

1 **Trait-based community assembly and succession of the infant gut microbiome**

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8 **Abstract**

9 The human gut microbiome develops over early childhood and aids in food digestion and
10 immunomodulation, but the mechanisms driving its development remain elusive. Here we use data
11 curated from literature and online repositories to examine trait-based patterns of gut microbiome
12 succession in 56 infants over their first three years of life. We also develop a new phylogeny-based
13 approach of inferring trait values that can extend readily to other microbial systems and questions. Our
14 analysis suggests that infant gut succession begins with a functionally variable cohort of taxa, adept at
15 proliferating rapidly within hosts, which gradually matures into a more functionally uniform cohort of
16 taxa adapted to thrive in the anoxic gut and disperse between anoxic patches as oxygen-tolerant spores.
17 Trait-based composition stabilizes after the first year, while taxonomic turnover continues unabated,
18 suggesting functional redundancy. Trait-based approaches powerfully complement taxonomy-based
19 approaches to understand the mechanisms of microbial community assembly and succession.

20

21 **Introduction**

22 Classical ecological theory posits that successional patterns arise from the combined influence of
23 dispersal, species interactions, and the environment^{1,2}, and this general framework extends readily to
24 gut communities³. Before a microbe can inhabit the colon, the most distal and speciose part of the
25 gastrointestinal tract, it must first be swallowed by the host and survive the acidic conditions of the
26 stomach and small intestine (i.e., it must disperse). A species will persist in the colon only if it can
27 acquire enough resources to reproduce (i.e., it must be competitive) or arrive there in high enough
28 numbers to sustain a population⁴. Microbial colonists may then alter the environment, e.g., by depleting
29 intestinal oxygen⁵ or providing opportunities for cross-feeding⁶, favoring taxa with different phenotypes
30 as succession proceeds.

31 Yet successional patterns in the gut may differ from classical successional expectations due to
32 the active influence of the host and the host mother^{7,8}. Early colonists are passed directly from the
33 mother during or even before birth⁹, and therefore may lack characteristics that would otherwise
34 facilitate early arrival, e.g., via active dispersal, and instead have characteristics selected for in the
35 mother's gut or vaginal environment. Following birth, mothers supply bacterial growth factors in
36 breastmilk and continue to introduce new taxa through physical contact¹⁰. Meanwhile, the maturing
37 infant is beginning to suppress undesirable taxa through immune response¹¹, and actively cultivate
38 commensal taxa by providing nitrogen-rich mucus and favorable habitat in the outer mucus layer of the
39 large intestine¹². Gut community composition is also affected by the introduction of solid food¹³, in
40 particular with the introduction of insoluble fiber¹⁴.

41 Gut community successional patterns will necessarily reflect a combination of dispersal,
42 microbial species interactions, and host physiology and behavior. A present challenge is to determine
43 how the relative influence of these drivers changes over time. One approach to disentangling the
44 mechanisms of community assembly is to examine patterns in trait-based community composition¹⁵. A
45 trait, in the broadest sense, is defined as a measurable organismal characteristic directly or indirectly
46 linked to fitness or performance¹⁶. As such, observable shifts in the trait-based composition of a
47 community imply shifts in local environmental conditions favoring different species and/or dispersal
48 limitation (i.e., when a taxon does not colonize a site because it does not arrive). Despite the success
49 and proliferation of trait-based approaches to study community assembly in plant^{17,18}, animal^{19,20}, and
50 phytoplankton systems²¹, they have only rarely been used for bacterial and archaeal systems^{22,23}. This is
51 due partly to the challenges of identifying ecologically relevant traits for a functionally diverse cohort of
52 taxa, and partly to a dearth of curated trait data. But thanks to recent advances in high-throughput
53 molecular techniques, renewed efforts to directly collect phenotypic data²⁴, and the aggregation of data

54 from disparate sources^{25,26}, trait-based approaches to microbial community dynamics are becoming
55 more feasible, especially for well-studied systems like the human gut.

56 Here we examine trait-based successional patterns in a cohort of 56 infants from Finland and
57 Estonia for which longitudinal microbiome survey data were publicly available^{27,28}. We develop a unique
58 approach to inferring microbial trait data, which entails (1) building a phylogeny that contains the taxa
59 from infant gut samples and 13900 other taxa with formally described type specimens and Latin
60 binomials²⁹, (2) using the Latin binomials to map trait data curated from literature and online
61 repositories onto the tips of the phylogeny, and (3) inferring unknown trait values using hidden state
62 prediction when statistically justified. We then compare taxonomic and trait-based community turnover
63 in time (i.e., over infant development) and space (i.e., across infants) to gain insight into the
64 mechanisms driving successional patterns. We show significant trait-based shifts over the first year of
65 infant development, during which time oxygen-tolerant taxa and flagellated taxa become less abundant,
66 and slower-growing taxa and sporulating taxa become more abundant. Intriguingly, during this time,
67 microbiomes become compositionally more similar across infants. Taxonomic turnover continues after
68 the first year, but is largely redundant with respect to the traits examined. Our results suggest that
69 succession begins with a functionally variable cohort of early arrivers, adept at proliferating rapidly
70 within hosts, which gradually matures into a more functionally uniform cohort of taxa able to both
71 thrive in the anoxic gut environment and disperse between anoxic patches (e.g., guts) as oxygen-
72 tolerant spores.

73

74 **Results**

75 *Trait-based patterns of succession*

76 We observed consistent taxonomic and trait-based shifts in infant gut microbiomes during the first three
77 years of infant life (Fig. 1, Fig. 2). Early succession was dominated by Bacteroidaceae and

78 Bifidobacteriaceae (Fig. 1a,b), whereas late succession was dominated by Lachnospiraceae,
79 Ruminococcaceae, and (still) Bacteroidaceae (Fig. 1e,f). About three fourths of the operational
80 taxonomic units (OTUs) in this study, defined using a threshold of 97 percent sequence similarity in the
81 16S rRNA V4 region, exhibited significant positive or negative trends in abundance over succession
82 across all infants. The extensive number of significant trends emphasizes the taxonomically predictable
83 nature of gut microbiome development. Early and late successional specialists differed significantly in
84 their predicted trait values: late successional specialists were less tolerant of oxygen, were more capable
85 of sporulation, and had higher temperature optima than early successional specialists (Supplementary
86 Figure 1).

87 Community weighted means (CWMs) of several traits trended significantly over the course of
88 succession (Fig. 2), illustrating the functionally predictable nature of gut microbiome development³⁰. A
89 CWM is the mean trait value of the OTUs in a community, weighted by their relative abundances.
90 Ecologically speaking, CWMs characterize the dominant traits of a community, and can be thought of
91 both in terms of how they reflect system properties (i.e., as response traits) and how they influence
92 system properties (i.e., as effect traits)³¹. For example, oxygen-tolerant taxa (e.g., facultative anaerobes)
93 present at the onset of succession were rapidly overtaken by obligate anaerobes (Fig. 2i), presumably in
94 response to a drop in gut oxygen concentration due to increased uptake by epithelial cells³². Meanwhile,
95 the mean number of B-vitamin pathways present per cell decreased over time (Fig. 2b), contradicting
96 our expectation that human hosts would selectively enrich such taxa over the course of succession to
97 promote the production of these essential nutrients.

98 Pronounced shifts in two traits potentially related to dispersal ability suggest that dispersal
99 dynamics may play a key role in shaping successional patterns. First, the initial presence and subsequent
100 decline of taxa with flagella (Fig. 2h) could mean that the ability to actively disperse over short distances
101 (i.e., spread within hosts) improves colonization rates during early succession, but that flagella are not as

102 advantageous in the mature gut. In support of this, unflagellated strains have been shown to be poorer
103 colonizers of chickens' gastrointestinal tracts than flagellated strains³³, and a positive relationship has
104 been drawn between motility and bacterial transmission³⁴. Second, the increase in sporulating taxa over
105 time (Fig. 2j, Supplementary Figure 3) may reflect the long-term advantages of being able to disperse
106 among hosts and/or persist within hosts in a dormant state during stressful conditions^{24,35}. As succession
107 proceeds and the gut environment becomes increasingly anoxic, obligate anaerobes gain a competitive
108 advantage over facultative anaerobes because they do not need to maintain the machinery for
109 tolerating oxidative stress. However, this advantage comes at the cost of being more vulnerable to
110 oxidative stress while dispersing through oxic environments to colonize new hosts. Sporulating taxa
111 circumvent this potential tradeoff by traversing oxic environments as oxygen-tolerant spores, and then
112 thriving in the gut as obligate anaerobes. The observed increase of sporulating taxa over gut community
113 development, both in total abundance (Fig. 2j) and OTU richness (Supplementary Figure 3), likely reflects
114 the steady arrival and successful colonization of these taxa well-adapted for the anoxic gut environment.

115 The mean number of 16S rRNA gene copies, a genomic trait associated with the ability to quickly
116 exploit available resources due to higher maximum potential growth rates³⁶, decreased steadily in gut
117 microbiomes over time (Fig. 2a). A decrease in mean 16S rRNA gene copy number over time is
118 characteristic of primary succession in microbial systems that are initially rich in resources⁸, such as a
119 vial of sterile nutrient broth placed in an open-air environment³⁷. However, a decrease in mean 16S
120 rRNA gene copy number could also arise if faster-growing taxa thrive on easily-digested milk or formula,
121 the primary carbon source during early succession, and slower-growing taxa only begin to thrive as the
122 primary carbon source shifts towards increasingly complex molecules derived from solid food. In either
123 case, the decrease in mean 16s rRNA gene copy number over time likely reflects a shift from taxa
124 capable of rapid low-efficiency growth to slower high-efficiency growth over succession^{23,38}.

125 Many traits correlated significantly among taxa (Supplementary Figure 2). The strongest positive
126 correlations were between gene number and genome size, genome size and B-vitamin pathway number,
127 and sporulation and Gram-positive status, while the strongest negative correlations were between
128 optimal growth temperature and oxygen tolerance, Gram-positive status and B-vitamin pathway
129 number, and GC content and 16S rRNA gene copy number. The remaining Pearson correlation
130 coefficients were less than 0.6 or greater than -0.6. On one hand, correlations among traits are
131 noteworthy because they may be independent indicators of a taxon's position on the same ecological
132 tradeoff axis (i.e., they may constitute a trait syndrome). For example, the negative correlation observed
133 between sporulation score and oxygen tolerance represent two approaches for dealing with oxidative
134 stress, either by becoming metabolically dormant until oxidative stress is relaxed, or by carrying the
135 cellular machinery to tolerate it. On the other hand, correlations among traits may simply be artifacts of
136 arbitrary genomic linkage, and not evidence of evolutionary adaptation. As such, the mechanisms we
137 invoke as possible explanations for the trait-based patterns observed in this study are merely
138 hypotheses which hopefully spur further experimental work.

139 To explore how early exposure to different taxa could affect the trajectory of gut succession, we
140 compared trait-based successional patterns of infants delivered vaginally and by C-section (Fig. 3). We
141 reasoned that any consistent community differences between the two groups of infants would likely
142 arise due to differences in early colonization, i.e., because infants born vaginally were initially colonized
143 by taxa from the mother during delivery, and infants born by C-section were initially colonized by a
144 different cohort of taxa arriving from the ambient environment (e.g., the mother's skin, hospital
145 surfaces). Notable trait-based differences between the microbiomes in C-section infants, relative to
146 those in vaginally delivered infants, were initially elevated numbers of Gram-positive taxa (Fig. 3f), and
147 prolonged persistence of oxygen-tolerant taxa (Fig. 3i). There were also initially elevated mean 16S rRNA
148 gene copy numbers (Fig. 3a) and initially higher prevalence of flagellated taxa (Fig. 3h) in C-section

149 infants, relative to vaginally born infants, but these differences were not statistically significant after
150 accounting for multiple comparisons. At minimum, these results suggest that taxa encountered by
151 infants during vaginal delivery are functionally distinct from those encountered by infants after C-section
152 delivery in the hospital environment. More interestingly, however, they suggest that gut colonization
153 patterns differ depending on the composition of the initial pool of colonizing taxa. Significant trait-based
154 compositional differences by birth mode persisted for up to two years (Fig 3i), corroborating previous
155 research showing that differences in early colonization can have lasting effects on community
156 composition^{39,40}, a phenomenon also termed priority effects^{41,42}. On the other hand, sustained trait-
157 based differences between infants by delivery mode are surprising given recent work which found
158 strong selective forces to quickly discourage the growth of immigrant taxa from the mother's skin or
159 birth canal⁴³; hence, our findings suggest that the persistent differences by birth mode may result from a
160 lack of arrival (i.e., dispersal limitation) of gut-adapted taxa from the mother, rather than qualitatively
161 different community filters among infants.

162 Exposure to antibiotics was associated with consistent trait-based shifts in gut microbiome
163 composition (Fig. 3). Specifically, infants exposed to repeated antibiotic treatments had gut taxa that
164 were on average less likely to be Gram-positive (Fig. 3f), smaller (Fig. 3g), and less capable of sporulation
165 (Fig. 3j) than infants exposed to no antibiotics. Decreases in the relative abundances of Gram-positive
166 taxa over time is arguably expected given that Gram-positive taxa lack the protective outer membrane
167 that make Gram-negative bacteria generally more resistant to antibiotics⁴⁴. The drop in mean
168 sporulation score is less expected, given that spores are generally very resistant to antibiotics²⁴.
169 However, spore formation is far from the only mechanism of antibiotic tolerance in Bacteria, and other
170 strategies may be more effective for survival in the gut environment. For instance, antibiotic treatments
171 usually result in decreases in the relative abundances of spore-forming taxa in the class Clostridia, and
172 increases in the relative abundances of non-spore-forming taxa in the family Enterobacteriaceae³². More

173 generally, consistent with prior work⁴⁵, the persistent differences in trait-based community composition
174 between infants that underwent heavy antibiotic treatments and those that did not suggests that these
175 disturbances can exert long-term effects on community structure and function.

176 Trait variances within infant gut communities decreased over time in seven traits, and increased
177 over time only in three traits (Supplementary Figure 4). The overall decrease in trait-based variance over
178 time indicates that individuals of the gut community became more functionally homogeneous as the
179 infants matured, perhaps due to increasingly strict environmental filtering processes⁴⁶ and/or
180 competitive exclusion of poorly adapted taxa⁴⁷.

181

182 *Comparing taxonomic and trait-based successional patterns*

183 To evaluate the degree to which taxonomic changes aligned with trait-based changes, we compared
184 taxonomic and trait-based turnover over time within infants, both in terms of short-term compositional
185 variability (measured as the dissimilarity between subsequent samples) and directional turnover
186 (measured as the dissimilarity between each sample and the final sample collected). Compositional
187 variability was higher in the first year of development, both in terms of OTUs (Fig. 4a) and traits (Fig. 4c),
188 than in the second or third years of development. A decrease in compositional variability over time is a
189 classical feature of many ecological successional systems⁴⁸. To evaluate whether trait-based
190 compositional variability was higher or lower than expected by chance, given the magnitudes of
191 taxonomic variability observed, we compared observed patterns to predictions from null model
192 simulations for which trait values were randomly shuffled among taxa and trait-based compositional
193 variability was re-calculated (see Methods). In other words, we calculated what trait-based
194 compositional variability would look like if the traits in our study were completely decoupled from taxon
195 performance. Differences between observed and null predictions were neither large nor significant (Fig.

196 4c), suggesting that the traits in our study had little influence on compositional variability over
197 succession.

198 An analysis of directional turnover over succession revealed that infant gut communities
199 matured and stabilized faster in their trait-based compositions than in their OTU-based compositions.
200 Specifically, OTU-based directional turnover was relatively steady across all three years of study (Fig.
201 4b), whereas trait-based directional turnover was high only in the first year (Fig. 4d) before dropping to
202 nearly-baseline levels of trait-based compositional variability (Fig 4c). Trait-based directional turnover
203 significantly exceeded null model predictions of trait-agnostic turnover (Fig. 4d), suggesting that infant
204 gut microbiomes stabilize (i.e., cease to exhibit directional turnover) in terms of traits and their
205 associated functions sooner than they stabilize in terms of OTUs, aligning with previous metagenomic
206 work³⁰. The fact that OTU-based directional turnover was steady over all three years of infant
207 development despite early convergence in trait-based community composition indicates that late-stage
208 OTU-based turnover was of OTUs that were functionally redundant, at least with respect to the traits
209 examined in this study. Functionally redundant turnover could arise due to variable immigration rates
210 (i.e., if different functionally redundant taxa immigrated into the gut at variable rates over time), or due
211 to ecological drift (i.e., changes in the relative abundances of taxa through stochastic birth/death
212 events). With respect to the latter: even though the gut community has a large number of individuals,
213 which, all else being equal, makes it less susceptible to ecological drift⁴⁹, many of its constituent taxa are
214 rare and therefore still vulnerable to stochastic variation in their relative population sizes over time.
215 Future work should quantify immigration rates, and consider other traits as potential drivers of late-
216 stage successional community turnover, such as those relating to metabolism of specific dietary
217 compounds⁵⁰, cross-feeding⁶, or phage-host interactions⁵¹.

218

219 *Compositional differences across microbiomes*

220 Surprisingly, gut community compositions became more similar (i.e., converged) across infants as they
221 aged (Fig. 5). This ran counter to our expectations that gut community compositions would diverge as
222 infants shifted from subsisting on milk and/or formula (i.e., simple substrates with low resource
223 variability expected among hosts) to solid foods (i.e., complex substrates with higher resource variability
224 expected among hosts), and as interactions between infants and their idiosyncratic home environments
225 accumulated over time. Compositional convergence across infants over development may reflect a
226 process whereby a stochastic cohort of initial taxa colonize infants but are gradually replaced, or
227 supplemented with, taxa better suited for the gut environment. Such initial compositional differences
228 among infants could be generated by stochastic colonization dynamics, differences in the pool of
229 potential immigrants from the infants' mothers, or a combination of the both. Regardless, it is likely that
230 gut community convergence over infant development is partly due to the delayed arrival of taxa well-
231 adapted for the gut environment, i.e., dispersal limitation. Future experimental work should quantify
232 the relative importance of dispersal dynamics and niche availability in driving compositional
233 convergence over time.

234 Compositional convergence among infant gut communities was more pronounced and abrupt in
235 terms of traits (Fig. 5b) than in OTUs (Fig. 5a), which converged only slightly and gradually over time.

236 Trait-based rates of convergence significantly exceeded null model expectations of trait-agnostic
237 convergence (Fig. 5b), indicating that trait-based convergence was not random with respect to the traits
238 examined in this study. This discrepancy between OTU-based and trait-based patterns of convergence
239 among infants leads to two insights. First, it is another reminder that microbial communities with
240 different OTU-based compositions do not necessarily differ in their functional potentials^{30,52}. Second, it
241 means that community succession can be more predictable with respect to traits than OTUs. Together,
242 these results indicate that OTU-based turnover over late succession is largely functionally redundant

243 with respect to the traits examined. Functional redundancy among gut microbiome taxa may benefit the
244 host by improving community resilience in response to disturbance⁵³. Interestingly, mean compositional
245 differences among infants born by C-section were, on average, greater both in terms of OTU-based and
246 trait-based dissimilarity (Supplementary Figure 5). Such differences could arise if the taxa to which C-
247 section infants are initially exposed are more taxonomically and functionally variable than the taxa to
248 which vaginally delivered infants are exposed.

249

250 **Discussion**

251 As in the ecological studies of macroorganisms, trait-based analysis of gut microbiome succession offers
252 insights into the mechanisms of community assembly, such as dispersal limitation and ecological
253 filtering, and the balance between stochastic and deterministic forces. The stabilization of trait-based
254 community composition after the first year of development (Fig. 4), and the drop in variance of
255 community trait values for most traits over time (Supplementary Figure 4), both suggest that succession
256 is at least partially functionally deterministic, with early dynamics potentially reflecting stochastic
257 colonization during the birthing process, followed by the gradual colonization and enrichment of a more
258 functionally uniform cohort of taxa better adapted for the mature gut environment. Rates of OTU-based
259 directional turnover remained steady over the first three years of succession (Fig. 4b), even though trait-
260 based directional turnover essentially stabilized after only one year (Fig. 4d), underscoring the fact that
261 OTU-based compositional changes need not imply changes in trait-based composition⁵⁴. However, there
262 are surely aspects of community assembly that cannot be understood using only the traits used in this
263 study, and future work should expand the number of traits considered. Moreover, because our study is
264 observational, we cannot distinguish between an OTU that fails to disperse to a potential host and an
265 OTU that arrives but fails to establish, so future research should also explore the relationship between

266 OTU arrival and detection in fecal samples to better disentangle dispersal limitation and niched-based
267 differences among taxa.

268 Comparisons of trait-based patterns between cohorts of infants are an opportunity to
269 understand the effects of specific events (e.g., delivery mode, antibiotic exposure), and serve as natural
270 experiments that can reveal how gut communities respond to, and recover from, systematic
271 disturbances. In our analysis, for example, delivery mode resulted in sustained differences in community
272 composition, indicating that priority effects can play an important role in gut community assembly^{41,42}, a
273 result that likely extends to other types of disturbance during early life, such as gastrointestinal illness or
274 malnutrition. Similarly, repeated antibiotics treatments led to significant differences in trait-based
275 community composition (Fig. 3), suggesting that gut communities are not infinitely functionally resistant
276 and/or that tradeoffs exist between antibiotic resistance and other traits⁵². Understanding trait-based
277 differences between other cohorts, such as healthy vs. diseased⁵⁵, or on and off specific diets⁵⁶, could
278 provide insight into additional factors shaping gut microbiome community assembly. For example, the
279 unhealthy, dysbiotic gut may have a higher prevalence of microaerobic and biofilm-forming species⁵⁷, a
280 difference that could be detected using trait-based analyses. Trait-based approaches, which link
281 organismal structures to ecological functions, are poised to advance our mechanistic understanding of
282 the gut microbiome, and their usefulness will only increase as we improve our knowledge of how traits
283 mediate microbial interactions and as we increase the depth and breadth of microbial trait databases.

284

285 **Methods**

286 *Infant microbiome sampling and sequence processing*

287 Our foremost aim in this study was to characterize general patterns of gut primary succession that hold
288 true regardless of host-related differences. As such, unless otherwise noted, we include all infants in our
289 analyses, regardless of delivery mode or other host differences specific to each included study.

290 Longitudinal infant gut microbiome data were compiled from two studies from the DIABIMMUNE study
291 group (<https://pubs.broadinstitute.org/diabimmune>), one focused on the effects of antibiotics on gut
292 community development²⁸, and the other focused on the effects of type-1 diabetes on gut community
293 development²⁷. In the antibiotics study, infants either had nine or more antibiotic on gut community
294 development courses, or no antibiotic courses²⁸. In the type-1 diabetes study, infants tested positive for
295 HLA DR-DQ alleles conferring risk of type-1 diabetes; of the infants which met our sampling criteria (see
296 below), three developed type-1 diabetes during the sampling period²⁷.

297 Stool samples of infants were collected by participants' parents and stored in their house
298 freezers until the next scheduled visit to the local study center. Samples were then shipped on dry ice to
299 the DIABIMMUNE Core Laboratory, where they were stored at -80°C until being sent to the Broad
300 Institute for DNA extraction and 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing. Sequencing was performed on the
301 Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform using the 515F and 806R primers. Of 74 infants across the two studies,
302 only those with at least 12 samples and those which extended more than 30 months were used in this
303 study, yielding 56 infants with 12 - 36 sampling points (mean = 26.45; median = 27) taken at semi-
304 regular intervals over the first 3 years of infant life (Supplementary Figure 6). All subjects were from
305 Finland, except one from Estonia.

306 Infants varied in their modes of delivery and antibiotic histories, providing an opportunity to
307 explore the potential effects of these natural experiments on trait-based gut community composition.
308 To this end, infants were divided into three groups: 1) High antibiotic exposure (N = 18), if they
309 underwent at least 50 days of antibiotic treatment and were delivered vaginally, 2) C-section delivery (N
310 = 6), if they were delivered by C-section and underwent two or fewer rounds of antibiotics, and 3) a
311 control group that was delivered vaginally and received no antibiotic treatments (N = 18). In some
312 instances, antibiotic treatment durations were not reported, in which case we assumed seven days per
313 treatment. Twelve types of antibiotics were administered for a variety of ailments, with the most

314 common being amoxicillin, trimethoprim and sulfadiazine aimed at treating acute ear infections. Infant
315 metadata, drawn from the two studies from which sequence data for this study are drawn^{27,28}, is
316 available in Supplementary Data 1.

317 Sequence processing was done using USEARCH version 10.0.240⁵⁸. Raw sequencing data were
318 downloaded from the DIABIMMUNE website <https://pubs.broadinstitute.org/diabimmune/>. Chimeras
319 and reads flagged with more than one error were excluded, and the remaining reads were truncated to
320 250 bp, the expected overlap when using 515F and 806R primers. Reads were clustered into operational
321 taxonomic units (OTUs) at 97 percent sequence identity using the UPARSE-OTU algorithm
322 (Supplementary Data 2). Representative sequences from each OTU were mapped to the SILVA v123
323 database⁵⁹ to determine potential taxonomic identities (Supplementary Data 3). To avoid bias in
324 sampling effort, samples were rarefied to 5000 sequences, and seven samples with fewer than 5000
325 sequences were removed.

326

327 *Assembling trait data*

328 We compiled data on 16 genomic, physiological, and life history traits of bacteria from public databases
329 and individual studies (Table 1, Supplementary Data 4). All trait data were associated with taxa with full
330 Latin binomials (i.e., Genus and Species labels) that appeared either in the SILVA-derived taxonomy file
331 for the combined gut community samples or in the curated taxonomy file from the 132 release of the
332 Living Tree Project²⁹. Altogether, these amounted to 57,543 collected trait data spread across 10,906
333 taxa. When a taxon had more than one trait value, the mean or mode was used, depending on whether
334 the trait was quantified continuously or discretely.

335 Descriptions and data sources for each trait are listed briefly in Table 1, but here we elaborate
336 with a few additional details: 1) The numbers of B-vitamin synthesis pathways in the genome were
337 drawn from ref. 60 and are based on genome annotations from the pubSEED platform⁶¹. 2) In some

338 cases, optimal temperature was calculated as the mean of lower and upper temperature ranges,
339 consistent with ref. 26. 3) IgA binding affinity refers to the degree that immunoglobulin A bound to
340 specific bacterial taxa, and was quantified using an IgA coating index calculated in ref. 62 using flow-
341 cytometry-based bacterial cell sorting and 16S rRNA sequencing to characterize the coating load of IgA
342 on specific taxa from fecal samples in a murine model. 4) Sporulation score indicates the tendency of
343 taxa to sporulate, and was calculated in ref. 24 as a continuous score ranging from zero to one that
344 depended on a combination of targeted phenotypic culturing and whole-genome sequencing from stool
345 samples. When possible, we used sporulation scores from ref. 24. When sporulation scores from ref. 24
346 were unavailable for a given Latin binomial, we drew on sporulation data from other repositories (Table
347 1), which were generally binary, either noting the presence or absence of spores; when spores were
348 present, taxa were given sporulation scores of 0.549, equal to the median sporulation score of taxa with
349 sporulation scores greater than zero in ref. 24; when spores were not observed, taxa were given
350 sporulation scores of zero.

351

352 *Predicting unknown trait data*

353 We estimated unknown phenotypes and genotypes using hidden state prediction methods based on
354 phylogenetic inference (Supplementary Data 5). Specifically, we generated a phylogenetic tree with the
355 3,311 OTUs from our USEARCH pipeline (before any taxa were lost due to rarefying) and the 13,900
356 OTUs from the 132 release of the Living Tree Project (LTP)²⁹ (Supplementary Figure 7; Supplementary
357 Data 6). The topology of the tree reflects percent sequence similarity among taxa in the 16S rRNA V4
358 region, and was generated using agglomerative clustering of a distance matrix based on the U-sort
359 heuristic⁵⁸. Because LTP representative sequences were of the entire 16S rRNA gene (i.e., the ribosomal
360 small subunit), they were truncated to the 250 bp of the V4 region using 515F and 806R primers before
361 generating the distance matrix. Trait data were then mapped onto the tips of the phylogenetic tree with

362 Latin binomials. The LTP database was uniquely well-suited to interface with literature-derived trait data
363 because each sequence represents a type strain with Genus and Species annotations drawn from the
364 literature, not inferred phylogenetically.

365 Missing trait values were estimated using three hidden state prediction algorithms: independent
366 contrasts, subtree averaging, and weighted squared-change parsimony, each calculated using the R
367 package Castor version 1.3.4⁶³. The three methods have different strengths and weaknesses^{63,64}, but
368 their predictions correlated strongly (Supplementary Table 1), lending confidence to our results. We
369 ultimately used weighted square-change parsimony for our analysis, which recursively calculates locally
370 parsimonious states for each node based on its descending subtree, until reaching a parsimonious state
371 estimate for the tree root⁶⁵. Because all trait values were either numeric or converted to numeric (e.g.,
372 Gram-negative = 0 and Gram-positive = 1), state predictions for discrete traits could be fractional (e.g., a
373 Gram-positive score of 0.5), reflecting their probabilistic uncertainty.

374 Methods of hidden state prediction offer estimates for all taxa with hidden states, even when
375 there is not sufficient confidence to warrant estimation. To mitigate this, we examined how trait
376 dissimilarity varied with increasing phylogenetic distance, and only used predictions when there were
377 closely-related taxa with known trait values (refer to Supplementary Figure 8 for a graphical depiction of
378 the approach. Specifically, for each trait, the phylogenetic tree was pruned such that only OTUs (i.e.,
379 tree tips) that could be linked to direct trait observations remained. Next, differences in trait values and
380 phylogenetic distance (i.e., percent 16S rRNA V4 sequence similarity) were calculated for all OTU pairs.
381 In some cases, the number of OTU pairs was prohibitively large, in which cases only 10,000 pairs were
382 randomly selected at each 0.005 increment of phylogenetic distance. Five generic models were then
383 used to predict trait differences, $|y|$, as a function of phylogenetic distance, x , and the best fitting model
384 of trait evolution was selected by AIC. The models included: (1) Null: $|y| \sim 1$; (2) Linear regression: $|y| \sim$
385 x ; (3) Logarithmic regression: $|y| \sim \log(x)$; (4) Asymptotic regression: $|y| \sim a(1 - e^{(-e^b x)})$, where a

386 and b were determined using a self-starting nonlinear least squares approach, and the model fit was
387 constrained to pass through the origin; and (5) Logistic regression: $|y| \sim \frac{a}{1+e^{(\frac{b-x}{c})}}$, where a , b , and c
388 were determined using a self-starting nonlinear least squares approach. Null models provided the best
389 fit for aggregation score, IgA binding affinity, pH optimum, and salt optimum, indicating that for these
390 traits trait data should not be estimated at any phylogenetic distance. For the remaining 12 traits, trait
391 predictions were used only when taxa associated with direct trait observations occurred within trait-
392 specific thresholds of phylogenetic distance; we defined these thresholds as the points at which model
393 predictions rose to 90 percent of null expectations (Table 2, Supplementary Figure 8). Null expectations
394 equaled the mean trait-based differences of all OTU pairs with more than 0.1 phylogenetic distance
395 between them, for each trait. Overall, for the traits that were amenable to hidden state prediction, this
396 approach yielded trait predictions for 78.7 percent (16S rRNA gene copy number) to 99.9 percent
397 (Temperature optimum) of sequences used in this study (Supplementary Figure 9). We assessed
398 statistical independence among traits predictions using Pearson correlation coefficients; p-values were
399 adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.

400

401 *Trait-based successional patterns within and across infants*

402 Trait-based successional patterns were evaluated at both the OTU-level and the community-
403 level (i.e., on the level of individual samples). For the OTU-level analysis, OTUs were assigned one of
404 three successional stages based on results of linear models of OTU abundances over time across all
405 infants: early successional OTUs were defined as those with statistically significant negative trends in
406 abundance over time ($p < 0.05, \beta < 0$); late successional OTUs were defined as those with positive trends
407 in abundance over time ($p < 0.05, \beta > 0$); otherwise, taxa were combined into a single category which
408 included OTUs with sporadic, unvarying, or hump-shaped patterns of abundance over time. Statistical

409 differences in the trait values of OTUs in the three groups were evaluated with Welch t-tests; p-values
410 were adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.

411 Trait-based differences at the community level were quantified using CWMs. A CWM is the
412 mean trait value of the species or OTUs in a community, weighted by their abundances. Here, a CWM is
413 formally equal to $\sum_{i=1}^S p_i x_i$, where p_i is the abundance of OTU i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, S$), and x_i is the trait value
414 for OTU i . We used Welch t-tests to test for differences in CWMs between infants treated with and
415 without antibiotics, and infants delivered by C-section and vaginally, for each six-month period of infant
416 development; p-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg
417 procedure.

418

419 *Comparison of taxonomic and trait-based turnover*

420 We quantified differences in microbiome community compositions in two ways. First, we used Bray-
421 Curtis dissimilarity to quantify differences in the OTU-based compositions of samples⁶⁶. Second, we
422 quantified trait-based differences among communities with multidimensional Euclidean distance⁶⁷.
423 Specifically, Euclidean distance between two communities was calculated by (1) scaling trait values by
424 their standard deviations to give each trait equal weight, (2) calculating the CWMs of each trait for both
425 communities, and then (3) using the Pythagorean theorem to determine the distance between the two
426 communities in n-dimensional trait space.

427 We examined OTU-based and trait-based community changes over time in two ways. First, to
428 quantify changes in short-term compositional variability over infant development, we examined
429 compositional differences of subsequent samples from the same infant, at intervals approximately
430 between one to three months. Second, to quantify rates of directional turnover over infant
431 development, we examined compositional differences between samples and the final sample from each
432 infant. To determine whether trait-based rates of compositional variability and directional turnover

433 exceeded those expected by chance, we compared observed rates of trait-based turnover to null models
434 of trait-agnostic community change. Specifically, we generated 1000 mock versions of our data with trait
435 values randomly shuffled among OTUs, and recalculating pairwise sample dissimilarities. In other words,
436 null models reflect what trait-based turnover would have been if organismal traits were unrelated to
437 performance. We tested for statistical differences between observed and null turnover rates within six-
438 month periods using Welch t-tests.

439 To determine if community composition converged or diverged across infants as development
440 progressed, we divided samples into one-month slices and calculated mean OTU-based and trait-based
441 distances for all pairwise combinations of samples, excluding pairs of samples from the same infant. To
442 determine whether observed rates of trait-based compositional convergence/divergence across infants
443 differed from those expected by chance, we compared our observations to null models of trait-agnostic
444 community changes over time. Similar to our analysis of trait-based turnover within infants, null models
445 were performed by randomly shuffling trait values among OTUs and recalculating pairwise sample
446 dissimilarities. We tested for statistical differences between observed and null model rates of
447 convergence within six-month periods using Welch t-tests.

448

449 *Data availability*

450 Raw sequencing data are available online at the NCBI project accession numbers PRJNA231909
451 [<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/?term=PRJNA231909>] and PRJNA290381
452 [<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/?term=PRJNA290381>]. Custom scripts used in the
453 bioinformatic pipeline and statistical analyses are available at
454 https://github.com/ShadeLab/microbiome_trait_succession. All relevant data used in this study are
455 included as supplementary data files, available at https://figshare.com/projects/Trait-based_succession_of_the_infant_gut_microbiome/58202.

457

458 **Author contributions**

459 JG, AS and EL conceived the study, JG developed methods, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript,

460 and all authors discussed analysis and revised the manuscript.

461

462 **Competing interests**

463 The authors declare no competing interests.

464

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619

620 **Figure 1 | OTU and family-level abundance patterns over succession.** Colors reflect successional status;
621 taxa were categorized as early/late successional if their abundances across all infants trended
622 significantly negative/positive ($p < 0.05$) over time based on linear regressions; OTUs that did not trend
623 significantly over time were grouped into the mid-successional or no-trend category. **(a) (c) (e)** Percent
624 total abundances of OTUs of each successional category over time. **(b) (d) (f)** Proportions of total
625 abundances of the top five most-abundant families in each successional group.

626

627 **Figure 2 | Abundance-weighted trait means over succession.** Filled red circles show average
628 abundance-weighted trait means of samples in that month. N is equal to the number of samples in each
629 month, and ranges from 27 to 59. Vertical red lines show 95 percent confidence intervals. Black
630 trendlines were fit using generalized additive models.

631

632 **Figure 3 | Trait-based successional patterns differ by delivery mode and antibiotic history.** Abundance-
633 weighted trait means over infant microbiome succession, grouped by infant delivery mode and
634 antibiotic history. Filled circles show average abundance-weighted trait means of samples within six-
635 month periods in each cohort of infants. N is equal to the number of samples in each six-month period;
636 there were between 25 to 31 total samples from six infants delivered by C-section who received little to
637 no antibiotics, 66 to 91 total samples from 18 infants who were treated with antibiotics for at least 50
638 days, and 72 to 93 total samples from 18 control infants that were delivered vaginally and received no
639 antibiotics. Vertical lines show 95 percent confidence intervals. Asterisks denote significance based on
640 Welch t-tests performed between each treatment group and the control group (*: adjusted $p < 0.05$; **:
641 adjusted $p < 0.01$; ***: adjusted $p < 0.001$).

642

643 **Figure 4 | Trait-based composition stabilizes earlier than taxonomic composition.** Filled circles show
644 mean pairwise compositional dissimilarities of gut microbiome samples collected from individual infants,
645 averaged within six-month periods for each infant, and then across infants. OTU-based dissimilarity was
646 calculated using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity. Trait-based dissimilarity was calculated using multidimensional
647 Euclidean distance after scaling the distributions of values for each trait to ensure equal contribution. **(a)**
648 Mean OTU-based dissimilarity between subsequent samples declines slightly over time. **(b)** Mean OTU-
649 based dissimilarity between samples and the final samples taken from each infant decreases steadily
650 throughout the sampling period until finally reaching baseline levels of between-sample dissimilarity in
651 the last six-month period, seen in **a**. **(c)** Mean trait-based dissimilarity between subsequent samples
652 appears elevated in the first year, but does not differ significantly from null model predictions that
653 assumed trait-agnostic turnover. **(d)** Mean trait-based dissimilarity between samples and the final
654 samples taken from each infant decreases rapidly and approaches baseline-levels of between-sample
655 dissimilarity within the first year, seen in **c**. Moreover, trait-based community composition converges
656 towards that of the final sample significantly faster than null model expectations, illustrating the non-
657 random nature of community turnover over succession. In all panels, N equals 56, the number of
658 infants. Vertical lines show 95 percent confidence intervals. Asterisks denote significance between
659 observed and null model predictions based on Welch t-tests (*: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$).
660

661 **Figure 5 | Infants' microbiomes converge compositionally over time.** Filled circles show mean
662 compositional dissimilarities of gut microbiomes across infants within each six-month periods. Mean
663 dissimilarities were calculated by first taking the mean dissimilarity of all sample pairs, except those
664 from the same infant, in each of the first 36 months of development (for these means, N ranges from 88
665 to 3410), and then taking their means within each six month period; hence, for each circle, N equals 6.
666 OTU-based dissimilarity was calculated using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity. Trait-based dissimilarity was

667 calculated using multidimensional Euclidean distance after scaling the distributions of values for each
668 trait to ensure equal contribution. **(a)** OTU-based dissimilarity among infants decreased slightly over
669 time, indicating a modest convergence in taxonomic composition. **(b)** Trait-based dissimilarity among
670 infants fell quickly over the first 18 months and then remained relatively static thereafter, indicating
671 rapid convergence in trait-based composition during early succession. The magnitude of trait-based
672 compositional convergence across infants was significantly greater than predicted by a null model
673 assuming trait-agnostic turnover. Vertical lines show 95 percent confidence intervals. Asterisks denote
674 significance between observed and null model predictions based on Welch t-tests (*: $p < 0.05$; **: $p <$
675 0.01 ; ***: $p < 0.001$).

676

Trait	Description / Units	Sources
Aggregation score	0 (never) to 1 (observed aggregation)	BacDive ²⁵ ; IJSEM ²⁶
B vitamins	No. B-vitamin pathways in genome	Ref. 60
16S gene copies	No. in 16S rRNA gene copies in genome	rrnDB ⁶⁸
GC content	Percent guanine and cytosine in genome	IJSEM ²⁶ ; NCBI ⁶⁹
Gene number	No. genes in genome	NCBI ⁶⁹
Genome size	Genome size in megabases	NCBI ⁶⁹
Gram-positive	0 (Gram-negative) to 1 (Gram-positive)	BacDive ²⁵ ; GOLD ⁷⁰ ; IJSEM ²⁶
IgA binding affinity	log ([IgA+]/[IgA-] + 1)	Ref. 62
Length	log (μm)	BacDive ²⁵ ; GOLD ⁷⁰ ; IJSEM ²⁶
Motility	0 (never motile) to 1 (always motile)	BacDive ²⁵ ; GOLD ⁷⁰ ; IJSEM ²⁶
Oxygen tolerance	0 (obligate anaerobe) to 5 (obligate aerobe)	BacDive ²⁵ ; GOLD ⁷⁰ ; IJSEM ²⁶
pH optimum	pH	GOLD ⁷⁰ ; IJSEM ²⁶
Salt optimum	g per l	IJSEM ²⁶
Sporulation score	0 (never sporulates) to 1 (sporulates easily)	BacDive ²⁵ ; GOLD ⁷⁰ ; IJSEM ²⁶ ; ref. 24
Temperature optimum	°C	IJSEM ²⁶
Width	log (μm)	BacDive; GOLD ⁷⁰ ; IJSEM ²⁶

Table 1 | Sources of trait data gathered in this study. IgA: Immunoglobulin A; BacDive: Bacterial Diversity Metadatabase. IJSEM: International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology. GOLD: Genomes OnLine Database: Joint Genome Institute; NCBI: National Center for Biotechnology Information; rrnDB: the ribosomal RNA operon copy number database.

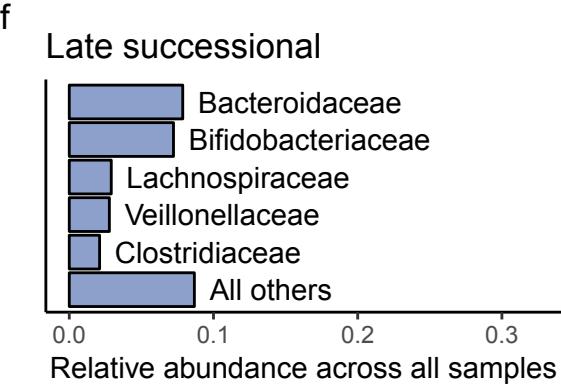
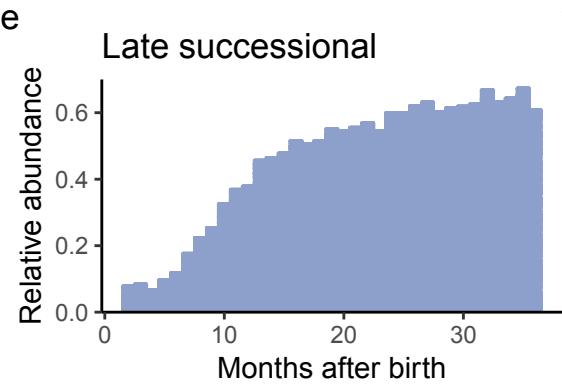
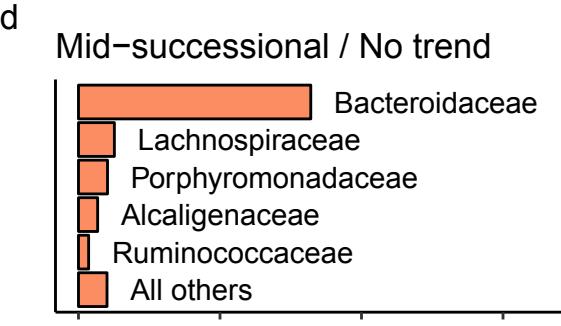
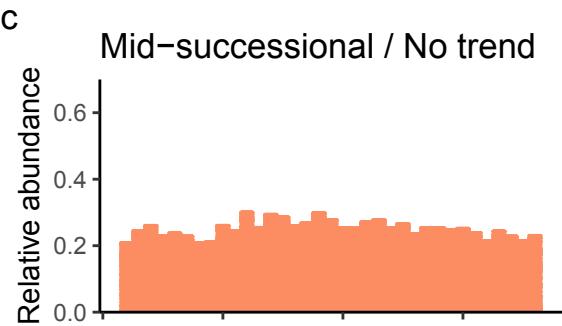
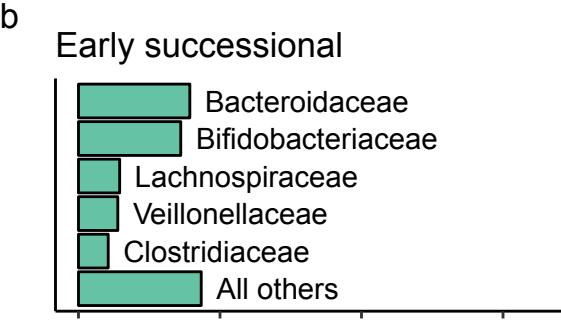
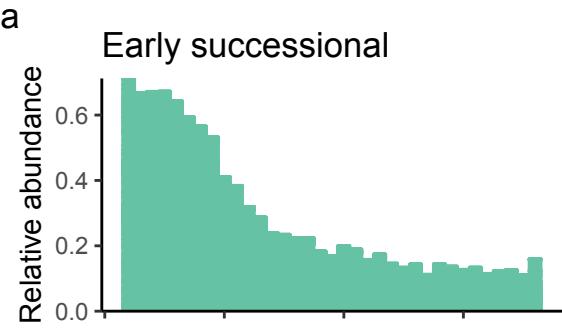
Trait	Max. distance
Aggregation score	0.00
B vitamins	0.06
16S gene copies	0.05
GC content	0.12
Gene number	0.08
Genome size	0.09
Gram-positive	0.10
IgA binding affinity	0.00
Length	0.12
Motility	0.08
Oxygen tolerance	0.11
pH optimum	0.00
Salt optimum	0.00
Sporulation score	0.06
Temperature optimum	0.14
Width	0.12

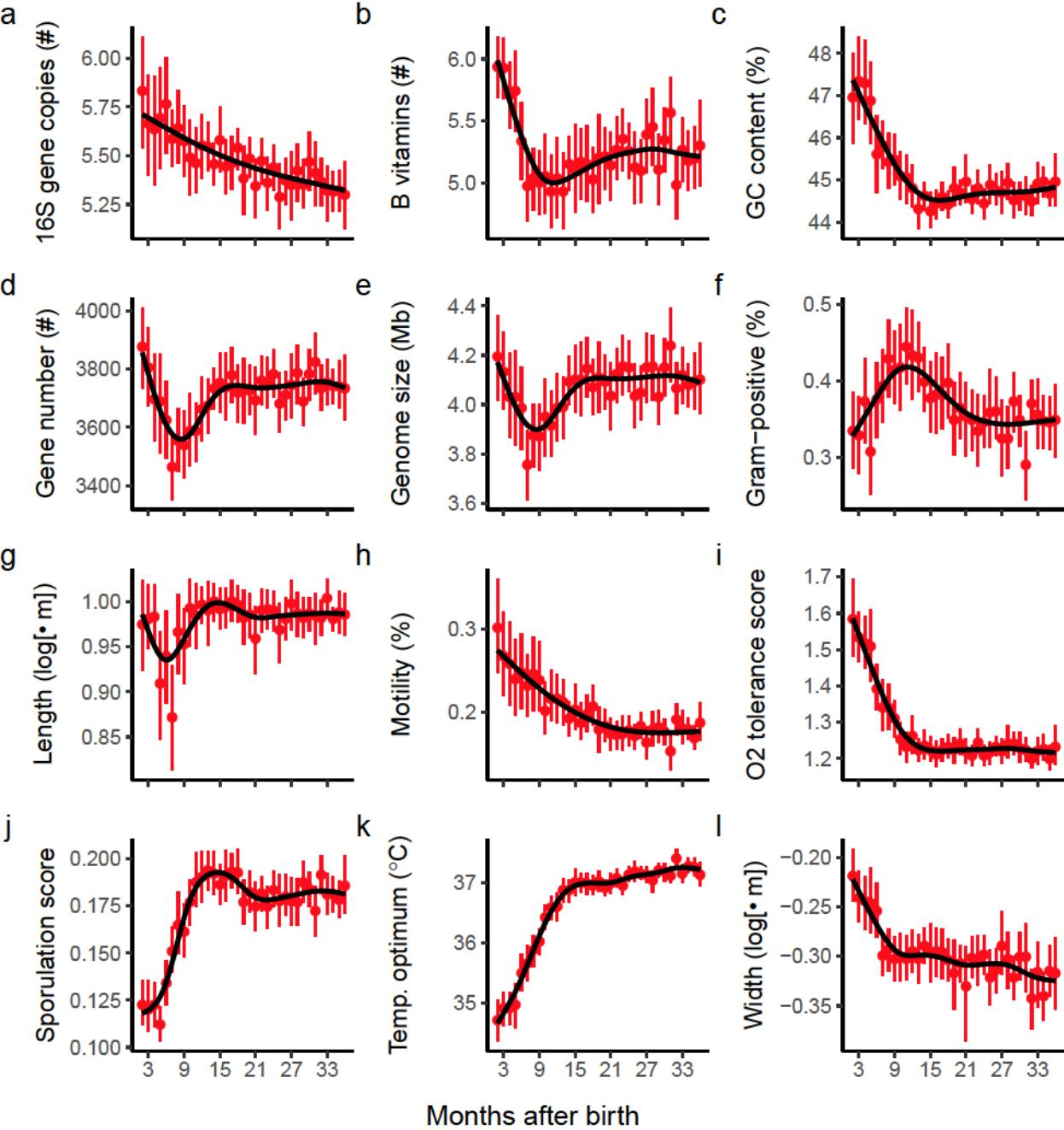
Table 2 | Maximum phylogenetic distances used to infer trait values.

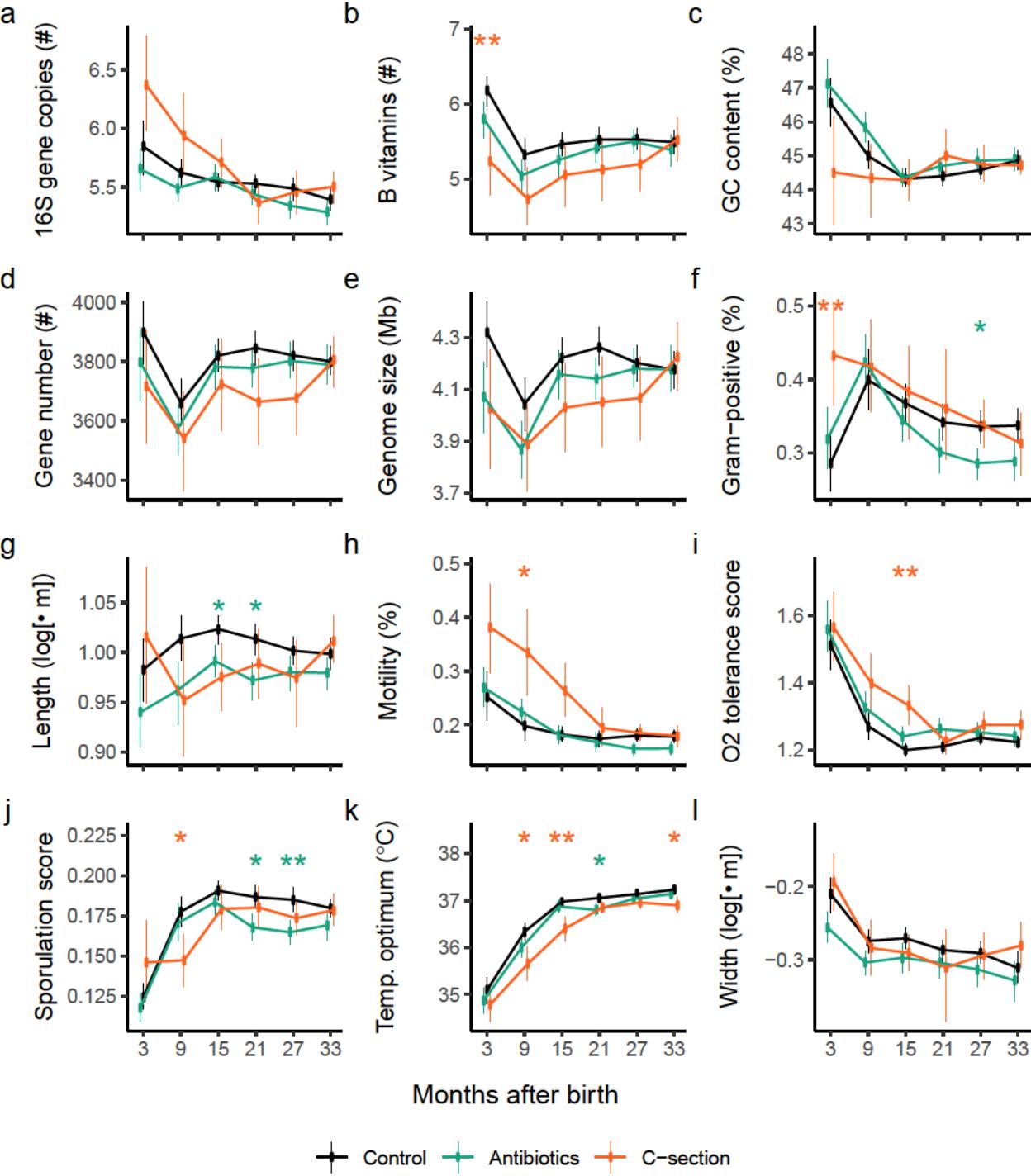
Percent sequence dissimilarities (i.e., phylogenetic distances) in the 16S rRNA V4 region at which statistical support for trait conservatism disappears for each trait (see Methods and Supplementary Figure 9).

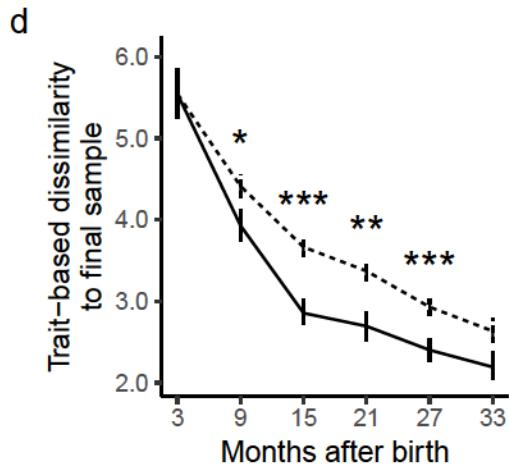
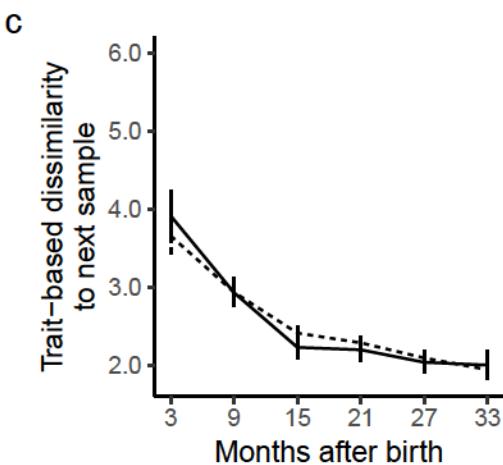
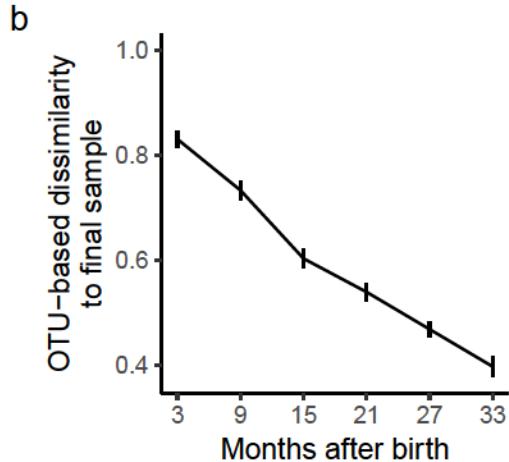
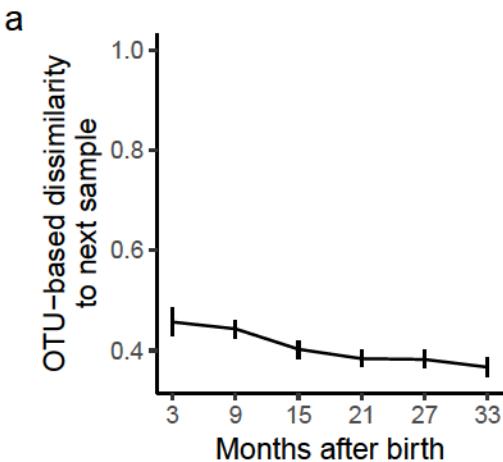
678

679

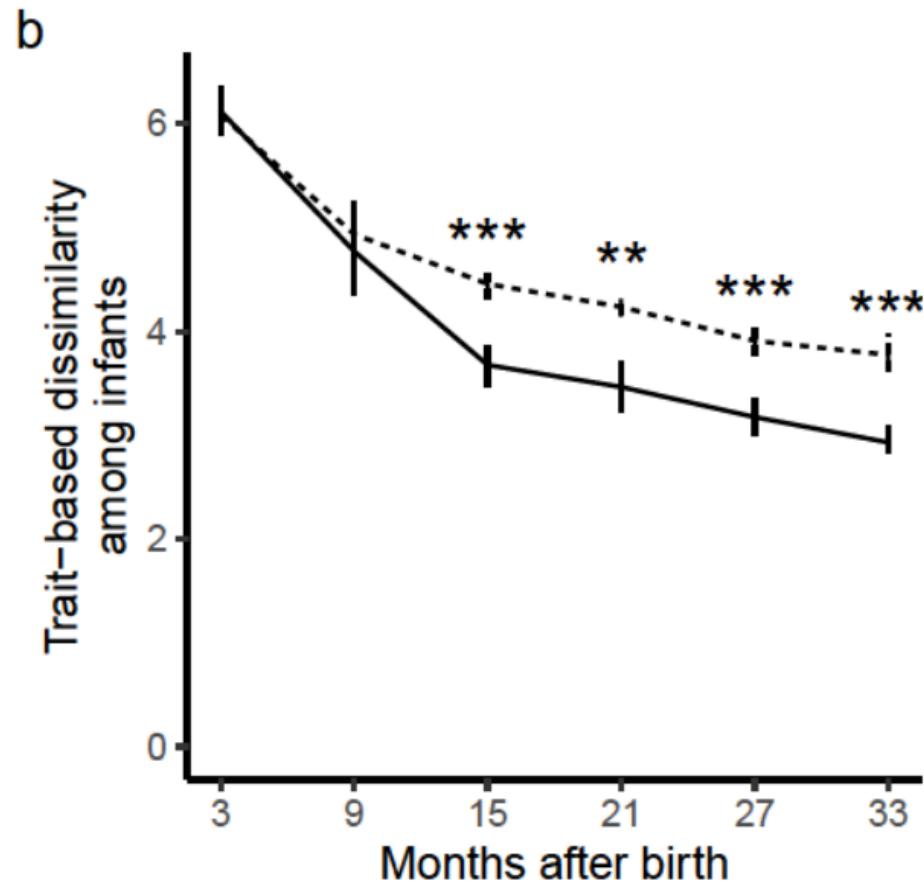
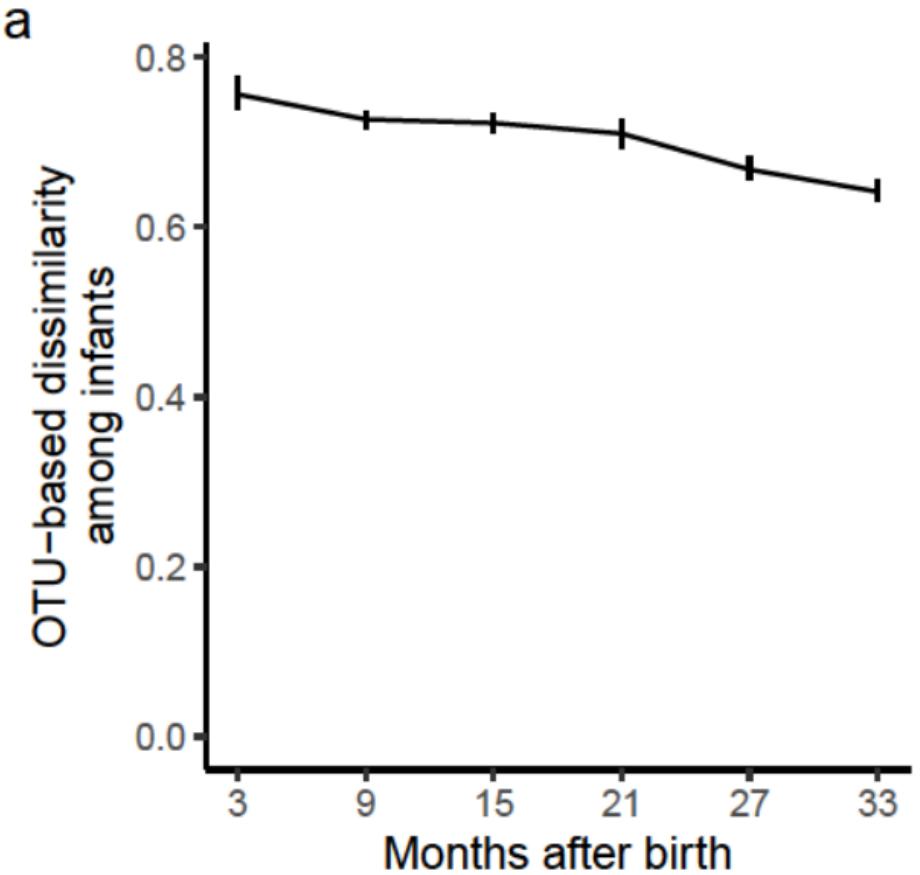








⊕ Observed -·- Null model



+

Observed

-·-

Null model

Description of Additional Supplementary Files

File name: Supplementary Data 1

Description: **Relative abundances of OTUs in infant microbiome samples.** Raw 16S rRNA V4 amplicon sequencing data from infant gut microbiome samples were processed using a USEARCH pipeline and clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at 97 percent similarity. Samples with fewer than 5000 initial sequences were excluded, and the remaining samples were rarefied to 5000 sequences, resulting in a drop from 3311 to 2416 OTUs. The 'subject' column can be used with Supplementary Data 2 to find associated subject metadata (e.g., delivery method, antibiotic treatment history), and the 't' column refers to the month of sampling. Available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.7499498>.

File name: Supplementary Data 2

Description: **Infant metadata.** Information for each infant subject includes (1) the approximate total number of days of antibiotic treatment, assuming the duration of any given antibiotic treatment was seven days unless otherwise noted, (2) the country of origin, (3) the mode of delivery, (4) the treatment group assignment used in this study, and (5) references to the prior studies from which the metadata were drawn. Available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.7499525>. Additional subject metadata is available in Kostic et al. 2016 (ref. 27 in the main text) and Yassour et al. 2016 (ref. 28 in the main text).

File name: Supplementary Data 3

Description: **SILVA-based taxonomic identities of infant microbiome OTUs.** Representative sequences of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) from infant microbiome samples were mapped to the SILVA v123 database using USEARCH version 10.0.240 to assign potential taxonomic identities. Data include all 3311 OTUs identified in our pipeline, before any were dropped due to rarefying. Available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.7500422>.

File name: Supplementary Data 4

Description: **Phylogenetic tree of OTUs from this study and the Living Tree Project.** A phylogenetic tree in Newick format with tips for the 3,311 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) identified in the infant gut microbiome samples from this study identified using a USEARCH pipeline, and the 13,900 OTUs from the 132 release of the Living Tree Project. The topology of the tree reflects percent sequence similarity among taxa in the 16S rRNA V4 region (refer to Methods). Available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.7500563>.

File name: Supplementary Data 5

Description: **Trait data mined from literature and online data repositories.** Trait data derived from the sources listed in Table 1 with Latin binomials that matched either those from the SILVA-based taxonomic identifications of OTUs found in infant gut microbiome samples, or from type specimens in the 132 release of the Living Tree Project. When observations existed for the same taxon across more than one data source, means were used. Available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.7501001>.

File name: Supplementary Data 6

Description: **Trait data used in our analyses.** Data included trait values that could be directly associated to taxa in our study based on matching Latin binomials, and trait value estimates based on hidden state prediction using weighted square-change parsimony (refer to Methods and Supplementary Figure 8). Because we converted all trait values to numeric (e.g., Gram-negative = 0 and Gram-positive = 1), state predictions for initially discrete traits were allowed to be fractional (e.g., a Gram-positive score of 0.5), reflecting their probabilistic uncertainty. Available at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.7501121>.