

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

2 **Infection**

3

4 Alex Grier^{1,5}, Ann L. Gill¹, Haeja A. Kessler¹, Anthony Corbett², Sanjukta Bandyopadhyay²,
5 James Java², Jeanne Holden-Wiltse², Ann R. Falsey⁶, David J. Topham¹, Thomas J. Mariani³,
6 Mary T. Caserta⁴, Edward E. Walsh⁶, Steven R. Gill^{1,5,*}

7

8 ¹Department of Microbiology and Immunology

9 ²Department of Biostatistics and Computational Biology

10 ³Division of Neonatology and Pediatric Molecular and Personalized Medicine Program

11 ⁴Division of Pediatric Infectious Diseases

12 ⁵Genomics Research Center

13 ⁶Department of Medicine, Rochester General Hospital

14 University of Rochester School of Medicine and Dentistry, Rochester, NY, USA

15

16 **Running Title:** Nasal Microbiota In RSV Infection

17 **Submission as a major article**

18 Total Word Count: 3,468

19 Abstract Word Count: 249

20 Tables: 2

21 Figures: 3

22 Supplemental Methods: 1

23 Supplementary Tables: 7

24

25

26 **DECLARATIONS**

27 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

28 Written informed consent was obtained from parent or guardian of all participating infants. The
29 institutional review board at the University of Rochester School of Medicine and Strong
30 Memorial Hospital approved the study.

31 **Presentation of information from this manuscript at meetings**

32 Data from this manuscript has not been presented at meetings outside of University of
33 Rochester.

34 **Permission for personal communications**

35 We grant permission for all personal communications with the Journal of Infectious Diseases.

36 **Competing interests**

37 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

38 **Funding**

39 This project has been funded in whole or in part with Federal funds from the National
40 Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health, Department of
41 Health and Human Services, under Contract No. HHSN272201200005C.

42

43 ***Address for Correspondence:**

44 Steven R. Gill, PhD
45 Department of Microbiology and Immunology
46 University of Rochester School of Medicine and Dentistry

47 601 Elmwood Avenue
48 Rochester, NY, 14642, USA
49 Phone: 585-275-1003 E-mail: steven_gill@urmc.rochester.edu
50 Rochester NY, 14642, USA

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

75

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

125 approximately one month of age, during acute RSV infection, and approximately one month
126 after illness, and at corresponding timepoints from the healthy controls. Control subjects were
127 selected to match on an individual basis by sex, mode of delivery, and gestational age at birth,
128 and samples were selected to match by age. Subjects were eligible as controls if they had no
129 respiratory illness between birth and at least ten days after the last sample. Patient metadata for
130 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
134 [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**

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

144 **Methods.**

145

146 **RESULTS**

147 **Overview of infant cohort**

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

150 **(Table 1A).** The average number of reads per sample was 64,320 with 180 samples having at
151 least 5,000 reads. All subjects were full-term and less than 10 months of age, and the ill and
152 healthy groups matched at the population level in terms of sex, gestational age at birth, mode of
153 delivery, and age at the time of sampling. Infected subjects were divided into mild and severe
154 based on a threshold Global Respiratory Severity Score (GRSS) of 3.5, yielding groups of 30
155 and 59, respectively [36]. Severity scores and additional patient metadata for the cross-sectional
156 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.**

168 In the cross-sectional cohort, alpha diversity as measured by Faith's index was elevated
169 in RSV positive subjects at the time of infection relative to age matched healthy controls ($p =$
170 0.039), with a greater difference observed in the group of subjects with severe disease (mean
171 Faith's index of healthy = 1.933, mild illness = 2.176, severe illness = 2.250). The difference
172 between subjects with mild and severe infection was not significant, however, the correlation
173 coefficient between severity score and Faith's index was positive ($r = 0.134$; $p=0.065$). There
174 were no significant differences in alpha diversity as measured by the Shannon index,

175 suggesting that the observed differences reflect increased phylogenetic heterogeneity in the
176 subjects with infection, as opposed to a greater number of total species or more even
177 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 $p = 0.538$
193 (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

199 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 Pseudomonadales (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 ($p \leq 0.001$, 0.033, 0.003, & 0.001), during ($p \leq$
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 ($p < 0.001$), *Pseudomonas* ($p < 0.001$), *Gluconacetobacter* ($p < 0.001$), Burkholderiales ($p =$
247 0.015), and *Haemophilus* ($p < 0.001$), with exceptionally high levels of *Haemophilus influenzae*

248 being very strongly associated ($p < 0.001$) with severe disease (**Figure 3**). *Pseudomonas* and
249 *Burkholderiales* are the primary drivers of associations between severity and their
250 corresponding clades, *Pseudomondales* and *Betaproteobacteria*. The abundance of *Bacilli* ($p <$
251 0.001) and *Staphylococcus* ($p < 0.001$), conversely, are negatively associated with disease
252 severity at the time of illness. As described above, *Moraxella*, *Corynebacterium*, *Anaerococcus*,
253 and *Clostridia* are associated with the occurrence of RSV infection (or lack thereof), but they are
254 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*, *Pseudomonas*, 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

323 Burkholderiales, which are not differentially abundant prior to illness but are associated with
324 illness severity, and which could be targeted or assayed during infection to mitigate or predict
325 severity. Whether these microbes merely reflect underlying factors that influence infection
326 susceptibility, severity, and resistance, or contribute to them directly, the clinical significance of
327 RSV infection in the short term, and respiratory infection-associated asthma and atopy in the
328 long term, make these bacteria and their relationship to respiratory health important targets for
329 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.
357 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.,
360 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

363 **Acknowledgements**

364 We thank Amy Murphy R.N., Mary Criddle, R.N., and Doreen Francis R.N. for assistance in
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.

392 **Figure 2. Relative abundances (y-axes) of select taxa at all three time points (x-axes) in**
393 **the longitudinal cohort.** Each thin line corresponds to the abundance of a given taxon in a
394 particular individual, while the thick lines show the mean abundance of each group at each time
395 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.

421

422

423 **References**

424 1. Clemente JC, Ursell LK, Parfrey LW, Knight R. The impact of the gut microbiota on human
425 health: an integrative view. *Cell* **2012**; 148:1258-70.

426 2. Caporaso JG, Lauber CL, Costello EK, et al. Moving pictures of the human microbiome.
427 *Genome biology* **2011**; 12:R50.

428 3. Faust K, Sathirapongsasuti JF, Izard J, et al. Microbial co-occurrence relationships in the
429 human microbiome. *PLoS Comput Biol* **2012**; 8:e1002606.

430 4. Grier A, McDavid A, Wang B, et al. Neonatal gut and respiratory microbiota: coordinated
431 development through time and space. *Microbiome* **2018**; 6:193.

432 5. Hofstra JJ, Matamoros S, van de Pol MA, et al. Changes in microbiota during experimental
433 human Rhinovirus infection. *BMC Infect Dis* **2015**; 15:336.

434 6. Xu Q, Wischmeyer J, Gonzalez E, Pichichero ME. Nasopharyngeal polymicrobial colonization
435 during health, viral upper respiratory infection and upper respiratory bacterial infection. *The
436 Journal of infection* **2017**; 75:26-34.

437 7. Blander JM, Longman RS, Iliev ID, Sonnenberg GF, Artis D. Regulation of inflammation by
438 microbiota interactions with the host. *Nat Immunol* **2017**; 18:851-60.

439 8. Gollwitzer ES, Saglani S, Trompette A, et al. Lung microbiota promotes tolerance to allergens
440 in neonates via PD-L1. *Nature medicine* **2014**; 20:642-7.

441 9. Olszak T, An D, Zeissig S, et al. Microbial exposure during early life has persistent effects on
442 natural killer T cell function. *Science* **2012**; 336:489-93.

443 10. Hooper LV, Littman DR, Macpherson AJ. Interactions between the microbiota and the
444 immune system. *Science* **2012**; 336:1268-73.

445 11. Man WH, de Steenhuijsen Piters WA, Bogaert D. The microbiota of the respiratory tract:
446 gatekeeper to respiratory health. *Nature reviews Microbiology* **2017**; 15:259-70.

447 12. Bosch A, de Steenhuijsen Piters WAA, van Houten MA, et al. Maturation of the Infant
448 Respiratory Microbiota, Environmental Drivers, and Health Consequences. A Prospective
449 Cohort Study. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* **2017**; 196:1582-90.

450 13. de Steenhuijsen Piters WA, Heinonen S, Hasrat R, et al. Nasopharyngeal Microbiota, Host
451 Transcriptome, and Disease Severity in Children with Respiratory Syncytial Virus Infection. *Am*
452 *J Respir Crit Care Med* **2016**; 194:1104-15.

453 14. de Steenhuijsen Piters WA, Sanders EA, Bogaert D. The role of the local microbial
454 ecosystem in respiratory health and disease. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* **2015**; 370.

455 15. Hilty M, Qi W, Brugger SD, et al. Nasopharyngeal microbiota in infants with acute otitis
456 media. *J Infect Dis* **2012**; 205:1048-55.

457 16. Pettigrew MM, Laufer AS, Gent JF, Kong Y, Fennie KP, Metlay JP. Upper respiratory tract
458 microbial communities, acute otitis media pathogens, and antibiotic use in healthy and sick
459 children. *Applied and environmental microbiology* **2012**; 78:6262-70.

460 17. Hall CB, Weinberg GA, Blumkin AK, et al. Respiratory syncytial virus-associated
461 hospitalizations among children less than 24 months of age. *Pediatrics* **2013**; 132:e341-8.

462 18. Stockman LJ, Curns AT, Anderson LJ, Fischer-Langley G. Respiratory syncytial virus-
463 associated hospitalizations among infants and young children in the United States, 1997-2006.
464 *Pediatr Infect Dis J* **2012**; 31:5-9.

465 19. Tregoning JS, Schwarze J. Respiratory viral infections in infants: causes, clinical symptoms,
466 virology, and immunology. *Clin Microbiol Rev* **2010**; 23:74-98.

467 20. Boyce TG, Mellen BG, Mitchel EF, Jr., Wright PF, Griffin MR. Rates of hospitalization for
468 respiratory syncytial virus infection among children in medicaid. *The Journal of pediatrics* **2000**;
469 137:865-70.

470 21. Garcia CG, Bhore R, Soriano-Fallas A, et al. Risk factors in children hospitalized with RSV
471 bronchiolitis versus non-RSV bronchiolitis. *Pediatrics* **2010**; 126:e1453-60.

472 22. Glezen WP, Taber LH, Frank AL, Kasel JA. Risk of primary infection and reinfection with
473 respiratory syncytial virus. *Am J Dis Child* **1986**; 140:543-6.

474 23. Proud D, Chow CW. Role of viral infections in asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary
475 disease. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol* **2006**; 35:513-8.

476 24. Fonseca W, Lukacs NW, Ptaschinski C. Factors Affecting the Immunity to Respiratory
477 Syncytial Virus: From Epigenetics to Microbiome. *Front Immunol* **2018**; 9:226.

478 25. Teo SM, Mok D, Pham K, et al. The infant nasopharyngeal microbiome impacts severity of
479 lower respiratory infection and risk of asthma development. *Cell host & microbe* **2015**; 17:704-
480 15.

481 26. Rosas-Salazar C, Shilts MH, Tovchigrechko A, et al. Differences in the Nasopharyngeal
482 Microbiome During Acute Respiratory Tract Infection With Human Rhinovirus and Respiratory
483 Syncytial Virus in Infancy. *J Infect Dis* **2016**; 214:1924-8.

484 27. Biesbroek G, Tsivtsivadze E, Sanders EA, et al. Early respiratory microbiota composition
485 determines bacterial succession patterns and respiratory health in children. *Am J Respir Crit
486 Care Med* **2014**; 190:1283-92.

487 28. Lynch JP, Sikder MA, Curren BF, et al. The Influence of the Microbiome on Early-Life
488 Severe Viral Lower Respiratory Infections and Asthma-Food for Thought? *Front Immunol* **2017**;
489 8:156.

490 29. Walsh EE, Mariani TJ, Chu C, et al. Aims, Study Design, and Enrollment Results From the
491 Assessing Predictors of Infant Respiratory Syncytial Virus Effects and Severity Study. *JMIR Res*
492 *Protoc* **2019**; 8:e12907.

493 30. Bolyen E, Rideout JR, Dillon MR, et al. Reproducible, interactive, scalable and extensible
494 microbiome data science using QIIME 2. *Nat Biotechnol* **2019**; 37:852-7.

495 31. Callahan BJ, McMurdie PJ, Rosen MJ, Han AW, Johnson AJ, Holmes SP. DADA2: High-
496 resolution sample inference from Illumina amplicon data. *Nature methods* **2016**; 13:581-3.

497 32. DeSantis TZ, Hugenholtz P, Larsen N, et al. Greengenes, a chimera-checked 16S rRNA
498 gene database and workbench compatible with ARB. *Applied and environmental microbiology*
499 **2006**; 72:5069-72.

500 33. McDonald D, Price MN, Goodrich J, et al. An improved Greengenes taxonomy with explicit
501 ranks for ecological and evolutionary analyses of bacteria and archaea. *The ISME journal* **2012**;
502 6:610-8.

503 34. Hawinkel S, Mattiello F, Bijnens L, Thas O. A broken promise: microbiome differential
504 abundance methods do not control the false discovery rate. *Brief Bioinform* **2019**; 20:210-21.

505 35. Weiss S, Xu ZZ, Peddada S, et al. Normalization and microbial differential abundance
506 strategies depend upon data characteristics. *Microbiome* **2017**; 5:27.

507 36. Caserta MT, Qiu X, Tesini B, et al. Development of a Global Respiratory Severity Score for
508 Respiratory Syncytial Virus Infection in Infants. *J Infect Dis* **2017**; 215:750-6.

509

Table 1A
Summary Characteristics of Cross-Sectional Cohort

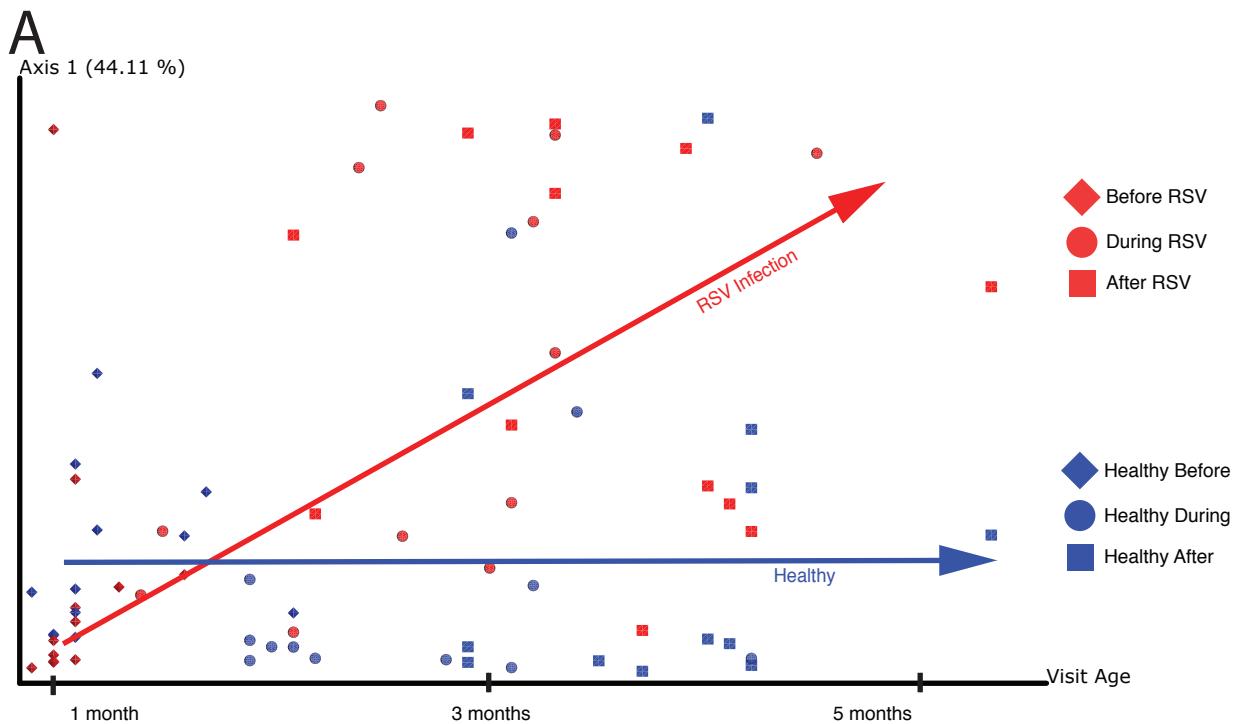
Variables (mean \pm SD or N)	Aggregate (N=191)	Control (N=102)	Case (N=89)
Sex (Male/Female)	105/86	61/41	44/45
Mode of Delivery (Vaginal/C-section)	128/63	68/34	60/29
Gestational Age at Birth (Weeks)	39.23 \pm 1.17	39.27 \pm 1.13	39.18 \pm 1.23
Age at Sampling (Months)	3.09 \pm 2.21	3.01 \pm 2.19	3.18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

Table 1B
Summary Characteristics of Longitudinal Cohort

Variables (mean \pm SD or N)	Aggregate (N=24)	Control (N=12)	Case (N=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 \pm 1.05	39.58 \pm 0.90	38.75 \pm 1.06
Age at Initial Sampling (Months)	1.18 \pm 0.29	1.26 \pm 0.36	1.10 \pm 0.19
Age at Second Sampling (Months)	2.70 \pm 0.79	2.65 \pm 0.76	2.74 \pm 0.86
Age at Final Sampling (Months)	3.67 \pm 0.80	3.83 \pm 0.70	3.51 \pm 0.89
Severity Score	0.89 \pm 1.30	0 \pm 0	1.77 \pm 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 Ill 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	-	+	-	(+)

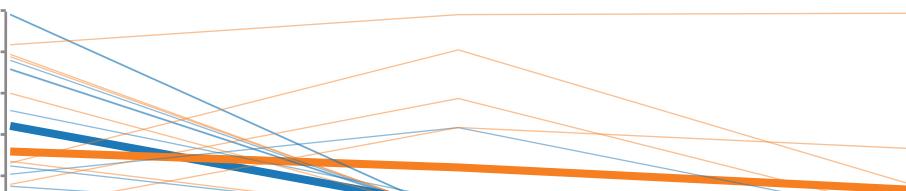


Healthy

Sick

A**Staphylococcus**

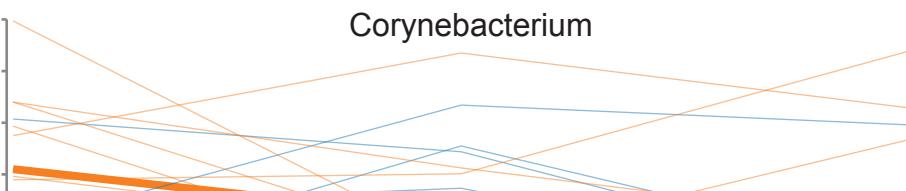
Relative Abundance

**B****Gammaproteobacteria**

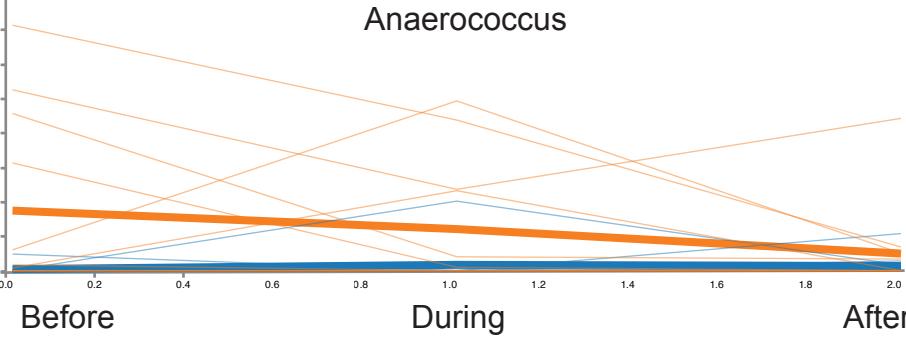
Relative Abundance

**C****Corynebacterium**

Relative Abundance

**Anaerococcus**

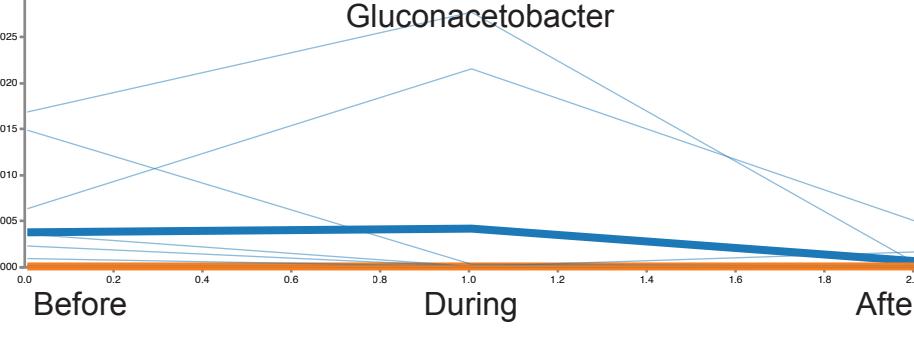
Relative Abundance

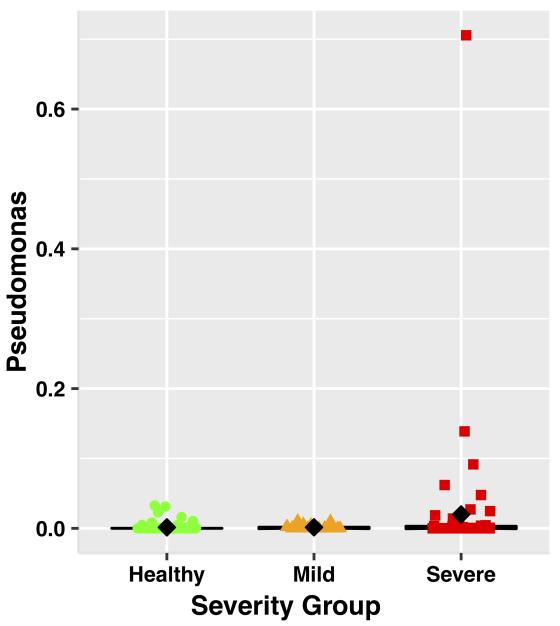
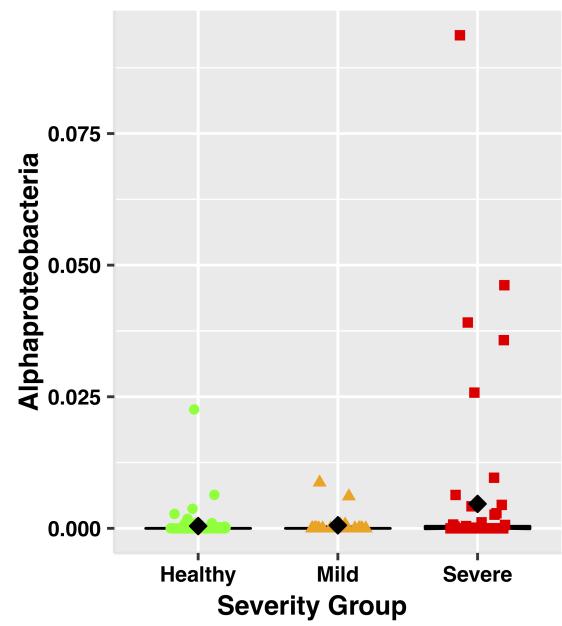
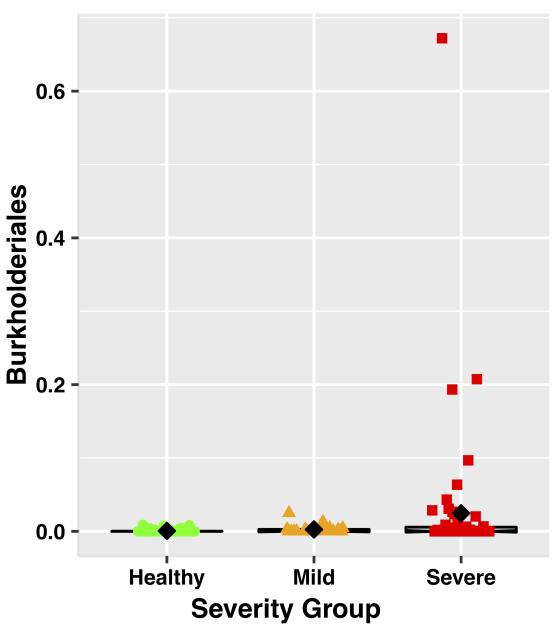
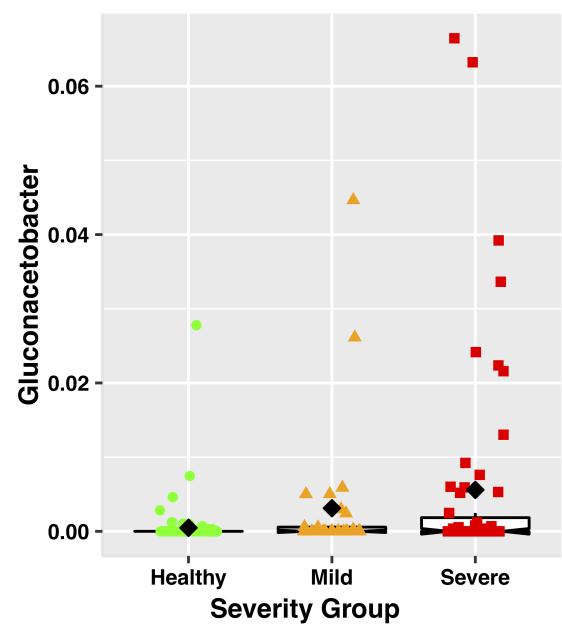
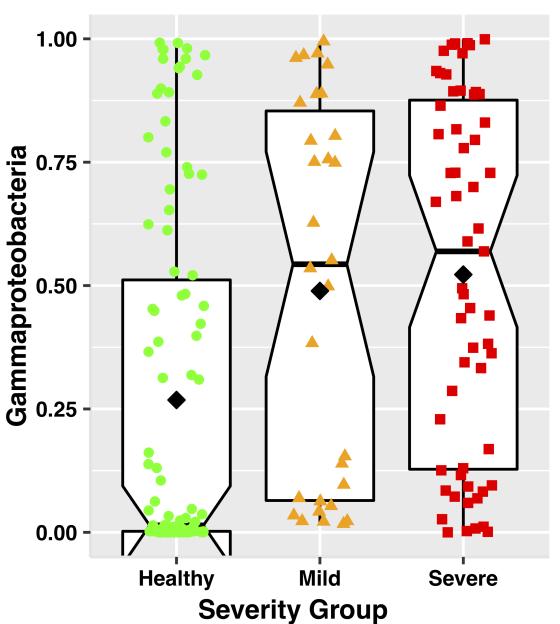
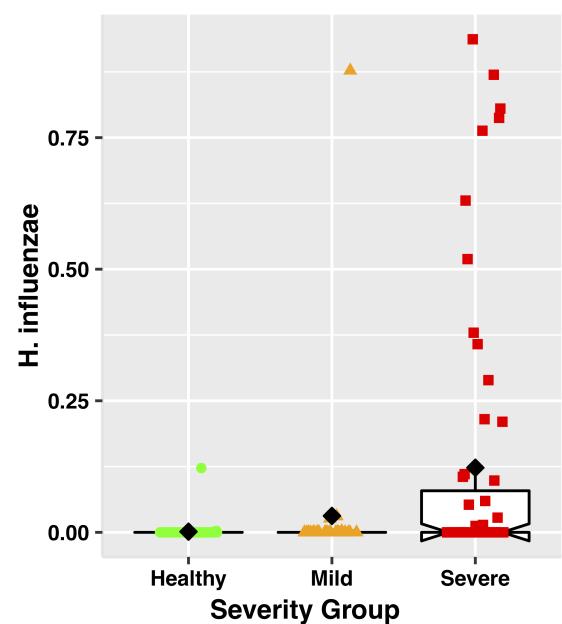
**D****Betaproteobacteria**

Relative Abundance

**Gluconacetobacter**

Relative Abundance





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 MiSeq was first converted into FASTQ format 2x312 paired end sequence files using the bcl2fastq 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.

References

1. Fadrosh DW, Ma B, Gajer P, et al. An improved dual-indexing approach for multiplexed 16S rRNA gene sequencing on the Illumina MiSeq platform. *Microbiome* **2014**; 2:6.
2. Grier A, McDavid A, Wang B, et al. Neonatal gut and respiratory microbiota: coordinated development through time and space. *Microbiome* **2018**; 6:193.
3. Caporaso JG, Kuczynski J, Stombaugh J, et al. QIIME allows analysis of high-throughput community sequencing data. *Nature methods* **2010**; 7:335-6.
4. Bolyen E, Rideout JR, Dillon MR, et al. Reproducible, interactive, scalable and extensible microbiome data science using QIIME 2. *Nat Biotechnol* **2019**; 37:852-7.
5. Callahan BJ, McMurdie PJ, Rosen MJ, Han AW, Johnson AJ, Holmes SP. DADA2: High-resolution sample inference from Illumina amplicon data. *Nature methods* **2016**; 13:581-3.

6. DeSantis TZ, Hugenholtz P, Larsen N, et al. Greengenes, a chimera-checked 16S rRNA gene database and workbench compatible with ARB. *Applied and environmental microbiology* **2006**; 72:5069-72.
7. McDonald D, Price MN, Goodrich J, et al. An improved Greengenes taxonomy with explicit ranks for ecological and evolutionary analyses of bacteria and archaea. *The ISME journal* **2012**; 6:610-8.
8. Katoh K, Standley DM. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: improvements in performance and usability. *Mol Biol Evol* **2013**; 30:772-80.
9. Price MN, Dehal PS, Arkin AP. FastTree 2--approximately maximum-likelihood trees for large alignments. *PLoS one* **2010**; 5:e9490.
10. Lozupone C, Lladser ME, Knights D, Stombaugh J, Knight R. UniFrac: an effective distance metric for microbial community comparison. *The ISME journal* **2011**; 5:169-72.
11. Bokulich NA, Dillon MR, Zhang Y, et al. q2-longitudinal: Longitudinal and Paired-Sample Analyses of Microbiome Data. *mSystems* **2018**; 3.
12. Mandal S, Van Treuren W, White RA, Eggesbo M, Knight R, Peddada SD. Analysis of composition of microbiomes: a novel method for studying microbial composition. *Microb Ecol Health Dis* **2015**; 26:27663.
13. Segata N, Izard J, Waldron L, et al. Metagenomic biomarker discovery and explanation. *Genome biology* **2011**; 12:R60.
14. Morton JT, Sanders J, Quinn RA, et al. Balance Trees Reveal Microbial Niche Differentiation. *mSystems* **2017**; 2.
15. Morgan XC, Tickle TL, Sokol H, et al. Dysfunction of the intestinal microbiome in inflammatory bowel disease and treatment. *Genome biology* **2012**; 13:R79.