

1 **The microbiota-gut-brain axis – pathways to better brain health**
2 **Perspectives on what we know, what we need to investigate and how to put knowledge**
3 **into practice**

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43

44 **Abstract**

45
46 The gut and brain link via various metabolic and signalling pathways, each with the potential to
47 influence mental, brain and cognitive health. Over the past decade, the involvement of the gut
48 microbiota in gut-brain communication has become the focus of increased scientific interest,
49 establishing the microbiota-gut-brain axis as a field of research.

50 There is a growing number of association studies exploring the gut microbiota's possible role in
51 memory, learning, anxiety, stress, neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative disorders.
52 Consequently, attention is now turning to how the microbiota can become the target of nutritional
53 and therapeutic strategies for improved brain health and wellbeing.

54 However, while such strategies that target the gut microbiota to influence brain health and function
55 are currently under development with varying levels of success, still very little is yet known about the
56 triggers and mechanisms underlying the gut microbiota's apparent influence on cognitive or brain
57 function and most evidence comes from pre-clinical studies rather than well controlled clinical
58 trials/investigations. Filling the knowledge gaps requires establishing a standardised methodology for
59 human studies, including strong guidance for specific focus areas of the microbiota-gut-brain axis, the
60 need for more extensive biological sample analyses, and identification of relevant biomarkers. Other
61 urgent requirements are new advanced models for *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies of relevant mechanisms,
62 and a greater focus on omics technologies with supporting bioinformatics resources (training, tools)
63 to efficiently translate study findings, as well as the identification of relevant targets in study
64 populations.

65 The key to building a validated evidence base rely on increasing knowledge sharing and multi-
66 disciplinary collaborations, along with continued public-private funding support. This will allow
67 microbiota-gut-brain axis research to move to its next phase so we can identify realistic opportunities
68 to modulate the microbiota for better brain health.

69
70 **Keywords:** microbiome, cognitive performance, nutrition, inflammation, ageing, mental health

71

72 **1. Introduction: A field of growing scientific interest**
73 **The microbiota-gut-brain axis and the potential to support cognition and brain**
74 **health**

75 Does the gut hold the key to brain development and health? Through decades of research, scientists
76 have established the strong connection between the gut and brain, modulated by neurons,
77 neurotransmitters, hormones, and immune mediators (for details, we kindly direct readers towards
78 extensive reviews [1-3]. More recently, focus has been extended to the role of the gut microbiota
79 (referring to the trillions of microorganisms and viruses residing in the gut) [2, 4-6], creating
80 considerable excitement with findings that suggest specific intestinal microorganisms (the greatest
81 amount of information comes from studies of bacteria) may be associated with memory [7], learning
82 [7], stress [8], and mood [6, 9, 10] – and even neurodevelopmental [11, 12] and neurodegenerative
83 disorders [2].

84 Today, the so-called microbiota-gut-brain axis is an area of multidisciplinary research that has
85 captured international attention. Scientists specialised in neurology, endocrinology, immunology,
86 microbiology, and bioinformatics have all found a niche worthy of exploration. Interest is such that
87 international journals publish as many as 30 new studies a day related to this field.

88 While there is now considerable evidence that the microbiota-gut-brain axis plays an important role
89 in mental and cognitive health, human clinical studies have as yet provided few clear answers to one
90 burning question. How?

91 How does the gut microbiota influence brain development [13] and function [14]? Are brain disorders
92 potentially shaped by the gut microbiota [15]? What role does diet play and what is its scope in
93 influencing the microbiota-gut-brain axis [16, 17]? How do dietary supplements exert their apparent
94 effect(s) on stress, mood, and cognition [18, 19]? What physiological mechanisms are at play [20]?
95 And do alterations in microbiota-gut-brain interactions through life reflect the cause or symptom of
96 an underlying brain condition [21]? Answering these questions is critical to harnessing the intestinal
97 microbiota as a tool for ameliorating or preventing brain disorders, determining potential links with
98 metabolic and cardiovascular diseases and for developing nutritional and therapeutic strategies that
99 support and strengthen the brain health of the individual.

100 This perspective paper offers a short introduction to the microbiota-gut-brain axis, the knowledge and
101 research so far and the considerable remaining gaps in the understanding of causes and mechanisms.
102 Finally, the paper proposes how future meaningful progress can be made, which should benefit
103 researchers active in fundamental and clinical gut-brain research from a multi or transdisciplinary
104 perspective (including doctors and possibly patients/care takers), professionals in the mental health
105 care, as well as research funders, food industry and investors. Once the mechanisms of gut microbiota
106 modulation of brain health are unravelled, the potential for improving human quality of life and
107 wellbeing is vast.

108

109 **2. The two-way street between gut and brain**
110 **An introduction to microbiota-gut-brain communication, research, and potential**
111 **therapeutic strategies**

112 A 'gut feeling' or the sensation of 'butterflies' in the stomach are common illustrations of how a
113 response in the brain is felt in the gut. Beyond that, microbiota-gut-brain interactions are much more
114 complex to describe – as is abundantly clear from the intense research efforts to document them and
115 propose links with brain development, physiology, function, and health.

116 As a highly complex community, the gut microbiota has a myriad of functions including education of
117 the immune system, protection against pathogens, energy homeostasis and metabolite production. It
118 is acknowledged that diet is a key determinant of composition of gut microbial populations and that
119 it impacts on gut transit time and gut environmental conditions, and critically determines the supply
120 of substrates for microbial growth [22, 23]. The gut microbiota has the potential to be both a mediator
121 of the effect of diet and an effect modifier of the metabolic response to diet. In the case of the
122 microbiota acting as a mediator, the dietary intervention acts directly on the microbiota, modifying
123 the microbiota's composition and function. In contrast, as an effect modifier, the effect of diet on
124 metabolism depends on the microbiota but the effect is not due to diet-induced changes in the
125 microbiota. Thus, the gut microbiota is modifiable by diet and specific dietary components, and it
126 plays a key role in shaping the composition and activity of the microbiota from birth, which impacts
127 lifelong health [24-27].

128 In relation to brain development and brain health, up until now, many of the studies examining the
129 microbiota-gut-brain axis have been performed in animal models; for example, germ-free, antibiotic-
130 treated, genetically modified, or humanised mice, and behavioural models (for further details, we
131 kindly direct readers towards extensive reviews [1]. Far fewer clinical studies have investigated
132 whether the interactions observed in rodents are also observed in humans [6]. Due to a heavy reliance
133 on association studies, there is still little evidence of the triggers and mechanisms linking the
134 microbiota to gut-brain communication.

135 The extensive reviews by Cryan *et al.* (2019) [1] and Margolis *et al.* (2021) [6] are recommended
136 reading for a detailed overview for the development of the microbiota-gut-brain axis, the pathways
137 of communication involved, the modulating factors and the potential health implications [1, 6]. As the
138 primary objective of this paper is to highlight the means for taking research to the next level of
139 discovery, current microbiota-gut-brain axis knowledge is only briefly summarised here.

140

141 **Pathways for communication**

142 At a fundamental level, the gut-brain axis is a bi-directional communication pathway composed of the
143 central, enteric, and autonomic nervous systems and the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis.
144 The microbiota-gut-brain axis includes the gut microbes – comprising bacteria, viruses, fungi, and
145 archaea – and their metabolites and by-products as factors in this bi-directional communication.

146 The vagus nerve, the immune and neuroendocrine systems, [the neurotransmitters and metabolites](#)
147 [along with](#) the gut microbiota are currently the key pathways of interest in microbiota-gut-brain axis
148 research [28].

149

150 ***The vagus nerve – the physical connection between brain and gut***

151 The tenth cranial nerve that extends from the brain to the abdomen is responsible for regulating
152 internal organ functions such as digestion, heart rate and respiratory rate. Comprising efferent and
153 afferent neurons, the vagus nerve carries motor signals between the brain and organs, including the
154 intestinal cells, which are also subject to the influence of the gut microbiota. The brain is, in this way,
155 able to 'sense' the environment in the gut [29, 30].

157 ***The immune system – firm roots in the gastrointestinal tract***

158 Evidence of the immune system's crucial role in gut-brain signalling is growing [31]. Today, it is widely
159 recognised that most neurological conditions, including autism spectrum disorders (ASD), epilepsy,
160 Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease and cerebrovascular diseases, have low-grade systemic
161 inflammatory components [32]. This low-grade inflammation is indicative of a malfunctioning immune
162 response and dysbiotic microbiota.

163 Studies of germ-free mice and mice treated with broad-spectrum antibiotics have documented the
164 gut microbiota's involvement in intestinal immunity related to bacterial infections and inflammation
165 [33]. Here, the microbiota was seen to regulate both innate and adaptive immunity – locally in the
166 gastrointestinal (GI) tract and throughout the body. Scientists have similarly used such animal models
167 to investigate the immunological effects of specific microbes in the gut microbiota.
168 From a brain health perspective, microbiota-immune interactions are of interest due to the systemic
169 low-grade inflammation often seen in neurodegenerative, neuropsychiatric, and metabolic disorders.
170 For example, there have been extensive studies of the causal role of the microbiota in inflammatory
171 bowel disease (IBD), which is associated with an increased susceptibility to Parkinson's disease [33,
172 34].

174 ***The neuroendocrine system – gut hormones and the regulation of wellbeing***

176 Recent studies suggest that gut hormones are involved in the physiological processes that lead to
177 disorders such as anxiety and depression – with indications that mood disorders and obesity often co-
178 exist [35]. Scientists focus increasingly on the ability of the microbiota to modulate gut hormones and,
179 through that, their potential to regulate mood.

180 Increasing evidence supports the concept of bidirectional communication between the
181 neuroendocrine system and gut microbiota. Disturbances in both systems have been associated with
182 disorders such as depression and irritable bowel syndrome [36]. Findings further indicate that the gut
183 microbiota can activate the HPA axis [36] – one of the body's major neuroendocrine systems that
184 controls responses to stress and is involved in regulating, for example, mood and emotions [37] and
185 the immune system [38].
186 A growing body of research suggests that a number of neurotransmitters function as hormones and
187 vice versa. Dopamine and serotonin, for example, are known to have hormonal properties [39].
188 Although these hormone-like neurotransmitters are not solely produced in the gut, the gut microbiota
189 is thought to play a role in their modulation.

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191 **Neurotransmitters and metabolites**
192 Evidence from animal studies suggests the host's physiology is affected in various ways by the ability
193 of gut microorganisms to produce and metabolise a range of neurotransmitters, although this remains
194 to be documented in human subjects [13]. In the context of the microbiota-gut-brain axis, noteworthy
195 neurotransmitters include dopamine, serotonin, noradrenaline, and gamma-aminobutyric acid
196 (GABA). The neuroactive amino acids tyramine and tryptophan, short-chain fatty acids (SCFA), and bile
197 acids are other molecules of interest.

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198 **GABA**
199 GABA is believed to have a role in behaviour, cognition and the body's response to stress, anxiety and
200 fear [40], while low GABA levels are associated with psychiatric illnesses, including schizophrenia,
201 autism and depression [41]. Although the regulatory importance of the microbiota is not yet fully
202 mapped, studies of germ-free animals suggest that the microbiota influences circulating GABA levels
203 [42]. GABA is also produced by some *Lactobacilli* [43] and specific strains of *Bifidobacterium* [13, 44].

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204 **Serotonin and tryptophan**
205 Much research has linked the microbiota with serotonin regulation in the gut [45, 46]. Serotonin is
206 involved in mood, cognition, sleep, and appetite control [46]. Today, selective serotonin reuptake
207 inhibitors (SSRI) are commonly prescribed treatments for depression as they increase the level of
208 available serotonin in the brain [47]. Studies also focus on the amino acid tryptophan as the sole
209 precursor of serotonin. It has been proposed that gut microbiota may influence tryptophan uptake
210 and, in that way, serotonin synthesis [47].

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211 In addition, 90% of tryptophan in the intestinal tract is metabolised along the kynurenine pathway. Of
212 particular interest are the neuroactive metabolites quinolinic and kynurenic acids that affect the
213 enteric nervous system (ENS) and central nervous system (CNS) (for review see [48, 49]).

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214 **Dopamine**
215 Dopamine is a major neurotransmitter associated with the brain's reward system and is a precursor
216 for epinephrine, also known as adrenaline, and norepinephrine, which contributes to arousal and
217 alertness as well as behaviour and cognition [13]. Disorders associated with dopamine deficiency
218 include addiction, schizophrenia, and Parkinson's disease. Research suggests that certain bacteria
219 produce [13] or metabolise [50] dopamine.

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220 **SCFAs**
221 The SCFAs propionate, butyrate and acetate are metabolites mainly produced and regulated by the
222 bacterial fermentation of complex plant-based polysaccharides in the gut [51]. In recent years,
223 research has explored the potential role of SCFAs in gut-brain communication with and across the
224 blood-brain barrier (BBB) [52] and in supporting BBB integrity – a progressively leaky BBB being seen
225 in Alzheimer's disease [15].

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226 Studies have led to a wide range of findings that connect butyrate, for example, with memory,
227 cognition, mood, and metabolism [53]. Acetate has been associated with appetite regulation [54], and
228 propionate may be involved in protecting against type 2 diabetes and obesity and reducing stress
229 behaviours [55].

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231 **Gut microbiota – the omnipresent factor, modulated by diet**

232 Research has repeatedly revealed new aspects of the microbiota's contribution to gut-brain crosstalk,
233 beginning with maternal nutrition [56] and the colonisation of the infant gut at birth [15]. It is also
234 known that age, gender, genetics, environmental factors, geography, disease, exercise, fasting [57]
235 and diet influence the microbiota's composition – diet and nutritional status being among the most
236 influential factors [28, 58]. Recent reviews give a comprehensive overview of the role of diet in shaping
237 the gut microbiota [59-61]. The gut microbiota itself can influence dietary preferences via the
238 mesocorticolimbic system, responsible for the hedonic response to food intake [62].

239 Greater knowledge of the gut microbiota represents exciting possibilities to track changes in
240 microbiota composition, activity, and behaviour in relation to the development and progression of
241 brain disorders. Another promising avenue of exploration is the modulation of the gut microbiota by
242 specific dietary components such as probiotics, prebiotics, postbiotics, synbiotics, and parabiotics.
243 Such work could lead to novel therapeutic strategies, fuelled by so-called microbiotic medicinal
244 products (MMPs) [63].
245

246 **The potential for nutritional and therapeutic strategies**

247 Research has established many links, associations, and hypotheses about the lifelong influence of the
248 gut microbiota on brain health. Underlining this critical role, one review ranks the gut microbiota as
249 the fourth key factor in early-life programming of brain health and disease, alongside prenatal and
250 postnatal environment, and host genetics [64]. The scientific challenge is to identify opportunities to
251 alter and fine-tune the microbiota and, through that, enhance human health and wellbeing.

252 To this end, animal and human clinical trials have explored dietary supplementation with pro-, pre-,
253 syn- and postbiotics, omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids [64] and phytochemicals, such as
254 polyphenols, which may act as prebiotics [65]. High-fibre diets - promoting SCFA production by the
255 gut microbiota - are a promising intervention to overcome maternal-obesity-induced impairment of
256 cognitive and social functions [66]. Faecal microbiota transplants are another potential therapeutic
257 opportunity, having already been shown to influence hedonic food intake in mice [62]. Here,
258 important regulatory differences apply whether developing strategies for clinical therapies or foods.

259 *Regulation of stress, mood, and anxiety*

260 Research has associated the gut microbiota with a range of stress- and mood-related conditions [8].
261 In relation to stress, several clinical studies have linked probiotic and prebiotic supplementation with
262 a positive outcome [67-69]. The majority of mood and anxiety studies, on the other hand, have relied
263 on preclinical animal models [8]. Healthy mice that received a probiotic formulation with *Lactobacillus*
264 *ramnosus*, for example, were seen to perform best in tests designed to provoke anxiety, depression,
265 and stress [70].

266 Clinical trials have often produced conflicting results. While some have observed a significant
267 reduction in stress and anxiety following probiotic intervention with *Lactobacillus (sensu lato)* and
268 *Bifidobacterium* strains [58], others have not [70]. Reviews of clinical trials found probiotics
269 had a limited effect on psychological outcomes – although this could be partly explained by an
270 incomplete evidence base along with a large heterogeneity in the population, cognitive tests, and
271 interventions. [70]. Another study reported a positive probiotic effect on mood and anxiety in patients
272 with IBD [71].

273 *Implications for autism spectrum disorder*

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274 The microbiota has been demonstrated to have a clear role in autism spectrum disorder (ASD). One
275 study has observed how the transplantation of microbes from a human diagnosed with ASD induced
276 -like behaviour in mice [72]. Conversely, several clinical studies of ASD have found that microbiota
277 modulation through antibiotic, prebiotic and probiotic and faecal transplantation treatments can
278 improve social behaviour [73-76]. Researchers have further reported a reduction in anxiety behaviour,
279 hyperactivity and defiance behaviours [73].

280 Other findings show that children diagnosed with ASD are four times more likely to have GI symptoms,
281 including inflammation and abdominal pain [73] and that faecal transplantation may have long-term
282 beneficial effects on intestinal and behavioural symptoms [76].

283 *Learning and memory*

284 A number of studies have explored the relationship between the gut microbiota and the development
285 of learning and memory systems in childhood [77]. This has led to a growing appreciation that sensitive
286 periods of development occur across the microbiota-gut-brain axis.

287 From animal studies, there is increasing evidence that changes in the gut microbiota alter
288 performance in relation to visual-spatial learning and memory tasks [78]. Although there are still few
289 human data, one study has associated microbial diversity with cognitive functioning in infancy [77].

290 A new approach to cognitive development research is required, including the microbiota-gut-brain
291 axis as a peripheral force among the complex biological systems that act on behaviour. By improving
292 understanding, this may lay the foundation for innovative therapies for learning and memory
293 disorders [77].

294 *Cognitive performance and age-related disorders*

295 Many scientists now believe in the close relationship between microbial diversity and healthy ageing.
296 Studies in mice have shown that faecal microbiota transplantation can correct age-related defects in
297 immune function [33] – and that a similar transplant from aged to young mice has a detrimental
298 impact on key functions of the CNS [79, 80]. These and other findings highlight the importance of the
299 microbiota-gut-brain axis during ageing and raise the possibility that a ‘young’ microbiota may
300 maintain or improve cognitive functions in life’s later years [81, 82].

301 Neurological research suggests the microbiota also play a role in neurodegenerative diseases [83].
302 This supports the idea that an ageing gut microbiota could be linked to immune and neuronal
303 dysfunction in Parkinson’s and Alzheimer’s disease. Indeed, studies of faecal microbiota transplants
304 in transgenic mouse models point to a causal relationship between intestinal microbiota, protein
305 aggregation and cognitive problems [84-86]. More studies are necessary to confirm this.

306 **Knowledge with potential**

307 Whether changes in the microbiota are key to detecting and understanding the physiological
308 processes that lead to brain disorders is still unknown. But the possibilities are undeniable. Research
309 has uncovered positive indications that therapeutic interventions may have a beneficial impact, for
310 example in neurodevelopmental disorders, such as ASD, and age-related neurodegenerative disorders
311 [15]. And there is every reason to be optimistic about the potential to reduce stress and anxiety. The
312 task now is to overcome the barriers to further discovery.

313

314 **3. Shortfalls and challenges – the bottlenecks to progress**

315 **The need for more knowledge and comprehensive study designs**

316 Research in the microbiota-gut-brain axis has reached a crossroad. The gut microbiota's omnipresence
317 and overlapping influence on physiological systems has made it progressively challenging to discuss
318 individual aspects of the microbiota-gut-brain axis in isolation – underlining the need for a
319 multidisciplinary, multi-system research approach to uncover the mechanisms and opportunities for
320 improving human quality of life and wellbeing, as is being done for metabolic diseases [87, 88].
321 Multidomain interventions combining diet, with other health-promoting lifestyle approaches, have
322 been demonstrated to be effective strategies as they target endogenous and environmental factors
323 (such as genetics, age, diet, and lifestyle) that modulate the gut microbiota activity and composition,
324 underlining enormous variability between individuals [89, 90].

325 Consequently, while many of the tools and methodologies in use until now have significantly advanced
326 our knowledge and understanding of the role of the microbiota-gut-brain axis in brain health and
327 disease, the large majority of studies to date have been limited to animal models and have mostly
328 been observational in a clinical setting. There are still many unanswered questions within the field
329 which require more clarity in order to drive further meaningful progress towards microbiota-targeted
330 strategies for improving brain health. Some of the gaps in current knowledge are fundamental and
331 must be bridged by skilful scientific investigation.

332 **Understanding changes and mechanisms**

333 The characteristics and function of a 'healthy' gut microbiota are still unknown. Although studies have
334 frequently documented a reduction in functional diversity and compositional alterations in relation to
335 a variety of disorders [61], there is as yet little understanding of how the microbiota changes over
336 time and may reflect the impending onset of disease. Recent data from more than 9,000 adults of
337 different ages show that, as individuals age, the gut microbiome becomes increasingly unique,
338 increasingly different from others, starting in mid-to-late adulthood. A better understanding of this
339 phenomenon may open the way to an improved understanding of what is a 'healthy ageing microbiota
340 pattern' [91]. Similarly, there is lack of knowledge about disease biomarkers and whether they may
341 be reversed through treatment or dietary interventions. Several systematic reviews and meta-
342 analyses, albeit with different search criteria, have investigated the effects of probiotics, prebiotics,
343 and even fermented foods on symptoms of depression, anxiety, and mood, as well as on cognition.
344 Interestingly, while the majority of studies did conclude there were some positive effects of dietary
345 interventions or supplements on depression and anxiety symptoms [18, 19, 70, 92], others concluded
346 that the data to support the role of dietary interventions on mood and cognitive function were
347 insignificant [93, 94]. In addition, some studies reported that targeting the gut microbiome to alleviate
348 symptoms of anxiety and depression were more pronounced in clinical patient populations compared
349 with healthy adults [95]. Finally, most studies did suggest that additional double-blind, randomized,
350 placebo controlled clinical trials in clinical populations are warranted to further assess efficacy.

351 Numerous association and correlation studies have identified links between the gut microbiota and
352 the CNS [96-99]. Further targeted studies are required to identify and confirm the mechanisms of
353 action in humans. Complex gaps in existing knowledge include:

- 354 • The immunological effects of specific microbes in the human gut microbiota and their role in
355 neurodevelopmental, neurodegenerative, and neuropsychiatric disorders.
- 356 • A precise mapping of microbiota-regulated neurotransmitters in human subjects, the
357 hormonal properties of these neurotransmitters and the mechanisms by which they activate
358 the HPA axis.
- 359 • How microbial by-products, such as SCFAs, branched-chain fatty acids, methylamines, and
360 peptides, influence brain function in tandem with immunological and neurological signalling
361 molecules.
- 362 • The contribution of specific microbes to brain development during early life.

363 **Few and varied clinical studies**

364 Intervention studies in humans and preclinical studies in humanised mice and rats are a fundamental
365 requirement. In the early days of this research field, most research was limited to *in vitro* or preclinical
366 studies, and there was a high prevalence of review articles and meta-analyses of the microbiota
367 compositions [96, 100-103]. Since, clinical intervention studies have been performed more frequently
368 although often characterised by a low number of human subjects and short timeframes [94, 104].

369 As typical in nutritional intervention studies, the non-standardised approaches often used means that
370 the authors of review articles frequently struggle to find suitable clinical studies for meaningful
371 comparisons. Wide variations in test subjects, cognitive and mental test designs, intervention
372 formulations and the filtering of data stand in the way of general conclusions – with many studies
373 being low on statistical power [94].

374 Overall, clinical studies are held back by a lack of disease- and microbiota-specific biomarkers, absence
375 of clinically relevant behavioural phenotypes and poor tools for cohort stratification. Still, over the last
376 year a number of meta-analyses have appeared which show a moderately positive evaluation on the
377 use of psychobiotic [104] interventions for anxiety [105], schizophrenia [106] or cognitive functions
378 [107, 108], pointing to the diversity and complexity of - and the numerous confounding factors that
379 may affect - the gut microbiota [21, 109].

380 Furthermore, when trying to establish cause and consequence relation, it might also be important to
381 better understand the effects of traditional drugs, including psychotropics, on the microbiota and the
382 potential health consequences [110].

383 A general tendency to conduct preclinical and clinical studies within the silos of individual disciplines
384 also compounds these limitations and, at the same time, rules out the opportunities created by
385 multidisciplinary collaboration. The time has clearly come for a new approach.

386

387 **4. Beyond hypotheses to validated nutritional and therapeutic strategies**

388 **Practical proposals for moving microbiota-gut-brain axis research forward**

389 As the microbiota-gut-brain axis continues to attract scientific attention, a whole-system, multi-
390 disciplinary approach is necessary to progress from hypotheses to validated therapeutic strategies of
391 benefit to brain health. Scientists have successfully documented countless associations between the
392 gut microbiota and brain disorders. However, correlation does not equal causation. The next step is
393 to understand the mechanisms behind those associations and how they are influenced by dietary

394 habits, lifestyle, and genetic risk factors. This will require new methods, skills, and collaborations. An
395 overview of the gaps and needs is represented in *Figure 1*.

396 **Fig. 1** Key gaps and needs in microbiota-gut-brain axis research on the journey towards nutritional and
397 therapeutic strategies for improved quality of life.

398 *Insert figure 1 here*

399 **More targeted, gold standard clinical studies with reproducible results**

400 Experiences so far highlight the need to rethink and redesign the approach to clinical studies in a way
401 that facilitates the integration of standardised methods and models from all fields of study related to
402 the microbiota-gut-brain axis. The emphasis on 'standardised' is important. In this context, human
403 clinical studies should be robust, employing a design that includes randomisation, controlled with a
404 suitable placebo, and conducted at least double-blind. Clinical trials should always be conducted in
405 accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki [111] and the guidelines for Good Clinical Practice (GCP)
406 [112] to ensure ethical and scientific quality requirements are followed throughout the study design,
407 conduct, recording of information, and reporting of data. Compliance with this standard ensures not
408 only that the rights, safety, and wellbeing of trial subjects are protected, but also that the data is
409 credible. Finally, only by conducting repeated studies that provide comparable and reproducible
410 results will it be possible to build a critical mass of scientific evidence to drive real progress.

411 A new research framework should include strong guidance on specific areas of the microbiota-gut-
412 brain axis to investigate, which biological samples to collect and the biomarkers or surrogate
413 biomarkers to measure – with regard to sampling and analysis, the NIH Human Microbiome Project
414 website already provides some guidance [113]. Standard operating procedures should also be
415 established for the collection, transport, storage, and analysis of biological samples and for the
416 sequencing and filtering of data, reducing the variables that can influence study outcomes. Equally
417 important are the identification and stratification of relevant cohorts to support cross-study
418 comparisons and consolidate research findings (e.g. The Quadram Institute website released for best
419 practice in microbiome research [114]).

420 Robust human studies must be conducted in real-life settings using calibrated dietary habit
421 assessments and validated test methods to investigate potential windows for nutritional strategies
422 [115]. At present, studies of dietary habits rely on subjects to provide data by filling out food frequency
423 questionnaires, 24h recalls, food checklists, diet histories, and food diaries which require large and
424 complicated data analyses and experienced dietitians or nutritionists to accurately extrapolate the
425 data [116]. To improve the quality of these data, there is a need to replace self-reporting with new
426 and emerging objective tools. The emergence of food intake biomarkers holds great promise for
427 nutrition research in this regard [117, 118]. Another possibility is to recruit subjects who share the
428 same household or live in a care home, for example, where they tend to eat the same foods. One
429 recent study by Valles-Colomer *et al.* assessed gut microbiota compositional covariation with quality-
430 of-life indicators and depression in the Belgian Flemish Gut Flora Project population cohort [119].
431 While *Faecalibacterium* and *Coprococcus* were consistently associated with higher quality of life
432 indicators, both of these genera were depleted in depression and inflammatory bowel disease.
433 Interestingly, *Coprococcus* and *Dialister* decreased with depression. These results were validated in
434 other large microbiome cohorts. To investigate the link between microbial neuroactive capacity with
435 quality of life and depression, the authors constructed the first catalogue of gut microbiota

436 neuroactive potential using a module-based analytical framework. Specific covariations were
437 discovered between pathways of neurotransmission, mental quality of life and specific genera such as
438 *Coprococcus* [119]. New investigative tools such as the gut–brain module analysis of faecal
439 metagenomes described by Valles-Colomer *et al.* could provide greater insight into the associations
440 between pathways regulating brain health and function, the gut microbiota, and symptoms of mood
441 disorders commonly found across different population cohorts. Clinical studies of the role of
442 microbiota in disease must account for the natural variations in microbiota composition from one
443 individual to the next. Age, sex, body mass index, medications, and lifestyle are among the host
444 variables that confound microbiota analyses and limit the capacity to draw valid conclusions. For
445 example, research has shown that patients with depression have an altered gut microbial profile
446 compared with healthy adults [119-122]. However, each study describes unique microbial changes in
447 these patients due to huge inter-individual microbial differences in the general human population.
448 This variability between studies makes it extremely difficult to interpret whether the microbial
449 changes described are a hallmark of depression or whether they are unique to one individual study.
450 Indeed, this is an important limitation to consider before drawing conclusions on the role of the gut
451 microbiome in mental disorders such as depression. Furthermore, investigations into the gut microbial
452 profile of patients with depression do not indicate whether these changes are causal to disease state
453 or consequential of disease. In studies of personalised interventions based on intestinal microbiota
454 composition and activity, an unhealthy diet, for example, may negate the potential beneficial effects
455 of a dietary supplement. Nutrition, physical activity, psychological and physical stress, sleep
456 restrictions, socioeconomic status, antibiotics use, exposure to pets, noise, and temperature have
457 been all reported to associate with changes in human microbiota [123-125]. It is, therefore, essential
458 that human microbiota studies capture such host variables to secure reproducible evidence about the
459 relationship between specific gut microorganisms and biomarkers of disease [126]. The appropriate
460 timing of an intervention is an additional factor to account for, considering that the impact of lifestyle
461 and environments may vary along the lifespan. Intervening during sensitive time-windows, e.g., when
462 microbiota and brain are still developing and their plasticity is high, may increase the likelihood of a
463 persistent effect. Studies in the first 1,000 days of life indicate that exposure to antibiotics [127, 128],
464 pets, siblings [129], specific maternal intakes (sweeteners [130]) and environmental toxicants [131]
465 affecting the infant’s microbiota are likely targets. On the other hand, since diet and lifestyle are such
466 strong drivers of microbiota composition and activity [132], this opens the possibility to help patients
467 to take their own responsibility to improve their brain health. Indeed, there is accumulating evidence
468 in nutritional psychiatry regarding the importance of diet for realising mental health [133], however,
469 the causational role of the gut microbiome needs to be established. This challenge cannot be tackled
470 by observational studies and interventional studies examining the effects of dietary and/or lifestyle
471 changes as well as interventions with nutraceuticals. It needs to be designed in a different way,
472 because the classical double blinded approach does not work. A combination of alternative
473 interventional study approaches, such as cross-over studies (for example [134], or citizen science (for
474 example [135]) combined with mechanistic studies using new models and tools might be the way
475 forward.

476 **Robust new models and elegant tools**

478 Future progress further relies on the development of new models and elegant tools for studying bi-
479 directional communication pathways. While animal models have proven invaluable in establishing the

480 current knowledge base, it is inescapable that the gut microbiota of rodents is substantially different
481 from that of humans. To overcome this limitation, there is a need for robust and reliable humanised
482 rodent models [136].

483 From the perspective of *in vitro* models, three-dimensional brain and gut organoids and advanced co-
484 culture systems including the ENS, vagus nerve and the BBB provide alternative methods for
485 investigating realistic conditions for unravelling the mysteries of microbiota-gut-brain mechanisms
486 [137, 138]. Used in combination with models for digestion, such organoids and co-cultures could form
487 *in vitro* workflow models for studying the gut-brain axis in context. A number of so-called organ-on-a-
488 chip *in vitro* models have already been developed for this purpose, though they still have limitations
489 [139].

490 Great opportunities also lie in the development of methods that track, for example, how
491 neurotransmitters travel from the gut through the BBB in response to neuroinflammatory processes.
492 Some of this methodology is becoming available, with human brain imaging representing a possibility
493 to track the influence of microbiota on neurotransmission [13]. Metabolomic, metaproteomic and
494 metagenomic analyses and gut biopsies are other possible methodologies.

495 Many research studies today involve statisticians from their inception to assure the quality of the
496 study's design. Computational and data scientists are similarly vital to maximise the value of research
497 through comprehensive data analysis. Specialised computer programs are already able to provide
498 next-level precision when generalising and stratifying results in relation to specific population groups,
499 such as those at risk of brain disorders [140].

500 Machine learning technology will become increasingly essential to improving the efficiency and
501 accuracy of study findings. Indeed, bioinformatics holds the key to integrating large, multi-dimensional
502 datasets and, from that, gaining a better understanding of their clinical significance. At the current
503 pace of technological development, it is now possible to imagine the potential of such tools to identify
504 high-risk patients at an early stage, determine which microbial/immunological imbalances may cause
505 such risks and suggest possible interventions to mitigate them [141].

506 507 **An emphasis on collaboration**

508 More sharing and collaborative work is essential to extract maximum knowledge from available data
509 and build a truly validated evidence base. This requires the establishment of new biobanks to facilitate
510 the sharing of material from human and animal studies. Deep phenotyping databases, standardised
511 data formats [142] and new methodologies for preserving microbiome samples [143] are essential for
512 such biobanks to play a meaningful role. By the same token, *in vitro* models must become more easily
513 available for use across labs.

514 The competition for funding is one explanation for the low level of scientific collaboration to date.
515 However, a number of programmes and initiatives are, today, moving research in this direction. Within
516 Europe, they include the Community Research and Development Information Service (CORDIS) [144],
517 which gathers and disseminates results from projects funded by the EU's framework programmes for
518 research and innovation.

519 One such project is the five-year multi-centre GEMMA project funded by the EU's Horizon 2020
520 programme [145]. Launched in January 2019, GEMMA explores interactions between the gut

521 microbiome, metabolome, epigenome, and immune function to discover useful biomarkers for early
522 diagnosis of autism, along with potential targets for preventive therapies [146]. Other examples are
523 the ONCOBIOME [147] and MICROB-PREDICT [148] projects, funded by Horizon 2020 to investigate
524 the microbiome's role in cancer development and chronic liver disease, respectively.

525 Organisations such as the International Life Science Institute Europe (ILSI Europe) [149] and the
526 International Scientific Association for Probiotics and Prebiotics (ISAPP) [150] bring together academic
527 and industrial scientists involved in basic and applied research across multiple disciplines. Their
528 purpose is to promote progress in the field by supporting scientific integrity and transparency,
529 harmonising scientific efforts, and providing guidance for collaborative and multidisciplinary research.

530 ISAPP is setting an excellent example. Each one of its objectives is relevant to the progress of
531 microbiota-gut-brain axis research at large and the ultimate development of dietary strategies where
532 the gut microbiota is the primary target.

533

534 **5. The dream destination – improved quality of life**

535 **The potential of the microbiota-gut-brain axis through future nutritional and** 536 **therapeutic interventions**

537 The microbiota-gut-brain axis represents an intricate network of systems which scientists are only
538 beginning to understand. Given this complexity, the nutritional and therapeutic strategies with the
539 best chances of success are likely to be those aimed at improving human quality of life. Some are even
540 already on the market, including foods and supplements that promise to improve mood, sleep, or
541 cognitive performance. The evidence behind some of these claims is, however, still in question. Very
542 recently though, the European Food Safety Agency (EFSA) approved *Akkermansia muciniphila* as a
543 novel food [151].

544 By expanding knowledge, scientists have recognised the potential to achieve much more. Although
545 the prevention of brain disorders may remain out of reach for the foreseeable future, the mapping of
546 healthy microbiota and communication pathways could enable their early prediction. The first signs
547 of neurodegenerative conditions such as Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease, for example, are known
548 to develop many years before diagnosis. Imagine if it were possible to slow neurodegenerative
549 processes by altering the microbiome.

550 A similar scenario is imaginable for children with ASD. What if dietary influences on the gut microbiota
551 could both relieve GI irritation and calm anxiety and hyperactivity? And what if it were possible to
552 complement drug and psychiatric therapy for schizophrenia with targeted foods such as probiotics?

553 These are, perhaps, realisable dreams. Over the past few years, they have inspired a growing number
554 of scientists to found start-up companies that are now investigating small molecule therapeutics for
555 treating neurological and other disorders through microbiome modulation. Private investors often
556 support their clinical research.

557 Scientists have documented many links between the microbiota, gut, and brain. The time has come
558 to dig even deeper through integrated, multidisciplinary research – aimed at understanding
559 microbiota-gut-brain mechanisms and identifying true opportunities to adapt and adjust the

560 microbiota for better brain health through life. Continuous investment from the public and private
561 sector is vital to keep up the momentum.

562 **6. Declarations**

563

564 **Funding**

565 This work was conducted by an expert group (EG) of the European branch of the International Life
566 Sciences Institute, ILSI Europe. According to ILSI Europe policies, the EG is composed of at least 50%
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568 website (<https://ilsi.eu/task-forces/nutrition/nutrition-and-mental-performance/>). Experts are not
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570 and accommodation costs from the above-mentioned task forces when attending workshops/
571 meetings to discuss the manuscript. Journalist and communication consultant Cath Merish received
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573 **Competing interests**

574 The following authors: LG, LH, PI, ADK, MM, CS, DV declare that they have no competing interests. AC,
575 GLF, EP, BP are employees of the food industry, as declared under affiliation.

576 **Author contributions**

577 AC, GLF, LH, PI, ADK, EP, BP, CS, DV: conception, design, and revision of the work.

578 LG, MM: overall management, conception, design, and revision of the work.

579 **Availability of data and material (data transparency)**

580 Not applicable.

581 **Code availability (software application or custom code)**

582 Not applicable.

583

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