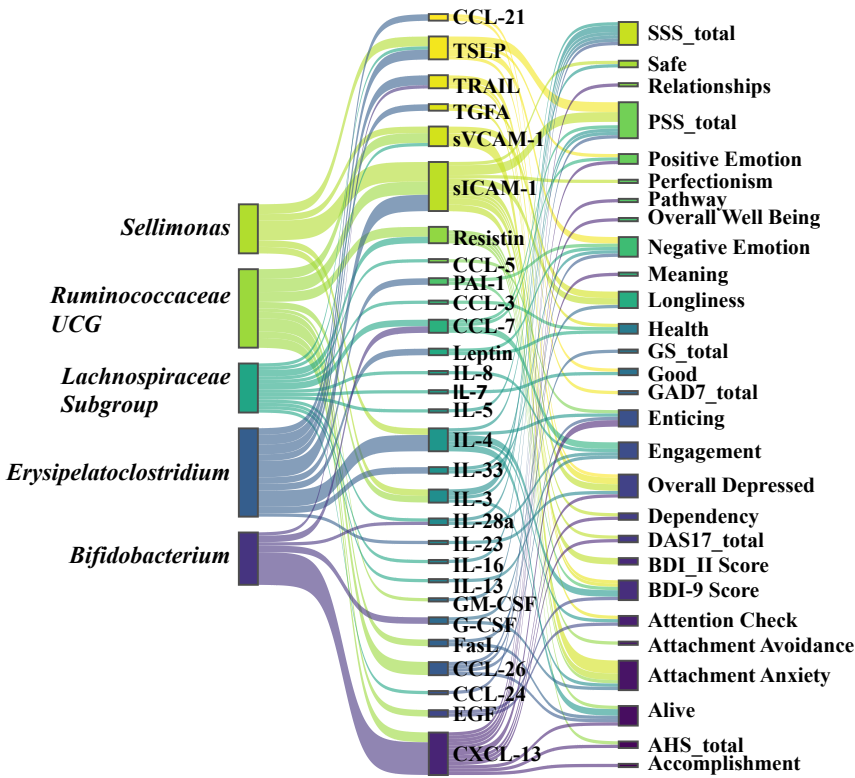
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A**B****C****D**

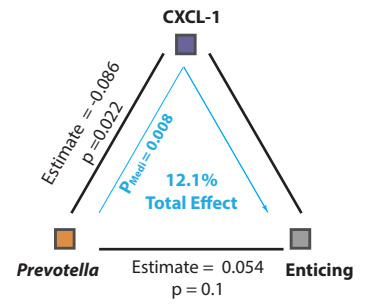




A



B



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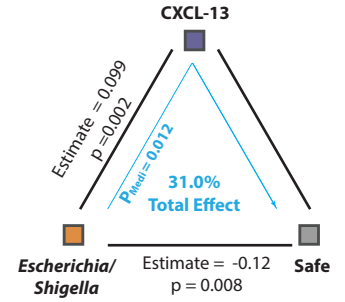
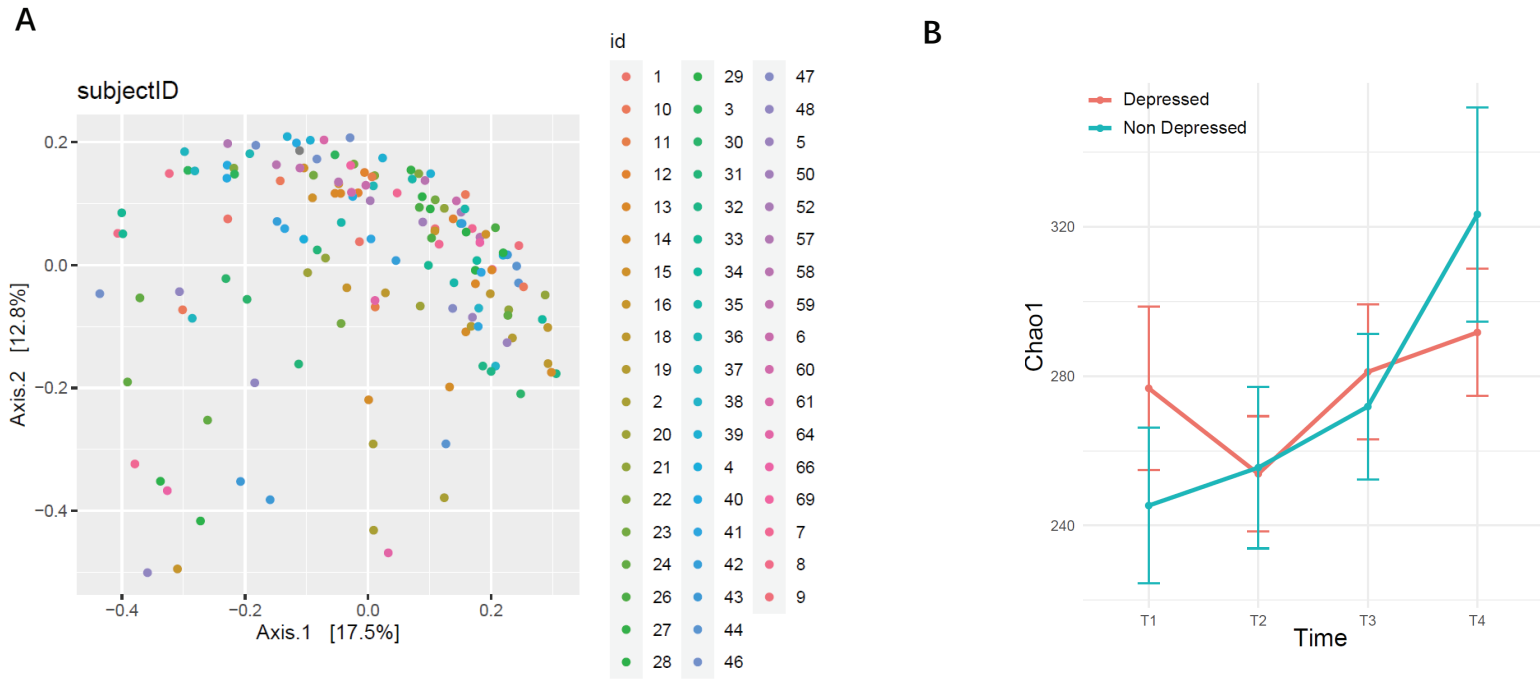


Figure S1. Variance of microbiome across participants



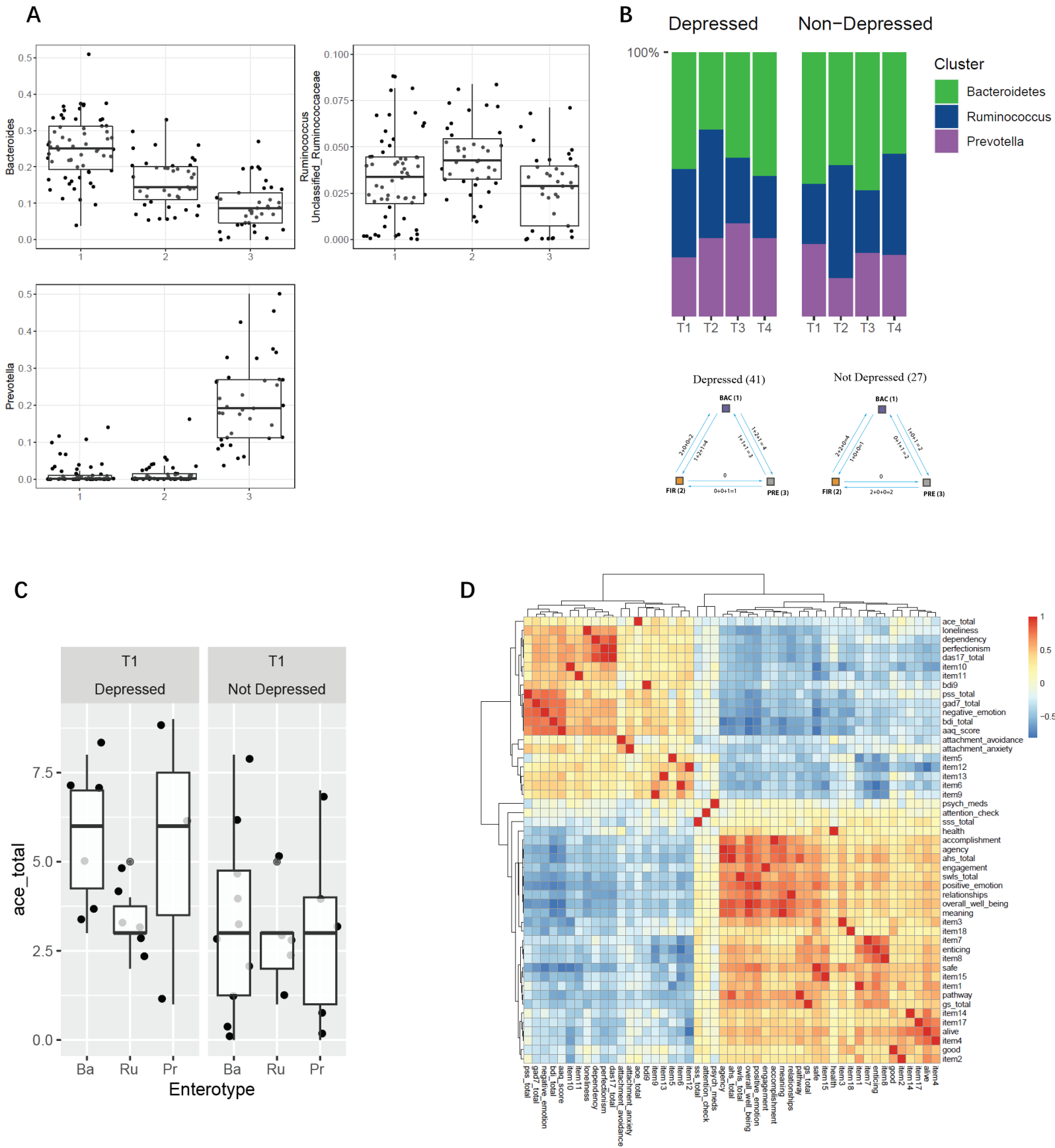


Figure S3. Cytokine Level Comparison Between Different Enterotype and Depression Group

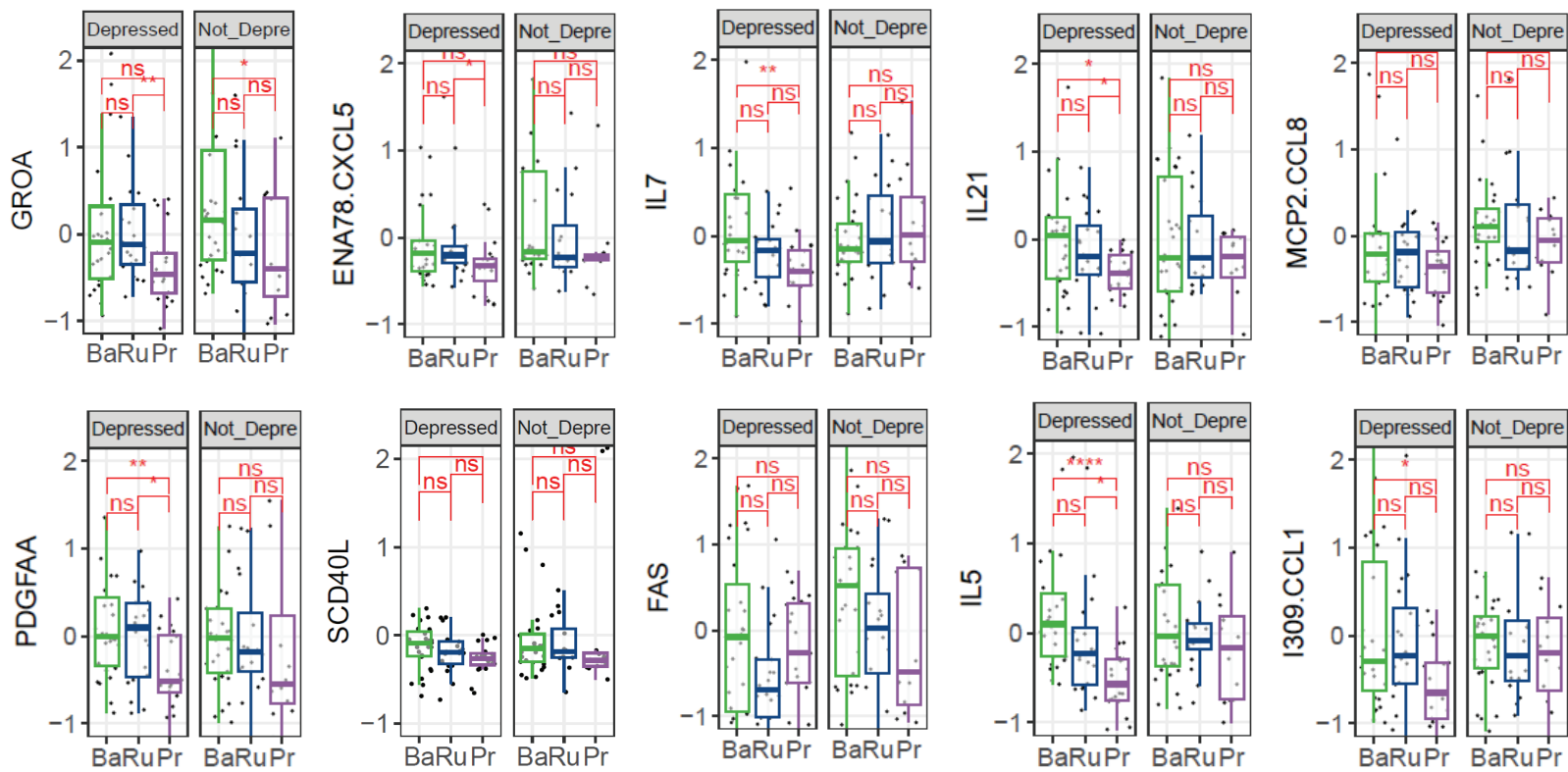


Figure S4. Prevotella Increase After Fiber Intake

