1 Temporal Dysbiosis of Infant Nasal Microbiota Relative to Respiratory Syncytial Virus

- 2 Infection
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26 **DECLARATIONS**

27 Ethics approval and consent to participate

- 28 Written informed consent was obtained from parent or guardian of all participating infants. The
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51 ABSTRACT

52 **Rationale:** Respiratory Syncytial Virus (RSV) infection is a leading cause of infant respiratory 53 disease and hospitalization. Infant airway microbiota occupying the nasopharynx have been 54 associated with respiratory disease risk and severity. The extent to which interactions between 55 RSV and microbiota occur in the airway, and their impact on respiratory disease severity and 56 infection susceptibility, are not well understood. 57 Objectives: To characterize associations between the nasal microbiota and RSV infection 58 before, during, and after infants' first respiratory illness. 59 **Methods:** Nasal 16S rRNA microbial community profiling of two cohorts of infants in the first 60 year of life: 1) a cross-sectional cohort of 89 RSV infected infants sampled during illness and 61 102 population matched healthy controls, and 2) an individually matched longitudinal cohort of 62 12 infants who developed RSV infection and 12 who did not, sampled at time points before, 63 during, and after infection. 64 Measurements and Main Results: We identified 12 taxa significantly associated with RSV 65 infection. All 12 were differentially abundant during infection, with seven differentially abundant 66 prior to infection, and eight differentially abundant after infection. Eight of these taxa were 67 associated with disease severity. Nasal microbiota composition was more discriminative of 68 healthy vs. infected than of disease severity. 69 **Conclusions:** Our findings elucidate the chronology of nasal microbiota dysbiosis and suggest 70 an altered developmental trajectory associated with first-time RSV infection. Microbial temporal 71 dynamics reveal indicators of disease risk, correlates of illness and severity, and the impact of 72 RSV infection on microbiota composition. Identified taxa represent appealing targets for 73 additional translationally-oriented research.

74 Key words: microbiota, RSV, infant respiratory disease

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76 Introduction

77 The composition and function of host-associated microbial communities are associated 78 with many aspects of health and disease [1]. These relationships between the microbiome and 79 host biology exhibit spatial and temporal dependencies, with relevant interactions manifest by 80 the microbiota of specific body sites during critical periods of host development, environmental 81 exposure, pathogenesis, illness, or convalescence [2-6]. Specifically, there is a growing body of 82 evidence that the microbiome influences immune maturation and function [7-9], mucosal surface 83 physiology [10, 11], and the risk and severity of acute and chronic respiratory diseases [12-16]. 84 Respiratory Syncytial Virus (RSV) is the most significant respiratory tract infection 85 affecting infants. It is the most frequent cause of acute lower respiratory infections in children 86 under five, and a common cause of hospitalization in children under two [17-19]. Approximately 87 one-half of infants are infected with RSV during their first year of life, and nearly all have been 88 infected by two years of age. Severe disease requiring hospitalization occurs in 1-3% of those 89 infected, and in most cases is not accompanied by any of the known risk factors such as age at 90 infection, pre-term birth, underlying cardiopulmonary disease or immunosuppression [20-22]. 91 Additionally, RSV infection in early life has been linked to subsequent development of asthma 92 and chronic obstructive lung disease [19, 23].

93 Recent studies have identified associations between nasopharyngeal microbiota and 94 RSV clinical manifestations including severity [24, 25]. Nasopharyngeal microbiota composition 95 has been shown to be altered during periods of acute RSV infection and the abundance of 96 certain bacterial taxa have been associated with immune response and disease severity [13, 97 24-26]. While these findings suggest that respiratory microbiota may play an important role in 98 RSV infection, the spatial and temporal scope of a relationship remains unclear. Specifically, 99 whether associations between RSV infection and microbiota composition are limited to the

100 nasopharynx, and in what sequence and duration they manifest, are not well understood [27,

101 28].

102 Here, we analyze the nasal microbiota of two cohorts of infants to elucidate the 103 relationship between airway microbial communities and RSV infection. We used a large cross-104 sectional cohort of infants comprised of an RSV infected case group sampled during acute 105 illness and a matching healthy control group to characterize the nasal microbiota of acute RSV 106 infection and identify associations with disease severity. To assess associations with the nasal 107 microbiota that may exist before or after RSV infection, we used a smaller longitudinal cohort 108 comprised of a group of infants that developed RSV infection during their first year of life and 109 another group that did not, with each group sampled at matching time points corresponding to 110 before, during, and after acute illness.

111

112 METHODS

113 Clinical methods

114 All study procedures were approved by the University of Rochester Medical Center 115 (URMC) Research Subjects Internal Review Board (IRB) (Protocol # RPRC00045470) and all 116 subjects' caregivers provided informed consent. The infants included in the study were from the 117 University of Rochester Respiratory Pathogens Research Center AsPIRES [29] and PRISM 118 studies and cared for prior to discharge in the URMC Golisano Children's Hospital and 119 Rochester General Hospital newborn nurseries and birthing centers. For the cross-sectional 120 cohort (Table 1A), we analyzed 191 nasal samples from 89 subjects with acute RSV infection 121 and 102 healthy subjects. Control samples and subjects were selected to minimize population 122 level differences in age at the time of sampling, gestational age at birth, and mode of delivery. 123 For the longitudinal cohort (Table 1B), we collected 72 nasal samples from 12 RSV positive 124 subjects and 12 healthy subjects. Samples were collected from the RSV group at

approximately one month of age, during acute RSV infection, and approximately one month after illness, and at corresponding timepoints from the healthy controls. Control subjects were selected to match on an individual basis by sex, mode of delivery, and gestational age at birth, and samples were selected to match by age. Subjects were eligible as controls if they had no respiratory illness between birth and at least ten days after the last sample. Patient metadata for the cross-sectional and longitudinal cohorts is included in the online **Supplemental Table 1.**

131 16s rRNA amplicon sequencing

132 Genomic DNA was extracted and the V1-V3 16S rRNA hypervariable region was

133 sequenced as described previously [4]. Bioinformatics processing was performed with QIIME 2

[30], using DADA2 [31] for denoising and the GreenGenes reference database [32, 33] as the

135 basis of taxonomic classification. Additional methodological details of sample preparation,

136 sequencing, controls, and bioinformatic processing are available in **Supplemental Methods**.

137 Associations of taxon abundance with RSV infection and disease severity

Because differential abundance testing of high-throughput sequencing-based microbial community profiling data is relatively immature, with no consensus methodology [34, 35], we applied four prominent univariate and multivariate algorithms which were selected to be complementary in terms of their strengths and technical limitations. We required that significant results be corroborated across multiple methods to be accepted. Details of diversity analyses and machine learning classification/regression analyses are available in **Supplemental Methods**.

146 **RESULTS**

147 Overview of infant cohort

148The cross-sectional case-control cohort yielded 191 nasal samples with 16S rRNA149sequencing data from 89 subjects with acute RSV infection and 102 matched healthy subjects

(Table 1A). The average number of reads per sample was 64,320 with 180 samples having at least 5,000 reads. All subjects were full-term and less than 10 months of age, and the ill and healthy groups matched at the population level in terms of sex, gestational age at birth, mode of delivery, and age at the time of sampling. Infected subjects were divided into mild and severe based on a threshold Global Respiratory Severity Score (GRSS) of 3.5, yielding groups of 30 and 59, respectively [36]. Severity scores and additional patient metadata for the cross-sectional and longitudinal cohorts are in **Supplemental Table 1**.

157 The longitudinal cohort yielded 72 nasal samples with 16S rRNA sequencing data 158 corresponding to 12 healthy controls and 12 RSV positive subjects sampled at three time points: 159 one month of age, during acute illness (and corresponding age for healthy controls), and one 160 month after illness (Table 1B). The average number of reads per sample was 47,745, with 67 161 samples having at least 5,000 reads. Healthy controls closely matched RSV positive subjects in 162 terms of sex, mode of delivery, gestational age at birth, and age at the time of sampling. All 163 subjects were full term and less than one year of age. Healthy controls did not develop 164 symptomatic respiratory infection between birth and at least 10 days after their last sample was 165 taken. Notably, only two of the RSV cases in this cohort exhibited severe disease (GRSS > 166 3.5).

167 Microbiota diversity and associations with RSV infection and severity.

In the cross-sectional cohort, alpha diversity as measured by Faith's index was elevated in RSV positive subjects at the time of infection relative to age matched healthy controls (p =0.039), with a greater difference observed in the group of subjects with severe disease (mean Faith's index of healthy = 1.933, mild illness = 2.176, severe illness = 2.250). The difference between subjects with mild and severe infection was not significant, however, the correlation coefficient between severity score and Faith's index was positive (r = 0.134; p=0.065). There were no significant differences in alpha diversity as measured by the Shannon index.

suggesting that the observed differences reflect increased phylogenetic heterogeneity in the
subjects with infection, as opposed to a greater number of total species or more even
distributions of species' relative abundances.

178 In the longitudinal cohort, Weighted and Unweighted Unifrac distances were used to 179 assess beta diversity at each visit, and to assess the magnitude of change within individuals 180 from visit to visit (Figure 1A). At all three time points, significant differences were found 181 between the group that developed RSV infection and the group that did not, based on the 182 Weighted Unifrac metric (initial visit p = 0.032, illness and age matched healthy visit p = 0.009, 183 follow-up visit p = 0.012). By Unweighted Unifrac, these differences were significant at the initial 184 visit (p = 0.035) and the illness visit (p = 0.011), and approached significance at the post-illness 185 visit (p=0.078). By both metrics, the largest, most significant difference was observed at the 186 illness visit (and the corresponding timepoint for the healthy controls). Further examination of 187 beta diversity during illness using the cross-sectional cohort (Figure 1B) revealed more 188 significant differences between healthy subjects and severely ill subjects (Unweighted Unifrac p 189 = 0.003, Weighted Unifrac p = 0.003) than between healthy subjects and subjects with mild 190 disease (Unweighted Unifrac p = 0.036, Weighted Unifrac p = 0.005), as well as greater 191 differences between healthy and RSV infected infants when the infection occurred at younger 192 ages (among subject 0-3 months old, Unifrac PERMANOVA healthy vs. mildly ill p = 0.538193 (Unweighted) and 0.084 (Weighted), healthy vs. severely ill p = 0.001 (Unweighted) and 0.001 194 (Weighted); among subjects > 6 months old, healthy vs mildly ill p = 0.931 (Unweighted) and 195 0.191 (Weighted), healthy vs. severely ill p = 0.309 (Unweighted) and 0.389 (Weighted)). 196 Assessing the magnitude of longitudinal changes by the Unweighted Unifrac metric, the within 197 subject change from the initial visit to the illness visit, and the corresponding time point in 198 healthy subjects, was larger among the subjects that developed infection than those that

remained healthy (p=0.061). All computed alpha and beta diversity values are in **Supplemental**

200 **Table 2.**

201 Longitudinal abundance patterns of RSV-associated taxa

202 The relative abundance of twelve distinct taxa exhibited significant associations with the 203 occurrence of RSV infection according to multiple corroborative statistical assessments. While 204 all twelve taxa were differentially abundant between RSV infected and healthy infants during 205 illness, and the corresponding time point in healthy subjects, they exhibit distinguishable 206 patterns of temporal dynamics, pre- and post-illness occurrence, and associations with illness 207 severity (Table 2). Notably, associations between nasal microbiota and RSV infection are not 208 confined to the period of acute infection: all but one (Haemophilus) of the twelve taxa associated 209 with RSV infection are significantly differentially abundant between groups either before or after 210 illness, or both. Most of the taxa (7/12) that are differentially abundant between RSV infected 211 and healthy infants during illness are differentially abundant at the initial visit at one month of 212 age, prior to illness. Similarly, most of the taxa (8/12) that are differentially abundant during 213 illness are differentially abundant after illness. However, persistent differential abundance 214 between groups across all three time points is observed only in a minority (4/12) of taxa. 215 Furthermore, the microbiota differences between health and RSV infection are not simply 216 categorical but vary in magnitude with illness, as most of the taxa (8/12) that are differentially 217 abundant during illness are associated with illness severity. Additionally, most of these severity-218 associated taxa (6/8) exhibit persistent differences beyond the period of acute illness and are 219 differentially abundant during and after illness, while half (4/8) are differentially abundant prior to 220 illness. Finally, the abundances of most RSV-associated taxa are positively associated with the 221 disease, and only a minority of taxa (5/12) that differ in abundance between groups are elevated 222 in healthy infants.

223	Staphylococcus, Clostridia (not shown), and Bacilli each exhibit a similar temporal
224	pattern; ubiquitous and comparable in abundance between groups prior to illness, significantly
225	diminished during illness (p \leq 0.001, 0.013, & 0.005, respectively) and remain so one month
226	later (Figure 2A; $p = 0.011, 0.033, \& 0.039$). The classes Alphaproteobacteria (not shown) and
227	Gammaproteobacteria, and Gammaproteobacteria member clades Pseudomondales (not
228	shown) and Moraxella, also exhibit a common pattern in that all four are significantly elevated in
229	the infants that develop RSV infection before (p <= 0.001, 0.033, 0.003, & 0.001), during (p <=
230	0.036, 0.002, 0.001, & 0.001), and after illness (Figure 2B; p = 0.044, 0.009, 0.038, & 0.003).
231	By contrast, Corynebacterium and Anaerococcus are elevated in infants that do not develop
232	RSV infections at the pre-illness timepoint ($p = 0.008 \& 0.020$, respectively) and the illness
233	timepoint (p < 0.001 & p = 0.008) but do not differ between groups at the post-illness timepoint
234	(Figure 2C). Finally, three taxa exhibit unique temporal trends with respect to illness:
235	Betaproteobacteria increases in abundance over time in the RSV group only (Figure 2D) -
236	being significantly elevated during ($p = 0.006$) and after ($p = 0.039$) illness – while Haemophilus
237	(not shown) is significantly more abundant in the infected group during (p < 0.001) illness and
238	minimally abundant in both groups before and after. Gluconacetobacter exhibits a distinct
239	temporal pattern in that it is elevated in the RSV group before ($p = 0.003$) and during ($p < 0.001$)
240	illness, but no difference is observed between groups after illness (Figure 2D). The
241	composition of all cross-sectional and longitudinal samples summarized at all taxonomic levels
242	is in Supplemental Tables 3 and 4.
243	Abundance of taxa associated with severity in acute illness
244	The abundance of six of the taxa associated with RSV infection are positively associated
245	with severity at the time of acute illness: Alphaproteobacteria ($p = 0.026$), Gammaproteobacteria
246	(n < 0.001) Resudamanas $(n < 0.001)$ Clucanacetahaster $(n < 0.001)$ Burkholderiales $(n = 0.001)$

- 246 (p < 0.001), *Pseudomonas* (p < 0.001), *Gluconacetobacter* (p < 0.001), Burkholderiales (p = 0.001), Pseudomonas (p < 0.001), *Gluconacetobacter* (p < 0.001), *Burkholderiales* (p = 0.001), *Burkholderiales* (p
- 247 0.015), and *Haemophilus* (p < 0.001), with exceptionally high levels of *Haemophilus influenzae*

being very strongly associated (p < 0.001) with severe disease (Figure 3). *Pseudomonas* and
Burkholderiales are the primary drivers of associations between severity and their
corresponding clades, Pseudomondales and Betaproteobacteria. The abundance of Bacilli (p <
0.001) and *Staphylococcus* (p < 0.001), conversely, are negatively associated with disease
severity at the time of illness. As described above, *Moraxella, Corynebacterium, Anaerococcus*,
and Clostridia are associated with the occurrence of RSV infection (or lack thereof), but they are
not associated with severity of disease.

255 Predicting RSV infection status and illness severity from microbiota composition

256 To further assess the relationship between nasal microbiota and RSV infection using the 257 cross-sectional cohort, Gradient Tree Boosting machine learning models were trained and 258 applied to predict the RSV infection status of a subject using the composition of their nasal 259 microbiota, where status was defined in three ways: RSV infected vs. healthy; healthy vs. mild 260 RSV infection vs. severe RSV infection; and severity score (with all healthy subjects having a 261 score of 0). Five-fold cross-validation was employed, with 20% of samples being held out 262 during training and then used to test the accuracy of the trained model. This approach can 263 indicate how much information about a subject's status is reflected in the composition of their 264 nasal microbiota. Performance was best when distinguishing infected from healthy, which could 265 be done with 90% accuracy using compositional profiles at the level of exact sequence variants. 266 Distinguishing healthy, mild disease, and severe disease was less effective, with an accuracy of 267 77% being achieved using compositional profiles summarized based on taxonomic assignment 268 at the level of species. Prediction of the continuous valued severity score exhibited the worst 269 performance, with 38% of the variance in severity score being explained by the model, also 270 using species level compositional profiles. Sequence variants classified as Moraxella, 271 Staphylococcus, Corynebacterium, or Streptococcus comprised the top three most informative 272 features across all three models. Model result summaries are in **Supplemental Tables 5-7**.

273 Discussion

274 In this study, we characterize signatures of dysbiosis associated with RSV infection and 275 illness severity in infant nasal microbiota. We identify differences in measures of microbial 276 diversity and in the abundance of specific bacterial taxa between infants who develop RSV 277 infections and those who don't, and show that these differences manifest longitudinally before, 278 during, and after illness in a number of distinct patterns. While these associations are 279 consistent with observations made previously of nasopharyngeal microbiota during acute illness 280 [13, 26], the findings reported here elucidate the temporal sequence and persistence of these 281 phenomena beyond the period of acute illness, and demonstrate their occurrence in the nasal 282 cavity.

283 Based on the observed patterns of differential abundance before, during, and after 284 illness, the relationships between most of the taxa identified as significant and RSV infection 285 may be assigned to one of three general categories. The first category includes taxa which 286 change during and after illness relative to healthy controls of the same age. The dynamics of 287 these taxa are consistent with RSV infection influencing the abundance of certain microbes; 288 normal flora which dramatically diminish in a persistent way as a result of infection (Clostridia, 289 Bacilli, & Staphylococcus). The second category consists of taxa increased in abundance in 290 infants who develop RSV infection at all timepoints: before, during, and after illness. The 291 patterns of occurrence of these taxa imply that they either are indicative of underlying factors 292 making the host more susceptible to infection or directly contribute to infection susceptibility 293 (Alphaproteobacteria, Gammaproteobacteria, Pseudomondales, and Moraxella). The third 294 category is comprised of taxa which are significantly elevated in the healthy control subjects at 295 the initial visit and the timepoint corresponding to illness. Such taxa (Corynebacterium and 296 Anaerococcus) likely either reflect underlying protective qualities of the host, promote such 297 qualities, or are directly protective themselves. The remaining three taxa identified as significant

298 each exhibit unique patterns of differential abundance between groups and don't fit well into any 299 of the three categories. The interpretations of their associations with RSV infection are less 300 clear, but the occurrence patterns of Betaproteobacteria and Haemophilus could be explained 301 by an opportunistic or synergistic relationship, wherein RSV infection produces circumstances 302 conducive to their increasing in abundance, while their increased abundance may contribute to 303 infection severity. The occurrence patterns of *Gluconacetobacter* suggest that it may reflect or 304 promote infection susceptibility, but convalescence corresponds to an unfavorable host 305 environment and it diminishes in abundance.

306 Most RSV associated taxa are associated both with the presence or absence of 307 infection, and also with disease severity. This implies that the biological underpinnings of these 308 associations exist to varying degrees as opposed to being categorically distinct, and that this 309 variation is reflected in illness severity during infection. However, the fact that our infected vs. 310 healthy classifier outperforms our severe illness vs. mild illness vs. healthy classifier and the 311 severity score regressor, and the fact that all significant taxa are associated with illness while 312 only eight of them are associated with severity, suggest that the composition of nasal microbiota 313 is more strongly associated with the difference between RSV infected and uninfected than it is 314 with continuous variation along the gradient from health to severe illness.

315 The taxa which are differentially abundant at one month of age – prior to infection and 316 illness – present intriguing possibilities. At a basic level, it may be possible to predict an infant's 317 risk of RSV infection in the first year of life based on the presence and abundance of these taxa 318 at one month. Furthermore, understanding the mechanism by which these bacteria are 319 associated with infection risk could provide valuable insights into immunological development or 320 mucosal function. More speculatively, the possibility exists that the association is causal, which 321 would suggest that these taxa may be suitable targets for prebiotic, probiotic, or antimicrobial 322 interventions. Similar reasoning could be applied to *H. influenzae* and Betaproteobacteria

Burkholderiales, which are not differentially abundant prior to illness but are associated with illness severity, and which could be targeted or assayed during infection to mitigate or predict severity. Whether these microbes merely reflect underlying factors that influence infection susceptibility, severity, and resistance, or contribute to them directly, the clinical significance of RSV infection in the short term, and respiratory infection-associated asthma and atopy in the long term, make these bacteria and their relationship to respiratory health important targets for translationally-oriented study.

330 We recognize a number of limitations of this study. Notably, our longitudinal cohort was 331 substantially smaller than our cross-sectional cohort and incidentally it only contained two 332 severely ill subjects. This prevented us from assessing associations with severity at the pre-333 and post-illness timepoints, which would be desirable. We were also limited to short read 334 amplicon sequencing to profile the bacterial communities that were sampled. This inherently 335 limits our ability to resolve species and strains of bacteria. Furthermore, marker gene assays 336 contain no functional information about the microbial communities and no immunological 337 information about the host. More comprehensive assays such as shotgun metagenomic 338 sequencing and flow cytometry would greatly enrich our understanding of the systems of 339 interest. Finally, all of our subjects were less than one year of age, had not been previously 340 infected with RSV, and no subject was sampled more than approximately one month after 341 illness, which prevented us from examining microbiota-RSV associations among infants who 342 became infected in their second year of life or who had recurrent infections, and made it 343 impossible to determine how long the associations we observed persisted after illness. 344 Similarly, our earliest samples were at approximately one month of age and already showed 345 differences between subjects who went on to acquire RSV infections and those who did not, so 346 we were unable to determine how early those differences manifested. Nevertheless, our 347 findings provide novel insight into the developmental dynamics of the nasal microbiome in the

- 348 first year of life as they relate to susceptibility, acute illness, severity, and convalescence
- 349 associated with first-time RSV infection.
- 350

351 Availability of data and materials

- 352 All phenotypic data, 16S rRNA sequence reads and generated datasets is publicly available
- 353 through dbGaP accession phs001201.v2.p1.
- 354

355 Author Contributions

- 356 S.R.G., E.E.W., and M.T.C. conceptualized the study. S.R.G., E.E.W., T.J.M., M.T.C., and A.G.
- designed the experiments. E.E.W., M.T.C., and A.R.F. developed the cohort, and collected the
- 358 specimens and clinical data. J.H.-W., S.B., J.J., and A.C. facilitated data organization,
- 359 management and analysis. T.J.M., M.T.C., E.E.W., A.L.G., H.A.K., S.R.G., J.H.W., J.J., S.B.,
- A.C., and A.G. generated, analyzed and interpreted the data. S.R.G. and A.G. wrote and/or
- 361 revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.
- 362

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- 365 recruiting and following study subjects. Microbiome sequencing in this study was completed by
- 366 the University of Rochester Genomics Research Center (GRC).
- 367

368 Figure Legends

- 369 Figure 1. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) of weighted Unifrac distances was used
- 370 to visualize relationships between the nasal microbiota of infants with respect to RSV
- 371 **infection**, **illness severity**, and time. Weighted Unifrac distances quantify the compositional

372 dissimilarity between microbial communities, incorporating information about the phylogenetic 373 relatedness between bacteria observed across samples. PCoA provides a summary 374 representation of overall similarity/dissimilarity relationships among a set of samples, capturing 375 as much information as possible using the fewest number of dimensions/principal coordinates. 376 The proportion of overall variation represented along a single axis is indicated as a percentage 377 in the axis label. (A) From the longitudinal cohort only, samples are plotted with principal 378 coordinate one on the y-axis and infant age at the time of sampling on the x-axis. Samples are 379 colored red or blue based on whether or not an infant developed RSV infection (red) at any 380 point during the period of observation, and their shape indicates the time-point at which the 381 sample was taken: initial healthy/pre-illness visit (diamond), illness visit/age-matched healthy 382 visit (circle), or post-illness/age-matched final healthy visit (square). The red and blue arrows 383 indicate observed longitudinal trends within the group of subjects that developed RSV infections 384 and the group that stayed healthy, respectively. (B) From the cross-sectional cohort only, 385 samples are plotted in three dimensions using the first three principal coordinates. Samples are 386 colored according to RSV infection status and severity: healthy (blue), mild RSV infection 387 (orange), or severe RSV infection (red). A cluster of subjects in the foreground on the left, 388 notable for dominant abundance of *H. Influenzae*, is circled in black. While no clear segregation 389 is observed between mild and severe illness, healthy samples occupy a notable crescent 390 shaped structure around the illness samples, with the *H. Influenzae* dominated cluster furthest 391 away from this crescent.

Figure 2. Relative abundances (y-axes) of select taxa at all three time points (x-axes) in the longitudinal cohort. Each thin line corresponds to the abundance of a given taxon in a particular individual, while the thick lines show the mean abundance of each group at each time point. Members of the healthy group are orange and members of the group that developed

396 infection are blue. Significant taxa were grouped based on different temporal patterns of 397 abundance with respect to illness, and each panel shown contains examples from a different 398 group: (A) similar abundance between infection and healthy groups prior to illness, but 399 decreased during and after illness in subjects that become infected; (B) consistently elevated in 400 the illness group; (C) elevated in the healthy group before and during illness, but not after; and 401 (D) idiosyncratic temporal dynamics observed in each taxon. Of the members of the fourth 402 group shown here. Betaproteobacteria is nearly absent from all subjects at the pre-illness time 403 point, and then becomes increasingly abundant during and after illness in the infection group 404 while remaining nearly absent from the healthy group. *Gluconacetobacter* is elevated in the 405 infection group prior to and during illness, and substantially diminishes in abundance with 406 convalescence.

407 Figure 3. Relative abundances (y-axes) of select taxa significantly associated with more 408 severe disease in the cross-sectional cohort, with samples grouped by dichotomizing 409 illness based on severity into mild and severe groups (x-axes), using a severity score 410 threshold of 3.5. Each colored point represents the relative abundance of a given taxon in a 411 single individual, with columns (left to right), shapes (circle, triangle, square), and colors (green, 412 orange, red) distinguishing between healthy, mild illness, and severe illness groups, 413 respectively. The black diamonds indicate the group mean for each group. Box plots are 414 overlaid on each group, centered on the group median, with notches indicating an 415 approximately 95% confidence interval, boxes indicating boundaries of the first and third 416 quartiles, and whiskers extending to the largest and smallest values no further than 1.5*(inter-417 quartile range) from the boxes. Points beyond the whiskers are commonly considered outliers. 418 which in this case would suggest that many of the observed associations between taxon relative

- 419 abundance and illness severity are driven primarily by outliers, or that taxon abundance in
- 420 severely ill infants comprises more than one underlying distribution.
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Table 1ASummary Characteristics of Cross-Sectional Cohort

Variables (mean ± SD or <i>N</i>)	Aggregate (<i>N</i> =191)	Control (<i>N=102)</i>	Case (<i>N</i> =89)
Sex (Male/Female)	105/86	61/41	44/45
Mode of Delivery (Vaginal/C-section)	128/63	68/34	60/29
Gestational Age at Birth (Weeks)	39.23 ± 1.17	39.27 ± 1.13	39.18 ± 1.23
Age at Sampling (Months)	3.09 ± 2.21	3.01 ± 2.19	3.18 ± 2.24
Any Antibiotics To Date	0	0	21
Severity Score	2.24 ± 3.01	0 ± 0	4.81 ± 2.65
Severity Group (Mild/Severe)	NA	NA	30/59

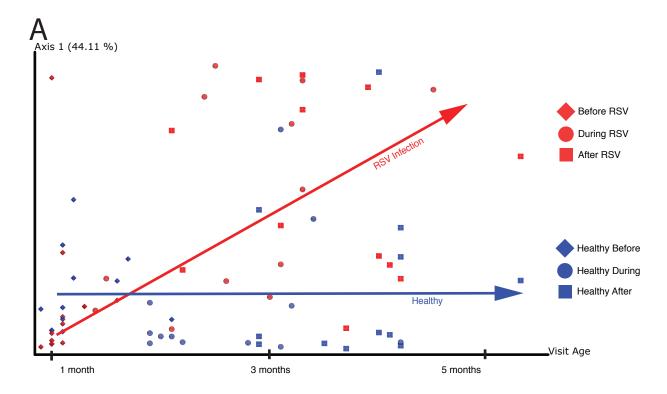
Table 1B

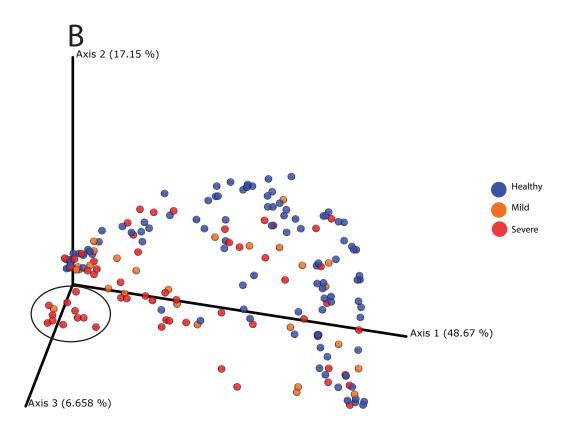
Summary Characteristics of Longitudinal Cohort

Variables (mean ± SD or <i>N</i>)	Aggregate (<i>N</i> =24)	Control (<i>N=12</i>)	Case (<i>N</i> =12)
Sex (Male/Female)	8/16	4/8	4/8
Mode of Delivery (Vaginal/C-section)	14/10	6/6	8/4
Gestational Age at Birth (Weeks)	39.17 ± 1.05	39.58 ± 0.90	38.75 ± 1.06
Age at Initial Sampling (Months)	1.18 ± 0.29	1.26 ± 0.36	1.10 ± 0.19
Age at Second Sampling (Months)	2.70 ± 0.79	2.65 ± 0.76	2.74 ± 0.86
Age at Final Sampling (Months)	3.67 ± 0.80	3.83 ± 0.70	3.51 ± 0.89
Severity Score	0.89 ± 1.30	0 ± 0	1.77 ± 1.34
Severity Group (Mild/Severe)	NA	NA	10/2

Table 2. Taxa Associated with RSV Infection and Illness Severity and the Time Points at Which They Differ Significantly Between Healthy Infants and Those Who Become III with RSV. Member Clades in Parentheses are the Primary Drivers of the Association Indicated in Parentheses.

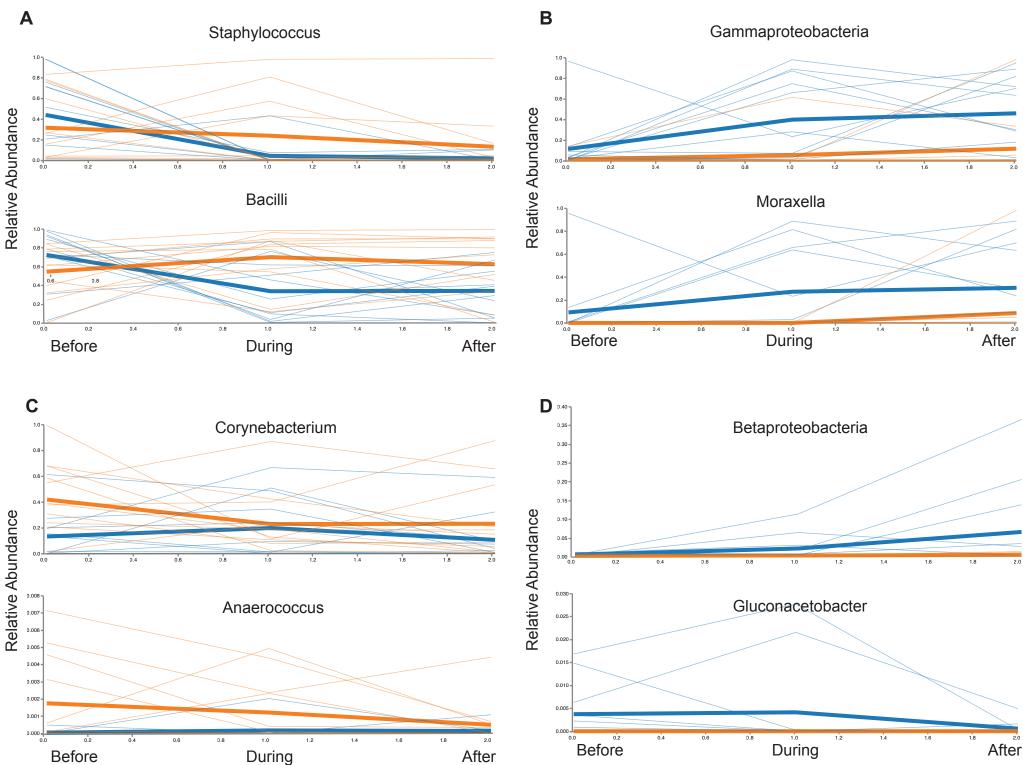
Taxon	Positive Association	Before Illness	During Illness	After Illness	Illness Severity
Alphaproteobacteria	Disease	+	+	+	+
Gammaproteobacteria	Disease	+	+	+	+
Pseudomonadales (Pseudomonas)	Disease	+	+	+	(+)
Moraxella	Disease	+	+	+	-
Corynebacterium	Health	+	+	-	-
Gluconacetobacter	Disease	+	+	-	+
Anaerococcus	Health	+	+	-	-
Staphylococcus	Health	-	+	+	+
Betaproteobacteria (Burkholderiales)	Disease	-	+	+	(+)
Bacilli	Health	-	+	+	+
Clostridia	Health	-	+	+	-
Haemophilus (influenzae)	Disease	-	+	-	(+)

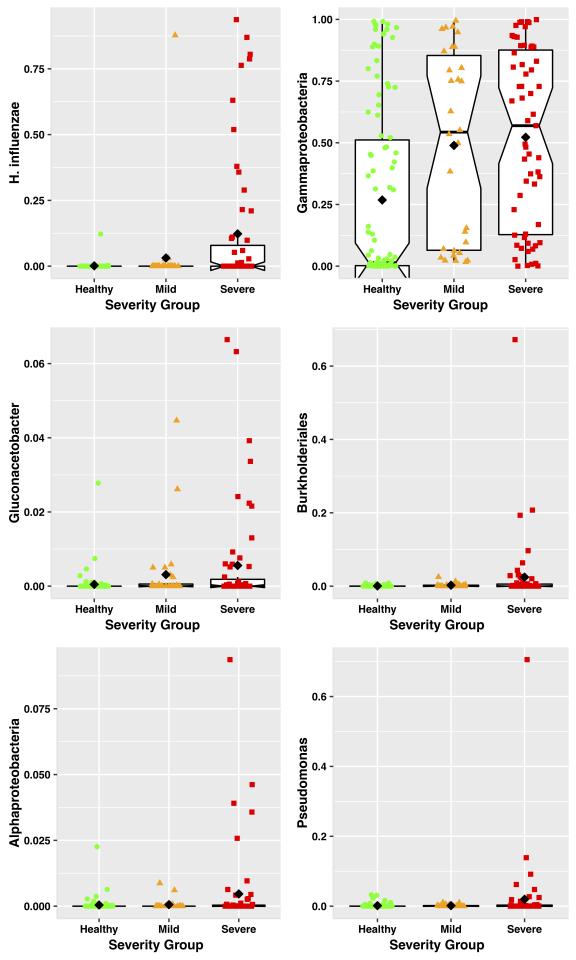






Sick





Supplemental Methods

Genomic DNA extraction

Total genomic DNA was extracted from the nasal samples using a modification of the ZymoBIOMICS[™] DNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA) and FastPrep mechanical lysis (MPBio, Solon, OH). 16S ribosomal DNA (rRNA) was amplified with Phusion High-Fidelity polymerase (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) and dual indexed primers specific to the V1-V3 (8F: 5' AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG 3'; 534R: 3' ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG 5') hypervariable regions [1]. Amplicons were pooled and paired-end sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq (Illumina, San Diego, CA) in the University of Rochester Genomics Research Center. Each sequencing run included: (1) positive controls consisting of a 1:5 mixture of *Staphylococcus aureus, Lactococcus lactis, Porphyromonas gingivalis, Streptococcus mutans,* and *Escherichia coli*; and (2) negative controls consisting of sterile saline.

Microbiota background control

The background microbiota was monitored at multiple stages of sample collection and processing. All sterile saline, buffers, reagents, plasticware and flocked nylon swabs used for sample collection, extraction and amplification of nucleic acid were UV irradiated to eliminate possible DNA background contamination. Elimination of potential background from the irradiated buffers, reagents, plasticware and swabs was confirmed by 16S rRNA amplification. After sample collection, multiple aliquots of sterile saline with swabs used for sample collection were carried through our entire sequencing protocol as individual samples, including DNA extraction, 16S rRNA amplification, library construction and sequencing to monitor potential background microbiome [2]. Data from these background control samples is deposited in SRA along with positive controls.

Bioinformatics analysis

Raw data from the Illumina MiSeg was first converted into FASTQ format 2x312 paired end sequence files using the bcl2fastg program, version 1.8.4, provided by Illumina. Format conversion was performed without de-multiplexing and the EAMMS algorithm was disabled. All other settings were default. Reads were multiplexed using a configuration described previously [1]. Briefly, for both reads in a pair, the first 12 bases were a barcode, which was followed by a primer, then a heterogeneity spacer, and then the target 16S rRNA sequence. QIIME 1.9.1 [3] was used to extract the barcodes into a separate file for importing into QIIME 2 [4], which was used to perform all subsequent processing. Reads were demultiplexed requiring exact barcode matches, and 16S primers were removed allowing 20% mismatches and requiring at least 18 bases. Cleaning, joining, and denoising were performed using DADA2 [5]: forward reads were truncated to 275 bps and reverse reads to 260 bps, error profiles were learned with a sample of one million reads, and a maximum expected error of two was allowed. Taxonomic classification was performed with a custom naïve Bayesian classifier trained on the August, 2013 release of GreenGenes [6, 7]. Sequence variants that could not be classified at least at the phylum level were discarded. Sequencing variants observed fewer than ten times total, or in only one sample, were discarded. Samples with fewer than 900 reads were discarded.

Phylogenetic trees were constructed for each cohort using MAFFT for sequence alignment and FastTree for tree construction [8, 9]. Prior to diversity analyses, samples were rarefied to a depth of 900 reads. Faith's PD and the Shannon index were used to measure alpha diversity, and Kruskal-Wallis to test for differences. Weighted and Unweighted Unifrac distances were used to measure beta diversity [10] and pairwise PERMANOVA to test for differences.

Infected vs. healthy and healthy vs. mild vs. severe classification, and severity score regression, were performed using the Sample Classifier plugin [11] in QIIME 2, using the

Gradient Tree Boosting Classifier/Regressor, five-fold cross-validation, 20% data hold-out for testing, 5,000 estimators, parameter tuning, and feature selection. Both exact sequence variant abundances and abundances of taxa summarized at species level were tried as inputs, and whichever performed better was used and reported.

Associations of taxon abundance with RSV infection and disease severity

Univariate tests for differential taxon abundance between groups was performed using both ANCOM [12] and LefSe [13]. Multivariate regression models using gneiss [14] and MaAsLin [15] were employed to assess associations of taxon abundance with RSV infection and disease severity while controlling for the potentially confounding covariates sex, mode of delivery, age at sampling, reads per sample, and antibiotic usage. The cross-sectional and longitudinal cohorts were analyzed independently. All reported results were significant by at least two tests.

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