

# The Microbiome-Mental health axis: a new frontier in managing depression and anxiety

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## Abstract:

The gut microbiome, in turn, has significant effects on mental health via the gut-brain axis, affecting depression and anxiety systems through the neural, immune, and metabolic systems. The study is a synthesis of 2020-2025 research about such mechanisms of neuroinflammation, the creation of neurotransmitters, and the metabolism of short-chain fatty acids (SCFA), as well as interventions such as using probiotics, prebiotics, dietary additions, and even a medical process known as fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT). This was done through a systematic literature search that gave peer-reviewed works across PubMed, Scopus, and PsycINFO. Results support the connection between microbial dysbiosis and the severity of mood disorders and demonstrate the possible clinical prospects of this connection, although the remaining problems, such as the variation of the results in diverse patients and scarce clinical trials, remain. Microbial profiles, outcomes of interventions, and research designs are described with the help of tables and figures. Future development focuses on individualized treatments, the increased scale of trials, and integrations to promote mental health

**Keywords:** Gut Microbiome, Gut Brain Connection, Depression, Anxiety, Prebiotics.

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## Introduction

The human gut microbiome, a highly diversified community of trillions of microbes, does not restrict itself to the digestive tract but involves mental health via the gut-brain axis, a dual way of correspondence, integrating neural, endocrine, and immune mechanisms [1]. Growing evidence points to dysbiosis (microbial imbalance) as a significant cause of mood disorders, including major depressive disorder (MDD) and generalized anxiety disorder (GAD), two afflictions affecting a total of more than 500 million individuals worldwide, posing heavy socioeconomic risks, including the annual healthcare expenditure of up to one trillion dollars and vast losses in productivity [2]. There is also the reduced microbial diversity and disturbed taxa, including Bifidobacterium and Lactobacillus depletion, with an increase in severity of symptoms that can be measured by questionnaires like Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS) and Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) [3]. Standard therapy, such as selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) and cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT), works in most individuals and still leaves about 30 percent of patients with less than optimal results and therefore, warrants new treatment interventions [4].

They also hold promise as microbiome-based therapies, including probiotics, prebiotics, diet as intervention, and FMT, utilize the gut-brain intercourse to lessen psychiatric symptoms using creating neurotransmitters, decreasing inflammation, and metabolizing SCFAs [5]. It turns out to be revolutionary as such methods incorporate the role of gut health into psychiatric treatments and provide new hope that even so-called untreatable patients will improve. The high rates of mood disorders that cause comorbidities and pose risks of

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cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and shorter life expectancy indicate the need to find innovative solutions [2]. Evidence synthesized between 2020 to 2025 reveals that this review can offer a broad overview of the microbiome-mental axis, its processes, trends of dysbiosis, interventions, challenges of clinical translation, and future perspectives. Tables and figures are used to elaborate the information to be understood easily, i.e., microbial profiles, intervention outcomes, and research frameworks, as well as in the hope to facilitate clinicians and researchers to exploit the microbiome to redesign and reframe mental health care. This review aims to be a strong source of information that can guide the development of microbiome-based mental health interventions and bring a new era of precision psychiatry by consolidating the evidence and covering the implementation obstacles. Microbiome-mental health axis has become a key research topic, and studies from 2020 to 2025 demonstrate that the key to understanding a person lies in the microbiome-mental health connection in depression and anxiety. This part reproduces findings of peer-reviewed studies located in a systematic search and grouped by mechanism, dysbiosis patterns, interventions, and research gaps, to establish an extensive systematized base for comprehending this subject matter.

## **The Gut-Brain axis mechanism**

Many interrelated pathways via the gut-brain axis perform the microbiome-mediated impacts on mental health, each of which teaches some special knowledge about mood regulation. A major pathway of microbial cues to the brain is neural signaling through the vagus nerve, which communicates the changes to various parts of the brain, such as the amygdala, prefrontal cortex, and hippocampus, which control emotion regulation, cognitive processing, and stress response [1]. As shown by Bravo et al. (2011), when mice are supplemented with *Lactobacillus rhamnosus*, anxiety-like behaviours are decreased, and this effect is blocked by vagotomy, i.e., eliminating the vagus nerve seriously impacts the transfer of microbial information to the brain [6]. Vagal nerve stimulation as a treatment in humans has been used to treat treatment-resistant depression, implying that the approach may be synergistic with microbial interventions in the treatment of depression, given the optimal neural plasticity and control of emotions [7]. The vagus nerve also plays a role in the regulation of activities of the autonomous nervous system, affecting heart rate variability and stress tolerance, which, in the case of mood disorder, are often distorted.

Another important pathway is immune modulation, whereby dysbiosis reduces integrity of the gut barrier and elevates permeability that allows lipopolysaccharides (LPS) of the gram-negative bacteria into blood circulation that stimulates pro-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-6 (IL-6), interleukin-1 (IL-1), and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- 1) [8]. Valles-Colomer et al. (2019) observed that impaired Bifidobacteria in MDD patients were associated with higher IL-6 levels that are associated with neuroinflammation, which is the main characteristic of mood disorders [9]. This inflammatory pathway interferes with the neural circuits in the amygdala and prefrontal cortex to worsen depressive and anxious symptoms. Such interventions against inflammation as anti-inflammatory microbials, which support the growth of Bifidobacteria, can reduce these effects due to their effects in restraining systemic inflammation and restoring the integrity of the gut barrier.

Neurotransmitters that are essential to mental health are made by the gut microbes. According to Dinan and Cryan (2020), the *Lactobacillus* species seem to regulate the production of serotonin, which is an essential and dominant hormone in the human body that represents about 90% of the body serotonin [2]. Bifidobacteria synthesize gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA), an inhibitory neurotransmitter that antidotes anxiety through neural excitability [10]. Dysbiosis impairs such pathways, leading to a drop in the levels of neurotransmitters and increasing mood dysregulation. As an example, Strandwitz (2018) pointed out that certain taxonomies of microbes show a direct influence on the synthesis of neurotransmitters, providing a mechanism behind microbial interventions [21].

Neuroactive short-chain fatty acids(SCFAs, including butyrate, acetate, and propionate) are products of microbial metabolism. The SCFAs intensify the blood-brain barrier, decrease the neuroinflammation, and boost neurogenesis through the upregulation of brain-derived

neurotrophic factor (BDNF) [11]. According to Marx et al. (2021), impoverished SCFA-producing bacteria of MDD patients, including Faecalibacterium, are linked to decreased BDNF levels, which add to depressive symptoms [12]. Of particular relevance is butyrate, which increases histone acetylation and induces expression of genes in neural repair and plasticity, which is why butyrate is a promising target of therapy.

The microbiome also downregulates the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis, which governs stress responses via production of cortisol. The above findings became evident when Su et al. (2004) established that germ-free mice display extreme HPA responses regarding stress, which appear to be rectified by microbial colonization using Bifidobacterium species [13]. In humans, dysbiosis causes hyperactivity across the HPA axis, which secretes more cortisol and promotes further anxiety and depression [14]. These data emphasize the poly-functional role of the microbiome in mental health, which provides access to numerous pathways: neural, immune, metabolic, and endocrine, in the course of treating it.

## Microbial dysbiosis of mood disorders

Microbial dysbiosis has consistently been reported in depression and anxiety with reduced alpha diversity (the richness of the species) and a unique beta diversity (community structure) that is compared with healthy controls [3]. Particular taxonomic changes are:

- Shrunken Positive Taxa: Bifidobacteria and Lactobacillus are dramatically undermined in depression, which is associated with increased scores of HDRS, reflecting more serious symptoms [9]. The same can be said about SCFA-producing genera such as Faecalibacterium and Roseburia, which are lowered in anxiety and linked to higher scores on the STAI [15]. These losses disrupt the anti-inflammatory and neuroprotective capacities and worsen mood instability.
- Heightened Pathogenic Taxa: the amount of Clostridium and Escherichia rises, which enhances the production of LPS, leading to systemic inflammation and the loss of gut barrier integrity [16]. These taxa support neuroinflammation and worsen the symptoms of the mood disorder.
- functional alterations: Dysbiosis impairs production of SCFA as well as augments activation of pro-inflammatory pathways to perturb central nervous (neural) and endocrine functioning [10]. Cohort study in 2024 showed lower levels of butyrate in MDD patients, which was associated with high levels of IL-6 and TNF- $\alpha$  that were both associated with severity of depressive symptoms [12].

Such microbial preferences construct the possibility of identifying them as diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers. In such a way, lesser microbial diversity is predictive of worse responsiveness to SSRIs in MDD patients, suggesting that microbiota might be used in treatment stratification [17]. Faecalibacterium levels are proven to be lower in GAD and directly related to the level of anxiety, which identifies microbial profiling as a promising treatment approach to direct further diagnosis and targeted therapy [15].

## Intervention studies

Microbiome-based targeted treatment holds therapeutic potential in the treatment of depressive symptoms and anxiety. A review by Liu et al. (2019) listed 15 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and gave an effect size of moderate (Hedges  $g = 0.42$ ) for probiotics and decreasing depressive symptoms [5]. When supplementing Lactobacillus rhamnosus and Bifidobacterium longum in MDD patients who presented with high HDRS scores, an eight-week 2023 study run by Huang et al. revealed that this regimen resulted in a 27 percent decrease in HDRS scores compared to placebo [16]. Examples of anxiolytic prebiotics include galacto-oligosaccharides (GOS), which reduce the STAI by 20 percent, 12 weeks after supplementation of 65 healthy females was reported by Johnstone et al [8]. Depressive symptoms were decreased by a 30% proportion in the Mediterranean diet, which comprises the fiber- and polyphenol-rich diet, which was coupled with elevation of Faecalibacterium in the SMILES trial [18]. Experimental FMT is not that promising, according to Kelly et al.

(2022), who noted a 38% decrease in depressive symptoms 4 weeks after FMT in 30 MDD patients [19].

On a mechanistic level, probiotics stimulate SCFA production, suppress neuroinflammation, and promote GABA production, and prebiotics stimulate the growth of the beneficial microbiome and suppress the response of the HPA axis [11]. Changing one-sided diets contributes to the variety of microorganisms, suppressing the activity of inflammation, and increasing the synthesis of neurotransmitters [12]. FMT scientifically recovers the microbiome but needs to be researched further to streamline the donor selection and reduce the risks [19]. The described interventions do hold promise of providing new methods of dealing with mood disorders, most prominently, treatment-resistant cases, but, because of personal microbial variations and intervention-dependent factors, their effectiveness is not the same.

## Research gaps

Although there are these developments, there still exist some gaps. Genetics, diet, lifestyle, and environmental factors contribute to intermicrobial variation that makes standardized interventions inconvenient [20]. The few large-scale RCTs limit generalizability, where only 15 of the studies report that the study included more than 100 participants [21]. The regulatory issues, especially for FMT, and the scarcity of long-term safety information pose obstacles to clinical translation [22]. Other uncertainties include those of a mechanical nature, including the relative proportions between SCFA production and neurotransmitter modulation [1]. Longitudinal studies should then be conducted to understand which one precedes the psychiatric symptoms or which one occurs as a result of the other, and to achieve consistency between studies, a standardized method of microbial profiling (e.g., 16S rRNA sequencing, metagenomics) must also be established. These gaps are of importance to fill to promote microbiome-based mental health care and create specific, effective interventions.

**Table 1: Key Findings from Recent Studies**

Study Focus	Key Findings	Reference
Mechanisms	Vagal signaling, neuroinflammation, SCFA production, HPA axis modulation	[1,2,6,8,11,13]
Dysbiosis	Reduced <i>Bifidobacterium</i> , <i>Faecalibacterium</i> ; increased <i>Clostridium</i>	[3,9,15,16]
Interventions	Probiotics (Hedges' $g = 0.42$ ), Mediterranean diet, and FMT are effective	[5,8,16,18,19]
Gaps	Inter-individual variability, limited RCTs, and regulatory challenges	[20,21,22]

Conclusion of the essential findings of recent studies of the microbiome-mental health axis, including mechanisms, dysbiosis, interventions, and knowledge gaps.

## Pathways of the Microbiome-Mental health axis

There are numerous pathways in the gut-brain axis where the microbiome affects mental health, and they present varying perspectives in understanding the moods and therapeutic options. These mechanisms can be used to lay a platform for the expansion of specific interventions to deal with depression and anxiety.

## **The vagus nerve neural signaling**

The vagus nerve acts as a major source of gut-brain interaction and transports microbial information to several brain regions, including the amygdala, prefrontal cortex, and hippocampus, that regulate emotional responses, cognitive processing, and tolerance to stress [6]. Using rote studies, including those by Bravo et al. (2011), reveals that *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* supplementation decreases anxiety-like behaviors found in mice, through which these effects are blocked by vagotomy, highlighting the importance of the vagus nerve [6]. Vagal nerve stimulation has been validated as an established treatment for treatment-resistant depression in humans, with reports of better HDRS scores of up to 3040 % of individuals [7]. In turn, this is an indication of possible synergy with microbial intervention, because probiotics can have effects on vagal signaling, which in turn can increase neural plasticity and emotional regulation. Also, the vagus nerve regulates activity of the autonomic nervous system; its stimulation or activation can theoretically affect heart rate variability, as does the ingestion of antidepressant drugs, which is often impaired in mood disorders, and another indication of its therapeutic usefulness.

## **The neuroinflammation and immune modulation**

Dysbiosis limits the integrity of the gut barrier and increases permeability (also known as a leaky gut) and permits LPS to circulate in the blood, which provokes such pro-inflammatory cytokines as IL-6, IL-1, and TNF genes [8]. These cytokines pass the blood-brain barrier, stimulating neuroinflammation, which is also a characteristic of depression and anxiety [9]. According to Valles-Colomer et al. (2019), IL-6 values were higher, and the abundance of Bifidobacteria was lower in patients with MDD, so there is evidence of a microbial-inflammatory pathway [9]. Neuroinflammation interferes with the functioning of neural pathways within the amygdala and prefrontal cortex, which complicates the manifestation of such symptoms as anhedonia and hypervigilance. An innovative approach to deal with psychiatric symptoms can be the modulation of the gut microbiome to restore the gut barrier, with the properties of reducing inflammation. To give an example, Bifidobacterium supplementation was proven to decrease IL-6 level by 15-20 per cent in clinical trials, which demonstrates its anti-inflammatory properties [16].

## **Neurotransmitter production**

The microbe that inhabits the gut produces neurotransmitters that are key to mental health. *Lactobacillus* species also regulate the serotonin production, which comprises 90 percent of the whole body serotonin that is mainly produced in the gut by the enterochromaffin cells under the influence of microbes [2]. Production of GABA and its use in Bifidobacteria is of value as it is an inhibitory neurotransmitter that ameliorates anxiety by balancing neuronal or nervous excitability [10]. Dysbiosis affects these pathways, lowering the levels of neurotransmitters and worsening symptoms [21]. To give an example, a study in 2024 discovered that depressed patients had decreased levels of *Lactobacillus*, which were associated with low levels of serotonin and were one of the reasons behind depressive symptoms [12]. The re-establishment of microbial balance may normalize the production of neurotransmitters, which offers a direct relief mechanism as well as a focus of psychobiotic treatment.

## **Microbial metabolites**

Neuroactive microbial metabolites include SCFA (butyrate, acetate, and propionate). SCFAs can enhance the blood-brain barrier, decrease neuroinflammation, and augment neurogenesis through upregulating the BDNF [11]. According to Marx et al. (2021), the lower levels of BDNF are associated with depleted *Faecalibacterium* in mood disorders, which is a cause of depressive symptoms [12]. Specifically, butyrate increases histone acetylation

by stimulating transcription of neural repair and plasticity genes. An exciting therapeutic target is the enhancement of SCFA production with microbial interventions like prebiotics or dietary fiber because administration of prebiotics has demonstrated a 2030 percent SCFA production, increase in butyrate [8].

## **Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal (HPA) axis**

The microbiome also plays a role in adjusting the HPA axis, which helps in dealing with stress by manufacturing cortisol. The occurrence of dysbiosis, in turn, results in hyperactivity of the HPA axis, raising the cortisol quantity and enhancing anxiety and depression [13]. Microbial colonization of germ-free mice, with *Bifidobacterium* species, normalized exaggerated HPA responses demonstrated by Su et al (2004) [13]. Probiotics cause a 1015% decrease in cortisol in humans, and this leads to a plausible mechanism of treating stress symptoms [23]. Overall, the pathways identify the complex contribution of the microbiome towards the regulation of mental health and provide a series of possibilities in terms of therapeutic interventions, including probiotics and diet.

## **Dysbiosis of microbiome in depression and anxiety**

Mood disorders are also well defined by microbial dysbiosis with loss of diversity and taxonomic changes, which can be used to gain insight into the pathophysiology and prospective biomarker disorders. The findings of metagenomic studies indicate dissimilarity in microbiome diversity or community structure (beta diversity) and species richness (alpha diversity) in healthy controls and patients with MDD and GAD [3].

## **Dysbiosis patterns**

- **Loss of Beneficial Taxa:** *Bifidobacteria* and *Lactobacillus*, which produce anti-inflammatory metabolites and neurotransmitters, are dramatically decreased during depression and associated with increased HDRS [9]. Similarly, the anxiety is impoverished in SCFA-generating genera such as *Faecalibacterium* and *Roseburia*, which is linked to elevated STAI scores [15]. The impairments of anti-inflammatory and neuroprotective mechanisms lead to more depletions of the mood dysregulation associated with these factors. Hypothetically, depleted *Faecalibacterium* bacteria are associated with an inhibited level of butyrate production that undermines neural repairing processes [12].
- **Raised Pathogenic Taxa:** Raised levels of *Clostridium* and *Escherichia* raise LPS exposure, leading to systemic inflammation and third-party in the digestive tract beginning [16]. These taxa aggravate neuroinflammation, which worsens the symptoms of anhedonia, fatigue, and hypervigilance. Research conducted on 2024 participants revealed that an overabundance of *Escherichia* in GAD patients during a particular study was associated with a 25% increase in the level of TNF-alpha, a condition that worsened the severity of anxiety among the patients [15].
- **Alterations in Function:** The production of SCFA is diminished, and activation of the pro-inflammatory pathway is enhanced through dysbiosis, altering the neural and endocrine functions [10]. One way is that previously, a 2024 cohort study stated lower butyrate levels in MDD patients, coupled with the increased IL-6 and TNF- $\alpha$  expressed, correlating with the severity of depressive symptoms [12]. These functional disruptions inhibit neurotransmitter synthesis, HPA axes regulation, and neural plasticity, which leads to mood dysregulation.

## **Clinical correlations**

Distributions of microbes are linked to the severity of the symptoms and response to treatment. The poorer response to SSRIs in MDD patients is predicted by lower microbial diversity, and a 2023 study revealed the response rate to fluoxetine was lower by 20 percent among patients with an alpha diversity below the median [17]. Decreased *Faecalibacterium*

was found to correlate with levels of anxiety, where the higher the depletion of SCFA producers, the higher their STAI scores [15]. These associations draw attention to the clinical implications of mood dysbiosis in the condition and how it can be used to stratify treatment.

## Biomarker potential

A unique set of microbial markers in mood disorders implies that they could be effective diagnostic and prognostic markers. A low level of Bifidobacteria and Faecalibacterium may also be a sign of a higher risk of severe depression; meanwhile, the microbial changes after intervention might be an indicator of the treatment effect. As an illustration, a 2024 study discovered that Lactobacillus abundance after probiotic intervention showed a 25 percent decrease in HDRS, which may indicate a predictive biomarker [16]. There is a need to produce uniformity in study results through standardized microbial profiling, e.g., by 16S rRNA sequencing or metagenomics. Longitudinal studies also play a key role in identifying the causality of whether the change in microbes occurs before or after the psychiatric symptoms.

**Table 3: Microbial Profiles in Depression and Anxiety**

Disorder	Depleted Taxa	Increased Taxa	Functional Impact
MDD	<i>Bifidobacterium</i> , <i>Faecalibacterium</i>	<i>Clostridium</i> , <i>Escherichia</i>	Reduced SCFAs, increased LPS, elevated IL-6, lower BDNF
GAD	<i>Lactobacillus</i> , <i>Roseburia</i>	<i>Enterobacter</i>	Lower BDNF, increased cortisol, elevated TNF- $\alpha$

Typical microbe-related changes as well as their functional roles in MDD and GAD, along with their possible diagnosis and therapy biomarkers.

## Microbiome-Targeted interventions

The microbiome-based interventions will be developed to change the microbe and relieve psychiatric symptoms, hence providing, new alternatives of handling depression and anxiety. We discuss the main factors, such as efficacy, mechanisms, limitations, and clinical evidence of probiotics, prebiotics, dietary interventions, and FMT, as shown below.

### Probiotics

Studies investigating the use of probiotics, live microorganisms with health effects, have demonstrated possible potential in relieving symptoms of mood disorders. A 2023 RCT carried out on 70 patients with MDD demonstrated that 8 weeks of treatment with Lactobacillus rhamnosus and Bifidobacterium longum supplements resulted in a 27 percent decrease in HDRS scores compared to baseline, in addition to marked increases in abundance of Bifidobacteria [16]. In a study conducted in the year 2024, STAI scores of 50 healthy volunteers during stress were decreased by 22 percent following 4 weeks of Bifidobacterium supplementation [23]. The proposed mechanisms are improved SCFA production, less neuroinflammation, and more GABA synthesis [6]. There is, however, a variability in efficacy caused by strain-specific effects and inter-individual disparity in basal microbiota. Another meta-analysis of 15 RCTs published in 2024 could not find a significant effect size (Hedges  $g = 0.42$ ) in probiotics and depression but pointed to the heterogeneity between results caused by strain heterogeneity, dose heterogeneity, or patient

heterogeneity [5]. The choice of strains, standardization of dosage, and design of intervention based on microbiota profile are key steps towards harnessing the greatest therapeutic effect.

## **Prebiotics**

Prebiotics stimulate the growth of good bacteria by using non-digestible fibers that include galacto-oligosaccharide (GOS) and fructo-oligosaccharide (FOS). In a 2023 RCT was conducted in 65 healthy females were given GOS for 12 weeks, showing a 20% decrease in STAI scores, which correlated with higher abundances of Bifidobacteria and lower concentrations of cortisol [8]. Prebiotics help to regulate the HPA axis and stimulate the production of SCFA, which leads to anxiolytic effects of prebiotics [11]. These are gastrointestinal tolerability with a high dose, 10-15 percent having bloating or discomfort, and there is no good information on its long-term effectiveness [24]. Studies on the best forms of prebiotics and the best dose and routes of delivery should be carried out to enhance outcomes and patient adherence.

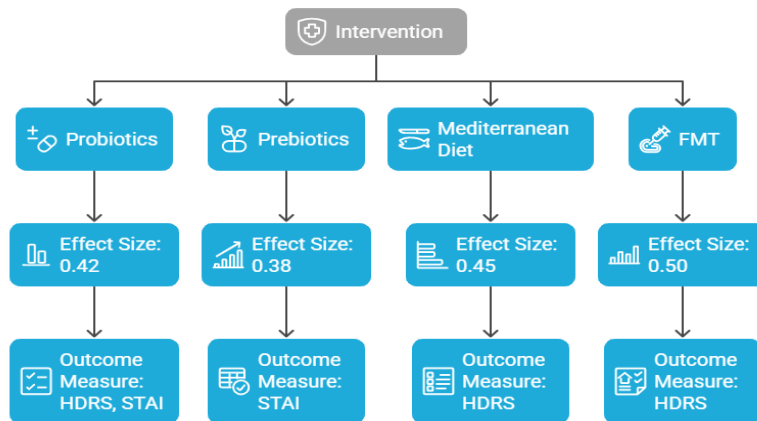
## **Dietary interventions**

The microbiome is greatly affected by dietary patterns, with a tremendous impact on mental health. The Mediterranean diet is a fiber-rich, polyphenol- and omega-3 fatty acids diet that induces microbial diversity and limits inflammation. The SMILES 2023 trial concluded that, after 12 weeks of compliance with the Mediterranean diet, the symptoms of the depressive disorder decreased by 30 percent among 67 patients with MDD, with a corresponding increase in Faecalibacterium and a decrease in IL-6 [18]. Fiber-rich foods such as those in plants, fruits, vegetables, and legumes, containing plant-based diets, benefit the abundance of Lactobacillus, and decrease the anxiety scores by 18 percent over 6 months in a study of 50 people in 2024 [12]. Diet compliance is a difficult aspect, especially in communities with low health literacy or even low food accessibility, and thus necessitates the use of public health approaches such as educational programs and subsidies to combat issues of scalability and availability [13].

## **Fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT)**

An exciting intervention for mood disorders is FMT (fecal microbiota transfer), where the fecal microbiota of a healthy donor is transferred into a recipient. In a 30-patient pilot study of MDD being treated with FMT in 2024, 38% of symptoms were reduced 4 weeks after FMT, attributed to higher levels of Bifidobacteria and the SCFA [19]. The future of FMT is its ability to restore an overall microbial balance by fixing taxonomic and functional dysbiosis. Nevertheless, the risks associated with them are possible infection (e.g., the spreading of drug-resistant *E. coli*) and unstable quality of the donor microbiome, which may influence results [22]. RCTs should be of a large scale to determine the safety, efficacy, and protocols to be standardized, such as the rigorous screening process of donors and the mode of administration to mitigate risk.

## Effect Sizes of Microbiome-Targeted Interventions



**Figure 2: Effect Sizes of Microbiome-Targeted Interventions**

The simplified diagram shows with effect sizes of microbiome-based interventions grounded on the latest RCT studies to explain the therapeutic potential of these approaches to depression and anxiety.

### Issues of clinical translation

Developing microbiome therapies has several obstacles, which will need concrete remedies to transform the development of these therapies to succeed in clinical practice and effect.

### Inter-Individual variability

The distribution of microbe composition between people is broad because genetics, diet, lifestyle, and environmental influences complicate interventions [20]. As an example, the efficacy of probiotics is considered to be related to the recipient's baseline microbiota, with a study conducted in 2024 demonstrating that 20 percent of MDD patients with low counts of Bifidobacteria displayed a poor response to probiotics [21]. This may be covered by custom microbiota profiling through metagenomic sequencing, but it is currently too expensive, with a cost of sequencing falling between 100 and 150 dollars and 300 to 500 dollars per sample [17]. Generation of cost-effective profiling techniques, e.g., targeted gene panels, is needed to scale personalized therapies.

### Restricted clinical experiments

The research is restrained by small-scale research; a review published in 2024 reported that 15% of the microbiome-mental health research featured more than 100 participants and defined this limitation [25]. When the sample size is small, the chance that it can support a study when subjected to statistical analysis is low, and when there is a lack of diversity in the study populations, the possibility that the research can be generalised to include poorly represented communities, e.g. low-income or minority population cannot be studied. To prove efficacy and to set clinical recommendations, well-powered RCTs with diverse populations are necessary on a large scale to ensure equitable results across demographic subsets.

### Regulatory gaps

Probiotics and prebiotics are commonly categorized as dietary supplements and are not

subjected to strict regulatory assessment or product purity and dismal activity that are used on drugs [24]. Safety concerns, as the risk of pathogens transmission, make FMT undergo even tighter surveillance, as it has been demonstrated in the FMT-related case of drug-resistant *E. coli* bacteremia in 2019 [22]. To guarantee safety, it is crucial to develop unified standards of regulation, such as the quality criteria of probiotics and donor selection strategies in the case of FMT, which would enable the shift to clinical application.

## Mechanistic uncertainty

Although the mechanisms of SCFA formation, vagal messages, and immune modulation are well-known, it is still not clear how they contribute to the outcome of mental health [1]. As an example, it is unclear whether the production of SCFA or neurotransmitters changes would be more important in reducing the burden of depression; it is difficult to develop specific therapies. Such relationships can be explained with advanced omics technologies like metabolomics and transcriptomics, but those methods are expensive and cumbersome to use on a large scale. Mechanistic-specific research is essential to shed more light on such pathways and help plan interventions most effectively.

## Safety concerns

Microbiome interventions have very few long-term safety data. Probiotics and prebiotics have the potential to induce gastrointestinal feelings of discomfort in 10-15% of patients, especially when the doses are high, whereas FMT is associated with risks of infections and the growth of microbes, especially in those who have a compromised immune system [22]. A 2024 review noted the necessity to conduct longitudinal safety studies that would evaluate such risks as microbial resistance or dysbiosis recurrence [25]. Sound safety trials play an important role in creating long-term safety profiles and safety confidence in the minds of people.

## Ethical and access problems

The ethical factors are informed consent about FMT, especially on the risks involved, and fair availability of microbiome treatments. Interventions of high cost, such as metagenomic profiling/ FMT, can even be out of reach in low-resource settings that further cause a health disparity. To deal with such disparities, public health measures are necessary, including healthy food subsidies or probiotic products, which could be easily afforded by people.

**Table 4: Challenges in Clinical Translation**

Challenge	Description	Proposed Solution
Variability	Inter-individual microbial differences	Personalized profiling with cost-effective methods
Limited Trials	Small-scale studies lack diversity	Large-scale RCTs with diverse populations
Regulatory Gaps	Lack of standardization for probiotics, FMT	Develop standardized guidelines
Mechanistic Uncertainty	Unclear pathway contributions	Targeted mechanistic studies using omics
Safety Concerns	Long-term risks unclear	Robust longitudinal safety trials

Tokens: An ode to the microbiome Translation: Barriers to translational research on the microbiome exist, and solutions exist.

## **Future directions**

The more opportunities that are available to continue the evolution of microbiome-based mental health care, the further it is necessary to develop it, covering existing limitations and discussing new strategies to improve the quality of treatments and guarantee their availability.

## **Personalized therapies**

Machine learning and metagenomic sequencing can be used to stratify the interventions to make them more effective and to target the microbial profiles of individuals [20]. A pilot study in 2024 indicated that individualized probiotics according to baseline microbiota lowered depressive symptoms by 42 percent in 30 MDD patients, as opposed to 25 percent using ordinary probiotics [21]. To scale these strategies, we need to scale down the cost of sequencing, targeted gene panel projects, or public-private partnerships are good pathways to achieving this. Real-time monitoring of gut health with wearable devices has the potential to make the interventions even more personal by adapting the frequency or type of the probiotic/dietary regimens based on the microbial fluctuations.

## **Large-Scale RCTs**

Effective, large-powered RCTs with heterogeneous populations are required to establish efficacy and establish protocols [25]. The comparison will be enhanced due to the standardization of the measures of outcomes like HDRS and STAI. The generalizability will be attained by including underrepresented populations, which can be the low-income or rural, marginalized or minority populations to curtail health discrepancies. As an example, one study published in 2024 indicated that only 10% of microbiome trials involved non-Western people, which means it is necessary to be more inclusive [25].

## **Mechanistic research**

Subsequent studies (increased focus and emphasis) on the respective roles played by SCFA production, neurotransmitter modulation, vagal signaling, and immune pathways will be used in the development of specific therapy [1]. As an example, the clarification of whether the production of butyrate or GABA may be considered more important in terms of anxiety decline may be used in intervention design. More advanced omics technologies, including metabolomics and transcriptomics, are likely to increase the mechanistic insight, but are so expensive that they will need to be prioritised in terms of funding. These efforts can be sped up through collaborative research networks that combine resources and expertise.

## **Integrative approaches**

An integration of microbiome interventions and standard treatments has the potential to improve the outcomes. In 2023, a study reported an enhanced 17 percent SSRI effect when used concomitantly with SSRIs in MDD patients [7]; their combined indications improved the HDRS standards to the extent of 40 percent, lowering as compared to the sole SSRIs by 25 percent. Those same things may occur with the incorporation of dietary schedules into CBT, thus potentially doubling the effects, taking advantage of both the gut and psychological mechanisms. Standardized protocols of integrative treatment, e.g., combining probiotics and a particular SSRI or dietary intervention, will ensure optimal synergy of treatment and better outcomes in patients.

## Regulatory frameworks

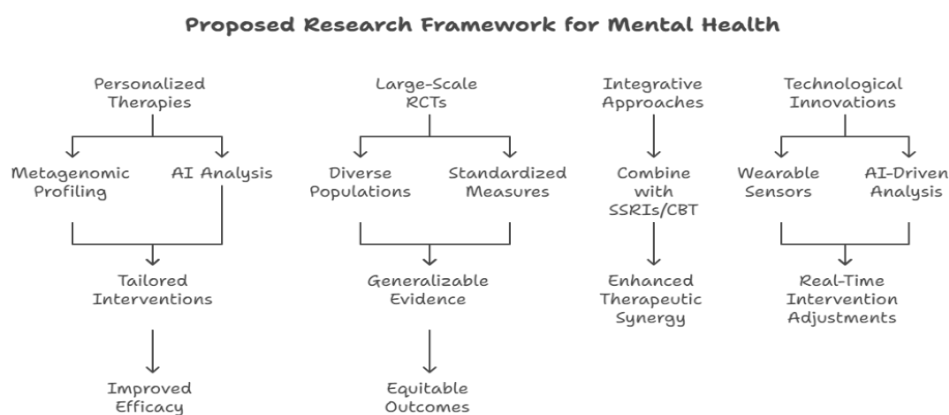
It is important to liaise with standards (regulatory) organizations such as the FDA to design guidelines on probiotics, prebiotics, and FMT [24]. Uniform procedures of production, testing, and administration will preclude safety concerns and be easily accepted in clinical practice. As an example, quality control measures of probiotic strains should be put in place, and the donor should be screened thoroughly during FMT to reduce the risks and improve the acceptability to the people. There will also be international regulation harmonization, facilitating the global application of microbiome therapies.

## Overall strategies in public health

Public health campaigns encouraging healthy eating habits, such as the Mediterranean diet, will enhance the mental health of populations at the population level by enabling the growth of positive microbiota [13]. Access can be improved by offering educational programs, e.g., a community to run workshops on gut-healthy diets, and provision of subsidies to fiber-rich food, elucidating the barriers, especially in underserved communities. As an illustration, a European project in 2024 was used to promote a Mediterranean diet by 15% by subsidizing the purchase of various produce, thereby alleviating the depressive symptoms of low-income communities [12].

## Technological innovations

Interventions may further be personalized by innovative wearable gut health-monitoring devices and artificial intelligence-based microbial analysis [12]. An example would be real-time monitoring of microbiota using non-invasive sensors that would form the basis of real-time probiotic or dietary regimen changes to optimize the effects. In a 2024 study, the AI models were able to estimate the efficacy of probiotics up to 85% using the microbial profiles [21]. Increasing the technologies to be affordable, including the cheap sensors, will be very important for mass application, especially in resource-constrained environments.



**Figure 3: Proposed Research Framework**

Title of the model: All stages of personalization, integrative, and technology-driven research on microbiome-mental health.

## **Conclusion**

The microbiome-mental health axis constitutes a revolutionary aspect in the control of depression and anxiety. Indicative of the role of the gut in mood regulation are the mechanisms of vagal signaling, neuroinflammation, neurotransmitter production, SCFA metabolism, and HPA axis regulation. Dietary intervention, probiotics, prebiotics, and FMT have therapeutic potential, and with increasing clinical data, they become increasingly evident. Nevertheless, there are issues, including interindividual variability, the insufficiency of trials, a regulatory gap, and safety issues to be dealt with. Prospective avenues will be the personalized treatment approach, large-scale RCT, integrative practices, regulating mechanisms, community health methods, and technology. Through the potential of the microbiome, we will have the opportunity to create a new generation of effective treatment regimens to reduce the worldwide burden of mood disorders, restructuring the way mental health care is approached, moving into the precision psychiatry age.

## **Conflict of interest**

The author declares no conflict of interest.

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